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Raphe Pallidus is Not Important to Central Chemoreception in a Rat Model of Parkinson's Disease

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Abstract—Central chemoreceptors are primarily sensitive to changes in CO₂/H⁺, and such changes lead to 8 intense breathing activity. Medullary raphe and retrotrapezoid nucleus (RTN) neurons are candidates for central chemoreceptors because they are unusually pH sensitive. The pathophysiology of Parkinson's disease (PD) is related to the reduction of neurons in the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) that express dopamine, although other neurons can also be degenerated in this pathology. In rodent models of PD, we showed an impairment of the hypercapnia ventilatory response due to a reduction in the number of RTN chemosensitive neurons. Here, we aimed to investigate if serotonine-expressing neurons in the Raphe pallidus/parapyramidal region (RPa/PPy) are also involved in the modulation of breathing during central chemoreception activation in a PD animal model. PD was induced in male Wistar rats with bilateral injection of 6-OHDA (6-hydroxydopamine; 24 µg/µl) into the striatum, which leads to a reduction in the catecholaminergic neurons of the SNpc by 89%. In PD animals, we noticed a reduction in the number of RPa neurons that project to the RTN, without a change in the number of hypercapniaactivated (7% CO₂) raphe neurons. The PD animals that received injection of the toxin saporin anti-SERT into the RPA/PPy region did not show a further reduction of respiratory frequency (f_R) or ventilation (V_E) at rest or during hypercapnia challenge. These experiments demonstrate that serotonergic neurons of RPa/PPy are not involved in the breathing responses induced by central chemoreceptor activation in a PD animal model. © 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of IBRO.

Key words: central chemoreceptors, medullary raphe, Parkinson's disease, serotonin.

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INTRODUCTION

Central chemoreception is considered a mechanism 10 responsible for stimulating breathing by increases in 11 CO₂/H⁺. A few specialized groups of cells located 12 within the retrotrapezoid nucleus (RTN), the locus 13 coeruleus, nucleus of the solitary tract (NTS) and 14 medullary raphe as well as hypothalamic orexinergic 15 neurons are considered the primary sensors (Mulkey 16 et al., 2004; Richerson, 2004; Takakura et al., 2006; 17 Biancardi et al., 2008; Abbott et al., 2009; Dias et al., 18 2009; Nattie and Li, 2009). 19

The serotonergic raphe neurons contribute to thermoregulatory control mechanisms. In addition, these neurons are able to modulate the respiratory network, including central chemoreception activity (Morrison, 2004; Richerson, 2004; Madden and Morrison, 2006; Hodges and Richerson, 2008). Previous studies have addressed the importance of medullary raphe that includes Raphe Magnus (RMg), Raphe Obscurus (ROb) 27 and Raphe Pallidus/parapyramidal (RPa/PPy) to central 28 chemoreception (Veasey et al., 1995; Wang et al., 29 2001; Hodges and Richerson, 2008; da Silva et al., 30 2013; Hawkins et al., 2014). The involvement of RMg 31 and ROb in central chemoreception was already demon-32 strated in conscious animals (Dias et al., 2007; da Silva 33 et al., 2011; Depuy et al., 2011). However, the exact role 34 of the serotonergic RPa neurons to chemosensory control 35 of breathing remains unclear, especially under conscious 36 state conditions. 37

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a chronic and progressive 38 movement disorder, meaning that symptoms continue 39 and worsen over time. The disease is characterized 40 anatomically by significant loss of dopaminergic neurons 41 in the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) leading to 42 non-motor symptoms such as neuropsychiatric, sleep 43 and breathing disorders (Lee and Trojanowski, 2006; 44 McDowell and Chesselet, 2012). Among the respiratory 45 disorders, PD patients have been described to experience 46 an increased risk of obstructive sleep apnea relative to the 47 general population (Harmell et al., 2016; Selvaraj and 48 Keshavamurthy, 2016). Others have reported the 49

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involvement of neurodegeneration in important medullary 50 regions that control breathing and the loss of respiratory 51 function. Experiments performed in postmortem human 52 tissues and rat brains with PD showed a reduction in 53 neurokinin-1 receptor (NK1-r) expression in the pre-54 Bötzinger complex (preBötC), an important brainstem 55 region responsible for inspiratory activity (Rioux and 56 57 Jovce, 1993; Benarroch et al., 2003; Tuppy et al., 2015). In addition, in the 6-hydroxydopamine animal 58 model (6-OHDA-lesioned) of PD, a reduction of respira-59 tory frequency at rest and during hypercapnia and a 60 reduction in the number of the chemically-coded (i.e. 61 62 phox2b) neurons of the RTN was also observed (Tuppy 63 et al., 2015).

Previously, it was demonstrated that the integrity of 64 aminergic neurons could contribute to the severity of 65 motor symptoms in animal models of PD. Data from 66 human studies have shown that striatal levels of 67 serotonin were reduced in the brainstems of PD patients 68 69 (Sarrias et al., 1990), and several hypotheses have been put forward to explain and prove the role of aminergic 70 neurons in the pathogenesis of PD. Some studies have 71 already shown that those neurons degenerate as part of 72 73 the natural course of the disease in humans (Zarow 74 et al., 2003; Reed et al., 2007; Del Tredici and Braak, 75 2012a,b) but not in animal models; the degeneration 76 appears to occur through an unknown mechanism of 77 aminergic protection (Fulceri et al., 2006; Natale et al., 2010). For all of the reasons, here we addressed the 78 question if serotonergic neurons of the RPa will be 79 involved in the chemosensory control of breathing in 80 sham and an animal model of PD. 81

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EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals 83

Experiments procedures and animal handling were 84 85 conducted in 49 adult male Wistar rats (250-350 g at the time of experimentation). All experimental and 86 surgical procedures conformed to the guidelines of the 87 National Institutes of Health and were approved by the 88 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the 89 University of São Paulo (protocol number: 65/2015). 90

91 Injections of toxins into the striatum and raphe 92 pallidus

The injections of 6-OHDA (Sigma, Saint Louis, MO, USA), 93 saporin anti-SERT-SAP (Advanced Targeting Systems, 94 San Diego, CA, 10 µg/µl) or vehicle (Saline, 0.9%) were 95 96 performed while the rats were anesthetized with 97 intraperitoneal (i.p.) administration of ketamine (Davol, 98 São Paulo, SP, Brazil; 100 mg/kg) and xylazine (7 mg/ 99 kg). The rats were adapted in a stereotaxic apparatus (model 1760, David Kopf Instruments). Surgery was 100 conducted using aseptic methods. 101

For chemical lesions of the SNpc, two injections of 6-102 OHDA (24 μ g/ μ L; 0.5 μ l, bilaterally) or vehicle (1 μ g 103 ascorbic acid in $1\,\mu\text{L}$ of saline) were made into the 104 caudate putamen region (CPu) at the following 105 coordinates: (i) 0.5 mm rostral from bregma, ± 2.7 mm 106

lateral from the midline. 4.5 mm below the skull surface: 107 and (ii) 0.0 mm from bregma, 2.7 mm lateral to the 108 midline and 4.5 mm below the skull surface. The 109 injections were made using pipettes with an external tip 110 coupled to a Hamilton syringe (10 µl). 111

For chemical lesions of the serotonin-expressing 112 neurons of the raphe pallidus (RPa), one injection of 113 saporin anti-SERT-SAP (10 ug/ul) or saline was made 114 using the following coordinates: 2.3 mm caudal from 115 lambda, 0 mm from the midline and 8.8 mm below the 116 skull surface. The treatments were pressure injected 117 (Picospritzer III, Parker Hannifin) (30 nl over 3 s) 118 through single-barrel glass pipettes (20 µm tip diameter). 119

After all surgeries, the animals received an injection of 120 the antibiotic ampicillin (100 mg/kg, intramuscularly, i.m.) 121 and the analgesic ketorolac (0.6 mg/kg, subcutaneously, 122 s.c.). The toxin did not produce observable behavioral 123 effects. 124

Physiological experiments

Breathing variables of conscious rats were measured by 126 whole-body plethysmography method (EMKA 127 Technologies) as previously described (Malheiros-Lima 128 et al., 2017). The plethysmography chamber was contin-129 uously flushed with 1.5 L/min of 21% O₂ balanced with 130 N₂ regulated by computer-driven mass flow controllers 131 for gases (Alicat Scientific, Inc., Tucson, AZ, USA). Ambi-132 ent temperature and humidified were also kept constant 133 (23-25 °C ambient room temperature, 60-70% relative 134 humidity, ± 0.5 °C; $\pm 5\%$ relative humidity). The flow con-135 trollers were adjusted to 21% O2 balanced with N2 in nor-136 moxia and to 7% CO2, 21% O2 and 72% N2 in 137 hypercapnia. 138

Rectal temperature was used as a core body 139 temperature index and was measured twice: before and 140 at the end of the experiments. The calibration for 141 volume was obtained by waveforms generated during 142 each experiment by injecting the animal chamber with 143 20 ml of dry air, as calculated using Spike software 144 version 7.3 (Cambridge Electronics). The ventilatory 145 parameters measured by the plethysmography system 146 were tidal volume (V_T , ml/kg of body weight; area under 147 the curve during the inspiratory period), respiratory 148 frequency ($f_{\rm R}$, breaths/min), minute ventilation ($V_{\rm E}$, ml/ min/kg of body weight), inspiratory time (ms), and expiratory time (ms). Ventilation was calculated as the product of $f_{\rm R}$ and $V_{\rm T}$ ($V_{\rm E} = f_{\rm R} \times V_{\rm T}$, ml/min/kg of body weight).

Hypercapnia-activated neurons

Another group of PD rats was exposed for 3 h to 155 normoxia/normocapnia or hypercapnia breathing mixture 156 $(7\% CO_2, 21\% O_2, balanced with N_2)$ 40 or 60 days 157 after PD induction as previously described (Silva et al., 158 2016a: Totola et al., 2016: Oliveira et al., 2017), After 159 exposure to hypercapnia, the animals were anesthetized 160 with sodium pentobarbital (60 mg/kg, i.p) and perfusionfixed.

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