

**Regulation of small-conductance, calcium-
activated potassium channels (SK) in mouse brain
in response to aging and stress**

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For my grandparents

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Chapter 1

General Introduction

1. Hippocampus and learning and memory

Anatomically the hippocampus is composed of four regions, CA1, CA2 and CA3 pyramidal cell regions and the dentate gyrus and clearly plays a role in both navigation and memory processing (Sweatt, 2003). The hippocampal system is learning what the situation is, forming declarative or episodic memories about the events and their relationships in the context of the organism's ongoing experience (Eichenbaum, 1999). This assumption is based on experiments, which report that hippocampal principal neurons-'place cells'-exhibit location-specific firing (Winson et al., 1978). There is further evidence that hippocampal neurons are required for multi-modal sensory integration (Shapiro et al., 1997; Tanila et al., 1997). The hippocampus is also crucial for trace conditioning, a procedure where a period of no stimuli intervenes between the conditioned stimulus and the unconditioned stimulus (Mehta et al., 1997; Quirk et al., 2001). In support of this hypothesis, animals with hippocampal lesion have problems to associate two different episodes separated in time (Squire et al., 1991; Clark et al., 1998; Hueta et al., 2000).

2. SK channels and afterhyperpolarization (AHP)

2.1 Small-conductance calcium-activated potassium channels

Small conductance calcium-activated potassium channels play an important role in excitable cells. They are potassium selective, voltage independent and activated by intracellular calcium as seen during an action potential. As the action potential decays, the membrane potential repolarizes, and the internal calcium level rises, inducing an afterhyperpolarization (AHP). The initial faster phase is due to the activation of large-

conductance voltage- and calcium-activated potassium channels (BK), while the slower phase is due to the activation of SK channels, which are gated by intracellular calcium ions (Bond et al., 1999).

As SK channels activate, they extrude potassium ions from the cell, moving the membrane potential to more negative potentials. SK channels generate a slow afterhyperpolarization (sAHP), with a time course that reflects the decay of intracellular calcium (Blatz and Magleby, 1986; Sah et al., 1996). The membrane hyperpolarization caused by SK channels inhibits further cell firing even in response to incoming depolarizing signals. This so-called spike-frequency adaptation or accommodation protects the cell against the deleterious effects of continuous tetanic activity and is essential for neurotransmission (Sah et al., 1996; Madison et al., 1984; Lancaster et al., 1986; Hille et al., 1992).

Two kinds of sAHPs are reported based on their time course and pharmacology. Apamin-sensitive sAHPs are observed in hippocampal interneurons (Zhang et al., 1995) and rat adrenal chromaffin cells (Park, 1994). Apamin-insensitive AHPs are documented in the hippocampal neurons, where apamin does not have any effect on sAHPs (Sah et al., 1996; Lancaster et al., 1986).

2.2 Regulation of slow AHPs by neurotransmitters

Many neurotransmitters modulate the currents underlying sAHPs (Nicoll et al., 1988), which in turn affects neuronal excitability (Gorelova et al., 1996). Noradrenaline, dopamine, serotonin, histamine, acetylcholine (via muscarinic receptors), glutamine (via metabotropic receptors), and some neuropeptides (i.e. VIP, CRF) suppress the apamin-insensitive sAHP (Haug et al., 2000). As a consequence, neuronal excitability is enhanced, spike frequency adaptation is strongly decreased, and the number of action potentials evoked by a certain depolarizing stimulus is increased. In contrast, adenosine can decrease neuronal excitability by increasing the apamin-insensitive sAHP (Strom, 1990). Modulatory neurotransmitter systems can control the functional state of the brain by regulating the level of excitability in neurons.

2.3 Kinetics of sAHPs

Apamin-sensitive sAHPs have faster kinetics than apamin-insensitive sAHPs. In some cells, such as in hippocampal interneurons, the apamin-sensitive sAHP is maximal following an action potential and decays with a half-time in the order of hundreds of milliseconds (Zhang et al., 1995). Apamin-insensitive sAHPs as seen in hippocampal pyramidal neurons, rise and decay over several seconds (Sah et al., 1996; Lancaster et al., 1986). A faster apamin-sensitive AHP is referred to the medium AHP (mAHP). Only the sAHP is modulated by neurotransmitter-induced second-messengers, whereas the mAHP is not known to be modulated by second-messenger cascades (Bond et al., 1999).

2.4 Genes encoding SK channels

Three genes encoding SK channels have been cloned from the mammalian brain (Kohler et al., 1996). Although the SK channel amino acid sequences are very different from other potassium channels, they show high degrees of homology among each other (Kohler et al., 1996). Recent studies have reported that calcium ions do not bind SK channels directly, but modulate gating of SK channels via binding to calmodulin (Maylie et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2003; Sailor et al., 2002; Schumacher et al., 2001). All three SK channels show similar calcium sensitivity. Elevated intracellular calcium concentrations increase the relative contribution of long open times and short closures of the channels, and changing membrane voltage alters none of the open or closed states (Maylie et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2003; Bond et al., 1999).

The cloned SK channels reflect the pharmacological variation of AHPs. SK1, which is known as apamin-insensitive, is expressed in regions that have apamin-insensitive sAHPs, such as hippocampal pyramidal neurons. The distribution of regions that express mRNA coding for SK2 and SK3 shows similar pattern to the areas, where apamin-sensitive sAHPs have been recorded (Stocker et al., 2000; Kohler et al., 1996; Mourre et al., 1984, 1986).

3. HPA axis and learning

3.1 HPA axis

It is already known that the hormones of the hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis influence learning and memory process in situations of acute or chronic stress. Animals react in multiple ways to physical or psychological stress. A first rapid reaction is activation of autonomous nervous system (ANS) leading to enhanced catecholamine activity. Adrenalin (epinephrine) and noradrenalin (norepinephrine) from the adrenal medulla produce the typical stress symptoms such as increased heart rate and sweat gland activation. A second, slower response is activation of hypothalamus-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis. Corticotrophin-releasing hormone (CRH) from the hypothalamus reaches the pituitary, which secretes adrenocorticotrophin (ACTH). ACTH, in turn, stimulates the adrenal cortex to secrete glucocorticoids (GCs, corticosterone in rodents, cortisol in human). Glucocorticoids are lipophilic hormones and can easily pass the blood-brain barrier, where they influence multiple regions of the brain. The effects of GCs are mediated via their specific intracellular receptors or via the interaction of the hormone with neurotransmitter receptors on the cell surface (de Kloet et al., 1998).

Glucocorticoid receptors have been found in several areas of the brain, which are relevant to cognition such as the hippocampus, the amygdala and the prefrontal cortex (Bizon et al., 2001; Silvestrini et al., 2003; Reincke et al., 1998). It has been reported that the hippocampus plays an important role for spatial learning and declarative memory (Eichenbaum et al., 1999; Squire et al., 1992). The amygdala is critical for emotional memory, (LeDoux et al., 2000) and the prefrontal cortex is important for working memory (McGaugh et al., 2002; Baddeley et al., 2001).

3.2 HPA axis, stress and aging

The stress-induced secretion of GCs has multiple acute effects in the central nervous system (CNS). Most of the effects in the CNS are mediated via interaction with the two specific intracellular receptors. One is mineralocorticoid receptor (MR or type I receptor), which has high affinity for corticosteroid. The other is glucocorticoid receptor (GR, or type II), which has much lower affinity for corticosteroid (for review, see de

Kloet, 2003). Because they show quite different binding affinities for corticosteroid, we can easily assume that most of the MR is occupied under basal conditions. GRs can only be activated by high level of GCs as found under stress (de Kloet et al., 1998). Electrophysiological studies have revealed that high levels of GCs reduce neuronal excitability (Joel et al., 2001) and impair synaptic plasticity via a GR-mediated mechanism (Diamond et al., 1992, Pavlides et al., 1996). Acute stress inhibits neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus (Gould et al., 1998) and modulates synaptic spine density in the CA1 region (Shors et al., 2001). The effects of stress are not limited to the hippocampus. In the prefrontal cortex, stress enhances dopaminergic activity (Arnsten et al., 1998) and increases extracellular glutamate levels (Moghaddam et al., 2002).

In some cases like fear conditioning, acute stress has positive effects and improves learning (de Kloet et al., 1998, 1999). It is interesting to note that this learning improvement is associated with increased secretion of corticosterone (Cordero et al., 1998; Sandi et al., 1997; McGaugh et al., 2002; Oitzl et al., 2001)

On the other hand, acute stress impairs spatial learning and memory. If the animals are placed in a stressful condition between the learning paradigm and the subsequent recall, they showed impairment in the hippocampus-mediated spatial memory (Diamonds et al., 1992, 1996; de Quervain et al., 1998). In contrast, stress before the initial learning session seems to have very little or no effect on spatial memory. Thus, the memory enhancing or impairing effects of stress are dependent on the forms of conditioning and on the learning paradigm.

It is important to mention, that most of the studies investigating stress and learning and memory have been performed with young, male animals. Indeed, those studies looking at sex differences found a striking diversity. It has been reported that stress enhances conditioning of male rats, while it impairs it in female rats (Wood and Shors, 1998; Shors et al., 1998). It is also surprising that the learning ability seems to be quite dependent on the level of estrogen, but it does not show a high relationship to the level of corticosterone in female animals (Wood et al., 2001). In addition to sex differences, age also influences the response to acute stress or GC treatment. Aging goes with increases in basal cortisol or corticosterone levels and decreases in HPA axis sensitivity (Seeman et al., 1994; van Cauter et al., 1996; Wolf et al., 2002). This

phenomenon is accompanied by impaired spatial or declarative memory and hippocampal atrophy (Issa et al., 1990; Landfield et al., 1978). Studies in rodents show that preventing the age-associated changes of HPA axis reduced age-related memory impairment (Landfield et al., 1981; Meaney et al., 1991).

4. Regulation of gene transcription by steroid receptors

4.1 Genomic action of steroids

Steroid hormones play important roles in the regulation of gene expression in higher eukaryotes. When they enter the target cell, steroid hormones can bind to their specific receptors with high affinity. Hormone receptors can regulate transcription as co-factors, when they are activated by their ligands, hormones. Activated steroid receptors can bind their cis-acting elements directly, regulate their transcription initiation or can even affect alternative splicing of mRNA (Auboeuf et al., 2002; McKenna et al., 1999, 2002). Short DNA elements, which bind steroid receptors, are called 'steroid response elements' (SREs).

4.2 Structure of steroid receptors

Reported steroid receptors consist of three domains, a variable N-terminal region, a highly conserved central region known as a DNA binding domain and a moderately conserved C-terminal region. The central DNA region has two 'Zn-finger' domains that play an important role in binding DNA. In many steroid receptors, the ligand-binding domain has been localized in the C-terminal region (Carson-Jurica et al., 1990; Conneely et al., 1988). The N-terminal region plays an important role in the differential initiation of target promoters (Kumar et al., 1986; Hollenberg et al., 1987; Rusconi et al., 1987; Tsai et al., 1991; Carson et al., 1987).

4.3 Mechanism of steroid hormone regulation of target genes

When steroid hormones enter the target cell, they interact with 8-10S receptor complexes. The 8-10 S complex is composed of the receptor and other proteins such as hsp90, hsp70 and several other proteins (Bagchi et al., 1991; Schowalter et al., 1991). 8-10S receptor complexes cannot bind steroid receptor elements, so they are functionally

inert. Binding of the steroid hormone makes 8-10S receptor complexes active and these activated receptor complexes dimerize to form 4-5S complexes. The receptor dimer is functional, thus it is able to bind to SREs. The receptor-DNA complex can trigger the formation of a stable pre-initiation complex with RNA polymerase II and other transcription factors such as TFIIA, TFIIB, TFIID and TFIIE/F and start RNA synthesis (Tsai et al., 1991; Joab et al., 1984; Sanchez et al., 1985; Schuh et al., 1985; Catelli et al., 1985; Estes et al., 1987, Kost et al., 1989).

Several SREs were reported. A comparison of available sequences indicates that there is a short 13-15 nucleotides consensus sequence for most of the steroid receptor response elements (SREs). This suggests that target genes for receptors have conserved response elements, just as the receptors have conserved DNA binding domains. There are only minor differences among glucocorticoid response elements (GREs), estrogen response elements (EREs) and thyroid response elements (TREs). Most of the glucocorticoid response elements, which bind to the glucocorticoid receptors, can also bind mineralocorticoid, progesterone, and androgen receptors (Tsai et al., 1989; Tsai and O'Malley, 1991). TREs can confer retinoic acid receptor responsiveness (Beato et al., 1996).

4.4 Role of steroid hormone receptors in target gene transcription

Steroid hormone regulated cellular promoters are complex and require multiple protein co-factors. It is quite likely that the steroid receptor interacts with a number of core promoter-binding factors, such as RNA polymerase II, TFIID, TFIIA, TFIIB and TFIIE/F, to regulate initiation of transcription (for Review, see Tsai and O'Malley, 1991). For example, in the case of the progesterone receptor (PR), the receptor is essential for the assembly of such a stable transcription complex. The PR seems to act similar to other regulatory proteins in enhancing the recognition of the promoter by other factors in the transcriptional machinery (Leonhardt et al., 2003).

4.5 The role of steroid hormones in receptor function

It is known that the steroid receptors can only bind to their target SREs after hormone treatment. However, several studies have demonstrated that 'purified' receptors

can also bind to their SREs in a hormone-independent manner (Geisse et al., 1982; Karin et al., 1984; Slater et al., 1985). It is conceivable that the steroid hormone is required to free the receptor from an inhibitor protein but that it does not participate in the actual DNA-binding process. It is reported that the steroid hormone has only little effect on the kinetics and affinity of receptor binding to DNA (Rodriguez et al., 1989; Schauer et al., 1989). For example, even purified PR is able to activate GRE/PRE dependent transcription in the absence of progesterone. In this case, it is believed that ligand binding may be only required for the early phase of activation when hsp90 or other associated proteins dissociate (Klein-Hitpass et al., 1990).

There is also the possibility of post-translational modification, which is responsible for the stimulation of transcription such as phosphorylation or dephosphorylation (Kuiper et al., 1994).

4.6 Synergistic interaction of steroid response elements

In the 5'-flanking regions of hormone responsive genes there are often multiple SREs detectable. When in this case a single SRE is mutated or deleted, the entire level of expression is changed. This suggests, that SREs act synergistically to control the level of expression of a hormone-responsive gene (Tsai et al., 1989). It is also reported that a GRE/PRE can co-operate with an ERE to induce a high level of promoter activity. However, binding studies indicate that estrogen and progesterone receptors do not bind in a co-operative manner, suggesting that additional other mechanisms exist (Tsai et al., 1991).

5. Nuclear Factor - kappaB

5.1 Regulation of NF-kappaB

It has recently been reported that activation of transcription factor nuclear factor kappaB (NF-kappaB) is associated with neuronal plasticity and anti-apoptotic effects in several cultured neurons. The NF-kappaB complex is composed of three subunits: p50, p65 and the inhibitory subunit IkappaB (I κ B). However, since NF-kappaB has first been identified (Sen and Baltimore, 1986), many other binding subunits, which are differently

expressed depending on cell types, developmental stages and environmental factors have been reported (for review, see Mattson et al., 2000; Verma et al., 1996).

The main molecular event, which activates NF-kappaB is phosphorylation of Ikb. Ikb proteins bind NF-kappaB p50/p65 complexes in the cytosol and block their activation. Phosphorylation of Ikb dissociates Ikb from the p50/p65 complex. Subsequently, activated p50/p65 complexes can enter the nucleus and function as a transcription factor (Fig. 1). It has been reported that Ikb is phosphorylated by Ikb kinase (IKK). IKK is phosphorylated by several kinases such as NF-kappaB-inducing kinase (NIK, Malinin et al., 1997) and mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase-1 (Lee et al., 1998).

Many factors such as cytokines, neurotrophic factors, and neurotransmitters can activate NF-kappaB. (Cheng et al., 1994; Barger et al., 1995; Carter et al., 1996) Activation of glutamate receptors and membrane depolarization was shown to activate NF-kappaB in hippocampal neurons and cerebellar granule neurons. (Guerrini et al., 1995; Kaltschmidt et al., 1995)

Besides many other genes manganese superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) was one of the first reported as a potential target of NF-kappaB (Wong et al., 1989; Mattson et al., 1997). MnSOD is a mitochondrial antioxidant enzyme that protects cells from apoptosis. Other genes, which are induced by NF-kappaB, are tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha), interleukins 2,3,6 and 8, Ikb-alpha, cyclooxygenase-2 and transglutaminase and NF-kappaB inhibitor Ikb. They are expressed in several kinds of cells and many of them are related to apoptosis, which is induced in response to brain injury or stress insults (for review, see Mattson et al., 2000).

NF-kappaB is also essential for the development of the nervous system. The NF-kappaB homologue 'dorsal' from drosophila plays a role in the establishment of dorsoventral polarity in the developing embryo (Hoch and Jackle, 1993). Levels of NF-kappaB activity change during development of the nervous system. Especially during the early postnatal period when synaptogenesis is actively going on NF-kappaB shows very high expression levels in the rat cerebellum (Kaltschmidt et al., 1995).

5.2 Function of NF-kappaB

Because increased NF-kappaB activity is observed in neurons following seizure and ischemia, NF-kappaB has initially been regarded as apoptosis inducers (Prasade et al., 1994; Grilli et al., 1996; Salminen et al., 1995; Clemens et al., 1997). But recently new interpretations about the function of NF-kappaB have emerged. A lot of reports could demonstrate that NF-kappaB has rather anti-apoptotic function instead of damaging the cells (Goodman and Mattson, 1996; Tamatani, et al., 1999). It has been reported that tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF) can activate NF-kappaB, which protects cultured hippocampal neurons from excitotoxic and apoptotic processes as seen during exposure to glutamate, glucose deprivation and amyloid-beta peptide toxicity (Cheng et al., 1994; Barger et al., 1995; Mattson et al., 1997)

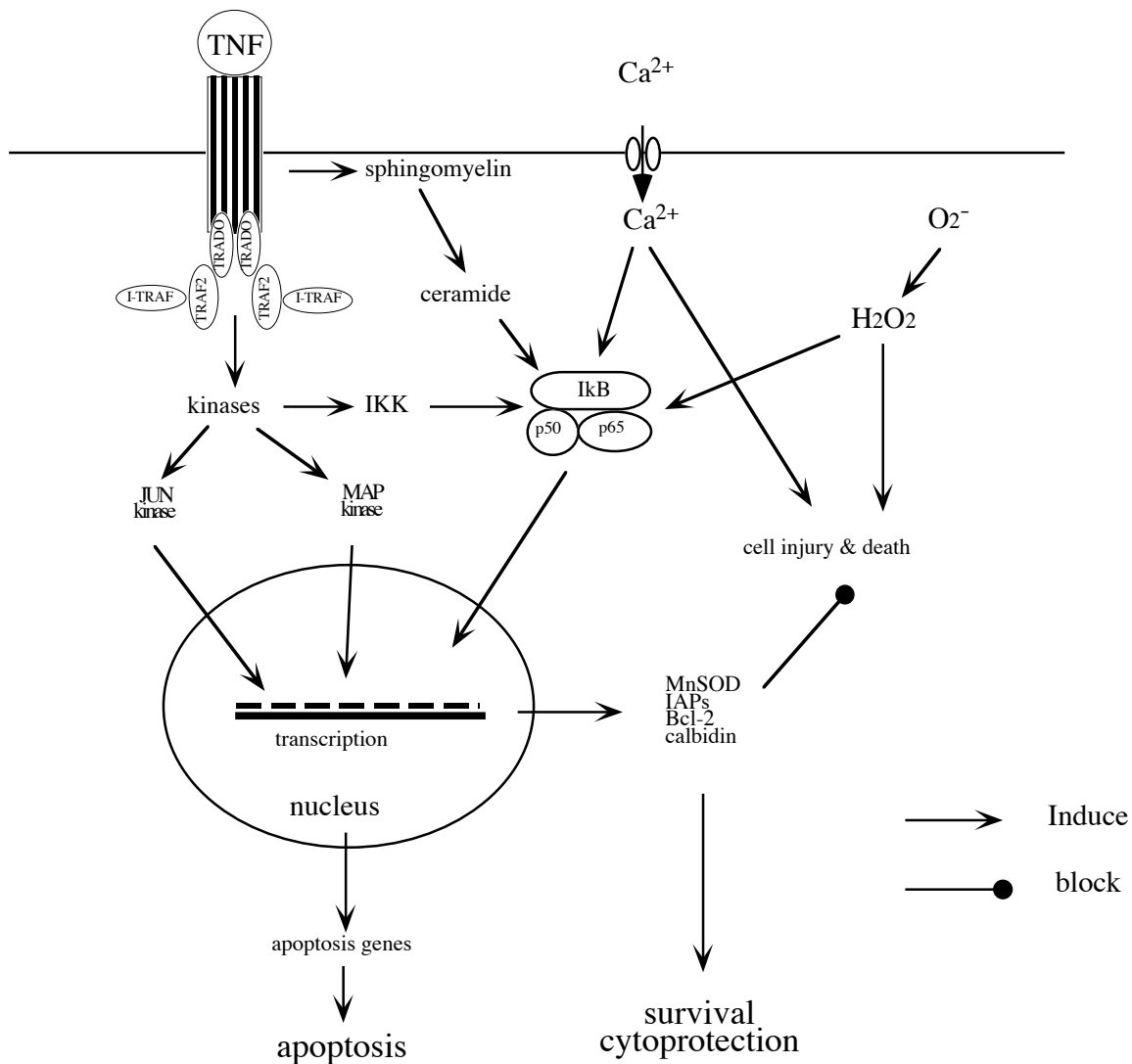


Fig.1 Mechanism of regulation of NF-kappaB activity. Inactivated NF-kappaB complexes are in the cytosol, several factors such as Ca²⁺, kinases, ceramide and H₂O₂ activate them as cellular signals. Activated NF-kappaB complexes enter the nucleus and trigger transcription of specific genes, which induce apoptosis or protect cells from cellular damages. Modified from Mattson et al., 2000.

5.3 Interaction of NF-kappaB and glucocorticoid receptors

It has been well described that there is a negative interaction between glucocorticoid receptors and NF-kappaB. Many cases have been reported that activated GR can antagonize the activity of NF-kappaB by direct and indirect mechanisms. First of all, glucocorticoids induce the expression of IκB, which is known as an endogenous and specific NF-kappaB inhibitor (Auphan et al., 1995; Scheinman et al., 1995). In the second case, hormone-activated GR-GRE binding can spatially mask the DNA binding sites of

other basal and induced transcription factors (Ray and Sehgal, 1992; Akerblom et al., 1988; Mordacq and Linzer, 1989). Furthermore, activated GR can bind NF-kappaB directly and as a result reduce its DNA binding capacity (de Bosscher et al., 1997; Nissen and Yamamoto, 2000). Another possibility is that activated-GR competes with NF-kappaB for nuclear co-activators, which are crucial for transcription (Zhang et al., 1997). In any case, activated GRs negatively regulate NF-kappaB activity.

6. Impact of aging on learning

6.1 Anatomical and physiological changes in aged animals

Although aging is not related to neuropathological diseases like Alzheimer's disease, it is known that normal aging is also associated with a mild impairment of memory (Droscoll et al., 2003; Schumacher et al., 2003) But interestingly, most of the basic cellular characteristics of hippocampal cells such as the resting membrane potential, amplitude and duration of Na⁺ -mediated action potentials, amplitude of Ca²⁺ -mediated action potentials and firing rates in the awake or asleep animals do not changed with age (for review, see Rosenzweig and Barnes, 2003).

One of the important changes in aged animals is the regulation of Ca²⁺ homeostasis (Foster and Kumar, 2002; Toescu and Verkhratsky, 2000 a, b). It has been reported that the density of functional L-type Ca²⁺ channels and, in consequence, L-type Ca²⁺ currents are increased in the hippocampal CA1 region of aged rats (Thibault and Landfield, 1996; Campbell et al., 1998). This is consistent with the report of increased vdcLTP in CA1 pyramidal cells (Shankar et al., 1998). It has been also observed that learning in aged rats in the Morris water maze is negatively correlated with the density of L-type Ca²⁺ channels (Thibault and Landfield, 1996; Ouanounou et al., 1999). It is also observed that the activities of phosphatase PP1 and PP2A are enhanced with age (Norris et al., 1998). Blockade of both phosphatases enhances synaptic strength in aged rats. Behavioral experiments show that increased PP2A activity is negatively correlated to the performance in the Morris water maze (Norris et al., 1996, 1998; Strack et al., 1997, Foster et al., 2001).

Several earlier studies show a loss of hippocampal cells with age (for review, see Coleman and Flood, 1987). However, with improved quantification methods these results could not be confirmed (Rapp and Gallagher, 1996; Rasmussen et al., 1996; Calhoun et al., 1998; West et al., 1993; Peters et al., 1996; West, 1993).

Instead, it has been suggested that age-related learning deficits are related to changed connections between cells in the hippocampus. To prove this hypothesis, several methods were adopted such as stereological cell counting methods (Keuker et al., 2003; von Bohlen und Halbach and Unsicker, 2002; Merrill et al., 2000). More recent work examined the amount of synapse-associated proteins. They found no significant changes in the amount of synaptic proteins like synaptophysin, synaptotagmin and synaptosomal associated protein 25 in the entire hippocampus of aged memory-impaired rats (Nicolle et al., 1999).

There are several reports about the changes of functional connectivity in the brains of aged animals. For example, reduced synaptic contacts have been observed in the mid-molecular layer together with decreased field EPSPs in the dentate gyrus (Geinisman et al., 1992; Barnes and McNaughton, 1980; Foster et al., 1991). It has also been reported that the NMDA-receptor mediated EPSP is reduced in the same area (Rao et al., 1994). In contrast to these findings, there is no age-related change in the number of NMDA receptor binding sites (Wenk and Barnes, 2000). This discrepancy obviously shows, that the number of receptors does not necessarily allow for any functional predictions.

6.2 Age-dependent changes in synaptic plasticity

6.2.1 LTP

Since the last century, it has been believed that synaptic plasticity subserves learning and memory process. Storage of memories certainly changes some form of synaptic modification. About half a century ago, Hebb postulated that, if a presynaptic and a postsynaptic cells fire at the same time, the strength of connection between those two cells will increase (Hebb, 1949). After about 35 years, a long-lasting increase in synaptic strength, which was named long-term potentiation (LTP), was observed in the rabbit dentate gyrus (Bliss and Gardner-Medwin, 1973; Bliss and Lomo, 1973, Douglas and Goddard, 1975). LTP was induced only at the synapse of the stimulated pathway,

suggesting that LTP is not merely an increase in the strength of all synapses (Levy and Steward, 1979). This result suggests, that LTP might be a cellular phenomenon underlying memory processes.

The most intensively studied form of LTP is NMDA receptor-dependent (Collingridge et al., 1983; Bliss and Collingridge, 1993). If glutamate is released from the presynaptic site, it can bind to postsynaptic NMDA and AMPA receptor channels. Initially, AMPA receptor channels are opened, whereas NMDA receptor channels are blocked by Mg^{2+} (Kato et al., 1991; Psarropoulou and Kostopoulous, 1990). Open AMPA receptor channels depolarize the membrane, which allows NMDA receptor channels to flux Ca^{2+} into the cell. The Ca^{2+} influx induces a cascade of events, which result in durable LTP (Gustafsson and Wigstroem, 1988; Bliss and Collingridge, 1993; Malenka and Nicoll, 1993; Rosenzweig and Barnes, 2003). There are reports that LTP induces the increase of postsynaptic AMPA receptor channels (Lynch and Baudry, 1984; Issac et al., 1995; Liao et al., 1995; Shi et al., 1999; Hayashi et al., 2000; Heynen et al., 2000). In the presence of more postsynaptic AMPA receptor channels, the same amount of glutamate can easily trigger a larger depolarization (Malenka and Nicoll, 1999; Luscher et al., 2000; Luscher and Frerking 2001; Lisman et al., 2002; Malinow and Malenka, 2002).

6.2.2 Age-related changes in LTP

There are conflicting data on the link between LTP and learning and memory (for review, see Cain 1997; Martin et al., 2000). However, the vast majority of studies show a positive correlation. For example, it has been reported that saturation of LTP disrupts recently acquired memory and prevents the formation of new memories (McNaughton et al., 1986; Castro et al., 1989; Moser et al., 1998). Blocking LTP can also prevent the formation of new memories (Fanselow and Kim, 1994; Mayford et al., 1996; Tonegawa et al., 1996; Tsien et al., 1996).

It is not clear whether impaired LTP is responsible for age-related memory deficits, because age-related changes in LTP are only observed under specific experimental conditions (for review, see Rosenzweig and Barnes, 2003). In most studies, aged-animals have intact hippocampal LTP when the cells are stimulated with high frequency (Landfield and Lynch, 1977; Barnes, 1979; Diana et al., 1994; Chang et al.,

1991; Deupree et al., 1991; Moore et al., 1993). But interestingly, when aged animals are stimulated with fewer stimulus pulses and lower intensity, they show reduced LTP in the hippocampal CA1 area (Deupree et al., 1993; Moore et al., 1993; Rosenzweig et al., 1997). It has to be mentioned, that aged-animals show deficits not only in LTP induction but also in LTP maintenance. It has been reported that after LTP induction, LTP decays faster in aged than in young animals (Barnes and McNaughton, 1980; Bach et al., 1999).

7. Aims of this study

SK channels are believed to contribute to the generation of AHPs in hippocampal neurons. In hippocampal CA1 neurons glucocorticoids induce an increase in the amplitude of the AHP following a short current pulse (Karst and Joels, 1991). Since this change of membrane properties can be prevented by the protein synthesis inhibitor cycloheximide, a genomic action of glucocorticoids can be assumed. Thus, it is conceivable that the expression of SK channels can be altered by changing corticosteroid levels as observed during stress and aging (Lupien et al., 1994; Ling and Jamali, 2003). Because it has been reported that SK2 channels have neuroprotective effects in cultured cells (Lee et al., 2003), it can be assumed that expression of SK2 channels is regulated by transcription factors, which are associated with neuroprotection. NF-kappaB represents a transcriptional modulator, which can either induce apoptosis or protect cells from the cellular damage of oxidative stress, depending on the cellular context. In the present study, my first goal was to clarify the regulatory mechanism of SK channel gene expression *in vivo* and *in vitro*. The second aim of this study was to understand the contribution of single SK channel subtypes to cognitive processes and synaptic plasticity. So far, the precise functional role of each SK channel subtype in specific neuronal pathways has been difficult to elucidate because of the absence of selective blockers. The use of selective antisense probes against single SK channel subtypes made it possible to overcome the lack of specific antagonists. With this approach, especially the role of SK3 channels in the modulation of hippocampal synaptic plasticity and hippocampal-dependent memory encoding was investigated.

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Chapter 2

Transcriptional Regulation of the Mouse Gene for the Calcium-Activated Potassium Channel SK2 in PC12 Cells

Introduction

There is evolving recognition that stress modulates hippocampal long-term potentiation (LTP) as well as learning and memory (Kim and Diamond, 2002). Thus far, little is known about the underlying genomic processes. In response to stress, corticosteroids, which are released from the adrenal gland, enter the brain after crossing the blood-brain barrier (McEwen et al., 1986; De Kloet 1991). Corticosteroids can increase or decrease the transcription of specific target genes via binding to two different corticosteroid-binding receptors: the glucocorticoid receptor (GR) and the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR), the latter showing a 10-fold higher affinity for corticosterone than the former (De Kloet et al., 1993; van Steensel et al., 1996). Corticosteroids affect the signaling properties of hippocampal neurons and modulate the amplitude of afterhyperpolarizations (AHPs) via genomic action (Joels et al., 1991; Karst et al., 1991, 1994; Joels et al., 2003). We were now interested in identifying novel target genes for these corticosteroid effects, particularly those that might be involved in controlling neuronal activity.

In most central neurons, small conductance Ca^{2+} -activated potassium (SK) channels contribute to AHPs, which control neuronal signaling. Immunohistochemistry revealed a close correlation between apamin-sensitive currents, which underlie medium AHPs, and the distribution of homotetrameric, apamin-sensitive SK2 channels in the rat brain (Sailer et al., 2002; Villalobos et al., 2004). The mAHP that follows action potentials is an important intrinsic negative feedback mechanism determining the firing

rate (Stocker et al., 1999; Stackman et al., 2002). When apamin blocks SK channels and thereby reduces underlying mAHPs the number of action potentials discharged in response to current injection is increased in CA1 neurons. In parallel, apamin block of SK channel activity enhances synaptic plasticity induced by high-frequency stimulation and accelerates hippocampal-dependent spatial memory encoding (Stackman et al., 2002). Thus, the modulation of SK2 channels is of fundamental importance to synaptic plasticity and cognitive performance. Initial characterization identified putative binding sites for corticosteroid receptors and for the transcription factor nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-kappaB) on the upstream regulatory part of the murine SK2 gene, which might be important for the control of SK2 gene expression. NF-kappaB is ubiquitously expressed in an inactive form in the cytosol by interaction with inhibitory proteins (IkappaB). The phosphorylation and subsequent degradation of these proteins results in translocation of the liberated NF-kappaB to the nucleus where it induces transcription of target genes (Baldwin, 1996). Considering that acute stress not only activates corticosteroid receptors but also induces the translocation of NF-kappaB to the nucleus (Madrigal et al., 2001) the present study was designed to investigate, by use of molecular and *in vitro* pharmacological functional studies, whether corticosteroids and NF-kappaB can modulate the expression of SK2 in PC12 cells.

Materials and methods

Cloning of SK2 reporter vectors

Fragments of murine SK2 promoter were cloned from genomic DNA using PCR. Primers were designed according to published sequences (GenBank accession no AC121957). The primer sequences used in this study were SK2-G5, 5'-gcattagcagatattgggtggat-3' and SK2-G8, 5'-agccgatgttctgttcttctttt-3'. 3.6 Kb DNA fragment was amplified with C57BL/6J mouse genomic DNA and pfu DNA polymerase (Stratagene, CA, USA). The amplified DNA fragment was sub-cloned into a TOPO Zero-Blunt cloning vector (Invitrogen, CA, USA) following manufacturer's instruction and transformed into JM109. It contained 3133bp of the 5' upstream part from the translation start codon and 567bp of translated region. To obtain the construct pGLF, the subcloned

SK2-TOPO vector was cut with HindIII and the DNA fragment that contained the 5' flanking region of SK2 was purified and cloned into the luciferase expression vector pGL3 (Promega, WI, USA). pGLG was generated by cutting pGLF with SmaI, which removed 1428 base pairs from the 5' upstream part, self-ligated and transformed into JM109. When pGLG was cut with PstI, self-ligated and transformed into JM109 we obtained pGLH. To construct pGL-MG, pGLG was opened at the SmaI site and ligated with the 1.4Kb SmaI DNA fragment from pGLF. We isolated 2.2Kb AccI DNA fragments from pGLF, which contained a putative NF-kappaB binding site and transferred it to a pDrive cloning vector (Qiagen). This fragment was transferred to the pGL3 luciferase vectors using MluI and HindIII sites. All sequences of reporter vectors were confirmed by sequencing.

Cell culture

A PC12 cell line was maintained in RPMI1640 medium (GIBCO, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, 100 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ penicillin and 100 U/ml streptomycin at 37°C in a humidified atmosphere 5% CO₂ and 95% room air. Cells were divided every 5 to 6 days.

Transient transfection, antisense and drugs treatments to PC12 cells

10 x 10⁶ cells were grown in 24 well plates in a total volume of 500 μl . They were transiently transfected with 1.6 μg of an SK2/luciferase construct and 0.4 μg of a co-transfection control plasmid, pCMV SPORT β -gal (Invitrogen, CA, USA) using 5 μg of Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, CA, USA) under antibiotics deprived condition. Two μg DNA and 5 μg of Lipofectamine 2000 were diluted in 50 μl Optimem (GIBCO, CA, USA). After 20 minutes incubation at room temperature the DNA/Lipofetamine complex was directly added to the cells. All transfection procedures were performed according to the manufacturer's instruction.

Cells were treated with spironolactone and mifepristone (MR and GR antagonists, respectively) 44 hours after transfection. At 45 hours after transfection, cells were treated with corticosterone, aldosterone and dexamethasone (MR and GR agonists). All agonists

and antagonists were dissolved in 75% ethanol and diluted with culture medium 1: 50. Final concentration of ethanol in culture was less than 0.1%.

We applied SN50 (NF-kappaB peptide inhibitor) and a corresponding control peptide (Santa Cruz, CA, USA) after 47 hours of transfection with a final concentration of 50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$. C2-ceramide (Sigma) activating NF-kappaB was dissolved in 75% ethanol and diluted with culture medium 1:50. It was treated 24 hours after transfection with a final concentration of 20 μM . The final concentration of ethanol was less than 0.1%. Transfected cells were harvested 48 hours after transfection, washed with PBS and analyzed. Antisense probes targeting at NF-kappaB subunits p50, p65 and control oligonucleotides have been provided by Biagnostik (Göttingen, Germany). The lyophilized oligonucleotides were dissolved in 1 x Dilution buffer to a stock concentration of 2 $\text{nmol}/\mu\text{l}$ and stored at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. They were applied 24 hours after transfection with a final concentration of 2 μM . All DNA constructs used for the transfection assay were prepared with ENDO free plasmid maxi prep kit (Qiagen).

Reporter gene assays and protein assay

Harvested cells were lysed with 300 μl luciferase cell culture lysis buffer (Promega, WI, USA) and a luciferase assay was performed with Luciferase Assay System (Promega) following manufacturer's instruction. Luciferase activity was measured with Wallac 1450 Microbeta Plus Liquid Scintillation Counter (PerkinElmer, USA). As control β -galactosidase activity was determined by a β -galactosidase assay kit (Stratagene, CA, USA). All procedures were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. The protein amount was calculated using a standard Bradford assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Muenchen, Germany).

Statistics

Statistical comparisons were made using Students`t-test or ANOVA. All RT-PCR experiments were repeated at least twice. Transfection assays was repeated at least 4 times per experiment. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM). Asterisks indicate the statistical difference versus vehicle controls. The significance was determined at the level of $p < 0.05$.

Results

Cloning of murine SK2 promoter fragments

Fragments of murine SK2 promoter were cloned from genomic DNA using PCR. Primers were designed according to published sequences (GenBank accession no AC121957). Clones carrying the mouse SK2 gene were isolated, and an approximate 3.6-kb 5'-flanking region was sequenced in this study.

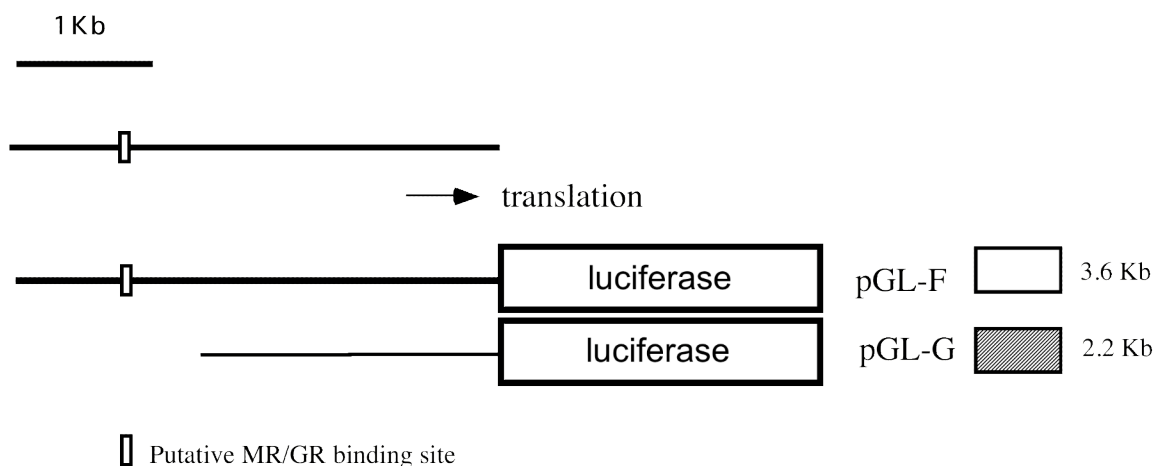


Fig.1 Regulatory region of murine SK2 gene has putative MR/GR binding sites. Two luc/SK2 reporter vectors were constructed. pGL-F containing a 3.6 Kb 5' flanking part of the SK2 gene contains the putative binding site, which is missing in the pGL-G (2.2 Kb) construct.

Corticosteroid regulation of the SK2 channel promoter

The reporter construct pGL-F, which contains putative MR/GR binding elements, was transiently transfected into PC12 cells together with a control plasmid, pCMV SPORT β -gal, to control transfection efficiency. Forty-four hours after transfection, cells were treated with corticosteroid receptor agonists and antagonists. As shown in Fig. 2, A, corticosterone stimulated the pGL-F reporter at a concentration of 450 nM. No significant change in activation was observed when the corticosterone concentration was increased to 900 nM. The mineralocorticoid aldosterone (Fig. 2, C) and the glucocorticoid

dexamethasone (Fig. 2, E) stimulated the same reporter in a similar concentration-dependent manner, which started from 28 nM in the case of aldosterone and from 12.5 nM in the case of dexamethasone. The effects of aldosterone and dexamethasone on pGLF-Luc expression were attenuated by 240 nM of the MR antagonist spironolactone (Fig. 2, C) and by 233 nM of the GR antagonist mifepristone, respectively (Fig. 2, E). An additional construct, pGL-G, was generated by reduction of the promoter region from 3.6 Kb to 2.2 Kb. Corticosterone (Fig. 1, B), aldosterone (Fig. 1, D) and dexamethasone (Fig. 1, F) had no stimulatory effect on the pGL-G reporter gene expression, suggesting the presence of potential glucocorticoid response element(s) (GRE) in the deleted region (Fig. 1).

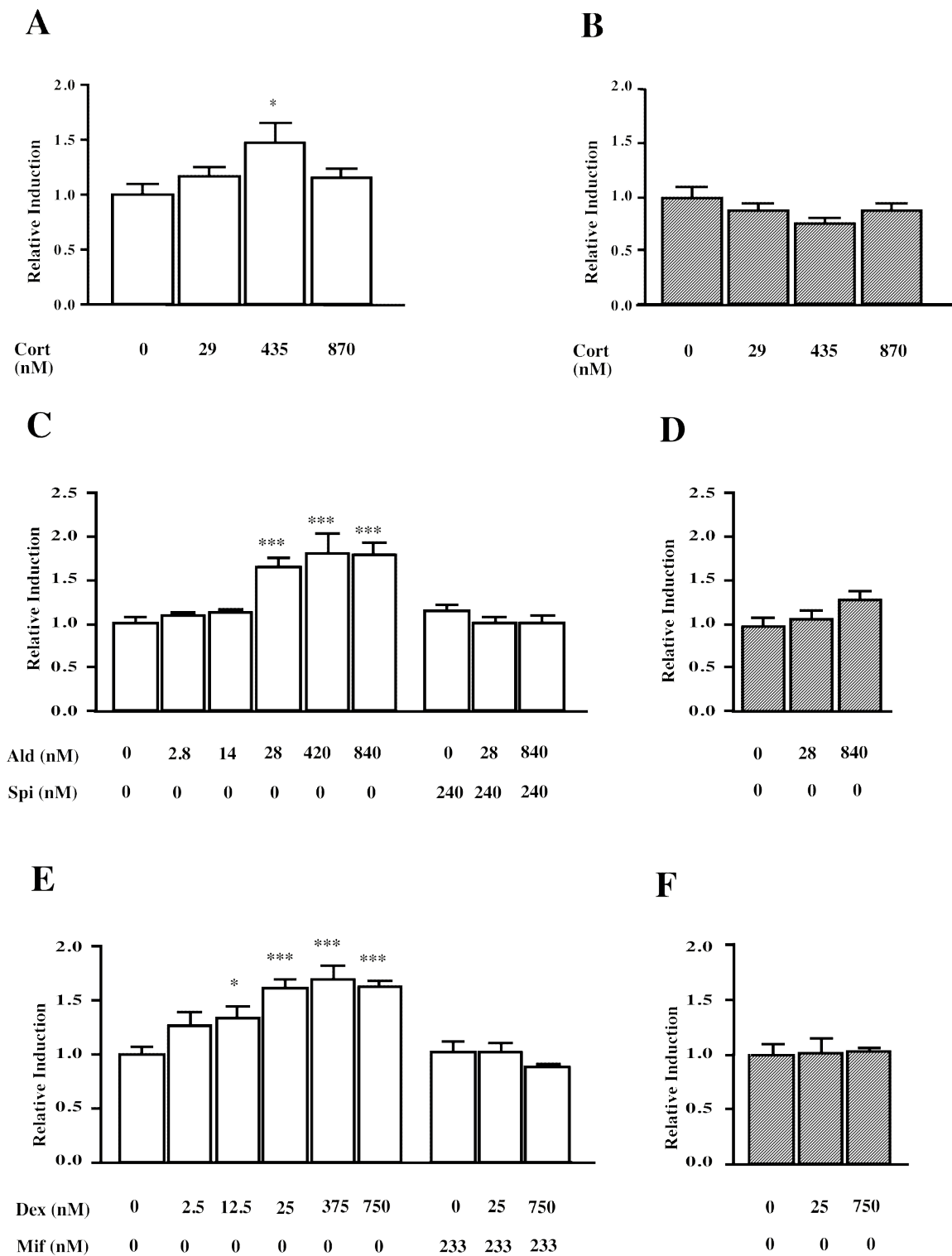


Fig. 2 Corticosteroids modulate promoter activity of the murine SK2 gene. Bar graphs show relative luciferase activity of SK2/luc vectors containing the 5' flanking region of the SK2 gene in PC12 cells. A; Application of corticosterone (435nM) increased pGL-F

SK2/luc reporter vector expression. B; Application of corticosterone didn't have effect on pGL-G SK2/luc vector. C; Application of aldosterone induced pGL-F expression in dose-dependent manner. This effect was blocked by application of spironolactone (240 nM) D; the expression of pGL-G vector wasn't changed. E; Application of dexamethasone increased pGL-F expression. Application of mifepristone (233 nM) could block this effect. F; Application of dexamethasone couldn't modify expression of pGL-G. Luciferase activity was normalized to β -galactosidase activity, which was co-transfected. Data are averages of 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM) *P<0.05, *** P<0.0001 by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

Activation of the SK2 channel Promoter by C2-ceramide

Sequence analysis of the deleted 1.4 Kb promoter region also revealed a potential response element for NF-kappaB (Fig. 3, A). In the presence of NF-kappaB SN50 (50 μ g/ml), which inhibits the translocation of NF-kappaB from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, expression of both reporter gene constructs was unchanged when compared to vehicle-treatment (Fig. 3, B). Interestingly, activation of NF-kappaB by C2-ceramide (20 μ M) was clearly capable of inducing luciferase activity of the pGL-F promoter construct (Fig. 3, C).

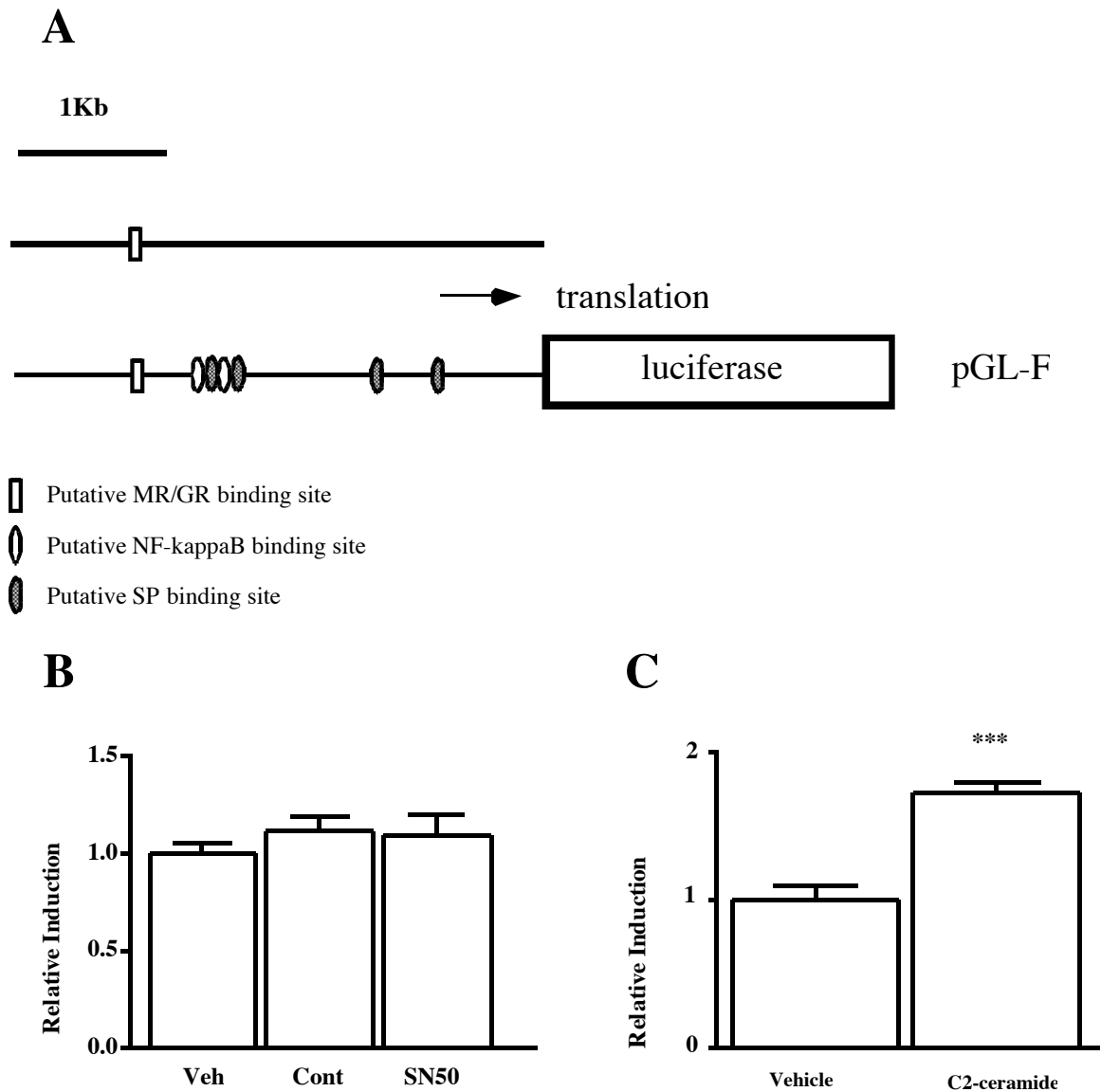


Fig.3 C2-ceramide increased SK2 transcription in PC12 cells. A; Map of pGL-F vector containing the 5' flanking region of the SK2 gene. There are two putative NF-kappaB binding sites and four putative SP binding sites. B; Application of the specific peptide inhibitor, SN50 (50 μ g/ml) had no effect on the expression of SK2. C; Application of C2-ceramide (20 μ M) increased the expression of SK2. Data were normalized using the amount of β -galactosidase. These data are averages of 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM) *** P<0.0001 by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

Antisense probes against NF-kappaB subunits down regulated ceramide-induced SK2 expression.

We treated 2 μ M of antisense oligonucleotides against the NF-kappaB subunits p50 and p65. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR showed that PC12 cells endogenously express both subunits. Antisense probes against p50 and p65 successfully reduced the mRNA amount of both subunits (Fig.4, A, B and Fig.5, A, B). Antisense probe treatment down regulated ceramide-induced elevation of SK2 expression in PC12 cells (Fig.4, C and Fig.5, C). This suggested that C2-ceramide increased SK2 expression through NF-kappaB.

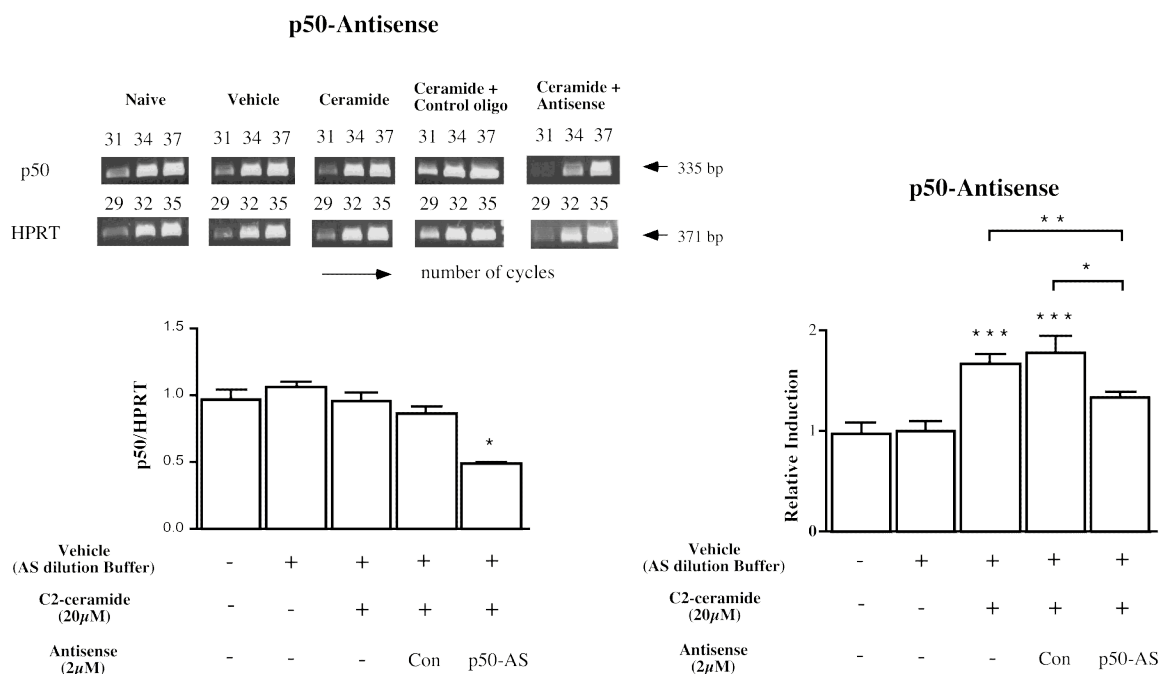


Fig.4 Antisense probes against NF-kappaB subunits p50 down regulated ceramide-induced increase in SK2 expression in PC12 cells. A; Semi-quantitative RT-PCR shows that antisense probes against NF-kappaB subunit p50 successfully reduced the mRNA level. HPRT was used as housekeeping control gene. B; Bar graphs show the relative amount of p50 transcripts normalized to the amount of HPRT transcripts. All experiments were repeated at least twice. C; Luciferase activity of the pGL-F reporter vector was reduced after antisense treatment. Luciferase activity was normalized to the amount of co-transfected β -galactosidase. All data are averages of 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM); * p <0.05, ** p <0.005, *** P <0.0001 by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

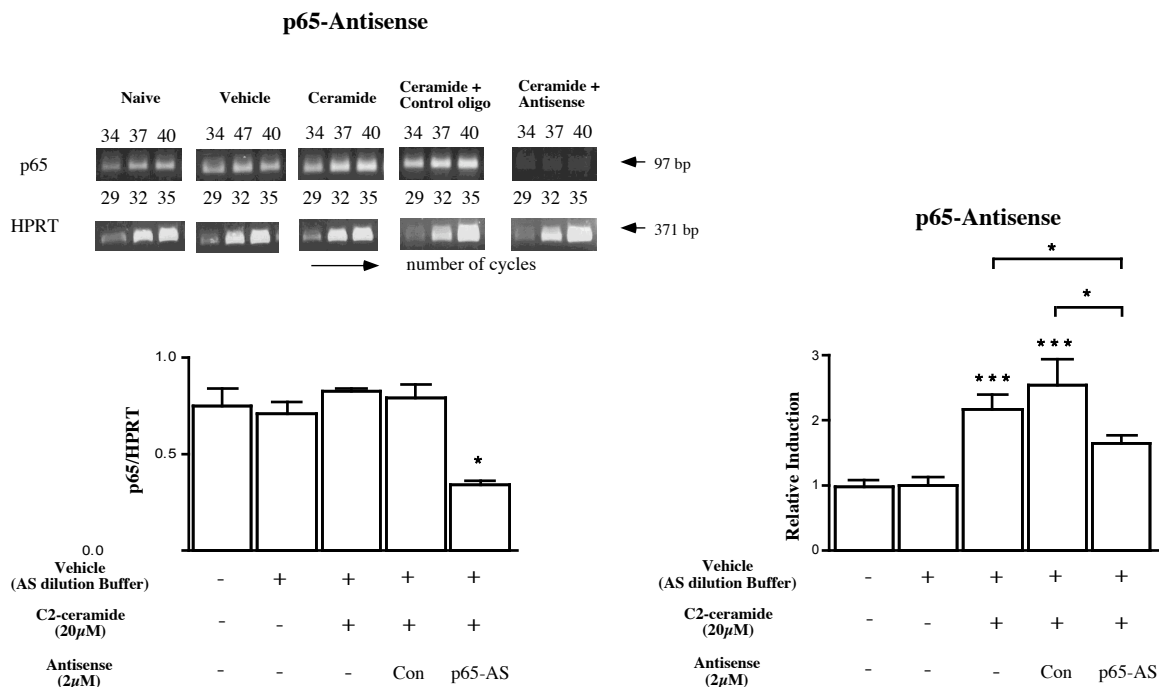


Fig.5 Antisense probes against the NF-kappaB subunit p65 downregulated ceramide-induced increase in SK2 expression in PC12 cells. A; Semi-quantitative RT-PCR showed that antisense probes against p65 successfully reduced the amount of p65 transcripts. HPRT was used as housekeeping gene. B; Bar graphs show the relative amount of p65 transcripts normalized to the amount of HPRT transcripts. All experiments were repeated at least twice. C; Luciferase activity of the pGL-F reporter vector was reduced after antisense treatment. Luciferase activity was normalized to co-transfected beta-galactosidase. All data are averages of at least 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM); * $p < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.0001$ by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

Regulation of SK2 promoter activity by two putative NF-kappaB binding motifs

As shown in figure 3, A, the 3.6 Kb 5' flanking region of the SK2 gene has two putative NF-kappaB binding sites. I constructed several SK2/luc vectors to investigate the role of these binding sites for transcription (Fig.6, A). Interestingly, expression of pGL-F and pGL-MG showed about 1.8 fold increase after 24 hours of C2-ceramide treatment but the relative induction of pGL-NF was reduced compared to pGL-F and pGL-MG. pGL-G and pGL-H did not show any difference to non-treated controls (Fig.6, B).

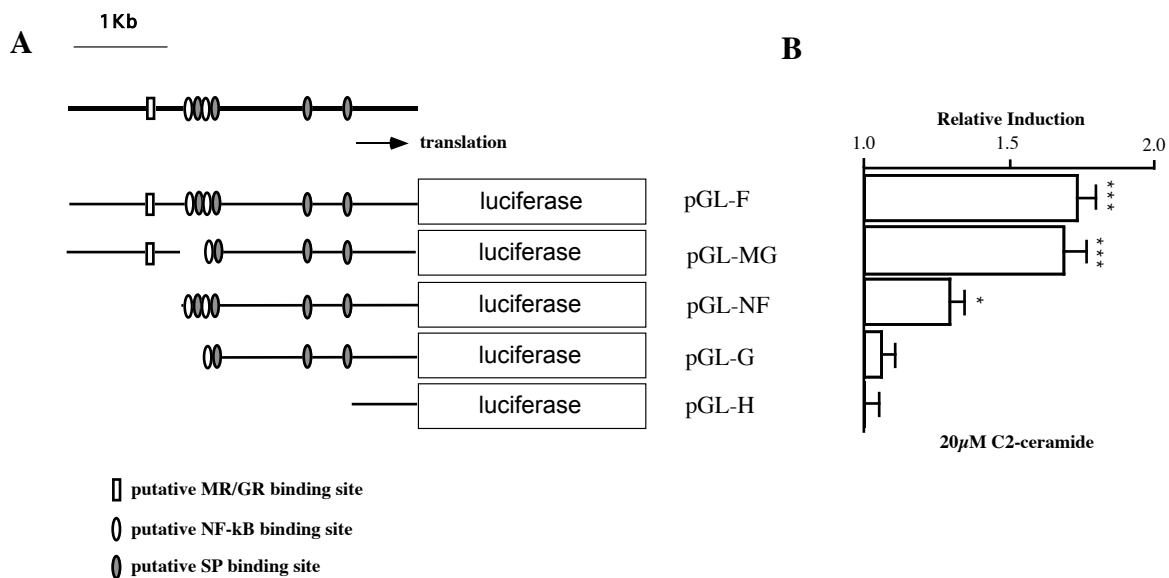


Fig. 6. Two putative NF-kappaB binding sites modulate SK2 transcription. A; Schematic map of SK2/luc vectors. B; Bar graphs show relative induction of luciferase activity after 24 hours treatment with 20 μ M C2-ceramide. These bar graphs are normalized to co-transfected β -galactosidase. These data are the average of at least 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM). * $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.0001$ by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

Repression of NF-kappaB-induced SK2 Promoter Activity by glucocorticoid receptors

To investigate whether glucocorticoid receptors interact with NF-kappaB and thereby affecting SK2 expression in PC12 cells, we treated C2-ceramide together with aldosterone or dexamethasone. Surprisingly, 25 nM of dexamethasone downregulated C2-ceramide induced SK2 expression, whereas 750 nM of dexamethasone had no effect. Aldosterone did not influence C2-ceramide-induced SK2 expression at any concentration (Fig.7).

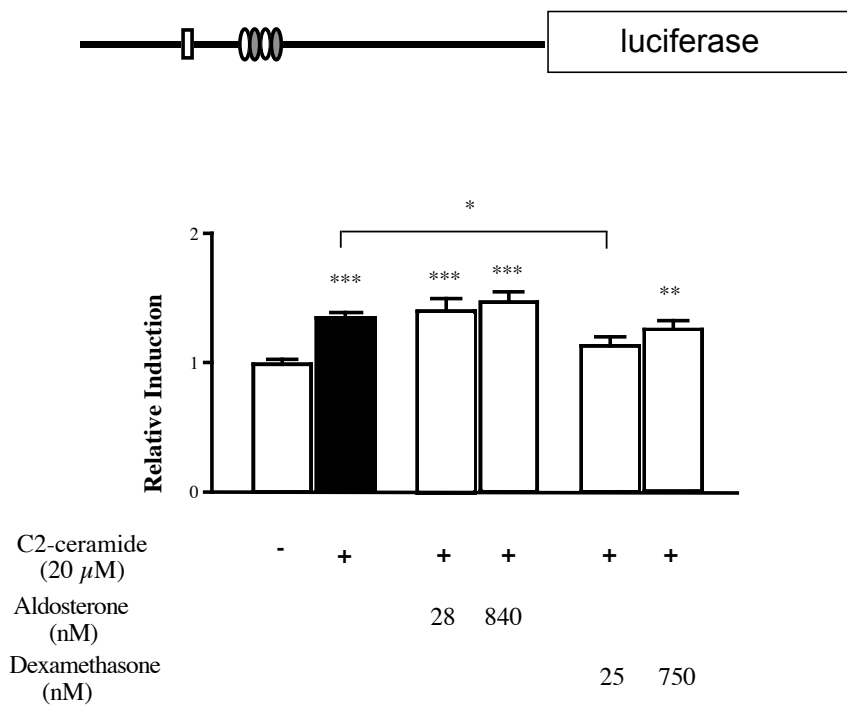


Fig. 7. Activated GR reduced C2-ceramide-induced SK2 up-regulation. Dexamethasone and aldosterone were applied to pGL-F expressing PC12 cells in the presence of C2-ceramide. These data are the average of at least 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data are expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM); * p <0.05, ** p <0.005, *** P <0.0001 by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

On the other hand, after removal of the putative MR/GR binding site 25 nM dexamethasone had no effect on SK2 expression, whereas 750 nM of dexamethasone reduced ceramide induced SK2 expression. Again, aldosterone had no effect on pGL-NF expression (Fig.8).

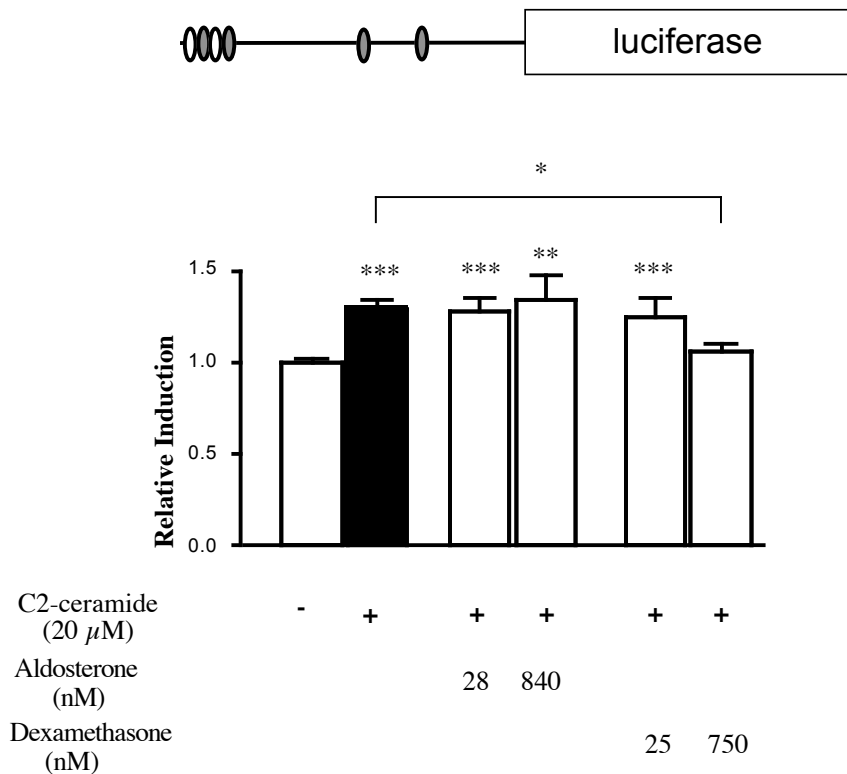


Fig.8. Activated GR reduced C2-ceramide induced SK2 up-regulation. Dexamethasone and aldosterone were applied to pGL-NF expressing PC12 cells in the presence of C2-ceramide. These data are the average of at least 8 measurements from 4 different transfection experiments. Data are expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM); * p <0.05, ** p <0.005, *** P <0.0001 by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test.

Discussion

Small conductance, calcium activated potassium channels were assumed to be responsible for afterhyperpolarization (AHP), which follow action potentials in neurons and control neuronal excitability. To gain more insight into the regulation of SK channel expression would help to understand the mechanisms underlying the modulation of neuronal signaling. Based on previous reports that neuronal signaling is changed after acute stress (Blank et al., 2002) and that it is modified by steroid hormones via genomic action (Joels et al., 1991; Karst et al., 1991) we anticipated a regulation of SK gene expression by corticosteroids.

Three SK channel subtypes have been cloned from the mammalian brain (Köhler et al., 1996). They show high homology in sequence but their pharmacological properties are diverse. SK2 and SK3 channels are sensitive to the bee-venom toxin, apamin, whereas SK1 channels are insensitive (Ishii et al., 1997). They further show very different distribution pattern in the mammalian brain (Stocker and Pedarzani, 2000). The data presented here support the view that SK2 channels are target genes for corticosteroids and the transcription factor NF-kappaB.

Two kinds of corticosteroid receptors have been reported in mammalian cells, with highly different binding affinities to corticosteroids. Mineralocorticosteroid receptors (MR) have a 10 fold higher affinity to corticosterone than glucocorticoid receptors (GR) (for review, see de Kloet et al., 1998). Although they share the same ligand, corticosterone, they have different physiological functions and are expressed in different tissues. Both receptors share the same DNA binding motif. However, due to different transcription co-factors MRs and GRs have been reported to regulate distinct genes (Joels, 2001; de Kloet, 2003). We constructed various reporter vectors to determine the amount of SK2 transcription. pGLF, containing a putative MR/GR binding site, showed a dose-dependent activation in response to corticosterone. To identify the type of receptor involved in the activation of SK2 transcription, we applied selective MR and GR agonists. Interestingly both, aldosterone and dexamethasone enhanced SK2 expression in a receptor-dependent way.

NF-kappaB has been known as a transcriptional activator for several genes, which are mainly involved in immune reaction and apoptosis. But recently completely different implications have been reported such as neural plasticity and cellular protective effects against stress and cellular damages (for review, see Mattson, et al., 2000; Carroll et al, 1998; Clemens et al, 1997; Culmsee et al., 2003). We found two putative NF-kappaB binding sites in the 5' flanking region of the murine SK2 gene. There was no NF-kappaB baseline activity in PC12 cells but activation of NF-kappaB resulted in enhanced SK2 expression. When we constructed several SK2/luc vectors to investigate the role of two putative NF-kappaB binding sites we found that the region between the putative MR and GR sites and upstream of the putative NF-kappaB binding site was important for

complete SK2 expression. This data suggest that other transcription co-factors or potential enhancers are necessary for NF-kappaB to become fully active.

Another interesting finding of this study is that there is an interaction between activated GRs and NF-kappaB to modulate SK2 expression. It has been described that the activity of NF-kappaB is regulated by several mechanisms (Zhao and Karalis, 2002). Activated GRs can increase SK2 expression directly, but at the same time, decrease NF-kappaB mediated SK2 expression. At the moment it is unclear why activated GRs have opposite effects on the expression of the same gene. It can be speculated that this mechanism prevents SK2 over expression under conditions, which activate GRs and NF-kappaB.

Since SK channels are gating potassium ions from the inside to the outside of the cell, they prevent neurons from tonic firing. It can be suggested that NF-kappaB counteracts neuronal hyperexcitability via regulation of SK2 channels and thus protects cells from damage. This is supported by a previous report, which showed that hippocampal cells overexpressing SK2 channels are more resistant to several kinds of cellular stressors (Lee et al., 2003). Our findings that expression of SK2 channel is regulated by stress hormones and NF-kappaB at the same time propose a protective role of SK2 channels for neurons experiencing various stressful stimuli.

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Chapter 3

Transcriptional Regulation of the Calcium-Activated Potassium Channel SK2 Gene in Mouse Hippocampus

Introduction

Small-conductance, calcium activated potassium channels are believed to underlie afterhyperpolarizations (AHPs), which controls neuronal excitability (Sah and Faber, 2002; Faber and Sah, 2002; Hosseini et al., 2001; Lorenzon and Foehring, 2002; Knaus et al., 2002). The control of excitability in neurons has been shown to be critical for various learning processes (Tzounopoulos and Stackman, 2003; Morozov et al., 2003; Power et al., 2002; Stackman et al., 2003) but is also essential to prevent neuronal hyperexcitability and subsequent neuronal damage. In view of these findings it is important to understand the regulation of SK channel gene expression because altered SK channel expression can be expected to directly interfere with neuronal excitability. In fact, several studies have shown that the electrophysiological properties of neurons are altered after an animal has been exposed to a stressful situation (Blank et al., 2002, 2003).

The hypothalamo–pituitary–adrenocortical (HPA) axis plays a vital role in adaptation of the organism to stress exposure. Activation of the HPA system culminates in secretion of corticosteroids, which are recognized by corticosteroids receptor molecules in numerous organ systems, and act by genomic mechanisms to modify transcription of key regulatory proteins (for review, see de Kloet et al., 1998). By crossing the blood-brain barrier, corticosteroids are also able to enter the brain (McEwen et al., 1986; De Kloet, 1991). Several studies have shown that corticosteroids affect the signaling properties of hippocampal neurons by modulating calcium current amplitudes

(Joels et al., 1991), serotonin-induced hyperpolarizations (Karst et al., 1994; Joels et al., 2003) or afterhyperpolarizations (AHPs) (Joels et al., 1991; Karst et al., 1991).

Another transcription factor investigated in this study is nuclear factor-kappaB (NF-kappaB) (for review, see Mattson et al., 2000). It has been reported that the activity of NF-kappaB is regulated by the early stress hormone, CRF, and by corticosterone. Interestingly, CRF increases NF-kappaB activity while corticosterone inhibits it (Zhao and Karalis, 2002).

Here, we studied the effect of behavioral stress on the expression of SK2 in Balb/c and C57BL/6J mice.

Materials and Methods

Animals and cannulation

Experiments were carried out with young (8 weeks), male Balb/c (Charles River, Sultzfled, Germany) and C57BL/6J mice (Harlan-Winkelmann, Borchon, Germany). Upon arrival the mice were individually housed and maintained on a 12 hr light/dark cycle (lights on at 7 a.m.) with free access to food and water. Mice were kept under these housing conditions for at least two weeks before experiments were started. Double guide cannulae (C235, Plastics One, Roanoke, Virginia) were implanted using a stereotactic holder during 1.2% avertin anesthesia (0.02 ml/g, intraperitoneal) under aseptic conditions as previously described (Blank et al., 2002). Each double guide cannula with inserted dummy cannula and dust cap was fixed to the skull of the mouse with dental cement. For intracerebroventricular (i.c.v.) injections cannulae were placed into both lateral brain ventricles, with anteroposterior (AP) coordinates zeroed at Bregma AP 0 mm, lateral 1 mm and depth 3 mm. Bilateral injections were performed using an infusion pump (CMA/100, CMA/Microdialysis, Solna, Sweden) at a constant rate of 0.5 μ l/min (final volume: 1 μ l per side). Alternatively, cannulae were directed toward dorsal hippocampi, AP-1.5mm, lateral 1mm and depth 2mm (Franklin and Paxinos, 1997). Bilateral injections were performed using an infusion pump at a constant rate of 0.33 μ l/min (final volume: 1 μ l per side). The animals were allowed to recover for 4-5 d before the experiments started.

Immobilization stress

An acute immobilization stress of mice consisted of taping their limbs to a plastic surface for 1 hour (Smith et al., 1995).

Drug treatment

Mice were injected subcutaneously with either the mineralocorticoid receptor (MR) antagonist spironolactone (50 mg/kg), the glucocorticoid receptor (GR) antagonist mifepristone (25 mg/kg) or the corresponding vehicle (physiological saline containing 1% polyethylene glycol 400) 30 min prior to immobilization. Subsequently, mice were briefly anesthetized with isoflurane and decapitated immediately or 2 hours after the stress session. Peptide NF-kappaB inhibitor (SN50, Santa Cruz, CA, USA) and its corresponding control peptide were dissolved in 0.9% saline with a final concentration of 50 μ g/ml. One microliter of solution was injected per mouse hippocampus. The final amount of injected peptide was 50 ng/hippocampus. One hour after treatment, animals were briefly anesthetized with isoflurane and decapitated. All other drugs were purchased from Sigma (MO, USA).

Collection of hippocampal tissue, RNA extraction and DNase I Treatment

After decapitation, hippocampi were rapidly removed, frozen on liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Total RNA was isolated from mouse hippocampi using the Micro RNA Isolation Kit (Stratagene, CA, USA) following the manufacturer's instruction and treated with RQ1 RNase-free DNase I (Promega, WI, USA) at 37°C for 45 min. Subsequently we used Phenol/Chloroform extraction to remove DNaseI. This procedure was repeated twice. The concentration of RNA was measured by spectrophotometer.

Semi-quantitative RT-PCR

Semi-quantitative reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) was performed to quantify SK2 transcripts using SUPERScript® One-step RT-PCR with PLATINUM *Tag* (Invitrogen, CA, USA). Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyl transferase (HPRT) was used as housekeeping gene. Primer sequences were rSK2-f; 5'-tccgacttaaataaggag-3', rSK2-r; 5'-gtcagcattgtagtgac-3', HPRT-up; 5'-

cctgctggattacattaaagcactg-3' and HPRT-low; 5'-cctgaagtactcattatagtcagg-3'. 1.5 μg of RNA was used for each RT-PCR reaction. To amplify SK2 and HPRT transcripts, 2 mM Mg^{2+} concentration was optimal. The reverse transcriptase reaction was performed at 55°C for 25 minutes. PCR cycling was at 94°C for 15 seconds, annealing at 55°C for 30 seconds, extension at 72°C for 50 seconds and a final extension at 72°C for 10 minutes. Eighteen microliter of each sample was removed every 3 cycles from 24 to 33 cycles in each reaction to amplify SK2 and HPRT fragments. To investigate the effect of SN50, 1 μg of RNA was used for each RT-PCR reaction and 15 μl per sample were removed every 3 cycles from 29 to 35 cycles in each reaction.

Primer sequences for NF-kappaB subunits, p50 and p65 were p50-3f; 5'-gtgcgcggtggagacgaagtttat-3', p50-4r; 5'-ccgaagggtgggagaaggtg-3', p65-2f; 5'-agctgcctcggtgggatga-3' and p65-2r; cagcctggtcccgtgaaata-3'. To amplify p50 fragments, a concentration of 2 mM Mg^{2+} was optimal. For p65 fragments, we used a concentration of 2.8 mM Mg^{2+} . For each RT-PCR reaction 1.5 μg of RNA was used. The same RT-PCR and PCR conditions were used for SK2 and HPRT fragments. Every 3 cycles from cycle 31 to cycle 40 a sample of 18 μl was removed in each PCR reaction. HPRT was used as control gene. Amplified PCR products were separated on 1.5 % agarose gels with Tris-Borate EDTA buffer and stained with ethidium bromide. Gels were captured as a digital image and quantified by densitometry (WinCam 2.2, Cybertech).

Statistics

Statistical comparisons were made using Students`t-test or ANOVA. All RT-PCR experiments were repeated at least twice. Data were expressed as mean \pm standard error (SEM). The significance was determined at the level of $p < 0.05$.

Results

We used semi-quantitative RT-PCR to determine the relative amount of hippocampal mRNA coding for SK2 channels before and after restraint stress in Balb/c and C57BL/6J mice. Amplified fragments of SK2 mRNAs and of the HPRT control template gave products of expected size. The PCR products were further confirmed by

DNA sequencing (data not shown). The effect of single immobilization for 1 hour on the expression of SK2 channel subunits was measured 2 hours after stress exposure. In Balb/c mice expression of SK2 mRNA was clearly elevated compared to naive controls, whereas immobilization had no effect on SK2 mRNA levels in C57BL/6J mice. Interestingly, baseline expression of SK2 mRNA was significantly different in hippocampi of both mouse strains (Fig. 1). The mRNA levels of the housekeeping gene HPRT were not affected by the stress stimulus (Fig. 1).

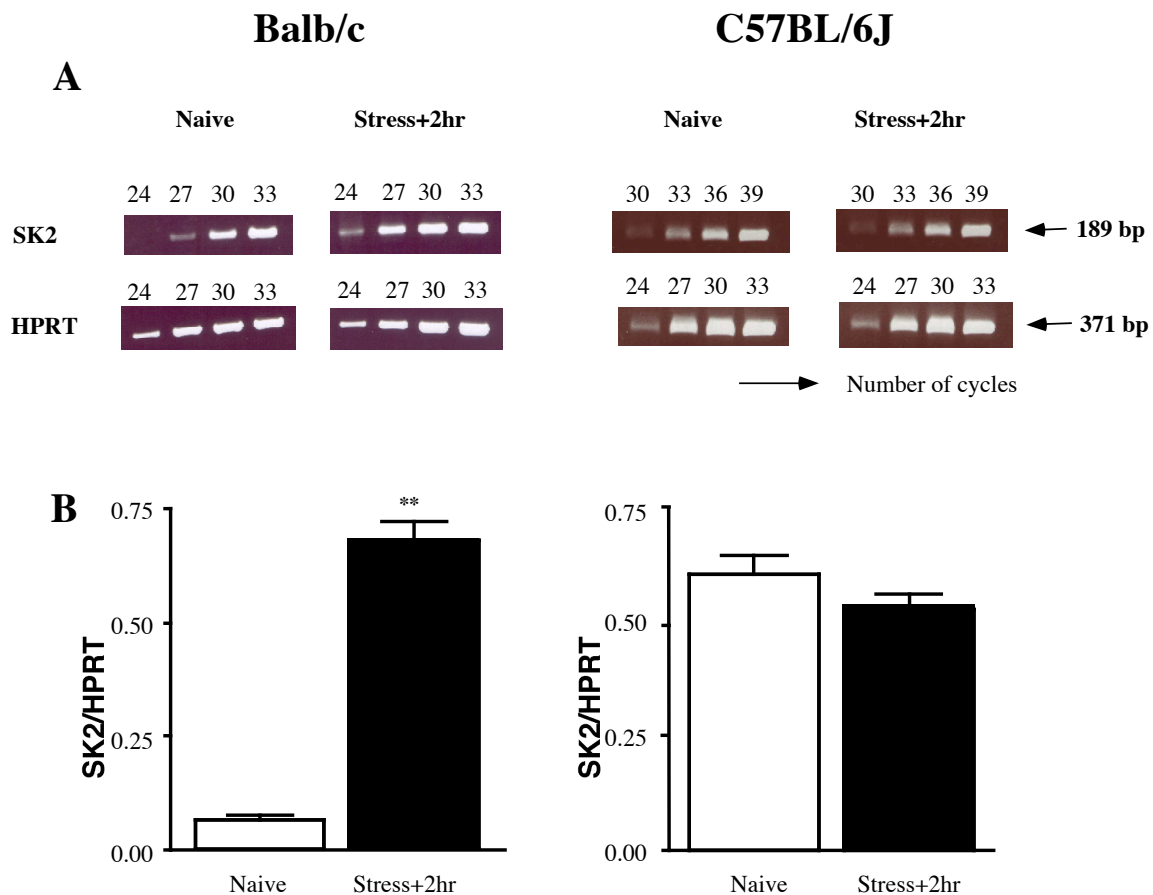


Fig. 1. The amount of SK2 transcript in hippocampi of BALB/c and C57BL/6J mouse strains. (a) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR of SK2 transcript and HPRT before and after 1-hour immobilization stress in two mouse strains. (b) Relative amount of SK2 transcript normalized to the amount of the housekeeping gene HPRT. These data were from 8 mouse hippocampi and semi-quantitative RT-PCR was repeated at least three times. ** $P < 0.005$ versus naïve values by two-tailed Student's t-test.

To further investigate the stress-induced changes in SK2 mRNA levels observed in hippocampi of Balb/c mice we subcutaneously injected mice with antagonists for GR (mifepristone) or MR (spironolactone) (Fig. 2). Thirty minutes after injection, animals were immobilized and the amount of hippocampal mRNA was analysed 1 and 2 hours following the stress session. Gene expression of SK2 subunits in Balb/c was clearly affected by both antagonists. As shown in Figs. 2 A and B, stress modulated SK2 channel expression in a biphasic and time-dependent manner. The amount of mRNA coding for SK2 was reduced immediately after the stress session, and was significantly elevated 2 hours later. Subcutaneous vehicle injection had no effect on the expression of SK2 mRNA compared to non-injected control. Spironolactone completely prevented the reduction of SK2 mRNA immediately after the stress session. In the presence of mifepristone the initial reduction of SK2 mRNA observed immediately after 1 hour of immobilization was turned into a significant enhancement when compared to naive levels (Fig. 2 C, D).

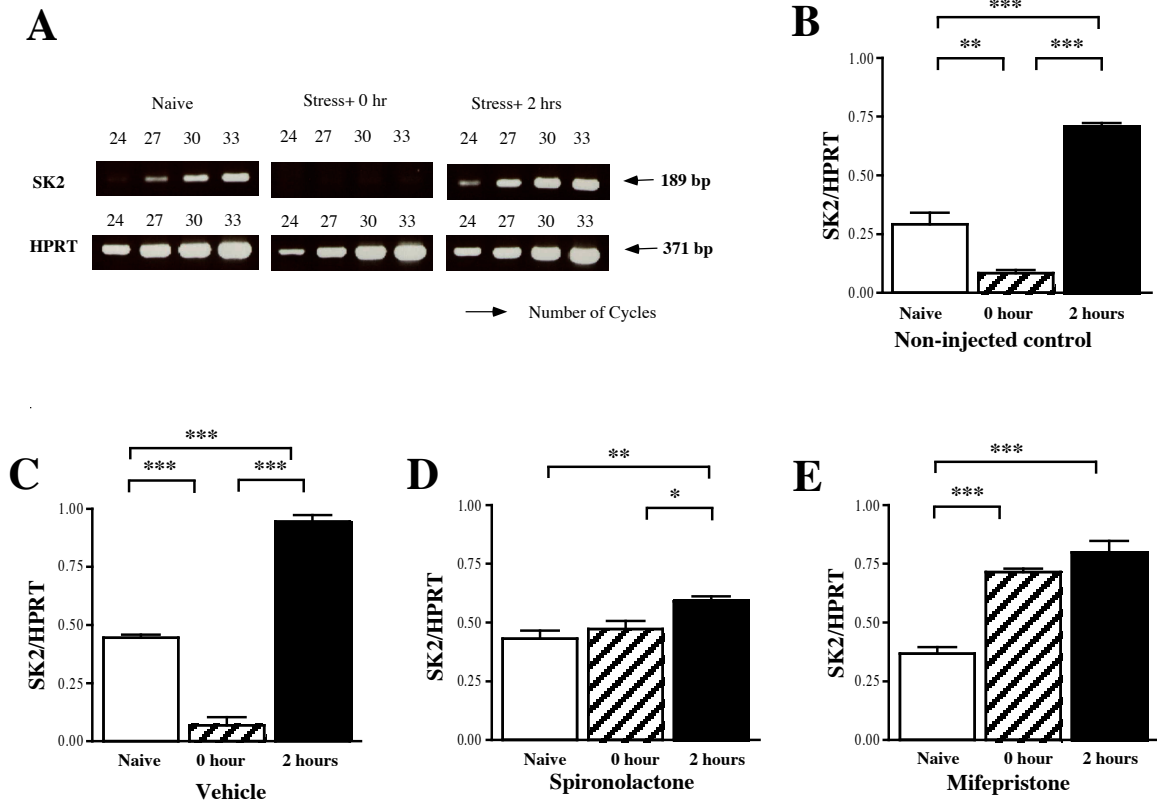


Fig. 2. The amount of SK2 transcript in mouse hippocampus is highly changed after stress in Balb/c mice. (a) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR of SK2 and HPRT transcripts in non-injected control. (b) Bar graphs show the relative amount of SK2 transcript normalized to the amount of the housekeeping gene HPRT before and after one hour immobilization without any injection. (c) Stress-induced changes in SK2 expression in the presence of vehicle, (d) spironolactone or (e) mifepristone. All drugs were treated systemically 30 minutes before immobilization session. These data are from at least 8 mouse hippocampi and semi-quantitative RT-PCR was repeated at least three times. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 0.0001$ by ANOVA.

We determined the amounts of NF-kappaB subunits in mouse hippocampus using semi-quantitative RT-PCR. Interestingly, hippocampi of Balb/c mice had higher amounts of the NF-kappaB subunit, p50, when compared to the amounts found in hippocampi of C57BL/6J mice. The amount of an additional NF-kappaB subunit, p65, was identical in both strains (Fig. 3). When we injected 50 ng of the specific NF-kappaB peptide inhibitor SN50 (Lin et al., 1995) into the mouse hippocampus it downregulated the transcription of SK2 channels in the hippocampus of both strains (Fig.4).

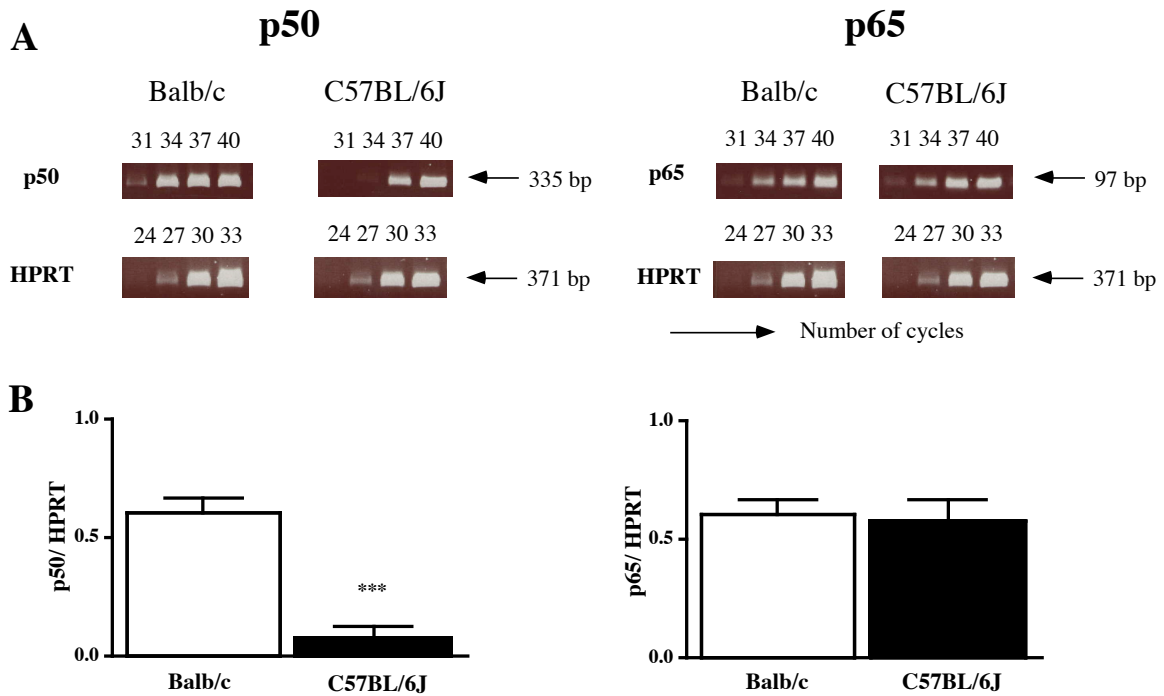


Fig. 3 Balb/c mice have more p50 than C57BL/6J. (a) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR show the amount of NF-kappaB subunits p50 and p65 transcripts in the hippocampus of both mouse strains. (b) Bar graphs show the relative amount of p50 and p65 normalized to the amount of HPRT transcripts. These data are from at least 6 mouse hippocampi and semi-quantitative RT-PCR was repeated at least three times. *** $p < 0.0001$ versus Balb/c by two-tailed Student's t-test.

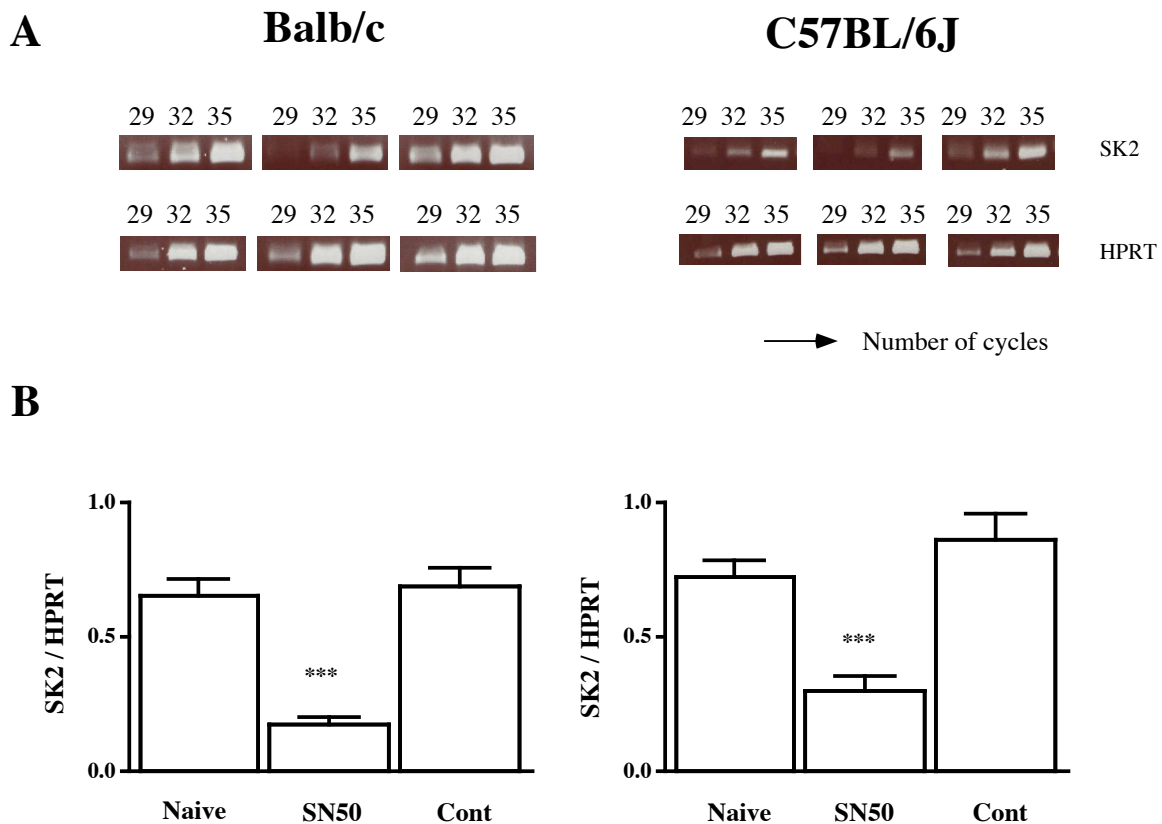


Fig.4 The specific peptide inhibitor SN50 reduced the amount of mRNA coding for SK2 channels in mouse hippocampus. (a) Semi-quantitative RT-PCR shows relative amounts of SK2 transcripts in hippocampi of both mouse strains. (b) Bar graphs show the relative amount of SK2 transcript normalized to the amount of HPRT transcripts. These data are from at least 6 mouse hippocampi and semi-quantitative RT-PCR was repeated at least three times. *** $p < 0.0001$ versus control peptide using ANOVA.

Discussion

A key feature of SK channels in the central nervous system is the contribution to an AHP that follows either single or trains of action potentials thus regulating neuronal excitability (Sah, 1996). The data presented here support the view that hippocampal SK2 channels are target genes for corticosteroids and NF-kappaB.

Surprisingly, there are significant differences in the hippocampal expression of SK2 under baseline conditions and after stress in both mouse strains. First of all naïve Balb/c mice have more SK2 mRNA when compared to naïve C57BL/6J mice. Following stress exposure we observed dramatic fluctuations in the expression of SK2 in Balb/c

mice, whereas SK2 mRNA levels were unchanged in C57BL/6J. From our data it might be assumed that in Balb/c mice activated MRs work as an activator of SK2 channel expression in contrast to activated GRs, which seem to repress expression of SK2.

Another transcription factor modulating expression of SK2 channels is NF-kappaB. The specific peptide inhibitor of NF-kappaB, SN50, clearly repressed expression of SK2 channels in hippocampi of both mouse strains, suggesting that NF-kappaB functions as an activator. While the amount of p50 mRNA was higher in hippocampi of Balb/c mice when compared to hippocampi of C57BL/6J mice, the amount of p65 mRNA was identical in both mouse strains. This difference might be responsible for the observation that hippocampi of Balb/c mice express more SK2 mRNA than hippocampi of C57BL/6J mice.

One of the most interesting findings of this study is that the expression and regulation of SK2 channels are substantially different between the two mouse strains. One possible explanation might be that there are different regulatory sites in the upstream region of SK2 channels. It is also conceivable that both mouse strains show differences in their HPA axis responsiveness, which might result in dissimilar elevation of corticosterone levels following immobilization. In general, increased SK2 channel expression appears to represent a protective mechanism by lowering neuronal excitability. According to this hypothesis it was recently shown that overexpression of SK2 channels in cultured hippocampal neurons can protect cells against excitotoxicity (Lee et al., 2003).

In summary, expression of SK2 channels in mouse hippocampus is modulated by two endogenous corticosterone receptors and NF-kappaB. However, some questions still remain. First of all, why was the expression of SK2 channels in the hippocampus of C57BL/6J mice not changed after immobilization? It is very unlikely that corticosterone levels were not sufficient because one hour immobilization is generally regarded as a severe stressor. It seems as if the effect of corticosterone on SK2 transcription in the hippocampus of C57BL/6J mice was antagonized by additional transcription co-factors. As a result, the total amount of SK2 transcripts was kept constant. Another unanswered question is related to the activity of NF-kappaB in both mouse strains. It has been reported that the activity of NF-kappaB is changed after stress or aging (Korhonen et al.,

1997; Toliver-Kinsky et al., 1997, 2002). Based on this observation, it can be speculated that in both mouse strains stress exposure may have a different impact on the activity of NF-kappaB. These interstrain variations may help to further understand cellular mechanisms responsible for regulating gene expression in diverse genetic backgrounds.

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Chapter 4

The small conductance calcium-activated potassium channel SK3 generates age-related memory and LTP deficits

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Cognitive deficits are among the most devastating changes associated with the aging process. The decrement in learning specific learning tasks (Houston, 1999; Barnes, 1980) is correlated with substantial changes in neuronal signal processing in the hippocampus. (Landfield, et al., 1978, 1984; Wu, et al., 2000) Here, we show that elevated expression of small-conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels (SK channels) of the SK3 type in hippocampi of aged mice contributes to reduced long-term potentiation (LTP) and impaired trace fear conditioning, a hippocampus-dependent learning task. (McEchron, et al., 1998; Wallenstein, et al., 1998) SK channels modulate membrane excitability and are important determinants of the firing properties of central neurons. (Storm, 1990; Sah, et al., 1996; Pedarzani, et al., 2001; Schumacher, 2002) Recent immunohistological studies of SK3 channels revealed that they are highly expressed in rat hippocampus. (Tacconi, 2002)

We performed semi-quantitative RT-PCR (**Fig. 1a,b**) and Western blot analysis (**Fig. 1d,e**) of mouse hippocampus and showed that the SK3 channel transcript and protein are more abundant in hippocampi from aged mice (22-24 months) when compared to hippocampi from young mice (4-6 months).

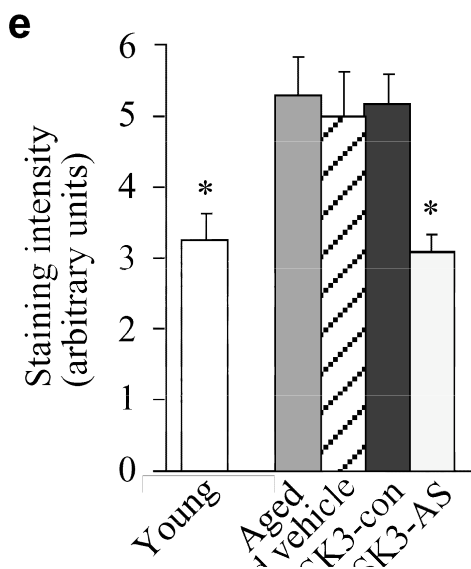
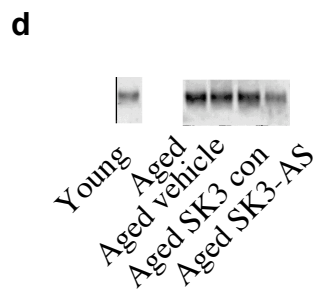
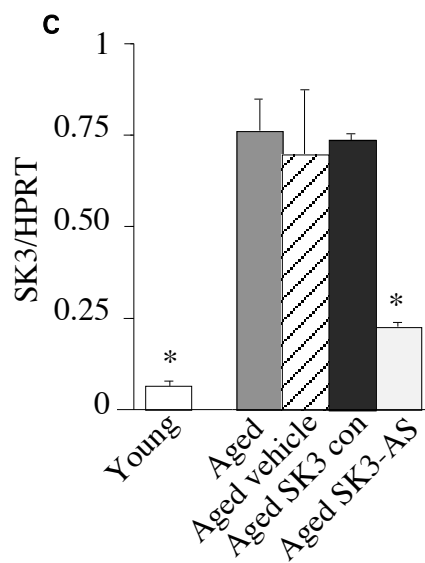
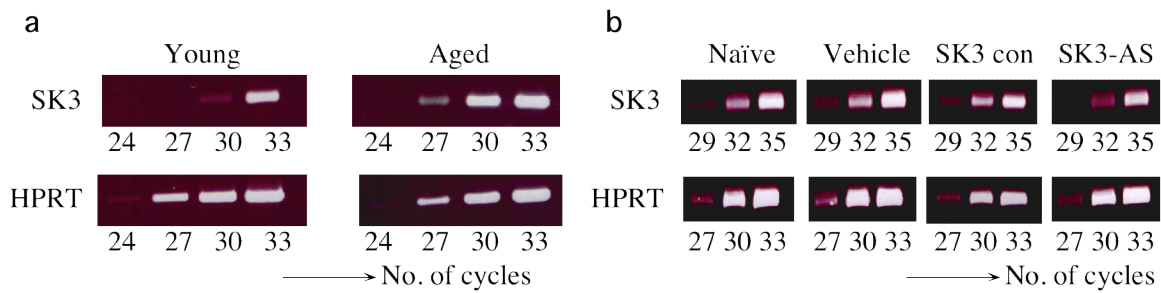
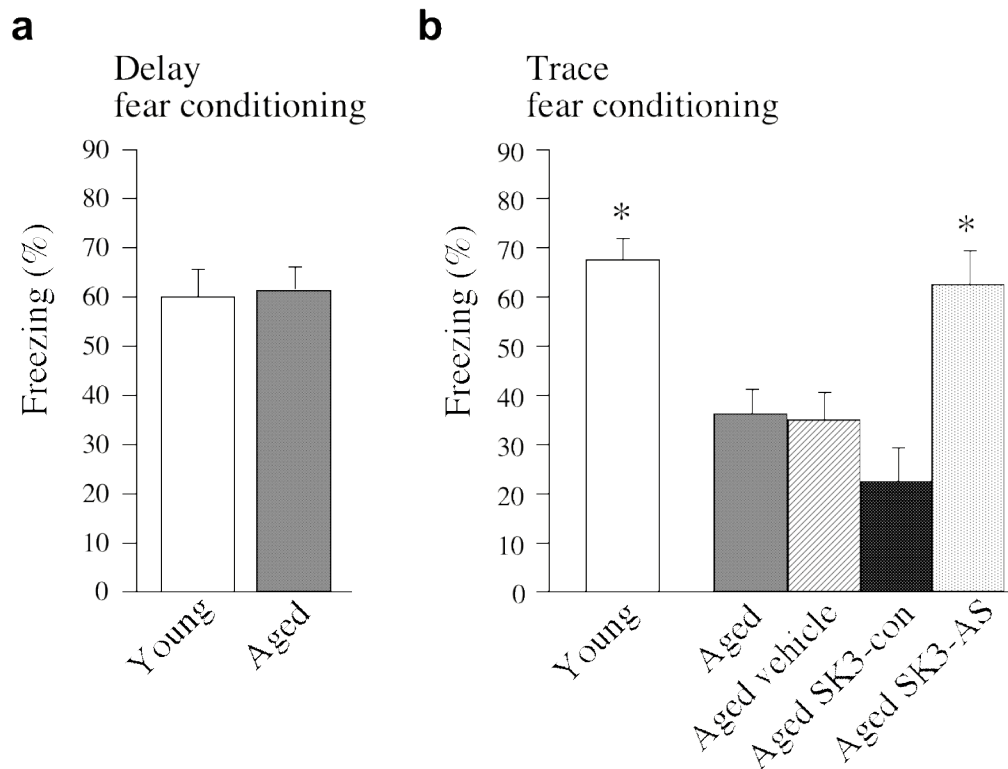
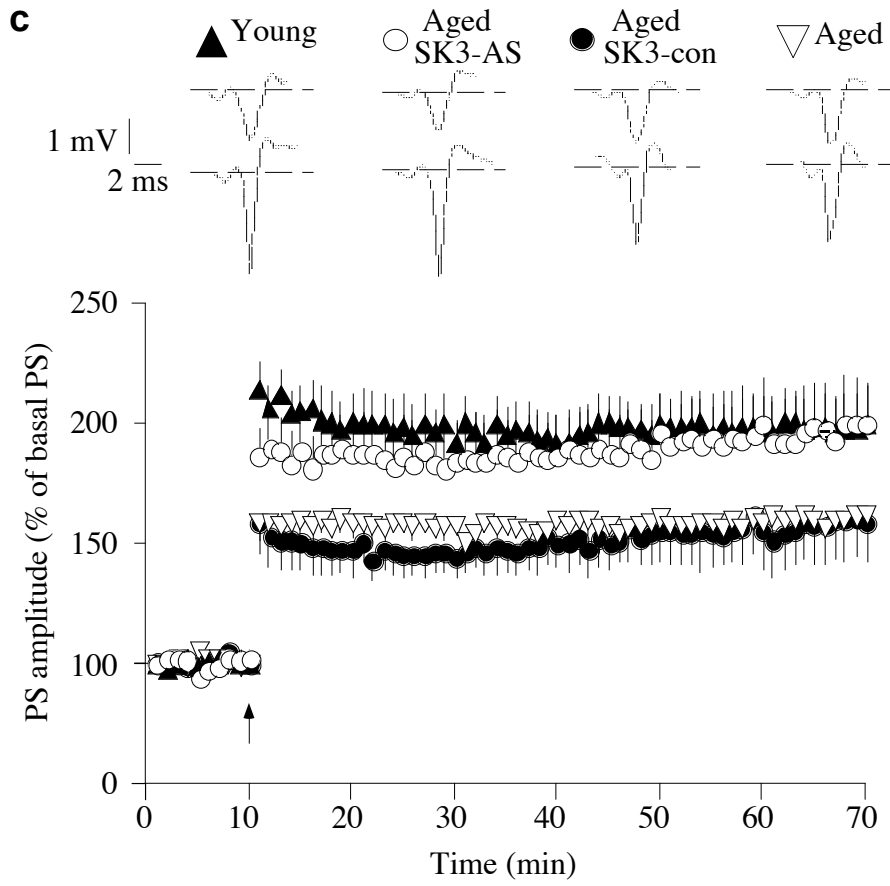


Figure 1 Antisense-SK3 treatment reduced the elevated expression of hippocampal SK3 channels in aged mice. **(a)** A typical RT-PCR experiment with SK3-specific primers (forward 5'-GTGCACAACCTTCATGATGGA-3' and reverse 5'-TTGACACCCCTCAGTTGG-3') revealed PCR products with the predicted 181-bp length of SK3 mRNA. Total RNA was extracted from a single hippocampus of a young and aged mouse. **(b)** Bar graphs show the relative band intensities on the basis of densitometric analysis as ratios of SK3 and HPRT mRNA after 30 cycles of co-amplification (mean \pm SEM). The intensities were verified to be within the linear range of product accumulation. For each group, we used 5-11 mRNA samples. Statistical analysis was performed by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test. *Significance ($P < 0.02$). **(c)** The SK3 channel transcript was detected by RT-PCR in hippocampi from aged mice as described under (a). Antisense-SK3 injection resulted in a significant reduction of the amount of hippocampal SK3 mRNA (* $P < 0.05$ by repeated measures ANOVA) relative to the amount detected in hippocampi from naïve, vehicle-injected or control ODNs-injected aged mice. One typical experiment of each group is presented. **(d)** Representative Western blot showing the analysis of SK3 protein in homogenates from a single hippocampus isolated from young or aged mice, which were pre-injected with vehicle, control oligonucleotides (ODNs) or antisense-SK3. **(e)** Bars represent mean Western blot band intensities \pm SEM from the hippocampal homogenates ($n = 6$, * $P < 0.001$ by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test).

To determine if the elevated SK3 channel expression in aged mice affects memory formation, mice were subjected to delay or trace fear conditioning (Supplementary Materials and Methods; all experiments were carried out in accordance with the European Council Directive of November 24, 1986 (86/609/EEC) with the permission (No. 604.42502/02-02.97) of the Animal Protection Law enforced by the District Government of Braunschweig, State of Lower Saxony, Germany). Trace conditioning is a hippocampus-dependent form of associative learning in which the conditioned stimulus (tone) and the unconditioned stimulus (footshock) are separated by a defined time interval. For delay conditioning, the tone is immediately followed by a footshock. Young and aged mice were tested 24 hours after delay fear conditioning in an altered context and did not differ in their freezing response to tone (**Fig. 2a**). This result suggests that acquisition and retention of the conditioned fear response were similarly intact in young and aged mice. The ability of young and aged mice to acquire associations between unpaired events was assessed in trace fear conditioning. In our protocol of trace fear conditioning, tone and shock were separated by a 15 s time interval. When tested 24 hours later, the freezing response of aged mice to the tone was reduced as

compared to that of young mice (**Fig. 2b**), suggesting reduced hippocampal processing of the temporally discontinuous stimuli in aged mice. To test whether downregulation of SK3 channels in the hippocampus of aged mice would overcome this memory deficit, bilaterally cannulated mice were infused with either SK3 antisense oligonucleotides (ODNs) or control ODNs on day 5, 3 and 1 before behavioral training (Supplementary Materials and Methods). ODNs and vehicle injection before training did not affect overall activity and response to the footshock during the training session (not shown). When tested 24 hours after trace fear conditioning, however, aged mice treated with antisense ODNs against SK3 showed the same freezing response to tone as young animals. Injection of vehicle or control ODNs had no effect on freezing to tone (**Fig. 2b**). In a similar set of experiments, hippocampal tissue was taken and assayed for the SK3 channel transcript (**Figs. 1c and b**) and its encoded protein (**Figs. 1d and e**). Both SK3 channel transcript and protein production were reduced by injection of SK3 antisense ODNs in aged mice, whereas no effect on the amount of SK3 channel transcript and protein was observed after vehicle or control ODNs treatment.





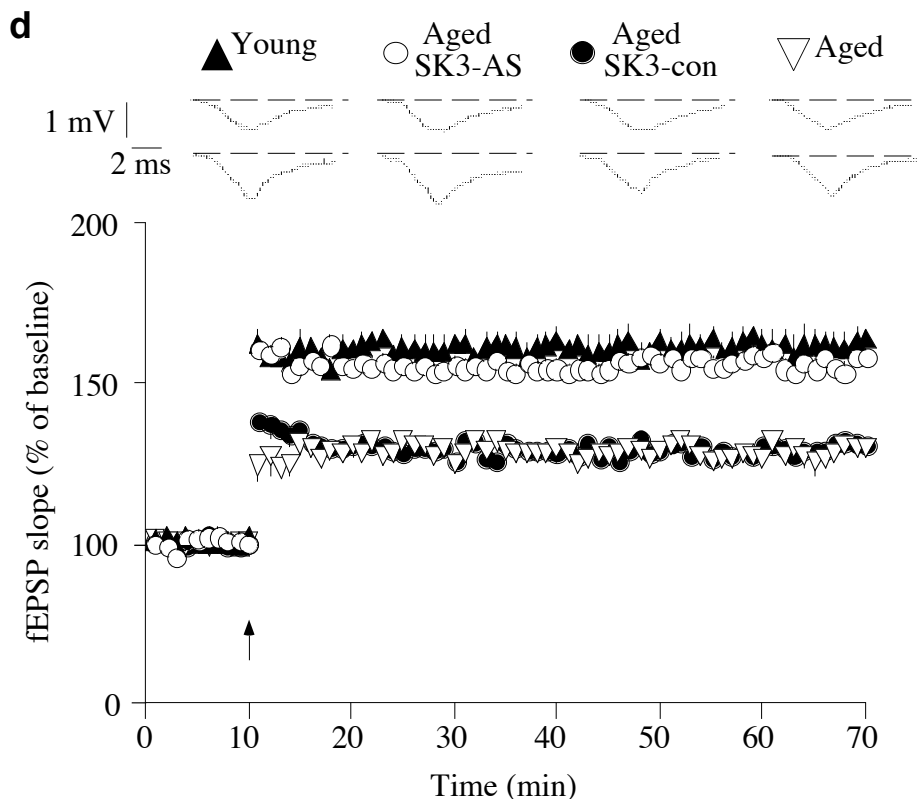


Figure 2 Downregulation of SK3 reversed the age-related impairment of trace fear conditioning, PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP. **(a)** Delay fear conditioning. The percentage of freezing in a novel context to tone tested 24 hr after training did not differ significantly ($P = n.s.$) in young ($n = 6$) and aged mice ($n = 11$). **(b)** Trace fear conditioning. Mean percentage of conditioned freezing to the tone for aged mice ($n = 17$) was reduced compared with the freezing of young mice ($*P < 0.05$, $n = 6$). Injection of antisense-SK3 ODNs resulted in a significant enhancement of the freezing response in aged mice ($*P < 0.05$, $n = 7$). No significant change in freezing was seen in aged mice injected with vehicle ($n = 6$) or control ODNs ($n = 6$). Statistics were performed by ANOVA with Fisher's PLSD *post hoc* test. *Significance ($P < 0.05$) compared with aged mice. **(c)** Conventional hippocampal slices were used¹⁵. PS-LTP elicited in slices from young mice was significantly more enhanced (; to $199 \pm 10.1\%$ of baseline; 8 slices, 5 mice; $P < 0.01$) when compared to PS-LTP induced in slices from aged mice (; to $161 \pm 3.3\%$ of baseline; 8 slices, 7 mice). The age-dependent impairment was significantly attenuated when aged mice were pre-injected with antisense ODNs against SK3 (; to $198 \pm 12.1\%$ of baseline; 8 slices, 7 mice; $P < 0.01$). Pre-injection of control ODNs did not significantly affect PS-LTP elicited in hippocampal slices from aged mice (; to $158 \pm 10.7\%$ of baseline; 8 slices, 6 mice; $P = n.s.$). Insets: Responses shown are population spikes recorded during baseline and 55-60 min after the induction of LTP. Traces are averages of six consecutive responses. **(d)** The magnitude of fEPSP-LTP was significantly larger in slices from young animals (; to $164 \pm 3.4\%$ of baseline; 6 slices, 5 mice; $P < 0.001$) than in slices from aged animals (; to $129 \pm 2.3\%$ of baseline; 6 slices, 5 mice). Pre-treatment of aged mice with antisense ODNs against SK3 resulted in

enhanced fEPSP-LTP (; to $158 \pm 2.1\%$ of baseline; 6 slices, 4 mice; $P < 0.001$), whereas pre-injection of control ODNs had no significant effect on fEPSP-LTP in slices from aged mice (; to $130 \pm 1.7\%$ of baseline; 5 slices, 5 mice; $P = \text{n.s.}$). Insets: Responses shown are fEPSPs recorded during baseline and 55-60 min after the induction of LTP. Traces are averages of six consecutive responses. Data are expressed as means \pm SEM. We tested significance using unpaired Student's *t*-test.

Several studies of aging and LTP have failed to demonstrate any age-related deficits using suprathreshold stimulation paradigms, such as high-frequency stimulation. (Moore, et al., 1993; Lanahan, et al., 1997) In contrast, perithreshold stimulation protocols (such as theta burst and primed burst stimulation) have revealed age-related deficits in the induction of LTP. (Moore, et al., 1993; Lanahan, et al., 1997) Therefore, we induced population spike (PS)-LTP and field excitatory postsynaptic potential (fEPSP)-LTP by theta burst stimulation (TBS), at the test pulse intensity, consisting of 5 x 100 Hz bursts (five diphasic pulses per burst) with a 200 ms interburst interval. We stimulated Schaffer collaterals with a bipolar electrode placed on the surface of the slice to record field potentials in the pyramidal cell layer or the dendritic layer of the CA1 area. The stimulus was adjusted to elicit a PS or fEPSP that represented a half-maximal response and was fixed at this level throughout the experiment. (Blank, et al., 2002) The magnitudes of PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP measured one hour after stimulation were more pronounced in hippocampal slices from young than from aged mice (**Figs. 2c and d**). PS-LTP as well as fEPSP-LTP recorded in slices from aged mice pre-treated with antisense ODNs against SK3 channels did not differ significantly from the potentiation observed in slices from young mice (both $P = \text{n.s.}$). Treatment of aged animals with control ODNs had no significant effect on PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP (both $P = \text{n.s.}$, **Figs. 2c and d**). These findings point to the SK3 channel as a decisive target involved in the reduced PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP magnitude in area CA1 of the aged mouse hippocampus.

In summary, the data we present here are the first to suggest that increased SK3 channel expression in the hippocampus of aged mice represents a mechanism, which contributes to the age-dependent decline in learning and memory and synaptic plasticity. With the help of SK3 deficient mice we will determine the role of SK3 channels in learning and memory and synaptic plasticity in future experiments. An intervention that

selectively reduces the function of SK3 channels may be a novel mechanistic approach for pharmacological treatments that might ameliorate or even prevent the memory deficits associated with aging.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Experiments were carried out with young (4-6 months) and aged (22-24 months) male C57BL/6J mice maintained under a National Institute of Aging contract with Harlan Sprague-Dawley. Upon arrival the mice were individually housed and maintained on a 12 hr light/dark cycle (lights on at 7 am) with free access to food and water. Mice were kept under these housing conditions for at least two weeks before experiments were started. All experimental procedures were in accordance with the European Council Directive (86/609/EEC) and the Animal Section Law under the supervision of the District Government of Braunschweig, Lower Saxony, Germany.

Behavioural experiment

One trial tone-dependent fear conditioning was performed by a computerized fear conditioning system from TSE (Bad Homburg, Germany) as described previously. (Blank, et al., 2002) Training was performed in a Plexiglas cage (36 x 21 x 20 cm) within a fear conditioning box constantly illuminated (12 V, 10 W halogen lamp, 100-500 lux). In this conditioning box, a high-frequency loudspeaker (Conrad, KT-25-DT, Hirschau, Germany) provided constant background noise [white noise, 68 dB sound pressure level (SPL)]. Delay conditioning consisted of exposing the mice for 180 s to the context followed by a 30 s tone (10 kHz, 75 dB SPL, pulsed 5 Hz) and 2 s shock (0.7 mA, constant current). For trace conditioning mice were placed into the conditioning box for 165 s and the tone and shock were separated by a 15 s interval. In both training paradigms, the mouse was removed from the fear conditioning box 30 s after shock termination to avoid an aversive association with the handling procedure. The tone-dependent memory test was performed by exposure to a novel context (180 s) followed by the tone employed for conditioning (180 s). Freezing, defined as the lack of movement

besides respiration and heart beat, was assessed every 10 s. The experimenter was blind to the animal pre-treatment in all studies. The data were converted to the percentage of samples scored as freezing. Locomotor activity was automatically recorded by an infrared beam system (detection rate 10 Hz), controlled by the fear conditioning system.

Antisense oligonucleotides

Antisense oligonucleotides (ODN) and controls directed against mouse SK3 have been provided by Biagnostik (Göttingen, Germany). ODNs were shipped as lyophilized DNA-Na salt. The lyophilized ODNs were dissolved in 1 x TE buffer (10 mM Tris/HCl, 1 mM EDTA; pH 7.2) to a stock concentration of 2 nmol/ μ l and stored at -20°C . The oligodeoxynucleotide suspension was diluted to a concentration of 0.5 nmol/ μ l in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) with 13 μ M of the lipophilic transfection reagent DOTAP (Boehringer Mannheim). The mixture was incubated for 15 min at 37°C prior to injection. Animals were injected intracerebroventricularly (i.c.v.) with 1 μ l antisense pro side on day 1, 3 and 5. Animals were decapitated or trained in the fear conditioning paradigm on day 6. The sequences of the antisense-SK3 and random control oligonucleotides are as follows: antisense-SK3, 5'-CTGTACTTCCCTTGTGTG-3' and random control, 5'-ACTACTACACTAGACTAC-3'.

Cannulation

Double guide cannulae (C235, Plastics One, Roanoke, Virginia) were implanted using a stereotactic holder during 1.2% avertin anesthesia (0.02 ml/g, intraperitoneal) under aseptic conditions as previously described. (Blank, et al., 2002) Each double guide cannula with inserted dummy cannula and dust cap was fixed to the skull of the mouse with dental cement. The cannulae were placed into both lateral brain ventricles, with anteroposterior (AP) coordinates zeroed at Bregma AP 0 mm, lateral 1 mm, depth 3 mm. The animals were allowed to recover for 4-5 d before the experiments started. Bilateral injections were performed using an infusion pump (CMA/100, CMA/Microdialysis, Solna, Sweden) at a constant rate of 0.5 μ l/min (final volume: 1 μ l per side). Cannula placement was verified *post hoc* in all mice by injection of methylene blue. For

electrophysiological experiments double guide cannula placement was verified by unilateral methylene blue injection.

Hippocampal slice electrophysiology

Mice were briefly anesthetized with isoflurane and then decapitated. In less than one minute the skull was opened, the brain removed and transferred to ice-cold aCSF solution of the following composition (in mM): 130 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH₂PO₄, 1.5 MgSO₄, 2 CaCl₂, 24 NaHCO₃, 10 glucose, equilibrated with 95% O₂/5% CO₂ (pH 7.4). Hippocampi were dissected from the chilled brain hemispheres on ice. Transverse hippocampal slices (400 μ M) were obtained on a McIlwain tissue chopper (The Mickle Laboratory Engineering Co. LTD., Surrey, England) and kept submerged (minimum of 1 hr at room temperature before recordings) in aCSF. Extracellular field potentials were recorded in a recording chamber maintained at 32 °C with recording electrodes pulled from borosilicate glass (WPI, Sarasota, FL) and filled with 2 M NaCl (3-5 m Ω). All recordings were made using a SEC-05L amplifier (npi Electronics, Tamm, Germany). To record field potentials in the pyramidal cell layer or the dendritic layer of the CA1 area Schaffer collaterals were stimulated with a bipolar electrode placed on the surface of the slice. At the beginning of each experiment, a stimulus-response curve was established by increasing the stimulus intensity and measuring the amplitude of the population spike (PS) or the field excitatory postsynaptic potential (fEPSP) slope. Based on the input-output function, the stimulus was adjusted to elicit a population spike or a fEPSP that represented a half-maximal response and was fixed at this level throughout the experiments. PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP were induced by theta burst stimulation, at the test pulse intensity, consisting of 5 x 100 Hz bursts (five diphasic pulses per burst) with a 200 ms interburst interval. Traces were stored on a computer using Pulse 7.4 software (HEKA, Lambrecht, Germany) for off-line analysis. PS-LTP and fEPSP-LTP were measured 60 min after tetanic stimulation. The experimenter was blind to the animal pre-treatment in all studies.

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Chapter 5

Summary and conclusion

Small conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ (SK) channels are believed to be involved in the generation of afterhyperpolarizations (AHPs) found in many central neurons. They are activated by an increase in intracellular calcium levels as seen following single or multiple action potentials (Sah, 1996). Three SK channel subtypes have been cloned from mammalian brain (Kohler et al., 1996). The mRNAs for all three SK channels are present throughout the mammalian central nervous with various densities. In the rat hippocampus, which contributes to several learning and memory processes, SK1 and SK2 channels are dominant with very low levels of SK3 subunits (Kohler et al., 1996; Stocker and Pedarzani, 2000).

The bee venom toxin apamin is known as a selective SK channel blocker. However, all three SK channel subtypes show different sensitivities to apamin. SK2 channels have a high sensitivity to apamin, whereas SK1 channels show very low sensitivity when expressed in *Xenopus* oocytes (Grunnet et al., 2001). In neurons, apamin can block medium AHPs, therefore SK channels are supposed to be responsible for this type of AHP (Storm, 1989; Savic et al., 2001; Abel et al., 2004, Villalobos et al., 2004).

Here, I showed that the expression level of SK2 channels is regulated by corticosteroids and NF-kappaB. It has already been known that corticosteroids modulate neuronal excitability, but there was no indication on down-stream targets of corticosteroids (Werkman et al., 1997; Pavlides et al., 1995). From the present data modulation of SK2 channel expression represents a potential mechanism to explain the link between changes in neuronal excitability and corticosteroids.

The consequences of corticosteroid-induced changes in SK2 channel expression for brain function are likely to be complex because this channel subtype is assumed to participate in forming a variety of functionally distinct channels. Up-regulation of SK2

channel genes may play an important role in the control of neuronal excitability and synaptic plasticity because increased levels of SK2 will cause elevated efflux of potassium ions out of the cell and consequently dampen the state of excessive neuronal activity. This in turn will protect the cell from persistent hyperexcitability and ultimately even from neuronal damage (Fig.1).

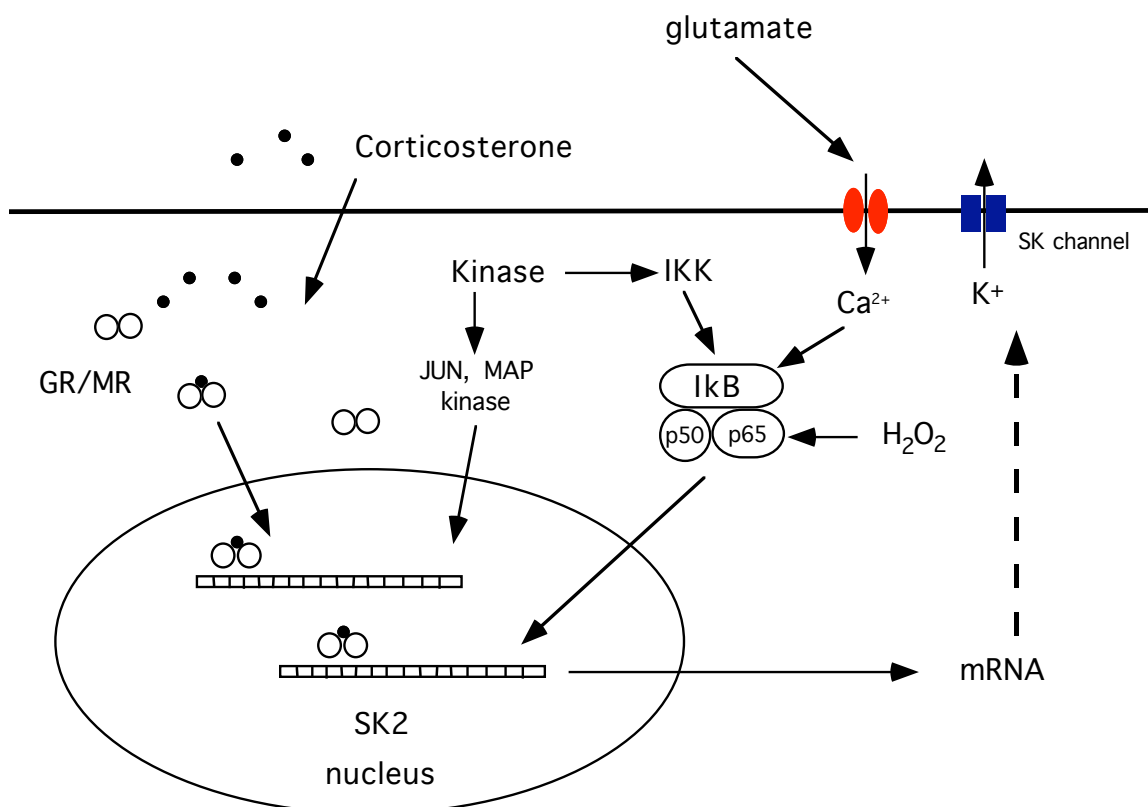


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of regulation of SK2 gene expression by corticosteroids and NF-kappaB. Corticosteroids can pass the cellular membrane freely and activate its two endogenous receptors, which are in the cytosol. Activated receptors enter the nucleus and modulate as transcription factors SK2 gene expression. The inactivated form of NF-kappaB exists in the cytosol as a complex. Kinases activate IKK, and activated IKK in turn phosphorylates IκB. Alternatively, Ca²⁺ entering the cell via glutamate receptors can also activate the NF-kappaB complex. Activated NF-kappaB enters the nucleus and acts as a transcription factor on SK2 channel expression.

Another conclusion from this study is the possible role of SK3 channels in age-related cognitive deficits. As discussed in Chapter 4, aged mice have higher levels of SK3 channel mRNA than young animals. When we decreased the amount of SK3 mRNA by antisense treatment, we observed that impaired LTP and trace fear conditioning fully recovered to the level of young animal. These findings suggest that increased expression levels of SK3 contribute to impaired learning and memory in aged animals.

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Blank T, Nijholt I, **Kye MJ** and Spiess J. Small conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels as targets of CNS drug development. *Curr Drug Targets CNS Neurol Disord.* 2004 Jun;3(3): 161-7. Review.

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Kye M, Nijholt I, Spiess J and Blank T (2003). Stress and corticosterone regulate SK2 gene expression in mouse hippocampus. *Soc. Neurosci. Abstr.* 29: 252.17.

Nijholt I, Farchi N, **Kye M**, Hochner B, Spiess J, Soreq H, and Blank T, (2003). Role of the stress-associated readthrough acetylcholinesterase variant in hippocampal long-term potentiation and fear memory. *Soc. Neurosci. Abstr.* 29: 623.18.

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