Effect of ketamine on early synaptic mistuning and emotional behavior deficits in App^{NL-F}

mouse model of Alzheimer's disease.

Benjamin Portal[1, *], Moa Södergren[1], Teo Parés i Borrell[1], Nicole Metzendorf[2], Greta Hultqvist[2], Per

Nilsson[3], Maria Lindskog[1, 3]

1. Department for Medical Cell Biology, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

2. Department of Pharmacy, Division of Protein Drug Design, Uppsala University, Uppsala, Sweden

3. Department of Neurobiology, Care Sciences and Society, Division of Neurogeriatrics, Center for

Alzheimer Research, Karolinska Institutet, Stockholm, Sweden

* Corresponding author:

Benjamin Portal

Uppsala University

Department for Medical Cell Biology

Box 571

751 23 Uppsala

Sweden

Email: Benjamin.Portal@uu.se

ABSTRACT

Alzheimer's disease is the most common neurodegenerative disease, reported as 75 to 80% of dementia cases worldwide. Unfortunately, there are to date no disease modifying treatments available for this mental illness. It is therefore urgent to identify new pharmacological targets. Alzheimer's disease is thought to be caused by important phosphorylation of the microtubule associated protein Tau and abnormal amyloid-beta (Aβ) accumulation around brain cells, together causing neurodegeneration. Whether the late phases of the disease are well described, recent evidence suggest synaptic impairments at a pre-Aβ plaque stage. However, the underlaying mechanisms remain yet to be clarified. In this study we used the App^{NL-F} knock-in mouse model of Alzheimer's disease which carries two disease-causing mutations inserted in the amyloid precursor protein (App) gene and shows pathological Aβ plaques not earlier than fifteen months of age. To better understand early changes, we investigated in six months old animals, synaptic plasticity, and its potential pharmacological targeting in the treatment of this pathology. Our electrophysiological recordings revealed an overall synaptic mistuning at a pre-plaque stage of the pathology, associated to an intact social memory but a higher apathy-like and depression-like behavior. Interestingly, a single injection of ketamine (5mg/kg), twenty-four hours prior to experiment, partially corrected synaptic and depression-like behavior observed in six months old animals, compared to non-treated controls. In contrast with the amyloid-hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease, our study shows that earlier synaptic impairments could at least in part be the cause of the later-on observed symptoms, which could be prevented by pharmacological intervention.

KEY WORDS: Alzheimer's disease; Depression; Early stages; Synaptic tuning; Pharmacology

1.   INTRODUCTION.

Alzheimer's disease is a progressive age-related neurodegenerative disorder accounting for 75% of dementia cases worldwide [1]. Patients show significant memory loss [2] and multiple secondary symptoms such as social isolation [3] and depressive symptoms [4]. In recent years, significant improvements have been done in clinical care of patients; However, the underlaying mechanisms of this pathology remain to be clarified.

The intracellular Tau neurofibrillary tangles [5] and the amyloid-beta (Aβ) aggregation [6] are the molecular hallmarks of the pathology, and are generally believed to cause synaptic changes [7]. Several studies have pointed out synaptic plasticity (i.e., neuronal adaptation, functional or morphological following an external stimulation, [8]) impairments, suggested to accelerate the neurodegeneration [9] and cause important memory loss [10]. Moreover, clusters of hyperexcitable neurons have been identified nearby Aβ plaques [11], most likely due to passive and active neuronal electrical properties changes [12].

However, the amyloid origin of the pathology is controversial [13] as the memory loss observed in Alzheimer's patients does not necessarily correlate with the number of amyloid plaques. Meanwhile, recent work clearly shows impairments in neuronal function as well as behavior well before detection of plaques [14]. Amyloid misprocessing leads to many Aβ products, including Aβ oligomers, proposed to be the most toxic for neurons [15]. This is in good agreement with clinical data showing that neurobiological changes can occur up to twenty years before the appearance of the first memory deficits [16]. It is therefore important to better understand early changes (i.e., before Aβ plaques) for diagnosis and treatments. Alzheimer's disease is also associated to a loss of synaptic plasticity and a progressive reduction in the number of synapses. Importantly, recent work suggests that impairment in synaptic transmission occur long before occurrence of Aβ accumulation [17], and that a deficit in neuronal activity set-point may be an underlaying mechanism of the pathology [18].

Early symptoms of Alzheimer's disease reach beyond memory loss. Among others, neuropsychiatric disorders (e.g., sleep disturbance, psychosis, also defined as delusion and hallucination, [19]), apathy (i.e., lack of interest) and affective syndromes (e.g., depression and anxiety) [20] are common and even used as elements of diagnosis for Alzheimer's disease.

Until recently, there were no disease modifying treatments although recent anti-Aβ immunotherapies

have shown promising results in early phases of the pathology [21, 22]. Nevertheless, we need new

strategies to better treat Alzheimer's disease. To do so, many animal models have been engineered

[23], yet none of them recapitulate all the symptoms of the pathology. One common feature is an

important Aβ accumulation [24] already at a young age, hampering the study of pre-plaques phases.

Only a few preclinical studies have focused on the development of early symptoms in Alzheimer's

disease. For example, Arroyo-Garcia and colleagues revealed synaptic impairments in an App

knock-in mouse model [25]; Loera-Valencia and colleagues have shown an impaired synaptic

plasticity in a hypercholesterolemia mouse model of Alzheimer's disease [26].

The App^{NL-F} mouse line is a late onset knock-in model of Alzheimer's disease, interesting to

study early stages of the pathology. This model carries two disease causing mutations (the Swedish

mutation, NL and the Beyreuther/Iberian mutation, F) in the amyloid precursor protein (App) gene

[24] and does not develop pathological plaques until fifteen months of age [27], giving a very large

window to explore pre-plaques stages. While no Tau pathology has been unveiled in this model [28]

many molecular changes such as autophagy disturbances [29] and mitochondria dysfunctions [30]

were reported both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. Interestingly, early Wnt pathway disruption, known to be

crucial for synaptic activity [31], has been pointed out in the cortex of six months old App^{NL-F} animals

[14], strongly suggesting early synaptic impairment in this model.

In the present study we identify early synaptic changes in this App knock-in mouse model

App^{NL-F}. Electrophysiological recordings revealed a reduced excitatory synaptic activity and altered

plasticity, associated to an increased depression-like behavior. We show that these early alterations

can be partially corrected by a low dose of the N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA) receptors antagonist

ketamine, delivered twenty-four hours prior to experiment

2.   METHODS.

2.1.   Animals.

App^{NL-F} mice model of Alzheimer's disease were bred locally at Uppsala University. These mice

carry the Swedish (KM670/671NL) and the Beyreuther/Iberian (I716F) mutations in the App gene

[24, 27]. Age-matched C57Bl6 mice were bought from Charles River (Germany). Both strains were

housed in the same conditions, on a 12:12 light-dark cycle and with access to food and water *ad libitum*. All experiments were conducted in six months old males.

2.2. Drugs.

Ketamine (Ketaminol® vet., 100 mg/kg, Intervet) was diluted in vehicle solution (natriumchloride, NaCl 0.9%) and delivered intraperitoneally (i.p.; 5 mg/kg) twenty-four hours prior to experiments. Tetrodotoxin (TTX; Tocris 4368-28-9) was diluted in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF) and used in patch-clamp experiments at a concentration of 1 μM.

2.3. Behavioral Analysis.

Animals were habituated to the experimental room twenty minutes prior to experiments. The luminosity of the room was set on 30 lux and the temperature at 21°C ± 1°C.

To characterize the App^{NL-F} model, three cohorts of mice were used for the following sets of behavior tests:

- Cohort 1: Open field test, five-trials social memory test and olfactory habituation/dishabituation,

- Cohort 2: Elevated plus maze, splash test, forced swim test and sucrose preference test,

- Cohort 3: Splash test and forced swim test

In the ketamine experiments, two cohorts were used:

- Cohort 1: Five-trials social memory test, open field and forced swim test,

- Cohort 2: Five-trials social memory test, open field, Splash test and elevated plus maze,

The tests were performed in the described order, with at least three days between each test. For the ketamine treatments, ketamine was given twenty-four hours before each test.

2.3.1. Five-trials social memory test.

The mice were habituated to an empty square arena (50cm x 50cm) for ten minutes, followed by five minutes exploration of the same arena with an empty removable cage (8cm x 8 cm x 9 cm). An unknown mouse (same genotype, same fur color, same age, and same gender as the test mouse)

was placed for five minutes in the removable cage for four consecutive trials, separated with ten minutes. One hour after the fourth trial, a new unknown mouse was placed in the cage for five minutes. Social interactions were manually scored.

2.3.2. Olfactory habituation/dishabituation test.

The mice were isolated in individual standard cages in which they performed the whole experiment and habituated for at least twenty minutes. Cotton swabs soaked with non-social odors (melon and banana) or social odors (one form their home cage, one from a non-familiar cage) were presented to the animal for two minutes. Each odor was presented three times.

2.3.3. Open field test.

The animals were free to explore a spatial-cue-free square arena (50cm x 50cm) for ten minutes. The central zone and peripheral zone were defined in the Ethovision software (Noldus tech, The Netherlands). The area of the central zone was defined as 50% of the area of the arena. The total travelled distance, the time spent in the central area, as well as the number of entries in the central zone, were automatically analyzed by the software.

2.3.4. Elevated plus maze.

The maze was composed of two open arms, two closed arms, linked together at a central platform and positioned 50 cm above ground. Mice were placed on the central platform facing one open arm and were let to explore for five minutes. The number of entries and the time spent in the open arms were manually scored. An animal was considered "in the arm" when the four paws crossed the virtual line between the central platform and the considered arm.

2.3.5. Splash test.

The animals were isolated in a new cage and habituated for at least twenty minutes. The test was performed as previously described [32]: 200 μL of 10% sucrose solution was squirted on the mouse's snout and the grooming behavior (latency to first, frequency and total time), used to evaluate

self-care, was manually scored for five minutes. Mice were placed back together in their home cage after the experiment.

2.3.6. Forced swim test.

The mice were placed in a cylinder (30 cm high, Ø 18 cm) filled with 25 ± 1°C water to a height of 17 cm where no part of the animal could touch the bottom. The mice were left in the cylinder for six minutes, and the time spend immobile was quantified during the last four minutes. Latency to first immobility and the total time of immobility were manually scored. An animal was considered as immobile when it was floating and none of the paws nor the tail was moving.

2.3.7. Sucrose preference test.

Each animal was singled housed and habituated to drink water from two identical bottles for forty-eight hours. During the following seventy-two hours, mice could choose between water and a 1% sucrose solution. Sucrose solution intake was measured by weighting the bottles before and after the last twenty-four hours and expressed as the percentage of the total amount of liquid ingested, normalized to the mouse body weight. Each bottle was replaced and switched from left to right daily.

2.4. Emotionality z-score.

Z-normalization was used in this study as a complementary measurement for emotionality-related behavior, obtain from different paradigms [33]. Raw behavioral data (parameters of interest) were normalized to the control group using the following equation $z = (X - \mu)/\sigma$ with X being the individual value for the considered parameter, μ being the mean of the control group and σ being the standard deviation of the control group. Each parameter of interest gave a parameter z-score (zSC_param), adjusted so that an increased score reflects an increased emotionality. For each test, all parameter scores were averaged into a test score (zSC_test), and eventually averaged to give an individual emotionality z-score.

More details about the exact list of parameters of interest and the mathematical method are available in **supplementary table 1 and 3**.

2.5. Electrophysiology.

2.5.1. Brain slicing.

For the preparation of acute slices, mice were anesthetized with isofluorane and decapitated soon after the disappearance of corneal reflexes. 300 μm thick horizontal sections were prepared using a Leica VT1200 vibrating microtome (Leica Microsystems, Nussloch, Germany) in dissection solution containing 250 mM sucrose, 2.5 μM KCl, 1.4 mM NaH_2PO_4, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, 10 mM glucose, 1 mM $CaCl_2$ and 4 mM $MgCl_2$, and bubbled with carbogen gas (5% CO_2, 95% O_2). Hippocampi were dissected and slices were placed in a recovery chamber filled with aCSF containing (in mM): 130 NaCl, 3.5 KCl, 1.25 NaH_2PO_4, 24 $NaHCO_3$, 10 glucose, 2 $CaCl_2$ and 1.3 $MgCl_2$ and bubbled with carbogen gas.

2.5.2. Patch clamp recording.

After a recovery period of at least two hours, slices were transferred in a submerged recording chamber with a perfusion rate of 2-3 mL per min with standard aCSF, tempered at 32 ± 1°C and bubbled with carbogen gas. Borosilicate glass pipettes with a tip resistance of 4-5 MΩ were used for patching neurons. The glass pipettes were filled with a solution containing (in mM) 110 K-gluconate, 10 KCl, 4 Mg-ATP, 10 Na_2-phosphocreatine, 0.3 Na-GTP, 10 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperzine-1-ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES) and 0.2 ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid (EGTA) (pH 7.2-7.4; 270-290 mOsm). Pyramidal neurons were identified by shape and localization in stratum radiatum of area CA1 of the hippocampus. Spontaneous Excitatory Post-Synaptic Currents (sEPSC) were recorded in absence of any drugs, whereas miniature Excitatory Post-Synaptic Currents (mEPSC) were recorded in the presence of 1 μM TTX.

The access resistance was monitored throughout the recordings and data were included only for stable values (< 30% variation). The signal was acquired using an Ag/AgCl electrode connected to a Multiclamp 700B amplifier, digitized with Digidata 1440A and handled with the Clampex software (v. 10.0; Molecular Devices).

Traces were analyzed using the Easy electrophysiology software (v. 2.4). The event detection was based on a template fitting method. Probe recordings (three recordings of one minute each) from C57Bl6 wild type acute hippocampus slices were used to generate and refine a template

from representative events corresponding to an average of ten to twenty detected EPSC. Event detection in App^{NL-F} and C57Bl6 controls acute slices was then run on a semi-automatic method: each event detected fits the previously generated template. A minimum amplitude threshold of 10 pA was applied: all events that were detected between 0 pA and 10 pA were discarded. Each recording was analyzed on a period of 1 minute.

2.5.3. Field recording.

After a recovery period of at least two hours, slices were transferred in a submerged recording chamber with a perfusion rate of 2-3 ml per min with standard aCSF, tempered at 32±1 °C and bubbled with carbogen gas. An extracellular borosilicate recording pipette filled with aCSF was placed in the stratum radiatum of area CA1 and field Excitatory Post-Synaptic Potentials (fEPSP) were evoked by electrical stimulation of the Schaffer collaterals using a bipolar concentric electrode (FHC Inc., Bowdoin, ME), connected to an isolated stimulator (Digitimer Ltd., Welwyn Garden City, UK). Recordings were performed with the stimulus intensity to elicit 30-40% of the maximal response and individual synaptic responses were evoked at 0.05 Hz (every 20 seconds). The acquired signal was amplified and filtered at 2 kHz (low-pass filter) using an extracellular amplifier (EXT-02F, NPI Electronic, Tamm, Germany). Data were collected and analyzed using a Digidata 1440A, Axoscope and Clampfit softwares (Molecular Devices, San Jose, CA). Responses were quantified by determining the slope of the linear rising phase of the fEPSP (from 10% to 70% of the peak amplitude). The response was normalized to the average baseline measured in the last ten minutes prior to the start of the experiment.

To study long term synaptic plasticity, we used ten theta-bursts (θ-burst) separated with 200 ms. Each θ-burst is four pulses at 100 Hz, a stimulation protocol tested not to be enough to trigger Long Term Potentiation (LTP) in slices from C57Bl6 mice.

2.6 Western blot.

2.6.1 Structure dissection.

Mice were anesthetized with isofluorane and decapitated soon after the disappearance of corneal reflexes. The brain was extracted, hippocampus rapidly dissected in ice, frozen on dry ice and kept at -80°C until protein extraction.

2.6.2 Protein extraction, Migration and Analysis.

Hippocampi were homogenized in a lysis solution containing RIPA buffer, phosphatase inhibitors (ThermoFisher A32957) and protease inhibitors (ThermoFisher A32953). Samples were diluted in LDS sample buffer (ThermoFisher NP0007) and an equal amount of protein (20 µg) was loaded onto a NuPAGE™ 4-12% Bis-Tris gel (ThermoFisher NP0336BOX), run four hours at 80V and transferred (2h at 80V) to a PVDF membrane.

Membranes where blocked with 5% BSA+ 5% Normal Donkey Serum, incubated with primary antibodies overnight and then with the appropriate secondary antibodies. The fluorescent signal was visualized using the LiCOR Odyssey infrared detection system (Lincoln, Ne, USA). The amount of fluorescence for each band was quantified with FIJI software (v. 2.9 NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA). GAPDH was used as the loading control protein

A full list of the used antibodies and their concentration is available in **supplementary table 5**.

2.7 Immunohistochemistry.

2.7.1 Perfusion and brain extraction.

Mice were deeply anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine (100 mg/kg) and xylazine (16 mg/kg) i.p. In absence of corneal reflexes, mice were transcardially perfused with NaCl 0.9% followed by a 4% PFA solution. The brain was extracted and post-fixed in a 4% PFA solution for forty-eight hours, washed in PBS for twenty-four hours and placed in a 30% sucrose + 1% natrium azide solution until further use.

2.7.2   Slicing and staining.

The brains were sliced in 40 µm thick sections using a cryostat (Thermo Scientific Cryostar

NX70) tempered at 4°C. Free-floating slices were treated with a 10% formic acid solution for ten

minutes for epitope retrieval. After blocking steps with normal donkey serum, slices were incubated

with primary Aβ antibody (Covence Signet SZG-39300-200; 1:5000) overnight at 4°C and then with

Alexa fluor Donkey anti-mouse 647 (1:5000; Invitrogen A31571) for two hours. DAPI (1:5000) was

added to counterstain nuclei. Slices were then mounted on non-coated microscope glass coverslips

using the fluoromount mounting medium (Invitrogen, 00-4958-02).

Images were taken on a confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM700) with a 10x objective and the Zeiss

Zen software was used during the whole imaging process.

2.8 Amyloid-beta (Aβ) ELISA.

2.8.1   Perfusion and brain extraction.

Mice were anesthetized with a mixture of ketamine (100 mg/kg) and xylazine (16 mg/kg)

administered via i.p route. In absence of corneal reflexes, mice were transcardially perfused with

NaCl 0.9%. The brain was extracted, and hippocampi, cortex, and cerebellum were dissected in dry

ice and kept at -80°C until further use.

2.8.2   Brain homogenization.

The brain regions were homogenized at 1:5 weight/volume ratio in precellys homogenization

tubes (Bertin Technologies, P000933-LYSK0-A). A three-step homogenization was applied: Tris-

buffered saline (TBS) to isolate soluble Aβ, TBS with 1% triton-x100 (TBS-T; Sigma-Aldrich, X100)

for isolation of membrane-associated Aβ, and 70% (v/v) formic acid (FA; Sigma-Aldrich, F0507) for

the insoluble Aβ fraction. TBS-homogenized brains were centrifuged at 16 000 x g for sixty minutes

at +4°C, the supernatant was collected. The pellets were subsequently homogenized in TBS-T and

centrifuged at 16 000 x g for sixty minutes at +4°C and supernatant was collected. The pellets were

dissolved in 70% (v/v) FA, centrifuged at 16 000 x g for sixty minutes at +4°C and the supernatant

was collected and immediately neutralized with 1M Tris pH 8.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM9856).

2.8.3   Aβ ELISA.

The three Aβ fractions were analyzed using a homogenous sandwich ELISA using the Aβ

N-terminal specific antibody 3D6 (murine version of Bapineuzumab, produced in-house) as both

capture and detection antibody. 96-wells ELISA plates were coated with 1 μg/mL 3D6 and

incubated over night at +4°C. Plates were blocked with 1% (w/v) BSA in PBS 1X for two hours.

Dilutions of TBS and TBS-T brain fractions (1:10 (v/v)) and FA brain fraction (1:200 (v/v)) in

ELISA incubation buffer (EIB; 0.05% tween-20 (Sigma-Aldrich, P9416), 0.1% w/v BSA in PBS

1X) were added to the ELISA plate and incubated over nigh at +4°C. Biotinylated 3D6 (prepared

in-house; 1 μg/mL in EIB) was incubated for two hours at room temperature followed by one hour

of streptavidin-HRP (Mabtech, 3310-9-1000) at room temperature. The ELISA was developed

with K-blue Aqueous TMB substrate (Neogen Corp., 331177) and read with a spectrophotometer

(Tecan, Spark) at 450 nm.

2.9 Statistical analysis.

IBM SPSS Statistics (v. 28 IBM corp) was used to perform the statistical analysis. For each

experiment, a Shapiro-Wilk test for normality and Levene's test for homogeneity of variances were

used to determine the subsequent test to compared means. For all the tests, 0.05 was set as the

significance threshold. All results are shown as mean ± S.E.M.

A summary of statistics is available in **supplementary table 2 and 4.**

3.   RESULTS.

3.1. App^{NL-F} mice show no plaques but increased insoluble Aβ at six months old.

One of the common features of Alzheimer's disease animal models is the over App

degradation, leading to an early increased concentration of Aβ. Likewise, it is generally accepted

that such phenomenon can initiate an important aggregation resulting in neuronal impairments. As

previously described, Aβ plaques in the hippocampus of App^{NL-F} mouse model are not detectable

with immunohistochemistry before twelve months, with a very high load at fifteen months of age. Aβ

immunostaining in the hippocampus of six months old animals confirmed the absence of plaques

(**figure 1A**). To investigate whether Aβ accumulation can occur before plaques detections, we

performed an ELISA immunoassay that detects aggregated Aβ (larger than dimers). Interestingly,

our analysis revealed an increase in the relative amount of membrane-bound Aβ aggregates (as

found in the TBST fraction) in the hippocampus App^{NL-F} mice compared to C57Bl6 (p<0.001, with no

difference in the cortex nor the cerebellum, **figure 1C**). Moreover, non-soluble Aβ (e.g., plaques, as

found in the formic acid fraction) was increased in both the cortex (p<0.01) and the hippocampus

(p<0.01) but not in the cerebellum (**figure 1D**). No differences in the relative concentration of non-

membrane-bound Aβ oligomers (as found in the TBS fraction) were unveiled in any of the three-

brain regions (**figure 1B**).

Thus, even though the level of App is similar between App^{NL-F} and C57Bl6 mice [24], and the

absence of large plaques, we show Aβ accumulation in the hippocampus of six months old App^{NL-F}

animals, consistent with previous observations *in vitro* [34].We hypothesize that this can lead to

subsequent neuronal dysfunctions.

<u>Figure 1</u> : ***App^{NL-F} mice do not display Aβ plaques but higher insoluble fraction in the***

hippocampus.

Immunolabelling of Aβ (A.) reveals the absence of plaques in the hippocampus of six months old

App^{NL-F} mice, compared to C57Bl6 mice. ELISA analysis of different Aβ fractions shows unchanged

concentrations in non-membrane-bound Aβ (TBS fraction, B.) in the hippocampus, the cortex and

the cerebellum. However, increased concentration in membrane-bound Aβ (TBST fraction) in the

hippocampus (C.) but not in the cortex nor the cerebellum were observed. Our analysis also revealed

an increased formic acid fraction (i.e., non-soluble dimers) in both the cortex and the hippocampus

(D.).

For the three fractions: Two-way ANOVA with the genotype and the brain region as the main factors.

Bonferroni multiple comparison: **, $p<0.01$; ***, $p<0.001$ statistically significant as shown. C57Bl6:

n=6, App^{NL-F}: n=6. Figure A: scale bar 200µm.

3.2. Glutamatergic synapses' activity is reduced in area CA1 at six months old App^{NL-F} mice.

Whole-cell patch clamp technique (**figure 2A**) in glutamatergic neurons in the stratum radiatum of area CA1 of the hippocampus showed that resting membrane potential (**figure 2B**) was significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) in App^{NL-F} mice (-51.74 ± 1.32 mV) compared to C57Bl6 mice (-56.18 ± 1.38 mV), suggesting impaired neuronal functions. Spontaneous synaptic activity in active hippocampal network (sEPSC) was not different between the two strains in neither frequency (C57Bl6: 0.37 ± 0.12 Hz, App^{NL-F}: 0.25 ± 0.06 Hz; **figure 2C, G**) or amplitude (C57Bl6: -29.94 ± 1.96 pA, App^{NL-F}: -28.20 ± 1.93 pA; **figure 2D**). Decay and rise time of sEPSC were also unchanged between genotypes (**supplementary figure 1A, B**). However, when action potentials were blocked with the sodium channel blocker TTX (1 µM), allowing us to record spontaneous release of individual synaptic vesicles (mEPSC) we observed a reduced frequency of the mEPSC (**figure 2E, G**) in App^{NL-F} mice (0.27 ± 0.04 Hz) compared to C57Bl6 mice (0.56 ± 0.08 Hz; $p < 0.01$), whereas the amplitude (C57Bl6: -21.71 ± 1.48 pA, App^{NL-F}: -19.65 ± 1.43 pA) remained unchanged (**figure 2F**). No differences were unveiled in the to decay and rise time of mEPSC (**supplementary figure 1C-D** respectively). These observations revealed the presence of dysfunctional synapses in App^{NL-F} animals already at six months old.

<u>Figure 2</u> : Area CA1 glutamatergic neurons' activity is impaired in App^{NL-F}

Patch clamp experiment (A.) reveales a higher resting membrane potential in App^{NL-F} mice compared

to C57Bl6 mice (B.). Although the frequency (C.) or the amplitude (D.) of sEPSC is unchanged, the

frequency of mEPSC (E.) is significantly reduced in App^{NL-F}. Interestingly, the amplitude of these

mEPSC (F.) remains unchanged. (G.) depicts representative traces for both sEPSC and mEPSC.

Student t-test *, p<0.05, **, p<0.01 statistically significant as shown. For all variables, C57Bl6: n=10

cells recorded in seven animals, App^{NL-F}: n=10 cells recorded in seven animals.

3.3. Glutamatergic synapses in area CA1 are more sensitive.

Based on previous observations of our lab [35], we hypothesize that synapses could be mistuned at the cost of an impaired plasticity. Thus, the possibility to undergo long-term potentiation (LTP) was examined, using a subthreshold stimulation protocol that did not evoke LTP in C57Bl6 mice (**figure 3A**). Ten theta-bursts (θ-burst) stimulation of Schaffer collaterals induced an immediate potentiation of synaptic strength, as measured as the increased slope of the evoked fEPSP, in both genotypes (p<0.001; **figure 3B, C**) However, after one hour, the fEPSP had progressively returned to baseline in control animals, whereas the magnitude of the fEPSP was still significantly increased in App^{NL-F} mice (p<0.001 different from the baseline; **figure 3D**), suggesting an increased synaptic plasticity.

To molecularly characterize these observations, we assessed glutamate-pathway related protein expression in whole hippocampus protein extracts with western-blot. The NMDA receptor GluN2A subunit was significantly increased in App^{NL-F} extracts compared to C57Bl6 extracts (~ 2.5-fold increase, p<0.05) while no difference was observed in the levels of the GluN1 or GluN2B subunits (**figure 3E**). No significant difference was observed in the assessed signaling proteins involved in LTP: CamKII (α and β subunits) and ERK1/2, nor it's phosphorylated version p-ERK (**figure 3F**). An increased levels of GluN2A subunit, believed to be the most dynamic in the LTP phenomenon [36], is in good agreement with the reduced threshold for LTP.

Figure 3 : *Synaptic mistuning is associated with an increased expression of NMDA receptors.*

After Schaffer collaterals stimulation, we recorded the response of post-synaptic neurons in area CA1 of the hippocampus (H.). After ten minutes of baseline recording, we applied a customized θ-burst stimulation protocol and follow the response up to one hour after the stimulation (I.). Our protocol potentiates the fEPSP (J.) which, after one hour is almost back to the baseline values (K.) in C57Bl6 mice. Interestingly, the stimulation triggers a long-term potentiation (LTP) in six months old App^{NL-F} animals, revealing early higher synaptic sensitivity. Student t-test: ##, p<0.05, ###, p<0.001 statistically significant from 1; Student t-test: *, p<0.05, ***, p<0.001 statistically significant as shown. C57Bl6: n=6 recordings in three animals, App^{NL-F}: n=9 recordings in five animals.

Using western-blot analysis, we identified an increased expression of NMDA receptors subunit 2A in the hippocampus of App^{NL-F} mice (E.). The expression of the other NMDA receptors subunits, the different AMPA receptors subunits as well as downstream molecular actors (F.) were unchanged. Mann-Whitney test **, p<0.01 statistically different as shown. C57Bl6 controls: n=7, App^{NL-F}: n=6

3.4. App^{NL-F} mice show no social memory impairments but a lack of motivation.

Six months old App^{NL-F} mice have no spatial memory impairments [37], although our electrophysiological and molecular results suggest a dysfunction of the hippocampal network already at this age. Social memory problems have been pointed out in other relevant transgenic mice model of Alzheimer's disease [38], consistent with early social isolation and poor social recognition in patients [39]. We therefore asked whether six months old App^{NL-F} mice present social memory problems. This possibility was explored in the five-trials social memory test in which during four consecutive trials the social interactions with an unknown animal is used to evaluate social memory whereas the interaction with a new animal on the fifth trial is used to assess the motivation (**figure 4A**). A similar decrease in social interactions was observed over the four first trials in both App^{NL-F} and C57Bl6 animals (**figure 4B, C**), suggesting no social memory impairments at six months old. Whilst on the fifth trial social interactions with a new animal were increased in control mice (27.38 ± 9.14% on trial 4 vs. 87.11 ± 9.18% on trial 5; **figure 4B-C**), they were similar to the one observed in the fourth trial in App^{NL-F} mice (34.94 ± 6.33% on trial 4 vs. 42.03 ± 13.62% on trial 5). Furthermore, the latency to first interaction was similar in both groups during the first trial, (C57Bl6: 26.32 ± 13.31 seconds, App^{NL-F}:11.69 ± 6.903 seconds), however it was significantly increased in App^{NL-F} mice compared to C57Bl6 controls (**figure 4D**; $p<0.01$) on the fifth trial (C57Bl6: 9.73 ± 5.13 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 132.01 ± 41.24 seconds). This latency was significantly increased in App^{NL-F} on the fifth trial, compared to the same genotype on the first trial ($p<0.01$). Together, these results show an intact social memory in App^{NL-F} mice at six months, and suggest a lack of motivation.

To rule out that potential olfactory dysfunctions, which could interfere with the social memory tests, we performed an olfactory habituation/dishabituation test ([38]; **figure 4E**). Four odors were tested and showed no significant differences between C57Bl6 and App^{NL-F} mice. Both strains spent more times interacting with social odors, especially from an unknown cage, showing (1) the absence of olfactory problem and (2) the capacity of App^{NL-F} mice to discriminate social and non-social odors.

Figure 4 : App^NL-F *mice have no social memory deficits at six months old.*

In the five-trials social memory test (A.), App^NL-F mice show no memory deficits as seen by the progressive decrease in social interactions over four consecutive trials (B.). On the fifth trial, when a new animal is presented, C57Bl6 mice regain interest whereas App^NL-F mice don't (C.). Latency to first investigation (D.) is similar between genotypes in the first trial. However, it is significantly increased in App^NL-F on the fifth trial. Two-way ANOVA for repeated measured with the genotype and the trial as the main factors. Bonferroni multiple comparison #, p<0.03, ##, p<0.01, ###, p<0.001: statistically different from trial 1; Bonferroni multiple comparison: **, p<0.01: statistically different as shown. C57Bl6: n=8, App^NL-F: n=8.

In the olfactory habituation/dishabituation test (E.), we presented four different odors for three times two minutes each. No olfactory problems were unveiled. C57Bl6: n=9, App^NL-F: n=10.

3.5. App^{NL-F} mice show a mild anxiety-/depression-like behavior.

Early emotion related behaviors are still poorly described in Alzheimer's disease and has not been the focus of experimental work. However, our results show that six months old App^{NL-F} mice do not present social memory impairments, but a higher level of apathy (i.e., loss of interest for a task), which is consistent with clinical studies [40] and prompted further research of emotional symptoms.

In the open field test, App^{NL-F} animals had a reduced locomotion as seen by the significant reduction of the travelled distance (C57Bl6: 5663 ± 421.1 cm, App^{NL-F}: 3543 ± 61.1 cm; **figure 5A**) in the arena ($p<0.01$), consistent with a previous report [41]. A deeper analysis of the behavior revealed a significantly reduced number of entries (C57Bl6: 30.75 ± 4 entries, App^{NL-F}: 6.50 ± 1 entries) in the central area (**figure 5B**; $p<0.01$) whereas the time spent in that zone (C57Bl6: 81.16 ± 6.23 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 82.30 ± 7.22 seconds) remained the same (**figure 5C**). This suggests a slightly higher anxiety-like state in App^{NL-F} animals, compared to C57Bl6 controls. To better understand this behavior, the elevated plus maze was used [32, 42]. The number of entries (C57Bl6: 6.12 ± 1 entries, App^{NL-F}: 3.25 ± 1) in the open arms (anxiogenic area) was significantly reduced ($p<0.05$; **figure 5D**) whereas the total time spent in this area (C57Bl6: 38.38 ± 5.68 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 26.63 ± 5.76 seconds) was unchanged (**figure 5E**), confirming the higher emotional state.

We then explored the depression-like behavior in three different paradigms commonly used to study emotions in rodent. In the forced swim test, the immobility (total time and latency to first) was used as an indicator of resignation. The latency to the first immobility was significantly reduced in App^{NL-F} (C57Bl6: 52.05 ± 0.30 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 25.43 ± 3.70 seconds, $p<0.05$; **figure 5F**) and the total time of immobility was significantly increased in App^{NL-F} (C57Bl6: 48.07 ± 6.89 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 90.07 ± 7.79 seconds; **figure 5G**; $p<0.001$) compared to C57Bl6 mice, characteristic of a depression-like behavior. In the splash test, the lack of grooming reflects a lack of self-care. No significant differences in the latency to first grooming (C57Bl6: 139.8 ± 17.46 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 108.1 ± 13.70 seconds; **figure 5H**), the frequency of grooming (C57Bl6: 6.60 ± 0.17, App^{NL-F}: 6.80 ± 0.37; **figure 5I**) nor the total time of grooming (C57Bl6: 54.15 ± 9.81 seconds, App^{NL-F}: 68.98 ± 3.93 seconds; **figure 5J**) was observed in the App^{NL-F} mice compared to C57Bl6 mice. The sucrose preference test, where a lack of preference for sugar compared to water is considered to reflect

anhedonia, revealed no difference between the two strains (C57Bl6: 103 ± 8.33 %, App^{NL-F}: 104 ±

3.80 %; **figure 5K**).

Lastly, the behavioral data related to anxiety- and depression-like phenotype were compiled into

an emotionality z-score [33]. We used several parameters per test to establish a test z-score

(ZSc_test; **supplementary table 1**) and each ZSc_test was then combined into an emotionality z-

score (**figure 5L**). The C57Bl6 mice were used as the control group and have an average z-score

close to zero (-0.05 ± .11). The App^{NL-F} mice had a significantly increased z-score (0.42 ± 0.13,

p<0.01) confirming an anxiety-/depression-like phenotype of App^{NL-F} mice at six months.

***Figure 5** : App^{NL-F} mice display mild anxiety/depressive-like behavior.*

In the open filed test, the total travelled distance (A.) is reduced in App^{NL-F} as well as the number of

entries in the central area (B.). The total time in that zone (C.) remains unchanged. Mann-Whitney

test: **, p<0.01, ***, p<0.001 statistically different as shown. C57Bl6: n=8, App^{NL-F}: n=8. In the

elevated plus maze, the number of entries in the open arms (D.) is significantly reduced whereas the

total time spent in the open arms (E.) remains unchanged between genotypes. Altogether, these

observations suggest a mild anxiety-like phenotype. Student t-test: *, p<0.05 statistically different as

shown. C57Bl6: n=8, App^{NL-F}: n=8.

In the forced swim test, the latency to first immobility (F.) is reduced in App^{NL-F} mice while the total

time of immobility (G.) is increased in these animals. This suggests a depression-like phenotype.

Mann-Whitney and student t-test: *, p<0.05, ***, p<0.001 statistically different as shown. C57Bl6:

n=16, App^{NL-F}: n=18. Our analysis does not unveil any difference in the latency to first grooming (H.),

total number of grooming (I.) nor in the total time of grooming (J.). C57Bl6: n=13, App^{NL-F}: n=14. For

the frequency n=4 and n=5 for C57Bl6 and App^{NL-F} respectively. No difference was unveiled in the

sucrose consumption measured in the sucrose preference test (K.) C57Bl6: n=8, App^{NL-F}: n=9.

The emotionality z-score (L.) is an integrative score allowing comparison of multiple factors,

calculated on different scales. It is used here to assess the anxiety-/depression-like state of our

animals and includes parameters from the different behavioral test above-mentioned. Our analysis

reveals an increased emotionality z-score in App^{NL-F} compared to C57Bl6 controls. This is the

reflection of a higher anxiety-/depression-like phenotype observed in these animals. Student t-test:

**, p<0.01 statistically significant as shown. C57Bl: n=21, App^{NL-F}: n=21.

3.6. Single injection of ketamine (5mg/kg) partially reverses synaptic hypersensitivity.

In the light of the depression-like behavior in the App^{NL-F} mice, we asked whether an

antidepressant treatment would correct the behavior as well as the observed synaptic impairments.

The NMDA receptors antagonist ketamine is a rapid-acting antidepressant, and previous studies in

our lab has shown the long lasting retuning effect of this molecule in a rat model of depression [43].

Six months old App^{NL-F} mice received either ketamine (5mg/kg) or vehicle solution (NaCl 0.9%)

through i.p injections and acute hippocampal slices were prepared twenty-four hours after injection.

Patch-clamp recordings revealed no differences in the resting membrane potential (NaCl: -53.64 ±

3.08 mV, ketamine: -51.53 ± 5.29 mV; **figure 6A**) between the two groups, nor any difference in

sEPSC frequency (NaCl: 0.33 ± 0.11 Hz, ketamine: .43 ± 0.2 Hz; **figure 6B-D**), amplitude (NaCl: -

33.70 ± 5.42 pA, ketamine: -21.84 ± 2.69 pA; **figure 6C**), decay (**supplementary figure 2A**) or rise

time (**supplementary figure 2B**). However, we observed a significant increase of the frequency of

mEPSC (NaCl: 0.10 ± 0.001 Hz, ketamine: 0.59 ± 0.11 Hz, p<0.01; **figure 6E-D**). The amplitude

(NaCl: -29.03 ± 4.40 pA, ketamine: -21.89 ± 3.52 pA; **figure 6F**), decay (**supplementary figure 2C**)

and rise time (**supplementary figure 2D**) of mEPSC were not different between groups.

In the field recording experiment (**figure 6G-I**), the subthreshold θ-burst stimulation gave an initial

potentiation of the fEPSP in both conditions (**figure 6G-H**). The potentiation was maintained in App^{NL-}

^{F} + NaCl mice, but not in the ketamine treated animals. One hour after the stimulation, the magnitude

of fEPSP was significantly increased compared to before the θ-burst stimulation. However, it was

significantly lower than in vehicle treated mice (**figure 6G-I**). Taken together, these electrophysiology

recordings confirm the ability of ketamine to retune misregulated synaptic transmission and plasticity.

Figure 6 *: App^{NL-F} mice's synaptic mistuning is partially restored by ketamine 5mg/kg injection*

Resting membrane potential (A.) is unchanged after ketamine treatment. Whilst the frequency (B.)

and the amplitude (C.) of the sEPSC are not different between treatments, the frequency of mEPSC

(D.) is increased in ketamine treated animals. The amplitude of mEPSC isunchanged. (F.) depicts

representative traces for both sEPSC and mEPSC. Mann-Whitney test: **, p<0.01 statistically

different as shown. From figure (A.) to (F.): App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=7 cells recorded in five animals, App^{NL-F} + ketamine: n=6 cells recorded in six animals.

In the fEPSP experiment (G.), we used the same customized θ-burst stimulation protocol, which

elicites a potentiation (H.), in a similar fashion in both NaCl and ketamine treated animals. After one

hour (I.), the fEPSP goes back nearly to the baseline value whereas in the App^{NL-F} + NaCl the

stimulation triggers a long-term potentiation. Student t-test: ##, p<0.01, ###, p<0.001 statistically

different from 1; ***, p<0.001 statistically different as shown. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=5 recordings in four

animals, App^{NL-F} + ketamine: n=5 recordings in four animals.

3.7. Ketamine does not affect motivational problems in the five-trials social memory test.

In the five-trials social memory test, no social memory impairments were unveiled in both

treatment conditions, as observed by the progressively decreasing time of social interactions over

the four first trials (**figure 7A**). In line with our previous experiments, the social interaction measured

in the fifth trial was not significantly different from the fourth trial in the vehicle treated animals (trial

4: 18.90 ± 4.66 % vs trial 5: 38.20 ± 5.91 %, **figure 7B**), confirming the apathy-like behavior.

Interestingly, ketamine didn't correct this behavior (trial 4: 22.085 ± 4.97 % vs. trial 5: 40.12 ± 9.48

%, **figure 7B**).

<u>Figure 7</u> : 5mg/kg ketamine doesn't affect motivational deficits in App^{NL-F} mice

Whether treated with NaCl or ketamine, App^{NL-F} mice do not have social memory impairments (A.).

On the fifth trial, the social interactions are not different from trial four neither from trial 1 (B.),

suggesting a lack of motivation in App^{NL-F} mice. This lack of motivation is not corrected by 5mg/kg

ketamine treatment. ANOVA de Friedman for repeated measure with treatment and trials as the

main factors. Wilcoxon multiple comparison: #, $p<0.05$, ###, $p<0.001$ statistically different from trial

1. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=16, App^{NL-F} + ketamine: n=13.

   3.8. The antidepressant effect of ketamine partially restores the emotionality in six months old

App^{NL-F} mice.

In the open field, none of the parameters total distance travelled (NaCl: 4331 ± 190.5 cm,

ketamine: 4454 ± 229.3 cm; **figure 8A**), the number of entries in the center (NaCl: 20.19 ± 2.30

entries, ketamine: 22.69 ± 2.55 entries; **figure 8B**) and total time spent in that zone (NaCl: 66.11 ±

6.35 seconds, ketamine: 83.13 ± 10.32 seconds; **figure 8C**) were changed by the ketamine

treatment. Likewise, ketamine had no effect on the elevated plus maze since there were no

differences between the groups in the number of entries in the open arms (NaCl: 0.87 ± 0.40 entries,

ketamine: 1.25 ± .25 entries; **figure 8D**) nor the total time spent in that zone (NaCl: 8.41 ± 3.2

seconds, ketamine: 1.12 ± 4.79 seconds; **figure 8E**).

In the forced swim test, no changes were observed in the latency to first immobility (NaCl: 20 ±

3.32 seconds, ketamine: 29.75 ± 6.56 seconds; **figure 8F**). However, there was a reduced total time

of immobility in ketamine treated mice compared to NaCl treated (NaCl: 114.4 ± 2.02 seconds,

ketamine: 71.88 ± 10.61, $p<0.05$; **figure 8G**). Similarly, in the splash test, a reduced latency to first

grooming (NaCl: 32.52 ± 3.71 seconds, ketamine: 16.30 ± 2.56 seconds, $p<0.01$; **figure 8H**),

increased frequency (NaCl: 7 ± 0.27, ketamine: 9.13 ± 0.69, $p<0.05$; **figure 8I**) and an increased

total time of grooming (NaCl: 145.7 ± 6.01 seconds, ketamine: 188.8 ± 3.56 seconds, $p<0.05$; **figure**

8J) were observed.

Finally, we integrated all these behavioral data into an emotional z-score (**figure 8K**) to assess

the overall effect of ketamine on the anxiety-/depression-like behavior of App^{NL-F}. Animals who

received the vehicle solution were used as the control group; Their emotionality z-score was close

to zero. Our analysis revealed no statistical difference in the z-score between the two different

groups. Although ketamine reversed several depression-like behaviors, we hypothesize that the

treatment used was perhaps not strong enough to significantly affect the z-score.

<u>Figure 8</u> : Ketamine (5mg/kg) partially restores emotionality in six months old App^{NL-F} mice.

In the open filed test, neither the total travelled distance (A.), the number of entries in the central

area (B.) nor the total time in that zone (C.) is affected by ketamine. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=16, App^{NL-F} +

ketamine: n=13. A similar profile was obtained in the elevated plus maze in which both the number

of entries in the open arms (D.) and the total time in that zone (E.) are not affected. App^{NL-F} + NaCl:

n=8, App^{NL-F} + ketamine: n=8.

In the forced swim test, the latency to first immobility (F.) is unchanged after ketamine treatment

while the total time of immobility (G.) is reduced. This suggests an antidepressant effect of ketamine.

Student t-test: *, p<0.05 statistically different as shown. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=8, App^{NL-F} + ketamine:

n=8. Our analysis also unveils statistical difference in the latency to first grooming (H.), total number

of grooming (I.) and in the total time of grooming (J.). Student t-test: *, p<0.05, **, p<0.01 statistically

different as shown. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=8, App^{NL-F} + ketamine: n=8. Interestingly, the emotionality z-

score (K.) remains unchanged after ketamine 5mg/kg treatment. App^{NL-F} + NaCl: n=16, App^{NL-F} +

ketamine: n=16.

4. DISCUSSION

As the final product of the dysregulated amyloid cascade, large Aβ plaques has traditionally been studied as one of the main cause of Alzheimer's pathology [44], but this chain of events is now being questioned. In six months old App^{NL-F} mice, Aβ plaques were not detectable with conventional immunohistochemistry methods, although we see a slight increase in non-soluble Aβ concentrations in the hippocampus. This was accompanied with early synaptic misfunction. In a late onset mouse model of Alzheimer's disease (App^{NL-F}), we observed reduced synaptic activity and reduced threshold to long-term potentiation in the hippocampus, associated with an early depression-like behavior in six months old animals. Interestingly, these animals do not display social memory impairments, but show apathy-like behavior, consistent with clinical reports [45]. Moreover, the NMDA receptor antagonist ketamine, successfully increased the synaptic activity, and partially restored the impaired plasticity, as suggested by previous work in our lab [35]. In good agreement, we show the antidepressant effect of a low dose of ketamine [46] in our animal model of Alzheimer's disease.

A reduced membrane potential and a reduced frequency of mEPSC in App^{NL-F} mice compared to control are both signs of neuronal unhealthiness. This observation is consistent with previous recordings obtained from primary neuronal cultures from the same line of mice, where reduced synaptic functions was linked to reduced mitochondrial functions [34]. In fact, mitochondrial dysfunction is a consistent phenomenon in early stages of Alzheimer's disease and reduced mitochondrial activity would impair membrane potential as well as presynaptic release probability since these are energy consuming processes [47-50]. Indeed, cell cultures from App^{NL-F} mice have increased level of the aggregated prone Aβ42 form, together with impaired mitochondrial functions and reduced presynaptic probability of release [34]. This study does not discriminate Aβ alloforms (i.e., Aβ40 and Aβ42), however we do observe an increased concentration of aggregated Aβ in homogenates of hippocampus and the cortex of six months old App^{NL-F} mice.

A decrease in mEPSC frequency is typically explained by a decreased probability of release at the presynaptic terminal. Reduced synaptic transmission is frequently seen in Alzheimer's disease [25] and presynaptic release has been suggested as a target for treatment [51]. It should be noted however, that an opposite effect has also been observed [52]. In our work, a possible lower

probability of glutamate release, is accompanied with an unexpected reduced threshold for LTP. Interestingly, western-blot analysis showed that App[NL-F] mice express higher levels of the NMDA receptor subunit GluN2A. This subunit is the most dynamic and essential in LTP induction [53], thus providing a plausible mechanism for the lowered threshold for plasticity.

Cognitive impairment and memory loss is traditionally associated with reduced plasticity, and previous work in the App[NL-F] mice at six months old show no effect on LTP after a strong tetanic stimulation [52]. Synaptic potentiation is however not linearly correlated with memory, rather synaptic strength is constantly adjusted based on activity patterns in the neuronal network [54]. In order to learn and adapt to the changing environment, synaptic transmission needs to be plastic, while keeping the overall activity within optimal range. In fact, it has been proposed that cognitive deficits in early Alzheimer's disease is not about reduced plasticity, but an imbalance at the network level [55], which is compatible with a reduced threshold for potentiation. Interestingly, we also have observed a reduced threshold for plasticity in other models with memory impairments [26, 35].

Our behavioral analysis revealed no social memory impairments, emphasizing the absence of memory impairment at early stages of the pathology in App[NL-F] animals [37, 41, 56]. Our experiments do not exclude a lack of sociability, a commonly observed symptom in Alzheimer's patients [57, 58], and described as altered in other animal models [38]. In contrast, App[NL-F] showed mild anxiety-/depression-like behavior at six months old, measured in several paradigms. This is in line with early depressive symptoms observed in Alzheimer's patients [59] as well as in animals model of the pathology [60, 61]. Additionally, we report, a decreased mobility in the open field, consistent with previous report [41] (yet in contrast with the usually observed hyperactivity in other mouse model of the pathology [62-65]).

Depression being described as a syndrome (i.e., a pathology gathering multiple symptoms), the use of one unique test cannot, by itself, explain the effect of a genotype nor of a therapeutic strategy on the behavior [66]. To get thus an overall vision of the emotional state of the App[NL-F] mice, we compiled our behavioral data into an emotionality z-score [33] relevant to study depression-like behaviors assessed on different scales [32, 67]. Since reduced mobility could confound several of the tests used to assess depression-like behavior, normalization of the different data obtained in the open field and elevated plus maze with the travelled distance, compensating the lack of mobility.

Finally, we investigated the therapeutic effect of a low dose of ketamine (5mg/kg) delivered i.p,

twenty-four hours prior to experiments. At this dose, this NMDA receptor antagonist has a fast acting

antidepressant effect [46] in depressed patients [68, 69], rats [70, 71] and mice [72, 73]. In line with

the literature, we successfully show the antidepressant effect of this drug in the forced swim test and

the splash test. However, the overall emotionality z-score was not significantly improved. The

mechanism of action of ketamine is still debated, and a role of ketamine metabolites rather than

ketamine itself, has been proposed [74-77]. In particular, norketamine and hydroxynorketamine [78]

both induce sustainable antidepressant effect [73]. In contrast to their high efficacy [73, 79], these

metabolites have a low availability [80]. This very low bioavailability, yet of a very active compound,

would be an explanation for the partial antidepressant effect of ketamine.

An alternative mechanism of action is that ketamine restores and stabilizes synaptic transmission

[43]. We have previously shown an acute effect of ketamine on LTP threshold when applied to

hippocampal brain slices [35].This is in good agreement with the present data where systemic

ketamine increased the frequency of mEPSC to a similar level to the one observed in C57Bl6

controls, and restored the threshold to trigger LTP after a subthreshold stimulation of Schaffer

collaterals. Hence, the antidepressant effect of ketamine can be explained by an acute blocking of

NMDA receptors, stabilizing synaptic activity [81].

Acute treatment of ketamine appears promising to treat the early depressive symptoms of

Alzheimer's disease. Interestingly, increasing synchronous neuronal activity in the gamma frequency

has been shown to slow-down disease progress and improve cognitive performance [82], although

these results have been challenged [83]. Restoring synaptic transmission and plasticity may be a

biological mechanism underlying the beneficial effect of a mental and physical active life-style [84]

and could have a prophylactic effect. The effect of chronic ketamine treatment on Alzheimer's

disease progression would thus be interesting to follow-up.

Research for Alzheimer disease treatment has focused mainly on Aβ reducing treatments [85,

86] or the cholinergic system [87, 88]. Here we show that early synaptic impairment as well as early

depression-like behaviors observed in an Alzheimer's disease model can be partially corrected by

pharmacological intervention targeting the glutamatergic system. This may explain why treatments

that reduce Aβ load are only moderately effective in treating cognitive symptoms [89-91], and should

be carefully considered when developing new therapeutic strategies.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTION

Conceptualization M.L and P.N, Investigation B.P, M.S, T.P.B and N.M, Supervision G.H and M.L.

Writing the original draft preparation B.P., N.M and M.L; funding acquisition B.P and M.L.

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD STATEMENT

The study was conduct in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki and was approved by the

Swedish board of animal use (Jordbruksverket ethical permit #5.2.18-03389/2020) and accepted by

the ethics committee at Uppsala University (Djurskyddsorganet at Uppsala University, accreditation

#DOUU-2020-022).

FUNDING

This work was supported by the Swedish Alzheimer's Foundation (to M.L.), Wenner-Gren Stiftelsen

(to M.L), O.E Edla Johansson Vetenskapliga stiftelsen (to B.P.) and Gun och Bertils Stohnes

stiftelsen (to B.P).

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors would like to thank both the BioVis imaging facility and the Uppsala University

Behavioral Facility (UUBF) for their expertise and their help on setting up the different experiments.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

All the cartoons were created with BioRender.com.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

REFERENCES

1.   Ferri, C.P., et al., *World Alzheimer's report 2009*, in *Alzheimer's disease international*, M.
      Prince and J. Jackson, Editors. 2009.

2.   Jahn, H., *Memory loss in Alzheimer's disease.* Dialogues Clin Neurosci, 2013. **15**(4): p. 445-
54.

3.   Shen, L.X., et al., *Social Isolation, Social Interaction, and Alzheimer's Disease: A Mendelian*
Randomization Study. J Alzheimers Dis, 2021. **80**(2): p. 665-672.

4.   Zubenko, G.S., et al., *A collaborative study of the emergence and clinical features of the*
major depressive syndrome of Alzheimer's disease. Am J Psychiatry, 2003. **160**(5): p. 857-
66.

5.   Naseri, N.N., et al., *The complexity of tau in Alzheimer's disease.* Neurosci Lett, 2019. **705**:
p. 183-194.

6.   O'Brien, R.J. and P.C. Wong, *Amyloid precursor protein processing and Alzheimer's disease.*
Annu Rev Neurosci, 2011. **34**: p. 185-204.

7.   Soria Lopez, J.A., H.M. Gonzalez, and G.C. Leger, *Alzheimer's disease.* Handb Clin Neurol,
2019. **167**: p. 231-255.

8.   Damoiseaux, J.S., *Effects of aging on functional and structural brain connectivity.*
Neuroimage, 2017. **160**: p. 32-40.

9.   Wyss-Coray, T., *Ageing, neurodegeneration and brain rejuvenation.* Nature, 2016.
539(7628): p. 180-186.

10.   Elobeid, A., et al., *Altered Proteins in the Aging Brain.* J Neuropathol Exp Neurol, 2016. **75**(4):
p. 316-25.

11.   Busche, M.A., et al., *Clusters of hyperactive neurons near amyloid plaques in a mouse model*
of Alzheimer's disease. Science, 2008. **321**(5896): p. 1686-9.

12.   Siskova, Z., et al., *Dendritic structural degeneration is functionally linked to cellular*
hyperexcitability in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. Neuron, 2014. **84**(5): p. 1023-33.

13.   Frisoni, G.B., et al., *The probabilistic model of Alzheimer disease: the amyloid hypothesis*
revised. Nat Rev Neurosci, 2022. **23**(1): p. 53-66.

14.   Petrache, A.L., et al., *Aberrant Excitatory-Inhibitory Synaptic Mechanisms in Entorhinal*
Cortex Microcircuits During the Pathogenesis of Alzheimer's Disease. Cereb Cortex, 2019.
29(4): p. 1834-1850.

15.   Castellani, R.J., G. Plascencia-Villa, and G. Perry, *The amyloid cascade and Alzheimer's*

disease therapeutics: theory versus observation. Lab Invest, 2019. **99**(7): p. 958-970.

16.   Bateman, R.J., N.R. Barthelemy, and K. Horie, *Another step forward in blood-based*

diagnostics for Alzheimer's disease. Nat Med, 2020. **26**(3): p. 314-316.

17.   Koch, G. and D. Spampinato, *Alzheimer disease and neuroplasticity.* Handb Clin Neurol,

2022. **184**: p. 473-479.

18.   Styr, B. and I. Slutsky, *Imbalance between firing homeostasis and synaptic plasticity drives*

early-phase Alzheimer's disease. Nat Neurosci, 2018. **21**(4): p. 463-473.

19.   Lyketsos, C.G., et al., *Neuropsychiatric symptoms in Alzheimer's disease.* Alzheimers

Dement, 2011. **7**(5): p. 532-9.

20.   Wolinsky, D., K. Drake, and J. Bostwick, *Diagnosis and Management of Neuropsychiatric*

Symptoms in Alzheimer's Disease. Curr Psychiatry Rep, 2018. **20**(12): p. 117.

21.   van Dyck, C.H., et al., *Lecanemab in Early Alzheimer's Disease.* N Engl J Med, 2023. **388**(1):

p. 9-21.

22.   Gustavsson, T., et al., *Long-term effects of immunotherapy with a brain penetrating Abeta*

antibody in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimers Res Ther, 2023. **15**(1): p. 90.

23.   Esquerda-Canals, G., et al., *Mouse Models of Alzheimer's Disease.* J Alzheimers Dis, 2017.

57(4): p. 1171-1183.

24.   Sasaguri, H., et al., *APP mouse models for Alzheimer's disease preclinical studies.* EMBO J,

2017. **36**(17): p. 2473-2487.

25.   Arroyo-Garcia, L.E., et al., *Impaired spike-gamma coupling of area CA3 fast-spiking*

interneurons as the earliest functional impairment in the App(NL-G-F) mouse model of

Alzheimer's disease. Mol Psychiatry, 2021. **26**(10): p. 5557-5567.

26.   Loera-Valencia, R., et al., *High levels of 27-hydroxycholesterol results in synaptic plasticity*

alterations in the hippocampus. Sci Rep, 2021. **11**(1): p. 3736.

27.   Saito, T., et al., *Single App knock-in mouse models of Alzheimer's disease.* Nat Neurosci,

2014. **17**(5): p. 661-3.

28.   Nilsson, P., T. Saito, and T.C. Saido, *New mouse model of Alzheimer's.* ACS Chem Neurosci,

2014. **5**(7): p. 499-502.

29.   Jiang, R., et al., *Autophagy Impairment in App Knock-in Alzheimer's Model Mice.* Front Aging

Neurosci, 2022. **14**: p. 878303.

30.   Leal, N.S., et al., *Amyloid Beta-Peptide Increases Mitochondria-Endoplasmic Reticulum*

Contact Altering Mitochondrial Function and Autophagosome Formation in Alzheimer's

Disease-Related Models. Cells, 2020. **9**(12).

31.   Park, M. and K. Shen, *WNTs in synapse formation and neuronal circuitry.* EMBO J, 2012.

31(12): p. 2697-704.

32.   Quesseveur, G., et al., *Attenuated Levels of Hippocampal Connexin 43 and its*

Phosphorylation Correlate with Antidepressant- and Anxiolytic-Like Activities in Mice. Front

Cell Neurosci, 2015. **9**: p. 490.

33.   Guilloux, J.P., et al., *Integrated behavioral z-scoring increases the sensitivity and reliability*

of behavioral phenotyping in mice: relevance to emotionality and sex. J Neurosci Methods,

2011. **197**(1): p. 21-31.

34.   Dentoni, G., et al., *Mitochondrial Alterations in Neurons Derived from the Murine AppNL-F*

Knock-In Model of Alzheimer's Disease. J Alzheimers Dis, 2022. **90**(2): p. 565-583.

35.   Juarez, E.V., I. Srivastava, and M. Lindskog, *Impaired glutamate reuptake induces synaptic*

mistuning in rat

hippocampal slices, that can be counteracted by ketamine. BioRxiv, 2022(2022.2001.2025.477658).

36.   Shipton, O.A. and O. Paulsen, *GluN2A and GluN2B subunit-containing NMDA receptors in*

hippocampal plasticity. Philos Trans R Soc Lond B Biol Sci, 2014. **369**(1633): p. 20130163.

37.   Britz, J., et al., *Assessing Sex-Specific Circadian, Metabolic, and Cognitive Phenotypes in*

the AbetaPP/PS1 and APPNL-F/NL-F Models of Alzheimer's Disease. J Alzheimers Dis,

2022. **85**(3): p. 1077-1093.

38.   Rey, C.C., et al., *Altered inhibitory function in hippocampal CA2 contributes in social memory*

deficits in Alzheimer's mouse model. iScience, 2022. **25**(3): p. 103895.

39.   Fratiglioni, L., et al., *Influence of social network on occurrence of dementia: a community-*

based longitudinal study. Lancet, 2000. **355**(9212): p. 1315-9.

40.   Deardorff, W.J. and G.T. Grossberg, *Behavioral and psychological symptoms in Alzheimer's*

dementia and vascular dementia. Handb Clin Neurol, 2019. **165**: p. 5-32.

41.   Aladeokin, A.C., et al., *Network-guided analysis of hippocampal proteome identifies novel proteins that colocalize with Abeta in a mice model of early-stage Alzheimer's disease.* Neurobiol Dis, 2019. **132**: p. 104603.

42.   Carobrez, A.P. and L.J. Bertoglio, *Ethological and temporal analyses of anxiety-like behavior: the elevated plus-maze model 20 years on.* Neurosci Biobehav Rev, 2005. **29**(8): p. 1193-205.

43.   Juarez, E.V., I. Srivastava, and M. Lindskog, *Impaired glutamate reuptake induces synaptic mistuning in rat hippocampal slices, that can be counteracted by ketamine.* BioRxiv, 2022(2022.2001.2025.477658).

44.   Selkoe, D.J. and J. Hardy, *The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease at 25 years.* EMBO Mol Med, 2016. **8**(6): p. 595-608.

45.   Vergallo, A., et al., *Association Between CSF Beta-Amyloid and Apathy in Early-Stage Alzheimer Disease.* J Geriatr Psychiatry Neurol, 2019. **32**(3): p. 164-169.

46.   Pham, T.H. and A.M. Gardier, *Fast-acting antidepressant activity of ketamine: highlights on brain serotonin, glutamate, and GABA neurotransmission in preclinical studies.* Pharmacol Ther, 2019. **199**: p. 58-90.

47.   Calkins, M.J. and P.H. Reddy, *Amyloid beta impairs mitochondrial anterograde transport and degenerates synapses in Alzheimer's disease neurons.* Biochim Biophys Acta, 2011. **1812**(4): p. 507-13.

48.   Reddy, P.H. and M.F. Beal, *Amyloid beta, mitochondrial dysfunction and synaptic damage: implications for cognitive decline in aging and Alzheimer's disease.* Trends Mol Med, 2008. **14**(2): p. 45-53.

49.   Guo, L., J. Tian, and H. Du, *Mitochondrial Dysfunction and Synaptic Transmission Failure in Alzheimer's Disease.* J Alzheimers Dis, 2017. **57**(4): p. 1071-1086.

50.   Verma, M., B.N. Lizama, and C.T. Chu, *Excitotoxicity, calcium and mitochondria: a triad in synaptic neurodegeneration.* Transl Neurodegener, 2022. **11**(1): p. 3.

51.   Bliss, T.V. and G.L. Collingridge, *Expression of NMDA receptor-dependent LTP in the hippocampus: bridging the divide.* Mol Brain, 2013. **6**: p. 5.

52.   Benitez, D.P., et al., *Knock-in models related to Alzheimer's disease: synaptic transmission,*
839   *plaques and the role of microglia.* Mol Neurodegener, 2021. **16**(1): p. 47.

840   53.   Paoletti, P., C. Bellone, and Q. Zhou, *NMDA receptor subunit diversity: impact on receptor*
841   *properties, synaptic plasticity and disease.* Nat Rev Neurosci, 2013. **14**(6): p. 383-400.

842   54.   Neves, G., S.F. Cooke, and T.V. Bliss, *Synaptic plasticity, memory and the hippocampus: a*
843   *neural network approach to causality.* Nat Rev Neurosci, 2008. **9**(1): p. 65-75.

844   55.   Frere, S. and I. Slutsky, *Alzheimer's Disease: From Firing Instability to Homeostasis Network*
845   *Collapse.* Neuron, 2018. **97**(1): p. 32-58.

846   56.   Masuda, A., et al., *Cognitive deficits in single App knock-in mouse models.* Neurobiol Learn
847   Mem, 2016. **135**: p. 73-82.

848   57.   Frisoni, G.B., et al., *Behavioral syndromes in Alzheimer's disease: description and correlates.*
849   Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord, 1999. **10**(2): p. 130-8.

850   58.   Ballard, C., et al., *Alzheimer's disease.* Lancet, 2011. **377**(9770): p. 1019-31.

851   59.   Enache, D., B. Winblad, and D. Aarsland, *Depression in dementia: epidemiology,*
852   *mechanisms, and treatment.* Curr Opin Psychiatry, 2011. **24**(6): p. 461-72.

853   60.   Yan, L., et al., *Age-related neuropsychiatric symptoms in presenilins conditional double*
854   *knockout mice.* Brain Res Bull, 2013. **97**: p. 104-11.

855   61.   Patel, S., et al., *Cotinine halts the advance of Alzheimer's disease-like pathology and*
856   *associated depressive-like behavior in Tg6799 mice.* Front Aging Neurosci, 2014. **6**: p. 162.

857   62.   Moechars, D., et al., *Early phenotypic changes in transgenic mice that overexpress different*
858   *mutants of amyloid precursor protein in brain.* J Biol Chem, 1999. **274**(10): p. 6483-92.

859   63.   Filali, M., R. Lalonde, and S. Rivest, *Anomalies in social behaviors and exploratory activities*
860   *in an APPswe/PS1 mouse model of Alzheimer's disease.* Physiol Behav, 2011. **104**(5): p.
861   880-5.

862   64.   Toda, T., et al., *Presenilin-2 mutation causes early amyloid accumulation and memory*
863   *impairment in a transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease.* J Biomed Biotechnol, 2011.
864   **2011**: p. 617974.

865   65.   Cheng, D., et al., *Novel behavioural characteristics of the APP(Swe)/PS1DeltaE9 transgenic*
866   *mouse model of Alzheimer's disease.* Behav Brain Res, 2013. **245**: p. 120-7.

66. Soderlund, J. and M. Lindskog, *Relevance of Rodent Models of Depression in Clinical*
Practice: Can We Overcome the Obstacles in Translational Neuropsychiatry? Int J
Neuropsychopharmacol, 2018. **21**(7): p. 668-676.

67. Portal, B., et al., *Astroglial Connexins Inactivation Increases Relapse of Depressive-like*
Phenotype after Antidepressant Withdrawal. Int J Mol Sci, 2022. **23**(21).

68. Newport, D.J., et al., *Ketamine and Other NMDA Antagonists: Early Clinical Trials and*
Possible Mechanisms in Depression. Am J Psychiatry, 2015. **172**(10): p. 950-66.

69. Xu, Y., et al., *Effects of Low-Dose and Very Low-Dose Ketamine among Patients with Major*
Depression: a Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. Int J Neuropsychopharmacol, 2016.
19(4).

70. Moghaddam, B., et al., *Activation of glutamatergic neurotransmission by ketamine: a novel*
step in the pathway from NMDA receptor blockade to dopaminergic and cognitive disruptions
associated with the prefrontal cortex. J Neurosci, 1997. **17**(8): p. 2921-7.

71. Li, N., et al., *mTOR-dependent synapse formation underlies the rapid antidepressant effects*
of NMDA antagonists. Science, 2010. **329**(5994): p. 959-64.

72. Brachman, R.A., et al., *Ketamine as a Prophylactic Against Stress-Induced Depressive-like*
Behavior. Biol Psychiatry, 2016. **79**(9): p. 776-786.

73. Pham, T.H., et al., *Common Neurotransmission Recruited in (R,S)-Ketamine and (2R,6R)-*
Hydroxynorketamine-Induced Sustained Antidepressant-like Effects. Biol Psychiatry, 2018.
84(1): p. e3-e6.

74. Adams, J.D., Jr., et al., *Studies on the biotransformation of ketamine. 1-Identification of*
metabolites produced in vitro from rat liver microsomal preparations. Biomed Mass Spectrom,
1981. **8**(11): p. 527-38.

75. Chang, T. and A.J. Glazko, *Biotransformation and disposition of ketamine.* Int Anesthesiol
Clin, 1974. **12**(2): p. 157-77.

76. Moaddel, R., et al., *A parallel chiral-achiral liquid chromatographic method for the*
determination of the stereoisomers of ketamine and ketamine metabolites in the plasma and
urine of patients with complex regional pain syndrome. Talanta, 2010. **82**(5): p. 1892-904.

77.   Woolf, T.F. and J.D. Adams, *Biotransformation of ketamine, (Z)-6-hydroxyketamine, and (E)-6-hydroxyketamine by rat, rabbit, and human liver microsomal preparations.* Xenobiotica, 1987. **17**(7): p. 839-47.

78.   Chou, D., et al., *(2R,6R)-hydroxynorketamine rescues chronic stress-induced depression-like behavior through its actions in the midbrain periaqueductal gray.* Neuropharmacology, 2018. **139**: p. 1-12.

79.   Zanos, P., et al., *NMDAR inhibition-independent antidepressant actions of ketamine metabolites.* Nature, 2016. **533**(7604): p. 481-6.

80.   Highland, J.N., et al., *Mouse, rat, and dog bioavailability and mouse oral antidepressant efficacy of (2R,6R)-hydroxynorketamine.* J Psychopharmacol, 2019. **33**(1): p. 12-24.

81.   Autry, A.E., et al., *NMDA receptor blockade at rest triggers rapid behavioural antidepressant responses.* Nature, 2011. **475**(7354): p. 91-5.

82.   Martorell, A.J., et al., *Multi-sensory Gamma Stimulation Ameliorates Alzheimer's-Associated Pathology and Improves Cognition.* Cell, 2019. **177**(2): p. 256-271 e22.

83.   Soula, M., et al., *Forty-hertz light stimulation does not entrain native gamma oscillations in Alzheimer's disease model mice.* Nat Neurosci, 2023. **26**(4): p. 570-578.

84.   Janssen, N., et al., *Association Between Cognition, Health Related Quality of Life, and Costs in a Population at Risk for Cognitive Decline.* J Alzheimers Dis, 2022. **89**(2): p. 623-632.

85.   Sevigny, J., et al., *The antibody aducanumab reduces Abeta plaques in Alzheimer's disease.* Nature, 2016. **537**(7618): p. 50-6.

86.   Yang, P. and F. Sun, *Aducanumab: The first targeted Alzheimer's therapy.* Drug Discov Ther, 2021. **15**(3): p. 166-168.

87.   Eldufani, J. and G. Blaise, *The role of acetylcholinesterase inhibitors such as neostigmine and rivastigmine on chronic pain and cognitive function in aging: A review of recent clinical applications.* Alzheimers Dement (N Y), 2019. **5**: p. 175-183.

88.   Sharma, K., *Cholinesterase inhibitors as Alzheimer's therapeutics (Review).* Mol Med Rep, 2019. **20**(2): p. 1479-1487.

89.   Salloway, S., et al., *Two phase 3 trials of bapineuzumab in mild-to-moderate Alzheimer's disease.* N Engl J Med, 2014. **370**(4): p. 322-33.

90.   Honig, L.S., et al., *Trial of Solanezumab for Mild Dementia Due to Alzheimer's Disease.* N

Engl J Med, 2018. **378**(4): p. 321-330.

91.   Cummings, J.L., et al., *ABBY: A phase 2 randomized trial of crenezumab in mild to moderate*

Alzheimer disease. Neurology, 2018. **90**(21): p. e1889-e1897.