The ketamine metabolite (*2R,6R*)-hydroxynorketamine rescues hippocampal mRNA translation, synaptic plasticity and memory in mouse models of Alzheimer's disease

Felipe C. Ribeiro[1]*, Danielle Cozachenco[1]*, Elentina K. Argyrousi[2π], Agnieszka Staniszewski[2π], Shane Wiebe[3π], Joao D. Calixtro[1], Rubens Soares-Neto[1], Aycheh Al-Chami[4], Fatema El Sayegh[4], Sara Bermudez[3], Emily Arsenault[4], Marcelo Cossenza[5], Jean-Claude Lacaille[6], Karim Nader[7], Hongyu Sun[4], Fernanda G. De Felice[1,8,9,10], Mychael V. Lourenco[1], Ottavio Arancio[2], Argel Aguilar-Valles[4#], Nahum Sonenberg[3#], Sergio T. Ferreira[1,10,11#]

[1]Institute of Medical Biochemistry Leopoldo de Meis, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil.

[2]Taub Institute for Research on Alzheimer's Disease and the Aging Brain, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA.

[3]Department of Biochemistry, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada.

[4]Department of Neuroscience, Carleton University, Ottawa, ON, Canada.

[5]Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, Biomedical Institute, Fluminense Federal University, Niterói, RJ, Brazil

[6]Department of Neurosciences, Centre for Interdisciplinary Research on Brain and Learning and Research Group on Neural Signaling and Circuits, Université de Montréal, Montreal, QC, Canada.

[7]Department of Psychology, McGill University, Montreal, QC, Canada.

[8]Centre for Neuroscience Studies, Department of Biomedical and Molecular Sciences,

Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada.

[9]Department of Psychiatry, Queen's University, Kingston, ON, Canada.

[10]D'Or Institute for Research and Education, Rio de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil

[11]Institute of Biophysics Carlos Chagas Filho, Federal University of Rio de Janeiro, Rio

de Janeiro, RJ, Brazil.

*These authors contributed equally to this work.

[π]These authors contributed equally to this work.

[#]Corresponding authors: Sergio T. Ferreira (ferreira@bioqmed.ufrj.br), Nahum

Sonenberg   (nahum.sonenberg@mcgill.ca)   and   Argel   Aguilar-Valles

(ArgelAguilaValles@cunet.carleton.ca)

Abstract

Impaired synaptic plasticity and progressive memory deficits are major hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Hippocampal mRNA translation, required for memory consolidation, is defective in AD. Here, we show that systemic treatment with (*2R,6R*)-hydroxynorketamine (HNK), an active metabolite of the antidepressant ketamine, prevented deficits in hippocampal mRNA translation, long-term potentiation (LTP) and memory induced by AD-linked amyloid-β oligomers (AβOs) in mice. HNK activated hippocampal extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2), mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR), and p70S6 kinase 1 (S6K1)/ribosomal protein S6 (S6), which promote protein synthesis and synaptic plasticity. Stimulation of S6 phosphorylation by HNK was mTORC1-dependent, while rescue of hippocampal LTP and memory in HNK-treated AβO-infused mice was ERK1/2-dependent and, partially, mTORC1-dependent. Remarkably, treatment with HNK corrected LTP and memory deficits in aged APP/PS1 mice. Transcriptomic analysis further showed that HNK rescued signaling pathways that are aberrant in APP/PS1 mice, including inflammatory and hormonal responses, and programmed cell death. Taken together, our findings demonstrate that HNK induces signaling and transcriptional responses that correct deficits in hippocampal synaptic plasticity and memory in AD mouse models. These results raise the prospect that HNK could serve as a therapeutic to prevent or reverse memory decline in AD.

INTRODUCTION

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most prevalent form of dementia, affecting over 55 million people worldwide [1]. AD patients progressively develop memory loss and cognitive impairments, mood alterations, and disorientation. At the molecular and cellular level, cognitive decline in AD is caused by structural and functional deterioration of synapses [2].

Hippocampal mRNA translation (i.e., protein synthesis) is crucial for synaptic plasticity and memory consolidation [3], and becomes defective in AD [4, 5]. Control of both initiation and elongation steps of protein synthesis is deregulated in the brains of AD patients and mouse models [6, 7]. Developing drugs capable of rescuing brain protein synthesis, synapse function and memory remains a major challenge.

Effective pharmacological approaches to stimulate brain protein synthesis remain elusive. One potential candidate that recently emerged is the ketamine metabolite, (2R,6R)-hydroxynorketamine (HNK). Ketamine is an FDA-approved drug [8] that, at subanesthetic doses, triggers fast-acting and prolonged antidepressant responses linked to stimulation of protein synthesis [9–11]. However, potential side effects, including addictive/dissociative actions, may limit its widespread clinical application [12]. HNK elicits similar antidepressant responses [13] in the absence of significant detrimental side effects in mice [14, 15]. As a result, HNK has gained significant attention in the field of major depression, and it is currently in clinical trials in treatment-resistant depression (NCT04711005).

Even though complete mechanistic details remain to be determined, HNK activates mRNA translation and the mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling [13, 14, 16]. Here, we hypothesized that HNK could rescue deficits in hippocampal protein synthesis, synaptic plasticity, and memory in AD mouse models. Our findings

84   suggest that treatment with HNK may prevent cognitive deterioration and restore

85   memory in AD.

RESULTS

HNK prevents deficits in hippocampal protein synthesis, synaptic plasticity and memory induced by AβOs in mice

We first investigated whether HNK could protect against impairment in

hippocampal protein synthesis induced by amyloid-β oligomers (AβOs), soluble

neurotoxins that accumulate in the AD brain and trigger synapse failure and cognitive

impairment [17, 18]. To this end, we treated acute hippocampal slices from WT mice

with HNK (20 μM) for 20 min prior to exposure to AβOs (1 μM; 2 h), and assessed

global protein synthesis using SUnSET. In line with our previous report [19], AβOs

reduced protein synthesis by ~ 20%   **(Fig. 1A, B)**. HNK alone had no effect on

hippocampal protein synthesis, but pre-treatment with HNK blocked the inhibition of

protein synthesis induced by AβOs (**Fig. 1A, B**).

Next, to determine whether HNK could counteract AβO-induced inhibition of

synaptic plasticity, we treated hippocampal slices with HNK for 20 min prior to

exposure to AβOs and assessed long-term potentiation (LTP) at Schäffer collateral-CA1

synapses. Whereas slices exposed to AβOs failed to maintain LTP following tetanic

stimulation, slices treated with HNK prior to stimulation showed normal induction and

maintenance of LTP even in the presence of AβOs (**Fig. 1C, D**). HNK alone had no

significant effect on LTP (**Fig. 1C, D**).

We further investigated the effect of HNK on AβO-induced memory

impairment. We treated AβO-infused mice with saline or HNK systemically (20 mg/kg,

i.p.) 1 h prior to training in the contextual fear conditioning (CFC) memory task. Basal

freezing responses were not altered by AβOs or HNK (**Fig. S1**). While treatment with

HNK *per se* had no impact on memory, it significantly prevented long-term fear

memory deficits engendered by AβOs (**Fig. 1E**).

HNK activates ERK/RSK and promotes mTOR-dependent S6 phosphorylation

HNK activates mTOR complex 1 (mTORC1) signaling, BDNF release, and

increase synaptic function [13–15]. However, the mechanisms involved in these actions

are largely unknown. To gain insight into the mechanisms of action of HNK in the

brain, we examined the impact of HNK on signaling pathways implicated in synaptic

plasticity and memory in acute hippocampal slices. We assessed the activation of

mTOR, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2), p70S6 kinase 1 (S6K1),

p90S6 kinase (RSK) and ribosomal protein S6 (S6), all of which have been implicated

in translational control, synaptic plasticity and memory (**Fig. 2A**) [20–22]. Similar to

previous findings with ketamine [23, 24], we found that HNK triggered a rapid (5 min)

and transient phosphorylation (activation) of mTOR at Ser2448 (**Fig. 2B, Fig. S2A**),

and a sustained increase (10-60 min) in ERK1/2 phosphorylation (**Fig. 2C**). This was

accompanied by an approximately 50% increase in phosphorylation of S6K1 at Thr389

(**Fig. 2D**)**,** and by a marked (250%) increase in phosphorylation of RSK at Ser380 (**Fig.**

2E) 10 min after HNK treatment.

Because S6 is a direct target of both S6K1 and RSK, we determined the

phosphorylation status of S6 upon HNK treatment. HNK engendered a sustained (10-60

min) phosphorylation of S6 at Ser235/236 (**Fig. 2F**), residues targeted by both S6K1

and RSK [25], but not at Ser240/244, which are phosphorylated only by S6K (**Fig.**

S2B).

We next investigated whether ERK1/2 or mTOR mediated HNK-induced

activation of S6 at Ser235/236. We treated hippocampal slices with HNK in the

presence of PD98059 (MEKi), a MEK1/2 inhibitor that blocks ERK1/2 activation, or

rapamycin (Rapa), an mTORC1 inhibitor. Blocking mTORC1 activity, but not ERK1/2,

blocked the increase in S6 phosphorylation at Ser235/236 by HNK (**Fig. 2G**). We

further found that neither MEKi nor rapamycin alone blocked HNK-induced Ser380

phosphorylation of RSK (**Fig. 2H**), suggesting that both ERK1/2 and mTOR may be

involved in RSK activation by HNK. As expected, MEKi attenuated HNK-stimulated

ERK1/2 phosphorylation, but caused no changes in HNK-induced mTOR activation

(**Fig. S2C, D**). Conversely, rapamycin robustly blocked mTOR, but not ERK

phosphorylation (**Fig. S2C, D**). Collectively, these results suggest that HNK engages

ERK1/2 and mTOR to phosphorylate RSK, and mTOR to phosphorylate S6.

Correction of hippocampal synaptic plasticity and memory by HNK is mediated by

ERK signaling

We next investigated whether HNK-induced restoration of synaptic plasticity

and memory upon exposure to AβOs was mediated by ERK1/2 or mTOR signaling. We

first treated acute hippocampal slices from WT mice with MEKi (20 µM), Rapa (100

µM) or vehicle for 20 min, then added HNK (20 µM) or vehicle for 20 min prior to

exposure to AβOs (1 µM), and assessed LTP at Shaffer collateral-CA1 synapses.

Consistent with our findings above, AβOs inhibited CA3-CA1 LTP, which was

prevented by pre-treatment with HNK (**Fig. 3A, B**). Inhibition of MEK1/2 abolished

HNK-mediated rescue of LTP, whereas mTOR inhibition did not (**Fig. 3A, B**).

We then assessed whether ERK1/2 signaling was necessary for memory rescue

by HNK. We treated AβO-infused mice with MEKi (10 mg/kg, i.p.) or vehicle,

followed by treatment with HNK (20 mg/kg, i.p.) or vehicle 1 h prior to training in the

contextual fear conditioning paradigm. While treatment with HNK rescued memory in

AβO-infused mice, pre-treatment with MEKi abolished this protective action (**Fig. 3C**).

Collectively, these data indicate that HNK-induced rescue of LTP and memory is

mediated by ERK1/2 signaling.

Transcriptional alterations induced by HNK in the mouse hippocampus

To further investigate mechanisms underlying the protective actions of HNK, we

examined global transcriptional changes induced by HNK treatment in the mouse

hippocampus. For this, we treated mice with HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) daily for 14 days,

and assessed hippocampal gene expression by RNAseq (**Table S1**). Among

differentially expressed genes, HNK promoted the upregulation of 469 genes and

downregulation of 433 genes (**Fig. 4A**). Consistent with previous findings with

ketamine [26], gene ontology (GO) analyses revealed that HNK induced the expression

of genes associated with mitochondrial metabolism and transcription (**Fig. 4B**). At the

same time, it downregulated genes linked to GTPase activity (**Fig. 4B**). Network

analysis indicated that HNK upregulated several mitochondrial genes involved in the

electron transport chain (e.g., mt-Cytb, mt-Co1, mt-Co2, mt-Nd4), RNA metabolism

and ribogenesis (e.g., Wdr42, Ddx10, Ddx18, Esf1). In contrast, genes such as Src and

eIF6 were downregulated (**Fig. 4C, D**). Altogether, these results suggest that HNK

promotes a transcriptional reprogramming that modulates mitochondrial energy

metabolism, transcription, and ribosomal biogenesis in the hippocampus.

HNK corrects synaptic plasticity and memory deficits in aged APP/PS1 mice

Our finding that HNK prevented synapse and memory deficits induced by AβOs

prompted us to investigate whether HNK could reverse pre-existing impairments in

synaptic plasticity and memory in aged (19-24-month-old) APP/PS1 mice, used as a

transgenic model of late-stage AD. HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) or saline were administered

daily for 12-14 days, and hippocampus-dependent spatial memory was tested 8-9 days

after the onset of treatment using the two-day Radial Arm Water Maze (RAWM)

paradigm, a memory task for which aged APP/PS1 are impaired [27]. Following the

RAWM, we obtained hippocampal slices and measured LTP at Schäffer collaterals.

Remarkably, HNK reversed both the inhibition of hippocampal LTP (**Fig. 5A,**

B) and spatial memory deficits (**Fig. 5C**) in aged APP/PS1 mice. Control measurements

showed no differences in input/output (I/O) curves between WT and APP/PS1 mice, or

between animals treated with vehicle or HNK (**Fig. S3A**). Additional control

experiments revealed that treatment with HNK had no impact on body weight (**Fig.**

S3B) or hippocampal Aβ load in APP/PS1 mice (**Fig. S3C**).

HNK rescues hippocampal transcriptional alterations in APP/PS1 mice

Finally, we investigated hippocampal transcriptional alterations induced by

HNK in aged APP/PS1 mice. Mice were treated with HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) or saline

daily for 14 days, and hippocampal transcriptomic changes were assessed by RNAseq.

GO analyses revealed significantly upregulated pathways in APP/PS1 mice (compared

to WT mice) that were corrected by HNK treatment (**Fig. 5D**). This included regulation

of programmed cell death and response to hormones and stress (**Fig. 5D**). Reactome

pathway analyses further implicated the innate immune system and, notably, three

pathways associated with RNA metabolism and translation that were aberrantly

regulated in APP/PS1 mice and were rescued by HNK. These pathways were nonsense-

mediated RNA decay, co-translational protein targeting to membranes and formation of a pool of free 40S subunits (**Fig. 5D**). These are consistent with previous observations of neuroinflammation, deregulated hormonal signaling, TNF-α-dependent neuronal stress responses, and memory impairment in AD models [17, 28–30].

By performing Transcriptional Regulatory Relationships Unraveled by Sentence-based Text mining (TRRUST) analysis, we further identified transcriptional regulators known to control gene networks that HNK rescued in APP/PS1 mice. Among those regulators, we found molecules involved in inflammatory responses (NF-κB1, PPARα), transcriptional repression (HDAC1, HDAC2) and integrated stress response effectors (ATF3, ATF4) (**Fig. 5E**). Network analysis on STRING revealed a key cluster of ribosomal genes whose aberrant expression in APP/PS1 mice was corrected by HNK treatment (**Fig. 5F**).

In addition, we analyzed differentially expressed genes that were upregulated in APP/PS1 mice and were corrected by HNK treatment. Network analysis on STRING and GO revealed that HNK rescued transcriptional programs involved in cytosolic ribosomes and regulation of immune system process (**Fig. S4A, B**).

Downregulated genes in APP/PS1 mice that were corrected by HNK were also analyzed. We found that HNK rescued mRNA levels for genes coding for RNA polymerase II holoenzyme subunits, calcium channel complex and synaptic proteins in APP/PS1 mice (**Fig. S5A, B**). Altogether, these results indicate that HNK rescues transcriptional programs associated with inflammation, impaired proteostasis, calcium signaling and synaptic proteins in aged APP/S1 mice.

DISCUSSION

In the present study, we investigated the effects of HNK, a ketamine metabolite

whose mechanism of action is thought to involve activation of protein synthesis

pathways [14], on hippocampal synaptic plasticity and memory in AD model mice. We

demonstrate that HNK prevents deficits in hippocampal protein synthesis, LTP and

memory induced by AβOs in mice. We further found that HNK triggers

phosphorylation of mTOR, ERK1/2, S6K1, RSK and S6, implicated in protein

synthesis, synaptic plasticity and memory [25, 31], in hippocampal slices. Interestingly,

HNK-induced phosphorylation of S6 depended on mTOR activity, whereas rescue of

LTP and memory in AβO-infused mice depended on ERK1/2, a key signaling effector

that stimulates translation of immediate early genes necessary for synaptic plasticity

[32, 33].

Even though HNK induced S6 phosphorylation, which may act as an inducer of

mRNA translation and ribosome biogenesis, HNK *per se* did not increase global protein

synthesis in hippocampal slices. In this regard, it should be noted that current evidence

indicates that S6 phosphorylation *per se* does not increase mRNA translation [21, 34–

36]. Moreover, even though LTP stimulates S6 phosphorylation [21], it has been

reported that activation of mTORC1 signaling is not necessary for hippocampal LTP

[37]. This may explain our finding that ERK1/2 signaling, but not mTOR, is required

for the rescue of LTP impairment by HNK.

We further found that chronic treatment with HNK upregulate hippocampal

genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation, in line with previous evidence indicating

that mitochondrial energy metabolism and the antioxidant defense system mediate the

actions of ketamine [26]. AD is associated with reduced energy metabolism and

decreased expression of mitochondrial electron transport chain subunits [38], suggesting

that rescuing mitochondrial function could be beneficial in AD. Of note, a very recent

study reported that treatment with trazodone corrects translational attenuation of

mitochondrial proteins in prion-diseased mice, and that this is accompanied by

improved mitochondrial and synaptic function [39].

Strikingly, HNK reversed pre-existing impairments in synaptic plasticity and

memory in aged (19–24-month-old) APP/PS1 mice. HNK further corrected aberrant

transcriptional signatures related to inflammation and translation/proteostasis in

APP/PS1 mice, suggesting that enduring changes in brain gene expression may

contribute to the neuroprotective mechanisms of HNK. Our findings on hippocampal

transcriptional changes *in vivo* further suggest that HNK impacts translation by

upregulating translation-associated pathways, which may promote ribosome biogenesis

and increase translational capacity. Collectively, these findings support the notion that

HNK has therapeutic potential even in the presence of substantial brain deposition of

Aβ.

In conclusion, our findings show that HNK alleviates synaptic deficits and

memory impairment, and restores hippocampal protein synthesis, in AD mouse models.

The results demonstrate that the mTOR and ERK1/2 signaling pathways mediate the

neuroprotective actions of (*2R,6R*)-HNK by impacting energy metabolism, and

inflammatory responses. HNK has been implicated as a mediator of the antidepressant

actions of ketamine without the latter's detrimental side effects [40], and is currently in

clinical trials in treatment-resistant depression (NCT04711005). If HNK is proven safe

and effective, like the related FDA-approved drug esketamine, this would raise the

prospect that HNK could be repurposed for treatment of cognitive decline in AD.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals

Adult male or female C57BL/6J mice (3-month-old) were obtained from the animal facility at McGill University and were housed in groups of 2-5 mice per cage, with food and water *ad libitum*, in rooms with controlled temperature (21°C) and humidity (~55%) on a 12 h light/dark cycle. Male and female APPswe/PS1ΔE9 mice on a C57BL/6J background (Jackson Laboratories, strain code #005864) were bred at the animal facilities of McGill University and the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro. All procedures followed the Canadian Council on Animal Care guidelines and were approved by McGill University Committees and by the Institutional Animal Care and Utilization Committee of the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro.

Biochemistry in hippocampal slices

Hippocampal slices (400 µm) were obtained and allowed to recover in artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF; 124 mM NaCl, 4.4 mM KCl, 1 mM Na_2HPO_4, 25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 10 mM glucose) for 2 h. For time course experiments, slices were treated with (*2R,6R*)-hydroxynorketamine (HNK) (Tocris Biosciences, #1430202-69-9; 20 µM) or saline for the time intervals indicated. Newly synthesized polypeptides were detected using surface sensing of translation (SUnSET), as described [41]. For SUnSET experiments, hippocampal slices from WT mice were treated with HNK (20 µM; 20 min) and then exposed to AβOs (1 µM; 2 h). Slices were then exposed to puromycin (5 µg/mL; 45 min) and collected for Western blotting. Puromycin incorporation was evaluated as a measure of newly synthesized polypeptides, and β–actin was used as loading control. A negative control lacking puromycin was added to each experiment.

For mechanistic studies using HNK, hippocampal slices from WT mice were pre-exposed to vehicle, PD98059 (MEK inhibitor; Sigma Aldrich, #P215; 20 µM) or

rapamycin (mTORC1 inhibitor; Sigma Aldrich, R0395; 100 μM) for 30 min and then

exposed to HNK (20 μM) for 10 min.

Western blotting and ELISA

Hippocampal slices were dissociated using Bio-Plex Cell Lysis Kit (Bio-Rad),

centrifuged for 10 min at 10,000 g at 4°C, and the supernatant was collected for Western

blot analysis. Protein concentration was determined using Bradford Protein Assay Kit,

and samples were prepared to a final concentration of 3 μg/μL. After boiling for 5 min,

50 μg of total protein were loaded per lane and resolved in 12% Tris-glycine SDS-

PAGE gels. Proteins were then transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane and incubated

with respective primary antibodies. Primary antibodies used were: puromycin

(#MABE343, clone 12D10, 1:1,000; EMD Millipore), phospho-ERK1/2 Thr202/Tyr204

(#4370, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling), ERK1/2 (#9102, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling); phospho-

p70S6K1 Thr389 (#9205, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling), p70S6K1 (#9206, 1:1,1000; Cell

Signaling), phospho-S6 Ser235/236 (#4858, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling), phospho-S6

Ser240/244 (#5364, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling), S6 (#2217, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling),

phospho-4E-BP1 Ser65 (#9451, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling), 4E-BP1/2 (#2845, 1:1,1000;

Cell Signaling), phospho-mTOR Ser2448 (#2971, 1:1,1000; Cell Signaling), mTOR

(#2983, clone 7C10, 1:1,1000; Cell Signaling), phospho-eIF2α Ser51 (#3597, 1:1,000;

Invitrogen); eIF2α (#9722, 1:1,000; Cell Signaling) and β–actin (#A2228, 1:10,000;

Sigma Aldrich). Immunoblots were developed by HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies

(anti-mouse or anti-rabbit, #31430 or #31460, 1:5,000; Thermo Fisher) followed by

ECL plus exposure, or by IR dye-conjugated fluorescent secondary antibodies (1:5,000;

LiCor). When phosphorylated and total proteins were detected, membranes were

initially probed for the phosphorylated epitope, then stripped with Restore stripping

buffer (Thermo Fisher, 21059), and finally probed for total protein with the antibodies listed above. Quantification was performed using ImageJ (NIH). ELISA for human $A\beta_{42}$ (Thermo Fisher; KHB3441) was performed according to manufacturer's instructions, as previously described [19, 42].

AβO preparation and intracerebroventricular (i.c.v.) infusion

$A\beta_{1-42}$ peptide was purchased from California Peptide (Salt Lake, CA). Aβ oligomerization and quality control were performed as previously described [17, 42]. I.c.v. infusion of AβOs (10 pmol) in mice were performed as a one-time dose, as previously described [17, 43].

Contextual Fear Conditioning Task

Mice were gently handled for 1 min/day for 3 days prior to behavioral experiments. To assess contextual fear memory, a two-phase protocol was used as described [44]. In the training phase, mice were placed in the apparatus, in which they received a foot shock (0.35 mA for 1 s) at 2 min. After 30 s, they received another foot shock (0.35 mA for 1 s), were kept in the apparatus for an additional 30 s, and then placed back in their home cages. For the test phase, carried out 24 h later, mice were placed in the same apparatus for 5 min, with no shock. Freezing behavior was recorded automatically on Freeze Frame (Harvard Apparatus, Holliston, MA) and was used as a memory index. For experiments using HNK, 20 mg/kg HNK (or saline) was injected i.p. 1 h prior to training. PD98059 (10 mg/kg, i.p.) or saline was injected 1h prior to HNK injection.

Two-day Radial Arm Water Maze

Radial Arm Water Maze (RAWM) was performed in WT or APP/PS1 mice as

described [14, 16]. Briefly, spatial memory was assessed by the ability to find a

platform located in a defined arm of a 6-arm maze placed inside a circular pool. On day

1, fifteen trials were performed with alternation between visible and hidden platform.

On day 2, all five blocks had the platform hidden. A training block comprises 3 trials of

60 s each. The number of entries into incorrect maze arms (errors) was recorded for

each session and the number of errors per block was averaged.

RNA sequencing

Total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Micro kit (Qiagen), following

manufacturer's instructions. The purity of RNA preparations was checked using the

260/280 nm absorbance ratio. Only preparations with 260/280 nm absorbance ratios

higher than 1.8 were used. RNA concentrations were determined by absorption at 260

nm. Messenger RNA was purified from total RNA using poly-T oligo-attached

magnetic beads. After fragmentation, the first strand cDNA was synthesized using

random hexamer primers, followed by second strand cDNA synthesis using either

dUTP for directional library or dTTP for non-directional library. Library sequencing

was performed on an Illumina platform and paired-end reads were generated. Quality

control was performed; the index of the reference genome was built using Hisat2 v2.0.5

and paired-end clean reads were aligned to the reference genome using Hisat2 v2.0.5.

featureCounts v1.5.0-p3 was used to count read numbers mapped to each gene.

Differential expression analysis of two conditions/groups (two biological replicates per

condition) was performed using the DESeq2 R package (1.20.0). The resulting p-values

were adjusted using the Benjamini and Hochberg's approach to control for false

discovery rate (FDR). Genes with an adjusted FDR p-value ≤ 0.05 found by DESeq2

were considered differentially expressed. DEGs were analyzed using Gene Ontology

(GO) (http://geneontology.org) using the mouse database. Pathway enrichment was

analyzed by Fisher's Exact test and corrected by FDR. For STRING analyses, DEGs

were analyzed for all interaction sources except text mining, and limited to high

confidence scores. DEG detected in saline-treated APP/PS1 but not in HNK-treated

APP/PS1 mice (compared to control) were also used for STRING, GO and TRRUST

analyses. DEGs were loaded onto the mouse Transcriptional Regulatory Relationships

Unraveled by Sentence-based Text mining (TRRUST) database

(https://www.grnpedia.org/trrust) and used for identification of putative master

transcription factors. Results were considered significant with FDR values ≤ 0.05.

Electrophysiology

Transverse hippocampal slices (400 μm) were obtained from 3-month-old

C57BL/6 mice and placed on a perfusion chamber on aCSF (124 mM NaCl, 4.4 mM

KCl, 1 mM Na_2HPO_4, 25 mM $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM $MgCl_2$, 2mM $CaCl_2$, 10 mM glucose).

Slices were allowed to recover for at least 90 min, and were perfused with 20 μM HNK

or saline for 20 min, followed by AβOs (400 nM) or vehicle for another 20 min.

Stimulation was performed in CA3, and field excitatory postsynaptic potentials

(fEPSPs) were recorded from hippocampal CA1 region as described [42]. For

mechanistic studies, hippocampal slices were pre-exposed to vehicle, PD98059 (Sigma

Aldrich, #P215; 20 μM) or rapamycin (Sigma Aldrich, R0395; 100μM) for 20 min and

then exposed to HNK or vehicle (20μM), followed by AβOs (1 μM) for 20 min prior to

tetanic stimulation.

fEPSPs were also recorded in hippocampal slices from 19–24-month-old WT or

APP/PS1 mice that were daily treated with vehicle or HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) for 12-14

days prior to slice preparation.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as means $\pm$ S.E.M. and were analyzed using GraphPad Prism

8 software (La Jolla, CA). Sample sizes and statistical tests for each experiment are

indicated in the corresponding Figure Legends. p-values for relevant comparisons are

indicated in Figures or Figure Legends.

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Author contributions

F.C.R., D.C., A.A.-.V. and S.T.F. designed the study. F.C.R., D.C., E.K.A, A.S., S.B., S.W., J.D.C., R.S-N., M.C., E.A. and A.A.-.V. performed research. F.C.R., D.C., O.A. and A.A.-.V. analyzed data. K.N., M.V.L., J.C.-.L., O.A., F.G.D.F., A.A.-.V., N.S. and S.T.F. contributed reagents, materials, animals and analysis tools. F.C.R., D.C., F.G.D.F.., M.V.L., A.A.-.V., N.S. and S.T.F. analyzed and discussed results. F.C.R., D.C., M.V.L. and S.T.F. wrote the manuscript with inputs from the other authors, notably by N.S. and A.A.-V.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data and materials availability

All data supporting the conclusions are presented in the manuscript and main Figures, or in Supplementary Materials.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. HNK rescues defective hippocampal protein synthesis, LTP and memory

in AβO-infused mice (A, B) Acute hippocampal slices were treated with HNK (20 μM;

20 min) prior to AβOs (1 μM; 2 h), and were then exposed to puromycin (5 μg/mL; 45

min) for SUnSET. Puromycin levels were evaluated by Western blotting and

normalized by β-actin levels (N = 18 slices per experimental group). Two-way repeated

measures ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. Interaction: $F_{(1, 17)} = 4.406$; p

= 0.0511. (C) Field excitatory post-synaptic potentials (fEPSP) recorded in acute

hippocampal slices (from C57BL/6J mice) exposed to saline or HNK (20 μM; 20 min)

prior exposure to vehicle or AβOs (400 nM; 20 min) (N = 7 Veh, 8 AβOs, 9 Veh/HNK,

11 AβOs/HNK). Arrows indicate tetanic stimulation. (D) fEPSP slope measured 120

min after tetanic stimulation. Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test.

Interaction: $F_{(1, 30)} = 11.68$; p = 0.0018. (E) Six days after i.c.v. infusion of AβOs (10

pmol) or vehicle, mice were treated with saline or HNK (20 mg/kg, i.p.) 1 h prior to

contextual fear conditioning (CFC) training. The CFC test phase was performed 24 h

later (N = 7 Veh, 8 AβOs, 9 Veh/HNK, 10 AβOs/HNK). Two-way ANOVA followed

by Tukey's post-hoc test. Interaction: $F_{(1, 30)} = 6.311$; p = 0.0176.

Figure 2. HNK activates hippocampal signaling pathways associated with

translational control and protein synthesis. (A) Schematic diagram of signaling

pathways that mediate synaptic plasticity and memory processes. (B-F) Acute

hippocampal slices were treated with vehicle or HNK (20 μM) for the indicated time

periods. Phosphorylated mTOR, ERK S6K1, RSK, S6 were evaluated by Western

blotting and normalized by respective total protein levels (N = 6-12 slices/experimental

group). One-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test. (G, H) Acute

hippocampal slices were treated with vehicle, rapamycin (Rapa; 100 µM) or PD98059

(MEKi; 20 µM) for 30 min and were then exposed to vehicle or HNK (20 µM) for 10

min. Phosphorylated S6 and RSK were evaluated by Western blotting (N= 5

slices/experimental group). p-values are shown for the indicated comparisons; One-way

ANOVA followed by Sidak's post-hoc test.

Figure 3. Correction of hippocampal synaptic plasticity and memory by treatment

with HNK is mediated by ERK signaling. (A) Acute hippocampal slices were treated

with PD98059 (MEKi; 20 µM), rapamycin (Rapa; 100 µM) or vehicle for 20 min, then

HNK (20 µM) or vehicle was added 20 min prior to AβOs (1 µM). Field excitatory

post-synaptic potentials (fEPSP) were recorded in hippocampal slices (N = 6 Veh, 4

AβOs, 6 AβOs+HNK, 5 AβOs+HNK+MEKi, 4 6 AβOs+HNK+ Rapa). Arrows indicate

tetanic stimulation. (B) fEPSP slope measured 120 min after tetanic stimulation. One-

way ANOVA followed by Sidak's post-hoc test. (C) Six days after i.c.v. infusion of

AβOs (10 pmol) or vehicle, mice were treated with MEKi (10 mg/kg, i.p.) or saline for

1 h, and then treated with HNK (20 mg/kg, i.p.) for 1 h prior to contextual fear

conditioning (CFC) training. The CFC test phase was performed 24 h later (N = 11 Veh,

6 AβOs, 6 AβOs+HNK, 6 AβOs+HNK+MEKi). One-way ANOVA followed by

Sidak's post-hoc test. $F_{(3, 25)} = 4.752$; $p = 0.0093$.

Figure 4. Treatment with HNK modifies the hippocampal transcriptional profile in

mice. (A) Volcano plot from RNA-seq analysis of HNK-treated vs saline-treated WT

mice. Downregulated genes are shown in green and upregulated genes in red ($p < 0.05$).

(B) Gene ontology analysis (molecular function) for upregulated and downregulated

genes (FDR < 0.05). (C, D) STRING analysis of upregulated and downregulated

networks. The most connected nodes are shown (N = 6 mice per experimental group).

Figure 5. Treatment with HNK reverses LTP and memory deficits, and corrects

hippocampal transcriptional alterations in APP/PS1 mice. (A) fEPSP recording in

hippocampal slices from 19–24-month-old APP/PS1 (or WT) mice treated daily with

HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) or vehicle for 12-14 days (N = 13 WT, 11 APP/PS1, 11

WT/HNK, 11 APP/PS1/HNK). N = number of slices (derived from at least 3 mice) per

experimental condition. Arrows indicate tetanic stimulation. (B) fEPSP slope measured

120 min after tetanic stimulation. Two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test.

Interaction: $F (1, 42) = 8.872$; $p = 0.0048$. (C) Spatial memory assessed using the Radial

Arms Water Maze (RAWM) test on 19–24-month-old APP/PS1 (or WT) mice treated

daily with HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) or vehicle for 8-10 days (N = 10 WT, 10 APP/PS1, 8

WT/HNK, and 10 APP/PS1/HNK). Statistical analysis was performed using the values

of the testing day. p-values for appropriate comparisons are indicated; Two-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. (D-F) RNA-seq analyses of genes that

were differentially expressed in saline-treated APP/PS1 (compared to WT mice) mice

and whose expression was corrected by treatment with HNK. (D) Gene ontology

(molecular function and reactome pathway). (E) Key transcription factor analysis by

TRRUST (FDR < 0.05). (F) Representative STRING cluster of ribosome-linked genes

that were differentially expressed in APP/PS1 (compared to WT mice) and were

normalized by treatment with HNK. (N = 6 mice per experimental group).

Figure S1. Freezing responses during contextual fear conditioning (CFC) training.

Percentage of freezing during minutes 1, 2 (pre-shock) or 3 (during/after shock) in WT

mice infused with AβOs and/or HNK (N = 7 Veh, 8 AβOs, 9 Veh/HNK, 10

AβOs/HNK). Two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's post-hoc test.

Figure S2. Hippocampal signaling pathways not altered by HNK. (A-B) Acute

hippocampal slices were treated with vehicle or HNK (20 μM) for 10, 30 or 60 min.

Phosphorylated mTOR and S6 (Ser240/244) were evaluated by Western blotting and

normalized by loading control or by the respective total protein levels when appropriate

(N = 6 slices/experimental group). One-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's post-hoc

test. (C, D) Acute hippocampal slices were treated with vehicle, rapamycin (Rapa; 100

μM) or PD98059 (MEKi; 20 μM) for 30 min and were then exposed to vehicle or HNK

(20 μM) for 10 min. Phosphorylated mTOR and ERK were evaluated by Western

blotting and normalized by respective total protein levels (N = 5 slices/experimental

group). p-values are shown for appropriate comparisons; One-way ANOVA followed

by Sidak's post-hoc test.

Figure S3. Treatment with HNK does not alter hippocampal basal synaptic

transmission, body weight, or hippocampal Aβ load. (A) Input/output curves were

analyzed in hippocampal slices from saline- or HNK-treated mice (WT or APP/PS1).

(B) Body weights of saline- or HNK-treated mice (WT or APP/PS1) were evaluated on

days 0, 4, 10 and 14 after daily HNK (0.5 mg/kg, i.p.) administration. Two-way

ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test. (C) Hippocampal $A\beta_{42}$ was measured by

ELISA in saline- or HNK-treated APP/PS1 mice (N = 6 mice/experimental group);

Student t-test.

Figure S4. Treatment with HNK corrects the expression of cytosolic ribosome

genes and genes involved in programmed cell death and immune system processes

in APP/PS1 mice. (A) STRING analyses of genes that were upregulated in saline-

treated APP/PS1 (compared to WT littermates) that were corrected by treatment with

HNK. The most connected nodes are shown. Genes coding for ribosomal subunits are

shown in Fig. 6F. The gene network is color-coded by GO terms. (B) GO analysis using

STRING. (N = 6 mice per experimental group).

Figure S5. Treatment with HNK corrects the expression of RNA polymerase II,

calcium channel complex and synaptic genes in APP/PS1 mice. (A) STRING

analyses of genes that were downregulated in saline-treated APP/PS1 mice (compared

to WT littermates) that were corrected by treatment with HNK. The most connected

nodes are shown. The gene network is color-coded by GO terms. (B) GO analysis using

STRING. (N = 6 mice per experimental group).

Table S1. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in WT mice treated with HNK.

Table S2. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in APP/PS1 mice (compared to

WT littermates) that were corrected by treatment with HNK.

Ribeiro et al. Figure 1

Ribeiro et al. Figure 2

Ribeiro et al. Figure 3

Ribeiro et al. Figure 4

A

B

C

D

Upregulated pathways in APP/PS1 mice rescued by HNK	
GO term	**FDR**
Regulation of tumor necrosis factor production	2.49×10^{-2}
Response to hormone	2.41×10^{-2}
Inflammatory response	3.73×10^{-2}
Positive regulation of programmed cell death	2.49×10^{-2}
Response to stress	1.46×10^{-2}
Reactome pathway	**FDR**
Innate immune system	1.22×10^{-2}
Nonsense Mediated Decay (NMD) independent of the Exon Junction Complex (EJC)	3.81×10^{-2}
SRP-dependent cotranslational protein targeting to membrane	3.83×10^{-2}

E

Upregulated key TR in APP/PS1 mice rescued by HNK	
Key transcriptional regulator (TR)	**p-value**
Nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B cells 1, p105 (Nfkb1)	2.67×10^{-7}
Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor alpha (Ppara)	2.35×10^{-5}
Histone deacetylase 1 (Hdac1)	6.54×10^{-4}
Activating transcription fator 3 (Atf3)	4.23×10^{-3}
Histone deacetylase 2 (Hdac2)	6.69×10^{-3}
Activating transcription fator 4 (Atf4)	1.13×10^{-2}

F

Ribeiro et al. Figure 5

Ribeiro et al. Figure S1

Ribeiro et al. Figure S2

A

I/O curve

WT + Vehicle N=13
WT + HNK N=11
APP/PS1 + Vehicle N=11
APP/PS1 + HNK N=11

2-way ANOVA:
$F_{(3, 42)} = 0.8370.$ $p = 0.4812$

B

WT Veh
WT HNK
APP/PS1 Veh
APP/PS1 HNK

C

0.2859

APP
APP+HNK

Ribeiro et al. Figure S3

A

B

Downregulated GO terms in APP/PS1 normalized by HNK	Fold enrichment	FDR	
RNA polymerase II, holoenzyme	10	1.37×10^{-2}	🔴
Calcium channel complex	10	3.64×10^{-2}	🔵
Synapse	2.34	1.04×10^{-2}	🟢

Ribeiro et al. Figure S4

A

B

Upregulated GO terms in APP/PS1 normalized by HNK	Fold enrichment	FDR	
Cytosolic ribosome	7.58	4.60×10^{-3}	🔴
Positive regulation of programmed cell death	2.57	4.96×10^{-2}	🔵
Regulation of immune system process	2.09	4.79×10^{-2}	🟢

Ribeiro et al. Figure S5