

# Modafinil improves performance in the multiple T-Maze and modifies GluR1, GluR2, D2 and NR1 receptor complex levels in the C57BL/6J mouse

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**Abstract** Modafinil has been shown to modify behavioural and cognitive functions and to effect several brain receptors. Effects, however, were not observed at the receptor protein complex level and it was therefore the aim of the study to train mice in the multiple T-Maze (MTM) as a paradigm for spatial memory and to determine paralleling brain receptor complex levels. Sixty C57BL/6J mice were used in the study and divided into four groups (trained drug injected; trained vehicle injected; yoked drug injected; yoked vehicle injected). Animals obtained training for 4 days and were killed 6 h following the last training session on day 4. Hippocampi were dissected from the brain, membrane fractions were prepared by ultracentrifugation and were run on blue-native gels and immunoblotted with antibodies against major brain receptors. Modafinil treatment led to decreased latency and increased average speed, but not to changes in pathlength and number of correct decisions in the MTM. Drug effects were modifying receptor complexes of GluR1, GluR2, D2 and NR1. Training effects on receptor complex levels were observed for GluR3, D1 and nicotinic acetylcholine receptor alpha 7 (Nic7). GluR1 levels were correlating with GluR2 and D1

levels were correlating with D2 and NR1. Involvement of the glutamatergic, NMDA, dopaminergic and nicotinerger system in modafinil and memory training were herein described for the first time. A brain receptor complex pattern was revealed showing the concerted action following modafinil treatment.

**Keywords** Modafinil · Brain receptor · Glutamatergic · Nicotinerger · Dopaminergic · Spatial memory

## Introduction

2-[(Diphenylmethyl) sulfinyl] acetamide, more commonly known as modafinil, is a novel wake-promoting stimulant used to treat narcolepsy. It was first marketed in the early 1990s in France for the treatment of excessive somnolence and is currently being used in the United States as a treatment for narcolepsy, shift work sleep disorder and sleep apnea (Minzenberg and Carter 2008).

Various studies have shown that modafinil has a different neurochemical profile and is structurally unrelated to classical psychostimulants such as amphetamines (Lin et al. 1992) and methylphenidate (Jasinski 2000). Catecholamine transporters that directly bind modafinil are dopamine transporters (DAT) (Madras et al. 2006; Paterson et al. 2010; Qu et al. 2008) and norepinephrine transporters (NET) (Madras et al. 2006; Mitchell et al. 2008). Administration of modafinil blocks DAT (Volkow et al. 2009) and significantly elevates extracellular serotonin, norepinephrine, dopamine (DA) (de Saint et al. 2001) and glutamate (Ferraro et al. 1998) levels and decreases GABA (Ferraro et al. 1998, 1999). Brain regions likely affected by modafinil are the prefrontal cortex (PFC), medial hypothalamus (de Saint et al. 2001) and increases in synaptic plasticity of

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the dentate gyrus in rats have been reported (Tsanov et al. 2010). Evidence suggests that the effects of modafinil are due to the activity of monoaminergic systems, implicating DA receptors D1 and D2 (Korotkova et al. 2007; Qu et al. 2008; Seeman et al. 2009; Young 2009; Young and Geyer 2010). Ferraro and coworkers have shown that the GABAergic system is involved by studies revealing that the selective GABA<sub>B</sub> receptor antagonist phaclofen and the GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor agonist muscimol are counteracting modafinil effects (Ferraro et al. 1998). Subsequently, this group confirmed modafinil effects on the GABAergic receptor system by the use of GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor agonist muscimol and GABA<sub>A</sub> antagonist bicuculline (Ferraro et al. 1999). Recent work also provides evidence for involvement of alpha1-adrenoceptors based upon the results from receptor blocking by the antagonist prazosin (Winder-Rhodes et al. 2010).

Effects of modafinil in rodents have been reported in several memory paradigms. Investigations using the Morris Water Maze task (MWM) and T-maze have demonstrated improvement in spatial memory performance upon administration of modafinil. Ward et al. tested modafinil effects on a delayed non matching to position task, a variant of the water maze. Modafinil treated rats made significantly more correct choices at two different doses (Ward et al. 2004). Beracochea et al. tested modafinil in a serial spatial discrimination reversal T-maze and observed enhanced learning in terms of faster learning rates (Beracochea et al. 2002). Tsanov et al. observed that modafinil facilitates water maze performance, and Shuman et al. reported increased performance in the MWM and in contextual fear conditioning in a dose dependent way (Shuman et al. 2009; Tsanov et al. 2010).

In humans, modafinil effects on cognitive performance are not unequivocal. Turner et al. tested cognitive enhancing effects of modafinil in healthy volunteers and observed significantly enhanced performance in the digit span, visual pattern recognition memory, i.e., spatial planning tests (Turner et al. 2003). In healthy volunteers without sleep deprivation, Müller and coworkers reported subtle stimulation effects on maintenance and manipulation processes in working memory tasks (Müller et al. 2004). Randall et al. observed an enhanced span of immediate verbal recall and short-term visual recognition memory in non-sleep deprived volunteers (Randall et al. 2005). Modafinil enhanced efficiency of PFC-related cognitive information processing using BOLD fMRI (Rasetti et al. 2010). Winder-Rhodes finally showed positive modafinil effects on performance accuracy and latency (Winder-Rhodes et al. 2010).

A few clinical trials suggest that modafinil may improve cognitive dysfunction in neuropsychiatric disorders in schizophrenia. Spence et al. reported some beneficial cognitive effects in a subset of patients with chronic schizophrenia,

and Turner et al. reported improvement of cognitive function in the short-term verbal memory span test as one of the several memory paradigms (Spence et al. 2005; Turner et al. 2004). Blackwell and coworkers treated patients with Huntington's disease with modafinil to improve cognitive functions. Modafinil, however, had deleterious effects on visual recognition and working memory (Blackwell et al. 2008). Kahbazi et al. used assessment of cognitive functions by the Teacher and Parent ADHD rating scale-IV and reported beneficial effects in children and adolescents with attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder (Kahbazi et al. 2009).

Although modafinil has been shown to have some beneficial cognitive effects in animals and humans, no systematic study has been carried out to investigate the concerted action of major brain receptor systems. This lack of information on a major question formed the rationale for the current in vivo study in an animal model of memory performance.

Therefore, the aims of the study were to demonstrate the role of modafinil in modulating mouse spatial memory in a land maze along with the paralleling major brain receptor complexes.

## Materials and methods

### Animals

Sixty male C57BL/6J mice were used for the studies. Mice used were aged between 10 and 14 weeks, because at this age development is complete and aging processes are far from being started. All the mice were purchased from JANVIER SAS Laboratories (Le Genest Saint Isle, France) and maintained in cages made of Makrolon and filled with autoclaved woodchips in the Core Unit of Biomedical Research, Division of Laboratory Animal Science and Genetics, Medical University of Vienna. An autoclaved standard rodent diet (Altromin, Germany) and water in bottles were available ad libitum. The room was illuminated with artificial light at an intensity of about 200 lx in 2 m from 5 am to 7 pm. All tests were performed between 8 am and 1 pm.

All procedures were carried out according to the guidelines of the European Communities Council Directive of 24 November 1986 (86/609/EEC) and were approved by Federal Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, Austria (licence number BMWF-66.009/0240-II/106/2009). All efforts were made to minimize animal suffering and to reduce the number of animals used.

### Modafinil administration

Modafinil was prepared freshly everyday by dissolving in a vehicle 10 % DMSO + 2 % Cremophor (C5135; Sigma-

Aldrich, Vienna Austria) (Qu et al. 2008). The dose of injection was 80 mg/kg weight and was administered intraperitoneally daily 30 min prior to MTM experiments. For MTM, animals were divided into four groups each containing 15 animals as Trained Drug Injected (TDI), Trained Vehicle Injected (TVI), Yoked Drug Injected (YDI) and Yoked Vehicle Injected (YVI).

### Studies in the MTM

MTM was performed as described previously (Patil et al. 2009). Prior to testing, mice were deprived of food for 16 h to motivate food searching. Mice were placed in a start box in a black cylindrical start chamber. After 10 s elapsed, the chamber was lifted and the first trial was started. Mice were searching for the reward and the trial was completed when mice had reached the goal box, or if failed, after 5 min. After mice arrived in the goal box, they were allowed to consume a small piece of a food pellet provided as reward and transferred to their home cage. Immediately after each trial, the entire maze was cleaned with 1 % incidin solution. 15 mice each, drug injected and vehicle injected, were trained with 3 trials per day for 4 days. Trials were carried out using 20 min intervals. 15 mice each were used as YDI and YVI controls that spent the same time in the MTM without learning the task as there was no reward. After testing, animals were given food as per body weight (120 g/kg) into the home cage, representing the amount to preserve their body weight, but making them hungry for the following day for MTM tests. Trials were recorded using computerized tracking/image analyzer system (video camcorder: 1/3 in SSAMHR EX VIEWHAD coupled to computational tracking system: TiBeSplit). The system provided the following parameters, correct or wrong decision, path length, speed, and latency to reach the goal box. Six hours following the training on day 4, animals were deeply anaesthetized with CO<sub>2</sub> and killed by neck dislocation. Hippocampi were rapidly dissected and stored at -80 °C for biochemical analysis.

### Sample preparation

#### *Total membrane fraction*

15 hippocampi of TDI, TVI, YDI and YVI mice each (total  $n = 60$ ) were homogenized in ice-cold homogenization buffer [10 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 300 mM sucrose, one complete protease inhibitor tablet (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany) per 50 mL] by Ultra-Turrax® (IKA, Staufen, Germany). The homogenate was centrifuged for 10 min at 1,000× $g$  and the pellet was discarded. The supernatant was centrifuged at 50,000× $g$  for 30 min in an ultracentrifuge (Sorvall, WX 80 Ultraserics centrifuge; Thermo

Fisher Scientific, Vienna, Austria). Subsequently, the pellet was homogenized in 5 mL washing buffer (homogenization buffer without sucrose), kept on ice for 30 min and centrifuged at 50,000× $g$  for 30 min. All the individual 60 samples were used for the gel experiments (Heo et al. 2010).

#### *Extraction of membrane receptor protein*

Whole membrane pellets were suspended in extraction buffer [1.5 M 6-aminocaproic acid, 300 mM Bis-Tris, pH 7.0] and divided into two parts. To one part, 10 % Triton X-100 stock solution was added at a ratio of 1:4 to achieve final 2 % Triton X-100 concentration for extraction of alpha-amino-3-hydroxy-5-methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid (AMPA) receptor subtype Glu1 (GluR1), AMPA receptor subtype Glu 2 (GluR2) and AMPA receptor subtype Glu 3 (GluR3) receptors. To the second part 10 % DDM stock solution was added in a ratio of 1:9 to achieve final 1 % DDM concentration for extraction of dopamine 1 (D1) and dopamine 2 (D2), nicotinic acetylcholine receptor subtype alpha 7 (Nic7), N-methyl-D-aspartate receptor NMDA (NR1) receptors. Solubilisation was done by vortexing every 10 min for 1 h followed by centrifugation at 20,000× $g$  for 60 min at 4 °C for clarification. The protein content was estimated using the BCA protein assay kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA). Extracted membrane receptor proteins were then aliquoted and stored at -80 °C till use.

### Blue Native PAGE

20 µg for GluR1 and 25 µg each for GluR2 and GluR3 receptors, 80 µg for D1, 60 µg for D2, 50 µg for Nic7 and NR1 of prepared samples were loaded. 16 µL BN PAGE loading buffer [5 % (w/v) Coomassie G250 in 750 mM 6-aminocaproic acid] was mixed with 100 µL of the prepared sample and loaded onto the gel. BN-PAGE was performed in a PROTEAN II xi Cell (BioRad, Vienna, Austria) using 4 % stacking and 5–18 % separating gels.

The BN-PAGE gel buffer contained 500 mM 6-aminocaproic acid, 50 mM Bis-Tris, pH 7.0; the cathode buffer 50 mM Tricine, 15 mM Bis-Tris, 0.05 % (w/v) Coomassie G250, pH 7.0, and the anode buffer 50 mM Bis-Tris, pH 7.0. The voltage was set to 50 V for 1 h, 75 V for 2 h, 100 V for 2 h and was increased sequentially to 400 V (maximum current 15 mA/gel, maximum voltage 500 V) until the dye front reached the bottom of the gel (Kang et al. 2009). Native high-molecular mass markers were obtained from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA).

### Western blotting

Proteins separated on the gel were transferred onto PVDF membranes. After blocking with 5 % non-fat dry milk in

**Table 1** The antibodies for the individual immunochemical detection of brain receptors is provided

Antibody	Species	Catalogue number	Company	Dilution
GluR1	Rabbit polyclonal	Ab31232	Abcam	1/20,000
GluR2	Rabbit polyclonal	AB1768-25UG	Millipore	1/10,000
GluR3	Rabbit polyclonal	#3437	Cell signaling	1/4,000
D1	Rabbit polyclonal	Ab85608	Abcam	1/5,000
D2	Rabbit polyclonal	AB5084P	Millipore	1/15,000
Nic7	Rabbit polyclonal	Ab23832	Abcam	1/3,000
NR1	Rabbit polyclonal	Ab28669	Abcam	1/5,000

0.1 % TBST (100 mM Tris-HCL, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.5, 0.1 % Tween 20) for 1 h at 21 °C, membranes were incubated overnight at 4 °C with gentle agitation using diluted primary antibodies as per Table 1.

After six times washing with 0.1 % TBST, membranes were incubated with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated Goat polyclonal Secondary Antibody to Rabbit IgG (Abcam 6722, Cambridge, UK) and then again washed with 0.1 % TBST. Membranes were developed with the ECL plus Western Blotting Detection System (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK). Densities of immuno-reactive bands were measured by the Image J software program (<http://rsb.info.nih.gov/ij/>).

#### Loading control

For the loading control, the procedure as described previously (Welinder and Ekblad 2010) with minor modifications was followed. After immunodetection, membranes were washed twice with 0.1 % TBST, stained for 1 min with 0.1 % coomassie R-350 (GE Healthcare) prepared in methanol:water, 1:1, destained for 5 min with aqueous solution containing 7 % methanol and 50 % acetic acid, washed with water, air dried and scanned at 600 dpi resolution (Supplementary Fig. 1).

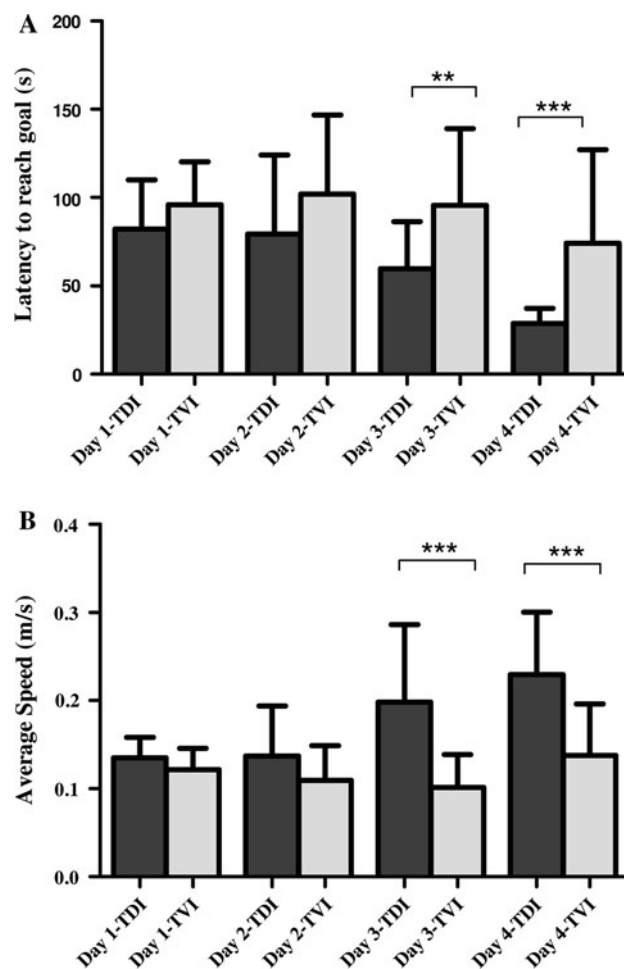
#### Statistical analysis

MTM data were analyzed by repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) with subsequent unpaired Student *t* test to reveal between-group differences and the *P* < 0.05 level was considered significant. All calculations were performed using SPSS version 14.0 (SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL). Data from the proteomic part of the study were also analysed by ANOVA followed by unpaired Student *t* test. Pearson and Spearman correlations were calculated using the SPSS version given above.

## Results and discussion

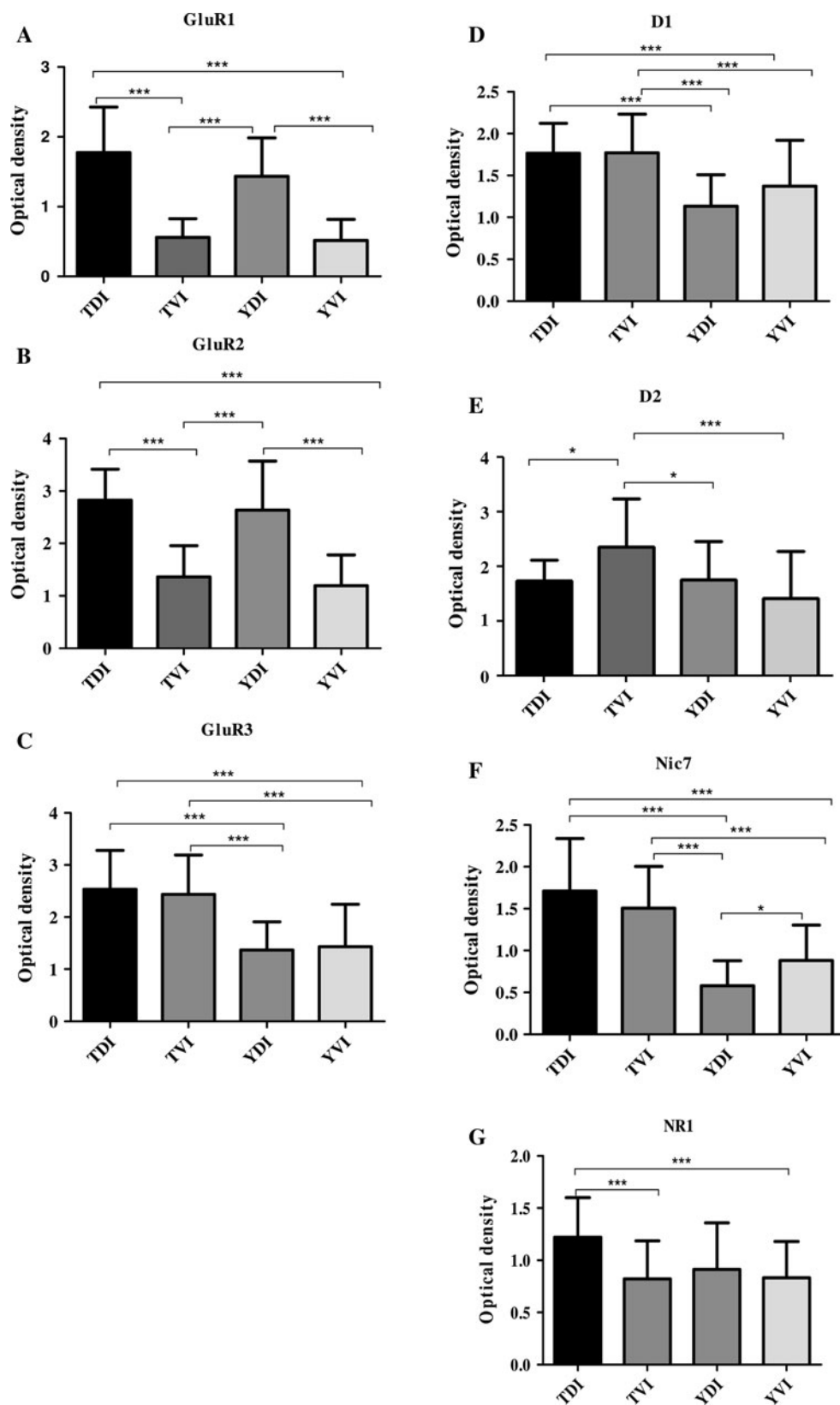
As shown in Fig. 1a, latencies indicated that both groups learned the task, however, animals from the modafinil

group had significantly shorter latencies on days 3 and 4. On these days, speed was also significantly increased in the modafinil group as shown in Fig. 1b. Pathlengths as well as the number of correct decisions (not shown) were comparable indicating that modafinil may not be improving spatial memory in the MTM per se as increasing speed is underlying decreased latencies. Nevertheless, modafinil is



**Fig. 1** Latency and speed in the MTM. Modafinil treatment improves parameters latency and speed in the MTM indicating better performance in spatial memory. \*\**P* < 0.01, \*\*\**P* < 0.001 TDI trained drug injected, TVI trained vehicle injected, YDI yoked drug injected, YVI yoked vehicle injected

**Fig. 2** Graphical demonstration of receptor complex levels. Showing the concerted action of several brain receptor systems in modafinil and vehicle treated, trained and untrained groups. \* $P < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $P < 0.001$  *TDI* trained drug injected, *TVI* trained vehicle injected, *YDI* yoked drug injected, *YVI* yoked vehicle injected





improving performance in the MTM, thus partially confirming and complementing reports on the effect of modafinil observed in other paradigms for spatial memory as given above in the Introduction. It is well-known and widely accepted that spatial memory performance is different in the individual paradigms (Patil et al. 2009), and therefore, the finding that the number of correct decisions was not improved by modafinil is not contradicting previous work showing modafinil-mediated increase of correct decisions in a water maze (Ward et al. 2004).

Results of major brain receptor complex levels determinations are shown in Fig. 2 and immunoblotting results from BN-PAGEs are provided in Fig. 3. The main outcome is that modafinil was modifying receptor complexes of GluR1 (at approx. 720 kDa), GluR2 (approx. 720 kDa), D2 (approx. 720 kDa) and NR1 (approx. 242 kDa) indicating drug effects; modafinil increased receptor complex levels for GluR1, GluR2, NR1, but decreased levels of a D2 complex. The complexes may reflect dimers or oligomers, either homo- or heteromeric in nature. While there is no information about modafinil effects on AMPA receptors GluR1-3 and NR1, modification of D2 receptors and subsequently on D2 receptor complexes could have been expected (Korotkova et al. 2007; Qu et al. 2008; Seeman et al. 2009; Young 2009; Young and Geyer 2010).

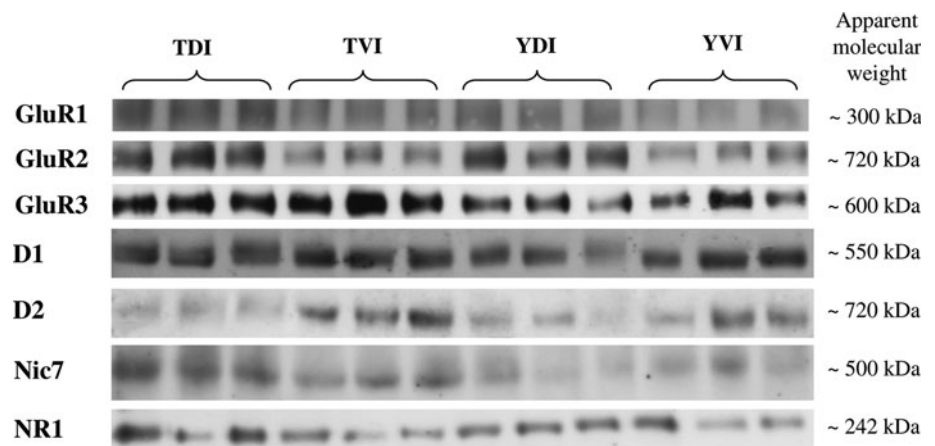
Training effects on receptor complex levels were observed for GluR3 (at approx. 600 kDa), Nic7 (approx. 300 kDa) and D1 (at 550 kDa). Training was paralleled by increased receptor complex levels for GluR3, Nic7 and D1. Indeed, training in the MWM also leads to increased receptor complex levels at an apparent molecular weight of 300 kDa (Sase et al. 2011). In a previous study, GluR1 receptor complex levels were paralleling training in the MTM, but these complexes were at different apparent molecular weights and mice were un-treated (Ghafari et al. 2011).

D2 receptor complex levels in vehicle groups, trained and yoked, were significantly different, proposing involvement of this receptor complex in memory training, thus confirming the role of this receptor systems in spatial memory in humans and rodents (El-Ghundi et al. 2007; Ellis et al. 2005; Glickstein et al. 2002; Mehta et al. 2008; Mehta and Riedel 2006; Mele et al. 2004; Rinaldi et al. 2007; Wilkerson and Levin 1999).

There was no correlation between parameters for spatial memory in the MTM, and the individual receptor complexes with the biological meaning that no receptor *complex* system can be linked to latency, speed, pathlength or correct decisions. Receptor complexes were, however, paralleling training in the MTM.

In trained mice with modafinil treatment (TDI), GluR1 were correlating with GluR2 complex levels ( $R = 0.583$ ;  $P = 0.03$ ) and D1 levels were correlating with NR1 ( $R = 0.643$ ;  $P = 0.01$ ) and D2 complex levels ( $R = -0.543$ ;  $P = 0.04$ ). In TVI, GluR1 levels were correlating with NR1 ( $R = 0.569$ ;  $P = 0.02$ ) and GluR2 with D2 ( $R = 0.527$ ;  $P = 0.04$ ). In YDI, Nic7 levels were correlating with D2 ( $R = 0.579$ ;  $P = 0.02$ ) and NR1 ( $R = -0.616$ ;  $P = 0.01$ ). No correlations were found in YVI. These data may suggest receptor interactions, a link between receptors, or even the concerted action of the above mentioned receptors under the conditions of modafinil or vehicle treatment. The correlation between the receptors may reflect either physical or functional interaction. Receptor–receptor interactions are key elements of neural transmission and integration of signals between different transmission lines at the membrane level (Agnati et al. 1995) and may be even of relevance in molecular medicine (Fuxe et al. 2007). Moreover, correlation among receptors may even represent heteromeric complexes and these are well-known for dopamine receptors

**Fig. 3** Immunoblotting results. Fifteen animals were used for immunoblotting and bands representative for the individual groups are shown. *Native markers* indicate the approximate apparent molecular weight



(Borroto-Escuela et al. 2010, 2011; Ferrada et al. 2008; Marcellino et al. 2008).

## Conclusion

Taken together, we have shown that modafinil increases latency and speed in the MTM along with involvement of the glutamatergic, dopaminergic and nicotinergeric system. Drug effects were shown for the glutamatergic, NMDA and dopaminergic system. In addition, links between the dopaminergic receptor complexes D1 and D2 and the NMDA receptor system as well as the link between GluR1 and GluR2 have been revealed.

The findings revealing receptor complex levels rather than levels of receptor subunits are useful for design of future and interpretation of previous work on receptor systems in spatial memory per se or pharmacological studies using modafinil.

**Conflict of interest** The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exist.

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