

**Anatomical and Biochemical Study of the Facial Nerve  
Nucleus and Other Brain Regions  
in 1-methyl 4-phenyl 1,2,3,6-Tetrahydropyridine  
Induced Parkinsonian Rat Model**

**By**

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## **INTRODUCTION**

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disease that affects 1-2% of population worldwide over 60 years old (Brown *et al.*, 2000) and it is mainly due to chronic dopamine (DA) deficiency in nigrostriatal pathway (Hassler, 1938; Pattarini *et al.*, 2007). Also PD is considered as an idiopathic disorder and the exact aetiology and molecular basis of which are still vague and incomplete with exception of few genetically inherited forms (Pattarini *et al.*, 2007). Despite the tremendous effort of the scientists to identify the factors and underlying mechanisms for the PD'S pathology, there are still missing chains that require further exploration (Pattarini *et al.*, 2007). The pathology of the disease was initially described as the degeneration of the nerve endings of dopaminergic neurons of substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) in the striatum followed by degeneration of the cell bodies in the SNpc (Burns *et al.*, 1984, Bradbury *et al.*, 1986, Eberling *et al.*, 1997, Pattarini *et al.*, 2007). Another suggestion was that PD is characterised by neuronal degeneration of the mesencephalic dopaminergic cells of substantia nigra (SN) and subsequent striatal DA depletion (Alavian *et al.*, 2009).

PD is the second most common age- related neurodegenerative disease after Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Dauer and Przedborski, 2003). It is characterised by cardinal signs such as tremor, rigidity, slowness in movements and gait instability (Savitt *et al.*, 2006).

It has been confirmed that about 80 % or more of the striatal DA content was diminished in PD patients as a consequence of nigral cell loss (Poirer & Sourkes, 1960; Bernheimer *et al.*, 1973; Agid *et al.*, 1987; Marsden, 1992; Savitt *et al.*, 2006). Most of the scientists' effort has focused on how to improve these symptoms through trials to compensate the DA deficiency. In spite of the efficiency of the therapies to relief the early symptoms of the disease, its progression neither has been stopped nor have the non- motor symptoms been treated (Savitt *et al.*, 2006).

Moreover, PD has been categorised as one of the Parkinsonian disorders along with other types of diseases such as multiple system atrophy (MSA) and dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB) (Constantinescu *et al.*, 2009). They share common features in the early symptoms of the disease but differ greatly with

the disease progression into various specific signs for each of them (Constantinescu *et al.*, 2009).

The main cholinergic nuclei were recognized as pedunculopontine tegmental nucleus (PPTg) and the laterodorsal tegmental nucleus (LDTg) or Ch<sup>o</sup> and Ch<sup>v</sup> respectively (Mesulam *et al.*, 1983). Collectively, they both are subdivided under the mesopontine tegmentum (MPT) (Maskos, 2008).

Furthermore, it was proved that these nuclei provide cholinergic innervations which in turn modulate dopaminergic release from different brain areas (Maskos, 2008). PPTg nucleus has been demonstrated to be the major locomotor and muscle tone suppression centre in the brainstem. Also, it was proved that PPTg has been related to gait freezing and poor balance, the two most disabling manifestation of late stage of PD (Nandi *et al.*, 2008).

Moreover, it was reported that in idiopathic PD there is a neuronal loss in the PPTg (Hirsch *et al.*, 1987; Jellinger, 1988) that is also observed in hydrocarbon-induced PD (Pezzoli *et al.*, 1996). Meanwhile, cholinergic innervation to the SN has increased (Anglade *et al.*, 1993, 1995 a, b).

It has been reported that balanced interaction between dopaminergic and cholinergic system is so crucial for basal ganglia function (Graybiel, 1990; Calabresi *et al.*, 2000; Zhou *et al.*, 2003; Morris *et al.*, 2004) and in turn in PD. Basal ganglia are known to be collection of different brain structures including the caudate putamen striatum (Mamah *et al.*, 2007).

Also, it has been demonstrated that striatal acetyl choline (ACh) and DA are very intimately spaced and hence an interaction between DA and ACh strongly takes place in the striatum. In another way, both neurotransmitters are locally and robustly regulating each other. So, the disruption of this balance due to cholinergic deterioration may be an important factor in PD pathology.

Subsequently, it was of great importance to study cholinergic system variation in the striatum specifically as well as in other brain regions generally in comparison to alterations in the dopaminergic system following acute MPTP treatment in our rat model to confirm or disagree with this hypothesis. Also, to discuss if exercise can exert a neuroprotective effect on this neurotransmitter system

Many efforts have been done to study motor deficits that accompany PD patients. Earlier to motor impairments, depression, anxiety and cognitive

dysfunctions have reported to be recognised in the preclinical stage (Lees & Smith, 1983; Levin *et al.*, 1989). It is also well known that cognitive control functions are related to the hippocampus and the cortex while the executive activities are related to prefrontal and cingulate cortex.

In addition, it is well recognized that Parkinsonian people develop dementia two to three times more than normal age matched individuals (Marder *et al.*, 1990; Aarsland *et al.*, 2003). Also, it is documented that about 30-50% of parkinsonian patients reveal dementia within 4-8 years following the disease symptoms' appearance (Aarsland *et al.*, 2003; Williams-Gray *et al.*, 2007), the risk factor increases by the disease propagation (Braak *et al.*, 2000). Many hypotheses have been set to explain the executive deficits and memory impairments that are correlated to PD. It was suggested that nigrostriatal dopaminergic neuronal loss with consequent dopamine depletion in the striatum and a correlated deficits in the frontostriatal circuitry (Owen *et al.*, 1998; Dagher *et al.*, 2001; Lewis *et al.*, 2003).

It has been confirmed that rodents reveal an age-dependent decrease in nerve growth factor (NGF) and basal forebrain (BF) cholinergic cells and also in learning and memory ability (Koh & Loy, 1988; Koh *et al.*, 1989). Additionally it was reported that rats and mice show an age-related decline in ACh and cell loss in the septohippocampal and BF regions (Strong *et al.*, 1980; Luine *et al.*, 1986; Gilad *et al.*, 1987; Springer *et al.*, 1987).

It has been reported that hypomimia or mask-like face is one of the prominent symptoms of PD that altered facial expressions which are very important non- verbal part of communication (Stern & Lees, 1991; Schroeder *et al.*, 2004). In humans, facial nerve is the seventh cranial nerve responsible for the innervations of facial muscle through the cortical regulation of facial nucleus (Costa *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, it contributes in a great way for social interaction between people (Moran *et al.*, 2003). It is believed that these facial impairments in PD are indication of facial neuronal degeneration. Also facial expression changes are considered as one of the early symptoms in the diagnosis of PD (Stern & Lees, 1991).

Moreover, it has been reported that subthalamic nucleus (STN) deep brain stimulation, a tool that has been used for PD control via implantation of electrode in the sensorimotor part of STN, has a direct impact on the perception

of facial expressions of the emotion (Schroeder *et al.*, 2004). It is also proved that there is a link between selective difficulty in recognizing angry faces and STN stimulation affecting anterior cingulate cortex function (Schroeder *et al.*, 2004).

Interestingly, it has been postulated that there is polysynaptic corticobulbar projections to facial muscles and that fibres from the unilateral tract innervate upper and lower facial muscles of both sides at the internal capsule level (Costa *et al.*, 2007). Furthermore, Costa *et al.* has proposed that facial motoneurons are likely to get inputs from multiple cortical motor areas.