

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Altered glial expression of the cannabinoid 1 receptor in the subiculum of a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease

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Abstract

The alteration of the endocannabinoid tone usually associates with changes in the expression and/or function of the cannabinoid CB₁ receptor. In Alzheimer's disease (AD), amyloid beta (Aβ)-containing aggregates induce a chronic inflammatory response leading to reactivity of both microglia and astrocytes. However, how this glial response impacts on the glial CB₁ receptor expression in the subiculum of a mouse model of AD, a brain region particularly affected by large accumulation of plaques and concomitant subcellular changes in microglia and astrocytes, is unknown. The CB₁ receptor localization in both glial cells was investigated in the subiculum of male 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (AD model) and CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice by immuno-electron microscopy. The findings revealed that glial CB₁ receptors suffer remarkable changes in the AD mouse. Thus, CB₁ receptor expression increases in reactive microglia in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}, but remains constant in astrocytes with CB₁ receptor labeling rising proportionally to the perimeter of the reactive astrocytes. Not least, the CB₁ receptor localization in microglial processes in the subiculum of controls and closely surrounding amyloid plaques and dystrophic neurites of the AD model, supports previous suggestions of the presence of the CB₁ receptor in microglia. These findings on the correlation between glial reactivity and the CB₁ receptor expression in microglial cells and astrocytes, contribute to the understanding of the role of the endocannabinoid system in the pathophysiology of Alzheimer's disease.

KEYWORDS

astroglia, endocannabinoid system, immuno-electron microscopy, microglia, neurodegeneration

Itziar Terradillos and Itziar Bonilla-Del Río share first authorship.

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1 | INTRODUCTION

Astrocytes and microglia activity associated with chronic inflammation induced by A β -containing aggregates results in abnormal morphology and proliferation of both glial cells in AD (Benito et al., 2003; McAlpine et al., 2021; Smit et al., 2021). The potential of cannabinoids to target several processes involved in AD pathogenesis is regarded as a therapeutic strategy (Casarejos et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2012; Eljaschewitsch et al., 2006; Talarico et al., 2019), in part because the main cannabinoid CB₁ receptor is localized in brain regions and cells, including glia, affected by the disease. We have previously estimated that about 56% of the CB₁ receptor labeling localizes to GABAergic terminals, 12% to glutamatergic terminals, 6% to astrocytes, 15% to mitochondria and the rest to other cells and compartments to be determined (Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2019; Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2021).

The expression of CB₁ receptors in astrocytes seems to be regulated by multiple factors and can vary under different brain conditions, for example, transient receptor potential vanilloid 1 knock out mice show a significant decrease in CB₁ density in astrocytes (Egaña-Huguet et al., 2021), acute Δ -9-tetrahydrocannabinol exposure causes CB₁ increase in these glial cells (Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2021), or adolescent binge drinking significantly decreases CB₁ in astrocytes in the adult brain (Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2019). Although the impact that astroglial dysfunction may have in AD is still poorly understood (Smit et al., 2021; Verkhratsky & Nedergaard, 2018), pieces of evidence suggest that changes in the endocannabinoid system occur in astrocytes near AD lesions. Thus, astrocytes closely associated with A β aggregates show more intermediate filament proteins and hypertrophy of cell bodies (Escartin et al., 2019; Smit et al., 2021). These astrocytes clear as well as degrade A β aggregates and release pro-inflammatory molecules (Farina et al., 2007) which can be diminished by endocannabinoids acting on CB₁ receptors localized in these glial cells (Metna-Laurent & Marsicano, 2015). Also, high fatty acid amide hydrolase (FAAH) levels, the main degrading enzyme for the endocannabinoid anandamide, have been found in astrocytes around neuritic plaques (Abate et al., 2021; Benito et al., 2003). However, the real impact of the progression of Alzheimer's disease on the expression of CB₁ receptors in astrocytes surrounding the lesions is unknown.

Microglia is another important player in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. Cannabinoids prevent A β -induced neurodegeneration by reducing microglial activity. Both CB₁ and CB₂ receptors expressed in microglia are involved in this action as they inhibit neuroinflammation by preventing reactive oxygen species (ROS) formation and cytokines release by these cells (Casarejos et al., 2013; Martín-Moreno et al., 2011; Ramírez et al., 2005; Talarico et al., 2019). Microglia also elicits a significant increase in endocannabinoid production that, in turn, activates more CB₁ and CB₂ receptors and their signaling cascades, amplifying the anti-inflammatory and protective microglial phenotype (Duffy et al., 2021; Mecha et al., 2016). In fact, the number and A β phagocytic capacity of microglial cells decrease in mice lacking CB₂ receptors (de Martín et al., 2022).

There are pieces of evidence indicating that microglia constitutively expresses CB₁ receptors that mediate some of the cannabinoid effects in resting microglial cells (Kaplan, 2013; Navarro et al., 2018; Ribeiro et al., 2013; Stella, 2009; Thion et al., 2018), and regulate neuroinflammation in a sex-dependent manner (De Meij et al., 2021). CB₁ receptors have been noticed in cultured microglia (Carlisle et al., 2002; Facchinetti et al., 2003; Klegeris et al., 2003; Molina-Holgado et al., 2002; Sinha et al., 1998; Stefano et al., 1996; Waksman et al., 1999; Walter et al., 2003), and specific anti-CB₁ antibodies detected some scattered CB₁ signal in microglia in the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus of females (De Meij et al., 2021).

CB₁ receptor expression increases in many inflammatory and neurodegenerative diseases like AD (Bisogno & Di Marzo, 2010; Ribeiro et al., 2013); however, very little is known about the localization and expression of cannabinoid receptors in glial cells in AD. We hypothesize in this study that CB₁ receptor expression in glia is altered in the subiculum of a mouse model of AD, a brain region particularly affected by large accumulation of plaques, as a result of concomitant subcellular changes in microglia and astrocytes. Our findings show that CB₁ receptors in microglial cells suffer remarkable modifications in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice, a murine model of AD recently reported to have an increase in CB₂ receptors in microglia related to dystrophic neurites (Ruiz de Martín Esteban et al., 2022), similarly to the CB₂ rise observed in plaque-associated microglia (Benito et al., 2003, 2007).

2 | MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 | Ethics statement

The protocols for animal care and use were approved by the Committee of Ethics for Animal Welfare of the University of the Basque Country (M20/2020/109) and were in accordance to the European Communities Council Directive of September 22, 2010 (2010/63/EU) and Spanish regulations (Real Decreto 53/2013, BOE 08-02-2013). Efforts were made to minimize the number and suffering of animals.

2.2 | Experimental animals

Experiments were done in 6.5–7.5-month-old male CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice, controls and co-expressing five AD mutations (5xFAD; Oakley et al., 2006) previously used in our laboratory for the localization of CB₂ receptors (Ruiz de Martín Esteban et al., 2022). The CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice were generated at the Genoway facilities (Lyon, France) by designing a targeting strategy consisting of the insertion of an enhanced green fluorescent protein (EGFP) reporter gene, preceded by an internal ribosomal entry site sequence (IRES) into the 3' untranslated region (UTR) of the mouse *cnr2* gene. This resulted in expression of the reporter gene (EGFP) under the control of the



mouse endogenous *cnr2* promoter, and transcription of the same bicistronic mRNA as the CB₂ receptor protein. In addition, these mice co-expressed 5xFAD mutations at the same time. The 5xFAD mice with a C57BL/6J background were purchased from Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, Main, USA). To obtain the co-expression, 5xFAD mice were mated with CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice for at least five generations to generate 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice (López et al., 2018). This 5xFAD model does not seem to express the mutation that causes the neurofibrillary degeneration (Oblak et al., 2021), but it may occur indirectly through neuronal degeneration and Aβ 1–42 deposits.

2.3 | Brain tissue processing

Mice were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine (100 mg/10 mg/kg body weight, intraperitoneal injection) and subsequently perfused transcardially at room temperature (RT) through the left ventricle. First with phosphate buffered saline (PBS) 0.1 M (pH 7.4) for 20 s, and then with the fixative solution composed of 4% formaldehyde, 0.2% picric acid and 0.1% glutaraldehyde in PBS 0.1 M (pH 7.4) for 10–15 min, with a fixative solution volume of 80 ml per mouse. The brains were then removed from the skull and post-fixed in the fixative solution for approximately 1 week at 4°C. Subsequently, they were stored in 1:10 diluted fixative solution at 4°C with 0.025% sodium azide. Brain vibro-sections were cut coronally at 50 μm and stored with 1 ml of phosphate buffer (PB) 0.1 M (pH 7.4) with 0.025% sodium azide at 4°C.

2.4 | Immunohistochemistry for light microscopy

Brain sections containing the subiculum were collected in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) at RT, pre-incubated with a blocking solution of 10% bovine serum albumin (BSA), 0.1% sodium azide and 0.5% triton X-100 in 1x tris-buffered saline (TBS 1x) (pH 7.4) for 30 min at RT, and incubated with the following primary polyclonal antibodies: guinea pig anti-CB₁ receptor (1:100; CB₁-GP-Af530; AB_2571593, Frontier Institute Co., Ltd), rabbit anti-ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1 (Iba1, 1:500; O19-19741; AB_839504, FUJIFILM Wako Pure Chemical Corporation), rabbit anti-glutamate aspartate transporter 1 (Anti-A522 [GLAST] EAAT1, 0.3 μg/ml; Ab#314; AB_231456, kindly gifted by Prof. Niels Christian Danbolt, University of Oslo). They were prepared in blocking solution and gently shaken for 2 days at 4°C or 1 day at RT. Then, sections were washed with 1% BSA and 0.5% triton X-100 in TBS 1x for 30 min, and incubated with a biotinylated anti-guinea pig (1:200, Biotin-SP-AffiniPure Goat Anti-Guinea Pig IgG; AB_2337394, Jackson Immuno Research), or biotinylated anti-rabbit secondary antibody (1:200, Biotin-SP-AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Rabbit IgG; AB_2340593, Jackson Immuno Research) diluted in the washing solution for 1 h on a shaker at RT. They were washed with 1% BSA and 0.5% triton X-100 in TBS 1x (30 min). Tissue was incubated with the avidin-biotin peroxidase complex (ABC; 1:50, Elite, Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) prepared in the washing solution, for 1 h at RT. Samples were washed with 1% BSA and 0.5% triton X-100 in

TBS 1x (3 x 1 min) and lastly with PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) and 0.5% triton X-100 (2 x 10 min). Labeling was revealed with 0.05% diaminobenzidine (DAB) in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) containing 0.5% triton X-100 and 0.01% hydrogen peroxide for 3.5 min at RT. This was followed by washes in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) with 0.5% triton X-100 (3 x 1 min, 2 x 10 min). Tissue sections were mounted on gelatinized slides, dried and dehydrated in graded ethanol for 5 min each. After rinsing with xylene (3 x 5 min), the slides were cover slipped with DPX. The subiculum was examined and photographed with a Zeiss AxioCam light microscope coupled to a Zeiss AxioCam HRc camera.

2.5 | Immunohistochemistry for electron microscopy

The protocol is already published (Puente et al., 2019). Four to five sections per brain containing the subiculum were selected. They were pre-incubated in a blocking solution (1 ml/well) of 10% BSA, 0.02% saponin and 0.1% sodium azide in TBS 1x (pH 7.4), for 30 min on the shaker at RT. Tissue was then incubated with a primary guinea pig anti-CB₁ receptor antibody (1:100) in combination with a rabbit anti-GLAST antibody (0.3 μg/ml) or a rabbit anti-Iba1 antibody (1:500). The solution contained 10% BSA in TBS 1x, 0.1% sodium azide and 0.004% saponin. Incubation was performed on a shaker for 2 days at 4°C followed by washes in 1% BSA/TBS 1x. Then, sections were incubated with 1.4 nm gold-conjugated goat anti-guinea pig IgG antibody (Fab fragment, 1:100, #2055, Nanoprobes, Inc., Yaphank, NY, USA). They were also incubated with biotinylated anti-rabbit IgG antibody (1:200) diluted in 1% BSA/TBS 1x with 0.004% saponin on a shaker for 4 h at RT. Tissue was washed in 1% BSA/TBS 1x on a shaker at RT and incubated with ABC (1:50) prepared in washing solution for 1.5 h at RT. Sections were washed in 1% BSA/TBS 1x, kept overnight at 4°C and post-fixed with 1% glutaraldehyde in TBS 1x (1 ml/well) for 12 min at RT. Then, they were washed in double distilled water and gold particles were silver-intensified with the HQ Silver kit (#2012, Nanoprobes, Inc., Yaphank, NY, USA) in the dark for 12 min at RT. After intensification, the sections were washed first in double distilled water and then with PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) for 30 min. The biotinylated antibody was revealed with 0.05% DAB prepared in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4) containing 0.5% triton X-100 and 0.01% hydrogen peroxide for 3.5 min at RT, followed by several washes in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4). They were osmicated (1% osmium tetroxide in PB 0.1 M, pH 7.4) in the dark for 20 min, washed in PB 0.1 M (pH 7.4), dehydrated in graded ethanol, cleared in propylene oxide, pre-embedded in 1:1 propylene oxide/Epon 812 resin on a shaker overnight at RT and embedded in pure Epon 812 resin. Immunogold labeling was visualized with a light microscope in sections containing the subiculum, and tissue portions with good and consistent CB₁ receptor labeling were identified and trimmed down for ultrathin sectioning. The procedure has already been described in detail (Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2019; Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2021; Gutiérrez-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Puente et al., 2019). Three to four semi-thin sections (0.7 μm-thick) were obtained with a histo-diamond knife (Diatome USA) and stained with 1% toluidine blue. To further standardize the conditions, only the

first five ultrathin sections were cut (50 nm-thick) with an ultradiamond knife (Diatome USA), collected onto nickel mesh grids and counterstained with 2.5% lead citrate for 20 min at RT. Electron micrographs were randomly taken with a Hamamatsu FLASH digital camera inserted in a transmission electron microscope (JEOL JEM 1400 Plus). Sampling was always carefully and accurately done using the following anatomical coordinates to delimit the subiculum: interaural, 0.40/0.00 mm; bregma, $-3.40/-3.80$ mm (Franklin & Paxinos, 2008).

2.6 | Antibodies specificity

Experiments were always performed under the same conditions. In addition, negative controls omitting the primary antibodies were done. Furthermore, the CB₁ receptor antibody was tested in CB₁^{-/-} brain tissue (Marsicano et al., 2002) by double pre-embedding immunogold (CB₁) and immunoperoxidase (Iba1 or GLAST) method for electron microscopy (Figure 1). The anti-A522 (EAAT1 [GLAST]) antibody (Ab#314) targeting the C-terminal residues 522–541 of rat EAAT1 (Hu et al., 2020) was used to identify astrocytic compartments. GLAST was restricted to astrocytes and localized intracellularly with no detectable labeling in nerve terminals, as previously described (Lehre et al., 1995; Schmitt et al., 1997). Furthermore, GLAST distribution

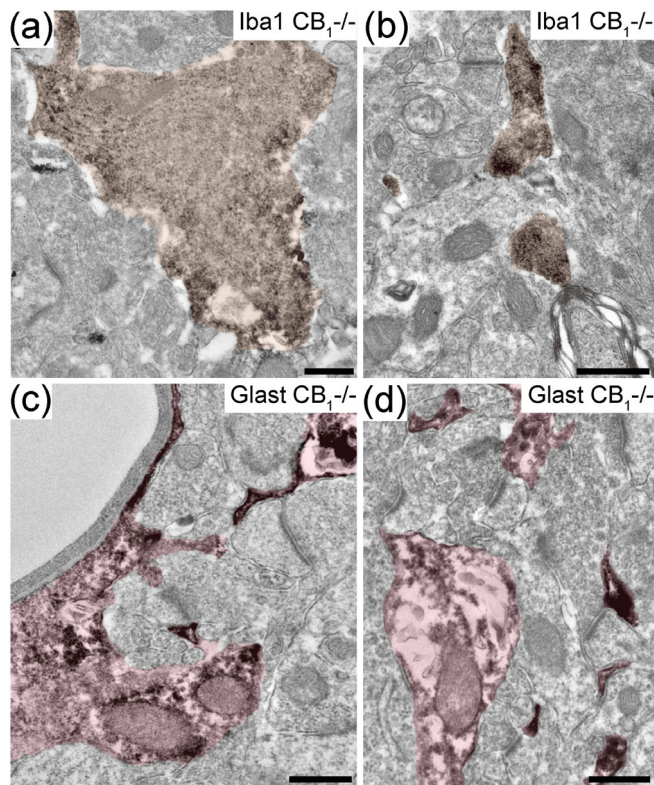


FIGURE 1 Subiculum of CB₁ knock out mice (CB₁^{-/-}). Double immunogold and immunoperoxidase method for electron microscopy. Antibodies were tested in CB₁^{-/-} mice (a–d). Simultaneous labeling for CB₁ (gold) and Iba1 (a and b; DAB immunodeposits in brown) or GLAST (c and d; DAB in pink). No CB₁ receptor signal is observed. Scale bars: 50 nm

is very similar in rodents and humans (Li et al., 2012), so the use of anti-GLAST antibody is a good approach to label astrocytes in the AD model. The specificity of the Iba1 antibody has been confirmed in previous studies (Delcambre et al., 2016; Szabo & Gulya, 2013). GLAST can be expressed in both microglia and astrocytes under certain conditions (Beschoner et al., 2007). Experiments were conducted to figure this out. Strikingly, GLAST and Iba1 were not seen to co-localize in a subicular area of 3506 μm^2 analyzed in CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and of 4743 μm^2 in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (data not shown). Taken together, we could reasonably conclude that GLAST and Iba1 are selective markers for astrocyte and microglia, respectively, in the 6.5–7.5 month-old CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice studied.

2.7 | Quantitative and statistical assessment

To ensure homogeneous labeling between all samples, only the first 1.5 μm from the section surface of each specimen were considered for the analysis. Area, perimeter, number of processes and CB₁ receptor expression in astrocytes, were studied in 5596 μm^2 of five CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}, and in 7681 μm^2 of seven 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. In addition, the area, perimeter and number of microglial processes were measured in 7900 μm^2 of seven CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}, and in 10,793 μm^2 of 10 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. For the study of CB₁ receptors in microglia, 6345 μm^2 in five CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 7268 μm^2 in seven 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice, were analyzed.

CB₁ receptor labeling in astrocytes and microglia was assessed in GLAST- and Iba1-immunopositive processes, respectively. The proportion of cell compartments with CB₁ receptor signal was then tabulated. Positive labeling was considered when at least one immunoparticle was within 30 nm of the membrane studied. CB₁ receptor density (particles/ μm membrane) was also determined by counting gold particles in the positive compartments. Membrane length (perimeter) was measured with the Image-J software (NIH; SCR_003070).

All values were given as mean \pm S.E.M. using a statistical software package (GraphPad Prism 8, SCR_002798, GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, USA). The normality test (Kolmogorov–Smirnov normality test) was always applied before statistics was done. Data were analyzed by non-parametric or parametric tests: Mann–Whitney U test or Student's Unpaired t-test ($*p < .05$).

Minor contrast and brightness adjustments were made to the figures using Adobe Photoshop (Adobe Photoshop, SCR_014199, CS3, Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA, USA) and Gimp (GNU Image Manipulation Program, SCR_003182).

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | Glial morphology in the subiculum of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice

Changes in staining density were detected in microglial and astrocytic cells (Figure 2a–d). Microglia identified by Iba1 in CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}

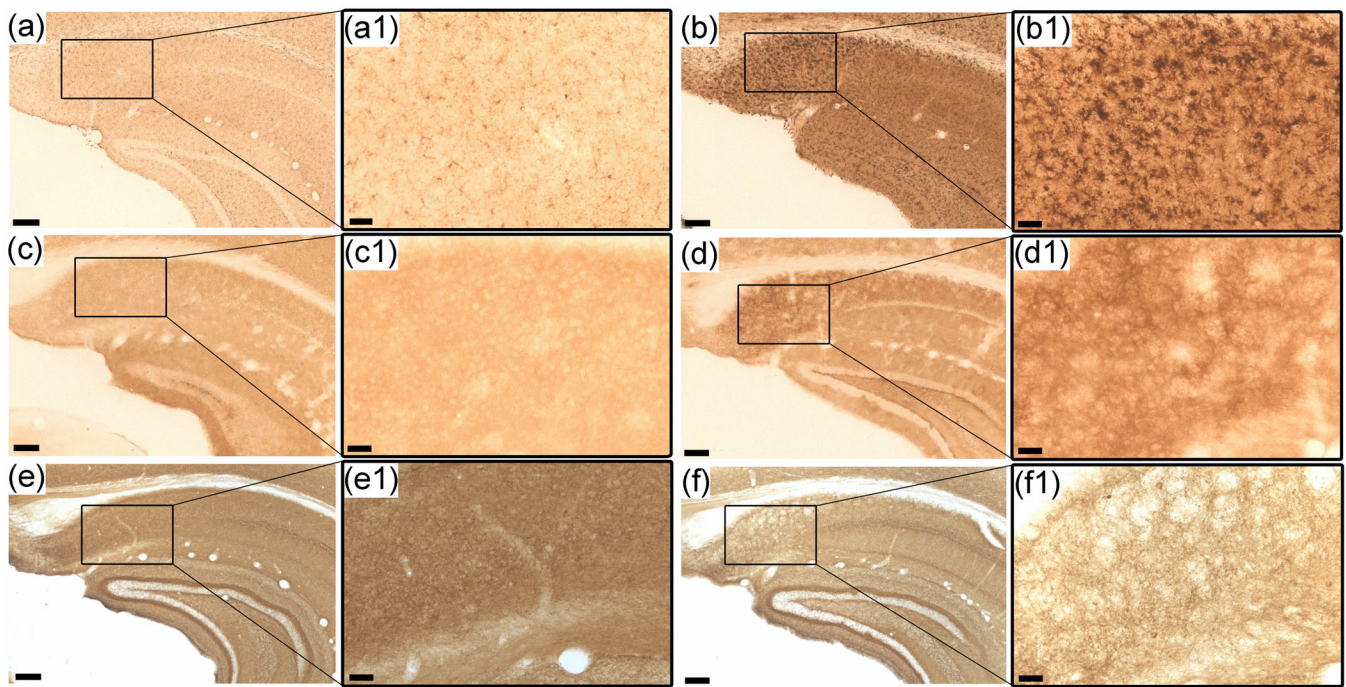


FIGURE 2 Subiculum of $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ and $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ mice showing Iba1, GLAST and CB_1 immunostaining. Avidin-biotin peroxidase method for light microscopy. Iba1 in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (a, a1) is drastically increased in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ microglia (b, b1). GLAST in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (c, c1) is weaker than in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (d, d1). Dense CB_1 receptor staining in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (e, e1) changes to a weaker and more patchy appearance in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (f, f1). Scale bars: 200 μm (a–f) and 50 μm (a1–f1)

(Figure 2a,a1) occupied a much larger area in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (Figure 2b,b1). This increase seemed to relate to both the number of microglial cells and the thickness of their processes (Figure 2a1,b1). In the electron microscope, only scattered microglial processes were observed in controls (Figure 3a,b), while numerous Iba1-positive processes surrounding plaques (Figure 3c,f) and dystrophic neurites (Figure 3c1,c3–f) were seen in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ mice. The area of the microglial processes was significantly increased in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($0.3229 \pm 0.05282 \mu m^2$, $***p < .0001$) relative to $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($0.1000 \pm 0.01754 \mu m^2$; Figure 5a), as it was the total microglial area per sample normalized to $100 \mu m^2$ ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $2.074 \pm 0.5156 \mu m^2$; $***p < .0001$; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $0.3485 \pm 0.06955 \mu m^2$; Figure 5b). In addition, a significant increase in the perimeter of the microglial prolongations was detected in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($2.200 \pm 0.1248 \mu m$; $***p < .0001$) versus $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($1.260 \pm 0.1036 \mu m$; Figure 5c) and reflected in the perimeter of the total microglial processes per sample normalized to $100 \mu m^2$ ($15.73 \pm 1.929 \mu m$ in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$; $4.334 \pm 0.5345 \mu m$ in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$; $***p < .0001$; Figure 5d). Finally, significant changes were also noticed in the number of microglial processes ($7.260 \pm 0.6304/100 \mu m^2$ in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$; $3.413 \pm 0.4092/100 \mu m^2$ in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$; $***p < .0001$; Figure 5e).

As to astrocytes, GLAST staining seen in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (Figure 2c,c1) was more intense in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (Figure 2d,d1). By using GLAST-DAB, the area, perimeter and number of astrocytic elements were analyzed in the electron microscope (Figure 4). Astrocytic processes surrounded dystrophic neurites and plaques in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (Figure 4b–d) and showed a significant increase in their area ($5xFAD/$

$CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $0.2598 \pm 0.01853 \mu m^2$; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $0.1565 \pm 0.006515 \mu m^2$; $***p < .0001$; Figure 5a). However, no differences were observed in the total area per sample occupied by astrocytic processes normalized to $100 \mu m^2$ ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $8.993 \pm 0.8664 \mu m^2$; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $7.415 \pm 0.6552 \mu m^2$; $p: .1711$; Figure 5b). There was also a great increase in the perimeter of the astrocytic processes ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $2.833 \pm 0.08486 \mu m$; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $2.116 \pm 0.04741 \mu m$; $***p < .0001$; Figure 5c). Nevertheless, no differences in the total perimeter of astrocytic processes per sample were detected ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $99.89 \pm 8.087 \mu m$; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $100.1 \pm 6.811 \mu m$; $p: .9820$; Figure 5d). Consistent with these results, a significant decrease in the number of astrocytic processes in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (35.52 ± 2.661 per $100 \mu m^2$) relative to $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (47.33 ± 2.709 per $100 \mu m^2$) was noticed ($**p: .0036$; Figure 5e).

Overall, our analyses in the subiculum of the Alzheimer's model reveal that the larger area of the microglia correlates with an increase in size and number of their processes, while astrocytic projections are fewer but bigger (Figure 5a–e).

3.2 | CB_1 receptors in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ and $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ subiculum

The CB_1 receptor labeling observed in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (Figure 2e,e1) was more patchy in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ showing many delimited round areas with much lower or insignificant staining, probably corresponding to neuritic plaques surrounded by a neuropil with more CB_1 receptor immunoreactivity (Figure 2f,f1).

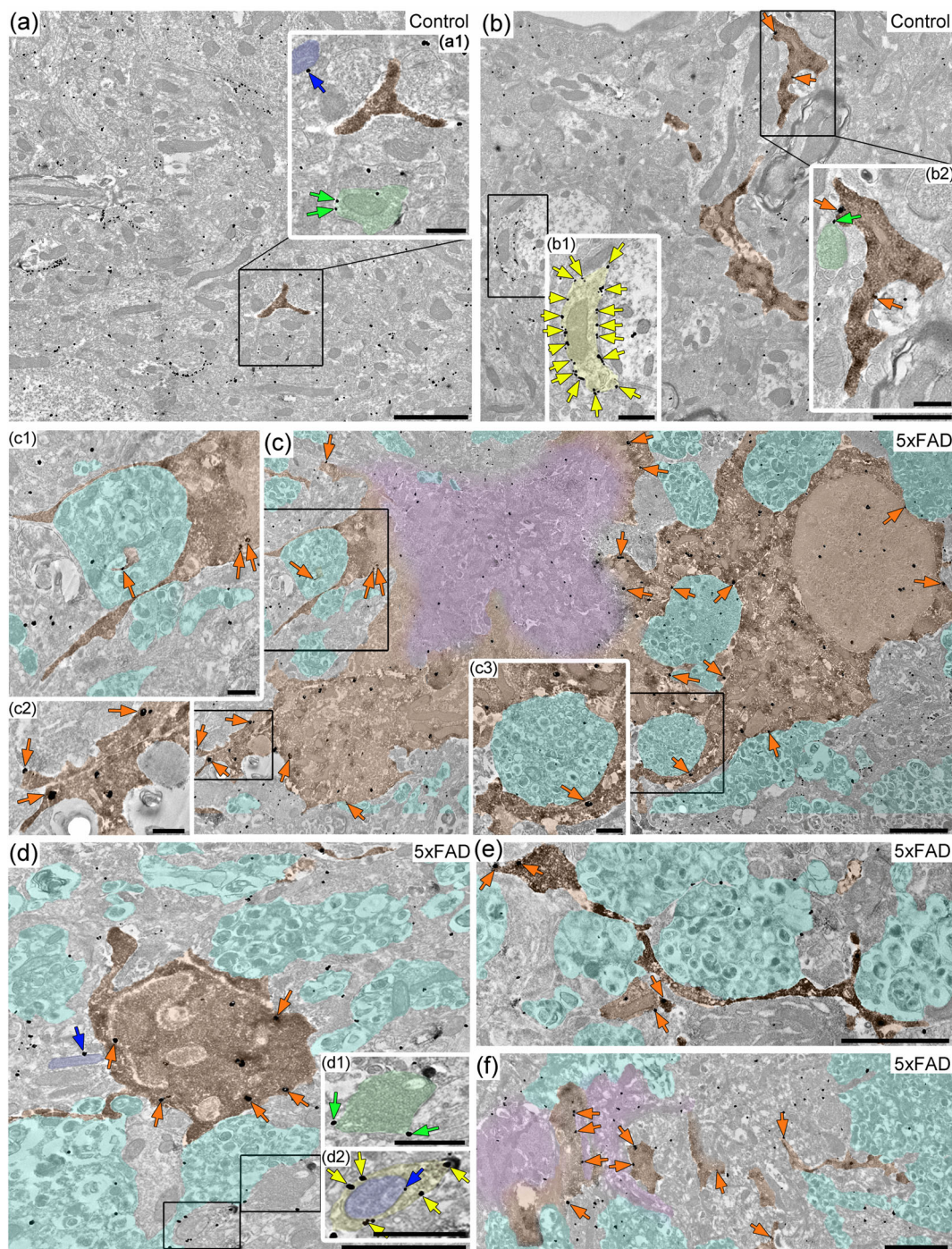


FIGURE 3 Double pre-embedding immunogold (CB₁) and immunoperoxidase (Iba1) method for electron microscopy in the subiculum of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. In CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}, a few slender Iba1 positive microglial elements are observed (a, b) (DAB immunodeposits in brown). However, thick processes of reactive microglia appear in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (c–f) surrounding plaques (in purple; c, f) and dystrophic neurites (in turquoise; c–f). Notice membrane CB₁ particles (orange arrows) in microglial processes of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (b2) and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (c–f), with particular abundance in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}. CB₁ receptor labeling is also in membranes of excitatory terminals (green arrows and profiles in a1, b2 and d1), inhibitory terminals (yellow arrows and profiles in b1, d2) and mitochondria (blue arrows and profiles in a1 and d2), in both mutants. Scale bars: 2 μm

3.3 | Microglial CB₁ receptor localization in CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} subiculum

CB₁ receptor particles were localized to membranes of Iba1-positive microglial processes in both CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (Figure 3b2) and 5xFAD/

CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice (Figure 3c–f). The analysis revealed a significant increase in CB₁-positive microglial processes in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (0.9942 ± 0.1259 CB₁⁺ processes/100 μm²) compared to CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (0.3254 ± 0.07758 CB₁⁺ processes/100 μm²; ****p* < .0001; Figure 6a, left). In addition, a strike increase in the proportion of CB₁-positive

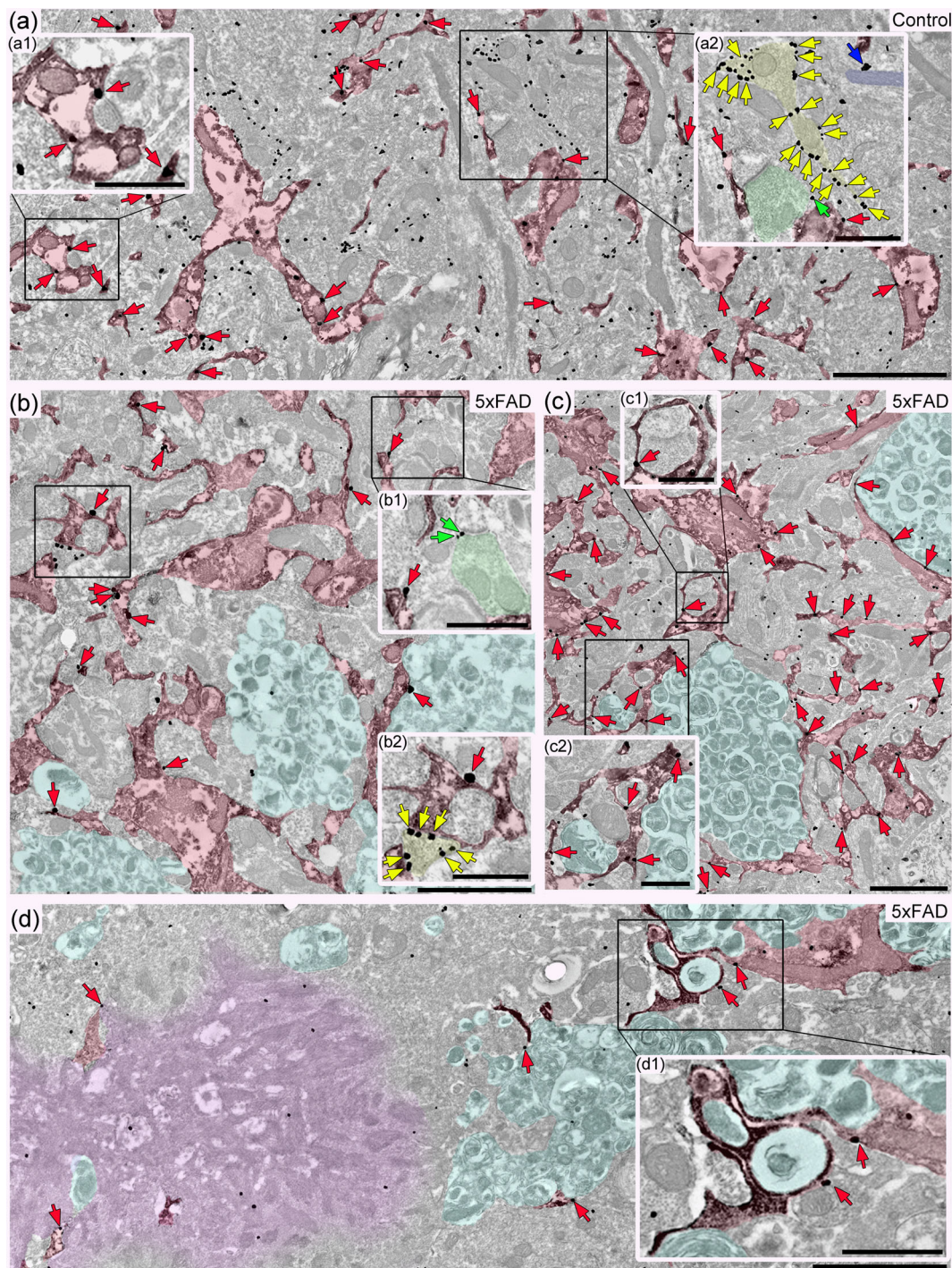
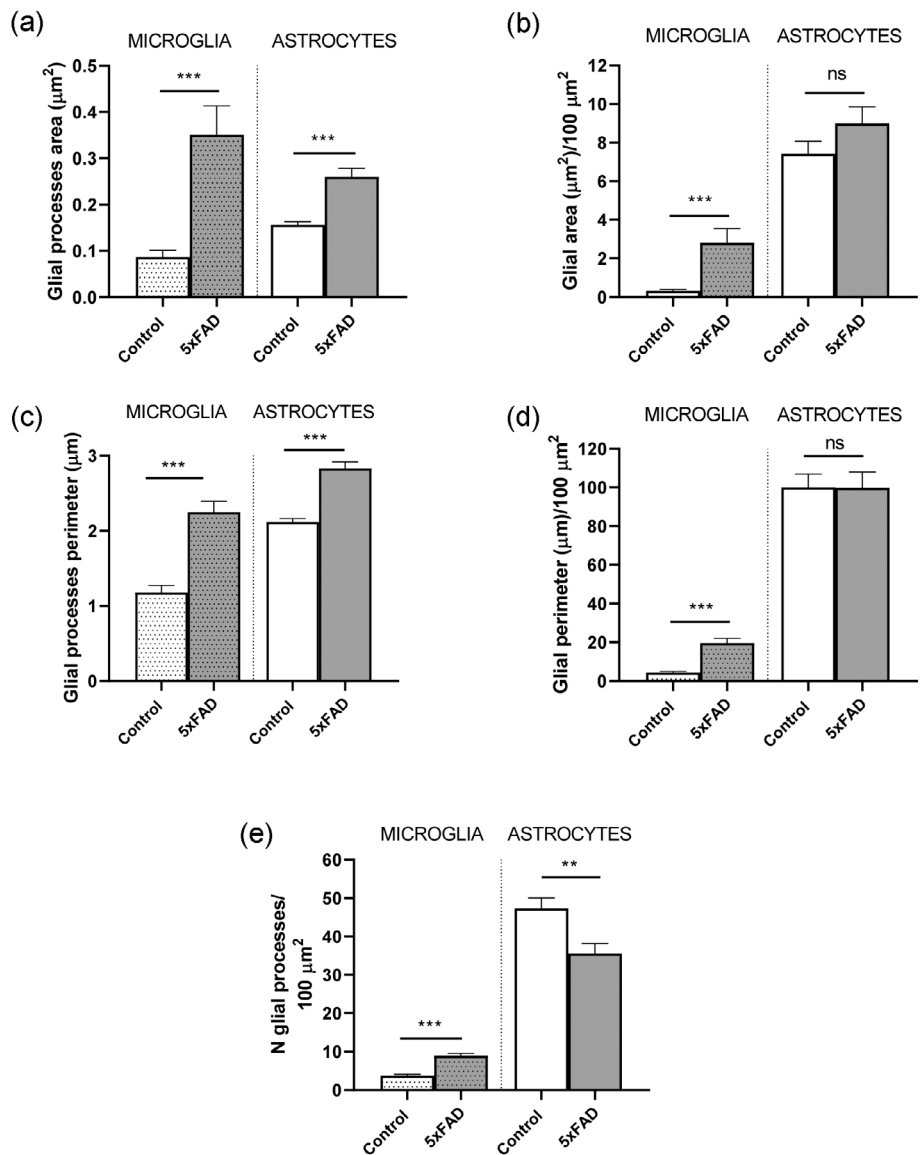


FIGURE 4 Double pre-embedding immunogold (CB₁ receptor) and immunoperoxidase (GLAST) method for electron microscopy in the subiculum of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. GLAST-positive astrocytic processes (DAB immunodeposits in pink) seen in CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (a) are thicker in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (b–d). Observe astrocytic elements surrounding dystrophic neurites (turquoise in b–d) and close to a plaque (purple in d) in the 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}. CB₁ particles (red arrows) localize to plasma membranes of GLAST-positive astrocytic processes in CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (a) and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (b–d). Typical CB₁ receptor labeling is also observed in membranes of excitatory terminals (green arrows and profiles in a2, b1), inhibitory terminals (yellow arrows and profiles in a2, b2) and mitochondria (blue arrows and profiles in a2), in both CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}. Scale bars: 2 μm

elements was detected in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice ($6.27 \pm 1.15\%$; CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}: $3.79 \pm 2.10\%$; $**p: .0033$; Figure 6b, left). However, CB₁ receptor density in the positive microglial processes was significantly reduced in 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (69.44 ± 7577 particles/100 μm of

membrane; CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}: $135.5 \pm 24.78/100$ μm of membrane; $**p: .0023$; Figure 6c, left). Furthermore, significant differences in the total number of microglial CB₁ particles per 100 μm² were observed between 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} (1.31 ± 0.18 particles) and CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}

FIGURE 5 Morphological parameters of microglia and astrocytes in the subiculum of $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ and $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ mice. (a) Microglial and astrocytic processes area. (b) Glial area (microglia and astrocytes) normalized to $100 \mu m^2$. (c) Microglial and astrocytic processes perimeter. (d) Glial perimeter (microglia and astrocytes) normalized to $100 \mu m^2$. (e) Number of glial processes (microglia and astrocytes) in $100 \mu m^2$. Data were analyzed by non-parametric or parametric tests (Mann-Whitney *U*-test or Student's *t*-test). Mann-Whitney *U*-test or Student's *t*-test. $p < .05^*$; $p < .01^{**}$; $p < .001^{***}$; $p < .0001^{****}$. All data are represented as mean \pm SEM



(0.48 ± 0.13 particles; $***p: .0009$; Figure 6d, left). Finally, there were not differences in the number of CB_1 particles per positive microglial process between both mutants ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 1.333 ± 0.08347 particles/process; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 1.450 ± 0.2112 particles/process; $p: .7736$; Figure 6e, left).

3.4 | Astroglial CB_1 receptor localization in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ and $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ subiculum

The CB_1 receptor was localized to membranes of GLAST-positive astrocytic processes in both mutants (Figure 4a-d), as previously reported (Bonilla-Del Rio et al., 2019; Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2021; Bosier et al., 2013; Gutiérrez-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Han et al., 2012). No significant differences were detected in the number of CB_1 -positive astrocytic prolongations between both mice ($CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 8.661 ± 0.8977 CB_1^+ processes/ $100 \mu m^2$; $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: $7.967 \pm$

1.224 CB_1^+ processes/ $100 \mu m^2$; $p: .3094$; Figure 6a, right). Likewise, the percentage of CB_1 -positive astrocytic branches was statistically similar between $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($21.24 \pm 2.37\%$) and $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ ($17.75 \pm 1.21\%$; $p: .2303$; Figure 6b, right). There was neither differences in CB_1 receptor density in the astrocytic positive processes ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 29.15 ± 2.220 particles/ $100 \mu m$ of membrane; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 37.57 ± 2.970 particles/ $100 \mu m$ of membrane; $p: .2209$; Figure 6c, right), nor in the number of astrocytic CB_1 particles per $100 \mu m^2$ ($5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 12.78 ± 2.174 particles; $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$: 11.63 ± 1.265 ; $p: .6716$; Figure 6d, right). However, the number of CB_1 particles per positive astrocytic processes was significantly higher in $5xFAD/CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (1.603 ± 0.05081 particles/process) than in $CB_2^{EGFP/f/f}$ (1.343 ± 0.03909 particles/process; $***p: .0005$; Figure 6e, right).

Altogether, the number of microglial processes expressing CB_1 receptors increases and the larger astrocytic profiles have more CB_1 receptors in the subiculum of the Alzheimer's mouse model (Figure 6a-e).

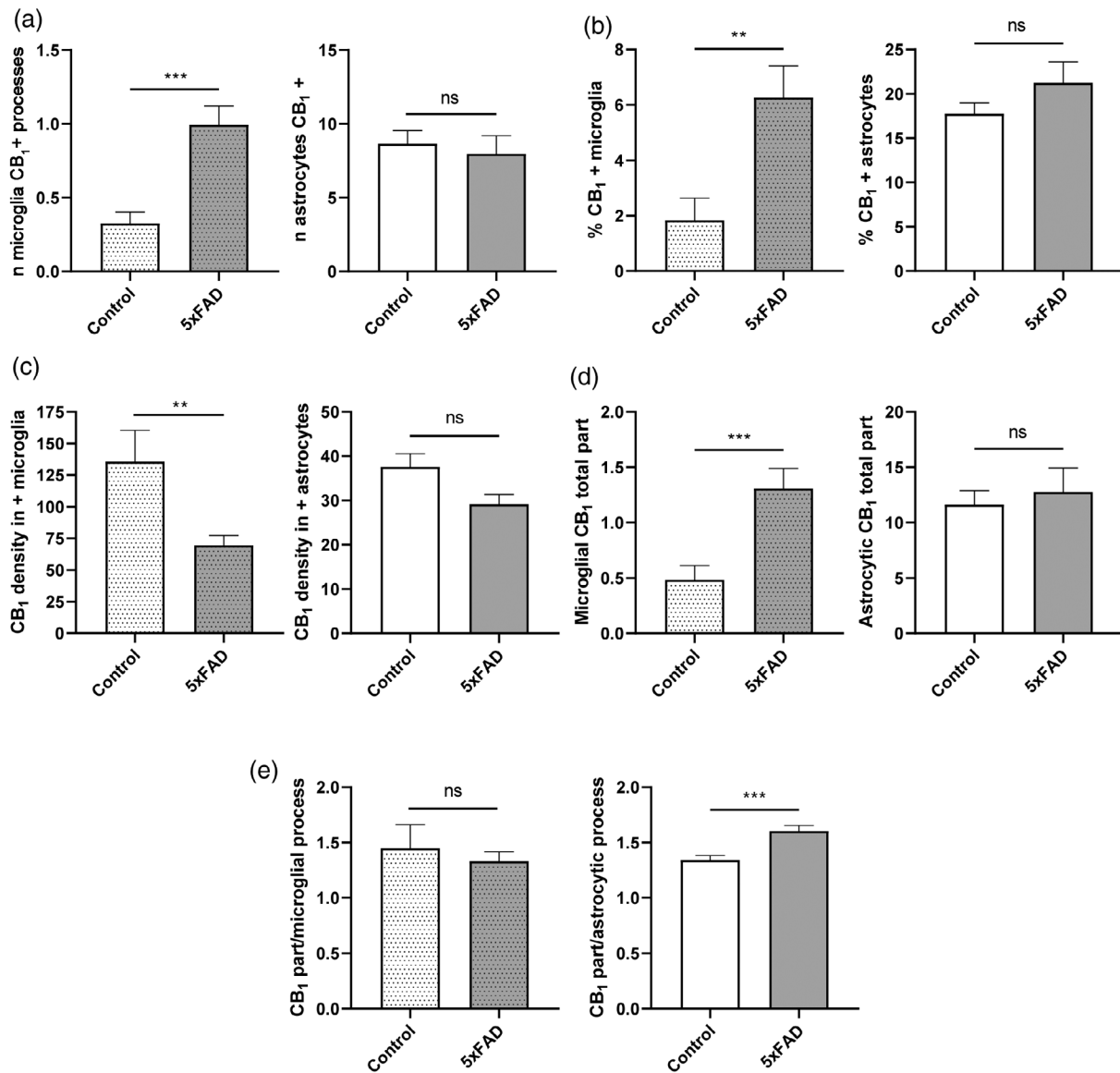


FIGURE 6 Statistical assessment of the CB₁ receptor localization in subicular astrocytes and microglia of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. (a) Number of microglial (left) and astrocytic (right) CB₁ positive processes per 100 μm². (b) Percentage of CB₁ positive microglial (left) and astrocytic (right) processes. (c) CB₁ density in positive microglial (left) and astrocytic (right) elements per 100 μm. (d) Microglial (left) and astrocytic (right) CB₁ particles per 100 μm². (e) CB₁ receptor labeling per microglial (left) and astrocytic (right) process. Data were analyzed by non-parametric or parametric tests (Mann-Whitney *U*-test or Student's *t*-test). Mann-Whitney *U*-test or Student's *t*-test. $p < .05^*$; $p < .01^{**}$; $p < .001^{***}$; $p < .0001^{****}$. All data are represented as mean ± SEM

4 | DISCUSSION

We detected in the electron microscope the presence of plaques and a multitude of dystrophic neurites in the 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice that confirms the usefulness of this animal model for studying the pathophysiology of AD (Ruiz de Martín Esteban et al., 2022). We also observed an overt microglial and astrocytic reactivity with an increase in the area and perimeter of their processes, demonstrating the existence of significant alterations in the subicular cytoarchitecture. Then we studied the expression of the major cannabinoid CB₁ receptor in glial cells in the subiculum of 5xFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. The main findings were that CB₁

receptor expression conspicuously changes in microglial cells but receptor density remains steady in astrocytes despite the reactivity of the astrocytic processes in the AD mouse. Not least, the localization of CB₁ receptors in microglial processes in the subiculum of controls and closely surrounding amyloid plaques and dystrophic neurites in the subiculum of the AD model, supports the presence of CB₁ in microglia. The discreet amount of CB₁ receptors in astrocytes has been revealed accurately by immuno-electron microscopy (Bonilla-Del Río et al., 2021; Gutiérrez-Rodríguez et al., 2018; Puente et al., 2019), a technique that has also been proven in this study to be optimal for the localization of CB₁ receptors in microglia.

4.1 | CB₁ receptors in microglia of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} subiculum

We have shown a very significant increase in the number, area and perimeter of microglial processes in 6.5/7.5-month-old 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. Proliferation and activity of microglia around amyloid plaques in an attempt to achieve their clearance is a hallmark of AD (Gomez-Nicola & Perry, 2015). Conversely, impaired microglia and altered microglial responses to A β are associated with an increased risk of AD (Hansen et al., 2018). In post-mortem samples from AD patients and in murine models of the disease, microgliosis strongly correlates with microglial activity and plaque deposition (Gomez-Nicola & Perry, 2015; Kamphuis et al., 2012; Kettenmann et al., 2011; Olmos-Alonso et al., 2016). The expression of CB₁ receptors in microglia changes depending on the microglial phenotype and profile (Stella, 2010). There are pieces of evidence indicating that microglia constitutively express CB₁ receptors (De Meij et al., 2021; Ribeiro et al., 2013; Stella, 2009) which mediate some of the effects of cannabinoids on these cells (Kaplan, 2013; Navarro et al., 2018). However, microglia hardly express (if any) CB₁ receptors at resting conditions. In fact, specific CB₁ receptor antibodies showed little CB₁ receptor labeling in microglial cells of the female hypothalamic arcuate nucleus (De Meij et al., 2021). Nevertheless, CB₁ receptors have been detected in cultured microglia of several species (Sinha et al., 1998; Stefano et al., 1996; Waksman et al., 1999). We have revealed with the aid of the microglial marker Iba1, the presence of CB₁ receptors in microglial membranes of the CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} subiculum. Furthermore, the number and percentage of CB₁ receptor-positive microglial processes significantly increased in 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. However, there were not significant changes in the number of CB₁ particles per microglial branch, but a significant decrease in CB₁ receptor density associated with the enlargement of the microglial processes was observed. Interestingly, there were more CB₁ receptor-positive microglial ramifications in 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}.

CB₁ receptor expression increases in many inflammatory and neurodegenerative diseases like AD (Bisogno & Di Marzo, 2010; Ribeiro et al., 2013). However, how CB₁ receptors regulate microglial cell function is still far from being deciphered (Cabral & Marciano-Cabral, 2005; Duncan et al., 2013; Mecha et al., 2015; Steiner et al., 2011). Microglial activity also elicits a significant increase in the endocannabinoids 2-arachidonoyl-glycerol and anandamide that in turn activate cannabinoid receptors and signaling cascades that amplify the anti-inflammatory and protective microglial phenotype (Duffy et al., 2021; Mecha et al., 2016). Thus, microglial CB₁ receptor activation inhibits liposaccharide-induced nitric oxide release (Stefano et al., 1996; Waksman et al., 1999) and MPTP-induced oxidant production (Chung et al., 2011) among other effects (Kaplan, 2013). CB₁ and CB₂ receptors form heteromers with different quaternary structures depending on the microglia state (Navarro et al., 2018). Because CB₂ receptors are selectively expressed in microglia in the vicinity of neuritic plaques and dystrophic neurites (Benito et al., 2003; Bedse et al., 2015; Ruiz de Martín Esteban et al., 2022) and cannabinoids increase CB₁ gene expression through CB₂ (Haspula & Clark, 2020), it is plausible that high levels of

CB₂ receptors could affect CB₁ expression near AD lesions. Recent pieces of evidence indicate that CB₁ receptors in mouse microglia promote pro-inflammatory responses in both sexes, but when microglia lack CB₁ receptors a distinct sickness behavior is observed in males subjected to inflammatory conditions (De Meij et al., 2021).

4.2 | CB₁ receptors in astroglia of CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} and 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} subiculum

Although we observed a significant increase in the number of CB₁ receptor particles per astrocytic process in 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}, there were not significant differences neither in particle number nor in the number or percentage of CB₁-positive processes relative to CB₂^{EGFP/f/f}. In addition, CB₁ receptor density was similar between both transgenic mice. However, there was a great increase in the area and perimeter of GLAST-positive astrocytic processes offset by a significant decrease in their number in 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. That is, there were fewer but larger astrocytic processes in the subiculum of 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} compared to CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. Therefore, it seems that there were adaptive changes with CB₁ receptors increasing as the reactive astrocytic processes enlarged, keeping unchangeable the density and receptor expression. Altogether, there was a clear astrocytic reactivity around the plaques with not obvious changes in CB₁ receptors.

Astrocytes play an important role in inflammatory processes and their appearance varies through major morphological and molecular changes in the diseased brain (Escartin et al., 2019). For example, astrocytes increase the surface area and reduce the number of processes in the hippocampus of adult mice following ethanol exposure during adolescence (Bonilla-Del Rio et al., 2019). Astrocytic swelling leads to astroglial dysfunction and disruption of GFAP found in the astrocyte intermediate filaments (Adermark & Bowers, 2016; Renau-Piqueras et al., 1989). In AD, astroglial reactivity in close association with A β aggregates shows a rise in intermediate filament proteins and soma hypertrophy (Escartin et al., 2019; Smit et al., 2021). Astrocytes are able to clear and degrade A β aggregates (Bard et al., 2000; Blasko et al., 2004; Wyss-Coray et al., 2003) but also to release pro-inflammatory molecules regulated by astroglial CB₁ receptors (Farina et al., 2007; Metna-Laurent & Marsicano, 2015; Sheng et al., 2005; Stella, 2010). Furthermore, swollen astrocytic processes may not be effective in sensing the endocannabinoids produced on demand by neural activity, and together with high FAAH levels found in astrocytes around neuritic plaques, gliotransmitter availability elicited by cannabinoids could be compromised at the synapses (Abate et al., 2021; Araque et al., 2014; Bedse et al., 2015; Benito et al., 2003; Han et al., 2012). Hence, it is reasonable to expect an impairment in the astroglial anti-inflammatory reaction around plaques and dystrophic neurites in the subiculum of the 5XFAD/CB₂^{EGFP/f/f} mice. In addition, the supposedly resulting disturbance of neurotransmitter clearance and gliotransmission may lead to deficits in synaptic plasticity (Dzyubenko et al., 2016) and, consequently, to brain dysfunction. Astrocytic CB₁ receptors together with the basal endocannabinoid tone play important

roles in brain functions (Navarrete & Araque, 2008, 2010). Also, CB₁ receptors in astrocytes mediate the spatial working memory deficit and in vivo excitatory long-term depression at the hippocampal CA3-CA1 synapses after acute cannabinoids exposure (Han et al., 2012).

Altogether, astroglial alteration in AD and functional changes associated with reactive astrocytes (Smit et al., 2021; Verkhatsky & Nedergaard, 2018) may have a direct impact on synaptic communication (Nanclares et al., 2021) and neuronal network function (Oliveira & Araque, 2022), which eventually would cause brain activity disruption and ultimately cognitive impairment (Escartin et al., 2019; Lines et al., 2022; Smit et al., 2021).

The significant change observed in this study was the increase in microglial CB₁ receptors. The effects of cannabinoids on microglia remain to be deciphered but seem very promising (Esposito et al., 2006; Talarico et al., 2019). Cannabinoids may be beneficial by reducing A β aggregation and inhibiting tau hyperphosphorylation as well as ROS generation, among others (Casarejos et al., 2013; Soto-Mercado et al., 2020; Talarico et al., 2019). However, the effect of therapeutic interventions targeting glial cells depends on an adequate balance between attenuation of harmful effects and, at the same time, maintenance of brain function mechanisms (Hansen et al., 2018; Scuderi et al., 2020).

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

IT, IB-DR, NP, MS, AM, LL, IA-L, LR, IG performed research. IT, IB-DR, NP, IE analyzed data. IE and PG designed research. SRME, CJH, MTG, JR contributed mutant mice. IT, IE, PG wrote the manuscript.

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DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT

The authors have included full information on the statistical methods and measures used in the present research. Furthermore, the statistical tests applied have been demonstrated to be appropriate in previous papers published by the Grandes laboratory. All raw data used for statistics are available upon request.

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