

Magnetic resonance imaging in animal models of Alzheimer's disease amyloidosis

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Abstract

Amyloid-beta ($A\beta$) plays an important role in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. Aberrant $A\beta$ and tau accumulation induce neuroinflammation, cerebrovascular alterations, synaptic deficits, functional deficits, and neurodegeneration, leading to cognitive impairment. Animal models recapitulating the $A\beta$ pathology such as transgenic, knock-in mouse and rat models have facilitated the understanding of disease mechanisms and development of therapeutics targeting at $A\beta$. There is a rapid advance in high-field MR in small animals. Versatile high-field magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) sequences such as diffusion tensor imaging, arterial spin labelling, resting-state functional MRI, anatomical MRI, MR spectroscopy as well as contrast agents have been developed for the applications in animal models. These tools have enabled high-resolution *in vivo* structural, functional, and molecular readouts with a whole brain field-of-view. MRI have been utilized to visualize non-invasively the $A\beta$ deposits, synaptic deficits, regional brain atrophy, impairment in white matter integrity, functional connectivity, cerebrovascular and glymphatic system in animal models of amyloidosis. Many of the readouts are translational in clinical MRI in the brain of patients with Alzheimer's disease. In this review, we summarize the recent advance of using MRI for visualizing the pathophysiology in amyloidosis animal model. We discuss the outstanding challenges in brain imaging using MRI in small animal and propose future outlook in visualizing $A\beta$ -related alterations in brain of animal models.

1. Introduction

The two core pathological hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease (AD) are extracellular amyloid-beta ($A\beta$) plaques and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles, resulting from the abnormal accumulation of misfolded $A\beta$ and tau [1]. $A\beta$ plays a central role in the pathogenesis of AD and downstream pathophysiological events [2]. The pathophysiological changes in AD start many years before the onset of clinical symptoms [3]. Recent advance in diagnostic imaging have provided insights into the time course of AD pathology, including $A\beta$, tau, neuroinflammation in patients and in animal disease models [4-6]. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) is widely used both in clinical setting for assisting the diagnosis towards precision medicine and in preclinical research in small animal models. Structural MRI for assessing the neurodegeneration (brain atrophy) in the ATN framework has offered valuable tool for early and differential diagnosis of AD and for disease staging [6,7]. Moreover multiplex MRI sequences such as diffusion tensor imaging (DTI) for white matter integrity assessment, resting-state (rs) functional MRI for functional connectivity [8], as well as arterial spin labelling (ASL) for cerebral perfusion have emerged as potential diagnostic biomarkers for AD.

Several generations of animal models of AD amyloidosis have been developed and facilitated the understanding of disease mechanisms and the development of treatment strategies. The models include transgenic APPswe, APP/PS1, APP23, J20 mice, and McGill-R-Thy1-APP rats [9-13], 2nd generation App^{NL-G-F}, App^{hu/hu} knock-in and 3rd generation mouse models [14-17]. The animal models recapitulate the $A\beta$ pathology and downstream gliosis, neuronal loss, functional and cognitive impairment. In addition, models harboring both $A\beta$ and tau pathology such as 5 $\times$ FAD, 3 $\times$ Tg mice, and TgF344 rats have been widely used [18-20]. In this review, we summarize recent advances in MRI, contrast agents, and MR spectroscopy, fingerprinting in probing the alterations in brains of AD amyloidosis animal models. We outline the outstanding challenges and provide an outlook for further development of preclinical MR in animal models of AD amyloidosis.

2. $A\beta$ imaging

The abnormal accumulation of $A\beta$ deposits, both parenchymal plaques and cerebral amyloid angiopathy (CAA), particularly the neurotoxic oligomeric $A\beta$ plays a crucial role in the disease pathogenesis in animal models and in patients with AD [2,21-23]. *In vivo* $A\beta$ detection and longitudinal monitoring in mouse models of AD amyloidosis has provided insights on the disease mechanisms and treatment effects. The $A\beta$ imaging at whole brain level have been mostly assessed

by using positron emission tomography (PET) for its excellent sensitivity [24,25]. Other imaging methods for *in vivo* A β detection such as two-photon microscopy, fluorescence molecular tomography and optoacoustic imaging assisted with specific probes have been developed [26-31]. MRI detection of A β deposits has also been developed with or without using contrast agents (**Table 1**). The advantage of MRI molecular imaging stem from its superior resolution compared to small animal PET. MRI without contrast agents have been developed by exploring high-resolution imaging and changes in tissue proton MR properties, such as T₂, T₂* [32,33] (**Figure 1e**), magnetic susceptibility, magnetization transfer imaging [34,35] and chemical exchange-sensitive spin-lock (CESL) imaging [36]. T₂ relaxation time was found associated with A β pathology in several mouse models [37-39]. As iron, copper, zinc accumulate in the A β plaques [40,41], susceptibility weighted imaging (SWI) and quantitative susceptibility mapping (QSM) have been used to detect A β aggregates and iron accumulation in APP/PS1 and Tg-SwDI mice [42,43]. It is noted that the endogenous contrast-based (CE) MRI methods lack the sensitivity for A β plaque detection, thus generally requires a high magnetic field and long scan time.

A few exogenous MRI contrast agents that can specifically bind to A β have been developed, including 1) Gadolinium (Gd) based: Gd-diethylenetriamine pentaacetate (DTPA)-A β 1-40, Gd-DTPA-K6A β 1-30, cyanine-conjugated Gd (III) complex, Gd-pF(ab')₂24, liposomal macrocyclic Gd-ADx-001 [44-49] (**Figure 1f**); 2) superparamagnetic iron oxide (SPIO) based: APP-SiMag, ultrasmall SPIO-polyethylene glycol-A β 1-42.B, IgG4.1 NP bifunctional ultrasmall SPIO [50-54]. Duffeant et al. demonstrated detection of compact A β plaques even around diameter of 25 μ m as well as CAA and cerebral microhemorrhages in five mouse lines (APP_{SL}/PS1_{M146L}, APP/PS1_{dE9}, APP23, APP_{SwDI}, and 3 $\times$ Tg) and in AD human brains using DOTAREM[®] (Gd-DOTA) at 7 T MRI [55]. The SPIO nanoparticles contrast require much smaller amount of injection compared due Gd-contrast agents due to the higher MR relaxivity. In addition, manganese (Mn) based, Mn oxide nanoparticles conjugated HMON-A β 40 [37], Mn chloride [56], monocrystalline iron oxide nanoparticles [45], sialic acid coated bovine serum albumin magnetic nanoparticle [57] have been reported for A β deposits detection. 3) ¹⁹F and ¹H MRI using contrast agents such as small chemical dye FSB, TFMB, bovine serum albumin@FDQDs, Shiga-Y5, and Shiga-Y51 have also been reported for *in vivo* A β imaging [47,58-62].

Moreover, several contrast agents specific for A β oligomer (antibody based or chemical probe) have been reported. Viola et al. reported using 12-16 nm Fe₃O₄ magnetic nanostructures (MNS) conjugated with A β oligomer specific antibody NU4 for detecting A β oligomers in the mouse brains [63]. Rozema et al. reported A β oligomer specific antibody based ACU193-MNS for detecting the A β oligomer level in rabbit by using MRI [64]. As the size of antibody hinders its blood-brain barrier (BBB) permeability, one strategy is to facilitate its delivery is to link a fraction of antibody with transferrin [65] or scavenger receptor. Liu et al. developed W20/XD4-SPIO nanoparticles, which are multifunctional SPIO nanoparticles conjugated with A β oligomer-specific single-chain variable fragment (scFv) of the antibody and scavenger receptor, and demonstrated the *in vivo* detection in APP/PS1 mice [66] (**Figure 1g-h**). Chen et al. and Dong et al. reported curcumin derivative conjugated magnetic nanoparticle Cur-MNPs for *in vivo* imaging of A β with high contrast in APP^{swe} and 5 $\times$ FAD mice [67,68].

3. Functional imaging

Synaptic impairment, aberrant excitatory neuronal activity, gamma oscillations and disrupted circuit are early features in amyloidosis animal models [69-72]. Clusters of hyperactive neurons are observed in the vicinity of A β plaques in APP mouse models [73]. There is a vicious cycle of A β -dependent neuronal hyperactivation initiated by suppression of glutamate reuptake [74]. Neurovascular uncoupling and impaired cerebral blood flow (CBF) have been demonstrated by MRI and optical imaging modalities [75].

3.1 Magnesium enhanced (ME) MRI

Both neuronal tracing MEMRI and the activity-induced MEMRI method for detecting active neural regions during a task or stimulation, independent of hemodynamics have been developed [76,77]. However the dose of Mn chloride required in *in vivo* imaging study might lead to increased risk of acute toxicity in the liver, heart, and kidney, therefore is not widely applied (90). Activity-induced MEMRI have been applied in APP^{swe}, APP $\times$ PS1-Ki, CVN-AD, J20, 5 $\times$ FAD mice and TgF344 rats [56,78-81] (**Table 2**). Most MEMRI studies found hyperactivation and functional abnormalities in the APP animal models. Although studies also reported that the activity-induced MEMRI cannot detect hyperactivation in the APP $\times$ PS1-Ki [78]. MEMRI study in TetO/APP^{SwInd} with overexpression of APP specifically in olfactory neurons was shown to detect laminar changes and neurodegeneration in the olfactory bulb [82]. Yoshikawa et al. showed that tau depletion in APP transgenic mice reduced

the task-related hippocampal hyperactivation by using MEMRI and the spatial memory impairment [79]. Neuronal Tracing Studies With MEMRI by direct injection of Mn into mouse brain region can detect impaired axon transport. Thus, MEMRI can be used to study axonal transport and measure axonal transport rates in the rodent brain. Intranasal administration of manganese showed decreased axonal transport rates in olfactory system prior to Ab plaque formation in mouse model in APP^{swe} and 3×Tg mice [83-85], and in the hippocampus-basal forebrain pathway in TetO/APP^{SwInd} mice [86].

3.2 Resting state-fMRI

fMRI has enabled a better understanding on brain activity in different areas and has become a workhorse in neuroimaging [8], and potential early biomarker for neurodegenerative diseases. Blood-oxygen-level-dependent (BOLD) signal from rs-fMRI has been widely used as a readout for brain function [87]. The fMRI in small animal model is more challenging compared to human brain imaging, due to their dependence on multiple factors such as fluctuations, spatial localization, nonlinearities, baseline physiological state, pulse sequence and task [88,89]. Early hypersynchrony of BOLD resting-state networks in the telencephalic, interhemispheric, hippocampal regions as well as fornix has been reported in APP mouse models, providing predictive value for the later cognitive dysfunction [81,90-97] (**Table 2**). Latif-Hernandez et al. reported that subtle behavioral changes and increased prefrontal-hippocampal network synchronicity in APP^{NL-G-F} mice before prominent plaque deposition [98]. Ben-Nejma et al. reported increased soluble A β causes early aberrant brain network hyper-synchronisation in the default mode network (DMN)-like brain regions at 8 weeks post doxycycline treatment in inducible transgenic Tet-Off APP animal model; And hypo-synchronization was detected by fMRI at 20 week post doxycycline treatment in a mature-onset Tet-Off APP mice [99](**Figure 1a-d**). Other study reported diminished functional connectivity in APP/PS1 mice [100]. Early hyperactivation have been reported also in the animal models harboring both A β and tau pathology; Gail Canter et al. demonstrated that the DMN was affected early at 4 month-of-age and the limbic system at 6 month-of-age along with a network-specific amyloid progression in 5×FAD mice [101]. Tudela et al. reported an early alteration in the anterior DMN subnetwork of TgF344 rats compared to controls by rs-fMRI using independent component analysis [102].

3.3 ASL

ASL is a MRI technique to quantify tissue blood flow or perfusion, which is routinely performed in the clinical setting [103]. Cortical hypoperfusion by using ASL have been reported in APP/PS1, Tg-SwDI, arcA β , APPswe, APP23 mice [33,104-112] as well as in 3 $\times$ Tg, bigenic and 5 $\times$ FAD mice harboring both A β and tauopathy (**Table 2**) (**Figure 1f**). Reduced cortical CBF was observed in the aged arcA β mouse (24 month-of-age) compared to aged wild-type mice and compared to young arcA β (**Figure 2i, j**). Recent study by Cruz Hernández et al. demonstrated that neutrophil adhesion in brain capillaries impaired the CBF and that treatment using anti-neutrophil marker antibody reversed the CBF reduction and improved the impaired memory function in APP/PS1 mice [104]. In addition to ASL, several new MR perfusion method have been developed.

3.4 Cerebrovascular reactivity measurement

Vasodilatory stimulus challenged fMRI assesses the cerebrovascular reactivity based on the cerebral haemodynamic changes, and reflects the vascular reserve and autoregulatory function [113]. Different vasodilatory stimulus including carbon-dioxide, breath-hold task (in human), and acetazolamide have been used [114,115]. Impaired cerebrovascular reactivity by using fMRI with carbon-dioxide as the stimulus has been reported in patients with mild cognitive impairment and AD [113,116,117]. In AD mouse model, Gd or SPIO based contrast agent (e.g. Endorem) was intravenous injected to monitor the signal alterations due to administration of acetazolamide [114]. A reduced cerebrovascular reactivity has been reported in a few APP mouse models including APP/PS1, arcA β , APPswe, APP23, J20, PDAPP, and BiAT mice [53,107,118-120](**Table 2**).

4 Neurochemical changes detection

4.1 MRS

MRS has been shown detecting the distinct metabolic profiles in APP/PS1 mice [121-126], J20 mice [109], APPswe mice [127,128] compared to wild-type mice respectively. Several studies have reported reduced N-acetylaspartate /creatinine ratio [125] and [124], lower glutamate levels [123] in APP/PS1 mice compared to wild-type mice. In animal models harboring both A β and tau pathology, including 3 $\times$ Tg [129], 5 $\times$ FAD mice [130], APP/PS2/Tau mice [131] and TgF344 rat [132] (**Table 2**). Lee et al.

demonstrated a 35 % decrease in the availability of metabotropic glutamate receptor 5 measured by PET and a decrease in glutamate, N-acetylaspartate and taurine, levels and an increase in lactate level by ^1H MRS in 5×FAD mice compared to wild-type at 5 months-of-age [130]. Chiquita et al. showed an early hippocampal taurine loss by longitudinal MRS in 3×Tg mice [129]. Micotti et al. reported striatal atrophy and increases in the levels of myo-inositol in TASTPM and APP/PS2/Tau mice compared to wild-type mice, respectively [131].

4.2 Chemical exchange saturation transfer (CEST)

Molecular MR imaging based on CEST offers improved sensitivity, and can detect changes of glucose, glutamate, creatine, and myoinositol. Glucose CEST MRI is a recently developed technique that detects unlabeled glucose at physiologically relevant concentrations using proton-only MRI scanners (Table 2). Tolomeo et al. demonstrated glucose CEST detection of reduced cerebral 2-deoxy-D-glucose uptake in APP23 mice compared to wild-type mice [133]. Using dynamic glucose-enhanced MRI, Huang et al. demonstrated an altered level of D-glucose in brain parenchymal as well as in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) of aged APP/PS1 mice compared to wild-type mice [134]. Igarashi et al. demonstrated a reduced level of glutamate as an indicator of synaptic dysfunction measured by using glutamate CEST in the parietal cortex, but not in the hippocampus of 5×FAD mice [135]. Chen et al. demonstrated that creatine CEST detection of creatine level were reduced in the cortex and corpus callosum of APP/PS1 mice compared to wild-type mice at 6 months-of-age [136]. Chen et al. showed that reduced saturation transfer difference for the composite protein amide proton in APP/PS1 mice at compared to the age-matched wild-type mice [137].

5 Cerebrovascular imaging

Accumulating evidence indicates the vascular contribution to cognitive impairment and dementia in AD [138,139]. Impaired cerebral vasculature were reported in various amyloidosis amyloid model with parenchymal A β plaques and different level of CAA [140-142].

5.1 SWI

The presence of iron can be detected by MRI due to its effect on the surrounding tissue, giving rise to detectable changes in transverse T_2 relaxation by using T_2^* and susceptibility by using SWI and QSM (**Table 3**). Previous X ray microscopy study reported that particulate and crystalline iron was detected inside the dense plaque core in the APP/PS1 mouse brain accumulation is associated with $A\beta$ plaque [143]. Beckmann et al. showed microhemorrhages in β -secretase inhibitor treated APP23 mice by using T_2^* weighted imaging [144]. Recent study by Maniskas et al. demonstrated a gender differences in the number of cerebral microbleeds by T_2^* sequence in Tg-SwDI mice (higher load in female) [145]. SWI and QSM have been performed in arcA β , APP/PS1 and CVN-AD mice at 9.4 T [81,146-149]. McIntosh et al, showed that iron accumulation detected by SWI contributed to altered cerebral metabolism and cognitive impairment observed in APP/PS1 mice [148].

5.2 MR Angiography (MRA)

(MRA has been widely used in clinical setting and in the small animal imaging for assessing the cerebrovasculature abnormalities. Intracranial stenosis assessed by using MRA was observed in patients with cognitive impairment and AD [150,151]. Both time-of-flight MRA and CE MRA have been applied in amyloidosis animal models (**Table 3**). Detection of vascular alterations by *in vivo* MRA and histology has been reported in APP/PS1, arcA β , APP/PS1, APP23 mice [39,118,128,152,153]. Klohs et al. demonstrated and reduced density and remodeling of cerebral microvasculature by using CE MRA reveals in aged arcA β mice [152](**Figure 2e-h**). MR Q mapping assisted with SPIO further showed a reduced microvessel density, correlating with the levels of $A\beta$ pathology in the brain of arcA β mice [154]. In addition to MRA, several recent MR techniques have been developed for assessing the cerebrovasculature and applied in AD animal models. Chang et al reported using diffusion weighted imaging and monocrySTALLINE iron oxide nanoparticle for vessel size index, diameter, density, mean vessel-weighted image and blood volume fraction in 5 $\times$ FAD mice [155]. Leaston et al. showed early vascular abnormalities in APOE4 knock in rats compared to wild-type rats by using quantitative ultra-short time-to-echo (QUTE) CE-MRI [156]. MR elastography have been applied and detected impaired cerebral viscoelastic properties by using in 5 $\times$ FAD, APP/PS1 and APP23 mice [157-159]. Montagne et al demonstrated T_2^* weighted imaging of brain cerebrovascular inflammation assisted with micro-sized particles of iron oxide (MPIO) targeting vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1), MPIOaVCAM-1, in APP/PS1 mice [160].

6 Structural imaging

6.1 Volumetric imaging for brain atrophy

In vivo MRI using T₁ and T₂ scans and histological evaluation have identified differences in whole or regional brain volumes between amyloidosis and wild-type animal models, including APP T714I, APP/PS1, APP/PS1 KI, 3×Tg, TASTPM mice and McGill-R-Thy1-APP rats [127,161-168] (**Table 3**). Delatour et al. reported global atrophy, enlarged CSF space in the posterior brain areas, and midbrain area in fiber tracts in APP/PS1 mice compared to wild-type mice [168]. Badhwar et al. demonstrated that there is an impaired spatial learning/memory-induced volume increase in the hippocampus in APP/J20 mice compared to wild-type mice [169]. However conflicting observations of no general pathological brain atrophy have also been reported in aged APP/PS1 mice [164].

6.2 DTI

Extensive myelin loss was observed in APP mice and in individuals with AD both by *in vivo* imaging as well as in histopathological studies [170-172]. Recent studies showed that myelin loss drives A β deposition, and that enhancing myelin renewal in turn alleviate the cognitive deficits in APP/PS1 mice [173] and in 5×FAD mice [174]. A number of studies have applied *in vivo* and *ex vivo* DTI for detecting the white matter impairment, which appears preceding the anatomical changes on structural MRI including the APPswe, APP/PS1, TgCRND8, APP^{NL-G-F}, 3×Tg, CVN-AD and 5×FAD mice [81,93,97,175-183] (**Table 3**). In addition to DTI, diffusion kurtosis imaging (DKI) and quantitative magnetization transfer imaging (qMTI) have been applied in APP mouse models where hippocampal alterations were observed [178,184]. However the observed DTI scalars are not consistent across different studies, probably due to the dynamic microstructural changes various animal models [94,185]. Reduced fractional anisotropy (FA), and both reduced/increased radial diffusivity (RD) were reported in aged APPswe mice [175,186,187]. Falangola et al. and Zhou et al. reported basal forebrain cholinergic abnormalities detected by DTI and DKI in 3×Tg mice [188,189], while Kastyak-Ibrahim et al. reported lack of white matter pathology in the same mouse line [190]. The white matter impairment has been found associated with microglia activation in the CVN-AD mice [97]. In addition, reduced FA also been reported in gray matter in the brain of 3×Tg, APP/PS1 and APP23 mice [93,123,171,177,186,191,192]. Colon-Perez et al imaged the TgCRND8 mice *in vivo* using diffusion MRI at 11.1 T and calculated using neurite orientation dispersion and density imaging (NODDI)

model [193]: reduced FA, RD, and increased orientation dispersion and intracellular volume fraction were detected in the white matter and the hippocampus.

7. Discussion

With the increased availability and technological development in small animal MRI, there is a rapid advance in application in AD amyloidosis animal models in the recent years in molecular, functional and structural imaging. Here we propose several remaining knowledge gaps in MR imaging in AD amyloidosis animal models that has not been fully established or investigated:

BBB integrity imaging: BBB impairment plays an important role in AD pathogenesis, neural dysfunction and is associated with cognitive decline [194-199]. However, conflicting data showing lack of widespread BBB leakage has also been reported in several AD animal models [200]. Dynamic contrast-enhanced (DCE)-MRI have been utilized to show the impaired BBB integrity in the hippocampus of patients of early AD [201]. So far, very few studies have visualized the BBB integrity by using MRI in animal models of AD. Montagne et al. recently showed an impaired BBB integrity by using DCE-MRI assisted with Gd-DTPA in 5×FAD and *APOE4* mice [202] (**Figure 2a-d**) (**Table 3**). Dickie et al. reported that DCE-MRI did not detect the difference between the TgF344 and wild-type rats at 18 months-of-age, and that increased BBB water permeability was detected by using multi-flip angle multi-echo (MFAME) water-exchange MRI in TgF344 rats compared to wild-type [203]. Using the same method, Dickie et al. further showed in a cross-sectional study that BBB water permeability is affected earlier in TgF344 rats (between 13-18 months-of-age) compared to that in wild-type mice in normal ageing (between 18-21 months-of-age) [204]. Further studies are required to further establish non-invasive imaging tools for visualizing BBB integrity and to elucidate the degree and role of BBB impairment in AD animal models.

Glymphatic system imaging: The glymphatic system has been shown important for the exchange of CSF with interstitial fluid, and for clearance of the waste metabolites involving the aquaporin 4 water channel [205]. Emerging evidence suggests that the glymphatic system dysfunction may contribute to the development of AD [205-208]. Recent studies by Da Mesquita et al. also showed impaired meningeal lymphatics in J20 and 5×FAD mice, affecting microglia responses and the effect of anti-A β immunotherapy [209,210]. DCE-MRI using Gd-contrast agents have been developed to examine the brain-wide glymphatic system in both healthy and diseased brains in human [211,212] in mice and

rats [213-217]. Harrison et al recently showed an reduced clearance of tau in rTg4510 mice of 4-repeat tauopathy compared to wild-type mice by DCE-MRI using Gd-DTPA [213]. In addition to DCE-MRI, DTI analysis along the perivascular space [218], phase alternate labelling with null recovery MRI [219], and Mn²⁺ nanoconstruct for MRI detection of CSF [220] are being developed for studying the interstitial and CSF flow kinetics. *In vivo* MR imaging for the glymphatic system in amyloidosis animal models remains to be demonstrated.

In summary, the multiplex non-invasive MRI have significantly improved our understanding of the pathophysiology in the AD amyloid animal models at a systematic level and provided possibility for longitudinal monitoring of disease development.

Declaration of Interest

The authors declare no completing interest relevant to the submitted manuscript.

Author Contributions

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Table 1. MRI for detecting cerebral Aβ deposits in animal models of amyloidosis

MRI endogenous contrast	Animal	References
T ₂ , relaxation time	5×FAD, APP, APP/PS1, APP ^{swe} PS mice	[38,39] [221-224]
3D GRE, T ₂ * 16.4T	APP23 mice	[33]
T ₂ *w GE, T ₂ w SE	APP/PS1, APP _{V717I} mice	[32,49,225,226]
CESL	APP/PS1 mice	[36]
T ₁ w, CE-MR	APP/PS1, PDAPP mice	[227]
3D GE T ₂ *w	APP/PS1, PS1 mice	[228]
MTC	APP/PS1 mice	[34,35]
CRAZED, GE	APP _{V717I} ×ADAM10-dn mice	[229]
QSM, SWI	Tg-SwDI, APP/PS1 mice	[42,43]
MRI, Contrast agents	Animal	References
¹⁹ F, BSA@FGQDs	AD mice	[59]
¹⁹ F, TFMB	APP mice	[60]
¹⁹ F, ¹ H, FSB	APP ^{swe} mice	[58]
¹⁹ F, Shiga-Y51	APP/PS1 mice	[61]
¹⁹ F, FMeC1 (Shiga-Y5)	APP ^{swe} mice	[62]
T ₂ *w, Sialic acid coated BSA MNP	APP/PS1 mice	[57]
T ₂ *, Gd-DTPA-K6Aβ1-30	APP/PS1, APP ^{swe} mice	[46]
T ₁ w, Cyanine-Gd(III) complex	5×FAD mice	[47]
T ₂ *w GE Gd, Gd-DOTA, DOTAREM®,	APP _{SL} /PS1 _{M146L} , APP/PS1 _{dE9} , APP23, APP _{SwDI} , 3×Tg mice, PS1 mice	[44,55]
T ₂ *w GE, T ₂ w SE, Gd-pF(ab') _{24.1}	APP/PS1 mice	[49]
T ₂ *w, Gd-DTPA-Aβ1-40, MION	APP/PS1 mice	[45]

SWI MGE RARE, APP-SiMag	3×Tg mice	[51]
T ₂ *w, USPIO-PEG-Aβ1-42.B APP/PS1 mice		[50]
T ₁ w SE, ADx-001	APP/PS1 mice	[48]
T ₂ *w, anti-AβPP SPIONs	APP/PS1 mice	[52],
T ₂ *w, IgG4.1 NP	APPswe mice	[54]
T ₂ *w GE, SPIO	APP23, APP23×PS45 mice	[53]
T ₁ w, HMON-Aβ40	APP/PS1 mice	[37]
T ₂ *w MGE, MnCl ₂	5×FAD mice, TgF344 rats	[56]
T ₂ *w, Cur-MNPs	5×FAD, APPswe mice	[67,68] #
T ₂ *w, W20/XD4-SPIONs	APP/PS1 mice	[66] #
T ₂ *w, NU4MNS Aβ oligomer	5×FAD mice	[63] #
T ₂ *, ACU193-MNS	Rabbit	[64] #

#Oligomer targeted; BSA, bovine serum albumin; CE, contrast enhanced; CESL, chemical exchange-sensitive spin-lock; CRAZED, COSY revamped with asymmetric z-GRE detection; Gd, gadolinium; GE, gradient echo; GRE, gradient recalled echo; MGE, multi-echo GRE; MION, monocrystalline iron oxide nanoparticles; MnCl₂, magnesium chloride; MNP, magnetic nanoparticle; MNS, magnetic nanostructures; MTC, Magnetization transfer contrast imaging; NP, nanoparticle; PEG, polyethylene glycol; QSM, quantitative susceptibility mapping; RARE, rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement; SE, spin echo; SWI, susceptibility weighted imaging; USPION, Ultrasmall superparamagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles; w, weighted;

Table 2 MRI for functional and neurochemical changes in animal models of amyloidosis

MRI	Animal	References
rsfMRI BOLD	APP ^{NL-F/NL-F} ki mice	[92,98]
	APP/PS1 mice	[94,95,100,119,230]
	arcA β mice	[90,94,146]
	TgCRND8 mice	[193].
	TgF344-AD rats	[102,231]
	PDAPP mice	[91]
	APP ^{swe} mice	[91,128]
	McGill-R-Thy1-APP rats	[232]
	3 $\times$ Tg mice	[93]
	E22 Δ A β mice	[94]
ASL	TetO-APP ^{swe} /ind mice	[99]
	Bigenic mice	[120],
	arcA β mice	[107,108]
	3 $\times$ Tg mice	[233]
	APP DSL ki mice	[234],
	APP23 mice	[33,235]
	APP/PS1 mice	[104,105,119,123,235-239]
	J20 mice	[109]
	Tg-SwDI mice	[240,241]
	PS2APP mice	[111]
	5 $\times$ FAD mice	[135,242]
	TetOAPP ^{swe} , CAA mice	[243]
fMRI CBV	APP ^{swe} mice	[110,244]
	BiAT mice	[120,245]
	APP23 mice	[53,115,118,153,246]
	arcA β mice	[114] [107]
	PDAPP mice	[247]
	APP/PS1 mice	[119,238]

	APPswe mice	[230]
	J20 mice	[248]
MEMRI	3×Tg mice	[85]
	APP/PS1-Ki mice	[78]
	J20 mice	[79]
	APPswe mice	[35,83,84,110]
	5×FAD mice	[56,80]
	CVN-AD mice	[81]
	TgF344 rats	[56]
¹⁷ OZTE	APPPS1 mice	[249]
CMRO ₂		
DSC	5×FAD, APOE mice	[202]
DGE	APP/PS1 mice	[134]
CEST	APP23 mice	[133]
	APP/PS1 mice	[136,137].
	5×FAD mice	[135]
MRS	TgF344 rats	[132]
	J20 mice	[109]
	APP/PS1 mice	[121-126]
	5×FAD mice	[130]
	3×Tg mice	[129]
	APPswe mice	[127,128].
	TASTPM, APP/PS2/Tau mice	[131]

ASL, arterial spin labeling; BOLD, blood-oxygen-level-dependent; CBF, cerebral blood flow; CBV, cerebral blood volume; CE, contrast enhanced; CEST, chemical exchange saturation transfer; CMRO₂, cerebral metabolic rate of oxygen consumption; DCE, dynamic contrast-enhanced; DGE, dynamic glucose-enhanced; DSC, dynamic susceptibility contrast; fMRI, functional magnetic resonance imaging; MEMRI, magnesium enhanced magnetic resonance imaging; MRA, magnetic resonance angiography; MRS, magnetic resonance spectroscopy; ZTE, zero echo time;

Table 3. MRI for detecting atrophy, white matter and cerebral vasculature alterations in animal models of amyloidosis

MRI	Animal	References
T ₂	APP/J20 mice	[169]
	APP/PS2/Tau mice	[131]
	TASTPM mice	[131,167]
	APP/PS1 mice	[105,125,164,168,236]
	McGill-R-Thy1-APP	[162]
	rats	
	PDAPP mice	[250,251]
	APP-Au mice	[252]
	3×Tg mice	[93,165,253]
	APP ^{swe} mice	[244]
DKI	APP/PS1KI mice	[166]
	APP/TTA mice	[254]
qMTI	APP/PS1 mice	[184]
	3×Tg mice	[188]
DTI	APP ^{swe} mice	[178]
	TgF344 rats	[183]
	APP ^{swe} mice	[175,178,186,255]
	PDAPP mice	[176]
	App ^{NL-G-F} knock-in mice	[72]
	APP/PS1 mice	[123,171,179,187,189,256]
	APP23 mice	[191]
	3×Tg mice	[93,177,188,190,257,258]
	TgCRND8 mice	[193]
	APP/TTA mice	[81,254]
SWI, QSM	CVN-AD mice	[97]
	5×FAD mice	[135]
	arcAβ mice	[146,147,154]
	APP/PS1 mice	[148]

	CVN-AD mice	[81]
T ₂ *	Tg SwDI mice	[145]
T ₂ *w	APP23 mice	[144]
DCE	5×FAD, APOE mice	[202]
MFAME-DCE	TgF344 rats	[203,204]
T ₂ *w,		[160]
MPIOs- αVCAM-1	APP/PS1 mice	
QUTE-CE	APOE4 rats	[156]
DWI	5×FAD mice	[155]
	arcAβ mice	[147,149,152]
MRA	APP/PS1 mice	[112,259]
	APP23 mice	[118,153]
	APPswe mice	[260]
MION	5×FAD mice	[155]
	5×FAD mice	[157]
MRE	APP/PS mice	[159]
	APP23 mice	[158]

BBB, blood-brain barrier; CE, contrast enhanced; CV, cerebral viscoelastic; DCE, dynamic contrast-enhanced; DGE, dynamic glucose-enhanced; DKI, diffusional kurtosis imaging; DTI, diffusion tensor imaging; DWI, diffusion-weighted imaging; MFAME, multi-flip angle multi-echo; MION, monocrySTALLINE iron oxide nanoparticle; MPIOs, micro-sized particles of iron oxide; VCAM-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1; MRA, magnetic resonance angiography; MRE, magnetic resonance elastography qMTI, quantitative magnetization transfer imaging; QSM, quantitative susceptibility mapping; QUTE-CE, quantitative ultrashort time-to-echo, contrast enhanced; SWI, susceptibility weighted imaging; w, weighted:

Figure legends

Figure 1 Functional MRI and amyloid imaging in amyloidosis animal models. (a-d) Aberrant functional connectivity (FC) in the default mode-like network (DMN) in the Tet-Off APP mice with doxycycline treatment. (a) difference in FC within (nodes) and between (lines) regions in the DMN over time, week 0, 8, 16, 24. The inter-node FC difference is represented by the lines, with the colour scale illustrating the actual FC difference between Tet-Off APP and Ctrl, with orange indicating a stronger connection in the TG mice. The intra-node size represents the difference of the average FC of a specific region with all other regions inside DMN. (c) ROI-based FC analysis. FC matrices show the average z-transformed functional connectivity (zFC) for Ctrl (supra-diagonal) and TG (sub-diagonal) animals at week 0, 8, 16 and 28 post doxycycline treatment. Each square indicates the zFC between a pair of ROIs. The colour scale represents the connectivity strength with white indicating a low zFC and red/blue indicating positive/ negative zFC values. (d) Average FC within each network. Mean FC (z-score) over time for both groups in the whole brain, the default-mode like network; dashed line corresponds to TG group and full line to the Ctrl group. * $p < 0.05$; *** $p < 0.001$. Reproduced from [99] with permission from Springer Nature. (e) MRI amyloid imaging. (A) T_2^* -weighted image at 16.4 T of 30-mo-old transgenic APP23 mouse and (B) corresponding amyloid histology; (C) T_2^* -weighted image at 16.4 T of control mouse. Mammillothalamic tract and perifornical nucleus (red arrowheads). (D) Higher magnification of A and B of single amyloid plaques (blue arrowheads). Reproduced from [33] with permission from Society of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging. (f) *In vivo* T_1 -weighted MR pseudocolor mapped images of 6-month-old double Tg-AD and age-matched wild-type mice before and after injection of Cyanine-Gd(III) complex via tail vein at different depths in which the images were taken every 10 μm apart after 90 min post-injection of the probe on a 7.0 T MR scanner. Reproduced from [47] with permission from American Chemical Society. (g, h) W20/XD4-SPIONs characterization (g). The carboxyl of PEG on the paramagnetic iron oxide nanoparticles (SPIONs) was activated with EDC and NHS. SR-A activator XD4 and oligomer-specific scFv antibody W20 were conjugated to the nanoparticles. (h) *In vivo* T_2^* -weighted images of the probe distribution in AD mouse brains after intravenous injection of W20/XD4-SPIONs, W20-SPIONs and SPIONs. Boxed regions are shown at higher magnification or stained by the Prussian blue. Scale bar, 1 mm. Reproduced from [66] with permission from Dovepress.

Figure 2 MRI of Blood-brain barrier permeability and cerebrovasculature in amyloidosis animal models. (a-d) T_2 -weighted scans displaying regions of interest: primary somatosensory

cortex (Ctx) and hippocampus (Hipp). b,c, Representative K^{trans} maps (b) and values (c) in the Ctx and Hipp in APOE3 (E3, blue empty circles), APOE4 (E4, blue-filled circles), APOE3; 5×FAD (E3+FAD, red empty circles) and APOE4;5×FAD (E4+FAD, red-filled circles) mice generated from dynamic contrast enhanced-MRI scans. (d) Fibrinogen+ perivascular capillary deposits (red) in the Ctx. Blue, lectin+ endothelial profiles; scale bar, 20 μ m. Reproduced with permission from [202] from Springer Nature. (e-h) High-resolution magnetic resonance angiography (MRA). (e) Time-of-flight-MRA intra- and extracranial vasculature of 24-month-old wild-type and arcA β mouse (A, B) in sagittal, axial, and horizontal views. flow voids are seen in extracranial vessels (white arrows). Sections of maximum intensity projections (MIPs) of the anterior cerebral artery of a 4- and a 24-month-old (C, D) wild-type control mouse. Scale bar, 1 mm. (f) Contrast-enhanced MRA; MIPs derived from a 3D stack of difference images viewed in horizontal (A), sagittal (B–D), and axial (E) orientation. (g-h) Semiautomated analysis of intracortical vessel density. (g) significant decrease in the number of vessels was observed in 24-month-old arcA β compared with wild-type mice corresponding to 3, 6, and 9 pixels, (* $p < 0.05$, repeated-measures ANOVA and Tukey's test). (h) number of vessels categorized according to their estimated vessel radius when the connectivity threshold was set to 3. Reproduced with permission from [152] from Society of Neuroscience. (i, j) Regional hypoperfusion in aged arcA β mice assessed by arterial spin labeling MRI. Anatomical position of perfusion MRI and T₂-weighted scan on the sagittal view of the anatomical reference image and representative regions of interest (cortex (red) and thalamus (blue)) Representative coronal cerebral blood flow (CBF) map of 6- and 24-months-old wild-type littermate; (j) Reduced CBF in the cortex of 24-months old arcA β compared with age-matched wild-type mice and 6-months old arcA β and; * $p < 0.05$, one-way ANOVA with *post hoc* correction. Reproduced from [108] with permission from Elsevier.

Fig. 1

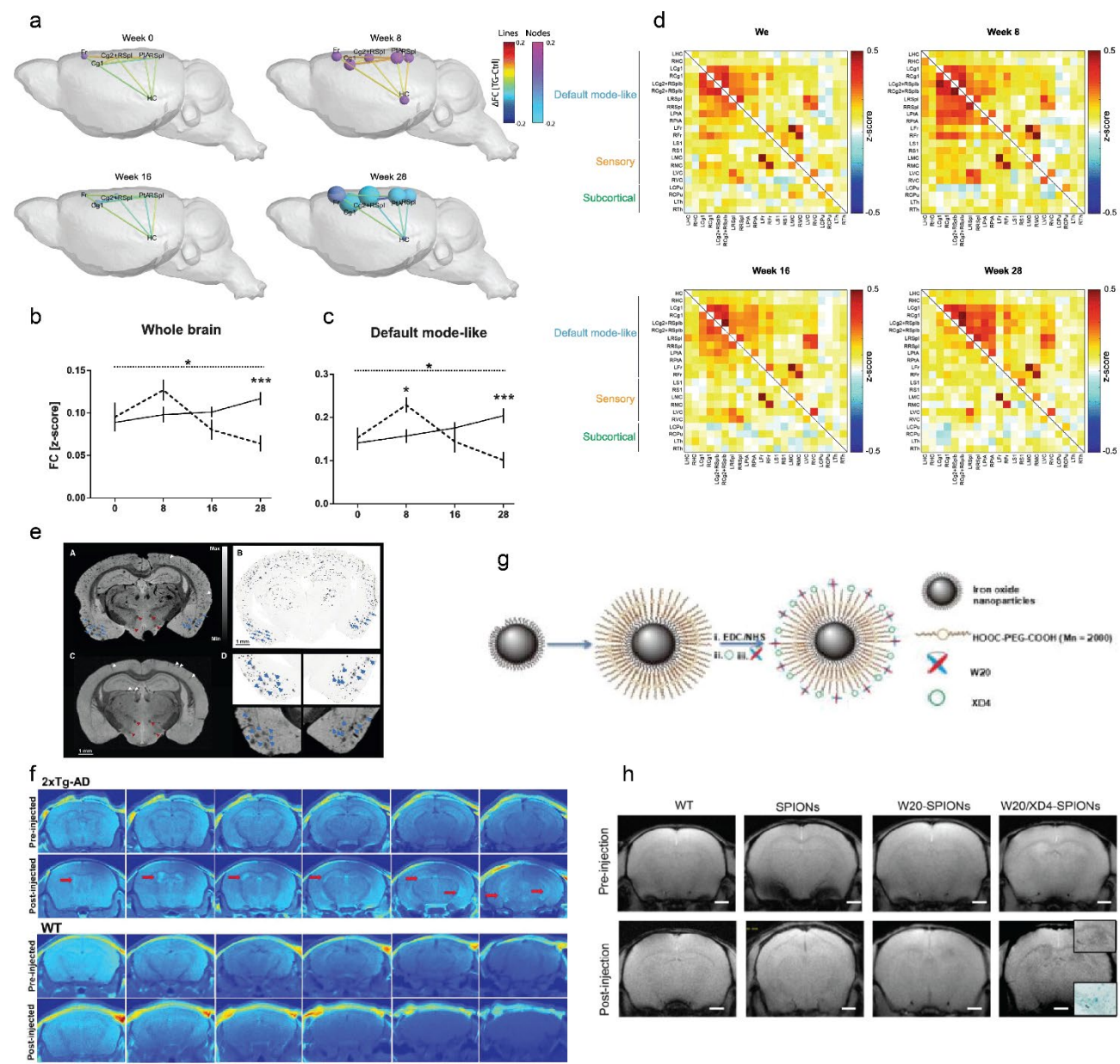


Fig. 2

