Long-Term Results of Enriched Environment and Erythropoietin After Hypobaric Hypoxia in Rats

M. HRALOVÁ2, Y. ANGEROVÁ1, T. GUEYE1, J. BORTELOVÁ2, O. ŠVESTKOVÁ1, T. ZIMA3, M. LIPPERTOVÁ-GRÜNEROVÁ1,4

1Department of Rehabilitation Medicine, First Faculty of Medicine, Charles University in Prague and General University Hospital, Prague, Czech Republic, 2Institute of Physiology, Charles University in Prague, Prague, Czech Republic, 3Institute of Clinical Biochemistry and Laboratory Diagnostics, First Faculty of Medicine, Charles University in Prague and General University Hospital, Prague, Czech Republic, 4Medical Faculty, University of Cologne, Cologne, Germany

Received March 12, 2012
Accepted March 1, 2013
On-line April 16, 2013

Summary
After global cerebral hypoxia, many patients are severely disabled even after intensive neurorehabilitation. Secondary mechanisms of brain injury as a result of biochemical and physiological events occur within a period of hours to months, and provide a window of opportunity for therapeutic intervention. Erythropoietin (EPO) has been shown to be neuroprotective in the brain subjected to a variety of injuries. Fifty-nine 3-month-old male Wistar rats were randomly distributed to experimental groups with respect to the housing (enriched environment – EE, standard housing – SH), to hypoxia exposure, and to EPO treatment. An acute mountain sickness model was used as a hypobaric hypoxia simulating an altitude of 8000 m. One half of the animals received erythropoietin injections, while the others were injected saline. Spatial memory was tested in a Morris water maze (MWM). The escape latency and the path length were measured. Better spatial learning in MWM was only seen in the group that received erythropoietin together with enriched environment. EPO administration itself had no influence on spatial memory. The results were very similar for both latencies and path lengths. These results support the idea that after brain injuries, the recovery can be potentiated by EPO administration combined with neurorehabilitation.

Key words
Global cerebral hypoxia • Enriched environment • Erythropoietin • Morris water maze • Spatial memory

Introduction
Brain damage is manifested by functional deficiencies due to both primary and secondary mechanisms. For example, the primary injury represents the direct mechanical damage that cannot be changed. Secondary mechanisms are the result of biochemical and physiological events that lead to cell death. They occur within a period of hours to days or even months, and provide a window of opportunity for therapeutic interventions with a potential to prevent or reduce secondary damage and to improve the long-term outcome.

Global cerebral ischemia occurs when cerebral blood flow is reduced throughout most of the brain. Complete global ischemia can be caused by cardiac arrest, aortic occlusion, neck cuff etc. (Traystman 2003). The decrease of tissue oxygenation induced by hypobaric hypoxia alters many physiological and psychological processes in an altitude- and duration-dependent manner (Pokorný et al. 1989, Titus et al. 2007).

The physiological basis for neurorehabilitation is neuroplasticity that is responsible for functional
restitution or recovery after secondary brain damage. There are several mechanisms of neuroplasticity after brain damage – vicariation, diaschisis, sprouting, long-term potentiation, neuronal reorganization, unmasking of neuronal functional pathways, neurogenesis, and others (Trojan and Pokorný 1989, Zhang et al. 2004). Neurorehabilitation can be enhanced by promising neuroprotective and neurorestorative approaches. Various substances (e.g. erythropoietin, nitric oxide and others) are used for such purposes after the brain injury (Stein 2007, Xiong et al. 2009).

Erythropoietin (EPO), a naturally occurring cytokine, is most widely recognized for its role in the stimulation of maturation, differentiation and survival of hematopoietic progenitor cells (Xiong et al. 2009). It is a glycoprotein which has emerged as a multifunctional growth factor that plays a significant role in the nervous system. EPO and its receptors are expressed throughout the brain in glial cells, neurons and endothelial cells. EPO is a key example of gene expression that is regulated in an oxygen-dependent manner (Marti 2004). EPO has multiple protective effects in the CNS that are, at least partially, mediated through the upregulation of antiapoptotic molecules (Chong et al. 2002). EPO has been shown to be neuroprotective in the brain after exposure to a variety of injuries, including cerebral ischemia, head injury, seizures and experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (Marti 2004).

A milestone in the history of biological activities of EPO was the paper of Brines et al. (2000) who demonstrated that the cross-talking between peripheral and central EPO systems is possible. The most striking effect of these interacting systems is the ability of peripherally injected human recombinant EPO (r-Hu-EPO) to protect brain tissue from a variety of injuries including ischemia/hypoxia, as well as trauma, immune-mediated inflammation, and excessive neuronal excitation (Brines and Cerami 2008). It has not been elucidated how EPO mediates its effects across blood-brain barrier, but the observations are consistent with a specific receptor-mediated translocation of EPO into the brain (Brines et al. 2004). Although a rat EPO has 192 amino acids compared to human EPO with 165 amino acids, most of the experiments in rats were done with r-Hu-EPO (Brines et al. 2000, Marti 2004, Brines and Cerami 2008).

The aim of our study was to reveal whether EPO given to rats after hypobaric hypoxia could influence the final outcome of cognitive functions, especially spatial memory measured by means of a Morris water maze. We were also interested to discover how important is the role of enriched environment in this model.

 Materials and Methods

 Animals

This study was performed in accordance with the Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals of Central Commission for Animal Welfare (CCAW) of the Charles University of Prague. All efforts were adopted to minimize animal pain or discomfort, and to reduce the total number of used experimental animals.

Fifty-nine 3-month-old male Wistar rats from our own breeding facility were used. Their initial body weight was approximately 400-500 g. They were maintained in a temperature-controlled room (20-23 °C), on a 12 h light/dark cycle, with commercial rat chow (Velas F1, Velas s.r.o., Lysá nad Labem, Czech Republic) and fresh water available ad libitum. The rats were always tested between 10 a.m. and 2 p.m. The animals were randomly distributed in experimental groups (Table 1) with respect to:

- housing – enriched (EE+) or standard (EE–) environment (EE is described further)
- hypobaric hypoxia event – hypoxia (Hypo+) or sham-hypoxia (Hypo–)
- erythropoietin treatment – EPO+ or EPO–

Table 1. Distribution of rats in groups and their characteristics.

| Group No. | 1  | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6  | 7  | 8  | Number of Rats |
|-----------|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|----------------|
| Number of rats | 7  | 8  | 7  | 7  | 8  | 8  | 7  | 7  | 59             |
| Enriched environment (EE) | +  | +  | +  | +  | –  | –  | –  | –  | 29             |
| Hypobaric hypoxia | +  | +  | –  | –  | +  | +  | –  | –  | 31             |
| Erythropoietin (EPO) | –  | +  | –  | –  | +  | –  | +  | –  | 30             |
**Hypobaric hypoxia, sham-hypoxia**

The acute mountain sickness model was used as a hypobaric hypoxia. The barometric pressure and atmospheric oxygen pressure were reduced. The experimental animals were exposed on the 8th day of the experiment to this hypoxia (Hypo+) for 60 min in an experimental chamber, simulating an altitude of 8000 m. This altitude was reached within 10 min as well as its reversal. Sham-hypoxia (stress situation) was performed by placing the animals in another experimental hypobaric chamber at the same time, but without the reduction of the barometric pressure.

**Enriched environment**

Environmental enrichment (EE+) began at the start of this study, i.e. in rats aged 3 months and continued throughout the whole experiment. Each group consisted of 8-9 rats that were kept in three large half-plastic and half-wire cages. Two of the cages measured 57 x 38 x 20 cm, and the last – the middle 57 x 38 x 40 cm supported by two wooden floors connected by circular port (12 cm in diameter). Moreover, these cages contained toys and various objects suitable for training. The standard housing (EE-) consisted of standard plastic cages (27 x 42 cm) without toys or other objects.

**Erythropoietin**

The animals received a single intraperitoneal injection on the 8th day of the experiment immediately after the exposure to hypoxia/sham-hypoxia. Half of the animals received erythropoietin injections (EPREX, epoetinum alfa, Janssen-Cilag, 400 or 1000 IU/0.1 ml) in the dosage of 5000 IU/kg body weight, the other half of the rats received saline injections (Natrium Chloratum, sol. isotonica, Hoechst-Biotika, Germany).

**Morris water maze**

Spatial memory was tested in a Morris water maze (MWM). The maze consisted of a circular pool 183 cm in diameter, filled with clear water at a temperature of 22-23 °C. The depth of the water was 23 cm, and a transparent platform 10 cm in diameter was submerged 2 cm below the surface in the northwest quadrant in a constant position throughout the whole experiment. The pool was divided in four equal sections (north-east, north-west, south-east and south-west) and had four points designed as start positions – north, west, south and east. The movements of rats were recorded with a video camera fixed on the ceiling over the maze and connected to a computer.

The trial began by gently placing a rat in the water, facing the wall at one of the four starting points. The rat was trained to find the platform within 60 s. When the rat did not reach the platform, it was placed on it and left there for 15 s after each unsuccessful trial. When the rat reached the platform, it was allowed to stay there for 15 s and then it was placed in the water again, from another starting point.

The escape latency (the time needed to find the hidden platform) was measured in each trial, and then the mean latency for every rat and every training day was calculated. In case the rat did not find the platform, the latency was evaluated as 60 s. The path length (the length from the start to reaching the platform) in each trial was measured, and then the mean length for every rat and every day was calculated. In the case that the rat was not successful in finding the platform, the length of the path within 60 s was recorded.

**Timeline of experimental procedures**

The rats were given four training periods. Each period took five consecutive days with eight trials in MWM each day. The periods started in the first, twenty-second, thirty-sixth and fifty-seventh day of the experiment, respectively. On the 8th day of the experiment, the hypoxia/sham hypoxia was performed.

**Neurological evaluation (composite neuro-score)**

Experimental animals were tested one hour before hypoxia/sham hypoxia, one hour after hypoxia/sham hypoxia, and the second day after hypoxia/sham hypoxia (the 9th day of the experiment). The last evaluation (i.e. on the 16th day) was cancelled because of the normal neurological status of all animals. Scoring for each animal ranged from 0 points (severely impaired) to 4 points (normal neuromotor function) for each of following modalities: forelimb flexion (left/right) during suspension by the tail, hindlimb flexion with the forelimbs remaining on the flat surface, resistance to lateral propulsion (left/right), and the ability to keep balance on an inclined plane (left/right/vertical position). This test shows high inter-observer reliability and has been used in numerous studies (Faden et al. 1989, Lipert-Grüner et al. 2007). It reveals primarily neuromotor functions.

**Statistics**

Medians of path length and latencies were
calculated for different groups during the experiment. Kruskal-Wallis analysis – a non-parametric (distribution-free) statistical test was chosen for evaluation of the differences between path length or differences between latencies in various groups. This non-parametric test uses the ranks of the data rather than their raw values to calculate the statistics. It is an alternative to the independent group ANOVA when the assumption of normality or equality of variance is not met. The normality of variance was tested with the Shapiro-Wilk test.

**Results**

Results are presented as medians of path lengths or latencies (Fig. 1A-D) and the Mean Rank of the path lengths and latencies (Fig. 2A-B and 3A-B) in groups 1, 2, 5 and 6. These groups are very important from the point of view of rehabilitation. We compared the effect of EPO in animals subjected to hypoxia with regard to the enriched environment. Groups 1 and 2 are the groups where rats were kept in enriched environment, were subjected to hypoxia and were treated with either EPO or saline. On the contrary, groups 5 and 6 consisted of rats kept in standard plastic cages, subjected to hypoxia and administered EPO or saline. The differences between the groups are relatively small but some very important significances were seen.

Figures 1A-B show the medians of path lengths and latencies in groups 1 and 2. The group kept in EE with EPO administration after hypoxia (group 2) deals better than the group without it (group 1). These results are more evident when Kruskal-Wallis analysis is used (Fig. 2A-B). The differences in path lengths are significant especially on the 22nd, 24th, 26th and 40th day (p=0.008, p=0.037, p=0.049 and p=0.049) (Fig. 2A). Similar results were obtained for latencies (Fig. 2B).

Figures 1C-D depict the medians of path lengths and latencies in groups 5 and 6. The rats of these groups were kept in standard housing, were subjected to hypoxia and were administered EPO or saline. Kruskal-Wallis analysis was also used for the same groups and situations (Fig. 3A-B). Figure 3A concerning the path lengths shows that the group with EPO administration is even worse after hypoxia than before it, while the group with saline administration is slightly better after hypoxia although not significantly. The situation concerning latencies is very similar and there are no significant changes between the groups after hypoxia.

There were no changes in the neurological evaluation of the rats after hypobaric hypoxia or sham hypoxia measured with neuro-score. According to our results, there were no significant differences in spatial memory measured by MWM between the rats that received EPO and those who got saline after hypobaric hypoxia when we did not take into account the environment in which the animals were kept (data not presented). Significant differences after hypoxia were seen only between groups 1 and 2, i.e. only between those rats that were kept in enriched environment. The rats, which got EPO and were kept in enriched environment (group 2), were significantly better than those which were kept in enriched environment but got only saline (group 1).
Discussion

Long-term functional outcome of some patients after global cerebral hypoxia are very bad (especially cognitive functions), in spite of using different neurorehabilitation methods (Lippert-Grüner et al. 2007, Fitzgerald et al. 2010). This is why research is focused on neurorehabilitation combined with neuroprotection that could have much better results (Xiong et al. 2009). After a decade of research, there were only two perspective substances selected – progesterone which was studied in several clinical trials (Stein et al. 2008), and erythropoietin that has neuroprotective, neuroregenerative and antiinflammatory effects (Marti 2004, Ostedkar et al. 2010, Cherian et al. 2011).

Hypobaric hypoxia causes different morphological and functional changes in several parts of an adult and newborn brain especially in hippocampus (CA3 and CA1 areas, gyrus dentatus), thalamus, striatum and cortex depending on the duration and simulated altitude of hypoxia (Kirino 1982, Šimonová et al. 2003). Neurons in CA3 hippocampal area probably play a very important role in memory processing (Lisman 1999, Lorincz and Buzsaki 2000). Neurons in the CA1 area are destroyed very quickly because they have more ionotropic NMDA receptors (Cassina et al. 2002). On the contrary, the CA3 area has less ionotropic and more metabotropic glutamate receptors that are responsible for delayed neurotoxicity (Maiti et al. 2007).

EPO mediates its effects through the binding to its cognate receptors. Thus, an EPO receptor must be expressed at the site of action in the CNS to enable EPO to elicit its biological functions. Indeed, the expression of the EPO receptor mRNA and protein was demonstrated in the brain of a mouse, rat, monkey, and humans (Digicaylioglu et al. 1995). Both EPO mRNA and protein are found in the brain of numerous mammals including humans. The EPO receptor is widely expressed in most cerebral cell types, including neurons, endothelial cells, microglial cells and astrocytes (Marti 2004). EPO seems to be a part of an endogenous defense system enabling the brain to counteract detrimental effects of hypoxia and ischemia (Marti 2004).

The aim of the study was to reveal long-term effects of EPO and EE on the spatial memory and neuromotor functions of rats. There were no changes in neuro-score, i.e. no neuromotor problems in any studied group, but we have seen the differences between studied groups in spatial memory tested in MWM.

---

**Fig. 2.** Mean Rank of path length (A) and latencies (B) in the groups 1 and 2 (EE+ and Hypo+, EPO- or EPO+). Significance of the differences between EPO- and EPO+ rats according to Kruskal-Wallis analysis: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05.

**Fig. 3.** Mean Rank of path length (A) and latencies (B) in the groups 5 and 6 (EE- and Hypo+, EPO- or EPO+). Significance of the differences between EPO- and EPO+ rats according to Kruskal-Wallis analysis: * p<0.10, ** p<0.05.
Environmental enrichment is comparable with multidisciplinary rehabilitation in patients (Pereira et al. 2008). Its positive effect on neuromotor and cognitive functions was described in several studies (Grabovski et al. 1995, Gobbo and O’Mara 2004) as well as on neuroanatomic and neurophysiologic functions (Zhao et al. 2001, Pereira et al. 2008).

We have seen the best results in the group where EE and EPO were applied together. EPO itself without EE had no significant effect on the results. The stimulation of brain endogenous protective mechanisms may be the key to future successful approaches to neuroprotection, as the activation of endogenous mechanisms can be efficient and well tolerated (Siren et al. 2001). EPO acts in the central nervous system primarily as a direct protective factor in neurons via the activation of antiapoptotic pathways. The protective effect on neurons might be supported by the action of EPO and other growth factors on endothelial cells, resulting in the cell survival and the stimulation of new vessel growth, as well as on glial cells, leading to a modulation of inflammatory responses (Marti 2004). EE plays a very important role as it increases hippocampal brain-derived neurotrophic factor, enhances cell survival, increases neurogenesis, dendritic branching and dendritic spines, as well as synaptogenesis (Van Praag et al. 2002). This takes some time so that we have seen the results after 40 and mainly after 60 days).

It was highly interesting that better results were also found in the group with EE and EPO without hypoxia. It means that EE plays a dominant role in the restoration of cerebral functions and EPO itself has no effect on the functional outcome.

EPO binding to erythropoietin receptor (EpoR) mediates neuroprotection by endogenous EPO or by exogenous EPO (e.g. r-Hu-EPO). The level of EpoR expression in brain tissue has been proposed to determine the cytoprotective effects of EPO (Yu et al. 2002, Chen et al. 2006). The number of EpoR is different in various parts of brain. It would be desirable to find new ways to enhance their expression in those brain parts where they are insufficient. It could be done e.g. by combining repeated mild hypoxia with EE (Sanchez et al. 2009).

EPO, which is a molecule induced by hypoxia, is considered to have a key role in the enhancement of brain robustness by hypoxia (Sharp and Bernaudin 2004). Thus, recombinant human erythropoietin (rhEpo) can be considered as an “enviro-mimetic”, defined as any exogenous molecule that mimics the beneficial effects of environmental changes (Nithianantharajah and Hannan 2006). There is a concept that the optimization of the effect of a neuroprotective agent may require the preliminary induction of its targeted receptor (Lipton 2007). Concerning rhEpo, future studies should elucidate the mechanisms promoting the movement of EpoR towards the cell surface (Ravid et al. 2007), and the mechanisms selectively involved in the induction of EpoR after environmental manipulations, to develop drugs capable of inducing EpoR and to influence the final functional outcome of people after brain injuries.

Our results support the hypothesis that EPO combined with an enriched environment can influence the final outcome of spatial memory and learning of rats after hypobaric hypoxia. It is very important for medical practice in brain injuries to search for new strategies which can reduce final disabilities of patients. Taking into account our results, we can expect that EPO given after brain injury to patients, who have multidisciplinary neurorehabilitation can influence the neurorestoration process, and helps to achieve better functional outcomes for these patients,

Conflict of Interest
There is no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements
The authors would like to thank to MUDr. Daniel Klement, Ph.D, from the Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, and Ing. Alena Dohnalová from the Institute of Physiology of the First Faculty of Medicine, Charles University in Prague, Czech Republic, for their valuable advice and help in statistical assessment of the outcomes in this study. This study was supported by the project PRVOUK P34/LF1/7.

References
BRINES ML, CERAMI A: Erythropoietin-mediated tissue protection: reducing collateral damage from the primary injury response. J Intern Med 264: 405-432, 2008.
BRINES ML, GHEZZI P, KEENAN S: Erythropoietin crosses the blood-brain barrier to protect against experimental brain injury. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 97: 10526-10531, 2000.
BRINES ML, GRASSO G, FIORDALISO F, SFACTERIA A, GHEZZI P, FRATELLI M, LATINI R, XIE QW, SMART J, SU-RICK CJ, POBRE E, DIAZ D, GOMEZ D, HAND C, COLEMAN T, CERAMI A: Erythropoietin mediates tissue protection through an erythropoietin and common β-subunit heteroreceptor. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 101: 10925-10930, 2004.

CASSINA P, PELUFFO H, PEHAR M, MARTINEZ-PALNIA L, RESSIA A, BECKMAN, JJ, ESTEVEZ AG, BARBIETO L: Peroxinitrite trigger a phenotypic transformation in spinal cord astrocytes that induces motor neurons apoptosis. J Neurosci Res 67: 21-29, 2002.

CHEN ZY, WARIN R, NOGUCHI CT: Erythropoietin and normal brain development: Receptor expression determines multi-tissue response. Neurodegener Dis 3: 68-75, 2006.

CHERIAN L, GOODMAN JC, ROBERTSON C: Improved cerebrovascular function and reduced histological damage with darbepoietin alfa administration after cortical impact injury in rats. J Pharmacol Exp Ther 337: 451-456, 2011.

CHONG ZZ, KANG JQ, MAIESE K: Hematopoietic factor erythropoietin fosters neuroprotection through novel signal transduction cascades. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 22: 503-514, 2002.

DIGICAYLIOGLU M, BICHET S, MARTI HH, WENGER RH, RIVAS LA, BAUER C, GASSMANN M: Localization of specific erythropoietin binding sites in defined areas of the mous brain. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 92: 3717-3720, 1995.

GOBBO OL, O’MARA SM: Impact of enriched environment housing on brain-derived neurotrophic factor and on cognitive performance after a transient global ischemia. Behav Brain Res 152: 231-241, 2004.

GRABOWSKI MM, SORENSEN JC, MATTSON B, ZIMMER J, JOHANSSON BB: Influence of an enriched environment and cortical grafting on functional outcome in brain infarcts of adults rats. Exp Neurol 133: 96-102, 1995.

FADEN AI, DEMEDIUK P, PANTER SS, VINK R: The role of excitatory amino acids and NMDA receptors in traumatic brain injury. Science 244: 798-800, 1989.

FITZGERALD A, ADITYA H, PRIOR A, MCNEILL E, PENTLAND B: Anoxic brain injury: Clinical patterns and functional outcomes. A study of 93 cases, Brain Inf 24: 1311-1323, 2010.

KIRINO T: Delayed neuronal death in the gerbil hippocampus following ischaemia. Brain Res 239: 57-69, 1982.

KUMRAL A, UYSAL N, TUGYAN K, SONMEZ A, YILMAZ O, GOKMEN N, KIRAY M, GENC S, DUMAN N, KOROGLU TF, OZKAN H, GENC K: Erythropoietin improves long-term spatial memory deficits and brain injury following neonatal hypoxia-ischemia in rats. Behav Brain Res 153: 77-86, 2004.

LIPPERT-GRÜNER M, MAEGELE M, GARBE J, ANGELOV DN: Late effects of enriched environment (EE) plus multimodal early onset stimulation (MEOS) after traumatic brain injury in rats: Ongoing improvement of neuromotor function despite sustained volume of the CNS lesion. Exp Neurol 203: 82-94, 2007.

LIPTON SA: Pathologically activated therapeutics for neuroprotection. Nat Rev Neurosci 8: 803-808, 2007.

LISMAN JE: Relating hippocampal circuitry to function: recall of memory sequences by reciprocal dentate CA3 interactions. Brain Res 22: 233-242, 1999.

LORINCZ A, BUZSAKI G: Two phase computational model training long-term memories in the entorhinal-hippocampal region. Ann NY Acad Sci 911: 83-111, 2000.

MAITI P, SINGH SB, MUTHURAJU S, VELERI S, ILAVAZHAGAN G: Hypobaric hypoxia damages the hippocampal pyramidal neurons in the rat brain. Brain Res 1175: 1-9, 2007.

MARTI HH: Erythropoietin and the hypoxic brain. J Exp Biol 207: 3233-3242, 2004.

NITHIANANTHARAJAN J, HANNAH AJ: Enriched environments, experience-dependent plasticity and disorders of the nervous system. Nat Rev Neurosci 7: 697-709, 2000.

OSREDKAR D, SALL JW, BICKLER PE, FERRERO DM: Erythropoietin promotes hippocampal neurogenesis in in vitro models of neonatal stroke. Neurobiol Dis 38: 259-265, 2010.

PEREIRA LO, ARTEMI NS, PETERSEN RCH, ROCHA AP, ACHAVAL M, NETTO CA: Effects of daily environmental enrichment on memory deficits and brain injury following neonatal hypoxia-ischemia in the rat. Neurobiol Learn Mem 87: 101-108, 2007.
PEREIRA LO, STRAPASSON ACP, NABINGER PM, ACHAVAL M, NETTO CA: Early enriched housing results in partial recovery of memory deficits in female, but not in male, rats after neonatal hypoxia-ischemia. Brain Res 1218: 257-266, 2008.

POKORNÝ J, PEČOVÁ Y, TROJAN S, LANGMEIER M: Hypoxia and development of interneurons of the rat hippocampus. Physiol Bohemoslov 38: 215-222, 1989.

RAVID O, SHAMS Y, BEN CALIFA N, NEVO E, AVIVI A, NEUMANN D: An extracellular region of the erythropoietin receptor of the subterranean blind mole rat Spaalax enhances receptor maturation. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 104: 14360-14365, 2007.

SANCHEZ PE, FARES RP, RISSO JJ, BONNET CH, BOUVARD S, LE-CAVORSIN M, GEORGES B, MOULIN C, BELMEGUENAI A, BODENNEC J, MORALES A, PEQUIGNOT JM, BAULIEU EE, LEVINE RA, BEZIN L: Optimal neuroprotection by erythropoietin requires elevated expression of its receptor in neurons. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 106: 9848-9853, 2009.

SHARP FR, BERNAUDIN M: HIF1 and oxygen sensing in the brain. Nat Rev Neurosci 5: 437-448, 2004.

ŠIMONOVÁ Z, ŠTÉROVÁ K, BROŽEK G, KOMÁREK V, SYKOVÁ E: Postnatal hypobaric hypoxia in rats impairs water maze learning and the morphology of neurons and macroglia in cortex and hippocampus. Behav Brain Res 141: 195-205, 2003.

SIRÉN AL, FRATELLI M, BRINES M, GOEMANS C, CASAGRANDE S, LEWCZUK P, KEenan S, GLEITER C, PASQUALI C, CAPOBIANCO A, MENNINI T, HEUMANN R, CERAMI A, EHRENREICH H, GHEZZI P: Erythropoietin prevents neuronal apoptosis after cerebral ischemia and metabolic stress. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 98: 4044-4049, 2001.

STEIN DG: Concepts of CNS plasticity and their implications for understanding recovery after brain damage. In: Brain Injury Medicine, Principles and Practice. ND ZASLER, DI KATZ, RD ZAFONTE (eds), Demos, New York, 2007, pp 97-108.

STEIN DG, WRIGHT DW, KELLERMANN AL: Does progesterone have neuroprotective properties? Ann Emerg Med 51: 164-172, 2008.

TITUS ADJ, SHANKARANARAYANA R, HARSHA HN, RAMKUMAR K, SRIKUMAR BN, SINGH SB, CHATTARJI S, RAJU TR: Hypobaric hypoxia-induced dendritic atrophy of hippocampal neurons is associated with cognitive impairment in adult rats. Neuroscience 145: 265-278, 2007.

TRAYSTMAN RJ: Animal models of focal and global cerebral ischemia. ILAR J 44: 85-95, 2003.

TROJAN S, POKORNÝ J: Theoretical aspects of neuroplasticity. Physiol Res 48: 87-96, 1999.

VAN PRAAG H, SCHINDER AF, CHRISTIE BR, TONI N, PALMER TD, GAGE F: Functional neurogenesis in the adult hippocampus. Nature 415: 1030-1034, 2002.

XIONG Y, MAHMOOD A, CHOPP M: Emerging treatments for traumatic brain injury. Expert Opin Emerg Drugs 14: 67-84, 2009.

YU X, SHACKA JJ, EELS EB, SUAREZ-QUIAN C, PRZYGODZKI LM, BELESLIN-COKIC B, LIN CS, NIKODEM VM, HEMPSTEAD B, FLANDERS KC, COSTANTINI F, NOGUCHI CT: Erythropoietin receptor signalling is required for normal brain development. Development 129: 505-516, 2002.

ZHANG R, ZHANG Z, WANG L, WANG Y, GOUSE A, ZHANG L, HO KL, MORSHEAD C, CHOPP M: Activated neural stem cells contribute to stroke-induced neurogenesis and neuroblast migration toward the infarct boundary in adult rats. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 24: 441-448, 2004.

ZHENG, LR, RISEDAL A, WOJCIEK A, HEIZLAR J, JOHANSSON BB, KOKAIA Z: Enriched environment influences brain-derived neurotropic factor levels in rat forebrain after focal stroke. Neurosci Lett 305: 165-172, 2001.