

Published in final edited form as:

Sci Transl Med. 2011 June 29; 3(89): 89ra57. doi:10.1126/scitranslmed.3002156.

Human apoE isoforms differentially regulate brain amyloid- β peptide clearance

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Abstract

The apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) $\epsilon 4$ allele is the strongest genetic risk factor for late-onset, sporadic Alzheimer's disease (AD). The *APOE* $\epsilon 4$ allele dramatically increases AD risk and decreases age of onset, likely through its strong effect on the accumulation of amyloid- β ($A\beta$) peptide. In contrast, the *APOE* $\epsilon 2$ allele appears to decrease AD risk. Most rare, early-onset forms of familial AD are caused by autosomal dominant mutations that often lead to overproduction of $A\beta 42$ peptide. However, the mechanism by which *APOE* alleles differentially modulate $A\beta$ accumulation in sporadic, late-onset AD is less clear. In a cohort of cognitively normal

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Author Contributions: J.M.C. wrote and edited the manuscript with critical evaluation/interpretation from co-authors. J.M.C., F.R.S., H.J., D.M.H. performed/designed research in Figs. 1 to 6 and Supplementary Material. A.M.F. and J.C.M. provided human subject data for Fig. 1 and Table 1. C.C., A.M.G., K.R.B. provided human data for Fig S4A. J.K., J.M.C., K.G.M., R.J.B. designed/performed experiments for Fig. 6. J.M.C., J.K., D.M.H. analyzed the data. R.B.D. and S.M.P. contributed valuable reagents.

Competing Interests: D.M.H. and R.J.B. are scientific advisors to C2N Diagnostics, which utilizes the SILK methodology in human studies and are co-inventors on US patent 7,892,845 titled "Methods for measuring the metabolism of neurally derived biomolecules in vivo." Washington University, with D.M.H. and R.J.B. as co-inventors, has also submitted the U.S. non-provisional patent application "Methods for measuring the metabolism of CNS derived biomolecules in vivo," serial #12/267,974. D.M.H. is also on the scientific advisory boards of Satori, En Vivo. D.M.H., J.C.M. and A.M.G. consult for Pfizer and Bristol Myers Squibb. D.M.H. also consults for Innogenetics. J.C.M. also consults for AstraZeneca, Eisai, Janssen, Genentech, Eli Lilly, Merck, Novartis, Otsuka, Schering Plough. A.M.G. also consults for AstraZeneca and Genentech. All other authors declare no competing interests.

individuals, we report that reliable molecular and neuroimaging biomarkers of cerebral A β deposition vary in an apoE isoform-dependent manner. We hypothesized that human apoE isoforms differentially affect A β clearance or synthesis in vivo, resulting in an apoE isoform-dependent pattern of A β accumulation later in life. Performing in vivo microdialysis in a mouse model of β -amyloidosis expressing human apoE isoforms (PDAPP/TRE), we find that the concentration and clearance of soluble A β in the brain interstitial fluid depends on the isoform of apoE expressed. This pattern parallels the extent of A β deposition observed in aged PDAPP/TRE mice. Importantly, apoE isoform-dependent differences in soluble A β metabolism are observed not only in aged PDAPP/TRE mice but also in young PDAPP/TRE mice, well before the onset of A β deposition in amyloid plaques. Additionally, amyloidogenic processing of amyloid precursor protein and A β synthesis, as assessed by in vivo stable isotopic labeling kinetics, do not vary according to apoE isoform in young PDAPP/TRE mice. Our results suggest that *APOE* alleles contribute to AD risk by differentially regulating clearance of A β from the brain, suggesting that A β clearance pathways may be useful therapeutic targets for AD prevention.

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the leading cause of dementia in the elderly, with an estimated prevalence of 26 million cases worldwide. Because the number of cases and associated costs are projected to increase dramatically, effective strategies aimed at prevention and preclinical intervention will likely depend on our understanding of how major risk factors contribute to the disease process. The prevailing hypothesis of AD pathogenesis posits that accumulation of brain amyloid- β (A β) peptide initiates a pathogenic cascade that culminates in neurodegeneration and dementia (1). The A β peptide is generated through sequential proteolytic processing of the amyloid precursor protein (APP) by β - and γ -secretases. Strong biochemical and genetic evidence has demonstrated that most rare, early-onset forms of familial AD are caused by autosomal dominant mutations that result in abnormal processing of APP, leading to overproduction of A β or an increase in the ratio of A β ₄₂ to A β ₄₀. Much less is known about the factors that initiate or modulate the onset of brain A β accumulation in the more common (>99%) sporadic, late-onset form of AD. The best established genetic risk factor for sporadic, late-onset AD is the apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) ϵ 4 allele, the presence of which dramatically increases risk for developing AD and decreases age of onset by 10 to 15 years; in contrast, the *APOE* ϵ 2 allele confers protection against developing AD (2-5). *APOE* status has been found to modulate the onset of extracellular amyloid plaque deposition, one of the key pathognomonic features of the disease (6, 7). Strong evidence demonstrating accelerated onset of amyloid deposition in *APOE* ϵ 4-carriers has led to the hypothesis that *APOE* genotype differentially modulates AD risk and onset through effects on A β metabolism (6-9). Consistent with this hypothesis, we and others have reported human apoE isoform-dependent differences in amyloid plaque deposition in APP-transgenic mice (E4 > E3 > E2) (10-14). Although it has been hypothesized that apoE isoforms differentially modulate A β accumulation through effects on A β clearance, direct in vivo evidence demonstrating apoE isoform-dependent differences in brain A β clearance or synthesis has been lacking. Here, we provide in vivo evidence that apoE isoforms differentially modulate brain A β burden in a manner that corresponds to early apoE isoform-dependent differences in A β clearance. Specifically, we used in vivo microdialysis to measure the concentration of soluble A β and its clearance from the brain interstitial fluid (ISF) of young and aged PDAPP/TRE mice. This mouse model of β -amyloidosis overexpresses human APP carrying an autosomal dominant familial AD-linked mutation (V717F) and also expresses each of the human apoE isoforms under the control of the mouse apoE regulatory elements. We found that the soluble A β concentration in ISF and its clearance depends on the human apoE isoform expressed in a manner that parallels the pattern of A β deposition in old PDAPP/TRE mice. Finally, using an in vivo stable isotopic

labeling kinetics technique, we found no differences in fractional synthesis rates (FSRs) of A β among PDAPP/TRE mice, consistent with biochemical evidence suggesting no apoE isoform-dependent changes in amyloidogenic processing of APP. Together, our results provide direct in vivo evidence for a mechanism whereby apoE isoform-dependent differences in A β clearance modulate the onset of A β accumulation in transgenic mice and in humans.

Results

Biomarkers of cerebral A β deposition differ according to *APOE* genotype in humans

Several groups have now validated molecular and neuroimaging biomarkers of the neuropathological hallmarks of AD (15-19). In particular, low concentrations of A β 42 in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) reflect the presence of cerebral A β deposition, likely as a result of A β 42 being sequestered into amyloid plaques, changing the equilibrium between the brain and CSF pools of A β (20-22). Additionally, the [^{11}C]-benzothiazole radiotracer, Pittsburgh Compound B (PIB), as well as other tracers, can bind to fibrillar A β plaques, allowing for visualization of brain amyloid in individuals during positron emission tomography (PET) (23-25). A preponderance of evidence supports the interpretation that PIB uptake and CSF A β 42 are reliable surrogate markers of amyloid plaque pathology in living subjects (15-19). A recent study revealed that CSF and neuroimaging biomarkers of amyloid pathology are more prevalent in cognitively normal *APOE* ϵ 4-carriers relative to individuals who have no *APOE* ϵ 4 alleles (that is, have the *APOE* ϵ 3 and/or *APOE* ϵ 2 alleles) (7). Additionally, the *APOE* ϵ 4 allele increases brain amyloid burden assessed by PIB-PET imaging in a gene dose-dependent manner (6). To study the impact of *APOE* ϵ 2, ϵ 3, and ϵ 4 alleles on the development of cerebral A β deposition in the absence of AD dementia, we analyzed a cohort of cognitively normal individuals younger than age 70, an age after which the presence of AD dementia may confound the analyses. From this cohort, we analyzed the concentration of A β 42 in the CSF from *APOE* ϵ 4/ ϵ 4, *APOE* ϵ 3/ ϵ 4, and *APOE* ϵ 3/ ϵ 3 individuals; because *APOE* ϵ 2 homozygous individuals are exceptionally rare, CSF A β 42 was analyzed in ϵ 2/ ϵ 3 individuals. Although various demographic features of our cohort, such as age, sex, and education level, did not differ by *APOE* genotype, the mean concentration of CSF A β 42 was significantly lower in *APOE* ϵ 4/ ϵ 4 individuals compared to individuals of all other *APOE* genotypes in the cohort (Table 1). Given that a CSF A β 42 concentration lower than 500 pg/mL has been utilized as a reliable threshold for the presence of cerebral A β deposition in humans (7, 19, 22, 26), we determined the proportion of individuals in each genotype with CSF A β 42 lower than 500 pg/mL. We found that there was a significantly greater proportion of *APOE* ϵ 4/ ϵ 4 individuals with CSF A β 42 lower than 500 pg/mL compared to *APOE* ϵ 3/ ϵ 4, ϵ 3/ ϵ 3, and ϵ 2/ ϵ 3 individuals (Fig. 1A). We next identified individuals in the cohort who had received PIB-PET scans within 2 years of lumbar puncture for CSF analysis. On the basis of previous studies (7, 27), individuals with mean cortical binding potential (MCBP) for PIB >0.18 were considered PIB-positive (PIB+). We found that the proportion of PIB+ individuals also follows a strong *APOE* allele-dependent pattern (Fig. 1B). These results demonstrate a clear *APOE* allele-dependent difference in the relative frequency at which individuals exhibit molecular and neuroimaging correlates of amyloid pathology.

A β and amyloid deposition in old PDAPP mice is human apoE isoform-dependent

To further investigate the role of apoE isoforms in differentially modulating A β metabolism, we used PDAPP mice in which human apoE isoforms are expressed under control of the mouse regulatory elements (PDAPP/TRE) (14). After allowing each cohort of mice to age to 20-21 months, we immunostained brain sections using an anti-A β antibody (3D6) and quantified the extent of A β deposition covering the hippocampus. Consistent with a previous report (14), we observed marked differences in A β deposition depending on the isoform of

apoE expressed (Fig. 2A-C). Quantification revealed that hippocampal A β burden in 20- to 21-month-old PDAPP/E4 mice was approximately 2-fold and 4.6-fold higher than in PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice, respectively (Fig. 2D). ApoE is strongly associated with the amount of fibrillar amyloid that deposits into plaques (28). Thus, we next characterized amyloid plaque load in the context of human apoE by staining adjacent brain sections from these mice with X-34, a congophilic dye that binds to amyloid. Consistent with the A β immunostaining pattern observed, we found that hippocampal amyloid plaque load varied according to apoE isoform (Fig. 2E-H). Together, these results provide clear evidence that apolipoprotein E4 (apoE4) increases A β deposition relative to apoE3 and apoE2 in a manner that closely recapitulates the human biomarker findings reported in Figure 1.

Soluble A β concentration and clearance in brain ISF of old mice is human apoE isoform-dependent

To investigate the mechanism by which A β accumulation in the brain varies according to apoE isoform in PDAPP/TRE mice, we used *in vivo* microdialysis to dynamically assess ISF A β metabolism in the contralateral hippocampus of PDAPP/TRE mice before harvesting for pathological analysis. The concentration of soluble A β in the ISF throughout life has been shown to be closely associated with the amount of A β that ultimately deposits in the extracellular space of the brain (29-31). Because soluble ISF A β has been shown to closely reflect extracellular pools of A β (29-31), we hypothesized that the concentration of soluble A β in the ISF would closely follow the pattern of A β deposition analyzed from the same mice in Figure 2. Hippocampal ISF was sampled in PDAPP/TRE mice for a stable baseline period during which mice were able to freely behave for the duration of the experiment. We found that the steady state concentration of ISF A β_{1-x} (A β species containing the N terminus through the central domain of A β) varied according to apoE isoform (Fig. 3A). Specifically, the brains of PDAPP/E4 mice had significantly more A β in the ISF pool, approximately 2- and 3.8-fold more than PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice, respectively. To understand whether the apoE isoform-dependent differences in soluble A β concentration may be the result of altered A β clearance from the ISF, we performed clearance microdialysis experiments by analyzing the elimination kinetics of A β after halting A β production with a potent γ -secretase inhibitor (29) (Fig. 3B). We found that the half-life ($t_{1/2}$) of ISF A β in the hippocampus of PDAPP/E4 mice was 1.1 hours, compared to 0.71 and 0.56 hours, measured from PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice, respectively (Fig. 3C). These results demonstrate that the clearance of endogenous A β from brain ISF is impaired in old PDAPP/E4 mice relative to PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice.

ApoE isoform-dependent differences in A β concentration and clearance exist before A β deposition

Because changes in apoE and A β metabolism in the brain ISF early in life can markedly alter A β deposition later in life (31, 32), we next asked whether the A β deposition pattern observed in old PDAPP/TRE mice may be a result of early apoE isoform-dependent differences in ISF A β metabolism. To test this hypothesis, we performed *in vivo* microdialysis in young PDAPP/TRE mice using a sensitive zero flow extrapolation method. Theoretically, the maximum *in vivo* steady state concentration of an analyte being dialyzed exists at the point at which there is no flow of the perfusion buffer (31, 33). To obtain this value in the hippocampal ISF of PDAPP/TRE mice, we used several flow rates during microdialysis to extrapolate to the point of zero flow for each mouse (Fig. 4A). As shown in Figure 4B, the mean *in vivo* steady state concentration of soluble ISF A β was highest in PDAPP/E4 mice compared to PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice. The concentration of soluble ISF A β at each flow rate also varied strongly according to apoE isoform (Fig. S1A). To address the possibility that microdialysis probe function may differ in the context of different human apoE isoforms, we determined the percent recovery at each flow rate, which

revealed no significant differences among PDAPP/TRE mice (Fig. S1B). Since the metabolite urea has been utilized as an independent measure of probe function and recovery in both human and animal brain microdialysis studies (34-37), we measured the concentration of urea in the brain ISF of PDAPP/TRE mice. The concentration of urea did not differ among groups, suggesting that probe function was equivalent across experiments in PDAPP/TRE mice (Fig. S1C). Neither the levels of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)-soluble A β 40 nor the levels of murine APP in hippocampal lysates from young apoE knock-in mice expressing murine APP differed according to apoE isoform, suggesting that regulation of A β concentration by human apoE may depend on the human A β sequence, which differs from murine A β by three amino acids (Fig S2A-B). We next asked whether the concentration of the more aggregation-prone A β 42 species varies according to human apoE isoform in young mice in the ISF pool, the site of A β deposition in old PDAPP/TRE mice. We found that the concentration of soluble A β 42 was highest in young PDAPP/E4 mice compared to PDAPP/E3 or PDAPP/E2 mice (Fig. 4C). We also measured levels of PBS-soluble and PBS-insoluble A β 40 and A β 42 after sequential extraction of hippocampi from young PDAPP/TRE mice (Table S1). Although the overall pattern was similar to what we observed in the ISF, the effects were of lesser magnitude or nonsignificant trends were evident, perhaps suggesting the extracted pools we measured do not completely reflect the ISF pool of A β (31, 38).

To test the hypothesis that human apoE isoforms differentially regulate the concentration of soluble A β in the ISF of young PDAPP/TRE mice through effects on A β clearance, we performed clearance microdialysis experiments in young PDAPP/TRE mice. As shown in Figure 4D, A β $t_{1/2}$ measured in the hippocampal ISF of PDAPP/E4 mice is significantly longer compared to PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E2 mice, respectively. We next assessed A β clearance in PS1 Δ E9/APP^{swe}/TRE mice, a mouse model of β -amyloidosis based on autosomal dominant AD-linked mutations in *PS1* and *APP* that also expresses one of the human apoE isoforms. We also observed a similar pattern of apoE isoform-dependent A β clearance in these mice (Fig. S3), suggesting that the clearance impairment in the context of apoE4 is not an artifact of the PDAPP transgene. Together, these results strongly suggest that the reduced clearance of A β from the brain ISF of PDAPP/E4 mice contributes to the increased concentration of A β in the ISF, likely resulting in earlier A β /amyloid plaque deposition. Several studies have indicated that apoE concentration varies by human apoE isoform (39), raising the possibility that altered apoE concentration may be an endophenotype among *APOE* genotypes that regulates *APOE* allele-dependent A β metabolism. We analyzed individuals in our cohort whose CSF had been analyzed by multi-analyte profiling, as previously described (40), which revealed that the presence of one ϵ 2 allele of *APOE* was associated with significantly increased concentrations of apoE relative to other *APOE* genotypes (Fig. S4A). The concentration of apoE in the CSF was also significantly lower in *APOE* ϵ 4-carriers (individuals with one or two copies of *APOE* ϵ 4) compared to *APOE* ϵ 3/ ϵ 3 individuals, but the concentration of apoE did not differ between those who were *APOE* ϵ 3/ ϵ 3 and those who were *APOE* ϵ 4/ ϵ 4. Whereas apoE levels from brain homogenates were higher in PDAPP/E2 mice compared to PDAPP/E3 or PDAPP/E4 mice, levels did not differ between PDAPP/E3 and PDAPP/E4 mice (Fig. S4B). Together, these results suggest that whereas higher apoE concentration in the context of apoE2 may underlie more rapid A β clearance relative to apoE4, apoE concentration is unlikely to underlie A β clearance differences observed in the context of apoE3 versus apoE4. Moreover, because the extent of apoE lipidation may also play a role in modulating A β accumulation (41), we assessed the size of lipidated apoE particles from the CSF of young and old PDAPP/TRE mice by native polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE)/Western blot analysis. Regardless of apoE isoform or age, apoE particles were between 12.2nm and slightly larger than 17nm in size (Fig. S4C).

Amyloidogenic processing of APP does not vary according to human apoE isoform

In the amyloidogenic pathway of APP processing, β -secretase (BACE1) cleaves APP N-terminally at the A β domain, leading to the generation of sAPP β and C99, the latter of which ultimately gives rise to the A β peptide. In the context of different human apoE isoforms, amyloidogenic processing of APP may vary according to apoE isoform, contributing to the differences in the concentration of ISF A β observed in Figure 4B. To begin to address this possibility, we compared levels of the amyloidogenic metabolite C99 in hippocampal homogenates from young PDAPP/TRE mice. As shown in a representative western blot probed with 82E1 antibody (anti-A β_{1-16}), which recognizes C99, relative levels of C99 did not differ among PDAPP/TRE mice (Fig. 5A). Quantification revealed that C99 levels did not vary significantly according to human apoE isoform (Fig. 5B). Additionally, full-length APP levels did not appear to vary significantly among groups (Fig. S5A-B). To further assess whether amyloidogenic processing differs according to apoE isoform, we measured β -secretase activity in hippocampal homogenates from young PDAPP/TRE mice. β -secretase activity was measured by monitoring the fluorescence increase that results from cleavage of a peptide based on the β -cleavage site of APP. On the basis of the quantification shown in Figure 5C, there were no significant differences in reaction velocity among PDAPP/TRE mice, suggesting that apoE isoform-dependent differences in β -secretase activity are unlikely to account for differences in soluble ISF A β concentration in young PDAPP/TRE mice. Overall, our results in PDAPP/TRE mice are consistent with a previous *in vitro* study showing no effect of apoE isoforms on APP processing (42).

Rates of A β synthesis do not differ according to human apoE isoform

To sensitively assess the rates of A β synthesis in the context of human apoE isoforms in PDAPP/TRE mice, we adapted an *in vivo* stable isotopic labeling kinetics technique previously described in humans (43). Briefly, young PDAPP/TRE mice were intraperitoneally injected with the stable isotope-labeled amino acid [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine, which crosses the blood-brain barrier and incorporates into newly synthesized APP/A β during normal protein synthesis in the central nervous system. We next sacrificed mice at 20 and 40 minutes after the injection and immunoprecipitated total A β from brain lysates using HJ5.2, an anti-A β_{13-28} antibody. After trypsin digestion of immunoprecipitated A β , samples were submitted to liquid-chromatography mass spectrometry (LC-MS), allowing quantification of the relative abundance of labeled to unlabeled A β by analyzing mass shifts of predicted MS/MS ions in the spectra (Fig. 6A). To accurately quantify and calibrate the mass spectrometry signals from mouse brain samples, we used cell-secreted A β to generate a standard curve based on a known quantity of A β labeled with [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine (Fig. 6B). We next calculated fractional synthesis rates (FSR) of A β based on the rate of increase in the amount of labeled to unlabeled A β between 20 and 40 minutes after injection, normalized to the average enrichment of plasma leucine. We found no significant differences in A β FSRs among young PDAPP/TRE mice (Fig. 6C), strongly suggesting that apoE isoforms do not differentially modulate A β synthesis *in vivo*.

Discussion

Despite significant advances in our understanding of the pathological events leading to AD, the causes of A β accumulation are only reasonably well understood for a small subset of individuals with AD who have autosomal dominant mutations, resulting in early-onset, familial AD. Most AD cases are sporadic, and in these individuals, the factors leading to A β accumulation are not well understood. Because effective AD treatments will likely depend on intervening during the preclinical (presymptomatic) phase of AD (44, 45), understanding how environmental and genetic risk factors modulate pathological hallmarks of the disease will be critical. The strongest genetic risk factor for late-onset, sporadic AD is the *APOE* $\epsilon 4$

allele, which markedly increases risk and reduces the age of onset (46), likely by accelerating the onset of brain A β accumulation (6-9). Indeed, we showed in a cohort of cognitively normal individuals less than 70 years of age that biomarkers of brain amyloid accumulation were present at a relative frequency that corresponded to *APOE* genotype, that is, $\epsilon_4 > \epsilon_3 > \epsilon_2$. Consistent with this observation, we found that old PDAPP/TRE mice developed A β /amyloid deposition in an apoE isoform-dependent pattern, that is, E4 > E3 > E2, a finding that extends previous reports of apoE isoform-dependent A β deposition in various mouse models (10, 11, 13, 14). Because the concentration of A β in the extracellular space of the brain reflects a balance between its synthesis and clearance rates, we hypothesized that *APOE* genotype differentially modulates A β accumulation through effects on A β clearance and/or synthesis. To test this hypothesis, we used novel in vivo methodologies to measure endogenous brain A β clearance and synthesis in PDAPP mice expressing human apoE isoforms under control of the endogenous mouse *APOE* promoter. Using in vivo microdialysis, we found that the concentration of ISF A β in the hippocampus of young and old PDAPP/E4 mice was greater than in PDAPP/E3 or PDAPP/E2 mice, likely as a result of reduced A β clearance in PDAPP/E4 mice. ApoE isoform-dependent A β clearance was also observed in PDAPP/TRE mice before the onset of A β accumulation. To investigate the impact of apoE isoforms on A β synthesis, we developed a sensitive method to measure the FSR of brain A β in vivo, adapted from the stable isotopic labeling kinetics technique recently utilized by our group in humans (43). Using this technique, we found that the fractional rates of brain A β synthesis from young PDAPP/TRE mice did not differ according to the human apoE isoform expressed, consistent with our biochemical results showing that amyloidogenic processing of APP did not vary by human apoE isoform. Our results strongly suggest that *APOE* genotype differentially modulates the onset of A β accumulation via differential regulation of A β clearance, although the cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying this regulation remain unclear.

Once the link between *APOE* genotype and AD risk had been described, several groups focused on characterizing the putative apoE/A β interaction and the extent to which this interaction influenced the aggregation of A β in vitro. While our results suggest that apoE isoforms differentially regulate A β accumulation via effects on A β clearance, we cannot exclude the possibility that apoE isoforms also modulate A β accumulation by directly facilitating A β fibrillization. For example, lipid-free apoE4 was found to facilitate A β fibrillization in vitro to a greater degree compared to apoE3 [(47, 48); see (39) for a review]. Perhaps due to differences in experimental conditions, others have reported that apoE isoforms inhibit the process of A β aggregation (39, 49, 50), making it difficult to interpret whether they differentially modulate A β accumulation in vivo. Several in vitro studies have demonstrated that lipidated apoE2 and apoE3 bind A β with greater affinity compared to apoE4 (39, 51-54). This observation has prompted some to hypothesize that the stronger interaction between A β and apoE2 or apoE3 relative to apoE4 may result in greater A β clearance, consistent with the clearance pattern we observed in vivo in the current study. Indeed, several studies have demonstrated that A β transport from brain into blood is altered when complexed to human apoE (55, 56). A recent study wherein apoE/A β complexes were microinjected into wildtype mouse brain revealed that A β bound to apoE4 is cleared more slowly than when A β is complexed to apoE3 or apoE2 (56). One study found that antagonizing the apoE/A β interaction with a small peptide decreased A β pathology in the mouse brain, further suggesting that the apoE/A β interaction may be relevant to A β clearance in vivo (57). Additional studies are needed to characterize the extent of the apoE/A β interaction under more physiological conditions and whether differential apoE/A β interactions may underlie our current in vivo results. Aside from A β egress from brain to blood, in vitro studies have suggested that cellular uptake and degradation of A β may also represent clearance mechanisms that are regulated by human apoE (58-60). One recent in vitro study found that human apoE isoforms differed in their ability to facilitate neprilysin-

mediated degradation of A β 42 within microglia, with apoE4 being the least effective in facilitating A β degradation compared to apoE2 or apoE3 (60).

Although there are some conflicting studies (61), several groups have reported that the concentration of apoE in the brains of human apoE knock-in mice varies in an apoE isoform-dependent manner, that is, E2>E3>E4 (14, 62, 63). Together with our present results, the isoform-dependent pattern of apoE concentration in humans and in mice raises the possibility that apoE concentration alone may play a role in the pattern of A β clearance and subsequent A β accumulation, though apoE concentration differences are unlikely to completely account for A β metabolism differences in the setting of apoE3 versus apoE4 (14). The impact of structural differences among apoE isoforms (64), especially differences in relative affinities for various apoE receptors, may also contribute to differences in A β clearance. Future studies delineating the precise contribution of both apoE concentration and isoform may directly bear on therapeutic strategies aimed at targeting apoE. Using a mouse model of human apoE-dependent β -amyloidosis, our present results may be directly relevant to human studies. For example, using in vivo stable isotopic labeling kinetics, our group recently reported that CSF A β clearance and not synthesis is impaired in a small cohort of late-onset AD patients, though the effect of *APOE* genotype was not assessed (65). Coupled with this recent finding, our present results motivate further investigation as to whether A β clearance in humans is modulated by *APOE* genotype. These findings further motivate the development of therapies that increase brain A β clearance.

Materials and Methods

CSF A β 42, apoE, and PIB-PET assessment in humans

Participants were cognitively normal volunteers (between 43 and 70 years of age at time of participation) for a longitudinal memory and aging study at the Washington University Alzheimer's Disease Research Center. Cognitive status was assessed by clinical evaluation based on whether intraindividual decline existed in performance of typical activity (as a result of loss of cognitive function). "Cognitively normal" corresponds to a "0" on the Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) scale. TaqMan assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, US) for both rs429358 (ABI#C_3084793_20) and rs7412 (ABI#C_904973_10) were used for *APOE* genotyping. The allelic discrimination analysis module of ABI Sequence Detection Software was used for allele calling. Positive controls for the six possible *APOE* genotypes were included on the genotyping plate. Individuals with confirmed causative mutations were excluded. CSF A β 42 was measured using the Innotech A β 42 ELISA kit (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium) according to previous procedures (7). CSF apoE concentration in individuals from our cohort for whom CSF had been analyzed by the company Rules Based Medicine was quantified using multi-analyte profiling (40). PIB-PET assessment, performed within 2 years of lumbar puncture to collect CSF, was performed as reported previously (27). All procedures were approved by Washington University's Human Protection Office and written informed consent was obtained from all participants prior to study entry.

Animals

Homozygous PDAPP (APPV717F) mice lacking apoE on a mixed background comprised of DBA/2J, C57BL/6J, and Swiss Webster were crossed with mice expressing *APOE* ϵ 2, ϵ 3, and ϵ 4 under control of mouse regulatory elements on a C57BL/6J background (gift from P. Sullivan at Duke University) (14). Resulting mice were intercrossed to generate homozygous PDAPP/TRE mice, which were then maintained via a vertical breeding strategy. Male and female PDAPP/TRE mice were used throughout experiments. For experiments involving TRE mice with murine APP, 2.5 month-old, male littermates on a

C57BL/6J background from each *APOE* genotype were purchased from Taconic. All animal procedures were performed according to protocols accepted by the Animal Studies Committee at Washington University School of Medicine.

Tissue preparation and quantification of A β /amyloid burden

In vivo microdialysis was performed in the left hemisphere of 20- to 21-month-old mice, after which mice were immediately perfused transcardially, fixing brains in 4% paraformaldehyde overnight. After placing brains in 30% sucrose, the contralateral (noncannulated) hemisphere was sectioned on a freezing-sliding microtome. Serial 50 μ m coronal sections were taken from the rostral anterior commissure through the caudal extent of the hippocampus, staining sections with biotinylated 3D6 antibody (anti-A β ₁₋₅) for A β immunostaining quantification and X-34 dye for amyloid load quantification. Slides were scanned in batch mode using the NanoZoomer slide scanner system (Hamamatsu Photonics), capturing images in brightfield mode (A β immunostaining) or fluorescent mode (X-34). NDP viewer software was used to export images from slides before quantitative analysis using Image J software [National Institutes of Health (NIH)]. Using three sections per mouse separated each by 300 μ m (corresponding to bregma -1.7 , -2.0 , and -2.3 mm in mouse brain atlas), we determined the percentage of area occupied by immunoreactive A β or amyloid (X-34-positive signal) in a blinded fashion, thresholding each slide to minimize false-positive signal, as described (31).

In vivo microdialysis

In vivo microdialysis in 20- to 21-month-old and 3- to 4-month-old PDAPP/TRE mice was performed essentially as described to assess steady state concentrations of various analytes in the hippocampal ISF with a 38kDa cut-off dialysis probe (Bioanalytical Systems, Inc.) (29, 32). ISF exchangeable A β _{1-X} (eA β _{1-X}) was collected using a flow rate of 1.0 μ l/min, whereas ISF eA β _{X-42} and urea were collected using a flow rate of 0.3 μ l/min. For clearance experiments, a stable baseline of ISF eA β _{1-X} concentration was obtained with a constant flow rate of 1.0 μ l/min before intraperitoneally injecting each mouse with 10 mg/kg of a selective γ -secretase inhibitor (LY411,575), which was prepared by dissolving in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO)/PBS/propylene glycol. The elimination of eA β _{1-X} from the ISF followed first-order kinetics; therefore, for each mouse, $t_{1/2}$ for eA β was calculated using the slope, k' , of the linear regression that included all fractions until the concentration of eA β stopped decreasing ($t_{1/2} = 0.693/k$, where $k = 2.303k'$). Microdialysis using the zero flow extrapolated method was performed by varying the flow rates from 0.3 μ l/min to 1.6 μ l/min, as described (31). Zero flow data for each mouse were fit with an exponential decay regression with GraphPad Prism 5.0 software (33).

Quantitative measurements of ISF eA β

Quantitative measurements of A β collected from in vivo microdialysis fractions were performed using sensitive sandwich ELISAs. For human A β _{1-X} quantification, ELISA plates were coated with m266 antibody (anti-A β ₁₃₋₂₈), and biotinylated 3D6 antibody (anti-A β ₁₋₅) was used for detection. For A β _{X-42} ELISAs, HJ7.4 (anti-A β ₃₅₋₄₂) antibody was used to capture, followed by biotinylated HJ5.1 antibody to detect (anti-A β ₁₃₋₂₈).

Biochemical analyses of hippocampal homogenates from young PDAPP/TRE mice

After transcardial perfusion with heparinized PBS, brain tissue was microdissected and immediately frozen at -80°C . Hippocampal tissue was manually dounce-homogenized with 75 strokes in radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer [50 mM tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 0.25% deoxycholic acid, 1% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA] containing a cocktail of protease inhibitors (Roche). Total protein concentration in hippocampal homogenates was

determined with a BCA protein assay kit (Pierce). Equivalent amounts of protein (50 µg) were loaded on 4-12% bis-tris gels (Invitrogen) for SDS-PAGE before transferring protein to 0.2-µm nitrocellulose membranes. Immediately after transfer, blots were boiled for 10 min before blocking and incubation with 82E1 antibody (anti-Aβ₁₋₁₆; IBL) to detect C99. Loading was normalized by stripping blots and re-probing with α-tubulin antibody (Sigma). Normalized band intensities were quantified using Image J software (NIH).

β-secretase activity in hippocampal lysates was assessed using a commercially available kit (#P2985; Invitrogen) that relies on fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) that results from β-secretase cleavage of a fluorescent peptide based on the APP sequence (Rhodamine-EVNLDAEFK-Quencher). Briefly, 5 µg of protein per sample was mixed with sample buffer and β-secretase substrate, monitoring fluorescence signal every minute for 120 minutes with a Synergy2 BioTek (BioTek Instruments, Inc.) plate reader (Ex_{545nm}/Em_{585nm}). Because the kinetics of the reaction for all samples were reliably linear in the 20- to 60-min interval, reaction velocity [relative fluorescence units (RFUs) per minute] was calculated and reported over this interval for all samples. Specificity of β-secretase activity was validated using a commercially available β-secretase inhibitor.

In vivo stable isotopic labeling kinetics

FSRs of Aβ were measured in hippocampal lysates from young PDAPP/TRE mice with a method adapted from the in vivo stable isotopic labeling kinetics technique we have previously described in humans (43) (detailed Materials and Methods available in the Supplementary Material). Briefly, after mice were injected intraperitoneally with [¹³C₆]-leucine (200 mg/kg), brain tissue harvesting and plasma collection was performed 20 and 40 min after injection. Whole hippocampus was lysed with 1% Triton X-100 lysis buffer containing protease inhibitors, and Aβ in the extracts was immunoprecipitated with HJ5.2 antibody (anti-Aβ₁₃₋₂₈). After trypsin digestion of immunoprecipitated Aβ, LC-MS was performed to measure the relative abundance of labeled to unlabeled tryptic Aβ peptide, which was calibrated with a standard curve of Aβ secreted from H4 APP695ΔNL neuroglioma cells. FSR curves were then generated based on the amount of labeled to unlabeled Aβ present 20 and 40 min after [¹³C₆]-leucine injection, normalized to the amount of free leucine in the plasma, which was measured by gas chromatography (GC)-MS.

Statistical analysis

Unless indicated otherwise, differences among group means were assessed using a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons when the ANOVA was significant. Levels of significance were indicated as follows: *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001. Analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 5.0 software; human data were analyzed using SAS 9.2 software.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

We acknowledge investigators and staff of the ADRC's clinical and genetics cores and the Adult Children Study's Biomarker Core for CSF Aβ₄₂. LY411,575 was a gift from P. C. May (Eli Lilly & Co.). **Funding:** This work was supported by NIH grants AG13956 (D.M.H.), NS034467 (D.M.H.), AG034004 (J.M.C.), P30-NS069329 (J.K.), the American Health Assistance Foundation (J.K., D.M.H.), DK56341 (B.W.P., Nutrition Obesity Research Center), NIH grants AG05681 (J.C.M.), AG03991 (J.C.M.), AG026276 (J.C.M.), P30-NS069329-01 (C.C.), and K23-AG03094601 (R.J.B.); NIH Neuroscience Blueprint Center Core Grant P30-NS057105; and Eli Lilly and Pfizer to Washington University (D.M.H.).

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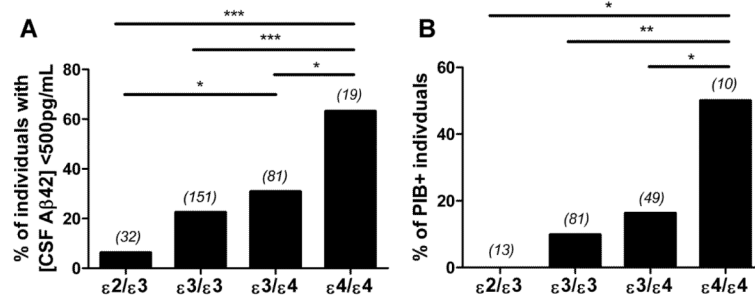


Fig. 1. Biomarkers of amyloid differ according to *APOE* genotype in cognitively normal individuals

(A) Percentage of individuals (n=283) with [CSF Aβ42] < 500 pg/mL according to the following *APOE* genotypes: ε2/ε3, ε3/ε3, ε3/ε4, and ε4/ε4. Number in parentheses indicates number of individuals for each group. (B) Percentage of PIB+ individuals (n=153) according to *APOE* genotype: ε2/ε3, ε3/ε3, ε3/ε4, and ε4/ε4. Individuals with mean cortical binding potential for Pittsburgh compound B (MCBP) > 0.18 were considered PIB+. Number in parentheses indicates number of individuals for each group. χ^2 analyses for proportions in (A) ($\chi^2(3)=22.1785$, $P=5.99 \times 10^{-5}$) and (B) ($\chi^2(3)=14.4735$, $P=2.33 \times 10^{-3}$) were performed; follow-up χ^2 tests for pairwise comparisons of proportions were performed using Benjamini and Hochberg's linear step-up adjustment to control for type I error. * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, *** $P<0.001$.

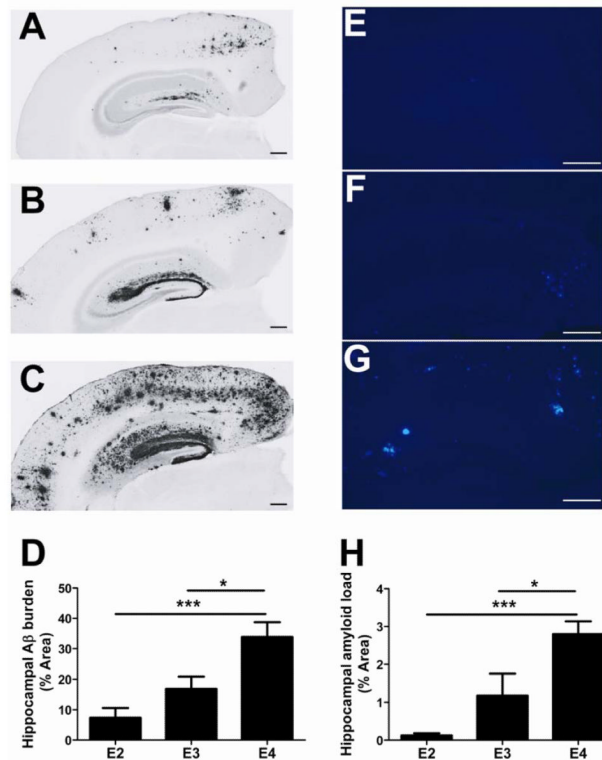


Fig. 2. A β /amyloid deposition varies according to apoE isoform in old PDAPP/TRE mice
(A-C) Representative coronal brain sections from 20- to 21-month-old, sex-matched PDAPP/E2 (A), PDAPP/E3 (B), and PDAPP/E4 (C) mice. A β immunostaining was performed using anti-A β antibody (biotinylated-3D6). Scale bars, 50 μ m. **(D)** Quantification of the area of the hippocampus occupied by A β immunostaining (n=7 mice/group). *P<0.05, **P<0.01. **(E-G)** Representative coronal brain sections from 20- to 21-month-old PDAPP/E2 (E), PDAPP/E3 (F), and PDAPP/E4 (G) mice. Amyloid was detected using the congophilic fluorescent dye, X-34. Scale bars, 50 μ m. **(H)** Quantification of the area of hippocampus occupied by X-34 staining (n=7 mice/group). When one-way ANOVA was significant, differences among groups were assessed using Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons *P<0.05, ***P<0.001. Values represent means \pm SEM.

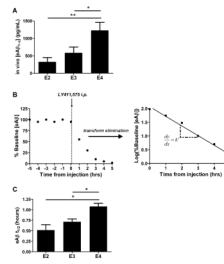


Fig. 3. Soluble A β concentration and clearance in the brain ISF of old mice is human apoE isoform-dependent

(A) Mean steady state concentrations of eA β_{1-X} (exchangeable A β) from sampling hippocampal ISF in old, sex-matched PDAPP/E2, PDAPP/E3, and PDAPP/E4 mice, measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) (n=6 to 7 mice per group; 20 to 21 months old). (B) Schematic diagram of a typical clearance experiment in which a stable baseline period is obtained, followed by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of LY411,575 (10mg/kg) to halt A β production. A β concentrations during the elimination phase are transformed with the common logarithm. Log-transformed values are fit with a linear regression, allowing calculation of slope, k' . eA β $t_{1/2} = 0.693/k$, where $k = 2.303k'$. (C) eA β $t_{1/2}$ from clearance experiments performed with the mice in (A) after stable baseline measurement of eA β_{1-X} . When one-way ANOVA was significant, differences among groups were assessed using Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons (* $P < 0.05$). Values represent means \pm SEM.

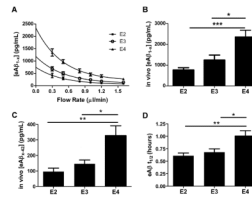


Fig. 4. ApoE isoform-dependent differences in soluble A β concentration and clearance exist prior to the onset of A β deposition

(A) An exponential decay regression was used to fit the concentrations of eA β_{1-x} measured by ELISA at each flow rate for individual mice from groups of young, sex-matched PDAPP/TRE mice (n=6 mice per group; 3 to 4 months old). The equations from the individual regressions were used to calculate [eA β_{1-x}] at x=0 for each mouse, representing the in vivo concentration of eA β_{1-x} recoverable by microdialysis. (B) Mean in vivo concentrations of eA β_{1-x} (pg/mL) calculated from the method in (A). (C) Mean concentrations of A β_{x-42} (pg/mL) collected from the hippocampal ISF of young, sex-matched PDAPP/TRE mice using a flow rate of 0.3 μ l/min (n=8 mice per group; 3-4 months old). (D) eA β $t_{1/2}$ from clearance experiments in young, sex-matched PDAPP/TRE mice after stable baseline measurement of eA β_{1-x} (n=10 to 11 mice per group; 3 to 4 months old). When one-way ANOVA was significant, differences among groups were assessed using Tukey's post hoc test for multiple comparisons *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001. Values represent means \pm SEM.

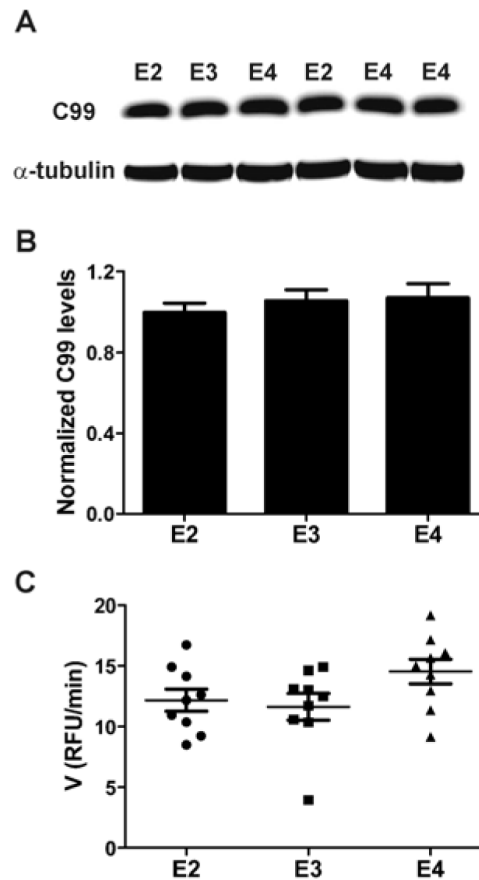


Fig. 5. Amyloidogenic processing of APP does not vary according to human apoE isoform
(A) Representative Western blot of the proximal amyloidogenic metabolite, C99, from hippocampal homogenates (extracted with RIPA buffer) from young, sex-matched PDAPP/TRE mice. C99 was detected using 82E1 antibody. All bands were normalized to α -tubulin band intensity (n=9 mice per group; 3 to 4 months old). **(B)** Quantification of C99 levels after normalizing each band's intensity to α -tubulin band intensity. **(C)** Quantification of β -secretase activity in hippocampal homogenates from young PDAPP/TRE mice using a sensitive FRET assay. Homogenates were incubated with fluorescent APP substrate, resulting in β -cleavage that could be followed by fluorescence increase (emission, 585 nm). The interval over which kinetics were linear was used for quantification of reaction velocity [relative fluorescence units (RFU)/min] for each sample. One-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences among groups. Values represent means \pm SEM.

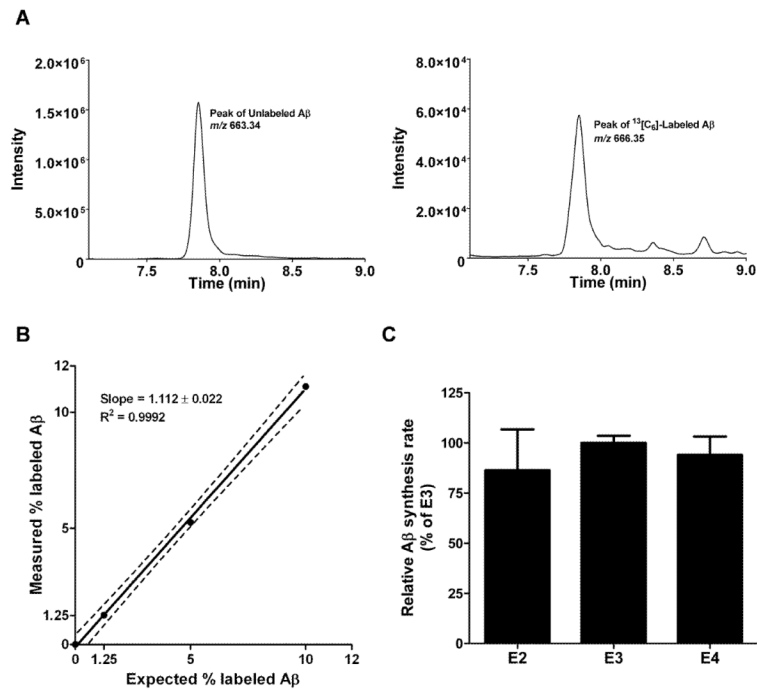


Fig. 6. Rates of A β synthesis do not differ according to human apoE isoform in PDAPP/TRE mice

(A) A β detection in hippocampal lysates from young PDAPP/TRE mice by TSQ Vantage triple quadrupole mass spectrometry. Left, representative total ion count multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) peak of the unlabeled A β tryptic peptide, LVFFAEDVGSNK, (m/z = 663.340). Right, MRM peak for [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine labeled A β (m/z = 666.350). (B) Standard curve generated with known quantity of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine labeled and unlabeled A β . A β secreted from H4-APP695 Δ NL neuroglioma cells incubated with labeled/unlabeled leucine was immunoprecipitated with HJ5.2 antibody (anti-A β_{13-28}), followed by trypsin digestion. A β_{17-28} fragments were analyzed on a TSQ Vantage mass spectrometer. The expected percentage of labeled A β versus measured percentage was fit by linear regression. Variance is reported with 95% confidence interval. (C) Relative FSRs of A β from hippocampi of PDAPP/TRE mice intraperitoneally injected with [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine (200mg/kg) (n=5 to 6 mice per group; 4 to 5 months old). Relative FSRs of A β were calculated from the ratio of [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]-leucine labeled to unlabeled A β . [$^{13}\text{C}_6$]/[$^{12}\text{C}_6$]-A β ratio was normalized to the ratio of labeled to unlabeled free leucine in plasma (determined by GC-MS). Mass spectrometry data were normalized with the media standard curve in (B). One-way ANCOVA (analysis of covariance) revealed no significant differences among groups. Values represent means \pm SEM.

Table 1
Demographic characteristics and biomarker information for cognitively normal individuals according to *APOE* genotype

Values represent means \pm SD. When one-way ANOVA was significant, pair-wise comparisons of *APOE* genotypes were made using Tukey's post hoc test; only significant differences were indicated

	<i>APOE</i> genotype			
	$\epsilon 2/\epsilon 3$	$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 3$	$\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$	$\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$
<i>n</i>	32	151	81	19
Female (%)	62.50	64.24	67.90	63.16
Caucasian (%)	87.50	92.05	90.12	84.21
Age at LP, yrs, (SD)	59.28 (7.13)	60.72 (7.17)	60.51 (7.80)	57.58 (8.85)
MMSE	29.28 (0.96)	29.37 (0.94)	29.38 (0.96)	29.32 (1.16)
Education, yrs, (SD)	15.69 (2.76)	15.92 (2.62)	15.83 (2.31)	16.53 (3.42)
A β 42, pg/mL, (SD)	755.65 ^{‡,***} (212.85)	695.58 ^{***} (243.87)	619.58 ^{**} (193.79)	437.39 (183.53)
Tau, pg/mL, (SD)	253.33 (114.68)	248.72 (126.48)	267.54 (131.89)	244.13 (90.58)
pTau, pg/mL, (SD)	50.72 (17.76)	48.18 (19.71)	55.86 (28.83)	51.45 (13.62)

[‡]P<0.05,

^{**}P<0.01,

^{***}P<0.001.

[‡] denotes significant difference compared to *APOE* $\epsilon 3/\epsilon 4$. ^{**} or ^{***} denotes significant difference compared to *APOE* $\epsilon 4/\epsilon 4$. MMSE, Mini Mental State Examination from 0 to 30.