

APOE4-specific changes in A β accumulation in a new transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease

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Running title: *APOE4*-specific changes in A β accumulation in AD Tg-mice

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Background: *APOE*-genotype effects on different forms of A β accumulation were determined using new EFAD transgenic mice.

Results: In E4FAD mice, compact/diffuse plaques are greater, total apoE4 is lower, less apoE4 is lipoprotein-associated, and soluble A β 42 and oligomeric-A β are higher than E2FAD/E3FAD. Intraneuronal A β is comparable across *APOE*-genotype.

Conclusion: *In vivo*, *APOE4* uniquely effects A β accumulation.

Significance: These data suggest a basis for *APOE*-induced AD risk.

ABSTRACT

APOE4 is the greatest risk factor for Alzheimer's disease (AD) and synergistic effects with amyloid- β peptide (A β) suggest interactions among apoE isoforms and different forms of A β accumulation. However, it remains unclear how *APOE* genotype affects plaque morphology, intraneuronal A β , soluble A β 42, and oligomeric A β (oA β), particularly *in vivo*. As introduction of human *APOE* significantly delays amyloid deposition in transgenic mice expressing familial-AD (FAD)

mutations (FAD-Tg), 5xFAD-Tg mice, which exhibit amyloid deposition by 2-months, were crossed with apoE targeted-replacement mice to produce the new EFAD-Tg mice. Compared to 5xFAD mice, A β deposition was delayed ~4 months in the EFAD mice, allowing detection of early changes in A β accumulation from 2-6 months. While plaque deposition is generally greater in E4FAD mice, E2/E3FAD have significantly more diffuse and E4FAD more compact plaques. As a first report in FAD-Tg mice, *APOE* genotype had no effect on intraneuronal A β accumulation in EFAD mice. In E4FAD mice, total apoE levels were lower and total A β levels higher than E2FAD and E3FAD mice. Profiles from sequential three-step extractions (TBS, detergent and formic acid) demonstrate that the lower level of total apoE4 is reflected only in the detergent-soluble fraction, indicating that less apoE4 is lipoprotein-associated, and perhaps less lipidated, compared with apoE2 and apoE3. Soluble A β 42 and oA β levels were highest in E4FAD mice, although soluble apoE2, apoE3 and apoE4 levels were comparable, suggesting that the differences in soluble A β 42 and oA β result from functional

differences among the apoE isoforms. Thus, *APOE* differentially regulates multiple aspects of A β accumulation.

INTRODUCTION

The primary genetic risk factor for Alzheimer's disease (AD) is *APOE4*, increasing risk ~4- and 15-fold with a single or double allele(s), while *APOE2* reduces risk compared to *APOE3*. Although carriers of the *APOE4* gene of apolipoprotein E (apoE) account for more than half of AD patients, the mechanism(s) by which *APOE* affects the pathogenesis of AD is the subject of continued inquiry (1). Plaque deposition is increased with *APOE4* compared with *APOE2* and *APOE3* in humans and transgenic mice expressing familial-AD (FAD) mutations (FAD-Tg) (2-5). However, an *APOE* genotype-specific effect on the accumulation of other potentially neurotoxic species of A β remains unclear. Research efforts to address this mechanism *in vivo* are hindered by the lack of: 1) tractable transgenic mouse models and; 2) assays for changes in A β speciation and apoE solubility during the initial stages of A β accumulation.

Introduction of human *APOE* to existing FAD-Tg mice significantly delays plaque deposition, although once detected, plaque levels are generally greater with *APOE4* than *APOE3* (3,6-8). For example, crossing apoE-targeted-replacement mice (apoE-TR) (9) with PDAPP mice (10) delays plaque deposition from ~10 to 18 months; although once detected, plaque levels are greater with *APOE4* than *APOE3* (3). To establish a tractable model, transgenic mice expressing 5 FAD mutations (5xFAD), which exhibit accelerated plaque deposition that is significant by 2 months (11), were crossed with apoE-TR mice to produce the EFAD mouse model. In EFAD mice, *APOE* genotype-specific effects on A β accumulation can be identified from 2 to 6 months.

A β pathology can refer to a number of neurotoxic forms of the peptide, making identification of "neurotoxic A β " unclear. Detection of different A β species requires complimentary immunohistochemical (IHC) and biochemical approaches. By IHC, intraneuronal A β (12-14), and perhaps specific plaque

morphologies (15,16) are thought to contribute to A β pathology, although amyloid plaque burden *per se* may not be neurotoxic (17). Biochemical analysis has demonstrated that oA β (18-21) and soluble A β levels are elevated in AD brains (18) and soluble oligomeric forms of A β 42 have been demonstrated to correlate with cognitive decline (20) and disease severity in humans (22). *APOE* genotype may affect AD risk by modulating the speciation of A β 42, particularly oA β levels. Possible mechanisms for this apoE isoform-specific effect include differences in A β clearance, degradation and/or stabilization of oA β (for review (23)). Specific detection methods for oA β are one factor limiting further understanding of apoE isoform-specific effects on oA β levels. Thus, an ELISA for measuring oA β levels was developed following the protocol of Xia and co-workers (24), enabled by the development of the new A β -specific antibody MOAB-2 (25).

Total apoE4 levels are lower compared with apoE2 and apoE3 in human plasma and CSF for both AD patients (26-31) and age-matched controls (32), brain homogenates from AD patients (3,33), brain homogenates from apoE-TR mice (3,28,34), and brain homogenates from apoE-TR/PDAPP-Tg mice (3). However, it is not known whether biochemical methods for sequential extraction differentially affect apoE isoform levels (3,35). Traditionally, a non-ionic detergent is required to release apoE from lipoprotein particles (i.e. Triton X-100; TBSX) without inducing the formation of new micelles, as can occur with ionic detergents such as SDS (36) (35,37-41). To address this issue, a 3-step, sequential protein extraction protocol was optimized to account for the extraction conditions for lipoprotein-associated apoE, as well as insoluble protein from dense-core amyloid plaques (42).

In this study, development of the EFAD transgenic mouse model enabled identification of the effects of *APOE* genotype on early types of A β accumulation. From 2 to 6 months, plaque deposition was generally greater in E4FAD mice, although E2FAD and E3FAD had primarily diffuse and E4FAD compact plaques, while intraneuronal A β levels were comparable among the *APOE* genotypes. Biochemical measurements of total apoE and A β levels, combined with an

extraction method to isolate and identify the soluble, detergent and insoluble levels of apoE, A β , and oA β , revealed mechanistic interplay between the apoE isoforms and these defined species of A β . While total apoE4 levels were lower than apoE2 and apoE3, as previously demonstrated, of particular importance is the novel finding that the decreased levels of total apoE4 occur only in the TBSX extraction fraction, demonstrating that less apoE4 is lipoprotein-associated, and perhaps apoE4 is less lipidated, compared with apoE2 and apoE3. In addition, the levels of soluble A β 42 and oA β are higher with apoE4.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

EFAD mice development

Experiments follow the UIC Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee protocols. All breeding and colony maintenance was conducted at Taconic labs. 5xFAD mice co-express 5 FAD mutations (APP K670N/M671L + I716V + V717I and PS1 M146L + L286V) under the control of the neuron-specific mouse Thy-1 promoter (11). The 5xFAD line Tg6799 that produce the highest amount of A β and are heterozygous for the 5xFAD genes was provided by Dr. R. Vassar (Northwestern University). In apoE-TR mice, the coding region of the human *APOE* gene replaces that of the mouse *APOE* gene. Homozygous apoE-TR mice were purchased from Taconic in collaboration with Dr. P. Sullivan (Duke University)(9,43). Details on the production, genotyping, and genetic background of these mice are described in the above papers.

To establish colonies of EFAD mouse lines (E2FAD, E3FAD and E4FAD), 5xFAD mice were bred to homozygous APOE2-, APOE3- and APOE4-TR mice by Taconic labs. Briefly, male APOE-TR^{+/+} mice on a C57/B6 background were bred with female 5xFAD^{+/-} mice on a C57B//B6xSJL background. The resulting female mouse-APOE/APOE-TR/5xFAD^{+/-} mice were backcrossed with male APOE-TR mice to generate APOE-TR^{+/+}/5xFAD^{+/-} (EFAD) mice. In this study male EFAD mice were utilized. Female mice were excluded from this initial study for consistency, as apoE isoform-specific interaction with A β are known to be influenced by gender (for review

(44)). In EFAD mice, the levels of full-length APP were equivalent among the *APOE* genotypes (Supplementary Figure 1). This suggests that any observed *APOE* genotype-specific differences in A β accumulation are not mediated by altered APP expression or processing. These results are consistent with results from the PDAPP/apoE-TR mice (3) and J20/APOE ϵ KI (45) where no significant differences in APP levels were observed with *APOE* genotype.

Tissue Harvesting

2, 4 and 6 month old mice were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (50mg/kg) and transcardially perfused with ice-cold PBS containing protease inhibitors (Calbiochem, set 3). Directly following perfusion, brains were removed and dissected at the midline. Left hemi-brains from mice at each age were drop-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 48 h followed by storage at 4°C in PBS + 0.05% sodium azide (NaN₃) until use. Right hemi-brains were dissected on ice into cortex (CX), hippocampus (H) and cerebellum (CB), immediately snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C until use.

Immunohistochemistry for A β

PFA-fixed left hemi-brains were incubated in two sequential 30% sucrose solutions (in TBS) for 24 h each, frozen on dry ice, cut sagittally at 35 μ m thickness on a sliding microtome and sections were stored in cryoprotectant at -20°C. Immediately prior to staining, tissue sections were washed in TBS (3 x 10 min), incubated in 88% formic acid (FA) (8 min), permeabilized with 0.25% Triton X-100 in TBS (TBST; 3 x 10 min) and blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA) in TBST for 1hr. Free-floating sections were subsequently incubated with an anti-A β antibody MOAB-2 (mouse IgG_{2b}, 1:1000 dilution of 0.5mg/ml stock (25)) and an anti-NeuN antibody (mouse IgG₁, 1:1000 dilution, Chemicon) diluted in TBST, containing 2% BSA overnight on an oscillatory rotator. Next, sections were washed in TBST (6 x 10 min), incubated with Alexa fluorophore-conjugated isotype specific secondary antibodies diluted 1:200 in TBST containing 2% BSA for 1 h, washed in TBST (3 x 10 min), washed in TBS (3 x 10 min), and mounted on glass coverslips with ProLong

Gold antifade mounting media containing DAPI (Invitrogen). Images were captured on a Zeiss Axio Imager M1 under identical capture settings, at 20x or 63x magnification.

Protein Extractions

Serial extractions of brain tissue were performed essentially as described (42). Briefly, frozen tissue from dissected brains was homogenized in 15 volumes (w/v) of TBS. Samples were centrifuged (100,000xg, 1 h at 4°C) and the TBS-soluble fraction was aliquoted prior to freezing in liquid nitrogen and storage at -80°C. The pellet was washed in TBS, resuspended in 15 volumes of TBS buffer containing 1% Triton X-100 (TBSX) and mixed gently by rotation at 4°C for 30 min. Samples were centrifuged (100,000xg, 1 h at 4°C) and the TBSX-soluble fraction was aliquoted and frozen as for TBS. The pellet was washed with TBSX, resuspended in 70% FA to 150mg/ml based on pellet weight and mixed by rotation at room temperature for 2 h with occasional vortexing. Samples were centrifuged (100,000xg 1 h at 4°C), the FA-soluble fraction neutralized (with 20 volumes 1M Tris base), aliquoted and frozen at -80°C. Total protein content in TBS- and TBSX-extractions was determined via colorimetric micro-BCA assay per manufacturer's instructions (Thermo-Scientific). Due to interference of Tris and FA with the BCA assay, total protein in FA-extractions was determined via Quick Start Bradford Protein micro-Assay.

ELISAs

ApoE and A β 42: ApoE levels were determined as previously described (42), using apoE2, E3 and E4 standards (Calbiochem) (0-100 ng/well). Briefly, apoE was measured using anti-apoE (WuE4) capture antibody, anti-apoE detection antibody (Calbiochem) and an HRP-conjugated secondary antibody. Initially A β 42 levels were measured in hippocampal extractions from 2, 4 and 6 month old mice (Figure 1) using Wako ELISA kits as previously described (42). All subsequent A β 42 ELISAs used HJ7.4 as the capture antibody, biotinylated antibody HJ5.1 as the detection antibody and streptavidin-poly-HRP-conjugated secondary antibody, provided by Dr. D. Holtzman (Washington University) (2). For

apoE and A β 42 ELISAs, protein/peptide standards were reconstituted in TBS, TBSX or FA at concentrations equivalent to those in the assayed samples, as appropriate. All data were normalized to the amount of total protein in each extraction sample. For Figures 5, total A β or apoE levels in each extraction fraction (i.e. TBS + TBSX + FA) were divided by total protein in each fraction. **Oligomeric A β (oA β):** oA β levels were determined based on a modified protocol by Xia and co-workers (24), using the A β antibody MOAB-2 (25). MOAB-2 was developed in the LaDu laboratory and is a high-affinity antibody specific for A β that does not detect APP. For the oA β ELISA, MOAB-2 was used as a capture antibody and biotinylated-MOAB-2 as a detection antibody, based on a previous protocol (46). This ELISA pairing detects synthetic oA β preparations but not monomeric A β using preparations of oA β optimized for the original protocol (data not shown; (46)). These oA β preparations were used as a standard for measuring soluble oA β levels in EFAD mice. In addition, the MOAB-2-based oA β 42 ELISA detects oligomeric but not monomeric A β 42 using synthetic preparations previously characterized by our lab (data not shown; (47,48)).

Thioflavin-S Staining for Plaques

Thio-S plaque staining and quantification was conducted by an investigator blinded to *APOE* genotype using every 9th tissue section for 6 consecutive sections, beginning with the lateral-most section in the region of interest (ROI). Sections were washed in TBS (6 x 5 min), mounted on glass coverslips, allowed to dry, rehydrated in Milli-Q water for 2 min and stained in 0.1% Thio-S (dissolved in 50% EtOH + 50% 1 x PBS) for 5 min in the dark. Tissue was destained in 80% EtOH (2 x 5 min) in the dark and mounted with VectaShield fluorescence mounting media. Quantification of plaque deposition was performed as described (49). Briefly, images were captured on a NanoZoomer slide scanner (Hamamatsu Photonics), exported with NDP viewer software (Hamamatsu Photonics) and converted to 8-bit grayscale using ACDSee Pro 2 software (ACD Systems). Converted images were thresholded to highlight plaques and to diminish background signal (all images were thresholded at the same

value). Identified objects after thresholding were individually inspected to confirm the object as a plaque. The subiculum and frontal cortex in each image were then outlined and analysed with the “Analyse Particles” function in NIH ImageJ software. Plaques were evaluated for total number and % area covered (total Thio-S immunoreactivity/ROI). Because plaques smaller than 5.5µm were not readily distinguished from background Thio-S fluorescence, limits were set in the ImageJ software such that all plaques greater than 5.5µm were included, and plaques smaller than 5.5µm were excluded.

Plaque Morphology

Preliminary analysis using tissue from EFAD mice indicated that plaques were of three major classifications, consistent with previous descriptions (16,50): 1) Diffuse = no center and weak Thio-S staining with a wispy morphology; 2) Dense-core with halos = obvious center that stains brightly with Thio-S, and a surrounding halo of weakly stained fibrils; 3) Compact = dense-core plaques stain very brightly with Thio-S, appear almost spherical, are generally smaller than plaques with halos and have no obvious halo of fibrils. Quantification of plaque morphology was carried out using every 18th section of subiculum for three consecutive sections as described, using an NIH ImageJ Plugin for a counting application. Total numbers of each plaque type were expressed as a percentage of total plaques counted for each mouse.

Intraneuronal Aβ Counts

The number of neurons containing intraneuronal Aβ was determined using unbiased stereology (51), counted by an investigator blinded to *APOE* genotype using sections immunostained with MOAB-2 (for Aβ) and NeuN. Briefly, every 9th tissue section for 6 consecutive sections was counted beginning with the lateral-most section in which the ROI was first identified. The ROI (subiculum, frontal cortex or CA3) was outlined at 10x magnification using the NeuN fluorescence channel. An optical fractionator design was then used for systematic random sampling of the entire ROI, to make unbiased estimates of total neuronal counts using a three-dimensional optical dissector counting probe. Parameters assume an average

mounted tissue thickness of 25µm (to account for tissue shrinkage) with 5µm guard zones, a counting frame size of 200µm x 200µm and an SRS grid size of 300µm x 300µm. Neurons were counted by moving through the entire depth of tissue in both the Aβ and NeuN fluorescence channels at each count site, to ensure the accuracy of intraneuronal Aβ counts (to disqualify extracellular Aβ and/or nonspecific signal). The number of Aβ-containing neurons was calculated by the stereology software based on the above parameters and the measured volume of each ROI, and expressed as the number of neurons per mm³ of tissue.

Western Blots

Total protein (17.5µg) from TBSX-extracted EFAD cortex was run on 12% Bis-Tris SDS-PAGE gels and transferred to 0.2µm PVDF membrane, followed by overnight incubation in primary antibodies against N-terminal APP (1:2500, Invitrogen) or β-actin as a loading control (1:10,000, Invitrogen). Membranes were washed, incubated in HRP-conjugated secondary antibody raised against mouse IgG, developed with super ECL reagent (Pierce), and exposed using Kodak ImageStation MI software.

Statistical Analyses

Data were analysed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey’s post-hoc analysis (Figure 1B and Figure 6), or by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc analysis (all other figures) using GraphPad Prism version 4 for Macintosh. $p < 0.05$ was considered significant.

RESULTS

Human *APOE* genotype-specific delay of Aβ accumulation in 5xFAD mice: EFAD transgenic mice

EFAD mice were developed by crossing 5xFAD mice with the three strains of human apoE-TR mice, resulting in E2FAD, E3FAD and E4FAD mice. Given the abundant Aβ pathology in 5xFAD mice at 2 months (11), total Aβ deposition was examined in 2, 4 and 6 month EFAD mice by IHC using the monoclonal anti-Aβ antibody MOAB-2 (Figure 1A), a new anti-Aβ antibody

that does not recognize full length or soluble APP fragments (25). The overall regional pattern of A β accumulation in the brain was similar among the 5xFAD and EFAD mice, with no *APOE* genotype-specific changes. A β accumulation appeared first in the subiculum of the hippocampal formation and in the deep layers of the frontal cortex, spreading to the outer layers of the cortex and CA1 region of the hippocampus. Consistent with previous reports (11), 5xFAD mice (expressing endogenous mouse apoE) show extracellular A β deposition as early as 2 months that increased with age from 2 to 6 months (Figure 1A). Compared to 5xFAD mice, A β deposition is delayed ~4 months in the EFAD mice, with accumulation earliest in E4FAD > E3FAD = E2FAD. A β accumulation appeared earlier and was greater in the subiculum compared to the frontal cortex, allowing for regional, as well as temporal, comparisons of the effects of *APOE* genotype on the progression of A β accumulation.

To confirm the difference in total A β accumulation observed by IHC between 5xFAD and EFAD mice, and among the *APOE* genotypes in the EFAD mice, A β 42 levels were measured in brain homogenates at 6 months by an A β 42-specific ELISA (Figure 1B). Consistent with the A β accumulation detected by IHC, the levels of total A β 42 were higher in 5xFAD compared to EFAD mice. A β 42 levels were highest in E4FAD compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. EFAD mice demonstrate *APOE* genotype-dependent changes in A β accumulation that are significant in mice aged 2 to 6 months, thus providing a tractable model.

Plaque deposition is greatest in E4FAD, an effect modulated by brain region and *APOE* genotype-specific plaque morphology

Although amyloid plaques may not correlate directly with cognitive decline in AD patients (52), they remain a key determinant in the diagnosis of AD. Importantly, *APOE4* is associated with higher plaque burden than *APOE2* and *APOE3* (53). Therefore, the effect of *APOE* genotype on amyloid plaque burden in the EFAD mice was determined using Thio-S, a stain specific for parallel β -sheet structure (Figure 2). Representative images from 2, 4 and 6 month EFAD mice demonstrate Thio-S staining initiates

at 4 months in the subiculum and deep layers of the frontal cortex (Figure 2A) and is increased by 6 months for all *APOE* genotypes, a pattern consistent with IHC for total A β (Figure 1A). These data were quantified to determine the number and percent area covered by plaques (frontal cortex-Figure 2B; subiculum-Figure 2C); measures that produced equivalent differences among the *APOE* genotypes. Overall, plaque deposition was greatest in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice, significant at 4 months in the frontal cortex and subiculum, and at 6 months in the frontal cortex.

It is interesting to note that at 6 months in the subiculum, plaque levels in both E2FAD and E4FAD are significantly higher than E3FAD (Figure 2C). Recent reports from the “oldest-of-the-old” studies demonstrate significant plaque burden in the absence of cognitive deficits in *APOE2* subjects (54,55). Importantly, in a case study of an *APOE2/2* subject, plaque morphology was described as fleecy/diffuse compared to the compact/dense-cored morphology of *APOE4* AD patients (15). Based on this potential difference in plaque morphology between the E2FAD and E4FAD mice, plaques in the subiculum (4 and 6 months) were classified and quantified according to the following scale: 1) “Diffuse” = no obvious dense-core; 2) “Dense-cored with halos” = an obvious center with a halo of fibrils; 3) “Compact” = dense-cored plaques that appear spherical (Figure 2D). The majority of the plaques in EFAD mice were either diffuse (1) or compact (3) and this distribution in plaque morphology did not change with age (Figure 2E). In E2FAD and E3FAD mice the majority of plaques were diffuse, accounting for more than 50% of total plaques, while diffuse plaques were significantly lower in E4FAD mice (e.g. 30% at 6 months). The reverse pattern was observed with compact plaques; ~20% of the plaques in E2FAD and E3FAD were compact, while 40-50% of plaques in E4FAD were compact. In addition, from 4 to 6 months, the proportion of diffuse plaques decreased and that of compact plaques increased only in the E4FAD mice (Figure 2E). This trend suggest that *APOE2* and *APOE3* may maintain plaques in a diffuse morphology, whereas *APOE4* facilitates compact plaque formation, the plaque morphology traditionally associated with AD pathology (15).

Intraneuronal A β levels are comparable among the *APOE* genotypes

Intraneuronal A β has been observed prior to extracellular plaques in human AD tissue and in mouse models, and has been linked to neurotoxicity (56,57). As previously described, MOAB-2 is an anti-A β antibody that specifically detects A β , but not APP. MOAB-2 demonstrated strong intraneuronal immunoreactivity in 5xFAD and 3xTg mouse brain tissue that preceded extracellular A β deposition (25). To accurately measure the extent of intracellular A β accumulation without the confounding contribution of extracellular A β deposition, the total number of A β -containing neurons were counted in the frontal cortex (Figure 3A for a representative image and B for quantification) and subiculum (Figure 3C) at 2 and 4 months, and the CA3 region of the hippocampus (Figure 3D) at 4 and 6 months using IHC with MOAB-2 and unbiased stereological methods. The number of A β -containing neurons increased significantly with time in all three-brain regions (Figure 3B, C and D). However, there were no significant *APOE* genotype-specific differences in the total number of A β -containing neurons in any region analysed.

Total apoE levels are lower and total A β 42 levels are higher in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD

Total apoE (Figure 4A) and A β 42 (Figure 4B) levels in 2, 4 and 6-month EFAD mice were measured by ELISAs in the cerebellum (a brain region resistant to A β pathology) and the cortex and hippocampus (regions susceptible to A β pathology). For IHC, the subiculum was specifically analysed, as it was the region of the hippocampus with the greatest A β accumulation. However, for biochemical measurements, it was necessary to homogenize the entire hippocampus, thus “diluting” the subiculum-specific A β 42 accumulation, although hippocampal A β levels remained significantly higher than cortex, as observed with IHC. In general, total apoE4 levels are lower than apoE2 and apoE3, across age and brain region (Figure 4A). Specifically, apoE4 levels are significantly lower than apoE2 and apoE3 in the cerebellum at 4 months, in the cortex at 2, 4, and 6 months, and in the hippocampus at 2 and 4 months old (for specific comparisons, see

Figure 4A). Previous publications in humans and mice report lower apoE4 levels compared to apoE3; though little data are published that compare apoE4 levels with apoE2 (3,26,33-35,58,59). Interestingly, total apoE levels in the EFAD mice were lowest in the cerebellum, significantly higher in the cortex, and highest in the hippocampus (Figure 4A; dashed line marks mean the data collapsed by genotype and age within a region, $p < 0.001$). In addition, apoE levels did not change in response to age, thus there was no *APOE* genotype-specific response to increasing A β accumulation (Figure 4B).

In the cortex and hippocampus, total A β 42 levels increased with age in an *APOE* genotype-specific manner (Figure 4B). In the cortex, A β 42 levels were generally low at 2 months but increased significantly by 4 months such that: E4FAD > E3FAD = E2FAD. It is interesting to note that at 6 months, the levels of A β 42 in E2FAD and E4FAD were both significantly higher than E3FAD. In the hippocampus, A β 42 levels were low at 2 months but increased significantly by 4 and 6 months such that: E4FAD > E3FAD = E2FAD. The A β 42 levels in the cerebellum were below detection until 6 months, when the values were low and equivalent among the genotypes (Figure 4B). As observed for apoE, A β 42 levels were lowest in the cerebellum, higher in the cortex, and highest in the hippocampus (Figure 4B, $p < 0.001$; note the Y-axis values change for cerebellum and cortex vs. hippocampus). These data in the EFAD mice from 2 to 6 months for total A β 42 levels are consistent with A β immunoreactivity (Figure 1A) and Thio-S staining (Figure 2), demonstrating the earliest accumulation of A β in the subiculum followed by the deep layers of the frontal cortex.

In summary, total apoE and A β 42 levels follow a similar pattern of brain region-dependent accumulation that initiates in the subiculum and the deep layers of the frontal cortex. Total apoE levels do not change in response to age (2-6 months), although apoE4 levels were generally lower than apoE2 and apoE3 at each age and in each brain region. Total A β 42 levels increase with age in disease susceptible regions, and are generally higher with apoE4 compared with apoE2 and apoE3. Thus, *APOE4* promotes A β accumulation in the hippocampus (subiculum) and

cortex, demonstrated by IHC (Figures 1A), Thio-S staining (Figure 2A) and biochemical analysis (Figure 4).

The lower levels of total apoE4 are the result of a decrease only in the TBSX extraction fraction

Previously, a 3-step extraction protocol was optimized for the detection of apoE and A β in the presence of increasing amyloid deposition, particularly focusing on the full extraction of insoluble apoE and A β 42 with FA, as plaques in the 5xFAD mice are primarily compact/dense-core (42). Thus, this protocol is a sequential protein extraction in TBS (“soluble”), TBSX (“detergent soluble”) and FA (“insoluble”). Figure 5 depicts the extraction profiles for apoE (Figure 5A) and A β 42 (Figure 5B) from the hippocampus of 2-, 4- and 6-month EFAD mice, as this is the region with the earliest signs of A β accumulation (Figures 1, 2 and 4B). In the TBS-soluble fraction, apoE levels did not differ with age or by *APOE* genotype (Figure 5A). ApoE2 and apoE3 extracted primarily to the TBSX fraction, while apoE4 levels were significantly lower in this fraction at 2, 4 and 6 months. In the FA fraction, apoE levels increased from 4 to 6 months with all *APOE* genotypes, consistent with the increase in amyloid plaques (53). The lower total apoE4 levels, compared with total apoE2 and apoE3 (Figure 4A), were reflected primarily in the TBSX fraction of the extraction profile (Figure 5A). Further, the distribution of apoE across the extraction profiles reveals that the proportion of apoE4 in the TBSX fraction is specifically lower in the brain regions susceptible to A β pathology (cortex and hippocampus) and not in a region resistant to A β pathology (cerebellum) (data not shown). Thus, using an entirely different approach from previous reports, these data provide evidence that the levels of lipoprotein-associated apoE4 are lower than apoE2 and apoE3.

In AD patients, soluble A β levels in the brain correlate with disease severity (52). In EFAD mice, A β 42 increased with age in the TBS-soluble fractions from 2 to 6 months (Figure 5B). At 4 and 6 months, TBS-soluble A β 42 levels were significantly higher in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. Indeed, at 6 months, A β levels in the E4FAD mice were at least 4-fold higher than E2FAD or E3FAD mice.

In the TBSX fractions, A β 42 did not change significantly with age or *APOE* genotype. FA-extracted A β 42 levels increased with age for all *APOE* genotypes and were significantly higher in E4FAD mice at 4 and 6 months compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice (Figure 5B). At 6 months, the A β 42 levels in the FA fraction of the E4FAD mice were at least 4-fold higher than E2FAD or E3FAD mice, comparable to the difference in the A β 42 levels in the TBS fraction. The high levels of A β 42 in the FA fraction of the hippocampus of E4FAD mice is consistent with total A β 42 levels (Figure 4B), as well as the increased A β immunoreactivity (Figure 1A) and Thio-S staining (Figure 2) in the subiculum of the E4FAD mice.

Soluble A β 42 and soluble oligomeric A β levels are higher in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice

Soluble A β 42 and soluble oA β are increased in AD patients and are considered important for AD progression (52). However, the effect of *APOE* genotype on these species remains unclear. Therefore, soluble apoE, A β 42, and oA β were compared in 6-month EFAD mice (Figure 6). Soluble apoE levels were comparable in the cortex (Figure 6A) and hippocampus (Figure 6B), and did not vary significantly by *APOE* genotype. Therefore, any differences observed in A β speciation are likely mediated by differences in the function rather than the amount of each apoE isoform. Soluble A β 42 levels were higher in the hippocampus than the cortex in EFAD mice (Figure 6), consistent with early A β accumulation in this region. Further, in both the hippocampus and cortex, soluble A β 42 levels were 2-fold higher in the cortex and 3-fold higher in the hippocampus of E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. An ELISA for measuring oA β was developed using MOAB-2, based on the protocol developed by Xia and co-workers ((24), see details in Methods section). As with soluble A β 42, oA β levels were higher in the hippocampus than the cortex. In E4FAD mice, oA β levels were ~2-fold higher in the cortex and 3-fold higher in the hippocampus compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. Thus, A β preferentially accumulates as soluble and oligomeric forms in the presence of *APOE4* and, comparing cortex to hippocampus,

these soluble species of A β appear to increase with the accumulation of total A β . Overall, these data demonstrate that *APOE* genotype modulates A β speciation, an effect likely mediated by functional differences among the apoE-isoforms.

DISCUSSION

In currently available apoE/FAD-Tg mouse models, expression of human *APOE* significantly delays plaque deposition (for review (44)). To generate a more tractable model to investigate the apoE isoform effect on A β accumulation, 5xFAD mice (11) were crossed with apoE-TR mice (9) to produce the EFAD mouse model. In 5xFAD mice, neurons produce primarily human A β 42, and show early and aggressive A β 42 deposition, with significant intraneuronal A β accumulation at 6 weeks, significant plaque deposition at 2 months and subtle changes in synaptic markers at 9 months. ApoE-TR mice are perhaps the most biologically-relevant transgenic mouse model for apoE, as human apoE is expressed primarily by glia at physiologically regulated levels. In EFAD mice, A β deposition is delayed ~4 months compared to 5xFAD mice, creating a window from 2 to 6 months during which comparisons of multiple forms of A β accumulation can be measured, though still early in the overall process of A β accumulation in either the hippocampus or the cortex. Compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice, E4FAD mice consistently demonstrated accelerated A β accumulation, greater total levels of A β 42, and selective increases in soluble A β 42 and oA β levels. Interestingly, rather than simply delaying A β accumulation relative to E3FAD, E2FAD mice displayed A β accumulation similar to E3FAD. The development of these mice will allow future studies to further probe specific mechanisms for the observed changes among the apoE isoforms, as well as apoE isoform-specific changes in A β accumulation.

Autosomal dominant mutations that increase either total A β , or specifically A β 42, cause FAD. However, the identity of the specific assembly(s) of A β 42 that causes the eventual neurotoxicity characteristic of AD remains unclear. Although total plaque burden does not correlate with the degree of dementia or neurodegenerative pathology in humans (52), plaque staging has

identified particular plaque morphologies that likely contribute to neurotoxicity more than others (15,16). Overall, E4FAD mice display the highest plaque load, as expected based on previous studies in humans and transgenic mice (for review (53)). The exception is that the plaque burden in E2FAD mice was equivalent to E4FAD mice in the subiculum at 6 months; the most affected region in the oldest mice studied. However, analysis of plaque morphology revealed that while the majority of the *APOE4* plaques are compact, the majority of the *APOE2* plaques are diffuse. This *APOE2*-induced deposition of diffuse plaques is novel in a mouse model and consistent with the previous work by Dr. C. Kawas and co-workers who reported that increased diffuse plaques are associated with *APOE2* in cognitively normal subjects compared to compact plaques in *APOE4* AD patients from the “Oldest of the old” study (54,55).

The structural properties and composition of different plaque types may correspond to functional differences. A renewed interest in the pathological role of plaques has suggested that oA β species accumulate at the periphery of dense-core plaques (60,61) and that compact plaques enhance A β -toxicity indirectly by creating a platform on which toxic oA β species can accumulate or stabilize. This effect would be enhanced with *APOE4*, as it is associated with a larger proportion of compact plaques. Diffuse plaques may prevent A β -induced toxicity by depriving soluble oA β of a stable foundation. Determining the effect of *APOE* genotype on the origins, structural characteristics and neurotoxicity of these different plaque types in EFAD mice is a crucial next step.

In addition to plaque morphology, recent evidence indicates that intraneuronal A β accumulation may be an important proximal neurotoxic event in AD pathogenesis (for review (56,57)). Indeed, intraneuronal A β has been correlated with cognitive deficits in FAD-Tg mice. However, even the existence of A β deposits within neurons has recently been challenged by Winton and co-workers (62). These authors purport that it is actually intraneuronal APP being detected by antibodies thought to be specific for A β . MOAB-2 is an anti-A β antibody that does not detect APP (25). MOAB-2 demonstrates strong intraneuronal

immunoreactivity in 5xFAD and 3xTg mouse brain tissue that precedes extracellular A β deposition. The current study represents one of the first reports of the effects of *APOE* genotype on intraneuronal A β in an FAD-Tg mouse model. Using MOAB-2, the accumulation of intraneuronal A β was comparable between the isoforms in a specific region at a given age but accumulation increased significantly with age and varied with the AD-susceptibility of the brain region. These data are in apparent contrast with data from a single study in humans that reported an increase in intraneuronal A β with 1 or 2 alleles of *APOE4* (63). However, this human study measured A β 40 while the EFAD mice express almost exclusively A β 42; one possible explanation for the discrepancy. To our knowledge, no studies have yet reported the effect of *APOE* genotype on intraneuronal A β accumulation in an apoE/FAD-Tg mouse.

In E4FAD mice, total apoE levels in the brain are lower compared with E2FAD and E3FAD, as previously observed in human and apoE-Tg mouse models (35-41). With TBS, TBSX and FA extraction, apoE2 and apoE3 from the EFAD mouse tissue extract primarily to the TBSX fraction, consistent with the extraction of apoE-containing lipoproteins from plasma. However, the lower total apoE4 levels are reflected only in their significant reduction in the TBSX fraction, as the levels of apoE2, apoE3 and apoE4 are comparable in the TBS- and FA-extracted fractions. Further, this apoE4-specific distribution appears to occur in the hippocampus and cortex, AD-susceptible brain regions, and not the cerebellum, a disease-resistant region. Because the TBSX fraction contains the apoE extracted specifically from lipoprotein particles, potential interpretations of these data are that less apoE4 is lipoprotein-associated and/or apoE4-containing lipoproteins are less lipidated. Although a substantial amount of research has been devoted to understanding the functional differences between lipidated and non-lipidated apoE, including its ability to bind A β (64-69) or apoE receptors (69-72), surprisingly little is known about the effect of apoE-isoform on the lipidation state of CNS-relevant lipoproteins. Although general dogma in the field is that apoE4 is less lipidated than apoE3, the number of publications that compare the lipidation state of

apoE4-particles to apoE3-particles *in vivo* is severely limited. Relevant *in vitro* data include, for example, the results that glial-mediated degradation of apoE4 is increased and cholesterol release is reduced in primary glial cultures from apoE-TR mice expressing apoE4, compared to glial cells expressing apoE3 (73) (39). Thus, the extraction profiles for the apoE isoforms, as presented in this manuscript, will provide critical, novel information for interpreting results from AD therapeutics that target apoE levels and/or its level of lipidation (74-77).

The neurotoxicity of soluble oA β is of interest because of the apparent correlation of oA β levels with disease severity: soluble oligomers correlate with cognitive decline (MMSE scores) and tangle stage (20). In FAD-Tg mice, soluble oA β suppresses synaptic function, reduces synaptic plasticity and impairs learning and memory (52). Prior work from our lab demonstrates that oA β -induced deficits in synaptic plasticity (78) and neuronal viability (79) are enhanced in the presence of *APOE4* compared with *APOE2* and *APOE3*. The current work illustrates that soluble A β 42 and oA β levels are increased in the TBS-soluble fractions of the disease-vulnerable cortex and hippocampus in the E4FAD mice, and the preferential accumulation of A β 42 results in an increase in both oA β and plaques. As discussed above, the *APOE4*-specific increase in compact plaques formation may provide a platform for the assembly of oA β .

The apoE isoform-specific effects on soluble species of A β continues to be the focus of extensive research efforts, and a number of potential molecular mechanisms have been proposed. These include effects on: A β oligomerization (80,81), A β clearance through multiple mechanisms including intracellular uptake and degradation by glia (82-85) and neurons (86,87), clearance across the BBB (88,89), extracellular enzymatic degradation (64), ISF-mediated clearance (90), and perivascular drainage (91), in addition to the potential interplay between plaque morphology, apoE and oA β levels (for example (92)). Further, whether these effects are mediated by direct binding of A β to apoE (68) or by apoE-specific pathways and receptors add further layers of complexity (76).

Modulating the levels of apoE is an attractive target for AD therapy. Indeed, recent evidence demonstrated that bexarotene (BEX, an RXR agonist) increased apoE levels and decreased soluble A β in mice within hours and significantly reduced insoluble A β after three days, although plaque levels at 3 months were unchanged (76). However, application of these data to AD patients is difficult as this initial study used transgenic mice producing human A β but expressing mouse apoE. Therefore, it is important to demonstrate drug efficacy on A β pathology, and in particular A β speciation, in FAD-Tg mice that express the human apoE isoforms prior to clinical trial initiation. Although drug intervention trials have not yet been performed on the EFAD mice, these mice are a model of early A β pathology, express the human apoE isoforms, demonstrate apoE isoform-specific effects on early A β speciation and are thus an ideal model for efficient evaluation of drug therapies targeting apoE. In addition, initial therapeutic testing in a transgenic mouse expressing the human apoE isoforms is critical as *APOE4* carriers can exhibit a differential response to certain therapeutic interventions, complicating interpretation of drug trials that can lead to costly failure after extensive Phase 3 clinical trials (53).

In conclusion, EFAD mice represent a tractable new mouse model that allowed the identification of the *APOE* genotype effects on the earliest accumulations of A β (from 2 to 6 months). While *APOE* genotype-specific differences were observed in plaque deposition and morphology, intraneuronal A β deposition was not apoE isoform-specific. Compared with *APOE2* and *APOE3*, *APOE4* promoted higher levels of total A β 42, as well as soluble A β 42 and oA β . In addition, the levels of apoE4 are lower and less apoE4 appears to be lipoprotein-associated compared with apoE2 or apoE3. Thus, a number of apoE isoform-specific mechanisms were identified *in vivo* that likely contribute to the effect of *APOE* genotype on AD risk. EFAD mice can be used for further study of these mechanisms. These mice may also provide a model for the efficient evaluation of both AD drug prevention and treatment paradigms. The risk imparted by *APOE4* extends to other cerebral insults with amyloid deposition, including traumatic brain injury, cerebral haemorrhage, and stroke, suggesting that EFAD mice may also provide a model to assess a additional therapeutic strategies.

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FOOTNOTES

1 Abbreviations: AD, Alzheimer's disease; A β , amyloid- β ; apoE, apolipoprotein E; APP, amyloid precursor protein; FAD, familial-AD; FAD-Tg, transgenic mice expressing APP and/or PS1 with FAD mutations; apoE-TR, apoE targeted replacement mice; 5xFAD mice, mice expressing 5 FAD mutations; EFAD mice, 5xFAD mice crossed with apoE-TR mice; oA β , oligomeric A β ; Cx, cortex; H, hippocampus, CB, cerebellum; PFA, paraformaldehyde; TBSX, TBS containing 1% Triton X-100 FA, formic acid; Thio-S, thioflavin S.

FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Human *APOE* genotype-specific delay of A β accumulation in 5xFAD mice: EFAD transgenic mice. (A) Representative images of sagittal brain sections of 2, 4 and 6 month 5xFAD and EFAD mice immunostained for A β (red) and NeuN (green), 20x magnification (scale bar = 500 μ m). (B) Total A β 42 levels in the hippocampus of 6-month 5xFAD and EFAD mice measured by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc analysis. * p < 0.05 vs. m-apoE, # p < 0.05 vs. apoE2 and apoE3.

Figure 2. Plaque deposition is greatest in E4FAD, an effect modulated by brain region and *APOE* genotype-specific plaque morphology. (A) Representative images of sagittal brain sections from 2, 4 and 6 month EFAD mice stained with Thio-S (green), 20x magnification (scale bar = 500 μ m). Quantification of the number of plaques and % area covered by plaques in the (B) frontal cortex and (C) subiculum. (D) Plaque Morphology: representative images of the primary types of plaques in EFAD brain, 63x magnification: diffuse, dense-cored with halos, and compact (scale bar = 20 μ m). (E) Quantification of plaque morphology in subiculum: percentage of each plaque type in 4- and 6-month EFAD mice. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc analysis. * p < 0.05 vs. 2 or 4 months, # p < 0.05 vs. apoE2 and apoE3, $^{\$}$ p < 0.05 vs. apoE3.

Figure 3. Intraneuronal A β levels are comparable among the *APOE* genotypes. (A) Representative images of cortex in sagittal brain sections from 2 and 4 month EFAD mice immunostained for A β (red) and NeuN (green), 20x magnification (scale bar = 20 μ m). Total number of A β -containing neurons in the (B) frontal cortex at 2 and 4 months (C) subiculum at 2 and 4 months, and (D) CA3 at 4 and 6 months in EFAD mice counted via unbiased stereology. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc analysis. * p < 0.05 vs. 2 or 4 months.

Figure 4. Total apoE levels are lower and total A β 42 levels are higher in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. Total levels of (A) apoE and (B) A β 42 in the cerebellum (CB), hippocampus (H), and cortex (CX) of 2, 4 and 6 month EFAD mice measured by ELISA (nm = not measured). Dashed line marks the mean of apoE within the CB < CX < H ($p < 0.001$). Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc analysis. * $p < 0.05$ vs. 2 or 4 months, # $p < 0.05$ vs. apoE2 and apoE3, $^{\dagger}p < 0.05$ vs. apoE3.

Figure 5. The lower levels of total apoE4 are the result of a decrease only in the TBSX extraction fraction. Extraction profiles of (A) apoE and (B) A β 42 using a 3-step sequential protein extraction (TBS, TBSX and FA) in the hippocampus of 2, 4 and 6 month EFAD mice measured by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison post hoc analysis. * $p < 0.05$ vs. 2 or 4 months, # $p < 0.05$ vs. apoE2 and apoE3.

Figure 6: Soluble A β 42 and soluble oligomeric A β levels are higher in E4FAD mice compared with E2FAD and E3FAD mice. ApoE, A β 42, and oA β in the TBS/soluble extraction fraction of the (A) cortex and (B) hippocampus in 6-month EFAD mice measured by ELISA. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM and were analysed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison post-hoc analysis. # $p < 0.05$ vs. apoE2 and apoE3.

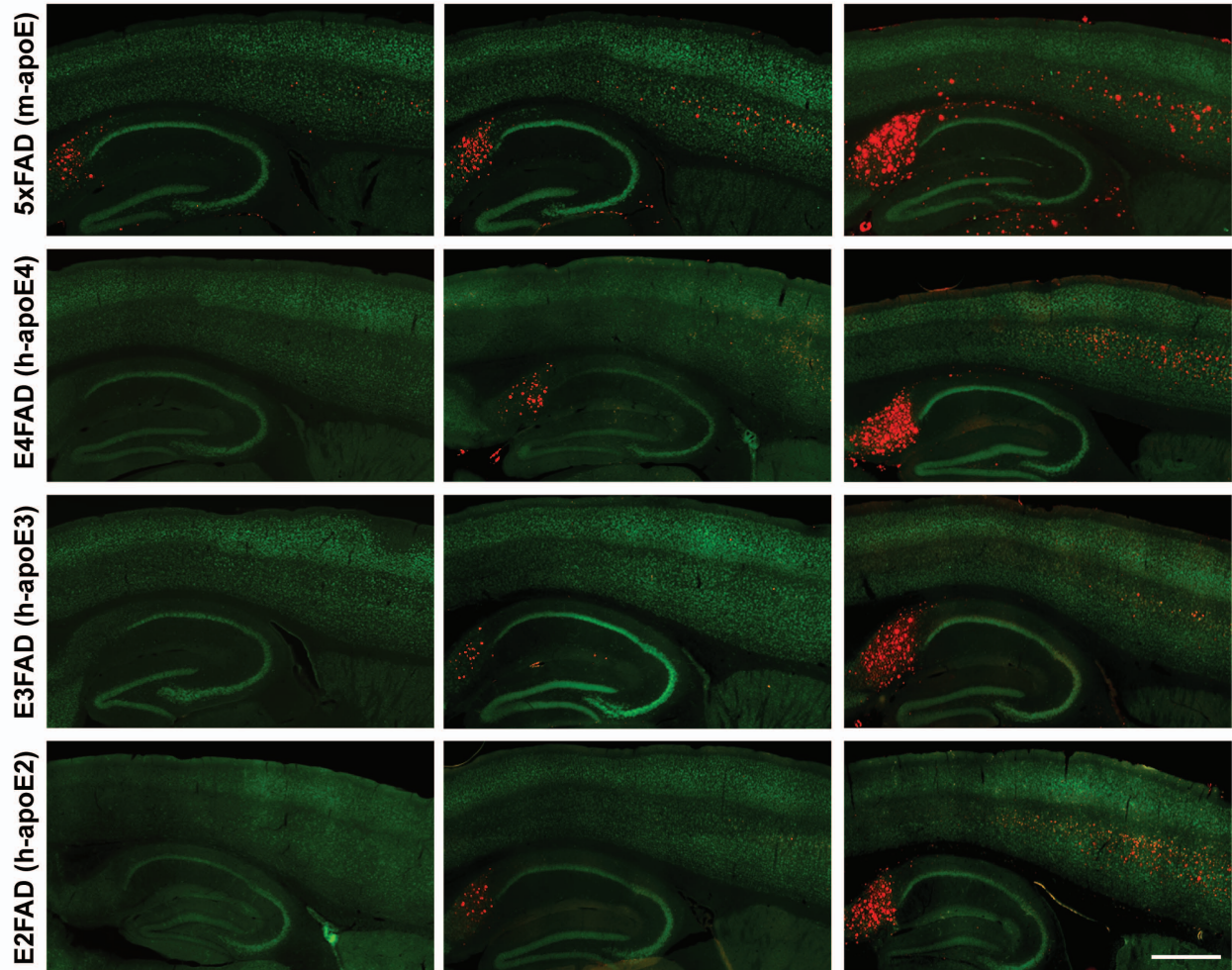
Figure 1

A. A β progression in 5xFAD and EFAD mice

2 month

4 month

6 month



B. Total A β 42 in hippocampus (6 months): 5xFAD vs EFAD

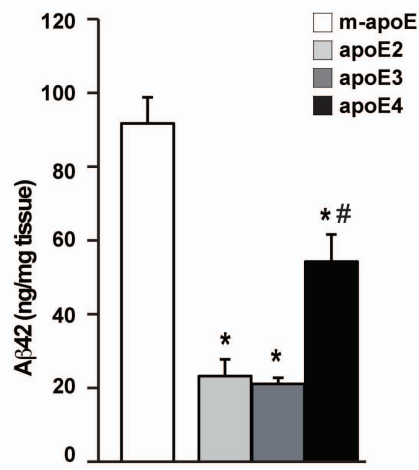
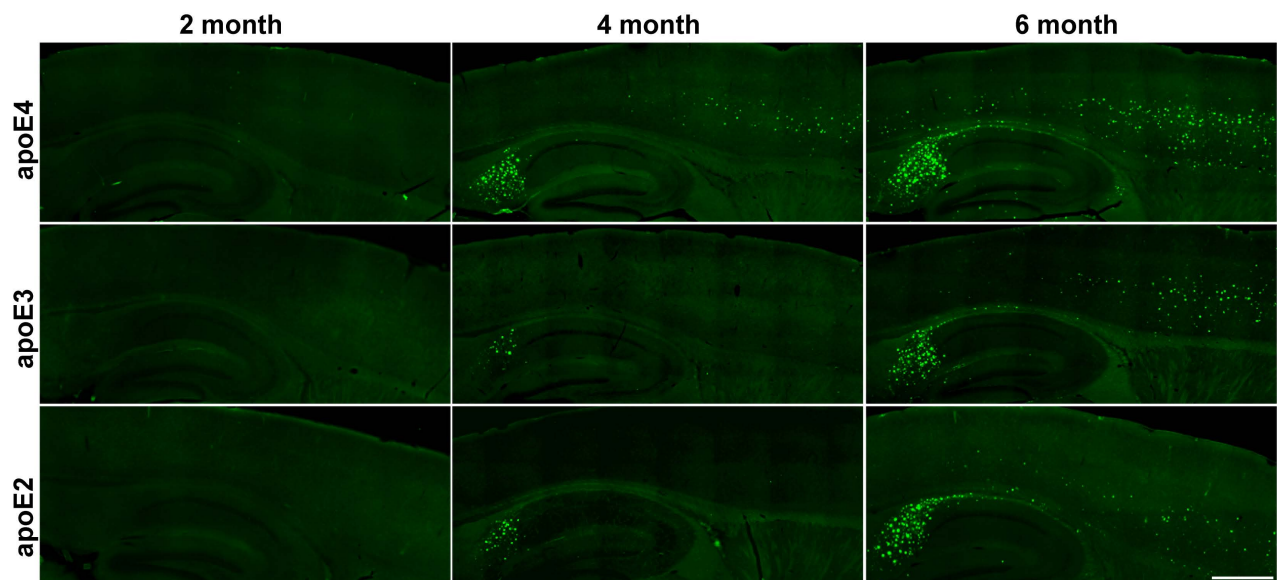
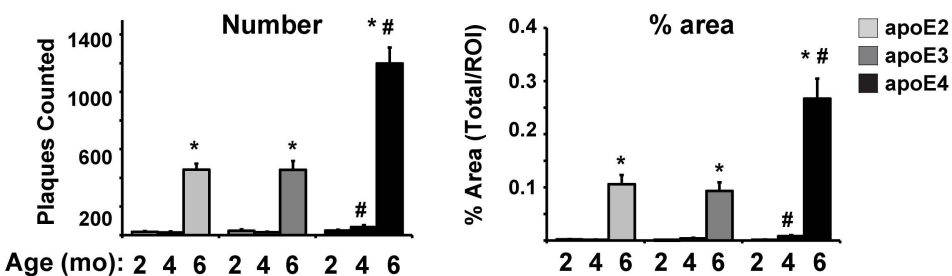


Figure 2

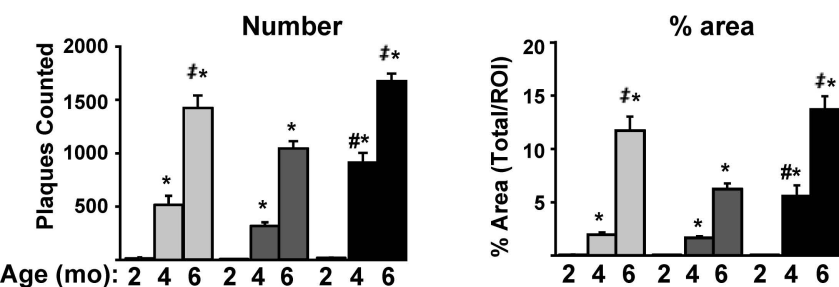
A. Plaque progression (overview)



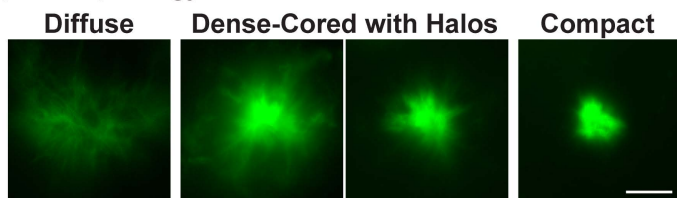
B. Frontal Cortex



C. Subiculum



D. Plaque morphology



E. Quantification of plaque morphology in subiculum

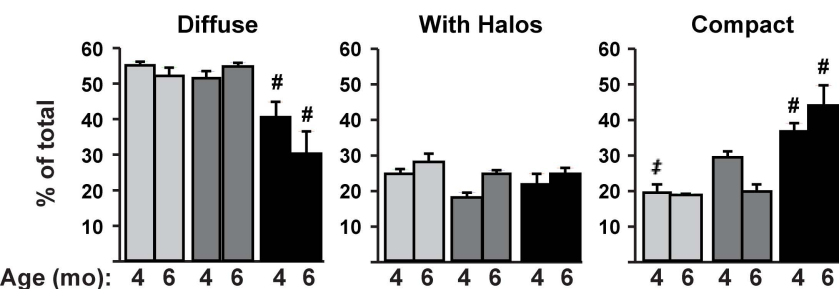
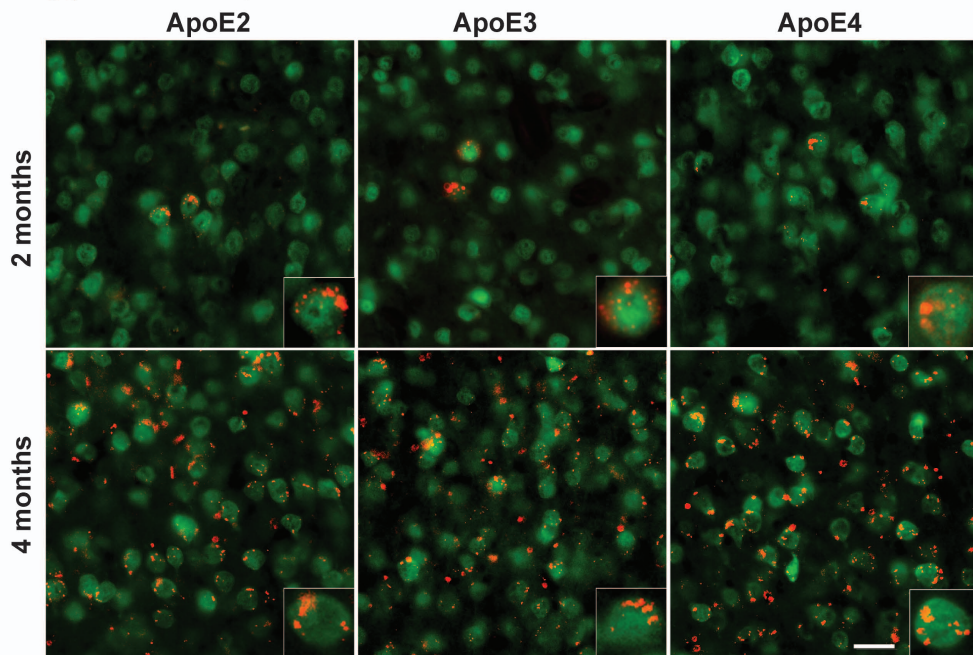


Figure 3

A. Intraneuronal A β (frontal cortex)



B. Frontal Cortex

C. Subiculum

D. CA3

apoE2
apoE3
apoE4

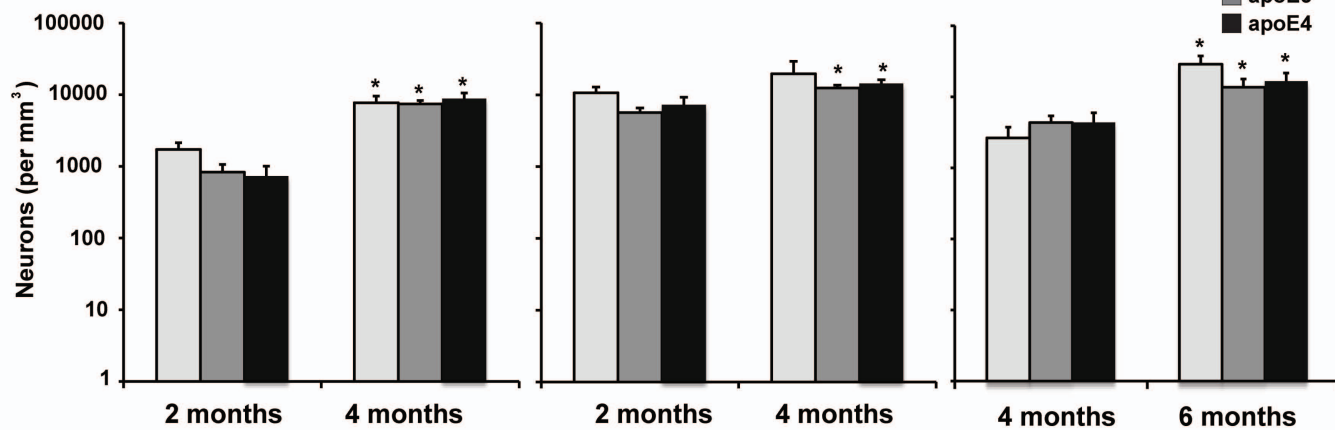
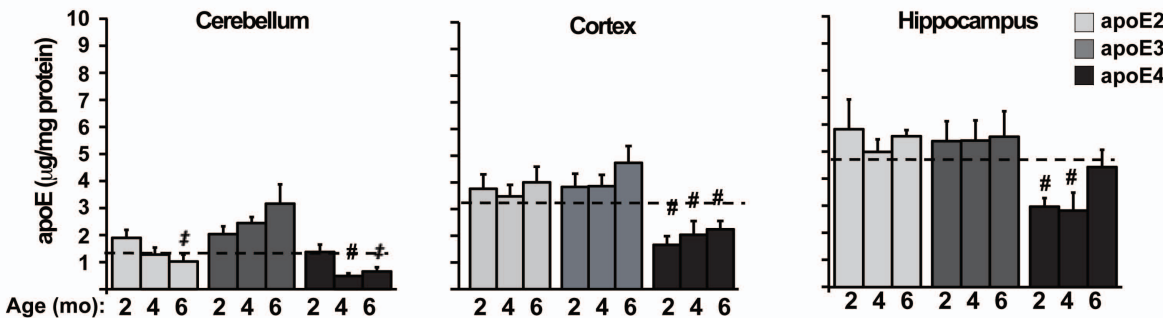


Figure 4

A. Total apoE



B. Total Aβ42

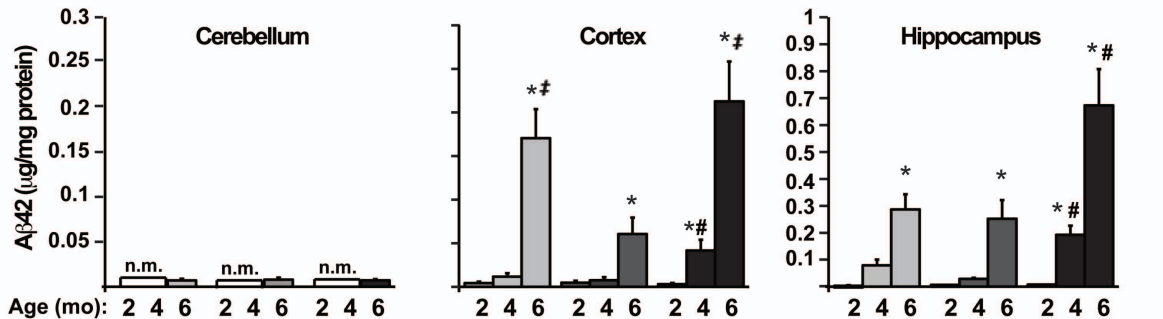


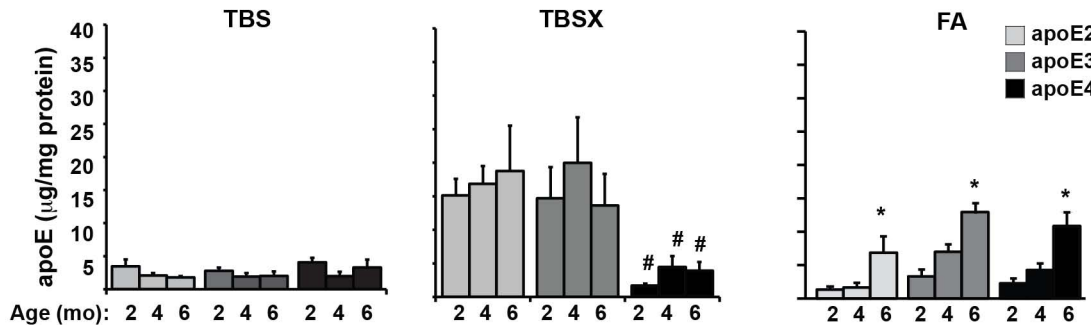
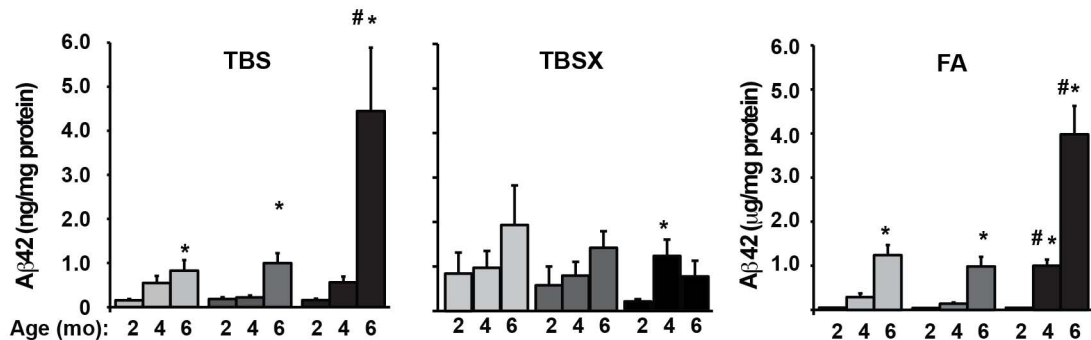
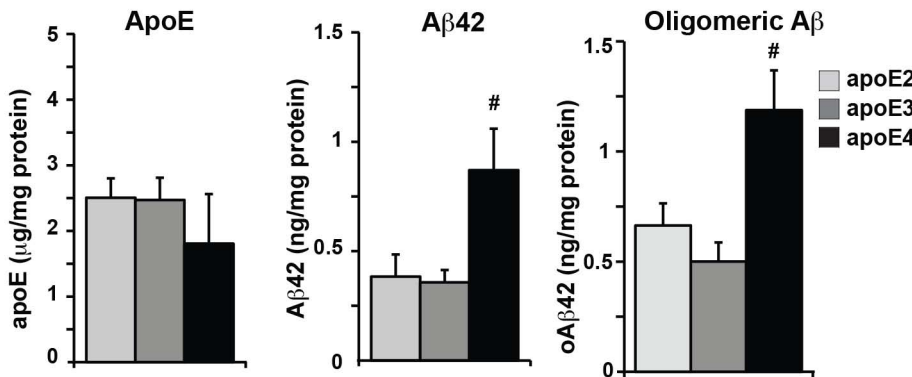
Figure 5**A. ApoE extraction profile (hippocampus)****B. A β 42 extraction profile (hippocampus)**

Figure 6

A. Cortex



B. Hippocampus

