Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

ELSEVIER



journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ynbdi

Neurobiology of Disease

Astrocytes and microglia but not neurons preferentially generate N-terminally truncated Aβ peptides



Timo Jan Oberstein ^a, Philipp Spitzer ^a, Hans-Wolfgang Klafki ^{a,b}, Philipp Linning ^c, Florian Neff ^{a,d}, Hans-Joachim Knölker ^c, Piotr Lewczuk ^a, Jens Wiltfang ^e, Johannes Kornhuber ^a, Juan Manuel Maler ^{a,*}

^a Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, Friedrich-Alexander-University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Schwabachanlage 6, D-91054 Erlangen, Germany

^b Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, LVR-Klinikum, Medical Faculty, University of Duisburg-Essen, D-45147 Essen, Germany

^c Department of Chemistry, Technische Universität Dresden, Bergstr. 66, D-01069 Dresden, Germany

^d II Medizinische Klinik, Klinikum rechts der Isar, Technische Universität München, Ismaningerstr 22, D-81675 Munich, Germany

e Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University Medical Center (UMG), Georg-August-University, D-37075 Göttingen, Germany

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 17 March 2014 Revised 5 August 2014 Accepted 31 August 2014 Available online 7 September 2014

Keywords: N-terminally truncated Aβ Alzheimer's disease Neurons Astrocytes Microglia Intracellular Extracellular BACE Secretase

ABSTRACT

The neuropathological hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease include extracellular neuritic plaques and neurofibrillary tangles. The neuritic plaques contain β -amyloid peptides (A β peptides) as the major proteinaceous constituent and are surrounded by activated microglia and astrocytes as well as dystrophic neurites. N-terminally truncated forms of AB peptides are highly prevalent in neuritic plaques, including AB 3-x beginning at Glu eventually modified to pyroglutamate (A β N3pE-x), A β 2-x, A β 4-x, and A β 5-x. The precise origin of the different N-terminally modified AB peptides currently remains unknown. To assess the contribution of specific cell types to the formation of different N-terminally truncated A^β peptides, supernatants from serum-free primary cell cultures of chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia, as well as human astrocytes, were analyzed by AB-ELISA and one- and two-dimensional SDS-urea polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by immunoblot analysis. To evaluate the contribution of β - and γ -secretase to the generation of N-terminally modified A β , cultured astrocytes were treated with membrane-anchored "tripartite β -secretase (BACE1) inhibitors" and the γ -secretase inhibitor DAPT. Neurons, astrocytes, and microglia each exhibited cell type-specific patterns of secreted A β peptides. Neurons predominantly secreted A β peptides that begin at Asp1, whereas those released from astrocytes and microglia included high proportions of N-terminally modified AB peptides, presumably including AB 2/3-x and 4/5-x. The inhibition of BACE1 reduced the amount of AB 1-x in cell culture supernatants but not the amount of A β 2-x.

© 2015 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-SA license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/).

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common neurodegenerative disorder in the elderly and is characterized by the neuropathological hallmarks of synaptic and neuronal loss, neuritic plaques, and neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) that consist of hyperphosphorylated tau protein (Glenner and Wong, 1984; Masters et al., 1985; Delacourte and Defossez, 1986; Grundke-Iqbal et al., 1986). The extracellular plaques in AD-brain parenchyma are primarily composed of β -amyloid peptides (A β peptides), of which a large proportion is N-terminally truncated. (Glenner and Wong, 1984; Masters et al., 1985; Miller et al., 1993; Saido et al., 1995; Kuo et al., 2001; Sergeant et al., 2003; Guntert et al., 2006; Schieb et al., 2011; Moore et al., 2012; Bayer and Wirths, 2014).

E-mail address: manuel.maler@uk-erlangen.de (J.M. Maler).

Available online on ScienceDirect (www.sciencedirect.com).

In particular, AB peptides beginning at Glu3, which is eventually modified to pyroglutamate (AB N3pE-x), and AB beginning at Phe4 appear to be highly abundant. Other reported N-terminally truncated AB-variants include A β starting at Ala2 and Arg5. A β peptides are ubiquitously generated from the amyloid precursor protein (APP) as products of physiological cellular metabolism and can be detected in cell culture supernatant, cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), and human blood plasma (Haass et al., 1991; Haass and Selkoe, 1993; Wang et al., 1996; Wiltfang et al., 2002; Maler et al., 2007). The pivotal enzyme that exhibits β -secretase activity is BACE1, which is a transmembrane aspartyl protease that cleaves APP between Met671 and Asp672 and between Tyr681 and Glu682 (numbering according to APP770) (Hussain et al., 1999; Vassar et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2003). Recent findings suggest that other enzymes, including glutaminyl cyclase, cathepsin B, meprin, neprilysin, myelin basic protein, plasmin, angiotensinconverting enzyme, and aminopeptidases, may compete with or act in concert with BACE1 to produce several N-terminal variants of AB peptides (Howell et al., 1995; Saido, 1998; Van Nostrand and Porter,

0969-9961/© 2015 The Authors. Published by Elsevier Inc. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-SA license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/).

^{*} Corresponding author at: Department of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy, University of Erlangen-Nuremberg, Schwabachanlage 6, D-91052 Erlangen, Germany. Fax: +49 9131 85 36002.

1999; Hu et al., 2001; Takeda et al., 2004; Hook et al., 2005; Cynis et al., 2008; Liao et al., 2009; Sevalle et al., 2009; Bien et al., 2012; Bayer and Wirths, 2014). The subsequent proteolytic cleavage that generates the C-terminus of A β is accomplished by γ -secretase, which is a multienzyme complex consisting of presenilin, nicastrin, anterior pharynx defective 1a or 1b, and presenilin enhancer 2 (De Strooper, 2003). Aβ peptides with different C-termini are released from cells because cleavage by γ -secretase can occur at multiple sites of the APP fragment (Struhl and Adachi, 2000; Wiltfang et al., 2002). Variations in the amino acid sequence of AB in terms of different N- and C-termini greatly affect their propensity to form oligomers, insoluble protofibrils, fibrils, and, ultimately, AB plaques (Thal et al., 2006). In particular, AB peptides ending at Ala42 and carrying a truncated N-terminus (e.g., AB (pGlu3-42) and A β 4-42) appear to be highly prone to aggregation (Bouter et al., 2013). For AB N3pE-42 an increased tau-dependent neuronal death has been demonstrated in comparison to AB 1-42 alone in cell culture (Nussbaum et al., 2012). Additionally an association between AB NpE-x and hyperphosphorylated tau was demonstrated in human brain tissue and the severity of AD neuropathology correlated with frontal NpE-AB load, indicating a potential role of this N-terminal truncated AB for the initiation and progress of AD (Mandler et al., 2014).

In cell culture supernatant, CSF, and blood plasma, the most abundant AB peptide variant is AB 1-40 (Wang et al., 1996; Vandermeeren et al., 2001; Esselmann et al., 2004; Maler et al., 2007; Haussmann et al., 2013). CSF predominantly contains AB peptides that begin at Asp1; in human blood plasma, a high proportion of N-terminally modified A_β peptides has been detected (Lewczuk et al., 2004; Maler et al., 2007). In the A β plaques associated with AD, A β peptides that end at Ala42 (A β x-42) are highly prevalent, and the N-terminus exhibits substantial heterogeneity (Sergeant et al., 2003; Rufenacht et al., 2005; Guntert et al., 2006; Thal et al., 2006). AB N3pE-x, AB N11pE-x, and A β 1-x that contain an N-terminal isoaspartate are frequently observed in neuritic plaques (Saido et al., 1996). The percentage of N-terminally truncated AB peptides, particularly N3pE-x, AB 2-x, AB 4-x, and A β 5-x, in neuritic plaques appears to increase with disease progression and to be associated with Braak stage of AD-related NFT/ neuropil thread (NT) pathology (Braak and Braak, 1991; Braak et al., 2006; Guntert et al., 2006). The A β plaques associated with AD are typically composed of a thioflavin S positive, dense-core plaque surrounded by reactive astrocytes that express GFAP, interdigitating microglia, and dystrophic neurites (neuritic plaques) with abnormal tau protein (Selkoe, 2001; Thal et al., 2006). Thioflavin S negative, diffuse plagues can be abundant in brains of non-demented elderly and commonly are nonneuritic and not associated with glial activation. Based on observations from cell culture models and relative BACE1 expression levels, neurons have been suggested to be the major source of AB peptides in the brain (LeBlanc et al., 1997; Vassar et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2003). Because of their potential phagocytic activity, microglia and astrocytes were hypothesized to participate in the removal of AB plaques (Thal et al., 2006). However, microglia and astrocytes appear to also produce small quantities of A^β peptides (Haass et al., 1991; LeBlanc et al., 1996, 1997). The contribution of each cell type to the production of different variants of AB peptides has not yet been addressed.

To assess whether the heterogeneity of N-terminally modified A β peptides may be explained by different cell type-specific profiles of secreted A β peptide variants, we established primary chicken cell culture models of neurons, astrocytes, and microglia and examined the A β peptide variants released into the cell culture supernatants using ELISA and one- and two-dimensional urea-SDS-PAGE. The chick embryo has previously been described as a suitable model for investigations in the processing of APP. The C-terminal APP domain in chicken is highly homologous to human APP, the amino acid sequence is identical to that in humans, and it expresses BACE-1, BACE-2, presenilin-1, presenilin-2 and nicastrin (Carrodeguas et al., 2005). To investigate potential species differences with respect to the A β pattern, the secreted A β peptide variants from cultivated human astrocytes were examined.

Furthermore, we evaluated the influence of BACE1 and γ -secretase inhibition on the secretion of N-terminally modified A β peptide variants.

Material and methods

Isolation, culture, and characterization of primary cells

Fertilized White Leghorn SPF eggs were obtained from Charles River Laboratories (Sulzfeld, Germany). Primary neuronal cultures were derived from the telencephali of 8-day-old chick embryos, and cells were cultivated in serum-free Neurobasal-ATM containing B27 supplement (Gibco, Eggenstein, Germany) at a cell density of $3.75 * 10^5$ cells/ cm², as previously described (Esselmann et al., 2004). Experiments were performed after the 5th day in vitro (div).

The cells were characterized by morphology and immunocytochemistry using the following primary antibodies: rabbit anti-tau polyclonal antibody (pAb) (1:500; DAKO, Hamburg, Germany), mouse anti-GFAP monoclonal antibody (mAb) (clone GA5, 1:500; DAKO, Hamburg, Germany), mouse anti-fibronectin mAb (clone FN-15, 1:500; Sigma-Aldrich, München, Germany), mouse anti-MOSP mAb (clone 328, 1:500; Chemicon, Temecula, CA, USA), and mouse anti-vimentin mAb (clone Vim 13.2, 1:500; Sigma Aldrich, München, Germany). For immunocytochemistry, cells were fixed with 0.4% w/v paraformaldehyde in PBS at room temperature (RT) for 7 min. Roti®-ImmunoBlock (Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) containing 0.1% v/v Triton X-100 was used as a blocking agent. Following incubation with primary antibodies, goat anti-mouse and goat anti-rabbit Abs labeled with Alexa Fluor® 488 (1:1000; Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany) as well as DAPI were used for visualization under a Leica DM IL HC Bio fluorescence microscope.

For the identification of microglia, samples were probed with FITC-BS1-B4 lectin (1:50 in PBS/0.02% sodium azide for 30 min at RT; Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany), Alexa Fluor® 488-AcLDL (1:250 in cell culture medium for 8 h at 37 °C; Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany), Alexa Fluor® 488-heat inactivated-E. Coli (1:5000 in cell culture medium for 8 h at 37 °C; Invitrogen, Darmstadt, Germany), and Fluoresbrite® Yellow Green beads (1:2000 in cell culture medium for 8 h at 37 °C; Invitrogen, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions with the aforementioned modifications. After the 5th div, 60% of the cells in neuronal cultures were tau-positive neurons, and less than 5% of the cells were GFAP-positive astrocytes and latex bead-phagocytosing microglia. Immuno-staining using antibodies against vimentin, fibronectin, or MOSP was negative.

For primary cultures of astrocytes and microglia, telencephali of 16-day-old chick embryos were dissected, homogenized, and resuspended in DMEM/10% FBS/1% penicillin/streptomycin. The cells were seeded at a density of 0.01 brains/cm². For astroglial cultures, a complete medium exchange was performed every two days. After reaching 80% confluence, the astrocytes were passaged and replated at a cell density of $1.5 * 10^4$ cells/cm². After the 12th div, the serumcontaining medium was gradually reduced to serum-free DMEM/ Ham's F12 containing 10 mM HEPES and G5 supplement (PAA, Cölbe, Germany) or Neurobasal-ATM containing B27 supplement within four days. Experiments were performed after the 16th div. After the 18th div, over 90% of the cells were positive for vimentin and exhibited a flat polygonal shape. The cells were only positive for GFAP after incubation in AM Medium (ScienCell, Carlsbad, CA, USA), indicating a quiescent state of the cultivated astrocytes under the aforementioned culture conditions. Immunostaining with antibodies against fibronectin, tau, or MOSP was negative.

For microglial cultures, a complete medium exchange was performed after the 6th div. After the 12th and 16th div, the culture medium was centrifuged at 500 *g* for 5 min to remove dead cells and was added to the microglial cultures. The cells were maintained in PBS

during centrifugation. After the 21th div, the microglial cells were detached using Accutase (PAA, Cölbe, Germany) and were replated at a cell density of $2.5 * 10^5$ cells/cm² in 80% conditioned medium and 20% serum-free microglial medium containing DMEM, 4.5 g/l glucose, 0.2 mg/ml BSA, 5 µg/ml insulin, 5 µg/ml transferrin, and 5 nM sodium selenite. After the 25th div, the serum-containing medium was gradually reduced to serum-free microglial medium within two days. After the 27th div, over 90% of the cells in microglial cultures were phagocytosing cells. Immunostaining with antibodies against tau, GFAP, vimentin, fibronectin, or MOSP was negative. Experiments were performed after the 27th div.

Human fetal astrocytes (ScienCell, Carlsbad, CA, USA) were cultivated according to the manufacturer's instructions. To detect A β peptides in supernatants or cell lysates, serum-containing AM Medium (ScienCell, Carlsbad, CA, USA) was gradually changed to DMEM/Ham's F12 (Biochrom, Berlin, Germany) containing G5 supplement (PAA, Germany) and 10 mM HEPES (Biochrom, Berlin, Germany). Experiments were performed between the 5th div and the 32nd div.

Drug treatment and sample preparation

Tripartite compounds and DAPT (N-[N-(3,5-difluorophenacetyl)-L-alanyl]-S-phenylglycine t-butyl ester) (Sigma-Aldrich, München, Germany) were dissolved in DMSO at a concentration of 2 mM and 10 mM, respectively, and stored at -20 °C. The tripartite BACE1 inhibitors used in this study, which are designated as "BACE-I53" and "BACE-I89" and correspond to compounds 8e and 8g, respectively, were previously described in detail (Schieb et al., 2010). A complete medium exchange was performed prior to treatment, and medium with drugs diluted in DMSO or medium with DMSO alone was added to the cells, yielding the maximum final concentration of 0.1% v/v DMSO. For the analysis of A β peptides in unstimulated cell culture supernatants, a complete medium exchange was performed; neuronal cultures were incubated for 24 h, astrocyte cultures were incubated for 24 h or 48 h, and microglial cultures were incubated for 96 h. Cells treated with tripartite BACE1 inhibitors and DAPT were incubated for 24 h and 48 h, respectively. Subsequently, the cell culture supernatants were centrifuged at 500 g for 5 min and stored at -20 °C. Cells were washed with PBS for 5 min and lysed in detergent buffer (50 mM HEPES, 0.037 w/v Complete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Roche, Grenzach-Wyhlen, Germany), 150 mM NaCl, 1% v/v NP-40, 0.5% w/v NaDOC, and 0.1% w/v SDS) for 15 min at 4 °C. The lysed cells were centrifuged (13,000 g, 5 min, 4 °C), and supernatants were stored at -20 °C. The pellets were resolubilized with shaking in 70% v/v formic acid for 10 min at RT. Formic acid was evaporated in a vacuum concentrator. To evaluate the extracellular degradation of AB peptides, conditioned media from chicken astrocytes were incubated at 37 °C and 5% CO₂ for 7 days in polypropylene reaction tubes to minimize the loss of A β peptides that results from their adsorption to polystyrene surfaces. Each experiment was repeated at least three times in quadruplicate.

Cell viability assays

Cell viability was assessed after drug treatment using the CytoTox 96® lactate dehydrogenase assay (Promega, Madison, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and the MTT (3-(4,5-dimethyl-thiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide) assay, as previously described (Mosmann, 1983).

Immunoprecipitation of AB peptides

For the immunoprecipitation of A β peptides, 40 µg/ml 1E8 mAb (nanoTools, Teningen, Germany) or 6E10 mAb (Covance, San Francisco, CA, USA) was covalently coupled to 10 mg/ml magnetic sheep anti-

mouse Dynabeads M-280 (Dynal, Hamburg, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

The quadruplicate samples were pooled and subsequently mixed with five-fold concentrated detergent buffer containing either 20 µl or 25 µl of magnetic beads coupled with 1E8 mAb or 6E10 mAb, respectively, yielding final concentrations of 0.8 µg/ml of immobilized 1E8 mAb and 1 µg/ml of immobilized 6E10 mAb in 50 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% v/v Nonidet P-40, 0.25% w/v sodium deoxycholate, and 0.05% w/v SDS. For the immunoprecipitation of pooled cell lysates, the samples were dissolved in detergent buffer yielding final concentrations of 0.8 µg/ml of immobilized 1E8 mAb in 50 mM HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 1% v/v Nonidet P-40, 0.5% w/v sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% w/v SDS. Immunoprecipitation was performed under rotation for 15 h at 4 °C. Subsequently, the samples were rinsed three times with PBS/0.1% BSA for 5 min at 4 °C and once with 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.5. For 1D-Aβ-PAGE, rinsed Aβ-coupled magnetic particles were heated to 95 °C in sample buffer (0.36 M Bis-Tris, 0.16 M Bicine, 15% w/v sucrose, 1% w/v SDS, and 0.0075% w/v bromphenol blue). For 2D-AB-PAGE, the AB peptides were eluted as previously described (Maler et al., 2008).

BCA assay

The concentration of total protein in cell lysates was determined using the BCA assay as previously described (Smith et al., 1985). The absorption at 562 nm was measured using a Benchmark Microplate Reader (Bio-Rad, München, Germany) and was quantified using Microplate Manager 5.1 software (Bio-Rad, München, Germany).

1D-Aβ-IPG-urea-SDS-PAGE

The eluted protein samples and synthetic A β peptides (A β 1-38/40/ 42 (Bachem, Bubendorf, Schweiz); A β 1-37/39 (Biosynthan, Berlin, Germany); A β 2-40/42 and A β 3-40/42 (MoBiTec, Rastatt, Germany); A β N3pE-40/42 (MoBiTec, Rastatt, Germany); and A β 4/5-42(MoBiTec, Rastatt, Germany)) in sample buffer were separated using urea-Bicine/ Bis–Tris/Tris/sulfate SDS-PAGE (1D-A β -PAGE) as previously described (Klafki et al., 1996; Wiltfang et al., 1997).

2D-Aβ-IPG-urea-SDS-PAGE

High-resolution two-dimensional electrophoresis of A β (2D-A β -PAGE) using immobilized pH gradients (IPGs) was performed as previously described (Maler et al., 2007). The samples eluted in rehydration buffer (8.3 M urea, 2% w/v CHAPS, 0.5% v/v pharmalyte pH 3–10, and 20 mM DTT) or synthetic A β peptides in rehydration buffer were incubated with IPG DryStrip gels (7 cm, nonlinear pH range of 3–10 or linear pH range of 4–7) over 10 h at 20 °C. Isoelectric focusing was performed using an Ettan IPGphor II IEF System (GE Healthcare, München, Germany). After equilibration of focused IPG strips in equilibration buffer (6 M urea, 0.36 M Bis–Tris, 0.16 M Bicine, 2% w/v SDS, and 20% w/v glycerol) for 10 min with 1% w/v DTT followed by an additional equilibration for 10 min with 4.8% w/v iodoacetamide at RT, the proteins were separated in the second dimension as previously described.

Western blot and immunodetection (2D-IB)

Aβ peptides were detected by immunoblot analysis under semidry conditions (Hoefer Semi-Phor) using a discontinuous buffer system as previously described (Maler et al., 2007). Briefly, the peptides were transferred onto a PVDF membrane (Immobilon, Millipore, Schwalbach, Germany) at 1 mA/cm² for 45 min. The PVDF membranes were subsequently boiled for 3 min for optimal antibody detection and blocked for 2 h at RT in Roti®-Block (Carl Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) or the

82E1 mAb (IBL, Hamburg, Germany). For immunostaining with the 6E10 mAb (Covance, San Francisco, CA, USA) or the N3pE mAb (IBL, Hamburg, Germany), membranes were blocked with PBS-T/2% w/v ECL Prime Blocking Reagent (GE Healthcare, München, Germany). The blots were probed with the 1E8 mAb (1:300 in Roti®-Block), the 6E10 mAb (1:1000 in PBS-T/2% ECL Prime Blocking Reagent), the 82E1 mAb (1:1000 in Roti®-Block), or the N3pE pAb (1 µg/ml in PBS-T/2% ECL Prime Blocking Reagent) at 4 °C overnight. The membranes were rinsed three times with PBS/0.075% v/v Tween (PBS-T) and incubated with biotinylated goat anti-mouse IgG (333 ng/ml in PBS-T; Vector Laboratories Ltd., Peterborough, United Kingdom) or with peroxidaseconjugated horse anti-rabbit IgG (Calbiochem, Frankfurt, Germany) for 60 min at RT. Subsequently, the PVDF membranes that were probed with biotinylated goat anti-mouse IgG were rinsed in PBS-T and incubated with streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase complex (1:3000 in PBS-T; Amersham Pharmacia, Germany). Finally, all of the PVDF membranes were rinsed again in PBS-T, and detection was performed using ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection Reagent (GE Healthcare, München, Germany) and a Fluor-S MAX Multilmager (Bio-Rad, München, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Protein bands and spots detected after 1D-AB-PAGE/IB and 2D-AB-PAGE/IB analysis were quantified using TotalLab Quant v1.1.4301.25363 (totallab, Jahnsdorf, Germany) as previously described (Maler et al., 2007).

Aβ-ELISA

The concentrations of A β 1-42, A β 1-40, and A β N3pE-40 were studied with commercially available ELISA kits from Innogenetics (Ghent, Belgium) and IBL (Hamburg, Germany), respectively. The dilutions, incubations, and washings steps were performed according to the manufacturer's recommendations and were applied in CSF analyses, but the samples were diluted 1:20 or 1:80 rather than 1:400 for the analysis of A β 1-40. The concentrations of A β x-42 and A β x-40 were analyzed using a multiplex assay (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium) in the Luminex platform as previously described (Lewczuk et al., 2010), but the sample dilutions were adjusted for the cell culture supernatants. All of the measurements were performed in duplicate.

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed using GraphPad Prism version 6.02 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) and SPSS Statistics version 22.0 (IBM, San Jose, CA, USA). Differences between groups were determined using the unpaired t-test, Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank test, the Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Dunnett's multiple

comparisons test, or multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) followed by Dunnett's T3 correction as a post-hoc test when a significant effect was observed. All data are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation (SD). Significance levels are indicated as follows: ***p < 0.001; **p < 0.01; *p < 0.05; and ns, not significant.

Results

Astrocytes and microglia produced a higher proportion of N-terminally truncated $A\beta$ than neurons

To estimate the amount of AB 1-40 secreted by neurons and astrocytes, AB peptides in cell culture supernatants were first assessed using ELISA, and the values were normalized to the amount of total cellular protein as determined using the BCA assay (Fig. 1). The quantity of AB 1-40 detected in the supernatants of astrocyte cultures after 24 h of incubation was 1.5 \pm 0.3 ng per mg of total cellular protein. In contrast, neuronal cultures released approximately sevenfold more AB than astrocytes, i.e., 10.3 ± 2.5 ng of A β 1-40 per mg of total cellular protein. The concentrations of AB 1-42 and AB N3pE-42 were below the limits of detection of the respective ELISA kits. For evaluation of the AB42/40 ratios a multiplex immunoassay was employed. Although the total amount of AB peptides in cell culture supernatants was significantly different between astrocytes and neurons, the AB42/AB40 ratios in neuronal and astrocyte cell culture supernatants determined using a multiplex immunoassay did not significantly differ, indicating a similar pattern of γ -secretase cleavage in both cell types. The quantities of A β x-40 and A β x-42 as assessed by the multiplex immunoassay are shown in the supporting information (Supporting information Fig. S1).

To assess the secretion of additional A β peptide variants, including A β peptides that possess different N-termini, semiquantitative 1D-A β -PAGE followed by immunoblot (IB) analysis (1D-A β -PAGE/ IB) was performed. 1D-A β -PAGE/IB revealed significantly higher proportions of A β that comigrated with A β 2-40 in the supernatants from astrocytes in comparison to those in the supernatants from neurons and even higher proportions of the presumed A β 2-40 in the supernatants of microglia (Fig. 2). Consistent with the ELISA results (see above), the A β 1-42/A β 1-40 ratios of astrocytes and neurons were not significantly different. Collectively, these results indicate that predominantly N-terminally truncated A β peptides may be released in a cell type-specific manner.

The majority of A $\!\beta$ released by astrocytes or microglia were N-terminally modified

To further characterize the observed $A\beta$ peptides (in addition to an increased resolution and the ability to detect possible additional

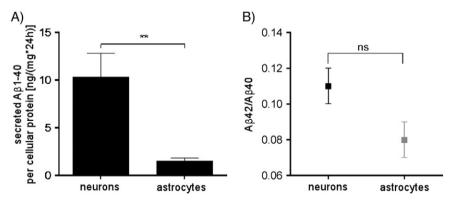


Fig. 1. Quantification of A β 1-40 in the supernatants of cultured neurons and astrocytes with ELISA and determination of the A β 42/A β 42 ratios with multiplex immunoassay. The amount of A β 1-40 secreted by chicken neurons and astrocytes within 24 h was determined using ELISA (unpaired t-test; **p < 0.01) (A). Despite the differences in these amounts, the ratios of A β x-42/A β x-40 that were assessed using a multiplex immunoassay were similar between astrocytes and neurons (Mann–Whitney U test; ns: not significant) (B).

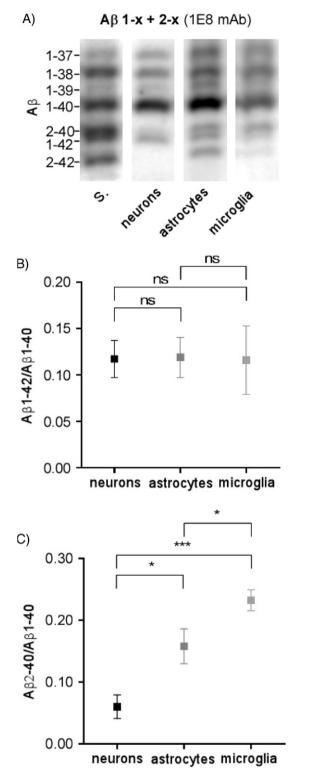


Fig. 2. Quantification of A β 1-x and A β 2-x in the supernatants of cultured neurons, astrocytes, and microglia using 1D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis. A β peptides secreted by chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia within 24 h, 48 h, and 96 h in 0.8 ml, 1.6 ml, and 2.4 ml of sample volume, respectively, were immunoprecipitated with the 1E8 mAb (0.8 µg/ml). Subsequently, the immunoprecipitated A β peptides and a sample of synthetic A β peptides (S.) were loaded, separated, and visualized in 1D-A β -PAGE/IB using the 1E8 mAb (A). The identities of the loaded synthetic A β peptides are indicated on the left. The different A β peptide bands were quantified and identified using a dilution series of synthetic A β . The most abundant band was A β 1-40, independent from the cell type used. The ratio of A β 1-42/A β 1-40 was not significantly different between the supernatants of neurons and astrocytes (Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparisons; ns: not significant) (B). The ratio of A β 2-40/A β 1-40 was significantly elevated in samples of astrocytes and microglia in comparison to neurons (Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Dunn's multiple comparison; ns: not significant; *p < 0.05; and ***p < 0.001) (C). Each experiment was performed at least three times.

charged A β variants (i.e., A β peptides with different pl values), which indicate N-terminal truncation or elongation), the supernatants of neurons, astrocytes, and microglia were analyzed using 2D-A β -PAGE followed by immunoblot (2D-IB) analysis. A panel of different antibodies against the N-terminal region of A β was employed to characterize the observed charged A β variants. The monoclonal antibody 82E1 is specific for peptides that begin at Asp1 (A β 1-x), whereas the 1E8 mAb recognizes the A β 1-x and A β 2-x. Moreover, the 6E10 mAb detects several N-terminally truncated A β peptides that begin at Asp1, Ala2, Glu3, Phe4, or Arg5 (n-x) (Fig. S2 in the Supporting information and Lewczuk et al. (2010)).

The supernatants of astrocytes and microglia exhibited higher proportions of charged A β variants with pl values > 5.4 than the supernatants of neurons, and these variants presumably correspond to A β 2-x, A β 3-x, A β 4-x, and A β 5-x (Fig. 3).

In 2D-IB analysis probed with the 1E8 mAb, the ratios of A β 2-40 exhibiting a pl of 6.4 to A β 1-40 (pl of ~5.4) were approximately tenfold higher in the supernatants from astrocytes or microglia than from neurons. In addition to A β 2-x and A β 3-x, which exhibited pl values of 6.4, astrocytic and microglial supernatants contained additional charged A β variants exhibiting pl values of approximately 5.0, 5.5, and 5.7. These variants were minimally detected in neuronal cell culture supernatants (Fig. 3). In 2D-IB analysis probed with the 6E10 mAb, additional A β variants were detected at pH 7.0, which presumably corresponded to A β 4-x and/or A β 5-x. The ratio of A β peptides that exhibited pl values of astrocytes compared to neurons (Fig. 3 and Table S1 in the Supporting information).

MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the profiles of secreted charged A β variants differed among neurons, astrocytes, and microglia (Fig. 4). The results of this analysis indicated, that each cell exhibited an individual pattern of A β variants with different pl values. In general, astrocytes and microglia secreted a significantly higher proportion of A β peptides that exhibited a pl greater than 5.4 in comparison to neurons, indicating N-terminal truncations or possibly other modifications.

In contrast to the vast differences in the proportions of N-terminally truncated A β peptides among neurons, astrocytes, and microglia, the proportions of A β 1-37, A β 1-38, A β 1-39, and A β 1-42 (pl of 5.4) to A β 1-40 did not differ and resembled the distribution of the corresponding A β peptides in human CSF and blood plasma (Fig. 3 and Table S1 in the Supporting information). In all of the investigated cell culture models, A β 1-40 was the most abundant A β variant, which exhibited a pl of 5.4, followed by A β 1-38 and A β 1-42 (Table S1 in the Supporting information).

In cell culture supernatants from astrocytes, but not from neurons or microglia, an A β peptide exhibiting a pl of 6.4 was reproducibly detected in 2D-IB analysis using the 82E1 mAb (Fig. 3). This antibody is specific for A β peptides that begin at Asp1. Therefore, this particular A β variant appears to begin at Asp1 and has presumably acquired an additional positive charge or lost a negative charge due to a non-identified posttranslational modification.

Collectively, approximately more than 80% of all detected A β variants that were secreted by neurons began at Asp1, whereas the majority of A β peptides released by astrocytes and microglia were N-terminally truncated or otherwise modified, and less than 40% of all detected A β peptides were A β 1-x in the supernatants of astrocytes (Table S1 in the Supporting information). A β N3pE-x was not observed in 2D-IB analysis of the supernatants of astrocytes or neurons. In contrast, synthetic A β 3-40, A β 3-42, A β N3pE-40, and A β N3pE-42 (100 pg of each) were equally detected in 1D-IB and 2D-IB analyses probed with the 6E10 mAb (data not shown). Extended incubation times (24 h or 48 h) or the use of a different cell culture medium (serum-free DMEM/F12 containing HEPES and G5 supplement, NbA, or AM) did not influence the pattern of secreted astroglial A β peptides when assessed using 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis probed with the 1E8 mAb. To

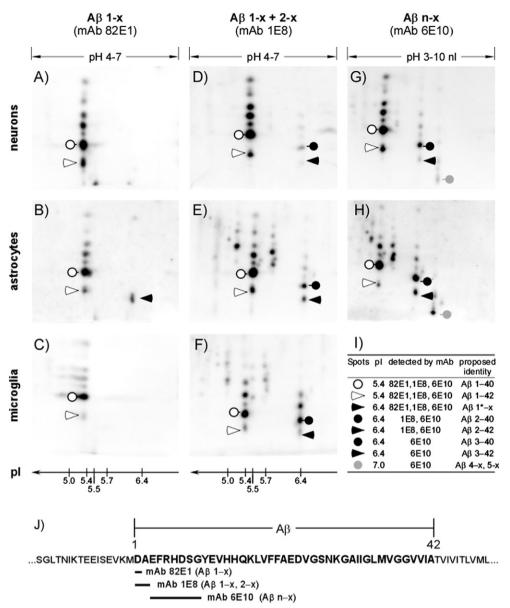


Fig. 3. The pattern of N-terminally modified A β variants in the supernatants of cultured chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. Supernatants from serum-free cultures of chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia were obtained after 24 h, 48 h, and 96 h, respectively. A β from 1.8 ml (A, D), 2.4 ml (B, E, G), and 4.0 ml (C, F, H) sample volumes, respectively, were immunoprecipitated with the 1E8 mAb (0.8 µg/ml; A-F) or the 6E10 mAb (1.0 µg/ml) (G, H). Subsequently, the immunoprecipitated A β peptides were dissolved, separated, and visualized by 2D-A β -PAGE/IB using IPG strips in a linear pH range of 4–7 (A–F) or a nonlinear pH range of 3–10 (G, H). Representative 2D-A β immunoblots (2D-IB) from samples of neurons (A, D, G), astrocytes (B, E, H) and microglia (C, F) that were probed using the A β 1-x-specific 82E1 mAb (A-C), the A β 1-x- and A β 2-x-specific 1E8 mAb (D–F), and the A β n-x-specific 6E10 mAb (G, H) are shown. The sequence of A β and the epitopes of the different mAbs are shown (J). In 2D-IB analysis using the 82E1 mAb, a series of spots at a pl of 5.4 corresponding to A β 1-40 and additional A β 1-x variants was observed in all examined samples (A–C). An additional single 82E1 mAb–positive spot, which presumably corresponds to a modified A β 1-x (identified as A β 1⁺x), was detected at a pl of 6.4 only in samples obtained from astrocytes (B). In 2D-IB analysis using the 1E8 mAb (D–F), and dictional series of spots was observed at pl of 5.0, 5.5, 5.7, and 6.4. These spots were minimally detected in neuronal samples (D) but were abundant in samples from astrocytes (E) and microglia (F). 2D-IB analysis using the 1E8 mAb. The proposed identified as of the marked spots and their observed pl values are presented in (I) based on comigration of synthetic Ab peptides (Fig. S2) and mass spectrometry data as previously reported (Schieb et al., 2011). All of the experiments were performed at least three times (nl = nonlinear; and mAb = monoclonal antibody).

investigate the extent of the extracellular degradation of A β peptides, conditioned supernatants of astrocytes in the absence or presence of protease inhibitors were incubated for 7 days at 37 °C. The amount of A β 1-40 in the conditioned media in the absence of protease inhibitors was reduced to 65 \pm 24% in comparison to samples supplemented with protease inhibitors, which indicates a slow degradation of A β peptides by secreted extracellular proteases (Fig. S3 in the Supporting information). The relative proportions of the remaining A β peptide variants were not different between samples with or without added protease inhibitors.

Cultured human astrocytes secreted a similar pattern of N-terminally truncated $A\beta$ peptides as chicken astrocytes

Because different species may exhibit a different pattern of secreted A β peptides, the A β profile in the supernatants of cultivated human astrocytes was determined using 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis (Fig. 5). The relative abundance of the presumed N-terminally truncated A β 2/3-x and 4/5-x (pI ~6.4 and ~7.0) in cell culture supernatants of human and chicken astrocytes was very similar. Mann–Whitney U test indicated no significant differences for A β with pI 6.4 (Fig. 5). Chicken and human

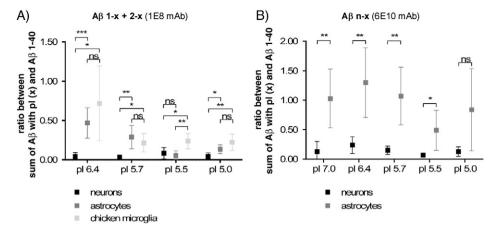


Fig. 4. Comparison of charged A β variants in the supernatants of cultured chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia by 2D-A β -PAGE/IB. Means and standard deviations of the ratios between the sum of all A β variants exhibiting an identical pl (i.e., 5.0, 5.5, 5.7, 6.4, or 7.0) and A β 1-40 in 2D-A β -PAGE/IB are shown. A MANOVA was conducted using cell type (neurons, astrocytes, and microglia) as the independent variable and four ratios of charged A β variants (the sum of all A β variants exhibiting pl values of 6.4, 5.7, 5.5, or 5.0 to A β 1-40) as the dependent variables to determine whether neurons, astrocytes, and microglia were distinguishable by their profile of secreted A β peptides that exhibit different pl values. MANOVA, based on data from 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis using the 1E8 mAb (A), revealed a significant multivariate main effect for cell type (Wilks' λ = 0.092; F = 8.600; p < 0.001; and partial eta squared = 0.696). Significance levels of post-hoc tests (Dunnett's T3 correction) are shown (A). Astrocytes and microglia secreted a higher proportion of A β peptides with pl values of 6.4, 5.7, then neurons. There was no difference between astrocytes and microglia. The relative abundance of A β peptides exhibiting a pl of 5.5 from neurons and astrocytes. MANOVA based on data from 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis using the 6E10 mAb (B) confirmed that astrocytes and microglia were distinguishable by their profile of secreted A β peptides exhibiting a pl of 5.5 from neurons and astrocytes. MANOVA based on data from 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis using the 6E10 mAb (B) confirmed that astrocytes and microglia were distinguishable by their profile of secreted A β peptides (Wilks' λ = 0.203; F = 7.087; p < 0.01; and partial eta squared = 0.797). Significance levels of univariate main effects are shown (B) (ns: not significant; *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; and ***p < 0.001). Each experiment was performed at least three times.

astrocytes both secreted additional charged A β variants that exhibited pI values of approximately 5.0, 5.5, and 5.7. Consistent with the results from avian cultures, the spot corresponding to A β 1-40 that exhibited a pI of 5.4 in 2D-IB analysis of human astrocytes was the most intense followed by spots corresponding to A β 1-39 and A β 1-42 (Table S2 in the Supporting information).

Small amounts of $A\beta$ 1-x were detected in cell lysates

To investigate whether the N-terminally truncated AB peptides originated from intracellular compartments, detergent-soluble and formic acid-soluble cell fractions were analyzed. In contrast to the findings from the analysis of cell culture supernatants, N-terminally truncated AB peptides were not observed in cell lysates of astrocytes and microglia by 2D-IB analysis using the 1E8 mAb (Fig. 6). In all of the detergent-soluble fractions from neurons, astrocytes, and microglia, AB 1-x variants that exhibited a pI of 5.4 were nearly exclusively detected. The scarce amount of intracellular AB peptides in microglia corresponded to the low concentrations of AB peptides in the cell culture supernatants. A comparison of the intracellular and extracellular proportions of AB peptides exhibiting a pI of 5.4 indicated an elevated ratio of intracellular AB 1-42/AB 1-40 in comparison to extracellular AB 1-42/AB 1-40, particularly in astrocytes. The high variability of AB 1-42 could be due to extraction variability of this peptide. The ratios of A β 1-39/A β 1-40, A β 1-38/A β 1-40, and A β 1-37/A β 1-40 were not significantly different between intracellular lysates and extracellular supernatants (Fig. 6 and Table S3 in the Supporting information). Formic acid extractions of detergent-insoluble cell fractions did not yield additional A^β peptides.

The inhibition of γ -secretase with DAPT reduced the secretion of all N- and C-terminal A β variants

To investigate whether the differences between intracellular and extracellular A β profiles of astrocytes were related to possible differences in the secretase pathways, the effects of β - and γ -secretase inhibitors were examined. In astroglial cultures treated with the γ -secretase inhibitor DAPT for 48 h, the amount of all of the detected A β 1-x and N-terminally modified A β was reduced in a dose-dependent fashion as indicated by 1D-IB analysis (Figs. 7A and B). The secretion of the presumed N-terminally truncated A β 2-40 and A β 1-40 uniformly decreased, indicating that N-terminally modified A β peptides and A β 1-x both rely on γ -secretase cleavage. In astrocyte cultures, 10 μ M DAPT reduced the amount of secreted A β 1-40 to 7.1 \pm 3.4% in comparison to unstimulated controls. Concentrations below 25 μ M DAPT were not cytotoxic according to LDH measurements or the reduction of cell viability, as assessed using the MTT assay (data not shown).

The secretion of N-terminally modified $A\beta$ peptides remained unaffected or increased upon BACE inhibition

Membrane-anchored "tripartite BACE inhibitors" were used to inhibit BACE in astrocyte cultures. The "tripartite structure" consisted of the peptidic BACE inhibitor "GL189" (Tung et al., 2002) that was linked via a 53 Å (BACE-I53) or an 89 Å (BACE-I89) spacer to a dihydrocholesterol anchor (Linning et al., 2012). As expected, the total amount of A β peptides released into the cell culture supernatants was substantially reduced in the presence of 25 or 500 nM tripartite BACE inhibitor. In astrocyte cultures treated with BACE-I53, the amount of released A β 1-40 significantly decreased to 12.2 \pm 5.3% of the controls. Interestingly, neither BACE-I53 nor BACE-I89 had statistically significant effects on the abundance of specific A β peptide bands comigrating with A β 2-40 compared to controls in 1D-IB (Figs. 7C–E).

Concentrations of 500 nM BACE-I53 were not cytotoxic according to LDH measurements and did not reduce cell viability, as assessed using the MTT assay (data not shown).

Discussion

The present study compares the profiles of A β peptide variants of primary neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. Of particular interest was the generation of N-terminally modified A β peptides. Specific N-terminally truncated A β peptides, such as NpE 3-x and A β 2-x, 3-x, 4-x and 5-x are prevalent in neuritic plaques and appear to increase with the Braak stage of AD-related NFT/NT pathology. Their precise origin has not yet been identified unequivocally (Saido et al., 1995; Sergeant et al., 2003; Guntert et al., 2006). Our results demonstrate that, in cell culture supernatants of astrocytes and microglia, N-terminally modified A β presumably corresponding to A β 2/3 and 4/5-x are highly prevalent and accounted for more than 60% of the

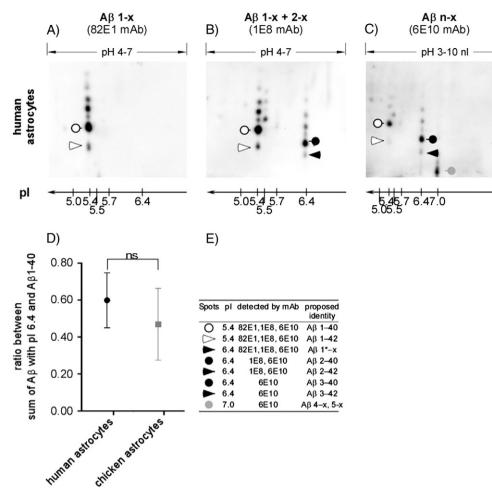


Fig. 5. The pattern of A β peptide variants in the supernatants of cultured human astrocytes. Cultured human astrocytes were incubated for 48 h with serum-free cell culture medium. A β peptides from a sample volume of 3.2 ml (A, B) and 4 ml (C) were immunoprecipitated with the 1E8 mAb (A, B) or 6E10 mAb (C). 2D-A β -PAGE/IB was performed as described in Fig. 3. Representative 2D-IB analyses were probed with the 82E1 mAb (A), 1E8 mAb (B), and 6E10 mAb (C). The distribution of spots in supernatants of human astrocytes corresponded to the distribution of spots in samples of chicken astrocytes at pH values of 5.4, 6.4, and 7.0. The relative intensities of A β peptides exhibiting a pl of 6.4 were not significantly different between human and chicken astrocytes in 2D-IB analysis using the 1E8 mAb (Mann–Whitney U test; ns: not significant) (D). The spots with pl values of 5.0, 5.5, and 5.7 were also observed in human astrocytes but exhibited different relative abundance in comparison to chicken astrocytes. Each experiment was performed at least three times. The proposed identities of the marked spots and their observed pl values are presented in (E).

total AB peptides. In contrast, neurons predominantly secrete AB 1-x and only small amounts of N-terminally modified AB peptides. Pyroglutamate-modified AB peptides such as NpE x-3 were not detected in the cell culture models used here. The relative abundance patterns of AB peptides in supernatants from primary astrocytes from humans were found to be very similar to those from the chick embryo. Importantly, the highly reproducible pattern of secreted AB peptides in astrocyte cultures was independent not only of species but also of the incubation period and the cell culture medium. A relatively high proportion of N-terminally modified A β peptides was also observed in the supernatant of cultured chicken microglia that closely resembled the pattern of secreted AB peptides from untransfected human phagocytes (Maler et al., 2008). The 2D-AB-PAGE/IB method employed here allows for a direct comparison of the relative abundances of several AB peptide variants differing in charge and electrophoretic mobility in the presence of SDS and urea. However a limitation of this study is that the exact identities of some of the detected peptides remain to be elucidated by mass spectrometry.

To the best of our knowledge, the relative abundance patterns of monomeric $A\beta$ variants secreted by untransfected primary neurons, astrocytes, and microglia have not been published before. Previous studies either compared the amount of total $A\beta$ peptides of these

cell types or addressed A β variants in cell culture supernatants of transfected cell lines overexpressing wild-type or mutant APP, e.g., N2a/APP695, 7PA2/APP751:V717I, H4/APP695:K670M/N671L, and SH-SY5Y/APP695 (Haass and Selkoe, 1993; LeBlanc et al., 1996; Wang et al., 1996; Vandermeeren et al., 2001; Haussmann et al., 2013; Portelius et al., 2013). The most abundant A β peptides identified in these cell models were A β variants that begin at Asp1. Additionally, N-terminally truncated A β peptides, i.e., A β 2-x, A β 3-x, A β 4-x, and A β 5-x, were also detected in small amounts using mass spectrometry or immunoblot analysis (Wang et al., 1996; Haussmann et al., 2013).

However, the relative proportions of the N-terminally truncated A β peptides that are released from transfected cells are difficult to compare with the present results because the overexpression of APP may affect the subcellular distribution and metabolism of APP. Furthermore the cell lines may have lost specific physiological functions during their immortalization. A limitation of all these and similar studies, including our present one, is that the pattern of A β peptides secreted from cultured cells does not necessarily reflect the generation of A β peptides in the aged human brain especially under disease conditions. The contribution of individual cells to the formation of N-terminal truncated A β in vivo remains to be addressed in further studies. The secretion of N-terminal truncated A β by neurons might outweigh the contribution of glial cells just because of the larger amount of total Ab secreted by

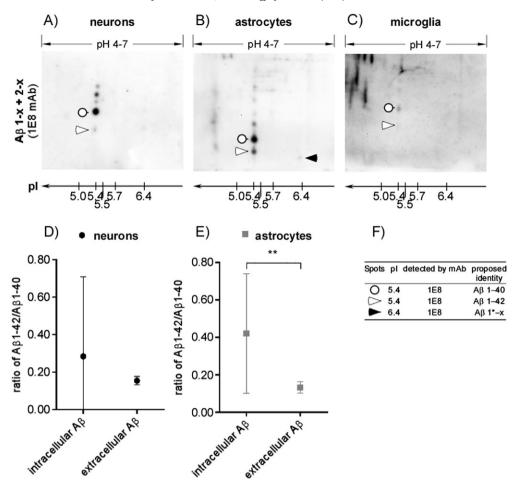


Fig. 6. The pattern of $A\beta$ variants in lysed cell fractions of cultured neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. Detergent-soluble cell fractions of neurons (A), astrocytes (B), and microglia (C) were immunoprecipitated using the 1E8 mAb and analyzed by 2D-A β -PAGE/IB. Representative 2D-IB are shown, that were probed with the 1E8 mAb. Only spots with a pl of 5.4, which presumably corresponded to $A\beta$ 1-x, were detected in samples of neurons (A) and microglia (C). In contrast, cell lysates of astrocytes contained a very faint additional peptide exhibiting a pl of 6.4, which shows the same electrophoretic properties as $A\beta$ 1*-x that was observed in the cell culture supernatants of astrocytes. Other N-terminally modified $A\beta$ peptides were not detected in 2D-A β -PAGE/IB analysis of cell lysates probed with the 1E8 mAb. MANOVA was conducted to determine whether the ratios of the intracellular $A\beta$ peptides, e.g., $A\beta$ 1-42/ $A\beta$ 1-40, $A\beta$ 1-39/ $A\beta$ 1-40, and $A\beta$ 1-37/ $A\beta$ 1-40, were different from the corresponding ratios of extracellular $A\beta$ peptides in the supernatants. A significant multivariate main effect was detected in astrocytes (MANOVA; Wilks' λ = 0.107; F = 16.731; P < 0.001; and partial eta squared = 0.893) but not in neurons (MANOVA; Wilks' λ = 0.671; F = 0.367; ns; and partial eta squared = 0.329). Significant univariate main effects indicated that the ratio of $A\beta$ 1-40 was significantly higher in intracellular lysates than in extracellular supernatants of astrocytes (^{**}p < 0.01) (E). For the remaining ratios of intracellular $A\beta$ peptides, no significant univariate main effects were observed. Each experiment was performed at least three times. The proposed identities of the marked spots and their observed pl values are presented in (F).

neurons. On the other hand it should be considered that the total number of glial cells has been reported to be higher than the number of neurons in the human cerebral cortex (Herculano-Houzel, 2014).

Secreted extracellular proteases appear to have only minimal impact on the A β profiles in cell culture supernatants. Only ~35% of A β 1-40 in conditioned cell culture media was found to be degraded within seven days at 37 °C. Additionally, the ratios of the remaining N-terminally modified AB peptides, presumably corresponding to Ab 2-x, to total AB peptides were not significantly altered after this incubation period, indicating that exopeptidases present in the cell culture supernatant did not mediate the N-terminal truncation of these AB peptides. Consistent with these results, a lack of degradation of $A\beta$ peptides was reported upon the addition of synthetic A β peptides to the medium of N2a/ APP695 cells (Wang et al., 1996). The fragments of Aβ peptides cleaved by extracellular proteases were shown to be primarily generated by cleavage near the middle or near the C-terminus of AB (Wang et al., 1996). Some studies suggested that AB-degrading enzymes were released into the cell culture medium, but the majority of Aβdegrading enzymes appear to be associated with the plasma membrane or intracellular (Qiu et al., 1998; Saido and Iwata, 2006; Pacheco-Quinto and Eckman, 2013).

Collectively, cultured microglia and astrocytes produce substantially less total AB than neurons but a relatively higher proportion of specific N-terminally truncated $A\beta$ variants. These findings may be relevant for the development and progression of the amyloid pathology observed in AD brains. This hypothesis is consistent with histological examinations that have demonstrated increased numbers of reactive astrocytes near AB plaques that contain N-terminally truncated AB peptides (Thal et al., 2006). Furthermore there are implications from a transgenic mouse model (PS1△E9flox mice), that cells other than excitatory neurons can give rise age-dependently to amyloid plaques (Veeraraghavalu et al., 2014). On the other hand in APP/PS1KI mice, in which human APP 751 carrying the London (V717I) and the Swedish (K670N/M671L) mutation was under the control of the neuronal thy-1 promoter, N-terminal truncated AB peptides were detected corresponding to the age of mice, which suggests that under these circumstances neurons may be the major source for N-terminal truncated AB (Casas et al., 2004). Yet, a glial origin of the of N-terminal truncated Aβ in this model cannot be fully excluded, as long-term primary cultures and cultures using tissue from older animals demonstrate that thy-l does appear on some astrocytes later in development (Pruss, 1979).

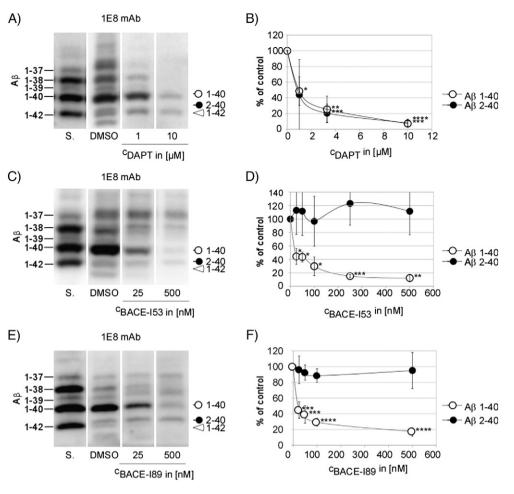


Fig. 7. Effects of the inhibition of γ -secretase and BACE on the pattern of A β peptides in the supernatants of cultured astrocytes. Supernatants from cultured chicken astrocytes treated with the γ -secretase inhibitor DAPT or a tripartite BACE inhibitor were analyzed by 1D-PAGE/IB. A) Representative 1D-IB analysis of cell culture supernatants of astrocytes treated with 0.1% DMSO (vehicle alone) and 1 μ M, and 10 μ M DAPT for 48 h. For comparison, a sample of synthetic A β peptides, as indicated on the left of each 1D-IB (S.), was loaded. The blot was probed with the 1E8 mAb. All of the detected A β -peptides were substantially reduced after treatment with the γ -secretase inhibitor. B) Dose response curves for selected A β -variants indicated statistically significant reductions of A β 1-40 and A β 2-40 as compared to vehicle controls (DMSO). The mean relative band intensities and standard deviations are shown. Dose-response experiments were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's post hoc test with DMSO treated astrocytes as control group. Significance levels of post hoc tests are shown (*p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001; ***p < 0.001. C) Representative 1D-IB analysis of cell culture supernatants of astrocytes for selected A β -peptides 1-40 and 2-40 indicated astation the clean of $A\beta$ 1-40 was clearly reduced by BACE-I53, specific other A β -variants were not. D) Dose response curves for selected A β -peptides 1-40 and 2-40 indicated astatistically significant reduction of A β 1-40 but not of A β 2-40. Similarly treatment with BACE-I89 reduced A β 1-40 significant reduction of A β 1-40 but not of A β 2-40. Similarly treatment with BACE-I89 reduced A β 1-40 significant reduction of A β 1-40 but not of A β 2-40. Similarly treatment with BACE-I89 reduced A β 1-40 significant reduction of A β 1-40 but not of A β 2-40. Similarly treatment with BACE-I89 reduced A β 1-40 significant reduction of A β 1-40 but not of A β 2-40. Similarly treatment with BACE-I89 reduced A β 1-40 significantl

Intracellular N-terminally truncated AB peptides, presumably corresponding to Ab 2-x, were not detected in 2D-AB-PAGE/IB analysis from primary chicken neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. Only AB peptides exhibiting identical electrophoretic properties as extracellular Aβ peptides that begin at Asp1 were detected. The relative abundance of intracellular A β 1-42 was slightly elevated in comparison to the relative abundance of the corresponding extracellular peptide. Elevated amounts of intracellular AB 1-42, particularly in astrocytes, have been previously reported (Nagele et al., 2003). In comparison to human AD brain extracts, which typically contain higher amounts of A β 1-42 than A β 1-40 especially, in detergent soluble fractions from astrocytes the amount of A β 1-40 exceeded the amount of A $\!\beta$ 1-42 similarly as observed in cell culture supernatant, human CSF and blood plasma. It appears that in the AD-brain, AB42 is preferentially deposited during disease onset and progression reflecting its reported higher propensity to aggregate in vitro (Jarrett et al., 1993; Harper et al., 1997).

The proportions of the remaining intracellular A β peptides and their corresponding extracellular A β peptides, i.e., A β 1-37, A β 1-38, and A β 1-39, were similar. This result indicates that, in our study, neurons, astrocytes, and microglia did not take up and accumulate the secreted N-terminally truncated A β peptides, presumably corresponding to

Ab 2-x, to a measurable extent. It has been previously suggested that the intracellular pool of AB peptides of cultured SH-SY5Y cells does not consist of phagocytosed AB peptides (Pacheco-Quinto and Eckman, 2013). In contrast, astrocytes and microglia appear to be capable of phagocytosing extracellular AB peptides of amyloid plaques because in histological preparations, astrocytes in the vicinity of amyloid plaques were positive for AB N3pE-x (De Kimpe et al., 2013). Enhanced phagocytosis or generation of intracellular N-terminally truncated AB by astrocytes could be triggered by changes of activities and expression levels of enzymes, including glutaminyl cyclase, which was reported to be involved in the formation of AB N3pE-x (Cynis et al., 2006; Schilling et al., 2008). In our cell culture model the absence of distinct intracellular N-terminally modified $A\beta$ peptides and the ineffective generation of N-terminally truncated $A\beta$ peptides by secreted extracellular proteases may be due to a different origin and metabolism of AB 1-x compared to AB 2-x.

Interestingly, in addition to the previously described A β 1-x, a peptide that was only observed in astrocyte supernatants and cell lysates was detected using the 82E1 mAb, which is specific for A β peptides that begin at Asp1. However, in contrast to the detected A β 1-x variant (pI of 5.4), this peptide exhibited a pI of 6.4, indicating that this presumed A β 1-x posttranslationally lost an acidic modification or acquired a basic modification. The exact identity and mechanism of formation of this peptide remain to be elucidated.

The N-terminally modified $A\beta$ peptides, presumably corresponding to Ab 2-x, were secreted by astrocytes in the presence of effective concentrations of membrane-targeted tripartite BACE inhibitors while $A\beta$ 1-x variants were reduced as expected.

BACE plays a pivotal role in the production of A β peptides from APP, particularly in primary neurons and cell lines transfected with APP (Vassar et al., 1999; Lee et al., 2003). N-terminally truncated $A\beta$ peptides have been previously suggested to be generated by aminopeptidases following the primary cleavage of APP by BACE (Saido, 1998; Sevalle et al., 2009). In contrast, our results indicate that BACE inhibition specifically reduced the secretion of AB 1-x in astrocyte cultures, whereas the amount of AB 2-x typically found in astrocytes remained unaltered or was even increased. These findings are consistent with previous reports indicating that treatment with BACE inhibitors reduces the amount of AB 1-x in the supernatant from APP-transfected cells, the CSF of dogs, and in neuronal cultures and causes a concomitant increased release of N-terminally truncated AB peptides, such as AB 5-40 (Schieb et al., 2011; Mattsson et al., 2012; Haussmann et al., 2013). Studies from BACE knockout mice revealed that primary cortical cells still produced small amounts of AB peptides despite abolished BACE (Roberds et al., 2001). These findings might indicate the existence of proteases in addition to BACE1 that are presumably responsible for the de novo generation of N-terminally modified AB peptides. A potential candidate protease that has been shown to be capable of producing A β 2-x is meprin β (Bien et al., 2012). In contrast to BACE1, meprin appears to preferentially cleave APP at the plasma membrane. APP cleavage at the cell surface may explain our observations that AB 2-x was not intracellularly detected in cell samples from primary neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. Another candidate for an alternative β-secretase is cathepsin B, which was detected in microglia and astrocytes and exhibits an unspecific cleavage pattern at the N-terminus of the Aβ sequence (Takeda et al., 2004; Hook et al., 2005; Bohme et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2008). In particular, A β 5-x appears to be generated by cathepsin B in SH-SY5Y and HEK293 cells (Takeda et al., 2004). Other studies suggested that cathepsin B may contribute to a C-terminal truncation of A β 1-42, thereby generating A β 1-38 and A β 1-33 (Sun et al., 2008).

Conclusion

Collectively, different cell types may genuinely exhibit or modulate the activity and expression of different proteases capable of cleaving APP at or close to the β -secretase site, which may explain the observed cell type specific differences in the patterns of secreted A β peptides. Our results indicate that astrocytes and microglia, but not neurons, secrete proportionally high amounts N-terminally modified A β peptides, among others A β 2-x, and that the release of A β 2-x appears to be independent of BACE1 itself. We speculate that the high prevalence of N-terminally modified A β peptides, especially A β 2-x, in formic acid soluble extracts from AD plaques may originate from glial rather than neuronal cells, thereby providing a novel perspective on the role of glial cells in AD pathology.

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at http://dx. doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2014.08.031.

References

- Bayer, T.A., Wirths, O., 2014. Focusing the amyloid cascade hypothesis on N-truncated Abeta peptides as drug targets against Alzheimer's disease. Acta Neuropathol. 127, 787–801.
- Bien, J., et al., 2012. The metalloprotease meprin beta generates amino terminal-truncated amyloid beta peptide species. J. Biol. Chem. 287, 33304–33313.
- Bohme, L., et al., 2008. Isoaspartate-containing amyloid precursor protein-derived peptides alter efficacy and specificity of potential beta-secretases. Biol. Chem. 389, 1055–1066.

- Bouter, Y., et al., 2013. N-truncated amyloid beta (Abeta) 4-42 forms stable aggregates and induces acute and long-lasting behavioral deficits. Acta Neuropathol. 126, 189–205.
- Braak, H., Braak, E., 1991. Neuropathological stageing of Alzheimer-related changes. Acta Neuropathol. 82, 239–259.
- Braak, H., et al., 2006. Staging of Alzheimer disease-associated neurofibrillary pathology using paraffin sections and immunocytochemistry. Acta Neuropathol. 112, 389–404.
- Carrodeguas, J.A., et al., 2005. The chick embryo appears as a natural model for research in beta-amyloid precursor protein processing. Neuroscience 134, 1285–1300.
- Casas, C., et al., 2004. Massive CA1/2 neuronal loss with intraneuronal and N-terminal truncated Abeta42 accumulation in a novel Alzheimer transgenic model. Am. J. Pathol. 165, 1289–1300.
- Cynis, H., et al., 2006. Inhibition of glutaminyl cyclase alters pyroglutamate formation in mammalian cells. Biochim. Biophys. Acta 1764, 1618–1625.
- Cynis, H., et al., 2008. Amyloidogenic processing of amyloid precursor protein: evidence of a pivotal role of glutaminyl cyclase in generation of pyroglutamate-modified amyloid-beta. Biochemistry 47, 7405–7413.
- De Kimpe, L, et al., 2013. Intracellular accumulation of aggregated pyroglutamate amyloid beta: convergence of aging and Abeta pathology at the lysosome. Age (Dordr) 35, 673–687.
- De Strooper, B., 2003. Aph-1, Pen-2, and nicastrin with presenilin generate an active gamma-secretase complex. Neuron 38, 9–12.
- Delacourte, A., Defossez, A., 1986. Alzheimer's disease: tau proteins, the promoting factors of microtubule assembly, are major components of paired helical filaments. J. Neurol. Sci. 76, 173–186.
- Esselmann, H., et al., 2004. Lithium decreases secretion of Abeta1-42 and C-truncated species Abeta1-37/38/39/40 in chicken telencephalic cultures but specifically increases intracellular Abeta1-38. Neurodegener. Dis. 1, 236–241.
- Glenner, G.G., Wong, C.W., 1984. Alzheimer's disease: initial report of the purification and characterization of a novel cerebrovascular amyloid protein. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 120, 885–890.
- Grundke-Iqbal, I., et al., 1986. Abnormal phosphorylation of the microtubule-associated protein tau (tau) in Alzheimer cytoskeletal pathology. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 83, 4913–4917.
- Guntert, A., et al., 2006. High sensitivity analysis of amyloid-beta peptide composition in amyloid deposits from human and PS2APP mouse brain. Neuroscience 143, 461–475.
- Haass, C., Selkoe, D.J., 1993. Cellular processing of beta-amyloid precursor protein and the genesis of amyloid beta-peptide. Cell 75, 1039–1042.
- Haass, C., et al., 1991. Processing of beta-amyloid precursor protein in microglia and astrocytes favors an internal localization over constitutive secretion. J. Neurosci. 11, 3783–3793.
- Harper, J.D., et al., 1997. Atomic force microscopic imaging of seeded fibril formation and fibril branching by the Alzheimer's disease amyloid-beta protein. Chem. Biol. 4, 951–959.
- Haussmann, U., et al., 2013. Analysis of amino-terminal variants of amyloid-beta peptides by capillary isoelectric focusing immunoassay. Anal. Chem. 85, 8142–8149.
- Herculano-Houzel, S., 2014. The glia/neuron ratio: how it varies uniformly across brain structures and species and what that means for brain physiology and evolution. Glia 62 (9), 1377–1391.
- Hook, V., et al., 2005. Inhibition of cathepsin B reduces beta-amyloid production in regulated secretory vesicles of neuronal chromaffin cells: evidence for cathepsin B as a candidate beta-secretase of Alzheimer's disease. Biol. Chem. 386, 931–940.
- Howell, S., et al., 1995. Neutral endopeptidase can hydrolyze beta-amyloid(1-40) but shows no effect on beta-amyloid precursor protein metabolism. Peptides 16, 647–652.
- Hu, J., et al., 2001. Angiotensin-converting enzyme degrades Alzheimer amyloid betapeptide (A beta); retards A beta aggregation, deposition, fibril formation; and inhibits cytotoxicity. J. Biol. Chem. 276, 47863–47868.
- Hussain, I., et al., 1999. Identification of a novel aspartic protease (Asp 2) as betasecretase. Mol. Cell. Neurosci. 14, 419–427.
- Jarrett, J.T., et al., 1993. The carboxy terminus of the beta amyloid protein is critical for the seeding of amyloid formation: implications for the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. Biochemistry 32, 4693–4697.
- Klafki, H.W., et al., 1996. Electrophoretic separation of betaA4 peptides (1-40) and (1-42). Anal. Biochem. 237, 24–29.
- Kuo, Y.M., et al., 2001. Comparative analysis of amyloid-beta chemical structure and amyloid plaque morphology of transgenic mouse and Alzheimer's disease brains. J. Biol. Chem. 276, 12991–12998.
- LeBlanc, A.C., et al., 1996. Amyloid precursor protein metabolism in primary cell cultures of neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. J. Neurochem. 66, 2300–2310.
- LeBlanc, A.C., et al., 1997. Processing of amyloid precursor protein in human primary neuron and astrocyte cultures. J. Neurochem. 68, 1183–1190.
- Lee, E.B., et al., 2003. Secretion and intracellular generation of truncated Abeta in beta-site amyloid-beta precursor protein-cleaving enzyme expressing human neurons. J. Biol. Chem. 278, 4458–4466.
- Lewczuk, P., et al., 2004. Neurochemical diagnosis of Alzheimer's dementia by CSF Abeta42, Abeta42/Abeta40 ratio and total tau. Neurobiol. Aging 25, 273–281.
- Lewczuk, P., et al., 2010. Amyloid beta peptides in plasma in early diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: a multicenter study with multiplexing. Exp. Neurol. 223, 366–370.
- Liao, M.C., et al., 2009. Degradation of amyloid beta protein by purified myelin basic protein. J. Biol. Chem. 284, 28917–28925.
- Linning, P., et al., 2012. Optimisation of BACE1 inhibition of tripartite structures by modification of membrane anchors, spacers and pharmacophores – development of potential agents for the treatment of Alzheimer's disease. Org. Biomol. Chem. 10, 8216–8235.

- Maler, J.M., et al., 2007. Urea-based two-dimensional electrophoresis of beta-amyloid peptides in human plasma: evidence for novel Abeta species. Proteomics 7, 3815–3820.
- Maler, J.M., et al., 2008. Adherence-dependent shifts in the patterns of beta-amyloid peptides secreted by human mononuclear phagocytes. Brain Behav. Immun. 22, 1044–1048.
- Mandler, M., et al., 2014. Pyroglutamylated amyloid-beta is associated with hyperphosphorylated tau and severity of Alzheimer's disease. Acta Neuropathol. 128, 67–79.
- Masters, C.L., et al., 1985. Amyloid plaque core protein in Alzheimer disease and Down syndrome. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 82, 4245–4249.
- Mattsson, N., et al., 2012. BACE1 inhibition induces a specific cerebrospinal fluid betaamyloid pattern that identifies drug effects in the central nervous system. PLoS One 7, e31084.
- Miller, D.L., et al., 1993. Peptide compositions of the cerebrovascular and senile plaque core amyloid deposits of Alzheimer's disease. Arch. Biochem. Biophys. 301, 41–52.
- Moore, B.D., et al., 2012. Overlapping profiles of Abeta peptides in the Alzheimer's disease and pathological aging brains. Alzheimers Res. Ther. 4, 18.
- Mosmann, T., 1983. Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assays. J. Immunol. Methods 65, 55–63.
- Nagele, R.G., et al., 2003. Astrocytes accumulate A beta 42 and give rise to astrocytic amyloid plaques in Alzheimer disease brains. Brain Res. 971, 197–209.
- Nussbaum, J.M., et al., 2012. Prion-like behaviour and tau-dependent cytotoxicity of pyroglutamylated amyloid-beta. Nature 485, 651–655.
- Pacheco-Quinto, J., Eckman, E.A., 2013. Endothelin-converting enzymes degrade intracellular beta-amyloid produced within the endosomal/lysosomal pathway and autophagosomes. J. Biol. Chem. 288, 5606–5615.
- Portelius, E., et al., 2013. Mass spectrometric characterization of amyloid-beta species in the 7PA2 cell model of Alzheimer's disease. J. Alzheimers Dis. 33, 85–93.
- Pruss, R.M., 1979. Thy-1 antigen on astrocytes in long-term cultures of rat central nervous system. Nature 280, 688–690.
- Qiu, W.Q., et al., 1998. Insulin-degrading enzyme regulates extracellular levels of amyloid beta-protein by degradation. J. Biol. Chem. 273, 32730–32738.
- Roberds, S.L., et al., 2001. BACE knockout mice are healthy despite lacking the primary beta-secretase activity in brain: implications for Alzheimer's disease therapeutics. Hum. Mol. Genet. 10 (12), 1317–1324.
- Rufenacht, P., et al., 2005. Quantification of the A beta peptide in Alzheimer's plaques by laser dissection microscopy combined with mass spectrometry. J. Mass Spectrom. 40, 193–201.
- Saido, T.C., 1998. Alzheimer's disease as proteolytic disorders: anabolism and catabolism of beta-amyloid. Neurobiol. Aging 19, S69–S75.
- Saido, T.C., Iwata, N., 2006. Metabolism of amyloid beta peptide and pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease. Towards presymptomatic diagnosis, prevention and therapy. Neurosci. Res. 54, 235–253.
- Saido, T.C., et al., 1995. Dominant and differential deposition of distinct beta-amyloid peptide species, A beta N3(pE), in senile plaques. Neuron 14, 457–466.
- Saido, T.C., et al., 1996. Amino- and carboxyl-terminal heterogeneity of beta-amyloid peptides deposited in human brain. Neurosci. Lett. 215, 173–176.
- Schieb, H., et al., 2010. Structural design, solid-phase synthesis and activity of membraneanchored beta-secretase inhibitors on Abeta generation from wild-type and Swedishmutant APP. Chemistry 16, 14412–14423.

- Schieb, H., et al., 2011. Beta-amyloid peptide variants in brains and cerebrospinal fluid from amyloid precursor protein (APP) transgenic mice: comparison with human Alzheimer amyloid. J. Biol. Chem. 286, 33747–33758.
- Schilling, S., et al., 2008. Inhibition of glutaminyl cyclase prevents pGlu-Abeta formation after intracortical/hippocampal microinjection in vivo/in situ. J. Neurochem. 106, 1225–1236.
- Selkoe, D.J., 2001. Alzheimer's disease results from the cerebral accumulation and cytotoxicity of amyloid beta-protein. J. Alzheimers Dis. 3, 75–80.
- Sergeant, N., et al., 2003. Truncated beta-amyloid peptide species in pre-clinical Alzheimer's disease as new targets for the vaccination approach. J. Neurochem. 85, 1581–1591.
- Sevalle, J., et al., 2009. Aminopeptidase A contributes to the N-terminal truncation of amyloid beta-peptide. J. Neurochem. 109, 248–256.
- Smith, P.K., et al., 1985. Measurement of protein using bicinchoninic acid. Anal. Biochem. 150, 76–85.
- Struhl, G., Adachi, A., 2000. Requirements for presenilin-dependent cleavage of notch and other transmembrane proteins. Mol. Cell 6, 625–636.
- Sun, B., et al., 2008. Cystatin C-cathepsin B axis regulates amyloid beta levels and associated neuronal deficits in an animal model of Alzheimer's disease. Neuron 60, 247–257.
- Takeda, K., et al., 2004. Amino-truncated amyloid beta-peptide (Abeta5-40/42) produced from caspase-cleaved amyloid precursor protein is deposited in Alzheimer's disease brain. FASEB J. 18, 1755–1757.
- Thal, D.R., et al., 2006. The development of amyloid beta protein deposits in the aged brain. Sci. Aging Knowl. Environ. re1.
- Tung, J.S., et al., 2002. Design of substrate-based inhibitors of human beta-secretase. J. Med. Chem. 45, 259–262.
- Van Nostrand, W.E., Porter, M., 1999. Plasmin cleavage of the amyloid beta-protein: alteration of secondary structure and stimulation of tissue plasminogen activator activity. Biochemistry 38, 11570–11576.
- Vandermeeren, M., et al., 2001. The functional gamma-secretase inhibitor prevents production of amyloid beta 1-34 in human and murine cell lines. Neurosci. Lett. 315, 145–148.
- Vassar, R., et al., 1999. Beta-secretase cleavage of Alzheimer's amyloid precursor protein by the transmembrane aspartic protease BACE. Science 286, 735–741.
- Veeraraghavalu, et al., 2014. Age-dependent, non-cell-autonomous deposition of amyloid from synthesis of β -amyloid by cells other than excitatory neurons. J. Neurosci. 34 (10), 3668–3673.
- Wang, R., et al., 1996. The profile of soluble amyloid beta protein in cultured cell media. Detection and quantification of amyloid beta protein and variants by immunoprecipitation-mass spectrometry. J. Biol. Chem. 271, 31894–31902.
- Wiltfang, J., et al., 1997. Improved electrophoretic separation and immunoblotting of beta-amyloid (A beta) peptides 1-40, 1-42, and 1-43. Electrophoresis 18, 527–532.
- Wiltfang, J., et al., 2002. Highly conserved and disease-specific patterns of carboxyterminally truncated Abeta peptides 1-37/38/39 in addition to 1-40/42 in Alzheimer's disease and in patients with chronic neuroinflammation. J. Neurochem. 81, 481–496.