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# PPAR $\gamma$ -coactivator-1 $\alpha$  gene transfer reduces neuronal loss and amyloid-β generation by reducing β-secretase in an Alzheimer's disease model

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Current therapies for Alzheimer's disease (AD) are symptomatic and do not target the underlying Aβ pathology and other important hallmarks including neuronal loss. PPAR<sub>Y</sub>-coactivator-1α (PGC-1α) is a cofactor for transcription factors including the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPARγ), and it is involved in the regulation of metabolic genes, oxidative phosphorylation, and mitochondrial biogenesis. We previously reported that PGC-1 $\alpha$  also regulates the transcription of β-APP cleaving enzyme (BACE1), the main enzyme involved in Aβ generation, and its expression is decreased in AD patients. We aimed to explore the potential therapeutic effect of PGC-1 $\alpha$  by generating a lentiviral vector to express human PGC-1 $\alpha$  and target it by stereotaxic delivery to hippocampus and cortex of APP23 transgenic mice at the preclinical stage of the disease. Four months after injection, APP23 mice treated with hPGC-1 $\alpha$  showed improved spatial and recognition memory concomitant with a significant reduction in Aβ deposition, associated with a decrease in BACE1 expression. hPGC-1 $\alpha$ overexpression attenuated the levels of proinflammatory cytokines and microglial activation. This effect was accompanied by a marked preservation of pyramidal neurons in the CA3 area and increased expression of neurotrophic factors. The neuroprotective effects were secondary to a reduction in Aβ pathology and neuroinflammation, because wild-type mice receiving the same treatment were unaffected. These results suggest that the selective induction of PGC-1 $\alpha$  gene in specific areas of the brain is effective in targeting AD-related neurodegeneration and holds potential as therapeutic intervention for this disease.

Aβ | BACE1 | growth factor | inflammation | neurodegeneration

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most prevalent form of de-mentia in the elderly and affects more than 40 million people worldwide. The global cost of dementia is estimated at more than 800 billion USD, without effective treatment that can at least halt, cure, and prevent the disease (World Alzheimer's report 2015, ref. 1). Current drug therapies for AD are merely symptomatic and do not target the underlying cause of the disease. New strategies include disease-modifying treatments, which aim to reduce the production of amyloid-β (Aβ) peptides and plaques or the modified protein tau and tangles. These particular therapies are expected to block the progression of the disease and prevent neuronal loss, but are likely also to have serious side effects (2, 3).

We have recently explored the potential neuroprotective effects of the PPARγ-coactivator 1α (PGC-1α), a transcriptional coactivator for the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ (PPARγ) and for other transcription factors (4). PGC-1 $\alpha$  is abundantly expressed in high-energy demanding tissues such as adipose tissue, liver, skeletal muscle, heart, kidney, and brain (5, 6) where it is involved in the regulation of glucose and lipid metabolism, oxidative phosphorylation, and mitochondrial biogenesis (4, 5).

PGC-1 $\alpha$  has been implicated in various neurodegenerative diseases (6) and its expression is reduced in the brain of AD patients (7, 8). Interestingly, exogenous human PGC-1 $\alpha$  expression in neuroblastoma cells and in primary neurons from the Tg2576 mouse model of AD decreased Aβ generation and increased nonamyloidogenic sAPP $\alpha$  levels (7, 8). Additionally, we showed that PGC-1 $\alpha$  mediates this effect by reducing β-APP cleaving enzyme (BACE1) gene transcription via a PPARγ-dependent mechanism (7). Conversely, crossing Tg2576 with mice deficient in PGC-1 $\alpha$  or silencing PGC-1 $\alpha$  using siRNA transfection in neuronal cells, led to increased Aβ levels (7–9). Pharmacological stimulation of PGC-1 $\alpha$  synthesis with nicotinamide riboside, the precursor of  $NAD<sup>+</sup>$ , resulted in reduced  $Aβ$  levels and attenuated cognitive deterioration in Tg2576 mice (9). Furthermore, treatment with resveratrol, another PGC-1α activator, increased the activity of the Aβ-degrading enzyme neprilysin and reduced amyloid plaques (10). Nevertheless, these drugs may promote these beneficial effects by acting on molecules other than  $PGC-1\alpha$ , and an additional independent approach to investigate these specific functions of PGC-1 $\alpha$  in AD was therefore considered relevant. We hypothesized that gene therapy with  $PGC-1\alpha$  delivered in the brain could be neuroprotective because of its effect on the transcription of genes involved in Aβ generation, energy and glucose metabolism, and oxidative stress.

The aim of this study was to generate a lentiviral vector expressing human PGC-1 $\alpha$  and target it in defined brain regions of APP23 transgenic mice by stereotaxic delivery, allowing us to evaluate the specific effects of this transcriptional regulator and define its potential for gene therapy for AD. Our results show that PGC-1 $\alpha$ prevents neuronal loss by increasing the transcription of growth

### **Significance**

The PPARγ-coactivator-1α (PGC-1α) is a transcriptional regulator of genes involved in energy metabolism. We observed previously that PGC-1 $\alpha$  decreases the generation of A $\beta$  in cell culture, and its levels are reduced in Alzheimer's disease (AD) brains. To determine its potential therapeutic role in vivo, we delivered PGC-1 $\alpha$ in specific brain areas of an AD model by using viral vectors. We found that PGC-1α–injected mice showed decreased Aβ plaques by reducing the expression of the main enzyme involved in Aβ production, preserving most neurons in the brain and performing as well as wild-type mice in cognitive tests. Therefore, PGC-1 $\alpha$ selective delivery shows promising therapeutic value in AD.

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factors and by decreasing Aβ-mediated neuroinflammation in those animals, consolidating the potential of PGC-1 $\alpha$  gene delivery as treatment for AD.

#### **Results**

Effective Transduction of PGC1 $\alpha$  Using RVG-B2c Lentiviral Vectors Confers Neurotropism and High Expression in the Brain. Lentiviral vectors (LV) that efficiently transduce neurons were generated, compared by various combinations of gene promoters and viral envelope glycoproteins. We first tested vesicular stomatitis viral glycoprotein (VSVG) and rabies virus glycoprotein B2c (RVG). Pseudotyping lentiviral vectors with the RVG envelope glycoprotein confers both neurotropism and, more importantly, the ability of retrograde transport along neuronal axons (11). Additionally, we compared lentiviral vectors carrying the ubiquitous human CMV major immediate-early enhancer/promoter or the neuronal-specific human synapsin I (SYN) gene promoter. We generated combinations of VSVG-CMV, VSVG-SYN, RVG-CMV, and RVG-SYN vectors that carried the enhanced GFP (eGFP) gene and injected them unilaterally in the brain of wild-type mice ([SI Text](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) and [Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1) A–[L](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1)). RVG-CMV resulted in higher expression, transduced cells both proximal and distal to the site of injection and preferentially transduced pyramidal neurons in the cortex and the CA1 area of the hippocampus (HIP) [\(Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1)  $G-L$  $G-L$ ). CMV promoter was selected because it resulted in higher expres-sion compared with the SYN promoter [\(Fig. S1](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF1)  $E-M$  $E-M$ ). The neurotropism of the vector was confirmed by costaining for eGFP and NeuN (Fig. 1 *A–D*), and by showing little or no localization of the transgene with astrocytes or microglia by costaining of eGFP with Iba1 and GFAP (Fig. 1 E–H). Therefore, the RVG-CMV-eGFP LV and RVG-CMV- hPGC-1α LV (further referred as LV-eGFP and LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$ ) were generated as the vectors of choice (Fig. 1*I*).

The efficiency of the lentiviral vectors LV-eGFP and LVhPGC-1α injected in the cortex and HIP of wild-type and APP23 mice was measured 4 mo after injection (p.i.). The expression of hPGC-1 $\alpha$  protein in the brain of injected mice was evaluated by IHC using an antibody against the V5 tag, at the N terminus of the hPGC-1 $\alpha$  construct (Fig. 1J). Moreover, hPGC-1 $\alpha$  mRNA expression was confirmed by quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) analysis in the HIP, parietal cortex (Pt Ctx), and frontal cortex (Ft Ctx) of the injected APP23 mice (Fig.  $1K$ ).

hPGC-1 $\alpha$  Gene Delivery Improves Spatial and Recognition Memory in APP23 Mice. We next determined the therapeutic effects of longterm overexpression of hPGC-1 $\alpha$  in the cortex and HIP of wild-

type and APP23 mice, delivering it at the age of 8 mo and lasting for 4.5 mo (Fig. 2A). At 8 mo, female APP23 mice show the first rare amyloid deposits, representing the preclinical stage of the disease (12–14). To assess any adverse effects, we monitored several parameters after surgery, including body weight, mobility, and anxiety ([Supporting Information](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT) and Fig.  $S2A-C$  $S2A-C$ ).

To define whether chronic expression of  $LV$ -hPGC-1 $\alpha$  in the cortex and HIP of APP23 and wild-type mice affected their memory, behavioral tests were carried out 4 mo p.i. Spatial memory was evaluated by object location task (OLT), based on the spontaneous tendency of rodents to spend more time exploring a relocated object (Fig. 2B and [Fig. S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF2)D). The APP23 mice (at 12 mo of age) that received the control vector displayed spatial memory deficits and were not able to discriminate between the displaced and the nondisplaced object (Fig. 2B). Conversely, APP23 animals injected with LV-hPGC-1α showed no deficits in spatial memory and performed as well as the two groups of wild-type mice, all preferring the displaced object (Fig. 2B). Following OLT, the mice were subjected to the novel object recognition test (NOR), which measures their ability to explore longer a novel object over a familiar one (Fig. 2C and [Fig. S2](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF2)E). The results of the NOR revealed that the APP23/LV-hPGC-1α mice were able to discriminate and explored for a longer time the



Fig. 1. RVG-CMV lentiviral vector confers high transgene expression in neurons of hPGC-1α lentiviral-injected mice. (A–D) Representative images of the CA1 area of HIP for eGFP (green), NeuN (red), and GFAP (blue) from RVG-CMV-eGFP–injected wild-type mice showing clear colocalization of NeuN and eGFP and little or no colocalization of eGFP with GFAP. (E-H) Representative images of the CA1 area of HIP show low colocalization of microglia (Iba1-red) or astrocytes (GFAP-blue) with the transgene (eGFP-green) in RVG-CMV-eGFP-injected APP23 mouse brains. (/) Schematic of the genome plasmids used to generate the LV vectors. The upper construct represents the pRRL-sincppt-CMV-eGFP-WPRE and the lower one the pRRL-sincppt-CMVhPGC-1α-WPRE lentiviral genome plasmids. (J) Anti-V5 immunohistochemistry in a LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$ –injected mouse 4.5 mo p.i. confirmed expression of the transgene in cortex and HIP. Tiled images were obtained at 10x magnification and generated by Image-Pro Plus 6 software. Inset shows a magnification of CA3 area. (K) Quantitative mRNA analysis for hPGC-1 $\alpha$  showed increased expression in HIP ( $n = 6$ ), parietal cortex (Pt Ctx;  $n = 7$ ) and frontal cortex (Ft Ctx;  $n = 5$ ) of LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$ -injected APP23 compared with the APP23/LV-eGFP mice 4 mo p.i.  $*P < 0.05$ ,  $*P < 0.01$ , two-tailed Student's t test. (Scale bars: 50 μm.)



Fig. 2. Cortical and hippocampal expression of hPGC-1 $\alpha$  prevents memory decline in APP23 mice. (A) Schematic representation of the experimental procedure. Mice were injected at 8 mo of age, and behavioral tests were carried out 1 mo and 4 mo p.i., when tissues were harvested. (B) APP23/LVhPGC-1α mice 4 mo after surgery had intact spatial memory assessed by object location task (OLT), whereas the APP23/LV-eGFP–injected mice showed memory deficits. The shaded columns show the displaced object (D) and the nonshaded the nondisplaced object (ND). (C) NOR testing session showing that the APP23/LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$  mice had recognition memory values similar to the wildtype levels, whereas the APP23/LV-eGFP were unable to discriminate between the novel (labeled N, shaded columns) and the familiar object (labeled F) ( $n =$ 8–10). Two-tailed Student's t test, \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01; \*\*\*P < 0.001.

novel object, whereas the APP23/LV-eGFP mice showed profound deficits (Fig. 2C). It is worth noting that the expression of hPGC-1 $\alpha$ in the brain did not improve the performance of wild-type mice (Fig. 2C). These combined results demonstrate that lentiviral-mediated hPGC-1α expression prevented memory deficits in APP23 mice.

hPGC-1α Chronic Overexpression Reduces BACE1, Aβ Levels, and **Plaque Load in APP23 Mice.** To quantify  $\mathsf{A}\beta$  load by IHC, we used a monoclonal Aβ-specific antibody that does not cross-react with full-length APP or carboxy-terminus domains (CTFs) (15). Histopathological examination revealed significantly lower Αβ burden in cortex (19.1% reduction) and HIP (30% reduction) in APP23/LVhPGC-1α mice compared with animals injected with the control vector (Fig. 3 A–C). Plaque burden was quantified after brain sections were stained with AmyloGlo, instead of the standard Thioflavin-S dye, because this interfered with eGFP detection. We



hPGC-1 $\alpha$  Attenuates Neuroinflammation in APP23 Mice. The APP23 mouse model of brain amyloidopathy exhibits a strong neuroinflammatory component (12–14). We quantified the density of microglia and astrocytes in areas surrounding amyloid plaques of





similar size (Fig.  $4A-L$ ). Microglial activation was detected by IHC for Iba-1 and found attenuated in APP23 injected with LV-hPGC-1α compared with animals injected with control vector (Fig. 4 B, D–F, and H–J). We did not observe major changes in astrocytosis surrounding the plaques, detected by GFAP staining (Fig. 4 C, D, G,  $H$ ,  $K$ , and  $L$ ), although total GFAP expression was reduced in hippocampal homogenates of APP23/LV-hPGC-1α mice (Fig. 4M). Importantly, the expression of the main proinflammatory cytokines TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  was significantly reduced in the APP23/LVhPGC-1 $\alpha$  mice compared with the APP23/LV-eGFP mice (Fig. 4 N and O), whereas no significant changes were observed for IL-6, IL-10, and MCP-1 (Fig. 4  $P-R$ ). In summary, hPGC-1 $\alpha$  affects the activation of microglia, reducing their proinflammatory profile.

## hPGC-1 $\alpha$  Prevents Neuronal Loss in the Hippocampus of APP23 Mice.

APP23 mice suffer neuronal loss in specified hippocampal areas at age 12 mo (16) and was confirmed by immunohistochemical analysis with NeuN in brains of APP23/LV-eGFP mice, showing a 30% reduction in neuronal number in the CA3, compared with wild-type/LV-eGFP mice (Fig. 5  $A$ ,  $C$ ,  $E$ ,  $G$ ,  $I$ ). Remarkably, in APP23 mice treated with LV-hPGC-1α, we observed a marked preservation of pyramidal neurons in the CA3 (Fig. 5 D, H, I), consistent with the absence of memory impairment described above. We found no significant changes in neuronal density in the dentate gyrus and subiculum in LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$ –injected mice (Fig. 5J and Fig.  $S4A-E$  $S4A-E$ ), suggesting that the neuroprotective effect was not linked to increased neurogenesis. In addition,  $PGC-1α$  gene delivery did not alter neuronal count in the brains of wild-type mice, indicating that the positive effect on neurons was associated with reduced amyloid load and pathology (Fig.  $5 \, A, B, E, G, I$ ). This conclusion was further supported by data showing increased mRNA expression of the neuroprotective factor (Fig. 5K) and the levels of the postsynaptic protein PSD-95 only in APP23/LVhPGC-1 $\alpha$  and not in wild-type mice (Fig. 5*M* and [Fig. S4](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF4)*F*). Interestingly, the expression of Ngf was found increased in both wild-type and APP23 mice overexpressing hPGC-1 $\alpha$  (Fig. 5L).

#### Discussion

The present study shows that gene delivery of hPGC-1 $\alpha$  in the brain of transgenic APP23 mice reduced amyloid deposition, improved memory, and prevented neuronal loss. Importantly, we describe a potential treatment that can preserve neuronal viability and improve memory in AD, corroborating other neuroprotective approaches such as gene therapy with growth factors. This approach was recently highlighted in AD patients treated with NGF gene delivery, which revealed increased axonal sprouting, cell hypertrophy, and activation of functional markers (17).

The observed PGC-1α–mediated positive effects, however, do not seem to involve alterations in neuronal proliferation, because the preservation of dentate gyrus integrity, an area directly involved in neurogenesis, remained unchanged by LV-hPGC-1α. Most interestingly, increased expression of neurotrophic factors



Fig. 4. LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$  gene delivery in cortex and HIP of APP23 mice reduces neuroinflammation. (A–H) Representative cortical images from confocal imaging of triple staining for AmyloGlo (green), Iba1 (red), and GFAP (magenta) in LV-eGFP (A-D) and LV-hPGC-1α-injected APP23 mice (E-H); n = 5. (Scale bars: 125 μm.) Quantification of mean gray area ( $\beta$  and percentage of coverage by microglial cells ( $\beta$  showed a marked reduction of microglial activation in the APP23 mice LV-hPGC-1α ( $n = 5$ , four sections per mouse). GFAP-positive astrocytes surrounding the plaques were quantified as mean gray area (K) or percentage of coverage (L) ( $n = 5$ , four sections per mouse). (M) Representative Western blot in total hippocampal homogenates and quantification of GFAP (n = 5). (N–R) ELISAs for cytokines TNF- $\alpha$  (N), IL-1β (O), IL-6 (P), IL-10 (Q), and MCP-1 (R) in the frontal cortices and hippocampi ( $n = 5$ ). \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001, two-tailed Student's t test.



Fig. 5. Attenuation of neuronal loss in the CA3 area of APP23 mice by hPGC-1 $\alpha$  gene delivery. (A-D) Representative pictures of NeuN staining in hippocampi of wild-type/LV-eGFP (A), wild-type/LV-hPGC-1α (B), APP23/LV-eGFP (C), and APP23/LV-hPGC-1α mice (D). (E–H) Higher magnification images of A–D illustrating the striking reduction in neuronal loss in the CA3 area in APP23 mice that received LV-hPGC-1α. (I) Quantification of neuronal numbers in the CA3 showing the neuroprotective effect of LV-hPGC1α injection in APP23 mice ( $n = 3-5$ ). Two-way ANOVA test [Interaction  $F_{(1,13)} = 9.275$ ,  $P = 0.0094$ , Treatment  $F_{(1,13)} = 2.544$ ,  $P = 0.134$ , Genotype  $F_{(1,13)} = 34.27$ ,  $P <$ 0.0001]. (J) Quantification of neuronal density in the dentate gyrus (DG). (K) Bdnf mRNA detected by qRT-PCR was significantly increased in HIP of APP23/LVhPGC-1 $\alpha$  injected mice (n = 5). Two-way ANOVA test [Interaction  $F_{(1,16)} = 0.299$ ,  $P < 0.05$ , Treatment  $F_{(1,16)} = 0.4178$ ,  $P < 0.05$ , Genotype  $F_{(1,19)} = 0.0407$ ,  $P =$ 0.439]. (L) Ngf mRNA levels were significantly increased in both wild types and APP23 injected with LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$ . Two-way ANOVA test [Interaction  $F_{(1,18)} =$ 0.0057,  $P = 0.092$ , Treatment  $F_{(1,18)} = 0.628$ ,  $P <$ 0.01, Genotype  $F_{(1,18)} = 0.0197$ ,  $P = 0.581$ ],  $*P <$ 0.05,  $n = 5-6$ . (*M*) Representative Western blot and quantification for PSD-95 ( $n = 4$ ), one-way ANOVA \*\*\* $P$  < 0.001. (Scale bars: A-D, 0.250 mm; E-H, 0.1 mm.)

NGF and BDNF was evident following LV-hPGC-1 $\alpha$  gene therapy and both exert neuroprotective properties in AD (18, 19). In line with our findings was the report showing that exerciseinduced BDNF expression was mediated by PGC-1α regulation of Fndc5 gene expression (20). Moreover, PPARγ and PPARα, the main transcription factors regulated by  $PGC-1\alpha$ , induced the transcription of BDNF in cultured neurons and glial cells (21, 22). Combined, these data are fully consistent with a mechanism for the neuroprotective effects of hPGC-1 $\alpha$  in APP23 mice mediated, at least partially, by increased transcription of specific growth factors (Fig.  $S5K$ ). Consistent with our results, previous work demonstrated that PGC-1α knockout mice develop neurological abnormalities and show prominent neurodegeneration (23, 24).

In addition, our data indicate that the beneficial effects on memory and neurodegeneration are a consequence of the reduction in Aβ generation and the associated inflammatory response, because memory, BDNF levels, PSD95 expression, and neuronal numbers were not affected in wild-type mice that received the same LV-hPGC-1α treatment. Therefore, the therapeutic effect of PGC-1α required a proinflammatory state to be effective, in this case evidently caused by hAPP overexpression and  $\mathcal{A}\beta$  production in the APP23 mice ([Fig. S5](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF5)K). Furthermore, because we found that hPGC-1 $\alpha$  was mostly expressed in neurons, we presume that the antiinflammatory reaction observed by hPGC-1 $\alpha$ delivery in the brain is secondary to the decrease on Aβ levels produced by neurons, because Aβ is able to induce a proinflammatory reaction in the brain (25). Our results do not support a noticeable involvement of enhanced mitochondrial function ([Fig. S5\)](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=SF5) or the autophagy/lysosomal pathway in the neuroprotective effects of PGC-1 $α$  in APP23, as suggested in other neurological disease models, such as Huntington's disease (26).

A recent study of a bigenic model obtained crossing the Tg19959 with PGC-1 $\alpha$  transgenic mice reported reductions in the levels of Aβ40 by ELISA, whereas increased Congo red staining for aggregated Aβ. The results of this publication were obtained from a transgenic mouse overexpressing elevated levels of PGC-1α under a promoter not specific for a particular cell type and, consequently, the results do not necessarily have to coincide with our model, in which the gene is expressed for only 4 mo in certain brain areas (27). Indeed, sustained high overexpression of PGC-1 $\alpha$  produced

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toxic effects in muscles and heart, caused or accompanied by extensive mitochondrial proliferation and by myopathy (28, 29). Extremely high levels of PGC-1 $\alpha$  achieved with adenoviral vectors also resulted in deleterious effects in dopaminergic neurons, in susbtantia nigra (30, 31) as opposed to the striatum, where fourfold higher levels were not toxic, in mouse models of Huntington's and Parkinson's diseases (32, 33). The different outcomes in different studies must relate to the fact that dopaminergic neurons are more susceptible to degeneration from oxidative damage than other neuronal subtypes and suggest that selective delivery in specific brain regions is necessary to achieve beneficial effects. The lentiviral vector for delivery of hPGC-1α in our study was well tolerated, did not trigger adverse effects, and allowed sustained expression of the transgene for months. Successful proof-of-principle studies of gene therapy using similarly pseudotyped lentiviral vectors have been demonstrated in animal models of ALS (34, 35), spinal muscular atrophy (36), and spinal nerve injury (37). In addition, we have developed and tested a similar vector for dopamine replacement therapy in late stage Parkinson's disease patients in a phase I/II clinical trial, showing long-term expression and improved motor behavior in treated patients (38). We believe, therefore, that future innovations in gene therapy provide hope and clinical potential also in Alzheimer's dementia. Although this method of delivery is at this time invasive and, therefore, has some translational limitations, our data provide a proof of concept for future drug discovery programs aimed to induce the PGC-1α gene to target neurodegeneration.

#### Materials and Methods

Animals. Eight-month-old female APP23 mice (Novartis) and wild-type littermates (C57BL/6) were used (12). The experiments were designed and approved in compliance with the UK Home Office.

Lentiviral Vectors and Injections. Recombinant nonreplicative HIV-1–based LVs were produced based on methods described (39) ([SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT)).

Immunohistochemistry and Immunofluorescence. Antibodies were incubated overnight at 4 °C (anti-Αβ MOAB-2 1:1,000, anti-V5 1:500, and anti-NeuN, 1:500) and subsequent developing steps were performed as described (14) ([SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT)). For immunofluorescent stainings, sections were incubated with AmyloGlo (Biosensis) and primary antibodies against eGFP (Abcam), Iba1 (Wako), GFAP (Invitrogen), and NeuN (Millipore) at 1:500 dilution

and detected with secondary antibodies (AlexaFluor dyes; Invitrogen). Images were captured by using a Leica SP5 Confocal microscope.

Protein Analysis. Western blot analysis was carried out as described (14) by using antibodies against Aβ (clone 6E10) and sAPPβ (Covance), BACE1 (Cell Signaling), PSD-95, IDE and LC3 (Abcam), COX-4 (from Kambiz Alavian, Imperial College London, London, UK), hPGC-1α and neprilysin (Santa Cruz) used at a 1:1,000 dilution, R1(57) (from P. Mehta, New York State Institute for Basic Research in Developmental Disabilities, Staten Island, NY) at a 1:2,000 dilution and 140 (from Jochen Walter, University Bonn, Bonn, Germany) against CT-of APP and APOE (Santa Cruz) at a 1:500 dilution, V5 (Invitrogen) at a 1:5,000, and LRP-1 (from Claus Pietrzik, University Mainz, Mainz, Germany) and β-actin (Abcam) at a 1:10,000 dilution. The intensity of the bands was quantified by densitometry using ImageJ software, and sample loading was normalized to β-actin. The levels of human Αβ40 and Aβ42 were determined by using a High Sensitivity Human Amyloid β40 and β42 ELISA kit (Millipore). For the mouse cytokines, we used kits from Preprotech.

RNA Extraction and qRT-PCR. Tissues were lysed and homogenized in TRIzol reagent (Ambion), and total RNA was isolated by using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen). First-strand cDNA was generated by using Taqman reverse transcription reagents

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(Applied Biosystems) for Taqman Probes or QuantiTect Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen) for custom-made primers ([SI Materials and Methods](http://www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1606171113/-/DCSupplemental/pnas.201606171SI.pdf?targetid=nameddest=STXT)). qPCR was performed by using TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix or Quantifast SYBR green in a 7900HT real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems). mRNA quantities were normalized to Gapdh after determination by the comparative Ct method.

Statistical Analysis. The data were analyzed with GraphPad Prism version 6 and SPSS version 20 (IBM) by using two-tailed Student's t test or Mann–Whitney test, two-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc analysis and correlation analysis. Power analysis was performed by using GPower 3.0. Columns represent means  $\pm$  SEM. Differences were considered significant for  $P < 0.5$ .

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