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Melatonin treatment enhances A β lymphatic clearance in a transgenic mouse model of amyloidosis

M. A. Pappolla^{1,*}, E. Matsubara², R. Vidal³, J. Pacheco-Quinto⁴, B. Poeggeler⁵, M. Zagorski⁶, K. Sambamurti^{7,†}

¹Department of Neurology, University of Texas Medical Branch, 301 University Boulevard Galveston, TX 77555, United States

²Department of Neurology, Oita University Faculty of medicine, 1-1 Idaigaoka, Hasama, Yufu, Oita 879-5593, Japan

³Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Indiana University School of Medicine, 635 Barnhill Dr., MSB A176, Indianapolis, IN 46202, United States

⁴Biomedical Research Institute of New Jersey, Mid Atlantic Neonatology Associates and Atlantic Health System, Morristown, NJ 07960, United States

⁵Johann-Friedrich-Blumenbach Institute of Zoology and Anthropology, Faculty of Biology and Psychology, Georg-August-Universität Göttingen, Am Türmchen 3, D-33332 Gütersloh, Germany

⁶Department of Chemistry, Case Western University 10900 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio 44106, United States

⁷Department of Neurosciences, Medical University of South Carolina, 173 Ashley Avenue, BSB 403, Charleston, SC 29425, United States

Abstract

Background: It has been postulated that inadequate clearance of the amyloid β protein (A β) plays an important role in the accumulation of A β in sporadic late onset Alzheimer's disease (AD). While the blood brain barrier (BBB) has taken the center stage in processes involving A β clearance, little information is available about the role of the lymphatic system. We previously reported that A β is cleared through the lymphatic system. We now re-assessed lymphatic A β clearance by treating a mouse model of AD amyloidosis with melatonin, an A β aggregation inhibitor and immuno-regulatory neurohormone.

Objective: To confirm and expand our initial finding that A β is cleared through the lymphatic system. Lymphatic clearance of metabolic and cellular “waste” products from the brain into the peripheral lymphatic system has been known for a long time. However, except for our prior report, there is no additional experimental data published about A β being cleared into peripheral lymph nodes.

Methods: For these experiments, we used a transgenic mouse model (Tg2576) that over-expresses a mutant form of the A β precursor protein (APP) in the brain. We examined levels of A β

* Pappolla@aol.com, to whom correspondence should be addressed. †Co-corresponding author. sambak@musc.edu.

in plasma and in lymph nodes of transgenic mice as surrogate markers of vascular and lymphatic clearance, respectively. A β levels were also measured in the brain and in multiple tissues.

Results: Clearance of A β peptides through the lymphatic system was confirmed in this study. Treatment with melatonin led to the following changes: 1-A statistically significant increase in soluble monomeric A β 40 and an increasing trend in monomeric A β 42 in cervical and axillary lymph nodes of treated mice. 2-Statistically significant decreases in oligomeric A β 40 and a decreasing trend in A β 42 in the brain.

Conclusion: The data expands on our prior report that the lymphatic system participates in A β clearance from the brain. We propose that abnormalities in A β clearance through the lymphatic system may contribute to the development of cerebral amyloidosis. Melatonin and related indole molecules (i.e., indole-3-propionic acid) are known to inhibit A β aggregation although they do not reverse aggregated A β or amyloid fibrils. Therefore, these substances should be further explored in prevention trials for delaying the onset of cognitive impairment in high risk populations.

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is characterized by brain deposits of mostly 40 to 42 amino acid peptides, the amyloid β protein (A β), in senile plaques and intracranial blood vessels (1). A β exhibits a strong tendency to aggregate into neurotoxic oligomeric forms (2). The "amyloid hypothesis" of AD proposes that elevated levels of A β oligomers trigger a downstream cascade of oxidative (3-6) and pro-inflammatory (7) events which may contribute to the widespread death of neurons and dementia (8).

Although genetic forms of AD are associated with increased production of the longer A β 42 species that tends to aggregate more rapidly, extensive studies have not detected such increases in typical late onset AD (LOAD), where the cause of A β accumulation remains unknown. Inadequate clearance of A β has been proposed to play a significant role in A β accumulation in LOAD (9); however, attention has almost exclusively been focused on the blood brain barrier (BBB) as the principal pathway for A β clearance with the lymphatic system remaining largely overlooked. Although the parenchyma of the brain does not contain lymphatic channels, numerous investigations in rodents, primates and humans have revealed multiple systems that operate simultaneously to clear cellular waste products from the brain into the peripheral lymphatic system (for review see (10, 11)).

Recently, we have published data connecting brain A β accumulation with the peripheral lymphatic system in a mouse model of amyloidosis (12). Here, we evaluated the role of the lymphatic system in the removal of A β from brain tissue after treating AD transgenic mice with melatonin, an A β aggregation inhibitor and neuroprotective molecule (13-20). Melatonin has been originally proposed to play a potential role in AD (13, 14). In addition, melatonin has several immune-regulatory properties which could potentially contribute to the phenomenon reported in this paper (21, 22). For these experiments, we used a transgenic mouse model (Tg2576) that over-expresses a mutant form of the A β precursor protein (A β PP) in the brain (23). Tg2576 mice accumulate A β in the brain and develop cognitive abnormalities (23). By using melatonin, we attempted to increase the brain ratio

of monomeric to oligomeric A β in Tg2576, facilitating A β clearance from the brain through the lymphatic system.

Materials and Methods

AD transgenic mice

We used the transgenic mice Tg2576 that over-express the 695-amino-acid isoform of human A β PP containing a Lys670 \rightarrow Asn and a Met 671 \rightarrow Leu mutation found in a Swedish family with early onset AD (23). The animals were genotyped twice, at birth and after sacrifice, using a standard PCR protocol. Mice were terminated and tissues were collected at 4 months plus one week of age and 15.5 months of age. Mice were housed up to 4 to a cage in air-conditioned rooms at 22 °C with alternating twelve hours of light and darkness and fed *ad libitum* with AIN76A (Bethlehem, PA, USA). The Institutional Animal Review Board approved the use of mice for this study which complied with the National Institutes of Health guide for the care and use of laboratory animals.

A β measurement in tissue from mice

We examined A β levels in plasma and in lymph nodes of Tg2576 mice as surrogate markers of vascular and lymphatic clearance, respectively. A β levels were also measured in multiple tissues as indicated below. Upon sacrifice, cerebral frontal cortex and cervical and axillary lymph nodes (as well as several organs) were dissected and homogenized for ELISA quantification as described (9, 12). These lymph nodes sites are known to “connect” with the brain in an immunological sense (12). Due to their extremely small size, which required a tedious dissection using a neurosurgical microscope, the cervical and axillary lymph nodes in individual animals were combined to provide adequate tissue quantity for the measurements. Soluble A β 40 was quantified in homogenates from fractions extracted with Tris-saline (TS) buffer (150mg/ml). As characterized previously (24-26), we used the 100,000 x *g* supernatants with the BNT77-BA27 in ELISA to mainly quantify monomeric A β x-40 (Wako, Osaka, Japan) or the BNT77-BC05 in ELISA to mainly quantify monomeric A β x-42 (Wako, Osaka, Japan). The obtained values were normalized to the wet tissue weight. Quantification of oligomeric A β was performed as described (27). Briefly, microplates (Maxisorp White Microplate, Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) were pre-coated with monoclonal 2C3 for antigen capture (27, 28), and sequentially incubated for 24 h at 4°C with 100 μ l of the different samples followed by 24-hour incubation at 4°C with horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated BA27 Fab’ fragment (anti- 1-40, Wako, Osaka, Japan) or horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated BC05 Fab’ fragment (anti-A β 35-43, Wako, Osaka, Japan). The conjugate was detected by chemiluminescence using the SuperSignal ELISA Pico substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA) on a Veritas Microplate Luminometer (Promega, Madison, WI).

Melatonin treatment of mice.

Melatonin treatment, 2 mg/ml in drinking water, started at 4 months of age, and continued until euthanasia after 1 week or at 15.5 months of age. Ultrapure pharmaceutical grade melatonin (Helsinn Pharmaceuticals, Biasca, Switzerland) was dissolved in hydroxymethylcyclodextrin at a concentration of 50 mg/ml and subsequently diluted in the

drinking water to a final concentration of 2 mg/ml. An equal amount of vehicle without melatonin was added to the drinking water of untreated mice. Treated and untreated animals consumed similar quantities of fluid (an average of 3 ml/day) as estimated by periodic body weights and water measurements. The treatment was initiated at 4 months of age and independent groups of treated and control cohorts were sacrificed at 4 months (baseline measurements after a 1-week treatment) and at 15.5 months (15 months and 2 weeks treatment).

Statistical analysis

Where applicable, the data were analyzed by comparing the groups by the F test (when the variances were different in the groups being compared; i.e., at 15.5 months) or by a two-tailed t test (when the variances were not different; i.e., at 4 months), with the statistical software using GraphPad Prism for Windows, (GraphPad Software, San Diego, California). Sample size (n) for each treatment is noted in the figures by ticks. Typically, we lose about 40-50% of these transgenic animals in an aging study. Some of the treated groups for the 15.5 months had a larger “n” than untreated groups because melatonin treatment eliminated early deaths, reducing attrition dramatically to non-transgenic levels.

Results

As predicted by its anti-aggregation properties, melatonin treatment yielded an increase in soluble monomeric A β 40 in brain (strong trend; p 0.07) and lymph nodes (significant: p 0.017) at 15.5 months, compared to untreated (control) mice. This increase was not observed for A β 42 in the brain, although we observed a moderate trend in the same direction in lymph nodes (p 0.1) (figure 2). A β was *undetectable in control splenic lymphatic tissue* and either undetectable or at very low levels in several other control tissues from the same mice such as the heart, liver, kidney, lung and intestine, strongly suggesting that the A β peptides found in the lymph nodes are derived from the brain (not shown). Remarkably, treated animals at 15.5 months also showed a *significant decrease* in oligomeric A β 40 and a decreasing trend in A β 42 in the brain when compared to untreated mice of the same age (Figures 1 and 2). In contrast, plasma A β levels at 15.5 months remained unchanged by treatment suggesting that clearance through the lymphatic system may be more effective than through the BBB at the ages studied in this model.

Discussion

Previously, we presented evidence of A β clearance through the peripheral lymphatic system in a mouse model of amyloidosis (12). Here, the data further confirms and advances our knowledge regarding this pathway for A β clearance. Although the brain parenchyma lacks lymphatic vessels, several mechanisms involving the lymphatic system have been proposed to participate in the clearance of cellular debris and metabolic waste from the mammalian central nervous system (10, 11). These include pathways along cranial nerves, spinal nerves, the cribriform plate, meningeal lymphatic channels and paravascular pathways including the glymphatic system (10, 11). In addition to the pathways of clearance mentioned here, it is likely that active cellular transport mechanisms are in play. For example, the murine PirB (paired immunoglobulin-like receptor B) and its human ortholog LILRB2 (leukocyte

immunoglobulin-like receptor B2), present in human brain, are receptors for A β peptides (29). These receptors, which are members of the immunoglobulin superfamily, are found in dendritic cells. These cells are known to “travel” between brain and lymph nodes (30).

Because of the presence of A β peptides in the interstitial cerebral fluid, several investigators have also proposed that A β peptides might be drained into peripheral lymph nodes (31-33). However, except for our prior paper (12) and the data presented here, there is no additional experimental evidence published about A β being cleared into peripheral lymph nodes. A caveat of this investigation is the possibility of A β being produced in the lymph nodes themselves. However, the fact that the Prnp promoter drives the expression of the transgene in the brain, such possibility is extremely unlikely. In addition, A β was absent in control splenic lymphoid tissue from the same transgenic mice further reinforcing the concept of A β lymphatic clearance.

The routes of A β elimination through the lymphatic system are not yet fully known. The existence of a “glymphatic clearance pathway” has been proposed (31, 34), although brain derived A β peptide has not been traced directly to peripheral lymph nodes (except for our mentioned previous study).

In the last few years, several genes that associate with increased risk of AD have been discovered. Because the products of some of these genes are involved in immune functions, the study of the lymphatic system highlights a new perspective in AD pathogenesis. In fact, one recent study has shown that stimulation of the innate immune system can reduce both A β and tau pathology, consistent with this being an important therapeutic target (35). Consequently, the role of the peripheral lymphatic system in AD warrants a fresh reassessment of our conventional thinking. We propose that different biological insults may lead to dysfunction of the lymphatic system (i.e., viral infections or viral reactivation, age related immune-dysfunctions, hormonal deficiencies, among several others) and may contribute to amyloid accumulation in sporadic AD. Numerous inhibitors of A β aggregation have been developed in the last 2 decades. However, melatonin may be of importance because it is the *only physiologic inhibitor* which also shows profound decreases in AD compared to age matched individuals (36). Because melatonin inhibits only the early stages of A β aggregation (nucleation phase) and it does not reverse oligomers or fibrils once they have formed, the findings may have important implications for AD prevention. Since our initial reports two decades ago (13, 14, 37), many peer-reviewed studies have been published, confirming the effects of melatonin on A β aggregation and neuroprotection (18, 38). Pineal and retinal melatonin is involved in circadian rhythm regulation, and has several physiological functions including vascular actions, antioxidative and neuroprotective properties (39, 40). Melatonin receptor subtypes appear to be differentially affected in the course of AD (40). Melatonin has also a role on gene expression and alters age-related changes in transcription factors and kinase activation (41). More recently, investigations in transgenic models of amyloidosis showed that reduction of amyloid load in melatonin treated mice occurs only when treatment begins prior to the onset of amyloid accumulation (42).

Melatonin trials conducted in the clinical phase of AD have either failed (43) or show modest positive effects on cognition (44, 45). *However, no double blind, placebo control clinical trials using melatonin for AD prevention have ever been conducted.* Based on the preclinical data mentioned previously, it is more likely that melatonin will *prevent* A β aggregation rather than reverse the neuropathology in the clinically manifested phases of the disease. However, there is longitudinal neuropsychological data available suggesting that patients afflicted with mild cognitive impairment perform significantly better than it would be expected, when they are treated with melatonin (46). In addition, melatonin experts such as Cardinali et al and others, have pointed to problems with the dosages used in the trials of melatonin in AD conducted that would need to be revisited (47). We hope that this contribution will stimulate further research into this area, including studies of melatonin pharmacokinetics as it applies to lymphatic clearance of A β as well as the fate of A β in melatonin treated models of AD. Melatonin or its analogs [i.e., indole-3-propionic acid (48, 49)] should be further explored for the prevention of AD in high risk populations.

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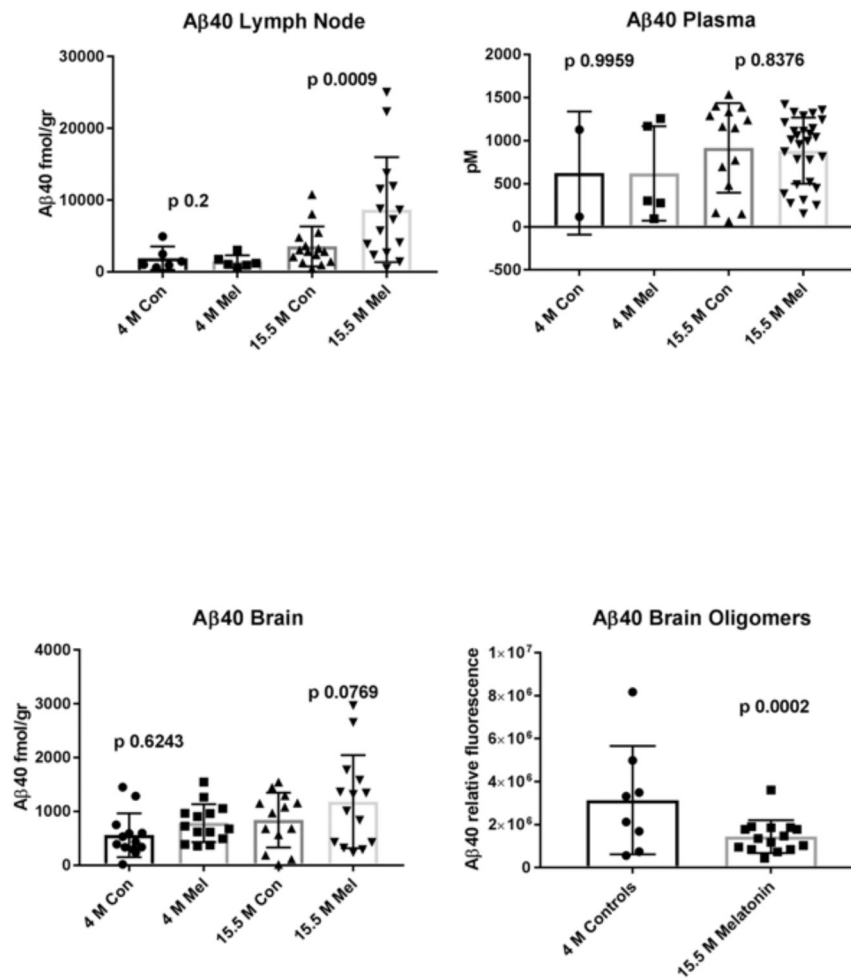
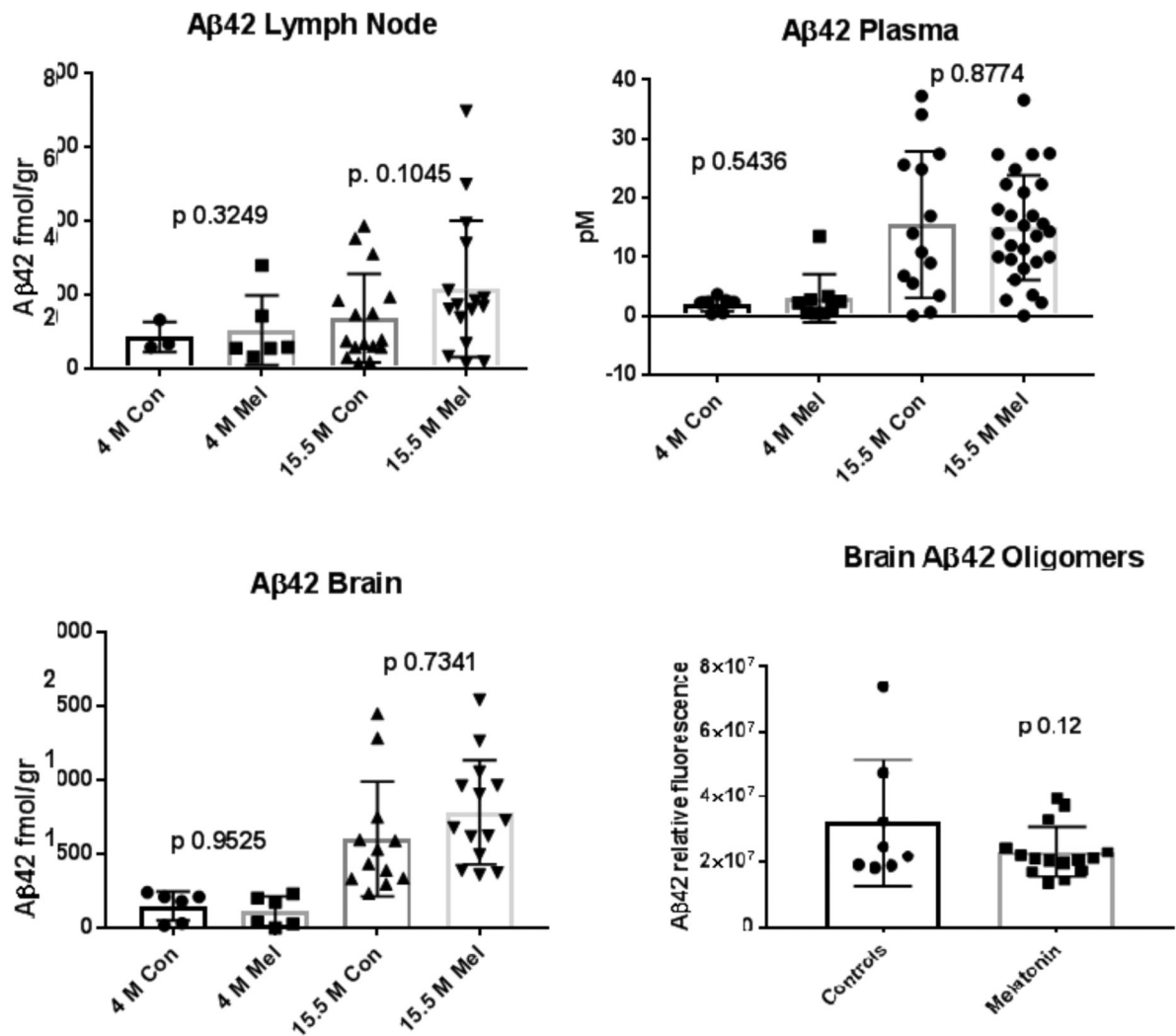


Figure 1.

Saline soluble monomeric Aβ40 in control and melatonin treated mice. Brain and lymph node homogenates in saline along with plasma (B) from Tg2576 mice were evaluated by a sensitive and specific ELISA assay for Aβ40. The n values for control (Con) and melatonin (Mel)-treated samples from 4 and 15.5 month-old animals are listed in order for lymph node (n=6, 6, 15, 15); plasma (n=2, 5, 14, 28) and brain (n=12, 14, 13, 14); Aβ40 oligomers measurements in brain at 15.5 age months are also shown in controls and after treatment with melatonin (n= 8, 16). Con = Control mice. Mel = Melatonin treated mice. Since acceptable and consistent Aβ oligomer standards are not available to establish curves, we have compared the relative luminescence values detected in brain extracts from control and melatonin-treated mice. Oligomeric Aβ40 was not detectable in plasma or in lymph nodes (not shown). Some of the untreated control groups have lesser numbers of animals than the treated groups, mostly reflecting premature deaths (known attrition rate in AD transgenics) and to a lesser degree, to inadvertent tissue/sample loss. Melatonin dramatically increased survival in the treated groups to levels comparable to non-transgenic mice (not shown).

**FIGURE 2.**

Saline soluble monomeric Aβ42 in control and melatonin treated mice. Brain and lymph node homogenates in saline along with plasma (B) from Tg2576 mice were evaluated by a sensitive and specific ELISA assay as shown for figure 1. The n values for control (Con) and melatonin (Mel)-treated samples from 4 and 15.5 month-old animals are listed in order for lymph node (n=3, 6, 16, 16); plasma (n=3, 5, 14, 28) and brain (n=3, 2, 13, 14). Aβ40 oligomers measurements in brain at 15.5 age months are also shown in controls and after treatment with melatonin (n= 8; 15). As shown in figure 1, Aβ42 oligomers measurements in brain are shown at 15.5 age months in controls and after treatment with melatonin (n=8; 15). Con = Control mice. Mel = Melatonin treated mice. As mentioned for figure 1, acceptable and consistent Aβ42 oligomer standards are not available to establish curves; thus, we have compared the relative luminescence values detected in brain extracts from control and melatonin-treated mice. As with Aβ40, oligomeric Aβ42 was not detectable in plasma or in lymph nodes.