

## The role of *APOE* in cerebrovascular dysfunction

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**Abstract** The  $\epsilon 4$  allele of the apolipoprotein E gene (*APOE4*) is associated with cognitive decline during aging, is the greatest genetic risk factor for Alzheimer's disease and has links to other neurodegenerative conditions that affect cognition. Increasing evidence indicates that *APOE* genotypes differentially modulate the function of the cerebrovasculature (CV), with apoE and its receptors expressed by different cell types at the CV interface (astrocytes, pericytes, smooth muscle cells, brain endothelial cells). However, research on the role of apoE in CV dysfunction has not advanced as quickly as other apoE-modulated pathways. This review will assess what aspects of the CV are modulated by *APOE* genotypes during aging and under disease states, discuss potential mechanisms, and summarize the therapeutic significance of the topic. We propose that *APOE4* induces CV dysfunction through direct signaling at the CV, and indirectly via modulation of peripheral and central pathways. Further, that *APOE4* predisposes the CV to damage by, and exacerbates the effects of, additional risk factors (such as sex, hypertension, and diabetes). ApoE4-induced detrimental CV changes include reduced cerebral blood flow (CBF), modified neuron-CBF coupling, increased blood–brain barrier leakiness, cerebral amyloid

angiopathy, hemorrhages and disrupted transport of nutrients and toxins. The apoE4-induced detrimental changes may be linked to pericyte migration/activation, astrocyte activation, smooth muscle cell damage, basement membrane degradation and alterations in brain endothelial cells.

**Keywords** Aging · Alzheimer's disease · Apolipoprotein E · Blood–brain barrier · Cerebrovascular dysfunction

### Abbreviations

A $\beta$	Amyloid- $\beta$
AD	Alzheimer's disease
apoE	Apolipoprotein E
<i>APOE</i> -TR	<i>APOE</i> -targeted replacement mice
ASL	Arterial spin labeling
BBB	Blood–brain barrier
BEC	Brain endothelial cells
CAA	Cerebral amyloid angiopathy
CBF	Cerebral blood flow
CSF	Cerebrospinal spinal fluid
CNS	Central nervous system
CV	Cerebrovasculature
cypA	Cyclophilin A
FAD	Familial AD
ISF	Interstitial fluid
KO	Knockout
LDLR	Low-density lipoprotein receptor
LRP1	Low-density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1
MCI	Mild cognitive impairment
MMP	Matrix metalloproteinase
MS	Multiple sclerosis
NVU	Neurovascular unit
oA $\beta$	Oligomeric A $\beta$
TJ	Tight junction

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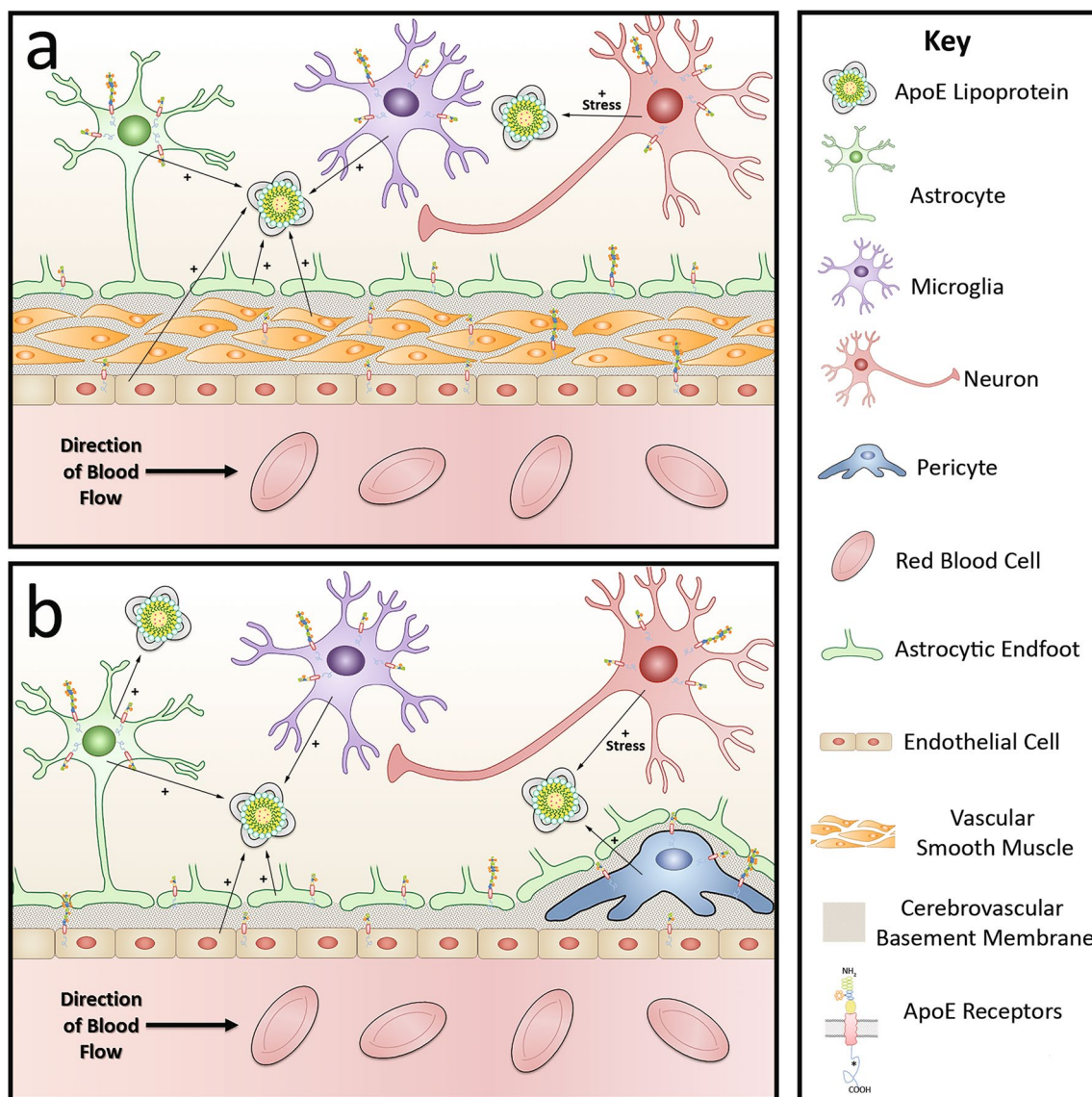
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TNF $\alpha$	Tumor necrosis factor $\alpha$
VaD	Vascular dementia
VLDLR	Very LDL receptor
WMH	White matter hyperintensities

## Introduction to apolipoprotein E and the cerebrovasculature (CV) (Fig. 1)

*APOE4* is the greatest genetic risk factor for Alzheimer's disease (AD), is associated with cognitive changes during aging and increases risk for other disorders, e.g., Lewy body disease, compared to *APOE3*. Thus, there is a critical need to dissect pathways modulated by *APOE*. There are three polymorphic alleles of the human *APOE* gene,  $\epsilon 2$ ,

$\epsilon 3$  and  $\epsilon 4$ , which encode three isoforms of apolipoprotein E (apoE, 299 amino acids, 34 kDa, reviewed extensively in [58, 67]). Human apoE isoforms differ at residues 112 or 158: apoE2 contains Cys112, Cys158; apoE3 contains Cys112, Arg158; and apoE4 contains Arg112, Arg158. Mouse apoE is structurally and functionally distinct from human apoE and is not the focus of this review. ApoE plays a key role in a number of biological processes in the periphery and the central nervous system (CNS). In the periphery, apoE is important for cholesterol metabolism and *APOE4* is associated with hyperlipidemia, hypercholesterolaemia, atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease. In the CNS, apoE modulates multiple mechanistic pathways that collectively affect cognition including cholesterol/lipid homeostasis, synaptic function, glucose metabolism,



**Fig. 1** Expression of *APOE* and apoE receptors in the CNS. **a** Arterioles. **b** Capillaries that define the blood–brain barrier (BBB)

neurogenesis, mitochondrial function, tau phosphorylation, neuronal atrophy, neuroinflammation, and the metabolism and aggregation of amyloid- $\beta$  (A $\beta$ ). Peripheral apoE is produced by the liver and macrophages but peripheral apoE-containing lipoproteins do not cross the CV, thus apoE is also produced locally within the brain. ApoE is produced by glia (astrocytes and microglia), pericytes, smooth muscle cells, and to a much lesser extent in neurons under certain stress conditions, and potentially brain endothelial cells (BECs). The major apoE receptors are part of the low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR) family, which are expressed throughout the CNS. Astrocytes, microglia, neurons and BEC express LDLR, LDLR-related protein 1 (LRP1), very LDL receptor (VLDLR) and LRP8/ApoE receptor 2 (ApoER2) [58]. LDLR and LRP1 are endocytic receptors and the main apoE metabolic receptors, while VLDLR and ApoER2 are primarily signaling receptors. ApoE also binds to heparan sulfate proteoglycans, which facilitate receptor-independent and receptor-dependent apoE uptake. Therefore, *APOE*-modulated effects on peripheral and CNS pathways, as well as direct apoE signaling in the cells (astrocytes, pericytes, BECs) of the neurovascular unit (NVU), may collectively induce CV dysfunction and cognitive decline. However, research on the role of apoE in CV dysfunction has not advanced as quickly as other apoE-modulated mechanistic pathways. This review will assess the role of *APOE* in CV dysfunction in aging and neurodegenerative disorders, discuss potential mechanisms and summarize the therapeutic significance of the topic.

### Aging/disease-independent effects (Supplementary Table 1a)

#### *APOE* modulates cognitive function during aging

As this article is focused on whether *APOE* modulates CV function and impacts cognition, an important consideration is the effect of *APOE* on cognitive function in aging. In young adults, evidence supports that *APOE4* imparts behavioral advantages in tasks that require a wider spatial and temporal attentional field [97]. In middle-aged adults there is no clear consensus on whether *APOE4* modulates cognitive ability (40–55 years, reviewed in [101]). In older adults (>55 years), *APOE4* is associated with cognitive deficits in logical memory, recognition memory and processing speed as well as delayed recall and subjective memory complaints [20, 33, 57, 62, 72]. Proposed hypotheses for *APOE*-modulated cognition during aging include: *APOE4* modulated pathways induce neuronal dysfunction independent of AD; older individuals with *APOE4*-induced cognitive impairment are in the

prodromal AD stage, and antagonistic pleiotropy, i.e., *APOE4* exerts beneficial effects early in life, neutral-to-no differences at a mid-age and detrimental effects at old age.

#### *APOE4* synergistically interacts with vascular risk factors to impact cognition

*APOE4* could affect cognition later in life through increasing the risk of developing and exacerbating damage caused by cardiovascular risk factors [9]. For example, in *APOE4* but not *APOE3* carriers, cardiovascular risk factors including hypercholesterolemia, prior cigarette use, diabetes mellitus and hypertension result in longitudinal preclinical memory decline (auditory verbal memory) (mean age 60, 5.6 years follow-up) [21]. Further, the interaction among *APOE4*, systolic blood pressure and neuropsychological performance was demonstrated in the Framingham Offspring Cohort (mean age 61 years) [141]. *APOE4* also potentiates cognitive decline in the absence of pathological hypertension but with increased blood pressure. Normotensive *APOE4* carriers with higher systolic blood pressure present with smaller prefrontal volume, slower processing speed and decreased verbal recognition [13]. Although some data conflict [32, 89], overall evidence supports that *APOE4* interacts with peripheral cardiovascular risk factors to impact cognition and these factors share common downstream pathogenic properties: atherosclerosis, stroke and BEC dysfunction.

#### *APOE4* disrupts cerebral blood flow

There is an intimate bi-directional association between CBF and neuronal metabolism. CBF ensures sufficient oxygen and nutrient supply, and neurons can secrete factors that influence CBF. *APOE* modulates CBF when assessed using PET or arterial spin labeling (ASL) MRI. In a small cohort of young college students, *APOE4* carriers exhibited lower resting CBF in the left and right inferior temporal gyri and higher CBF in the left insula, right supramarginal gyrus and the inferior occipital gyrus compared to non-carriers [102]. In middle age and older adults (52–81 years) *APOE4* is associated with higher CBF as a function of longer sedentary time [148]. These data are consistent with the finding that CBF is elevated for *APOE4* carriers in the medial temporal lobes and left parahippocampal and fusiform gyri, the latter of which is positively correlated with verbal memory [133]. Therefore, younger middle-aged adults could display compensatory mechanisms in brain regions at risk for AD, but the data are also compatible with antagonistic pleiotropy. Indeed, CBF is lower in older (50–78 years) compared to younger (20–35 years) *APOE4* carriers [36]. Further, with *APOE4* there is higher

baseline CBF followed by greater CBF decline with age in frontal parietal and temporal cortices in longitudinal analysis (mean age 69.2, interval length 7.8) [121]. In vivo data support the idea that *APOE* modulates CBF during aging. In *APOE4*-targeted replacement mice (*APOE4*-TR mice), which express human apoE4 under the control of the mouse endogenous apoE promoter, there is a reduction in cortical CBF compared to wild type, but not compared to apoE-knockout mice at 18 months of age. Although compared to wild-type mice the changes in functional connectivity were apparent at 12 months in *APOE4*-TR mice, reduced post-synaptic density levels occurred with perfusion deficits at 18 months [143].

A number of groups have performed fMRI with no clear consensus on the effects of *APOE* genotype on CBF as assessed by imaging (reviewed in [123]). Evidence for a role of *APOE* in CBF and CV dysfunction is derived from analysis of blood oxygenation level-dependent functional MRI (BOLD-fMRI). In BOLD-fMRI a signal represents a transient increase in CBF during neural activity, which in turn is dependent on a combination of neuronal activity, neuronal vascular coupling, CBF and general CV function. Young *APOE4* carriers (~25 years) display a higher task-related BOLD signal; however, they also demonstrate the lowest CV reactivity when assessed using a CO<sub>2</sub> inhalation challenge [114]. It is tempting to speculate that a disrupted CV may underlie the BOLD signal changes in young adults. Middle-aged (50–65) *APOE4* carriers exhibit higher resting CBF when assessed by ASL and decreased BOLD and perfusion responses [37]. Collectively, the higher CBF with *APOE4* in younger and middle-aged adults may be related to antagonistic pleiotropy or functional compensation due to CV damage and lead to CBF and cognitive impairments in older *APOE4* carriers.

### ***APOE2* and *APOE4* increase cerebral amyloid angiopathy (CAA)**

CAA is the deposition of proteins, including A $\beta$  (particularly A $\beta$ 40), in the leptomeningeal medium and small arteries, cortical arterioles and capillaries and is frequently observed with aging. CAA can induce inflammation, fibrinoid necrosis, microaneurysm, microbleeds, transient ischemic attack, hemorrhages and white matter damage. *APOE4* is associated with the increased risk of CAA [22, 41] in the occipital lobe [79], neocortex [85] and meninges and correlates with neurofibrillary tangles [85]. Further, *APOE4* enhances the amount of A $\beta$  per vessel [4], which may cause CAA-induced hemorrhage. *APOE2* carriers are also overrepresented in patients with CAA-related hemorrhage [26, 41, 74–76, 79, 80], and indices of intracerebral hemorrhage severity including hematoma size, functional outcome and mortality are

greater in *APOE2* carriers [90]. As *APOE2* does not influence the severity of CAA, *APOE2* is likely a risk factor for hemorrhage of vessels with CAA. ApoE2 binds with lower affinity to LDLR compared to apoE3 and apoE4 in the periphery [131] leading to hyperlipoproteinemia, which could damage the CV and contribute to CAA.

### ***APOE4* induces BBB/blood–CSF barrier dysfunction**

Compelling but limited data support that *APOE4* induces CV leakiness in humans. In a seminal study, a higher cerebrospinal fluid/plasma albumin quotient (QAlb) was demonstrated in cognitively normal older *APOE3/4* carriers (66–85 years) compared to younger *APOE3/4* carriers and both younger and older non-*APOE4* carriers [47]. In the Rotterdam study, *APOE4* was associated with microbleeds regardless of age (mean age 60.3) [86]. *APOE4* also modulates the function of the CV as vasoreactivity is lower in younger *APOE4* carriers [114] and in older adults [45]. Furthermore, in older adults, *APOE4*-induced cognitive deficits are amplified by hypertension and with low CO<sub>2</sub> vasoreactivity [45]. White matter hyperintensities (WMH) are regarded as indications of CV dysfunction and are associated with changes in white matter integrity. Reports conflict on whether *APOE4* increases or decreases the occurrence of WMH or white matter damage in aging [1, 69, 70, 130]. One factor that may underlie these discrepancies is the interaction between *APOE* and vascular risk factors. Indeed, vascular risk factor-induced deficits in white matter microstructure integrity are exacerbated in *APOE4* carriers [128].

Data from *APOE*-TR mice support *APOE4*-induced CV dysfunction. Compared to *APOE3*-TR mice, in *APOE4*-TR mice CV permeability to dextran is higher at 6 months [12] and permeability to diazepam [2] is greater at 4 and 12 months. However, a recent study failed to find any differences in CV permeability to exogenously administered IgG in 2–3-month-old *APOE4*-TR or *APOE*-KO mice compared to wild type [15]. Further, no differences in dextran (3 and 10 kDa) CV permeability were observed between *APOE*-KO and wild-type mice, but a comparison for the human *APOE* genotypes was not performed. Global CV leakiness may be mediated by alterations in the BBB. Reduced microvascular length, DNA fragmentation in pericytes and BEC, diminished microvascular coverage by pericytes, reduced CV vascularization and a thinner basement membrane (including lower levels of collagen IV and laminin) are all observed in *APOE4*-TR mice compared to *APOE3*-TR mice [2, 12, 48]. Further, despite no changes in glucose transporter expression, 12-month-old *APOE4*-TR mice exhibit a lower glucose transport into the brain, as well as increased levels of the receptor for advanced glycation end products [2].

## Alzheimer's disease (AD) (Supplementary Table 1b; Fig. 2)

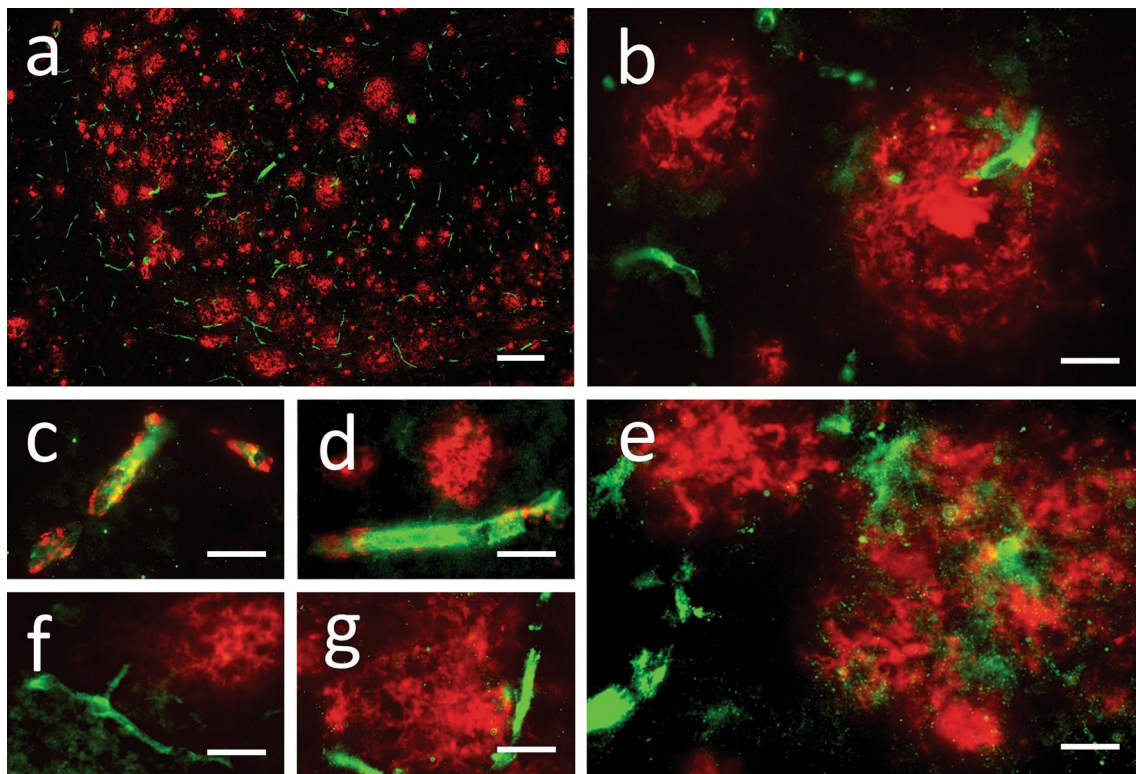
### *APOE4* increases AD risk

AD, the most common form of dementia, is a rapidly growing worldwide problem facing society and modern science. Subtypes of AD include early-onset/familial AD (FAD, 5 % of all AD cases) and late-onset AD (LOAD, 95 % of all AD cases). The major pathological hallmarks of AD include extracellular plaques of the A $\beta$  peptide and intraneuronal neurofibrillary tangles comprised of hyperphosphorylated tau. Other broad changes in AD include synaptic and neuronal degeneration, lower hippocampal and cortical volume, reduced glucose metabolism, neuroinflammation, impaired insulin signaling, higher soluble A $\beta$  levels and CV dysfunction. Evidence for *APOE4*-induced AD risk is unequivocal. *APOE4* is the greatest genetic risk for LOAD, increasing risk up to 12-fold compared to *APOE3*, whereas *APOE2* reduces risk [58]. *APOE4* is also associated with a lower age of AD onset and an increased risk of progression from mild cognitive

impairment (MCI) to AD. Mechanistically, *APOE4* has been linked to virtually every AD-relevant pathogenic process including A $\beta$  levels, altered A $\beta$ -signaling both directly through A $\beta$  binding and indirectly, and A $\beta$ -independent pathways. There is now little doubt that *APOE4* impacts upon the CV and its function in all stages of AD.

### *APOE4* synergistically interacts with vascular risk factors to increase AD risk

*APOE4* is not only associated with an increased risk for AD and cardiovascular disease, but the evidence suggests *APOE4* and vascular risk factors combine synergistically to exacerbate cognitive decline in AD [43, 55, 73]. For example, neuropathological hallmarks of AD (neurofibrillary tangles, neuritic plaques and CAA) are increased in patients with diabetes who are *APOE4* carriers when compared with non-carriers [43]. The combination of hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance observed in type 2 diabetes plus *APOE4* exacerbate the development of AD pathology [73].



**Fig. 2** CV deficits with *APOE4* and A $\beta$  in EFAD mice. CD31 (green) and A $\beta$  (red, using the MOAB-2 antibody) staining in 8-month-old male mice that express *APOE4* and overexpress human

A $\beta$  (EFAD mice described in [139]). **a**  $\times 10$  magnification, scale bar 100  $\mu\text{m}$  (**b–e**)  $\times 63$  magnification, scale bar 20  $\mu\text{m}$

### ***APOE4* disrupts cerebral blood flow in AD**

*APOE4* exerts a pronounced effect on CBF in MCI and AD when assessed by ASL-MRI, or single-photon emission computer tomography (SPECT). A number of groups have demonstrated higher CBF in MCI patients with *APOE4*. CBF is higher in the medial temporal lobes, parahippocampal gyrus, cingulate gyrus, posterior cingulate gyrus and lingual gyrus of patients who are *APOE4* positive and have MCI [10, 60, 134]. The effect of *APOE4* on CBF in MCI is brain region specific. In the left parahippocampal/fusiform gyrus, CBF is higher with *APOE4* in non-demented controls and lower in *APOE4* MCI patients, whereas the opposite pattern is observed in frontal regions [134]. The higher CBF in MCI patients who are *APOE4* positive may be indicative of compensatory mechanisms in response to stress, or of an ongoing pathogenic response acting on the vasculature (e.g., inflammation, neuronal activity). Although CBF is elevated in posterior brain regions with one risk factor such as *APOE4* or MCI, the presence of both results in decreased CBF and a greater likelihood of conversion to dementia [134]. Thus, in the presence of multiple risk factors declining posterior hippocampal function may result in higher CBF to other brain regions as a compensatory mechanism. In AD, *APOE4* is associated with cerebral hypoperfusion, including the occipital lobes, middle temporal gyrus, inferior frontal gyrus, anterior cingulate gyrus, claustrum, insula and caudate [51, 65, 66], as well as a greater spread of CBF reductions from the parietotemporal to the frontal area [99]. However, there are also reports of increased CBF asymmetry in *APOE4* non-carriers [125], no *APOE4*-dependent effects in AD patients [96], and a counter argument that *APOE4* promotes neuronal dysfunction rather than CV changes. However, the data are most consistent with disrupted CBF with *APOE4* in AD.

### ***APOE4* increases capillary CAA in AD**

CAA in cortical and leptomeningeal arteries/arterioles of AD patients follows the order; *APOE4/4* > *APOE3/4* > *APOE3/3* [6, 25, 35, 87, 92, 93, 104], and *APOE4* increases CAA in the occipital lobes [122]. For example, in one study the prevalence of severe CAA from highest to lowest in AD was 73.4 % for *APOE4/4* carriers, 46 % in *APOE3/4* carriers and 24.2 % in *APOE3/3* carriers [92]. Further, CAA in *APOE4* AD patients is more severe [87] and associated with a longer onset period of cognitive decline to death, lower diffuse plaque score, cortical microinfarcts, leukoencephalopathy, enlarged perivascular spaces in the white matter, subcortical and lobar and intracerebral hemorrhages, thrombosis and fibrinogen deposition [6, 25, 35, 54, 87, 92, 93, 104]. *APOE4* also leads to substantial CAA compared to *APOE3* and also a higher A $\beta$ 40/42 ratio in mice that express FAD mutations

(FAD-Tg mice) [38]. However, a few studies have reported a lack of association between *APOE4* and CAA in AD [83, 112], no link for *APOE4* modulated CAA and hemorrhage [25], that CAA in general rather than *APOE4* is important for dementia [117] and an association between CAA and lower cognition proximal to death in non-*APOE4* carriers [16]. Thus, there is confusion of whether CAA in *APOE4* AD patients is a major contributor to overall dementia. One question that remains is how the *APOE* genotypes correlate with the types of vessels affected by CAA in AD. A body of data supports that the CAA in *APOE4* carriers affects cortical capillaries [3, 120, 140]. For example, Thal et al. [120] observed an odds ratio of 4.751 for capillary CAA in *APOE4* AD patients. CAA is also linked to amyloid-related imaging abnormalities (ARIA) after passive and active immunization strategies targeting A $\beta$  in AD [98]. ARIA is characterized by vasogenic edema and cortical hemorrhages, is more common in *APOE4*-AD patients after immunization with antibodies for A $\beta$  and has been linked to CAA [98, 136]. The higher levels of CAA with *APOE4* may reflect detrimental changes in the CV with immunization that include splitting of vessel wall, and/or the removal of A $\beta$  from the vessel wall [98]. In contrast to *APOE4*, there is a negative association of CAA for *APOE2* [35]. The evidence that *APOE2* increases CAA and ICH in aging, but not in AD, is potentially due to the protection afforded by *APOE2* for AD risk through effects on other AD-relevant pathways, e.g., apoE lipidation and inflammation.

### ***APOE4* induces BBB dysfunction in AD**

Initial evidence that *APOE* modulates the BBB (capillaries) in AD was observed by Salloway et al. [100], who demonstrated a thinning of the basement membrane in *APOE4/4* compared to *APOE3/3* AD patients. When assessed using quantification of agrin (basement membrane protein) staining, the capillary basement membrane area was smaller in *APOE4/4* AD patients compared to *APOE3/3* AD patients in the prefrontal cortex [100] and *APOE3/4* AD patients trended (non-significant) to lay between *APOE3/3* and *APOE4/4* AD patients. Basement membrane disruptions may be an indication that the BBB is degenerating with *APOE4* leading to increased leakiness. Indeed, levels of the plasma protein prothrombin in the prefrontal cortex are higher in *APOE4/4* AD patients than *APOE3/3* AD patients (significance at the 10 % level) [146]. Further, IgG and fibrin extravasation surrounding microvessels follows the order *APOE4AD* > *APOE3AD* > controls in the frontal cortex [47]. In contrast, no *APOE* genotype-specific effects were observed on the QAlb in AD patients, although there was evidence for a protective effect of *APOE3* on BBB leakiness in Creutzfeldt-Jacob disease [59]. There is evidence that *APOE* modulates microbleeds in AD. In AD,

microbleeds are associated with male sex, higher blood pressure, lower CSF A $\beta$ 42 and *APOE4* [14]. In contrast to the male bias in humans, microbleeds are higher in female mice that express *APOE4* and A $\beta$  compared to male mice [18]. Perhaps there are other stressors synergistically interacting with *APOE4* in males with higher microbleeds. *APOE4* is associated with increased WMH in the parietal lobe compared to non-carriers [17], however, data conflict on whether *APOE4* increases WMH risk in AD [17, 49, 61, 78]. Potential confounding factors are that *APOE4* and vascular risk factors interact to induce WMH, and that WMH are brain region specific. Our preliminary data also demonstrate that there are CV deficits in mice that express *APOE4* and overexpress A $\beta$  (E4FAD mice described in [139] Fig. 2). In 8-month-old male E4FAD mice we have observed characteristics of CV dysfunction including vessels surrounding extracellular A $\beta$  (Fig. 2b), CAA (Fig. 2c, d), the absence of vessels in areas of high A $\beta$ , and vessel degeneration (Fig. 2e). Additional data that apoE modulates the CV include the negative association of *APOE*-positive capillaries and extracellular A $\beta$  plaques, the positive correlation of *APOE* and expression of angiogenesis/vasoactive mediators (VEGF, eNOS) in AD brain capillaries [88], and the link between apoE levels and CV leakiness in AD patients with small vessel disease [124]. Collectively these data support that *APOE4* increases CV leakiness in AD patients compared to *APOE3*.

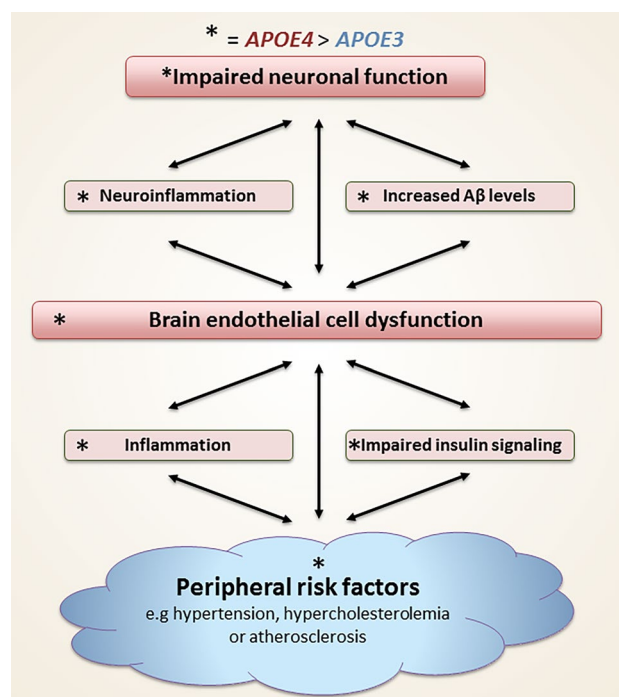
### *APOE*-modulated CV dysfunction in other neurodegenerative conditions

Data suggest that rather than representing a risk factor, *APOE4* exacerbates the progression, is inferior or hinders repair mechanisms in vascular dementia (VaD), multiple sclerosis (MS), stroke and traumatic brain injury (TBI), compared to *APOE3*. For example, *APOE4* is linked to greater cognitive impairment in VaD, higher disease progression/severity in MS [107], a detrimental progression or outcome after intracerebral hemorrhage, subarachnoid hemorrhage, stroke [42] and after TBI [28]. Although the CV is important for these conditions, surprisingly the role of *APOE*-modulated CV dysfunction has not been dissected. Cleaved apoE is considered toxic, but this is also evidence of an ongoing apoE-dependent process. In VaD, cleaved amino-terminal fragments of apoE were identified within blood vessels in an *APOE* genotype-dependent manner: *APOE4/4* > *APOE3/4* > *APOE3/3* [94]. For MS, in *APOE* knockout mice subjected to experimental autoimmune encephalitis, a murine model of MS, there are lower levels of proteins in the tight junctions and higher levels of matrix metalloproteinases, suggesting a role for *APOE* in the progression of disease, but the exact role is still unclear [44, 144]. In TBI, possession of *APOE4* promotes CAA,

possibly by disruption of the vascular clearance mechanisms for A $\beta$  [145]. Together, these results suggest that it is important to determine whether apoE4 has a detrimental or inferior effect upon cellular and tissue repair mechanisms in the CNS, compared to the other apoE isoforms.

### Potential mechanistic pathways underlying *APOE*-modulated CV dysfunction (Supplementary Table 1; Fig. 3)

Genetic, environmental, physiological and lifestyle risk factors will collectively induce changes in a multitude of biological pathways that determine whether an individual will experience impaired cognition with aging, or begins to progress towards a neurodegenerative disease. Further, the overlapping nature for many of the pathways can result in comorbidities. Accumulating evidence supports that *APOE4* modulates a multitude of mechanistic pathways which can affect cognition. However, *APOE4*, like diabetes, hypertension and aging is a risk factor not a cause. It would be naïve to propose that for every individual, a single risk factor or pathway is the cause of cognitive impairments, especially in the context of chronic conditions, e.g., A $\beta$  causes AD. Similarly, CV deficits are not disease



**Fig. 3** Pathways of *APOE*-modulated neurovascular dysfunction. *APOE4* imparts negative effects on a multitude of peripheral and CNS pathways that may contribute to cerebrovascular dysfunction and lead to cognitive impairment. Brain endothelial cells may act as the primary effector interface for these pathways

specific and, therefore, are unlikely to be relevant to primary causation. However, multiple risk factor-modulated pathways acting in temporal-specific manner will impact cognition. Within this complexity, we propose that *APOE4* induces CV dysfunction through direct signaling at the NVU, and indirectly via modulation of peripheral and central pathways, contributing to cognitive decline in aging and neurodegenerative disorders. Further, that *APOE4* predisposes the CV to damage by, and exacerbates the effects of, additional risk factors (e.g., sex, hypertension, diabetes).

#### ***ApoE4* can directly induce detrimental signaling at the NVU**

The question of how the apoE isoforms differentially modulate a diverse range of biological processes to affect cognition is a major focus of a number of groups. ApoE produced by the periphery can signal to BEC and cells of the NVU express apoE and the apoE receptors. The structure and receptor binding properties of apoE could exert a strong influence on the CV. Overall, apoE isoform-specific differences are thought to affect the folding, including the receptor binding domain (N terminus) and the lipid binding domain (C terminus), and stability of apoE (reviewed in [58]). In the CNS differences between the apoE isoforms will affect the structure of lipoproteins, and the majority, if not all, of the apoE in the interstitial fluid of the brain is present as a lipoprotein. One proposed hypothesis is that structural differences among the apoE isoforms in the brain results in lower apoE4 lipidation, lower apoE4-containing lipoprotein stability, the production of toxic apoE4 fragments and lower apoE4 levels, which in turn causes impaired apoE4 cellular recycling and altered receptor activity (reviewed in [116]). Specific for the CV, apoE modulates astrocyte–pericyte–BEC interactions [12, 23, 127, 135]. ApoE4 but not apoE3 (from astrocytes) signaling to LRP1 in pericytes is impaired, resulting in higher activation of the cyclophilin A (cypA)-NFkB-matrix metalloproteinase 9 (MMP9) pathway in pericytes [12, 47]. The higher MMP9 levels with *APOE4* leads to CV dysfunction by basement membrane degradation and impaired BEC function. Lipidated apoE is also produced by pericytes in vitro [23] and apoE knockdown in isolated human pericytes accelerates pericyte mobility, which is suppressed by supplementing apoE3, but not apoE4 into the media. Importantly, apoE isoform-dependent modulation of pericyte mobility is mediated by a pathway involving LRP1 and RhoA. Often overlooked is the potential that apoE from the CNS activates apoE receptors in BECs to modulate CV function. Indeed, astrocyte-derived apoE signals via LRP1 on BECs in vitro, an effect greater with apoE3 than apoE4, resulting in lower occludin phosphorylation with apoE4 [81]. Further to agonist activity, the accumulation of toxic

apoE4 fragments inside of BEC as observed in VaD could induce CV dysfunction. Therefore, apoE4 receptor signaling cascades may be blunted compared to apoE3 in astrocytes, pericytes and BECs resulting in a disrupted CV.

#### ***APOE*-modulated neuroinflammation contributes to BBB dysfunction**

As reviewed extensively elsewhere [115], *APOE4* is increasingly recognized as modulating glial-mediated neuroinflammation in aging and AD. *APOE4* is associated with a detrimental response to A $\beta$ -independent neuroinflammation (such as LPS or as occurs in aging) and A $\beta$ -induced inflammation. However, the complexity of chronic neuroinflammation, including multiple detrimental and beneficial effects occurring in a temporal and cell-specific manner, has resulted in conflicting functional data for virtually every inflammatory mediator. Potentially, *APOE4* induces a detrimental neuroinflammatory phenotype characterized by higher pro-inflammatory and lower anti-inflammatory cytokines [115]. Importantly, many mediators described as inflammatory exert a strong influence of the CV, including BEC function (e.g., TNF $\alpha$ ), angiogenesis (e.g., VEGF, EGF) and the basement membrane (MMPs, TIMPs). In addition, an overlooked topic is how BEC themselves produce inflammatory mediators in response to stress. Mechanistically, the effects on glial inflammation may be mediated in part by direct apoE signaling as described above. Thus, apoE through its effects on soluble mediator release from inflammatory cells within the brain may cause and also prime the CV to damage in response to a subsequent hit from the periphery.

#### **A $\beta$ clearance is slower with *APOE4* at the CV**

A $\beta$ , in insoluble or soluble form, is considered a key mediator of AD progression and can induce direct (BEC) and indirect (via pathways such as inflammation) CV dysfunction. Therefore, *APOE* could directly modulate A $\beta$  signaling to affect the CV. For example, A $\beta$ -induced detrimental signaling in glia and BEC may be amplified in the presence of apoE4. In addition, A $\beta$  clearance rates are slower with apoE4 at the BBB [7, 30] and via perivascular drainage [24, 48]. Higher levels of A $\beta$  with *APOE4* will result in amplified detrimental pathways in the CNS to cause CV dysfunction. After A $\beta$ 42 injections in vivo, A $\beta$  clearance into the plasma follows the pattern *APOE3* > *APOE4* > *APOE*-KO/wt [8]. At the BBB, when A $\beta$  binds apoE2 or apoE3 (apoE/A $\beta$  complex) clearance is mediated via LRP1 and LDLR, whereas A $\beta$ -bound apoE4 is cleared at a significantly slower rate via VLDLR [30]. ApoE and A $\beta$  also co-localize in the perivascular elimination pathways of AD transgenic mice as well as in control



and AD patients [95]. Importantly, after ICV injections of A $\beta$  into *APOE*-TR mice, A $\beta$ 40 aggregates in the perivascular drainage pathway with *APOE4* but not *APOE3* [48], evidence that perivascular elimination is slower with *APOE4*. Further, following A $\beta$  immunotherapy plaque-associated apoE is reduced and CV wall-associated apoE increased [98]. This immunotherapy-mediated translocation of apoE from plaques to the CV mirrors the changes in A $\beta$  and is consistent with a proposed role for apoE as an important transporter of A $\beta$  in the brain. Mechanistically, apoE could affect A $\beta$  clearance through direct binding as an apoE/A $\beta$  complex and an important functional distinction is whether the apoE/A $\beta$  complex is part of a plaque, present in the basement membrane or soluble in the ISF. ApoE when part of a plaque or as part of an initial seed for oA $\beta$  may drive A $\beta$  pathology and inflammation and also transport A $\beta$  to the CV, apoE-A $\beta$  interactions at the basement membrane are likely involved in perivascular drainage, and soluble apoE/A $\beta$  complex may prevent oA $\beta$  formation and promote A $\beta$  clearance (contrasting in vitro data exist [8]).

#### ***APOE4* could prime the CV to damage by increasing the risk of developing and potentiating peripheral stress**

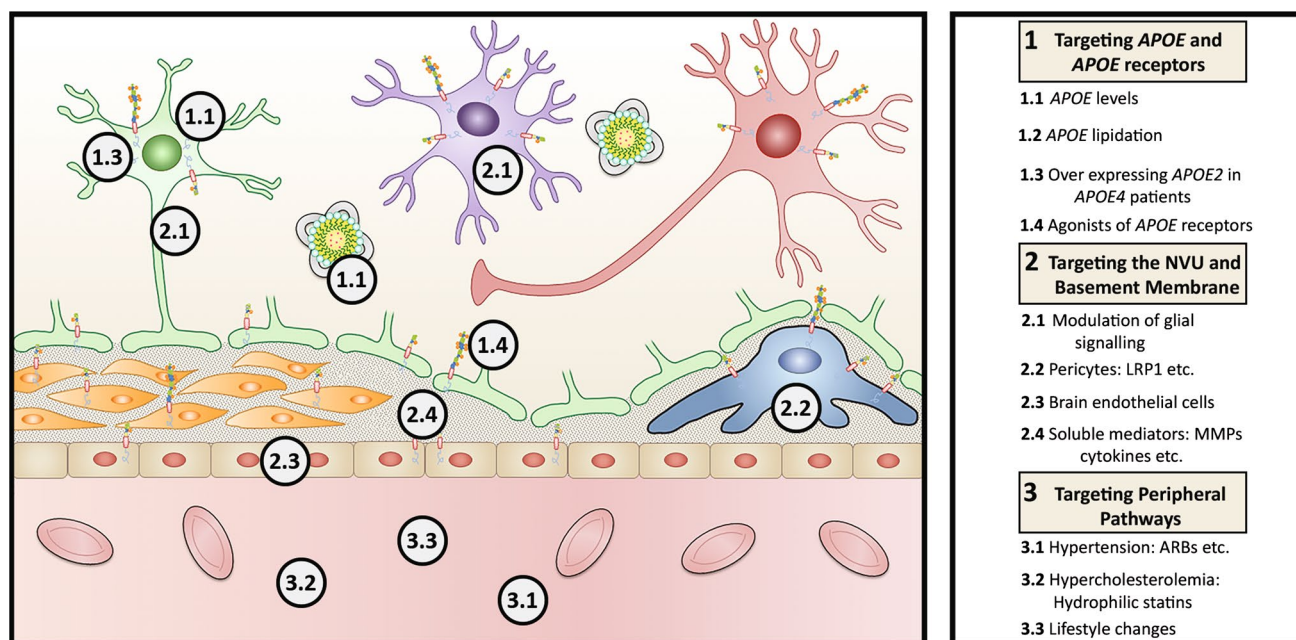
A recurrent theme is the potentiation of cognitive decline with *APOE4* and peripheral vascular risk factors in aging and AD. *APOE4* can increase the risk of developing cardiovascular disease contributing to CV dysfunction, e.g., hypertension increases the risk of BBB disturbances and

atherosclerosis. Mechanistically, the N and C terminus of apoE4 interact to a greater extent than apoE3, which directs apoE4 to very low density lipoproteins and increases the incidence of atherosclerosis. The apoE4-induced alterations in lipid metabolism can also modulate CV function. There are higher serum cholesterol, phospholipid and triglyceride levels in *APOE4* carriers. Lipolysis products from lipoproteins rich in triglycerides, specifically triacylglycerol-rich lipoproteins (TGRL), alter the structure of apoE4, but not apoE3 [118]. These conformational changes influence the way in which apoE4 binds to BECs [5], which in turn may disrupt BBB permeability, allowing for influx of damaging TGRL lipolysis products. Further, many of the peripheral risk factors have a strong inflammatory component, which will directly affect BEC at the CV. One potential mechanism is that CV active inflammatory mediators in the periphery are modulated by *APOE*, analogous to neuroinflammation. For example, healthy volunteers injected with lipopolysaccharide exhibit hyperthermia and increases in plasma levels of pro-inflammatory markers (TNF $\alpha$ , IL-6) that are higher in *APOE3/4* carriers compared to *APOE3/3* carriers [39].

#### **Therapeutic significance (Fig. 4)**

##### **Directly targeting apoE or the apoE receptors**

Directly targeting the structural and functional deficits of apoE4 may ameliorate detrimental changes that cause CV



**Fig. 4** Therapeutic targets for *APOE*-modulated cerebrovascular dysfunction

dysfunction (reviewed in [67]). These strategies may also become relevant for apoE3 in certain conditions. If apoE4 is considered detrimental (toxic gain of function) then lowering apoE4 levels using genetic or antibody-based approaches is optimal. If apoE4 is less functional (loss of positive function) increasing apoE4 lipidation by promoting the activity or levels (e.g., via nuclear receptor agonists) of the primary lipid efflux transporter in the CNS, the ATP-binding cassette transporter A1, or correcting the structure of apoE4 becomes the focus. Both approaches show promise in vivo for AD-relevant pathways. Importantly, nuclear receptor agonists may target BBB dysfunction in AD [149], and are protective against CV dysfunction caused by viral infections [53]. However, both strategies have drawbacks including toxicity and lack of specificity for nuclear receptor agonists, or the necessity of accessing apoE before becoming part of a lipoprotein for structural correctors. The development of more advanced genetic strategies could also lead to overexpression of *APOE2* in *APOE4* carriers [52]. Directly targeting the LDLR family is an alternative way to circumvent a loss of positive function for apoE4 signaling at the neurovascular unit. ApoE mimetic peptides, which are based on the receptor binding region of apoE, reduce edema after focal brain ischemia and lower CV dysfunction after TBI in vivo [19, 63].

### Targeting inflammation at the NVU and the basement membrane

Targeting either the signaling pathways or the soluble mediators produced by *APOE*-modulated activated glia (astrocytes and microglia) and pericytes may ameliorate CV dysfunction, or prevent the risk with a subsequent additional hit. For signaling in glia and astrocytes, antagonists/inhibitors of TLR4, p38a, cyclooxygenase 2 (COX2) and nuclear receptor agonists suppress pro-inflammatory cytokines and increase anti-inflammatory cytokines in various in vivo and in vitro models of neurodegenerative conditions. For pericytes, targeting the LRP1-rhoA or cypA-NFkB-MMP9 pathway may prove efficacious. In terms of mediators, likely targets include TNF $\alpha$ , and nitric oxide, a vasoactive mediator proposed as a target for CAA-induced CNS damage. Additional targets include raising levels of tissue inhibitors for metalloproteinases to prevent basement membrane disruption, or targeting soluble mediators that induce changes in angiogenesis and BEC function. Surprisingly, BEC pathways are frequently overlooked as a direct for *APOE4*-induced CV dysfunction, e.g., reactive oxygen species, COX, mitogen active protein kinase and angiogenic signaling. The main advantage of targeting BECs directly is that therapeutics do not have to cross the BBB into the brain to be active.

### Targeting peripheral pathways

Therapeutic or lifestyle interventions for the peripheral factors that synergistically combine with *APOE4* to cause CV dysfunction may provide a great benefit for neurodegenerative disorders. For example anti-hypertensive drugs, particularly angiotensin receptor blockers, have shown promise in AD but the effects of these drugs correlated with *APOE* genotype are unknown. For hypercholesterolemia statins have been tested in clinical trials for the treatment in AD with disappointing results. The biological mechanisms behind why hypercholesterolemia increases AD risk are still unclear, but elevated cholesterol levels can disrupt the integrity of the BBB. Thus, it is proposed that BBB penetrant lipophilic statins disrupt cholesterol synthesis in the brain resulting in detrimental effects on cognition whereas less-BBB penetrant hydrophilic statins may be promising [27]. Targeting peripheral inflammation can be achieved using the same approaches as for neuroinflammation and include nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs); however, results from the clinic are not as promising as observed in epidemiological studies. Potentially, therapeutics that target hypertension, hypercholesterolemia and peripheral inflammation will prove efficacious for cognitive decline in *APOE4* carriers with CV dysfunction. There is growing evidence supporting the adoption of lifestyle changes to improve cognition, which partially act through modulating the CV. ApoE is also necessary for the prevention of age-induced CV dysfunction by exercise in vivo [111]. With professional guidance and assistance most individuals, particularly *APOE4* carriers, would be able to curtail damaging habits that put them at risk of cognitive damage caused by CV dysfunction.

### Conclusion

ApoE4 exerts a strong influence of CV dysfunction, an effect exacerbated by additional risk factors. Identifying *APOE*-modulated CV-specific mechanistic pathways via basic and preclinical therapeutic research may ultimately lead to prevention and treatment options to improve cognition in aging and neurodegenerative disorders.

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