

## Three-repeat Tau 69 is a major tau isoform in laser-microdissected Pick bodies

TAKUYA OHKUBO<sup>1,2</sup>, YUJI SAKASEGAWA<sup>3</sup>, HIROYUKI TODA<sup>4</sup>, HITARU KISHIDA<sup>4</sup>, KUNIMASA ARIMA<sup>5</sup>, MITSUNORI YAMADA<sup>6</sup>, HITOSHI TAKAHASHI<sup>6</sup>, HIDEHIRO MIZUSAWA<sup>2</sup>, NAOMI S. HACHIYA<sup>1</sup>, & KIYOTOSHI KANEKO<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Second Department of Physiology, Tokyo Medical University, Tokyo, Japan, <sup>2</sup>Department of Neurology and Neurological Science, Graduate School of Medicine, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Tokyo, Japan, <sup>3</sup>Department of Prion Protein Research, Tohoku University, Sendai, Japan, <sup>4</sup>Department of Neurology, Yokohama City University School of Medicine, Yokohama, Japan, <sup>5</sup>Department of Laboratory Medicine, National Center Hospital for Mental Nervous and Muscular Disorders, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, Japan, and <sup>6</sup>Department of Pathology, Brain Research Institute, Niigata University, Niigata, Japan

**Keywords:** Pick's disease, Pick body, Laser Microdissection System, phosphorylated tau, Tau 60, Tau 64, Tau 69

**Abbreviations:** LMDS-WB = Laser Microdissection System and Western blot analysis; PB = Pick body

### Abstract

By utilizing a novel combinatorial method of a Laser Microdissection System and Western blot analysis, we demonstrate that a distinct isoform of abnormally phosphorylated tau (69 kDa, Tau 69) predominantly aggregated in laser-microdissected Pick bodies (PBs) in sporadic Pick's disease. By contrast, tau migrated as two major bands of 60 and 64 kDa (Tau 60 and 64) in total brain homogenates as previously reported. Comparative immunohistochemical analysis with anti-4-repeat antibody revealed that a major component of the abnormally phosphorylated tau in these PBs was 3-repeat tau (3R-tau). Whether 29 amino acid repeat encoded by exons 2 and 3 in the Tau 69 might accelerate the formation of PBs remains to be further investigated. Such a combination of morphological and biochemical techniques significantly complements the existing histopathological methods.

### Introduction

Pick's disease is a type of progressive presenile dementia, characterized by a frontotemporal cortical atrophy, widespread white matter degeneration and intraneuronal lesions denoted as Pick bodies (PBs), of which the major structural components are tau proteins. Abnormally phosphorylated tau proteins have been investigated by classical biochemical methods, and tau doublet (Tau 60 and Tau 64) was detected from brain homogenates in these patients [1–3] but not detected from normal brain homogenates, because tau proteins are not abnormally phosphorylated in normal brain [4].

Here we established a novel combinatorial method of a Laser Microdissection System [5] and Western blot analysis (LMDS-WB) which enables us to examine the molecular profile of proteins in microscopic regions of interest. Hence, we applied this novel method to examine PBs in Pick's disease, a

sporadic tauopathy of progressive presenile dementia [6]. Subsequently, we identified a distinct pattern of tau isoforms in the laser-microdissected PBs, which was clearly different from those detected in total brain homogenates. These data suggest that a novel tau region is associated with the formation of PBs, other than the microtubule-binding motifs, in sporadic Pick's disease.

### Materials and methods

#### Patients

Temporal cortexes from 2 patients with sporadic Pick's disease (patient 1 [sPiD1]; female, 55 years and patient 2 [sPiD2]; female, 76 years) were obtained from the National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Brain Research Institute, Niigata University. The sPiD1 was previously reported as

Correspondence: Dr Kiyotoshi Kaneko, Second Department of Physiology, Tokyo Medical University, 6-1-1 Shinjuku, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8402, Japan. Tel: 81 3 3351 6141. ext. 322. Fax: 81 3 3351 6544. E-mail: k-kaneko@tokyo-med.ac.jp

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case 5 [7], and sPiD2 was also reported as case 2 [8]. The tissue was placed directly in a deep freezer at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  (sPiD1), or immediately quick-frozen in cold isopentane and kept in a deep freezer at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$  (sPiD2) until use.

*Laser-microdissection and Western blot analysis*

The slide preparations for microbiochemical analysis were made by NexES<sup>®</sup> Automated Immunohistochemistry Staining System (Ventana Medical Systems, Inc., Tucson, AZ, USA). Immunostained

solid samples of smaller than  $10\ \mu\text{m}^3$  (Figure 1A) were dissected by our new Laser Microdissection System (Olympus Optical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) coupled to HOYA laser cutter, HCL2100 (30 mJ/pulse, 266 nm, Hoya Co., Tokyo, Japan). Dissected samples were collected by the CellTram Oil<sup>®</sup>, hydraulic manual microinjector (Eppendorf, Hamburg, Germany) with distilled water. About 500 PBs were collected and analyzed each time (Figure 1B). Total brain homogenates (10  $\mu\text{g}$ ), laser-dissected PBs (500 pieces), and their surrounding brain tissues without PBs were solubilized in 500  $\mu\text{l}$  of ice-cold

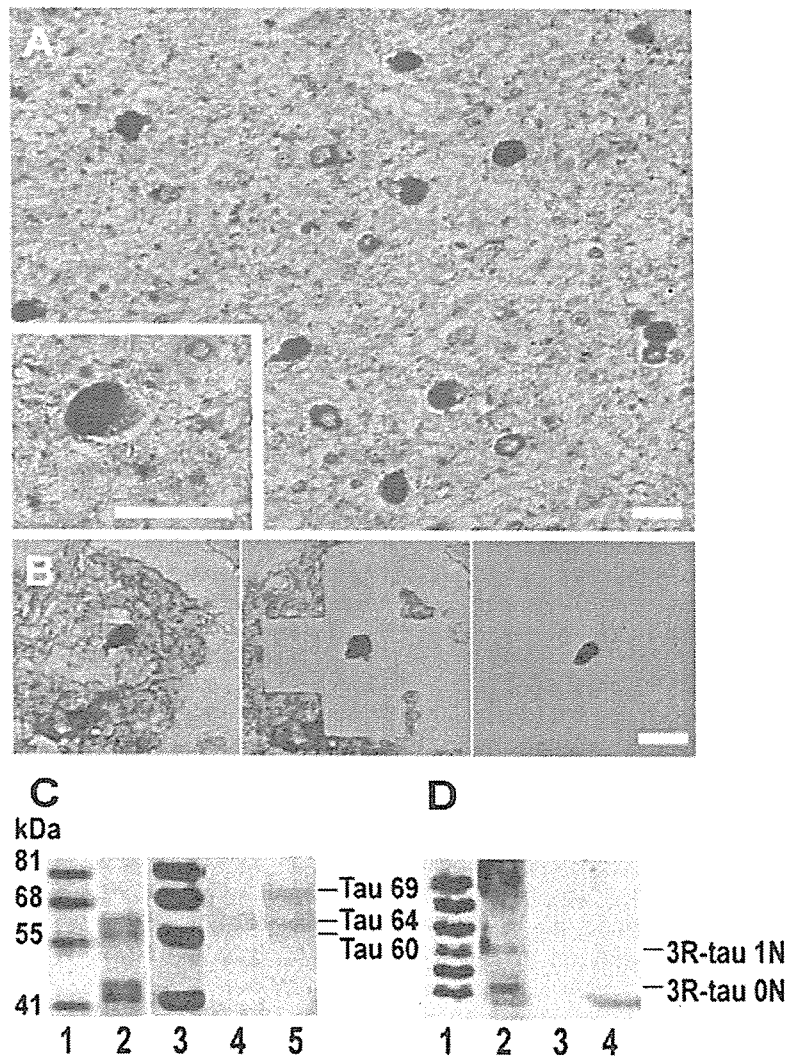


Figure 1. Temporal cortex, patient 1 with sporadic Pick's disease (sPiD1). (A) Ten- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick cryosection. Pick bodies (PBs) of sPiD1 stained with AT8 (purple) and hematoxylin (blue). Scale bar is  $20\ \mu\text{m}$ . (B) Two- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick cryosection of sPiD1. PBs isolated from the section by the Laser Microdissection System. Scale bar is  $20\ \mu\text{m}$ . (C) Western blot analysis of sPiD1 with AT8 and AT100 antibodies. Molecular weight marker (Dr. Western, Oriental Yeast, Tokyo, Japan, lanes 1 and 3), temporal brain homogenates ( $40\ \mu\text{g}$ , lane 2), surrounding area of PBs ( $1\text{--}3\ \text{ng}$ , lane 4), laser microdissected PBs ( $1\text{--}3\ \text{ng}$ , lane 5). (D) Western blot analysis of sarkosyl-insoluble fraction of temporal brain homogenates of sPiD1 after dephosphorylation by bacterial alkaline phosphatase ( $8\ \mu\text{g}$ , lane 2), blank lane (lane 3), and bacterial alkaline phosphatase alone (lane 4) with HT7 antibody. Molecular weight marker (six recombinant tau isoforms in lane 1; 67, 62, 59, 54, 52, and 48 kDa, respectively).

extraction buffer (Tris-chloride (pH 7.4), 0.8 M NaCl, 1 mM EGTA, 10% sucrose and 1/1,000 w/v protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma) with 1% sodium *N*-lauroyl sarcosinate. Sarkosyl-insoluble fractions were collected by  $182,000 \times g$  for 30 min at 4°C, and suspended in 50 mM Tris-chloride (pH 7.4). The sarkosyl-insoluble material was boiled with Lammeli's buffer for 10 min at 95°C, loaded onto 12% SDS-PAGE gels and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes. Nitrocellulose membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk in PBS-T and incubated with 1:1,000 AT100 (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium) specific to phosphorylated Thr 212/Ser 214, and 1:1,000 AT8 (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium) specific to phosphorylated Ser 202/Thr 205 of tau in PBS-T. Immunodecorated bands were visualized by SuperSignal West Femto Maximum Sensitivity Substrate (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA), and analyzed using the Fluor-S MAX MultiImager or VersaDoc (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA).

#### *Sarkosyl-insoluble fraction of brain samples and their dephosphorylation*

Frozen total brain sample (0.2 g) was homogenated with 500  $\mu$ l of ice-cold extraction buffer (50 mM Tris-chloride [pH 7.4], 0.8 M NaCl, 1 mM EGTA, 10% sucrose and 1/1,000 w/v protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma)) and 1/10 volume of glassbeads. After  $20,000 \times g$  centrifugation for 10 min at 4°C, the supernatant was incubated with 1% sodium *N*-lauroyl sarcosinate. Sarkosyl-insoluble fractions were collected by  $182,000 \times g$  for 30 min at 4°C, and half of the sarkosyl-insoluble material was suspended in 50 mM Tris-chloride (pH 7.4) for Western blot analysis of total brain sample [9].

The other half of the sarkosyl-insoluble material was used for the following dephosphorylation study. The sample was treated with 4 M guanidine hydrochloride for 1 h at room temperature, followed by overnight dialysis at 4°C against 50 mM Tris-chloride (pH 8.8), 0.1 mM EDTA and 0.1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). The sample was then incubated for 4 h at 67°C with 5 U/ml *E. coli* alkaline phosphatase (type III-N; Sigma). The incubated sample was purified with 1.5 M ammonium sulfate solution to remove alkaline phosphatase for 1 h at room temperature. After  $20,000 \times g$  centrifugation for 10 min at 4°C, the pellet was suspended in 50 mM Tris-chloride (pH 8.8) and boiled for 10 min at 95°C. The sample was then loaded onto 7.5% SDS-PAGE gels and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes. Nitrocellulose membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk in phosphate buffered saline containing 0.05% Tween-20 (PBS-T) and incubated with 1:10,000

HT7 (Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium) specific to amino acid residues 159–163 of tau in PBS-T. Immunodecorated bands were incubated with 1:10,000 horseradish peroxidase-cojugated anti-mouse IgG antibody in PBS-T, visualized by ECL plus, and analyzed using the VersaDoc.

#### *Construction, expression, and purification of 6 recombinant tau isoforms*

The classical Goedert's method [9] was modified as follows. Human full-length cDNA clones encoding six human tau protein isoforms were subcloned into the *EcoRI* site and *XhoI* site of pBluescript II SK+. Following cleavage with *EcoRI* and *XhoI*, the resulting cDNA fragments were subcloned downstream of the T7 RNA polymerase promoter into *EcoRI* and *XhoI* cut expression plasmid pET11a and the recombinant plasmids were transformed into *E. coli* BL21 (DE3) cells. The *E. coli* cells were grown to an optical density of 0.6–1.0 at 600 nm. Expression was induced by adding IPTG to a final concentration of 0.4 mM. After shaking for 3 h at 30°C, the cells were collected by centrifugation. The *E. coli* pellets were suspended in 50 mM PIPES (pH 6.8), 1 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA and protease inhibitors cocktail (Sigma) and sonicated  $1 \times 10$  min on ice using Branson Sonifier 250. The homogenates were centrifuged at  $182,000 \times g$  for 30 min at 4°C and the resultant supernatant was loaded onto a phosphocellulose packed column equilibrated in extraction buffer.

After exhaustively washing in the same buffer, protein was eluted batchwise with 3 ml aliquots of extraction buffer containing 0.5 M NaCl. Fractions 2 and 3, which contained the recombinant tau proteins, were pooled and precipitated with 1.5 M ammonium sulfate. The pellet was washed in 50 mM PIPES (pH 6.8), 1 mM DTT, 1 mM EDTA and protease inhibitors cocktail (Sigma), and dialyzed overnight against 50 mM MES and 1 mM DTT (pH 6.5). After centrifugation the dialysate was loaded onto a Mono S HR 5/5 column (Amersham Biosciences). The column was washed with 50 mM MES, 1 mM DTT and 50 mM NaCl (pH 6.5), then the protein was eluted using a 100–300 mM NaCl gradient in 50 mM MES and 1 mM DTT (pH 6.5). Column fractions were screened by gel electrophoresis and Quick-CBB (Coomassie Brilliant Blue) PLUS stain (Wako), the peak tau fractions were pooled. Those fractions were then loaded onto a Superdex 200 HR 10/30 column (Amersham Biosciences). The column was washed with 50 mM MES, 1 mM DTT and 150 mM NaCl (pH 6.5). After screening column fractions by the same methods as above, the peak tau fractions were pooled, freed by liquid nitrogen and stored in deep-freezer until use. After six tau isoforms

were collectively purified and measured their concentration with densitometry against bovine serum albumin, an equal volume of each of the six tau isoforms were mixed together. Five  $\mu$ l of this mixture were run alongside dephosphorylated sample for the molecular weight marker (Figure 1D).

#### Immunohistochemistry

Cryostat sections (2–20  $\mu$ m thick) were made from the frozen material, fixed with cold acetone ( $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for 7 min, and immunostained by the avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (ABC) method with a VECTASTAIN ABC elite kit (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA), using a mouse monoclonal antibody against phosphorylation-dependent tau proteins (AT8; Innogenetics, Ghent, Belgium, 1:200) or a rabbit antiserum against 4-repeat tau (4R-tau) (EX10; 1:2,000, kindly provided by Dr. T. Arai) [2]. For the later immunostaining, tissue sections were pretreated with 99% formic acid for 5 s. Diaminobenzidine was used as the chromogen. After immunostaining, the sections were counterstained with hematoxylin. For negative controls, the first antibodies were omitted or replaced with normal serum.

#### Results

In total brain homogenates of sPiD1, tau migrated as two major bands of 60 and 64 kDa (Tau 60 and 64) by common microgram scale Western blot (Figure 1C, lane 2) as previously described [1,2]. After dephosphorylation by bacterial alkaline phosphatase (type III-N; Sigma), tau in sarkosyl-insoluble fractions appeared as two major bands that align with either 3-repeat tau (3R-tau) 0N; 3R-tau with no N-terminal amino acids inserts (dephosphorylated Tau

60), or 3R-tau 1N; 3R-tau with 29 amino acids inserts encoded by exon 2 (dephosphorylated Tau 64) [Figure 1D, lane 2].

On the other hand, tau migrated as a major band of 69 kDa (Tau 69) in laser microdissected PBs (Figure 1C, lane 5), and Tau 64 predominated in surrounding area of PBs (Figure 1C, lane 4). In order to clarify whether the Tau 69 in PBs was composed of either 3R-tau or 4R-tau, comparative immunohistochemical analysis with anti 4R-tau antibody (EX10) was performed, since EX10 was not sensitive enough for our nanogram scale Western blot analysis due to the lack of efficient immunoreactions (data not shown). Further, the amount of laser microdissected PBs was insufficient for the dephosphorylation procedure. Definite immunoreactivity for 4R-tau was barely detectable in a small population of PBs (less than 1% of the total PBs, Figure 2B), while AT8 (phosphorylation dependent anti-tau antibody)-immunohistochemistry revealed the presence of many immunoreactive PBs (Figure 2A). From these data, we concluded that a major component of PBs in these patients are 3R-tau with 58 amino acids inserts encoded by exons 2 and 3 (represented as Tau 69).

#### Discussion

One possible scenario drawn from our results is that the 29 amino acid repeat in exons 2 and 3 may have a higher tendency to form PBs in a repeat-number-dependent manner, which is independent from the well-known microtubules-binding regions where tau mutations tend to cluster [10]. In fact, King et al. [11] experimentally observed that polymerization of the intact tau molecule was facilitated by the amino acid sequences in exons 2 and 3. It was also seen that insoluble tau of 69 kDa (Tau 69) predominantly

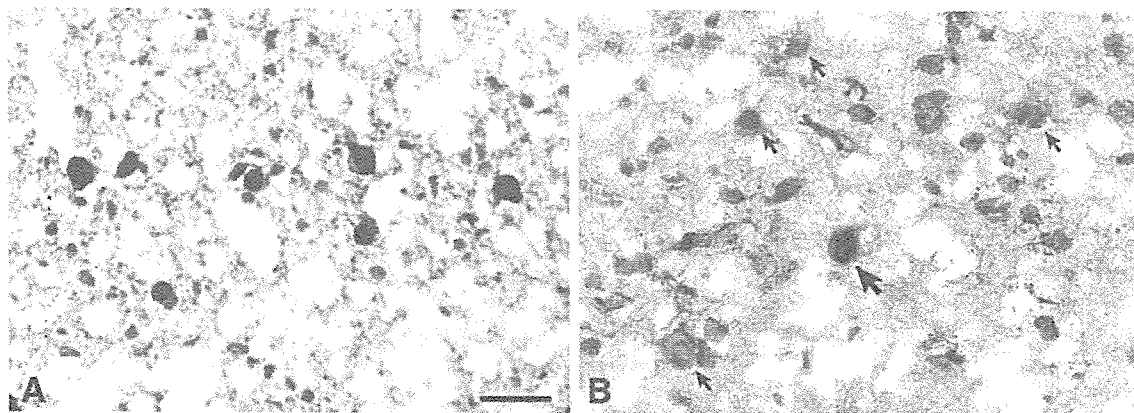


Figure 2. Immunoreactivity for phosphorylated tau (A) and 4R-tau (B) tau proteins in the second cortical layer of sPiD2. Intense labeling is present in many PBs in the panel A with AT8 antibody, but is restricted only in one PB in the panel B with EX10 antibody (large arrow). Small arrows in the panel B indicate PBs with little or no immunostaining. Scale bar is 30  $\mu$ m.

accumulated in neuronal cells when normal human tau was expressed in *Caenorhabditis elegans* to model tauopathy disorders [12], which may further support our notion. Tau 69 is also observed in aggregates of other tauopathies including progressive supranuclear palsy (4R-tau) [2] and corticobasal degeneration (4R-tau) [2], or in Alzheimer's disease (3R and 4R-tau) [1]. Thus, such 29 amino acid repeats in exons 2 and 3 may also account for the formation of aggregates in these disorders.

As shown, both methods of immunohistochemistry and Western blot are mutually complementary at the microscopic level. Of note, our novel combination method (LMDS-WB) targets proteins in the specific regions of interest at the micrometer order, which was separated by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted, and thus, exclusively enables us to gather information on the molecular profile (i.e. molecular weight) of target proteins under the microscope *in situ*. In fact, we successfully detected distinct isoforms of abnormally phosphorylated tau in PBs for the first time, something never observed from total brain homogenates with conventional approaches. However, immunohistochemistry usually exhibits a greater sensitivity compared to antibodies used for these purposes. For example, immunohistochemistry using AT8 was able to stain PBs at a single cell level, although at least a few hundred PBs were required for our combinatorial method of LMDS-WB with AT100.

Nonetheless, our method has indispensable advantages over the immunohistochemistry as shown in this study. Such a combination of morphological and biochemical techniques significantly complements the existing histopathologic methods, and has a great potential for investigating normal or abnormal microstructures in various conditions and disorders.

#### Acknowledgements

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## The possible role of protein X, a putative auxiliary factor in pathological prion replication, in regulating a physiological endoproteolytic cleavage of cellular prion protein

Naomi S. Hachiya, Midori Imagawa, Kiyotoshi Kaneko \*

*Department of Neurophysiology, Tokyo Medical University, 6-1-1 Shinjuku, Tokyo 160-8402, Japan*

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**Summary** The posttranslational conformational conversion of the cellular isoform of prion protein PrP<sup>C</sup> into its scrapie isoform PrP<sup>Sc</sup> is the fundamental process underlying the pathogenesis of prion disease. Based on several transgenic data, it has been postulated that a putative auxiliary factor denoted protein X functions as a molecular chaperone through its unfolding activity of PrP<sup>C</sup> during the formation of PrP<sup>Sc</sup>. However, the assumption that protein X therefore exists exclusively in prion diseases appears improbable and thus, it should have some simultaneous physiological role. We, hereby, propose a novel concept – a characteristic role of protein X in supporting a physiological endoproteolytic cleavage of PrP<sup>C</sup>. The events corresponding to the formation of the physiologically metabolized PrP<sup>C</sup> or the pathologically transformed PrP<sup>Sc</sup> are mutually exclusive. Amino acid residues that are critical in terms of the target site of protein X for the pathological alteration into PrP<sup>Sc</sup> overlap at the cleavage site. These amino acid residues tend to have a hydrophobic property and are most probably found buried inside the native protein structure. Therefore, a putative molecular chaperone identical to protein X may target the same hydrophobic residues in PrP<sup>C</sup> and work in conjunction with either PrP<sup>Sc</sup> in prion disease or PrP proteases during the physiological state. This postulation may help explain in a relatively simple manner these two mutually exclusive phenomena, viz. the physiological endoproteolytic cleavage of PrP<sup>C</sup> and its pathological conversion into PrP<sup>Sc</sup>.  
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The prion protein exists as two isoforms: a cellular isoform (PrP<sup>C</sup>) that is rich in  $\alpha$ -helices, and a disease (scrapie) isoform PrP<sup>Sc</sup> that is rich in  $\beta$ -structures [1,2]. Many lines of evidence have predicated the persuasive argument that prions are composed lar-

gely, if not entirely, of the scrapie isoform [1]. After the synthesis of PrP<sup>C</sup>, it is transited through the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus to the cell surface where it is bound by a glycosylphosphatidylinositol (GPI) anchor [3,4]. Subsequently, two mutually exclusive events take place – the metabolism of PrP<sup>C</sup> and the conversion of PrP<sup>C</sup> into PrP<sup>Sc</sup> [5–7].

During the physiological event, the initial degradation of PrP<sup>C</sup> involves endoproteolytic cleavage of

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\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 3 3351 6141x322; fax: +81 3 3351 6544.

E-mail address: [k-kaneko@tokyo-med.ac.jp](mailto:k-kaneko@tokyo-med.ac.jp) (K. Kaneko).

the NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal fragment to produce a COOH-terminal polypeptide, which can be found in caveolae-like membrane domains or lipid rafts [5]. The NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal fragment of the PrP functions as a putative targeting element [8,9] and is essential for both its transport to the plasma membrane and the modulation of endocytosis [10]. A green fluorescent protein (GFP)-tagged version of PrP<sup>C</sup> has been observed to be properly anchored to the cell surface; its distribution pattern has been reported to be similar to that of the endogenous PrP<sup>C</sup>, and it has shown labeling at the plasma membrane and in intracellular perinuclear compartments [11–17].

This cleavage site is mapped to the amino acid residues between the anti-PrP 3F4 and anti-PrP 13A5 epitopes (amino acid 108/111 to amino acid 138 in mouse PrP) [5,18,19] (Fig. 1). It has also been reported that PrP<sup>C</sup> cleavage occurs between amino acids 114 and 137 in chicken PrP [20] and between 110 and 113 in human PrP [21]. This proteolytic cleavage of PrP<sup>C</sup> in the brain is blocked by metalloprotease inhibitors [22].

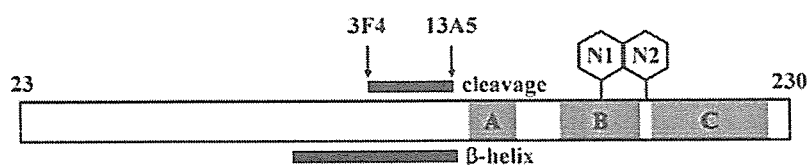
Other investigators have reported that PrP<sup>C</sup> undergoes constitutive and phorbol ester-regulated cleavage. During such events, normal processing in human cells and murine neurons is upregulated by protein kinase C but not by protein kinase A [23]. Further experimentation indicated that a disintegrin and two metalloprotease family proteins, namely, ADAM10 and TACE, contribute to these cleavage reactions of PrP<sup>C</sup>. ADAM10 contributes to the constitutive proteolytic cleavage of PrP<sup>C</sup>, whereas TACE mainly participates in the regulated cleavage event [24].

The solution nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) structure of monomeric recombinant PrP<sup>C</sup> illustrates that this region is largely unstructured [25–27], whereas the crystal structure of the human prion protein in dimer form and that of the sheep prion protein suggest that this region is, at least in part, structured and organized [28,29]. Apart from these results with recombinant PrP, little is known about the endogenous native PrP<sup>C</sup> conformation so far, except that these amino acid

residues around the cleavage site have a hydrophobic property [30–32]; therefore, it is highly probable that they are buried within the native protein structure – a region that is barely accessible to the extrinsic proteases (Fig. 1) [33]. Thus, a putative molecular chaperone that should exhibit an unfolding activity on this hydrophobic region is expected to facilitate, at least to some extent, efficient PrP<sup>C</sup> proteolysis through its physiological metabolic pathway.

This assumption is reminiscent of the concept that the association of protein X in prion replication with the pathological condition that is unidentified thus far [26,34,35]. The binding of PrP<sup>C</sup> to protein X is accompanied by a conformational change (i.e., unfolding) in PrP<sup>C</sup>, similar to that evident in the case of the molecular chaperone. This intermediate has been designated PrP<sup>\*</sup> [36]. The PrP<sup>Sc</sup>/PrP<sup>\*</sup>/protein X complex is modulated by an undefined process, following which PrP<sup>\*</sup> is converted into PrP<sup>Sc</sup> and protein X is released [37]. Interestingly, a prion-like protein in yeast, namely Sup35, apparently requires intermediate levels of the molecular chaperone Hsp104 to undergo transformation to [PSI<sup>+</sup>] [38].

It is noteworthy that the amino acid residues that are critical in terms of the target site of protein X for the pathological conversion into PrP<sup>Sc</sup> overlap at the physiological cleavage site where another putative molecular chaperone is expected to target and operate in conjunction with PrP proteases [2]. Hence, we can assume that these two putative molecules that exhibit a chaperone-like (i.e., unfolding) activity against the same hydrophobic residues in PrP<sup>C</sup> could be identical. If we assume that the converse is true, then protein X exists exclusively for the pathological condition in terms of prion replication; this, however, appears to be less probable. Instead, our current hypothesis may lend a satisfactory explanation for these two mutually exclusive phenomena, i.e., physiological endoproteolytic cleavage of PrP<sup>C</sup> and its pathological conversion into PrP<sup>Sc</sup>. The identification of this putative molecular chaperone working in conjunction with proteases that target PrP<sup>C</sup> is significant



**Figure 1** Endoproteolytic cleavage and pathological conversion into  $\beta$ -helix of the mouse cellular prion protein (Mo PrP<sup>C</sup>). 3F4, anti-PrP 3F4 epitope (Mo 108/111); 13A5, anti-PrP13A5 epitope (Mo 138); A, helix A; B, helix B; C, helix C; N1 & N2, N-linked glycosylation sites (Mo 182/198);  $\beta$ -helix,  $\beta$ -helical region (Mo 90–140) of scrapie isoform of PrP (PrP<sup>Sc</sup>); cleavage, mapped region of PrP<sup>C</sup> cleavage site.

because it could also be also directed toward identifying protein X in prion replication – an issue that has not been elucidated for over a decade.

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Short communication

# Gene silencing analyses against *amyloid precursor protein (APP)* gene family by RNA interference

Tokiko Sakai<sup>a,b</sup>, Hirohiko Hohjoh<sup>a,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, 4-1-1 Ogawahigashi, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan

<sup>b</sup> Central Research Laboratories, Seikagaku Corporation, Tokyo, Japan

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## Abstract

*Amyloid precursor protein (APP)* and *amyloid precursor-like proteins 1 and 2 (APLP1 and APLP2)* are members of a large gene family. Although APP is known to be the source of the  $\beta$ -amyloid peptides involved in the development of Alzheimer's disease, the normal functions of APP, APLP1 and APLP2 in cells are poorly understood. In this study, we carried out gene silencing analysis by means of RNA interference with synthetic small interfering RNA duplexes targeting the *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* genes in Neuro2a (N2a) cells, a mouse neuroblastoma cell line. The results demonstrated that cell viability and neurite outgrowth of N2a cells undergoing knockdown of *Aplp1* were significantly reduced, compared with N2a cells undergoing knockdown of either *App* or *Aplp2*.

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**Keywords:** RNAi; App; Aplp1; Aplp2; Neuro2a cell; Neurite outgrowth; Viability

## 1. Introduction

Amyloid precursor protein (APP) is a membrane-spanning glycoprotein expressed in various tissues, including the brain, and is the source of  $\beta$ -amyloid peptides ( $A\beta$ ), which are a key factor in the development of Alzheimer's disease (AD); extracellular deposition of  $A\beta$  resulting in the formation of 'senile plaques' often occurring in the brains of AD patients (Turner et al., 2003). In mammals, *amyloid precursor-like protein 1 and 2 (APLP1 and APLP2)* genes, which lack the  $A\beta$  region, have also been identified (Wasco et al., 1992; Wasco et al., 1993a,b), thus suggesting that APP, APLP1 and APLP2 are members of a large gene family. The expression profiles of APP and APLP2 are similar, whereas expression of APLP1 appears to be restricted to the nervous system (Lorent et al., 1995; Slunt et al., 1994). Translated APP, APLP1 and APLP2 polypeptides appear to undergo proteolytic processing

by  $\alpha$ -,  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -secretase (Eggert et al., 2004; Gu et al., 2001; Li and Sudhof, 2004; Scheinfeld et al., 2002); but, the normal function of the resultant APP, APLP1 and APLP2 in cells remains largely unknown.

In this study, we carried out gene silencing analysis against the *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* genes by means of RNA interference (RNAi) in Neuro2a (N2a) cells, a mouse neuroblastoma cell line, and investigated the influence of knockdown of these genes.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Cell culture

Neuro2a cells, a mouse neuroblastoma cell line, were grown at 37 °C in DMEM (Wako) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma), 100 U/ml penicillin (Invitrogen) and 100  $\mu$ g/ml streptomycin (Invitrogen) in a 5% CO<sub>2</sub>-humidified chamber.

### 2.2. Small interfering RNA duplexes

Small interfering RNA (siRNA) duplexes against mouse *App*, *Aplp1*, and *Aplp2* genes were purchased from Ambion. The siRNA ID numbers (Ambion)

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +81 42 341 2711x5951; fax: +81 42 346 1755.  
E-mail address: hohjohh@ncnp.go.jp (H. Hohjoh).

were as follows: siApp-1 [60001], siApp-2 [60093], siAplp1-1 [159681], siAplp1-2 [159682], siAplp2-1 [160719], siAplp2-2 [160720]. Non-silencing siRNA duplexes were used as negative control (Qiagen).

### 2.3. Transfection of siRNA duplexes

The day before transfection, cells were trypsinized, diluted with fresh medium lacking antibiotics, and seeded into 24-well culture plates ( $1 \times 10^4$  cells/well). Transfection of siRNA duplexes was carried out using jetSI (Polyplus transfection) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with minor modifications. Before transfection, the culture medium was replaced with 0.4 ml OPTI-MEM I (Invitrogen), and to each well, 40 nM siRNA duplex was applied. Cells were incubated for 4 h at 37 °C. After the 4 h incubation, 1 ml of the fresh culture medium without antibiotics was added, and further incubation was carried out.

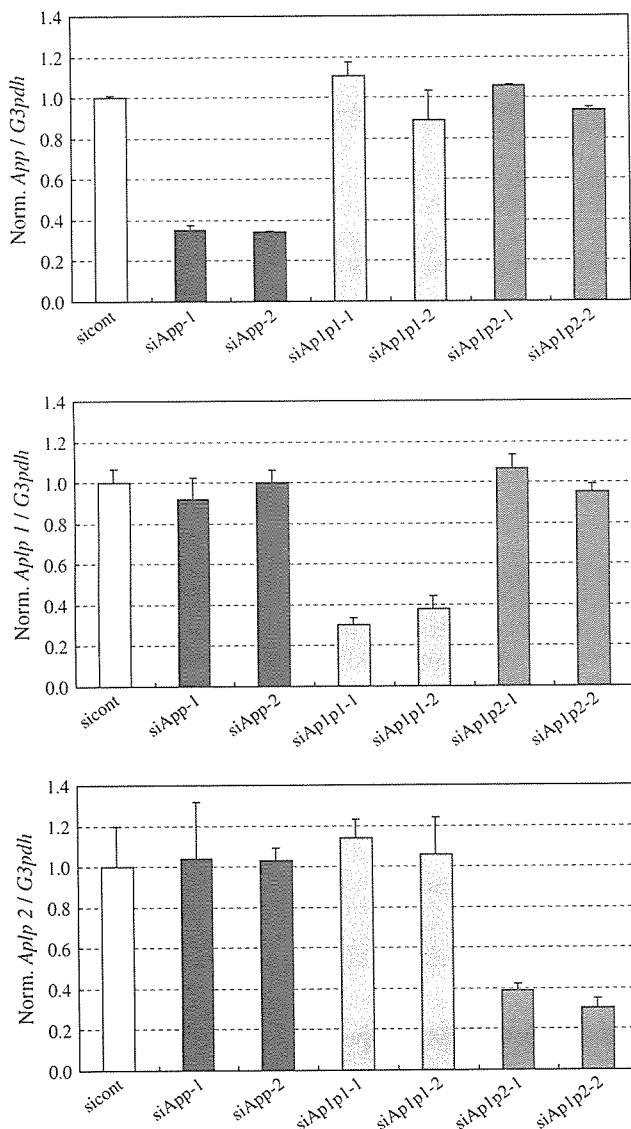


Fig. 1. Expression profiles of *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* in N2a cells. Indicated siRNA duplexes were transfected into N2a cells. Twelve hours after transfection, total RNA was extracted from the cells, and was subjected to RT-(real-time) PCR. Expression levels of *App*, *Aplp1*, or *Aplp2* were normalized against those of *G3pdh*, and the ratios of expression levels were normalized against the ratio obtained in the presence of the siControl duplex. Data are means of at least three independent determinations. Error bars represent standard deviations.

### 2.4. Reverse transcription-(real-time) polymerase chain reaction

In order to examine the expression levels of the genes, total RNA was extracted from cells and was subjected to reverse transcription-(real-time) polymerase chain reaction [RT-(real-time) PCR], as described previously (Hohjoh, 2004; Ohnishi et al., 2006; Sago et al., 2004). Real-time PCR was carried out using the ABI PRISM 7300 sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems) with a TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix together with Assays-on-Demand Gene Expression products (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The Assays-on-Demand Gene Expression products used (Assay ID number) were as follows: *App*; Mm00431827\_m1, *Aplp1*; Mm00545893\_m1, *Aplp2*; Mm00507819\_m1.

### 2.5. Western blotting

Cell lysate and culture media were examined by Western blotting as described previously (Ohnishi et al., 2006). Equal amounts of proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and electrophoretically blotted onto PVDF membranes (Millipore). Membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk in PBS containing 0.05% Tween-20 and incubated with anti-APP mouse monoclonal (3E9) antibody (MBL), anti-APLP1 rabbit polyclonal antibody (Calbiochem) and anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin (Sigma) antibody followed by washing in PBS and further incubation with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-mouse IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Labs) or biotinylated anti-rabbit IgG together with avidin-biotinylated horseradish peroxidase complexes (Vectastain). Antigen-antibody complexes were visualized using ECL chemiluminescent reagent (Amersham).

### 2.6. Cell viability assay

Cell viability was investigated using 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-5-(3-carboxymethoxyphenyl)-2-(4-sulfophenyl)-2H-tetrazolium (MTS) assay using a CellTiter 96 aqueous non-radioactive cell proliferation assay kit (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

## 3. Results and discussion

Because the *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* genes are members of the same gene family, we first assessed whether sequence-specific

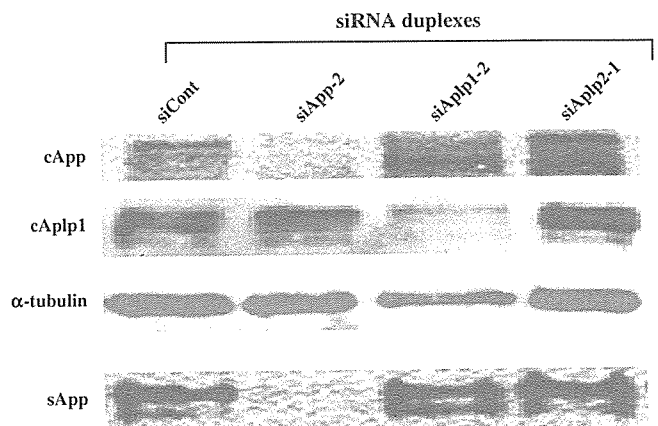


Fig. 2. Western blot analysis of *App* and *Aplp1*. Transfection of indicated siRNA duplexes into N2a cells was carried out as described for Fig. 1. Twenty-four hours after transfection, culture medium was replaced with DMEM without serum, and further 24 h culture was carried out. Cell lysate and culture media were prepared from transfected cells, and expressed *App* and *Aplp1* in cells (cellular *App* and *Aplp1*: cApp and cAplp1) and *App* in culture media (secreted *App*: sApp) were examined by Western blotting. Expression of  $\alpha$ -tubulin (control) was also examined. As for *Aplp2*, we could not obtain antibody against it in this study.

gene silencing (RNAi) was induced by siRNA duplexes. Twelve hours after transfection with the siRNA duplexes targeting *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2*, the expression levels of the target genes were examined by means of RT-(real-time) PCR

and Western blotting. As shown in Figs. 1 and 2, the results indicate that used siRNA duplexes were able to inhibit the expression of their own target genes without suppressing the expression of the other two genes, thus suggesting that specific

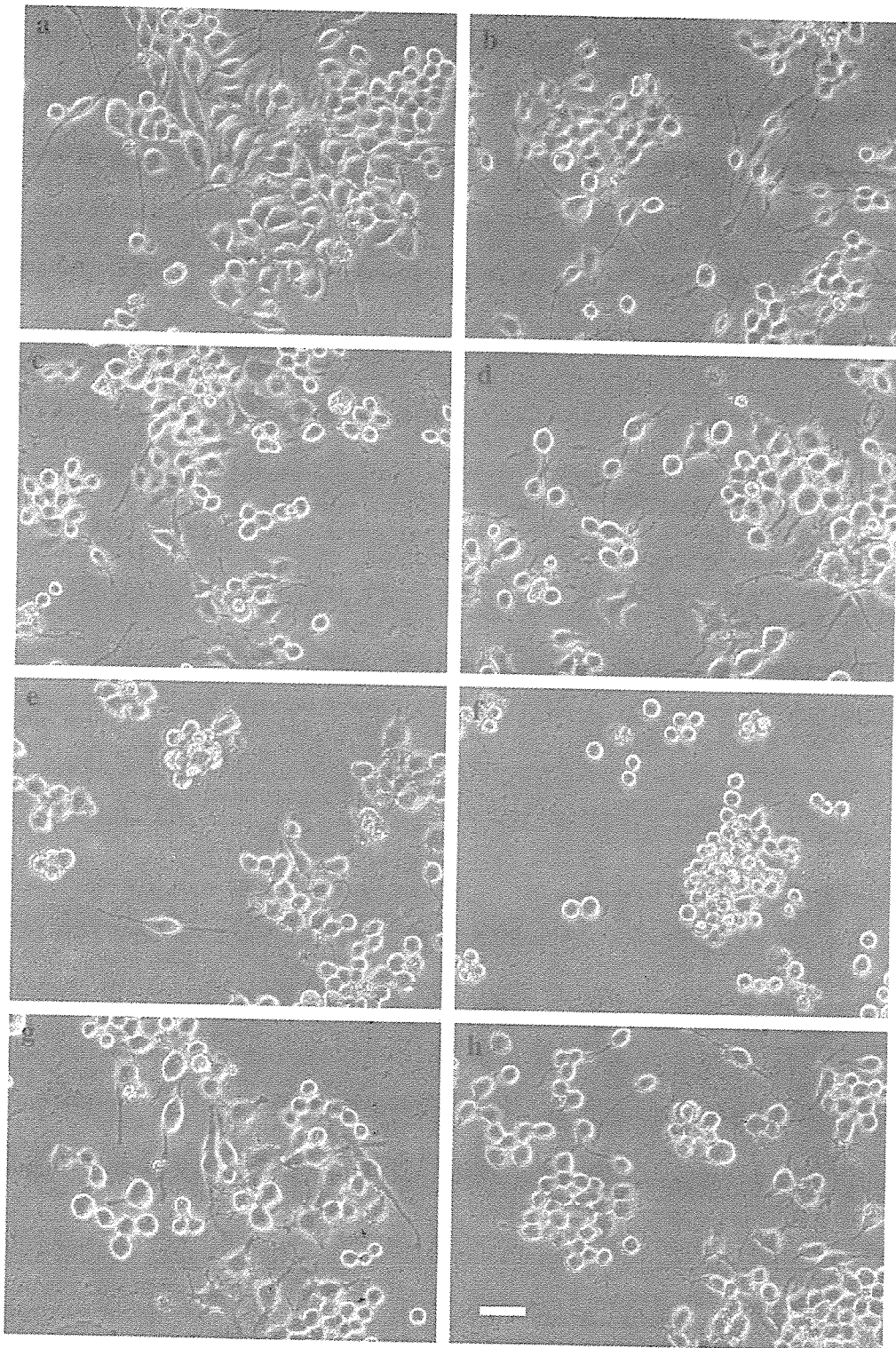


Fig. 3. Morphological differentiation of N2a cells with knockdown of *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2*. Transfection of siRNA duplexes into N2a cells was carried out as described for Fig. 1. Twenty-four hours after transfection, culture medium was replaced with DMEM without serum, and further 24 h culture was carried out as described for Fig. 2. Transfected siRNA duplexes were as follows: (a) no siRNA (jetSI reagent alone); (b) siControl; (c) siApp-1; (d) siApp-2; (e) siAplp1-1; (f) siAplp1-2; (g) siAplp2-1; (h) siAplp2-2. Scale bar indicates 50  $\mu$ m.

inhibition of target gene expression was induced by the siRNA duplexes.

Because N2a cells are differentiated by serum deprivation [the resultant cells exhibit differentiated morphology with long neuritic processes (Fig. 3a)] (Diaz-Nido et al., 1988), we investigated the morphological differentiation of N2a cells with knockdown of *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* under serum deprivation. Fig. 3 shows photographs of N2a cells treated with siRNA duplexes after 24 h culture in the absence of serum. Neurite outgrowth was examined based on cell body diameter (approximately 15  $\mu$ m) and cells with extended neurites longer than two cell body diameters were judged to be differentiated. As shown in the figure, moderate levels of neurite outgrowth were observed in N2a cells undergoing gene silencing of *App* and *Aplp2*; in contrast, very little neurite outgrowth was seen in N2a cells with knockdown of *Aplp1*. In addition, based on the observation of transfected cells, it appears that knockdown of the *App* gene family also influences cell viability. To further confirm this observation, we examined cell viability by means of MTS assay. As shown in Fig. 4, the results indicate that: (i) N2a cells with knockdown of *Aplp1* exhibit significantly reduced viability under the present culture conditions, in both the presence and absence of serum; (ii) knockdown of *App* apparently decreases cell viability under serum deprivation, but does not significantly affect viability in the presence of serum; and (iii) knockdown of *Aplp2* in N2a cells has little influence on cell viability. Taken together with the results of Fig. 3, it is possible that the inhibition of neurite outgrowth may be associated with decreased cell viability in N2a cells with knockdown of *Aplp1*.

Previous studies of *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2* knockout mice have suggested that *App* family members possess essential, but partially

redundant, functions, and that they play important roles in normal brain development and early postnatal survival (Heber et al., 2000; Herms et al., 2004; von Koch et al., 1997). Of the *App* family members, *Aplp2* may have a key function, as *Aplp2*<sup>-/-</sup>*App*<sup>-/-</sup> and *Aplp2*<sup>-/-</sup>*Aplp1*<sup>-/-</sup> double knockout is postnatally lethal, while *App*<sup>-/-</sup>*Aplp1*<sup>-/-</sup> double knockout mice are viable. However, *Aplp2*<sup>-/-</sup> single knockout mice appeared to be normal (von Koch et al., 1997), whereas *Aplp1*<sup>-/-</sup> single knockout mice exhibited postnatal growth deficit (Heber et al., 2000).

Based on the present observations, *Aplp1* rather than *Aplp2* appears to play an important role in Neuro2a cells. Because *Aplp1* is specifically expressed in the nervous system (Lorent et al., 1995), it is possible that *Aplp1* plays an essential role in the survival and differentiation of neuronal cells (at least N2a cells). The present and previous observations also suggest that different cells (tissues) may require different contributions by the *App* gene family. To further evaluate these possibilities, more extensive studies are required.

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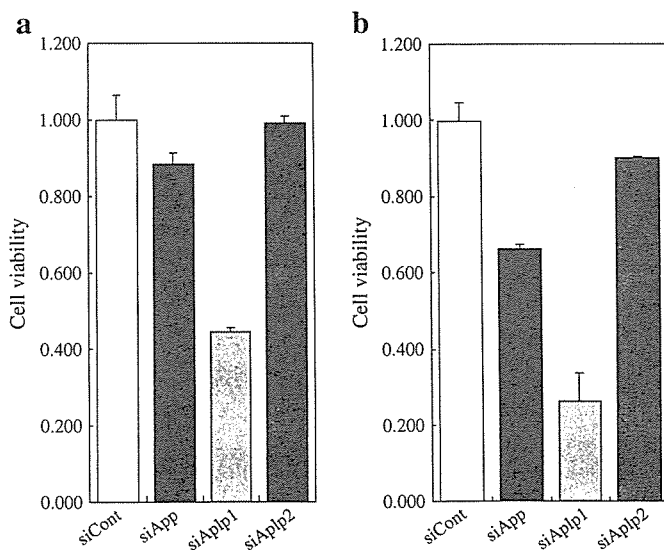


Fig. 4. Cell viability of N2a cells undergoing gene silencing of *App*, *Aplp1* and *Aplp2*. Transfection of siRNA duplexes was carried out as described for Fig. 1. Twenty-four hours after transfection, culture medium was replaced with DMEM with (A) or without (B) 10% serum. Seventy-two hours after transfection, cell viability was examined by means of MTS assay. Cell viability in the presence of siRNA duplexes against *App*, *Aplp1*, and *Aplp2* was normalized against that in the presence of siControl. Data are means of three independent experiments. Error bars represent standard deviations.

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## NEW METHODS AND TECHNOLOGIES

### Assessment of allele-specific gene silencing by RNA interference with mutant and wild-type reporter alleles

Yusuke Ohnishi<sup>1,2</sup>, Katsushi Tokunaga<sup>2</sup>, Kiyotoshi Kaneko<sup>1</sup> and Hirohiko Hohjoh<sup>1,\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>National Institute of Neuroscience, NCNP, 4-1-1 Ogawahigashi, Kodaira, Tokyo 187-8502, Japan; <sup>2</sup>Department of Human Genetics, Graduate School of Medicine, The University of Tokyo, 7-3-1 Hongo, Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 113-0033, Japan

\*Correspondence to: Hirohiko Hohjoh, Email: hohjohh@ncnp.go.jp, Tel: +81 42 342 2711, ext 5951, Fax: +81 42 346 1755

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#### ABSTRACT

Allele-specific gene silencing by RNA interference (RNAi) is therapeutically useful for specifically suppressing the expression of alleles associated with disease. To realize such allele-specific RNAi (ASP-RNAi), the design and assessment of small interfering RNA (siRNA) duplexes conferring ASP-RNAi is vital, but is also difficult. Here, we show ASP-RNAi against the Swedish- and London-type amyloid precursor protein (*APP*) variants related to familial Alzheimer's disease using two reporter alleles encoding the *Photinus* and *Renilla* luciferase genes and carrying mutant and wild-type allelic sequences in their 3'-untranslated regions. We examined the effects of siRNA duplexes against the mutant alleles in allele-specific gene silencing and off-target silencing against the wild-type allele under heterozygous conditions, which were generated by cotransfecting the reporter alleles and siRNA duplexes into cultured human cells. Consistently, the siRNA duplexes determined to confer ASP-RNAi also inhibited the expression of the *bona fide* mutant APP and the production of either amyloid  $\beta$  40- or 42-peptide in Cos-7 cells expressing both the full-length Swedish- and wild-type *APP* alleles. The present data suggest that the system with reporter alleles may permit the preclinical assessment of siRNA duplexes conferring ASP-RNAi, and thus contribute to the design and selection of the most suitable of such siRNA duplexes.

**KEYWORDS:** RNAi, allele-specific gene silencing, amyloid precursor protein, Swedish mutation, London mutation, reporter allele

#### INTRODUCTION

RNA interference (RNAi) is a powerful tool for suppressing the expression of a gene of interest (Dykxhoorn et al, 2003; Meister and Tuschl, 2004; Mello and Conte, 2004). In mammals, RNAi can be induced by direct introduction of synthetic small interfering RNA (siRNA) duplexes into cells or generation of siRNA duplexes using short-hairpin RNA expression vectors and its application is expanding to various fields of science; therapeutic use of RNAi in medical science and pharmacogenesis is particularly promising (Caplen, 2004; Dykxhoorn et al, 2003; Hannon and Rossi, 2004; Karagiannis and El-Osta, 2005; Wood et al, 2003). Allele-specific gene silencing by RNAi (allele-specific RNAi: ASP-RNAi) is an advanced application of

RNAi techniques, by which the expression of an allele of interest can be inhibited (Victor et al, 2002). Accordingly, ASP-RNAi is thought to be therapeutically useful, i.e., it can specifically suppress the expression of alleles causing disease without inhibiting the expression of corresponding wild-type alleles. To realize and control such ASP-RNAi, the following issues must be addressed: selection of competent siRNA duplexes that strongly induce ASP-RNAi; and qualitative and quantitative evaluation of allele-specific gene silencing.

In this article, we describe an easy assay system for assessment of ASP-RNAi with mutant and wild-type reporter alleles encoding the *Photinus* and *Renilla* luciferase genes. Using the amyloid precursor protein

(*APP*) variants (the Swedish- and London-type variants) related to familial Alzheimer's disease (Goate et al, 1991; Mullan et al, 1992) as model mutant alleles, we determined the effects of siRNA duplexes against the mutant *APP* on allele-specific silencing as well as off-target silencing against the wild-type allele. The siRNA duplexes having the potential to specifically suppress the expression of the mutant reporter allele consistently inhibited the expression of the *bona fide* mutant *APP* as well as amyloid  $\beta$  40- and 42-peptides in Cos-7 cells expressing both the full-length Swedish- and wild-type *APP* alleles. These observations suggest that the present system could permit the selection of siRNA duplexes having the potential to confer ASP-RNAi.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Preparation of oligonucleotides

DNA and RNA oligonucleotides were obtained from INVITROGEN and TAKARA, respectively. For preparation of duplexes, sense- and antisense-stranded oligonucleotides (20  $\mu$ M each) were mixed and annealed as described previously (Hohjoh, 2002). The sequences of synthesized oligonucleotides are shown in Tables 1 and 2. Non-silencing siRNA duplex (siControl; Qiagen) was used as a negative control.

### Cell culture

HeLa, T98G and Cos-7 cells were grown at 37°C in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Wako) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Sigma), 100 U/ml penicillin and 100  $\mu$ g/ml streptomycin (Sigma) in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>-humidified chamber. T98G cells (Registry No. IFO50295) were obtained from the Health Science Research Resources Bank.

### Construction of reporter and expression plasmids

In order to construct plasmids carrying reporter alleles, the pHRL-TK (Promega) and pGL3-TK (Ohnishi et al., 2005) plasmids encoding the *Renilla* and *Photinus* luciferase genes, respectively, both of which were driven by the same herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase (TK) promoter, were digested with Xba I and Not I, and were

subjected to ligation with synthetic oligonucleotide duplexes corresponding to the Swedish-, London- and wild-type *APP* alleles (sequences of the oligonucleotides used are indicated in Table 1). The resultant plasmids carry allelic *APP* sequences in the 3'-untranslated regions (UTRs) of the luciferase genes (Figure 1A). Expression plasmids, pAPP695<sub>WT</sub> and pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub> encoding full-length cDNAs of the wild- and Swedish-type *APP* alleles, respectively, were kindly provided by Dr Tanahashi (Tanahashi and Tabira, 2001).

### Transfection and reporter assay

The day before transfection, cells were trypsinized, diluted with fresh medium without antibiotics, and seeded into 24-well culture plates (approximately  $0.5 \times 10^5$  cells/well). Cotransfection of synthetic siRNA duplexes with reporter plasmids was carried out using Lipofectamine 2000 transfection reagent (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and to each well, 0.24  $\mu$ g (40 nM) of siRNA duplexes, 0.2  $\mu$ g of pGL3-TK-backbone plasmid, 0.05  $\mu$ g of pHRL-TK-backbone plasmid and 0.1  $\mu$ g of pSV- $\beta$ -Galactosidase control vector (Promega) were applied. Twenty-four hours after transfection, cell lysate was prepared and expression levels of luciferase and  $\beta$ -Galactosidase were examined by the Dual-Luciferase reporter assay system (Promega) and Beta-Glo assay system (Promega), respectively, according to the manufacturer's instructions. In the case of transfection of siRNA duplexes and expression plasmids (pAPP695<sub>WT</sub> and pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub>) into Cos-7 cells, 0.4  $\mu$ g of each plasmid and 0.24  $\mu$ g of siRNA duplexes were applied. Forty-eight hours after transfection, culture media was collected and cell lysate was prepared.

### Western blotting and ELISA

Culture media and cell lysate prepared from transfected Cos-7 cells were examined by western blotting as described previously (Lesne et al., 2003). Equal amounts of proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE and electrophoretically blotted onto PVDF membranes (Millipore). Membranes were blocked for 1 h in blocking solution (5% (v/w) fat-free milk and 0.05% (v/v) Tween-20 in PBS) and

**Table 1.** Synthetic DNA oligonucleotides

Name	Sequence (5'-----3')
ssAPPwt(Sw) asAPPwt(Sw)	CTAGCATGCAGGAGATCTCTGAAGTGAAGATGGATGCAGAATTCCGACA GGCCTGTCGGAATTCTGCATCCATCTTCACTTCAGAGATCTCCTGCATG
ssAPP(K670N-M671L) asAPP(K670N-M671L)	CTAGCATGCAGGAGATCTCTGAAGTGAATCTGGATGCAGAATTCCGACA GGCCTGTCGGAATTCTGCATCCAGATTCACTTCAGAGATCTCCTGCATG
ssAPPwt(Lo) asAPPwt(Lo)	CTAGCATGCTGTCATAGCGACAGTGATCGTCATCACCTTGGTGATGCTGA GGCCTCAGCATCACCAAGGTGATGACGATCACTGTCGCTATGACAGCATG
ssAPP(V717I) asAPP(V717I)	CTAGCATGCTGTCATAGCGACAGTGATCATCATCACCTTGGTGATGCTGA GGCCTCAGCATCACCAAGGTGATGATGATCACTGTCGCTATGACAGCATG
ssAPP(V717F) asAPP(V717F)	CTAGCATGCTGTCATAGCGACAGTGATCTTCATCACCTTGGTGATGCTGA GGCCTCAGCATCACCAAGGTGATGAAGATCACTGTCGCTATGACAGCATG
ssAPP(V717G) asAPP(V717G)	CTAGCATGCTGTCATAGCGACAGTGATCGGCATCACCTTGGTGATGCTGA GGCCTCAGCATCACCAAGGTGATGCCGATCACTGTCGCTATGACAGCATG



**Table 2.** Synthetic siRNAs used in this study. Sense- and antisense-stranded siRNA elements are indicated by '-ss' and '-as', respectively.

siRNAs against the Swedish <i>APP</i> mutant	
Name	Sequence (5'-----3')
si(T7/C8)-ss	AGUGAAUCUGGAUGCAGAAUUU
si(T7/C8)-as	AUUCUGCAUCCAGAUUCACUUU
si(T8/C9)-ss	AAGUGAAUCUGGAUGCAGAAUU
si(T8/C9)-as	UUCUGCAUCCAGAUUCACUUUU
si(T9/C10)-ss	GAAGUGAAUCUGGAUGCAGAUU
si(T9/C10)-as	UCUGCAUCCAGAUUCACUUCUU
si(T10/C11)-ss	UGAAGUGAAUCUGGAUGCAGUU
si(T10/C11)-as	CUGCAUCCAGAUUCACUUCAUU
si(T11/C12)-ss	CUGAAGUGAAUCUGGAUGCAUU
si(T11/C12)-as	UGCAUCCAGAUUCACUUCAGUU
si(T12/C13)-ss	UCUGAAGUGAAUCUGGAUGCUU
si(T12/C13)-as	GCAUCCAGAUUCACUUCAGAUU
siRNAs against the London <i>APP</i> mutants	
Name	Sequence (5'-----3')
si(A8)-ss	AGUGAUCAUCAUCACCUUGUU
si(A8)-as	CAAGGUGAUGAUGAUCACUUU
si(A9)-ss	CAGUGAUCAUCAUCACCUUUU
si(A9)-as	AAGGUGAUGAUGAUCACUGUU
si(A10)-ss	ACAGUGAUCAUCAUCACCUUU
si(A10)-as	AGGUGAUGAUGAUCACUGUUU
si(A11)-ss	GACAGUGAUCAUCAUCACCUU
si(A11)-as	GGUGAUGAUGAUCACUGUCUU
si(A12)-ss	CGACAGUGAUCAUCAUCACUU
si(A12)-as	GUGAUGAUGAUCACUGUCUU
si(T8)-ss	AGUGAUCUUCAUCACCUUGUU
si(T8)-as	CAAGGUGAUGAAGAUUCACUUU
si(T9)-ss	CAGUGAUCUUCAUCACCUUUU
si(T9)-as	AAGGUGAUGAAGAUUCACUGUU
si(T10)-ss	ACAGUGAUCUUCAUCACCUUU
si(T10)-as	AGGUGAUGAAGAUUCACUGUUU
si(T11)-ss	GACAGUGAUCUUCAUCACCUU
si(T11)-as	GGUGAUGAAGAUUCACUGUCUU
si(T12)-ss	CGACAGUGAUCUUCAUCACUU
si(T12)-as	GUGAUGAAGAUUCACUGUCUU
si(G8)-ss	GUGAUCGGCAUCACCUUGUUU
si(G8)-as	CCAAGGUGAUGCCGAUCACUU
si(G9)-ss	AGUGAUCGGCAUCACCUUGUU
si(G9)-as	CAAGGUGAUGCCGAUCACUUU
si(G10)-ss	CAGUGAUCGGCAUCACCUUUU
si(G10)-as	AAGGUGAUGCCGAUCACUGUU
si(G11)-ss	ACAGUGAUCGGCAUCACCUUU
si(G11)-as	AGGUGAUGCCGAUCACUGUUU
si(G12)-ss	GACAGUGAUCGGCAUCACCUU
si(G12)-as	GGUGAUGCCGAUCACUGUCUU

were incubated with anti-APP antibody 22C11 (Chemicon) or anti- $\alpha$ -tubulin antibody DM1A (Sigma) followed by washing in PBS and further incubation with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG (Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories). Antigen-antibody complexes were visualized using ECL chemiluminescent reagent (Amersham). Levels of A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 production in culture media were examined by human/rat  $\beta$  amyloid 40 and 42 ELISA kits (Wako) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

### RT-PCR

Total RNA extraction, including treatment with DNase I (Ambion) twice followed by reverse transcription, were carried out as described previously (Sago et al., 2004). The resultant cDNAs were examined by real-time (RT)-PCR using the ABI PRISM 7300 sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems) with a SYBER green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems) according to the manufacturer's instructions. PCR primers used were as follows:

For detection of the *Renilla luciferase* transcript:

renilla-F; 5'-GTTCTTTTCCAACGCTATTG-3'  
renilla-R; 5'-GAAGCTCTTGATGTACTTAC-3'

For detection of the *Photinus luciferase* transcript:

photinus-F; 5'-TTTGATATGTGGATTTTCGAG-3'  
photinus-R; 5'-ATCGTATTTGTCAATCAGAG-3'

## RESULTS

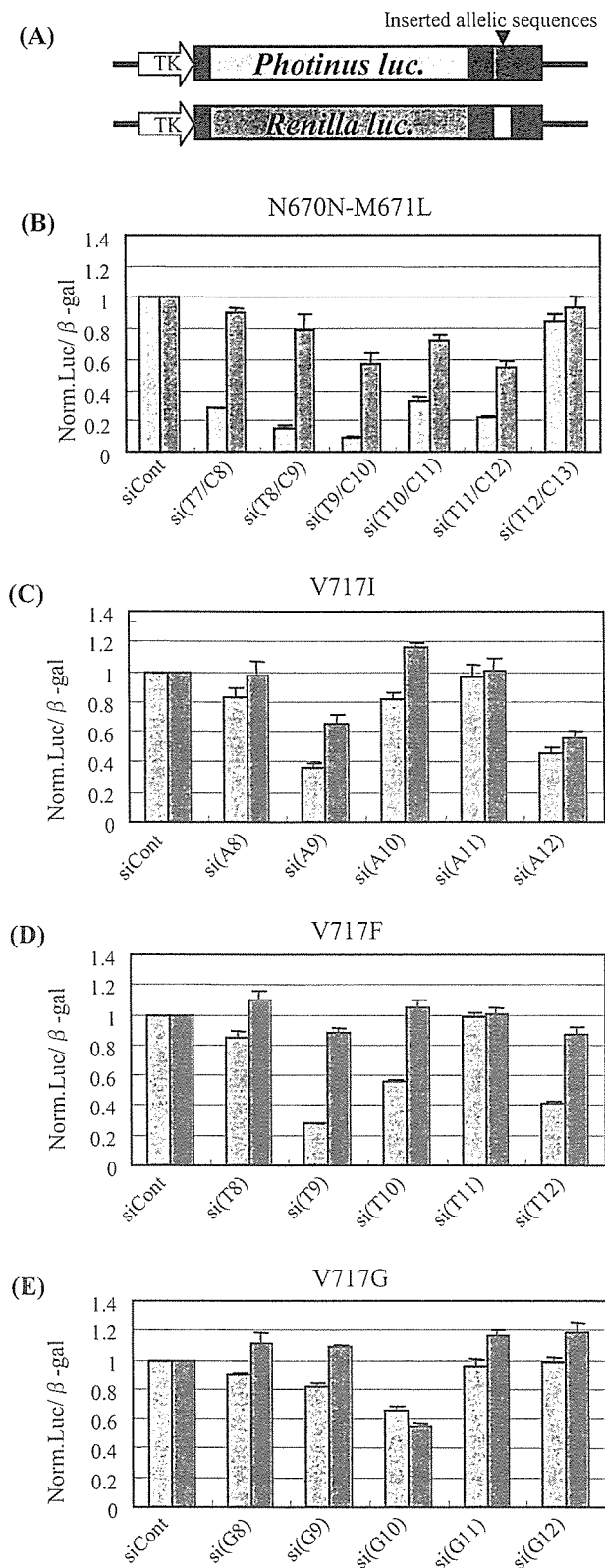
### Assessment of siRNAs in heterozygous model system

In this study, the Swedish- and London-type mutants of the *APP* gene, which are involved in familial Alzheimer's disease, were used as model mutant alleles. The Swedish- and London-type *APP* mutants carry double and single nucleotide substitutions, respectively, which are followed by amino acid substitutions (K670N-M671L in the Swedish APP; V717I, V717F or V717G in the London APP) (Goate et al, 1991; Mullan et al, 1992). The resultant amino acid sequences in the Swedish and London-type APPs are preferably digested by  $\beta$ - and  $\gamma$ -secretase, respectively, resulting in accumulation of A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 peptides, which are the key factors of Alzheimer's disease (Cai et al, 1993; Citron et al, 1992; Mattson, 2004; Suzuki et al, 1994).

Mutant and wild-type reporter alleles were constructed as described in Materials and Methods. The resultant reporter alleles (Figure 1A), synthetic siRNA duplex against the mutant allele and the  $\beta$ -galactosidase gene (control) were cotransfected into human cells. Note that the transfected cells are artificially heterozygous with the mutant and wild-type *APP* reporter alleles; thus, the effects of test siRNA duplexes on suppression of both the mutant and wild-type alleles can be simultaneously examined.

### ASP-RNAi against the Swedish-type APP allele

When the *Renilla* and *Photinus luciferase* genes were regarded as the Swedish and wild-type reporter alleles, respectively, the effects of the si(T7/C8) - si(T12/C13) duplexes against the Swedish mutant on allele-specific gene silencing were examined in HeLa cells. The results



**Figure 1.** Assessment of ASP-RNAi with reporter alleles. (A) Schematic drawing of reporter alleles. Reporter alleles were constructed based on the *Photinus* and *Renilla luciferase* reporter genes driven by the same TK promoter, and allelic sequences of wild-type and mutant (synthetic oligonucleotides) were inserted into the 3'-UTRs of the reporter genes, i.e., the reporter alleles encode luciferase reporter genes carrying artificially inserted allele sequences of interest. Assessment of siRNA duplexes on the induction of ASP-RNAi against the Swedish *APP* mutant (B) and against the London *APP* mutants (C-E) was carried out.

Synthetic siRNA duplexes against the mutants indicated were cotransfected with the mutant and wild-type reporter alleles and the  $\beta$ -galactosidase gene (control) into HeLa cells. The *Photinus* and *Renilla luciferase* genes carry the mutant and wild-type allelic sequences, respectively. Twenty-four hours after transfection, dual-luciferase and  $\beta$ -galactosidase assays were carried out. The levels of either *Photinus* (blue boxes) or *Renilla* (pink boxes) luciferase activity was normalized against the levels of  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity, and the ratios of mutant and wild-type luciferase activities in the presence of siRNA duplexes were normalized against the control ratio obtained in the presence of the siControl duplex (siCont). Data are averages of at least three independent determinations. Error bars represent standard deviations.

are shown in Figure 1B. The siRNA duplexes, except for the si(T12/C13) duplex, appeared to induce inhibition of mutant (*Photinus*) allele expression, while little or moderate inhibition of wild-type (*Renilla*) allele expression was seen, suggesting that the siRNA duplexes were able to discriminate the mutant reporter allele from the wild-type reporter allele. The si(T12/C13) duplex appeared to yield little or no RNAi activity. Considering the influence of the siRNA duplexes on the expression of the wild-type allele, the si(T8/C9) duplex appears to be the most suitable siRNA duplex conferring ASP-RNAi against the mutant allele. As for the si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12) duplexes inducing moderate levels of inhibition of wild-type allele expression, further analyses were carried out (Figure 4). Similar results were also obtained when the luciferase genes were exchanged between the mutant and wild-type reporter alleles, i.e., the *Photinus* and *Renilla luciferase* genes carried the wild-type and Swedish allele sequences, respectively (data not shown). In addition, when T98G cells, a human glioblastoma cell line, and Cos-7 cells were used instead of HeLa cells, results similar to those obtained in HeLa cells were observed (data not shown).

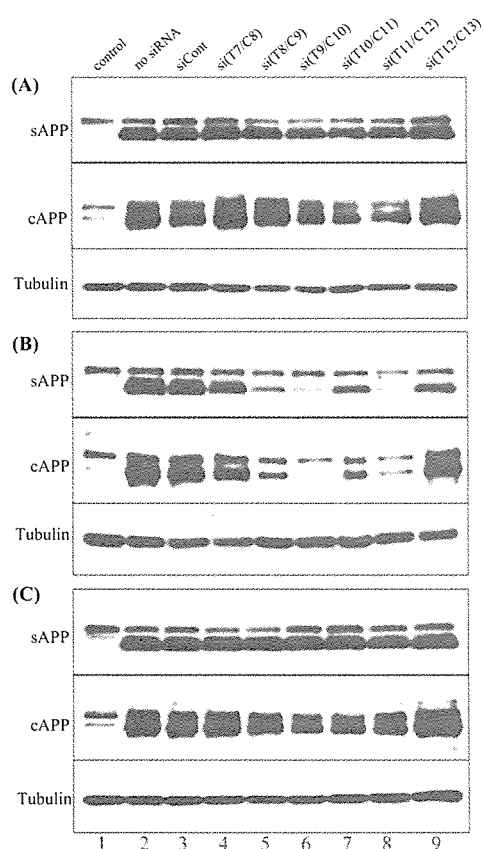
#### ASP-RNAi against London-type *APP* alleles

Because the London-type mutant possesses three types of single nucleotide change involved in amino acid substitution at position 717 (V717I, V717F and V717G), three mutant reporter alleles and corresponding wild-type reporter allele were constructed, and the effects of synthetic siRNA duplexes against the London-type mutants on suppression of the expression of either the target mutant allele or wild-type allele were examined under the present system. As shown in Figure 1C-E, various levels of gene silencing were observed and some of the siRNA duplexes, si(T9) and si(T12) (Figure 1D), appeared to discriminate the mutant alleles from the wild-type allele to some degree, resulting in ASP-RNAi; however, the other siRNA duplexes examined yielded less significant ASP-RNAi. Compared with the results for ASP-RNAi against the Swedish allele (Figure 1B), the induction and activation of ASP-RNAi against the London alleles appeared to be inferior to those against the Swedish mutant.

#### Western blot analyses of wild-type and Swedish *APP* in ASP-RNAi

We further investigated ASP-RNAi of siAPP duplexes against the Swedish mutant with full-length cDNAs of the Swedish and wild-type *APP* alleles, which were transiently

expressed in Cos-7 cells. The pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub> and/or pAPP695<sub>WT</sub> expression plasmids encoding full-length cDNAs of the Swedish and wild-type *APP* alleles, respectively, and siRNA duplexes targeting the Swedish mutant were cotransfected into Cos-7 cells, and expression of wild-type APP (APP<sub>WT</sub>) and Swedish APP (APP<sub>SWE</sub>) was examined by Western blotting. As shown in Figure 2, under homo(or hemi)zygous-like conditions, in which either APP<sub>WT</sub> or APP<sub>SWE</sub> was expressed, the signal intensity of sAPP<sub>SWE</sub> (secreted APP) and cAPP<sub>SWE</sub> (cellular APP) was apparently decreased in the presence of the si(T8/C9), si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12) duplexes. In contrast, signals for either sAPP<sub>WT</sub> or cAPP<sub>WT</sub> were detected in the presence of any of the siRNA duplexes examined, which is consistent with the data for the reporter alleles described above. When APP<sub>SWE</sub> and APP<sub>WT</sub> were both expressed in the cells (heterozygous-like conditions), signals for APP were seen in the presence of any of the siRNA duplexes. Based on the results under homozygous-like conditions, the signals for APP in the presence of the si(T8/C9), si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12) duplexes were most likely derived from APP<sub>WT</sub>.



**Figure 2.** Expression of APP<sub>WT</sub> and APP<sub>SWE</sub> polypeptides under ASP-RNAi. Either the pAPP695<sub>WT</sub> (A) and pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub> (B) expression plasmids or the plasmids (C) together with the indicated siRNA duplexes against the Swedish mutant were introduced into Cos-7 cells, and expressed APP polypeptides in culture media (secreted APP: sAPP) and in cells (cellular APP: cAPP) were examined by Western blotting. Lane 1 (control) shows no transfected Cos-7 cells, in which endogenous APP is detectable. Lanes 2-9 are cells transfected with expression plasmid(s), and lanes 3-9 are cotransfected cells with the indicated siRNA duplexes. Expression of  $\alpha$ -tubulin (control) is also shown.

The utility of ASP-RNAi using the siRNA duplexes assessed here in medical treatment can be demonstrated by confirming a significant decrease in A $\beta$  peptides, which are a key factor in the development of Alzheimer's disease under heterozygous conditions expressing both APP<sub>SWE</sub> and APP<sub>WT</sub>. We thus determined the production levels of A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 peptides by means of ELISA. As shown in Figure 3, significant decreases in the production of either A $\beta$ 40 or A $\beta$ 42 peptide by RNAi (Figure 3A-C) and ASP-RNAi (Figure 3D-F) with the evaluated siRNA duplexes, particularly si(T8/C9), si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12), was confirmed under homozygous and heterozygous conditions, respectively. Therefore, these results suggest the potential utility of such siRNA duplexes as therapeutic agents.

## DISCUSSION

While ASP-RNAi is believed to be a useful technique, to realize and control ASP-RNAi, it is vital to design and select competent siRNA duplexes conferring ASP-RNAi; however, this is rather difficult without a procedure for assessing such siRNA duplexes. The system we present here could allow assessment, if designed siRNA duplexes have the potential for specifically inhibiting the expression of target alleles without suppressing the expression of other alleles. From a series of experiments with the Swedish- and London-type APP variants as model mutant alleles, we were able to determine potential siRNA duplexes for inducing ASP-RNAi. With regard to siRNA duplexes targeting the Swedish mutant, we further demonstrated that the si(T8/C9), si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12) siRNA duplexes were able to significantly decrease the production of either A $\beta$ 40 or A $\beta$ 42 peptide in Cos-7 cells expressing both the full-length Swedish- and wild-type *APP* alleles. Accordingly, such competent siRNA duplexes conferring ASP-RNAi against mutant alleles likely hold utility as therapeutic agents.

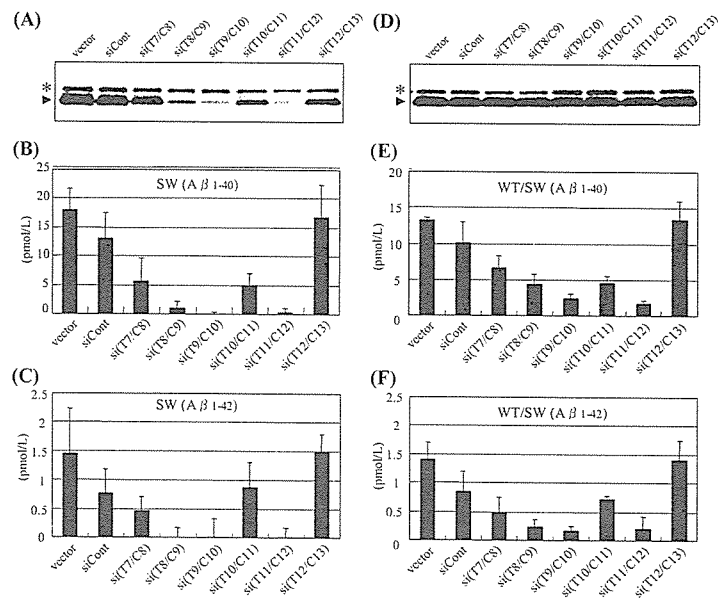
In contrast to the Swedish mutant, there were difficulties in suppressing the London-type mutants carrying single nucleotide substitutions from the wild-type allele by ASP-RNAi. The difference between ASP-RNAi activities against the Swedish- and London-type mutants may have been caused by the number of base substitutions: the former and latter mutants carry double and single base substitutions, respectively. Another important point to note in the results for the London-type mutant is that different substitutions showed different ASP-RNAi activities, suggesting that the type of base change between the mutant and wild-type alleles could influence ASP-RNAi. With regard to the V717I (Figure 1C) and V717G (Figure 1E) mutants, a possible wobble base pair between siRNA and the wild-type mRNA (Du et al, 2005) and high GC content of siRNA used (Ui-Tei et al, 2004), respectively, might have negatively influenced the induction of ASP-RNAi; these possibilities require further examination in the future.

To further progress ASP-RNAi, it is necessary to design competent siRNA duplexes conferring strong allele-specific gene silencing. Chemical modifications (Chiu and Rana, 2003; Hall et al, 2004) and structural devices in siRNAs are considered to be applicable for improving

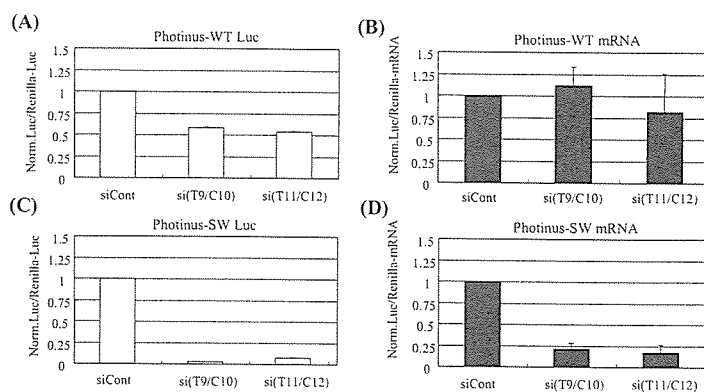
ASP-RNAi, and assessment of such siRNAs is feasible using the system we presented here. Altogether, it is suggested that the present assay system may contribute to the design and selection of the most suitable of siRNA duplexes conferring ASP-RNAi.

Finally, we add data indicating the possible inhibition of wild-type allele translation by the present siRNA duplexes. Because si(T9/C10) and si(T11/C12) exhibited moderate levels of inhibition of the expression of wild-type reporter allele (Figure 1B), we further investigated RNA levels of the wild-type allele by RT (real-time)-PCR. As shown in Figure 4, the levels of RNA expression of the wild-type

allele in the presence of si(T9/C10) were similar to those in the presence of siControl, suggesting the possible inhibition of translation of the wild-type allele by the si(T9/C10) duplex. This may be due to a microRNA-like effect (Poy et al, 2004; Tang, 2005), and further study into this possibility remains necessary. With regard to the si(T11/C12) duplex, because a decrease trend in the levels of wild-type allele transcript was seen, it is possible that off-target gene silencing (Jackson et al, 2003) of the wild-type allele may occur in the presence of the duplex. Consequently, it is conceivable that the present system could further contribute to studies into off-target gene silencing and the function of microRNAs.



**Figure 3.** Production of A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 peptides under ASP-RNAi. The pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub> (A-C) plasmid and both the pAPP695<sub>SWE</sub> and pAPP695<sub>WT</sub> (D-F) plasmids together with the indicated siRNA duplexes against the Swedish mutant were cotransfected into Cos-7 cells, and expressed sAPP polypeptide and A $\beta$ 40 and A $\beta$ 42 peptides in culture media were examined by western blotting (A, D) and ELISA (B, C, E, F), respectively. "Vector" indicates cells transfected with only plasmid(s). Endogenous and exogenous (expressed) sAPPs are indicated by asterisks and arrow heads, respectively. ELISA data are averages of three independent determinations. Error bars represent standard deviations.



**Figure 4.** Possible translation inhibition and off-target silencing of wild-type reporter allele by siAPP duplexes. The si(T9/C10) or si(T11/C12) duplexes against the Swedish mutant allele together with either wild or mutant reporter allele plasmid carrying *Photinus luciferase* and the pRL-TK plasmid encoding *Renilla luciferase* (control) were introduced into HeLa cells. Twenty-four hours after transfection, dual-luciferase assay and isolation of total RNA were carried out. Off-target (to wild-type reporter allele) (A) and on-target (RNAi; to mutant reporter allele) (C) gene silencing were assessed based on luciferase activities. Ratios of normalized target (Photinus) luciferase activity to control (Renilla) luciferase activity are indicated: the ratios of luciferase activity determined in the presence of the si(T9/C10) or si(T11/C12) duplexes were normalized against the ratios obtained in the presence of the siControl duplex (siCont). Isolated RNAs in (B) and (D) corresponding to (A) and (C), respectively, were subjected to reverse transcription to