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## $\beta$ -Amyloid precursor protein ( $\beta$ APP) as a marker for axonal injury after head injury

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It has been demonstrated recently that  $\beta$ -amyloid protein ( $\beta$ AP), generally associated with the plaques of Alzheimer's disease, can also be found in the brains of survivors of head injury. In this study the distribution of the  $\beta$ AP precursor protein ( $\beta$ APP) was examined immunohistochemically to determine if it is colocalized with  $\beta$ AP in such cases.  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity was observed in neuronal perikarya in the neocortex and in dystrophic neurites surrounding  $\beta$ AP immunoreactive plaques i.e. in a distribution similar to that seen in Alzheimer's disease. In addition,  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity was noted within white matter tracts where it marked damaged axons. However, no colocalisation of  $\beta$ APP with  $\beta$ AP was observed in any white matter region. These results indicate that processing of  $\beta$ APP to produce  $\beta$ AP occurs in the synaptic terminal field of axons and illustrate the utility of  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity as a general marker for axonal injury.

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is characterised pathologically by the presence of extracellular  $\beta$ -amyloid protein ( $\beta$ AP) deposits, neurofibrillary tangles and neuronal loss [25].  $\beta$ AP protein is derived from the  $\beta$ -amyloid precursor protein ( $\beta$ APP) which is a membrane spanning glycoprotein originating from a gene on chromosome 21 [9]. As yet the actual mechanism by which  $\beta$ APP is processed to  $\beta$ AP is unclear. One hypothesis is that a lysosomal pathway is needed for the production of  $\beta$ AP [6] but more recent evidence has also revealed that  $\beta$ APP may be cleaved at the amino terminal of the  $\beta$ AP sequence leaving the intact  $\beta$ AP anchored in the membrane [22, 24]. However, in the normal brain  $\beta$ APP is predominantly cleaved within the  $\beta$ AP sequence to produce a secretory fragment [3]. It has been suggested that increased  $\beta$ APP expression may lead to an overloading of this pathway resulting in an alternative processing of  $\beta$ APP and the subsequent deposition of  $\beta$ AP [18].

Recent molecular studies have revealed a cluster of mutations in the  $\beta$ APP gene of individuals suffering from

familial AD [7]. Such mutations are believed to increase the likelihood of  $\beta$ APP mismetabolism and provide compelling evidence that such an event is central to the development of Alzheimer-type pathology. Whilst these cases of familial AD have proved invaluable in highlighting the central role of  $\beta$ APP in AD, they account for only some 20% of all AD cases [26]. The remaining 80% of cases are therefore thought to be environmental in origin (or the result of a combination of environmental factors and genetic predisposition).

For many years epidemiological evidence has pointed towards the possibility that head injury may be one such environmental factor [4, 8, 13]. Recent work has begun to establish concrete pathological links between injury to the head and AD, the best evidence being provided by the finding of  $\beta$ AP deposits in approximately 30% of patients with fatal closed head injury [17]. In addition the pathology of dementia pugilistica, or punch drunk syndrome, closely parallels that of AD [16]. Further evidence that neuronal injury may eventually lead to Alzheimer-type changes comes from the results of various animal studies. Increased  $\beta$ APP mRNA levels are seen following kainate lesions and experimentally induced ischaemia [1, 10]. Based on such results the hypothesis has been put forward that increased  $\beta$ APP expression may be

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part of an acute phase response (the  $\beta$ APP promoter is sensitive to interleukin-1 (IL-1) and heat shock [19]).

Axonal injury of varying degrees upto and including diffuse axonal injury (DAI) is a common pathological feature of severe non-missile closed head injury [2]. At the microscopic level axonal injury is characterised by swelling of nerve fibres — the 'retraction balls' of Cajal. These 'retraction balls' represent the cut ends of damaged axons [2]. In severe cases the extensive axonal injury is easily visualised in large white matter tracts (e.g. corpus callosum) by silver staining and is known as DAI. DAI has been observed in some of the head trauma cases which have been shown to exhibit post-traumatic  $\beta$ AP deposits [17].

The object of this study was to determine the extent of  $\beta$ APP immunostaining in sections from the brains of acute head injury patients. Sections were also stained for  $\beta$ AP protein in order to see whether  $\beta$ APP and  $\beta$ AP deposits were colocalised.

Post mortem brain tissue was obtained from 11 patients with severe head injury; they ranged in age from 23 to 65 years old with survival times ranging from 12 h to 10 days (Table 1). Data from comprehensive histological studies was also available for each case, including the grading of DAI [2]. Some cases had previously been shown to exhibit  $\beta$ AP deposits in one or more brain areas whilst others showed no such immunoreactivity. Sections from temporal and cingulate cortex areas from each case were pretreated with 80% formic acid for 8 minutes and then incubated overnight with a monoclonal antibody to  $\beta$ APP (22C11, Boehringer) at a dilution of

1:20. They were then processed using an avidin-biotin system as previously described [17]. A set of serial sections were incubated with a monoclonal antibody to  $\beta$ AP (Dako) and processed in the same way.

Sections from a case of neuropathologically confirmed Alzheimer's disease and a case of Down's syndrome were also stained. Sections from 4 patients with no history of neurological disease were used as controls (age range 53–68).

In the head injury cases  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity was found in the white matter where it marked areas of axonal damage (Fig. 1A,B), in the perikarya of neurons in the cortical grey matter (Fig. 1C) and in dystrophic neurites surrounding plaques (Fig. 2A). This pattern of immunoreactivity was markedly different from and much more extensive than that seen in age matched controls (Fig. 1D). The controls showed virtually no evidence of axonal staining and staining of perikarya was limited to a faint positivity in isolated neurones.

The extent of axonal damage revealed by  $\beta$ APP immunostaining varied in degree from small numbers of damaged axons to the extensive axonal damage characteristic of DAI. In all but one of the cases with histologically confirmed DAI the damaged axons were found to be immunoreactive for  $\beta$ APP. The single negative case was found to differ in the anatomical regions graded for DAI and those immunostained for  $\beta$ APP. Perikaryal staining was more intense than that seen in the controls and in some cases was as extensive as that seen in the Alzheimer's disease and Down's patients.

$\beta$ AP immunoreactivity was restricted to vascular de-

TABLE 1

DETAILS OF AGE, SEX, SURVIVAL, AND PRINCIPAL NEUROPATHOLOGICAL FINDINGS FOR PATIENTS STUDIED

F, female; M, male; L, left; R, right; SDH(e), subdural haematoma (evacuated); ACA, anterior cerebral artery; MCA, middle cerebral artery; DAI, diffuse axonal injury; ICP, intracranial pressure. + and – signify presence or absence of fractures, raised ICP,  $\beta$ AP immunoreactive deposits and axonal  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity. Number of + provide semiquantitative rating of contusions and DAI.

Case no.	Age	Survival time	Sex	Skull fracture	Haematoma	Contusions	DAI	Ischaemia	Swelling	Raised ICP	Immunoreactivity	
											$\beta$ AP	$\beta$ APP
1	23	5 days	F	–	L SDH(e)	None	–	Diffuse	None	+	–	+
2	24	3 days	F	–	None	None	–	RL A/MCA	RL	+	–	+
3	46	10 days	F	+	R SDH(e)	+	+++	Diffuse	R	+	–	+
4	51	13 h	M	+	R(burst)	++	–	None	R	+	+	+
5	51	1 day	M	+	R SDH(e)	++	–	Diffuse	None	+	+	+
6	53	12 h	M	+	None	++	–	None	L	+	–	+
7	57	1 day	M	+	RL SDH	++	+	Diffuse	RL	+	+	–
8	59	5 days	M	+	R SDH	+	+++	None	None	+	+	+
9	60	1 day	M	+	R SDH	+	+	None	RL	+	+	+
10	61	2 days	M	+	RL SDH(e)	++	–	Diffuse	L	+	–	+
11	65	27 h	M	+	L SDH(e)	++	+++	RL ACA R MCA	R	+	+	+

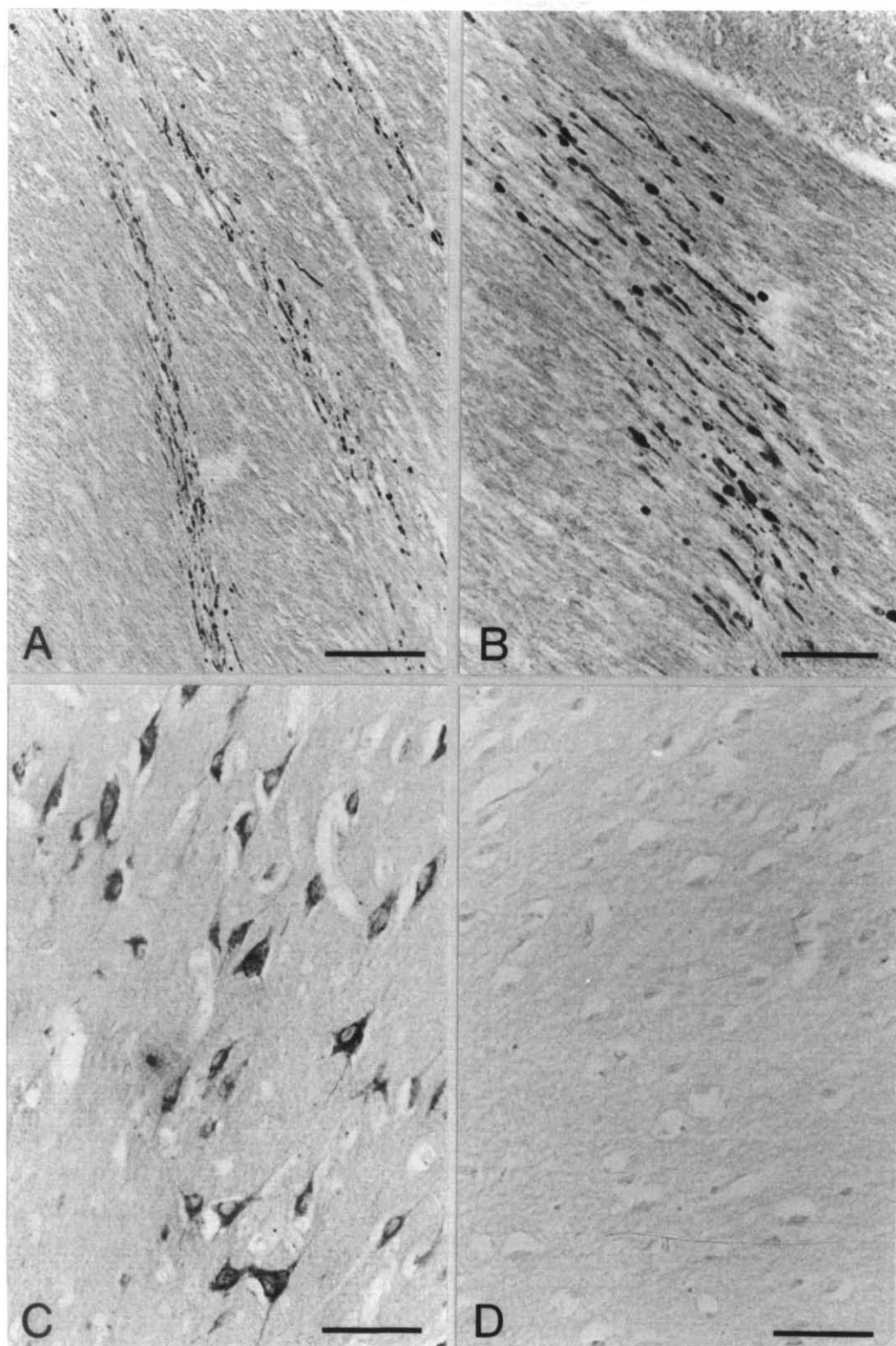


Fig. 1.  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity in the white matter of the cingulate cortex (patient 9) marking areas of diffuse axonal injury (A,B). Immunoreactive perikarya in the temporal cortex of a head injured patient (C) as compared to an age matched control (D). Bars = 100  $\mu$ m (A,C,D), 50  $\mu$ m (B).

posits, diffuse plaques and the occasional classical plaque (Fig. 2B). Five cases clearly showed  $\beta$ APP-positive axonal damage in the white matter and the localisation

of  $\beta$ AP-immunoreactive deposits in the grey matter within the same cortical region. However, despite colocalisation of  $\beta$ APP and  $\beta$ AP in some cortical plaques, no

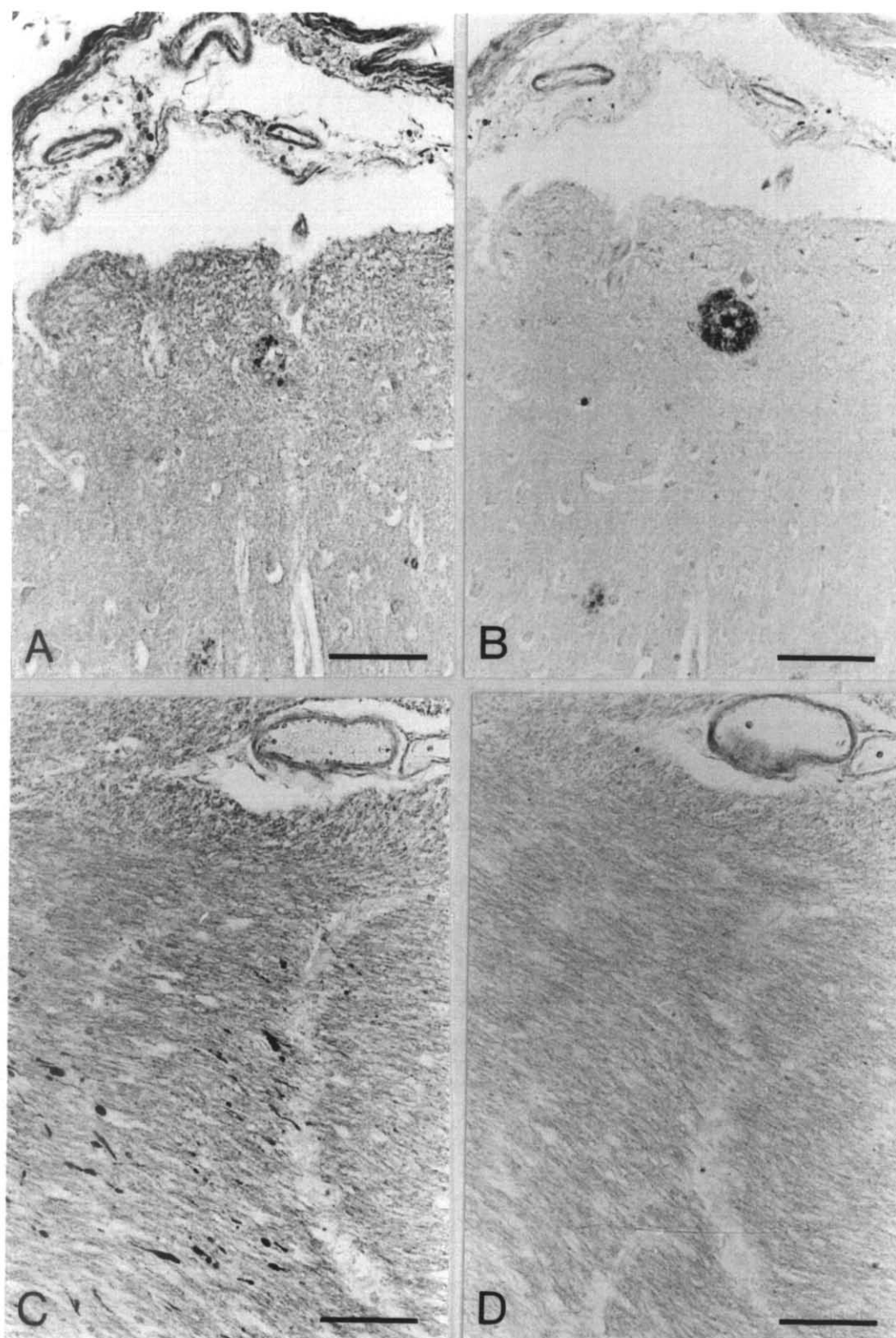


Fig. 2.  $\beta$ APP immunoreactivity in the cingulate cortex (patient 9) in the dystrophic neurites surrounding a classical plaque (A) and in areas with DAI (C). Serial sections reveal the presence of  $\beta$ AP in classical plaques (B) but not in the areas with DAI (D). Bars = 200  $\mu$ m (A,B) and 50  $\mu$ m (C,D).

colocalisation of  $\beta$ AP and  $\beta$ APP in the white matter was ever observed (Fig. 2C,D).

$\beta$ APP appears to be an excellent marker for axonal

injury. It was found not only in cases of fatal head injury which we have shown previously to contain cortical  $\beta$ AP deposits but also in cases in which there was no evidence

of  $\beta$ AP having been deposited. An analogous phenomenon has been observed in axonal swellings adjacent to cerebral infarcts [14]. Axotomy of the rat sciatic nerve is also accompanied by increased  $\beta$ APP in dorsal root ganglion cells [21]. The use of  $\beta$ APP as a marker for DAI has significant potential in forensic studies since it appears that axonal damage can be detected in cases with short survival times (< 18 h). The standard silver impregnation methods currently in use require survival times in excess of 18 h to reliably demonstrate DAI [2].

$\beta$ APP is known to be axonally transported [11] and is located at both pre- and postsynaptic sites [20, 23]. These observations have led to the suggestion that  $\beta$ APP may have a role in synaptic function and that processing of  $\beta$ APP may take place at the synapse [20]. Recent studies have suggested that a limited amount of  $\beta$ APP is processed into  $\beta$ AP during the normal course of cellular metabolism [22, 24]. We have previously suggested that increased local production of  $\beta$ APP may saturate the normal secretory pathway and result in an increase in  $\beta$ AP production [5]. In some cases this may be sufficient in itself to lead to a  $\beta$ AP accumulation that can reach pathological significance at synaptic sites.

The data from this study provides some of the first indications that these hypothetical events actually occur within the human brain.

It appears that the release of  $\beta$ APP into the extra-cellular space from injured axons is not sufficient in itself to lead to the production of  $\beta$ AP deposits and that additional factors are required. This observation is of interest in that glial cells are present in both white and grey matter and uptake of  $\beta$ APP by glial cells has been proposed as an important step in the generation of  $\beta$ AP deposits [27]. However our data indicate that the presence of glial cells is not the critical factor. In order to generate  $\beta$ AP some metabolic process involving the terminal regions of the neurone is needed. Since  $\beta$ APP is axonally transported it is reasonable to assume that such processing occurs at the synapse [15]. The lack of such machinery at the cut axon ending would explain the presence of  $\beta$ APP without the presence of  $\beta$ AP.

One may argue that the presence of  $\beta$ APP in the absence of  $\beta$ AP simply relates to the short time interval between axon damage and brain death, i.e. there was not enough time to generate  $\beta$ AP. However  $\beta$ AP deposits were seen in the cortical grey matter of the same sections in numbers far exceeding those compatible with normal ageing [17]. The existence of these deposits thus goes against this 'time lag' theory.

The subjective impression of increased numbers of  $\beta$ APP immunoreactive perikarya in the cortex following head injury is consistent with the proposal that this protein may be a component of the brains response to neu-

ronal injury [5, 17]. Our observation has recently been confirmed in a quantitative study which recorded a significant sevenfold increase in the number of cortical  $\beta$ APP immunoreactive neurons in cases of head injury (in preparation) while other studies also show upregulation of the protein in Alzheimer's disease [12].

The conclusions of this short study are twofold. Firstly it appears that  $\beta$ APP is an excellent general marker for axonal disruption and further studies are now underway to determine how good it is in relation to conventional silver staining in assessing the extent of axonal damage. Secondly,  $\beta$ APP and  $\beta$ AP deposits do not colocalise at the sites of axonal injury.  $\beta$ APP is seen round the damaged axons but  $\beta$ AP is not. This is consistent with other evidence for a synaptic localization for the metabolic machinery needed for the production of  $\beta$ AP from  $\beta$ APP.

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