Signatures for Viral Infection and Inflammation in the Proximal Olfactory System in Familial Alzheimer's Disease

Andrew N. Bubak[1,‡], Laetitia Merle[2,3,‡], Christy S. Niemeyer[1], B. Dnate' Baxter[2,3], Arianna Gentile Polese[2,3], Vijay Ramakrishnan[4], Johana Gomez[5], Lucia Madrigal[5], Andres Villegas-Lanau[5], Francisco Lopera[5], Wendy Macklin[1,2], Seth Frietze[6], Maria A. Nagel[1,7#], and Diego Restrepo[1,2, #,*]

[1]Department of Neurology, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[2]Neuroscience Graduate Program, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[3]Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[4]Department of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, Indiana University School of Medicine, Indianapolis, IN 46202, USA

[5]Neuroscience Research Group, University of Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia

[6]Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT

[7]Department of Opthalmology, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[‡]Co-first authors

[#]Senior authors

[*]Corresponding author: Diego Restrepo, diego.restrepo@cuanschutz.edu

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Abstract

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is characterized by loss of smell and olfactory system pathology that subsequently leads to dementia. Understanding these early processes can identify therapeutic targets to slow AD progression. Thus, we analyzed differential gene and protein expression in the olfactory bulb (OB) and olfactory tract (OT) of familial AD (FAD) individuals carrying the autosomal dominant presenilin 1 E280A paisa mutation and age-matched controls. In FAD samples, we find human transcriptome signatures for viral infection in OB and for inflammation in OT that carries information via entorhinal cortex from the OB to hippocampus, a brain region essential for learning and memory. Interestingly, spatial proteomic changes consistent with a demyelination response in the OT of FAD individuals were seen, implying dysfunction of communication between the OB and hippocampus. These findings raise the possibility that viral infection and associated inflammation/demyelination of the olfactory system may disrupt downstream hippocampal function, accelerating FAD pathogenesis.

A critical barrier in treating Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the years- to decades-long lag

from disease onset to the diagnosis of dementia, when reversal of brain pathology and

recovery of neurons may, at best, slow cognitive decline. Thus, it is essential to identify

contributory pathological processes in early disease to prevent progression to dementia,

disability and death. An early process in AD, prior to clinical dementia, is a deficit in the

sense of smell[1] accompanied by β-amyloid (Aβ) deposition in the OB that receives

olfactory input from olfactory sensory neurons in the olfactory epithelium[2,3].

Understanding the cellular basis for this loss of smell is important because of the

potential use of cellular changes in early diagnosis, and because olfactory dysfunction

may play a role in the etiology of AD. However, little is known about changes in the

cellular processes of proximal brain areas of the olfactory system, the OB and the OT

that carries information to downstream brain processing areas including entorhinal

cortex and the hippocampus, a brain region that plays a key role in learning and

memory. Here, we use TempO-Seq, a novel technique optimized to perform reliable

transcriptome analysis from formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded human tissue samples[4],

to characterize differences in the transcriptome of the OB and OT in familial AD (FAD)

individuals versus age-matched controls. We study the human transcriptome in

Colombian presenilin 1 E280A mutation carriers that develop mild cognitive

impairment (MCI) and dementia at the respective median ages of 44 (95% CI, 43–45)

and 49 (95% CI, 49–50) years old[5].

Prior to transcriptome analysis, we analyzed the tissue for morphology and composition.

Figure 1 A-C shows immunohistochemistry analysis of the human OT from FAD subjects

and age-matched controls (Supplementary Table 1). Staining for the myelin marker

proteolipid protein (PLP) showed that the OT included high and low myelination areas

(Fig. 1A, see Supplementary Table 2 for antibodies used). We did not find a difference

between FAD and controls in the area occupied by the high/low myelinated regions in

the OT (Fig. 1A). As expected, we found increased immunostaining for Aβ in the OT of

FAD subjects compared to controls (Fig. 1B). In addition, as expected for

neuroinflammation in AD, and consistent with prior studies in spontaneous AD[6], we

found increased immunostaining for the microglia/macrophage markers Iba1 and CD68

in FAD OT compared to control (Fig. 1C). Finally, we found increased association

between CD68 and Iba1 and between Aβ and microglia whose association has been

proposed to constitute a barrier with profound impact on Aβ plaque composition and

toxicity[7] (Supplementary Figure 1).

We then performed TempO-seq targeted RNA sequencing analysis of the OT and OB

from 6 FAD individuals who did not die of virus infection and 4 age-matched controls

(Supplementary Table 1). Compared to controls, we found 1,319 differentially expressed

genes (DEGs) in FAD OT and 2,775 significantly DEGs in FAD OB. Volcano plots in

Figs. 1Di (OT) and 1Fi (OB) show that the majority of DEGs displayed increased

expression in FADs (also see Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). When we deconvolved the

DEGs to estimate glial surrogate proportions, we found that microglia were higher in

FAD samples (Fig. 1E), consistent with the immunohistochemistry results for Iba1 and

CD68 (Fig. 1C). Interestingly, in the deconvolution, we found decreased surrogate

proportion for oligodendrocytes in FAD (Fig. 1E). Further, human gene-set enrichment

analyses in the FAD OB showed multiple upregulated transcriptional pathways

associated with viral infection, including "Viral infection", "Infection of cells", and

"Replication of virus" (Fig. 1Fii), whereas the OT of FAD individuals represented an

upregulation of immune response signatures that included "IL-6 signaling", "IL-8

signaling", "Natural killer cell signaling", "Jak/Stat signaling", "Neuroinflammation

signaling", and "Production of nitric oxide and reactive oxygen species in macrophages,"

as well as the expected "Amyloid processing" pathway (Fig. 1 Dii). Observed genes in

each pathway are shown in Supplementary Table 5.

We performed complementary nanoString spatial proteomics analysis[8] for 88

proteins including markers for AD and immune responses (Supplementary Table 6) in

tissue regions discriminated based on fluorescent markers for myelin basic protein, Aβ,

Iba1 and nuclear staining (see Methods and Supplementary Table 7). The four tissue

regions were high myelination and low myelination OT, and glomerular layer/external

plexiform layer and granule cell layer in the OB (Fig. 2A, Supplementary Figure 2).

nanoString proteomics showed spatial protein specificity involved in immune and AD

responses in the OT and to a lesser extent in the OB (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, both the

immune and AD marker responses differ between regions. For example the increase in

AD markers in FAD was most marked in the low myelinated OT, and there were

increases in immune markers in both low and high myelinated OT, but they were

heterogeneous between these two brain regions and much lower in the OB indicating

that the immune response differs between brain areas in the proximal olfactory system

(Fig. 2B). Strikingly, principal component analysis (PCA) of the spatial proteomics

results shows orthogonal localization of FAD versus control proteomics regardless of the

tissue region (Fig. 2C). Furthermore, there were marked differences in protein

expression between brain regions within the experimental groups (FAD and control,

Figs. 2D, Supplementary Figure 3). Interestingly, within the FAD cohort a large group of

proteins involved in response to demyelination were expressed at high levels in high

myelination OT compared to all other regions (group A in Fig. 2Dii) and a group of AD

markers was expressed at high levels in the low myelination OT (group B in Fig. 2Dii)

(Supplementary Note 1).

Our findings reveal a transcriptomic signature for viral infection of the OB coupled with

inflammation and problems with myelination in the OT in FAD, confirmed by proteomic

analysis. While our studies only identified human transcripts/proteins and were not

designed to identify specific viruses, the most likely viruses contributing to olfactory

system infection and potential CNS dysfunction are the 2 neurotropic

alphaherpesviruses, herpes simplex virus type-1 (HSV-1) and varicella zoster virus

(VZV). HSV-1 and VZV are strong candidates for being initiators or accelerators of AD

because they increase dementia risk and elicit the same pathological characteristics of

AD, including amyloid accumulation, neuroinflammation, neurodegeneration, and

cognitive impairment[9-11]. Furthermore, this family of alphaherpesviruses is latent in

trigeminal ganglia which innervates the OE/OB[12], providing a direct internal route of

virus entry during reactivation. Our studies find that even in patients predisposed to AD

due to a genetic mutation of PS1 there is evidence of viral infection in the OB suggesting

that viral infection and inflammatory response in the OT are part of the etiology of the

disease. Taken together with a parallel body of literature indicating that early AD is

characterized by smell loss[1], amyloid deposition in the olfactory epithelium (OE), and

olfactory sensory neuron (OSN) dysfunction[3] our study raises the possibility that viral

infection of the OB/OT accelerates AD. Because sniff-induced beta and theta-coupled

141 gamma oscillations generated in the OB are directionally coupled to the hippocampus[13-

142 16], smell loss would result in decreased hippocampal gamma oscillations that have been

143 postulated to lead to neurodegeneration and cognitive decline.[17-19] These studies suggest

144 that alphaherpesvirus disruption of olfactory pathways can accelerate AD cognitive

145 decline (Supplementary Figure 4).

Figure 1. Immunohistochemistry of the human OT and TempO-Seq

transcriptome analysis of the OB and OT. A-C. IHC of the human OT for 6 control

and 6 FAD subjects. A. PLP stain was used to delimitate the high and low myelinated

regions in OT. The bar graph represents the mean surface of high and low myelinated

regions per individual, expressed as a percentage of the total area analyzed. An ANOVA

yields no significant difference for the genotype F=0.1, 1 d.f., p>0.05 and a significant

difference between high and low myelination areas F=26.84, 1 d.f., p<0.001. B.

Representative images and quantification of Aβ in the OT from 6 Ctrl and 6 FAD

patients. Aβ positive surface is increased in FAD patients compared to control, in both

the high and low myelinated OT. Within the FAD group, the accumulation of Aβ is

higher in the high myelinated than the low myelinated OT. ANOVA yields a significant

difference for the genotype $F=13.94$, 1 d.f., $p<0.01$ and a significant difference between

high and low myelination areas $F=17.22$, 1 d.f., $p<0.001$. C. Quantification of

microglia/macrophage markers Iba1 and CD68, showing increased neuroinflammation

in the high myelinated OT. ANOVA for Iba1 and CD68 yields a significant difference for

genotype (Iba1, $F=13.54$, 1 d.f., $p<0.01$, CD68, $F=23.24$, 1 d.f., $p<0.001$). D and F.

Volcano plot for TempO-Seq (top) and insight pathway analysis of transcriptional

differences (bottom) for the OT (D) and OB (F). E. Deconvolution of the transcriptional

differences for the OT. Asterisks are significant p values for post-hoc Fisher's least

significant difference.

Figure 2. nanoString proteomic analysis of OB and OT expression of

markers for AD and immunity. A. Representative tissue section stained for myelin

basic protein (MBP) showing the regions that were used for protein quantification. In

the OB "Glomeruli OB" included the glomerular layer (GL) and the external plexiform

layer (EPL), "Granule OB" included the granule cell layer and the accessory olfactory

nucleus (AON). In the OT the high and low myelinated areas were determined by high

and low MBP staining. B. Log 2 fold change for the levels of protein expression in the

different tissue regions. Red denotes higher expression in FAD. Only the proteins whose

levels are significantly different between genotypes are shown. C. Principal component

analysis of the protein levels of expression. D. Pseudocolor plots comparing between

regions the levels of expression for all proteins. Proteins are segregated by Euclidean

distance calculated by the total normalized reads for each protein between tissue regions

or samples. i. Control tissue. ii. FAD. Group A are adjacent proteins that display higher

levels in high myelinated OT and group B are adjacent proteins that display higher levels

in low myelinated OT.

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Methods

<u>Standard protocol approvals, registrations, and participant consent.</u>

We study the transcriptome in the OB and OT in Colombian presenilin 1 (PSEN1)

E280A mutation carriers[1] and age-matched controls. The institutional review board

committee at the University of Antioquia (Colombia) approved tissue collection for this

study. Participants provided written informed consent before participating. A total of 6

members from Colombian families with the *PSEN1* E280A mutation and 6 age-matched

controls participated in the study. The demographic data for all participants included in

this report are detailed in Supplementary Table 1 (a breakdown by study is provided in

eTable1). Mutation carriers have a previously documented median expected age at onset

of MCI at 44 years of age (95% confidence interval [CI] = 43–45 years) and dementia

due to AD at 49 years of age (95% CI = 49–50 years).[2] Eligible individuals were

screened for neurological and psychiatric disorders, and they did not die of viral

pneumonia. Clinical data were stored in a secure database at the Neuroscience Group of

Antioquia in Medellín, Colombia.

<u>Sample collection</u>

Brain samples were collected post-mortem and embedded in paraffin after fixation in

formalin. A neuropathological study was performed, in accordance with the NIA-A

guidelines[3]. Sections of 4 μm thick were stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E)

further processed for immunohistochemical (IHC) staining for amyloid beta (Aβ, 1:100;

BAM-10, Mob410; DBS Emergo Europe, The Hague, The Netherlands),

hyperphosphorylated Tau Ser 202 and Thr 205 (tau, 1:1500; AT8, MN1020;

ThermoFisher Scientific, Dreieich, Germany). Automatic immunostaining was

performed with a Ventana Benchmark XT system (Roche AG, Basel, Switzerland)

according to manufacturer instructions. Briefly, after dewaxing and inactivation of

endogenous peroxidases (PBS/3% hydrogen peroxide), antibody specific antigen

retrieval was performed, sections were blocked and afterwards incubated with the

primary antibody. For detection of specific binding, the Ultra View Universal 3,3´-

Diaminobenzidine (DAB) Detection Kit (Ventana, Roche) was used which contains

secondary antibodies, DAB stain and counter staining reagent. All slides were evaluated

by properly trained personnel. The olfactory bulbs and tracts were cut sagittally at 7 μm

thickness, placed longitudinally on slides and were embedded in paraffin.

Multispectral immunohistochemistry of the olfactory bulb and olfactory tract

Through our collaboration with the Human Immune Monitoring Shared Resource

(HIMSR) at the University of Colorado School of Medicine we performed multispectral

imaging using the Akoya Vectra Polaris instrument. This instrumentation allows for

phenotyping, quantification, and spatial relationship analysis of tissue infiltrate in

formalin-fixed paraffin-imbedded biopsy sections. Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded

tissue sections were stained consecutively with specific primary antibodies according to

standard protocols provided by Akoya and performed routinely by the HIMSR. Briefly,

the slides were deparaffinized, heat treated in antigen retrieval buffer, blocked, and

incubated with primary antibodies against Aβ, Iba1, GFAP, Cleaved Caspase 3, p-Tau,

DCX, CD68, and PLP (Supplementary Table 2), followed by horseradish peroxidase

(HRP)-conjugated secondary antibody polymer, and HRP-reactive OPAL fluorescent

reagents that use TSA chemistry to deposit dyes on the tissue immediately surrounding

each HRP molecule. To prevent further deposition of fluorescent dyes in subsequent

staining steps, the slides were stripped in between each stain with heat treatment in

antigen retrieval buffer. Slides were finally counterstained with DAPI. Whole slide scans

were collected using the 10x objective and multispectral images were collected using the

20x objective with a 0.5 micron resolution. The 9-color images were analyzed with inForm

software V2.5 to unmix adjacent fluorochromes, subtract autofluorescence, segment the

tissue, compare the frequency and location of cells, segment cellular membrane,

cytoplasm, and nuclear regions, score each cellular compartment, and phenotype

infiltrating immune cells according to morphology and cell marker expression.

We used custom scripts in Fiji to quantify Aβ, Iba1, CD68 and PLP on the 20x objective

images. ROIs for high and low myelinated areas were manually determined using PLP

stain by two researchers. To quantify Aβ, Iba1 and CD68-positive areas, we defined the

positive area as one that exceeds n SDs of the mean image intensity, with $n = 2$ for Aβ and

Iba1 and $n = 4$ for CD68. The positive surface was expressed as a percentage of the ROI

surface per individual. Masks for each stain were created from the thresholded images,

and mask combinations were used to determine the double and triple-positive areas.

<u>FFPE TempO-Seq</u>

For whole human transcriptome analysis, FFPE slides from OB or OT were assayed using

TempO-Seq–targeted RNA sequencing plates, reagents, protocols, and software

(BioSpyder

Technologies). TempO-Seq exclusively detects human transcripts; viral transcripts were

not assayed. Visually identified H&E stained OB and OT tissue sections were scraped (~5-

10 mm²), and placed into PCR tubes containing 1X lysis buffer. Using a thermocycler,

samples were lysed, coded adjacent primer pairs for each specific human transcript were

annealed to sample RNA, and primer pairs for each transcript ligated and then amplified

per manufacturer's instructions[4]. If a transcript is present, the adjacent 25-nucleotide

primer pairs anneal to their specific target, ligate together, and produce a 50-nucleotide

transcript-specific, coded amplicon.

Amplified PCR products were pooled into a single library, concentrated using a PCR

cleanup kit (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany), and run on the Illumina NextSeq 500

sequencing platform (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA). Mapped reads were generated by

TempO-SeqR for the alignment of demultiplexed FASTQ files from the sequencer to the

ligated detector oligomer gene sequences using Bowtie, allowing for up to 2 mismatches

in the 50-nucleotide target sequence[4]. Counts were assessed using SARTools[5]. Within this

R package, edgeR is used for normalization and quality control of count data[6]. Differential

expression between groups was assessed by the TempO-SeqR software, which used the

DESeq2 method for differential analysis of count data[7]. A significantly differentially

expressed gene is defined as having an adjusted p value < 0.05 with no fold-change

threshold.

Pathway enrichment analysis was performed using gene sets and pathways defined in the

Ingenuity Pathway Analysis software (Qiagen, Germantown, MD) and the ClusterProfiler

package[8,9] in R with default parameters. ClusterProfiler supports enrichment analysis of

Gene Ontology and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes databases with Gene Set

Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) to identify biological themes of a collection of genes. These

functional enrichment analyses use computational approaches to identify groups of

experimentally observed human genes that are overrepresented or depleted in a curated

disease or biological function-specific gene set. Additional figures were created using

Prism 9 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA).

<u>nanoString proteomics</u>

We used nanoString proteomics for 88 proteins (Supplementary Table 3) with four

fluorescent markers to discriminate tissue regions (Supplementary Table 4) using

methods detailed by Merritt and co-workers[10]. Briefly, all assays were performed on 5-μm

FFPE sections mounted onto charged slides. Deparaffinization and rehydration of tissue

was performed by incubating slides in three washes of CitriSolv (Decon Labs, 1601) for 5

min each, two washes of 100% ethanol for 10 min each, two washes of 95% ethanol for 10

min each and two washes of distilled water for 5 min each. For antigen retrieval, slides

were then placed in a plastic Coplin jar containing 1× Citrate Buffer pH 6.0 (Sigma,

C9999) and covered with a lid. The Coplin jar was placed into a pressure cooker (BioSB,

BSB7008) that was run at high pressure and temperature for 15 min. The Coplin jar was

removed from the pressure cooker and cooled at room temperature for 25 min. Slides

were washed with five changes of 1× TBS-T (Cell Signaling Technology, 9997) for 2 min

each. Excess TBS-T was removed from the slide, and a hydrophobic barrier was drawn

around each tissue section with a hydrophobic pen (Vector Laboratories, H-4000). Slides

were then incubated with blocking buffer (1× TBS-T, 5% goat serum (Sigma-Aldrich,

G9023-5ML), 0.1 mg ml−1 salmon sperm DNA (Sigma-Aldrich, D7656) and 10 mg ml−1

dextran sulfate (Sigma-Aldrich, 67578-5G) for 1 h. Slides were washed with three changes

of 1× TBS-T for 2 min

each. Primary antibodies (Supplementary tables 3 and 4) were diluted in Buffer W

(GeoMx Protein Slide Prep Kit Item 121300312). Tissue sections were then covered with

diluted primary antibody solution (see above for morphology marker information). Slides

were incubated at 4 °C in a humidity chamber overnight. Primary antibody was aspirated

from slides, and slides were washed with three changes of 1× TBS-T for 10 min each.

Antibodies were postfixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min at room temperature

and then wasted twice in TBS-T. DNA was counterstained with 500 nM SYTO13 (Thermo

Fisher, S7575) in 1× TBS-T or TBS for 15 min. Excess DNA counterstain was removed with

five changes of TBS-T, and slides were the processed on the GeoMx instrument as

described in Merritt et al[10].

<u>Statistical analysis</u>

Matlab or Excel were used to perform t tests or ANOVAs, followed by post-hoc Fisher's

least significant difference procedure.

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Signatures for Viral Infection and Inflammation in the Proximal Olfactory

System in Familial Alzheimer's Disease

Andrew N. Bubak[1,‡], Laetitia Merle[2,3,‡], Christy S. Niemeyer[1], B. Dnate' Baxter[2,3],

Arianna Gentile Polese[2,3], Vijay Ramakrishnan[4], Johana Gomez[5], Lucia Madrigal[5],

Andres Villegas-Lanau[5], Francisco Lopera[5], Wendy Macklin[1,2], Seth Frietze[6], Maria A.

Nagel[5,#], and Diego Restrepo[1,2, #,*]

[1]Department of Neurology, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus, Aurora,

CO 80045, USA

[2]Neuroscience Graduate Program, University of Colorado Anschutz Medical Campus,

Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[3]Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of Colorado Anschutz

Medical Campus, Aurora, CO 80045, USA

[4]Department of Otolaryngology-Head and Neck Surgery, Indiana University School of

Medicine, Indianapolis, IN 46202, USA

[5]Neuroscience Research Group, University of Antioquia, Medellín, Colombia

[6]Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, University of Vermont, Burlington, VT

‡Co-first authors

#Senior authors

Supplementary Note 1. Annotations regarding the function of proteins in groups A and B of the nanoString (Fig. 2Dii)

nanoString group A proteins: high expression in FAD high myelination OT (Fig. 2B)

The majority of these proteins are involved in demyelination or are axonal proteins.

Neurofilament light. Neurofilament light chain (NfL) is a neuronal cytoplasmic protein highly expressed in large calibre myelinated axons [1].

Fibronectin (FN1). In toxin-induced lesions undergoing efficient remyelination, fibronectin expression was transiently increased within demyelinated areas and declined as remyelination proceeded[2].

INPP4B. EAE31 is a locus controlling latency of motor evoked potentials (MEPs) and clinical onset of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. By combining congenic mapping, *in silico* haplotype analyses, and comparative genomics Lemcke and co-workers identified inositol polyphosphate-4-phosphatase, type II (*Inpp4b*) as the quantitative trait gene for EAE31[3].

CD25 (IL2RA). Depletion of CD4+CD25+ cells *in vivo* facilitated the expansion of PLP reactive cells with production of T helper 1 cytokines in EAE-resistant B10.S mice. Furthermore, anti-CD25 Ab treatment before immunization resulted in EAE induction

in these otherwise resistant mice. These data indicate an important role for autoantigen-

specific $CD4^+CD25^+$ cells in genetic resistance to autoimmunity[4].

Ubiquitin. The vast majority of cellular proteins are degraded by the 26S proteasome

after their ubiquitination. Belogurov et al. [5] report that the major component of the

myelin multilayered membrane sheath, myelin basic protein (MBP), is hydrolyzed by

the 26S proteasome in a ubiquitin-independent manner both *in vitro* and in

mammalian cells[5].

PD.L2. Programed death ligand 2. PD-L2 is up-regulated in inflamed endothelial cells,

with an intention to inhibit T-cell transmigration through the blood brain barrier{Zhao,

2014 #4650}.

ICOS. The inducible costimulatory molecule (ICOS) is expressed on activated T cells

and participates in a variety of important immunoregulatory functions. After the

induction of experimental allergic encephalomyelitis in SJL mice with proteolipid

protein (PLP), brain ICOS mRNA and protein were up-regulated on infiltrating CD3+ T

cells before disease onset.[6]

CD80. CD4+ T Cell Expressed CD80 Regulates Central Nervous System Effector

Function and Survival during Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis[7].

PD.1 and PD.L1. The review by Cencioni et al describes the roles of the PD-1/ PDL-1 pathway in cancer and autoimmune diseases, especially in multiple sclerosis, and how manipulating PD-1 can be a therapeutic approach in multiple sclerosis[8].

Phospho-PRAS40..T246. PRAS40 (Proline-rich AKT1 substrate 1), also known as Akt1S1 and p39, is a 40-42 kDa cytoplasmic phosphoprotein that lacks generally recognized structural motifs. It is widely expressed and is considered to be key regulator of mTORC1 (mTOR plus Raptor and G beta L), a complex through which Akt signals into the cell. Through phosphorylation, mTORC1 activity is upregulated by PRAS40[9].

Phospho-AKT1..S473. Involved in the dual function of the PI3K-Akt-mTORC1 axis in myelination of the peripheral nervous system[10].

Phsopho-GSK3B.S9. MAI-dependent phosphorylation and inactivation of GSK3beta regulate phosphorylation of CRMP4, a cytosolic regulator of myelin inhibition, and its ability to complex with RhoA[11].

Vimentin. Increase in tissue stiffness elicited by chronic demyelination of the corpus callosum is accompanied by astrogliosis, as shown by elevated GFAP and vimentin staining[12].

CD68. This is a marker for macrophages. Myelin loss along with axonal destruction, the pathological hallmark of metachromatic leukodystrophy is thought to be caused by critical sulphatide levels in oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells. Immunolabelling with

MBP and CD68 showed a gradient of demyelination from near-intact U-fibres to

myelin-depleted white matter with diffuse macrophage infiltration.[13].

APP. Data by Truong et al. identified APP and APLP2 as modulators of normal

myelination and demyelination/remyelination conditions. Deletion of APP and APLP2

identifies novel interplays between the BACE1 substrates in the regulation of

myelination[14].

Myelin basic protein. MBP is a protein found in the myelin sheath.

CD45RO. Dual expression of CD45RA and CD45RO isoforms on myelin basic protein-

specific CD4+ T-cell lines in multiple sclerosis[15]

nanoString group B proteins: high expression in FAD low myelination OT

These proteins are AD markers.

IDE. Insulin-degrading-enzyme plays a crucial role in the clearance of amyloid-β and

has been proposed as a therapeutical target for Alzheimer's disease[16].

ADAM10. ADAM10 is involved in the proteolytic processing of the amyloid precursor

protein[17]. ADAM10 also cleaves the ectodomain of the triggering receptor expressed on

myeloid cells 2 (TREM2), to produce soluble TREM2 (sTREM2), which has been

proposed as a CSF and sera biomarker of neurodegeneration[18].

NRGN. Neurogranin concentration in cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) is proposed as marker for synaptic dysfunction in age-related neurodegeneration[19], and has been shown to be specifically increased in patients with Alzheimer's disease[20].

Synaptophysin. In the TMEV model, only a few large- to medium-sized synaptophysin/APP-positive bulbs were found in demyelinated areas. In MS patient tissue samples, the bulbs appeared exclusively at the inflammatory edges of lesions. In conclusion, our data suggest that synaptophysin as a reliable marker of axonal damage in the CNS in inflammatory/demyelinating conditions[21].

PLCG1. Phospholipase C, gamma 1 gene mutations and abnormal splicing of PLCγ1 gene has been identified in AD using both high-throughput screening data and a deep learning-based prediction[22].

S6. Ribosomal protein S6

Phospho Tuberin T1462. The control of translation is disturbed in Alzheimer's disease (AD). Morel et al.[23] analyzed the crosslink between the up regulation of double-stranded RNA-dependent-protein kinase (PKR) and the down regulation of mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling pathways via p53, the protein Regulated in the Development and DNA damage response 1 (Redd1) and the tuberous sclerosis complex (TSC2) factors in two beta-amyloid peptide (Abeta) neurotoxicity models. In SH-SY5Y

cells, Abeta42 induced an increase of P(T451)-PKR and of the ratio p66/(p66+p53) in

nuclei and a physical interaction between these proteins. Redd1 gene levels increased

and P(T1462)-TSC2 decreased. These disturbances were earlier in rat primary neurons

with nuclear co-localization of Redd1 and PKR. The PKR gene silencing in SH-SY5Y cells

prevented these alterations. p53, Redd1 and TSC2 could represent the molecular links

between PKR and mTOR in Abeta neurotoxicity. PKR could be a critical target in a

therapeutic program of AD.

Tau, Phospho.Tau..S199. Phosphorylated tau.

552 **Supplementary Table 1. Patient information**

Subject ID	Group	Age	Sex	Cause of Death	OT surface analyzed in Vectra (mm2)	Temp-O-SEQ OT	Temp-O-SEQ OB	Nanostring OT	Nanostring OB
337	Control	84	M	Bacterial pneumonia	5.1	X	X	X	X
351	Control	62	M	Heart failure	7.0		X		
354	Control	65	M	Decompensated chronic obstructive pulmonary disease	3.3		X		
360	Control	72	M	Acute myocardial infarction	2.1	X			
364	Control	73	M	Gastric cancer	3.9	X			
380	Control	56	F	Colon cancer	4.1	X	X	X	X
359	FAD (E280A)	56	F	Bacterial pneumonia	3.6	X	X	X	X
346	FAD (E280A)	53	M	Aspiration pneumonia	5.2	X	X		
355	FAD (Late Onset)	86	F	Acute renal failure	3.0	X	X		
335	FAD (E280A)	59	M	Bacterial pneumonia	2.7	X	X		
358	FAD (E280A)	59	F	Aspiration pneumonia	1.1	X	X	X	X
382	FAD (E280A)	57	F	Metabolic imbalance	3.8	X	X		

556 **Supplementary Table 2. Antibody information for multispectral immunohistochemistry**

Target	Concentration	Antigen retrieval conditions	Vendor	Catalogue number	Host Species
Ab	1:500	EDTA ER2 pH9	Biolegend	803001	Mouse
Iba1	1:10,000	EDTA ER2 pH9	Wako	019-19741	Rabbit
GFAP	1:500	EDTA ER2 pH9	Dako/Agilent	Z033429-2	Rabbit
Cleaved Caspase 3	1:100	EDTA ER2 pH9	Cell Signaling	9664L	Rabbit
p-Tau	1:200	Citrate ER1 pH6	Invitrogen	MN1020	Mouse
DCX	1:5,000	Citrate ER1 pH6	Abcam	ab18723	Rabbit
CD68	1:500	Citrate ER1 pH6	Dako/Agilent	M0814	Mouse
PLP	1:400	Citrate AR buffer + TritonX100 pH6	PLP antibody source was[24]		Rat

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Antigen retrieval was performed on a fully automated immunostainer using either ER1 (citrate with a pH

range of 5.9-6.1) or ER2 (EDTA with a pH range of 8.9-9.1) buffers, except for PLP which was manually

processed in the microwave with citrate AR buffer and TritonX100 (pH6).

Supplementary Table 3. Excel worksheet with TempO-Seq raw counts and p-values for all

genes for the olfactory tract (control vs. FAD)

Supplementary Table 4. Excel worksheet with TempO-Seq raw counts and p-values for all

genes for the olfactory bulb (control vs. FAD)

Supplementary Table 5. Excel worksheet with genes included in specific pathways by

Insight analysis.

Supplementary Table 6. Antibodies used for nanoString
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Item name	Item Number
GeoMx Human Protein Core for NGS	121300129
GeoMx Immune Cell Typing Assay	121300130
GeoMx Immune Activation Status Assay	121300132
GeoMx Myeloid Assay	121300137
GeoMx PI3K/AKT Signaling Assay	121300136
GeoMx Neural Cell Typing Assay	121300138
GeoMx Alzheimer's Pathology Assay	121300139
GeoMx Glial Cell Subtyping Assay	121300143

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573 **Supplementary Table 7. Antibody information for immunofluorescence for nanoString**

Antibody ID	Name	company	clone #	Catalog #	concentration used
syto13	syto13	NanoString		121300306	25
MF-304	Beta amyloid	Novus	MOAB-2	NBP2-13075AF532	1:100
MF-618	MBP	Novus	2H9	NBP2-22121AF594	1:100
MF-643	Iba1	millipore	20A12.1	MABN92-AF647	1:100

Supplementary Figure 1. Microglial populations in the OT. A. Quantification of the 3 different microglial populations: Iba1+CD68+ (arrows "1"), Iba1+CD68- (arrows "2"), Iba1-CD68+ (arrows "3"). An ANOVA yields a significant difference for the genotype for Iba1+CD68+ (F=14.1, 1 d.f., p<0.01), Iba1+CD68- (F=8, 1 d.f., p<0.05) and Iba1-CD68+ (F=6.65, 1 d.f., p<0.05). FAD patients exhibit an increase in Iba1+CD68+ surface and Iba1+CD68- surface in the high myelinated OT, and an increase in Iba1-CD68+ surface low myelinated OT, compared to Ctrl. **B.** An ANOVA yields a significant difference for the genotype for Aβ surface that is overlapping with Iba1+CD68+ cells (F=24.14, 1 d.f., p<0.001), Iba1+CD68- cells (F=9.93, 1 d.f., p<0.01) and Iba1-CD68+ cells (F=12.28, 1 d.f., p<0.01). An ANOVA yields a significant difference between high and low myelination areas for Aβ surface that is overlapping with Iba1+CD68- cells (F=8, 1 d.f., p<0.05) and Aβ free from microglial coverage (F=15.93, 1 d.f., p<0.001). Aβ surface that is overlapping with all three microglial populations is increased in the high myeline OT of FAD patients compared to Ctrl. Aβ surface that is overlapping with Iba1-

589   CD68+ cells is increased in the low myeline OT. Aβ free from microglial coverage (arrows "4")

590   is decreased in the low myeline OT compared to the high myeline OT in both Ctrl and FAD. Scale

591   bar: 50 μm.

Supplementary Figure 2. Quantification of expression of myelin basic protein in the high and low myelinated regions of the OT of FAD subjects using nanoString spatial profiling.
A. A representative horizontal tissue section (FAD 359) of the OB/OT showing regions used for protein quantification. The sections are immunolabeled for myelin basic protein, Iba1, Aβ and nuclear staining (styo13). **B.** Closeup of OT areas with high and low myelination. **C.** Normalized counts for myelin basic protein in the low and high myelination areas. The difference is statistically significant (p<0.05, pairwise t-test).

Supplementary Figure 3. Principal component analysis of the proteomic data for the control and FAD datasets. A principal component analysis of nanoString protein expression shows increased distance between high and low myelinated OT in the FAD tissue. A. Control. B. FAD.

Supplementary Figure 4. Diagram illustrating the finding of viral infection of the olfactory bulb and altered response to demyelination in the olfactory tract of FAD patients.

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