Title: Sex and APOE Genotype Influence Respiratory Function Under Hypoxic and Hypoxic-Hypercapnic Conditions

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ABSTRACT

Ventilation is regulated across many systems, with respiratory rhythm formation occurring in the brainstem but

modulated in response to: chemoreception, respiratory muscle afferents, and volitional control. Alterations

within any of these systems may result in disruptions of appropriate respiratory control and ultimately, disease.

The apolipoprotein *(APOE)* gene has been studied due to its influence on Alzheimer's disease (AD)

development and work in an *APOE* mouse model recently demonstrated impaired respiratory motor plasticity

following spinal cord injury (SCI). Additionally, individuals with AD may co-present with obstructive sleep apnea

(OSA). Despite the prominence of *APOE* genotype and sex as factors in differing AD and OSA severity, little is

known about the impact of these on respiratory control. Using mice expressing two different humanized *APOE*

alleles, we characterized how sex and the presence of E3 or E4 alleles influenced ventilation during baseline

(normoxia) and during respiratory challenge. We show that sex and genotype influence breathing under

hypoxia, which may have clinical implications in the context of AD and OSA. Additionally, female mice, while

responding robustly to hypoxia, were unable to recover to baseline respiratory levels, emphasizing sex

differences in disordered breathing and potentially indicative of high metabolic cost.

INTRODUCTION

Breathing is a tightly regulated system that incorporates both feedback and feedforward control, however

genetic disorders or predispositions can affect respiratory regulation [1,2,3-5]. Within individuals that develop

Alzheimer's disease (AD), there is an increased prevalence of specific apolipoprotein *(APOE)* alleles. APOE

has been extensively linked to developing cognitive deficits associated with AD however research associated

with the impact of *APOE* on respiratory control is limited [6]. In addition to genetic contributions to cognitive

decline, respiratory impairments such as obstructive sleep apnea (OSA) can lead to cognitive impairments

exacerbating AD symptoms [7]. More than 10% of Americans suffer from moderate to severe OSA with greater

occurrence in men [8]. Recent European studies have shown that this number has the potential to be even

higher, as much as 23.4% in women and 49.7% in men [9]. Not only do these findings highlight the prevalence

of sleep apnea, but they are also indicative of the sexual dimorphism of sleep disordered breathing. In recent

years, scientists have continued to address the higher male prevalence of OSA as well as the impact of age on

OSA development [10]. In addition to OSA, approximately 1% of the United States population exhibits central

sleep apnea resulting from impairments in central chemoreception [11].

Severe respiratory impairments, including congenital central hypoventilation syndrome leading to fatal apneas,

can result from genetic mutations [12,13]. It follows that genetic polymorphisms play a critical role in the onset and

severity of OSA pathology and symptoms [14,15]. The *APOE* gene encodes for the lipid membrane transport

protein apolipoprotein E (ApoE) [16]. ApoE has been extensively classified and studied due to its influence on the

development of Alzheimer's disease (AD) in the human population. It is estimated that one *APOE* allele, the

ApoE4 allele, results in a 4-fold increased risk of developing AD and homozygous carriers exhibit a 15 fold

increase [17]. About one in five people are carriers of the ApoE4 allele. Individuals with AD exhibit severe

cognitive decline and neuroinflammation, which are also hallmarks of OSA. Severe OSA results in frequent

sleep arousals (up to 68/hour) and this sleep fragmentation has been shown to increase neuroinflammation

and impair cognition [18,19,20]. Imbalances in respiratory control caused by this neuroinflammation have been

shown to impair models of respiratory plasticity [21,22], and this impaired respiratory plasticity could limit expected

response to hypoxic stimulus. Indeed, our lab has recently demonstrated that there is a sex dependent

relationship on spinal motor plasticity in mice expressing the humanized ApoE3 and E4 genes following spinal

cord injury (SCI) [23]. In this recent study, female mice expressing the E3 allele maintained diaphragmatic activity

following intermittent hypoxia while E4 females had significantly depressed activity. Unlike the female mice,

males did not exhibit a difference in diaphragmatic activity based on genotype. To extend these findings, we

sought to characterize the relationship between *APOE* genotype and sex in awake mice.

We hypothesized that E4 mice would have less respiratory reserve (i.e., difficultly responding to gas

challenges) compared to E3 mice. OSA occurs more frequently in men, thus we additionally hypothesized that

there would be differences between the male and female mice in response to hypoxia and hypoxic-

hypercapnia in our humanized *APOE* model. To test these hypotheses, we utilized whole body

plethysmography (WBP) to measure ventilation in a humanized *APOE* mouse model under normoxia (21%

O_2), and two different gas challenges. These challenges were designed to mimic conditions of respiratory

stress in OSA by rapidly lowering available oxygen to create a hypoxic environment or by lowering oxygen

while adding carbon dioxide to create a hypoxic-hypercapnic environment.

Our results provide a characterization of stress-induced ventilatory responses in humanized *APOE* male and

female mice as well as support further investigation into the potential effects of sex and genetics on a multitude

of respiratory affiliated disorders. Furthermore, this study highlights the importance of sex and genetics on our

biologically diverse human population [24]. Finally, *APOE* genotype and sex findings from this study in the

context of experimentally induced hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia are highly relevant to individuals with AD

and provide additional framework in our treatment and understanding of respiratory diseases such as OSA.

[25,26].

METHODS

Animals

All experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of

Kentucky. Mice expressing human *APOE* isoforms under control of the endogenous mouse *APOE* promotor

(targeted replacement mice) were backcrossed for at least 10 generations to the C57BL/6 background [27,28].

Mice were group-housed by sex and genotype on a 12/12 light/dark cycle and fed normal chow diet *ad libitum*.

Mice undergoing hypoxic challenge (n=33) weighed 36.9-48.6 g with ages ranging from 367-441 days. Mice

undergoing hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge (n=16) weighed 32.02-52.7g with ages ranging from 472-477 days.

	Genotype	n	Average weight (g) (SD)	Average age (d) (SD)
Hypoxia males	E3	9	48.8 (4.7)	410 (16.6)
	E4	8	45.5 (4.6)	441 (65.3)
Hypoxia females	E3	8	36.9 (7.5)	367 (10.1)
	E4	8	37.5 (5.3)	377 (9.0)
Hypoxic-hypercapnia males	E3	4	52.7 (2.8)	473 (0)
	E4	4	47.5 (6.0)	472.5 (4.0)
Hypoxic-hypercapnia females	E3	3	51.2 (5.9)	477 (0)
	E4	5	32.02 (4.2)	476 (3.8)

Table 1. Number, average weight, and average age of mice used in hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia experiments

Hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia experiments

Whole body plethysmography (WBP) (DSI, Buxco FinePointe) was used to measure the ventilatory response

during hypoxic (11% O_2 balance nitrogen) and hypoxic-hypercapnic (7% CO_2, 10.5% O_2, balance nitrogen)

challenge in adult mice. We extracted respiratory rate (breaths/min), tidal volume (mL/breath/g), and minute

ventilation (mL/min/g) from the WBP flow traces. Experiments took place for approximately 90 minutes during

daylight hours between 0930 and 1600 with food and water restricted during the 90-minute measurement

phase. To ensure consistency across all measures, WBP machinery was recalibrated prior to every trial.

Immediately prior to baseline readings, a 40-minute period of in-chamber acclimation occurred to minimize

non-ventilatory respiratory behaviors associated with exploring the chamber. Ventilatory measurements

following acclimation started with a 30-minute period of normoxia (21% O_2, balance nitrogen), then 10 minutes

of respiratory challenge concluding with a 5- or 10-minute period of normoxia. Challenge design can be seen in

Figure 1a and the number of animals per group is shown in Table 1. Following trials, mice were returned to

their home cage in the vivarium. WBP chambers were thoroughly cleaned and dried between each group.

Data analysis and statistical analysis

The normality and variance of the data was determined to ensure appropriate assumptions were met. If data

within a particular experiment did not meet these assumptions non-parametric tests were used. Specific

statistical tests for each figure are listed in the figure legends. Ventilatory measures were calculated in DSI

FinePointe software and exported to generate graphs using MATLAB (MathWorks, Version 2021b). For

hypoxic ventilatory challenge, hypoxic-hypercapnic ventilatory challenge, and post challenge measures, graphs

were normalized as percent change relative to baseline. For statistical analysis, an ANOVA was used for

graphical comparisons between sex and genotype. Tukey-Kramer post-hoc comparison was used to compare

within variables. Results were considered statistically significant if $p < 0.05$. Investigators were not blinded to

genotype or sex.

Figure 1. Experimental timeline and comparison of the effect of genotype. a) Timeline of WBP hypoxic and hypoxic hypercapnic challenges. **b)** Plethysmography airflow traces from a representative ApoE3 (green) or ApoE4 (gray) mouse during baseline (normoxia). **c)** Quantification of plethysmography during baseline (normoxia) in five-minute bins, testing for an overall effect of genotype prior to assessing sex differences (Two-way ANOVA mean ± SEM; n= 25 (ApoE4, 13F/12M), n=24 (ApoE3, 11F/13M)).

RESULTS

Female mice breathe harder to maintain baseline ventilatory pattern during normoxia

To determine differences in baseline breathing, ApoE3 and ApoE4 male and female mice underwent a 25-minute period of normoxia prior to a 10-minute respiratory challenge. Figure 2 shows a comparison of sex and genotype at baseline tidal volume, minute ventilation, and respiratory rate. Sex differences were present across all measures. The weight corrected tidal volume of male human transgenic *APOE* mice was lower than the female mice ($p<0.0001$, $F_{(1)} = 24.19$). Additionally, the male mice had a lower respiratory rate ($p<0.02$, $F_{(1)} = 5.98$), and weight corrected minute ventilation ($p<0.0001$, $F_{(1)} = 25.03$). These baseline measures show that there is a sex-dependent effect present that may affect how male and female mice will respond to challenge.

Figure 2: During baseline (normoxic) breathing male mice display lower tidal volume and respiratory rate than female mice. a) Representative airflow traces during baseline (normoxia) from representative ApoE3 and ApoE4 male and female mice. Metrics of ventilation at baseline **b)** tidal volume and weight corrected tidal volume, **c)** minute ventilation and weight corrected minute ventilation, and **d)** respiratory rate. Male mice exhibit lower tidal volume and minute ventilation in weight corrected values, and lower respiratory rate which appears to drive an effect of sex in uncorrected minute ventilation. (Two-way ANOVA, mean + SD; n = 11 (ApoE3 female), n = 13 (ApoE4 female), n = 13 (ApoE3 male), n = 12 (ApoE4 male)).

Female mice initially respond less robustly to hypoxic ventilatory challenge with E4 females maintaining a
greater response than E3 counterparts

To further investigate sex- and genotype-dependent respiratory differences, we submitted all sexes and
genotypes to a 10-minute hypoxic ventilatory challenge. Figure 3a shows airflow traces from animals
undergoing hypoxic ventilatory challenge. Airflow data from all animals in the hypoxia cohort is quantified in
Figure 3b, showing the hypoxic challenge period, broken up into two 5-minute bins. Within the first five minutes
of hypoxia exposure, there is a clear effect of sex within each measure. During this initial period of hypoxia,
female mice had a reduced respiratory rate relative to baseline and male mice had an elevated rate compared
to females ($p < 0.0001$, $F_{(1)} = 43.98$). During the final five minutes of the challenge, male mice failed to maintain
an elevated respiratory rate compared to baseline, but were still breathing faster than the female mice ($p <$
0.002, $F_{(1)} = 12.69$). All groups increased their tidal volume relative to baseline in the first five minutes of the
hypoxic challenge. However, male ApoE4 mice had a less robust response compared to their ApoE3
counterparts ($p < 0.05$, Tukey-Kramer post-hoc), supporting previous work showing that male ApoE4 mice
have impaired ventilatory response under hypoxic conditions after SCI[23]. Only the ApoE3 male mice were able
to maintain an elevated minute ventilation over the entire challenge period and indeed, the female mice never
increased their minute ventilation over baseline.

Post-hypoxia airflow traces show a return towards baseline level (Fig. 3c). Following cessation of hypoxic
challenge, there are no significant differences between sex or genotype seen during the entirety of the post-
challenge period except for a female genotype difference in the second 5-minute period ($p<0.05$ Fig. 3d.).
Interestingly, across all measures, female animals show a decline in tidal volume and respiratory rate relative
to baseline, with greater deficit seen in ApoE4 female mice.

Figure 3: Sex and genotype differences during hypoxic challenge are *APOE* dependent
a) Representative airflow traces during and after hypoxic ventilatory challenge. **b)** Comparison graphs between sex and genotype during hypoxic challenge illustrating the impact of both factors. **c)** Post-challenge airflow traces. **d)** Post-challenge comparison graphs show minimal differences between sex or genotype. Asterisks indicate p<0.05, Tukey-Kramer post-hoc. Two-way ANOVA, mean + SD; n = 8 (ApoE3 female), n = 8 (ApoE4 female), n = 9 (ApoE3 male), n = 8 (ApoE4 male).

Differences in hypoxic-hypercapnic ventilatory response are driven by genotype during challenge, however,
following challenge, sex-dependent differences appear

As the male ApoE4 animals during hypoxia did not increase their tidal volume to the same degree as the male
ApoE3 animals, we tested for the possibility of a male E4 ceiling effect (i.e., inability to generate larger tidal
volume). To test the impact of increased chemosensory stimulation, we exposed a second cohort of mice to a
mixed hypoxic-hypercapnic (10.5% O_2, 7% CO_2) challenge. Figure 4a shows a robust hypoxic-hypercapnic
ventilatory response (HHVR) across all mice, regardless of sex or genotype.

Figure 4b shows the entirety of the hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge and the corresponding response. There is
an effect of genotype in respiratory rate and minute ventilation during the first and second five minutes of
hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge. The ApoE3 mice of both sexes had a lower respiratory rate compared to the
ApoE4 counterparts during the first five minutes ($p<0.02$, $F_{(1)} = 8.69$) and the final five minutes ($p<0.02$, $F_{(1)} =$
8.99). Minute ventilation mirrors this effect throughout hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge, driven largely by
genotypic differences in respiratory rate, indicating that E3 mice have lowered respiratory capacity relative to
E4 mice during hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge.

Airflow traces from the period after the hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge (Fig. 4c) show a differential recovery
based on sex and genotype. The male mice increased their respiratory rate in the first five-minutes after the
challenge, while the female mice maintained the same respiratory rate as during the challenge. The tidal
volume of all E3 mice and E4 female mice returned towards baseline, while the tidal volume of the E4 male
mice remained elevated.

The post-HHVR (Figure 4d) shows a significant sex-dependent effect throughout the entire 10-minute period
across all measures. There is a significant effect of sex on respiratory rate during the first ($p<0.05$, $F_{(1)} = 4.99$)
and second ($p<0.02$, $F_{(1)} = 8$) 5-minute periods. Additionally, there was an effect of sex within the tidal volume
data in the post-HHVR period in the first ($p<0.009$, $F_{(1)} = 9.73$) and second ($p<0.03$, $F_{(1)} = 6.7$) 5 minutes. As
expected, based on tidal volume and respiratory rate, minute ventilation also shows a significant sex-
dependent effect in the first ($p<0.007$, $F_{(1)} = 10.86$) and second ($p<0.004$, $F_{(1)} = 13.24$) 5 minutes of post-HHVR.
This data may be indicative of impaired respiratory control in the male mice, as they should return toward
baseline levels following exposure to hypoxic-hypercapnic conditions.

Figure 4: Genotype and sex drive different phases of the hypoxic-hypercapnic ventilatory response
a) Flow traces show a robust increase in tidal volume during challenge. **b)** Comparison of ventilatory metrics during hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge, considering for effect of sex and genotype. **c)** Representative airflow traces during post-HHVR challenge. **d)** Respiratory metrics during the post-HHVR period. Asterisks indicate p<0.05, Tukey-Kramer post-hoc. Two-way ANOVA, mean + SD; n = 3 (ApoE3 female), n = 5 (ApoE4 female), n = 4 (ApoE3 male), n = 4 (ApoE4 male).

DISCUSSION

This study builds on previous research elucidating the effects of genetic influences and sex on respiratory

control [23]. Our results demonstrate that genotype and sex in humanized *APOE* mice plays a role in regulating

breathing, specifically under conditions of respiratory stress. In this study we found that under hypoxic

conditions, female animals did not increase minute ventilation in the initial period of hypoxia and furthermore

displayed decreased minute ventilation as the hypoxic challenge progressed. Male animals increased their

tidal volume in the initial phase of hypoxic challenge, however, the E4 males could not maintain this elevation.

In contrast, during the hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge, E4 animals were able to increase their respiratory rate

beyond E3 counterparts. There were no group differences in tidal volume during this challenge, however, the

increased respiratory rate led to an increase in minute ventilation. Across all measures, animals challenged

with only hypoxia returned toward baseline levels following challenge. In animals that received hypoxic-

hypercapnia challenge, respiratory measures remained elevated.

Following the hypoxic-hypercapnic period, E4 female animals exhibited a similar initial response to their E3

counterparts but maintained this response less effectively. Male animals appear to continue patterns seen

during hypoxic-hypercapnic challenge with E4 animals maintaining robust respiratory frequency and tidal

volume relative to E3. The differences between hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia are important in the context

of pO_2 and pCO_2 chemosensation, respectively. These results are particularly critical when considering the

implications of disordered breathing in conditions such as OSA and interrelated neuroinflammation and

cognitive impairments.

APOE genotype and the hypoxic ventilatory response

While *APOE* genotype has been evaluated within sleep disordered breathing across broad datasets in human

subjects, the research investigating animal models of *APOE* under respiratory stress has been limited [29]. To

model an adverse stimulus effect on respiratory pattern between E3 and E4 mice, we utilized hypoxic

conditions eliciting the hypoxic ventilatory response (HVR) investigating tidal volume, respiratory rate, and

minute ventilation. While there was no effect of genotype on baseline breathing, there was an effect of

genotype during hypoxia. Specifically, during the first five minutes of hypoxia exposure, E3 males had a larger

increase in tidal volume compared to the E4 males and E3 females. During the second five minutes of the

hypoxic challenge, the E4 males and E3 females could not maintain the hypoxic ventilatory response and their

tidal volumes decreased towards baseline. The E4 females and E3 males did maintain an increase in tidal

volume throughout the challenge, however, the respiratory rate of the E4 males decreased resulting in the

lower minute ventilation when compared to E3 males. The inability to maintain elevated tidal volume in the E3

females and E4 males may be indicative of impairments in chemoreceptor function or phrenic-neuromotor

control. Chemoreceptor function under hypoxia is susceptible to genetic alterations demonstrated in carotid

bodies, although models of humanized *APOE* mice have not been utilized [30]. Future research will elucidate

APOE specific differences in phrenic motor neuron serotonergic signaling [23].

APOE genotype and hypoxic- hypercapnia elicited respiratory drive

To model the accumulation of CO_2 that coincides with hypoxia during obstructive apneas, mice completed an

identical trial with a hypoxic-hypercapnic gas mixture to elicit max chemo-responsiveness. During challenges

with hypoxia without concurrent elevated CO_2, E4 male animals displayed an inhibited hypoxic ventilatory

response in tidal volume. In contrast, all animals were able to mount a robust initial response during hypoxic-

hypercapnic challenge. Tidal volume and minute ventilation increased 50-150% relative to baseline.

Additionally, contrasting HVR, E3 and E4 animals exhibited changes in respiratory rate with E4 animals

displaying a significantly higher increase in respiratory rate relative to E3 animals. Hypercapnic pCO_2

chemosensation primarily takes place centrally as opposed to peripheral pO_2 sensing carotid and aortic body

afferents [31,32]. It could therefore be surmised that while mechanisms of peripheral chemoreception may be

impaired in E4 animals, central hypercapnic chemoreception remains unaffected or highly responsive to

changes in pCO_2 content. Since respiratory drive remains intact, efferent pathways leaving brainstem

respiratory centers may also be unaffected by *APOE*. Finally, on the cellular level, research has shown

regional specific effects of ApoE4 on mitochondrial activity and ROS production which may provide another

explanation as to why pathways responsive to hypoxia versus those responsive to hypoxic-hypercapnia

operate in an inverse manner [33].

Sex differences in humanized APOE mice during hypoxia

Sex differences were found within periods with different inspired gases and respiratory measures. Even in

normal breathing, female animals breathed faster and deeper. However, during hypoxic challenge, female

animals from both genotypes exhibited a less robust hypoxic ventilatory response than male animals. Tidal

volume in response to hypoxia was lower initially in female mice, and the HVR tidal volume was not

maintained. Respiratory rate data findings mirror the tidal volume response yet are even more extreme early in

HVR. Following hypoxic challenge, female mice elicited no recovery from hypoxic conditions and exhibited

continued hypoxic ventilatory decline while male mice returned to baseline levels. These findings are

interesting considering that in at least one mouse model, females have been noted to respond more robustly in

hypoxic conditions [34]. Sex-dependent responses to hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia have been studied in

other animals, although the most relevant background to our current findings was a study in Fischer rats

showing that ventilatory response differences are age-dependent as opposed to sex-dependent with middle

aged and older female rats having a greater response [35]. Our results contrast this, with male mice responding

and recovering more robustly and rapidly than female mice. Future studies should include a cohort of aged

matched wild-type male and female controls.

Following hypoxic-hypercapnia sex differences were noted in recovery

Male and female mice of both E3 and E4 background displayed nearly identical hypoxic-hypercapnic

responses with changes in ventilation driven by genotype and not sex. However, following the strong

chemosensory response elicited by hypoxic-hypercapnia, female animals rapidly returned toward or below

baseline normoxia levels of breathing while male animals continued to maintain elevated respiratory rate and

minute ventilation after the inspired gas was returned to normoxic-normocapnic levels. Sex differences in

respiratory recovery have been noted previously in neonatal mouse models where female respiratory rhythm

generating centers have shown greater ability to recover following a period of severe hypoxia [36]. The data

presented here serves to fill a critical gap in knowledge as these *APOE* mice are both closer in relative age

and more closely model conditions akin to human sleep apnea physiology [37].

CONCLUSION

This study further clarifies work from our laboratory and others on the effects of genetics, specifically *APOE* on

respiratory control, in unfavorable respiratory conditions. Our results show that humanized ApoE4 male mice

have more difficulty mounting a response to hypoxic conditions than their E3 counterparts while female mice of

both genotypes appear to have difficulty mounting any response in terms of respiratory rate and only E4

females maintain a respective tidal volume increase. Interestingly, E4 female mice have prolonged depression

following cessation of hypoxia, not seen in their male counterparts. In hypoxic-hypercapnic conditions, slight

genotype differences persist in terms of respiratory rate, however, more interesting perhaps are the sex

differences seen in recovery following hypoxic-hypercapnia. Because sleep apnea and disordered breathing

have been indicated in earlier onset of disease as well as cognitive impairment this work will serve as a

foundation for researching downstream effects of hypoxia and hypoxic-hypercapnia in genotype and sex

allowing for the application of these findings to the heterogenous aging human population and to the

development of disease [38,39].

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

C.E.T.: design of experiment, data collection, data analysis, and interpretation; initial draft of introduction and

discussion. L.E.M.: data collection, data analysis, and interpretation; initial draft of methods and results. M.D.S.:

data analysis, statistical programming, final graphs; manuscript editing and revisions. J.N.W.: technical support,

conceptual feedback. C.M.C.: technical support, conceptual feedback. L.A.J.: mouse model breeding and

support, review of manuscript draft. W.J.A.: conception and design of the study, experimental design,

interpretation of the data, revision and final approval of the manuscript.

DATA AND CODE AVAILABILITY

The datasets and MATLAB code generated during the current study are available from the corresponding author

on reasonable request.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

ETHICAL DECLARATIONS

All experiments were conducted in accordance with the NIH Guidelines Concerning the Care and Use of

Laboratory Animals and were approved by the IACUC committee at the University of Kentucky.