Increased cerebrospinal fluid and plasma apoE glycosylation is associated with

reduced levels of Alzheimer's disease biomarkers

Dobrin Nedelkov[1,a], Zoe E. Tsokolas[2,a,], Matheus Scarpatto Rodrigues[3], Isabel Sible[4],
S. Duke Han[5] , Bilal E. Kerman[2], Michael Renteln[2], Wendy J. Mack[6], Tharick A.
Pascoal[3,7], Hussein N Yassine [2,8*] "for the Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative**

[1] Isoformix Inc., Sugar Land, TX

[2] Department of Neurology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA

[3] Department of Psychiatry, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, USA.

[4] Department of Neurology, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco CA,
USA

[5] Department of Psychology, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA

[6] Department of Population Health, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA

[7] Department of Neurology, School of Medicine, University of Pittsburgh, 3471 Fifth
Avenue, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, 15213, USA

[8] Center for Personalized Brain Health, University of Southern California, Los Angeles,
CA

[a] Co-first authors

*To whom correspondence should be addressed: 2250 Alcazar St, Rm 210, Los

Angeles, CA, 90033, Email: hyassine@usc.edu.

** *Data used in preparation of this article were obtained from the Alzheimer's Disease

Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). As such, the investigators

within the ADNI contributed to the design and implementation of ADNI and/or provided

data but did not participate in analysis or writing of this report. A complete listing of

ADNI investigators can be found at: http://adni.loni.usc.edu/wp

content/uploads/how_to_apply/ADNI_Acknowledgement_List.pdf

Running Title: ApoE isoforms glycosylation and AD biomarkers

Keywords: Apolipoprotein E, isoform, glycan, biomarkers, Alzheimer's disease.

Abstract

The apolipoprotein E (*APOE*) ε4 allele is the strongest genetic risk factor for

Alzheimer's disease (AD). ApoE is glycosylated with an O-linked Core-1 sialylated

glycan at several sites, yet the impact and function of this glycosylation on AD

biomarkers remains unclear. We examined apoE glycosylation in a cohort of

cerebrospinal fluid (CSF, n=181) and plasma (n= 178) samples from the Alzheimer's

Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) stratified into 4 groups: cognitively normal (CN),

Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI), progressors and non-progressors based on delayed

word recall performance over 4 years. We observed decreasing glycosylation from

apoE2 > apoE3 > apoE4 in CSF, and in plasma (apoE3 > apoE4). ApoE glycosylation

was reduced in the MCI compared with CN groups, and in progressors compared to

non-progressors. In CSF, higher apoE glycosylation associated cross-sectionally with

lower total tau (t-tau), p-tau181, and with higher $A\beta_{1\text{-}42}$. Similar associations of apoE

glycosylation with higher $A\beta_{1\text{-}42}$ were observed in plasma. In CSF, greater apoE4

glycosylation was associated with lower t-tau and p-tau181. Over a 6-year period,

higher baseline levels of CSF apoE glycosylation predicted lower rates of increase in

CSF t-tau and p-tau181 and lower rates of decrease in CSF $A\beta_{1\text{-}42}$. These results

indicate strong associations of apoE glycosylation with biomarkers of AD pathology

independent of apoE genotype, warranting a deeper understanding of the functional role

of apoE glycosylation on AD tau pathology.

Introduction

The human apolipoprotein E gene (*APOE*) contains three major polymorphic alleles with distinct distribution across ethnicity and geography (ε2: 5-10%, ε3: 65-70%, and ε4: 15-25%) [1]. The ε4 allele is the strongest genetic risk factor for Alzheimer's disease (AD), with its frequency increased to ~ 40% in patients with AD [2]. Having one copy of the ε4 allele increases the risk for late-onset AD three-fold, while individuals with two copies of ε4 have an eight- to twelve-fold increased risk of developing AD [2-4]. The three distinct APOE alleles translate into three apoE isoforms that differ from each other at amino acid positions 112 and 158: apoE2 (Cys112, Cys158), apoE3 (Cys112, Arg158), and apoE4 (Arg112, Arg158). The three apoE isoforms bind differently to lipids, receptors, and amyloid-β (Aβ) [5-11], but the exact mechanism by which the isoforms contribute individually to AD pathogenesis is not completely understood.

ApoE is an already-glycosylated protein with an O-linked N-acetylgalactosamine-Galactose disaccharide (-GalNAc-Gal); this Core-1 glycan (also known as T-antigen) can be further sialylated with 1 or 2 sialic acids (Sia) [12]. The primary site of apoE glycosylation is at Thr194, which resides on the hinge region of the apoE three-dimensional structure [13]. Ser290 near the C-terminus was also identified as a major glycan attachment site [14]. More recent mass spectrometry-based studies delineated several additional glycosylation sites, including Thr8, Thr18, Ser197, Ser263, Thr289, and Ser296 [15-18]. Post-translational glycosylation of apoE may mediate its intermolecular interactions and enhance its solubility and stability. Glycosylation may also protect against self-association, spontaneous aggregation, and fibril formation in AD and atherosclerotic plaques [14]. In a Niemann-Pick Type C disease animal model,

sialic acid residues were detected on neuronal apoE, indicating a change in

glycosylation which correlated with increased $A\beta_{1-42}$ before neurological abnormalities

appear [19]. The sialic acids at the end of the apoE glycan may contribute to interaction

with Aβ [20], mediate/stabilize intermolecular interactions with the polar phospholipid

heads of micelle [14], and are needed for binding to HDL [21, 22]. A larger proportion of

apoE is glycosylated and sialylated in CSF than in plasma [23-26], but the degree to

which apoE glycosylation in CSF affects AD pathogenesis remains unclear.

We have recently developed an assay that detects all apoE isoforms and

glycoforms in a manner that preserves isoform-specific glycosylation [27]. Using this

assay on a small cohort of matched plasma and CSF samples (n=22), we discovered

for the first time a trend of decreasing glycosylation of apoE in CSF from apoE2 >

apoE3 > apoE4, with apoE4 being the least glycosylated isoform [27]. This trend and

findings were recently validated with a larger cohort (n=106) [28]. Here, we seek to

further examine the relationship of apoE glycosylation with AD biomarkers including

total tau (t-tau), phosphorylated tau 181 (p-tau181), and $A\beta_{1-42}$, as well as with the

cognitive performance of individuals at risk for or with AD, using a larger cohort of

plasma and CSF samples with longitudinal biomarker data.

Materials and Methods

Study Population.

Data and samples used in the preparation of this article were obtained from the

Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) database (adni.loni.usc.edu). The

ADNI was launched in 2003 as a public-private partnership, led by Principal Investigator

Michael W. Weiner, MD. The primary goal of ADNI has been to test whether serial

magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), positron emission tomography (PET), other

biological markers, and clinical and neuropsychological assessment can be combined to

measure the progression of mild cognitive impairment (MCI) and early AD.

From the ADNI dataset, our analysis included individuals with available medical

data, clinical assessment, and measures of post-translational glycosylation of apoE in

both CSF (n = 181 participants) and plasma 178 (n = 178 participants). We stratified

individuals in groups based on the participants' delayed recall test performance as

assessed by the Rey Auditory Verbal Learning Test (RAVLT, Rey, 1964) at baseline

and *APOE* genotype (**Table 1**). Therefore, the cohort was stratified into four clinical

groups: 1) cognitively normal (CN) (n=41) stable group, with participants having no

cognitive impairment (at baseline assessment) and <10% RAVLT decline between

baseline visit and 48-months follow-up; 2) CN decline group (n=43), with participants

having no cognitive impairment (at baseline assessment) and >10% RAVLT decline

between baseline and 48-months follow up; 3) Late Mild Cognitive Impairment (LMCI)

stable group (n=48), with participants having mild cognitive impairment at baseline

(MCI) and without AD progression between baseline and 48-months; and 4) LMCI

decline group (n=49), with participants having MCI at baseline with AD progression

between baseline and 48-months.

Study Data.

Biomarker data were available from CSF samples collected during annual visits

spanning a 6-year period. The concentrations of Aβ1-42, t-tau, and p-tau181 in CSF

were measured on the Luminex platform INNO-BIA AlzBio3 RUO test, using methods of

micro-bead-based multiplex immunoassay as previously described [29]. For cognitive

measures, the RAVLT scores accuracy of delayed memory recall by % forgotten on a

list-recall paradigm was used [30]. RAVLT cognitive performance test results were

available from each annual visit over the 6-year period.

Glycosylation Measurement.

Plasma and CSF samples from the first (baseline) visit were analyzed the apoE

glycosylation using ApoE mass spectrometric immunoassay (MSIA), as described

previously [27]. The MSIA detects each of the three ApoE isoforms and their glycoforms

at the intact protein level, even in samples from heterozygous individuals. In short, apoE

was affinity captured from plasma and CSF using MSIA tips that were derivatized with

ApoE-specific antibody. MALDI-TOF mass spectrometer (Autoflex III MALDI-TOF,

Bruker, Billerica, MA) was used to analyze the eluted intact ApoE in a positive ion

mode, with a mass range 7 to 70 kDa, 700 ns delay, 20.00 kV and 18.45 kV ion source

voltages, and < 7000 Da signal suppression. Mass spectra were baseline subtracted

(Convex Hull algorithm with 0.8 flatness) and smoothed (Savizky Golay algorithm with 5

m/z width and 1 cycle) using the Bruker Flex Analysis software. Zebra 1.0 software

(Intrinsic Bioprobes Inc.) was used to quantify and tabulate peak intensities of the *APOE*

isoforms and glycoforms. To obtain glycosylation percentages, glycoform peak

intensities for each isoform were summed and divided by the sum of all peak intensities

(glycosylated and unglycosylated) for that isoform. Similarly, to obtain the secondary

glycosylation percentage (the additional glycosylation of an already singly glycosylated

apoE at a site that is different from the primary glycosylation site), only the peak

intensities representing secondary glycosylation were summed and divided by the sum

of all peak intensities for that isoform.

Statistical Analysis.

Cross sectional statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism 7 and

R (version 4.3.3). Data normality was assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test. Biomarker

concentrations were standardized to a mean of 0 and SD of 1 and used in cross-

sectional and longitudinal analyses to improve model stability. To evaluate for

differences in the overall apoE glycosylation between plasma and CSF, unpaired t-test

was performed at a 5% false discovery rate. To identify differences among the

glycosylation of the *APOE*2, *APOE*3, and *APOE*4 isoforms, one-way ANOVA with

Tukey multiple comparisons test was performed for normally distributed data, and

Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons test was performed for non-

normally distributed data. Linear regression models adjusted by age, sex, race,

education, *APOE*4, and clinical group were conducted to examine associations between

apoE glycosylation and AD biomarkers. Statistical differences were assessed via

Pearson's correlation (for normally distributed measures) or Spearman's rank

correlation (for non-normally distributed measures). We further stratified the total cohort

into two groups based on cognitive progression as determined by the % forgetting on

the RAVLT score (non-progressors: CN stable and LMCI stable; and progressors: CN-

decline and LMCI-decline) to examine differences across total and secondary apoE

glycosylation levels.

Longitudinal statistical analyses were performed using R (version 4.3.3).

Associations between baseline assessments of CSF and plasma apoE glycosylation

and longitudinal assessments of CSF t-tau, p-tau181, $A\beta_{1-42}$, and cognitive performance

over a six-year period were tested using linear mixed effects models with the lme4 R

package (version 1.1-35.2). The repeatedly measured dependent variables were t-tau,

p-tau181, $A\beta_{1-42}$, and cognitive performance as assessed by RAVLT (measured

annually for a duration of 6 years). The primary fixed effects of interest were tertile

categories of the independent apoE glycosylation variable. Additional covariates were

age, sex, race, education, clinical group, *APOE*4, data collection site, and year of test

visit (relative to baseline, with year = 0 at baseline visit). To account for random

variation across testing locations and within-participant correlations due to repeated

measures, study site was modeled as a random effect; a subject-level random intercept

was modeled to account for correlated outcome data due to repeated measures. Time

(year)-by-tertile interactions were included in longitudinal modeling to test for differences

in rates of change in the dependent measure over time by tertiles of glycosylation. We

modeled these glycosylation categories as the primary independent variables of interest

and adjusted for clinical group, APOE4, age, sex, race, education, study site, and years

from baseline assessment. We further adjusted for participant ID to account for within-

subject variability, as a random effect. To categorize tertiles, baseline glycosylation

samples were divided into three groups based on abundance levels of total and

secondary glycosylation (1st tertile = lowest one third % of glycosylation; 2nd = middle;

3rd = highest degree of glycosylation). To test differences in rates of change over time

by glycosylation tertiles, we included a tertile-by-years interaction in our linear models.

Results

<u>***Cross-sectional analyses***</u>

Higher CSF APOE glycosylation is associated with lower AD pathology and better

cognitive performance

ApoE glycosylation levels from baseline collection were first examined as a

function of the individual *APOE* isoforms, as our previous work showed a trend of

decreasing glycosylation from *APOE2* > *APOE3* > *APOE4* [27, 28]. Here we observe

the same trend of decreasing glycosylation: for CSF total apoE glycosylation, the mean

(SD) percentage glycosylation was 74.5% (2.15%) for *APOE*2, 71.1% (4.27%) for

*APOE*3, and 67.5% (4.32%) for *APOE*4 (ANOVA p < 0.0001), with statistically

significant differences for glycosylated *APOE*2 vs. *APOE*3 (p=0.02), *APOE*2 vs. *APOE*4

(p < 0.0001), and *APOE*3 vs. *APOE*4 (p < 0.0001) (**Fig. 1a**). For the CSF secondary

APOE glycosylation, the mean (SD) percentage glycosylation was 23.3% (2.4%) for

*APOE*2, 20.9% (3.71%) for *APOE*3, and 15.6% (2.77%) for *APOE*4 (ANOVA p <

0.0001), with statistically significant differences observed for *APOE*4 vs. *APOE*2 (p <

0.0001) and *APOE*4 vs. *APOE*3 (p < 0.0001) (**Fig. 1b**). In plasma, the mean (SD) total

percentage APOE glycosylation was 11.9% (3.53%) for *APOE*2, 12.8% (3.96%) for

*APOE*3, and 9.70% (3.01%) for *APOE*4 (ANOVA p < 0.0001), with statistically

significant differences between *APOE*4 and *APOE*3 (p < 0.0001) (**Fig. 1c**). Overall, the

total percentage glycosylation of apoE in CSF was 69.2% (4.11%), much higher than

the 11.8% (3.88%) total glycosylation observed in plasma (p < 0.0001) (**Fig. 1**

Supplement), which is in close agreement with our previous results [27, 28].

We conducted independent two-sample t-tests to compare differences in mean

apoE glycosylation across each of the 4 clinical groups and used the Bonferroni method

to correct for multiple comparisons. In the CN and LMCI groups, the mean (SD)

percentage CSF secondary apoE glycosylation of 19.5% (4.03%) in the CN group was

significantly higher than the mean of 18.0% (3.32%) in the LMCI group (p=0.0085) (**Fig.**

2a). The total cohort was also split into two groups based on memory performance as

determined by the RAVLT score (non-progressors; progressors). The mean percentage

CSF secondary apoE glycosylation of 19.3% (3.38%) in the overall non-progressors

group was significantly higher than the mean of 18.1% (3.98%) in the overall

progressors group (p = 0.022) (**Fig. 2b**). This difference was primarily driven by the CN

group, with CN non-progressors having significantly higher secondary apoE

glycosylation levels than CN progressors (p = 0.012) (**Fig. 2c**). However, MCI

progressors did not differ from non-progressors (p=0.5) (**Figure 2d**).

At baseline, higher CSF total apoE glycosylation was significantly associated with

lower total CSF tau (r = -0.17; p = 0.016) (**Fig. 3a**) but not $A\beta_{1-42}$ (r = -0.06; p = 0.58)

(**Fig. 3b**), ptau-181 (r = -0.12; p = 0.068) (**Fig. 3c**), or RAVLT (r = -0.03; p = 0.63) (**Fig.**

3d). Higher CSF secondary apoE glycosylation was not associated with lower total CSF

tau (r = -0.04; p = 0.3) (**Fig. 2a Supplement**), CSF $A\beta_{1-42}$ (r = -0.1; p = 0.32), (**Fig. 2b**

Supplement), CSF ptau-181 (r = 0.01; p = 0.62) (**Fig. 2c Supplement**), or RAVLT (r =

0.05; p = 0.41) (**Fig. 2d Supplement**). For plasma, higher total apoE glycosylation was

significantly associated with lower $A\beta_{1-42}$ (r = -0.08; p = 0.0006) (**Fig. 3c Supplement**).

APOE4 glycosylation is associated with lower tau pathology biomarkers, particularly in *APOEε4/ε4* carriers

When analyzing the association of apoE3 and apoE4 glycosylation in the CSF with AD biomarkers, we found that apoE4 glycosylation (r = -0.34, p = 0.002), and less so apoE3 glycosylation (r = -0.16, p = 0.054), were associated with lower total-tau levels **(Fig 4a, b**). A similar pattern was observed for ptau-181, where apoE4 glycosylation correlated with lower ptau-181 levels in the CSF (r = -0.27, p = 0.012), with a weaker correlation with apoE3 glycosylation (r = -0.14, p = 0.101) (**Fig. 4c, d**)**.** Interestingly, the negative association of apoE4 glycosylation with both total-tau (r = -0.57, p = 0.0001) and ptau-181 (r = -0.47, p = 0.009) were particularly stronger in *APOEε4/ε4* (**Fig. 4 b, d Supplement**). This effect was not observed for apoE3 glycosylation in *APOEε3/ε3* (**Fig. 4 a, c Supplement**).

Regarding the effects of APOE secondary glycosylation in the CSF on tau pathology biomarkers, we observed no significant effects of either apoE3 or apoE4 secondary glycosylation on total-tau or ptau-181 levels (**Fig. 5 Supplement**). However, when stratifying the analysis by APOE isoforms, we found that apoE4 secondary glycosylation was associated with reduced total-tau (r = -0.41, p = 0.023) and ptau-181 (r = -0.31, p = 0.091) in APOEε4/ε4 (**Fig. 6b, d Supplement**). In contrast, no effect of apoE3 secondary glycosylation on total-tau or ptau-181 was observed in APOEε3/ε3 (**Fig. 6a, c Supplement**). Similar results were observed when we analyzed the effects of apoE3 and apoE4 glycosylation in plasma. No effect of both plasma apoE3 and apoE4 glycosylation were observed in total-tau and ptau-181 (**Fig. 7 Supplement**). However, when stratifying the analysis by APOE isoforms, we observed that plasma

apoE4 glycosylation was associated with lower total-tau (r = -0.56, p=0.024) and lower

ptau-181 (r = -0.52, p = 0.042) in *APOEε4/ε4* (**Fig. 8 b, d Supplement**). No effect of

apoE3 glycosylation to total-tau and ptau-181 was observed in *APOEε3/ε3* (**Fig. 8 a, c**

Supplement).

Longitudinal analyses

Over a 6-year period, higher baseline levels of CSF apoE glycosylation predicted

lower rates of increase in AD biomarkers.

We used linear mixed effect models to evaluate whether apoE glycosylation

tertile groups at baseline predicted longitudinal changes in AD biomarkers and RAVLT

scores over six years of follow-up period. Cutoffs for tertiles of total glycosylation were ≤

67.0 pg/mL (1st tertile; "low glycosylation"); ≤ 71.0 pg/mL ("intermediate glycosylation");

≤ 79.6 pg/mL (3rd tertile, "high glycosylation"). Cutoffs for tertiles of secondary

glycosylation were ≤ 16.5 pg/mL (1st tertile; "low glycosylation"); ≤ 19.7 pg/mL (2nd tertile

"intermediate glycosylation"); ≤ 29.3 pg/mL (3rd tertile; "high glycosylation").

Intermediate levels of CSF total apoE glycosylation at baseline (compared to

reference tertile 1) predicted greater CSF t-tau increase over time (p<0.0001), whereas

having high glycosylation predicted significant CSF t-tau decrease over time (p=0.032,

compared to reference tertile 1) (**Fig. 5a**). Intermediate levels of CSF total apoE

glycosylation predicted greater increase in CSF p-tau181 longitudinally (p<0.0001 for

the 2nd tertile) while high glycosylation predicted significant CSF p-tau181 decrease over

time (p=0.0018 compared to reference tertile 1) (**Fig. 5c**). Both intermediate and high

levels of CSF total apoE glycosylation predicted lower CSF soluble Aβ$_{1-42}$ decrease over

time (p=0.00067 for intermediate glycosylation; p= 0.0015 for the high glycosylation)

(**Fig. 5b**), and higher rate of increase in score on the RAVLT cognitive performance task

(% forgotten) (p<0.0001 for intermediate glycosylation; p<0.0001 for high glycosylation)

comparatively against reference tertile 1. (**Fig. 5d**). Similarly, high levels of CSF

secondary apoE glycosylation at baseline (compared to reference tertile 1) predicted

lower CSF t-tau increase over time (p=0.00012) (**Fig. 9a Supplement**), lower CSF ptau-

181 increase (p=0.00026 for intermediate glycosylation; p<0.0001 for high

glycosylation) (**Fig. 9c Supplement**), and lower CSF soluble Aβ_{1-42} decrease over time

(p<0.0001 for intermediate glycosylation; p=0.0009 for high glycosylation), (**Fig. 9b**

Supplement). Intermediate levels of CSF secondary apoE glycosylation also predicted

greater increase in % forgetfulness on the RAVLT cognitive performance task

(p<0.0001 compared to reference tertile 1) (**Fig. 9d Supplement**). Greater levels of

plasma total apoE glycosylation at baseline (comparatively against reference tertile 1)

predicted higher CSF t-tau but not CSF p-tau181 increase over time (p<0.0001 for

intermediate glycosylation, **Fig. 10 a, c Supplement**), lower CSF soluble Aβ_{1-42}

decrease over time (p<0.0001 for intermediate glycosylation; p<0.0001 for high

glycosylation, **Fig. 10 b Supplement**), and lower increase in % forgetfulness on the

RAVLT cognitive performance task (p=0.011 for high glycosylation, **Fig. 10d**

Supplement).

Discussion

The apoE glycosylation results from the ADNI cohort presented in this work

confirm that the three apoE isoforms have distinct glycosylation patterns, with *APOE*4

being the least glycosylated isoform in both CSF and plasma. These results are in close

agreement with our two previous studies using different cohorts [27, 28]. ApoE

secondary glycosylation was lower in the MCI group compared to the CN group and in

progressors compared to non-progressors. At baseline, greater apoE glycosylation

(total or secondary) was associated with lower CSF t-tau and p-tau181, regardless of

APOE isoform. When grouped by protein isoform, CSF apoE4 but not apoE3

glycosylation was associated with lower t-tau and p-tau181 at baseline. In the

longitudinal analysis, lower apoE glycosylation was associated with greater

accumulation of CSF t-tau, CSF p-tau181, and lower CSF $A\beta_{1-42}$ over a 6-year follow-up

period, independent of *APOE* genotype. Overall, these results point to a protective role

of apoE glycosylation on markers of AD progression, particularly on tau pathology.

This isoform-specific glycosylation trend has also been observed by several other

groups. Moon *et al.* showed that apoE2 exhibits more sialic acid content than apoE3,

with apoE4 being the least sialylated among the three isoforms [35]. Similarly, Mah *et al*

showed that different apoE isoforms exhibit altered affinities for heparin, with apoE4

having the highest affinity, followed by apoE3, and then by apoE2 [36]. This heparin-

binding apoE isoform trend is in close agreement with our previous results that showed

increased binding of desialylated apoE to heparin [28]. Negatively charged sialic acids

on the apoE glycan can repel the negatively charged heparin, reducing the binding of

glycosylated/sialylated apoE. Thus, sialylation of apoE may play an important role in

interactions with heparan sulfate proteoglycans (HSPG), which recognize apoE's LDLR

binding region and affect $A\beta$ cellular uptake [37], promoting $A\beta$ aggregation, glia cell

inflammation response, and the propagation of toxic tau species.

The role of apoE glycosylation in AD pathology has not been established.

However, glycosylation of other AD protein biomarkers has already been implicated.

The amyloid-β precursor protein (APP) is glycosylated with an O-linked N-

Acetylglucosamine-Galactose disaccharide (-GlcNAc-Gal) [38] and this glycosylation

may inhibit Aβ production [39]. Tau, which is hyperphosphorylated in AD and forms

neurofibrillary tangles [40], contains both N-linked and O-linked glycans: the N-

glycosylation may be needed to induce hyperphosphorylation [41], while the O-linked

glycosylation may act as a protective mechanism against hyperphosphorylation [42].

The enzyme glycoside hydrolase (O-GlcNAcase) removes the O-linked N-

acetylglucosamine from tau, and there are several active drug development programs

for inhibition of O-GlcNAcase to prevent the formation of neurofibrillary tangles [43].

However, the role and mechanism of apoE glycosylation in AD pathogenesis are likely

more complex than those of tau. The apoE glycan is larger (GalNac(-Sia)-Gal-Sia) than

the single GlcNac present on tau. Also, the presence of negatively charged sialic acids

can change the biophysical properties of apoE more profoundly than the addition of a

single GlcNAc on tau. It is very likely that the glycans on apoE (and their sialic acids)

can modulate apoE interactions with its binding partners in vivo. Because CSF apoE is

significantly more glycosylated than plasma apoE (and at two glycosylation sites in CSF

vs. one in plasma), it is reasonable to assume that the apoE glycosylation is functionally

more important in the brain. In one hypothesis, reduced glycosylation of apoE in brain

could lead to reduced binding to Aβ and reduced ability to remove deposited Aβ

plaques. In support of this hypothesis, mutant apoE3 with removed glycan attachment

site exhibited reduced binding to $A\beta_{1-42}$, and binding of fully glycosylated apoE with

sialidase-removed sialic acids to $A\beta_{1-42}$ was completely abolished [20]. Studies of $A\beta$

have shown that binding to sialic acids reduces $A\beta$ cell toxicity [44-46]. Furthermore,

Lennol *et al.* recently observed that a less-sialylated form of apoE is present in higher

proportion in AD subjects compared to controls [47]. In contrast, increased apoE binding

to $A\beta$ may decrease its clearance in mice [48]. Thus, less glycosylated apoE4 may

increase $A\beta$ accumulation due to reduced clearing. Then this in turn may increase tau

phosphorylation. Indeed, increased tau load in humans is related to interaction between

apoE4 and $A\beta$ [49].

ApoE interactions or binding to tau [50], LRP1 [51], ABCA1 [52] and TREM2 [53]

have already been demonstrated, but the role of the apoE glycan in these interactions is

unknown. Of particular interest is the C-terminal region of apoE which contains the

secondary glycosylation site at Ser290 (with possible sites also at Ther289 and Ser

296) [14, 26]. The C-terminal region of apoE presents a large exposed hydrophobic

surface that initiates interactions with lipids, HSPG, and beta amyloid peptides [54],

interactions which are most likely modulated by the attached glycan. The addition of

glycans at this site may also increase the apoE solubility. Similar to the interaction

between $A\beta$ and apoE, changes in apoE binding to tau may directly or indirectly change

tau dynamics. For example, glycosylation can further weaken apoE's affinity for the

microtubule-binding repeat region of tau, which is thought to be involved in the self-

assembly of tau aggregates. ApoE3 is known to bind this region, likely helping to

prevent tau aggregation and spreading [49]. Finally, N-glycosylation of tau is observed

in the AD brain. Glycosylation of both tau and apoE may share some enzymes. If so,

tau increasing in quantity in the AD brain may sequester these enzymes and prevent

the proper glycosylation of apoE4. Or inversely apoE4 may hinder the function of these

enzyme(s) reducing both tau and apoE glycosylation [55, 56].

We observed that apoE4 glycosylation, and less so apoE3 glycosylation, were

associated with lower levels of tau pathology biomarkers. This finding is particularly

significant given that the influence of *APOE* genotype on tau pathology is genotype-

dependent [57]. The presence of the *APOE4* allele amplifies the effects of amyloid

pathology on tau [49, 58, 59] and *APOE4* carriers have been shown to exhibit increased

tau pathology biomarkers at early stages of the disease [57]. Building on these

observations, we demonstrate for the first time that apoE4 glycosylation, but not apoE3

glycosylation, is negatively associated with tau pathology biomarkers, particularly in

APOEε4/ε4 carriers at early stages of AD. This effect also highlights the need to

investigate the impact of apoE glycosylation on AD pathology in an APOE genotype-

dependent manner. Although further mechanistic studies are needed to elucidate this

effect, we propose that the post-translational addition of glycans to apoE4 increases its

affinity for tau, thereby facilitating its clearance in the brain.

The study has some limitations that include the small size of samples in each of

the four clinical groups, and the fact that the CSF and plasma samples were not

matched (obtained from the same individuals). The selected ADNI samples did not

represent diverse individuals or individuals with low educational backgrounds as

education has an important role on cognitive performance. Results presented in this

manuscript, need to be replicated and validated in larger, more diverse samples.

Furthermore, the three AD biomarkers were not measured in plasma samples, thus the

plasma glycosylation data was only associated with CSF biomarker data for the same

individuals at the same time points. Overall, these results are novel and point to a

potential protective role of apoE4 glycosylation on brain tau pathology that merit further

mechanistic studies.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded in part by the National Institutes of Health/National Institute on

Aging (NIH/NIA), RF1AG076124, R01AG055770, R01AG067063, R01AG054434,

R21AG056518, and P30AG066530 to H.N.Y.; the Alzheimer's Drug Discovery

Foundation (ADDF) (GC-201711–2014197 to H.N.Y.), and donations from the Vranos

and Tiny Foundations and Ms. Lynne Nauss to H.N.Y. M.S.R (AARFD-24-1313939) is

supported by the Alzheimer's Association Research Fellowship. T.A.P is supported by

the NIH (#R01AG075336 and #R01AG073267) and the Alzheimer's Association

(#AACSF-20-648075). Data collection and sharing for this project was funded by the

Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative (ADNI) (National Institutes of Health Grant

U01 AG024904) and DOD ADNI (Department of Defense award number W81XWH-12-

2-0012). ADNI is funded by the National Institute on Aging, the National Institute of

Biomedical Imaging and Bioengineering, and through generous contributions from the

following: AbbVie, Alzheimer's Association; Alzheimer's Drug Discovery Foundation;

Araclon Biotech; BioClinica, Inc.; Biogen; Bristol-Myers Squibb Company; CereSpir,

Inc.; Cogstate; Eisai Inc.; Elan Pharmaceuticals, Inc.; Eli Lilly and Company;

EuroImmun; F. Hoffmann-La Roche Ltd and its affiliated company Genentech, Inc.;

Fujirebio; GE

Conflict of Interest

Dobrin Nedelkov is the President of Isoformix. All other authors of have no conflict of

interest.

Author Contributions

D.N. analyzed the samples and wrote the manuscript, Z.E.T. analyzed data and wrote

the manuscript, M.S.R. analyzed data and reviewed the manuscript, S.D.H. helped

design sample selection, I.S. provided analysis codes and study design, W.J.M.

supervised the data analysis, T.A.P. reviewed the manuscript, H.N.Y. designed the

study, obtained ADNI approvals, and wrote the manuscript.

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1. *ApoE glycosylation percentage by isoform (APOE2, APOE3, and APOE4).* **a)**
CSF total apoE glycosylation, **b)** CSF secondary apoE glycosylation, and **c)** Plasma
apoE glycosylation. Groups were compared using ANOVA.

Fig. 2. *CSF apoE secondary glycosylation at baseline in CN and LMCI groups, and in*
non-progressors and progressors. Independent two-sample t-tests were performed to
compare group differences in CSF apoE secondary glycosylation.

Fig. 3. *Baseline association of CSF total apoE glycosylation with CSF t-tau, p-tau181,*
$A\beta_{1-42}$, and RAVLT % forgetting. Associations between apoE glycosylation and CSF AD
biomarkers at baseline (t-tau, n = 174; p-tau181, n =; $A\beta_{1-42}$, n =; RAVLT, n = 178) at
baseline were examined using multiple linear regression models adjusted by age, sex,
race, education, APOE4 genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig 4. *Baseline association of CSF total apoE3 and apoE4 glycosylation with CSF t-tau,*
p-tau181. Association of CSF apoE3 (A) and apoE4 (B) glycosylation with t-tau, and
CSF apoE3 (C) and apoE4 (D) glycosylation with p-tau 181 levels in the CSF. The

multiple linear regression models were adjusted by age, sex, race, education, *APOE*4

genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 5. *Longitudinal association of CSF total apoE glycosylation with CSF t-tau, p-*

tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and RAVLT % forgetting. ApoE glycosylation levels from the cohort (n =

181) were categorized into tertiles based on quantity (pg/mL). The associations

between CSF apoE glycosylation tertiles and CSF AD biomarkers were examined using

linear mixed effects models adjusted for age, sex, race, education, *APOE*4 genotype,

clinical diagnosis, study site, and participant ID for repeated measures.

Table 1. Study Cohort's Demographic and Clinical Characteristics

Fig. 1 Supplement. *ApoE total glycosylation in plasma and CSF.*

Fig. 2 Supplement. *Baseline association of CSF secondary apoE glycosylation with*

CSF t-tau, p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and RAVLT % forgetting. Associations between apoE

glycosylation and CSF AD biomarkers at baseline (n = 174 for t-tau, p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$,

and n = 178 for RAVLT) at baseline were examined using multiple linear regression

models adjusted by age, sex, race, education, APOE4 genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 3 Supplement. *Baseline association of plasma apoE glycosylation with CSF t-tau,*

p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and RAVLT. Associations between plasma apoE glycosylation and

CSF AD biomarkers at baseline (n = 174 for t-tau, p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and n = 178 for

RAVLT) were examined using multiple linear regression modeling that adjusted for age,

sex, race, education, *APOE*4 genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 4 Supplement. *Baseline association of CSF apoE3 and apoE4 total glycosylation*

with CSF t-tau and p-tau181 in homozygous individuals. (A) Association of CSF apoE3

glycosylation with t-tau in *APOEε3/ε3* carriers. (B) Association of CSF apoE4

glycosylation with t-tau in *APOEε4/ε4* carriers. (C) Association of CSF apoE3

glycosylation with p-tau 181 in *APOEε3/ε3* carriers. (D) Association of CSF apoE4

glycosylation with p-tau 181 in *APOEε4/ε4* carriers. The multiple linear regression

models were adjusted by age, sex, race, education, and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 5 Supplement. *Baseline association of CSF apoE3 and apoE4 secondary*

glycosylation with CSF t-tau, p-tau181. Association of CSF apoE3 (A) and apoE4 (B)

secondary glycosylation with t-tau, and CSF apoE3 (C) and apoE4 (D) secondary

glycosylation with p-tau 181 levels in the CSF. The multiple linear regression models

were adjusted by age, sex, race, education, *APOE*4 genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 6 Supplement. *Baseline association of CSF apoE3 and apoE4 secondary*

glycosylation with CSF t-tau, p-tau181 in homozygous individuals. (A) Association of

CSF apoE3 glycosylation with t-tau in *APOEε3/ε3* carriers. (B) Association of CSF

apoE4 glycosylation with t-tau in *APOEε4/ε4* carriers. (C) Association of CSF apoE3

glycosylation with p-tau 181 in *APOEε3/ε3* carriers. (D) Association of CSF apoE4

glycosylation with p-tau 181 in *APOEε4/ε4* carriers. The multiple linear regression

models were adjusted by age, sex, race, education, and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 7 Supplement. *Baseline association of plasma total apoE3 and apoE4*

glycosylation with CSF t-tau, p-tau181. Association of plasma apoE3 (A) and apoE4 (B)

glycosylation with t-tau in the CSF, and plasma apoE3 (C) and apoE4 (D) glycosylation

with p-tau 181 levels in the CSF. The multiple linear regression models were adjusted

by age, sex, race, education, *APOE*4 genotype and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 8 Supplement. *Baseline association of plasma apoE3 and apoE4 glycosylation*

with CSF t-tau, p-tau181 in in homozygous individuals. (A) Association of plasma apoE3

glycosylation with CSF t-tau in *APOE*ε3/ε3 carriers. (B) Association of plasma apoE4

glycosylation with CSF t-tau in *APOE*ε4/ε4 carriers. (C) Association of plasma apoE3

glycosylation with CSF p-tau 181 in *APOE*ε3/ε3 carriers. (D) Association of plasma

apoE4 glycosylation with CSF p-tau 181 in *APOE*ε4/ε4 carriers. The multiple linear

regression models were adjusted by age, sex, race, education, and clinical diagnosis.

Fig. 9 Supplement. *Longitudinal association of CSF secondary apoE glycosylation with*

CSF t-tau, p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and RAVLT % forgetting. ApoE glycosylation levels from

the cohort (n = 181) were categorized into tertiles based on quantity (pg/mL). The

associations between CSF apoE glycosylation tertiles and CSF AD biomarkers were

examined using linear mixed effects models adjusted for age, sex, race, education,

*APOE*4 genotype, clinical diagnosis, study site, and participant ID for repeated

measures.

Fig. 10 Supplement. *Longitudinal association of plasma apoE glycosylation with CSF*

t-tau, p-tau181, Aβ$_{1-42}$, and RAVLT % forgetting. ApoE glycosylation levels from the

cohort (n = 179) were categorized into tertiles based on quantity (pg/mL). The

associations between plasma apoE glycosylation tertiles and CSF AD biomarkers were

examined using linear mixed effects modeling that adjusted for age, sex, race,

education, *APOE*4 genotype, clinical diagnosis, study site, and participant ID for

repeated measures.

Table 1. Cohort characteristics					
	Whole Cohort	**Cognitively Normal Non-Progressors**	**Cognitively Normal Progressors**	**Mild Cognitive Impairment Non-Progressors**	**Mild Cognitive Impairment Progressors**
N (at baseline)	181	41	43	48	49
Sex (N, % Male)	103 (56.9%)	22 (53.7%)	20 (46.5%)	31 (64.6%)	30 (61.2%)
Age (Mean ± SD)	73.3 ± 6.4	75.0 ± 5.6	74.8 ± 4.6	71.7 ± 6.9	72.3 ± 7.0
Years of Education (Mean ± SD)	16.2 ± 2.7	15.6 ± 2.8	16.3 ± 2.8	16.4 ± 2.8	16.0 ± 2.7
Race (N, %)					
Asian/Pacific Islander	10 (9.9%)	3 (7.3%)	1 (2.3%)	3 (6.3%)	3 (6.1%)
Caucasian	170 (93.9%)	38 (92.7%)	42 (97.7%)	45 (93.8%)	45 (91.8%)
Other/Unknown	1 (0.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.0%)
APOE Genotype (N, %)					
E2/E3	12 (6.6%)	4 (9.8%)	3 (7.0%)	3 (6.3%)	2 (4.1%)
E3/E3	82 (45.3%)	17 (41.5%)	21 (48.8%)	22 (45.8%)	22 (44.9%)

E3/E4	56 (30.9%)	15 (36.6%)	14 (32.6%)	14 (29.2%)	13 (26.5%)
E4/E4	31 (17.1%)	5 (12.2%)	5 (11.6%)	9 (18.8%)	12 (24.5%)
Clinical Dementia Rating Score (N, %)					
0-0.5	102 (56.4%)	41 (100%)	43 (100%)	9 (18.8%)	9 (18.4%)
1-1.5	51 (28.2%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	24 (50.0%)	27 (55.1%)
2-2.5	19 (10.5%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	10 (20.8%)	9 (18.4%)
3+	9 (5.0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (10.4%)	4 (8.2%)
CSF Biomarkers (Mean ± SD)					
Aβ1-42 (pg/mL)	980.1 ± 462.8	1089.9 ± 443.6	1058.2 ± 494.6	915.9 ± 483.0	869.4 ± 404.3
Total tau (pg/mL)	287.1 ± 113.2	268.8 ± 78.7	297.7 ± 108.7	277.7 ± 97.1	307.6 ± 149.9
p-tau181 (pg/mL)	27.4 ± 12.5	25.2 ± 8.7	28.9 ± 12.4	26.3 ± 10.5	29.6 ± 16.5