

# Amyloid $\beta$ Peptide-(1–42) Induces Internalization and Degradation of $\beta_2$ Adrenergic Receptors in Prefrontal Cortical Neurons<sup>\*[5]</sup>

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Emerging evidence indicates that amyloid  $\beta$  peptide ( $A\beta$ ) initially induces subtle alterations in synaptic function in Alzheimer disease. We have recently shown that  $A\beta$  binds to  $\beta_2$  adrenergic receptor ( $\beta_2AR$ ) and activates protein kinase A (PKA) signaling for glutamatergic regulation of synaptic activities. Here we show that in the cerebrums of mice expressing human familial mutant presenilin 1 and amyloid precursor protein genes, the levels of  $\beta_2AR$  are drastically reduced. Moreover,  $A\beta$  induces internalization of transfected human  $\beta_2AR$  in fibroblasts and endogenous  $\beta_2AR$  in primary prefrontal cortical neurons. In fibroblasts,  $A\beta$  treatment also induces transportation of  $\beta_2AR$  into lysosome, and prolonged  $A\beta$  treatment causes  $\beta_2AR$  degradation. The  $A\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2AR$  internalization requires the N terminus of the receptor containing the peptide binding sites and phosphorylation of  $\beta_2AR$  by G protein-coupled receptor kinase, not by PKA. However, the G protein-coupled receptor kinase phosphorylation of  $\beta_2AR$  and the receptor internalization are much slower than that induced by  $\beta AR$  agonist isoproterenol. The  $A\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2AR$  internalization is also dependent on adaptor protein arrestin 3 and GTPase dynamin, but not arrestin 2. Functionally, pretreatment of primary prefrontal cortical neurons with  $A\beta$  induces desensitization of  $\beta_2AR$ , which leads to attenuated response to subsequent stimulation with isoproterenol, including decreased cAMP levels, PKA activities, PKA phosphorylation of serine 845 on  $\alpha$ -amino-2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-3-oxo-4-isoxazolepropanoic acid (AMPA) receptor subunit 1 (GluR1), and AMPA receptor-mediated miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents. This study indicates that  $A\beta$  induces  $\beta_2AR$  internalization and degradation leading to impairment of adrenergic and glutamatergic activities.

Alzheimer disease (AD)<sup>3</sup> is a progressive neurodegenerative disorder characterized by extracellular amyloid plaques (1).

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[5] The on-line version of this article (available at <http://www.jbc.org>) contains supplemental Figs. 1–3.

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<sup>3</sup> The abbreviations used are: AD, Alzheimer disease;  $A\beta$ , amyloid  $\beta$  peptide;  $\beta_2AR$ ,  $\beta_2$  adrenergic receptor; MEF, mouse embryonic fibroblast; mEPSC,

Mounting evidence suggests that in the early phase of AD, memory loss is due to synaptic malfunction caused by diffusible amyloid  $\beta$  peptide ( $A\beta$ ), before neuronal degeneration (2). In supporting this notion, we have recently shown that  $A\beta$  interacts with  $\beta_2$  adrenergic receptors ( $\beta_2AR$ ) in the central noradrenergic system to regulate synaptic functions in prefrontal cortical (PFC) neurons (3).

The central noradrenergic system is thought to determine the global orientation of the brain concerning events in the external world and within the viscera (4). It plays a critical role in arousal, which is important in regulating consciousness, attention, and information processing and is crucial for promoting certain behaviors such as mobility, learning, and pursuit of food (5).  $\beta AR$ s, an integral part of central noradrenergic system, belong to G protein-coupled receptors (6). In the brain,  $\beta AR$  is widely distributed in different regions, including the frontal, parietal, piriform, and retrosplenial cortices, medial septal nuclei, olfactory tubercle, midbrain, striatum, hippocampus, and thalamic nuclei (7), regulating working memory and other basic brain functions (3, 8, 9). Recent studies have shown that polymorphism of  $\beta_2AR$  contributes to sporadic late-onset AD (10, 11). During early AD pathogenesis, the central noradrenergic system undergoes substantial changes in response to the degeneration of its main site, the locus ceruleus (LC) (12), and decreased norepinephrine levels (13); however, the levels of adrenergic receptors are not generally increased due to the compensatory mechanism. In fact, a decrease in  $\beta_2AR$  levels has been observed in different areas of AD brain (14), and  $\beta AR$  response is also decreased in fibroblasts isolated from AD patients (15).

We have recently shown that  $A\beta$  has a binding capacity to  $\beta_2AR$  that requires the N terminus of the receptor (3). Acute treatment with  $A\beta$  initiates signaling transduction via  $\beta_2AR$  as an allosteric partial agonist (3, 16, 17).  $A\beta$  binding does not interfere with the binding of catecholamines to the orthosteric binding sites within the receptor transmembrane helices (3). In recent years studies have shown that  $\beta_2AR$  ligands have signal-

miniature excitatory postsynaptic current; AKAR2.2, A-kinase activity reporter; LC, locus ceruleus; GRK, G-protein coupled receptor C terminal; PFC, prefrontal cortex;  $\beta ARKct$ ,  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor kinase; ARR, arrestin; CFI, cytosolic fluorescence intensity; MFI, membrane fluorescence intensity; PS1, presenilin 1; APP, amyloid precursor protein; Con, control; Tricine, *N*-[2-hydroxy-1,1-bis(hydroxymethyl)ethyl]glycine; ANOVA, analysis of variance;  $\beta_1NT$ , N terminus of  $\beta_1AR$ .

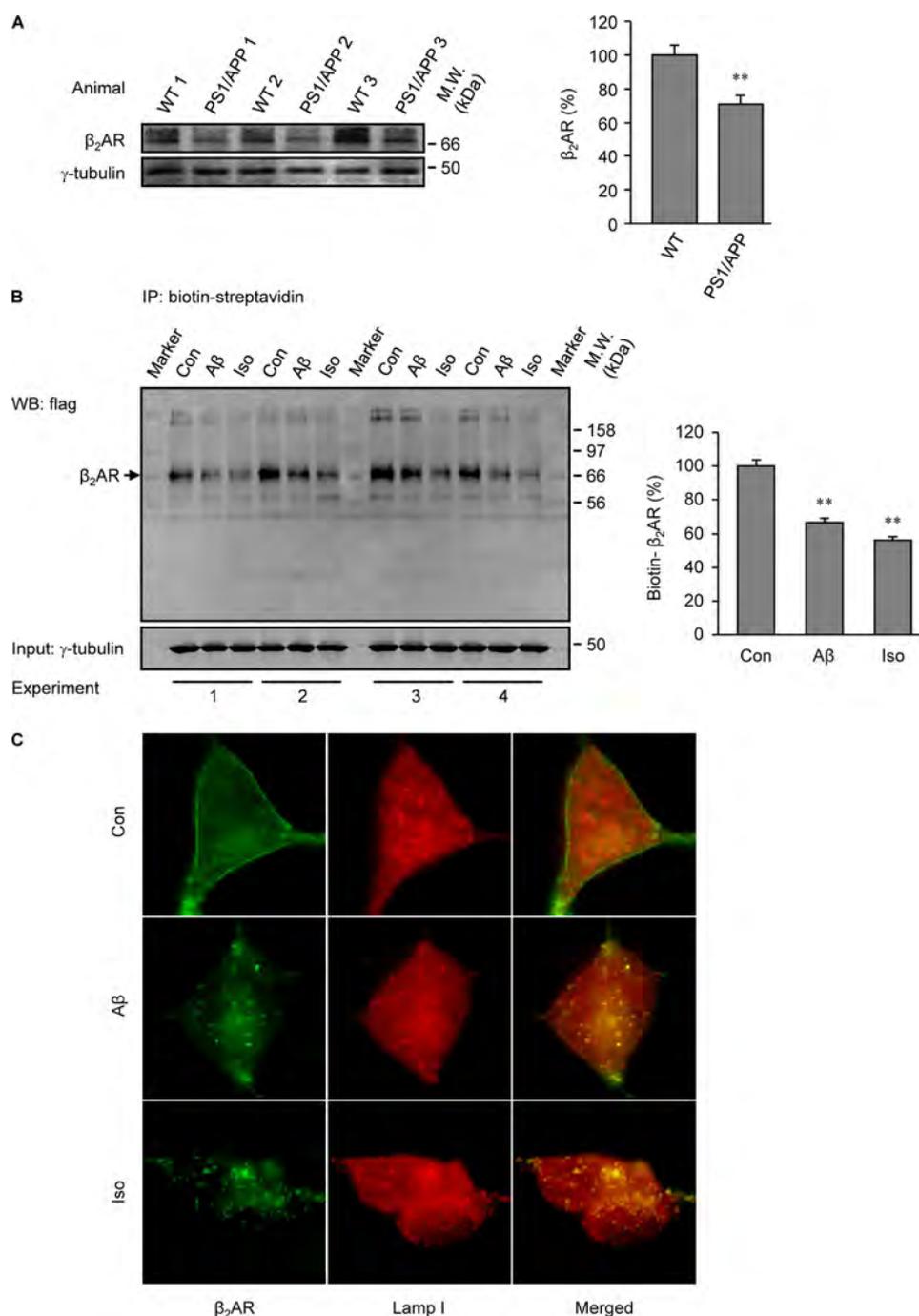


FIGURE 1. **A $\beta$  induces  $\beta_2$ AR degradation in vivo and in vitro.** *A*, the endogenous  $\beta_2$ AR in cerebral tissues from wild type (WT) and presenilin 1/amyloid precursor protein (PS1/APP) double transgenic mice were examined with Western blot and quantified.  $n = 6$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ , versus control by unpaired  $t$  test. IP, immunoprecipitate. *B*, HEK293 cells expressing FLAG-tagged human  $\beta_2$ AR were stimulated with either A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M) for 4 h. The remaining biotin-labeled  $\beta_2$ ARs were isolated and blotted, and the Western blots (WB) were quantified.  $n = 6$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA. *C*, HEK293 cells expressing FLAG- $\beta_2$ AR were stimulated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) for 40 min, and cells were costained with anti-FLAG and anti-Lamp I antibodies.

ing selectivity via inducing differential conformational changes and activation of specific signaling pathways (18–23). Because of the heterogeneous binding property, it is necessary to analyze the action of A $\beta$  on  $\beta_2$ AR trafficking and cell function. In addition, A $\beta$  is not catabolized as quickly as neurotransmitters at synapses, and the concentrations of the peptide are elevated in AD brains; therefore, persistent effects of A $\beta$  on  $\beta_2$ AR functions are of pertinence to AD pathology.

PKA, a signaling component downstream to  $\beta_2$ AR, promotes the function of AMPA receptors by phosphorylating AMPA receptor subunit 1 (GluR1) (24–26). AMPA receptors are ligand-gated ion channels and are one of major mediators of excitatory neurotransmission. We have shown that acute treatment with A $\beta$  increases  $\beta_2$ AR- and PKA-dependent phosphorylation of GluR1 and frequency and amplitude of miniature excitatory postsynaptic currents (mEPSCs) mediated by AMPA

## A $\beta$ induces $\beta_2$ AR Internalization

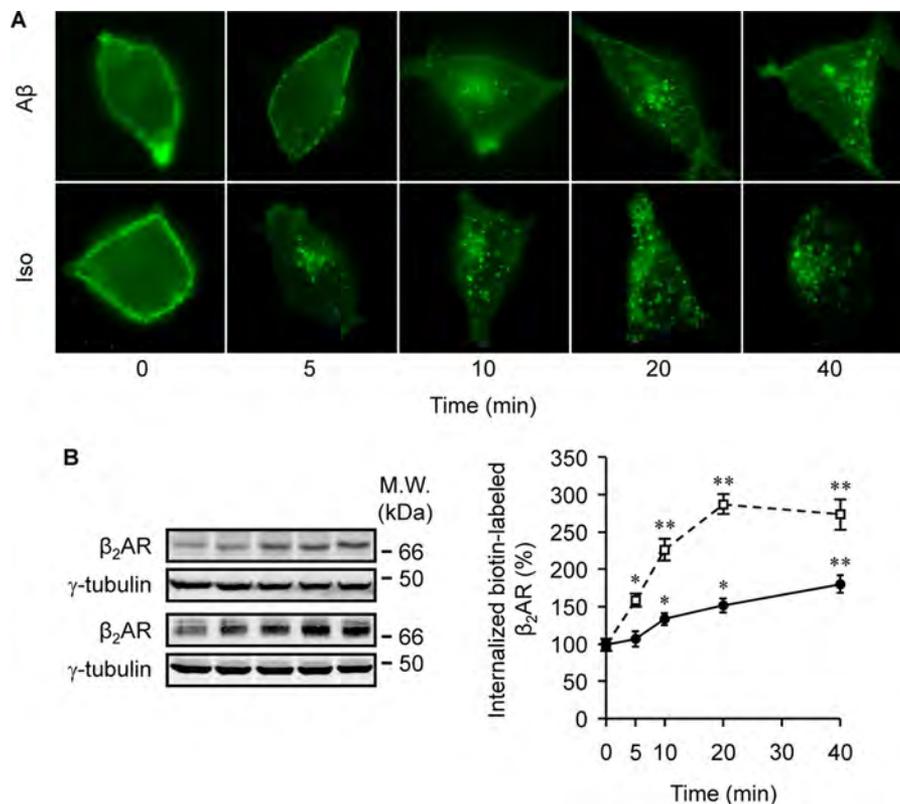


FIGURE 2. **A $\beta$  induces internalization of  $\beta_2$ AR in HEK293 cells.** *A*, effects of A $\beta$  or isoproterenol on  $\beta_2$ AR internalization are shown. Images show time-course effects of A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) and isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M) on  $\beta_2$ AR internalization. *B*, levels of internalized  $\beta_2$ AR after A $\beta$  or isoproterenol treatment were quantified by biotinylation method.  $n = 8$ ; \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by two-way ANOVA followed by the modified Tukey test for multiple comparisons.

receptors (3). Here we hypothesize that a persistent treatment with A $\beta$ , in contrast to its acute effects, may impair cell function by decreasing  $\beta_2$ AR agonist-induced phosphorylation of GluR1, which is modulated by a GluR1- $\beta_2$ AR complex (3, 26, 27). In this study a persistent treatment with A $\beta$  indeed induces  $\beta_2$ AR internalization and degradation leading to decreased mEPSCs mediated by AMPA receptors. Moreover, in AD animals,  $\beta_2$ AR levels in cerebral tissues are significantly reduced, indicating its implication in brain adrenergic and glutamatergic dysfunction in AD.

### EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

**Animals**—Wild type,  $\beta_1$ AR,  $\beta_2$ AR, both  $\beta_1$ AR and  $\beta_2$ AR gene-knock-out (KO), and presenilin 1/amyloid precursor protein (PS1/APP) transgenic mice were used (28, 29). PS1/APP-transgenic mice overexpress both the human PS1 gene harboring two familial AD mutations, M146L and L286V, and the APP gene (695) with Swedish (K670N, M671L), Florida (I716V), and London (V717I) familial AD mutations. Wild type and PS1/APP transgenic mice (7 months old) were used for analysis of endogenous  $\beta_2$ AR levels in the cerebrum. All animal experimental procedures were approved by the University of Illinois Animal Care and Use Committee.

**Cell Culture and A $\beta$  Treatment**—Newborn WT,  $\beta_1$ AR-KO,  $\beta_2$ AR-KO, and  $\beta_1/\beta_2$ AR-KO mice were used to isolate PFC neurons under a stereomicroscope (30). Isolated neurons were plated on poly-D-lysine-coated dishes at a density of  $1.0 \times 10^5$ – $10^6$  cells/ml in DMEM/F-12 (1:1) medium containing 10% FBS, 1% insulin-transferin-sodium selenite supplement, 25 ng/ml

nerve growth factor, 1 mM glutamine, 20 nM water-soluble progesterone, and 100 nM putrescine. The next day medium was changed to Neurobasal-A with B-27 supplement. Cytosine  $\beta$ -D-arabinofuranoside (2.5  $\mu$ M, Sigma) was added 3 days after plating. Neurons were cultured for 2–3 weeks before experiments. HEK293 cells, wild type mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs), and MEFs lacking either arrestin 2 (ARR2) or arrestin 3 (ARR3) gene were cultured in DMEM medium containing 10% FBS and antibiotics. A $\beta_{1-42}$  and amino acid sequence-inverted peptide A $\beta_{42-1}$  (Biopeptide) were dissolved at  $10^{-3}$  M in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) as previously described (31), which yields primarily monomers, dimers, and trimers with low levels of oligomers. Cells were treated with soluble A $\beta_{1-42}$  peptide as indicated. Our previous study shows that under these conditions A $\beta_{1-42}$  dimers are the primary species bound to human FLAG- $\beta_2$ AR expressed on the plasma membrane (3).

**cDNA Constructs**—Human FLAG- $\beta_2$ AR and human FLAG- $\beta_1$ AR are gifts from Dr. Randy Hall (Emory University, GA). The GRK3A mutant  $\beta_2$ AR lacking three GRK phosphorylation sites and the PKA4A mutant  $\beta_2$ AR lacking four PKA phosphorylation sites, GFP-ARR3 and V54D dominant negative GFP-ARR3, HA-dynamin, and K44E dominant negative HA-dynamin, and the C terminus of GRK2 (also named  $\beta$ -adrenergic receptor kinase C-terminal (BARKct)) were constructed as described previously (32–34).

**Immunofluorescence Microscopy**—FLAG-tagged wild type, GRK3A mutant, or PKA4A mutant  $\beta_2$ AR was expressed in HEK293 cells or MEFs by transfection or in freshly isolated PFC

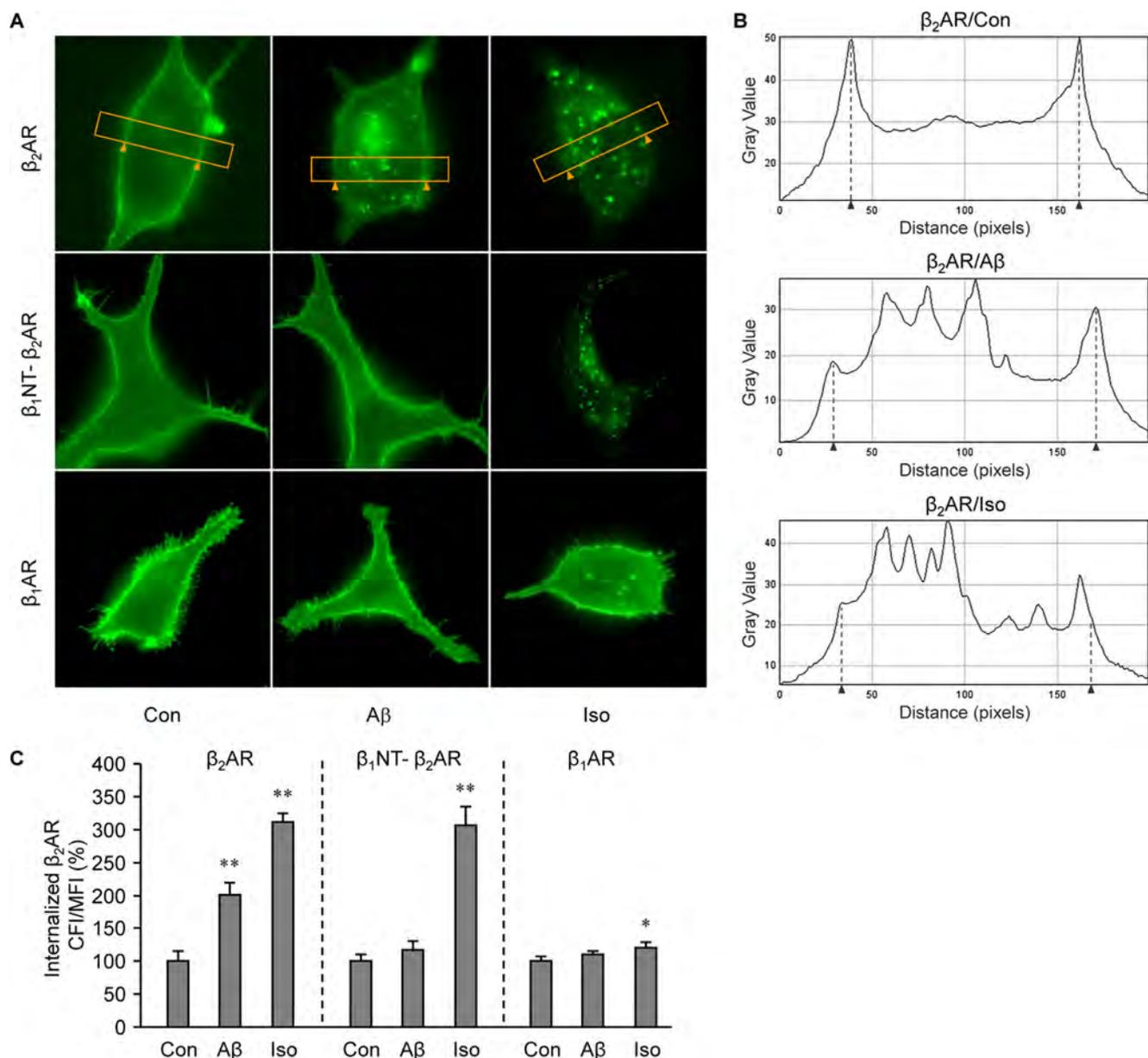


FIGURE 3.  $A\beta$  induces internalization of  $\beta_2AR$  but not  $\beta_1AR$  or chimeric  $\beta_1NT-\beta_2AR$ . *A*, shown is distribution of FLAG- $\beta_2AR$ , FLAG- $\beta_1AR$ , and FLAG- $\beta_1NT-\beta_2AR$ , in which the N terminus of the receptor was replaced by that of  $\beta_1AR$  in HEK293 cells after  $A\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M) treatment. *B*, shown are representative diagrams of fluorescence intensity in the selected regions of individual cells expressing FLAG- $\beta_2AR$ , indicated by the yellow frames in panel *A*; the cell membrane is indicated by arrows. *C*,  $A\beta$ -induced internalization of  $\beta_2AR$ ,  $\beta_1AR$ , or chimeric  $\beta_1NT-\beta_2AR$  was quantified with Fiji image-processing package.  $n = 16$ ; \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA.

neurons by virus infection at 100 multiplicity of infection. After a 2-day expression, cells were treated with drugs for detection with anti-FLAG M1 (Sigma) or anti- $\beta_2AR$  antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Wild type and K44E-mutant dynamin were detected with anti-HA antibody (Covance). Lysosomes were stained by anti-Lamp 1 antibody (BD Pharmingen). Alexa488- and Alexa594-conjugated secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) were used to reveal the primary antibodies. Wild type and V54D-mutant ARR3 and  $\beta ARKct$  were indicated by GFP fluorescence. Images were quantified with ImageJ-based Fiji open source image-processing package. Briefly, images were rotated to enable optimal selection of areas across the cell body. Plot profile analysis was applied to selected regions for measure of fluorescence intensity. Average of cytosolic fluorescence inten-

sity (CFI) of  $\beta_2AR$  was divided by that of membrane fluorescence intensity (MFI) for analysis of  $\beta_2AR$  internalization. The ratio of CFI/MFI after stimulation was normalized against the ratio of CFI/MFI at resting state.

**Receptor Degradation Assay**—After serum starvation, cell surface proteins were labeled with 300  $\mu\text{g/ml}$  biotin (Pierce) in PBS with calcium and magnesium containing 10 mM glucose (PBS/G) at 4 °C for 30 min. Free biotin was quenched with 100 mM glycine in PBS/G for 30 min followed by washing with ice-cold PBS/G. Cells were treated for 4 h with medicines replenished every 30 min. Cells were lysed in ice-cold lysis buffer (25 mM HEPES, pH 7.5 at 4 °C, 10% glycerol, 45 mM NaCl, 2 mM  $\text{Na}_3\text{VO}_4$ , 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 50 mM NaF, 1% Triton X-100, 8 mM  $\text{NaN}_3$ , and protease and phosphatase inhibitor

## A $\beta$ induces $\beta_2$ AR Internalization

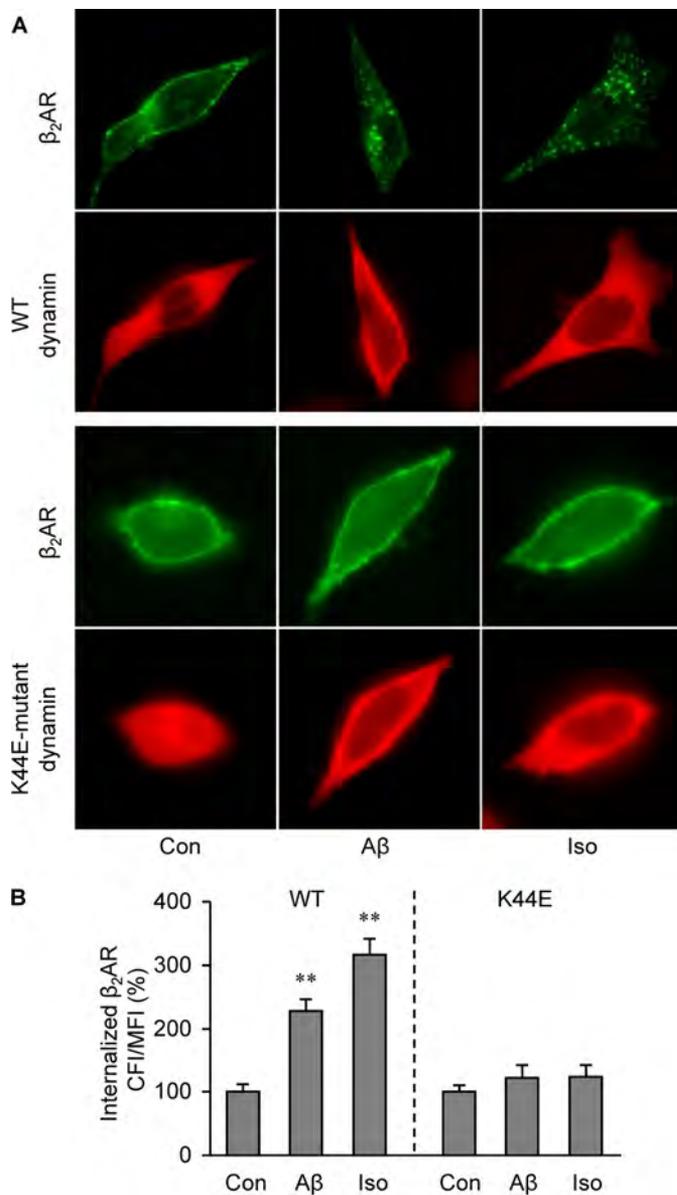
mixture) and homogenized using a Sonic Dismembrator 100 (Fisher). Streptavidin was added to 300- $\mu$ l samples with equivalent protein concentration to precipitate biotin-labeled proteins. Eluates from beads were resolved by SDS-PAGE for detection of biotin-labeled  $\beta_2$ AR.  $\gamma$ -Tubulin in supernatants was used as control.

**Biotin Receptor Internalization Assay**—Biotin labeling and quenching were the same as that of the degradation assay. After stimulation, residual surface biotin was stripped off with 50 mM Mesna in NT buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.2% BSA, 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.6) twice. The stripped cells were washed, lysed, and homogenized. Streptavidin was added to the samples to precipitate internalized biotin-labeled proteins. Eluates from beads were subjected to Western blot as mentioned above.

**APP Processing Assay**—Chinese hamster ovary (CHO) cells stably expressing APP cDNA containing the Val  $\rightarrow$  Phe mutation at residue 717 (CHO-7PA2) is a gift from Dr. Dennis J. Selkoe (Harvard Medical School Center for Neurologic Diseases). CHO-7PA2 cells were further transfected with human  $\beta_2$ AR cDNA in poly-D-lysine-coated dishes. Forty-eight hours after the transfection, the cells were starved for 2 h and treated for 4 h in serum-free media with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or together with CGP 20712A ( $10^{-5}$  M) and ICI 118551 ( $10^{-5}$  M), which were replenished every 30 min. The environment in the late endosomes and lysosomes is optimal for  $\gamma$ -secretase (35). For detection of APP processing to A $\beta$ , lysosomes were prepared using the method described previously (36) with adaptation (37, 38). The lysosomes were lysed in 5 mM HEPES, 10% glycerol, 50 mM CH<sub>3</sub>COONH<sub>4</sub>, 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, and protease inhibitors, pH 8.0. A $\beta$  in the lysates were immunoprecipitated (39), and samples eluted from sepharose beads were subjected to 16% Tris-Tricine SDS-PAGE. For detection of APP, samples were subjected to 8% Laemmli SDS-PAGE.

**Western Blotting**—Proteins transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Millipore) were blocked with 5% milk in blocking buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 100 mM NaCl, 25 mM NaF, 2 mM Na<sub>3</sub>VO<sub>4</sub>, 8 mM NaN<sub>3</sub>, and 0.1% Tween 20). Membranes were incubated with primary antibodies against A $\beta$  (Cell Signaling), APP (Sigma),  $\beta_2$ AR, GRK-specific phospho-355/356 of  $\beta_2$ AR (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), GluR1, and PKA-specific phospho-Ser-845 of GluR1 (Abcam) at 4°C overnight. After washing, membranes were incubated with secondary antibodies for detection with the Li-Cor system (Li-Cor). The optical density of the bands was analyzed with Fiji image-processing package.

**Fluorescence Resonance Energy Transfer (FRET) Recording**—PFC neurons were infected with viruses to express protein kinase A activity reporter (AKAR2.2) at 37°C for 24 h, then changed to virus-free medium and cultured for another 2 days. PKA activities were recorded as previously described (28, 40). Briefly, cells were rinsed and maintained in PBS/G for FRET recording. Cells were imaged on a Zeiss Axiovert 200M microscope with a 40 $\times$ /1.3NA oil-immersion objective lens and a cooled CCD camera. Dual emission ratio imaging was acquired with a 420DF20 excitation filter, a 450DRLP dichroic mirror, and two emission filters (475DF40 for cyan and 535DF25 for yellow). The acquisition was set with 200-ms exposure in both channels and 20-s elapses.



**FIGURE 4. A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization requires GTPase dynamin.** A, FLAG- $\beta_2$ AR was expressed together with either wild type or K44E dominant negative dynamin in HEK293 cells. Cells were stimulated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M) for 40 min, and the distribution of  $\beta_2$ AR was examined with immunofluorescence staining. B, the images of A $\beta$ -induced internalization of  $\beta_2$ AR in panel A were quantified.  $n = 16$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA.

Images in both channels were subjected to background subtraction, and ratios of yellow-to-cyan color were calculated at different time points. In some experiments PFC neurons were pretreated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) for 40 min, and neurons were then washed 3 times before administration of isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M).

**Whole-cell Recording in Cultured PFC Neurons**—The AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs in rat PFC cultures were recorded as described previously (41). The internal solution consisted of 130 mM cesium methanesulfonate, 10 mM CsCl, 4 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES, 1 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 5 mM EGTA, 2.2 mM QX-314, 12 mM phosphocreatine, 5 mM MgATP, 0.5 mM Na<sub>2</sub>GTP, 0.1 mM leupeptin, pH 7.2–7.3, 265–270 mosM. The external solution consisted of 127 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 12 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES, 1  $\mu$ M tetrodotoxin, 5  $\mu$ M bicucull-

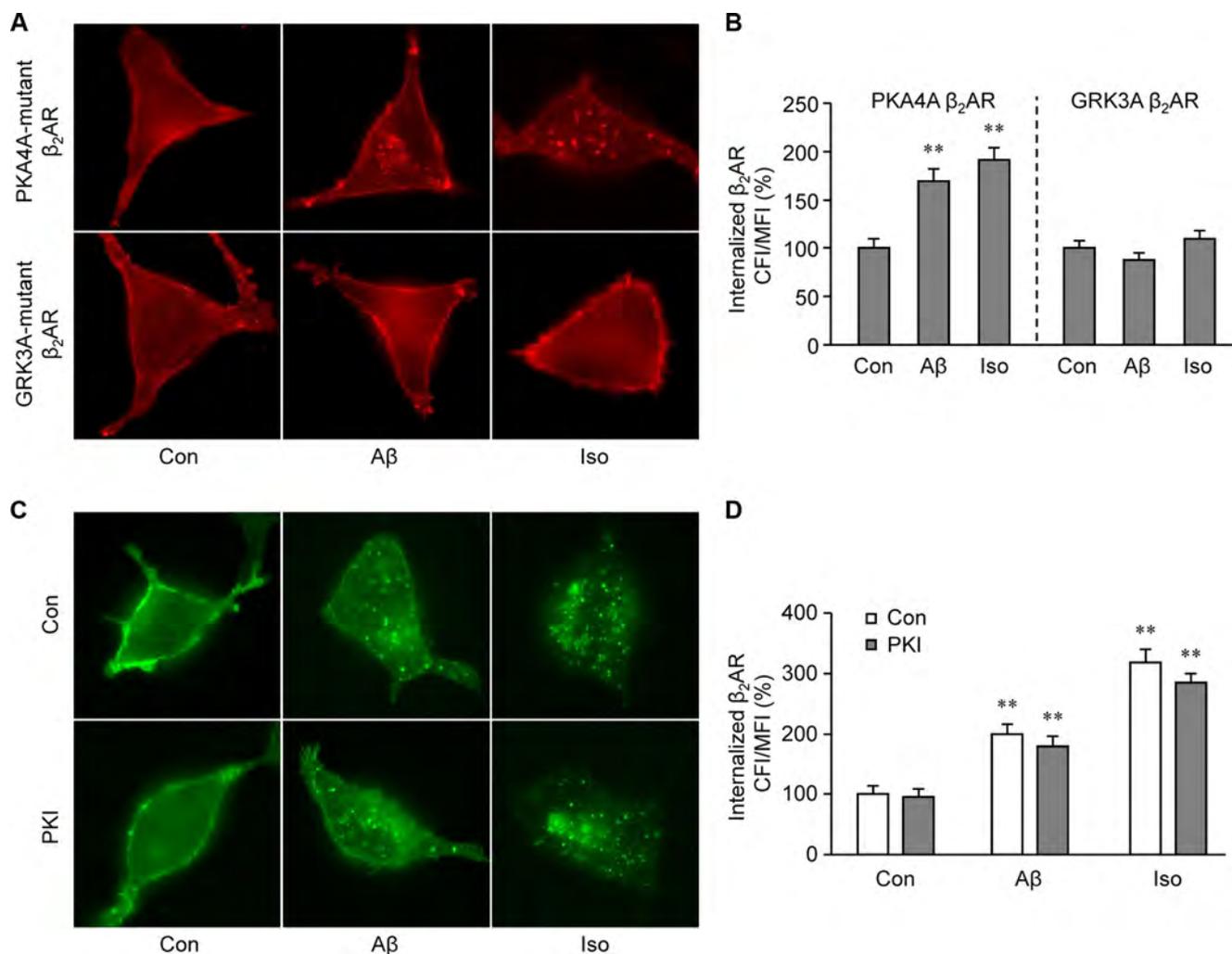


FIGURE 5. **GRK, not PKA, phosphorylation of  $\beta_2AR$  is required for  $A\beta$ -induced receptor internalization.** *A*, distribution of PKA and GRK phosphorylation site-mutant  $\beta_2AR$ s (PKA4A  $\beta_2AR$  and GRK3A  $\beta_2AR$ ) after stimulation with  $A\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol (*Iso*,  $10^{-7}$  M) for 40 min in HEK293 cells is shown. *B*, the images of  $A\beta$ -induced internalization of  $\beta_2AR$  in panel *A* were quantified.  $n = 16$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA. *C*, Effect of a membrane-permeable PKA inhibitor, myristoylated-PKI, on  $A\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2AR$  internalization. Cells were treated with  $A\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M), isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M), and PKI ( $10^{-5}$  M) for 40 min, and the distribution of the receptor was examined. *D*, the images of  $A\beta$ -induced internalization of  $\beta_2AR$  in panel *C* were quantified.  $n = 16$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA.

ine, pH 7.3–7.4, 300–305 mosM. Recording was conducted with a holding potential of  $-70$  mV in the presence of  $25 \mu M$  D-2-amino-5-phosphonovalerate to block NMDA receptor-mediated components of mEPSCs. Neurons were treated with 0.1% DMSO or  $A\beta_{1-42}$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) for 40 min followed by 3 times washing with 0.1% DMSO-containing media. Synaptic currents were analyzed with Mini Analysis Program (Synaptosoft, Leonia, NJ).

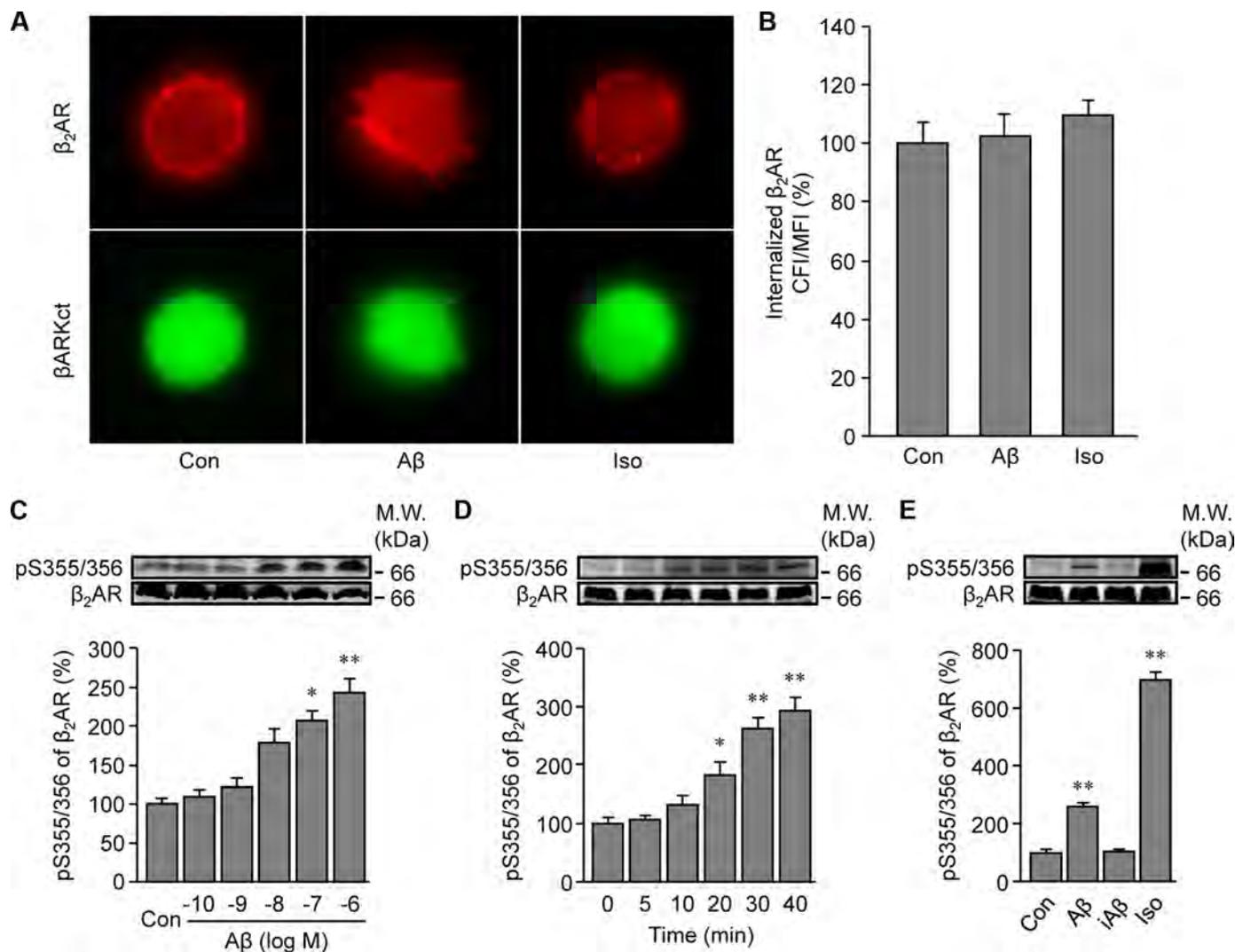
**Statistical Analyses**—Unpaired *t* tests and one- or two-way ANOVA were used to compare different groups with Prism software as indicated (Graphpad). Statistical comparisons of the amplitude and frequency of synaptic currents (mean  $\pm$  S.E.) were made using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. A *p* value less than 0.05 is considered significant.

## RESULTS

During the early development of AD, the central noradrenergic system undergoes substantial changes in response to the degeneration of its main site, the LC. Recent publications have shown that an acute treatment with  $A\beta$  initiates signal trans-

duction via  $\beta_2AR$  as an allosteric partial agonist (3, 16, 17). In this study we sought to understand the impact of a prolonged treatment with  $A\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) on protein levels and function of  $\beta_2AR$  *in vivo* and *in vitro*. We first examined  $\beta_2AR$  protein levels in the cerebrums of 7-month-old PS1/APP double transgenic mice. The  $\beta_2AR$  levels were significantly lower than those in wild type animals (Fig. 1A). In agreement, human  $\beta_2AR$  expressed in HEK293 cells underwent significant degradation after 4 h of treatment with  $A\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) (Fig. 1B). Accordingly, a 40-min stimulation of human  $\beta_2AR$  induced colocalization of the receptor with the lysosome marker Lamp 1 (Fig. 1C), supporting that  $\beta_2AR$  internalization and degradation occurs after a prolonged treatment with  $A\beta$ . We then set out to examine whether  $A\beta$  induces  $\beta_2AR$  internalization in HEK293 cells. As we expected, the peptide induced significant receptor internalization after a minimal 10-min stimulation (Fig. 2A). The observation was further confirmed with quantitative measurement of internalized receptors labeled with biotin on the cell surface. Cells expressing human  $\beta_2AR$  were labeled with biotin and then stimulated with  $A\beta$  or isoproterenol. Biotin remaining on the

## A $\beta$ induces $\beta_2$ AR Internalization



**FIGURE 6. A $\beta$  induces GRK-dependent phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR for internalization.** *A*, shown is the effect of  $\beta$ ARKct, a specific inhibitor of GRK2, on A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M)-induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization. *Iso*, isoproterenol. *B*, A $\beta$ -induced internalization of  $\beta_2$ AR in *panel A* was quantified.  $n = 16$ . *C* and *D*, effects of A $\beta$  on GRK-dependent phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR are shown. *C*, HEK293 cells expressing  $\beta_2$ AR were stimulated with different doses of A $\beta$  for 40 min. A $\beta$ -induced GRK-dependent  $\beta_2$ AR phosphorylation was examined and quantified. *D*, HEK293 cells expressing  $\beta_2$ AR were stimulated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) for different times. A $\beta$ -induced GRK-dependent  $\beta_2$ AR phosphorylation was examined and quantified. *E*, HEK293 cells expressing  $\beta_2$ AR were stimulated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M), inverted A $\beta$  (iA $\beta$ ,  $10^{-6}$  M), or isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M). A $\beta$ -induced GRK-dependent  $\beta_2$ AR phosphorylation was examined and quantified.  $n = 6$ . \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by one-way ANOVA.

cell surface was stripped, and the internalized and biotin-labeled receptors were precipitated and blotted with anti-FLAG antibody. The A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization displayed a time-dependent accumulation over 40 min of stimulation, which was slower and less robust than that induced by isoproterenol (Fig. 2*B*). In comparison to  $\beta_2$ AR, neither  $\beta_1$ AR nor the chimeric  $\beta_1$ NT- $\beta_2$ AR, in which the N terminus was replaced by that of  $\beta_1$ AR, showed internalization upon A $\beta$  treatment ( $10^{-6}$  M) (Fig. 3, *A* and *C*), consistent with the fact that they do not have binding capacity to A $\beta$  (3). As controls, both  $\beta_1$ AR and the chimeric  $\beta_1$ NT- $\beta_2$ AR displayed significant internalization upon isoproterenol stimulation (Fig. 3, *A* and *C*). Furthermore, we found that the  $\beta$ AR antagonist timolol ( $10^{-5}$  M) blocked  $\beta_2$ AR internalization induced by either A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) (supplemental Fig. 1).

We then examined mechanisms governing A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR trafficking. First, we examined whether  $\beta_2$ AR internaliza-

tion induced by A $\beta$  is dependent on dynamin GTPase activity. Overexpression of K44E dominant negative dynamin, but not wild type dynamin, almost completely inhibited  $\beta_2$ AR internalization in HEK293 cells under either A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) stimulation (Fig. 4, *A* and *B*). This suggests that these two ligands induce receptor internalization via similar endocytosis pathways. PKA and GRK can phosphorylate  $\beta_2$ AR at different sites, which are engaged in dynamin- and arrestin-dependent G protein-coupled receptor desensitization and trafficking. In order to know which kinase is involved in the A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization, PKA and GRK phosphorylation site-mutant  $\beta_2$ ARs, termed PKA4A  $\beta_2$ AR and GRK3A  $\beta_2$ AR respectively, were expressed in HEK293 cells. Immunofluorescence staining showed that mutant  $\beta_2$ ARs lacking PKA phosphorylation sites, not GRK phosphorylation sites, were internalized upon A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) treatment (Fig. 5, *A* and *B*). Inhibition of PKA activity by a specific inhibitor, PKI ( $10^{-5}$  M),

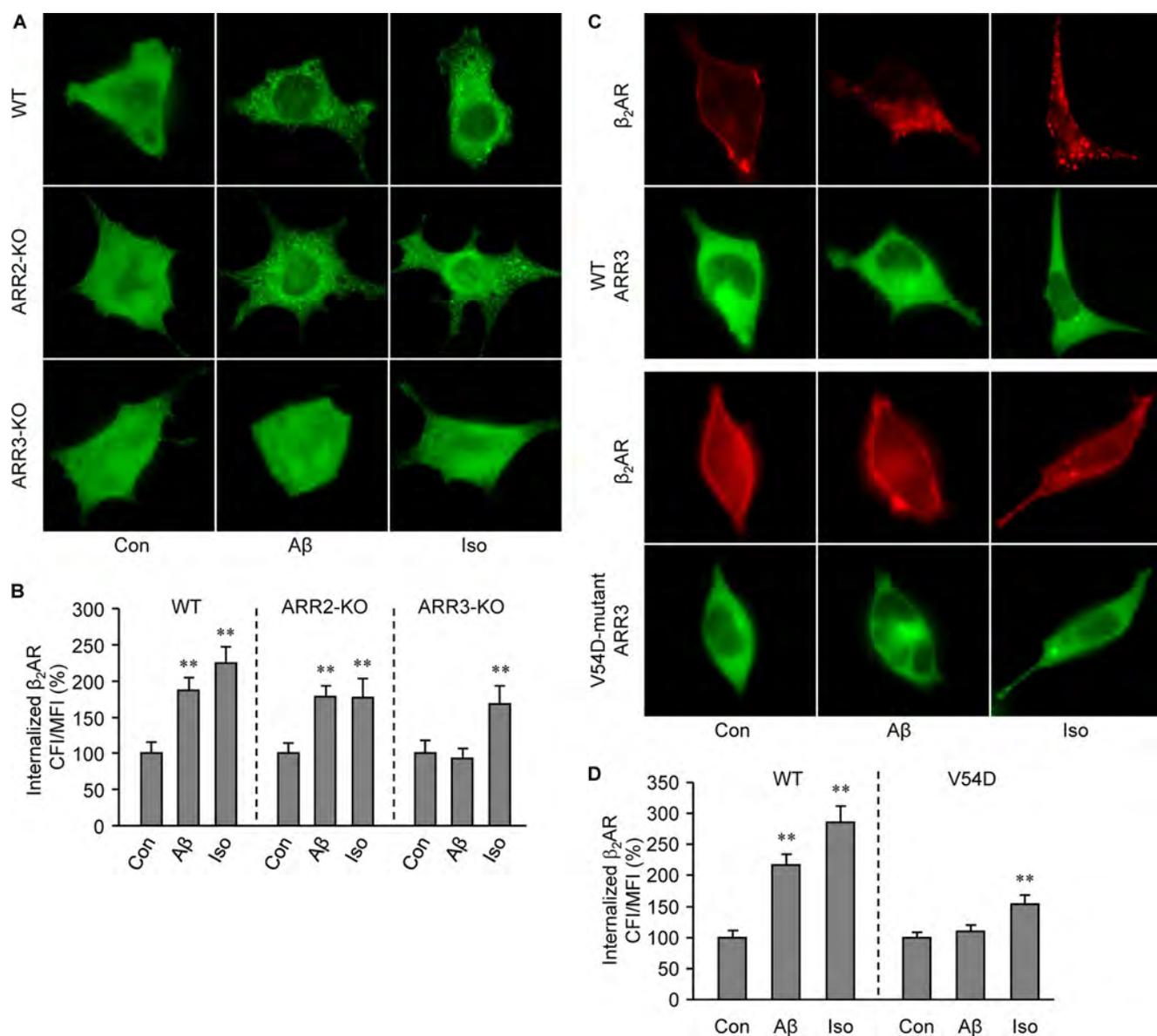


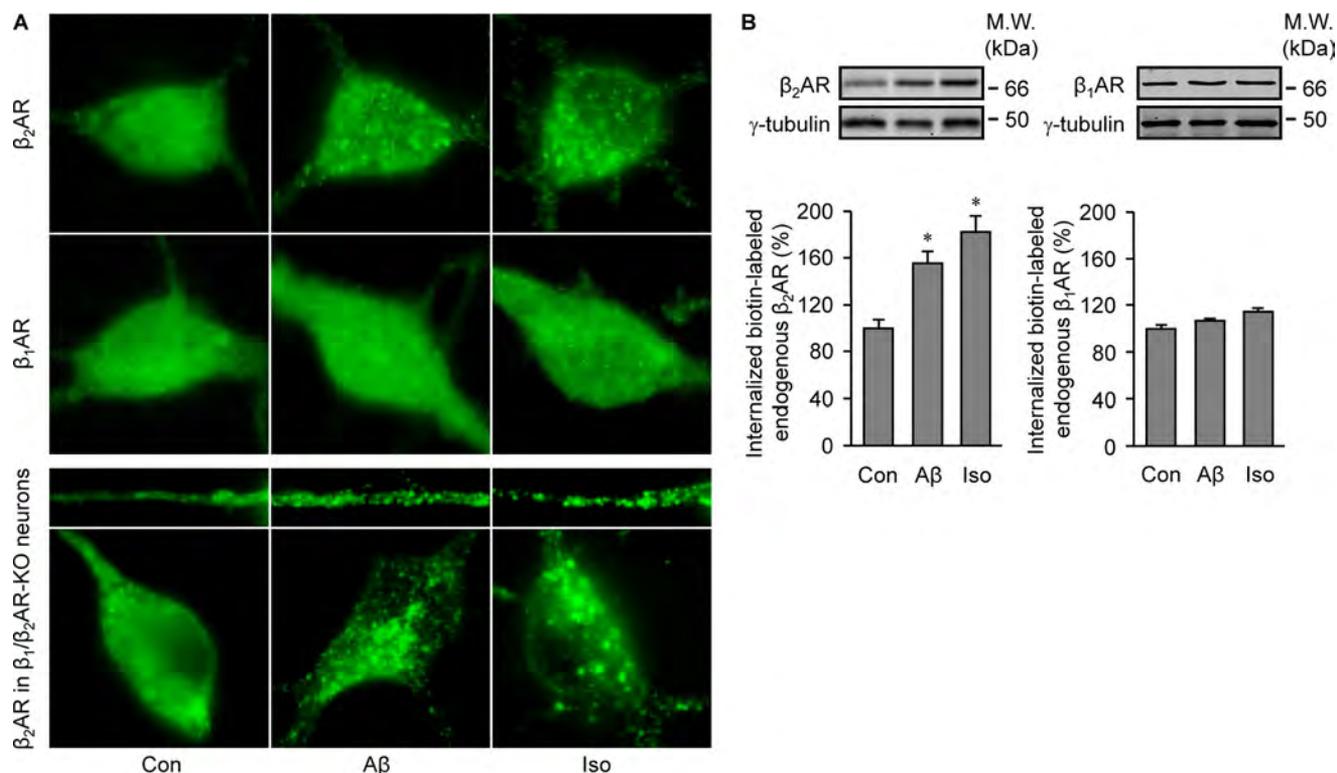
FIGURE 7. **Aβ-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization requires ARR3.** *A*, FLAG-β<sub>2</sub>AR was expressed in wild type, ARR2-KO, or ARR3-KO MEFs. Cells were stimulated with Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) or isoproterenol (Iso, 10<sup>-7</sup> M) for 40 min, and the distribution of β<sub>2</sub>AR was examined with immunofluorescence staining. *B*, the images of Aβ-induced internalization of β<sub>2</sub>AR in panel *A* were quantified. *n* = 16. \*\*, *p* < 0.01 versus control by one-way ANOVA. *C*, FLAG-β<sub>2</sub>AR was expressed together with either wild type ARR3 or V54D dominant negative ARR3 in HEK293 cells. Cells were stimulated with Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) or isoproterenol (10<sup>-7</sup> M) for 40 min, and the distribution of β<sub>2</sub>AR was examined with immunofluorescence staining. *D*, the images of Aβ-induced internalization of β<sub>2</sub>AR in panel *C* were quantified. *n* = 16. \*\*, *p* < 0.01 versus control by one-way ANOVA.

did not block the Aβ-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization (Fig. 5, *C* and *D*). βARKct, which inhibits GRK2-mediated phosphorylation of β<sub>2</sub>AR, blocked the Aβ-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization (Fig. 6, *A* and *B*). Consistently, Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M), but not amino sequence-inverted Aβ (*i*Aβ, 10<sup>-6</sup> M), induced a dose- and time-dependent increase in GRK-dependent phosphorylation of β<sub>2</sub>AR (Fig. 6, *C–E*). The GRK-mediated phosphorylation of β<sub>2</sub>AR occurred at slower kinetics, consistent with the observed slower internalization rate induced by Aβ. Next, ARR2 and ARR3 are non-visual arrestins and are involved in G protein-coupled receptor endocytosis. We found that Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) and isoproterenol (10<sup>-7</sup> M) induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization in wild type and ARR2-deficient MEF cells but not in ARR3-deficient cells (Fig. 7, *A* and *B*). Moreover, Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization in HEK293 cells expressing wild type ARR3 but

not V54D dominant negative ARR3 (Fig. 7, *C* and *D*). Together, these data indicate that Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) induces GRK2-, ARR3- and dynamin-dependent internalization, although the peptide effects are slower and less potent than those of isoproterenol (10<sup>-7</sup> M). Furthermore, we found that Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) treatment increases the processing of APP to yield Aβ (supplemental Fig. 2), consistent with the recent study showing that agonist-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR endocytosis enhances γ-secretase activity for APP processing in lysosomes (35).

To know whether the Aβ-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization impairs neuronal function, we isolated PFC neurons from neonatal mice. A 40-min treatment with Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M) induced significant internalization of endogenous β<sub>2</sub>AR, not β<sub>1</sub>AR (Fig. 8*A*), which was quantified by the biotinylation method (Fig. 8*B*). Aβ (10<sup>-6</sup> M)-induced β<sub>2</sub>AR internalization was even more evi-

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**FIGURE 8. A $\beta$  induces internalization of endogenous  $\beta_2$ AR and transfected human  $\beta_2$ AR, not  $\beta_1$ AR in PFC neurons.** A, shown is distribution of endogenous  $\beta_2$ AR or  $\beta_1$ AR in wild type PFC neurons and overexpressed FLAG- $\beta_2$ AR in  $\beta_1/\beta_2$ AR-KO PFC neurons after 40 min of treatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) or isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M). B, A $\beta$ -induced internalization of endogenous  $\beta_2$ AR in PFC neurons was quantified by cell surface biotinylation.  $n = 6$ . \*,  $p < 0.05$  versus control by one-way ANOVA.

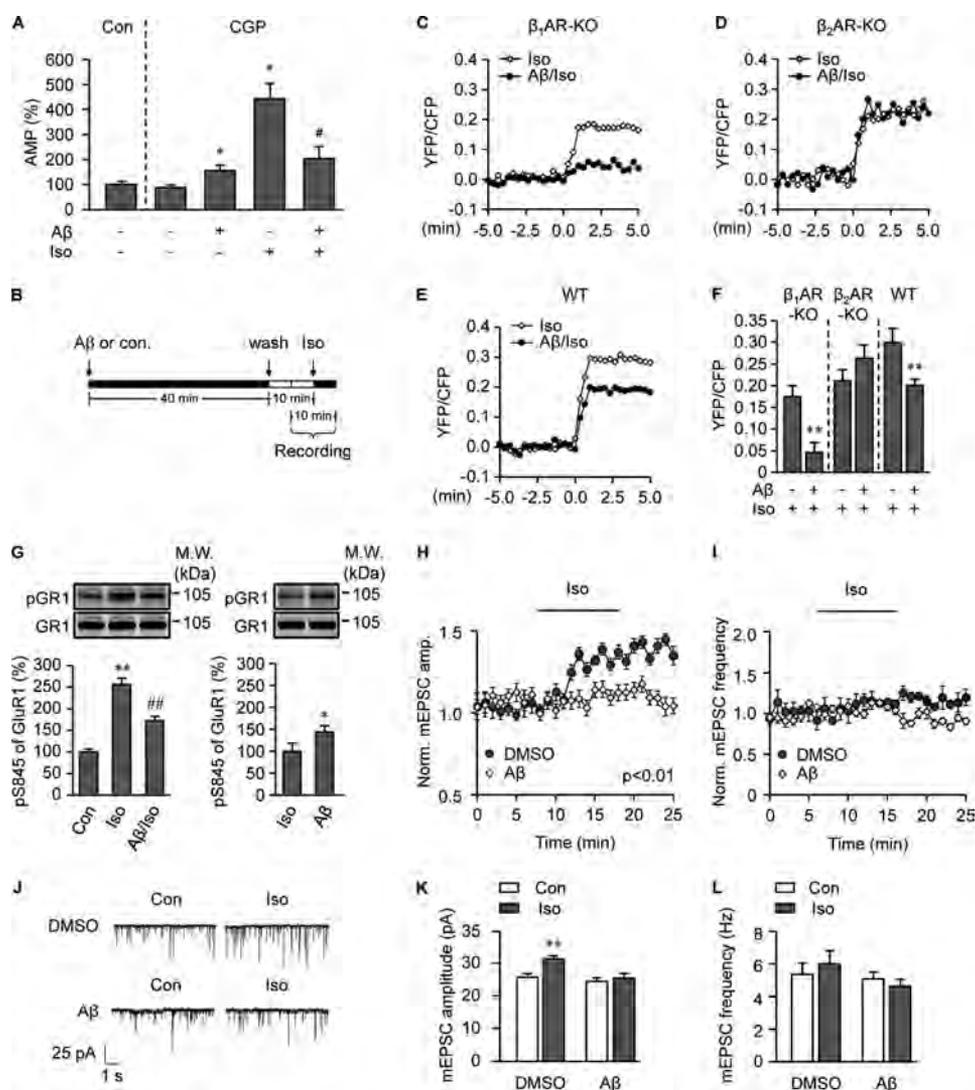
dent with human  $\beta_2$ AR overexpressed in  $\beta_1$ AR/ $\beta_2$ AR double-KO PFC neurons (Fig. 8A). Next, we investigated  $\beta_2$ AR-mediated G protein-dependent signal transduction in PFC neurons. A 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) decreased isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M)-induced increase in the second messenger cAMP level in the presence of  $\beta_1$ AR antagonist CGP 20217A ( $10^{-5}$  M) (Fig. 9A). We also measured PKA activity induced by isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) in live PFC neurons with a FRET-based PKA biosensor AKAR2.2 (Fig. 9, B–F (28, 40)). Isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) itself induced a significant increase in PKA activity in wild type neurons (Fig. 9, C–F). However, pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) dramatically reduced the increase in PKA activity in response to subsequent isoproterenol stimulation. The remaining activity in wild type cells is in part due to activation of  $\beta_1$ AR, which does not bind to A $\beta$  (3).  $\beta_1$ AR-KO neurons were then used to isolate the  $\beta_2$ AR-specific effect on PKA activity. As expected, although isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) itself induced a significant increase in PKA activity in  $\beta_1$ AR-KO neurons, pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) completely abolished the increase in PKA activity (Fig. 9, C–F). In contrast, A $\beta$  pretreatment did not affect the isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M)-induced increase in PKA activity in  $\beta_2$ AR-KO neurons (Fig. 9, D and F).

Moreover, in PFC neurons cultured in the presence of  $\beta_1$ AR antagonist CGP 20217A, pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) also decreased isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M)-induced increase in PKA-mediated phosphorylation of AMPA receptor subunit GluR1 (Fig. 9G). In addition, GluR1 and  $\beta_2$ AR form a postsynaptic protein complex in neurons (3, 26, 27), and we found that A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) also induced internalization of GluR1 in PFC neurons

(supplemental Fig. 3). We also investigated isoproterenol-induced PKA-dependent mEPSCs mediated by AMPA receptors in PFC neurons after pretreatment with A $\beta$  (Fig. 9, H–L). Isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) itself induced a significant increase in mEPSC amplitude (Fig. 9, H and K) and a small but not significant increase in mEPSC frequency in PFC neurons (Fig. 9, I and L). However, a 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) abolished isoproterenol-induced increases in AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs (Fig. 9, H–L).

## DISCUSSION

Emerging evidence indicates that A $\beta$  may induce subtle cellular dysfunction in synaptic plasticity contributing to early memory loss that precedes neuronal degeneration (42). Previous publications show that A $\beta$  binds to  $\beta_2$ AR and acutely activates the receptor-mediated signal transduction in both astrocytes and neurons (3, 16, 17). In this study we find that prolonged pretreatment with A $\beta$  not only induces  $\beta_2$ AR internalization and degradation but also decreases intracellular cAMP and PKA response to subsequently administered isoproterenol in primary PFC neurons. Because A $\beta$  is not catabolized or cleared as quickly as catecholamines, it is conceivable that an elevated level of A $\beta$  induces persistent  $\beta_2$ AR internalization and degradation in AD. Accordingly, we found that protein levels of  $\beta_2$ AR in the cerebrums of PS1/APP double transgenic animals are much lower than those in wild type animals. These data indicate that prolonged elevation of A $\beta$  levels alters postsynaptic responses to neurotransmitters via decreasing  $\beta_2$ AR levels on the plasma membrane. On the other hand, under



**FIGURE 9. Prolonged treatment with A $\beta$  decreases signal transduction mediated by  $\beta_2$ AR for AMPA receptor phosphorylation and activation in PFC neurons.** A–F, prolonged treatment with A $\beta$  decreases signal transduction mediated by  $\beta_2$ AR. A, PFC neurons with or without 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) were stimulated with isoproterenol (Iso,  $10^{-7}$  M) for 5 min in the presence of  $\beta_1$ AR-specific antagonist CGP 20217A ( $10^{-5}$  M). The isoproterenol-induced increases in cAMP were measured.  $n = 12$ . \*,  $p < 0.05$  versus CGP 20217A control, #,  $p < 0.05$  versus isoproterenol alone treated group by unpaired  $t$  test. B, indicated is the procedure for FRET recording to measure PKA activities induced by isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) after pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M). C–F, the changes in isoproterenol-induced FRET ratios (PKA activities) after A $\beta$  treatments are shown. The effect of a 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) on the intracellular PKA FRET ratio in response to isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) stimulation in  $\beta_1$ AR-KO PFC neurons (C),  $\beta_2$ AR-KO PFC neurons (D), or wild type PFC neurons (E) is shown. F, shown is a bar graph for peak PKA FRET responses in panels C, D, and E.  $n = 7$ –9. \*\*,  $p < 0.01$ , versus isoproterenol alone treated group by unpaired  $t$  test. G–L, prolonged treatment with A $\beta$  decreases PKA-dependent GluR1 phosphorylation and AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs in response to isoproterenol stimulation in PFC neurons. G, PFC neurons were treated with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) for 40 min as indicated, and cells were then treated with isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) for 5 min in the presence of  $\beta_1$ AR antagonist CGP 20217A ( $10^{-5}$  M) before detection of PKA phosphorylation of GluR1.  $n = 8$ –14, \*,  $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control; ##,  $p < 0.01$  versus a isoproterenol alone-treated group by one-way ANOVA. GR1, AMPA receptor subunit GluR1. H and I, upon a 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M), PFC neurons were treated with isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M). The time course of amplitude (H) and frequency (I) of AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs was measured. J, traces of mEPSCs induced by isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) with or without 40 min of pretreatment with A $\beta$  ( $10^{-6}$  M) is shown. K and L, the amplitude and frequency of AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs in response to isoproterenol ( $10^{-7}$  M) stimulation in panels H and I were plotted.  $n = 6$ . \*\*,  $p < 0.01$  versus control by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for comparisons of the amplitude and frequency of synaptic currents.

chronic A $\beta$  stimulation, persistent cAMP signaling leads to elevated PKA-dependent phosphorylation of its substrates such as GluR1 (3). The elevated basal phosphorylation of GluR1 would likely contribute to the hyperactivities of neurons for imbalanced neuronal network and functions (43), and it would also impair the response to further noradrenergic stimulation under physiological condition.

Consistently, a 40-min pretreatment with A $\beta$  significantly decreases PKA-dependent phosphorylation of GluR1 at Ser-845 in response to subsequently administered isoproterenol

and, as expected, decreases AMPA receptor-mediated mEPSCs in PFC neurons (Fig. 9). This is in contrast to the stimulatory effect on AMPA receptor activity by acute A $\beta$  treatment (3, 24–26). In addition, GluR1, which exists with  $\beta_2$ AR in a post-synaptic protein complex, is also internalized after prolonged A $\beta$  stimulation, consistent with previous observations showing the removal of AMPA receptor from synapse (44). Therefore, this study suggests that a prolonged presence of A $\beta$  in AD brain has dual effects on  $\beta$ -adrenergic and glutamatergic neurotransmission at synapses. First, the A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR signal leads to

## A $\beta$ induces $\beta_2$ AR Internalization

elevated basal phosphorylation of AMPA receptor (3) and contributes to hyperactivities of neurons in AD animal models (43). Second, the chronic stimulation also leads to internalization of both receptors and degradation of  $\beta_2$ AR and impairs  $\beta$ -adrenergic and glutamatergic neurotransmission at synapses. This study also shows that the  $\beta$ AR antagonist, timolol, blocks  $\beta_2$ AR internalization. Therefore,  $\beta$ AR antagonism may be beneficial in AD patients, as indicated in clinical studies (45).

In the early phase of AD, the central noradrenergic system undergoes substantial changes in response to the degeneration of its main site, the LC, as well as alteration of adrenergic receptor expression in different brain regions including cortical and limbic projection areas (14). LC degeneration results in decreased noradrenaline levels in certain brain regions of AD patients (13). The reduction of LC neurons correlates with A $\beta$  plaques, neurofibrillary tangles, and the severity of dementia (46). However, norepinephrine levels in cerebrospinal fluids of AD patients are not generally reduced and in some cases are even increased (47, 48). This is probably due to a compensatory sprouting by surviving LC neurons (49). A chronic activation of  $\beta_2$ AR on neurons in brain areas, including the LC, may contribute to neuronal degeneration due to its regulation on activities of L-type calcium channels and AMPA receptors (3, 26, 27). This paper, on the other hand, suggests a mechanism that A $\beta$  impairs synaptic function in brain areas receiving noradrenergic projection via decreasing the levels of the receptors on the cell surface. This may also lead to the compensatory increase in presynaptic activities and catecholamine release of the surviving neurons in the LC. In addition, the reduction of adrenergic response in microglia may decrease norepinephrine-mediated anti-inflammatory protection, exacerbate inflammatory events, and reduce A $\beta$  clearance, thereby exacerbating the situation in AD pathology (50, 51).

A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization is both dose- and time-dependent but with a slower kinetics compared with isoproterenol. Although A $\beta$  induces both GRK- and PKA-dependent phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR (3), A $\beta$ -induced internalization is only dependent on GRK2-mediated phosphorylation (52, 53). The slow internalization induced by A $\beta$  is consistent with the slow phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR by GRK, which accumulates over 40 min of stimulation. In contrast, isoproterenol induces rapid GRK phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR, which peaks at 1–2 min of stimulation followed by a gradual decrease (33, 34, 54). Moreover, A $\beta$ -induced PKA-dependent phosphorylation of  $\beta_2$ AR is faster compared with GRK phosphorylation, indicating biased signaling transduction associated with conformational changes of  $\beta_2$ AR (18–23). The structural mechanisms behind these differences remain to be addressed in future. In this study A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization is dependent on the non-visual arrestin 3, but not arrestin 2, which also requires dynamin GTPase activity. Together, under A $\beta$  stimulation,  $\beta_2$ ARs undergo endocytosis via arrestin-associated and clathrin-coated vesicles (53, 55). In addition, in agreement with the publication that the agonist-induced and clathrin-mediated endocytosis of  $\beta_2$ AR enhances  $\gamma$ -secretase activity (35), we found that A $\beta$ -induced  $\beta_2$ AR internalization also increases the processing of APP to yield A $\beta$ , which is of significance to AD pathology.

Together, this study reveals a noradrenergic mechanism for decreased synaptic signal transduction in AD, supporting the emerging concept that AD initially centers on soluble A $\beta$ -induced subtle alterations in synaptic functions. Besides,  $\beta_2$ AR and its signaling, as an integral part of the central noradrenergic system, is involved in multiple cell functions, including cell differentiation, proliferation, ion channel function, and immunoreactivity of cells in the brain (27, 56–58). Moreover,  $\beta_2$ AR and AMPA receptor are critical in normal brain functions. Thus,  $\beta_2$ AR internalization and degradation induced by A $\beta$  could be generally implicated in various diseases with high levels of A $\beta$  including AD, Down syndrome, and Parkinson disease (59, 60).

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