MYELOID CELLS INDUCE NEUROFIBROMATOSIS TYPE 1 ANEURYSM FORMATION THROUGH INFLAMMATION AND OXIDATIVE STRESS

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Neurofibromatosis Type 1 (NF1) is a genetic disorder resulting from mutations in the NF1 tumor suppressor gene. Neurofibromin is the protein product of NF1 and functions as a negative regulator of Ras activity in both hematopoietic and vascular wall cells, which are critical for maintaining blood vessel homeostasis. NF1 patients are predisposed to chronic inflammation and premature cardiovascular disease, including development of large arterial aneurysms, which may result in sudden death secondary to their rupture. However, the molecular pathogenesis of NF1 aneurysm formation is completely unknown. Utilizing a novel model of Nf1 murine aneurysm formation, we demonstrate that heterozygous inactivation of Nf1 (Nf1+/-) results in enhanced aneurysm formation with myeloid cell infiltration and increased reactive oxygen species in the vessel wall. Using cell lineage-restricted transgenic mice, we show that loss of a single Nf1 allele in myeloid cells is sufficient to recapitulate the Nf1^{+/-} aneurysm phenotype in vivo. Additionally, oral administration of simvastatin, a statin with antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects, significantly reduced aneurysm formation in Nf1^{+/-} mice. Finally, the antioxidant apocynin was administered orally and also resulted in a significant reduction of Nf1+/aneurysms. These data provide genetic and pharmacologic evidence that neurofibromin-deficient myeloid cells are the central cellular triggers for aneurysm formation in a novel model of NF1 vascular disease, implicated

oxidative stress as the key biochemical mechanisms of NF1 aneurysm formation and provide a potential therapeutic target for NF1 vasculopathy.

David A. Ingram Jr., M.D., Chair

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAA Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm

ApoE Apolipoprotein E

α-SMA Alpha-Smooth Muscle Actin

Ang II Angiotensin II

ANOVA Analysis of Variance
CAD Coronary Artery Disease
CD Cluster of Differentiation

CGD Chronic Granulomatous Disease

CVD Cardiovascular Disease

DHE Dihydroethidium
DUOX Dual Oxidase
ECM Extracellular Matrix

FPG Formamidopyrimidine DNA Glycosylase

GAP GTPase Activating Protein
H&E Hematoxylin and Eosin

HMG-CoA 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme A

HPF High Power Field IHC Immunohistochemistry

LDLr Low-density Lipoprotein receptor

LOH Loss of Heterozygosity

Lysozyme Cre

MCP-1 Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1

MMP Matrix Metalloproteinase
MMP-2 Matrix Metalloproteinase-2
MMP-9 Matrix Metalloproteinase-9

NADPH Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide

phosphate

NF1 Neurofibromatosis Type 1

Nf1^{+/-} *Nf1* Heterozygosity

NIH National Institutes of Health
OCT Optimum Cutting Temperature
PBS Phosphate Buffered Saline

Ras p21^{ras}

ROSReactive Oxygen SpeciesSEMStandard Error of the MeanSm22^{cre}Smooth Muscle Protein 22α CreVSMCVascular Smooth Muscle Cell

WT Wild type

CHAPTER ONE

DEVELOPMENT OF TWO NOVEL *NF1* HETEROZYGOUS ANEURYSM

MODELS AND IDENTIFICATION OF MYELIOD CELLS AS THE PRIMARY

EFFECTORS OF *NF1*^{+/-} ANEURYSM FORMATION

INTRODUCTION

Neurofibromatosis Type 1.

Neurofibromatosis Type 1 (NF1) is a common autosomal dominant genetic disorder affecting 1 in 3,000 live births resulting from mutations in the NF1 tumor suppressor gene (1, 2). The NF1 gene is located on chromosome 17 at position 17q11.2 (3) spanning over 350 kilobases accounting for 60 exons encoding the protein neurofibromin (4). Neurofibromin negatively regulates p21^{ras} (Ras) activity via stimulation of its GTPase function (1, 5, 6). Mutations in NF1 can be inherited; however, 30 to 50% of NF1 cases result from de novo mutations (7-9). Over 240 mutations have been described which cause NF1 (10) including deletions, duplications, frame shift mutations, insertions, nonsense mutations and substitutions (11). Mutations causing NF1 affect only one allele of the NF1 gene although loss of heterozygosity (LOH) has been described in primary tumor samples from NF1 patients (12, 13). The clinical diagnosis of NF1 is made based on recommendations by the National Institutes of Health (NIH) where two of the seven following clinical findings are present: 1) six or more caféau-lait macules (5 mm or more pre-pubertal or 15 mm or more post-pubertal) 2) two or more neurofibromas or one plexiform neurofibroma 3) freckling in the axillary or inquinal regions 4) optic glioma 5) two or more Lisch nodules 6) bone lesions including sphenoid dysplasia or thinning of long bone cortex 7) a first degree relative with NF1 (14, 15). Therefore, haploinsufficiency of NF1 causes

disease with complete penetrance (9) and a variety of clinical manifestations in several organ systems (7, 8).

Common non-neoplastic manifestations of NF1 can affect the integumentary, skeletal, nervous and cardiovascular systems characterized by café-au-lait spots, bone dysplasia, cutaneous neurofibromas and aneurysmal disease, respectively (16). Additionally, LOH can lead to neoplasms in the hematopoietic, gastrointestinal, and central nervous systems (16, 17). Previous studies have found decreased neurofibromin levels lead to phenotypic cellular changes such as increased proliferation and migration and decreased apoptosis in endothelial cells (18), fibroblasts (19), vascular smooth muscle cells (20), mast cells (21) and macrophages (22). Overall, NF1 is common genetic disease that affects many different cell types and tissues and results in a spectrum of clinical findings and severities.

Neurofibromatosis Type 1 and Cardiovascular Disease.

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is a serious but under-recognized complication of NF1 (23). NF1 patients with CVD display a wide range of lesions, affecting both arteries and veins, contributing to increased morbidity and mortality (24-26). Specifically, aneurysms or stenosis of the aortic, renal, and mesenteric arteries are the most common lesions (25). Most lesions occur by 50 years of age and are secondary to an underlying vasculopathy (23, 25). Importantly, these vascular lesions can progress over time or recur following treatment (27-29). Lesions affecting the renal arteries are the most common vascular abnormalities

identified in NF1 patients affecting up to 5% of patients (23). Patients may present with hypertension due to improper renovascular regulation of blood pressure secondary to intimal hyperplasia or renal vascular wall remodeling due to aneurysm formation (30). Renovasular hypertension usually presents by early adulthood and has been recognized during pregnancy as eclampsia or gestational hypertension (31, 32). Although renal lesions may present with hypertension, many vascular lesions located throughout the rest of the body may only be evident during unrelated imaging studies or at the time of a catastrophic vascular event. Though the frequency of NF1 vasculopathy is difficult to define due to a lack of routine screening and asymptotic nature of many lesions (33), the prevalence of vascular lesions in large clinical series ranges between 2.0% to 6.4% (25, 26, 29).

Studies utilizing genetic mouse models which recapitulate NF1 vasocclusive disease reveal that heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* (*Nf1*^{+/-}) in bone marrow derived cells contributes to neointima hyperplasia and vessel lumen stenosis after arterial injury (22, 34, 35). Clinical studies demonstrate that NF1 patients have evidence of chronic inflammation and mobilization of a specific proinflammatory monocyte subset, characterized as CD14^{dim}CD16^{hi}, in their peripheral blood that has been linked to the development of vasocclusive disease and aneurysm formation in non-NF1 patients with CVD (22, 36, 37). Additionally, it was noted that in *Nf1*^{+/-} mice the murine equivalent of CD14^{dim}CD16^{hi} monocytes characterized by the Ly6C^{hi} membrane marker was increased in non-challenged 12-week old male mice (20). When both copies of *Nf1* were ablated in

myeloid cells alone the number of Ly6C^{hi} monocytes increased further indicting a connection between neurofibromin insufficiency within myeloid cells and vascular inflammation (20). Despite these observations from clinical and murine studies, the pathogenesis of NF1 aneurysm disease is completely unknown partly due to a lack of animal models that mimic the human vascular disease. Given the mostly silent presentation of aneurysms in NF1 patients and the potential for catastrophic rupture of these lesions, understanding disease pathogenesis is critical for their prevention, early detection and treatment. Therefore, the specific aims addressed within this project include:

- Development of a tractable murine model of *Nf1* heterozygous aneurysm formation.
- 2. Identification of the cellular mechanism leading to *Nf1* heterozygous aneurysm formation utilizing lineage-restricted transgenic mice.
- 3. Identification of biochemical processes leading to *Nf1* heterozygous aneurysm formation utilizing pharmacologic inhibition studies.

Neurofibromin.

Neurofibromin, encoded by the NF1 tumor suppressor gene, is a GTPase activating protein (GAP) and functions as a negative regulator of Ras.

Neurofibromin accelerates intrinsic GTPase activity of Ras leading to the hydrolysis of active Ras-GTP to its inactive Ras-GDP form (5, 6, 38).

Neurofibromin has been shown to be expressed in many of the cells important for vessel homeostasis including vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs), endothelial

cells (39), myeloid cells (40) and fibroblasts (41) as well as cells associated with the central and peripheral nervous system including neurons, Schwann cells and oligodendrocytes (42). Additionally, studies have shown that at least one copy of functional Nf1 is necessary for development. Developing embryos with homozygous deletion of *Nf1* die at embryonic day 13.5 and display cardiac malformations (43). Mice with heterozygous deletion of *Nf1* develop normally and do not display cardiac malformation or external phenotypic differences from their WT littermates although extended studies reveal that some *Nf1** mice develop tumors and leukemia similar to those seen in NF1 patients (44).

Aneurysm Pathogenesis.

Abdominal aortic aneurysms (AAA) affect up 9% of adults 65 years and older (45, 46) with 15,000 patients dying each year in the United States from ruptured or dissected AAAs (47). Risk factors associated with AAA formation include smoking, male gender, advanced age, Caucasian race, atherosclerosis, hyperlipidemia, hypertension and family history of AAA (48). Additionally, several single gene disorders affecting the connective tissue of the vascular wall predispose younger patients to aneurysms of the aorta from the aortic root to the iliac bifurcation including Ehlers-Danlos syndrome, Loeys-Dietz syndrome, Marfan System, Turner syndrome and Familial thoracic aortic aneurysm and dissection (49). These genetic disorders indicate that connective tissue maintenance in the vascular wall is an important aspect of maintaining vascular homeostasis and withstanding the hemodynamic forces within the aorta. Matrix

metalloproteinases (MMPs), a family of proteases that possess the ability to degrade most extracellular matrix (ECM) components in the vascular wall, have been found to be more prevalent in AAA tissue than normal aortic tissue (50, 51). MMPs are secreted from many cells types within the vessel wall as inactive zymogen precursors and require extracellular activation to expose the protease active site (51). Specifically, pro-MMP-2 and pro-MMP-9, which degrade elastin, are secreted by VMSCs and macrophages, respectively (50, 52, 53). Activation of pro-MMPs can occur through many mechanisms including inflammation (54), oxidative stress (55), and other proteases such as plasmin (56). The active forms of both MMP-2 and MMP-9 have been found in higher concentrations within aneurysmal aortic tissue compared to normal aortic tissue (57). Importantly, Longo et al. (58) investigated the role of both MMP-2 and MMP-9 in aneurysm formation and found that complete genetic ablation of either protease inhibited aortic dilation. However, when WT macrophages were infused and challenged, only the MMP-9 knockout mice formed aneurysms, suggesting that MMP-2 from the vessel wall and MMP-9 from macrophages work in concert to induce aneurysms. Doxycyclin, a non-selective inhibitor of several MMPs has also been shown to efficiently inhibit aneurysm formation (59).

Besides matrix degradation, other hallmarks of aneurysm pathogenesis include oxidative stress and inflammation (60-62). Studies in animal models using angiotensin II (Ang II) have shown that chronic infusion of Ang II will induce AAA formation while showing an increase in oxidative stress, inflammation and matrix degradation within the aneurysmal tissue (63). Studies inducing AAAs with

Ang II have found that genetic or pharmacologic disruption of these biochemical processes can be protective. Specifically, Thomas et al. (64) showed that deletion of the p47^{phox} subunit of the superoxide producing nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidase complex (Nox) attenuated Ang II induced aneurysm formation in apolipoprotein E-deficient (ApoE^{-/-}) mice. Several antioxidant agents have shown the ability to inhibit aneurysm formation in both murine (65) and rat (66) models of aneurysm formation although antioxidant treatments have not translated well to the human disease state. Finally, inflammatory cell recruitment and infiltration of the aortic media and adventia has been observed in both human and murine diseased tissue. Specifically, monocytes are attracted to the cell wall by ECM degradation products (67), granulocyte macrophage colony-stimulating factor (68), monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) (69), and RANTES (regulated on activation, normal T cell expressed and secreted) (70). VSMCs simulated with the inflammatory mediators Ang II or tumor necrosis factor-alpha secrete MCP-1 indicated a progression in which simulation of VSMCs causes release of MCP-1 and subsequent monocyte attraction (71, 72). Overall, examination of human aneurysmal tissue and murine genetic and pharmacologic studies indicate that the primary biologic processes driving aneurysm formation are the VMSC chemokine-driven recruitment of monocytes to areas of vascular inflammation, differentiation of those monocytes to macrophages, and subsequent damage to the wall by release and activation of MMPs.

Murine Models of Aneurysm Formation.

Aneurysmal disease was initially studied by procurement of aneurysmal tissue from patients during aneurysm repair and performing IHC analysis to identify structural changes and cellular makeup of aneurysmal tissue compared to normal aortic tissue. These studies yielded a very limited view about how aneurysms developed and progressed. More recently aneurysm initiation and progression has been studied through the development of genetic and pharmacologically induced aneurysm models. Two genetic models of impaired ECM development and maintenance have been studied. First, the blotchy mouse contains a mutation of the ATP7A gene, which encodes a copper-transporting ATPase that leads to a copper deficiency (73). Lysyl oxidase is involved in the cross linking of collagen and elastin fibers for which copper is a co-factor (74), therefore defects in the ECM matrix predispose these mice as well as Menkes' disease patients with the equivalent mutations, to aneurysm formation. Alternatively, genetically engineered mice deficient in TIMP-1 (tissue inactivator of metalloproteinases-1) show increased aneurysm formation due to increased activated MMPs breaking down the vascular wall ECM (75, 76). These models illustrate the importance of proper ECM formation and maintenance to aneurysm progression, but fail to address which factors translate from environmental risk to ECM breakdown and aneurysm formation.

Hyperlipidemic mice have been an important model for the induction and analysis of aneurysm formation by employing a well-established risk factor for aneurysm induction. Mice fed a high fat diet alone will develop atherosclerosis

and aneurysms over time. More recently, mice deficient in low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLr) (77) or ApoE (78, 79) have been developed and allow for increased aneurysm formation when on a high fat diet for up to one year (80).

ApoE^{-/-} mice on a high fat diet formed aneurysms in the aorta near and under areas of atherosclerosis (80). The observation of aneurysm formation near atherosclerotic plaques containing foam cell macrophages indicates that inflammation and MMP release from macrophages may be the link between ECM degradation and the hyperlipidemic risk factor and ECM degradation (81). Additionally, this model indicates macrophage recruitment to the vascular wall may be an important early process in aneurysm formation.

Chemically-induced aneurysm formation represents the majority of current models being used for the investigation of aneurysm development and progression due to reduced amount of time required for induction. Elastase infusion into the infrarenal aorta has been used extensively and allows for aneurysm formation in 14 to 21 days (82). Elastase infusion leads to aneurysm formation by breaking down the elastin portion of the ECM in the infused segment. Due to the short time period of this model the progression of aneurysm formation can be reliable tracked. The limitation of this model is similar to the limitation of the genetic mouse models with ECM deficiency, the infusion itself breaks down the ECM rather than the vascular wall cells or recruited cells which likely do this during inflammation, repair and resolution.

Finally, Ang II infusion (500 to 1000 ng/kg/min) over 28 days via a subcutaneous osmotic mini-pump induces aneurysm formation in *LDLr*^{-/-} and

ApoE^{-/-} mice in the suprarenal aorta (63). Interestingly, Ang II at these doses only slightly increased blood pressure (83, 84). During subsequent studies, MMP inhibition prevented aneurysm formation (85) precluding blood pressure from being the sole mechanism of aneurysm formation in the Ang II infusion model. Ang II infusion has allowed for temporal characterization of the events leading to aneurysm formation (86). Macrophages accumulate within the first few days of infusion in the suprarenal aorta and are associated with elastin degradation. It is likely that Ang II stimulation of VSMCs results in the release of MCP-1 and MMP-2, which subsequently produces ECM degradation products. Both MCP-1 and the ECM degradation products attract monocytes to the stimulated site of the suprarenal aorta (87). Aneurysm formation has also been induced with Ang II infusion in WT C57B/6 mice allowing for a wild-type genetic background to be used. Aneurysms formed in WT mice were comparable in size to hyperlipidemic mice but occurred less frequently (88). Taken together, of the previous aneurysm studies utilizing various models of murine aneurysm induction, Ang II is very tractable model due to its limited time to induce aneurysms as well as its mechanism in which VSMCs are stimulated leading to inflammatory cell recruitment.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals.

All protocols were approved by the Indiana University School of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Nf1+/- mice were obtained from Tyler Jacks (Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge) and backcrossed 13 generations into the C57BL/6J strain. Nf1^{fl/fl} mice were obtained from Luis Parada (University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas) and backcrossed 13 generations into the 129SvJ strain. Lysozyme cre (*LysM*^{cre}, stock 4781) and smooth muscle protein-22 α cre (SM22^{cre}, stock 4746) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) and maintained on C57BL/6 strain. Nf1^{fl/fl} mice were inter-crossed with LysMcre or SM22cre mice to generate F1 C57BL/6 × 129SvJ progeny. Specifically, Nf1^{fl/+};LysMcre, heterozygous loss of Nf1 in myeloid cells only, and Nf1^{fl/+};SM22cre, heterozygous loss of Nf1 in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) only, mice were used for experiments. Cre-mediated recombination was confirmed by PCR as previously described (89). LacZ lineage tracing of aortas from Nf1^{fl/+};Rosa26^{fl/+};Sm22^{cre} mice revealed deep staining limited to the media of the vessel wall where VSMCs reside. LacZ lineage tracing of aortas from Nf1^{fl/+};Rosa26^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} mice revealed very sparse staining limited to the vessel adventitia, a common area for limited numbers of macrophages under physiological conditions. Nf1+/- 129SvJ mice inter-crossed with Nf1^{+/-} C57BL/6 mice generated F1 Nf1^{+/-} and wild type

(WT) controls animals for experiments. All genotyping was performed according to Jackson Laboratory protocols or as previously described (89, 90).

Angiotensin II Infusion Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm Model.

12 week-old WT and *Nf1**/ male mice were infused with Angiotensin II (Ang II, 1500 ng/kg/min, Calbiochem, CA) or saline as previously described (91), with modification. In brief, animals were anesthetized by inhalation of an isoflurane (2%)/oxygen (98%) mixture, and an Alzet osmotic minipump (2006, Durect Corporation, CA) containing Ang II or saline was implanted into a subcutaneous pocket through an incision of the skin on the rear flank. The incision was closed using 5-0 prolene suture (Advanced Inventory Management). The incision site healed rapidly with no sign of infection. At indicated time points, the arterial tree was perfused at a constant physiologic pressure (100 mmHg) with 0.9% sodium chloride. Under a dissecting scope (Leica), a portion of the arterial tree was excised *en bloc* including carotid, aortic, iliac and femoral arteries after removal of adventitial fat. Some vessels were fixed with Zincformalin solution (1x, Anatech) before paraffin embedding.

Classification and Quantification of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms.

Digital images of harvested arteries were obtained with a Nikon camera on a Zeiss stereo-microscope (Carl Zeiss Inc) or a Nikon digital camera. The maximum external arterial diameters were measured using Metamorph 6.1 (Universal Imaging Systems Corp.) by a single observer blinded to the infusion

and/or treatment and genotype of the mice. Aneurysms were defined as an increase in the external aortic diameter of >/= 50% as compared to control animals. Aortic aneurysm severity was rated from Type 0 to Type IV according to the method of Martin-McNulty et al. (92) with modification: Type 0, no aneurysm; Type I, discernable dilation 1.5 to 2 times the diameter of a normal corresponding artery; Type II, a single dilation that is more than 2 times the diameter of a normal corresponding artery; Type III, multiple dilations along the harvested vasculature with the largest dilation being 1.5 to 2 times the diameter of a normal corresponding artery; and Type IV, multiple dilations along the harvested vasculature with the largest dilation being more than 2 times the diameter of a normal corresponding artery.

Histopathology and Immunohistochemistry.

Aortas were either paraffin or optimum cutting temperature (OCT) embedded and serial 5 µm cross-sections were made through the length of the aorta at its largest diameter. Paraffin sections were stained with H&E (Anatech), Verhoeff's van Gieson (Sigma) for elastic lamina, Masson's trichrome (Sigma) for collagen, and Toluidine blue (Anatech) for mast cells. Elastic lamina preservation was graded as follows: grade 1, intact elastic lamina; grade 2, elastic lamina with some interruptions; and grade 3, severe elastin fragmentation. For immunohistochemistry, paraffin or OCT-embedded sections were de-waxed or acetone fixed, respectively, followed by low pH citrate antigen retrieval (DakoCytomation target retrieval solution citrate pH 6; Dako). Sections were

Protein Blocked (Dako) and incubated separately with anti-CD3 (1:100, BD Pharmingen), anti-B220 (1:100, BD Pharmingen), anti-alpha smooth muscle actin $(\alpha$ -SMA, 1:200, Abcam), anti-Mac-3 (1:50, BD Pharmingen), anti-matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP2, 1:2000, Abcam) and anti-matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP9, 1:1000, Abcam) primary antibodies. Sections were incubated with the appropriate fluorescent secondary antibody (Alexa Flour 647 goat anti-rat IgG or Alexa Flour 488 goat anti-rat, life technologies) and visualized with fluorescent microscopy (Leica) or biotinylated secondary antibody (Vector Laboratories) followed by incubation with the ABC kit (Vector Lab), and visualized by 3,3'diaminobenzidine (DAB; Vector Laboratories) and counterstained with hematoxylin. The average number of CD3⁺, B220⁺, F4/80⁺, Mac-3+ and mast cells were calculated from five independent high power fields (HPF) from five sections at 50µm intervals. Some OCT embedded cross-sections were costained with fluorescent α-SMA and anti-Mac-3 with Alexa Flour 488 goat anti-rat secondary.

Murine Blood Pressure Measurements.

Blood pressure measurements were obtained as previously described (93), with modification. Mice were anesthetized with an isoflurane (2%)/oxygen (98%) mixture and placed on a heating block in a supine position. The femoral artery was exposed under a dissecting microscope (Leica). A heat-stretched polyethylene (PE)-50 tube (BD Biosciences) was inserted into the femoral artery. During the reading, the arterial line was connected to a pressure transducer (AD

Instruments, Colorado Springs, CO) and signal was acquired on a Blood
Pressure Display Unit (StemTech, Milwaukee, WI), transmitting to a DI-205
signal interface (DATAQ Instruments, Akron, OH). Blood pressure readings were
recorded with WinDAQ Version 2.15 software (DATAQ Instruments, Akron, OH).
Blood pressure was recorded for three minutes with mean pressure reported.

Matrix Metalloproteinase Activity Analysis.

To detect MMP activity in abdominal aortas, in situ zymography and gelatin zymography were performed as previously described (94). Briefly, for in situ zymography, fresh frozen, OCT-embedded aortic sections (10 µm) from 18day saline or Ang II infused WT and Nf1+/- mice were incubated with a dyequenched gelatin substrate (DQ gelatin, Molecular Probes) according to the manufacturer's protocol. After cleavage of DQ-gelatin by gelatinolytic activity in the tissue, green fluorescence was photographed by fluorescence microscopy (Leica). Addition of EDTA (20 mM) in gelatin substrate before incubation was used to assess the specificity of MMP activity. For gelatin zymography, 10 µg of homogenates lysed from fresh frozen segments of aorta from 18-day saline or Ang II infused WT and Nf1^{+/-} mice in lysis buffer (50 mm Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 0.2 m NaCl, and 10 mm CaCl₂) were electrophoresed in a 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel containing 1 mg/mL gelatin (Invitrogen). Gels were incubated for 36 hours (37°C) in zymography buffer (50 mmol Tris (pH 8.0), 10 mmol CaCl2, 0.05% Brij 35, 0.02% NaN₃) and stained with Coomassie brilliant blue followed by destaining to visualize clear bands, indicating active proteinase.

In situ Superoxide Detection.

To detect ROS generation in abdominal aortas, *in situ* dihydroethidium (DHE) staining was performed as previously described (95). OCT embedded cross-sections (10 μm) of abdominal aortas were incubated with DHE (5 μM) (Molecular Probes Inc.) for 30 minutes at 37°C, rinsed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and mounted with ProLong Gold Antifade Reagent (Invitrogen), and photographed using fluorescent microscopy.

Statistical Analysis.

Quantitative results are shown as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). All statistical analyses were performed using the Prism 5 (GraphPad Software). *P* values were obtained by the unpaired Student's *t*-test when comparison was between 2 groups, and by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a post hoc analysis using the Tukey's test when comparison was made among 3 or more groups. To determine significance of distribution data was subjected to Fisher's Exact test was used with Bonferroni correction. *P* values less than 0.05 were considered significant.

RESULTS

Heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* amplifies the incidence and severity of aneurysm formation within $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice.

ApoE^{-/-} mice are predisposed to aneurysm formation when fed an atherogenic diet. Intercrossing genetically engineered mice with ApoE^{-/-} mice is a standard model to study genetic contributions to aneurysm formation in experimental progeny (96). To test the hypothesis that Nf1 heterozygosity enhances aneurysm formation in vivo, ApoE^{-/-} and ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-} mice along with experimental controls (WT and Nf1^{+/-} mice) were fed an atherogenic or normal chow diet for four months. Both ApoE^{-/-} and ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-} mice fed an atherogenic diet developed severe hypercholesterolemia and advanced atherosclerosis compared to mice fed normal chow (Table 1). WT and Nf1+/- mice fed a normal chow or atherogenic diet did not develop hypercholesterolemia or atherosclerosis. Heterozygosity of Nf1 in ApoE^{-/-} mice did not alter cholesterol, triglyceride or glucose levels compared to ApoE^{-/-} mice, and no difference in body weight or atherosclerotic lesion size between the two experimental groups was noted (Table 1). However, gross inspection of the aorta and its branches from ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-} and ApoE^{-/-} mice fed an atherogenic diet revealed an increased incidence of aneurysm formation in ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-} when compared to control mice (Figure 1A). Neither ApoE^{-/-} nor ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-} mice fed normal chow developed aneurysms (Figure 1A).

Quantification of the incidence and numbers of aneurysms in experimental mice fed an atherogenic diet revealed that 100 percent of $ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-}$ mice developed aneurysms compared to 40 percent of $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice, with a 16-fold increase in total number of aneurysms per animal (Figure 1B and 1C). The aneurysms were more severe in $ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-}$ mice as measured by a validated rating scale (Figure 1D) (92). These data indicate that heterozygous inactivation of Nf1 augments aneurysm formation in $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice.

NF1 patients and *Nf1**-/- mice have evidence of vascular inflammation with mobilization of discrete populations of inflammatory monocytes linked to aneurysm formation (22, 34). Therefore, we characterized the cellular architecture and structural composition of aneurysms in atherogenic diet fed *ApoE*-/- and *ApoE*-/-;*Nf1**-/- mice. Consistent with larger aneurysms, histologic examination of aneurysmal tissue from *ApoE*-/-;*Nf1**-/- mice displayed enhanced disruption of medial architecture, arterial diation, infiltration of inflammatory cells, and increased adventitial expansion compared to *ApoE*-/- mice fed an atherogenic diet (Figure 2A, 2B, and D). Trichrome staining identified enhanced collagen accumulation in the media and adventitia of *ApoE*-/-;*Nf1**-/- mice compared to *ApoE*-/- mice (Figure 2C), which is a hallmark of aneurysm formation (97).

Immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis of arterial cross-sections to identify the lineage of infiltrating immune cells populating the aneurysms revealed increased numbers of macrophages in both *ApoE^{-/-};Nf1^{+/-}* and *ApoE^{-/-}* mice fed an atherogenic diet (Figure 2D). Strikingly, the number of macrophages were

increased nearly 4-fold in $ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-}$ aortic cross-sections compared to $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice $(ApoE^{-/-}:45.9\pm3.3,\ n=7\ \text{versus}\ ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-}:164.9\pm16.8,\ n=7;\ P<.001),$ and these cells accounted for the majority of infiltrating cells in $ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-}$ aneurysms (Figure 2D). $ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-}$ mice also had a 2-fold increase in the accumulation of T cells and mast cells compared to $ApoE^{-/-}$ mice; however, these cells accounted for less than 5% of immune cells in aneurysms of $ApoE^{-/-}:Nf1^{+/-}$ mice. Collectively, these data demonstrate that heterozygous inactivation of Nf1 increases the frequency and severity of aneurysms with a corresponding increase in macrophage population.

Table 1Blood serum chemistry and atherosclerotic lesion assessment

	Normal Chow Diet		Atherogenic Diet	
	ApoE ^{-/-}	ApoE ^{-/-} ;Nf1 ^{+/-}	ApoE [√] -	ApoE ^{-/-} ;Nf1 ^{+/-}
Body Mass (g)	ND	ND	26.2 ± 1.3 (<i>n</i> =9)	25.54 ± 0.6 (<i>n</i> =10)
Total Chol ^A	462.6 ± 11.2 (<i>n</i> =7)	438.8 ± 28.4 (<i>n</i> =8)	1576 [*] ± 110.9 (<i>n</i> =9)	1458 [†] ± 81.2 (<i>n</i> =10)
LDL Chol ^A	345.4 ± 24.8 (<i>n</i> =7)	356.6 ± 8.1 (<i>n</i> =8)	1351 [*] ± 92.2 (<i>n</i> =9)	1279 [†] ± 63.9 (<i>n</i> =10)
HDL Chol ^A	83.7 ± 4.2 (<i>n</i> =7)	75.8 ± 9.6 (<i>n</i> =8)	364.9 [*] ± 174.4 (<i>n</i> =9)	167.8 [†] ± 34.6 (<i>n</i> =10)
Triglyceride ^A	111.1 ± 6.1 (<i>n</i> =7)	88.0 ± 12.3 (<i>n</i> =8)	136.9 ± 12.3 (<i>n</i> =9)	150.7 [†] ± 10.4 (<i>n</i> =9)
Fasting Glucose ^A	ND	ND	60.7 ± 4.2 (<i>n</i> =6)	51.8 ± 3.0 (<i>n</i> =6)
Atherosclerotic Lesion Area (% of total aortic area)	245.4 ± 15.1 (<i>n</i> =7)	223.8 ± 22.8 (<i>n</i> =8)	624.0 [*] ± 118.6 (<i>n</i> =9)	523.8 [†] ± 33.3 (<i>n</i> =10)

^{*=} P < 0.05 *ApoE*^{-/-} NCD versus *ApoE*^{-/-} Atherogenic Diet

ND = Not Determined

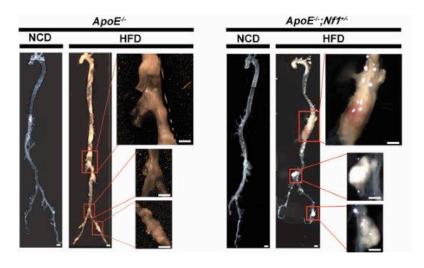
Chol = Cholesterol

 $^{^{\}dagger}$ = P < 0.05 *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} NCD versus *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} Atherogenic Diet

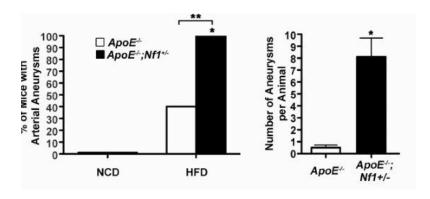
^A= Measured in mg/dL

Figure 1

Α



В С



D

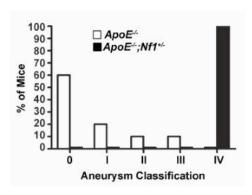


Figure 1. *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} mice fed a high fat diet have augmented aneurysm formation. (**A**) Representative photographs of the aorta and its branches from *ApoE*^{-/-} and *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} mice fed a normal chow diet (NCD) or a high fat diet (HFD). Red boxes identify areas of aneurysm formation magnified in the panels on right. Scale bars: 1mm. (**B**) Quantification of aneurysm incidence, **P*<0.0001 for NCD *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} (*n*= 10) versus HFD *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} (*n*=11). ***P*<0.01 for HFD *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=10) versus HFD *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=11). No statistical significance was observed (*P*=.08) for NCD *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=10) versus HFD *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=10).

Analysis by Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni correction. (**C**) Average number of aneurysms per HFD mouse, **P*<0.001 for *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=10) versus *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} (*n*=11) by Student's t-test. (**D**) Severity index of aneurysms of HFD *ApoE*^{-/-} (*n*=10) and HFD *ApoE*^{-/-};*Nf1*^{+/-} (*n*=11). There was no aneurysm formation in NCD mice of either genotype.

Figure 2

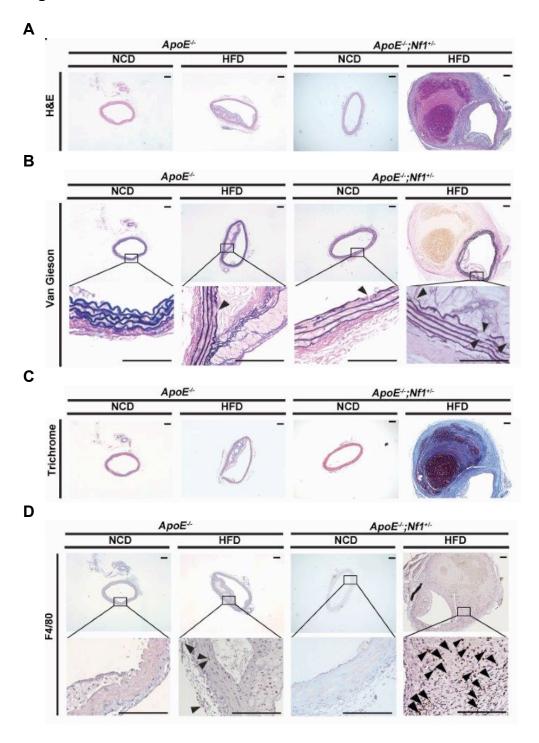


Figure 2. *ApoE^{-/-};Nf1*^{+/-} mice fed a high fat diet have augmented histological aneurysm formation. Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from *ApoE^{-/-}* and *ApoE^{-/-};Nf1*^{+/-} mice on NCD or HFD stained with (**A**) H&E, (**B**) van Gieson for elastin, (**C**) Masson's trichrome for collagen or (**D**) anti-F4/80 for macrophages (brown cells, arrowheads). Arrowheads in **B** indicate degradation of the elastic lamina. Black boxes in **B** and **D** identify area that is magnified in lower panel. Scale bars: 50 μm.

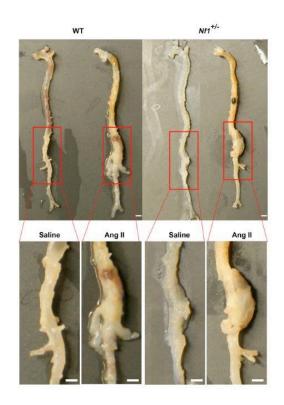
Heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* amplifies the incidence and severity of aneurysm formation in angiotensin II-infused mice.

To dissect the cellular mechanism of aneurysm formation and to confirm the effect of *Nf1* heterozygosity on aneurysm development in a more tractable system, we performed a second line of experiments in WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice utilizing a different experimental model to interrogate disease pathogenesis. Angiotensin II (Ang II) infusion is another commonly used method of aneurysm induction and was adapted for use with modification (63, 98, 99). Infusion of Ang II induces inflammatory mediators and reactive oxygen species (ROS) within the arterial wall, producing abdominal aortic aneurysms that recapitulate human lesions (61, 95).

Infusion of Ang II increased aneurysm formation 3-fold in *Nf1**/- mice compared to wild type mice (WT) (Figure 3A and 3B). Morphometric analysis of abdominal aortas from both genotypes revealed that Ang II-infused *Nf1**/- mice had significantly larger aneurysms (Figure 4A and 4B). Further, *Nf1**/- aneurysms display increased degradation of the elastic lamina and disorganized architecture which translated to a higher degree of aneurysm severity than WT aneurysms, which is reminiscent of lesions from NF1 patients (Figure 5A through 5C) (100). Importantly, Ang II infusion did not alter body weight or intra-arterial blood pressure in either genotype. Saline-infused *Nf1**/- and WT mice did not form aneurysms (Figure 3A, 3B and 4A). These data indicate *Nf1* heterozygosity augments Ang II-induced aneurysm formation.

Figure 3

A B



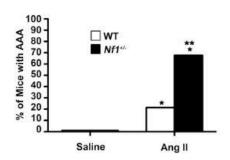
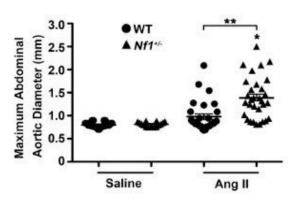


Figure 3. $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice have increased Ang II-induced abdominal aortic aneurysm formation. (**A**) Representative photographs of the aorta and branches from saline or Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice. Boxes identify area magnified in lower panel. Scale bars: 1mm. (**B**) Quantification of aneurysm incidence. *P<0.0083 for saline-infused WT (n=24) versus Ang II-infused WT (n=29) and Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=31). **P<0.0083 for saline-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=16) versus Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$. Analysis by Fisher's exact test with Bonferonni correction.

Figure 4

A



В

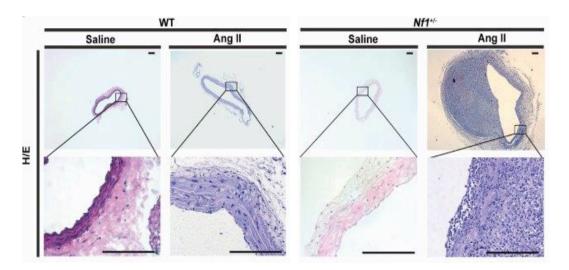


Figure 4. $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice have larger Ang II-induced abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Maximum abdominal aortic diameter of saline or Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice. Clustering around 1mm represents animals without aneurysm formation. $^*P < 0.05$ for saline-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=16) versus Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=31). $^{**}P < 0.05$ for Ang II-infused WT (n=29) versus Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=31). No statistical significance was observed for saline-infused WT (n=24) versus Ang II-infused WT (n=29). Analysis by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's test. Error bars denote the mean \pm SEM. (**B**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from saline and Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice stained with H&E.

Figure 5

Α

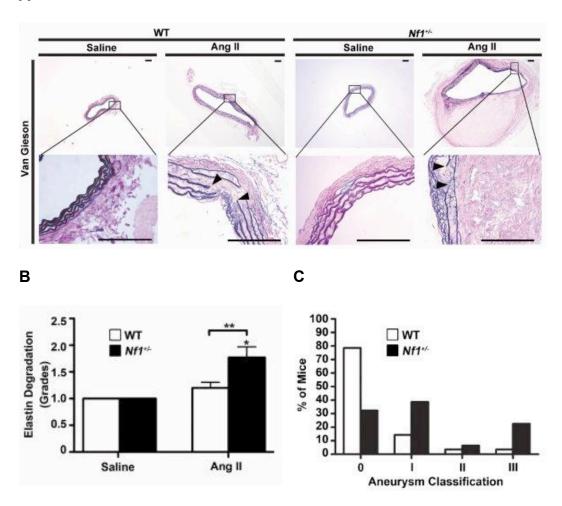


Figure 5. *Nf1**/- mice display increased severity of Ang II-induced abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from saline and Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice stained with van Gieson. Boxed areas magnified in lower panel. Arrowheads indicate elastic lamina fragmentation. Scale bars: 50µm. (**B**) Grading of elastic lamina degradation in saline or Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice. **P*<0.05 for saline-infused *Nf1**/- (*n*=5) or WT (*n*=5) versus Ang II-infused *Nf1**/- mice (*n*=13).

***P*<0.05 for Ang II-infused WT (*n*=15) versus Ang II-infused *Nf1**/- wice. No statistical significance was observed for saline-infused WT or *Nf1**/- versus Ang II-infused WT. (**C**) Aneurysm severity for Ang II-infused WT (*n*=29) or Ang II-infused *Nf1**/- (*n*=31) mice. No aneurysms formed in saline-infused mice of either genotype.

Nf1^{+/-} aneurysms are characterized by inflammatory cell infiltration, vascular smooth muscle cell expansion, and reactive oxygen species production.

NF1 patients and Nf1+/- mice have increased populations of circulating inflammatory monocytes and pro-inflammatory cytokines linked to aneurysm formation (20, 22). Therefore, we sought to characterize the cellular and structural composition of WT and Nf1+/- aneurysms. Histologic examination of Nf1+/- aneurysms demonstrated significant dilation and degradation of the aortic wall, including increased disruption of the elastic lamina and advential expansion when compared to WT aneurysms (Figure 5A through 5C). Importantly, Nf1+/aneurysms contained 4-times the number of macrophages compared to WT (Figure 6A and 6B). Nf1+/- macrophages co-localized to sites of elastic lamina degradation, medial rupture and adventitial expansion, indicating their potential role in aneurysm formation (Figure 5A and 6A). Ang II infusion also induced a significant expansion of vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) in the media of Nf1+/- aortas compared to WT (Figure 7A and 7B). Nf1+/- VMSC expansion is consistent with previous findings that Nf1^{+/-} VSMCs exhibit increased proliferation and migration in response to cytokines secreted by macrophages and vascular wall cells implicated in CVD (20, 101). Finally, co-staining with α -smooth muscle actin (\alpha-SMA) and anti-Mac-3 illustrated VSMC expansion was within and near the vessel media while macrophage infiltration was primarily in the adventia as expected (Figure 8) (102, 103).

Genetic studies demonstrate that VSMC and macrophage secretion of MMPs (50, 52, 53) and ROS (61, 94, 104) are important molecular triggers for extracellular matrix (ECM) remodeling and aneurysm induction. Given the increased density of VSMCs and macrophages in Nf1+/- aneurysms, we measured expression and activation of matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2) and matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) in aortas harvested from Nf1+/- and WT mice infused with Ang II or saline. Ang II infusion increased MMP activity and preferentially amplified MMP-9 expression in Nf1+/- aneurysms when compared with Ang II-infused WT aneurysms as determined by in situ zymography and immunohistochemistry (IHC) (Figure 9A and 9B). In addition, gelatin zymography of abdominal aortic explants from Ang II-infused WT and Nf1+/- mice corroborated increases of MMP activity in both genotypes with significantly enhanced activation of MMP-9 in Nf1^{+/-} aortas alone (Figure 9C). Amplified MMP-9 expression in Nf1+/- aortas is an important observation since MMP-9 is largely derived from vessel wall macrophages (57, 105), which is consistent with the increased macrophage infiltration observed in Nf1+/- aneurysms.

We next assessed ROS production in abdominal aortic cross-sections from Ang II and saline-infused *Nf1*^{+/-} and WT mice with dihydroethidium (DHE), a superoxide probe. Ang II infusion significantly increased superoxide production in *Nf1*^{+/-} aortas when compared with WT aortas, while superoxide production was nearly undetectable in the aortas from saline-infused *Nf1*^{+/-} and WT aortas (Figure 10A and 10B). Collectively, these data demonstrate that *Nf1* heterozygous aneurysms have evidence of increased inflammatory cell infiltration,

MMP activation, and ROS production, which are linked to abnormal arterial remodeling and disease progression.

Figure 6



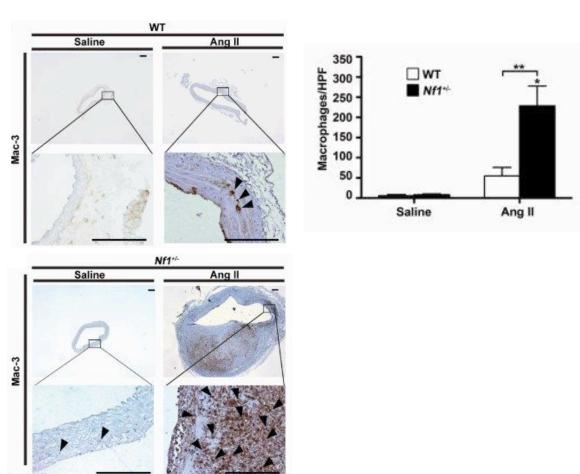
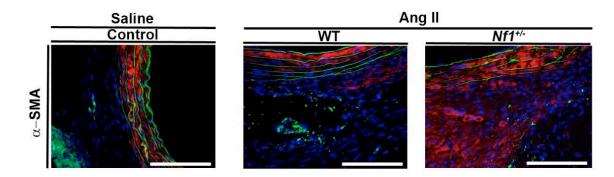


Figure 6. *Nf1***/- mice have increased Mac3+ macrophage infiltration in abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from saline and Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1***/- mice stained anti-Mac-3 antibody (arrowheads). Boxed areas magnified in lower panel. Scale bars: 50μm. (**B**) Quantification of Mac3-positive macrophages per high-power field (HPF) in saline or Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1***/- mice. **P*<0.05 for saline-infused *Nf1***/- (*n*=5) versus Ang II-infused *Nf1***/- mice (*n*=5). ***P*<0.05 for Ang II-infused WT (*n*=5) versus Ang II-infused WT (*n*=5) versus Ang II-infused WT. Analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test.

Figure 7

A



В

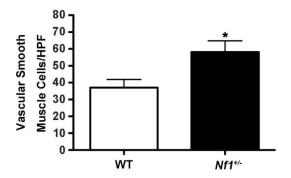


Figure 7. *Nf1*^{+/-} mice have increased vascular smooth muscle cells in abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice, stained with anti-α smooth muscle actin (red) to identify VSMCs. Cell nuclei are counterstained with DAPI (blue) and auto-fluorescence of murine tissue is visible (green). Saline-infused WT mice shown as control. Appearance of saline-infused *Nf1*^{+/-} was similar to saline-infused WT staining. Scale bars: 50μm. (**B**) Quantification of VSMCs from Ang II-infused WT (n=5) and Nf1^{+/-} (n=5) mice; *P<0.05 for Ang II-infused WT versus Ang II-infused Nf1^{+/-}, by Student's t-test.

Figure 8

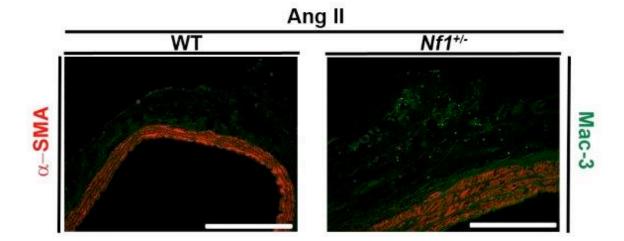
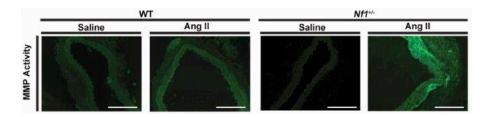


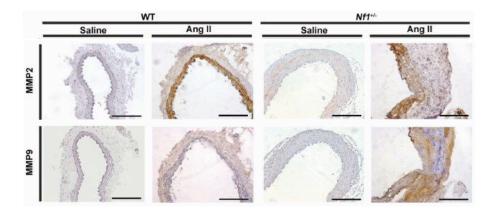
Figure 8. Relative location of macrophages and vascular smooth muscle cells in abdominal aortic aneurysms. Representative photomicrographs showing costaining of Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ aortas with anti- α -SMA (red) and anti-Mac-3 (green). Scale bars: 50 μ m.

Figure 9

Α



В



С

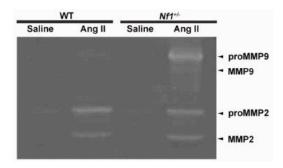
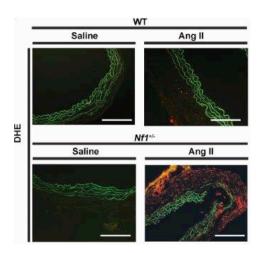


Figure 9. *Nf1*^{+/-} mice have increased MMP activity and increased MMP-2 and MMP-9 expression in abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from saline and Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice. MMP activity (green) was visualized by *in situ* zymography (**B**) expression of MMP-2 and MMP-9 was detected by IHC staining with anti-MMP-2 (brown) and anti-MMP-9 (brown) antibodies. Scale bars: 50μm. (**C**) Representative zymogram showing abdominal aortic MMP-2 and MMP-9 levels for saline and Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice.

Figure 10





В

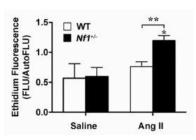


Figure 10. $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice have increased superoxide formation in abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic crosssections from saline or Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice, showing superoxide production identified by *in situ* DHE staining (red). Auto-fluorescence of murine tissue is visible (green). (**B**) Quantification of ethidium fluorescence. *P<0.05 for Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=9) versus saline-infused WT (n=5) and $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=3). **P<0.05 for Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ versus Ang II-infused WT (n=8). Analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test.

Heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* in myeloid cells alone is sufficient to recapitulate $Nf1^{+/-}$ aneurysm formation.

Nf1^{*/-} mice have increased aneurysm formation characterized by increased macrophages and VSMCs and their secretory products, which are known to promote disease progression. Based on these observations, we generated transgenic mice with a single copy of the Nf1 gene ablated in VMSCs or myeloid cells alone to determine the role of Nf1 heterozygosity in VSMCs and myeloid cells on aneurysm formation. Briefly, Nf1^{fl/fl} mice containing conditional Nf1 alleles susceptible to Cre-mediated recombination (89) were inter-crossed with SM22cre or LysMcre transgenic mice, generating Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} progeny with Nf1 heterozygous VSMCs (106) and myeloid cells (107), respectively. Nf1^{fl/fl} mice underwent efficient Cre-mediated recombination when crossed with LysM^{cre} (Figure 11) or SM22^{cre} mice (35). Importantly, LysM^{cre}-mediated recombination was seen in the aortic adventia, a known location for macrophages, while the aortic media showed minimal LysM^{cre}-mediated recombination.

Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} mice were infused with Ang II or saline and evaluated for aneurysm formation with controls (WT and Nf1^{+/-} mice).

Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} mice infused with Ang II developed large aneurysms recapitulating the phenotype of Nf1^{+/-} mice, while Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} mice produced less severe aneurysms similar to WT mice (Figure 12A through 12D). Specifically, a 2.5-fold increase in AAA incidence was observed in Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} mice compared with Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} and WT mice (Figure 12B). Saline infusion failed to produce aortic

aneurysms in all genotypes. Additionally, Ang II-infused $Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre}$ aneurysms displayed similar maximal dilation and aneurysm severity when compared to $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice (Figure 12C and 12D).

Histologic examination of H&E and van Gieson stained arterial crosssections of Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} aneurysms revealed increased elastic lamina degradation and adventitial expansion, similar to aneurysms harvested from Ang II-infused Nf1^{+/-} mice (Figure 13A through 13C). Cross-sections from Nf1^{fl/+}:LysM^{cre} aortas demonstrated increased macrophage density similar to Nf1^{+/-} aneurysms, while Nf1^{fl/+}; SM22^{cre} and WT mice contained significantly reduced macrophage numbers (Figure 14A). Similar to Nf1+/- mice, macrophages in Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} mice were in close proximity to areas of advential expansion and elastic lamina degradation (Figure 13B and 14A). Additionally, Nf1^{fl/+}:LysM^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+}:SM22^{cre} displayed similar MMP activity and DHE staining as Nf1^{+/-} and WT mice, respectively (Figure 14B through 14D). Collectively, these data provide genetic evidence that heterozygous inactivation of Nf1 in myeloid cells alone is sufficient to recapitulate Nf1+/- aneurysm formation in vivo, thereby implicating *Nf1*^{+/-} monocytes and macrophages as the cellular trigger for aneurysm formation.

Figure 11

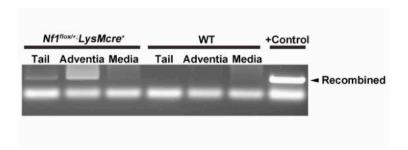
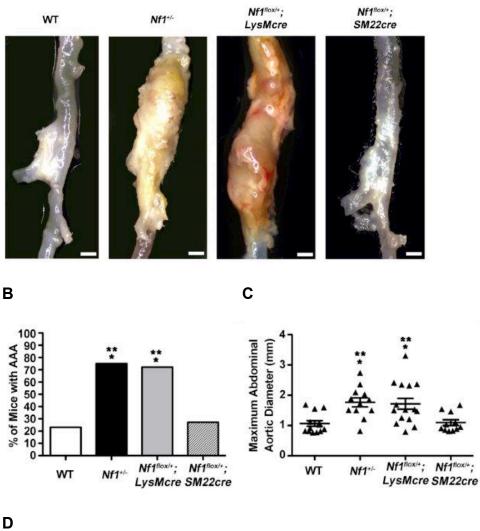


Figure 11. *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} mice display efficient recombination.

PCR analysis of abdominal aorta shows the specific location of the *cre*-mediated recombination of floxed *Nf1* gene in the vascular adventitia of 3 month old, non-infused *Nf1*^{flox/+};*LysMcre* mice. Arrowhead indicates *cre*-mediated recombination (280bp band). *Nf1*^{flox/+};*SM22*^{cre} VSMCs were used as positive control.

Figure 12

Α



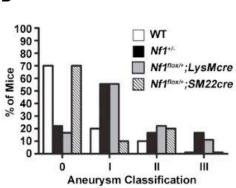
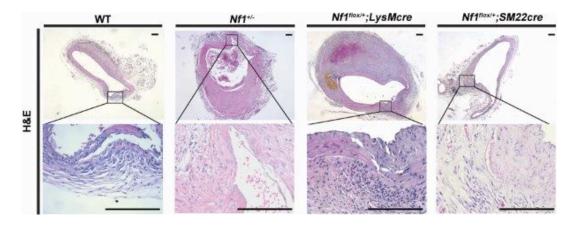


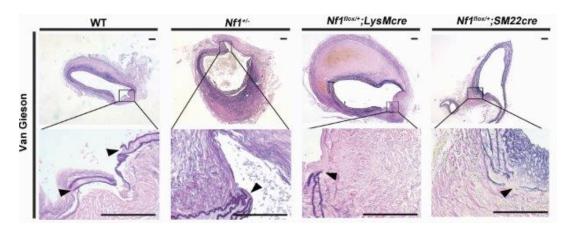
Figure 12. Heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* in myeloid cells alone is sufficient to recapitulate Nf1 abdominal aortic aneurysm formation. (A) Representative photographs of abdominal aortas from Ang II-infused WT. Nf1^{+/-}, Nf1^{fl/+}:LysM^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} mice. Scale bars: 1mm. Saline-infused WT, Nf1^{+/-}, Nf1^{fl/+}:LvsM^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} mice did not form AAAs. (**B**) Quantification of AAA incidence. (C) Maximum abdominal aortic diameter of Ang II-infused WT, Nf1^{+/-}, Nf1^{fl/+};LysM^{cre} and Nf1^{fl/+};SM22^{cre} mice. Clustering around 1mm represents animals without AAA formation. *P<0.05 for Ang II-infused WT (n=10) versus Ang II-infused $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=9), and Ang II-infused WT versus $Nf1^{fl/+}$; Lys M^{cre} (n=15). **P<0.05 for Ang II-infused Nf1^{fl/+}; SM22^{cre} (n=10) versus Ang II-infused Nf1^{+/-}, and Ang II-infused Nf1^{fl/+}; SM22^{cre} versus Ang II-infused Nf1^{fl/+}:LysM^{cre}. Analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test. Error bars denote mean ± SEM. For B and C, no statistical significance was observed for Ang II-infused WT versus Ang IIinfused Nf1^{fl/+}; SM22^{cre}, or Ang II-infused Nf1^{+/-} versus Ang II-infused $Nf1^{fl/+}$; Lys M^{cre} . (**D**) Severity index of AAAs for Ang II-infused WT (n=10), $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=9). $Nf1^{fl/+}$:Lys M^{cre} (n=15) and $Nf1^{fl/+}$;S $M22^{cre}$ mice (n=10).

Figure 13

A



В



С

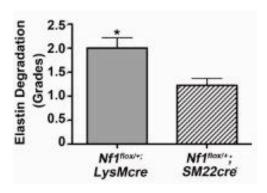


Figure 13. *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} mice have enlarged and more severe abdominal aortic aneurysms similar to *Nf1*^{+/-} mice. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from Ang II-infused WT, *Nf1*^{+/-}, *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} and *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre}, stained with H&E or (**B**) van Gieson for elastin. Boxes identify area that is magnified in lower panel. Arrowheads identify fragmentation of elastic lamina in van Gieson photomicrographs and yellow staining identifies ECM. Saline infusion did not produce AAAs in any genotype. Scale bars: 50µm. (**C**) Grading of elastic lamina degradation in Ang II-infused *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} and *Nf1*^{flox/+};*SM22*^{cre} mice. **P*<0.05 for *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} (*n*=12) versus *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre} (*n*=9). No statistical significance in elastic lamina degradation grade was observed between *Nf1*^{fl/+}:*LysM*^{cre} and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice or *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre} and WT mice.

Figure 14

Α

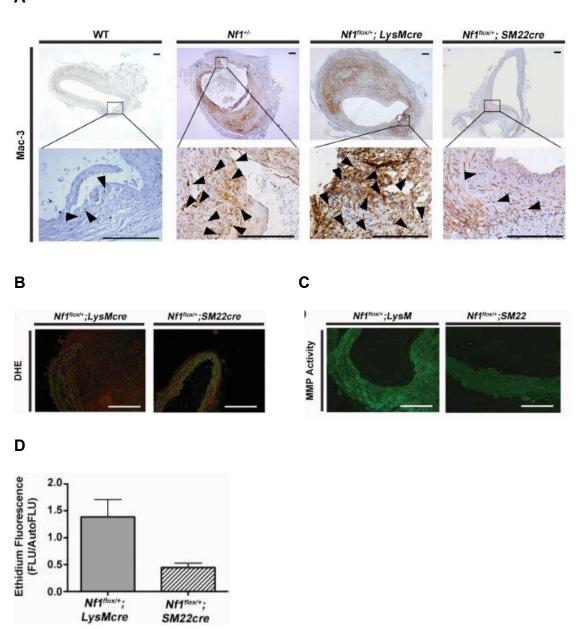


Figure 14. *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} aneurysms contain increased macrophage infiltration, MMP activity and superoxide levels similar to *Nf1*^{+/-} mice. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from Ang II infused WT, *Nf1*^{+/-}, *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre}, and *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre} mice stained with anti-Mac-3 antibody for macrophages (brown cells, arrowheads). Black boxes specify area that is magnified in lower panel. Scale bars: 50 μm. (**B**) Representative photomicrographs showing MMP activity in *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} and *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre} mice. Scale bars: 50μm. (**C**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from Ang II-infused *Nf1*^{fl/+};*LysM*^{cre} and *Nf1*^{fl/+};*SM22*^{cre} mice, showing superoxide production identified by *in situ* DHE staining (red). Autofluorescence of murine tissue is visible (green). Scale bars: 50μm. (**D**) Bar graph depicts quantification of ethidium fluorescence.

DISCUSSION

Cardiovascular disease is an important under recognized non-neoplastic manifestation in NF1 patients, which contributes significantly to debilitating morbidities and early mortality and encompasses a variety of pathologies (23). Many of these vascular pathologies, including aneurysm formation and arterial stenosis, are often clinically silent, making an accurate measure of both disease frequency and burden difficult to determine (33). Thus, an understanding of the initiation and progression of these vascular pathologies is critical to facilitate cardiovascular disease risk screening, early recognition, and intervention in NF1 patients.

A major limitation in understanding NF1 aneurysm disease has been the lack of an animal model that closely recapitulates the human disease. In the current study, two common murine models of aneurysmal disease were adapted to *Nf1* heterozygous mice, which provide novel approaches to examine the cellular and molecular mechanisms that regulate NF1 aneurysm formation. In both experimental models, histologic analysis of *Nf1*^{+/-} aneurysms revealed increased macrophage infiltration, MMP-9 expression and activation, and ROS production, which are molecular and cellular signatures of aneurysm formation observed in other experimental animals independent of neurofibromin deficiency (56, 57, 108, 109). These observations suggest that vascular inflammation and macrophage secretory products are critical factors in NF1 aneurysmal disease consistent with aneurysm formation in other diseases with chronic inflammation

(56, 64, 109). This is an important observation since it has been previously demonstrated that NF1 patients without known cardiovascular disease have increased numbers of CD14^{dim}CD16^{hi} circulating pro-inflammatory monocytes and elevated levels of inflammatory cytokines including IL1 β and IL-6 (22), which have been previously linked to vascular disease in non-NF1 subjects in large population studies (37).

To directly determine the contribution of neurofibromin-deficient myeloid cells to *Nf1***/- aneurysm formation, lineage-restricted transgenic mice were utilized to specifically ablate a single *Nf1* allele in myeloid cells alone.

Heterozygous inactivation of the *Nf1* gene in myeloid cells alone was sufficient to reproduce the aneurysm phenotype observed in *Nf1***- mice. Importantly, despite significant expansion of *Nf1***- VSMCs in arterial walls, aneurysm frequency and severity in transgenic mice harboring a single *Nf1* allele in VSMCs were similar to WT controls. Collectively, this genetic study directly implicates neurofibromindeficient myeloid cells as the critical cellular effectors of aneurysm formation in *Nf1***- mice.

Neurofibromin negatively regulates the Ras signaling cascade in multiple mammalian cell types by accelerating the conversion of active Ras-GTP to its inactive GDP confirmation (5). Loss of this function in *Nf1* heterozygous cells and subsequent augmentation of Ras signaling and activation of its downstream effectors including the Ras-Mek-Erk and Ras-PI-3K pathways, render cells hypersensitive to a number of growth factors contributing to the variety and the complexity of disease manifestations observed in NF1 patients (12, 22, 34, 101,

110-112). Interestingly, myeloid cells and their progenitor cells are particularly sensitive to Ras activation and demonstrate multiple gain-of-function phenotypes contributing to myelo-proliferative disease, plexiform neurofibroma formation, bone disease, and vasocclusive disease in various animal models of NF1 disease (22, 34, 111-114). Relevant to the current study, myeloid cells secrete growth factors and cytokines that are well established mediators of cardiovascular disease including atherosclerosis (115), vessel occlusion (34), and aneurysm formation (116). In view of our recent report that neurofibromin-deficient myeloid cells are the primary mediators of *Nf1*^{+/-} arterial stenosis (34), the observation that *Nf1*^{+/-} mice develop more frequent and severe aneurysms mediated via heterozygous inactivation of *Nf1* in myeloid cells alone highlights the global pathogenic consequences of neurofibromin-deficient myeloid cells to diverse NF1 clinical manifestations, including cardiovascular disease.

Myeloid cell recruitment and infiltration of the vessel wall to initiate elastic lamina degradation are essential steps in the pathogenesis of aneurysm formation (56). Ang II facilitates aneurysm formation via activation of VSCMs and monocytes, which secrete cytokines and chemotactic factors leading to enhanced production of MMPs, resulting in vascular inflammation and vessel wall remodeling (63, 117). Though several molecular ligand-receptor signaling cascades contribute to the progression of aneurysmal disease, pharmacologic inhibition or genetic disruption of monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1) binding to its primary receptor, CCR2, significantly reduces aneurysm formation (117-119). This signaling axis is particularly interesting since pro-inflammatory

monocytes co-express high cell surface levels of the CCR2 receptor (120, 121). Therefore, increased CD14^{dim}CD16^{hi} pro-inflammatory monocytes found within NF1 patients may be an important factor leading to the increased incidence of CVD and aneurysm formation. Whether *Nf1*^{+/-} macrophages are mobilized from the bone marrow, to the blood and into the vascular wall or proliferate locally within the wall of the aorta from the recently described common myeloid progenitor remains to be elucidated (117, 122).

Another striking observation in this study is the increased production of ROS and MMPs in *Nf1**/- vessel walls and developing aneurysms. Production of ROS and MMPs by various cell types is known to be critical for aneurysm formation in several model systems. Genetic or pharmacologic disruption of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in mice decreases aneurysm formation (58, 123). These findings suggest that MMPs, released by resident and infiltrating vascular wall cells, are key molecular events in aneurysm formation. Given these observations, our current study suggests that increased levels of MMP-9 observed in *Nf1* heterozygous aneurysms may play a significant role in NF1 aneurysm progression, warranting further investigation to examine whether genetic modification and pharmacologic inhibition of MMP-9 activity alone can inhibit aneurysm initiation and progression in our *Nf1* experimental system.

Increased ROS levels are also detected in various human and murine cardiovascular lesions including aneurysms (61, 94). Moreover, evidence suggests that ROS overproduction facilitates MMP activation and contributes to vascular inflammation and vessel wall remodeling (124). Loss of neurofibromin

has been shown to directly stimulate the adenylyl cyclase/cyclic AMP pathway amplifying mitochondrial ROS production in *Drosophila melanogaster*, independent of the Ras/Raf pathway (125). Conversely, constitutively active Ras mutations dramatically increase ROS production in mammalian hematopoietic progenitor cells via NADPH oxidase (NOX2) activation without increasing mitochondrial ROS (126). Although these studies differ in regards to the source of ROS production due to neurofibromin deficiency, increased ROS from either source has the ability to activity MMPs in the vascular wall potentially leading to aneurysm formation. These prior experimental observations highlight the need to unravel the potentially complicated redox state within neurofibromin-deficient cells, which could trigger oxidant stress in various tissues including the vessel wall.

Previous studies have also identified increased expression of ROS producing-NOX subunits p22^{phox} and p47^{phox} within aortic aneurysms of non-NF1 patients and mice (61, 127). Genetic disruption of p47^{phox} significantly diminishes oxidative stress and subsequent aneurysm formation in mice infused with Ang II (64). These data suggest a role of NOX proteins as producers of ROS in aneurysm pathogenesis, indicating potential sources for the observed *Nf1*^{+/-} production of ROS. Further, these studies also provide rationale for transgenic murine studies using cell specific deletion of p47^{phox} and gp91^{phox} within endothelial cells, VSMCs and/or monocytes/macrophages in *Nf1*^{+/-} mice to test whether specific NOX isoform(s) contribute to ROS overproduction and subsequent aneurysm development.

Together, the current study establishes the first animal models of NF1 aneurysm disease and identifies myeloid cells as the critical cellular effectors. Given the utility of these *Nf1* aneurysm models, additional studies will refine the biochemical triggers for NF1 vascular disease using genetic and pharmacologic approaches. These insights could provide the pre-clinical data for future human studies in NF1 patients to identify early cardiovascular disease and potential therapeutic strategies for prevention and treatment of vascular disease.

CHAPTER TWO

IDENTIFICATION OF EXCESSIVE INFLAMMATION AND OXIDATIVE STRESS AS CRITICAL BIOCHEMICAL PROCESSES LEADING TO $NF1^{+/-}$ ANEURYSM FORMATION

INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular Disease and Oxidative Stress.

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), including superoxide, hydrogen peroxide, peroxide, hydroxyl radical and hydroxyl ion, play an important role as signaling molecules intracellularly and intercellularly in response to growth factors and chemical stimulation (128-130). ROS can rapidly react and oxidize lipids and proteins resulting in chemical and structural modification which under appropriate redox regulation can lead to proper signal transduction (131). However, when the redox state is not properly regulated oxidation of lipids, proteins and DNA can occur in a detrimental manner and has been implicated in many diseases processes including cardiovascular disease (132), neurodegeneration (133), diabetes (134) and aging (135). The production of ROS results primarily from professional oxidases, such as those in the NADPH oxidase (NOX) family, and as a byproduct of inefficient aerobic metabolism by mitochondria (136).

The NOX family of professional oxidases includes NOX1, NOX2, NOX3, NOX4, NOX5, dual oxidase-1 (DUOX1) and DUOX2. While the NOX proteins produce superoxide, the DUOX proteins may use superoxide generated by NOX proteins to produce hydrogen peroxide (137, 138). NOX2 is the most thoroughly studied enzyme of the NOX family and is found in phagocytic cells producing superoxide, which is expelled during the oxidative burst as part of innate immunity (139). The superoxide-producing active complex of NOX2 is made up of 6 subunits including gp91phox and p22phox (flavocytochome b₅₅₈) which are

located in the plasma membrane, as well as 4 regulatory subunits that reside in the cytoplasm while inactive including p40phox, p47phox, p67phox, and Rac (140). Of note, chronic granulomatous disease (CGD) patients are characterized by the absence of the ph91phox component of NOX2, resulting in the inability to clear bacteria and debris. Additionally, CGD patients develop granulomas due to a defect in the potent oxidative burst resulting in granuloma formation, indicating the physiological importance of this complex (141).

Regulation of NOX2 is multidimensional in both cellular location and signal transduction. Inactive flavocytochome b₅₅₈ is stored within intracellular granules while p40phox, p47phox and p67phox make up an inactive dephosphorylated complex within the cytoplasm (142, 143). Inactive Rac is GDP-bound and complexed with Rho-GDI (144). Upon stimulation, granules containing flavocytochome b₅₅₈ fuse to phagosomes and interact with the phosphorylated p47phox, p40phox, p67phox complex and active GTP-bound Rac forming the active oxidase (145). Phosphorylation has been shown to be dependent on Ras-Mek-Erk signaling pathway indicating a potential role in NF1 for inappropriate activation of NOX2 (146). Phosphatidylinositol-3,4,5-triphosphate which is generated by PI-3K, also under control of neurofibromin, is required to bind with p40phox to allow for association of the phosphorylated p40phox, p47phox and p67phox complex with the plasma membrane and flavocytochome b₅₅₈ (147). Finally, Rac activation has also been shown to be important in cross-talk between the Ras-Mek-ERK pathway and the PI-3K pathway further linking neurofibromin regulated pathways and NOX2 activation (148).

Although many members of the NOX family are currently being investigated for their role in CVD, the main focus has been on the role of NOX2 due to its ability to produce the largest amount of superoxide in a short time, as well as its expression in phagocytes, which are commonly found associated with and implicated in cardiovascular lesion formation. Immunohistochemical studies have identified increased expression of p22phox and p47phox within aortic aneurysms of non-NF1 patients and mice (61, 127). Additionally, *in vivo* studies of p47phox-deficient mice implicate p47phox as a critical mediator of aneurysm formation (64). These findings underscore the importance of the NOX2 subunits, in the development of aneurysmal tissue and also show that inhibition may be a viable therapeutic target.

Mitochondrial superoxide formation via aerobic respiration may also be an important contributor to CVD (149). Mitochondria produce ATP via a proton gradient established through oxidative phosphorylation by transferring electrons from NADH or FADH2 to oxygen, producing water (150). In normal conditions 1 to 2% of electrons form superoxide rather than water and are quickly dismutated to hydrogen peroxide by superoxide dismutase. If the electron transport chain becomes uncoupled, a large amount of superoxide can be released into the cytoplasm, leading to intracellular, intercellular and extracellular damage of lipids, protein, and DNA. Regulation of mitochondrial respiration, and therefore ROS release, has been shown to be mediated via the adenylyl cyclase/cyclic AMP/protein kinase A pathway. Decreases in neurofibromin lead to a reduction in protein kinase A and decreased mitochondrial respiration and greater ROS

production. The converse was also true when Nf1 was overexpressed in Drosophilia or cyclic AMP was supplemented; efficient mitochondrial respiration was increased and ROS was decreased leading to a protective oxidative state and increased lifespan (125).

Overall, oxidative stress displays a causal relationship in cardiovascular disease and in affected individuals in the general population. Studies presented above indicate that NF1 patients may have increased oxidative burden compared to the general population, resulting in the earlier onset and increased severity of CVD. Mechanisms leading to the oxidative burden may be complexed and from multiple cellular sources warranting further investigation to identify therapeutic targets.

HMG-CoA Reductase inhibitors and Cardiovascular Disease.

HMG-CoA Reductase inhibitors, or statins, were originally developed as a potential cancer treatment to attenuate oncogenic Ras activity by reducing isoprenoid synthesis, an intermediate in cholesterol synthesis, that is necessary for proteins to interact with the plasma membrane (151). Statins have a long history of being used to reduce cholesterol levels and therefore reduce the risk of coronary artery disease (CAD) in patients (152). It was believed that the cholesterol lowering affect of statins was the mechanism of reduced CAD in patients on statins. More recently, large clinical studies have noted that subjects receiving statins have a greater protection from CAD than placebo subjects with

similar cholesterol levels, indicating a mechanism independent of cholesterol reduction (153).

Several hypotheses exist explaining the mechanisms of the observed pleotropic effects of statins, which seem to work in concert to provide cardiovascular protection. It is hypothesized that of HMG-CoA reductase inhibition reduces the amount of lipid intermediates in the cholesterol synthesis pathway, including geranyl pyrophosphate, farnesyl pyrophosphate and isopentenyl pyrophosphate(151). Many proteins rely on post-translational modification and attachment of these lipids to enable trafficking and membrane binding within the cell. Importantly, Ras and Ras-like proteins, including Rho and Rac, are heavily dependent on post-translational prenylation for proper functioning (151, 154). Reduction in Ras and Rac activity could lead to reduced NOX2 activation and explain the antioxidant affects of statins (155). In addition to cholesterol and possible ROS reductions, statins have multiple potential effects on vascular endothelium. Hypercholesterolemia impairs nitric oxide synthesis and release, both critical functions to multiple components of athrogenesis (156-158). Importantly, decreased nitric oxide synthesis allows for vasoconstriction, clot formation, VSMC proliferation and leukocyte recruitment, all hallmarks of both atherosclerosis and aneurysm formation (159). Statins have been shown to directly upregulate endothelial nitric oxide synthase leading to proper functioning of the endothelium, even before cholesterol levels have been reduced (160, 161). Overall, HMG-CoA reductase inhibition has beneficial effects in maintaining vessel wall homeostasis and reducing CVD.

Apocynin and Cardiovascular Disease.

Oxidative stress is a known component of many forms of cardiovascular disease. Antioxidant therapy has shown encouraging potential in various murine models of cardiovascular disease but has translated poorly to the clinic (155). Apocynin (4-hydroxy-3methoxy-acetophenone), a plant extract, has been shown to function as a potent antioxidant (162). Apocynin is a monomer that is thought to be a general antioxidant in this natural form; however, in cells which express myeloperoxidase apocynin can be dimerized or trimerized, both of which display the specific ability to block the association of p47phox with gp91phox thereby inhibiting superoxide formation by NOX2 (163). Myeloperoxidase is expressed in many hematopoietic cell types including macrophages, monocytes and neutrophils (164, 165). Importantly, myeloperoxidase is not expressed in VSMCs or endothelial cells indicating the majority of benefit seen in studies utilizing apocynin were largely from NOX2 inhibition in myeloid cells (166).

Apocynin has shown efficacy in the treatment of CVD in multiple animal models. In a rat model of hypertension, apocynin attenuated vascular wall superoxide formation, eliminating hypertension by allowing nitric oxide to diffuse freely, restoring normal VSMC relaxation (167, 168). Apocynin has also been found to reduce atherosclerotic progression in hypercholesterolemic mice, indicating the importance of ROS in those disease processes while highlighting the ability of apocynin to inhibit multiple types of CVD. Although apocynin has shown impressive efficacy in mouse models of CVD, no clinical trials have evaluated its use in human CVD. Currently, only one human clinical trial has

been completed, which investigated inhaled apocynin in mild asthmatics. The study observed no adverse effects of apocynin administration, as well as a reduction of hydrogen peroxide, nitrate and nitrite in exhaled breath condensate up to 2 hours after nebulization (169). By suggesting that apocynin is well tolerated in humans and can lead to a reduction in ROS, this trial provides a strong case for further investigation into potential uses for apocynin and future clinical trials.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patient Recruitment.

NF1 patients were recruited by the Indiana University NF1 Clinic at Riley Hospital for Children. All patients received a physical examination and a medical history was taken to confirm the diagnosis of NF1 according to the NIH clinical criteria (14, 15). Patients with a history of cancer, on anti-cancer drugs or pregnant were excluded from the study. All patients gave informed consent prior to participation in the study.

Comet assay.

Blood samples were collected from NF1 patients (37.6±9.7 years) and sex and age-matched controls (40.2±8.1 years) into EDTA vacutainer tubes (BD Biosciences). Mononuclear cells from approximately 16mLs of blood were isolated by centrifugation using Ficoll-Paque Plus (GE Healthcare) (170). Mononuclear cells were assayed for oxidative DNA damage as previously described, with modification (171). Following cellular lysis, slides were treated Formamidopyrimidine DNA glycosylase (FPG) which recognized and removed oxidized purines, causing a DNA break (172).

Simvastatin administration.

When indicated, simvastatin (Besse, OH) was administered as a suspension in water at 1 mg/kg/day via oral gavage beginning 7 days prior to

Ang II or saline infusion and continued throughout the course of experimentation.

Water was administered via oral gavage to control mice in an equivalent volume as simvastatin.

Apocynin administration.

When indicated, Apocynin (also known as acetovanillone, 100mg/kg/day, Arcos Organics) was administered in drinking water beginning 7 days prior to Ang II or saline infusion and continued throughout the course of experimentation. Control mice received water at a similar volume.

RESULTS

NF1 patients have evidence of oxidative stress in white blood cells.

NF1 patients without known cardiovascular disease have evidence of chronic vascular inflammation as evidenced by increased circulating proinflammatory monocytes (22). Other disease processes characterized as having chronic vascular inflammation, such as diabetes, have been linked to increase oxidative stress (173). Therefore, we sought to investigate markers of oxidative stress in white blood cell samples from NF1 patients using the comet assay to analyze DNA damage. Briefly, cells are dispersed into individual cells and embedded in agarose on a microscope slide and lysed. Formamidopyrimidine DNA glycosylase (FPG) was added to cleave any oxidized DNA bases. Upon electrophoresis large DNA strands will not be able to move through the agar while smaller DNA pieces, caused by FPG cleavage, will migrate forming a comet tail-like appearance which can be quantified to asses oxidative DNA damage (172). NF1 patients displayed nearly a 2-fold increase in the amount of oxidative DNA damage as compared to control patients (Figure 15). This data indicates that circulating white blood cells are overproducing ROS even before differentiating to macrophages during extravasation into the vessel wall. Additionally, this data supports our previous hypothesis that myeloid cells are predominant producer of ROS in the vessel wall.

Figure 15
Oxidative DNA Damage in WBCs

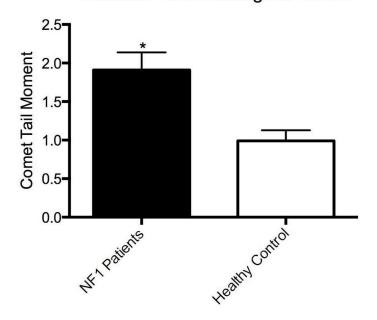


Figure 15. NF1 patients have increased DNA damage.

Quantification of mean comet tail moment in white blood cells from NF1 and control patients. *P<0.05 for NF1 (n=10) versus control (n=28).

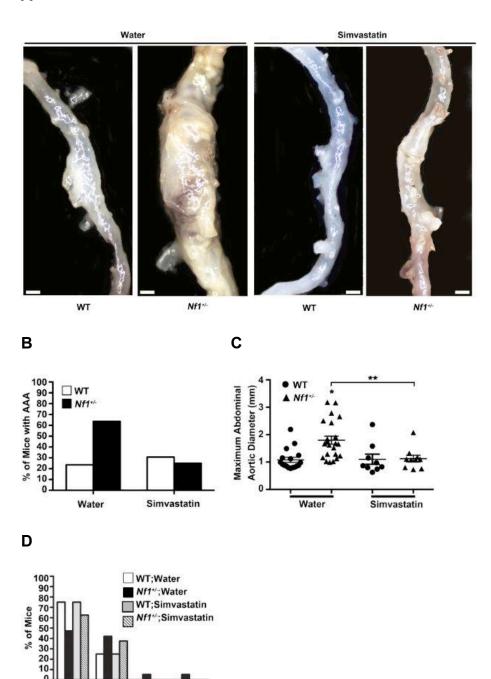
Simvastatin attenuates Ang II-induced AAA formation in Nf1+/- mice.

HMG-CoA reductase inhibitors are clinically efficacious in the prevention of several manifestations of CVD, including aneurysm formation (174), which is in part attributable to their anti-inflammatory and antioxidant properties (175). Recent studies revealed that daily statin therapy significantly reduces arterial stenosis in Nf1+/- mice in part by inhibiting macrophage functions central to disease progression (34). Therefore, we tested whether simvastatin would reduce Nf1+/- aneurysm formation given our genetic data implicating the essential function of macrophages in both the initiation and progression of aneurysmal disease as well as previous findings of chronic inflammation and oxidative stress. WT and Nf1+/- mice were treated with daily low-dose simvastatin (1 mg/kg/day) or water for 7 days prior to initiation of Ang II infusion and continued for 35 days. Low-dose simvastatin reduced AAAs in Ang II-infused Nf1+/- mice by greater than 2-fold compared to water-treated controls (Figure 16A, 16B and 17A) without affecting blood pressure or serum cholesterol levels. Corresponding decreases in aortic diameter and severity in Ang II-infused Nf1+/- mice were also observed (Figure 16C and 16D). There was no significant difference in AAA incidence, maximum aortic diameter, or severity in Ang II-infused WT mice in either treatment group (Figure 16A through 16D). However, simvastatin treatment reduced arterial remodeling, macrophage infiltration (Figure 17A through 17C) MMP-9 expression and activation, and ROS production (Figure 18A through 18D) in arterial cross-sections from Nf1^{+/-} mice when compared to water treatment. These results demonstrate that simvastatin prevents Ang II-induced

AAA formation in *Nf1*^{+/-} mice, providing a potential therapeutic for NF1 aneurysmal disease.

Figure 16

Α



) I II I Aneurysm Classification **Figure 16.** Simvastatin reduces Ang II-induced $Nf1^{+/-}$ abdominal aortic aneurysms. (**A**) Representative photographs of abdominal aortas from water or simvastatin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice. Scale bars: 1mm. (**B**) Quantification of aneurysm incidence in water or simvastatin-treated, Ang II-infused mice. (**C**) Maximum abdominal aortic diameter of water or simvastatin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice. Clustering around 1mm represents animals without aneurysm formation. *P < 0.05 for water-treated WT (n=17) versus water-treated $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=22). **P < 0.05 for water-treated $Nf1^{+/-}$ versus simvastatin-treated $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=10). Analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's test. Error bars denote the mean \pm S.E.M. For **C**, no statistical significance was observed for water-treated WT versus simvastatin-treated WT (n=13). (**D**) Severity index of AAAs of Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice treated with water (WT, n=17; $Nf1^{+/-}$, n=22) or simvastatin (WT, n=9; $Nf1^{+/-}$, n=10). For **B-D**, saline-infused WT or $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice in either treatment group did not form aneurysms.

Figure 17

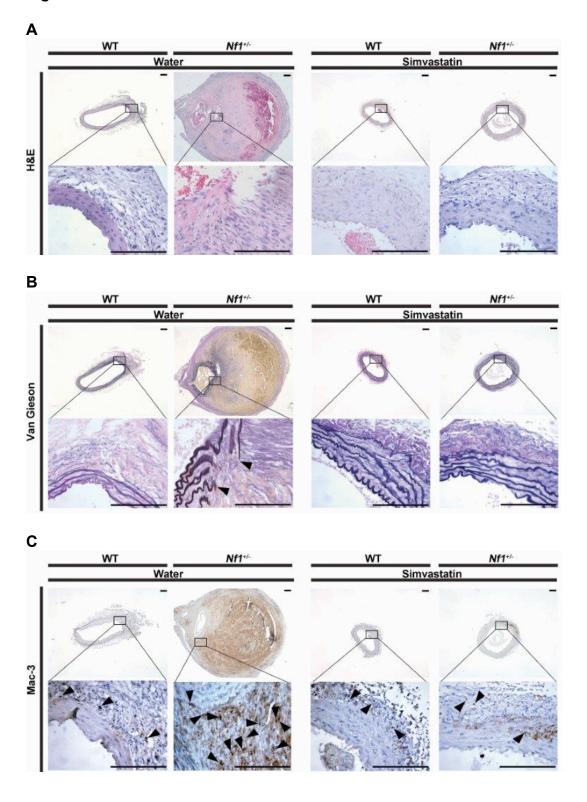
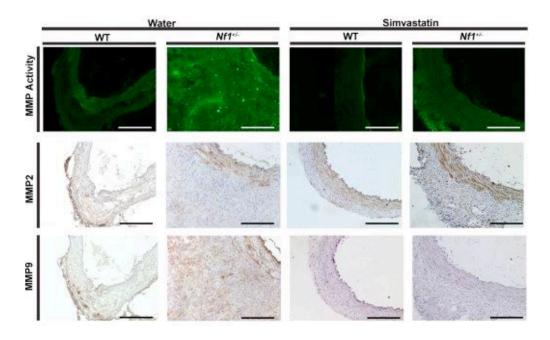


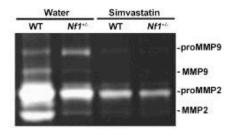
Figure 17. Simvastatin reduces Ang II-induced *Nf1**/- abdominal aortic aneurysms and macrophage infiltration. Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from water or simvastatin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice stained with (**A**) H&E, (**B**) van Gieson for elastin or (**C**) anti-Mac-3 (arrowheads). Boxes specify area magnified in lower panel. Saline-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice treated with water or simvastatin did not produce aneurysms. In **A**, arrowheads identify fragmentation of elastic lamina and yellow staining identifies ECM. Scale bars: 50μm.

Figure 18

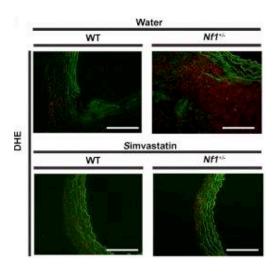
Α



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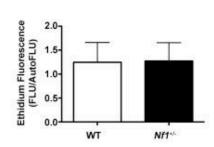


Figure 18. Simvastatin attenuates Ang II-induced *Nf1**/- MMP expression and activation and superoxide production. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from water or simvastatin treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice. MMP activity (green) was visualized by *in situ* zymography and expression of MMP-2 and MMP-9 was detected by IHC staining with anti-MMP-2 (brown) and anti-MMP-9 antibodies (brown). Scale bars, 50µm. (**B**) Representative zymogram showing abdominal aortic MMP-2 and MMP-9 levels from water or simvastatin treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice. (**C**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from water or simvastatin treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/- mice showing ROS identified by *in situ* DHE staining (red). Auto fluorescence of murine tissue is visible (green). (**D**) Quantification of ethidium fluorescence for simvastatin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1**/-

Apocynin attenuates Ang II-induced AAA formation in Nf1^{+/-} mice.

Increased production of ROS has been demonstrated in several animal models of CVD and antioxidant therapy has shown some utility in reversing many of these processes (65). Based on our observation that NF1 patients have increased oxidative DNA damage and that *Nf1*^{+/-} aortas have evidence of increased ROS in response to Ang II infusion, we sought to explore the ability of antioxidant therapy, using apocynin, in attenuating *Nf1*^{+/-} aneurysm formation. Though generally recognized as a non-specific antioxidant, recent evidence suggests that apocynin may inhibit superoxide production in cells containing myeloperoxidase, including macrophages and monocytes (166, 176).

WT and *Nf1**/- mice were treated with apocynin for 7 days prior to initiation of Ang II infusion and continued for 35 days thereafter. Apocynin reduced AAAs in Ang II-infused *Nf1**/- mice by greater than 2-fold compared to water-treated controls, while apocynin did not have a significant effect on WT mice (Figure 19A and 19B). Additionally, decreases in both maximum abdominal aortic diameter and aneurysm severity were also noted in apocynin-treated *Nf1**/- mice while apocynin-treated WT mice did not display a difference in either parameter (Figure 19C and 19D). Remodeling of the arterial wall, macrophage infiltration and ROS production was significantly reduced in apocynin-treated *Nf1**/- mice when compared to water-treated controls (Figure 20 and 21). These results identify overproduction of ROS as a significant contributor to *Nf1**/- aneurysm formation and provide evidence that antioxidants may be a viable therapeutic option.

Figure 19

Α

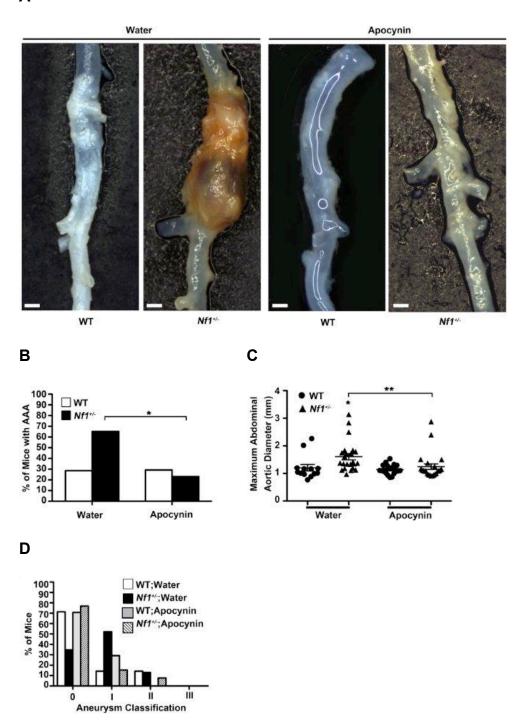
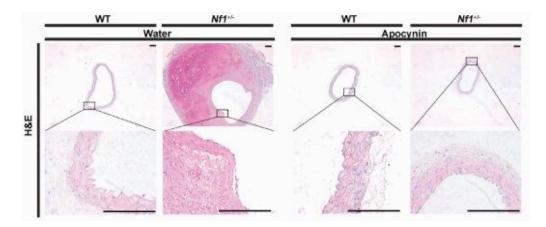


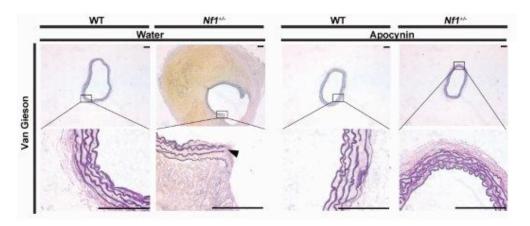
Figure 19. Apocynin reduces Ang II-induced Nf1+/- abdominal aortic aneurysms. (A) Representative photographs of abdominal aortas from water or apocynintreated, Ang II-infused WT and Nf1+/- mice. Scale bars: 1mm. (B) Quantification of aneurysm incidence in water or apocynin-treated, Ang II-infused mice. *P<0.0083 for water-treated $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=23) versus apocynin-treated $Nf1^{+/-}$ (n=26). Analysis by Fisher's exact test with Bonferroni Correction. (C) Maximum abdominal aortic diameter of water or apocynin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice. Clustering around 1mm represents animals without aneurysm formation. *P<0.05 for water-treated WT (n=14) versus water-treated Nf1*/-(n=23). **P<0.05 for water-treated Nf1*/- versus apocynin-treated Nf1*/- (n=26). Analysis by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. Error bars denote the mean ± S.E.M. For **B** and **C**, no statistical significance was observed for watertreated WT versus apocynin-treated WT (n=24). (**D**) Severity index of AAAs of Ang II-infused WT and $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice treated with water (WT, n=14; $Nf1^{+/-}$, n=23) or apocynin (WT, n=24; $Nf1^{+/-}$, n=26). For **B-D**, saline-infused WT or $Nf1^{+/-}$ mice in either treatment group did not form aneurysms.

Figure 20

Α



В



С

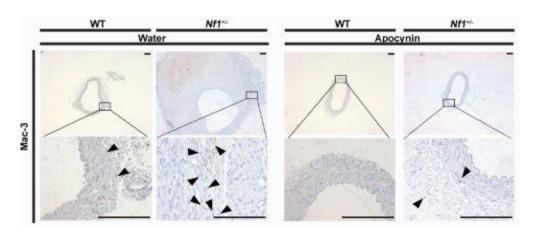
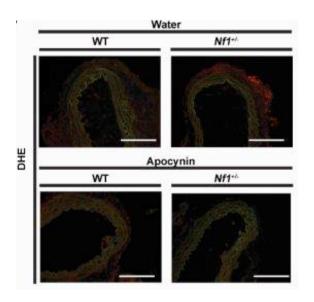


Figure 20. Apocynin prevents Ang II-induced AAA formation in Nf1+/- mice.

- (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from water or apocynin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice stained with H&E,
- (**B**) van Gieson for elastin or (**C**) anti-Mac-3 (arrowheads). Boxes specify area magnified in lower panel. Saline-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice treated with water or apocynin did not produce aneurysms. In **B**, arrowhead identifies fragmentation of elastic lamina and yellow staining identifies ECM. Scale bars: 50µm.

Figure 21





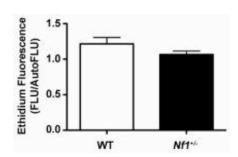


Figure 21. Apocynin reduces Ang II-induced superoxide formation in *Nf1*^{+/-} mice. (**A**) Representative photomicrographs of abdominal aortic cross-sections from water or apocynin treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-} mice showing ROS identified by *in situ* DHE staining (red). Auto-fluorescence of murine tissue is visible (green). (**B**) Quantification of ethidium fluorescence for apocynin-treated, Ang II-infused WT and *Nf1*^{+/-}.

DISCUSSION

Cardiovascular disease, and specifically aneurysm formation, has hallmark pathologic features including macrophage infiltration and oxidative stress. NF1 patients and *Nf1* heterozygous mice display evidence of chronic vascular inflammation characterized by an increase in circulating proinflammatory monocytes (20, 22). *Nf1* heterozygous mice displayed larger and more severe aneurysms compared to WT; however, overall comparisons between the aneurysms showed similar features of macrophage infiltration, elastic lamina degradation, MMP activity and superoxide formation. It is therefore likely that *Nf1** aneurysm formation progresses via a similar pathogenesis to WT, and the increased incidence and severity is the result of increased circulating pro-inflammatory monocytes and increased oxidative stress produced from these monocytes and differentiated macrophages.

Therefore, excessive vascular inflammation and oxidative stress within NF1 patients and mice provide a rational target for therapeutic intervention. Statins are efficacious in reducing inflammation and oxidative stress independent of their lipid lowering capacity in both human trials and animal models (175, 177, 178). Specifically, statins reduce post-translational modification of proteins such as Ras and Rac, potentially resulting in reduced Ras activation and NAPDH activation, respectively, in aneurysm-inducing neurofibromin-deficient myeloid cells (151, 154). Additionally, statins have positive effects on the vascular endothelium within the first month of treatment, demonstrated by increased nitric

oxide synthesis and improved vascular homeostasis (160, 161). The safety profile is additionally important which makes them advantageous for use in pediatric patients, as evidenced by recent trials in NF1 children (179), which may be important since evidence of vascular inflammation was identified in adolescent NF1 patients (22).

In the current study, simvastatin dramatically reduced *Nf1**/- aneurysm formation with corresponding attenuation of MMP-9 activation and ROS production, lending strong evidence to the role of inflammation and oxidative stress in NF1 aneurysm development, as well as a potential therapeutic option for patients. Importantly, simvastatin was administered at a relatively low dose compared to other studies, which likely explains the absence of aneurysm attenuation in WT mice. These findings indicate NF1 patients and mice may be more susceptible to the positive effects of simvastatin at a lower dose than non-NF1 patients, due to increases in both Ras activation and Rac activation of NOX2 in untreated patients. Based on our pre-clinical findings that low-dose statin treatment attenuates aneurysm formation and vasocclusive disease (20), it is possible that statins could be a viable therapeutic intervention in NF1 patients for the prevention and treatment of CVD.

To further evaluate the biochemical mechanisms of NF1 aneurysm formation and identify another possible therapeutic for the treatment of NF1 CVD, *Nf1* heterozygous mice were treated with the antioxidant and NOX2 inhibitor, apocynin. Treatment reduced aneurysm incidence to near WT levels while significantly attenuating MMP activity and superoxide formation. These results,

as well as increased oxidative damage in white blood cells of NF1 patients, strongly suggest ROS derived from monocytes and/or macrophages as the biochemical mechanism leading to NF1 aneurysm formation. Apocynin inhibition of NOX2 may also reduce the homing or inflammatory activity of neurofibromindeficient myeloid cells, similar to findings in a WT pain model (180).

Together, these results indicate *Nf1*^{+/-} aneurysmal disease progresses via a similar pathogenic mechanism to normal aneurysm development; however, due to the increases in inflammation and ROS, larger and more severe aneurysms are produced. Additionally, we provide pharmacologic evidence that aneurysm formation in *Nf1*^{+/-} mice is significantly attenuated by daily low-dose administration of the HMG-CoA reductase inhibitor simvastatin, as well as the NOX2 inhibitor apocynin. Finally, these studies provide compelling pre-clinical evidence implicating simvastatin and apocynin as possible therapeutic interventions for both the prevention and treatment of NF1 cardiovascular disease.

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Award. IUPUI, Indianapolis, IN

GRANTS and FELLOWSHIPS

2011-2013 Indiana Clinical and Translational Sciences

Institute (CTSI) Predoctoral training grant

2007 Undergraduate Research Opportunities Program

Science Fellowship, Indiana University-Purdue

University, Indianapolis, Indiana

2006 Undergraduate Research Opportunities Program

Travel Funding, Indiana University-Purdue

University, Indianapolis, Indiana

PEER REVIEWED PUBLICATIONS

- Li F*, Downing BD*, Smiley LC, Mund JA, DiStasi MR, Bessler WK, Sarchet KN, Hinds DM, Kamendulis LM, Hingtgen CM, Case J, Clapp DW, Conway SJ, Stansfield BK, Ingram DA. "Neurofibromin Deficient Myeloid Cells are Critical Mediators of Aneurysm Formation *In Vivo*." *Circulation*. 2014;129(11):1213-1224. *Authors contributed equally.
- Stansfield BK, Bessler WK, Mail R, Mund JA, Downing BD, Kapur R, Ingram DA. "Ras-Mek-Erk Signaling Directly Regulates Nf1 heterozygous Neointima Formation." American Journal of Pathology. 2013;184(1):79-85.
- Stansfield BK, Bessler WK, Mali R, Mund JA, **Downing B**, Li F, Sarchet KN, DiStasi MR, Conway SJ, Kapur R, Ingram DA. "Heterozygous inactitivation of the *Nf1* gene in Myeloid Cells Enhances Neointima Formation via a Rosuvastation-Sensitive Cellular Pathway." *Human Molecular Genetics*. 2013;22(5):977-88.
- **Downing B**, Morgan R, Vanhulle K, Deem A, Malkova A. "Large inverted repeats in the vicinity of a single double-strand break strongly affect repair in yeast diploids lacking Rad51." Mutation Research. 2008;645(1-2):9-18.

- Deem A., Barker K., Vanhulle K., Downing B., Vayl A., Malkova A. "Defective break-induced replication leads to half-crossovers in Saccharomyces cerevisiae." Genetics. 2008;179(4):1845-1860.
- Vanhulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., **Downing B.**, Hull K., McCullough C., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T.D., Malkova A. "Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements", Mol. and Cell. Biol. 2007;27(7):2601-2614.

ABSTRACTS

- **Downing B**, Li F, Bessler WK, Stansfield BK, Mund JA, Sarchet K, Distasi MR, Ingram DA. "Myeloid Cells Induce *Nf1*+/- Aneurysm Formation via Activation of NADPH Oxidase." National Clinical and Translational Sciences Predoctoral Programs Meeting, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, May 5-7, 2013. (oral presentation)
- Stansfield B, Bessler W, Mund J, **Downing B**, Mali R, Kapur R, Ingram D. Heterozygous inactitivation of the *Nf1* gene in Myeloid Cells Enhances Neointima Formation via a Rosuvastation-Sensitive Cellular Pathway. Midwest Society for Pediatric Research, Nationwide Children's Hospital, Columbus, OH, October 4-5, 2012. (oral presentation)
- **Downing B**., Li F., Ingram D.A. Monocyte/macrophages are the primary effectors of *Nf1*^{+/-} aneurysm formation via increased activation of the NADPH oxidase system. 1st annual South-Central Regional M.D./Ph.D. Conference. Louisville, KY, September 8, 2012.
- Downing B., Li F., Distasi M.C., Smiley L.C., Stansfield B.K., Sarchet K., Mund J.A., Bessler W.K., Ingram D.A. Myeloid cells are the primary effectors of Neurofibromatosis Type 1 aneurysms via the NADPH oxidase system. Indiana Clinical and Translational Sciences Institute 4th Annual Meeting. Indianapolis, IN, Aug 31, 2012.
- Downing B., Li F., Bessler W.K., Stansfield B.K., Mund J.A., Sarchet K., Distasi M.C., Smiley L.C., Ingram D.A. Monocyte/macrophages are the primary effectors of Nf1^{+/-} aneurysm formation via increased activation of the NADPH oxidase system. Gordon Research Conference: NOX Family NADPH Oxidases. Waterville Valley, NH, June 3-8, 2012.
- Distasi MR, Ortiz MA, Campana GL, **Downing B**, Mund JA, Miller SJ, Labarrere CA, Ingram DA, Unthank JL. Role of NAD(P)H Oxidase in Obesity-Induced Impaired Compensation to Subcritical Limb Ischemia. Gordon Research Conference: NOX Family NADPH Oxidases. Waterville Valley, NH, June 3-8, 2012.

- Downing B., Li F., Bessler W.K., Stansfield B.K., Mund J.A., Sarchet K., Distasi M.C., Smiley L.C., Ingram D.A. Monocyte/macrophages are the primary effectors of Nf1^{+/-} aneurysm formation via increased activation of the NADPH oxidase system. Gordon Research Seminar: NOX Family NADPH Oxidases. Waterville Valley, NH, June 2-3, 2012. (oral presentation)
- **Downing B.**, Li F., Bessler W.K., Stansfield B.K., Mund J.A., Sarchet K., Distasi M.C., Ingram D.A. Myeloid cells induce *Nf1*^{+/-} aneurysms via activation of NADPH oxidase. National Clinical and Translational Sciences Predoctoral Programs Meeting. Rochester, MN, May 6-8 2012.
- Stansfield B., Bessler W., Mund J., Sarchet K., **Downing B**., Distasi M., Smiley L., Li F., Ingram D. Monocyte/macrophages are the primary effectors of Nf1+/- vaso-occlusive disease. Children's Tumor Foundation: NF Conference. Jackson Hole, WY, June 11-14, 2011.
- Malkova A., **Downing B.**, VanHulle K., and Deem A. Single-strand annealing between inverted repeats initiated by double-strand breaks. FASEB Summer Research Conference "DNA palindromes: roles, consequences and implications of structurally ambivalent DNA", Saxtons River, VT, July 6–11, 2008.
- **Downing B.**, VanHulle K., Malkova A. "Deleterious pathways channeling repair of double-strand breaks into chromosomal rearrangements." National Conference on Undergraduate Research. Salisbury MD, April 10-12, 2008.
- Downing B., VanHulle K., Malkova A. "Deleterious pathways channeling repair of double-strand breaks into chromosomal rearrangements." IUPUI Undergraduate Spring Research Conference. Indianapolis IN, March 28, 2008.
- Deem A., VanHulle K., Downing B., Hull K., and Malkova A. "Deleterious pathways channeling repair of double-strand breaks into chromosomal rearrangements." FASEB Summer Research Conference. "Genetic recombination and genome rearrangements", Snow Mass CO, July 28-August 2, 2007.
- Downing B., Malkova A. "Genetic control of the SSA-GCR pathway of double-strand repair." IUPUI Summer Undergraduate Research Poster Symposium, Indianapolis IN, July 26, 2007.
- Downing B., Malkova A. "Genetic control of SSA-GCR pathway in yeast".
 IUPUI Undergraduate Summer Research Conference. Indianapolis IN, March 30, 2007.

- VanHulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., **Downing B.**, Hull K., McCullough C., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T.D., Malkova A. "Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements". Gordon Research conference "Mutagenesis", Newport RI, August 1-5, 2006.
- McCullough C., VanHulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., Downing B., Hull K., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T.D., Malkova A. "Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements". IUPUI Undergraduate Summer Research Conference, Indianapolis, IN, July 2006.
- Deem A, VanHulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., Downing B., Hull K., McCullough C., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T. D., and Malkova A. Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements. SALK Institute Research Conference on DNA replication and genomic integrity, San Diego, CA, July 26-29, 2006.
- VanHulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., **Downing B.**, Hull K., McCullough C., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T.D., Malkova A. "Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements". Yeast chromosome structure, replication, and segregation, Indian Wells CA, June 24-29, 2006.
- VanHulle K., Lemoine F. J., Narayanan V., **Downing B.**, Hull K., McCullough C., Bellinger M., Lobachev K., Petes T.D., Malkova A. "Inverted DNA repeats channel repair of distant double-strand breaks into chromatid fusions and chromosomal rearrangements". 8th Annual Midwest DNA Repair and Mutagenesis Symposium, Indianapolis IN, May 20-21, 2006.