

natureresearch



OPEN Longitudinal profiling of oligomeric A\Beta in human nasal discharge reflecting cognitive decline in probable Alzheimer's disease

Seung-Jun Yoo^{1,2,7}, Gowoon Son^{1,7}, Jisub Bae¹, So Yeun Kim^{1,2}, Yong Kyoung Yoo³, Dongsung Park³, Seung Yeop Baek⁴, Keun-A Chang⁵, Yoo-Hun Suh⁵, Yeong-Bae Lee⁶, Kyo Seon Hwang³, YoungSoo Kim⁴ & Cheil Moon^{1,2}

Despite clinical evidence indicating a close relationship between olfactory dysfunction and Alzheimer's disease (AD), further investigations are warranted to determine the diagnostic potential of nasal surrogate biomarkers for AD. In this study, we first identified soluble amyloid- β (A β), the key biomarker of AD, in patient nasal discharge using proteomic analysis. Then, we profiled the significant differences in AB oligomers level between patient groups with mild or moderate cognitive decline (n = 39) and an age-matched normal control group (n = 21) by immunoblot analysis and comparing the levels of A β by a self-standard method with interdigitated microelectrode sensor systems. All subjects received the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE), Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR), and the Global Deterioration Scale (GDS) for grouping. We observed higher levels of Aß oligomers in probable AD subjects with lower MMSE, higher CDR, and higher GDS compared to the normal control group. Moreover, mild and moderate subject groups could be distinguished based on the increased composition of two oligomers, 12-mer Aβ*56 and 15-mer AβO, respectively. The longitudinal cohort study confirmed that the cognitive decline of mild AD patients with high nasal discharge Aβ*56 levels advanced to the moderate stage within three years. Our clinical evidence strongly supports the view that the presence of oligomeric A β proteins in nasal discharge is a potential surrogate biomarker of AD and an indicator of cognitive decline progression.

Abbreviations

Alzheimer's disease CDR Clinical dementia rating

Αβ Amyloid-β

Αβ42 Amyloid-β 1–42 peptide CSF Cerebrospinal fluid

ELISA Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

GDS Global deterioration scale HRP Horseradish peroxidase MDS Multimer detection system MMSE Mini mental state examination MRI Magnetic resonance imaging

¹Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Graduate School, Daegu Gyeungbuk Institute of Science and Technology, Daegu, Republic of Korea. ²Convergence Research Advanced Centre for Olfaction, Daegu Gyeungbuk Institute of Science and Technology, Daegu, Republic of Korea. 3Department of Clinical Pharmacology and Therapeutics, College of Medicine, Kyung Hee University, Seoul, Republic of Korea. 4Integrated Science and Engineering Division, Department of Pharmacy, Yonsei Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Yonsei University, Incheon, Republic of Korea. ⁵Department of Pharmacology, School of Medicine, Gachon Medical School, Incheon, Republic of Korea. ⁶Department of Neurology, Gil Medical Center, Gachon University, Incheon, Republic of Korea. ⁷These authors contributed equally: Seung-Jun Yoo and Gowoon Son. [™]email: cmoon@dgist.ac.kr

PBS Phosphate-buffered saline
RLU Relative light/luminescence units
TBST Tris-buffered saline with Tween 20

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common type of dementia characterized by progressive cognitive decline and the accumulation of the both amyloid- β (A β) plaques and tau neurofibrillary tangles in the brain. The diagnosis of AD requires pathological observations in the central nervous systems¹⁻⁷. However, current diagnostic methods are not for routine measurements to consider the reliability of diagnosis. In addition, accessing brain tissues and cerebrospinal fluid is invasive and positron emission tomography exposes subjects to radioactive tracers. Although blood is considered one of the most promising fluid biomarker candidates for AD, this approach still has to overcome critical issues, such as low concentrations (e.g. p-tau: ~pg/ml)⁸, plasma stability, blood-brain barrier penetration of key protein biomarkers to be used for primary diagnosis and prognosis.

Fluid biomarkers within the peripheral nervous systems could be an excellent solution to avoid limitations utilizing cerebrospinal fluid and blood. The olfactory system, in particular the olfactory epithelium, has unique amyloid precursor protein (APP)—processing mechanisms. The olfactory epithelium (OE) has unusual secretases expression compare to CNS, and distinct increased expression of presenilin 1 and 2 (γ -secretase) under pathological conditions⁹. Olfactory dysfunction is often observed concurrently with or prior to cognitive impairment in AD and other dementia based on epidemiological evidence (\sim 90%) $^{10-12}$. In particular, the high prevalence of olfactory dysfunction among AD patients indicates a possible correlation between olfactory deficits and AD pathogenesis (i.e., the expression of A β in the olfactory tissue) $^{13-16}$.

Based on this clinical and experimental evidence, we hypothesized that nasal discharge could be a candidate to monitor pathophysiological changes in the olfactory system during neurodegeneration that may result in AD. Our previous animal study supports the hypothesis by reporting that specific oligomeric A β (A β *56 and A β O) was existed in the olfactory epithelium at different progression stages of AD with evident cognitive impairment in AD transgenic mice; Tg2576, a Swedish mutant form of human amyloid precursor protein (APP) (KM670/671NL) (promoter: hamster prion protein (PrP))¹⁶. In addition, there are previous studies that prove that there is a direct linkage pathway between CSF and olfactory systems that directly reflect alterations occurring in the CNS, and there are also previous studies in which biomarkers of CSF are found in olfactory mucosa. Taking all possibilities together, nasal discharge may contains a wide assortment of proteins released from damaged olfactory sensory neurons or outflow of CSF through the cribriform plate under pathological condition 17-19.

In this study, we obtained nasal discharge samples from both the probable AD group and the age-matched normal control group and examined the presence of $A\beta$ in the nasal discharge and determined the type of $A\beta$ oligomers specific to the patient group. Then, we demonstrated that $A\beta$ was expressed in the nasal discharge from AD patients by liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC–MS) and that changes in the oligomeric $A\beta$ composition in the nasal discharge were correlated with cognitive decline among the patient groups by immunoblot analysis. We also identified the expression patterns of oligomeric $A\beta$ species in patients with different stages of cognitive dysfunction by immunoassays and comparing the levels of $A\beta$ by a self-standard (CLASS) method to measure the self-standard ratio defined the value of the impedance change in the monomerized sample divided by intact sample with interdigitated microelectrode (IME) sensor systems²⁰. Lastly, we assessed alterations in two specific types of oligomeric $A\beta$ levels in nasal discharges in three-year longitudinal cohorts.

Results

Cohorts. We recruited participants and grouped them into clinically confirmed cohorts. Subjects were categorized according to the National Institute of Neurological and Communicative Disorders and Stroke and the Alzheimer's Disease and Related Disorders Association (NINCDS/ADRDA) of the American Psychiatric Association criteria for the diagnosis of probable AD $^{1,21-23}$. A total of 60 participants were enrolled, 21 in the normal control group and 39 in the probable AD group (Table 1) 23 . Statistically significant differences between the groups were detected in the Mini-Mental State Examination (MMSE) (dementia: 20.47 ± 3.73 ; normal: 27.61 ± 0.85 , P < 0.001) and the Clinical Dementia Rating (CDR) scores (dementia: 0.65 ± 0.23 ; normal: 0.47 ± 0.12 , P < 0.001) (Table 1). Moreover, the Global Deterioration Scale (GDS) scores of the dementia group was significantly higher than the normal group (dementia: 3.29 ± 0.37 ; normal: 1.94 ± 0.24 , P < 0.001) (Table 1).

Identification of oligomeric A β in nasal discharge. We first examined the presence of A β monomers and oligomers in the nasal discharge samples of two probable AD subjects. We performed LC–MS/MS analysis using samples immunoprecipitated with an antibody against an A β peptide (6E10, Covance, Princeton, NJ, USA). A 12-residue internal tryptic peptide sequence of LVFFAEDVGSNK, identical to human A β (17–28), was detected. Because various forms of distinct A β are deposited in spatially and temporally distinct manners during AD progression, we examined the specific soluble oligomerized A β species in nasal discharges using immunoblot analysis. We performed an immunoblot assay of nasal discharges from the possible AD group using an antibody against various A β oligomers (A11, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) after immunoprecipitation with 6E10. We identified assemblies of A β s, A β *56, 12-mer peptide (~56 kDa), and A β O, 15-mer peptide (~80 kDa), in the nasal discharge from the probable AD group (Fig. 1A). Next, we measured levels of A β *56 and A β O in the nasal discharge samples of normal controls and probable AD subjects by an immunoblot assay with an anti-oligomeric A11 antibody and an anti-A β D54D2. Compared to the normal control group, the probable AD group exhibited the increased expression of both sizes of oligomeric A β in their nasal discharges (Fig. 1B).

Increased oligomeric $A\beta$ in the nasal discharge of the probable AD group. To verify the presence of upregulated soluble $A\beta$ oligomers in the probable AD group, we used our previously verified CLASS

Conditions	Normal		Dementia (probable AD)		
Gender	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Number of subjects	21		39		
	10	11	24	15	
Age (years; mean ± SE)	71.92 ± 5.27		76.30 ± 6.18 (ns)		
	73.72 ± 6.92	70.29 ± 3.77	76.92 ± 6.84	75.32 ± 5.12	
MMSE (mean ± SE)	27.61 ± 0.85		20.47 ± 3.73 (***)		
	27.55 ± 0.82	27.71 ± 0.95	21.62 ± 3.43	19.88 ± 0.63	
CDR (mean ± SE)	0.47 ± 0.12		0.65 ± 0.23 (***)		
	0.45 ± 0.15	0.50 ± 0.00	0.61 ± 0.22	0.66 ± 0.24	
GDS (mean ± SE)	1.94 ± 0.24		3.29±0.37 (***)		
	2.00 ± 0.00	1.85 ± 0.38	3.31 ± 0.63	3.36 ± 0.57	

Table 1. Summary of cognitive assessments and age by disease status and gender. The data are presented as means \pm SEs. For the statistical analysis, one-way ANOVA was performed, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test. Statistical significance is denoted as ns: P > 0.05, ***P < 0.001. MMSE, CDR, and GDS refer to the Mini-Mental State Examination, the Clinical Dementia Rate, and the Global Deterioration Scale, respectively.

method with IME sensor systems 20 . In our previous research, the CLASS method demonstrated high accuracy in discerning the normal group from the AD group in human plasma. The CLASS method dissociates aggregated A β into monomers by a chemical, EPPS ([4-(2-hydroxyelthyl)-1-piperazinepropanesulfonic acid]), and allows quantitative measurements of oligomeric A β in proportion to the total A β pool in nasal discharge samples. The IME sensor system is a highly sensitive electrical detection tool to identify the presence of protein biomarkers at sub pg/mL scales. The integration of the CLASS method along with a highly sensitive IME sensor system enabled us to avoid the individual fluctuations that can occur from the conventional analysis of amyloid aggregates under heterogeneous conditions. Conventional methods measuring A β levels under the presence of various A β conformations were not successful, which led to the misinterpretation of A β as an unreliable biomarker $^{24-26}$. The self-standard ratio obtained from both the normal control group and the probable AD group was used to assess the levels of oligomeric A β in the nasal discharge. The levels of oligomeric A β species in the nasal discharge of the probable AD group (n = 39) were significantly higher than those of the normal control group (n = 21) (Fig. 1C).

The levels of $A\beta^*56$ and $A\beta O$ in the nasal discharge samples were also measured by immunoblot analysis and we found higher expression of both oligomeric $A\beta s$ in the probable AD group compared to the normal control group (Fig. 1D, E). When we examined the correlations between the $A\beta$ oligomer levels and other non-AD factors (e.g., age and sex), there was no correlation between $A\beta$ oligomer levels and age and sex (Fig. S2). Taken together, our results suggest that the detection of soluble $A\beta$ oligomers in the nasal discharge could be a specific feature of probable AD patients.

Different profiles of $A\beta*56$ and $A\beta O$ in AD stages. The probable AD group was further categorized based on their MMSE, CDR, and GDS scores into mild (n=26) and moderate stages (n=13) as summarized in Table $2^{1,21}$. Compared to the normal group, the sum of the $A\beta*56$ and $A\beta O$ levels was significantly higher in both groups and different between the two stages (Fig. 2A, B). The mean $A\beta*56$ levels were significantly higher in both the mild and moderate probable AD groups than the normal group, whereas we detected no significant difference between the mild and moderate AD groups (Fig. 2C). In contrast, the mean $A\beta O$ levels were significantly higher in the moderate stage probable AD group than in the other two groups, whereas no significant difference was found between the normal and mild AD groups (Fig. 2D). Taken together, the $A\beta$ oligomerization profiles in nasal discharge may vary depending on the AD progression, shown by the higher expression of $A\beta*56$ in the mild stage and higher expressions of both $A\beta*56$ and $A\beta O$ in the moderate stage compared to the normal group.

These results suggest that profiling alterations of $A\beta^*56$ and $A\beta O$ levels in nasal discharge may distinguish the stages of AD-associated cognitive decline. We compared the oligomer proportion of total $A\beta$ (Fig. S3A), the levels of $A\beta^*56$ (Fig. S3B), and the levels of $A\beta O$ (Fig. S3C) with MMSE scores (Table 3). Our results revealed that the self-standard ratio (a.u.) for the levels of oligomeric $A\beta$ species moderately (0.6 > R > 0.4) correlated across the full range of MMSE scores (R = 0.5293; black line; Fig. S3A and Table 3). However, when stratified by MMSE scores, the levels of $A\beta^*56$ better (R > 0.6) correlated (R = 0.6069; red line) with the mild AD and normal groups compared to the moderate AD group (R = 0.6815; pink line; Fig. S3B and Table 3). According to our results, the expression level of $A\beta^*56$ in the nasal discharge was most correlated with cognitive function in the mild AD stage. In contrast, $A\beta O$ levels strongly correlated (R = 0.6061; pink line) with moderate AD stage, and correlated (R = 0.4010; red line) slightly with the mild AD and normal stages (Fig. S3C). The expression level of $A\beta O$ in the nasal discharge was most correlated with cognitive function in the moderate AD stage. Our results statistically confirmed that the level of specific oligomerized $A\beta O$ in the nasal discharge correlated with changes in cognitive function in different AD stages, which was probably due to AD-related dementia progression.

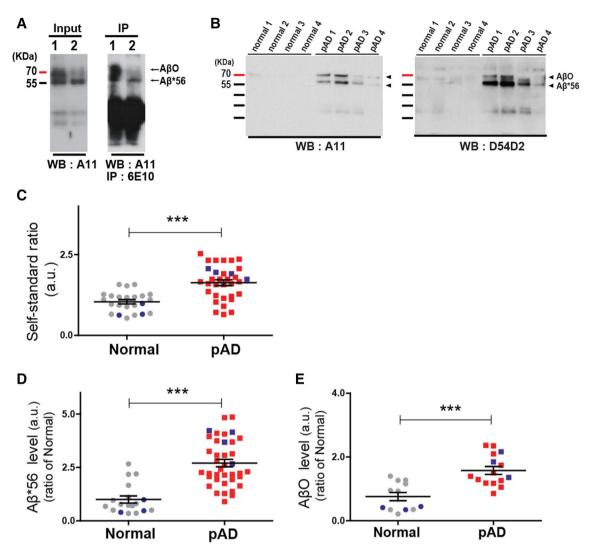


Figure 1. Soluble $A\beta$ oligomers are detected in the nasal discharges from probable AD group (pAD). Immunoblotting verification; soluble $A\beta$ oligomers were detected in the nasal discharges of pAD group. (A) Identification of $A\beta$ oligomer, assessed by western blot (WB; A11) with or without immunoprecipitation (IP: 6E10) using samples (1; pAD1 and 2; pAD2) from pAD group. (B) Representative data for A11-immunoreaactive (left) and D54D2-immunoreaactive (right) soluble $A\beta$ oligomers are detected in nasal discharges of pAD group (4; pAD1, pAD2, pAD3 and pAD4) and normal group (4; normal 1, normal 2, normal 3 and normal 4). (C) The total levels of soluble $A\beta$ species in nasal discharges were measured between the normal and pAD groups using CLASS method (self-standard ratio (a.u.)). (D) Quantification of soluble $A\beta$ *56 protein. Expression levels of proteins were quantified using stereological analysis (ImageJ program). (E) Quantification of soluble $A\beta$ O protein. Expression levels of proteins were quantified using stereological analysis (ImageJ program). Data are represented as means ± SEMs from three independent experiments. Value of samples were identified as outliers through Grubbs' test, also called the ESD method. For statistical analysis, paired t-test was performed. Statistical significances are denoted (***P<0.001).

Longitudinal measurements of cognitive function with high A β *56 expression levels in their nasal discharges. We performed the longitudinal cohort study of mild AD patients with distinct A β *56 expression levels in their nasal discharges over three years. We divided the mild AD group (n=22) within the total AD subjects into two groups based on their A β *56 levels in nasal discharges. We determined the baseline for dividing the groups using the average of A β *56 levels in the total AD subjects (n=38). Since the average A β *56 level was 2.65, we set 2.65 as the baseline for dividing the mild AD group (n=22). The subjects with A β *56 levels below 2.65 were grouped as into a Low group (n=11), whereas participants with A β *56 levels above 2.65 were grouped into a High group (n=11) (Table 4). Then, the changes in the MMES and GDS scores in both groups were monitored annually for three years (46±7 months) (Table 4). We found that the High group experienced a declining trend in MMSE scores (Fig. 3A) and a significant increase in the GDS scores (Fig. 3B) within three years. We also found that the expression level of A β *56 in nasal discharge correlated with changes in cognitive function in the AD subjects. When stratified by MMSE score changes in the AD subjects over three years (1st to 3rd-year data), the levels of A β *56 were moderately correlated with MMSE scores (R=-0.4226; red line)

		Dementia (probabl	Dementia (probable AD)		
Conditions	Normal	Mild stage	Moderate stage		
Number of subjects	21	26	13		
Age (mean ± SE) (years)	72.39 ± 6.01	75.17±5.61 (ns)	76.93 ± 5.92 (ns)		
MMSE (mean ± SE)	27.61 ± 0.85	23.17±1.11 (***)	16.33 ± 2.12 (***)		
CDR (mean ± SE)	0.47 ± 0.12	0.52 ± 0.10 (ns)	0.83 ± 0.24 (***)		
GDS (mean ± SE)	1.94±0.24	3.04 ± 0.21 (***)	3.80 ± 0.68 (***)		

Table 2. Summary of cognitive assessments and age by disease progression status. Disease progression status was divided into three groups: normal (MMSE > 25, CDR < 0.5, and GDS < 2), mild (20 < MMSE < 25, 0.5 < CDR < 1, and 2 < GDS < 3), and moderate (MMSE < 20, CDR > 1, and GDS > 3). The data are presented as means \pm SEs. For the statistical analysis, one-way ANOVA was performed, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc test. Statistical significance is denoted as ns: P > 0.05, ***P < 0.001). MMSE, CDR, and GDS refer to the Mini-Mental State Examination, the Clinical Dementia Rate, and the Global Deterioration Scale, respectively.

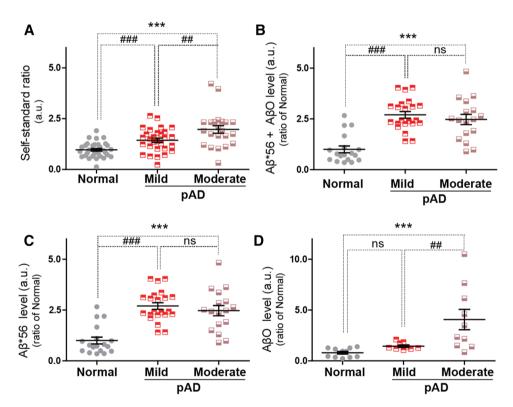


Figure 2. The specific composition of soluble Aβ in nasal discharges from different stages of probable AD group (pAD). (**A**) The total levels of soluble Aβ species using CLASS method (self-standard ratio (a.u.)) in nasal discharges were measured in (Normal (22), mild stage (25) and moderate stage (13) of pAD groups. (**B**) Quantification of soluble Aβ*56 + AβO protein levels. Expression levels of proteins were quantified using stereological analysis (ImageJ program) in Normal (18), mild stage (22) and moderate stage (17) of pAD groups. (**C**) Quantification of soluble Aβ*56 protein. Expression levels of proteins were quantified using stereological analysis (ImageJ program) in Normal (18), mild stage (22) and moderate stage (17) of pAD groups. (**D**) Quantification of soluble AβO protein. Expression levels of proteins were quantified using stereological analysis (ImageJ program) in Normal (12), mild stage (9) and moderate stage (10) of pAD groups. Data are represented as means ± SEMs from three independent experiments. Value of samples were identified as outliers through Grubbs' test, also called the ESD method. For the statistical analysis, one-way ANOVA was performed, followed by Dunnett's post hoc test. Statistical significance is denoted (ns > 0.05, ***P < 0.001). In addition, paired t-test was performed. Statistical significances are denoted (ns > 0.05, **P < 0.05, ***P < 0.001).

	Normal—mild	Normal-Moderate	Normal—Mild+Moderate
Self-standard ratio (a.u)	R=0.5603	R=0.3087	R=0.5239
	(***)	(***)	(***)
Aβ*56 level (a.u) (ratio of normal)	R=0.6815	R = 0.6909	R=0.5246
	(***)	(***)	(***)
AβO level (a.u) (ratio of normal)	R=0.6061	R = 0.4010	R=0.5173
	(***)	(***)	(***)

Table 3. Correlation analysis between levels of soluble $A\beta$ oligomers and cognitive function. Correlation analysis between the total levels of soluble $A\beta$ species (Self-standard ratio, $A\beta*56$ and $A\beta$ O) in nasal discharges and MMSE scores was conducted. Linear regression analyses of the total oligomeric soluble $A\beta$ showed significant correlation with the MMSE score. We calculated the correlation between soluble $A\beta$ oligomer levels and cognitive function with the line shows the regression line with 95% confidence interval. Statistical significances are denoted (***P<0.001).

Group	Low (Aß*56 level < 2.65)			High (Aß*56 level≥2.65)		
Age	76.82 ± 4.88			74.45 ± 5.77		
Sex	M		F	M		F
sex	4		7	3		8
Aß*56 level	2.01 ± 0.48			3.58 ± 0.58		
Test year	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	1st year	2nd year	3rd year
MMSE	21.09 ± 3.34	21.82 ± 3.19	21.55 ± 2.97	18.82 ± 3.21	18.45 ± 4.36	17.45 ± 4.98
GDS	3.27 ± 0.45	3.36 ± 0.48	3.18 ± 0.39	3.55 ± 0.66	3.55 ± 0.66	3.82 ± 0.72

Table 4. Summary of divided groups by Aß*56 level. The data are represented as means \pm SDs. Each group was divided to include the same number of subjects based on the Aß*56 level. Low group: Aß*56 levels below 2.65, High group: Aß*56 levels above 2.65. MMSE and GDS refer to the Mini-Mental State Examination and the Global Deterioration Scale, respectively.

(Fig. 3C). Similarly, the expression levels of $A\beta^*56$ were also moderately correlated (R=0.4103; red line) with changes in the GDS scores in AD subjects over three years (1st to 3rd year data) (Fig. 3D). This finding suggests that high $A\beta^*56$ expression levels in their nasal discharges are associated with cognitive decline in AD patients.

Discussion

Declining sensory function is common in neurodegenerative disorders, including AD^{27,28}. In particular, olfactory dysfunction is an indisputable characteristic of patients with AD^{29,30}. Meta-analysis studies on olfactory function and cognitive dysfunction reported significant problems in an odor processing pathway in presumed and confirmed cases of AD³¹. Therefore, it is highly intriguing to test whether a particular state of olfaction represents AD pathology. The symptoms of olfactory dysfunction have been attributed to neurodegeneration occurring in the olfactory central pathway in the central nervous system^{4,32}. However, the findings of the present study that soluble A β oligomers were easily detectable in the nasal discharge of the probable AD group may suggest an alternative explanation. Moreover, the finding that the expression profile of soluble A β oligomers closely correlated with a decline in the cognitive performance of patients with probable AD pathology may provide an opportunity for the early screening of AD by nasal discharge samples.

The peripheral olfactory system contributes to AD-related olfactory dysfunction via its processing of the amyloid precursor protein⁹, although the precise mechanisms remain unclear. Moreover, another study on the peripheral olfactory system in an AD mouse model also showed that the expression of soluble Aβ oligomers, Aβ*56 and AβO in the olfactory system was toxic to olfactory sensory neurons and consequently led to olfactory impairments¹⁶. Direct links to studies using an AD model mouse of human AD dementia should be made cautiously, however, the results using an AD model mouse were highly comparable to the results using human nasal discharge presented here. The unregulated oligomerization of $A\beta$ in the nasal secretion of patients with AD dementia was also recently reported³³, although the direct identification of $A\beta$ in nasal discharge, as well as the relative expression of $A\beta$ oligomer isoforms in the nasal discharge, were not shown. Here, we first identified $A\beta$ proteins in human nasal discharge in patients with serious cognitive decline (probably with AD dementia) and the total amount of $A\beta$ proteins increased in the nasal discharge of patients with possible AD dementia. From our qualitative analysis of $A\beta$ in nasal discharge, we revealed two specific types of $A\beta$ oligomers, which were well validated by previous studies in either mice or humans. Through the results, we confirmed that a certain amount of amyloid β can be detected in both the normal and patient groups. However, a specific amyloid beta (A\(\beta^*56\), A\(\beta\)O) that can clearly distinguish the normal group from the patient group was tested. In previous study, it has been demonstrated that an oligomerized form of A\(\beta\), A\(\beta^*56\), correlated with cognitive deficits and that ABO, a more oligomerized form, induced direct cytotoxicity and significantly mediated cell death during AD progression in a mouse model^{34,35}. Taken together, we propose that $A\beta^*56$ is dramatically upregulated in

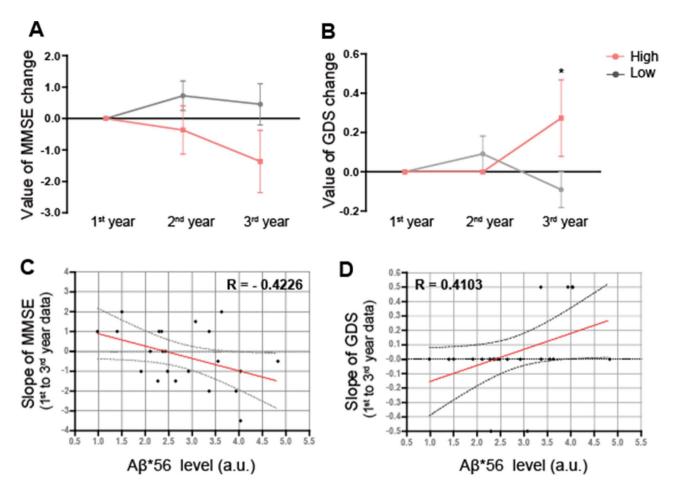


Figure 3. The association between soluble Aβ oligomer levels and cognitive performance over time (for 3 years). (**A**) MMSE change pattern over 3 years (baseline is 1st year). (**B**) GDS change pattern over 3 years (baseline is 1st year). Marginally significance on interaction by two-way RMANOVA (P=0.050). High group show higher change of GDS compare to Low group on 3rd year. Statistical significance is denoted (ns > 0.05 and *P<0.05) followed by Bonferroni post hoc test. (**C**-**D**) Correlation analysis between soluble Aβ oligomer levels and slope of cognitive performance. Increased levels of soluble Aβ oligomers in nasal discharge are associated with declining cognitive status over time. This effect is constant over time; levels of soluble Aβ oligomers in nasal discharge are significantly associated with declining cognitive status after 3 years.

the peripheral olfactory system during the early stages of dementia, followed by an increase in A β O expression during the later stages of AD dementia. Furthermore, we suggest that these observations imply that increases in soluble A β aggregates in the peripheral olfactory system may be closely related to AD progression and then, that A β aggregation in the peripheral olfactory system may precede diminished cognitive function in the CNS. In fact, our 3-year longitudinal cohort study showed that high levels of A β *56 in the nasal discharge in the mild AD group could be a premonitory symptom of the further catastrophic progression of dementia. It is still difficult to claim a direct link between A β oligomers in nasal discharge and AD pathogenesis in the brain since such a claim requires an explanation of how the soluble A β oligomers in the olfactory system are associated with AD-related cognitive impairment. Despite many reservations, we propose a novel and convenient approach for monitoring cognitive decline with possible AD progression (Fig. 4).

To date, a number of clinical trials have been conducted to overcome progressive neural dysfunction in patients with AD dementia. However, only minor delays in disease progression have been achieved $^{36-38}$. Therefore, treatment effectiveness may be maximized by timely intervention. To this end, a great deal of effort is currently being exerted to optimize the monitoring or either AD initiation or progression. Here, we showed that the levels of soluble A β oligomers in nasal discharge were significantly higher in patients with probable AD. Furthermore, routine nasal discharge screenings can be a better option in AD screening due to additional advantages, such as relatively low cost, non-invasive sampling and so on. A few issues still need to be clarified, such as retrospective cross-sectional verification studies of $A\beta$ in the nasal discharge and identification of other biomarker candidates in the nasal discharge. In addition, Relationships with other neurodegenerative diseases by associations in underlying pathological, physiological, and possibly genetic linkages also need to be considered in the selection of other biomarker candidates 39 . In particular, when considering limitations in the accuracy of AD diagnosis known to date 40 , additional experiments considering other neurodegenerative disease patient groups, such as PDs, may be necessary in future plan. However, our results from patients with probable AD reveal the

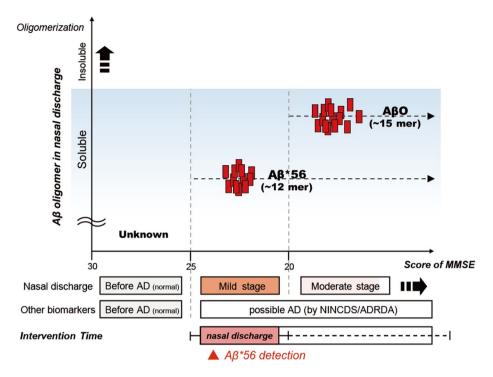


Figure 4. Schematic diagram which laid advantage out of AD diagnosis using nasal discharge.

feasibility of using nasal discharge to screen for AD biomarkers, as well as biomarkers to monitor AD progression. Taken together, the results of this study introduce a novel and simple approach to assessing AD progression by monitoring the expression profile of soluble $A\beta$ oligomers in nasal discharge.

Materials and methods

Group selection criteria. Patient criteria in this study followed the NINCDS/ADRDA of the American Psychiatric Association criteria for the diagnosis of probable AD^{1,21–23}.

Briefly, samples from the patients were divided into three groups based on the following criteria. Patients with probable AD was selected according to the following criteria: (1) predominant and progressive episodic memory impairment characterized by low free recall, not normalized to cueing and not associated with other cognitive deficits; and (2) scores of the MMSE, the CDR, and the GDS tests that are commonly applied to measure the severity of dementia from various causes 1,2,21. All tests of cognitive ability were analyzed as previously described⁴¹. Briefly, the Korean version of the MMSE is comprised of tests of orientation (10 points), short-term memory registration and recall (6 points), attention (5 points), naming (2 points), following verbal commands (4 points), judgment (2 points), and copying a double pentagon (1 point). The CDR scale is a structured interview of the subject and informant in which the subjects are rated by scores of 0 (asymptomatic), 0.5 (equivocal or mild impairment), 1, 2 or 3 (mild, moderate, or severe dementia, respectively). The normal group had MMSE scores greater than 27 and normal scores in the memory section of the MMSE. The probable AD patient group had scores of 24 or less on the MMSE and CDR scores (1) greater than 1 or (2) 0.5 with box score sums greater than 2.5. The GDS scale is one of the most popular scales for the evaluation of depression symptoms in older adults. In the long form, a score is considered normal if it is between 0 and 0.9. An indicator of mild depression is between 1.0 and 1.9 and a positive score for severe depression is between 2.0 and 3.0. Patients with other neurodegenerative diseases, such as Parkinson's disease; cerebral vascular disease (which may affect cognitive function); metabolic derangement, including thyroid disease, a history of alcohol or medication poisoning; or a history of trauma or neuropsychiatric disease were excluded from the current study.

Measurement of Aβ levels in nasal discharge using an IME sensor (an impedimetric biosensor with an interdigitated microelectrode structure). An IME biosensor with 30 pairs of interdigitated microelectrodes with 5 μm-wide gaps was utilized for this analysis 42,43 . The gap surface was functionalized with 6E10 antibodies to capture the Aβ protein from nasal discharge samples. The fabrication, antibody immobilization, and detection procedures are described in our previous study 27 . When a specific interaction occurred between 6E10 on the sensor surface and an Aβ peptide, the impedance value between the interdigitated microelectrodes was altered because the Aβ protein occupied the space instead of the fluid. To perform the CLASS method, the nasal discharge samples were aliquoted into two samples. For measuring the EPPS-treated sample and PBS-added sample, $40 \mu L$ of each sample was used. One sample was incubated for 30 min with 500 mM EPPS [4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazinepropanesulfonic acid] dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (nasal discharge sample: EPPS, 4:1) and the other sample was treated the same with the exclusion of EPPS. The

prepared nasal discharge sample was injected onto individual IME devices, incubated for 20 min, and washed with PBS buffer. Then, the impedance of 6E10-immobilized IME before (Z_{before}) and after (Z_{after}) the reaction of nasal discharge containing A β proteins was measured. The impedance of the impedimetric biosensors was measured using commercial equipment (PGSTAT302N, Metrohm Autolab, Utrecht, The Netherlands; & IME Sensor, Cantis Corporation, Ansan, Korea). The impedance change was used to quantify the A β levels in nasal discharge which was defined by the equation below.

$$Impedance \, change \, (\%) = \left| \frac{Z_{after} - Z_{before}}{Z_{before}} \right| \times 100$$

The self-standard ratio defined the value of the impedance change in the EPPS-treated sample (monomerized) divided by the impedance change in the PBS buffer-added sample.

Statistical analysis. The results were presented as mean \pm SEM. Value of samples were identified as outliers through Grubbs' test, also called the ESD method. The Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, paired t-test, one-way analysis, and two-way RMANOVA of variance were used to assess the normality of the data. The nonparametric Spearman's rank correlation test was used to assess correlations between the data. The graphs revealed regression lines with a 95% confidence interval. *P* values of < 0.05 were considered significant. Cognitive function changes were measured by MMSE and GDS scores over three years in AD subjects, defined by the equation below.

$$Slope = \frac{h_3 - h_1}{L_3 - L_1}$$

(h = MMSE score or GDS score, L = year).

Study approval. The Institutional Review Boards (IRB) of Gachon University Gil Medical Center [GAIRB2013-264] approved the study protocol. All subjects provided written informed consent before participating via self-referral or referral from their family.

Nasal discharge collection and processing. Nasal discharge samples from 60 donors were analyzed. Twenty additional samples were collected but excluded from the analysis due to insufficient protein concentration (n=8) or insufficient sample for three independent WB and IME sensor analyses (n=12). Age-matched normal subjects (n=21) and patients with probable AD (n=39) were also assessed. The details of each group are presented in Table 1.

The whole nasal discharges were pooled (> 1.5 ml) in a microtube and immediately sonicated for 10-15 s, followed by centrifugation (10,000xg for 10 min at 4 °C) to remove cells and cellular debris. A Protease Inhibitor Cocktail was added to the supernatants (Roche, Mannheim, Germany), which were immediately stored at -80 °C until analysis. Nasal discharge aliquots were thawed on the day of the experiment.

Liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry/mass spectrometry (LC–MS/MS) analysis. The immunoprecipitation and immunoblots was modified and performed as described previously ⁴⁴. For immunoprecipitation, aliquots of human nasal discharge samples (300 μl) were pre-cleared with 30 μl of Protein-G Fast Flow Sepharose (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden) for 1 h at 4 °C, then centrifuged at 9300 g for 5 min. Subsequently, 250 μl of immunoglobulin-depleted nasal discharge was incubated with 1 μg of 6E10 antibodies (6E10, Covance, Princeton, NJ, USA) and 50 μl of Protein-G coated magnetic beads (Life Technologies, CA, USA) overnight at 4 °C. The beads were washed sequentially with immunoprecipitation buffer A [50 mM Tris–HCl, 300 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100 (v/v), 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4] and immunoprecipitation buffer B [50 mM Tris–HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100 (v/v), 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4] for 20 min under gentle agitation at 4 °C. Next, the captured proteins were eluted and digested with trypsin. Initially, sample reduction was conducted using 20 mM dithiothreitol for 1 h and alkylated with 55 mM iodoacetamide for 45 min. Trypsin digestion was carried out overnight using mass spectrometry-grade TPCK-treated small trypsin (ABSciex, Framingham, MA, USA). The stabilized, digested peptides were extracted and lyophilized. Before LC–MS / MS analysis, the peptide samples were resuspended in 10 μl of 1% formic acid.

Prior to mass spectrometry, the peptides were separated using EasynLCII (Bruker Daltonics, Bremen, Germany) nano high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) for intervals of at least 60 min after using water/acetonitrile gradient with increases in acetonitrile concentrations from 0 to 100% for 90 min. The peptide mixture was desorbed on a Zorbax 300SB-C18 analytical column (150 mm \times 75 μ m 3.5 μ m pore size, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) after desalination on a Zorbax 300SB-C18 inline trap column (5 \times 0.3 mm, 5 μ m pore size, Agilent). Solvent A was 0.1% formic acid in LC/MS Grade water, solvent B was LC/MS Grade acetonitrile containing 0.1% formic acid, and the flow rate was 300 nl/min.

The obtained LC-MS/MS data were used to search for matches in the SwissProt database (release: 2015.07, 548,872 sequence item) using the ProteinPilot 4.0 (AB SCIEX, Framingham, MA) search engine and to identify proteins using the biological variation tables included in the ProteinPilot 4.0 software (Fig. S1A).

Immunoprecipitation and immunoblots. The immunoprecipitation and immunoblots was modified and performed as described previously⁴⁵. For immunoprecipitation with 6E10 and immunoblotting with the A11 antibody, aliquots of the samples (100 µl) were pre-cleared with 30 µl of a 1:1 slurry with Protein-G Fast Flow Sepharose (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Uppsala, Sweden) for 1 h at 4 °C, then centrifuged at 9300 g for

5 min. Subsequently, 250 μ l of immunoglobulin-depleted nasal discharge was incubated with 0.1 μ g of 6E10 antibodies and 50 μ l of Protein-G coated magnetic beads (Life Technologies, CA, USA) overnight at 4 °C. The beads were washed sequentially with immunoprecipitation buffer A [50 mM Tris–HCl, 300 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100 (v/v), 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4] and immunoprecipitation buffer B [50 mM Tris–HCl, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Triton X-100 (v/v), 1 mM EDTA, pH 7.4] for 20 min under gentle agitation at 4 °C. The captured proteins were eluted with SDS-sample buffer. The proteins were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to a 0.45- μ m polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Millipore, Temecula, CA, USA). The membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween 20 and then incubated with primary A11 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) antibodies for oligomerized A β proteins and 6E10 (Covance, Princeton, NJ, USA) for total A β proteins.

For immunoblotting with the A11, D54D2 and 6E10 antibody, the nasal discharge was thawed and the proteins were quantified by BCA assay. Then 5 μ g of protein were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to a 0.45- μ m polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Millipore, Temecula, CA, USA). The membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween 20 and then incubated with primary antibodies, A11 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 6E10 (Covance, Princeton, NJ, USA). The immunoblots were visualized using a commercial development kit (Pierce, Dallas, TX, USA). Quantification of the immunoblots was performed using the ImageJ program (NIH, USA). The normalization of the data was performed by dividing the quantified value of protein by the total protein amount.

Ethics declarations. All methods were carried out in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations.

Received: 28 January 2020; Accepted: 16 June 2020

Published online: 08 July 2020

References

- 1. Folstein, M. F., Folstein, S. E. & McHugh, P. R. "Mini-mental state". A practical method for grading the cognitive state of patients for the clinician. *J. Psychiatric Res.* 12, 189–198 (1975).
- 2. Reisberg, B., Ferris, S. H., de Leon, M. J. & Crook, T. The Global Deterioration Scale for assessment of primary degenerative dementia. *Am. J. Psychiatry* 139, 1136–1139. https://doi.org/10.1176/ajp.139.9.1136 (1982).
- 3. Sperling, R. A. *et al.* Toward defining the preclinical stages of Alzheimer's disease: recommendations from the National Institute on aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement* 7, 280–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2011.03.003 (2011).
- 4. Hummel, T. et al. Olfactory FMRI in patients with Parkinson's disease. Front. Integr. Neurosci. 4, 125. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnint.2010.00125 (2010).
- Nakamura, A. et al. High performance plasma amyloid-beta biomarkers for Alzheimer's disease. Nature 554, 249–254. https://doi. org/10.1038/nature25456 (2018).
- Nitsch, R. M. et al. Cerebrospinal fluid levels of amyloid beta-protein in Alzheimer's disease: Inverse correlation with severity of dementia and effect of apolipoprotein E genotype. Ann. Neurol. 37, 512–518. https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.410370414 (1995).
- 7. Olsson, B. et al. CSF and blood biomarkers for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis. Lancet Neurol. 15, 673–684. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422(16)00070-3 (2016).
- 8. Janelidze, S. et al. Plasma P-tau181 in Alzheimer's disease: Relationship to other biomarkers, differential diagnosis, neuropathology and longitudinal progression to Alzheimer's dementia. Nat. Med. 26, 379–386. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41591-020-0755-1 (2020).
- 9. Kim, J. Y. et al. Distinct amyloid precursor protein processing machineries of the olfactory system. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.* 495, 533–538. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbrc.2017.10.153 (2018).
- Alves, J., Petrosyan, A. & Magalhaes, R. Olfactory dysfunction in dementia. World J. Clin. Cases 2, 661–667. https://doi.org/10.12998/wjcc.v2.i11.661 (2014).
- Stamps, J. J., Bartoshuk, L. M. & Heilman, K. M. A brief olfactory test for Alzheimer's disease. J. Neurol. Sci. 333, 19–24. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jns.2013.06.033 (2013).
- 12. Zou, Y. M., Lu, D., Liu, L. P., Zhang, H. H. & Zhou, Y. Y. Olfactory dysfunction in Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropsychiatry Dis. Treat.* 12, 869–875. https://doi.org/10.2147/NDT.S104886 (2016).
- 13. Arnold, S. E. *et al.* Olfactory epithelium amyloid-beta and paired helical filament-tau pathology in Alzheimer disease. *Ann. Neurol.* **67**, 462–469. https://doi.org/10.1002/ana.21910 (2010).
- Roberts, R. O. *et al.* Association between olfactory dysfunction and amnestic mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer disease dementia. *JAMA Neurol.* 73, 93–101. https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2015.2952 (2016).
- 15. Wu, N., Rao, X., Gao, Y., Wang, J. & Xu, F. Amyloid-beta deposition and olfactory dysfunction in an Alzheimer's disease model. J. Alzheimers Dis. 37, 699–712. https://doi.org/10.3233/JAD-122443 (2013).
- Yoo, S. J. et al. Differential spatial expression of peripheral olfactory neuron-derived BACE1 induces olfactory impairment by region-specific accumulation of beta-amyloid oligomer. Cell Death Dis. 8, e2977. https://doi.org/10.1038/cddis.2017.349 (2017).
- Pagelow, D. et al. The olfactory epithelium as a port of entry in neonatal neurolisteriosis. Nat. Commun. 9, 4269. https://doi. org/10.1038/s41467-018-06668-2 (2018).
- 18. Strous, R. D. & Shoenfeld, Y. To smell the immune system: Olfaction, autoimmunity and brain involvement. *Autoimmun. Rev.* 6, 54–60. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.autrev.2006.07.002 (2006).
- Norwood, J. N. et al. Anatomical basis and physiological role of cerebrospinal fluid transport through the murine cribriform plate. Elife https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.44278 (2019).
- 20. Kim, Y. et al. Comparative analyses of plasma amyloid-beta levels in heterogeneous and monomerized states by interdigitated microelectrode sensor system. Sci. Adv. 5, eaav1388. https://doi.org/10.1126/sciadv.aav1388 (2019).
- 21. Juva, K. et al. Staging the severity of dementia: Comparison of clinical (CDR, DSM-III-R), functional (ADL, IADL) and cognitive (MMSE) scales. Acta Neurol. Scand. 90, 293–298 (1994).
- Small, G. W. et al. Diagnosis and treatment of Alzheimer disease and related disorders. Consensus statement of the American Association for Geriatric Psychiatry, the Alzheimer's Association, and the American Geriatrics Society. JAMA 278, 1363–1371 (1997).
- 23. McKhann, G. M. *et al.* The diagnosis of dementia due to Alzheimer's disease: Recommendations from the National Institute on aging-Alzheimer's Association workgroups on diagnostic guidelines for Alzheimer's disease. *Alzheimers Dement* 7, 263–269. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jalz.2011.03.005 (2011).
- Mayeux, R. et al. Plasma A[beta]40 and A[beta]42 and Alzheimer's disease: Relation to age, mortality, and risk. Neurology 61, 1185–1190. https://doi.org/10.1212/01.wnl.0000091890.32140.8f (2003).

- 25. Sundelof, J. et al. Plasma beta amyloid and the risk of Alzheimer disease and dementia in elderly men: A prospective, population-based cohort study. Arch. Neurol. 65, 256–263. https://doi.org/10.1001/archneurol.2007.57 (2008).
- van Oijen, M. et al. Plasma Abeta(1–40) and Abeta(1–42) and the risk of dementia: A prospective case-cohort study. Lancet Neurol. 5, 655–660. https://doi.org/10.1016/S1474-4422(06)70501-4 (2006).
- 27. Smitka, M. et al. Is there a correlation between hippocampus and amygdala volume and olfactory function in healthy subjects?. NeuroImage 59, 1052–1057. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroimage.2011.09.024 (2012).
- 28. Sorg, C. et al. Selective changes of resting-state networks in individuals at risk for Alzheimer's disease. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 104, 18760–18765. https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.0708803104 (2007).
- 29. Huihong, Z. et al. Olfactory and imaging features in atypical Alzheimer's disease. Transl. Neurosci. 9, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1515/tnsci-2018-0001 (2018).
- 30. Thomann, P. A. et al. MRI-derived atrophy of the olfactory bulb and tract in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer's disease. J. Alzheimers Dis. 17, 213–221. https://doi.org/10.3233/JAD-2009-1036 (2009).
- 31. Mesholam, R. I., Moberg, P. J., Mahr, R. N. & Doty, R. L. Olfaction in neurodegenerative disease: A meta-analysis of olfactory functioning in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases. *Arch. Neurol.* 55, 84–90 (1998).
- 32. Kuo, Y. M. *et al.* Extensive enteric nervous system abnormalities in mice transgenic for artificial chromosomes containing Parkinson disease-associated alpha-synuclein gene mutations precede central nervous system changes. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **19**, 1633–1650. https://doi.org/10.1093/hmg/ddq038 (2010).
- 33. Kim, Y. H. et al. Amyloid beta in nasal secretions may be a potential biomarker of Alzheimer's disease. Sci. Rep. 9, 4966. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-41429-1 (2019).
- 34. Cline, E. N., Bicca, M. A., Viola, K. L. & Klein, W. L. The Amyloid-beta oligomer hypothesis: Beginning of the third decade. *J. Alzheimers Dis.* 64, S567–S610. https://doi.org/10.3233/JAD-179941 (2018).
- 35. Benilova, I., Karran, E. & De Strooper, B. The toxic Abeta oligomer and Alzheimer's disease: An emperor in need of clothes. *Nat. Neurosci.* 15, 349–357. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.3028 (2012).
- Anderson, R. M., Hadjichrysanthou, C., Evans, S. & Wong, M. M. Why do so many clinical trials of therapies for Alzheimer's disease fail?. Lancet 390, 2327–2329. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(17)32399-1 (2017).
- 37. Golde, T. E., DeKosky, S. T. & Galasko, D. Alzheimer's disease: The right drug, the right time. Science 362, 1250–1251. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aau0437 (2018).
- 38. Vina, J. & Sanz-Ros, J. Alzheimer's disease: Only prevention makes sense. Eur. J. Clin. Invest. 48, e13005. https://doi.org/10.1111/eci.13005 (2018).
- 39. Beach, T. G., Monsell, S. E., Phillips, L. E. & Kukull, W. Accuracy of the clinical diagnosis of Alzheimer disease at National Institute on Aging Alzheimer Disease Centers, 2005–2010. *J. Neuropathol. Exp. Neurol.* 71, 266–273. https://doi.org/10.1097/NEN.0b013 e31824b211b (2012).
- Costa Sa, A. C., Madsen, H. & Brown, J. R. Shared molecular signatures across neurodegenerative diseases and herpes virus infections highlights potential mechanisms for maladaptive innate immune responses. Sci. Rep. 9, 8795. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-019-45129-8 (2019).
- 41. Chang, K. A. et al. Plasma soluble neuregulin-1 as a diagnostic biomarker for Alzheimer's disease. *Neurochem. Int* 97, 1–7. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuint.2016.04.012 (2016).
- 42. Kim, J. et al. Wafer-scale high-resolution patterning of reduced graphene oxide films for detection of low concentration biomarkers in plasma. Sci. Rep. 6, 31276. https://doi.org/10.1038/srep31276 (2016).
- 43. Yoo, Y. K. et al. A highly sensitive plasma-based amyloid-beta detection system through medium-changing and noise cancellation system for early diagnosis of the Alzheimer's disease. Sci. Rep. 7, 8882. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-09370-3 (2017).
- Berna, M. & Ackermann, B. Increased throughput for low-abundance protein biomarker verification by liquid chromatography/ tandem mass spectrometry. Anal. Chem. 81, 3950–3956. https://doi.org/10.1021/ac9002744 (2009).
- Lesne, S. et al. A specific amyloid-beta protein assembly in the brain impairs memory. Nature 440, 352–357. https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04533 (2006).

Acknowledgements

This research was supported by the Bio & Medical Technology Development Program of the National Research Foundation (NRF) funded by the Korean government (MSIT) (NRF-2015M3A9E2028884) and Basic Science Research Program through the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education (2020R1A6A1A03040516). Authors are grateful to Dr. Sohyun Ahn for her critical reading.

Author contributions

S-J.Y., G.S. and C.M. conceived or designed the work; S-J.Y. and G.S. collected, analyzed and interpreted the data as well as drafted the article and figures; Y-B.L. and K-A.C. collected the samples and conducted patient evaluations; Y.K.Y., D.P., S.Y.B., and S.Y.K. performed experiments. J.B, Y.K., and K.S.H. contributed to data analysis; Y-H.S., Y.K. and C.M. contributed critical revisions of the article; C.M. supervised all experiments and analyses.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-020-68148-2.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to C.M.

Reprints and permissions information is available at www.nature.com/reprints.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/.

© The Author(s) 2020