

Detecting apoptosis as a clinical endpoint for proof of clinical principle

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1 **Abstract**

2

3 The transparent eye media represent a window through which to observe changes occurring in the
4 retina during pathological processes. In contrast to imaging the extent of neurodegenerative damage
5 that has already occurred, imaging an active process such as apoptosis has the potential to report on
6 disease progression and therefore the threat of irreversible functional loss in various eye and brain
7 diseases. Early diagnosis in these conditions is an important unmet clinical need to avoid or delay
8 irreversible sight loss. In this setting, apoptosis detection is a promising strategy with which to
9 diagnose, provide prognosis, and monitor therapeutic response. Additionally, monitoring apoptosis
10 *in vitro* and *in vivo* has been shown to be valuable for drug development in order to assess the
11 efficacy of novel therapeutic strategies both in the pre-clinical and clinical setting. Detection of
12 Apoptosing Retinal Cells (DARC) technology is to date the only tool of its kind to have been tested in
13 clinical trials, with other new imaging techniques under investigation in the fields of neuroscience,
14 ophthalmology and drug development. We summarize the transitioning of techniques detecting
15 apoptosis from bench to bedside, along with the future possibilities they encase.

16

17 **Introduction**

18 *Clinical relevance of apoptosis detection*

19 The eye represents a privileged window through which we can view the central nervous system,
20 offering clinicians and researchers the opportunity to use retinal biomarkers in the diagnosis and
21 monitoring of neuronal physiology and pathology in-vivo. Apoptosis of retinal cells is the common
22 endpoint of different insults occurring in a variety of neurodegenerative diseases(1). The archetypal
23 neurodegenerative disease of the retina is glaucoma, characterised by retinal ganglion cell (RGC)
24 apoptosis, although other modes of death have been proposed(2,3). Accompanying RGC loss are
25 retinal nerve fibre layer (RNFL) thinning, optic disc cupping and irreversible loss of visual field which
26 can all be clinically detected (4). Pathological death of RGCs has also been detected in
27 neurodegenerative conditions such as Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD), optic
28 neuritis and multiple sclerosis. In contrast, other ophthalmic conditions may involve different cell
29 populations; for example, in age-related macular degeneration (AMD), retinal pigment epithelium
30 and photoreceptors progressively degenerate, leading to central vision loss (5). Monitoring the rate
31 of this underlying degenerative process is of great importance in order to guide treatment and
32 indicate prognosis.

33

34 Retinal ganglion cell (RGC) loss is a physiological process ubiquitously occurring due to ageing;
35 however, the progression rate of RGC loss is significantly higher in subjects affected by glaucoma (6).
36 We usually lose approximately 0.4 % of our RGC population per year, while in glaucomatous patients
37 the rate is increased approximately 10-fold (6,7). On average, a healthy subject has around 1.2
38 million RGC at birth(6), with approximately 20-40% thought to be lost before visual field defects are
39 detected(8). This leads to a diagnostic delay of up to ten years (9). Tools to measure the rate of
40 programmed cell death in a minimally-invasive manner will hopefully complete the standard eye
41 examination of the future, if they can replace the need for extended follow up that is responsible for
42 the delay in many diagnoses. Moreover, repeated measures of apoptosis detection will hopefully
43 provide an IOP-independent, and robust clinical trial biomarker.

44

45 *Apoptosis within the glaucoma paradigm*

46 The most widely accepted and only currently modifiable factor associated with glaucoma is elevated
47 intraocular pressure (IOP) (10,11). The axons of RGCs gather at the optic disc and cross the sclera at
48 the level of a structure known as the lamina cribrosa. IOP may cause excessive stress on RGC fibers at
49 this level, interrupting the orthograde and retrograde axonal trafficking of nutrients and trophic
50 factors (12). Moreover, during the periods of elevated IOP, metabolic stress is induced and energy
51 demands of RGC and astrocytes rise, leading to mitochondrial dysfunction (13). However, raised IOP
52 is neither necessary nor sufficient in isolation for diagnosis (14). It is the characteristic RGC death that
53 defines the disease, heralded by apoptosis occurring in order to avoid a destructive localized or
54 systemic inflammatory reaction. Apoptosis-initiating events (such as raised IOP) are followed by cell
55 shrinkage and blebbing, chromatin condensation and DNA fragmentation (15), but a very early event
56 in this process is the translocation of phosphatidylserine (PS) to the external leaflet of the cell
57 membrane (16); this can be exploited by in vitro and in-vivo diagnostic techniques.

58 *Retinal cell apoptosis in other eye and brain diseases*

59 A deregulated programmed cell death is thought to occur in other retinal diseases such as age-
60 related macular degeneration (AMD) (17), diabetic retinopathy (DR), and other retinal dystrophies. In
61 all these conditions, monitoring apoptosis may represent a surrogate biomarker of disease activity
62 and progression. AMD is the leading cause of irreversible blindness in the ageing population (18), and
63 a major worldwide health problem. The primary insult in AMD occurs at the level of RPE, due to
64 accumulation of yellowish autofluorescent lipofuscin deposits above Bruch's membrane and beneath
65 RPE cells, known as drusen. Drusen are responsible for the distortion of central vision in 'dry' AMD,
66 the size of which may range from tiny dots up to 250µm (18). Larger drusen have a tendency to fuse
67 leading to pigment epithelial detachment (PED). This last phenomenon represents a risk factor for
68 the development of the 'wet' form of AMD, during which neovascularisation from the choroidal
69 circulation causes exudation and haemorrhage destructive to the anatomical order of the retinal
70 layers. Secondary to RPE degeneration, rod and cone dysfunction also accounts for central vision
71 loss, a characteristic feature of the pathology (18). Notably, rods are more severely affected by AMD
72 (19), with significant rates of photoreceptor and RPE apoptosis seen with TUNEL staining (Terminal
73 deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT) dUTP Nick-End Labeling) (20).

74 Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is a common complication of diabetes mellitus. It is the most common
75 cause of vision loss among amongst working age groups and represents a huge socio-economic
76 burden (21). The most striking pathological changes of DR are the microvascular complications

77 occurring in the retinal tissue; however, DR also involves an increased rate of apoptosis both in
78 vascular and neuro-retinal cells as shown by TUNEL assay based studies (22). The cell populations
79 mostly involved in this phenomenon are RGCs and amacrine cells (23).

80 The degeneration of some retinal cells populations has been associated with brain disorders such as
81 AD and PD (24). AD is by far the most common form of dementia, accounting for approximately 70
82 per cent of all cases(25). The main pathological and diagnostic feature is represented by the
83 deposition of extracellular senile plaques and intracellular neurofibrillary tangles. Nowadays,
84 diagnosis is primarily based on the patient's behavioural and clinical assessment (26) and,
85 secondarily, confirmed by either computed tomography or magnetic resonance imaging (27). The
86 problem of this current approach is related to the irreversibility of the damage at the time of
87 diagnosis, while by contrast, the pathological accumulation of amyloid may have begun 10 to 15
88 years earlier (25). This underlines the need for novel strategies for early disease detection and
89 prevention. The idea of using the eye as a window over the central nervous system (CNS) for
90 diagnosis of AD is rapidly growing since retinal nerve fibre layer loss has been widely observed (1).
91 The detection of beta amyloid in the retina of Alzheimer's patients has produced conflicting results
92 (1). In AD, PD, HD and glaucoma there are common elements such as oxidative stress, mitochondrial
93 dysfunction, excitotoxicity and misfolded protein aggregation. Therefore, there is potential for
94 apoptosis detection as a biomarker of disease diagnosis in all of these diseases(28).

95 *In vivo Apoptosis detection - Detection of Apoptosing Retinal Cells (DARC)*

96

97 Apoptosis detection *in-vivo* exploits modifications of apoptotic cells undergoing programmed cell
98 death: phosphatidylserine (PS) exposure, changes in apoptotic membrane imprint and caspase
99 activation.

100 Since its first description in 2004, DARC technology has been used for the assessment and follow-up
101 of different animal models of degenerative retinal diseases for natural history characterization and
102 the study of novel neuroprotective agents (29). Moreover, ongoing clinical trials are evaluating DARC
103 performance in human subjects.

104 The principle of DARC is based on the use of fluorescently-labelled annexin A5. Although ubiquitously
105 expressed, annexin A5's function is not fully understood. However, its ability to bind PS in a calcium-
106 dependent manner is exploited in apoptosis detection (30). The majority of PS is usually maintained
107 on the intracellular aspect of the cytoplasmic membrane due to the action of ATP-dependent

108 'flippases'; however, increasing translocation to the extracellular surface occurs during cell stress and
109 the process initiating apoptotic cell death, possibly with the involvement of 'scramblases' (31). PS
110 represents an 'eat me' signal for phagocytes, removing apoptotic debris to prevent pro-inflammatory
111 consequences (32).

112 Annexin A5 was first developed for *in-vitro* labelling of apoptosis but was soon re-developed for *in-*
113 *vivo* imaging of apoptosing tissues using radioactive tracers in combination with positron emission
114 tomography (PET) and single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT) nuclear imaging
115 techniques (33). The main applications of this type of studies related to oncology, inflammatory
116 bowel diseases, myocardial infarction and strokes(34–36). For DARC to accomplish retinal imaging,
117 annexin A5 has been fluorescently labelled using both a 488nm, and near-infrared 776nm tags with
118 excitation and emission spectra of 495-519 nm and 771-793 nm respectively (ANX776) (37).

119 Modified confocal scanning laser ophthalmoscopy (cSLO) is used to image the retina using the in-
120 built fluorescent detection systems, providing high-contrast retinal images (38). The latter near-
121 infrared wavelength of ANX776 is aligned to that of indocyanine green (ICG) for which imaging set-
122 ups are in widespread use by medical retina specialists. The field of image acquisition is between 30-
123 55° and can be either centered on the fovea or the optic disc. Compensation for non-enhancing
124 structures and non-linear distortion is performed post-acquisition processing (39), with
125 quantification of apoptosing cells performed via a template-matching approach to count
126 hyperfluorescent spots, a count known as the 'DARC count' (40).

127

128 *DARC technology in pre-clinical and clinical studies*

129 Pre-clinical studies using DARC

130 DARC has been used in many pre-clinical studies including animal models of glaucoma and other
131 neurodegenerative conditions to investigate disease pathogenesis and the effectiveness of potential
132 treatments. The first study was published in 2004 demonstrating histological validation and disease
133 activity in a rat model of glaucoma (29). DARC has also been used to characterize the relationship
134 between raised IOP and retinal apoptosis, an initiating injury used in many animal models of
135 glaucoma (41). Following on from this work, a novel staurosporine-induced rat ocular hypertension
136 model was demonstrated and used to investigate the neuroprotective effect of modulating
137 glutamate-induced excitotoxicity (42). DARC was used to investigate the role of amyloid plaques in
138 retinal tissue and their relationship with retinal apoptosis. These deposits were related to the rate of

139 apoptosis in a dose- and time-dependent manner, with strategies to prevent amyloid plaque
140 formation or enhancement of their clearance, beneficial in terms of RGC survival (43).

141 Retinal apoptosis has also been monitored in diabetic mice, which had increased DARC counts in
142 comparison to wild-type controls. These results support the use of in-vivo apoptosis detection as an
143 early biomarker of DR, before visible vascular changes are detectable on fundus examination (44).

144 Photoreceptor loss whilst investigating the role of blue light exposure in dark Agouti rats has been
145 characterised by DARC, revealing hyperfluorescent apoptotic cells in the outer retina, confirmed by
146 histological staining of photoreceptors (45). This last study prompted further investigation into
147 macular degeneration, where DARC was able to detect the presence of apoptosis in photoreceptors
148 in a mouse model of dry AMD (18).

149 DARC has been used to investigate the potential of novel therapeutics such as the effectiveness of
150 MRZ-99030, a modulator of amyloid-beta aggregation, as a neuroprotector. The study highlighted a
151 dose-dependent reduction of apoptosis upon systemic injection of the molecule (46). Another study
152 used the partial optic nerve transection (pONT) model to show the ability of 2-Cl-IB-MECA, an
153 adenosine A3 agonist, to reduce retinal apoptosis *in-vivo* (47). Brimonidine, an alpha-2 adrenergic
154 receptor agonist, was shown to be able to reduce the rate of retinal cell apoptosis through an IOP-
155 independent mechanism related to amyloid precursor protein aggregation modulation (48).

156 Coenzyme Q10 was also shown to facilitate significant reduction of retinal apoptosis in-vivo using
157 DARC(49). A liposomal formulation of rosiglitazone, a peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-
158 gamma agonist, was used with DARC in a rotenone-induced rat model of PD (50). The results of the
159 study showed protection both at the level of the retina with reduced retinal apoptosis, and in the
160 nigrostriatal pathways of the brain (50). More recently, topical nanoparticles of memantine, an
161 NMDA receptor antagonist used to treat AD, and curcumin, a naturally occurring polyphenol found in
162 turmeric, have been tested for their neuroprotective abilities in vivo (51,52). DARC demonstrated
163 both were able to provide significant reduction in retinal apoptosis in rat models of ocular
164 hypertension (51,52). A novel cell-based therapy, the delivery of Schwann cells directly on the
165 damaged optic nerve sheath, was also shown to produce sustained results promoting axon regrowth
166 and preventing secondary RGC neurodegeneration using DARC (53).

167 *DARC in the clinical setting*

168 **Phase I clinical trial**

169 After the promising results in animal models, DARC technology has been tested in the clinical setting,
170 with the phase I clinical trial published in 2017(37). This was a single-centre, open-label, proof-of-
171 concept clinical trial designed to primarily assessing safety, and secondarily, efficacy of DARC imaging
172 in humans (37). The study was carried out on eight healthy volunteers and eight patients affected by
173 progressing glaucoma. These subjects were randomly allocated to one of the different ANX776
174 dosage groups. Each of the four dosage groups included two glaucoma patients and two healthy
175 controls. After the single intravenous injection of ANX776, retinal imaging was performed to visualize
176 fluorescently labelled retinal cells at 15, 30, 60, 120, 240 and 360 minutes (Figure 2). Apoptotic
177 retinal cells were identified as hyperfluorescent areas on the retina of a size between 12 and 16 μm
178 using a cSLO focused on the RGC layer. DARC spots were objectively counted using a method of
179 template matching to track them longitudinally (40,54).

180 All subjects were required to attend three visits, and a follow up at 30 days. They underwent
181 standard eye examination, including best-corrected visual acuity, tonometry, gonioscopy, dilated
182 fundus examination, optical coherence tomography (OCT) and standard automated perimetry.
183 Additionally, all glaucoma patients were regularly followed as part of the standard glaucoma care up
184 to 16 months after DARC. This strategy allowed the investigators to track glaucoma progression and
185 compare the standard indices with DARC, in order to test the potential of DARC as a predictive
186 surrogate marker.

187 No patients were withdrawn from the study, and no serious adverse events occurred. The study
188 reported only isolated cases of discomfort during phlebotomy, hematoma at cannulation site,
189 influenza, metatarsal inflammation and dizziness. ANX776 showed rapid absorption and elimination
190 without accumulation. The half-life of the drug ranged from 18 to 36 minutes, with maximal
191 concentration proportional to the dose administered. These results were consistent with other
192 studies using radio-labelled annexin A5 (55).

193 The greatest difference between healthy controls and glaucoma patients was seen when ANX776
194 was administered at a dose of 0.4 mg (p-value < 0.01). Multivariate analysis showed a 2.4 fold higher
195 DARC count in glaucoma patients across the 6 hours monitored (95% confidence interval (CI):1.4-
196 4.03; p=0.003). DARC count was found to be significantly correlated with decreased central corneal
197 thickness, increased cup-disc ratio and increased age. Post hoc it was shown that DARC was able to

198 predict the increased rate of progression, therefore, showing the potential prognostic role of this
199 technology.

200 Overall, this study proves the safety of the intravenous administration of ANX776 in human subjects
201 and suggests the optimal dosage for apoptosis detection. The results suggest DARC technology may
202 have clinical potential for early glaucoma diagnosis, and monitoring for progression and therapeutic
203 success.

204 **Phase II clinical trial**

205 Following the successful results of the phase I clinical trial, DARC imaging technology has undergone
206 phase II clinical evaluation, the results of which are due to be published shortly. It is a single-centre,
207 non-randomised, open-label clinical trial examining the use of ANX766 to image retinal apoptosis in
208 the retinas of healthy volunteers, patients (n=116) affected by glaucoma, AMD, optic neuritis and
209 Down's syndrome (with pathology similar to Alzheimer's disease (56)). The patients enrolled for this
210 study received a single shot of ANX776 at a dose of 0.4 mg and then were imaged at 15mins, 2 and 4
211 hours after the injection. This primary objective of this study is to assess the DARC count in different
212 pathologies, and further assess DARC's potential in early diagnosis and predictive abilities.

213 **PSVue 550**

214 PSVue550 (Bis(zinc(II)-dipicolylamine, Zn-DPA) is a synthetic molecule able to bind to PS, conjugated
215 with a fluorophore known as Texas red. The affinity of this probe for PS makes it suitable to
216 transiently visualise apoptosis in the retina, allowing for repeated fluorescent imaging. This molecule
217 has shown efficacy with topical administration in rat and mice models of photoreceptor diseases
218 (57), with no direct retinal toxicity of the probe(57).

219 In the experiment conducted by Mazzone et al. eye penetration of PSVue550 was tested on Royal
220 College of Surgeons (RCS) rats, a well-characterised model of retinal degeneration, and wild-type
221 controls. They were able to show that irrespective of retinal degeneration the dye was able to reach
222 the posterior segment of the eye. However, only apoptotic photoreceptors of RCS rats could be
223 visualised (57). They tested the penetration of another annexin derived molecule able to tag PS,
224 Polarity Sensitive Indicator of Viability and Apoptosis (pSIVA). It was shown a similar fluorescence
225 pattern upon intravitreal injection of either PSVue550 or pSIVA; however, only PSVue550 was able to
226 reach posterior retina upon topical application. These results were obtained upon histologic sample
227 examination fluorescence microscopy (57).

228 PSVue550 toxicity was tested through photoscopic full-field electroretinograms on dark-adapted rats
229 at three days after eye drop subministration. Control RCS rats received topical Hanks buffered saline
230 solution. No statistical difference to light response could be detected between the treated and
231 control group(57).

232 Additionally, live imaging of apoptotic photoreceptors in vivo by whole animal scanning was
233 performed in order to assess whether labelling of apoptotic cells was permanent or transient. The
234 results showed that the peak fluorescence could be detected at 24 hours after topical
235 subministration. Moreover, after 72 hours, there was no statistical difference in the level of
236 fluorescence of treated and control eyes. Therefore, the transitory nature of PSVue550 labelling has
237 the potential to be exploited for serial monitoring of retinal degeneration at different time points.
238 Using this imaging technique, they validated the results also obtained in other mice models of
239 degenerative photoreceptor disease such as the MerTK-deficient model and the wild-type rat with
240 light-induced retinal damage model (57).

241 To further validate this approach, live imaging of apoptotic photoreceptors through retinal imaging
242 was performed. They were able to show a statistically significant difference in retinal fluorescence in
243 treated versus control eyes (57). The safety and utility of this approach in human subjects are yet to
244 be reported.

245 *Apoptotic membrane imprint modification*

246 **ApoSense®**

247 Aposense® is a molecular imaging technique using amphipathic low-molecular weight molecules of
248 300 to 700 Daltons. These selectively cross the apoptotic plasma membrane and accumulate in the
249 cytoplasm of dying cells (58). The hydrophobic region enables the anchoring of these molecules to
250 the lipidic surface of the cell membrane, whilst the hydrophilic region would usually block their
251 entrance into the cytoplasm of non-apoptotic cells. Their accumulation in the cytoplasm has been
252 shown to occur alongside recognized apoptotic events such as PS exposure, caspase activation and
253 the loss of mitochondrial membrane potentials. These compounds can be labelled or rely on intrinsic
254 fluorescence, or undergo labelling with a radioactive moiety. Molecules belonging to this family
255 include N,N'- didansyl-L-cystine (DDC), NST-732 and 729, ML-9 and ML-10. The first three contain a
256 dansyl group, while the last two contain an alkyl-malonate molecule(58).

257 To date, they have mostly been exploited in the pre-clinical setting. The disease models on which
258 they were tested include AD, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (59), melanomas (60), chemotherapy-

259 induced enteropathy (61) and reperfusion-induced damage models (62). In the clinical setting, a
260 radiolabeled version of ML-10 has been used to monitor the response to radiotherapy of brain
261 metastases (63).

262 These molecules are able to cross the blood-brain barrier, and are therefore theoretically suitable for
263 use in neurodegenerative conditions such as AD, PD, and glaucoma; however, they have never been
264 tested on humans for this purpose. Moreover, a high dose is required to reach desirable image
265 performance in most cases, therefore raising concern regarding the possible toxic events related to
266 their use.

267

268 *Caspase activation detection*

269 **FLIVO™**

270 Caspases are a family of endoproteases that have a fundamental role in apoptotic and inflammatory
271 processes. In apoptosis, caspase cascade activation occurs through extrinsic or intrinsic signals. The
272 extrinsic pathway is triggered by ligands binding to extracellular death receptors, whilst the intrinsic
273 pathway responds to intracellular stress signals such as hypoxia, DNA damage, reactive oxygen
274 species, misfolded protein accumulation and mitochondrial damage. Irrespective of the trigger, the
275 cascade begins with activation of ‘initiator’ caspases that, once active, are able to cleave and switch
276 on ‘executioner’ caspases. Executioner caspases are responsible for DNA fragmentation which
277 eventually leads to cell death.

278 FLIVO (FLuorescence in vIVO) is a family of fluorescent caspase inhibitors that allow visualisation of
279 in-vivo and in-vitro apoptosis. These tracers can be directly injected into the circulation and
280 selectively accumulate in apoptotic cells. Being able to also cross the blood-brain-barrier, they have
281 potential in the study of brain and ocular neurodegenerative conditions by selectively highlighting
282 cells cells undergoing caspase-dependent apoptosis, the majority of programmed cell death (64).

283 FLIVO technology has been used only in the pre-clinical setting for in vitro and in vivo studies. It has
284 been exploited in oncology to develop new chemotherapeutic agents and cancer vaccines. In
285 ophthalmology, FLIVO has been used to monitor activity of diabetic retinopathy (65), glaucoma
286 (66,67), retinitis pigmentosa(68), blue-light induced retinal damage and age-related macular
287 degeneration (69).

288 **Z-DEVD-aminoluciferin**

289 Luciferins are a family of bioluminescent molecules (usually proteins) found naturally in animals such
290 as fireflies. Luciferins are activated via enzymatic cleavage by luciferases. Activated luciferins are able
291 to release energy through light emission. Z-DEVD aminoluciferine is a modified luciferin. As a caspase
292 3/7 substrate, it is not activated by luciferases but rather by these specific caspases, and therefore
293 has been used to monitor the activity of these caspases in vitro (70). Upon cleavage by the
294 aforementioned enzymes, the subsequent bioluminescence is exploited as marker of apoptosis. In
295 vivo apoptosis detection with an injection of Z-DEVD aminoluciferin has been shown in mice models
296 of tumour xenografts (71). This tool has also been used in the drug development setting, however, its
297 role in the clinical field has not been explored yet.

298 **Diagnosis**

299 The current clinical gold-standard for glaucoma diagnosis is standard automated perimetry (SAP).
300 However, this method possesses practical and analytical disadvantages, in that it requires a long time
301 to conduct, requires serial measures through over several years to detect change, is subject to a
302 learning process that is variable according to the patient's fitness, concentration and comprehension
303 (72,73). Moreover, some SITAs protocols, such as the 24-2, have been advocated as inadequate for
304 early disease diagnosis (74). In the time it takes for a patient to develop a visual field defect
305 detectable by current methods, approximately 30% of RGCs are lost. The time span of this pre-clinical
306 phase has been estimated to range from 2 to 8 years, according to the progression rate (6). In this
307 setting, structural OCT imaging has been shown to be the most promising detector of pre-perimetric
308 RGC loss. This is not only in glaucoma, but also in other neurodegenerative conditions such as
309 Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease and optic neuritis (1). However, the considerable variation
310 between individuals limits the diagnostic value of single measures (75,76).

311 Raised IOP has been shown to be associated with progression of visual field defects (10,76).
312 Therefore, the majority of medical and surgical treatments for glaucoma target intraocular pressure
313 (IOP), with the aim of reducing it; however, it is an imperfect surrogate due to the wide
314 interindividual variability of its pathologic effects (77).

315 In contrast to the biomarkers discussed above, DARC has the potential to minimize the number of
316 years required to make a diagnosis by offering an indication of the severity of disease on first visit,
317 potentially prior to the formation of significant visual field defects. The imaging of an active process
318 implies prognostic value, and is arguably an important drawback of OCT and perimetry, whereby any

319 defects seen are not necessarily progressive (Figure 1). It is still unknown if prognosis can also be
320 determined in other neurodegenerative conditions. Additionally, DARC is practical to implement, and
321 not so reliant on the patient's ability to conduct the test. The inter-individual variability and change
322 in disease states that will determine diagnostic ability, and the repeatability of the test that will
323 determine the potential in clinical trials are to be determined in future studies and publications.

324

325 ***Conclusions***

326 Several ocular and extraocular neurodegenerative diseases share the common feature of early and
327 pathological death of retinal cells. This provides a potential early diagnosis window in which to delay
328 and possibly halt pathologic processes before they cause significant harm. Apoptosis detection in
329 retinal cells seems a plausible means to achieve this goal, with different strategies and technologies
330 in the pipeline, with DARC already proven safe in humans. Their transition from bench to bedside
331 may in the near future aid diagnosis, prognosis, follow up, therapeutic tailoring and drug
332 development in the field of ophthalmology and neurology.

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335 ***Disclosure Statement***

336 M.F.C. is a named co-inventor on granted patent EP 2231199B1 and published patent WO
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342 **Author Contributions**

343 PZ – Writing of manuscript

344 TY – Writing and review of manuscript, and figure.

345 MFC – Review of Manuscript

346

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Figure Legends

Fig. 1. Legend text.

Fig. 2. Legend text.

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