JNK-interacting protein 1 mediates Alzheimer's-like pathological features in AICD-transgenic mice

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1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is a slowly progressing neurodegenerative disorder of unknown etiology. It is characterized by extracellular accumulations of beta-amyloid (Aβ) peptides derived from proteolytic processing of the amyloid precursor protein (APP), intracellular accumulations of hyperphosphorylated microtubule–associated protein tau, and neurodegeneration (Goate and Hardy, 2012; Selkoe, 2008). Although the predominant model of AD pathogenesis posits that increased levels of Aβ peptides are the primary cause of AD (Hardy and Selkoe, 2002; Selkoe, 2008), it is becoming increasingly clear that AD is likely to be a multifactorial, heterogeneous disease and that alternative, nonamyloid-based mechanisms also likely contribute to AD pathogenesis (Pimplikar, 2009; Pimplikar et al., 2010; Shen and Kelleher, 2007; Storandt et al., 2012).

The proteolytic processing of APP that produces Aβ peptides also obligatorily generates the APP intracellular domain (AICD) (Pardossi-Piquard and Checler, 2012). Multiple in vitro and in vivo observations suggest that elevated levels of AICD exert deleterious cell signaling effects (Ghosal et al., 2009; Konietzko, 2012; Pardossi-Piquard and Checler, 2012; Passer et al., 2000). Increased AICD levels are cytotoxic in vitro (Passer et al., 2000) and alter cell signaling pathways (Leissring et al., 2002; Robinson et al., 2014). β-Secretase processing of APP, the proteolytic mechanism that generates Aβ, also generates increased levels of functional AICD compared with nonamyloidogenic APP processing (Belyaev et al., 2010; Goodger et al., 2009). This suggests that when Aβ levels are increased AICD levels should also be elevated. Indeed, our group has observed increased AICD in human AD brains (Ghosal et al., 2009), thus raising the possibility that increased AICD levels could also play a role in mediating AD pathogenesis. Transgenic mice selectively overexpressing AICD in forebrain and hippocampal neurons (AICD-Tg mice) recapitulate several AD-like pathological features, including tau hyperphosphorylation, aberrant functioning of the hippocampal trisynaptic circuit, and memory deficits (Ghosal and Pimplikar, 2011; Ghosal et al., 2009, 2010; Ryan and Pimplikar, 2005; Vogt et al., 2011).

The exact mechanism by which AICD causes AD-like pathologies in vivo is currently unknown. AICD is known to bind to many cell signaling proteins (JNK, PDK1, etc.) and activate JNK (Ghosal et al., 2009, 2010; Ryan and Pimplikar, 2011). AICD also decreases G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) signaling at the level of the G protein (Belyaev et al., 2010). While AICD is known to promote pathological aggregation (Ghosal et al., 2009, 2010; Ryan and Pimplikar, 2011; Ghosal and Pimplikar, 2011), our group has found that although AICD; JIP1

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signaling proteins (Cao and Sudhof, 2001; Pardossi-Piquard and Checler, 2012; Scheinfeld et al., 2002), including c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK)–interacting protein 1 (JIP1) (Matsuda et al., 2001; Scheinfeld et al., 2002), which acts as a scaffold protein for upstream kinases involved in activation of stress-activated protein kinase/JNK (for review, see Davis, 2000). JIP1 is necessary for stress-induced activation of the JNK pathway and its multiple downstream effects (Whitmarsh et al., 2001). Aberrantly-activated JNK is observed in human AD brains (Pei et al., 2011; Yoon et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2001) and activated JNK has been shown to phosphorylate tau (Orejana et al., 2013; Reynolds et al., 1997), to stimulate the release of proinflammatory cytokines (Arthur and Ley, 2013), to induce cell death (Son et al., 2013), and to modulate neurite outgrowth (Barnat et al., 2010; Oliva et al., 2006). Together, these observations suggest JIP1 may mediate development of AICD-induced AD-like pathologies in AICD-Tg mice. The aim of this study, therefore, is to elucidate if JIP1 is affecting AICD-mediated AD-like effects. To test this hypothesis, we crossed AICD-Tg mice with mice lacking a functional JIP1 gene (Whitmarsh et al., 2001), generating mice that overexpress AICD but lack JIP1 (AICD: JIP1−/−) and examined AD-like pathologies, including tau phosphorylation, JNK activation, loss of dendritic spines, and behavioral deficits.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mice

AICD-Tg mice are from the FeC25 strain of mice as previously described (Ryan and Pimplikar, 2005). Wild-type (WT) C57BL/6 mice were used as controls. All used mice are on the C57BL/6 background. JIP1−/− mice have been previously generated and characterized (Whitmarsh et al., 2001). To generate AICD; JIP1−/−, AICD-Tg mice were mated with mice that were JIP1−/−. All mice were aged 8–10 months unless otherwise specified, as advanced tau pathology in AICD-Tg mice is observed at this age (Ghosal et al., 2009). Male and female mice were used. All experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Cleveland Clinic.

2.2. Western blotting

Hippocampi from sacrificed mice were dissected away from the cortex and thoroughly homogenized. Ten micrograms of protein (75 μg for AICD Western blotting) was resolved on a 10% Tris-glycine gel (4%–12% NuPAGE gel [Invitrogen] for AICD Western blotting) run at 150 V for 90 minutes (60 minutes for AICD blotting) and transferred to a 0.2-μm nitrocellulose membrane. Antigen retrieval was used for AICD Western blotting as described in Ryan and Pimplikar (2005). Membranes were blocked in blocking solution (5% milk in 1× Tris-buffered saline (TBS) with 0.1% Tween (1× TBS-T), 10% calf serum in 1× TBS-T for AICD Western blots). Primary antibodies used were for AT-8 (1:5000, Thermo Scientific), which recognizes the pSer202/205 site of tau, AT-180 (1:5000, Thermo Scientific), which recognizes the pThr231 site of tau, Tau-5 (1:5000, Invitrogen) which recognizes both phosphorylated and unphosphorylated total tau, p-JNK (1:500 Cell Signaling, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), which recognizes pThr183/Tyr185 residues in both the 46 kDa and 54 kDa isoforms of activated JNK, total JNK (1:500 Cell Signaling) which recognizes both phosphorylated and unphosphorylated JNK, APP C-terminal 0443 (1:1000 Calbiochem), and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (1:10,000, Millipore). Secondary antibodies were anti-mouse conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (1:20,000, Cell Signaling) or anti-rabbit peroxidase (1:5000; glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (1:10,000, Millipore). Bands were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescence developing reagents (Perkin Elmer) and autoradiography film, with exposure times ranging from 10 seconds to 5 minutes (AICD Western blots were exposed 1–20 minutes). Relative densities were assessed using Fiji (ImageJ), with all relevant present bands analyzed simultaneously.

2.3. Immunohistochemistry

Mice were anesthetized with 100 mg/kg of ketamine and 10 mg/kg xylazine mix and transcardially perfused with 1× phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and 4% parafformaldehyde (PFA) solution in 1× PBS. Brains were postfixed in 4% PFA in PBS and cryoprotected in 30% sucrose solution. Coronal sections (30 μm) were collected using a cryostat. Antigen retrieval was performed for 10 minutes at 95 °C. Sections were exposed to 3% H2O2 solution in PBS with 1% Triton-X 100 (1% PBS-T) to abolish any endogenous peroxidase activity. Sections were blocked in 5% goat serum in 0.1% PBS-T solution. The primary antibodies used were AT-8 (1:200, Thermo Scientific), AT-180 (1:200, Thermo Scientific), and p-JNK (1:200, Cell Signaling). Secondary was biotinylated goat anti-mouse antibody (1:200, Vector Laboratories) for AT-8 or AT-180 immunohistochemistry, or goat anti-rabbit (1:200, Vector Laboratories) for p-JNK. Signal was amplified using avidin-biotin complex (1:200, Thermo Scientific). As a control AICD-Tg sections were exposed to only secondary antibody and avidin-biotin complex to discern signal from background staining. Staining was developed using diaminobenzidine. Sections were mounted onto slides and allowed to dry completely. Sections were preserved in xylene and Permount (Fischer Scientific). Sections were imaged using a 20× objective and evaluated for relative intensity of staining. Images from each region were collected and assessed by an investigator blinded to genotype.

2.4. Golgi-Cox staining and imaging

Mice were sacrificed and brains were separated into hemibrains. Hemibrains were then processed for Golgi-Cox staining (FD Rapid GolgiStain Kit; FD NeuroTechnologies). Sagittal sections (50 μm) were obtained using a cryostat. Sections were developed as indicated by the manufacturer, immediately dehydrated, and encased in Permunt (Fischer Scientific). Pyramidal neurons in the CA1 were evaluated, as the CA1 is the most drastically affected hippocampal region in human AD patients (Kerchner et al., 2012; La Joie et al., 2013). Four pyramidal neurons were selected randomly and imaged using a 100x objective oil immersion lens. Apical and basal dendrites in pyramidal cells were assessed independently. Three secondary dendrites from the main apical dendrites were selected, as well as 3 basal dendrites 30 μm from the cell body. Images were analyzed using the Fiji software application (ImageJ). Spines were counted along 20 μm of dendrite. The analyzing investigator was blinded to genotype.

2.5. Three-dimensional scanning electron microscopy and reconstruction

Mice were anesthetized and transcardially perfused with 5% glutaraldehyde and/or 4% PFA solution in Na cacodylate buffer, and a small block of hippocampal tissue (3 × 1 × 1 mm) was stained as described by Ohno et al. (2011). Briefly, tissue was treated with 2% OsO4 and/or FeCN for 1 hour, followed by 1% thiocarbohydrazide solution for 20 minutes, 2% OsO4 solution for 30 minutes, an overnight incubation in uranyl acetate solution at 4 °C, and 30 minutes to lead aspartate solution at 60 °C. Samples were dehydrated and embedded in EMbed 812 epoxy resin (Electron Microscopy
2.6. Novel object behavioral analysis

Trials for each mouse lasted 10 minutes and were completed in 3 consecutive days. On the first day mice were placed in the testing chamber (60 × 50 × 40 cm dimensions). On the second day, 2 identical objects were placed in the chamber. On the third day, 1 of the objects was replaced with a novel object. Video was taken of each trial. The analyzing investigator, blinded to genotype, manually assessed time spent exploring objects. Any mouse exhibiting a total exploration time of <5 seconds was blindly excluded from analysis. The chamber was cleaned with 70% ethanol after each trial.

2.7. Fear conditioning behavioral analysis

The used protocol was adopted from Ponder et al. (2008). Briefly, mice were placed in a chamber for 5 minutes, with 3 minutes of chamber exploration, with subsequent exposure twice to a 20-second tone followed by a 2-second shock of 0.5 mV, with an interval of 15 seconds between each tone and shock. The second day of the protocol was eliminated, as we have observed that AICD-Tg mice do not exhibit deficits in contextual fear-related memory (unpublished data). Two days after initial exposure to the chamber, the walls and floor of the chamber were altered. The mouse was then exposed to the sound stimulus without the subsequent shock. Freezing behavior associated with the stimulus was assessed using the FreezeView software package. The chamber was cleaned with 70% ethanol after each trial.

2.8. Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was done using Prism software (version 5). All data was assessed using 1-way analyses of variance to determine statistical significance, with \( p < 0.05 \) defined as significant. Error bars in each case represent standard error of the mean.

3. Results

3.1. AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice showed decreased phospho-tau levels compared with AICD-Tg mice

AICD-Tg mice start to show elevated phospho-tau levels, as assessed by both AT-8 and AT-180 antibodies, by 4 months of age (Ghosal et al., 2009), and a number of protein kinases, including JNK, have been implicated in tau phosphorylation (Johnson and Stoothoff, 2004; Reynolds et al., 1997). JIP1’s known effects on JNK signaling, therefore, could affect tau pathology observed in AICD-Tg mice. To determine whether the absence of JIP1 affects phospho-tau levels in AICD-Tg mice, WT, AICD-Tg, and AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice were sacrificed and brain sections were analyzed by immunohistochemistry using the AT-8 antibody. As shown previously, AICD-Tg mice exhibit increased levels of phospho-tau in neurons in the hilus of the dentate gyrus and the CA3 region of the hippocampus compared with WT brains (Fig. 1A). Increased staining was observed throughout all brain regions in AICD-Tg mice, including the CA1 of the hippocampus, but was less pronounced in other regions. By contrast, AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice displayed dramatically reduced phospho-tau staining in each of these regions (Fig. 1A), and often levels of phospho-tau were observed to be below those in WT animals. Similarly, brain sections stained with the AT-180 phospho-tau antibody also showed increased phospho-tau levels in AICD-Tg mice, which were reduced in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice (Fig. 1B). These data show that loss of JIP1 protects AICD-Tg mice from increasing tau phosphorylation.

To further corroborate these observations and to obtain semi-quantitative data, brain tissue was analyzed by Western blotting using AT-8 and AT-180 antibodies. Western blotting confirmed that levels of phosphorylated tau are reduced in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice compared with AICD-Tg mice, suggesting normal levels of phosphorylated tau are observed in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice (Fig. 1C–E). Total tau levels were unaffected between genotypes (Fig. 1F).

3.2. Decreased phospho-JNK levels are observed in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice compared with AICD-Tg mice

JNK is known to be activated in clinical AD and thus may affect AD pathogenesis (Pei et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2001). Ordinarily basal levels of JNK activation are unaffected in JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice, with JIP1 specifically mediating stress-specific JNK signaling (Whitmarsh et al., 2001). To determine if increased AICD-JIP1 interaction facilitates increased activation of the JNK pathway levels of activated, phosphorylated JNK were assessed in WT, AICD-Tg, and AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice by Western blot. Whereas WT mice showed basal levels of phospho-JNK (Fig. 2A, lanes 1–3), phospho-JNK levels were elevated in AICD-Tg mice (lanes 4–6), but were decreased in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice compared with levels observed in AICD-Tg mice (lanes 7–9). However, due to high variability in phospho-JNK levels between all groups, the differences were not statistically significant (Fig. 2B). When groups were compared by paired t test p-JNK was significantly decreased in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice compared with AICD-Tg mice, \( p = 0.0416 \). All other t test comparisons were not significant. These data suggest that there is a tendency for AICD-Tg mice to exhibit elevated levels of phospho-JNK, which are decreased in the absence of JIP1. Levels of total JNK were similar between all genotypes (Fig. 2C). To further confirm JNK is increasingly activated in AICD-Tg mice, we performed immunohistochemistry for phosphorylated JNK. We observed an increase in phospho-JNK staining in AICD-Tg mice compared with both WT and AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice (Supplementary Fig. 1). Interestingly, the regions with the strongest difference in p-JNK immunoreactivity are also regions that stained strongly for phosphorylated tau, namely the dentate gyrus and the CA3 region of the hippocampus. This further suggests AICD-Tg mice exhibit increased JNK activation through increased AICD-JIP1 interaction, and that this interaction facilitates and potentiates development of tau pathology.

3.3. Relative AICD levels are increased in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice despite lack of JIP1

AICD is known to bind many cytosolic proteins, some of which serve a role in stabilizing AICD (Cao and Sudhof, 2001; Pardossi-Piquard and Checler, 2012; Scheinfeld et al., 2002). It is unknown if JIP1 serves a role in stabilizing AICD. However, JIP1 primarily serves to mediate cell signaling rather than stabilize proteins. Therefore, we hypothesized that increased AICD levels are persistently observed in AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice, and that lack of JIP1 mediates changes in cell signaling rather than overall AICD levels. To test this hypothesis, we performed a Western blot for levels of AICD in WT, AICD-Tg, and AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice using an antibody for the APP C-terminus using a protocol previously described (Ryan and Pimplikar, 2005). We found AICD-Tg mice (Fig. 3A, lanes 3–5), as expected, exhibit increased levels of AICD compared with WT mice (Fig. 3A, lanes 1–2). We also found that AICD; JIP1\(^{-/-}\) mice (Fig. 3A, lanes 6–9) exhibit increased levels of AICD compared with WT.
Fig. 1. Decreased phospho-tau levels are observed in AICD:JIP1−/− mice. (A) Distribution of phospho-tau in the hilus of the dentate gyrus and CA3 regions of the hippocampus as detected by AT-8 immunostaining. AT-8 demonstrates some cell-specific staining in the hippocampus in wild-type (WT) mice, an increased cell-specific staining in the dentate gyrus of AICD mice, and further increased staining in the AICD:JIP1−/− mice. (B) Western blot analysis of AT-8, AT-180, Tau-5, and GAPDH levels in WT, AICD-Tg, and AICD:JIP1−/− mice. (C) Quantification of phospho-tau levels in WT, AICD-Tg, and AICD:JIP1−/− mice. (*P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 compared to WT).
mice, comparable to levels in AICD-Tg mice (Fig. 1A). Quantification of this data suggests AICD-Tg and AICD; JIP1−/− mice exhibit AICD levels 22.9% and 17.6% greater than WT levels, respectively (Fig. 3B). This evidence suggests JIP1 does not stabilize AICD, and that AICD; JIP1−/− mice are protected from development of AD-like pathologies through lack of the AICD-JIP1 interaction.

3.4. AICD; JIP1−/− mice do not exhibit spine deficits present in AICD-Tg mice

Studies in various mouse models of AD have demonstrated that the increasing presence of hyperphosphorylated tau can cause tau aggregation that mediates loss of dendritic spines (Chabrier et al., 2014; Kopeikina et al., 2013a, 2013b; Zempel et al., 2010). Therefore, we assessed AICD-Tg mice for dendritic spine deficits and whether those deficits were rescued in AICD; JIP1−/− mice. Dendritic spine density was evaluated by performing Golgi-Cox staining on hemibrains from 3-, 12-, and 18-month-old mice. Hemibrains were sectioned, and the CA1 region of the hippocampus was examined. No deficit in dendritic spine density was observed in AICD-Tg mice at 3 months of age compared with WT. AICD; JIP1−/− mice also exhibit a spine density comparable to WT mice (Fig. 4A). However, 12-month-old AICD-Tg mice demonstrated a decreased spine number compared with age-matched WT mice.
and AICD; JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Fig. 4B). This phenomenon was also present in 18-month-old mice (Fig. 4C). Quantification of these data showed a deficit in dendritic spine density in AICD-Tg compared with WT or AICD; JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> mice (Fig. 4D). Spine density was also measured in the basal dendrites in 12-month-old mice and was observed as reduced in AICD-Tg mice. However, these deficits were not observed to be persistent at 18 months (data not shown). To further confirm this observation, we visualized apical dendrites from mice aged 18 months and spines that connect to the dendrite using serialized scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 4E). After identifying these structures through the stack of micrographs we then extracted that data and performed a 3-dimensional reconstruction of the dendrite. We found that AICD-Tg mice exhibit fewer spines than any of the other genotypes analyzed, confirming our previous observations from Golgi staining (Fig. 4F).

3.5. Functional preservation of recognition memory and cued fear conditioning was observed in AICD; JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> mice

Because lack of JIP1 in AICD-Tg mice prevented deficits in dendritic spine density, which are directly associated with loss of excitatory synaptic function, we investigated whether it also prevented functional memory deficits in AICD-Tg mice. Mice were subjected to 2 behavior tests to examine different aspects of neural function related to memory: novel object testing to test hippocampal recognition memory and classical fear conditioning to test fear-related memory associated with more global neurologic function. In novel object testing mice that exhibit a preference for exploring the novel object exhibit a retained ability to recognize the familiar object, associated with intact recognition memory. WT mice exhibited a preference for the novel object in novel object recognition testing, whereas AICD-Tg mice showed no preference between objects, indicating AICD-Tg mice experience a loss of recognition memory (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, AICD; JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> mice retained the ability to discriminate between the novel and familiar object. As expected, JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> behaved similar to WT mice. Similarly, AICD-Tg mice showed deficits in freezing behavior associated with classical fear conditioning (Fig. 5B) as compared with WT mice, and this deficit was also alleviated in AICD; JIP1<sup>−/−</sup> mice. AICD-Tg mice showed no deficits in an open field test compared with WT mice (Ghosal et al., 2009), suggesting that differences in these tests were due to memory deficits and not general motor impairments.

4. Discussion

The major finding of the present study is that in AICD-Tg mice JIP1 is required for the development of AD-like pathological features and memory impairments, and lack of JIP1 protects AICD-Tg mice from tau hyperphosphorylation, increased JNK activation, loss of dendritic spines, and behavioral deficits. Recent findings that 20%–30% of clinically diagnosed AD patients do not show amyloid deposits by positron emission tomographic imaging (Jack et al., 2012; Knopman et al., 2012, 2013) further strengthens the notion that amyloid-independent mechanisms are also strongly operative in AD. This evidence further suggests the value of the AICD-Tg mouse model to study amyloid-independent cellular mechanisms of AD pathogenesis.

4.1. JNK activation in AD

These results show that JIP1 can affect the deleterious effects of AICD. Previous studies have shown that JIP1-b, a neuronally-expressed, alternatively-spliced product of ubiquitously expressed JIP1, binds the AICD portion of APP-CTF (Matsuda et al., 2001; Scheinfeld et al., 2002). JIP1 is a cytoplasmic scaffold protein that binds JNK and its upstream activating kinases, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 4 and mixed lineage kinase 7, to facilitate activation of the JNK pathway in response to cellular stress (Davis, 2000). A number of studies have shown that JNK is abnormally activated in the brains of AD patients (Pei et al., 2001; Shoji et al., 2000; Yoon et al., 2012; Zhu et al., 2001). Previous studies have shown that intracellular Aβ or oligomeric Aβ can also trigger JNK activation (Shoji et al., 2000; Yoon et al., 2012). Because AICD-Tg mice show normal levels of Aβ (Ghosal et al., 2009), the present data suggest that AICD can also activate the JNK pathway via JIP1 and thus contribute to AD pathogenesis independently from Aβ. JNK is known to phosphorylate tau (Orejana et al., 2013; Reynolds et al., 1997), and JIP1 has been shown to directly interact with tau (Ittner et al., 2009), raising the possibility that JIP1 facilitates increased tau phosphorylation by promoting proximity of activated JNK to tau. Although AICD is known the bind the phosphotyrosine-binding domain of JIP1-b via its ‘YENPTY’ motif, further studies are needed to understand how this interaction activates the JNK cascade, as the exact mechanism by which these mice develop pathology needs further elaboration.

The FeC25 AICD-Tg model, our group has previously described (Ghosal and Pimplikar, 2011; Ghosal et al., 2010, 2009; Ryan and Pimplikar, 2005; Vogt et al., 2011) is unique in that it also over-expresses Fe65, which stabilizes the AICD. This model also exhibits increased cytoplasmic presence of AICD (Ryan and Pimplikar, 2005). JIP1 is known to be primarily located in the cytoplasm, only experiencing perinuclear localization in response to stress activation (Whitmarsh et al., 2001) and is normally localized primarily to the termini of axons (Dajas-Bailador et al., 2008). Therefore, the enhanced cytoplasmic presence of AICD in our model brings it in closer proximity to JIP1 and thus may be the key to how...
Fig. 4. Spine density deficits not present in AICD; JIP1−/− mice. Mice were of the age indicated. (A) Representative apical dendrites from 3-month-old mice. No significant difference is observed between genotypes. The open arrow indicates what is considered a dendritic spine due to its characteristic structure. The closed arrowhead indicates an uncharacteristic structure that was not considered to be a spine. (B) Representative apical dendrites from mice aged 12 months. AICD-Tg mice exhibit fewer spines. (C) Representative apical dendrites from mice 18 months of age. AICD-Tg mice exhibit a persistent spine deficit as they age, and AICD; JIP1−/− mice also demonstrate a spine density similar to what is observed in WT mice. All scale bars represent 2.5 μm. (D) Quantification of apical spine density in relevant genotypes at 3, 12, and 18 months of age. Spine deficits are not observed at 3 months, indicating deficits are age-dependent. WT mean = 9.58 spines per 10 μm ± 2.7, AICD-Tg mean = 8.55 ± 2.7, AICD; JIP1−/− mean = 9.82 ± 2.96. Spine deficits are first observed at 12 months of age in AICD-Tg mice. AICD; JIP1−/− mice demonstrate spine densities comparable to WT mice. WT mean = 10.33 spines per 10 μm ± 2.8, AICD-Tg mean = 8.67 ± 2.9, AICD; JIP1−/− mean = 11.38 ± 2.08. Deficits are persistent at 18 months of age, which are also absent in AICD; JIP1−/− mice. WT mean = 10.48 spines per 10 μm ± 1.77, AICD-Tg mean = 8.58 ± 2.67, AICD; JIP1−/− mean = 9.87 ± 2.62. Differences were assessed in apical dendrites using analysis of variance with Tukey’s post hoc test for differences between groups. n ≥ 36, 3 dendrites per neuron, 4 neurons per animal, ≥3 animals assessed for each genotype “p < 0.05, “p < 0.01 ***p < 0.001. (E) Representative electron micrograph of a dendrite from the CA1 region of the hippocampus. Dendrites were identified and colored in using computer software to in order to perform
3-dimensional reconstruction by extracting information through coloration from serialized scanning electron micrographs in sequence. Active spines were identified using a method that allows AIcD to complex more readily with its other cytoplasmic-interacting proteins, such as JIP1. This suggests AIcD may be facilitating a cytoplasmic signaling role of JIP1. However, a facilitated role for JIP1-related nuclear signaling cannot be excluded, as JIP1 is shown to affect transcriptional activity, as well, in a manner analogous to, yet independent from, Fe65 (Konietzko et al., 2010; Scheinfeld et al., 2003). This work also further suggests increased AIcD presence, rather than the AIcD-Fe65 complex, is affecting pathology in our mice, as Fe65 and JIP1 bind AIcD at the same site indicating they likely bind AIcD separately and thus have separate cell signaling effects (Cao and Sudhof, 2001; Matsuda et al., 2001).

4.2. Loss of synapses in AD

An interesting finding of our study is that, in AIcD-Tg mice, loss of dendritic spines, which is indicative of loss of excitatory synapses, is alleviated in the absence of JIP1. Synaptic loss is the most critical pathological feature of AD and is best correlated with disease progression (Selkoe, 2002; Terry et al., 1991). The likely causes underlying the observed spine deficits is spine loss associated with increased aggregation and mislocalization of tau into dendrites. Indeed, spine loss associated with tau mislocalization and aggregation is observed in other mouse models that exhibit tau pathology (Chabrier et al., 2014; Hoover et al., 2010; Koperkina et al., 2013a, 2013b). Specifically, tau aggregation is likely contributing to spine loss in AIcD-Tg mice because we do not see spine loss with increased phospho-tau at 3–4 months of age, but see spine loss after 8–9 months of age, when tau increasingly aggregates in our mouse model (Ghosal et al., 2009). The mechanistic details regarding how tau mislocalization and aggregation causes spine loss, however, are not yet fully understood.

An interesting observation is that age-dependent loss of dendritic spines in AIcD-Tg mice is because of an increase in spine number in WT and AIcD; JIP1−/− mice instead of a real decrease in AIcD-Tg mice. As increasing tau phosphorylation mediates spine loss rather than causing failure of spine development in other mouse models of tau dysfunction, and as AIcD-Tg mice develop pathology in an age-dependent manner (Ghosal et al., 2009) we believe AIcD-Tg mice are losing spines as they age rather than failing to develop spines. Tau mislocalization renders microtubules unstable and destabilizes presynaptic termini that synapse with dendritic spines, which can result in spine loss (Bendiske et al., 2002; Erez et al., 2014; Harris et al., 2012). Aggregated tau may also be exhibiting a toxic gain-of-function effect, causing synaptic dysfunction in the postsynaptic dendrites where it is mislocalized (Chabrier et al., 2014). There is in vitro evidence showing that tau mediates the spine loss induced by Aβ and in vivo evidence that both pathologies can synergistically contribute to spine loss (Chabrier et al., 2014; Zempel et al., 2010). This evidence suggests it is likely both amyloid-dependent and amyloid-independent mechanisms of spine loss are mediated primarily by tau and that both Aβ and tau contribute synergistically to synaptic loss in clinical AD.
An important finding of the present study is that loss of JIP1 not only protected AICD-Tg mice from developing AD-histopathologies but also protected mice from behavioral deficits in 2 behavioral tests that depend on different brain functions. By 8 months of age, AICD-Tg mice became deficient in both novel object and classical fear conditioning tests, showing that both hippocampal and more global neurologic function was compromised. JIP1, therefore, mediates not only the histopathological features induced by AICD but also mediates its neurological effects. JIP1−/− mice were not behaviorally impaired in these tests, indicating that JIP1 function is not required for normal memory function. This is consistent with previous in vivo observations, as although in vitro observations indicate lack of JIP1 can mediate N-methyl-d-aspartate receptor dysfunction (Kennedy et al., 2007) in vivo lack of JIP1 results in a neurologically normal phenotype (Whitmarsh et al., 2001).

4.3. The role of AICD in human AD

Studies indicating increased levels of functional AICD are released by β-secretase (Belyaev et al., 2010; Goodger et al., 2009) offer evidence that increased AICD levels are expected to occur concomitantly with increased Aβ, offering an explanation for why increased AICD levels are observed in human AD (Ghosal et al., 2009). This work shows that AICD may contribute to AD pathogenesis independent of Aβ through activation of the JNK pathway. Thus, although the causative role of AICD in AD remains to be established, available data indicate that AICD could be an important candidate for amyloid-independent mechanisms of AD pathogenesis. The JNK signaling pathway is known to activate activator protein-1 and nuclear factor kappa b signaling, which dramatically affect innate immune pathways (Arthur and Ley, 2013). Recently, evidence from genome-wide association studies, and systems biology studies have strongly implicated innate immunity in the onset of clinical AD (Jones et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2013). Therefore, AICD may contribute significantly to clinical AD by increasing innate immune signaling activation through increasing JNK pathway activation by its effects on JIP1. Our findings also suggest a possible explanation as to why the removal of Aβ peptides alone may not be sufficient to block the progression of disease and suggest that a combination therapy involving multiple targets may be more effective than monotherapy focused exclusively on Aβ.

Disclosure statement

None of the authors have any actual or potential financial or personal conflicts of interest to declare.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2015.04.013.


