

## Review

# N-terminal tau truncation in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (AD): Developing a novel diagnostic and therapeutic approach

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## ARTICLE INFO

## Keywords:

Tau truncation  
Synapse(s)  
Neurodegeneration  
Tauopathies  
Alzheimer's disease (AD)

## ABSTRACT

Tau truncation occurs at early stages during the development of human Alzheimer's disease (AD) and other tauopathy dementias. Tau cleavage, particularly in its N-terminal projection domain, is able to drive *per se* neurodegeneration, regardless of its pro-aggregative pathway(s) and in fragment(s)-dependent way. In this short review, we highlight the pathological relevance of the 20-22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>-truncated tau fragment which is endowed with potent neurotoxic "gain-of-function" action(s), both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. An extensive comment on its clinical value as novel progression/diagnostic biomarker and potential therapeutic target in the context of tau-mediated neurodegeneration is also provided.

## 1. Introduction

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) is a progressive neurodegenerative disease with gradual deterioration of cognition/behaviour characterized by a long prodromal phase (20 years) and an average clinical duration of 8–10 years. This chronic illness has an estimated prevalence of 10–30% in the worldwide population > 65 years of age with an incidence of 1–3% which is expected to worsen in the years to come. A large number of affected patients (> 95%) suffer from late-onset (80–90 years of age) sporadic form of disease with primary, antagonistic and integrative aging hallmarks as risk factors of increased susceptibility [1]. Conversely, a small proportion (< 1%) -which carries familiar inherited mutations in genes that, directly and/or indirectly, affect the metabolism of Amyloid Precursor Protein (APP)- is destined to develop symptoms at a much younger age (mean age of ~45 years) [1,2]. Both in humans and preclinical animal models, the characteristic histopathological lesions of the disease are tau-laden neurofibrillary tangles (NFT) and Amyloid  $\beta$  (A $\beta$ )-positive deposits located in selective brain regions involved in the memory/learning processes, such as the basal forebrain, hippocampus and neocortex [1,3]. Neuropathological

changes are paralleled by functional alterations in neuronal plasticity and early disruption of connectivity with perturbed activity in Default Mode Network (DMN), a circuit including different cortical areas whose deterioration occurs prior to the onset of obvious clinical symptoms and mnemonic disabilities [2]. In AD development, A $\beta$  and tau aggregates spread throughout the brain following stereotyped and predictable patterns. In detail, progressive severity of tau neuropathology (Braak staging) has been classified into six phases, designated as Braak/Braak (B/B) stages. At early-stages B/B I-II, neurofibrillary pathology is restricted to the transentorhinal and entorhinal cortices. At middle-stages B/B III-IV, tau inclusions disseminate into the limbic system with engagement of the hippocampus (CA1–4), areas of the frontal and temporal neocortices and the amygdala. At late-stages B/B V-VI, the neocortex is compromised by tau deposition [3].

Clinicopathologic evaluations have shown that the cortical density of NFT better correlates with the cognitive decline than the A $\beta$ -neuritic plaques in patients suffering from AD [3–8]. Consistently, the NFT tau load is considered a more reliable predictor of functional networks deterioration than measures of A $\beta$  deposition in imaging studies on patients transitioning from Mild Cognitive Impairment (MCI) to full-

**Abbreviations:** AD, Alzheimer's Disease; MCI, Mild Cognitive Impairment; NFT, NeuroFibrillary Tangles; SF, Straight Filaments; PHF, Paired Helical Filaments; A $\beta$ , Amyloid- $\beta$  peptides; SDS-PAGE, Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate-PolyAcrylamide Gel Electrophoresis; NGF, Nerve Growth Factor; BDNF, Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor; STS, STaurosporin; AMPA receptor,  $\alpha$ -Amino-3-hydroxy-5-Methyl-4-isoxazole Propionic Acid; NMDA, N-Methyl-D-Aspartate; NR2B, receptor subunits 2B; CREB protein, cAMP Response Element Binding; APPSwe, Amyloid Precursor Protein KM670/671NL Swedish mutation; PS-1, Presenilin-1; ANT-1, Adenine Nucleotide Translocator-1; iPSC, induced Pluripotent Stem Cell; CSF, CerebroSpinal Fluid; Tg, Transgenic; Wt, Wild-type; DMN, Default Mode Network; PET, Positron Emission Tomography; MRI, Magnetic Resonance Imaging; EEG, ElectroEncephalography

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2019.165584>

Received 23 May 2019; Received in revised form 23 September 2019; Accepted 24 September 2019

Available online 29 October 2019

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blown AD [9]. Tau tangle neuropathology is associated with deficits of episodic-memory performance and atrophy of temporal lobes in cognitively-intact healthy adults regardless of A $\beta$ , indicating that tau may be the actual driver for neurodegeneration *in vivo*. In this regard, longitudinal positron emission tomography (PET), structural magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and neuropsychological assessments have revealed that A $\beta$  does not seem to underlie age-related memory impairments, although it can accelerate the development of tau pathology outside the medial temporal lobe (MTL), a brain region which is early involved by tau deposition and whose damage is associated with loss of mental processes in aging and dementia [10]. Recent findings demonstrating that tau dysfunction is linked to cognitive decay in a region-specific manner in AD cases [11], while pure amyloidosis is *per se* asymptomatic, have raised further concerns about the validity of classical amyloid cascade hypothesis and on whether A $\beta$  is the primary culprit in disease etiopathogenesis [12]. In keeping with these observations, *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have outlined the necessary, not-dispensable role of tau dyshomeostasis in cellular and animal models with AD phenotype [13–18] especially in provoking the prodromal, pathologically-relevant changes of synaptic plasticity and neurotransmission [19–21]. Notwithstanding these compelling clinical, epidemiological and experimental evidence, A $\beta$ -directed intervention has been mainly pursued during the last couples of decades until the more recent discovery that tau is not only present in the cytoplasm but also actively secreted into the extracellular space and transmitted from one cell to another. A growing number of studies have confirmed that the transsynaptic propagation of released tau occurs in a stereotyped and strain-specific manner across anatomically-interconnected neuronal networks and *via* a mechanism of prionoid-like template/seeding spreading [22–26]. These advances in basic knowledge of tau pathobiology have collectively generated great interest in the field because of their important “bench-to-bedside” implications for the cure of human AD and non-AD tauopathies. The beneficial effects of antibodies, small molecules or other pharmacological agents aimed at decreasing the production, uptake/binding, internalization, release and/or extracellular action mechanism(s) of toxic tau species are under current investigation [27,28]. Owing to the occurrence of severe adverse side-effects and the failure in improving cognitive performance referred by Phase II trials targeting A $\beta$ , immunotherapeutic approaches based on the clearance/neutralization of diffusible, soluble conformers of tau have been alternatively employed for AD treatment in human beings [29–32]. In this context, tau fragments derived from the N-terminal projection domain of full-length protein turn out to be interesting, being prevailing in the biological fluids from diseased patients [33–38].

One of the most unexpected and intriguing findings which has encouraged efforts towards a better comprehension of the underlying tau-mediated pathogenic processes and the design of molecularly-targeted therapeutics is that, in addition to its classical axonal distribution in post-mitotic neurons, tau also localizes within synaptic compartments under physiopathological conditions [39–45]. To date, there is proof that pathogenic tau species affect, directly and indirectly, the synaptic plasticity and neurotransmission along both pre- and post-synaptic pathways including: (i) regulation of targeting, metabolic and/or energetic activities of synapse-resident mitochondria; (ii) control of glutamatergic (NMDA/AMPA) receptors distribution into dendritic spines and/or direct interaction with scaffolding protein and/or signaling complexes; (iii) modulation of synaptic vesicles clustering/mobilization [39–45].

Of particular relevance is the fact that, among tau post-translational modifications, truncation is critically involved in the onset/progression of AD because of its ability to promote both misfolding/aggregation and neurodegeneration [46–48], in tight association with progressive detriment of cognitive and mnemonic functions [49–53]. In AD, proteolysis enhances the capacity of tau protein to aggregate and, then, to accumulate as protease(s)-resistant NFTs into brains from affected patients [50,51,54–58]. By cryo-electron microscopy and atomistic resolution

carried out on the insoluble materials isolated from cerebral specimens of AD subjects, the Straight Filaments (SF) and Paired Helical Filaments (PHF) -which accumulate into the soma (as NFT) and into the dystrophic neurites (as neuropil threads and dystrophic neurites surrounding the A $\beta$ -positive neuritic plaques), respectively- appear to be mainly constituted by a 12 kDa  $\beta$ -sheet helical core including the proteolytic fragments of tau [46,47,57]. Tau cleavage promotes glycation and ubiquitination, two other pathological protein modifications occurring as PHF mature during their time-dependent evolution into late-stage filamentous inclusions [47,48]. However, truncation results in tau fragments which can induce *per se* neurodegeneration independently of the pro-aggregative pathway(s) and along fragment-specific pattern [47,59], as consequence of their: (i) deleterious action(s) on pre- and/or post-synaptic functions [18,60–63]; (ii) interference with vital cellular processes (axonal transport, microtubule organization, mitochondria metabolism, gene expression) [57]; (iii) secretion into extracellular space and cell-to-cell propagation [64]. Moreover, tau cleavage also contributes -both directly and indirectly- to the execution of apoptotic signal, as suggested by the extensive co-localization of truncated tau with DNA fragmentation in AD neurons [65] and the activation of effector protease(s) followed by stimulation of pro-death downstream signaling(s) [51–53,66–68]. Individual tau fragments have been recently detected in body fluids such as CerebroSpinal Fluid (CSF), plasma and saliva from AD-afflicted patients by paving the way for their quantification as reliable biomarkers for diagnosing dementia, monitoring disease's progression and/or patient's stratification and response to treatment efficacy. Therapeutic strategies aimed at targeting/blocking the toxicity associated with tau cleavage, including inhibitors of protease-substrate interaction and antibody-mediated immunodepletion, are being undertaken, especially in consideration that the deleterious effects of pathological tau appear to be fully reversible within a certain time frame [57,59,64].

Here, we provide an overview of experimental findings by our and other research groups highlighting the importance of tau proteolysis, particularly in its N-terminal projection domain, in the context of tau-mediated synaptic dysfunction and neurodegeneration. We discuss the potential clinical and translational impact of the 20–22 kDa fragment (NH<sub>2</sub>tau), a NH<sub>2</sub>-derived tau peptide endowed with potent “gain-of-function” action(s), both *in vitro* and *in vivo*, which is released in activity-dependent manner from nerve endings and found at high level in CSF of subjects suffering from both AD and other associated dementias.

## 2. Pathological N-terminal cleavage of tau is a contributing factor to early synaptic failure and neurodegeneration during the AD progression

Synaptic impairment and loss of nerve endings occurring prior to overt neuronal death are largely recognized as the principal biological correlates of memory and cognitive disintegration in AD and other human non-AD tauopathies [69,70]. Interestingly, although A $\beta$  can cause downstream tau dysmetabolism, A $\beta$ -driven synaptotoxicity is tau-dependent, in particular on its N-terminal region which protrudes away from the surface of microtubule-track towards the plasma membrane [15,18]. Studies in post-mortem AD brains, as well as in AD transgenic animal models, have also demonstrated the concomitant occurrence of synaptic failure and mitochondrial stress [71,72]. Indeed, the nerve terminal ends are largely enriched of these organelles, more than in other cellular regions [73], due to their high-energy demand and local need of elevated calcium in response to neurotransmission [74]. Interestingly, a complex interplay between pathological A $\beta$  and tau in precipitating the structural and functional demise of synaptic boutons, has been reported to take place *via* parallel and convergent mitochondrial pathways in numerous *in vitro* and *in vivo* investigations [75–77]. As a consequence, preclinical research focusing on the changes in synaptic integrity, function and bioenergetics is pivotal for clinical studies aimed at improving symptomatic and disease-modifying approaches to

halt AD at its inception [69,70].

To gain further insights into the tau-driven pathomechanisms at synapses, our research group first developed a neopeptide antibody directed against the N-terminal sequence of human tau protein DRKD<sub>(25)</sub>-QGGYTMHQDQE which encompasses a conserved caspase(s)-cleavage site [64,78]. This antibody recognizes the newly-created  $\Delta$ -<sub>25</sub>NH<sub>2</sub>tau(Q26-36aa)-terminus of degradation product(s) of tau without cross-reaction towards the same aminoacidic stretch from full-length, intact isoforms of protein [79]. In this framework, we found out that a NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal tau peptide of 20–22 kDa molecular weight (MW) (aka NH<sub>2</sub>htau) on SDS-PAGE separation was early generated in strong correlation with the activation of effector proteases and with the extent of cell death, in different human and rodent *in vitro* paradigms. This NH<sub>2</sub>-terminally cleaved form of tau was clearly visible in: (i) differentiated SH-SY5Y cells undergoing apoptosis following Brain-Derived Neurotrophic Factor (BDNF) withdrawal or acute treatment with STaurosporine (STS); (ii) rat pheochromocytoma PC12 neurons deprived of Nerve Growth Factor (NGF) as trophic support for death induction; (iii) Cerebellar Granule primary cultures (CGN) exposed to low concentration of extracellular potassium (K<sup>5+</sup>) in culture milieu [79]. By combining Western blotting analysis with commercial tau antibodies directed against different epitopes of protein and immunohistochemistry studies, it turned out to be included within the 26 and 230 aminoacids on the N-terminal domain of the longest full-length tau isoform (htau40) [79], two consensus-sequences known to be specific substrates for caspase(s) and calpain-mediated proteolysis, respectively [64,78] (Fig. 1). The pathological relevance of the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau was further validated *in vivo* [79], in hippocampi from 15 month-old AD11 transgenic mice. In this animal model for sporadic AD, the progressive disease-associated neurochemical, behavioural and electrophysiological hallmarks are recapitulated by chronic inactivation of the NGF/TrkA signaling during adulthood by means of the intracellular expression of specific anti-neurotrophin neutralizing antibody [80–82]. Remarkably, the 20–22 kDa tau-derived peptide appeared to preferentially accumulate into synaptic compartment(s) from pathological terminal nerve endings [63], as further confirmed on

isolated hippocampal crude synaptosomal preparations from 3-month-old aging (huAPP695-K670 N/M671 L)2576 (Tg2576) transgenic mice and from autptic specimens of early-middle (Braak stage = 3) patients affected from AD [63] (Fig. 2).

Taken together and in agreement with other following studies [58,83], these findings suggest a “cell death-model” in the AD pathogenesis in which, at initial stages of neurodegeneration, apoptogenic stimuli, by themselves and/or synergically even without leading to complete execution of death program [84–86], can operate in vulnerable populations of post-mitotic neurons, through aberrant activation of effector proteases. This, in turn, would cause downstream the proteolytic cleavage of tau protein with generation of one or more of its toxic soluble truncated species, including the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau, which *per se* may further contribute to propagate and/or facilitate the cellular collapse during the disease progression. In line with causal role of tau dyshomeostasis in excitotoxicity and network hyperexcitability linked to AD and non-AD neurodegenerative disorders [14,18,87–89], the high-efficient, adenovirus-mediated transduction of the NH<sub>2</sub>-26-230 human tau fragment exerted in hippocampal and cortical primary cultures a potent, harmful “gain-of-function” effect(s) [90,91]. The “death signaling”, involving the NMDAR-mediated and caspase-independent excitotoxicity, was accompanied by dephosphorylation of cAMP-response-element-binding protein (CREB) and it was significantly inhibited by ifenprodil, a selective antagonist of extrasynaptic NR2B-subunit-containing NMDARs [90,91].

Since the subcellular localization of a protein into synaptic compartments represents a strong rationale of addressing its plausible role in synaptic function(s) under physiopathological conditions, the molecular mechanism(s) underlying the neurotoxicity of the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau and the biochemical interactome engaged by its preferential accumulation at nerve terminals were next investigated. In this regard, a synthesized NH<sub>2</sub>-26-44 peptide -which is the minimal active moiety retaining the *in vitro* deleterious effect of longer overexpressed parental NH<sub>2</sub>-26-230 human tau fragment [90,91]- was found to markedly inhibit the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and cause an increased production of Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) when *ex-vivo* tested in

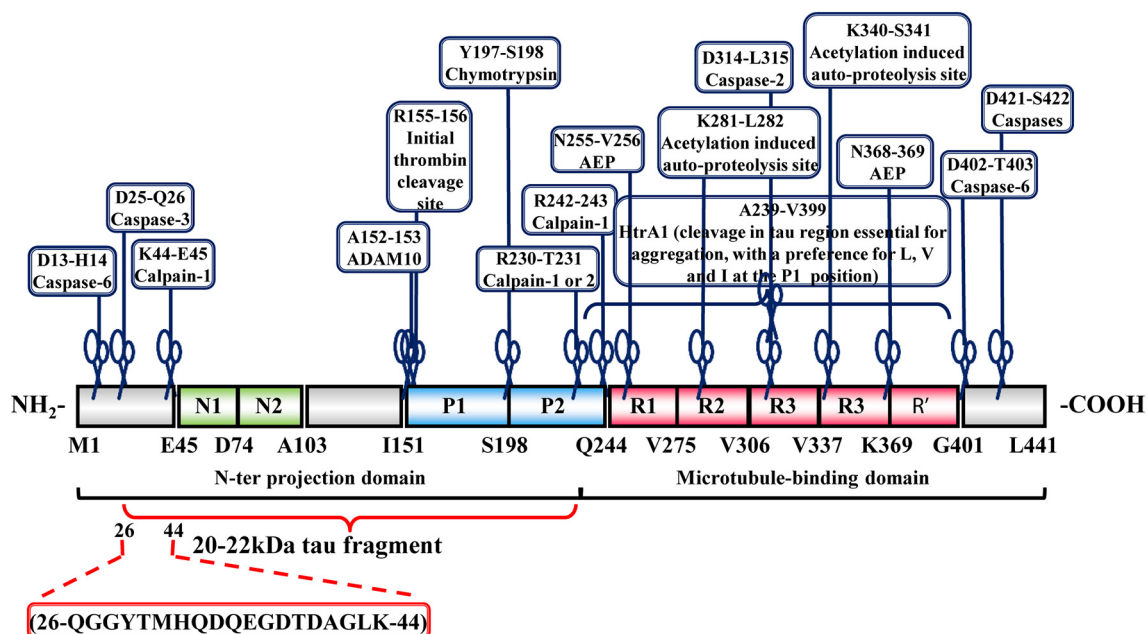
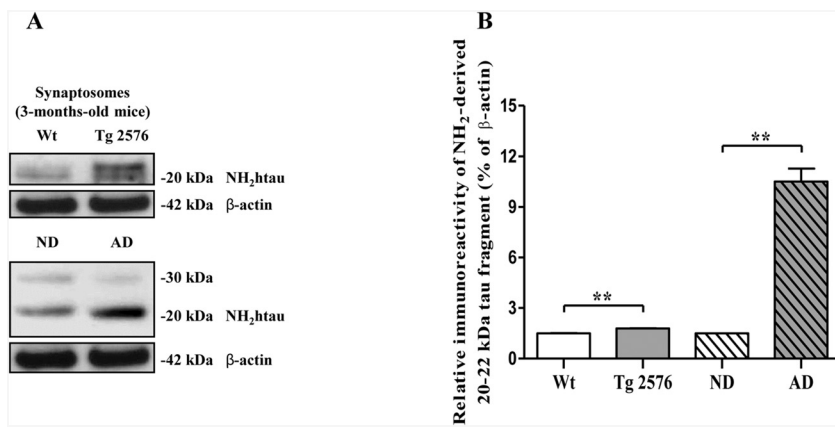


Fig. 1. Schematic representation of the truncation sites on the 2N4R full-length human tau protein.

Schematic of tau proteolysis of the full-length human isoform (2N4R; 1–441 aminoacids) which is typically divided into a N-terminal projection domain and a C-terminal microtubule-binding domain. N1 and N2 are the N-terminal inserts, P1 and P2 are the prolin-rich domains, R1, R2, R3 and R4 are the repeat domains and R' is the flanking domain. Letters refer to the single aminoacid code while the number refers to the position along the length of the tau441 isoform. The 20–22 kDa fragment encompassing the D25-Q26 and R231-T231 caspase(s) and calpain cleavage-sites and the smaller 2.0 kDa peptide are shown. Figure adapted from [64].



the ratio of the intensity of the signal for the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau to that of β-actin which was used as loading control for each sample/lane (B). Values were mean ± SEM of at least of five independent experiments and were expressed with respect to corresponding control counterpart. Statistically significant differences were calculated at the respective experimental points by unpaired-two tailed t-Student's test (\*\*p < 0.01 vs controls).

functional assays on intact/active mitochondria isolated from primary neuronal cultures. Although the precise sequence of events has not been completely understood, the intracellular bioavailability of ATP appeared to be significantly reduced by treatment with NH<sub>2</sub>-26-44 tau peptide -but not with its biologically-harmless NH<sub>2</sub>-1-25 counterpart [90,91]. This effect was discovered to result from the blockage in the thiol group/s located into the active site of Adenine Nucleotide Translocator-1 (ANT-1), the inner membrane component of the Mitochondrial Permeability Transition Pore (MPTP) [92,93]. The involvement of the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau in synaptic derangement *in vivo* was addressed thanks to studies showing that this NH<sub>2</sub>-truncated tau peptide, but not the physiological full-length protein: (i) was selectively enriched into human mitochondria from AD crude synaptoneuroosomes in correlation with the synaptic loss/disassembly and with the organelle functional disturbance [94]; (ii) interacted with Aβ specie(s) and cooperated with it in inhibiting the ANT-1-dependent ADP/ATP exchange at human AD nerve terminals [63] along a mechanism(s) involving both the catalytic -SH group/s and the Aβ-stimulated production of Complex I-derived superoxide anions [93].

Subsequent investigations clarified that the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau could contribute to synaptic injury not only directly, by functional inactivation of ANT-1 mitochondrial carrier [63] but also, indirectly, by improper recruitment of Parkin, an ubiquitin-ligase which triggers the selective degradation of these organelles along the autophagic-lysosomal pathway (mitophagy). The translocation of cytosolic Parkin to neuronal mitochondria was strongly promoted by NH<sub>2</sub>htau which make them more prone to undergo indiscriminate and detrimental autophagic flux [95,96], a physiopathological clearance process in which ubiquitin-binding adaptors recruit these organelles when damaged/oxidated to the degradative autophagosome by binding to LC3. These *in vitro* and *in vivo* findings fit well with the emerging “dual-hit” hypothesis of the AD onset/development in which both pathological Aβ and tau provoke damage of synaptic terminal boutons at early stages of disease progression by impinging, directly or indirectly, on the mitochondrial metabolic function(s) and dynamics (changes in number, shape and sub-cellular distribution) [75–77].

In conclusion, by means of morphological, biochemical and functional experimental approaches, we report that the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau: (i) is pathologically relevant, being present at high levels into synaptic compartment(s) from cellular, animal experimental AD models and post-mortem humans brains of cognitively-impaired AD subjects [96]; (ii) is able to induce alterations in mitochondrial trafficking, morphology and bioenergetics which, in turn, could contribute to the synaptic deterioration and imbalanced neurotransmission likely by impairing the energy-consuming clearance/re-uptake of extracellular glutamate [92,97]. These findings are in line with the early deficits in

energy metabolism and turnover of mitochondria (biogenesis, transport, degradation and selective quality control) detected in brains from different lines of AD transgenic mice [71,98–100] and from AD patients [75,101], which occur in correlation with clinical disability [102] and with modifications of synaptic plasticity in susceptible neurocircuitries of limbic system [77,103,104].

As shown by other research groups, the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>htau is also discernible in: (i) hippocampal cultured neurons [105] and organotypic slices [106] exposed to low concentration of extracellular Aβ oligomers; (ii) 3xTg mice carrying mutated human APPSwe, tauP301L, PS1M146V [107] which are *in vitro* and *in vivo* AD systems characterized by marked mitochondrial and synaptic disablement. Furthermore, in support of its deleterious effect (s) on the progression of AD and related disorders, the *in vivo* expression of two overlapping pathologically-relevant, NH<sub>2</sub>-derived tau fragments lacking the extreme N-end -such as tau 26-330 [108] or calpain-cleaved tau 45-230 [109]- is able to recapitulate a few key hallmarks of neuropathology in transgenic animals by inducing neuronal degeneration, synaptic abnormalities and behavioural deficits in memory/learning tasks.

### 3. Extracellular NH<sub>2</sub>-derived tau fragment(s) is a potential diagnostic biomarker and therapeutic target for human tauopathies, including AD

Due to its canonical function(s) of microtubule-associated protein (MAP) involved in the cytoskeleton stabilization, axonal motor-based transport, neuritic elongation and maturation, intracellular tau has been largely accepted to be localized into the cytoplasm of neurons. However, a growing number of data supports the idea that tau is also physiologically secreted following the neuronal activity, likely within extracellular vesicles (exosomes and ectosomes) and through an unconventional pathway [25]. Consistently, intervention strategies which intercept the bioactive seeds of extracellular pathological tau have been actually proved to attenuate the early Aβ-dependent and/or independent synaptic dysfunction(s) in preclinical AD models with significant improvement in animals' cognitive or motor functions [29,110]. Tau is released into the extracellular space both in its full-length [111,112] and truncated forms [35,113], not only in the conditioned media of human tau-expressing cell lines [114,115], primary neurons [116] and induced Pluripotent Stem Cell (iPSC)-derived neurons [35,114,117] but also in the brain Interstitial Fluid (ISF) and CerebroSpinal Fluid (CSF) of mice [118] and human [119]. Of note, CSF-AD tau is detected mainly as a heterogeneous population of fragments, including the NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal and/or prolin-rich domain of protein [34,37,38,120–124], irrespective of cell death or neurodegeneration [125]. Relevantly, elevated levels of mid-region and N-terminal



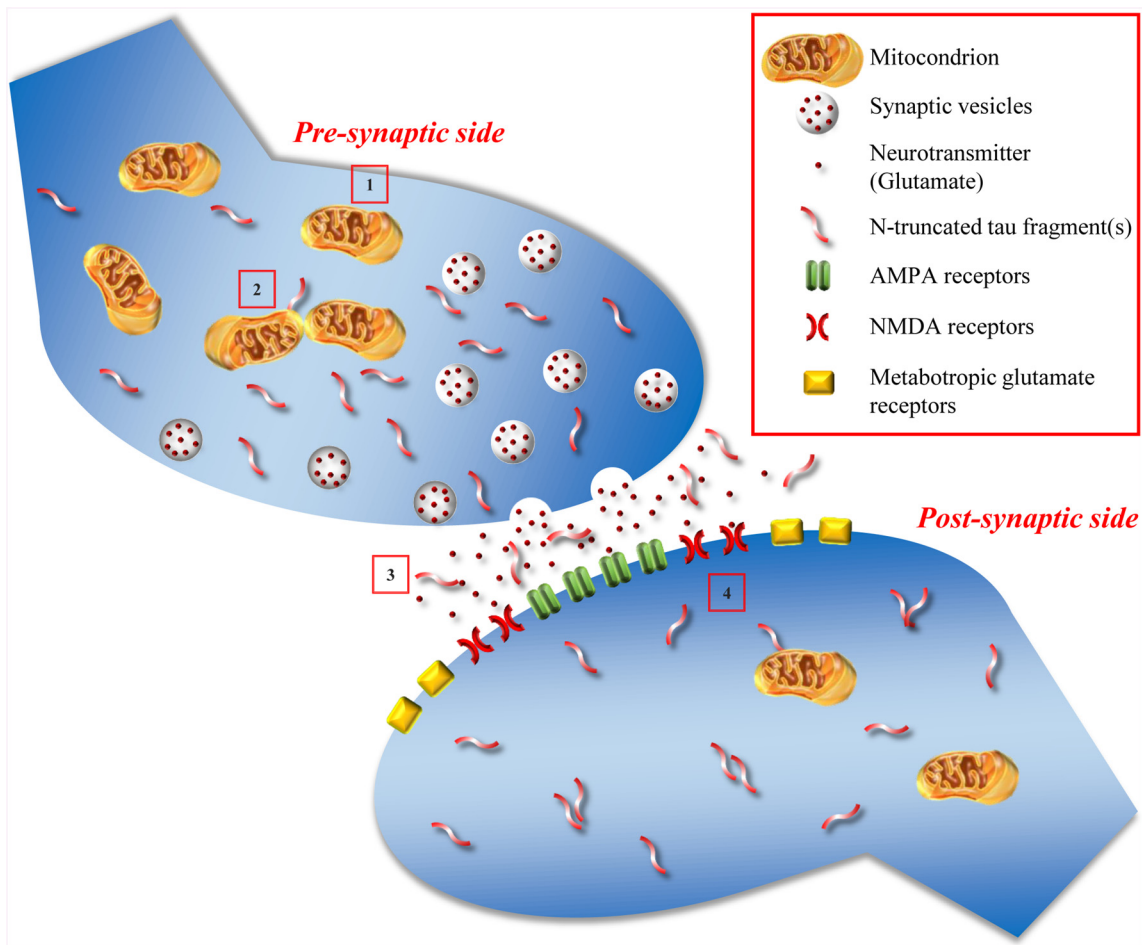
containing fragments are largely abundant both in CSF and in plasma from AD and MCI-AD patients, suggesting that NH<sub>2</sub>-derived species are actively secreted during the pathological aging [125] by escaping neurons more preferentially than COOH-derived ones [126].

Consistent with these observations, high levels of the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>tau were detectable by Western blotting analysis on peripheral CSF from living patients affected from tau-dependent neurodegenerative diseases associated with mnemonic disability, providing thus a biomarker for AD and non-AD human tauopathies [33]. Strikingly, we found out that the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>tau: (i) was not a normal constituent of CSF, unlike t-tau and p-tau, being rarely detected in patients without cognitive impairment; (ii) discriminated, with a weak specificity of 65% but a high sensitivity of 85%, subjects carrying neurodegenerative diseases associated with cognitive deterioration (i.e., AD, frontotemporal lobar degeneration, Parkinson's disease with dementia, vascular dementia, mixed dementia, etc.) from those affected by other neurological disorders without memory/learning deficits [33]. Interestingly, by immunoprecipitation followed by high-resolution mass spectrometry and immunoassays, a recent longitudinal study has confirmed that this tau peptide is actually present in individual CSF and specifically upregulated in AD subjects, in correlation with the progressive decrease of their cognitive performance [36]. In support of the finding that the extracellular abundance of NH<sub>2</sub>-derived tau fragments is prominent in AD environments, additional *ex-vivo* and *in vitro* evidence has demonstrated that the soluble and unaggregated C-terminally truncated forms of tau, including the 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>tau, are preferentially secreted from synaptosomes of AD brains [127] and in conditioned media from patient-derived induced Pluripotent Stem Cells (iPSC) cortical neurons of affected subjects [35,113]. More recently, we reported that a 2.0 kDa peptide which encompasses the smaller and more potent NH<sub>2</sub>-26-44 tau aminoacidic stretch included into the parental 20–22 kDa NH<sub>2</sub>tau: (i) was actually endogenously detected *in vivo*, being present in hippocampal synaptosomal preparations from AD subjects [128]; (ii) was able to induce brain pathology by altering the normal synaptic function(s), both *in vitro* [129] and *in vivo* [128], when exogenously-added to neurons. Elevated levels of intracellular calcium load, structural and functional alterations of synaptic connections, cognitive impairments in the absence of signs of frank neuronal death were clearly detected in NH<sub>2</sub>-26-44 tau-exposed hippocampi, a pathological phenotype which is recapitulated by well-established cell-culture and mouse models of tauopathy [128,129].

Given that the identification of the molecular identity of neurotoxic intracellular/extracellular tau species is required to develop more effective immunotherapeutic approaches [28,31], these experimental studies might also have far-reaching translational implications, by providing a remarkable opportunity for developing unexplored tau-based vaccination regimen useful in future AD trials. Consistently, antibodies targeting the N-terminal projection domain of human tau are proved to be beneficial following intra-cerebroventricular (i.c.v.) and peripheral administrations in AD transgenic mice by counteracting their cognitive deficits [130–133] and preventing the age-dependent seeding/spreading of neuropathology [134]. *In vivo* delivery of HJ8.5 -a monoclonal antibody (mAb) which recognizes the N-terminal region of tau (epitope residues 25–30) and is endowed with potent ability to block its seeding activity *in vitro*- markedly reduces the accumulation of hyperphosphorylated (AT8)/insoluble pathological aggregates, the microglial activation and the brain atrophy of 6-month-old P301S tau transgenic mice [130,131] with consequent improvement in their motor/sensorimotor and cognitive deficits. Intraperitoneal injection of anti-tau 43D mAb (epitope residues 6–18) significantly ameliorates the reference memory of 14–17-months-old 3xTg-AD mice when tested in the Morris water maze task, by diminishing the level of both total and AD-like hyperphosphorylated tau (Ser202/Thr205 (AT8), Thr205, Ser262/356 (12E8), and Ser396/404 (PHF-1)) [132]. Passive immunization of this aggressive AD animal model with 43D mAb also prevents the phospho-tau seeding in the ipsilateral hippocampus and

inhibits its propagation to the contralateral side [133]. Taken together, these compelling findings indicate that immunotherapy against the N-terminal extremity of tau can be a productive treatment strategy to prevent *in vivo* the associated trans-cellular propagation of neuropathology mediated by its extracellular aggregates. Besides, in okadaic acid (OA)-treated rats showing an accumulation of pathological tau induced by selective inhibition of PP2A, the infusion of polyclonal antibody against the N-terminal region of tau (phospho-residue cluster 68–71) evokes appreciable neuroprotective effects on its site-specific AD-like hyperphosphorylation and, thus, on the animals' cognitive performance [134]. Relevantly, there is also strong evidence that the N-terminal of human tau which interacts with the plasma membrane [135] can contribute to its pathological action at synaptic extensions [18,136], not only by facilitating the secretion to the extracellular space [137], but also by triggering the initial nucleation/oligomerization processes which underlies the higher-order aggregative pattern [138]. Nevertheless, the development of anti-tau antibodies which selectively target the toxic components of its N-terminal region will be of great therapeutic interest for the cure of AD by avoiding the clearance of the normal full-length protein endowed with important physiological functions and whose reduction *in vivo*, even if partial, is known to be extremely harmful in terminally-differentiated post-mitotic neurons [27–31]. Interestingly, the species-specific differences in the expression and protein sequences of tau at its N-terminal domain [139], along with the occurrence of extrinsic post-translational determinants, might, at least in part, account for increased vulnerability of human beings to develop mature AD neurodegeneration [140]. To this point, several tau-dependent mechanisms have been proposed, such as: (i) different control in protein-protein interactions with a subset of disease-relevant components involved in vesicle-associated machinery assembly and synaptic transmission [35,141,142]; (ii) facilitation in secretion through a mechanism involving recruitment of End Binding proteins which belong to the group of microtubule plus-end tracking proteins (+TIPs) [137].

In summary, several pieces of data demonstrate that targeting tau pathology might be prove more effective in preventing/delay the clinical symptoms of AD, considered that the A $\beta$ -directed therapies have been unsuccessful to date. Evidence from APP-overexpressing transgenic animal models [143] and longitudinal clinical trials have also demonstrated that A $\beta$ -associated cognitive deficits in healthy normal older subjects develop only in the presence of elevated CSF levels of phospho-tau [144]. In AD progression, hyperphosphorylated tau is closely linked with memory impairments whereas A $\beta$  deposition does not correlate with cognition but rather with early functional deterioration of integrity and dynamics of critical brain networks, as measured by functional MRI and electroencephalography (EEG). In particular, A $\beta$  pathology shows topographical correspondence with the DMN whose disruption in AD initially involves the medial temporal lobe and posterior cingulate cortex/precuneus and later progresses to the lateral parietal and medial frontal regions with the increasing disease severity [145]. However, it's worth noting that promising results from tau-directed interventions in the field of AD cure should be interpreted with caution given the complexity of targeting extracellular soluble toxic tau whose precise nature *in vivo* remains to be clearly identified [34,110]. On the other hand, tau-based human clinical trials are still in progress and a synergy between A $\beta$  and other risk factors and/or pathogenic proteins can also contribute to neuron death and cognitive deficits at sufficient level to warrant a dementia diagnosis [146,147]. Multiple-targeted approaches taking into account the multi-factorial nature of AD pathology which involves different underlying causative mechanisms (i.e. A $\beta$ , tau, inflammation, neurotrophic factor imbalance and others) should be considered to achieve the best outcomes in managing this devastating illness in human beings [148].



**Fig. 3.** Putative pathological mechanisms by which the N-terminally truncated tau fragment(s) (i.e. NH<sub>2</sub>htau) may impair the synaptic functions in AD. 1. NH<sub>2</sub>htau affects mitochondrial bioenergetics by inhibiting the ANT-1-dependent ADP/ATP exchange [92–94]; 2. NH<sub>2</sub>htau impairs mitochondrial dynamics (fusion/fission and selective autophagic clearance) [95,96]; 3. NH<sub>2</sub>htau is released into the extracellular space [127] where it may perturb the plasma membrane and be internalized [128,129]; 4. NH<sub>2</sub>htau is involved in extrasynaptic NMDA2B receptor-dependent excitotoxicity [90,91].

#### 4. Conclusions and future directions

Compelling experimental and clinical studies show that pathological tau accumulation within specific brain regions and/or its CSF levels better correlate in AD with impaired cognitive functions and synapse loss than A $\beta$  does, suggesting that neurodegeneration may be ultimately driven during the disease progression by changes in normal metabolism of tau. Truncation at N-terminal domain of tau is an important pathogenetic mechanism which is early and causally involved in the initiation/development of human AD and other related brain dementias, collectively named tauopathies. Tau cleavage at its NH<sub>2</sub> extremity contributes to neuropathology propagation by increasing the propensity of protein to aggregate into insoluble NFTs and/or by disrupting the cellular machinery and synaptic function which lead, eventually, to end-stage neuronal death (Fig. 3). Novel diagnostic/prognostic disease biomarkers and therapeutic strategies focused on the tau proteolysis at its amino-terminus domain, are currently pursued offering a new hope for treatment of these fatal neurodegenerative disorders with a high burden of tau pathology.

#### Funding

This research was supported by Magnetic Diagnostic Assay for neurodegenerative diseases H2020-ICT-2016-2017 “SSI - Smart System Integration” Proposal 732678 SEP 210349930. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish or

preparation of manuscript.

#### Author contribution

G.A., V.L. and P.C. designed and outlined the structure and contents of the review. V.C. contributed to critical discussion and reading. G.A., V.L. and P.C. contributed to the literature review, discussion and writing of the manuscript.

#### Transparency document

The [Transparency document](#) associated this article can be found, in online version.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no actual or potential conflicts of interest and that these data are not published elsewhere.

#### Acknowledgments

We wish to thank Pina Moliterno for suggestions in the final editing of the manuscript.

## Consent for publication

All authors approve the study described in this report and give their consent for publication.

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