1 **Elucidating the pathogenic mechanisms of AD brain-derived tau-containing extracellular**
2 **vesicles: Highly transmissible and preferential propagation to GABAergic neurons**
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Abstract

Extracellular vesicles (EVs) are highly transmissible and play critical roles in propagation of tau

pathology although its mechanism remains elusive. Here, for the first time, we comprehensively

characterized the pathogenic effect of human brain-derived EVs isolated from Alzheimer's

disease (AD), prodromal AD (pAD) and non-demented control (CTRL) cases. AD-EVs are

significantly enriched in epitope-specific tau oligomers in comparison to pAD-EVs or CTRL-

EVs as determined by dot-blot and atomic force microscopy. AD-EVs were more efficiently

internalized by murine cortical neurons and transferred tau, and had higher aggregation potency

than pAD-EVs and CTRL-EVs *in vitro*. Strikingly, the inoculation of AD-EVs or pAD-EVs

containing 300 pg of tau into the outer molecular layer of the dentate gyrus (DG) in 18 months-

old C57BL/6 mice induced tau propagation throughout the hippocampus in 4.5 months, whereas

inoculation of the equal amount of tau from CTRL-EV or as the oligomer or fibril-enriched

fraction from the same AD donor show little propagation as determined by the semiquantitative

brain-wide immunohistochemistry using multiple anti-phosphor-tau (p-tau) antibodies. AD-EVs

induced accumulation of tau in the hippocampal region as both oligomers and sarkosyl-insoluble

forms. Unexpectedly, p-tau$^+$ cells were mostly GAD67$^+$ GABAergic neurons followed by

GluR2/3$^+$ excitatory mossy cells, indicating preferential EV-mediated tau propagation to

GABAergic neurons. Whole cell patch clamp recording of Cornu Ammonis (CA1) pyramidal

cells showed significant reduction in the amplitude of inhibitory post-synaptic current. This is

accompanied by the reduction in GAD67$^+$GABAergic neuronal puncta around CA1 pyramidal

neurons and in c-fos$^+$ GAD67$^+$GABAergic neurons in the CA1 regions, reconfirming the reduced

interneuronal projections to the CA1. Our study posits a novel mechanism of brain-derived EVs

in spreading pathological tau in hippocampal neurons therefore leading to their dysfunction.

Introduction

Accumulation of misfolded microtubule-associated protein tau is a neuropathological hallmark of Alzheimer's disease (AD), and is closely associated with cognitive decline in AD patients [1]. Abnormally aggregated and phosphorylated tau (p-tau) first appear in the entorhinal cortex at the prodromal stage of AD, spreading in a hierarchical pattern [1] to the hippocampal regions then throughout neocortical areas [2]. A growing body of evidence suggests that the possible mechanism of prion-like cell-to-cell transmission for tau propagation is as follows: extracellular tau are internalized into healthy cells, where templated misfolding is induced with the endogenous tau to generate into tau aggregates, leading to another cycle of tau spread by being secreted from the cell. Tau is mostly secreted in free form, while a minor fraction of tau is associated with extracellular vesicles (EVs) in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) or blood of the control subjects (CTRL) and AD patients [3-7]. The levels of free tau in CSF of AD patients and neuron-derived plasma EVs isolated from patients with mild cognitive impairment (MCI) or AD were both correlated with the progression of disease [4, 8], suggesting potential pathogenic roles of both forms of tau in disease development. It is a matter of debate, however, that EV-associated and free form tau may contribute differently to tau propagation. The inoculation of isolated paired helical filament (PHF)-tau from AD or other tauopathy brains were able to develop tau pathology in anatomically connected regions of wild type mouse brains [9, 10]. On the other hand, the inoculations of EVs isolated from transgenic tau mouse brains, human AD plasma, or human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) expressing recombinant mutant tau also initiated tau propagation in mouse brains [11-13]. More importantly, we and others have previously shown that inhibition of exosome synthesis significantly reduced tau propagation *in vitro* [14, 15] and *in vivo* [15]. Numerous studies have been reported for understanding the

mechanisms of cell-to-cell transmission of EV-associated and free form tau aggregates via their

secretion and uptake (for review, see [3, 16, 17]). While the mode of uptake of free tau appears

to be dependent on its conformational change and post-translational modifications [18-20], EV-

mediated tau uptake may be more influenced by the specific EV surface proteins. EVs can target

specific cell types by the interaction between enriched proteins on the EV surface and cell

surface molecules of the recipient cells [21]. To understand molecular compositions in human

brain-derived EVs, we have recently developed a separation protocol of human and mouse brain-

derived EVs, by which we successfully enriched EVs with limited contamination from cytosolic

components such as the endoplasmic reticulum or Golgi apparatus [22, 23]. Using this protocol,

we have recently reported the proteomic profiling of AD and CTRL brain-derived EVs, and

identified glia-derived EV molecules enriched in AD cases and significantly differentially

expressed proteins, which can distinguish AD from CTRL cases with 88% accuracy by a

machine learning approach [23]. Furthermore, our recent study on the proteomic characterization

of EVs isolated from interleukin (IL)-1β -stimulated human primary astrocytes have shown

increased expression of the integrin family, including integrin-β3 (ITGB3), which is critical for

neuronal EV uptake [24]. These data corroborate an idea that the disease conditions, including

glial inflammation, alter the molecular composition of EVs, which may modulate neuronal EV

uptake, therefore enhancing their potency of tau pathology spread.

There has been no comprehensive analysis of tau pathology development after the injection of

human brain-derived EVs from CTRL or AD cases. Moreover, to understand the particular

mechanism of EV mediated tau propagation, it is essential to assess propagation potency of EV-

associated and vesicle free tau isolated from the same donor. Here we aimed to characterize

brain-derived EVs separated from AD, prodromal AD (pAD) and age/sex-matched non-

demented control subjects (CTRL) for their biophysical, biochemical, and neurobiological

properties *in vitro*, as well as their potency for tau pathology development after their

intrahippocampal injection in aged C57BL/6 (B6) mice *in vivo*. The recipient mice were tested

by immunohistochemical and biochemical characterization of tau accumulation in the brain. We

also assessed the difference in tau pathology development after intrahippocampal injections of

EV-, tau oligomer- and tau fibril-enriched fractions from the same AD case in aged mouse

brains. Finally, the hippocampal region of the recipient mice was tested by whole cell patch

clamp recording for the assessment of the neurophysiological alteration by the tau accumulation.

Results

Detection of tau oligomers in AD and pAD brain-derived EVs

EVs consist of cell-derived lipid bilayer and are often classified as exosomes, which are 30-

150nm in size and are secreted after the fusion of endosomes with cell surface, and

microvesicles, which are 100-1000nm in size and are secreted by outward budding of plasma

membranes [16, 25-27]. They were originally thought to be part of the clearance system of the

unmetabolized cellular compositions, although accumulative evidence suggests that EVs may

play critical roles for spreading pathological proteins, therefore contributing to

neurodegenerative diseases [15, 28-30]. While tau was found both in exosomes and

microvesicles isolated from various tauopathy mouse brains, neuroblastoma cells, CSF, and

plasma in AD patients [4, 6, 7, 31], there has been no study reporting the detailed analysis of AD

brain-derived EVs. We first isolated exosome-enriched EV fractions from AD, pAD, and CTRL

patient brain samples using the previously published protocol (Supplementary Table S1 for

patients' demographics) [22, 23]. Briefly, the fresh-frozen post mortem brain tissues containing

the gray matter were lightly minced followed by the sequential centrifugations and discontinuous

sucrose density gradient ultracentrifugation (Fig. 1a). Analyses of the isolated fractions by the

transmission electron microscopy (TEM, Fig. 1b) and nanoparticles tracking analysis (NTA, Fig.

1c) demonstrated enrichment of EVs from these brain tissues with a size corresponding to

exosomes [32]. There was no difference in terms of EV particle concentration or size among the

three groups (Fig. 1d-e). ELISA analysis of total tau, Aβ40, and Aβ42 in EVs show abundance

of total tau but little detection of Aβ40 in EVs of all groups, whereas Aβ42 are enriched in AD-

EVs (Supplementary Table S2). Considering that tau oligomer is in the nanometer size [33], we

postulated that brain-derived EVs contain tau mostly in oligomer forms. Indeed, there was a

significantly higher amount of oligomeric tau in EVs derived from AD when compared to CTRL

as detected by tau oligomer-specific monoclonal antibodies TOMA-1 and TOMA-2, but not by

TOMA-3 or TOMA-4 (Fig. 1f-I and Supplementary Fig. S1). There was no difference in the

form recognized by tau oligomer polyclonal antibodies T22 and T18 among three groups (Fig.

1f-k). In addition, the atomic force microscopy (AFM) analysis of detergent-insoluble fraction of

AD-EVs and pAD-EVs, but not of CRTL-EVs, detected mostly globular particles at the mode

height 4-6nm, which is consistent with tau oligomers (Fig. 1l-m). Taken together, these data

suggest that AD-EVs and pAD-EVs are enriched in tau oligomers compared to CTRL-EVs,

indicating the tau seeding potency of EVs and their pathogenic roles.

AD brain-derived EVs show efficient uptake by primary cultured neurons and subsequent

tau transfer

Numerous mechanisms of EV uptake have been proposed including endocytosis,

macropinocytosis, phagocytosis, caveolae-dependent, clathrin-dependent, lipid raft-dependent

endocytosis and membrane fusion [21]. Protein-protein interaction between EVs and cell surface

molecules on the recipient cells can facilitate the binding of EVs and subsequent endocytosis

[21, 34]. For example, interaction between the integrin family on EVs and intercellular adhesion

molecules (ICAMs) [35] or extracellular matrix, including fibronectin and laminin, on the

recipient cell surface are known to be important for EV binding [21, 36, 37]. Furthermore,

heparin sulfate proteoglycan (HSPG) [38] and galectin [39] can mediate EV uptake. We

hypothesized that EV uptake differs dependent on the disease condition, which may alter

molecular complex on EV surface. We tested EVs isolated from human brains for their uptake by

primary cultured murine neurons *in vitro*. After seven days of neuronal differentiation *in vitro*,

the cells were incubated with PKH26-labeled EVs containing tau isolated from the brain tissue of

AD, pAD and CTRL samples (AD-EV tau, pAD-EV tau, and CTRL-EV tau) for 24 hours and

examined for the EV uptake as previously described [24] (Fig. 2a). The neuronal EV uptake was

significantly higher in AD-EVs compared to CTRL-EVs, while the neuronal uptake of pAD-EVs

was similar to CTRL-EVs (Fig. 2b-c). Concomitantly, the transfer efficiency of tau from EVs to

neurons normalized by the original tau input was significantly higher in AD-EVs as compared to

CTRL-EVs (Fig. 2d). As a negative control, we labeled the supernatant from the last

ultracentrifugation wash-step of the EV isolation from the brain tissue with PKH26 and applied it

to neuronal cells in parallel, which did not induce PKH26 positivity in neurons (data not shown),

confirming that the observed PKH26 positivity in neuronal cells was not due to artifacts. EV

surface protein repertoires are known to reflect their biological condition and cell-type specificity

of parental cells [21, 40]. Our recent proteome of human brain-derived EVs revealed that CTRL-

EVs expressed more protein of neuronal origin while AD-EVs showed more glial dominance,

possibly reflecting the neuroinflammatory condition, which was recently described as the third

core AD pathogenesis following Aβ plaques and neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) [41]. Thus,

these results demonstrated that AD-EV tau are more efficiently transferred to recipient neurons

than CTRL- or pAD-EV tau via enhanced EV uptake, suggesting that selective AD-EV surface

molecules may pathologically facilitate the docking of EVs to the recipient cells. Finally, to

understand if EV-tau has different tau seeding activity dependent on the disease conditions, we

employed a FRET sensor-based tau seeding assay as previously described [42]. Astonishingly,

the AD-EVs showed significantly higher seeding activity compared to pAD and CTR-EVs group

(Fig. 2e), suggesting AD-EV possess higher potency for inducing tau pathology. In summary,

these data demonstrate pathogenic functions of AD-EVs, which gave us a rationale to investigate

tau propagation via brain-derived EVs *in vivo*.

Inoculation of AD-EVs or pAD-EVs propagate tau pathology in aged B6 mice

Since we observed efficient EV uptake and transfer of EV-tau into primary mouse cortical

neurons and significant tau seeding activities in AD-EVs, we further tested whether EVs isolated

from the human brain can initiate tauopathy in 2 months-old B6 male and female mice after an

intrahippocampal injection. Human brain-derived EVs (containing 300 pg tau/ injectate) isolated

from the brain tissue of CTRL, pAD, and AD cases were unilaterally injected into the outer

molecular layer (OML) of the dentate gyrus (DG) (Fig. 3a). The concentration of tau (300 pg/μl)

in the prepared EV sample was set in the range of the estimated physiological extracellular tau

concentration in the human interstitial fluid of the central nervous system [43], and is much

lower than the amount used for the previous tau propagation studies (1-8 μg / injectate) [9, 10].

Immunofluorescence against phosphorylated tau (p-tau) antibody AT8 (pSer202/pSer205)

detected a considerable, yet not an abundant, amount of AT8$^+$ cells in the hippocampal region of

pAD-EV or AD-EV injected female mice (Supplemental Fig. S2, left) but not in male mice (data

not shown). A previous study reported that a more enhanced tau propagation induced by fibril

tau injection was observed with aged B6 mice in comparison to young mice [9]. Therefore, we

decided to use aged female mice as recipients to determine if human brain-derived EVs

propagate tau pathology in the way reflecting the donor's disease conditions. Human brain-

derived EVs were isolated from 2 donors of each AD, pAD, and CTRL cases and from *Mapt*

knockout (Tau KO) mice as the control. Each EV sample (containing 300 pg tau/injectate for

human brain derived-EVs), using saline as an injection control, were unilaterally injected into the

OML of the DG of ~18-months-old B6 female mice (Fig. 3a). The degree of tau pathology

spread was evaluated by the immunofluorescence against AT8 in the hippocampal area at 4.5

months post injection (Fig. 3b, Supplementary Fig. S2, right, and S3a). Interestingly, abundant

perikaryal AT8$^+$ inclusions were detected in both ipsilateral and contralateral sides of the

hippocampal region including the cornus Ammonis 1 (CA1), CA3, dentate granular cells,

subgranular zone, and hilus in the AD and p-AD EV groups, suggesting tau transfer between

anatomically connected pathways (Fig. 3b). Semiquantitative brain-wide mapping of tau

pathologies showed that AT8$^+$ pathogenic tau was accumulated throughout the hippocampus,

predominantly distributed in the caudal hippocampal hilus, in the mouse brains injected with

AD-EVs or pAD-EVs, while CTRL-EV injected mouse brains barely showed AT8 positivity

(Fig. 3c). Notably, the percentage of the area occupied by AT8$^+$ cells in the hippocampal region

was significantly higher in AD-EV and pAD-EV groups as compared to the CTRL-EV, Saline or

Tau-KO-EV groups (Fig. 3c-d). There was no significant difference between Tau KO-EV and

CTRL-EV injected groups and no AT8$^+$ staining was observed in saline group (Fig. 3d,

Supplementary Fig. S3a). All AT8$^+$ neurons were negative for human tau as determined by

immunofluorescent staining against human tau-specific monoclonal HT7 (data not shown),

indicating that endogenous mouse tau was recruited and aggregated by the inoculation of human

EV-derived tau. A growing body of evidence suggests that misfolded tau tends to be truncated

and frequently consists of different conformers or structural polymorphisms, deciphering the

stages and disease of tauopathy [44-48]. Therefore, we performed the neuropathological analysis

of tau by immunohistochemistry using conformation-specific (Alz50 and MC1) and p-tau

epitope-specific monoclonals (CP13: pSer202 tau, PS422: pS422 tau, and PHF1:pSer396 and

pSer404). All 5 antibodies detected misfolded or phosphorylated tau mainly in the hilus of

hippocampal region with AD- and pAD-EV groups (Supplemental Fig. S3b-f).

We next examined whether EV-tau could induce templated misfolding of original tau aggregates

in endogenous tau of the recipient mice by biochemical extraction of aggregated tau from the

human brain-derived EV-injected mouse brains, accomplished via sarkosyl solubilization and

sequential centrifugation, followed by immunoblotting using Tau-5 and PHF1 monoclonal

antibodies (Fig. 3e) as previously described [49, 50]. We observed significant increase in

oligomeric tau in the fraction S1p of both pAD-EV and AD-EV-injected mouse hippocampi as

compared to the CTRL-EV-injected group, determined by both Tau-5 (total tau) and PHF1

immunoblotting (Fig. 3f-g). The amount of sarkosyl-insoluble tau in the fraction P3 was also

significantly elevated in AD-EV-injected mouse hippocampi when compared to CTRL-EV group

(Fig. 3f-g). These data indicate that AD-EV inoculation induced accumulation of oligomeric and

fibrillar tau from an endogenous source, while pAD-EV inoculation induced accumulation of

oligomeric tau. Taken together, these data show the efficient induction of tau propagation in the

hippocampus of the aged B6 female mouse brains after the injection of the AD-EVs or pAD-EVs

containing physiological concentration of tau. Conformational changes of tau in the recipient

mice appear to reflect the original tau confirmation of AD-EVs and pAD-EVs, which were also

reported with mice injected with AD brain-derived tau fibrils [9].

Inoculation of AD-EVs show more tau propagation as compared to the inoculation of an

equal amount of tau oligomer or fibril-enriched fractions from the same AD brain tissue

To determine how propagation of tau pathology may differ between the injection of EV-

associated or free form tau, we isolated EV-, tau fibril- or tau oligomer-enriched fractions from

the same AD brain tissue sample, and injected each sample containing an equivalent amount of

tau (300pg) in 1 μL of total volume into the OML of the DG of 18-month-old B6 female mice.

Fibril or oligomeric tau was isolated as S1p and P3 fractions according to the previous

publications [9, 49, 50]. The p-tau immunoreactivity and structure of the isolated tau aggregates

were examined by the western blot using PHF1 antibody and AFM (Fig. 4a-b). We observed

mainly monomeric PHF1$^+$ band in p-tau in EV- and tau oligomer-enriched samples, and trimeric

PHF1$^+$ band in fibril-enriched sample (Fig. 4a). AFM images show mostly small globular

particles (6-8nm in height) in EV and tau oligomer preparation and large globular structures (30-

70nm in height), which is consistent with the description of the fibril structure as previously

reported [51], in sonicated tau fibril preparations (Fig. 4b). At 4.5 months after the injection,

mice were euthanized and tested for tau pathology by immunofluorescence against AT8. We

observed strong AT8 positivity in the injection site with all groups, suggesting successful

intrahippocampal injections. In addition, AT8$^+$ signal was also seen as perikaryal inclusions or

neuropil staining in the cortex along the needle tract (Supplementary Fig. S4, left), whereas only

neuropil accumulation of tau with oligomer or fibril tau injected mice, which is in agreement

with the previous study [9] (Fig. 4c, top panels, Supplementary Fig. S4, middle and right).

Moreover, compared to AT8^{+} tau pathology observed in the entire hippocampal region with AD-

EV injected mice as described previously, fibril or oligomer tau-injected mice did not show any

AT8[+] perikaryal inclusions in entire hippocampus (Fig. 4c, bottom panels, d). These findings

recapitulated our previous study showing that inoculation of microglia-derived EVs containing

5ng of aggregated tau, but not the inoculation of the equal amount of free tau aggregates, was

able to induce tau propagation in the dentate gyrus of B6 mouse brains [15]. Previous studies

reported that the inoculation of 1-8 μg of fibril tau from AD patients into wildtype (B6 and

B6/C3H F1) mouse brains could induce tau propagation as early as 3 months post injection [9,

10]. Potency of propagation may be varied between the donors and the type of tauopathies [10],

therefore it is difficult to compare the results between these studies. To the best of our

knowledge, this is the first report of increased tau propagation potency in EV-tau as compared to

vesicle free tau isolated from the same human AD brain tissue. A previous study reported that

immunodepletion of tau from the AD-brain derived tau fibril diminished tau aggregation activity

in vitro or propagation *in vivo* [9]. Moreover, addition of remaining components after the

immunodepletion of AD-tau into fibril tau did not alter the outcome of abovementioned

experiments, suggesting that tau was the essential component to initiate tau propagation but not

tau associated molecules [9]. Our results also indicated that EVs without tau do not initiate tau

propagation *in vivo* as we barely observed tau propagation by injecting Tau KO-EVs. We,

however, confirmed that EVs certainly enhanced propagation potency of tau. The discrepancy

between these experiments may be due to potential removal of EVs associated with extracellular

tau when immunodepletion of tau was performed.

Preferential EV-mediated tau propagation in GABAergic inhibitory neurons

Recent knowledge indicates that specific type of organs or cells, where EVs are transferred,

could be determined by the enriched proteins on the EV surface [21]. For example, previous

studies found that specific EV proteins, such as integrins or tetraspanins, play critical roles for

the deliveries of cancer-derived EVs to specific organs or cell types [52, 53]. Given the fact that

some EV surface proteins are specifically expressed on AD-EVs [23], we speculated that the

evaluation of EV-mediated transfer of tau to aged mouse brains would uncover cell type-specific

tau transfer mechanisms. To determine which neuronal cell type preferentially accumulate tau,

we performed double immunostaining using the markers for p-tau (AT8) and GABAergic

interneurons (GAD67 and parvalbumin, PV) or excitatory neurons (Neurogranin, NG, and

glutamate receptor 2/3, GluR2/3, mossy cell marker) [54]. Surprisingly, most of AT8$^+$ cells were

GAD67$^+$ interneurons in the CA1, CA3, and DG region in AD-EV and pAD-EV-injected mice

(Fig. 5a-b). Moreover, a subset of PV$^+$ neurons were also co-localized with AT8 (Supplementary

Fig. S5a). We found that the ratio of GAD67$^+$AT8$^+$ cells over total GAD67$^+$ cells were

significantly higher in the DG region in pAD-EV and in the CA1 and CA3 region in AD-EV

compared to CTRL-EV injected mice (Fig. 5c-e), although there was no significant reduction in

the total number of GAD67$^+$ neurons in those regions. No difference was observed in any of the

regions between Tau KO-EV and CTRL-EV groups. In contrast, no NG$^+$ excitatory neurons

were AT8$^+$ in the DG of hippocampus (Supplementary Fig. S5b). We, however, observed that

some of AT8$^+$ cells were GluR2/3$^+$ mossy cells in the hilus region (Fig. 5f). Quantification of

AT8$^+$ cells in the hippocampal region in AD-EV injected mice revealed that 64% and 23% of the

AT8$^+$ cells were GAD67$^+$ inhibitory neurons and GluR2/3$^+$ excitatory mossy cells, respectively

(Fig. 5g). Multiple lines of evidence have supported the notion that GABAergic interneuron

dysfunction could be one of critical components in the early pathogenesis of AD. The decreased

levels of GABA transmitter have been reported in the CSF of AD patients or elderly without

cognitive impairment [55, 56] and in their post-mortem tissues especially in the temporal cortex,

followed by the hippocampus, frontal cortex, and thalamus of AD patients [57]. AD patients

showed loss of specific somatostatin$^+$ interneurons in the hippocampus and cortex [58, 59].

Moreover, 7-21% of sporadic AD patients show at least one episode of seizure during the illness

[60], and administration of anti-epileptic drug, levetiracetam, was effective to improve cognitive

function in the elderly for those with normal memory, MCI, and AD patients [61, 62]. Together,

our data indicate that EVs may play a critical role in tau propagation of GABAergic neurons, and

suggest that EVs can be an attractive therapeutic target for the early intervention of AD.

AD-EV and pAD-EV inoculation reduced GABAergic input and neuronal activity in CA1

pyramidal cells

To determine if EV-mediated tau propagation may disrupt GABAergic neuronal functions, we

examined the number of immunostained GAD67$^+$ puncta surrounding CA1 pyramidal neuronal

cell soma. The images were captured by confocal microscope and the number of the puncta was

analyzed by Imaris software (Fig. 6a). Astonishingly, there was a significant reduction in the

number of puncta in the CA1 pyramidal layer of pAD-EV but not AD-EV group as compared to

Tau KO-EV group (Fig. 6b). There was no difference between the groups in the cell numbers of

CA1 pyramidal neurons (Fig. 6c). We further assessed the synaptic input of GABAergic neurons

to CA1 pyramidal cells by examining the neuronal activity of GAD67$^+$ GABAergic neurons by

immunofluorescence against c-fos. Strikingly, there was a significant reduction in c-fos$^+$/

GAD67$^+$ cells in the CA1 in both AD-EV and pAD-EV as compared to Tau KO-EV injected

mice (Fig. 6d-e). However, there was also significant reduction in c-fos$^+$/ GAD67$^+$ cells in the

DG in AD-EV as compared to Tau KO-EV groups (Fig. 6f-g), suggesting decreased neuronal

activity in GABAergic neurons specifically in the CA1 region by EV-mediated tau propagation.

Taken together, these data demonstrate disrupted GABAergic neuronal function by EV-mediated

tau propagation, which suggest CA1 pyramidal neuronal dysfunction.

EV-induced alterations in intrinsic membrane properties and spontaneous inhibitory

synaptic currents

To evaluate the effect of tau propagation in human brain-derived EV-inoculated mouse brains,

we performed whole-cell voltage/current–clamp recordings of CA1 pyramidal cells using 300

µm-thickness acute tissue slices of mouse hippocampi from Tau KO-EV, pAD-EV, and AD-EV

groups (Fig. 7a-b). An F-I curve-generating protocol was designed in such a way that it enables

us to inject a wide range of step current amplitude ranging from -100 pA to +120 pA (increment

of +20 pA) in High Rn protocol, while -220 pA to +330 pA (increment of +50 pA) in Low Rn

protocol. The number of action potentials (APs) was significantly lower in pAD-EV and aAD-

EV groups compared to Tau KO-EV groups as determined by repeated measurement ANOVA

(Fig. 7c,e, Supplementary Table S4-5) and for pAD-EV group compared to Tau KO-EV group at

+100 pA (p=0.0434) and +130 pA (p=0.0445) (Fig. 7d,f). This result is consistent with our study

on another tau transgenic mouse model (aged rTg4510 mice expressing P301L tau), which show

reduction in firing in hippocampal CA1 neurons [63]. AD-EV group showed significant

reduction of AP amplitude as compared to Tau KO-EV group (Fig. 6g). Evaluation of the

properties of spontaneous inhibitory and excitatory postsynaptic potentials (sIPSCs and sEPSCs)

(Fig. 7h and Supplementary Table S6-7) revealed significant reduction in amplitude of sIPSCs in

pAD-EV group and E-I ratio of amplitude as compared to Tau KO group (Fig. 7h-i). There was

no difference in sEPSC properties among the 3 groups. Taken together, these data demonstrate

reduction in excitability of pAD-EV group, reduction of AP amplitude in AD-EV group, and

reduction in sIPSC amplitude in pAD-EV group, which is also reflected in the reduction in the E-

I ratio of sIPSC amplitude. Thus, pathogenic tau accumulation may compromise both excitatory

and inhibitory activity of CA1 pyramidal cells.

Discussion

The current study, for the first time, demonstrated that brain-derived EVs isolated from AD or

pAD cases efficiently initiated tau propagation in aged B6 mice, a phenomenon which was

validated by the *in vitro* evidence of the highly transmissible nature of AD-EVs with higher

uptake by cortical neurons and increased seeding activity as compared to CTRL-EVs. Tau

pathology was predominantly found in GABAergic neurons and in mossy cells in the DG to a

lesser extent. Whole cell patch clamp recording of CA1 pyramidal cells of recipient mice showed

reduced intrinsic excitability and sIPSC amplitude indicative of intrinsic dysfunction of CA1

pyramidal cells and reduced input from interneurons. This was accompanied with reduced

inhibitory synaptic and c-fos immunoreactivity in GABAergic neurons in the CA1 region. The

preferential EV mediated tau propagation into GABAergic neurons and their reduced function

posits the potential underlying mechanism in interneuron dysfunction in AD.

Recent advances in EV research have opened new avenues to investigate the diagnostic and

pathogenic roles of EVs on neurodegenerative diseases [25-27]. Accumulating evidence now

suggests that EVs carry pathogenic proteins, and EV-associated proteins or miRNAs predict

disease progressions in AD [8, 64], chronic traumatic encephalopathy [65], Parkinson disease,

prion disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, traumatic brain injury, multiple sclerosis, and

Huntington disease [25, 26]. Furthermore, overexpression of the second most AD-associated

GWAS gene, Bridging integrator-1 (BIN1), enhanced release of tau via EVs *in vitro* and

exacerbated tau pathology in PS19 mice *in vivo* [66]. Contribution of EVs to tau pathology

development in AD patients has been questioned, however, due to the scarcity of tau in the EV

fractions of biofluids. We have witnessed here that EVs containing only 300 pg of tau

successfully induced templated misfolding in endogenous tau and subsequently transferred tau

pathology through the entire hippocampus in aged B6 mice, indicating that EVs are indeed

vehicles to transfer pathological tau. AD-EVs show higher transmissibility of tau via increased

uptake by recipient neurons. Our proteome analysis of AD brain-derived EVs suggests

enrichment of glia-derived EVs rather than neuron-derived EVs [23]. Interestingly, recent

analysis of single cell RNAseq of human AD brains showed that CD81, an established

tetraspanin exosomal marker, is highly expressed in the microglia module [67] together with

ApoE, the most prominent AD GWAS gene [68]. Notably, APOE is a representative disease-

associated / neurodegenerative microglia (DAM/MGnD) genes [69], suggesting active EV and

APOE synthesis in DAM/MGnD in AD brains. CD81 and CD82 are known to regulate the

integrin cluster distribution on plasma membranes to facilitate dendritic cell adhesions [70] and

recruit integrins to endosomal pathway [71] respectively. In addition, our recent study

demonstrates that IL-1β-stimulated astrocytes secrete EVs enriched in the integrin family with

higher neuronal uptake efficiency, which was inhibited by an integrin-blocking peptide [24].

Thus, EV uptake in AD brains could be enhanced by differentially expressed EV surface proteins

due to altered cargo sorting or the origin of the cell type in neuroinflammatory conditions.

Dysfunction of interneuron has been extensively reported in tauopathy animal models [72, 73].

JNPL3 transgenic mice harboring *MAPT* P301L mutation show loss of hippocampal interneurons,

PHF1[+] p-tau and MC1^{+} misfolded tau in interneurons ,and rescue of enhanced later-phase long-

term potentiation by administration of GABA$_A$ receptor agonist [72]. VLW mice overexpressing

human *MAPT* with 3 mutations (G272V, P301L, and R406W) show p-tau accumulation in

hippocampal PV^{+} GABAergic neurons and mossy cells in DG as early as 2 months of age [73].

Reduction of GABAergic septohippocampal innervation on PV[+] interneurons in VLW mice

suggests tau accumulation may be responsible for GABAergic neuronal loss [73]. We found that

EV-mediated tau propagation is explicitly in GABAergic neurons, including PV neurons

followed by mossy cells, and GABAergic dysfunction was determined by both

electrophysiological recording and c-fos activity, indicating the susceptibility of those neurons to

tau toxicity. PV neurons are surrounded by the specific extracellular matrix (ECM), called

perineuronal nets, comprised of integrin-binding versican and heparin sulfate proteoglycan

(HSPG) [74]. Since EV uptake is dependent on HSPG [38], EV surface proteins such as integrins,

which are known to interact with HSPG, may play a potential role on their uptake by

GABAergic neurons.

In summary, we have revealed that the mechanism of EV-mediated tau propagation via highly

transmissible and potent seeding activity of AD-EVs with selective susceptibility of GABAergic

neurons. Our study created a foundation to elucidate the novel EV-mediated tau spread

mechanism, which may be relevant to interneuron dysfunction in AD.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Aged C57BL/6 (18-19 months old), Tau KO (B6.129X1-*Mapt^{tm1Hnd}*/J, # 007251) and pregnant

CD-1 mice were purchased from National Institute of Aging (NIA), Jackson laboratory and

Charles River Laboratory, respectively. B6 mice were used for intracerebral inoculation of

human brain-derived materials. Adult Tau KO mice were used for isolation of brain-derived

EVs. E16 CD-1 mice were used for primary culture of cortical neurons. All animal procedures

followed the guidelines of the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of

Laboratory Animals, and were approved by the Boston University Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee (IACUC).

Isolation of EVs from AD brains

Human and mouse brain-derived EVs were isolated according to our recently published methods

[22]. Briefly, fresh frozen human frontal cortex gray matter was sliced with a razor blade on ice

while frozen to generate 1–2 cm long, 2–3 mm wide sections. The cut sections are dissociated

while partially frozen in 300 μL of 20 units papain (# LK003178, Worthington Biochemical

Corporation) in 15 mL Hibernate-E media (Thermo Fisher Scientific) at 37°C for 15 min, and

protease and phosphatase inhibitors (# PI78443, Thermo Fisher Scientific) were added. The

tissue sample was centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C. The pellet was used as the brain

homogenate control. The supernatant was centrifuged at $2000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C. The

supernatant was centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant was transferred

through a 0.22-μm filter and ultracentrifuged at $100,000 \times g$ for 70 minutes at 4°C using

Beckman SW41Ti. The pellet was resuspended in 2 mL of 0.475M of sucrose in double-filtered

PBS with 0.22-μm filter (dfPBS) and overlaid on 5 sucrose cushions (2 mL each of 2.0M, 1.5M,

1M, 0.825M, 0.65M in dfPBS) and ultracentrifuged at $100,000 \times g$ for 20 h. The samples were

fractionated in 1-mL step, and fractions V and VI are collected as EV-enriched fraction. Each

fraction was ultracentrifuged at 100,000 × *g* for 70 minutes at 4ºC to pellet EVs, which were

resuspended in 30 uL dfPBS as a final volume/fraction.

Nanoparticle Track Analysis (NTA)

The number of EVs in the enriched fraction was analyzed as previously described [22, 75].

Briefly, all samples were diluted in dfPBS for at least 1:1000 or more to get particles within the

target reading range for the Nanosight 300 machine (Malvern Panalytical Inc), which is 10-100

particles per frame. Using a syringe pump infusion system (Harvard Laboratories/Malvern), five

60-second videos were taken for each sample at 21°C constant. Analysis of particle counts was

carried out in the Nanosight NTA 3.3 software (Malvern Panalytical Inc) with a detection

threshold of 5. Particle counts were normalized for dilution on the machine, dilution of the final

pellet, and starting material for exosome extraction. The average count was then taken for

fractions V and VI.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

Ten μL of EVs (~1 μg/μL) were incubated with 100 μL 0.5% sarkolsyl (#61747-100ML, Sigma-

Aldrich) for 30 min on ice in ultracentrifuge-compatible Beckman microcentrifuge tubes for

solubilization of vesicles, and dfPBS was added to 1.2mL. The sample was ultracentrifuged at

100,000 × *g* for 70min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed but leaving 50 μL, and dfPBS was

added to 1.2mL for second ultracentrifugation at 100,000 × *g* for 70 min at 4°C. The pellet was

dissociated in 10 μL dfPBS, and subjected to AFM imaging by ScanAsyst mode with Multimode

8 AFM machine (Bruker, Billerica MA) as previously described [76].

Transmission Electron microscopy (TEM)

TEM of EVs was conducted as previously described [15, 22]. Briefly, 5 μL of the EV sample

was adsorbed for 1 min to a carbon-coated grid (# CF400-CU, Electron Microscopy Sciences)

that had been made hydrophilic by a 20-sec exposure to a glow discharge (25mA). Excess liquid

was removed with a filter paper (#1 Whatman), the grid was then floated briefly on a drop of

water (to wash away phosphate or salt), blotted on a filer paper, and then stained with 0.75%

uranyl formate (#22451 EMS) for 15 seconds. After removing the excess uranyl formate with a

filter paper, the grids were examined in a JEOL 1200EX Transmission electron microscope and

images were recorded with an AMT 2k CCD camera.

ELISA of brain tissue extraction and EV samples

Brain tissue homogenate and EV samples were diluted 1:10 in 8M guanidine buffer so

solubilization, followed by dilution in TENT buffer (50 mM Tris HCl pH 7.5, 2 mM EDTA,

150mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100) supplemented with phosphatase inhibitors (Pierce HALT

inhibitor), and subjected to human total tau ELISA (human tau: # KHB0042, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) according to manufacturer's instructions.

EV labelling with PKH26

EVs were labelled with lipophilic red fluorescent dye (PKH26, Sigma-Aldrich), according to the

manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, 0.32-μL PKH26 dye was mixed with 10 μL EV samples in 40

μL diluent C, and incubated for 5 min at room temperature. dfPBS was used as a negative

control. The labelling reaction was stopped by adding 50 μL chilled dfPBS, and subjected to

Exosome Spin Columns (MW 3000, ThermoFisher, cat.4484449) at $750 \times g$ for 2 min to remove

the free dye and enrich the labelled EVs, which was adjusted to 5 μg/100 μL for the neuronal EV

uptake assay.

Primary tissue culture of murine cortical neurons

Primary murine cortical neurons were isolated from E16 embryos from pregnant CD-1 mice

(Charles River Laboratory). Dissociated cortical tissues were digested with trypsin-EDTA

(diluted to 0.125%, #25200072, Invitrogen), triturated by polished pipettes, and strained into

single neurons using a 40-μm pore size Falcon cell strainer (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and

plated onto 12-mm #1 thickness coverslips or plates, precoated with 100 μg/mL poly-D-lysine

(Sigma-Aldrich) diluted in borate buffer (0.05 M boric acid, pH 8.5) and washed with sterile

water prior, at 375,000 cells per coverslip in 24-well plates. Neurons at DIV7 were treated with

PKH26-labeled EVs for EV uptake or tau transfer study.

Tau seeding assay

HEK-TauRD P301S FRET cells were plated at in 96-well PDL coated plate (# 354461, Corning)

in growth media (DMEM, 10%FBS). The day after, human brain-derived EVs were mixed with

80 μL Opti-MEM and 20 μL Lipofectamine 2000, and incubated at room temperature for 10 min.

Subsequently, growth media was removed from the cells, replaced with samples containing

Lipofectamine, and incubated at 37°C, 5%CO$_2$. After 1 h, Lipofectamine-containing media was

removed from the cells and replaced with growth media. Cells were maintained in culture at

37°C, 5% CO$_2$ for 72 h afterward. The day of the analysis, cells were washed in PBS, detached

with Trypsin 0.25% (#25200072, Invitrogen) and washed with FACS buffer (PBS + 0.5% BSA).

Subsequently, cells were fixed in 2%PFA, 2% Sucrose for 15 min at 4 °C, spun at 12,000 rpm for

15 min at 4 °C, resuspended in FACS buffer and acquired with a 5 lasers system LSRII (Becton

Dickinson), using pacific-orange and pacific-blue dyes for YFP and CFP, respectively. Data was

analyzed by FlowJo and expressed as Integrated FRET Density.

Stereotaxic surgery

B6 mice at 18–19 months old were deeply anesthetized with isoflurane and immobilized in a

stereotaxic frame (David Kopf Instruments) installed with robot stereotaxic injection system

(Neurostar). Animals were unilaterally inoculated with human brain-derived EVs or tau

aggreagtes in the dorsal hippocampal OML (bregma: −2.18 mm; lateral: 1.13 mm; depth: −1.9

mm from the skull) using a 10-μL Hamilton syringe as previously described [15]. Each injection

site received 1.0 μL of inoculum, containing 300 pg tau /μL. We noted that majority of the

injected materials were deposited at the OML of the hippocampus (Fig. 3A).

Immunochemistry and Immunofluorescence

Brains were removed after transcardial perfusion fixation with ice-cold 4%

paraformaldehyde/PBS followed by post-fixation for 16h and cryoprotection with 15% then 30%

sucrose/PBS over 3-5 days. They were cut coronally in 20-μm thickness using a cryostat, and

three hippocampal sections separated at least 200 μm per mouse per antibody were used for IHC.

The sections were processed by antigen retrieval with Tris-EDTA (pH 8.0) at 80°C,

permeabilized in 0.5% Triton-X 100/PBS, and blocked in 10% normal goat serum, 1% BSA, and

0.1% tween-20 in PBS. Sections were incubated GAD67 (#PA5-36054, ThermoFisher

scientific); GAD67-biotin-conjugated (# MAB5406B, Millipore), AT8 (# MN1020,

ThermoFisher scientific), GluR2/3 (# AB1506, Millipore), MAP-2 (# PA517646, Invitrogen), c-

fos (# 226 003, Synaptic Systems), PS422 (# 44-764G, ThermoFisher scientific), Alz50 and

MC1, CP13, PHF-1 (as kind gifts provided by Dr. Davis Peter), diluted with 1% BSA, 0.025%

tween-20 in PBS at 4°C for overnight (see Supplementary Table S3 for antibody information).

Sections were then washed and incubated in secondary antibodies (AlexaFluor 594 goat anti-

mouse; 1:1000, AlexaFluor488 goat anti-rabbit; 1:1000, AlexaFluor568 streptavidin 1:1000) for

1 h at room temperature. All images were captured on Nikon deconvolution wide-field

epifluorescence system (Nikon Instruments) or confocal microscopic imaging as described below.

Confocal image processing and quantification by Imaris

All confocal imaging was performed on a LSM710 using Zen 2010 software (Zeiss) or a Leica

TCS SP8 lightning microscope at the inverted Leica DMi8 microscope stand using the confocal

mode with a 63× oil immersion/1.4 N.A objective using a 1.1 optical zoom at a pinhole of 1.0

Airy units. Images of 2048 × 2048 pixels as confocal stacks with a z-interval of 0.35 μm was

used to image cells. For imaging GAD67 puncta, a 555-nm laser line was used and emission was

collected at 565–650 nm. Gain and off-set were set at values which prevented saturated and

empty pixels. After image acquisition, all images were applied with lightning deconvolution.

The quantification of GAD67 positive puncta was counted by using the "spot" module of Imaris

9.5, 64-bit version (Bitplane AG, Saint Paul, MN, www.bitplane.com). Manual cutting of the

CA1 pyramidal cells with GAD67 fields in 3D. This program analyzes stacks of confocal

sections acquired in two channels (red for GAD67, blue for DAPI represents cell number). Final

data analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel and Graph rendering was done in GraphPad

Prism

Biochemical sequential extraction from mouse brains

Brain tissues were removed from CTRL-EV, pAD-EV and AD-EV-injected mice at the

designated time points after transcardial perfusion of animals by ice-cold PBS to minimize

contamination of blood-derived mouse immunoglobulins. Hippocampal and cortical regions

were dissected separately, snap frozen in dry ice and stored at −80 °C before protein extraction.

For enrichment of tau oligomers and fibrils, sequential extractions were performed as follows:

Each hippocampal tissue was homogenized in 9 volumes of TBS buffer (50 mM Tris-Cl, pH 8.0

in saline) supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktails (# PI78443, Thermo

Fisher Scientific). The homogenate was centrifuged at 48,300 × g for 20 min at 4 °C. The

supernatant and pellet is designated as S1 (TBS-supernatant) and P1 (TBS-pellet) fraction,

respectively. The S1 fraction was ultracentrifuged at 186,340 × g at 4 °C for 40 min. The pellet

fraction (S1p) was resuspended in a 4 volume of double-filtered TE buffer relative to the starting

weight of the tissue, aliquoted and frozen at -80°C as tau oligomer-enriched fraction. The P1

fraction was resuspended in 5 volume of wet weight of the original tissue of buffer B (1%

sarkosyl, 10 mM Tris, pH 7.4, 800 mM NaCl, 10% sucrose, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM PMSF, all from

Sigma-Aldrich) and incubated by rotating with the bench top thermomixer at 37 °C for 1 h. The

sample was ultracentrifuged at 186,340 × g for 1 h at 4 °C. After completely removing the

supernatant and rinsing the pellet in sterile PBS, sarkosyl-insoluble pellet (P3) was resuspended

with 50 μL double-filtered TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 1 mM EDTA, pH 8.0), aliquoted and frozen

at -80°C as tau fibril-enriched fraction.

Western and dot blotting

For western blotting, homogenates (Ho) of hippocampus from each experimental group and an

equal proportion of corresponding Ho, S1, S1p and P3, were loaded on 10% SDS–PAGE gels (

Bio-Rad) and electro-transferred to 0.45-μm nitrocellulose membranes (Bio-Rad). For dot

blotting, an equal volume of EVs sample were dotted onto 0.45-μm nitrocellulose membranes

(Bio-Rad) and washed twice with TBS buffer. The nitrocellulose membranes were then blocked

in freshly prepared 5% skim milk diluted in TBS before being immunoblotted with specific

primary antibodies (Supplementary Table 3). The membrane were further incubated with HRP-

labeled secondary antibodies and scanned using C300 digital chemiluminescent imager (Azure

Biosystems). The optical densities were measured using Image J software. The full-length gels

for the cropped blots shown in the main figures are presented in Supplementary Figure 5.

Whole cell patch clamp recording

Preparation of Brain Slices for Recording and Filling

Immediately after decapitation, mouse brains were rapidly removed and placed in oxygenated

(95% O_2 and 5% CO_2) ice-cold Ringer's solution containing following ingredients (in mM): 25

$NaHCO_3$, 124 NaCl, 1 KCl, 2 KH_2PO_4, 10 glucose, 2.5 $CaCl_2$, 1.3 $MgCl_2$ (pH 7.4; Sigma-

Aldrich). A total of four to five 300-μm thick acute coronal sections containing the hippocampus

were obtained from each subject. Over an 8-10 h period, slices were individually transferred

from the incubation chamber to submersion-type recording chambers (Harvard Apparatus,

Holliston, MA) affixed to the stages of Nikon E600 infrared-differential interference contrast

(IR-DIC) microscopes (Micro Video Instruments, Avon, MA) with a water-immersion lens (40×,

0.9 NA; Olympus) for recording. During recordings, slices were superfused in room-temperature

Ringer's solution bubbled with carbogen (95% O_2, 5% CO_2) a rate of 2.5 ml/min. Whole-cell

patch clamp recordings were obtained from the soma of visually identified CA1 pyramidal cells

in both the dorsal and ventral hippocampus of ipsilateral side of the brain. Electrodes were

created from borosilicate glass with a Flaming and Brown micropipette puller (Model P-87,

Sutter Instruments). These pulled patch pipettes were filled with potassium methanesulfonate

(KMS) based intracellular solution, with concentrations in mM as follows: (KCH_3SO_3 122,

$MgCl_2$ 2, EGTA 5, Na-HEPES 10, Na_2ATP 5)., and had a resistance of 5.5–6.5 MΩ in external

Ringer's solution.

Physiological Inclusion Criteria

Single AP properties (including threshold, amplitude, Action potential Half-Width (APHW), rise

and fall) were measured on the second evoked AP in a 200 ms current-clamp series that

preferentially evoked 3 or more action potentials after depolarizing step-current. We proceeded

to High Rn or Low Rn only if neurons were unable to elicit AP at 200 ms. AP half-width was

computed at half-max of AP amplitude, where the amplitude was measured from the threshold to

the absolute peak of the spike. All the quantification for AP properties was carried out in an

expanded timescale, and the linear measure tool we used in FitMaster analysis software (HEKA

Elektronik) to measure all single AP properties. An algorithm designed in Matlab was used to

automatically detect these parameters. In the few cases where it failed to do so, a manual

detection method was used. The final paradigm in the Current-clamp configuration was to inject

2 s hyperpolarizing and depolarizing steps (-100 to +120 pA with increments of 20 pA or -220

pA to +330 pA with increments of 50pA, 12.5kHz sampling frequency) in order to assess

repetitive AP firing. Those neurons which did not fire repetitively in depolarizing step were

discarded. Firing rates in response to current steps were analyzed fitting with a generalized linear

model, using the genotype, CA1 pyramidal cells types, rheobase, input resistance, injected

current level and their respective interactions as independent variables. Whole-cell voltage clamp

was used to measure AMPA receptor-mediated spontaneous excitatory currents (sEPSCs)

response for 2 min at a holding potential of -80 mV (6.67 kHz sampling frequency). The same

neuron was held at -40 mV (6.67 kHz sampling frequency) for 2 minutes in order to obtain

enough sample size to measure GABA receptor-mediated spontaneous inhibitory currents

(sIPSCs). All recorded traces were run through Minianalysis software (Synaptosoft) which

allowed for quantification of synaptic current properties such as frequency, amplitude, area, time

to rise and time to decay. To determine the kinetics of EPSCs and IPSCs, the rise and decay of

averaged traces were each fit to a single-exponential function. In all of the synaptic current

measurements, the event detection threshold was set at the maximum root mean squared noise

level (5 pA). All neurons had resting membrane potentials between -55 and -75 mV (somatic

recordings) and were confirmed to have intact somas and apical tufts.

Statistical Analyses

All data are presented as means ± standard error of the mean (s.e.m). Comparisons between two

groups were done by two-tailed paired or unpaired Student's *t*-tests. Multiple comparisons were

performed by either one- or two-way ANOVA, followed by Bonferroni's or Dunnett's *post hoc*.

Statistical analyses were performed using Prism 8.0 (GraphPad Software). A statistically

significant difference was assumed at p <0.05.

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Conflict of Interest:

The authors declare no conflict of interest in this manuscript

Figure legends

Figure 1. Characterization of EVs using dot blot with TEM, nanoparticle tracking analysis,

tau oligomer dot-blotting and atomic force microscopy

A. Schematic of EV separation from human frozen brain tissue.

B. TEM image of human brain-derived EVs.

C-E. Nanoparticles tracking analysis (NTA) of isolated EVs (C), quantification of EV density

(D) and EV size (E).

F-K. Semi-quantification of tau oligomers in EVs by multiple tau oligomer antibodies. Dot blot

images shown in Supplementary Fig. 1. $^*p < 0.05$, $^{**}p < 0.01$, as determined by one-way

ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m. Each dot

represent individual subject, 3 replicates per subject, 3 donors per group, .

L-M. Atomic force microscopy (AFM) images showing brain-derived EV-tau oligomers isolated

from CTRL, pAD, and AD brains (L). Size distribution histogram of EV-tau oligomers (M). $^*p$

< 0.05 and $^{****}p < 0.0001$ for pAD-EVs vs. CTRL-EVs; $^{\#\#}p < 0.01$, and $^{\#\#\#\#}p < 0.0001$ for AD-

EVs vs. CTRL-EVs as determined by one-way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*.

Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m. n=3 images per sample, 2 samples per group.

Figure 2. Neuronal uptake, tau transfer efficiency and tau seeding activities of human

brain-derived EVs

A. A diagram illustrating the primary culture model with primary neuronal or biosensor cells

employed to measure the transfer of the brain derived EVs containing Tau.

B. Cellular uptake of PKH26-labeled EVs (red) by primary culture murine cortical neurons (MAP-2, green; DAPI, blue). Original magnification: 20× (left and middle columns); 40× (right column, taken by Zeiss LSM710 confocal microscopy). Scale bars = 40, 20, 10 μm (left to right).

C. Quantification of PKH26 fluorescent intensity in MAP-2$^+$ neurons. $^{****}p < 0.0001$ compared with PBS or Dye only group; $^{##}p < 0.01$ compared with CTRL-EV group; *n.s* denotes no significance as determined by one-way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Each dot represents average data per cell in one image (10-20 cells per image), 30 images per group (for PBS and dye ony), 10 images per donor and three donors per group (for CTRL-EV, pAD-EV and AD-EVs), total N = 30 per group.

D. Total human tau ELISA of neuronal cell lysates. $^{*}p < 0.01$ compared with pAD-EV group; $^{##}p < 0.01$ compared with CTRL-EV group; as determined by one-way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Three donors per group, three independent experiments. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m.

E. EVs were tested in the Tau-FRET assay for Tau seeding activity. Results are plotted as Integrated FRET Density values for each sample. $^{###}p < 0.001$ compared with CTRL-EV group; as determined by one-way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Three donors per group, and each dot represents one well. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m. **B-E**: Three donors per group, and the data is representative of three independent experiments.

Figure 3. AD-EV and pAD-EV but not CTRL-EV injection causes progressive tauopathy in aged B6 mouse brains.

A. A scheme illustrating 300 pg of tau containing EVs from human brain unilaterally injected to the hippocampus of B6 mice at 18-19 months of age. DiI (red) indicated the injection site of

outer molecular layer of hippocampus.

B. Representative image of AT8 staining (red) 4.5 months after intrahippocampal injection of

AD-EV into aged B6 mouse brain. Scale bar = 200 μm (left), 50 μm (right).

C. Semiquantitative analysis of AD-like tau pathologies based on AT8 immunostaining of brains

from CTRL-EV, pAD-EV and AD-EV-injected mice at 4.5 months post injection.

D. Quantification of AT8 immunostained area in hippocampal region. $^*p < 0.05$ and $^{**}p < 0.01$

compared with CTRL-EV group; *n.s* denotes no significance as determined by one-way ANOVA

(alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Total mice in each group for the quantification are 4, 6,

12, 12, 11 for saline, Tau-KO, CTRL, pAD and AD. Two donors for EVs per group for CTRL,

pAD and AD (n = 5-6 mice per donor). At least two sections were imaged per mouse. Each dot

represents mean value from one animal. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m. **E.** Immunoblotting of

biochemically fractionated brain tissue samples for homogenate (Ho), TBS supernatant (S1), tau

oligomer enriched (S1p) and tau fibril enriched fractions (P3) by Tau-5 (total tau) and PHF1

(pSer396/pSer404 tau) (top panels) and their quantification (bottom panels). Equal proportions of

Ho, S1, Sp1 and P3 fractions were analyzed. Three pairs of mice were quantified. Optical density

(OD) was normalized to that for the homogenate fraction from each corresponding mouse. $^*p <$

0.05 and $^{**}p < 0.01$ compared with CTRL group as determined by one-way ANOVA (alpha =

0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 4. EV-tau but not oligomeric or fibril tau enriched samples derived from the same

AD brain induced tau propagation in mouse brain

A. Representative images of PHF1 immunoblotting of isolated EVs, tau oligos and tau fibrils by

PHF1 antibodies.

B. AFM images of EVs and tau aggregates isolated from the same AD brain tissues.

C. Representative images of AT8 immunostained recipient mice after unilateral injection of AD-

EVs (left), tau oligomer-enriched fraction (middle) and tau fibril-enriched fraction (right) in

cortical region (top panels) and dentate gyrus (bottom panels).

D. Quantification of AT8$^+$ neurons in the hippocampus of recipient mice. $^{****}p < 0.0001$

compared between EV-tau injected group and oligomeric or fibril tau group, as determined by

one-way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Turkey's post-hoc. EV-tau, oligomeric and fibril tau group:

n = 4-6 mice per group for quantification. At least two sections were imaged per animal. Each

dot represents mean value per animal. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 5. Co-localization of pathological tau staining with AT8 antibody in GABAergic

interneurons in the hippocampus of B6 mice

A. AT8 (red) and GAD67 (green) immunostaining in the ipsilateral dental gyrus of hippocampal

region from CTRL-EV, pAD-EV and AD-EV-injected mice at 4.5 months post injection.

B. AT8 (red) and GAD67 (green) immunostaining in the ipsilateral CA1 and CA3 of

hippocampal region from AD-EV-injected mice.

C-E. Quantification of GAD67$^+$ cells in DG (C), CA1 (D) and CA3 of hippocampus (E). The

percentage of AT8$^+$ GAD67$^+$ cells in all GAD67 positive cells are shown in the right column (C-

E). $^*p < 0.05$ and $^{**}p < 0.01$ compared with CTRL group, as determined by one-way ANOVA

(alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. n = 5-6 mice per group for quantification. At least two

sections were imaged per animal. Each dot represents mean value per animal. Graphs indicate

mean ± s.e.m.

F-G. Immunostaining of GluR2/3$^+$ mossy cells (F) and AT8 in the ipsilateral dental gyrus of

hippocampal region from AD-EV injected mice; and quantification of the ratio of GAD67$^+$AT8$^+$

cells / total AT8$^+$cells (blue) and GluR2/3$^+$ AT8$^+$ cells / AT8$^+$ cells (red). n = 6 mice per group

for quantification. At least two sections were imaged per animal. Each dot represents mean value

per animal. Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 6. Reduction in GAD67$^+$ puncta around CA1 pyramidal cells and c-fos expression in

GAD67$^+$ GABAergic neurons in pAD-EV or AD-EV-injected aged B6 mice

A. High-magnification images in top panels compared GAD67 expression (red) in CA1

pyramidal cells of hippocampus all four injected Tau-KO-, CTRL-, pAD- or AD-EV groups .

Second panel are lower-magnification images of GAD67 expression and DAPI staining. Third

panel was cell counted by Imaris software based on DAPI staining. Fourth panel was GAD67+

puncta analysis by Imaris. Scale bar: 10 μm.

B-C. Quantification of GAD67$^+$ puncta (B) and total cell number in CA1 of hippocampus (C). $^*p$

< 0.05 and $^{**}p < 0.01$ pAD compared with Tau-KO and CTRL-EV group, as determined by one-

way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. n = 4-6 mice per group for quantification.

At least two sections were imaged per animal. Each dot represents mean value per animal.

Graphs indicate mean ± s.e.m.

D-E. GAD67 (red) and c-fos (green) co-staining images (D) and quantification of the percentage

of c-fos$^+$ GAD67$^+$ cells in all GAD67 positive cells (E) in CA1 region. Scale bar: 10 μm. $^*p <$

0.05 and $^{**}p < 0.01$ pAD compared with Tau-KO and CTRL-EV group, as determined by one-

way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. n = 4 mice per group for quantification. At

least two sections were imaged per animal. Each dot represents mean value per animal. Graphs

indicate mean ± s.e.m.

F-G. GAD67 (red) and c-fos (green) co-staining images (F) and quantification of the percentage

of c-fos$^+$ GAD67$^+$ cells in all GAD67 positive cells (G) in DG region. Scale bar: 100 μm. $^*p <$

0.05 and $^{**}p < 0.01$ pAD compared with Tau-KO and CTRL-EV group, as determined by one-

way ANOVA (alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. n = 4 mice per group for quantification. At

least two sections were imaged per animal. Each dot represents mean value per animal. Graphs

indicate mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 7. whole-cell current clamp recording of CA1 pyramidal neurons

A. Confocal z stack montage (63× magnification) image of biocytin-filled mouse CA1 pyramidal

neurons after recording.

B-G: Action potential (AP)-firing recorded in whole-cell current clamp mode; **B**: Representative

traces for Tau KO (black color), pAD (blue color), and AD-EV (red color) for 100 pA step at 2 s

long High Rn protocol. **C**. Quantification of repetitive firing at High-Rn step current injection

protocol. $^{**}p<0.01$ vs. Tau KO-EV group as determined by RM-ANOVA; **D**: pAD-EV

significantly reduce the firing at 100 pA; **E**: Quantification of repetitive firing at Low-Rn step

current injection protocol. $^*p<0.05$ vs. Tau KO-EV group as determined by RM-ANOVA; **F**:

pAD-EV significantly reduced the firing rate at and + 130 pA of step current; **G**. AD-EV

significantly reduced AP amplitude. **C-G**: n = 30, 50, and 57 cells for Tau KO, pAD and AD-

injected mice, 5-7 mice per group. Each dot represents one recorded cell. Graphs indicate mean ±

s.e.m.

H-I: Quantification of GABAergic spontaneous inhibitory postsynaptic currents (sIPSCs)

recorded in neuronal network. pAD showed significant decrease in sIPSC amplitude (H) and E-I

amplitude ratio (I). $^*p < 0.05$ compared with CTRL group, as determined by one-way ANOVA

(alpha = 0.05) and Dunnett's *post-hoc*. H-I: n = 18, 23, and 28 cells for Tau KO, pAD and AD-

injected mice, 5-7 mice per group. Each dot represents one recorded cell. Graphs indicate mean ±

s.e.m. See also Supplementary Tables S4-S7.

Supplementary Figure S1. Dot blot of Tau KO and human brain-derived EV samples by

tau oligomer-specific antibodies.

Supplementary Figure S2. AT8 staining of young and aged mice after injected of human

brain-derived EVs. Young (2 months old) or Aged (18 months old) mice were stereotaxically

injected with human brain-derived EVs (CTRL, pAD or AD) containing 300 pg tau in 1 μL

volume into the outer molecular layer of dentate gyrus, and sacrificed 4.5 months after the

injection for the neuropathological examination using AT8 (pSer202/pSer205 tau) monoclonal

(red) and counterstained with Dapi (blue). Coronal sections depicting the ipsilateral hippocampal

region (left) and hilus region (right). Sale bars: 200 μm (left) and 50 μm (right)

Supplementary Figure S3. Tau pathology staining with Alz50, MC1, CP13, PS422 and

PHF1 antibodies. Representative images of AT8 (pSer202/pSer205 tau, A), Alz50

(conformation-specific misfolded tau, B), MC1 (conformation-specific misfolded tau, C), CP13

(pSer202 tau, D), PS422 (pSer422 tau, E) and PHF1 staining (pSer396/pSer404 tau, F) (red) and

Dapi (blue) 4.5 months after intrahippocampal injection of saline, Tau KO-EV, CTRL-EV, and

pAD-EV or AD-EV (1 µL volume containing 300 pg tau) into aged B6 mouse brain. Scale bar =

200 (left) and 100µm (right).

Supplementary Figure S4. Tau accumulation in the injection site of cortex 4.5 months post

intracranial injection. Aged mice (18 months of age) were intracranially injected with AD-EV

(left), tau oligomer-enriched fraction (middle) or tau fibril-enriched fraction (right) containing

300 pg tau in 1 µL volume. The animals were sacrificed and tested for neuropathology using

AT8 (red) and counterstained by Dapi (blue) for nuclear staining. Perikaryal accumulation of p-

tau in AD-EV-injected cortical region (left) and neuropil staining in tau oligomer (middle) or

fibril-injected cortical region (right). Scale bar: 50 µm.

Supplementary Figure S5. AT8^{+} cell were co-stained with parvalbumin[+] inhibitory but not

neurogranin^{+} excitatory neurons in the hippocampal region after AD-EV injection.

A. AT8 (pSer202/pSer205 tau, red) and parvalbumin (inhibitory neuronal marker, green)

immunostaining in the ipsilateral CA1, CA3 and DG regions of hippocampus from AD-EV-

injected mice at 4.5 months post injection. Nuclei were conterstained by Dapi (blue). Scale bar:

50 µm.

B. AT8 (red) and neurogranin (excitatory neuronal marker, green) immunostaining of the same

brains. Nuclei were conterstained by Dapi (blue). Scale bar: 50 µm.

Supplementary Table S1. Demographics of human cases used in the study

Supplementary Table S2. Biochemical characterization of EV-enriched fractions derived from human brain

Supplementary Table S3. List of antibodies used in the study

Supplementary Table S4-S8. Electrophysiological properties of CA1 pyramidal cells in brain-derived EV-injected mouse brain

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Figure 1. Characterization of EVs using dot blot with multiple Tau oligomer antibodies, and Atomic force microscopy

Figure 2. EV-tau derived from AD brain was taken up by cultured neurons more efficiently

Figure 3. AD and pAD brain derived exosome but not CTRL injection causes progressive tauopathy in C57BL/6 mice AT8 staining

Figure 4. Limit amount of EV-tau not oligomeric or fibril tau derived from AD brain induced tau propagation in mouse brain

Figure 5. Co-localization of pathological tau staining with AT8 antibody in GABAergic interneurons in the hippocampus of C57BL/6 mice

Figure 6.   AD-EV and pAD-EV inoculation reduced GABAergic input and neuronal activity in CA1 pyramidal cells.

Figure 7. Mouse CA1 pyramidal neurons exhibit clear cellular morphology after biocytin filling which was patched clamp by using patch pipette.

Supplemental Figure S1. Dot blot of EVs sample with multiple tau oligomer antibodies

Supplemental Figure S2. AT8 staining showed Tau pathology of young mice and aged mice were injected of EVs derived from human brain

Supplemental Figure S3. Tau pathology staining with Alz50, MC1, CP13, PS422 and PHF1 antibodies

Supplemental Figure S4. Lateral spread of p-Tau in the injection site of cortex

Supplemental Figure S5. AT8⁺ cell were co-stained with parvalbumin but not neurogranin