Tau, amyloid-beta and alpha-synuclein co-pathologies synergistically enhance

neuroinflammation and neuropathology

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Abstract

Alzheimer's and Parkinson disease pathology often co-occur, with amyloid-β and phosphorylated tau, found in 30-50% of idiopathic Parkinson disease cases. α -synuclein inclusions, a hallmark of Parkinson disease, are present in 50% of Alzheimer's cases and the co-expression of these pathologies is linked to faster cognitive decline and earlier death. Immune activation is a hallmark of both diseases, but current model systems primarily examine each pathology in isolation. As such, how these co-pathologies interact to drive inflammation and neuronal loss remain poorly understood. To address this, we developed a co-pathology mouse model combining tau, amyloid-β, and α-synuclein. Here, we show that co-pathologies synergistically trigger a distinct and amplified neuroimmune response, marked by robust expansion of $CD4^+$ and $CD8^+$ tissue-resident memory T cells and increased $CD68^+$ microglia, a population of activated, phagocytosing microglia, compared to single pathology brains. These changes were abundant in the hippocampus and cortex, regions showing elevated amyloid-β protein pathology load and enhanced neuronal loss with co-pathology expression. Our findings demonstrate that co-pathologies act synergistically to enhance immune activation prior to neurodegeneration. This model provides a platform for assessing mixed-pathology mechanisms and identifies key immune cell populations that may drive disease acceleration across Alzheimer's, Parkinson disease and their related dementias.

Introduction

In addition to the progressive loss of neurons and brain atrophy, neurodegenerative diseases share the common feature of pathogenic protein accumulation and worsening cognitive decline. These proteins include α-synuclein (α-syn) inclusions found in Lewy bodies and Lewy neurites in Parkinson disease (PD) and Parkinson disease dementia (PDD), extracellular amyloid-β (Aβ) plaques and phosphorylated-tau (tau) tangles in the form of intracellular neurofibrillary tangles in Alzheimer's disease (AD) [1-3]. Although these proteins are pathologically associated with their respective diseases, there is evidence for the overlap of pathology and symptoms. The presence of these AD-related pathologies, found in 50-80% of PD brains [4-11], has been a significant contributor to exacerbated disease progression and dementia onset in patients with PD [9,12]. Similarly, Lewy bodies have been found in the brains of AD patients [13,14] and more recently, a-syn co-pathology has been shown to promote amyloid-driven tau accumulation in AD brains [15]. The co-expression of these pathologies has been linked to worsened cognitive decline and higher rate of mortality [16-19]. This exacerbated disease phenotype under co-pathology conditions suggests potential synergy between α-syn, tau and Aβ, however the disease-progressing mechanisms of this co-expression remain unknown.

Previously, co-pathology mouse models have also implicated potential interactions between pathologies. In dementia with Lewy body (DLB)-AD and PD-AD mouse models, combined tau, Aβ and α-syn pathologies enhanced aggregation and spreading of pathology beyond single pathology effects [20-22]. Neurodegeneration, however, was only shown to be influenced by Aβ and α-syn co-pathology in 5XFAD mice injected with α-syn mouse pre-formed fibrils (PFFs) [20]. Additionally, neuroinflammation in the presence of the co-pathologies was not fully assessed in these animal models. As such, it remains unknown how these co-pathologies may promote the

immune cell activation leading to the neurodegeneration and sustained aggregated protein

pathology seen in human disease.

Neuroinflammation, driven by microglia and CNS-resident macrophages, infiltrating

lymphocytes, and monocytes, is a key contributor to neuronal loss and neurodegenerative disease

progression. CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$ T cells are found in the brains and cerebrospinal fluid [23] of AD [24-27],

PD [28-30], and DLB patients along with activation of myeloid cells, including microglia,

macrophages and monocytes. In AD, Aβ plaques trigger and can interact with microglia to adopt

a phagocytic but dysfunctional disease-associated microglia phenotype[31,32] while Aβ-specific T

cells infiltrate the brain and exacerbate tau pathology and neurodegeneration[33]. Tau pathology also

triggers a pro-inflammatory phenotype in microglia through receptor binding[34] and promotes CNS-

specific changes in T cell reactivity[35]. In PD, α-syn interacts with toll-like receptors (TLRs) on

microglia to promote release of inflammatory cytokines[36], while T cells target α-syn epitopes in

the substantia nigra pars compacta (SNpc) [37,38]. While these cells aid in immune surveillance

during homeostatic conditions, in chronic disease, microglia and T cells may adopt pro-

inflammatory phenotypes and contribute to neurotoxicity and exacerbated neuronal damage[39-43].

How combined tau, Aβ and α-syn pathologies synergistically amplify immune activation remains

unclear.

To further understand how co-pathologies drive neurodegeneration, we aimed to determine

whether the combined presence of tau, Aβ and α-syn promotes neuroinflammation, protein

aggregation and neuronal loss through synergistic effects. To do this, we developed a co-pathology

mouse model, generated by injection of adeno-associated virus (AAV)-double mutant tau into the

entorhinal cortex and α-syn mouse PFFs into the striatum of J20 amyloid over-expressing

transgenic mice[44]. This model allowed us to evaluate the impact of multiple pathological proteins

on innate and adaptive immune responses as well as neurodegeneration within vulnerable regions,

including the hippocampus. We found that the presence of co-pathologies not only promotes

pathology deposition compared to single pathology models, but also triggered synergistic

neuroinflammatory responses and enhanced neuronal loss in the hippocampus. These findings

support human data[45] and model tau, Aβ and α-syn synergize to accelerate key immunopathogenic

processes that may contribute to neurodegenerative disease progression.

Results

Co-pathologies enhance Aβ plaques and α-syn inclusions

The co-expression of tau, Aβ and α-syn has been reported in the limbic and cortical regions,

particularly in the hippocampus and neocortex in human postmortem studies from DLB, AD and

PDD brains[46-48]. To model this *in vivo* in mice, we generated a co-pathology model incorporating

tau, Aβ and α-syn and compared data obtained in the co-pathology model with mice only

expressing a single pathology. As a tau single pathology control, tau pathology was induced in

non-transgenic (NTG), C57BL/6J mice via bilateral entorhinal cortex injection of an AAV

expressing human tau with two mutations (AAV9-Tau) (Figure 1a). To model Aβ single

pathology, J20 transgenic (Tg) mice[44], which overexpress human mutant amyloid precursor

protein (APP^{mut}) and develop Aβ plaques in the hippocampus and cortex (Figure 1b), were aged

to 6 months old. Lastly, for α-syn single pathology control, 12–14-week-old NTG mice received

bilateral injections of mouse α-syn PFFs into the dorsal lateral striatum (Figure 1c). To create a

model of co-pathology, age-matched J20 mice were bilaterally injected with both α-syn PFFs into

the basal lateral striatum and AAV9-Tau into the entorhinal cortex during one stereotaxic surgery

session, combining tau, Aβ and α-syn pathologies in one model (Figure 1d) resulting in co-

pathologies in the hippocampus and cortex.

Co-pathologies exhibit synergistic interactions that promote the aggregation and accumulation of

disease-associated protein[10,15,49,50]. To determine whether the presence of co-pathology enhances

α-syn, tau and Aβ individually, single pathology controls and co-pathology brains were assessed

for histological and biochemical markers of protein pathology at 3 months post-induction (mpi)

using immunohistochemistry (IHC), western blotting, and enzyme linked immunosorbent assay

(ELISA) (Figure 2a). AT-8^{+} neurons were immunolabeled in the cortex and hippocampus of 6-

month-old (3mpi) Tau single pathology and co-pathology mice (Figure 2b). Total tau protein

expression was assessed using western blot, showing no major changes in total tau expression

between co-pathology mice and Tau single pathology controls (Figure 2c). A decrease in soluble

tau in the cortex of co-pathology mice (Figure 2d) was observed. Using an antibody specific to Aβ

aggregation, Aβ[+] plaques were also observed in the cortex and hippocampus (Figure 2e), with

increased deposition of Triton X-100 insoluble $Aβ_{1-42}$ load in the hippocampus of co-pathology

mice, as assessed by ELISA (Figure 2f). pSer129[+] α-syn inclusions were also visible within the

neurites and cell bodies in the cortex and hippocampus of α-syn single pathology and co-pathology

mice (Figure 2g). Western blot analysis showed increase in soluble total α-syn levels in the cortex

of co-pathology brains compared to α-syn single pathology controls (Figure 2h,i). Uncropped

Western blots are shown within Extended Data Figure 1. These results indicate enhanced

hippocampal and cortical insoluble Aβ and soluble α-syn pathology load in a co-pathology

environment beginning at 3mpi.

Neuronal loss is driven by the co-expression of tau, Aβ and α-syn pathologies

Neurodegeneration, including changes in synaptic density and the subsequent death of neurons, occurs prior to severe onset of symptoms associated with neurodegenerative diseases. Such symptoms include cognitive and motor impairments [51-54]. Given the involvement of tau, Aβ and α-syn in neurodegenerative diseases strongly associated with cognitive impairment, we performed open field, Barnes maze, rotarod and pole behavioral tests to assess for cognitive and motor deficits in the model at 6mpi (Extended Data Figure 2). Sham mice, NTG animals bilaterally injected with α-syn monomer and AAV9-GFP into the striatum and entorhinal cortex, respectively, were used as a surgical control for co-pathology mice. Behavioral changes were observed with co-pathology mice making significantly more errors and reduced time to commit errors compared to sham mice, but no significant difference was observed when compared to single pathology controls (Extended Data Figure 2). Co-pathology mice showed increased turnaround and total time on the pole test compared to Sham mice (Extended Data Figure 2b). The open field test only showed increased distance traveled by the co-pathology mice compared to sham (Extended Data Figure 2c). However, overall co-pathology mice showed no differences in movement as shown by the rotarod test (Extended Data Figure 2d). In summary, co-pathologies did not produce any synergistic effects on motor or cognitive function in mice. This may be due to the intrinsic neural hyperexcitability of the J20 mouse model, which is known to drive a hyperactive behavioral phenotype[55,56].

Dendritic spine morphology is an indicator of synaptic integrity and plasticity, both of which are disrupted in neurodegenerative diseases associated with cognitive decline[57-59]. To test the hypothesis that tau, Aβ and α-syn co-pathologies synergize to exacerbate synaptic dysfunction, we performed a detailed morphometric analysis of dendritic spines on Lucifer yellow labelled CA1 pyramidal neurons in the hippocampus across single and co-pathology brains. Our analysis

revealed that while the number of total spines remained unchanged across groups, co-pathologies

resulted in significantly shorter total spine length in the hippocampus compared to α-syn alone

(Extended Data Figure 3a). Additionally, the length of thin spines on apical dendrites was

decreased in the hippocampus of co-pathology mice, suggesting increased structural instability

that could impair synaptic function (Extended Data Figure 3b). Finally, spine volume on basal

dendrites was reduced in the hippocampus of co-pathology mice relative to brains with only Aβ or

α-syn pathology, which could indicate diminished postsynaptic density (Extended Data Figure 3c).

Collectively, these findings point to synergistic interactions of co-pathologies that drive distinct

changes in synaptic morphology, which may represent a mechanism that promotes neuronal loss

in this brain region.

Neuronal loss is a hallmark feature observed in both AD and PD, with region-specific vulnerability

depending on disease pathology[60-63]. Previous work, however, has only assessed neuronal loss in

the context of α-syn and Aβ as co-pathologies[21]. Given this and our synaptic morphology findings,

we next hypothesized that co-expression of tau, Aβ and α-syn may enhance neuronal loss in the

hippocampus. To assess neurodegeneration, we performed unbiased stereology on co-pathology

and single pathology controls at 6mpi (Figure 3a). We found enhanced loss (20-30%, p<0.001) of

NeuN^{+} neurons in the CA1 region of the hippocampus in the co-pathology mice compared to tau,

Aβ or α-syn single pathology mice (Figure 3b,c). Within the CA3, co-pathology mice showed

significant loss (20-25%, p<0.01) compared to single tau and α-syn controls only (Figure 3d).

Along with cognitive decline, patients with neurodegenerative disease also exhibit significant

motor deficits, mostly due to the loss of neurons in motor-related cortical regions or dopaminergic

neurons in the SNpc[51,64]. In the SNpc at 6mpi, the loss of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive

neurons significantly enhanced in the co-pathology model compared to that in the Aβ single-

pathology animals. However, in comparison to tau and α-syn mice, the co-pathologies did not

enhance TH+ cell loss (Extended Data Figure 4c,d). Taken together, these results highlight a

synergistic interaction between tau, Aβ and α-syn co-pathologies that exacerbates

neurodegeneration in the hippocampus, a brain region associated with enhanced accumulation and

expression of protein co-pathology in human, resulting in cognitive deficits.

Co-pathologies enhance microglial activation and infiltration of peripheral monocytes

Given that tau, Aβ and α-syn pathologies are individually associated with microglia activation and

infiltration of peripheral myeloid cells in *in vivo* models [65-67] and in human disease[68], we aimed to

determine the role of co-pathologies in enhancing innate immune responses in the CNS. Co-

pathology and single pathology models were induced as previously stated using 12–14-week-old

J20 Tg or NTG littermates (Figure 1). At 3mpi, hippocampal and cortical regions were dissected

from co-pathology and single pathology controls for IHC analysis, mononuclear cell isolation and

flow cytometry (Figure 4a). Using fluorescent IHC we immunolabeled Iba1, a marker used to

visualize morphology of both homeostatic and activated microglia, in single pathology and co-

pathology brains. Compared to tau, Aβ and α-syn single pathology brains, an increased number of

"activated" Iba1$^+$ cells were observed in the hippocampus of co-pathology mice (Figure 4b). Using

flow cytometry, CD11b$^+$CD45$^+$ double positive myeloid cells were gated to analyze CNS resident

microglia (CD45^{lo}CX3CR1$^+$) and CD45^{hi} CNS macrophage populations (includes infiltrating

monocytes and other CNS resident macrophages) (Extended Data Figure 5a; Figure 4c). In the

hippocampus and cortex, the number of microglia and CD45^{hi} macrophages increased with co-

pathologies (Figure 4d,e). Within this CD45^{hi} population, Ly6C^{hi} infiltrating monocytes and CNS

resident macrophages were also increased in the hippocampus of co-pathology brains compared

to tau, Aβ and α-syn single pathology brains (Extended Data Figure 5d,e).

Given that microglia exhibit heterogeneity in health and disease based on their activation state, we

next profiled markers of proliferation and activation to define the specific phenotypes associated

with co-pathologies in the hippocampus and cortex. For this, we used CD68, a marker of

phagocytic activity and MHCII, a key mediator of antigen presentation to distinguish activated,

antigen presenting and/or phagocytic microglia. In co-pathology brains, the overall number of

MHCII$^+$CD68$^+$ microglia decreased compared to single pathologies (Extended Data Figure 5f,g).

Conversely, MHCII$^-$CD68$^+$ microglia were significantly increased in the hippocampus and cortex

of co-pathology mice compared to single pathology brains (Extended Data Figure 5f,g), indicating

a shift towards a phagocytic response. To confirm whether these phagocytic microglia are driving

the pro-inflammatory response due to co-pathologies, we assessed proliferation (Ki67 expression)

and pro-inflammatory phenotype (TLR2 expression) on MHCII$^+$CD68$^+$ (inflammatory

phagocytes) and MHCII-CD68+ (pure phagocytes) populations for functional analysis (Figure 4f).

MHCII$^+$CD68$^+$ microglia showed decreased expression of Ki67 and TLR2 (Figure 4g,h), which

could imply reduced antigen presentation in co-pathology brains. On the other hand, MHCII$^-$

CD68$^+$ microglia showed robust proliferation and TLR2$^+$ expression in the hippocampus and

cortex of co-pathology brains compared to single pathology controls (Figure 4i,j). Overall, these

results indicate that at 3mpi, tau, Aβ and α-syn co-pathologies synergistically promote

morphological and proliferative changes in microglia, translating to a more activated, phagocytic

state, likely to prioritize clearing the increased protein pathology load seen in co-pathology brains.

Co-pathologies promote T cell invasion and resident memory phenotype

Given the enhanced myeloid cell responses with co-pathologies[68] and the contribution of

peripheral CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells to neurodegeneration *in vivo* [28,69] and in human disease[70-72], we

aimed to determine if T cell responses were synergistically enhanced by co-pathologies. Following

co-pathology induction, brains were sectioned for IHC or dissected for single-cell isolation at 3mpi

(Figure 5a). The presence of co-pathologies enhanced infiltration of CD3^{+} T cells into the

hippocampus compared to tau, Aβ and α-syn single pathology brains (Extended Data Figure 6a,

Figure 5b). Utilizing mononuclear cell isolation and spectral flow cytometry, our results revealed

that there were significantly more CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} T cells in the hippocampus and cortex of co-

pathology brains compared tau, Aβ and α-syn single pathology mice (Figure 5c-e). This data

demonstrates that the presence of co-pathologies enhances the presence of both helper (CD4^{+}) and

cytotoxic (CD8^{+}) T cells into the brain. These data suggest that adaptive immune mechanisms

observed prior to neurodegeneration may be important or significantly contribute to enhanced

hippocampal neurodegeneration observed with co-pathology.

Tissue resident memory (Trm) T cells have been observed in human post mortem tissue in

neurodegenerative diseases such as AD and PD[42,73,74], where they accumulate in the brain and

contribute to chronic inflammation and neuronal loss[42,72]. Using cell surface markers expressed by

Trm T cells (CD69^{+} and CD103^{+}) and CD44^{+} (effector, activated T cells that are antigen

experienced), we examined both CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} Trm in the hippocampus and cortex of co-

pathology mice compared to single pathology mice at 3mpi. In both brain regions, co-pathologies

promoted a significant expansion of both CD4^{+} and CD8^{+} Trm (CD62L^{-}CD44^{+}CD69^{+}CD103^{+})

relative to all single pathologies (Extended Data Figure 6b,c). CD44^{+}CD4^{+} T cells and

CD4^{+}CD69^{+} Trm (Figure 5f-h) increased by 10+ fold in co-pathology brains relative to single

pathology controls. CD44$^+$CD8$^+$ T cells and CD8$^+$CD69$^+$CD103$^+$ Trm were increased over 100-

fold in co-pathology brains compared to single pathologies (Figure 5i-k). Our findings illustrate a

synergistic expansion of Trm T cells, in CD4 T cells but more robust in CD8 T cells, indicating

that tau, Aβ and α-syn co-pathologies promote the long-term expansion and survival of antigen-

experienced T cells within the brain prior to overt neurodegeneration.

254   Discussion

Tau, Aβ and α-syn as co-pathologies are pathological hallmarks of neurodegenerative

diseases associated with cognitive decline, however, how these protein pathologies synergize to

enhance neurodegeneration remains unknown. Using a novel mouse model of co-pathology

incorporating tau, Aβ and α-syn co-pathologies, our results demonstrate synergistic activation of

innate and adaptive immune responses in areas with co-expression of these accumulated proteins.

At 3mpi, Aβ pathology and soluble alpha-synuclein load was increased compared to the single

pathology controls along with a robust neuroinflammatory response, including increased

microglial cell number and changes in activation state, infiltration of T cells and enhanced Trm

signature in the cortex and hippocampus. The synergistic, not merely additive, effect of co-

pathologies creates a pro-inflammatory CNS environment that, in turn, enhances or accelerates

disease pathogenesis. Building on our previous work demonstrating that blocking

neuroinflammation can prevent neuronal loss in models of neurodegeneration[75,76], we propose that

this is largely mediated through exacerbated innate and adaptive immune responses, positioning

neuroinflammation as an important link between protein aggregation and neuronal loss, and a

prime target for combination therapy.

Previous studies have established that co-pathologies in mouse models can interact to

exacerbate disease phenotypes. DLB-AD mice (3xTg AD mice crossed with α-syn A53T mice)

yielded the first triple pathogenic model with worsened cognitive decline, however, there were no

changes in microglial reactivity[22]. Combining AD-derived tau with α-syn PFFs further enhanced

tau pathology and its spread relative to single pathology controls[20]. Similarly, to dissect the

interaction between α-syn and Aβ, 5xFAD mice were stereotaxically injected with mouse α-syn

PFFs to develop a 'PD-AD' mouse, that exhibited enhanced hippocampal neuronal loss, as the

only 'co-pathology' mouse model to assess neurodegeneration[21]. Lastly, crossing APP/PS1 mice

with mutant P301L tau mice has shown increased formation of Aβ plaques and tau tangles[77]. The

mechanism underlying this has been linked to Aβ plaques activating kinases, which leads to

mislocalization of tau, and subsequent hyperphosphorylation [77,78]. Results from these studies

demonstrate that the presence of additional pathologies promote each other's aggregation and

accelerate cognitive decline in mice and as such, complements the work done in human

postmortem studies showing co-pathology expression correlated to aging, neuroinflammation and

neurodegeneration[45,79]. However, likely due to the design of these models, a critical question

remained unanswered: whether and how tau, Aβ and α-syn synergize together as co-pathologies

to trigger maladaptive immune responses that directly influences enhanced neurodegeneration.

Within, we created a novel co-pathology mouse model to answer this question and

determine the effect of co-pathologies on pathological protein deposition, neuroinflammation, and

neurodegeneration. To model this pathological overlap seen in neurodegenerative disease, we

combined the AAV9-double mutant Tau (tau) and α-syn mouse PFFs (α-syn) in the same J20

APP^{mut} mouse (Aβ). The J20 model provides moderate, localized Aβ pathology beginning at

approximately 4 months old [44], while AAV-driven tau propagates from the entorhinal cortex to the

hippocampus and cortex to model early tau spread. As endogenous mouse tau does not aggregate

or form neurofibrillary tangle-like inclusions [80-82], it was important to induce the pathology in a

region like the entorhinal cortex, where localization allows for the propagation and subsequent

expression of intracellular phosphorylated tau within the hippocampus and neighboring cortices.

α-syn mouse PFFs induce Lewy-like inclusions with intracellular aggregation and spreading

throughout the limbic and cortical regions. While AAVs that overexpress α-syn in transduced

regions have been used to model PD[83-86], these overexpression vectors typically lack the disease-

like spreading pathology and only recapitulate the molecular pathology of SNCA gene

duplication/triplication carriers [87,88]. While this model does not fully recapitulate the spatial

distribution and temporal onset of pathology seen in human disease, it was designed to induce tau,

Aβ and α-syn pathology with their classically affected brain regions. Like most protein

overexpression and seeding models, it carries limitations, including the non-physiological levels

and a lack of gradual disease progression. While postmortem tissues offer a snapshot in time of

disease-driving pathology, modeling *in vivo* is needed to study interactions. Despite these caveats,

this model of co-pathology offers a useful tool to investigate how these pathologies synergize to

drive neurodegeneration and neuropathology.

Longitudinal and post-mortem studies from PD and AD cohorts show earlier onset of

cognitive decline and higher mortality rates with the presence of co-pathologies [89,90]. Based on

this, pure pathology is not common and may not be associated with the cognitive impairment onset

in these neurodegenerative diseases [45,91,92]. Here, we show that the presence of co-pathology

results in enhanced neuronal loss, specifically in the CA1 and CA3, regions of the hippocampus

compared to single pathology controls, correlating with region of enhanced pathology load in our

model. At the synaptic level, co-pathology mice showed reduced spine length and volume in CA1

pyramidal neurons, suggesting early structural remodeling that may precede or contribute to

neuronal loss. This suggests a link between synaptic dysfunction and functional deficits. In the

SNpc, however, dopaminergic neuronal loss was prominent in the co-pathology model brains

compared to the Aβ only brains, with no changes between tau or α-syn animals. This is likely due

to the localization and abundance of the co-expression of these proteins in the hippocampus,

suggesting a region-specific interaction of pathology burden. These results highlight the need for

further mechanistic studies into the additive or synergistic roles of these pathologies on

neurodegeneration across multiple regions.

Microglial activation and the infiltration of T cells have been documented in response to

tau, Aβ, and α-syn individually in AD and PD [93-97]. However, studies implicating the role of

inflammation in driving neurodegeneration in a co-pathology model are lacking. Using this novel

co-pathology model, we show that the co-expression of these pathologies induces robust changes

in microglia, and enhanced infiltration of monocytes and T cells from the periphery. Compared to

single pathologies, the presence of co-pathologies resulted in increased microglial cell count and

phenotype in the hippocampus and cortex. These changes were not limited to microglia, as we

observed subtle changes in the infiltrating monocyte and macrophage count in areas with co-

pathology burden. Our findings are consistent with recent work in human postmortem tissue that

compared microglia reactivity between mixed pathology (DLB+AD) brains and pure pathology

brains, showing higher levels of CD68^{+}, reactive microglia in the hippocampus with mixed

pathology [45]. In our model, CD68^{+} microglia were synergistically enhanced by the presence of co-

pathology and showed heightened proliferation and TLR2 expression, while MHCII^{+} microglia

decreased in number without major changes in expression of Ki67 or TLR2. Together, these

findings suggest that the presence of co-pathologies shifts the microglial response towards a more

proliferative, phagocytic phenotype, rather than a classic antigen-presenting role. Mechanistically,

high loads of aggregated proteins may overwhelm phagocytic pathways within microglia,

diverting resources toward bulk debris clearance and away from peptide processing required for

MHCII-mediated T cell interactions.

We also demonstrate enhanced T cell responses compared to single pathologies in the

hippocampus and cortex and synergistic expansion to Trm, marked by the expression of CD69 and

CD103, which are key markers for tissue retention and local immune surveillance[98,99]. Trm have

been shown to exacerbate disease through pro-inflammatory cytokine release and cytolytic

functions, which may modulate the response and activation phenotypes of local microglia [23,100].

The accumulation of Trm in co-pathology brain implies their prolonged, antigen-responsive

retention. Future studies should investigate whether co-pathologies increase the expression of

CXCR6 ligands (CCL19 or CCL21) by microglia or other CNS cells, as this would provide a

mechanistic basis for chemokine-mediated retention of Trm populations. Alternatively, there may

be compensatory antigen presentation by other CNS cells, like border-associated macrophages,

have been shown promote T cell infiltration more effectively than microglia in a neurodegenerative

disease model[101]. These findings suggest that chronic Trm-driven inflammation may represent a

converging mechanism of neurodegeneration regardless of the initiating proteinopathy. As such,

therapeutic strategies that focus solely on clearing a single protein species are likely insufficient.

Instead, combinatorial approaches that simultaneously address pathological protein accumulation

or modulate the immune response, particularly via Trm depletion or functional modulation of these

cells, may prove to be an effective strategy in altering disease course.

Altogether, this co-pathology model highlights a synergistic paradigm of overlapping

proteinopathies   and   an   enhanced   CNS-driven   immune   response   co-existing   to   drive

neurodegeneration. This mirrors outcomes observed in human PD and AD patients, where both

innate and adaptive responses are closely linked to disease burden. This pro-inflammatory

environment may also promote microglia phagocytic activity and expansion of CD4$^+$ and CD8$^+$

Trm T cells. By demonstrating that neurodegeneration and increased protein load are co-observed

with synergistic immune activation and expansion of Trm T cells, this model provides a platform

to study how co-pathologies shape neuroinflammatory processes in neurodegenerative disease.

These findings support the need for therapeutic strategies that address both the protein and immune

landscapes of neurodegeneration.

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753   **Figures**

Figure 1. Strategy for creating co-pathology mouse model. At 12-14 weeks old, non-transgenic

(NTG) wild-type or J20 APP mutant (APP^mut) transgenic (Tg) age-matched males and females are

used to induce either single pathology controls or the co-pathology model in vivo. (a) For τau

single pathology controls, NTG mice received injections of 2μL of 3.2E12 vg/mL AAV9-Tau into

the entorhinal cortex. This viral overexpression of mutant tau results in the accumulation of

phosphorylated tau (p-tau) in the cell body via retrograde transport. (b) For Aβ pathology, J20 Tg

mice expressing human APP with Swedish and Indiana mutations under the PGDF-β promoter

were used. These mice develop Aβ plaques due to overproduction and deposition of Aβ. (c) For

α-syn pathology in the PFF single pathology control, NTG mice were injected with 2μL of 5μg α-

syn PFFs into the striatum. Fibrils deposited into the brain will interact with endogenous α-syn

within the neurons to form neuritic and somal aggregates. (d) For the co-pathology model, J20 Tg

766   mice received both AAV9-Tau and α-syn PFFs into the entorhinal cortex and striatum,

767   respectively, to simultaneously induce the expression of Aβ, tau and α-syn the brain.

Figure 2. The presence of co-pathology enhances Aβ and α-syn pathology load in hippocampus and cortex. (a) 12–14-week-old animals were induced with either single pathologies or co-pathologies. At 3mpi, mice were sacrificed and brains processed for IHC or biochemical analysis of protein levels. (b) AT-8/pTau-positive neurons (DAB+, brown) in the hippocampus and cortex of tau single pathology and co-pathology brains. (c) Representative immunoblot of total tau and GAPDH. Blots are cropped from original images found in Extended Data figures. (d) Quantification of tau protein levels normalized to GAPDH levels in TX-soluble and TX-insoluble hippocampus and cortical samples from Tau single pathology and co-pathology mice. (e) Aβ-positive plaques (DAB+, brown) expressed within the hippocampus and cortex of J20 single pathology (Aβ) and co-pathology brains. (f) ELISA was used to quantify Aβ1-42 levels in the brains of J20 single pathology and co-pathology mice. Triton-X100 soluble and insoluble fractions of hippocampal and cortical tissue were used. (g) pSer129-positive inclusions in the hippocampus and cortex of PFF only (α-syn) and co-pathology brains. (h) Representative immunoblot of total α-syn and GAPDH. Blots are cropped from original images found in Extended Data figures. (i) Quantification of synuclein protein levels normalized to GAPDH levels in TX-soluble and TX-insoluble hippocampus and cortical samples from PFF single pathology and co-pathology mice. All images taken at 10X or 20X for zooms, scale bars = 100μm. Analyzed using Welch's t-test. *p<0.05, **p<0.01. n=6 animals per group, both males and females used.

HIPPOCAMPUS, NeuN

Figure 3. Co-pathologies drive neurodegeneration in the hippocampus at 6mpi. (a) At 3mpi

single pathology and co-pathology brains were processed for DAB IHC and unbiased stereology.

(b) Representative brightfield images of NeuN+ neurons (DAB+, brown) in the hippocampus of

Tau, J20 and PFF single pathology and co-pathology brain. Unbiased stereology was used to

quantify the number of NeuN+ neurons in the (c) CA1 and (d) CA3 regions of the hippocampus

in the co-pathology mouse model compared to Tau, J20 and PFF single pathology brains. (All

images taken at 20X. Scale bars = 300μm and 100μm for zooms. One-way ANOVA with post hoc

test was used to assess for significance. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. ns = no significance,

**p<0.01, ***p<0.005, ****p<0.0001. n=7-8 animals per group, both males and females used.

Figure 4. Co-pathologies enhance microglia activation at 3mpi. (a) J20 transgenic mice are injected at 12-14 weeks of age with 2uL of 5ug α-syn PFFs and 2uL of 3.2E12 vg/mL AAV9-Tau into the striatum and entorhinal cortex, respectively. For single pathology controls, age-matched non-transgenic littermates are injected with α-syn PFFs into the dorsal lateral striatum for PFF single pathology control or AAV9- Tau into the entorhinal cortex for Tau single pathology control. Age-matched J20 mice are used as the Aβ single pathology controls. At 3mpi, brains were collected and the hippocampus and surrounding cortices dissected and processed for spectral flow cytometry. (b) Representative fluorescent grayscale images of Iba1+ microglia in the hippocampus of Tau, J20 and PFF single pathology controls compared to that in the co-pathology model. (c) Representative flow cytometry contour plots showing $CD45^{mid-lo}$ microglia and $CD45^{hi}$ CNS macrophages in single pathology and co-pathology hippocampus. The relative frequency of total myeloid cells, microglia and $CD45^{hi}$ infiltrating monocytes and resident macrophages in the (d) hippocampus and (e) cortex of Tau, J20 and PFF only compared to co-pathology brains are plotted. (f) From the $CD45^{mid-lo}$ microglia population, representative contour plots show expression of activation markers MHCII (antigen presentation, activated), CD68 (phagocytosing). The absolute number of $MHCII^+CD68^+$ microglia that are $Ki67^+$ or $TLR2^+$ in the (g) hippocampus and (b) cortex of co-pathology and single pathology mice. $MHCII^-CD68^+$ microglia that are $Ki67^+$ or $TLR2^+$ in the (i) hippocampus and (j) cortex Tau, J20 and PFF only compared to co-pathology brains are plotted. Analyzed using One-way ANOVA. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.005$. n=5-6/group, with two brain regions pooled per sampled, both males and females included in analysis. First panel images taken at 10X magnification and zoomed, z-stack images at 40X. Scale bars (10X) = 100µm, scale bars (40X) = 10µm.

Figure 5. Co-pathologies promote T cell responses and tissue-resident memory T cell

phenotypes at 3mpi. (a) J20 transgenic mice are injected at 12-14 weeks of age with 2uL of 5ug

α-syn PFFs and 2uL of 3.2E12 vg/mL AAV9-Tau into the striatum and entorhinal cortex,

respectively. For single pathology controls, age-matched non-transgenic littermates are injected

with α-syn PFFs into the dorsal lateral striatum for PFF single pathology control or AAV9- Tau

into the entorhinal cortex for Tau single pathology control. Age-matched J20 mice are used as the

Aβ single pathology controls. At 3mpi, brains were collected and the hippocampus and

surrounding cortices dissected and processed for spectral flow cytometry. (b) Representative

fluorescent images of Iba1+ microglia (green) and CD4+ T cells (magenta) in the hippocampus of

Tau, J20 and PFF single pathology controls compared to that in the co-pathology model. (c)

Representative flow cytometry contour plots show proportion for CD4+ and CD8+ T cells. The

relative frequency of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells in the (d) hippocampus and (e) cortex of Tau, J20

and PFF only compared to co-pathology brains are plotted. (f) Representative contour plot showing

expression and gating scheme of CD4+ Trm T cells. Quantified average fold change of CD44+

effector and CD69+ Trm in co-pathology (g) hippocampus and (h) cortex relative to Tau, J20 and

PFF single pathologies. (i) Representative contour plot showing expression and gating scheme of

CD8+ Trm T cells. Quantified average fold change of CD44+ effector and CD69+CD103+ Trm

in co-pathology (j) hippocampus and (k) cortex relative to Tau, J20 and PFF single pathologies.

Analyzed using One-way ANOVA. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$,

***$p<0.005$. n=6/group, with two brain regions pooled per sampled, both males and females

included in analysis. All images taken at 10X magnification with z-stack, and digitally zoomed

using Nikon Elements software. Scale bars = 50μm.

Figure 6. Synergistic effects of co-pathologies promote neuroinflammation, protein pathology load and neurodegeneration. Single pathology models (left panel) showing relatively mild immune activation and pathology, with little to no inclusion of tissue-resident memory (Trm) T cells, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, monocytes and CNS resident macrophages. With the co-pathology model (middle panels), we demonstrate that concurrent protein aggregation (Aβ plaques, p-tau tangles and α-syn inclusions synergistically lead to increased recruitment and expansion of CNS-infiltrating immune cells and Trm populations. This is accompanied by microglial phenotype changes and elevated CD68+ expression and decreased number of MHCII+ cells. The cumulative effects of aggregated protein burden and chronic neuroinflammation result in neuronal damage and subsequent death.

Methods

Mice

The mouse strain used for this research project, B6J.Cg-*Zbtb20*$^{Tg(PDGFB-APPSwInd)20Lms}$/Mmjax, (RRID:MMRRC_034836-JAX), was obtained from the Mutant Mouse Resource and Research Center (MMRRC) at The Jackson Laboratory, an NIH-funded strain repository, and was donated to the MMRRC by Lennart Mucke, Ph.D., Gladstone Institute of Neurological Disease. Age and sex-matched non-transgenic littermates (NTG, C57BL/6J background) were used for Sham and single pathology induction. For all experiments presented, both male and female mice were used. All research conducted on animals was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Alabama at Birmingham and methods followed the Animal Research: Reporting of *In vivo* Experiments (ARRIVE) 2.0 guidelines (arriveguidelines.org).

Fibril and viral vector generation

Mouse α-synuclein pre-formed fibrils

α-syn mouse pre formed fibrils (PFFs) were generated and purified from mouse α-synuclein from the Volpicelli-Daley lab at the University of Alabama at Birmingham according to previously published protocols [102,103]. Briefly, mouse PFFs were thawed and aliquoted into 25uL (5mg/mL) and transferred to polystyrene sonication tubes. Tubes containing PFFs were then transferred to a Q700 Sonicator water reservoir once the water was at 10C. Fibrils were sonicated for 15 minutes, with pulse on and off durations, at a power of approximately 110 watts per pulse. After sonication, tubes are quickly spun down and 1uL of sonicated PFFs transferred into an Eppendorf tube in 1X PBS, for a final volume of 500uL. 5uL of this solution is sent for dynamic light scattering analysis to check for PFF fragmentation of around 50nm after sonication.

AAV9-Tau virus

AAV double mutant (dbl^{mut}) tau (AAV9-Tau) genome plasmid was engineered by standard cloning techniques to express human tau (2N4R isoform) encoding P301L/S320F mutations driven by the hybrid chicken β-actin promoter and flanked by AAV2 iTRs. [104]. Recombinant adeno-associated virus capsid 9 (AAV9) vectors were generated as described in prior studies[105]. Briefly, HEK293 cells were co-transfected with either dbl^{mut} tau or green fluorescent protein (GFP) genome plasmids, together with plasmids encoding AAV rep/cap genes and adenovirus helper proteins. AAV viral capsids were purified from cells and culture media by iodixanol gradient centrifugation, followed by dialysis in Dulbecco's PBS containing calcium and magnesium. Titers were determined by ddPCR using primers for the AAV iTRs and normalized to 3.2 viral genomes per mL (vg/mL).

Stereotaxic injections

Mice aged 12-14 weeks old were deeply anesthetized using an isoflurane vaporizing instrument (UAB Animal Resource Program) and immobilized to a stereotaxic frame (Stoelting) on top of a heating pad to ensure appropriate internal body temperature is maintained. 26s/2"/2 10μL Hamilton syringes along with an automatic injecting system (Stoelting) are used to unilaterally (immunohistochemistry, DAB and fluorescence) or bilaterally (behavior, flow cytometry) inject 2uL of mouse α-syn PFFs (5μg/mL), mouse α-syn monomer (5μg/mL), AAV9-dbl^{mut} tau virus (3.2E12vg/mL) or AAV9-GFP (3.2E12vg/mL). PFFs or monomer control were injected into the dorsal lateral striatum based on bregma (AP +0.5mm, ML +/-2.0mm and DV -3.0mm from the dura) AAV9-Tau or AAV9-eGFP viruses were injected into the entorhinal cortex (AP -3.5mm,

ML +/-3.9mm and DV -4.2mm from dura). Injection needle was left in the injection site for an

additional 2 minutes following completion and then slowly retracted from the site over the course

of another 2 minutes. All surgical protocols and post-surgery aftercare methods were followed and

approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Alabama at

Birmingham.

To induce the co-pathology model, 3-month-old J20 transgenic mice were injected with mouse α-

syn PFFs into the striatum and AAV9-Tau virus into the entorhinal cortex. For sham surgery, non-

transgenic (NTG) littermates were injected with mouse α-syn monomer and AAV9-eGFP into the

striatum and entorhinal cortex, respectively.

To induce single pathology controls, NTG mice were injected with mouse α-syn PFFs into the

dorsal lateral striatum for α-syn models and AAV9-Tau virus into the entorhinal cortex for tau

models. α-syn monomer into the striatum and AAV9-GFP were injected into the dorsal lateral

striatum and entorhinal cortex, respectively, of non-transgenic mice as controls. J20 transgenic

mice were used as the Aβ single pathology mice, compared to un-injected NTG littermates.

Tissue preparation and processing

At 3 months post-induction (3mpi) and 6 months post-induction (6mpi) of the co-pathology model

and single-color controls, mice were anesthetized using isoflurane and transcardially perfused with

0.01M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, pH = 7.4) and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA in

PBS, pH = 7.4). Brains were then dissected and incubated in 4% PFA for 2 hours at room

temperature. After fixation, brains were placed in 30% sucrose in PBS for 3 days until brains were

fully saturated. Brains were then frozen on dry ice and cryosectioned coronally at 40μm on a

sliding microtome (Thermo Scientific Micron HM 450). Sliced brain tissue was then stored in a

50% glycerol/PBS solution at -20°C.

Immunofluorescent immunohistochemistry

Free-floating 40-μm thick sections were washed in 0.01M tris-buffered saline solution (TBS, pH

7.4) prior to an antigen retrieval process with a solution of 10mM sodium citrate and 0.05% Tween-

20 in TBS. Sections were then incubated in 5% blocking serum at room temperature before being

incubated overnight in the following primary antibody solutions (TBST, 1% serum): anti-CD4

(clone RM4-5, ThermoFisher), anti-CD8 (clone 4SM15, eBioscience) and anti-Iba1 (WACO). On

the following day, sections were washed in TBS with .1% Triton-100 and incubated in fluorescent

conjugated antibody in the dark for 2 hours at room temperature. Sections were then washed in

TBST and mounted on microscope slides for analysis. Slides were imaged at 20X on a Nikon A1

Laser Scanning Confocal microscope.

DAB immunohistochemistry

Free-floating 40-μm thick sections were washed in 0.01M tris-buffered saline solution (TBS, pH

7.4) prior to being quenched with 3% hydrogen peroxide in TBS for 5 minutes. Next, sections

underwent an antigen retrieval process with a solution of 10mM sodium citrate and 0.05% Tween-

20 in TBS for 30 minutes at 37°C. Following this, sections were blocked in a 5% goat or donkey

serum solution for at least 1 hour at room temperature and then incubated overnight at 4°C with

the following antibodies in 1% serum solution: anti-CD3 (clone 17A2, eBioscience), anti-tyrosine

hydroxylase (clone: EP1536Y, Abcam), anti-alpha synuclein, phosphor-serine 129 (pSer129, close

EP1536Y, Abcam), anti-AT8 (clone MN1020, ThermoFisher), anti-Aβ (clone D54D2, Cell

Signaling) and anti-NeuN (clone EPR12763, Abcam). Sections were then incubated with a

biotinylated secondary antibody (1:1000, Vector Labs) in a 1% serum in TBST solution. After

incubation, sections were washed with TBS and incubated in the Vectastain ABC Reagent (Vector

Labs) for 30 minutes at RT prior to development with the Vectastain diaminobenzidine DAB Kit

(SK-4199, Vector Labs) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Sections were then mounted

onto plus-coated slides and dehydrated with a gradient of ethanol solutions (70%-100%) followed

by Citrisolv. Slides were them coverslipped with Permount Mounting Media (Electron Microscopy

Sciences). Slides were then images at 10X and 20X on a Zeiss Imager M2 brightfield microscope

(MBF Biosciences).

Unbiased stereology of the hippocampus and substantia nigra pars compacta

In order to quantify neuronal cell loss, an unbiased stereology protocol was used. TH and NeuN-

DAB stained (see 'DAB Immunohistochemistry' section) SNpc and hippocampal tissue sections,

respectively, were imaged and analyzed with a Zeiss Axio Imager M2 microscope (MBF

Biosciences) and the Cavalieri stereology probe used to count cells, with a section thickness of

25μm to account for dehydration of sections. To quantify NeuN+ neurons in the hippocampus,

contours were drawn around the five to seven sections, focusing on the CA1 and CA3 regions. To

quantify Th+ neurons in the SNpc, contours were drawn around both sides of the nigra, in four to

five sections. Similar contours were drawn in the nigra to quantify α-syn+ neurons. For

stereological counting, the grid size used for the hippocampus was 130μmx130μm and the

counting frame was 40μmx40μm. In the SNpc, the grid size and counting frame were, 100x100

and 50μmx50μm, respectively.

Brain single cell isolation and flow cytometry

At 3mpi, co-pathology and single pathology mice were anesthetized and transcardially perfused with 0.01M PBS (pH 7.4). Briefly, brain tissue was removed and the brain regions dissected. Tissue was then digested with 1 mg/mL Collagenase IV (Sigma) diluted in RPMI 1640 (1X, Gibco). Following enzyme digestion, tissue was then filtered and smashed through a 70μm filter using a syringe plunger and mononuclear cells isolated out using a 30/70% Percoll gradient (GE).

For cell staining, isolated brain cells were blocked with anti-Fcγ receptor (1:100, Biosciences). Following this, cell surface markers were labelled with the following, fluorescent-conjugated antibodies against CD45 (clone 30-F11, eBioscience), CD11b (clone M1/70, BioLegend), MHCII (M5/114.15.2, BioLegend), Ly6C (clone HK 1.4, BioLegend), TCRβ (clone H57-597, Biolegend), CD4 (GK1.5, BioLegend), CD8a (clone 53-6.7, BioLegend). CD69 (clone H1.2F3, BioLegend), , B220 (clone RA3-6B2, BD Biosciences), CD44 (clone IM7, Biolegend), CD62L (clone MEL-14, BioLegend), CD103 (clone 2E7, BioLegend), TLR2 (clone CB225, BD Biosciences), Ki67 (clone 16A8, BioLegend), CX3CR1 (clone SA011F11, BioLegend), CD68 (clone FA-11, BioLegend). A fixable viability dye was used to distinguish live cells, per the manufacturer's protocol Aqua-LIVE/DEAD Stain Kit (Invitrogen). As single-color compensation controls, isolated splenocytes or UltraComp eBeads™ (Invitrogen) were used. To analyze and run samples, a BD Symphony (BD Biosciences) or Spectral Enabled Symphony flow cytometer were used at the UAB Flow Cytometry and Single Cell Core Facility. Mean cell counts, percentages and mean fluorescent intensity were measured and analyzed using FlowJo (Tree Star) software.

Mouse brain lysate preparation

Brain tissue was micro dissected, snap frozen in super-cooled bath of 2-methylbutane with dry ice,

and stored at -80°C. Tissue lysates were homogenized with a tissue grinder using 20%

weight/volume lysis buffer (50 mmol/L Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 175 mmol/L NaCl, 5 mmol/L EDTA)

supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors and sonicated for 10 sec on ice. After

addition of Triton X-100 to a final concentration of 1% volume/volume, samples were incubated

on ice for 30 minutes and centrifuged at 15,000 xg for 60 min at 4°C. The supernatant was saved

as the Triton X-100 soluble fraction. The pellet was resuspended in lysis buffer with 2% SDS,

sonicated for 10 sec, and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 15,000 xg. The resulting supernatant was

reserved as the Triton X-100 insoluble fraction. Protein concentration was determined by the

bicinchoninic acid assay (Pierce Cat# 23225).

1027

1028 **Amyloid β detection by Aβ1-42 ELISA**

1029 A total of 20 μg brain lysate was used to measure concentration of Aβ1-42 with the human

1030 Amyloid beta (aa1-42) Quantikine ELISA (R&D Systems Cat# DAB142) kit following the

1031 manufacturer's protocol. Colorimetric signal was measured using the SpectraMax iD3 (Molecular

1032 Devices).

1033

Western Blot

Chemiluminescence

A total of 20μg of protein from the Triton X-100 soluble and insoluble fractions described above

were denatured in dithiothreitol (DTT) buffer (0.25 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 200mM DTT, 8% SDS,

30% glycerol, 2mg bromophenol blue) by boiling for 10m. Samples were run on 15% SDS-

polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, which were then fixed for

30m in 0.4% paraformaldehyde. Blots were blocked in 5% dry milk in TBS-T for 1 hour at ambient

temperatures and incubated in primary antibodies at 4ºC overnight. Primary antibody

concentrations are as follows: Alpha-Synuclein (1:1000; BD-Biosciences 610787) and GAPDH

(1:10,000; Cell Signaling 14C10). Blots were washed in TBS-T, incubated in HRP-conjugated

secondary antibodies (Mouse HRP: Jackson Labs 115-035-003; Rabbit HRP: Jackson Labs 111-

035-003) at 1:2000 for 1h at ambient temperatures, and imaged using a BioRad ChemiDoc MP

system. Blots were analyzed using BioRad Image Lab software.

Fluorescence

Blots were run as described above. LI-COR blocking buffer and antibody diluents (LI-COR 927-

66003) were used with Tau (1:1000; Cell Signaling 43984S) and GAPDH antibodies. IRDye-

conjugated secondary antibodies (Mouse IRDye 680: LI-COR 926-68070; Rabbit IRDye 800: LI-

COR 926-32211) were used at 1:2000 for 1h at ambient temperatures. Blots were imaged using a

LI-COR Odyssey CLx system and analyzed using LI-COR Image studio software.

1053

Dendritic spine morphology analysis

Perfusions and brain tissue processing

For iontophoretic microinjections, mice were anesthetized with Fatal Plus (Vortech

Pharmaceuticals, Catalog #0298-9373-68) and transcardially perfused with cold 1%

paraformaldehyde (PFA; Sigma Aldrich, Catalog #P6148) for 1 min, followed by 4% PFA with

0.125% glutaraldehyde (Fisher Scientific, Catalog #BP2547) for 10 min. A peristaltic pump

(Cole Parmer) was used for consistent administration of cold PFA. Immediately following

perfusion, each brain was extracted and drop-fixed in 4% PFA with 0.125% glutaraldehyde for

8–12 h at 4 °C. After fixation, brains were coronally sliced in 250 μm thick sections using a

Leica vibratome (VT1000S, speed 70, frequency 7). Brains were sliced in 0.1 M PB and stored at

4 °C, one slice per well in a 48-well plate, in 0.1 M PB with 0.1% sodium azide (Fisher, Catalog

#BP922I).

1066

Iontophoretic microinjections

Iontophoretic microinjections were performed based on methods described previously[106,107]. A

Nikon Eclipse FN1 upright microscope with a 10× objective and a 40× water objective was

placed on an air table. The tissue chamber used consisted of a 50 × 75 mm plastic base with a

60 × 10 mm petri dish epoxied to the base. A platinum wire was attached so that the ground wire

could be connected to the bath by an alligator clip. The negative terminal of the electric current

source was connected to a glass micropipette filled with 2 µL of 8% Lucifer yellow dye

(ThermoFisher, Catalog#L453). Micropipettes (A-M Systems, Catalog #603500) with highly

tapered tips were pulled fresh at the time of use. A manual micromanipulator was secured on the

air table with magnets that provided a 45° angle for injection. Brain slices were placed into a

small petri dish containing 1× PBS and DAPI for 5 min at room temperature. After incubation in

DAPI, slices were placed on dental wax, and then a piece of filter paper was used to adhere the

tissue. The filter paper was then transferred to the tissue chamber filled with 1× PBS, and

weighted down for stability. The 10× objective was used to visualize advancement of the tip of

the micropipette in X, Y, and Z planes until the tip was just a few micrometers above the tissue.

The 40× objective was then used while advancing the tip into layer 2/3 of the ventral CA1

regions of the hippocampus. Once the microelectrode contacted a neuron, 2 nA of negative

current were applied for 5 min to fill the neuron with Lucifer yellow. After 5 min, the current

was turned off and the micropipette was removed from the neuron. Neuron impalement within

the CA1 occurred randomly in a blind manner. If the entire neuron did not fill with dye after

penetration, the electrode was removed and the neuron was not used for analysis. Multiple

neurons were injected in each hemisphere of each animal. After injection, the filter paper

containing the tissue was moved back into the chamber containing 1× PBS. The tissue was

carefully lifted off the paper and placed on a glass slide with two 125 μm spacers (Electron

Microscopy Sciences, Catalog #70327-20S). Excess PBS was carefully removed with a

Kimwipe, and the tissue was air-dried for 1 min. One drop of Vectashield (Vector Labs, Catalog

#H1000) was added directly to the slice, and the coverslip (Warner, Catalog #64-0716) was

added and sealed with nail polish. Injected tissue was stored at 4 °C in the dark.

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Confocal microscopy

Confocal microscopy was used to capture images of Lucifer yellow-filled dendrites on pyramidal

neurons in CA1 of the hippocampus. Our methods are based on previously described

methods[107,108], and are detailed as follows. Imaging was performed by a blinded experimenter on

a Nikon (Tokyo, Japan) Ti2 C2 confocal microscope, using a Plan Apo 60×/1.40 NA oil-

immersion objective. Three-dimensional z-stacks were obtained of secondary dendrites from

dye-impregnated neurons that met the following criteria: (1) within 80 μm working distance of

microscope, (2) relatively parallel with the surface of the coronal section, (3) no overlap with

other branches, (4) located between 40 and 120 μm from the soma. Nikon Elements 4.20.02

image capture software was used to acquire z-stacks with a step size of 0.1 μm, image size of

1024 × 512 px, zoom of 4.8×, line averaging of 4×, and acquisition rate of 1 frame/s.

Confocal microscopy was also used to capture images of slices from mice. Imaging was

performed on a Nikon Ti2 C2 confocal microscope, using a Plan Fluor 10×/0.75 NA air

objective. Nikon Elements 4.20.02 image capture software was used to acquire stitched images

(20 × 10 field) by automatically stitching multiple adjacent 10× images using 25% blending

overlap. Each frame had an image size of 1024 × 1024 px, and acquisition rate of 1 frame/s.

Subsequently, 10× stitched images were acquired, with all other imaging parameters remaining

the same. Following image acquisition, post-image processing was performed using Fiji ImageJ.

Each image file was a two channel image. The Split Channels function was used to separate the

two channels.

1116

Dendritic spine morphometry analysis

Confocal z-stacks of dendrites were deconvolved using Huygens Deconvolution System (16.05,

Scientific Volume Imaging, the Netherlands). The following settings were used: deconvolution

algorithm: GMLE; maximum iterations: 10; signal to noise ratio: 15; quality: 0.003.

Deconvolved images were saved in .tif format. Deconvolved image stacks were imported into

Neurolucida 360 (2.70.1, MBF Biosciences, Williston, Vermont) for dendritic spine analysis. For

each image, the semi-automatic directional kernel algorithm was used to trace the dendrite. The

outer 5 µm of each dendrite were excluded from the trace. All assigned points were examined to

ensure they matched the dendrite diameter and position in X, Y, and Z planes, and were adjusted

if necessary. Dendritic spine reconstruction was performed automatically using a voxel-

clustering algorithm, with the following parameters: outer range = 5 µm, minimum

height = 0.3 µm, detector sensitivity = 80%, minimum count = 8 voxels. The semi-automatically

identified spines were examined to ensure that all identified spines were real, and that all existing

spines had been identified. If necessary, spines were added by increasing the detector sensitivity.

Additionally, merge and slice tools were used to correct errors made in the morphology and

backbone points of each spine. Each dendritic spine was automatically classified as a dendritic

filopodium, thin spine, stubby spine, or mushroom spine based on constant parameters[106,107].

Three-dimensional dendrite reconstructions were exported to Neurolucida Explorer (2.70.1,

MBF Biosciences, Williston, Vermont) for branched structure analysis, which provides

measurements of dendrite length; number of spines; spine length; number of thin, stubby, and

mushroom spines, and filopodia; spine head diameter; and spine neck diameter, among other

measurements. The output was exported to Microsoft Excel (Redmond, WA). Spine density was

calculated as the number of spines per 10 µm of dendrite length. Values per mouse were

calculated by averaging the values for all dendrites corresponding to that mouse. To assess apical

and basal dendrites separately, values for either apical or basal dendrites were averaged per

mouse. For a mouse to be included in statistical analyses for dendritic spine density and

morphology a minimum of 100 µm of dendrite length had to be reconstructed and analyzed.

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Behavior

Behavior tests to assess for motor and cognitive function were conducted at 6 months post-

induction of co-pathology model or single pathology models. Mice were handled for 3 days prior

to the start of testing and were habituated to the testing room for 1 hour at the start of each testing

day. The order of test was designed to minimize stress to the animals, such that lower-stress tasks

were completed before high-stress tasks. All apparatus was cleaned with 2% chlorohexadine

between trials. The researcher conducting the tests was blinded to experimental groups during

trials and analysis.

Open Field

To test for general motor activity, mice were place in a 30.48 x 30.48 cm enclosed field with

opaque walls and allowed to explore for 10 minutes. The inner zone was defined as the center of

the box. Noldus Average velocity, distance traveled, and percent of the time spent in the center

were determined by the Ethovision XT v16 software.

Pole Test

To further test for motor deficits, mice were placed in a dark room and habituated for 1 hour

starting at the beginning of the dark phase. Two red lamps were strategically placed in the room

to visualize the behavior test without disrupting the dark phase. The pole test was performed

using a 53cm wooden dowel rod with a diameter of 10 mm, anchored with a 13.9 x 20 x 1.8 cm

block of wood and ridged at 2.54 cm intervals with rolled rubber bands. The dowel rod was

placed vertically in the center of a 1x1 foot enclosure. The mice were first trained by being

placed face-down at the base of the pole and allowed to climb off onto the floor of the enclosure

before being returned to their cage. This training was done twice. Following this, each mouse

was placed face-up at the top of the pole and allowed no more than 180 seconds to turn around

and climb down to the bottom; this was repeated five times. Mice were given a minimum of 30

seconds to rest between each trial. Three time point measurements were recorded. The first time

point started from the time the mouse was placed on the pole to the time taken for the mouse to

reach the bottom (total descent time). Measurements were recorded for the time the mouse took

to turn around on the pole to face the bottom (turnaround time) and the total time to descend

(time descending) in seconds. The average time for each time point was calculated from all five

trials for each mouse.

Rotarod

To further test for motor activity, mice were placed on an accelerating rotarod apparatus, and time

taken to fall was measured. Mice were trained on the apparatus over 5 days, with the rotarod speed

increasing from 4 rpm to 40 rpm over 300 seconds. If mice had not fallen by 120 seconds during

the testing trial, the rotation was paused, mouse was removed, and the time was recorded as 120

seconds. Mice underwent two trials per day with 30 minutes of resting time between each trial.

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Barnes Maze

A blue circular apparatus of 122cm in diameter consisting of forty, five cm, evenly spaced holes

was used throughout the test. The test consisted of three stages: (1) Habituation phase, (2)

Acquisition phase, and (3) Probe phase. The habituation phase took place on day 1 where mice

were placed in the center of the apparatus covered by a black mesh cup uniformly covered. 10

seconds after the placement, mice freely roamed the Barnes maze for an undefined amount of

time until they found and independently entered the escape tunnel. The acquisition phase

occurred through Days 2-6 and consisted of one, five-minute trial. If mice did not find nor enter

the escape tunnel after the five-minute trial, mice were gently guided towards the direction of the

tunnel where they then entered it on their own. Entry into the tunnel was defined as all four paws

in the tunnel. Upon entry, a cover was used to cover to hole to prevent the mice from leaving the

tunnel. The tunnel was then carefully removed from the maze apparatus and gently placed in the

home cage of the mouse. The latency to find and enter the escape tunnel was recorded. On Day

10, mice were again introduced to the maze for one minute without the escape tunnel present.

The amount of time spent in the escape tunnel quadrant, entry zone, and goal box were

determined by the Ethovision XT v16 software.

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Statistical Analysis

All graphs and subsequent statistical tests were generated using Prism software (GraphPad). Flow cytometry experiments used ten to twelve independent samples with two brain regions pooled per sample, for a final number of five to six per group for experiments. Data were analyzed using an unpaired student's t-test or a one-way ANOVA. Graphs within display the mean +/- SEM. For unbiased stereology, estimated populations were generated and a one-way ANOVA was used to determine the significance between groups. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.0005$, $****p<0.0001$.

Data availability

The authors affirm that the findings within the manuscript are supported by the data therein. The data, protocols and key lab materials used and generated in this study are listed in a Key Resource Table alongside their persistent identifiers on Zenodo (10.5281/zenodo.16739907).

Declarations

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Author's contributions

JMW and ASH designed the study, experiments, and wrote the manuscript. JMW was responsible for planning and performing all stereotaxic surgeries. JMW, YTY, ATM, NJCS, WJW and AZ contributed towards tissue collection and executing flow cytometry experiments. TAY, WJS, KS and JMW performed all ELISA and immunoblotting experiments and analysis. JMW, NM and ACS conducted IHC stains. JMW manually assessed NeuN+ neuronal loss via unbiased stereology. AZ manually assessed Th+ neuronal loss via stereology. NHC, LFL, PNM, KMG and JHH planned, conducted and analyzed dendritic spine morphology counts. FPM and IS developed and optimized the AAV double-mutant tau vector. JMW and ASH drafted and constructed the manuscript and figures. FPM, JHK and DJT provided feedback on study design and edits to the manuscript. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests.

Extended Data Figures

Extended Data Figure 1. Uncropped western blot images corresponding to Figure 1. (a,b) Blots probed for total α-syn and GAPDH from Triton-X100 soluble and insoluble (a) hippocampus and (b) cortex samples from co-pathology and single pathology animals. Blots probed for total tau and GAPDH from Triton-X100 soluble and insoluble (c) hippocampus and (d) cortex samples from co-pathology and single pathology animals. For c and d, the same membrane was probed sequentially for total tau and subsequently for GAPDH as a loading control.

1258 **Extended Data Figure 2.** A series of behavioral tests were conducted on co-pathology and single

1259 pathology animals. (a) Quantification of latency to entry zone, to goal quadrant, to first error and

1260 the total number of errors analyzed from Barnes maze test. (b) Measures of total time, turnaround

1261 time and time descending on the pole test. (c) distance travelled, velocity, time in center and time

1262 in outside are depicted from open field test. (d) Total duration of animals on rotarod platform

 across 5 days of testing. One-way ANOVA with post hoc for significance. Mean values +/- SEM

 are plotted. ns = no significance, *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.005. n=8-10 animals per group, both

 males and females used.

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Extended Data Figure 3. Dendritic spine morphology was assessed in the CA1 region of

hippocampus on pyramidal neurons and measures of total spine length and spine volume for all

spines and for thin, stubby and mushroom subgroups are plotted from (a) combined (both apical

1271   and basal), (b) apical only or (c) basal only dendrites. One-way ANOVA with post hoc for

1272   significance. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. ns = no significance, $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$,

1273 $***p<0.005$. n=8-10 animals per group, both males and females used.

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Extended Data Figure 4. Unbiased stereology was used to assess for neuronal loss in the

hippocampus and SNpc. (a,b) Estimated population of NeuN+ neurons of co-pathology and single

pathology CA1 or CA3 compared to their individual controls. (c) TH+ neurons (brown) in the

SNpc of single pathology and co-pathology brains. (d) Unbiased stereology was used to quantify

the number of TH+ neurons in the SNpc in the co-pathology mouse model compared to Tau, J20

and PFF single pathology brains. All images taken at 20X. Scale bars = 100μm. One-way ANOVA

with post hoc for significance. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. Ns = no significance, **p<0.01,

***p<0.005, ****p<0.0001. n=7-8 animals per group, both males and females used.

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Extended Data Figure 5. (a) Gating strategy for flow cytometry analysis of microglia. (b)

Quantification of proportion of myeloid cells, microglia and infiltrating monocytes/CNS resident

macrophages in the co-pathology model hippocampus and (c) cortex compared to single pathology

1289 brains. (d,e) absolute number of CD68+ microglia, MHCII+ microglia and MHCII+CD68+

1290 microglia in the hippocampus and cortex of single pathology and co-pathology brains. Analyzed

1291 using One-way ANOVA. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.005. n=5-

1292 6/group, with two brain regions pooled per sampled, both males and females included in analysis.

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Extended Data Figure 6. (a) Representative images showing CD3+ staining (nickel) from Tau,

J20, PFF and co-pathology brains. (b) Gating strategy for flow cytometry analysis of T cells. (c)

Quantification from flow cytometry of proportion of CD4 and CD8 T cells, and absolute number

of effector CD4 and CD8 T cells, and Trm T cells in the hippocampus and (d) cortex. Analyzed

using One-way ANOVA. Mean values +/- SEM are plotted. *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$, ***$p<0.005$. n=5-

6/group, with two brain regions pooled per sampled, both males and females included in analysis.

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