

Table 1. iTRAQ ratios (wild-type vs. ^{triple}AD, pR5 vs. ^{triple}AD, and APP/PS2 vs. ^{triple}AD) showing differentially expressed proteins observed by iTRAQ experiment

Accession no.	Name	Wild-type vs. ^{triple} AD	pR5 vs. ^{triple} AD	APP/PS2 vs. ^{triple} AD
ANXA5_MOUSE (P48036)	Annexin A5 (Annexin V) (Lipocortin V)	1.28		0.63
ANXA6_MOUSE (P14824)	Annexin A6 (Annexin VI) (Lipocortin VI)	1.46	2.2	
ARF3_MOUSE (P61205)	ADP-ribosylation factor 3			0.65
BASP_MOUSE (Q91XV3)	Brain acid soluble protein 1 (BASP1 protein)		1.51	
CALM_MOUSE (P62204)	Calmodulin (CaM)		0.78	0.65
COX2_MOUSE (P00405)	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit 2 (EC 1.9.3.1)	1.22	1.42	
COX41_MOUSE (P19783)	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit IV isoform 1, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.9.3.1)	1.36	1.47	
COX5A_MOUSE (P12787)	Cytochrome c oxidase polypeptide Va, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.9.3.1)	1.21	1.43	
COX5B_MOUSE (P19536)	Cytochrome c oxidase polypeptide Vb, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.9.3.1)		1.33	
CX7A2_MOUSE (P48771)	Cytochrome c oxidase polypeptide VIIa-liver/heart, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.9.3.1)	1.41	1.69	
HBA_MOUSE (P01942)	Hemoglobin alpha subunit	0.73	0.69	
HBB1_MOUSE (P02088)	Hemoglobin beta-1 subunit chain	0.69		0.6
MBP_MOUSE (P04370)	Myelin basic protein (MBP) (Myelin A1 protein)	1.32		1.22
NDKA_MOUSE (P15532)	Nucleoside diphosphate kinase A (EC 2.7.4.6)			0.56
NIDM_MOUSE (Q9DC59)	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase PDSW subunit (EC 1.6.5.3)		1.39	0.66
NUCM_MOUSE (Q91WD5)	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 49 kDa subunit, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.6.5.3)			0.8
NUIM_MOUSE (Q8K3J1)	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 23 kDa subunit, mitochondrial precursor (EC 1.6.5.3)	1.22		
PHB_MOUSE (P67778)	Prohibitin (B-cell receptor associated protein 32) (BAP 32)			0.77
PPIA_MOUSE (P17742)	Peptidyl-prolyl cis-trans isomerase A (EC 5.2.1.8)			1.4
S12A2_MOUSE (P55012)	Solute carrier family 12 member 2 symporter		1.49	
SYN2_MOUSE (Q64332)	Synapsin-2 (Synapsin II)		1.69	
TAU_MOUSE (P10637)	Microtubule-associated protein tau (Neurofibrillary tangle protein)	0.64		0.6
THY1_MOUSE (P01831)	Thy-1 membrane glycoprotein precursor	1.4	1.94	
VA0D_MOUSE (P51863)	Vacuolar ATP synthase subunit d	1.35	1.71	0.77

Wild-type and ^{triple}AD mouse samples are compared to other types. Only iTRAQ ratios satisfying the criterion (P value < 0.01 and $0.82 < \text{iTRAQ ratio} < 1.2$) with the same ratio-changing trends in a minimum of 2 of the 3 independent iTRAQ runs and not having ratio-changing trends in any other runs are listed. Deregulated subunits of complexes I and IV are bold.

calculate iTRAQ ratios. Proteins identified with iTRAQ tag ion intensities below this threshold were not quantified. In our study, $\approx 90\%$ of the identified proteins had iTRAQ ratios (Fig. S1A), and of these, $\approx 80\%$ were calculated from more than 2 peptides.

We tabulated iTRAQ ratios of all proteins using the ^{triple}AD as denominator and iTRAQ ratios > 1.2 or < 0.82 with a P value < 0.01 as threshold to identify deregulated proteins as listed in Table 1. A protein had to show the same deregulation trend in at least 2 of the 3 runs to be considered as deregulated. From our past experience iTRAQ ratios > 1.2 or < 0.82 with a P value < 0.01 indicate protein differences of at least 1.5-fold.

Consistent with transgenic tau expression, the experimental data show that tau is significantly up-regulated in pR5 mice and ^{triple}AD mouse brain compared with wild-type and APP/PS2 mice. We performed an overrepresentation analysis using the Gene Ontology (GO) database to perform a functional characterization of the deregulated proteins and established a GO map as described in ref. 12. This revealed that one-third of the proteins have functions in mitochondria, specifically complex I and IV (Table 1). In agreement, separation of mitochondrial complexes from cortical brain by 2D resolution confirmed a similar deregulation of the 49-kDa subunit of complex I and subunits II and IV of complex IV (Fig. S1 B and C). Therefore, we decided to assess ^{triple}AD compared with pR5 and APP/PS2 mice for mitochondrial function.

TripleAD Mice Exhibit Strong Defects in Mitochondrial OXPHOS, Complex Activities, and Energy Homeostasis. A high-resolution respiratory system has been used to evaluate the capacity of the entire

oxidative phosphorylation system (OXPHOS) of cerebral mitochondria from the 4 mouse strains (Fig. 1A). We determined flux control ratios to obtain information on metabolic states of respiration. The respiratory control ratio (RCR3/4) is an indicator of the state of coupling of mitochondria. State 3 is the rate of phosphorylating respiration in the presence of exogenous ADP, and state 4 is associated with proton leakage across the inner mitochondrial membrane in the absence of ADP. Our findings suggest a pronounced decrease of RCR3/4 in mitochondria from APP/PS2 and ^{triple}AD compared with age-matched wild-type mice (Fig. 1B). When we examined the ETS/ROX (electron transport system/residual oxygen consumption) ratio, which yields an index of the maximum oxygen consumption capacity relative to the magnitude of residual oxygen consumption, we found that it was also decreased in APP/PS2 and ^{triple}AD compared with age-matched wild-type mice (Fig. 1C). We have shown previously that respiration of mitochondria from pR5 mice is reduced compared with wild-type controls, but not until the age of 24 months (4) (Fig. S2). In contrast, APP/PS2 mitochondria showed a decrease in OXPHOS compared with wild-type already at the age of 8 months (Fig. 1D). At this age, OXPHOS of brain mitochondria from ^{triple}AD mice did not differ compared with that of age-matched APP/PS2 mitochondria (Fig. 1E), but it was significantly decreased in ^{triple}AD mice at the age of 12 months (Fig. 1 F and G). Taken together, with increasing age, the global failure of the mitochondrial respiratory capacity deteriorated the strongest in mitochondria from

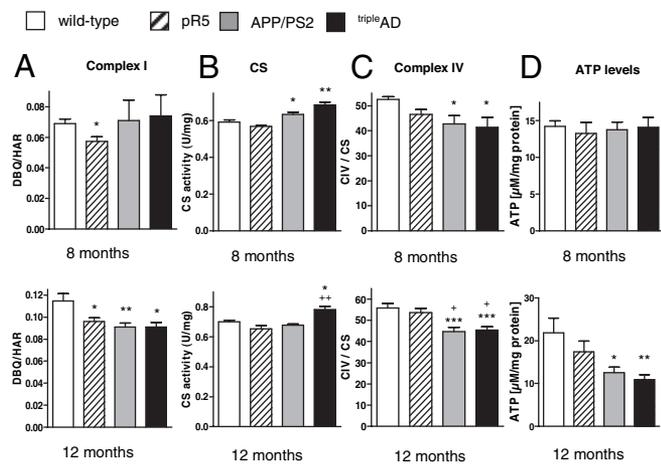


Fig. 2. Impaired mitochondrial enzyme activities and decreased ATP levels in cortical brain cells from tripleAD mice. (A) Complex I activity (DBQ/HAR ratio) was decreased in 8-month-old pR5 mitochondria. At 12 months, all 3 transgenic mouse models presented a decrease in complex I activity. (B) Citrate synthase (CS) activity was increased in 8-month-old APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice. At 12 months, the increase persisted only in tripleAD mice. (C) Complex IV activity (CIV/CS ratio) was decreased in APP/PS2 and tripleAD mitochondria at 8 months of age. The decrease became more pronounced at the age of 12 months. (D) ATP levels were reduced in 12-month-old APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice. (A–D) One-way ANOVA post hoc Tukey's. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$ vs. wild type; +, $P < 0.05$ vs. pR5 ($n = 7$ –12 animals/group).

membrane potential (MMP) that is widely considered as an indicator of mitochondrial functionality (16). Basal MMP was significantly and exclusively reduced in cortical cells from 8-month-old tripleAD mice. At 12 months, MMP was additionally reduced in cortical cells from APP/PS2 mice (Fig. 3A). Importantly, the same results were obtained using a different fluorescent dye (R123; Fig. S5). Again, this effect was brain region-specific as it was not observed for the cerebellum (Fig. S6).

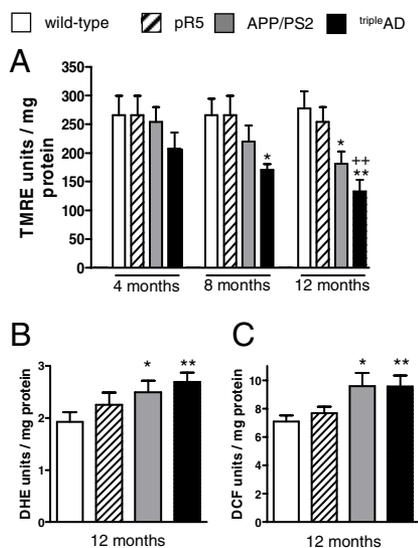


Fig. 3. Reduced MMP and increased ROS levels in cortical brain cells from tripleAD mice. (A) MMP (TMRE fluorescence units/mg protein) was reduced in cortical cells from 8-month-old tripleAD mice. At the age of 12 months, MMP was also reduced in cells from APP/PS2 mice. (B) Levels of superoxide anion radicals (DHE fluorescence units/mg protein) and (C) cytosolic ROS (DCF fluorescence units/mg protein) were increased in cells from 12-month-old APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice. (A–C) One-way ANOVA post hoc Tukey's. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; vs. wild-type, ++, $P < 0.01$ vs. pR5 ($n = 7$ –12 animals/group).

Increased Mitochondrial Failure Is Accompanied by Enhanced Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) Production. Superoxide anion levels were enhanced in cortical brain cells of 12-month-old APP/PS2 mice and markedly increased in those of age-matched tripleAD mice (Fig. 3B). In addition, cytosolic ROS levels were enhanced in brain cells from APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice (Fig. 3C). These differences were only observed at an age of 12, and not 8 months (Fig. S7 A and B), suggesting that at the older age, brain mitochondria are not capable of compensating their respiratory failure.

Discussion

Energy deficiency and mitochondrial dysfunction have been recognized as a prominent, early event in AD, but the mechanisms leading to mitochondrial failure are not well understood (15, 17–24). Recently, we had shown in vivo that P301L mutant tau was capable of inducing mitochondrial dysfunction and increasing levels of ROS in pR5 mice (4). We had also found an increased mitochondrial vulnerability of pR5 cortical brain cells toward $A\beta$ in vitro (4, 14). However, the relative contribution of tau and $A\beta$ remained unclear, as did possible synergistic effects. To address this, we investigated brains of pR5, APP/PS2, and tripleAD (pR5/APP/PS2) mice, the latter combining $A\beta$ and tau pathologies.

In the present study we could clearly show that with increasing age, both $A\beta$ and tau synergistically impair mitochondrial function and energy homeostasis in vivo. At 8 months of age, in agreement with previous data (4), complex I activity was only decreased in pR5, and not in APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice, indicating a tau-specific sensitivity of complex I of OXPHOS. In contrast, activity of CS, a pace-making enzyme of the Krebs cycle, was increased in 8-month-old APP/PS2 and tripleAD mice. At this age, a robust cortical pathology of $A\beta$ plaques and tau deposits is present (11). Because CS activity seems to be proportional to the content of enzymes of OXPHOS (13), the increased activity can be interpreted as compensatory mechanism of mitochondria in response to OXPHOS failure, a mechanism initiated in tripleAD mice already at the age of 4 months, when $A\beta$ accumulation and abnormal tau phosphorylation (such as of epitope T231) become evident (11). Notably, at this early age, cortical brain cells from tripleAD mice exhibit already a tendency to reduced MMP, suggesting that this is a very sensitive indicator of early mitochondrial failure. The decrease in MMP (that was not seen in the parental strains) further continued until tripleAD mice reached 8 months of age, emphasizing a synergistic action of $A\beta$ and tau. At 12 months, increased $A\beta$ levels per se were able to reduce MMP, because a significant reduction was present also in APP/PS2 mice, but the reduction of MMP was more pronounced in tripleAD mice.

Complex IV activity was decreased in APP/PS2 and tripleAD cortices at 8 months of age, but not in pR5, confirming related findings that it is mainly the $A\beta$ pathology that affects complex IV activity, both in vivo and in vitro (22, 25). In APP/PS2 compared with wild-type mice, an impairment of OXPHOS as detected by decreased oxygen consumption was seen at this age, suggesting an earlier and stronger effect of the $A\beta$ /APP pathway on this vulnerable mitochondrial system compared with tau, as oxygen consumption of pR5 mitochondria was reduced, but not until the mice reached 24 months of age (4). Similarly, both flux control ratios RCR3/4 and ETS/ROX, which measure metabolic states of mitochondrial respiration, were similarly decreased in APP/PS2 and tripleAD mitochondria, indicating an $A\beta$ -induced increase of the uncoupling state of these organelles. The data indicate that $A\beta$ affects mitochondrial function more extensively and at different levels of respiration and function than tau does, which only shows an early effect on the activity of a single complex of OXPHOS, but evidently increases the vulnerability to $A\beta$ toxicity in vivo. Notably, at 8 months, no change in cellular

energy homeostasis or oxidative stress levels was evident, suggesting an efficient compensatory machinery within brain cells at this age.

However, as the mice aged, impairment of OXPHOS and mitochondrial enzyme activities was aggravated, especially in the presence of both plaques and tangles. Indeed, despite compensatory mechanisms—increased complex I content and CS activity—the defects of complex I and IV became more marked at 12 months, indicating a failure to restore the bioenergetic homeostasis in ^{triple}AD mice as they age. Then, we also observed a difference in oxygen consumption between APP/PS2 and ^{triple}AD mice as well as a drop in ATP levels, with the strongest decrease found in ^{triple}AD, again suggesting a synergistic action of the 2 lesions on mitochondria. These mitochondrial defects were associated with an increase of superoxide anion, as well as cytosolic ROS levels in 12-month-old APP/PS2, and were most pronounced in ^{triple}AD mice, suggesting that at this older age detoxifying mechanisms fail to balance increased ROS production, which in turn might further damage mitochondrial OXPHOS.

In agreement with our functional data, iTRAQ MS identified 3 deregulated subunits of complex I in ^{triple}AD mice: NUCM, NUIM, and NIDM. NUCM likely has a central role within the catalytic core of mitochondrial complex I (26). Interestingly, NUCM and NIDM were up-regulated in ^{triple}AD brain, probably as a compensatory response to the functional failure of OXPHOS. These data nicely correspond with the detected increase in complex I content (detected by HAR activity). Inversely, NUIM, which is thought to participate in the electron transfer and proton-pumping activities of complex I, is down-regulated in ^{triple}AD mice. Together, these findings emphasize that A β and tau synergistically impair complex I function with aging. On the contrary, changes in the expression of complex IV subunits seem to be mainly related to A β . Indeed, a down-regulation of several subunits of complex IV is essentially seen between pR5 and ^{triple}AD mice, but not between APP/PS2 and ^{triple}AD mice. Furthermore, our findings of a mitochondrial dysfunction in ^{triple}AD mice are supported by a significant deregulation of mitochondria-related proteins: calmodulin, a small, ubiquitous Ca²⁺-binding protein, and its putative target, the transmembrane proteolipid pore of the vacuolar or vesicular ATPase (V-ATPase V0) sector subunit a1, with calmodulin functioning in an ATPase V (0)-dependent manner at synapses (27). Interestingly, both proteins are deregulated in ^{triple}AD mice. Deregulation of proteins with expression in glial cells, e.g., myelin basic protein, may indicate additional damage of nonneuronal cells. However, because expression of A β and tau in our mouse models is neuron-specific, mitochondria from neurons likely represent the primary toxic target, but with disease progressing, cells in the vicinity are likely to be also impacted and damaged.

Our findings are in line with recent studies associating A β and tau with oxidative stress (17, 18, 28). Moreover, APP transport was shown to be impaired by elevated tau, suggesting a possible link of the 2 proteins (28, 29). Oligomeric A β can attach to tau (30, 31), causing a rapid dissociation of tau from microtubules and a collapse of axonal structures leading initially to synaptic malfunction and ultimately, neuronal death. Interestingly, A β may not only be located to the cell surface but also directly interact with mitochondria (20) as it can be imported into mitochondria via the translocase of the outer membrane (TOM) machinery (32). A crucial role for mitochondria in AD is further underpinned by findings linking maternal inheritance of mitochondrial DNA to both predisposition of AD and glucose hypometabolism (33) that may reflect energy disturbances as found, e.g., in our ^{triple}AD model.

Together, our studies highlight the key role of mitochondria in AD pathogenesis, and the close interrelationship of this organelle and the two main pathological features of the disease.

This was obtained by combinatorial transgenesis, quantitative proteomics, and functional assays. We show that disturbances in the respiratory and energy system of ^{triple}AD mice are due to (i) a convergence of A β and tau on mitochondria, accelerating defects in respiratory capacity, and (ii) a main defect in mitochondrial complexes I and IV. Moreover, we found (iii) that age-related oxidative stress may exaggerate the dysfunctional energy metabolism in a vicious cycle, finally leading to cell death. Our data complement those obtained in a second ^{triple}TG mouse model (34). They may contribute to a better understanding of these biochemical pathways and assist in the development of antioxidative treatments. Importantly, we could reveal defects of mitochondrial respiratory capacity and a failure to restore energy homeostasis in mice with plaques and tangles in vivo, consolidating the idea that a synergistic effect of tau and A β augments the pathological deterioration of mitochondria.

Materials and Methods

Mice Used for the Studies. Four strains of mice were investigated: single-transgenic pR5 (7), double-transgenic APP/PS2 (6), a crossbreeding (^{triple}AD) (11), and nontransgenic wild-type littermate controls. For the proteomic analysis, 6 female mice were killed from each strain at 10 months of age, and forebrains dissected. For the functional studies, 7–12 female mice were killed from each strain at the age of 2, 4, 8, 12, and 16 months to identify the age when functional changes start, and forebrains dissected (see *SI Methods* and *Table S2* for details).

Proteomic Approach. Crude synaptosomal preparations of forebrains from freshly killed mice were obtained for proteomic studies. The proteins were labeled using the iTRAQ technique and separated by both reverse-phase and strong cation exchange HPLC. Data were acquired by NanoLC-ESI MS/MS mass spectrometry and submitted to ProteinPilot for processing (see *SI Methods* for all details).

Cellular Analysis. Brain cells were obtained to determine mitochondrial function. The membrane potential of the inner mitochondrial membrane was measured using the dye tetramethylrhodamine ethyl ester (TMRE) and the dye rhodamine 123 (R123) (4). ATP content was determined using a bioluminescence assay (ViaLightTM HT; Cambrex Bio Science) (14). The total amount of mitochondria was measured using the cell-permeable mitochondria-selective dye. Finally, levels of ROS were measured using the fluorescent probe H2DCF-DA, and levels of superoxide anion radical using DHE (see *SI Methods* for all details).

Studies of Isolated Mitochondria. Mitochondria were isolated from mouse forebrains to investigate mitochondrial OXPHOS and respiratory capacity. Mitochondrial oxygen consumption was measured at 37 °C using an Oroboros Oxygraph-2k system (4, 21). Several mitochondrial enzyme activities (complex I, complex IV, and citrate synthase) were examined (13, 21) (see *SI Methods* for details).

Statistical Analysis. For statistical comparison in functional studies, Student's *t* test, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post hoc test, and 2-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post hoc tests only for the oxygen consumption protocol, were used. Only *P* values <0.05 were considered as statistically significant. Data are represented as means \pm SEM.

For iTRAQ statistics, *P* values were calculated for each protein ratio reported in the Pro GroupTM Algorithm Results using ProteinPilotTM Software (Applied Biosystems). To be considered as significantly deregulated, iTRAQ ratios had to satisfy the criterion *P* value <0.01 and 0.82 < iTRAQ ratio < 1.2 (see *SI Methods* for all details).

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