

1 Type-I Interferons in Alzheimer's Disease and Other
2 Tauopathies

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4 Sophie Andrea Izumi Sanford¹ & William A McEwan¹

5 ¹ UK Dementia Research Institute at the University of Cambridge, Hills Road, Cambridge,

6 CB2 0AH, United Kingdom

7

8 For correspondence: ss2575@cam.ac.uk, wm305@cam.ac.uk

9 **Abstract**

10 The detection of pathogen-associated molecular patterns can elicit the production of type-I
11 interferons (IFNs), soluble cytokines that induce a transcriptional state inhibitory to viral
12 replication. Signatures of type-I IFN-driven gene expression, and type-I IFNs themselves,
13 are observed in the central nervous system during neurodegenerative diseases including
14 Alzheimer's disease and other tauopathies, the umbrella term for diseases that feature
15 aggregation of the cytosolic protein tau. The contribution of the type-I IFN response to
16 pathological progression of these diseases, however, is not well understood. The wholesale
17 transcriptional changes that ensue from type-I IFN production can both promote protective
18 effects and lead to damage dependent on the context and duration of the response. The
19 type-I IFN system therefore represents a signalling pathway with a potential disease-
20 modifying role in the progression of neurodegenerative disease. In this review we summarise
21 the evidence for a type-I IFN signature in AD and other tauopathies and examine the role of
22 aggregated proteins as inflammatory stimuli. We explore both the protective role of IFN
23 against protein pathologies as well as their downstream toxic consequences, which include
24 the exacerbation of protein pathology as a potentially destructive feed-forward loop. Given
25 the involvement of type-I IFNs in other neurodegenerative diseases, we draw comparisons with
26 other categories of homotypic protein aggregation. Understanding how type-I IFN influences
27 progression of AD and other tauopathies may yield important insight to neurodegeneration
28 and identify new targets in an area currently lacking disease-modifying therapies.

29 Introduction

30 Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common form of dementia and is anticipated to affect
31 more than 113 million people worldwide by 2050 (Knopman *et al.*, 2021). AD is
32 characterised by two distinct pathologies in the post-mortem brain (Alzheimer, 1907).
33 Plaques of beta-amyloid (A β) peptide, a cleavage product of the transmembrane protein,
34 amyloid precursor protein (APP), accumulate in the extracellular spaces of the brain. In
35 addition, fibrillar and hyperphosphorylated assemblies of the microtubule-associated protein
36 tau accumulate in the cytoplasm of neurons (Goedert and Spillantini, 2006). Mutations in
37 *APP* can lead to dominantly inherited, early-onset variants of AD, though these inherited
38 forms make up less than 1% of AD cases (Laurent, Buée and Blum, 2018a). The 'amyloid
39 cascade hypothesis' places A β pathology as an upstream, causative insult that unleashes a
40 range of ensuing consequences including tau pathology and neurotoxicity (Hardy and
41 Higgins, 1992). However, clinically targeting A β has so far failed to yield cognitive benefit
42 (Karran and De Strooper, 2022). This has directed focus towards other targets such as tau
43 lesions, which correlate strongly with cognitive decline (Nelson *et al.*, 2007).

44 Tau assemblies are present in a range of neurodegenerative diseases alongside AD,
45 classed as tauopathies. Several non-synonymous point mutations in *MAPT*, the gene that
46 encodes tau, give rise to familial inherited tauopathies such as frontotemporal lobar
47 degeneration with tau-immunoreactive inclusions (FTLD-tau) (Goedert, 2018). These
48 findings establish tau as a causative factor in pathological progression, at least in these rare
49 diseases and potentially more broadly in the tauopathies. In Pick's disease (PiD),
50 progressive supranuclear palsy (PSP) and corticobasal degeneration (CBD), tau pathology
51 is the main, often sole observed protein pathology (Spillantini and Goedert, 2013). The
52 mechanism that leads to the assembly of tau during neurodegeneration is uncertain. Cell-
53 autonomous mechanisms likely drive the earliest tau pathology, which is apparent in the
54 majority of human brains by the age of 30 years (Braak and Del Tredici, 2015). Misfolded tau
55 may also act in a 'prion-like' manner promoting its propagation through iterative rounds of
56 seeded aggregation. Injection of mouse brains with tau assemblies can induce tau
57 aggregation in the neurons of the recipient animal (Clavaguera *et al.*, 2009; De Calignon *et*
58 *al.*, 2012; L. Liu *et al.*, 2012). Similar results can also be obtained in cell-based and *ex vivo*
59 models (Frost, Jacks and Diamond, 2009; Guo and Lee, 2011; McEwan *et al.*, 2017; Miller *et*
60 *al.*, 2021). While the contribution of this process to disease progression remains
61 undetermined, a unifying feature of AD and several tauopathies is inflammation.

62 Microglia are a critical component of the brain's innate immune response, the first line of
63 defence against foreign pathogens during infection. This response limits the early replication
64 of pathogens while adaptive immune responses are generated (Le Bon and Tough, 2002).

65 Pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs) or host-derived danger-associated
66 molecular patterns (DAMPs) are recognised by germ-line encoded pattern recognition
67 receptors (PRRs) on the surface of, and inside, host cells (Iwasaki and Medzhitov, 2004;
68 Roh and Sohn, 2018). Microglia are the major site of PRR expression in the brain, though
69 other cell types, particularly astrocytes, also contribute. Engagement of PRRs can result in
70 the transcription of cytokines such as interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), interleukin-6 (IL-6), tumour
71 necrosis factor (TNF) and type-I interferons. Each of these have specific roles, including
72 recruitment of professional immune cells and the orchestration of the adaptive immune
73 response. Type-I IFNs comprise IFN- α and IFN- β and have a critical role in inducing an
74 antiviral state in infected and neighbouring cells. They exert this function by binding to the
75 type I IFN receptor complex (IFNAR) and initiating signalling through kinases JAK1/TYK2
76 which in turn phosphorylate STAT1 and STAT2 transcription factors (**Figure 1**). This leads to
77 the upregulation of around 2,000 genes in humans, a response that is conserved across
78 mammals (Shaw *et al.*, 2017). As well as their antiviral effects, type-I IFNs have a further
79 role in dampening pro-inflammatory cytokines (Prinz *et al.*, 2008; Goldmann, Blank and
80 Prinz, 2016). Each of the major cell types of the CNS retain the ability to both produce and
81 respond to type-I IFN (**Supplementary Tables 1, 2 and 3**), though astrocytes and microglia
82 are considered the major sources of production (Scheu *et al.*, 2019).

83 Inflammation is a key feature of the degenerating brain. In AD, inflammatory markers,
84 including TNF, IL-1 β and type-I IFN precede the appearance of symptoms (Taylor *et al.*,
85 2014; Taipa *et al.*, 2019). and chronically activated, dysfunctional microglia are widespread
86 in the post-mortem brain (Tarkowski *et al.*, 2003; Navarro *et al.*, 2018). Reactive microglia
87 can be found associated with sites of both tau and A β pathologies (Serrano-Pozo *et al.*,
88 2011). In tauopathies that do not feature A β plaques, activated microglia increase
89 proportionately with tau pathology and are found in close proximity to sites of aggregation
90 (Paulus, Bancher and Jellinger, 1993; Gerhard *et al.*, 2006; Malpetti *et al.*, 2020). It is now
91 understood that prolonged immune activation can exacerbate protein aggregation in AD and
92 tauopathies (reviewed by (Wyss-Coray and Mucke, 2002a; Laurent, Buée and Blum,
93 2018b)). As major players in the response to infection, and in the degenerating brain, the
94 role of type-I IFNs has come under scrutiny.

95 **Type-I IFN signature of Alzheimer's Disease and Tauopathies**

96 Transcripts of IFN α/β and downstream IFN-stimulated genes (ISGs), are significantly higher
97 in brains of AD and clinical dementia patients compared to controls (Taylor *et al.*, 2014; Roy
98 *et al.*, 2020). The expression of IRF7, a transcription factor regulating type-I IFN production,
99 and itself an ISG, is strongly correlated with Braak stage and clinical stage. This elevated

100 IRF7 expression is reflected at the protein level in the prefrontal cortex of AD patients (Taylor
101 *et al.*, 2014; Roy *et al.*, 2020). Larger scale transcriptomic approaches in AD and other
102 tauopathies also show that there is a complex signature of type-I IFN-mediated immune
103 suppression and activation (Rexach *et al.*, 2020). Genome wide association studies (GWAS)
104 implicate genetic variation in innate immune response pathways as important contributors for
105 AD and tau-associated dementias. Polymorphisms in several innate immune genes,
106 including ISGs, are associated with AD risk (Salih *et al.*, 2019). This includes OAS1, a
107 cytosolic RNA sensor responsible for degrading cellular and viral RNAs (Magusali *et al.*,
108 2021). Primary tauopathies have also been associated with mutations in TBK1, a key kinase
109 involved in type-I IFN production. A type-I IFN signature is therefore a key characteristic in
110 AD and other tauopathies with a potential disease-modifying role.

111 **Protein pathologies and ageing contribute to a type-I IFN signature**

112 Protein assemblies are themselves agonists of the type-I IFN response. A β_{1-42} assemblies
113 stimulate IFN α/β production in primary neurons, as well as in glial and choroid plexus
114 epithelial cell cultures (Taylor *et al.*, 2014; Mesquita *et al.*, 2015; Minter *et al.*, 2016). Pattern
115 recognition receptors such as toll-like receptor 2 (TLR2) and TLR4, have been identified as
116 receptors for assemblies of A β_{1-42} (S. Liu *et al.*, 2012; Hughes *et al.*, 2020) and of
117 phosphorylated tau (Meng *et al.*, 2022). This signalling can elicit a downstream IFN
118 response. Tau assemblies can further stimulate type-I IFN via a cytosolic microglial receptor,
119 polyglutamine binding protein 1 (PQBP1) (Jin *et al.*, 2021) and can activate STAT1 (Li *et al.*,
120 2019) (**Table 1**). Protein assemblies may therefore be considered as endogenously-derived
121 molecular patterns that provoke innate immune responses similar to PAMPs.

122 In mouse models of A β pathology, transcriptomic analysis shows that there is an increased
123 population of IFN-responsive microglia which highly express ISGs (Sala Frigerio *et al.*, 2019;
124 LC *et al.*, 2021; Yang *et al.*, 2021). Lineage tracing reveals that these ISG-expressing
125 microglia accumulate progressively in amyloid disease models until a majority of microglia
126 displays evidence of ISG expression (Roy *et al.*, 2022). Similarly, for tau, animal models
127 demonstrate a type-I IFN signature early in the neurogenerative process (Rexach *et al.*,
128 2020). Genetic deletion of *Ifnar* reduces the phagocytic capacity of microglia and dampens
129 the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines in response to A β_{1-42} . This suggests that type-I
130 IFNs are produced and are important for mediating downstream clearance of aggregates
131 and onward inflammatory events.

132 Ageing itself has been shown to be associated with high levels of type-I IFN in the CNS.
133 Baruch *et al.* report an age-dependent type-I IFN production at the choroid plexus (Baruch *et*
134 *al.*, 2014). This has a detrimental effect on cognition which can be reversed by anti-IFNAR

135 antibody administration. Therefore, even in the absence of specific protein pathology, age-
136 related effects contribute to a type-I IFN signature in the brain. Taken together the above
137 data suggest that stimuli for the production of type-I IFN likely derive from multiple sources:
138 age-related activation of innate immunity, protein aggregates engaging PRRs and, once
139 disease is established, DAMPs arising from tissue damage related to neurodegeneration.
140 The consequences of chronic type-I IFN production in the CNS on the development of
141 further pathology are not fully elucidated. However, accumulating evidence suggests that a
142 chronic IFN response in the brain is a source of toxicity and potentially exacerbates protein
143 aggregation, thereby setting in motion a destructive feed-forward loop.

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Table 1: Summary of studies addressing the production of type-I IFNs in *ex vivo* and *in vitro* models of AD and tauopathy.

<i>Reference</i>	<i>Study Design</i>	<i>Key Observation</i>
<i>Taylor et al., 2014</i>	A β ₁₋₄₂ treated primary neurons from WT or Ifnar1 ^{-/-} mice	Upregulation of IFN- α / β . Reduced proinflammatory cytokine production in Ifnar1 ^{-/-} neurons
<i>Xue et al., 2021</i>	Oligomeric A β -treated organotypic slice cultures	Anti-IFNAR administration reduces A β -stimulated microglial phagocytosis of synapses
<i>Roy et al., 2020</i>	Nucleic acid-amyloid-treated organotypic slice cultures	Secretion of IFN- α / β . Anti-IFNAR administration reduces nucleic acid-amyloid-stimulated complement C3 expression
<i>Mesquita et al., 2015</i>	A β ₁₋₄₂ treated choroid plexus epithelial cells	Upregulation of IFN- α / β and IFN response genes
<i>Minter et al., 2016</i>	A β ₁₋₄₂ treated primary glial cultures	Upregulation of IFN- α / β . Supernatants from A β ₁₋₄₂ treated Ifnar1 ^{-/-} cultures are less neurotoxic and have reduced proinflammatory cytokines
<i>Jin et al., 2021</i>	Oligomeric/fibrillar tau-treated primary microglia	Upregulation of IFN- α / β and IFN response genes
<i>Li et al., 2019</i>	Tau overexpression in HEK293 cells	Increased activation of STAT1. IFN not measured.
<i>Meng et al., 2022</i>	THP-1 human macrophages treated with hyperphosphorylated tau aggregates	Upregulation of IFN- β and CCL5

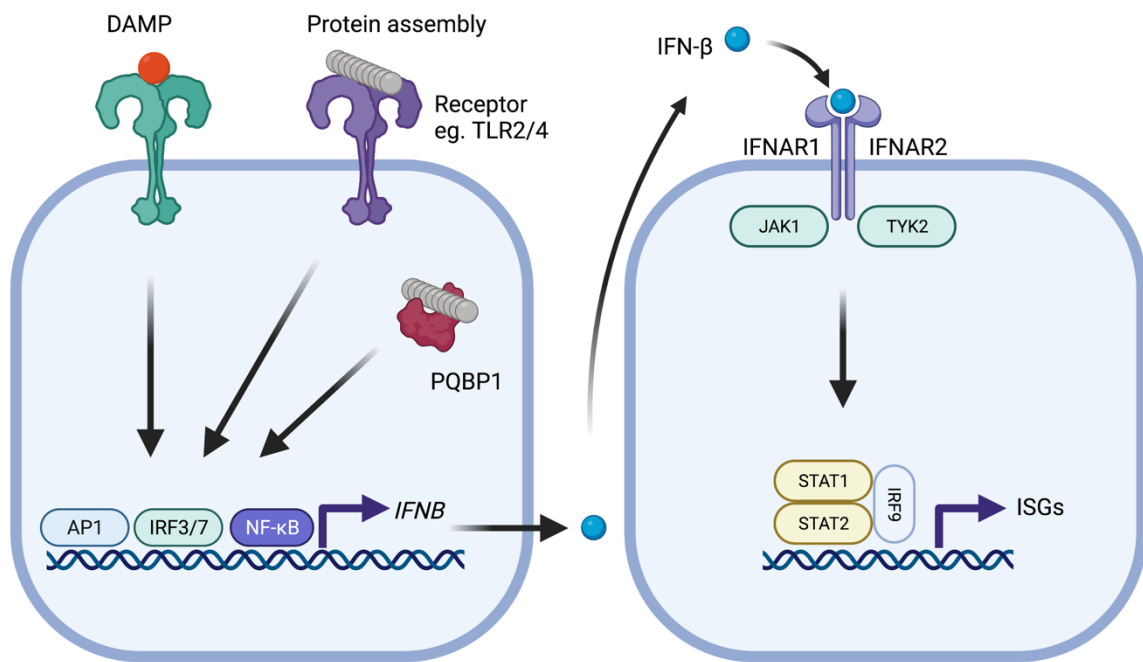
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150 **The role of Type-I IFNs in disease pathology**

151 In the periphery, type-I IFNs provide potent protection against infection, yet lead to toxic
152 consequences when over-produced. Dysregulated IFN production leads to severe disease
153 states, exemplified by inherited interferonopathies which have severe symptoms that mirror
154 viral infection (Crow and Stetson, 2021). In neurodegeneration, type-I IFN is emerging as a
155 central mediator of cascading toxic consequences. Loss of type-I IFN signalling is protective
156 in APP/PS1 mice and 5xFAD mice, alleviating synapse loss and microglial activation (Minter
157 *et al.*, 2016; Roy *et al.*, 2020, 2022) (**Table 2**). Consistent with this model, administration of
158 IFN- β to WT mice promotes microglial activation, neurotoxicity and synapse loss (Roy *et al.*,
159 2020). In transgenic mice expressing human tau, cognitive impairment is ameliorated when
160 STAT1 signalling is blocked (Li *et al.*, 2019). Beyond a model of toxicity, further evidence
161 suggests that type-I IFNs can promote further protein aggregation. In mouse models, β -
162 amyloid pathology is ameliorated under conditions of *Ifnar* genetic deletion (Roy *et al.*, 2020,
163 2022). The effect of IFN on tau aggregation remains unclear, though agonists of the IFN
164 response such as LPS exacerbate pathology (Lee *et al.*, 2010). This raises the prospect that
165 an inappropriate innate immune response to protein aggregates sets in motion a destructive
166 feed-forward loop by inducing further protein aggregation via type-I IFN.

167 Despite these multiple toxic effects of type-I IFN in the CNS, the view that its production is
168 universally detrimental is not supported by other findings, particularly in acute settings. APP
169 overexpression by lentiviral transduction or A β_{1-42} peptide delivery to the mouse brain
170 induces pro-inflammatory cytokine production. This can be reduced by administration of IFN-
171 β , consistent with the anti-inflammatory effects of type-I IFN (Chavoshinezhad *et al.*, 2019;
172 Mudò *et al.*, 2019). Furthermore, genetic knockout of IFN- β is associated with reduced
173 autophagic clearance and accumulation of ubiquitinated alpha-synuclein aggregates in mice
174 (Ejlertskov *et al.*, 2015). One possibility is that IFNs, while protective in acute settings, lead to
175 damage when chronically over-produced, consistent with the 'double-edged sword'
176 hypothesis of innate immune activation in neurodegeneration (Wyss-Coray and Mucke,
177 2002b). This would broadly align with our understanding of IFN in peripheral infection: that
178 IFNs are highly protective when appropriately expressed yet can unleash severe damage
179 when dysregulated or chronically over-produced.



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181 **Figure 1. Type-I IFN signalling in the context of neurodegenerative disease.** Protein
 182 assemblies such as β -amyloid and tau activate innate immune signalling through interactions
 183 with cell surface receptors such as TLR2 and TLR4 or intracellular receptors such as
 184 PQBP1. Damage associated molecular patterns similarly provoke activation of signalling.
 185 Activation of downstream signalling pathways, notably AP1, IRF3 or IRF7 and NF- κ B, leads
 186 to production of IFN- β which subsequently binds to the type-I IFN receptor complex
 187 comprising IFNAR1 and IFNAR2 that is expressed on all nucleated cells. Following type-I
 188 IFN binding, the IFNAR receptor complex initiates signalling through the adaptor kinases
 189 JAK1 and TYK2 leading to activation of STAT1/STAT2/IRF9 heteromultimers. This complex,
 190 referred to as ISGF3, migrates to the nucleus and induces transcription of interferon-
 191 stimulated genes (ISGs) that possess interferon-sensitive response element (ISRE). The
 192 protein products of these genes help establish an antiviral state and include several innate
 193 immune sensors.

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Table 2: Summary of studies evaluating type-I IFNs in *in vivo* models of AD and tauopathy

<i>Reference</i>	<i>Study Design</i>	<i>Key Observation</i>	<i>Type-I IFN: Helpful/ Harmful in disease?</i>
<i>Taylor et al., 2014</i>	Chimaeric mouse/human APP (Swedish mutation) and mutant human Presenilin overexpression in mice (APP/PS1)	Upregulation of IFN- α in whole brain	
<i>Xue et al., 2021</i>	Human APP and presenilin with five AD-linked mutations overexpressed in mice (5xFAD)	Upregulation of IFN signalling in microglia	
<i>Roy et al., 2020</i>	5XFAD, APP/PS1 mice and knock-in humanised APP mice with three AD-linked mutations (APP ^{NL-G-F})	Upregulation of IFN response genes in hippocampus	
<i>Mesquita et al., 2015</i>	Human APP (Swedish and Iberian mutations) overexpression in mice (J20)	Upregulation of IFN response genes in choroid plexus	
<i>Rexach et al., 2020</i>	Human tau (P301L mutation) overexpression in mice (Tg4510)	Phosphorylated tau pathology correlates with transcription of IFN response genes	
<i>Li et al., 2019</i>	WT mice overexpressing human tau	Upregulation of phosphorylated STAT1. Blocking STAT1 signalling ameliorates synapse loss and cognitive impairment	Harmful

<i>Minter et al., 2016</i>	Ifnar1 ^{-/-} APP/PS1 mice	Ifnar1 ^{-/-} reduces microgliosis, proinflammatory cytokine secretion and ameliorates cognitive impairment	Harmful
<i>Ejlerskov et al., 2015</i>	IFN- β ^{-/-} and WT mice	Increased neuronal apoptosis and cognitive impairment in IFN- β ^{-/-} mice. Lewy bodies containing phosphorylated tau are increased in IFN- β ^{-/-} mice	Helpful
<i>Chavoshine zhad et al., 2019</i>	IFN- β administration to APP overexpressing mice (lentivirus)	IFN- β alleviates memory impairments and reduces proinflammatory cytokines (IL-1 β , TNF α)	Helpful
<i>Mudò et al., 2019</i>	IFN- β administration to A β ₁₋₄₂ injected rats	IFN- β alleviates memory impairments and reduces proinflammatory cytokine production induced by A β ₁₋₄₂	Helpful
<i>Roy et al., 2020</i>	IFN- β administration to WT mice	IFN- β increases synapse loss and microglial activation	Harmful
<i>Roy et al., 2020</i>	Anti-IFNAR administration to 5xFAD mice	Anti-IFNAR administration alleviates synapse loss and microglial activation	Harmful
<i>Roy et al., 2022</i>	Microglia/Neuron specific Ifnar1 knockout in 5xFAD mice	Ifnar1 ^{-/-} in microglia reduces post-synaptic loss and in neurons reduces A β plaque accumulation	Harmful
<i>Barnett et al. 2022</i>	Human APP (Swedish), Mutated tau and presenillin overexpressing mice (3xTg-AD)	PTau181 and A β ₁₋₄₂ correlate strongly with IFN α in the hippocampus of mice with adolescent intermittent ethanol	

200 **Type-I IFNs in models of prion and Parkinson's disease**

201 Interesting parallels for tauopathies can be sought by examining other protein misfolding
202 diseases of the CNS. Parkinson's disease (PD) is characterised by the aggregation of the
203 cytosolic protein alpha-synuclein. Prion diseases such as Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease in
204 humans and scrapie in other animals are driven by the conversion of a membrane-anchored
205 protein, PrP, to a misfolded variant. Genetic depletion of signalling components such as
206 IRF3, Ifnar, TLR4 and TLR2 render mice more susceptible to the scrapie variant of PrP,
207 PrP^{Sc}. This suggests a protective role for type-I IFNs in the recognition and control of prion
208 assemblies (Ishibashi *et al.*, 2012, 2019; Carroll *et al.*, 2018). However even here, type-I IFN
209 production comes at a cost, as Nazmi *et al.* show that neuronal death is accelerated by Ifnar-
210 dependent signalling (Nazmi *et al.*, 2019).

211 In PD, type-I IFN and ISG transcripts are upregulated, similar to observations in AD and
212 other tauopathies (Main *et al.*, 2016). The effects of type-I IFN appear to be model-
213 dependent. In one model of PD, neuronal loss is induced by 1-methyl-4-phenyl-1, 2, 3, 6-
214 tetrahydropyridine (MPTP) injection. Blockade of IFN signalling using anti-Ifnar antibodies
215 suppressed dopaminergic neuronal death, suggesting that type-I IFN signalling is neurotoxic
216 (Main *et al.*, 2016). In contrast, genetic deletion of IFN- β caused the formation of α -syn-
217 positive Lewy body structures and reduced autophagic clearance (Ejlertskov *et al.*, 2015). As
218 in the tauopathies, these findings again point to production of type-I IFN having an important
219 role in protection against protein aggregation, but with over-production likely toxic. Any
220 therapeutic intervention by manipulation of the type-I IFN pathway in proteopathies must
221 therefore seek to target the over-production of IFN whilst ensuring that its essential functions
222 in the control of proteinopathy are not unduly compromised.

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224 **Discussion**

225 Type-I IFN plays a critical role in the brain during pathogen infection. Like classical
226 pathogens, aggregated proteins including A β and tau can provoke an immune reaction that
227 includes the production of type-I IFN. *In vivo*, the literature lacks clarity on whether IFNs are
228 harmful or beneficial. Protective effects of type-I IFN have been observed for A β , prion and
229 α -syn especially in short-term challenge experiments, suggesting that common protective
230 mechanisms may be at play. However, type-I IFNs promote downstream toxic
231 consequences which may be amplified in a positive-feedback manner in response to
232 ongoing tissue damage and further protein aggregation. Our understanding of these effects
233 is in its infancy and remains largely without mechanistic detail. Further, for tau pathology,
234 there remains little insight to the effect of IFN signalling due to the lack of studies using
235 genetic knockout or experimental IFN-blockade. Future research should seek to dissect the
236 IFN response at the level of specific ISGs to identify those that aid in limiting protein
237 aggregation versus those that promote toxic downstream consequences. An understanding
238 at this level may allow selective pharmacological intervention to prevent the chronic toxic
239 consequences of IFN signalling in neurodegeneration.

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249 **Author Contributions**

250 Both authors wrote and edited the manuscript. SS collated information used in the tables
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252

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