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IMMEDIATE COMMUNICATION

Tau-dependent suppression of adult neurogenesis in the stressed hippocampus

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Stress, a well-known sculptor of brain plasticity, is shown to suppress hippocampal neurogenesis in the adult brain; yet, the underlying cellular mechanisms are poorly investigated. Previous studies have shown that chronic stress triggers hyperphosphorylation and accumulation of the cytoskeletal protein Tau, a process that may impair the cytoskeleton-regulating role (s) of this protein with impact on neuronal function. Here, we analyzed the role of Tau on stress-driven suppression of neurogenesis in the adult dentate gyrus (DG) using animals lacking Tau (Tau-knockout (Tau-KO)) and wild-type (WT) littermates. Unlike WT, Tau-KO animals exposed to chronic stress did not exhibit reduction in DG proliferating cells, neuroblasts and newborn neurons; however, newborn astrocytes were similarly decreased in both Tau-KO and WT mice. In addition, chronic stress reduced phosphoinositide 3-kinase/mammalian target of rapamycin/glycogen synthase kinase-3 β / β -catenin signaling in the DG, known to regulate cell survival and proliferation in WT but not in Tau-KO. These data establish Tau as a critical regulator of the cellular cascades underlying stress deficits on hippocampal neurogenesis in the adult brain.

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INTRODUCTION

Chronic stress and excessive glucocorticoid (GC) exposure are suggested to increase susceptibility to brain pathology as they are associated with neuroplastic deficits and impaired cognition, as well as mood disorders such as depression.^{1–3} The hippocampus is a well-known target of chronic stress,⁴ with previous studies demonstrating structural and functional changes in the hippocampal formation.^{1,5,6} The dentate gyrus (DG) constitutes the anatomical and functional input of the hippocampus and it suffers from both stress-induced remodeling of the dendritic arbor of its granular cells and suppression of neurogenesis and gliogenesis.^{7–10} However, it is mechanistically unclear how stress precipitates the suppression of cytogenesis in the adult DG as well as whether similar stress-driven pathways operate in the reduction of newborn neuronal and glial populations.

During the neurogenic process, newborn cells require a high degree of cytoskeletal plasticity, which allows them to divide, migrate and differentiate.¹¹ Through its different interacting proteins (e.g. microtubule (MT), actin, Fyn),¹² the Tau protein is involved in different cellular processes such as differentiation and morphogenesis of neurons including axonal growth,^{11–15} synaptic plasticity¹⁶ and regulation of *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptors.¹⁷ The function(s) and localization of Tau depend on its phosphorylation status, with hyperphosphorylation diminishing its MT-binding capacity.^{14,18} Tau–MT interaction may also depend on the expression of different Tau isoforms; for example, Tau isoforms that contain three MT-binding domains (3R-Tau; present in neuroblasts) exhibit lower MT affinity, whereas four MT-binding

domain Tau (4R-Tau), mainly found in mature neurons, binds with higher avidity to MTs. In pathological conditions, namely in Alzheimer's disease, both Tau hyperphosphorylation and abnormal 4R/3R-Tau ratio are related to neuronal atrophy and malfunction^{17,19} accompanied by impaired neurogenesis in the hippocampus.^{11,20–22} Herein, and in light of previous studies showing that chronic stress and GC evoke Tau hyperphosphorylation and accumulation, as well as cytoskeletal disturbances and neurostructural remodeling,^{23–25} we explored the potential involvement of Tau on stress-driven deficits in cell fate, survival and differentiation in the adult hippocampal DG of animals lacking Tau (Tau-knockout (Tau-KO)) and wild-type (WT) littermates.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and experimental design

Six- to seven-month-old male Tau-KO animals²⁶ and their WT littermates (C57BL/6J background) were used in this study. For assessment of cell proliferation, half of the animals were injected with 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU; 50 mg kg⁻¹ per day) for 3 consecutive days before killing. For monitoring cell survival and differentiation, the rest of the animals were injected with BrdU (same injection scheme) 4 weeks before killing (Figure 1a and see also Supplementary Information).

Stress paradigm

Stressed mice were submitted to a 9-week protocol of chronic unpredictable stress consisting of four different stressors:

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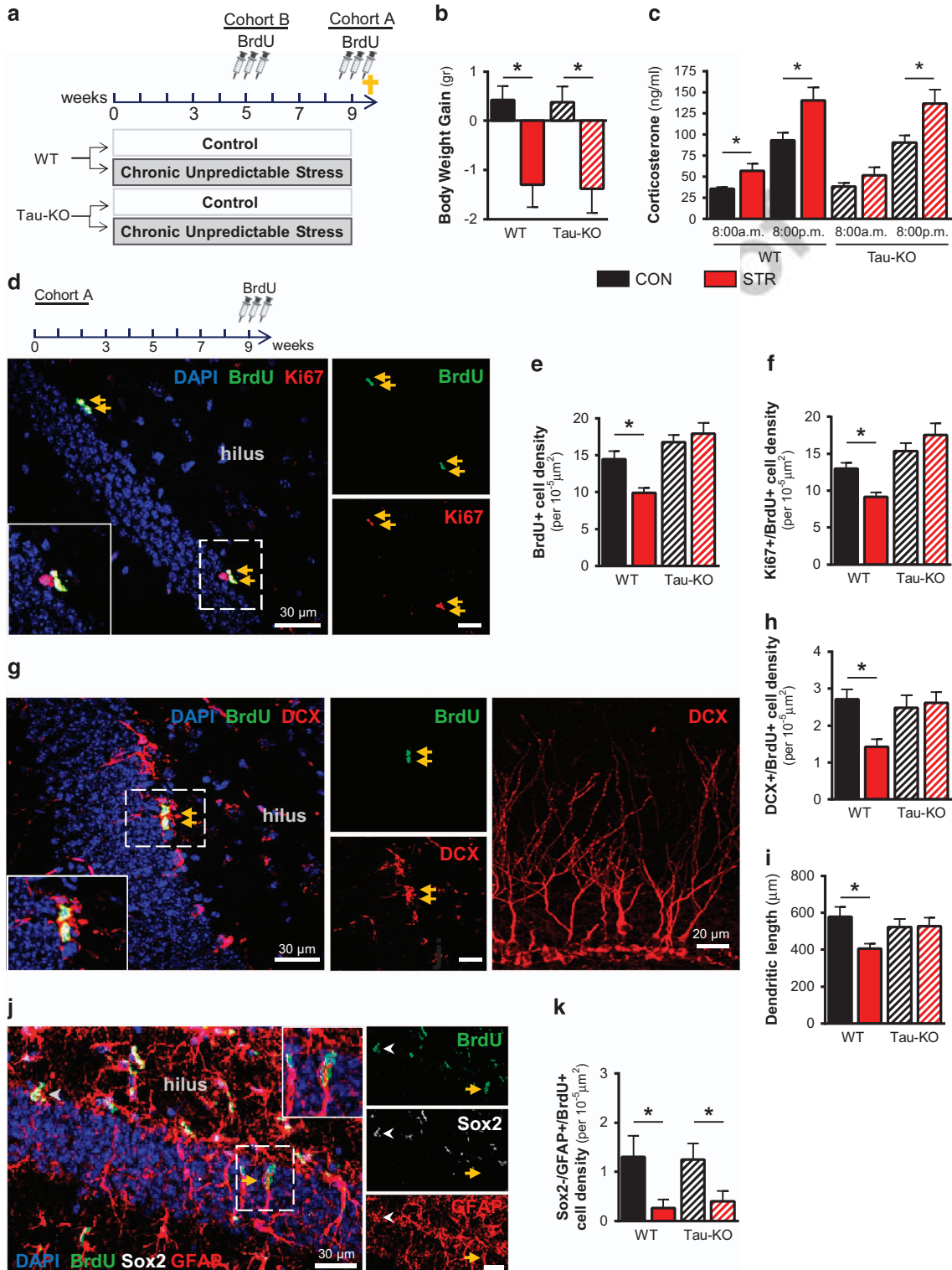
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restraint, vibrating platform, overcrowding and exposure to a hot air stream (one stressor per day for 3 h; 30 min for air stream). The time of the day and the order of stressors were randomly applied for each week as described previously.^{24,27} Three experimental replicates for these studies were used (8–10 mice per group for each experimental replicate). For corticosterone (CORT) measurement, see Supplementary Information.

Immunofluorescent and western blot analysis

For double or triple immunofluorescent staining, coronal or vibratome sections of paraformaldehyde-perfused brains were used and analyzed by confocal microscope (Olympus Fluoview FV1000, Germany) as previously described.^{8,9} To assess cell densities, the corresponding DG areas were determined (Olympus BX51 microscope; Stereo Investigator Software, Microbrightfield, VT, USA). For three-dimensional dendritic reconstruction, confocal



images of doublecortin (DCX) staining were analyzed using the Fiji Software and simple neurite tracer plugin.²⁸ For western blot (WB) analysis, postnuclear protein extracts of macrodissected DG were analyzed as described previously.^{24,25} For more information, see Supplementary Information.

Behavioral testing

In the Contextual Fear Discrimination Learning test, animals were placed in context A for 3 min and received a single 2-s foot shock at the end. The next day and for the following 8 days, animals were placed in two similar contexts for 3 min (the shock-associated context A and the similar, no-shock context B with 1 h difference), which are most likely recruiting the DG as described previously.^{29,30} The discrimination ratio was calculated based on the formula: $\text{Freezing}_{\text{contA}} - \text{Freezing}_{\text{contB}} / \text{Freezing}_{\text{contA+B}}$.³⁰ In the Novel Object Recognition (NOR) test, animals were placed in the test arena, which contained two identical objects (10 min). The next day, animals were presented with a novel object (NO) and a familiar object (FO) (10 min); discrimination index was calculated based on the formula $\text{DI} = (\text{time in spent exploring NO} - \text{time in FO}) / (\text{time in NO} + \text{time in FO})$. In the Y-maze test, each animal was allowed to explore two arms of Y-maze apparatus for 10 min, and 1 h later, animal was placed in the Y-maze apparatus with access to all three arms (5 min). Animal behavior was analyzed with a video tracking system (Viewpoint, Champagne-au-Mont-d'or, France)—see also Supplementary Information.

Statistical analysis

Numerical data are presented as group means \pm s.e.m. All data sets were subjected to two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) before application of appropriate *post hoc* pair-wise comparisons (GraphPad Prism v.6.01; GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA). Values of $P < 0.05$ were considered as significant differences.

RESULTS

Stress-induced reduction of proliferating cells in the DG is blocked by Tau depletion

For monitoring the role of Tau in the modulation of the neurogenic alterations induced by chronic stress, we exposed animals lacking Tau protein (Tau-KO)²⁶ and their WT littermates to a chronic unpredictable stress paradigm for 9 weeks (see Figure 1a). To evaluate stress effects, we monitored body weight and serum CORT levels at the end of the stress protocol. Chronically stressed animals (STR) of both genotypes exhibited decreased weight gain compared with their non-stressed, control (CON) littermates ($p_{\text{WT}} = 0.006$ and $p_{\text{KO}} = 0.01$; two-way ANOVA *Stress* overall effect ($F_{1,76} = 21.7$, $P < 0.001$); Figure 1b). Furthermore, we found an overall effect of *Stress* on basal circulating CORT levels at the onset of the dark period (ZT12/2000 hours; two-way ANOVA, $F_{1,34} = 15.34$, $P = 0.0004$) (Figure 1c); *post hoc* analysis

revealed a significant increase in CORT levels in both stressed WT ($P = 0.03$) and Tau-KO ($P = 0.04$) animals when compared with the corresponding CON (non-stressed) animals. Similarly, we found a *Stress* effect on CORT levels monitored at the beginning of the light phase (ZT00/0800 hours; $F_{1,34} = 6.797$, $P = 0.013$) (Figure 1c).

To evaluate alterations in the fast proliferating cells and the number of newly born cells in the subgranular zone of the DG, animals of cohort A were injected with BrdU (50 mg kg^{-1} per day) for three consecutive days before killing (Figures 1a and d). BrdU immunofluorescence analysis in the DG showed a clear interaction between *Stress* and *Genotype* (two-way ANOVA, $F_{1,32} = 6.538$, $P = 0.015$) in BrdU+ cells density (Figure 1d), with *post hoc* analysis revealing a significant reduction in stressed WT ($P = 0.007$) animals but not Tau-KO ($P = 0.91$) animals when compared with their corresponding CONs (Figure 1e). As BrdU+ cells in the DG remained in clusters of two to four cells, we also monitored the number of DG clusters; similarly to the cell density, two-way ANOVA statistical analysis showed a *Stress* \times *Genotype* interaction in the number of clusters ($F_{1,108} = 7.628$, $P = 0.060$) with stressed WT exhibiting less clusters than stressed Tau-KO ($P = 0.02$; data not shown). In addition, we performed staining with the endogenous cell cycle marker Ki67 (Figure 1d) to analyze the pool of BrdU+ cells that are proliferative. Analysis of Ki67 and BrdU double-labeled cells showed a *Stress* \times *Genotype* interaction in cell density at the DG ($F_{1,26} = 9.498$, $P = 0.004$) with stressed WT animals showing a reduction when compared with CONs ($P = 0.02$). In contrast, stressed Tau-KO animals were not different from non-stressed (CON) Tau-KO ($P = 0.49$) (Figure 1f). No differences were found between CON animals of both genotypes ($P = 0.33$). Moreover, to analyze the total number of proliferating cells, the number of Ki67+ cells were monitored and similar results to Ki67 +/BrdU+ double staining were found (Supplementary Figure 1). All the above findings suggest that the absence of Tau, while not affecting the DG proliferation under CON conditions, blocks the effect of chronic stress on cell proliferation in the adult hippocampal DG.

Tau ablation attenuates the stress-induced suppression of neurogenesis but not astrogenesis

We next evaluate the impact of stress on the DG neuroblasts measuring the BrdU-labeled cells that were costained with DCX, a cytoskeletal protein expressed in neuronal progenitors (Figure 1g, left panel). Two-way ANOVA revealed a *Stress* \times *Genotype* interaction in the density of DCX/BrdU double-labeled cells at the DG ($F_{1,42} = 5.441$, $P = 0.024$). Further analysis showed that exposure to chronic stress reduced the DG density of DCX/BrdU neuroblasts in WT animals ($P = 0.04$); this was not found in the DG of Tau-KO animals where stressed and non-stressed mice exhibited similar levels of this cell sub-population ($P = 0.98$; Figure 1h). Furthermore, we also monitored dendritic length of DCX+ immature neurons in both WT and Tau-KO DGs (see Figure 1g, right panel). We found

Figure 1. Stress-induced suppression of proliferating cells and neuroblasts in the adult hippocampus is blocked by Tau ablation. **(a)** Schematic representation of experimental design where wild-type (WT) and Tau-knockout (Tau-KO) mice were exposed to 9 weeks of chronic stress; control (non-stressed; CON) and stressed (STR) animals of both genotypes were divided into two cohorts receiving 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) injections either immediately (Cohort A) or 4 weeks (Cohort B) before killing. **(b)** and **(c)** STR animals of both genotypes exhibited reduced body weight as compared with their corresponding (CON) counterparts. In addition, chronic stress resulted in elevated corticosterone (CORT) levels in both WT and Tau-KO animals measured at 2000 hours (peak of CORT secretion). **(d)** Representative micrographs of BrdU/Ki67 double-labeled cells in the hippocampal dentate gyrus (DG) of Cohort A animals (BrdU-injected before killing). **(e)** and **(f)** Exposure to chronic stress reduced the density of BrdU+ cells in DG of WT animals of Cohort A; this stress effect was not found in Tau-KO animals **(d)** and **(e)**. Similarly, density of Ki67/BrdU+ cells was reduced in WT animals but not in Tau-KO animals **(d)** and **(f)**. **(g–i)** Microphotographs of immunofluorescent staining of doublecortin (DCX)/BrdU+ cells **(i)** with chronic stress affecting the DCX/BrdU cell density **(h)** and dendritic length **(i)** only in WT animals. **(j)** and **(k)** Immunofluorescent staining of Sox2, GFAP and BrdU where Sox2-/GFAP+/BrdU+ (arrow) and Sox2+/GFAP+/BrdU+ (arrowhead) cells are shown. On the contrary to DCX+ cells, the density of Sox2-/GFAP+/BrdU+ cell population **(j)** was similarly decreased by stress in animals of both genotypes **(k)**. All numerical data are shown as mean \pm s.e.m. (* $P < 0.05$). GFAP, glial fibrillary acidic protein.

that chronic stress reduced dendritic length of immature WT neurons ($P=0.03$) but not Tau-KO neurons ($P>0.99$) (*Stress* × *Genotype* interaction $F_{1,55}=4.23$, $P=0.044$; Figure 1i). Importantly, this stress effect on immature neurons was found in the outer molecular layer (Supplementary Figure 2). We also quantified the pools of glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP)/BrdU double-labeled cells that were also Sox2+ (neural stem cells and progenitors) or Sox2- (newborn astrocytes) (Figures 1j and k and Supplementary Figure 3). Chronic stress had a similar effect on both WT and Tau-KO DG ($P=0.004$ and $P=0.003$, respectively), with significant reductions in the number of Sox2- /GFAP+ /BrdU+ cells (main *Stress* effect, $F_{1,28}=9,994$, $P=0.003$; Figure 1j), while no difference was found among all groups in Sox2+ /GFAP+ /BrdU+ (Supplementary Figure 3).

Next, we monitored the effect of chronic stress on the generation and survival of adult born neurons using a different cohort of animals that were injected with BrdU (for three consecutive days) 4 weeks before killing (Figure 2a). Two-way ANOVA analysis of BrdU-stained cells showed a clear interaction between *Stress* and *Genotype* in BrdU+ cell density ($F_{1,26}=4.366$, $P=0.046$) with stressed WT exhibiting a reduction compared with their CONs ($P=0.04$). Interestingly, stress had no effect on Tau-KO animals ($P=0.81$) (Figure 2b). These findings suggest that chronic stress reduces the number of newly generated cells in the DG of adult WT animals, whereas Tau ablation blocks this effect of stress. To assess the phenotype of these BrdU-labeled cells, we performed double labeling of neuronal (NeuN) or GFAP and BrdU. Our statistical analysis showed a *Stress* × *Genotype* interaction on NeuN/BrdU+ cell density (two-way ANOVA; $F_{1,26}=4.321$, $P=0.047$), demonstrating that chronic stress reduced the number of newborn neurons in WT DG but not in Tau-KO DG ($P=0.03$ and $P=0.90$, respectively) (Figure 2c). Furthermore, analysis of Sox2- /GFAP+ /BrdU+ population in this cohort (see Figures 2d and e) exhibited an overall effect of *Stress* on cell density of this population ($F_{1,30}=17,59$, $P<0.0001$) with stress affecting both WT and Tau-KO animals ($P=0.03$ and $P=0.02$, respectively) (Figure 2d); no differences were found in Sox2+ /GFAP+ /BrdU+ cell sub-population (Supplementary Figure 4). Similar results were obtained when we used another marker to label neural stem cells, BLBP (Supplementary Figure 5). Altogether, these findings provide further support for a selective role of Tau in the stress-triggered reduction of neuroblasts and newly born neurons, but no astrocytes, in the adult DG.

Chronic stress triggers Tau hyperphosphorylation and alteration of Tau isoforms in adult DG

As previous studies have shown that chronic stress triggers Tau hyperphosphorylation and accumulation,²⁴ we next monitored the effect of stress on Tau using both immunofluorescence and WB analysis. As shown in Figure 3, levels of phosphorylated Tau at epitopes Ser396/404 (using PHF1 antibody) and Thr231 were increased in the DG of stressed WT ($P=0.02$ and $P=0.03$, respectively), whereas total Tau levels were not significantly altered by stress (Figures 3a, f and g). Measurement of 3R-Tau, characteristically expressed in early stages of neurogenesis (e.g. neuroblasts), showed that chronic stress significantly reduced its expression ($P=0.02$), whereas levels of 4R-Tau, mainly expressed in mature neurons, were increased in WT DG ($P=0.03$) (Figures 3a and g). Furthermore, in line with our WB analysis, we found that chronic stress increased the density of 4R-Tau+ cells ($P=0.04$) as well as PHF1/BrdU+ cells ($P=0.03$) in DG of WT animals (Figures 3i–l), which was also reflected in a significant increase in the percentage of PHF1+ cells among the BrdU DG sub-population in stressed animals ($P=0.04$; data not shown).

Differential impact of stress on neuroplastic signaling and cognitive function in WT and Tau-KO animals

We next monitored the phosphoinositide 3-kinase/mammalian target of rapamycin/glycogen synthase kinase-3β/β-catenin (PI3K/mTOR/GSK3β/β-catenin) molecular pathway, known to regulate cell survival and proliferation in the adult DG^{31,32} (Figures 3a–e). Molecular analysis of the DG revealed that chronic stress decreases PI3K protein levels in WTs ($P=0.04$) while there is a tendency to increase it in Tau ($P=0.07$) (two-way ANOVA, *Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,42}=8.373$, $P=0.006$) (Figures 3a and b). Furthermore, chronic stress decreases the levels of mTOR in WT ($P=0.014$) but has no effect on Tau-KO DG ($P=0.558$) (*Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,42}=4.206$, $P=0.046$; Figures 3a and c). In line, immunofluorescent analysis revealed a stress-driven reduction in density of mTOR/BrdU+ cell population of WT, but not Tau-KO, DG (*Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,30}=4.223$, $P=0.047$; Figures 3m and n). Furthermore, exposure to chronic stress increased levels of pTyr216-GSK3β in WTs ($P=0.026$) followed by corresponding increased cytoplasmic levels of β-catenin in WTs only ($P=0.026$) (*Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,42}=7.016$ $P=0.011$; Figures 3a and d). Note that these stress-evoked changes were not found in Tau-KO animals, suggesting that absence of Tau is involved in activation of GSK3β, as recently shown.³³ Altogether, the above findings indicate that chronic stress suppresses the PI3K-driven cellular cascade related to reduced mTOR levels and simultaneously increases the levels of active GSK3β; as a result, there is diminished cell proliferation and survival^{32,34} (Figure 3h).

The hippocampus is a key brain structure regulating memory while animals with reduced DG neurogenesis exhibit deficits of hippocampus-dependent cognitive functions.^{30,35} Thus, we monitored pattern separation as well as spatial and recognition memory using the Contextual Fear Discrimination Learning, Y-maze and NOR tests (Figure 4). Our findings show that exposure to chronic stress reduced the discrimination ratio in WT at days 7 and 8 (both $P<0.05$; Figure 4b) reflecting stress-driven cognitive deficits in animals ability to distinguish between two similar contexts (context A and context B), recruiting the DG^{29,30} (Figure 4; see also Supplementary Information). Note that there was no stress effect on Tau-KO animals (*Stress* × *Genotype* interaction $F_{1,30}=5.336$, $P=0.027$; Figures 4a–c). In the Y-maze test (Figure 4d), we also found an interaction between *Stress* and *Genotype* on duration and frequency that animals visit the novel arm of the Y-maze apparatus ($p_{dur}=0.019$; $p_{frequ}=0.010$) but not in Tau-KO animals (Figures 4e and f). The above findings were in agreement with the NOR results where stressed WT animals exhibited reduced discrimination index compared with their corresponding CONs ($P=0.035$), whereas stressed and CON Tau-KOs exhibit no differences ($P=0.861$) (two-way ANOVA *Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,70}=6.122$, $P=0.015$) (Figures 4g and h). Moreover, stressed WT animals but not Tau-KO animals exhibited increased anxiety levels as assessed by reduced time (WT $P=0.003$; Tau-KO $P=0.83$) that animals spend in the open arms of the elevated plus maze apparatus (two-way ANOVA *Stress* × *Genotype* interaction; $F_{1,44}=6.682$, $P=0.001$) (Figures 4i and j).

DISCUSSION

Prolonged exposure to stressful conditions and excessive GC levels is known to suppress hippocampal neurogenesis in adult brain.^{4,6,8} While the suggested underlying mechanisms include GC-driven glutamate release and *N*-methyl-D-aspartate receptors signaling³⁶ and/or reduced levels of growth/neurotrophic factors,³⁷ little attention has been given to the importance of

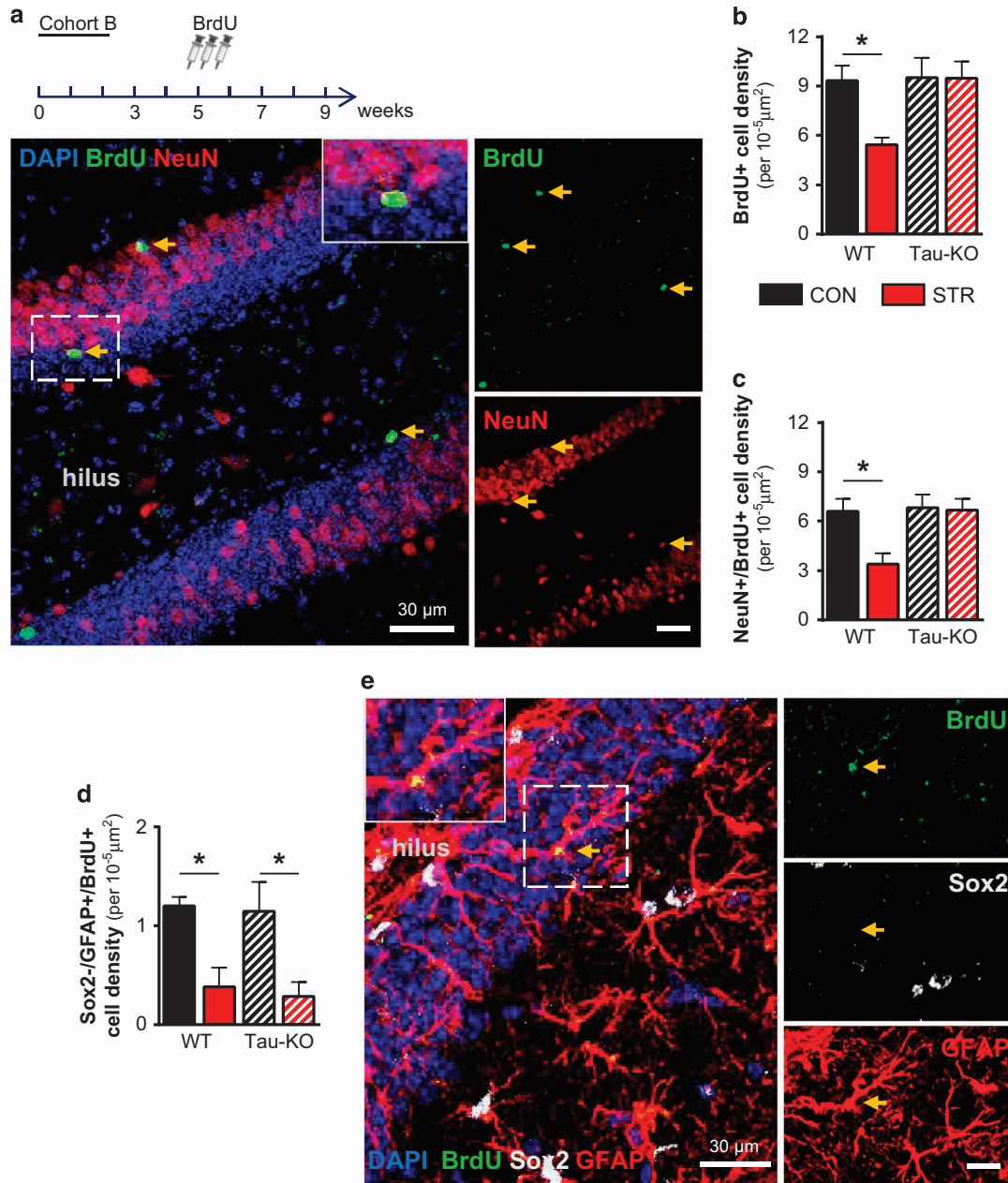


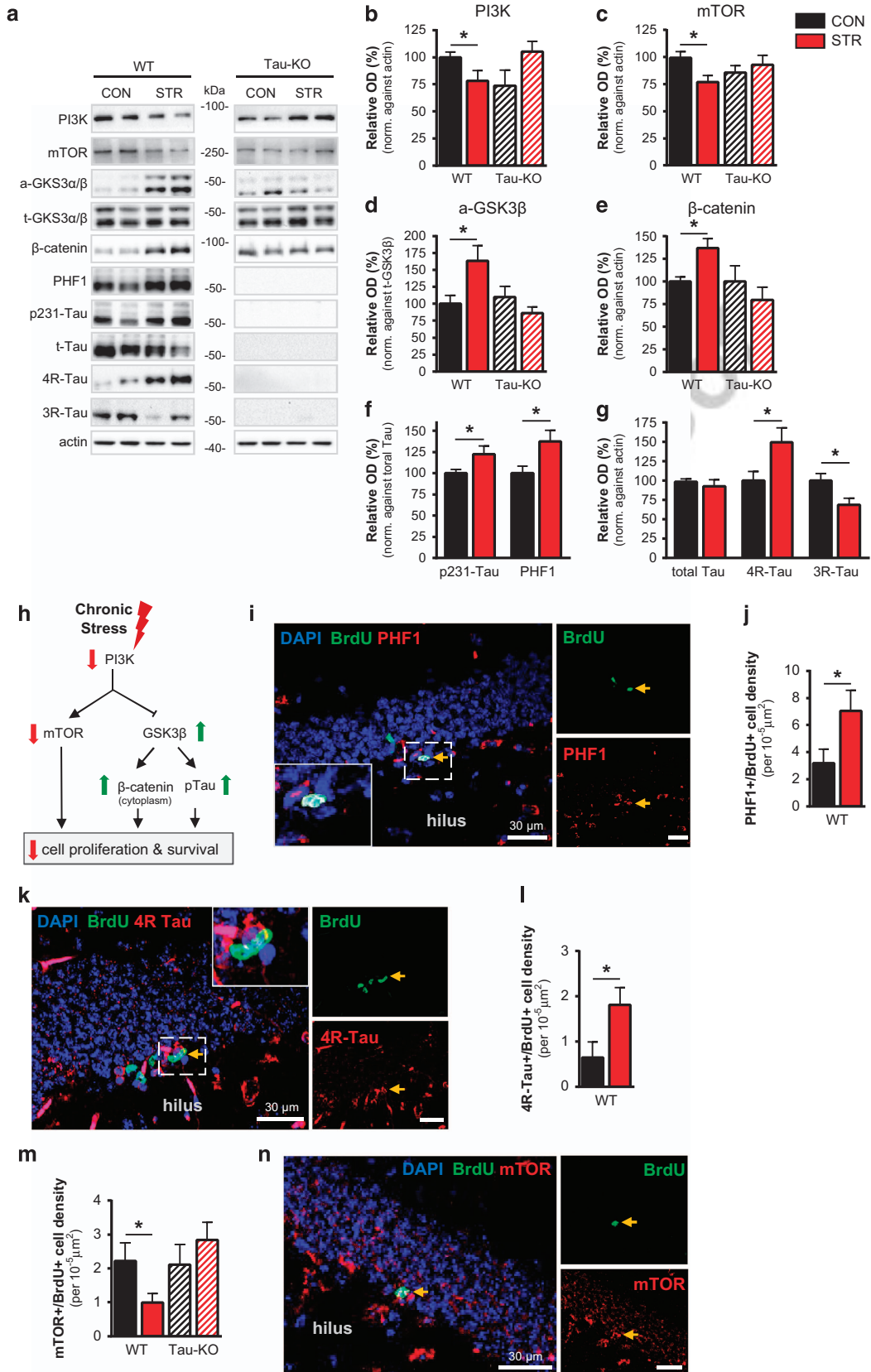
Figure 2. Absence of Tau attenuates the stress-driven neurogenic, but not astrogenic, deficits in adult dentate gyrus (DG). (**a–e**) DG analysis of animals injected with 5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) 4 weeks before killing (Cohort **b**) with NeuN/BrdU (**a**) and GFAP/BrdU (**e**) double immunofluorescent staining. (**b**) Chronic stress evoked a decrease of BrdU+ cell density in WT DG but not in Tau-knockout (Tau-KO) DG. (**c**) Similarly, stress reduced the cell density of double-labeled NeuN/BrdU population in this cohort (reflecting newborn neurons) only in WT animals. (**d** and **e**) In contrast, chronic stress reduced the density of Sox2-/GFAP+/BrdU+ cells (representing newborn astrocytes) in animals of both genotypes. All numerical data are shown as mean ± s.e.m (**P* < 0.05). GFAP, glial fibrillary acidic protein; NeuN, neuronal.

cytoskeletal dynamics in newborn cells, which allows them to divide, migrate, differentiate and synaptically integrate into the pre-existent hippocampal network. Given that Tau has an important role in regulating neuronal architecture and function through its interaction with different cellular targets (e.g. MTs, F-actin, Fyn),¹² and the fact that stress and GC are known to trigger Tau hyperphosphorylation,^{23,24} this study monitored the involvement of Tau in the suppression of hippocampal neurogenesis by chronic stress. We demonstrated that Tau ablation blocks the detrimental effect of chronic stress of proliferating cells, neuroblasts and newborn neurons, but not astrocytes, in the adult DG indicating a critical role for Tau in the stress-induced DG

neurogenic impairment. These findings complement our recent demonstration that dendritic atrophy of (pre-existed) hippocampal and cortical neurons triggered by exposure to chronic stress was attenuated in animals lacking Tau.^{38,39} Altogether, these findings highlight Tau protein as a key mediator of the deleterious effects of stress on hippocampal plasticity and function, related to both dendritic remodeling of (old) neurons and on the genesis of newly born neurons in adult brain. Interestingly, the absence of Tau did not block the suppressive role of chronic stress on the astrocytic population. This finding is likely related to the differential expression of Tau in these cell population (Tau is mainly expressed in neurons, with low Tau levels being found in

astrocytes⁴⁰), but it may also suggest that different cellular cascades operate in the stress-triggered reduction of newborn neuronal and glia populations.

Tau protein is described to regulate cytoskeletal assembly and dynamics participating in different cytoskeleton-involving cellular process including axonal branching, neuronal polarity, axonal



transport and intracellular trafficking.^{12,14,15} However, adult Tau-KO animals do not display behavioral, neurostructural or axonal abnormalities^{26,41} Accordingly, all different DG sub-populations (proliferating cells, neuroblasts, newborn astrocytes and neurons) monitored in this study were not altered in Tau-KO under CON (non-stressed) conditions when compared with their WT littermates.^{11,42} The absence of Tau-KO phenotype may reflect the recruitment of compensatory mechanisms during brain development, for example, through altered expression of other cytoskeletal proteins.^{26,43} In addition, it is reported that Tau-KO

cells exhibit a transient delay in their dendritic maturation,⁴² which may explain why, in adult brain neurons, no severe neurostructural or proteomic differences were found.^{38,39} However, accumulating evidence suggests that Tau protein may be necessary for the manifestation of changes of brain plasticity in adult brain (related to both dendritic plasticity and neurogenesis) driven by different intrinsic and extrinsic conditions such as A β ⁴⁴ and hibernation,^{45,46} as well as acute and chronic stress.^{39,42}

Similarly to brain development,^{47,48} the expression of 3R- and 4R-Tau isoforms is shifted during adult neurogenesis.¹¹

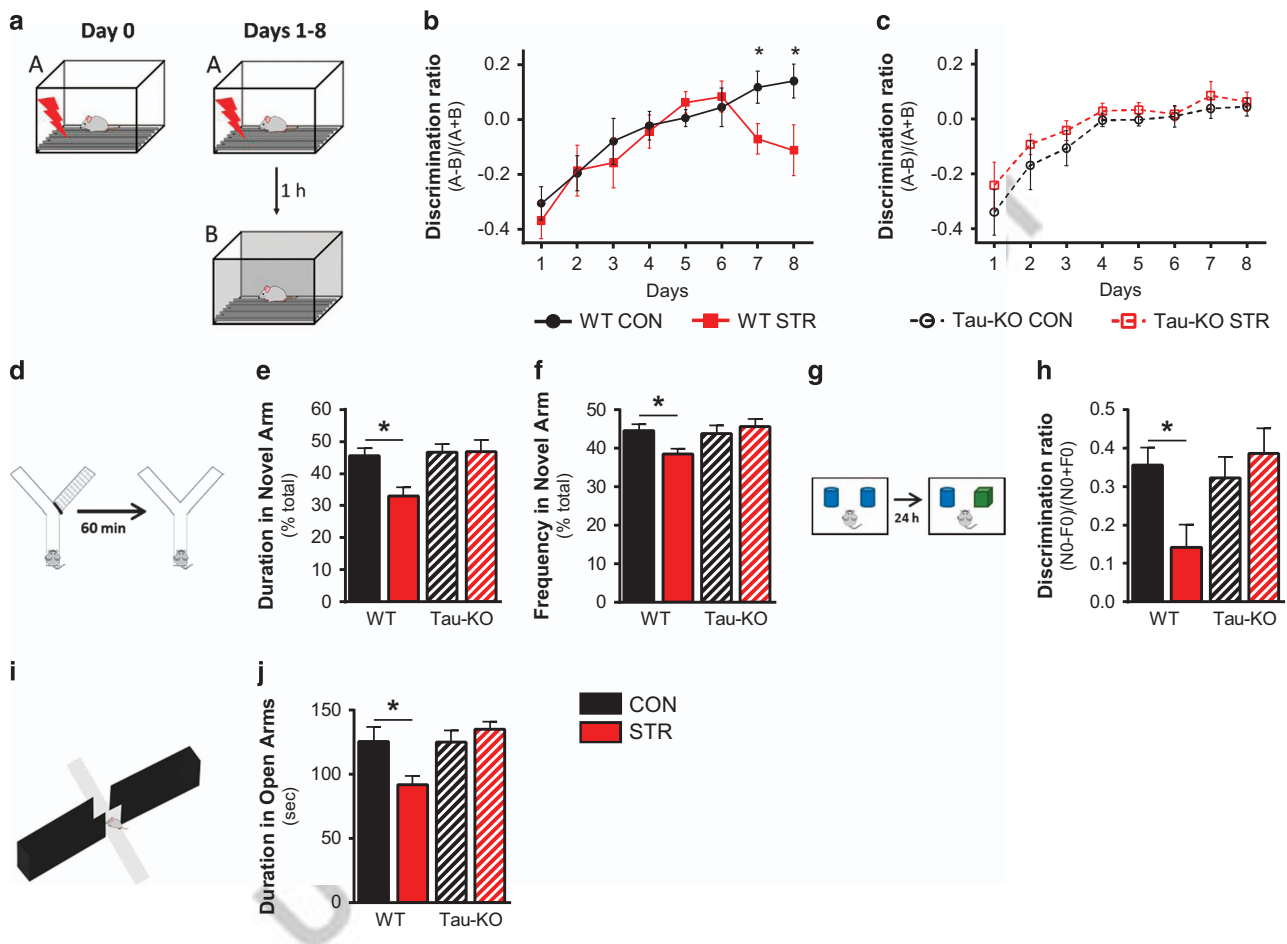


Figure 4. Cognitive deficits evoked by stress are attenuated in Tau-knockout (Tau-KO) animals. (a) Experimental design of the test discrimination between two similar contexts, the shock-associated context A and the shock-free context B. (b and c) Chronic stress decreased the discrimination ratio in days 7 and 8 in wild-type (WT) animals but not Tau-KO animals. In the Y-maze test (d), stressed WT animals exhibited reduced duration (e) and frequency (f) of visits in novel arm of apparatus as compared with control (CON) WTs; this reduction was not observed in Tau-KO animals. (g and h) Similarly, discrimination index in the Novel Object Recognition (NOR) test (g) was reduced by stress in WT animals but not Tau-KO animals (h), suggesting a significant resilience of Tau-KO animals against cognition-improving effect of stress. (i and j) Chronic stress also reduced the time that WT animals but not Tau-KO animals spent in open arms of elevated plus maze (EPM) apparatus indicating anxious behavior. All numerical data are shown as mean \pm s.e.m. (* $P < 0.05$).

Figure 3. Chronic stress suppresses neuroplastic signaling in adult dentate gyrus (DG) in a Tau-dependent manner. Representative blots (a) and quantification (b–g) of the cellular cascades (h) analyzed in DG of wild-type (WT) and Tau-knockout (Tau-KO) animals. Chronic stress reduces the expression of phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) (b) and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) (c) protein levels followed by increased levels of (active) pTyr216-GSK3 β (d) and β -catenin (cytoplasm) (e) in DG of WT animals but not in Tau-KO animals. In addition, phosphorylation levels of Tau at Thr231 and Ser396/404 (PHF1) epitopes are increased by chronic stress in WT DG (f). Furthermore, while it did not affect total Tau protein levels, exposure to chronic stress increased the protein levels of 4R-Tau isoforms, whereas decreased 3R-Tau levels in WT DG (g). (i–n) Representative microphotographs and quantification of PHF1/BrdU+ (i and j), 4R-Tau/BrdU+ (k and l) and mTOR/BrdU+ (m and n) cells in DG showing the impact of chronic stress in line with findings of above western blot (WB) analysis. All numerical data are shown as mean \pm s.e.m. (* $P < 0.05$).

Specifically, 3R-Tau isoforms, which bind with less avidity to MTs, are present in neuroblasts, which is viewed as relevant to endow these cells with the necessary cytoskeleton plasticity.¹¹ On the other hand, 4R-Tau isoforms, which exhibit higher affinity to MTs, are mainly expressed in mature neurons offering the necessary stability for the establishment/maintenance of dendritic/axonal structures of the newly integrated neuron. Our findings show that chronic stress increases the 4R/3R-Tau ratio in DG without affecting total Tau levels. Increased expression of 4R-Tau (without change of total Tau) is recently shown to lead to increased Tau phosphorylation and brain pathology.⁴⁹ Another study based on human pluripotent stem cell-derived neurons from patients with *tau* mutation relates premature developmental expression of 4R-Tau, changes in 4R/3R-Tau and hyperphosphorylation status with abnormal, earlier neuronal maturation.⁵⁰ Moreover, imbalance of 4R/3R-Tau and the consequent cytoskeletal disturbances are causally related to neuronal pathology in Tau pathologies such as Alzheimer's disease where impaired adult neurogenesis are also found^{20,22,51} (but also see Boekhoorn et al.⁵²). Importantly, genetically induced expression of 4R-Tau is shown to suppress proliferation in cells⁵³ and mouse hippocampus,⁵⁴ leading to downregulation of transcripts involved in cellular growth and proliferation. Given that alterations in the tight CON of Tau phosphorylation and isoform specificity can result in aberrations of proliferation,^{55,56} our findings showing that chronic stress also increases Tau phosphorylation in DG of WT animals in epitopes Thr231 and Ser396/404 (the later detected by PHF1 antibody) are of particular relevance. Previous studies already suggested that increased PHF1-detected Tau phosphorylation in neuroblasts and newly differentiating neurons may underlie, at least in part, the impaired DG proliferation and neuronal maturation in prepathological stages of Alzheimer's disease Tg animals.²¹ Combined with 4R/3R imbalance, the stress-driven increase in phosphorylation of these epitopes, shown to decrease MT affinity of Tau,⁵⁷ could impair the complex and tight regulation of Tau diminishing the cellular CON over the cytoskeletal dynamics and network essential for proliferating cells and neuroblasts.¹⁴ Based on the current findings suggesting stress-driven disturbances on critical and interdependent parameters of Tau dynamics (isoforms and phosphorylation), future studies should monitor the impact of chronic stress on DG of animals with conditional deletion of specific Tau isoforms to clarify further the interplay and individual contribution of altered expression of Tau isoform, as well as phosphorylation in stress-driven neurogenic deficits.

The above Tau phosphoepitopes are targets of the kinase GSK3 β ,^{57,58} whose active form (phosphorylated at Tyr216) is also increased in hippocampal DG of stressed WT animals but not of stressed Tau-KO animals. GSK3 β is an essential component of the Wnt signaling pathways, with activation of PI3K inhibiting GSK3 β and, in turn, triggering the translocation of β -catenin from the cytoplasm to the nucleus promoting proliferation and survival of progenitor cells.^{31,34,59} Our findings suggest that chronic stress suppresses the above pathway in WT animals, which certainly helps to understand the stress-driven reduction of WT hippocampal neurogenesis. In line with the recently reported blockage of GSK3 β activation in A β -driven Alzheimer's disease cellular model by Tau ablation,³³ our findings show that exposure to chronic stress revealed a Tau-dependent activation of GSK3 and reduction of the levels of mTOR in DG; a recent work shows that GSK3 also suppresses mTOR signaling in the hippocampus,⁶⁰ whereas reduced levels or inhibition of mTOR reduces DG neurogenesis.³² While the mechanistic understanding of Tau role on GSK3 β activation is under intensive investigation, the current findings are in agreement with previous experimental studies showing that chronic stress and/or GC activate GSK3 β ,^{23,24} as well as a suppression of mTOR signaling in the hippocampus.^{61–63} Importantly, human studies report deficits in mTOR signaling in PFC of patients of depression,⁶⁴ a disease state related to chronic

stress and reduced neurogenesis.^{1,2} A possible way through which mTOR impacts on neurogenesis may include the regulation of the spatial and local CON of Tau mRNA translation promoting axonal formation⁶⁵ as mTOR inhibition is known to reduce the expression levels of Tau protein and blocks neuronal polarity in the developing neuron.⁶⁵ While other cellular pathways cannot be excluded (for a review see Egeland et al.⁶⁶), this study provides novel evidence that Tau could serve as an essential protein involved in the neurogenic deficits evoked by chronic stress in the adult hippocampus. This is in line with a very recent study showing that forced swim test, an acute stressor, caused Tau-dependent neurogenic deficits.⁴² As differences of stress duration and severity may exhibit differential impact of brain connectome and function,⁶⁷ future studies should clarify whether the cellular role of Tau is similar under acute and chronic stress conditions and also monitor the potential beneficial role of blockage of GC receptors under stress^{23,66,68} as both stress-induced Tau hyperphosphorylation and suppressed neurogenesis can be, at least partly, mimicked by GC administration.^{24,69} Overall, our current findings add novel mechanistic insights about Tau involvement into the cellular cascades that convey the pathogenic role of chronic stress in brain plasticity and open new pathways for strategies designed to mitigate its deleterious effects.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Uncorrected Proof