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Title: Strain phenomenon, an intrinsic feature of prion-like disorders

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Abstract: Prion diseases or Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathies (TSEs) are a group of fatal neurodegenerative disorders affecting several mammalian species. Its causative agent, disease-associated prion protein (Pr^{Pd}), is a self-propagating β -sheet rich aberrant conformation of the cellular prion protein (Pr^{PC}) with neurotoxic and aggregation-prone properties, capable of inducing misfolding of Pr^{PC} molecules. Pr^{Pd} is the major constituent of prions and, most importantly, is the first known example of a protein with infectious attributes. It has been suggested that similar molecular mechanisms could be shared by other proteins implicated in diseases such as Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis or systemic amyloidoses. Accordingly, several terms have been proposed to collectively group all these disorders. Through the stringent evaluation of those aspects that characterise TSE-causing prions, in particular propagation and spread, strain variability or transmissibility, we will discuss whether terms such as "prion", "prion-like", "prionoid" or "propagon" can be used when referring to the aetiological agents of the above other disorders. Moreover, it will also be discussed whether the term "infectious", which defines a prion essential trait, is currently misused when referring to the other misfolded proteins.



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To the Guest Editor,

Dear Dr Sorgato,

Please find enclosed the **review** entitled " **Strain phenomenon, an intrinsic feature of prion-like disorders**" which we are submitting (after reviewing) for your consideration to be published in BBRC (special issue Stem Cells), **Si:Neurodegeneration**.

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'J. Castilla', written over a light blue grid background.

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Dear Editor,

Thank you very much for considering our manuscript and for the thorough revision which undoubtedly will improve its quality.

We have introduced all the suggested changes.

I am sure that this new version of the manuscript has been strongly improved.

Sincerely,

Joaquín Castilla

Highlights

- Protein misfolding-related disorders share molecular mechanisms with prion diseases
- Common mechanisms include self-templated propagation and spreading at least
- There are growing evidences supporting other shared features as strain variability
- Transmissibility, often confused with infectivity, needs to be further assessed
- Grouping these disorders under a common term requires assessing all the mechanisms

1 **Prion-like disorders. An overview on mechanistic features shared with Transmissible**
2 **Spongiform Encephalopathy- causing prions**

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 Prion diseases or Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathies (TSEs) are a group of fatal
20 neurodegenerative disorders affecting several mammalian species. Its causative agent, disease-
21 associated prion protein (PrP^d), is a self-propagating β -sheet rich aberrant conformation of the
22 cellular prion protein (PrP^C) with neurotoxic and aggregation-prone properties, capable of inducing
23 misfolding of PrP^C molecules. PrP^d is the major constituent of prions and, most importantly, is the
24 first known example of a protein with infectious attributes. It has been suggested that similar
25 molecular mechanisms could be shared by other proteins implicated in diseases such as Alzheimer's
26 disease, Parkinson's disease, amyotrophic lateral sclerosis or systemic amyloidoses. Accordingly,
27 several terms have been proposed to collectively group all these disorders. Through the stringent
28 evaluation of those aspects that characterise TSE-causing prions, in particular propagation and
29 spread, strain variability or transmissibility, we will discuss whether terms such as "prion", "prion-
30 like", "prionoid" or "propagon" can be used when referring to the aetiological agents of the above
31 other disorders. Moreover, it will also be discussed whether the term "infectious", which defines a
32 prion essential trait, is currently misused when referring to the other misfolded proteins.

33

34 **Introduction**

35 The notable growth of age-related neurodegenerative disorders linked to increased life
36 expectancy has boosted considerably investigations to determine their pathogenesis. The intensive
37 research during the last two decades has shown that a common feature of all neurodegenerative
38 disorders is the presence of aggregates of misfolded proteins in specific regions of the nervous
39 system. This is the case in Alzheimer's Disease (AD), which is characterized by accumulation of
40 Amyloid beta (A β) peptides and tau [1], the latter being also a marker for the so-called tauopathies
41 such as Frontotemporal Dementia (FTD) [2]; Parkinson's Disease (PD) with α -synuclein aggregates
42 [3]; Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) showing aggregates of Transactive Response DNA Binding
43 Protein 43 (TDP-43) and Cu-Zn Superoxide Dismutase 1 (SOD-1) [4]; Transmissible Spongiform
44 Encephalopathies (TSEs), e.g., Creutzfeldt-Jacob Disease (CJD) in humans, scrapie in sheep or Bovine
45 Spongiform Encephalopathy (BSE) in cattle, characterized by prions that, originating from a
46 conformation remodeling of a cellular protein named prion protein (PrP^C), have been the first
47 example of proteinaceous agents with self-perpetuating aggregation and infectious characteristics
48 [5]. Systemic amyloidosis is also part of the growing family of protein misfolding-related diseases.
49 Among the many types of this syndrome - caused by various serum precursor proteins - reactive

50 amyloid A (AA) amyloidosis [6] is one of the best characterised, and will thus serve as example to
51 analyze prion-like features that could be common to all systemic amyloidoses.

52 The known similarities in the molecular mechanisms of these diseases have led to their
53 grouping under several terms according to their resemblance to prion features. However, the
54 divergent opinions on a single term that would most suitably represent protein misfolding-related
55 diseases have resulted in a multitude of terms including “prion”, “prion-like”, “prion-related”,
56 “propagon” or “prionoid” [7-9]. The preference of the present authors for the term “prion-like” is
57 because not all of the molecular features of prions have been shown to be present in the other
58 protein-misfolded agents, which automatically excludes the term “prion”. Although “prion-related”
59 or “prionoid” could be equally valid, it is our opinion that the term “prion-like” is the most clearly
60 descriptive and least confusing to group all those diseases that share some, but not all, of the
61 molecular properties described for prions found in TSEs.

62 Because of the different proteins involved in, and clinical signs of, the above disorders, it was
63 initially assumed that a specific pathogenic mechanism was responsible for each of the various
64 diseases. However, similarities emerged during the early 1980s when meticulous molecular studies,
65 initially describing the biophysical traits of the amyloid deposits [10, 11], were rapidly followed by
66 the identification of a common process responsible for the misfolding and amyloid aggregation of
67 disease-specific proteins. A key step forward was provided by Stanley Prusiner over two decades ago
68 who, within the frame of the protein-only-hypothesis [12], proved experimentally that the TSE
69 etiologic agent was the self-templated misfolding of PrP^C into an infectious and neurotoxic isoform,
70 PrP^d [13]. More recent research has proposed (and generally proven) that the seeding ability, the
71 aggregate-prone feature and the cell-to-cell transmission characteristic of prions, may also pertain
72 to other proteins eventually generating amyloid plaques [14], e.g., A β and tau, α -synuclein, SOD-1
73 and TDP-43 [15-18]. It is important to mention, however, the frequently detected uncoupling
74 between the cognitive decline in the mentioned disorders and the amyloid load, and the finding that
75 soluble oligomers are the likely neurotoxic species that form early in the protein misfolding cascade
76 [19]. Sadly, the precise mechanism leading to synaptic dysfunctions and neuronal death, and the
77 formulation of potentially common therapeutic approaches, are not yet available. Attention will thus
78 be devoted to whether or not prions and prion-like proteins have common pathological mechanisms
79 and potential inter-individual transmissibility.

80 Finally, because the intriguing strain-like variability has long been suspected and thoroughly
81 studied in the prion field, the possibility that this concept can also apply to each neurodegeneration-
82 causing misfolded protein will be discussed in detail. Importantly, this issue links to the classic axiom
83 “one protein - one structure” (paraphrasing Afinsen concept) [20] that several reports apparently

84 now render obsolete [21-25]. In the prion field, for example, by studying the biochemical and
85 structural traits of PrP^d isolated from different TSEs it transpired that different conformations were
86 generated from an identical amino acid sequence with identical post-translational modifications.
87 Following the statement by Balch and colleagues (2008): “The misfolding and aggregation of proteins
88 is often an accident waiting to happen. Consequently, organisms have developed sophisticated
89 chaperone and quality-control systems to limit abnormal protein interactions and the accumulation
90 of toxic aggregates” [26], and the recent description of strain-like variants of several misfolded
91 proteins, it seems that the above statement can be further expanded such that, if a protein is able to
92 misfold naturally, almost unavoidably it may be able to acquire a diversity of misfolded forms.

93 A detailed description of traits putatively shared by disease-related misfolded proteins will
94 now be given and discussed.

95

96 **Self-templating, propagation and spreading**

97 **Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathies (TSEs)**

98 TSEs or prionopathies are a group of neurodegenerative disorders affecting several mammalian
99 species including humans, characterised by spongiform changes in the brain, synaptic dysfunction,
100 neuronal loss and variable amyloid deposits. As mentioned, these features are related to the
101 conformational misfolding of PrP^C into a β -sheet rich, infectious, transmissible and aggregation
102 prone isoform named PrP^d. The initial misfolding event can be spontaneous, or caused by mutations
103 in the gene coding for PrP^C (as in familial forms of the disease), or because PrP^d is acquired from
104 prion-affected materials of the same or different species [5]. Initially considered impossible, it is now
105 widely accepted that PrP^d serves as template for the conversion of PrP^C [13] and recent research
106 suggests that this mechanism may occur in other protein-related disorders [27-30]. Transmissibility
107 of the TSE-causing infectious agent became evident as early as scrapie was described, given the
108 spreading of the disease among animals of a flock. Due to the limited knowledge on molecular
109 biology, until the 1960s most of the theories on TSE etiology were directed to the “slow virus”
110 hypothesis [31]. It was the observation that physico-chemical methods able to neutralize virus were
111 useless to inactivate the TSE-causing agent the first clue about its particular nature [21, 32-35]. In
112 light of this evidence, Griffith proposed that the scrapie agent was proteinaceous and also offered
113 possible mechanisms to explain how a protein could be infectious and how could be controlled
114 genetically or either occur spontaneously [12]. Based on this theory, Prusiner coined the term prion
115 (*proteinaceous infectious particle*) and undoubtedly demonstrated its proteinaceous nature by
116 inactivating the agent by methods that destroy proteins [21, 36]. The search of the gene encoding

117 this infectious protein revealed soon that it was a host cellular gene expressed in both infected and
118 uninfected brain tissue [37, 38]. The immunity of transgenic mice devoid of this gene to prion
119 infection showed that the pathogenic form of the protein was propagated at the expense of the
120 cellular isoform [39]. Using biophysical techniques, it became clear that PrP^C and pathogenic PrP^d
121 differed in their structural arrangement [40, 41]. Finally, although detailed molecular mechanism is
122 still lacking, the structural differences shown by different prion strains and the conservation of the
123 particular structural features upon transmission to new hosts, established the self-templated
124 misfolding induction as the propagation mechanism for the TSE-causing agent [42-44].

125 Further confirmation of the protein-only hypothesis was provided by the development of *in vitro*
126 methods which allowed the generation of infectious prions from recombinant prion protein
127 produced in bacteria [45]. The spreading of prions – that is to say, the distribution over an area of
128 space – either from cell-to-cell, from one tissue to another or from an affected individual to another,
129 is determined by their self-templated propagation mechanism coupled to the ability of overcoming
130 the protein-quality-control mechanisms in the cell [46, 47]. The cell-to-cell spread of prions seems to
131 be aided by their close proximity [48, 49] and PrP^C attachment to the external cell membrane
132 through a glycolipid anchor [50, 51]. This can occur in association with exosomes or other vesicles
133 [52-54] or through tunneling nanotubes [55]. In order to cause disease, TSE agents must invade the
134 central nervous system (CNS). Thus, spreading between tissues is required after peripheral infections
135 such as oral exposure or blood transfusion. In the first case, prions are taken up by Peyer's patches
136 and transferred to the surface of cells from the lymphoreticular system and then to enteric nerves
137 and to the CNS [56, 57]. However, alternative routes can be used in the case of blood transfusions
138 [58, 59] or intra-tongue inoculations [60]. Finally, host-to-host spread of prions, which defines their
139 transmissibility, is also well documented and is aided by the high physico-chemical resistance of the
140 agent [61]. Actually, prion shedding via skin, feces, urine, milk, nasal secretions, saliva, placenta and
141 carcasses has been reported [62-64]. Indeed, any protein could show prion-like propagation if it
142 were able to acquire a distinctive folding capable of converting adjacent proteins with identical, or
143 similar, amino acid sequences. As long as this conformer can migrate or be transported cell-to-cell
144 and tissue-to-tissue, its spreading can be considered prion-like. In essence, prions or prion-like
145 proteins would be those proteins able to transfer biological information protein-to-protein through a
146 self-templating conformational change.

147 **Alzheimer's disease (AD)**

148 Characterized by the presence of extracellular amyloids, intracellular and extracellular
149 neurofibrillary tangles (NFTs) and neuronal loss, AD is another example of neurodegeneration
150 involving self-templating amyloidogenic proteins. Amyloids are mainly composed of A β peptides of

151 different length (A β 40 and A β 42) originating from a heterogeneous processing of the Amyloid
152 Precursor Protein (APP) by β and γ -secretases. A β peptides form oligomeric complexes that
153 eventually assemble into amyloid plaques [65]. Also NFTs are tightly packed protein filaments
154 composed of the hyper-phosphorylated tau protein, which physiologically acts to stabilize
155 microtubules [1]. Due to mutations in the APP processing found in the familial forms of AD, the
156 possible role of tau as the primary cause of AD has received much less attention [65]. This is despite
157 alterations in tau leading to paired helical filaments prior to NFTs formation in AD, which are also
158 found in the large group of neurodegenerative disorders identified as non-AD tauopathies, including
159 FTD [1]. The self-templating propagation or seeding ability of both A β and tau has been well
160 documented in several *in vitro* systems [66-73], and their cell-to-cell propagation mechanism has
161 been shown also in cell culture models [17, 72, 74-78]. However, there is now little doubt with
162 respect to self-templating propagation and spreading of A β and tau as they have been
163 experimentally reproduced using *in vivo* models [79]. Experiments performed in the early 1990s by
164 Baker and collaborators, in analogy to experiments performed to validate the prion transmissibility
165 [80-82], consisted in inoculating marmosets intracerebrally with brain extracts from human patients
166 with β -amyloid plaques and angiopathy. Although they lacked AD-typical NFTs, the presence of β -
167 amyloidosis in these inoculated animals suggested that β amyloid-containing brain extracts were the
168 seed causing this [83]. Although macaques similarly inoculated behaved likewise [84], these animal
169 models were abandoned with the advent of transgenic mice over-expressing one or more of the
170 human familial AD mutations, as they re-created the human disease with shorter incubation periods.
171 Furthermore, as the majority of models reproduced the spreading of protein misfolding but differed
172 in propagation rates, affected brain areas and the number and type of implicated protein, they can
173 be regarded as proper tools to study transmissibility of exogenous A β [85-94] or tau [15, 95-99]
174 aggregates and to verify the prion-like behavior of, if not the cross-seeding between, the two
175 proteins [100-103]. Importantly, a few studies on animal models proved that the seeding activity
176 could be blocked by treating exogenous aggregates either chemically [104] or with anti-A β
177 antibodies [105], as was previously observed for prions [106].

178 A special mention is deserved to the recent evidence of a likely exogenously-induced A β
179 seeding in humans. Several patients following treatment with prion-contaminated growth hormone
180 not only developed iatrogenic CJD but also amyloid- β pathology and cerebral amyloid angiopathy, in
181 contrast to age-matched, prion disease-affected individuals. These astonishing data suggest a
182 possible iatrogenic form of AD and cerebral angiopathy, acquired through A β -containing growth
183 hormone preparations [107, 108].

184 **Parkinson's disease (PD)**

185 With respect to PD, the seeding ability of α -syn has been proven recently in *in vitro* models
186 [109, 110], including Protein Misfolding Cyclic Amplification [111] originally developed in the prion
187 field, while the cell-to-cell spread was observed in cell culture [78, 112-117]. A particularly
188 remarkable study of the latter type showed that morphologically different intracellular α -syn
189 aggregates correlated with the fibril morphology used as a seed. This supports the idea that PD
190 pathology spreads by conformational dependent self-templating mechanisms [118]. Systemic or
191 intracerebral inoculation in transgenic, and/or wild type, mice of synthetic or brain derived
192 aggregated α -syn, further supports the prion-like seeding and spreading ability of the PD-causing
193 protein [119-123]. Possible direct evidence of this phenomenon can be found in PD-affected
194 individuals who were recipients of neuronal transplants, given that their neural grafts showed Lewy
195 body-like structures composed of post-translationally modified α -syn. Thus, aggregation and
196 deposition in transplanted dopaminergic neurons could have been caused by the misfolded α -syn in
197 the host brain [124-128].

198 **Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)**

199 One of the most recent members joining the “prion-like disorders” group is ALS. ALS is a
200 fatal, rapidly progressing neurodegenerative disease affecting upper and lower motor neurons and
201 characterised by progressive paresis that eventually ends in respiratory failure [129]. As pathological
202 hallmarks, ALS neurons and glial cells show abnormal protein inclusions often labeled by anti-
203 ubiquitin antibodies but containing diverse components. In familial ALS (FALS), which represent
204 about 5-10% of all ALS cases, the major protein in the inclusion bodies is Cu-Zn Superoxide
205 Dismutase 1 (SOD-1). Indeed, approximately 10-20% of FALS are caused by mutations in the SOD-1
206 gene that render SOD-1 prone to adopting detergent-insoluble conformations and to forming
207 aggregates [4]. In the majority of ALS cases, referred to as sporadic ALS, protein inclusions are mainly
208 formed by the TDP-43 protein. However, TDP-43 is also found in some forms of SOD-1 negative FALS
209 and rare FTD cases [4, 130]. Mutations in other proteins have also been linked to FALS, e.g. Fused in
210 Sarcoma/Translocated in Liposarcoma (FUS/TLS), C9ORF72, Profilin 1 (PFN1) and others [130, 131].
211 Despite the diversity of ALS-related proteins that account for the phenotypical heterogeneity of the
212 disease, pathological and clinical similarities imply the existence of a common pathogenesis which
213 remains elusive. Although the number of different proteins implicated poses an obstacle to
214 distinguishing the causes and consequences of protein aggregates, the pattern of spread of the
215 paralysis along neuroanatomically connected regions, and recent research on SOD-1, TDP-43 and
216 FUS/TLS misfolding and self-templating ability, suggest a common prion-like mechanism [4, 132].

217 As the first identified disease-related protein in ALS, SOD-1 has been the most thoroughly
218 studied for its prion-like features. Misfolding, aggregation and template-seeding abilities have been

219 proven *in vitro* using fibrillized recombinant SOD-1 [16, 133, 134] and observed *in vivo* in the spinal
220 cords of animal models of the disease [134]. SOD-1 cell-to-cell spreading capacity has been observed
221 in cell culture models [135-137] and also in transgenic animals designed to code for FALS-linked
222 mutant SOD-1 or over expression of the wild-type form. These animals showed that protein
223 aggregation and formation of inclusions not only depended upon the presence of mutant SOD-1 but
224 also occurred if native SOD-1 was overexpressed [138]. This is analogous to what observed in
225 transgenic models over-expressing wild type PrP^C [139].

226 It has been reported that misfolded SOD-1 spreads from grafts resulting in pathology [140]
227 and that disease spread can be attenuated with vaccination against SOD-1 [141]. A study that
228 thoroughly addressed the issue of exogenous SOD-1 seeding *in vivo* was performed by injecting
229 spinal cord homogenates from a paralyzed mutant SOD-1 transgenic mice into the sciatic nerve of
230 susceptible G85R:YFP mice. These animals subsequently developed widespread inclusion pathology
231 throughout the spinal cord and in the brain [132].

232 As to the other proteins implicated in ALS, evidence for their prion-like behavior is scarce,
233 possibly because of their more recent identification [142]. However, mutant TDP-43 displays
234 enhanced aggregation and seeding ability *in vitro* [143-145] and in diverse cellular models expressing
235 the mutant protein [143-145]. This became clear in spite of the difficulty in evaluating differences
236 between wild type and mutant TDP-43-expressing cells, owing to the dose dependent toxicity of
237 mutant TDP-43. Interestingly, a recent study showed cell-to-cell spreading of misfolded TDP-43 in a
238 cell culture model. Thus, self-templating and spreading ability of TDP-43 aggregates, derived from
239 cell culture or ALS affected brain was definitively demonstrated in cell culture [146]. Recently
240 developed *in vivo* models for TDP-43-driven pathology, generated in invertebrates, zebrafish and
241 rodents [147, 148], have not yet been used to investigate exogenous seeding but they may soon
242 provide new insights on the role of this protein in ALS as well as on its prion-like behavior.

243 FUS/TLS and its prion-like features have received little attention, although the aggregation
244 capacity has been studied in a yeast model, where no enhanced aggregation proneness of disease-
245 linked mutants was reported [149]. In the few animal models generated for disease-linked FUS/TLS
246 mutants (*Drosophila* [150-153], zebrafish embryo [154] and rodents [155-157]) neurodegeneration
247 was observed in all of them. Some resulted in characteristic ALS changes and animals expressing
248 ALS-associated FUS/TLS mutants showed FUS/TLS inclusions [153, 154, 156, 157].

249 Interesting close relationships are now emerging between FUS/TLS and TDP-43. Aggregates
250 present in ALS are able to recruit native FUS/TLS and TDP-43, possibly via seeding through a yeast
251 prion-like Q/N-rich segment that is present in both proteins [4, 158]. Co-expression of both proteins

252 in *Drosophila* flies results in enhanced neurotoxicity [151] and the phenotype can be rescued by
253 impeding expression of one of the two proteins [150]. Although the synergistic effects of, or
254 interactions between, the different proteins involved in ALS are not yet well understood, a recent
255 report on SOD-1 expressing cells points towards a prion-like cross-seeding mechanism, whereby
256 FUS/TLS and TDP-43 aggregates can induce misfolding of wild type SOD-1. Indeed, intercellular
257 spread of misfolded SOD-1 is not accompanied by TDP-43 or FUS spread, and can be inhibited by
258 depleting SOD-1 by siRNA or antibodies. This suggests that misfolded TDP-43 and FUS may exert
259 motor neuron pathology through the initiation of SOD-1 misfolding that clearly spreads in a prion-
260 like fashion [137]. A bigenic mouse model, generated for SOD-1 and TDP-43 [159], could shed some
261 light on the complex interactions among all these ALS-related proteins and could also be exploited in
262 cross-seeding experiments. However, the ALS scenario is becoming more complex in light of other
263 proteins that could play a role in the disease by interacting with the classical ones. A case in point is
264 the work by Tanaka and collaborators, who found PFN1 gene mutations in ALS affected individuals
265 and who, through co-expression experiments, showed that PFN1 mutants can function as a seed to
266 induce TDP-43 conversion and prion-like aggregate accumulation [160].

267 **Systemic amyloidoses**

268 There are up to 28 amyloidogenic circulating proteins that can undergo a conformational
269 change giving rise to β -sheet rich, aggregation-prone isoforms that can accumulate as amyloid
270 inclusions [6]. Therefore, reactive amyloid A (AA) amyloidosis will be used as seminal example of
271 systemic amyloidoses. This systemic protein misfolding-related disease appears as a consequence of
272 prolonged or chronic inflammation that rapidly increases the normally low concentration of
273 circulating serum AA protein (SAA). Unknown initiation mechanisms alter its conformation to an
274 amyloidogenic form causing the appearance of life threatening amyloid deposits in most tissues of
275 the body, which are primarily composed of an N-terminal cleavage product of SAA [161]. For many
276 decades now, AA amyloidosis has been studied in laboratory animals, mainly mice, where efficient
277 induction is achieved through a prolonged inflammatory reaction as a result of injection of silver
278 nitrate [161]. The ability of tissue extracts containing AA amyloidosis plaques to accelerate the
279 inflammatory response in mouse models was well known, even before any *in vitro* model had been
280 developed. At that time, the unidentified seeding agent was called Amyloid Enhancing Factor (AEF)
281 [162]. Much later, AEF was definitively shown to be AA, by acceleration of AA amyloidosis through
282 the injection of AA amyloid-composed synthetic fibrils [161]. *In vivo* seeding with AA amyloidosis
283 affected tissues has been further confirmed in mice [163, 164]. Seeding of cerebral AA amyloidosis
284 was shown to be dependent on SAA concentration in mouse models over-expressing SAA in brain or

285 expressing it conditionally [165]. This phenomenon has also been observed in other animal models
286 such as mink [166], rabbits [167], ducks [168] or chickens [6], in which systemic amyloidoses can be
287 also induced through an inflammatory stimulus.

288 In concluding this section, the prion-like self-templated propagation and/or seeding ability
289 has been clearly demonstrated for most proteins involved in the above described disorders.
290 Whether this characteristic makes them suitable to be classified as prions depends on the full
291 definition of prions, which will be discussed later. However, in light of the same propagation
292 mechanism, they could definitively be called propagons or more simply prion-like propagating
293 proteins.

294

295 **Strains and interspecies propagation**

296 **Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathies (TSEs)**

297 One of the most intriguing characteristic of TSEs is that inoculation of different prion isolates
298 containing an identical PrP^C/PrP^D amino acid sequence leads to significantly variable clinical and
299 histopathological manifestations of the disease [169]. Such different properties are defined by
300 distinct self-propagating conformations that the same PrP sequence can acquire, i.e., strains of the
301 same infectious agent that, unlike viral or bacterial strains, encode information through three
302 dimensional structures [170]. The strain-specific properties of prions include different tropism for
303 certain brain regions [171, 172], formation of morphologically distinct aggregates with different
304 physicochemical properties [43, 173] and different self-templating and cross-seeding capacities
305 [174]. The latter is particularly important in the field of TSE, given that some prion strains can
306 propagate at the expense of PrP^C with slightly different amino acid sequence, which results in
307 interspecies transmission of the disease. Although the ability of heterologous seeding lies ultimately
308 on the tertiary or quaternary [175] structure of each prion strain, the more distant is the primary
309 structure between the misfolded protein and the host native PrP^C, the more difficult the propagation
310 will be. This phenomenon, well-known in the prion field as the interspecies transmission barrier,
311 which manifests with a prolonged incubation period of the disease and as an incomplete attack rate
312 among the infected animals [176]. The emergence of different prion strains is probably due to the
313 conformational variability derived from the PrP-misfolding event, which gives rise to PrP^D isoforms
314 that maintain their structure through the self-templated propagation mechanism. Thus, taking into
315 account the similar misfolding and propagation mechanisms, certain strain-like variability and
316 interspecies transmissibility would be also expected in other prion-like disorders. Therefore, the

317 description of such a characteristic, intrinsically associated to TSE-causing prions but applied to the
318 other proteins, would speak in favor of their inclusion in the prion-like protein club.

319

320 **Alzheimer's Disease (AD)**

321 The ability of A β and tau to adopt slightly different structures with different biochemical
322 properties, which can be also propagated in a stable manner, has already been proven in several
323 model systems. Most of the evidence regarding A β strains comes from Mathias Jucker's group. Using
324 two different AD transgenic mouse models inoculated with brain extracts from each other, they
325 showed that both animal models developed clearly distinguishable, brain extract-specific aggregates
326 [86, 177]. These results have been recently reinforced in cell cultures experiments demonstrating
327 that the conformation-specific propagation of A β isoforms manifests with distinct toxicities [70] and
328 aggregate clearance capacities [178]. The latest demonstration for the existence of distinct A β
329 strains has been recently provided by the prion strain-expert laboratory of Stanley Prusiner. Using a
330 bigenic mouse model, they showed that injection of different synthetic A β fibrils, composed of
331 either A β 40 or A β 42 peptides, caused markedly different β -amyloids; while A β 40 induced plaques
332 containing both A β 40 and A β 42 within long straight fibrils, A β 42 induced more numerous
333 depositions containing mainly A β 42, and composed of much shorter fibrils. They also showed that
334 this phenomenon is fully conformation-dependent and independent of the A β species used [179].
335 Taking a step further, the existence of different strains in AD patients was proved because injection
336 in the above bigenic mouse line of brain homogenates from patients carrying the Swedish or Arctic
337 APP mutation, or affected by sporadic AD, resulted in a pathology that was clearly distinguishable
338 according to the brain homogenate used. Importantly, the different A β isoforms present in the
339 inclusion and the plaque morphology were conserved after a second passage in the same mouse line
340 [180].

341 Although scarce, there are studies that support the possible existence of tau strains, and
342 that the wide phenotypical variety of tauopathies could be based on tau conformational differences.
343 Indeed, different spread patterns have been observed in wild type- or mutant tau-expressing models
344 [181]. Also, it was observed that either *in vitro* produced fibrils [182], or brain extracts from patients
345 with different tauopathies, induced differential spread and deposition patterns in the human P301S
346 tau expressing mouse line, and that these features were conserved upon serial passage [183].
347 Finally, two very recent studies demonstrated that human tauopathies can be classified according to
348 the distinct biochemical properties of the tau aggregates [184], and that distinct aggregates show
349 different seeding potencies in cell culture [185].

350 In light of these results, it may be possible to envision the capacity of some strains to seed
351 proteins from other species, a concept that is reminiscent of the interspecies transmission of TSEs. In
352 this regard, the most significant findings were accumulated in tauopathy models expressing mouse
353 tau and/or human wild type and mutant tau forms, where murine tau interfered with the human
354 isoform by reducing aggregation and the extent of the induced disease [186, 187]. Along this line,
355 the existence of interspecies barrier and transmissibility has already been proved for human and
356 mouse tau *in vivo*. On the one hand, because several human brain extracts with different tau
357 aggregate-related diseases were able to induce mouse tau aggregates in wild type mice [97]. And on
358 the other hand, because human and mouse tau have been shown to co-aggregate in transgenic
359 mouse lines conditionally expressing disease-associated human tau as well as the endogenous
360 mouse tau [188]. On the contrary, although endogenous mouse and mutant human A β were found
361 to co-localize in a human-APP/PS1 double transgenic mouse model [189], more data are needed to
362 firmly establish some kind of interspecies transmission barrier, as co-localization does not
363 necessarily imply co-aggregation.

364 **Parkinson's Disease (PD)**

365 Considering α -syn aggregates, either associated with PD and with phenotypically distinct
366 synucleinopathies, there is little evidence for the existence of conformational variants acting as
367 strains. However, in *in vitro* and cell culture models it was reported that different synthetic α -syn
368 conformers are capable to inducing distinct effects and to self-propagate in a stable manner [190].
369 More importantly, differences were detected in cell cultures between two *in vitro*-produced
370 misfolded α -syn variants in terms of structure, cell uptake and binding, toxicity and aggregation
371 patterns [191]. Again, it was Prusiner's lab who reported a more convincing study on α -syn strain
372 properties. Using 14 brains from patients affected by Multiple System Atrophy (MSA, a α -
373 synucleinopathy slightly different from PD) to inoculate cell cultures and a transgenic mouse model
374 expressing human α -syn, they observed that, contrary to brain extracts from PD patients, MSA
375 extracts were able to propagate in the cell culture model and to induce disease in transgenic
376 animals. This result suggests that a unique strain of misfolded α -syn is that causing MSA [192], and is
377 supported by a similar study showing that morphologically different aggregates - characterising
378 three α -synucleinopathies, i.e., PD, dementia with Lewy bodies and MSA - propagated in a strain-
379 dependent manner and induced distinct pathologies after injection into rats [193]. Finally, it is worth
380 mentioning an unconventional *in vivo* study, in which inoculation in the P301S tau expressing mouse
381 model of two *in vitro*-generated α -syn fibril types resulted in a different behaviour of the two
382 conformers with respect to: i) cross-seeding ability of tau, ii) induction of α -synuclein pathology, iii)

383 toxicity, and iv) electrophoretic pattern of α -syn after proteinase K digestion. Of importance, the
384 latter feature was also found in human samples from patients with different synucleinopathies
385 [194].

386 As for tau, some kind of interspecies transmission barrier could also pertain to α -syn,
387 according to a study using mice expressing human α -syn that, after inoculation with PD brain
388 extracts, showed much faster and stronger induction of pathology than wild type mice. Likewise,
389 inoculation of recombinant human or mouse α -syn fibrils in wild type mice resulted in a slightly
390 higher efficiency of the mouse seeds compared to the human ones, again resembling the prion
391 interspecies transmission barrier [121].

392 **Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)**

393 Thus far, scarce evidence is available for the existence of conformational variants behaving
394 as strains in ALS-related proteins such as SOD-1 and TDP-43. Yet, Bidhendi and collaborators have
395 shown that two different SOD-1 aggregates can arise in a mouse model expressing a human disease-
396 linked SOD-1 mutant, and that inoculation in the same mouse line of brain extracts containing each
397 of the two aggregates caused pathologies with different progression rates, distribution, end-stage
398 aggregate levels and histopathology [195]. Although at present this is the only evidence of strains
399 deriving from the same (albeit mutated) amino acid sequence, recently Ayers and collaborators have
400 reported a strain-like behavior in two transgenic mice models expressing SOD-1 with two distinct
401 pathogenic mutations, as the injection of spinal cord extracts from the above models in a highly
402 vulnerable third animal expressing another disease-linked SOD-1 mutant, gave rise to strikingly
403 different phenotypes [132]. Similarly, co-aggregation of human wild type and mutant SOD-1, but not
404 of mouse SOD-1, has been reported in some animal models [196]. Further investigations in cell
405 models have identified in a single amino acid the responsibility for the mouse-human SOD-1 barrier
406 [136].

407 TDP-43 aggregates from ALS and FTD patients have been used to seed aggregation in human
408 TDP-43 expressing cells. The resultant insoluble inclusions showed the same immunoblot pattern as
409 those observed in the original seeds, suggesting that ALS and FTD could be caused by different TDP-
410 43 conformers [18]. Similar conclusions could be drawn from experiments using cell cultures that,
411 seeded with different peptides arising from distinct TDP-43 C-terminal deletions, showed
412 biochemically distinguishable TDP-43 aggregates [197].

413 **Systemic amyloidoses**

414 Contrary to the above-examined disorders, no experimental evidence has been reported so
415 far for the existence of strain features pertaining to AA amyloidosis. However, although most
416 common AA-amyloidoses are formed by just one gene product, two histopathologically and/or
417 biochemically distinguishable kidney phenotypes have been observed in patients. In general, kidney
418 amyloidosis severely affects glomeruli but in few cases vascular amyloidosis was observed, with a
419 characteristic pattern present also in the plaques deposited in other organs. The reason leading to
420 the two phenotypes is unknown but conformational variants of the same SAA protein have been
421 proposed [162]. A study performed in goats affected by systemic AA amyloidosis is also suggestive of
422 different SAA deposition patterns, whereby uterine depositions seemed composed of a different
423 SAA compared to the most common deposits in liver or other sites [198].

424 Heterologous transmission of AA amyloid fibrils has been shown in several species, e.g.,
425 from cheetah or bovine to rodent models [167, 199-201]. In particular, the slightly milder pathology
426 that was described in mice by Cui and collaborators after heterologous induction experiments is
427 reminiscent of what was observed in TSE interspecies transmission [199].

428 In concluding, the reported existence of different conformers, and strain behavior, of all the
429 here-reviewed proteins, adds another support to the prion-like character of those proteins whose
430 misfolding profoundly affects viability of different organs.

431

432 **Infectivity**

433 **Transmissible Spongiform Encephalopathies (TSEs)**

434 Before discussing whether each of the above-mentioned misfolded proteins are infectious in
435 the same way TSE-causing prions are, “infectivity” needs to be clearly defined. Given that in many
436 cases, infectivity is wrongly associated with disease or transmissibility. In a broader sense, infectivity
437 means the invasion and multiplication of a self-perpetuating agent in a host body tissue, whether
438 the agent is able to cause disease or not. The ability of an infectious agent to cause disease is
439 defined as pathogenicity and it depends on the host as much as on the infectious agent. Thus, it is
440 necessary to keep in mind that not all the agents able to invade and multiply in other organism
441 (infectious agent) cause disease (pathogen) [202, 203], as shown by asymptomatic carriers of prions
442 [204]. The pathogenicity of an infectious agent is not entirely dependent on the agent itself but also
443 on the suitability of the new host. This is clearly illustrated by the poor pathogenicity of vCJD on
444 hosts carrying V129 polymorphism [205]. Similarly, inter-individual transmissibility is often wrongly
445 considered as an intrinsic characteristic of infectious agents, however, it is defined as the efficiency
446 with which an infectious agent can be transmitted to a naïve host and it depends also in the

447 suitability of the host and the existence of a route by which the agent reaches it [202, 203]. For
448 example, several GSS isolates that are clearly infectious - because they can multiply in host tissues -
449 have been long considered poorly infectious. However, they should have been considered poorly
450 transmissible just to certain hosts, as they have been shown to be highly transmissible and
451 pathogenic as long as the right model is used [206, 207].

452 Therefore, we consider TSE-causing prions infectious because they are able to invade and
453 self-perpetuate in body tissues, regardless of their ability to cause disease or be transmitted
454 between individuals. Thus, from our point of view, the self-perpetuating characteristic of the
455 proteins implicated in AD, PD, ALS and AA amyloidosis define them as infectious. Actually, irrefutable
456 proofs of infectivity – understood as ability to self-perpetuate in body tissues - and transmissibility of
457 A β peptides were recently reported. Autopsy of CJD-contaminated growth hormone recipients, that
458 also contained A β peptides from the donors, showed unusually high presence of A β aggregates.
459 However, its pathogenicity could not be demonstrated given the early death of the patients caused
460 by iCJD [107, 108] or other unrelated pathologies (Ironsides J.W., Oral communication, Prion 2016
461 Congress, Tokyo).

462 Nevertheless, as “infectivity” is commonly used confused with the concepts of pathogenicity
463 or transmissibility, autocatalytic propagation and spreading features are not sufficient to consider
464 certain agent “infectious”. For that, proofs of inter-individual transmissibility are demanded, and in
465 the case of neurodegenerative diseases the ability to invade the CNS when exogenously acquired,
466 i.e., from affected hosts or from the environment [14]. Moreover, for TSE-causing prions,
467 transmissibility needs to be shown in animal models in which the pathological processes would not
468 occur spontaneously, thus, *de novo* induction of the disease should be clearly established.

469 Therefore, despite the misfolded proteins implicated in AD, PD, ALS and AA amyloidosis have
470 an established prion-like self-perpetuating characteristic, they are not generally considered
471 “infectious” - in the same way as TSEs - unless their pathogenicity, inter-individual transmissibility
472 and an acquisition route for exogenous agents are demonstrated. Thus, the updated state of the art
473 on these issues is now given.

474

475 **Alzheimer’s Disease (AD)**

476 For AD, possible inter-individual transmission by routes more “natural” than intracerebral
477 inoculation has been tested, yet not definitively proven.

478 Initial trials of peripheral (oral, intravenous, intraocular or intranasal) inoculation of A β -rich
479 extracts in APP transgenic mouse models showed no induction of cerebral amyloidosis [88], although
480 their intraperitoneal inoculation did cause blood-vessel associated A β deposits [208]. More recently,
481 it has been reported that intraperitoneally injected A β seeds propagated to the brain of three
482 transgenic mouse lines expressing different APP levels, that amyloidosis could be impaired by
483 antibodies to A β , and that the severity of the pathology depended also on brain APP amounts [105].
484 Using similar mouse models, cerebral A β amyloidosis could also be induced by the intraperitoneal
485 inoculation of synthetic A β fibrils [209]. Likewise, the intraperitoneal injection of tau aggregates in a
486 mouse model expressing a disease-linked tau mutant successfully induced tau pathology - albeit in a
487 less severe form than that caused by an intracerebral route [210].

488 It is important to note, however, that all the above animal models developed A β amyloidosis
489 or tauopathy upon aging, opening the possibility that exogenously acquired seeds were accelerating
490 the endogenous pathology rather than inducing it *de novo*. The absence of good epidemiological
491 data [211], and the definitive proof of peripherally induced pathology in non-susceptible animal
492 models prevent, therefore, to consider AD “infectious” as prions are.

493 As was the case with initial studies in the prion field, more appropriate models are needed
494 to prove A β and tau infectious characters, especially because availability of recent animal models for
495 prion disease has allowed to prove the infectious properties of certain prion strains that for decades
496 were considered poorly, if not at all, transmissible [206, 207]. This actual AD scenario could,
497 however, change soon in light of the earlier mentioned findings that growth hormone preparations
498 not only induced iatrogenic CJD but also cerebral amyloid β pathology and angiopathy [107, 108].

499 **Parkinson’s disease (PD)**

500 Evidence for the peripheral routes of disease acquisition are uncommon in PD, although it is
501 well known the inter-individual transmissibility by contaminated grafts [124-128], and a possible
502 route of neuroinvasion by exogenous PD brain extracts. The presence of α -syn aggregates in enteric
503 neurons [212], secretions [213], or circulating in body fluids (e.g., plasma) [214] of animal models
504 injected peripherally with PD samples from patients, has pointed to the possible induction of
505 pathology. A PD-like pathology was observed by injection of brain extracts directly into the gastric
506 walls of a transgenic mouse model expressing mutant α -syn, suggesting that the enteric nervous
507 system could be a natural route for neuroinvasion [215]. Furthermore, the neuroinvasion capacity of
508 the aggregates was definitively proved by the finding of cerebral synucleinopathy following
509 intravenous administration of distinct α -syn aggregates in α -syn-expressing rats [193].

510 **Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS)**

511 In the case of ALS, further experimental evidence is required to show possible inter-
512 individual transmissibility from routes other than the direct injection of aggregates into the nervous
513 system, in which prion-like spreading through anatomically-connected neuronal pathways has been
514 shown [216]. Even though the presence of extracellular or exosomal aggregates was found in cell
515 culture models [137, 146, 217], there is still little evidence for ALS peripheral, prion-like
516 transmissibility *in vivo*.

517 **Systemic amyloidoses**

518 Because AA amyloidosis is a systemic condition where no neuroinvasive routes are required,
519 proofs of inter-individual transmissibility are easier and indeed have been widely accumulated. for
520 example, successful transmission experiments were performed by administering the seeding
521 material either intraperitoneally or intravenously. Importantly, the oral route of transmission was
522 found effective in inflammatory stimulus-induced mice [163], but also in IL-6 over-expressing mice
523 fed by commercially available duck *foie gras* [200].

524 Although the initial seeding site is unknown, probable tissue-to-tissue propagation pathways
525 take place as suggested after intravenously injected radiolabelled fibrils accumulated in the spleen
526 [161] or circulating monocytes [218]. However, although successful experimental transmission has
527 been reported in several animal models, and also from one species to another [6], non-experimental
528 seeding of AA amyloidosis is more difficult to prove definitively. Nonetheless, some epidemic
529 outbreaks of AA amyloidosis in captive animals [6], together with the potential transmissibility of AA
530 amyloidosis from cheetah feces to mouse models [201], suggests that non-experimental horizontal
531 inter-individual transmission is feasible, similarly to some TSE forms [219].

532

533 **CONCLUDING REMARKS**

534 From what discussed hitherto, and the evidence for similarities and dissimilarities between
535 prions and the other disease-related misfolded proteins, grouping all of them under the term “prion”
536 seems not fully congruent [220]. In our opinion the term “prion-like diseases/agents”, which is here
537 preferentially used, describes more accurately those misfolded proteins that clearly share similarities
538 with some molecular aspects of the mammalian prion protein, the self-perpetuating aggregation and
539 spreading characteristics, for example, and appears, therefore, the most suited, at least until other
540 commonalities or differences are definitively proven [221]. The newly coined “prionoid” or
541 “propagon” terms have been proposed, since none of these misfolded proteins were shown to be

542 highly transmissible under natural conditions [9, 222]. However, we believe somehow premature the
543 introduction of these new nouns, given that many common or different molecular features of the
544 above-mentioned proteins still need to be assessed.

545 Undoubtedly, issues such as infectivity and/or inter-individual transmissibility are the most
546 critical for classifying misfolded protein-related diseases under a common name. The neurotoxic
547 mechanism of the protein aggregates involved in each disorder remains poorly understood, as is the
548 possible inter-individual transmission by natural routes. Both of them represent the crucial
549 mechanistic features that could differentiate prion-causing TSEs from the other diseases. Indeed,
550 most TSEs are clearly transmissible, as evident from epidemics that have affected several
551 mammalian species [223-226], and demonstrated after the peripheral prion invasion of inter-
552 individual iatrogenic disease transmission [227], or after the oral or intraperitoneal prion
553 administration [228, 229]. Conversely, thus far all these proofs are not yet fully available for AD and
554 PD. We believe, therefore, that the meaning of “infectivity” needs to be reassessed to encompass
555 new circumstances, possibly including a process in which a self-propagating agent that exogenously
556 penetrates an organism, or is generated spontaneously, interacts with the host (causing
557 disease/damage or not), as a consequence of its intrinsic capacity to make copies of itself through a
558 diversity of mechanisms. Only after introducing these new aspects, and the mechanisms of
559 neurotoxicity are clearly established, the use of the terms prion or prion-like to collectively group all
560 these disorders will become evident.

561

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563

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*Conflict of Interest

- No conflict of interest.