

contexts that choosing for others differs from choosing for oneself in decision-making (17–19), and this has been widely discussed after a 2012 publication of an article in *The Wall Street Journal* (U.S.) entitled ‘Why doctors die differently’. In our survey, the Japanese neurologists behaved more like participants in these studies than Americans, who seldom recommended TIV either to patients or chose it for themselves. An alternative explanation might be that Japanese neurologists express a general societal option to their patients, that TIV is recommended, which is the message of the influential ALS association in Japan.

We note several limitations. First, although the response rates are equivalent to those expected of e-mail surveys (20) and postal surveys (21) and are regionally distributed, respondents represent only a portion of the population of neurologists treating patients with ALS. Secondly, we collected little information about respondents to protect anonymity, and kept the survey brief to encourage participation. Thirdly, the neurologist’s philosophy and approach regarding TIV for their patients with ALS may be only one component of the story. We are currently surveying patients and caregivers with similar questionnaires. Ultimately, the combined input from neurologists, patients and caregivers is expected to increase our understanding of TIV use in our two countries.

Despite these limitations, to our knowledge this is the first systematic survey concerning neurologists’ roles in TIV decision-making. Responses of 220 neurologists in almost all regions of the two countries do provide a glimpse of our practice philosophy and approach to patients in the terminal stages of this disease, and we are beginning to understand the observed variations in TIV use. A better understanding of the neurologist’s role in this process can improve patient care during this most precarious phase of the disease.

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Loss of TDP-43 causes age-dependent progressive motor neuron degeneration

Yohei Iguchi,¹ Masahisa Katsuno,¹ Jun-ichi Niwa,² Shinnosuke Takagi,¹ Shinsuke Ishigaki,¹ Kensuke Ikenaka,¹ Kaori Kawai,¹ Hirohisa Watanabe,¹ Koji Yamanaka,^{3,4} Ryosuke Takahashi,⁵ Hidemi Misawa,⁶ Shoichi Sasaki,⁷ Fumiaki Tanaka^{1,8} and Gen Sobue^{1,4}

1 Department of Neurology, Nagoya University Graduate School of Medicine, Nagoya 466-8550, Japan

2 Stroke Centre, Aichi Medical University, Aichi 480-1195, Japan

3 Laboratory for Motor Neuron Disease, RIKEN Brain Science Institute, Wako, Saitama 351-0198, Japan

4 CREST, Japan Science and Technology Agency, 4-1-8, Honcho, Kawaguchi, Saitama 332-0012, Japan

5 Department of Neurology, Kyoto University Graduate School of Medicine, Kyoto 606-8507, Japan

6 Department of Pharmacology, Keio University Faculty of Pharmacy, Tokyo 105-8512, Japan

7 Department of Neurology, Neurological Institute, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo 162-8666, Japan

8 Department of Neurology and Stroke Medicine, Yokohama City University Graduate School of Medicine, Yokohama 236-0004, Japan

Correspondence to: Gen Sobue

Showa-ku, Nagoya 466-8550,

Japan

E-mail: sobueg@med.nagoya-u.ac.jp

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis is a devastating, progressive neurodegenerative disease that affects upper and lower motor neurons. Although several genes are identified as the cause of familial cases, the pathogenesis of sporadic forms, which account for 90% of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, have not been elucidated. Transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 a nuclear protein regulating RNA processing, redistributes to the cytoplasm and forms aggregates, which are the histopathological hallmark of sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, in affected motor neurons, suggesting that loss-of-function of transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 is one of the causes of the neurodegeneration. To test this hypothesis, we assessed the effects of knockout of transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 in mouse postnatal motor neurons using Cre/loxp system. These mice developed progressive weight loss and motor impairment around the age of 60 weeks, and exhibited degeneration of large motor axon, grouped atrophy of the skeletal muscle, and denervation in the neuromuscular junction. The spinal motor neurons lacking transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 were not affected for 1 year, but exhibited atrophy at the age of 100 weeks; whereas, extraocular motor neurons, that are essentially resistant in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, remained preserved even at the age of 100 weeks. Additionally, ultra structural analysis revealed autolysosomes and autophagosomes in the cell bodies and axons of motor neurons of the 100-week-old knockout mice. In summary, the mice in which transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 was knocked-out specifically in postnatal motor neurons exhibited an age-dependent progressive motor dysfunction accompanied by neuropathological alterations, which are common to sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. These findings suggest that transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 plays an essential role in the long term maintenance of motor neurons and that loss-of-function of this protein seems to contribute to the pathogenesis of amyotrophic lateral sclerosis.

Keywords: transactive response DNA-binding protein 43; amyotrophic lateral sclerosis; axonal degeneration; autophagosome

Abbreviations: ALS = amyotrophic lateral sclerosis; FTLD = frontotemporal lobar degeneration; TDP CKO = motor neuron-specific TDP-43 knockout; TDP hCKO = TDP heterozygous CKO

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Introduction

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is a progressive, fatal neurodegenerative disease that affects upper and lower motor neurons in the brain stem and spinal cord. Although previous studies using animal models of ALS have focused mainly on the toxicity of mutant SOD1, one of the causative genes of familial ALS (ALS1), there are pathophysiological differences between ALS1 and sporadic ALS that accounts for ~90% of ALS. The most striking recent discovery regarding ALS is that transactive response DNA-binding protein 43 (TDP-43) was identified as a major component of ubiquitinated neuronal cytoplasmic inclusions in both sporadic ALS and frontotemporal lobar degeneration (FTLD) (Arai *et al.*, 2006; Neumann *et al.*, 2006). In addition, TDP-43 is a causative gene of familial ALS (ALS10) (Gitcho *et al.*, 2008; Kabashi *et al.*, 2008; Sreedharan *et al.*, 2008; Yokoseki *et al.*, 2008). Taken together, these data suggest that TDP-43 plays a key role in the pathogenesis of sporadic ALS. Although TDP-43 is a nuclear protein, it redistributes to the cytoplasm and forms aggregates in affected neurons of patients with sporadic ALS (Arai *et al.*, 2006; Neumann *et al.*, 2006), suggesting that loss of TDP-43 function underlies sporadic ALS pathogenesis. TDP-43 is known to regulate gene transcription, stability of messenger RNA, and exon splicing through interactions with RNA, heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoproteins and nuclear bodies (Wang *et al.*, 2004; Ayala *et al.*, 2005; Buratti *et al.*, 2005, 2010; Strong *et al.*, 2007; Polymenidou *et al.*, 2011; Sephton *et al.*, 2011; Tollervey *et al.*, 2011). Knockdown of TDP-43 in neuronal cells inhibits neurite outgrowth and diminishes cell viability (Iguchi *et al.*, 2009), whereas TDP-43 depletion induces apoptosis in HeLa or U2OS cells (Ayala *et al.*, 2008). In addition, *Drosophila* without TDP-43 present deficient locomotive behaviours, reduced life span and anatomical defects at neuromuscular junctions (Feiguin *et al.*, 2009). TDP-43-depleted zebrafish exhibit swimming deficits along with excessive, premature branching and shortened motor axons (Kabashi *et al.*, 2011). Furthermore, TDP-43 knockout mice are embryonic lethal (Kraemer *et al.*, 2010; Sephton *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010), and postnatal deletion of TDP-43 leads to rapid death with loss of body fat (Chiang *et al.*, 2010). Although these findings indicate that TDP-43 is essential for survival of mice at both embryonic and post-natal stages, the effects of TDP-43 depletion in postnatal mammalian neurons have not been fully elucidated. In the present study, we generated motor neuron-specific TDP-43 knockout (TDP CKO) mice using the Cre/loxP recombination system to investigate the effects of TDP-43 loss on postnatal motor neurons in mice.

Materials and methods

Generation and maintenance of TDP-43 conditional knockout mouse

The targeting construct was designed to insert an Frt-flanked neomycin cassette and a loxP site upstream, and a loxP site downstream of the second exon of the *Tardbp* gene. This construct was

electroporated into iTL1 BA1 (C57BL/6 × 129/SvEv) hybrid embryonic stem cells. Correctly targeted embryonic stem cells were injected into recipient blastocysts and chimeric mice were bred with C57BL/6J mice. The resulting En1^{fllox}-neo mice were then bred to C57BL/6J mice constitutively expressing Flp recombinase to remove the Frt-flanked neo cassette, generating En1^{fllox} offspring. En1^{fllox} mutant mice were backcrossed with C57BL/6J mice for at least five generations, and then crossed with VACHT-Cre.Fast mice, which are the most validated mice that specifically express Cre in motor neurons (Misawa *et al.*, 2003). To generate TDP-43 conditional knockout mice, we crossed TDP-43^{fllox/fllox} mice with TDP-43^{fllox/+}/VACHT-Cre mice. Finally, we obtained TDP-43^{fllox/fllox}/VACHT-Cre (motor neuron-specific TDP-43 knockout: TDP CKO), TDP-43^{fllox/+}/VACHT-Cre (TDP heterozygous CKO: TDP hCKO), TDP-43^{fllox/fllox} and TDP-43^{fllox/+} mice. The TDP-43^{fllox/fllox} mice were then used as control littermates in the present analyses. Mice were kept on a 12-h light/12-h dark cycle, with food and water provided *ad libitum*. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and under the approval of the Nagoya University Animal Experiment Committee (Nagoya, Japan).

Neurological and behavioural testing

The control (*n* = 21) and TDP CKO (*n* = 20) mice were subjected to the Rotarod task (Economex Rotarod; Columbus Instruments) weekly as described previously (Katsuno *et al.*, 2002). Grip strength was measured weekly by a grip strength meter (MK-380M, Muromachi kikai Co. LTD). During this test, the mice gripped the mesh with four limbs and their tail was pulled backwards. Gait stride was measured from 50 cm of footsteps, and the average value was recorded for each mouse.

Immunofluorescent analysis and immunohistochemistry

For immunofluorescent analysis, we perfused 20 ml of a 4% paraformaldehyde fixative in phosphate buffer (WAKO Corp.) through the left cardiac ventricle of mice deeply anaesthetized with medetomidine (0.3 mg/kg), midazolam (4 mg/kg) and butorphanol (5 mg/kg), interperitoneally. Tissues postfixed overnight in 10% phosphate-buffered formalin were then processed for paraffin embedding. We then deparaffinized 3-µm thick tissue sections and dehydrated them with alcohol. Sections were first microwaved for 20 min in 50 mM citrate buffer (pH 6.0), treated with TNB blocking buffer (PerkinElmer) and incubated overnight with anti-TDP-43 rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:1000, ProteinTech), anti-choline-acetyltransferase (ChAT) goat polyclonal antibody (1:100, Millipore), anti-microtubule-associated protein 1 light chain 3 (LC3) mouse monoclonal antibody (1:1000, MBL), phosphorylated neurofilament-H (pNF-H) mouse monoclonal antibody (SMI31) (1:1000, Covance), or anti-neuronal nuclei (NeuN) mouse monoclonal antibody (1:100, Millipore). After washing, for the ChAT staining, sections were incubated with biotinylated donkey anti-goat IgG (1:300, Vector Lab.) for 30 min, washed and incubated with streptavidin conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 546 (1:1000, Invitrogen) for 30 min. For the other antigens, sections were incubated with the indicated secondary antibody and TO-PRO®3 (Invitrogen), a nuclear marker, for 30 min, mounted with ProLong® Gold Antifade reagent (Invitrogen), and then imaged with a laser confocal microscope (LSM710, Carl Zeiss). For immunohistochemistry, sections were incubated overnight with anti-glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) mouse

monoclonal antibody (1:1000, Sigma-Aldrich), stained using the DAKO EnVision™ + HRP system (Dako Corp.) and photographed with an optical microscope (Axio Imager M1). The immunoreactive area in the ventral horn of TDP CKO mice and control littermates at the indicated ages ($n = 3$ for each age) was analysed with WinROOF (Mitani). The binary treatment included application of a staining intensity threshold and size exclusion criteria to distinguish the significant structures from the background signals. All sections analysed were treated with the same threshold and exclusion criteria.

Retrograde FluoroGold neurotracer labelling

Retrograde labelling of motor neurons was performed as described previously (Katsuno *et al.*, 2006). Briefly, a total volume of 4.5 µl of 2.5% FluoroGold solution (Biotium) was injected into the gastrocnemius muscle of anaesthetized mice. Lumbar spinal cords were removed 46 h after FluoroGold administration. The frozen optimal cutting temperature (OCT) compound-embedded samples were sectioned longitudinally on a cryostat at 10 µm and mounted on silane-coated slides. After the FluoroGold labelled motor neurons in the L5 segment was photographed with Zeiss Axio Imager M1 (Carl Zeiss), the sections were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, stained with anti-TDP-43 and anti-ChAT antibody, and photographed with LSM710. For the quantification of retrograde labelling, we measured every third section (a total of five sections in L5 ventral horn), and counted the degree of FluoroGold labelling in motor neurons of two control mice, and TDP-43-positive or -negative motor neurons of two TDP CKO mice.

Electron microscopy

Under the deep anaesthesia, 2-year-old TDP CKO mice and control littermates were transcardially perfused with 3% paraformaldehyde and 1% glutaraldehyde in PBS. The spinal cords and sciatic nerves were removed, and postfixed overnight in the perfusing solution. After fixation, the spinal cords were immersed in the solution (0.1 M cacodylic acid, 2% paraformaldehyde, 2.5% glutaraldehyde) for 12 h. The anterior half of lumbar spinal cord was sectioned transversely, postfixed in 1% osmium tetroxide for several hours, dehydrated and embedded in epoxy resin. Each block was cut into serial semithin sections (~1 µm thick). These sections were stained with toluidine blue. Appropriate portions of the sections were cut into ultrathin sections, which were then stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate. Two-year-old TDP CKO mice and control littermates were analysed. Electron microscopic photographs were obtained under an original magnification of $\times 5000$ and printed at a final magnification of $\times 9500$.

Analysis of muscle, neuromuscular junction and motor axon

To investigate the presence of muscle atrophy, gastrocnemius muscles were dissected free, quickly frozen by immersion in cooled acetone and powdered CO₂. Ten-micrometre thick transverse frozen sections were stained with haematoxylin and eosin. For analysis of neuromuscular junctions, 30-µm thick frozen longitudinal sections of the tibialis anterior muscle were incubated overnight with alpha bungarotoxin conjugated with biotin-XX (1:80, Invitrogen), anti-pNF-H mouse monoclonal antibody (SMI31, 1:100) and anti-synaptophysin rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:100, Cell Signaling Technologies). After washing, sections were incubated with goat anti-rabbit and anti-mouse IgG

conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 488 (1:1000 for each, Invitrogen) and streptavidin conjugated with Alexa Fluor® 564 (1:1000, Invitrogen) and mounted with ProLong® gold (Invitrogen). The stained sections were imaged with a laser scanning confocal microscope (LSM710, Carl Zeiss). More than 100 neuromuscular junctions from TDP CKO mice aged 20, 50, 80 and 100 weeks were analysed ($n = 3$ mice for each group). For morphological analyses, epoxy resin embedded transverse sections of L5 ventral roots were stained with toluidine blue. L5 ventral roots of 20, 50 and 100 week-old mice ($n = 6$ axons for each group) were assessed. The diameter of myelinated fibres was automatically measured using a computer-assisted image analyser (Luzex FS), as described previously (Katsuno *et al.*, 2002). Paraffin embedded transverse sections of L4 ventral roots of 100-week-old mice were stained with an antibody against ChAT and photographed by Zeiss Axio Imager M1.

Quantification and morphological analysis of motor neurons

For the quantifications and morphological analyses of motor neurons, we performed the immunofluorescent analyses of the paraffin-embedded sections stained with anti-TDP-43 and anti-ChAT antibodies of L5 spinal cord ($n = 5$ for each) and brain stem ($n = 3$ for each) of control and TDP CKO mice. All the neurons within the every fifth sections from the 50 consecutive sections of lumbar spinal cord, or every third sections from all consecutive sections of brain stem including the each cranial motor nucleus were assessed using AxioVision software (Carl Zeiss), after samples were photographed by Zeiss Axio Imager M1 (Carl Zeiss). The ChAT-positive neurons in the ventral horns or cranial nuclei were regarded as motor neurons. We examined the presence of nuclear immunoreactivity for TDP-43 in ventral horns and brainstems, and calculated the TDP-43-knockout efficiencies, the number of remaining motor neurons, and the size of motor neurons in each group. To evaluate the involvement of gamma-motor neuron, we measured the number of large ($>250 \mu\text{m}^2$) or small ($<250 \mu\text{m}^2$) lumbar motor neurons.

Statistical analyses

Statistical differences were analysed by Kaplan–Meier and logrank test for survival rate, ANOVA and Bonferroni *post hoc* analyses for multiple group comparisons and the unpaired Student's *t*-test for two group comparisons (SPSS version 15.0, SPSS Inc.).

Results

Generation of TDP CKO mice

We constructed a TDP-43^{flox} allele by flanking the second exon of the mouse TDP-43 gene (*Tardbp*) with loxP sites (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B). Because the second exon contains the *Tardbp* start codon, Cre-mediated deletion of this exon inhibits mouse TDP-43 translation. To delete TDP-43 expression specifically in motor neurons, TDP-43^{flox/flox} mice were crossed with VACht-Cre.Fast mice, in which Cre expression is mostly restricted in the postnatal somatomotor neurons (Misawa *et al.*, 2003). The immunofluorescent analysis of the ventral horn from TDP CKO mice at post-natal Day 2 showed that all the assessed motor neurons were positive for TDP-43 (Supplementary Fig. 1C). On

the other hand, the quantitative analysis of the lumbar ventral horn and hypoglossal nucleus from 10-week-old TDP CKO mice showed that TDP-43 was knocked-out in 48% of motor neurons in the lumbar ventral horn and 45% in the hypoglossal nucleus (Fig. 1A and B). In addition, reverse transcriptase PCR analysis of total RNA from motor neurons isolated by laser microdissection,

revealed that exon 2 of *Tarbdp* was partially skipped under the Cre expression (Supplementary Fig. 1D and E). Immunoblot analysis showed that the TDP-43 protein expressions in liver, kidney, heart, skeletal muscle and cerebral cortex of TDP CKO mice were not altered compared with their control littermates (Supplementary Fig. 1F). Immunofluorescent analysis of the

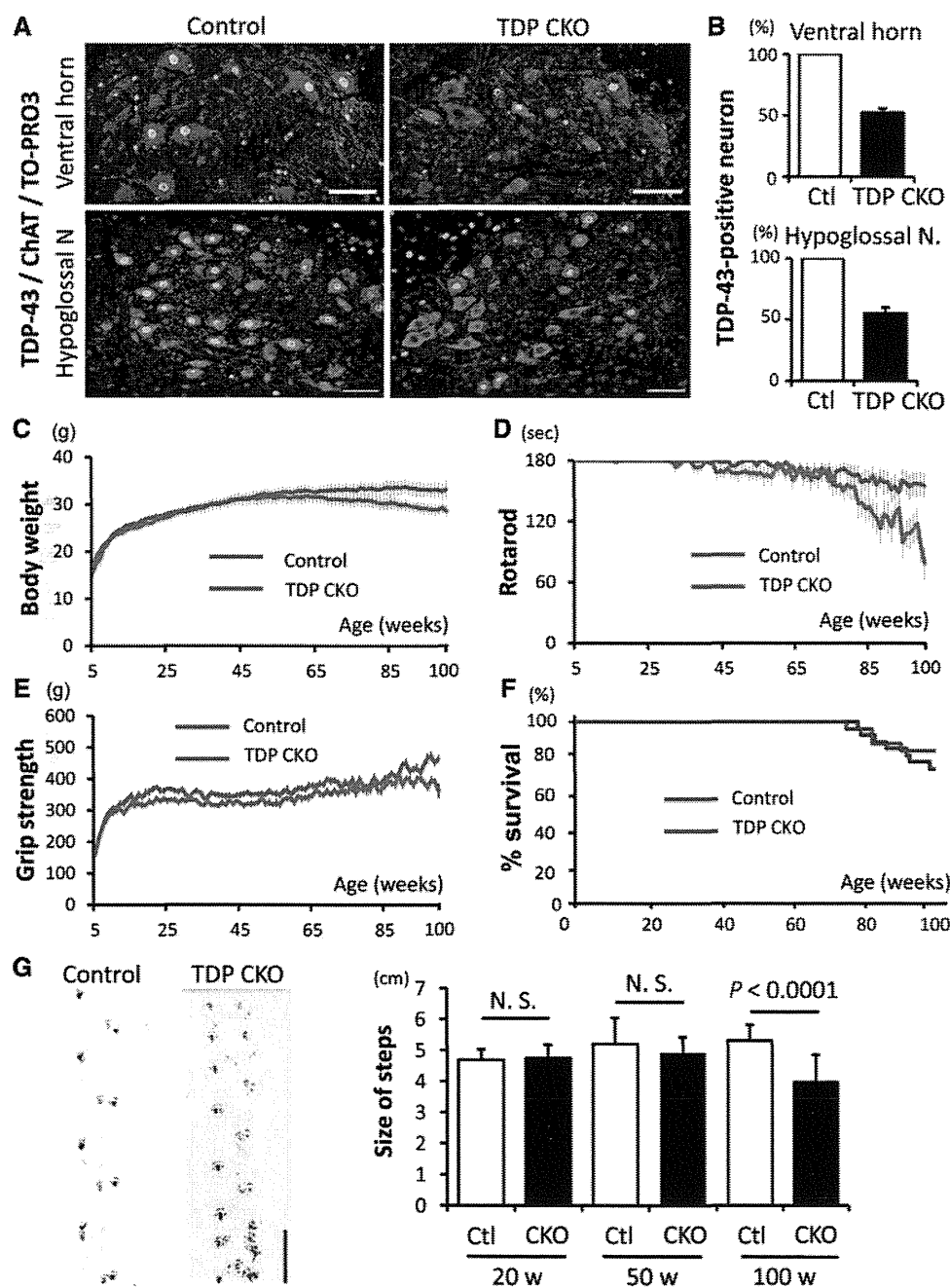


Figure 1 Progressive motor dysfunction in TDP CKO mice. (A) Immunofluorescent stainings (TDP-43; green, ChAT; red, TO-PRO3; blue) of lumbar ventral horn and hypoglossal nucleus of 10-week-old control and TDP CKO mice. (B) Percentage of TDP-43-positive motor neurons in the lumbar ventral horn and hypoglossal nucleus (N.) of 10-week-old control (Ctl) and TDP CKO mice ($n = 3$ for each group). (C–E) Body weight (C), Rotarod task (D), and grip strength (E) phenotypes of control (red line, $n = 21$) and TDP CKO mice (blue line, $n = 20$). Error bars indicate SEM. (F) Survival rates of control ($n = 27$) and TDP CKO mice ($n = 26$). (G) The average length of hindpaw steps in 20-week-old ($n = 6$ for each), 50-week-old ($n = 6$ for each), and 100-week-old ($n = 15$ for each) control and TDP CKO mice. Error bars indicate SD. Scale bars: A = 50 μ m; G = 5 cm. N.S. = not significant.

lumbar dorsal horn of 10-week-old control, TDP CKO and TDP hCKO mouse showed that all the assessed neurons were positive for TDP-43 (Supplementary Fig. 2). In addition, the analyses of 100-week-old control, TDP CKO and TDP hCKO mice demonstrated that TDP-43 was not excised in the neurons of the primary motor cortex, putamen, deep cerebellar nucleus and cerebellar cortex of TDP CKO or TDP hCKO mouse (Supplementary Figs 3 and 4).

TDP-43 CKO mice develop progressive motor dysfunction

The earliest symptom of motor deficit in TDP CKO mice was tremor, which appeared as early as 50 weeks. TDP CKO mice exhibited progressive weight loss beginning ~60 weeks (Fig. 1C), when muscle atrophy of the trunk and hind limb was detectable. The grip strength and motor performances in the Rotarod task of TDP CKO mice were lower than their control littermates (Fig. 1D and E) beginning at 85 and 75 weeks, respectively. At 100 weeks, TDP CKO mice were significantly different from the control littermates in body weight ($P = 0.04$), rotarod ($P = 0.001$) and grip strength ($P = 0.002$). The average length of hindpaw steps of TDP CKO mice was significantly shorter than that of control littermates in 100 weeks of age ($P = 0.000001$; Fig. 1G). The survival rate of TDP CKO mice, however, was not altered compared with that of control littermates (Fig. 1F). Analyses of TDP-43^{fllox/+} and TDP-43^{fllox/+}/VACht-Cre (TDP hCKO) mice, which resulted in heterozygous loss of TDP-43 in motor neurons, showed that body weight, Rotarod task, grip strength and length of hindpaw steps were not significantly

different between the two transgenic groups (Supplementary Fig. 5A–D).

TDP-43 depletion leads to atrophy of spinal motor neurons

Because TDP CKO mice exhibited progressive motor impairment, we focused on the morphology of spinal motor neurons. The immunofluorescent analysis of the lumbar ventral horn in 100-week-old TDP CKO mice revealed that motor neurons without TDP-43 were significantly smaller than those with TDP-43 and those in control littermates (Fig. 2A–C). Although TDP-43 was knocked-out in 49% of motor neurons in TDP CKO mice, the number of motor neurons in TDP CKO mice did not differ from that in control littermates (Fig. 2D and E). A time course analysis of TDP-43-lacking motor neurons in TDP CKO mice showed that neuronal atrophy was evident at 100 weeks (Fig. 2F). In addition, we measured TDP-43 knockout efficiency in the small ($>250 \mu\text{m}^2$) and large ($<250 \mu\text{m}^2$) lumbar motor neurons. The results showed that there was no difference in the knockout efficiency between the small and large motor neurons (Supplementary Fig. 6A), suggesting that the TDP-43-knockout efficiency in the gamma-motor neurons of TDP CKO mice is similar to that of alpha-motor neurons. The measurement of the average motor neuron number showed that the number of TDP-43-lacking large motor neurons decreased at 100 weeks of age compared with TDP-43-positive motor neurons, whereas the number of TDP-lacking small motor neurons increased, indicating that postnatal deletion of TDP-43 leads to atrophy of the alpha-motor neurons in the aged TDP CKO mice (Supplementary Fig. 6B). This view is supported

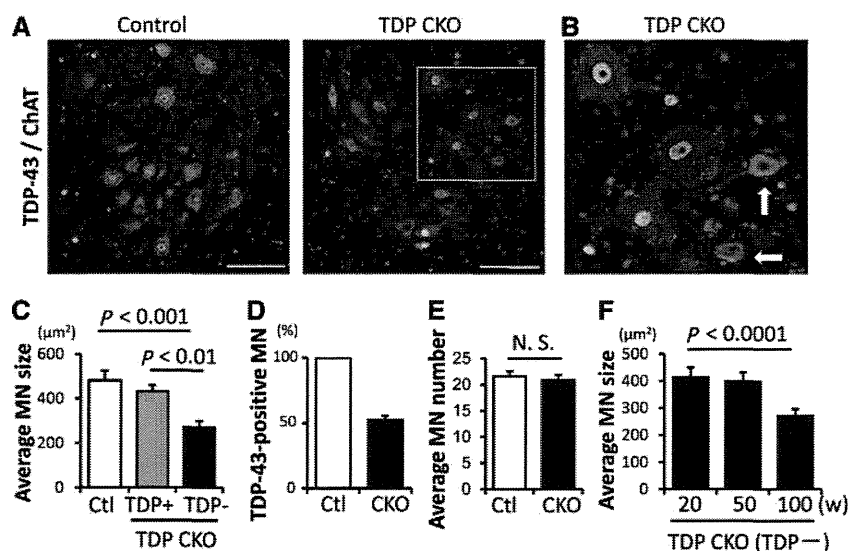


Figure 2 Morphological analysis of spinal motor neurons. (A and B) Immunofluorescent stainings (TDP-43, green; ChAT, red) of lumbar ventral horn from 100-week-old control (Ctl) and TDP CKO mice. (B) Enlarged image of the area marked in A (left). TDP-43-lacking motor neurons (arrows) were significantly smaller than TDP-43-positive motor neurons. (C) Percentage of TDP-43-positive motor neurons in the lumbar ventral horn of 100-week-old mice ($n = 5$ for each group). (D) Average size of spinal motor neurons (MN) in 100-week-old mice ($n = 5$ for each group). Error bars indicate SD. (E) Average number of spinal motor neurons in 100-week-old mice ($n = 5$ for each group). Error bars indicate SD. (F) Time course of atrophy of TDP-43-lacking motor neurons ($n = 5$ for each age). TDP+ = TDP-43-positive neurons; TDP- = TDP-43-negative neurons. Scale bars = 100 μm .

by the immunofluorescent analysis of the lumbar ventral horn from 100-week-old TDP CKO mice showing that the TDP-43-lacking alpha-motor neuron, which was positive for NeuN and ChAT, was smaller than the TDP-43-positive alpha-motor neuron (Supplementary Fig. 6C). On the other hand, there was no morphological difference in the motor neurons between TDP hCKO and TDP-43^{fllox/+} mice (Supplementary Fig. 5E).

TDP-43 depletion affects motor axon, neuromuscular junction and skeletal muscle

The toluidine blue staining of transverse sections of L5 ventral root exhibited axonal degeneration in a subset of large myelinated fibres of TDP CKO mice from 50 weeks (Fig. 3A). Quantitative analyses of the ventral roots demonstrated the decrease of large myelinated fibres and increase of small myelinated fibres in 100 week-old TDP CKO mice (Fig. 3A). The immunofluorescent analysis using anti-ChAT antibody also exhibited the loss of large motor axons in the ventral root of TDP CKO mice (Fig. 3B). Axial sections of the gastrocnemius muscle in 100-week-old TDP CKO mice exhibited grouped atrophy, a neurogenic muscular change (Fig. 3C). Whereas all assessed neuromuscular junctions in the control littermates were innervated, in the TDP CKO mice, the percentage of denervated neuromuscular junctions increased progressively after the age of 50 weeks, concomitant with motor impairment and motor neuron atrophy (Fig. 3D). In analyses of retrograde FluoroGold labelling of the motor neurons in TDP CKO mice, the degree of labelling was significantly less in the TDP-43-lacking motor neurons than in the TDP-43-positive motor neurons (Fig. 3E).

Assessment in motor nuclei of cranial nerves

The histopathology of patients with ALS is characterized by the selective loss of motor neurons with scarcely detectable damage in the extraocular motor nuclei. To examine the region-specific neuropathology in TDP CKO mice, we quantitatively analysed the motor nuclei of cranial nerves. In the trigeminal motor, facial, hypoglossal and abductor nuclei of 100-week-old TDP CKO mice, ~50% of motor neurons were negative for TDP-43, but in the oculomotor nucleus, the efficiency of TDP-43 depletion was only ~25% (Supplementary Fig. 7). Morphological analysis of the trigeminal motor, facial and hypoglossal nuclei in 100-week-old TDP CKO mice revealed that TDP-43-lacking motor neurons were significantly smaller than those with TDP-43 or those of the control littermates (Fig. 4A–C), whereas those in the oculomotor and the abductor nuclei were preserved (Fig. 4D and E), suggesting that this mouse model recapitulates the selective vulnerability of motor neuron in ALS. The time course analysis of the hypoglossal motor nucleus showed that the atrophy of the motor neuron was evident from 50 weeks. The number of motor neurons in these nuclei of TDP CKO mice was not altered compared with the control littermates, as was shown in the spinal cord (Fig. 4A–E).

Astrogliosis in ventral horn and accumulation of phosphorylated neurofilament in motor neurons of TDP CKO mice

Immunohistochemistry of the ventral horn showed that the number of astrocytes progressively increased in TDP CKO mice (Fig. 5A). Phosphorylated neurofilament accumulated in the cytoplasm of TDP-43-lacking motor neurons of TDP CKO mice, but not in motor neurons with TDP-43 in TDP CKO mice or those of control littermates (Fig. 5B).

Formation of autophagosomes in motor neurons of TDP CKO mice

Recent studies indicate that autophagosomes accumulate in motor neurons of patients with sporadic ALS and animal models of motor neuron diseases (Li *et al.*, 2008; Sasaki, 2011; Tian *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, we investigated autophagy-related pathology in 100-week-old control and TDP CKO mice. The immunofluorescent analysis showed LC3-positive puncta in 37% of TDP-43-lacking motor neurons, but not in TDP-43-positive motor neurons in TDP CKO mice or those of the control littermates (Fig. 6A). TDP-43-lacking motor neurons with the puncta were significantly smaller than those without the puncta (Fig. 6B). The ultrastructure of motor neurons from 100-week-old TDP CKO mice demonstrated that autophagy-related structures such as autolysosomes and autophagosomes were accumulated in the cell bodies of motor neurons (Fig. 6C–E), proximal motor axon (Fig. 6F), and sciatic nerve of TDP CKO mice (Fig. 6G–H). These structures were not seen in the control mice as far as we observed.

Discussion

Although TDP-43 is an established pathological hallmark of ALS, it remains unclear how TDP-43 contributes to the pathogenesis. In the present study, we showed that TDP CKO mice, in which TDP-43 was knocked-out specifically in postnatal motor neurons, developed an age-dependent progressive motor impairment such as gait disturbance and muscle atrophy, suggesting that the loss-of-function of TDP-43 in postnatal motor neurons plays a causative role in the neurodegenerative process of ALS. There has been a great deal of debate about whether loss or gain of TDP-43 function causes the neurodegeneration (Lee *et al.*, 2011). Several mouse, rat and primate models overexpressing wild-type or disease mutant TDP-43 recapitulate the phenotype of ALS or FTLD (Wegorzewska *et al.*, 2009; Shan *et al.*, 2010; Stallings *et al.*, 2010; Tsai *et al.*, 2010; Wils *et al.*, 2010; Xu *et al.*, 2010; Zhou *et al.*, 2010; Igaz *et al.*, 2011; Swarup *et al.*, 2011; Uchida *et al.*, 2012); however, redistributions and cytoplasmic inclusions of TDP-43 are generally rare and several models exhibit cytoplasmic mitochondrial aggregation, which is not common in ALS. The expression of endogenous TDP-43 is suppressed in neurons expressing human TDP-43-delta nuclear localization signal as well as those expressing human wild-type TDP-43, suggesting that

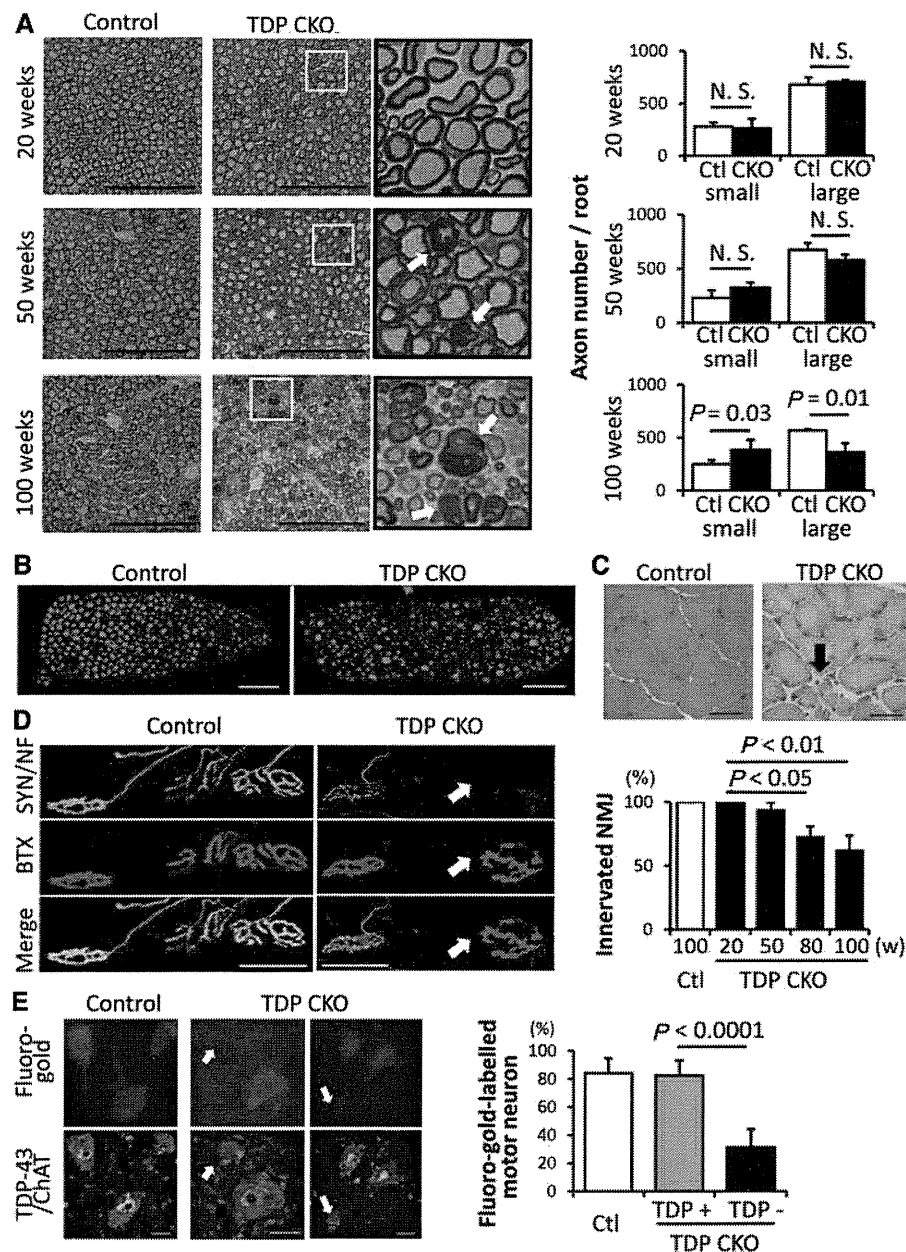


Figure 3 Analysis of motor axons, neuromuscular junctions, and skeletal muscles. **(A)** Toluidine blue staining images and the number of small myelinated fibres (<5 μm) and large myelinated fibres (>5 μm) in the L5 ventral root from 20, 50 and 100-week-old control and TDP CKO mice ($n = 6$ axons of each). The enlarged image of the yellow-framed area is also shown. Arrows indicate axonal degenerations. Scale bars = 100 μm. Error bars indicate SD. **(B)** Immunofluorescent staining of the L4 ventral root in 100-week-old mice with an anti-ChAT antibody. **(C)** Haematoxylin and eosin staining of gastrocnemius muscles of 100-week-old mice. Axial sections from TDP CKO mice exhibited grouped atrophy (arrow), whereas the control littermates showed no such phenomenon. **(D)** Immunofluorescent staining [synaptophysin (SYN) and phospho-neurofilament (NF), green; bungarotoxin (BTX), red] of neuromuscular junctions (NMJ) in 100-week-old mice and a time course analysis of neuromuscular junctions in TDP CKO mice. Denervated neuromuscular junctions (arrow) are indicated by the lack of synaptophysin and phospho-neurofilament staining. Scale bars = 50 μm. Error bars indicate SD ($n = 3$). **(E)** FluoroGold labelling (blue) and immunofluorescence staining (TDP-43, green; ChAT, red) of lumbar motor neurons. Retrograde FluoroGold labelling was significantly attenuated in TDP-43-lacking motor neurons but not in TDP-43-positive neurons in 100-week-old TDP CKO mice (arrows). Scale bars = 20 μm. Error bars indicate SD ($n = 10$).

mutant TDP-43 may cause neurodegeneration through inhibition of normal TDP-43 function (Igaz *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, TDP-43 knockout mice result in embryonic lethal phenotypes (Kraemer *et al.*, 2010; Sephton *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010),

and systemic postnatal deletion of this molecule led to rapid death (Chiang *et al.*, 2010). Although TDP-43-depleted models of *Drosophila* and zebrafish exhibit neurodevelopmental deficits in motor axons (Feiguin *et al.*, 2009; Kabashi *et al.*, 2011), the

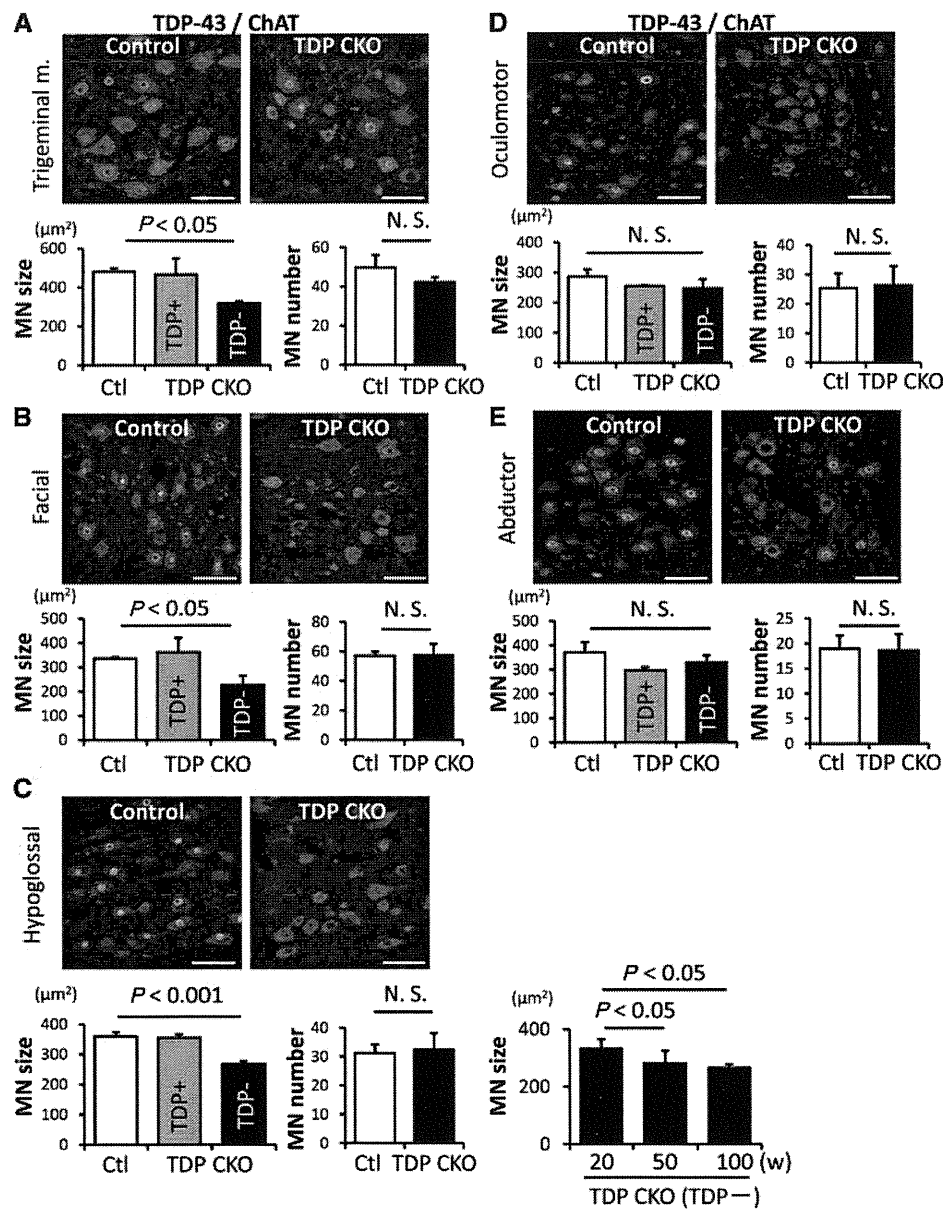


Figure 4 Morphological analysis of cranial motor nuclei. (A–E) Immunofluorescent analysis (TDP-43, green; ChAT, red) of motor neurons in the trigeminal motor (m.) (A), facial (B), hypoglossal (C), oculomotor (D), and abductor (E) nuclei from 100-week-old control ($n = 3$) and TDP CKO mice ($n = 3$). Graphs show the average size and number of motor neurons in each area. TDP + = TDP-43-positive neuron; TDP – = TDP-43-negative neuron. Error bars indicate SD. Scale bars = 50 μm. MN = motor neuron; N.S. = not significant.

role of TDP-43 in postnatal mammalian neurons has not been fully elucidated. In the present study, we clarified that TDP CKO mice, in which TDP-43 was specifically knocked-out by Cre recombinase in postnatal motor neurons, develops a progressive motor neuronal degeneration as seen in ALS, suggesting that TDP-43 is essential for the long term maintenance of postnatal motor neurons in mice. Although TDP CKO mice developed ALS-like motor impairment, the mortality of the mice was not different from that of control littermates. This might be due to the knockout efficiency of TDP-43, which occurred in ~50% of motor neurons, or due to the life span of mice, which is considerably shorter than the disease duration of patients with ALS. Moreover, there were no

significant alterations in body weight, motor function or morphology of motor neurons in our TDP heterozygous CKO (TDP hCKO) mice. Because previous studies demonstrated that the protein expression of TDP-43 was not reduced in various tissues of heterozygous TDP-43 knockout mice (Kraemer *et al.*, 2010; Sephton *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010), TDP-43 depletion is likely insufficient to affect the motor neurons in our TDP hCKO mice. At the same time, these data suggest that expression of Cre itself did not affect the vulnerability of the mouse motor neurons over 2 years.

An earlier study demonstrates that the motor neuron-specific TDP-43 knockout mouse carrying HB9-Cre exhibits early-onset

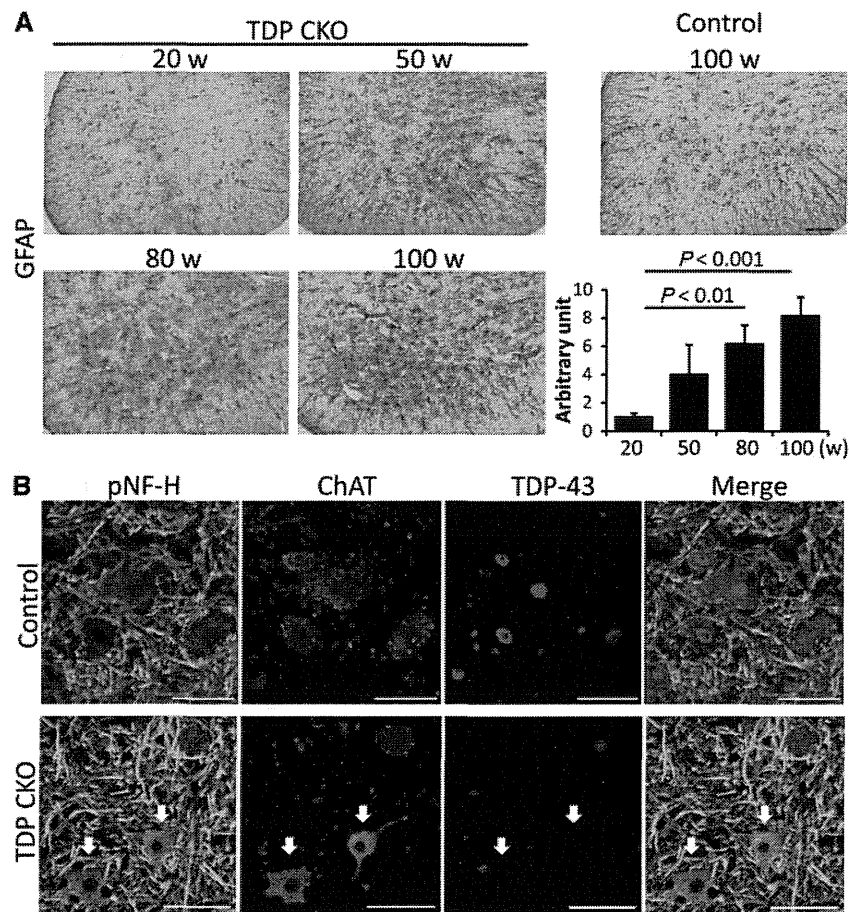


Figure 5 Astrogliosis and neuronal accumulation of phosphorylated neurofilament. (A) Immunohistochemistry against GFAP in the ventral horn and a time course analysis of astrogliosis. Error bars indicate SD ($n = 3$ for each age). (B) Immunofluorescent staining against pNF-H (green), ChAT (red) and TDP-43 (blue). pNF-H was accumulated in the cell bodies of TDP-43-lacking motor neurons of TDP CKO mice (arrows). Scale bars: **A** = 100 μ m; **B** = 50 μ m.

motor dysfunction and develops motor neuronal loss earlier than 10 weeks of age (Wu *et al.*, 2012). However, given that the Cre-mediated recombination using the *HB9* promoter began at the developmental stage E9.5 (Arber *et al.*, 1999), this model possibly reflects the loss-of-function of TDP-43 in the motor neuron development. By contrast, because the Cre expression in VACHT-Cre.Fast mice is mediated by the VACHT promoter, the number of Cre-expressing motor neurons in VACHT-Cre.Fast mice is scarcely detected at prenatal stages, but becomes maximum in number at 5 weeks (Misawa *et al.*, 2003). We also confirmed that TDP-43 was not excised in spinal motor neurons of TDP CKO mice at post-natal Day 2, but knocked-out in ~50 % of motor neurons of the 10-week-old mice. This temporal pattern of Cre expression appears to contribute to the late-onset progressive motor dysfunction in our TDP CKO mice and enable the assessment of loss of TDP-43 functions in mouse motor neurons at the postnatal stage. As far as we investigated, TDP-43 was knocked-out in spinal motor neurons beginning at 10 weeks, but the function and morphology of motor neurons were unexpectedly preserved for 1 year in TDP CKO mice, suggesting that the loss of TDP-43 was compensated in motor neurons of young

mice, but triggered neuronal vulnerability with the ageing process. Given that ALS is an age-related neurodegenerative disease and that the disease develops after middle age even in inherited cases with TDP-43 mutations (Gitcho *et al.*, 2008; Kabashi *et al.*, 2008; Sreedharan *et al.*, 2008; Yokoseki *et al.*, 2008), our TDP CKO mice appear to be a model that recapitulates the age-dependent phenotypes of ALS. However, as TDP CKO mice lack some aspects of human ALS pathology, such as cytoplasmic inclusions of TDP-43 and the involvement of upper motor neurons, the use of this model for therapeutic research needs further validation.

In the histopathological analyses, TDP CKO mice exhibited the atrophy of motor neurons, degeneration of large motor axons, denervation of neuromuscular junctions and grouped atrophy of skeletal muscles, all of which are common to the pathology of human motor neuron disease. The disruption of retrograde labelling in TDP-43-lacking motor neurons suggests that TDP-43 depletion directly induces neuronal dysfunction. Interestingly, the axonal degenerations were evident in the ventral root of TDP CKO mice at 50 weeks of age, when the morphology of lumbar motor neurons was not altered. These findings are compatible with the fact that ALS pathology initially manifests at the axon

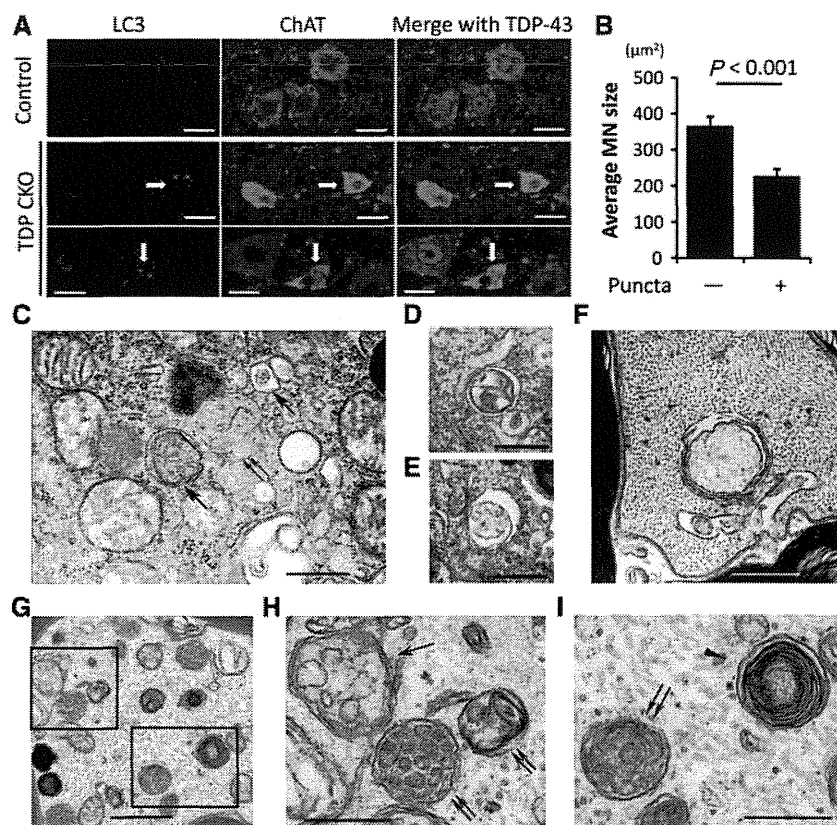


Figure 6 Formation of autophagosomes in motor neurons of TDP CKO mice. (A) Immunofluorescent analysis (LC3, green; ChAT, red; TDP-43, blue) revealed LC3-positive cytoplasmic puncta in TDP-43-lacking motor neurons of 100-week-old TDP CKO mice. (B) The average size of TDP-43 lacking motor neurons (MN) with ($n = 25$) and without ($n = 48$) LC3-positive puncta. Error bars indicate SEM. (C–I) Ultrastructural analysis of 100-week-old TDP CKO mice. Autophagosomes (arrows) and an autolysosome (double arrows) (C), autolysosomes surrounded by a single membrane containing mitochondria (D) and autophagosomes containing ribosome-like structures (E) were observed in the cell bodies of the motor neurons. An autophagic structure in the proximal motor axon (F). Accumulation of organelles containing mitochondria, autophagosomes (arrows), autolysosomes (double arrows), and autophagic structure with a multi-lamellated structure (arrowhead) in the sciatic nerve (G) and its enlarged images (D, E, H and I). Scale bars: A = 20 μm; C and G = 1 μm; F, H and I = 500 nm.

(Fischer *et al.*, 2004). The increase of small myelinated fibres accompanied by the decrease of large myelinated fibres in the ventral root of 100-week-old TDP CKO mice corresponds to the morphological change in the cell body of the motor neurons, and similar observations were also reported in the patients and mouse models of ALS (Bradley *et al.*, 1983; Zhang *et al.*, 1997). TDP CKO mice also exhibited several features that are shared with patients with sporadic ALS: the involvement in the cranial motor nuclei such as the hypoglossal nucleus, preserved morphology in the extraocular motor neurons, accumulations of phosphorylated neurofilament in motor neurons and astrogliosis in the spinal ventral horn. Dysphagia due to the involvement of the hypoglossal nucleus might enhance the weight loss in aged TDP CKO mice through decreased oral intake. In ALS, extraocular motor neurons are resistant to degeneration compared with other somatomotor neurons, and differences in calcium buffering capacities have been proposed as a possible reason for this selective vulnerability (Alexianu *et al.*, 1994; Reiner *et al.*, 1995; Laslo *et al.*, 2000). Because RNA-seq analysis demonstrates that depletion of

TDP-43 affects the calcium signalling pathway in mouse striatum (Polymenidou *et al.*, 2011), it is possible that dysregulation of calcium buffering underlies the pathogenesis of TDP CKO mice.

Our immunofluorescent analysis also demonstrated LC3-positive cytoplasmic puncta in TDP-43-depleted motor neurons, and the presence of these puncta was associated with shrinkage of motor neurons. This finding was confirmed by electron microscopy that revealed the presence of autolysosomes and autophagosomes in the motor neuronal cell bodies and axons of TDP CKO mice, suggesting that TDP-43 depletion resulted in dysregulation of the autophagic pathway. In addition, the accumulation of autophagic structures in the sciatic nerve and the disruption of retrograde labelling in TDP-43-lacking motor neurons suggest that the disruption of retrograde axonal transport may underlie the motor neuronal dysfunction in TDP CKO mice. Although the disruption of constitutive autophagy is shown to instigate the degeneration of certain types of neurons (Komatsu *et al.*, 2006), the causative role of the autophagic dysregulation in the pathogenesis of motor neuron diseases remains controversial. A recent work

demonstrates that motor neuron-specific knockout of the proteasome subunit Rpt3, but not autophagy mediator Atg7, leads to motor neuron degeneration in mice (Tashiro *et al.*, 2012), suggesting that the disruption of autophagic pathway in motor neurons may not be the primary cause of the neurodegeneration. However, accumulation of autophagosomes and autolysosomes was observed in the motor neurons of mice with mutant SOD1 (Li *et al.*, 2008; Tian *et al.*, 2011) and patients with sporadic ALS (Nakano *et al.*, 1993; Sasaki, 2011). In addition, mice carrying mutations of dynein or dynactin exhibit motor dysfunction with accumulation of autophagosomes in the motor neurons (Ravikumar *et al.*, 2005; Laird *et al.*, 2008). These lines of evidence may suggest a possible link between the increased autophagosomes and the process of motor neuron degeneration (Pasquali *et al.*, 2009; Chen *et al.*, 2012), although it remains unclear whether the accumulation of autophagosomes in neurodegenerative diseases results from activation of autophagy, disruption of retrograde transport or decreased lysosome fusion (Shintani and Klionsky, 2004; Baehrecke, 2005; Perlson *et al.*, 2010). Further investigation with regard to the linkage among loss of TDP-43, retrograde axonal transport and dysregulation of autophagy might contribute to our understanding the pathogenesis of ALS.

In conclusion, TDP CKO mice exhibited age-dependent motor impairment and morphological alterations in the motor neuron system that recapitulate several features of sporadic ALS neuropathology, including the accumulation of autophagosomes. These findings suggest that TDP-43 plays an essential role in the long-term maintenance of motor neurons, and that loss of TDP-43 function contributes to the pathogenesis of ALS.

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Supplementary material

Supplementary material is available at *Brain* online.

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