

aneurysm of the left middle cerebral artery. The patient's mother suffered from dementia, but the details of her disease were unknown. The patient substituted words for names of people and objects. Two years after the onset of symptoms, the patient became severely disfluent. However, she did not show any violent behavior, personality changes, or other behavioral abnormalities. The patient scored 29/30 on the MMSE. On the frontal assessment battery, she scored 13/18. The patient's time to complete the Trail Making Test (TMT) A was 70 s, and she could not finish the TMT B within five minutes. Her spontaneous speech production was characterized by slow and hesitant speech, frequently interrupted by long word-finding pauses. Her motor speech abilities were within the normal limits, and no apraxia of speech was noted. No parkinsonism was observed. The patient's clinical diagnosis was PPA with a family history of dementia.

3.3. Results of *C9orf72* analysis

We identified no patients with expanded hexanucleotide repeats in *C9orf72* in this study. In 75 patients, the average repeat number based on fluorescent fragment-length analysis was 3.77 ± 2.56 (range 2–11 repeats). We have previously reported that an analysis of 197 Japanese healthy controls did not find any *C9orf72* mutation. The average repeat number was 3.69 ± 2.46 (range 2–14 repeats) in the 197 controls [21].

4. Discussion

We identified five *MAPT* mutations, including a novel *de novo* mutation and a novel *PGRN* mutation, and we found no *C9orf72* mutations in our 75 patients. More mutations were found in *MAPT* than in the other two genes evaluated in this study. The infrequent observation of *PGRN* and *C9orf72* mutations might be partly due to the small number of FTLN patients included ($n = 38$) because the majority of *PGRN* and *C9orf72* mutations have been described in patients with FTLN. In contrast to most other mutation screening studies, we performed MLPA analysis to ensure that exonic or larger deletions or multiplications of *MAPT* and *PGRN* would be identified. Therefore, our data also show that multiplications of *MAPT* and exonic or genomic deletions in *PGRN* are rare in Asian populations. Although mutations were detected in FTLN and PSP patients, we did not find any mutations in our CBS patients. A further larger study and investigation of the other genes are needed to clarify the genetic background of Japanese patients with CBS.

The *MAPT* p.S285R mutation, which we found in this study, is a novel *de novo* mutation. To the best of our knowledge, this report is the first description of an adult sporadic case of a *de novo* *MAPT* mutation associated with dementia and parkinsonism. All six patients (Patients 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, and 7) with PSP and the distinct eye movements described in the present study (such as tonic upward ocular fixation, oscillopsia with congenital nystagmus, and visual grasping) harbored *MAPT* mutations. Below, we discuss these abnormal eye movements, which are generally not observed in patients with sporadic PSP.

In Patient 1 (*MAPT* p.S285R), we observed tonic upward ocular fixation, which is a loss of downward saccades resembling an acquired ocular motor apraxia [22]. This condition is characterized by a loss of voluntary control of saccades and pursuit, whereas reflex movements—in particular, the vestibulo-ocular reflex—were preserved. Acquired ocular motor apraxia is usually the result of bilateral frontal or frontoparietal infarcts. Therefore, tonic upward ocular fixation due to a *MAPT* mutation might share “supranuclear” cerebral lesions in common with ocular motor apraxia. Brainstem functions, including the vestibulo-ocular reflex and Bell's phenomenon, were preserved in Patient 1.

In Patients 2 and 3 (*MAPT* p.N279K), pendular nystagmus was present since childhood and was suppressed with eyelid closure. These features are consistent with congenital nystagmus [23]. Most patients with congenital nystagmus do not complain of oscillopsia, despite having nearly continuous eye movement [23]. Notably, Patients 2 and 3 noticed oscillopsia when they developed parkinsonism. In these siblings, cerebral lesions caused solely by a *MAPT* mutation were unlikely to be the cause of their nystagmus; however, the co-existence of congenital nystagmus and the *MAPT* mutation might have caused the oscillopsia. This notion is supported in part because the patients had a sister who remained healthy – even in her late 60s – and did not complain of oscillopsia, despite having obvious pendular nystagmus (Fig. 1A). Thus, *MAPT* mutations might impair the visual-motion processing pathways that would normally suppress oscillopsia in patients with common congenital nystagmus. Visual grasping, which was first described by Ghika et al. [20], was observed in Patients 5, 6, and 7 (*MAPT* p.N279K) [19].

Although PSP is a rare manifestation of *MAPT* mutation [24], and the routine screening of sporadic PSP for mutations in *MAPT* is not recommended because of low yield [25], it is recommended that screening be considered for families in which there is an autosomal dominant history of a PSP syndrome, particularly when there are accompanying features suggestive of bvFTD [24]. The clinical difference from sporadic PSP might sometimes be difficult to detect, especially in patients without a family history [26–28]; however, an important case report indicated that an age at disease onset under 50 years combined with the absence of early falling may indicate a possible *MAPT* mutation in clinically diagnosed PSP, even in the absence of a positive family history [26]. Consistent with this observation, our eight *MAPT*-positive patients with PSP phenotype were younger than 50 years at disease onset (Table 2). We further suggest that it may be useful to test for *MAPT* mutations in early-onset PSP patients with the abnormal eye movements that are not typical of sporadic PSP. In fact, we identified the novel *de novo* mutation p.S285R in Patient 1 and p.N279K in Patient 5, who had no family history, after focusing on these clinical phenotypes.

To the best of our knowledge, the *PGRN* mutation has not been previously described in Asian populations [29]. We detected a novel *PGRN* mutation, p.G338RfsX23 (c.1012_1013delGGinsC), and thus showed that *PGRN* mutations may exist in Asian populations. This mutation introduces a premature termination codon at the same site as the p.G333VfsX28 (c.998delG) mutation, which was reported previously, and produced a PPA phenotype in all of the affected individuals [30]. The PPA phenotype of p.G338RfsX23 (c.1012_1013delGGinsC) in our study is remarkably similar to that of p.G333VfsX28 (c.998delG), especially in the manifestation of word-finding and object-naming difficulties and the lack of memory or personality changes during the first few years after symptom onset. We believe that the mutant RNA in both cases is most likely subjected to nonsense-mediated decay, similar to other *PGRN* mutations [2].

In summary, based on these findings, we recommend genetic testing for *MAPT* mutations not only in familial patients but also in sporadic patients, especially early-onset PSP patients with the abnormal eye movements that are generally not observed in sporadic PSP. Although *PGRN* and *C9orf72* mutations were rare in this study, we determined that the *PGRN* mutation does exist in Asian patients with FTLN (PPA). Based on the clinical information, screening for *MAPT*, *PGRN*, and *C9orf72* mutations should be further undertaken to improve the diagnosis of specific clinical entities of neurodegenerative disorders.

Conflicts of interest

None.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found online at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.parkreldis.2012.06.019>.

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ATP13A2 deficiency induces a decrease in cathepsin D activity, fingerprint-like inclusion body formation, and selective degeneration of dopaminergic neurons



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ABSTRACT

Kufor-Rakeb syndrome (KRS) was originally described as an autosomal recessive form of early-onset parkinsonism with pyramidal degeneration and dementia. *ATP13A2* was identified as the causative gene in KRS. *ATP13A2* encodes the ATP13A2 protein, which is a lysosomal type5 P-type ATPase, and *ATP13A2* mutations are linked to autosomal recessive familial parkinsonism.

Here, we report that normal *ATP13A2* localizes in the lysosome, whereas disease-associated variants remain in the endoplasmic reticulum. Cathepsin D activity was decreased in *ATP13A2*-knockdown cells that displayed lysosome-like bodies characterized by fingerprint-like structures. Furthermore, an *atp13a2* mutation in medaka fish resulted in dopaminergic neuronal death, decreased cathepsin D activity, and fingerprint-like structures in the brain. Based on these results, lysosome abnormality is very likely to be the primary cause of KRS/PARK9.

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1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is one of the most common movement disorders, and it is caused by loss of dopaminergic neurons. The molecular mechanisms underlying neuronal degeneration in PD remain unknown; however, it is now clear that genetic factors

heavily contribute to the pathogenesis of this disease [1]. In approximately 10% of patients with clinical features of PD, the disease state has a strict familial etiology.

PARK9-linked PD is an autosomal recessive early-onset disorder that is characterized by levodopa-responsive parkinsonism, supranuclear gaze palsy, pyramidal signs, and dementia; this condition is also called Kufor-Rakeb syndrome (KRS), being named for a consanguineous Jordanian family containing four members with this disorder [2]. Recently, *ATP13A2* was identified as the causative gene for KRS/PARK9. The *ATP13A2* gene comprises 29 exons that encode a lysosomal type 5 P-type ATPase with 10 transmembrane domains [3]. Thus far, eight mutations have been reported in just five families and in two additional unrelated patients, and no neuropathological examination of an autopsy case has been documented [3–8]. The function of the *ATP13A2* protein remains largely unknown, but it is supposed that *ATP13A2* might participate in autophagic protein degradation via the lysosomal pathway [9].

Here, we established and analyzed a cell culture model of *ATP13A2* knockdown and *Atp13a2* mutant medaka fish to elucidate the mechanisms underlying PARK9-associated pathology.

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Both the cultured cells and the mutant fish exhibited decreased cathepsin D enzymatic activity, fingerprint-like inclusion body formation, and neuronal death. These findings indicated that abnormalities in lysosome function are the primary defect in KRS/PARK9.

2. Results

2.1. Wild-type ATP13A2 localizes to the lysosome, but some disease-relevant variants localize to the endoplasmic reticulum

To investigate the subcellular localization of ATP13A2, we used an anti-V5 antibody and antibodies that recognize several markers of intracellular organelles to double label SH-SY5Y cells that stably expressed wild-type ATP13A2 fused to the V5 epitope (WT-V5). The WT-V5 signal largely colocalized with the signal of cathepsin D, a lysosomal aspartic protease (Fig. 1A and S1). Additionally, WT-V5 partially overlapped with markers of the Golgi apparatus (GM130), the late endosome (Rab7) and the autophagosome (LC3B), but not with the markers of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) (GRP78), the mitochondria (Tom20), the early endosome (EEA1 and Rab5), or the exocytotic vesicles (Rab3 and 4) (Fig. 1A, B and S1). GFP signals in SH-SY5Y cells that stably expressed GFP-tagged wild-type ATP13A2 (GFP-WT) strongly colocalized with either of two lysosomal membrane proteins, Lamp2 (Fig. 1A and S1) or Lamp1 (data not shown). Furthermore, immunoelectron microscopy using ultrathin cryosections of GFP-WT SH-SY5Y cells confirmed that gold particles labeling GFP-WT (arrow head: 10 nm gold) and those labeling Lamp1 (arrow: 5 nm gold) co-localized on the lysosomal membrane (Fig. 1C). These data indicated that ATP13A2 is a resident protein of the lysosomal membrane.

Thus far, eight disease-associated mutations have been identified in the *ATP13A2* gene, including one that we described initially [3–8]. To determine whether the mutant proteins were mislocalized and whether any such mislocalization has etiological importance, we assessed the subcellular localization of five pathogenic protein variants (Fig. 2A). These mutants were each tagged with a V5 epitope and then transiently transfected into SH-SY5Y cells. To, first, characterize the subcellular distribution of KRS mutants, we separated cell homogenates by Percoll density gradient centrifugation. This Percoll gradient system separates dense lysosomes (near bottom) from lighter particles such as ER. We found that WT-V5 was mainly co-fractionated with lysosomal component (Lamp1 and cathepsin D; Fraction No. 13–16, Fig. 2B). However, an ATP13A2 variant that lacks exon 13 (1306 + 5G→A) but maintains the reading frame was co-fractionated not with lysosomal proteins but with GRP78 (Fraction No. 2–8, Fig. 2B); this finding indicated that the protein variant accumulated in the ER. Some other ATP13A2 pathogenic variants (F182L and G504R) also accumulated in the ER in a manner similar to the 1306 + 5G→A variant. In contrast, the other two pathogenic variants (T12M and G533R) were co-fractionated with lysosomal components, as was the WT protein. To, further, confirm the subcellular localization, we carried out double fluorescence immunocytochemistry of permeabilized SH-SY5Y cells by staining KRS mutants (V5), the ER marker (GRP78), the lysosomal marker (cathepsin D) and the mitochondria marker (Tom20). Along with immunoblotting of Percoll density gradient fractionation, immunofluorescence studies showed 1306 + 5G→A mutant, F182L and G504R colocalized with GRP78 and the other two variants (T12M and G533R) colocalized with cathepsin D as already reported [10–14] (Fig. 2C and S1). The expression levels of ATP13A2 mutant proteins that accumulated in the ER (F182L, G504R, and 1306 + 5G→A) were lower than that of the WT protein and MG132 inhibited degradation of the all ATP13A2 variants as well as that of the WT protein (Fig. 2D).

2.2. Stable knockdown of ATP13A2 induces cathepsin D deficiency and structures that resemble neuronal ceroid-lipofuscinosis deposits

To assess whether the loss of normal ATP13A2 functions has a causal role in PD pathogenesis, the expression of endogenous ATP13A2 was suppressed in SH-SY5Y cells by gene knockdown. By using antibodies that we generated (Fig. 3A), we showed that endogenous ATP13A2 protein levels in SH-SY5Y cells that stably expressed ATP13A2 shRNA (ATP13A2shRNA-1 or -2) were efficiently suppressed (Fig. 3B). Water soluble Tetrazolium salts (WST)-8 assay demonstrated that ATP13A2 knockdown caused a significant reduction of the cell growth in SH-SY5Y cells (Fig. 3B). Next, we determined the distribution and the morphology of lysosomes in SH-SY5Y cells subjected to ATP13A2 knockdown. Immunostaining of cathepsin D and Lamp2 indicated that ATP13A2 deficiency led to the assembly of lysosomes in the perinuclear region and decreased cathepsin D staining (Fig. S2). The protein amount of full length (52-kDa), immature (44-kDa) and mature (32-kDa) forms of cathepsin D of the cells expressing ATP13A2 shRNAs were all decreased together with the enzyme activity (Fig. 3C). To show the reduction of cathepsin D activity was indeed induced by the reduction of ATP13A2, not by the non-specific effect of shRNA, we generated shRNA-resistant species of ATP13A2. SH-SY5Y cells stably expressing ATP13A2 shRNAs that were transfected with shRNA resistant ATP13A2 showed comparable cathepsin D activity to the controls (Fig. S3A). The activity and amount of mature forms (25-kDa) of cathepsin B and L were also decreased in the knockdown cells line by ATP13A2 shRNA-1, but not shRNA-2, suggesting that the loss of ATP13A2 principally gives rise to the reduction of cathepsin D (Fig. 3C). Finally, analysis via transmission electron microscopy revealed that lysosome-like bodies became more numerous in ATP13A2 shRNAs expressing cells and that very immense high density structure appeared adjacent to the nucleus in these cells (Fig. 3D: a–h). High-magnification images revealed that the abnormal structures in these cells included fingerprint profiles-like structure (Fig. 3D: e), and these structures were very similar to the structure of the neurons in mice lacking cathepsin D [15]. The levels of LC3-II, autophagosome marker, in shRNA-1 transfected cells were increased (Fig. 3E) and p62 a substrate of autophagic degradation, was accumulated in both of the shRNA expressing lines (Fig. S3B), suggesting that an appearance of abnormal structure induced by ATP13A2 deficiency might be involved with impaired lysosomal proteolysis. Taken together, these findings indicated that loss of ATP13A2 led to lysosomal pathology and, more specifically, a reduction in cathepsin D activity.

2.3. Generation of an *Atp13a2* mutant medaka fish

Next, we generated and evaluated medaka fish with an *Atp13a2* mutation to investigate the mechanism of KRS/PARK9-associated neurodegeneration in vivo. The draft of the medaka genome contains only one identifiable ortholog of the human *ATP13A2* gene. We cloned the medaka *atp13a2* gene by RT-PCR and RACE, and it encoded a protein consisting of 1159 amino acids. The amino-acid sequence showed 51.3% homology to human ATP13A2 protein (Fig. S4A). To characterize medaka *atp13a2* expression, we used in situ hybridization to visualize medaka *atp13a2* mRNA. No signal was observed with the sense RNA probe. However, the anti-sense RNA probe resulted in diffuse signals in the gray matter of medaka brain (Fig. 4A). The telencephalon and diencephalon that contain the putative striatum and many dopaminergic neurons, respectively, were intensely labeled by the anti-sense probe. The optic tectum was also intensely labeled, but the hindbrain and spinal cord were scarcely labeled (Fig. 4A).

We then used TILLING (Targeting Induced Local Lesions In Genomes) method to generate an *Atp13a2* mutant fish [16]. We

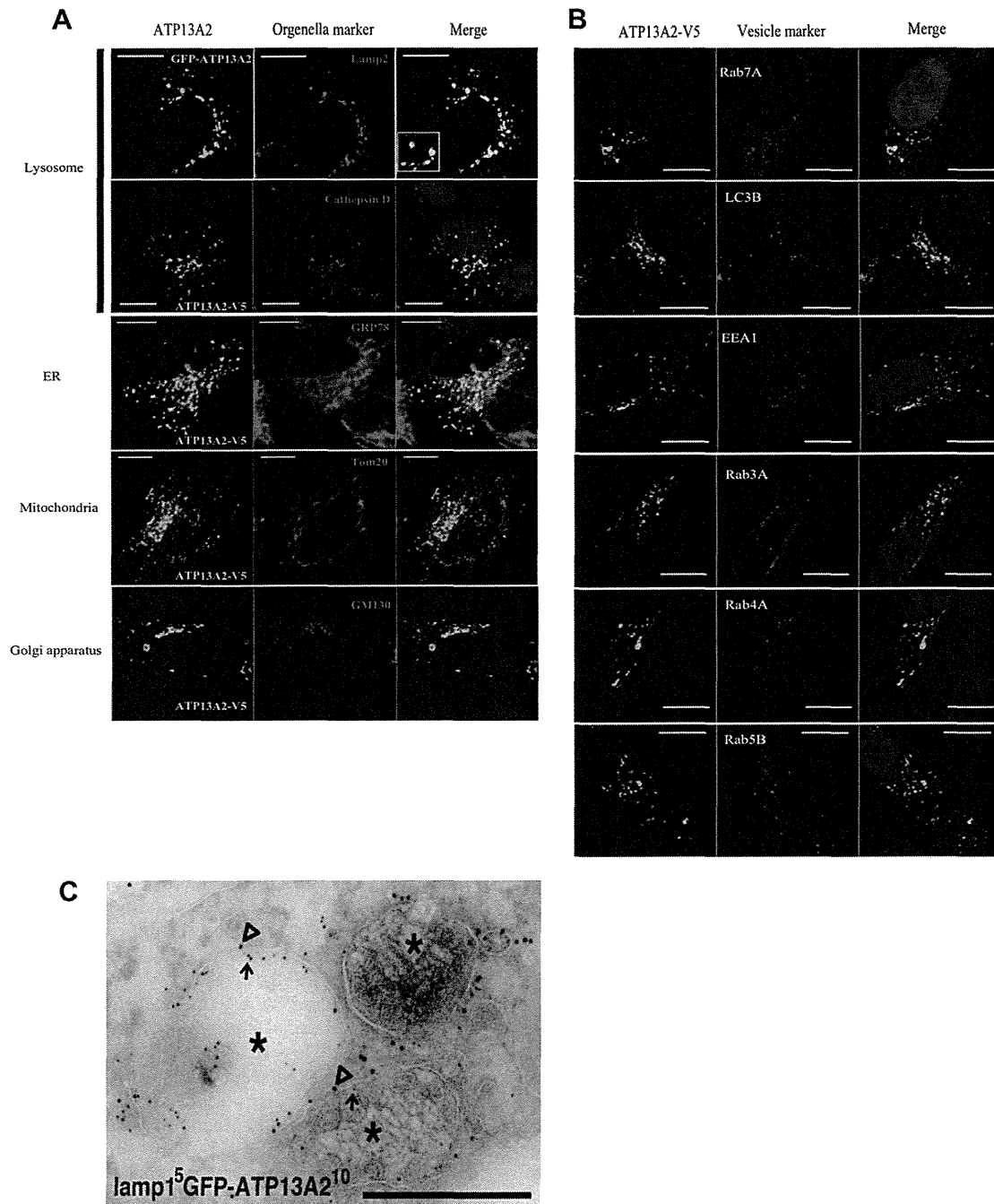


Fig. 1. Wild-type ATP13A2 localizes at lysosomal membranes. (A and B) WT-V5 and GFP-WT fusion proteins consistently co-localizes with Lamp2 and cathepsin D. Additionally, WT-V5 partially overlapped with GM130, Rab7 and LC3B. (Scale bar; 10 μ m). (C) Immunoelectron microscopy using ultrathin cryosections. Double immunostaining of GFP-ATP13A2 (gold particles, 10 nm in diameter (open arrowheads)) and Lamp1 (gold particles, 5 nm in diameter (arrows)). Both types of immuno-gold label clearly localizes along the membranes around lysosomes (asterisks). (Scale bar; 0.5 μ m).

sequenced the genomes of 5771 samples obtained from our ENU-mutagenized medaka library, and identified one mutation “IVS13, T-C, +2” that resulted in an aberrant splice donor site (Fig. 4B). The IVS13, T-C, +2 mutant from this strain was subjected to six sequential backcrosses to generate the mutant used in the following experiments. A cross between heterozygous “IVS13, T-C, +2” mutant pair resulted in wild-type fish (WT/WT), heterozygous mutants (WT/mt), and homozygous mutants (mt/mt) in Mendelian ratios. RT-PCR analysis revealed an abnormal splice variant in the WT/mt and mt/mt medaka (Fig. 4C), and the sequence of these PCR products

indicated that exon 13 was skipped in the mutant mRNAs (Fig. 4D). Surprisingly, this abnormal splicing pattern was almost identical to that in the human KRS/PARK9 patient [3], in which the 111-bp exon 13 is skipped (Fig. S4B). Real-time PCR showed a marked reduction (17.8%) in the normal *atp13a2* mRNA in the mt/mt medaka brain (Fig. 4E). We therefore concluded that we had succeeded in identifying an *Atp13a2* mutant in medaka, and this mutation was similar to a pathogenic KRS/PARK9 mutation in human.

Atp13a2 mutant medaka fish grew normally during early development without any obvious morphological abnormalities.

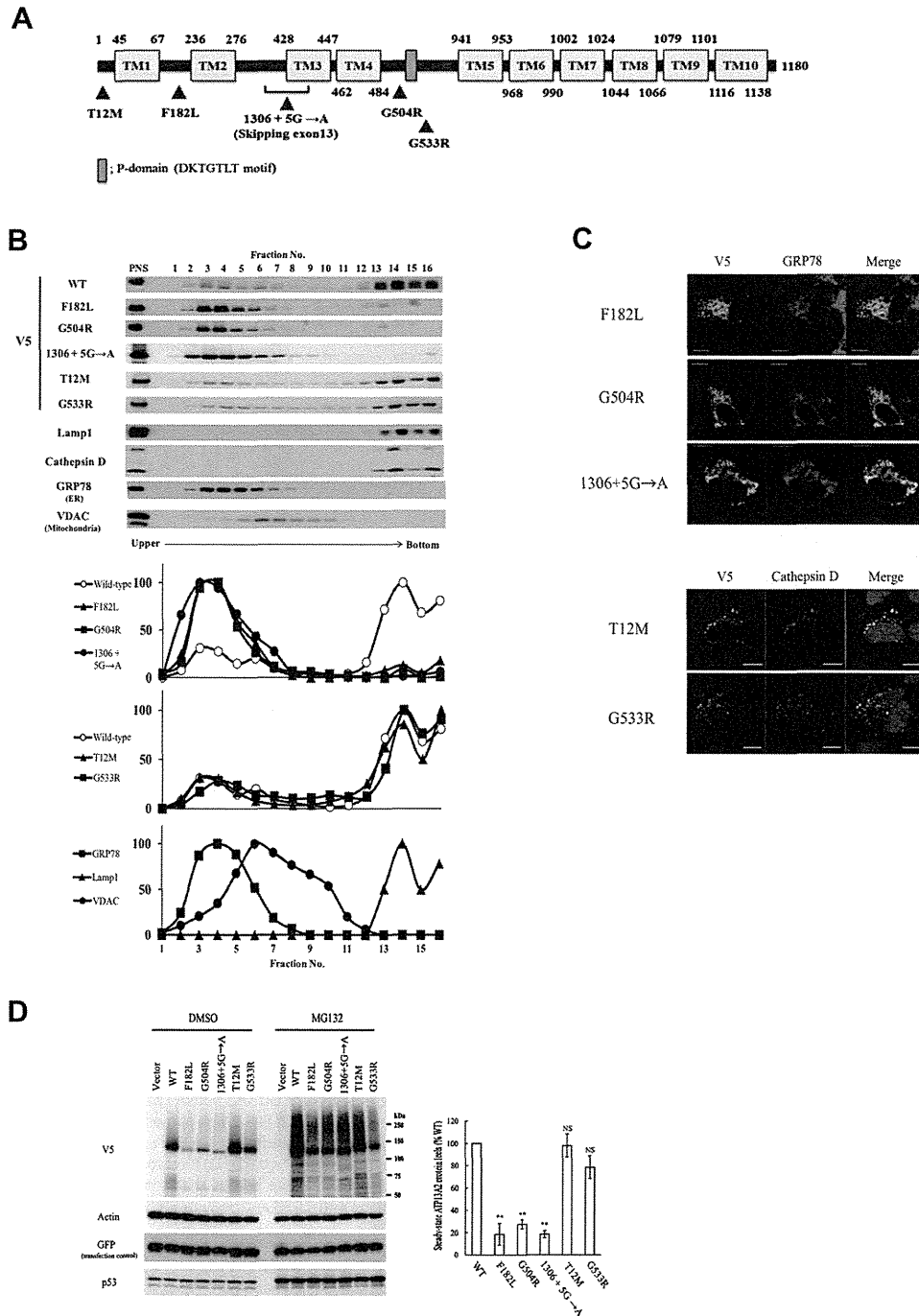


Fig. 2. Characterization of subcellular localization of KRS mutants. (A) Schematic diagram of disease-relevant mutants of ATP13A2 used in this study. (B) Percoll gradient fractionation of ATP13A2 protein. The graphs indicate densitometry of bands. This Percoll gradient system separates dense lysosomes (near bottom, Fraction 13–16) from lighter particles such as ER (Fraction 2–8). (C) Double immunofluorescence studies for KRS mutants. Colocalization of T12M or G533R with cathepsin D, a lysosomal protein, is observed. Other mutants localizes with GRP78, a resident ER chaperone protein. (D) Protein blot analysis of ATP13A2 WT and mutant V5-tagged constructs in transiently transfected SH-SY5Y cells. GFP was co-transfected with the ATP13A2s as a transfection control. The proteasome inhibitor MG132 (10 μ M) stabilizes PARK9 mutants after 24 h. The antibody against p53, whose degradation is known to be dependent to proteasome, is used as a control for MG132 treatment. Densitometry analysis indicates the steady state protein levels of each variant. Data are represented as percent of WT. Error bars, S.E.M. $n = 3$. ** $P < 0.01$ vs WT.

Remarkably, the mt/mt medaka fish showed a significant reduction of the life span relative to WT/WT and to WT/mt fish (Fig. 4F). The body weight of mt/mt fish was normal (Fig. 4G). We examined the internal organs including brains of the dead mt/mt fish, but we could not identify a specific reason for the shorter lifespan of mt/mt medaka fish. We next quantified spontaneous swimming movement in mt/mt medaka fish. At 4 months, mt/mt fish exhibited a mild locomotor increase with significant differences reported only in swim-

ming duration whereas distance and velocity are normal. All the genotypes showed comparable movement at 12 months, irrespective of *atp13a2* genotype (Fig. 4H).

Collectively, we generated *atp13a2* mutant medaka fish carrying almost identical mutation to human KRS/PARK9 patient. The homozygous mutant fish grew normally, but relative to wild-type and heterozygous animals, these mutants exhibited more spontaneous swimming movement at 4 months and had a shorter life span.

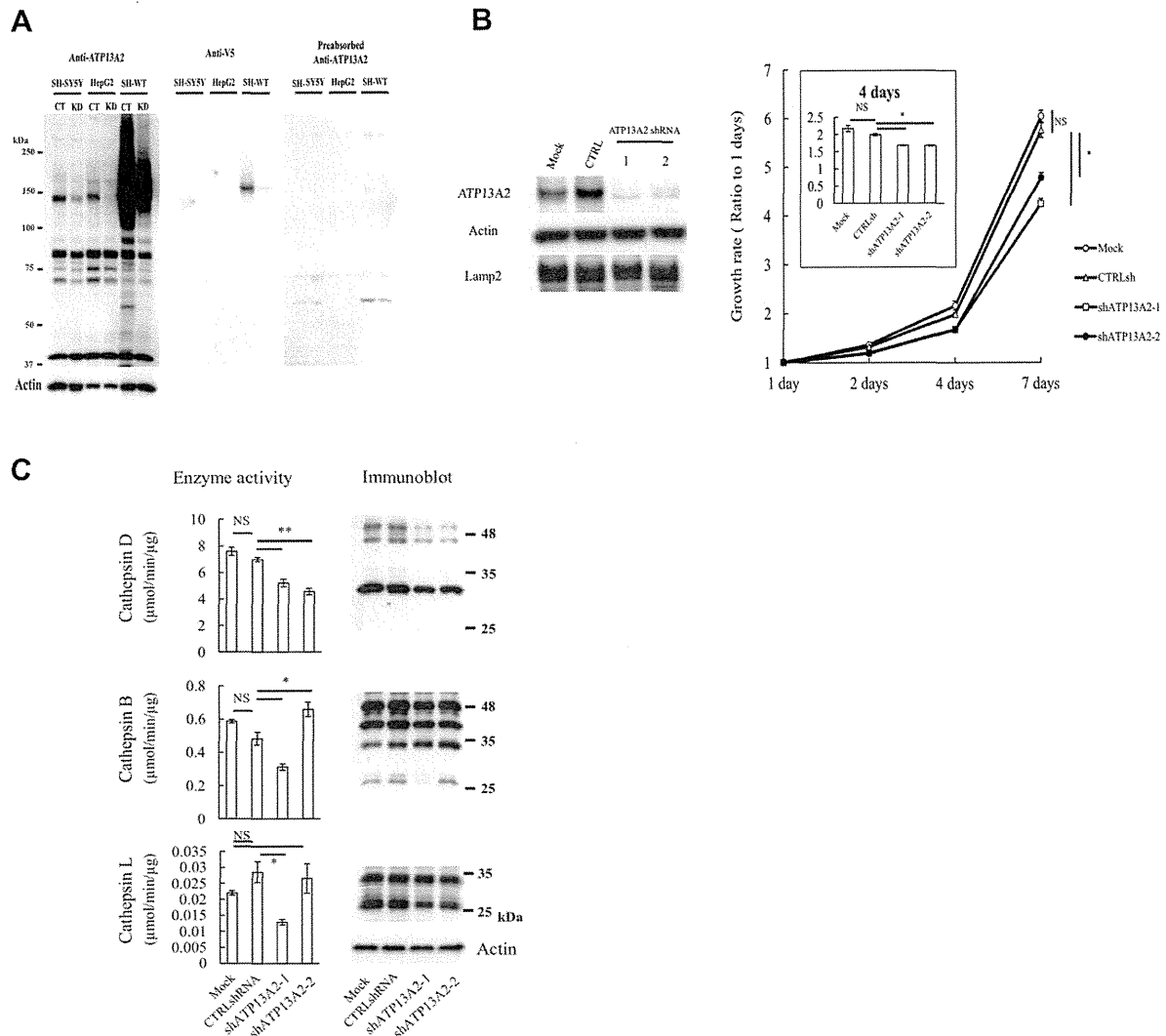


Fig. 3. Suppression of ATP13A2 leads to cathepsin D deficiency and accumulation of fingerprint-like structures in SH-SY5Y cells. (A) Immunoblotting with anti-ATP13A2 antibody (left panel), anti-V5 antibody (middle panel) and anti-ATP13A2 antibody (preabsorbed) (right panel) shows the ATP13A2 expression levels of SH-SY5Y cells, HepG2 cells and SH-SY5Y cells stably expressing WT (SH-WT). Cells are transfected with negative control (CT) or ATP13A2 siRNA (KD) for 72 h. (B) Immunoblotting using anti-ATP13A2 antibody and cell growth assay of SH-SY5Y cell lines stably expressing shRNA against human ATP13A2. The graph shows the growth rate of cells. Data are the means of triplicate experiments. Error bars, S.E.M. * $P < 0.05$. (C) Measurement of cathepsin D, B and L activity and protein level in the extracts from ATP13A2-knockdown SH-SY5Y cells. Enzyme activity assays were performed in three independent experiments. Error bars, S.E.M. * $P < 0.05$. ** $P < 0.01$. (D) Electron microscopic examination of SH-SY5Y cells that stably express shATP13A2-1 or shATP13A2-2. The diminished ATP13A2 expression induces lysosome-like bodies that contain granular deposits and fingerprint-like structure. Boxed areas (d) are shown enlarged in the left (e). (E) Evaluation of LC3 accumulation using anti-LC3B antibody in SH-SY5Y cell lines stably expressing shATP13A2 (each 3 clones). ** $P < 0.01$.

2.4. Neuropathology of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka fish

Selective and progressive loss of dopaminergic/noradrenergic cells constitutes the characteristic pathology of human PD patients. Having previously identified TH-positive (TH+) dopaminergic neurons and noradrenergic neurons in the medaka brain [17], we could examine histologically these TH+ neurons in the brain tissue of *atp13a2* mutants. At 4 months, the number of TH+ neurons did not differ significantly among mt/mt, mt/WT, and WT/WT fish. However at 8 and 12 months, the number of TH+ neurons in the middle diencephalon and the density of TH+ fibers in the telen-cephalon were lower in the mt/mt medaka than in mt/WT or in WT/WT fish (Fig. 5A). The mt/mt medaka fish at these stages also had fewer noradrenergic neurons in the medulla oblongata than did mt/WT or WT/WT fish (Fig. 5A). The reduction of TH+ neurons was not robust but age-dependent and progressive. Additionally,

we examined tryptophan hydroxylase and serotonin levels via immunohistochemistry; neither the number of tryptophan hydroxylase positive neurons in the raphe nor the intensity of serotonin signals in the diencephalon differed significantly among all the genotypes (Fig. 5A). Although no TUNEL-positive dopaminergic neuron was observed in the WT/WT brains, a few TUNEL/TH double positive neurons were detected in the mt/mt brains (Fig. 5B). To exclude the possibility of developmental disorder of the dopaminergic neurons, we also counted the TH+ neurons in the middle diencephalon at 1 month. At this larval stage, mt/mt fish showed comparable number of dopaminergic neurons to WT/WT fish (Fig. S5) indicating the loss of dopaminergic neurons seen at 8 and 12 months was indeed late-onset phenotype. Next, we measured the amount of dopamine, noradrenaline, and serotonin in whole-brain samples from mutant fish at 4 and 12 months. The amount of dopamine in the brain samples from mt/mt medaka

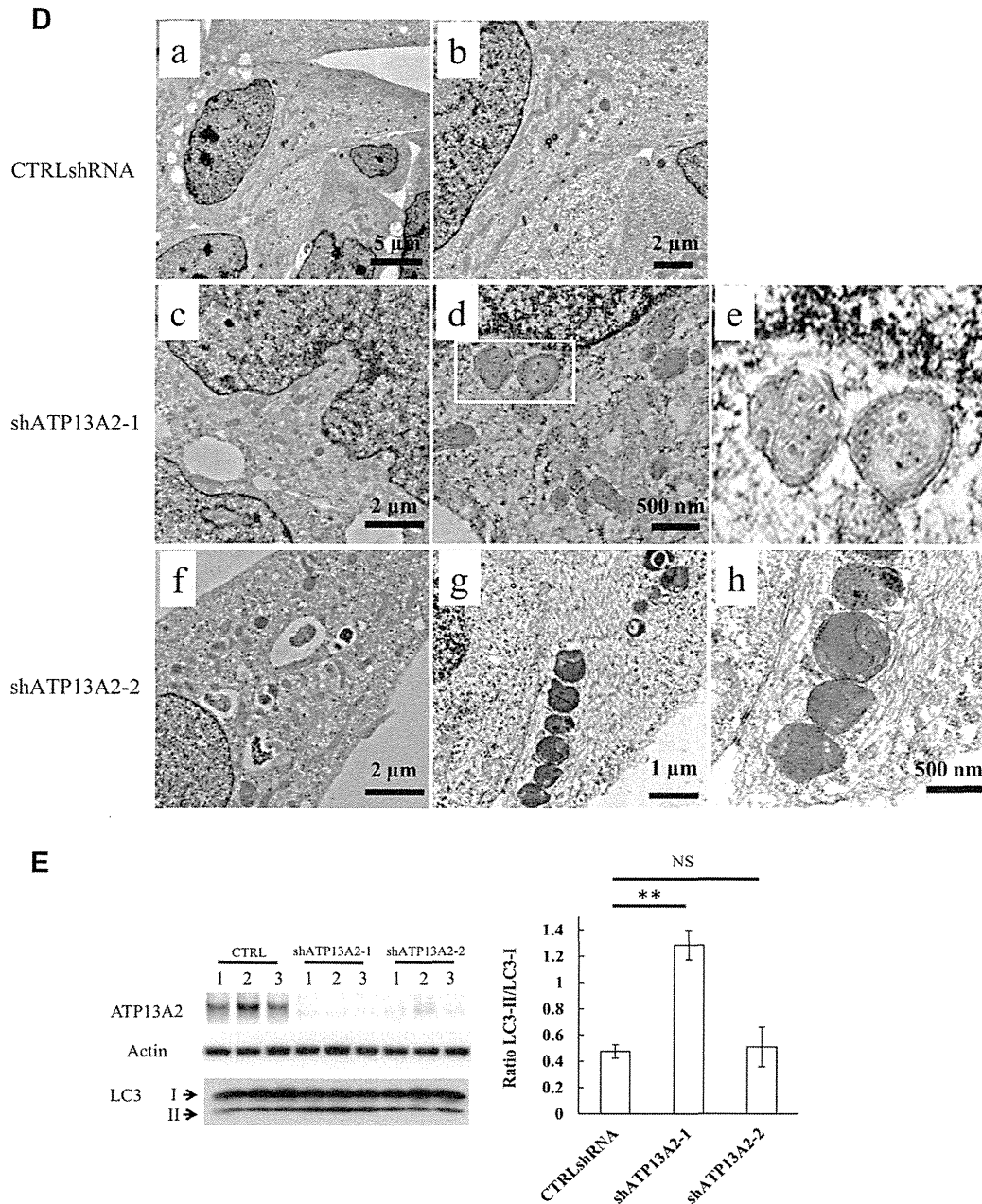


Fig. 3. (continued)

was comparable to that in the WT/WT or the WT/mt at 4 months, but lower than that in the WT/WT or the WT/mt at 12 months (Fig. 5C, upper). The noradrenaline in mt/mt medaka brain samples also tended to be lower at 12 months, but the differences were not statistically significant (Fig. 5C, middle). The amount of serotonin in whole-brain samples did not differ significantly among the genotypes (Fig. 5C, lower). Taken together, these findings indicated that *atp13a2* homozygous mutant medaka fish showed selective and progressive loss of dopaminergic/noradrenergic neurons, and such loss is a typical feature of human PD.

To examine in further detail the pathology associated with the *atp13a2* mutation, middle diencephalon samples from mt/mt, mt/WT, and WT/WT animals were analyzed via transmission electron microscopy as described previously [18]. Structures resembling fingerprint-profile, like those seen in ATP13A2-knockdown SH-SY5Y cells, were observed in thin sections taken from each mt/

mt brain examined (Fig. 5D). However, these structures were not observed in the sections taken from WT/WT or WT/mt medaka brain samples. Fingerprint-profiles have been observed in cathepsin D-deficient mice [15] and in human patients with neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis [19–21], and these structures are thought to indicate an autophagy/lysosome disorder. We used western blots to measure the amount of cathepsin D protein in brain tissue samples, and we found that mt/mt fish had less cathepsin D protein than did mt/WT or WT/WT fish (Fig. 5E and S6). We also showed that mt/mt medaka brain tissue, like the ATP13A2-knockdown cells, exhibited a significant reduction in cathepsin D activity (Fig. 5E). However, cathepsin K activity, cathepsin H activity, and proteasome activity were not affected by the *atp13a2* mutation (Fig. 5E), indicating the dysfunction of lysosomal enzymes was relatively specific to cathepsin D. Alpha-synuclein accumulation is one of the specific characters of idiopathic PD patients. Thus, we

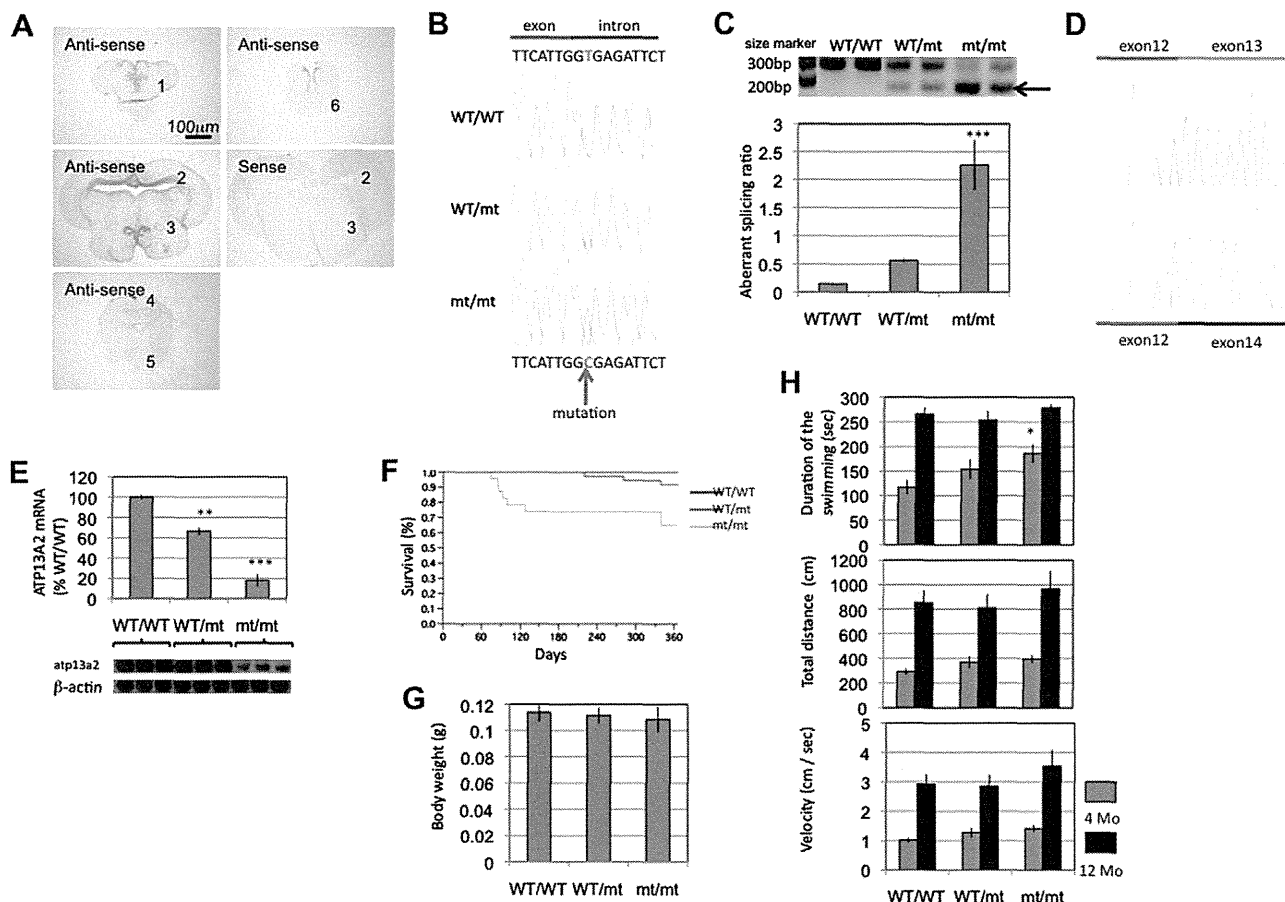


Fig. 4. Generation of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka. (A) In situ hybridization of medaka *atp13a2* mRNA. Anti-sense signals and sense control of *Kyoto-Cab* medaka brain (12 months). 1: telencephalon, 2: optic tectum, 3: diencephalon, 4: cerebellum, 5: medulla oblongata, 6: spinal cord. (B) Sequence data for each genotype. A = green, T = red, G = black, and C = blue. The red arrow indicates the mutation site. This T to C mutation in the genomic sequence disrupts a splice donor site. (C) RT-PCR amplification of *atp13a2* mRNA from each genotype. WT/WT medaka show single band, whereas WT/mt and mt/mt medaka have an additional shorter band (arrow). bp: Base pairs. The graph indicates densitometric ratio of the shorter product/normal product. *** $P < 0.001$ vs. WT/WT and $P < 0.01$ vs. WT/mt. $n = 4$ for each genotype. Error bars, S.E.M. (D) Sequence of the PCR products. The upper band indicates the normal splicing product and the lower band is the abnormal splicing product. Exon 13 skipping occurs in the *Atp13a2* mutant medaka. (E) Real-time PCR of normal *atp13a2* mRNA. **: $P < 0.01$ vs. WT/WT, ***: $P < 0.001$ vs. WT/WT and WT/mt. $n = 3$ for each genotype. Error bars, S.E.M. (F) Survival curves of each genotype. The end point is the death of each medaka or day 365. The results show mild but significant shortening of the life span in mt/mt medaka ($P < 0.001$) ($n = 23$), relative to that in WT/WT ($n = 25$) or WT/mt ($n = 37$). Death before 1 month stage was not counted. (G) Body weight of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka at 12 months. No significant differences were seen ($n = 20$ for each group). Error bars, S.E.M. (H) Duration of swimming, total swimming distance and swimming velocity during spontaneous swimming behavior of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka ($n = 15$ for each group). * $P < 0.05$ vs. WT/WT. Error bars, S.E.M.

analyzed the alpha-synuclein status in our cell line and medaka models. However, we could not demonstrate consistent and significant differences between ATP13A2-deficient models and controls (Figs. S3 and S7), and these findings indicated that alpha-synuclein accumulation might not be the causative roles of KRS/PARK9.

In sum, *atp13a2* homozygous mutant medaka exhibited dopaminergic neurodegeneration, a deficiency of cathepsin D, and abnormal lysosome-related structures in the brain.

3. Discussion

Findings from previous studies clearly indicate that PARK gene products associate with each other via protein degradation pathways including the autophagy–lysosome system. Indeed, dysfunction of protein degradation has emerged as an important contributor to nigral neuronal death in PD. Presence of Lewy bodies is strong evidence of impaired protein degradation in PD. Lewy bodies consist of aggregated proteins, and alpha-synuclein is a major component of these structures [22]. Thus aggregation of alpha-synuclein has emerged as one of the most important processes in nigral degeneration in PD. Although soluble alpha-synuclein is

degraded both during autophagy and by the proteasome, aggregated alpha-synuclein is degraded and cleared mainly via the autophagy–lysosome pathway [23]. Other PARK gene products, specifically Parkin and PINK1, work together to clear damaged mitochondria from cells via mitochondria-specific autophagy called mitophagy [24]. Furthermore, ATP13A2 mainly localizes to lysosomes, as we and other groups demonstrated [3,10–14,25]. Recently, mutations in the gene encoding glucocerebrosidase (GBA), a lysosomal enzyme, have been shown to be significant genetic risk factors for PD [26]. These observations indicate that lysosomal function is important for the maintenance of dopamine neurons, and they led us to investigate the function of ATP13A2 in the pathophysiology of KRS/PARK9.

ATP13A2 deficiency resulted in an abnormal aggregation of lysosomes at perinuclear site. Furthermore, these accumulated vesicles were enlarged, as previously reported [27]. Moreover, we found evidence of lysosomal dysfunction in that cathepsin D activity was, specifically, reduced in ATP13A2-knockdown cells. Cathepsin D is a ubiquitously expressed lysosomal protease that is involved in proteolytic degradation, cell invasion, and apoptosis. Cathepsin D deficiencies cause neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis, a

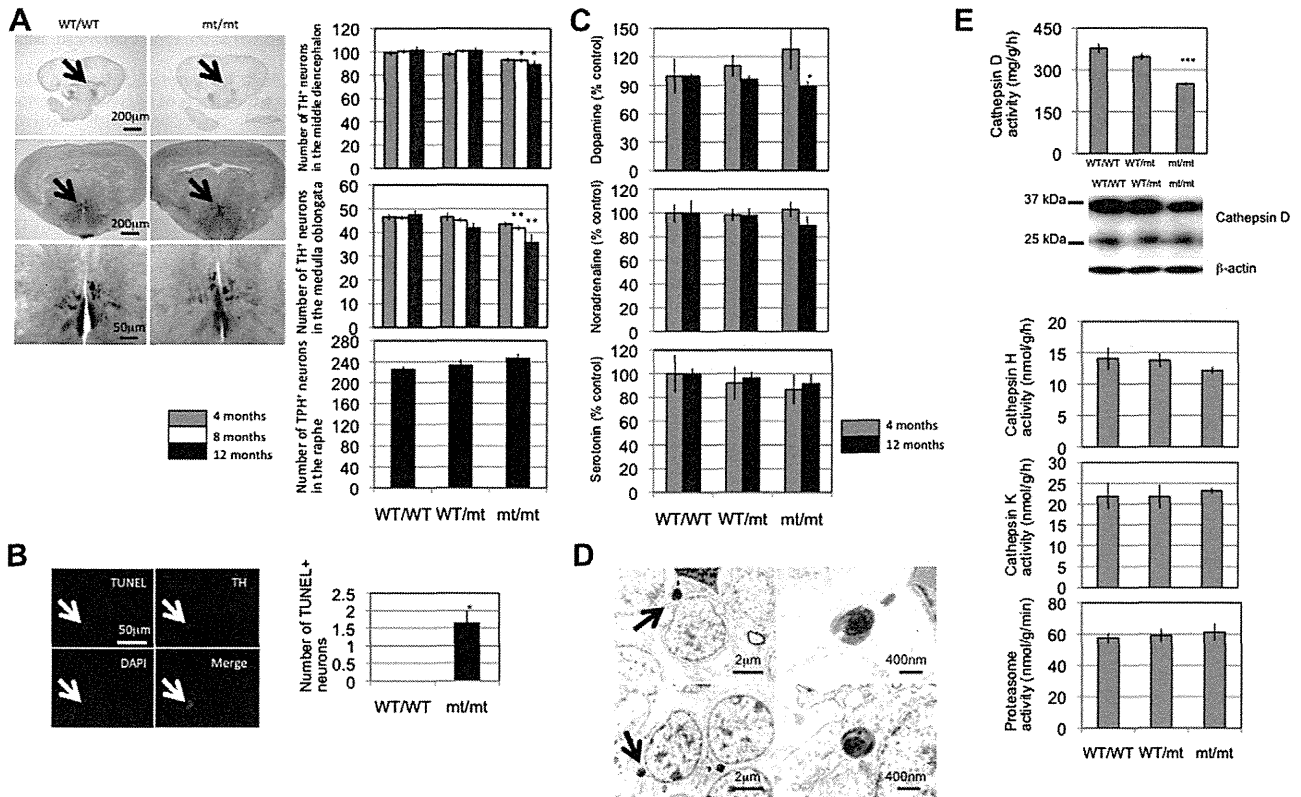


Fig. 5. Neuropathology of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka. (A) Axial sections of telencephalon (upper) and middle diencephalon (middle and lower) of medaka brain at 12 months. Arrows indicate TH+ fibers and neurons. The lower figures are the enlarged image of middle figures. The graphs indicate the number of TH+ neurons in the middle diencephalon (upper) and medulla oblongata (middle) and the number of tryptophan-hydroxylase positive (TPH+) neurons in the raphe. * $P < 0.05$ vs. WT/WT and WT/mt. ** $P < 0.01$ vs. WT/WT. ($n = 16$ for each group). Error bars, SEM. (B) TUNEL assay in medaka brain at 12 months. White arrow indicates one TUNEL/TH double positive neuron in the middle diencephalon of mt/mt fish. The graph shows the number of TH/TUNEL double positive neurons in the middle diencephalon ($n = 3$). * $P < 0.05$ vs. WT/WT. (C) Amount of dopamine (upper), noradrenaline (middle), and serotonin (lower) in the brain of *Atp13a2* mutant medaka. All values are expressed as a percentage of the amount (ng) per protein weight (mg) for WT/WT ($n = 8$ for each group). * $P < 0.05$ vs. WT/WT. Error bars, S.E.M. (D) Fingerprint-like structures in *Atp13a2* mutant medaka brain. Arrows indicate fingerprint-like structures in mt/mt brain. The right figures are the high magnification images of these structures. (E) Enzyme activity (Cathepsin D, H, K and proteasome activity) in the medaka brain. *** $P < 0.001$ vs. WT/T and WT/mt. Error bars, SEM. Image of a western blot shows cathepsin D protein in the medaka brain. Cross reactivity of the antibody against medaka cathepsin D is shown in the supplementary information (Fig. S5).

fatal neurodegenerative disease in human and sheep [21,28–30]. Using electronmicroscopy, we also detected lysosome like body and granular deposits. Interestingly, we observed subcellular structures that resemble fingerprint-profile, and these structures resemble abnormal structures in the neurons of cathepsin D-deficient mice [15] and in human patients with neuronal ceroid lipofuscinosis [19–21] or with sphingolipidoses [31,32]. These results indicate that the primary cause of KRS/PARK9 is a lysosomal dysfunction and KRS/PARK9 could also be classified into a “lysosome disease”.

We have recently used medaka fish to develop an animal model of PD [17,18,33,34]. Here, we found a mutation in our TILLING library that is almost identical to a PD-associated mutation in human patients. This medaka mutation results in the same abnormal splicing that is seen in the human patients with KRS/PARK9. Homozygous mutant fish exhibited selective loss of dopaminergic and noradrenergic neurons; this type of neuron loss is a pathology typically seen in human PD patients. Additionally, we found that tissues and cells in the brains from homozygous mutant medaka exhibited a specific reduction of cathepsin D protein and developed fingerprint-like subcellular structures. Both findings strongly indicate that the ATP13A2 mutation could lead to the dysfunction of lysosomes in medaka neurons.

Recently, Fonseca et al. injected Morpholinos against *atp13a2* into zebrafish embryo and showed that loss of *Atp13a2* results in embryonic lethality [35]. As they also showed in zebrafish, *atp13a2*

mRNA expressed not only in the brain but also in the entire body in medaka larvae (data not shown). This suggested that *Atp13a2* is also important for some unknown function in other organs than the central nervous system. Our medaka model mimics the human mutation and showed pronounced reduction of *atp13a2* mRNA but not null expression. This might be helpful to study the long-term effect of *Atp13a2* dysfunction.

As is the case of human patients with PD, cell death was specific to dopamine and noradrenaline neurons in our medaka model of KRS/ATP13A2. This cell-type specificity is also evident with our other medaka models of PD, including the models resulting from a lysosome inhibitor treatment [18,34]. The *atp13a2* mRNA, like other PD-related mRNAs, is expressed ubiquitously in the medaka brain [33]. Thus, the expression pattern of *atp13a2* could not explain the selective cell death in our model. Dopamine neurons contain toxic proteins derived from dopamine itself [36,37], and lysosomal function is essential in these neurons for preventing accumulation of the toxic proteins and other toxic metabolic products. Therefore, we speculate that dopamine neurons are especially vulnerable to lysosome dysfunction.

One negative finding is that mutant fish did not show slow locomotive movement, as do human PD patients. Based on our analysis, it seemed that the mutant fish swam the same amount, or more, than did control fish. In humans, loss of at least 80% of the dopaminergic neurons in substantia nigra seems necessary to evoke clear PD symptoms. The extent of the loss of dopaminergic

neurons in our medaka model might not be enough to evoke locomotive impairment. The mild increase of locomotion at 4 months seen in homozygous mutant might have a relation with the non-significant increase of dopamine at the same stage. Similar tentative increase of dopamine at younger stage is also observed in another PD model fish [33]. Such increased dopamine might harm the neurons, because the metabolism of dopamine is accompanied by the generation of oxidative radicals [38].

In conclusion, we demonstrated that reduction in ATP13A2 function in vitro or in vivo resulted in dysfunction of cathepsin D and the appearance of abnormal structures that are associated with lysosomal disorders. We used a teleost fish, medaka, to successfully generate an animal model suffered selective degeneration of dopaminergic neurons. Our findings indicate that lysosome-mediated autophagy may play a key role to protect dopaminergic neurons.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.febslet.2013.02.046>.

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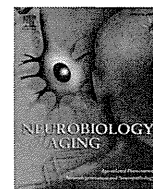
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Brief communication

Clinicogenetic study of *GBA* mutations in patients with familial Parkinson's diseaseYuanzhe Li^{a,b}, Takeshi Sekine^b, Manabu Funayama^{a,b}, Lin Li^b, Hiroyo Yoshino^a, Kenya Nishioka^b, Hiroyuki Tomiyama^{b,c}, Nobutaka Hattori^{a,b,c,*}^a Research Institute for Diseases of Old Age, Juntendo University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan^b Department of Neurology, Juntendo University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan^c Department of Neuroscience for Neurodegenerative Disorders, Juntendo University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan

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ABSTRACT

The glucocerebrosidase gene (*GBA*) is a known risk factor of Parkinson's disease (PD). We sequenced entire coding exons and exon/intron boundaries of *GBA* in 147 Japanese familial PD (FPD) patients from 144 families and 100 unrelated control subjects. Twenty-seven of 144 (18.8%) of index patients were heterozygous for known Gaucher disease mutations, suggesting that *GBA* heterozygous mutations are strongly associated with FPD (odds ratio = 22.9, 95% confidence interval = 3.1–171.2). The frequency was significantly higher in autosomal dominant PD (ADPD) compared with autosomal recessive PD. According to clinical assessments, PD patients with *GBA* mutations exhibited typical manifestations of PD or dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB), such as L-dopa responsive parkinsonism with psychiatric problems and/or cognitive decline. Interestingly, they also presented with reduced myocardial ¹²³I-meta-iodobenzylguanidine uptake. Our findings suggest that heterozygous *GBA* mutations are strong risk factors in FPD, especially for autosomal dominant PD. Some patients with *GBA* heterozygous mutations develop clinical features of DLB. We speculate that *GBA* dysfunction may promote Lewy body formation, resulting in more severe PD or DLB phenotypes that are inherited in families.

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1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is one of the most common neurodegenerative disorders. Patients develop disabled movement and complicating nonmotor symptoms, such as psychiatric disorders, cognitive dysfunction, olfactory nerve dysfunction, and sleep disorders (Weintraub and Burn, 2011). Cardinal features of PD are caused by marked loss of dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra, which is evidenced by the pathologic hallmark of Lewy bodies; however, PD is a more complicated and systemic disease. PD etiology was thought to be influenced mainly by the interactions between genetic and environmental factors. Nevertheless, recent developments in genetics have revealed that causative genes are involved in Mendelian-inherited parkinsonism (Hatano et al., 2009). Moreover, recent genome-wide association studies have also identified several common loci as genetic risk factors for PD (Hamza et al., 2010; Satake et al., 2009; Simon-Sanchez et al., 2009). During these studies and a subsequent meta-analysis, rare variants of the glucocerebrosidase gene (*GBA*; MIM#606463) have been

found as risk factors of sporadic PD (SPD) (Aharon-Peretz et al., 2004; Sidransky et al., 2009). *GBA* is also known as the causative gene of Gaucher disease (GD), which is caused by a loss of function of hydrolytic enzyme activity and is inherited in an autosomal recessive pattern (Hruska et al., 2008; Tsuji et al., 1987).

Some genetic mutations in *GBA* were characterized as strong risk factors for SPD; however, there are few large studies of *GBA* mutations in familial PD (FPD) (Mitsui et al., 2009; Nishioka et al., 2010; Sidransky et al., 2009). Cosegregation was previously reported in a small number of families (Mitsui et al., 2009). One recent study emphasized an association between *GBA* mutations and cognitive impairment in PD (Alcalay et al., 2012).

In this study, we aimed to clarify the role of *GBA* mutations in PD, especially in FPD, by sequencing *GBA* in 147 FPD patients from 144 families and performing a comparative analysis of the clinical phenotype and severity to evaluate the association between *GBA* mutations and FPD.

2. Methods

2.1. Subjects

The study subjects comprised 147 FPD patients from 144 Japanese families and 100 Japanese controls (Table 1). The cohort of

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Table 1
Patient information

	n	Male/female	AAS (range)	AAO (range)
Patients	147	59/88	60.0 ± 12.8 (21–84)	50.8 ± 13.9 (13–81)
AD	85	35/50	57.7 ± 13.7 (21–84)	48.3 ± 14.2 (13–77)
AR	62	24/38	63.1 ± 10.8 (37–84)	54.3 ± 12.7 (25–81)
Controls	100	47/53	56.8 ± 16.3 (29–87)	

Key: AAO, age at onset; AAS, age at sampling; AD, autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive.

Japanese patients consisted of 85 autosomal dominant PD (ADPD) and 59 autosomal recessive PD (ARPD). For the mode of inheritance to be considered autosomal dominant, there had to be affected family members in at least 2 consecutive generations; for autosomal recessive, we looked for affected siblings in the same generation. After detecting mutations, family members were analyzed to assess cosegregation. DNA samples were provided from various hospitals. Each patient submitted to a neurologic examination performed by expert neurologists and was given a diagnosis of PD on the basis of established criteria (Hughes et al., 1992). Diagnosis of dementia was given by the each clinician based on Mini Mental State Examination score (Folstein et al., 1975). All patients had good response to L-dopa. This study was approved by the ethics review committee of Juntendo University School of Medicine. All subjects provided informed and written consent prior to participation.

2.2. GBA mutation analysis

Genomic DNA was extracted from peripheral blood lymphocytes using standard protocols. Polymerase chain reaction was performed using previously reported primers to avoid amplifying the pseudogene (Mitsui et al., 2009). The purified polymerase chain reaction product obtained by ExoSAP IT (GE Healthcare, Salt Lake City, UT, USA) was subsequently used for dideoxy sequencing with BigDye Terminator Chemistry (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The resulting products were loaded on ABI 310 or 3130 automated DNA sequence analyzers (Applied Biosystems) and analyzed with Sequencing Analysis Software v5.1 (Applied Biosystems). All exons and exon-intron boundaries were analyzed by direct sequencing.

To confirm *RecNcil* allele, we used TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) for TA cloning and separating alleles. After separating each allele, direct sequencing was performed as described above.

2.3. Clinical data analysis

To clarify the clinical features of patients with *GBA* mutations, 19 items (Table 2) concerning prominent PD symptoms were statistically compared between *GBA* mutation-positive and *GBA* mutation-negative groups. Other affected members with *GBA* mutations were also included.

2.4. Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis included the *t* test, Fisher's exact test, odds ratio, and its confidence interval, using GraphPad Prism version 5.0d (GraphPad Prism Software). The Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium test was performed using SNPalyze v5.1 software (Dynacom, Chiba, Japan). In all statistical analyses, *p* values ≤ 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. GBA mutations observed in FPD

In this study, we only observed heterozygous mutations; no individual had mutations in both alleles. We detected 6 non-synonymous mutations: p.I(-20)V, p.G64V, p.R120W, p.D409H, p.L444P, and p.I489V; 1 nonsense mutation: p.W393X; 1 synonymous mutation: p.K466K; 1 frame-shift mutation: c.1447-1466delTGins; and 1 recombinant allele (*RecNcil*) in the Japanese population (Table 3). Among them, 5 mutations, p.R120W, p.D409H, p.L444P, c.1447-1466delTGins, and *RecNcil*, have been reported as causative mutations in GD patients. Patients with *GBA* mutation did not have causative *PARK2*, *PINK1*, and common *LRRK2* mutations.

p.I(-20)V is an amino acid change in the signal peptide region and was considered to be a single nucleotide polymorphism. The frequency of p.I(-20)V in patients with FPD (13 of 144, 9.0%) was not significantly different from the control subjects (10 of 100 = 10.0%, *p* = 0.83), and its genotype distribution was in Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium in both populations. Although p.K466K mutation was not detected in any control subjects, this synonymous mutation was also excluded for later clinical analyses because it is in a less important region of the final protein.

Two mutations, p.G64V and p.W393X (Fig. 1), were novel, and p.I489V was previously reported in SPD patients (Mitsui et al., 2009). The p.G64V mutation was caused by the substitution of the first amino acid of exon 4, and it seems to be segregated with PD (Figs. 1 and 2). In the family with p.W393X, no affected family member was confirmed for the mutation because of absent genomic DNA. The sequences around the region of mutation were interspecifically conserved in both mutations (Fig. 1).

The recombinant allele *RecNcil* was found in 1 patient and 1 control. p.L444P is more common, and p.R120W is less common in Japanese patients with GD, although p.R120W was frequently seen in Japanese FPD patients in the present study (9 of 144 = 6.3%, Table 3). However, p.L444P was the most frequent mutation seen in FPD patients (12 of 144 = 8.3%, Table 3).

In total, we found 31 FPD patients with heterozygous mutations that were reported in GD (p.R120W, p.D409H, p.L444P, c.1447-1466delTGins, and *RecNcil*) or unreported in GD (p.G64V,

Table 2
Comparison of clinical symptoms between *GBA*-positive and *GBA*-negative patients

Symptom	<i>GBA</i> mut (+)	<i>GBA</i> mut (-)	<i>p</i> value ^a
N	34	113	
Age at onset (mean ± SD)	49.1 ± 11.7	51.3 ± 14.5	
Resting tremor (%)	18 (52.9)	77 (68.1)	0.151
Bradykinesia (%)	27 (79.4)	99 (87.6)	0.265
Rigidity (%)	29 (85.3)	99 (87.6)	0.772
Gait disturbance (%)	28 (82.4)	95 (84.1)	0.795
Postural instability (%)	20 (58.8)	72 (63.7)	0.687
Wearing off (%)	20 (58.8)	49 (43.4)	0.112
Asymmetry at onset (%)	25 (73.5)	75 (66.4)	0.531
Orthostatic hypotension (%)	5 (14.7)	21 (18.6)	0.798
Incontinence (%)	7 (20.6)	11 (9.7)	0.131
Urinary urgency (%)	10 (29.4)	20 (17.7)	0.150
L-dopa-induced dyskinesia (%)	10 (29.4)	37 (32.7)	0.834
Sleep benefit (%)	3 (8.8)	21 (18.6)	0.288
Dystonia at onset (%)	4 (11.8)	11 (9.7)	0.750
Hyperreflexia (%)	5 (14.7)	17 (15.0)	1.000
Hallucination (%)	14 (41.2)	20 (17.7)	0.009 ^c
Delusion (%)	8 (23.5)	6 (5.3)	0.004 ^c
Other psychosis (%)	12 (35.3)	11 (9.7)	0.0009 ^d
Dementia (%)	12 (35.3)	18 (15.9)	0.027 ^b
Gaze palsy (%)	3 (8.8)	2 (1.8)	0.081

^a Fisher's exact test.

^b *p* < 0.05.

^c *p* < 0.01.

^d *p* < 0.001.

Table 3
Frequency of each *GBA* mutation found in this study

Mutations	FPD (n = 144)	AD (n = 85)	AR (n = 59)	Control (n = 100)	p Value ^a (FPD vs. control)	OR (95% CI) (FPD vs. Control)
Reported in GD						
p.R120W (%)	9 (6.3)	9 (10.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.01	NA
p.D409H (%)	4 (2.8)	4 (4.7)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0.14	NA
p.L444P (%)	12 (8.3)	7 (8.2)	5 (8.5)	0 (0)	0.002	NA
indel (%)	1 (0.7)	1 (1.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	NA	NA
RecNcil (%)	1 (0.7)	1 (1.2)	0 (0)	1 (1)	NA	NA
Unreported in GD						
p.G64V (%)	1 (0.7)	0 (0)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)	NA	NA
p.W393X (%)	1 (0.7)	0 (0)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)	NA	NA
p.I489V (%)	2 (1.4)	1 (1.2)	1 (1.7)	0 (0)	0.51	NA
Total (%)	31 (21.5)	23 (27.1)	8 (13.6)	1 (1)	<0.0001	27.2 (3.6–202.7)

Key: AD, autosomal dominant; AR, autosomal recessive; CI, confidence interval; FPD, familial PD; GD, Gaucher disease; indel, c.1447-1466delITGins; NA, not applicable; OR, odds ratio.

^a Fisher's exact test. Italics denote novel mutations found in this study.

p.W393X, and p.I489V; Table 3). Interestingly, the frequency of *GBA* mutations among FPD patients was significantly higher than in the controls (31 of 144 = 21.5% vs. 1 of 100 = 1.0%, $p < 0.0001$, odds ratio = 27.2, 95% confidence interval = 3.6–202.7; Table 3). This cohort included 23 ADPD and 8 ARPD of a total of 31 FPD patients. When individual mutations were analyzed, the frequency of the p.R120W and p.L444P carriers was significantly higher in index PD patients than in the control subjects ($p = 0.01$ and $p = 0.002$, respectively).

3.2. Mode of inheritance

We compared the differences between groups with AD and AR modes of inheritance and found that the frequency of mutations reported in GD was significantly higher in the AD group than in the AR group (22 of 85 = 25.9% vs. 5 of 59 = 8.5%, $p = 0.009$). Four known mutations reported in GD (p.R120W, p.D409H, c.1447-1466delITGins, and RecNcil) were all found in the AD group. In 1 AR family (p.L444P) with 2 brothers affected with PD/dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB), the parents had been recorded as asymptomatic, but they died at relatively young ages during the war. Thus, the possibility that this family also should be included in AD family with cosegregation remains (family 28; Fig. 2).

In 2 families with p.L444P and 1 family with p.G64V, both affected siblings had the same mutations, suggesting cosegregation (families 25, 28, and 31; Fig. 2). The present study indicates the incomplete penetrance of p.R120W (families 7 and 9; Fig. 2), which is consistent with previous reports suggesting cosegregation (Mitsui et al., 2009). p.I489V was not considered to show cosegregation (family 35; Fig. 2).

3.3. Clinical symptoms

In this study, we performed a comparative analysis between 2 groups: *GBA* mutation–positive ($n = 34$) and *GBA* mutation–negative patients ($n = 113$). Clinical and demographic data are listed in Table 2 and Supplementary Table 1. The mean age at onset (AAO) was not significantly different ($p = 0.437$). Statistical analysis of 19 symptoms in PD revealed significant differences in four indexes of hallucination, delirium, dementia, and other psychosis (Table 2). Notably, psychiatric symptoms and/or cognitive decline were more common in *GBA* mutation–positive patients (see Supplementary Table 2). Nine patients with *GBA* mutations underwent cardiac ¹²³I-metaiodobenzylguanidine (MIBG) scintigraphy (see Supplementary Table 3), and all patients showed marked reduction of myocardial MIBG uptake.

4. Discussion

Recently, the largest multicenter analysis of *GBA* mutations has proved an association between *GBA* mutations and PD (Sidransky et al., 2009). To disclose the role of *GBA* in FPD, we performed a *GBA* mutational analysis for in 147 FPD patients from 144 families. The frequency of *GBA* mutations was 21.5% and 25.9% in FPD and ADPD, respectively, which are higher values than reported previously, even compared with SPD patients (Lesage et al., 2011; Mitsui et al., 2009; Sidransky et al., 2009). Therefore, our data suggest that *GBA* mutations play an important role in not only SPD but also FPD, and especially in ADPD. This finding implies that *GBA* could play a major role in FPD and ADPD.

Rare *GBA* mutations have been reported to be a strong risk factor of PD, with a robust odds ratio of 28.0 (Mitsui et al., 2009). Thus, an analysis for *GBA* mutations in FPD was essential to clarify the role of each *GBA* mutation in PD patients. Indeed, p.L444P and p.G64V cosegregated with PD in some families. However, compared with a previous report (Mitsui et al., 2009), p.R120W did not cosegregate in this study. Regarding an association with PD, some mutations remained controversial because of the small number of patients with each mutation and restricted genetic testing in the families. Considering allele frequency, it might be reasonable that *GBA* mutations are incompletely inherited with PD. The carrier frequency of *GBA* mutations was extremely low among the normal Japanese population in this study and in a previous report (Mitsui et al., 2009), whereas many controls among the Jewish population have p.N370S, which is associated with type I GD (Aharon-Peretz et al., 2004), and many controls among the UK population have p.E326K, which is a risk factor for PD (Duran et al., 2013). These racial differences might be derived from the differences of effects of each mutation and other genetic risk factors, which have different

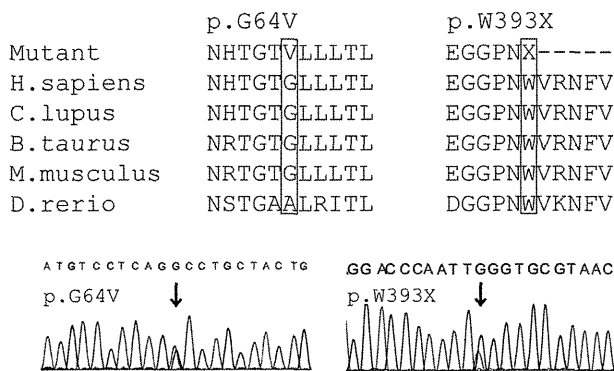


Fig. 1. Novel *GBA* mutations. Genomic sequence chromatogram and comparison of interspecific amino acids around the mutated site.

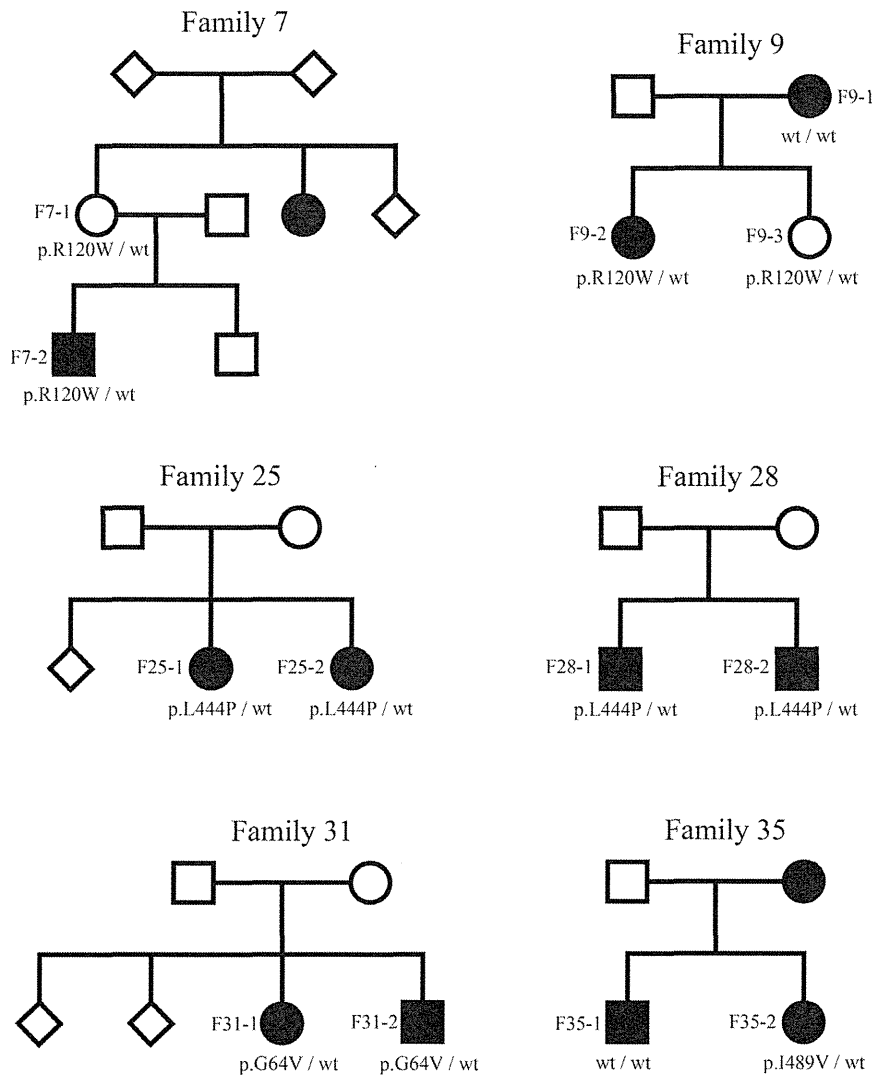


Fig. 2. Cosegregation study of *GBA*-positive families. Pedigrees of families with *GBA* mutations are shown. Affected Parkinson's disease patients are represented with a black symbol. The number of each family member represents his or her patient ID in Supplementary Table 1.

distributions due to founder effects (Lesage et al., 2011; Nishioka et al., 2010; Sidransky et al., 2009). Although racial or regional differences exist for each *GBA* mutation, our data emphasize that *GBA* mutations are more strongly associated with FPD rather than SPD.

A recent study reported a relatively high estimated penetrance ratio in *GBA* carriers, depending on age (7.6%, 13.7%, 21.4%, and 29.7% at 50, 60, 70, and 80 years, respectively). This result should lead to the consideration of *GBA* as a dominant causal gene with reduced penetrance (Anheim et al., 2012). Supporting this consideration, we detected heterozygous *GBA* mutations most frequently in ADPD patients. On the basis of our findings, we conclude that *GBA* is a strong and common risk factor but not a definite causal gene for ADPD and FPD.

In hereditary forms of PD, the frequency of heterozygous *GBA* mutations in ADPD (25.9%) was higher than that observed for ARPD (8.5%). Even allowing for classification bias by definition of ADPD and ARPD, the data imply that *GBA* mutations are strongly associated with ADPD, suggesting that heterozygous *GBA* mutations have a role in familial aggregation, especially in ADPD. In addition, heterozygous mutations have been identified among ARPD patients,

suggesting the incomplete penetrance of forms even through the AR mode of inheritance.

Our PD patients with *GBA* mutations frequently developed psychiatric symptoms and/or cognitive decline. Our data support previous results in which PD patients with *GBA* mutations manifest exacerbated psychiatric symptoms and/or cognitive decline compared to those without *GBA* mutations (Alcalay et al., 2012; Sidransky et al., 2009; Winder-Rhodes et al., 2013). Some previous studies have reported the association of *GBA* mutations and DLB (Clark et al., 2009; Nalls et al., 2013; Tsuang et al., 2012). Our data further suggest that *GBA* heterozygous mutation carriers can develop clinical symptoms of PD and DLB. Accordingly, we found decreased cardiac MIBG uptake associated with *GBA* mutations. The heart-to-mediastinum ratio correlated with PD/DLB clinical severity; a decreasing ratio corresponded to an ascending Hoehn and Yahr stage (Nagayama et al., 2005). Thus, MIBG scintigraphy could be a useful biomarker for PD/Lewy body disease in patients with *GBA* mutations.

Lewy body diseases are alpha-synucleinopathies characterized by abnormal accumulation of alpha-synuclein in neuronal cytoplasm. Recently, biochemical analysis using cell and animal models demonstrated that some *GBA* mutations lead to increased alpha-

synuclein concentration (Cullen et al., 2011). *GBA* mutation may promote alpha-synuclein accumulation and Lewy body development via the aberrant lysosomal function, resulting in severe parkinsonism and cognitive decline associated with DLB (Mazzulli et al., 2011; Tsuang et al., 2012; Yap et al., 2013).

Collectively, our findings have major implications for the genetic and pathogenic mechanisms of *GBA*. *GD* is an autosomal recessive disorder caused by mutations in both *GBA* alleles, which leads to a loss of function or reduced enzyme activity. In contrast to *GD*, our FPD and ADPD patients carried 1 mutant allele and 1 wild-type *GBA* allele. Therefore, the pathogenic mechanism may be due to haploinsufficiency, dominant-negative effect, or toxic gain of function rather than a loss of function.

In conclusion, heterozygous *GBA* mutations play a greater role in FPD, especially in ADPD, and are likely to facilitate the development of PD and Lewy body diseases via different genetic and pathogenic mechanisms. Our findings suggest that further functional analyses for *GBA* should elucidate the pathogenesis of PD and Lewy body diseases.

Disclosure statement

The authors have no actual or potential conflicts of interest.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2013.09.019>.

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RESEARCH COMMUNICATION

Tricornered/NDR kinase signaling mediates PINK1-directed mitochondrial quality control and tissue maintenance

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Eukaryotes employ elaborate mitochondrial quality control (MQC) to maintain the function of the power-generating organelle. Parkinson's disease-associated PINK1 and Parkin actively participate in MQC. However, the signaling events involved are largely unknown. Here we show that mechanistic target of rapamycin 2 (mTORC2) and Tricornered (Trc) kinases act downstream from PINK1 to regulate MQC. Trc is phosphorylated in mTORC2-dependent and mTORC2-independent manners and is specifically localized to mitochondria in response to PINK1, which regulates mTORC2 through mitochondrial complex-I activity. Genetically, mTORC2 and Trc act upstream of Parkin. Thus, multiplex kinase signaling is acting between PINK1 and Parkin to regulate MQC, a process highly conserved in mammals.

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To sustain energy supply and overall cellular health, elaborate quality control systems are deployed to maintain mitochondrial integrity and functionality (Narendra and Youle 2011; Rugarli and Langer 2012). Mitochondrial quality control (MQC) is particularly important for the maintenance of neural and muscular tissues. PINK1

(Valente et al. 2004) and Parkin (Kitada et al. 1998), two proteins associated with familial Parkinson's disease (PD), have been identified as central players in a cellular pathway that directs MQC, a dynamic and multifaceted network encompassing mitochondrial complex-I (CI) function (Liu et al. 2011; Vilain et al. 2012), fission/fusion dynamics (Yang et al. 2008), transport (Wang et al. 2011; Liu et al. 2012), and mitophagy (Liu and Lu 2010; Narendra et al. 2010). Genetic epistasis studies, first in *Drosophila* (Clark et al. 2006; Park et al. 2006; Yang et al. 2006) and later in mammalian cells (Exner et al. 2007), positioned PINK1 upstream of Parkin in MQC. Studies in mammalian cells have further shown that PINK1 becomes stabilized on the outer membrane of depolarized mitochondria, where it recruits Parkin from the cytosol to promote mitophagy (Narendra et al. 2010). However, the mechanisms of PINK1 and Parkin action and the signaling events involved in the MQC process are poorly understood, with various discordant models having been proposed (Narendra and Youle 2011).

We continued using the powerful tools available in *Drosophila* to dissect the genetic program underlying PINK1/Parkin-directed MQC. Here we identify mechanistic target of rapamycin 2 (mTORC2) and tricornered (Trc) kinase signaling as intermediate steps between PINK1 and Parkin in the MQC process in *Drosophila* and further verify the findings in mammalian cells. Our results reveal a previously unanticipated complexity of signaling events involved in PINK1/Parkin-directed MQC and tissue maintenance and shed new light on how mTORC2 and Trc, two important kinases critically involved in cellular morphogenesis, development, growth, and disease, are regulated in an in vivo setting.

Results and Discussion

To elucidate the signaling events acting downstream from PINK1, we performed genetic screens as described before (Liu and Lu 2010; Liu et al. 2012) to identify genes that can modify PINK1 loss-of-function (LOF)-induced wing posture and flight ability defects. This led to the identification of mTORC2 components as strong modifiers of PINK1. While overexpression of the mTORC2 components Rictor and Sin1 (Hietakangas and Cohen 2007), either individually or in combination, had no obvious effects on their own (Supplemental Fig. S1), they effectively suppressed *dPINK1* LOF phenotypes with respect to the integrity and function of flight muscle, as measured by thoracic ATP level and wing posture (Fig. 1A,B; Supplemental Fig. S1D) and the loss of dopaminergic neurons (DNs) in the PPL1 cluster (Fig. 1E). Conversely, *rictor* or *sin1* mutations significantly enhanced *dPINK1* LOF phenotypes (Fig. 1A–E; Supplemental Fig. S1D), although the *rictor* or *sin1* mutant alone did not show obvious phenotypes in these assays (Supplemental Fig. S1A–C). The effects of mTORC2 components on tissue integrity correlated well with the effects on mitochondrial morphology, with mTORC2 gain of function (GOF) rescuing the mitochondrial aggregation phenotype caused by *dPINK1* LOF, whereas mTORC2 LOF had opposite effects (Fig. 1C,D).

We next explored the molecular mechanisms underlying the strong genetic interaction between PINK1 and mTORC2. Using phosphorylation of *Drosophila* AKT at S505 as readout of mTORC2 activity (Sarbasov et al.

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Wu et al.

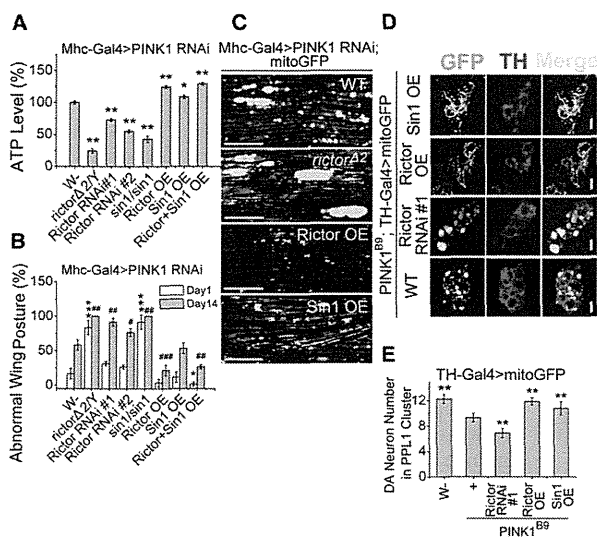


Figure 1. Genetic interaction between PINK1 and mTORC2. (A) PINK1 RNAi-induced ATP level drop was rescued by *Rictor* or *Sin1* overexpression (OE) but enhanced by their LOF. (B) PINK1 RNAi-induced abnormal wing posture was rescued by *Rictor* overexpression or *Rictor* + *Sin1* overexpression but enhanced by their LOF. (C) PINK1 RNAi-induced mitochondrial aggregation in muscle was strongly rescued by *Rictor* overexpression and moderately rescued by *Sin1* overexpression but was enhanced by *rictor* LOF. Mitochondrial morphology was monitored with a mito-GFP reporter. Bar, 30 μ m. (D) PINK1 LOF-induced mitochondrial aggregation in DNs was strongly rescued by *Rictor* overexpression and moderately rescued by *Sin1* overexpression but enhanced by *rictor* LOF. Bar, 5 μ m. (E) PINK1 LOF-induced loss of DNs in the PPL1 cluster was rescued by *Rictor* overexpression but enhanced by *rictor* LOF. A *rictor* deletion mutant ($\Delta 2$) and two independent *rictor* RNAi lines (#1 and #2) were used in LOF studies. (* or #) $P < 0.05$; (** or ##) $P < 0.01$; (***) or ###) $P < 0.005$ in one-way ANOVA tests when data from day 1 or day 14 were compared.

2005), we found that the p-S505-AKT level was significantly reduced in the *dpINK1* LOF condition but increased by PINK1 GOF (Fig. 2A), indicating that PINK1 regulates mTORC2 activity in vivo. To further validate this point, we affinity-purified *Drosophila* mTORC2 from transgenic animals expressing a Flag-tagged *Sin1* (Koike-Kumagai et al. 2009). In vitro kinase assays using purified mTORC2 as the kinase and kinase-dead (KD) GST-AKT as the substrate showed that the specific activity of mTORC2 was reduced in the *dpINK1*^{B9}-null mutant but increased in PINK1 GOF background (Fig. 2B). The amounts of dTOR copurifying with Flag-*Sin1* were comparable among the various genotypes (Fig. 2B), suggesting that PINK1 primarily regulates mTORC2 kinase activity instead of its assembly. Consistent with impaired mTORC2 signaling contributing to PINK1 pathogenesis, phosphatidylinositol 3,4,5-trisphosphate (PIP₃) treatment, which could directly activate mTORC2 in mammalian cells (Gan et al. 2011), partially restored mTORC2 activity (Fig. 2C,D) and rescued *dpINK1* mutant phenotypes in terms of lifespan, wing posture, and mitochondrial morphology (Fig. 2E–G).

Despite the importance of mTORC2 in physiology and disease, little is known about how it is regulated by upstream signals (Zoncu et al. 2011). We further investigated how PINK1 regulates mTORC2 activity. Given that PINK1 is a mitochondrial resident protein intimately linked to CI function and that CI dysfunction could phenocopy *dpINK1* LOF effects (Supplemental Fig. S2A–C), we

reasoned that the functional status of CI might affect mTORC2 activity. To test this hypothesis, we first examined p-S505-AKT levels in wild-type animals treated with the CI inhibitor rotenone (Fig. 2H) or with CI subunits knocked down by RNAi (Fig. 2I). These manipulations led to decreased p-S505-AKT levels. Consistently, mTORC2 purified from CI-impaired animals exhibited reduced kinase activity in vitro (Supplemental Fig. S2D). Importantly, in *dpINK1* mutants whose CI activity was supplemented by yeast NADH ubiquinone oxidoreductase (*yNDI1*), the mutant phenotypes were effectively rescued (Supplemental Fig. S2E–G), consistent with a recent study (Vilain et al. 2012), and p-S505-AKT level was restored to normal (Fig. 2I). Further supporting a functional link between CI and mTORC2 activation, mTORC2 LOF animals were particularly sensitive to rotenone treatment compared with other stress treatments (Supplemental Fig. S3A–F), and LOF of mTORC2 and CI synergistically disrupted muscle function (Supplemental Fig. S3G). These results demonstrate that the functional state of CI maintained by PINK1 is a critical determinant of mTORC2 activity. Supporting this notion, PINK1 was found to associate with components of CI (Supplemental Fig. S2H).

Next, we sought to determine the signaling events downstream from mTORC2 that mediate PINK1-directed MQC and tissue maintenance. Surprisingly, even though AKT is considered a key downstream target of mTORC2 (Wullschleger et al. 2006; Russell et al. 2011; Zoncu et al. 2011) and AKT function is compromised in the *dpINK1* mutant, as shown by a reduced p-S505-AKT level, overexpression of wild-type or phospho-mutant forms of AKT had no obvious effect on *dpINK1* LOF phenotypes in terms of mitochondrial morphology and tissue maintenance (Supplemental Fig. S4A–C). Knocking down AKT by RNAi also had no obvious effect (Supplemental Fig. S4A–C). Thus, the best-studied mTORC2 target, AKT, is unlikely to be a key mediator of mTORC2 function in PINK1-controlled MQC and tissue maintenance.

Trc kinase was recently identified as a downstream effector of mTORC2 in regulating the dendritic tiling of *Drosophila* sensory neurons (Koike-Kumagai et al. 2009). Trc was originally isolated in a screen for genes affecting wing hair morphogenesis (Geng et al. 2000) and was later found to be important for dendritic patterning (Emoto et al. 2004) in *Drosophila*. Trc is homologous to mammalian nuclear Dbf-2-related (NDR) kinases (Hergovich et al. 2006). Whether Trc/NDR regulates mitochondrial function or neuromuscular tissue maintenance is not known. Interestingly, although overexpression of Trc LOF or GOF transgenes alone had little effect on muscle function (Supplemental Fig. S5A–C), Trc GOF transgenes effectively suppressed *dpINK1* LOF phenotypes in muscle (Fig. 3A,B; Supplemental Fig. S5D) or DN (Fig. 3E) maintenance and mitochondrial morphology (Fig. 3C,D), whereas dominant-negative Trc (Trc-K122A or Trc-K122/T453A) had opposite effects (Fig. 3A–E, Supplemental Fig. S5D). Note that wild-type or constitutively active Trc (Trc-S292E and Trc-T453E) were equally effective in the GOF assays, indicating that overexpressed wild-type Trc became sufficiently activated, as indicated by its high level phosphorylation at S292 (Fig. 3F).

Consistent with Trc acting downstream from mTORC2, the enhancement of *dpINK1* LOF phenotypes by *rictor* mutation was attenuated by wild-type Trc (Trc-WT) or Trc-S292E GOF transgenes (Supplemental Fig. S6A,C),