



Spinal Cord Injury Causes Prominent Tau Pathology Associated with Brain Post-Injury Sequela

Elnaz Nakhjiri¹ · Shaqayeq Roqanian² · Hamid Soltani Zangbar³ · Manuchehr Seyedi Vafae⁴ · Daryoush Mohammadnejad⁵ · Shahin Ahmadian⁶ · Selva Zamanzadeh⁷ · Ehsan Ehsani⁸ · Parviz Shahabi⁵ · Koorosh Shahpasand²

Received: 16 March 2022 / Accepted: 20 April 2022 / Published online: 30 April 2022
© The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2022

Abstract

Spinal cord injury (SCI) can result in significant neurological impairment and functional and cognitive deficits. It is well established that SCI results in focal neurodegeneration that gradually spreads to other cord areas. On the other hand, traumatic brain injury (TBI) is strongly associated with tau protein pathology and neurodegeneration that can spread in areas throughout the brain. Tau is a microtubule-associated protein abundant in neurons and whose abnormalities result in neuronal cell death. While SCI and TBI have been extensively studied, there is limited research on the relationship between SCI and brain tau pathology. As a result, in this study, we examined tau pathology in spinal cord and brain samples obtained from severe SCI mouse models at various time points. The effects of severe SCI on locomotor function, spatial memory, anxiety/risk-taking behavior were investigated. Immunostaining and immunoblotting confirmed a progressive increase in tau pathology in the spinal cord and brain areas. Moreover, we used electron microscopy to examine brain samples and observed disrupted mitochondria and microtubule structure following SCI. SCI resulted in motor dysfunction, memory impairment, and abnormal risk-taking behavior. Notably, eliminating pathogenic *cis* P-tau via systemic administration of appropriate monoclonal antibodies restored SCI's pathological and functional consequences. Thus, our findings suggest that SCI causes severe tauopathy that spreads to brain areas, indicating brain dysfunction. Additionally, tau immunotherapy with an anti-*cis* P-tau antibody could suppress pathogenic outcomes in SCI mouse models, with significant clinical implications for SCI patients.

Keywords Spinal cord injury · *Cis* P-tau · Traumatic brain injury · Pin1 · Monoclonal antibody · Cognitive decline

Abbreviations

SCI	Spinal cord injury	<i>cis</i> P-tau	<i>cis</i> PThr231-tau
CSF	Cerebrospinal fluid	AD	Alzheimer's disease
TBI	Traumatic brain injury	Pin1	Peptidyl-prolyl <i>cis/trans</i> isomerase
MTs	Microtubules	<i>Cis</i> mAb	<i>cis</i> P-tau monoclonal antibody
CTE	Chronic traumatic encephalopathy	sSCI	Severe SCI
		NIH	National Institute of Health

✉ Parviz Shahabi
shahabip@tbzmed.ac.ir

✉ Koorosh Shahpasand
shahpasand09@gmail.com

¹ Neurosciences Research Center (NSRC), Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran

² Department of Brain and Cognitive Sciences, Cell Science Research Center, Royan Institute for Stem Cell Biology and Technology, ACECR, Tehran, Iran

³ Department of Neuroscience and Cognition, Faculty of Advanced Medical Sciences, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran

⁴ Department of Nuclear Medicine, Odense University Hospital, Odense, Denmark

⁵ Drug Applied Research Center, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran

⁶ Institute of Biochemistry and Biophysics, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran

⁷ Department of Biological Sciences, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

⁸ Department of Biology, Roudehen Islamic Azad University, Roudehen, Iran

SC	Subcutaneously
BMS	The Basso mouse scale
OF	Open-field
IP	Intraperitoneal
TEM	Transmission electron microscopy
EPM	Elevated plus-maze
ROI	Region of interest
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
SD	Standard deviation
ssTBI	Single severe TBI
rmTBI	Repetitive mild TBI
LTP	Long-term potentiation

Introduction

Each year, approximately 500,000 people worldwide experience a spinal cord injury (SCI) due to motor vehicle collisions, falls, violence, and sporting accidents [1, 2], resulting in significant neurological impairment and significant emotional and psychological distress [3].

SCI can disrupt nerve impulse conduction, resulting in neurological dysfunction [4]. Primary spinal cord injury has been shown to rapidly disrupt cell membranes, myelin, and axons within longitudinal tracts. Additionally, the SCI damages microvessels, causing destructive secondary injury by releasing various harmful factors [5]. Numerous cellular and molecular mechanisms may contribute to extensive neurodegeneration during the secondary injury process [6]. As active biological processes, such cascades offer the possibility of treating SCI with selective inhibitors.

SCI can also alter systemic immune functions, affecting the brain [7]. Moreover, the released agents may enter the brain through the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF). The brain abnormalities caused by SCI result from modified afferent and efferent routes. However, SCI induces distinct neuropathological changes, such as decreasing the number of cortical neurons [4, 8–12]. Additionally, cognitive impairment affects 60% of the SCI population [4, 8, 9, 12].

Despite extensive considerations, the mechanism by which SCI results in brain abnormalities remains unknown. Clearly, abnormal tau protein expression is a significant pathological hallmark of traumatic brain injury (TBI) [13]. Tau is a microtubule-associated protein that promotes the formation and stabilization of microtubules (MTs) [14, 15]. Tau is frequently hyperphosphorylated on Ser/Thr residues in tauopathies, impairing the MT's function and altering the protein's integrity, resulting in tau aggregation and tangle formation [16, 17], most notably in chronic traumatic encephalopathy (CTE) [18–22] and Alzheimer's disease (AD) [16, 17].

It is well established that phosphorylated tau at Thr231 exists in two distinct *cis* and *trans* conformations, with the

cis pThr231-tau (*cis* P-tau) conformer being highly neurotoxic and acting as an early initiator of the tauopathy process following TBI. Peptidyl-prolyl *cis/trans* isomerase (Pin1) inhibits the development of tau pathology and neurodegeneration in AD by converting the neurotoxic *cis* conformation of phosphorylated tau at the Thr231-Pro motif to the physiological *trans* conformation [23–31]. Additionally, the tauopathy process can be inhibited *in vitro* and *in vivo* using a *cis* P-tau monoclonal antibody (*cis* mAb) [32–34]. Also, pathogenic *cis* P-tau is prion-like and spreads throughout the brain and CSF in tauopathy mouse models [33–37].

Several studies have examined the concentrations of total tau and P-tau in CSF, serum, and spinal cord tissue from patients and experimental animals with SCI. However, the molecular mechanism underlying tau pathology in SCI is not entirely understood. Furthermore, the causal relationship between SCI and brain dysfunction has remained elusive. Thus, as previously proposed, we examined the tau pathology process in severe SCI (sSCI) mouse models [38]. We induced sSCI and investigated the formation and degeneration of various pathogenic tau species in cord and brain tissues at various time points to determine whether SCI injury can result in brain pathology.

Materials and Methods

Animals and study design Male Balb/c mice (2–3 months old) weighing 22–26 g were obtained and housed in clear plastic cages with a 12-h light/dark cycle and free access to water and food under controlled temperature and humidity. All animals were given one week to acclimate to their new environment before undergoing experimental procedures. The ethics committee of Tabriz University of Medical Sciences approved all protocols (approval No. IR.TBZMED.VCR.REC.1398.067). Experiments were conducted following the National Institutes of Health's Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH Publications).

A total of 54 adult male mice were randomly assigned to one of six groups (n = 9): Sham (laminectomy surgery without compression injury), sSCI (48 h), sSCI (2 W), sSCI (1 M) (severe compression injury at the 8th thoracic segment 'T8' of the spinal cord and sacrificed 48 h, two weeks, and one month after the SCI), sSCI (2 M) + IgG (severe compression injury at T8 and received IgG after the SCI for two months), and sSCI (2 M) + *cis* mAb group (severe compression injury at T8 and received *cis* mAb after the SCI for two months).

Laminectomy and spinal cord compression model using calibrated forceps All procedures were conducted in a sterile environment. Mice were anesthetized with 4% isoflurane, and a laminectomy was performed at T7-9 to expose the

T8 segment of the spinal cord without damaging the dura. Pairs of forceps were applied for laterally compressing the spinal cord to the corresponding thickness (0.25 mm) for 15 s [39, 40]. The sham group received laminectomy and forceps placement around the spinal cord without compression. After forceps removal, muscles and skin were stitched, followed by the administration of saline solution (1 ml) for rehydration, buprenorphine (0.05 mg/kg) for pain relief, and ciprofloxacin (5 mg/kg) for bladder infection treatment/prevention, all subcutaneously (SC) twice daily for three days. The animals were monitored in a temperature-controlled room until they recovered, at which point they were transferred to their own cage. SCI mice bladders were manually expressed twice daily until the urinary reflex was established.

Locomotor analysis Motor function was assessed in mice to ensure that SCI or laminectomy was effective. The Basso mouse scale (BMS) assessed hind-limb function in groups one day after injury in the open field (OF) [41]. In brief, animals were placed individually in the OF chamber (22.5 × 22.5 cm) and allowed to explore freely for 5 min. Two independent evaluators assigned a score of 0 to 9 to each animal, with 0 indicating a complete loss of locomotor function and 9 indicating no locomotor deficits.

To observe the characteristics of *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau induction following SCI, mice in the sSCI (48 h) and sSCI (2 W) groups were anesthetized with intraperitoneal (IP) injections of ketamine (60 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg), 48 h and two weeks after the SCI, and spinal cord tissue samples were collected for immunoblotting and immunofluorescence staining analyses.

Antibody treatment of mice To assess *cis* mAb's efficacy in treating SCI, we examined whether *cis* mAb could affect intracellular P-tau in sSCI (2 M) + *cis* mAb and sSCI (2 M) + IgG groups. Antibody-treated sSCI animals were given either mouse *cis* mAb or IgG at random. Three days prior to the injury, animals received one dose of *cis* mAb/IgG IP (200 µg/per mouse), a single IP post-injury treatment (20 µg in 5 µl) 15 min after SCI, and then IP (200 µg) every four days for two weeks, followed by 200 µg weekly for the remainder of the two months of treatment [34].

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) The ultrastructural examination was performed using the TEM method. Brain and spinal cord specimens were cut into 2 × 2 mm pieces from the sham and SCI mouse models treated with either control IgG or *cis* mAb. The cells were fixed in glutaraldehyde 2.5%, buffered with 0.1 M phosphate (pH 7.4), post-fixed with 1% osmium tetroxide, and finally embedded in resin. Ultrathin sections measuring 60–90 nm were cut and placed on a copper grid, stained with a solution of uranyl

acetate and lead citrate, and examined using a ZEISS electron microscope (EM902A) and a Leo 906 transmission electron microscope (Leo, Germany).

Immunoblotting analysis Immunoblotting was performed on the spinal cord, and brain samples homogenized in RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, 1% NP 40, 0.1% SDS, 0.5% Na-deoxycholate, 50 mM NaF) containing proteinase and phosphatase inhibitors and then mixed with SDS sample buffer and loaded onto a gel after boiling. Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis at 12% resolved the proteins and transferred them to a PVDF membrane. The membranes were then blocked for 1 h with 2% milk in TBST (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20). The membranes were then incubated overnight at 4°C with the following primary antibodies: *cis* P-tau mAb (gift from KP. Lu), AT8 P-tau (MN1020), AT100 P-tau (MN1060), and Tau-5 (MAB361). The immunoblots were then incubated with a secondary antibody conjugated to HRP in 2% milk in TBST. Chemiluminescence was used to detect the signals (Perkin Elmer, San Jose, CA). Following each step, the membranes were washed six times with TBST. ImageJ was used to quantify the immunoblotting results.

Subsequently, two-stage normalization was conducted. Initially, the band of interests was normalized against actin. The relative intensity of P-tau markers (*cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau) was normalized to total tau (Tau-5). Afterward, normalized data were visualized as expressions in test samples compared to sham groups.

Immunostaining analysis Mice were deeply anesthetized, and the left ventricle was perfused with 10% neutral buffered formalin. The spinal cord and brain were immediately removed and post-fixed overnight in 10% neutral buffered formalin. A 1.5-cm segment of spinal cord centered on the injury site as well as mice brain samples were embedded into the paraffin and then cut into 8 µm increments by a microtome.

Dewaxed sections were then dehydrated in a series of ethanol dilutions. A 5% ammonium chloride solution (Merck, 101,145) was used to quench autofluorescence. For antigen enhancement, the sections were placed in a steamer (0.01 M) sodium citrate (Sigma-Aldrich, S4641) for 20 min for antigen enhancement. The slides were then permeabilized for 15 min with 0.5% Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich, T8532) and blocked for one hour with 10% goat serum. Following that, the slides were incubated with *cis* P-tau mAb (gift from KP. Lu). The samples were incubated with the anti-mouse secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 488 or 594) at 37 °C for 1 h. DAPI (Invitrogen, D1306) was used to stain the nuclei, and the images were captured using a fluorescent microscope (BX71; Olympus equipped with DP72 digital camera).

Twenty ROIs (350 × 450 µm² dimension representative view) were randomly selected and quantified from the

cerebral cortices. ImageJ was used to quantify the immunofluorescence intensity ($n=3$ per group).

Open-field locomotion The OF test was used to assess hind-limb functions and spontaneous locomotor activity on days 1, 30, and 60 following injury. We scored locomotor performance using the BMS and a related subscale [42]. We used a computer-based video tracking system (Noldus Ethovision) to record mice's total traveled distance, speed, and walking pattern for 5 min to determine spontaneous locomotor activity [42–46].

Elevated plus-maze (EPM) test The EPM task is an experimental model used to examine cortical circuits to assess anxiety/risk-taking behavior [47–52]. The test is typically conducted on a plus-shaped apparatus raised 50 cm above the ground and equipped with two opposite open (aversive, no walls) and two opposite closed (safe, 15 cm high walls) arms (30×5 cm), as well as a central square. A mouse is placed on the apparatus's central square, facing an open arm, and is allowed 5 min to explore the maze. We kept track of the number of open arm entries and the amount of time spent exploring open arms (Noldus Ethovision). The maze was thoroughly cleaned following each trial to ensure that no odorant interfered with the test. Mice with normal levels of anxiety/risk-taking behavior enter and stay in the open arms less frequently and for a shorter time. The open arms approach addresses the abnormal risk-taking and anxiety behaviors associated with cognitive decline [34, 53].

Y-maze spontaneous alternation test The Y-maze test assesses spatial working memory in rodents and quantifies cognitive deficits. The Y-maze is composed of three identical black arms (30 cm long, 6 cm wide, and 15 cm high walls) mounted at a 120° angle to one another in the shape of the letter 'Y.' Generally, rodents will explore a new arm rather than revisiting previously visited arms. A random arm (arms A–C) was chosen as the 'start' arm, and the mouse was placed at its end and allowed to move through each arm. The number of arm entries (when all four paws enter the arm) was recorded for 10 min. Alternation is defined as non-repeating entries into each arm. The percentage of alternations is calculated as follows: $(\text{Number of alternations} / \text{Number of arm entries}) \times 100$. A mouse with intact working memory scored significantly $> 50\%$ [46, 54, 55].

Mice were anesthetized with ketamine–xylazine IP injections at the end of the second month and following behavioral tests. Brain and spinal cord tissue samples were collected for electron microscopy, immunoblotting, and immunofluorescence staining analyses.

Statistical analysis To compare the groups' mean differences, all normally distributed data were analyzed using

one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's HSD multiple comparisons post hoc test. Additionally, we used one-way multivariate covariance analysis (MANCOVA) to eliminate the effect of controlling variables or covariates on the relationship between independent and dependent variables. All data were analyzed using SPSS software (v. 22) and reported as mean \pm standard deviation (SD), with $P < 0.05$ considered significant. All graphs were obtained by GraphPad Prism version 8.4.3. F represents the degree of freedom; n denotes the number of different animals.

Results

Compression severe SCI induced tau pathology in cord neurons We studied tau pathology induced by SCI in SCI mouse models using immunoblotting and immunofluorescence staining of spinal cord tissues. Severe SCI induced pathogenic *cis* P-tau acutely and persistently 48 h after the injury and maintained it at elevated levels for two weeks. At 48 h and two weeks after injury, robust *cis* P-tau signals (3.638 ± 0.0442) and (4.975 ± 0.753) were detected in the cords (Fig. 1a–c, $P = 0.136$, $P = 0.0167$). Immunoblotting also demonstrated a progressive increase in AT8 P-tau (early tangle) [$F(2, 4) = 31.98$, $P = 0.0229$] and AT100 P-tau (late tangle) [$F(2, 4) = 57.77$, $P = 0.0018$] in cord tissues following timely trauma (Fig. 1b–e). Evidently, the SCI resulted in the development of tau pathology in the cord tissue.

Improved tau pathology effects triggered by sSCI via *cis* mAb It is well established that *cis* P-tau is associated with neurodegenerative outcomes and the progression of TBI-induced tauopathy. As previously stated, we demonstrated that *cis* P-tau was induced 48 h after sSCI, implying that there may be a link between *cis* P-tau and pathological changes following injury. To better understand the brain complications caused by SCI, particularly the efficacy of *cis* mAb in treating neurodegenerative pathologies caused by sSCI, we treated animal models for two months with either *cis* mAb or a control IgG isotype. Following sSCI, this study demonstrates that pathogenic *cis* P-tau spreads to the brain and induces tau pathology [34] in various areas, including the cortices (Fig. 2a–d). Moreover, as previously observed, *cis* mAb treatment effectively suppressed tau pathology (Fig. 2a–d) [34, 56–59].

One month after injury, immunofluorescence staining of sSCI mouse brains revealed strong *cis* P-tau signals (11.70 ± 2.078 , $P = 0.0191$) (Fig. 2a, b). Additionally, immunoblotting confirmed the presence of a significant amount of *cis* P-tau (2.511 ± 0.071 , $P = 0.0272$), AT8 P-tau (5.473 ± 0.432 , $P = 0.0111$), and AT100 P-tau (3.358 ± 0.323 , $P = 0.0124$) in the cortices of sSCI mice,

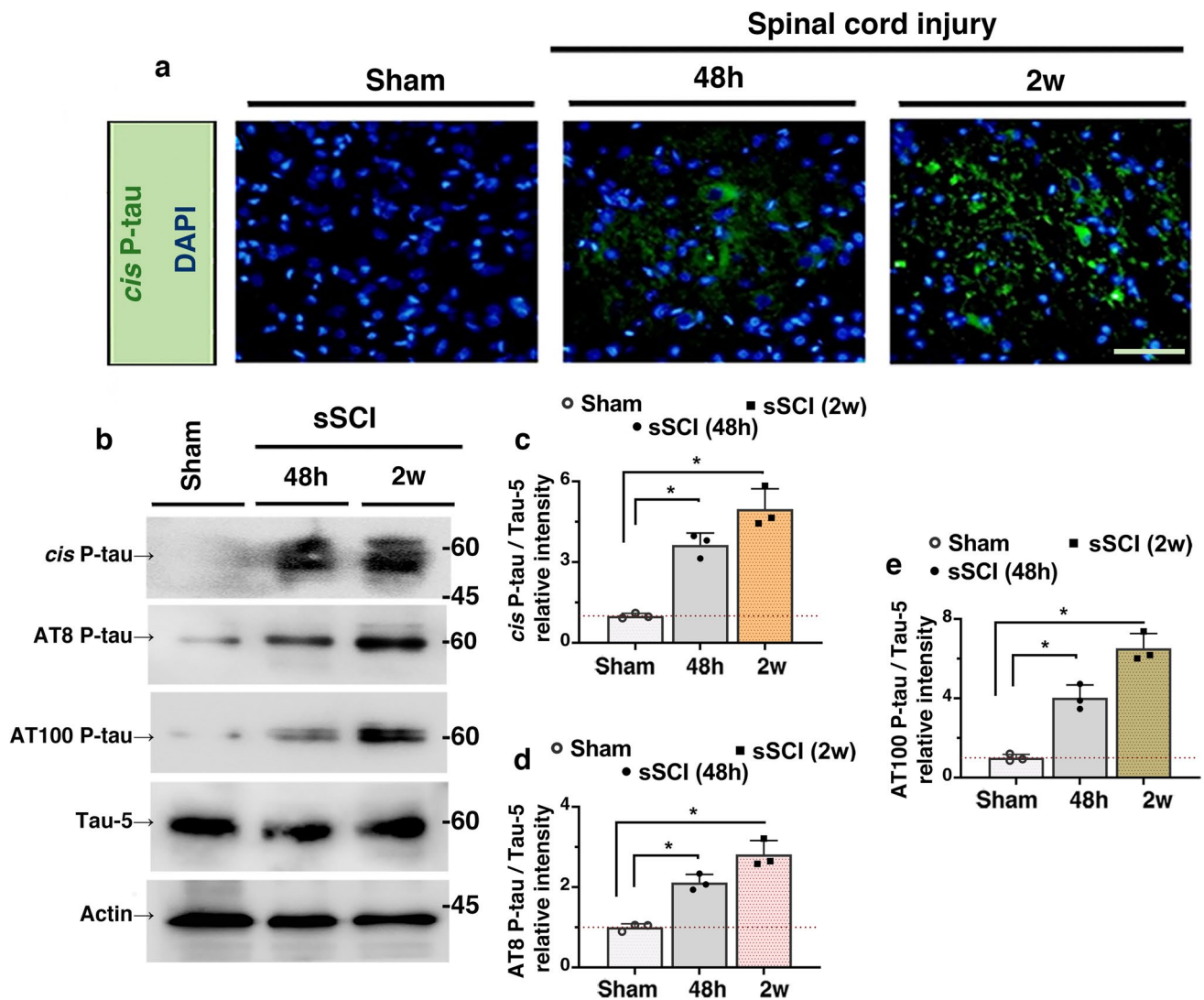


Fig. 1 Severe SCI had a robust and persistent effect on tau pathogenicity induction in the cord. Mice were subjected to SCI via calibrated forceps. **(a)** The sham and sSCI mouse cords (48 h and 2w after injury) were stained with anti *cis* P-tau antibody followed by immunofluorescence staining. *Cis*, green; DNA, blue; scale bar, 100 μ m; $n=3$. **(b–e)** Immunoblots were stained with *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau antibodies, followed by quantification anal-

ysis. Protein bands were quantified with ImageJ software and normalized against actin and *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau relative intensities against total tau (Tau-5). Normalized data were depicted as expressions in test samples versus sham groups, $n=3$. One-way ANOVA statistically analyzed data by Tukey's post hoc test (mean \pm SD). * $P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$. h, hours; w, weeks

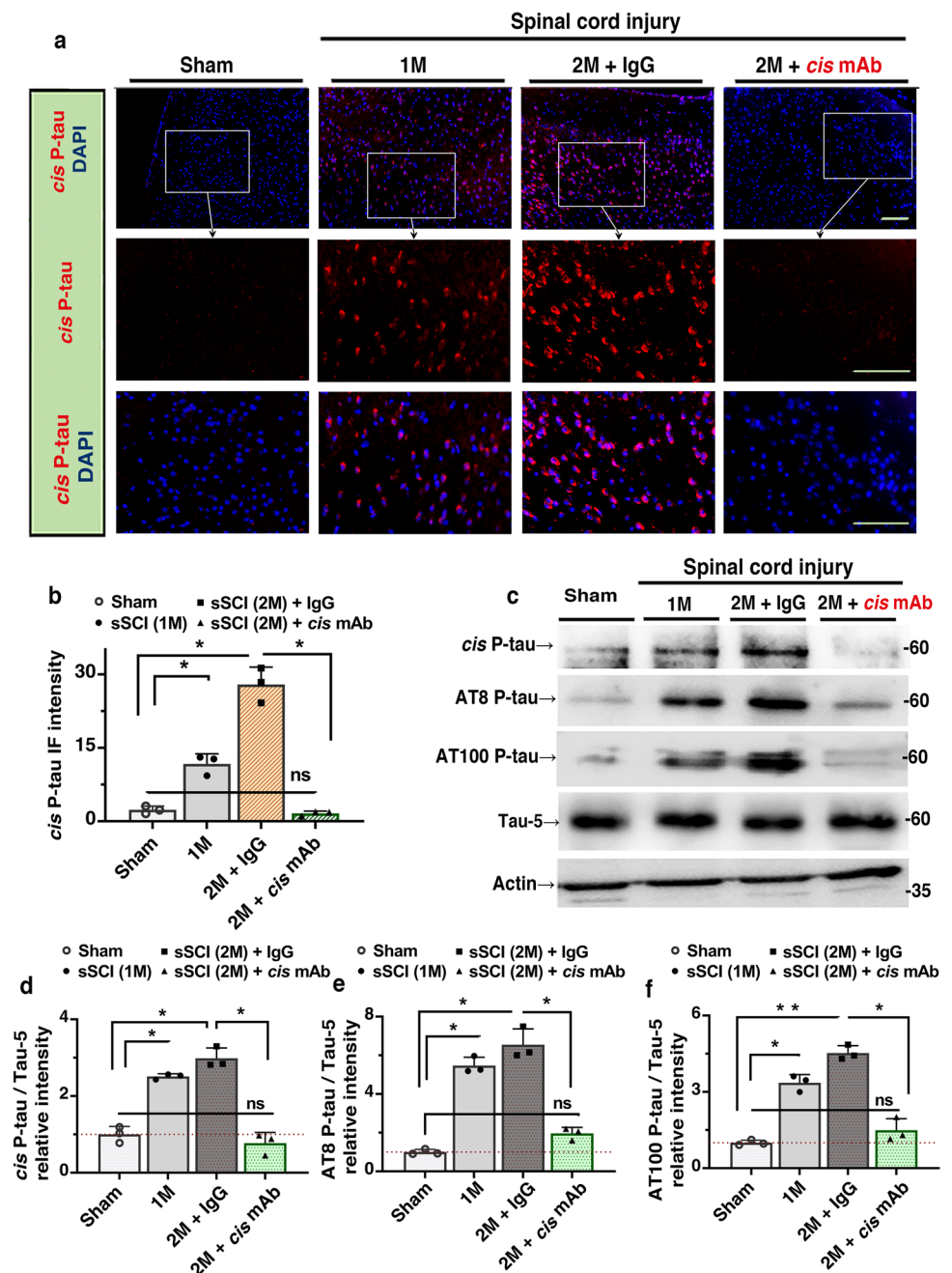
whereas no significant amount of P-tau epitopes was detected in animals in the sham group (Fig. 2c–f). While immunotherapy with control IgG did not affect the formation of *cis* P-tau in the cortices of sSCI animals (27.94 ± 3.554 , $P=0.0234$) compared to the sham group, *cis* mAb administration effectively prevented tau pathology and *cistauosis* in immunostained sSCI mouse brains (1.611 ± 0.4818 , $P=0.7424$) (Fig. 2a, b). Similarly, *cis* mAb administration effectively inhibited the formation of *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau in sSCI mouse brain immunoblots, when compared to two-month sSCI IgG treated mice ($P=0.0492$, $P=0.0219$, $P=0.0293$, respectively); however, IgG

treatment did not affect the number of tau epitopes formed (Fig. 2c–f).

Evidently, sSCI can cause tau pathology in both the spinal cord and brain and immunotherapy with *cis* mAb can effectively inhibit the formation of pathogenic *cis* P-tau in the brains of sSCI animals.

Improved SCI-related ultrastructural impairment via *cis* mAb According to previous research, SCI causes axonal injury and intracellular Ca^{2+} and tau hyperphosphorylation. Ca^{2+} uptake by the mitochondria results in mitochondrial dysfunction and an increase in reactive oxygen species

Fig. 2 Treating sSCI mice with *cis* mAb blocked *cistaos* and tau pathology in the brain. **(a, b)** Mice with severe SCI were treated with *cis* mAb or control IgG for two months. The cortices of sham and sSCI mouse brains were stained with *cis* P-tau followed by immunofluorescence intensity quantification. *Cis* P-tau, red; DAPI, blue; scale bar, 100 μ m; $n=3$. **(c–f)** Immunoblots were stained with *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, AT100 P-tau, and actin antibodies, followed by quantification analysis. The protein bands were quantified with ImageJ and normalized against actin and *cis* P-tau, AT8 P-tau, and AT100 P-tau relative intensities against total tau (Tau-5). Normalized data were depicted as expressions in test samples versus sham groups, $n=3$. One-way ANOVA statistically analyzed data by Tukey's post-hoc test (mean \pm SD). * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$. M, month; *cis*, *cis* mAb; ns: not significant



(ROS). Furthermore, hyperphosphorylated tau promotes neuroinflammation, ROS generation, mitochondrial dysfunction (disrupted mitochondrial membrane), microtubule disruption (distributed microtubules), and tangle formation [16, 38, 46]. TBI has previously been shown to cause significant microtubule and mitochondrial disruption [34]. Given that the disruption is caused by pathogenic *cis* P-tau, *cis* mAb treatment may restore the impairment [33, 34, 60, 61]. To this end, we examined brain ultrastructural changes employing the respective monoclonal antibody with or without pathogenic *cis* P-tau elimination. We observed that SCI resulted in pathogenic *cis* P-tau and structural damage to the

spinal cord and brain. Additionally, *cis* mAb restored the abnormalities effectively (Fig. 3).

Improved SCI-related motor function impairment via *cis* mAb On days 1, 30, and 60 following sSCI, an open field test was used to assess spontaneous locomotor activity and hind-limb functions using BMS scores [41]. On each of the three days of the experiment, mice in the sSCI (1 M) and sSCI (2 M) + IgG groups demonstrated a significant decrease in the total traveled distance ($P < 0.001$) when compared to mice in the sham group. The decrease in the total traveled distance was mirrored by a decrease in walking speed in

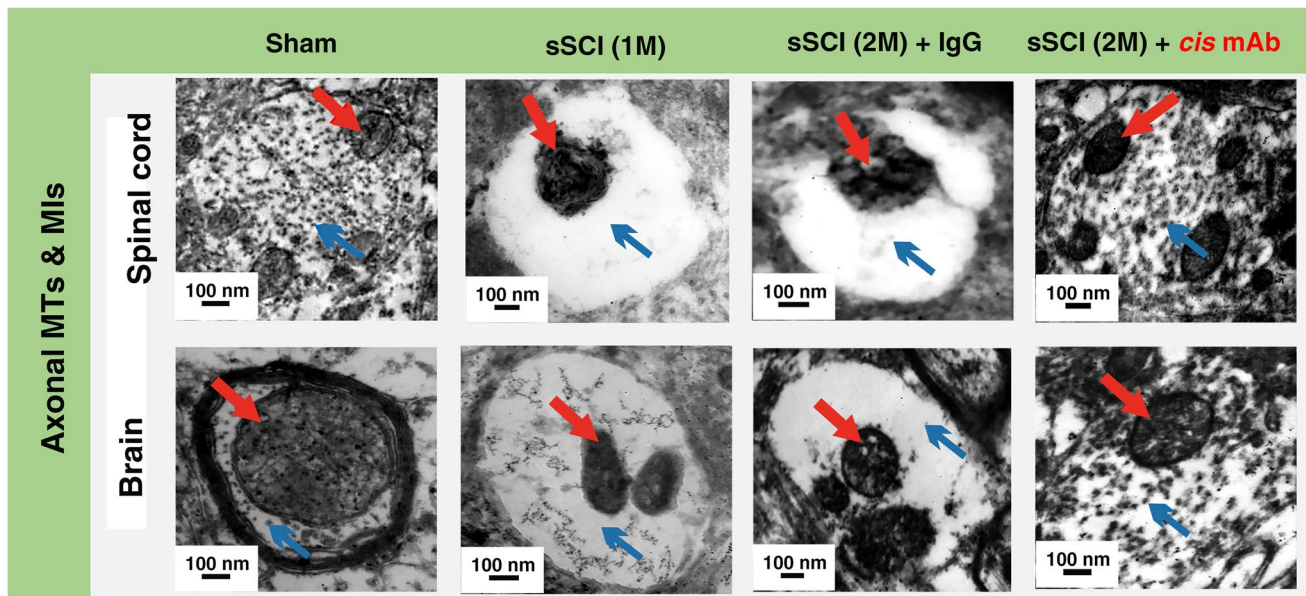


Fig. 3 Treatment of sSCI mice with *cis* mAb inhibited the destruction of the spinal cord and brain ultrastructure. Electron micrographs of spinal cord and brain sSCI mouse models; either treated or untreated

with *cis* P-tau mAb. Axonal MTs (blue open arrows) and MIs (red filled arrows). Scale bars, 100 nm. M, month; MT, microtubule; MI, mitochondria

sSCI (1 M) and sSCI (2 M) + IgG mice ($P < 0.001$) compared to the sham group. Notably, on days 30 and 60 following injury, we observed a significant improvement in spontaneous locomotor activity in the sSCI group treated with *cis* mAb ($P < 0.001$) compared to the sSCI and IgG-treated sSCI groups (Fig. 4a, b, d).

One day after the injury, all mice exhibited a near-complete loss of motor function (BMS score of 1). By day 60, hind-limb functional recovery was significantly improved in *cis* mAb-treated mice compared to IgG-treated mice ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 4c). As a result, *cis* P-tau elimination improved spontaneous locomotor activity and hind-limb function recovery in sSCI mice.

Restored SCI-related cognitive dysfunction via *cis* mAb The Y-maze spontaneous alternation test was performed to measure spatial working memory. The sham group exhibited functional working memory with a spontaneous alteration rate of ~65%. Compared to the sham group, severe SCI significantly decreased the percentage of spontaneous alteration ($P < 0.001$). SCI mice treated with *cis* mAb had a significantly higher rate of spontaneous alteration than sSCI mice treated with IgG ($P = 0.002$ or $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 5a).

To assess *cis* mAb's anxiolytic efficacy, we used an elevated-plus maze test 60 days after sSCI. In the EPM test, the sham group animals explored the open arms significantly less than IgG-treated sSCI mice ($P = 0.009$ or $P < 0.01$). Additionally, similar to the sham group, the *cis* mAb-treated group spent significantly less time in the open arms ($P < 0.001$) than the IgG-treated sSCI groups (Fig. 5b). Total

open arm entries were increased in SCI (2 M) + IgG mice compared to the sham group and *cis* mAb-treated sSCI mice (Fig. 5c). As a result, all IgG-treated sSCI mice exhibited anxiety/risk-taking behavior when exploring the two open arms; in comparison, *cis* mAb-treated mice exhibited minimal anxiety. Our data support the notion that rodents prefer protected environments, such as the nest.

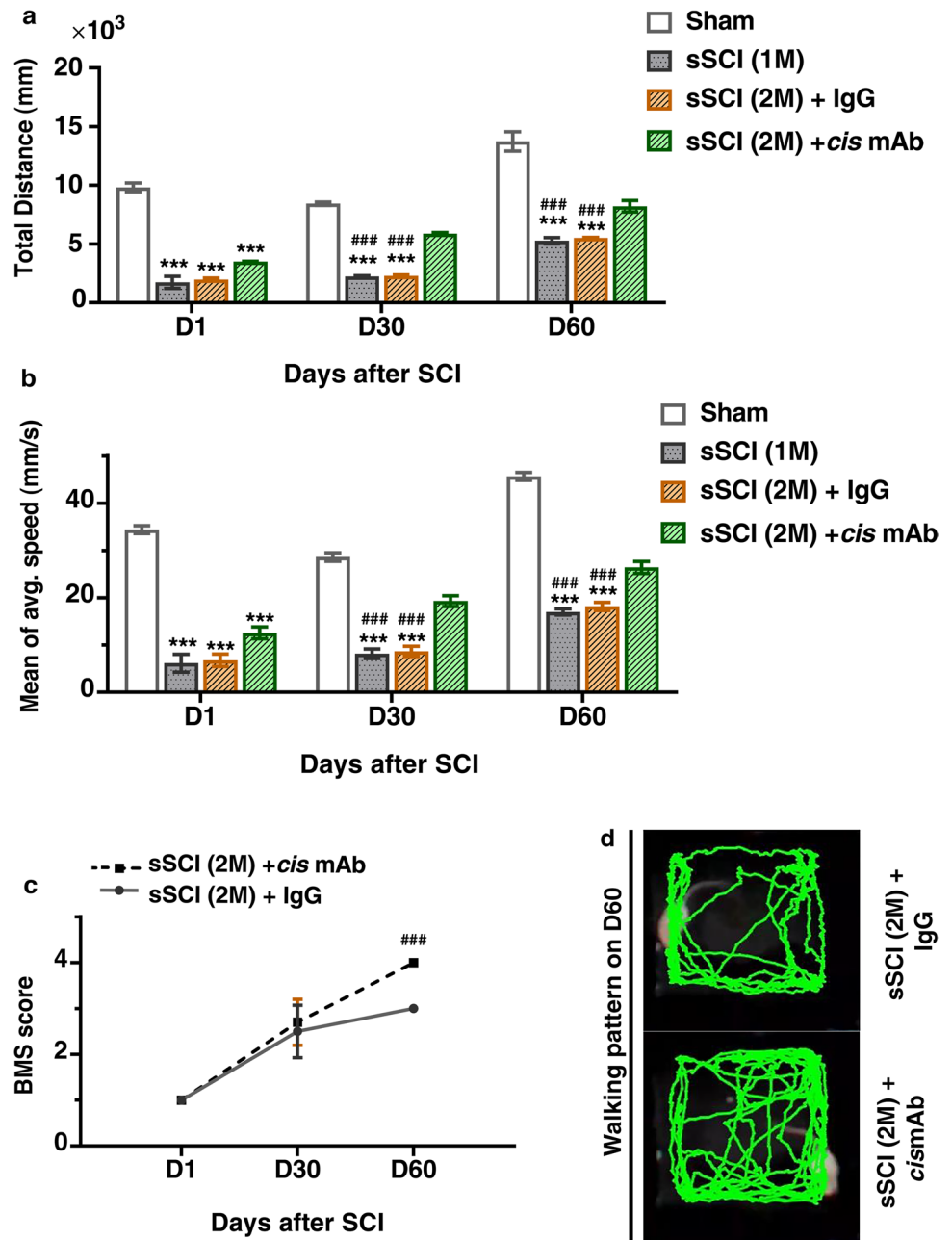
The data for cognitive functions (alternation percentage and OAT) were then normalized against locomotor activity on day 60 (speed and total traveled distance; see Fig. 4a, b) to eliminate the effect of locomotor activity on the relationship between IgG/*cis* mAb treatment and cognitive functions. The data indicated that *cis* mAb restores cognitive deficits independently and significantly ($P < 0.01$) (Fig. 5d, e). As a result, *cis* mAb abolishes *cis* P-tau and *cistaosis* and reverses behavioral deficits triggered by SCI.

Discussion

It is self-evident that SCI impairs brain function and contributes to patients' cognitive decline. However, the molecular mechanisms by which SCI affects the brain remain unknown. SCI can disrupt the cerebral cortex and neural circuits retrogradely, such as thalamic afferents to the hippocampal compartment [62, 63].

Moreover, injured neurons in the spinal cord produce the chemokine cysteine-cysteine ligand 21, which activates microglia in distant spinal cord sections and the thalamus

Fig. 4 *Cis* P-tau elimination in sSCI mice improved motor function. Severe SCI mice were subjected to an open field test to examine spontaneous locomotor activity (a, b), hind-limb locomotor functions, using the BMS score (c), and walking pattern (d). Data expressed as mean \pm SD. *** P < 0.001 versus sham, ### P < 0.001 vs sSCI (2 M) + *cis* mAb. M, month; D, day; BMS, Basso mouse scale

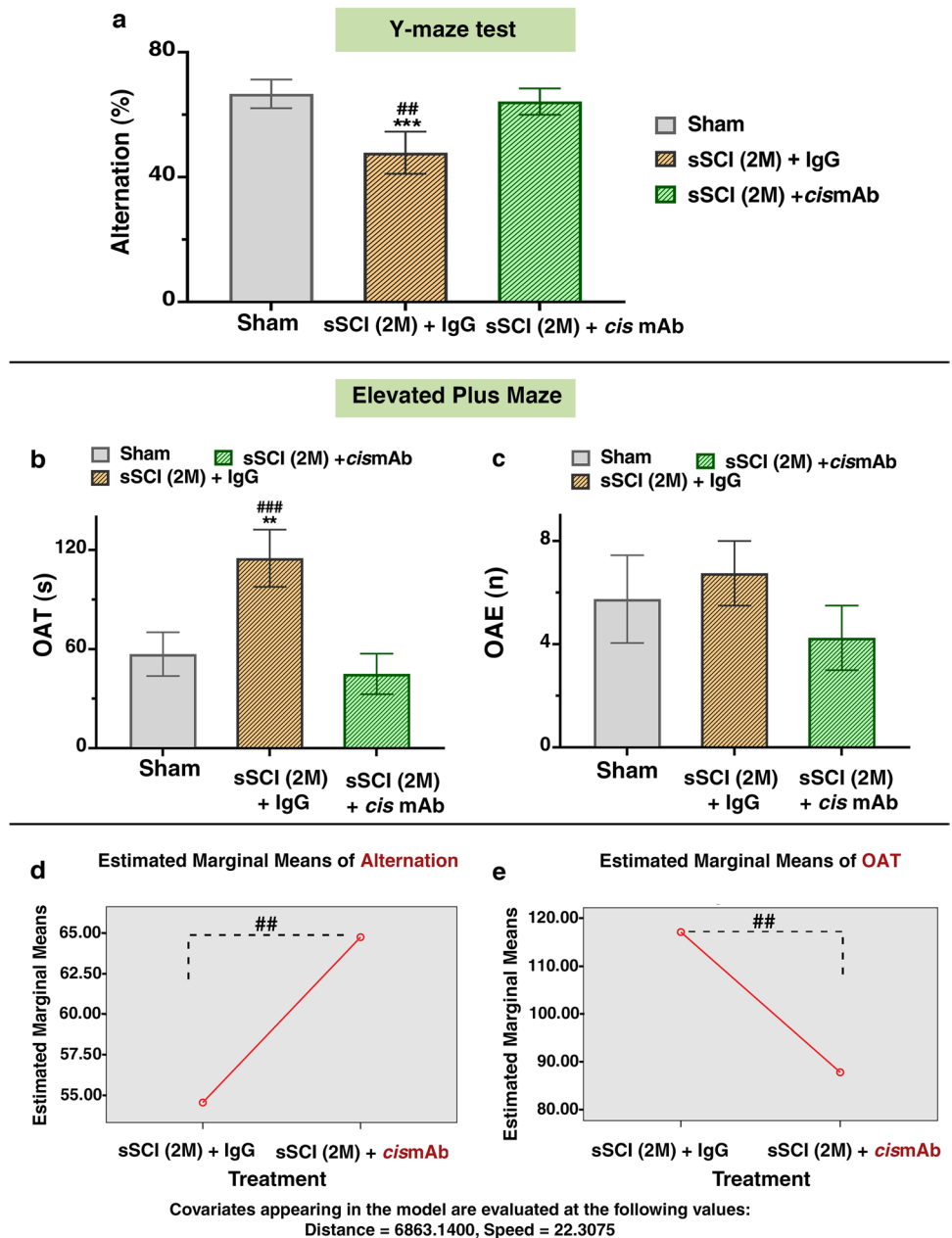


[64, 65]. Furthermore, SCI impairs systemic immune functions [66], which affects the brain. Neuronal cell injury or death can release intracellular MT binding proteins into the extracellular space, traveling to the brain via the CSF [67, 68]. Several studies have demonstrated an increase in tau levels in the CSF following acute TBI [69] and SCI [70]. Despite extensive consideration, the molecular mechanisms underlying the brain pathology caused by SCI remain unknown [71].

It has been evidenced that single severe TBI (ssTBI) or repetitive mild TBI (rmTBI) induces pathogenic *cis* P-tau in axons a few hours after injury, resulting in neurodegeneration

[34]. *Cis* P-tau is prion-like and spreads throughout the brain, typically accompanied by neuron pathogenicity [34, 37]. Notably, *cis* mAb treatment can eliminate pathogenic *cis* P-tau, restore axonal pathologies such as MT defects, organelle transport, and long-term potentiation (LTP), and prevent the development of numerous short- and long-term pathological and functional consequences following ssTBI or rmTBI [33, 34, 37, 61]. TBI induces oxidative stress and Pin1 oxidation at Cys113 and Ser71, resulting in Pin1 inactivation and *cis* P-tau accumulation [34]. SCI, on the other hand, results in severe oxidative stress [39, 64, 65]. Similarly, we observed that SCI stress promotes the accumulation

Fig. 5 *Cis* P-tau immunotherapy restores cognitive dysfunction in mice with SCI. (a) After two months of treatment with IgG or *cis* mAb, sSCI mice were subjected to the Y-maze spontaneous alternation test to assess spatial working memory. (b, c) sSCI mice were subjected to the EPM test to assess anxiety/risk-taking behavior, and time spent in the open arms and open arm entries were measured. (d, e) Cognitive functions data (alternation percentage and OAT) were normalized against the locomotor activity (speed and total traveled distance) in IgG/*cis* mAb treated groups to control locomotor activity as a covariate. The MANCOVA analyses showed that *cis* mAb independently and significantly restored cognitive deficits ($P < 0.01$). Data expressed as mean \pm SD. *** $P < 0.001$ vs sham, ** $P < 0.01$ vs sham, ### $P < 0.001$ vs sSCI (2 M) + *cis* mAb, ## $P < 0.01$ vs sSCI (2 M) + *cis* mAb. M, month; OAT, open arm time; OAE, open arm entry



of pathogenic *cis* P-tau, most likely via oxidative stress and Pin1 suppression. We hypothesized that SCI-induced oxidative stress would result in Pin1 inactivation and *cis* P-tau accumulation.

We investigated tau pathologies induced by SCI in order to identify and treat brain complications such as axonal pathology, functional deficits, and cognitive impairment; as previously proposed [38], we discovered that *cis* P-tau is the initial and critical mediator of *cis* P-tau neurodegeneration and functional defects following SCI in the mouse model. Additionally, we assessed the effects of *cis* mAb therapy on pathological and functional brain complications associated with

injury. We observed the following: (1) Severe SCI had a robust and persistent effect on *cis* P-tau induction and resulted in histological changes in the spinal cord and brain tissues; (2) severe SCI resulted in locomotor impairment, cognitive deficits, and anxiety-like behaviors; (3) treatment with *cis* mAb effectively prevented the development of extensive tauopathy, improved histopathological consequences, and restored motor and cognitive function in SCI mice. Notably, our histological findings demonstrated that the *cis* P-tau level was significantly increased at the injury site and spread from the spinal cord to the brain within two months of the injury. These findings suggest that induction of *cis*

P-tau is required for the development of several pathological and functional outcomes following SCI.

Conclusion

We examined the relationship between SCI and tau pathology in the mouse models. We demonstrated that pathogenic tau was induced focally in spinal cord tissue early after a severe compression SCI, spread to brain areas via CSF, and induced prominent tauopathy, resulting in motor dysfunction. Overall, we propose *cis* P-tau as a reliable biomarker for assessing the pathologic outcomes of SCI.

While we demonstrated that SCI increases *cis* P-tau accumulation, additional experiments are necessary to determine whether tau pathology is caused by Pin1 inactivation.

Additional research in preclinical SCI models and patients with varying degrees of SCI is required to determine the biomarker value of *cis* P-tau. The biomarkers may lead to identifying novel SCI therapeutic targets and treatment strategies. In summary, our findings suggest that pathogenic *cis* P-tau is a tauopathy driver in SCI, making it a potential target for immunotherapy diagnosis and treatment.

Authors' contributions All authors contributed to the study conception and design. Elnaz Nakhjiri expressed the idea of the article and performed the literature search. Material preparation, data collection and analysis were performed by Selva Zamanzadeh, Ehsan Ehsani, Hamid Soltani Zangbar, Shaqayeq Roqanian, Daryoush Mohammadnejad and Shahin Ahmadian. The first draft of the manuscript was written by Elnaz Nakhjiri, Koorosh Shahpasand and Parviz Shahabi. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the final manuscript.

Funding The grant of this study was provided by Neurosciences Research Center of Faculty of Medicine, Tabriz University of Medical Sciences, Tabriz, Iran; Council for Stem Cell Sciences and Technologies, Tehran, Iran (Grant number: 11/35721); and grant #1397-A-5443 from Royan Institute for Stem Cell Biology & Technology, Tehran, Iran.

Data availability The data sets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Declarations

Ethics approval This study was conducted following the Declaration of Helsinki's principles. The Tabriz University of Medical Sciences Ethics Committee approved this study (Code of ethics: IR.TBZMED.VCR.REC.1398.067).

Consent to participate Not applicable.

Consent to publish Not applicable.

Competing interests The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to disclose.

References

- Ackery A, Tator C, Krassioukov A (2004) A global perspective on spinal cord injury epidemiology. *J Neurotrauma* 21(10):1355–1370. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2004.21.1355>
- Van den Berg ME, Castellote JM, Mahillo-Fernandez I, de Pedro-Cuesta J (2010) Incidence of spinal cord injury worldwide: a systematic review. *Neuroepidemiology* 34(3):184–192. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000279335>
- Singh A, Tetreault L, Kalsi-Ryan S, Nouri A, Fehlings MG (2014) Global prevalence and incidence of traumatic spinal cord injury. *Clin Epidemiol* 6:309–331. <https://doi.org/10.2147/CLEP.S68889>
- Collins-Praino LE, Corrigan F (2017) Does neuroinflammation drive the relationship between tau hyperphosphorylation and dementia development following traumatic brain injury? *Brain Behav Immun* 60:369–382. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbi.2016.09.027>
- Bethea JR, Dietrich WD (2002) Targeting the host inflammatory response in traumatic spinal cord injury. *Curr Opin Neurol* 15(3):355–360. <https://doi.org/10.1097/00019052-200206000-00021>
- Tator CH, Fehlings MG (1991) Review of the secondary injury theory of acute spinal cord trauma with emphasis on vascular mechanisms. *J Neurosurg* 75(1):15–26. <https://doi.org/10.3171/jns.1991.75.1.0015>
- Nielson JL, Sears-Kraxberger I, Strong MK, Wong JK, Willenberg R, Steward O (2010) Unexpected survival of neurons of origin of the pyramidal tract after spinal cord injury. *J Neurosci* 30(34):11516–11528. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1433-10.2010>
- Coulthart MB, Jansen GH, Cashman NR (2016) Evidence for transmissibility of Alzheimer disease pathology: Cause for concern? *CMAJ* 188(10):E210–E212. <https://doi.org/10.1503/cmaj.151257>
- Craig A, Guest R, Tran Y, Middleton J (2017) Cognitive Impairment and Mood States after Spinal Cord Injury. *J Neurotrauma* 34(6):1156–1163. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2016.4632>
- Nielson JL, Strong MK, Steward O (2011) A reassessment of whether cortical motor neurons die following spinal cord injury. *J Comp Neurol* 519(14):2852–2869. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.22661>
- Wannier T, Schmidlin E, Bloch J, Rouiller EM (2005) A unilateral section of the corticospinal tract at cervical level in primate does not lead to measurable cell loss in motor cortex. *J Neurotrauma* 22(6):703–717. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2005.22.703>
- Cohen ML, Tulskey DS, Holdnack JA, Carozzi NE, Wong A, Magasi S, Heaton RK, Heinemann AW (2017) Cognition among community-dwelling individuals with spinal cord injury. *Rehabil Psychol* 62(4):425–434. <https://doi.org/10.1037/rep0000140>
- Jeter CB, Hergenroeder GW, Hylin MJ, Redell JB, Moore AN, Dash PK (2013) Biomarkers for the diagnosis and prognosis of mild traumatic brain injury/concussion. *J Neurotrauma* 30(8):657–670. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2012.2439>
- Alonso AC, Zaidi T, Grundke-Iqbal I, Iqbal K (1994) Role of abnormally phosphorylated tau in the breakdown of microtubules in Alzheimer disease. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 91(12):5562–5566. <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.91.12.5562>
- Gendron TF, Petrucelli L (2009) The role of tau in neurodegeneration. *Mol Neurodegener* 4:13. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1750-1326-4-13>
- Iqbal K, Liu F, Gong CX (2016) Tau and neurodegenerative disease: the story so far. *Nat Rev Neurol* 12(1):15–27. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrneurol.2015.225>
- Wang Y, Mandelkow E (2016) Tau in physiology and pathology. *Nat Rev Neurosci* 17(1):5–21. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrn.2015.1>

18. Blennow K, Hardy J, Zetterberg H (2012) The neuropathology and neurobiology of traumatic brain injury. *Neuron* 76(5):886–899. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2012.11.021>
19. DeKosky ST, Blennow K, Ikonovic MD, Gandy S (2013) Acute and chronic traumatic encephalopathies: pathogenesis and biomarkers. *Nat Rev Neurol* 9(4):192–200. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrneurol.2013.36>
20. McKee AC, Stern RA, Nowinski CJ, Stein TD, Alvarez VE, Daneshvar DH, Lee HS, Wojtowicz SM, Hall G, Baugh CM, Riley DO, Kubilus CA, Cormier KA, Jacobs MA, Martin BR, Abraham CR, Ikezu T, Reichard RR, Wolozin BL, Budson AE, Goldstein LE, Kowall NW, Cantu RC (2013) The spectrum of disease in chronic traumatic encephalopathy. *Brain* 136(Pt 1):43–64. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/aww307>
21. Smith DH, Johnson VE, Stewart W (2013) Chronic neuropathologies of single and repetitive TBI: substrates of dementia? *Nat Rev Neurol* 9(4):211–221. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrneurol.2013.29>
22. Zare-Shahabadi A, Masliah E, Johnson GV, Rezaei N (2015) Autophagy in Alzheimer's disease. *Rev Neurosci* 26(4):385–395. <https://doi.org/10.1515/revneuro-2014-0076>
23. Chen CH, Li W, Sultana R, You MH, Kondo A, Shahpasand K, Kim BM, Luo ML, Nechama M, Lin YM, Yao Y, Lee TH, Zhou XZ, Swomley AM, Butterfield DA, Zhang Y, Lu KP (2015) Pin1 cysteine-113 oxidation inhibits its catalytic activity and cellular function in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurobiol Dis* 76:13–23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nbd.2014.12.027>
24. Lee TH, Chen CH, Suizu F, Huang P, Schiene-Fischer C, Daum S, Zhang YJ, Goate A, Chen RH, Zhou XZ, Lu KP (2011) Death-associated protein kinase 1 phosphorylates Pin1 and inhibits its prolyl isomerase activity and cellular function. *Mol Cell* 42(2):147–159. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molcel.2011.03.005>
25. Lim J, Balastik M, Lee TH, Nakamura K, Liou YC, Sun A, Finn G, Pastorino L, Lee VM, Lu KP (2008) Pin1 has opposite effects on wild-type and P301L tau stability and tauopathy. *J Clin Invest* 118(5):1877–1889. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI34308>
26. Liou YC, Sun A, Ryo A, Zhou XZ, Yu ZX, Huang HK, Uchida T, Bronson R, Bing G, Li X, Hunter T, Lu KP (2003) Role of the prolyl isomerase Pin1 in protecting against age-dependent neurodegeneration. *Nature* 424(6948):556–561. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature01832>
27. Lu KP, Hanes SD, Hunter T (1996) A human peptidyl-prolyl isomerase essential for regulation of mitosis. *Nature* 380(6574):544–547. <https://doi.org/10.1038/380544a0>
28. Lu KP, Zhou XZ (2007) The prolyl isomerase PIN1: a pivotal new twist in phosphorylation signalling and disease. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol* 8(11):904–916. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nrm2261>
29. Lu PJ, Wulf G, Zhou XZ, Davies P, Lu KP (1999) The prolyl isomerase Pin1 restores the function of Alzheimer-associated phosphorylated tau protein. *Nature* 399(6738):784–788. <https://doi.org/10.1038/21650>
30. Pastorino L, Sun A, Lu PJ, Zhou XZ, Balastik M, Finn G, Wulf G, Lim J, Li SH, Li X, Xia W, Nicholson LK, Lu KP (2006) The prolyl isomerase Pin1 regulates amyloid precursor protein processing and amyloid-beta production. *Nature* 440(7083):528–534. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature04543>
31. Sultana R, Boyd-Kimball D, Poon HF, Cai J, Pierce WM, Klein JB, Markesbery WR, Zhou XZ, Lu KP, Butterfield DA (2006) Oxidative modification and down-regulation of Pin1 in Alzheimer's disease hippocampus: A redox proteomics analysis. *Neurobiol Aging* 27(7):918–925. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neurobiolaging.2005.05.005>
32. Roqanian S, Ahmadian S, Nabavi SM, Pakdaman H, Shafieezadeh M, Goudarzi G, Shahpasand K (2022) Tau nuclear translocation is a leading step in tau pathology process through P53 stabilization and nucleolar dispersion. *J Neurosci Res*. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jnr.25024>
33. Albayram O, Kondo A, Mannix R, Smith C, Tsai CY, Li C, Herbert MK, Qiu J, Monuteaux M, Driver J, Yan S, Gormley W, Puccio AM, Okonkwo DO, Lucke-Wold B, Bailes J, Meehan W, Zeidel M, Lu KP, Zhou XZ (2017) Cis P-tau is induced in clinical and preclinical brain injury and contributes to post-injury sequelae. *Nat Commun* 8(1):1000. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-01068-4>
34. Kondo A, Shahpasand K, Mannix R, Qiu J, Moncaster J, Chen CH, Yao Y, Lin YM, Driver JA, Sun Y, Wei S, Luo ML, Albayram O, Huang P, Rotenberg A, Ryo A, Goldstein LE, Pascual-Leone A, McKee AC, Meehan W, Zhou XZ, Lu KP (2015) Antibody against early driver of neurodegeneration cis P-tau blocks brain injury and tauopathy. *Nature* 523(7561):431–436. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature14658>
35. Lu KP, Kondo A, Albayram O, Herbert MK, Liu H, Zhou XZ (2016) Potential of the Antibody Against cis-Phosphorylated Tau in the Early Diagnosis, Treatment, and Prevention of Alzheimer Disease and Brain Injury. *JAMA Neurol* 73(11):1356–1362. <https://doi.org/10.1001/jamaneurol.2016.2027>
36. Nakamura K, Greenwood A, Binder L, Bigio EH, Denial S, Nicholson L, Zhou XZ, Lu KP (2012) Proline isomer-specific antibodies reveal the early pathogenic tau conformation in Alzheimer's disease. *Cell* 149(1):232–244. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2012.02.016>
37. Albayram O, Herbert MK, Kondo A, Tsai CY, Baxley S, Lian X, Hansen M, Zhou XZ, Lu KP (2016) Function and regulation of tau conformations in the development and treatment of traumatic brain injury and neurodegeneration. *Cell Biosci* 6:59. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13578-016-0124-4>
38. Nakhjiri E, Vafaei MS, Hojjati SMM, Shahabi P, Shahpasand K (2020) Tau Pathology Triggered by Spinal Cord Injury Can Play a Critical Role in the Neurotrauma Development. *Mol Neurobiol* 57(11):4845–4855. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12035-020-02061-7>
39. Faulkner JR, Herrmann JE, Woo MJ, Tansey KE, Doan NB, Sofroniew MV (2004) Reactive astrocytes protect tissue and preserve function after spinal cord injury. *J Neurosci* 24(9):2143–2155. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.3547-03.2004>
40. Plemel JR, Duncan G, Chen KW, Shannon C, Park S, Sparling JS, Tetzlaff W (2008) A graded forceps crush spinal cord injury model in mice. *J Neurotrauma* 25(4):350–370. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2007.0426>
41. Basso DM, Fisher LC, Anderson AJ, Jakeman LB, McTigue DM, Popovich PG (2006) Basso Mouse Scale for locomotion detects differences in recovery after spinal cord injury in five common mouse strains. *J Neurotrauma* 23(5):635–659. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2006.23.635>
42. Wu J, Stoica BA, Luo T, Sabirzhanov B, Zhao Z, Guanciale K, Nayar SK, Foss CA, Pomper MG, Faden AI (2014) Isolated spinal cord contusion in rats induces chronic brain neuroinflammation, neurodegeneration, and cognitive impairment Involvement of cell cycle activation. *Cell Cycle* 13(15):2446–2458. <https://doi.org/10.4161/cc.29420>
43. De Risi M, Tufano M, Alvino FG, Ferraro MG, Torromino G, Gigante Y, Monfregola J, Marrocco E, Pulcrano S, Tunisi L, Lubrano C, Papy-Garcia D, Tuchman Y, Sallao A, Santoro F, Bellenchi GC, Cristino L, Ballabio A, Fraldi A, De Leonibus E (2021) Altered heparan sulfate metabolism during development triggers dopamine-dependent autistic-behaviours in models of lysosomal storage disorders. *Nat Commun* 12(1):3495. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-23903-5>
44. Hefner K, Cameron HA, Karlsson RM, Holmes A (2007) Short-term and long-term effects of postnatal exposure to an adult male in C57BL/6J mice. *Behav Brain Res* 182(2):344–348. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbr.2007.03.032>
45. Holmes A, Kinney JW, Wrenn CC, Li Q, Yang RJ, Ma L, Vishwanath J, Saavedra MC, Innerfield CE, Jacoby AS, Shine J, Iismaa

- TP, Crawley JN (2003) Galanin GAL-R1 receptor null mutant mice display increased anxiety-like behavior specific to the elevated plus-maze. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 28(6):1031–1044. <https://doi.org/10.1038/sj.npp.1300164>
46. Wu J, Zhao Z, Sabirzhanov B, Stoica BA, Kumar A, Luo T, Skovira J, Faden AI (2014) Spinal cord injury causes brain inflammation associated with cognitive and affective changes: role of cell cycle pathways. *J Neurosci* 34(33):10989–11006. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.5110-13.2014>
47. Adhikari A, Topiwala MA, Gordon JA (2011) Single units in the medial prefrontal cortex with anxiety-related firing patterns are preferentially influenced by ventral hippocampal activity. *Neuron* 71(5):898–910. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2011.07.027>
48. Gholami M, Saboory E, Khalkhali HR (2014) Chronic morphine and tramadol re-exposure induced an anti-anxiety effect in prepubertal rats exposed neonatally to the same drugs. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol* 41(10):838–843. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1440-1681.12274>
49. Hogg S (1996) A review of the validity and variability of the elevated plus-maze as an animal model of anxiety. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav* 54(1):21–30. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-3057\(95\)02126-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0091-3057(95)02126-4)
50. Korte SM, De Boer SF (2003) A robust animal model of state anxiety: fear-potentiated behaviour in the elevated plus-maze. *Eur J Pharmacol* 463(1–3):163–175. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0014-2999\(03\)01279-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0014-2999(03)01279-2)
51. Nakhjiri E, Saboory E, Roshan-Milani S, Rasmi Y, Khalafkhani D (2017) Effect of prenatal restraint stress and morphine co-administration on plasma vasopressin concentration and anxiety behaviors in adult rat offspring. *Stress* 20(2):205–211. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10253890.2017.1306053>
52. Rodgers RJ, Dalvi A (1997) Anxiety, defence and the elevated plus-maze. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 21(6):801–810. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0149-7634\(96\)00058-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0149-7634(96)00058-9)
53. Schindowski K, Bretteville A, Leroy K, Begard S, Brion JP, Hamdane M, Buee L (2006) Alzheimer's disease-like tau neuropathology leads to memory deficits and loss of functional synapses in a novel mutated tau transgenic mouse without any motor deficits. *Am J Pathol* 169(2):599–616. <https://doi.org/10.2353/ajpath.2006.060002>
54. Baratz R, Rubovitch V, Frenk H, Pick CG (2010) The influence of alcohol on behavioral recovery after mTBI in mice. *J Neurotrauma* 27(3):555–563. <https://doi.org/10.1089/neu.2009.0891>
55. Sierksma AS, van den Hove DL, Pfau F, Philippens M, Bruno O, Fedele E, Ricciarelli R, Steinbusch HW, Vanmierlo T, Prickaerts J (2014) Improvement of spatial memory function in APP^{swe}/PS1^{dE9} mice after chronic inhibition of phosphodiesterase type 4D. *Neuropharmacology* 77:120–130. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropharm.2013.09.015>
56. Pedersen JT, Sigurdsson EM (2015) Tau immunotherapy for Alzheimer's disease. *Trends Mol Med* 21(6):394–402. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.molmed.2015.03.003>
57. Rosenmann H (2013) Immunotherapy for targeting tau pathology in Alzheimer's disease and tauopathies. *Curr Alzheimer Res* 10(3):217–228. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1567205011310030001>
58. Sevigny J, Chiao P, Bussiere T, Weinreb PH, Williams L, Maier M, Dunstan R, Salloway S, Chen T, Ling Y, O'Gorman J, Qian F, Arastu M, Li M, Chollate S, Brennan MS, Quintero-Monzon O, Scannevin RH, Arnold HM, Engber T, Rhodes K, Ferrero J, Hang Y, Mikulskis A, Grimm J, Hock C, Nitsch RM, Sandrock A (2016) The antibody aducanumab reduces Abeta plaques in Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* 537(7618):50–56. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature19323>
59. Brody DL, Holtzman DM (2008) Active and passive immunotherapy for neurodegenerative disorders. *Annu Rev Neurosci* 31:175–193. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.neuro.31.060407.125529>
60. Qiu C, Albayram O, Kondo A, Wang B, Kim N, Arai K, Tsai CY, Bassal MA, Herbert MK, Washida K, Angeli P, Kozono S, Stucky JE, Baxley S, Lin YM, Sun Y, Rotenberg A, Caldaroni BJ, Bigio EH, Chen X, Tenen DG, Zeidel M, Lo EH, Zhou XZ, Lu KP (2021) Cis P-tau underlies vascular contribution to cognitive impairment and dementia and can be effectively targeted by immunotherapy in mice. *Sci Transl Med* 13 (596). <https://doi.org/10.1126/scitranslmed.aaz7615>
61. Shahpasand K, Sepehri Shamloo A, Nabavi SM, Ping LuK, Zhen Zhou X (2018) Tau immunotherapy: Hopes and hindrances. *Hum Vaccin Immunother* 14(2):277–284. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21645515.2017.1393594>
62. Cavdar S, Onat FY, Cakmak YO, Yananli HR, Gulcebi M, Aker R (2008) The pathways connecting the hippocampal formation, the thalamic reuniens nucleus and the thalamic reticular nucleus in the rat. *J Anat* 212(3):249–256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7580.2008.00858.x>
63. Nardone R, Holler Y, Brigo F, Seidl M, Christova M, Bergmann J, Golaszewski S, Trinka E (2013) Functional brain reorganization after spinal cord injury: systematic review of animal and human studies. *Brain Res* 1504:58–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres.2012.12.034>
64. Hulsebosch CE, Hains BC, Crown ED, Carlton SM (2009) Mechanisms of chronic central neuropathic pain after spinal cord injury. *Brain Res Rev* 60(1):202–213. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brainres-rev.2008.12.010>
65. Zhao P, Waxman SG, Hains BC (2007) Modulation of thalamic nociceptive processing after spinal cord injury through remote activation of thalamic microglia by cysteine cysteine chemokine ligand 21. *J Neurosci* 27(33):8893–8902. <https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.2209-07.2007>
66. Ankeny DP, Popovich PG (2009) Mechanisms and implications of adaptive immune responses after traumatic spinal cord injury. *Neuroscience* 158(3):1112–1121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2008.07.001>
67. Segal MB (1993) Extracellular and cerebrospinal fluids. *J Inher Metab Dis* 16(4):617–638. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00711896>
68. Zetterberg H (2017) Review: Tau in biofluids - relation to pathology, imaging and clinical features. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* 43(3):194–199. <https://doi.org/10.1111/nan.12378>
69. Shultz SR, Wright DK, Zheng P, Stuchbery R, Liu SJ, Sashindranath M, Medcalf RL, Johnston LA, Hovens CM, Jones NC, O'Brien TJ (2015) Sodium selenate reduces hyperphosphorylated tau and improves outcomes after traumatic brain injury. *Brain* 138(Pt 5):1297–1313. <https://doi.org/10.1093/brain/awv053>
70. Yokobori S, Zhang Z, Moghieb A, Mondello S, Gajavelli S, Dietrich WD, Bramlett H, Hayes RL, Wang M, Wang KK, Bullock MR (2015) Acute diagnostic biomarkers for spinal cord injury: review of the literature and preliminary research report. *World Neurosurg* 83(5):867–878. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wneu.2013.03.012>
71. Johnson VE, Stewart W, Smith DH (2013) Axonal pathology in traumatic brain injury. *Exp Neurol* 246:35–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.expneurol.2012.01.013>

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.