

# Prion-like Mechanisms in Neurodegenerative diseases: I. Alzheimer's disease

**Dr. Alain L. Fymat\***

Professor, International Institute of Medicine & Science, California, USA.

**Received date:** November 06, 2025, **Accepted date:** November 12, 2025, **Published date:** November 21, 2025.

Copyright: ©2025 Dr. Alain L. Fymat. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

**\*Corresponding Author:** Dr. Alain L. Professor, International Institute of Medicine & Science, California, USA.

## Abstract

The two principal histopathologic hallmarks of Alzheimer's disease (AD), senile plaques and neurofibrillary tangles, are structurally abnormal variants of normally generated A $\beta$  and tau proteins. Both proteins share five key properties with classic prions, i.e., auto-propagation, self-assembly of like proteins, manifestation as polymorphic and polyfunctional strains, resistance to chemical and enzymatic destruction, and spreading ability within the brain and from the periphery to the brain. For this reason, AD was dubbed a double-prion disease although this is not universally accepted – other researchers rather refer to it as a double-prion-like disease. In AD, the pathogenic cascade follows the sequential corruption of A $\beta$  and then tau. In this article, after a brief review of AD, the prion paradigm amyloid and AD neuropathology will be set forth, and the prion-like properties of the AD proteins will be discussed. The therapeutic implications of the prion paradigm will

lastly be addressed, including the three options of reducing the production of the proteins, uncoupling the A $\beta$ -tauopathy connection, or promoting the inactivation or removal of anomalous assemblies from the brain. However, while the double-prion hypothesis is significant, especially as it offers new approaches to treatment, it does not reach to the cause of AD and may not result in a cure.

## Abbreviations

A $\beta$ : Amyloid beta; AD: Alzheimer's disease; ApoE: Apolipoprotein E; APP: A $\beta$ -precursor protein; CAA: Cerebral amyloid angiopathy; c-hGH: cadaver-derived human growth hormone; CJD: Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease; CSF: Cerebrospinal fluid; DSM: Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders; MCD: Mad cow disease; SBE: Spongiform bovine encephalopathy; NDD: Neurodegenerative diseases; NIH: (U.S.) National Institutes of Health; PrP: Prion protein; UCSF: University of California, San Francisco

### Keywords

Alzheimer's disease; Amyloid beta protein; Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease; Double prion hypothesis; Prions; Prion disorders; Prion protein; Tau protein.

-oOo-

One of the most feared hazards of growing old is the profound deterioration of mental faculties known as dementia. Dementia can be defined as “a decline from a person's previously established level of intellectual function that is sufficient to interfere with the everyday performance of that individual”. Based on the criteria set forth in the fifth edition of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM-5), dementia due to AD is defined as “the insidious onset and gradual progression of substantial impairment in learning and memory and at least one other cognitive domain (complex attention, executive function, language, perceptual-motor, or social cognition) that interferes with independence in everyday activities”. An important feature of these definitions is that the impairments are substantial and, thus, become incapacitating even under ordinary circumstances.

### On Alzheimer's disease

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is currently defined based on the presence of toxic protein aggregations in the brain known as ‘amyloid plaques’ and ‘tau tangles’, accompanied by cognitive decline and dementia. But attempts to treat the disease by clearing out these inert proteins have been unsuccessful. New evidence that active A $\beta$  and tau prions could be driving the disease could lead researchers to explore new therapies that focus on prions directly. However, despite its potential for new therapies, it is important to note that this prion paradigm is not the root cause of the disease although it provides its driving forces and mechanisms. As of this writing, that root cause remains the explanation

provided by this author, namely that AD (and other neurodegenerative diseases) is (are) but a rogue autoimmune disease (s).

More than 50 different conditions are associated with dementia, but of these, AD is the most common, accounting for nearly 60-70% of the total of cases. In 2021, globally, 57 million live with dementia, a number projected to reach 78 million by 2030 and 153 million by 2050 with a new case diagnosed every 3 seconds. About 10 million new cases of dementia are diagnosed each year globally. In 2022, a (U.S.) National Institutes of Health (NIH) study estimated that 32 million people worldwide have AD dementia, with an additional 69 million in the prodromal stage and 315 million in the preclinical stage, totaling 416 million people across the continuum.

Around 60% of people with dementia currently live in low and middle-income countries, a figure expected to rise to 71% by 2050. The prevalence of dementia increases significantly with age. In some developed nations, about 1 in 10 people aged 65 or older are affected, while more than one-third of those 85 or older may have symptoms. AD and other dementias are more prevalent in women than men, especially in those aged 65 and over. Up to three-quarters of individuals with dementia worldwide have not received a diagnosis. The social and economic costs of the disease will rise accordingly, with an ever-greater burden of caring for afflicted persons falling on younger generations. Disease-modifying treatments are urgently needed, but these can only emerge from a deep understanding of AD itself.

As the average life expectancy of populations grows in many parts of the world, and in the absence of an effective prevention or treatment, as many as 115 million people are expected to have AD in the year 2050. The incidence and prevalence of AD double every 5 years between the ages of 65 and 95. While the exact number with only AD is hard to pinpoint, it is the most

common form of dementia and accounts for a significant majority of cases.

### Signs, symptoms, and risk factors

AD typically begins with the gradual onset of mild cognitive impairment (MCI), progressing inexorably to dementia with an average clinical duration of 7–10 years (although the time course is variable). The signs and symptoms shown by individual patients also can vary substantially, but the diagnosis of AD is established by the universal presence of core attributes, specifically progressive dementia in the context of characteristic lesions in the brain: senile (A $\beta$ ) plaques and neurofibrillary (tau) tangles, two of the main hallmarks of the disease. A defining pathologic feature of AD is the abnormal accumulation in the brain of these two proteins. As elaborated below, recent evidence shows that this process is initiated and sustained by a prion-like mechanism of seeded protein aggregation.

The probability of developing AD is influenced by several factors:

- **Genetic risk factors:** They include rare causative, autosomal dominant mutations with essentially complete penetrance, as well as diverse genetic polymorphisms that modulate risk to varying degrees. Autosomal dominant mutations associated with AD all occur in the genes that code for the A $\beta$ -precursor protein (APP) or for presenilin-1 or presenilin-2 (the presenilins being key components of intramembranous protease complexes that liberate A $\beta$  from APP). The gene encoding APP is on chromosome 21, and the genes encoding presenilin-1 and presenilin-2 are on chromosomes 14 and 1, respectively. Dominant and recessive genetic causes account for less than 1% of all AD cases. An exception is the gene that encodes apolipoprotein E (ApoE), a protein that mediates lipid transport throughout the body and is the major apolipoprotein in the brain. The three major protein

isoforms of ApoE in human populations are ApoE2, ApoE3 and ApoE4. The most frequent isoform is ApoE3 (~78%), followed by ApoE4 (~14%) and ApoE2 (~8%). Bearers of the ApoE4 allele have an allele-dose-dependent increase in the risk of AD. The mechanism by which ApoE4 predisposes carriers to AD is probably multifaceted, but it is known that bearers of ApoE4 begin to accumulate A $\beta$  in the brain at least a decade earlier in life than do non-bearers. Thus, ApoE4, like the known dominant and recessive genetic risk factors, appears to augment the probability of developing AD by advancing the onset of the A $\beta$  cascade. Indeed, all known AD-linked mutations affect the production, removal, trafficking, or aggregating tendency of A $\beta$ .

- **Other risk factors:** In addition to the genetic risk factors for AD, numerous environmental and endogenous risk factors have been identified. These include advancing age, traumatic brain injury, diabetes and metabolic disorders, inflammation, vascular disorders, gender, and lifestyle. In some instances, these should be considered as risk factors for dementia, broadly defined, rather than for AD per se. For example, multiple small infarcts might raise the likelihood of dementia independently of AD, or they may advance the onset of dementia in people who also are incubating AD pathology in the brain.

### Differential diagnosis and biomarkers

Until recently, senile plaques and neurofibrillary tangles could only be identified by microscopic analysis of brain samples, but increasingly sensitive and specific diagnostic tests are emerging that enable the detection of proteopathic abnormalities in living subjects. These include radiolabeled imaging agents for A $\beta$  and tau in the brain, and assays for quantitation of the proteins in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF), and new blood tests. Investigations of these biomarkers indicate that the disease process begins two decades or more before the onset of demonstrable cognitive impairment. In addition, the presence of genetic risk factors such as the  $\epsilon$ 4 allele of apolipoprotein E (ApoE $\epsilon$ 4) can reinforce the

in-life diagnosis of AD.

It is important to place AD in the context of other brain changes that impair intellectual capacities in the elderly. In younger patients with autosomal dominant causes of AD, the disease is relatively unambiguous histopathologically, i.e., lesions other than plaques and tangles are rare. With advancing age, additional disorders are increasingly likely to contribute to dementia, including cerebrovascular disease, hippocampal sclerosis, and such cerebral proteopathies as  $\alpha$ -synucleinopathy, TDP-43 proteopathy, and others. These maladies can cause dementia on their own, but they also sometimes co-exist with AD, complicating diagnosis, exacerbating the clinical course, and likely diminishing the effectiveness of treatments directed at only one of the conditions. In addition, potentially reversible causes of a dementia-like state must be ruled out, such as depression, infections, drugs and drug interactions, thyroid dysfunction, tumors, and vitamin B12 deficiency, as intervention in these instances might at least partially restore cognitive function.

### Why is Alzheimer's called a double-prion disease?

AD is considered a "double-prion" disorder because it involves the self-propagating, misfolding nature of both amyloid-beta ( $A\beta$ ) and tau proteins. However, unlike traditional prion diseases, Alzheimer's is not considered contagious through normal interpersonal contact. The concept of a double-prion disorder hinges on the behavior of two key proteins already indicated earlier:

- **Amyloid-beta ( $A\beta$ ) prions:** These are misfolded  $A\beta$  peptides that can induce normal  $A\beta$  proteins to also misfold. This triggers a cascade of aggregation that leads to the formation of amyloid plaques in the brain.
- **Tau prions:** Pathological tau proteins can seed the misfolding of normal tau proteins, leading to their accumulation in neurofibrillary tangles. The spread of tau pathology through the brain is believed to follow

anatomically connected regions.

In AD, both "prion-like" activities occur, destroying neurons together.

### Distinctions from classic prion diseases

The "double-prion" model is a debated concept because AD lacks certain characteristics of classic prion diseases like Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD), specifically:

- **Transmission:** Classic prion diseases are infectious and can be transmitted through exposure to contaminated tissue. While studies have shown that  $A\beta$  and tau aggregates can be experimentally transmitted in animals and, in rare historical cases, between humans via contaminated growth hormone or surgical instruments, AD is not considered contagious.
- **Speed of progression:** Prion diseases typically progress very quickly and are rapidly fatal. The spread of  $A\beta$  and tau in Alzheimer's is considerably slower.

### The prion paradigm amyloid and AD neuropathology

AD is best understood as a dual-protein, prion-like disorder because two different proteins— $\beta$ -amyloid ( $A\beta$ ) and tau—misfold, self-propagate, spread through the brain in a prion-like manner, and interact and drive neurodegeneration. This "double prion" view explains why AD is progressive, network-specific, and difficult to halt once established while remaining non-contagious under ordinary conditions. However, unlike classical prion diseases (e.g., Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease), AD is not contagious in everyday life, but the underlying mechanism of pathology progression shows striking parallels.

As in the case of most proteopathies, the proteins

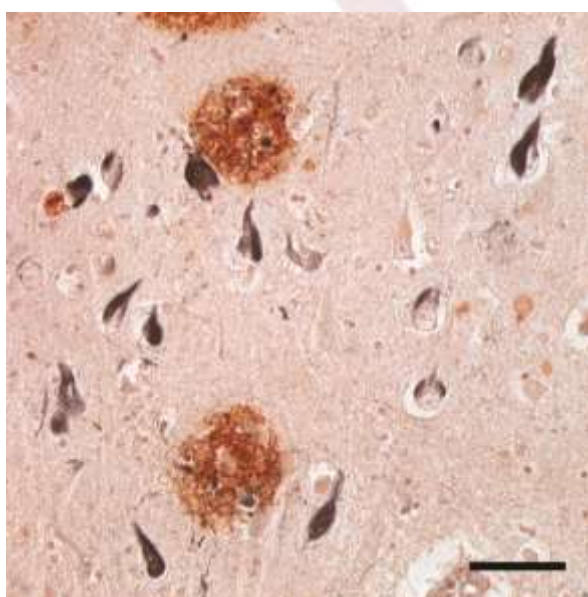


implicated in the development of AD are structurally abnormal manifestations of proteins that are normally generated by cells. The abnormalities often involve an altered 3-dimensional architecture (misfolding), which can be promoted by amino acid substitutions, post-translational modifications, sequence expansions or truncations, and such characteristics of the local milieu as temperature and pH. In addition, factors that increase the concentration of certain proteins (e.g., by raising their production or impairing their removal/degradation) can elevate the risk of disease. A frequent indication that a protein is structurally corrupted at the molecular level is its enhanced tendency to form amyloid. In general, amyloid is a state in which a protein accumulates in tissues as masses of ~10nm-diameter fibrils. Within the brain, it is not uncommon to find some degree of A $\beta$ -amyloidosis and tauopathy in the elderly; in those with dementia, abundant A $\beta$  plaques and tau tangles are the two types of amyloid that are pathognomonic for AD.

Figure 1 illustrates the neuropathologic features of AD, which include senile (A $\beta$ ) plaques (reddish brown) and neurofibrillary (tau) tangles (black). The formation of amyloid by A $\beta$  and tau is an obvious sign of a proteopathic process, but small oligomeric assemblies

may be the more toxic form of the proteins. A $\beta$  in the amyloid state is virtually always present in AD, but an instructive exception is a rare hereditary type of AD caused by a mutation that changes glutamate to glycine at position 22 of A $\beta$  (E22G; the ‘arctic’ mutation). This mutation results in early-onset AD in which A $\beta$  plaques lack the prototypical amyloid cores, indicating that ‘amyloid’ in the strict sense is not required to drive the A $\beta$ -cascade.

There can be little doubt that A $\beta$  is a driving force in the genesis of AD, or that  $\beta$ -amyloid accumulation per se is detrimental to cognition, particularly when embodied as neuritic plaques. However, tauopathy is an essential downstream consequence that correlates more strongly with the degree of dementia than does the number of A $\beta$  plaques. In AD and other tauopathies, tau misfolds and becomes hyperphosphorylated; like A $\beta$ , the altered tau molecules aggregate to form soluble oligomers and long  $\beta$ -sheet-rich polymers that have the characteristics that define amyloids. The tau fibrils bundle together as neurofibrillary tangles in neurons, although tauopathy also can afflict glial cells. Tauopathy occurs in association with many brain disorders besides AD. The primary tauopathies are disorders in which tau aggregation is the major abnormality.



**Figure 1: The two types of amyloids in AD**

## Evidence for the "double prion" concept

Five pieces of evidence mitigate for the double prion concept:

### 1. Misfolding and seeding:

- A $\beta$  and tau both misfold into abnormal conformations.
- Misfolded proteins seed normal molecules to adopt the same structure.
- In animal and cell models, introducing misfolded A $\beta$  or tau accelerates pathology.

### 2. Human tissue seeding activity:

- Biosensor cell assays detect tau and A $\beta$  seeding activity in brain samples from AD patients.
- Even low-level seeding is measurable, confirming prion-like behavior.

### 3. Network spread:

- Pathology follows functional brain networks, not just local spread.
- This matches Braak staging wherein tau pathology advances through synaptically connected regions.

### 4. Quantification of A $\beta$ and tau prions:

- Studies at the University of California at San Francisco (UCSF) and elsewhere have directly measured self-propagating A $\beta$  and tau assemblies in Alzheimer diseased brain tissue.
- These findings frame AD as a "double prion" disorder.

### 5. Rare transmission events:

- Historic cases (recipients of cadaver-derived growth hormone) developed A $\beta$  deposits and AD-like symptoms decades later.

• Seeds can transmit under unusual medical circumstances → extracellular plaques → spreads via interstitial pathways.

• Tau → intracellular tangles → spreads via synaptic connectivity.

• The combined effect of A $\beta$  and tau → progressive network failure → cognitive decline.

- Historic cases (recipients of cadaver-derived growth

hormone) developed A $\beta$  deposits and AD-like symptoms decades later.

• Seeds can transmit under unusual medical circumstances → extracellular plaques → spreads via interstitial pathways.

• Tau → intracellular tangles → spreads via synaptic connectivity.

• The combined effect of A $\beta$  and tau → progressive network failure → cognitive decline.

• **Importantly:** No evidence of person-to-person contagiousness in daily life.

As a result, the experts' consensus is:

• AD progression involves prion-like seeding and spread of two distinct proteins.

• The term "double-prion-like disorder" emphasizes this dual mechanism.

• However, AD remains biologically distinct from classical infectious prion diseases.

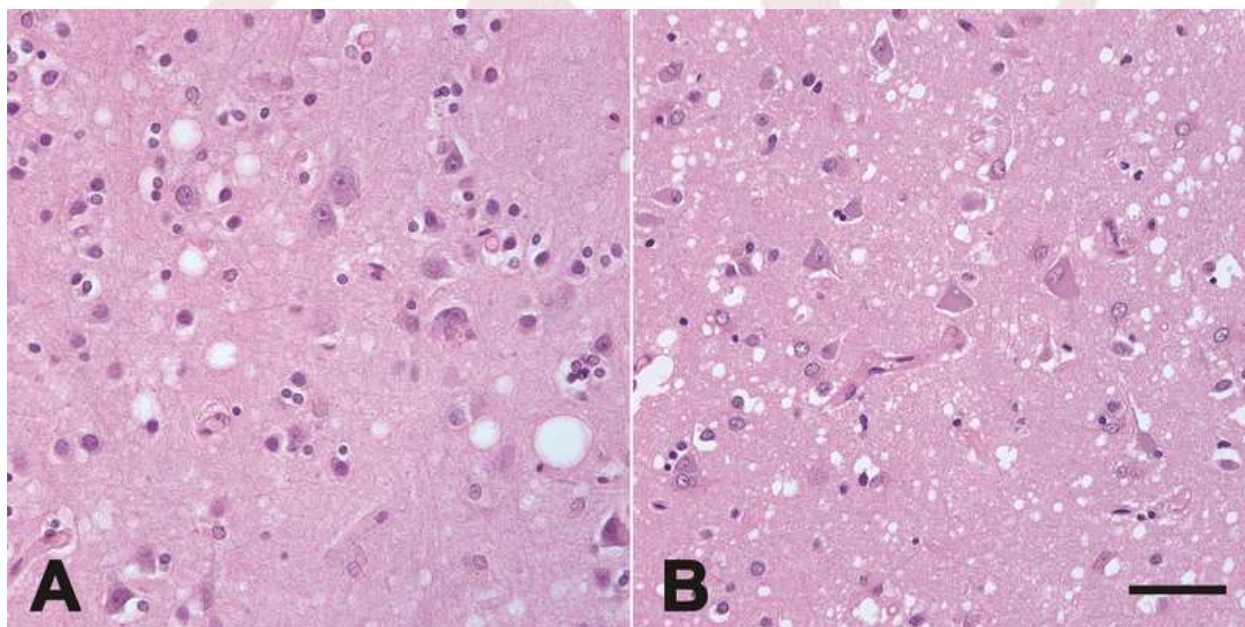
## Extended neuropathology of AD

In addition to the A $\beta$  plaques and tau tangles in AD, other changes are present in the brain that complicate the disease phenotype. One is the accumulation of A $\beta$  in and around the walls of cerebral blood vessels, a condition known as A $\beta$ -type cerebral amyloid angiopathy (A $\beta$ -CAA). A $\beta$ -CAA weakens the vascular wall and elevates the risk of intracranial hemorrhage. Like A $\beta$  plaques and tauopathy, A $\beta$ -CAA is not specific to AD, and its prevalence increases with advancing age. However, some degree of A $\beta$ -CAA is almost always present in AD, being severe in around 25% of cases. It must be noted that the factors that drive the inconsistent occurrence of A $\beta$ -CAA in different people remain uncertain.

Other neurodegenerative conditions might be present in the brain along with the lesions of AD, particularly in older patients. They are found to variable extents among

end-stage AD cases, and most of these anomalies lack diagnostic specificity for the disease. Macroscopically, loss of brain tissue and concomitant expansion of the association with A $\beta$  plaques, as well as increased inflammatory mediators such as cytokines. Granulovacuolar degeneration, perisomatic granules and Hirano bodies may be present, but their significance for AD per se is uncertain. Many different neuronal systems are compromised in AD, some more markedly than others, and synapses are regionally depleted. In some cases of AD, spongiform change is

ventricles are common, but this varies among regions and among patients. Evidence of inflammation includes reactive microglia and astrocytes, especially in evident that, though generally less severe, can resemble that seen in Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease (CJD). Figure 2 contrasts the spongiform change (vacuoles, seen in these micrographs as white holes) in the neocortex of an AD patient (A) and in a patient with CJD (B). Spongiform change is not unique to prion diseases, but it is less common in AD, and when it occurs it is generally mild.



**Figure 2: Contrasting the spongiform change in the neocortex of an AD patient with a CJD patient**

Regardless of the complexity of damage to the brain, the essential and unifying feature of AD is the obligatory presence of aggregated A $\beta$  and tau proteins. For this reason, extensive research has been directed toward determining how the proteins misfold, self-assemble, and propagate their pathogenic features, a process that shares important commonalities with the molecular pathogenesis of prions.

#### Prion-like properties of AD proteins

#### What are prions?

Prions are misfolded versions of a protein that can spread like an infection by forcing normal copies of that protein into the same self-propagating, misfolded shape. The original prion protein, PrP, was identified by Prusiner in the 1980s as the cause of Creutzfeldt Jakob Disease (CJD) and spongiform bovine encephalopathy (SBE), also known as mad cow disease (MCD), which spread through consumption of meat and bone meal



tainted with PrP prions. This was the first time a disease had been shown to infect people not by an infestation of an organism such as a bacterium or a virus, but through an infectious protein. Prusiner received a Nobel Prize for that discovery in 1997.

Prusiner and colleagues have long suspected that PrP was not the only protein capable of acting as a self-propagating prion, and that distinct types of prions could be responsible for other neurodegenerative diseases (NDDs) caused by the progressive toxic buildup of misfolded proteins. Indeed, for example, laboratory studies at the UCSF and elsewhere have shown that the A $\beta$  amyloid plaques and the tau tangles from diseased brains (the hallmarks of AD) can infect healthy brain tissue much like PrP, but considerably more slowly.

Many scientists have been reluctant to accept that A $\beta$  and tau are self-propagating prions — instead referring to their spread as “prion-like” — because unlike PrP prions, they were not thought to be infectious except in highly controlled laboratory studies. However, recent reports have documented rare cases of patients treated with growth hormone derived from human brain tissue, or given transplants of the brain’s protective dura mater, who went on to develop A $\beta$  plaques in middle age, long before they should be seen in anyone without a genetic disorder. Prusiner contends that these findings argue that both A $\beta$  and tau are prions even though they propagate more slowly than highly aggressive PrP prions.

Previously, Alzheimer’s research has been stuck looking at collateral damage in the form of misfolded, dead proteins that form plaques and tangles. Now, it turns out that it is prion activity that correlates with disease, rather than the number of plaques and tangles at the time of autopsy. So, to succeed in developing effective therapies and diagnostics for AD, we need to target the active prion forms rather than the large amount of protein in plaques and tangles.

### Prion-like properties of aggregated A $\beta$

The idea that AD might arise by a pathogenic mechanism similar to that of prion diseases has a fairly long history, dating back to the early 1980s. Based on their success in transmitting kuru and CJD to nonhuman primates, and on the hypothesis that a ‘slow virus’ might be involved in other neurodegenerative disorders, researchers were able to experimentally transmit AD to several species of nonhuman primates. Experiments were also initiated to explicitly test the hypothesis that A $\beta$  can be induced to aggregate in the living brain by a prion-like mechanism. These studies showed that A $\beta$  plaques and CAA are seedable by brain extracts from AD patients, but not by extracts derived from control brains that were devoid of aggregated A $\beta$ .

Subsequent experiments showed unequivocally that the active agent is aggregated A $\beta$ , and that the ability of A $\beta$  to seed as well as the characteristics of the resulting deposits are governed by both the agent and the host. These findings have been confirmed and extended by other laboratories and the collective experiments have established that the molecular features of A $\beta$  seeds are essentially the same as those that define the pathogenicity of prions. Key commonalities between A $\beta$  seeds and PrP-prions are summarized as follows:

1. The active seeding agent is a form of the protein itself. The degree of A $\beta$ -seeding is directly related to the concentration of A $\beta$  in the brain and even extremely small amounts of A $\beta$  seeds can stimulate aggregation in the brain. Synthetic, pre-aggregated A $\beta$  can seed deposition, albeit relatively weakly.
2. A $\beta$  seeds are rich in  $\beta$ -sheet secondary structure. Amyloid fibrils of all types, including A $\beta$ -amyloid and PrP-amyloid, are rich in  $\beta$ -sheets in which the individual  $\beta$ -strands run approximately perpendicular to the



long axis of the fibrils.

3. Misfolded A $\beta$  can manifest as structurally and functionally variant strains. As in the case of PrP-prions, A $\beta$  can fold into strain-like variants both in vitro and in vivo. Cerebral A $\beta$  assemblies in humans with AD vary in terms of plaque morphology, ligand binding characteristics, solid-state nuclear magnetic resonance features as well as conformational stability and other biophysical characteristics.
4. Seeds vary in size and sensitivity to proteinase K. Infectious PrP-prions exist in a wide range of sizes, the most potent of which are small and soluble. Similarly, A $\beta$  seeds can range from large fibrils to small, oligomeric seeds with high biologic potency.
5. Some A $\beta$  seeds are durable. Like PrP-prions, A $\beta$  seeds retain their potency in donor brain tissue that has been in formaldehyde for years. A $\beta$  seeds also are durable within the living brain; they retain some bioactivity (albeit with progressively diminishing potency) for at least 6-months after infusion into the brains.
6. A $\beta$  seeds spread systematically within the brain. As with PrP-prions and other proteopathic seeds, A $\beta$  seeds introduced into one part of the brain induce protein aggregation that spreads systematically to interconnected regions. In cell culture experiments, A $\beta$  seeds were demonstrated to spread by transfer from neuron to neuron, and neuroanatomical patterns of deposition are consistent with spread along neuronal pathways.
7. A $\beta$  aggregation can be instigated de novo. Animal studies indicate that A $\beta$  deposition is inducible de novo, and in this paradigm is not

simply an acceleration of an ongoing process.

8. A $\beta$  proteopathy is serially transmissible. Like PrP-prions, different strains of A $\beta$  seeds can be successively transmitted from the initially seeded mice to subsequent hosts.

Notwithstanding the above long list of key commonalities between A $\beta$  seeds and PrP-prions, open questions remain regarding the prion-like properties of A $\beta$ :

**1. The conditions that influence protein aggregation, seeding, and toxicity in living systems need to be clarified.** Such clarification could disclose new therapeutic objectives for multiple proteopathies.

**2. The reasons for the poor seeding efficiency of CSF A $\beta$  are unknown and need to be elucidated.** The A $\beta$  assemblies in CSF are smaller and mostly devoid of N-terminally truncated variants compared to brain-derived A $\beta$ . Other substances in the CSF, such as cystatin C, might interfere with the seeding capacity of multimeric A $\beta$ .

**3. The implications of the A $\beta$ -PrP interaction for AD appear to be complex.** Its impact on A $\beta$  toxicity or aggregation may be either deleterious or beneficial.

#### Prion-like properties of aggregated tau

At the ultrastructural level, neurofibrillary tangles in AD consist predominantly of characteristic paired helical filaments that result from the ectopic polymerization of hyperphosphorylated tau protein. Tau-hyperphosphorylation is thought to be an early stage in the formation of tangles. Like A $\beta$ -proteopathy and prion disease, tauopathy can be induced in the brain by tau seeds that have been infused into the peritoneal cavity, and bioactive tau seeds exist in a range of sizes. Brain extracts from donors with clinicopathologically distinct human tauopathies induce tau lesions in host mice that resemble the lesions in the corresponding human disorders, indicating that tau, like A $\beta$  and PrP, can misfold into replicable proteopathic strains. Tau

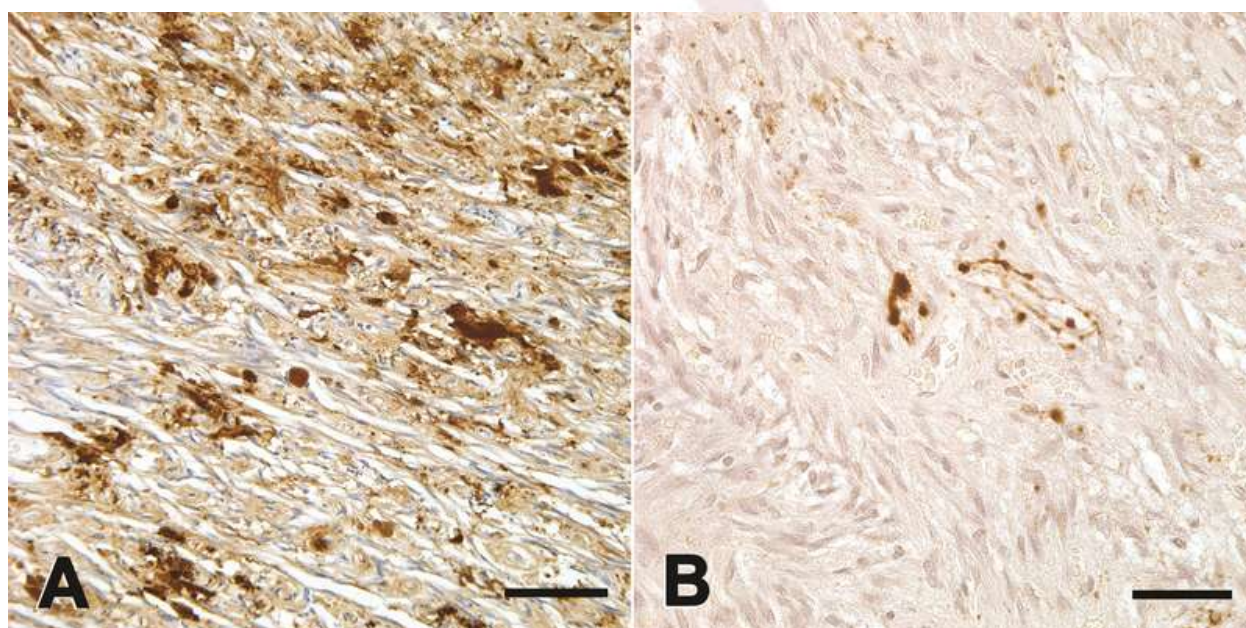
strains instigate distinct regional and cellular patterns of inclusions, and the strains can be reliably propagated in cell cultures. Tau seeds are present in the human brain. Tau seeding differs from A $\beta$  seeding in that tauopathy is readily inducible by AD brain extracts in non-transgenic (wild type) mice. In addition, recombinant tau fibrils can efficiently instigate tauopathy in tau-transgenic mice, although the potency of recombinant tau is less than that of tau that originates in brain samples. In the CSF of AD patients, seed-competent tau is present that can stimulate tauopathy. The seeding capability of CSF tau *in vivo*, however, has not been reported. An analysis of *in vivo* tau seeding by CSF from patients with AD could be informative.

Several experiments have collectively underscored the prion-like molecular properties of aggregated tau, but current evidence indicates that tauopathy, like A $\beta$ -proteopathy, is not infectious in the customary sense of being easily transmissible from one organism to another. Rather, in AD, the process of tau misfolding and propagation takes place entirely within the affected organism.

#### Prion-like seeding and AD pathology in humans

early in the development of tauopathy, and possibly prior to the histologic appearance of hyperphosphorylated tau within neurons.

Between 1958 and 1985, approximately 30,000 children received a series of injections of cadaver-derived human growth hormone (c-hGH), in most instances to correct a deficiency in growth. To obtain sufficient hormone for treatment, human pituitary glands were collected at autopsy, pooled into large batches, homogenized, and the c-hGH chemically extracted for injection. The treatment successfully stimulated growth, but years after treatment had ceased, a small percentage of the c-hGH recipients developed CJD. Subsequent studies have confirmed that the growth hormone was contaminated with PrP-prions, which presumably originated from pituitaries inadvertently obtained from patients who had died with prion disease. In 1985, c-hGH was replaced by recombinant growth hormone (r-GH), thereby effectively eliminating the possibility that the therapeutic agent would be contaminated by prions. Figure 3 contrasts the immunoreactive deposits (brown) of aggregated A $\beta$  (A) and hyperphosphorylated tau (B) in the posterior lobe of the pituitary gland from a patient who had died with AD. The accumulation of A $\beta$  and tau is generally mild in the pituitary.



**Figure 3: Contrasting aggregated A $\beta$  and hyperphosphorylated tau in AD****Significance of the double-prion hypothesis**

For researchers who support the double-prion concept, it represents a "sea change" in how the disease is understood and treated. Key implications include:

- **Focus on active prions:** It suggests that current treatments fail because they target inert protein aggregates, such as amyloid plaques, rather than the more active, misfolded prion forms that drive the disease. Developing therapies that target these active prions could be more effective.
- **Redefined markers:** Prion activity, not just the sheer number of plaques and tangles, may be a better correlate for disease progression and patient longevity. This could change how Alzheimer's is diagnosed and clinical trials are designed.
- **Unifying mechanism:** The theory provides a potential unifying mechanism for how other common neurodegenerative diseases like Parkinson's could progress, as they also involve the self-propagation of misfolded proteins.

**Therapeutic implications of the prion paradigm**

The seeded propagation of misfolded A $\beta$  is an early and obligatory occurrence in the cascade of events leading to the dementia of AD, but tauopathy is a critical downstream consequence that strongly impairs brain function. Both proteins have been shown to misfold, self-assemble and convey their abnormal properties to like proteins by a prion-like molecular mechanism. Therapeutic strategies for AD stemming from the prion paradigm include:

- **Impeding the production or multimerization of the proteins,**

- **Uncoupling the pathogenic link between abnormal A $\beta$  and tau, and**
- **Promoting the elimination of the seeds from the brain.**

Because A $\beta$ -proteopathy and tauopathy each propagate by a prion-like mechanism of homologous protein corruption, it is likely that, once set in motion, the two pathologic processes advance more or less independently. If so, targeting A $\beta$  should suffice for early prevention, but late-stage therapeutics will need to impede both branches of the cascade to be optimally effective. Another practical implication of the prion-like properties of misfolded A $\beta$  and tau is to reinforce the importance of pristine instruments in neurosurgery. Finally, recognition of the prevalence of prionic mechanisms in neurodegenerative diseases could serve to integrate research efforts on these intractable disorders conceptually, experimentally, and therapeutically.

**Linkage between A $\beta$  and tau prion activity with AD patients' longevity**

Research has shown that the self-propagating prion forms of A $\beta$  and tau are most infectious in the brains of Alzheimer's patients who died at a young age from inherited, genetically driven forms of the disease, but much less prevalent in patients who died at a more advanced age. There is a remarkable exponential *decline* in the relative abundance of the prion forms of tau with age. In addition, there is an extremely strong correlation between tau prions and patients' age at death.

This research raises several questions that will need to be addressed by future studies, including:



- Whether differences in prion infectivity could explain the long-standing mystery of why Alzheimer's progresses at such different rates in different patients;
- Whether higher prion levels in brain samples from younger patients are linked to the early onset of the disease or how quickly it progressed; and
- Whether lower prion levels in older brains reflect less "infective" prion variants or instead some ability of these patients' brains to dispose of misfolded proteins.

The evidence that prion forms of A $\beta$  and tau play a specific role in AD — one that cannot be captured by simply counting amyloid plaques and tau tangles in patient brains — also raises questions on current approaches to Alzheimer's diagnosis, clinical trial design, and drug discovery.

#### Evidence that Alzheimer's behaves like a double prion-like disorder

The strongest evidence that Alzheimer's behaves like a "double prion (-like)" disorder - involving both A $\beta$  and tau, can be summarized as follows:

- **Both proteins show prion-like seeding and spread.** Misfolded A $\beta$  and misfolded tau can template normal molecules to adopt the same abnormal conformation, propagate through brain networks, and drive pathology in animal models and cell systems. Reviews synthesize this across decades of work.
- **Human tissue shows measurable "seeding activity".** Biosensor cell assays detect tau and A $\beta$  seeding in human AD samples, including at low levels—evidence of prion-like templating in patient material.
- **Clinicopathologic "network spread" matches Braak-style staging.** Imaging and postmortem studies show tau pathology advancing along functional connectivity pathways (and not purely by proximity), consistent with trans-neuronal propagation.
- **Direct quantification of A $\beta$  and tau "prions" in AD brain.** UCSF/Prusiner-linked studies reported bioassay

evidence that both A $\beta$  and tau exist in prion-like, self-propagating forms in AD, explicitly framing AD as a "double-prion" disorder.

- **Rare iatrogenic transmission of A $\beta$  pathology in humans.** Recipients of cadaver-derived human growth hormone (c-hGH) from the mid-20th century have shown A $\beta$  deposition and in a 2024 Nature Medicine series, Alzheimer-like clinical/biomarker phenotypes—indicating that A $\beta$  seeds can transmit under exceptional medical circumstances. Importantly, this does not imply everyday contagiousness.

- **What experts conclude (and caution):** The "prion principle" likely applies mechanistically to AD (seeded aggregation and spread), but AD is not considered an infectious prion disease in ordinary life; transmission, where observed, is exceedingly rare and linked to discontinued practices. Some researchers argue evidence remains insufficient to label typical AD "transmissible".

In summary, the field broadly supports that both A $\beta$  and tau misfold, seed, and propagate in humans—hence the "double prion-like" framing—while maintaining a clear distinction from classical, routinely transmissible prion diseases.

#### Current views of AD as a double prion-like disorder

Over the past decade, researchers at the UCSF and elsewhere have begun to show that amyloid-beta (A $\beta$ ) plaques and tau tangles from diseased brains can infect healthy brain tissue much like a prion protein (PrP<sup>C</sup>), but considerably more slowly. They were able to detect and measure specific, self-propagating prion forms of these two proteins in *post-mortem* brain tissue of 75 Alzheimer's patients. Higher levels of these prion forms in human brain samples were strongly associated with early-onset aspects of the disease and younger age at death.

Nonetheless, many scientists have been reluctant to



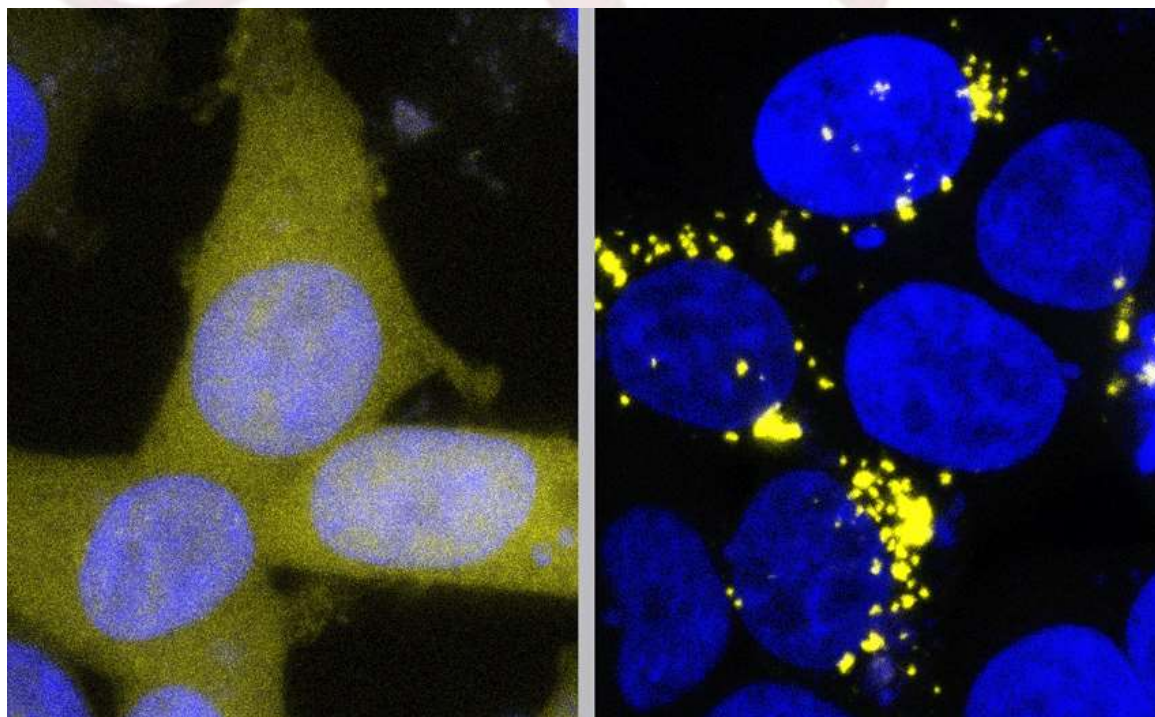
accept that A $\beta$  and tau are self-propagating prions — instead referring to their spread as “prion-like” — because unlike PrP prions, they were not thought to be from human brain tissue, or given transplants of the brain’s protective *dura mater*, who went on to develop A $\beta$  plaques in middle age, long before they should be seen in anyone without a genetic disorder. Prusiner contends that these findings argue that both A $\beta$  and tau are prions even though they propagate more slowly than highly aggressive PrP prions.

Now, AD is currently “defined” (not caused) based on the presence of toxic protein aggregations in the brain (A $\beta$  and tau) accompanied by cognitive decline and dementia. But attempts to treat the disease by clearing out these inert proteins have been unsuccessful. [For a complete treatment of this subject, refer to Fymat (2019) and Figure 7.2.]

As stated by Prusiner on May 1, 2019: *“I believe this shows beyond a shadow of a doubt that amyloid-beta and tau are both prions, and that Alzheimer’s disease is a double-prion disorder in which these two rogue*

infectious except in highly controlled laboratory studies. However, recent reports have documented rare cases of patients treated with growth hormone derived *proteins together destroy the brain....The fact that prion levels also appear linked to patient longevity should change how we think about the way forward for developing treatments for the disease”*. (Note that the term “double-prion disease” is not standard in neurology, but researchers sometimes use related concepts when describing AD. Figure 4 illustrates the prion forms of A $\beta$  in AD.

The new evidence that active A $\beta$  and tau prions could be driving the disease (not causing it) could lead researchers to explore new therapies that focus on prions directly. This is illustrated in Figure 4 wherein the normal form of A $\beta$  has been tagged with a yellow marker in these cells, making healthy cells a uniform pale yellow (left). Contact with prion forms of A $\beta$  — for example, in extracts from human brain tissue — forces these yellow proteins into the sticky prion form as well, leading to the formation of bright yellow clumps (right).



### Figure 4: Illustrating prion forms of A $\beta$ in AD

*Credit: Prusiner's laboratory / UCSF Institute for Neurodegenerative Diseases.*

I beg to differ from Prusiner and associates. I opined earlier, and continue to opine, that AD is a run-away autoimmune disease and that A $\beta$  and tau (even if considered as prions) are but manifestations of AD, not the cause of the disease.

- The combined effect of A $\beta$  and tau  $\rightarrow$  progressive network failure  $\rightarrow$  cognitive decline.

- **Importantly:** No evidence of person-to-person contagiousness in daily life.

As a result, the experts' consensus is:

- AD progression involves prion-like seeding and spread of two distinct proteins.
- The term "double-prion-like disorder" emphasizes this

#### Key difference from classic prion-like diseases

Alzheimer's is not contagious in the same way prion diseases are (no natural person-to-person transmission). This is the reason why the term "prion-like" is used instead of "prion disease" because the proteins share mechanisms of misfolding and spread but are not infectious under ordinary conditions. So, while Alzheimer's is not officially classified as a prion disease, some researchers do describe it as a "double prion-like disease" due to the combined roles of amyloid and tau.

The most remarkable finding may be the discovery that the self-propagating prion forms of tau and A $\beta$  are most infectious in the brains of Alzheimer's patients who died at a young age from inherited, genetically driven forms of the disease, but much less prevalent in patients who died at a more advanced age.

The above research raises a number of questions that will need to be addressed, including:

- Whether differences in prion infectivity could explain the long-standing mystery of why Alzheimer's progresses at such different rates in different patients,
- Whether higher prion levels in brain samples from younger patients are linked to the early onset of the disease or how quickly it progressed, and
- Whether lower prion levels in older brains reflect less "infective" prion variants or instead some ability of these patients' brains to dispose of misfolded proteins.

The evidence that prion forms of A $\beta$  and tau play a specific role in AD also raises questions on current approaches to Alzheimer's diagnosis, clinical trial design, and drug discovery.

#### Conclusions and take-aways

- Alzheimer's disease (AD) is best understood as a dual-protein, prion-like disorder because two different proteins— $\beta$ -amyloid (A $\beta$ ) and tau—misfold, self-propagate, spread through the brain in a prion-like manner, and interact and drive neurodegeneration.
- The "double prion" view explains why AD is progressive, network-specific, and difficult to halt once established, while remaining non-contagious under ordinary conditions.
- Unlike classical prion diseases (e.g., Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease), AD is not

contagious in everyday life, but the underlying mechanism of pathology progression shows striking parallels.

- Five pieces of evidence mitigate for the double prion concept: Misfolding and seeding; human tissue seeding activity; network spread; quantification of A $\beta$  and tau prions; and rare transmission events.
- The issue as to whether AD is a double prion-like disorder devolves from three considerations: Prion diseases (like CJD) are caused by misfolded prion proteins (PrP) that propagate by templating their abnormal structure onto normal protein; in AD, two key proteins misfold and spread in a “prion-like” manner; and both A $\beta$  and tau show seeding and propagation properties similar to prions.
- Many scientists have been reluctant to accept that A $\beta$  and tau are self-propagating prions because, unlike PrP prions, they were not thought to be infectious except in highly controlled laboratory studies.
- Now, Alzheimer’s disease (AD) is currently “defined” (not caused) based on the presence of toxic protein aggregations in the brain (A $\beta$  and tau) accompanied by cognitive decline and dementia. But attempts to treat the disease by clearing out these inert proteins have been unsuccessful.
- Alzheimer’s is not contagious in the same way prion diseases are (no natural person-to-person transmission) and that is why it is described as a “double prion-like disease” due to the combined roles of amyloid and tau.
- The most remarkable finding may be the discovery that the self-propagating prion forms of tau and A $\beta$  are most infectious in the brains

of Alzheimer’s patients who died at a young age from inherited, genetically driven forms of the disease, but much less prevalent in patients who died at a more advanced age.

- The evidence that prion forms of A $\beta$  and tau play a specific role in AD also raises questions on current approaches to Alzheimer’s diagnosis, clinical trial design, and drug discovery.
- The strongest evidence that Alzheimer’s behaves like a “double prion(-like)” disorder - involving both A $\beta$  and tau, can be summarized as follows: Both proteins show prion-like seeding and spread; human tissue shows measurable “seeding activity”; clinicopathologic “network spread” matches Braak-style staging; direct quantification of A $\beta$  and tau “prions” in AD brain; rare iatrogenic transmission of A $\beta$  pathology in humans; and while the “prion principle” likely applies mechanistically to AD (seeded aggregation and spread), AD is not considered an infectious prion disease in ordinary life.
- This author differs from Prusiner and others in that he has shown that AD is a run-away autoimmune disease and that A $\beta$  and tau (even if considered as prions) are but manifestations of AD, not the cause of the disease.

## References

1. Agopian A and Guo Z (2012). “Structural origin of polymorphism of Alzheimer’s amyloid beta-fibrils”. *Biochem J* 447: 43–50.
2. Ahmed Z, Cooper J, Murray TK, et al. (2014). “A novel in vivo model of tau propagation

- with rapid and progressive neurofibrillary tangle pathology: the pattern of spread is determined by connectivity, not proximity.” *Acta Neuropathol* 127: 667–83.
3. Arnold SE, Hyman BT, Flory J, et al. (1991). “The topographical and neuroanatomical distribution of neurofibrillary tangles and neuritic plaques in the cerebral cortex of patients with Alzheimer’s disease”. *Cereb Cortex* 1: 103–16.
  4. Attems J and Jellinger KA (2014). “The overlap between vascular disease and Alzheimer’s disease--lessons from pathology.” *BMC Med* 12: 206.
  5. Bateman RJ, Xiong C, Benzinger TL, et al. (2012). “Clinical and biomarker changes in dominantly inherited Alzheimer’s disease”. *N Engl J Med* 367: 795–804.
  6. Bero AW, Yan P, Roh JH, et al. (2011). “Neuronal activity regulates the regional vulnerability to amyloid-beta deposition”. *Nat Neurosci* 14: 750–6.
  7. Bierer LM, Hof PR, Purohit DP, et al. (1995). “Neocortical neurofibrillary tangles correlate with dementia severity in Alzheimer’s disease”. *Arch Neurol* 52: 81–8.
  8. Braak H and Braak E (1995). “Staging of Alzheimer’s disease-related neurofibrillary changes.” *Neurobiol Aging* 16: 271–8; discussion 278–84.
  9. Chouraki V and Seshadri S (2014). “Genetics of Alzheimer’s disease”. *Adv Genet* 87: 245–94.
  10. Clavaguera F, Hench J, Goedert M, et al. (2015). “Invited review: Prion-like transmission and spreading of tau pathology”. *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* 41: 47–58.
  11. Cohen ML, Kim C, Haldiman T, et al. (2015). “Rapidly progressive Alzheimer’s disease features distinct structures of amyloid-beta”. *Brain* 138: 1009–22.
  12. Condello C, Lemmin T, Stohr J, et al. (2018). “Structural heterogeneity and intersubject variability of Abeta in familial and sporadic Alzheimer’s disease”. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 115: E782–E791.
  13. Crary JF, Trojanowski JQ, Schneider JA, et al. (2014). “Primary age-related tauopathy (PART): a common pathology associated with human aging”. *Acta Neuropathol* 128: 755–66.
  14. Crowther RA (1991). “Straight and paired helical filaments in Alzheimer disease have a common structural unit”. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 88: 2288–92.
  15. Dartigues JF (2009). “Alzheimer’s disease: a global challenge for the 21st century”. *Lancet Neurol* 8: 1082–3.
  16. de Calignon A, Polydoro M, Suarez-Calvet M, et al. (2012). “Propagation of tau pathology in a model of early Alzheimer’s disease”. *Neuron* 73: 685–97.
  17. DeArmond SJ, Ironside JW, Bouzamondo-Bernstein E, et al. (2004). “Neuropathology of prion diseases” In: Prusiner SB (ed.) “Prion Biology and Diseases”. Cold Spring Harbor, NY: Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Press.
  18. Diack AB, Alibhai JD, Barron R, et al. (2016). “Insights into mechanisms of chronic neurodegeneration”. *Int J Mol Sci* 17.
  19. Domert J, Rao SB, Agholme L, et al. (2014). “Spreading of amyloid-beta peptides via neuritic cell-to-cell transfer is dependent on insufficient cellular clearance”. *Neurobiol Dis* 65: 82–92.
  20. Drachman DA (2014). “The amyloid hypothesis, time to move on: Amyloid is the downstream result, not cause, of Alzheimer’s disease”. *Alzheimer’s Dement* 10: 372–80.
  21. Duran-Aniotz C, Morales R, Moreno-Gonzalez I, et al. (2013). “Brains from non-Alzheimer’s individuals containing amyloid deposits accelerate Abeta deposition in vivo”. *Acta Neuropathol Commun* 1: 76.
  22. Duyckaerts C, Delatour B, and Potier MC



- (2009). "Classification and basic pathology of Alzheimer's disease". *Acta Neuropathol* 118: 5–36.
23. Falcon B, Cavallini A, Angers R, et al. (2015). "Conformation determines the seeding potencies of native and recombinant Tau aggregates." *J Biol Chem* 290: 1049–65.
  24. Fowler DM, Koulov AV, Balch WE, et al. (2007). "Functional amyloid--from bacteria to humans". *Trends Biochem Sci* 32: 217–24.
  25. Fritschi SK, Langer F, Kaeser SA, et al. (2014b). "Highly potent soluble amyloid-beta seeds in human Alzheimer brain but not cerebrospinal fluid". *Brain* 137: 2909–15.
  26. Fymat AL (2018). "Harnessing the immune system to treat cancers and neurodegenerative diseases", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 1(1):1-14.
  27. Fymat AL (2018). "Alzheimer's disease: A Review", *Journal of Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 2(2):415-36.
  28. Fymat AL (2018), "Alzheimer's disease: Prevention, delay, minimization, and reversal", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 1(1):1-16.
  29. Fymat AL (2018). "Is Alzheimer's an autoimmune disease gone rogue", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 2(1):1-4.
  30. Fymat AL (2018). "Is Alzheimer's a runaway autoimmune disease? and how to cure it?" *Proceedings of the European Union Academy of Sciences* 379-83.
  31. Fymat AL (2018). "Dementia treatment: Where do we stand?", *Journal of Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 3(1):1-3. 599.603.
  32. Fymat AL (2018). "On dementia and other cognitive disorders", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 2(1):1-14.
  33. Fymat AL (2019). "Alzheimer's ... who? Demystifying the disease and what you can do about it", Tellwell Talent Publishers, pp 236. ISBN: 978-0-2288-2420-6; 978-0-2288-2419-0
  34. Fymat AL (2019). "On the pathogenic hypothesis of neurodegenerative diseases", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 2(1):1-7.
  35. Fymat AL (2019), "Electromagnetic therapy for neurological and neurodegenerative diseases: I. Peripheral brain stimulations". *Open Access Journal of Neurology and Neurosurgery* 12(2):30-47. doi:10.19080/OAJNN.2019.12.555833
  36. Fymat AL (2019). "Dementia: A review", *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry and Neuroscience* 1(3):27-34.
  37. Fymat AL (2019). "Dementia with Lewy bodies: A review", *Journal of Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 4(1):15-32.
  38. Fymat AL (2019). "What do we know about Lewy body dementia?" (Invited Editorial) *Journal of Psychiatry and Psychotherapy* 2(1)-013:1-4. doi:10.31579/JPP.2019/018.
  39. Fymat AL (2020). "Dementia: Fending off the menacing disease... and what you can do about it", Tellwell Talent Publishers, pp 488. ISBN: 978-0-2288-4146-3 (Hardcover); 978-0-2288-4145-6 (Paperback).
  40. Fymat AL (2020). "Neuroradiology and its role in neurodegenerative diseases", *Journal of Radiology and Imaging Science* 1(1):1-14. (Journal closed and transferred to: *Journal of Neuroradiology and Nanomedicine*)
  41. Fymat AL (2020). "Electromagnetic therapy for neurological and neurodegenerative diseases: II. Deep brain stimulation". *Open Access Journal of Neurology and Neurosurgery* 13(1):1-17. doi: 19080/OAJNN.2020.13.555855.
  42. Fymat AL (2020), "Alzheimer's: What do we know about the disease and what can be done about it? EC Journal of Psychology &

- Psychiatry 9(11):69-74.
43. Fymat AL (2020). "Is Alzheimer's an autoimmune disease gone rogue? The role of brain immunotherapy", *Journal of Clinical Research in Neurology* 3(2):1-3.
  44. Fymat AL (2020). "Alzheimer's: Will there ever be a cure?". *Journal of Clinical Psychiatry and Neuroscience* 3(4): 1-5.
  45. Fymat AL (2020). "Dementia: Should we reorient our approach to treatment?" *EC Journal of Psychology & Psychiatry* 9(12):1-3.
  46. Fymat AL (2020). "Dementia: What is its causal etiology?" *International Journal of Neuropsychology and Behavioral Sciences* 1(1):19-22.
  47. Fymat AL (2021). "On potentially reversible forms of dementia", *Journal of Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 6(1):101-8.
  48. Fymat AL (2021). "Dementia: Eliminating its potentially reversible forms", *Proc. European Union Academy of Sciences*. Pages 270-7.
  49. Fymat AL (2022). "Alzheimer's disease: A path to a cure", *Journal of Neurology and Psychology Research* 3(1):1-15. [https://researchnovelty.com/articles.php?journal\\_id=5](https://researchnovelty.com/articles.php?journal_id=5)
  50. Fymat AL (2022). "Alzheimer's disease: A path to a cure", *Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 3(1):1-16.
  51. Fymat AL (2023). "Pathogens in the brain and neurodegenerative diseases", *Journal of Neurology and Psychology Research* 5(1):1-14.
  52. Fymat AL (2024). "The diseased brain: Neurodegenerative and other diseases". *Journal of Neurology and Psychology Research* 5(1):1-54
  53. L.Fymat (2024). "The coming dementia pandemic: Prescription for a cure", (Invited Editorial) *Current Opinions in Neurological Science* 9(1):1-5.
  54. Fymat AL (2025). "Alzheimer's disease: Potential application of hyperbaric oxygen therapy", *Journal of Neurology and Psychology Research* 5(6):1-20.
  55. Fymat AL (2025). "A novel form of dementia: Limbic-predominant age-related TDP-43 encephalopathy (LATE)", *Journal of Neurology and Psychology Research* 6(3):1-13.
  56. Fymat AL (2025). "Creutzfeldt-Jakob as an example of prion disease: I. Prions", *Journal of Neurology & Psychology Research* 6(3):1-27.
  57. Fymat AL (2025). "Creutzfeldt-Jakob as an example of prion disease: II. Prion diseases", *Journal of Neurology & Psychology Research* 6(3):1-19.
  58. Fymat AL (2025). "Creutzfeldt-Jakob as an example of prion disease: III. Prion mimic diseases", *Journal of Neurology a&Psychology Research* 6(3):1-27.
  59. Fymat AL (2025). "Creutzfeldt-Jakob as an example of prion disease: IV. Understanding Creutzfeldt-Jakob disease", *Journal of Neurology & Psychology Research* 6(3):1-27.
  60. Gatz M, Reynolds CA, Fratiglioni L, et al. (2006). "Role of genes and environments for explaining Alzheimer's disease". *Arch Gen Psychiatry* 63: 168–74.
  61. Gerson J and Kaye R (2016). "Therapeutic approaches targeting pathological tau aggregates." *Curr Pharm Des* 22: 4028–39.
  62. Goedert M (2015). "Alzheimer's and Parkinson's diseases: The prion concept in relation to assembled Abeta, tau, and alpha-synuclein". *Science* 349: 1255555.
  63. Goudsmit J, Morrow CH, Asher DM, et al. (1980). "Evidence for and against the transmissibility of Alzheimer's disease". *Neurology* 30: 945–50.
  64. Hamaguchi T, Eisele YS, Varvel NH, et al. (2012). "The presence of Abeta seeds, and not age per se, is critical to the initiation of Abeta deposition in the brain". *Acta Neuropathol*

- 123: 31–7.
65. Hardy J (2006). “A hundred years of Alzheimer’s disease research”. *Neuron* 52: 3–13.
  66. Hardy J and Selkoe DJ (2002). “The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer’s disease: Progress and problems on the road to therapeutics”. *Science* 297: 353–6.
  67. Hauw JJ and Duyckaerts C (2001). “Alzheimer’s disease” In: Duckett S & De La Torre JC (eds.) *Pathology of the Aging Human Nervous System*. 2 ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
  68. Hock EM and Polymenidou M (2016). “Prion-like propagation as a pathogenic principle in frontotemporal dementia”. *J Neurochem* 138 Suppl 1: 163–83.
  69. Holtzman DM, Morris JC, and Goate AM (2011). “Alzheimer’s disease: The challenge of the second century”. *Sci Transl Med* 3: 77sr71.
  70. Jack CR Jr. and Holtzman DM (2013). “Biomarker modeling of Alzheimer’s disease”. *Neuron* 80: 1347–58.
  71. Jack CR Jr., Knopman DS, Jagust WJ, et al. (2010). “Hypothetical model of dynamic biomarkers of the Alzheimer’s pathological cascade”. *Lancet Neurol* 9: 119–28.
  72. Jonsson T, Atwal JK, Steinberg S, et al. (2012). “A mutation in APP protects against Alzheimer’s disease and age-related cognitive decline”. *Nature* 488: 96–9.
  73. Joshi P, Benussi L, Furlan R, et al. (2015). “Extracellular vesicles in Alzheimer’s disease: Friends or foes? Focus on abeta-vesicle interaction”. *Int J Mol Sci* 16: 4800–13.
  74. Jucker M and Walker LC (2013). “Self-propagation of pathogenic protein aggregates in neurodegenerative diseases”. *Nature* 501: 45–51.
  75. Jucker M and Walker LC (2015). “Neurodegeneration: Amyloid-beta pathology induced in humans”. *Nature* 525: 193–4.
  76. Kalimo H, Lalowski M, Bogdanovic N, et al. (2013). “The Arctic AbetaPP mutation leads to Alzheimer’s disease pathology with highly variable topographic deposition of differentially truncated Abeta”. *Acta Neuropathol Commun* 1: 60.
  77. Kapasi A and Schneider JA (2016). “Vascular contributions to cognitive impairment, clinical Alzheimer’s disease, and dementia in older persons”. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1862: 878–86.
  78. Kovacs GG (2015). “Invited review: Neuropathology of tauopathies: Principles and practice.” *Neuropathol Appl Neurobiol* 41: 3–23.
  79. Lasagna-Reeves CA, Castillo-Carranza DL, Sengupta U, et al. (2012). “Alzheimer brain-derived tau oligomers propagate pathology from endogenous tau”. *Sci Rep* 2: 700.
  80. Lauren J (2014). “Cellular prion protein as a therapeutic target in Alzheimer’s disease”. *J Alzheimer’s Dis* 38: 227–44.
  81. Lee VM-Y, Goedert M, and Trojanowski JQ (2001). “Neurodegenerative tauopathies.”. *Annual Review of Neuroscience* 24: 1121–59.
  82. Lewczuk P, Mroczko B, Fagan A, et al. (2015). “Biomarkers of Alzheimer’s disease and mild cognitive impairment: A current perspective”. *Adv Med Sci* 60: 76–82.
  83. Liu CC, Kanekiyo T, Xu H, et al. (2013). “Apolipoprotein E and Alzheimer’s disease: Risk, mechanisms and therapy”. *Nat Rev Neurol* 9: 106–18.
  84. Lu JX, Qiang W, Yau WM, et al. (2013). “Molecular structure of beta-amyloid fibrils in Alzheimer’s disease brain tissue.” *Cell* 154: 1257–68.
  85. Mann DM and Yates PO (1986). “Neurotransmitter deficits in Alzheimer’s disease and in other dementing disorders”. *Hum Neurobiol* 5: 147–58.
  86. Morales R, Duran-Aniotz C, Castilla J, et al.

- (2012). "De novo induction of amyloid-beta deposition in vivo". *Mol Psychiatry* 17: 1347–53.
87. Nath S, Agholme L, Kurudenkandy FR, et al. (2012). "Spreading of neurodegenerative pathology via neuron-to-neuron transmission of beta-amyloid". *J Neurosci* 32: 8767–77.
88. Nelson PT, Alafuzoff I, Bigio EH, et al. (2012). "Correlation of Alzheimer's disease neuropathologic changes with cognitive status: A review of the literature". *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 71: 362–81.
89. Nilsson KP, Aslund A, Berg I, et al. (2007). "Imaging distinct conformational states of amyloid-beta fibrils in Alzheimer's disease using novel luminescent probes". *ACS Chem Biol* 2: 553–60.
90. Olsson B, Lautner R, Andreasson U, et al. (2016). "CSF and blood biomarkers for the diagnosis of Alzheimer's disease: A systematic review and meta-analysis." *Lancet Neurol* 15: 673–84.
91. Paravastu AK, Leapman RD, Yau WM, et al. (2008). "Molecular structural basis for polymorphism in Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibrils". *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105: 18349–54.
92. Petkova AT, Leapman RD, Guo Z, et al. (2005). "Self-propagating, molecular-level polymorphism in Alzheimer's beta-amyloid fibrils". *Science* 307: 262–5.
93. Piccini A, Russo C, Gliozzi A, et al. (2005). "Beta-Amyloid is different in normal aging and in Alzheimer's disease". *J Biol Chem* 34: 186–92.
94. Pike CJ (2017). "Sex and the development of Alzheimer's disease". *J Neurosci Res* 95: 671–80.
95. Potter H and Wisniewski T (2012). "Apolipoprotein e: Essential catalyst of the Alzheimer amyloid cascade". *Int J Alzheimer's Dis* 2012: 489428.
96. Prusiner SB (1984). "Some speculations about prions, amyloid, and Alzheimer's disease". *N Engl J Med* 310: 661–3.
97. Prusiner SB (2013). "Biology and genetics of prions causing neurodegeneration". *Annu Rev Genet* 47: 601–23.
98. Qiang W, Yau WM, Lu JX, et al. (2017). "Structural variation in amyloid-beta fibrils from Alzheimer's disease clinical subtypes". *Nature*.
99. Raj A, LoCastro E, Kuceyeski A, et al. (2015). "Network diffusion model of progression predicts longitudinal patterns of atrophy and metabolism in Alzheimer's disease". *Cell Rep*.
100. Rajendran L, Honscho M, Zahn TR, et al. (2006). Alzheimer's disease beta-amyloid peptides are released in association with exosomes". *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 103: 11172–7.
101. Rasmussen J, Mahler J, Beschoner N, et al. (2017). "Amyloid polymorphisms constitute distinct clouds of conformational variants in different etiological subtypes of Alzheimer's disease". *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 114: 13018–23.
102. Reitz C, Brayne C, and Mayeux R (2011). "Epidemiology of Alzheimer's disease". *Nat Rev Neurol* 7: 137–52.
103. Rosen RF, Tomidokoro Y, Farberg AS, et al. (2016). "Comparative pathobiology of beta-amyloid and the unique susceptibility of humans to Alzheimer's disease". *Neurobiol Aging* 44: 185–96.
104. Salazar SV and Strittmatter SM (2016). "Cellular prion protein as a receptor for amyloid-beta oligomers in Alzheimer's disease". *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*.
105. Selkoe DJ (2011). "Resolving controversies on the path to Alzheimer's therapeutics". *Nat Med* 17: 1060–5.
106. Selkoe DJ and Hardy J (2016). "The amyloid hypothesis of Alzheimer's disease at 25 years".










- EMBO Mol Med 8: 595–608.
107. Smith TW, Anwer U, DeGirolami U, et al. (1987). "Vacuolar change in Alzheimer's disease". *Arch Neurol* 44: 1225–8.
  108. Spillantini MG and Goedert M (2013). "Tau pathology and neurodegeneration". *Lancet Neurol* 12: 609–22.
  109. Spirig T, Ovchinnikova O, Vagt T, et al. (2014). "Direct evidence for self-propagation of different amyloid-beta fibril conformations". *Neurodegener Dis* 14: 151–9.
  113. Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams and Wilkins.[Google Scholar]
  114. Thal DR, Capetillo-Zarate E, Del Tredici K, et al. (2006). "The development of amyloid beta protein deposits in the aged brain". *Sci Aging Knowledge Environ* 2006: re1.
  115. Tycko R (2015). "Amyloid polymorphism: Structural basis and neurobiological relevance". *Neuron* 86: 632–45.
  116. Villemagne VL, Dore V, Bourgeat P, et al. (2017). "Abeta-amyloid and Tau imaging in dementia." *Semin Nucl Med* 47: 75–88.
  117. Vinters HV (2015). "Emerging concepts in Alzheimer's disease". *Annu Rev Pathol* 10: 291–319.
  118. Vonsattel JP and Hedley-White ET (2001). "Dementia. Pathology of the aging human nervous system". New York: Oxford University Press. [Google Scholar]
  119. Walker LC and Jucker M (2015). "Neurodegenerative diseases: Expanding the prion concept". *Annu Rev Neurosci* 38: 87–103.
  120. Walker LC and Jucker M (2017). The exceptional vulnerability of humans to Alzheimer's disease". *Trends Mol Med* 23: 534–45.
  121. Walker LC, Schelle J, and Jucker M (2016). "The prion-like properties of amyloid-beta assemblies: Implications for Alzheimer's disease". *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 6.
  110. Stohr J, Watts JC, Mensinger ZL, et al. (2012). "Purified and synthetic Alzheimer's amyloid beta (Aβ) prions". *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 109: 11025–30.
  111. Tanzi RE (2012). "The genetics of Alzheimer's disease". *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Med* 2.
  112. Terry RD, Masliah E, and Hansen LA (1999). "The neuropathology of Alzheimer's disease and the structural basis of cognitive alterations" In: Terry RD, Katzman R, Bick KL, et al. (eds.) *Alzheimer Disease*. 2 ed.
  122. Warzok RW, Kessler C, Apel G, et al. (1998). "Apolipoprotein E4 promotes incipient Alzheimer pathology in the elderly". *Alzheimer Dis Assoc Disord* 12: 33–9.
  123. Watts JC, Condello C, Stohr J, et al. (2014). "Serial propagation of distinct strains of Aβ prions from Alzheimer's disease patients". *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 111: 10323–8.
  124. Weiner MW, Veitch DP, Aisen PS, et al. (2013). "The Alzheimer's disease neuroimaging initiative: A review of papers published since its inception". *Alzheimer's Dement* 9: e111–94.
  125. Wilcock GK and Esiri MM (1982). "Plaques, tangles and dementia: A quantitative study". *J Neurol Sci* 56: 343–56.
  126. Wingo TS, Lah JJ, Levey AI, et al. (2012). "Autosomal recessive causes likely in early-onset Alzheimer's disease". *Arch Neurol* 69: 59–64.
  127. Wisniewski HM, Bancher C, Barcikowska M, et al. (1989). "Spectrum of morphological appearance of amyloid deposits in Alzheimer's disease". *Acta Neuropathol* 78: 337–47.
  128. Wu JW, Hussaini SA, Bastille IM, et al. (2016). "Neuronal activity enhances tau propagation and tau pathology in vivo". *Nat Neurosci*.
  129. Yagi H, Ban T, Morigaki K, et al. (2007). "Visualization and classification of amyloid beta supramolecular assemblies".

- Biochemistry. disease: An update". *Annu Rev Neurosci* 37: 130. Yu JT, Tan L and Hard y J (2014). "Apolipoprotein E in Alzheimer's 79–100.
- © The Author(s) 2025. This article is distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The Creative Commons Public Domain Dedication waiver (<http://creativecommons.org/publicdomain/zero/1.0/>) applies to the data made available in this article, unless otherwise stated.



**Ready to submit your research? Choose RN and benefit from:**

-  Fast, convenient online submission.
-  Thorough peer review by experienced researchers in your field.
-  Rapid publication on acceptance.
-  Support for research data, including large and complex data types.
-  Global attainment for your research.
-  At RN, research is always in progress.
-  Learn more: [researchnovelty.com/submission.php](http://researchnovelty.com/submission.php)

