Trem2 promotes anti-inflammatory responses in microglia and is suppressed under pro-inflammatory conditions

Short running title: TREM2 drives anti-inflammatory processes

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Abstract

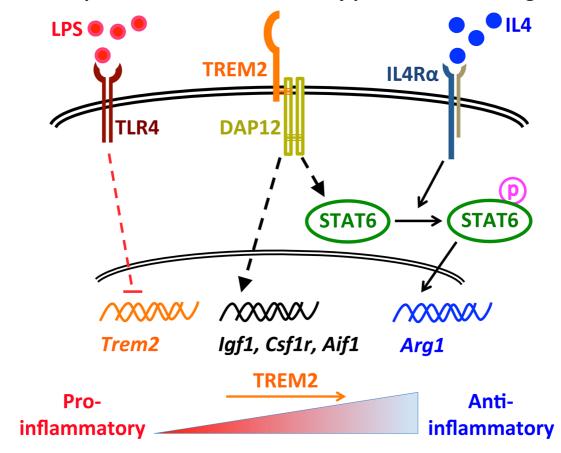
Recent genome-wide association studies have reported that, amongst other microglial genes, variants in TREM2 can profoundly increase the incidence of developing Alzheimer's disease (AD). We have investigated the role of TREM2 in primary microglial cultures from wild-type mice by using siRNA to decrease *Trem2* expression, and in parallel from knock-in mice heterozygous or homozygous for the Trem2 R47H AD risk variant (from the Jackson laboratories). The prevailing phenotype of *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice was decreased expression levels of Trem2 in microglia, which resulted in decreased density of microglia in the hippocampus. Overall, primary microglia with reduced *Trem2* expression, either by siRNA or from the R47H knock-in mice, displayed a similar phenotype. Comparison of the effects of decreased Trem2 expression under conditions of LPS pro-inflammatory or IL4 antiinflammatory stimulation revealed the importance of Trem2 in driving a number of the genes up-regulated in the anti-inflammatory phenotype, whether treated with RNAi or performed with microglia carrying the R47H variant. In particular, *Trem2* knockdown decreased levels of the transcription factor STAT6. STAT6 is the key mediator downstream from IL4 and controls expression of genes including Arg1, which also showed decreased IL4induced expression when Trem2 expression was decreased. LPS-induced pro-inflammatory stimulation suppressed Trem2 expression, thus preventing TREM2's anti-inflammatory drive. The importance of *Trem2* activity in regulating the pro- and anti-inflammatory balance of microglia, particularly mediating effects of the IL4-regulated anti-inflammatory pathway, has important implications for fighting neurodegenerative disease.

Key words:

TREM2, microglia, Alzheimer's, inflammation, interleukin, STAT6, Arginase

Table of contents image

TREM2 promotes anti-inflammatory processes in Microglia



Main points

TREM2 coordinates anti-inflammatory processes in primary microglia, in part by promoting IL4-STAT6 signaling. LPS-induced pro-inflammatory stimulation suppresses *Trem2*. *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice showed a decrease of microglial density in hippocampus.

1. Introduction

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) continue to reveal variants in immune/microglia-related genes that significantly increase the risk of developing Alzheimer's disease (AD). These genes now include *TREM2*, *CD33*, *ABI3* and *PLCG2* (Griciuc et al. 2013; Guerreiro et al. 2013b; Hollingworth et al. 2011; Jonsson et al. 2013; Malik et al. 2013; Naj et al. 2011; Sims et al. 2017). These studies particularly emphasize an important role of microglia in AD pathogenesis. However, the question of how microglial activation contributes to AD development is still far from resolved. Nor is it clear how to use these findings to leverage microglial pathways for drug discovery.

Triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2 (TREM2) transmembrane protein containing a single immunoglobulin-superfamily (Ig-SF) domain. TREM2 expression was first observed in macrophages and dendritic cells, but not granulocytes or monocytes (Bouchon et al. 2000; Bouchon et al. 2001; Daws et al. 2001). It has since been reported to be widely expressed in various cell types derived from the myeloid lineage, such as bone osteoclasts (Humphrey et al. 2006; Paloneva et al. 2003), and lung and peritoneal macrophages (Turnbull et al. 2006). In the brain, TREM2 is predominantly expressed by microglia (Paloneva et al. 2002; Schmid et al. 2002; Takahashi et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2016). In 2013, two independent GWAS studies (Guerreiro et al. 2013b; Jonsson et al. 2013) highlighted a rare variant rs75932628-T in exon 2 of the TREM2 gene, causing an arginine-tohistidine substitution at amino acid position 47 (R47H), to be highly significantly associated with increased AD risk. The risk from this variant has a comparable effect size to the APOEs4 allele (around 3-fold increased AD risk; Benitez et al. 2013; Jin et al. 2014; Jonsson et al. 2013; Murray et al. 2018; Ruiz et al. 2014). Furthermore, the R47H variant was investigated in other neurodegenerative diseases and was also found to be associated with frontotemporal dementia, Parkinson's disease, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (Cady et al. 2014; Rayaprolu et al. 2013), suggesting a more

widespread role for TREM2-related microglial functions in maintaining neuronal function/survival throughout the brain. In addition to the R47H variant, further *TREM2* variants have been revealed to be risk factors of AD or other CNS diseases, such as R62H (Jin et al. 2014; Sims et al. 2017), H157Y (Jiang et al. 2016), Q33X, T66M and Y38C (Guerreiro et al. 2013a; Guerreiro et al. 2013c). All of the *TREM2* genetic linkage studies with neurodegenerative diseases suggest an important contribution of TREM2 to regulating microglial functions with respect to neuronal function/survival in the process of disease progression.

Evidence from in vitro studies has accumulated to support the role of TREM2 in restricting inflammation and promoting phagocytosis. It was first reported in a study using primary microglia transduced with flag epitope tagged TREM2 that TREM2 stimulated microglial chemotaxis, and phagocytosis of fluorescent beads (Takahashi et al. 2005). They also showed that Trem2 knockdown via a lentiviral strategy increased pro-inflammatory gene expression and decreased phagocytosis of labeled apoptotic neuronal membranes in primary microglia stressed with co-culture of apoptosis-induced primary neurons. TREM2 was also found to inhibit LPS-induced proinflammatory markers up-regulated in primary alveolar macrophages in vitro (Gao et al. 2013), and the BV-2 microglial cell line (Zhong et al. 2015). With particular respect to AD, phagocytosis of AB was found to be impaired due to lack of or reduced mature TREM2 cell surface expression in studies with primary microglia from Trem2 knock-out mice and mutant Trem2 microglial cell lines (Kleinberger et al. 2014; Xiang et al. 2016). Recently, it was further shown that apolipoproteins and AB itself acted as ligands of TREM2 to facilitate microglial phagocytosis and clearance of AB and apoptotic neurons (Atagi et al. 2015; Yeh et al. 2016; Zhao et al. 2018). In general, these studies suggest that *Trem2* deficiency exacerbates microglial pro-inflammatory activation in response to various stimuli, and accompanies impaired phagocytosis. However, other cellular functions of TREM2, particularly antiinflammatory or alternative activation, and the molecular mechanisms mediating the actions of TREM2 are not well understood.

In this study, we developed a strategy to investigate the role of microglialexpressed genes that alter risk for AD in microglia using primary cultures and acute knockdown of gene expression using RNAi, and also verifying our findings in mouse brain. We used this strategy to explore the effects of acute Trem2 deficiency on primary microglia at the transcriptional and functional levels, especially when polarized towards a pro-inflammatory or antiinflammatory phenotype. We aimed to compare the effect of acute siRNAinduced knockdown of Trem2 expression to loss-of-function due to the R47H mutation by comparing both cultures of isolated microglia and brain tissue from wild-type (WT) or recently developed mice carrying the Trem2 R47H point mutation from the Jackson laboratories (Trem2 R47H knock-in mice, KI mice). The primary effect reported in the R47H mice was a similar reduction of Trem2 expression, and this effect was also observed in independent Trem2 R47H KI mice (Cheng-Hathaway et al. 2018; Xiang et al. 2018). The changes in Trem2-mediated effects in this mouse seem to be largely due to this decrease of Trem2 expression rather than due to the mutation and so this effectively provides us with an in vivo 'knockdown' model without the need for further intervention, providing a control without transfection, and the possibility of verifying effects ex vivo. We find both in vitro and in vivo that decreased levels of *Trem2* have effects on microglial function and gene expression. We investigate the pro- versus anti-inflammatory effects of *Trem2* and investigate possible molecular pathways mediating these effects.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Mice

All experiments were performed in agreement with the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986, with local ethical approval. *Trem2* R47H knock-in (R47H KI) mice were obtained from the Jackson Laboratory (C57BL/6J-*Trem2*^{em1Adiuj}/J; stock number: 027918, RRID: IMSR_JAX:027918; Xiang et al. 2018), and maintained on a C57BL/6J background. All mice were bred and maintained at UCL on a 12 hr light/12 hr dark cycle with *ad libitum* supply of food and water. Genomic DNA was extracted for genotyping using the 'HotSHOT' lysis method. Alkaline lysis reagent (25 mM NaOH, 0.2 mM EDTA [pH 12]) was added to tissue samples prior to heating to 95°C for 30 min. The sample was then cooled to 4°C before the addition of neutralization buffer (40 mM Tris-HCI [pH 5]). Mice were genotyped using a quantitative PCR reaction utilizing the following primers and probes (Thermo Fisher Scientific):

Forward primer 5' ACT TAT GAC GCC TTG AAG CA 3',
Reverse primer 5' CTT CTT CAG GAA GGC CAG CA 3',
wild-type probe 5' VIC- AGA CGC AAG GCC TGG TG -MGBNFQ 3',
mutant probe 5' 6-FAM- AGA CAC AAA GCA TGG TGT CG -MGBNFQ 3'

TaqMan genotyping master mix was used according to the manufacturer's instructions.

2.2. Primary microglial culture

Primary microglial cultures were generated from cerebral cortices and hippocampi of 1-3-day-old newborns from WT C57BL/6J or *Trem2* R47H KI mouse strains, following an adapted protocol of Schildge et al. (2013) and Saura et al. (2003). For each independent preparation of WT primary microglial culture, brains of 4-6 pups from one litter of neonatal mice were dissected and pooled. For the *Trem2* KI mice, primary cultures from 2-4 pups from the same litter were prepared simultaneously but cultured separately,

and genotyping was performed after culture preparation. On average, around 3,000,000~4,000,000 mixed glial cells from the combined cortex and hippocampus per pup were obtained. Specifically, after decapitation, the brain was quickly extracted and transferred to ice-cold HBSS. The cortices and hippocampi from each brain were then isolated by removing all other brain regions, meninges and blood vessels. Following mechanical and enzymatic (HBSS with 0.25% trypsin) dissociation, cells were centrifuged, collected and seeded at a density of 120,000 cells/cm² in poly-D-lysine coated flasks/wells with a glial culture medium (high glucose DMEM with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin). Cells were cultured at 37°C in humidified 5% CO₂ and the medium was changed every 3 days. After 19-23 days, once the mixed glial cells achieved confluence, a mild trypsinization method (incubation with DMEM with 0.05% trypsin and 0.2 mM EDTA for 30-45 min) was applied to purify the primary microglia by removing the astrocytic cell layer. Conditioned medium from the mixed glia was collected before trypsinization. Isolated primary microglial cells were collected and seeded in poly-D-lysine coated plates at a density of 40,000-100,000 cells/cm² using the collected conditioned medium, except for the cultures used for ELISA, which were cultured in fresh medium. Pure primary microglia were cultured under the same conditions as the mixed glial culture, and experiments were started at 24 hr after isolation.

2.3. Adult mouse brain tissue extraction

Brains were removed from the skull on ice following decapitation, and cut into two hemispheres. The hippocampus and cortex were dissected from one hemisphere and then snap frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C until total RNA was isolated by homogenisation of tissue with a polytron. The second hemisphere was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde overnight at 4°C and then cryoprotected and stored in 30% sucrose in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) with 0.02% sodium azide.

2.4. Hippocampal histology

The fixed hemisphere was serially sectioned at 30 µm transverse to the long axis of the hippocampus using a frozen microtome (Leica, Germany). For assessing microglial density and activity, free floating sections were permeabilized in 0.3% Triton-X in PBS three times, blocked (3% goat serum in 0.3% Triton X-100 in PBS) for 1 hr at room temperature and incubated with primary antibodies at 1:500 dilution in blocking solution (IBA1 rabbit antibody, #234003, Synaptic Systems, RRID: AB 10641962; CD68 rat antibody, #MCA1957, Bio Rad, RRID: AB 322219), overnight at 4°C. Sections were washed, then incubated for 2 hr at room temperature with corresponding Alexa-conjugated secondary antibodies diluted to 1:800 in blocking solution (goat anti-rabbit Alexa 488 and goat anti-rat Alexa 594 antibodies, Jackson ImmunoResearch). Sections were washed, nuclei counterstained with 4',6diamidine-2-phenylindole (DAPI), then mounted with Fluoromount-G medium (Southern Biotech). Entire hippocampus was imaged in each section using an EVOS FL Auto microscope (Life Technologies) with a x20 objective, by area defined serial scanning and a motorised stage. For AIF1 and CD68 staining, cells were counted in the CA1: stratum radiatum in subfields of size 91,100 µm², stratum lacunosum-moleculare (subfield 68,300 µm²), stratum pyramidale and stratum oriens (subfields 76,900 µm²). Microglial cells were only counted if their DAPI-stained nucleus could be clearly seen surrounded by AIF1 staining with at least two processes protruding from this, and more than 50% of the cell body being present in the subfield. CD68 positive cells were characterized by the cell body containing greater than 25% fluorescence. At least three serial hippocampal sections approximately 720 µm apart were counted for each mouse. Experimenter was blind to the age and genotype of the sample during quantification and analysis.

2.5. BV-2 cell culture

BV-2 cells (maximum passage number < 20), a murine microglial cell line, were cultured in medium containing DMEM with 10% heat-inactivated fetal

bovine serum, 2 mM L-glutamine, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, and 1% mycoplasma removal agent (AbD Serotec), and passaged every 2-4 days (avoiding confluence of more than 90%). Prior to experiments, BV-2 cells were collected with Accutase (A6964, Sigma), and seeded on 6-well plates at a density of around 10,000 cells/cm² for testing siRNA sequences.

2.6. siRNA treatment

The following three siRNAs (Ambion) that target mouse *Trem2* were tested (with a non-targeting siRNA as a control, Ambion, Catalog No. 4457287):

siRNA No. 1 sequences: sense 5'-CCCUCUAGAUGACCAAGAUtt-3', antisense 5'-AUCUUGGUCAUCUAGAGGGtc-3';

siRNA No. 2 sequences: sense 5'-GCGUUCUCCUGAGCAAGUUtt-3', antisense 5'-AACUUGCUCAGGAGAACGCag-3';

siRNA No. 3 sequences: sense 5'-GCACCUCCAGGAAUCAAGAtt-3', antisense 5'-UCUUGAUUCCUGGAGGUGCtg-3')

Nuclease-free water was used to make 20 µM siRNA solutions. The 3 *Trem2* siRNAs were tested in BV2 cells and the siRNA No. 2 and No. 3 were selected for *Trem2* knockdown in primary microglia.

Primary mouse microglia were transfected with either *Trem2* siRNA or the non-targeting negative control siRNA using the transfection reagent Lipofectamine RNAiMax (Invitrogen), following the manufacturer's instructions. The amount of siRNA to volume of Lipofectamine per well was 1 pmol siRNA to 0.3 µl Lipofectamine. Cells were harvested 72±2 hr after transfection.

2.7. LPS or IL4 treatment

For the microglial activation studies, primary microglia were treated with 1 μ g/ml lipopolysaccharides (LPS; L4391, Sigma) at 3, 6, or 24 hr before harvest, or 20 ng/ml Interleukin 4 (IL4; 214-14, PeproTech) at 24 or 48 hr before harvest. Time points for the addition of LPS or IL4 treatment are given in Figure 1.

2.8. Phagocytosis assay

The phagocytosis assay using the pHrodo green E. coli bioparticles conjugate (P35366, Invitrogen) was adapted from the Invitrogen protocol (Garcia-Reitboeck et al. 2018; Kleinberger et al. 2014). In brief, purified primary microglia were cultured on 24-well plates at a density of around 50,000 cells/cm² (100,000 cells/well) and transfected with either *Trem2* siRNA or the negative control siRNA. After 72 hr, microglia were treated with 50 µg pHrodoconjugated E. coli per well for 1 hr at 37°C. Cells pre-incubated with 10 µmol cytochalasin-D for 30 min prior to the phagocytosis assay were used as a negative control. Cells were re-suspended with PBS after the assay, and then washed and collected in ice-cold fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) buffer (PBS without Ca^{2+/}Mg²⁺, with 0.5% BSA, 0.05% sodium azide and 2 mM EDTA). Collected microglia were assessed (10,000 cells counted per sample) by flow cytometry (FACSCalibur running CellQuest Pro; Becton Dickinson, UK) with excitation at 488 nm and emission at a range of 500-535 nm. Following identification of single microglial cells with the expected size and granularity by forward (FSC-H) versus side (SSC-H) scatter of light, microglia with different amounts of phagocytosed fluorescent E. coli and thus with different fluorescent intensities were plotted and analyzed using Flowing software (developed by Perttu Terho, Turku Centre for Biotechnology, Finland; www.flowingsoftware.com).

2.9. Primary microglia lysis for gene expression and protein analysis

For gene expression analysis, primary microglia were washed with ice-cold PBS three times and then lysed in ice-cold QIAzol RNA lysis reagent (Qiagen). Lysed cells were snap frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C.

To analyze cellular protein, primary microglia were washed with ice-cold PBS three times and then lysed in 2X Laemmli dye. Lysed cells were boiled at 95°C in a heating block for 5 min and stored at -20°C.

For ELISA analyses, supernatants from primary microglial culture were collected, centrifuged to remove cell debris and stored at -20°C.

2.10. RNA purification and cDNA preparation

Prior to RNA purification, the primary microglia samples were homogenized using a 1 ml syringe and a G21 needle, or hippocampal samples were homogenized using a polytron. Total RNA was isolated using miRNAeasy columns (Qiagen) following manufacturer's instructions. The concentration of RNA was assessed with a NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific), with the A_{260}/A_{280} ratio typically around 2. Randomly selected RNA samples from different experiments (*Trem2* knockdown and non-targeting siRNA, or from *Trem2* R47H mice and WT siblings; n = 6 per group), were tested by capillary electrophoresis to confirm the quality and concentration of the total RNA (Supplementary Figure 1). Typical RNA Integrity values (RIN) of >9.0 from 10.0 were obtained regardless of siRNA treatment type, or genotype of mice.

The same amount of RNA from each sample was first treated using DNase I (Amplification Grade, Invitrogen) plus RNaseOUT (Invitrogen). The reverse transcription reaction was then performed using the High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit with RNase Inhibitor (Applied Biosystems) following

the manufacturer's instructions, in parallel with a negative control lacking the reverse transcriptase.

2.11. Primer design and test

Primers were designed to span at least two exons and tested for specificity against the entire mouse transcriptome using Primer-BLAST (NCBI) and supplied by Eurofins MWG Operon. All primers were tested for specificity by performing a standard PCR reaction and resolving the products on a 3% agarose gel with ethidium bromide, followed by a quantitative RT-PCR reaction to obtain the linearity range for primers, calculate primer efficiency and test primer specificity using a "melt-curve" analysis. All primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

2.12. RT-qPCR

The cDNA samples were tested in triplicate with a reverse-transcriptase (RT) lacking control in a 96-well plate using the CFX96 system (BioRad), with each 20 µl reaction containing the cDNA dilution, 0.25 µM of forward and reverse primers, and SYBR Green PCR master mix (Bio-Rad). Cycling conditions were: 95°C-3 min, 40 cycles of [95°C-10 sec, 58°C-30 sec and 72°C-30 sec], and then 72°C-5 min. A melt curve was generated by heating from 60 to 90°C with 0.5°C increments and 5 sec dwell time. All RT-qPCR reactions were checked for a single peak with the melt-curve analysis reflecting a single PCR product. Expression levels of the housekeeping gene *Rps28* were shown to be stable between the different experimental samples when higher molecular weight RNA was measured (Supplementary Figure 1). The raw cycle threshold (CT) values of target genes (mean of the triplicates for each sample) were normalized to *Rps28* CT values for each sample using the delta CT method (Matarin et al. 2015).

2.13. ELISA of secreted TNF-alpha by primary microglia

The TNF-alpha levels in the primary microglial supernatants were quantified using Quantikine® Mouse TNF-alpha ELISA kit (R&D Systems, MTA000B), following the manufacturer's instructions. In general, equal volumes of cell supernatants, together with the provided buffer, were loaded in duplicate to the ELISA microplate and incubated for 2 hr at room temperature. Following five washes, wells were then incubated with horseradish peroxidase conjugated mouse TNF-alpha antibody for another 2 hr at room temperature. The microplate was washed again and incubated with a substrate solution prepared with chromogen (tetramethylbenzidine) and hydrogen peroxide for 30 min before addition of a stop solution with hydrochloric acid. Then the color intensity was measured at 450 nm using a plate reader (EL800, BioTek) and the TNF-alpha concentrations in microglial supernatants were calculated from the standard curve. To account for the differences in the cell number between different wells of microglia, cell lysates were collected in parallel with the supernatants from the same wells and then tested for levels of a housekeeping protein beta-actin (Ab8227, Abcam, RRID: AB 2305186) by western blot, which was used for normalization of TNF-alpha levels.

2.14. Western blotting

Cellular protein samples from primary microglia were loaded onto 15% polyacrylamide gels and resolved by sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. Proteins were transferred to a 0.45 µm nitrocellulose membrane (BioRad) by wet electro-transfer overnight.

Membranes were washed in Tris-buffered saline (TBS; 30 mM NaCl and 30 mM Tris [pH 7.4]) for 10 min, and then blocked in TBS with 0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) and 5% non-fat milk for 1 hr at room temperature. Membranes were then probed with primary antibody (STAT6 antibody, 5397S, Cell Signaling Technology, RRID: AB_11220421; p-STAT6 (Y641) antibody, 56554S, Cell Signaling Technology; AKT (pan) antibody, 4691T, Cell Signaling Technology,

RRID: AB_915783; p-AKT (T308) antibody, 2965S, Cell Signaling Technology, RRID: AB_2255933; p-AKT (S473) antibody, 4060T, Cell Signaling Technology, RRID: AB_2315049; beta-actin antibody, ab8227, Abcam, RRID: AB_2305186) diluted in blocking buffer overnight at 4°C. Following three washes with TBST, membranes were then incubated with a horseradish peroxidase conjugated secondary antibody that was diluted 1:10,000 in blocking buffer for 1 hr at room temperature. Membranes were finally washed 3 more times, and the horseradish peroxidase signals revealed with enhanced chemiluminescence detection (ECL, BioRad). Image acquisition and densitometric analysis was performed using ImageLab (v5.2, BioRad).

2.15. Immunocytochemistry

Primary microglia plated on poly-D-lysine coated coverslips were fixed with 2% PFA for 15 min at room temperature, followed by five washes with PBS. Prior to immunocytochemical staining, coverslips were washed in PBS for 10 min and blocked for 1 hr at room temperature with 8% horse serum diluted in PBS with 0.125% Triton-X 100. Coverslips were then incubated overnight at 4°C with IBA1 antibody (019-19741, Wako, RRID: AB_839504) diluted 1:1,000 in the blocking solution. After primary antibody incubation, coverslips were washed three times with PBS and then incubated for 2 hr at room temperature in the anti-rabbit secondary antibody dilution in blocking solution. After three washes with PBS and staining with DAPI, coverslips were mounted on SuperFrost Plus slides (Fisher) with Fluoromount G (Scientific Biotech).

2.16. Imaging and analysis

Coverslips were imaged using an EVOS $^{\otimes}$ FL Auto Cell Imaging System (Life Technologies) under a 20X objective. Two coverslips per sample were used and three fields of view (480 μ m x 360 μ m) per coverslip were imaged. AIF1-positive cells and DAPI were counted with Adobe PhotoShop CS6 software

and the microglial purity was calculated as a percentage of the AIF1 cell counts versus the DAPI counts in the same field of view.

2.17. Statistics

Data are shown as mean ± SEM. The sample size (n) represents the number of independent cell preparations or mice. All statistics were performed using Prism v7 (Graphpad). For the primary microglial gene expression changes with *Trem2* knockdown versus the non-targeting siRNA control, single gene expression level was normalized as a fold change of the negative control within each independent microglial culture preparation, and then a onesample Student's t-test with Bonferroni correction was conducted for statistical analysis. For the phagocytosis experiment, a paired Student's t-test was used to compare the *Trem2* knockdown group and the non-targeting siRNA control group (samples from the same microglial culture preparation were paired). For the LPS or IL4 treatment experiments, to assess the impact of Trem2 knockdown and LPS/IL4 treatment on the gene expression, data were normalized to the negative control without LPS/IL4 treatment within each individual microglial preparation and then analyzed with two-way ANOVA followed by Sidak's multiple comparison tests when appropriate. The Trem2 R47H KI expression data in whole hippocampal homogenates were tested by one-way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparisons tests when appropriate. The Trem2 R47H KI immunohistochemistry data were analyzed using twoway ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparisons tests when appropriate. For the primary microglia cultured from the Trem2 R47H KI mice, data were analyzed with two-way ANOVA separately for LPS or IL4 treatment using the same control samples, then Sidak's multiple comparisons tests were performed when appropriate. Differences were considered significant if p<0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Establishing an in vitro model of acute Trem2 knockdown

To investigate the functional importance of microglial genes, reported to have variants altering risk for AD from GWAS experiments, we established an in vitro model where primary microglia were kept in mixed glial culture conditions to fully develop for around 21 days before isolation. We used this model to elucidate the implications of acute Trem2 knockdown (Figure 1a). The purity of our primary microglial culture was validated via immunocytochemistry against IBA1 alongside total cell counts from DAPI nuclei staining (97.2±0.3% IBA1-positive cells; Figure 1b). Additionally, consistent with previous descriptions (Saura et al. 2003), the majority of the microglia showed a typical elongated morphology (bipolar or unipolar), with a small proportion of ameboid cells. In order to validate the capacity of the microglial culture to be polarized in the direction of either the pro- or anti- inflammatory phenotype, LPS or IL4 was applied respectively, and expression of typical proinflammatory (*Tnf* and *II1b*) or anti-inflammatory (*Arg1* and *Tgfb1*) genes were analyzed via RT-qPCR (Figure 1c). Microglia without LPS expressed low transcriptional levels of *Tnf* and *ll1b*; while with LPS treatment we observed a remarkable increase in the mRNA levels of *Tnf* and *Il1b*, presenting as early as 3 hr after LPS application, and around 100-fold up-regulation of Tnf and 1,500-fold of II1b at 24 hr. In contrast, IL4 treatment induced a significant time-dependent up-regulation of Arg1 and Tgfb1 expression (Figure 1c). Arg1 expression, undetectable in our non-stimulated microglia, reached levels well above detection threshold at 24 hr after IL4 treatment, and by 48 hr expression levels had further doubled. Tgfb1 expression showed upregulation to around 120% of non-stimulated levels at 24 hr and 130% at 48 hr. These expected changes in *Tnf* and *Il1b*, and *Arg1* and *Tgfb1*, serve to validate that LPS and IL4 can be used in this system of primary microglia to promote a pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory fate, respectively.

3.2 Acute *Trem2* knockdown in primary microglia is effective and impairs phagocytosis, validating the preparation

To determine the efficiency of *Trem2* knockdown, BV-2 cells were transfected with different *Trem2* siRNA sequences plus Lipofectamine. Transfected cells were collected at 24 and 48 hr and assessed for *Trem2* expression levels by RT-qPCR (Figure 2a). Three different siRNA sequences against *Trem2* were tested in parallel to a non-targeting control siRNA. The most effective siRNA (sequence 2) gave >80% knockdown of *Trem2* mRNA levels compared to the non-targeting siRNA control. Thus we chose this sequence for the RNAi experiments in primary microglia. The next most effective siRNA against *Trem2* was sequence 3, giving 50-60% knockdown of *Trem2*; this second siRNA was used to confirm that key findings in the primary microglia were dependent on the levels of *Trem2* expression (Supplementary Figure 2).

The *Trem2* knockdown in the primary microglia performed consistently well (Figure 2b), and an average decrease of 79.2±1.1% in the *Trem2* mRNA levels was obtained. It is, however, interesting to note that basal *Trem2* levels in the primary microglia were very varied but in all cases *Trem2* knockdown was effective.

To assess the effect of *Trem2* knockdown in this system, we initially tested the effects on phagocytosis. Previous studies have already shown impaired phagocytosis in primary microglia isolated from *Trem2* knockout mice and cell lines transfected with FTD-like or AD-associated *TREM2* mutations (Kleinberger et al. 2014) as well as with *Trem2* knockdown in primary microglial culture (Takahashi et al. 2005) or in human microglia-like cells from induced pluripotent stem cells harboring *TREM2* mutations associated with Nasu-Hakola dementia (Garcia-Reitboeck et al. 2018). Here we investigated if acutely induced *Trem2* deficiency via RNAi in the preparation of primary microglia used in the present study showed a similar impairment. A phagocytosis assay was performed 72 hr after siRNA transfection, to test the ability of microglia to phagocytose pHrodo (a pH-sensitive fluorescent dye), conjugated to *E. coli*, followed by quantification of the microglia containing the

fluorescent bacteria in lysosomes by FACS. As a negative control, phagocytosis was inhibited with cytochalasin D (a potent inhibitor of actin polymerization) before addition of *E. coli*. We found that microglia with *Trem2* knockdown showed a significant reduction (48.1±9.1%) of phagocytosis compared to the non-targeting siRNA treated microglia, confirming previous reports and further validating this cell system (Figure 2c).

3.3. Acute *Trem2* knockdown causes transcriptional changes in primary microglia.

To understand the genetic pathways regulated by TREM2, we next investigated the subsequent gene expression changes in microglia caused by Trem2-knockdown. We initially tested canonical microglial marker genes alongside those we previously found to be potentially implicated in AD in the same genetic network as Trem2, following a microarray study of ADassociated mouse models (Matarin et al. 2015), or genes that have been implicated in AD. We initially observed that *Trem2* knockdown was accompanied by decreased expression of the microglial marker Aif1 compared to the control-treated group within each culture preparation (Figure 3). Note that, as these are almost pure microglia cultures, as outlined above, the decrease in *Aif1* expression relative to the housekeeping gene represents a decrease on average per microglial cell rather than a decrease in the number of microglia, although this may also occur. This decreased level of Aif1 expression relative to the housekeeping gene in Trem2 knockdown microglia is consistent with previous evidence that Aif1 is involved in phagocytosis (Ohsawa et al. 2000). We then found that *Trem2* knockdown resulted in a significant down-regulation of a number of microglial genes at 72 hr after siRNA transfection including C1qa, Cd68, Csf1r, Igf1, Pik3cg, Spi1, Tnf and Tgfb1 (Figure 3), suggesting that Trem2 is required to maintain the levels of these genes under non-stimulated conditions in vitro. It is interesting to note that Csf1 receptor is known as a survival and developmental factor for microglia (Elmore et al. 2014; Ginhoux et al. 2010), and so this could be associated with a decreased survival of microglia after *Trem2* knockdown. Interestingly, we saw that the levels of some microglial-specific genes such as

Plcg2 and *II1b* were not significantly altered when *Trem2* expression was knocked down, indicating that *Trem2* is not required to maintain the expression of all microglial gene expression. Overall, acute *Trem2* knockdown produced a significant change in the gene expression profile of microglia under non-stimulated conditions, which might result in a shift of the microglial functional phenotype.

3.4. LPS stimulation dramatically suppresses *Trem2* gene expression in primary microglia.

An important outstanding question is how *Trem2* is regulated; our previous work in transgenic mouse models associated with AD showed that the expression levels of *Trem2* were increased up to 6-fold in tight correlation with amyloid pathology (Matarin et al. 2015). To begin to investigate how Trem2 expression is regulated, microglia were stimulated with LPS to induce classical pro-inflammatory responses. We first found that, in the control cells, LPS treatment strongly down-regulated *Trem2* expression (Figure 4a), which was consistent with the previous findings in primary mixed glial cell cultures and peritoneal macrophage cell cultures (Schmid et al. 2002) and primary microglia (Owens et al. 2017). The time course analysis showed that the Trem2 expression started to drop to around 90% of the levels measured in non-stimulated cells from as early as 3 hr after LPS addition, and then continued decreasing and reached levels as low as 10% of non-stimulated levels by 24 hr. This suggests that pro-inflammatory conditions inhibit microglial Trem2 expression, which might result in a state of temporary or chronic 'TREM2-deficiency' in microglia.

The expression levels of *Tnf* and *ll1b*, two typical pro-inflammatory markers, were greatly increased in our LPS-treated microglia from as early as 3 hr after LPS application. As expected, considering so little *Trem2* remained under these conditions, knockdown of *Trem2* had little effect on LPS-induced gene expression with up-regulation of *Tnf* or *ll1b* being unchanged at the transcriptional level with *Trem2* knockdown compared to control cultures

(Figure 4b). It is, however, interesting to note that the up-regulation of *Tnf* and *Il1b* happened considerably more rapidly than the down-regulation of *Trem2*, with *Trem2* knockdown not affecting the dramatic increase in expression of these genes at 3 hr when *Trem2* was only slightly affected by LPS treatment. This may suggest that these pathways are unconnected under these conditions. We further investigated whether the protein level of TNF-alpha released from the microglia 24 hours after LPS treatment was affected by acute *Trem2* knockdown. Consistent with the transcriptional results, ELISA analysis of the microglial-conditioned medium showed that LPS strongly up-regulated microglial TNF-alpha production, but there was no significant change caused by *Trem2* knockdown (Figure 4c).

Considering the time-dependent knockdown of *Trem2* by LPS, we were interested to investigate the effects of this pro-inflammatory treatment on the genes that we had previously tested for effects of Trem2 knockdown under non-stimulated conditions (Figure 4d). Genes such as C1ga and Igf1 showed a similar pattern of significant time-dependent down-regulation to that of Trem2 with LPS stimulation. Expression of Cd68 and Csf1r, which were strongly down-regulated by siRNA-induced knockdown of Trem2 showed a trend towards also being down-regulated in response to the LPS stimulation. In contrast, expression of the Spi1 (PU.1) transcription factor in the microglia with LPS showed at least a 3.5-fold increase in levels compared to that in the control group, which was observed to start as soon as 3 hr after application, and maintained until at least 24 hr. Spi1 expression levels were decreased by *Trem2* knockdown, regardless of the LPS-treatment. *Aif1* expression was also increased by LPS stimulation but this only occurred after 24 hours and was again independent of Trem2 knockdown. Pik3cg expression also tended to be up-regulated with LPS, and again Trem2 knockdown significantly decreased Pik3cg expression independent of LPS. Our data with Spi1, Aif1 and Pik3cg suggest that these genes were partially regulated by TREM2, as seen when Trem2 is knocked down, but can still be induced independently of TREM2 under the condition of LPS treatment, when there is little remaining *Trem2* expression. Together, these data suggest that a major effect of proinflammatory LPS stimulation in primary microglia is suppression of *Trem2*

expression. In general, the other LPS-dependent effects on gene expression studied here were apparently independent of *Trem2* expression. However, considering the decreased expression of *Trem2* under pro-inflammatory conditions, it is not surprising that siRNA-induced knockdown of *Trem2* had little additional effect. It is possible that *Trem2* regulates expression of these genes and that these effects were thus dependent on the fact that *Trem2* levels were suppressed by LPS.

3.5. Trem2 is involved in microglial anti-inflammatory responses with IL4

Next we studied the effect of acute Trem2 knockdown on the alternative antiinflammatory activation of microglia. IL4 was applied to the cells that had previously been treated either with siRNA against *Trem2* or the non-targeting siRNA, and cells were analyzed at 24 hr and 48 hr after IL4 addition. We first found that microglial Trem2 expression upon IL4 treatment was maintained at a similar level to that under the basal condition (Figure 5a). As expected, the Trem2 knockdown group showed significantly lower levels of Trem2 than the control group. We next investigated two anti-inflammatory markers Arg1 and Tgfb1 (Figure 5b). The Arg1 gene expression was undetectable under nonstimulated conditions by RT-qPCR. Upon IL4 treatment, Arg1 expression was detectable and showed a time-dependent up-regulation; however, this upregulation was considerably decreased in the Trem2-knockdown group (twoway ANOVA: interaction between main effects of Trem2 knockdown and IL4 treatment, p=0.05). The Tgfb1 expression also showed an increase with IL4 stimulation, however, in contrast to Arg1 the effect of Trem2 knockdown and IL4 showed no interaction.

We went on to compare the effect of the anti-inflammatory stimulus on the gene expression levels of pro-inflammatory markers *Tnf* and *Il1b* (Figure 5c). In contrast to the effect described above for the inflammatory LPS stimulus, the anti-inflammatory IL4 treatment decreased expression of both markers (two-way ANOVA: main effect for IL4 treatment, p<0.001 for *Tnf*, and p<0.01 for *Il1b*). In the case of *Tnf*, the knockdown of *Trem2* also decreased

expression levels but in an IL4-independent manner. In contrast *Trem2* knockdown had no significant effect on *II1b* expression. Collectively, the IL4-induced microglial response was accompanied by stable *Trem2* expression, and suppressing *Trem2* mRNA levels via RNAi resulted in attenuation of at least part of the anti-inflammatory pathways, which led to a pronounced inhibition of *Arg1* up-regulation. Together these results suggest that *Trem2* tends to push the microglia towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype while a pro-inflammatory stimulus prevents this drive by decreasing *Trem2* expression thus shifting the balance further towards pro-inflammation.

Next, to understand which other genetic pathways are regulated by TREM2 in anti-inflammatory conditions, we investigated the expression of the genes tested previously, but now in response to IL4 (Figure 6). Expression of C1ga, Cd68 and lgf1 were all found to be significantly up-regulated with IL4 treatment, with tendencies for Csf1r and Spi1 also to increase with IL4, which is similar to what we saw in transgenic mice in correlation with plague load (Matarin et al. 2015; www.mouseac.org). Neither Aif1 nor Plcg2 expression were changed with IL4. Interestingly, the expression of all of these genes was significantly lower in cells with acute Trem2 knockdown, and was not dependent on IL4 stimulation (no significant interaction of knockdown versus IL4). These data together suggest that the effect of TREM2 on the microglial gene expression profile pushes microglia towards an anti-inflammatory phenotype. However the lack of interaction between the effects of Trem2 knockdown and IL4 on expression of most of these genes (except Arg1) suggests that the effects on these genes are independent parallel pathways which have similar endpoints. Interestingly, the effects of IL4 stimulation on gene expression mimic the changes seen in association with plaque development in transgenic mice where Trem2 levels are also strongly increased, whereas the pro-inflammatory effects of LPS have the opposite effect.

3.6. TREM2 is involved in maintaining normal STAT6 levels in microglia

As microglial Arg1 up-regulation caused by IL4 stimulation interacted with and was largely suppressed by acute Trem2 knockdown, we next investigated whether there was an intersection between the IL4 and TREM2 pathways. The phosphorylation of the transcription factor STAT6 is a key step downstream in the IL4 cascade that leads to Arg1 expression (Gordon and Martinez 2010; Luzina et al. 2012; Nelms et al. 1999). We thus performed western blotting to test whether total or phosphorylated levels of STAT6 were changed in primary microglia with acute Trem2 knockdown with or without IL4 stimulation (Figure 7a and 7b). We found a slight but significant IL4-induced increase in STAT6 levels but, independent of IL4, knockdown of Trem2 caused a substantial decrease of the STAT6 total protein levels in the microglia (two-way ANOVA: main effect of IL4-treatment, p<0.05; main effect of Trem2 knockdown, p<0.0001, no interaction). IL4 caused robust phosphorylation of STAT6, with phosphorylated STAT6 not detectable in the absence of IL4 but clearly measurable 48 hr after IL4 treatment. Trem2 knockdown also decreased the total levels of phosphorylated STAT6 but this could be explained by a decrease in the overall levels of STAT6 rather than an effect on phosphorylation per se. The expression level of the Stat6 gene was also decreased with Trem2 knockdown (Figure 7c), and so confirms the decreased levels of the translated protein. These results suggest that TREM2 deficiency leads to a smaller STAT6 pool in microglia, resulting in decreased amount of phosphorylated STAT6 upon IL4 stimulation. This is consistent with the decrease in IL4-induced Arg1 expression caused by reduced STAT6dependent microglial gene transcription in response to decreased Trem2 expression.

TREM2 signaling is also mediated by the PI3K/AKT pathway (Paradowska-Gorycka and Jurkowska 2013; Zheng et al. 2017), and so we also investigated the effects of *Trem2* knockdown on the AKT signaling in primary microglia (Figure 7d and 7e). Different from the decrease of total STAT6 protein levels, the total AKT protein level was not significantly affected by *Trem2* knockdown, although there was a slight increase in AKT levels in

response to IL4 treatment. We then tested activation of AKT, and found that AKT phosphorylation at both Thr308 and Ser473 relative to total AKT was significantly reduced in *Trem2* knockdown microglia (two-way ANOVA: main effect of *Trem2* knockdown, p<0.01 for phosphoT308-AKT and p<0.05 for phosphoS473-AKT), and this was independent of IL4 stimulation (no interaction between knockdown and IL4). This is not surprising considering that PI3K-AKT signaling is downstream of TREM2, but the unchanged total AKT level suggests that the STAT6 change is not due to general changes in the health and metabolic status of microglia in our cultures.

3.7. Decreased microglial density and down-regulated *Trem2* expression in the hippocampus of *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice

The RNAi strategy allowed us to investigate the general effects of acute Trem2 'loss-of-function'. As the risk of AD in humans is greatly increased by variants in the TREM2 gene, we then aimed to test the effect of the most common of these variants, the R47H mutation, and compare its effects to those of Trem2 knockdown. We thus employed mice with knock-in of a R47H point mutation into the endogenous mouse *Trem2* gene (Jackson Laboratory, stock # 27918) to study whether the AD-related variant R47H caused similar changes in gene expression, and pro- or anti-inflammatory responses to the RNAi-mediated 'loss-of-function'. The primary effect in these *Trem2* R47H KI mice was a substantial gene dose-related decrease in Trem2 expression in hippocampal tissue from the mice (Figure 8a). This has subsequently been shown to be due to a splice effect that seems to occur in mice but not in humans (Xiang et al. 2018). Reduced expression of *Trem2* was also seen in an independently generated Trem2 R47H KI model (Cheng-Hathaway et al. 2018). We can thus consider this R47H mouse line as a good model for verifying the effects of Trem2 down-regulation in vivo to compare to our findings with RNAi-mediated knockdown of *Trem2* presented above. While the down-regulation of the gene together with the mutation is less than ideal for studying the effect of the R47H mutation, comparison of the two models can also give initial information on this subject.

In the first instance we investigated the effect of the knockdown in whole tissue from the mouse brain. Considering the decrease in *Csf1r* due to *Trem2* knockdown in the microglial cultures, we hypothesized that microglial numbers and survival may be affected in the *Trem2* R47H mice. To this end, we quantified microglial density in different layers of the hippocampal CA1 region at 4 months of age, using immunohistochemistry with an antibody against IBA1, and found that homozygous Trem2 R47H KI mice displayed a significant decrease in the number of microglia compared to WT mice, which was consistent in all four CA1 layers (two-way ANOVA: main effect of genotype p<0.01; Figure 8b and 8c). Interestingly, we also observed a significant decrease of CD68 positive microglia in the homozygous *Trem2* R47H mice (two-way ANOVA: main effect of genotype p<0.0001). This change was not primarily due to the total microglia number change because the proportion of CD68 positive microglia also showed a substantial decrease (two-way ANOVA: main effect of genotype p<0.001; Figure 8b and 8c). CD68 (macrosialin) is a lysosomal glycoprotein associated with phagocytosis (Holness and Simmons 1993; Saito et al. 1991). This result suggests that, in addition to slightly reduced microglial density in the hippocampus of homozygous Trem2 R47H mice, phagocytosis would also be reduced in the surviving microglia. This is consistent with our findings above of reduced phagocytosis in cultured microglia following *Trem2* knockdown.

We assessed the microglial activation status in the hippocampus of R47H *Trem2* KI mice at 4 months of age by investigating the expression of a battery of microglial genes covering pro- and anti-inflammatory functions, and other microglial processes (Figure 8a). Overall, at 4 months of age, a number of genes, shown to be dependent on *Trem2* expression from our knockdown studies above, did not show any significant difference in the hippocampus of the *Trem2* R47H KI mice compared to WT siblings, such as *Aif1*, *Cd68*, *Igf1*, *Csf1r* and *Stat6* relative to the *Rps28* housekeeping gene (Figure 8a). It is important to note that in the hippocampal tissue, the gene expression in microglia is greatly diluted by the much greater contribution of other cell types and so small changes in gene expression will be much more difficult to detect

than in the primary microglia cultures. However part of the difference is likely also to come from the moderating effects of the mixed cell environment and the activation state of the microglia under these conditions. In summary, the *Trem2* R47H KI mice showed that reduced *Trem2* expression resulted in predominantly a phenotype of a slight but significant decrease in microglial numbers and also lower CD68-positive microglia in the CNS environment of healthy young adult mice. This may prime the mouse for neurodegeneration later in life with aging or other environmental factors.

3.8. Down-regulated *Trem2* expression and impaired *Arg1* induction in primary microglia from *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice

Next, to separate the microglia from other cell types and to compare the effects on gene expression of acute *Trem2* knockdown with siRNA described above to decreased expression throughout the life of the mouse, without the need for transfection, microglia isolated from the *Trem2* R47H mice were stimulated towards a pro- versus anti-inflammatory fate as above. Again, the primary effect in the microglia from the R47H KI mice was a substantial gene dose-related decrease in *Trem2* expression, relative to *Rps28* (Figure 9a), with the microglia isolated from the homozygous *Trem2* R47H mice expressing very similar levels of *Trem2* to the microglia from WT mice after knockdown of *Trem2*, or in the hippocampal tissue from these mice. Also as before, we observed a strong down-regulation of microglial *Trem2* expression in response to LPS treatment, and conversely maintenance of *Trem2* expression with IL4 treatment, which was consistent with our RNAi experiments.

We next investigated whether the decreased expression in microglia from the R47H KI mice caused changes to gene expression in relation to LPS or IL4 treatment. With most genes tested the results obtained were compatible with the effects of the acute siRNA-induced *Trem2* knockdown, described above (Figure 9b, 9c and 10). For LPS treatment the one exception was *Tnf.* In contrast to the acute RNAi experiments in which *Tnf* expression was

dramatically increased but with no effect of *Trem2* knockdown, significant changes were seen between the WT and Trem2 R47H KI mice. After LPS treatment, heterozygous microglia carrying one allele of the Trem2 R47H showed significantly higher Tnf levels compared to WT and homozygous Trem2 R47H-derived microglia. However as the homozygous R47H cells showed a tendency for reduced *Tnf* expression in non-stimulated conditions, we calculated the fold-change in *Tnf* up-regulation in response to LPS and found that the up-regulation was significantly increased for the homozygous R47H cells (around 200-fold increase) compared to WT (around 150-fold increase). The expression levels for *II1b* also showed a significant increase in response to LPS, as above, but in this case there was no significant effect of genotype, and so we saw a similar fold-change in *II1b* up-regulation evoked by LPS for the WT and R47H variant microglia (around 800-fold increase). The difference in the pro-inflammatory gene response to LPS between the Trem2 knockdown and R47H-carrying cells suggests that either the R47H mutation causes an additional effect to the knockdown or the microglia expressing decreased *Trem2* levels throughout life *in vivo* may, once cultured outside the brain, be more prone to becoming pro-inflammatory. Either way the microglia from the R47H Trem2 KI mice are able to respond to the proinflammatory LPS stimulus similarly to the WT mice or to mice with RNAiinduced knockdown, but may also show a slightly enhanced pro-inflammatory response for some markers.

In terms of genes that are induced by the IL4 anti-inflammatory stimulus, results were again generally similar to the effect of RNAi-induced knockdown. *Arg1* expression was strongly increased by IL4 treatment and the decreased *Trem2* expression in the microglia from *Trem2* R47H KI mice significantly prevented this change in a gene dose-dependent manner (Figure 9c, one-way ANOVA: main effect of genotype p=0.002, Sidak's multiple comparisons: p=0.08 for WT versus heterozygous, and p=0.01 for WT versus homozygous). The other anti-inflammatory marker *Tgfb1* was significantly decreased in homozygous *Trem2* R47H microglia independent of IL4-treatment, and the fold-change in *Tgfb1* up-regulation in response to treatment was similar for WT and homozygous R47H cells. These findings suggest that separate

mechanisms regulate basal levels of some genes like *Tgfb1* (which may be *Trem2*-dependent at least in part), compared to mechanisms that regulate levels following induction (which can be *Trem2*-independent). Overall, the LPS-induced pro-inflammatory response was largely unaffected in the microglia carrying *Trem2* R47H alleles, but some aspects of the anti-inflammatory response to IL4 showed strong impairment with decreased *Trem2* expression, consistent between the *Trem2* knockdown and knock-in experiments.

Similarly to the *Trem2* knockdown experiments, other genes for which expression was increased in response to IL4 in, such as *Igf1*, *Cd68* and *C1qa*, showed decreased expression in the homozygous Trem2 R47H microglia, regardless of IL4-treatment (Figure 10; two-way ANOVA: main effect of IL4treatment, and main effect of *Trem2* genotype, but no interaction for *Igf1*, Cd68 and C1ga). As with the RNAi experiments, LPS decreased the expression of Igf1, Cd68 and C1ga. As above, all expression data was normalized to Rps28. Next we saw that Aif1 expression was also decreased in the homozygous R47H microglia relative to both WT and heterozygous R47H cells as in our knockdown experiments above (Figure 10). Note the heterozygous R47H microglia showed no changes in Aif1 levels despite a significant reduction in Trem2 expression suggesting this effect requires a certain threshold of knockdown. Expression of Csf1r and Plcg2 were also both significantly decreased in the microglia from the Trem2 R47H KI mice. However, for these genes the effect of genotype was already apparent in the cells from heterozygous R47H KI mice, independent of the presence of IL4 or LPS (Figure 10; two-way ANOVA: main effect of treatment, and main effect of Trem2 genotype, but no interaction for Csf1r and Plcg2). Similarly to the siRNA knockdown experiments and in contrast to Igf1, Cd68 and C1qa, expression of Csf1r was not affected by IL4, but was decreased by LPS (Figure 10; two-way ANOVA: main effect of LPS-treatment, and main effect of Trem2 genotype, no interaction). In the case of Plcg2, the IL4 treatment caused a small but significant decrease in Plcg2 expression compared to controls which was not evident in the knockdown experiment (two-way ANOVA: main effect of IL4-treatment, and main effect of *Trem2* genotype, no

interaction). Unlike all the other genes tested, *Plcg2* expression was increased by LPS (two-way ANOVA: main effect of LPS-treatment, and main effect of *Trem2* genotype, no interaction). These findings confirm that decreased expression of *Trem2* in the R47H KI mice, similarly to the siRNA knockdown model, tend to make *Trem2* less effective in pushing the microglia to an anti-inflammatory phenotype compared to wild-type *Trem2*. While this is mostly because of a decrease in expression of *Trem2*, some additional mutation-specific effects may enhance the pro-inflammatory phenotype, with *Tnf* being a particular case in point.

4. Discussion

4.1. *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice can largely be considered a model of *in vivo Trem2* down-regulation

Of the many genes that have been revealed in GWAS to increase the risk of AD, variants of *TREM2* have high odds ratios. The most common of these is the R47H mutation. We thus aimed to investigate the effect of this mutation in Trem2 R47H KI mice. However in the present study we find that the primary phenotype of these mice both in primary microglial cultures and in brain tissue is a substantial gene-dose-dependent decrease in the expression of *Trem2* compared to WT mice. This effect has recently been described by Cheng-Hathaway et al. (2018) and Xiang et al. (2018) studying the same mouse line used here from the Jackson Laboratory, and an independent Trem2 R47H KI mouse line. This does not occur in human tissue with this mutation but appears to be a mouse specific effect related to altered splicing. Hence we can largely consider these mice as a model of Trem2 down-regulation allowing us to validate our siRNA data in primary microglia and investigate the effect of Trem2 down-regulation in vivo. Any differences between the siRNA and Trem2 R47H KI data may give initial clues to the effect of the mutation but this could also be due to the difference between expression throughout life in vivo versus acute transfection of the cells with siRNA. By investigating microglial density in fixed brains from the Trem2 R47H mice, we saw a decrease in the density of microglia in vivo in the hippocampus, and that the remaining microglia had dramatically reduced CD68 protein levels. This raises the question as to whether any other changes that we found in *Trem2* R47H microglia are directly due to the mutation itself or downstream of its effect on impairing *Trem2* expression, and so we studied in parallel the effect of *Trem2* knockdown using siRNA in primary microglia and compared this to the *Trem2* R47H KI mouse phenotype.

4.2. siRNA-induced knockdown of *Trem2* largely mimics the *Trem2* R47H phenotype in non-stimulated conditions

Knockdown of *Trem2* in the primary microglia transfected with siRNA showed similar effects to those seen in microglia from the Trem2 R47H KI mice. In both preparations Csf1r expression was decreased. Pharmacological blockade of CSF1 receptors has been shown to impair microglial survival and can completely remove microglia from the mouse brain (Dagher et al. 2015; Elmore et al. 2014; Olmos-Alonso et al. 2016). These findings together with the decreased density of microglia in the hippocampus of *Trem2* R47H mice, makes it likely that the decrease in Csf1r expression in the microglia with decreased *Trem2* expression contributes to reduced survival of microglia. The knockdown of Trem2 decreasing survival or altering the metabolism of microglia is consistent with previous studies (Ulland et al. 2017; Wang et al. 2015; Wu et al. 2015; Zheng et al. 2017). Interestingly no difference in Csf1r expression was seen in the remaining microglia in the brain tissue from the young adult KI mice, possibly suggesting different populations of microglia with loss of those more vulnerable to the effects of *Trem2* knockdown than others, at least in whole tissue. Differences in gene expression profiles of different microglial populations have been recently described using single cell RNA-seq (Hammond et al. 2018; Keren-Shaul et al. 2017).

Igf1 expression was also decreased when Trem2 expression was knocked-down or if the Trem2 R47H variant was carried by the primary microglial cultures. Igf1 is abundantly expressed by microglia during postnatal development, aging, or following brain injuries and plays a vital role in promoting neuronal survival (Fernandez and Torres-Aleman 2012; Kohman et al. 2012; Thored et al. 2009; Ueno et al. 2013). While this may not affect microglial survival as the IGF1 receptor is found largely on neurons, it could contribute to neurodegeneration, being an important factor in neuronal survival and lifespan across many species (Broughton and Partridge 2009). These findings, in line with previous studies (Arkins et al. 1995; Barrett et al. 2015; Suh et al. 2013; Wynes and Riches 2003), show that Igf1 expression is inhibited by pro-inflammatory stimuli and enhanced in anti-inflammatory

environments. Thus, the *Igf1* expression decrease caused by *Trem2* deficiency may suggest a microglial phenotype shift towards pro-inflammatory activation and away from non-inflammatory, and a decrease of the prosurvival role of IGF1 on neurons. In both the human disease and in transgenic mouse models of AD, microglia have greatly increased levels of *Trem2* (Cheng-Hathaway et al. 2018; Jay et al. 2015; Lue et al. 2015; Ma et al. 2016; Melchior et al. 2010; Song et al. 2018) and this is strongly correlated with plaque load (Matarin et al. 2015). It has been reported that the microglia specifically clustering around the plaques and associated with AD have considerably higher *Igf1* expression than those distant from plaques (Kamphuis et al. 2012; Keren-Shaul et al. 2017), and the present data confirm that this is likely an effect of the higher *Trem2* expression.

4.3. *Trem2* knockdown decreases the effects of the anti-inflammatory stimulus IL4 by decreasing levels of the transcription factor STAT6

In this study we have further investigated the role of TREM2 and effects on *Trem2* expression in microglia polarized to anti-inflammatory or pro-inflammatory phenotypes. Our results suggest that there is cross-talk between the TREM2 and anti-inflammatory IL4 signaling pathways, in that TREM2 knockdown decreases levels of the STAT6 transcription factor, which is downstream of IL4 (Ohmori and Hamilton 2000). As the IL4-induced *Arg1* up-regulation is critically dependent on phosphorylation of STAT6 (Gray et al. 2005), this thus suggests that TREM2 signaling functions in parallel to support IL4-induced STAT6-gene transcription by supporting overall levels of STAT6. Decreased *Trem2* expression in both primary microglia models resulted in a decrease in IL4-induced *Arg1* expression.

ARG1 is an important anti-inflammatory marker induced upon IL4 stimulation. ARG1 in myeloid cells mainly functions as an enzyme to hydrolyze arginine to produce ornithine, which both promotes tissue repair through generation of polyamines and collagens, and also reduces nitric oxide production from inducible nitric oxide synthase through decreasing intracellular arginine availability (Mills et al. 2000; Modolell et al. 1995; Yang and Ming 2014). Our

findings in cultured primary microglia suggest an attenuated anti-inflammatory phenotype with reduced expression of *Trem2*, with both the RNAi and the *Trem2* R47H mutation substantially inhibiting this IL4-induced microglial response (Figure 11).

It has also been suggested in macrophages that STAT6 is essential for IL4-mediated up-regulation of *Igf1* expression (Wynes and Riches 2003). While there is a decrease in *Igf1* expression in the cultured microglia in this present study, this is independent of IL4, occurring also under control conditions when *Trem2* is knocked down. Therefore, it is possible that the decrease in *Igf1* in the *Trem2*-deficient microglia results from decreased STAT6 levels.

In hippocampal homogenates from young adult *Trem2* R47H mice, we did not see differences in expression of the genes we studied, including Stat6 and Igf1, despite a slight but significant reduction in the number of microglia. Lack of gene expression changes in vivo may be due to a supportive environment from healthy neurons and astrocytes, providing regulating input to the microglia in young mice. Other studies have not revealed obvious phenotypes in young *Trem2* R47H expressing mice, or even *Trem2* knockout mice, unless they are bred to amyloid mouse models (Song et al. 2018), and so future studies need to characterize these pathways in Trem2 R47H mice crossed with amyloid models, or in aged mice. The effects seen in the primary cultured microglia probably reflect a different mean activation state from microglia in the brain environment. However the pathway interactions described here between *Trem2* expression and other genes, in primary microglial cultures, nevertheless reflects effects that *Trem2* can have under particular conditions. This also applies to the relationship between Trem2 expression and the IL4induction of *Arg1* expression putatively via STAT6.

4.4. Pro-inflammatory stimuli prevent the effects of TREM2 by inhibiting its expression, similar to the effect seen in microglia from *Trem2* R47H KI mice

With LPS stimulation, primary microglia from WT mice exhibited a robust proinflammatory response in microglia, as measured by strong up-regulation of Tnf and II1b expression (Figure 11). In contrast IL4 stimulation had little effect on Trem2 expression. In agreement with previous findings (Owens et al. 2017), LPS largely suppressed *Trem2* expression with a decrease in expression beginning as early as 3 hr after LPS application and reaching more than an 85% decrease by 24 hr. This finding is consistent with previous studies showing that LPS/IFNy stimulation down-regulated *Trem2* expression via TLR4 receptors in cell lines and primary cultures microglia/macrophages and also in mouse brains (Owens et al. 2017; Schmid et al. 2002; Turnbull et al. 2006; Zheng et al. 2016). Moreover, Owens and colleagues (2017) showed that treatment with pro-inflammatory mediators engaging other Toll-like receptors (TLRs) also suppressed *Trem2* expression in the BV-2 cell line, albeit with slightly different potency. This suggests that the Trem2 down-regulation is not specific to LPS-TLR4 signaling but perhaps a common event occurring in microglial induced by various classical proinflammatory stimuli. While, under conditions of Trem2 knockdown, the levels of expression were even lower after 24 hr exposure to LPS, it is not surprising that this additional knockdown had little effect on the expression of LPSinduced gene expression as so little *Trem2* expression remained, even in the control microglia. Hence, in conditions of *Trem2* knockdown, very similar LPSinduced up-regulation of *Tnf* and *ll1b* expression resulted. It was interesting to note however that in the microglia originating from *Trem2* R47H KI mice with a similar level of *Trem2* down-regulation that there was about a 30% increase in the activation of *Tnf* compared to WT mice possibly suggesting that the Trem2 R47H mutation further enhances this effect. There are other possible explanations for this difference however as the down-regulation of *Trem2* in these mice is present throughout life and so these microglia may have a different state when isolated than those in which Trem2 is knocked down acutely.

It has been suggested that the SPI1 transcription factor (PU.1) is responsible for transcription of *Trem2*, at least in the BV-2 cell line (Huang et al. 2017; Satoh et al. 2014), but in our primary microglia, LPS significantly increased the expression of *Spi1*, whereas *Trem2* expression was strongly suppressed suggesting that, at least in this context, factors other than SPI1 also regulate *Trem2* expression.

Taken together, pro-inflammatory mediators, either locally produced or infiltrating into the CNS from the periphery, could induce down-regulation of microglial Trem2 expression and subsequently induce a microglial state with low TREM2-signaling (Figure 11). This might reflect a mechanism for microglia to perform specific functional requirements under pro-inflammatory conditions. Although, accumulated pro-inflammation and oxidative stress in the brain, which is often observed in aged brains and aged microglia (Godbout et al. 2005; Lee et al. 2000; Prolla 2002; Sierra et al. 2007; Verbitsky et al. 2004), could cause sustained suppression of *Trem2* expression and thus an impairment of TREM2-dependent microglial functions. This might be one of the major mechanisms underlying TREM2 dysfunction that contributes to sporadic AD progression with advanced age, since TREM2 variants associated with increased AD risk are extremely rare in frequency in humans (Guerreiro et al. 2013b). It is, however, important to note that, in conditions of decreased Trem2 expression in the Trem2 R47H KI mice, the number of IBA1-positive mouse microglia was decreased in hippocampal sections. However, when Trem2 was almost completely inhibited by the proinflammatory stimulus, this does not result in obvious changes in Aif1 expression, suggesting that under these conditions additional factors control Aif1 expression in individual microglia and this could prevent a loss of microglia from undermining the pro-inflammatory response. Moreover increased Trem2 expression as occurs in Alzheimer's disease (Cheng-Hathaway et al. 2018; Jay et al. 2015; Lue et al. 2015; Ma et al. 2016; Melchior et al. 2010; Song et al. 2018) could protect the brain from the damaging effects of inflammation.

4.5. Functions of TREM2 in Alzheimer's disease and the effect of the R47H mutation

Recent important studies have also shown that the R47H variant of Trem2 acts by loss-of-function and impairs the microglial response to amyloid pathology by regulating microglial number around plaques and microglial activity, but anti-inflammatory signaling was not studied (Cheng-Hathaway et al. 2018; Song et al. 2018). Thus, an important issue about microglial activation in vivo has to be carefully considered: in contrast to populations of microglia polarized with purified LPS or IL4 stimuli in vitro, microglia in vivo probably never receive such simple stimuli to govern their activation status or at least not across the whole population. Instead, they are modulated by mixed cues including various regulatory signals from the local environment (e.g. from neurons and astrocytes), which could possibly lead to a more mixed, dynamic and context-dependent microglial phenotype in vivo. There is increasing evidence that reactive microglia in diseased brains demonstrate a mixed phenotype with expression of both pro- and anti-inflammatory markers, even at the single-cell level, rather than completely reproducing the phenotype obtained from homogenous in vitro polarization studies (Chiu et al. 2013; Holtman et al. 2015; Kim et al. 2016; Morganti et al. 2016). Indeed, a recent study identified a unique transcriptional signature in phagocytic microglia associated with amyloid plaques, which was in part dependent on Trem2 and included Igf1 and Csf1 (Keren-Shaul et al. 2017). Therefore, we are cautious in directly applying the *in vitro* phenotype to interpretation of *in* vivo microglial activation. However, we propose pro- and anti-inflammatory stimuli still represent an important part of the driving factors determining where in the entire multidimensional continuum of microglial activation microglia fall and understanding their effects separately and without the influence of other cell types may help to differentiate possible methods for moderating function in disease.

Thus, to study the relevance of TREM2 in regulating microglial activation, we used the polarization experiments to dissect the reaction of microglia in response to either pro- or anti-inflammatory stimuli and investigate the effects

of Trem2 deficiency in each direction. Overall, our data shows that decreased expression of Trem2 has acute and chronic effects on a subset of noninflammatory functions in microglial cells that overlap with IL4 antiinflammatory signaling (Figure 11). Moreover, *Trem2* seems to support the survival of microglia at least in part via expression of the Csf1r. Interestingly, when we tested expression of genes that show substantial changes in transgenic mice associated with AD (Matarin et al. 2015) a number of aspects of gene expression were mimicked by anti-inflammatory IL4 stimulation, whereas the pro-inflammatory effects of LPS had the opposite effect, leading to almost complete down-regulation of *Trem2* expression. This suggests that the very strong microglial response to plaque deposition that we have previously reported in transgenic mice (Matarin et al. 2015), particularly the up to 6-fold increase in Trem2 expression, is a protective anti-inflammatory response that may contribute to the resistance of mice with a heavy amyloid load from developing the full AD pathology of Tau tangles and neurodegeneration. The balance of anti-inflammatory and pro-inflammatory phenotype is very likely related to the balance between microglia protecting against or exacerbating the progression of AD. Generally, Trem2 seems to enhance the anti-inflammatory phenotype protecting against disease progression and moreover may increase the number of protective microglia. Pro-inflammatory stimuli inhibit this effect by down-regulating the expression of *Trem2*. Although in this study, the down-regulation of *Trem2* expression in the *Trem2* R47H KI mice which is not reflected in humans with this mutation, means that we can conclude little about the effect of the R47H mutation itself. this is nevertheless a model for loss of function of Trem2 and validates our findings on the effects of siRNA-induced knockdown. Our findings are thus compatible with increased expression of TREM2 in Alzheimer's disease having a protective function slowing disease progression and hence loss of function due to the presence of the Trem2 R47H mutation increasing the chance of AD reaching the stage of diagnosis. Further work into the molecular pathways regulated by TREM2, particularly the cross-talk with antiinflammatory pathways, may provide important insights for therapeutic approaches.

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Figure legends

FIGURE 1. Establishing the *in vitro* primary microglial model of acute *Trem2* knockdown.

(a) Schedule of the *in vitro Trem2* knockdown experiment, and treatment with LPS or IL4. (b) Left panel: primary microglia stained with an antibody against IBA1 and DAPI. Right panel: a higher-magnification image showing the morphology of microglia *in vitro*. (c) Pro- and anti-inflammatory gene expression changes in primary microglia with either LPS or IL4 treatment. N=3-6 independent experiments. Data shown as mean ± SEM.

FIGURE 2. Trem2 knockdown induced impaired phagocytosis in primary microglia. (a) Comparison of Trem2 knockdown in the presence of 3 siRNA sequences vs. non-targeting siRNA in BV-2 cell cultures (N=3). The siRNA No. 2 was chosen for the following in vitro acute Trem2-knockdown experiments due to its high knockdown levels. (b) Trem2 siRNA efficiency tested with RT-qPCR at 72 hr after transfection in primary microglia. N=13 independent cell preparations. (c) Phagocytosis assay was performed using pHrodo-conjugated E. coli and analyzed by FACS. As a negative control, phagocytosis was inhibited with 10 mM cytochalasin D. Left and middle panels: a representative experiment. Left panel: forward (FSC-H) versus side (SSC-H) scatter of light to allow identification of single microglial cells of the expected size and granularity (shown within the blue gate). Middle panel: frequency of microglia containing different levels of phagocytosed fluorescent bacteria. Right panel: phagocytosis in microglia with Trem2 knockdown. N=3 independent experiments. Data shown as mean ± SEM. Paired t-test (paired within each culture preparation); * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

FIGURE 3. Gene expression changes in primary microglia with acute *Trem2* knockdown. The mRNA levels of individual genes at 72 hours post transfection were first normalized to *Rps28*, and then the relative fold change in the knockdown was calculated versus the negative control from the same

batch of cell preparation (shown with a dotted line at 1). N=13 independent cell preparations. Data shown as mean ± SEM. One-sample t-test with Bonferroni correction; * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

FIGURE 4. LPS suppression of *Trem2* expression in primary microglia results in little effect of Trem2 knockdown on LPS-induced gene expression. (a) The effect of LPS on Trem2 expression with and without Trem2 knockdown. Gene expression levels were normalized to Rps28 and calculated as fold change relative to the negative control without LPS treatment in each individual culture preparation. (b) *Tnf* and *Il1b* expression, as examples of pro-inflammatory genes, were greatly up-regulated in primary microglia after LPS application. There was no significant difference between Trem2 knockdown and negative controls. (c) ELISA analysis of the microglial supernatants showed that the secreted TNF-alpha levels in the medium were not significantly affected by Trem2 knockdown. (d) Expression levels (RTqPCR) of C1ga, Cd68, Csf1r, Igf1, Pik3cg and Spi1 under the LPS-stimulated conditions in *Trem2*-knockdown microglia compared to negative controls. N=3-6 (RT-qPCR) and 4 (ELISA) independent microglial preparations. Data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effect of LPS incubation time and Trem2 knockdown indicated as horizontal and vertical lines respectively. The only significant interactions between LPS treatment and Trem2 knockdown were in Trem2 expression (panel a) and Igf1 expression (panel d), and so Sidak's post hoc tests were performed to test pairwise significance between the negative siRNA control and Trem2 knockdown. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.001.

FIGURE 5. *Trem2* knockdown impairs the IL4-induced anti-inflammatory response of primary microglia. (a) *Trem2* gene expression was not significantly influenced by IL4 stimulation. (b) *Arg1* and *Tgfb1* expression, as markers of the anti-inflammatory response, showed significant up-regulation with time after IL4 application. Particularly, *Trem2* knockdown greatly decreased IL4-induced *Arg1* expression compared to negative controls. (c) Expression of the pro-inflammatory genes *Tnf* and *Il1b* were inhibited with time after IL4 application. *Trem2* knockdown resulted in significantly

decreased *Tnf* expression, though it did not change the effect of IL4. Gene expression levels were normalized to *Rps28* and calculated as fold change relative to the negative control without IL4 treatment in each individual culture preparation. N=7-9 independent experiments. Data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effect of IL4 incubation time and *Trem2* knockdown indicated as horizontal and vertical lines respectively. A significant interaction between IL4 treatment and *Trem2* knockdown was seen only in *Arg1* expression (panel b), and so Sidak's *post hoc* tests were performed to test pairwise significance between the negative siRNA control and *Trem2* knockdown. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001.

FIGURE 6. Effects of *Trem2* knockdown on gene expression changes in primary microglia with IL4 treatment. Gene expression levels were normalized to *Rps28* and calculated as fold change relative to the negative control without IL4 treatment in each individual culture preparation. N=7-9 independent experiments. Data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA; significant main effects of IL4 treatment time and *Trem2*-knockdown indicated by horizontal and vertical lines respectively, no significant interactions were seen between IL4 treatment and *Trem2* knockdown. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, **** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001.

FIGURE 7. *Trem2* knockdown resulted in significantly decreased total STAT6 levels and AKT phosphorylation in primary microglia *in vitro*. (a-b) Total and phosphorylated STAT6 protein levels in primary microglia treated with IL4 and *Trem2* siRNA were analyzed with western blot. N=4 independent experiments. (c) *Stat6* gene expression levels in primary microglia, assessed by RT-qPCR (n=3 independent experiments). (d-e) Total and phosphorylated (at Thr308 and Ser473) AKT protein levels analyzed by western blot. N=4 independent experiments. Protein levels were normalized to beta-actin and gene expression was normalized to *Rps28*. Fold change was calculated relative to the negative control without IL4 treatment in each individual culture preparation. Note that phosphorylated STAT6 was not detectable under control conditions and so under IL4 conditions the effect of *Trem2* knockdown was calculated as fold change relative to control cells. Data shown as mean ±

SEM. With the exception of phosphorylated STAT6, data were analyzed by two-way ANOVA; significant main effects of IL4 treatment and *Trem2*-knockdown indicated by horizontal and vertical lines respectively, no significant interactions were seen between IL4 treatment and *Trem2* knockdown. Phosphorylated STAT6 was analyzed by a one-sample t-test. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001.

FIGURE 8. Trem2 R47H knock-in mice (4 months old) showed significant down-regulation of *Trem2* expression, and decreased microglia density and CD68 levels in the hippocampus. (a) Gene expression in hippocampal homogenates from homozygous (HO) and heterozygous (HE) Trem2 R47H KI mice relative to Rps28 and then expressed relative to WT within the batch. N=6-7 mice per group. Data shown as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA showed a significant main effect of genotype for Trem2 expression only, and so Sidak's post hoc tests were used to test pairwise significance between the three genotypes. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001. (b) Representative images showing AIF1 and CD68 immuno-staining of microglia with DAPI in the hippocampal CA1 regions from WT and HO-*Trem2* R47H KI mice. The layers from left are SO (stratum oriens), SP (stratum pyramidale), SR (stratum radiatum), and SLM (stratum lacunosum-moleculare). Scale bar: 100 µm. (c) Left panel: total microglia density in all four CA1 layers was decreased in HO-Trem2 R47H KI mice. Middle panel: density of CD68 positive microglia decreased in HO-Trem2 R47H KI mice. Right panel: proportion of CD68 positive microglia was significantly lower in HO-Trem2 R47H KI mice. N=5-6 mice per group. Data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA with significant main effect of Trem2 genotype indicated with vertical lines, no significant interactions were seen between hippocampal layer and *Trem2* genotype. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, **** p<0.001.

FIGURE 9. Primary microglia from *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice show decreased *Trem2* expression, and changes to canonical markers in response to IL4 and LPS. (a) Expression of *Trem2*. (b) Expression of proinflammatory markers, *Tnf* and *II1b*. (c) Expression of anti-inflammatory markers, *Tgf1b* and *Arg1*. Gene expression was normalized to *Rps28*. Dotted

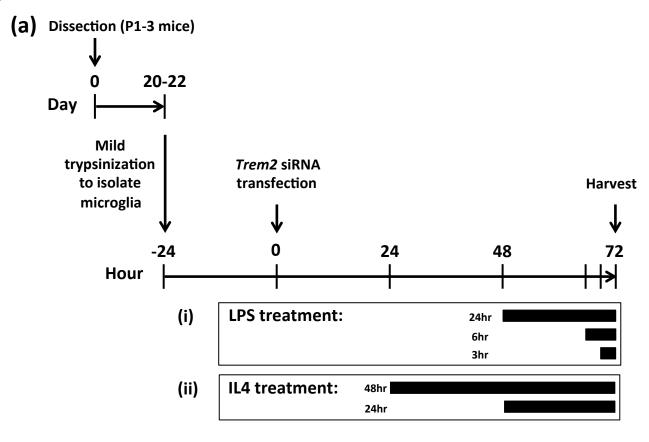
boxes show fold changes relative to untreated microglia. N=14-15 mice per genotype, except for genes II1b and Tgfb1, where N=8-10 mice. Data shown as mean \pm SEM. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction (for all genes except Arg1) were undertaken separately for IL4 and LPS using the same control data. Significant main effect of treatment (IL4 or LPS) and genotype indicated as horizontal and vertical lines respectively. A significant interaction between treatment and genotype was seen for only Trem2 and Tnf expression, and so Sidak's $post\ hoc$ tests were performed to test pairwise significance between the three genotypes within a treatment group, marked above individual groups for Tnf. For Trem2 the interaction reflects a lack of effect of genotype in the LPS treated microglia. Arg1 was analyzed by oneway ANOVA (p = 0.002) followed by Sidak's multiple comparisons to test pairwise significance between the three genotypes. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, **** p<0.001, **** p<0.001.

FIGURE 10. Altered gene expression profile in primary microglia from *Trem2* R47H knock-in mice. Expression of *Aif1*, *Csf1r*, *Plcg2*, *Igf1*, *Cd68* and *C1qa*. Gene expression was normalized to *Rps28*. N=14-15 mice per genotype (except for genes *Igf1*, *Cd68* and *C1qa* where N=8-10 mice). Data shown as mean ± SEM. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction (for all genes except *Arg1*) were undertaken separately for IL4 and LPS using the same control data. Significant main effect of treatment (IL4 or LPS) and genotype indicated as horizontal and vertical lines respectively. A significant interaction between treatment and genotype was seen for only *Igf1* and *C1qa* expression, and so Sidak's *post hoc* tests were performed to test pairwise significance between the three genotypes within a treatment group reflecting a lack of effect of genotype in the LPS treated microglia. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, **** p<0.001, **** p<0.0001.

FIGURE 11. Proposed model of the involvement of TREM2 in IL4-induced anti-inflammatory response. LPS induces pro-inflammatory activation of microglia, which is accompanied by down-regulated *Trem2* expression, and so microglia with reduced TREM2 activity can undergo normal, or even enhanced, pro-inflammatory activation. Under non-stimulated

conditions, a number of microglial genes are down-regulated when TREM2 activity is decreased, such as *Csf1r* expression, which may reduce the survival of microglia. However, IL4 induces an anti-inflammatory phenotype of microglia. As our data suggest, TREM2 signaling is involved in maintenance of microglial STAT6 levels, which in the IL4 pathway is phosphorylated and translocates to the nucleus and functions as a key transcription factor for IL4-induced gene expression changes, such as for *Arg1*. Thus, *Trem2* deficiency results in decreased STAT6 levels in the microglial, which leads to an impairment of IL4-induced signaling. TREM2 also regulates the levels of a number of genes that are up-regulated by IL4 (and suppressed by LPS), such as *Igf1* and *C1qa*.

Figure 1



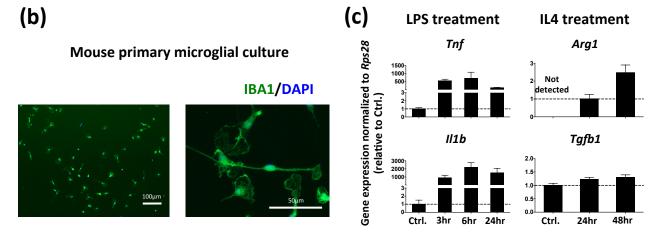


Figure 2

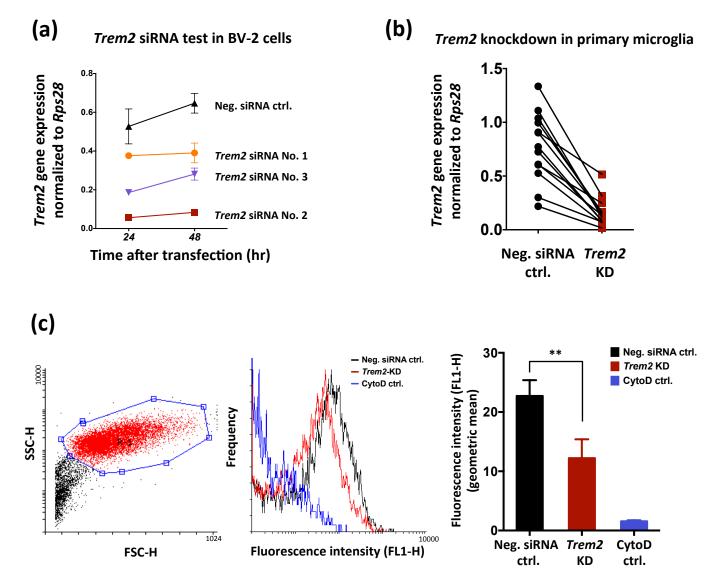
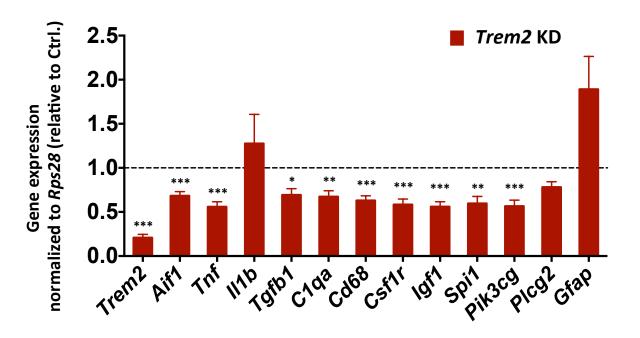
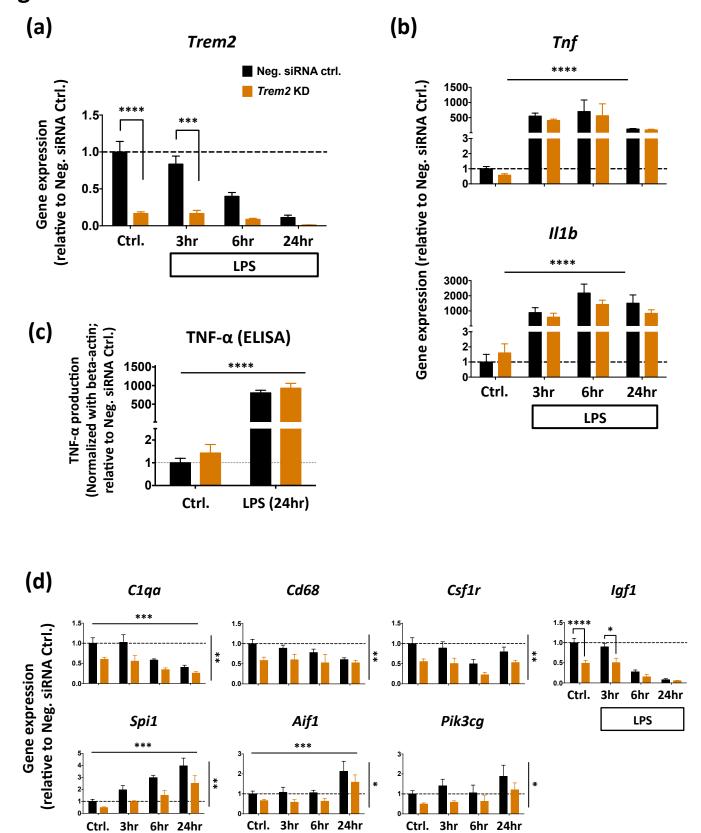


Figure 3





LPS

LPS

LPS

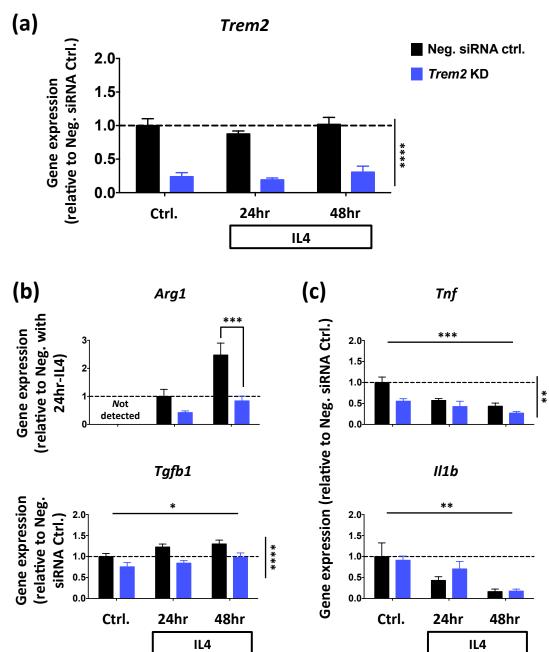


Figure 6

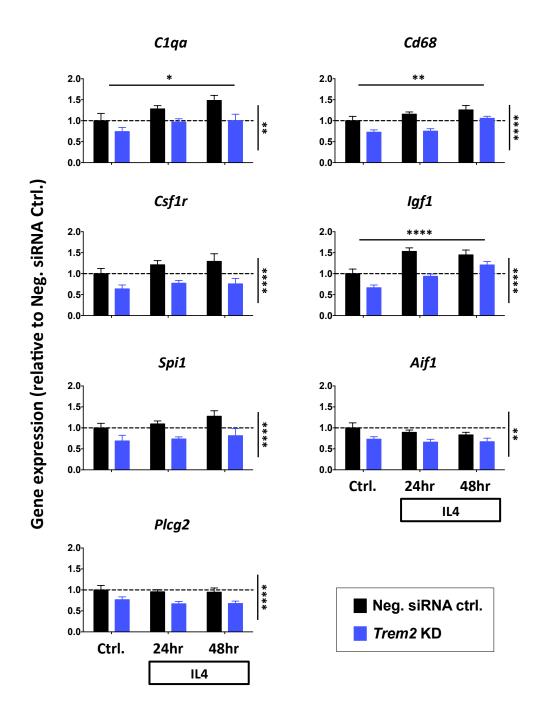


Figure 7

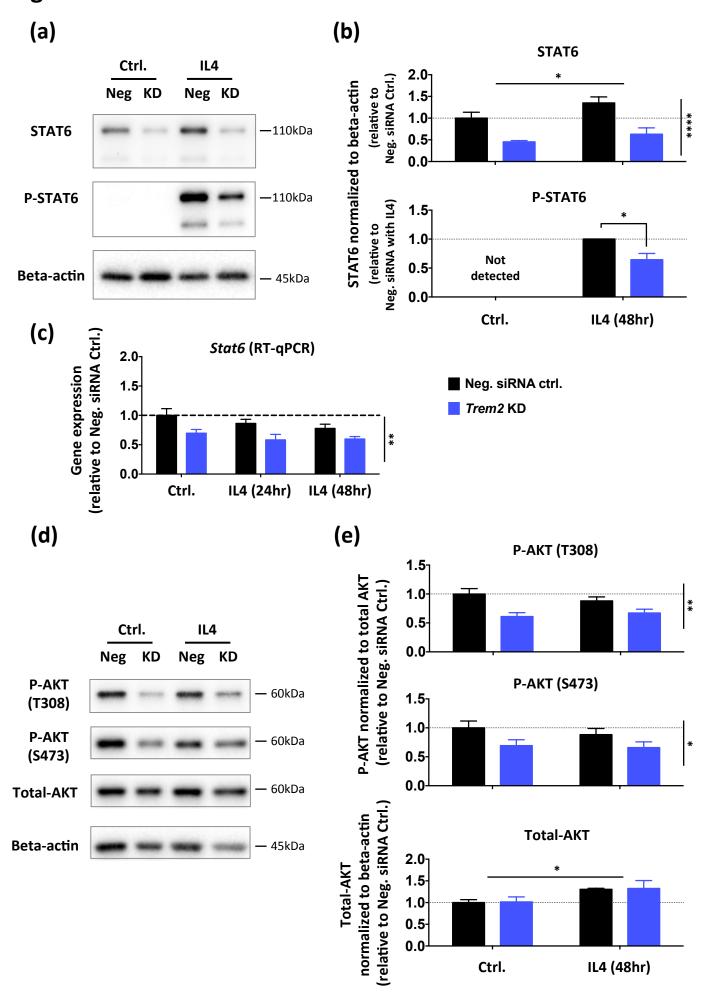
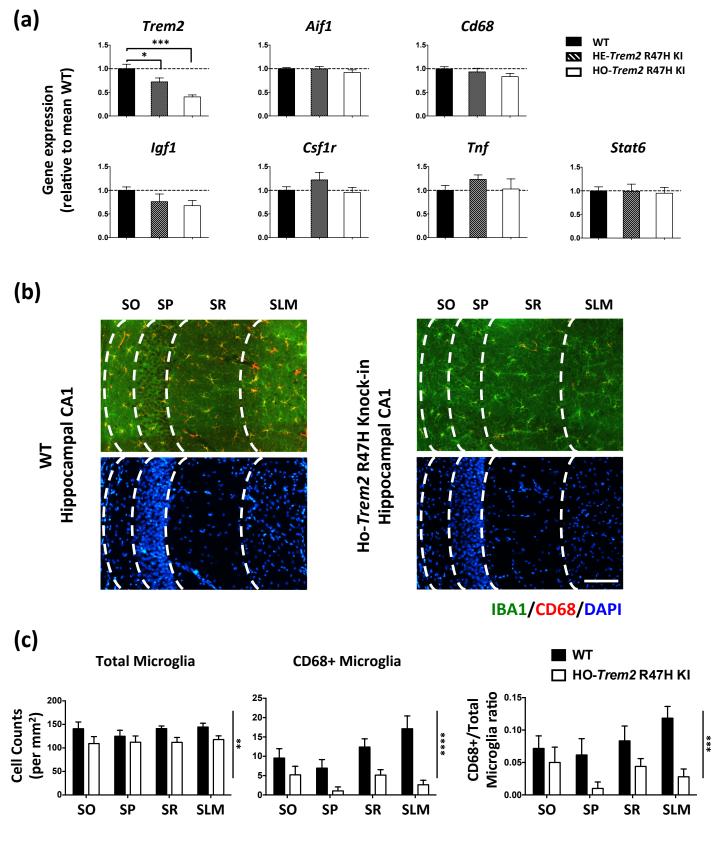
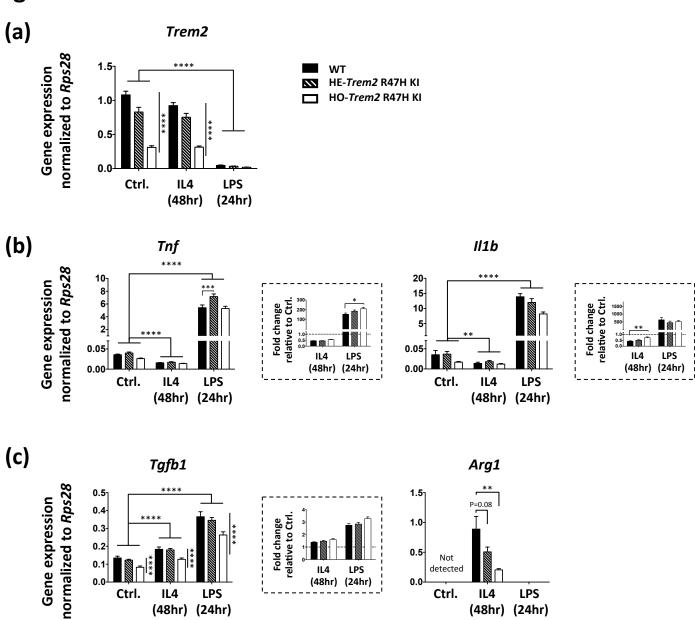


Figure 8





(48hr) (24hr)

LPS (48hr) (24hr)

Gene expression normalized to Rps28

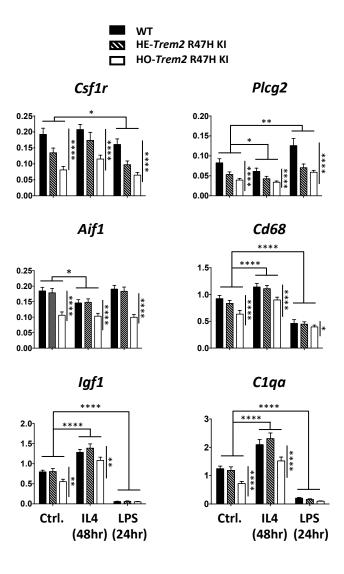


Figure 11

