TREM2 regulates purinergic receptor-mediated calcium signaling and motility in

human iPSC-derived microglia

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Abstract

The membrane protein TREM2 (Triggering Receptor Expressed on Myeloid cells 2) regulates key microglial functions including phagocytosis and chemotaxis. Loss-of-function variants of TREM2 are associated with increased risk of Alzheimer's disease (AD). Because abnormalities in Ca^{2+} signaling have been observed in several AD models, we investigated TREM2 regulation of Ca^{2+} signaling via genetic deletion in human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia (iPSC-microglia). We found that iPSC-microglia lacking TREM2 (TREM2 KO) show exaggerated Ca^{2+} signals in response to purinergic agonists such as ADP that shape microglial injury responses. This ADP hypersensitivity, driven by increased expression of P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptors, results in sustained Ca^{2+} influx and alters cell motility and process extension in TREM2 KO microglia. In a "Ca^{2+} clamp" assay using iPSC-microglia expressing the genetically encoded Ca^{2+} probe, Salsa6f, we found that cytosolic Ca^{2+} tunes motility to a greater extent in TREM2 KO microglia. Despite showing greater overall displacement, TREM2 KO microglia exhibit reduced directional chemotaxis along ADP gradients. Accordingly, the chemotactic defect in TREM2 KO microglia was rescued by reducing cytosolic Ca^{2+} using a P2Y12 receptor antagonist. Our results show that loss of TREM2 confers a defect in microglial Ca^{2+} response to purinergic signals, suggesting a window of Ca^{2+} signaling for optimal microglial motility.

Main Text

Introduction

As the primary immune cells of the central nervous system, microglia survey their local environment to maintain homeostasis and respond to local brain injury or abnormal neuronal activity. Microglia are strongly implicated in several neurodevelopmental and neurodegenerative diseases[1–7], warranting further study of human microglial dynamics. Purinergic metabolites (ATP, ADP, UTP, UDP) in the brain constitute key signals driving microglial activation and chemotaxis[8–11]. ATP released from both homeostatic and damaged cells is hydrolyzed locally by nucleosidases such as the ectonucleotidase NTPDase1 (CD39) or pyrophosphatase NPP1 to produce ADP[12–14]. ADP is then detected by P2Y purinergic receptors on microglia, causing IP_3-dependent Ca^{2+} release from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) lumen. Ca^{2+} depletion from the ER in turn activates ER STIM1 proteins to translocate proximally to puncta where closely apposed plasma membrane (PM) Orai1 channels are activated. This mechanism underlies store-operated Ca^{2+} entry (SOCE) in many cell types [15], including microglia[16–18].

Purinergic signaling is central to microglial communication with other brain cell types and has been negatively correlated with the onset of Disease Associated Microglia (DAM) transcriptional states [19–23]. P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptors are highly expressed by microglia and are activated predominantly by ADP [14,24]. P2Y12 receptors are essential for microglial chemotaxis and have been implicated in the microglial response to cortical injury[25,26], NLRP3 inflammasome activation [27,28], neuronal hyperactivity and protection[25,29], and blood brain barrier maintenance [30]. While purinergic receptors have been broadly identified as markers of microglial homeostasis,

mechanisms by which receptor expression may drive or maintain homeostatic microglial states

remain incompletely understood.

Neuroinflammatory pathologies are often associated with altered Ca^{2+} signaling[31].

Microglia, in particular, show altered Ca^{2+} responses in mouse models of Alzheimer's Disease (AD)

by mechanisms that are not fully understood[32–34]. Ca^{2+} responses to purinergic metabolites have

been extensively studied in cultured murine microglia, acute brain slices, and more recently in

anesthetized mice [8,10,32,35–37]. However, our understanding of how specific patterns of Ca^{2+} signals

in microglia correlate with and tune downstream microglial responses such as cell motility or

process extension remains incomplete. There is also a paucity of knowledge on how regulators

of purinergic Ca^{2+} signals in microglia might play a role in the dysregulation of Ca^{2+} signaling

associated with aging and neuroinflammation.

TREM2 encodes a cell surface receptor that binds a variety of ligands including various

lipids, apolipoprotein E (ApoE), and amyloid-β peptides and signals through its adaptor protein

DAP12 to activate a host of downstream pathways[21,38–40]. Loss of TREM2 function is thought to

lock microglia in a more homeostatic-like state[21,41,42]. Indeed, microglia lacking TREM2 expression

fail to activate against disease pathology, correlating with increased risk of AD[21,39,43]. Purinergic

receptor hyperexpression has been reported at the transcriptome level across multiple TREM2

loss of function models including human patient mutations [19–21,23,39,44], although the mechanistic

link between purinergic receptor expression and TREM2 function remains poorly understood.

We previously developed methods to generate human induced pluripotent stem cell-

derived microglia (iPSC-microglia) [45,46], which can be used to model human microglial behavior *in*

vitro. While iPSC-microglia are proving increasingly useful to investigate neurodegenerative

disorders [47–51], Ca^{2+} signaling has not yet been extensively profiled in these models. In this study,

we examined purinergic Ca^{2+} signaling in human iPSC-microglia and found that sustained Ca^{2+}

influx in response to ADP regulates microglial process extension, motility speed, and turning

behavior. We show that microglia lacking TREM2 are hyperresponsive to purinergic signaling.

Using novel iPSC-microglia lines that express a ratiometric genetically encoded Ca^{2+} probe,

Salsa6f [52], we found that the motility characteristics of human wild-type and TREM2-knockout

microglia are differentially tuned by Ca^{2+} signaling. Informed by these discoveries, we were able

to rescue chemotactic deficiencies in TREM2-knockout microglia by dampening purinergic

receptor signaling.

Results

Purinergic receptor Ca^{2+} signaling is enhanced in TREM2-knockout human iPSC-microglia

To determine if TREM2 plays a role in microglial Ca^{2+} signaling, we compared cytosolic Ca^{2+} responses to the purinergic agonist ADP in isogenic, CRISPR-modified wild type (WT) and TREM2-knockout (TREM2 KO) human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived microglia (iPSC-microglia). ADP stimulation induced a biphasic Ca^{2+} response – a rapid initial peak followed by sustained Ca^{2+} elevation lasting several minutes, in line with previous observations in mouse microglia [53,54]. Both phases of the Ca^{2+} response were significantly elevated in TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure 1A, B**). TREM2 KO microglia also showed exaggerated Ca^{2+} responses to other purinergic agonists; ATP and UTP (**Figure 1C, D**). Notably, responses to ATP and UTP decayed faster than responses to ADP in both WT and TREM2 KO cells, indicating that purinergic stimulation by ADP is more potent in inducing sustained Ca^{2+} signals in human iPSC-microglia (**Figure 1E and Figure 1-figure supplement 1A**).

Sustained ADP-evoked Ca^{2+} elevation in TREM2 KO microglia is not due to SOCE enhancement

To determine the mechanism driving higher ADP-evoked Ca^{2+} signals observed in TREM2 KO cells, we investigated the individual steps in the purinergic Ca^{2+} signaling pathway. The initial Ca^{2+} response to P2Y receptor engagement occurs through phospholipase C and IP$_3$-mediated ER Ca^{2+} store-release, which triggers sustained cytosolic Ca^{2+} elevation by SOCE (**Figure 1F**). Consistent with this, the sustained Ca^{2+} phase in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia was blocked by Gd^{3+} and 2-APB, non-specific inhibitors of SOCE (**Figure 1-figure supplement 1B**). To determine if SOCE is increased in TREM2 KO microglia, we directly measured the rate of Ca^{2+} influx following Ca^{2+} re-

addition after maximal store-depletion by the SERCA pump inhibitor, thapsigargin (TG). Instead,

we find the rate and amplitude of SOCE were both modestly reduced in TREM2 KO cells (**Figure**

1G), and thus changes in the maximal capacity of SOCE do not account for the elevated response

of TREM2 KO microglia to ADP. Moreover, STIM1 and Orai1 mRNA expression, and Orai1 protein

expression are similar in WT and TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure 1-figure supplement 2**).

We therefore hypothesized that the exaggerated secondary Ca^{2+} phase in TREM2 KO

microglia may be driven primarily by increased ER Ca^{2+} store-release resulting in increased SOCE.

To assess this, we plotted Ca^{2+} responses in individual cells, using Ca^{2+} levels 5 min after ADP as

a surrogate for SOCE engagement and the initial peak Ca^{2+} as a readout of ER store-release (**Figure**

1-figure supplement 3). Both WT and TREM2 KO microglia showed a similar relationship between

SOCE and store-release, suggesting that SOCE is engaged by similar mechanisms in the two cell

types, but is recruited to a greater extent in TREM2 KO cells due to increased ER store-release.

To examine whether a larger ER store content contributes to increased Ca^{2+} responses in TREM2

KO microglia, we measured Ca^{2+} levels after maximally depleting ER stores with thapsigargin (TG),

ionomycin, or by IP_3 uncaging in Ca^{2+}-free solution buffered with EGTA. In all instances,

quantification of peak or cumulative cytosolic Ca^{2+} increase suggested that ER store-content and

IP_3 receptor activity is not altered in microglia lacking TREM2 (**Figure 1G-I**). These results indicate

that TREM2 controls ADP-driven Ca^{2+} signals upstream of IP_3 receptors, ER Ca^{2+} store levels, and

SOCE.

Up-regulated P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptor expression drives increased ER Ca^{2+} release in TREM2-

KO microglia

To isolate the early events of Ca^{2+} signaling upstream of SOCE, we monitored Ca^{2+} store release

in Ca^{2+}-free medium and found that TREM2 KO cells still showed significantly higher Ca^{2+} response

to ADP, compared to WT (**Figure 2A, B**). Dose-response curves for the peak Ca^{2+} response showed

a steep leftward shift in TREM2 KO cells (**Figure 2C**). The EC_{50} value for WT microglia was 650 nM,

whereas TREM2 KO microglia reached their EC_{50} by 15 nM. This stark difference was driven at

least in part by a diminished percentage of WT cells responding to ADP at low μM doses (**Figure**

2D). However, limiting the analysis to only those cells that show a Ca^{2+} rise revealed that

responding TREM2 KO cells still exhibited higher Ca^{2+} responses to ADP than "responding" WT

cells (**Figure 2E**). TREM2 KO microglia are thus significantly more sensitive to ADP than WT cells

and exhibit a strong shift in dose-dependent response which may be critical in sensing ADP and

in detecting ADP gradients.

In principle, signal amplification in microglia lacking TREM2 could occur at the level of P2Y

receptors or IP_3 receptors. Our results with IP_3 uncaging (**Figure 1I**) rule out any major differences

in IP_3 receptor expression or activity. This was further corroborated at the transcriptome level,

which showed similar expression of IP_3 receptor type 2 (the major IP_3R subtype expressed in iPSC-

microglia) mRNA in WT and TREM2 KO cells (**Figure 1-figure supplement 2**)[39,45]. We therefore

focused on P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptors, the main P2Y receptor subtypes in microglia that bind

ADP[45,46]. RNA sequencing showed that expression of P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptors was significantly

increased in TREM2 KO cells (**Figure 2F**). To confirm up-regulation at the protein level, we

performed immunostaining and found significantly higher expression of both these receptors on

the PM of TREM2 KO cells (**Figure 2G, H**). Consistent with this, Ca^{2+} responses to ADP in Ca^{2+} free

medium were significantly inhibited by P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptor antagonists (PSB 0739 and

MRS 2211) in both WT and TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure 2I, J**), implicating involvement of both

receptor subtypes. In summary, deletion of TREM2 in iPSC-derived microglia leads to up-

regulation of P2Y12 and P2Y13 receptors, rendering the cells hypersensitive to ADP signaling.

ADP potentiates cell motility and process extension in human WT iPSC-microglia

ADP is a potent chemoattractant for microglia [10]. Analogous to a previous study in fibroblasts [55],

we found that ADP treatment alters cell motility and leads to increased rates of scratch wound

closure in WT iPSC-microglia (**Figure 3A**). To investigate the cellular mechanism of accelerated

wound closure, we used time-lapse imaging to track open-field microglial cell motility (**Figure 3B**).

Mean cell speed and displacement (defined as the overall change in position from the origin at a

given time) were both increased after application of ADP, whereas average track straightness

was unaltered (**Figure 3C**). These data suggest that ADP-driven changes in motility in WT iPSC-

microglia primarily arise from increases in microglial speed, not altered turning behavior. ADP-

dependent increases in speed were reversed in the presence of P2Y12 (PSB 0739) and P2Y13

(MRS 2211) receptor antagonists, confirming the role of ADP in microglial cell motility (**Figure**

3D). To determine if Ca^{2+} influx regulates ADP-mediated increases in motility, we measured cell

migration with ADP in Ca^{2+}-free medium; in this paradigm, a transient Ca^{2+} signal would result

from P2Y receptor-induced IP_3 generation and release of Ca^{2+} from internal stores, but without

Ca^{2+} entry across the PM. We found that removing extracellular Ca^{2+} significantly decreased cell

speed, displacement, and track straightness (**Figure 3E**).

In addition, some microglia responded to ADP addition by extending processes and

altering their morphology rather than increasing motility (**Figure 3-figure supplement 1**).

Microglia have been observed to extend processes in response to injury and purinergic

stimulation in brain slices [8,26]. Therefore, we compared process complexity before and 30 min

after ADP exposure in WT microglia and observed significant increases in both the number of

branches per process and total length of these processes (**Figure 3F**). Similar to effects on cell

motility, ADP-mediated process extension was inhibited by P2Y12 (PSB 0739) and P2Y13 (MRS

2211) receptor antagonists. Furthermore, even before process extension was activated with ADP,

cells treated with P2Y antagonists showed significantly fewer and shorter processes. Altogether,

these results demonstrate that Ca^{2+} influx across the PM is required for optimal ADP-induced

migration and extension of processes in WT iPSC-microglia.

ADP-evoked changes in cell motility and process extension are enhanced in TREM2-KO

microglia

To characterize differences in motility characteristics between WT and TREM2 KO microglia

responding to ADP, we plotted mean squared displacement (MSD) vs time and compared cell

track overlays (flower plots) which showed that ADP enhances motility in TREM2 KO cells to a

greater extent than in WT microglia (**Figure 4A, B**). Baseline motility characteristics in

unstimulated cells, however, were similar in WT and TREM2-KO cells (**Figure 4-figure supplement**

1A-C), consistent with our previously published findings showing no difference in scratch wound

closure rates [39]. To further understand the basis of differences in ADP-induced motility between

WT and TREM2 KO cells, we analyzed mean speed, displacement and track straightness. Although

mean speeds were similar, TREM2 KO microglia showed greater displacement than WT cells

(**Figure 4C, D**), raising the possibility that KO cells may turn with lower frequency. Indeed, an

analysis of track straightness revealed that TREM2 KO microglia move farther from their origin

for the same total distance traveled (**Figure 4E**). Vector autocorrelation, an analysis of directional

persistence [57], further confirmed that WT cells turn more frequently than TREM2 KO microglia

(**Figure 4-figure supplement 1D, E**). To assess if these differences in TREM2 KO cells require

sustained Ca^{2+} influx, we analyzed microglial motility in response to ADP stimulation in the

absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} (**Figure 4F-J**). Mean-squared displacement (MSD) and cell-track

overlay plots showed that motility is constrained when Ca^{2+} is removed from the external bath in

both WT and TREM2 KO cells (**Figure 4 A, B vs. F, G**). In the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+}, TREM2

KO microglia showed similar mean speed, displacement, and track-straightness as WT cells

(**Figure 4 C-E vs H-J**). We conclude that increases in microglial motility (speed, displacement, and

straightness) require sustained Ca^{2+} influx, and that deletion of TREM2 reduces microglial turning

in response to ADP.

We next analyzed how TREM2 deletion affects the extension of cellular processes.

Compared to WT cells, TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia showed a more dramatic increase in the number

of branches and length of processes extended in response to ADP (**Figure 4 K-M, Figure 4-figure**

supplement 2A, B). Some of these differences can be attributed to the reduced morphological

complexity of TREM2 KO cells prior to stimulation. Importantly, Ca^{2+} entry across the PM is

required in WT microglia for optimal process extension in response to ADP, since ADP stimulation

in Ca^{2+}-free medium was insufficient to induce process extension (**Figure 4-figure supplement 2A**

and B vs C and D). However, TREM2 KO cells still showed some increase in process branching and

extension following ADP addition in the absence of external Ca^{2+} (**Figure 4-figure supplement 2C,**

D). Together, these results indicate that the increase in Ca^{2+} influx regulates microglial motility

and process extension to a greater extent in TREM2 KO microglia.

Expression of Salsa6f, a ratiometric Ca^{2+} reporter, does not perturb microglial functions

Our findings so far suggest that patterns of Ca^{2+} signaling in iPSC-microglia regulate cell motility

and process extension. To further characterize the effects of sustained Ca^{2+} signals on microglia

motility, we developed a novel iPSC line that expresses a genetically encoded, ratiometric Ca^{2+}

indicator, Salsa6f, to monitor cytosolic Ca^{2+} and motility simultaneously in individual cells [52].

Salsa6f relies on GCaMP6f to detect Ca^{2+}, which is fused with tdTomato in order to provide a

stable Ca^{2+}-independent red fluorescence, allowing cells to be tracked consistently even when

Ca^{2+} levels are low. Salsa6f WT iPSC-microglia showed the expected increase in the GCaMP6f

fluorescence in response to Ca^{2+} elevation without affecting tdTomato signal, permitting

determination of ratiometric Ca^{2+} levels (G/R ratio), and confirming that the probe was functional

(**Figure 5A-C and Figure 5-figure supplement 1**). Compared to non-transgenic iPSC-microglia,

Salsa6f-expressing cells showed similar expression of microglial identity markers P2RY13 and

IBA1, retained their ability for phagocytosis across several substrates, and had similar

differentiation yields, indicating that Salsa6f expression does not perturb microglial function or

activation (**Figure 5D-G**). Isogenic Salsa6f-lines lacking TREM2 were more responsive to ADP than

WT cells, consistent with our data in Figures 1 and 2 (**Figure 5H**). Using this model, we were able

to simultaneously track Ca^{2+} signals and cell-motility in response to ADP (**Figure 5I**).

Ca^{2+} levels tune motility in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia

To isolate the specific effects of sustained Ca^{2+} elevations on microglia motility, we developed a

"Ca^{2+} clamp" protocol that relies on triggering SOCE and varying external Ca^{2+} to stabilize cytosolic

Ca^{2+} at "low" or "high" levels in the Salsa6f reporter line (**Figure 6A**), similar to our previous study

in T lymphocytes [59]. ER Ca^{2+} stores were depleted by addition of TG in Ca^{2+}-free medium, followed

by readdition of 0.2 or 2 mM external Ca^{2+} (**Figure 6B**). Motility measurements were made during

the slowly-falling phase of the Ca^{2+} response (**Figure 6C**). In WT cells, lowering extracellular Ca^{2+}

from 2 to 0.2 mM predictably decreased the G/R ratio but did not influence mean speed, cell

displacement, or track straightness (**Figure 6C, D top**). However, in TREM2 KO microglia, clamping

Ca^{2+} to a lower level significantly increased speed, displacement, and track straightness (**Figure**

6C, D bottom). These data suggest that motility characteristics of TREM2 KO microglia are more

sensitive to changes in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} levels than in WT cells. Addition of ADP in this "clamp"

paradigm to activate Ca^{2+}-independent signaling pathways that regulate cell motility did not alter

the potential for Ca^{2+} to tune cell motility in TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure 6-figure supplement**

1A).

To further analyze the Ca^{2+} dependence of microglial motility, we plotted Salsa6f G/R Ca^{2+}

ratios at every time point against the instantaneous speeds for each individual cell (**Figure 6E**).

These data revealed a stronger dependence of instantaneous speed on Ca^{2+} levels in TREM2 KO

microglia (**Figure 6F**). Furthermore, when stratifying cell speed arbitrarily as "fast" (> 10 μm/min)

or "slow" (< 10 μm /min), we observe a marked reduction in the percentage of "fast" cells when

Ca^{2+} levels are high in TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure 6G**). Interestingly, cell displacement correlated

with Ca^{2+} to the same degree in both WT and KO cells (**Figure 6-figure supplement 1B, C**).

Together, the Ca^{2+} clamp experiments show that TREM2 KO human microglia are more sensitive

to tuning of motility by cytosolic Ca^{2+} than WT cells.

Chemotactic defects in TREM2 KO microglia are rescued by dampening purinergic receptor

activity

In vivo, directed migration of microglia is driven by gradients of ADP from dying or injured cells

[26,29]. To study chemotaxis toward ADP over a stable gradient, we exposed iPSC-microglia to ADP

in two-chamber microfluidic devices. Consistent with previous findings, WT iPSC-microglia

directionally migrated up the concentration gradient of ADP resulting in higher numbers of cells

within the central chamber [39,60]. In the absence of a chemotactic cue, this directional migration

was lost (**Figure 7A**). This assay revealed a deficit of chemotaxis in TREM2 KO microglia (**Figure**

7A), mirroring reports that TREM2 KO microglia are unable to migrate toward damaged neurons

near amyloid plaques in AD[38,39,61]. Given that ADP hypersensitivity in TREM2 KO cells is driven by

increased expression of P2Y receptors, we examined the effects of dampening P2Y signaling to

WT levels. Treatment with the P2Y12 antagonist, PSB 0739, reduced Ca^{2+} responses in TREM2 KO

cells and rescued the migration deficit in the chemotaxis assay (**Figure 7B-C)**. These results link

the increased Ca^{2+} signals and altered motility characteristics evoked by ADP in TREM2 KO cells

to directed migration toward areas of tissue damage, a vital functional response in microglia.

Discussion

This study focuses on two aims: understanding the roles of purinergic signaling in regulating human microglial motility behavior; and elucidating the impact of TREM2 loss of function on this pathway. We find that the high level of purinergic receptor expression in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia renders them highly sensitive to ADP-mediated signaling and leads to exaggerated cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} responses. Mechanistically, this increase in Ca^{2+} signals is driven by enhanced IP_3-mediated store-release coupled to SOCE. Indeed, based on the dose-response curves for peak ADP-Ca^{2+} responses in Ca^{2+} free buffer, TREM2 KO cells have an EC_{50} at least 10-fold lower than WT cells. As a functional consequence, TREM2 KO microglia exhibit a defect in turning behavior. Despite moving in straighter paths, TREM2 KO cells are unable to migrate towards a gradient of ADP as efficiently as WT cells, concordant with previous studies showing reduced migration of TREM2 KO cells towards Aβ plaques[39]. We propose a model (**Figure 8**) whereby enhanced ADP signaling abolishes the ability of TREM2 KO cells to distinguish gradations of agonist (in this case ADP). The loss of gradient-sensing results in an inability to perform directed migration. We hypothesize that increased ADP signaling and exaggerated Ca^{2+} responses in TREM2 KO cells result in Ca^{2+} signaling domains that are no longer restricted to the cell region near to the highest ADP concentrations, thereby disrupting the polarity of key signaling molecules that drive directed cell motility.

The amplitude and duration of Ca^{2+} signals shape specificity of downstream cell responses. Our experiments with ADP in Ca^{2+} free medium revealed that a transient Ca^{2+} signal is insufficient to induce microglial motility in either WT or TREM2 KO cells. Previous studies have shown that mouse microglia with genetic deletion of STIM1 or Orai1 also show defects in cell

migration to ATP[53,62], likely because diminished SOCE renders them unable to sustain Ca^{2+} signals

in response to ATP. The dependence of motility on prolonged purinergic Ca^{2+} signals may thus be

a general feature of microglia. In contrast, a Ca^{2+} transient can initiate some process extension in

TREM2 KO but not in WT microglia, suggesting a threshold for ADP signaling that is reached in KO

but not WT cells, and highlighting subtle differences in the Ca^{2+} requirement for motility and

process extension in TREM2 KO microglia.

To directly monitor Ca^{2+} signaling and motility simultaneously in individual cells, we

developed a novel iPSC-microglia cell-line expressing a genetically encoded, ratiometric Ca^{2+}

indicator Salsa6f, a GCaMP6f-tdTomato fusion protein. Because Salsa6f allows simultaneous

measurement of Ca^{2+} signal and tracking of processes, this Salsa6f iPSC line is likely to be a useful

tool to dissect the relationship between Ca^{2+} signaling and the function of various iPSC-derived

human cell types including neurons, astrocytes, and microglia. In addition, this line may be readily

xenotransplanted for use with human/microglia chimeric models to examine functional Ca^{2+}

responses to injury and pathology *in vivo*. Using Salsa6f-expressing microglia, we uncovered

critical differences in how Ca^{2+} levels tune motility in WT and TREM2 KO microglia. By tracking

instantaneous velocity at the same time as Salsa6f Ca^{2+} ratios in individual cells, we found that

TREM2 KO cell motility showed a greater sensitivity to changes in cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels with

significantly higher speeds than WT cells at lower Ca^{2+} and a more dramatic reduction in cell

speed at high Ca^{2+} levels. Accordingly, reducing cytosolic Ca^{2+} in a Ca^{2+} "clamp" assay resulted in

increased mean speed, displacement, and straighter paths for TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia, but had

no effect on these motility metrics in WT cells. Consistent with this observation, chemotaxis in

TREM2 KO cells was restored by partially inhibiting P2RY12 receptors. In response to

neurodegenerative disease, microglia down-regulate P2RY12[21,23,30]. Active regulation of

purinergic receptor expression is critical for sensing ADP gradients and decreasing motility near

the chemotactic source. Further understanding of how TREM2 KO cells dysregulate purinergic

receptor expression after an insult may prove useful for therapeutic modulation of microglial

activation states.

The studies presented here provide evidence that reducing purinergic receptor activity

may be clinically applicable in Alzheimer's patients with TREM2 loss of function mutations [38,50,63].

Pharmacologically targeting P2Y12 receptors to dampen both the Ca^{2+} dependent (PLC) and

independent (DAG) arms of the GPCR signaling pathway may be useful to control microglial

activation and motility. However, our results suggest that altering downstream Ca^{2+} flux may be

sufficient, and thus CRAC (Orai1) channel blockers that would specifically inhibit the sustained

Ca^{2+} signals without affecting the initial Ca^{2+} transient or the activation of DAG may provide a

more targeted approach.

Currently, TREM2 activating antibodies are being examined in early stage clinical trials for

Alzheimer's disease[64,65], making it critically important to understand the broad consequences of

TREM2 signaling. Therefore, an understanding of how TREM2 influences responses to purinergic

signals, and regulates cytosolic Ca^{2+} in human iPSC-microglia is critical. Beyond TREM2, we have

found that protective variants in MS4A6A and PLCG2 gene expression also decrease P2Y12 and

P2Y13 receptor expression (unpublished data), suggesting this mechanism of microglial

activation could be common to several microglial AD risk loci.

In summary, deletion of TREM2 renders iPSC-microglia highly sensitive to ADP, leading to

prolonged Ca^{2+} influx which increases cell displacement by decreasing cell turning. Despite this,

TREM2 KO microglia show a defect in chemotaxis that is likely due to their inability to sense ADP

gradients. Decreasing purinergic signaling in TREM2 KO microglia is able to rescue directional

chemotactic migration. We suggest that purinergic modulation or direct modulation of Ca^{2+}

signaling could provide novel therapeutic strategies in many AD patient populations, not solely

those with reduced TREM2 function.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: Microglia lacking TREM2 show exaggerated Ca^{2+} responses to purinergic stimulation.

(**A**) Representative images of WT (top) and TREM2 KO (bottom) iPSC-microglia loaded with Fluo-

4 (green) and Fura-red (red) showing resting cytosolic Ca^{2+} and peak Ca^{2+} after ADP addition.

Bright-field image overlaid, scale bar= 20 μm. (**B-D**) Average ratiometric traces (left panels)

showing changes in cytosolic Ca^{2+} over time in response to 2.5 μM ADP (**B**), 2.5 μM ATP (**C**), and

10 μM UTP (**D**) in 1 mM Ca^{2+} containing buffer (n=39-44 cells, **B**; 63-71 cells, **C**; 45-55 cells, **D**).

Quantification of baseline subtracted peak Ca^{2+} response and cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels 5 min after

agonist application shown on the right (250-274 cells, **B**; 165-179 cells, **C**; 175-269 cells, **D**; 3-5

experiments; Mann-Whitney test). (**E**) Ca^{2+} levels in WT iPSC-microglia 5 min after addition of

ADP, ATP, and UTP (right, n=17-52 cells from 2-3 experiments). Cells were gated for similar initial

peak Ca^{2+} response to agonists (left). (**F**) Schematic highlighting key downstream Ca^{2+} signaling

events in response to ADP. (**G**) Average trace showing SOCE engaged via emptying ER Ca^{2+} stores

with thapsigargin (TG, 2 μM) in Ca^{2+}-free buffer followed by re-addition of 1 mM Ca^{2+} (90-129

cells). Bar-graph summaries of ER store-release quantified as area under the curve, rate of SOCE,

and peak SOCE (187-266 cells, 2 experiments, Mann-Whitney test). (**H**) Average trace (left, 71-

117 cells) and summary of ER store-release after 2 μM ionomycin treatment in Ca^{2+} free buffer

(right, 146-234 cells, 2 experiments; Mann-Whitney test) (**I**) Same as H but in response to UV IP$_3$

uncaging (167-200 cells, nonparametric t-test). Data shown as mean ± SEM for traces and bar-

graphs.

Figure 2: Higher sensitivity of TREM2 KO microglia to ADP is driven by increased purinergic receptor expression

(**A**) Representative images of WT (top) and TREM2 KO (bottom) iPSC-microglia before and peak Ca^{2+} response after ADP addition in Ca^{2+} free buffer. Overlay of Fluo-4 (green), Fura-red (red) and Brightfield (grey) images. Scale bar= 20 μm. (**B**) Average trace showing Ca^{2+} response to ADP in Ca^{2+}-free buffer (left, 64-83 cells). Quantification of peak signal (right, 264-289 cells, 4 experiments, Mann-Whitney test). (**C-E**) Dose-response curve showing baseline subtracted Peak Ca^{2+} responses to ADP in Ca^{2+}-free buffer (**C**), percent of "responding" cells (**D**) and peak Ca^{2+} responses only in "responding" cells (**E**). (Each data-point is average of 84-474 cells, WT; 70-468 cells, 2-5 experiments). (**F**) RNA normalized read counts of P2RY12/13 expression from bulk RNA-sequencing of WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia (n=4, adjusted p-values from DESeq2). (**G-H**) Immunofluorescence and quantification of P2RY12 (**G**) and P2RY13 (**H**) in iPSC-microglia (n=4 independent wells, 3 images per well, student's t-test). (**I-J**) Peak Ca^{2+} response in Ca^{2+} free buffer after treatment with ADP in the presence of P2RY12 antagonist PSB 0739 (**I**) and P2RY13 antagonist MRS 2211 (**J**). (72-128 cells, **I**; 83-117 cells, **J**; representative of 3 experiments, Mann-Whitney Test). Data shown as mean ± SEM for traces and bar-graphs.

Figure 3: Nondirectional ADP exposure increases WT microglial speed and process extension.
(**A**) Average trace showing closure of scratch wound produced with IncuCyte S3 WoundMaker. iPSC-microglia imaged every 30 min after scratch wound with or without ADP stimulation (n=4 wells; 2 images per well). (**B**) Representative image of WT iPSC-microglia motility 30 min after ADP exposure with cell tracks overlain (left). Pseudocolored images (center) across time: 0 min (red), 4 min (orange), 8 min (yellow), 12 min (green), 16 min (cyan), 20 min (blue), 24 min (purple), 28 min (magenta). Scale bar= 100 μm. White boxes zoomed in at right to demonstrate motile (top) and non-motile (bottom) cells. (**C**) Representative color images (top left) and displacement vectors (bottom left) of WT iPSC-microglia at baseline (no ADP, grey) and 30 min after 2.5 μM ADP treatment (red). Summary of Mean Speed (μm/min), Displacement over 10 min (μm/10 min) and Track straightness (track length/track displacement) (414-602 cells, 2 experiments). (**D**) Representative images, displacement vectors, and quantification of WT iPSC-microglia motility

for 20 min following ADP addition. Cells were pre-treated with vehicle (grey), MRS 2211 (10 μM,

gold), or PBS 0739 (10 μM, blue) (180-187 cells, 2 experiments). (**E**) Representative images,

displacement vectors, and quantification of WT iPSC-microglia motility after ADP in 1 mM Ca^{2+}

(light grey) or Ca^{2+}-free buffer (dark grey) (401-602 cells, 3 experiments). (**F**) Representative

images (left) and process extension (right) of iPSC-microglia (cytoplasmic GFP, grey) before or 30

min after ADP addition. Cells were pre-treated with vehicle (grey), MRS 2211 (10 μM, gold), or

PBS 0739 (10 μM, blue) (52-163 cells, 3-4 experiments). (**C-F**) One way ANOVA with Tukey post

hoc test. Data shown as mean ± SEM for traces and bar-graphs.

Figure 4: ADP-driven process extension and cell displacement are increased in TREM2 KO iPSC-

microglia. (**A-E**) Motility of WT (grey) and TREM2 KO (green) iPSC-microglia over 20 min following

ADP addition in 1 mM Ca^{2+}-containing buffer. (**A**) Plots of track displacement in μm centered from

point of origin at (0,0). (**B**) Mean-squared displacement (MSD) vs time. Mean-cell speeds (**C**), total

track displacement in 10-min interval (**D**), and track straightness (**E**) for 130-327 cells, 7

experiments, student's t-test. (**F-J**). Same as (**A-F**) but in Ca^{2+}-free medium (125-279 cells, 2

experiments, student's t-test). (**K**) Representative images of GFP-expressing WT (top) and TREM2

KO (bottom) iPSC-microglia, before and 30 min after 2.5 μM ADP addition. (**L**) Quantification of

total number of branches per cell before and after ADP treatment (left) and paired dot-plots

showing fold change in branch number from pre-ADP levels (right). Each data-point represents

an imaging field in the paired-plots. (**M**) Total process length before and after ADP treatment

displayed as raw values per cell (left) and as fold change from baseline conditions per imaging

field (right). For **L** and **M,** n=151-158 cells, WT; 133-167 cells, KO; 9-10 imaging fields, 3-4

experiments. One-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons for single-cell data, two-tailed paired

t-test for the paired-plots.

Figure 5: Validation of Salsa6f transgenic iPSC-microglia. (**A**) Representative green (GCaMP6f),

red (tdTomato) and Green/Red channel overlay images of transgenic Salsa6f expressing iPSC-

microglia at low (resting Ca^{2+}, top row) and high (Peak SOCE, bottom row) cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels.

Bright-field image shown for comparison. Cells were treated with TG to evoke SOCE. Scale bar =

5 µm. (**B**) Trace of average change in fluorescence intensity of tdTomato (red) and GCamp6f

(green) over time (n=32 cells). (**C**) Ratiometric GCaMP6f/ tdTomato signal (Green/ Red or G/R

Ratio) over time calculated from (**B**). (**D**) Immunofluorescence images of P2RY13 and IBA1 in WT

or Salsa6f-transgenic iPSC-microglia (left). Right panel shows quantification of P2RY13 and IBA1

protein expression (n=4 wells, 2 independent images per well, t-test). (**E**) Phagocytosis of

Synaptosomes in WT non-transgenic (open circle) and Salsa6f-expressing (closed circle) iPSC-

microglia. Cytochalasin D (grey, 10 µM) used as negative control to inhibit phagocytosis. Live

cultures imaged on IncuCyte S3 (n=4 wells; 4 images per well). (**F**) Phagocytic load at 24 hrs for

synaptosomes, beta-amyloid, zymosan A, and *S. aureus* (n=4 wells; 4 images per well; one way

ANOVA with tukey post-hoc test). (**G**) Microglia cell counts at final day of differentiation (n=3

wells, t-test). (**H**) Ca^{2+} response to 2.5 µM ADP in WT vs TREM2 KO Salsa6f-expressing iPSC-

microglia (n=41-53 cells). (**I**) Fluorescence intensity of tdTomato (red) and GCaMP6f (green) (left

axis) simultaneously measured alongside cell displacement (black) (right axis).

Figure 6: Cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels tune microglial motility in TREM2 KO cells. (**A**) Schematic of

traditional SOCE pathway with store-refilling (left) and a "Ca^{2+}–clamp" method of sustaining

cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} to "low" and "high" levels with 0.2 and 2mM extracellular Ca^{2+} and using TG to

inhibit store-refilling (right). (**B**) Average SOCE traces in WT Salsa6f iPSC-microglia showing

cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} 'clamped' at different levels after addition of 0.2 or 2 mM extracellular

Ca^{2+}(n=78-110 cells). (**C**) Average change in cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} levels in WT and TREM2 KO microglia

over 25 minutes after SOCE activation. (**D**) Comparison of Ca^{2+} levels and microglia motility in WT

(top) and TREM2 KO (bottom) microglia. Cytosolic Ca^{2+} levels indicated by instantaneous single-

cell G/R Ratio (n=74-158 cells). Mean-speed, displacement and track straightness calculated as

before in Figures 3 and 4. Yellow (0.2 mM Ca, TG), green (2 mM Ca, TG). Students t-test **** $p <$

0.0001; ** $p = 0.0062$; * $p = 0.432$; ns > 0.9999. (**E**) Correlation of instantaneous Ca^{2+} and

instantaneous speed in WT and KO cells. Red line denotes 10 µm/sec (cells above this threshold

considered "fast-moving"). For WT: $p < 0.0001$; $r = -0.1316$; number pairs = 5850. For KO: $p <$

0.0001; $r = -0.1433$; number pairs = 6063 (Spearman's correlation). (**F**) Mean speed of cells binned

by instantaneous G/R Ca^{2+} ratio (1-way ANOVA **** $p < 0.0001$). Each data point is calculated

for a bin increment of 0.5 G/R ratio. (**G**) Percentage of fast-moving cells quantified as a function of G/R Ca^{2+} ratio. X-axis G/R ratios binned in increments of 0.5 as in **F**. In **E-G**, n=78-100 cells.

Figure 7: Migration deficits in TREM2 KO microglia are rescued by inhibition of purinergic signaling. (**A**) Migration towards ADP in a two-chamber microfluidic device. Representative images of RFP expressing microglia that migrated into the central chamber 3 days after 100 ng/mL ADP addition. Dotted circle delineates separation of inner and outer chamber. Scale bar = 500 μm. Quantification of microglial migration (right panel). Migrated cell counts are normalized to WT cells treated with ADP (n=3-4 experiments; One-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons). (**B**) Baseline subtracted peak ratiometric Ca^{2+} signal in response to 2.5 μM ADP in 1 mM extracellular Ca^{2+}, and in the presence or absence of 10 μM PSB 0739 (44 cells, WT; 39-43 cells, KO; representative of 3 independent experiments; Students t-test). (**C**) Two-chamber migration to 100 ng/mL ADP with or without 10 μM PSB 0739. Values are normalized to WT cells with ADP (n=3-4 experiments; One-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons). Representative images shown on the left. Scale bar = 500 μm.

Figure 8: A Model for Ca^{2+} regulation of ADP-mediated chemotaxis in microglia lacking TREM2. (**A**) Dose-response curve comparing ADP-mediated peak-Ca^{2+} response in WT and TREM2 KO microglia. EC50 for KO cells is more than 10-fold lower than WT microglia. P2Y12 and 13 receptor expression is higher in cells lacking TREM2 rendering them hypersensitive to ADP signaling. (**B**) Due to exaggerated purinergic ADP signaling, microglia lacking TREM2 exhibit a deficit in moving towards ADP gradients. Despite moving in straighter tracks, TREM2 KO cells migrate in all directions contributing to their chemotactic inefficiency. Partially suppressing P2Y12 receptor signaling would shift the response to ADP to the right (arrow in panel A) and lower cytosolic Ca^{2+} in TREM2 KO cells, restoring their ability to move towards the ADP gradient.

 Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure 1-figure supplement 1: Differential engagement of SOCE by purinergic agonists. (A) Ca^{2+}

responses in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia 5 min after application of 2.5 μM ADP (blue), 2.5 μM ATP

(red), and 10 μM UTP (yellow) that are gated for similar initial peak Ca^{2+} response to the agonists

shown in the left panel (n=11-65 cells, pooled from 2 experiments). **(B)** Ratiometric Ca^{2+}

responses in WT iPSC-microglia treated with 2-APB (50 μM) or Gd^{3+} (5 μM) to block store-

operated Ca^{2+} entry (SOCE) (n= 80-148 cells). P-value calculated for **A** and **B** using ordinary one-

way ANOVA with multiple comparisons.

Figure 1-figure supplement 2: Expression of STIM1, Orai1, and IP3R2 are not altered in TREM2

KO iPSC-microglia. (A) Volcano plot of differentially expressed genes from bulk RNA-sequencing

of WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia (n=4). Genes for IP3R, STIM, and ORAI are highlighted. **(B)**

Raw frequency per kilobase million reads (FPKM) in iPSC-microglia. **(C)** RNA normalized read

counts of highly expressed isoforms for **(C)** IP3R2, **(D)** STIM1, and ORAI1. Adjusted p-values from

DESeq2. **(E)** Immunofluorescence of Orai1 in WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia. n=3 images per

well from 4 independent wells; students t-test.

Figure 1-figure supplement 3: SOCE is not altered in TREM2 KO microglia. (A) Representative

single-cell trace of Ca^{2+} signal in response to ADP in 1mM extracellular Ca^{2+} buffer showing the

scheme for measuring ER store-release as the initial Ca^{2+} peak and SOCE as cytosolic Ca^{2+} level 5

min after ADP application. **(B)** Scatter-plot showing correlation of initial ADP-induced Ca^{2+}

response (store-release) and cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} after 5 minutes (SOCE) in WT (grey) and KO (green)

cells (N= 866-935 cells from multiple imaging runs with a range of ADP doses). **(C)** Correlation

between ADP-induced store-release and SOCE using the same data-set in B but with each data-

point representing average Ca^{2+} response to the following doses of ADP in 1 mM Ca^{2+} (in μM:

0.001, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 2.5, 5, 10). WT and TREM2 KO data are overlaid in the same scatter-plot.

(Comparison of slopes between WT and TREM2 KO: p-value = 0.7631; Extra sum of squares F

test).

Figure 3-figure supplement 1: ADP-mediated process extension in WT iPSC-microglia. (A)

Representative images of a cell (Cell 1) from a time-lapse experiment showing increased

branching and extension of processes in GFP-expressing WT iPSC-microglia, at times indicated

following addition of 2.5 µM ADP. Bright field DIC images (top row) and GFP images (bottom row)

are shown. (**B**) Another example of a cell (Cell 2) showing process extension in the same imaging

field. (**C**) A motile cell (Cell 3) in the same imaging field is shown for comparison. Note the lack of

displacement in cells that extend their process, and lack of significant process extension in a

highly motile cell. Scale bar: 15 µM.

Figure 4-figure supplement 1: Motility analysis in WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia. (A) Scratch

Wound performed via IncuCyte S3 WoundMaker shows no difference in migration into the

scratch wound area. Two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons, n=2 images per well over 3

independent wells. (**B**) Summary of microglial mean speeds, displacement over 10 min, and track

straightness in open-field migration (student's t-test). (**C**) Flower plots show similar displacement

from origin for WT (left) and TREM2 KO (right) cells. (**D, E**) Directional Autocorrelation calculated

via DiPer excel macro. Due to lack of directional gradient, directional autocorrelation of motility

vectors is expected to drop quickly. Time constants for best-fit single exponential curves are

indicated, consistent with increased straightness for TREM2 KO cells treated with ADP. (**E**)

Directional autocorrelation of WT (grey) and TREM2 KO (green) iPSC-microglia at baseline (open

circles) or after ADP addition (filled circles). Mean autocorrelation values in the first 5 minutes

(one-way ANOVA) and time (min) until autocorrelation reaches zero.

Figure 4-figure supplement 2: Comparison of process extension in WT and TREM2 KO Microglia.

Branching and process extension in WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia 30 min after addition of

ADP in 1 mM (**A, B**) or 0 mM extracellular Ca^{2+} buffer (**C, D**). (**A**) Data displayed as paired-plots

showing average branch number per cell in an imaging field (top row) and normalized to pre-ADP

values for each imaging field (middle row). Bottom row shows fold change in branching after ADP

treatment for WT (grey) and KO (green) iPSC-microglia. (**B**) Changes in process length in the same

dataset as **A**. n=151-158 cells, WT; 133-167 cells, KO; 9-10 imaging fields, 3-4 experiments. (**C, D**)

Same analysis as **A, B** but with ADP in Ca^{2+} free buffer. n=137-143 cells, 8 imaging fields, 2-3

experiments. (**A-D**) p-values calculated by two-tailed paired Students t-test for the paired-plots,

and by unpaired t-test when comparing fold-change in WT and KO cells.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1: Generation of Salsa6f iPSC line. Construct design for the Salsa6f

knock-in template (top) Primers for sequence validation marked with blue arrows. Sanger

sequencing to confirm proper integration of Salsa6f cassette into AAVS1 Safe Harbor Locus

(bottom).

Figure 6-figure supplement 1: Motility analysis with Ca^{2+} "clamp". (**A**) Ca^{2+} ratios and microglia

motility in WT (top) and KO (bottom) microglia. Ca^{2+} clamp experiments with ADP added: yellow

(0.2 mM Ca^{2+}, TG + ADP), green (2 mM Ca^{2+}, TG + ADP). Students t-test **** $p < 0.0001$; *** $p =$

0.0001. n=164-393 cells. (**B, C**) Ca^{2+} tuning of mean speed and track displacement length in 0.2

mM "Ca^{2+} clamp": correlation between instantaneous Ca^{2+} and cumulative displacement. Each

dot represents an individual cell for an individual frame. Dotted red line represents displacement

of 200 um^2. WT cells (**B**) displace less than KO cells (**C**). For each cell type, larger displacements

are correlated with lower G/R Ca^{2+} ratios. Cells which maintain elevated cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} do not

displace as far. For WT: $p < 0.0001$; $r = -0.4778$; number pairs = 5973. For KO: $p < 0.0001$; $r = -$

0.3699; number pairs = 5761 (Spearman's correlation).

Materials and Methods

Key Resources Table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional Information
Cell line (Human)	WT iPSC-microglia	UCI ADRC iPSC Core	ADRC5	iPSC-derived microglial line
Cell line (Human)	TREM2 KO iPSC microglia	Blurton-Jones lab	ADRC5 Clone 28-18	CRISPR-mediated knockout of TREM2 on the WT iPSC line
Cell line (Human)	WT GFP- expressing iPSC-microglia	Coriell	AICS-0036	iPSC-line with GFP tagged to αtubulin. Originally developed by Dr. Bruce Conklin
Cell line (Human)	TREM2 KO GFP-expressing iPSC-microglia	Blurton-Jones lab	GFP Clone 1	CRISPR-mediated knockout of TREM2 on the WT GFP[+] iPSC line
Cell line (Human)	WT RFP-expressing iPSC-microglia	Coriell	AICS-0031-035	iPSC-line with RFP tagged to αtubulin. Originally developed by Dr. Bruce Conklin
Cell line (Human)	TREM2 KO RFP-expressing iPSC-microglia	Blurton-Jones lab	RFP Clone 6	CRISPR-mediated knockout of TREM2 on the WT RFP[+] iPSC line
Cell line (Human)	WT Salsa6f-expressing iPSC-microglia	UCI ADRC iPSC Core	ADRC76 Clone 8	iPSC-line expressing a GCaMP6f-tdTomato fusion construct (Salsa6f)
Cell line (Human)	TREM2 KO Salsa6f-expressing iPSC microglia	Blurton-Jones lab	ADRC76 Clone 8 Clone 98	CRISPR-mediated knockout of TREM2 on the WT Salsa6f^{+} iPSC line
Plasmid Construct (transgene)	Salsa6f	Addgene	Plasmid# 140188	A genetically encoded Calcium Indicator with tdTomato linked to GCaMP6f by a V5 epitope tag.
Other	DMEM/F12, HEPES, no Phenol red	Thermo Fisher Scientific	11038021	Microglia differentiation cell culture medium
Other	TeSR™-E8™	STEMCELL Technologies	05990	Stem cell culture medium
Other	StemDiff Hematopoietic kit	STEMCELL Technologies	05310	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	Non-essential amino acids	Gibco	11140035	

Peptide/ Recombinant protein	Glutamax	Gibco	35050061	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein (human)	Insulin	Sigma	I2643	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	B27	Gibco	17504044	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	N2	Gibco	A1370701	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	Insulin-transferrin-selenite	Gibco	41400045	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein (human)	IL-34	Peprotech	200-34	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein (human)	TGFβ1	Peprotech	100-21	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein (human)	M-CSF	Peprotech	300-25	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	CX3CL1	Peprotech	300-31	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	CD200	Novoprotein	C311	
Peptide/ Recombinant protein	Fibronectin	STEMCELL Technologies	07159	
Other	Matrigel	Corning	356231	
Other	ReLeSR	STEMCELL Technologies	5872	Human pluripotent stem cell selection and passing reagent
Other	Goat Serum	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10000C	
Other	fluorescent beta-amyloid 1-42 (647)	Anaspec	AS64161	
Other	pHrodo tagged zymosan A beads	Thermo Fisher Scientific	P35364	
Other	pHrodo tagged S. Aureus	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A10010	
Other	Human Stem Cell Nucleofector kit 2	Lonza	VPH-5022	

Other	Alt-R CRISPR-Cas9 tracrRNA	IDTDNA	107253	
Other	Alt-R HiFi Cas9 Nuclease	IDTDNA	1081061	
Antibody	Anti-human P2RY12	Sigma	HPA014518	
Antibody	Anti-human P2RY13	Alomone	APR-017	
Antibody	Anti-human Orai1	Alomone	ALM-025	
Antibody	Anti-human IBA1	Wako	019-19741	
Antibody	Goat anti-rabbit 488	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A11008	Secondary antibody
Antibody	Goat anti-mouse 555	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21424	Secondary antibody
Antibody	Goat anti-rabbit 555	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A21429	Secondary antibody
Chemical compound, drug	Fluo-4 AM	Thermo Fisher Scientific	F14201	
Chemical compound, drug	Fura-red AM	Thermo Fisher Scientific	F3021	
Chemical compound, drug	Pluronic F-127	Thermo Fisher Scientific	P3000MP	
Chemical compound, drug	Cal-520 AM	AAT Bioquest	21130	
Chemical compound, drug	ci-IP3/PM	SiChem	6210	Caged-inositol triphosphate analog
Chemical compound, drug	Hoeschst	Thermo Fisher Scientific	R37165	
Chemical compound, drug	ADP	Sigma-Aldrich	A2754	
Chemical compound, drug	ATP	Sigma-Aldrich	A9187	
Chemical compound, drug	UTP	Sigma-Aldrich	U1006	
Chemical compound, drug	PSB 0739	Tocris	3983	
Chemical compound, drug	MRS 2211	Tocris	2402	
Chemical compound, drug	2-APB	Sigma-Aldrich	D9754	
Chemical compound, drug	Gadolinium	Sigma-Aldrich	G7532	
Chemical compound, drug	EGTA	Sigma-Aldrich	E8145	
Chemical compound, drug	1-thioglycerol	Sigma-Aldrich	M6145	
Chemical compound, drug	CloneR	STEMCELL Technologies	05888	Defined supplement for single-cell cloning of human iPS cells

Chemical compound, drug	Thiazovivin	STEMCELL Technologies	72252	ROCK inhibitor
Other	35mm glass-bottom dish	MatTek	P35G-1.5-14-C	1.5 coverslip, 14mm glass diameter
Other	Incubation perfusion Lid for 35mm dishes	Tokai Hit	LV200-D35FME	Perfusion lid with inlet and outlet
Other	Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope	Olympus	FV3000	Equipped with Resonant Scanner, IX3-ZDC2 Z-drift compensator, 40x silicone oil objective, 20x air objective
Other	Stage Top Incubation System	Tokai Hit	STXG	Temperature and humidity control for FV3000 microscope stage
Other	Nikon Eclipse T*i* microscope system	Nikon		Equipped with a 40x oil immersion objective (N.A.: 1.3; Nikon) and an Orca Flash 4.0LT CMOS camera (Hamamatsu)
Other	Chemotaxis Assay Chamber	Hansang Cho Lab		
Other	IncuCyte S3 Live-Cell Analysis System	Sartorius		
Other	Essen Incucyte WoundMaker	Sartorius	4493	
Software, algorithm	GraphPad Prism 9.1.0			Data analysis, statistical analysis
Software, algorithm	Fiji (Image J)			Image analysis
Software, algorithm	Incucyte 2020C			Image acquisition and analysis
Software, algorithm	IMARIS 9.7.0			Cell tracking and image analysis
Software, algorithm	Flika			Image analysis
Software, algorithm	DiPer Excel Macros		PMID: 25033209	Data analysis, directional persistence

Generation of iPSCs from human fibroblasts: Human induced pluripotent stem cell lines were

generated by the University of California, Irvine Alzheimer's Disease Research Center (UCI ADRC)

Induced Pluripotent Stem Cell Core from subject fibroblasts under approved Institutional Review

Boards (IRB) and human Stem Cell Research Oversight (hSCRO) committee protocols. Informed

consent was received from all participants who donated fibroblasts. Reprogramming was

performed with non-integrating sendai virus in order to avoid integration effects. To validate new

iPSC lines, cells were karyotyped by G-banding and tested for sterility. Pluripotency was verified

by Pluritest Array Analysis and trilineage in vitro differentiation. Additional GFP- and RFP-αtubulin

expressing iPSC lines (AICS-0036 and AICS-0031-035) were purchased from Coriell and originally

generated by Dr. Bruce Conklin. iPSCs were grown antibiotic free on Matrigel (Corning) in

complete mTeSR1 or TeSR-E8 medium (STEMCELL Technologies) in a humidified incubator (5%

CO_2, 37° C). All lines will be available upon request to the corresponding author.

CRISPR-mediated knockout of TREM2: Genome editing was performed as in McQuade et al.

2020[39]. Briefly, iPSCs were nucleofected with RNP complex targeting the second exon of TREM2

and allowed to recover overnight. Transfected cells were dissociated with pre-warmed Accutase

then mechanically plated to 96-well plates for clonal expansion. Genomic DNA from each colony

was amplified and sequenced at the cut site. The amplification from promising clones was

transformed via TOPO cloning for allelic sequencing. Knockout of TREM2 was validated by

western blotting (AF1828, R&D) and HTRF (Cisbio) [39].

iPSC-microglia differentiation: iPSC-microglia were generated as described in [46]. Briefly, iPSCs

were directed down a hematopoetic lineage using the STEMdiff Hematopoesis kit (STEMCELL

Technologies). After 10-12 days in culture, CD43+ hematopoteic progenitor cells are transferred

into a microglia differentiation medium containing DMEM/F12, 2× insulin-transferrin-selenite, 2×

B27, 0.5× N2, 1× Glutamax, 1× non-essential amino acids, 400 μM monothioglycerol, and 5 μg/mL

human insulin. Media was added to cultures every other day and supplemented with 100 ng/mL

IL-34, 50 ng/mL TGF-β1, and 25 ng/mL M-CSF (Peprotech) for 28 days. In the final 3 days of

differentiation 100 ng/mL CD200 (Novoprotein) and 100 ng/mL CX3CL1 (Peprotech) were added

to culture.

Confocal Laser Scanning Microscopy: Unless otherwise stated, cells were imaged on an Olympus

FV3000 confocal laser scanning inverted microscope equipped with high-speed resonance

scanner, IX3-ZDC2 Z-drift compensator, 40x silicone oil objective (NA 1.25) and a Tokai-HIT stage

top incubation chamber (STXG) to maintain cells at 37°C. To visualize Salsa6f, 488 nm and 561

nm diode lasers were used for sequential excitation of GCaMP6f (0.3% laser power, 450V channel

voltage, 494-544nm detector width) and TdTomato (0.05% laser power, 450V channel voltage,

580-680nm detector width), respectively. Fluo-4 and Fura-red were both excited using a 488 nm

diode laser (0.07% laser power, 500V channel voltage, 494-544nm detector width for Fluo-4;

0.07% laser power, 550V channel voltage, 580-680nm detector for Fura-Red). Two high-

sensitivity cooled GaAsP PMTs were used for detection in the green and red channels

respectively. GFP was excited using the same settings as GCaMP6f. Other image acquisition

parameters unique to Ca^{2+} imaging, microglia process and cell motility analysis are indicated in

the respective sections.

Measurement of intracellular Ca^{2+}:

Cell preparation: iPSC-microglia were plated on fibronectin-coated (5 µg/mL) glass-bottom 35

mm dishes (MatTek, P35G-1.5-14-C) overnight at 60 % confluence. Ratiometric Ca^{2+} imaging was

done using Fluo-4 AM and Fura-Red AM dyes as described previously[39]. Briefly, cells were loaded

in microglia differentiation medium with 3 µM Fluo-4 AM and 3 µM Fura-Red AM (Molecular

Probes) in the presence of Pluronic Acid F-127 (Molecular Probes) for 30 min at room

temperature (RT). Cells were washed with medium to remove excess dye and 1 mM Ca^{2+} Ringer's

solution was added to the 35 mm dish before being mounted on the microscope for live cell

imaging. We note that iPSC-microglia are sensitive to shear forces and produce brief Ca^{2+} signals

in response to solution exchange that are dependent on extracellular Ca^{2+}, and that these are

more prominent at 37° C. To minimize these confounding effects, cells were imaged at RT and

perfusion was performed gently. Salsa6f-expressing iPSC-microglia were prepared for Ca^{2+}

imaging in the same way as conventional microglia, but without the dye loading steps. The

following buffers were used for Ca^{2+} imaging: (1) 1 or 2 mM Ca^{2+} Ringer solution comprising 155

mM NaCl, 4.5 mM KCl, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 0.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM glucose, and 10 mM HEPES (pH

adjusted to 7.4 with NaOH), (2) Ca^{2+}-free Ringer solution containing: 155 mM NaCl, 4.5 mM KCl,

1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM glucose, 1 mM EGTA, 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4. Live cell imaging was

performed as described earlier. Cells were treated with ADP as indicated in the results section.

Data acquisition: Time-lapse images were acquired in a single Z-plane at 512 x 512 pixels (X =

318.2 μm and Y = 318.2 μm) and at 2-3 sec time intervals using Olympus FV3000 software. Images

were time averaged over 3 frames to generate a rolling average and saved as .OIR files.

Data analysis: Time-lapse videos were exported to Fiji- ImageJ (https://imagej.net/Fiji),

converted to tiff files (16-bit) and background subtracted. Single-cell analysis was performed by

drawing ROIs around individual cells in the field and average pixel intensities in the green and red

channels were calculated for each ROI at each time-point. GCaMP6f/ TdTomato (G/R Ratio) and

Fluo-4/Fura-Red ratio was then obtained to further generate traces showing single-cell and

average changes in cytosolic Ca^{2+} over time. Single-cell ratio values was used to calculate Peak

Ca^{2+} signal and responses at specific time points after agonist application. Peak Ca^{2+} signal for

each cell was baseline subtracted, which was calculated as an average of 10 minimum ratio values

before application of agonist.

Microglia process extension analysis:

Data acquisition: GFP-expressing iPSC-microglia were plated overnight on 35 mm glass bottom

dishes at 40-50% confluence. Cells were imaged by excitation of GFP on the confocal microscope

at 37° C as described earlier. To study process extension in response to ADP, two sets of GFP

images were obtained for each field of view across multiple dishes: before addition of ADP

(baseline) and 30 min after application of ADP. Images were acquired as a Z-stack using the Galvo

scanner at Nyquist sampling. Adjacent fields of view were combined using the Stitching function

of the Olympus FV3000 Software and saved as .OIR files.

Process Analysis: The basic workflow for microglia process analysis was adapted from Morrison

et al, Sci. Rep, 2017 [66]. Image stacks (.OIR files) were exported to Fiji- Image J and converted into

16-bit Tiff files using the Olympus Viewer Plugin (https://imagej.net/OlympusImageJPlugin).

Maximum intensity projection (MIP) image from each Z-stack was used for further processing

and analysis. MIP images were converted to 8-bit grey scale images, to which a threshold was

applied to obtain 8-bit binary images. The same threshold was used for all sets of images, both

before and after ADP application. Noise reduction was performed on the binary images using the

Process -> Noise -> Unspeckle function. Outlier pixels were eliminated using Process -> Noise ->

Outliers function. The binary images were then skeletonized using the Skeletonize2D/3D Plugin

for Image J (https://imagej.net/plugins/skeletonize3d). Sparingly, manual segmentation was

used to separate a single skeleton that was part of two cells touching each other. The Analyze

Skeleton Plugin (https://imagej.net/plugins/analyze-skeleton/) was then applied to the

skeletonized images to obtain parameters related to process length and number of branches for

each cell in the imaging field. Processes were considered to be skeletons > 8 μm. The data was

summarized as average process length and number of branches, before and after ADP application

for a specific imaging field, normalized to the number of cells in the field which allowed for

pairwise comparison. Additionally, single cell data across all experiments were also compared in

some instances.

IP$_3$ uncaging: Whole-field uncaging of i-IP$_3$, a poorly metabolized IP$_3$ analog, was performed as

previously described [67] with minor modifications. Briefly, iPSC-microglia were loaded for 20 min

at 37° C with either Cal520 AM or Cal590 AM (5 μM, AAT Bioquest), and the cell permeable, caged

i-IP$_3$ analog ci-IP$_3$/PM (1 μM, SiChem) plus 0.1% Pluronic F-127 in Microglia Basal Medium. Cells

were washed and incubated in the dark for further 30 min in a HEPES-buffered salt solution

(HBSS) whose composition was (in mM): 135 NaCl, 5.4 KCl, 1.0 MgCl2, 10 HEPES, 10 glucose, 2.0

CaCl$_2$, and pH 7.4. Intracellular Ca^{2+} ([Ca^{2+}]$_i$) changes were imaged by employing a Nikon Eclipse

T*i* microscope system (Nikon) equipped with a 40x oil immersion objective (N.A.: 1.3; Nikon) and

an Orca Flash 4.0LT CMOS camera (Hamamatsu). Cal520 or Cal590 were excited by a 488 or a 560

nm laser light source (Vortran Laser Technologies), respectively. i-IP3 uncaging was achieved by

uniformly exposing the imaged cells to a single flash of ultraviolet (UV) light (350-400 nm) from

a Xenon arc lamp. UV flash duration, and thus the amount of released i-IP$_3$, was set by an

electronically controlled shutter.

Image acquisition was performed by using Nikon NIS (Nikon) software. After conversion

to stack tiff files, image sequences were analyzed with Flika, a custom-written Python-based

imaging analysis software (https://flika-org.github.io/; [68]). After background subtraction, either

Cal520 and Cal590 fluorescence changes of each cell were expressed as $\Delta F/F_0$, where F_0 is the

basal fluorescence intensity and ΔF the relative fluorescence change ($F_x - F_0$). Data are reported

as superplots [69] of at least three independent replicates. Experiments were reproduced with two

independent lines. Comparisons were performed by unpaired non-parametric t-test.

Immunocytochemistry: Cells were fixed with 4 % paraformaldehyde for 7 min and washed 3x

with 1X DPBS. For P2RY12 staining, plates were pre-treated with citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for 20 min

95° C. Blocking was performed at room temp for 1 hr in 5 % Goat Serum, 0.1 % Triton X-100.

Primary antibodies were added at 1:200 overnight 4° C (P2RY12; HPA014518 Sigma) (P2RY13;

APR-017, Alomone). Plates were washed 3x before addition of secondary antibodies (Goat anti-

Rabbit 488/555, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Hoeschst (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Images were

captured on an Olympus FV3000RS confocal microscope with identical laser and detection

settings. Images were analyzed with IMARIS 9.7.0 software.

Scratch wound assay: Nondirectional motility was analyzed using Essen Incucyte WoundMaker.

iPSC-microglia were plated on fibronectin (STEMCELL Technologies) at 90% confluence. Scratches

were repeated 4x to remove all cells from the wound area. Scratch wound confluency was imaged

every hour until scratch wound was closed (15 hrs). Confluence of cells within the original wound

ROI was calculated using IncuCyte 2020C software.

IMARIS Cell Tracking: For motility assays, iPSC-microglia were tracked using IMARIS 9.7.0

software. For videos of GFP lines, cells were tracked using spot identification. For videos of

Salsa6f lines, surface tracking was used to determine ratiometric Ca^{2+} fluorescence and motility

per cell. In both conditions, tracks were defined by Brownian motion with the maximum distance

jump of 4 microns and 10 frame disturbance with no gap filling. Tracks shorter than 3 minutes in

length were eliminated from analysis. After automated track formation, tracks underwent

manual quality control to eliminate extraneous tracks, merge falsely distinct tracks, and add

missed tracks. After export, data was plotted in Prism 9.1.0 or analyzed in excel using DiPer

macros for Plot_At_Origin and mean squared distance [57].

Generation of Salsa6f-expressing iPSC lines: iPSCs were collected following Accutase enzymatic

digestion for 3 min at 37° C. 20,000 cells were resuspended in 100 µL nucleofection buffer from

Human Stem Cell Nucleofector™ Kit 2 (Lonza). Salsa6f-AAVS1 SHL plasmid Template (2 µg; Vector

Builder) and RNP complex formed by incubating Alt-R® S.p. HiFi Cas9 Nuclease V3 (50 µg; IDTDNA)

was fused with crRNA:tracrRNA (IDTDNA) duplex for 15 min at 23° C. This complex was combined

with the cellular suspension and nucleofected using the Amaxa Nucleofector program B-016. To

recover, cells were plated in TeSR™-E8™ (STEMCELL Technologies) media with 0.25 µM

Thiazovivin (STEMCELL Technologies) and CloneR™ (STEMCELL Technologies) overnight. The

following day, cells were mechanically replated to 96-well plates in TeSR™-E8™ media with 0.25

µM Thiazovivin and CloneR™ supplement for clonal isolation and expansion. Plates were

screened visually with a fluorescence microscope to identify TdTomato+ clones. Genomic DNA

was extracted from positive clones using Extracta DNA prep for PCR (Quantabio) and amplified

using Taq PCR Master Mix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to confirm diallelic integration of the Salsa6f

cassette. A clone confirmed with diallelic Salsa6f integration in the AAVS1 SHL was then

retargeted as previously described[39] to knock-out Trem2.

Phagocytosis assay: Phagocytosis of transgenic iPSC-microglia was validated using IncuCyte S3

Live-Cell Analysis System (Sartorius) as in McQuade et al. 2020[39]. Microglia were plated at 50%

confluency 24 hours before substrates were added. Cells were treated with 50 µg/mL pHrodo

tagged human AD synaptosomes (isolated as described in McQuade et al. 2020), 100 ng/mL

pHrodo tagged zymosan A beads (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 100 ng/mL pHrodo tagged S. Aureus

(Thermo Fisher Scientific), or 2 μg/mL fluorescent beta-amyloid (Anaspec). Image masks for

fluorescence area and phase were generated using IncuCyte 2020C software.

Chemotaxis assay: iPSC-microglia were loaded into the angular chamber (2-5K cells/device) to

test activation and chemotaxis towards the central chamber containing either ADP (100 ng/mL)

or vehicle. When noted, PSB 0739 (10 μM) was added to both the central and angular chamber

to inhibit P2RY12. To characterize motility, we monitored the number of recruited microglia in

the central chamber for 4 days under the fully automated Nikon TiE microscope (10×

magnification; Micro Device Instruments, Avon, MA, USA).

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Declaration of interest: M.B.J. is a co-inventor of patent application WO/2018/160496, related to the differentiation of pluripotent stem cells into microglia. M.B.J and S.P.G. are co-founders of NovoGlia Inc.

Ethics: Human iPSC lines were generated by the University of California Alzheimer's Disease Research Center (UCI ADRC) stem cell core. Subject fibroblasts were collected under approved Institutional Review Boards (IRB) and human Stem Cell Research Oversight (hSCRO) committee protocols. Informed consent was received for all participants.

Data Availability: RNA sequencing data referenced in Figure 1- figure supplement 2 is available through Gene Expression Omnibus: GSE157652.

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Figure 1: Microglia lacking TREM2 show exaggerated Ca²⁺ responses to purinergic stimulation.

Figure 1-figure supplement 1: Differential engagement of SOCE by purinergic agonists.

Figure 1-figure supplement 2: Expression of STIM1, Orai1, and IP3R are not altered in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia.

Figure 1-figure supplement 3: SOCE engagement is not altered in TREM2 KO.

Figure 2: Higher sensitivity of TREM2 KO microglia to ADP is driven by increased purinergic receptor expression

Figure 3: Nondirectional ADP exposure increases WT microglial speed and process extension.

Figure 3-figure supplement 1: ADP-mediated process extension in WT iPSC-microglia.

Figure 4: ADP-driven process extension and cell displacement are increased in TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia.

Figure 4-figure supplement 1: Motility analysis in WT and TREM2 KO iPSC-microglia.

Figure 4-figure supplement 2: Comparison of process extension in WT and TREM2 KO Microglia.

Figure 5: Validation of Salsa6f transgenic iPSC-microglia.

Figure 5-figure supplement 1: Generation of Salsa6f iPSC line.

Figure 6: Cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels tune microglial motility in TREM2 KO cells.

Figure 6-figure supplement 1: Motility analysis with "Ca²⁺ clamp".

0.2 mM Calcium 0.2 µM Thapsigargin **Displacement**

Figure 7: Migration deficits in TREM2 KO microglia are rescued by inhibition of purinergic signaling.

Figure 8: A Model for Ca²⁺ regulation of ADP-mediated chemotaxis in microglia lacking TREM2.