Transcriptomic profiling of myeloid cells in Alzheimer's Disease brain illustrates heterogeneity of microglia endolysosomal subtypes

Katherine E. Prater*[1] (ORCID: 0000-0001-8615-207X), Kevin J. Green*[1], Wei Sun[2], Carole L. Smith[1], Kenneth L. Chiou[3], Laura Heath[4], Shannon Rose[5], C. Dirk Keene[5], Ronald Y. Kwon[6,7], Noah Snyder-Mackler (ORCID: 0000-0003-3026-6160)[3], Elizabeth E. Blue (ORCID: 0000-0002-0633-0305)[9,10], Jessica E. Young[5,6], Ali Shojaie[8], Benjamin Logsdon[4,11], Gwenn A. Garden[12], and Suman Jayadev[1,6]

Department of Neurology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA 98195
Biostatistics Program, Public Health Sciences Division, Fred Hutchinson Cancer Research Center, Seattle, WA
School of Life Sciences, Center for Evolution and Medicine, Arizona State University, Tempe, AZ
Sage Bionetworks, Seattle, WA
Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Institute for Stem Cell and Regenerative Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Department of Orthopaedics and Sports Medicine, University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Department of Biostatistics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Division of Medical Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA
Brotman Baty Institute for Precision Medicine, Seattle, Washington, 98195, USA
Cajal Neuroscience, Seattle, WA
Department of Neurology, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC
* Equal co-first authors

Key words: AD, microglia, RNAseq, inflammation, human, APOE

Correspondence to:
Suman Jayadev, MD
sumie@uw.edu

Word Count:
Abstract: 147
Text: 4756
Methods: 1987
Figures: 7
Tables: 1
Supplemental Figures: 2 Tables: 3

Acknowledgements: Funding for these studies was provided by: RF1AG063540 and P30AG066509. Additional support was provided by the Ellison Foundation. Autopsy materials used in this study were obtained from the University of Washington Neuropathology Core, which is supported by the Alzheimer's Disease Research Center (AG05136) and the Adult Changes in Thought Study (AG006781). Conceived and designed experiments: SJ, KJG, CLS, BL, GAG. Performed the experiments: KJG, CLS, SR, CDK. Analyzed data: KEP, KJG, KLC. Biostatistics oversight: WS, AS. Wrote the manuscript: KEP, KJG, SJ. Edited the manuscript: CLS, WS, EEB, GAG. Provided code: WS, KLC, NSM, RYK, LH. Conceptualized the research and collaborations: SJ, GAG, JEY, EEB, BL.

Abstract:

Microglia-mediated neuroinflammation contributes to disease progression in Alzheimer's

Disease (AD). Microglia demonstrate heterogeneous states with proposed beneficial, harmful,

and disease-specific subtypes. Defining the spectrum of microglia phenotypes is crucially

important to the design of neuroinflammation-modulating therapies. We performed single-

nucleus RNA-seq on over 120,000 microglia nuclei isolated from dorsolateral prefrontal cortices

collected from 12 AD and 10 controls. We detected several previously unrecognized microglia

transcriptomic sub-populations, including three with predominant endolysosomal gene

expression patterns and heterogeneous metabolic and inflammatory signatures. One

endoloysomal subtype is more abundant in AD individuals and uniquely enriched for transcripts

involved in nucleic acid detection and interferon signaling. AD individuals also exhibited

increased expression of unfolded protein response and inflammatory genes in homeostatic

microglia subpopulations. These results highlight the heterogenous nature of the microglia

response to AD pathology and inform efforts to target specific subtypes of microglia in the

development of novel AD therapies.

Introduction:

Alzheimer's Disease (AD) affects millions of individuals worldwide, with increasing impact of the disease as the US/global population ages. AD is pathologically characterized by the presence of extracellular amyloid-beta plaques, neuronal intracellular neurofibrillary tangles, and neuroinflammation. Neuroinflammation is one hypothesized driver of AD[1–3] and microglia are critical sources of neuroinflammation[4–9]. In AD brain, microglia release inflammatory factors, lose protective homeostatic function, and initiate aberrant phagocytosis of synapses and neurons, all of which influence the pathophysiology behind cognitive decline[5,9–11]. As such, dysregulated microglial inflammatory responses have potential as future therapeutic targets. Yet large gaps remain in our understanding of microglia inflammatory responses in AD brain.

Experimental models illustrate a spectrum of microglia states differentiated by morphology, physiology, and gene expression patterns, but less is known about microglia functional heterogeneity in human disease. Studies in human autopsy brain tissue are not amenable to controlled hypothesis testing but can provide unique insights into human disease pathogenesis. Defining the molecular signatures of specific microglial populations in human brain can give context to the recognized inflammatory responses in AD as well as guide and inform hypothesis testing *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Prior single cell or single nucleus RNAseq studies in human and animal model brain identified subpopulations of microglia with specific biological function correlates in AD[12–21]. Several studies have described "Disease-associated microglia" (DAMs), or alternatively activated-response microglia (ARMs), a specific population of microglia observed in AD mouse models and proportionately enriched in AD human cases[12,14,15]. While informative, these pioneering studies involve small numbers (100's or perhaps 1000's) of microglia. Two recent studies profiled 16,000–148,000 human microglia and revealed 9-12 microglia subpopulations

suggesting that larger numbers of sequenced cells could achieve finer resolution of biologically

relevant subtypes[18,20].

Microglia comprise 3-8% of all cells in brain tissue[22]. Therefore, many single nucleus

RNAseq (snRNAseq) studies profile only dozens or hundreds of microglia per individual, limiting

the ability to characterize the degree of transcriptional heterogeneity actually present[14,17]. We

posited that cellular processes upstream of the well-recognized "inflammatory" or "responsive"

microglia profiles would be uncovered by improved resolution of microglia phenotypes in human

brain. To allow better characterization of the changes occurring in microglia subpopulations in

AD brain, we developed a novel enrichment technique that enhances microglia representation in

a snRNAseq dataset and applied this approach to a well-defined cohort of AD and control

cases. We generated microglia transcriptional profiles from a cohort of 22 individuals with mixed

APOE genotypes. We annotated microglia subtypes with plausible biological roles and identified

transcriptional differences between AD and control individuals within microglial phenotypes. In

addition to homeostatic and inflammatory phenotypes described previously, we uncovered

microglial subtypes with distinct transcriptomic profiles that provide new avenues for hypotheses

testing in future studies of AD mechanisms.

Results:

Fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting for PU.1 expression enriches microglia

nuclei 20-fold. We hypothesized that much larger numbers of microglia nuclei could be

evaluated by snRNAseq if first enriched using fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting (FANS) for

expression of a myeloid specific transcription factor (PU.1; Figure 1A) To confirm that PU.1

FANS was effective, we isolated and sequenced nuclei with and without PU.1 FANS (N=4). We

analyzed similar numbers of total nuclei in the unsorted (46,085; Figure 1B) and PU.1 sorted

(41,488; Figure 1C) datasets. The PU.1 sorted dataset contained 20X more microglia nuclei

defined by high expression of *C3*, *CD74*, *C1QB*, *CX3CR1*, and *SPI1* (23,310 microglia nuclei)

than the unsorted dataset (1,032 microglia nuclei; Figure 1B,C). The microglia nuclei observed

in the PU.1 sorted dataset also demonstrate further complexity as evidenced by more microglia

subtypes (Figure 1C). We next applied PU.1 FANS to a cohort of 22 individuals, allowing us to

distinguish subclusters/subpopulations with better resolution and define their biological

functions. After PU.1 FANS, samples retain a variety of non-myeloid cell types (Figure 2A) while

providing clear resolution of clusters demonstrating distinct microglia gene expression patterns

(63% of the nuclei; Figure 2B).

Complexity of microglia subpopulations. The initial dataset consisted of 205,226

nuclei, with 200,948 nuclei (98%) passing QC and doublet removal. Of those, 127,371 were

microglia, with a minimum of 1,300 and an average of 5,790 nuclei per individual. Cluster

analysis of nuclei with microglia-like expression identified 10 clusters (Figure 3A) characterized

by differentially expressed genes (DEGs) comparing the cluster to all other nuclei (Figure 3B).

These subpopulations also have separable biological function correlates based on pathway

analyses (Figure 3C). There are many definitions of pathways and no single gold standard, so

we performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) three times, using pathways defined by

GO, KEGG, and Reactome. These results are in Tables S2 and S3, with Figure 3C illustrating

only those pathways supported by at least 2/3 GSEA analyses.

We identified Cluster 1, the largest cluster, as the "homeostatic" cluster based on high

expression of *CX3CR1* and *P2RY12*[12,14,17,20]. Genes over-expressed in Cluster 1 matched 69%

of genes that are over-expressed in the homeostatic cluster defined by Gerrits *et al.* (2021), the

largest microglia-specific snRNAseq study to-date. Cluster 1 also contained genes identified as

"homeostatic" from two other snRNAseq publications[12,17]. We abbreviate this "homeostatic"

cluster as HC1. Cluster 2, while very similar to HC1 in terms of a non-activated state, was

further defined by a set of genes with lower expression compared to HC1 (Figure 3B). The

genes with lower expression in Cluster 2 are known to be involved in inflammatory processes

and include *SPP1*, *HIF1A*, *CD14*, and *MALAT1*[12,15,23]. Although different in their gene

expression, HC1 and Cluster 2 may have similar biological function. Similar to previous

publications, we also assessed DEGs for other clusters in comparison to HC1 to assess change

from "homeostatic" states (Table S2).

Two clusters were similar to microglia subtypes previously described in human brain.

Cluster 4 was defined by expression of *FTH1* and *FTL* as well as a large number of ribosomal

genes (Figure 3B). A cluster of microglia with similar gene expression phenotype is consistently

identified in AD brain in both mouse and human[12–14,17,20,24]. This cluster is enriched for pathways

involved in apoptosis, response to interferon-gamma (IFNγ), and many mitochondrial and

respiratory functions (Figure 3C).   Cluster 8 is defined by expression of classic inflammatory

activation genes including *TNFAIP3, NFKB1, TRAF3, RELB* (Figure 3B)[1,25,26]. Pathway analysis

revealed this cluster was enriched in NFκB signaling, IFN signaling as well as Toll-like receptor

and RIG-1 mediated signaling consistent with activation of nucleic acid and DAMP recognition

pathways (Figure 3C).

Next, we found three novel clusters with endolysosomal gene and pathway signatures.

Cluster 3 was defined by a set of genes which are implicated in aggregate protein internalization

by microglia (Figure 3B)[12,14,15,17,20,24]. DEGs in this cluster including *FCER1G*, *MERTK*,

DENND4c, *ATG7* and *ATG16L2* suggested phagocytosis, vesicle mediated transport, and

autophagy functions[26]. The pathways enriched in Cluster 3 include a variety of endosome and

lysosome pathways as well as catabolism and lipid binding, but no inflammatory processes

(Figure 3C). Consistent with this characterization, genes involved in glycolysis such as *HK2* and

PFKFB3 have lower expression in Cluster 3, suggesting these cells have not undergone the

metabolic switch to glycolysis observed in the microglia inflammatory state[27].

Cluster 5 and 6 displayed an endolysosomal signature, though also appeared

metabolically active with distinct inflammatory characteristics. Cluster 5 was differentiated from

other microglia nuclei by increased expression of *HSP90AA1, HIF1A*, and *BAG3* in addition to

other heat shock protein (HSP) genes (Figure 3B), suggesting these cells are responding to

external stress. Genes driving glycolysis including *PFKFB*3 and *HK2* were more expressed in

Cluster 5 when compared to HC1, suggesting a switch from oxidative phosphorylation to

glycolysis in these cells[27]. The pathways enriched in this cluster indicate it is active in

endocytosis, autophagy, mitophagy (Figure 3C).

Cluster 6 was metabolically active, but unlike Cluster 5 appeared to have a more

inflammatory profile (Figure 3B). The pathways enriched within Cluster 6 demonstrate metabolic

activity and response to stressors similar to Cluster 5 (Fig 3C) with enrichment of glucose

catabolic and chaperone binding, NLR signaling and ubiquitin-like protein ligase activity. Unique

to Cluster 6, we found that the DNA repair genes[28] *ATM*, and *RNASEH2B* were lower in

expression. Cluster 6 showed increased expression of genes involved in double and single

strand DNA/RNA intracellular recognition (an "antiviral" gene expression pattern) including

MAVS, DDX42, ADAR, the lysosomal gene *CLC-7*, and mediators of the NLRP3 inflammasome

including *CASP1, TXNIP, P2RX7,* and the pattern recognition receptor *CARD9*[25,26,29–32]. The

downstream mediators of nucleic acid recognition and inflammasome activation include the type

1 interferons and we found significantly higher levels of *IRF3, IRF5*, and *IRF7*, suggesting that

Cluster 6 microglia are activating pathogen receptor and inflammasome pathways and inducing

interferon signaling molecules. While *IL1b* was increased in this cluster compared to HC1,

higher levels of *IL1b* and expression of other inflammatory effector molecules such as *NFkB*

were found in Cluster 8.

Cluster 7 is characterized by expression of genes involved in migration and motility

(Figure 3B). Pathways enriched in Cluster 7 also indicate these cells are motile, with changes to

cytoskeleton and membrane that indicate movement of processes or the cell itself (Figure 3C).

This subpopulation of microglia was also notable for expression of lipid processing genes *LPL*

and *PPARG*[33].

Finally, our dataset identified two clusters on the extreme ends of the proliferation

spectrum. Cluster 9 is defined from all other nuclei by genes including *TMEM2* and *HAMP*

(Figure 3B). *HAMP* encodes the protein hepcidin, one of the primary drivers of iron homeostasis

in the human body[34]. Pathways enriched in this microglia subtype involve metal ion homeostasis

and cytokine production while pathways that are significantly underrepresented include motility

(Table S2). This profile is consistent with senescent microglia[35]. In contrast, Cluster 10 is

defined from all other nuclei by expression of genes involved in cell cycle regulation and DNA

repair[28,36]. The pathways enriched in Cluster 10 confirm the relative increase of genes involved

in cell cycle processes and a decrease of endosome and cytokine processing genes in these

microglia (Figure 3C).

APOE genotype does not substantially alter clustering of microglia subtypes. We

asked whether there would be a detectable difference in the cluster profile of microglia if we

were to focus solely on a cohort of *APOE* ε3/ε3 genotype individuals. Despite the role of *APOE*

in risk and progression of AD[37], to date no studies have defined microglia subtypes in a

population of individuals with a specific *APOE* genotype. Since the majority (13/22) of our

sample were homozygous for the *APOE* ε3 allele, we generated a subset of our dataset that

consisted entirely of *APOE* ε3/ε3 individuals (7 controls and 6 AD pathology; 75018 microglia

nuclei). After re-normalizing and re-clustering, we identified 9 subpopulations of microglia

(Figure 4A). These clusters were defined by genes similar to those that defined the clusters in

the Mixed *APOE* genotype dataset (Figure 4B). Although *APOE* ε3/ε3 genotype individuals had

nuclei in mixed APOE cluster 9 (senescent microglia) it was not distinct after re-clustering the

smaller dataset. We identified clusters where the genes enriched in a cluster were very similar

(~60% or higher match) to the Mixed *APOE* dataset (Figure 4C). We found homeostatic,

neurodegenerative, inflammatory, cell cycle, and endolysosomal clusters similar to those of the

Mixed *APOE* cohort (Figure 4C). We again detected metabolically active clusters in the *APOE*

ε3/ε3 genotype dataset, suggesting that the presence of multiple distinct metabolically active

microglia subtypes is common in the human brain even when controlling for *APOE* genotype.

Genes implicated in AD risk and pathogenesis are differentially regulated in

individual microglial subtypes. A number of studies in animals and humans have

characterized the "Disease Associated Microglia" phenotype and we determined whether the set

of genes originally defined by Keren-Shaul *et al*.[12] was enriched in a particular subtype of our

human microglia dataset. Utilizing GSEA, we determined whether gene sets reflecting biological

pathways tend to have higher expression in specific clusters. While the majority of our clusters

(with the exception of Clusters 9 and 10) had enrichment of approximately 35 genes in the DAM

gene set, Cluster 4 demonstrated the highest adjusted *p*-values (adjusted *p*<0.001) and the

expected direction of gene expression (Figure 5A). Cluster 6 was also enriched for multiple

DAM genes that differed from Cluster 4 in the expected direction (Figure 5A). This suggests that

in our dataset, the DAM phenotype is split across multiple clusters with differing gene

expression profiles and biological functions consistent with previous reports in human

microglia[16,17].

Multiple AD GWAS identified risk SNPs are associated with genes expressed in

microglia or myeloid cells[8]. Utilizing a list of 46 genes in SNP loci associated with altered AD

risk[37,38], we used GSEA to assess enrichment of this gene set within our microglia clusters. We

observed significant enrichment (adjusted *p*<0.001) of AD risk genes differentially expressed in

Cluster 6 (Figure 5B). Altered expression of genes associated with AD risk was observed in

both directions in Cluster 6 microglia. *PICALM* and *SORL1* are significantly lower, while others

including *APP*, *APOE*, and *BIN1* were significantly higher in expression (all adjusted *p*<0.001;

Figure 5B).

Having detected enrichment of AD risk genes unique to Cluster 6, we assessed whether

genes from gene sets representing biological processes were enriched in specific clusters. Our

GSEA analysis demonstrated strong enrichment (adjusted *p*<0.001) of endolysosomal genes

LGMN, *CTSL*, and *CTSB*, in Clusters 3, 6, and 7, and the pair of *CTSL* and *CSTB* in Cluster 5

(Figure 5C). Our heatmap demonstrates strong expression of the GO endolysosomal gene set

in Cluster 6, with lesser levels in Clusters 3 and 5, though not all are statistically significant

(Figure 5C). We also confirmed expression of inflammatory TLR signaling in Clusters 6 and 8

using the KEGG TLR gene set confirming the inflammatory activation phenotype of both

subpopulations of microglia (Figure 5D). We utilized the KEGG cell cycle gene set to confirm

that Cluster 10 is enriched for cell cycle genes significantly (adjusted *p*<0.001; Figure 5E).

These gene sets provide additional verification of the biological functions attributed to these

clusters utilizing genes not necessarily identified as differentially expressed in our dataset.

AD cases demonstrate increased numbers of Cluster 6 microglia. We determined

that only Cluster 6 was enriched for AD nuclei over control nuclei (adjusted *p*=0.006; Figure 6).

This AD-enriched cluster also has the highest differential regulation of genes related to top AD

risk SNPs (Figure 5B)[37,38]. This finding suggests that AD is associated with increased numbers

of microglia that demonstrate an endolysosomal, glycolytic, and inflammatory gene expression

profile. These results confirm previously reported findings that the subpopulation of microglia

proportionately altered in AD human brain differs from that identified in mouse models[18,39].

AD brains contain fewer microglia expressing high levels of cell cycle genes. In

addition to identifying microglia subtypes increased in AD, we addressed whether a microglia

subtype present in healthy aging was reduced in AD brain. We determined that Cluster 10, the

cluster differentially expressing cell cycle regulatory genes, is larger in control brain compared to

AD brain (Mixed *APOE* adjusted *p*<0.001; *APOE* ε3/ε3 adjusted *p*<0.001; Figure 6). These data

demonstrate that AD pathology includes a detectable reduction in a microglia subpopulation

enriched for cell cycle and DNA repair genes.

Microglia transcriptomic progression takes multiple paths. Microglia are known to

enter various activated and quiescent states. We utilized trajectory and lineage analyses to

determine which subtypes of microglia may be end state versus transition state as a hypothesis-

generating exercise. Both trajectory and lineage analyses utilize gene expression changes to

predict which clusters ("cellular states") may proceed from one to another. Using Monocle3[40],

we applied trajectory reconstruction and pseudotime analysis on the Mixed *APOE* dataset of 22

individuals (Supplemental Figure 1A). The pseudotime analysis suggests that Cluster 4 and

Cluster 6 are later pseudotime potential endpoints (Supplemental Figure 1A). We additionally

applied Slingshot[41] to identify lineages between subpopulations of microglia clusters. When we

required Slingshot to use HC1 as the starting end of its lineage algorithm, it produced three

lineages with endpoints of Clusters 6, 4, and 8 and all three lineages transitioned through

Cluster 10 (Supplemental Figure 1B). Both Monocle3 and Slingshot identified Cluster 4 and

Cluster 6 as endpoints or later pseudotime phenotypes, suggesting consistency for these two

results across multiple bioinformatic approaches. While these findings require replication, they

suggest that microglia may pass through multiple states to reach one of a set of endpoints that

represent neurodegenerative, endolysosomal, and inflammatory processes.

Homeostatic microglia differ between AD and controls. One of the challenges to

identifying microglia single nuclei transcriptomic change in AD subjects is to assay sufficient

numbers of microglia for gene expression analysis. Previous manuscripts have not attempted to

define gene expression differences between AD and Control brains within specific microglia

subtypes. By increasing the yield of microglia nuclei per participant, we had adequate power to

test for gene expression changes between AD and controls as two cohorts each contributing 12

or 10 people, respectively.

Comparison of HC1 from the AD cohort to controls revealed altered expression of

immune genes associated with endoplasmic reticulum stress and the unfolded protein

response. *HSPA5* (FC = 3.11, adjusted *p*=0.056), and *EIF2AK3* (FC = 0.70, adjusted *p*=0.083;

Figure 7A)[42–44] were highly expressed in AD brain compared to control. *EIF2AK3*, also known

as *PERK*, is activated by viral infection[42]. These genes have also been identified as influenced

by or influencing the production of amyloid-beta[42,43]. *CD14* (FC = 1.67, adjusted *p*=0.055; Figure

7A) was also more highly expressed in AD brain in HC1, and is known to interact with TLR4 to

enhance phagocytosis of amyloid-beta in addition to providing multiple activation paths including

interferon stimulation[23]. Together, the increased expression of these genes in AD brain within

HC1 cluster microglia suggest a more inflammatory gene expression pattern, even within this

"homeostatic" microglia subpopulation.

Cluster 3, which we identified as consistent with a phagocytic but not inflammatory state

also demonstrated enhanced expression of genes associated with inflammation including

NFKB1 (FC=0.62, adjusted *p*=0.052) and *ZNF143* (FC=0.80, adjusted *p*=0.084) and altered

metabolism including *ATP13A3* (FC=1.12, adjusted *p*=0.078, Figure 7B) in AD brain compared

to controls. *ZNF143* is a transcription factor induced by DNA damage[45]. *ATP13A3* is localized

primarily to recycling endosomes[46] and may play a role in heavy metal and polyamine

trafficking. The differential expression of these genes in AD Cluster 3 suggests an enhancement

of inflammatory and altered metabolic processing in AD brain in a subpopulation of microglia

that did not possess an inflammatory phenotype.

In contrast to HC1 and Cluster 3, we did not identify any genes altered in Cluster 6. The

majority of the genes altered in AD within the inflammatory Cluster 8 were not associated with

inflammation or stress pathways. Although the genes associated with inflammation and ER

stress were more highly expressed in AD brain in HC1 and Cluster 3, they were unchanged in

Clusters 8 (Figure S2) or 10 (Table S2). These results confirm that the changes we observed in

the less activated subpopulations of microglia were driven by AD gene expression changes only

within specific microglia subpopulations.

<u>Discussion:</u>

This study utilized a novel sorting technique to enrich our snRNAseq dataset for

microglia, yielding better resolution of the diversity of microglia subpopulations and their

alterations in AD brain. We identified ten unique microglia subpopulations including previously

described "homeostatic", and "inflammatory" phenotypes, as well as novel subtypes with a

range of activation phenotypes and distinct features. Furthermore, we found diversity of

microglia subtypes with endolysosomal phenotypes and that one endolysosomal subtype in

particular appears to link endolysosomal function with interferon responses pathways. This

cluster is both enriched in AD individuals and expression of AD risk genes.

Immune cells are metabolically dynamic, modulating the switch from oxidative

phosphorylation to glycolysis in response to cell stress and activation of pattern recognition

receptors[27]. This metabolic reprogramming is also implicated in AD pathophysiologic

change[47,48]. In our study, at least two Clusters (5 and 6), seemed to have made the metabolic

switch to glycolysis. Cluster 5 was enriched in mitophagy and autophagy which, if functioning

appropriately, is a homeostatic mechanism during activation and aging[49]. In line with this

interpretation, the Cluster 5 phenotype did not appear to be initiating a simultaneous

inflammatory response in contrast to Cluster 6. A recent proteomic analysis of mouse microglia

has demonstrated a similar microglia autophagic lysosomal subtype present in both an AD

model and healthy brain[50].

The Cluster 6 subtype was distinct as proportionately larger in AD individuals,

suggesting the microenvironment and stimuli contributing to this phenotype was more likely to

be found in AD brain. In addition to lysosomal and vesicular function, Cluster 6 was enriched for

pathways characterized by unfolded protein response and aggrephagy. We speculate this

profile implies that Cluster 6 cells are initiating pathways to process accumulated protein

aggregations. Cluster 6 also demonstrated expression of genes involved in the detection of

cytosolic nucleic acids which can lead to activation[29,31,51]. Roy *et al*. recently reported that

amyloid fibrils containing nucleic acids can induce a type I interferon response and subsequent

synapse loss in an animal AD model[52]. The gene expression and pathway enrichment of Cluster

6 suggests a similar model of interferon signaling induction. Cross talk between interferon

signaling and the inflammasome contributes to AD pathogenesis, and the NLRP3

inflammasome which is activated by lysosome rupture is a key component to AD

neuroinflammation[3]. This study in human AD tissue suggests that the detection and response to

RNA/DNA is occurring in specific microglia subtypes also enriched for endolysosomal genes

and pathways.

Together, Clusters 3, 5, and 6 represent a diversity of endocytosis, vesicle trafficking,

endolysosomal and autophagosome pathways defined within the dataset. Seminal work since

the 1990s has implicated a key role of endolysosomal dysfunction in AD[53]. While innovative *in*

vitro and *in vivo* studies in immune cells have mapped the path from lysosomal destabilization to

inflammasome activation, to date there has not yet been clear evidence from human patient

tissue that these processes may occur in particular subpopulations of microglia. As the first to

report that a specific cluster of microglia with endolysosomal function is both enriched for AD

nuclei, AD risk gene expression, and interferon activation, our results require further replication

in other AD cohorts, and suggest the need for *in vitro* studies where specific transitions between

different endolysosomal phenotypes can be initiated and detected experimentally.

Multiple studies have reproducibly identified differential expression of at least 20 AD risk

genes in brain from both mouse and human[15,17,18,20,24,54,55]. In mouse studies, AD risk genes

were found to be enriched in homeostatic microglia, activated response microglia[15], and

modules enriched for viral response and autophagy pathways[24]. In human brain, several studies

have identified AD risk genes across multiple phenotypes of microglia including both

homeostatic and activated subpopulations[17,18]. Many of the top International Genomics of

Alzheimer's Project (IGAP) genes are involved in the endolysosomal system[37], and we found

AD endolysosomal risk genes are selectively differentially regulated in Cluster 6. The

endolysosomal network is critical to maintaining neural cell homeostasis and has long been

implicated in AD pathogenesis. Impaired microglial endolysosomal function is often discussed in

the context of insufficient amyloid clearance[53,56]. Yet the endolysosomal system in microglia

maintains a critical role in identifying and processing foreign microbes including initiation of TLR

and interferon signaling[25,49]. In this study, we resolved lysosomal active microglia into a non-

inflammatory autophagic phenotype (Cluster 5) and a dysregulated inflammatory phenotype

(Cluster 6), finding the endolysosomal AD risk genes to be more strongly regulated in the latter.

One premise behind subtyping myeloid cells in brain tissue is that the disease process

may result in heterogeneous populations of microglia, some of which may be more relevant to

target for therapy. We found that a microglial subtype characterized by genes related to cell

cycle and DNA repair was depleted in AD compared to control. Microglia population dynamics

are known to play important roles in neurodegeneration and neuroinflammation[57]. Further

studies are needed both to confirm our findings of a decrease of cell-cycle associated microglia

in human AD and whether the decrease is due to a transition toward senescent phenotypes in

AD brain, which may be regionally dependent and related to neuropathological features.

The influence of aging is unavoidable in a study with post-mortem AD and age-matched

brain. Aging signatures have been described, unique to human, distinct from the activation

profile from murine AD models, yet sharing similarities with human AD signatures[55]. Genes

suggestive of an "aging signature" are expressed in all clusters in this study[58] consistent with

our older age cohort. Inflammaging, the immune changes associated with age and correlated

with chronic low-grade inflammation[59], may not only confound interpretations of gene

expression profiles attributable to AD, but may also contribute to the disease mechanisms

hypothesized to drive AD. For instance, lysosomal function and ability to maintain homeostasis

decreases with age[60], thus the interaction between common genetic risk, aging, and experience

may in aggregate raise the risk of AD over time. Additional studies exploring differences

between younger controls and early-onset AD may help to explore the aging, inflammaging, and

AD specific signatures.

As expected, given its frequency and strong association with AD, we observe more

copies of the *APOE* ε4 allele in AD cases than controls within our sample reflecting the

availability of tissues from our brain bank. The degree of similarity between microglia subtypes

when comparing the mixed *APOE* group and the *APOE* ε3/ε3 cohort was notable. However, the

limited sample size remains a significant caveat to drawing strong conclusions. The profile of

gene expression changes observed in AD cases within non-inflammatory microglia

subpopulations altered depending on whether the analysis was performed in an *APOE* ε3/ε3 or

a mixed genotype. This finding may not be surprising given the established role of the *APOE*

allele in AD risk as well as work suggesting mechanistic roles for APOE in AD immune

pathophysiology. Nevertheless, the results underline the importance of balancing and more

preferably, selecting samples based on *APOE* genotype and the need for larger cohorts to allow

for appropriate comparison.

Previous bulk RNAseq studies have identified upregulation of genes associated with

inflammation in AD brain[24,39]. While studies in mouse models have begun to differentiate

different forms of inflammatory phenotypes or the timing of inflammation in AD, these have yet

to be defined in human[24,39,54]. The significant advantage of our study is that we identified AD-

specific gene expression changes within the subpopulations of microglia defined by the

snRNAseq dataset. Cluster 1 in both Mixed *APOE* and *APOE* ε3/ε3 cohorts was considered

"homeostatic"[12,17,20]. In our dataset, homeostatic nuclei from AD subjects differed from their

control homeostatic counterparts. While both AD and control nuclei were equally represented in

this group, AD subjects revealed a transcriptomic signature consistent with induction of

inflammatory programs. This finding, that cells annotated as "homeostatic" are associated with

differing transcriptional profiles between control and AD, may be a relevant consideration in

future, larger studies to identify the AD associated cellular states.

Like all snRNAseq studies, there are limitations to our study. Although we analyzed a

subset of all *APOE* ε3/ε3 genotype individuals and identified similar subpopulations of microglia,

we cannot directly distinguish the impact of *APOE* ε4 in this cohort. Future studies in cohorts

balanced to study the interaction of sex and *APOE* genotype will be necessary to tailor

interventions effectively. While our PU.1 sorting technique provides a unique way to enrich our

dataset for microglia nuclei and allows for greater depth of resolution at an individual level, it

potentially selects for a specific population of microglia. There may be other subpopulations of

microglia that are underrepresented or not found in our dataset because of varying levels of

PU.1 expression. Although gene expression is a useful molecular tool for cellular subtyping, it

does not always directly describe protein expression, localization, or activity[61]. Future studies to

assess the correlation between gene and protein expression at a spatial level can provide

further context to our understanding of the phenotypic heterogeneity captured here.

Nevertheless, this novel work demonstrates the improved resolution that can be achieved in

autopsy brain tissue revealing phenotypes recognized *in vitro* and in other inflammatory models,

but previously unidentified in human AD brain.

Studies in animal models have described a spectrum of microglia phenotypes, though

confirming that diversity is present in human AD is complicated by the technical challenges of

capturing sufficient microglia from brain. Our novel enrichment technique allowed us to identify

and assess alterations within specific subpopulations of microglia isolated from human post-

mortem brain. Our identification of multiple internalization and trafficking clusters with varying

metabolic and inflammatory states provides important information for further studies to replicate

and investigate. The phenotype-specific alterations in both composition and gene expression in

AD brain provide additional evidence that specific targeting of detrimental biological function

rather than blanket approaches to therapeutic targeting of microglia will be critical moving

forward.

Methods:

Human Brain Tissue: Dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (dlPFC) tissue from human brains

was obtained from the Neuropathology Core of the Alzheimer's Disease Research Center

(ADRC) at the University Washington (UW) following informed consent approved by the UW

Institutional Review Board (IRB). Patients (n=12) were confirmed post-mortem to have AD

according to their ADNC score of 2-3 (Table 1). Control individuals (n=10) did not meet AD

diagnosis criteria post-mortem and had ADNC scores of 0-1 indicating low or no neuropathology

(Table 1).

Brain samples were obtained during rapid autopsy, flash-frozen in either liquid nitrogen

or isopentane and stored at -80ºC. Sample criteria for inclusion in this study included post-

mortem interval (PMI) ≤ 10 hrs, low comorbid pathology such as Lewy Bodies and hippocampal

sclerosis, and a brain pH at autopsy ≥ six (Table S1 provides additional demographic and

clinical characteristics).

<u>Isolation of Nuclei from Flash Frozen Tissue for Unsorted snRNA-seq:</u> Nuclei from

frozen rapid autopsy samples were isolated using protocols adapted from 10x Genomics

Demonstrated Protocols and De Groot *et al.*[62]. Samples were processed on ice using pre-chilled

solutions and RNAse-free instruments and equipment unless otherwise stated. Briefly, four

2mm punches of dlPFC gray matter were collected using a biopsy punch (Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA) into a 1.5mL microcentrifuge tube on dry ice. Brain punches were homogenized

on ice in 50µl of Nuclei Lysis Buffer (NLB: 10mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10mM NaCl, 3mM $MgCl_2$,

0.1% NP-40 Alternative (Calbiochem, La Jolla, CA) 0.5% Protector RNase Inhibitor (Sigma

Aldrich, St Louis, MO) and 100µM Aurintricarboxylic acid (ATA) in nuclease-free water) using a

disposable pestle (USA Scientific, Ocala, FL). The pestle was rinsed into the sample tube with

900µL of NLB and the homogenate was thoroughly mixed using a regular-bore P1000 tip. The

homogenate was incubated at 4ºC under gentle agitation for 10 min, pelleted at 500 x g for 7

min at 4ºC and resuspended in 500µL Nuclei Suspension Solution (NSS: phosphate buffered

saline (PBS) supplemented with 100µM ATA, 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA), and

0.5% Protector RNase Inhibitor). The nuclei suspension was carefully layered onto 900µL of

Percoll/Myelin Gradient Buffer (PMGB) consisting of 51% myelin gradient buffer (MGB)[62], 27%

Percoll (GE Healthcare, Uppsala, Sweden), 3% 10X Hanks Balanced Salt Solution without

calcium, magnesium (HBSS; Fisher Scientific), 2.5% 1.5M NaCl, 0.1% 10mM ATA in MGB, and

0.5% Protector RNase Inhibitor. The gradient was centrifuged at 950 x g for 20 min at 4°C with

slow acceleration and no brake. Myelin and supernatant were aspirated and the nuclei pellet

was resuspended in Resuspension Buffer (RB: PBS containing 1% BSA and 0.5% Protector

RNase Inhibitor) at a concentration of 1000 nuclei/µL and proceeded immediately to single-

nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq).

<u>Isolation of Nuclei from Flash Frozen Tissue for Fluorescence-activated Nuclei Sorting</u>

<u>(FANS):</u> Briefly, 400-500mg of dlPFC was collected into a 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tube on dry

ice. Brain tissue was homogenized on ice in 100μl of NLB supplemented with the following

protease and phosphatase inhibitors: 1X cOmplete Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail (Sigma-

Aldrich), 0.5% Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail 2 (Sigma-Aldrich) and 1mM phenylmethylsulfonyl

fluoride (PMSF; Tocris Bioscience, Ellisville, MO) using a disposable pestle (USA Scientific,

Ocala, FL). The pestle was rinsed with 800 μl of NLB supplemented with protease and

phosphatase inhibitors into the sample tube and the homogenate was thoroughly mixed using a

regular-bore P1000 tip. The homogenate was incubated at 4ºC under gentle agitation for 10min,

pelleted at 500 x g for 7 min at 4ºC and resuspended in 900μL PMGB supplemented with

protease and phosphatase inhibitors. The nuclei suspension was gently overlaid with 300μL

NSS supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors. The gradient was centrifuged at

950 x g for 20 min at 4ºC with slow acceleration and no brake. The myelin and supernatant

were aspirated and the nuclei pellet proceeded immediately to FANS.

Fluorescence Activated Nuclei Sorting (FANS): Nuclei were washed with cold FANS

media (10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 10mM HEPES, 100μM ATA, 10% 10X HBSS, 0.5%

Protector RNase Inhibitor, protease and phosphatase inhibitors, and 1% saponin in nuclease-

free water) and resuspended in 1mL of FANS media at a concentration of 2-2.5x10^6 nuclei/mL.

Nuclei were blocked with 1% Human BD Fc Block (clone Fc1.3216, BD Biosciences, San Jose,

CA) and incubated on ice for 10 min. Nuclei were labeled with either anti-PU.1-PE (clone 9G7,

1:50, Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA) or IgG-PE isotype control (clone DA1E, 1:50,

Cell Signaling Technology) for 4 hours on ice. Nuclei were washed three times with cold FANS

media and resuspended in 250 (isotype control) or 500μL (PU.1) FANS media supplemented

with 10μg/mL DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich). Nuclei were sorted using a FACSAria III Cell Sorter (BD

Biosciences) equipped with a 70μM nozzle until 30,000 PU.1-positive nuclei were collected in

RB. Sorted nuclei were centrifuged at 1,000 x g for 10 min at 4ºC. The nuclei pellet was

resuspended in RB at a concentration of 1000 nuclei/μL and proceeded immediately to snRNA-

seq.

Single Nuclei RNA-Sequencing (snRNA-seq): Single nuclei libraries were generated

using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' GEM, Library and Gel Bead Kit v3 (10x Genomics,

Pleasanton, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, a target capture of 10,000

nuclei were loaded onto a channel of a Chromium Next GEM Chip B (10x Genomics) to

generate Gel Bead-in-Emulsions (GEMs). GEMs underwent reverse transcription to barcode

RNA followed by amplification, fragmentation and 5' adaptor and sample index attachment.

Gene expression libraries were sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 platform (Illumina, San Diego,

CA) using a S2 100 cycle flow cell.

Alignment and Quality Control: Gene counts were obtained by aligning reads to the hg38

genome (GRCh38-1.2.0) using CellRanger 3.0.2 software (10x Genomics). Reads mapping to

precursor mRNA were included to account for unspliced nuclear transcripts. The majority of our

analysis was performed in R[63]. Droplets from 22 PU.1 sorted samples were combined using

Seurat v3.3[64]. Unsorted and PU.1 sorted droplets isolated from the same 4 subjects were

combined using Seurat and analyzed in the same manner. Droplets containing less than 350

UMIs, less than 350 genes, or greater than 1% mitochondrial genes were excluded from

analysis. The Seurat object was split by individual sample and ambient RNA was removed from

the remaining droplets using SoupX[65]. The level of ambient RNA contamination was estimated

using expression of mitochondrial genes, with a maximum contamination estimate set to 20%,

and removed. The majority of samples were estimated to have 5-12% ambient RNA

contamination, within the expected range for 10X RNAseq studies. Droplets containing multiple

nuclei were scored using Scrublet[66] with an estimated 10% doublet rate, as determined by 10x

Genomics. Doublet thresholds were determined manually at a local minimum in doublet score

and doublets were removed. 200,948 nuclei with an average of 1,787 genes per nucleus

remained in the dataset for further analysis.

Normalization and Cell Clustering: Normalization and clustering of the nuclei were

performed using Seurat v3.3[64]. Data were normalized for read depth using Pearson residuals

and mitochondrial gene content was regressed out using Seurat's SCTransform function[67].

Individual sample variability was removed using Seurat's Anchoring and Integration

functions[64]. Integration features were identified from the top 5000 genes across the samples

using SelectIntegrationFeatures. The data was prepared using PrepSCTIntegration.

The anchors were found using FindIntegrationAnchors with no reference sample, cca

reduction, and 30 dimensions. The top 5000 variable genes were kept and used during principle

component (PC) analysis using the RunPCA function in Seurat. 15 PCs were used to create a

shared nearest neighbors graph with k=20 using the FindNeighbors function in Seurat. The

modularity function was optimized using a resolution of 0.2 to determine clusters using the

Louvain algorithm with multilevel refinement to determine broad cell-types. Dimensionality

reduction of the clusters was performed using the RunUMAP function in Seurat. Each cluster

met a minimum threshold of 30 defining DEGs and was comprised of nuclei from >10% of the

cohort (more than two individuals).

Clusters were annotated for cell-type using manual evaluation for a set of known genetic

markers[68]. A new Seurat object was made containing only the microglia nuclei (N = 127,371).

Normalization, individual variability removal, integration, and shared nearest neighbors graph

creation were repeated as above on the microglia nuclei. 20 PCs were chosen to account for a

significant amount of the variance based on the elbow plot of the microglia dataset. Clusters

were determined using the Leiden algorithm with method=igraph and weights=true. The

appropriate clustering resolution was determined using 0.1 steps over a range of 0.1-0.8. The

number of clusters were chosen using the maximum number of clusters for which no cluster

contained a majority of nuclei from one sample and where the clusters appeared to contain

higher densities of nuclei. Clusters were highly conserved across analysis by Louvain, Louvain

with multilevel refinement, and Leiden algorithms. Distribution of nuclei within each cluster was

calculated using the 'chisq.test' function in R[63] to compare the actual percentage of nuclei

from either the AD or control group within the cluster to the expected proportion of nuclei that

would be contributed based on our dataset composition. P-values from the chi-squared tests

were adjusted using FDR and considered significant if adjusted $p<0.05$.

<u>snRNA-seq Differential Gene Expression and Gene Set Enrichment Analyses:</u>

Differential gene expression analysis of the clusters was performed on the RNA assay of the

Seurat object using the FindAllMarkers function in Seurat, with the MAST algorithm. Genes

tested had expression in at least 25% of the nuclei in the cluster. Differentially expressed genes

(DEGs) had an FDR adjusted p-value<0.05 and a log fold change>1.25. Cluster 1 was

determined to be inactivated microglia nuclei. Differential gene expression analysis was

repeated as above comparing each other cluster to Cluster 1. GO, KEGG and Biocarta pathway

sets, version 7.2, were downloaded from http://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/downloads.jsp.

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) was performed using the GSEA function in

ClusterProfiler[69] modified to use a set seed for reproducibility, using the above pathway sets.

Genes entered into the GSEA analysis were ordered according to the log fold change so that up

and downregulated genes were listed together. Enriched pathways had an FDR adjusted *p*-

value<0.05. We considered pathways to be representative if significant results included similar

genes and biological functions in at least two of the three major databases (GO, KEGG,

Reactome).

<u>Group Differential Gene Expression and Gene Set Enrichment Analyses:</u> For each

sample and cluster, gene expression counts from the RNA assay of the Seurat object were

combined from each cell to generate a "pseudobulk" dataset. Genes expressed in fewer than

the number of nuclei in the smallest cluster were removed. Differential gene expression analysis

was performed using DESeq2. We initially included age, sex, and *APOE* ε4 allele status as

interaction terms in the model, but the interaction with sex did not contribute to the variance in

gene expression observed, so our final model included only age and *APOE* ε4 allele status as

interaction terms. For the subset of *APOE* ε3/ε3 genotype individuals, we only included age as

an interaction term in the final model after confirmation that sex was still not a significant

contributor. We confirmed that there were no major artifacts in DEGs determined by our

analysis by replicating the results utilizing an additional robust normalization method for zero-

inflated datasets[70]. Due to the large number of comparisons, DEGs had an FDR adjusted *p*-

value<0.1 and a fold change>1.25. GSEA was performed as above with the genes ordered by

the Wald statistic. Enriched pathways had an FDR adjusted *p*-value<0.05. As with the DEGs

described above, pathways were considered representative if they appeared in at least two of

the three major databases (GO, KEGG, Reactome).

Trajectory and Lineage Analysis: Trajectory analysis was performed using Monocle3[40].

The data were transferred to a cell dataset (cds) object and Monocle3 "`learn_graph`" was run

on the whole dataset. Lineage analysis was performed using Slingshot[41]. PCA and UMAP

embeddings were extracted from the Seurat object. We applied the algorithm both with and

without a defined starting point to the mixed *APOE* genotype dataset.

Visualizations: Visualizations were generated using ggplot2, pheatmap, and Seurat

native functionality[64].

References:

1. Calsolaro, V. & Edison, P. Neuroinflammation in Alzheimer's disease: Current evidence and future directions. *Alzheimer's & Dementia* **12**, 719–732 (2016).

2. Webers, A., Heneka, M. T. & Gleeson, P. A. The role of innate immune responses and neuroinflammation in amyloid accumulation and progression of Alzheimer's disease. *Immunology & Cell Biology* **98**, 28–41 (2020).

3. Milner, M. T., Maddugoda, M., Götz, J., Burgener, S. S. & Schroder, K. The NLRP3 inflammasome triggers sterile neuroinflammation and Alzheimer's disease. *Curr Opin Immunol* **68**, 116–124 (2021).

4. Streit, W. J., Xue, Q.-S., Tischer, J. & Bechmann, I. Microglial pathology. *Acta Neuropathol Commun* **2**, (2014).

5. Colonna, M. & Butovsky, O. Microglia Function in the Central Nervous System During Health and Neurodegeneration. *Annu Rev Immunol* **35**, 441–468 (2017).

6. Wolf, S. A., Boddeke, H. W. G. M. & Kettenmann, H. Microglia in Physiology and Disease. *Annu Rev Physiol* **79**, 619–643 (2017).

7. Prinz, M., Jung, S. & Priller, J. Microglia Biology: One Century of Evolving Concepts. *Cell* **179**, 292–311 (2019).

8. McQuade, A. & Blurton-Jones, M. Microglia in Alzheimer's Disease: Exploring How Genetics and Phenotype Influence Risk. *Journal of Molecular Biology* **431**, 1805–1817 (2019).

9. Salter, M. W. & Stevens, B. Microglia emerge as central players in brain disease. *Nat. Med.* **23**, 1018–1027 (2017).

10. Hansen, D. V., Hanson, J. E. & Sheng, M. Microglia in Alzheimer's disease. *J Cell Biol* **217**, 459–472 (2018).

624   11.   Streit, W. J., Khoshbouei, H. & Bechmann, I. Dystrophic microglia in late-onset Alzheimer's disease.

625   *Glia* **68**, 845–854 (2020).

626   12.   Keren-Shaul, H. *et al.* A Unique Microglia Type Associated with Restricting Development of

627   Alzheimer's Disease. *Cell* **169**, 1276-1290.e17 (2017).

628   13.   Mathys, H. *et al.* Temporal Tracking of Microglia Activation in Neurodegeneration at Single-Cell

629   Resolution. *Cell Rep* **21**, 366–380 (2017).

630   14.   Mathys, H. *et al.* Single-cell transcriptomic analysis of Alzheimer's disease. *Nature* **570**, 332–337

631   (2019).

632   15.   Sala Frigerio, C. *et al.* The Major Risk Factors for Alzheimer's Disease: Age, Sex, and Genes

633   Modulate the Microglia Response to Aβ Plaques. *Cell Rep* **27**, 1293-1306.e6 (2019).

634   16.   Alsema, A. M. *et al.* Profiling Microglia From Alzheimer's Disease Donors and Non-demented

635   Elderly in Acute Human Postmortem Cortical Tissue. *Front Mol Neurosci* **13**, 134 (2020).

636   17.   Nguyen, A. T. *et al.* APOE and TREM2 regulate amyloid-responsive microglia in Alzheimer's disease.

637   *Acta Neuropathol* **140**, 477–493 (2020).

638   18.   Olah, M. *et al.* Single cell RNA sequencing of human microglia uncovers a subset associated with

639   Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Commun* **11**, (2020).

640   19.   Zhou, Y. *et al.* Human and mouse single-nucleus transcriptomics reveal TREM2-dependent and -

641   independent cellular responses in Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Med* **26**, 131–142 (2020).

642   20.   Gerrits, E. *et al.* Distinct amyloid-β and tau-associated microglia profiles in Alzheimer's disease.

643   *Acta Neuropathol* (2021) doi:10.1007/s00401-021-02263-w.

644   21.   Shahidehpour, R. K. *et al.* Dystrophic microglia are associated with neurodegenerative disease and

645   not healthy aging in the human brain. *Neurobiology of Aging* **99**, 19–27 (2021).

646   22.   Lawson, L. J., Perry, V. H. & Gordon, S. Turnover of resident microglia in the normal adult mouse

647   brain. *Neuroscience* **48**, 405–415 (1992).

23. Becher, B., Fedorowicz, V. & Antel, J. P. Regulation of CD14 expression on human adult central

nervous system-derived microglia. *J Neurosci Res* **45**, 375–381 (1996).

24. Rexach, J. E. *et al.* Tau Pathology Drives Dementia Risk-Associated Gene Networks toward Chronic

Inflammatory States and Immunosuppression. *Cell Reports* **33**, 108398 (2020).

25. Schoggins, J. W. *et al.* A diverse array of gene products are effectors of the type I interferon

antiviral response. *Nature* **472**, 481–485 (2011).

26. Wang, D. *et al.* The role of NLRP3-CASP1 in inflammasome-mediated neuroinflammation and

autophagy dysfunction in manganese-induced, hippocampal-dependent impairment of learning

and memory ability. *Autophagy* **13**, 914–927 (2017).

27. Lauro, C. & Limatola, C. Metabolic Reprograming of Microglia in the Regulation of the Innate

Inflammatory Response. *Front Immunol* **11**, 493 (2020).

28. Reijns, M. A. M. *et al.* Enzymatic removal of ribonucleotides from DNA is essential for mammalian

genome integrity and development. *Cell* **149**, 1008–1022 (2012).

29. Subramanian, N., Natarajan, K., Clatworthy, M. R., Wang, Z. & Germain, R. N. The adapter MAVS

promotes NLRP3 mitochondrial localization and inflammasome activation. *Cell* **153**, 348–361

(2013).

30. Di Virgilio, F., Dal Ben, D., Sarti, A. C., Giuliani, A. L. & Falzoni, S. The P2X7 Receptor in Infection and

Inflammation. *Immunity* **47**, 15–31 (2017).

31. Drummond, R. A. *et al.* CARD9+ microglia promote antifungal immunity via IL-1β- and CXCL1-

mediated neutrophil recruitment. *Nat Immunol* **20**, 559–570 (2019).

32. Li, L. *et al.* Thioredoxin-Interacting Protein (TXNIP) Associated NLRP3 Inflammasome Activation in

Human Alzheimer's Disease Brain. *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease* **68**, 255–265 (2019).

33. Bozina, T. *et al.* Effects of lipoprotein lipase and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-

gamma gene variants on metabolic syndrome traits. *Coll Antropol* **37**, 801–808 (2013).

34.   Ganz, T. & Nemeth, E. HEPCIDIN AND IRON HOMEOSTASIS. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1823**, 1434–1443

(2012).

35.   Angelova, D. M. & Brown, D. R. Microglia and the aging brain: are senescent microglia the key to

neurodegeneration? *Journal of Neurochemistry* **151**, 676–688 (2019).

36.   Mjelle, R. *et al.* Cell cycle regulation of human DNA repair and chromatin remodeling genes. *DNA

Repair* **30**, 53–67 (2015).

37.   Kunkle, B. W. *et al.* Genetic meta-analysis of diagnosed Alzheimer's disease identifies new risk loci

and implicates Aβ, tau, immunity and lipid processing. *Nat Genet* **51**, 414–430 (2019).

38.   Lambert, J.-C. *et al.* Meta-analysis of 74,046 individuals identifies 11 new susceptibility loci for

Alzheimer's disease. *Nat Genet* **45**, 1452–1458 (2013).

39.   Friedman, B. A. *et al.* Diverse Brain Myeloid Expression Profiles Reveal Distinct Microglial

Activation States and Aspects of Alzheimer's Disease Not Evident in Mouse Models. *Cell Reports*

22, 832–847 (2018).

40.   Cao, J. *et al.* The single cell transcriptional landscape of mammalian organogenesis. *Nature* **566**,

496–502 (2019).

41.   Street, K. *et al.* Slingshot: cell lineage and pseudotime inference for single-cell transcriptomics.

BMC Genomics **19**, 477 (2018).

42.   O'Connor, T. *et al.* Phosphorylation of the Translation Initiation Factor eIF2α Increases BACE1

Levels and Promotes Amyloidogenesis. *Neuron* **60**, 988–1009 (2008).

43.   Correani, V. *et al.* Plasma Membrane Protein Profiling in Beta-Amyloid-Treated Microglia Cell Line.

PROTEOMICS **17**, 1600439 (2017).

44.   Ghemrawi, R. & Khair, M. Endoplasmic Reticulum Stress and Unfolded Protein Response in

Neurodegenerative Diseases. *Int J Mol Sci* **21**, 6127 (2020).

45.   Ishiguchi, H. *et al.* ZNF143 activates gene expression in response to DNA damage and binds to

cisplatin-modified DNA. *Int J Cancer* **111**, 900–909 (2004).

46.   Sørensen, D. M. *et al.* Parkinson disease related ATP13A2 evolved early in animal evolution. *PLoS*

One **13**, e0193228 (2018).

47.   Baik, S. H. *et al.* A Breakdown in Metabolic Reprogramming Causes Microglia Dysfunction in

Alzheimer's Disease. *Cell Metab* **30**, 493-507.e6 (2019).

48.   Johnson, E. C. B. *et al.* Large-scale proteomic analysis of Alzheimer's disease brain and

cerebrospinal fluid reveals early changes in energy metabolism associated with microglia and

astrocyte activation. *Nat Med* **26**, 769–780 (2020).

49.   Van Acker, Z. P., Bretou, M. & Annaert, W. Endo-lysosomal dysregulations and late-onset

Alzheimer's disease: impact of genetic risk factors. *Mol Neurodegener* **14**, 20 (2019).

50.   Burns, J. C. *et al.* Differential accumulation of storage bodies with aging defines discrete subsets of

microglia in the healthy brain. *Elife* **9**, e57495 (2020).

51.   Song, X. *et al.* DNA repair inhibition leads to active export of repetitive sequences to the cytoplasm

triggering an inflammatory response. *J Neurosci* JN-RM-0845-21 (2021)

doi:10.1523/JNEUROSCI.0845-21.2021.

52.   Roy, E. R. *et al.* Type I interferon response drives neuroinflammation and synapse loss in Alzheimer

disease. *J Clin Invest* **130**, 1912–1930 (2020).

53.   Nixon, R. A. Amyloid precursor protein and endosomal-lysosomal dysfunction in Alzheimer's

disease: inseparable partners in a multifactorial disease. *FASEB J* **31**, 2729–2743 (2017).

54.   Rangaraju, S. *et al.* Identification and therapeutic modulation of a pro-inflammatory subset of

disease-associated-microglia in Alzheimer's disease. *Mol Neurodegener* **13**, 24 (2018).

55.   Srinivasan, K. *et al.* Alzheimer's Patient Microglia Exhibit Enhanced Aging and Unique

Transcriptional Activation. *Cell Reports* **31**, 107843 (2020).

56. Podleśny-Drabiniok, A., Marcora, E. & Goate, A. M. Microglial Phagocytosis: A Disease-Associated

Process Emerging from Alzheimer's Disease Genetics. *Trends in Neurosciences* **43**, 965–979 (2020).

57. Martin-Estebane, M. & Gomez-Nicola, D. Targeting Microglial Population Dynamics in Alzheimer's

Disease: Are We Ready for a Potential Impact on Immune Function? *Front Cell Neurosci* **14**, 149

(2020).

58. Olah, M. *et al.* A transcriptomic atlas of aged human microglia. *Nat Commun* **9**, 539 (2018).

59. Franceschi, C., Garagnani, P., Parini, P., Giuliani, C. & Santoro, A. Inflammaging: a new immune–

metabolic viewpoint for age-related diseases. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* **14**, 576–590 (2018).

60. Cuervo, A. M. & Dice, J. F. When lysosomes get old☆. *Experimental Gerontology* **35**, 119–131

(2000).

61. Koussounadis, A., Langdon, S. P., Um, I. H., Harrison, D. J. & Smith, V. A. Relationship between

differentially expressed mRNA and mRNA-protein correlations in a xenograft model system. *Sci*

Rep **5**, 10775 (2015).

62. De Groot, C. j. a., Hulshof, S., Hoozemans, J. j. m. & Veerhuis, R. Establishment of microglial cell

cultures derived from postmortem human adult brain tissue: Immunophenotypical and functional

characterization. *Microscopy Research and Technique* **54**, 34–39 (2001).

63. R Core Team. *R: A language and environment for statistical   computing*. (R Foundation for

Statistical Computing, 2020).

64. Stuart, T. *et al.* Comprehensive integration of single-cell data. *Cell* **177**, 1888-1902.e21 (2019).

65. Young, M. D. & Behjati, S. SoupX removes ambient RNA contamination from droplet-based single-

cell RNA sequencing data. *Gigascience* **9**, giaa151 (2020).

66. Wolock, S. L., Lopez, R. & Klein, A. M. Scrublet: Computational Identification of Cell Doublets in

Single-Cell Transcriptomic Data. *Cell Syst* **8**, 281-291.e9 (2019).

67.   Hafemeister, C. & Satija, R. Normalization and variance stabilization of single-cell RNA-seq data

743   using regularized negative binomial regression. *Genome Biol* **20**, 296 (2019).

744   68.   Hodge, R. D. *et al.* Conserved cell types with divergent features in human versus mouse cortex.

745   *Nature* **573**, 61–68 (2019).

746   69.   Wu, T. *et al.* clusterProfiler 4.0: A universal enrichment tool for interpreting omics data. *Innovation*

747   **2**, (2021).

748   70.   Chen, L. *et al.* GMPR: A robust normalization method for zero-inflated count data with application

749   to microbiome sequencing data. *PeerJ* **6**, e4600 (2018).

752 **Table 1. Post-mortem brain sample demographics.**

Group	Males	Females	Avg. Age	Avg. PMI	ADNC	E2/3	E3/3	E3/4	E4/4
Ctrl	4	6	85.9	5.53	0-1	2	7	1	
AD	3	9	86.5	4.67	2-3		6	5	1
Total	7	15	86.23	5.42		2	13	6	1

754 Ctrl = Control, AD = Alzheimer's Disease pathology, Avg. Age = years of age at death, PMI = post-
755 mortem interval in hours, ADNC = Alzheimer's Disease Neuropathic Change, *APOE* Genotypes: *APOE*
756 alleles 2/3 (E2/3), *APOE* alleles 3/3 (E3/3), *APOE* alleles 3/4 (E3/4), *APOE* alleles 4/4 (E4/4)

Figure 1. PU.1 enrichment increases the number of microglia nuclei and enhances microglia subpopulation resolution in snRNAseq studies. A) Nuclei isolated from dorsolateral prefrontal cortex grey matter of postmortem human brain tissue sorted by fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting using the myeloid marker PU.1 and then sequenced on the 10X Genomics Chromium 3' v3 platform. (Created in part with BioRender.com) **B)** Unsorted snRNAseq data from four samples demonstrates multiple brain cell types and a small population of microglia (N = 1032 cells) that can be further subdivided into five subpopulations. **C)** After PU.1 enrichment, a snRNAseq dataset from the same four individuals contains a large number of microglia (N = 23,310 cells), and these microglia can be further subclustered into nine subpopulations.

Figure 2. PU.1 enrichment provides increased numbers of microglia nuclei. A) UMAP of all nuclei in the 22 subject dataset demonstrates that while other cell types including neurons, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes (Oligs) and their progenitors (OPC) as well as endothelial cells are present, six clusters including the three largest are composed of microglia nuclei. **B)** Representative cell type marker genes (x-axis) with the percent of nuclei that express a gene (size of dot) in each cluster (distributed along Y axis) and the average expression level (color intensity) are shown for microglia (*CX3CR1, C1QB, CD74,* and *C3*), astrocytes (*GFAP*), neurons (*MAP2*), OPCs (*COL20A1*), oligodendrocytes (*ST18*), and endothelial cells (*ITIH5*) for each cluster.

Figure 3. Microglia subpopulations reveal a wide diversity of gene expression and biological pathway correlates. A) UMAP of unbiased clustering on the mixed APOE genotype 22 sample dataset

contains 10 microglia subpopulations. **B)** Differential expression analysis comparing each cluster to all
other clusters demonstrates distinct gene expression profiles for each. The top 25 genes from each cluster
are displayed in the heatmap, with gene names of particular biological interest annotated on the right.
Cluster 1 is high in canonical microglia genes (*CX3CR1* and *P2RY12*) thought to be highly expressed in
an unactivated state, so we label this cluster "homeostatic". **C)** GSEA analysis of genes that differentiate
each cluster from cluster 1 ("homeostatic") suggest distinct biological pathways and function correlates
for each cluster. Pathways displayed are GO, but are representative of pathways that were significantly
altered in two of KEGG, Reactome, and GO databases.

Figure 4. APOE 3/3 genotype does not
substantially alter microglial clustering in
human autopsy brain. A) UMAP of unbiased
clustering on 13 samples of only APOE 3/3
individuals shows 9 clusters. **B)** Similar to the
clusters identified in the mixed *APOE* genotype
dataset, the clusters identified in our *APOE* ε3/ε3
genotype dataset are highly distinct by gene
expression. The top 5 genes are displayed for each
cluster. **C)** Venn diagrams demonstrating overlap
between clusters from the Mixed *APOE* and
APOE ε3/ε3 cohorts demonstrating significant
similarity in gene expression profiles.

Figure 5. Previously defined gene lists demonstrate unique expression in microglia subpopulations, including AD risk genes specifically enriched in Cluster 6. A) Diseas-assocated microglia (DAM) genes as defined by Keren-Shaul et al. (2017) were statistically enriched in Cluster 4 using GSEA analysis, and the heatmap demonstrates upregulation of many of these genes. Cluster 6 also demonstrates upregulation of some DAM genes, distinct from those in Cluster 4. **B)** Genes associated with AD risk SNPs are highly enriched in Cluster 6. **C)** Heatmap of genes from the GO endolysosomal pathway gene set demonstrating significant enrichment in Cluster 6, and Clusters 3, 5, and 7. **D)** Heatmap of representative genes from the KEGG toll-like receptor pathway gene set illustrating significant enrichment in Cluster 8, of many genes (Supplemental data) as would be expected given the inflammatory

810 phenotype. **E)** Gene expression of representative genes from the KEGG cell cycle pathway gene set
811 demonstrates significant enrichment in Cluster 10.

Figure 6. Cluster 6 is larger and Cluster 10 is depleted in AD brain. Normalized density of nuclei is
displayed by color; dark red represents the highest density of nuclei on the UMAP, yellow the least dense
collection of nuclei. Grey dots indicate nuclei from the opposite group (i.e. grey dots in controls indicate
nuclei that are from AD individuals). **A)** Density of nuclei in Cluster 6 and Cluster 10 in control
individuals compared to **B)** density of nuclei in Cluster 6 and Cluster 10 in AD individuals. Cluster 6 is
more highly represented by AD nuclei, while Cluster 10 shows higher representation of controls.

Figure 7. Unactivated microglia subpopulations show upregulation of inflammatory and stress-
related gene expression in AD brain. A) Cluster 1 genes that were significantly upregulated in AD brain
compared to Controls (Ctrl) included *HSPA5* (FDR corrected *q* = 0.056), *EIF2AK3* (*q* = 0. 083), and
CD14 (*q* = 0. 055) genes involved in inflammation and endoplasmic reticulum stress processes. **B)**
Cluster 3 genes that were significantly upregulated in AD brain compared to Controls include *NFKB1* (*q*
= 0. 052), *ZNF143* (*q* = 0. 084), and *ATP13A3* (*q* = 0. 078) involved in NFκB signaling, response to DNA
damage and recycling endosomes. Pro-inflammatory changes were not identified in more activated
clusters, Cluster 6 and Cluster 8, suggesting that these are subpopulation-specific effects.