Neuronal TIMP2 regulates hippocampus-dependent plasticity and extracellular

matrix complexity

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Running title: TIMP2 regulates hippocampal function through extracellular matrix

Abstract

The functional output of the hippocampus, a brain region subserving memory processes, depends on highly orchestrated cellular and molecular processes that regulate synaptic plasticity throughout life. The structural requirements of such plasticity and molecular processes involved in this regulation are poorly understood. Specific molecules, including tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-2 (TIMP2) have been implicated in processes of plasticity in the hippocampus, a role that decreases with brain aging as expression is lost. Here, we report that TIMP2 is highly expressed by neurons within the hippocampus and its loss drives changes in cellular programs related to adult neurogenesis and dendritic spine turnover with corresponding impairments in hippocampus-dependent memory. Consistent with the accumulation of ECM in the hippocampus we observe with aging, we find that TIMP2 acts to reduce accumulation of extracellular matrix (ECM) around synapses in the hippocampus. Moreover, its removal results in hindrance of newborn neuron migration through a denser ECM network. A novel conditional TIMP2 KO mouse reveals that neuronal TIMP2 regulates adult neurogenesis, accumulation of ECM, and ultimately hippocampus-dependent memory. Our results define a mechanism whereby hippocampus-dependent function is regulated by TIMP2 and its interactions with the ECM to regulate diverse processes associated with synaptic plasticity.

Introduction

A variety of cellular, molecular, and functional changes have now been documented in the brain as aging progresses, leaving it susceptible to diseases like Alzheimer's disease. Given that aging serves as the major risk factor for many neurological disorders, aging processes have increasingly been considered to be valid therapeutic targets, especially as the aged population continues to increase. Growing evidence in animal models indicates that the aged brain can be rejuvenated through manipulation of the systemic environment, including through young plasma transfer or sharing of young blood through heterochronic parabiosis[1-4]. Aged mice exposed to young blood exhibit improved synaptic plasticity and cognitive performance[2]. We and others have begun to identify factors present in young blood that confer brain rejuvenation phenotypes in aged mice[3,4]. Among those, we showed that tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinases-2 (TIMP2), a protein elevated early in life, revitalizes function of the aged mouse hippocampus[4]. Despite demonstrating that this factor is critical for young plasma-mediated memory improvements in aged mice[4], little is known of the cellular and molecular details of how TIMP2 regulates function within the hippocampus.

TIMP2 is a secreted protein of approximately 21-kDa in size primarily known for its role in regulating peripheral extracellular matrix (ECM) remodeling[5] through its unique dual roles in regulating the activation of latent matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), including MMP2, to proteolytically active forms, and the inhibition of MMP activity[6,7]. Through these roles, TIMP2 has been shown to play a key role in the maintenance of ECM network structure in many tissues with myriad disease implications, including heart failure[8], cancer[9], and ischemic stroke[10], among others. While early reports described expression of TIMP2 from development into adulthood[11], and its role in regulating cortical neuronal differentiation[12] and subtle motor phenotypes[13], few studies have examined the biological role of TIMP2 in the adult brain and how it modulates function of the hippocampus. While we recently demonstrated that TIMP2 is critical in revitalizing overall hippocampus-dependent cognitive function in aged mice[4], the biological role of TIMP2 expressed within the hippocampus has not been studied. TIMP2 is part of a small family of tissue

metalloproteinase inhibitors that include TIMP1, TIMP3, and TIMP4, all of which perform broad

MMP targeting functions but in diverse contexts in the brain, including in myelin repair[14],

neurovascular regulation[15], or in regulation of the tumor microenvironment[16]. Interestingly, TIMP2

shares only ~40-50% sequence homology with other TIMP family members and is particularly

expressed in the brain and enriched specifically in hippocampus relative to other TIMPs. Since

levels of TIMP2 decline in the hippocampus with age[4], understanding the function of this local

source will be important to understand its normal function and position it for putative therapies in

age-related brain disorders. Moreover, we sought to understand the extent to which ECM

regulation is related to disparate processes of plasticity to regulate complex behavioral outputs.

Here we define a mechanism by which TIMP2 regulates ECM components in the

hippocampus in a manner that regulates processes linked to plasticity and memory. We find that

TIMP2 is predominantly expressed by neurons in the hippocampus and is present at high levels

in the brain extracellular space adjacent to these cells. Deletion of TIMP2 induces transcriptomic

changes in the hippocampus that are consistent with processes related to synaptic plasticity and

adult neurogenesis. We find that loss of TIMP2 results in fewer dendritic spines in dentate gyrus

(DG) granule cells, decreased adult DG neurogenesis along several stages, and impaired

memory in various hippocampus-dependent tasks. Loss of TIMP2 also causes an accumulation

of ECM proteins, particularly around synapses within the DG, and impaired migration of

neuroblasts within the neurogenic niche, reflecting dysregulated ECM turnover and mimicking

ECM accumulation seen in the aged brain. Finally, we developed a mouse model for conditional

deletion of TIMP2 from neurons that exhibits the functional phenotypes observed in TIMP2 KO

mice, further arguing for a role of the neuronal pool of TIMP2 in shaping plasticity-related function

of the hippocampus. Our findings indicate molecular mechanisms through which neuronal TIMP2

remodeling of the ECM promotes synapse plasticity and is required for memory, with functional

implications for neurogenic rejuvenation.

Materials and Methods

See Supplementary Information for additional details.

Animals

All animal procedures were performed in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and the Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. TIMP2 knockout (KO) (Jackson Laboratory) and WT female mice or Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (generated as described in Supplementary Information) were used at 2-3 months or 5-6 months of age unless indicated otherwise. Littermate controls were used for all experiments. Mice were maintained on a 12-hour light/dark cycle at constant temperature (23°C) with *ad libitum* access to food and water.

Bulk RNA-sequencing

RNA-sequencing was performed on hippocampi dissected from WT and TIMP2 KO male and female mice. Quality of extracted RNA (RNeasy Mini Kit, Qiagen) was measured by Agilent TapeStation Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies), and all samples exhibited RNA Integrity Number (RIN) > 8. cDNA libraries were prepared with poly(A) selection and sequenced using Illumina Hiseq (2x150bp paired-end) (Genewiz). At least 25M clean reads were generated from each sample and mapped to the *Mus musculus* GRCm38 reference genome available on ENSEMBL, using STAR aligner (v.2.5.2b). After extraction of gene hit counts, the hit counts table was used for downstream differential expression analysis using DESeq2 software. The Wald test was used to generate *P*-values and log2 fold changes. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs; *P*<0.05*)* were used for Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA; https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/index.jsp). Volcano plot was generated with R v4.1.2.

Animal procedures

Mice were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) once with 150 mg/kg of 5-bromo-2′-deoxyuridine (BrdU;

Sigma) 24 hours before sacrifice for cell proliferation assessment, or daily for 5 days, followed by

sacrifice/perfusion 28 days after initial injection for cell fate analysis. *In vivo* microdialysis

proceeded according to previous methods[17] with some adaptations (described in Supplementary

Information).

Immunohistochemistry

For all immunohistochemistry experiments, mice were anesthetized with a cocktail of ketamine

(90 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) and transcardially perfused with ice-cold 0.9% saline, and

brains were postfixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and preserved with 30% sucrose before sectioning

at 40-μm on a freezing-sliding microtome (SM2010R, Leica). Sections were incubated overnight

with indicated primary antibodies, followed by fluorescent secondary antibodies. Image

processing was performed with LSM 780 confocal microscope (Zeiss) using 40x/1.4 Oil DIC

objective. Four equally-spaced sections per mouse were used to count the total number of

positive cells within DG (subgranular zone and hilar subregions) using stereological principles. All

counts were performed using FIJI in a blinded fashion, according to similar methods[4].

Aggrecan and Homer1 puncta quantification

Quantification of the number of puncta by super-resolution microscopy proceeded according to

similar methods[18]. Images were acquired by confocal imaging using LSM 880 with AiryScan in

super-resolution mode (Zeiss) set with a 63X/1.4 Oil DIC objective with 5X optical zoom.

Aggrecan puncta were quantified with Puncta Analyzer plugin[19] in ImageJ, and thresholding was

applied equally across images. Colocalization of co-stained Aggrecan and Homer1 puncta was

analyzed with the Puncta Analyzer plugin with a minimum pixel specification of 4. Three images

in the molecular layer of the DG were averaged per mouse for analysis.

Dendritic spine analysis by iontophoretic dye injections

Tissue was processed according to similar work[20], and then coronal sections were incubated in 250 ng/ml DAPI to enable DG identification. Sections were mounted on nitrocellulose membrane filters, immersed in ice-cold PB, and DG granule cells were iontophoretically injected with 5% Lucifer Yellow (Invitrogen) under a direct current of 3-8 nA until the dye filled distal ends of the dendrites, and then sections were mounted between spacers placed on gelatin-coated glass slides (#22-214-320, Thermo Fisher). Images of dendritic segments from DG granule cells at the suprapyramidal blade were acquired on a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope using a 100x/1.46 Oil DIC M27 Plan-Apochromat objective, and stacks were acquired at 512 x 512-pixel resolution with a Z-step of 0.1 μm, optical zoom of 3.3x, pinhole setting of 1 Airy Unit, and optimal settings for gain and offset. Three z-stacks were imaged from each neuron. Confocal stacks were deconvolved using an iterative blind deconvolution algorithm (AutoQuant X, vX3.0.1, MediaCybernetics). Deconvolved stacks were analyzed using Neurolucida 360 (v2019.2.1; MBF Bioscience) for semi-automated reconstruction to determine spine density and morphology. Spines were classified as stubby, thin, mushroom, and filopodia, according to previous work[20,21]. 4-5 mice per genotype, 6 neurons per mouse, and 3 dendrites per neuron were analyzed.

Hippocampus-dependent behavior

Novel location recognition. Mice were habituated to the open-field arena for 6 min, following exposure to two different objects in fixed positions for three consecutive trials of 6 min each. On day 2, mice explored the same arena with one object displaced to a novel position. Time spent exploring each object was manually scored in a blinded fashion to assess the discrimination index for the novel location.

Contextual fear-conditioning. Mice were trained using a 2-shock contextual fear conditioning paradigm, as previously described[4]. Mice received two periods of 30 s consisting of a paired cue

light and a tone of 1,000-Hz, followed by a light foot-shock (2 s, 0.5 mA) separated by a 180-s

interval (light foot-shock; Ugo Basile). Twenty-four hours later, mice were re-exposed to the same

context for 3 min, and freezing levels (contextual) were measured using EthoVision XT system

software (v14.0.1319, Noldus).

Barnes maze. Mice were tested on a large circular Barnes maze in which mice navigate using

visual cues to an alternating escape hole over four trials on each day of the task, as described[4].

Search strategy classification was manually performed based on methods adapted from previous

work[22], categorized as localized, serial, random, scanning, focal, focal missense, targeted and

direct. Each related strategy was categorized into non-hippocampus-dependent strategies

(localized, serial, random, and scanning), and hippocampus-dependent strategies (focal, focal

missense, targeted and direct). Cognitive performance of each trial on day 3 was scored

according to the following, with a separation of 1 point between non-hippocampus-dependent and

hippocampus-dependent strategies to account for additional cognitive complexity: localized=0,

serial=1, random=2, scanning=3, focal=5, focal missense=5, targeted=6, direct=6. Focal and

focal missense strategies are assigned "5", as both are goal-directed strategies used without

achieving the final target. Target and direct strategies were assigned "6" since both are goal-

directed strategies with successful achievement of the final target.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism version 9.0 software (GraphPad

Software) using tests described in text and figure legends, including student's *t* test for 2-group

comparisons, nested *t* tests with multi-level variables for 2-group comparisons, or chi-square

analysis for 2-group comparisons of proportions. All experiments were performed in a randomized

and blinded fashion.

Results

TIMP2 is expressed in hippocampal neurons, and its deletion induces transcriptomic changes

TIMP2 exhibits high expression in the hippocampus relative to other brain regions[4]. To identify the cellular sources of TIMP2 in the hippocampus and to begin to probe its function in this region, we examined TIMP2 protein levels by confocal microscopy in various subfields of the hippocampus of 2-month-old wildtype (WT) male and female mice. We found that TIMP2 is expressed in the hilus of dentate gyrus (DG), as well as CA3 and CA1 subfields of the hippocampus, and we found that the majority of TIMP2-expressing cells also stain for pan-neuronal marker, NeuN, arguing that the major cellular source of TIMP2 expression in these areas was neuronal (**Fig. 1A, 1B**). We did not detect differential TIMP2 neuronal expression in the hilus/DG, CA3, and CA1 subfields between males and females (**Supplementary Fig. 1A-C**).

Given the high level of TIMP2 expression seen in neurons in the hippocampus, we asked whether levels were elevated in the extracellular space adjacent to this cellular source. To measure extracellular levels of TIMP2 in this region, we implanted high molecular-weight cut-off (1-MDa) probes into hippocampi of freely moving, 2-3-month-old WT mice to measure interstitial fluid (ISF) levels of TIMP2 by *in vivo* microdialysis. TIMP2 was readily detectable in the ISF in hippocampus (**Fig. 1D**), and extrapolated values of exchangeable ISF TIMP2 were ~10.1 ± 0.16 ng/mL (N=3), as measured at a flow rate of 1 µl/min. Importantly, the 21- to 22-kDa TIMP2 band was absent in the ISF of hippocampus from mice in which TIMP2 has been deleted (KO) (**Fig. 1D**).

The high levels of TIMP2 within neurons and the extracellular space of the hippocampus argues for unappreciated roles for its function locally in this region, prompting us to examine the cellular and molecular processes regulated by TIMP2. In order to identify putative pathways involved in TIMP2 function in the hippocampus, we isolated hippocampi from WT and TIMP2 KO male and female mice and processed the tissue for RNA-sequencing (**Fig. 1E**). A total of 905

differentially expressed genes (DEGs; *P<0.05*) were identified in TIMP2 KO compared to WT (**Fig.**

1F), with TIMP2 being the top DEG, as expected. Of these genes, 449 DEGs were downregulated

in TIMP2 KO hippocampi (**Fig. 1F**). To gain insights into how the altered transcriptome may reflect

altered biological processes, we performed gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA).

Downregulated DEGs in TIMP2 KO were enriched for a number of Gene Ontology (GO) biological

processes related to plasticity, including "cell morphogenesis", "neurogenesis", "cell projection

organization", and "synapse organization" (**Fig. 1G**). Upregulated DEGs in TIMP2 KO were

enriched in functions that included "regulation of cell death and cell cycle", among others

(**Supplementary Fig. 1E**). Together, our data suggest that TIMP2 in the normal hippocampus

may be involved in processes of plasticity.

TIMP2 is necessary for adult neurogenesis in the normal dentate gyrus

To evaluate the extent to which our discovery-based pathway approach from RNAseq highlighted

processes that may indeed be regulated by TIMP2, we examined the key cellular processes

implicated. As one of the top downregulated pathways in hippocampus of TIMP2 KO vs. WT mice

was "neurogenesis", we used confocal microscopy to begin to address whether adult

neurogenesis processes within the DG are indeed altered by absence of TIMP2. To examine

whether TIMP2 regulates overall cell proliferation, we injected WT and TIMP2 KO mice with the

proliferation marker bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU), which labels the pool of proliferating cells in the

subgranular zone (SGZ) of DG (**Fig. 2A**). We found that the DG of TIMP2 KO mice had

significantly fewer proliferating cells than in WT mice (**Fig. 2C**), as quantified by the total number

of BrdU$^+$ cells (**Fig. 2D**). We observed a similar result when analyzing the pool of Ki67$^+$ cells in

the SGZ (**Fig. 2E-F**), which marks a larger pool of proliferating cells in other phases. We next

analyzed the pool of neural progenitor cells and the immature neuroblasts they ultimately give

rise to, using SRY-Box Transcriptional Factor 2 (Sox2) and doublecortin (DCX) as markers,

respectively. Deletion of TIMP2 resulted in a significant decrease in the number of Sox2^{+} neural

progenitor cells (**Fig. 2G-H**), and of DCX^{+} immature neurons (**Fig. 2I-J**).

To examine whether this disrupted pool of neuroblasts corresponds to a differing number

of surviving immature neurons, we injected TIMP2 KO and WT mice by pulse-chase labeling with

BrdU for 5 days and quantified the number of label-retaining, surviving BrdU[+] NeuN^{+} neurons in

the SGZ of DG 4 weeks later (**Fig. 2B**). Using this paradigm, we found that the DG of TIMP2 KO

mice had significantly fewer newborn neurons compared with the DG of WT mice (**Fig. 2K-L**).

Together, these results are consistent with TIMP2-mediated roles in adult neurogenesis and

related pathways uncovered by our transcriptomic analysis.

TIMP2 regulates dendritic spine plasticity in the dentate gyrus

Our transcriptomic data in TIMP2 KO hippocampi suggest a role for TIMP2 acting within the

hippocampus to modulate plasticity processes, including "synapse organization", possibly at the

structural level. To evaluate the impact of TIMP2 deletion on dendritic spines, the cellular

substrates of memory storage[23], we turned to a rigorous method to sensitively quantify dendritic

spines and classify them. We performed Lucifer Yellow iontophoretic dye-filling of mature DG

granule cells in isolated slices from TIMP2 KO and WT mice for high-resolution imaging and

reconstruction (**Fig. 3A**)[21,24]. We found that neurons in the DG of TIMP2 KO mice exhibited

significantly reduced dendritic spine density compared to those in WT DG (**Fig. 3B, E**). We then

used automated classification algorithms[21,25] to classify and quantify spines based on

morphology, as a readout of spine plasticity. Intriguingly, we found a significantly higher proportion

of immature thin spines in labeled DG neurons from TIMP2 KO mice compared to those in WT

mice (**Fig. 3C, E**) and a significantly decreased proportion of mature mushroom spines (**Fig. 3D,**

E) exhibited by TIMP2 KO relative to WT DG neurons. Mushroom spines are a particularly stable

class of spines with lower turnover[26] and are proposed to serve as structural correlates of

memory[27]. Of note, our observations of spines in DG neurons of TIMP2 KO mice are in line with

previous descriptions of altered synaptic function upon TIMP2 modulation[4], including long-term

potentiation, which was shown to be affected by modulating levels of TIMP2[4]. Collectively, these

results suggest that TIMP2 may act to promote plasticity through regulation of adult neurogenesis

and dendritic spine formation.

TIMP2 is required for hippocampus-dependent memory function

The hippocampus is critical for spatial memory and learning, likely through regulation of adult

neurogenesis in the DG (reviewed in[28]), as well as through changes in synaptic structure[29,30]. The

changes we observed in both adult neurogenesis and dendritic spine plasticity in TIMP2 KO

hippocampi prompted us to investigate whether TIMP2 is involved in hippocampus-dependent

memory and learning. We first utilized the novel location recognition task (**Fig. 4A**), in which mice

use spatial cues in the arenas to learn and associate the positions of objects in space. Twenty-

four hours after training, we observed that TIMP2 KO mice exhibited significantly decreased

preference for the training object when displaced, as indicated by the reduced discrimination index

(**Fig. 4B**), thus suggesting a critical role of TIMP2 in spatial memory in healthy mice. We next

employed contextual and cued fear-conditioning to evaluate whether the mice differ in the ability

to discriminate the previously aversive training context or a new cue-driven context (**Fig. 4C**).

Assessment of context discrimination revealed significantly reduced freezing behavior by TIMP2

KO mice, suggesting impaired hippocampus-associated contextual discrimination in the absence

of TIMP2 (**Fig. 4D-E**), while amygdala-associated cued freezing levels were unchanged

(**Supplementary Fig. 2A**). We next examined whether more complex hippocampus-dependent

spatial memory was altered in a Barnes maze assay in which mice use a variety of strategies

while navigating an illuminated maze surface to an escape hole using spatial cues. Strategies

were divided into non-hippocampus-dependent and hippocampus-dependent with increasing

levels of cognitive demand (**Fig. 4F**)[22]. Analysis of the strategies used to reach the escape hole

revealed that TIMP2 KO mice delayed the switch from non-hippocampal-dependent to

hippocampal-dependent strategies while performing the task (**Fig. 4G**). On day 3 of the Barnes

maze, a significant lower proportion of TIMP2 KO mice used hippocampus-dependent strategies

compared to WT mice (**Fig. 4H**). Further categorization of cognitive performance by scoring the

different strategies according to level of complexity related to spatial learning[31] showed that

TIMP2 KO mice achieved significantly lower cognitive scores relative to WT mice (**Fig. 4I**),

consistent with impaired hippocampus-dependent function in TIMP2 KO mice while performing in

the Barnes maze.

Importantly, we did not detect differences in motor function and overall activity in TIMP2

KO mice (**Supplementary Fig. 2B-J**). Motor coordination perturbations have been reported in

TIMP2 mutant mice[13], so we subjected the mice to a wide battery of motor function, coordination,

and activity assays, including rotarod, open field, wire testing, pole testing, grip strength, none of

which revealed changes in corresponding function between TIMP2 KO and WT mice

(**Supplementary Fig. 2B-I**). We detected impaired clasping behavior in TIMP2 KO relative to WT

mice (**Supplementary Fig. 2J**), as previously reported[13], but this form of motor coordination does

not impact performance observed for TIMP2 KO mice in the wide range of hippocampus-

dependent tasks utilized. No differences in anxiety-related behaviors in the open field were

observed between WT and TIMP2 KO mice (**Supplementary Fig. 2F**). Collectively, these results

indicate a critical role for TIMP2 in regulation of hippocampus-dependent memory.

TIMP2 ablation leads to accumulation of ECM in the hippocampus

We next investigated potential mechanisms that may account for how spine formation and adult

DG neurogenesis are regulated by TIMP2. Outside the brain, TIMP2 has been characterized to

be involved in ECM degradation and remodeling through its canonical binding partner MMP2[6,7].

Brain ECM is dynamic, and accumulating evidence suggests a role for ECM and its components

in the regulation of synaptic plasticity, including in spine remodeling[18,32], adult neurogenesis[33],

and cognition[33]. We first assessed the levels of pro-MMP2 in lysates of hippocampi from TIMP2

KO and WT mice. Interestingly, we found significantly elevated levels of MMP2, both at the gene

(**Fig. 5A**) and protein (**Fig. 5B-C**) levels in the absence of TIMP2, reflecting an accumulation in

response to loss in TIMP2 signaling and pointing to a potential disruption in ECM remodeling and

turnover in hippocampus.

Recent work indicates that brain ECM levels increase with age in parallel with age-

dependent cognitive decline[34]. In the brain, chondroitin sulfate proteoglycans (CSPGs) are the

major class of ECM proteins[35,36]. The proteoglycan aggrecan, a core CSPG expressed in

perineuronal nets in the brain, is highly enriched in the ECM of the DG[37] and has been linked to

synaptic plasticity[38] and memory[39,40]. Using super-resolution confocal imaging, we find that

aggrecan is significantly increased in the hippocampus of aged mice (**Fig. 5 D-E**), a change that

occurs alongside the progressive decrease in TIMP2 expression[4]. We therefore analyzed

aggrecan distribution in the hippocampus of young WT and TIMP2 KO mice and found that TIMP2

KO mice exhibited a significant increase in the density of aggrecan puncta in the DG molecular

layer (**Fig. 5D-E**), the same area where we observed impaired spine remodeling in TIMP2 KO

relative to WT mice (**Fig. 3**). To further determine if TIMP2 remodeling of the ECM could affect

accumulation of ECM near synapses given the synaptic deficits we observed in these neurons,

we analyzed aggrecan colocalization with the postsynaptic protein Homer1. We observed that the

DG of TIMP2 KO mice exhibited significantly increased colocalization of aggrecan with Homer1

relative to that observed in WT DG (**Fig. 5F-G**). These data indicate that TIMP2 normally promotes

ECM remodeling and limits its deposition near synapses.

We next further characterized the relationship between TIMP2's effect on ECM and adult

neurogenesis, considering the known roles of ECM and its related components in the regulation

of proliferation and migration of newborn neurons (reviewed in[41]). To explore this possibility, we

evaluated the migration of newborn neurons toward the molecular layer by examining the

distribution of DCX[+] immature neuroblasts in the SGZ relative to that in the GCL of the DG. This

analysis revealed significantly decreased distribution of DCX^{+} immature neurons in the GCL of

TIMP2 KO mice (**Fig. 5H-I**), reflecting a process whereby migration of newborn neurons within

the DG is apparently impaired in the absence of TIMP2. These data suggest that the absence of

TIMP2 leads to a tighter ECM structural environment that acts to spatially restrict the migration of

newborn neurons and plasticity of synapses, thus affecting overall adult neurogenesis and spine

dynamics. In support of this concept, we measured structural changes in the ECM of TIMP2 KO

mice by performing surface scanning electron microscopy (SEM) on decellularized brains isolated

from TIMP2 KO and WT mice. Interestingly, we detected altered ECM microarchitecture in the

form of thicker ECM fibers (**Fig. 5J-K**) in hippocampi from TIMP2 KO compared to WT mice.

Together, our results suggest that TIMP2 modulates the flexibility of the ECM within the

hippocampus to regulate plasticity processes, including adult neurogenesis and spine plasticity.

Neuronal TIMP2 regulation of the extracellular matrix regulates hippocampus-dependent

cognitive function and adult neurogenesis

To gain further mechanistic insight into TIMP2's role in the function of the hippocampus with

increased cellular resolution, we generated *Timp2*-floxed (TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$) mice using two-cell

homologous recombination (2C-HR)-CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing. We inserted two

loxP sites flanking exon 2 of the *Timp2* gene transcript (**Supplementary Fig. 3A-B**) and then

crossbred *Timp2*$^{fl/fl}$ mice with Syn$^{Cre/+}$ mice (**Supplementary Fig. 3C**) to specifically excise *Timp2*

in neurons. Immunoblotting against TIMP2 from isolated hippocampus lysates of Syn$^{Cre/+}$;

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ or TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ control mice confirmed that conditional targeting of TIMP2 resulted in

significantly reduced TIMP2 levels compared to TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ controls in hippocampus

(**Supplementary Fig. 3D-E**). We performed further validation by performing confocal microscopy

in hippocampus of Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ or TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ control mice to examine the cells in hippocampus

expressing TIMP2. Quantification of TIMP2$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells in the hilus/DG, CA3 and CA1 regions

revealed significant abrogation of TIMP2 in neurons upon its conditional deletion (**Supplementary**

Fig. 3F-G). These data validate our model as a tool for addressing the role of neuronal TIMP2 in

regulating the key cellular and behavioral phenotypes observed in the context of global TIMP2

deletion.

Given that we found that TIMP2 was expressed by neurons in DG and present at

significant levels in the extracellular space adjacent to these cells, we sought to determine

whether the pool of neuronal TIMP2 is specifically involved in hippocampus-dependent memory.

Using the Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice we generated and validated (**Supplementary Fig. 3**), we

created cohorts of Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice and TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ control littermates to evaluate performance

in spatial memory tasks. We found that Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice exhibited significantly decreased

preference for the displaced object 24 hours after training in the testing phase compared to

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ controls, as indicated by a reduced discrimination index in these mice (**Fig. 6A**). Further

assessment in the contextual portion of fear-conditioning revealed a significant reduction in

freezing levels by Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice compared to TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ controls, suggesting impaired

contextual memory in the absence of neuronal TIMP2 (**Fig. 6B-C**). Cued freezing levels were

indistinguishable between the groups of mice (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**). We then subjected the

mice to Barnes maze testing to examine performance in search strategies to find the escape hole.

Our search strategy analysis showed that a smaller proportion of Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice used

hippocampus-dependent strategies compared to TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Fig. 6D-E**). Scoring their search

strategy utilization by complexity shows that Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice score lower than their

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ counterparts (**Fig. 6F**), suggesting TIMP2 from neurons is required for normal

hippocampus-related memory and learning. Importantly, we did not detect differences in overall

motor function in terms of coordination (**Supplementary Fig. 4B-C**), overall activity in the open

field (**Supplementary Fig. 4D-E**), grip strength or motor learning (**Supplementary Fig. 4G-I**) and

clasping behavior (**Figure S3J**) in Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice relative to TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice. No differences

in anxiety-related behaviors in the open field were observed between TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$;

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (**Supplementary Fig. 4F**).

To test whether the local pool of neuronal TIMP2 affects the survival of newly generated

neurons, we analyzed the pool of BrdU$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells after pulse-chase labeling with BrdU, as

described earlier (**Fig. 2B**). Indeed, we observed that the deletion of TIMP2 within neurons

resulted in a significant decrease in the number of BrdU$^+$ NeuN$^+$ newborn neurons compared to

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ controls (**Fig. 6G-H**). To probe potential mechanisms by which TIMP2 expressed locally

from neurons affects hippocampus-dependent memory and adult neurogenesis, we next

addressed ECM-related remodeling in the DG of Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice. TIMP2 deletion in

neurons in Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice resulted in a significant increase in the density of aggrecan-

positive puncta compared to TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ controls (**Fig. 6I-J**), as well as increased colocalization of

aggrecan with Homer1 (**Fig. 6I, 6K**), consistent with an accumulation of ECM components

adjacent to synapses, as observed earlier. Together, our results show that the pool of neuronal

TIMP2 is necessary to promote ECM remodeling to enable synaptic plasticity and adult

neurogenesis to facilitate normal hippocampus-dependent memory.

Discussion

Our study illustrates how alterations in the ECM within the hippocampus by TIMP2 can directly

regulate features of plasticity, including dendritic spine plasticity, adult neurogenesis, and

hippocampus-dependent memory. We find that TIMP2 is highly expressed in neurons within the

hippocampus and found at high levels in the brain extracellular space. Its removal induces

structural synaptic changes and deficits in adult neurogenesis, as predicted from changes

observed at the transcriptomic level, both of which result in impairments in hippocampus-

dependent memory function. We demonstrate that TIMP2's role in ECM remodeling is associated

with changes in the flexibility of synaptic plasticity, impinging on processes like neuronal migration

and differentiation. We generate and characterize a novel mouse model for conditional deletion

of TIMP2 within neurons, highlighting molecular mechanisms through which neuronal TIMP2

promotes synaptic plasticity through regulation in the ECM to facilitate normal memory.

The development and maintenance of synapses is critical in the establishment of

functional neuronal circuits, and emerging evidence indicates a role for the ECM and its

components in regulating synapse structure and morphology[41-43]. We used high-resolution

imaging of labeled granule cells in the intact hippocampus of TIMP2 KO and WT mice to show

that TIMP2 regulates dendritic spine density, with a loss in KO mice in the class of spines involved

in memory, mushroom spines[26]. Moreover, when TIMP2 is targeted either globally or specifically

within neurons, ECM components like aggrecan accumulate around hippocampal synapses, and

the ECM is more dense, as shown by our SEM data, suggesting that TIMP2 acts directly within

the hippocampus to modulate plasticity on a structural level. In agreement with its role in

modulating plasticity, we also find that TIMP2 regulates the process of adult neurogenesis. While

immature neuroblasts were unaltered in mice with systemic modulation of TIMP2[4], presumably

due to the window over which TIMP2 was modulated being too short to reflect changes in DCX$^+$

cells, we now show that removal of TIMP2, both globally and from neurons in the hippocampus,

results in disruption in neural progenitor proliferation and maturation. This is in line with *in vitro*

evidence indicating that TIMP2 expression was significantly upregulated upon neuronal

differentiation[44], and that it may be involved in differentiation[12]. Intriguingly, we observed that

TIMP2 deletion affected the migration of immature DCX$^+$ neurons towards the molecular layer,

arguing for a role of ECM in regulating neuronal migration[45]. It has been documented that ECM

molecules participate in neurogenesis[41], though the mechanisms by which they regulate neuronal

differentiation are unclear. CSPGs are known to surround new neurons in the hippocampus and

have recently been shown to be important in the production of new neurons[33], and ECM-related

proteins like reelin also play critical roles in neuronal migration[45].

TIMP2 is traditionally recognized for its unique dual role in regulating both the activation

of pro-MMP2 and the inhibition of MMP2 activity necessary for ECM remodeling[6,7]. We observed

that deletion of TIMP2 increased levels of *Mmp2* and pro-MMP2 levels within hippocampus,

perhaps reflecting compensatory responses to reduced TIMP2 and impaired MMP2 activation, as

described outside of the brain[6,7]. Accumulated pro-MMP2 appears to translate to less remodeling

of the ECM and its resulting accumulation around cells of the DG neurogenic niche we observe.

A proposed mechanism of spine stabilization and remodeling by ECM includes a structural-spatial

restriction mechanism in which ECM components, including CSPGs, form a matrix around

dendritic spines to provide extracellular rigidity and physically restrict spine motion[46]. MMPs

themselves can modulate structural plasticity by loosening the ECM structure, allowing for a more

permissive environment[41]. Moreover, stiffness of the surrounding environment determined by

ECM complexity has been implicated in regulating cell migration[47,48], including for neural stem

cells *in vitro*[49-51]. This modulation has been proposed to be among fundamental cell fate-

determining factors in neural development and neurological disorders[52-54]. Our results argue that

ECM accumulation in the absence of TIMP2 leads to a denser network that creates physical

restrictions that impact turnover of synapses from thin into mature mushroom-shaped spines,

while impeding proliferation and migration related to adult neurogenesis.

In line with reports linking disrupted synaptic plasticity and neurogenesis with cognitive

dysfunction[41], we show that TIMP2-related changes in hippocampus plasticity create significant

memory impairments. Both global and neuron-specific targeting of TIMP2 levels leads to deficits

in hippocampus-dependent memory tasks. Our results strongly reinforce a surprising link among

TIMP2, synaptic plasticity, and memory in the healthy hippocampus through regulating spine

dynamics and neurogenesis. Importantly, the cognitive phenotypes described here cannot be

attributed to TIMP2's role in other brain regions related to motor function, though earlier work in

younger mice described subtle deficits in coordination upon TIMP2 deletion[13], primarily related to

cerebellar alterations deletion[13]. We show that TIMP2-mediated roles in ECM to regulate cellular

phenotypes are associated with changes in MMP2. TIMP2 likely interacts with many MMPs and

other binding partners to mediate functional changes under different conditions, including

alpha3beta1 integrin[12]. It is possible that TIMP2 exerts its diverse biological functions through

interactions with different binding partners, or that it exerts its activities differently *in vivo* versus

in vitro, all of which will need to be further explored in future studies. Moreover, while we mostly

find TIMP2 expressed in neurons in our study, its expression in other cell types may be important

in certain pathological contexts[55] to be explored further, especially as a role for microglia in

remodeling the ECM to promote synapse plasticity in the hippocampus has been recently

described[18].

Dysregulation of the ECM is implicated in cognitive dysfunction that occurs in aging[56] and

in disease[57]. The progressive decline in TIMP2 expression with age[4] occurs in parallel with deficits

in memory[58] and ECM accumulation, as demonstrated here, while systemic treatment with TIMP2

revitalizes hippocampus-related function in aged mice[4]. Moreover, ECM clearance is beneficial in

mouse models of Alzheimer's disease pathology[59]. It has been increasingly appreciated that adult

neurogenesis in the human DG is dysregulated in Alzheimer's disease[60]. Defining the precise

molecular mechanisms accounting for how modulators of the ECM regulate the healthy brain may

lead to development of novel approaches for cognitive repair in contexts of aging or

neurodegeneration.

Acknowledgments

We gratefully acknowledge the contributions of the Mouse Genetics and Gene Targeting (MGGT)

CoRE facility (Kevin Kelley, ISMMS), which is supported by ISMMS and the National Cancer

Institute of the NIH under award P30CA196521, for two-cell stage embryo microinjections for

generating TIMP2^{fl/fl} mice. We also thank Chingwen Yang of the CRISPR and Genome Editing

Center (Rockefeller University) for assistance generating constructs to develop the TIMP2^{fl/fl} line.

We thank Yihang Wang (ISMMS) for RNA isolation support, Nikos Tzavaras and Deanna Benson

of the Microscopy CoRE and Advanced Bioimaging Center (ISMMS) for advice and equipment

for Airyscan microscopy and image analysis, Lee Cohen-Gould of the Electron Microscopy &

Histology Services of Weill Cornell Medicine Microscopy & Image Analysis Core for SEM sample

preparation, Jorge Morales of the Microscopy Facility (CCNY) for SEM acquisition support, and Ron Gordon and Andy Leonard of the EM Core (ISMMS) for advice and sample preparation for SEM. This work was funded by the National Institute on Aging (R01AG061382 (J.M.C), RF1AG072300 (J.M.C.), T32AG049688 (B.M.H.), and R01AG061382-02S1 (J.M.C., S.M.P)).

Author contributions

A.C.F. and J.M.C. conceived and designed the experiments, performed data analysis and interpretation, and wrote the manuscript. A.C.F. conducted the experiments. B.M.H. performed and analyzed microdialysis experiments. S.M.P analyzed data for RNAseq experiments. H.L. and J.D.Z performed or analyzed motor or Barnes maze experiments. M.V. performed intracellular dye injections for spine labeling, and analyzed/interpreted data with P.R.H. T.K. and T.A. assisted with design and analysis of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ validation data. All authors approved the final manuscript.

Conflict of interests

J.M.C. is listed as a co-inventor on patents for treating aging-associated conditions, including the use of young plasma administration (US10688130B2) or youth-associated protein TIMP2 (US10617744B2), the latter of which is licensed to Alkahest, Inc.

Supplementary Materials and Methods and Supplementary Figures are available at the end of the document.

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 Figure 1

Figure 1. TIMP2 is expressed in neurons of the hippocampus, and its deletion induces

transcriptomic changes. **(A)** Low-magnification view (upper image) of mouse hippocampus and

high-magnification view (lower images) of hilus/DG, CA3, and CA1 subregions showing TIMP2$^+$

cells and TIMP2$^+$ cells staining for pan-neuronal nuclei marker NeuN. Scale bars, 200 μm and 20

μm (inset). **(B)** Quantification of the total number of TIMP2$^+$ cells and TIMP2$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells across

hippocampal subregions in WT mice (2 months of age; N = 8, males and females). **(C)** Schematic

representation of high molecular weight cut-off (1-MDa) *in vivo* microdialysis for assessing TIMP2

levels in mouse hippocampal ISF. **(D)** TIMP2 immunoblotting of hippocampal ISF dialyzed from

2-month-old WT and TIMP2 KO mice, with corresponding Ponceau S stain. **(E)** Schematic

representation of bulk RNA-seq workflow performed in isolated WT and TIMP2 KO hippocampi

(N = 13-17/group, sex-matched) for transcriptomic analysis. **(F)** Volcano plot showing the fold-

change of genes (log$_2$ scale) differentially expressed in hippocampus of TIMP2 KO vs. WT mice.

Downregulated DEGs at *P* < 0.05 are highlighted in red (upregulated in black). **(G)** Top 10

significant pathways for downregulated DEGs from Gene Set Enrichment Analysis. Data are

represented as mean ± SEM. DG, dentate gyrus; eISF, exchangeable interstitial fluid; aCSF,

artificial cerebrospinal fluid.

Figure 2

Figure 2. TIMP2 is necessary for adult neurogenesis in the normal dentate gyrus.

(A) Schematic timeline of BrdU intraperitoneal injection protocol to label proliferating cells in the DG in isolated brain sections. **(B)** Schematic timeline of BrdU intraperitoneal injection protocol used for cell fate "survival" labeling in DG of isolated brain sections. **(C)** Representative confocal microscopy images of BrdU$^+$ cells in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group; arrowheads indicate BrdU$^+$ cells; scale bar, 50 µm) with corresponding **(D)** quantification of number of BrdU$^+$ cells in the dentate gyrus per unit area. **(E)** Representative confocal microscopy images of proliferating Ki67$^+$ cells in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group; arrowheads indicate Ki67$^+$ cells; scale bar, 50 µm) with corresponding **(F)** quantification of the number of Ki67$^+$ proliferating cells per DG in WT and TIMP2 KO mice. **(G)** Representative confocal microscopy images of Sox2$^+$ in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group; arrowheads indicate Sox2$^+$ cells; scale bar, 50 µm) with corresponding **(H)** quantification of Sox2$^+$ neural progenitor cells in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice. **(I)** Representative confocal microscopy images of DCX$^+$ cells in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group; scale bar, 50 µm) with corresponding **(J)** quantification of DCX$^+$ immature neuroblasts in DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice. **(K)** Representative confocal microscopy images of BrdU$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells in DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age. N = 8-11 mice per group; scale bar, 50 µm and 100 µm (inset)) with corresponding **(L)** quantification of newborn neurons (BrdU$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells) in the DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student's *t*-test for two-group comparisons. *$P<0.05$; **$P<0.01$; ***$P<0.001$. Data points represent individual mice. IHC, immunohistochemistry; DG, dentate gyrus; DCX, doublecortin.

Figure 3

Figure 3. TIMP2 regulates dendritic spine plasticity within the dentate gyrus.

(A) Schematic representation of the workflow for dendritic spine quantification in Lucifer Yellow-

filled DG granule cells. **(B)** Overall dendritic spine density in DG granule cells iontophoretically

labeled with Lucifer Yellow using sections isolated from six-month-old WT and TIMP2 KO mice

(N = 6 neurons per mouse from N = 4-5 mice per group). **(C)** Quantification of the percentage of

spines categorized according to "thin" spine heads or **(D)** "mushroom" spine heads. **(E)**

Representative deconvolved confocal image of a dendritic segment from WT and TIMP2 KO

Lucifer Yellow-labeled brain sections, and the downstream 3D reconstructions, with dendritic

segment shown in pink, thin spines in green, stubby in blue, mushroom in red, and filopodia in

yellow. Scale bar, 2 µm. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Nested t-test for comparisons

with neuron and mouse as levels. *$P<0.05$; **$P<0.01$. Data points represent neurons (left) and

mice (right) for each group. LY, Lucifer Yellow

 Figure 4

Figure 4. TIMP2 is required for hippocampus-dependent memory function.

(A) Schematic of the novel location recognition assay. **(B)** Discrimination index for novel location

recognition on day 2 for WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group).

(C) Schematic of the contextual and cued fear-conditioning assay. **(D, E)** Freezing levels by

interval and overall measured in the conditioned-fear context A in WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3

months of age, N = 11-12 mice per group). **(F)** Schematic diagram of modified Barnes maze with

color coding for overall strategy classification. **(G)** Proportion of WT and TIMP2 KO mice using

non-hippocampus-dependent (gray) and hippocampus-dependent (yellow) strategies during the

testing trials (2-3 months of age, N = 9 mice per group). **(H)** Strategy utilization by WT and TIMP2

KO mice on day 3 of the Barnes Maze and corresponding **(I)** cognitive scores, ranked by strategy

complexity for WT and TIMP2 KO mice on day 3 in the Barnes Maze. Data are represented as

mean ± SEM. Student's t-test for two-group comparisons in **(B, D, E)**, chi-square test in **(H)**, and

nested t-test **(I)** for trial and mouse levels. *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$. Data points represent individual

mice.

Figure 5. TIMP2 ablation leads to accumulation of ECM within the hippocampus.

(A) *Mmp2* mRNA levels by qPCR from isolated hippocampus of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3

months of age, N = 6 mice per group). **(B)** Immunoblotting of MMP2 from hippocampal lysates of

WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 9 mice per group) with corresponding **(C)**

quantification of MMP2 protein levels. **(D)** Representative confocal microscopy images of

aggrecan puncta in the molecular layer of the DG from young (3-month-old) and old (21-month-

old) mice (N = 8 mice per group; scale bar, 5 µm), with corresponding **(E)** quantification of

aggrecan puncta number. **(F)** Representative confocal microscopy images showing aggrecan

puncta in the molecular layer of DG at low-magnification (top) and high-magnification (bottom) of

analysis inset from WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 8-13 mice per group; scale

bar, 5 µm) with corresponding **(G)** quantification of puncta. **(H)** Representative confocal

microscopy image indicating colocalized puncta (see inset) with corresponding **(I)** quantification

of aggrecan and homer1 co-localization in the molecular layer of DG from WT and TIMP2 KO

mice (2-3 months of age, N = 8-13 mice per group; scale bar, 2.5 µm). **(J)** Representative images

showing the migration of DCX$^+$ cells in the SGZ and GCL of WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months

of age, N = 11-12 mice per group, scale bar, 20 µm with corresponding **(K)** quantification of DCX$^+$

cells distributed in the subgranular zone (SGZ) and granule cell layer (GCL) of DG. **(L)**

Representative surface scanning electron microscopy (SEM) from DG of WT and TIMP2 KO mice

(2-3 months of age, N = 3 mice per group, scale bar, 2 µm, with corresponding **(M)** quantification

of ECM microarchitecture in terms of fiber diameter measurements. Data are represented as

mean ± SEM. Student's t-test for two-group comparisons. *$P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$. Data

points represent individual mice.

Figure 6

Figure 6. Neuronal TIMP2 regulation of the extracellular matrix regulates hippocampus-

dependent cognitive function and adult neurogenesis.

(A) Discrimination index for novel location recognition on day 2 and **(B, C)** contextual fear-

conditioning freezing levels in TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (2-3 months of age, N = 13-

15 mice per group). **(D)** Proportion of mice of each genotype using non-hippocampus-dependent

(gray) and hippocampus-dependent (yellow) search strategies during the testing trials of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$

and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice in Barnes maze (2-3 months of age, N = 12-14 mice per group) with

(E) quantification of the percentage of mice using these strategies by on day 3. **(F)** Cognitive

complexity scores for TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice based on strategies used on day 3 of

Barnes maze. **(G)** Representative confocal microscopy images of BrdU$^+$ and NeuN$^+$ cells in DG

of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (2-3 months of age, N = 7–8 mice per group, scale bar,

100 μm) with corresponding **(H)** quantification of BrdU$^+$ NeuN$^+$ newborn neurons in the DG. **(I)**

Representative confocal microscopy images of aggrecan and homer1 puncta in molecular layer

of DG of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (N = 7-8 mice per group, scale bar, 5 μm) with

corresponding **(J)** quantification of aggrecan puncta and **(K)** co-localized puncta of aggrecan and

homer1, as indicated by overlaid circles. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student's *t*-test

for two-group comparisons in **(A-C)**, **(H)**, and **(J, K)**, chi-square test in **(E)**, and nested t-test **(F)**

with trial and mice as levels. *$P<0.05$, ** $P<0.01$, ***$P<0.001$, ****$P<0.0001$. Data points represent

individual mice.

        Supplementary Information, *Materials and Methods and Supplementary Figures*

Supplementary Materials and methods

Generation of TIMP2-floxed mice

To achieve conditional deletion of *Timp2*, a loxP-flanked *Timp2* allele (TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$) was generated by the two-cell homologous recombination (2C-HR)-CRISPR/Cas9-based genome editing method, as previously described[1]. Briefly, two loxP sites were inserted into the *Timp2* gene flanking exon 2, with homologous arms (HA) on each side. Two point-mutations (C928->A near the end of the left arm and G1795->T at the 5' junction of the right arm) were introduced to disrupt the PAM sequence to avoid re-cutting of the recombined allele. Three nucleotides adjacent to each loxP site were altered to create restriction sites for diagnostic purposes: XbaI near the upstream loxP, and HindIII near the downstream loxP site. The two-cell stage embryo microinjection procedure was performed as in[1], using Cas9-mSA mRNA, biotinylated double-stranded PCR product (1016 nts), and pre-assembled ctRNA prepared accordingly[1]. F_0 mice were screened by sequencing from TOPO cloned PCR product, using tail genomic DNA, amplified from the TIMP2 target region, and using the following primers: FW-AGCGACCGATAAGCAGGAAG, Rev-CACTAGCAGACACCACCACA. Identified founders were crossed with wild-type (WT) C57BL/6J mice, purchased from The Jackson Laboratory, to produce heterozygous mice.

To achieve neuron-specific *Timp2* deletion, neuron-specific heterozygous Synapsin (Syn)-Cre (Syn$^{Cre/+}$) transgenic mice[2] (JAX stock #003966) were crossbred with TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice to generate Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/+}$ progeny. The F_1 mice were then crossed to generate Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ littermate controls. Cre expression was maintained in the female mice for breeding[2]. All animals were maintained on a C57Bl/6J background.

Genotyping

Genotyping of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice was performed using the following primers: *Primer 1*: 5'-
TGACCCCTCTGCTCTAGTCC, *Primer 2:* 5'-GCTCCGTCTCTTCGTCCATC (**Figure 6A**).
Genomic DNA was extracted from the tail using the QIAamp Fast DNA Tissue Kit (Qiagen). PCR
was performed in a total volume of 50 µl at 94°C for 2 min, 94°C for 30 s, 61°C for 30 s, 68°C for
2 min and 15 sec for 10 cycles, then 94°C for 30 s, 56°C for 30 s, 68°C for 2 min and 15 s for 25
cycles, and ending at 72°C for 5 min using Prime STAR (#R050A, TaKaRa, Shiga, Japan). For
loxP site verification based on restriction digest, the PCR product (2.1 kb) was digested with XbaI
and HindIII restriction enzymes (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) at 37°C for 1 hour,
followed by 10 min at 65°C for heat inactivation. Digested PCR products were run on an agarose
gel and imaged for the identification of founders: HindIII (WT: 2133 bp; upstream loxP positive:
829 bp and 1,304 bp); Xba1 (WT: 2133 bp; downstream loxP positive: 566 bp and 1,567 bp).

In vivo microdialysis
For guide cannula implantation into the hippocampus, mice were anesthetized with 2% isoflurane
and head was shaved prior to being fixed in a stereotaxic apparatus (Stoelting Co., Wood Dale,
IL, USA). After preparing skin with 70% ethanol and povidone-iodine, an anterior-to-posterior
incision was made along the midline of the head to expose the skull. Skull position was leveled to
within 0.1 mm along the bregma-lambda axis, and at 2.2 mm to the left and right of midline on the
lateral axis. Holes were drilled to target the left hippocampus using the stereotaxic coordinates:
bregma -3.1 mm, 2.5 mm lateral. A second hole was made diagonally to the first, to serve as an
anchoring position with a bone screw. To target caudal hippocampus, AtomosLM Guide Cannula
(PEG-12, Eicom, London, UK) was inserted at a 12° angle, 1.2 mm below the dura mater. Dental
cement was applied to secure the cannula, and the skin was secured using a surgical adhesive
glue. An AtmosLM Dummy Cannula (PED-12, Eicom) was inserted into the guide cannula and
secured with a plastic cap nut. Animals were then placed in a clean cage on a heating pad and
allowed to recover from surgery.

Approximately 12 hours following surgery, mice underwent 1000-kDa *in vivo* microdialysis.

The inlet port of AtmosLM Microdialysis Probe (PEP-12-02, Emicon) was connected to a syringe

pump (kdScientific, Holliston, MA, USA) perfusing artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF), in mM: 1.3

$CaCl_2$, 1.2 $MgSO_4$, 3 KCl, 0.4 KH_2PO_4, 25 $NaHCO_3$, 122 NaCl, pH 7.35, at a rate of 1.2 μl/min[3].

The outlet of the probe was connected to the peristaltic pump (MAB 20, SciPro, New York, NY,

USA), which was calibrated to obtain a pull rate between 1-1.1 μl/min. After the probe was

connected to the push-pull mechanism, the mice were briefly anesthetized with isoflurane to allow

for the removal of the dummy cannula and insertion of the probe into the hippocampus. The probe

was secured with a cap nut, and a plastic collar was loosely placed around the neck of the mouse.

Mice were then moved to a Raturn (Stand-Alone Raturn System, BASi,

West Lafayette, IN, USA) and tethered by the collar to avoid tangling microdialysis tubing (FEP

tubing 0.65 mm OD x 0.12 mm ID, BASi), while allowing for free movement of the mouse during

the sample collection period. Samples were collected hourly in a refrigerated fraction collector

(MAB 85 Fraction Collector, SciPro) and frozen at −80°C after collection. The procedure was

performed under constant light conditions, and food and water were provided *ad libitum*.

Bulk RNA-sequencing

RNA-sequencing was performed on hippocampi dissected from WT and TIMP2 KO male and

female mice. Dissected hippocampi were preserved in RNAlater (Invitrogen) overnight at 4°C

before storing at −80°C until use. RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen),

according to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA quality was measured using the Agilent

TapeStation Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies), and all samples exhibited RNA Integrity Number

(RIN) > 8. cDNA libraries were prepared with poly(A) selection and sequenced using Illumina

Hiseq (2x150bp paired-end) (Genewiz). At least 25 M clean reads were generated from each

sample. The reads were mapped to the *Mus musculus* GRCm38 reference genome available on

ENSEMBL, using STAR aligner (v.2.5.2b). After extraction of gene hit counts, the gene hit counts

table was used for downstream differential expression analysis, using DESeq2 software. The

Wald test was used to generate *P*-values and log2 fold changes. Differentially expressed genes

(DEGs; *P*<0.05*)* were used for Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA; https://www.gsea-

msigdb.org/gsea/index.jsp). Volcano plot was generated with R v4.1.2.

Immunohistochemistry and microscopy

For all immunohistochemistry experiments, mice were anesthetized with a cocktail of ketamine

(90 mg/kg) and xylazine (10 mg/kg) and transcardially perfused with ice-cold 0.9% saline. Brains

were dissected, and hemibrains isolated for immunohistochemistry were postfixed in 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 48 hours at 4°C before preservation in 30% sucrose (Sigma, St.

Louis, MO, USA) solution in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). Hemibrains were sectioned

coronally at 40-μm thickness on a freezing-sliding microtome (SM2010R, Leica, Deer Park, IL,

USA), and sections were stored in cryoprotective medium at −20°C.

For immunohistochemistry, free-floating brain sections were permeabilized with Tris-

buffer saline (TBS) plus 0.05% Tween-20 (TBST) and incubated in a blocking solution consisting

of 10% normal goat (#S-1000, Vector Laboratories, Newark, CA, USA) or donkey serum (#017-

000-121, Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA) in TBST. Sections were then

incubated with primary antibodies in 2% goat or donkey serum in TBST overnight at 4°C. Sections

were incubated with primary antibodies, including the following: TIMP2 (1:100; #AF971, R&D

Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA), NeuN (1:200; #MAB377, Millipore, Burlington, MA, USA),

doublecortin (DCX; 1:200; #4604S, Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA, USA), Sox2 (1:200; #sc365823,

Santa Cruz, Dallas, TX, USA), Ki67 (1:200; #14-5698-82, Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA, USA),

aggrecan (1:500; #AB1031, Millipore), Homer1 (1:500; #160006, Synaptic Systems, Göttingen,

Germany). The next day, sections were washed in TBST three times for 5 min each and incubated

with Alexa Fluor-conjugated secondary antibodies at 1:200 in TBST for 1 hour at RT. Secondary

antibodies used were: Alexa Fluor 594-labeled donkey anti-rabbit (#A-21206), Alexa Fluor 594-

labeled donkey anti-mouse (#A-21203), Alexa Fluor 488-donkey anti-rat (#A-21208), Alexa Fluor

488-donkey anti-goat (#A-11055), Alexa Fluor 647-donkey anti-mouse (#A-31571), Alexa Fluor

594-goat anti-rabbit (#A-11012), Alexa Fluor 5488-goat anti-chicken (#A-11039), all from Thermo

Fisher. Brain sections were then washed, stained with 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI,

Sigma) for 15 min to visualize nuclei, mounted and coverslipped using Prolong Gold (Life

Technologies) and dried overnight before imaging. For BrdU staining, brain sections were pre-

treated with 3M HCl (Thermo Fisher) for 30 min at 37°C before overnight incubation with primary

antibody anti-BrdU (1:500; #ab6326, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) at 4°C. Secondary staining and

mounting were performed as described above.

Image processing was performed using an LSM 780 confocal microscope (Zeiss, Jena,

Germany) using 40x/1.4 Oil DIC objective. Four equally-spaced sections per mouse (rostral

through the caudal extent of the DG) were used to count the total number of positive cells within

the DG (subgranular zone and hilar subregions) of the hippocampus according to stereological

principles. All counts were performed using FIJI in a blinded fashion, according to similar

methods[4].

Aggrecan and Homer1 puncta quantification

Quantification of the number of puncta by super-resolution microscopy proceeded similar to the

method described previously[5]. Briefly, images were acquired by confocal microscopy imaging

using an LSM 880 with AiryScan in super-resolution mode (Zeiss) set with a 63X/1.4 Oil DIC

objective with 5X optical zoom. Using consistent laser strength, gain, and digital offset settings

across all sections/experiments, Z stacks were acquired with steps less than the optical slices

acquired. Using Zen software (Zeiss), a setting of 6 ("optimal") was used during AiryScan

processing. Aggrecan puncta were quantified using the Puncta Analyzer plugin[6] in ImageJ, and

thresholding was applied equally across images. For colocalization of co-stained Aggrecan and

Homer1 puncta, images were analyzed with the Puncta Analyzer plugin with a minimum pixel

specification of 4. Three images in the molecular layer of the DG were averaged per mouse for

analysis.

1011

Dendritic spine analysis by iontophoretic dye injections

Tissue processing. Mice were anesthetized using 15% chloral hydrate and transcardially perfused

with 1% PFA in phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4) for 2 min, followed by 4% PFA with 0.125%

glutaraldehyde in PB for 10 min at a rate of 5 ml/min. Brains were dissected and postfixed

overnight at 4°C in the same fixative, and then transferred to PBS with 0.1% sodium azide at 4°C

until sectioned. Brains were hemisected, and the right hemisphere was cut into 200 µm-thick

sections using a vibratome (VT1000S, Leica).

1019

Intracellular dye injection and confocal imaging. Coronal sections were incubated in 250 ng/ml

DAPI for 5 min to enable identification of the DG. Sections were mounted on nitrocellulose

membrane filters, immersed in ice-cold PB, and DG granule cells were iontophoretically injected

with 5% Lucifer Yellow (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) in distilled water under a direct current of

3-8 nA until the dye filled the distal ends of the dendrites. Six to eleven neurons were injected per

section and neurons selected for injection were spaced to avoid overlapping of dendrites.

Sections were mounted with Fluoromount-G (#0100-01, Southern Biotech, Birmingham, AL, USA)

between spacers placed on gelatin-coated glass slides (#22-214-320, Thermo Fisher).

To select dendritic segments for imaging on a Zeiss LSM 780 confocal microscope (Zeiss),

whole cells at the suprapyramidal blade of the DG were first imaged using a 20x/0.8 M27 Plan-

Apochromat objective, using an Ar/Kr laser at an excitation wavelength of 488 nm. Confocal

stacks were acquired at 512 x 512-pixel resolution with a Z-step of 1 µm, a pinhole setting of 1

Airy Unit, and optimal settings for gain and offset. Basal dendritic segments at 50 µm from the

soma were selected for high-resolution imaging according to the following criteria: not a primary

dendrite, no overlap with other dendrites or branching that would obscure spines, not too deep in

the section, and parallel or at acute angles to the coronal plane. Dendritic segments were imaged

using a 100x/1.46 Oil DIC M27 Plan-Apochromat objective, and stacks were acquired at

512 x 512-pixel resolution with a Z-step of 0.1 µm, optical zoom of 3.3x, a pinhole setting of 1 Airy

Unit, and optimal settings for gain and offset. The stacks were imaged with approximately 1 µm

above and below the segment to fully include all spines. Three z-stacks were imaged from each

neuron. Confocal stacks were deconvolved using an iterative blind deconvolution algorithm

(AutoQuant X, vX3.0.1, MediaCybernetics, Rockville, MD, USA).

1042

Spine reconstruction and analysis. Deconvolved stacks were analyzed using Neurolucida 360

(v2019.2.1; MBF Bioscience, Williston, VT, USA) for semi-automated reconstruction of dendrites

and spines to determine spine density and morphology. Spines were classified as stubby, thin,

mushroom, and filopodia, based on their morphologies, according to previous work[7]. 4-5 mice per

genotype, 6 neurons per mouse, and 3 dendrites per neuron were analyzed, and violin plots were

used to better visualize the distribution of individual data points.

1049

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM)

Following ketamine/xylazine anesthesia and transcardial perfusion with PBS, 2-mm thick brain

slices containing the hippocampus were decellularized, following previously described methods[8].

SEM methods were adapted from a previous study[9]. Decellularized brain slices were fixed in 4%

PFA with 2% glutaraldehyde in 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4) for 24 hours at 4°C.

Samples were then briefly rinsed in the same buffer before post-staining with 1% OsO4 for 1 hour.

OsO_4-treated samples were rinsed in water and gradually dehydrated in increasing

concentrations of ethanol (50, 70, 90 100, and 100%, 10 min each). Samples were then stacked

horizontally onto wire mesh dividers to keep them flattened and critical point-dried with liquid CO_2.

Dried samples were mounted onto Aluminum SEM stubs using conductive copper tape and

sputter-coated before imaging with a Zeiss Supra 55 VP FESEM using InLens SE detection at 5

kV operating voltage (Zeiss Microscopy Inc). Fiber diameters were analyzed using Image J

(Bethesda, USA).

1063

1064   **Behavior**

1065   All behavioral analyses were performed during the 0700–1900 light cycle. For all behavioral

1066   experiments, age- (2-3-month-old) and sex-matched mice with corresponding littermate control

1067   animals were used.

1068

Novel location recognition. Hippocampus-dependent memory was assessed using the novel

location recognition as previously described[4]. On day 1, the training day, mice were habituated to

the open-field arena for 6 min, an arena that contained wall-mounted visual cues. Mice were

exposed to three consecutive trials of 6 min each, during which they explored two different objects

in fixed positions. On day 2, the testing day, mice explored the same arena as on the training day

but with one object displaced to a novel position. Time spent exploring each object was manually

scored in a blinded fashion to assess the discrimination index for the novel location as the

displaced object interaction time/total interaction time of both objects.

1077

Contextual fear-conditioning. Fear-conditioning experiments were performed as previously

described[4] to assess hippocampus-dependent memory. Briefly, mice were trained to associate

the cage context with an aversive stimulus (light foot-shock; Ugo Basile). On the first day, training

parameters included two periods of 30 s consisting of a paired cue light and a tone of 1,000-Hz,

followed by a light foot-shock (2 s, 0.5 mA) separated by a 180-s interval. Chambers were cleaned

with 70% ethanol between experiments by the experimenter. Twenty-four hours later, mice were

re-exposed to the same context for 3 min, and freezing levels (contextual) were measured. Two

hours later, for the cued task, mice were placed in a novel context and exposed to the same tone

and cue light from day 1 (training) after 120 s of exploration. Freezing levels were analyzed for

pre- and post-cue phases. Freezing levels were measured using EthoVision XT system software

(v14.0.1319, Noldus).

1089

Barnes maze. Barnes maze testing was performed similarly to that previously described[4]. A large

circular maze containing 40 holes was centered over a pedestal and elevated approximately 40

cm above the floor with a video recording device mounted directly above. The escape hole

consisted of a PVC box similar in texture and color to the surface of the maze. Distinct visual cues

were placed at four equally spaced points around the maze to serve as spatial navigation cues

as the mice navigate the task. The task proceeded over 4 days, with four trials on each day for

each mouse. With overhead illumination and a persistent 2 kHz tone, mice were given 90 s for

each trial to identify the escape hole by jumping in or identifying the hole with extended/overhead

pokes. If mice failed to find the escape hole within 90 s, they were gently guided by light

tapping/directing towards the escape hole and scored with 90 s. The escape hole position was

fixed within a day but changed for each successive day of testing. For each trial within a day, the

starting location for the mouse was rotated relative to the escape hole position. Data collection

and analyses were performed using EthoVision video-tracking system.

Search strategy classification was manually performed and based on methods adapted

from previous work[10], with data collected by EthoVision video-tracking system software. Search

strategies were coded according to the following: (i) localized - minimal movement from the

starting position; (ii) serial - sequential nose points within the outer ring area; (iii) random -

unorganized searching; (iv) scanning - arc-like trajectory, without nose points; (v) focal - direct

search within a maze quadrant; (vi) focal missense - direct search within a maze quadrant from

previous trials; (vii) targeted - direct movement to hole with deviations in the trajectory direction;

(viii) direct - no shifts in the trajectory direction with single nose point to target hole. For strategy

analysis, each related strategy was categorized into non-hippocampus-dependent strategies

comprising localized, serial, random, and scanning strategies, and hippocampus-dependent

strategies that included focal, focal missense, targeted and direct strategies. Cognitive

performance of each trial on day 3 was scored such that cognitive strategies received higher

scores according to the following scale, accounting for high cognitive complexity, with a

separation of 1 point between non-hippocampus-dependent and hippocampus-dependent

strategies: localized = 0, serial = 1, random = 2, scanning = 3, focal = 5, focal missense = 5,

targeted = 6, direct = 6. Focal and focal missense strategies are assigned a score of 5, as both

are goal-directed strategies used without achieving the final target. Target and direct strategies

were assigned score of 6 since both are goal-directed strategies with successful achievement of

the final target.

1122

Open field. The open field test was used to evaluate locomotion and exploratory behavior, and

anxiety-like behavior in the center of the arena. The apparatus consisted of a brightly illuminated

square arena of 50 x 50 cm enclosed by walls 45 cm high. Mice were placed individually in the

center of the open field arena, and their movement was traced for 6 min. The resulting data was

analyzed using EthoVision software, considering two previously defined areas: a central and an

outer area. Due to the thigmotaxic exploratory activity of rodents, the ratio between the time spent

in the center and in the periphery of the open field arena can reflect anxiety-like behaviors.

Distance traveled, average velocity, and time spent in each of the zones were recorded and

analyzed.

1132

Rotarod. Balance and motor function was measured using the fixed and standard accelerated

rotarod test (Med Associates). The protocol consisted of a first day of training at a constant speed

(4 rpm) for a maximum of 2 min in three trials, with a 2-min interval between each trial. On day 2,

animals were tested for each of 3 different fixed speeds over a range of 4 to 40 rpm for a maximum

of 60 sec each in three trials, with a 2-min interval between each trial. For the acceleration test,

animals were placed on the rod rotating at a constant speed (4 rpm), then the rod started to

accelerate continuously from 4 to 40 rpm over 5 min, in three trials with a 5-min interval between

each trial. The latency to fall off the rotarod was recorded for each trial, and data from three trials

were averaged for each mouse.

1142

1143 *Wire grip test.* Motor coordination and strength was measured by the wire grip task. Each mouse

1144 was placed on a wire cage top, which was slowly inverted and suspended at approximately 30

1145 cm above a mouse cage. The latency of time until the mouse fell off the wire was recorded in

1146 three trials. Mice that did not fall within the 60-s trial period were removed and assigned a maximal

1147 time of 60 s. Data from three trials were averaged for each mouse.

1148

Clasping. Mice were suspended by their tail, and the extent of hindlimb clasping was observed

for 15 s. Clasping scoring was based on a previously described method[11]. Briefly, if both hindlimbs

were splayed outward away from the abdomen with splayed toes, a score of 0 was given. If one

hindlimb was retracted or both hindlimbs were partially retracted toward the abdomen without

touching it, and the toes were splayed, a score of 1 was assigned. If both hindlimbs were partially

retracted toward the abdomen and were touching the abdomen without touching each other, a

score of 2 was given. If both hindlimbs were fully clasped and touching the abdomen, a score of

3 was assigned.

1157

Grip strength. For the grip strength test, forelimb, hindlimb, and 4-limbs grip strength was

evaluated using a grip strength meter (Bioseb). Animals were held by the tail and allowed to place

forelimbs on the bar, or they were restrained to place hindlimbs on the bar connected to the force

sensor. Mice were slowly pulled away until they released the bar, and the maximal grip force

measured during the pulling session was recorded. For the 4-limb measurement, using a mesh

pull bar attachment, animals were handled by the tail so that all the paws latched onto the mesh

pull the bar together. The mice were slowly and steadily pulled away from the apparatus exactly

parallel from the countertop until paws were released from the mesh. A modified version of the

forelimb grip strength test was performed as previously described[12]. Briefly, the meter was rotated

vertically and the measurement procedure was identical to the conventional test, except for the

direction in which the mouse's tail was pulled. Each animal's grip strength (in *g*) was recorded,

and data from five trials were collected.

1170

Pole test. Motor coordination and balance with striatal involvement was assessed with the vertical

pole test, which consisted of a plastic pole (50 cm high, diameter 1 cm) placed vertically on a

mouse cage. Mice were individually placed at the top of the pole facing upward by their front paws

on the pole, and the time taken to turn around and climb down the pole was recorded. A maximum

time of 120 s was given to complete the task. If the mouse fell from the top of the pole, a time of

120 s was recorded. Each mouse underwent three trials, and the pole was cleaned with 70%

ethanol between animals. Data from three trials were averaged for each mouse.

1178

qPCR

After rapid dissection of the hippocampus, tissue was preserved in RNAlater (Invitrogen)

overnight at 4°C before storing at −80°C until use. Hippocampal RNA was extracted according to

the manufacturer's instructions using a RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen). Quality and concentration of

total RNA were measured on the Nanodrop 8000 (Thermo Fisher). cDNA was subsequently

synthesized with SuperScript III (Invitrogen), following the manufacturer's recommendations.

Samples were mixed with SYBR Green master mix (Thermo Fisher) and primers for *Mmp2* (FW:

5'-CAAGTTCCCCGGCGATGTC-3'; REV: 5'-TTCTGGTCAAGGTCACCTGTC-3') before loading

as technical replicates for qPCR on a QuantStudio 7 Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo

Fisher). Cycle counts for mRNA quantification were normalized to *Rplp0* (FW: 5'-

AGATTCGGGATATGCTGTTGGC-3'; REV: 5'-CCAGTTGGTAACAATGCCATGT-3'). The ΔΔCT

method was used to provide gene expression values, and expression levels were normalized to

Rplp0.

1192

Western blotting

For Western blotting of MMP2 or TIMP2 within hippocampus, dissected hippocampi were

manually homogenized with 60 strokes in RIPA lysis buffer (Thermo Fisher), with protease

inhibitors (Roche), before centrifugation at 20,000g for 25 min at 4°C. Protein concentration of the

supernatant was determined using the BCA kit (Thermo Fisher). Samples with equal amounts of

protein were separated on 4-12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris precast denaturing gels (Invitrogen) and

transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes (BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA) at 125 V for 90 min.

Membranes were blocked with 3% milk-TBST (0.125% Tween) for 1 hour at room temperature

and then probed with primary antibodies diluted in 3% milk-TBST solution overnight at 4°C: anti-

TIMP2 (1:500; #D18B7, Cell Signaling), anti-MMP2 (1:1000; #ab86607, Abcam), and anti-actin

(1:10000; #A5060, Sigma). Membranes were washed and probed with horseradish-peroxidase-

conjugated anti-mouse (1:15,000; #1705047, BioRad) or anti-rabbit (1:15,000; #1705046,

BioRad) for 1 hour at room temperature. Membranes were developed using ECL Clarity reagent

(BioRad) and imaged using ChemiDoc MP Imaging System and Image Lab software (BioRad).

Band intensities were quantified using ImageJ software as described previously[13].

For TIMP2 detection in ISF samples, 4 consecutive baseline eISF samples from microdialysis

were pooled and concentrated ~6 fold using Amicon Ultra Centrifugal Filters (3 kDa Ultracel, 0.5

mL, Millipore). Concentrated samples were then processed for western blotting as described

above. Estimation of exchangeable interstitial fluid (eISF) TIMP2 protein levels were determined

by extrapolation from a standard curve of recombinant mouse TIMP2 (R&D/Biotechne) ranging

from 0.31 ng to 20 ng run alongside ISF samples in SDS-PAGE/Western that had been

concentrated ~9.2-fold.

1215

Supplementary Figure 1

GO: Biological processes

Regulation of phosphorylation
Cell cycle
Positive regulation of protein metabolic process
Positive regulation of multicellular organismal process
Positive regulation of RNA metabolic process
Response to hormone
Regulation of cell death
Cellular response to endogenous stimulus
Positive reg. of nucleobase containing comp. metab. process
Response to endogenous stimulus

-log10 (adjusted P-value)

Supplementary Figure 1. TIMP2 protein is found in hippocampal neurons in male and female mice, and its loss affects hippocampal transcriptome.

(A) Quantification of the total number of TIMP2$^+$ and TIMP2$^+$ NeuN$^+$ cells at the hilus/DG, **(B)** CA3 and **(C)** CA1 subregions of the hippocampus from WT males and females at 2 months of age (N = 4 mice per sex). **(D)** Cresyl violet-stained section depicting the microdialysis probe tract through brain surface extending into hippocampus, with microdialysis probe position seen at Bregma -3.08mm based on Paxinos and Watson atlas. Scale bar, 500 µm. **(E)** Top 10 significant pathways for upregulated DEGs in hippocampi of TIMP2 KO mice relative to WT mice (N = 13-17 mice per group). Data are represented as mean ± SEM.

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure S2. Loss of TIMP2 does not affect amygdala-associated behavior or overall motor function.

(A) Percentage of freezing detected in the cued task of the fear-conditioning assay in WT and TIMP2 KO mice (2-3 months of age, N = 12 mice per group). **(B)** Latency of TIMP2 KO and WT mice to fall in the rotarod in the fixed and **(C)** acceleration protocol at 4, 20 and 40 rpm (N = 12 mice per group). **(D)** Total distance traveled by TIMP2 KO and WT mice in the open field, as well as **(E)** velocity, and **(F)** percentage of time spent in the center of the arena (N = 11-12 mice per group). **(G)** Latency of TIMP2 KO and WT mice to fall in the wire test (N = 12 mice per group). **(H)** Time for TIMP2 KO and WT mice to descend the pole in the pole test (N = 11-12 mice per group). **(I)** Grip strength of the fore-, hind- and four limbs in TIMP2 KO and WT mice (N = 12 mice per group). **(J)** Hindlimb extension by clasping score in TIMP2 KO and WT mice (N = 10-11 mice per group). Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student's *t*-test for two-group comparisons. n.s., not significant.

 Supplementary Figure 3

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Supplementary Figure 3. Creation of a conditional model to target neuronal pools of TIMP2.
(A) Schematic illustration of the targeting strategy of to insert loxP sites flanking exon 2 to generate a model for conditional deletion of *TIMP2*. **(B)** Representative genotyping results revealing the PCR products for the mutant LoxP and wild-type alleles. Wild-type (+/+), heterozygous (fl/+), and homozygous (fl/fl) mice were identified according to this strategy. **(C)** Schematic diagram of cross-breeding strategy to establish neuron-specific TIMP2 deletion: male TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice were mated with Syn$^{Cre/+}$ females to obtain Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and their respective TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ littermate controls. **(D-E)** Representative TIMP2 immunoblot and corresponding quantification of TIMP2 protein levels from hippocampal lysate of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ (2-3 months of age, N = 5-6 mice per group). **(F)** High-magnification view of hilus/DG, CA3, and CA1 sub-regions of TIMP2+ cells co-expressing NeuN in TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (2-3 months of age, N = 5 mice per group, scale bar, 20 µm) with corresponding **(G)** quantification of the total number of TIMP2$^+$ cells with NeuN$^+$ nuclei across hippocampal subregions. Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student's t-test for two-group comparisons. *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001, ****P<0.0001. Data points represent individual mice.

Supplementary Figure 4

Supplementary Figure 4. Neuronal TIMP2 deletion does not impair amygdala-associated

behavior or overall motor function.

(A) Percentage of freezing detected in the cued task of the fear-conditioning assay in TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$

and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (2-3 months of age, N = 13-15 mice per group). **(B)** Latency of

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice to fall in the rotarod in the fixed and **(C)** acceleration protocol

at 4, 10 and 20 rpm (N = 13-15 mice per group). **(D)** Total distance traveled by TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and

Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice in the open field, as well as **(E)** velocity, and **(F)** percentage of time spent

in the center of the arena (N = 13-15 mice per group). **(G)** Latency of TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$;

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice to fall in the wire test (N = 12-14 mice per group). **(H)** Time for TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$;

TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice to descend the pole in the pole test (N = 12-14 mice per group). **(I)** Grip strength of

the fore-, hind- and four limbs in TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (N = 13-15 mice per group).

(J) Hindlimb extension by clasping score in TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ and Syn$^{Cre/+}$; TIMP2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (N = 12-14 mice

per group). Data are represented as mean ± SEM. Student's *t*-test for two-group comparisons.

n.s., not significant.

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