LRP1 Triggers Pro-inflammatory Cell-signaling in Response to Extracellular Tau Independently of the NMDA Receptor

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ABSTRACT

In Alzheimer's Disease (AD) and other neurodegenerative diseases, microtubule-associated protein Tau forms abnormal intracellular aggregates. The mechanisms by which Tau may promote AD progression remain incompletely understood. Injured and dying neurons release Tau into the extracellular spaces in the CNS. The released Tau may be taken up by receptors in the LDL Receptor gene family, including Low Density Lipoprotein Receptor-related Protein-1 (LRP1), which is expressed by microglia, astrocytes, and neurons. This process may be important for clearing Tau from extracellular spaces but may also promote the seeding of Tau aggregates in new cells. Our laboratory has shown that endocytosis of LRP1 ligands is coupled to the activation of cell-signaling and regulation of inflammation. Notably, different LRP1 ligands can induce either pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory responses, depending on the co-receptors that function with LRP1. Here, we demonstrate that in cultured macrophages, microglia, and astrocytes, extracellular Tau induces an LRP1-dependent pro-inflammatory response, characterized by NFκB activation and expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Unlike other LRP1 ligands that elicit anti-inflammatory responses, the response to Tau occurs independently of the NMDA receptor. When LRP1 is deleted or silenced, macrophages, microglia, and astrocytes do not respond to Tau, whereas when *Grin1* is deleted or the NMDA-R is pharmacologically inhibited, the responses remain unchanged. Because we have evidence that LRP1 in microglia expresses anti-inflammatory activity in response to ligands other than Tau, understanding the role of LRP1 in microglia and astrocytes *in vivo* in Alzheimer's Disease and other neuroinflammatory processes is an important future goal.

Key words: Tau, LRP1, NMDA-R, neuro-inflammation, Alzheimer's Disease

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

In Alzheimer's Disease and other neurodegenerative diseases, microtubule-associated protein Tau forms abnormal intracellular aggregates that contribute to disease progression. When released extracellularly, Tau binds to the transmembrane receptor LRP1, expressed by diverse cells in the CNS. LRP1 has the unique ability to couple ligand uptake with activation of cell-signaling. We demonstrated that Tau binding to LRP1 activates pro-inflammatory responses in macrophages, microglia, and astrocytes, characterized by NFκB activation and cytokine release. This signaling occurs independently of the NMDA receptor, which distinguishes Tau from other LRP1 ligands. These results define a novel pathway by which extracellular Tau regulates neuroinflammation in Alzheimer's Disease, providing new therapeutic opportunities that target LRP1 without interfering with NMDA-R functions.

INTRODUCTION

Microtubule-associated protein Tau is an intracellular protein that forms abnormal oligomers and fibrils in Alzheimer's Disease (AD) and in neurodegenerative diseases called Tauopathies (Lee et al., 2001; Congdon and Sigurdsson, 2018; Gao et al., 2018). Tau aggregation is regulated by gene polymorphisms, alternative splicing, phosphorylation, and other post-translational modifications. While the formation of neurofibrillary tangles through Tau aggregation is a key pathological hallmark, emerging evidence suggests that Tau's contribution to AD extends beyond its aggregation state (Congdon and Sigurdsson, 2018; Gao et al., 2018).

Tau is released by neurons and other cells in the CNS, in extracellular vesicles (EVs) and independently of EVs, allowing for transfer of Tau between cells (Saman et al., 2012; Pooler et al., 2013; Asai et al., 2015; Evans et al., 2018; Merezhko et al., 2018; Brunello et al., 2020). Because Tau transfer between cells in the CNS may play a role in AD progression, identification of Low Density Lipoprotein Receptor-related Protein-1 (LRP1) as an endocytic receptor for extracellular Tau is highly significant (Rauch et al., 2020; Cooper et al., 2021). SORL1, which is structurally related to LRP1, also may mediate Tau uptake (Cooper et al., 2024).

LRP1 is a 600-kDa, type 1 transmembrane receptor for over 100 structurally diverse ligands, including apolipoprotein E, α_2-macroglobulin (α_2M), shed non-pathogenic cellular prion protein (S-PrP^C), and proteins released from injured and dying cells (Strickland et al., 2002; Fernandez-Castaneda et al., 2013; Gonias and Campana, 2014; Mantuano et al., 2020). LRP1 ligands are internalized in clathrin-coated pits and usually transferred to lysosomes for degradation. A subset of LRP1 ligands trigger cell-signaling via mechanisms that require co-receptors, such as the NMDA Receptor (NMDA-R), Trk, p75^{NTR}, and/or PrP^C (Bacskai et al., 2000; May et al., 2004; Martin et al., 2008; Shi et al., 2009; Mantuano et al., 2013; Stiles et al., 2013; Gonias and Campana, 2014; Krogh et al., 2014; Mattei et al., 2020). Assembly of different LRP1 co-receptors in response to different ligands may explain why the cell-signaling responses elicited by various

LRP1 ligands are non-uniform (Gonias and Campana, 2014). LRP1 is expressed by neurons,

astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, and microglia in the CNS and by macrophages throughout the body

(Gonias and Campana, 2014; Auderset et al., 2016).

Binding of Tau to LRP1 is mediated by the Tau microtubule-binding domain (Rauch et al.,

2020; Cooper et al., 2021). The Tau alternative splicing variant with four microtubule-binding

repeats (2N4R) binds to LRP1 with higher affinity than the variant with three. Tau phosphorylation

events, which exacerbate Tau aggregation (Alonso et al., 2001; Augustinack et al., 2002),

apparently decrease LRP1-binding affinity (Cooper et al., 2021). Thus, LRP1-mediated uptake of

extracellular Tau may be a physiologic process; however, Tau in extracts from Alzheimer's

Disease brains partially escapes lysosomal degradation, seeding new intracellular aggregates

(Rauch et al., 2020; Cooper et al., 2021).

Specific LRP1 ligands, including tissue-type plasminogen activator (tPA), α_2M, and S-PrP^C,

activate anti-inflammatory cell-signaling responses in macrophages by a pathway that requires

the NMDA-R (Mantuano et al., 2017, 2022). Determining whether Tau initiates LRP1-activated

cell-signaling is an important question. There is considerable evidence that Tau accumulation in

the CNS is pro-inflammatory (Yoshiyama et al., 2007; Nilson et al., 2017). In P301S-Tau

transgenic mice, which express a mutated form of human Tau that forms intracellular filamentous

lesions, microglial activation and neuro-inflammation precede formation of detectable Tau

aggregates (Yoshiyama et al., 2007). Anti-inflammatory treatment blocks disease progression in

P301S-Tau transgenic mice. Although activated microglia demonstrate some activities that are

beneficial in AD, excessive microglial activation and chronic neuro-inflammation may promote AD

progression (Akiyama et al., 2000; Heneka et al., 2015; Hong et al., 2016; Ransohoff, 2016).

In this investigation, we studied the 2N4R variant of Tau. Our findings indicate that Tau elicits

a pro-inflammatory response in macrophages, microglia, and astrocytes in a manner entirely

dependent on LRP1. Unlike other LRP1 ligands that activate NMDA-R-dependent pathways, the

pro-inflammatory effects of Tau were NMDA-R-independent. These insights provide a new

understanding of Tau's role in AD pathology and open the door to therapeutic strategies that

target Tau-mediated inflammation independently of NMDA-R.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Proteins and reagents

Recombinant Human 2N4R Tau, the largest Tau derivative with 441 amino acids, was from R&D

Systems. The NMDA-R inhibitors, dizocilpine (MK-801) and dextromethorphan hydrobromide

(DXM), were from Cayman Chemicals and Abcam, respectively.

Experimental mice

Wild-type (WT) C57BL/6J mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratory. Mice in which

macrophages are LRP1-deficient were obtained by breeding *Lrp1*^{flox/flox} mice with mice express

Cre recombinase under the control of the lysozyme-M (LysM-Cre) promoter, in the C57BL/6J

background, as previously described (Overton et al., 2007; Staudt et al., 2013; Mantuano et al.,

2016). To generate mice in which macrophages are deficient in the essential NMDA-R GluN1

subunit, *Grin1*^{flox/flox} mice were bred with mice that express Cre recombinase under the control of

the LysM-Cre promoter in the C57BL/6J background (Mantuano et al., 2023). All research

protocols involving mice were approved by the University of California San Diego Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee.

Cell culture model systems

Bone-marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) were harvested from 16-week-old mice, as

previously described (Mantuano et al., 2016). Briefly, bone marrow cells were flushed from mouse

femurs, plated in non-tissue culture-treated dishes, and cultured in DMEM/F-12 medium

containing 10% FBS and 20 ng/mL mouse macrophage colony-stimulating factor (BioLegend) for

7 days. Non-adherent cells were removed by washing. Adherent cells included >95% BMDMs, as

determined by F4/80 and CD11b immunoreactivity.

Microglia were isolated from C57BL/6J mouse pups, as previously described (Ni and

Aschner, 2010; Pontecorvi et al., 2019). In brief, brains were harvested from postnatal day 1–6

mice. The cortices were dissected from the forebrain, and the surrounding meninges were

removed. Intact cortices were mechanically and enzymatically dissociated using the Neural

Tissue Dissociation Kit (Miltenyi Biotec). Mixed glial cell cultures were established in DMEM/F-12

supplemented with GlutaMAX, 10% FBS, and 1× Gibco Antibiotic-Antimycotic (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). After culturing for 10-14 days, microglia were dissociated by shaking the mixed

cultures at 200 rpm for 30 min at 37°C. The floating cells were collected by centrifugation (5 min,

600×g) and re-plated at 3×10^5 cells/well. Oligodendrocytes were removed by an additional 6 h of

shaking. The remaining cells, which included mainly astrocytes, were collected by trypsinization

and re-plated at 4×10^5 cells/well. Experiments were performed within 24 h of completing the

isolation procedure for microglia and within 48 h of completing the isolation procedure for

astrocytes. Microglial cell culture purity was >95% homogeneous as determined by immuno-

fluorescence (IF) microscopy for Iba1 (positive), glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) (negative),

and OLIG1 (negative). Astrocyte cultures were >95% GFAP-immunopositive.

mRNA expression studies

BMDMs, microglia, and astrocytes were transferred to serum-free medium (SFM) for 1 h. Some

cultures were pre-treated with MK-801 (1 µM) or DXM (10 µM) for the final 30 min of the 1 h pre-

incubation. The cells then were treated for 6 h with Tau, at the indicated concentrations, or vehicle

(20 mM sodium phosphate, 150 mM NaCl, pH 7.4, PBS) in the presence of inhibitors, as indicated.

RNA was isolated using the NucleoSpin RNA kit (Macherey-Nagel) and reverse-transcribed using

the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). qPCR was performed using TaqMan gene expression

products (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Primer-probe sets were as follows: *Gapdh*

(Mm99999915_g1); *Tnf* (Mm00443258_m1); *Il6* (Mm00446190_m1); *Ccl3* (Mm00441259_g1);

and *Cxcl2* (Mm00436450_m1). The relative change in mRNA expression was calculated using

the $2^{\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method with *Gapdh* mRNA as a normalizer.

Cell signaling/immunoblotting experiments

BMDMs, microglia, and astrocytes were transferred to SFM for 1 h and then treated for 1 h with

Tau or vehicle as noted. Some cultures were pre-treated with MK-801 (1 µM) or DXM (10 µM) for

the final 30 min of the 1 h pre-incubation, as noted.

Extracts of BMDMs, microglia, and astrocytes, were prepared in RIPA buffer (Sigma-Aldrich)

supplemented with protease inhibitors and phosphatase inhibitors (Thermo Fisher Scientific).

Equal amounts of cellular protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and transferred to PVDF

membranes. The membranes were blocked with 5% nonfat dried milk and then incubated with

primary antibodies from Cell Signaling Technology that recognize: phospho-ERK1/2 (catalog

#9102); total ERK1/2 (catalog #4370); phospho-IκBα (catalog #2859); total IκBα (catalog #9242);

and β-actin (catalog #3700). The membranes were washed and incubated with horseradish

peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody from Jackson ImmunoResearch (anti-rabbit: catalog

#111-035-003; anti-mouse: catalog #115-035-003). Immunoblots were developed using Thermo

Scientific SuperSignal West Pico PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate (Thermo Fisher Scientific)

and imaged using the Azure Biosystems c300 digital system. When immunoblots were re-probed,

phospho-IκBα was detected first, followed by total IκBα, then p-ERK, total ERK1/2, and finally, β-

actin. Presented results are representative of at least three independent experiments.

Proteome profiler mouse cytokine arrays

BMDMs and microglia were transferred to SFM for 30 min and then treated with Tau or vehicle

for 6 h, as indicated. Conditioned medium (CM) was collected and clarified by centrifugation. An

equivalent amount of CM (1.0 ml for each condition) was incubated with each nitrocellulose

membrane provided in the Proteome Profiler Mouse XL Cytokine Array Kit (R&D Systems).

Membranes were developed following the instructions of the manufacturer.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 9.5.1. All results are expressed as the

mean ± SEM. Each replicate was performed using a different BMDM, microglia, or astrocyte

preparation. Comparisons between two groups were performed using two-tailed paired t-tests. To

compare more than two groups, we performed a one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Dunnett's

multiple comparison test. When evaluating the effects of two independent factors, we performed

a two-way ANOVA followed by Šidák's multiple comparisons test. *p*-values of *$p<0.05$, **$p<0.01$,

***$p<0.001$, and ****$p<0.0001$ were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Tau elicits an LRP1-dependent pro-inflammatory response in macrophages

BMDMs were treated with increasing concentrations of Tau for 6 h. RNA was harvested and RT-

qPCR was performed to examine mRNA levels for the genes encoding various cytokines. Tau, at

concentrations greater than or equal to 5 nM, significantly increased expression of the mRNAs

encoding TNFα (*Tnf*), interleukin-6/IL-6 (*Il6*), CCL3/MIP-1α (*Ccl3*), and CXCL2/ MIP-2α (*Cxcl2*)

(Fig. 1*A*).

IκBα phosphorylation is a key step in the activation of NFκB. Phosphorylated IκBα is

ubiquitinated and degraded, allowing NFκB to translocate to the nucleus and bind DNA (Karin

and Ben-Neriah, 2000; Viatour et al., 2005). NFκB activation promotes expression of pro-

inflammatory cytokines, such as TNFα and IL-6. When BMDMs were treated for 1 h with Tau, at

concentrations of 5 nM or greater, IκBα was phosphorylated and a decrease in the total

abundance of IκBα was observed (Fig 1*B*). ERK1/2 also was phosphorylated in Tau-treated

BMDMs. ERK1/2 phosphorylation is a commonly observed process in LRP1-initiated cell-

signaling responses (Gonias and Campana, 2014).

To test whether LRP1 is necessary for Tau-induced cytokine expression, we harvested

BMDMs from mice in which *Lrp1* is deleted under the control of the LysM promoter (Overton et

al., 2007; Staudt et al., 2013; Mantuano et al., 2016). LRP1 protein is decreased by greater than

95% in these cells (Staudt et al., 2013). In LRP1-expressing control cells, which carry two floxed

Lrp1 genes but not LysM-Cre, 20 nM Tau significantly increased expression of the mRNAs

encoding TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2, as anticipated (Fig. 2A). In LRP1-deficient BMDMs, 20

nM Tau failed to induce expression of these cytokines.

To examine cytokine expression at the protein level, in an unbiased manner, we treated

LRP1-expressing and -deficient BMDMs with 20 nM Tau for 6 h. Conditioned medium (CM) was

harvested and subjected to array analysis to detect secreted cytokines. In CM from Tau-treated

LRP1-expressing cells, we observed TNFα and IL-6, as anticipated based on our RT-qPCR

results (Fig. 2*B*). Other cytokines that were increased in CM from Tau-treated LRP1-expressing

cells included but were not limited to CXCL2/MIP2, CXCL1/KC, CXCL10/ IP10, CCL3/CCL4

(MIP1α/β), and IL-12. By contrast, CM from Tau-treated LRP1-deficient BMDMs was entirely

lacking in the Tau-elicited cytokines detected by this array. In separate studies, Tau failed to

induce phosphorylation of IκBα in LRP1-deficient BMDMs, even when the Tau concentration was

increased to 20 nM (Fig. 2*C*). Collectively, these results demonstrate that LRP1 is necessary for

Tau-induced pro-inflammatory responses in BMDMs.

The NMDA-R is not required for macrophages to respond to Tau

tPA, α$_2$M, and S-PrP[C] are examples of LRP1 ligands that activate cell-signaling via pathways that

require the NMDA-R (Bacskai et al., 2000; Martin et al., 2008; Mantuano et al., 2017, 2020). To

test whether the NMDA-R is necessary for Tau-elicited responses in BMDMs, first we treated cells

with two pharmacologic inhibitors of the NMDA-R. Neither MK-801 nor DXM inhibited the effects

of Tau on expression of the mRNAs encoding TNFα or IL-6. (Fig. 3*A*). Similarly, Tau-induced IκBα

phosphorylation was unchanged in the presence of MK-801 or DXM (Fig. 3*B*).

Next, we isolated NMDA-R-deficient BMDMs from mice in which the gene encoding the

essential GluN1 subunit (*Grin1*) is deleted under the control of the LysM promoter (Mantuano et

al., 2023). BMDMs from these mice fail to respond to S-PrP^C (Mantuano et al., 2023). However,

as shown in Fig. 3*C*, 20 nM Tau significantly increased expression of the mRNAs encoding TNFα,

IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 in NMDA-R-deficient BMDMs. Furthermore, Tau (10 nM and 20 nM)

caused IκBα phosphorylation in NMDA-R-deficient BMDMs, together with the concomitant

decrease in total abundance of IκBα (Fig. 3*D*). Taken together, these results demonstrate that

Tau-activated cell-signaling in BMDMs occurs independently of the NMDA-R.

Tau induces LRP1-dependent pro-inflammatory responses in microglia and astrocytes

Microglia isolated from mouse pups were treated with 20 nM Tau or vehicle for 6 h. CM was

harvested and subjected to cytokine array analysis (Fig. 4*A*). Multiple cytokines were detected, in

a pattern that overlapped with those detected in Tau-treated BMDMs, including TNFα, IL-6,

CCL3/CCL4, and CXCL2. To validate the results of the microarray analysis and test the role of

the NMDA-R in Tau-elicited cytokine expression in microglia, we performed RT-qPCR studies.

Tau (20 nM) increased expression of the mRNAs encoding TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 in

microglia (Fig. 4*B*). The increases in mRNA expression were not altered by the NMDA-R

inhibitors, MK-801 and DXM.

ERK1/2 was activated in microglia treated with 20 nM Tau for 1 h (Fig. 4*C*). In the same cells,

IκBα was phosphorylated and this event was accompanied by a decrease in the total abundance

of IκBα. These cell-signaling events were not inhibited by MK-801 and DXM, confirming that the

NMDA-R does is not required for the response to Tau in microglia.

To test the role of LRP1 as a mediator of the Tau response in microglia, we silenced

expression of *Lrp1* using siRNA. The level of LRP1 was substantially decreased at the protein

level, compared with cells transfected with NTC siRNA (Fig. 4*D*). Tau (20 nM) failed to activate

ERK1/2 in microglia in which *Lrp1* was silenced.

In cultured mouse astrocytes, Tau (20 nM) induced expression of the mRNAs encoding

TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 (Fig. 5*A*). The response to Tau in astrocytes was not inhibited by

MK-801 or DXM. Tau also caused IκBα phosphorylation in astrocytes (Fig. 5*B*). This response

was not inhibited by MK-801. Collectively, these results demonstrate that extracellular 2N4R Tau

elicits similar pro-inflammatory responses in macrophages, microglia and astrocytes by an LRP1-

dependent mechanism.

DISCUSSION

LRP1 functions in the clearance of proteins from extracellular spaces, in lipoprotein uptake, as a

regulator of the plasma membrane proteome, in myelin phagocytosis, in efferocytosis, and as a

direct activator of cell-signaling (Strickland et al., 2002; Gonias and Campana, 2014). In AD, LRP1

may regulate disease progression by functioning as a receptor for β-amyloid peptide (Aβ)

(Kanekiyo et al., 2013). LRP1 binds secreted forms of amyloid precursor protein (APP) and may

regulate processing of cellular APP so that the amount of Aβ generated and secreted by cells is

altered (Kounnas et al., 1995; Ulery et al., 2000). Isoforms of apolipoprotein E bind to LRP1 (Liu

et al., 2007). Furthermore, LRP1 has been implicated in transport of Aβ across the blood-brain

barrier (Deane et al., 2009).

The identification of LRP1 as a Tau receptor raises new questions regarding the activity of

LRP1 in AD and in Tauopathies (Rauch et al., 2020; Cooper et al., 2021). Because binding of Tau

to LRP1 does not require post-translational modification events such as phosphorylation or

aggregation (Cooper et al., 2021), LRP1 may play an important physiologic role, removing low

levels of Tau form the extracellular spaces in the CNS and delivering the internalized Tau to

lysosomes for degradation. However, because Tau may partially escape endosomal transport

and enter the cytoplasm, when the amount of Tau in the extracellular spaces in the CNS

increases, LRP1 may be involved in propagation of Tau lesions in new cells (Rauch et al., 2020;

Cooper et al., 2021).

Because LRP1 is known to couple ligand internalization with activation of cell-signaling

(Gonias and Campana, 2014), our goal was to test whether the Tau-LRP1 interaction affects cell

physiology in a manner that may play a role in progression of AD and other forms of

neurodegeneration. We have shown that, in diverse cells, including macrophages, microglia, and

astrocytes, the interaction of 2N4R Tau with LRP1 induces pro-inflammatory responses. Our

study shows that these responses occur independently of the NMDA-R, which has been

implicated in other LRP1 cell-signaling events (Bacskai et al., 2000; Martin et al., 2008; Mantuano

et al., 2017, 2020).

Given that the NMDA-R has been implicated in the pathology of AD through its role in

excitotoxicity and inflammatory signaling, the finding that Tau-LRP1 signaling is NMDA-R-

independent raises questions about the co-receptors or alternative signaling pathways that might

mediate Tau's pro-inflammatory effects. Recent studies have suggested that other receptor

systems, such as Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), may be involved in Tau-induced neuroinflammation,

providing a potential explanation for how Tau can trigger inflammation independently of NMDA-R

(Calvo-Rodriguez et al., 2020). Further studies are needed to explore whether TLR4 or other

receptors act in concert with LRP1 to propagate Tau-driven inflammation in AD.

LRP1's role in Tau clearance and pro-inflammatory signaling makes it a promising

therapeutic target for AD. Modulating LRP1 activity could have dual benefits: promoting the

clearance of extracellular Tau to reduce its propagation while inhibiting the pro-inflammatory

signaling that exacerbates neurodegeneration. Because LRP1-mediated Tau signaling occurs

independently of NMDA-R, targeting LRP1 may allow for more specific interventions that do not

interfere with NMDA-R's essential functions in synaptic transmission. This approach could avoid

the limitations of current NMDA-R-targeting drugs like memantine, which aim to reduce

excitotoxicity but may not address the full scope of Tau's neurotoxic effects (Kabir et al., 2019).

Another critical aspect of LRP1 biology is its ability to undergo proteolytic shedding. In response

to inflammatory stimuli, such as LPS or interferon-γ, LRP1 is cleaved by transmembrane

proteases in the ADAM family, releasing a soluble product that includes the entire α-chain and a

fragment of the β-chain ectodomain (Quinn et al., 1999; von Arnim et al., 2005; Gorovoy et al.,

2010). Shed LRP1 is found in plasma and its level is increased in patients with rheumatoid arthritis

or systemic lupus erythematosus (Gorovoy et al., 2010). Shed LRP1 that is purified from human

plasma is biologically active and independently pro-inflammatory against macrophages and

microglia (Gorovoy et al., 2010; Brifault et al., 2017). It is possible that LRP1 shedding is involved

in the pathway by which Tau induces pro-inflammatory responses in macrophages, microglia, and

astrocytes. If future studies confirm this, it would suggest that shed LRP1 acts as a soluble factor

that amplifies neuroinflammation by interacting with receptors on nearby cells. This could further

potentiate the effects of Tau, promoting widespread inflammation and neurodegeneration in the

CNS.

There are two possible models that could explain how LRP1 mediates Tau-induced

inflammation. In the first model, membrane-anchored LRP1 functions with co-receptors to initiate

Tau signaling at the cell surface. In the second model, shed LRP1 acts as a soluble factor,

triggering pro-inflammatory responses by interacting with receptors on neighboring cells. These

two models are not mutually exclusive, and both may contribute to the complex dynamics of Tau-

induced neuroinflammation.

The bimodal activity of LRP1 as a ligand-dependent inhibitor or activator of inflammation is

important to consider when reviewing complex animal model studies in which LRP1 may be

exposed to diverse ligands. For example, LRP1 deficiency in cultured microglia is mildly pro-

inflammatory in the absence of inflammation-regulating mediators (Yang et al., 2016; Brifault et

al., 2017). LRP1-deficient microglia in culture demonstrate more robust pro-inflammatory

responses to $A\beta_{1-42}$ (He et al., 2020). In these cases, the effects of LRP1 deficiency may be

explained by loss of NMDA-R-dependent anti-inflammatory cell-signaling pathways. By contrast,

in an *in vivo* model of peripheral nerve injury, microglial LRP1 exacerbates inflammation in the

spinal cord, in association with central sensitization of pain processing (Brifault et al., 2019). In

this case, the available LRP1 ligands *in vivo* may activate the LRP1 pathway and/or induce LRP1

shedding. Animal models of AD should be carefully examined to determine how LRP1's diverse

functions influence disease progression, particularly in response to its various ligands.

In summary, the studies presented here identify a novel LRP1-depedent mechanism by which

Tau may regulate inflammation, neuro-inflammation, and AD progression. The NMDA-R-

independent nature of Tau's pro-inflammatory effects opens new possibilities for targeting LRP1-

Tau interactions as a therapeutic strategy. The potential involvement of shed LRP1 in amplifying

Tau-induced inflammation highlights additional layers of complexity in LRP1 biology that warrant

further exploration. By developing therapeutic strategies that modulate LRP1 activity, we may be

able to slow AD progression by reducing Tau-induced neuroinflammation and preventing the

spread of Tau pathology within the brain.

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FIGURES AND FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Tau induces an inflammatory response in macrophages. ***A***, BMDMs from wild-type mice were treated for 6 h with increasing concentrations of Tau, as indicated. RT-qPCR was performed to determine mRNA levels for TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2. Data are represented as mean ± SEM (n = 3-8; one-way ANOVA: **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$). ***B***, BMDMs from wild-type mice were treated for 1 h with increasing concentrations of Tau, as indicated. Immunoblot analysis was performed to detect expression of p-ERK, p-IκBα, IκBα, and β-actin.

Figure 2. LRP1 mediates Tau-induced inflammation in macrophages. *A*, BMDMs from wild-type (WT) and *Lrp1*^{fl/fl}-LysM-Cre-positive (*Lrp1*^{-/-}) mice were treated for 6 h with Tau (20 nM) or vehicle. mRNA levels for TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 were determined by RT-qPCR. Data are represented as mean ± SEM (n = 3-5; two-way ANOVA: ***$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$; n.s., not significant). *B*, WT and *Lrp1*^{-/-} BMDMs were treated for 6 h with Tau (20 nM) or vehicle. Conditioned medium (CM) was collected and analyzed using the Proteome Profiler Mouse XL Cytokine Array. Representative cytokines that were increased in Tau-treated WT BMDMs compared with *Lrp1*^{-/-} cells are highlighted in red boxes and numbered. *C*, WT and *Lrp1*^{-/-} BMDMs were treated for 1 h with Tau, at the indicated concentrations. Protein extracts were analyzed by immunoblotting to detect p-IκBα, total IκBα, and β-actin.

Figure 3. The Tau response in macrophages is independent of the NMDA-R. *A*, BMDMs from wild-type (WT) mice were treated for 6 h with Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 μM), DXM (10 μM), or vehicle as indicated. RT-qPCR was performed to determine mRNA levels for TNFα and IL-6 (mean ± SEM; n=3-4; one-way ANOVA: ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$; n.s., not significant). *B*, WT BMDMs were treated for 1 h with Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 μM), DXM (10 μM), or vehicle as indicated. Cell extracts were subjected to immunoblot analysis to detect p-ERK, p-IκBα, total IκBα, and β-actin. *C*, BMDMs from *Grin1*^{fl/fl}-LysM-Cre-positive (*Grin1*^{-/-}) mice were treated for 6 h with Tau (20 nM) or vehicle. mRNA levels for TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 were determined by RT-qPCR (mean ± SEM; n = 5-7; paired t-test: **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$). *D*, *Grin1*^{-/-}

550   BMDMs were treated for 1 h with increasing concentrations of Tau, as indicated. Immunoblot

551   analysis was performed to detect p-IκBα, IκBα, and β-actin.

A

Veh   Tau

1. CCL3/CCL4/MIP-1α/ß   3. CXCL1/KC   5. CXCL10/IP-10   7. IL-6   9. TNFα
2. CCL5/RANTES   4. CXCL2/MIP-2   6. G-CSF   8. IL-12p40

Figure 4. Tau induces a pro-inflammatory response in microglia that requires LRP1, but not the NMDA-R. *A*, Microglia from mouse pups were treated with Tau (20 nM) or vehicle for 6 h.

Conditioned medium (CM) was collected and analyzed using the Proteome Profiler Mouse XL

Cytokine Array. Representative cytokines that were increased compared with the control are

highlighted in red boxes and numbered. *B*, Microglia from mouse pups were treated for 6 h with

Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 µM), DXM (10 µM), or vehicle as indicated. RT-qPCR was performed to

determine mRNA levels for TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 (mean ± SEM; n = 3-5; one-way

ANOVA: ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$; n.s., not significant). *C*, Microglia from mouse pups were

treated for 1 h with Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 µM), DXM (10 µM), or vehicle as indicated. Cell

extracts were subjected to immunoblot analysis to detect p-ERK, p-IκBα, IκBα, and β-actin. *D,*

Microglia from mouse pups were transfected with *Lrp1*-specific (siL*rp1*) or non-targeting control

(NTC) siRNA for 48 h. Cells were then treated with Tau (20 nM) or vehicle for 1 h and then

analyzed by immunoblotting to detect LRP1, p-ERK, and T-ERK.

Figure 5. Tau induces a pro-inflammatory response in astrocytes that does not require the NMDA-R. ***A***, Astrocytes from mouse pups were treated for 6 h with Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 μM), DXM (10 μM), or vehicle as indicated. RT-qPCR was performed to determine mRNA levels for TNFα, IL-6, CCL3, and CXCL2 (mean ± SEM; n = 3; one-way ANOVA: ***$p < 0.001$; n.s., not significant). ***B***, Astrocytes from mouse pups were treated for 1 h with Tau (20 nM), MK-801 (1 μM), DXM (10 μM), or vehicle as indicated. Protein extracts were analyzed by immunoblot to detect levels of p-IκBα, IκBα, and β-actin.