Spatial transcriptomics reveals microglial mechanisms driving amyloid-β clearance 1 2 in immunized Alzheimer's disease patients 3 Lynn van Olst^{1,2}, Brooke Simonton^{1,2}, Alex J Edwards^{1,2}, Anne V Forsyth^{1,2}, Jake Boles^{1,2}, Pouya Jamshidi³, 4 Thomas Watson^{1,2}, Nate Shepard², Talia Krainc², Benney MR Argue^{1,2}, Ziyang Zhang^{1,2}, Joshua Kuruvilla^{1,2}, 5 6 Lily Camp^{1,2}, Mengwei Li⁴, Hang Xu⁴, Jeanette L Norman⁵, Joshua Cahan^{1,2}, Robert Vassar^{2,6}, Jinmiao Chen⁴, Rudolph J Castellani³, James AR Nicoll⁵, Delphine Boche⁵ and *David Gate^{1,2} 7 8 9 ¹Abrams Research Center on Neurogenomics, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, 10 IL, USA. 11 ²The Ken & Ruth Davee Department of Neurology, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, 12 Chicago, IL, USA. 13 ³Department of Pathology, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA. 14 ⁴Singapore Immunology Network (SIgN), Agency for Science, Technology and Research (A*STAR), Singapore. 15 ⁵Clinical Neurosciences, School of Clinical and Experimental Sciences School, Faculty of Medicine, University 16 of Southampton, Southampton, UK. 17 ⁶Mesulam Center for Cognitive Neurology and Alzheimer's Disease, Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA. 18

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Abstract

Alzheimer's disease (AD) therapies utilizing amyloid- β (A β) immunization have shown potential in clinical trials. Yet, the underlying mechanisms driving A β clearance in the immunized AD brain remain unclear. Here, we employ spatial transcriptomics (ST) to explore the effects of both active and passive A β immunization on the AD brain. Comparing actively immunized AD patients with non-immunized AD subjects and neurologically healthy controls, we identify distinct microglial states associated with A β clearance. Using high-resolution ST alongside single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq), we delve deeper into the transcriptional pathways involved in A β removal following treatment with lecanemab, uncovering spatially distinct microglial responses that vary by brain region. Our analysis reveals upregulation of *Triggering Receptor Expressed On Myeloid Cells 2* (*TREM2*) and *Apolipoprotein E* (*APOE*) in microglia across both active and passive immunization approaches, which correlate positively with A β clearance. These findings provide novel insights into the transcriptional mechanisms orchestrating A β clearance and shed light on the role of microglia in immune-mediated clearance. Importantly, our work uncovers potential molecular targets that could enhance A β -targeted immunotherapies, offering new avenues for developing more effective therapeutic strategies to combat AD. This study paves the way for future research into microglial modulation and its therapeutic potential in AD.

Introduction

For nearly three decades, clinical trials have focused on targeting A β accumulation in the Alzheimer's disease (AD) brain¹. One strategy has been an immunotherapeutic approach that uses immunization against A β . The AN1792 clinical trial, conducted from 2000 to 2002, was the first immunotherapeutic approach in which AD patients received active immunization against the synthetic A β_{1-42} peptide². The AN1792 trial was based on extensive preclinical evidence showing that immunization against the A β_{1-42} peptide could prevent or reverse key AD neuropathological features in mouse models of cerebral amyloidosis³⁻⁶. However, the AN1792 trial was suspended after a small number of treated patients developed aseptic meningoencephalitis⁷⁻⁹, characterized by inflammation related to cerebral amyloid angiopathy (CAA)^{10, 11}. Notably, our post-mortem analyses of brains of patients from the AN1792 trial demonstrated A β clearance in some immunized patients^{2, 10, 12, 13}. A β has been detected within microglia, likely through phagocytosis. However, the cellular mechanisms responsible for A β clearance in the brains of AN1792-immunized patients remain unknown^{10, 13, 14}.

The inflammatory side effects observed in the AN1792 trial led to a shift in A β immunotherapy strategies toward passive immunization. In this approach, AD patients are treated with antibodies targeting various A β species. One such antibody, lecanemab, specifically binds to large, soluble A β protofibrils¹⁵. In clinical trials, lecanemab reduced markers of A β in early AD and resulted in moderately less decline on measures of cognition and function than placebo¹⁶. We recently described a case study in which a 65-year-old woman who received three doses of lecanemab died after being treated with tissue plasminogen activator for acute stroke-like symptoms¹⁷. Intriguingly, this patient's brain autopsy revealed inflammation in blood vessels with CAA¹⁷. Further examination of this patient's brain also showed evidence of phagocytes clearing vascular A β as well as parenchymal A β in select brain regions¹⁸.

In this study, we utilized spatial transcriptomics (ST) to examine the neuroimmune response in the AD brain following A β immunization. We compared AN1792 actively immunized AD (iAD) brains to non-immunized AD (nAD) brains and non-neurologic disease (NND) control brains. Furthermore, in the patient treated with lecanemab, we employed high-definition ST, spatial proteogenomics and single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) to investigate the immune response to A β following passive immunization. Our analysis reveals a transcriptomic microglial response to A β shared between actively and passively immunized AD patient brains. This response is defined by upregulated expression of *Apolipoprotein E (APOE)* and *Triggering Receptor*

Expressed On Myeloid Cells 2 (TREM2). Altogether, our work highlights several candidate genes to modulate the microglial response to A β following A β immunotherapy.

Results

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Active $A\beta$ immunization drives a microglial response to $A\beta$

We first utilized ST (10x Genomics Visium) to analyze brain frontal cortex sections of AD patients from the AN1792 trial (Fig. 1a). This cohort included 13 iAD brains, as well as 6 nAD and 6 NND control brains (Fig. 1b). The clinical and pathologic profiles of these subjects are detailed in Extended Data Table 1. Groups were age- (Fig. 1c) and sex-matched (Extended Data Fig. 1a). We manually annotated ST spots according to their location within cortical layers, meninges, or white matter using hematoxylin and eosin staining (Fig. 1d and **Extended Data Fig. 1b**). We then utilized a pseudobulk method (DESeq2) to identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs) per cortical layer (Extended Data Fig. 1c and Extended Data Table 2). Importantly, we did not detect significant differences in the number of ST spots per region or number of features per region (Extended Data Fig. 1b-c). Only cortical layer I of iAD samples showed a significantly lower percentage of mitochondrial gene expression (Extended Data Fig. 1d), potentially reflecting alterations in mitochondrial metabolism. We also validated our manual annotations by spatially plotting the expression of meningeal, white matter, and layerspecific gray matter genes. (Extended Data Fig. 1e). Interestingly, we found that deeper cortical layers contained the most DEGs when comparing nAD to NND controls, while superficial layers were predominantly affected in iAD compared to NND controls (Fig. 1e and Extended Data Table 2). Cortical layer III had a high number of DEGs comparing iAD to nAD and contained the most DEGs comparing nAD to NND controls (Fig. 1e). This high level of genomic dysregulation led us to further examine this cortical layer. Remarkably, nearly all cortical layer III DEGs were unique to either iAD or nAD when compared to NND controls, with only 7.1% of DEGs shared between groups (Fig. 1f and Extended Data Table 2). Altogether, these results indicate transcriptomic alterations in the actively immunized AD cortex.

Notably, *APOE* and *TREM2* were among the genes upregulated in cortical layer III of the iAD cortex compared to nAD controls (**Fig. 1g-h** and **Extended Data Table 2**). *APOE*^{19, 20} and *TREM2*^{21, 22} are both established genetic risk factors for AD. Moreover, both genes are associated with the microglial response to $A\beta^{23-26}$. Additional cortical layer III genes upregulated in iAD vs. nAD are those involved in inflammation and

lysosomal function, such as Alpha-2-Macroglobulin (A2M) and Caveolae Associated Protein 1 (CAVIN1). In contrast, genes downregulated in iAD compared to nAD controls included genes encoding heat-shock proteins (HSPs), such as Heat Shock Protein Family A (Hsp70) Member 1A (HSPA1A) and Heat Shock Protein Family H (Hsp110) Member 1 (HSPH1) (Fig. 1g-h and Extended Data Table 2). HSPs are involved in protein folding²⁷ and their expression can be indicative of cellular stress^{27, 28}. When comparing nAD to NND controls in cortical layer III, we observed increased expression of several heat-shock proteins (HSPs) that have been previously implicated in AD (Fig. 1h, Extended Data Fig. 1f and Extended Data Table 2). Finally, we examined the most divergent DEGs between iAD vs. nAD and nAD vs. NND comparisons to identify genes most altered by immunization (Extended Data Fig. 1g and Extended Data Table 2). Among the top 10 divergent DEGs, several genes upregulated in nAD but significantly downregulated after immunization encoded HSPs (HSPA1B. DNAJB1). Conversely, genes downregulated in nAD but upregulated in iAD were involved in synaptic plasticity, including Semaphorin 3G (SEMA3G) and Hes Family BHLH Transcription Factor 5 (HES5). Both SEMAG329 and HES5²⁹ have been shown to be decreased in the cerebrospinal fluid of AD patients. Additionally, C-Type Lectin Domain Family 3 Member B (CLEC3B) was upregulated in iAD but downregulated in nAD. Decreased expression of CLEC3B has been suggested as a biomarker for neurologic diseases^{30, 31}, and a missense variant of this gene has been associated with longevity^{32, 33}. Altogether, these results indicate distinct transcriptomic alterations in cortical layer III of iAD brains, characterized by a decrease in genes involved in protein folding and cellular stress, alongside an increase in AD-associated immune response genes, such as APOE and TREM2.

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We previously demonstrated A β clearance in a subset of AN1792 subjects^{2, 10, 12, 13}. To investigate mechanisms distinguishing AN1792 subjects with and without extensive A β clearance, we quantified A β pathology on sequential slides to the ST tissue using immunohistochemistry (IHC). For this purpose, a pan-A β antibody (D54D2) was used to stain tissue sections for A β (Fig. 1i and Extended Data Fig. 1h). A β clearance was most prominent in the superficial layers of the cortex (Extended Data Fig. 1i), consistent with our previous findings¹⁰. Based on the amount A β deposits (Fig. 1j), we categorized the iAD cohort into two groups: those with limited A β clearance (iAD-lim, N=6) and those with extensive A β clearance (iAD-ext, N=7) (Fig. 1k). We also quantified phosphorylated tau (pTau) by measuring AT8 load in the gray matter across these groups, but found no significant differences (Extended Data Fig. 1j-k). This finding is in unison with our prior results

showing that tau pathology persisted in iAD brains even in cortical areas cleared of $A\beta^{12}$. Next, we overlaid $A\beta$ IHC from consecutive slides (separated by 5-10 μ m) with our ST data. Given that the average $A\beta$ plaque occupies 250-350 μ m²⁽³⁴⁾, we assumed minimal variance in $A\beta$ plaque environments between consecutive tissue sections. To capture transcriptomic alterations around $A\beta$ deposits, we extended the binary $A\beta$ signal by 100 μ m beyond its actual size, with a gradual decrease in signal intensity every 20 μ m (**Fig. 1I**). This approach enabled the direct examination of the $A\beta$ niche ($A\beta$ density), and evaluation of genes associated with this niche (**Fig. 1I**). Note that vascular $A\beta$ -rich ST spots were excluded from the following analyses.

We investigated transcriptomic alterations occurring at the AB niche by performing differential expression analysis on Aβ-rich ST spots in the gray matter, utilizing model-based analysis of single-cell transcriptomics³⁵ (MAST), to leverage the full resolution of the ST data. To account for sample variability, we included a random effect and incorporated covariates such as the fraction of genes detected per ST spot, sex, age, and genomic DNA percentage, as justified in the methods. Our analysis revealed increased expression of APOE and Myristoylated Alanine-Rich C-Kinase Substrate (MARCKS) (Fig. 1m and Extended Data Table 2). MARCKS is expressed in activated microglia that surround Aβ plaques³⁶. Interestingly, the most upregulated gene at the Aβ niche was Family With Sequence Similarity 107 Member A (FAM107A)—a stress-responsive actin-bundling factor that influences synaptic efficiency and cognition³⁷. We then compared the Aß niche between iAD-lim and extensive iAD-ext brains. In subjects with more residual Aß pathology, inflammatory genes such as Beta-2-Microglobulin (B2M), A2M, CD74 Molecule (CD74), APOE and MARCKS, were upregulated, while these genes were not elevated in iAD-ext subjects (Fig. 1n and Extended Data Table 2). Pathway analyses using the Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB) revealed enrichment of interferon-alpha response and IL-2/STAT5 signaling based on unique DEGs in the iAD-lim Aβ niche (Extended Data Fig. 11 and Extended Data Table 2). Collectively, genes altered in Aβ-rich spots highlight a more pronounced inflammatory signature within the Aβ niche of iAD-lim vs. iAD-ext.

To further understand transcriptomic changes in the A β niche distinguishing those with limited vs. extensive A β clearance, we visualized nonlinear relationships between gene expression and A β density within A β -rich ST spots with a 200 μ m radius. We first used locally estimated scatterplot smoothing (LOESS) (**Extended Data Fig. 1m-n**). We employed hierarchical clustering to delineate distinct expression patterns with increasing A β density within the iAD group (**Fig. 1o** and **Extended Data Table 2**). Pathway analysis of genes

in each cluster subsequently revealed that cluster 4, which showed a gradual increase peaking in the A β -rich spots, was enriched for immune-related pathways, including complement signaling, inflammatory response, and IL-2/STAT5 signaling (**Fig. 1p** and **Extended Data Table 2**). Notably, this gene cluster showed the highest upregulation in iAD-lim A β niches, with a lesser increase in iAD-ext and no upregulation in nAD (**Fig. 1q** and **Extended Data Table 2**). This cluster contained many immune-associated, including *A2M*, *APOE*, *Complement C3* (*C3*), *RAB13*, *Member RAS Oncogene Family* (*RAB13*), and *Secreted Phosphoprotein 1* (*SPP1*) (**Fig. 1r** and **Extended Data Table 2**). These findings together highlight an inflammatory immune response toward A β in AN1792-immunized brains with limited A β clearance, marked by IL-2/STAT5 and complement signaling, along with upregulation of genes associated with the microglial response in AD.

Inflammatory and neuroprotective microglial responses distinguish levels of $A\beta$ clearance in actively immunized AD patient brains

Since Visium ST spots are large enough to encompass approximately 1-10 cells each, we next aimed to understand their cellular composition. To do so, we used the deconvolution method Cell2Location³⁸ to computationally integrate ST data with a single-nucleus RNA sequencing (snRNAseg) dataset to resolve finegrained cell-types. We constructed a reference atlas using a snRNA dataset from 424 dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC) tissues derived from AD and NND controls^{39, 40} (Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 2a). We randomly down-sampled this atlas to 34,695 cells to achieve nearly equal representation of each cell-type. We then utilized Cell2Location to analyze the estimated abundances and spatial location of cell-types in our ST dataset. Cell-types mapped to their expected locations within tissues [e.g. oligodendrocytes to white matter, layer II/III excitatory neurons (L2/3 ENs) to cortical layers II/III and smooth muscle cells to the meninges] (Fig. 2b and Extended Data Fig. 2b). Using the C2L predicted abundance of each cell type per ST spot, we calculated the overall cellular proportions in the gray matter. We excluded layer I from this analysis due to variable, non-specific results associated with its lower cell density. Although we observed no significant differences, we noted a trend of increased astrocyte proportions in iAD-ext and increased microglia in iAD-lim, along with a reduction in L2/3 ENs in nAD, which became more pronounced following AN1792 immunization (Extended Data Fig. 2c). We then applied the constraints of manually annotated ST spots (Fig. 1d) to inform predictions of cell-types enriched in each spot. To achieve robust results, we then annotated the most highly

enriched ST spots for a specific cell-type within the relevant spatial area (**Fig. 2c**). For example, ST spots enriched for layer IV excitatory neurons (L4 EN) were identified by their highest predicted abundances of L4 ENs and were annotated exclusively within the manually defined cortical layer IV. For microglia, we annotated the top ST spots across both gray and white matter. Layer I ST spots were excluded from this analysis.

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When we compared iAD versus nAD gene expression across cell-type-enriched ST spots, we found that L2/3 EN-enriched spots had the highest number of DEGs, followed by microglia and astrocytes (Fig. 2d. Extended Data Fig. 2d, and Extended Data Table 2). In contrast, in NND samples compared to nAD, the top three cell type-enriched ST spots with the most DEGs were enriched for layer IV/V excitatory neurons (L4/5 ENs), interneurons, and L2/3 ENs, respectively (Fig. 2d and Extended Data Fig. 2e, and Extended Data **Table 2**). Genes upregulated in microglia-enriched ST spots in iAD vs. nAD included APOE, TREM2, A2M, RAB13, FAM107A, and others associated with microglial responses to amyloid, such as LAMP1, CD163 Molecule (CD163), PYD And CARD Domain Containing (PYCARD), Integrin Subunit Alpha X (ITGAX), and Apolipoprotein C1 (APOC1) (Fig. 2e, and Extended Data Table 2). PYCARD activates the inflammasome and forms apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a CARD (ASC) specks, which can act as inflammation-driven cross-seeds for Aβ pathology⁴¹. Similarly, *ITGAX* is associated with phagocytic/activated microglia in AD mouse models^{23, 24}, and *CD163* is a key marker of amyloid-responsive microglia^{25, 26}. Among the downregulated genes were several HSP coding genes. We then examined the top divergent DEGs in iAD vs. nAD and nAD vs. NND by their probability fold change (PFC) score—defined as the product of the negative logarithm of the adjusted p-value and the absolute logarithm of the fold change (Fig. 2f, and Extended Data Table 2). Notably, DNAJA1 was one of the most divergent DEGs in microglia-enriched ST spots and was downregulated after immunization. Another highly divergent gene downregulated post-immunization was Fas Apoptotic Inhibitory Molecule 2 (FAIM2). FAIM2 primarily functions to inhibit Fas-mediated apoptosis, promoting cell survival and protecting against programmed cell death⁴². Reduced inhibition of Fas-mediated apoptosis may explain the loss of tau-associated neurite clusters and neuronal cell bodies in areas devoid of plaques after AN1792 immunization¹².

Next, we conducted differential expression analysis of microglia-enriched ST spots within the gray matter, comparing iAD-lim and iAD-ext groups to nAD. Microglia-enriched ST spots in the iAD-ext group exhibited a higher number of DEGs compared to nAD than iAD-lim or NND controls (**Fig. 2g** and **Extended**

Data Fig. 2f-q and Extended Data Table 2). Unique genes upregulated in iAD-ext included aforementioned APOE and MARCKS, as well as Fibroblast Growth Factor Receptor 3 (FGFR3) (Fig. 2h and Extended Data Table 2). FGFR3 acts as a receptor for Fibroblast Growth Factor 2 (FGF2), a factor released by neurons in response to damage caused by oligomeric A $\beta_{1.42}$. This *FGF2-FGFR3* interaction promotes microglial migration and phagocytosis of neuronal debris, contributing to neuroprotection⁴³. In the iAD-lim group, we found upregulation of previously mentioned TREM2, A2M, LAMP1, and Transmembrane Immune Signaling Adaptor TYROBP (TYROBP) (Fig. 2h and Extended Data Table 2). Interestingly, TYROBP forms a critical link between TREM2 at the microglial surface and APOE transcription in microglia⁴⁴. Both groups shared upregulation of PYCARD and Toll-Like Receptor 7 (TLR7) (Fig. 2h and Extended Data Fig. 2f-g and Extended Data Table 3). Although most group-specific genes showed similar trends in the other group, they did not reach significance (Fig. 2i and Extended Data Table 2). We confirmed protein localization of TMS1/ASC (encoded by PYCARD), A2M, and APOE in Iba1⁺ microglia around Aβ plaque pathology in the frontal cortex of AN1792 immunized subjects (Fig. 2i-l). Given the similar gene expression patterns across the two groups, we focused on the most divergent genes in microglia-enriched spots between groups with varying levels of Aβ clearance (Extended Data Fig. 2h, Extended Data Table 2). In iAD-lim, the most divergent genes were Leukocyte-Specific Protein 1 (LSP1) and GTPase Of Immunity-Associated Proteins (GIMAPs), both of which were upregulated. Notably, LSP1 localizes to nascent phagocytic cups during Fcy receptor-mediated phagocytosis⁴⁵. In iAD-ext, the most divergent genes were the earlier mentioned FGFR3, which was upregulated, and HSPA1A, which was downregulated. Pathway enrichment analysis of unique and shared DEGs in microglia-enriched spots revealed a common upregulation of IL-2/STAT5 signaling and a specific upregulation of oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and adipogenesis in extensively cleared brains (Fig. 2m, Extended Data Table 2). Conversely, complement signaling and the unfolded protein response were downregulated in iAD-lim.

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We then directly compared genes shared between iAD-ext vs. nAD and NND vs. nAD comparisons in microglia-enriched spots. We reasoned that this approach might identify transcriptomic changes that reflect a return to homeostasis in iAD-ext brains. Shared upregulated genes included previously mentioned neuroprotective *FGFR3*, *Cold-Inducible RNA Binding Protein* (*CIRBP*), and *Sorbin And SH3 Domain Containing* 3 (*SORBS3*), while downregulated genes included *FAIM2*, *DNAJA1*, and *HSP90AA1* (**Fig. 2n-o**, **Extended Data Table 2**). *CIRBP* is a stress-responsive gene that ameliorates neuronal amyloid toxicity via antioxidative

and antiapoptotic pathways⁴⁶ and modulates inflammation⁴⁷. Overall, these findings suggest that dysregulated genes in microglia-enriched ST spots of iAD-ext brains reflect a shift in microglial gene expression towards a profile more like that of non-demented controls.

To investigate the functional state of microglia after AN1792 immunization, we compared microgliaenriched ST spot signatures of iAD brains to previously published human AD microglial states^{40, 48}. Using gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) on one set of microglial states⁴⁸, we observed significant decreases in stresssignature microglia (MG6) across comparisons, including NND vs. nAD, iAD vs. nAD, iAD-lim vs. nAD, and iAD-ext vs. nAD (Fig. 2p and Extended Data Table 2). In iAD-ext specifically, there was a reduction in inflammatory microglia states (MG2, MG8, MG10), glycolytic microglia (MG7), and an increase in ribosome biogenesis microglia (MG3). This reduction in inflammatory microglia was also observed in NND vs. nAD comparisons. NND samples also had a decrease in phagocytic microglia (MG5), though this was not seen in iAD groups. Using a separate microglial classification⁴⁰, we noted significant reductions in stress-responsive microglia (Mic.11) across NND vs. nAD, iAD vs. nAD, iAD-lim vs. nAD, and iAD-ext vs. nAD (Fig. 2q and **Extended Data Table 2**). In iAD-ext specifically, there was a reduction in surveilling microglia (Mic.2, 4), reactive microglia (Mic.6-8), interferon-responsive microglia (Mic.14), and SERPINE1-expressing microglia (Mic.16). In summary, pathway analyses of published human microglia functional states indicate a reduction in stress-responsive microglia after AN1792 immunization, resembling patterns seen in NND samples. In microglia-enriched ST spots in brains with extensive Aβ clearance, we observed a metabolic shift from glycolysis to oxidative phosphorylation, accompanied by a decrease in inflammatory states.

Overall, our data shows that active A β immunization reduces the prevalence of stress-responsive microglia, regardless of residual A β levels. In iAD brains with extensive A β clearance, microglia exhibit a metabolic shift accompanied by a reduced inflammatory profile, which may facilitate sustained A β clearance activity. In contrast, iAD brains with limited clearance demonstrate downregulation of pathways like the unfolded protein response and complement, along with elevated expression of disease-associated microglia (DAM) associated genes *TREM2* and *TYROBP*, indicating an active response to A β . Notably, complement activation products may protect against A β -induced neurotoxicity, and contribute to the clearance of amyloid and the degeneration of neurons⁴⁹. Altogether, these findings imply that effective amyloid clearance may hinge on microglia sustaining a balanced metabolic state to support energy production and cellular repair.

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Microglial transcriptomic alterations associated with $A\beta$ clearance in an AD patient treated with lecanemab

Intrigued by the altered microglial response to A\(\beta\) in actively immunized AD brains, we next explored the immune response to Aβ following passive immunization with lecanemab (Fig. 3a). We studied a unique case of a 65-year-old female AD patient who participated in a phase III trial of lecanemab 17, 18. This patient received three lecanemab infusions over the course of five weeks. The patient then developed acute ischemic stroke-like symptoms shortly after the final lecanemab dose and passed away days later 17. Our post-mortem analysis of this patient's brain revealed histiocytic vasculitis in vessels affected by CAA, with evidence of vascular Aβ fragmentation and phagocytosis across the cerebral cortex¹⁸. This was in addition to a "high" burden of AD pathology according to National Institute on Aging and Alzheimer's Association consensus quidelines⁵⁰. Notably, we also observed parenchymal Aß plaque phagocytosis¹⁸. We compared this patient's brain to three APOE ε4/ε4 genotype-matched pathological controls with a high burden of AD pathology (Fig. 3b and Extended Data Table 1). Importantly, these control patients had not received any form of anti-AB treatment yet had vascular AD pathology in addition to advanced AD. Of these, one donor had CAA-related microbleeds in antemortem magnetic resonance imaging, indicative of severe CAA. We assessed cortical tissues of all subjects from the left middle frontal gyrus (FCX), left superior temporal gyrus (TCX), left inferior parietal lobule (PCX), as well as the posterior hippocampus (HIPP) (Fig. 3b). We chose these brain regions because we previously demonstrated their variable levels of Aβ clearance¹⁸. We then performed single-cell fixed RNA profiling (scRNAseq) and spatial proteogenomics—an approach that simultaneously captures spatial mRNA and protein changes using barcoded probes and antibodies—to identify cell-type-specific immune responses to passive Aβ immunization in these brain regions (**Fig. 3c**).

Tissue sections from each brain region were stained for Iba1 and pan-A β (with the 4G8 antibody) (**Fig.** 3d and **Extended Data Fig. 3a**). We used the 4G8 antibody since we previously employed it to delineate A β pathology and clearance in this case¹⁸. We differentiated cortical and vascular A β pathology by both manual annotation and LABKIT, a random forest ensemble learning algorithm⁵¹ (**Fig. 3d** and **Extended Data Fig. 3a**). Quantification of gray matter A β coverage revealed reduced cortical A β deposits in the TCX and PCX of the lecanemab-treated patient compared to the nAD controls (**Fig. 3e**). Moreover, a higher fraction of cortical A β

deposits in the lecanemab case were covered by lba1⁺ cells, increasing from an average of ~15% in the nAD controls to ~44% in the lecanemab case (**Fig. 3f**). These results recapitulate our previous finding that there are varying levels of A β clearance among different brain regions of the lecanemab case¹⁸.

To further investigate the immune response to Aβ following passive immunization, we performed scRNAseq on cells isolated from FFPE tissues of each brain region. We used SoupX⁵² to minimize ambient RNA contamination (Extended Data Fig. 3b). Quality control metrics showed variability in the number of expressed genes (Extended Data Fig. 3c) and in the percentages of mitochondrial reads across brain regions (Extended Data Fig. 3d). However, we did not detect statistically significant differences between nAD and the lecanemab-treated case across brain regions (Extended Data Fig. 3c-d). We integrated cells from all tissues (Extended Data Fig. 3e) and annotated cell clusters using their highly expressed genes (Fig. 3g and Extended Data Fig. 3f and Extended Data Table 3). In the lecanemab case, we observed a relative increase in GABAergic interneurons (GINs) and a decrease in endothelial cells, fibroblasts, and smooth muscle cells across all brain regions compared to the nAD controls (Fig. 3h and Extended Data Fig. 3g). Notably, T cells were enriched in all regions except the hippocampus; monocytes and macrophages were enriched in the PCX and TCX of the lecanemab case, and microglia were increased in the TCX, PCX, and HIPP (Fig. 3h and Extended Data Fig. 3g).

We then performed MAST differential expression analysis on microglia and macrophages from all brain regions combined (**Fig. 3i-j** and **Extended Data Table 3**). Upregulated genes in microglia of the lecanemab case were associated with microglial activation and inflammation (*SPP1*, *Chitinase 3 Like 1* (*CHI3L1*), and *Folate Receptor Beta* (*FOLR2*)), lysosomal function and protein degradation (*Cathepsin B* (*CTSB*), *Granulin* (*GRN*)), interferon responses (*Interferon Alpha Inducible Protein 6* (*IFI6*)). Additional upregulated genes included those involved in iron storage and regulation (*Ferritin Heavy Chain 1* (*FTH1*), *Ferritin Light Chain* (*FTL*)), lipid metabolism processes (*Apolipoprotein C1* (*APOC1*)) and extracellular matrix and tissue remodeling (*Transforming Growth Factor Beta Induced* (*TGFBI*), *Olfactomedin Like 3* (*OLFML3*)). Notably, *SPP1* and *APOC1* were the most upregulated, microglia-specific DEGs (**Fig. 3j**). Intriguingly, *SPP1* is expressed by activated-response microglia⁵³ and contributes to tissue repair⁵⁴. We confirmed protein expression of both SPP1 and APOC1 in plaque-associated microglia within the hippocampus following lecanemab treatment (**Extended Data Fig. 3h-i**). Upregulated genes in macrophages were involved in activation and inflammation

(TREM2, Macrophage Receptor With Collagenous Structure (MARCO), MAF BZIP Transcription Factor B (MAFB)), lysosomal function and protein degradation (Cathepsin Z (CTSZ), CTSB, Cathepsin L (CTSL), Cathepsin H (CTSH), Granulin (GRN)). Additional upregulated genes included those involved in lipid metabolism (APOE, A2M), cytoskeletal dynamics (Fascin Actin-Bundling Protein 1 (FSCN1), MARCKS): and phagocytosis (CD68 Molecule (CD68), Fc Fragment Of IgG Binding Protein (FCGBP)). Both microglia and macrophages showed decreased expression of HSP-coding genes, such as HSPA1B in microglia, and HSPH1 and Heat Shock Protein Family A (Hsp70) Member 8 (HSPA8) in macrophages. Heme Oxygenase 1 (HMOX1) was the most upregulated gene shared among microglia and macrophages. HMOX1 is involved in heme metabolism, possibly indicating an immune response to hemorrhages that occurred lecanemab case. To study microglia and macrophage functions after immunization, we performed enrichment analysis. Interestingly, pathways regulating vascular functions such as apical junctions, coagulation, and angiogenesis were upregulated in both macrophages and microglia (Fig. 3k and Extended Data Table 3). Additionally, we found dysregulation of complement signaling in macrophages and increased complement signaling in microglia (Fig. 3k and Extended Data Table 3). We also observed dysregulated IL-2/STAT5 signaling in microglia, with both downregulated and upregulated DEGs associated with this pathway (Fig. 3k and Extended Data Table 3). These data highlight distinct alterations to the brain myeloid compartment following passive Aß immunization.

Notably, disparate microglial transcriptomic signatures were observed across different brain regions in the lecanemab case (Extended Data Fig. 3j and Extended Data Table 3). Most changes in microglial gene expression were observed in the TCX and PCX, the two regions with the least residual Aβ (i.e., more Aβ clearance, as noted in Fig. 3e). Microglia from these regions exhibited increased expression of genes involved in complement signaling (*Complement Component 3* (*C3*)), lysosomal function and protein degradation (*CTSZ*, *CTSB*), iron storage and regulation (*FTH1*, *FTL*); and an increase in microglial *SPP1* (Extended Data Fig. 3j and Extended Data Table 3). Regional DEGs were associated with various signaling pathways. In the FCX, DEGs indicated increased reactive oxygen species (ROS) signaling (Fig. 3l and Extended Data Table 3). The TCX and PCX showed increased complement signaling, while the PCX also exhibited decreased interferon responses, among other changes (Fig. 3l and Extended Data Table 3). The HIPP demonstrated decreased cholesterol homeostasis (Fig. 3l and Extended Data Table 3). Additionally, microglial DEGs were linked to angiogenesis and coagulation pathways, but this association was present only in the TCX and PCX, areas with

extensive $A\beta$ clearance (**Fig. 3I** and **Extended Data Table 3**). These distinct microglial phenotypes may underlie the variability in $A\beta$ clearance between brain regions of the lecanemab case.

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We also identified a notable shift in microglial states⁴⁸ across brain regions, with a decrease in inflammatory state II microglia (MG8) and an increase in ribosome biogenesis (MG3) across all regions combined (Extended Data Fig. 3k and Extended Data Table 3). Intriguingly, the MG3 microglia state also exhibits strong enrichment of DAM signature genes⁴⁸. Specifically, in the FCX, where the amount of residual amyloid was highest, there were reductions in inflammatory states I, II, and III (MG2, MG8, MG10), as well as in phagocytic (MG5), stress-signature (MG6), and glycolytic microglia (MG7). Notably, MG8 microglia are typically elevated in AD and positively correlated with plaques⁴⁸. Interestingly, despite increased microglial clustering around plagues, the phagocytic microglia state (MG5) was decreased in the HIPP. In the PCX, inflammatory state III microglia (MG10) were increased. Applying separate microglial classifications⁴⁰ showed a similar pattern with several microglial states downregulated in the FCX, that were upregulated in the TCX. PCX, and HIPP regions (Extended Data Fig. 3I and Extended Data Table 3). These included surveilling (Mic.2, 3, 4), reacting (Mic.7), enhanced redox (Mic.10), lipid-associated (Mic.12), inflammatory (Mic.15), and SERPINE1-expressing microglia (Mic.16). Enhanced redox (Mic.9) was upregulated in the TCX and HIPP microglia, while proliferative (Mic.1), reacting (Mic.6), and stress-responsive microglia (Mic.11) states were downregulated specifically in the FCX. Despite SPP1 being the most upregulated gene in microglia, there was no enrichment in Mic.13 (characterized as PTPRG+SPP1+TREM2+); rather, the Mic.13 state was downregulated in FCX microglia. Together, these findings demonstrate a reduction in inflammatory MG8 microglia and an increase in ribosome biogenesis and DAM-expressing MG3 microglia across all regions following lecanemab immunization. Notably, we identified a distinct microglial profile in the FCX compared to other brain regions within the lecanemab case.

We then sub-clustered immune cells from the lecanemab case and nAD controls into five microglial clusters, two macrophage clusters, one monocyte cluster, and one T cell cluster (**Fig. 3m** and **Extended Data Fig. 3m-n**). One macrophage cluster (*Mac-1*) expressed markers of border-associated macrophages, such as *Lymphatic Vessel Endothelial Hyaluronan Receptor 1 (LYVE1)* and *Sialic Acid Binding Ig Like Lectin 1* (*SIGLEC1*) (**Extended Data Fig. 3n**). *Mac-2*, which was less abundant in the lecanemab-treated case, shared gene expression profiles with both *Mac-1* and monocytes and exhibited a stress-response signature, including

elevated expression of *DNAJB1*, *HSPA6*, and *HSPB1* (**Extended Data Fig. 3n-o**). Two microglial clusters, *Mg-2* and *Mg-4*, had increased prevalence in the TCX, PCX, and HIPP of the lecanemab case (**Fig. 3n-o**). Since these regions showed evidence of Aβ phagocytosis, we further explored the phenotypes of *Mg-2* and *Mg-4*. *Mg-2* expressed a mixed profile of DAM markers such as *TREM2*, *APOE*, and *TYROBP*, along with homeostatic markers like *Purinergic Receptor P2Y12* (*P2RY12*) and *Transmembrane Protein 119* (*TMEM119*) (**Fig. 3p**). Of all microglia clusters, *Mg-2* expressed the highest levels of co-stimulatory *CD80 Molecule* (*CD80*), *AXL Receptor Tyrosine Kinase* (*AXL*), *FCGBP*, and *SPP1*. Notably, TAM receptors like AXL detect and engulf Aβ plaques⁵⁵. *Mg-2* also expressed higher levels of *CD74* and *C3* compared to *Mg-4*. *Mg-4* expressed a typical DAM signature, with high levels of *Integrin Subunit Alpha X* (*ITGAX*), *Lipoprotein Lipase* (*LPL*), *Matrix Metallopeptidase* 9 (*MMP9*), and *CHI3L1*. Notably, both *Mg-2* and *Mg-4* microglial clusters exhibited upregulation of complement pathway signaling (**Fig. 3q** and **Extended Data Table 3**). The FCX, the region with the most residual Aβ, exhibited higher levels of *Mg-0*, characterized by elevated expression of *FAM107A* and Clusterin (*CLU*), along with decreased complement signaling among other immune pathways.

In summary, we found that lecanemab treatment induces two distinct Aβ-associated microglial phenotypes, both expressing DAM markers such as *APOE* and *TREM2* and exhibiting increased complement signaling in an AD patient. Yet, these lecanemab-associated microglia are unique from classic DAM microglia by their altered expression of signaling molecules like *CD80*, *AXL*, *C3*, and *CD74*. Notably, microglia in the lecanemab-treated case showed a decrease in the inflammatory MG8 state⁴⁸—regardless of Aβ clearance levels—and an increase in the ribosomal biogenesis MG3 state⁴⁸. Altogether, these findings characterize distinct microglial states responsive to passive Aβ immunization in an AD patient treated with lecanemab.

Microglia recruited to the Aβ niche upregulate SPP1 following lecanemab treatment

Having established the microglial response to lecanemab treatment using single-cell analysis, we next sought to elucidate immune dynamics of the Aβ niche within tissues. To do so, we performed spatial proteogenomics on tissue sections from the same FFPE blocks using a larger ST capture area of 11 x 11 mm comprising 14,336 ST spots (**Fig. 4a**). ST spots were annotated based on DAPI staining to demarcate meninges, cortical layers, white matter and areas with hemorrhage (**Fig. 4b** and **Extended Data Fig. 4a**). Quality control metrics revealed variability in the number of expressed genes across nAD donors (**Extended**

Data Fig. 4b) and in mitochondrial read percentages (**Extended Data Fig. 4c**). However, regional comparisons showed no significant differences in these metrics between nAD group and the lecanemab sample. We then used binary masks to distinguish cortical and vascular A β , construct expanded A β niches and define A β -rich ST spots (**Fig. 4c**). Consistent with findings from AN1792, we observed that cortical A β was predominantly reduced in the superficial cortical layers (I and II) (**Extended Data Fig. 4d**). We performed differential expression analysis across these cortical regions and, unlike AN1792, observed that the deeper cortical layers (III, IV, and V/VI) exhibited the most DEGs (**Fig. 4d** and **Extended Data Table 4**).

Transcriptomic analysis of cortical Aβ-positive ST spots revealed that residual Aβ-rich ST spots in brain regions with the most clearance (TCX and PCX) were the most transcriptionally dysregulated (Extended Data Fig. 4e and Extended Data Table 4). In line with the single-cell analysis findings in microglia in Figure 3, Aβ-rich ST spots in the TCX exhibited higher expression of genes related to complement signaling (*C3*, *Complement C1q C Chain* (*C1QC*) and lipid metabolism (*APOE*, *LIPA*) (Fig. 4e and Extended Data Fig. 4f and Extended Data Table 4). We observed ApoE localized to Aβ plaques surrounded by Iba1⁺ myeloid cells in the lecanemab-treated brain (Extended Data Fig. 4g). Additionally, all regions except the uncleared FCX shared upregulated genes involved in lysosomal function and protein degradation (*A2M*, *CTSB*, *CTSZ*), iron storage (*FTH1*, *FTL*), and extracellular matrix remodeling during inflammation (*CHI3L1*). We also observed A2M localized to Iba1⁺ myeloid cells around Aβ deposits (Extended Data Fig. 4h). Notably, we found upregulation of *SPP1* and *FTH1* across all regions. Pathway analysis of Aβ-rich ST spots in the TCX revealed upregulation of complement signaling pathways (Fig. 4f and Extended Data Table 4). Intriguingly, adipogenesis pathways increased across all regions, suggesting involvement in lipid metabolism processes (Fig. 4f and Extended Data Table 4).

We next evaluated immune responses at the protein level within cortical Aβ niches. Notably, many immune-related genes are either expressed at low levels or undergo post-translational modifications. This sometimes results in the exclusion of their corresponding transcripts from differential gene expression analysis, or the absence of such transcripts altogether. To overcome this, we adapted our ST method to incorporate a panel of 31 barcoded antibodies targeting immune proteins (**Extended Data Table 4**). These barcoded antibodies were transferred simultaneously with RNA probes to generate spatial proteogenomics data. We assessed differentially expressed proteins (DEPs) with or without a corresponding DEG transcript (**Fig. 4g and**

Extended Data Table 4). Among the DEPs, HLA-DRA, a component of class II antigen presentation, was upregulated in Aβ-rich ST spots across all brain regions (Fig. 4g and Extended Data Table 4). Proteins linked to the microglial phagocytic response to amyloid, such as CD11c and CD68, were upregulated in both the TCX and HIPP. Given that CD68 is a key component of the lysosomal/endosomal-associated membrane, we confirmed this finding with IHC, which revealed numerous CD68* lysosomal structures within Iba1* microglia surrounding Aβ deposits in the HIPP (Fig. 4h and Extended Data Fig. 4i). Interestingly, the immune-inhibitory receptor ligand Programmed Cell Death 1 Ligand 1 (PDL1) was reduced in regions with the highest Aβ clearance (TCX, PCX). We further employed LOESS to assess non-linear mRNA expression changes within Aβ-rich spots and a 200 μm radius in the lecanemab-treated brain (Extended Data Fig. 4j-k). We identified 11 clusters (Extended Data Fig. 4I and Extended Data Table 4), with cluster 3 being most associated with immune pathways, including complement and IL2/STAT5 signaling (Extended Data Fig. 4m). Cluster 3 was notably upregulated in ST spots with the highest Aβ content, and included previously identified genes such as A2M, APOE, APOC1, CTSB, CD68, FCGBP, ITGAX, SPP1, and TREM2 (Fig. 4i-j and Extended Data Fig. 4n). In summary, proteogenomic analysis of the Aβ niche revealed microglial states associated with Aβ clearance in an AD patient treated with lecanemab.

Transcriptomics reveals a shared microglial gene signature between active and passive $\mbox{\ensuremath{A\beta}}$ immunization

To identify common and distinct microglial responses to Aβ following active and passive immunization strategies, we performed integrated analyses of all tissues. Initially, we quantified general Aβ coverage in the gray matter, confirming a decrease in Aβ coverage associated with AN1792 and lecanemab treatment (**Fig. 5a-b**). We also observed increased myeloid recruitment associated with AN1792 and lecanemab treatment (**Fig. 5c**). To examine differences in the cellular response to Aβ following immunization, we integrated and clustered cortical gray matter Aβ-rich ST spots (**Fig. 5d** and **Extended Data Fig. 5a-b**). This analysis yielded nine distinct Aβ niches based on their gene expression profiles (**Fig. 5d** and **Extended Data Fig. 5c** and **Extended Data Table 5**). We hypothesized that these differences were driven by distinct cellular microenvironments. To test this, we employed Cell2Location to predict the abundances of cell types defined in our integrated scRNAseq atlas consisting of nAD, lecanemab, and AN1792 samples (**Extended Data Fig. 5d**). We then plotted the

distribution of cell types per plaque type across all samples. We found that different cellular microenvironments were associated with different A β plaque clusters (**Fig. 5e**). Notably, the cortical A β -6 cluster exhibited the highest enrichment of microglia and was increased in lecanemab samples, and to a lesser extent in AN1792 samples (**Fig. 5f**). Among the markers defining this cluster were *A2M*, *APOE*, *C1QC*, *C3*, *CD74*, *CHI3L1*, *CTSB*, *FTL*, and *SPP1* (**Extended Data Fig. 5e** and **Extended Data Table 5**). This suggests that the cortical A β -6 cluster represents A β -rich ST spots with recruited myeloid cells. We next sought to resolve the specific myeloid population driving this innate immune response to A β . In AN1792 samples with limited A β clearance, as well as in lecanemab-treated brain regions, this cluster showed an increased relative abundance of microglia clusters Mg-2 and Mg-4 compared to nAD controls (**Extended Data Fig. 5f**).

Through differential expression analysis of cortical Aβ-6 ST spots, we identified upregulation of *FAM107A*, *RAB13*, *S100A4*, *Translocator Protein (TSPO)*, and *TREM2* in AN1792 samples compared to their corresponding nAD controls (**Fig. 5g**, **Extended Data Fig. 5g** and **Extended Data Table 5**). In ST spots from the lecanemab-treated brain, we observed upregulation of *A2M*, *Actin Beta (ACTB)*, *APOE*, *CHI3L1*, *Coagulation Factor III (F3)*, *CTSB*, *FTH1*, and *FTL*, among other genes (**Fig. 5h**, **Extended Data Fig. 5g** and **Extended Data Table 5**). Because *SPP1* had no zero counts, the MAST hurdle model—which relies on modeling excess zeros—was inappropriate for this gene. Therefore, we used DESeq2 to analyze *SPP1* expression, finding that *SPP1* was highly upregulated in cortical Aβ-6 ST spots of the lecanemab-treated brain (**Fig. 5i**). We then investigated whether any of the previously identified microglial subtypes were mediating this effect or were spatially associated with the Aβ plaque niche. Using Cell2Location data (**Fig. 5j**), we plotted the log₂ fold change of predicted microglial abundance per donor in cortical Aβ-rich spots vs. other gray matter spots (**Fig. 5k** and **Extended Data Fig. 5h**). This analysis revealed enrichment of microglial clusters *Mg-2* and *Mg-4* in Aβ-rich spots, most notably in the lecanemab-treated brain, and to a lesser extent in AN1792 subjects with limited clearance.

We defined Mg-2 and Mg-4 enriched ST spots in the gray matter of our cohorts and filtered those spots to include only those that were A β -rich or within a 200 μ m proximity of an A β -rich spot. In A β -associated Mg-2-enriched spots, we found increased expression of APOE in AN1792 samples (**Fig. 5I** and **Extended Data Table 5**). Note that these samples all had limited clearance, as there was an insufficient number of A β spots in iAD-ext AN1792 samples. In A β -associated Mg-4-enriched spots, we observed increased expression of APOE and

FAM107A. Following lecanemab treatment, Aβ-associated *Mg-2* and *Mg-4* enriched spots exhibited very similar gene expression profiles, including increased expression of *SPP1* and other genes associated with DAM microglia (*TREM2*, *APOE*), lysosomal function and protein degradation (*A2M*, *CTSB*, *Lipase A*, *Lysosomal Acid Type* (*LIPA*)), and iron storage and regulation (*FTH1*, *FTL*) (**Fig. 5m** and **Extended Data Table 5**). We visualized fold changes of these genes on a pseudobulk level, demonstrating that *FAM107A* is uniquely increased in both *Mg-2* and *Mg-4* Aβ-associated ST spots in AN1792 samples, whereas *SPP1* and *LIPA* are associated only with lecanemab treatment (**Extended Data Fig. 5i**). Notably, *APOE* and *TREM2* were increased after both treatments, with *TREM2* showing slightly higher expression in Aβ-associated *Mg-2*-enriched spots (**Extended Data Fig. 5i**).

We next employed CellChat⁵⁶ to map cell-to-cell signaling of the most dysregulated pathways associated with Aβ immunization. We assessed cell communication networks associated with AρoE, Complement, and SPP1 pathways in five FCX AN1792 samples, as well as in the FCX, TCX, PCX, and HIPP regions of nAD and the lecanemab-treated brain (**Extended Data Fig. 5j** and **Extended Data Table 5**). CellChat identified increased microglial signaling of all three pathways in the lecanemab-treated brain and elevated ApoE pathway signaling in AN1792 samples (**Extended Data Fig. 5j**). These data also reveal a network of signaling by microglia to other cell-types via these pathways, suggesting that microglia have a broad impact of cellular communication in response to Aβ immunization.

To achieve single-cell resolution of ST data from immunized AD patient brains, we applied a platform for high-definition spatial transcriptomics (HDST; Visium HD). We applied HDST to the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated brain and two nAD controls (Extended Data Table 1). We performed nuclei segmentation using Stardist⁵⁷ and binned transcripts to nuclei. Nuclei were then integrated and clustered (Fig. 5n and Extended Data Fig. 5k-o), with clusters annotated based on their top markers (Extended Data Fig. 5o and Extended Data Table 5). We mapped cortical Aβ plaques based on immunofluorescent staining using the monoclonal Aβ antibody D54D2 and then calculated the distance of each annotated nucleus to the nearest plaque (Fig. 5o). Interestingly, myeloid cells (putative microglia) were overrepresented within a 20 μm radius of plaques in the lecanemab case but not in nAD controls, indicating increased microglial recruitment to Aβ plaques (Fig. 5p). Differential expression analysis of microglia within 20 μm of Aβ plaques post-lecanemab treatment confirmed increased expression of *SPP1*, *FTH1*, *CHI3L1*, and *APOE* (Fig. 5q and Extended Data

Table 5). SPP1 expression was visibly localized to nuclei around A β pathology (**Fig. 5r**). Importantly, these data validate many of the lower resolution ST findings throughout the study.

Finally, to identify common and distinct gene expression changes in microglia and at the Aβ plaque niche post-immunization, we compared DEGs from microglia and Aβ-niche datasets from AN1792- (**Fig. 1I, 2e, 5g, 5I**) and lecanemab-treated brains (**Extended Data Fig. 4f, Fig. 3i, 5f, 5m**). For each analysis, we ranked genes by PFC. We then assigned percentile ranks based on these PFC scores. These percentiles were averaged across all DE analyses for AN1792 (**Fig. 5s, Extended Data Fig. 5p, Extended Data Table 5**) and lecanemab (**Fig. 5t, Extended Data Fig. 5q, Extended Data Table 5**). In AN1792-treated samples, *FAM107A* was the top response gene, followed by metabolic regulator *ATP synthase inhibitory factor subunit 1 (ATP5IF1)*, *TREM2*, and *APOE*. In contrast, lecanemab-treated samples showed *CHI3L1*, *F3*, *HMOX1*, and *SPP1* as the top genes. Notably, when combining scores from both treatments, *TREM2* and *APOE* emerged as the top responsive genes common to both AN1792 and lecanemab in microglia and Aβ-plaque niches (**Fig. 5u, Extended Data Table 5**).

We then correlated the expression of *TREM2* and *APOE* in microglia-enriched spots within the gray matter with available clinical data for AN1792-treated patients. This included peripheral blood anti-AN1792 antibody titers from the trial period and Aβ plaque scores assessed throughout the neocortex using a CERAD-adapted method¹². Notably, we found a significant, positive correlation between AN1792 antibody titer after immunization and the expression of both *TREM2* and *APOE* (**Fig. 5v, Extended Data Table 5**). Additionally, there was a trend toward a negative correlation between *APOE* expression and Aβ plaque score.

In conclusion, our analysis highlights both distinct (FAM107A, SPP1) and common (APOE, TREM2) genes related to active and passive A β immunization. The expression levels of APOE and TREM2 were directly associated with the immunization response (i.e. antibody titer) and A β clearance (i.e. amyloid score). Altogether, our findings delineate the microglial response mediating A β clearance in AD brains immunized against A β .

Discussion

The mechanisms by which immunization promotes $A\beta$ clearance have long been posited to involve phagocytosis by microglia³. Yet, the molecular mechanisms regulating microglial $A\beta$ clearance in the human

AD brain have never been discerned. This study defines the microglial response to $A\beta$ immunization in the AD brain.

We detected upregulation of *APOE* and *TREM2* in microglia of actively and passively immunized AD brains. Notably, side effects from passive immunization are more commonly observed in homozygous *APOE* ε4 carriers^{16, 58, 59}. Further, antibodies against Trem2 have been explored as a therapeutic strategy for AD^{60, 61}. Yet, these early trials have also been hindered by side effects, particularly in *APOE* ε4 homozygotes⁶². Thus, ApoE and Trem2 likely play crucial roles in the microglial response to Aβ following immunization, potentially influencing both therapeutic efficacy and the risk of adverse effects.

The decreased expression of genes related to HSPs, protein folding and cellular stress in immunized AD samples is in favor of an improved cerebral environment after active immunization. Additionally, we observed a loss of stress-signature and stress-responsive microglia in immunized AD brains. We also observed a reduction in inflammatory microglia in brains with extensive Aβ clearance. These changes collectively point to a mitigation of the chronic inflammatory state often associated AD that is accompanied by a return to homeostasis for extensively cleared brains. Interestingly, we found elevated expression of genes linked to neuroprotection in microglia-enriched ST spots of iAD-ext brains. Among these upregulated genes was *FGFR3*, which encodes a receptor that binds FGF2 secreted by degenerating neurons⁴³. The FGF2-FGRR3 interaction provides neuroprotection by facilitating microglial migration and phagocytosis of neuronal debris⁴³. Thus, FGFR3-FGF2 signaling potentially underlies neuronal-microglial communication in brains extensively cleared of Aβ.

Our data indicate that the response to A β immunization depends on microglia transitioning to a metabolically homeostatic state once intense activity is complete. Glycolysis, though less efficient in ATP generation than mitochondrial respiration, supports rapid energy demands for processes like phagocytosis. Conversely, resting cells favor mitochondrial respiration due to its higher efficiency. Exposure to A β induces a metabolic shift in microglia from oxidative phosphorylation to glycolysis⁶³. In AN1792-treated brains with extensive clearance (iAD-ext), we found increased oxidative phosphorylation and reduced glycolysis in microglia, suggesting a metabolic state closer to homeostatic cells. Additionally, our data suggest a role for complement signaling in A β clearance, with components like C3 facilitating A β recognition and phagocytosis

by microglia. Complement activation products may also guard against Aβ-induced neurotoxicity, potentially reducing amyloid buildup and supporting neuronal health⁴⁹.

We further investigated the microglial response mechanisms underlying passive $A\beta$ immunization. To this end, we assessed a case study of an APOE $\epsilon 4$ homozygous AD patient with CAA treated with lecanemab. We compared this patient's brain to control APOE $\epsilon 4$ homozygous AD patients with vascular AD pathology who did not receive lecanemab. scRNAseq analyses revealed an increased presence of two microglial subtypes in regions with the highest $A\beta$ clearance, both spatially associated with residual $A\beta$ deposits. Both subtypes expressed DAM markers, such as APOE and TREM2, and exhibited elevated complement signaling, yet differed in their expression of homeostatic markers, and the expression of signaling molecules AXL, C3, and CD74. Following lecanemab treatment, DAM markers were upregulated in residual $A\beta$ -rich regions, with genomic alterations in those areas strongly associated with complement signaling in regions demonstrating more pronounced $A\beta$ clearance.

Finally, we examined shared and unique microglial Aβ response mechanisms between actively and passively immunized AD brains. Comparative analysis revealed that *CHI3L1* and *SPP1* signaling was uniquely upregulated in Aβ-associated microglia following lecanemab treatment. Meanwhile, *FAM107A* and *ATP5IF1* were uniquely elevated in Aβ-associated microglia in AN1792-treated brains. Notably, lecanemab more frequently showed enhanced signaling related to lysosomal function, protein degradation, and iron regulation genes, possibly due to the acute response to the drug. Residual Aβ-niches and microglia in both lecanemab and AN1792 samples displayed increased *APOE* and *TREM2* expression and dysregulated complement signaling (increased with lecanemab, decreased in AN1792 subjects with limited Aβ clearance). Both treatments were associated with reductions in HSP coding genes and stress-responsive microglia.

Importantly, we found that expression of APOE and TREM2 in microglial-enriched ST spots positively correlated with anti-AN1792 antibody titer and showed a trend toward a negative correlation with A β load throughout the brain. This indicates that microglial APOE and TREM2 expression was highest in AN1792 subjects who generated a beneficial vaccine response, despite the several years that often elapsed between antibody assays and postmortem examination. We hypothesize that microglial APOE and TREM2 are instrumental in removing A β plaques following immunization. Notably, our previous findings demonstrated a significant inverse correlation between A β plaque scores and both mean and peak anti-AN1792 antibody

titers¹², supporting the hypothesis that anti-A β antibodies play a crucial role in clearing A β plaques from the brain.

Future studies with larger sample sizes and longitudinal designs will be essential to validate and extend these findings, ultimately advancing our understanding of microglial contributions to AD therapies. In parallel, animal models will be critical for dissecting candidate mechanisms, including those involving heat shock proteins and the Fgf2-Fgfr3 signaling axis. Some observed alterations may be unrelated to Aβ clearance, reflecting ongoing tau pathology, vascular Aβ, or immune responses to the antibodies. Inherent effects of APOE genotype or sex likely influence microglial responses and warrant examination in larger cohorts. Limited sample availability constrains our conclusions, although the use of carefully matched pathological controls mitigates some potential biases. Presently, only a small number of lecanemab-treated post-mortem cases have been described in the literature 18,64, highlighting the rarity of these samples.

By applying ST, we have reveal how microglial gene expression varies across distinct anatomical and pathological niches, offering novel insights that would be difficult to achieve with bulk or single-cell methods alone. Leveraging rare human samples, our study provides a crucial step forward in understanding transcriptomic changes induced by immunization in AD. These data offer valuable clues to the mechanisms underlying $A\beta$ clearance and serve as a foundation for interpreting microglial adaptation to therapeutic interventions. Ultimately, defining how microglial states shift following immunization and identifying expression signatures associated with enhanced $A\beta$ clearance can guide the refinement of next-generation therapeutics. With further validation and attention to patient heterogeneity, these insights may lead to more targeted, personalized strategies to improve clinical outcomes in AD.

Our findings suggest that targeting microglial ApoE and Trem2 could improve Aβ clearance. In preclinical models, interventions such as small molecules, gene therapies, or biologics that strengthen ApoE-or Trem2-mediated clearance may enhance therapeutic efficacy. Clinical trials targeting Trem2 will clarify whether boosting Trem2 function can slow AD progression. Although ApoE-targeted therapies are less developed, research into gene-editing approaches, ApoE-lowering strategies, and protein-structure modifiers is advancing⁶⁵. As these interventions progress, incorporating insights from our study may help refine patient selection and therapeutic design, driving more personalized and effective treatments. Other candidate genes

we identified, such as *PADI2*, *A2M*, and *RAB13*, were also linked to microglial responses following immunization, yet their function in amyloid clearance remains undetermined.

A key challenge for microglia-targeted therapies is minimizing amyloid-related imaging abnormalities (ARIA), such as edema and microhemorrhages. Avoiding an excessive immune response may require interventions engineered to engage microglia without broadly activating peripheral macrophages. Advanced brain-shuttle technologies could further improve drug delivery across the blood-brain barrier, ensuring precise modulation of ApoE and Trem2 while reducing off-target effects⁶⁶. By combining targeted microglial engagement with controlled drug delivery, future strategies may achieve robust Aβ clearance while limiting ARIA and other adverse events, ultimately improving the safety and efficacy of immunotherapies for AD.

In conclusion, we reveal distinct microglial phenotypes associated with $A\beta$ immunization. These results underscore the critical role of microglia in response to $A\beta$ immunotherapy. Our findings offer novel insights into the underlying microglial mechanisms of $A\beta$ clearance induced by immunization.

Online Methods

Human tissue samples

AN1792 study cohort

Clinical and neuropathological follow-up of AD patients enrolled in the Elan Pharmaceuticals phase I trial of AN1792 was previously reported. Patients (or their caretakers) were invited to consent to post-mortem neuropathological examination. Frontal cortex tissue was available from 22 iAD patients, with 16 having a neuropathological diagnosis of AD. The remaining six had a different cause of dementia and were excluded from further analysis. One patient (case 1) required imaging in life, which demonstrated features of meningoencephalitis and neuroradiological features consistent with the later defined ARIA-edema. Notably, three of the 16 AD donors (case 2, 3, 9) were omitted due to low RNA quality scores, leaving a final cohort of 13 iAD samples. With inadequate numbers of post-mortem placebo treated samples from the original AN1792 trial, frontal cortices of 6 nAD cases and 6 NND cases were used as controls. Cases were matched as closely as possible for age at death. In total, post-mortem FFPE frontal cortical samples of 13 iAD (mean age of death = 79.97; range = 63 – 89), 6 nAD controls (mean age of death = 79.60; range = 65 – 89), and 6 NND controls (mean age of death = 74.93, range = 63 – 82) were included in the active immunization analysis. All nAD cases

and 4 NND frontal cortex samples were sourced from Stanford Alzheimer's Disease Research Center. Two additional NND samples were sourced from Northwestern Pathology. Collection of brain tissue was approved by the Institutional Review Board of each university. Relevant clinical and demographic information of iAD, nAD and NND cases are listed in **Extended Data Table 1**. Tissue blocks were cut into 5 µm sections and stored at 4°C until further use. This study was conducted in compliance with all relevant ethical guidelines and was approved by BRAIN UK (UK Brain Archive Information Network) under REC reference 19/SC/0217 and the Northwestern University Institutional Review Board.

Lecanemab and nAD controls

Clinical^a and neuropathological^a findings of the patient who received lecanemab were previously reported. Consent was obtained to perform full-body post-mortem examination and subsequent reporting of the neuropathologic findings related to her receiving anti-A β . Multiple foci of cortical histiocytic vasculitis with fibrinoid necrosis in vessels with CAA were present in this patient's brain along with extensive, multi-focal intracerebral hemorrhage. The CAA and necrotizing vasculopathies closely paralleled the intraparenchymal hemorrhages. Multiple foci of histiocytic/microglial reaction to parenchymal amyloid plaques were noted. According to NIA-AA 2012 consensus guidelines^a, the AD neuropathologic changes would be categorized as 'high'. FFPE tissue blocks from the FCX, TCX, PCX, and HIPP of both donors were sectioned into 5 μ m slices and stored at 4°C until further use. The nAD control samples (mean age at death = 69.3 years; range = 62–82) were matched for CAA, AD pathology ('high'), and *APOE* ϵ 4/ ϵ 4 genotype. Notably, one nAD donor also had magnetic resonance imaging-positive microbleeds on gradient echo sequences. Relevant clinical and demographic information of lecanemab and nAD cases are listed in **Extended Data Table 1**.

DNA collection and genotyping

Genomic DNA was extracted from residual brain material on glass slides following ST workflow, using the QIAamp DNA FFPE Tissue Kit (catalog #56404, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), with deparaffinization steps omitted as they were completed during the ST protocol. DNA was isolated from all nAD and NND samples, as well as AN1792 samples 102-19 and 102-20, which lacked *APOE* genotype information. Positive controls were included to validate genotyping. Quality and concentration of extracted DNA were assessed to ensure suitability

for genotyping. *APOE* genotyping for the single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) rs429358 and rs7412 was conducted at the University of Illinois at Chicago Genomics Research Core using the BioMark HD Real-Time PCR system (Fluidigm) and SNP Type assays (rs429358: C___3084793_20; rs7412: C____904973_10; ThermoFisher). Genotyping was performed according to the manufacturer's protocol, with each SNP assayed using TaqMan SNP Genotyping Assays (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). Genotype calling was conducted with the SNP Genotyping Analysis software (Fluidigm) using default analysis parameters: a confidence threshold of 65, global normalization, and K-means clustering. PCR cycle 35 was used for SNP calling, and each sample was analyzed in three technical replicates. No template controls were incorporated into vacant inlets as negative controls. Allele calls were determined based on fluorescence signals from FAM and VIC probes, and each *APOE* haplotype was assigned by combining the alleles of rs429358 and rs7412, resulting in the following classifications: ε2 (T/T), ε3 (T/C), and ε4 (C/C).

ST

FFPE samples were deparaffinized, stained with Hematoxylin & Eosin (H&E), and de-crosslinked according to the Visium CytAssist Spatial Gene Expression for FFPE protocol (CG000520 Rev B, 10x Genomics). H&Estained tissues were imaged on a EVOS M7000 Imaging System (AMF7000, ThermoFisher Scientific) using a 20x-objective (0.45NA, AMEP4982, ThermoFisher Scientific). Immediately after decrosslinking, libraries were prepared according to the user guide for Visium CytAssist Spatial Gene Expression Reagent Kits (CG000495, Rev E, 10x Genomics). Final libraries were sequenced by the NUSeq Core at Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine using the Illumnia Novaseq 6000 or Illumnia NovaSeq X Plus platforms to the recommended depth of 25,000 reads per tissue-covered ST spot. The Space Ranger pipeline version 2.0.0., referencing the GRCh38 human genome (GENCODE v32/Ensembl 98), and Visium Transcriptome Probe Set v2.0 (10x Genomics) were used to process FASTQ files. For precise anatomical context, we conducted manual annotations of each spot of meninges, gray matter layers and white matter structures, utilizing the high-resolution images captured by the EVOS M7000 microscope within the Loupe Browser software (10x Genomics).

Spatial proteogenomics

FFPE samples were deparaffinized, decrosslinked and stained with a combination of DAPI (1:100; #62248; ThermoFisher), rabbit anti-Iba1 (1:250; #019-19741; WAKO) and mouse anti-pan-Aβ (1:250; clone 4G8; #800708; BioLegend). Notably, we used TrueBlack Plus Lipofuscin Autofluorescence Quencher (#23014; Biotum) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Tissues were imaged on a EVOS M7000 Imaging System (AMF7000, ThermoFisher Scientific) using a 20x-objective (0.45NA, AMEP4982, ThermoFisher Scientific, or Olympus Lucplanfl N 20x/0.45 Ph1 UIS2 Collar Fn22). Post imaging, spatial gene and protein expression libraries were immediately prepared according to the user guide for Visium CytAssist Spatial Gene and Protein Expression Reagent Kits (CG000494; Rev B; 10x Genomics). We employed the Visium Human Transcriptome Probe Set version 2.0 for RNA transcript detection, along with the Human FFPE Immune Profiling Panel, which includes a 35-plex CytAssist Panel of antibodies, both intracellular and extracellular, sourced from BioLegend and Abcam for protein detection. This panel also comprises four isotype controls. Final libraries were sequenced as detailed above for spatial transcriptomics. The targeted sequencing depth was 25,000 reads per tissue-covered ST spot for gene expression libraries, and 5,000 reads per tissue-covered spot for protein expression libraries, as recommended.

High-definition ST

FFPE samples were deparaffinized, decrosslinked, and stained with DAPI, rabbit anti-pan-Aβ (1:500, clone D54D2, #8243, Cell Signaling Technology), goat anti-IBA1 (1:100, #ab5076, Abcam), and mouse anti-phospho-Tau (1:250, MN1020, ThermoFisher) according to the Visium HD FFPE Tissue Preparation Handbook (CG000684 Rev A, 10x Genomics). Lipofuscin autofluorescence was quenched with TrueBlack Lipofuscin Quencher. Stained tissues were imaged on an EVOS M7000 Imaging System (AMF7000, ThermoFisher Scientific) using a 20x objective (Olympus Lucplanfl N 20x/0.45 Ph1 UIS2 Collar Fn22). Immediately following decrosslinking, libraries were prepared per the Visium HD Spatial Gene Expression Reagent Kits user guide (CG000685 Rev B, 10x Genomics). Final libraries were sequenced by the NUSeq Core at Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine on an Illumina NovaSeq X Plus platform to a target depth of 275 million reads per fully-covered capture area. FASTQ files were processed using the Space Ranger pipeline version 3.0.0, referencing the GRCh38 human genome (GENCODE v32/Ensembl 98) and Visium Transcriptome Probe

Set v2.0 (10x Genomics). For precise anatomical mapping, high-resolution images captured on the EVOS M7000 were annotated in Loupe Browser (10x Genomics) to delineate the hippocampus.

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scRNAseq

For each sample, 1-2 consecutive FFPE scrolls of 25 µm were prepared and processed according to the Isolation of Cells from FFPE Tissue Sections for Chromium Fixed RNA Profiling protocol (CG000632, 10x Genomics). After deparaffinization and dissociation by pestle, single cells were hybridized with barcoded probes overnight. GEM generation and library construction were performed as outlined in the Chromium Fixed RNA Profiling Reagent Kits for Multiplexed Samples manual (CG000527; Rev E; 10x Genomics). The first batch included four brain regions—frontal cortex, temporal cortex, parietal cortex, and hippocampus—from one nAD control (NMA22-205) and one lecanemab-treated sample (NMA22-300). The second batch contained the same regions from two additional nAD controls (A14-193 and A11-170). The third batch contained frontal cortex samples from 10 AN1792 samples (102-1, 102-7, 102-8, 102-11, 102-15, 102-16, 102-17, 102-19, 102-21, and 102-22). To enhance cell yield per tissue, samples were split across two barcodes per pool, totaling 16 barcodes. Limited cell numbers in samples 102-7, 102-8, 102-11, and 102-21 restricted them to a single barcode each. We targeted approximately 8,000 cells per barcode, aiming for a total of 16,000 cells per tissue per pool. For batches one and three, two pools were generated, targeting 32,000 cells across both pools for samples with dual barcodes. Cell counts were taken at several stages of the protocol to ensure consistent pooling, using a DAPI stain (1:2000; #62248; ThermoFisher) and imaged with an EVOS M7000 Imaging System (AMF7000, ThermoFisher Scientific) using a 4x objective lens (0.13NA, AMEP4980, ThermoFisher Scientific). The final libraries were indexed and pooled, and then sequenced together by the NUSeq Core at Northwestern University Feinberg School of Medicine on an Illumina NovaSeg X Plus sequencer, aiming for approximately 25,000 reads per cell. Demultiplexed FASTQ files were processed using the Cell Ranger pipeline version 7.2.0, referencing the GRCh38 human genome (GENCODE v32/Ensembl 98), and the Visium Transcriptome Probe Set v2.0 (10x Genomics).

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Immunohistochemistry

DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine) hematoxylin staining for pan-Aβ (D54D2)

Consecutive sections from the ST data, spaced 5-10 μm apart, were used to stain for pan-Aβ. FFPE sections were heated at 60 °C for 1 hour, followed by incubation in xylenes and a graded ethanol series. Antigen retrieval was performed at 95°C for 30 minutes in either citrate buffer pH 6.0 (#64142-08; Electron Microscopy Sciences) or Tris-EDTA pH 9.0 (#AB93684; Abcam). Slides were blocked using 10% normal goat serum (#ab7481; Abcam) in PBS with 0.03% Triton-X (#21568-2500, Acros Organics) for up to 4 hours. The sections were then incubated overnight at 4°C with the primary antibody for pan-Aβ (1:100; clone D54D2; #8243; Cell Signaling) and subsequently with goat anti-rabbit HRP (1:200, #P0448, Agilent Technologies) for 1 hour at room temperature. Sections were then treated with diluted DAB Chromogen (#K3468, Dako) for 20 minutes at room temperature. Hematoxylin (#51275, Sigma-Aldrich) was used for counterstaining before the sections were dehydrated and mounted with Cytoseal (#8312-4, Epredia).

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- DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine) hematoxylin staining for phosphorylated Tau (AT8)
- Non-adjacent serial sections were stained for phosphorylated tau using the AT8 antibody (1:500; Thermo
- 773 Fisher Scientific #MN1020). FFPE sections were incubated overnight at room temperature with primary
- antibody, followed by incubation with a biotinylated anti-mouse secondary antibody (Vector Laboratories).
 - Signal was visualized using an avidin-biotin-peroxidase complex (Vectastain Elite, Vector Laboratories) and a
 - chromogenic reaction with DAB (Vector Laboratories). Slides were counterstained with hematoxylin and
 - coverslipped using Expert XTF Mounting Media (CellPath).

Immunofluorescence

FFPE sections were placed in a stove for 1 hour at 60°C before deparaffinization in xylenes and rehydration 780 with a series of graded ethanol (100%, 100%, 95%, 70%, 50%, each for 10 minutes). Antigen retrieval was 781 782 performed at 95°C for 30 minutes in citrate buffer pH 6.0 (#64142-08, Electron Microscopy Sciences) or Tris-783 EDTA buffer (pH 9.0; #AB93684, Abcam), Slides were blocked using 10% of normal donkey serum (#017-000-784 121, Jackson ImmunoResearch; #AB7475, Abcam) in PBS with 0.03% Triton-X (#21568-2500, Acros 785 Organics) for up to 4 hours. Sections were then incubated with primary antibodies (Extended Data Table 1) overnight at 4°C, followed by a one-hour incubation in Alexa-fluorophore labeled secondary antibodies (1:400) 786 787 at room temperature. Primary antibodies used included goat anti-lba1 (1:150, #ab5076, Abcam), rabbit anti-AB 788 (1:1000, clone D54D2, #8243, Cell Signaling), mouse anti-CD68 (1:400, clone KP1, #ab955, Abcam), rabbit anti-Iba1 (1:400, #019-19741, WAKO), goat anti-APOE (1:500, #ab947, Sigma Aldrich), mouse anti-Aβ (1:1000, clone D3D2N, #15126, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-TMS1/ASC (1:400, clone RM1049, #ab309497, Abcam), mouse anti-Aβ (1:250, clone 4G8, #800708, BioLegend), rabbit anti-A2M (1:500, clone EPR4432, #ab109422, Abcam), rabbit anti-APOC1 (1:300, clone EPR16813, #ab198288, Abcam), and rabbit anti-SPP1 (1:300, #ab8448, Abcam). Immunofluorescent-stained slides were counterstained for DNA using DAPI (1:5000, #62248, ThermoFisher), followed by quenching of auto-fluorescence with TruBlack Plus (1:40, #23014, Biotium) in PBS. Slides were mounted using ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant (#P36934; Fisher Scientific).

Imaging analysis

- Imaging and processing of pan-Aβ DAB stains in consecutive ST images
- Tissue imaging was performed with a TissueGnostics slide scanner at the Northwestern University Center for Advanced Microscopy. The acquired images were processed using FIJI software (NIH). Briefly, deconvolution was applied to the images for the hematoxylin and DAB staining. Manual thresholds were set for A β reactivity using the DAB stain by a researcher blinded to sample identification. The derived binary signal was further cleaned by removing small particles. A β coverage in the gray matter was determined by calculating the ratio of A β deposits in the gray matter to the total area of the gray matter per sample. This analysis was performed only in the tissue region that was used for spatial transcriptomics. To construct the expanded A β niches, the binary A β signal was artificially extended by 100 μ m from its original boundary, with a gradual decrease in signal intensity noted every 20 μ m. Subsequently, the images were aligned to the CytAssist image using the Loupe browser (version 7.0.1, 10x Genomics) and further integrated with the spatial RNA data using Space Ranger software version 2.1.1. Importantly, ST spots with unreliable A β staining, arising from technical issues or tissue anomalies such as folds or holes, were omitted from subsequent A β niche analyses.

- Imaging and processing of phosphorylated Tau (AT8) DAB stains
- Tissue imaging for AT8-stained slides was performed at ×20 magnification using an automated slide scanner microscope (Olympus VS110; Olympus America Inc.) at the Biomedical Imaging Unit, Faculty of Medicine, University of Southampton. The acquired images were processed using FIJI software (NIH). Briefly, deconvolution was applied to separate the hematoxylin and DAB signals. Manual thresholds were set for AT8 reactivity in the DAB channel by a researcher blinded to sample identification. The resulting binary signal was

refined by removing small particles to enhance clarity. AT8 coverage in the gray matter was quantified as the ratio of AT8-positive area to the total gray matter area per sample. This analysis was restricted to the tissue region used for spatial transcriptomics.

Processing of immunofluorescent images for spatial proteogenomics

High-resolution imaging in the spatial proteogenomic workflow was conducted using FIJI software. The DAPI channel was auto-thresholded using the Li vector, with subsequent removal of entities larger than ~ 1 cm and application of the watershed function to separate binary nuclear masks. The lba1 channel processing involved dividing the image into a 25 x 25 grid, applying Bleach Correction via Histogram Matching to each segment, reassembling the image, and employing the RollingBall algorithm (radius: 2.8 μ m) to reduce background noise. Both lba1 and A β channels underwent manual thresholding, conducted by a researcher blinded to sample identification. Post-binarization, channels were subjected to two rounds of dilation and erosion, followed by a filtering step to remove oversized objects in A β and lba1, targeting noise reduction. The binarized lba1 masks were then utilized to refine the bleach-corrected lba1 channel. This refinement was achieved by overlaying the binarized lba1 mask onto the bleach-corrected lba1 channel. In this process, only the regions within the confines of the binarized mask were retained, while areas outside the mask were cleared.

Vascular and cortical A β were identified in the high-resolution images from the spatial proteogenomic workflow using the LabKit machine learning tool* within FIJI. Each sample was analyzed with a unique classifier to generate a vascular A β probability map. This map was initially enhanced with despeckling and Gaussian Blur (σ = 4) to improve smoothness, followed by triple dilation and erosion and filtering to exclude small particles. The probability maps were then manually thresholded by a researcher blinded to sample identification. Observations of vascular A β missed by the automated process but detected upon visual inspection were carefully annotated and included. The vascular A β binary signal was dilated twice before being extracted from the processed A β channel, leaving the residual signal to be identified as cortical A β . Expanded A β niches were subsequently delineated as described above. For nAD controls A14-193 and A11-170, vascular A β was manually annotated instead of using LabKit. Importantly, ST spots exhibiting unreliable A β staining, whether due to technical complications or the presence of tissue folds or holes, were excluded from further analyses related to the A β niche.

Aβ coverage and Iba1 colocalization

The coverage of cortical or total $A\beta$ within the gray matter was determined by calculating the percentage of the area covered by the binarized cortical or total $A\beta$ mask in the gray matter to the total area of the gray matter for each brain region per donor. To evaluate the association between lba1+ cells and cortical or total $A\beta$, the area where cortical $A\beta$ and lba1 colocalized was divided by the total area of cortical or total $A\beta$ present in the gray matter.

Data preprocessing, quality-control and integration

AN1792 RNA for ST

Seurat objects were initialized for each sample with Space Ranger filtered feature barcode matrices using Load10X_Spatial, and raw counts were log-normalized. ST spots with extremely high or low UMI counts or extremely low feature counts were removed on a per-sample basis. Outermost ST slide spots, ST spots with at least 20% mitochondrial expression, and ST spots that were not covering tissue were removed. Raw counts were transformed using SCTransform.

scRNAseq

Background contamination was removed in each sample across all pools using SoupX[®], where the contamination fraction was determined by the autoEstCont function and counts were adjusted via the adjustCounts method, setting the roundToInt parameter to TRUE to return integer counts. Seurat objects for each sample within the pools were created using counts corrected by SoupX. Low-quality cells were removed prior to doublet identification, using a sample and pool-specific minimum UMI threshold of 3 median absolute deviations below the median and a minimum feature threshold of 2 median absolute deviations below the median. Additionally, cells exhibiting mitochondrial gene expression above 20% were removed. Doublet identification was performed with DoubletFinder utilizing 10 principal components, a pN setting of 0.25, and a pool-specific predicted doublet rate determined based on the average number of cells loaded per probe barcode, with a 0.4% undetectable multiplet rate for 825 cells loaded per barcode as per the Chromium Fixed RNA Profiling Reagent Kits for Multiplexed Samples manual (CG000527; Rev E; 10x Genomics). Doublets

were removed, and samples from AN1792 donors 102-1, 102-16, 102-17, 102-19, and 102-22 were retained, while donors 102-7, 102-8, 102-11, and 102-21 were excluded due to high contamination fractions, low UMI counts, or high mitochondrial expression. The remaining raw counts were further processed with SCTransform while adjusting for mitochondrial gene expression. Fifty principal components were derived from the SCTransform-processed data, which was then harmonized across both pools and samples using the IntegrateLayers function with the HarmonyIntegration approach. Lastly, UMAP visualization was constructed from 30 integrated features.

Lecanemab RNA for ST

Seurat objects were initialized for each sample with Space Ranger filtered feature barcode matrices using Load10X_Spatial, and raw counts were log-normalized. ST spots with extremely high or low UMI counts or extremely low feature counts were removed on a per-sample basis. ST spots with at least 20% mitochondrial expression were removed for FCX, TCX and PCX, and ST spots with at least 30% mitochondrial expression were removed for HIPP. ST spots not located on cortical or hippocampal tissue were excluded. Outermost ST slide spots, and ST spots with zero protein expression were removed. Raw counts were transformed using SCTransform.

Lecanemab spatial protein analysis

For each sample, Seurat objects were created from Space Ranger's filtered feature barcode matrices, which included isotype-normalized counts, via the Load10X_Spatial function. Isotype control antibodies were excluded for the further analysis. ST spots subjected to quality control exclusion were the same as those identified in the RNA assay, as previously detailed.

High-definition ST analysis

Nuclei segmentation was performed using StarDist⁵⁷, with expression data from Space Ranger 2x2 µm filtered feature barcode matrices assigned to segmented nuclei. Nuclei with fewer than 10 UMI counts or over 20% mitochondrial expression were excluded. Raw counts were transformed with SCTransform, producing 50 principal components based on the SCTransform data. Integration across samples was achieved with

IntegrateLayers using the HarmonyIntegration method, and a UMAP was generated using 30 integrated features.

snRNAseg integration and reference generation

A snRNAseq dataset^{39, 40} from the Religious Orders Study and Rush Memory and Aging Project (ROSMAP)⁶⁷ was used to generate a reference atlas for ST data. We initially identified 5,000 feature genes using the 'FindVariableFeatures' function from the 'Seurat' package per batch. From this pool of genes, we selected 5,000 common feature genes across all datasets for anchor identification using the 'FastFindAnchors' function from the 'FastIntegration' package¹². Notably, 'FastFindAnchors' employs a method similar to that of the 'Seurat' package but with enhanced efficiency and reduced memory usage. The identified anchors were then used for batch correction via the 'FastIntegration' function. The resulting batch-corrected values were subsequently employed for downstream analyses, including Principal Component Analysis, UMAP, and clustering. For annotation of broad cell types, we utilized the feature genes identified during the integration stage. Subsequently, within each broad cell type, we re-selected feature genes and conducted similar analyses to delineate detailed subtypes. Major cell-types used were astrocytes, endothelial cells, stromal cells, immune cells, oligodendrocytes, oligodendrocyte precursor cells, interneurons, and excitatory neurons. We then randomly down-sampled 2,000 cells per cell-type, or included all cells for categories with fewer than 2,000 cells, resulting in a reference dataset of 34,695 cells. For meningeal ST spots, we utilized a focused subset of this atlas, comprising stromal cells, peripheral immune cells, and endothelial cells.

Cell type annotation

scRNAseq

Clustering was conducted in Seurat by first applying the FindNeighbors function with 30 integrated features, followed by FindClusters at multiple resolutions, with a final resolution of 1 used to define initial clusters. To identify immune subtypes, the data was subsetted to clusters expressing immune markers. Data from different cohorts was merged, and raw counts were transformed using SCTransform with mitochondrial expression regressed out. Fifty principal components were generated from the SCTransform data, and integration across cohorts was performed using IntegrateLayers with the CCA integration method. Clustering was refined by

reapplying FindNeighbors and FindClusters with 30 integrated features, defining immune clusters at a resolution of 0.35. A UMAP was generated using the 30 integrated features.

Aβ-niches

Data from all cohorts was subsetted to include cortical A β -rich spots in gray matter. Raw counts were transformed using SCTransform, and 50 principal components were generated from SCTransform data. Integration across samples was conducted using IntegrateLayers with the HarmonyIntegration method. A UMAP was generated with 30 integrated features, followed by clustering with Seurat's FindNeighbors and

High-definition ST

Clustering in Visium HD data was conducted in Seurat using FindNeighbors with 30 integrated features,

followed by FindClusters across multiple resolutions, with final clusters defined at a resolution of 0.2.

FindClusters functions across various resolutions. Final clusters were defined at a resolution of 0.4.

ST deconvolution

For spatial deconvolution, we utilized the Cell2Location (v0.1.3) package³⁸. Gene filtering on the reference data was conducted using the filter_genes function, with parameters set to cell_count_cutoff=5, cell_percentage_cutoff2=0.03, and nonz_mean_cutoff=1.12. The batch_key parameter was configured as sequencing batch for the snRNAseq atlas and sample ID for the scRNAseq atlas, with each sample ID corresponding to a specific brain region (e.g., the same donor had a distinct sample ID for each brain region). The reference regression model was trained for 500 epochs for the reference atlas and 750 epochs for our inhouse-created scRNAseq immunization atlas to stabilize the evidence lower bound loss. The ROSMAP frontal cortex snRNAseq atlas was used to deconvolute ST spots across all regions, while our in-house-created scRNAseq immunization atlas was used to deconvolute ST spots in gray matter. The proportion of genes expressed per spot (CDR) was calculated from raw counts and standardized. ST spots were deconvoluted using the resulting reference signatures, with standardized CDR as a continuous covariate and sample ID as the batch key in the Cell2Location model. The model was trained in batches of 2500 ST spots over 1000 epochs to stabilize the evidence lower bound loss. To account for technical variability in RNA detection sensitivity, the detection_alpha parameter was set to 20, and the N_cells_per_location parameter was set to 7 based on

manual cell counts of several ST spots. The 5% quantile of the posterior distribution was computed directly and used for downstream analysis.

Defining cell-type-enriched ST spots

To identify ST spots enriched for specific cell types, we applied cell type-specific region restrictions and thresholds to Cell2Location predictions, with enrichment defined separately for each sample. For cell types from the snRNAseq reference atlas, ST spots enriched for fibroblasts, pericytes, peripheral immune cells, smooth muscle cells, and endothelial cells were annotated when enrichment scores for a given ST spot were in the top 1% of gray and white matter or the top 5% of meningeal spots. Microglia and astrocytes were considered enriched in the top 5% of gray and white matter. Interneuron enrichment was defined in the top 5% of gray matter, while MYO16 excitatory neurons were enriched in the top 1% of gray matter. Oligodendrocyte precursor cells were enriched in the top 5% of both gray and white matter, and oligodendrocytes were considered enriched in the top 30% of white matter. Enrichment for layer-specific neurons was determined within the relevant cortical layers:f L2/3 excitatory neurons in the top 10% of layers II-III, L4 excitatory neurons in the top 50% of layer IV, L4/5 excitatory neurons in the top 15% of layers IV-VI, and L5, L5/6, L5/6 CCa, and L5/6 CCb excitatory neurons in the top 5% of layers V-VI. Layer I was excluded from enrichment analysis for all cell types in the snRNAseq atlas.

For microglia clusters from our in-house scRNAseq immunization atlas, enrichment was defined by a sample-specific Cell2Location prediction threshold set at three standard deviations above the mean in gray matter ST spots.

Definition of Aß enrichment groups

ST spots were classified as A β -rich if the coverage within the expanded A β niche, indicated by barcode fluorescence intensity, exceeded a threshold of 183. This threshold was visually confirmed using Loupe Browser software (10x Genomics). The A β niche was defined to include A β -rich ST spots along with their first-and second-order spatial neighbors, based on array coordinates, covering an approximate radius of 200 μ m. ST spots containing CAA pathology, as well as spots immediately adjacent to those, were excluded from the cortical A β niche.

DEG analysis

To identify DEGs across various regions of interest within our datasets, we employed two distinct DE techniques: DESeq2¹⁴ and MAST¹⁵. Each approach was adapted to suit the specific characteristics and requirements of the comparison, considering the nature of the data (pseudobulk for DESeq2 and single-cell for MAST) and the level at which covariates were standardized (sample-level for DESeq2 and spot-level for MAST). Covariate selection was guided by variance partition analysis, which identified gDNA as the primary driver of variance after the experimental group. Additionally, we accounted for the number of genes expressed in a subset of ST spots or cells to control for differences in quality and sequencing depth. Finally, sex and age were included due to their known effects on immune responses in AD.

DESeq2

DESeq2 was initiated by subsetting the data for ST spots within the region of interest. Continuous covariates at the sample level, including age, average nFeatures within subsampled ST spots, and gDNA percentage, were standardized within each ROI by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. We then filtered out genes not expressed in at least 1% of either comparison group based on raw counts, excluding genes starting with RPS, RPL, MT, or HB. Pseudobulk data was created by summing raw counts by donor to facilitate a more robust differential expression analysis. The DESeq2 analysis was conducted with the inclusion of covariates such as sex, age, average features within subsampled ST spots, and gDNA percentage, all of which were standardized, if continuous. DEG significance thresholds were set at an adjusted *P*-value of 0.05 and a log2 fold change of ± log2(1.5).

MAST

For MAST, data was subsetted to include only the ST spots or cells of interest. Sample-specific downsampling was applied to ensure that no single sample contributed more than 50% of ST spots or cells within a comparison group, that the fold difference in total ST spots or cells between comparison groups did not exceed three, and that each group contained no more than 3,000 ST spots or cells. Continuous covariates at the spot level, including age, the CDR from recorrected SCT data, and gDNA percentage per sample, were standardized within each subset of ST spots or cells. We applied PrepSCTFindMarkers on the region of interest (ROI), which

re-corrects SCTransform counts to normalize sequencing depth across samples. SCT data (log1p-transformed SCT counts) was then extracted from the Seurat object. Genes prefixed with RPS, RPL, MT, or HB were excluded, and additional filtering was performed based on percent expression within comparison groups. Genes were tested if they were expressed in 1% of both groups and in 10% of either group using SCT expression data, except for Visium HD data, where genes were tested if expressed in 1% of either group. Log2 fold-change between comparison groups for the remaining genes was calculated using the Seurat FoldChange function. MAST was run with covariates such as sex, age, CDR, gDNA percentage, brain region, and manually annotated regions or cortical layers, all of which were standardized if continuous. Sample ID was included as a random effect for comparisons involving multiple samples. MAST hurdle *P*-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. Log fold-change from the prior calculation was appended to the results, with significance thresholds for differential expression set at an adjusted *P*-value of 0.05 and a log fold-change (LFC) of ± log2(1.5).

DEP analysis

Data was first subset for the region of interest, and CDR (calculated based on isotype-normalized counts) was standardized within the region of interest by subtracting the mean and dividing by the standard deviation. A negative binomial generalized linear model was employed through Seurat's FindMarkers function for differential expression analysis on isotype-normalized counts, setting min.pct to 0.01, logfc.threshold to -lnf, and standardized CDR and manually annotated regions or cortical layers as latent variables. Raw *P*-values were adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method, and proteins were considered significant DEPs with adjusted *P*-value less than 0.05 and magnitude of average log-fold change greater than log2(1.5).

Marker expression defining cell types or Aβ niche types

SCTransform-corrected counts were re-corrected using PrepSCTFindMarkers, with log-transformed (log1p) corrected counts utilized in analyses. To delineate general cluster markers, the FindMarkers function facilitated the identification of positive marker genes through a "one vs. many" comparative approach, testing genes expressed in more than 25% of the cluster of interest (set to 1% for Visium HD), setting only.pos to TRUE, employing the default Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Genes prefixed with RPS, RPL, MT, or HB were excluded from testing. Marker gene selection was based on Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *P*-values below 0.05. For the

specific analysis of positive and negative markers within cortical Ab niche cluster 6, FindMarkers was used to compare cluster 6 against all others, allowing for both positive and negative marker detection (only.pos = FALSE), with min.pct set to 0.1 and logfc.threshold set to -Inf, using the default Wilcoxon test. Genes with prefixs RPS, RPL, MT, or HB were excluded. Marker genes were deemed significant if they presented an adjusted *P*-value under 0.05 and an average log fold-change exceeding log2(1.5).

Gene set enrichment analysis

Human Molecular Signatures Database

Gene lists were analyzed using the enrichR package⁶⁸ with the hallmark gene set collection from the Human Molecular Signatures Database. For lists containing specifically downregulated genes, combined scores were negated. A significance threshold was set at a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted *P*-value of 0.05.

Microglia states

Signed probability fold change was calculated for each gene as the product of the negative logarithm of the adjusted *P*-value and the log2 fold-change. Enrichment for human microglial activation states^{40, 48} was assessed using the fgsea package, with probability fold change as the ranking metric. Custom gene sets associated with various microglial activation states were compiled from the supplementary materials provided in the referenced studies. Normalized enrichment scores (NES) were calculated, and significance was determined through permutation testing, with *P*-values adjusted using the Benjamini-Hochberg method. A threshold of 0.05 was applied for adjusted *P*-values, with no specific cut-off for the magnitude of NES values.

LOESS trajectory analysis

LOESS was employed to identify non-linear patterns of gene expression across the Ab niche separately for each group. SCTransform counts were re-adjusted through PrepSCTFindMarkers, with the logarithm of one plus the corrected counts (log1p) serving as the basis for our analysis. Predictions were generated for all genes in the SCT assay. A LOESS regression of span 0.75 was fit to each gene within each group using the loess function of the R stats package. Predicted expression values were scaled and centered within each group. The predicted expression trajectories across the Ab niche were then subdivided into clusters, employing hierarchical clustering through the hclust function in the R stats package.

Quantification and statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were predominantly conducted using R version 4.2.3. Graphpad Prism version 10.2.1 was used for analyses specific to microscopy measurements and the comparison of relative abundances of scRNAseq-derived cell types and microglia clusters, and Aβ niche clusters. For quality-control metrics on the sample level, we first applied Shapiro–Wilk test and F tests to evaluate normality and variance equality, informing the selection of appropriate statistical tests. The chosen tests included the unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test, with or without Welch's correction for unequal variance, as needed, and the Mann–Whitney test for non-parametric data. For comparisons of relative abundances (scRNAseq-derived cell-types, microglia clusters, and Aβ niche clusters), a paired t-test was utilized. Across all analyses, a *P*-value threshold of less than 0.05 was set to denote statistical significance.

ShinyCell

ShinyCell is an R package designed to efficiently create interactive Shiny-based web applications for visualizing fundamental analyses of RNA sequencing data. Our adapted ShinyCell app enables users to explore spatial gene expression patterns on a UMAP, with spatial regions and the quantified degree of Aβ per ST spot linked as metadata. Additionally, users can conduct comparative analyses of gene and protein expression across different groups using violin/box plots and access supplementary built-in analytical tools.

Data availability

Spatial RNA and single-cell RNA-seq data have been deposited at GEO under accession numbers GSE263038, GSE263034, GSE263079, and GSE282928. Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this work paper is available from the lead contact upon request. Data can be explored and requested through a central hub located at: https://sites.google.com/view/adimmunization/home.

Code availability

All code used to generate the figures in this study can be found at https://github.com/gatelabNW/AD_Immunization.

Acknowledgements

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Author information

L.v.O. conducted ST, scFRP, confocal imaging, led the study and wrote the manuscript. B.S., A.J.E., J.B., N.S., T.K., and J.K assisted with ST, histology and scFRP. A.V.F. led bioinformatics analysis under guidance from L.v.O. N.S., B.M.R.A., Z.Z., L.C., M.L. H.X. and T.W. assisted with bioinformatics analysis. J.L.N. assisted with histology. P.J. and R.J.C. contributed brain tissue samples from the lecanemab case. J.A.R.N. and D.B. provided brain samples from the AN1792 trial. P.J., J. Cahan, R.V., J. Chen, J.A.R.N. and D.B. assisted with study design. D.G. conceptualized, funded and led the study and edited the manuscript.

Ethics declarations

1130 AN1792 tissue

This study was conducted in compliance with all relevant ethical guidelines and was approved by BRAIN UK 1131 1132 (UK Brain Archive Information Network) under REC reference 19/SC/0217. 1133 ROSMAP data 1134 1135 All ROSMAP participants enrolled without known dementia and agreed to detailed clinical evaluation and brain 1136 donation at death⁶⁷. Both studies were approved by an Institutional Review Board of Rush University Medical Center (ROS IRB# L91020181, MAP IRB# L86121802). Both studies were conducted according to the 1137 1138 principles expressed in the Declaration of Helsinki. Each participant signed an informed consent, Anatomic Gift Act, and an RADC Repository consent (IRB# L99032481) allowing their data and biospecimens to be 1139 1140 repurposed. 1141 1142 Lecanemab tissue The study of de-identified tissue was approved by Institutional Review Board of Northwestern University 1143 1144 (exempt IRB #00219860). 1145 Competing interests 1146 J.A.R.N. has been a consultant/advisor relating to AD immunization programs for: Elan Pharmaceuticals, 1147 1148 GlaxoSmithKline, Novartis, Roche, Janssen, Pfizer, Biogen and Eisai and D.B. for Elan Pharmaceuticals and 1149 Biogen. D.G. has been a consultant/advisor relating to AD therapies for Merck. They have no financial interest 1150 in relation to AD immunotherapy.

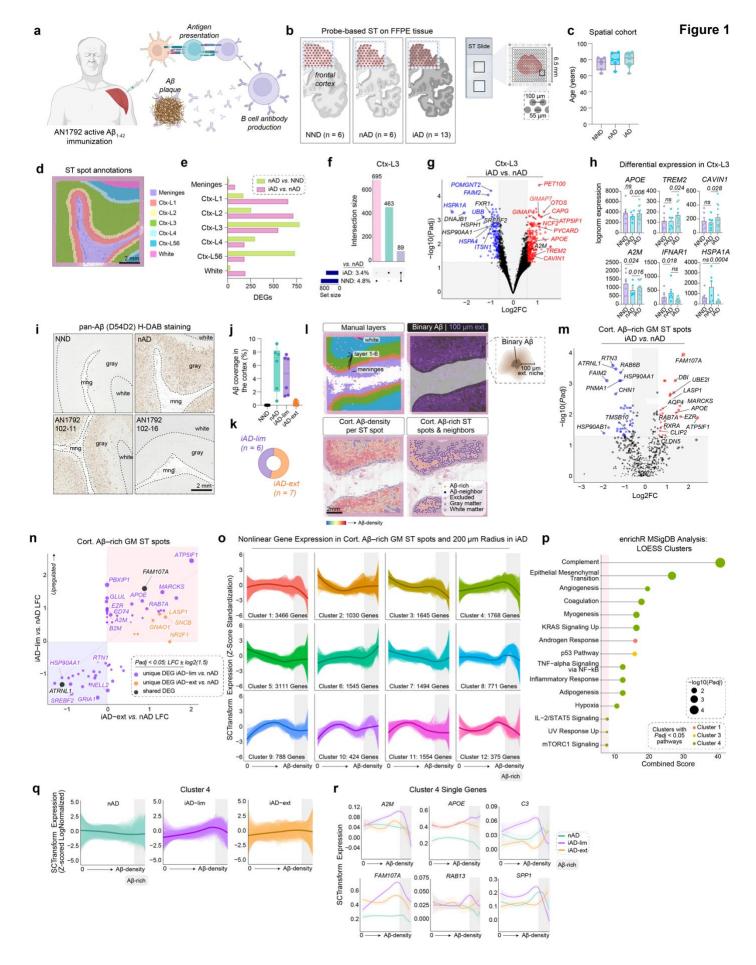


Fig. 1: Active Aβ immunization drives a microglial response to Aβ. a, AN1792 active Aβ-immunization. b, ST method and group sizes of NND, nAD and iAD frontal cortex tissues. c, Study demographics indicating age of each subject. d. Manually annotated ST spots in the frontal cortex. e. Barplots showing the number of DEGs for each comparison per manually-annotated area. f, UpSet plot showing unique and shared DEGs across group comparisons in cortical layer III. q, Volcano plot depicting DEGs in cortical layer III (iAD vs. nAD). Red and blue DEGs are uniquely identified in the iAD vs. nAD comparison and are not observed as DEGs in the nAD vs. NND comparison. h, Bar graphs of pseudobulked expression for APOE, TREM2, CAVIN1, A2M, IFNAR1, and HSPA1A in microglia-enriched ST spots in grav matter. Error bars indicate SEM, P-values are derived from DESeq2. i, Representative pan-Aβ H-DAB stains for each group. j, Quantification of cortical Aβ coverage per group. k, Numbers of iAD-lim and iAD-ext subjects among AN1792 actively immunized subjects. I, Images depicting processing of Aβ IHC images. The binary Aβ signal was extended by 100 μm beyond its actual size, with a gradual decrease in signal intensity every 20 µm. This allowed for dection of genes associated with Aβ density, m. Volcano plot showing DEGs from Aβ-rich gray matter ST spots (iAD vs. nAD). n, Plot showd DEGs (iAD-lim vs. nAD; iAD-ext vs. nAD) for Aβ-rich ST spots. o, LOESS plots showing clusters of non-linear gene expression patterns relative to A\B density in iAD, p. Pathway enrichment analysis of genes in non-linear expression clusters associated with Aβ density in iAD. q, LOESS plot of cluster 4 predictions in nAD (top), iAD-lim (middle), and iAD-ext (bottom) relative to Aβ density, r. LOESS plots of selected genes in LOESS cluster 4. A2M, alpha-2-macroglobulin; APOE, apolipoprotein E; CAVIN1, caveolae-associated protein 1; Ctx, cortex; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; GM, gray matter; HSPA1A, heat shock protein family A member 1A: H-DAB. Hematoxylin-3.3'-Diaminobenzidine: iAD. immunized Alzheimer's disease: iAD-ext. immunized with extensive Aβ clearance; iAD-lim, immunized with limited Aβ clearance; IFNAR1, interferon alpha and beta receptor subunit 1; IHC, immunohistochemistry; LFC, log fold-change; LOESS, locally estimated scatterplot smoothing; MSiqDB, Molecular Signatures Database; NND, non-neurologic disease; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; P-adj, P-value adjusted; SEM, standard error of the mean; ST, spatial transcriptomics; TREM2, triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2.

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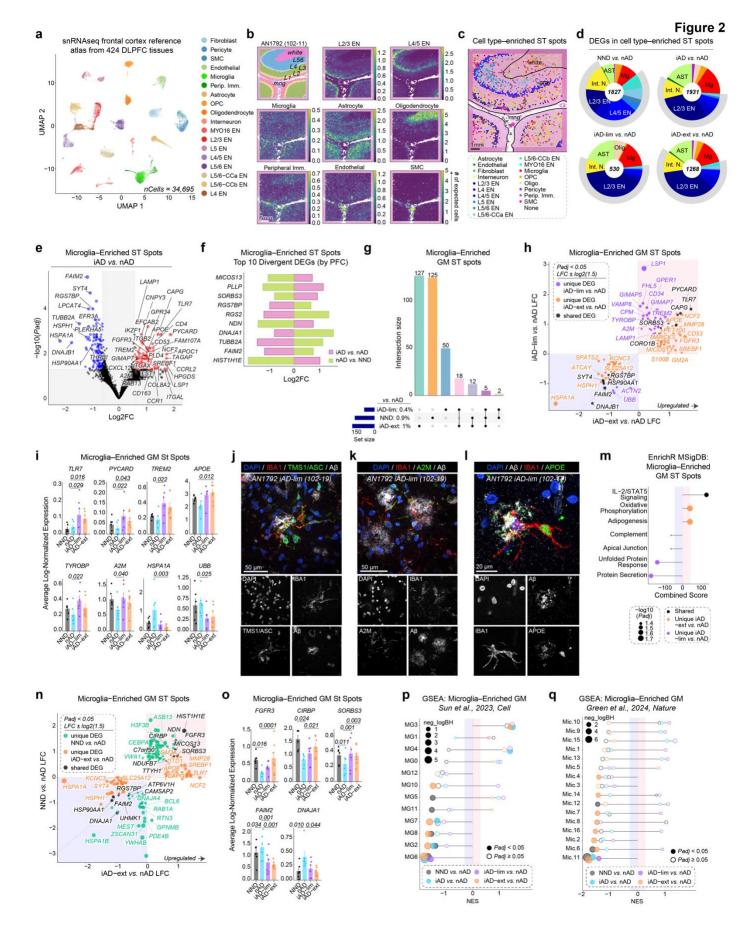


Fig. 2: Inflammatory and neuroprotective microglial responses distinguish levels of Aβ clearance in

actively immunized AD patient brains. a, UMAP of the reference atlas using DLPFC snRNA-seq data^{39, 40}. b, Spatial plots showing the abundance of deconvoluted cell types. c, Spatial plots highlighting enriched ST spots for each deconvoluted cell type. d, Pie charts depicting the percentage of DEGs expressed in enriched ST spots per cell type: NND vs. nAD (top left), iAD vs. nAD (top right), iAD-lim vs. nAD (bottom left), and iADext vs. nAD (bottom right). The number in the center of each pie chart represents the total number of DEGs for the respective comparison. e, Volcano plot of DEGs from microglia-enriched ST spots (iAD vs. nAD). f, Bar plot of the top 10 divergent DEGs in microglia-enriched ST spots based on PFC, comparing iAD vs. nAD and nAD vs. NND. g, UpSet plot showing unique and shared DEGs in microglia-enriched ST spots in gray matter across groups compared to nAD. h. LFC plots for microglia-enriched ST spots in gray matter (iAD-lim vs. nAD: iADext vs. nAD). i, Bar graphs of pseudobulked expression for TLR7, PYCARD, TREM2, APOE, TYROBP, A2M, HSPA1A, and UBB in microglia-enriched ST spots in gray matter. Error bars show SEM. P-values are derived from DESeq2. j-I, Confocal images showing j, TMS1/ASC+lba1+ myeloid cells; k, A2M+lba1+ myeloid cells; and I, APOE⁺lba1⁺ myeloid cells around Aβ deposits in the frontal cortex of iAD. m, Pathway enrichment analysis of unique and shared DEGs in microglia-enriched gray matter ST spots (iAD-lim vs. nAD; iAD-ext vs. nAD). n, LFC plots for microglia-enriched ST spots in gray matter (NND vs. nAD; iAD-ext vs. nAD). o, Bar graphs of pseudobulked expression for FGFR3, CIRBP, SORBS3, FAIM2, and DNAJA1 in microglia-enriched ST spots in gray matter. Error bars show SEM. P-values are from DESeq2. p-q, Pathway enrichment analysis of predefined microglial states from p, Sun et al., 2023, and q, Green et al., 2024, using genes ranked by PFC in iAD-lim vs. nAD and iAD-ext vs. nAD. A2M, alpha-2-macroglobulin; APOE, apolipoprotein E; Ast, astrocyte; CIRBP, cold-inducible RNA-binding protein; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; DLPFC, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; EN, excitatory neuron; FAIM2, Fas apoptotic inhibitory molecule 2; FGFR3, fibroblast growth factor receptor 3; GM, gray matter; GSEA, gene set enrichment analysis; HSPA1A, heat shock protein family A member 1A; iAD, immunized Alzheimer's disease; iAD-ext, immunized with extensive Aβ clearance; iAD-lim, immunized with limited Aβ clearance; Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; Int. N., interneuron; L, Layer; LFC, log fold-change; Mg, microglia; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; NND, non-neurologic disease; P-adj, P-value adjusted; Perip, Imm., peripheral immune cells; PFC, probabilistic fold change; PYCARD, PYD and CARD domain containing; SEM, standard error of the mean; SORBS3, sorbin and SH3 domain containing 3; ST, spatial transcriptomics; TLR7, toll-like receptor 7; TMS1/ASC, apoptosis-associated

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- speck-like protein containing a CARD; TYROBP, TYRO protein tyrosine kinase-binding protein; UBB, ubiquitin
- 1211 B; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection.

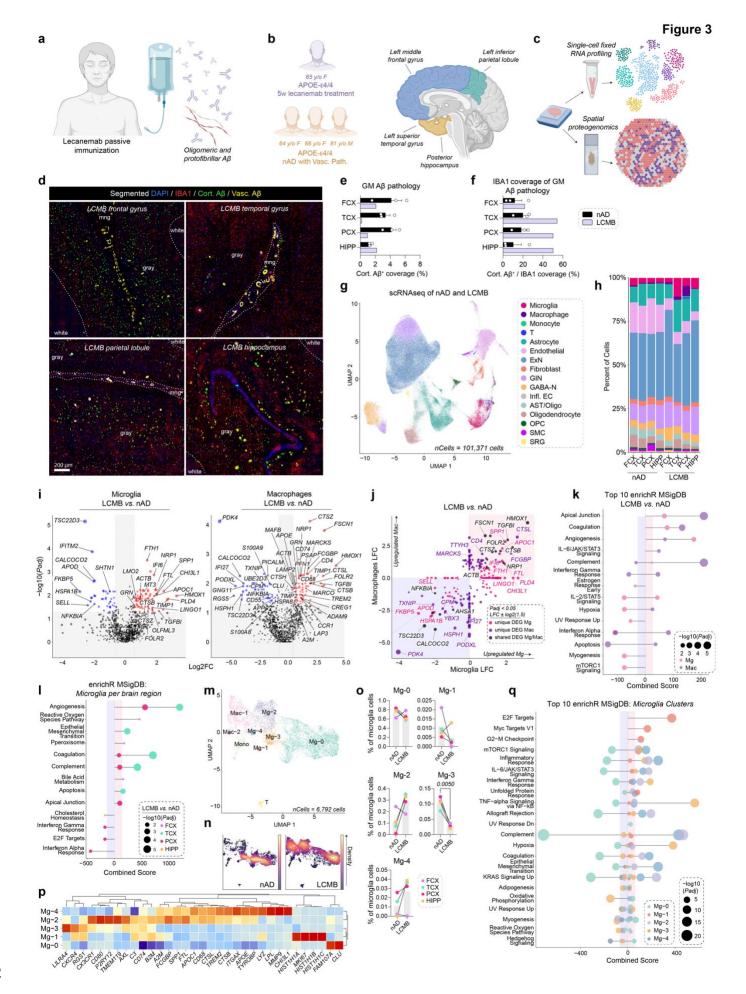


Fig. 3: Microglial transcriptomic alterations associated with Aβ clearance in an AD patient treated with lecanemab. a, Lecanemab binds oligomeric and protofibrillar Aβ to promote Aβ clearance from the brain. b, Study subjects included a 65-year-old female AD patient treated with lecanemab and three nAD controls: a 64vear-old female AD patient, a 66-year-old female AD patient, and an 81-year-old male AD patient, all with CAA and AD pathology, and APOE ε4/ε4 genotype. Tissues analyzed included cortical areas and hippocampus. c, Tissues were analyzed by scRNAseg and spatial proteogenomics. d. Representative confocal images showing segmented Aß burden and microgliosis in regions of the lecanemab-treated patient's brain. A random forest ensemble learning algorithm was used to distinguish cortical from vascular Aβ. e, Percentage of cortical Aβ coverage in brain regions from lecanemab case and nAD controls, f. Percentage of cortical Aß covered by Iba1. **q**, UMAP showing annotated cell-types. **h**, Barplot showing percentages of each cell-type for each brain region between nAD controls and lecanemab case. i, Volcano plot of DEGs in microglia (left) and macrophages (right) comparing lecanemab to nAD. i, LFC plots comparing DEGs in microglia and macrophages (lecanemab vs. nAD). k, Pathway enrichment analysis (top 10) of DEGs in microglia and macrophages (lecanemab vs. nAD). I, Pathway enrichment analysis of DEGs in microglia from FCX, TCX, PCX, and HIPP (lecanemab vs. nAD). m, Clustering of microglia from scRNAseq of the lecanemab case and nAD controls. n, UMAP density plots showing microglial cluster distribution for the lecanemab case and nAD controls. o, Percentages of microglial clusters in the lecanemab case vs. nAD controls. p, Marker genes for each microglial cluster. q, Pathway enrichment analysis (top 10) of marker genes defining microglial states. AD, Alzheimer's disease; APOE, apolipoprotein E; AST, astrocyte; CAA, cerebral amyloid angiopathy; Cort., cortical; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; ExN, excitatory neuron; FCX, frontal cortex; GABA-N, GABAergic neuron; GIN, GABA-ergic interneuron; HIPP, hippocampus; Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; Infl. EC, inflamed endothelial cells; LCMB, lecanemab; LFC, log fold-change; Mac, macrophages; Mg, microglia; mng, meninges; MSigDB, Molecular Signatures Database; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; Oligo, oligodendrocyte; OPC, oligodendrocyte precursor cell; P-adj, P-value adjusted; PCX, parietal cortex; scRNAseq, single-cell fixed RNA sequencing; SMC, smooth muscle cell; SRG, stress-responsive glia cells; TCX, temporal cortex; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection; Vasc, vascular.

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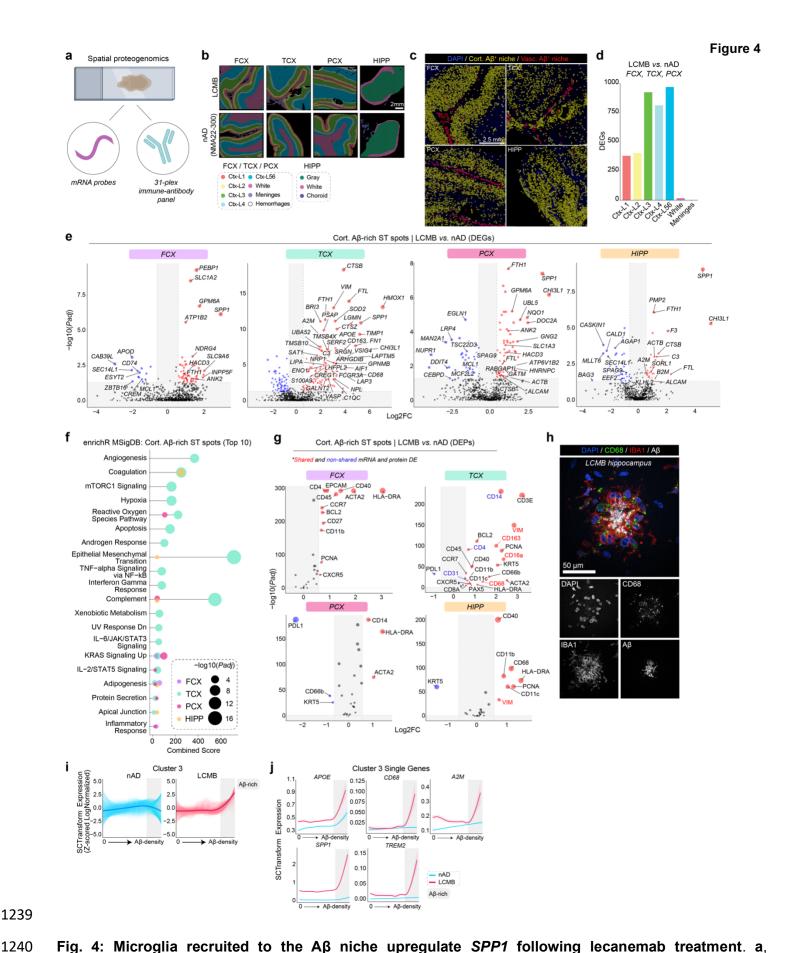
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Proteogenomics allowed for the simultaneous profiling of RNA and protein from lecanemab-treated and nAD

controls. **b**, Manual annotations of brain regions analyzed. **c**, Representative images showing distinction of segmented cortical and vascular Aβ in brain regions from the lecanemab case. **d**, Bar plots showing the number of DEGs for each comparison across manually annotated areas. **e**, Volcano plot of DEGs from Aβ-rich gray matter ST spots (lecanemab vs. nAD) in FCX (top left), TCX (top right), PCX (bottom left), and HIPP (bottom right). **f**, Top 10 pathway enrichment analysis of DEGs in Aβ-rich gray matter ST spots for each brain region (lecanemab vs. nAD). **g**, DEPs associated with cortical Aβ ST spots from each brain region (lecanemab vs. CAA control), with red indicating shared DEGs, blue indicating no shared DEGs, and black indicating low expression levels not meeting DEG criteria. **h**, Confocal images showing CD68*lba1* myeloid cells surrounding Aβ deposits in the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated patient. **i**, LOESS plot of cluster 3 predictions in nAD (left) and lecanemab (right) relative to Aβ density. **j**, LOESS plots of selected genes in LOESS cluster 3. CAA, cerebral amyloid angiopathy; CD68, cluster of differentiation 68; Cort., cortical; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; DEP, differentially expressed protein; DEPs, differentially expressed proteins; FCX, frontal cortex; HIPP, hippocampus; lba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; LCMB, lecanemab; LOESS, locally estimated scatterplot smoothing; MSigDB, Molecular Signatures Database; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; *P*-adi, *P*-value adjusted; PCX, parietal cortex; ST, spatial transcriptomics; TCX, temporal cortex; Vasc., vascular.

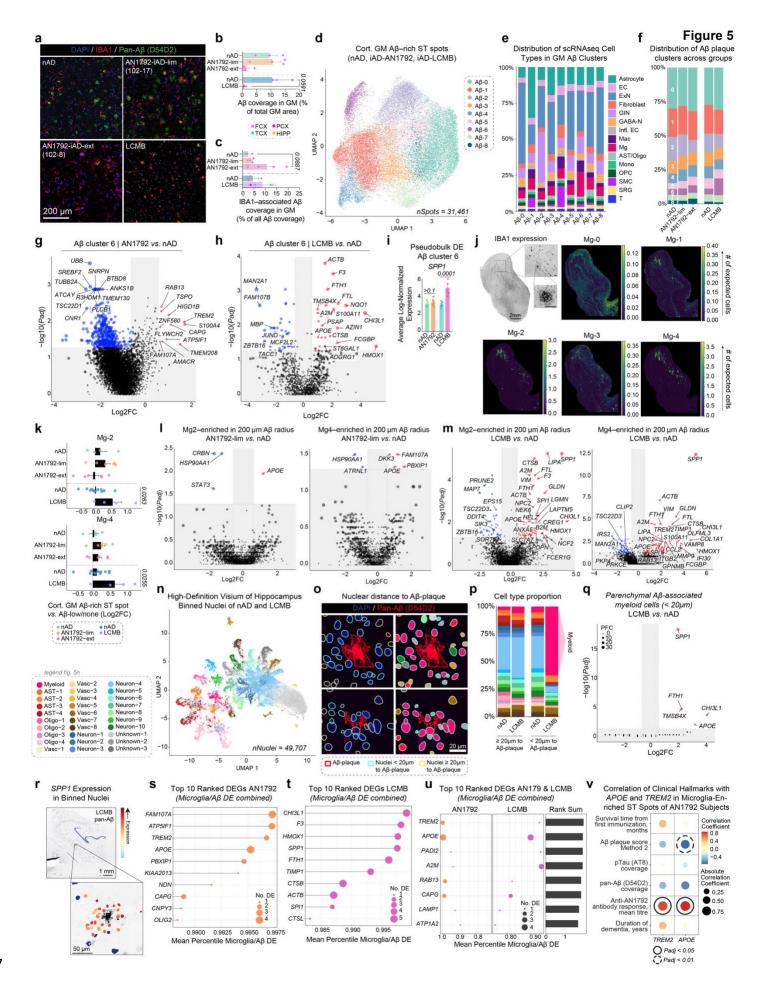


Fig. 5: Transcriptomics reveals a shared microglial gene signature between active and passive Aß immunization. a, Representative confocal images showing pan-Aß and Iba1 in frontal cortex brain regions of nAD, AN1792-lim, AN1792-ext, and lecanemab-treated subjects. **b**, Percentage of cortical Aβ coverage in cortical and hippocampal regions of AN1792, nAD, and the lecanemab case, c. Percentage of cortical AB covered by Iba1 in cortical and hippocampal regions of AN1792, nAD, and the lecanemab case. d, Clustering of Aβ-rich cortical gray matter spots based on gene expression. e, Bar plots showing Cell2Location predictions of scRNAseq cell types in different Aβ plaque clusters. f, Percentages of Aβ-rich clusters in AN1792, nAD, and the lecanemab case. **g-h**, Volcano plots of DEGs in Aβ-rich cluster 6: **g**, AN1792 vs. nAD; **h**, lecanemab vs. nAD. i. Bar graphs showing pseudobulked SPP1 expression in Aβ-rich cluster 6. Error bars indicate SEM. Pvalues are from DESeq2. i. Spatial plots showing the abundance of deconvoluted scRNAseg microglia types; scale bar: 100 µm. k, Bar plots showing log2 fold-change in predicted abundance of deconvoluted scRNAseq microglia types in Aβ-rich ST spots versus the rest in AN1792, nAD, and the lecanemab case, I-m. Volcano plots of DEGs from Mg2-enriched (left) and Mg4-enriched (right) ST spots: I, AN1792 vs. nAD; m, lecanemab vs. nAD. n, UMAP showing annotated binned nuclei from a high-definition Visium assay. o, Spatial plots indicating the distance of nuclei to D54D2-stained Aβ plagues (left) and their annotations (right). p, Bar plot showing the percentage of each cell type in the high-definition Visium assay at ≥ 20 µm (left) and < 20 µm (right) from Aβ plagues in nAD and the lecanemab case, g, Volcano plot of DEGs from myeloid nuclei within < 20 μm of Aβ plaques (lecanemab vs. nAD). r, Spatial plots showing SPP1 expression in binned nuclei around Aβ plagues in the lecanemab hippocampus. s-t, Top 10 upregulated response DEGs ranked by the average percentile across microglia and Aβ DE: s, in AN1792; t, in lecanemab. u, Top 10 combined response genes to AN1792 and lecanemab by summing average percentiles of gene ranks. v. Covariate-adjusted Spearman correlation between TREM2 and APOE expression in microglia-enriched gray matter ST spots from AN1792 subjects and clinical hallmarks. Aβ, amyloid-beta; AN1792-ext, AN1792 immunized with extensive Aβ clearance; AN1792-lim, AN1792 immunized with limited Aβ clearance; APOE, apolipoprotein E; AST, astrocyte; Cort., cortical; DE, differential expression; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; EC, endothelial cells; ExN, excitatory neuron; FCX, frontal cortex; GABA-N, GABAergic neuron; GIN, GABAergic interneuron; GM, gray matter: HIPP, hippocampus: Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; Infl. EC, inflamed endothelial cells; LCMB, lecanemab; Mac, macrophages; Mg, microglia; Mono, monocytes; nAD, non-immunized

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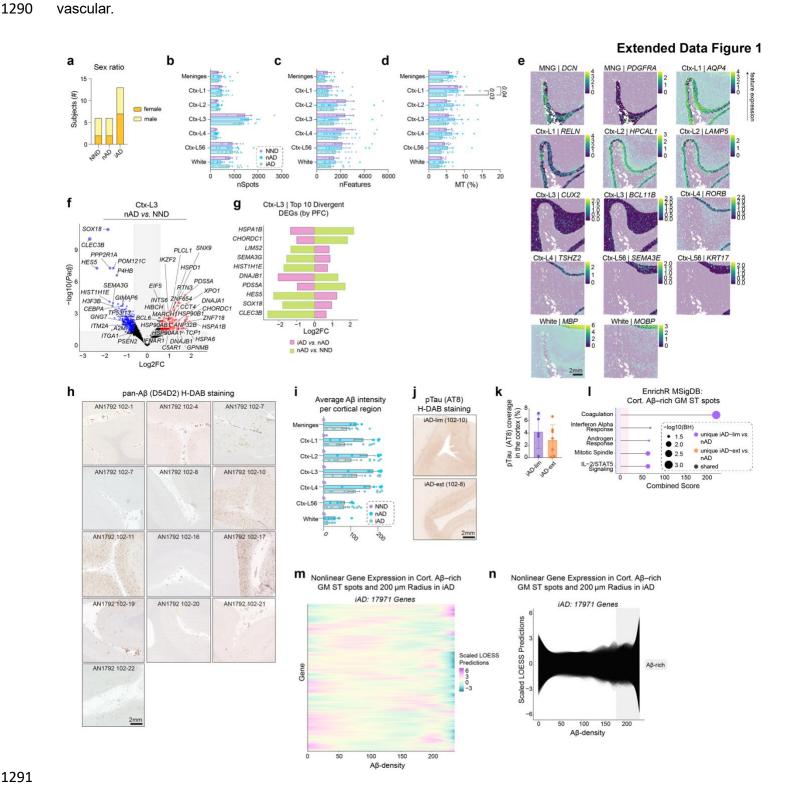
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Alzheimer's disease; Oligo, oligodendrocyte; OPC, oligodendrocyte precursor cell; P-adj, P-value adjusted; PCX, parietal cortex; scRNAseq, single-cell fixed RNA sequencing; SEM, standard error of the mean; SMC, smooth muscle cell; SRG, stress-responsive glia; ST, spatial transcriptomics; TCX, temporal cortex; TREM2, triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection; Vasc., vascular.



Extended Data Fig. 1: Active Aß immunization drives a microglial response to Aß. a, Sex distribution per

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group. b, Number of ST spots per manually annotated area per donor for all groups. c, Average number of features (genes) per spot per manually annotated area per donor for all groups. d. Percentages of mitochondrial gene expression per spot averaged per manually annotated area per donor for all groups. e, Spatial plots showing expression of brain region-specific genes overlaid on corresponding manually annotated areas (shaded). f, Volcano plot of DEGs in cortical layer III (nAD vs. NND). g, Bar plot of the top 10 divergent DEGs in cortical layer III based on PFC, comparing iAD vs. nAD and nAD vs. NND. h, Pan-Aβ (D54D2) H-DAB staining for AN1792-immunized subjects. i, Quantification of average Aß intensity per cortical region per donor per group. j, Representative pTau (AT8) H-DAB staining for each group. k, Quantification of cortical AT8 per group. I. Pathway enrichment analysis of unique and shared DEGs in Aβ-rich gray matter ST spots (iAD-lim vs. nAD; iAD-ext vs. nAD). m, LOESS heatmap showing non-linear gene expression patterns relative to Aβ density in iAD. n, LOESS non-linear trajectories relative to Aβ density in iAD. Aβ, amyloid-beta; AN1792-ext, AN1792 immunized with extensive Aß clearance; AN1792-lim, AN1792 immunized with limited Aß clearance; DEGs. differentially expressed genes; FCX, frontal cortex; GM, gray matter; H-DAB, Hematoxylin-3,3'-Diaminobenzidine; iAD, immunized Alzheimer's disease; LCMB, lecanemab; LOESS, locally estimated scatterplot smoothing; MSigDB, Molecular Signatures Database; MT, mitochondrial; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; nFeatures, number of features; nSpots, number of spatial transcriptomic spots; NND, non-neurologic disease; P-adi, P-value adjusted; PFC, probabilistic fold change; pTau, phosphorylated tau; ST, spatial transcriptomics.

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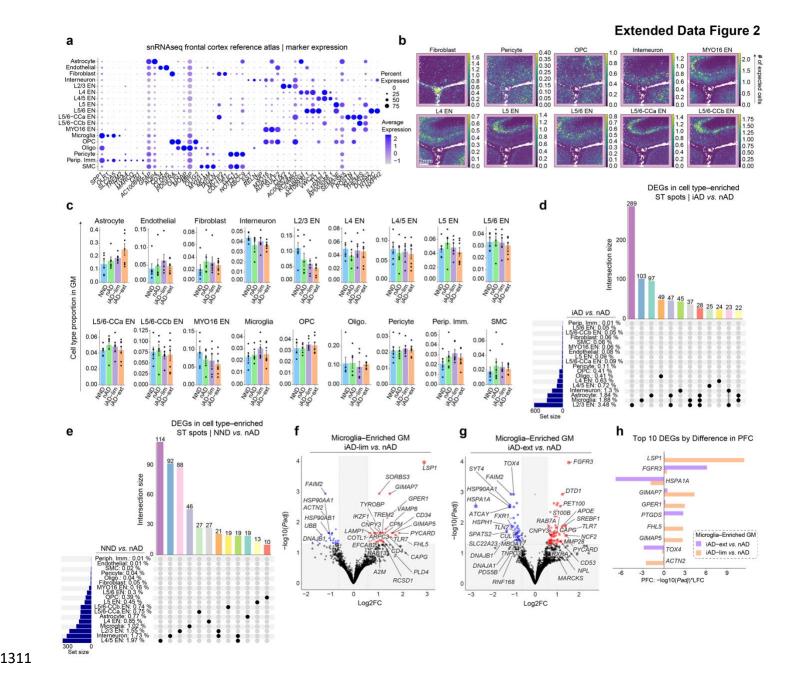
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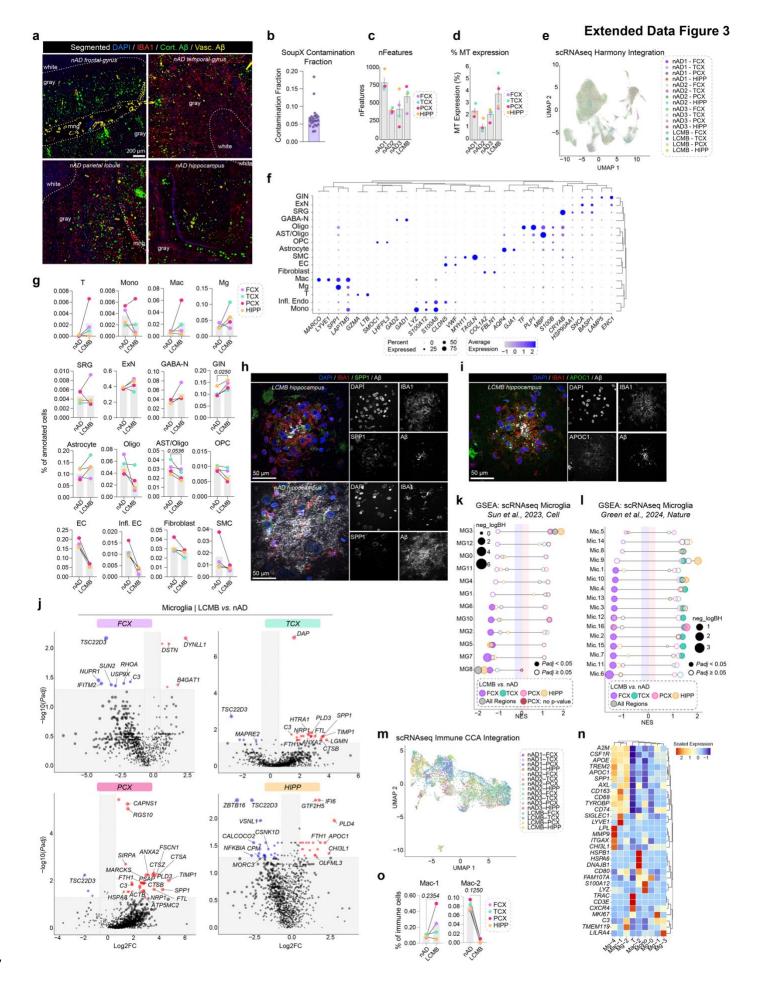
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Extended Data Fig. 2: Inflammatory and neuroprotective microglial responses distinguish levels of Aβ clearance in actively immunized AD patient brains. a, Bubble plot heatmap showing top markers expressed by cell types in the reference atlas^{39, 40}. b, Spatial plots displaying the abundance of deconvoluted cell types. c, Bar graphs showing the proportion of deconvoluted cell types in gray matter per donor, per group. d, UpSet plot indicating unique and shared DEGs in deconvoluted cell types for iAD vs. nAD. e, UpSet plot showing unique and shared DEGs in deconvoluted cell types for NND vs. nAD. f-g, Volcano plot of DEGs in microglia-enriched spots in: f, iAD-lim vs. nAD; and g, iAD-ext vs. nAD. h, Bar plot of the top 10 most divergent DEGs in microglia-enriched ST spots based on PFC, comparing iAD-lim vs. nAD and iAD-ext vs. nAD. Aβ, amyloid-beta; AD, Alzheimer's disease; AN1792-ext, AN1792 immunized with extensive Aβ clearance; AN1792-lim, AN1792

immunized with limited Aβ clearance; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; DLPFC, dorsolateral prefrontal cortex; EN, excitatory neuron; GM, gray matter; iAD, immunized Alzheimer's disease; L, layer; LCMB, lecanemab; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; NND, non-neurologic disease; oliog., oligodendrocyte; OPC, oligodendrocyte precursor cell; *P*-adj, *P*-value adjusted; periph. imm., peripheral immune cell; PFC, probabilistic fold change; SEM, standard error of the mean; SMC, smooth muscle cell; snRNA-seq, single-nucleus RNA sequencing; ST, spatial transcriptomics.



Extended Data Fig. 3: Microglial transcriptomic alterations associated with Aß clearance in an AD patient treated with lecanemab. a, Representative confocal images showing segmented Aß burden and microgliosis in regions of the nAD control patient's brain. A random forest ensemble learning algorithm was used to distinguish cortical from vascular AB, **b**. SoupX contamination fraction for each scRNAseg sample, **c**. Average number of features (genes) per cell per donor. d, Percentages of mitochondrial gene per cell averaged per donor. e, Integrated scRNAseg dataset showing all analyzed cells from nAD controls and lecanemab case. f, Bubble plot heatmap of top markers expressed by cell types in the scRNAseq dataset. g, Changes in percentages of total annotated cells for each cell type. h. Confocal images showing SPP1*Iba1* myeloid cells surrounding Aβ deposits in the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated patient, absent in the nAD control, i. Confocal images showing APOC1⁺Iba1⁺ myeloid cells surrounding AB deposits in the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated patient. j, Volcano plot of DEGs from scRNAseg microglia (lecanemab vs. nAD) in FCX (top left), TCX (top right), PCX (bottom left), and HIPP (bottom right). k-I, Pathway enrichment analysis of predefined microglial states from k, Sun et al., 2023, and I, Green et al., 2024, using genes ranked by PFC in scRNAseg regional microglia (lecanemab vs. nAD). m, UMAP showing reintegrated scRNAseg immune cells for each brain region in the lecanemab case and nAD controls. n, Marker genes for each immune cell cluster. o, Percentages of each macrophage cluster, AB, amyloid-beta; AD, Alzheimer's disease; APOC1, apolipoprotein C1; AST, astrocyte; CCA, canonical correlation analysis; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; EC, endothelial cells; ExN, excitatory neuron; FCX, frontal cortex; GABA-N, GABAergic neuron; GIN, GABAergic interneuron; HIPP, hippocampus; Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; Infl. EC, inflamed endothelial cells; LCMB, lecanemab; Mac, macrophages; Mg, microglia; Mono, monocytes; MT, mitochondrial; nAD, nonimmunized Alzheimer's disease; nFeatures, number of features; Oligo, oligodendrocyte; OPC, oligodendrocyte precursor cell; P-adi, P-value adjusted; PCX, parietal cortex; PFC, probabilistic fold change; scRNAseq, singlecell fixed RNA sequencing; SEM, standard error of the mean; SMC, smooth muscle cell; SPP1, secreted phosphoprotein 1; SRG, stress-responsive glia; ST, spatial transcriptomics; TCX, temporal cortex; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection; Vasc., vascular.

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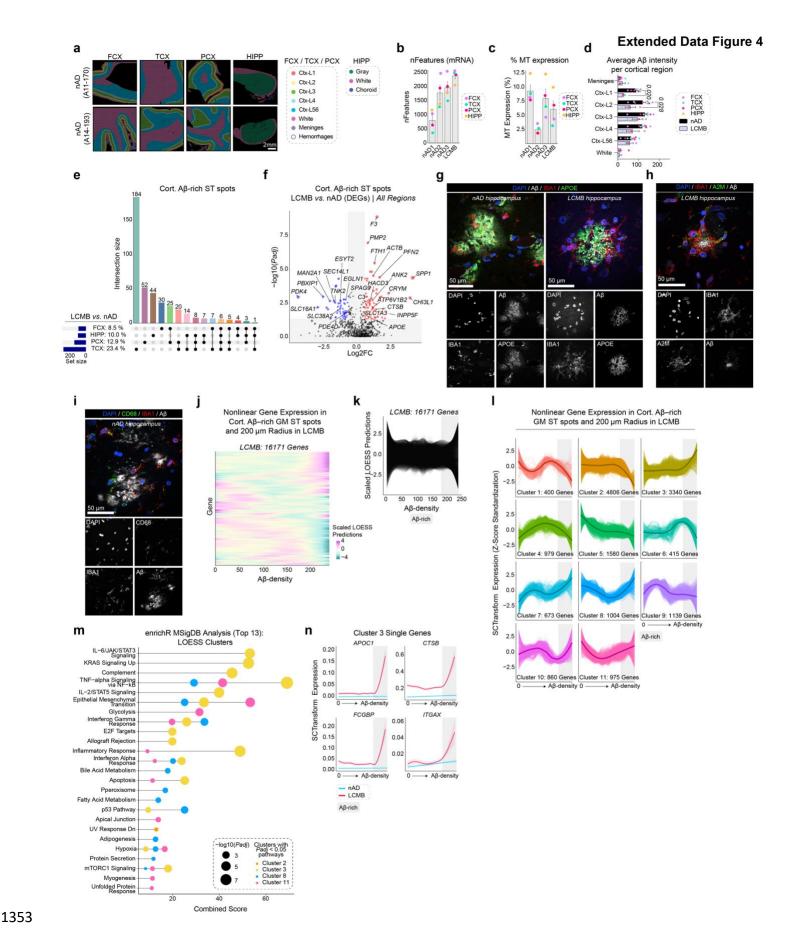
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Extended Data Fig. 4: Microglia recruited to the Aβ niche upregulate *SPP1* following lecanemab treatment. a, Manual annotations of analyzed brain regions. b, Average number of features (genes) per spot

per manually annotated area per donor. c. Percentages of mitochondrial gene expression per spot averaged per manually annotated area per donor. **d**. Quantification of average Aβ intensity per cortical region per donor per group. e, UpSet plot indicating unique and shared DEGs in cortical Aβ-rich ST spots in FCX, TCX, PCX and HIPP for lecanemab vs. nAD, f. Volcano plot of DEGs from Aβ-rich gray matter ST spots (lecanemab vs. nAD) across all regions. **g**, Confocal images showing lba1⁺ myeloid cells surrounding Aβ deposits that colocalize with APOE in the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated patient, with reduced Iba1+ recruitment in the nAD control. h, Confocal images showing A2M⁺lba1⁺ myeloid cells surrounding Aβ deposits in the hippocampus of the lecanemab-treated patient. i, Confocal images showing CD68*lba1* myeloid cells surrounding Aβ deposits in the hippocampus of the nAD control. i. LOESS heatmap showing non-linear gene expression patterns relative to Aβ density in lecanemab. k, LOESS non-linear trajectories relative to Aβ density in lecanemab. I, LOESS plots showing clusters of non-linear gene expression patterns relative to Aβ density in lecanemab, m. Pathway enrichment analysis of genes in non-linear expression clusters associated with AB density in lecanemab. n, LOESS plots of selected genes in LOESS cluster 3. A2M, alpha-2-macroglobulin; Aβ, amyloid-beta; AD, Alzheimer's disease; APO, apolipoprotein; APOC1, apolipoprotein C1; APOE, apolipoprotein E; CD68, cluster of differentiation 68; Cort., cortical; Ctx, cortex; CTSB, cathepsin B; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; FCGBP, Fc fragment of IgG binding protein; GM, gray matter; Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; ITGAX, integrin subunit alpha X; L, layer; LCMB, lecanemab; LOESS, locally estimated scatterplot smoothing; MSiqDB, Molecular Signatures Database; MT, mitochondrial; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; nFeatures, number of features; P-adj, P-value adjusted; SPP1, secreted phosphoprotein 1; ST, spatial transcriptomics.

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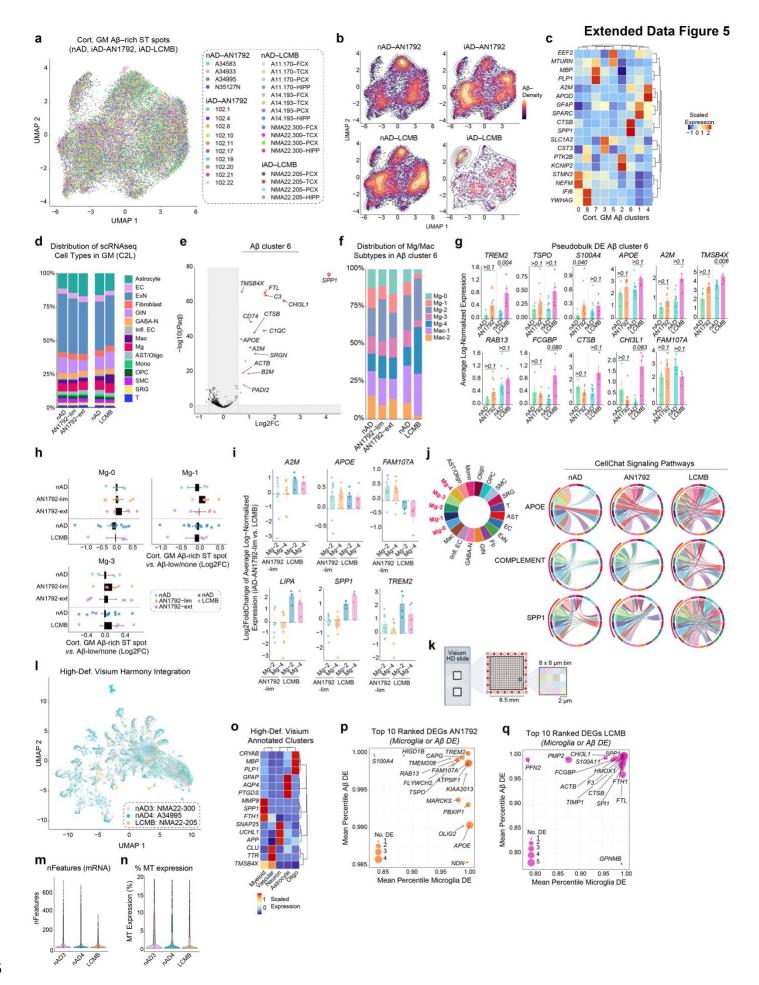
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Extended Data Fig. 5: Transcriptomics reveals a shared microglial gene signature between active and passive Aβ immunization. a, UMAP showing cortical Aβ-rich ST spots based on gene and protein expression. colored by brain region and donor. b, UMAP density plots for each group. c, Top two marker genes for each cortical Aβ-rich cluster, d. Bar plots showing cell2location predictions of scRNAseg cell types proportionally in the gray matter per group. e, Volcano plot showing DEGs distinguishing cortical Aβ-rich cluster 6 from all other cortical Aβ-rich clusters. f, Bar plots showing cell2location predictions of scRNAseg microglia and macrophage subtypes proportionally in Aβ-rich cluster 6 per group. **g**, Bar graphs showing pseudobulked *TREM2*, *TSPO*, S100A4, APOE, A2M, TMSB4X, RAB13, FCGBP, CTSB, CHI3L1, and FAM107A expression in Aβ-rich cluster 6. Error bars indicate SEM. P-values are from DESeq2. h. Bar plots showing log2 fold-change in predicted abundance of deconvoluted scRNAseg microglia types in Aβ-rich ST spots versus the rest in AN1792, nAD, and the lecanemab case. i, Bar plots showing log2 fold-change in pseudobulked expression of A2M, APOE, FAM107A, LIPA, SPP1, and TREM2 in Mg2-enriched and Mg4-enriched ST spots compared to the nAD control group for AN1792 and the lecanemab case. i, Chord plots showing inferred CellChat cell-cell communication of APOE, complement, and SPP1 signaling pathways among different scRNAseg cell types. The width of the chords reflects the strength of interaction or communication probability, with thicker chords indicating stronger signaling. k, Visium HD ST method. I, UMAP showing annotated binned nuclei from a high-definition Visium assay, colored by donor. m, Number of features (genes) per binned nuclei in high-definition ST data per donor. n, Percentage of mitochondrial genes per binned nuclei in high-definition ST data per donor. o, Top three marker genes for overarching cell types annotated in the high-definition ST data. p-q, Top 10 upregulated response DEGs in microglia or A β DE ranked by their average percentile in A β (Y-axis) and microglia (X-axis) DE: \mathbf{o} , in AN1792; r, in lecanemab. A2M, alpha-2-macroglobulin; Aβ, amyloid-beta; AD, Alzheimer's disease; APOC1, apolipoprotein C1; APOE, apolipoprotein E; CD68, cluster of differentiation 68; Cort., cortical; Ctx, cortex; CTSB, cathepsin B; DEGs, differentially expressed genes; FCGBP, Fc fragment of IgG binding protein; GM, gray matter; HD, high-definition; Iba1, ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1; ITGAX, integrin subunit alpha X; L, layer; LCMB, lecanemab; LOESS, locally estimated scatterplot smoothing; MSigDB, Molecular Signatures Database; MT, mitochondrial; nAD, non-immunized Alzheimer's disease; nFeatures, number of features; P-adj, P-value adjusted; SPP1, secreted phosphoprotein 1; ST, spatial transcriptomics.

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