**Starburst amacrine cells amplify optogenetic visual restoration**

**through gap junctions**

Yusaku Katada[1,2], Hiromitsu Kunimi[1,2], Kenta Kobayashi[3], Hideyuki Okano[4], Kenji F.

Tanaka[5], Kazuo Tsubota[2], and Toshihide Kurihara[1,2].

[1]Laboratory of Photobiology, [2]Department of Ophthalmology, [4]Department of Physiology,

[5]Department of Neuropsychiatry, Keio University School of Medicine, Shinanomachi,

Shinjuku-ku, Japan

[3]Section of Viral Vector Development, Center for Genetic Analysis of Behavior, National

Institute for Physiological Sciences, National Institutes of Natural Sciences, Okazaki, Aichi,

Japan

**Corresponding authors:**

Toshihide Kurihara, MD/PhD

Laboratory of Photobiology, Department of Ophthalmology, Keio University School of

Medicine; 35 Shinanomachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8582, Japan

Tel.: +81-3-5363-3204, Fax: +81-3- 5363-3274

E-mail: kurihara@z8.keio.jp

Kazuo Tsubota, MD/PhD

Professor and Department Chair, Department of Ophthalmology, Keio University School of

Medicine; 35 Shinanomachi, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 160-8582, Japan

Tel.: +81-3-5363-3269, Fax: +81-3- 3358-5961

E-mail: tsubota@z3.keio.jp

**Abstract**

**Ectopic induction of optogenetic actuators, such as channelrhodopsin, is a promising**

**approach to restore vision in the degenerating retina. However, the cell type-specific**

**response of ectopic photoreception has not been well understood. It is not easy to**

**obtain efficient gene expression in a specifically targeted cell population by a**

**transgenic approach. In the present study, we established retinal ganglion cell (RGC)-**

**and amacrine cell gene induction in a murine model with high efficiency using an**

**improved tetracycline transactivator-operator bipartite system (KENGE-tet system).**

**To investigate the cell type-specific visual restoration effect, we expressed the channel**

**rhodopsin gene into RGCs and amacrine cells using this system. Then, enhancement**

**of the visual restoration effect was observed by gene transfer not only to RGCs but**

**also to starburst amacrine cells. It was suggested that photoresponse from amacrine**

**cells enhanced the maintained response of ganglion cells and furthered the visual**

**restoration effect.**

## Introduction

Inherited retinal degeneration is one of the major causes of vision loss. More than 2 million people worldwide are blind due to this disease [1], and there is still almost no effective treatment. Previous studies have reported visual restoration effects in animal models using various molecules as optogenetic actuators [2–9]. In addition, clinical trials have also started using channelrhodopsin 2 (RST-001, ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT01648452), and Chrimson R (GS-030, ClinicalTrials.gov Identifier: NCT03326336), with gene transduction into RGCs by intravitreal injection of recombinant adeno-associated virus (rAAV). Although the visual reconstruction effects by optogenetic gene transfer, such as channelrhodopsin-2 into RGCs [10] and ON-bipolar cells [3,5,6,8,11], have been shown, interactions between other types of cells in the retinal neural circuits in optogenetic visual restoration have not between well understood. Channelrhodopsin 2 conductance was reported to be 50–250 fS [12], indicating the need for sufficient gene expression to control the membrane potential. In this study, we employed a tetracycline-controllable gene expression system (tet system) [13] in which the amount of gene expression has been much improved (KENGE-tet system) [14], and we established sufficient gene induction in RGCs and amacrine cells simultaneously. To investigate cell type-specific visual restoration effects, channelrhodopsin2(E123T/T159C) was ectopically expressed into these cells by this system.

Then, we revealed that amacrine cells played a role in retinal neuronal circuits via gap

junctions to enhance the optogenetic visual restoration effect.

**Results**

**Gene induction of RGCs and SACs in M4-YC and RGCs in 5B-YC**

We employed two different mouse lines that express the gene encoding the tetracycline

transactivation (tTA) protein under the control of a cell-type-specific promoter, muscarinic

acetylcholine receptor 4 (*Chrm4*)[15] or 5-hydroxytryptamine (5-HT, serotonin) 5B receptor

(*Htr5b*)[14] control region: *Chrm4*-tTA or *Htr5b*-tTA. These mice were further crossed with

another transgenic mouse line containing the yellow Cameleon-Nano 50 (YC) fluorescent

gene connected into the downstream of the tet operator (tetO) promoter [16]. The YC gene

expression was induced only by the presence of tTA protein in the double transgenic mice

(*Chrm4*-tTA::tetO-YC (M4-YC) or *Htr5b* -tTA::tetO-YC (5B-YC)) (Figure S1A, B). The

expression of YC was observed in the double transgenic mouse retina with a fluorescence

microscope. In the M4-YC mouse retina, we identified the expression of YC in RGCs

(Figure 1A-D, Figure S2A-E) and amacrine cells (Figure 1A-D, Figure S1E-F) with *in vivo*

fluorescence microscopy and in sections. In the 5B-YC mouse retina, we identified the

expression of YC in RGCs (Figure 1E-H) and the corneal stromal layer (Figure S2G-M)

with *in vivo* fluorescence microscopy and in sections. In both lines, no expression was found

in displaced amacrine cells, only RGCs were labeled in the ganglion cell layer, and the

percentage of YC-positive cells in RGC marker RBPMS [17]-positive cells was 35.4% (n=5)

in M4-YC and 36.5% (n=5) in 5B-YC from RGCs, which were equivalent (Figure 1I-L, O-

R, Figure S2M-Q). All of the amacrine cell expression in the M4 line was choline

acetyltransferase (ChAT) staining-positive and consisted of starburst amacrine cells (SACs)

(Figure 1M-T, Figure S3 A-L).

As a visual restoration model, the *Chrm4*-tTA and *Htr5b*-tTA line were crossed with tetO-

channelrhodopsin2(E123T/T159C) (tetO-ChR2) mice [18] (Figure S1C). *Chrm4*-tTA::tetO-

ChR2 (M4-ChR2) drove ChR2 expression in both RGCs and amacrine cells and *Htr5b* -

tTA::tetO-ChR2 (5B-ChR2) only in RGCs in the retina. In the retinas of these double

transgenic mice, photoreceptor degeneration was induced by intraperitoneal injection of N-

methyl-N-nitrosourea (MNU) [19]. MNU is an alkylating agent that causes DNA methylation

in the O6 position of guanine, resulting in apoptosis, and it has been widely used to induce

a pharmacological animal model of retinitis pigmentosa (RP). Two weeks after 75 mg/kg

MNU administration into the mice at the age of 8 weeks, the outer nuclear layer containing

photoreceptors was largely absent (Figure S4A, B), and the light-evoked response from

photoreceptors was not detected by electroretinography (ERG) (Figure S4C).

**M4-ChR2 mouse shows higher visual restoration effect.**

To evaluate the function of the channelrhodopsin ectopically induced in the transgenic

mouse retinas, we performed multi-electrode array (MEA) recording, which can record

extracellular potentials of RGCs (Figure S4D). As a result of photoreceptor degeneration

induced with MNU treatment, the control retina without channel-rhodopsin expression

(tetO-ChR2) showed no response from RGCs detected by MEA (Figure 2A). In contrast,

the M4-ChR2 (Figure 2B) and 5B-ChR2 (Figure 2C) retinas showed obvious light-induced

responses. After filtering with the Gaussian function (Figure 2D, E), the maintained

response after the peak was significantly greater in M4-ChR2 mice than in 5B-ChR2 mice

(Figure 2F), indicating that the light-evoked ON response in RGCs could be modified

through the response from amacrine cells.

To investigate whether light reception on the retina is transmitted to the visual cortex, we

then examined visual evoked potentials (VEPs) from the visual cortex (Figure 2G). The

output from the retinal ganglion cells is sent through the axons of the retinal ganglion cells

(optic nerve) to the lateral geniculate nucleus (LGN) of the thalamus, which is a region of

the mesencephalon, from the LGN to the primary visual cortex (V1) in the occipital lobe of

the cerebral cortex. VEPs were not detected in the control tetO-ChR2 mice with MNU

treatment (Figure 2H, I). In contrast, VEPs were observed in both M4-ChR2 and 5B-ChR2

mice treated with MNU (Figure 2H, I). In response to the light stimulus at 4000 cds/m$^2$, the

average of the VEP amplitude in MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice was significantly higher

(143.6 µV; n=12, P=0.03) than in MNU-treated 5B-ChR2 (79.6 mV; n = 12) and the same

level as in the mice without MNU treatment (155 µV; n=4). However, the shapes of the

waveforms were irregular in both models compared to controls, and their physiological roles

are unknown. Thus, there is a limitation in this direct comparison.

To validate the model system, we examined the MEA, ERG and VEP of M4-ChR2 and 5B-

ChR2 in the absence of retinal degeneration (no MNU treatment and no mutation) as well.

As a result of MEA, the peak response was significantly reduced in both lines and was

further significantly reduced with MNU treatment (Figure S4E). A similar trend was

observed for the maintained response, whereas it was maintained in the M4 line (Figure

S4F). This finding suggests that channelrhodopsin gene induction into healthy RGCs

interferes with the physiological retinal light response. In addition, in the control mice, not

only the ON response but also the OFF response was confirmed. In contrast, the OFF

response was significantly lost in the M4 line (Figure S4H). It is known that SACs in the

INL are connected to off bipolar cells [20], which might be related to this change. As a result

of ERG and VEP, both lines tended to have shorter latencies, especially in photopic

examinations (Figure S5E, I, L, O), likely because of the channelrhodopsin response to

strong light [9] and its photoreception in RGCs resulting in short latency [21]. Although the

amplitude of both ERG and VEP tended to be small in the 5B line (Figure S5C, G, M, N),

these measurements were not significant, and there was no significant change in the shape

of the waveforms.

Next, light-dark transition testing (LDT) was performed to investigate whether ectopic

expression of channelrhodopsin in degenerative retinas leads to behavioral changes

according to visual restoration. Rodents tend to stay in dark places according to their visual

function since they are nocturnal and feel uneasy in bright environments (Figure 2J), while

the visually disturbing MNU-treatment (Figure 2K) resulted in almost half of the staying

time in bright and dark places (ratio in bright half at 10 min was closer to 0.5). In contrast,

both the M4-ChR2 and 5B-ChR2 mouse lines with each MNU-treatment showed decreased

staying time in bright places, indicating that visual restoration was confirmed in these

models. Furthermore, M4-ChR2 mice showed significantly higher visual restoration effects

than 5B-ChR2 mice (Figure 2K).

We also examined the optokinetic response (OKR) to investigate whether light receptivity

in the retina restored by ectopic channelrhodopsin expression led to central reflex movement

output. In OKR, a rotating striped pattern was displayed to the head-fixed mice to induce

eye movements, and the velocity was measured to evaluate the integrity of the subcortical

reflex circuitry of the mice (Figure S6A). OKR was not detected in the mice with MNU

administration except for the M4 line (4.80 deg/sec, n=6) (Figure S6B).

This outcome seems to be due to lack of ChR2 expression in SACs, which play a key role

in OKR [22], in the retinas of 5B-ChR2 mice. We also examined *rd1* mice as a genetic animal

model of RP. These mice have a nonsense mutation in the *Pde6b* gene leading to rapid

degeneration of rod, photoreceptors followed by loss of cones [23,24]. We used blind *rd1*

mutation mice at the age of 10-12 weeks for the following experiments. In the cases of *rd1*

mutant mice, no detectable OKR was observed in any combinations with each transgenic

line, including M4-ChR2. To investigate the dissociation of OKR between the MNU-

treatment and *rd1* models, the retinal thickness was compared under the conditions used for

the experiment. As a result, the total retinal thickness of *rd1* mice (78.3 μm; n=9) was

significantly thinner than that of MNU-treated mice (97.2 μm; n=10) evaluated on optical

coherence tomography (OCT) (Figure S6C, D). This outcome was thought to be because

the inner retinal layer was thinner of the *rd1* mouse (Figure S6E). Indeed, the inner nuclear

layer of the *rd1*, *rd1*;5B-ChR2 and *rd1*;M4-ChR2 mice was significantly thinner than that

of the MNU-treated mice (Figure S6F), suggesting that SACs in the inner layer were

degenerated. This result suggests that residual INL thickness and its durability might be

potential limitations of optogenetic gene therapy in inherited retinal disease patients

clinically.

**Acetylcholine and gap junctions were involved in the maintained response.**

The M4-ChR2 mouse line, which showed transgene expression in amacrine cells in addition

to RGCs, showed a higher maintained response and more effective visual restoration (Figure

2) than the 5B-ChR2 mice. Therefore, we investigated the neurocircuit pathway responsible

for the enhanced response due to amacrine cells using neurotransmitter blockers on the MEA

recording. Administration L-2-amino-4-phosphonobutyric acid (L-AP4), which is an

agonist for group III metabotropic glutamate receptors, including mGluR6 working as a

blocker of retinal ON-bipolar cells, did not show significant changes in either MNU-treated

M4-ChR2 (Figure 3A-C) or 5B-ChR2 (Figure 3D-F) retinas, indicating that the

photoresponse was not derived from photoreceptors. In contrast, administration of

mefenamic acid (MFA) or carbenoxolone, an inhibitor of gap junctions, induced a

significant decrease in the maintained response but not the peak of the response in the MNU-

treated M4-ChR2 retina (Figure 3G-I, Figure S7A-C). This change was recovered after

washout and not observed in the 5B-ChR2 retina (Figure S7D-F). SACs release GABA and

acetylcholine [25]. Thus, we also examined an inhibitor of GABA receptor (1,2,5,6-

tetrahydropyridin-4-yl) methylphosphinic acid (TPMPA), and a cholinergic antagonist,

atropine. As a result, no significant change was observed with administration of TPMPA

(Figure S7G-I), but atropine administration showed a similar decrease in maintained

response and in peak response in the MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice (Figure 3J-L). In

addition, to determine whether this change occurred via bipolar cells, an AMPA receptor

antagonist, 6-cyano-7-nitro-quinoxaline-2,3-dione (CNQX), and an NMDA receptor

antagonist, D(-)-2-amino-5-phosphonopentanoic acid (D-AP5), were administered. As a

result, no statistically significant difference was observed, although there was a tendency

toward a decrease in the maintained response (Figure S7J-L). SACs form synapses with

bipolar cells, RGCs, and other amacrine cells [25-27]. It is also known that amacrine cells are

directly connected with RGCs through gap junctions [28,29], regulating neural circuits in the

retina [30]. Therefore, these results indicated that SACs enhanced the maintained response of

RGCs directly or indirectly through acetylcholine and gap junctions.

MEA showed a visual restoration effect induced by ectopic ChR2 expression in the

degenerative retina (Figure 2). These photoresponses obtained from MEA were all ON

responses, as previously reported [10][31][32][33]. Several slow photoresponses obtained from RGCs

were considered to have an ipRGC origin [34], and they were excluded from the data. The

MNU-treated M4-ChR2 retina showed a significant larger response in the maintained time

phase compared to 5B-ChR2. As a result of a neurotransmitter blocking test (Figure 4),

inhibition of acetylcholine and gap junctions decreased the maintained response of only M4-

ChR2 retinas. The difference between M4-ChR2 and 5B-ChR2 was the presence or absence

of ChR2 gene expression in SACs. Therefore, it was suggested that photoresponse from

SACs enhanced the maintained response of RGCs, enhancing the visual restoration effect

via acetylcholine and gap junctions.

**Induction efficiency into SACs tended to affect visual restoration.**

Finally, to investigate its clinical applicability, the effect of SACs on visual restoration was

examined using rAAV2, which is already approved for gene therapy [35]. We injected rAAV2-

CAG-ChR2-tdimer2 intravitreally into *rd1* mice and performed MEA, VEP, and LDT

(Figure 4A, Figure S8A, B). In addition, we counted the number of transfected RGCs and

SACs and analyzed their relevance to visual restoration effects. As a result of

immunohistochemical labeling using RBPMS, the infection efficiency to RGCs was 24%,

which was equivalent to previous reports (21-23%) [10,36,37], and significantly less than those

of our transgenic mice (Figure 4B, C). The efficiency to SACs was 12%, which was also

less than that of transgenic mice (Figure 4D, E). As a result of MEA recording, the peak

response in the rAAV model was equivalent to that of both transgenic lines (Figure S8C),

and the maintained response and its rate were equal to that of the M4 line (Figure S8D, E),

perhaps because the input from various cell types other than SACs is also included in the

rAAV model. This outcome suggests that the increase in the maintained response is not

specific to gene transfer in SACs. Each average of the VEP amplitude in the *rd1*;M4-ChR2,

*rd1*;5B-ChR2, and rAAV-treated *rd1* mice in response to the light stimulus at 4000 cds/m$^2$

was 72.7 µV (n=10), 70.4 µV (n=12) and 32.2 µV (n=12), respectively. These responses

were significantly higher than those in *rd1*;tetO-ChR2 mice (19.1 mV; n=8) but smaller than

those in the 8-week-old wild-type C57BL/6J mice (155 µV; n=4) (Figure 4F, G). There was

no significant difference between *rd1*;5B-ChR2 and *rd1*;M4-ChR2 mice, and the VEPs of

rAAV treated *rd1* mice were smaller than those of them (Figure 4F, G). Even in the LDT

results, the restoration effect of rAAV-treated *rd1* mice tended to be lower than that of

transgenic mice (Figure 4H), perhaps due to its infection efficiency, or the higher maintained

response might not lead directly and simply to better visual restoration. In addition, the

correlation between the infection efficiency of SACs in each rAAV-treated *rd1* mouse and

the visual restoration effect was investigated. The results showed a significant, positive

correlation between the number of transfected SACs in the inner nuclear layer (INL) and

the maintained to peak ratio in MEA (Figure 4I), a positive correlation between the VEP

amplitude (Figure 4J) and a significant, negative correlation between the time spent in the

bright half in LDT (Figure 4K). This outcome suggests that the maintained response in MEA

is derived from SACs and that, clinically, including not only RGCs but also SACs is more

effective for visual restoration. Although there is a limitation because infection efficiency is

a confounding factor, there was no correlation between the number of transfected RGCs in

GCL and the maintained to peak ratio in MEA (Figure S8F), and the correlation of the

number of transfected SACs in the inner nuclear layer (INL) with the VEP amplitude (Figure

4J) and the time spent in the bright half in LDT (Figure 4K) was stronger than that with

infection efficiency into RGCs (Figure S8G, H).

**Discussion**

In this study, we established transgenic mouse lines inducing gene induction in specific

retinal cells using the tet-system (Figure S1). We identified that gene induction occurred in

RGCs and SACs under the control of a muscarinic acetylcholine receptor *Chrm4* promoter,

whereas a serotonin (5-HT) *Htr5b* receptor control region led to induction only in RGCs in

the retina (Figure 2). Among acetylcholine receptors expressed by all types of neurons in

the retina [38–43], the *Chrm4* muscarinic receptor is expressed in RGCs and amacrine cells [38,44].

All of the amacrine cell expression in the M4 line was consisted of type-a SACs (Figure

1M-T, Figure S3 A-L). There are two subytpes of SACs, type-a and type-b (displaced

SACs)[45,46]. This would be the first report of a transgenic line specific to only type-a but not

type-b SACs.The 5-HT *Htr5b* receptor is expressed in rodents but not in humans [47].

Although several types of 5HT receptors are expressed in the mouse retina [48], the retinal

distribution of *Htr5b* receptor has not been previously described to our knowledge. We

found that these gene inductions in both mouse retinas indicated that these strain are useful

for examining the functions of RGCs and SACs.

Accumulating data have shown that the visual restoration strategy induced by optogenetic

genes is a promising therapy for degenerative retinal diseases. Most of the amacrine cells

are inhibitory neurons in the vertebrate retina, which have not been regarded much in the

elementary visual restoration target. The results of this study showed that SACs increase

the maintained response through gap junctions and contribute to enhancing the visual

restoration effect. In particular, since the restoration effect of LDT and OKR was more

significant than that of VEP, it might contribute to sustained behavior and direction

recognition rather than transient response, consistent with the role of the maintained

response in RGCs [49]. Including the results using rAAV, in the current situation, viral

delivery in primates is limited [31], and gene transfer involving amacrine cells, for example,

using ubiquitous promoters, might be more effective in visual restoration than limiting

RGCs in the clinical setting.

**Methods**

**Key Resources Table**

| REAGENT or RESOURCE | SOURCE | IDENTIFIER |
|---|---|---|
| Chemicals, Peptides, and Recombinant Proteins | | |
| N-Nitroso-N-methylurea | Toronto Research Chemicals | M325815 |
| Domitor® (medetomidine hydrochloride) | Zenoac | |
| Antisedan® (atipamezole) | Zenoac | |
| Midazolam Sandoz™ | Sandoz | |
| Vetorphal® (butorphanol) | Meiji Seika Pharma | |
| Ames' Medium | Sigma | A1420 |
| L-AP4 | Abcam | ab120002 |
| Meclofenamic acid sodium salt | Sigma | M4531 |
| TPMPA | TOCRIS | 1040 |
| CNQX | Abcam | ab120044 |
| D-AP5 | Abcam | ab120003 |
| Carbenoxolone | MERCK | C4790 |
| Atropine | MERCK | A0132 |
| DAPI | Life Technologies | D21490 |
| Anti-RBPMS antibody | Abcam | ab194213 |
| Anti-Choline Acetyltransferase Antibody | Abcam | ab114p |
| Anti-VGluT2 | Frontier Institute | VGluT2-Rb-Af720 |
| Anti-Syntaxin antibody | Abcam | ab3265 |
| Anti-Tyrosine Hydroxylase antibody | Abcam | ab112 |
| Anti-Prox1 antibody | AngioBio | 11-002P |

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| pAAV CAG ChR2 E123T T159C 2A tDimer | Addgene | #85399 |
| **Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains** | | |
| Mouse: C3H/HeJJcl | CLEA Japan | |
| Mouse: tetO-YCnano50 | RIKEN BRC | RBRC09550 |
| Mouse: tetO-ChR2 (E123T/T159C) | RIKEN BRC | RBRC05843 |
| Mouse: *Chrm4*-tTA | RIKEN BRC | RBRC09551 |
| Mouse: *Htr5b*-tTA | RIKEN BRC | RBRC05445 |
| **Oligonucleotides** | | |
| Genotyping primer: tet-Foward: CATGAAGCAGCACGACTTCTT | | |
| Genotyping primer: tet-Reverse: TTCTTACTTGTACAGCTCGTCCA | | |
| Genotyping primer: M4-Foward: AAGCACCAAGTTCTCTCCCGTCTT | | |
| Genotyping primer: M4-Reverse: CGGAGTTGATCACCTTGGACTTGT | | |
| Genotyping primer: 5B-Foward: GCTCCAGGAAACCACAATGCCTTT | | |
| Genotyping primer: 5B-Reverse: CGGAGTTGATCACCTTGGACTTGT | | |
| Genotyping primer: *rd1*-Forward: AAGCTAGCTGCAGTAACGCCATTT | | |
| Genotyping primer: wild-Forward: ACCTGCATGTGAACCCAGTATTCTATC | | |
| Genotyping primer: *rd1* wild common-Reverse: CTACAGCCCCTCTCCAAGGTTTATAG | | |

**Animals**

Transgenic mice used for the experiments and their genotyping protocols were generated as

previously reported[14]. Mice homozygous for the retinal degeneration alleles Pde6b$^{rdl}$

(C3H/HeJJcl, *rd1*) and WT C57BL/6J were obtained from CLEA Japan, Inc. Animals were

maintained under 12-h light:12-h-dark conditions. For animals bred in house, littermates of

the same sex were randomized to experimental groups. Mice used for the experiments were

heterozygous for the tTA and tetO genes and homozygous for the *rd1* gene. All of the animal

experiments were conducted in accordance with protocols approved by Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committee of Keio University School of Medicine.

tetO-YC (RBRC09550), tetO-ChR2 (RBRC05843), *Chrm4*-tTA (RBRC09551), and *Htr5b*-

tTA (RBRC05445) are available from RIKEN Bioresource Center in Japan.

Study approval: All of the animal experiments were conducted in accordance with protocols

approved by Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Keio University School of

Medicine (#2808).

**Immunohistochemistry**

The protocol for immunohistochemistry was previously described. The retinas were

incubated in PBS with 1% Triton X-100 and 0.5% Tween 20 for 1 h at room temperature

and in 4% BSA for 1 h at room temperature and then incubated overnight at 4 ˚C with

primary antibodies: RBPMS (1:500, Abcam, Cambridge, UK), ChAT (1:100, Abcam),

VGLUT2 (1:100, Frontier Institute, Hokkaido, Japan), syntaxin (1:100, Abcam), tyrosine

hydroxylase (1:100, Abcam) and Prox1 (1:100, AngioBio, San Diego, CA, USA) in

blocking buffer. Secondary anti-rabbit, mouse and goat IgG, conjugated with Alexa TM488,

TM594 and 633, respectively (1:1000; Molecular Probes), were applied for 1 h at room

temperature. The retinas then were flat mounted, and the sections were mounted on slide

glass.

**Vector production and purification**

pAAV-CAG–ChR2(E123T/T159C)-tdimer2–WPRE (Addgene, Watertown, MA) was used.

Type 2 serotypes of rAAV vectors were prepared using the AAV Helper Free Packaging

System (Cell Biolabs, San Diego, CA, USA). The serotypes were produced in HEK 293

cells using a helper virus-free system and were purified using two $CsCl_2$ density gradients

and titrated by quantitative polymerase chain reaction. Final preparations were dialyzed

against phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and stored at -80°C.

**Virus injection**

The mice were anesthetized with a combination of midazolam, medetomidine and

butorphanol tartrate at doses of 4 mg/kg, 0.75 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg of body weight and placed

on a heating pad that maintained their body temperatures at 35–36°C throughout the

322 experiments. An aperture was made next to the limbus through the sclera with a 30-gauge

323 disposable needle, and a 33-gauge unbeveled blunt-tip needle on a Hamilton syringe was

324 introduced through the scleral opening into the vitreous space for intravitreal injections and

325 introduced through the scleral opening along the scleral interior wall into the subretinal

326 space for subretinal injections. Each eye received 1 µl of vehicle (PBS) or vector at a titer

327 of $2.0 \times 10^{11}$ vg/ml.

329 **Multielectrode array recordings**

330 All of the procedures were performed under dim red light. The mice were anesthetized and

331 euthanized by quick cervical dislocation. Following enucleation, the retina was dissected at

332 room temperature in Ames' medium bubbled with 95% O2/5% CO2 (A 1420; Sigma-

333 Aldrich). The separated retina was placed on a cellulose membrane, and RGC was directed

334 to the electrode and was gently contacted against MEA (MEA2100-Systems; Multi Channel

335 Systems, Reutlingen, Germany) under suction pressure. During the experiment, the retinas

336 were continuously perfused with Ames' medium bubbling at 34 ° C. at a rate of 1-2 ml/min.

337 Recorded signals were collected, amplified, and digitized using MC Rack software (Multi

338 Channel Systems). Retinas were perfused for 30 min in darkness before recording responses.

339 A 470-nm blue LED light at $1.0 \times 10^{16}$ photons·cm$^{-2}$·s$^{-1}$ stimulus was used. L-(+)-2-amino-

4-phosphonobutyric acid (L-AP4, ab120002; Abcam), (1,2,5,6-tetrahydropyridin-4-yl)

methylphosphinic acid (TPMPA, Cat. No. 1040; Tocris Bio-Science), meclofenamic acid

sodium salt (MFA, M4531; Sigma-Aldrich), atropine (A0132; MERCK) and carbenoxolone

(C4790; MERCK) were newly diluted to 20 μM, 20 μM, 100 μM, 20 μM and 100 μM

respectively. Stimulation was presented for 1 seconds at 60-second intervals. Signals were

filtered between 200 Hz (low cutoff) and 20 kHz (high cutoff). A threshold of 40 μV was

used to detect action potentials, and action potentials from individual neurons were

determined via a standard expectation–maximization algorithm using Off-line Sorter

software (Plexon, Dallas, TX, USA). The results were plotted using NeuroExplorer software

(Nex Technologies Colorado Springs, CO, USA). Maintained-to-peak amplitude ratio was

calculated by dividing the maintained response amplitude in maintaining time frame (0.4 to

1.0 seconds after light stimulation) by the peak amplitude (this ratio quantifies the

sustenance of the response).

**ERG analyses**

Scotopic ERGs were recorded according to a previous report [50]. Animals were dark-adapted

for 12 h and prepared under dim red illumination. The mice were anesthetized with a

combination of midazolam, medetomidine and butorphanol tartrate at doses of 4 mg/kg,

0.75 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg of body weight, respectively and were placed on a heating pad that

maintained their body temperature at 35–36°C throughout the experiments. The pupils were

dilated with a mixed solution of 0.5% tropicamide and 0.5% phenylephrine (Mydrin-P;

Santen, Osaka, Japan). The ground electrode was a subcutaneous needle in the tail, and the

reference electrode was placed subcutaneously between the eyes. The active contact lens

electrodes (Mayo, Inazawa, Japan) were placed on the corneas. Recordings were performed

with a PuREC acquisition system (Mayo). Responses were filtered through a bandpass filter

ranging from 0.3 to 500 Hz to yield a- and b-waves. White LED light stimulations of 10.0

log cd-s/m$^2$ were delivered via a Hemisphere LS-100 Stimulator (Mayo).

**VEP analyses**

The measuring electrodes were placed more than one week before the measurement. The

mice were anesthetized with a combination of midazolam, medetomidine and butorphanol

tartrate at doses of 4 mg/kg, 0.75 mg/kg and 5 mg/kg of body weight, respectively. The

animals were placed in a stereotaxic holder. A stainless-steel screw (M1.0×6.0 mm) inserted

through the skull into the both visual cortex (1.5 mm laterally to the midline, 1.5 mm anterior

to the lambda), penetrating the cortex to approximately 1 mm, served as a measuring

electrode.

At the time of the measurement, the mice were anesthetized again with the same doses.

Visual stimuli were generated by a white LED placed 3 cm from the eye. It was stimulated

with 100-ms pulses of white LED 4000 cds/m$^2$ light stimulus intensity. Signals were

acquired and analyzed with a PuREC acquisition system (Mayo). Signals were low-pass

filtered at 300 Hz and averaged over the 60 trials.

**OKR recording system**

Protocols for eye movement recording and visual stimulation were previously described [51,52].

Eye movements were recorded from both eyes of each animal separately. During the

recording, the contralateral eye was covered by aluminum foil. The head of the mouse was

fixed to an experimental steel board by the head-mounted stick for the LIM lens frames.

The reflected images through a hot mirror (43957-J, Edmund) were recorded using an

infrared CCD camera (BS-GV200, Libraly Inc., Tokyo, Japan). The images of the eye

movements were processed and analyzed using software (Move-tr/2D, Libraly Inc., Tokyo,

Japan). The sampling rate of the image was 200 Hz. The center of the pupil was detected by

software. We calculated the speed of the eye movements on two-dimensional images and

converted them to angular speeds using the AL of each eye. The spatial frequency was set

as 0.125 cycles/degree, and the temporal frequency of the visual stimulus was 1.5 Hz. The

motion onset delay (MOD) was set as 333 msec. Continuing the MOD, sinusoidal grating

started to move clockwise in 5 sec. The intervals of visual stimulus were 60 sec. Eye

movements were recorded three times for each experiment to exclude shaking images due

to excessive body movements. Average velocities of the eye movements were calculated in

the slow speed phase of their nystagmus.

**LDT recording**

Mice were tested in a $30 \times 45 \times 30$-cm box, containing equally sized light and dark chambers

connected by a $5 \times 5$-cm opening via which mice could move freely. The bright half of the

box was illuminated from above by a white fluorescent light with intensity of 200 lux

measured at the floor level. The animals were placed in the bright half and movement

recorded (HD Pro Webcam C920, Logitech, Lausanne, Switzerland). A trial lasted 10 min,

and then the testing apparatus was dismantled and cleaned with 70% ethanol. Videos were

analyzed using ANY-maze tracking software and were validated by comparison with

manual analysis. Time spent in the bright half was recorded.

**Preparation of whole-mount samples and cryosections of retinas**

Enucleated eyes were fixed for 20 min in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS and then

dissected as previously described [53]. The obtained tissues were post-fixed overnight in 4%

PFA in PBS and stored in methanol at –20°C. Cryosections of retinas (12 mm) were

prepared as previously described [54], after the eyeballs were immersed overnight in 4% PFA.

Retinal sections were observed using a confocal microscope (LSM710; Carl Zeiss, Jena,

Germany).

**OCT Imaging**

The thickness of the retina was analyzed by an SD-OCT system (Envisu R4310; Leica,

Wetzlar, Germany) tuned for mice. The imaging protocol entailed a 3 mm×3 mm perimeter

square scan sequence producing a single en-face image of the retina through a 50-degrees

field of view from the mouse lens, following mydriasis. The en-face image consisted of 100

B-scan tomograms with each B-scan consisting of 1000 A-scans. The retinal thickness of

150 µm from the optic disc of each quadrant was measured.

**Quantification and Statistical Analysis**

All of the results are expressed as the mean ± SEM. The averaged variables were compared

using the Student's 2-tailed t-test and the Kruskal Wallis one-way ANOVA test. P-values of

less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

**Data and Software Availability**

Raw MEA spike data were sorted offline to identify single units using Offline Sorter

software (version 4.4.0)(Plexon). Spike-sorted data were analyzed with NeuroExplorer 5

software (version 5.115) (Nex Technologies).

**Author Contribution**

Y.K. and T.K. designed the research, wrote the manuscript, and performed the retinal histology, MEA, ERG and VEP recordings, and LDT experiments. K.K. performed AAV production. Y.K. and H.K. performed OKR recording. Y.K. performed data processing and analysis. H.O and T.K. made critical revisions of the manuscript. T.K. supervised the research.

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**Declaration of Interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

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**Figures**

**Figure 1. Gene induction of RGCs and SACs in M4-YC and RGCs in 5B-YC**

In the M4-YC mouse retina, we identified the expression of YC (green) in RGCs and

amacrine cells within sections (A-D). In the 5B-YC mouse retina, we identified the

expression of YC (green) in RGCs in sections (E-H). Coexpression of the RGC marker

RBPMS in flat mounted retinas of M4-YC(I) and 5B-YC(J). Percentage of YC-positive

cells in RBPMS-positive (K) or DAPI-positive cells (L) and RBPMS-positive cells in YC-

positive cells (L) in both lines from confocal flat mounted GCL (n = 3 retinas each). Regions

were chosen in each quadrant, and we obtained RBPMS, DAPI-positive, YC-positive, and

co-labeled cells. Coexpression of the starburst amacrine cell marker ChAT in flat mounted

retinas of M4-YC in INL (M-O) and GCL (Q-S). Percentage of ChAT-positive cells in YC-

positive cells in M4-YC mice from INL (P) and GCL (R) (n = 3 retinas each). Error bars

represent the SEMs. INL, inner nuclear layer; GCL, ganglion cell layer, ONL, outer nuclear

layer.

Scale bar: 50 µm in (E). 100 µm in (B-D), (H), (I), (K), (M), (Q) and (R). 400 µm in (N).

500 µm in (F), (G), (O) and (P).

**Figure 2. M4-ChR2 mouse shows higher visual restoration effect.**

(A-C) Raster plots and peri-stimulus time histogram (PSTH) of light stimulation from

MNU-treated tetO-ChR, M4-ChR2 and 5B-ChR2 mice. Light intensity was 13.6 log

photons/cm$^2$/s, and the duration was 1.0 second. (D, E) The averaged rate histogram after

filtering with the Gaussian function from M4-ChR2 and 5B-ChR2 mice. The gray areas

around the averaged traces represent the SEM. (F) Maintained-to-peak ratio of the spiking

responses recorded. Maintained time frame is 0.4 to 1.0 seconds from light stimulation as

shown in H (n = 7 retinas, 164 cells in MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice, and n = 4 retinas, 127

cells in MNU-treated 5B-ChR2 mice). Error bars represent SEMs. ***p < 0.001. Student's

2-tailed t-test. (G) Schematic image of VEP measurement. (H) Representative VEP traces

from MNU-injected and control mice. (I) The average amplitude of the VEPs in the control

tetO-ChR mice (n = 4), MNU-treated tetO-ChR mice (n = 8), M4-ChR2 mice (n = 14), and

5B-ChR2 mice (n = 12) at 10 weeks of age. It was stimulated with 100-ms pulses of white

LED 4,000 cds/m$^2$ light stimulus intensity. Signals were low-pass filtered at 300 Hz and

averaged over the 60 trials. (J) Schematic image of the LDT. Mice were tested in a 30 × 45

× 30-cm box, containing equally sized bright (200 lx at ground level) and dark chambers

connected by a 5 × 5-cm opening via, across which the mice could move freely. Visible

mice feel uneasy in bright places, so staying time in the bright half gets shorter.   (K) % time

in bright half at 10 min of control (tetO-ChR2 mice) (n = 4), MNU-injected tetO-ChR2 mice

(n = 8), MNU injected M4-ChR2 mice (n = 15), and MNU-injected 5B-ChR2 mice (n = 8)

measured from LDT. All error bars represent the SEMs. $*p < 0.05$, $**p < 0.01$, $***p < 0.001$.

One-way ANOVA testing.

 **Figure 3. Acetylcholine and gap junctions were involved in the maintained response.**

(A, D, G, J) Mean ± SEM of exemplar cell response firing rate recorded during normal

Ames' medium superfusion (left), in synaptic block (middle), and after washout (right).

MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice with L-AP4 block (n = 3 retinas, 47 cells) (A), MNU-treated

5B-ChR2 mice with L-AP4 block (n = 3 retinas, 45 cells) (D), MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice

with MFA block (n = 3 retinas, 85 cells) (G), MNU-treated M4-ChR2 mice with atropine

block (n = 3 retinas, 33 cells) (J). The gray areas around the averaged traces represent the

SEM. (B, C, E, F, H, I, K, L) Averaged normalized peak firing rate and maintained rate.

Maintained time frame is 0.4 to 1.0 seconds from light stimulation. Light intensity was 13.6

log photons/cm$^2$/s.

All error bars represent the SEM. ***$p < 0.001$. One-way ANOVA and Tukey's test.

**Figure 4. Induction efficiency into SACs tended to affect visual restoration.**

(A) The rAAV2–CAG-ChR2–tdimer2–WPRE expression cassette: ITR, inverted

terminal repeat; WPRE, woodchuck hepatitis virus posttranscriptional regulatory

element. (B-E) Coexpression of the RGC marker RBPMS (B) and starburst amacrine

cell marker ChAT (D) and tdimer2 in flat mounted retinas of rAAV2–CAG–tdimer2–

WPRE treated retinas in *rd1* mice. (C, E) Percentage of YC-positive cells in M4-YC

and 5B-YC mice and tdimer2-positive cells in rAAV-treated mice in RBPMS-positive

(C) or ChAT-positive cells (E) from confocal flat mounted retina (n = 3 retinas each).

Regions were chosen in each quadrant, and we obtained RBPMS, ChAT-positive,

YC/tdimer2-positive, and co-labeled cells. (F, G) Average VEP traces (F) and

quantification of its amplitudes (G) from control (tetO-ChR2) (n = 3), *rd1*::tetO-ChR2

(n = 6), *rd1*;M4-ChR2 (n = 12), *rd1*;5B-ChR2 (n = 12) and rAAV treated *rd1*::tetO-

ChR2 mice (n = 12) at 10 weeks of age. It was stimulated with 100-ms pulses of white

LED 4,000 cds/m$^2$ light stimulus intensity. Signals were low-pass filtered at 300 Hz and

averaged over the 60 trials. (H) % time in bright half at 10 min in control (tetO-ChR2)

(n = 3), *rd1*::tetO-ChR2 (n = 6), *rd1*;M4-ChR2 (n = 12), *rd1*;5B-ChR2 (n = 12) and

rAAV-treated *rd1*::tetO-ChR2 mice (n = 12) measured from LDT. (I-K) Correlation

between transfection efficiency into SACs (tdimer2-positive cells/ChAT-positive cells

in INL) and maintained to peak rate (I) (n = 24), VEP amplitude (J) (n = 24) and % time

in bright half in LDT (K) (n = 12).

All error bars represent the SEMs. INL, inner nuclear layer; GCL, ganglion cell layer.

Scale bars, 50 μm in (B), (D), n.s.: not significant, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

unpaired t-test (E),Games-Howell test (C, G, H), Pearson's correlation coefficient (I-K).