Control of dynamic cell behaviors during angiogenesis and

anastomosis by Rasip 1

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Abstract

Organ morphogenesis is driven by a wealth of tightly orchestrated cellular behaviors, which ensure proper organ assembly and function. Many of these cell activities involve cell-cell interactions and remodeling of the F-actin cytoskeleton. Here, we analyze the requirement for Rasip1 (Ras-interacting protein 1), an endothelial-specific regulator of junctional dynamics, during blood vessel formation. Phenotype analysis of *rasip1* mutants in zebrafish embryos reveal distinct requirements for Rasip1 during sprouting angiogenesis, vascular anastomosis and lumen formation. During angiogenic sprouting, Rasip1 is required for efficient cell pairing, which is essential for multicellular tube formation. High-resolution time-lapse analyses show that these cell pairing defects are caused by a destabilization of tricellular junctions suggesting that tri-cellular junctions may serve as a counterfort to tether sprouting endothelial cells during morphogenetic cell rearrangements. During anastomosis, Rasip1 is required to establish a stable apical membrane compartment; *rasip1* mutants display ectopic, reticulated junctions and the apical compartment is frequently collapsed. Loss of Ccm1 and Heg1 function leads to junctional defects similar to those seen in *rasip1* mutants. Analysis of *radil-b* single and *rasip1/radil-b* double mutants reveal distinct and overlapping functions of both proteins. While Rasip1 and Radil-b have similar functions during angiogenic sprouting, the junction formation during anastomosis may primarily depend on Rasip1.

Keywords

Zebrafish, Endothelial cells, Angiogenesis, Anastomosis, VE-cadherin, Rasip1

Introduction

The cardiovascular system is the first organ to become functional during embryonic development. The generation of vascular networks is essential for developmental patterning, growth and survival of the vertebrate embryo. As the embryo grows, the vasculature adjusts to the increasing demand of nutrients and oxygen by an expansion of the vasculature tree via sprouting angiogenesis, vascular remodeling and adaptation of blood vessel diameter. Vascular morphogenesis is driven by a wealth of dynamic cellular behaviors, which are regulated by molecular as well as physical cues, and are characterized by an extraordinary plasticity (Adams and Alitalo, 2007; Baeyens et al., 2016; Duran et al., 2017). At the cellular level, blood vessel morphogenesis and remodeling are accomplished by endothelial cell behaviors including cell migration, cell rearrangement and cell shape changes (Betz et al., 2016). This repertoire of dynamic behaviors allows endothelial cells to rapidly respond to different contextual cues, for example during angiogenic sprouting, anastomosis, pruning, diapedesis or regeneration.

Previous studies have shown that vascular tube formation requires extensive and diverse cell shape changes and that these changes can be driven by junctional remodeling as well as dynamic regulation of the cortical actin cytoskeleton (Gebala et al., 2016; Paatero et al., 2018; Phng et al., 2015; Sauteur et al., 2014). Junctional remodeling is essential for cell rearrangements, which drive multicellular tube formation. Enlargement of the luminal space, on the other hand, requires apical membrane invagination (Barry et al., 2016; StriliC et al., 2009). During anastomosis, the apical membrane can invaginate through the entire cell leading to the formation of a unicellular tube (Lenard et al., 2013).

Junctional remodeling and membrane invagination rely on the dynamic regulation of

the F-actin cytoskeleton at the endothelial cell junction and apical cortex, respectively.

Small GTPases of the Rho family, including Cdc42, Rac1 and RhoA are essential

regulators of F-actin dynamics and have been shown to play critical roles during blood

vessel formation *in vitro* and *in vivo* (reviewed by (Barlow and Cleaver, 2019). In the

vasculature, these GTPases are partially regulated by the adaptor protein Rasip1.

Rasip1 has been shown to promote Rac1 and Cdc42 activity, whereas it inhibits RhoA

activity by binding to the GTPase activating protein Arhgap29 (Barry et al., 2016; Xu

et al., 2011). Ablation of Rasip1 in mice and knock-down of *rasip1* zebrafish cause

severe vascular defects (Wilson et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2011). During vasculogenesis,

Rasip1 is required for the lumenization of the dorsal aorta, in particular for the clearing

of apical membrane compartments from junctional proteins and for the opening of the

vascular lumen between endothelial cells (Barry et al., 2016). However, the role of

Rasip1 during sprouting angiogenesis and anastomosis has not been studied in detail.

To gain more insight into the cellular and molecular mechanisms of vascular tube

formation during angiogenesis, we have generated loss-of-function alleles in the

zebrafish *rasip1* gene and performed high-resolution time-lapse imaging to observe

junctional dynamics during sprouting angiogenesis and anastomosis. Loss of *rasip1*

causes multiple vascular defects, with respect to angiogenic sprouting, including

defects in cell proliferation, junctional stability and lumen formation. Furthermore,

analyses of *radil-b* and *rasip1;radilb* double mutants reveal partly redundant roles for

the two proteins. Lastly, knock-down of *ccm1* and *heg1* phenocopies the apical

junctional defects seen in *rasip1*, suggesting a functional interaction between the

proteins during blood vessel formation.

Results

Loss of Rasip1 function causes broad vascular defects

To investigate the role of Rasip1 in vascular morphogenesis we employed

CRISPR/Cas9 technology to generate several mutant alleles, namely *rasip1^{ubs23}*,

rasip1^{ubs24} and *rasip1^{ubs28}*, respectively (S-Figure 1). The *rasip1^{ubs28}* allele comprises

a deletion of about 35kb including the *rasip1* coding region from exon 3 to 16, encoding

a severely truncated protein lacking the Ras-association, Forkhead-association and

Dilute domains (Figure 1a). Since the truncated protein lacks all the conserved

domains, we consider *rasip1^{ubs28}* to be a null-allele and focused our studies on the

analysis of this mutant.

Homozygous *rasip1* mutants displayed hemorrhages and vascular instability in the

cranial vasculature at 3 days of development (Figure 1b,c). Furthermore, we observed

transient pericardial edema between 3 and 5 dpf (Figure 1d), which usually

disappeared during larval development. In the trunk, *rasip1* mutants showed reduced

blood flow, which correlated with irregular and generally reduced diameter of the

dorsal aorta (DA) and intersegmental vessels (ISVs) (Figure 1e-g). These differences

were transient and by 5 dpf the average vessel diameter had recovered to normal size.

Despite these severe defects, homozygous *rasip1* mutants recovered and about 30%

of them developed to fertility.

Reduced motility and proliferation during angiogenic sprouting in *rasip1*

mutants

To find out whether the loss of *rasip1* may affect dynamic cell behaviors, we performed

time-lapse analyses, concentrating on the developing ISVs. ISVs sprouts emerge from

the DA at about 22-24 hpf and extend towards the dorsal side of the embryo. In wild-type embryos, they reach the dorsal part of the neural tube by 28 hpf and initiate formation of the dorsal longitudinal anastomotic vessel (DLAV) (Lawson and Weinstein, 2002). In our time-lapse movies we observed that by 30 hpf almost all sprouts in the trunk region had completed dorsal sprouting and engaged in contact with neighboring sprouts (S-Figure 2a, b). In contrast, ISV sprouting in *rasip1* mutants appeared sluggish and 25% of sprouts were incomplete by 30 hpf (S-Figure 2a,b). To see whether stunted outgrowth was reflected by a difference in the number of endothelial cells contributing to ISV sprouts, we counted nuclei within each sprout at 30 hpf (S-Figure 2c). In wild-type and *rasip1* mutants, the number ISV nuclei was quite variable ranging between one and five. However, we observed a clear enrichment of ISVs containing one or two nuclei in mutants when compared to wild-type, which contained three to four nuclei. To differentiate whether this diminished cell number was caused either by reduced recruitment or by proliferation defects of endothelial cells, we tracked endothelial cell nuclei during ISV formation (S-Figure 2d-g). In wild-type siblings, we observed that two cells migrated from the DA into the sprout, undergoing one round of division each thus giving rise to an ISV consisting of four cells (S-Figure 2e); ISVs comprising three cells were usually formed by two migrating cells and a single cell division (S-Figure 2f). In *rasip1* mutants we rarely observed cell divisions within the sprouts (S-Figure 2d,g). Instead, most cells in the sprout originated from the DA and occasionally we observed three cells migrating into the sprout (Figure 2f). Hence, these results show that proliferation in sprouting endothelial cells is reduced in *rasip1* mutants and suggest that paucity of cell number may partially be compensated by the recruitment of additional cells into the sprout.

Instability of tricellular junctions inhibits formation of multicellular tubes

We next examined whether loss of *rasip1* affects angiogenic tube formation. In wild-type embryos, the multicellular architecture of ISVs tubes is established via concerted migratory and proliferative activities of endothelial cells. More specifically, the multicellular configuration is driven by junctional rearrangements along the vessel axis, which leads to effective cell pairing and thus multicellularity.

Since multicellular tubes are characterized and can be recognized by continuous junctions along the blood vessel axis (Blum et al., 2008), we used a *ve-cad:ve-cad-Venus* reporter (Lagendijk et al., 2017) to follow the dynamics of endothelial junctions during ISV formation. In wild-type siblings, cell junctions elongated and spanned the entire extend of the ISV giving rise to multicellular tubes by 48 hpf (Figure 2a,b,f). Notably, adherens junctions maintained the continuity of the ISVs with the DA, where they formed vertices or tri-cellular junctions (Figure 2a, white arrowheads). *rasip1* mutants showed a clear delay in multicellular tube formation (Figure 2c) and at 48 hpf – on average – about 40% of ISVs had not achieved a multicellular configuration (Figure 2b). Moreover, time-lapse analysis of VE-cad-Venus showed defects in junctional development (Figure 2a). Specifically, at the ventral base of the sprout, junctions that were normally tethered to the DA in wild-type embryos, lost this attachment and the junctional ring was "released" in mutant embryos (Figure 2a, yellow arrowheads,d). This detachment resulted in one of the stalk cells moving up into the DLAV leaving a single cell spanning the distance between the DA and the DLAV (Figure 2a,e,f). These results indicate that junctional interconnections at the base of the sprout are critical for cell intercalation to occur during multicellular tube formation. Thus, the loss of these connections in *rasip1* mutant prevents cell pairing

167 and results in unicellular ISVs and consequently a defect in the cord hollowing process

168 underlying multicellular tube formation.

170 **Defects in junctional dynamics during blood vessel anastomosis**

171 The growth and interconnection of vascular networks requires angiogenic sprouting

172 as well as the interconnection of all sprout by the process of anastomosis. At the

173 cellular level, anastomosis occurs in a quite stereotyped fashion (reviewed by (Betz et

174 al., 2016). Neighboring sprouts initiate contact via tip cell filopodia and form a

175 junctional ring which surrounds apically polarized membrane. Junctional ring and

176 apical membrane formation in both of the contacting cells leads to the formation of a

177 luminal pocket, which is later connected to the lumen of the nascent vessel. The

178 process of anastomosis in zebrafish serves as a paradigm to study the cell biology of

179 blood vessel formation and includes processes such as apical polarization, junctional

180 rearrangements and lumen formation, which occur within a 4 to 6 hours (Herwig et al.,

181 2011). To assess the role of Rasip1 during anastomosis, we compared the dynamics

182 of junctional reporters such as VE-cad-Venus (Figure 3a) and Pecam-EGFP (S-Figure

183 3) in wild-type and mutant embryos. Time-lapse analyses revealed two different

184 defects in *rasip1* mutants during junctional ring formation. In about 53% of

185 anastomosis events (Figure 3a) we observed ectopic accumulation of VE-cadherin-

186 Venus or Pecam-EGFP (S-Figure 3) within the junctional ring, revealing a defect in

187 relocating these junctional proteins from the apical compartment to cell junctions.

188 Alternatively, in about 34% of cases, the anastomotic ring (Figure 3c,e,f) elongated

189 along the blood vessel axis but failed to maintain a lateral axis, leading to a collapsed

190 junctional ring.

The described defects were confirmed by immunofluorescent analysis of the junctional proteins VE-cad, ZO-1 (tight junction protein 1, Tjp1) and Esama (endothelial-selective adhesion molecule a) (Figure 3d-e). In *rasip1* mutants VE-cad, Zo-1 as well as Esama colocalized and formed reticulated junctions within the apical compartment. Together, these observations indicate that Rasip1 plays a crucial role in the dynamic re-localization of junctional components during *de novo* junction and lumen formation.

***rasip1* mutants display transient intracellular luminal pockets**

As shown above *rasip1* mutant embryos display reduced vessel diameter and luminal defects (Figure 1e-g). These luminal defects affect the onset of blood flow in the ISVs (Figure 4a, yellow arrowhead). We observed that initially unlumenized ISVs remained unlumenized at least through day 4 of development (96 hpf) (Figure 4b). Moreover, in some instances we observed that initially lumenized blood carrying ISVs collapsed in subsequent stages (up to 96 hpf), indicating a role for Rasip1 in lumen maintenance (Figure 4b,c). Thus, although luminal defects can be attributed to the inability of endothelial cells to rearrange into a multicellular configuration (Figures 2 and 3), the above observations suggest an additional defect in the formation or maintenance of a continuous luminal compartment. This notion is supported by time-lapse analysis of ISV and DLAV formation during lumen formation (Figure 5a). The timing of lumen formation in the ISV is variable but usually starts between 30 and 32 hpf. In wild-type embryos we observed that upon initiation, continuous lumens were formed within 30 minutes (Figure 5a). In *rasip1* mutants, lumen formation was delayed and discontinuous. Instead, we often observed luminal pockets in the dorsal aspects of the ISV (Figure 5a, yellow arrowheads, S-Figure 5d). We surmised that luminal pockets

could arise in three different ways (Figure 5b) – either (1) by a collapse of a previously

patent tube, (2) by a local cord hollowing event, which failed to interconnect with other

luminal pockets or (3) by the formation of large intracellular vacuolar structures, which

failed to fuse with luminal membrane.

To differentiate between these scenarios, we performed a series of experiments. To

test whether luminal pockets may arise by lumen collapse, we performed

microangiography using a fluorescent tracer dye in 28 to 30 hpf embryos (Figure 5c).

Upon intravascular injection, the entire patent vasculature was labelled by quantum

dots. In *rasip1* mutants, however, we observed that although the base of the ISV was

positive for quantum dots, local luminal pockets in the DLAV were negative (Figure 5c,

yellow arrowheads). This strongly argues that luminal pockets in *rasip1* mutants arise

locally and do not represent luminal remainders formed by lumen collapse.

We next wanted to check whether luminal pockets represented intra- or extracellular

compartments. Extracellular luminal compartments arise between cells in a process

called cord hollowing, whereas intracellular lumens are thought to form by vacuolation

(Davis et al., 2011). During anastomosis in zebrafish embryos, cord hollowing

generates luminal pockets form as transient structures at the interface between

contacting tip cells (Blum et al., 2008). This interface is formed by a ring-shaped

junction, which surrounds an apical compartment of both tip cells (Herwig et al., 2011).

Thus, these extracellular pockets are demarcated by junctional rings, while

intracellular pockets should be outside of these rings. To test these possibilities, we

examined lumen formation in *rasip1* mutants expressing VE-cad-Venus and found that

they were located outside the junctional ring (Figure 5d (00:12)), appearing as

vesicular structures within the endothelial cytoplasm. Lateron (Figure 5d (01:32)) these

intracellular lumens were incorporated into the area covered by the junctional ring,

therefore representing transient structures. Taken together, these findings show that

loss of Rasip1 function leads to a transient accumulation of intracellular vesicles, which

later on merge into the anastomotic compartment suggesting that Rasip1 may be

critical for normal vesicle transport or vesicle fusion during cord hollowing process,

which occurs during anastomosis.

Rasip1 localizes to apical membranes and endothelial cell junctions

Our mutant analyses indicate a requirement for Rasip1 in junction formation and

remodeling, as well as in lumen formation and maintenance. To gain a better

understanding of how Rasip1 may be involved in these processes, we generated an

antibody against zebrafish Rasip1 to discern the subcellular localization of the protein

during angiogenesis. Immunofluorescent analysis confirmed endothelial expression of

Rasip1 in zebrafish embryos (S-Figure 4). Notably, Rasip1 protein levels appeared

dynamically regulated. During vasculogenesis, until the emergence of intersegmental

sprouts, Rasip1 was detected at high levels in the dorsal aorta (S-Figure 4a,b, yellow

arrowheads). In contrast, Rasip1 protein was highly expressed in sprouting ISVs while

it became downregulated in the dorsal aorta (S-Figure 4c, yellow bars), supporting the

notion that Rasip1 primarily functions during blood vessel morphogenesis rather than

during vessel maintenance. High-resolution imaging revealed specific subcellular

localization during blood vessel formation. In the context of anastomosis, three

different phases could be discerned. First, during contact formation (30 hpf), we found

that Rasip1 is absent from newly formed contacts (Figure 6a, yellow arrowheads).

However, Rasip1 was observed colocalizing with large junctional patches prior to

discernable formation of apical compartments. During later stages of anastomosis,

when the anastomotic ring had formed, Rasip1 was restricted to the apical

compartment within the junctional ring with no detectable Rasip1 at the junction

(Figure 6b, yellow arrowheads). However, shortly later - during the establishment of

the DLAV (36 hpf) and later after full development of angiogenic vessels (48 hpf) - ,

we found that Rasip1 also localized to endothelial cell junctions (Figure 6c, white

arrowheads). Taken together, these studies show that Rasip1 dynamically distributes

during different phases of blood vessel formation. In particular, the dynamic subcellular

distribution to apical membrane compartments and endothelial cell junctions suggests

a sequential requirement for Rasip1 during apical compartment formation and

junctional remodeling, respectively.

Because of the early localization of Rasip1 to the apical membrane, we wanted to test

whether loss of Rasip1 function may affect apical polarization during blood vessel

formation. To this end, we generated a transgenic reporter (*Tg(EGFP-podxl)[ubs29]*),

which labels the apical membrane compartment (S-Figure 5a). At 48 hpf, we observed

normal luminal localization of EGFP-Podxl in *rasip1* mutants (S-Figure 5b). In ISVs

that displayed luminal defects, we observed slightly irregular distribution of EGFP-

Podxl in affected areas (enlarged insets in S-Figure 5b). These observations suggest

that in spite of its apical localization, Rasip1 is not required for apical polarization in

endothelial cells.

Overlapping requirement of Rasip1 and Radil-b in blood vessel formation

Rasip1 protein has been shown to be an effector protein of the small GTPase Rap1

(Gingras et al., 2016). Protein binding studies have shown that Rasip1 can form

multimeric complexes consisting of Rap1, Rasip1, Radil (Ras-associating-dilute-

domain) and the GTPase-activating protein Arhgap29 (Post et al., 2013). Furthermore,

it has been shown that the core of these complexes can be formed by a Rasip1

homodimer or a Rasip1/Radil heterodimer (de Kreuk et al., 2016), indicating partly

overlapping functions of these proteins in endothelial cells. Rasip1 and Radil are

closely related proteins (S-Figure 6a) sharing several protein interaction domains such

as a Ras association (RA) domain conferring binding to Rap1, and a forkhead

association (FHA) domain binding the transmembrane receptor Heg1. An additional

PDZ domain is unique to Radil and is thought to interact with the GTPase-activating

protein Arhgap29 (Post et al., 2013). Radil function in endothelial cells has, so far, only

been addressed in cell culture experiments, which established its above-mentioned

protein interactions and indicated a role of Radil in endothelial barrier maintenance

and the regulation of endothelial cell adhesion (de Kreuk et al., 2016; Pannekoek et

al., 2014). Thus, we wanted to determine the role of Radil during blood vessel

morphogenesis *in vivo* and compare its requirement to that of Rasip1. The zebrafish

genome contains three *radil* paralogues, *radil-a,-b* and *-c*, respectively (S-Figure 6a).

Whole-mount in situ analysis revealed that of the three paralogues, only *radil-b* was

expressed specifically in endothelial cells (data not shown). Therefore, we analyzed

blood vessel formation in *radilb*^{sa20161} mutants, which carry a nonsense mutation

(Tyr129 → STOP) near the N-terminus of the protein (S-Figure 6b).

radil-b mutants were homozygous viable and could be raised to fertility. Nevertheless,

they exhibited several vascular defects similar to *rasip1* mutants, including cerebral

hemorrhages (S-Figure 6c), isolated luminal pockets (S-Figure 6d), reduction of blood

flow (S-Figure 6e) and retarded sprouting of ISVs (data not shown), supporting the

notion that both proteins are involved in the same molecular pathways. In contrast,

radil-b mutants did not phenocopy the junctional re-localization defect observed in

rasip1 mutants during anastomosis (Figure 7a), suggesting that the proteins may also

have unique functions. *radil-b* mutants generally exhibited milder defects (S-Figure 6f,

g), in particular with respect to cellular architecture compared to single *rasip1* mutants

and *rasip1;radil-b* double mutants (Figure 7b). Furthermore, *rasip1;radil-b* double

mutants showed stronger sprouting and lumen formation defects than either single

mutant (Figure 7, S-Figure 6h), suggesting that while both proteins are required in this

process, they likely act in a partially redundant manner.

Knock-down of *ccm1* and *heg1* phenocopies aspects of the *rasip1* mutant

The Rasip1/Radil/Rap1 complex can bind via the FHA domain to the orphan

transmembrane receptor Heg1 (Gingras et al., 2016). This interaction has been shown

to tether Rasip1 to endothelial cell junctions (Post et al., 2013). To address the

relevance of this interaction during ISV morphogenesis, we analyzed *heg1* morphants

in order to test whether loss of Heg1 function showed any *rasip1*-like vascular

phenotypes. We also examined the phenotypes of *ccm1* morphants. Ccm1 binds to

Heg1 independently of Rasip1 (Gingras et al., 2012), and thus might indirectly

influence Rasip1 function. *ccm1* and *heg1* morphants exhibited blood vessel and heart

dilations as previously published (S-Figure 7a) (Hogan et al., 2008; Kleaveland et al.,

2009; Stainier et al., 1996). We consistently observed hemorrhages, which were less

pronounced than in *rasip1* mutants (Figure 8a and S-Figure 7b). However, similar to

rasip1 mutants, ISV sprouting and development appeared to be delayed (Figure 8b).

To assess the role of Heg1 and Ccm1 in junctional rearrangements, we analyzed

endothelial cell junctions in transgenic VE-cad-Venus and Pecam1-EGFP reporter

background (S-Figure 7e). Consistent with earlier reports (Hogan et al., 2008;

Kleaveland et al., 2009), knock-down of *ccm1* or *heg1* did not cause obvious junctional

defects in the dorsal aorta. However, we observed detachment of junctions and

impaired cell rearrangements in sprouting ISVs (S-Figure 7c, d). In addition, it appeared that Pecam-EGFP as well as VE-cad-Venus were not entirely cleared from apical compartments during the formation of the DLAV.

To verify these observations, we performed immunofluorescent analyses to determine whether endogenous VE-cadherin protein was cleared from the apical membrane compartment in *heg1* and *ccm1* morphants. In both conditions, VE-cadherin accumulated in the apical compartment embedded within the junctional rings – similar to what we observed of *rasip1* mutants (Figure 8c). *In vivo* imaging of the junctions in *ccm1* or *heg1* knock-down embryos showed a failure of multicellular vessel formation (Figure 8d). Taken together, these findings show that *ccm1* and *heg1* loss-of-function phenocopy defined aspects of *rasip1* mutants during critical aspects of blood vessel formation during sprouting angiogenesis and anastomosis.

Discussion

Small GTPases of the Rho family play a key role in the regulation of cellular activities during blood vessel formation. For example, they serve as molecular switches to control cytoskeletal dynamics, cell adhesion and junction assembly during angiogenic sprouting and lumen formation (Barlow and Cleaver, 2019). Rasip1 has been described as an effector protein of small GTPase signaling during blood vessel formation and maintenance (Koo et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2011). Rasip1 protein contains multiple protein binding domains and has been shown to directly interact with its paralogue Radil, the small GTPase Rap1 and the transmembrane protein Heg1 (de Kreuk et al., 2016; Gingras et al., 2016; Wilson et al., 2013). By further association with proteins such as Arhgap29 and Ccm1, these proteins control cortical actomyosin tension and endothelial junction formation and

dynamics (Post et al., 2015) and reviewed by (Lampugnani et al., 2017; Wilson and

Ye, 2014). Analyses of mutant mouse embryos have shown that Rasip1 is required

for proper lumen formation and maintenance in blood and lymphatic vessels (Koo et

al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018; Wilson et al., 2013). During vasculogenesis, Rasip1 is

required for the establishment of the nascent apical compartment and subsequently

for lumen expansion, presumably mediated by regulating Cdc42 and RhoA,

respectively (Barry et al., 2016).

Multiple vascular defects in zebrafish *rasip1* mutants

In order to gain a better understanding of how morphogenetic cell behaviors are

controlled by Rasip1, we generated loss-of-function mutants in the zebrafish *rasip1*

gene and analyzed these mutants focusing on cellular and junctional dynamics during

angiogenic sprouting and anastomosis. Overall, our findings are in agreement with

previously published vascular defects in mouse development, but also provide novel

insights into the regulation of junctional dynamics during angiogenic sprouting and

lumen formation.

rasip1 mutants display numerous vascular defects, including cranial hemorrhage,

reduced blood circulation and reduced diameter of the dorsal aorta, consistent with

previously published *rasip1* knockdown experiments in zebrafish (Wilson et al., 2013).

Furthermore, we observe delayed angiogenic sprouting, as well as abnormalities in

lumen formation as well as impaired cell rearrangements, junctional dynamics and

stability. Despite this wide range of defects, the mutant phenotypes are consistent with

defects in the control of F-actin and junctional dynamics. The phenotypes of *rasip1*

mutants during vascular development are, however, quite distinct from those seen in

ve-cad (cdh5) mutants (Sauteur et al., 2014) indicating that Rasip1 is regulating

endothelial activities beyond cell junctions.

Dynamic regulation of Rasip1 expression and subcellular localization

Endothelial-specific expression of Rasip1 has been reported in several vertebrate

species including mouse, *Xenopus* and zebrafish, and Rasip1 appears to be

expressed in the entire embryonic vasculature (Wilson et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2009). In

contrast to its broad endothelial transcription, the distribution of Rasip1 protein

appears to highly regulated, with respect to the overall level and its subcellular

localization. During vasculogenesis, Rasip1 is readily detected at high levels in the

dorsal aorta, whereas at later stages expression is somewhat reduced. This

downregulation of Rasip1 in the dorsal aorta coincides with the commencement of

blood flow, suggesting that Rasip1 protein levels and localization may be controlled by

shear stress. The downregulation of Rasip1 protein in more mature vessels suggests

an essential role during blood vessel morphogenesis. In agreement with this, Rasip1

does not appear to be required in established blood or lymphatic vessels (Koo et al.,

2016; Liu et al., 2018).

During ISV sprouting we observe a shift of Rasip1 from the apical membrane

compartment during the early stages to higher levels at cell junctions during the later

stages of vascular tube formation. The early apical localization of Rasip1 is in

agreement with a previously proposed role in early apical-basal polarization, likely

upstream of Cdc42 (Barry et al., 2016). It will be important to determine how this

differential localization is accomplished or to what extend it reflects different functions

of Rasip1 during tubulogenesis. In *Drosophila*, it has been shown that apical

localization of canoe (the ortholog of vertebrate *afadin* and a homologue of rasip1) is

dependent on Rap1 (Bonello et al., 2018). Therefore, Rap1 is a putative candidate to

localize Rasip1 to apical membrane during vertebrate angiogenesis.

A role for Rasip1 in angiogenic sprouting and blood vessel assembly

Sprouting angiogenesis is accomplished by concerted endothelial cell dynamics

including cell migration, rearrangement, elongation and proliferation, all of which are

affected by the loss Rasip1 function. *rasip1* mutant ISVs contain fewer cells than wild-

type ISV, which reflects a reduced rate of cell proliferation during sprouting.

Furthermore, we observe a frequent failure of *rasip1* mutant ISVs to form multicellular

tubes. Formation of multicellular ISVs does not depend of the number of cells present

in the sprout (Angulo-Urarte et al., 2018) but rather relies on cell rearrangements

driven by junctional remodeling (Sauteur et al., 2014). For example, loss of VE-cad

prevents junction elongation and renders endothelial cells unable to move over each

other and effectively pair to form a multicellular tube (Paatero et al., 2018; Sauteur et

al., 2014). In *rasip1* mutants, however, the defect in cell pairing is caused by junctional

detachments. When we imaged VE-cad dynamics during ISV sprouting in wild-type

embryos, we found that, in many cases, two stalk cells maintain contact to the dorsal

aorta. In *rasip1* mutant sprouts, we observed that one of these cells detached from the

dorsal aorta and "retracted" to the dorsal part of the ISV, leaving the remaining cell

unpaired. Stalk cell detachment appears to occur at tri-cellular junctions indicating that

these junctions may be important as an anchor point to resist mechanical forces

occuring during cell rearrangements. A study performed in MDCK cells has shown that

Afadin accumulates at tri-cellular junctions in response to tension (Choi et al., 2016).

This finding supports the interesting notion that Rasip1 may play a specific role in

reinforcing tri-cellular junctions during sprouting angiogenesis.

Rasip1 is required for lumen patency

Lumen formation in *rasip1* mutants is delayed and ISVs as well as the dorsal aorta show reduced vessel diameters during early embryonic development. At 48 hpf, we observed that about 50% of the ISVs were not patent and this defect was maintained at least through day 4 of development. Defects in luminal patency may have multiple causes. First, as described above, junctional detachment can prevent endothelial cell pairing and thus multicellular tube formation. Second, our examinations of the apical membrane using a Podxl-EGFP and Cherry-CAAX transgenic markers revealed an irregular shape of the apical membrane, suggesting luminal collapse. This observation agrees with earlier findings that Rasip1 regulates cortical actin tension during lumen opening of the dorsal aorta in mouse (Barry et al., 2016).

During the formation of the DLAV formation, we also observed luminal pockets, which did not label by microangiography and appeared outside of cell junctions, indicating that these lumens are intracellular and consist of large vesicles or vacuolar structures. Rasip1 has been shown to associate with early Rab5-positive and recycling Rab8-positive endosomes (Barry et al., 2016) and Rab8 has been implicated in the transport of Podocalyxin to the apical membrane in a Cdc42 dependent manner (Bryant et al., 2010). Further analyses will have to be undertaken to determine whether these intracellular lumens are endosomal compartments and whether Rasip1 plays a role in targeting recycling endosomes to the apical compartment.

Rasip1 during anastomosis

Vascular anastomosis is the process by which blood vessel connect and form a network. Formation of the DLAV in the zebrafish is initiated by the interaction of two

neighboring tip cells which establish contact and form a localized *de novo* lumen at

their interface (Herwig et al., 2011) reviewed by (Betz et al., 2016). Formation of this

luminal pocket follows a relatively stereotyped sequence: upon initial interfilopodial

contact a junctional spot is formed, which is transformed into a ring surrounding apical

membrane. This spot to ring transformation entails the formation and expansion of a

stable junctional ring and the removal of junctional proteins from the center to permit

formation of an apical membrane compartment. Loss of Rasip1 prevents apical

clearance leading to ectopic junctions within newly formed apical compartments. A

similar phenotype has been observed in *Rasip1* mouse mutants during lumen

formation of the dorsal aorta and it was shown that this requirement is upstream of

Cdc42 (Barry et al., 2016). Thus, the molecular mechanisms driving apical clearance

during vasculogenesis and anastomosis appear to be rather conserved.

In vitro experiments have shown that Rasip1 localization at cell junctions requires its

interaction with the orphan receptor Heg1 (de Kreuk et al., 2016) and it has been

suggested that Rasip1 acts in concert with Heg1, Rap1 and Ccm1 and other proteins

in junction stabilization (reviewed by (Lampugnani et al., 2017)). To test whether

Rasip1, Ccm1 and Heg1 may interact during apical clearance, we performed

knockdown experiments. Knockdown of *ccm1* as well as *heg1* in zebrafish phenocopy

the apical clearance defects seen in *rasip1* mutants. Taken together, these data

suggest that some of the pathways which are involved in junction stabilization are also

required for or result in apical clearance during *de novo* lumen formation.

Rasip1, Radil and Arghap29 have been shown to form a complex and are thought to

regulate RhoA. Our analysis of *radil-b* and *rasip1/radil-b* double mutants has shown

that both proteins have similar functions during angiogenic sprouting and lumen

formation and maintenance. However, Radil-b appears to be dispensable for apical

junctional re-localization during anastomosis. In agreement with this interpretation,

studies in the mouse dorsal aorta have shown that clearance of apical junction

requires Cdc42 and is independent of RhoA (Barry et al., 2016).

In mouse dorsal aortae, loss of Rasip1 leads to an overactivation of Rock and an

increase of cortical actomyosin tension in the apical compartment (Barry et al., 2016).

As a consequence, the luminal surface of the endothelium cannot expand and the

lumen is constricted. In relation to this, we observe a collapse of the junctional ring

during anastomosis while the junctions are still maintained and elongate along the

vascular axis, resulting in a narrower apical compartment within the ring, eventually

leading to a close alignment of the junctions along the extending axis. We speculate

that this collapse of the junctional ring may be caused by an imbalance of the cortical

actin between apical and basolateral compartment, caused by an overactivation of

Rock at the apical side. Further studies on local actomyosin regulation will be required

to better understand the formation of a luminal surface during vasculogenesis and

vascular anastomosis.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish Strains and Morpholinos

Zebrafish were maintained according to FELASA guidelines (Aleström et al., 2019). All experiments were performed in accordance with federal guidelines and were approved by the Kantonales Veterinäramt of Kanton Basel-Stadt. Zebrafish lines used were *Tg(gata1a:DsRed)*[sd2] (Traver et al., 2003), *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)*[s843] (Jin, 2005), *Tg(kdrl:EGFPnls)*[ubs1] (Blum et al., 2008), *Tg(5xUAS:RFP)* (Asakawa and Kawakami, 2008), *Tg(fli1ep:gal4ff)*[ubs3] (Herwig et al., 2011), *Tg(fli1a:Pecam-EGFP)*[ncv27] (Ando et al., 2016), *Tg(cdh5:cdh5-TFP-TENS-Venus)*[uq11bh] (Lagendijk et al., 2017), *Tg(UAS:EGFPpodxl)*[ubs29] (this study) and *rasip1*[ubs28] (this study) and *radilb*[sa20161] (European Zebrafish Resource Center, Karlsruhe, Germany). Morpholinos (Gene-Tools, Corvallis, OR, USA) used were as follows:

ccm1 5'-GCTTTATTTCACCTCACCTCATAGG-3' (Mably, 2006),

heg1 5'-GTAATCGTACTTGCAGCAGGTGACA-3' (Mably et al., 2003),

standard control 5'-CCTCTTACCTCAGTTACAATTTATA-3'.

Generation of *Tg(UAS:EGFPpodxl)*[ubs29]

The p5E-4xnrUAS promoter, pME-EGFP-podocalyxin (Navis et al., 2013) and p3E-polyA (Kwan et al., 2007) were cloned into a Tol2 vector pDestTol2CG2 carrying cmcl2:GFP to drive expression of GFP in the heart. The final plasmid was co-injected with tol2 mRNA into the *Tg(fli1ep:gal4ff)*[ubs3]; *(UAS:mRFP)* embryos. These mosaic embryos were raised to adulthood and outcrossed with the parental fish line to generate stable fish lines. The resulting *Tg(UAS:EGFPpodxl)* embryos were identified on the basis of GFP expression in the heart; proper apical localization of EGFP-Podocalyxin was confirmed using confocal microscopy. Two transgenic lines, ubs29

and ubs30, were isolated, and the ubs29 line showing more homogenous expression

levels in endothelium was used in experiments.

Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence was performed as previously described (Herwig et al., 2011).

The following antibodies were used: rabbit anti-zf-Cdh5 1:200 (Blum et al., 2008),

rabbit anti-Esama 1:200 (Sauteur et al., 2017), mouse anti-human-Zo-1 1:100

(Thermofisher), rabbit anti-Rasip1 1:500 (this paper), chicken anti-GFP 1:200

(Abcam), Alexa 405 goat anti-chicken immunoglobulin Y (IgY H&L) 1:1,000 (Abcam),

Alexa 568 goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G (IgG) 1:1,000, and Alexa 633 goat anti-

mouse IgG 1:1,000 (both from Thermofisher). The anti-zf-Rasip1 antibodies were

raised in rabbits against a synthetic peptide (CRTFLWGLDQDELPANQRTRL-COOH)

comprising the terminal amino acid residues (aa970-989) of the protein (Yenzym,

Antibodies LLC, Brisbane (CA, USA)).

Live Imaging

Time-lapse imaging was performed as previously described (Paatero et al., 2018). All

movies were taken with Leica SP5 or SP8 confocal microscopes using a 40x water

immersion objective (NA = 1.1) with a frame size of 1024x512 or 1024x1024 pixels.

Routinely, z stacks consisted of 80–100 slices with a step size of 0.8–1 µm. Stacks

were taken every 8- or 10-min. High-resolution imaging was performed a Zeiss

LSM880 microscope using a 40x water immersion objective (NA = 1.2) using a vertical

step size of 0.25 µm.

Statistics

Unless explicitly stated, all results shown were obtained from at least 3 independent

experiments, sample sizes were not predetermined, the experiments were not

randomized and investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments and

outcome assessment. Statistical analyses were performed using Prism software

(GraphPad) and ordinary unpaired two-tailed Mann-Whitney test.

Author Contributions

H.-G.B. and M.A. conceived the project; M.L. performed most experiments and prepared the figures. C.B. generated *rasip1* mutant alleles and performed initial experiments. N.S. characterized *radil-b* mutants; I.P. generated the *Tg(UAS:EGFPpodxl)*[ubs29] zebrafish line; J.Y. analyzed *heg1* and *ccm1* morphants; C.W.W. and W.Y. provided the anti-zf-Rasip1 antibody; M.A and H.-G.B. supervised the project. M.L., M.A. and H.-G.B. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and approved the manuscript.

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754

Figure legends

Figure 1: Vascular defects in zebrafish *rasip1* mutants. (a) Conserved Rasip1 protein domains. RA: Ras association domain. FHA forkhead-association domain. DIL: dilute domain. The *rasip1^{ubs28}* mutant allele consists of a 35kb deletion comprising all three domains. **(b)** quantification of cranial hemorrhages in *rasip1^{ubs28}* mutant embryos. p<0.0001 (Fisher's exact test). **(c)** confocal images of cranial hemorrhages in rasip1*^{ubs28}* embryos (72 hpf). Blood cells are visualized by gata1:dsRed expression. Scale bar, 50 μm . **(d)** bright field image (BF) of wild-type and *rasip1^{ubs28}* embryos showing pericardial edema. Scale bar, 2 mm. **(e)** confocal images of wild-type and *rasip1^{ubs28}* mutants. Mutants show narrower DA and irregular ISV diameters. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(f)** quantification of DA diameters (μm) during embryonic development (32 to 120 hpf). Mann-Whitney test and error bars indicate standard deviation; significance (ns=not significant, *p < 0.1). (WT 32, 48, 72, 120 hpf: *n*=4, 4, 9, 13 embryos; *rasip1^{ubs28/+}* *n*=5, 12, 19, 33; *rasip1^{ubs28}* *n*=6, 10, 9, 10). **(g)** quantification of ISV diameters (μm) during embryonic development (32 to 120 hpf). Embryos were analyzed by unpaired two-tailed Mann-Whitney test and error bars indicate standard deviation; significance (ns=not significant, *p < 0.1, **p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001). (WT 48, 72, 120 hpf: *n*=37, 94, 70 ISVs; *rasip1^{ubs28/+}* *n*=104, 52, 198; *rasip1^{ubs28}* *n*=67, 38, 65).

Figure 2: Formation of multicellular vessels is impaired in *rasip1* mutants. (a) Still pictures of time-lapse movies (s-movies 7 and 8) showing endothelial cell junctions (Cdh5-Venus) in wild-type and *rasip1^{ubs28}* embryos. White arrowheads show maintained junctional in wild-type ISV sprouts. Yellow arrowheads indicate junctional detachment in mutant embryos. Scale bars, 20 μm. Bottom row: closeups of showing

junctional detachment in a[4] and a[5]. **(b-e)** Quantification of junctional and cellular

configuration during ISV formation in wild-type and *rasip1[ubs28]* mutant embryos. **(b)**

Percentage multicellular tubes at 48 hpf (wt *n*=8, mut *n*=6). **(c)** Speed of multicellular

tube formation (wt *n*=5, mut *n*=6). **(d)** Percentage of ISV with multicellular configuration

per embryo (WT *n*=4, mut *n*=5). **(e)** Percentage of single cell ISVs at 32 hpf (WT *n*=8,

mut *n*=8). Quantifications were done by counting ISVs showing the respective

phenotypes, averaged by total ISVs analysed per embryo. **(f)** Immunofluorescence of

Zo-1 and Esama in *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)[s843]* at 32 hpf. Schematic drawings on the right show

the different cellular configurations of multicellular (wt) and unicellular (*rasip1* mutant)

ISVs. Scale bars, 5 μm. The data was analyzed by unpaired two-tailed Mann-Whitney

test and error bars indicate standard deviation; significance (*p < 0.1, **p < 0.01).

Figure 3: Requirement of Rasip 1 for dynamic re-localization of junctional

proteins and junctional ring formation during anastomosis. **(a-c)** Still pictures of

time-lapse movies (s-movies 9-11) showing normal junctional patch to ring

transformation in wild-type (a) and abberant ring formation in *rasip1[ubs28]* mutants (b,

c). Transgenic embryos expressing a VE-cadherin-Venus fusion protein were imaged,

starting at 30 hpf. Scale bar, 5 μm. **(d)** Immunofluorescence analysis of Zo-1 and VE-

cadherin in *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)[s843]* at 32 hpf. *rasip1[ubs28]* mutants show reticulated junctions

between two cells in the DLAV; wild-type embryo forms a cleared, ring-shaped

junction. Scale bars, 20 μm (overview) and 5 μm (inset). **(e)** Immunofluorescence

analysis of Zo-1 and ESAMa in *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)[s843]* at 32 hpf showing a collapsed

junctional ring in *rasip 1[ubs28]* mutants . Scale bars, 5 μm. **(f)** Quantification of observed

junctional phenotypes at 32 hpf. *rasip1[ubs28]* mutants show significant number of

reticulated junctions and collapsed anastomotic rings compared to wild-type (WT *n*=6

embryos, 53 analyzed rings, mut *n*=8, 68, Chi-Square: p<0.0001.

Figure 4: Protracted delays in lumen formation in *rasip1* mutants. (a, b) Live

images of *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^{s843}; (gata1a:DsRed)^{sd2}* embryos. **(a)** Still images of a time-

lapse movies (s-movies 14, 15) starting at 30 hpf. **(b)** Tracking of individual

unlumenized ISV during embryonic development (32 to 96 hpf). Scale bars, 20 µm.

(c) Percentage of blood carrying ISVs at 96 hpf (WT *n*=3 embryos, 28 analyzed ISVs,

mut *n*=5, 46). Analyzed by unpaired two-tailed Mann-Whitney test and error bars

indicate standard deviation; significance (*p < 0.1).

Figure 5: Analysis of ectopic luminal pockets during DLAV formation in *rasip1*

mutants. (a) Still pictures of time-lapse movies (s-mov 16, 17) showing for the

emergence of ectopic luminal pockets (yellow arrowheads) in *rasip1* mutants. **(b)**

Schematic representation of possible cellular localization of ectopic lumens. To

differentiate between these possibilities two types of experiments: microangiography

(c) and colocalization of luminal pockets with junctional marker (d). **(c)** Visualization of

ectopic lumens and patent lumens in a *rasip1^{ubs28}* embryo (36 hpf). Ectopic luminal

pockets are indirectly visualized by the absence of cytoplasmic EGFP (yellow

arrowhead) (*Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^{s843}*). The patent lumen is marked by microangiography

using quantum dots in red (third panel in black). Ectopic lumens are not part of the

patent vasculature. **(d)** Still pictures of time-lapse movie (s-mov 18-21) during lumen

formation in the DLAV from around 32 hpf onward in wild-type (top) and *rasip1^{ubs28}*

(bottom) embryos. Endothelial cells are labeled with mRFP (greyscale images),

junctions are labeled by VE-cad-Venus (merged images). Yellow arrowheads indicate

the ectopic luminal pockets in a *rasip1* mutant. Scale bar, 5 μm.

Figure 6: Apical to junctional re-localization of Rasip1 during blood vessel

fusion. (a-c) Immunofluorescent labeling of Rasip1 and VE-cadherin during different

stages of DLAV formation (30 to 36 hpf). At 32hpf, Rasip1 is restricted to the apical

surface of the anastomotic ring (yellow arrowheads). At 36hpf, Rasip1 localizes to

endothelial junctions (VE-cadherin, white arrowheads). Scale bars, 20 μm (overview)

and 5 μm (inset).

Figure 7: Phenotypic comparison *of radil-b* single and of *rasip1/radil-b* double

mutants   suggests   partially   overlapping   functions   during   vascular

morphogenesis. (a) Immunofluorescence analysis of Zo-1 and VE-cadherin

distribution in *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^{s843}* at 32 hpf. **(b)** Live images at 48 hpf using *Tg(ve-*

cad:ve-cadVENUS); Tg(fliep:gal4ff)^{ubs3}; (UAS:mRFP) reporter lines. Scale bars: 20

μm

Figure 8: Loss of Ccm1 and Heg1 phenocopies aspects of *rasip1* mutants. (a)

Live images of Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^{s843}; (gata1:Dsred)^{sd2} at 72 hpf. *ccm1* and *heg1*

morphants display mesenphalic hemorrhages while cranial circulation appears

completely disrupted. In addition, the MsV (Mesencephalic veins) and DLV (dorsal

longitudinal vein) (yellow arrowheads) are malformed. Scale bar, 50 μm. **(b)** Live

images of control, *ccm1* and *heg1* morphants at 32 hpf. *ccm1* and *heg1* morphants

show reduced DA diameters and defective ISV formation. Scale bar, 20 μm. **(c)**

Immunofluorescence analysis of control, *Ccm1* and *Heg1* morphants at 32 hpf.

Transgenic *Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^{s843}* embryos were stained for VE-cadherin. Scale bar, 5 μm.

(d) Quantification of multicellular ISVs at 48 hpf (Control MO injected embryos *n*=5,

24 analyzed ISVs; *Ccm1* MO *n*=4, 26; *Heg1* MO *n*=5, 23). Analyzed by unpaired two-

tailed Mann-Whitney test and error bars indicate standard deviation; significance (**p

< 0.01).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

a

	00:00	07:00	14:00
WT			
rasip1^{ubs28}			

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843; (gata1a:DsRed)^sd2

b

	32 hpf	48 hpf	56 hpf	80 hpf	96 hpf
WT					
rasip1^ubs28					

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843; (gata1a:DsRed)^sd2

c

% of blood carrying ISVs at 96 hpf

*

WT   rasip1-mut

Figure 4

a

00:00 00:12 00:24

WT

rasip1^ubs28

Tg(fliep:gal4ff)^ubs3; (UAS:mRFP)

b

cytoplasmic EGFP

anastomotic compartment

proximal lumen

DLAV

luminal pocket

ISV

c

rasip1^ubs28

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843 quantum dots

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843

quantum dots

collapsed lumen

isolated luminal pocket

extracellular lumen

intracellular lumen

microangiography

cell junctions

d

00:00 00:12 01:12 01:32

WT

rasip1^ubs28

Tg(ve-cad:ve-cadVENUS); Tg(fliep:gal4ff)^ubs3; (UAS:mRFP)

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

a

Ctrl MO   Ccm1 MO   Heg1 MO

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843; (gata1a:DsRed)^sd2

b

Ctrl MO   Ccm1 MO   Heg1 MO

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843

c

Ctrl MO   Ccm1 MO   Heg1 MO

Tg(kdrl:EGFP)^s843 α-VEC

d

% of Multicellular ISVs

Figure 8