Selective isolation of mouse glial nuclei optimized for reliable downstream omics analyses

3

4 Miguel A. Pena-Ortiz^{1†}, Sarfraz Shafiq^{1†}, Megan E. Rowland² and Nathalie G. Bérubé^{1*}

5

6	Affiliations:

¹Departments of Anatomy and Cell Biology, Paediatrics, and Oncology, Schulich School of
Medicine and Dentistry, Western University, London, ON, Division of Genetics and
Development, Children's Health Research Institute, London, ON.

10

²Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, The University of British Columbia,
 Vancouver, BC.

13

14 [†] These authors contributed equally to this work.

- 15 ^{*} Corresponding author: Nathalie G. Bérubé (<u>nberube@uwo.ca</u>)
- 16

17 Short title: Isolation of glial nuclei from mouse brain

- 18
- 19 Abbreviations:

20 AST, astrocyte; BSC, back scatter; DAPI, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole; DEPC, diethyl

21 pyrocarbonate; DNA, deoxyribonucleic acid; DTT, dithiothreitol; FACS, fluorescence-

22 activated cell sorting; FANS, fluorescence-activated nuclei sorting; FSC, forward Scatter;

23 GFP, green fluorescent protein; MACS, magnetic-activated cell sorting; MG, microglia; OLs,

24 oligodendrocytes; OPCs, oligodendrocyte precursor cells; PBS, phosphate buffered saline;

25 RIN, RNA integrity number; RNA, ribonucleic acid

26

27 Highlights

- Fast and easy isolation and sorting of glial nuclei from the mouse brain
- 29 Reproducible and versatile processing of enriched nuclei for omics applications

30 ABSTRACT

31 Background

32 Isolation of cell types of interest from the brain for molecular applications presents several

33 challenges, including cellular damage during tissue dissociation or enrichment procedures, and

- 34 low cell number in the tissue in some cases. Techniques have been developed to enrich distinct
- 35 cell populations using immunopanning or fluorescence activated cell/nuclei sorting. However,
- these techniques often involve fixation, immunolabeling and DNA staining steps, which could
- 37 potentially influence downstream omics applications.
- 38 New Method
- 39 Taking advantage of readily available genetically modified mice with fluorescent-tagged
- 40 nuclei, we describe a technique for the purification of cell-type specific brain nuclei, optimized
- 41 to decrease sample preparation time and to limit potential artefacts for downstream omics
- 42 applications. We demonstrate the applicability of this approach for the purification of glial cell
- 43 nuclei and show that the resulting cell-type specific nuclei obtained can be used effectively for
- 44 omics applications, including ATAC-seq and RNA-seq.
- 45 *Results*
- 46 We demonstrate excellent enrichment of fluorescently-tagged glial nuclei, yielding high
- 47 quality RNA and chromatin. We identify several critical steps during nuclei isolation that help
- 48 limit nuclei rupture and clumping, including quick homogenization, dilution before filtration
- 49 and loosening of the pellet before resuspension, thus improving yield. Sorting of fluorescent
- 50 nuclei can be achieved without fixation, antibody labelling, or DAPI staining, reducing
- 51 potential artifactual results in RNA-seq and ATAC-seq analyses. We show that reproducible 52 glial cell type-specific profiles can be obtained in transcriptomic and chromatin accessibility
- 52 glial cell type-specific profiles can be obtained in transcriptomic and chromatin acce 53 assays using this rapid protocol.
- 54 *Comparison with existing methods*
- 55 Our method allows for rapid enrichment of glial nuclei populations from the mouse brain with 56 minimal processing steps, while still providing high quality RNA and chromatin required for
- 57 reliable omics analyses.
- 58 *Conclusions*
- We provide a reproducible method to obtain nucleic material from glial cells in the mouse brainwith a quick and limited sample preparation.
- 61
- 62 **KEYWORDS**
- 63 Glia
- 64 Nuclei isolation
- 65 Fluorescence-activated sorting
- 66 Mouse brain
- 67 Omics

68 1. INTRODUCTION

Glial cells regulate essential processes of the central nervous system during development 69 and in the adult brain like myelination, immune response, dendritogenesis, neuromodulation, 70 71 and synapse formation, maturation and elimination (Matejuk and Ransohoff, 2020; Vainchtein and Molofsky, 2020). Of the different glial cells, astrocytes, oligodendrocytes and microglia 72 are the most studied, due to their different roles in the nervous system physiology and disease 73 (Allen and Lyons, 2018). Astrocytes directly form signalling networks with neurons (Durkee 74 and Araque, 2019) and are therefore integral to nervous tissue function, including synapse 75 formation and maintenance (Allen and Eroglu, 2017). Microglia are the resident immune cells 76 of the brain but also participate in neuronal development, synaptogenesis and synapse 77 78 maturation, through pruning and the release of molecules including nerve growth factor and 79 tumor necrosis factor (Matejuk and Ransohoff, 2020; Reemst et al., 2016). Oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs) not only differentiate into oligodendrocytes responsible for myelination 80 throughout life but are also able to form synapses with neurons and may establish bidirectional 81 82 communication (Sakry et al., 2014, 2011). Oligodendrocytes form the myelin sheath, regulating conduction across the axon, but can also regulate synaptic transmission through 83 potassium clearance and the release of factors like brain derived neurotrophic factor (Xin and 84 Chan, 2020). 85

The differentiation, maturation and function of glial cells are tightly regulated by changes in their chromatin and transcriptome (Hammond et al., 2019; Lattke et al., 2021; Marques et al., 2018). Epigenetic changes during development direct cell fate and, after maturation, regulate cellular function through regulation of the transcriptome (Bayraktar et al., 2015; Eggen et al., 2019; Tiane et al., 2019). There is also increasing evidence that continuous and plastic communication exists between different types of glia throughout life, highlighting the need to understand cell type-specific contributions and changes (Domingues et al., 2016; Nutma et al., 2020; Vainchtein and Molofsky, 2020). The exploration of the transcriptome of glial cells and
the correlation to chromatin architecture is therefore a key area of investigation that will expand
our understanding of the role of these cells in physiological conditions and disease.

In vivo studies in the mouse brain provide several advantages over culture, the most salient 96 being the ability to amalgamate all signals and their consequences in a complete system. 97 However, in vivo molecular studies have been hampered by the heterogeneity of brain tissue, 98 preventing the assignment of particular alterations to specific cell types (Maze et al., 2014). 99 100 The size of the cell type population is also relevant for glial cells, which tend be fewer compared to neurons, or expression and chromatin differences might be confounded by higher 101 levels in other cell types. Therefore, a necessary step for omics studies of brain cells is to purify, 102 or at least enrich, for a cell type of interest prior to molecular analyses. To this end, several 103 methods have been developed to enrich for particular cell types of interest, include sorting of 104 immunolabelled cells or nuclei of the desired cell type (Douvaras and Fossati, 2015; Holt and 105 106 Olsen, 2016; John Lin et al., 2017).

The first step in many protocols involves an enzymatic digestion to dissociate brain tissue 107 into cell suspensions. The digestion time and type of enzymes must be carefully optimized to 108 minimize loss of antigen targets of antibodies used in subsequent steps (Barres, 2014). 109 Although these methods allow the isolation of whole cells, loss of membrane integrity from 110 sheer stress can induce stress signals and could alter chromatin structure and gene expression 111 profiles (Mo et al., 2015). Once a cell suspension is obtained, different approaches can be used 112 to enrich for a specific cell type. Immunopanning is commonly used for this purpose and 113 involves sequential plating of cell suspensions on antibody-coated plates to deplete cell 114 populations based on membrane markers (Foo et al., 2011). This approach is most suitable to 115 maintain and study these cell populations in culture; however, transcriptional changes are 116 known to occur *in vitro*, and might not reflect the state of the cell prior to cell collection. 117

Alternatively, cells can be either labeled with fluorophore-tagged antibodies and isolated using 118 fluorescence-activated cell sorting (Cahoy et al., 2008; Guez-Barber et al., 2012), or labeled 119 120 with magnetically tagged antibodies and isolated with magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS, (Marek et al., 2008). Although these methods allow good enrichment of populations, changes 121 in transcription and chromatin structure could occur due to the initial dissociation steps and 122 prolonged manipulation. Both FACS and MACS require incubation periods with antibodies, 123 and sorting might require long periods of time or multiple elution rounds in the case of MACS 124 (Chongtham et al., 2021). Another limitation is that each glial cell type is itself heterogeneous, 125 making it challenging to find antibodies that will select for all sub-populations. (Marques et 126 al., 2016; Matias et al., 2019). In order to limit disruptions caused by stress response inherent 127 to the cell dissociation step, it is possible to instead quickly dissociate all cell membranes to 128 isolate nuclei (Binek et al., 2019; Chongtham et al., 2021; Mo et al., 2015). Similar to whole 129 cells, cell type -specific nuclei can be labeled with antibodies and sorted. While early studies 130 131 simply used NeuN to obtain neuronal and non-neuronal populations (Jiang et al., 2008), specific cell-type nuclear markers have been used for oligodendrocytes (Mendizabal et al., 132 2019) and microglia (Nott et al., 2019). Although changes in the chromatin and transcriptome 133 caused by signals from outside the nuclei would be removed, serial incubations and 134 manipulation may still affect yield by breaking the nuclei. 135

To avoid the use of antibodies, genetic approaches emerged to tag cells or nuclei of interest with fluorescent proteins. The commercially available mice B6;129-Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm5(CAG-Sun1/sfGFP)Nat/J} (Mo et al., 2015), referred as Sun1-GFP, have a Cre-sensitive green fluorescent protein (GFP) and SUN1 nuclear lamina fusion protein that can be used to fluorescently tag nuclei of interest using cell-type specific Cre lines of mice (Mo et al., 2015). Available protocols for isolation and fluorescence activated nuclei sorting (FANS) require prolonged processing and manipulation before enrichment. To obtain nuclei suspensions, these methods

use time-consuming ultracentrifugation, as long as 2.5 h in gradients (Percoll or iodixanol) that
might be expensive or not readily available (Jiang et al., 2008). In addition, several protocols
stain nuclei with dyes like DAPI or propidium iodide to help remove doublets during sorting
that could interfere with downstream applications (Chongtham et al., 2021; Mo et al., 2015).

Here, we present a time saving procedure for isolation of fluorescent nuclei that uses a 147 readily available sucrose gradient, and does not require fixation, ultracentrifugation or other 148 prolonged manipulations and incubations. We show that this method is suitable for glial cells, 149 providing high yield of nuclei with limited clumping. Furthermore, high enrichment of 150 fluorescent nuclei using FANS was achieved by removing nuclei doublets without the use of 151 dyes or additional antibodies. Finally, we also show that the enriched nuclei can be used for 152 omics analysis, as RNA sequencing and assay for transposase-accessible chromatin followed 153 sequencing (ATAC-seq) revealed profiles characteristic of astrocytes, 154 by OPCs/oligodendrocytes and microglia. Our simplified workflow limits complications during 155 156 nuclei enrichment, prevents possible artefacts in downstream applications and provides high quality RNA and chromatin for omics analyses 157

159 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

160 *2.1 Animals*

All procedures involving animals were conducted in accordance with the regulations of the Animals for Research Act of the province of Ontario, Canada and approved by the University of Western Ontario Animal Care and Use Committee (2017-048). Mice were exposed to 12hour light/12-hour dark cycles and fed *ad libitum* with tap water and regular chow.

165 The Sun1-GFP mice were obtained from the Jackson Laboratories (B6:129-Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm5(CAG-Sun1/sfGFP)Nat/J}, IMSR JAX:021039, MGI:5614796) (Mo et al. 2015). 166 Homozygous Sun1-GFP female mice were mated with male mice heterozygous for the 167 tamoxifen-inducible Cre recombinase gene under the control of promoters specific for each 168 glial cell type used: B6 Glast-CreER (Tg(Slc1a3-cre/ERT)1Nat, IMSR JAX:012586, 169 MGI:4430111) for astrocytes (Slezak et al., 2007), Sox10-CreER (Tg(Sox10-170 icre/ERT2)388Wdr, IMSR JAX:027651, MGI:5634390) for OPCs (McKenzie et al., 2014), 171 and CX3CR11-CreER (B6.129P2(Cg)-Cx3cr1^{tm2.1(cre/ERT2)Litt}/WganJ, ISMR JAX:021160, 172 MGI:5617710) for microglia (Parkhurst et al., 2013). 173

174 *2.2 Genotyping*

Genomic DNA from ear punches was extracted by incubating samples with DirectPCR Lysis Reagent (Viagen 102-T) and Proteinase K at 55°C overnight. DNA was amplified using primers specific to different genetically engineered alleles (Supplementary Table 1) using FroggaMix (FroggaBio FBTAQM). PCR conditions started with 95°C for 3 min, followed by 34 cycles of 95°C for 10s, 57°C for 20s and 72°C for 1 min, ending with 72°C for 5 minutes.

180 2.3 Tamoxifen administration

Tamoxifen (10 mg, Sigma T5648) was mixed with 100 μ l 95% Ethanol, incubated at 60°C until dissolved and diluted with 900 μ l corn oil (Sigma C8267). Tamoxifen was injected intraperitoneally to induce Cre recombinase expression in different glial cell types. For OPCs and oligodendrocytes, Sun1-GFP lactating mothers crossed with Sox10-CreER males were

injected with 2 mg tamoxifen for three consecutive days; for astrocytes, post-natal day 10
Glast-CreER;Sun1-GFP male pups were injected with 1 mg tamoxifen for three consecutive
days; for microglia, 6 week-old CX3CR11-CreER;Sun1-GFP male mice were injected with 2
mg for five consecutive days.

189 *2.4 Tissue collection and nuclei isolation*

Mouse brains were dissected in ice cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and samples were 190 frozen on dry ice before being stored at -80°C. Tissue was collected from tamoxifen-treated 191 20-day old Sox10-Cre;Sun1-GFP males (forebrain), 1 month-old Glast-Cre;Sun1-GFP male 192 193 mice (cortex) and from 2 month-old Cx3cr1-Cre;Sun1-GFP male mice (cortex and hippocampus). For nuclei isolation, the solutions were made fresh before each experiment 194 using DEPC water (diethyl pyrocarbonate, Sigma D5758) and kept on ice. Frozen tissue was 195 homogenized in 500µl of homogenization buffer [HB, 20 mM Tricine KOH, 25 mM MgCl2, 196 250 mM sucrose, 1 mM DTT, 0.15 mM spermine, 0.5 mM spermidine, 0.1% IGEPAL-630, 1x 197 198 protease inhibitor (Millipore Sigma 11873580001), 1 µl/ml RNaseOUT[™] RNase inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific 10777019)] with a pestle homogenizer for approximately one minute 199 until a fine suspension was visible. The sample was then diluted to 7.5 ml with HB, filtered 200 201 through a 40 µm strainer (Falcon 08-771-1) and carefully pipetted over 7.5 ml of cushion buffer [CB, 0.5 mM MgCl2, 0.88 M sucrose, 0.5 mM DTT, 1x protease Inhibitor (Millipore Sigma 202 11873580001), 1 µl/ml RNaseOUT[™] RNase inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific 10777019)]. 203 Samples were centrifuged at 2800 x g for 20 mins at 4°C to pellet nuclei. The supernatant was 204 carefully removed, and the pelleted nuclei were incubated for 10 min in resuspension buffer 205 [RB, 500 µl 4% FBS, 0.15 mM spermine, 0.5 mM spermidine, 1 ul/ml RNaseOUT[™] RNase 206 inhibitor (Thermo Fisher Scientific 10777019) in PBS] and mixed by gentle pipetting. 207

- 208
- 209

210 *2.5 Fluorescence activated nuclei sorting*

Samples were filtered through a 20 µm strainer (pluriStrainer 43-10020-60) before sorting on 211 212 a Sony SH800 Cell Sorter with a 100 µm nozzle, and the following gains for the sensors: FSC:14, BSC: 35%, FL1(EGFP):38%. Gating is initially set to discard larger events. Next, 213 GFP intensity was plotted against GFP fluorescence area to eliminate doublets and nuclei 214 clusters by discarding events with higher area. From this final gating step, events with lower 215 GFP intensity were discarded to increase purity of the collected nuclei. Sample volumes 216 sometimes needed to be adjusted with RB in order to maintain a constant flow of events per 217 second. Sorting of the sample was paused throughout the session as needed to resuspend the 218 sample and avoid clumping of the nuclei. For RNA extraction, sorting was also paused to mix 219 the sorted nuclei with the lysis buffer in the collection tubes (described below). To assess the 220 enrichment of GFP+ nuclei in the final sorted nuclei population, 5000 to 10000 nuclei were 221 collected in PBS and an aliquot of the suspension was mixed with 1µg/ml DAPI and placed on 222 223 a glass slide. The proportion of GFP+ nuclei was quantified with an inverted microscope (DMI 6000b, Leica) and digital camera (ORCA-ER, Hamamatsu). 224

225 2.6 RNA purification and RNA-seq library preparation

Sorted Sun1-GFP⁺ nuclei were collected in 100 µl lysis buffer from the Single cell RNA 226 purification kit (NorgenBiotek 51800) with 2% β-mercaptoethanol. Immediately after sorting, 227 additional lysis buffer was added to reach 600 µl of total lysate volume, as well as 600 µl 70% 228 ethanol. RNA purification was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions, 229 including an in-column DNase treatment. Samples were eluted twice from the column with 8-230 231 12 µl of elution buffer. RNA concentration was determined using Qubit fluorometer (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions using 1-2 μ l of sample. RNA integrity 232 233 was determined using an Agilent Bioanalyzer. Libraries from microglia samples were 234 constructed using 35 ng of RNA with the VAHTS Universal V8 RNA-seq Library Prep Kit for

- 235 Illumina (Vazyme NR605-01), while astrocyte and OPC/oligodendrocyte libraries were made
- with 90 ng of RNA using VAHTSTM Total RNA-seq (H/M/R) Library Prep Kit for Illumina
- 237 (Vazyme NR603-01) following the manufacturer's instructions.
- 238 2.7 Assay for transposase-accessible chromatin (ATAC)

Approximately 150,000 sorted Sun1-GFP⁺ nuclei were collected in 50 µl of RNase free PBS. 239 To concentrate the nuclei, the suspension was centrifuged at 3,000 rpm for 5 minutes at 4°C. 240 The supernatant was then carefully removed, and nuclei were resuspended in tagmentation 241 buffer containing Tn5 transposase (Vazyme TD501) for 45 min. at 37°C. Column purification 242 243 of the samples was quickly performed with QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen 28104) to end the tagmentation reaction. Enrichment and purification of the libraries was done according 244 to the TruePrep DNA kit instructions. Quantitative PCR was used to determine the number of 245 enrichment cycles to reach one third saturation, and all the libraries were amplified with more 246 than 12 PCR cycles. Clean-up of all sequencing libraries was performed with SPRIselect beads 247 248 (Beckman Coulter). The size and purity of the libraries were assessed using an Agilent bioanalyzer before storing at -80°C. 249

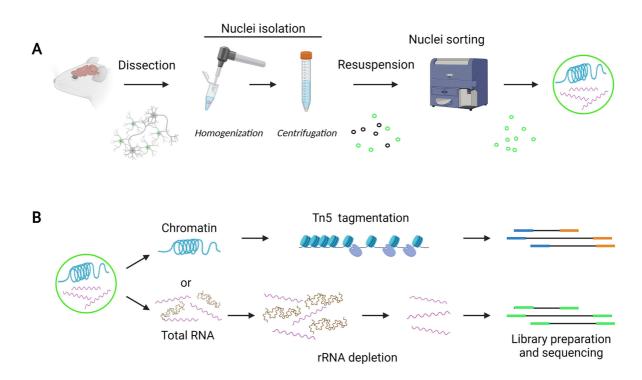
250 2.8 Deep sequencing and data analysis

251 Pooled equimolar libraries were sequenced at Canada's Michael Smith Genome Sciences Centre (BC Cancer Research, Vancouver, BC, Canada, https://www.bcgsc.ca) using the 252 Illumina Hiseq (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA). The libraries were sequenced as a 150 bp paired 253 end run. 50 million paired-end reads were obtained for RNA-seq and 100 million paired-end 254 255 reads for ATAC-seq. Raw reads were pre-processed using Cutadapt and mapped against Mus 256 musculus GRCm39 with HISAT2 for RNA-seq and bowtie2 for ATAC-seq. SAMtools was used to sort and convert SAM files. Gene abundance for RNA-seq was calculated using 257 StringTie. ATAC-seq peaks were visualized using the Integrative genomic viewer IGV (Broad 258 259 Institute). Heatmaps of differential gene expression from RNA-seq data were generated using

- 260 Heatmapper (Babicki et al., 2016) with single linkage hierarchical clustering and spearman
- 261 rank correlation. Expression enrichment of cell type-specific transcription factors was
- calculated using the cell type-enriched lists and method described in Zhang et al., 2014. Briefly,
- by dividing the average for each cell type by the sum of the averages of the other cell types.

264 **3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

- 265 We used available transgenic mice to obtain brain tissue with GFP tagged nuclei in astrocytes,
- 266 microglia or OPC/oligodendrocytes. Optimized nuclei isolation was used to obtain nuclei
- suitable for FANS (Figure 1A). Sorted nuclei were then used for RNA or chromatin extraction,
- followed by the corresponding procedures for RNA-seq and ATAC-seq (Figure 1B).
- 269
- 270



271

Figure 1. *Protocol overview*. (A) Tamoxifen-treated mice that express Sun1-GFP in astrocytes, OPC/oligodendrocytes or microglia are sacrificed, and brain tissue dissected and snap frozen. After tissue homogenization, nuclei are isolated by centrifugation and sorted to enrich for Sun1-GFP-tagged nuclei. (B) Sun1-GFP nuclei are immediately processed for total RNA extraction or chromatin accessibility assay (ATAC-seq) using Tn5. Ribosomal RNA is depleted from total RNA samples before generation of the RNA-seq libraries.

278

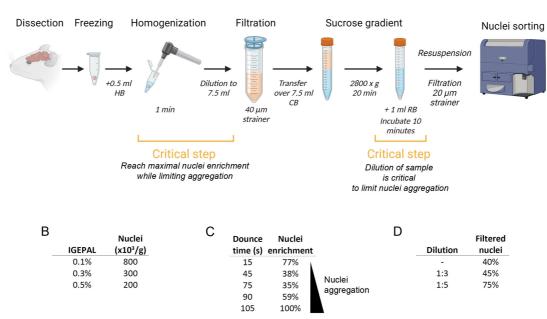
280 *3.1 Nuclei isolation and sorting*

We based this nuclei isolation protocol on the method previously published by (Mo et al., 281 282 2015). We observed loss of nuclei through homogenization and centrifugation steps, probably due to astringent conditions that affected nuclei integrity. To address this, we optimized the 283 homogenization step and chose a nuclei pelleting centrifugation with sucrose gradient instead 284 of a iodixanol gradient interlayer collection (Figure 2A). We modified the amount of detergent 285 and length of dounce homogenization to maximize yield and integrity of the nuclei while 286 limiting aggregation and clumping caused by leakage of the intranuclear material from ruptured 287 nuclei (Maitra et al., 2021). To determine optimal detergent concentration and dounce time, 288 frozen cortex tissue was homogenized in HB with 0.1%, 0.3% or 0.5% IGEPAL (Figure 2B). 289 Samples were collected throughout the homogenization, stained with DAPI and quantified 290 under a microscope. We observed that homogenization with 0.1% IGEPAL yielded the 291 maximum number of nuclei with a dounce time of 105 s (Figure 2B and 2C). However, we 292 293 observed that nuclei aggregation also increased with dounce time, potentially from rupture and leakage of a subset of nuclei. This clumping caused problems in the following steps, as it 294 clogged filters during the filtration steps before sorting and ultimately decreased the final yield. 295 296 Nuclei aggregates would also affect the sorting step, as they block the line or, if sorted, decrease purity. To prevent clumping of the nuclei, we used a dounce time of 1 min and pipetting was 297 kept to a minimum with all nuclei suspensions. The nuclei yield obtained was enough for 298 downstream applications with no clumping and minimal nuclei loss. 299

In addition to detergent concentration and dounce time during homogenization, we found that a key step to obtain high yield was dilution of the nuclei suspension prior to filtration. The nuclei dilution at this step prevents clumping, clogging of the strainer and diminishes loss of nuclei. Furthermore, nuclei yield was significantly improved by increasing the dilution of the suspension to 1:5 (Figure 2D). We used an equivalent volume of a sucrose gradient (CB) and

pelleted the nuclei, as we found this approach more efficient, cost-effective, and direct than 305 using commercial gradients such as iodixanol. These gradients require ultracentrifugation and 306 collection of the interlayer, which is difficult to visualize and obtain without leaving nuclei in 307 the gradient, leading to reduced yield. Nuclei pelleting with a sucrose gradient circumvents 308 these difficulties and allows nuclei resuspension in a buffer compatible with subsequent sorting 309 steps. We also found that a 10 min incubation in buffer before resuspension limited nuclei 310 rupture and clumping. Adding a filtration step just before sorting also decreased clumping 311 312 issues (Figure 2A).





313

Figure 2. *Nuclei isolation protocol*. (A) Snap frozen brain tissue is homogenized with a pestle homogenizer. The sample is diluted before filtration and transferred to a sucrose gradient. Nuclei are pelleted through centrifugation, filtered and immediately sorted using a Sony SH800 Cell Sorter. (B) Maximum number of nuclei obtained throughout homogenization with different detergent concentrations. (C) Nuclei counts and aggregation increase with dounce time, GFP⁺ enrichment as percentage of the maximum number obtained. (D) Nuclei yield after

filtration increases with dilution, enrichment as percentage of the nuclei counted beforefiltration.

322

For FANS, we first gated the majority of events detected in the forward and back scatter 323 channels, excluding larger events that could represent aggregated nuclei (Figure 3A). As an 324 325 alternative to the use of dyes like DAPI to detect and remove doublets and smaller clusters, we plotted GFP signal intensity versus area using the population from the first gating (Figure 3B). 326 Singlets appear in the plot in a linear distribution, which were selected to exclude events below 327 the line (doublets) and close to the origin (GFP-). These settings identify the population of 328 Sun1-GFP⁺ nuclei singlets in the suspension without any additional treatment or manipulation 329 of the isolated nuclei. The gatings were optimized using GFP⁻ samples, to further determine 330 the background levels of signal. Finally, to increase purity, a histogram of GFP signal was 331 plotted, and only events with highest fluorescence signal were collected (Figure 3C). 332

333 Samples collected before sorting and from GFP⁺ or GFP⁻ sorted nuclei were imaged to calculate the extent of Sun1-GFP⁺ nuclei enrichment. GFP signal was visible in Sun1-GFP sorted nuclei, 334 and no GFP signal was found in the gating for GFP⁻ nuclei (Figure 3D). Our results indicate 335 that this method allows enrichment above 90% for astrocytes and microglia nuclei (Figure 3E). 336 We found that this high enrichment of GFP⁺ nuclei depends heavily on the absence of nuclei 337 doublets or clusters. As an example, we determined enrichment for astrocyte nuclei with and 338 without the second gating for doublets and found that the purity of Sun1-GFP nuclei improved 339 by 10% when doublets and clusters were excluded (Figure 3F). 340

341

342

343

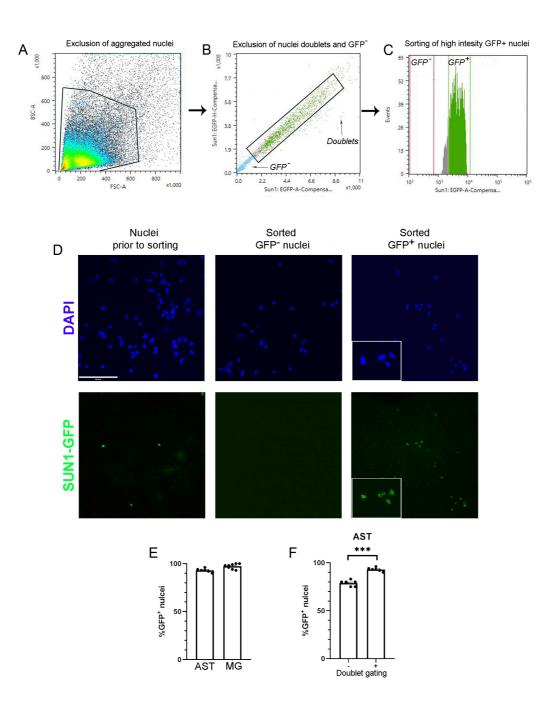


Figure 3. *High enrichment of GFP tagged nuclei obtained through FANS*. Representative images of the gating settings used to sort Sun1-GFP nuclei. (A) Gating set to discard clumps, events higher in the forward and back scattered channels; (B) population gated in A was then plotted according to EGFP signal intensity and area to identify nuclei singlets and remove doublets; (C) only nuclei singlets from the black box in B with higher EGFP signal intensity (shown in green) are collected, whereas events with lower EGFP signal (grey) are discarded.

(D) DAPI-stained nuclei obtained before sorting or from sorted GFP⁻ and GFP⁺ collection tubes
(E) Enrichment of Sun1-GFP⁺ sorted astrocyte (AST) or microglia (MG) nuclei (mean +/SEM, n=6-8). (F) Enrichment of Sun1-GFP⁺ sorted nuclei as % of GFP tagged nuclei for
astrocyte nuclei with or without gating to remove doublets, ***p<0.0001 unpaired t-test (n=6).

356

357 *3.2 RNA extraction yield and quality.*

To maintain high RNA quality and yield, we paused sorting a handful of times to vortex the 358 collection tube to ensure proper mixing of the nuclei in sheath solution with the lysis buffer. 359 Collection in the lysis buffer facilitates downstream processing, as lysis of the nuclei starts as 360 they are collected and does not require additional concentration steps before RNA extraction. 361 We also added 2-mercaptoethanol (2% final concentration) to the collection tube to account 362 for the volume of sheath solution containing the sorted nuclei. The RNA yield varied depending 363 on the type of cell: 70 - 240 ng of RNA for astrocytes, 170 - 370 ng for OPCs/oligodendrocytes 364 365 and 57 – 95 ng for microglia (Figure 4A). However, it is important to point out that these numbers cannot be compared directly because the samples used for each cell type were 366 collected from different brain regions, at different time points. Moreover, each model uses 367 368 distinctive Cre driver lines with presumably different Cre expression. The regimen of tamoxifen administration was also very different between animal models. 369

Interestingly, in the case of astrocytes and microglia, the amount of RNA obtained appears to be determined by the cell type and not the number of nuclei. To better visualize the cell typespecific differences in the RNA yield obtained, we calculated the amount of RNA per nuclei and saw that microglia have significantly lower RNA content per nuclei and the results are less variable compared to astrocytes and OPC/Oligodendrocytes (Figure 4B). These results indicate that there might be cell type-specific differences in the RNA content in the nuclei of glial cells. To validate the quality of RNA extraction, we selected astrocytes and OPC/Oligodendrocytes

for RIN analysis. Electrogram profiles and RIN from the Agilent bioanalyzer indicate that our protocol produced high integrity RNA (Figure 4C), as all RNA samples are above the quality threshold of a RIN above 7 for the glial cell types analyzed (Figure 4D). Therefore, despite differences in RNA content, enough high-quality RNA for further transcriptomic analysis can be obtained for each glial cell type with this method.

- 382
- 383

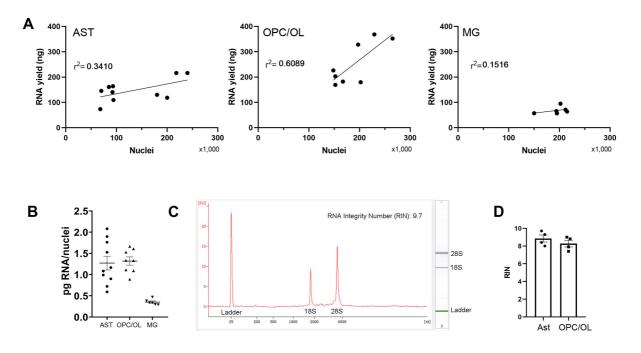


Figure 4. High RNA vield and quality from Sun1-GFP nuclei obtained through FANS. (A) 385 Correlation between RNA extracted from the respective nuclei collected for astrocytes (AST) 386 (p=0.0763), OPC/Oligodendrocytes (OPC/OLs) (p=0.0223) and microglia (MG) (p=0.4455). 387 388 (B) Calculated RNA content per nuclei obtained for every sorting session for each cell type analyzed, ***p<0.0001 One-way ANOVA with Tukey's Multiple comparisons (AST n=10, 389 OPC/OL n=8, MG n=6). (C) Representative electrogram and gel view from Agilent 390 391 Bioanalyzer used for RIN analysis. (D) Quality of RNA extraction as shown in RIN values of RNA samples extracted from astrocytes and OPC/OLs sorted nuclei (n=4). 392

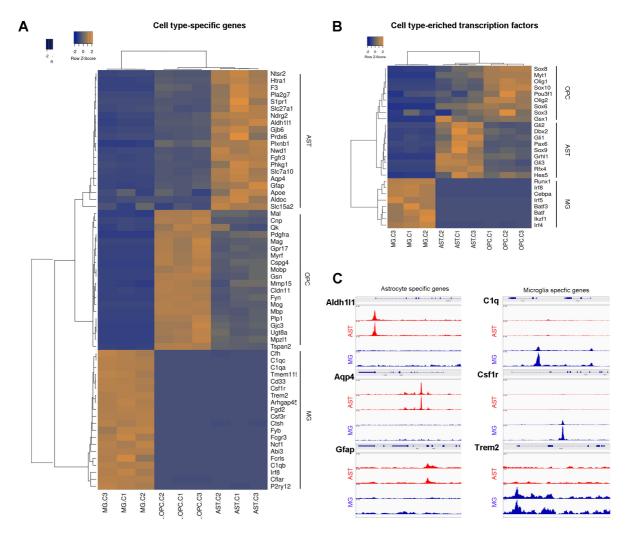
393

394 *3.3 Cell type-specific gene expression and chromatin availability.*

We performed RNA-seq with three biological replicates using the RNA from sorted nuclei of 395 396 astrocytes, microglia, and OPC/Oligodendrocytes. To further validate our approach, we compared the expression of well-known cell type-specific genes using the RNA-seq 397 transcriptome data. Hierarchical clustering of these genes shows that indeed, the cell type-398 specific sets are enriched in their corresponding sample (Figure 5A). To further characterize 399 our enriched populations, we used sets of transcription factors differentially expressed in each 400 glial cell type, previously reported by Zhang et al., 2014 (Figure 5B), and observed distinct 401 402 enrichment for the corresponding glial cell type and appropriate clustering of the samples. We also observe that astrocytes and OPC/Oligodendrocytes samples show higher similarity, 403 compared to microglia. The distinct clustering of each cell type based on gene expression 404 further validates that we obtained an enriched population of the desired glial cells, and that our 405 optimized method provides a useful tool to analyze the transcriptome of enriched nuclei 406 407 populations.

Astrocytes and microglia were selected for the validation of cell type-specific chromatin 408 accessibility on sorted nuclei. We therefore performed ATAC-seq with two biological 409 410 replicates using the sorted nuclei of astrocytes and microglia. To visualize the tracks of ATACseq, we selected cell-type specific genes that showed differential gene expression in our RNA-411 seq data. Consistent with cell type-specific gene expression, ATAC-seq also showed the 412 distinct cell type-specific chromatin accessibility peaks for microglia and astrocytes in selected 413 regions. For example, astrocytes specific genes Aldh111, Aqp4 and Gfap showed more open 414 415 chromatin in astrocytes but not in microglia. Similarly, microglia specific genes Clq, Csflr and Trem2 showed more open chromatin only in microglia (Figure 5C). Similar to the 416 transcriptomic results, chromatin accessibility assays reveal patterns characteristic of enriched 417

418 nuclei populations, confirming that our approach is suitable for omics analysis of the chromatin



419 as well as transcriptome.

Figure 5. Differential expression and chromatin availability of cell type-specific genes 421 determined by RNA-seq and ATAC-seq using sorted nuclei. (A) Heatmap of RNA-seq 422 expression results with single linkage clustering and Spearman rank correlation shows higher 423 expression of the corresponding cell type-specific genes for astrocytes (AST), 424 425 OPC/Oligodendrocytes (OPC/OLs) and microglia (MG). (B) Enriched expression in the corresponding glial cell of transcription factors reported in (Zhang et al., 2014) to be cell type-426 enriched. (C) Chromatin availability from ATAC-seq analysis show distinct accessibility peak 427 pattern in cell type-specific genes with differential expression determined with RNA-seq. 428

430

431 **4. CONCLUSION**

We present an optimized method for nuclei isolation and sorting of fluorescently tagged nuclei, 432 applicable to a diverse population of cell types. Our method takes advantage of commercially 433 available mouse lines that allow fluorescent labelling of nuclei from a variety of cell types of 434 interest, avoiding the use of fixatives, antibodies or DNA dyes. The protocol used here for 435 nuclei isolation and sorting consists of optimized, rapid and fewer manipulation steps, avoids 436 cell dissociation stress while still yielding highly purified cell type-specific nuclei in sufficient 437 quantity and quality for omics applications. This optimized protocol will therefore be a useful 438 reference for the investigation of chromatin structure and gene expression in specific mouse 439 brain cell types of interest. 440

441

442 Declaration of interest

443 None

444 Funding

445 This study was supported by operating funds from the Canadian Institutes for Health Research

to NGB (MOP142369). The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis,

447 decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

448

449 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Dr. Frank W. Pfrieger for facilitating the use of the Glast-CreER mouse line and
Alireza Ghahramani for analysis of the ATAC-seq data obtained from astrocyte and microglia
nuclei.

453

454

455

457

458 Supplementary table 1: list of primer sequences

Genotyping primer	Forward Sequence $5' \rightarrow 3'$	Reverse Sequence $5' \rightarrow 3'$
Sun1-GFP	AAG GGA GCT GCA GTG GAG TA	CGG GCC ATT TAC CGT AAG TTA T
Sox10-CreERT	CAC CTA GGG TCT GGC ATG T	CAG GTT TTG GTG CAC AGT CA
Glast-CreERT	ACA ATC TGG CCT GCT ACC AAA GC	CCA GTG AAA CAG CAT TGC TGT C
Cx3cr1-CreERT	AAG ACT CAC GTG GAC CTG CT	CGGTTATTCAACTTGCAC CA

460 **REFERENCES**

461

Allen, N.J., Eroglu, C., 2017. Cell Biology of Astrocyte-Synapse Interactions. Neuron 96, 697–708. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2017.09.056

- Allen, N.J., Lyons, D.A., 2018. Glia as architects of central nervous system formation and function.
 Science. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aat0473
- Babicki, S., Arndt, D., Marcu, A., Liang, Y., Grant, J.R., Maciejewski, A., Wishart, D.S., 2016.
 Heatmapper: web-enabled heat mapping for all. Nucleic acids research 44, W147–W153.
 https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkw419
- Barres, B.A., 2014. Designing and troubleshooting immunopanning protocols for purifying neural
 cells. Cold Spring Harbor Protocols 2014, 1342–1347. https://doi.org/10.1101/pdb.ip073999
- 471 Bayraktar, O.A., Fuentealba, L.C., Alvarez-Buylla, A., Rowitch, D.H., 2015. Astrocyte development and
 472 heterogeneity. Cold Spring Harbor Perspectives in Biology 7.
 473 https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a020362
- 474 Binek, A., Rojo, D., Godzien, J., Rupérez, F.J., Nunez, V., Jorge, I., Ricote, M., Vázquez, J., Barbas, C.,
 475 2019. Flow Cytometry Has a Significant Impact on the Cellular Metabolome. Journal of
 476 Proteome Research 18, 169–181. https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jproteome.8b00472
- 477 Cahoy, J.D., Emery, B., Kaushal, A., Foo, L.C., Zamanian, J.L., Christopherson, K.S., Xing, Y., Lubischer,
 478 J.L., Krieg, P.A., Krupenko, S.A., Thompson, W.J., Barres, B.A., 2008. A transcriptome database
 479 for astrocytes, neurons, and oligodendrocytes: A new resource for understanding brain
 480 development and function. Journal of Neuroscience 28, 264–278.
 481 https://doi.org/10.1522/UNEUROCCI.4170.07.2009.
- 481 https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.4178-07.2008
- 482 Chongtham, M.C., Butto, T., Mungikar, K., Gerber, S., Winter, J., 2021. Intact vs. Fans for cell-type483 specific nuclei sorting: A comprehensive qualitative and quantitative comparison. International
 484 Journal of Molecular Sciences 22. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms22105335
- 485 Domingues, H.S., Portugal, C.C., Socodato, R., Relvas, J.B., 2016. Oligodendrocyte, astrocyte, and
 486 microglia crosstalk in myelin development, damage, and repair. Frontiers in Cell and
 487 Developmental Biology. https://doi.org/10.3389/fcell.2016.00071
- 488 Douvaras, P., Fossati, V., 2015. Generation and isolation of oligodendrocyte progenitor cells from
 489 human pluripotent stem cells. Nature Protocols 10, 1143–1154.
 490 https://doi.org/10.1038/nprot.2015.075
- 491 Durkee, C.A., Araque, A., 2019. Diversity and Specificity of Astrocyte–neuron Communication.
 492 Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2018.11.010
- 493 Eggen, B.J.L., Boddeke, E.W.G.M., Kooistra, S.M., 2019. Regulation of Microglia Identity from an
 494 Epigenetic and Transcriptomic Point of View. Neuroscience.
 495 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2017.12.010
- Foo, L.C., Allen, N.J., Bushong, E.A., Ventura, P.B., Chung, W.S., Zhou, L., Cahoy, J.D., Daneman, R.,
 Zong, H., Ellisman, M.H., Barres, B.A., 2011. Development of a method for the purification and
 culture of rodent astrocytes. Neuron 71, 799–811.
- 499 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2011.07.022

500 Guez-Barber, D., Fanous, S., Harvey, B.K., Zhang, Y., Lehrmann, E., Becker, K.G., Picciotto, M.R., Hope, 501 B.T., 2012. FACS purification of immunolabeled cell types from adult rat brain. Journal of 502 Neuroscience Methods 203, 10–18. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2011.08.045 503 Hammond, T.R., Dufort, C., Dissing-Olesen, L., Giera, S., Young, A., Wysoker, A., Walker, A.J., Gergits, F., Segel, M., Nemesh, J., Marsh, S.E., Saunders, A., Macosko, E., Ginhoux, F., Chen, J., Franklin, 504 505 R.J.M., Piao, X., McCarroll, S.A., Stevens, B., 2019. Single-Cell RNA Sequencing of Microglia 506 throughout the Mouse Lifespan and in the Injured Brain Reveals Complex Cell-State Changes. 507 Immunity 50, 253-271.e6. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.immuni.2018.11.004 508 Holt, L.M., Olsen, M.L., 2016. Novel applications of magnetic cell sorting to analyze cell-type specific 509 gene and protein expression in the central nervous system. PLoS ONE 11. 510 https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0150290 Jiang, Y., Matevossian, A., Huang, H.S., Straubhaar, J., Akbarian, S., 2008. Isolation of neuronal 511 512 chromatin from brain tissue. BMC Neuroscience 9. https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-2202-9-42 513 John Lin, C.C., Yu, K., Hatcher, A., Huang, T.W., Lee, H.K., Carlson, J., Weston, M.C., Chen, F., Zhang, 514 Y., Zhu, W., Mohila, C.A., Ahmed, N., Patel, A.J., Arenkiel, B.R., Noebels, J.L., Creighton, C.J., 515 Deneen, B., 2017. Identification of diverse astrocyte populations and their malignant analogs. 516 Nature Neuroscience 20, 396–405. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.4493 517 Lattke, M., Goldstone, R., Ellis, J.K., Boeing, S., Jurado-Arjona, J., Marichal, N., MacRae, J.I., 518 Berninger, B., Guillemot, F., 2021. Extensive transcriptional and chromatin changes underlie 519 astrocyte maturation in vivo and in culture. Nature Communications 12. 520 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-24624-5 521 Maitra, M., Nagy, C., Chawla, A., Wang, Y.C., Nascimento, C., Suderman, M., Théroux, J.F., 522 Mechawar, N., Ragoussis, J., Turecki, G., 2021. Extraction of nuclei from archived postmortem tissues for single-nucleus sequencing applications. Nature Protocols. 523 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41596-021-00514-4 524 525 Marek, R., Caruso, M., Rostami, A., Grinspan, J.B., Sarma, J. das, 2008. Magnetic cell sorting: A fast 526 and effective method of concurrent isolation of high purity viable astrocytes and microglia from neonatal mouse brain tissue. Journal of Neuroscience Methods 175, 108–118. 527 528 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneumeth.2008.08.016 529 Marques, S., van Bruggen, D., Vanichkina, D.P., Floriddia, E.M., Munguba, H., Väremo, L., Giacomello, S., Falcão, A.M., Meijer, M., Björklund, Å.K., Hjerling-Leffler, J., Taft, R.J., Castelo-Branco, G., 530 531 2018. Transcriptional Convergence of Oligodendrocyte Lineage Progenitors during 532 Development. Developmental Cell 46, 504-517.e7. 533 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2018.07.005 534 Marques, S., Zeisel, A., Codeluppi, S., van Bruggen, D., Falcão, A.M., Xiao, L., Li, H., Häring, M., 535 Hochgerner, H., Romanov, R.A., Gyllborg, D., Muñoz-Manchado, A.B., la Manno, G., 536 Lönnerberg, P., Floriddia, E.M., Rezavee, F., Ernfors, P., Arenas, E., Hjerling-Leffler, J., Harkany, T., Richardson, W.D., Linnarsson, S., Castelo-Branco, G., 2016. Oligodendrocyte heterogeneity 537 in the mouse juvenile and adult central nervous system. Science 352, 1326–1329. 538 https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf6463 539

Matejuk, A., Ransohoff, R.M., 2020. Crosstalk Between Astrocytes and Microglia: An Overview.
 Frontiers in Immunology. https://doi.org/10.3389/fimmu.2020.01416

542 543	Matias, I., Morgado, J., Gomes, F.C.A., 2019. Astrocyte Heterogeneity: Impact to Brain Aging and Disease. Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnagi.2019.00059
544	Maze, I., Shen, L., Zhang, B., Garcia, B.A., Shao, N., Mitchell, A., Sun, H.S., Akbarian, S., Allis, C.D.,
545	Nestler, E.J., 2014. Analytical tools and current challenges in the modern era of
546	neuroepigenomics. Nature Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.1038/nn.3816
547	McKenzie, I.A., Ohayon, D., Li, H., de Faria, J.P., Emery, B., Tohyama, K., Richardson, W.D., 2014.
548	Motor skill learning requires active central myelination. Science 346, 318–322.
549	https://doi.org/10.1126/science.1254960
550	Mendizabal, I., Berto, S., Usui, N., Toriumi, K., Chatterjee, P., Douglas, C., Huh, I., Jeong, H., Layman,
551	T., Tamminga, C.A., Preuss, T.M., Konopka, G., Yi, S. v., 2019. Cell type-specific epigenetic links
552	to schizophrenia risk in the brain. Genome Biology 20. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-019-
553	1747-7
554	Mo, A., Mukamel, E.A., Davis, F.P., Luo, C., Henry, G.L., Picard, S., Urich, M.A., Nery, J.R., Sejnowski,
555	T.J., Lister, R., Eddy, S.R., Ecker, J.R., Nathans, J., 2015. Epigenomic Signatures of Neuronal
556	Diversity in the Mammalian Brain. Neuron 86, 1369–1384.
557	https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuron.2015.05.018
558	Nott, A., Holtman, I.R., Coufal, N.G., Schlachetzki, J.C.M., Yu, M., Hu, R., Han, C.Z., Pena, M., Xiao, J.,
559	Wu, Y., Keulen, Z., Pasillas, M.P., O'Connor, C., Nickl, C.K., Schafer, S.T., Shen, Z., Rissman, R.A.,
560	Brewer, J.B., Gosselin, D., Gonda, D.D., Levy, M.L., Rosenfeld, M.G., McVicker, G., Gage, F.H.,
561	Ren, B., Glass, C.K., 2019. Brain cell type–specific enhancer–promoter interactome maps and
562	disease-risk association. Science 366, 1134–1139. https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aay0793
563	Nutma, E., van Gent, D., Amor, S., Peferoen, L.A.N., 2020. Astrocyte and Oligodendrocyte Cross-Talk
564	in the Central Nervous System. Cells. https://doi.org/10.3390/cells9030600
565	Parkhurst, C.N., Yang, G., Ninan, I., Savas, J.N., Yates, J.R., Lafaille, J.J., Hempstead, B.L., Littman, D.R.,
566	Gan, W.B., 2013. Microglia promote learning-dependent synapse formation through brain-
567	derived neurotrophic factor. Cell 155, 1596–1609. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2013.11.030
568 569 570	Reemst, K., Noctor, S.C., Lucassen, P.J., Hol, E.M., 2016. The indispensable roles of microglia and astrocytes during brain development. Frontiers in Human Neuroscience 10. https://doi.org/10.3389/fnhum.2016.00566
571	Sakry, D., Karram, K., Trotter, J., 2011. Synapses between NG2 glia and neurons. Journal of Anatomy.
572	https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1469-7580.2011.01359.x
573	Sakry, D., Neitz, A., Singh, J., Frischknecht, R., Marongiu, D., Binamé, F., Perera, S.S., Endres, K., Lutz,
574	B., Radyushkin, K., Trotter, J., Mittmann, T., 2014. Oligodendrocyte Precursor Cells Modulate
575	the Neuronal Network by Activity-Dependent Ectodomain Cleavage of Glial NG2. PLoS Biology
576	12. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pbio.1001993
577	Slezak, M., Göritz, C., Niemiec, A., Frisén, J., Chambon, P., Metzger, D., Pfrieger, F.W., 2007.
578	Transgenic mice for conditional gene manipulation in astroglial cells. GLIA 55, 1565–1576.
579	https://doi.org/10.1002/glia.20570
580 581	Tiane, A., Schepers, M., Rombaut, B., Hupperts, R., Prickaerts, J., Hellings, N., van den Hove, D.,

- Vainchtein, I.D., Molofsky, A. v., 2020. Astrocytes and Microglia: In Sickness and in Health. Trends in
 Neurosciences. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tins.2020.01.003
- Xin, W., Chan, J.R., 2020. Myelin plasticity: sculpting circuits in learning and memory. Nature Reviews
 Neuroscience. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41583-020-00379-8
- 587 Zhang, Y., Chen, K., Sloan, S.A., Bennett, M.L., Scholze, A.R., O'Keeffe, S., Phatnani, H.P., Guarnieri, P.,
- 588 Caneda, C., Ruderisch, N., Deng, S., Liddelow, S.A., Zhang, C., Daneman, R., Maniatis, T., Barres,
- 589 B.A., Wu, J.Q., 2014. An RNA-sequencing transcriptome and splicing database of glia, neurons,
- and vascular cells of the cerebral cortex. Journal of Neuroscience 34, 11929–11947.
- 591 https://doi.org/10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1860-14.2014