Complement facilitates developmental microglial pruning of astrocyte and vascular networks

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Abstract

Microglia, the resident immune cell of the central nervous system, play a pivotal role in facilitating neurovascular development through mechanisms that are not fully understood. This current work resolves a previously unknown role for microglia in facilitating the developmental pruning of the astrocytic template resulting in a spatially organized retinal vascular bed. Mechanistically, our study identified that local microglial expression of complement (C)3 and C3aR is necessary for the regulation of astrocyte patterning and vascular growth during retinal development. Ablation of retinal microglia, loss of C3 or C3aR reduced developmental pruning and clearance of astrocytic bodies leading to increased astrocyte density leading to altered vascular patterning during retinal vascular development. This data demonstrates that C3/C3aR signaling is an important checkpoint required for the finetuning of vascular density during neuroretinal development.

62
63 **Introduction**
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High-energy demanding tissues, including neural tissues, require the development of a

complex vascular network for their growth, survival, and function. The process of

vascular development in neural tissue is orchestrated through highly regulated crosstalk

between cell types such as neurons, glial cells, and vascular cells for the establishment

of functional blood vessels that contain blood neural barrier properties (Abbott et al.,

2006; Fruttiger, 2007; Langen et al., 2019). We now know that the resident immune cell

of the central nervous system (CNS), microglia, is a vital contributor in promoting

neural-vascular development (Fantin et al., 2010; Rymo et al., 2011). However; the

mechanism(s) through which microglial cells dictate vascular growth in the CNS is not

fully understood. To further characterize the role of microglia in vascular development,

we utilized the retina as a model system allowing us to explore the cellular and

molecular contributions of microglia in forming this complex network.

The development of the vascular system in the retina is regulated by non-resident cell

types, microglia that populate the retina during early embryonic stages (Santos et al.,

2008) followed by astrocytes that enter the retina through the optic nerve head around

birth in mice (Fruttiger et al., 1996; Stone and Dreher, 1987; Watanabe and Raff, 1988).

Astrocyte migration and template formation in the retina is an essential step for vascular

development and interestingly species that lack astrocytes in the retina remain

avascular (Schnitzer, 1988; Stone and Dreher, 1987; Zhang and Stone, 1997). In the

vascularized retina, ganglion cell derived Pdgfa acts as a chemoattractant that

stimulates astrocyte entry into the retina at the time of birth (Fruttiger et al., 1996;

Fruttiger et al., 2000). In response to Pdgfa, astrocytes proliferate and migrate in a

centrifugal fashion to form a spatially organized template (that completes around

postnatal day (P)-5 thereby allowing subsequent vascular growth to occur (Fruttiger,

2007; Fruttiger et al., 1996; Fruttiger et al., 2000; Gnanaguru et al., 2013). While the

vascular template is forming and rearranging, the leading endothelial tip cells follow the

astrocyte laid template (beginning at P0) to form the superficial vascular layer by P7

(Dorrell et al., 2002; Gerhardt et al., 2003), followed by the formation of an

interconnected deep and intermediate vascular layers that completes around P15

(Fruttiger, 2007). Intriguingly, disruption of astrocyte template formation perturbs

subsequent vascular growth (Edwards et al., 2010; Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Tao and

Zhang, 2016).   Although the importance of astrocyte migration into the retina for

vascular growth is known, it remains unclear what signaling mechanism(s) modulate the

spatial organization of astrocyte and vascular networks during retinal development. In

cases of perturbed or abnormal vascular growth, permanent vision loss can occur

(Hartnett, 2020; Holmstrom et al., 2007; Wong et al., 2016), thus understanding these

mechanism(s) of vascular development could lead to new strategies for treating retinal

pathologies.

Microglia precede astrocytic entry into the neuroretina (Santos et al., 2008) and are

known to contribute to vascular growth by facilitating endothelial tip cell anastomoses

(Fantin et al., 2010; Rymo et al., 2011). However, to date it was less clear if microglia

also interact with astrocytes to assist astrocytic template formation. During neural

development microglia play an indispensable role in the formation of a defined and

functional neural circuitry mediated in part through microglia and the complement

signaling system (Anderson et al., 2019; Paolicelli et al., 2011; Schafer et al., 2012).

The complement system is an integral component of the innate immune system, initially

discovered as a component involved in opsonization and clearance of foreign

pathogens (Holers, 2014). Recent studies imply that in addition to its immune response

function, the complement system regulates wide-variety of biological functions such as

synaptic pruning, regulation of glial-microglial crosstalk, clearance of abnormal

neovascular growth, removal of stressed or dying cells and modulation of cell

metabolism (Anderson et al., 2019; Baudino et al., 2014; Coulthard et al., 2018; Inafuku

et al., 2018; Kim et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2016; Mevorach et al., 1998; Mukai et al.,

2018; Roy et al., 2013; Schafer et al., 2012; Sweigard et al., 2015). Depending on the

context/stimuli, complement activation is initiated through classical, alternative, or lectin

pathways (Pitulescu et al.), all of which lead to cleavage of C3 and C5 fragments, i.e.

the large C3b and C5b and the small C3a and C5a fragments (Holers, 2014; Merle et

al., 2015). In particular, the release of cleaved C3a binding and activation of its cognate

C3aR regulates diverse biological functions such as immune cell recruitment,

development of the cerebellum, modulation of embryonic neural progenitor proliferation

and cognitive performance, chick eye morphogenesis, and astrocyte-microglial crosstalk

to elicit inflammatory response in neurodegenerative conditions (Benard et al., 2008;

Coulthard et al., 2018; Grajales-Esquivel et al., 2017; Hartmann et al., 1997; Ingersoll et

al., 2010; Lian et al., 2016; Litvinchuk et al., 2018). Potentially, suggesting a more

ubiquitous role of C3a/C3aR signaling during retinal vascular development.

Prior to superficial retinal vascularization, the astrocyte template undergoes

rearrangement and a significant number of astrocytes are eliminated through an

unknown mechanism (Chan-Ling et al., 2009; Punal et al., 2019). Given the role of C3

in synaptic pruning and microglial-astrocyte crosstalk (Cong et al., 2020; Lian et al.,

2016; Schafer et al., 2012), we hypothesized and tested if C3 facilitates microglial

pruning of the astrocytic template required for astrocyte spatial organization and

subsequent vascular network development.

To assess the role of microglia in the regulation of the astrocytic and endothelial

networks formation during retinal development we utilized an antibody against the

purinergic receptor, P2ry12, which is microglial specific (Butovsky et al., 2014). We then

depleted microglia using colony-stimulating factor-1 (Csfr1) antagonist (Hilla et al.,

2017; Okunuki et al., 2019; Okunuki et al., 2018; Valdearcos et al., 2014), in order to

investigate the significance of microglial loss on astrocyte template formation and

subsequent vascular development. Data showed that the depletion of microglia severely

disrupted astrocytic template patterning and subsequent vascular growth. To

understand the mechanism of microglial regulation of astrocyte template patterning, we

examined C3 tdTomato and C3aR tdTomato expressing murine retina, as C3a/C3aR

signaling is involved in microglia/astrocyte crosstalk (Lian et al., 2016). Results revealed

concomitant expression of C3 and C3aR in microglia that are closely associated with

astrocytes in the vascularizing and adjacent avascular area. Finally, deficiency of C3 or

C3aR and functionally blocking C3aR illustrated the importance of complement

mediated pruning by microglia for the proper development of the astrocytic template.

158 Results

159 Microglia immigrate into the retina during embryonic development and closely

160 interact with astrocytes and endothelial cells during postnatal vascular

161 development.

To examine the distribution of microglia prior to astrocyte and endothelial entry into the

retina, we assessed E13.5 Cx3cr1-egfp retinas with a microglial specific P2ry12 marker.

Analysis showed that P2ry12 and Cx3cr1-egfp double positive microglia were localized

within the developing ganglion cell layer as well as in the neuroblastic layer (**Figure**

S1A). Since endothelial tip cell migration and vascularization in the retina is entirely

dependent on the prior formation of the astrocytic template (P0-P5) (Edwards et al.,

2010; Fruttiger et al., 1996; Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Stone and Dreher, 1987; Tao and

Zhang, 2016; Uemura et al., 2006), we examined if microglia closely associate with

astrocytes during astrocytic template formation (P0) and rearrangement (P5) allowing

for subsequent endothelial tip cell migration and vascular patterning.

Analysis of P0 retinal flatmounts revealed the close association of microglial ramified

processes with the developing astrocytic template as well as the entering endothelial tip

cells around the optic nerve head (ONH) region (**Figure 1A**). In addition, at P0, we

noticed the enveloping of microglial processes over astrocytes that are beginning to

form a naïve template in the central and peripheral retinal regions required for

subsequent vascular growth (**Figure 1A**). Further developmental analysis at P5

illustrated the existence of intimate interactions between microglia, astrocytes, and

endothelial tips cells in the vascularized regions and microglia-astrocyte interactions in

the avascular regions (**Figure 1B**). Of note, P2ry12 labeled retinal microglia exhibit

more prominent structures as compared to staining with Iba1 or isolectin B4 (**Figure 1C,**

1D, and Figure S1B), which allowed us to assess a clearer role for these cells than

previously known (i.e., astrocytes and endothelial cells) during vascular development.

Depletion of microglia is associated with increased astrocytic density and spatial

patterning

To further investigate the functional relevance of microglial interactions with astrocytes

and endothelial cells during the critical steps of astrocytic template assembly and

subsequent vascular development, we designed a strategy to deplete microglia from

P0. Colony-stimulating factor 1 receptor (Csf1r) signaling is required for microglial

survival (Elmore et al., 2014; Okunuki et al., 2019; Okunuki et al., 2018), and prior work

found that Csf1r deletion during early development is embryonic lethal (Chitu and

Stanley, 2017), thus we utilized a pharmacologic approach whereby Csf1r is inhibited to

deplete microglia (Okunuki et al., 2019; Okunuki et al., 2018). To overcome the

technical challenges to deplete microglia from birth, timed-pregnant C57BL6J females

were fed a diet incorporated with Csf1r specific antagonist (PLX5622) from

E13.5/E14.5. We have recently reported that mice fed a diet containing Csf1r specific

antagonist (PLX5622) more effectively depletes microglia in the retina, similar to genetic

approaches, but with minimal off-target effects (Okunuki et al., 2019; Okunuki et al.,

2018).

P2ry12 immunostaining of P1 and P5 retinal flatmounts of litters from control diet fed

group or PLX5622 diet fed group show that the PLX5622 antagonist successfully

depleted microglia in comparison to controls (**Figure S2A and S2C**). Analysis of RNA

extracted from P1 and P5 retinas of PLX5622 treated animals also showed significant

decrease in Csf1r, Tmem119, and P2ry12 gene expression levels in comparison to the

P1 control treated group (**Figure S2B and S2D**). Flowcytometric analysis further

confirmed significant microglial depletion (**Figure S3C and S3D**). Following microglial

depletion during early retinal vascular development, we examined P1 (active astrocyte

template assembly phase) and P5 (active astrocyte template rearrangement and

vascular growth phase) retinas of litters from control mice and in mice lacking microglia.

Although microglial depletion did not prevent astrocyte migration into the retina, analysis

of P1 retinal flatmounts from pups lacking microglia showed a moderate reduction in the

astrocytes migrated area compared to control retinas (**Figure S2E**). While at P5, control

retinal flatmounts displayed typical astrocyte honeycomb patterning in the central

vascular and peripheral avascular retina (**Figure 2A**). In contrast, examination of litters

from mice lacking microglia displayed abnormal clustering of astrocytes in the central

vascular region (**Figure 2A**). In the peripheral avascular region, spatial distribution of

astrocytes was dramatically increased in pups lacking retinal microglia compared to

controls (**Figure 2A and 2C**). Furthermore, quantitative analysis by flowcytometry

showed that the percentage of Pdgfra+ (a marker for astrocytes) astrocyte population

was significantly increased in pups lacking microglia in comparison to the control group

(**Figure 2D, 2E, and S3B**) with no aberrant changes in expression of the retinal

astrocytes growth factor Pdgfa (Fruttiger et al., 1996; Fruttiger et al., 2000) (**Figure**

2B). Intriguingly, the abnormal astrocytic density and clustering phenotype persisted

even following the completion of vascular development at P15 (**Figure S4**). Astrocyte

distribution at P15 retinal flatmounts with and without microglia were assessed using the

Gfap marker as it is strongly expressed in mature astrocytes (Chan-Ling et al., 2009).

Gfap immunostained P15 retinas of pups lacking microglia showed significant increase

in astrocyte distribution along with increased astrocytic template branching in the central

and peripheral retinas compared to controls (**Figure S4A and S4B**). P15 retinal

flatmounts that lacked microglia also contained abnormal clustering of astrocytes

compared to control retinas (**Figure S4C**). Taken together, these findings strongly

implicate microglia as playing a significant role in supporting the spatial establishment of

the astrocytic template required for retinal angiogenesis.

Depletion of microglia reduced subsequent astrocyte dependent vascular growth

and density

Proper formation of the astrocytic template and microglia derived signaling are

necessary for endothelial tip cell migration and subsequent formation of the superficial

retinal vascular network (Edwards et al., 2010; Gerhardt et al., 2003; Gnanaguru et al.,

2013; Outtz et al., 2011; Rymo et al., 2011; Tao and Zhang, 2016). As microglial

depletion resulted in defective assembly of the astrocytic template, we next examined

the effects on subsequent vascular growth (**Figure S5**). Analysis of retinal flatmounts in

litters from mice lacking microglia showed that the vascularized area at P1 and P5 were

significantly reduced in comparison to litters from control group (**Figure S5A and S5B**).

We further confirmed that the PLX5622 treatment did not alter gene expression levels of

vegf isoforms, key for retinal vascular growth (**Figure S3E**). Consistent with the

previous findings (Fantin et al., 2010; Rymo et al., 2011), depletion of microglia also

significantly reduced vascular density and branching points, while dramatically

increasing lacunarity in P5 litters of mice lacking microglia compared to litters of control

animals (**Figure S5C and S5D**). Examination of P15 retinal flatmounts of litters from

mice lacking microglia revealed that the vascular phenotype observed (reduced density,

branching points, and increased lacunarity) persisted even after the completion of

vascular development (**Figure S6**).

Microglia utilize complement to facilitate spatial astrocytic template for

subsequent vascular development

During retinal vascular development, large numbers of astrocytes are eliminated

through an uncharacterized mechanism likely facilitated by microglia peaking at P5

(Chan-Ling et al., 2009; Punal et al., 2019), to help spatially organized astrocytic

template establishment. In agreement with the previous findings (Chan-Ling et al., 2009;

Punal et al., 2019), analysis of P5 retinal flatmounts showed engulfed Gfap positive

astrocytic cellular debris localized within the microglial endosomal/lysosomal membrane

protein CD68 (**Figures 3A, 3A' and Figure S7A**).

C3 derived signaling is well known to facilitate the refinement of neural architecture by

pruning and eliminating dying neurons (Anderson et al., 2019). Therefore, we

investigated if C3 regulates microglial pruning of the astrocytic template for the

establishment of a defined spatially organized vascular network. Examination of C3

transcript levels during the active astrocytic template rearrangement phase (P5) showed

significant increase relative to P0 (early astrocytic template assembly phase) and P15

(vascular development completion phase) **(Figure 3B)**. Moreover, assessment of P5

retinal flatmounts using C3 tdTomato reporter mice showed robust localization of C3 in

microglia that are closely associated with astrocytes in the vascular growth and adjacent

avascular zones at active astrocyte template rearrangement and subsequent vascular

developmental phase (**Figure 3C and 3D**).

We next assessed P5 retinal flatmounts of C3 deficient mice along with their WT

littermate controls to define how the loss of C3 affected astrocytic template

rearrangement. Analysis of C3 deficient P5 retinas showed a significant reduction in the

localization of Gfap positive astrocytic cell debris within microglial CD68 compared to

WT littermate control retinas (**Figure 3E and Figure S7B**). Notably, in comparison to

the WT P5 littermate retinal flatmounts, analysis of Pdgfra immunostained P5 C3

deficient retinal flatmounts displayed a significant increase in astrocyte template density,

branching index, and decreased lacunarity, indicative of reduced spatial gap in

astrocyte template (**Figure 3F**).

Given that the loss of C3 dramatically increased astrocytes density and spatial

patterning (**Figure 3F**), we next analyzed the effect of C3 loss on subsequent vascular

growth at P5. Data show that in comparison to WT littermates, P5 C3 deficient retinal

flatmounts showed significant increase in the vascularized area (**Figure S8A**). In

addition to increased vascular growth, vessel density was significantly increased in the

P5 retinal flatmounts of C3 deficient pups compared to P5 WT littermate retinal

flatmounts (**Figure S8B**), while the spatial gap was significantly reduced in P5 C3 KO

compared to WT littermate controls (**Figure S8B**). These results suggest that C3 plays

an important role in regulating spatial astrocytic template assembly for subsequent

superficial retinal vascular development.

C3aR activation controls microglia-mediated phagocytosis of astrocytes

C3a/C3aR signaling has been shown to regulate microglia-astrocyte crosstalk (Lian et

al., 2016; Litvinchuk et al., 2018). Therefore, we investigated if microglia use a

C3a/C3aR dependent signaling mechanism to phagocytose and eliminate astrocytic

bodies leading to a spatially organized astrocyte network during vascular development.

During the astrocytic template rearrangement phase, expression analysis of C3aR

revealed a significant increase at P5 in comparison to P0 and P15 retinas (**Figure 4C**).

Further examination of P5 retinal flatmounts of C3aR-tdTomato reporter mice (Quell et

al., 2017) showed strong expression of C3aR in microglia within vascular growth and

avascular zones (**Figures 4A and 4B**). In order to test if C3aR is involved in the

phagocytosis and elimination of astrocyte bodies, we isolated and cultured retinal

microglia and astrocytes from P5 pups. After labeling cultured astrocytes with DiI to

track and identify this population, astrocytic cell death was induced by staurosporine

treatment. Retinal microglia were treated with DiI-labeled dead astrocytic bodies in the

presence or absence of C3aR neutralizing antibodies or control IgG to determine if

C3aR facilitates microglial phagocytosis of astrocytic dead cell bodies. Blocking of

C3aR significantly reduced microglial engulfment of DiI-labeled dead astrocyte bodies

when compared to IgG control (**Figure 4D**). Examination of P5 C3aR KO retinal

flatmounts showed a significant reduction in the localization of Gfap positive astrocytic

cell debris within microglial CD68 compared to WT littermate control retinas (**Figure**

4E). Analysis of Pdgfra+ astrocytic template formation at P5 also showed increased

astrocytic density and branching, and reduced spatial distribution in C3aR KO retinas

compared to WT littermate controls (**Figure 4E**). Astrocytic template dependent

subsequent superficial vascular growth and vascular density were increased with

reduced spatial vascular patterning in P5 C3aR KO retinal flatmounts in comparison to

its WT littermate controls (**Figures S8C and S8D)**. These results illustrate that

microglial C3aR receptor facilitates the developmental elimination of astrocytes for

spatial patterning and for organized succeeding vascular network formation.

In summary, these results identify microglia as a key regulator of astrocyte spatial

patterning and subsequent vascular development through the C3a/C3aR derived

signaling axis.

Discussion

Microglia are essential for neural development (Anderson et al., 2019; Santos et al.,

2008; Schafer et al., 2012), and in particular microglia play an important role during

neurovascular growth (Fantin et al., 2010; Rymo et al., 2011). In this study, we

uncovered a mechanism through which microglia direct neurovascular development in

the retina. Results from this study show that the depletion of microglia early during

astrocytic patterning and subsequent vascular growth phases increased astrocyte

density and caused abnormal astrocyte template formation and reduced vascular

growth (**Figure 2, Figures S3, S4, S5, and S6**). Mechanistically, our study identified

that microglia derived C3a/C3aR signaling regulates spatial patterning of astrocyte and

vascular networks (**Figures 3, 4, and figure S8**). Specifically, deficiency of C3 resulted

in dramatic reduction in microglial phagocytosis of astrocyte debris leading to increased

astrocyte density and reduced spatial gap (**Figure 3**). In addition, loss of C3aR

diminished microglial phagocytosis of dying astrocyte bodies (**Figure 4**), implicating a

role for the C3a/C3aR signaling axis in eliminating astrocytes during retinal

development. Taken together, these findings uncovered a new functional role for

microglia derived C3 signaling in regulating retinal vascular development.

Recent advancements in the discovery of microglial specific markers, such as P2ry12,

which are highly expressed during development (Butovsky et al., 2014), allowed us to

further define the extensively ramified morphology of microglia during development

along with their close interaction with astrocytes during development. The finding of

elaborate ramified morphology of microglial associations with astrocytes and endothelial

cells during development is particularly intriguing, as prior use of generic myeloid cell

markers such as Iba1 did not reveal the complex morphology or the extent to which

microglia associate with astrocytes during development (Fantin et al., 2010; Outtz et al.,

2011; Rymo et al., 2011). Given the fact that formation of the astrocyte template is the

most critical step for retinal vascular development (Fruttiger, 2007; Fruttiger et al., 1996;

Uemura et al., 2006), previous studies provided insights into the microglial regulation of

endothelial tip cell fusion during retinal vascular development (Checchin et al., 2006;

Fantin et al., 2010; Rymo et al., 2011), however, the role for microglia in astrocyte

template assembly or pruning was not clearly known. In this study, the identification of

close microglial interactions with astrocytes in the avascular central and peripheral

retina at P0 suggested microglia have a role in facilitating astrocyte template assembly.

It is known that astrocytes use laminin basement membrane molecules present in the

inner limiting membrane (ILM) as a substrate for migration and template formation

(Edwards et al., 2010; Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Tao and Zhang, 2016). Deletion of

laminin isoforms or the laminin-binding proteoglycans severely disrupt ILM formation,

astrocyte template assembly, and succeeding vascularization (Edwards et al., 2010;

Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Tao and Zhang, 2016). In addition to known extracellular matrix

cues, our study discovered that the depletion of microglia during the early stages of the

astrocyte template assembly phase (from birth), results in abnormal clustering of

astrocytes leading to defective template formation. This finding strongly suggests that

the spaced honeycomb shaped astrocyte patterning is regulated at multiple cellular and

extracellular levels (Fruttiger et al., 1996; Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Tao and Zhang, 2016;

Uemura et al., 2006), allowing for the formation of an organized vascular network in the

retina during development.

Spatial restructuring during development is an important process that helps retinal

maturation and function (Anderson et al., 2019; Chan-Ling et al., 2009; Fuerst et al.,

2008; Hughes and Chang-Ling, 2000; Li et al., 2015). It is well documented that during

the developmental restructuring process, large numbers of retinal ganglion cells are

eliminated (Anderson et al., 2019; Li et al., 2015) and microglia, via C3 dependent

signaling mechanisms, phagocytose dying ganglion cells to aid spatial organization

(Anderson et al., 2019). Similar to ganglion cells (Anderson et al., 2019; Li et al., 2015),

large numbers of astrocytes also undergo cell death peaking at P5 and are removed by

microglia through unknown mechanisms (Chan-Ling et al., 2009; Punal et al., 2019).

Interestingly, the C3b binding receptor CR3 (also known as CD11b or integrin alpha M)

involved in neural pruning, was not associated with astrocyte elimination during retinal

vascular development (Punal et al., 2019; Schafer et al., 2012).

Several studies have indicated that the C3a anaphylatoxin, and its cognate receptor

C3aR involved in immune cell recruitment, mediate astrocyte/microglial crosstalk in the

context of neuroinflammation (Lian et al., 2016; Lian et al., 2015; Litvinchuk et al., 2018;

Surugiu et al., 2019), thus, in this study we investigated whether C3a/C3aR axis

activation also assists in the developmental removal of dying astrocyte bodies/debris by

microglia. In contrast to the astrocytic production of C3 in diseased states (Lian et al.,

2016; Litvinchuk et al., 2018), our study identified that local expression of C3 and its

receptor C3aR were predominantly expressed by microglia during vascular

development. It is likely that microglia that are closely interacting with astrocytes deposit

C3 over the template for pruning. Supporting our notion, loss of C3 or C3aR

dramatically reduced microglial phagocytic ability to eliminate astrocytes during retinal

development. Although we cannot rule out the possible involvement of other

complement cleavage fragment receptors, our data provides a compelling role for the

C3a/C3aR signaling axis in astrocyte template pruning.

Proper spatial assembly of the astrocytic template is a prerequisite for endothelial tip

cell migration for the development of retinal vasculature (Edwards et al., 2010;

Gnanaguru et al., 2013; Tao and Zhang, 2016). In light of the previous findings

(Hellstrom et al., 2007; Pitulescu et al., 2017), our investigation reveals a plausible role

for complement signaling creating a spatially organized astrocytic network to fine tune

endothelial tip cell morphogenesis during development.

In conclusion, our study identified a novel functional role for the microglia derived C3

signaling axis in defining astrocyte spatial pattering and subsequent vascular growth

during development.

Materials and Methods

Mice

All animal procedures were performed in accordance with the Massachusetts Eye and

Ear Animal Care Committee. Mice were maintained in a room with a 12 hours light/12

hours dark cycle. C57BL6/J (stock # 00664), C3 KO (stock # 029661), and C3aR KO

(stock # 033904) breeding pairs were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. C3 KO

and C3aR KO mice were crossed to C57BL6/J mice to create a heterozygous line. Pups

generated from the heterozygous lines carrying C3+/+ (wild type (WT)), C3-/- (C3 KO),

C3aR+/+, and C3aR-/- genotypes were used for the studies. Floxed C3 IRES-tdTomato

reporter mice (Kolev et al., 2020) obtained from Dr. Kemper were bred to C57BL6/J

mice and maintained on C57BL6/J background. Floxed C3aR-tdTomato reporter knock-

in mice (Quell et al., 2017) obtained from Dr. Köhl were maintained on C57BL6/J

background.

Microglial depletion during development

Timed-pregnant mice were maintained on control chow diet or chow diet containing

Csfr1 inhibitor (PLX5622, Plexxikon Inc. Berkeley, CA) from gestational day 13.5/14.5.

Retinas were collected from pups at postnatal days (P) 1, P5, and P15 for downstream

analysis.

Isolation and culture of retinal microglia and astrocytes

Astrocytes and microglial cells were isolated by immunopanning methodology (Collins

and Bohlen, 2018; Zhang et al., 2016). In brief, six-well culture plates were coated with

respective secondary antibodies (10μg/ml diluted in sterile 50mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.5) by

incubating for 1 hour at 37˚C. After washes, culture plates were coated with 2.5 μg/ml of

anti-CD11b or anti-integrin beta5 for overnight in the cell culture hood and washed in 1X

PBS. P5 retinas (n=8) were isolated in ice-cold sterile 1X-DPBS (Thermo Fischer

Scientific, Foster City, CA) and incubated in DMEM/F12 containing 5% fetal bovine

serum (FBS), collagenase D (1mg/ml,) and DNase (0.1mg/ml) for 30 min at 37˙C. The

retinas were then gently triturated in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10% FBS and

filtered through a 40μm cell strainer to remove cell clumps and debris. The resultant

single cell suspension was incubated in secondary antibody only coated well for 10 min

at 37˙C to deplete non-specific cell binding. The unbound cell suspension was then

transferred to anti-CD11b coated wells and incubated for 20 min 37˙C to capture

microglia (culture plate was shaken every 5 min to dislodge non-specific cell binding).

After depleting microglia, the cell suspension was transferred to integrin beta 5 coated

wells to capture astrocytes and incubated for 45 min at 37˙C (culture plates were

shaken every 10 min to dislodge non-specific cell binding). After removing the unbound

cells, microglia and astrocyte cell culture plates were thoroughly washed in serum free

DMEM/F12. Microglial cells were grown and maintained in DMEM/F12 supplemented

with 5% FBS and 10ng/ml of recombinant mouse csf1, and astrocytes were grown and

maintained in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10% FBS and N-2.

In vitro phagocytosis assay

To examine microglial phagocytosis of dead astrocyte bodies, ~2,500 microglial cells

were plated on a 12mm glass coverslip and maintained for 48 hours. Astrocyte cell

suspensions were labeled with Vybrant™ Dil cell labeling solution as suggested by the

manufacturer (Thermo Fischer Scientific, Foster City, CA) and cell death was induced

by incubating the labeled astrocyte cell suspension with 1μM staurosporine (Cayman

Chemical Company, Ann Arbor, MI). Microglial cells were then treated with Dil-labeled

dead astrocyte bodies in 1:1 ratio and incubated for 2 hours. For receptor neutralization

assays, microglial cells were preincubated with 20µg/ml of anti-C3aR antibody (Catalog

MAB10417) or control IgG (R&D Systems, Inc. Minneapolis, MN) suspended in

DMEM/F12 supplemented with 5% heat-inactivated FBS, followed by treatment with DiI-

labeled astrocyte dead bodies in the presence of antibodies for 2 hr at 37˙C. After

thorough washes, cells were fixed in 4% PFA, blocked for 1hr at room temperature (in

10% fetal bovine serum, 0.05%triton-X100, and 0.01% sodium azide in 1X PBS),

followed by incubation with P2ry12 antibody (Catalog# AS-55043A, AnaSpec, Fremont,

CA) overnight at 4˙C and then incubated with goat anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 488 or 647

(Thermo Fischer Scientific, Foster City, CA), images were acquired using epifluroscent

microscope (Axio Observer Zeiss).

Flatmount preparation and immunostaining

Retinal flatmounts were prepared as described previously (Gnanaguru et al., 2013). In

brief, eyes were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 10-15 min and then dissected

in 1X PBS. After discarding the anterior chamber and lens, the retina was separated

from the sclera. Retinal flatmounts were prepared with four radial incisions and the

flatmounts were then stored in methanol at -20˙C until immunostaining was performed.

For immunohistochemistry, retinas were rehydrated in 1X PBS and washed at 3X and

blocked in blocking buffer (10% fetal bovine serum, 0.05%triton-X100, and 0.01%

sodium azide in 1X PBS) for 2hr at room temperature. Following blocking, retinas were

then incubated with primary antibodies for 24 hr at 4˙C. After washes in 1X PBS, retinal

flatmounts were incubated with respective secondary antibodies for 4hr at room

temperature or overnight at 4˙C. The flatmounts were then washed in 1X PBS and

mounted onto a slide using anti-fade medium (Permaflour, Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA).

Primary antibodies used: Rat anti-Pdgfra (CD140A, clone: APA5, BD Biosciences, San

Jose, CA), anti-chicken GFAP (Aves Labs, Inc, Davis, CA), rabbit anti-P2ry12 (a gift

from Dr.Butovsky, Brigham and Women's Hospital), rat anti-mouse CD68 (Clone: FA-

11, Biolegend, Dedham, MA), anti-rabbit Iba1(Catalog# 019-19741, FUJIFILM Wako

Chemicals, Richmond, VA), and goat anti-CD31 (Catalog # AF3628, R&D Systems,

Inc. Minneapolis, MN).

Secondary antibodies used: Donkey anti-chicken 594 (Biotium, Inc. Fremont, CA), anti-

rat-594, donkey anti-rabbit-488, and donkey anti-goat-647 (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

Waltham, MA)

Cryosectioning

The enucleated eyes were fixed in 4% PFA for 2hr at room temperature and then the

dissected posterior eyecups were cryopreserved in 10%, 20%, and 30% sucrose and

then frozen in Tissue-Tek® O.C.T compound (Ted Pella, Inc. Redding, CA). The

eyecups were then cut at 12µm thickness and used for immunohistochemistry.

Flow cytometry

Singe cell suspensions were prepared from retinas that were dissected in ice-cold

HBSS and then incubated with collagenase D (1mg/ml) and DNAse (0.1mg/ml)

(Millipore Sigma) in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 5% FBS for 30 min at 37˙C. After

filtering the cells through a 40µm cell strainer, single cell suspensions were blocked with

anti-mouse CD16/32 monoclonal antibody and then stained with APC anti-Pdgfra

(CD140a, clone: APA5), and PE anti-p2ry12 (clone: S16007D, Biolegend, Dedham,

MA). Dead cells were distinguished with DAPI stain. The data for flow cytometry was

acquired by Cytoflex S (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, Indiana) and analyzed using

FlowJo version 10.1.

Real-time PCR

Retinas were isolated in ice-cold PBS and RNA was extracted using RNA STAT-60™

as recommended by the manufacturer. After determining the RNA concentration using

NanoDrop™, 500ng of total RNA was used for cDNA synthesis using SuperScript™ IV

VILO™ Master Mix. Real-time PCR reactions were performed in the CFX384™ Real-

time PCR platform (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) using SYBR Green master mix (Applied

biosystems, Thermo Fischer Scientific, Foster City, CA) to determine the relative

expression level of *Pdgfa* , *P2ry12*, *Tmem119*, *Csf1r*, *Vegfc*, *Vegf120*, *Vegf164*, and

Vegf188 (Darland et al., 2011). Sequences of primers used: *Ppia* (TTC ACC TTC CCA

AAG ACC AC and CAA ACA CAA ACG GTT CCC AG), *Pdgfa*

(ATTAACCATGTGCCCGAGAA and GTATCTCGTAAATGACCGTCCTG), *P2ry12*

(CCAGTCTGCAAGTTCCACTAAC and GAGAAGGTGGTATTGGCTGAG, *Tmem119*

(GGTCCTTCACCCAGAGC and GGAGTGACACAGAGTAGGC), *Csf1r* (TGT

ATGTCTGTCATGTCTCTGC and AGGTGTAGCTATTGCCTTCG), *Vegfc*

(GAAGTTCCACCATCAAACATGC and CAGCGGCAT ACTTCTTCACTA), *Vegf120*

(GCCAGCACATAGGAGAGATGAGC and CGGCTTGTCACATTTTTCTGG), *Vegf164*

(GCCAGCACATAGGAGAGATGAGC and CAAGGCTCACAGTGATTTTCTGG), and

Vegf188 (GCCAGCACATAGGAGAGATGAGC and AACAAGGCTCACAGTGAACGCT).

Image analysis

Samples were imaged using an epifluroscent microscope (Axio Observer Zeiss) or

confocal microscopy (SP8, Leica). For 3D image reconstruction of Z-stack images,

Amira® 2019.4 software tool was used.

Analysis of astrocyte and vascular coverage

Tiled images of the entire retinal surface immunostained for Pdgfra or CD31 were

acquired. Using NIH-ImageJ (version 2.1.0/1.55c)) software, scale measurements were

set and an outline of the astrocyte or vascular growth front was created using manual

freehand selection tool total area of the Pdgfra or CD31 immunostained area was

measured. Tip cells were manually quantified in all four quadrants using ImageJ multi-

point tool.

Microglia immunostained cellular area measurement

Images of retinal flatmounts co-labeled with CD31 and P2ry12 or CD31 and Iba1 were

acquired in all the retinal quadrants near the tip cell and avascular peripheral regions by

confocal microscopy. Outline of P2ry12 or Iba1 stained cell area was manually drawn

using Image J (version 2.1.0/1.53c) freehand selection tool and each immunostained

cell area was measured and quantified.

Analysis of astrocyte and vessel density, branching, and lacunarity

Astrocyte and blood vessel covered area were quantified using ImageJ (version

2.1.0/1.53c) Angiogenesis Analyzer plugin tool. In brief, using free hand selection tool

the edges of astrocyte or blood vessel stained region was manually selected and the

area was determined. Tip cells were manually quantified in all four quadrants using

ImageJ Wand tracing tool. Vascular density, branching index, and lacunacity was

analyzed using ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer.

Statistical analysis

All the other graphs and statistical analysis were performed using Prism version 9

software. All data were presented as the mean +/- SEM. Statistical differences between

the two groups were determined by unpaired t test. The 'n' and the level of statistical

significance were noted in the legend of each figure.

Data availability

Images and flow cytometry data used for the analysis are uploaded to Harvard

institutional repository. Upon acceptance these data will be publicly available

(https://dataverse.harvard.edu/dataset.xhtml?persistentId=doi:10.7910/DVN/CDJYDT).

All raw data will also be available by reaching out to the Lead Contact, Gopalan

Gnanaguru (gopalan_gnanaguru@meei.harvard.edu).

Author contributions

GG and KMC designed research and wrote the manuscript; GG performed research

and analyzed data; SJT and KY analyzed data; RM performed embryonic study, CK and

JK generated and provided reporter mice.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare no competing interests

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Figures

Figure 1. Microglia populate the retina early in embryonic development and are recruited to sites of astrocyte template formation and vascularization. **A.** Cross section of an embryonic (E) day 13.5 Cx3cr1-gfp expressing retina immunostained for P2ry12 and DAPI nuclear stain (blue). Overlaid images reveal Cx3cr1-gfp and P2ry12 colocalization within a microglia cell population. (**B** and **C**) Retinal flatmounts prepared from P0 and P5 pups were immunostained for Pdgfra, P2ry12, and CD31 and Z-stack images were acquired and 3D-reconstructed to examine microglial interaction with astrocytes and endothelial tip cells early during vascular development. **B.** Representative 3D-reconstructed image near the optic nerve head (ONH), central, and peripheral retina revealing microglia (P2ry12-green) have a close association with astrocytes (Pdgfra-grey), and endothelial tip cells (CD31-red) (n=3). **C.** Representative 3D-reconstructed image of P5 C57BL/6J retinal flatmount immunostained for Pdgfra (astrocyte marker), P2ry12 (microglial marker), and CD31 (endothelial cell marker). Confocal z-stack images were taken near the leading tip cell area and avascular peripheral retina to visualize microglial interaction with endothelial cells and astrocytes (n=5). **D.** Representative 3D reconstructed P5 retinal flatmount immunostained for either P2ry12 or Iba1 revealing microglia morphology. Areas with increased intensity are indicated as hotspots (n=4). **E.** Quantification of P2ry12 and Iba1 localized expression around tip cells and avascular regions of the retina (n=4). Scale bars: A is 100 µm, B, C, and D are 10 µm. All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical differences were calculated by unpaired *t* test. **** P < 0.0001

Figure 2. Csf1r specific antagonist effectively depletes retinal microglia early in

vascular developmental stage. Time-pregnant C57BL/6J mice from gestational day

E13.5/E14.5 were fed a control or Csf1r specific antagonist (PLX5622) diet and

littermate controls were analyzed at P1 and P5 developmental time points. (A-F). **A.**

Representative P1 retinal flatmounts from control or PLX5622 treated groups showing

staining of P2ry12 (Green). **B.** Real-time PCR analysis of relative gene expression

levels of microglia markers, *Csf1r*, *P2ry12*, and *Tmem119* at P1 (n=3) in the retinas of

control or PLX5622 groups. **C.** Representative anti-P2ry12 immunostaining of retinal

flatmounts showing microglial distribution at P5. **D.** Real-time PCR analysis of relative

gene expression levels of microglia markers, *Csf1r*, *P2ry12*, and *Tmem119* at P5 (n=5)

in the retinas of control or PLX5622 groups. **E.** P1 retinal flatmounts isolated from

control or PLX5622 groups were immunostained for Pdgfra, the percentage of astrocyte

coverage (indicated by dotted lines in images) was quantified and shown in the graph

(n=4). Scale bar: A, C, and D are 500µm. All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical

differences between control and PLX-5622 group was calculated by unpaired *t* test. * P

< 0.05, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001

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Figure 3. Microglia depletion in early vascular development increases astrocyte density

and causes abnormal template formation. Time-pregnant C57BL/6J mice from

gestational day E13.5/E14.5 were fed either a control or Csfr1 specific antagonist

(PLX5622) diet and littermates were analyzed at P5. (A-E). **A.** Representative P5 retinal

flatmount from control or PLX5622 groups immunostained for Pdgfra and P2ry12. Cell

morphology and patterning of astrocytes (Pdgfra, grey) and microglia (P2ry12, Green)

were observed in avascular central and peripheral retina (n=4). Scale bar: 50 μm. **B.**

Real-time PCR analysis of relative gene expression levels of *Pdgfa* at P5 (n=5) in the

retinas of control or PLX5622 groups**. C.** Images of control and PLX5622 P5 retinal

flatmounts immunostained for Pdgfra in the central region of all four quadrants were

acquired. Using 'NIH-ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer' software, astrocyte density,

branching index, and lacunarity were quantified and shown (n=5). **D.** Astrocyte (Pdgfra-

APC+) live cell frequencies were assessed in P5 retinas in either control or PLX5622

groups by flow cytometry (n=3). **E.** Quantification of flow cytometry data (**D**) showing the

percentage of Pdgfra-APC+ live cells in control and PLX5622 groups. All error bars

represent ± S.E.M. Statistical differences between control and PLX5622 group was

calculated by unpaired *t* test. * P < 0.05, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001

Figure 4. Microglial depletion reduces vascular growth and density. Time-pregnant

C57BL/6J mice from gestational day E13.5/E14.5 were fed a control diet or diet containing

Csfr1 specific antagonist (PLX5622) and the littermates were analyzed at respective ages

(A-E). **A and B.** P1 and P5 retinal flatmounts from control and PLX5622 group

immunostained for CD31 (endothelial cell marker) and vascularized area (indicated by

dotted lines in the images) were quantified and shown in the bar graphs (n=4) **C.**

Representative images of P5 retinal flatmount from control and PLX5622 group

immunostained for CD31, Pdgfra, and P2ry12 showing microglial interaction with

endothelial cells and astrocytes in the vascularized area. **D.** Images of control and

PLX5622 P5 retinal flatmounts immunostained for CD31 in the vascularized central region

of all four quadrants were acquired. Using 'NIH-ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer' software,

vessel density, branching index, and lacunarity were quantified and shown (n=5). Scale

bars: A and B are 500 µm, C is 50µm. All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical

differences between control and PLX5622 group was calculated by unpaired *t* test. * P <

0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001

Figure 5. C3 is expressed in microglia and loss of C3 reduces microglial pruning of

astrocytes. **A.** Representative z-stack images of P5 retinal flatmount showing GFAP and

CD68 immunostaining (n=5). **A'**. Enlarged 3D-reconstructed boxed area in (**A**) revealing

microglia internalized GFAP astrocyte debris within CD68+ lysosomes (green). **B**. Real-

time PCR analysis of retinas isolated at P0 (n=3), P5 (n=5), and P15 (n=5) showing age-

dependent relative C3 mRNA levels. **C**. C3-tdTomato (C3-tdT) expressing P5 retinal

flatmount immunostained for P2ry12 and Pdgfra to label microglia (blue) and astrocytes

(green) respectively. **D**. Representative 3D-reconstructed image from C3-tdT expressing

P5 retinal flatmount immunostained for P2ry12 and Pdgfra reveal C3 reporter expression

within microglia (P2ry12, green) that are closely interacting with astrocytes (Pdgfra, grey)

(n=5). **E**. Z-stack images were acquired from P5 WT and C3 KO retinal flatmount

immunostained for P2ry12, GFAP, and CD68 and 3D-reconstructed to visualize microglia

(P2ry12) engulfed astrocyte (GFAP) bodies within microglial lysosomal/endosomal

membrane protein CD68). Bar graph shows the percentage of GFAP debris localized

within P2ry12, CD68 co-labelled microglia between WT and C3 KO retinas (n=3). All error

bars represent ± S.E.M. In **B.** statistical differences at P0, P5, and P15 were calculated

by one-way analysis of variance followed by a post Dunnett's multiple comparisons. * P

= 0.02. Statistical differences between WT and C3 KO in E and F was calculated by

unpaired *t* test. * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01. Scale Bars: A is 15µm, C is 75 µm, D and E are

10 µm.

Figure 6. C3 deletion increases astrocytic template and vascular densities at P5. **A.** Representative P5 retinal flatmount from WT and C3 KO immunostained for Pdgfra showing astrocyte template patterning in the avascular region (n=5). Bar graphs represent the quantitative measurements of astrocyte density, branching index, and lacunarity using ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer software tool (n=5). **B**. Representative P5 Retinal flatmounts of WT and C3 KO immunostained for CD31 showing vascular outgrowth and quantification of vascularized area in WT and C3 KO (n=5). **C.** P5 retinal flatmounts of WT and C3 KO were immunostained for CD31 and images were taken in

958   the central region to assess vessel density and spatial branching (lacunarity) using

959   'ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer' software tool (n=5). Scale bars: **A** is 500 μm, **B** is 50 μm,

960   and **C** is 20 μm. All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical differences between WT and

961   C3 KO was calculated by unpaired *t* test. ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$.

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Figure 7. Microglia expresses C3aR and loss of C3aR reduces microglial pruning of

astrocytes. **A.** Representative P5 C3aR-tdTomato (C3aR-tdT) expressing retinal

flatmount showing Pdgfra and P2ry12 immunolocalization around the vascular growth

front (n=3). Arrows indicates the localization of tdTomato in P2ry12 expressing

microglia. **B.** Representative 3D-reconstructed image from C3aR-tdTomato expressing

P5 retinal flatmount immunostained for P2ry12 and Pdgfra reveal C3aR reporter

expression within microglia (P2ry12, green) that are closely interacting with astrocytes

(Pdgfra, grey) (n=3). **C.** Real-time PCR analysis of retinas isolated at P0 (n=3), P5

(n=5), and P15 (n=5) showing C3aR relative mRNA levels. **D.** Primary microglial culture

isolated from P5 retina were treated with DiI-labeled retinal astrocyte apoptotic bodies in

the presence of control IgG or anti-C3aR IgG for 2 hours and the number of DiI-

astrocyte bodies engulfed microglia in the two treatment conditions were quantified and

shown in the bar graph (n=3). **E.** Z-stack images were acquired from P5 WT and C3aR

KO retinal flatmount immunostained for P2ry12, GFAP, and CD68 and 3D-

reconstructed to visualize microglia (P2ry12) engulfed astrocyte (GFAP) bodies within

microglial lysosomal/endosomal membrane protein CD68). Bar graph shows the

percentage of GFAP debris localized within P2ry12, CD68 co-labelled microglia

between WT and C3aR KO retinas (n=3). All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical

differences at P0, P5, and P15 were calculated by one-way analysis of variance

followed by a post Dunnett's multiple comparisons. * P = 0.007. Statistical differences

between IgG control and anti-C3aR IgG was calculated by unpaired *t* test. Statistical

differences between WT and C3aR KO in E and F were calculated by unpaired *t* test. **

P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, and **** P < 0.001. Scale Bars: A is 75 μm, B and E is 10 μm, D

is 40 μm,

Figure 8. Loss of C3aR increases astrocytic template and vascular densities at P5. **A.**

Representative P5 retinal flatmount from WT and C3aR KO immunostained for Pdgfra

showing astrocyte template patterning in the avascular region (n=5). Bar graphs

represent the quantitative measurements of astrocyte density, branching index, and

lacunarity using ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer software tool (n=5). **B.** Representative

P5 Retinal flatmounts of WT and C3aR KO immunostained for CD31 showing vascular

outgrowth and quantification of vascularized area in WT and C3aR KO (n=5). **C.** P5 retinal

flatmounts of WT and C3aR KO were immunostained for CD31 and images were taken

in the central region (bottom panel) to assess vessel density, and spatial branching

(lacunarity) differences using 'ImageJ Angiogenesis Analyzer' software tool (n=5). Scale

bars: **A** is 50 µm, **B** is 500 µm, and **C** is 50 µm. All error bars represent ± S.E.M. Statistical

differences between WT and C3 KO was calculated by unpaired t test. * P < 0.05, **** P

< 0.0001.

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