Reactive microglia and cytokine release entails microtubule remodeling from acentrosomal

to centrosomal arrays

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Graphical abstract

Summary

Microglia reactivity triggered by proinflammatory signaling entails a large-scale remodeling
of cellular geometry, but the role of the microtubule cytoskeleton during these changes remains
unexplored. Here we show that reactive proinflammatory microglia provide a heretofore unique
example of microtubule reorganization from a non-centrosomal array of parallel and stable
microtubules to a radial array of more dynamic microtubules. While in the homeostatic state
microglia nucleate microtubules at Golgi outposts, proinflammatory signaling induces recruitment
of nucleating material nearby the centrosome and inhibition of *de novo* formed pericentrosomal
microtubule-organizing centers enhances NLRP3 inflammasome activation and secretion of the
interleukin IL-1β. Our results demonstrate that remodeling of the microtubule cytoskeleton is a
hallmark of proinflammatory microglia reactivity and suggest that pericentrosomal microtubule
nucleating material maturation may offer a valuable target to modulate cytokine-mediated
inflammatory responses in chronic disease and tissue injury.

Running title: *Remodeling of the microtubule cytoskeleton is a hallmark of microglia reactive*
states

Keywords

Proinflammatory microglia, microtubule, centrosome, γ-tubulin, MTOC, Golgi outposts, retina, inflammation, NLRP3 inflammasome, IL-1β secretion

Introduction

Microglia are the brain's primary innate immune cells. In their homeostatic state in the healthy brain, they exhibit a ramified morphology and continuously patrol the local environment via extension and retraction of highly motile processes (Bolasco *et al.*, 2018) that act to clear cellular debris, reshape synapses, and provide neurotrophic factors (Nimmerjahn, Kirchhoff and Helmchen, 2005; Paolicelli *et al.*, 2011; Parkhurst *et al.*, 2013; Colonna and Butovsky, 2017; Basilico *et al.*, 2019; Bernier *et al.*, 2019). However, when activated by neuronal inflammation and injury, and in neurodegenerative disorders, microglia exhibit dramatically altered gene expression and morphology, displaying an amoeboid shape (Davalos *et al.*, 2005; Kettenmann *et al.*, 2011; Madry *et al.*, 2018). In this pro-inflammatory state, reactive microglia exhibit phagocytic activities that can promote tissue remodeling and if over-activated, are widely thought to contribute to brain damage and neurodegeneration (Heneka, Kummer and Latz, 2014; Colonna and Butovsky, 2017).

In eukaryotes, changes in cellular symmetry are associated with massive reorganization of both the actin and microtubule (MT) cytoskeletons. While actin and actin-based motor proteins are required for breaking the symmetry in most cells, specification of neuronal polarity depends on MTs and MT associated proteins (Li and Gundersen, 2008). Early studies suggested changes in MT spatial organization and stability also with microglia activation (Ilschner and Brandt, 1996). Despite these observations, however, only remodeling of the actin cytoskeleton has been extensively studied in microglia, and the role of the MT cytoskeleton in breaking cellular polarity during the transition from an homeostatic to a reactive state has not been explored.

MTs are intrinsically polarized polymers composed of α/β tubulin heterodimers arranged in a head to tail fashion (Nogales *et al.*, 1999). They are characterized by a fast growing plus end and a slow growing minus end that in non-neuronal cells is often attached to the centrosome, which acts as the MT organizing center (MTOC). Directional transport is enabled by the structural polarity of MTs, which is recognized by motor proteins that drive transport to either the minus end

(dynein) or plus end (most kinesins) (for Reviews see (Klinman and Holzbaur, 2018; Reck-
Peterson *et al.*, 2018). MTs are generally highly dynamic structures constantly undergoing
stochastic transitions from polymerization to depolymerization (catastrophe events) and vice-versa
(rescue events), with the two dynamic states exhibiting characteristic rates of growth or shrinkage
(Mitchison and Kirschner, 1984). When stabilized, MTs resist disassembly and become substrates
of tubulin modifying enzymes that add molecular moieties on either the α- or β-tubulin subunit.
The combinatorial nature of these modifications provides a "tubulin code" which controls a variety
of functions, including organelle transport and the mechanical properties of the MT lattice (for
Reviews see Janke and Bulinski, 2011; Gadadhar *et al.*, 2017; Janke and Magiera, 2020).

MT orientation, density, and post-translational modifications all respond and contribute to
breaking cellular symmetry (Etienne-Manneville, 2013; Meiring and Akhmanova, 2020).
Establishment of cell polarity can be achieved through centrosome repositioning or by the
formation of non-radial MT arrays, in which MTs are not preferentially nucleated at the
centrosome (Vinogradova, Miller and Kaverina, 2009; Akhmanova and Hoogenraad, 2015; Alieva
et al., 2015). During this transition, the centrosome typically loses its maximal MT nucleating
activity while intracellular membranes or self-organizing assemblies of MT nucleating material
distant from the centrosome serve as non-centrosomal MTOCs with members of the calmodulin-
regulated spectrin-associated protein (CAMSAP) family often capping and stabilizing released
free MT minus ends (Bartolini and Gundersen, 2006; Akhmanova and Steinmetz, 2019). The local
stabilization of non-centrosomal MTs and relocation of the MTOCs away from the centrosome
and the cell center establish asymmetric MT arrays that are critical to cell differentiation.

We hypothesized that rearrangement of the MT cytoskeleton might be required for the
morphological changes that guide microglia transition from surveilling/homeostatic to reactive
states. Here we show that proinflammatory microglia engage a unique example of MT transition
from a non-centrosomal array of parallel and stable MTs in the homeostatic state to a radial array
of more dynamic MTs in which all MT minus ends are anchored to a pericentrosomal region. We
further find that in the homeostatic state, Golgi outposts are sites of non-centrosomal MT
nucleation, and that a pro-inflammatory challenge leads to the recruitment of pericentriolar
material (PCM) to the centrosome. To investigate the regulatory role of this transition we inhibited
the master modulator of MTOC assembly Polo-like kinase 4 (PLK4) and found that failure to
mature *de novo* formed pericentrosomal MTOCs increases the number of small diameter

extracellular vesicles (EVs) and selectively enhances IL-1β secretion. Our results unveil the unique

rearrangement of the MT cytoskeleton in proinflammatory microglia and indicate that

pericentriolar material re-localization and assembly can alone limit the release of IL-1β.

RESULTS

Homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory primary microglia differ in MT

distribution, stability and dynamic behaviour

To investigate the organization of the MT cytoskeleton in homeostatic and reactive microglia, we

used primary mouse microglia cultures in which the presence of ramified cells was maintained by

growth factors secreted by astrocytes (Bohlen *et al.*, 2017). With this approach we prepared a

nearly pure population of primary microglia comprised by 99% of Iba1 positive cells. To steer

microglia towards different reactivity states such as a pro-inflammatory or an alternatively

polarized microglia state (defined as anti-inflammatory), cells were challenged with either LPS-

IFNγ (100 ng/ml – 20 ng/ml 48 h for pro-inflammatory) or IL-4 (20 ng/ml, 48 h for anti-

inflammatory), and measured for the expression of their signature activation genes (Figure S1A).

As revealed by Iba1 staining (Figure S1B), polarized microglia underwent dramatic morphological

changes. We classified cell morphology as ramified (≥3 ramifications), ameboid or bipolar based

on number of cellular processes, cell area, and solidity, a measure of cell shape complexity (Figure

S1B-D). Analysis of morphology distribution under homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-

inflammatory conditions revealed that ramified cells were enriched in untreated microglia (35 ±

3%) (Figure S1B and S1D), while ameboid cells represented a large majority after pro-

inflammatory stimulation (82 ± 3%) (Figure S1B and S1D). Conversely, when cells were

challenged with an anti-inflammatory stimulus, microglia mostly acquired a unipolar or bipolar

rod-shape morphology (54 ± 3%) characterized by the presence of a lamellipodium and a trailing

edge, or uropod (Figure S1B and S1D). To further detail the structural changes associated with

reactive microglia states *via* single-cell analyses, we chose to select for comparison only the most

representative morphology of each *in vitro* phenotype (ramified for homeostatic, amoeboid for

pro-inflammatory and bipolar for anti-inflammatory microglia).

We employed scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and confocal microscopy to identify

defined ultrastructural elements typical of each functional state (Figure S1E). Homeostatic

microglia exhibited many branched processes extending outward from the cell body and multiple

filopodia-like structures (Figure S1E) that were also positive for phalloidin staining (Figure S1H).

Upon pro-inflammatory challenge, microglia retracted most of their processes and acquired a

flattened and round morphology (Figure S1E and S1H). SEM imaging further revealed that pro-

inflammatory microglia displayed numerous tethered extracellular vesicles (EVs) blebbing from

the cell surface (Figure S1F). Analysis of EV diameter showed a bell-shaped distribution of size,

ranging from 250 to 650 nm (Figure S1G), consistent with microglia-shedded microvesicles (Herr

et al., 2020). Anti-inflammatory microglia were characterized by extensive membrane ruffling at

both uropod and leading edge, which appeared as sheet-like structures on the dorsal cell surface

(Figure S1E and S1H).

We began to analyze the MT cytoskeleton in each microglia functional state by

immunofluorescence staining of tyrosinated α-tubulin (Tyr tub), a bulk tubulin marker labeling

the entire MT network. MTs appeared to be packed in a parallel fashion in all the cellular branches

extending from the cell body in both homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia (Figure 1A).

However, MTs distributed radially from a perinuclear region in pro-inflammatory microglia (Fig.

1A). Radial profiling of Tyr tub fluorescence intensity (Figure 1A), a measure of the distribution

of tubulin signal that is independent of cell shape, confirmed that MT staining was uniformly

distributed along the entire cell profile in homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia (Figure

1B), while in pro-inflammatory cells, Tyr tub signal rapidly decayed at increasing distances from

a perinuclear region (Figure 1B; exponential decay constant $k_{pro-inf}= 0.046 \pm 0.001$; $k_{homeo}= 0.013$

± 0.002; $k_{anti-inf}= 0.015 \pm 0.002$).

To evaluate whether microglial MTs differed in stability according to their reactive state,

we analyzed levels and distribution of detyrosinated and acetylated tubulins, two independent

tubulin post-translational modifications (PTMs) associated with MT longevity (Webster and

Borisy, 1989; Janke and Magiera, 2020). Semiquantitative immunofluorescence analyses revealed

that homeostatic cells had the highest level of both detyrosinated (Figure 1C, left) and acetylated

(Figure 1C, right) tubulin compared to pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory microglia (De-

tyr/Tyr tub: 0.30 ± 0.03; 0.04 ± 0.01; 0.03 ± 0.01, Acetyl/Tyr tub: 1.02 ± 0.05; 0.69 ± 0.04; $0.72 \pm$

0.04 in homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia respectively; Figure 1D),

suggesting that homeostatic microglia display more stable MTs.

We quantified the behavior of SiR-Tubulin labeled MTs (Lukinavičius *et al.*, 2014) in

shallow peripheral sections of the cell to measure MT plus end dynamics using time lapse wide

field fluorescence microcopy (Figure 1E). No change was observed among the three different

microglia states in rescue frequency (frequency of transitions from shrinkage to growth) or the

fraction of time spent in pausing or shrinkage. However, while pro-inflammatory and anti-

inflammatory microglia MTs exhibited a moderate yet significative drop in catastrophe frequency

(frequency of transitions from growth to shrinkage), they also significantly enhanced their growth

rates and acquired a nearly 2.5 fold increase in rates of shrinkage, resulting in an overall net rise

in MT dynamicity compared to MTs of homeostatic cells (0.06 ± 0.01; 0.08 ± 0.01; 0.09 ± 0.01 in

homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia respectively; Figure 1F, Table

S1, Movies S1-3). In summary, and consistent with our analysis of tubulin PTMs, these data

suggest that microglia acquisition of pro- and anti-inflammatory phenotypes is characterized by

loss of MT stability and a marked increase in MT dynamics.

Fig.1

Figure 1. Homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory primary microglia differ in MT distribution, stability and dynamic behavior.

(A) Representative images of tyrosinated α-tubulin (Tyr tub, green) staining in homeostatic (Homeo), pro-inflammatory (Pro-inf) and anti-inflammatory (Anti-inf) microglia (*top*; scale bar: 20 μm) and corresponding masks (MASKS) used for the analysis (*bottom*), with radial scale (unit = 5 μm; blue circles) centered at the centroid of the cell nucleus. Red circle indicates the radius corresponding to the largest intensity value. **(B)** Plot showing maximum fluorescence intensity values of Tyr tub vs the radial distance from cell nucleus, obtained with radial profiling, in Homeo (n = 38, green), Pro-inf (n = 31, magenta) and Anti-inf (n = 38, blue) microglia. Curve fit was performed using a single exponential decay function. *Insert:* bar chart reporting the exponential decay constant values (K) for each condition (values are expressed as mean ± SEM from 4 independent experiments; *** $p < 0.001$, One-way ANOVA – Tukey's multiple comparison test). Note faster decay of Tyr tub signal in Pro-inf microglia. **(C)** Representative immunofluorescence images of Homeo, Pro-inf e Anti-inf microglia showing: *left*, co-staining of Tyr tub (green) and de-tyrosinated tubulin (Detyr, magenta) (scale bar: 20 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue); *right*, co-staining of Tyr tub (green) and acetylated tubulin (Acetyl, magenta) (scale bar: 20 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). Cell outlines are indicated by white dashed line. **(D)** Scatter dot plots showing immunofluorescence signal quantification of detyrosinated/tyrosinated (Detyr/Tyr) tub ratio (*left*, Homeo n = 19, Pro-inf n = 32, Anti-inf n = 28 cells from 3 independent experiments) and acetylated/tyrosinated (Acetyl/Tyr) tubulin ratio (*right*; Homeo n = 33, Pro-inf n = 25, Anti-inf n = 29 cells from 3 independent experiments). Values are expressed as median ± interquartile range; *** $p < 0.001$; Kruskall-Wallis - Dunn's multiple comparisons test. Note that Pro- and Anti-inf microglia have reduced tubulin PTM levels with respect to Homeo cells. **(E)** Representative inverted contrast widefield frames from time lapse acquisitions of SiRtubulin in Homeo, Pro-inf and Anti-inf microglia at 4 different timepoints (0 s, 20 s, 40 s, 60 s). Red lines highlight MT length changes ≥ 0.5 μm between frames. Scale bar: 5 μm. **(F)** Scatter dot plots representing growth rate (*top*, *left*), shrinkage rate (*top*, *right*), catastrophe frequency (*bottom*, *left*) and MT dynamicity (*bottom*, *right*) in Homeo, Pro-inf and Anti-inf microglia. Values are expressed as mean ± SEM (Homeo n = 30, Pro-inf n = 27 and Anti-inf n = 29 cells from 4 independent experiments). *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$. One-way ANOVA - Dunnett's multiple comparison test.

Homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia differ in MT orientation

In most dividing and motile cells, the centrosome is responsible for MT nucleation and anchoring, leading to the formation of radial MT arrays in which all MT minus ends are attached to the centrosome, while MT plus ends extend towards the cell periphery. In contrast, in most differentiated, stationary and axially polarized cells, MTs are more stable and organized in non-centrosomal arrays that are non-radially anchored at the centrosome (Bartolini and Gundersen, 2006).

We hypothesized that in microglia, the transition from the homeostatic phenotype to a

migrating reactive state would be paralleled by prominent changes in cell polarity driven by the

remodeling of MT anchoring and orientation. To test this, we analyzed the localization and

expression of endogenous MT plus end (EB1) and minus end (CAMSAP2) markers in

homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia cells that had been selected

according to their most representative morphology (Figure 2 and S2). While EB1 is a widely

adopted marker of actively growing MT plus ends (comets), members of the CAMSAP family

regulate the formation and stability of non-centrosomal MT arrays by capping free MT minus ends

(Yau *et al.*, 2014; Akhmanova and Hoogenraad, 2015). Confocal immunofluorescence analysis

showed that in pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia, EB1 decorated most free MT

ends (Tyr tub stained) (pro-inflammatory, 88%; anti-inflammatory, 82%) that extended towards

the cell periphery (Figure 2A), confirming the existence of a prominent pool of dynamic MTs

arranged radially with their minus ends attached to a perinuclear region of the cell. EB1 comets

were also clearly visible at MT ends in homeostatic microglia although to a lesser extent

(homeostatic 63% of MTs $p < 0.001$, see Figure S2A for contingency analysis). Western blot

analysis of whole cell lysates showed that total EB1 protein levels did not change in reactive

microglia compared to homeostatic cells (Figure S2B). However, a detailed measurement of

fluorescence intensity gradients of EB1 positive comets with respect to the location of the cell

nucleus (Figure 2B, arrows) identified distinct MT polarity patterns, with anterograde and

retrograde orientation. Specifically, a population of retrograde comets was observed in

homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia as opposed to pro-inflammatory microglia in which

all the comets were oriented away from the cell nucleus and toward the cell periphery (23.4%,

12.5% and 0.5%, respectively; $p < 0.001$ Figure S2C). Detection of a pool of retrograde comets in

homeostatic microglia suggested the presence of non-centrosomal MT arrays, which we

investigated by analyzing the expression and subcellular distribution of endogenous CAMSAP2.

Western blot analysis of whole cell lysates revealed endogenous expression of CAMSAP2 in all

three microglia phenotypes, with higher protein content in homeostatic microglia (Figure S2D).

However, while in homeostatic and anti-inflammatory cells CAMSAP2 often distributed to

isolated and clustered puncta along cell ramifications (Figure 2C, and 2D arrows), cytosolic

CAMSAP2 signal was detectable only around the perinuclear region in pro-inflammatory

microglia (Figure 2C and 2D). Radial profiling of CAMSAP2 fluorescence intensity (Figure 2E),

used as a measure of CAMSAP2 distribution in the cytosol, confirmed that CAMSAP2 signal

decayed more rapidly at increasing distances from the perinuclear region in pro-inflammatory

microglia than in homeostatic and anti-inflammatory cells (Figure 2E, and insert).

Altogether, these data indicate that homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia display a

mixed MT polarity pattern resembling neuronal MTs in dendrites and that the acquisition of a pro-

inflammatory phenotype represents a unique example of remodeling of the MT cytoskeleton from

an array of parallel non-centrosomal MTs to a radial array of MTs all anchored to pericentrosomal

MTOCs through their minus ends.

Fig. 2. Homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory primary microglia differ in MT orientation. (A) Representative immunofluorescence images of EB1(magenta) and tyrosinated α-tubulin (Tyr tub) (green) in homeostatic (Homeo), pro-inflammatory (Pro-inf) and anti-inflammatory (Anti-inf) microglia. (Scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 5 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). Cell outlines are indicated by white dashed line. **(B)** Representative inverted contrast single plane image of EB1 immunofluorescence (*top*, *left*. Scale bar 10 μm). Direction of EB1 signal gradient relative to the cell nucleus was used to identify EB1 anterograde (a, red arrow) and retrograde (b, blue arrow) comets (*top*, *right*; scale bar: 2 μm). Bottom: intensity profile of anterograde (left) and retrograde (right) comets. **(C)** Representative z-projection confocal images showing CAMSAP2 (magenta) and Tyr tub (Green) signal in Homeo, Pro-inf and Anti-inf microglia. Cell outlines are indicated by white dashed line (scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 5 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). **(D)** Single confocal planes at higher magnification of CAMSAP2 (magenta) and Tyr tub (Green) signal in Homeo, Pro-inf and Anti-inf microglia. Scale bar: 5 μm. Note that CAMSAP2 signal is present in microglia processes in Homeo and Anti-inf cells. **(E)** Plot showing maximum fluorescence intensity values of CAMSAP2 vs the radial distance from cell nucleus, obtained with radial profiling, in Homeo (n = 18 cells, green), Pro-inf (n = 14 cells, magenta) and Anti-inf (n = 19 cells, blue) microglia. Curve fit was performed using single exponential decay function. Insert: bar chart reporting the exponential decay constant values (K) for each condition (values are expressed as mean ± SEM from 4 independent experiments; *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$ One-way ANOVA – Tukey's multiple comparison test.

Homeostatic microglia nucleate non-centrosomal MTs from Golgi outposts

CAMSAP2 is necessary for the tethering of newly nucleated non-centrosomal MT minus ends during the establishment of polarity in many cell types (Tanaka *et al.*, 2012; Yau *et al.*, 2014; Martin *et al.*, 2018). We investigated the distribution of γ-tubulin, the major MT nucleator in eukaryotic cells, in homeostatic and reactive microglia by confocal microscopy and found that while in homeostatic and anti-inflammatory cells γ-tubulin displayed a punctate distribution around the perinuclear region and along cellular processes, in pro-inflammatory microglia γ-tubulin signal was restricted to the centrosomal and pericentrosomal area (Figure 3A, Figure S3A and Figure 4 and S4). Radial profiling (Figure 3B) of γ-tubulin fluorescence intensity, used as a measure of γ-tubulin signal distribution in the cell, confirmed that γ-tubulin signal decayed more rapidly at increasing distances from the perinuclear region in pro-inflammatory microglia compared to homeostatic and anti-inflammatory cells (Figure 3B, and insert). This observation was confirmed by the analysis of γ-tubulin signal over the cell area (Figure S3B) and detection of

higher γ-tubulin levels in homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia compared to pro-
inflammatory cells (Figure S3C).

Altogether, these data demonstrate that the acquisition of a pro-inflammatory phenotype is
characterized by restricted localization of γ-tubulin to a pericentrosomal area, which is necessary
to establish radial MT arrays. The presence of γ-tubulin in cell ramifications of homeostatic
microglia further suggests that microglia are alternatively enriched in non-centrosomal MT
nucleation sites, which are necessary to establish non-centrosomal MT arrays.

Golgi outposts can serve as acentrosomal MTOCs in other highly polarized brain cells,
such as neurons and oligodendrocytes, (Ori-McKenney, Jan and Jan, 2012; Fu *et al.*, 2019;
Valenzuela *et al.*, 2020). We thus analyzed the distribution of the Golgi marker GM130, a
scaffolding protein peripherally associated with Golgi membranes and a marker of Golgi outposts
(Wu and Akhmanova, 2017). Co-staining of GM130 with tyrosinated tubulin (Tyr tub)
demonstrated that the presence of Golgi outposts is a feature of homeostatic microglia, and that
their presence was dramatically reduced in pro-inflammatory cells (Figure 3C and 3D).
Importantly, most of the isolated GM130 positive mini-stacks (73.6%) were decorated by γ-tubulin
(Figure 3E). To determine whether Golgi outposts could function as MTOCs in homeostatic
microglia, MT nucleation was evaluated *in situ* by analyzing MT re-nucleation after nocodazole
washout (Figure S3D). We found that both at 15 and 120 mins after nocodazole washout to allow
MT-regrowth after nocodazole-induced MT depolymerization, MTs (stained with Tyr tub)
emerged from Golgi membranes (GM130 positive) both at pericentrosomal sites and at Golgi
outposts located far from the centrosome (Figure 3F). Importantly, γ-tubulin was localized to
nucleation-competent Golgi outposts, indicating that non-centrosomal MT re-nucleation did not
occur spontaneously at these sites but was strictly dependent on the presence of a γ-tubulin
nucleation complex (Figure 3E).

These data demonstrate that in homeostatic microglia Golgi outposts can function as sites
of acentrosomal MT nucleation and suggest that γ-tubulin-dependent non-centrosomal nucleation
is necessary to establish an asymmetric MT array in these cells.

To assess whether these *in vitro* observations were representative of MT nucleation in
microglia residing in tissue, we analyzed the subcellular distribution of GM130 in retinal
microglia: retina and brain share a common embryological origin and similar cell types (Sernagor,
Eglen and Wong, 2001; Kavcic, Vaughn and Duffy, 2011; Chang *et al.*, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2014;

Bambo *et al.*, 2015; Javaid *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, retinal neurons are arranged in distinct layers,

and microglia are usually restricted to the retinal ganglion cell layer, thus offering an accessible

structure for the imaging of their MT cytoskeleton. To identify the microglial cytoskeleton in retina

we used cx3cr1$^{gfp/+}$ mice, which constitutively express GFP in microglia. As expected, retinal

microglia from control cx3cr1$^{gfp/+}$ mice displayed a highly ramified morphology (Figure S3E),

typical of homeostatic surveillant cells (Grimaldi *et al.*, 2018; Basilico *et al.*, 2019; Cordella *et al.*,

2021). More importantly, confocal immunofluorescence analysis of GM130 signal in retinal GFP

positive microglia confirmed the presence of isolated Golgi outposts also in the processes of

homeostatic microglia residing in tissue (5 $\pm$ 1 per cell, n = 11; Figure 3G, S3F and S3G).

Altogether, these results support the notion that MT organization in homeostatic microglia

resembles the MT architecture typical of highly polarized, terminally differentiated cells and

strongly suggest that γ-tubulin dependent non-centrosomal MT nucleation at Golgi outposts is a

bona fide feature of homeostatic, surveilling microglia *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Fig. 3. Homeostatic microglia nucleate non-centrosomal MTs from Golgi outposts. (A) Representative

images of homeostatic (Homeo), pro-inflammatory (Pro-inf) and anti-inflammatory (Anti-inf) microglia stained

for tyrosinated α-tubulin (Tyr tub, green) and γ-tubulin (γ tub, magenta; scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 5 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). **(B)** Plot showing maximum fluorescence intensity values of γ tub vs the radial distance from cell nucleus, obtained with radial profiling, in Homeo (n = 13 cells, green), Pro-inf (n = 14 cells, magenta) and Anti-inf (n = 14 cells, blue) microglia. Curve fit was performed using single exponential decay function. Insert: bar chart reporting the exponential decay constant values (K) for each condition (values are expressed as mean ± SEM from 3 independent experiments; *** p < 0.001, One-way ANOVA – Tukey's multiple comparison). Note faster decay of γ-tub signal in Pro-inf microglia. **(C)** Representative confocal images showing co-staining of tyrosinated tubulin (Tyr tub) (green) and GM130 (magenta) in Homeo, Pro-inf and Anti-inf microglia (scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 5 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). **(D)** Violin plot showing number of isolated Golgi stacks per cell in the three phenotypes. Values are expressed as mean ± SEM of Homeo n = 57, Pro-inf n = 34 and Anti-inf n = 36 cells from 3 independent experiments. ** p < 0.01. Kuskall-Wallis - Dunn's multiple comparison test. **(E)** Representative images showing GM130 (cyan) and γ-tub (magenta) staining in Homeo microglia. (Scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 2 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). Note the presence of Golgi outposts in microglia processes. **(F)** Representative confocal images of the time course of the MT re-nucleation assay after nocodazole washout in Homeo microglia stained for Tyr tub (green), GM130 (gray) and γ tub (magenta). Scale bar: 20 μm; zoom: 5 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). Time 0' represents the MT depolymerizing effect of nocodazole in homeostatic cells without free tubulin extraction. Note that MTs nucleate from distal Golgi outposts that are positive for γ-tubulin. **(G)** Representative z-projection confocal images of retinal slices (50 μm thickness) from cx3cr1$^{gfp/+}$ mice, expressing GFP in microglia cells, stained with GM130 (magenta) to visualize Golgi outposts. Scale bar: 5 μm. Zoom is a single confocal plane of a microglia ramification stained for GM130; scale bar: 5 μm.

Pericentrosomal redistribution of microtubule-nucleating material is a hallmark of pro-inflammatory microglia and regulates IL-1β secretion

The recruitment of pericentriolar material (PCM) to the centrosome has been described as a functional step for macrophage activation upon pro-inflammatory stimuli (Vertii *et al.*, 2016). We thus investigated whether the recruitment of γ-tubulin to a pericentrosomal area was also a hallmark of pro-inflammatory microglia.

As revealed by super-resolution microscopy, pro-inflammatory microglia exhibited multiple γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta that localized to a perinuclear region (Figure 4A). Quantification of the number of γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta indicated that most pro-inflammatory cells had more than 3 puncta (70 ± 10%; Figure 4B). Conversely, almost all homeostatic and anti-inflammatory microglia displayed only 1 or 2 γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta (95 ± 3% and 96 ± 2%, respectively; Figure 4B). γ-tubulin

localization to pericentrosomal puncta showed a time-dependent increase of both number and fluorescence integrated density upon LPS-INFγ challenge (Figure 4C and 4D) and the recruitment of γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta was dependent on a dynamic MT cytoskeleton because a low dose of taxol was sufficient to inhibit it (Figure S4A and S4B). Notably, in most pro-inflammatory cells with >2 γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta (65 ± 10%; Figure S4C) the centrosomal marker centrin-3 localized only to ≤2 γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta. In addition, while a quarter of pro-inflammatory cells was proliferating (23 ± 4%; Figure S4E and S4F), most pro-inflammatory microglia displayed >2 γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta (70 ± 10%; Figure 4B) and ≤ 2 centrin$^+$ puncta (Figure S4D). Conversely, PCM localization to γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta was confirmed in most puncta by coimmunostaining with pericentrin (86 ± 5% of colocalizing puncta), a conserved PCM scaffold protein necessary for MTOC assembly and maturation (Zimmerman *et al.* 2004 Figure S4G), and both centrin$^+$ and centrin$^-$ γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta localized to the center of MT asters (Fig. S4H), indicating that γ-tubulin reorganization in pro-inflammatory microglia is ascribed to PCM maturation that is uncoupled from cell or centrosome duplication and that *de novo* generated PCM puncta act as MTOCs.

Perinuclear γ-tubulin redistribution was also observed in proinflammatory microglia in a mouse model of retinal inflammation. For this, we took advantage of a well-established protocol of acute inflammatory uveitis (Becker *et al.*, 2001; Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Chu *et al.*, 2016; Bell *et al.*, 2020; Wu *et al.*, 2020) induced by intravitreal injection of LPS (Figure S5A) to activate retinal microglia towards the pro-inflammatory phenotype. Microglia residing in retinal slices from LPS-treated mice acquired an amoeboid morphology with reduced branching complexity, as revealed by skeleton analysis of Iba1 positive cells (Figure S5B and S5C). Moreover, co-immunolabelling with Iba1 and γ-tubulin demonstrated that while in control (sham) mice retinal microglia displayed punctate diffuse γ-tubulin staining along cellular ramifications (Figure 4E), in LPS treated mice microglia clearly exhibited a condensed γ-tubulin pattern, clustered around a perinuclear region (Figure 4E). This was confirmed by quantitative analysis of γ-tubulin signal over the cell area and of the number of γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta per cell (Figure 4F).

In summary, these data indicate that the presence of pericentrosomal MTOC maturation is a *bona fide* feature of pro-inflammatory microglia *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

A

Tyr tub/γ tub   γ tub

Pro-inf

3D volume view

3D rendering

B

ns

**

**

Cells (%)

☐ 1-2 γ puncta
■ ≥3 γ puncta

Homeo   Pro-inf   Anti-inf

C

Time after LPS-IFNγ activation

0 min   30 min   2 h   24 h   48 h

Tyr tub

γ tub

D

***

***

γ puncta (n)

0 min 30 min 2 h 24 h 48 h

***

*

γ puncta int. density (a.u.)

0 min 30 min 2 h 24 h 48 h

E

γ tub   Iba1/γ tub   Iba1/γ tub

3D rendering

CTRL

CTRL

LPS

LPS

F

*

γ tub⁺ area (% cell area)

CTRL   LPS

***

γ tub puncta/cell

CTRL   LPS

401 **Fig 4. Redistribution of pericentriolar material is a hallmark of pro-inflammatory microglia *in vitro***

402 **and *in vivo*. (A)** Representative confocal images showing γ-tubulin (γ tub) puncta (magenta) and tyrosinated α-

403 tubulin (Tyr Tub, green) immunolabeling in pro-inflammatory (Pro-inf) microglia (*left*, *middle*). Scale bar: 5

μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue. *Right:* relative volume view *(top)* and 3D rendering *(bottom)* of γ tub puncta (magenta) acquired via structured illumination microscopy. **(B)** Bar chart reporting the percentage of cells displaying 1-2 γ tub puncta (white bars) or >3 γ tub puncta (black bars) in homestatic (Homeo), pro-inflammatory (Pro-inf) and anti-inflammatory (Anti-inf) microglia. Values are expressed as mean ± SEM from 3 independent experiments. ** $p < 0.01$. One-way ANOVA - Dunnett's multiple comparison test. **(C)** Time course of γ -tubulin (γ tub) redistribution during the process of microglia pro-inflammatory activation: representative images showing γ tub (magenta) and tyrosinated α -tubulin (Tyr tub, green) staining at different time points (0 min, 30 min, 2 h, 24 h, 48 h). Scale bar: 20 μm; zoom, 2 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue. **(D)** Time course of the number of γ puncta per cell (top) and the quantification of γ puncta fluorescence intensity (bottom) during the process of microglia pro-inflammatory activation. Values are expressed as median ± interquartile range (T0 n = 32; T30 min n = 40; T2h n = 44; T24h n = 41; T48h n = 33; from 3 independent experiments); *** $p < 0.001$; ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$, Kruskal-Wallis test - Dunn's multiple comparison test respect to T0. **(E)** *Right*: representative maximum intensity projections of retinal slices (50 μm thickness) from control (CTRL) mice stained for γ tub (magenta) and Iba-1 (green) antibodies (Scale bar: 10 μm. Hoechst for nuclei visualization, blue). *Left*: 3D rendering of same retinal microglia highlighting the intracellular distribution of γ tub in CTRL (sham) and LPS treated mice. Scale bar: 10 μm. **(F)** *Left*: scatter dot plot showing the γ tub signal over the cell area of retinal microglia from CTRL (sham) and LPS treated mice. Values are expressed as mean ± SEM of n = 11/3 cells/mice (CTRL) and n = 9/3 cells/mice (LPS). * $p < 0.05$. Student's t-test. *Right*: violin plot showing the number of γ tub puncta per microglia in retinal slices from CTRL and LPS treated mice of n = 28/3 cells/mice (CTRL) and n = 26/3 cells/mice (LPS). *** $p < 0.001$, Student's t-test.

Next, we examined if maturation of pericentrosomal MTOCs was a regulatory step for microglia acquisition of the pro-inflammatory phenotype. To this end, we treated microglia with the selective PLK4 inhibitor centrinone to hamper PCM maturation (Yang et al., 2020) prior to LPS-INFγ stimulation (Figure 5A) and measured its effects on EV blebbing and cytokine release (Figure 5). First, we found that centrinone increased the number (4.7-fold; Figure 5C, top) and reduced the diameter (by 30%; Figure 5C, bottom) of EVs blebbing from the cell surface of pro-inflammatory microglia (Fig. 5A-C). It is acknowledged that the activation of NLRP3-inflammasome is a characteristic feature of pro-inflammatory microglia and macrophages (Schroder and Tschopp, 2010; Davis, Wen and Ting, 2011; Latz, Xiao and Stutz, 2013; Gustin *et al.*, 2015; Hanslik and Ulland, 2020) and that the centrosome-associated protein kinase NEK7 is required for NLRP3–inflammasome activation (for review see Seoane *et al.* 2020). In addition, NLRP3 activation is required for IL-1β maturation in immortalized and primary microglia (Gustin *et al.*, 2015; Ji *et al.*, 2021), and inhibition of PLK4 leads to NLRP3 hyper-activation through

NEK7 dephosphorylation in bone marrow-derived macrophages (Yang *et al.*, 2020). We then

measured NLRP3-inflammasome protein levels in homeostatic and pro-inflammatory microglia

upon centrinone treatment. We found that in homeostatic microglia, LPS-IFNγ but not centrinone

alone increased NLRP3 expression while centrinone / LPS-IFNγ co-treatment enhanced NLRP3

more than LPS-IFNγ alone (Figure 5D), suggesting that inhibition of PCM maturation induces

NLRP3 hyperactivation in pro-inflammatory microglia. We investigated whether PLK4 inhibition

modulates microglia IL-1β release and found that co-treatment with centrinone enhanced pro-

inflammatory microglia-mediated IL-1β release, without affecting IL-1β release from homeostatic

cells (Figure 5E). In addition, we observed that centrinone did not modulate the release of IL-10

and IL-6 (Figure 5F), indicating that PLK4 inhibition enhances pro-inflammatory microglia IL-

1β release through NLRP3-inflammasome activation but has no effect on NLRP3-independent

pathways.

Together, these data demonstrate that microglia pro-inflammatory reactivity induces PCM

maturation *in vivo* and *in vitro*, and that this step is a negative regulator of NLRP3-dependent IL-

1β release. They also indicate that remodeling of the MT cytoskeleton during pro-inflammatory

reactivity is functionally coupled to the regulation of cytokine release, providing a novel potential

target of microglia treatment in inflammatory diseases.

Fig. 5

Fig 5. Inhibition of pericentriolar material maturation induces NLRP3 inflammasome hyperactivation in pro-inflammatory microglia

(A) Experimental timeline of PLK4 inhibitor treatment and pro-inflammatory cytokine administration. **(B)** p <

(B) Scanning electron micrographs showing extracellular vesicles (EVs) on the surface of LPS-IFNγ (*left*) and PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-IFNγ (*right*). Scale bar: 10 μm. **(C)** *Top*: violin plot showing the number of EVs in Pro-inf microglia with or without PLK4inh treatment (LPS-IFNγ n = 17 cells, PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-IFNγ n = 19 cells from 2 independent cultures; *** p < 0.001, Student's t-test). *Bottom*: distribution of EV size measured on cell surface of LPS-IFNγ and PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-IFNγ microglia (LPS-IFNγ n = 17 cells, PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-IFNγ n = 19 cells). **(D)** *Bottom*: bar chart reporting the amount of NLRP3 protein level in Vehicle, PLK4 inhibitor, LPS-IFNγ and PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-IFNγ microglia; *top*: representative immunoblot of NLRP3. Values are expressed as median ± interquartile range from 4 independent experiments, * p < 0.05, Mann Whitney

test. **(E)** Scatter dot plot showing protein quantification by ELISA of *left*: IL1β (n = 4 independent experiments,

n.d. = non detectable), *middle*: IL-10 (Vehicle n = 3, PLK4inh n = 3, LPS-IFNγ n = 5 and PLK4 inhibitor+LPS-

IFNγ n = 5 independent experiments) and *right*: IL-6 (n = 4 independent experiments). Values are expressed as

mean ± SEM. For IL-1β: ** $p < 0.01$, Student's t-test. Note that supernatants from both Vehicle and PLK4

inhibitor microglia have undetectable levels of cytokine. For IL-10 and IL-6: *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$; One-

way ANOVA - Holm-Šídák's multiple comparison test.

Discussion

Here we describe the reorganization of the microglial MT cytoskeleton that characterizes

the transitions between homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory states, and

demonstrate the functional interplay between microglial PCM maturation and pro-inflammatory

reactivity. Our findings demonstrate that pro-inflammatory microglia reactivity orchestrates a so

far unique rearrangement of the MT cytoskeleton from a non-centrosomal array of parallel and

stable MTs nucleated at Golgi outposts characteristic of the homeostatic state, to a radial array in

which MTs are anchored to *de novo* formed pericentrosomal MTOCs through their minus ends.

Through detailed *in vitro* phenotyping and *in vivo* validation, we report four main findings

summarized in our Graphical Abstract. 1) Homeostatic microglia possess stable MT arrays, while

microglia reactivity increases MT dynamic behavior. 2) Non-centrosomal MT organization in

arrays with mixed polarity is a feature of homeostatic microglia, similar to the architecture typical

of highly specialized cells such as neurons and oligodendrocytes. 3) Pro-inflammatory microglia

reactivity results in restricted γ-tubulin localization to puncta around the centrosome because of *de*

novo PCM maturation. 4) PCM maturation in pro-inflammatory microglia is a regulator of

NLRP3-dependent IL-1β release.

To date, only circumscribed evidence has suggested that ramified microglia possess more

acetylated and detyrosinated MTs than ameboid pro-inflammatory cells (Ilschner and Brandt,

1996; Yu *et al.*, 2018). Here, we show that homeostatic ramified microglia display higher levels

of tubulin acetylation and detyrosination, two indirect indicators of "older", i.e., more stable and

less dynamic, MT subpopulations (Webster and Borisy, 1989; Baas *et al.*, 2016). Moreover, we

report that during classical and alternative activation obtained with either LPS-IFNγ or IL-4

stimulation respectively (Gordon and Taylor, 2005; Perry, Nicoll and Holmes, 2010; Durafourt *et*

al., 2012), microglia MTs become less stable and more dynamic, suggesting that the acquisition

of new cellular functions induces changes in MT stability *via* modulation of MT dynamics (Li and

Yang, 2015).

We describe that homeostatic/ramified microglial MTs exhibit an asymmetric dendrite-like

organization characterized by EB1 comets arranged in mixed polarity with the minus-end capping

protein CAMPSAP2 localized at branching points and cell ramifications. In anti-inflammatory

microglia, we find lower levels of CAMSAP2 that localize in a similar fashion in bipolar processes.

The presence of CAMSAP2 in microglia processes might suggest that, as in neurons (Burton and

Paige, 1981; Heidemann, Landers and Hamborg, 1981; Baas *et al.*, 1988, 1991; Jiang *et al.*, 2014;

Yau *et al.*, 2014), stabilization of non-centrosomal MTs at their minus ends is important to achieve

elongated bipolar morphology, typical of anti-inflammatory microglia, and for the formation of

long branched cellular processes patrolling brain parenchyma in homeostatic microglia.

We find that the acquisition of a pro-inflammatory phenotype disrupts the cellular

asymmetry of homeostatic microglia and reduces the pool of non-centrosomal, parallel and mixed

oriented MTs, leading to their rearrangement into a radial array of uniformly oriented MTs

characteristic of the ameboid shape. In addition, while in pro-inflammatory microglia all the MTs

are anchored to a centrosomal region, homeostatic microglia nucleate acentrosomal MTs from

Golgi outposts located far from the cell body at the branching points of microglia ramifications,

resembling the structure of the dendritic tree of mature neurons (Horton *et al.*, 2005; Nguyen *et*

al., 2014; Yau *et al.*, 2014) or the organization of oligodendrocytic myelin sheaths (Fu *et al.*, 2019;

Valenzuela *et al.*, 2020). This Golgi outpost-dependent non-centrosomal nucleation contrasts to

pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory microglia in which the Golgi apparatus displays a

compact perinuclear location (Li, Ahat and Wang, 2019), suggesting that in reactive microglia

cellular arborization is reduced by restricting the Golgi to a region adjacent to the centrosome,

which acts as the major MT nucleator in these cells. Indeed, we observed that the acquisition of a

pro-inflammatory phenotype is characterized by γ-tubulin redistribution to puncta located to a

pericentrosomal region, a feature we confirmed in retinal microglia residing in tissue. Co-

localization of γ-tubulin with pericentrin and anchoring of radial MTs to the puncta strongly

suggests that these protein assemblies are composed of PCM and act as pericentrosomal MTOCs.

Importantly, γ-tubulin redistribution during the transition to a pro-inflammatory phenotype did not

derive from centriolar duplication during cell division (Fuller *et al.*, 1995; Alvarado-Kristensson,

2018) as no more than 2 γ-tubulin[+] puncta colocalized with centrin-3 in the same cell, an abundant

protein associated with the centrosome (Middendorp *et al.*, 2000). In addition, γ-tubulin redistribution was strictly dependent on a dynamic MT cytoskeleton, suggesting that the increase in MT dynamicity is necessary for the relocation of MT nucleating material to the centrosome.

We find that PCM maturation occurring in pro-inflammatory microglia negatively regulates IL-1β release through a non-classical secretory pathway (Lacy and Stow, 2011). Indeed, inhibition of PLK4 during the acquisition of a pro-inflammatory phenotype reduces pericentrosomal γ-tubulin$^+$ puncta formation, increases NLRP3 expression, and potentiates IL-1β release without affecting the release of IL-6 and IL-10. NLRP3-inflammasome hyperactivation is consistent with NLRP3 hyperactivation through NEK7 dephosphorylation by inhibition of PLK4 in macrophages (Seoane *et al.*, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2020). Given that the NLRP3-inflammasome mediates interleukin activation (Hanisch, 2002), NLRP3-inflammasome hyperactivation may account for the increase in IL-1β release and the accumulation of blebbing microvesicles we observe in microglia stimulated *in vitro*. Interestingly, our results on cytokine release upon PLK4-inhibition differ from those reported after long-term (7 days) inhibition in macrophages activated with LPS (Vertii *et al.*, 2016)) suggesting that the response to loss of PLK4 activity is cell type specific or longer treatments may have either secondary or opposite effects. Further studies are necessary to discriminate between these possibilities.

In summary, we identify a heretofore unique example of MT reorganization from a non-centrosomal array of MTs with mixed polarity to a radial array in which all the MTs are uniformly oriented and anchored either at the centrosome or pericentrosomal MTOCs. Our structural, functional and in tissue analyses further demonstrate that acentrosomal MT nucleation at Golgi outposts may play an important role in supporting the patrolling phenotype of microglia cells, that tubulin remodeling enables microglia reactivity *in vitro* and in tissue, and that targeting PCM maturation in reactive microglia may represent a new approach to limit tissue damage during neurodegenerative disease in which microgliosis contributes to neuronal injury and cognitive decline (Heneka, Kummer and Latz, 2014; Colonna and Butovsky, 2017).

560   **Star Methods**

562   **Key resources table**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIERR
Antibodies		
Camsap2 (rabbit polyclonal)	Novus Biologicals	Cat# NBP1-26645; RRID AB_1852845
γ Tubulin (rabbit polyclonal)	Invitrogen	Cat# PA1-28042; RRID AB_2256789
γ Tubulin (mouse monoclonal)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# T5326; RRID AB_532292
Tyr Tubulin (rat monoclonal)	Millipore	Cat# MAB1864; RRID AB_2128189
Acetylated Tub (Mouse monoclonal)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# T7451; RRID AB_609894
α-Tubulin (mouse monoclonal)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# T6199; RRID AB_477583
De-tyr Tubulin (Rabbit polyclonal)	Millipore	Cat# AB3201; RRID AB_177350
EB1 (Mouse monoclonal)	BD Biosciences	Cat# 610535; RRID AB_397892
Pericentrin (Rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam	Cat# Ab4448; RRID AB_304461
Centrin3 (Mouse monoclonal)	Abnova	Cat# H00001070-M01; RRID AB_304461
GM130 (Mouse monoclonal)	BD Biosciences	Cat# 610822; RRID AB_398141
IBA1 (Rabbit polyclonal)	FujiFilm	Cat# 019-19741; RRID AB_839504
Atto488 Phalloidin	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 49409
Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse	Invitrogen	Cat# A11001; RRID AB_2534069
488 goat anti-rat	Invitrogen	Cat# A11006; RRID AB_141373
488 goat anti-rabbit	Invitrogen	Cat# A11008; RRID AB_143165
594 goat anti-mouse	Invitrogen	Cat# A11032; RRID AB_2534091

647 goat anti-rabbit	Invitrogen	Cat# A32733; RRID AB_2633282
CF 594 goat anti-rat	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# SAB4600111
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
LPS from E.Coli O55:B5	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# L5418
LPS from E.Coli O111:B4	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# L4391
Murine recombinant IL-4	PEPROTECH	Cat# 214-14
Murine recombinant IFNγ	PEPROTECH	Cat# 315-05
Taxol	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# PHL89806
Centrinone (PLK4 inhibitor)	Tocris	Cat# 5687
Nocodazole	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 31430-18-9
Hoechst	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 23491-45-4
Propidium Iodide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 25535-16-4
Poly-L-lysine hydrobromide	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# P6282
Hexamethyldisilazane	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 999-97-3
Dulbecco′s Modified Eagle′s Medium (DMEM)	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# D6546
Fetal bovine serum (FBS)	Gibco	Cat# 11573397
Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS) tablets	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# P4417
Saponin	Sigma-Aldrich	Cat# 47036-50G-F
Critical commercial assays		
Mouse IL-6 Elisa Kit	Invitrogen	Cat# BMS603-2
Mouse IL-10 Elisa Kit	Invitrogen	Cat# 88-7105-88
Mouse IL1β Elisa Kit	Invitrogen	Cat# 88-7013-86
Quick RNA MiniPrep	Zymo Research, Freiburg, DE	Cat# R1055
iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix	Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA	Cat# 1708840
Sybr Green	Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA	Cat# 172-5124
NuPAGE™ 4 to 12%, Bis-Tris, 1.0 mm, Mini Protein	Invitrogen	Cat# NP0321PK2
SiR-Tubulin Kit	Cytoskeleton	Cat# CY-SC002
Immun-Star Western Chemiluminescence Kit	Bio-Rad	Cat#170-5070
Deposited data		
Max Intensity RadialProfile	This paper	https://github.com/ggosti/maxIntensityRadialProfile
Experimental models: Organisms/strains		

Mouse: C57BL/6	Charles River Laboratories	027C57BL/6
Mouse: Cx3cr1$^{gfp/gfp}$	Jackson Laboratories	B6.129P2(Cg)-Cx3cr1tm1Litt/J bred with C57BL6/j
Oligonucleotides		
GAPDH forward: TCGTCCCGTAGACAAAATGG	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
GAPDH reverse: TTGAGGTCAATGAAGGGGTC	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Ym1 forward: CAGGTCTGGCAATTCTTCTGAA	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Ym1 reverse: GTCTTGCTCATGTGTGTAAGTGA	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Fizz1 forward: CCAATCCAGCTAACTATCCCTCC	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Fizz1 reverse: ACCCAGTAGCAGTCATCCCA	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Tnfα forward: GTGGAACTGGCAGAAGAG	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Tnfα reverse: CCATAGAACTGATGAGAGG	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
IL1β forward: GCAACTGTTCCTGAACTCAACT	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
IL1β reverse: ATCTTTTGGGGTCCGTCAACT	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
iNOS forward: ACATCGACCCGTCCACAGTAT	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
iNOS reverse: CAGAGGGGTAGGCTTGTCTC	Sigma-Aldrich	Custom
Software and algorithms		
GraphPad Prism v9.0	GraphPad Software Inc.	https://www.graphpad.com
FIJI/ImageJ 1.53c	(Schindelin *et al.*, 2012)	http://www.imagej.nih.gov/ij
ImageJ 1.50i	Wayne Radband, National institute of Health, USA	http://imagej.nih.gov/ij
Metamorph 7.10.2	Molecular Devices	https://www.moleculardevices.com/
Imaris 8.1.2	Oxford Instruments	https://imaris.oxinst.com/
FlowJo v10.7.1	TreeStar, Ashland, OR, USA	https://www.flowjo.com/
Quantity One software	Biorad	https://www.bio-rad.com
NIS-elements	Nikon	https://www.microscope.healthcare.nikon.com/
Anaconda3	Anaconda Inc.	https://www.anaconda.com

Python 3.8.5	Python Software Foundation.	http://www.python.org
Numpy 1.19.2	(Harris *et al.*, 2020)	https://numpy.org
Matplotlib 3.3.2	(Hunter, 2007)	https://matplotlib.org
Scikit-image 0.17.2	(Van Der Walt *et al.*, 2014)	https://scikit-image.org
Other		
Killik O.C.T. Compound	Bio-Optica	Cat# 05-9801
μ-Slide 8 Well	Ibidi	Cat# 80826
ibidi Mounting Medium	Ibidi	Cat# 50001
ProLong Glass Antifade Mountant	Invitrogen	Cat# P36982
Superfrost ultra plus slides	Thermo Scientific	Cat# 10149870

METHOD DETAILS

Primary murine microglia culture and treatment

Primary cortical glial cells were prepared from 0- to 2-d-old mice as previously described (Rosito *et al.*, 2012). Briefly, cerebral cortices were chopped and digested in 30 U/ml papain for 40 min at 37 °C followed by gentle trituration. The dissociated cells were washed, suspended in Dulbecco′s Modified Eagle′s Medium (DMEM, Sigma-Aldrich) with 10% FBS (Gibco) and 2 mM L-glutamine and plated at a density of 9–10 x 10^5 in 175 cm^2 cell culture flasks. At confluence (10 – 12 DIV), glial cells were shaken for 2 h at 37 °C to detach and collect microglial cells. These procedures gave an almost pure (< 1% astrocyte contamination) microglial cell population. Microglia cells were plated at a density of $7x10^3$/cm^2 (to prevent cell contact activation) in astrocytes conditioned medium /DMEM 2,5% FBS (1:1). The day after plating microglia cells were treated for 48 h with IFNγ (20 ng/ml) and LPS (100 ng/ml) or with IL-4 (20 ng/ml) to obtain the pro-inflammatory or anti-inflammatory phenotype, respectively. To disassemble MTs, homeostatic microglia were treated with 2 μM nocodazole (Sigma-Aldrich) added to the culture medium for 1 h at 37 °C. Samples were then kept on ice and washed 5x times with ice-cold medium. MTs were allowed to regrow in conditioned medium without nocodazole for 15 min and 120 min at 37 °C. Right before fixation, free tubulin was rapidly extracted using a MT-preserving extraction buffer (60 mM PIPES, 25 mM HEPES, 10 mM EGTA, 2 mM MgCl$_2$, 0.1% saponin, pH 6.9, Zhu and Kaverina, 2011) for 20 sec at 37 °C. Cells were subsequently fixed with methanol at -20 °C for 4 min and processed for immunofluorescence staining. To stabilize MTs, microglia

cells were treated for 24 h with 1 nM and 5 nM Taxol (Sigma-Aldrich) alone or together with

IFNγ (20 ng/ml) and LPS (100 ng/ml). To inhibit PLK4, microglia cells were pre-treated with 125

nM Centrinone (Tocris) for 12 h prior to stimulation for 48 h with IFNγ (20 ng/ml) and LPS (100

ng/ml).

Immunofluorescence staining on fixed cells

Methanol fixation at -20 °C was elected for preserving an intact MT cytoskeleton: culture medium

was removed and cells were fixed with pre-cooled 100% methanol at -20°C for 4 min prior to re-

hydration with Phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 0.01 M phosphate buffer, 0.0027 M potassium

chloride and 0.137 M sodium chloride, pH 7.4, at 25 °C, Sigma-Aldrich) for at least 30 min at RT

To preserve membrane associated components, cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde

(PFA)/PBS for 15 min at RT and then washed with PBS. When PFA fixed, cells were

permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100/PBS for 1 to 3 min. After 2 washes in PBS, cells were

blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin (BSA, Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS for 1 h at RT Primary

antibodies (Rabbit Camsap1L1, Novus Biologicals, 1:200; rabbit γ-tubulin, Invitrogen, 1: 5000;

mouse γ tubulin, Sigma-Aldrich, 1:1000; rat Tyrosinated tubulin YL 1/2, Millipore, 1:1000; mouse

Acetylated tubulin clone 6-11B-1, Sigma-Aldrich, 1:1000; mouse α-tubulin clone DM1A, Sigma-

Aldrich, 1:500; rabbit Detyrosinated α-tubulin, Millipore, 1:1000; mouse EB1, BD Biosciences,

1:100; rabbit Pericentrin, Abcam, 1:1500; mouse Centrin3, Abnova, 1:100; mouse GM130, BD

Biosciences, 1:600; rabbit IBA-1, FujiFilm, 1:300; Atto 488 Phalloidin, Sigma-Aldrich, 1:50) were

incubated in 1.5% BSA in PBS for 2 h (RT) or overnight (+4°C). Cells were then extensively

washed and stained with fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibodies in PBS (Alexa Fluor 488

goat anti-mouse, 488 goat anti-rat, 488 goat anti-rabbit, 594 goat anti-mouse, 647 goat anti-rabbit,

Invitrogen; CF 594 goat anti-rat, Sigma-Aldrich; 1:500) and Hoechst (Sigma-Aldrich) for nuclei

visualization for 1 h at RT prior to wash and mounting using Ibidi Mounting Medium.

MT dynamics assay

For live fluorescence imaging to measure MT dynamics, cells were incubated with 100 nM SiR-

Tubulin (SpiroChrome) at 37 °C for 30 min and washed with conditioned medium prior to

visualization to improve signal to noise ratio. 10 µM Verapamil was added to inhibit efflux pumps

and improve labeling. Live wide-field fluorescence imaging of SiRTub-labeled MTs was

performed on a Olympus IX73 microscope, LDI laser source and CoolSNAP Myo camera, 4.54

µm pixels (Photometrics) with a built-in incubator, maintaining the temperature at 37 °C during

recordings. Acquisitions were performed for 4 min (1 frame/4 sec) with a UPLSXAPO100x/1.45

oil objective and then analyzed with ImageJ software (see *Image preparation and analysis*).

Animals

All procedures performed using laboratory animals were in accordance with the Italian and

European guidelines and were approved by the Italian Ministry of Health in accordance with the

guidelines on the ethical use of animals from the European Communities Council Directive of

September 20, 2010 (2010/63/UE). All efforts were made to minimize suffering and number of

animals used. Mice were housed in standard cages in a group of a maximum of 5 animals, with

light–dark cycles of 12 h at 22±2 °C. Wild type C57BL-6 male and pregnant mice were purchased

from Charles River and pups (P0-P2) were used to obtain primary glial cultures. Cx3cr1$^{gfp/gfp}$ male

mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory company (B6.129P2(Cg)-Cx3cr1tm1Litt/J);

the colony was established in our animal facility, and progenitors were bred to C57BL6J to obtain

cx3cr1$^{gfp/+}$ mice as we previously reported (Pagani et al., 2015).

Intravitreal injection and EIU

Adult C57BL6/J mice were intravitreally injected with sterile PBS (vehicle) or 5 ng/µl LPS from

E. Coli (O55:B5, Sigma Aldrich). Intravitreal injection of LPS has been previously reported as a

model of endotoxin induced uveitis (EIU) activating microglia in the retina (Becker *et al.*, 2001;

Rosenbaum *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Chu *et al.*, 2016; Bell *et al.*, 2020). Animals were

anaesthetized with 100 mg/kg methadomidine and 0.25 mg/kg ketamine. Pupils were dilated using

1% tropicamide and 2.5% phenylephrine (Chauvin, Essex, UK) and a small guide hole was made

under the limbus with a 30G needle. The eye was gently massaged with a cotton swab to remove

a portion of the vitreous to avoid a post-injection reflux of vitreous and/or drug solution. Then, 1

µl of vehicle or LPS solution was intravitreally injected through the initial hole using a 34G

Hamilton syringe.

Immunofluorescence staining on retinal tissue

Cx3cr1$^{gfp/+}$ control mice were sacrificed at P70. CTRL (sham) and LPS intravitreally injected adult

C57BL6/J mice were sacrificed 20 h after the injection procedure.

Eyes were removed and kept in 4% PFA solution overnight. Eyes were then cryoprotected in 30%

sucrose and, after precipitation, frozen in isopentane prior to storage at -80 °C. Frozen eyes were

cut in 50-μm-thick sections with a Leica cryostat and processed for immunofluorescence staining

as published (Wu *et al.*, 2020). Briefly, slices were immersed for 30 min in a boiling 1 mM EDTA

solution (pH = 8.0) for antigen retrieval, then incubated with blocking solution (0.1% Triton X-

100, 3% BSA and 0.05% Tween-20 in PBS) for 1 h at RT. Sections were incubated with primary

antibodies (Iba1, FujiFilm, 1:500; γ-tubulin, clone GTU-88, Sigma-Aldrich, 1:500; GM130, BD

bioscience, 1:500) in diluted blocking solution overnight at 4 °C and 1 h at RT with fluorophore-

conjugated secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit, 594 goat anti-mouse) and

Hoechst for nuclei visualization. The sections were mounted with anti-fade mounting medium

(Invitrogen).

659 Confocal Spinning Disk and Structured Illumination (SIM) microscopy

For fluorescence imaging of fixed samples, images were collected with spinning disk confocal

microscopy on a Nikon Eclipse Ti equipped with X-Light V2 spinning disk (CrestOptics),

combined with a VCS (Video Confocal Super resolution) module (CrestOptics) based on

structured illumination, and a LDI laser source (89 North) and Prime BSI Scientific CMOS

(sCMOS) camera, 6.5 μm pixels (Photometrics) or a CoolSNAP Myo camera, 4.54 μm pixels

(Photometrics), with a 10x/0.25 NA Plan E air objective, 40x/0.75 PlanApo l air objective, a

60x/1.4 PlanApo l oil objective and a 100x/1.45 Plan E oil objective. The used Z step size was 0.2

μm for spinning disk and 0.1 μm for VCS. In order to achieve super-resolution, raw data obtained

by the VCS module have been processed with a modified version of the joint Richardson-Lucy

(jRL) algorithm (Ingaramo *et al.*, 2014; Ströhl and Kaminski, 2015; Chakrova, Rieger and

Stallinga, 2016), where the out of focus contribution of the signal has been explicitly added in the

image formation model used in the jRL algorithm, and evaluated as a pixel-wise linear "scaled

subtraction" (Heintzmann and Benedetti, 2006) of the raw signal. Retinal sections images were

acquired on an Olympus IX73 microscope equipped with X-Light V3 spinning disk (CrestOptics),

LDI laser source and a Prime BSI Scientific CMOS (sCMOS), 6.5 μm pixels (Photometrics) with

a UPLSXAPO100x/1.45 oil objective. All the images were acquired by using Metamorph software

version 7.10.2. (Molecular Devices) and then analyzed with ImageJ software (see *Image*

preparation and analysis).

Image preparation and analysis

For image preparation, we used the open-source software ImageJ (Fiji project, Schindelin *et al.*,

2012) for adjustments of levels and contrast, maximum intensity projections, and thresholding

signals for fluorescence intensity analysis.

Radial profile analysis. For tyrosinated α-tubulin, CAMSAP2 and γ tubulin distribution analysis,

microglia cells were fixed in methanol at -20 °C for 4 min or PFA 4% for 15 min and then stained

with an anti-tyrosinated tubulin, CAMSAP2 or γ tubulin antibody according to the

immunofluorescence protocol, and Hoechst for nuclei visualization. Images obtained by confocal

microscopy were analyzed with ImageJ to identify the coordinates of the center of the nucleus in

each cell and to generate single-cell masks based on the morphology of each cell. A Python script

(see Supplementals) was written to apply an Otsu threshold to the images (Otsu, 1979) and to

perform a radial scanning of fluorescence values, starting from the center of the nucleus of each

cell, with a resolution of 0.065 μm. Maximum value radial profile was defined as the maximum

fluorescence intensity (a.u.) for each concentric circle with an increasing distance from the nucleus

center. For each analyzed microglia cell the radial profile of the maximum value of fluorescence

intensity (a.u.) was computed and plotted. Plots were smoothed with a resolution of 0.5 μm. All

data points were exported into a Microsoft Excel 2010 (Microsoft Corporation) compatible format.

In CAMSAP2 analysis, only cytoplasmic staining was analyzed. Curve fit was performed using a

single exponential decay function on GraphPad Prism 9.0 (Y=(Y0 - Plateau)*exp(-K*X) +

Plateau).

MT dynamics analysis. Analysis of MT dynamics was performed by tracing the lengths of the MTs

via the "freehand line" tracing tool in ImageJ. Changes in length between successive frames were

exported into an Excel sheet to determine the growth, shortening and pause events for each MT.

Only changes > 0.5 μm were considered growth or shortening events (Dhamodharan and

Wadsworth, 1995; Rusan *et al.*, 2001). MT dynamics parameters were defined as follows:

growth/shrinkage rate: distance (μm) covered in growth or shrinkage per second;%

pause/growth/shrinkage: number of frames in pause/growth/shrinkage divided total number of

frames X 100; catastrophe/rescue frequency (sec^{-1}): number of catastrophe or rescue events

divided by the product of the time of analysis and the percentage of growth or shrinkage; MT

dynamicity: the sum of total length in growth and shortening divided by the time of analysis.

In vitro cell morphology analysis. Cell morphology analysis was performed using a quantitative

measurement of cell area; cell solidity is expressed as the ratio between cell area and convex area.

Measurements were obtained with the Particle Analysis tool and images were processed with

ImageJ.

Extracellular vesicle analysis. For the statistical analysis of EV blebbing from the surface of

microglia, 20 microglia cells per sample, collected in four different areas of the support, were

randomly selected and scanned to count and measure the visualized vesicles. The ImageJ software

was used to count and measure the vesicle major axis.

Immunofluorescence signal quantification.

For immunofluorescence signal quantification, cells were selected on the basis of the

representative morphology: ramified for homeostatic, ameboid for pro-inflammatory and bipolar

for anti-inflammatory states. Detyr/Tyr tubulin ratio and Acetyl/Tyr tubulin ratio were calculated

from the mean gray values of the respective immunofluorescence signals, obtained from sum slices

z-projections of 15 confocal planes after background subtraction (calculated as mean gray value

of three circle background areas). EB1 anterograde or retrograde comets were defined from the

EB1 fluorescence signal gradient from single plane images, measured with the "plot profile" tool

of ImageJ. For Golgi stacks analysis, GM130 maximum intensity z-projection

immunofluorescence images were uniformly thresholded on ImageJ by setting the same minimum

values ('Default' threshold) to identify single Golgi stacks; a single Golgi stack was defined as a

non-round object (roundness < 0.9) with a major axis length > 0.5 µm. For GM130- γ-tubulin co-

staining analysis, GM130 and tubulin signals from max intensity z-projections were uniformly

processed among different images increasing the 'brightness' and 'contrast' parameters by the

same percentage. γ-tubulin signal over cell area was calculated as percentage of cell area covered

by γ tubulin signal; γ-tubulin signal threshold was uniformly applied on MetaMorph analysis

software by setting the same minimum values to all images.

Two or more distinct γ-tubulin[+] puncta were identified by counting the peaks of fluorescence

intensity on a linescan drawn through the centroid of each puncta using the free-hand tool on

ImageJ; The Find Peaks ImageJ plugin was used to identify the peaks by setting the minimum

peak amplitude value at 100 grey values. Puncta were identified in a 132x132 pixels pericentriolar

region after uniformly thresholding max intensity z-projections ('Default' threshold); integrated

density was calculated in ImageJ as mean gray value*thresholded area. Pericentrin and Centrin-3-

γ-tubulin co-localization analysis was performed by defining Pericentrin and Centrin-3[+] puncta as

described above for γ-tubulin[+] puncta.

Retinal microglia cell skeleton analysis. Morphology of microglia cells in retinal sections was

analyzed on max intensity z-projections; only entirely visible cells inside the acquisition field were

analyzed; cells were isolated and then skeletonized on binary images, using the dedicated ImageJ

plug-in; branches, endpoints and junction number was calculated from the skeletonized image.

Real time PCR

RNA was extracted from microglia cells with the Quick RNA MiniPrep (Zymo Research,

Freiburg, DE) and retrotranscribed with iScript Reverse Transcription Supermix for Real-time

PCR (RT-PCR) (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). RT-PCR was carried out using Sybr Green

(Biorad) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The PCR protocol consisted of 40 cycles of

denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s and annealing/extension at 60 °C for 30 s. For quantification, the

comparative Threshold Cycle (Ct) method was used. The Ct values from each gene were

normalized to the Ct value of GAPDH in the same RNA samples. Relative quantification was

performed using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method (Schmittgen and Livak, 2008) and expressed as fold change in

arbitrary values. Primer sequences are listed in table S1.

SEM analysis

Samples were fixed in a solution of 1.5% Glutaraldehyde in 0.1 M Cacodylate buffer for 2 h at RT

and post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide in Milli q (MQ) H_2O for 2 h. After several washes in MQ

H_2O, the samples were subsequently dehydrated in rising concentrations of ethanol in H_2O

solutions (from 30% to 100%), 1:1 ethanol:hexamethyldisilazane (HMDS, Sigma-Aldrich) and

100% HMDS and dried overnight in air. Finally, the samples were sputtered with a 10 nm gold

layer and analyzed using a JEOL JSM-6490LA Scanning Electron Microscope (SEM) operating

at 10 KV of accelerating voltage.

Western blot

Cells were lysed in Laemmli sample buffer and boiled at 95 °C for 5 min. Proteins were separated

by 4-12% Bis-Tris gel (Invitrogen) and transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane. After blocking

in 5% milk/TBS (Tris 20 mM, NaCl 150 mM), membranes were incubated with primary antibodies

at 4 °C overnight prior to 1 h incubation with secondary antibodies and signal detected using a

commercial chemiluminescent assay (Immun-Star WesternC Kit; Bio-Rad). Image acquisition was

performed with ChemiDoc MP imaging system (Bio-Rad) and densitometric analysis was

performed with Quantity One software (Biorad).

Cell cycle assay

Microglia cells were collected by following trypsin treatment. Cells were rinsed twice with

phosphate buffered saline (PBS pH 7.4) and collected by centrifugation. Pellets were resuspended

in ice cold 70% ethanol and stored at 4 °C for 1 h. Cells were collected by centrifugation, rinsed

twice in PBS and resuspended in 20 µg/ml propidium iodide (PI) in PBS with 50 µg/ml RNase A

for a minimum of 30 min. After PI incubation, Flow cytometry analysis of DNA content was

performed as reported and analyzed using a BD LSRFortessa (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA,

USA). The percentage of cells in different phases of the cell cycle was determined using the

FlowJo V10.7.1 computer software (TreeStar, Ashland, OR, USA). At least 10.000 events for each

sample were acquired.

Statistical analysis

The n number for each experiment and details of statistical analyses are described in the figure

legends or main text. Data are reported as mean ± SEM; when not normally distributed, data are

reported as median ± interquartile range. Origin 6 and GraphPad Prism 9 software were used for

statistical analysis. Normality tests were performed with Prism 9 and nonparametric tests were

used when appropriate. Significant differences are indicated in the figures by * $p < 0.05$, ** $p <$

0.01, *** $p < 0.001$. Notable non-significant differences are indicated in the figures by ns.

Supplementary material

Movie S1. Time-lapse acquisition of SiR-Tubulin labeled MTs in homeostatic microglia, Related

to Figure 1

Movie S2. Time-lapse acquisition of SiR-Tubulin labeled MTs in pro-inflammatory microglia,

Related to Figure 1

Movie S3. Time-lapse acquisition of SiR-Tubulin labeled MTs in anti-inflammatory microglia,

Related to Figure 1

Table 1. MT dynamicity parameters in homeostatic and activated microglia, Related to Figure 1

Figure S1. Molecular and morphological characterization of homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and

anti-inflammatory primary microglia, Related to Figure 1

Figure S2. Analysis of EB1 and CAMSAP2 expression in homeostatic, pro-inflammatory and anti-

inflammatory microglia, Related to Figure 2

Figure S3. Molecular, morphological and functional characterization of microglia non-

centrosomal MTs nucleation in primary cultures and in retinal slices, Related to Figure 3

Fig S4. Analysis of pericentriolar material maturation during microglia pro-inflammatory

activation, Related to Figure 4

Fig S5. Characterization of in vivo microglia activation in the LPS-induced uveitis model, Related

to Figure 4

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Author Contributions

F.B., S.D.A., and M.R. designed the study and wrote the manuscript. C.S, M.R., M.M., D.D., F.C.,

G.P., M.G. and A.I. performed experiments and generated primary data. G.G. generated code;

C.S., M.R., F.C., D.D., G.P. M.M., M.G. and S.D.A. performed data analysis. E.D.L., S.D.P.,

G.C.R, D.R., and R.G. provided helpful insights and contributed key techniques. F.B. and S.D.A

supervised data analysis and experiments.

Materials availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents. The data that support the findings of this study

are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. The code is available at

https://github.com/ggosti/maxIntensityRadialProfile.

Additional information

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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