Pu.1/Spi1 dosage controls the turnover and maintenance of microglia in
zebrafish and mammals

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Abstract

Microglia are brain-resident macrophages playing pivotal roles in CNS development and
homeostasis. Yet, the cellular and molecular basis governing microglia maintenance remain largely
unknown. Here, via utilizing a visible conditional knockout allele of *pu.1* gene (the master regulator
for microglia/macrophage lineage development) to generate mosaic microglia populations in adult
zebrafish, we show that while *pu.1*-deficient microglia are immediate viable, they are less
competitive and chronically eliminated through Tp53-mediated cell competition. Interestingly,
when conditionally inactivating Pu.1 in adult *spi-b* (the paralogue of zebrafish Pu.1) null mutants,
microglia are rapidly depleted via apoptosis, suggesting that Pu.1 and Spi-b regulate microglia
maintenance in a dosage-dependent manner. The dosage-dependent regulation of microglia
maintenance by PU.1 is evolutionarily conserved in mice, as shown by conditionally inactivating
single and both *Pu.1* alleles in microglia respectively. Collectively, our study reveals the conserved
cellular and molecular mechanisms controlling microglia turnover and maintenance in teleost and
mammals.

Introduction

Microglia, the crucial immune cells residing in the central nervous system (CNS), have a profound
impact on the maintenance of CNS homeostasis, as they not only function as scavengers to facilitate
the removal of invading pathogens or damaged tissues, but also actively regulate neurogenesis,
synaptic pruning and neuronal activity (Colonna & Butovsky, 2017; Gomez-Nicola & Perry, 2015).

It is therefore not surprising that the dysfunction of microglia is closely linked with the occurrence

and progression of many neurodegenerative disorders (Glass *et al*, 2010; Li *et al*, 2012; Prinz *et al*,

2011), thus making it a promising therapeutic target in the prevention and treatment of these

diseases.

In mice, fate-mapping methods revealed that unlike other glia cells with neuroectoderm origin,

microglia in adult originate from yolk-sac (YS) derived primitive macrophages, which colonize the

developing brain rudiment during early embryogenesis (Ginhoux *et al*, 2010; Schulz *et al*, 2012).

Whether microglia in adult mammals were contributed by monocyte-derived microglia precursors

had long been a debate until the establishment of parabiosis assay (Ajami *et al*, 2007). It is now

well-accepted that under physiological condition microglia in mice are maintained locally by self-

renewal throughout the lifespan. In accordance with this concept, microglia population was found to

be rapidly reconstituted by resident cells after genetic or pharmacological ablation of microglia

(Bruttger *et al*, 2015; Elmore *et al*, 2014). However, when estimating the physiological turnover

rate of microglia via different methods such as ^{3}H-thymidine/BrdU/EdU incorporation, Ki67

staining or two photon live imaging, different studies yielded distinct or even contradictory results

i.e., the estimated microglia turnover rate ranging from 0.13 to 0.8% (Askew *et al*, 2017; Füger *et*

al, 2017; Lawson *et al*, 1992; Tay *et al*, 2017), which indicated that microglia in adult mice (~2

years lifespan) were either long-lived without replenishment or replenished for several times during

the whole lifespan of the animals. Nonetheless, these studies have reached the consensus that in

adult mice all microglia have the proliferation capability and there are no putative microglia

precursors existing to proliferate asymmetrically and continuously to contribute to microglia pool.

Moreover, microglia proliferation had been shown to be spatially and temporally coupled with

apoptosis to maintain the homeostasis of their population (Askew *et al.*, 2017): which indicates that

not only proliferating microglia locate near the dying microglia, but also newborn microglia

manifest a higher frequency of apoptosis. However, whether this phenomenon is for the quality

control of microglia or has any other physiological relevance remained unclear. In addition, as a

fraction of newborn microglia underwent apoptosis and did not contribute to microglia homeostasis,

previously calculated proliferation rate might potentially over-estimate the true turnover rate of

microglia. Collectively, although these studies give some insights into the understanding of

microglia turnover and maintenance, our knowledge about the underlying cellular and molecular

mechanisms are still limited.

PU.1/SPI1, the founding member of the spleen focus forming virus proviral integration

oncogene (SPI) subfamily of the E-twenty six (ETS) family transcription factor, is one of the best-

characterized gene governing the development of macrophage lineage (McKercher *et al*, 1996;

Scott *et al*, 1994). Disruption of PU.1 in mice causes early lethality of the embryos and complete

absence of macrophages (McKercher *et al.*, 1996; Scott *et al.*, 1994), including microglia in brain

(Kierdorf *et al*, 2013). Interestingly, the *PU.1* expression level was found to remain at a high level

in microglia after their terminal differentiation (Walton *et al*, 2000), implying that PU.1 also

regulates the cellular behaviors and functions of microglia in the sophisticated CNS environment.

Indeed, Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)-Seq analysis with microglia cell line BV2 cells

revealed thousands of PU.1 targets (Satoh *et al*, 2014). Accordingly, silencing of PU.1 by siRNA in

mixed human glial culture led to the reduced viability of microglia and decreased phagocytosis of

amyloid-beta (Aβ42) (Smith *et al*, 2013). However, as a previous study reported that inactivating

either 1 copy or 2 copies of PU.1 by fusing PU.1 with cytoplasm-retaining estrogen receptor (ER)

had no effect on the viability of alveolar macrophages (Karpurapu *et al*, 2011), whether PU.1

indeed regulated the survival and maintenance of microglia in the in-vivo conditions remained to be

further investigated. Moreover, human SNPs that altered *PU.1* expression level were reported to be

associated with Alzheimer's disease (AD) pathogenesis (Cao *et al*, 2022; Huang *et al*, 2017). A

recent study showed that conditional inactivation or pharmacological inhibition of PU.1 in AD

mouse model ameliorated neuroinflammation, prevented microgliosis and improved cognitive

performance (Ralvenius *et al*, 2023). Although reduction of microglia number was considered as a

result of the amelioration of neuroinflammation, whether PU.1 directly regulated microglia survival

and maintenance to prevent the propagation of neuroinflammation in diseased condition deserved to

be carefully revisited. SPI-B, another member in the mammalian SPI subfamily, has been shown to

be dispensable for the development of the macrophage lineage (Su *et al*, 1997). Yet, its involvement

in the regulation of microglia turnover and maintenance remains to be investigated.

Owing to the genetic amenability and the feasibility for live-imaging and lineage tracing,

zebrafish has been adopted as an ideal model for the study of microglia development and function

(Hughes & Appel, 2020; Iyer *et al*, 2022; Li *et al.*, 2012; Peri & Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008). Zebrafish

microglia are highly conserved with their mammalian counterparts in terms of morphology,

molecular signatures, development-regulatory genetic networks as well as functions (Xu *et al*, 2015;

Yu *et al*, 2017). Different from the single origin of mouse microglia, zebrafish microglia were

shown to arise from two distinct sources i.e., the rostral blood (RBI), equivalent of mouse YS for

primitive myelopoiesis, and the aorta-gonad-mesonephros (AGM) region for hematopoietic stem

cell (HSC) initiation. The RBI microglia colonize the developing brain during early embryogenesis,

but are gradually replenished by AGM adult microglia (Xu *et al.*, 2015). Further study revealed that

this dynamic shift of microglia pool is controlled by Il34-Csf1ra signaling-dictated cell competition

(Yu *et al*, 2023). Yet, when the microglia pool is established in adult zebrafish, the molecular

mechanisms underlying their turnover and maintenance remain incompletely understood. Moreover,

although Pu.1 (also called Spi1b) and its paralogue Spi-b (also called Spi1a), the zebrafish

orthologues of mammalian PU.1 and SPI-B, were shown to be indispensable for microglia early

development of both origins in zebrafish (Xu *et al.*, 2015; Yu *et al.*, 2017), their functions in the

survival and maintenance of microglia in adult animals have not been established.

In the present study, via the condition knockout strategy to generate mosaic microglia

population in adult zebrafish and mice, we revealed that the turnover and maintenance of microglia

is evolutionarily conserved and regulated by Pu.1/Spi1 dosage from teleost to mammals.

Results

Adult microglia in zebrafish undergo rapid turnover and random proliferation to replenish and maintain their pool

Previous studies have shown that there are two major subtypes of myeloid cells, i.e., $ccl34b.1^+$

microglia and $ccl34b.1^-ccl19a.1^+$ brain-resident dendritic cells (DCs) in adult zebrafish brain (Wu *et*

al, 2020; Zhou *et al*, 2023). To monitor the turnover and maintenance of microglia in adult

zebrafish brain, we employed microglia-specific *TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* transgenic reporter line

(Wu *et al.*, 2020) and performed EdU pulse-chase experiment, a similar strategy with that in mouse

to determine microglia turnover (Askew *et al.*, 2017; Tay *et al.*, 2017). As a single dose of EdU

injection might under-estimate the microglia turnover rate, we intraperitoneally injected EdU into

adult *TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* fish for either 1, 3 or 5 consecutive days. We then collected the fish

brain at 1 day post injection (dpi) for cryosection and co-staining of eGFP, Lcp1 (a pan leukocyte

marker expressed in both microglia and DCs), EdU and DAPI, in which ccl34b.1-eGFP$^+$Lcp1$^+$ cells

are microglia and ccl34b.1-eGFP$^-$Lcp1$^+$ cells represent DCs (Fig. 1A). Quantification results

showed that, while a single dose of EdU pulse labeled 1.892±0.234% microglia, the EdU

incorporate rate for microglia after 3 or 5 doses of EdU pulses increased almost linearly (Fig. 1B,

green bars). Based on these data, the estimated microglia turnover rate (daily) is ~2.6% (total EdU

incorporation rate divided by the times of EdU-pulses) (Fig. 1C, green bars). On the other hand, the

EdU incorporate rate for the DCs was much lower (Fig. 1B-C, red bars), suggesting that the DCs in

the brain are relatively steady with a very low turnover rate.

Previously, via the EdU/BrdU dual-pulse assay, Tay et al. have shown that microglia in adult

mouse brain proliferate randomly during homeostasis and no putative microglia precursors have

been identified accordingly (Tay *et al.*, 2017). To clarify whether there might be putative microglial

precursors that continuously proliferate to contribute to microglia turnover in zebrafish, we

employed a similar strategy, in which adult wild-type (WT) fish were injected with a single dose of

EdU followed with five daily BrdU pulses to determine the BrdU proliferation rate of EdU$^+$ and

EdU$^-$ microglia (Fig. 1D, upper panel). Quantification result showed that the BrdU incorporation

rates were comparable between EdU$^+$ and EdU$^-$ microglia pools (Fig. 1D-E). These data strongly suggest that, similar to mammals (Tay *et al.*, 2017), microglia in adult zebrafish randomly undergo proliferation and there are no well-defined microglial precursors that continuously proliferate to replenish and maintain the microglia pool.

Generation and characterization of the visible conditional knockout allele *pu.1^{KI}*

To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying microglia turnover and maintenance, we focused on the Ets family transcription factor PU.1/SPI1, which had been shown to be a master regulator for macrophage/microglia development in fish and mammals (McKercher *et al.*, 1996; Scott *et al.*, 1994; Yu *et al.*, 2017). Because macrophages/microglia development is completely blocked at early development in *pu.1*-null zebrafish mutants (Yu *et al.*, 2017), we decided to generate a visible *pu.1* conditional knockout allele *pu.1^{KI}* to study the role of Pu.1 in microglia maintenance via the Non-homologous end jointing (NHEJ)-mediated knock-in method (Fig. 2A and Fig. S1A) (Li *et al*, 2015). As shown in Fig. 2A, the knock-in DNA fragment consisted of loxP, *pu.1* exon 4 to 6 followed by the self-cleaving P2A sequence-conjugated eGFP, and a splicing-acceptor site SpA2 followed by the P2A-DsRed. In addition, the 3' downstream sequence of *pu.1* gene (gray box) was added to the 3' end of each fluorescent protein to ensure efficient termination of RNA transcription and proper expression of the fluorescent proteins.

Three different founders were obtained. PCR and deep sequencing analysis of F1 embryos confirmed the correct integration of donor DNA fragment in the *pu.1* locus (Fig. S1B-C). Since the knock-in *pu.1^{KI}* allele would generate intact Pu.1 and eGFP concurrently (Fig. 2A), we predicted the expression pattern of eGFP, which presumably represents the expression of the knock-in Pu.1, should completely overlap with the endogenous Pu.1. Indeed, co-staining of eGFP and Pu.1 antibodies revealed a perfect overlap of the eGFP$^+$ cells and Pu.1$^+$ cells in *pu.1$^{KI/+}$* embryos (Fig. 2B), suggesting that the *pu.1^{KI}* allele recapitulates the expression of endogenous *pu.1*. Further studies suggested that *pu.1^{KI}-eGFP* efficiently labels embryonic microglia, and both microglia and DCs in adult, as revealed by the co-localization of *pu.1^{KI}-eGFP* and macrophage-specific reporter line *Tg(mpeg1:LRLG)* at 3 dpf, and by the co-staining of eGFP and Lcp1 antibodies on the brain sections of adult *pu.1$^{KI/+}$* fish respectively (Fig. 2C and D). To further confirm functional intactness of the *pu.1^{KI}* allele, we crossed the *pu.1^{KI}* fish with the *pu.1$^{\Delta839}$* mutants to examine if the *pu.1^{KI}* allele is capable of rescuing the microglia phenotype. Indeed, quantification of microglia number revealed no difference between the *pu.1$^{\Delta839/KI}$* and *pu.1$^{\Delta839/+}$* embryos (Fig. 2E and F), indicating that the *pu.1^{KI}* allele functionally recapitulates the endogenous *pu.1*.

To test whether the Cre mediated excision occurs correctly in the *pu.1^{KI}* allele, we injected Cre mRNA into the *pu.1^{KI}* embryos at one-cell stage. The injected embryos were raised to adulthood

(*pu.1^{CKO}* fish) and crossed with the *pu.1^{KI}* fish to generate *pu.1^{CKO/KI}* fish. As illustrated in Fig. 2A,

the Cre-mediated excision should remove the E4-6-P2A-eGFP cassette and allow the proper

splicing of the splicing-acceptor site SpA2 and joining of the P2A-DsRed with exon 3 (Fig. 2A),

leading to the induction of DsRed expression. Indeed, fluorescent imaging of the *pu.1^{CKO/KI}*

embryos revealed robust DsRed (*pu.1^{CKO}* allele) signals perfectly overlapping with the eGFP (*pu.1^{KI}*

allele) signals (Fig 2G), suggesting the correct DNA excision and RNA splicing in the *pu.1^{CKO}*

allele. This conclusion was further validated by sequencing analysis of the *pu.1^{CKO}* transcripts (Fig.

2H). Since the endogenous *pu.1* exons were not replaced, but instead they were separated far away

from the upstream exons by donor plasmid, we performed quantitative RT-PCR analysis of

pu.1^{CKO/CKO} embryos to determine the possible expression of the endogenous *pu.1* exons in *pu.1^{CKO}*

allele. The result showed that the relative expression of endogenous *pu.1* exons is around 1~2% in

comparison with that of DsRed expression (Fig. S1D), suggesting that expression of *pu.1* is largely

abolished in *pu.1^{CKO}* allele. To phenotypically characterize *pu.1^{CKO}* allele, and to avoid incomplete

inactivation of Pu.1 function in downstream microglia tracing experiments, which may occur when

using two *pu.1^{KI}* alleles due to the lower CreER recombination efficiency in zebrafish compared to

mice, we outcrossed the *pu.1^{CKO}* fish with the *pu.1^{Δ839}* null mutants. As anticipated, the

development of embryonic microglia was completely blocked in the *pu.1^{CKO/Δ839}* embryos (Fig. 2I

and J), a phenotype recapitulating the defect of the *pu.1^{Δ839}* homozygous mutants (Yu *et al.*, 2017).

These data demonstrate that the *pu.1^{KI}* allele works very well and serves as a useful tool to explore

the role of Pu.1 in adult microglia survival and maintenance.

Pu.1 and Spi-b regulate the turnover and maintenance of microglia in a dosage-dependent

manner

To investigate the role of Pu.1 in the survival and maintenance of microglia in adult zebrafish, we

crossed the *pu.1^{KI}* fish with the leukocyte-specific *Tg(coro1a:CreER)* line and the *pu.1^{Δ839}* mutants

to generate *pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish. We then

intraperitoneally injected 3 doses of 4-OHT into these adult fish and collected the brain samples at 2

dpi and 8 dpi for the quantification of microglia number after cryo-section and eGFP/DsRed

immuno-staining (Fig. 3A, upper panel). As shown in Fig. 3A (lower panel), DsRed$^+$ cells were

readily detected in the brains of both *pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)*

fish at 8 dpi. Quantification of the number and proportion of DsRed$^+$ cells at 2 dpi and 8 dpi

revealed no difference between *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* mutant fish and

pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER) control siblings (Fig. 3B-C). In accordance with this observation, we

also found that the number and proportion of microglia (ccl34b.1-eGFP$^+$ Lcp1$^+$) and DCs (ccl34b.1-

eGFP$^-$Lcp1$^+$) were comparable between *pu.1^{Δ839/Δ839};TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* null mutants and

pu.1^{Δ839/+};TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) siblings (Fig. S2). These data suggest that Pu.1 is not required

for the survival of microglia and DCs. We reasoned that the survival of *pu.1*-deficient microglia is

likely attributed to the presence of *spi-b* (the paralogue of *pu.1* in zebrafish, also called *spi1a*),

which has been shown to play a compensatory role for Pu.1 in microglia early development (Yu *et*

al., 2017). Indeed, conditional inactivation of Pu.1 in the *spi-b^{Δ232/Δ232}* null mutants led to a rapid

depletion of microglia by apoptosis within several days (Fig. S3 and Fig. S4), indicating that Pu.1

and Spi-b act redundantly to regulate the survival of microglia.

To further investigate whether Pu.1-deficiency might have a long-term effect on the turnover

and maintenance of microglia, we traced *pu.1*-deficient DsRed$^+$ cells to 1 month post injection

(mpi), and 3 mpi after conditionally inactivating Pu.1 in adult *pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and

pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish (Fig. 3D, upper panel). Intriguingly, we found that the number

and proportion of DsRed$^+$ cells in the midbrains of the *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish began to

decline at 1 mpi and were further reduced, becoming significantly lower than that in

pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish by 3 mpi (Fig.3E-F). Likewise, the number and proportion of

DsRed$^+$ cells in the retina and spinal cord were also significantly reduced in the

pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish by 3 mpi (Fig. S5). Since microglia are the major population of

the *coro1a$^+$* cells in the brain and spinal cord and the exclusive population in the retina (Wu *et al.*,

2020), the reduction of DsRed$^+$ cells in the *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish at 1 mpi and 3 mpi

are mainly attributed to the loss of microglia. Based on the amoeboid and ramified morphology,

microglia and DCs could be distinguished with about 90% accuracy (Fig. S6A-B). Thus, to further

confirm above conclusion, we quantified microglia and DCs separately in 3-mpi

pu.1^{KI/+};Tg(coro1a:CreER) and *pu.1^{KI/Δ839};Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish. As anticipated, *pu.1*-deficient

microglia were significantly reduced at 3 mpi (Fig. S6C-D). These results suggest that, although

pu.1 is dispensable for the immediate survival of microglia (Fig. 3B-C), it is essential for the

turnover and long-term maintenance of microglia in adult zebrafish, which could not be fully

compensated by *spi-b*.

pu.1-deficient microglia in mosaic condition were eliminated by cell competition

Given the fact that *pu.1*-deficient microglia are gradually eliminated in mosaic condition (Fig. 3E-

F), but their number remains relatively normal in *pu.1^{Δ839}* null mutants (Yu *et al.*, 2017), we

reasoned that the elimination of the *pu.1*-deficient microglia in mosaic condition is likely attributed

to the cell competition between *pu.1*-deficient DsRed$^+$ microglia and their neighboring eGFP$^+$

sibling cells harboring WT *pu.1*. To test this hypothesis, we compared the cell death and

proliferation rates of microglia by TUNEL and BrdU incorporation assays in both conditions

respectively. To determine the cell death and proliferation rates of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in

mosaic condition, we treated the adult *pu.1$^{KI/Δ839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish with 4-OHT to inactivate Pu.1. At 26 dpi, the 4-OHT-treated fish were then injected 5 doses (one dose daily) of BrdU and the brain samples were collected 1 day later for TUNEL and BrdU staining respectively (Fig. 4A). Quantification results showed that the percentage of TUNEL$^+$DsRed$^+$ microglia (*pu.1*-deficient cells) in the brains of the *pu.1$^{KI/Δ839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish was significantly higher than that of TUNEL$^+$eGFP$^+$ cells (Fig. 4B). In this assay, the 4-OHT-treated *pu.1$^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish were included as the control, and as expected, the percentages of TUNEL$^+$ cells in the DsRed$^+$ and eGFP$^+$ microglia pools in control fish were comparable (Fig. 4B). In parallel, we also found that the BrdU incorporation rates of *pu.1*-deficient microglia (DsRed$^+$) in the 4-OHT-treated *pu.1$^{KI/Δ839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish was significantly lower than that of eGFP$^+$ cells (Fig. 4C), while the BrdU incorporation rates of DsRed$^+$ cells and eGFP$^+$ cells in the control *pu.1$^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish was comparable (Fig. 4C). These results indicate that conditional inactivation of Pu.1 in adult zebrafish leads to the impairment of cell proliferation and accelerated cell death of microglia in mosaic condition. To estimate the cell death and proliferation rates of microglia in *pu.1*-null mutants, we utilized a similar strategy via pulsing the adult *pu.1$^{Δ839/+}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* or *pu.1$^{Δ839/Δ839}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* fish with 5 doses of BrdU (daily) and collecting the brains samples at 1 day later for TUNEL and BrdU staining respectively (Fig. 4D). As shown in Fig. 4E, the percentage of TUNEL$^+$ccl34b.1-eGFP$^+$ microglia showed no difference between *pu.1$^{Δ839/Δ839}$* mutants and *pu.1$^{Δ839/+}$* siblings, demonstrating that the intrinsic viability of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in the null mutants was largely unaffected. Similarly, the proliferation capability (as indicated by BrdU incorporation rate) of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in the null mutants remained normal as well in comparison with control siblings (Fig. 4F). Collectively, these results strongly suggest that the chronic elimination of *pu.1*-deficient DsRed$^+$ microglia is indeed caused by cell competition, which only occurs in the mosaic condition when the eGFP$^+$ microglia harboring a single copy of *pu.1* are present.

The out-competition of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in mosaic condition is mediated by Tp53

To uncover the key downstream targets that mediate the out-competition of *pu.1*-deficient DsRed$^+$ microglia in mosaic condition, we manually picked DsRed$^+$ and eGFP$^+$ microglia from the 4-OHT-treated *pu.1$^{KI/Δ839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish at 3 mpi and performed transcriptomic analysis (Fig. 5A). To minimize the contamination of DCs, we manually picked 3~5 DsRed$^+$ or GFP$^+$ cells from the brain suspension of 3-mpi *pu.1$^{KI/Δ839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish in each tube for cDNA library construction and RNAseq. Samples with strong expression of microglia-related genes and faint DC-related genes were chosen for further analysis (Fig. S7A). Among the differential expressed genes (DEGs), the tumor suppressor gene *tp53* was one of the top targeted genes robustly upregulated in

pu.1-deficient DsRed[+] microglia (Fig. 5B-C, Fig. S7B). Interestingly, recent studies have revealed

that, in addition to regulating cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in DNA damage response (Ou &

Schumacher, 2018; Vaddavalli & Schumacher, 2022), Tp53 is also involved in cell competition

regulation in both hematopoietic and non-hemopoietic tissues (Bondar & Medzhitov, 2010; Zhang

et al, 2017). Hence, we speculated that the cell competition-mediated chronic elimination of *pu.1*-

deficient microglia was likely dependent on Tp53. To support this hypothesis, we conditional

inactivated Pu.1 to generate mosaic microglia populations in the *tp53*-deficient mutant background

and asked if loss of Tp53 could rescue the microglia phenotype (Fig. 5D, upper panel). Indeed,

results showed that the number of *pu.1*-deficient DsRed[+] microglia in the 4-OHT-treated

pu.1$^{KI/\Delta839}$;tp53$^{-/-}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)   fish   was   significantly   restored   compared   with

pu.1$^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) control fish (Fig. 5D-F). Collectively, these results demonstrate that

the chronic elimination of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in mosaic condition is mediated, at least in part,

by the elevation of Tp53 activity, which leads to the reduced proliferation and excessive death of

these microglia.

Dosage-dependent regulation of microglia maintenance by PU.1 is evolutionarily conserved

from zebrafish to mice

The above data have demonstrated that the long-term maintenance of microglia in adult zebrafish is

regulated by Pu.1 in a dosage-dependent manner. We next wondered whether this mechanism is

evolutionarily conserved from teleost to mammals. To address this issue, we first examined the

expression of *Pu.1* and *Spi-b* in adult murine microglia. Quantitative RT-PCR revealed that in

contrast to the robust expression of *Pu.1*, *Spi-b* was barely detectable in microglia (Fig. S8A). We

therefore only focused on *Pu.1* and generated a *Pu.1^{Fl}* allele, in which the exon 2 of *Pu.1* gene is

flanked by loxP (Fig. S8B-C). The *Pu.1^{Fl}* mice were then crossed with the *Cx3cr1$^{CreER-YFP}$* strain

(referred to as to *Cx3cr1^{CreER}* hereafter) (Yona *et al*, 2013) to generate *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* and

Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER} mice for conditional PU.1 inactivation study (Fig. 6A).

To investigate whether microglia maintenance in adult mice requires PU.1, we

intraperitoneally injected tamoxifen (TAM) (Askew *et al.*, 2017) into the *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER} and*

Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER} mice, and collected the brain samples at 7 dpi for cryo-section and IBA1

staining (Fig. 6A, upper panel). As expected, without TAM, the number of the IBA1^{+} microglia

showed no difference in the brain of *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER} and Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice (Fig. S8D-

E). However, after TAM injection, the number of the IBA1^{+} microglia in *Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice

were drastically reduced compared to that in *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice (Fig. 6A-C), suggesting that

PU.1 is indeed required for the survival of adult microglia, which is similar to the double depletion

of *pu.1* and *spi-b* in zebrafish (Fig. S4). To further explore whether partial loss of PU.1 activity

could reduce the competitiveness of microglia and impairs the long-term maintenance of microglia in mice, we intraperitoneally injected sub-dosage of TAM into adult $Pu.1^{Fl/+};Cx3cr1^{CreER}$ mice to generate mosaic microglia populations for long-term tracing. To quantify the proportion of $Pu.1^{KO/+}$ microglia and $Pu.1^{Fl/+}$ microglia, we sorted YFP$^+$ microglia from TAM-injected $Pu.1^{Fl/+};Cx3cr1^{CreER}$ mice at 3 dpi and 3.5 mpi, the timeline similar to previous research in zebrafish. Then we amplified $Pu.1^{KO}$ and $Pu.1^{Fl}$ alleles in the gDNA pool by PCR for T-clone quantification (Fig. 6D). As shown in Fig. 6E-F, while the percentage of $Pu.1^{KO/+}$ microglia was comparable to $Pu.1^{Fl/+}$ microglia at 3 dpi, it was dramatically reduced by 3.5 mpi, suggesting that removal of a single copy of $Pu.1$ leads to the chronic elimination of $Pu.1^{KO/+}$ microglia, which appears to occur only in the presence of the WT $Pu.1^{Fl/+}$ microglia, as PU.1 heterozygous mice show no difference in the viability of tissue resident macrophages (Karpurapu *et al.*, 2011). Collectively, these results indicate that the dosage-dependent cell competition-mediated regulation of microglia maintenance by SPI1/PU.1 is evolutionarily conserved from teleost to mammals.

Discussion

In the present study, to explore the role of Pu.1 in microglia survival and maintenance, we established a visible conditional knockout $pu.1^{KI}$ allele in zebrafish via the non-homologous end joining (NHEJ)-mediated knock-in method. Although conditional inactivation of targeted genes has been reported by several independent studies (Li *et al.*, 2015; Li *et al*, 2019; Shin *et al*, 2023), it has not been widely applied in zebrafish, possibly due to the difficulty or low efficiency to generate loxP-flanked alleles. Compared to homologous recombination (HR), NHEJ-mediated knock-in of reporter gene has been shown to display 10-fold higher efficiency (Auer *et al*, 2014; Li *et al.*, 2015). In our case, the germline transmission to F1 generation for $pu.1^{KI}$ allele is around 15% (Fig. S1). Meanwhile, in our investigation, we noted that the efficiency of Cre-mediated excision of loxP sites at the $pu.1$ locus in zebrafish (Fig. 3) appears much lower than that in mouse (Fig. 6). Although it remains to be further validated whether this observation is a general phenomenon, it does highlight the necessity and significance of chimera study of interested genes. In our $pu.1^{KI}$ allele, the expression of DsRed directly indicates Cre-mediated excision and helps us distinguish the mutant cells from their sibling cells, which serves as a good example for chimera study in the future. Moreover, our knock-in allele can also be simply regarded as a loxP-flanked fluorescent reporter line, which not only facilitates the labeling of cells that express gene of interest, but also can be used in combination with the LEGO-IR system (Xu *et al.*, 2015) to trace the fate of these cells. Thus, due to the high integration efficiency of donor DNA fragment and the multifaceted applications of the labeling strategy, we anticipated that our knock-in system would be a powerful

tool and broadly be adopted in the fields of genetics, developmental biology and cell biology for the

chimeric study of interested genes and fate mapping of interested cells in the future.

Via EdU pulse-chase labelling assay, we found that the daily turnover rate of microglia in adult

zebrafish is about 2.5%, much higher than that reported in mice and human (Lopez-Atalaya *et al*,

2018). These disparities might be explained by several reasons. First, in our calculation of microglia

turnover rate, we did not factor the unknown cell cycle length of zebrafish microglia. It is possible

that the duration of microglia proliferation in zebrafish is much shorter than that in mice. If

microglia proliferation takes less than 24 hours in zebrafish, then the calculated daily turnover rate

of 2.5% may be overestimated. Second, it is well recognized that zebrafish manifest much stronger

regeneration capability than mammals. As such, differentiated cells, like cardiomyocytes and hair

cells in zebrafish are in general more proliferative than those in mammals (Chen *et al*, 2019;

Marques *et al*, 2019). In this regard, microglia in zebrafish might be pre-coded both genetically and

epigenetically to be more proliferative. Finally, microglia turnover could potentially be affected by

the distinct efferocytotic burdens via the lysosome pathway, as lysosome has been known to be a

convergent point for many biological process, including metabolism, cellular senescence, DNA

repair, ER stress and even apoptosis (Franco-Juárez *et al*, 2022; Perera & Zoncu, 2016). Indeed,

efferocytosis of apoptotic cells has previously been shown to elicit NOX2 assembly and promote

ROS production (Yvan-Charvet *et al*, 2010), which in turn triggers cell death via induction of

lysosome damage (Patra *et al*, 2023; Wang *et al*, 2018). The more regenerative environment in

zebrafish might be accompanied by higher frequency of cell death, which could lead to the increase

of efferocytotic burdens of microglia, thereby accelerating the turnover of microglia. Further studies

will be required to clarify this issue.

Our results revealed that the survival and maintenance microglia are highly sensitive to the

dosage of PU.1/SPI1 in both teleost and mammals. Interestingly, a previous study reported that

hetero- or homozygosity of PU/ER(T) allele, in which the estrogen receptor (ER) ligand binding

domain-G525R is fused with the full-length PU.1 to block its nucleus translocation, showed no

effect on the viability of alveolar macrophages (Karpurapu *et al.*, 2011). This contradictory result

might potentially result from the leakiness of ER, which was incapable to fully retain PU.1 in

cytoplasm. A recent work found that conditional inactivation of PU.1 by feeding the animals with

tamoxifen-containing diet in the Alzheimer's disease model CK-p25 mice led to a 33% reduction in

microglia number at their young ages. Although the authors considered prevention of microgliosis

as a result of the amelioration of neuroinflammation (Ralvenius *et al.*, 2023), our data implies that

reduction in microglia could also been interpreted by the direct involvement of PU.1 in microglia

survival and maintenance, as our data clearly demonstrate that conditional ablation of the PU.1 in

mice or Pu.1/Spi-b in zebrafish leads to the rapid depletion of microglia in the brain (Fig. 6; Fig.

S4). As PU.1 is a master regulator that controls the expression of series of genes required for

macrophage/microglia development (Satoh *et al.*, 2014), rapid death of *Pu.1*-null microglia might

probably be caused by the orchestration of multiplex factors, including the downregulation of

colony-stimulating factor 1 receptor (*Csf1r*) (the essential regulator controlling the survival and

maintenance of microglia in both mice and zebrafish) (Elmore *et al.*, 2014; Yu *et al.*, 2023), the loss

of anti-apoptotic genes, such as BCL2A1 (Jenal *et al*, 2010), and absence of other genes that

maintain the integrity of cells. Intriguingly, differing from the rapid death of microglia after

complete inactivation of PU.1 or Pu.1/Spi-b, microglia with a partial loss of PU.1 or Pu.1 are

chronically eliminated only in the mosaic condition via cell competition, in which the microglia

with WT *Pu.1* or a single copy of *pu.1* are present (Fig. 3 and Fig. 6). Moreover, we further showed

that the chronic elimination of *pu.1*-dificent microglia in zebrafish is mediated by Tp53-dependent

cell competition, which has been shown to depend on the relative level of Tp53 in competing cells

(Bondar & Medzhitov, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2017). Previously, we have shown that the level of

csf1ra, the zebrafish orthologue of mammalian *Csf1r*, is highly associated with the fitness of

microglia and regulates the turnover and maintenance of microglia via cell-competition (Yu *et al.*,

2023). During the process of investigation, we also wondered whether the cell competition between

pu.1-deficient microglia and *pu.1*-sufficient microglia relied on Csf1ra. However, in contrast to the

robust upregulation of *p53* in *pu.1*-deficient microglia, the decrease of *csf1ra* was not observed

(Fig. S9). In summary, our findings suggest that the dosage of PU.1/Pu.1 may serve as a checkpoint

to determine the fitness of microglia. It will be of great interest to explore the upstream events that

modulate *PU.1*/*pu.1* expression during microglia turnover.

Materials and Methods

Zebrafish

407　Zebrafish were maintained according to standard protocol as described previously (Westerfield,

408　2000). AB wild-type, *pu.1*^{Δ839} (Yu *et al.*, 2017), *spi-b*^{Δ232} (Yu *et al.*, 2017), *tp53*^{M214K} (Berghmans *et*

409　*al*, 2005), *pu.1*^{KI} (short for *pu.1*^{KI}-eGFP), *pu.1*^{CKO} (short for *pu.1*^{KI}-DsRed), *TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)*

410　(Wu *et al.*, 2020), *Tg(coro1a:CreER*^{T2})^{sz101tg}, *Tg(mpeg1:loxP-DsRedx-loxP-eGFP, shorted as*

411　*LRLG)*^{hkz015t} (Xu *et al*, 2016) were used in this study.

Mouse strains

414　*Pu.1*^{Fl} (No.T010980, purchased from GemPharmatech Co.,Ltd) and *Cx3cr1*$^{CreER-EYFP}$ (Stock

415　No. 021160) (Yona *et al.*, 2013) were used in this study. All animal experiments and procedures

416　were proved by Ethics Committee for the Welfare of Laboratory Animals in Shenzhen PKU-

417　HKUST Medical Center.

Generation of *pu.1^KI* allele

Donor plasmid was modified based on the reported Th-KI plasmid (Li *et al.*, 2015). In brief, DNA fragments containing *pu.1* exon 4 to exon 6 and the 3' downstream fragment were cloned from cDNA and genomic DNA libraries respectively and inserted into the plasmid containing P2A-eGFP, P2A-Dsred and loxP elements. sgRNA was designed in the intron 3~4 of *pu.1* with the online website Crisprscan (https://www.crisprscan.org/). It was transcribed by MEGAshortscript Kit (AM1354, Invitrogen) from PCR product which was amplified following reported protocol (Vejnar *et al*, 2016). Then Cas9 mRNA (700 ng/ul), sgRNA (70 ng/ul) and donor plasmid (15 ng/ul) were mixed and injected into zebrafish embryos at one-cell stage. Embryos with eGFP signal were selected at 3 dpf and raised to adulthood for germline transmission. Adult F0 fish were crossed with wild-type fish to generate F1 and eGFP[+] F1 were selected. The 5'- and 3'-junctions of the donor plasmid integration site were amplified from the genomic DNA of F1 embryos and sent for sequencing. The primers used for 5' junction are 5'-GATCTATCGACCACCAATGGAG-3' and 5'-GCCATAGTGTGCATTCTCAGG-3' and for 3' junction are 5'-GTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAG-3' and 5'-GAGTGTAGTGCTCATTCAAGC-3'.

Cryo-section

Adult fish were anesthetized on ice. The tissue was dissected and fixed in 4% PFA at 4□ overnight. After being washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at room temperature for 1 day, the tissues were dehydrated with 30% sucrose at 4□ overnight, then soaked in coagulating solution (optimal cutting temperature compound, OCT) and subjected to cryosection with 30-μm thickness.

EdU and BrdU incorporation assays, TUNEL staining, and immunostaining

EdU and BrdU incorporation assays were conducted as previously reported (Yu *et al.*, 2023). In brief, EdU (A10044, Invitrogen) or BrdU (B5002, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in PBS to the final concentration of 10 mg/ml. 5 ul EdU or BrdU was intraperitoneally (i.p.) injected into adult zebrafish each time. Brain samples were dissected at 1 day post injection and fixed in 4% PFA for cryosection.

EdU detection was conducted with (Click-iT™ EdU Cell Proliferation Kit for Imaging, Alexa Fluor™ 647 dye, Invitrogen, C10340) according to the manufacturer's instructions. For BrdU detection, samples were treated with 2M HCl for half an hour and then stained with the BrdU antibody. TUNEL staining was performed with TUNEL BrightGreen Apoptosis Detection Kit (A112, Vazyme) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Antibody staining was performed after EdU/BrdU and TUNEL detection. Primary antibodies used in this study were mouse anti-

453 BrdU (11170376001, Roche), goat anti-GFP (ab6658, Abcam), rabbit anti-DsRed (632496,
454 Clontech), rabbit anti-Lcp1 (Jin *et al*, 2009), rabbit anti-Pu.1 (Jin *et al*, 2012) and rabbit anti-IBA1
455 (019-19741, FUJIFILM Wako) antibodies.
456

457 **Tamoxifen injection**
458 4-Hydroxytamoxifen (4-OHT, H7904, Sigma) was dissolved in ethanol to final concentration of 10
459 mM. For adult fish, 1 ul 4-OHT was i.p. injected into each fish for 3 times. For adult mice,
460 tamoxifen (T5648, Sigma) was dissolved in corn oil to final concentration of 20 mg/ml and i.p.
461 injected into the mice with 35 mg/kg (sub-dosage) or 150 mg/kg (over-dosage).
462

463 **Neutral red staining**
464 Neutral red staining was performed as previously described (Herbomel *et al*, 2001).
465

466 **Cy5-Annexin V treatment**
467 Annexin V-Cy5 Reagent (1013, Biovision) solution was directly injected into brain ventricle of 3
468 dpf larva and immediately imaged by confocal microscope.
469

470 **Imaging**
471 Fluorescent signals from live reporter lines or immunostaining were imaged under a Leica SP8
472 confocal microscope or a Zeiss LSM980 confocal microscope. The objectives HC PL APO
473 203/0.70 DRY (Leica) and Plan-Apochromat 20×/0.8 M27 (Zeiss) were used in this study.
474

cDNA preparation and RNA-seq
Cell suspensions were prepared as previously described (Yu *et al.*, 2017). Cells of interest were
manually picked under the fluorescent microscope (Nikon Ti-S) equipped with the micro-
manipulator (NT-88-V3, Nikon). Subsequently, picked cells were transferred by the glass needle to
lysis buffer (mainly including Triton X-100 and RNase inhibitor) for thorough vertex. Then the cell
lysate was used for reverse-transcription and amplification with the Smart-Seq2 method (Picelli *et*
al, 2014) to generate the cDNA library. cDNA was sent to Novogene Company for Illumina
sequencing with an average depth of 6×10^6 raw reads per sample. Sequence data were aligned to
zebrafish genome by STAR (Spliced Transcripts Alignment to a Reference). Samples with strong
expression of microglia-related genes and faint DC-related genes were chosen for further analysis.
485

Mouse microglia isolation

Adult mice brain was dissected and cut into small pieces. They were dissociated into single-cell

suspensions with Adult Brain Dissociation Kit (130-107-677, Miltenyi Biotec) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Then Myelin Removal Beads II (130-96-733, Miltenyi Biotec) were

used to remove myelin debris from single-cell suspensions. YFP$^+$ Microglia were sorted from

suspensions by FACS Aria IIIu. The sorted microglia were lysed by proteinase K to extract DNA or

TRIzol to extract RNA.

TA clone assay

Pu.1^{Fl} and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles were amplified by PCR from the genomic DNA. The common forward

primer was 5'-GCATCGCATTGTCTGAGTAGGT-3. The reverse primers were 5'-

AAATCTGCCTGGGTGACCTTC-3' for *Pu.1^{Fl}* and 5'-ACACAACGGGTTCTTCTGTTAG-3' for

Pu.1^{KO}. The PCR products for *Pu.1^{Fl}* and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles were 248 bp and 129 bp respectively. PCR

products were ligated to pUCm-T vector (B522211, Sangon) with Blunt/TA Ligase Master Mix

(M0367S, NEB) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The clones containing ligated

plasmids were amplified with M13F (5'-GTTGTAAAACGACGGCCAG-3') and M13R (5'-

CAGGAAACAGCTATGAC-3'). The PCR products for *Pu.1^{Fl}* and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles were 437 bp and

315 bp respectively. Clones of *Pu.1^{Fl}* and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles were distinguished by the size of PCR

products.

Quantitative PCR

cDNA was synthesized from extracted RNA with SuperScript™ III Reverse Transcriptase kit

(18080093, Invitrogen). Quantitative PCR was performed with iTaq™ Universal SYBR® Green

Supermix (1725121, Bio-rad) on a CFX96 Dx Instrument (Bio-rad) and analyzed using the ΔΔCt

method. The following primers were used to determine the expression of *DsRed* and *pu.1* from

pu.1^{CKO} allele: *DsRed*, 5'-GATCTATCGACCACCAATGGAG-3' (*pu.1*-161FP)/ 5'-

GCCGTTCACGGAGCCCTCCAT-3' (DsRed-72RP); *pu.1*, 5'-GATCTATCGACCACCAATGGAG-3'

(*pu.1*-161FP)/ 5'-CGCATGTAGTGACTGCACGC-3' (*pu.1*-357RP). The following primers were used to

determine the expression of *Pu.1* and *Spi-b* in mouse microglia: *Gapdh*, 5'-

TGTGTCCGTCGTGGATCTGA-3'/5'-TTGCTGTTGAAGTCGCAGGAG-3'; *Pu.1*, 5'-

GAGGTGTCTGATGGAGAAGCTG-3'/5'-ACCCACCAGATGCTGTCCTTCA-3'; *Spi-b*, 5'-

AGGAGTCTTCTACGACCTGGAC-3'/5'-GGAGTGGCTAAAGGCAGCAGTA-3'.

Quantification and Statistics

The number microglia in embryos were quantified manually, and then genotyped to prevent bias.

For the experiment with adults, fish were genotyped first and then numbered without gender bias

for downstream 4-OHT injection, brain sample collection, cryo-section and immunostaining experiments. For microglia number quantification, 3 representative slices from anterior, middle and posterior of the midbrain of numbered fish were chosen for further manual counting with the same criterial. For EdU/BrdU or TUNEL experiments, at least 6 representative slices from anterior, middle and posterior of the midbrain were chosen for calculation. The number of EdU/BrdU$^+$ or TUNEL$^+$ microglia/DCs from the slices were counted and then divided by the total number of microglia/DCs to calculate the ratio.

Adult mice were genotyped first and then only males were chosen for the downstream experiments. For statistics, cortex, hippocampus and thalamus on the slices of mouse brain were chosen for microglia density quantification. The number of microglia and region of interest were calculated with Imaris 9.9 software to determine the density.

Statistical analyses are performed with Graphpad Prism 9.5.1. F test was first used to check the variances of two groups. If the variances of two groups were not significantly different ($P>0.05$), Student's t test was performed. If the variances of the two groups were significantly different ($P<0.05$), t test with Welch's correction was performed. A result was considered significant if $P <0.05$. Values represent mean ± standard error of the mean.

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Figure legends

Fig. 1. Adult microglia in zebrafish undergo rapid turnover and random proliferation to

replenish and maintain their pool. (A) Schematic diagram shows the workflow of EdU pulse

experiment in adult *TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP)* zebrafish and the representative images of proliferating

microglia (ccl34b.1-eGFP[+] Lcp1^{+}EdU[+]) and dendritic cells (DCs) (ccl34b.1-eGFP[-]Lcp1^{+}EdU[+]) in

the midbrain. **(B)** Quantification of the EdU incorporation proportions in microglia and DCs with

different dosages of EdU pulses. (n=4 for each group) **(C)** The daily turnover rate of microglia and

DCs calculated by dividing the EdU incorporation rate with EdU pulses. **(D)** Schematic diagram

shows the experimental setup for EdU-BrdU double-pulse in adult wild-type fish and the

representative images shows two BrdU$^+$ microglia with or without EdU incorporation. **(E)**

Comparison of BrdU incorporation proportions in EdU$^+$eGFP$^+$ and EdU$^-$eGFP$^+$ microglia (n=6).

n.s. = not significant, p>0.05.

Fig. 2. Generation and characterization of the visible conditional knockout allele *pu.1^{KI}*. (A)

Schematic diagrams show the generation of *pu.1^{KI}* allele and the principle for *pu.1* visible

conditional knockout. Briefly, the donor plasmid, which contains: (1) the sgRNA target sequence in

pu.1 intron 3~4; (2) the loxP-flanked *pu.1* coding sequence (exon4-6) followed by P2A-eGFP; (3)

the splicing acceptor site followed by P2A-DsRed sequence was knocked into the endogenous *pu.1*

locus via non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) to generate *pu.1^{KI}*. In principle, the splicing event

occurring between E3 and E4 In *pu.1^{KI}* would produce intact Pu.1 and eGFP concurrently. After

Cre-mediated recombination, removal of *pu.1* E4-6 and splicing of P2A-DsRed sequence in *pu.1^{CKO}*

allele leads to the disruption of Pu.1 and fluorescent color change. **(B)** Co-staining of anti-eGFP and

anti-Pu.1 antibodies on the yolk sac (YS) of 21-hpf *pu.1^{KI}* embryos. **(C)** Fluorescent imaging of the

optic tectum (OT) region of 3-dpf *pu.1^{KI};Tg(mpeg1:LRLG)* embryos. **(D)** Co-staining of anti-eGFP

and anti-Lcp1 antibodies on the midbrain cross section of adult *pu.1^{KI}* fish. **(E)** Neutral red staining

of *pu.1$^{KI/+}$* and *pu.1$^{KI/\Delta 839}$* embryos at 3 dpf. **(F)** Quantification of NR$^+$ microglia in *pu.1$^{KI/+}$* (n=13)

and *pu.1 $^{KI/\Delta 839}$* (n=9) embryos at 3 dpf. **(G)** Fluorescent imaging of the YS region of 30-hpf

pu.1$^{KI/CKO}$ embryos. **(H)** Chromogram of cDNA sequence from *pu.1^{CKO}* embryos shows the precise

splicing of *P2A-DsRed* cassette to *pu.1* E3. **(I)** Neutral red staining of *pu.1$^{CKO/+}$* and *pu.1$^{CKO/\Delta 839}$*

embryos at 3 dpf. **(J)** Quantification of NR$^+$ microglia in *pu.1$^{CKO/+}$* (n=8) and *pu.1$^{CKO/\Delta 839}$* embryos

at 3 dpf (n=14). n.s. = not significant, p>0.05; ****p<0.0001.

Fig. 3. *pu.1*-deficient microglia were chronically eliminated in mosaic condition. (A) The

experimental setup for *pu.1* conditional knockout in adult zebrafish and the representative images of

midbrain cross section of *pu.1$^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and *pu.1$^{KI/\Delta 839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish at 8

days post 4-OHT injection (dpi). **(B)** Quantification of the number of DsRed$^+$ microglia on the

midbrain cross section of *pu.1$^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and *pu.1$^{KI/\Delta 839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish at 2

dpi (n=3) and 8 dpi (n=4). **(C)** Quantification of the proportion of DsRed$^+$ microglia on the

midbrain cross section of *pu.1$^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* and *pu.1$^{KI/\Delta 839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)* fish at 2

dpi (n=3) and 8 dpi (n=4). **(D)** The experimental setup for *pu.1* conditional knockout in adult

zebrafish and the representative images of midbrain cross section of $pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 3 months post 4-OHT injection (mpi). **(E)** Quantification of

the number of DsRed$^+$ microglia on the midbrain cross section of $pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 1 mpi (n=3) and 3 mpi (n=4). **(F)** Quantification of the

proportion of DsRed$^+$ microglia on the midbrain cross section of $pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 1 mpi (n=3) and 3 mpi (n=4). n.s. = not significant, p>0.05;

**p<0.01; ****p<0.0001.

Fig. 4. *pu.1*-deficient microglia in mosaic condition were eliminated by cell competition. (A)

The experimental setup for BrdU incorporation and TUNEL assays in adult

$pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) and $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 1 mpi. **(B)** Quantification of

the percentage of TUNEL$^+$ cells in eGFP$^+$ and DsRed$^+$ microglia in $pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)

(n=4) and $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) (n=5) fish at 1 mpi. **(C)** Quantification of the percentage

of BrdU$^+$ cells in eGFP$^+$ and DsRed$^+$ microglia in adult $pu.1^{KI/+}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) (n=4) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 1 mpi. **(D)** The experimental setup for BrdU incorporation and

TUNEL assays in adult $pu.1^{\Delta839/+}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) and

$pu.1^{\Delta839/\Delta839}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) fish. **(E)** Quantification of the percentage of TUNEL$^+$eGFP$^+$

microglia in adult $pu.1^{\Delta839/+}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) and $pu.1^{\Delta839/\Delta839}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) fish.

(F) Quantification of the percentage of BrdU$^+$eGFP$^+$ microglia in adult

$pu.1^{\Delta839/+}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) (n=6) and $pu.1^{\Delta839/\Delta839}$;TgBAC(ccl34b.1:eGFP) (n=5) fish. n.s. =

not significant, p>0.05; *p<0.05; **p<0.01.

Fig. 5. Inactivation of Tp53 largely restored the number of *pu.1*-deficient microglia in mosaic

condition. (A) The experimental setup for the isolation of eGFP$^+$ and DsRed$^+$ microglia from

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) adult brain at 3 mpi for transcriptomic analysis. **(B)** The volcano plot

of differential expressed genes (DEG) between eGFP$^+$ and DsRed$^+$ microglia at 3 mpi. **(C)** Relative

expression (tpm) of *tp53* in eGFP$^+$ (n=3) and DsRed$^+$ (n=3) microglia at 3 mpi. **(D)** The

experimental setup for *pu.1* conditional knockout in wild-type and $tp53^{-/-}$ adult zebrafish, and the

representative images of midbrain cross section of $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;$tp53^{-/-}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) fish at 3 mpi. **(E)** Quantification of the number of DsRed$^+$,

eGFP$^+$ and total (DsRed + eGFP) microglia in $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) (n=7) and

$pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;$tp53^{-/-}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) (n=6) fish at 3 mpi. **(F)** Quantification of the proportion of

DsRed$^+$ microglia in $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER) (n=7) *and* $pu.1^{KI/\Delta839}$;$tp53^{-/-}$;Tg(coro1a:CreER)

(n=6) fish at 90 dpi. n.s. = not significant, p>0.05; *p<0.05.

Fig. 6. Dosage-dependent regulation of microglia maintenance by Pu.1/Spi1 is evolutionary conserved in mice. (A) The experimental setup for *Pu.1* conditional knockout in adult mice. **(B)** Representative images of IBA1 and DAPI co-staining in the cortex, hippocampus and thalamus of *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* and *Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice at 7 dpi. **(C)** Quantification of the density of IBA1^{+} microglia in the cortex, hippocampus and thalamus of *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* (n=3) and *Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* (n=3) mice at 7 dpi. **(D)** The experimental setup for conditional knockout of *Pu.1* in *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice, and the subsequent PCR detection and T-clone quantification of *Pu.1^{Fl}* and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles in sorted YFP^{+} microglia. **(E)** Gel image shows the relative intensity of amplified DNA bands of *Pu.1^{Fl}* and *Pu.1^{KO}* alleles in microglia sorted from *Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$;Cx3cr1^{CreER}* mice at different stages post TAM injection. **(F)** Quantification of the percentage of *Pu.1^{KO}* allele at 3 dpi (n=4) and 3.5 mpi (n=4) by T-clone assay. *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$; ****$p<0.0001$.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl\ or\ Fl/+}$; Cx3cr1$^{CreER-YFP}$ > 8 weeks Tamoxifen (i.p.) -2 -1 0 sacrificed 7 dpi cryo-section for immunostaining IBA1 DAPI

B IBA1/DAPI cortex hippocampus thalamus Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$ Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$ 7 dpi 50 μm

C IBA1$^+$ Microglia Density Cells/mm^2 *** **** ** Cortex Hippocampus Thalamus Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$ Pu.1$^{Fl/Fl}$

D Pu.1$^{Fl/+}$; Cx3cr1$^{CreER-YFP}$ > 8 weeks Tamoxifen (i.p.) 0 3 30 >90 dpi FACS sorting YFP$^+$ microglia PCR & T-clone quantification Pu.1^{Fl} ATG f1 Fl r1 E2 (97 bp) r2 stop 248 bp E1 ... ... E5 Pu.1^{KO} ATG f1 Δ r2 stop 129 bp E1 ... ... E5

E 3 dpi 3.5 mpi -TAM Pu.1^{Fl} Pu.1^{KO}

F Percentage of Pu.1^{KO} clone (%) * 3 dpi 3.5 mpi