Title:

Müller glia cell cycle re-activation by simultaneous cyclin D1 overexpression and p27^{kip1} knockdown promotes retinal regeneration in mice

Authors:

Zhifei Wu[1*], Baoshan Liao[1*], Julia Ying[1], Jan Keung[1,2], Zongli Zheng[1,2], Virpi Ahola[2,3], Wenjun Xiong[1]

Institutions:

1. Department of Biomedical Sciences, City University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China.

2. Ming Wai Lau Centre for Reparative Medicine, Karolinska Institutet, Hong Kong, China.

3. Institute of Biomedicine, University of Eastern Finland, Kuopio, Finland

* These authors contribute equally

Corresponding author: Wenjun Xiong

Email: wenjun.xiong@cityu.edu.hk

Address: The Department of Biomedical Sciences,

City University of Hong Kong,

Kowloon,

Hong Kong, China

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that no conflict of interest exists.

Abstract

Harnessing the regenerative potential of endogenous stem cells to restore lost neurons is a promising strategy for treating neurodegenerative disorders. Müller glia (MG), the primary glial cell type in the retina, exhibit remarkable regenerative abilities in lower vertebrate species, such as zebrafish and amphibians, where injury induces MG to proliferate and differentiate into various retinal neuron types. The regenerative potential of mammalian MG is constrained by their inherent inability to re-enter the cell cycle, likely due to high levels of the cell cycle inhibitor p27^{Kip1} and low levels of cyclin D1 observed in adult mouse MG. In this study, we found that adeno-associated virus (AAV)-mediated cyclin D1 overexpression and p27^{Kip1} knockdown exerts a strong synergistic effect on MG proliferation. MG proliferation induced by this treatment was potent but self-limiting, as MG did not undergo uncontrolled proliferation or lead to retinal neoplasia. Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) revealed that cell cycle reactivation leads to immunosuppression and dedifferentiation of MG. Notably, scRNA-seq analysis identified a new cluster of rod-like MG cells expressing both rod and MG genes, which was further validated by RNA in situ hybridization. Cell cycle reactivation also led to de novo genesis of bipolar- and amacrine-like cells from MG. Overall, our findings suggest that AAV-mediated cyclin D1 overexpression and p27^{Kip1} knockdown stimulate MG proliferation and promote MG reprogramming. This approach may be a promising strategy, especially when combined with other regeneration-promoting factors, to enhance MG-mediated retinal repair.

Introduction

Müller glia (MG) is the last cell type generated by the retinal progenitor cells (RPCs) during development and exhibit a gene expression profile similar to that of late retinal progenitor cells (Jadhav et al., 2009; Roesch et al., 2012). In teleost fish and amphibians, MG respond rapidly to retinal injury, undergoing robust proliferation and regenerating lost retinal neurons from MG-derived progenitor cells (Hamon et al., 2016; Todd and Reh, 2022). In contrast, the proliferative and neurogenic ability of MG in response to injury in mammals is severely limited, failing to mediate retinal self-repair (Karl et al., 2008). Recent investigations have achieved great success in mammalian retinal regeneration by direct conversion of MG to retinal neurons through a single or combination of neurogenic transcription factors (Jorstad et al., 2017; Levi et al., 2021; Todd et al., 2022; Yumi et al., 2015). However, this may lead to a depletion of the MG population and cause further retinal degeneration, as MG are indispensable for retinal function and homeostasis. Other studies have shown that the quiescent state of MG can be overridden by upstream signaling pathways such as Wnt and Hippo (Hamon et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2016). Activation of Wnt signaling by forced expression of β-catenin in adult mouse MG promoted spontaneous cell cycle re-entry in uninjured retinas (Yao et al., 2016). Moreover, it was demonstrated that bypassing the Hippo pathway in mouse MG led to spontaneous re-entry into the cell cycle and reprogramming into a progenitor cell-like state (Hamon et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019). These findings suggest that the re-entry of MG into the cell cycle, which is the first step of MG-mediated retinal regeneration in zebrafish, could be unlocked in mammalian retinas.

The cell cycle of MG is mainly regulated by cyclins and cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs). Cyclins bind to CDKs to form cyclin-CDK complexes to promote cell cycle progression. During retinal development, the expression of D-type cyclins (cyclin D1, D2, and D3) is tightly regulated (Barton and Levine, 2008; Dyer and Cepko, 2001; Trimarchi et al., 2008). Among

these, cyclin D1, encoded by the *Ccnd1* gene, is the predominant D-type cyclin in the developing retina and is highly expressed in the RPCs but absent in differentiated cells (Barton and Levine, 2008; Trimarchi et al., 2008). Mice lacking *Ccnd1* have small eyes and hypocellular retinas due to reduced RPC proliferation (Fantl et al., 1995; Sicinski et al., 1995), which cannot be compensated by *Ccnd2* and *Ccnd3* (Das et al., 2012, 2009). Negative regulators of the cell cycle are CDK inhibitors (CDKIs), which include the INK4 (p16[INK4a], p15[INK4b], p18[INK4c], and p19[INK4d]) and CIP/KIP families (p21[Cip1], p27[Kip1], and p57[Kip2]) (Reynisdóttir et al., 1995). The CDKIs inhibit cell cycle progression by binding to and inactivating the cyclin-CDK complexes (Besson et al., 2008), and they regulate the proliferation in distinct retinal progenitor cells (Dyer and Cepko, 2000a, 2001; Levine et al., 2000). p27[Kip1] inhibits the cyclin D-CDK complex to enter of the S phase. Following acute retinal damage in mice, a very small number of MG re-enter the cell cycle, co-incident with the downregulation of p27[Kip1] or upregulation of cyclin D1 (Dyer and Cepko, 2000b; Hamon et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2016). However, this process is transient, as cyclin D1 expression rapidly returns to the basal level (Dyer and Cepko, 2000; Hamon *et al.*, 2019a; Rueda *et al.*, 2019).

In this study, we propose that targeting the two key regulators of the cell cycle, cyclin D1 and p27[kip1], can effectively induce MG cell cycle re-entry. Our findings demonstrate that simultaneously reducing p27[Kip1] and increasing cyclin D1 in the MG using a single AAV vector has a strong synergistic effect on promoting MG proliferation in uninjured adult mouse retinas. MG proliferation induced by this treatment is robust and self-limiting, as MG undergo a single round of cell division rather than unlimited proliferations. Through single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq), we observed that cell cycle reactivation leads to immunosuppression and dedifferentiation of the MG. Interestingly, scRNA-seq analysis also showed that a new cluster of rod-like MG cells that express both rod and MG genes was induced by the treatment.

RNA in situ analysis further confirmed that MG cells in the outer nuclear layer (ONL) express

high levels of rod gene *Rho* and *Gnat1* while maintaining the expression of MG gene *Glul*.

Additionally, a few EdU+ MG daughter cells in the inner nuclear layer (INL) express the

bipolar cell marker Otx2 or the amacrine cell marker HuC/D, suggesting de novo neurogenesis

from MG. These results indicate that cell cycle reactivation also promotes MG reprogramming.

Importantly, MG cell cycle reactivation does not disrupt retinal structure or impair retinal

function, as the treatment did not deplete the MG from the retina. In summary, our results

showed that MG cell cycle reactivation by downregulating p27^{Kip1} and upregulating cyclin D1

stimulates MG proliferation and promotes cell fate reprogramming, and it is possible to

combine this approach with other factors that promote regeneration in order to enhance retinal

repair mediated by MG.

Results

Simultaneous p27^{Kip1} downregulation and cyclin D1 overexpression drive robust MG proliferation in the uninjured mouse retina

To test the hypothesis that adult mouse MG are kept in a quiescent state by high levels of p27^{Kip1} and low levels of cyclin D1, we examined whether spontaneous MG proliferation can be activated by directly changing the levels of these two downstream cell cycle regulators. In this study, we used adeno-associated virus (AAV) serotype 7m8 vector and a promoter sequence cloned from the human *glial fibrillary acidic protein* (*GFAP*) gene to drive MG-specific gene expression (Fig. 1A, Supplementary Fig. 1) (Lee et al., 2008). AAV$_{7m8}$ vectors were injected intravitreally into the eyes of C57BL/6 mice on postnatal day 6 (P6), when MG finish proliferation and start differentiation, and intraperitoneal injections of 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyurdine (EdU) were given for five consecutive days to label the MG that had entered the S phase of the cell cycle (Fig. 1B). In the control retinas infected with AAV$_{7m8}$-GFAP-GFP-nontarget (NT) short hairpin RNA (shRNA) virus, all MG, which were identified by Sox9 expression aligning in the inner nuclear layer (INL), were negative of EdU labeling (Fig. 1C). When the retina was infected by AAV$_{7m8}$-GFAP-mCherry-p27^{Kip1} shRNA, which expresses a highly efficient p27^{Kip1} shRNA, a small number of MG cells re-entered the cell cycle (Fig. 1D, G, Supplementary Fig. 2); however, these proliferated MG accounted for less than 1% of the total MG population. Similarly, overexpressing cyclin D1 alone through AAV$_{7m8}$-GFAP-cyclin D1 infection stimulated a subset of MG cells to proliferate, resulting in a three-fold increase in the number of EdU+ MG cells compared to p27^{Kip1} knockdown (Fig. 1E, G, Supplementary Fig. 3). Finally, the AAV$_{7m8}$-GFAP-cyclin D1-p27^{Kip1} shRNA vector, which simultaneously overexpressed cyclin D1 and suppressed p27^{Kip1}, had the most significant impact on MG proliferation, with a five-fold increase in EdU+Sox9+ cells compared to cyclin D1 overexpression alone (Fig. 1F, G, whole retinal cross-section shown in Supplementary Fig.

4). These findings suggest that both low levels of p27Kip1 and high levels of cyclin D1 are required for postmitotic MG to re-enter the cell cycle. Henceforth, we refer to this AAV vector that enables robust MG proliferation through concurrent p27^{Kip1} knockdown and cyclin D1 overexpression as the cell cycle activator (CCA).

A transgenic mouse line *Glast-Cre^{ERT2}; Sun1:GFP*, in which MG nuclei were labeled by nuclear membrane-bound GFP (Supplementary Fig. 5), was used to quantify the percentage of MG that re-entered the cell cycle. In the retinal area where virus infection rate was the highest, approximately 45% of Sun1:GFP+ MG were EdU positive (Fig. 1H), and the total number of MG increased by about 50% (Fig. 1I), indicating that nearly half of the MG cells re-entered the cell cycle. Previous research has shown that the ability of retina regeneration by various stimuli declines with the age of the mice (Löffler et al., 2015; Ueki et al., 2015). We compared the efficiency of CCA in driving MG proliferation in young (P28) and aged (>8 months) mouse retinas to that in P6 pups. Remarkably, MG proliferation induced by CCA remained robust in young adult and aged mice, with more than 200 EdU+Sox9+ cells per section (Fig. 1J). These findings suggest that CCA efficiently drives MG proliferation in both young and aged animals.

MG proliferation driven by CCA is self-limiting

Concerned that p27^{Kip1} suppression and cyclin D1 overexpression may lead to uncontrolled cell proliferation and retinal tumorigenesis, we analysed the proliferative capacity of MG driven by CCA. Firstly, we examined the duration of MG proliferation after CCA treatment by a time-course EdU incorporation assay. On various days after the CCA injection, EdU was administrated to label the cells that were undergoing proliferation (Fig. 2A). The result revealed that MG proliferation started as quickly as the third day after CCA injection, reached its peak around the fifth day, followed by a gradual decrease (Fig. 2A). By two weeks post CCA injection, only a few MG were observed to have re-entered the cell cycle. Two months post-CCA injection, MG proliferation had mostly ceased (Fig. 2A). These findings suggest that MG

proliferation was largely completed within 2 weeks post-CCA treatment, probably due to the

dilution of AAV episomal genome copies in the dividing cells. In addition, an EdU/BrdU

double-labeling assay was performed to examine whether MG undergoes one or multiple cell

divisions after CCA treatment. A single injection of EdU was given at 7 days post CCA

treatment, followed by BrdU injection 24 hours later (Fig. 2B). Retinas were collected 2 days

after BrdU injection to evaluate if any MG continuously entered the S phase of the cell cycle.

While there were a number of EdU+ cells and BrdU+ cells, few cells were co-labeled with EdU

and BrdU (Fig. 2B,C), indicating that MG undergoes only one cell division subsequent to CCA

treatment.

Next, we examined the distribution of the proliferated MG in the retina over time. As the

labelling efficiencies of MG by Tamoxifen-induced reporter expression and by EdU varied

among experiments and individual animals, we used the percentages of EdU+GFP+ MG in

each retinal layer to assess the distribution of the proliferated MG. During retina development,

proliferating retinal progenitor cells migrate in an apical-basal manner, whereas post-mitotic

cells migrate basally to reach their final laminar position (Lee and Norden, 2013). The

proliferating MG undergo similar interkinetic migration towards the apical surface of the retina,

as majority of the EdU+GFP+ MG nuclei were observed in the ONL and OPL (~53% and

~22%, respectively) at one week after CCA treatment, which is around the peak time of MG

proliferation (Fig. 2D,E). To further explore whether the ONL MG daughter cells eventually

return to the INL over an extended period, we examined the distribution of EdU+ MG cells at

three weeks and four months post-CCA treatment. We found that while the percentage of INL

EdU+ MG increased slightly over time, there was still about half of EdU+ MG remained in the

ONL and in the OPL (Fig. 2D,E). Across the three time points examined, the absence of

EdU+GFP+ MG in the IPL and GCL suggests that migration of MG daughter cells to the GCL

does not occur, at least without injury (Fig. 2D,E). These findings led us to investigate whether

the long-term localization of MG daughter cells in the ONL and OPL is associated with any

change in their cell fate.

Cell cycle re-activation drives downregulation of IFN pathway and MG dedifferentiation

To unbiasedly assess the cell fate of MG and their daughter cells, we performed single-cell

RNA-Seq (scRNA-Seq) analysis on the mouse retinas that received CCA treatment. AAV_{7m8}-

GFAP-cyclin D1- $p27^{Kip1}$ shRNA and AAV_{7m8}-GFAP-GFP-NT shRNA (9:1 mixed) were co-

injected to stimulate MG proliferation in 4-week-old *Glast-Cre^{ERT2};tdTomato* mice (Fig. 3A),

and 10% AAV_{7m8}-GFAP-GFP-LacZsh was added to serve as an indicator of infection success.

The control group was injected with AAV_{7m8}-GFAP-GFP-NT shRNA to account for any non-

specific effect caused by virus injection and/or shRNA expression. Three weeks after virus

injection, the retinas with successful viral transduction were collected, and tdTomato+ cells

were isolated by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS), followed by scRNA-seq (Fig. 3A).

As previous studies demonstrated that N-methyl-D-aspartate (NMDA)-induced retinal damage

and histone deacetylase inhibitor Trichostatin A (TSA) improve MG proliferation and

reprogramming (Hoang et al., 2020; Jorstad et al., 2017; Rueda et al., 2019) , a group of CCA-

treated mice also received NMDA on day 7 and TSA on day 9 post-CCA injection

(CCA+NMDA+TSA, referred to as CCANT) to enhance the reprogramming effect, if any, of

CCA.

After quality control, 3,758 cells were profiled in the control group, 3,890 cells in the CCA

group, and 3,278 cells in the CCANT group (Supplementary Figures 6 and 7). Clustering

analysis separated the cells into six different clusters (Fig. 3B), which are quiescent MG,

reactivated MG, MG in G2/M phase, MG in S phase, rod-like MG, and rods, as annotated by

the known retinal cell type markers (Fig. 3C). In the control group, the vast majority of MG

(>90%) remained as quiescent MG which express high levels of MG genes such as *Glul* and

Kcnj10 (Fig. 3C-H). Cell cycle state analysis showed that a small percentage of cells are in the

G2/M or S phase in the CCA group, suggesting that there was still a small number of

proliferating MG at three weeks after CCA treatment (Fig. 3H, Supplementary Figure 7D,E).

In the CCA group, the majority of MG (~70%) formed a separate cluster, which we refer to as

reactivated MG. In this cluster of cells, we observed downregulation of MG genes (such as

Glul and *Kcnj10*) and upregulation of reactive gliosis gene *Gfap* and cell cycle inhibitor *Btg2*

compared with the quiescent MG cluster (Fig. 3H). Interestingly, the top differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) between reactivated MG and quiescent MG are the interferon (IFN)

pathway genes, including *Stat1*, *Stat2*, *Irgp1*, *Irgm1* and *Igtp*, which were downregulated in the

reactivated MG (Fig. 2F-H, Supplementary Fig. 8), while *Stat3* was not downregulated

concurrently with *Stat1* and *Stat2* (Supplementary Fig. 8). Here, downregulation of the IFN

pathway in the reactivated MG may be a direct response to cyclin D1 overexpression and/or

p27^{Kip1} knockdown. A small percentage of MG (~8%) of reactivated MG was also present in

the control virus-injected group, which may be due to retinal injury caused by virus injection

and inflammatory response caused by the AAV virus (Fig. 3D, E). The cell clusters of the

CCANT group largely overlapped with the CCA group, with CCANT having fewer

proliferating cells and more reactivated MG.

CCA upregulates rod gene expression in a subset of MG

Interestingly, the rods and rod-like MG were two unexpected clusters that appeared in the

scRNA-seq analysis. Upon close examination of the retina of *Glast-Cre^{ERT2}; R26-tdTomato*

mice without Tamoxifen induction, we found that very few rods (14 Tdt+ rods in 128 whole

retinal sections of eight mouse retina samples screened) were mislabelled by leaky Tdtomato

expression in a Cre-independent manner (Supplementary Figure 9). The small rod clusters are

likely the true rods mislabelled by Tdt, which is presented in all three groups with a similar

proportion. The rod-like MG cluster resides between the reactivated MG cluster and the rod

cluster, and it is significantly enriched in the CCA and CCANT groups. The rod-like MG

expressed most rod genes, including *Rho, Gnat1, Rcvrn, Crx, and Nrl* (Fig. 3G, H,

Supplementary Fig. 10), although the expression levels of the rod-specific genes were lower

than those of natural rods. However, not all the rod genes are evenly upregulated, as the

upregulation of transcription factor *Otx2* that is crucial for rod cell fate specification and the

genes related to neuron projection and photoreceptor cell cilium such as *Syt1* and *Cacnb2* were

less significant (Supplementary Figure 10). In addition, the rod-like cells expressed a high level

of MG genes, while natural rods did not (Fig. 3G, H). When comparing the rod-like MG cluster

with the reactivated MG cluster, gene ontology (GO) analysis showed significant gene

enrichment in the pathways related to visual system development, neuron differentiation, visual

perception, and neuron projection (Supplementary Fig. 10). And GO was significantly enriched

in the genes associated with neuron projection and neuron differentiation in the rod cluster as

compared to the rod-like cluster (Supplementary Fig. 10), suggesting that rod-like MG were

not fully differentiated rods. When comparing the CCA- and CCANT-treated groups, NMDA

and TSA increased the percentages of reactivated MG and rod-like MG, but they did not induce

the fully differentiated rods or any other new cell clusters. In the following study, we focused

solely on the CCA treatment.

Rod-like MG in the ONL expresses both rod and MG genes

To exclude the possibility that the rod-like MG are fused MG with rod cell debris during retina

isolation for scRNA-seq analysis, we examined the expression of rod gene expression in the

rod-like MG on the retinal sections of the CCA-treated *Glast-Cre^{ERT2};Sun1:GFP* mice. As the

immunoreactivity for rod proteins such as RHO and GNAT1 is present in rod outer segment

(ROS), which are densely packed and distal from rod nuclei, we performed RNA in situ

hybridization on retinal sections using the RNAscope assay, which allowed us to analyse target

RNA abundance in rod nuclei with the preservation of the spatial information. We examined

the mRNA levels of the *Rho* and *Gnat1* genes at three weeks post CCA treatment, which is the

same harvest time point as in the scRNA-seq data. The signals of both probes are specific as they are only detected in the ONL layer (Fig. 4A,B). In the control retinas, the mRNA of the two rod genes was abundantly present in the rods in the ONL (Fig. 4A,C), while there was minimal *Gnat1* and *Rho* mRNA in the MG in the INL (Fig. 4A,E). In the CCA-treated retina, the MG in the ONL showed clear signals of both *Gnat1* and *Rho* mRNA (Fig. 4B,D), while the INL MG maintained very low levels of *Gnat1* and *Rho* mRNA (Fig. 4B,F). We counted the number of *Gnat1* fluorescent dots, which served as a reliable indicator of *Gnat1* mRNA levels. The result showed a significant upregulation of *Gnat1* mRNA levels in the MG-derived cells in the ONL and that its level was comparable to the natural rods (Fig.4G). The MG in the OPL had intermediate levels of *Gnat1* mRNA, while the MG in the INL is similar to the untreated MG controls (Fig. 4G). The *Rho* mRNA levels were quantified by measuring the pixel intensity due to the fusion of numerous *Rho* fluorescent dots, which showed a similar trend of *Rho* mRNA expression as that of *Gnat1* (Fig. 4H). The RNAscope result demonstrated that the MG-derived cells in the ONL express high level of rod genes, those in the OPL express intermediate level of rod genes, while all MG in the INL retained the no/low rod gene expression, suggesting that the expression level of rod genes in the MG daughter cells is associated their position within the retinal layers.

We further examined the expression level of the MG marker gene *Glul*, which encodes Glutamate synthetase, in the MG cells located in different retinal layers (Fig. 5A-D). After CCA treatment, the INL MG continue to express *Glul*, although the level is decreased (Fig. 5E), which is consistent with the downregulation of MG gene in the majority of the MG by scRNA-seq. The MG-derived cells in the ONL expressed lower level of *Glul*, suggesting that they retain the MG identity as well. The RNAscope results align with the scRNA-seq analysis, indicating that the MG-derived cells in the ONL express both rod and MG genes at three weeks post CCA treatment.

To find out whether the ONL MG could differentiate into mature rods if given an extended period of time, we examined the morphology of the EdU+ MG in the ONL. Despite the extensive search, we did not identify any EdU+ Tdt+ cells in the ONL with a ROS, which is an important functional structure for rod phototransduction (Fig. 6A,B). Mature mouse rods have a unique nuclear architecture, where heterochromatin localizes in a single large chromocenter surrounded by euchromatin (Solovei et al., 2009). After CC treatment, the majority of the ONL MG nuclei do not resemble the rod nuclei (Supplementary Figure 11A-D). In addition, we labeled the MG sparsely with a low dose of Tamoxifen before CCA treatment and found that most of the ONL MG daughter cells retained the apical processes (Supplementary Figure 11E). We examined the mRNA expression of rod and MG genes again at four months after CCA treatment. *Rho*, *Gnat1*, and *Glul* mRNA expression do not display significant change at four months post-CCA treatment (Supplementary Fig. 12). Therefore, we conclude that the ONL MG do not develop to mature rods despite the continuous expression of rod gene and that they retained MG properties.

Few bipolar and amacrine-like cells are regenerated from MG

Bipolar (BP) and amacrine cells (AC) are two retinal neuron types that have been shown to be regenerated from MG (Hoang et al., 2020; Jorstad et al., 2020, 2017). Although the scRNA-seq data did not reveal other retinal neuron-like clusters derived from MG after CCA treatment, we performed immunostaining of the bipolar marker Otx2 or the ganglion/amacrine maker HuC/D to examine whether there are rare MG-derived cells expressing either marker. In order to specifically identify *de novo* neurogenesis from MG and to exclude any mislabelled neurons in the reporter mouse line, we focused our analysis on the EdU+Tdt+ MG in the *Glast-Cre^{ERT2};* *R26-tdTomato* mice. At four months post-CCA treatment, we observed less than 1% of the total EdU+ Tdt+ cells expressing Otx2, whereas these cells were not present at three weeks post-CCA treatment (Fig. 7A-E). We also found rare HuC/D+EdU+Tdt+ cells in the lower INL

where the HuC/D+ amacrine cells naturally reside (Fig. 7F-J). Whether these cells express

other BP or AC markers and whether they are functional interneurons that connect with the

retinal circuitry needs further investigation. Nonetheless, our findings suggest that cell cycle

re-activation alone can increase the plasticity of MG daughter cell fate, which allows some of

them to become BP or AC-like neurons.

CCA does not cause retinal neoplasia or functional deficit

To assess the long-term effect of CCA treatment, a cohort of C57BL/6 mice were observed for

a year following CCA injection (Fig. 7). Visual function assessments showed no significant

differences in visual acuity and electroretinography (ERG) between CCA-treated eyes and

uninjected control eyes one year after CCA treatment (Fig. 7A-C). Upon examining all the

harvested retinas from the CCA-treated group, no retinal neoplasia was observed. The retinal

structure remained intact, with no malignancy or disruptions in the retinal layers or

stratification (Fig. 7D,G). These results indicate that CCA treatment did not have a detrimental

impact on retinal structure or function in mice, nor did it induce retinal tumours.

We used the MG marker Sox9 to examine the MG population in the retina sections

harvested at a year post CCA treatment. In the control retina, Sox9+ MG cells were aligned in

the INL (Fig. 7D-E). In the CCA-treated retinas, there was a significant expansion in the

number of Sox9+ MG cells, distributed across the ONL, OPL, and INL (Fig. 7F-G). The large

population of Sox9+ MG remained to support the retinal homeostasis, which explains the

relatively unaffected retinal structure and function observed on the CCA-treated eyes. We

further made comparison of the numbers of Sox9+ cells after one year of CCA treatment and

after 2 weeks of CCA treatment. The total numbers of Sox+ cells were similar between these

two time points (Fig. 7H), indicating no significant MG loss after MG proliferation. To directly

assess whether CCA treatment may lead to the cell death of the MG, especially the MG

displaced in the ONL and OPL, we examined the CCA-treated retinas with TUNEL assay and

did not observe many TUNEL+ cells (Supplement Figure 13). Since we could only examine

cell death at single time points, we cannot completely exclude the possibility that there were

small numbers of MG-derived cells ding without being detected. The fact that the numbers of

MG in the ONL and OPL did not decrease in the retinas harvested at one-year post-CCA

treatment suggests that these MG-derived cells persist without dying or losing the MG identity

(Fig. 7I).

Discussion

MG proliferation is a key step towards MG-mediated regeneration in the retina. Previously, it was shown that activation of the canonical Wnt pathway by AAV-mediated overexpression of β-catenin stimulates MG proliferation through the Lin28/let7 pathway (Yao et al., 2016), and cyclin D1 is a direct target gene of both Wnt signaling and Lin28/let7 (Li et al., 2012; Shtutman et al., 1999; Tetsu and McCormick, 1999). Suppression of the Hippo pathway by transgenic expression of *YAP5SA* induces MG proliferation, accompanied by an increase in cyclin D1 expression (Hamon et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019). However, the Hippo and Wnt pathways have downstream genes besides cyclin D1 and serve different cellular functions. It is not clear whether cyclin D1 activation is necessary or sufficient to drive MG proliferation in these contexts. In this study, we demonstrated that cyclin D1 overexpression alone can promote MG proliferation and that the combination of cyclin D1 overexpression and p27^{Kip1} KD is the most potent to drive MG proliferation in mouse retina without injury stimulus.

The strategy to stimulate the MG cell cycle for the purpose of retinal regeneration must be carefully weighed against the concern of potential tumorigenesis. p27^{Kip1} and cyclin D1 are gatekeepers of cell cycle regulation, and any abnormalities in their expression may impact cell division, potentially leading to the development of tumours. Previous studies have provided evidence that mice lacking p27^{Kip1} are approximately 30% larger and generally do not exhibit malignancies, except for pituitary tumours that develop spontaneously (Fero et al., 1996). Cyclin D1 is frequently overexpressed in a significant fraction of human cancers, such as breast and respiratory tract tumours (Callender et al., 1994; Zukerberg et al., 1995). The concern regarding retinal tumour formation due to CCA treatment may be mitigated, as the in vivo gene transfer was performed using AAV vectors. The advantage of using AAV vector is that AAV episomal genome becomes diluted after cell division, reducing the risk of tumor formation due to continuous cyclin D1 overexpression and p27^{Kip1} KD. Consistent with this, the rate of MG

proliferation was observed to decrease gradually over time, and the majority of MG cells did

not undergo multiple cell divisions (Fig. 2). Additionally, the retinal structure was normal

without neoplasia (Fig. 6,7). These results suggest that CCA is a potent and viable treatment

to stimulate MG proliferation and may be a promising approach to be used in combination with

other neurogenic factors to promote MG-mediated retinal regeneration.

Interestingly, we found that the IFN pathway genes are enriched in the top downregulated

genes in the reactivated MG cluster. The IFN pathway, mediated by STAT1 and STAT2, is an

important component of the innate immune system against viral infection and is also known as

antitumor cytokine signaling which facilitates immunosurveillance in tumor cells (Durbin et

al., 1996; Kaplan et al., 1998). This pathway has also been implicated in suppressing

regeneration in mice (Jorstad et al., 2020; Todd et al., 2020). STAT activation was shown to

reduce the ASCL1-induced retinal regeneration (Jorstad et al., 2020), and decreased IFN

signaling could be induced by microglia depletion, which improves MG neurogenic capacity

(Todd et al., 2020). In this study, we showed that the IFN pathway genes were downregulated

in the MG after CCA treatment. This would be a direct response to the upregulation of cyclin

D1 and/or downregulation of p27^{kip1} in the MG cell-autonomously, or it could indirectly result

from the microglial responses elicited by the treatment. Investigating whether and how the

downregulation of IFN signaling plays a role in CCA-induced retinal regeneration would be

interesting questions to explore further.

The upregulation of rod genes in the MG residing in the ONL is an unexpected outcome of

MG cell cycle activation by CCA, as this was not reported in the other studies focusing on MG

proliferation (Hamon et al., 2019; Rueda et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2016). In those studies, a very

small subset of proliferative MG differentiated into BP and/or AC-like, but no photoreceptor

genesis was reported. In our study, a significant subset of MG expressed the mRNA of *Rho*

and *Gnat1* by scRNA-seq and RNAscope. However, the rod-like MG is unlikely a result of

MG-to-rod cell fate reprogramming, as we did not see many cells overexpressing neurogenic

genes, such as *Ascl1* and *Dll3*, or rod precursor gene *prdm1* (Supplementary Figure 14A).

scRNA-seq analysis at earlier time points after CCA treatment would be helpful to further

exclude this possibility. How does CCA activate rod gene expression if it is not through cell

fate reprogramming? One hypothesis is that cyclin D1 or p27^{kip1} regulates rod gene expression

in addition to their well-characterized functions in cell cycle regulation. It was shown that

cyclin D1 possesses transcriptional functions by recruiting CREB-binding protein histone

acetyltransferase in developing mouse retinas (Bienvenu et al., 2010). Cyclin D has been shown

to activate retinoblastoma protein (Rb) by mono-phosphorylation (Narasimha *et al.*, 2014), and

Rb in turn promotes rod maturation, which is independent of its function for RPC cell cycle

exit (Zhang *et al.*, 2004). In the *Rb1$^{-/-}$* retinal explants, many genes expressed in rods, such as

Nrl and Nr2e3, were significantly downregulated (Zhang *et al.*, 2004). Additionally, p27^{xic1},

the Xenopus homolog of mammalian p27^{kip1}, has been shown to promote glial cell fate

independent of its CDK binding activity (Ohnuma et al., 1999). Therefore, besides cell cycle

activation, cyclin D1 overexpression and/or p27^{kip1} KD may promote rod gene expression

directly or indirectly, which may explain the rod-like MG population observed following CCA

treatment.

Although rod-like MG express rod genes, they are, by no means, mature rods. First of all,

they lack ROS and nuclear architecture of the mature rods. In addition, their gene expression

profile was different from that of natural rod. We compared gene expression profiles of rod-

like cells with natural rods and found that rod-like cells still lacked the expression of some

genes related to neuron projection and photoreceptor cell cilium such as *Syt1* and *Cacnb2*

(Supplementary Figure 10), indicating that rod-like cells were not fully differentiated. In

addition, the rod-like MG still expressed MG genes such as *Glul*. By comparing differentially

expressed genes associated with cell differentiation, we found that Notch-related genes,

including *Notch1* and its downstream gene *Hes1*, remain highly expressed in the reactivated

and rod-like MG (Supplementary Figure 14B). Notch signaling pathway is involved in

regulating both cell proliferation and cell fate specification during retinal development (Jadhav,

Mason and Cepko, 2006; Yaron *et al.*, 2006). Genetic removal of *Notch1*, or Notch downstream

effectors such as *Hes1* and *RBP*-J leads to precocious cell cycle exit and increased

photoreceptors production during early retinogenesis (Tomita et al., 1996; Jadhav, Mason and

Cepko, 2006; Riesenberg et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2009). In addition, Notch1 functions in

postmitotic cell fates to repress the rod fate (Mizeracka, Demaso and Cepko, 2013). Therefore,

we conjecture that the high activity of Notch signaling may be the reason why rod-like cells

fail to become full differentiated rods. A recent preprint has shown that suppressing Notch

signaling in the MG and deletion of nuclear factor I factors a, b, and x (Nfia/b/x) synergize to

promote neurogenesis of MG into retinal bipolar and amacrine interneurons in adult mice after

NMDA-induced retinal injury (Le et al., 2023).

Limitations of the study:

One unresolved question is how to further enhance rod regeneration by combining CCA with other factors. It remains to be tested whether inhibiting Notch signaling or overexpressing other neurogenic factors, in combination with CCA treatment, can result in the full differentiation of new rod photoreceptors. Additionally, while the CCA approach exhibited potent mitogenic activity in uninjured mouse retinas, its ability to promote MG proliferation after retinal injury is still unknown. Further investigation is needed to test the effects of CCA in mouse models of retinal degeneration. Finally, it is yet to be investigated how the CCA treatment affects the promoter accessibility of rod genes in the rod-like MG cells. Single-cell ATAC-seq or ChIP-seq analyses could provide insights into the epigenetic changes that underlie the rod-like phenotype acquired by the proliferated MG cells.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Wild-type mice (strain C57BL/6J), Rosa26-tdTomato reporter mice (strain *B6.Cg-Gt(ROSA)26Sor^tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze^/J*), *Rosa26-Sun1:GFP* reporter mice (Strain *B6.129-Gt(ROSA)26Sor^tm5.1(CAG-Sun1/sfGFP)Nat^/MmbeJ*), and *Glast-CreER* reporter mice (strain *Tg(Slc1a3-cre/ERT)1Nat/J*) mice were purchased from the Jackson Laboratory and were kept on a 12 hour light/12 hour dark cycle. All animal procedures performed were approved by the Hong Kong Department of Health under Animals Ordinance Chapter 340, and animal care was carried out in accordance with institutional guidelines.

AAV plasmids and vectors

pAAV-GFAP-GFP vector plasmid was cloned by replacing the CMV promoter with a 681bp ABC$_1$D region of the human *GFAP* gene promoter (Lee et al., 2008) into the pAAV-CMV-GFP vector (Supplementary Figure 1A). cDNAs encoding mouse cyclin D1 were cloned into AAV plasmids by Gibson ligation. AAV-shRNA vectors were cloned by replacing the GFP sequence with mCherry-shRNA in the pAAV-GFAP-GFP vector. pAAV-GFAP-cyclinD1-P27 shRNA and pAAV-GFAP-GFP-LacZ shRNA were cloned by replacing mCherry sequence with cyclinD1 and GFP from the pAAV-GFAP-mCherry-P27 shRNA1 and pAAV-GFAP-mCherry-LacZ shRNA, respectively (Supplementary Figure 2A). pAAV rep/Cap 2/2, and Adenovirus helper plasmids were obtained from the University of Pennsylvania Vector Core, Philadelphia. pAAV7m8 plasmid (#64839) was purchased from addgene.

AAV was produced in HEK293T cells (HCL4517; Thermo Scientific) by AAV vector, rep/cap packaging plasmid, and adenoviral helper plasmid co-transfection followed by iodixanol gradient ultracentrifugation. Purified AAVs were concentrated with Amicon 100K columns (EMD Millipore) to a final titer higher than 5×10^{13} genome copies/mL. Protein gels were run to determine virus titers.

Tamoxifen injection

Intraperitoneal injections of tamoxifen (Sigma) in corn oil were administered to induce the expression of Cre recombinase. Starting from P20, tamoxifen was given at a dosage of 50 mg/kg daily for 5 consecutive days to label as many MG as possible. For the purpose of sparse labeling, a single dose of tamoxifen at 15 mg/kg was administered on P20.

AAV injection

Intravitreal injection was performed using a pulled angled glass pipette controlled by a FemtoJet (Eppendorf). The tip of the needle was passed through the sclera at the equator, near the dorsal limbus of the eyeball, and entered into the vitreous cavity. The injection volume of AAVs (5×10^{13} genome copies/mL) was 0.5μl per eye for P6 injection and 1μl per eye for adult mouse injection.

***In situ* RNA hybridization**

In situ RNA hybridization was performed using the RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent Detection Reagents V2 kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics) following the commercial protocols. In brief, retinas were dissected, 4% PFA fixed, dehydrated in sucrose solution and embedded in optimal cutting temperature (OCT) medium. Retinas were cryosectioned into 20μm and mounted on SuperFrost Plus glass slides (Epredia). After OCT removal by PBS and further dehydration by ethanol, retinal sections were stained with GFP antibody (AB_2307313; Aves Labs) at 4 °C overnight. After three times wash with PBST (PBS with 0.1% Tween-20), retinal sections were hybridized with RNA probes (Advanced Cell Diagnostics Cat.No. 474801-C3 for Mm *Rho*, 524881-C2 for Mm *Gnat1*, 426231-C2 for Mm *Glul*) for 2 hours at 40 °C for two hours. Following in situ RNA hybridization steps, slides were stained using secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch) and DAPI for two hours at room temperature. The fluorescent signals were visualized and captured using Nikon A1HD25 High speed and Large Field of View Confocal Microscope. The mRNA levels inside the GFP labelled nuclei

membrane were quantified as number of RNA dots or measured as signal intensity level by ImageJ.

Immunohistochemistry

Retinas were dissected and fixed in 4% formaldehyde in PBS for 30 min at room temperature and sectioned at 20-μm thickness by cryostat. Retinal sections were blocked in 5% BSA in PBST (PBS with 0.1% Triton X-100), stained with primary antibodies at 4 °C overnight, and washed three times with PBST. Primary antibodies used in this study included rabbit anti-p27^{kip1}(1:200, PA5-16717; Thermofisher); rabbit anti-cyclin D1 antibody (1:300, 26939-1-AP; Proteintech), goat anti-Otx2 antibody (1:200, AF 1979; R&D systems), mouse anti-HuC/D antibody (1:200, A21271; Thermofisher), rabbit anti-GFAP antibody (Z0334, 1:500, DAKO), rabbit anti-Sox2 antibody (1:2000, ab97959; abcam) and rabbit anti-Sox9 antibody (1:1000, AB5535; Millipore). Sections were stained using secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch) for two hours at room temperature. Cell nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (Sigma). TUNEL was performed using an TUNEL BrightRed Apoptosis Detection Kit (Vazyme) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

EdU incorporation and BrdU detection assay

5'-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine (EdU, 50mg/kg, Abcam ab146186) or 5-bromo-2' deoxyuridine (BrdU,100mg/kg, Abcam 142567) was intraperitoneally injected to label the cells in the S phase. EdU staining was performed using the Click-iT™ EdU Alexa Fluor™ 488 Imaging Kit (C10337). For BrdU detection, the retinal sections were incubated with 2 M HCl for 1 hour at room temperature. The sections were rinsed with PBST and incubated with a blocking buffer containing 5% BSA in PBST for 2 hours at room temperature. Primary antibody mouse anti-BrdU (1:300, ab8152; Abcam) was stained overnight at 4 °C, and secondary antibodies (Jackson ImmunoResearch) were stained for 2 hours at room temperature.

Single-cell RNA-seq

Library preparation and sequencing of single cells

The FACS-sorted cells from each sample were filtered through 40 µm strainer (pluriStrainer) and processed with Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3′ GEM, Library & Gel Bead Kit v3.1 (1000269), Chromium Next GEM Chip G Single Cell Kit (1000127) and Chromium Controller (10x Genomics) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The constructed libraries were sent to Novogene (Beijing) for NovaSeq paired-end 150 bp sequencing and produced 330 Gb of raw data.

Preprocessing, filtering and clustering of scRNA data

Sequencing results were preprocessed with 10x Genomics Cell Ranger 6.1.1. (Zheng et al., 2017) for demultiplexing, barcode assignment, and unique molecular identifier (UMI) quantification using a standard pipeline for 10X for each of the three samples. We used indexed mouse genome mm10 with added tdTomato and GFP transgenes as a reference. Reads mapping to introns covered more than 34% of all reads. Therefore, they were included in feature counts by using 'include_introns' option in cellranger count step of the pipeline. Cell Ranger aggregation was applied for merging runs from three samples.

Quality control, filtering, dimensional reduction, and clustering of the data were carried out using the Seurat package in R (Stuart et al., 2019). The cells with less than 2,000 expressed features, total UMI count higher than 100,000 and percentage of mitochondrial transcripts more than 15% were disregarded. Features of the Y chromosome, as well as *Xist* and *Tsix* genes of the X chromosome, were excluded to avoid confusing effects of gender.

Further filtering of cells was carried out by only including cells expressing tdTomato (Supplementary Figure 6). Potential cell duplicates were estimated using DoubletFinder method (McGinnis et al., 2019) implemented in R (with parameter settings PC=10, pK=0.28, pN=0.3). The threshold for the expected doublet formation rate was set to 10% to reflect the

assumption that cell duplicates can appear relatively commonly in the MG cells. Detected

duplicates were excluded from the data (Supplementary Figure 6G,H).

For the remaining cells, Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) dimension

reduction based on eight principal components (PCs) was applied, and cells were clustered

using the graphical clustering method in Seurat. Cell types were identified using known marker

genes (Clark et al., 2019; Hoang et al., 2020). After removing doublets, cell types in clusters

4-9 other than MG, Rod-like, and Rod included only a few cells, and 10-30% of the cells were

from the control sample, suggesting that these cells are likely to be contaminated

(Supplementary Figure 6I,J). After excluding cells in clusters 4-9, the new UMAP and

clustering (Supplementary Figure 7A) revealed two subclusters of Rod-like cells (Clusters C3-

C4, Supplementary Figure 7A). The cells in the subcluster C4 exhibited similar proportional

contributions from all three groups and expressed lower level of rod-specific genes such as *Rho*

(Supplementary Figure 7B,C). These cells were again defined as contaminated and excluded

from the data. The final UMAP was constructed using seven PCs, and the same PCs were used

for clustering of cells (Figure 3B).

Analysis of scRNA-seq data

The cell cycle state of each cell was defined by the Cell Cycle Scoring function in the Seurat

R package. The cells with G2/M and S scores lower than 0.1 were defined to be proliferating

(Supplementary Figure 7D,E). Differential gene expression analysis between different cell

types or three treatment groups was performed using Deseq2 (Supplementary table 1) (Love et

al., 2014). Enrichment analysis of top 200 up- and downregulated genes was performed for

Gene Ontologies (GO), KEGG and Reactome pathways using Gprofiler2 R interface to

g:Profiler (Raudvere et al., 2019).

The optomotor and electroretinography tests

Mouse visual acuity was measured using an Optometry System (Cerebral Mechanics Inc.)

following the published protocol (Douglas et al., 2005). Testing was done with a grating of 12

degrees/second drifting speed and 100% contrast. The injected right eyes (CCA treated) and

uninjected left eyes (Ctrl) were tested independently for counterclockwise and clockwise

grating rotations, respectively. A staircase procedure was used, in which the observer tested

low to high visual acuity. Each animal was tested for about 10-15 minutes per session.

ERG was measured using an Espion E3 System (Diagonsys LLC Inc.) as previously described

(Hoang et al., 2023). Animals were dark-adapted overnight before the test. After inducing

anesthesia with a ketamine: xylazaine injection intraperitoneally, the pupils of both eyes were

dilated using Mydrin®-P Ophthalmic Solution. Once the pupils were fully dilated, the eyes

were maintained moist using a topical gel. The measurement electrodes were then applied to

the cornea of both eyes, while the ground electrodes were attached to the mouth and tail. All

these steps were performed in the darkroom under dim red light. For scotopic ERG recordings,

a multiple 530nm light with different intensities (increments from 0.01 $cd.s/m^2$ to 30 $cd.s/m^2$)

were elicited to stimulate scotopic responses in a specific time interval. For photopic ERG

recordings, 5 mins exposure under 10 $cd.s/m^2$ light intensity was adopted to inhibit the rod

function. The photopic response was measured by multiple flashes of 30 $cd.s/m^2$ intensity in

the illuminated background (10 $cd.s/m^2$). The average amplitude and implicit time of a- and b-

wave were recorded and exported for further analysis. The b-wave amplitude of the step-wise

scotopic responses and that of photopic response at 30 $cd.s/m^2$ were shown in figure.

Statistics

Data were represented as mean ± SEM in all figures. Sample sizes and statistical analysis were

indicated for each experiment in figure legend. ANOVA analysis with Tukey test was

performed to compare multiple groups, and Student's t-test to compare two groups. A P value

of $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. GraphPad Prism was used to perform

statistical analysis and make figures.

Acknowledgements:

This research was funded by Research Grants Council Hong Kong Project (11103819,

11102922, and 11100723), Hong Kong Health and Medical Research Fund Project (05160276

and 06172466), TUNG Biomedical Sciences Foundation, and Ming Wai Lau Center for

Reparative Medicine Research Associate Program.

References:

Barton KM, Levine EM. 2008. Expression patterns and cell cycle profiles of PCNA, MCM6, cyclin D1, cyclin A2, cyclin B1, and phosphorylated histone H3 in the developing mouse retina. *Dev Dyn* **237**:672–682.

Besson A, Dowdy SF, Roberts JM. 2008. CDK inhibitors: cell cycle regulators and beyond. *Dev Cell* **14**:159–169.

Bienvenu F, Jirawatnotai S, Elias JE, Meyer CA, Mizeracka K, Marson A, Frampton GM, Cole MF, Odom DT, Odajima J, Geng Y, Zagozdzon A, Jecrois M, Young RA, Liu XS, Cepko CL, Gygi SP, Sicinski P. 2010. Transcriptional role of cyclin D1 in development revealed by a genetic-proteomic screen. *Nature* **463**:374–378.

Callender T, el-Naggar AK, Lee MS, Frankenthaler R, Luna MA, Batsakis JG. 1994. PRAD-1 (CCND1)/cyclin D1 oncogene amplification in primary head and neck squamous cell carcinoma. *Cancer* **74**:152–158.

Clark BS, Stein-O'Brien GL, Shiau F, Cannon GH, Davis-Marcisak E, Sherman T, Santiago CP, Hoang TV, Rajaii F, James-Esposito RE, Gronostajski RM, Fertig EJ, Goff LA, Blackshaw S. 2019. Single-cell RNA-seq analysis of retinal development identifies NFI factors as regulating mitotic exit and late-born cell specification. *Neuron* **102**:1111-1126.e5.

Das G, Choi Y, Sicinski P, Levine EM. 2009. Cyclin D1 fine-tunes the neurogenic output of embryonic retinal progenitor cells. *Neural Dev* **4**:15.

Das G, Clark AM, Levine EM. 2012. Cyclin D1 inactivation extends proliferation and alters histogenesis in the postnatal mouse retina. *Dev Dyn* **241**:941–952.

Douglas RM, Alam NM, Silver BD, McGill TJ, Tschetter WW, Prusky GT. 2005. Independent visual threshold measurements in the two eyes of freely moving rats and mice using a virtual-reality optokinetic system. *Vis Neurosci* **22**:677–684.

Durbin JE, Hackenmiller R, Simon MC, Levy DE. 1996. Targeted disruption of the mouse

Stat1 gene results in compromised innate immunity to viral disease. *Cell* **84**:443–450.

Dyer MA, Cepko CL. 2001. p27Kip1 and p57Kip2 regulate proliferation in distinct retinal

progenitor cell populations. *J Neurosci* **21**:4259–4271.

Dyer MA, Cepko CL. 2000a. p57(Kip2) regulates progenitor cell proliferation and amacrine

interneuron development in the mouse retina. *Development* **127**:3593–3605.

Dyer MA, Cepko CL. 2000b. Control of Müller glial cell proliferation and activation following

retinal injury. *Nat Neurosci* **3**:873–880.

Fantl V, Stamp G, Andrews A, Rosewell I, Dickson C. 1995. Mice lacking cyclin D1 are small

and show defects in eye and mammary gland development. *Genes Dev* **9**:2364–2372.

Fero ML, Rivkin M, Tasch M, Porter P, Carow CE, Firpo E, Polyak K, Tsai L-H, Broudy V,

Perlmutter RM, Kaushansky K, Roberts JM. 1996. A syndrome of multiorgan hyperplasia with

features of gigantism, tumorigenesis, and female sterility in p27 -deficient mice. *Cell* **85**:733–

744.

Hamon A, García-García D, Ail D, Bitard J, Chesneau A, Dalkara D, Locker M, Roger JE,

Perron M. 2019. Linking YAP to Müller Glia quiescence exit in the degenerative retina. *Cell*

Rep **27**:1712-1725.e6.

Hamon A, Roger JE, Yang X-J, Perron M. 2016. Müller glial cell-dependent regeneration of

the neural retina: An overview across vertebrate model systems. *Dev Dyn* **245**:727–738.

Hoang DA, Liao B, Zheng Z, Xiong W. 2023. Mutation-independent gene knock-in therapy

targeting 5'UTR for autosomal dominant retinitis pigmentosa. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*

8:100.

Hoang T, Wang J, Boyd P, Wang F, Santiago C, Jiang L, Yoo S, Lahne M, Todd LJ, Jia M,

Saez C, Keuthan C, Palazzo I, Squires N, Campbell WA, Rajaii F, Parayil T, Trinh V, Kim

DW, Wang G, Campbell LJ, Ash J, Fischer AJ, Hyde DR, Qian J, Blackshaw S. 2020. Gene

regulatory networks controlling vertebrate retinal regeneration. *Science* **370**:eabb8598.

Jadhav AP, Roesch K, Cepko CL. 2009. Development and neurogenic potential of Müller glial

cells in the vertebrate retina. *Prog Retin Eye Res* **28**:249–262.

Jorstad NL, Wilken MS, Grimes WN, Wohl SG, VandenBosch LS, Yoshimatsu T, Wong RO,

Rieke F, Reh TA. 2017. Stimulation of functional neuronal regeneration from Müller glia in

adult mice. *Nature* **548**:103–107.

Jorstad NL, Wilken MS, Todd L, Finkbeiner C, Nakamura P, Radulovich N, Hooper MJ,

Chitsazan A, Wilkerson BA, Rieke F, Reh TA. 2020. STAT signaling modifies Ascl1

chromatin binding and limits neural regeneration from Muller Glia in adult mouse retina. *Cell*

Rep **30**:2195-2208.e5.

Kaplan DH, Shankaran V, Dighe AS, Stockert E, Aguet M, Old LJ, Schreiber RD. 1998.

Demonstration of an interferon γ-dependent tumor surveillance system in immunocompetent

mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **95**:7556–7561.

Karl MO, Hayes S, Nelson BR, Tan K, Buckingham B, Reh TA. 2008. Stimulation of neural

regeneration in the mouse retina. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**:19508–19513.

Le N, Vu T-D, Palazzo I, Pulya R, Kim Y, Blackshaw S, Hoang T. 2023. Robust

reprogramming of glia into neurons by inhibition of Notch signaling and NFI factors in adult

mammalian retina. *bioRxivorg*. doi:10.1101/2023.10.29.560483

Lee HO, Norden C. 2013. Mechanisms controlling arrangements and movements of nuclei in

pseudostratified epithelia. *Trends Cell Biol* **23**:141–150.

Lee Y, Messing A, Su M, Brenner M. 2008. GFAP promoter elements required for region-

specific and astrocyte-specific expression. *Glia* **56**:481–493.

Levi MJ, Hooper AK, Haugan C, Finkbeiner N, Jorstad N, Radulovich CK. 2021. Efficient
Stimulation of Retinal Regeneration from Müller Glia in Adult Mice Using Combinations of
Proneural bHLH Transcription Factors.

Levine EM, Close J, Fero M, Ostrovsky A, Reh TA. 2000. p27(Kip1) regulates cell cycle
withdrawal of late multipotent progenitor cells in the mammalian retina. *Dev Biol* **219**:299–
314.

Li N, Zhong X, Lin X, Guo J, Zou L, Tanyi JL, Shao Z, Liang S, Wang L-P, Hwang W-T,
Katsaros D, Montone K, Zhao X, Zhang L. 2012. Lin-28 homologue A (LIN28A) promotes
cell cycle progression via regulation of cyclin-dependent kinase 2 (CDK2), cyclin D1
(CCND1), and cell division cycle 25 homolog A (CDC25A) expression in cancer. *J Biol Chem*
287:17386–17397.

Löffler K, Schäfer P, Völkner M, Holdt T, Karl MO. 2015. Age-dependent Müller glia
neurogenic competence in the mouse retina. *Glia* **63**:1809–1824.

Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. 2014. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for
RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol* **15**:550.

McGinnis CS, Murrow LM, Gartner ZJ. 2019. DoubletFinder: Doublet detection in single-cell
RNA sequencing data using artificial nearest neighbors. *Cell Syst* **8**:329-337.e4.

Ohnuma S, Philpott A, Wang K, Holt CE, Harris WA. 1999. p27Xic1, a Cdk inhibitor,
promotes the determination of glial cells in Xenopus retina. *Cell* **99**:499–510.

Raudvere U, Kolberg L, Kuzmin I, Arak T, Adler P, Peterson H, Vilo J. 2019. g:Profiler: a web
server for functional enrichment analysis and conversions of gene lists (2019 update). *Nucleic*
Acids Res **47**:W191–W198.

Reynisdóttir I, Polyak K, Iavarone A, Massagué J. 1995. Kip/Cip and Ink4 Cdk inhibitors
cooperate to induce cell cycle arrest in response to TGF-beta. *Genes Dev* **9**:1831–1845.

Roesch K, Stadler MB, Cepko CL. 2012. Gene expression changes within Müller glial cells in

retinitis pigmentosa. *Mol Vis* **18**:1197–1214.

Rueda EM, Hall BM, Hill MC, Swinton PG, Tong X, Martin JF, Poché RA. 2019. The Hippo

pathway blocks mammalian retinal Müller glial cell reprogramming. *Cell Rep* **27**:1637-1649.e6.

Shtutman M, Zhurinsky J, Simcha I, Albanese C, D'Amico M, Pestell R, Ben-Ze'ev A. 1999.

The cyclin D1 gene is a target of the beta-catenin/LEF-1 pathway. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*

96:5522–5527.

Sicinski P, Donaher JL, Parker SB, Li T, Fazeli A, Gardner H, Haslam SZ, Bronson RT,

Elledge SJ, Weinberg RA. 1995. Cyclin D1 provides a link between development and

oncogenesis in the retina and breast. *Cell* **82**:621–630.

Solovei I, Kreysing M, Lanctôt C, Kösem S, Peichl L, Cremer T, Guck J, Joffe B. 2009. Nuclear

architecture of rod photoreceptor cells adapts to vision in mammalian evolution. *Cell* **137**:356–

368.

Stuart T, Butler A, Hoffman P, Hafemeister C, Papalexi E, Mauck WM 3rd, Hao Y, Stoeckius

M, Smibert P, Satija R. 2019. Comprehensive integration of single-cell data. *Cell* **177**:1888-

1902.e21.

Tetsu O, McCormick F. 1999. Beta-catenin regulates expression of cyclin D1 in colon

carcinoma cells. *Nature* **398**:422–426.

Todd L, Finkbeiner C, Wong CK, Hooper MJ, Reh TA. 2020. Microglia suppress Ascl1-

induced retinal regeneration in mice. *Cell Rep* **33**:108507.

Todd L, Jenkins W, Finkbeiner C, Hooper MJ, Donaldson PC, Pavlou M, Wohlschlegel J,

Ingram N, Rieke F, Reh TA, Mu X. 2022. Reprogramming Müller glia to regenerate ganglion-

like cells in adult mouse retina with developmental transcription factors. *Sci Adv* **8**:eabq7219.

Todd L, Reh TA. 2022. Comparative biology of vertebrate retinal regeneration: Restoration of

vision through cellular reprogramming. *Cold Spring Harb Perspect Biol* **14**:a040816.

Trimarchi JM, Stadler MB, Cepko CL. 2008. Individual retinal progenitor cells display

extensive heterogeneity of gene expression. *PLoS One* **3**:e1588.

Ueki Y, Wilken MS, Cox KE, Chipman L, Jorstad N, Sternhagen K, Simic M, Ullom K,

Nakafuku M, Reh TA. 2015. Transgenic expression of the proneural transcription factor Ascl1

in Müller glia stimulates retinal regeneration in young mice. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*

112:13717–13722.

Yao K, Qiu S, Tian L, Snider WD, Flannery JG, Schaffer DV, Chen B. 2016. Wnt regulates

proliferation and neurogenic potential of Müller glial cells via a Lin28/let-7 miRNA-dependent

pathway in adult mammalian retinas. *Cell Rep* **17**:165–178.

Yumi MS, Wilken KE, Cox L, Chipman N, Jorstad K, Sternhagen M, Simic K, Ullom M,

Nakafuku TA. 2015. Transgenic Expression of the Proneural Transcription Factor Ascl1 in

Müller Glia Stimulates Retinal Regeneration in Young Mice. *Proceedings of the National*

Academy of Sciences of the United States of America **112**:13717–13722.

Zheng GXY, Terry JM, Belgrader P, Ryvkin P, Bent ZW, Wilson R, Ziraldo SB, Wheeler TD,

McDermott GP, Zhu J, Gregory MT, Shuga J, Montesclaros L, Underwood JG, Masquelier

DA, Nishimura SY, Schnall-Levin M, Wyatt PW, Hindson CM, Bharadwaj R, Wong A, Ness

KD, Beppu LW, Deeg HJ, McFarland C, Loeb KR, Valente WJ, Ericson NG, Stevens EA,

Radich JP, Mikkelsen TS, Hindson BJ, Bielas JH. 2017. Massively parallel digital

transcriptional profiling of single cells. *Nat Commun* **8**:14049.

Zukerberg LR, Yang WI, Gadd M, Thor AD, Koerner FC, Schmidt EV, Arnold A. 1995. Cyclin

D1 (PRAD1) protein expression in breast cancer: approximately one-third of infiltrating

mammary carcinomas show overexpression of the cyclin D1 oncogene. *Mod Pathol* **8**:560–

567.

 Figure legends:

 Figure 1. Simultaneous p27^{Kip1} downregulation and cyclin D1 overexpression drive robust MG

 proliferation in the uninjured mouse retina

(A) Schematic of AAV vectors used in this study. (B) Experimental design. (C-F) Analysis of EdU

incorporation. Uninjured mouse eyes were injected with (C) AAV-GFAP-mCherry-non target

(NT) shRNA (control), (D) AAV-GFAP-mCherry-p27 shRNA, (E) AAV-GFAP-cyclin D1,

and (F) AAV-GFAP-cyclin D1-p27 shRNA (CCA) at P6 and harvested at P18 after 5-day EdU

intraperitoneal injection. Retinal sections were co-labeled for MG marker Sox9. (G)

Quantification of EdU+ Sox9+ cells. AAV-GFAP-mCherry-NT shRNA control virus (n=8),

AAV-GFAP-mCherry-p27shRNA (n=11), AAV-GFAP-cyclin D1 (n=8), and CCA (n=14). (H)

Quantification of the percentages of EdU+GFP+ and EdU-GFP+ cells in the area with efficient

virus infection in the *Glast-CreERT2; Sun1:GFP* mouse retina injected with the control or

CCA vector. (I) Quantification of the total GFP+ MG in the *CreERT2; Sun1:GFP* retina

infected by CCA. Retinal area (250 μm in width) with the most efficient virus infection in the

middle retina region was selected for quantification. (J) Quantification of EdU+ Sox9+ cells in

the young (CCA injection at P6, n=13), adult (CCA injection at P28, n=17), and aged retinas

(CCA injection at P255-P347, n=7). ONL, outer nuclear layer; OPL, outer plexiform layer;

INL, inner nuclear layer; IPL, inner plexiform layer; GCL, ganglion cell layer. Data are

presented as mean ± SEM. * P<0.05; *** P<0.001; ns=not significant by one-way ANOVA

analysis with Tukey's post-hoc test (G, J) and two-tail unpaired student t-test (I).

Figure 2. **MG proliferation driven by CCA is self-limiting**

(A) Time-course analysis of MG proliferation after CCA injection. EdU was administered for

two consecutive days, starting from different days after the CCA injection, and samples were

harvested for analysis one day after the second EdU injection. Data are presented as mean ±

SEM, n≥4. (B) Analysis of EdU and BrdU labeled cells. (C) Quantification of the number of EdU+BrdU-, EdU-BrdU+ and EdU+ BrdU+ cells. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. n≥4. (D) Representative retinal sections of *Glast-CreERT2; Sun1:GFP* mice at one week, two weeks, and four months post CCA injection. (E) Quantification of MG daughter cell (EdU+GFP+) distribution in each retinal layer. ONL, outer nuclear layer; OPL, outer plexiform layer; INL, inner nuclear layer; IPL, inner plexiform layer; GCL, ganglion cell layer. Data are presented as mean ± SEM, n=3.

Figure 3. scRNA-seq analysis of MG at three weeks post CCA treatment

(A) Schematic illustration of scRNA-seq experiment. (B) UMAP plot of scRNA-seq data for MG treated with CCA, CCANT, and control virus, with clusters identified by the known marker gene expression. (C) Expression of retinal cell markers in different cell clusters. (D) Split UMAP plots of the control, CCA, and CCANT groups. (E) The proportion of cell clusters in the control, CCA, and CCANT groups. (F) Heatmap of top DEG genes between cell clusters. Cells are shown in columns, and genes are in rows. Color scale denotes Z score of the normalised gene expression levels. (G) The violin diagram shows the expression of IFN pathway, MG and Rod genes in different cell clusters. (H) Feature plots of cell cycle regulator (*Mik67*, *Mcm5*), glial (*Glul*, *Kcnj10*), gliosis (*Gfap*), cell proliferation (*Btg2*), and rod (*Rho* and *Nrl*) normalised gene expression in different cell clusters. CCA, cell cycle activator; CCANT, cell cycle activator + NMDA + TSA.

Figure 4. *Gnat1* and *Rho* mRNA are expressed in the ONL and OPL MG

(A-B) *Gnat1* and *Rho* mRNA in situ hybridization in the control (A) and the *Glast-CreERT2;Sun1:GFP* mouse retinas harvested at three weeks post CCA injection (B). (C-F) Magnified views of the highlighted regions in (A) and (B). (G) The number of *Gnat1* mRNA

dots per GFP+ cell and (H) the average pixel level of *Rho* mRNA per GFP+ cell. n=3 mice,

data are presented as mean ± SEM. ns=not significant, *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$;

****$P < 0.0001$, by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (G, H).

Figure 5. *Glul* mRNA level is decreased in the ONL and OPL MG

(A-B) *Glul* mRNA in situ hybridization. (C-D) Magnified views of the highlighted regions in

(A) and (B). (E) The average pixel level of *Glul* mRNA per GFP+ cell. n=3 mice, data are

presented as mean ± SEM. ns=not significant, *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$;

****$P < 0.0001$, by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (E).

Figure 6. CCA induces de novo genesis of Otx2+ BP-like and HuC/D+ AC-like cells from

MG

(A-B) Representative retinal sections of *Glast-CreERT2; tdTomato* mice at four months post

injection of CCA. Sections were immunostained with EdU and Otx2. (C-D) Magnified views

of the highlighted regions in (B). (E) Quantification of tdT+EdU+Otx2+/ tdT+EdU+%.

(F-G) Representative retinal sections immunostained with EdU and HuC/D. (H-I) Magnified

views of the highlighted regions in (F) and (G). (J) Quantification of

tdT+EdU+HuC/D+/tdT+EdU+%. n=3 mice, data are presented as mean ± SEM. *p<0.05;

**p<0.01, by unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test (E, J).

Figure 7. CCA does not lead to retinal neoplastic transformation

(A-C) Optomotor and electroretinography (ERG) tests were performed on wild type mice at 1

year after CCA injection (n≥4). Visual acuity by the optomotor test (A), and b-wave amplitudes

of the scotopic ERG under different light intensity in (B) and photopic ERG under 30 cd × s/m^2

in (C), respectively. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. ns=not significant by two-tail unpaired

Student's t-test (A-C). (D-E) Sox9 immunofluorescence in untreated control mice (D) and WT

mice one year after CCA injection (E). (F-G) Zoom-in images of the indicated area in (D) and

(E). (H) Quantification of the number of Sox9+ cells in retinas at two weeks or one year after

CCA injection and in age-corresponding WT control retinas. (I) Quantification of the number

of Sox9+ cells in each retinal layer. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. ns=not significant, **p

≤0.01, ***p ≤0.001 by one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test (H) and two-tail unpaired

Student's t-test (I).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

A Visual acuity

ns

B Scotopic ERG b-wave
(0.01 to 30 cd.s.m⁻²)

ns ns ns ns ns ns ns ns ns

Ctrl (n=4)
CCA (n=7)

C Photopic ERG b-wave
(30 cd.s.m⁻²)

ns

Control (1-year)

D

E

DAPI Sox9   250 μm

CCA (1-year)

F

G

DAPI Sox9   250 μm

E DAPI Sox9   50 μm

E' Sox9

G DAPI Sox9   50 μm

G' Sox9

ONL
OPL
INL
IPL
GCL

H

ns
*** ***

161.7 268.3 157.8 270.1

Ctrl CCA Ctrl CCA
2 weeks   1 year

I

** ns ns

INL
OPL
ONL

2 weeks 1 year 2 weeks 1 year 2 weeks 1 year