Single-cell analysis of the human retina reveals stage-linked microglial states and neural-immune circuit rewiring in diabetic retinopathy

Luning Yang[1], Sen Lin[1], Yiwen Tao[1], Qi Pan[1], Tengda Cai[1], Yunyan Ye[2], Jianhui Liu[3], Yang Zhou[4], Quanyong Yi[5], Zen Huat Lu[6], Lie Chen[6], Gareth McKay[7], Richard Rankin[8], Yongqing Shao[5*], Weihua Meng[1*]

Nottingham Ningbo China Beacons of Excellence Research and Innovation Institute, University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo, China, 315100

Department of Ophthalmology, Lihuili Hospital affiliated with Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315040

Department of Cardiology, Lihuili Hospital affiliated with Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315040

Ningbo Institute of Innovation for Combined Medicine and Engineering, The Affiliated Li Huili Hospital, Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315201

Department of Ophthalmology, The Affiliated Ningbo Eye Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University, Ningbo, China, 315040

PAPRSB Institute of Health Sciences, Universiti Brunei Darussalam, Bandar Seri, Begawan, Brunei Darussalam, BE1410

Centre for Public Health, Institute of Clinical Science, Queen's University Belfast, Block B, Royal Hospital, Grosvenor Road, Belfast, UK, BT12 6BA

School of Mathematical Sciences, University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo, China, 315100

Corresponding Author:

Dr Weihua Meng

Address: Nottingham Ningbo China Beacons of Excellence Research and Innovation Institute,

University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo, China, 315100. Tel: +86 574 88188632.

Email: weihua.meng@nottingham.edu.cn. ORCID: 0000-0001-5388-8494

Dr Yongqing Shao

Address: Department of Ophthalmology, The Affiliated Ningbo Eye Hospital of Wenzhou

Medical University, Ningbo, China, 315040. Tel: +86 15968412426. Email:

sunniesyq@163.com. ORCID: 0009-0006-1319-8521

ORCID codes

Luning Yang: 0000-0001-9056-5950

Sen Lin: 0000-0002-7695-0964

Yiwen Tao: 0009-0000-0102-4205

Qi Pan: 0000-0003-0135-9122

Tengda Cai: 0000-0003-1617-506X

Yunyan Ye: 0009-0005-2325-1405

Jianhui Liu: 0009-0004-1341-0831

Yang Zhou: 0000-0001-9273-0489

Quanyong Yi: 0000-0002-9369-3998

Zen Huat Lu: 0000-0002-9408-0579

Lie Chen: 0000-0001-9764-4299

Gareth McKay: 0000-0001-8197-6280

Richard Rankin: 0000-0001-6445-2602

Yongqing Shao: 0009-0006-1319-8521

Weihua Meng: 0000-0001-5388-8494

Abstract

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is a major cause of vision loss worldwide. Here, we conduct single-cell RNA sequencing of twenty human retina samples (from living and post-mortem donors) across non-diabetic, diabetic, and DR states to create a comprehensive transcriptomic atlas. We identify two stable microglial populations—homeostatic and inflammatory—that exist along a functional continuum, plus a neutrophil cluster within C1QA+ myeloid cells with dynamic transitions occurring throughout disease progression. Module-level analysis reveals divergent transcriptional trajectories: homeostatic microglia maintain energetic programs while selectively upregulating stress elements, whereas inflammatory microglia layer additional pro-inflammatory programs onto preserved biosynthetic foundations. Eleven co-expression modules organize into two major axes: an inflammatory-stress axis, and a regulatory/metabolic-motility axis, with a stable translation module persisting across disease stages. Cell communication analysis further highlights sophisticated neural-immune interactions, particularly between photoreceptors and microglia. Our findings provide insights into the complex cellular dynamics of DR progression and suggest potential therapeutic targets for early intervention.

Keywords: Single-cell RNA sequencing; Human retina; Diabetic retinopathy; Microglial states; Neural-immune interactions; Diabetes

Introduction

Diabetic retinopathy (DR) is the leading cause of vision impairment and blindness among working-age adults globally, posing a significant public health issue. It is characterized by progressive neurovascular dysfunction, involving both neurodegeneration and microvascular changes [1]. The global number of adults with diabetes has surpassed 800 million, with its prevalence rising from 7% to 14% between 1990 to 2020 [2]. Among them, 22.27% are affected by DR, and the global age-standardized prevalence of blindness caused by diabetic eye disease has increased by 14.9% over the same period [3, 4]. This trend poses a significant and growing burden on global health. While significant progress has been made in the treatment of DR, substantial limitations remain. Anti-VEGF therapy, panretinal photocoagulation, and corticosteroid treatments have demonstrated efficacy, but they are associated with incomplete responses, visual side effects, and complications [5, 6]. These therapies primarily target downstream effects rather than addressing the underlying pathogenic mechanisms [7].

The key gap in DR treatment is that current therapies focus on late-stage manifestations, with insufficient intervention in early molecular events. As a result, the complex cellular and molecular mechanisms driving disease progression are not adequately addressed [8]. Therefore, a comprehensive understanding of pathophysiology is needed to enable intervention in the early stages when the disease is more controllable. Targeted treatment at the cellular level, rather than addressing downstream complications, is crucial. This requires a deeper understanding of single-cell and molecular mechanisms [9].

While single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) has emerged as a powerful tool for understanding complex biological systems, its application in DR research faces several critical limitations. The major challenge in the application of scRNA-seq in DR research is the difficulty in obtaining human retina

DR samples. While a few single-cell transcriptomic studies have generated retinal atlases, most

published datasets utilize healthy donor eyes rather than samples from specific disease conditions,

limiting our understanding of pathological states. To date, while several studies have examined retinal

transcriptomes in animal models or healthy human retinas, single-cell analysis of complete human DR

retina samples remains notably absent. Two recent studies focused on fibrovascular membranes,

surgically harvested vitreous and peripheral blood from proliferative diabetic retinopathy (PDR)

patients [10, 11], but neither fully recapitulates the complete pathogenesis of human DR as they

focused on specific tissue types rather than the retina. Another challenge is the rapid post-mortem

degradation of retinal tissue. In addition, the high cost of scRNA-seq and the difficulty in obtaining

human retinal tissues hinder its large-scale application in DR and phased experimental design.

To investigate DR in retinal samples, more and more recent studies have focused on microglial cells, as

these resident tissue macrophages play a pivotal role in initiating and exacerbating retinal inflammatory

responses [12]. Our study aims to address these fundamental limitations by utilizing twenty human

retinal samples spanning three disease stages, collected from both living donors and post-mortem

specimens with minimal processing time to maximize transcriptional fidelity. We employed an

integrated analytical approach combining cellular characterization, modular co-expression analysis, and

intercellular communication mapping to comprehensively characterize the cellular and molecular

features of DR progression.

Our integrated analysis reveals three critical insights that address fundamental gaps in the field. First,

we demonstrate that retinal microglia exist along a functional continuum with two stable populations

(homeostatic and inflammatory) that shift transcriptionally during DR progression through coordinated

modular programs rather than wholesale phenotypic switching. Second, we uncover systematic

remodeling of intercellular communication networks, particularly the pathological shift from

CD44-mediated to CXCR4-mediated MIF-CD74 signaling. Third, we validate the persistence of

functionally distinct rod photoreceptor subtypes across disease stages [13], each engaging specialized

signaling repertoires that differentially shape retinal immune dynamics. This study represents one of

the first comprehensive single-cell analyses of human retina DR progression, revealing sophisticated

neural-immune interactions that could advance our understanding of DR pathogenesis and open new

avenues for targeted therapeutic interventions.

121   Materials and Methods

122   Human donor eyes collections for scRNA-seq analysis

From June 2023 to February 2025, we obtained twenty retina samples from non-diabetic, diabetic, and

DR patients under protocols approved by the ethics committees of the University of Nottingham

Ningbo China, the Lihuili Hospital, and the Ningbo Eye Hospital. Two samples of living donors were

acquired through surgical enucleation at the Lihuili Hospital. The remaining eighteen samples came

from the Ningbo Eye Hospital, comprising seven paired eyes and one single eye from deceased donors

and three surgical specimens from enucleated patients. We utilized complete retinal specimens rather

than selective punch biopsies, enabling comprehensive analysis of the entire retinal structure from

center to periphery. In this study, 'fresh retinal samples' refers to two categories, the first is the living

donor samples obtained during surgical enucleation and processed immediately within 10 min, and the

second is post-mortem specimens processed within 6 h of death with strict temperature control without

frozen. Table 1 provides detailed information on each sample.

134   Single-cell RNA sequencing

Human retina samples were dissociated for scRNA-seq using the LK003150-1bx Dissociation Kit

(Worthington Biochemical Corporation) following the manufacturer's protocol. Tissue was placed on

ice in a petri dish and manually cut into 2-4 mm pieces. After incubation in RPMI/enzyme mix

(Miltenyi Biotec), the tissue fragments were transferred to a gentleMACS C tube for dissociation. After

dissociation, the suspension was passed through a 70 µm cell strainer and centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 10

min at 4°C. The supernatant was removed, and 10 times volume of 1 x Red Blood Cell Lysis Solution

(130-094-183, Miltenyi Biotec) were added to lyse red blood cells at 4°C for 10 min. Subsequently, 10

mL of 1x PBS containing 0.04% BSA was added to the suspension, which was then centrifuged again

at $300 \times g$ for 10 min. The suspension was mixed with AO/PI fluorescent dye (1:1 ratio) and incubated

for 30 s, then cell viability was assessed for CountStar analysis. Viable cell suspension was

resuspended in 1x PBS with 0.04% BSA to 700-1200 cells/µL (viability > 85%) for loading onto the

10x Genomics Chromium platform.

scRNA-seq libraries were made from 10,000 cells per sample using the Chromium Single Cell 3'

Library and Gel Bead Kit (10X Genomics). 150 bp pair-ended sequencing was performed on Illumina

Novaseq platform. Raw sequencing data quality was assessed using FastQC to ensure that (1) no more

than three ambiguous "N" bases in total were present; (2) less than 20% of bases had a Phred quality

score lower than 5; and (3) residue adapter sequences were removed. The resulting sequencing outputs

were processed using the 10X Genomics Cell Ranger V8.0.1 pipeline with default settings. Transcript

reads were aligned to the 10x Genomics Human reference index (GRCh38-2020-A). Each cell was

assigned a unique, sample-specific identifier, and feature-barcode matrices were generated using the

chromium cellular barcodes.

Quality control and doublets removal

For each sample, feature-barcode matrices were processed using the 10X Genomics Cell Ranger

pipeline (https://www.10xgenomics.com/support/software/cell-ranger). We performed quality control

and then doublet removal for each dataset to eliminate low-quality cells. Doublets were identified and

removed using DoubletFinder (https://github.com/chris-mcginnis-ucsf/DoubletFinder). High-quality

cells were selected based on the following criteria in the Seurat R package (v5.1.0) [14]: cells with a

minimum gene count of 200, a UMI count greater than 400, and a mitochondrial read fraction of less

than 20%. Cells passing these filters were retained for downstream analysis.

Data integration and clustering

After initial processing, the twenty datasets were integrated by Scanpy (v1.10.2) [15]. We used

scVI-tools (v1.1.2) [16] to perform dimensionality reduction and batch-effect correction. A k-nearest

neighbor (KNN) graph was built from the resulting latent space, and Leiden clustering was applied at

multiple resolutions to identify and refine retinal cell types. Previously reported marker genes'

expression of each cluster was used to annotate their corresponding retina cell type. This annotation

workflow was further repeated to refine an accurate cell type annotation for the sub populations within

each cell type. Sample bias introduced by the inclusion of fresh retinas from living donors was

evaluated by analyzing the proportions of various cell types across all datasets.

Cell disturbance analysis

Transcriptomic variations across nonDM (samples without diabetes mellitus), DM (samples with

diabetes mellitus), and DR (samples with diabetic retinopathy) conditions were assessed using Augur

(v1.0.3) [17] and odds ratio (OR) analysis. To avoid instability from rare or small populations and

non-ubiquitous clusters, T cells, retinal pigment epithelium, neutrophils, and retinal ganglion cells were

excluded, and the comparison was restricted to nonDM versus DR. This pairwise comparison was

prioritized because Augur is designed for binary classification tasks and because nonDM versus DR

exhibits the most pronounced transcriptomic remodeling, whereas DM exhibited minimal molecular

alterations relative to nonDM. Augur calculated Area Under the Curve (AUC) scores to evaluate the

predictive power of gene expression profiles for distinguishing nonDM from DR within each cell type,

where higher AUC indicates stronger disease-associated perturbation. Label-permutation controls were

performed to confirm that observed AUC values reflected true condition-expression associations rather

than modeling artifacts. For compositional differences, we constructed a 2×2 contingency table with

rows = that condition vs. all other conditions and columns = that cell type vs. all other cell types for

each cell type and for each condition column (nonDM, DR), We computed the odds ratio and exact p

value using Fisher's exact test, then applied Benjamini-Hochberg correction. OR > 1 denotes

enrichment in the column's condition. This composition-aware metric complements Augur's

separability, helping distinguish proportional shifts from transcriptional perturbations.

Differential expression and enrichment analysis

We performed differential expression (DE) to identify cell type or condition-specific markers using

Seurat's FindAllMarkers and FindMarkers functions with an FDR < 0.05 and |log2FC| > 1 threshold for

significance. To robustly define cluster-specific marker genes, particularly for microglial

subpopulations, COSG (v0.9.0) [18] was applied following sub-clustering of C1QA-positive myeloid

cells, which prioritizes genes with high specificity and robustness for each annotated cluster. Gene

Ontology (GO) and Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) enrichment analysis were

conducted by clusterProfiler (v4.10.1) [19]. Pathway scoring and enrichment were further evaluated by

the irGSEA (v3.3.2) [20] framework, combining multiple methods (AUCell, UCell, singscore, ssgsea,

JASMINE, viper) through robust rank aggregation (RRA).

Transcriptional pattern discovery

Microglia-specific gene co-expression modules were identified using Hotspot. First, Hotspot analysis

(v1.1.1) identified spatially coordinated gene modules based on local correlation

(https://github.com/YosefLab/Hotspot), leveraging dimensionality reduction and KNN graph

construction. Module relationships were evaluated through correlation analysis, with scores calculated

using UCell (v2.6.2) [21].

Cell communication analysis

CellChat (v1.6.1) was applied to perform cell-cell communication analysis [22]. First, CellChat objects

were created for DR and nonDM conditions using the human CellChatDB database. Overexpressed

genes and interactions were identified with default parameters and the analysis was enhanced by

projecting data onto protein-protein interaction networks. Communication probabilities were computed

using the triMean method. Signaling pathway analysis was performed by aggregating the

communication probabilities of all ligand-receptor pairs associated with each pathway. To compare

communication changes between nonDM and DR conditions, we specifically examined how each

microglial subtype and rod photoreceptor subtype acted as signal senders or receivers with respect to

other cell types

Results

Construction of the human retinal scRNA-seq atlas and lineages perturbed across DR

To investigate diabetic retinopathy progression, we performed scRNA-seq on twenty human retina

samples encompassing three disease stages (nonDM, DM, DR). After stringent quality control and data

integration using scVI, the retinal cell populations were visualized in a uniform manifold

approximation and projection (UMAP) plot (Figure 1A). Cells including cone, rod, bipolar (BC),

amacrine (AC), horizontal (HC), retinal ganglion (RGC), Müller glia (MGC), astrocytes, microglia, T

cells (TC), retinal pigment epithelium (RPE), and neutrophil, were identified according their

significantly expressed distinctive marker genes (Figure 1B). Across donors, rods dominated in 19/20

samples, with group means markedly higher than any other lineage (nonDM 67.9 ± 18.1%, DM 56.5 ±

18.8%, DR 76.8 ± 6.3%; Table S1). For non-rod lineages, between-group differences were modest

relative to within-group dispersion and showed substantial overlap. For example, MGC medians [IQR]

were 10.8% [8.5–13.5%] in nonDM, 13.6% [13.3–30.5%] in DM, and 7.4% [6.2–9.9%] in DR;

microglia were 1.8% [1.4–6.0%], 1.5% [0.4–2.6%], and 0.6% [0.5–0.7%], respectively. These

distributions indicate notable inter-donor variability; accordingly, downstream analyses emphasize

donor-level statistics and pair composition with within-lineage transcriptomic separability to

distinguish proportional shifts from transcriptional perturbations. Then, we quantified

disease-associated changes using a composition-aware metric (OR) and a perturbation-ranking

approach (Augur) to explore a wider array of cell types associated with DR. To avoid instability from

rare/small populations and a non-ubiquitous TC cluster, TC, RPE, Neutrophils, and RGCs were

excluded, and the comparison was restricted to nonDM versus DR. Compositionally, the OR heatmap

showed condition-specific enrichment among the remaining major lineages, for example, microglia

were relatively enriched in nonDM, whereas cones appeared relatively enriched in DR (Figure 1C). In

contrast, Augur prioritizes transcriptomic separability within each lineage, where higher AUC indicates

stronger DR perturbation and permutation collapses values toward chance (≈0.5) (Figure 1D). The

standard Augur run ranked HC highest (AUC = 0.682), followed by Cone (0.651), Microglia (0.649),

Rod (0.625), and BC (0.593), with MGC, AST, and AC closest to chance. A label-permutation control

yielded AUCs near 0.5 for all types, supporting that the observed ordering reflects true

label–expression structure rather than modeling artifacts (Figure 1E).

Retinal C1QA+ myeloid cells resolve into homeostatic and inflammatory microglia plus a

neutrophil cluster

To further characterize microglial heterogeneity, we sub-clustered the major *C1QA*-positive population,

comprising 7,352 cells. This analysis resolved three subpopulations: homeostatic microglia

(MG-Homeostatic), inflammatory microglia (MG-Inflammatory), and neutrophils (Figure 2A). Quality

control metrics supported genuine biological heterogeneity (Figure 2B): MG-Inflammatory exhibited

higher transcriptional complexity (nFeature_RNA, nCount_RNA), neutrophils the lowest, and all

clusters showed uniformly low mitochondrial gene percentages (percent.mt), indicating high viability.

Cluster-defining signatures from COSG (Figure 2C, 2D) revealed MG-Homeostatic enrichment for

core microglial markers (*C1QA*, *C1QB*) and ribosomal protein genes (e.g., *RPL14*, *RPS4X*), whereas

MG-Inflammatory displayed an activated profile with upregulation of immune-related genes (e.g.,

DOCK4, *CD83*, *KLF6*). The third cluster was identified as neutrophils by canonical markers (*FCGR3B*,

S100A12, *CXCR2*) with minimal microglial gene expression. All three populations were observed

across non-DM, DM, and DR retinas from multiple donors, indicating that clustering was not driven by

condition or batch (Figure 2E, Table S2).

Comprehensive differential expression further substantiated these cell identities (Table S3). After

rigorously excising ribosomal and rod-photoreceptor genes, pathway enrichment on the

MG-Homeostatic versus MG-Inflammatory contrast delineated two non-overlapping programs (Figure

3A, 3B): MG-Homeostatic was enriched for mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation, aerobic

respiration, proton transmembrane transport, and ATP metabolic processes, whereas MG-Inflammatory

was enriched for immune response–activating/regulating signaling, antigen processing and presentation

of exogenous peptide antigen, macroautophagy, small GTPase–mediated signaling, endocytosis, lipid

and atherosclerosis, osteoclast differentiation, and protein processing in the endoplasmic reticulum.

irGSVA on immune hallmark gene sets (Figure 3C), while not excluding ribosomal/rod genes,

recapitulated the same directional split across cell populations, strengthening the pathway-level

separation between inflammatory and homeostatic programs; notably, neutrophils displayed a distinct

immune-hallmark profile consistent with their canonical identity, providing orthogonal validation of all

three populations. Importantly, homeostatic enrichment for oxidative phosphorylation and ATP

metabolism persisted after removal of ribosomal and rod-photoreceptor genes and coincided with

higher expression of antigen presentation/surveillance components (*CD74*, *HLA-DRA/DPA1/DPB1*,

TYROBP, *AIF1*), arguing against a low-quality or degenerative state. Collectively, these pathway-level

readouts from complementary methods indicate that inflammatory microglia engage coordinated

cytokine and NF-κB/TLR-linked cascades, whereas homeostatic microglia maintain preserved

bioenergetic tone alongside baseline immune surveillance functions.

Disease-stage dynamics of microglial subsets

Comparative analysis across disease states revealed distinct temporal activation patterns between the

two microglial subsets (Figure 4). During early diabetic transition (DM vs.

nonDM), MG-Homeostatic cells demonstrated functional stability with limited transcriptional changes,

though notable upregulation of chemokines (*CCL2*, *CCL4*) and extracellular matrix remodeling genes

(*FN1*) indicated early environmental sensing and low-grade inflammatory recruitment. Concurrently,

transcriptional regulators (*NR4A2*) and neuroprotective factors (*CLU*) were enhanced, suggesting

adaptive responses to hyperglycemic stress rather than overt activation. In

contrast, MG-Inflammatory cells entered a highly active state characterized by significant upregulation

of pro-inflammatory mediators (*IL6*), chemokines (*CCL2, CXCL2/3*), matrix-receptor and vascular

regulatory molecules (*FN1, STAB1, SDC3, VAV3*), and copper oxidase (*CP*). Notably, classical

lysosomal proteases (*CTSL*, *CTSZ*) were upregulated while *CTSH* was downregulated, indicating

reconfiguration of phagocytic-proteolytic networks. The absence of significant *IL1A*/*IL1B* and *TNF*

elevation confirmed this stage as "regulatory activation" rather than full inflammatory amplification.

Disease progression to retinopathy (DR vs. DM) deepened this functional divergence.

MG-Homeostatic cells exhibited predominantly broad transcriptional downregulation in DR relative to

DM, with upregulation largely confined to ribosomal protein genes (*RPLP1, RPS23, RPL41*);

accordingly, these cells showed no evident induction of classical pro-inflammatory or angiogenic

markers, consistent with a chronic, low-grade reactive state and diminished functional activity.

Conversely, MG-Inflammatory cells demonstrated an intensified inflammatory program in DR, with

IL1A and *IL1B* upregulated, and a reconfigured chemokine network evidenced by marked *CCL2*

downregulation, alongside reduced expression of other chemokines (*CXCL1, CXCL2, CXCL3*).

Vascular-related molecular remodeling was also evident in MG-Inflammatory cells, highlighted by

PDGFB upregulation and *NRP1* downregulation, suggesting an enhanced capacity for vascular

regulatory interactions. Direct comparison of DR versus nonDM further validated this divergent

activation model, demonstrating that retinal microglia employ complementary rather than uniform

activation strategies as disease progresses.

Network-based analysis identifies microglial functional modules and disease-associated

expression patterns

310 Gene co-expression analysis identified eleven discrete modules (M1-M11) with distinct molecular

311 signatures (Figure 5A, Table S4). The correlation heatmap resolved two principal activation clusters:

312 an inflammatory–stress cluster (M10, M4, M9) encompassing coordinated chemokine/cytokine,

313 IL-1/immediate-early, and protein-stress programs; and a regulatory/metabolic–motility cluster (M5,

314 M6, M8, M11) enriched for transcriptional control, lipid/metabolic genes, and remodeling/motility. M1

315 (ribosomal/translation) and M2 (rod-transcript signal) remained isolated; M2 is interpreted

316 conservatively as photoreceptor carryover rather than a microglial program. M3 and M7 showed only

317 moderate linkage to either cluster and were left ungrouped.

318 Consistent with this modular architecture, sample and donor level module scores (Figure 5B) showed

319 that M1 was stable across nonDM, DM, and DR, with tightly clustered donor medians, indicating

320 preserved baseline protein-synthesis capacity. In contrast, inflammatory–stress modules were higher in

321 DR: M4 (IL1B with immediate-early TFs *JUN/FOS/EGR1/ATF3*), M10 (chemokines/cytokines

322 *CCL3/CCL4/CXCL8/TNF*), and M9 (protein-stress/chaperones *HSPA1B/DNAJB1/HSPB1* and *DDIT4*)

323 showed elevated scores in most DR donors. Distributions overlapped across groups and varied by

324 donor, indicating heterogeneous activation. The DM group was generally intermediate/near baseline.

325 **Rod photoreceptor subtype persistence in DR disease stages**

326 Previous studies have identified functionally distinct rod photoreceptor subtypes,

327 phototransduction-efficient rods (PER) specialized for light detection and mitochondrial ATP synthesis,

328 and synaptic transmission-efficient rods (SER) enriched in neurotransmission processes. Unsupervised

329 reclustering resolved three rod groups: Rod–SER-like (synaptic/adhesion program), Rod–PER-like

330 (phototransduction/mitochondrial ETC–ATP program), and an intermediate mRod with mixed

331 gene-expression patterns (Figure 5C). Group-specific enrichment and differential-expression analyses

aligned with previously reported PER/SER program (Figure 5D, 5E). MALAT1, which has been

reported to decline with longer post-mortem intervals, ranked among the top differentially expressed

transcripts between SER-like and PER-like groups. To assess potential source effects, we compared

live and cadaver specimens and found that SER-like rods were more abundant in cadaver samples

(overall mean 63.0% ± 10.9%) than in live samples (41.6% ± 21.2%), whereas PER-like rods were

relatively higher in live samples (6.72% ± 7.30%) than in cadavers (3.51% ± 3.00%), indicating a

retrieval-status bias in this cohort (Table S5). All three groups were detected across nonDM, DM, and

DR, with inter-donor variability but no consistent stage-specific depletion.

Rod subtypes and microglial states engage distinct signaling repertoires consistent with their

transcriptional programs in nonDM condition

In nonDM conditions, rod cell subtypes exhibit distinct communication profiles (Figure S1A-C).

PER-like rods display a secreted-factor bias, with prominent MIF-CD74 to inflammatory microglia and

VEGFB-FLT1 to glia, suggesting metabolic/vascular support, while contributing little to rod–rod

adhesion. In contrast, SER-like rods are dominated by synaptic/adhesive signaling and show reduced

MIF/VEGF output compared to PER-like rods and show NRG1-ERBB4 signaling to interneurons and

astrocytes, consistent with neuron-glia crosstalk. The mRod population exhibits a hybrid/transition

profile, carrying PER-like ECM/vascular axes (VEGFB, VTN, PSAP) together with SER-like

synaptic/trophic axes (NRG1, NOTCH), indicating a transitional rather than distinct identity. Overall,

PER-like rods act as cytokine/growth-factor emitters with limited physical contact, whereas SER-like

rods prioritize structural connectivity and synaptic support, aligning with the PER/SER transcriptional

dichotomy. For retinal C1QA+ myeloid subpopulations, MG-Homeostatic engage in

maintenance-oriented signaling, sending SPP1 and participate in MIF and C3 signaling (Table S6).

MG-Inflammatory display an activated profile: they are the primary recipients of rod-derived MIF via

CD74, and also take in TNF/TNFSF12, TGFβ1/2, ICAM1-β2-integrins, and extensive HLA-II-CD4

interactions. Neutrophils exhibit enriched chemotactic and adhesion signaling, consistent with their

reactive characteristics.

Remodeling of Cell Communication from nonDM to DR

In DR, intercellular communication shifts markedly compared to non-diabetic controls (Table S7,

Figure S2). The pro-inflammatory MIF–CD74 axis remains active but skews toward the CXCR4

co-receptor branch in DR, while the CD44-dependent branch is relatively diminished. Inflammatory

microglia (CD74-expressing) are the chief recipients of MIF in both states, with

photoreceptors—especially the PER-like rods—as prominent sources; notably, DR boosts MIF

signaling via CD74+CXCR4 at the expense of the CD74+CD44 pathway. By contrast, the

neuroprotective PSAP–GPR37 interactions collapse in DR: robust microglia-to-Müller glia and

rod-to-glia PSAP signals evident in non-diabetic (nonDM) conditions are almost absent in DR.

Likewise, several trophic/metabolic support axes decline. Vitronectin–integrin signaling from rods

virtually disappears in DR, as do NAMPT–INSR (visfatin to insulin receptor) interactions and

FGF1–FGFR1 signaling that were detectable in the healthy retina. On the myeloid side, microglial

outgoing signals become more limited. While osteopontin (SPP1) signaling is

substantially reduced rather than intensified, it remains a relatively prominent inflammatory output

from microglia as other signals also wane.

Discussion

The advent of single-cell omics has significantly advanced our understanding of the pathological

mechanisms underlying DR [9]. However, significant gaps persist, particularly in the absence of a

comprehensive analysis of human DR retina samples. While animal models, including diabetic mice

and non-human primates, have provided valuable insights [23-25], they fail to replicate the complexity

of human DR pathogenesis due to species-specific differences. Recent efforts have partially addressed

these gaps through single-cell analyses of human-derived tissues, such as PDR-fibrovascular

membranes or blood mononuclear cells [26, 27]. However, the lack of studies involving human retina

limits our ability to fully unravel the intricate cellular interactions and molecular mechanisms of DR in

human.

To address this gap, we performed scRNA-seq on 20 human retinal samples covering three disease

stages (nonDM, DM, and DR) from both surgical patients and donors. This comprehensive atlas spans

all major retinal cell classes, including rod and cone photoreceptors, interneurons, Müller glia, vascular

cells, and resident immune cells. In particular, the inclusion of microglia (resident immune cells known

to mediate retinal inflammation [28, 29]) enables examination of their states across disease.

The molecular heterogeneity and functional dynamics of retinal microglia in DR are not fully

understood due to insufficient comprehensive human retinal studies [28]. Traditionally described using

the M1/M2 dichotomy, recent findings suggest that microglial activation spans a continuous spectrum

rather than being defined by discrete phenotypes [28, 30]. Many studies that report "multiple microglial

subpopulations" primarily reflect methodological advances that refine how putative groups are detected

(e.g., deeper graph-based clustering, contrastive/representation learning, and improved batch correction)

[31, 32]. Yet on low-dimensional visual embeddings, it often remains difficult to justify an additional,

cleanly separable "third" cluster. In our dataset, we no longer find stable evidence for over two fully

independent microglial "states" based on scRNA-seq human retina tissues, even though our atlas

comprising 20 samples. Within the C1QA+ myeloid population, we resolved three subpopulations:

MG-Homeostatic microglia, MG-Inflammatory microglia, and a neutrophil cluster. MG-Homeostatic

cells expressed core microglial markers and ribosomal protein genes, whereas MG-Inflammatory cells

upregulated immune-activation genes. Pathway analysis showed that MG-Homeostatic cells were

enriched for oxidative phosphorylation and metabolic processes, while MG-Inflammatory cells were

enriched in cytokine/NF-κB and antigen-presentation pathways. These findings reveal that retinal

myeloid cells span a spectrum from quiescent energy-maintaining states to pro-inflammatory activation.

Comparison across disease stages revealed distinct dynamics for these subsets. During early diabetes,

MG-Homeostatic cells remained largely stable, aside from modest upregulation of chemokines and

stress regulators, suggesting an adaptive response to hyperglycemia. In contrast, MG-Inflammatory

cells became highly active in the DM stage, upregulating pro-inflammatory mediators, chemokines,

and matrix/vascular regulators. As DR developed, MG-Homeostatic cells showed broad

downregulation of gene expression with no new inflammatory markers, reflecting a suppressed profile,

whereas MG-Inflammatory cells further intensified their inflammatory program. The identification of

homeostatic and inflammatory microglial subsets, while initially appearing to support a binary

framework, actually reveals a more sophisticated biological reality when integrated with our

disease-stage dynamics and co-expression network analyses.

The molecular architecture underlying this continuum becomes apparent through our modular analysis,

which reveals how microglial activation operates through coordinated recruitment of distinct functional

programs rather than wholesale phenotypic switching. The inflammatory-stress axis (encompassing

IL-1β/immediate-early, chemokine/cytokine, and protein-stress modules) progressively accumulates

activity in DR while core biosynthetic machinery (translation module M1) remains remarkably stable

across disease stages. This modular organization provides a mechanistic explanation for the observed

divergent trajectories: homeostatic cells maintain their energetic backbone while selectively

upregulating stress-response elements, whereas inflammatory cells layer additional pro-inflammatory

programs onto this preserved foundation.

Moreover, our analysis confirms functionally distinct rod photoreceptor subtype populations persist

consistently across the diabetes disease spectrum, with an additional intermediate mRod subtype

displaying mixed transcriptional features. Crucially, these rod subtypes engage distinct communication

repertoires that fundamentally shape retinal immune dynamics. PER-like rods function as primary

secreted-factor emitters, prominently signaling through MIF-CD74 to inflammatory microglia and

VEGFB-FLT1 to glial cells, while SER-like rods prioritize synaptic connectivity through

NRG1-ERBB4 interactions with interneurons and astrocytes. This functional specialization becomes

pathologically relevant in DR, where intercellular communication networks undergo systematic

remodeling. Most significantly, the pro-inflammatory MIF-CD74 axis remains active but undergoes a

critical qualitative shift toward CXCR4 co-receptor signaling in DR while CD44-mediated branches

decline. This CD44 to CXCR4 transition reflects a shift from tissue-protective inflammation toward

chronic, potentially tissue-damaging inflammatory signaling, as CXCR4 engagement typically

promotes sustained inflammatory responses compared to the more regulatory CD44 pathway.

Simultaneously, this inflammatory persistence occurs against a backdrop of collapsed neuroprotective

networks. This coordination of maintained inflammatory signaling with lost homeostatic support

reveals DR as fundamentally a disease of disrupted cellular cooperation, where specialized neuronal

subtypes shift from tissue-protective to tissue-damaging communication patterns while losing their

capacity to maintain retinal homeostasis.

While our study provides insights into DR progression, we acknowledge several limitations. The

relatively small sample size may limit statistical power for certain comparisons. However, this

limitation reflects the challenges in acquiring human retina samples, especially from DR patients. The

human retina is exceptionally rare and difficult to obtain due to several factors: (1) the limited

availability of donor tissue meeting specific disease criteria, (2) the critical requirement for minimal

post-mortem intervals to maintain RNA quality, and (3) the ethical and logistical complexities of

collecting samples from living donors during surgery. Despite these constraints, our study represents

one of the largest single-cell analyses of human retina in DR research to date. The inclusion of both

living donor and post-mortem specimens with careful processing time control helps mitigate some

limitations while maintaining data quality. Future studies with larger sample sizes would be valuable to

validate our findings, though the inherent challenges of human retinal tissue collection will likely

continue to pose significant barriers to large-scale analyses.

Statements and Declarations

Data availability

The single-cell RNA sequencing data generated in this study have been deposited in Figshare with the DOI: 10.6084/m9.figshare.28228949.

Author information

Authors and Affiliations

Nottingham Ningbo China Beacons of Excellence Research and Innovation Institute, University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo, China, 315100

Luning Yang, Sen Lin, Yiwen Tao, Qi Pan, Tengda Cai, Weihua Meng

Department of Ophthalmology, Lihuili Hospital affiliated with Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315040

Yunyan Ye

Department of Cardiology, Lihuili Hospital affiliated with Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315040

Jianhui Liu

Ningbo Institute of Innovation for Combined Medicine and Engineering, The Affiliated Li Huili Hospital, Ningbo University, Ningbo, China, 315201

Yang Zhou

Department of Ophthalmology, The Affiliated Ningbo Eye Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University, Ningbo, China, 315040

Quanyong Yi, Yongqing Shao

PAPRSB Institute of Health Sciences, Universiti Brunei Darussalam, Bandar Seri, Begawan, BE1410, Brunei Darussalam

Zen Huat Lu, Lie Chen

Centre for Public Health, Institute of Clinical Science, Queen's University Belfast, Block B, Royal Hospital, Grosvenor Road, Belfast, Northern Ireland, BT12 6BA

Gareth McKay

School of Mathematical Sciences, University of Nottingham Ningbo China, Ningbo, China, 315100

Richard Rankin

Authors' Contributions

LY drafted the paper and performed the analysis. SL, YT, QP, TC contributed to data formatting and correction. YY, JL, YZ, QY, ZL, LC, GM, and RR provided comments on the paper. YS, and WM organized the project and provided comments. Collaborators from Queen's University Belfast and Universiti Brunei Darussalam provided academic guidance and editorial suggestions only; they did not participate in data analysis, sample handling, or access to raw data. All substantive research activities were completed within Mainland China.

Acknowledgment

This study was mainly funded by the Pioneer and Leading Goose R&D Program of Zhejiang Province 2023 with reference number 2023C04049 and Ningbo International Collaboration Program 2023 with reference number 2023H025.

Corresponding authors

Correspondence to Dr. Weihua Meng and Dr. Yongqing Shao.

Consent to Publish

All authors have consent for publication.

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

Ethics approval

This study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the University of Nottingham Ningbo China; The Lihuili Hospital affiliated with Ningbo University; The Affiliated Ningbo Eye Hospital of Wenzhou Medical University.

References

[1] L. Ji, H. Tian, K.A. Webster, W. Li, Neurovascular regulation in diabetic retinopathy and emerging therapies, Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences, 78 (2021) 5977-5985.

[2] B. Zhou, A.W. Rayner, E.W. Gregg, K.E. Sheffer, R.M. Carrillo-Larco, J.E. Bennett, J.E. Shaw, C.J. Paciorek, R.K. Singleton, A.B. Pires, Worldwide trends in diabetes prevalence and treatment from 1990 to 2022: a pooled analysis of 1108 population-representative studies with 141 million participants, The Lancet, 404 (2024) 2077-2093.

[3] Z.L. Teo, Y.-C. Tham, M. Yu, M.L. Chee, T.H. Rim, N. Cheung, M.M. Bikbov, Y.X. Wang, Y. Tang, Y. Lu, Global prevalence of diabetic retinopathy and projection of burden through 2045: systematic review and meta-analysis, Ophthalmology, 128 (2021) 1580-1591.

[4] J. Liu, H. Hu, S. Qiu, D. Wang, J. Liu, Z. Du, Z. Sun, The prevalence and risk factors of diabetic retinopathy: screening and prophylaxis project in 6 provinces of China, Diabetes, Metabolic Syndrome and Obesity: Targets and Therapy, (2022) 2911-2925.

[5] Y. Tomita, D. Lee, K. Tsubota, K. Negishi, T. Kurihara, Updates on the current treatments for diabetic retinopathy and possibility of future oral therapy, Journal of clinical medicine, 10 (2021) 4666.

[6] N. Cheung, I.Y. Wong, T.Y. Wong, Ocular anti-VEGF therapy for diabetic retinopathy: overview of clinical efficacy and evolving applications, Diabetes care, 37 (2014) 900-905.

[7] Q. Tang, F. Buonfiglio, E.W. Böhm, L. Zhang, N. Pfeiffer, C.A. Korb, A. Gericke, Diabetic Retinopathy: New Treatment Approaches Targeting Redox and Immune Mechanisms, Antioxidants, 13 (2024) 594.

[8] E.J. Duh, J.K. Sun, A.W. Stitt, Diabetic retinopathy: current understanding, mechanisms,

and treatment strategies, JCI insight, 2 (2017).

[9] X. Zhang, F. Zhang, X. Xu, Single-cell RNA sequencing in exploring the pathogenesis of

diabetic retinopathy, Clinical and Translational Medicine, 14 (2024) e1751.

[10] J. Wang, H. Sun, L. Mou, Y. Lu, Z. Wu, Z. Pu, M.-m. Yang, Unveiling the molecular

complexity of proliferative diabetic retinopathy through scRNA-seq, AlphaFold 2, and machine

learning, Frontiers in Endocrinology, 15 (2024) 1382896.

[11] R. Haliyur, D. Parkinson, J. Xu, Q. Li, Y. Huang, J. Liu, F. Ma, J. Gudjonsson, R. Rao,

Liquid biopsy for proliferative diabetic retinopathy: single-cell transcriptomics (scRNA-seq) of

human vitreous reveals inflammatory T cell signature, Investigative Ophthalmology & Visual

Science, 65 (2024) 935-935.

[12] Q. Hu, X. Zhang, H. Peng, J. Guan, Z. Huang, B. Jiang, D. Sun, A New Modulator of

Neuroinflammation in Diabetic Retinopathy: USP25, Inflammation, (2024) 1-16.

[13] L. Campello, M.J. Brooks, B.R. Fadl, H.S. Choi, S. Pal, A. Swaroop, Transcriptional

Heterogeneity and Differential Response of Rod Photoreceptor Pathway Uncovered by Single-

Cell RNA Sequencing of the Aging Mouse Retina, Aging Cell, e70001.

[14] Y. Hao, T. Stuart, M.H. Kowalski, S. Choudhary, P. Hoffman, A. Hartman, A. Srivastava, G.

Molla, S. Madad, C. Fernandez-Granda, Dictionary learning for integrative, multimodal and

scalable single-cell analysis, Nature biotechnology, 42 (2024) 293-304.

[15] F.A. Wolf, P. Angerer, F.J. Theis, SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene expression data

analysis, Genome biology, 19 (2018) 1-5.

[16] A. Gayoso, R. Lopez, G. Xing, P. Boyeau, V. Valiollah Pour Amiri, J. Hong, K. Wu, M.

Jayasuriya, E. Mehlman, M. Langevin, A Python library for probabilistic analysis of single-cell

omics data, Nature biotechnology, 40 (2022) 163-166.

[17] M.A. Skinnider, J.W. Squair, C. Kathe, M.A. Anderson, M. Gautier, K.J. Matson, M. Milano,

T.H. Hutson, Q. Barraud, A.A. Phillips, Cell type prioritization in single-cell data, Nature

biotechnology, 39 (2021) 30-34.

[18] M. Dai, X. Pei, X.-J. Wang, Accurate and fast cell marker gene identification with COSG,

Briefings in bioinformatics, 23 (2022) bbab579.

[19] G. Yu, L.-G. Wang, Y. Han, Q.-Y. He, clusterProfiler: an R package for comparing

biological themes among gene clusters, Omics: a journal of integrative biology, 16 (2012)

284-287.

[20] C. Fan, F. Chen, Y. Chen, L. Huang, M. Wang, Y. Liu, Y. Wang, H. Guo, N. Zheng, Y. Liu,

irGSEA: the integration of single-cell rank-based gene set enrichment analysis, Briefings in

Bioinformatics, 25 (2024) bbae243.

[21] M. Andreatta, S.J. Carmona, UCell: Robust and scalable single-cell gene signature

scoring, Computational and structural biotechnology journal, 19 (2021) 3796-3798.

[22] S. Jin, M.V. Plikus, Q. Nie, CellChat for systematic analysis of cell–cell communication

from single-cell transcriptomics, Nature Protocols, (2024) 1-40.

[23] Y. Xiao, X. Hu, S. Fan, J. Zhong, X. Mo, X. Liu, Y. Hu, Single-cell transcriptome profiling

reveals the suppressive role of retinal neurons in microglia activation under diabetes mellitus,

Frontiers in Cell and Developmental Biology, 9 (2021) 680947.

[24] T. Niu, J. Fang, X. Shi, M. Zhao, X. Xing, Y. Wang, S. Zhu, K. Liu, Pathogenesis study

based on high-throughput single-cell sequencing analysis reveals novel transcriptional

landscape and heterogeneity of retinal cells in type 2 diabetic mice, Diabetes, 70 (2021)

1185-1197.

[25] I. Van Hove, L. De Groef, B. Boeckx, E. Modave, T.-T. Hu, K. Beets, I. Etienne, T. Van

Bergen, D. Lambrechts, L. Moons, Single-cell transcriptome analysis of the Akimba mouse

retina reveals cell-type-specific insights into the pathobiology of diabetic retinopathy,

Diabetologia, 63 (2020) 2235-2248.

[26] Z. Hu, X. Mao, M. Chen, X. Wu, T. Zhu, Y. Liu, Z. Zhang, W. Fan, P. Xie, S. Yuan,

Single-cell transcriptomics reveals novel role of microglia in fibrovascular membrane of

proliferative diabetic retinopathy, Diabetes, 71 (2022) 762-773.

[27] D. Liao, W. Fan, N. Li, R. Li, X. Wang, J. Liu, H. Wang, S. Hou, A single cell atlas of

circulating immune cells involved in diabetic retinopathy, Iscience, 27 (2024).

[28] Y. Wang, X. Yang, Y. Zhang, L. Hong, Z. Xie, W. Jiang, L. Chen, K. Xiong, S. Yang, M. Lin,

Single-cell RNA sequencing reveals roles of unique retinal microglia types in early diabetic

retinopathy, Diabetology & Metabolic Syndrome, 16 (2024) 49.

[29] T. Yuan, L. Dong, E.A. Pearsall, K. Zhou, R. Cheng, J.-X. Ma, The protective role of

microglial pparα in diabetic retinal neurodegeneration and neurovascular dysfunction, Cells,

11 (2022) 3869.

[30] A. Hu, M.H. Schmidt, N. Heinig, Microglia in retinal angiogenesis and diabetic retinopathy,

Angiogenesis, (2024) 1-21.

[31] E.G. O'Koren, C. Yu, M. Klingeborn, A.Y. Wong, C.L. Prigge, R. Mathew, J. Kalnitsky, R.A.

Msallam, A. Silvin, J.N. Kay, Microglial function is distinct in different anatomical locations

during retinal homeostasis and degeneration, Immunity, 50 (2019) 723-737. e727.

[32] B.M. Davis, M. Salinas-Navarro, M.F. Cordeiro, L. Moons, L. De Groef, Characterizing

microglia activation: a spatial statistics approach to maximize information extraction, Scientific

reports, 7 (2017) 1-12.

599
600

Figures

Figure1

(A) UMAP visualization of major retinal cell types identified from scRNA-seq data. Cell types are color-coded and labeled. BC: Bipolar cell, MGC: Müller glia cell, TC: T cell, AC: Amacrine cell, RGC: Retinal ganglion cell, HC: Horizontal cell, RPE: Retinal pigment epithelium, AST: Astrocytes.

(B) Dot plot of selected marker genes for major retinal cell types and T cells. Dot size represents the percentage of cells in each population expressing the gene, while color intensity indicates the normalized average expression level.

(C) Odds ratio (OR) heatmap showing compositional enrichment of cell types between non-diabetic (nonDM) and diabetic retinopathy (DR) conditions. Within each condition column, warmer colors indicate OR>1 (enrichment in that column's condition) and cooler colors indicate OR<1 (depletion).

(D) Augur analysis ranks retinal cell populations by their predictive accuracy (AUC) in distinguishing nonDM and DR samples. Higher AUC scores correspond to greater changes in population frequency during disease progression. Each dot represents a specific cell type, color-coded by identity.

(E) Label-permutation control for Augur. Randomizing condition labels yields **AUC ≈ 0.5** across cell

classes, confirming that the separability observed in (D) reflects genuine condition–expression

structure rather than model artifact.

Figure 2

(A) UMAP visualization of C1QA+ myeloid cell subpopulation. Three distinct populations are labeled:

MG-Homeostatic (homeostatic microglia), MG-Inflammatory (inflammatory microglia), and

Neutrophil.

(B) Violin plots showing quality control metrics across the three myeloid subpopulations. Panel A

displays the number of detected genes (nFeature_RNA), Panel B shows the total RNA count

(nCount_RNA), and Panel C indicates the percentage of mitochondrial genes (percent.mt).

(C) Dot plot displaying cluster-defining marker genes identified by COSG across the discovery cohort.

Dot size represents the proportion of cells expressing each gene within a population, while color

intensity indicates the normalized average expression level.

(D) Feature plots showing the spatial distribution of six representative marker genes on the UMAP.

(E) UMAP projections comparing the distribution of C1QA+ myeloid cell subpopulation across

nonDM (non-diabetic), DM (diabetic), and DR (diabetic retinopathy) conditions.

Figure 3

(A) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis showing significantly enriched biological processes

between MG-Homeostatic (MG_h) and MG-Inflammatory (MG_i). Bar length represents

-log10(adjusted p-value), with red bars indicating pathways enriched in MG-Homeostatic and blue

bars showing pathways enriched in MG-Inflammatory.

(B) KEGG pathway enrichment analysis comparing MG-Homeostatic (MG_h) versus

MG-Inflammatory (MG_i). Bar length represents -log10(adjusted p-value), with red bars

indicating pathways enriched in MG-Homeostatic and blue bars showing pathways enriched in

MG-Inflammatory.

(C) Heatmap of integrated gene set enrichment analysis (irGSEA) showing pathway activities across

the three C1QA+ myeloid cell subpopulation. The top bar indicates cluster identity, and the second

bar shows direction of regulation (blue: down, red: up). Significance levels are indicated by

asterisks (* p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001, **** p < 0.0001).

Figure 4

(A) Comparative differential gene expression analysis in MG-Homeostatic (MG_h) across disease

states using diagonal scatter plots. Left panel: DM (diabetic without retinopathy) versus nonDM

(non-diabetic control); middle panel: DR (diabetic retinopathy) versus DM; right panel: DR versus

nonDM. For all plots, the x-axis represents delta percentage of gene expression (difference in the

proportion of cells expressing a gene between the two conditions), and the y-axis shows the log2

fold change (LogFC) in expression levels. Red points indicate significantly upregulated genes

(LogFC > 0.25, adjusted p-value < 0.05) in the first mentioned condition, while blue points

indicate significantly downregulated genes (LogFC < -0.25, adjusted p-value < 0.05) in the first

mentioned condition. Key marker genes are labeled.

(B) Comparative differential gene expression analysis in MG-Inflammatory (MG_i) across disease

states using diagonal scatter plots. Left panel: DM versus nonDM; middle panel: DR versus DM;

right panel: DR versus nonDM. Axes and color coding follow the same convention as panel A.

Figure 5

(A) Correlation heatmap showing relationships between identified Hotspot modules. Sidebar colors

represent different module classifications. Color scale indicates correlation strength (red: positive

correlation, blue: negative correlation)

(B) Donor-aggregated module scores (median per donor per condition) across disease stages (nonDM:

non-diabetic control, DM: diabetic without retinopathy, DR: diabetic retinopathy) for

representative modules.

(C) UMAP visualization of rod photoreceptor subclusters identified. Three functionally distinct rod

subpopulations are resolved: Rod-SER-like (synaptic transmission-efficient rods with

synaptic/adhesion program), Rod-PER-like (phototransduction-efficient rods with

phototransduction/mitochondrial ETC/ATP program), and mRod (intermediate subtype with mixed

gene-expression patterns).

(D) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis comparing Rod-PER-like versus Rod-SER-like

photoreceptors. Bar length represents -log10(adjusted p-value), with red bars indicating pathways

enriched in Rod-PER-like and blue bars showing pathways enriched in Rod-SER-like.

(E)) Dot plot of selected marker genes for rod subtypes. Dot size represents the percentage of cells in

each population expressing the gene, while color intensity indicates the normalized average

expression level.

Figure S1

(A–C) Dot plots of sender-specific interactions inferred by CellChat, shown separately for

Rod-PER-like (A), Rod-SER-like (B), and mRod (C) subtypes as senders toward the indicated receiver

cell classes (x-axis). The y-axis lists selected ligand-receptor pairs highlighted in the Results. Color

encodes CellChat communication probability (higher = stronger inferred interaction), and dot size

encodes significance (larger dots: P < 0.01; smaller dots: $0.01 \leq P < 0.05$).

Figure S2

(A-D) Dot plots of both sender and receiver interactions inferred by CellChat, shown separately for

MG-Homeostatic (homeostatic microglia) (A), MG-Inflammatory (inflammatory microglia) (B),

Rod-PER-like (phototransduction-efficient rods) (C), and Rod-SER-like (synaptic

transmission-efficient rods) (D). The y-axis lists selected ligand-receptor pairs, while the x-axis shows

the interacting cell types as either senders (left sections) or receivers (right sections). Color encodes

CellChat communication probability (orange/red = higher probability indicating stronger inferred

interaction; blue = lower probability), and dot size encodes significance (larger dots: P < 0.01; smaller

dots: 0.01 ≤ P < 0.05).

TableS1 Donor information and retinal cell composition of twenty samples in this study. This table

provides detailed information about the donors, including donor ID, other disease status, eye condition,

sex, age, diabetic status, and reason for eye removal or death. Additionally, it includes the proportions

and counts of major retinal cell types for each retina sample.

TableS2 Composition and abundance of C1QA+ myeloid cell subpopulations across human retinal

samples. This table summarizes the cellular composition of C1QA+ myeloid populations identified

through sub-clustering analysis across 20 human retinal samples spanning three disease stages. Three

distinct subpopulations were resolved: microglia-homeostatic (MG-Homeostatic),

microglia-homeostatic (MG-Homeostatic), and neutrophils.

TableS3 Differential expression between microglia-homeostatic (MG-Homeostatic) and

microglia-homeostatic (MG-Homeostatic) with ribosomal and rod-photoreceptor genes excluded. This

table presents comprehensive differential expression analysis comparing MG-Homeostatic versus

MG-Inflammatory microglia subsets identified from C1QA+ myeloid cell subclustering across 20

human retinal samples. To ensure identification of core microglia-intrinsic differences, ribosomal

protein genes and rod-photoreceptor transcripts were rigorously excluded from the analysis to prevent

technical artifacts from abundant contaminant signals.

TableS4 Gene co-expression modules identified in retinal microglia cells.

TableS5 Rod photoreceptor subtype composition across human retinal samples. This table presents the

distribution of three rod photoreceptor subtypes identified through subclustering analysis across 20

human retinal samples. Recent studies have identified functionally distinct rod subtypes,

phototransduction-efficient rods (PER-like) and synaptic transmission-efficient rods (SER-like), and

our analysis confirms these populations persist consistently across the diabetes disease spectrum, with

an additional intermediate mRod subtype.

TableS6 Intercellular communication interactions involving retinal immune cells in non-diabetic group.

This table presents significant cell-cell communication interactions identified through CellChat

analysis, focusing on signaling pathways involving retinal myeloid cell populations

(microglia-homeostatic, microglia-inflammatory, neutrophils) alongside their interactions with other

retinal cell types.

TableS7 Disease-stage comparison of intercellular signaling interactions. This table presents

comprehensive cell-cell communication analysis comparing nonDM (non-diabetic) and DR (diabetic

retinopathy) conditions, revealing systematic remodeling of retinal intercellular signaling networks

during disease progression.

Table 1. Retinal sample information

Sample	Donor ID	Tissue Source	Eye	Sex	Age(y)	Diabetic Status*	Eye Removal/Death Reason	Hospital†
1	D1	Live	Left	Male	76	DM	Corneal staphyloma	L.H.
2	D2	Live	Left	Male	55	nonDM	Phthisis bulbi	L.H.
3	D3	Live	Right	Male	71	nonDM	Corneal ulcer	Y.H.
4	D4	Live	Left	Female	50	nonDM	Phthisis bulbi	Y.H.
5	D5	Live	Right	Female	68	nonDM	Corneal perforation	Y.H.
6	D6	Cadaver	Left	Male	34	nonDM	Cerebral hemorrhage	Y.H.
7	D7	Cadaver	Left	Female	92	nonDM	Natural death	Y.H.
8	D7	Cadaver	Right	Female	92	nonDM	Natural death	Y.H.
9	D8	Cadaver	Left	Female	55	DM	Traumatic brain injury	Y.H.
10	D8	Cadaver	Right	Female	55	DM	Traumatic brain injury	Y.H.
11	D9	Cadaver	Left	Male	55	DR	Brainstem hemorrhage	Y.H.
12	D9	Cadaver	Right	Male	55	DR	Brainstem hemorrhage	Y.H.
13	D10	Cadaver	Left	Male	35	DR	Traumatic shock	Y.H.
14	D10	Cadaver	Right	Male	35	DR	Traumatic shock	Y.H.
15	D11	Cadaver	Left	Male	84	DR	Prostate cancer	Y.H.
16	D11	Cadaver	Right	Male	84	DR	Prostate cancer	Y.H.
17	D12	Cadaver	Left	Male	69	DR	Lung cancer	Y.H.
18	D12	Cadaver	Right	Male	69	DR	Lung cancer	Y.H.
19	D13	Cadaver	Left	Female	87	DM	Liver cancer	Y.H.
20	D13	Cadaver	Right	Female	87	DM	Liver cancer	Y.H.

737 *DM, diabetes mellitus without diabetic retinopathy DR; diabetic retinopathy; nonDM, non-diabetic retinopathy nor diabetic. Because the tissues were obtained
738 intra-operatively or post-mortem and detailed fundus imaging records were unavailable, the exact stage or subtype of diabetic retinopathy (e.g., NPDR vs PDR) could not be
739 ascertained for the DR cases.

740 †L.H., The Ningbo Lihuili Hospital; Y.H., The Ningbo Eye Hospital.

A

Microglia_h vs Microglia_i

B

Microglia_h vs Microglia_i

C

A

MG_h

B

MG_i

A

B

Donor-aggregated module scores (median per donor per condition)
No formal hypothesis testing; donor-level aggregates avoid cell-level pseudoreplication.

C

D

E