<u>Adult organotypic brain slice cultures recapitulate extracellular matrix</u>

<u>remodelling in haemorrhagic stroke</u>

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1. <u>Abstract</u>

Haemorrhagic stroke is a devastating condition characterised by vessel rupture and free blood within the brain parenchyma or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) filled spaces. Across the major subtypes of haemorrhagic stroke (subarachnoid, intracerebral, and intraventricular haemorrhages), the presence of blood in the CSF generates significant tissue damage in the first 72 hours after the event, known as early brain injury (EBI). EBI includes neuroinflammation, blood-brain barrier breakdown and dysregulation of extracellular matrix (ECM) dynamics. ECM dysfunction has been shown to trigger fibrosis of the cortical blood vessels, limiting normal CSF circulation and resulting in the buildup of metabolic waste or the development of post-haemorrhagic hydrocephalus. Limiting or preventing this fibrosis may therefore reduce the rate of morbidity experienced by survivors, providing a potential avenue for non-surgical treatment to reduce secondary brain injury post-stroke.

Despite this, current *in vivo* approaches fail to differentiate between the effect of blood products and secondary consequences including intracranial pressure (ICP) elevation and mass effect. Here, we describe an adult rat organotypic brain slice culture (OBSC) model of haemorrhagic stroke which enables the identification of the effect of blood products on ECM dysregulation. We demonstrate the distribution of key cell types across a time course of 0, 3 and 7 days in culture, indicating that such cultures are viable for a minimum of 7 days. Using immunofluorescence staining, Western blotting and RNA sequencing, we show that exposure of OBSCs to lysed blood markedly increases ECM deposition around cortical blood vessels. This is accompanied by dysregulation of ECM regulatory genes and upregulation of inflammation and oxidative stress-related genes, successfully recapitulating the changes seen in human stroke survivors. This versatile *ex vivo* model provides a translational platform to further understanding of haemorrhagic stroke pathophysiology and develop or trial novel therapeutics prior to progression to *in vivo* stroke studies.

2.   Introduction

Haemorrhagic stroke is a devastating condition characterised by vessel rupture and free blood

within the brain parenchyma or cerebrospinal fluid (CSF)-filled spaces, and may be split into

intracerebral haemorrhage, subarachnoid haemorrhage (SAH) and intraventricular

haemorrhage depending on the location of the bleed. While haemorrhagic stroke only

accounts for approximately 20% of stroke cases [1], the risk of mortality or profound disability

is markedly greater than that posed by ischemic stroke [2].

SAH is most commonly triggered by a ruptured aneurysm causing blood to leak into the CSF

in the subarachnoid space, with blood also entering the ventricles in higher grade SAH. Early

brain injury (EBI) is the injury that occurs in the brain within 72 hours of an SAH and

develops due to mechanical factors and the direct effect of free blood. SAH causes an

increase in intracranial pressure (ICP), decreased cerebral blood flow (resulting in global

ischemia), blood brain barrier (BBB) breakdown, brain oedema, oxidative stress and

neuroinflammation, which ultimately leads to neurodegeneration [3].

Extracellular matrix (ECM) dynamics in and around the brain are also affected following

SAH. There is a fine balance between ECM deposition and degradation which is particularly

evident within blood vessel architecture. Under pathological conditions, BBB dysfunction is

associated with the degradation of ECM in the basement membrane, mainly through matrix

metalloproteinases. This can then release growth factors such as the pleiotropic cytokine

transforming growth factor-β1 (TGF-β1) which in turn stimulates vascular smooth muscle

cells (SMCs) to promote ECM deposition and repair the BBB [4]. SAH can result in excessive

or dysregulated ECM deposition around major blood vessels on the surface of the brain,

contributing to the development of cerebral vasospasm and subsequent delayed cerebral

ischemia [4]. Furthermore, elevated TGF-β1 levels have been implicated in the development of

subarachnoid fibrosis and ECM dysfunction in CSF drainage pathways after SAH which can

lead to the development of post-haemorrhagic hydrocephalus [5–8]. Understanding the

pathways and mechanisms involved in ECM dysfunction may provide therapeutic targets for

reducing further brain injury following SAH.

In both human patients and animal models of SAH, it can be difficult to differentiate between

the response of the brain to the mechanical factors that follow a stroke (ICP elevation, mass

effect) and the direct reaction of brain tissue to blood products, which is important to

understand the pathogenesis of common sequalae to SAH and focus the development of

future therapeutics to treat these. In contrast, *ex vivo* models allow us to differentiate between

these factors to identity and further understand disease processes. Organotypic brain slices

cultures (OBSCs), which were first described in the 1950s for the study of membrane

potentials in the cerebral cortex [9], have been used in the study of neurodegenerative diseases

[10], invasive glioma [11] and epilepsy [12] amongst many other uses. OBSCs provide a three-

dimensional tissue architecture and are widely considered to be more representative of the *in*

vivo state than cell cultures due to the presence of neurons, glial cells and endothelial cells in

a native tissue architecture [13]. OBSCs are typically prepared from neonatal brain tissues slices

as these tend to be more resistant to the mechanical trauma caused by sectioning, making

them easier to culture [14]. However, these neonatal models are unlikely to recapitulate the

complexity or maturity of adult tissues, as is shown by different responses to sectioning. For

this reason, adult OBSC models are essential in modelling a disease which primarily affects

middle to older-aged adults [15]. Whilst adult rodent OBSCs are now well established, there has

been very limited prior exploration of their application to haemorrhagic stroke research.

Attempts at short-term (minutes to hours) haemorrhagic stroke brain slice models have been

reported with a focus on neuronal survival, though it is not clear whether they were from

adult or neonatal animals [16]. Therefore, the development and validation of an adult OBSC

system capable of modelling haemorrhagic stroke remains an important challenge.

Here, we describe the generation and validation of OBSCs derived from healthy adult rats

and their application to the *ex vivo* modelling of post-haemorrhagic stroke ECM dysfunction

and inflammation. *Ex vivo* recapitulation of ECM dynamics may provide an opportunity for

furthering understanding of the molecular mechanisms underlying this key factor in post-

stroke brain injury and offer a platform in which to trial novel therapeutics prior to use *in*

vivo.

3. **Methods**

3.1. Tissue culture

All tissue culture was performed under aseptic conditions using a class II microbiological

safety cabinet (Monmouth Guardian T1200). Tissues were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO_2 and

100% relative humidity.

Dissection media for OBSC generation comprised Earle's balanced salt solution

supplemented to a final concentration of 25 mM HEPES. OBSC culture media comprised 1:1

Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Media (DMEM):Neurobasal A, supplemented with final

concentrations of 2% (v/v) B-27, 2 mM L-glutamine and 1% penicillin/streptomycin solution.

3.2. Experimental animals

Male Sprague-Dawley rats were group housed with access to food and water *ad libitum*, on a

12-hour light/dark cycle. All studies were conducted at the University of Birmingham, and

both the establishment and investigators held relevant UK Home Office licenses. Animals

were monitored daily and group housed, with no regulated procedures performed. Animals

were euthanized according to Schedule 1 of the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 at a

weight of 130-150 g by intraperitoneal injection of 200 mg/ml pentobarbitol, 4 ml/kg and

decapitated following cessation of circulation. Blood was captured in a sterile, un-heparinised

50 ml centrifuge tube and stored at -20°C until required.

3.3. Organotypic brain slice culture (OBSC) generation

The brain was rapidly removed from the skull and the cerebellum and olfactory bulbs excised

with a sterile scalpel. A flat face was produced on the rostral and caudal edges of the brain by

cutting (Figure 1), and the brain adhered to the chuck of a vibratome (7000smz, Campden

Instruments) (caudal side down) with cyanoacrylate glue. The brain was then mounted into

the vibratome bath, containing 250 ml dissection medium on ice, bubbled with medical

oxygen at 2 psi. 250 μM sections were produced with the vibratome set to a 1.25 mm

amplitude at 80 Hz and sections stored in the dissection media bath until completion.

Slices were then transferred to 6-well polyethylene culture inserts (657641, Greiner) using a

fine paintbrush and spatula. To facilitate this, 1 ml of culture medium was initially added to

each insert to enable floating of the slice, which was removed once the slice was correctly

positioned. Culture inserts were added to a standard 6-well plate (3516, Corning), and 1.5 ml

of OBSC culture medium added to the bottom well with the top insert containing the brain

slice left dry. Slices were then either fixed immediately or on day in-vitro (DIV) 3 or 7 using

4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS for one hour at room temperature, followed by two, one-

hour phosphate buffered saline (PBS) washes at room temperature prior to storage in PBS at

4°C.

3.4. <u>Blood-treated OBSCs</u>

OBSCs destined for blood treatment as a model of haemorrhagic stroke were generated as

described above and exposed to blood immediately or after 7 days of pre-culture.

Blood from all animals was pooled, vortexed and shaken vigorously to break up clots, and

diluted 1:1 with PBS. 6, 24 or 48 hours prior to the experiment endpoint, 175 μl of diluted

blood (or PBS control) was added to the wells assigned for blood treatment after removal of

an equal volume of medium. Brain slices for immunohistochemical analysis were then fixed

as previously described, prior to washing through two changes of PBS and storage at 4°C.

Slices destined for protein or RNA extraction were dissected under a surgical microscope,

with the cortex removed (taking care to avoid capturing any tissue from the corpus callosum),

snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C.

3.5. Immunohistochemical staining and imaging

OBSCs were divided into two hemispheres prior to staining. A full protocol for staining and

clearing of OSBCs can be found in the supplemental materials ('Staining and clearing of

OBSCs'). Antibodies were diluted in PBS with 0.2% (v/v) triton X-100, 6% (v/v) goat serum

and 20% (v/v) DMSO, with 0.2 ml of diluted antibody added to each slice in a 24-well plate.

Imaging was performed using an AxioScan Z.1 (Zeiss) for blood exposed sections and an

AxioScan 7 (Zeiss) for timepoint studies maintaining the same imaging settings across all

slides within an analysis group. 4,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) was included at a

1:5000 dilution of a 5 mg/ml stock in PBS.

3.6. Image processing and analysis

Image processing was performed using FIJI [17], with the operator blinded to the treatment or

culture conditions of each image by displaying only numerical filenames. Representative

images shown have been enhanced for display by modification of window and level,

performed uniformly across all images within a comparison group or stain. No image

enhancement was performed on images prior to image analysis.

Images were processed using a FIJI macro [17], made available both on GitHub

(https://github.com/Dr-ben-hewitt/OBSC-quantification-macros) and in the supplementary

materials. In brief, this performed a maximum intensity projection and presented the user

with an image in the red channel only (corresponding to blood vessel staining with RECA-1).

Five regions of interest (ROIs) were then manually selected in the cortex of each slice and

processed for background subtraction (100 pixel radius for RECA-1 channel, 1000 pixel

radius for fibronectin and collagen IV), followed by automatic thresholding of blood vessels

(RenyiEntropy method) and ECM proteins (Triangle method), with image calculation then

performed to find the average of these two sets of features.

Mean pixel intensity per unit area was calculated by user selection of 3 ROIs per image (with

the user shown only the DAPI channel to limit bias), followed by background subtraction (50

pixel radius) in FIJI, automated measurement of the integrated ROI pixel intensity and

division of this value by the area of the ROI.

3.7. <u>Protein extraction and Western blotting</u>

Protein extraction was performed by mechanical homogenisation in 250 µl

radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer, supplemented with protease and phosphatase

inhibitors per manufacturers guidance. Samples were then incubated on a roller at 4°C for 2

hours and centrifuged at 10,000×g for 20 minutes at 4°C. Supernatant was then harvested,

aliquoted and stored at -80°C until required. Protein concentration was assessed by BCA

assay, following the manufacturer's instructions. SDS-PAGE was performed using 2.5 µg of

protein in a 20 µl volume, containing 5 µl LDS sample buffer and 2 µl reducing agent, on 4-

12% bis-tris polyacrylamide gels using MOPS-SDS running buffer. Electrophoresis was

performed at 120 V for 90 minutes. Proteins were then transferred to a nitrocellulose

membrane using NuPAGE transfer buffer at 25 V for 1 hour. Blocking was performed by

immersion in 5% (w/v) skimmed milk in tris-buffered saline with 0.1% (v/v) Tween-20

(TBST) for one hour at room temperature. Blots were then incubated in primary antibodies

for fibronectin or collagen IV and alpha-actin diluted in blocking buffer for one hour at room

temperature, washed three times in TBST (15 minutes each, room temperature), and

incubated in secondary antibody (1:5000 anti-IgG HRP conjugated) for one hour at room

temperature. Blots were then washed 3x in TBST (10 minutes each, room temperature) prior

to immersion in chemiluminescent substrate for 5 minutes (room temperature) and imaging

(G:Box chemi XRQ, Syngene).

3.8. <u>RNA extraction, sequencing and RT-qPCR</u>

Samples were mechanically disrupted and homogenised in 1 ml TRIzol and 200 µl

chloroform was then added. Samples were then mixed by shaking and centrifuged at

12,000*g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The upper aqueous phase was removed and transferred to a

new tube, and an equal volume of molecular grade 70% ethanol added. RNA was then

extracted from the sample with an RNEasy mini extraction kit (Qiagen), following the

manufacturer's instructions for a 40 µl elution volume in RNase free water. RNA was then

quantified by spectrophotometery (N50 NanoPhotometer, Implen). Sample quality control

(integrity, purity and concentration via Agilent 5400) and paired-end mRNA sequencing was

performed by a contracted 3ʳᵈ party (Novogene, UK) using a NovaSeq X Plus (Illumina) at a

read depth of 20 million reads per sample.

Alignment against a Sprague Dawley rat genome (rn_celera) was performed by Novogene,

followed by mapping to the same reference genome using the featureCounts tool [18] on the

Galaxy platform [19], followed by quality control using MultiQC [20]. Analysis of differentially

expressed genes was performed with DESeq2 [21], with comparisons made of expression in

blood-treated samples against an untreated control. Differentially expressed genes were

defined as those with an adjusted p-value (*pAdj*) < 0.05, and a fold change cutoff of 2 was

used for display of DEGs.

Gene ontology (GO) analysis was performed on all differentially expressed genes (with no

fold-change cutoff) using goseq [22], with gene categories retrieved from the rn6 assembly due

to unavailability of gene categories for the rn_celera assembly. All visualisation of RNA-

sequencing data was performed using GraphPad Prism 10.3.

Validation of the top 6 most upregulated and top 6 most downregulated genes was performed

using RT-qPCR. In brief, cDNA conversion was performed with a Tetro cDNA kit using

Oligo(dT)18 primers and 100 ng of RNA. cDNA was then further diluted by addition of 20 μl

molecular biology grade water. RT-qPCR mastermix comprised 100 μl SYBR green, 78 μl

water and 1 μl of each forward and reverse primer (reconstituted to 100 μM). 9 μl mastermix

was added to each well of a 384-well PCR plate, followed by 1 μl cDNA. RT-qPCR was

performed using a QuantStudio 5, with reaction conditions shown in supplemental materials

Error! Reference source not found.1. Oligonucleotide primers used are shown in

supplemental materials Table S2

3.9. Statistical analysis

All statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism 10.3, with a significance level of

0.05. Statistical tests are described in the relevant figure legends.

RT-qPCR data were analysed with QBase+ (Biogazelle, Belgium) using the calibrated

normalised relative quantity (CNRQ) method. Four housekeeping genes were assessed using

the geNorm algorithm within QBase+ and the two housekeeping genes with lowest mean

variability were used as reference genes for sample normalisation.

3.10. Key resources table

Table 2.

4.   Results

4.1. Health of the OBSCs after 7 days in culture

Cleaved caspase-3 (CPP3) staining was used as a marker of apoptosis. Overall, there was an

increase in CCP3-positive staining from DIV0 to DIV7 in the cortex (Figure 2A) and other

areas of the OBSC (Figure S3). Quantification of the mean CCP3-positive pixel intensity per

unit area revealed a significant increase in CCP3 signal in the cortex (Figure 2B), increasing

from 1.21×10^{-6} at 0 days to 2.04×10^{-6} at 3 days ($P = 0.0081$) and 2.72×10^{-6} at 7 days ($P =$

0.0001). A significant increase in CCP3 signal between DIV0 and DIV7 was also noted in the

basal ganglia (Figure S3).

4.2. Alterations in the organotypic cytoarchitecture of the cortex after 7 days in culture

Previous studies suggested OBSCs need to be cultured for 7-14 days prior to use in order to

allow the slices to recover from the trauma of vibratome sectioning. Therefore, the cellular

composition of OBSCs was assessed at DIV0, DIV3 and DIV7.

NeuN, a neuronal cell marker, demonstrated stable levels in the cortex of OBSCs at DIV0,

DIV3 and DIV7 (Figure 3A), with no significant differences observed in NeuN staining

intensity between DIV0 (mean pixel intensity per unit area of 1.21×10^{-5}) and DIV3 or 7

(8.49×10^{-6} and 6.24×10^{-6} respectively, Figure 3B). In the cortex, glial fibrillary acidic protein

(GFAP)-positive astrocytes (Figure 3C) appeared to show a marked reduction in staining

from DIV0 to DIV7, particularly with a loss in the glia limitans. This was further supported

by a significant reduction in quantified GFAP mean pixel value at both DIV3 and DIV7

compared to DIV0. Mean pixel intensity per area of GFAP was reduced by more than 50%

from 5.3×10^{-6} at DIV0 to 2.0×10^{-6} and 2.5×10^{-6} at DIV3 and DIV7 ($P < 0.0001$ and $P =$

0.0001, respectively) (Figure 3D). In contrast, GFAP-positive astrocytes were maintained

within the deeper subcortical white matter (supplemental materials, Figure S4).

Ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule 1 (IBA1) was used as a microglial cell marker.

There was a reduction in IBA1-positive cells in the cortex in DIV3 and DIV7 compared to

DIV0 (Figure **4**A). Image analysis showed a significant reduction after 3 and 7 days of

culture, from a mean IBA1 pixel intensity per unit area of 4.87×10^{-6} at DIV0 to 1.69×10^{-6} at

DIV3 and 1.63×10^{-6} at DIV7 (Figure **4**B, $P = 0.0150$ and 0.0134 respectively). However,

similar to GFAP staining, there did not appear to be any significant changes in IBA1 staining

in the subcortical white matter (Figure S4).

Alpha-smooth muscle actin (αSMA) labels vascular smooth muscle cells present within

arteries, arterioles and pericytes. In contrast to the other cell markers, αSMA-positive staining

(Figure **5**A) increased along blood vessel structures in the cortex between DIV0 and DIV3

and DIV7. Image analysis revealed a significant increase in αSMA mean pixel value per unit

area from 1.1×10^{-6} at DIV0 to 2.4×10^{-6} at DIV7 ($P = 0.0061$) (Figure **5**B). Finally, rat

endothelial cell antigen 1 (RECA-1) staining, which recognizes a cell surface antigen on

endothelial cells, showed a reduction in staining of small vessels and capillaries at DIV3 and

7 (Figure **5**C). Image analysis (Figure **5**D) showed a marked and significant reduction in

mean RECA-1 pixel value per unit area in the cortex, falling from 5.4×10^{-6} at DIV0 to

1.9×10^{-6} and 1.8×10^{-6} at DIV3 and DIV7 respectively ($P = 0.0003$ for both). A similar

outcome was shown in the deeper tissues in proximity to the basal ganglia (Figure S4).

4.3. <u>Blood exposure induced increases in fibronectin and collagen deposits in OBSCs</u>

OBSCs were exposed to lysed blood for 6, 24 or 48 hours to mimic haemorrhagic stroke,

initiated at either DIV0 (acute) or DIV7 (7-day preculture). Fibronectin staining was shown

to be minimal in acute sections (Figure 6A), with image analysis in the cortex and subcortical

white matter (Figure 6B and Figure S8, respectively), and Western blotting of cortical protein

isolates (Figure 6C and D) showing no significant increase in fibronectin staining or

expression at any timepoint ($P > 0.05$ for all). However, control OBSCs cultured for 7 days

showed visually greater fibronectin staining (Figure 6E) compared to acute sections (Figure

6A). Exposure of these pre-cultured OBSCs to blood resulted in a significant, near 10-fold

increase in cortical vessels co-locating with fibronectin, from a mean of 2.97% in control

OBSCs to a mean of 28.61% following blood exposure for 48 hours ($P = 0.0123$) (Figure

6F). This was further evidenced by a significant increase in fibronectin protein expression as

assessed by Western blot, increasing 2.27-fold following blood exposure ($P = 0.038$) (Figure

6G and H). No significant change was noted in fibronectin staining in the subcortical white

matter (Figure S8).

A similar outcome was noted in the staining and expression of collagen IV, with acute OBSCs

showing a significant increase in cortical vessel coverage from 1.55% in control samples to

16.15% after 24 hours of blood exposure ($P = 0.0491$, Figure 7B). No significant difference

was seen in collagen IV staining in the white matter ($P > 0.05$ for all, Figure S8). In contrast

to acute cultures, OBSCs treated with blood at DIV7 generated a marked increase in collagen

IV signal, increasing from 7.92% cortical vessel coverage by collagen IV in the control to

32.84% after blood exposure ($P = 0.0032$, Figure 7D).

4.4. <u>RNA-sequencing of blood-exposed OBSCs</u>

Following sample quality control and principal component analysis (supplementary materials

Figure S1 and S2), one blood-treated sample (B1) was excluded due to sequencing of an

insufficient sample quality leading to poor mapping to the reference genome. All subsequent

analysis was performed without this sample. Volcano plots were generated for all

differentially expressed genes (DEGs) (*pAdj* < 0.05) with expression fold changes (FC) > 2, (

Figure **8**A) and greater than 1.5 (Figure **8**B), with 95 and 604 DEGs over this FC cutoff,

respectively. Heatmaps were also generated for each sample across the 25 most upregulated

and 25 most downregulated DEGs (Figure **8**C).

RT-qPCR validation of the top 6 most upregulated and downregulated genes (Figure **9**)

showed a significant decrease in *Aspn*, *Epyc*, *H19*, *Mmp8* and *Prss35* transcript expression

after blood exposure ($P = 0.0107$, 0.0159, 0.0027, 0.026 and 0.0297 respectively. There was

no significant reduction in *Cilp* expression, likely due to high inter-sample variability ($P =$

0.2207). Inversely, a significant upregulation of *Il11*, *Ptges* and *Saal1* was shown ($P =$

<0.0001, 0.0015 and 0.0006 respectively). Increases in *Kng1*, *Il17rb* and *Tacr* were not

significant ($P = 0.1307$, 0.1109 and 0.0667). Overall, 8 of the 12 tested genes showed a

significant change in expression (66.7%), with all showing a trend in the same direction as

RNA-sequencing data following blood exposure.

Gene ontology (GO) analysis was then performed across cellular component (CC), biological

process (BP) and molecular function (MF) GO families. Within the CC family (Figure **10**A),

'extracellular region' and 'extracellular matrix' were the top two most over-represented GO

terms (gene ratios 0.137 and 0.285, *padj* 6.45×10^{-29} and 8.96×10^{-27} respectively). DEGs from

extracellular region (Figure **10**B) and extracellular matrix terms (Figure **10**C) showed

downregulation in blood-treated OBSCs including *Col11a1*, *Col4a6* and *Eln*, downregulation

of *Mmp8* and upregulation of *Mmp9*, *Mmp3* and *Timp1*.

'Response to external stimulus' and 'response to chemical' were the top two most over-

represented terms within the BP family (Figure **10**D). 'Inflammatory response' and 'response

to oxidative stress' were selected for display (gene ratios 0.141 and 0.149, *padj* 9.64×10^{-11}

and 1.06×10^{-7} respectively), with DEGs from these terms shown in Figure **10**E and F

respectively. Blood exposure appeared to cause a marked upregulation of included cytokines

and cytokine receptors, including *Ccl20*, *Il1rn*, *Il1r1* and *Il17rb*.

In the MF family, 'glycosaminoglycan binding' and 'signalling receptor binding' were the

topmost over-represented terms (Figure **10**G). 'Signalling receptor binding' and 'cytokine

activity' were selected for display (gene ratios 0.129 and 0.168, *padj* 6.55×10^{-10} and 5.85×10^{-5}

), with DEGs from these terms shown in Figure **10**H and Figure 10I, respectively. Blood

exposure led to an increase in expression of *Il11*, *Csf3*, *Fgf7* and *Lbp* and a downregulation in

Igf2 and *Fbln5*, as examples.

5.   <u>**Discussion**</u>

We have described an approach to the generation of adult rat OBSCs and their novel

application to the development of an *ex vivo* haemorrhagic stroke model. We demonstrate that

blood products have direct effects on ECM regulation in cortical blood vessels at both the

transcript and protein level. In addition, we have characterised the distribution and number of

several key brain cell types (neurons, endothelial cells, arterial smooth muscle/pericytes,

astrocytes and microglia) after 0, 3 and 7 days in culture. All cell types were present across

the measured time-course but showed differences in their response to culture conditions.

No significant change was noted in NeuN-positive cell staining, suggesting neurons were not

substantially impacted by the length of time in culture. In contrast, there was a significant

reduction in cortical GFAP-positive cells, particularly in the glia limitans, observed between

DIV0 and DIV3/7. This could be due to either loss of astrocytes or reduction in GFAP

expression within astrocytes. The latter seems plausible as the mechanical injury caused by

vibratome sectioning has been shown to cause glial cell activation, a hallmark of which is

GFAP upregulation [23,24]. The reduction in GFAP levels observed in our study could therefore

represent the return of GFAP to resting levels following an initial slicing-induced spike [25].

Quantification of astrocyte number is required to confirm this idea, but if correct, this

interpretation would support the rationale for culturing brain slices for longer periods of time

[13] before initiating studies in these models. Interestingly, GFAP levels were not reduced

everywhere in the brain slice, and GFAP-positive staining was maintained over the time-

course within the subcortical white matter. IBA1-positive microglia in the cortex also reduced

from DIV0 to DIV3/7. Delbridge *et al*., reported a reduction in microglial proliferation and

an increase in microglial inflammation in the days following slice preparation [26], likely

leading to the observed fall in microglia numbers seen here.

We did observe a significant reduction in RECA-1 staining, particularly associated with

capillaries, suggesting a loss of endothelial cells (ECs) from the OBSCs. We suggest that the

lack of blood flow, and thus the lack of a pulsatile hemodynamic force and shear stress

experienced by the ECs [27], contributes to this loss. Previous studies have shown that

decreased blood flow directly affects EC migration and cytoskeleton reorganisation [28], and

causes apoptosis and a reduction in EC number in previously dilated arteries [29]. Alternatively,

our data could be explained by a reduction in the abundance of the RECA-1 epitope (an

unknown protein) within endothelial cells which has been suggested by Moser and colleagues

[30]. At the same time, an increase in αSMA-positive cells was seen at DIV 7, suggesting a rise

in the number of arterial smooth muscle cells (SMCs) or pericytes. Previous studies show a

causative link between reduced blood flow and disordered vascular remodelling [31] and

increased SMC proliferation (shown initially in hypertensive models) [32].

CCP3 staining increased between DIV0 and DIV3/7, indicating an increase in apoptosis-

driven cell death, which is to be expected due to the acclimatisation of slices to culture

following the injurious process of vibratome sectioning. This finding does suggest a possible

upper limit to the culture period, though longer culture durations were not tested in the

present work. Overall, these data suggest the successful maintenance of most tested cell types

in OBSCs, with a possible degradation in blood vessel endothelium due to a lack of blood

flow through the vasculature. For this reason, future works employing this model (for

example, studies of the blood brain barrier) may choose to employ a shorter pre-culture

period, with the caveat of increased astrogliosis and inflammation.

Following this, adult rat OBSCs were cultured for 0 and 7 days and then exposed to lysed rat

blood for 6, 24 or 48 hours to mimic haemorrhagic stroke. Two key markers of fibrosis,

fibronectin [33,34] and collagen IV [35,36],were both significantly elevated along cortical blood

vessels (as measured by immunostaining) only in the 7-day cultures. 48 hours of blood

exposure generated the largest response, both on immunofluorescent stains and Western blots.

Our results show that these fibrotic deposits are primarily localised to penetrating cortical

vessels, where αSMA is most prominent. Interestingly, these deposits were not observed in

the 0-day cultures where there were lower levels of αSMA. This potentially indicating the

involvement of SMCs or pericytes in modulating ECM associated with blood vessels. The

location of ECM deposits suggest they could contribute to disordered glymphatic flow,

reducing the clearance of metabolites (and blood products following haemorrhagic stroke)

and exacerbating brain injury. Indeed, perivascular fibrosis has previously been reported in

in vivo models of ICH [37,38] and SAH [39] and directly linked to reduced clearance of amyloid-β

after ischemic stroke [40].

In addition to immunostaining and Western blotting, RNA sequencing was performed on

RNA isolated from 7-day precultured OBSCs exposed to blood for 48 hours. Blood exposure

led to significant over-expression of inflammatory response and cytokine signalling related

GO terms, driven by a marked upregulation of inflammation-linked genes, including *Ccl20*,

Il11 and *Csf3*. *Ccl20* has previously been linked to neuroinflammation following traumatic

brain injury [41] with antagonism shown to reduce this following SAH [42]. *Il11* concentration in

plasma post-ICH has been shown to positively correlate with increased mortality and the

development of hydrocephalus [43]. *Il11* has also been linked to inflammatory immune cell

migration in multiple sclerosis [44] and protection against ischemia reperfusion injury in middle

cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) models of ischemic stroke [45]. *Csf3* has been suggested to

play a role in post-MCAO brain injury by increasing neutrophil toxicity [46]. This large drive

towards a pro-inflammatory transcriptome following blood exposure supports studies

examining the pro-inflammatory nature of blood and blood products in the subarachnoid

space and parenchyma following haemorrhagic stroke [47,48] and suggests that this crucial

element is successfully recapitulated in our OBSC-based haemorrhagic stroke model.

Interestingly, the same RNA sequencing data showed a downregulation of ECM-related GO

terms and genes (including collagens and elastin), with some upregulation of matrix

metalloproteinases (MMPs) and tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases (TIMPs).

Immunofluorescent staining and Western blotting of blood-exposed OBSCs suggested a

marked increase in ECM deposition along cortical vessels, as previously discussed,

suggesting a differential response at the gene and protein level. We propose this increase in

protein deposition may not be due to changes in *de novo* protein synthesis, but a manipulation

of ECM turnover triggered by blood-induced changes in the expression of MMPs and TIMPs.

Indeed, modified *Mmp9/Timp1* expression (as shown in our RNA sequencing data) has been

linked to disordered collagen deposition in the skin [49] and lung [50]. In the brain, a reduction in

collagen IV RNA and upregulation of *Mmp9* has previously been reported 48 hours after

SAH [51], a finding reflected in the present work. These findings suggest that our model also

successfully mimics the ECM dysfunction seen in haemorrhagic stroke, with a likely

breakdown of the blood brain barrier and disordered, fibrotic ECM deposition along cortical

penetrating vessels.

A limitation of our model is that it simulates global blood exposure instead of localised blood

exposure to the cortical tissues or ventricles (as may be seen after SAH or IVH). Further

work may be undertaken to identify if this model can recapitulate the differences seen

between types of haemorrhagic stroke, i.e SAH and ICH [8]. Single cell RNA sequencing may

also determine which cells drive fibrosis following blood exposure, as the mechanism

underlying this has not been explored in the present work.

Our findings suggest that our OBSC model can a) successfully maintain adult rat brain slices

for at least 7 days and b) employ lysed blood to recapitulate the disordered ECM deposition

(fibrosis) and neuroinflammation which follows haemorrhagic stroke. Future studies may

employ this model to further understand the molecular drivers of post-stroke inflammation

and fibrosis, or to trial anti-fibrotic agents to reduce ECM dysfunction. Our model offers a

platform to advance the translation of pharmacological treatments aimed at reducing post-

stroke disability and improving outcomes for stroke survivors, whilst providing a higher

throughput and physiologically realistic alternative to *in vivo* animal studies.

459 6.   **Declarations**

460 6.1. **Disclosures**

461 PK and RMB are founders and shareholders in Estuar Pharmaceuticals. The other authors

462 declare they have no financial and/or non-financial interests that may cause a conflict of

463 interest.

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Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council Pioneer Award (BB/Y512874/1).

473 6.3. **Data availability**

RNA sequencing data have been uploaded to the NCBI sequence read archive (SRA) and are

freely available for use (BioProject ID PRJNA1262501). Uncropped, unedited Western blots

are included in the supplemental materials (Figures S3 and S4). Image quantification macros

are available (supplemental materials, 'ImageJ macro language scripts used for image

quantification'). All other data will be made available upon request to the corresponding

authors.

6.4. <u>Authors' contributions (CRediT)</u>

BJH: methodology, software, formal analysis, resources, investigation, data curation, writing

– original draft, visualisation. LR: investigation, data curation, writing – review and editing.

JAR: formal analysis, writing – review and editing. DF: resources, writing – review and

editing. PK: supervision, writing – review and editing. RMB: supervision, writing – review

and editing. LJH: supervision, writing – review and editing. HB: resources, writing – review

and editing, supervision, project administration, funding acquisition.

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9.   Tables

Table 1 – Antibody dilutions used in immunofluorescent staining of OBSCs.

Antibody	Dilution
Anti-rat endothelial cell antigen 1 (RECA-1), mouse	1:100
Anti-fibronectin, rabbit	1:400
Anti-alpha smooth muscle actin (αSMA), mouse	1:500
Anti-cleaved caspase 3 (CCP3), rabbit	1:500
Anti-NeuN, mouse	1:500
Anti-GFAP, mouse	1:400
Anti-collagen IV, rabbit	1:500
Anti-IBA1, rabbit	1:500
AF488 conjugated anti-rabbit IgG, highly cross-absorbed	1:1000
AF594 conjugated anti-mouse IgG, highly cross-absorbed	1:1000

655 **Table 2 - Table showing reagent, source and catalogue number / identifier for all key**
656 **resources used in the present work.**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Anti-rat endothelial cell antigen 1 (RECA-1), mouse	Abcam	CAT# Ab9774
Anti-fibronectin, rabbit	Invitrogen	CAT# F3648
Anti-alpha smooth muscle actin (αSMA), mouse	ThermoFisher	CAT# 14-9760-82
Anti-cleaved caspase 3 (CCP3), rabbit	Cell Signalling Technologies	CAT# CST96615
Anti-NeuN, mouse	Cell Signalling Technologies	CAT# 94403
Anti-GFAP, mouse	Sigma	CAT# G3893
Anti-collagen IV, rabbit	BioRad	CAT# 2150-1470
Anti-IBA1, rabbit	FujiFilm Wako	CAT# 019-19741

AF488 conjugated anti-rabbit IgG, highly cross-absorbed	ThermoFisher	CAT# A32731
AF594 conjugated anti-mouse IgG, highly cross-absorbed	ThermoFisher	CAT# A32742
Anti-alpha-actin	Abcam	CAT# Ab179467
Anti-IgG HRP conjugated	Abcam	CAT# Ab6721
Chemicals, Peptides and Recombinant Proteins		
Earle's balanced salt solution	Gibco	CAT# 11540616
HEPES	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 10204932
DMEM cell culture medium	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 11965092
Neurobasal A	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 11540366
B-27	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 11530536
L-glutamine	ThermoFisher	CAT# 25030024
Penicillin-Streptomycin	ThermoFisher	CAT# 15070063
Pentoject, Pentobarbital sodium	Animalcare	CAT# XVD132
Cyanoacrylate glue	RS	CAT# 835-4131
Paraformaldehyde	Merck	CAT# 47608-1L-F
Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS) tablets	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 10209252
Triton X-100	Merck	CAT#X100-1GA
Goat serum	Fisher Scientific	CAT# 11530526
4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI)	Invitrogen	CAT# D21490
Radioimmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA) buffer	ThermoFisher	CAT# 89900
cOmplete™ Protease Inhibitor Cocktail	Roche	CAT# 11697498001
PhosSTOP™ Phosphatase Inhibitor	Roche	CAT# 4906845001
Lithium Dodecyl Sulfate (LDS) buffer	ThermoFisher	CAT# NP0007
Sample Reducing Agent	ThermoFisher	CAT# NP0004
Bis-Tris Mini Protein Gels, 4–12%	ThermoFisher	CAT# NP0322
MOPS SDS Running Buffer	ThermoFisher	CAT# NP0001
Protran 0.45 NC nitrocellulose Western blotting membranes	Cytiva	CAT# 10600007
NuPAGE™ Transfer Buffer	ThermoFisher	CAT# NP00061
Skimmed milk powder	VWR	CAT#84615.0500
Tris-buffered saline	Merck	CAT#524750

Tween20	Scientific Laboratory Supplies	CAT#CHE3852
SuperSignal™ West Pico PLUS Chemiluminescent Substrate	ThermoFisher	CAT# 34580
TRIzol	Invitrogen	CAT# 12044977
Chloroform	ThermoFisher	CAT# J67241.K2
Molecular grade ethanol	Fisher Scientific	CAT#BP2818-212
RNase-Free Water	Qiagen	CAT# 129112
Nuclease-Free Water	Qiagen	CAT# 129117
SYBR™ Green Universal Master Mix	ThermoFisher	CAT# 43-091-55
Critical Commercial Assays		
Bicinchoninic Acid (BCA) Assay Kit	ThermoFisher	CAT# 23225
RNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen	CAT# 74104
Tetro™ cDNA Synthesis Kit	Bioline	CAT# BIO65043
Experimental Models: Organisms/Strains		
Sprague-Dawley rat	Inotiv	CAT# 002
Oligonucleotides		
Primers for quantitative reverse-transcription PCR (RT-qPCR)	Supplemental materials Table S2	Supplemental materials Table S2
Software and Algorithms		
FIJI	FIJI	https://fiji.sc/
Image processing macro: Percentage coverage of blood vessels	This paper	https://github.com/Dr-ben-hewitt/OBSC-quantification-macros
Image processing macro: Intensity per unit area	This paper	https://github.com/Dr-ben-hewitt/OBSC-quantification-macros
Galaxy	Galaxy	https://usegalaxy.org/
GraphPad Prism 10.3	Graphpad	https://www.graphpad.com/scientific-software/prism
QBase+	CellCarta	https://cellcarta.com/genomic-data-analysis/
Zen 3.1	Zeiss	https://www.zeiss.com/microscopy/en/products/software/zeiss-zen.html
GeneSys / GeneTools	SynGene	https://www.syngene.com/software/

10. <u>**Figures**</u>

Figure 1 – Steps in the generation of adult rat brain OBSCs. A) Sacrifice and brain
removal, B) Removal of olfactory bulbs and cerebellum, including production of a flat edge
on the caudal aspect of the cerebrum, C) Mounting of brain (caudal face down) onto
vibratome chuck with cyanoacrylate glue, D) Vibratome slicing of brain (250 µM sections, 80
Hz, 1.25 mm amplitude), E) Brain slices added to 6-well cell culture inserts, F) Media
removed to bring brain slice to air-liquid interface.

Figure 2 – Distribution and intensity of CCP3 throughout control and cultured OBSCs.
A) Representative immunofluorescent staining of OBSCs (CCP3, green and DAPI, blue) at 0
3 and 7 days *in vitro* (scale bar = 1,000 µm). Magnified regions of the cortex of section are
shown in insets 'i', 'ii' and 'iii' for DIV0, 3 and 7 respectively (scale bar = 100 µm for all).

Quantification of mean CCP3-stained pixel intensity per unit area in the cortex was also
performed (B). Each image quantification datapoint is mean of 6 regions of interest from 2
brain slices per animal (3 regions per slice), ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test (all to all). ns = not significant, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$. $N = 4$
animals, $\alpha = 0.05$.

Figure 3 - Immunofluorescent staining of neurons and astrocytes in OBSCs after 0, 3 and 7 days *in* vitro (DIV). Representative immunofluorescent staining of A) NeuN (neuronal cell marker) and C) GFAP (astrocyte marker) shown in red, with DAPI nuclear counterstain in blue (scale bars = 1,000 μm). Magnified regions of the cortex of section are shown in insets 'i', 'ii' and 'iii' for DIV0, 3 and 7 respectively (scale bars = 100 μm in insets), in addition to quantification of the mean pixel value per unit area for these regions in insets B) NeuN quantification in cortex, D) GFAP quantification in cortex. Each datapoint is the mean of 3 regions of interest per brain slice, ±SEM. All statistics were performed with

689 one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (all to control). ns = not
690 significant, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$, **** $P < 0.0001$. $N = 4$ animals, $\alpha = 0.05$.

694
Figure 4 - Immunofluorescent staining of microglia in OBSCs after 0, 3 and 7 days *in*
***vitro* (DIV).** Representative immunofluorescent staining of IBA1 shown in red (scale bars =
1000 μm). Magnified regions of the cortex of section are shown in insets 'i', 'ii' and 'iii' for
DIV0, 3 and 7 respectively, in addition to quantification of the mean pixel value per unit area
(scale bars = 100 μm in insets). Each datapoint is the mean of 3 regions of interest per brain
slice, ±SEM. All statistics were performed with one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple
comparisons test (all to control). ns = not significant, * $P < 0.05$. $N = 4$ animals, $\alpha = 0.05$.

703
Figure 5 - Immunofluorescent staining of smooth muscle cells, pericytes and endothelial
cells in OBSCs after 0, 3 and 7 days *in* vitro (DIV). Representative immunofluorescent
staining of A) αSMA (alpha smooth muscle actin) and C) rat endothelial cell antigen 1
(RECA-1) shown in red (scale bars = 1,000 μm). Magnified regions of the cortex of section
are shown in insets 'i', 'ii' and 'iii' for DIV0, 3 and 7 respectively (scale bars = 100 μm in
insets), in addition to quantification of the mean pixel value per unit area for these regions B)
αSMA quantification, D) RECA1 quantification. Each datapoint is mean of 3 regions of
interest per brain slice, ±SEM. All statistics were performed with one-way ANOVA with
Dunnett's multiple comparisons test (all to control). ns = not significant, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P <$
0.001, **** $P < 0.0001$. $N = 4$ animals, $α = 0.05$.

Figure 6 – Localisation and quantification of fibronectin in blood-exposed OBSCs.
OBSCs were generated and cultured either for 0 or 7 days, after which they were exposed
either to PBS (control) or the same volume of lysed blood for 48 hours. OBSCs were then
fixed and stained for RECA1 (red) and fibronectin (green). Representative images of whole
hemispheres are shown (A – acute, E – 7 day pre-cultured, scale bars = 1,000 μm). Insets
show magnified regions of the cortex (i) (scale bars = 100 μm). Quantification of the
percentage coverage of fibronectin on RECA1-stained vessels was performed (B, F).
Fibronectin protein expression at 24 and 48 hours of blood exposure was also assessed by
Western blot (D, H), followed by quantification of fibronectin fold-change (C, G). Each
image quantification datapoint is the mean of three regions of interest from one brain slice
per animal, ± SEM. All statistics were performed with one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test (all to control). ns = not significant, N = 3 animals, α = 0.05.
726

 Figure 7 - Localisation and quantification of collagen IV in blood-exposed OBSCs.
OBSCs were generated and cultured either for 0 or 7 days, after which they were exposed
either to PBS (control) or the same volume of lysed blood for 48 hours. OBSCs were then
fixed and stained for RECA1 (red) and collagen IV (green). Representative images of whole
hemispheres are shown (A – acute, C – 7 day pre-cultured, scale bars = 1,000 µm). Insets
show magnified regions of the cortex (i) (scale bars = 100 µm). Quantification of the
percentage coverage of collagen IV on RECA1-stained vessels was performed (B, D). Each
image quantification datapoint is the mean of three regions of interest from one brain slice
per animal, ± SEM. All statistics were performed with one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's
multiple comparisons test (all to control). ns = not significant, $N = 3$ animals, $\alpha = 0.05$.
737

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Figure 8 - Volcano plots and heatmap of top 25 most differentially expressed genes
(DEGs) in control and blood-treated OBSCs. Volcano plots set with a fold change
threshold >2 (A) and >1.5 (B) (with fold change thresholds depicted by dotted vertical lines),
showing upregulated DEGs (*pAdj* < 0.05) in red and downregulated DEGs in blue. Z-scores
for top 25 most up- and down-regulated DEGs (ranked by $\log_2$ fold change) are visualised via
heatmap (C), with upregulated genes shown in red and downregulated genes in blue.

Figure 9 - RT-qPCR validation of RNA-sequencing. Top 6 downregulated (lower expression in blood-exposed samples) and top 6 upregulated (higher expression in blood-exposed samples). All statistical analyses were performed with unpaired t-tests. ns = not significant, ns = not significant, * P < 0.05, ** P < 0.01, *** P < 0.001, **** P < 0.0001, N = 3, α = 0.05.

751
Figure 10 – Gene ontology (GO) for control and blood-treated OBSC, with DEGs from
selected GO terms within each family. A, D, G) Biological process, cellular component and
molecular function GO families depicted with the top 10 most significant overrepresented CC
GO terms shown as a bubble plot. The colour scale depicts adjusted p-value (*padj*) and
bubble size represents the number of differentially expressed genes included in the respective
category. Gene ratio of 1 = all genes in the GO category are DE, whilst 0 = none. B, C, E, F,

H, I) Heatmaps of Z-score of DEGs with FC>2 or <0.5 within selected significantly over-
represented GO terms 'inflammatory response', 'response to oxidative stress', 'extracellular
matrix', 'collagen containing extracellular matrix', 'signalling receptor binding' and
'cytokine activity' respectively.
762