Suppression of transcytosis regulates zebrafish blood-brain barrier development

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Abstract:

As an optically transparent model organism with an endothelial blood-brain barrier (BBB), zebrafish offer a powerful tool to study the vertebrate BBB. However, the precise developmental profile of functional zebrafish BBB acquisition and the subcellular and molecular mechanisms governing the zebrafish BBB remain poorly characterized. Here we find a spatiotemporal gradient of barrier acquisition. Moreover, we capture the dynamics of developmental BBB leakage using live imaging, revealing a combination of steady accumulation in the parenchyma and sporadic bursts of tracer leakage. Electron microscopy studies further reveal that this steady accumulation results from high levels of transcytosis that are eventually suppressed, sealing the BBB. Finally, we demonstrate a key mammalian BBB regulator Mfsd2a, which inhibits transcytosis, plays a conserved role in zebrafish. *Mfsd2aa* mutants display increased larval and adult BBB permeability due to increased transcytosis. Our findings indicate a conserved developmental program of barrier acquisition between zebrafish and mice.

Introduction

Blood vessels in the vertebrate brain are composed of a single layer of endothelial cells that possess distinct functional properties that allow the passage of necessary nutrients yet prevent unwanted entry of specific toxins and pathogens into the brain. This specialized endothelial layer forms the blood-brain barrier (BBB) and restricts the passage of substances between the blood and the brain parenchyma via two primary mechanisms: 1) specialized tight junction complexes between apposed endothelial cells to prevent intercellular transit (Reese and Karnovsky, 1967; Brightman and Reese, 1969) and 2) suppressing vesicular trafficking or transcytosis to prevent transcellular transit (Ben-Zvi et al., 2014; Andreone et al., 2015; Andreone et al., 2017). BBB selectivity is further refined with expression of substrate-specific transporters that dynamically regulate the influx of necessary nutrients and efflux of metabolic waste products (Sanchez-Covarrubias et al., 2014; Umans et al., 2017). While the BBB is comprised of endothelial cells, the surrounding perivascular cells including pericytes and astroglial cells, play a critical role in forming and maintaining barrier properties (Janzer and Raff, 1987; Armulik et al., 2010; Bell et al., 2010; Daneman et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2014). Collectively, endothelial cells and the surrounding perivascular cells form the neurovascular unit.

As the simplest genetic model organism with an endothelial BBB (Jeong et al., 2008), zebrafish offer a powerful tool to study the cellular and molecular properties of the vertebrate BBB (Xie et al., 2010; Vanhollebeke et al., 2015; Umans et al., 2017; O'Brown et al., 2018; Quiñonez-Silvero et al., 2019). Zebrafish have served as a great model system to study vascular biology due to their large clutch size, rapid and external development, and transparency for *in vivo* whole organism live-imaging (Lawson and Weinstein, 2002; Jin et al., 2005; Santoro et al., 2007; Armer et al., 2009; Herbert et al., 2009; Phng et al., 2009; Geudens et al., 2010; Herbert et al., 2012; Wilkinson and van Eeden, 2014; Franco et al., 2015; Vanhollebeke et al., 2015; Matsuoka et al., 2016; Ulrich et al., 2016; Galanternik et al., 2017; Stratman et al., 2017; Geudens et al., 2018).

Additionally, with the advent of CRISPR-Cas9 technology, zebrafish provide an efficient genetic

toolkit for targeted mutagenesis (Hwang et al., 2013; Gagnon et al., 2014; Ablain et al., 2015;

Varshney et al., 2015; Albadri et al., 2017; Hogan and Schulte-Merker, 2017). However, the

subcellular and molecular mechanisms governing the formation and maintenance of the zebrafish

BBB remain poorly characterized. Expanding our understanding of the zebrafish BBB can thus

reveal the mechanistic similarities between the zebrafish and mammalian BBB to further elevate

the position of zebrafish as a model organism for studying the BBB.

Barrier properties of brain endothelial cells are induced by extrinsic signals from other cells in the

surrounding microenvironment during development (Stewart and Wiley, 1981). In rodents, the

BBB becomes functionally sealed in a spatiotemporal gradient, with the hindbrain and midbrain

barriers becoming functional before the cortical barrier (Daneman et al., 2010; Ben-Zvi et al.,

2014; Sohet et al., 2015). Within the cortex, barrier function is acquired along a ventral-lateral to

dorsal-medial gradient (Ben-Zvi et al., 2014). In the zebrafish, existing studies have disagreed

over the timing of zebrafish barrier formation, with some suggesting that BBB maturation occurs

at 3 days post fertilization (dpf) (Jeong et al., 2008; Umans et al., 2017) and others providing a

wide range beginning at 3 dpf and extending to 10 dpf (Fleming et al., 2013). These conflicting

reports may be due to regional developmental gradients of barrier acquisition or differences in the

experimental approaches used to assess BBB permeability such as the molecular weight of

tracers and circulation time. To date, a thorough regional characterization of functional barrier

acquisition has been lacking in zebrafish.

Recent work in the mammalian blood-retinal barrier has indicated that suppression of transcytosis

governs functional barrier development (Chow and Gu, 2017). Interestingly endothelial cells at

the leaky neonatal angiogenic front possess functional tight junction complexes halting the

intercellular passage of the tracer protein Horseradish Peroxidase (HRP) at the so-called "kissing

points". In contrast, these endothelial cells exhibit high levels of HRP-filled vesicles compared to

functionally sealed proximal vessels. Moreover, these areas of elevated vesicular trafficking

continue to correspond with barrier permeability at the angiogenic front until the barrier seals

(Chow and Gu, 2017). Work in the mouse BBB has also demonstrated the importance of

suppressing transcytosis in determining barrier permeability. Mice lacking the major facilitator

super family domain containing 2a (Mfsd2a) lipid transporter exhibit increased levels of caveolae

vesicles in CNS endothelial cells, resulting in increased barrier permeability (Ben-Zvi et al., 2014;

Andreone et al., 2017). The subcellular and molecular mechanisms of zebrafish BBB acquisition

have yet to be elucidated.

Here in zebrafish, we find a spatiotemporal gradient of barrier acquisition, and capture the

dynamics of developmental BBB leakage using time lapse live imaging. We further find a

conserved role for transcytosis suppression in determining barrier properties, both during normal

development and in *mfsd2aa* mutants.

Results

Posterior-Anterior Gradient of Zebrafish BBB Development

To determine when and how the zebrafish BBB becomes functional in different brain regions, we

performed intracardiac injections of fluorescently-conjugated tracers (1 kDa NHS and 10 kDa

Dextran) simultaneously at different developmental stages and imaged live fish after one hour of

tracer circulation (Figure 1A and 1B). We used a combination of different molecular weight tracers

to tease apart potential avenues of leakage, as tight junctional defects result specifically in the

leakage of low molecular weight tracers 1 kDa and below into the brain parenchyma (Nitta et al.,

2003; Campbell et al. 2008; Sohet et al., 2015; Yanagida et al. 2017). At 3 dpf, we observed a

sealed barrier in the hindbrain as previously described (Jeong et al., 2008), with only a few of the

parenchymal cells taking up the injected tracer (average of 2 ± 0.3 cells/embryo with NHS and 2

$\pm$ 0.4 cells/embryo with Dextran; Figure 1 – Supplement 1), which we quantify as a proxy of tracer

leakage into the brain. However, in the midbrain we observed an increased number of

parenchymal cells that accumulated the circulating tracers (average of 24 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo with

NHS and 24 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo with Dextran; Figure 1C and 1D), indicating that the tracers leaked

out of the blood vessels into the brain and that the midbrain barrier is not yet functional. In addition

to the use of exogenous injected fluorescent tracers, we also assayed BBB permeability with an

endogenous transgenic serum DBP-EGFP fusion protein (Tg(*l-fabp:DBP-EGFP*)) to account for

injection artifacts (Xie et al., 2010). At 3 dpf, we observed similar leakage patterns with the

transgenic serum protein as we did with the injected tracers (average of 24 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo in

the midbrain and average of 2 $\pm$ 0.4 cells/embryo in the hindbrain; Figure 1C and D; Figure 1 –

Supplement 1). At 4 dpf, the BBB in the hindbrain is completely functional with few tracer-filled

parenchymal cells (average of 3 $\pm$ 0.4 cells/embryo with NHS, 2 $\pm$ 0.4 cells/embryo with Dextran

and DBP-EGFP; Figure 1 – Supplement 1). However, the midbrain BBB remains leaky (average

of 23 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo with NHS and DBP-EGFP and 24 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo with Dextran; p=0.68

compared to 3 dpf, one-way ANOVA; Figure 1C and 1D). However, at 5 dpf the number of

midbrain parenchymal cells that uptake the tracers is dramatically reduced (average of 9 $\pm$ 1

cells/embryo with NHS, Dextran, and DBP-EGFP; p<0.0001, one-way ANOVA; Figure 1B and

1C) and no change was observed in the hindbrain (Figure 1 – Supplement 1). No significant

change was observed in midbrain permeability from 5 to 6 dpf (average of 8 $\pm$ 1 cells/embryo with

NHS, Dextran, and DBP-EGFP; p=0.904, one-way ANOVA; Figure 1C and 1D), indicating that

the midbrain barrier becomes sealed at 5 dpf. We did not assay the forebrain at any of these

stages due to the fact that it remains avascularized until 5 dpf. Of note, all three tracers showed

nearly indistinguishable patterns of uptake, with similar numbers of cells and many of the same

cells simultaneously taking up both injected tracers (Figure 1; Figure 1 – Supplement), suggesting

that the leakage is not due to tight junctional defects but may rather be due to an increase in

vesicular trafficking.

Time lapse Imaging Reveals Two Modes of Developmental Leakage

The vast majority of studies interrogating BBB permeability have relied on observing leakage in

fixed static images from mutant mice, which does not reveal the dynamic nature of the BBB. A

huge advantage of zebrafish is the ability to examine biological processes *in vivo* in real-time,

providing us with the unique opportunity to observe the process of BBB maturation (Figure 1). To

examine the developmental dynamics of barrier leakage, we injected embryos at 3 dpf with

fluorescently-labeled 10 kDa Dextran and performed time lapse live imaging for an hour following

injection, with time 0 being an average of 8 minutes post-injection. We observed a gradual and

diffuse increase in extravascular Dextran intensity over time within the brain parenchyma (slope

of 1.301e-4 intensity/sec; Videos 1 and 2; Figure 2A, 2C and 2E). In addition to the time-

dependent increase in overall Dextran intensity in the brain parenchyma, we also observed

parenchymal cells taking up tracer, both directly adjacent to blood vessels and at a small distance

away (Figure 2A and 2C), as in the static images of tracer leakage during development (Figure

1). Interestingly, at 3 dpf we observed an actively sprouting cell that extended away from the

established vessel in a sporadic fashion (Video 2; Figure 2A). After twenty minutes of rambling

migration, this sprout suddenly released a large bolus of Dextran that appeared to be taken up by

a single parenchymal cell. Two minutes later, this same sprout released a second bolus of Dextran

on the opposite side (Video 2). These rare large bursts of leakage were not unique to this sprout;

they were also sporadically observed from established blood vessels (Video 1; Figure 2A). This

data revealed two types of leakage occurring during this early developmental stage: steady and

diffuse Dextran leakage into the parenchyma that makes up the vast majority of observed leakage

and rare large bursts of leakage. When we performed these same time lapse experiments at 5

dpf, we observed significantly less overall tracer accumulation in the brain parenchyma over the

course of the hour in addition to reduced rates of tracer accumulation (slope of 4.641e-5

intensity/sec; Video 3; p<0.001, Mann-Whitney test; Figure 2B, 2D and 2E). Furthermore, 5 dpf

fish never exhibited bursts of tracer leakage as observed at 3 dpf. Overall, 5 dpf fish had far fewer

parenchymal cells filling with Dextran than at 3 dpf, as observed in the static tracer leakage assays

(Figure 1). We interpret these data to suggest that at early stages, most tracer leakage occurs

broadly through vessel walls potentially via unrestricted transcytosis with an occasional transient

rupture to endothelial integrity that lead to these large bursts of leakage. Once tracer is leaked

into the intercellular space of the parenchyma it is taken up by select parenchymal cells. As the

BBB matures both sources of leakage sharply decrease.

Suppression of Transcytosis Governs BBB Development

Given the observed differences in permeability during larval development, we next sought to

determine the subcellular mechanisms underlying the development of a functional BBB.

Therefore, we assessed BBB properties by performing intracardiac injections of electron-dense

NHS-gold nanoparticles (5 nm) followed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) at different

developmental stages when the midbrain barrier is leaky (3 dpf) and when it is functionally sealed

to fluorescent tracers (5 and 7 dpf; Figure 3). All of the blood vessels analyzed had a maximal

diameter of 5 µm to enrich for capillaries and small veins. At 3 dpf, we found blood vessels in

direct contact with neurons and pericytes, with the pericytes sharing the endothelial basement

membrane (Figure 3A), as in the mammalian neurovascular unit. During this leaky developmental

stage, the endothelial basement membrane was filled with the electron-dense gold nanoparticles

(Figure 3A and 3B; turquoise arrowheads) with an average gold intensity of 1.29 ± 0.07 (luminal

gold intensity normalized to 1.0; Figure 3G), further demonstrating that the BBB is immature at 3

dpf. To decipher how the gold nanoparticles traverse from the lumen to the basement membrane,

we first looked at the tight junctions to see if the nanoparticles passed between apposed

endothelial cells. After careful examination, we observed that the nanoparticles were halted at the

"kissing points" between endothelial cells, indicating that tight junctions were functional prior to

formation of a functional BBB (49/49 functional tight junctions; Figure 3B; green arrowhead). As

transcytosis has been implicated in the maturation of the blood-retinal barrier (Chow and Gu,

2017), we next examined the levels of luminal and abluminal flask-shaped vesicles filled with gold

nanoparticles as a means of assessing transcytosis. Quantification of gold-filled luminal and

abluminal flask-shaped vesicles revealed an average of 0.21 ± 0.03 and 0.17 ± 0.02 vesicles/µm,

respectively (Figure 3H and 3I). These data reveal that the basement membrane becomes filled

with gold nanoparticles via vesicular transport rather than intercellular passage between immature

tight junctions.

When we repeated this assay at 5 dpf, when the barrier becomes less permeable to fluorescently

conjugated tracers (Figures 1 and 2), we still observe close contacts between endothelial cells

and pericytes (Figure 3C). At 5 dpf, the basement membrane was noticeably lacking gold particles

as compared to 3 dpf (Figure 3D), with a reduced average gold intensity of 0.85 ± 0.02 (Figure

3G). Like at 3 dpf, the tight junctions remained functional at 5 dpf, based on their capacity to halt

gold nanoparticles at the kissing points between neighboring endothelial cells (76/76 functional

tight junctions; Figure 3D). However, the levels of vesicles both luminally and abluminally were

notably decreased to 0.08 ± 0.01 and 0.07 ± 0.01 vesicles/µm, respectively ($p<0.001$ (luminal)

and $p<0.0001$ (abluminal), nested one-way ANOVA; Figure 3H and 3I). At 7 dpf the neurovascular

cellular interactions remained constant with endothelial cells in close contact with pericytes and

neurons, and with an unfilled basement membrane (average gold intensity of 0.91 ± 0.02; Figure

3E and 3G). Importantly, the tight junctions remained functional (51/51 functional tight junctions),

and the low vesicular densities observed at 5 dpf remained comparably low at 7 dpf with $0.07 \pm$

0.01 vesicles/µm, both luminally and abluminally (Figure 3F, 3H and 3I). Taken together with the

fluorescent tracer data, our data suggests that the zebrafish BBB becomes functional at 5 dpf via

suppression of vesicular trafficking.

Conserved Role of Mfsd2a in Determining BBB Function

Given the important role of suppressing transcytosis in determining the developmental maturation

of the zebrafish BBB, we wondered whether the key mammalian barrier regulator Mfsd2a, which

suppresses caveolae mediated transcytosis (Ben-Zvi et al., 2014; Andreone et al., 2017), plays a

conserved role in zebrafish. Zebrafish contain two paralogues of *Mfsd2a*, *mfsd2aa* and *mfsd2ab*.

Mfsd2aa is 61% identical to human *MFSD2A* and 62% identical to mouse *Mfsd2a* (Figure 4 –

Supplement 1A). *Mfsd2ab*, on the other hand, is 64% identical to human *MFSD2A* and mouse

Mfsd2a (Figure 4 – Supplement 1A). The two paralogues are only 68% identical to each other,

but they both contain the lipid binding domain that is critical for governing barrier properties (Figure

4 – Supplement 1A; Andreone et al., 2017). Given the lack of a clear paralogue that most closely

resembles *Mfsd2a*, we generated CRISPR mutants for both paralogues independently.

Mfsd2aa^{hm37/hm37} mutants have a 7 bp deletion in exon 2 (Figure 4 – Supplement 1B) that is

predicted to lead to a premature stop codon at amino acid 82 (Figure 4 – Supplement 1A; black

box). Homozygous *mfsd2aa* mutants are viable and fertile. *Mfsd2ab^{hm38/hm38}* mutants have a 19

bp deletion in exon 5 (Figure 4 – Supplement 1B) that is predicted to lead to a premature stop

codon at amino acid 175 (Figure 4 – Supplement 1A; black box). Homozygous *mfsd2ab* mutants

are also viable and fertile. Neither mutant displayed obvious angiogenic defects, similar to the

normal vasculature observed in mouse *Mfsd2a* mutants (Ben-Zvi et al., 2014).

To investigate whether either paralogue was necessary for barrier formation, we performed NHS

tracer injection assays as we did to identify the developmental timeline of barrier formation and

assayed for midbrain leakage at 5 dpf. In addition to the use of the exogenous injected fluorescent

tracer (1 kDa NHS), we also assayed the leakage of the endogenous transgenic serum DBP-

EGFP fusion protein (Tg(*l-fabp:DBP-EGFP*)). *Mfsd2aa* mutants displayed about a two-fold

increase in midbrain tracer-containing parenchymal cells, both for the injected 1 kDa NHS and

the endogenous serum transgene 80 kDa DBP-EGFP, at 5 dpf compared to wildtype sibling

controls (Figure 4). These data suggest that mfsd2aa plays a similar role to mouse Mfsd2a in

determining barrier properties. Conversely, *mfsd2ab* mutants displayed similarly low levels of

tracer-containing parenchymal cells to wildtype controls at 5 dpf in the midbrain (Figure 4 -

Supplement 2), indicating that mfsd2ab is dispensable for functional barrier formation. To see if

the loss of both paralogues resulted in increased barrier permeability, we investigated

mfsd2aa^{hm37/hm37}; mfsd2ab^{hm38/hm38} double mutants for BBB permeability using the endogenous

serum DBP-EGFP fusion protein (Figure 4 - Supplement 3). While *mfsd2aa* single mutants

displayed the previously observed increase in barrier permeability and *mfsd2ab* single mutants

did not, *mfsd2aa^{hm37/hm37}; mfsd2ab^{hm38/hm38}* double mutants displayed similar levels of increased

barrier permeability to the *mfsd2aa* single mutants (Figure 4 - Supplement 3). Taken together,

these data suggest that the two paralogues, while structurally similar, play different roles, with

zebrafish mfsd2aa and mammalian Mfsd2a sharing a conserved role in determining barrier

permeability.

Given the leakage phenotype in *mfsd2aa* mutants at 5 dpf, we next wanted to examine whether

the leakage phenotype persisted into adulthood. To address this, we performed retro-orbital

injections of HRP, which has been shown to be confined within the adult zebrafish brain

vasculature (Jeong et al., 2008), and allowed the HRP to circulate for 30 minutes. As expected,

the wildtype siblings retained the HRP within their blood vessels (Figure 5A). However, *mfsd2aa*

mutants exhibited HRP extravasation into the brain parenchyma (Figure 5B), suggesting that the

leakage phenotype was not limited to larval fish. Finally, to determine whether this increased

permeability was due to increased transcytosis as in *Mfsd2a* knockout mice, we measured

vesicular density in capillaries with luminal diameters less than 5 μm from adult mutant and

wildtype siblings using TEM. The *mfsd2aa* mutant blood vessels appeared morphologically

normal by TEM, composed of a thin single layer of endothelial cells in close contact with pericytes,

as observed in their wildtype siblings (Figure 5C and 5D). A closer examination of the endothelial

cells revealed electron-dense tight junction complexes between all apposed endothelial cells in

both wildtype and *mfsd2aa* mutant fish (Figure 5E and 5F). However, while wildtype fish display

similarly low levels of luminal (0.1 vesicles/μm) and abluminal (0.11 vesicles/μm) vesicular

densities to those observed at 7 dpf (Figure 5E- 5H), *mfsd2aa* mutant fish display a significant

increase in luminal and abluminal vesicular densities (0.29 and 0.27 vesicles/μm, respectively)

compared to wildtype siblings (Figure 5E-5H). Interestingly this increase in vesicular abundance

is even higher than that observed during early barrier development at 3 dpf (Figure 2). These data

also suggest that the increased tracer leakage observed in *mfsd2aa* mutants results from an

increase in vesicular trafficking across the BBB, further supporting a conserved role for mfsd2aa

in determining barrier properties. In contrast to *mfsd2aa* mutants, *mfsd2ab* mutants displayed

similar levels of abluminal and luminal vesicular pit density to wildtype siblings (Figure 5 -

Supplement 1), further demonstrating that the paralog *mfsd2ab* does not play a conserved role in

determining barrier properties in zebrafish.

Discussion

One of the major advantages to studying the BBB in zebrafish is the ability to perform live imaging

of tracer permeability dynamics. We provide some of the first data on the dynamics of immature

barrier leakage. At 3 dpf, we observed two types of leakage, the gradual overall increase in the

parenchyma and rare transient bursts, both from a migrating sprout and established blood

vessels. We attribute the gradual diffuse increase in parenchymal tracer uptake to the high levels

of vesicular trafficking observed in our TEM analyses in which the endothelial basement

membrane became filled with gold nanoparticles. Therefore, the parenchymal Dextran intensity

measurements provide a direct proxy for the rates of BBB transcytosis *in vivo*. The rarer bursts of

leakage, on the other hand, could be due to fleeting tight junctional ruptures between neighboring

endothelial cells rather than increased vesicular trafficking. As these events were extremely

scarce during our time lapse imaging, it would be nearly impossible to capture these potential

junctional breaches by TEM to confirm this hypothesis. However, with continuing advances in the

resolution of fluorescence microscopy, we could use zebrafish to resolve whether these two types

of leakage, gradual and bursting, proceed through the same or different subcellular routes into

the brain parenchyma, either paracellularly or transcellularly.

Among the various clathrin-independent transcytotic pathways (Tuma and Hubbard, 2003;

Sandvig et al., 2018), caveolae are particularly abundant in vascular endothelial cells (Frank et

al., 2003). Caveolae are caveolin-coated 50-100 nm flask-shaped invaginations of the plasma

membrane (Palade, 1953; Palade, 1961). Furthermore, the suppression of caveolae-mediated

transcytosis regulates the development and function of both the mouse blood-retinal barrier and

the BBB (Andreone et al., 2017; Chow and Gu, 2017). Taken together, this suggests that the

increased transcytosis during early larval stages is most likely caveolae mediated. Interestingly,

the linear profile of Dextran uptake in the midbrain at 3 dpf closely resembles the caveolae-

mediated uptake of a fluorescently-conjugated aminopeptidase P (APP) antibody in the mouse

lung (Oh et al., 2007). While similarly linear, the scale is on the order of minutes in the larval

zebrafish brain versus seconds in the mouse lung. This discrepancy in timing is most likely due

to the large difference in the vesicular densities between the immature BBB endothelium (average

of 2 vesicles/μm^2) and the continuous endothelium of peripheral tissues, which ranges from 30 to

98 vesicles/μm^2 on the luminal membrane of diaphragm and myocardial endothelium (Simionescu

et al., 1974). Since loss of caveolin 1 is sufficient to precociously seal the blood-retinal barrier at

the angiogenic front (Chow and Gu, 2017), it would be interesting in future work to examine

whether zebrafish caveolin 1 mutants (Cao et al., 2016), which are viable as homozygotes, also

exhibit an earlier onset of BBB maturation.

BBB permeability is tightly regulated by endothelial cell interactions with pericytes and astroglial

cells. For the first time, we visualized their locations under TEM in zebrafish throughout barrier

development. Pericytes have been shown to be essential for establishing the mammalian BBB

(Armulik et al., 2010; Bell et al., 2010; Daneman et al., 2010). Similarly, pericyte deficient

notch3[fh332] fish display increased BBB permeability in a tight junction independent manner like

pericyte-deficient mice (Wang et al., 2014). Our TEM data show that zebrafish pericytes are in

close contact with brain endothelial cells (Figures 2 and 5), even at the earliest stage examined

(3 dpf; Figure 2), and are embedded within the endothelial basement membrane as in mammals.

Our subcellular localization data is in line with a growing body of evidence for the conserved role

of pericytes in the zebrafish BBB (Wang et al., 2014; Lei et al., 2017). While zebrafish lack stellate

astrocytes, they possess radial glia that express several astrocytic markers, such as Gfap,

glutamine synthetase (GS), and Aqp4 (Jeong et al., 2008; Grupp et al., 2010). Previous studies

have disagreed on the extent of radial glia interactions with BBB endothelial cells in zebrafish.

Some studies report glia-BBB interactions that are similar to those observed in mammals (Jeong

et al., 2008), while others report little to no interaction (Grupp et al., 2010). Our TEM data in adult

zebrafish do not find a necessity for glial interactions with the brain vasculature, with endothelial

cells occasionally in contact with electron-light glia (Figure 5B), but often not (Figure 5A). This

appears to be a unique feature of the zebrafish BBB and should be considered carefully when

using zebrafish as a model system for the BBB.

Taken together this study provides a thorough characterization of the development of the

zebrafish BBB, highlighting regional differences in timing of maturation and capturing the

dynamics of the immature BBB. Furthermore, our developmental TEM series provides the first

direct evidence of vesicular trafficking regulating zebrafish BBB development. Finally, we have

shown that this down-regulation of vesicular trafficking is necessary for BBB formation, as

mfsd2aa mutants display increased barrier permeability due to unsuppressed transcytosis. We

hope that this work will serve as a launching pad for future studies using zebrafish to understand

the molecular regulators of BBB development and homeostasis in vertebrates.

Author Contributions

N.M.O., S.G.M. and C.G. conceived the project and designed experiments. N.M.O. performed all

experiments and analyzed all data. N.M.O., S.G.M. and C.G wrote the manuscript.

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Materials and Methods

Zebrafish Strains and Maintenance

Zebrafish were maintained at 28.5°C following standard protocols (Westerfield, 1993). All

zebrafish work was approved by the Harvard Medical Area Standing Committee on Animals under

protocol number 04487. Adult fish were maintained on a standard light-dark cycle from 9 am to

11 pm. Adult fish, age 3 months to 2 years, were crossed to produce embryos and larvae. These

studies used the AB wildtype strain and the transgenic strains Tg(*l-fabp:DBP-EGFP),*

Tg(*kdrl:mCherry*), and Tg(*kdrl:HRAS-mCherry*).

Tracer Injections

Larvae were immobilized with tricaine and placed in an agarose injection mold with their hearts

facing upwards. 2.3 nl of Alexa Fluor 405 NHS Ester (Thermo Fisher: A30000) or Alexa Fluor 647

10 kDa Dextran (Thermo Fisher:D22914) fluorescently conjugated tracers (10 mg/ml) were

injected into the cardiac sac using Nanoject II (Drummond Scientific, Broomall, PA). Embryos

were then mounted with 1.5% low gelling agarose (Sigma: A9414) in embryo water on 0.17 mm

coverslips and imaged live within 2 hours post injection. For developmental electron microscopy

experiments, 2.3 nl of 5 nm NHS-activated gold nanoparticles (Cytodiagnostics: CGN5K-5-1,

~1.1^{14} particles/ml in PBS) were injected into the cardiac sac just as for the fluorescently

conjugated tracers. After 5 minutes of circulation, the fish were fixed for electron microscopy.

Adults were briefly immobilized with tricaine and retroorbitally injected with 3 µl of HRP (2 mg/ml

dissolved in PBS) using a 10 µl Hamilton syringe. After 30 minutes of HRP circulation, the brains

were fixed in 4% PFA overnight at 4C. Following fixation the brains were washed three times and

sectioned coronally with a vibratome (50 µm). Sections were then stained at room temperature in

0.05 M Tris-HCl pH 7.6 buffer containing 0.5 mg/ml 3-39 diaminobenzidine (DAB, Sigma Aldrich)

and 0.01% hydrogen peroxide.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

Fish were anesthetized with tricaine and initially fixed by immersion in 4% paraformaldehyde (VWR:15713-S) /0.1M sodium-cacodylate (VWR:11653). Following this initial fixation, the larval fish and adults with exposed brains were further fixed for 7-14 days in 2% glutaraldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences: 16320)/ 4% paraformaldehyde/ 0.1M sodium-cacodylate at room temperature. Following fixation, larvae or dissected brains were washed overnight in 0.1M sodium-cacodylate. Entire larval heads or coronal vibratome free-floating sections of adult brains (50 μm) were post-fixed in 1% osmium tetroxide and 1.5% potassium ferrocyanide, dehydrated, and embedded in epoxy resin. Ultrathin sections of 80 nm were then cut from the block surface and collected on copper grids. The adult sections were counter-stained with Reynold's lead citrate prior to imaging.

CRISPR Mutants

Mfsd2aa mutant fish were generated by injection of Cas9 RNA and a single guide RNA (5'-GGTGTGTTTTGCGATCGGAG-3') targeting exon 3 into single-cell fertilized wildtype embryos. *Mfsd2ab* mutant fish were generated by injection of Cas9 protein and a single guide RNA (5'-TGAGAGCAGAGTAGGGCACG-3') targeting exon 5 into single-cell fertilized double transgenic Tg(*l-fabp:DBP-EGFP; kdrl:mCherry)* embryos. F0 injected fish were raised, outcrossed to wildtype fish and screened for potential mutant founders by PCR and sequencing. The stable *mfsd2aa* mutant line was genotyped using 5'-AAATCACCTCTTCCAGTGAGGA-3' and 5'-ATAGTAACAAAACGATGCTGAGCC-3' primers. *Mfsd2ab* mutants were genotyped using 5'-GTCTACTCCATTTGCTGTACTTTGC-3' and 5'-CAGGTCAATCTCAGTGCTGATACAG-3' primers.

Imaging

All live imaging of tracer permeability was performed on a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope. Time lapse imaging was performed on the SP8 using a resonance scanner. A 1200EX electron microscope (JOEL) equipped with a 2k CCD digital camera (AMT) was used for all TEM studies. Images were visualized and quantified using ImageJ (NIH) and Adobe Photoshop. Time lapse videos were visualized as 3D reconstructions and cropped to highlight particular blood vessels of interest using Imaris software (Bitplane).

Tracer Permeability Quantification

All quantification was performed on blinded image sets. Parenchymal cells containing injected tracers outside of the blood vessels were manually counted throughout z-stacks that spanned the entire larval brain in depth. Z-stacks were collected with 0.59 µm z-steps using a 25x water immersion objective on a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope. The Dextran intensity was measured in six parenchymal regions of average intensity projections of the time lapse videos and averaged as a single value per fish. These values were normalized to the average fluorescence intensity in the lumen at each time point.

TEM Quantification

For all TEM quantifications, vesicular density values were calculated from the number of non-clathrin coated flask-shaped vesicles per µm of endothelial luminal or abluminal membrane for each image collected. Embryonic basement membrane gold intensity was measured in three regions per endothelial cell and normalized to luminal gold intensity values within individual images using ImageJ. All images for analysis were collected at 12000x magnification on the JOEL 1200EX electron microscope. 10-15 vessels were quantified for each fish, with each color representing a different fish.

Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using Prism 8 (GraphPad Software). Two group

comparisons were analyzed using an unpaired two-tailed t test. Nested t tests were employed for

all electron microscopy comparisons to account for the actual N versus vessels analyzed. Multiple

group comparisons were analyzed with one-way ANOVA, followed by a post hoc Tukey's multiple

comparison test. The time lapse leakage dynamics were analyzed with a Mann-Whitney U test to

discriminate whether the two patterns of leakage accumulation were different. Sample size for all

experiments was determined empirically using standards generally employed by the field, and no

data was excluded when performing statistical analysis. Standard error of the mean was

calculated for all experiments and displayed as errors bars in graphs. Statistical details for specific

experiments, including exact n values and what n represents, precision measures, statistical tests

used, and definitions of significance can be found in the Figure Legends.

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Figure 1. The midbrain BBB becomes functional at 5 dpf. (A) Diagram of the tracer leakage

assay. Fluorescently conjugated tracers (turquoise) were injected intracardially into transgenic

fish that express mCherry in the vasculature (magenta; Tg(*kdrl:mCherry*)) and allowed to circulate

for one hour before imaging. (B) Dorsal view maximum intensity projection of the larval brain

vasculature at 3 dpf. Left image is pseudo-colored to demarcate the midbrain (violet) and the

hindbrain (gold) vasculature. Right image shows the NHS tracer (turquoise) in the entire larval

brain, with a large number of tracer-filled parenchymal cells marked by yellow arrowheads in the

midbrain. (C) Representative dorsal view maximum intensity projections of larval zebrafish

midbrains at different developmental stages reveal increased permeability at 3 and 4 dpf

compared to 5 and 6 dpf. The increased early permeability was observed with two injected tracers

of different sizes, a 1 kDa NHS (turquoise) and a 10 kDa Dextran (white), as well with an 80 kDa

transgenic serum protein DBP-EGFP (green). Yellow arrowheads demarcate the tracer-filled

parenchymal cells outside of the vasculature (magenta). Scale bars represent 50 μm. (D)

Quantification of tracer-filled parenchymal cells in the midbrain between 3 and 6 dpf reveals a

significant decrease in tracer uptake at 5 dpf. There was no difference in the number of

parenchymal cells that picked up the different tracers at any time point. There was no significant

change from 3 to 4 dpf or from 5 to 6 dpf, suggesting that the barrier seals around 5 dpf. N = 10-

11 fish, each represented as a single dot on the plot. The mean and the standard error are drawn

in black for each tracer and stage. **** $p < 0.0001$, ns is not significant.

Figure 1 – Supplement 1. The hindbrain has a functional BBB at 3 dpf. (A) Representative

dorsal view maximum intensity projections of larval zebrafish hindbrains at different

developmental stages reveals low permeability at 3 dpf that stays constant until 6 dpf. This low

permeability was observed with two injected tracers of different sizes, a 1 kDa NHS (turquoise)

and a 10 kDa Dextran (white), as well with an 80 kDa transgenic serum protein DBP-EGFP

(green). Yellow arrowheads demarcate the few tracer-filled parenchymal cells outside of the

vasculature (magenta). Scale bars represent 50 μm. (B) Quantification of tracer-filled

parenchymal cells in the hindbrain between 3 and 6 dpf reveals low tracer uptake beginning at 3

dpf. There was no difference in the number of parenchymal cells that picked up the different

tracers at any time point. N = 10-11 fish, each represented as a single dot on the plot. The mean

and the standard error are drawn in black for each tracer and stage.

Figure 2. Dynamic tracer leakage in the developing BBB via live imaging. (A) Time course
stills from Video 1 of tracer leakage at 3 dpf reveal an increase in parenchymal cells absorbing
the Dextran tracer (outlined by dashed white lines) as well as a general increase in overall Dextran
(green) intensity outside of the vasculature (magenta). An angiogenic tip cell becomes apparent
at 33:23 and is demarcated by an asterisk (*). This tip cell produces two separate bursts of
leakage observed in Video 2. (B) Time course stills of Dextran tracer dynamics at 5 dpf reveals a
mature BBB, with reduced overall Dextran extravasation into the brain parenchyma. The scale
bars represent 10 µm. (C and D) Dorsal maximum intensity projection of the midbrain at 3 dpf (C)
and 5 dpf (D) at the first and last time point examined. While there is a large increase in overall
parenchymal Dextran intensity over time at 3 dpf, the 5 dpf midbrain parenchyma appears
relatively unaltered after an hour of Dextran circulation. Boxed regions are representative of the
six areas per fish used for analysis in E. The scale bars represent 50 µm. (E) Quantification of
Dextran intensity in the brain parenchyma over time at 3 dpf (green) and 5 dpf (black) shows a
significant difference in tracer leakage dynamics (p<0.0001, Mann Whitney U test), with both more
total Dextran accumulation and a faster rate of Dextran accumulation in the brain parenchyma at
3 dpf. N=6 fish with 6 regions analyzed per fish.

Figure 3. Suppression of transcytosis determines the timing of functional BBB formation.

(A, C, E) TEM images of individual blood vessel cross-sections after injection of electron-dense

gold nanoparticles at 3 dpf (A), 5 dpf (C), and 7 dpf (E). Endothelial cells (EC) are pseudo-colored

green, pericytes (P) are pseudo-colored purple and red blood cells (RBC) are pseudo-colored red

when present in the lumen (L). Turquoise arrowheads highlight the gold-filled basement

membrane at 3 dpf (A). (B, D, F) High magnification images (25000x) of the areas boxed in A, C,

and E, respectively, with the endothelial cells outlined with white dashed lines. The images are

oriented with the lumen (L) on top and the ablumen (A) on the bottom. Tight junctions are

functional as early as 3 dpf (B), as seen by their ability to halt the gold nanoparticles at the so-

called "kissing point" (green arrowhead), and remain functional throughout development (D and

F). Even though the tight junctions are functional at 3 dpf, the endothelial basement membrane is

filled with electron-dense gold nanoparticles (B, turquoise arrowheads). This appears to be due

to an elevated level of luminal and abluminal gold-filled vesicles (magenta arrows). The scale bars

represent 200 nm. (G) Quantification of the endothelial basement membrane gold intensity

normalized to luminal gold intensity. (H and I) Quantification of the vesicular densities both on

the luminal (H) and abluminal (I) membrane of endothelial cells reveals a suppression of vesicular

densities beginning at 5 dpf that remains constant at 7 dpf. N=4 fish, each marked with a different

color, with at least 10 blood vessels quantified for each fish. **** $p<0.0001$, ** $p<0.01$, ns is not

significant.

Figure 4. *Mfsd2aa* mutants exhibit increased BBB permeability. (A) Representative maximum

intensity projection images of the midbrain of wildtype and *mfsd2aa* mutants injected with a

fluorescent 1 kDa NHS tracer (turquoise) at 5 dpf. *Mfsd2aa* mutants have an increased number

of NHS-filled parenchymal cells (yellow arrowheads) that lie outside of the vasculature (magenta;

Tg(*kdrl:mCherry*)). (B) Representative maximum intensity projection images of the midbrain of

wildtype and *mfsd2aa* mutants expressing the fluorescently labelled 80 kDa transgenic serum

protein DBP-EGFP (green) at 5 dpf. *Mfsd2aa* mutants have an increased number of DBP-EGFP-

filled parenchymal cells (yellow arrowheads) compared to wildtype siblings. The scale bar

represents 50 µm. (C) Quantification of tracer-filled (NHS and DBP-EGFP) parenchymal cells in

the midbrain of wildtype (black) and *mfsd2aa* mutants (magenta). *Mfsd2aa* mutants have a

significantly increased number of tracer-filled parenchymal cells, both for the injected NHS (A)

and the endogenous transgene DBP-EGFP (B). Each individual fish measured is displayed as a

single point. The mean and the standard error are drawn as black lines. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$.

A

B

mfsd2aa^hm37

mfsd2ab^hm38

Figure 4 - Supplement 1. Zebrafish have 2 *Mfsd2a* paralogues, *mfsd2aa* and *mfsd2ab*. (A)

Protein alignment of human MFSD2A, mouse Mfsd2a, zebrafish mfsd2aa, and zebrafish mfsd2ab

illustrated with a hydrophobicity scale. Red amino acids are hydrophobic and blue amino acids

are hydrophilic. Both zebrafish paralogues are highly similar to the human and mouse proteins.

Green boxes highlight the genetic lesions in (B) and the black boxes mark the predicted premature

stop codons caused by these mutations in *mfsd2aa^{hm37/hm37}* and *mfsd2ab^{hm38/hm38}* mutants.

Numbers mark amino acid residues with mutations that have been shown to impact Mfsd2a

function:1. Andreone et al., 2017, 2. Guemez-Gamboa et al., 2015, 3. Harel et al., 2018. (B)

Sanger sequencing of the *mfsd2aa^{hm37}* and *mfsd2ab^{hm38}* mutations. *Mfsd2aa^{hm37/37}* mutants have

a 7 base pair deletion in exon 2 that is predicted to lead to a premature stop codon at amino acid

82 (A; black box). *Mfsd2ab^{hm38/hm38}* mutants have an 8 base pair insertion (red letters) and a 19

base pair deletion in exon 5 that is predicted to lead to a premature stop codon at amino acid 175

(A; black box).

Figure 4 - Supplement 2. *Mfsd2ab* mutants do not have altered BBB permeability. (A)

Representative maximum intensity projection images of the midbrain of wildtype and *mfsd2ab*

mutants expressing the fluorescently labelled 80 kDa transgenic serum protein DBP-EGFP

(green) at 5 dpf. *Mfsd2ab* mutants have a similarly low number of DBP-EGFP-filled parenchymal

cells compared to wildtype siblings. The scale bar represents 50 µm. (B) Quantification of tracer-

filled (NHS and DBP-EGFP) parenchymal cells in the midbrain of wildtype (black) and *mfsd2ab*

mutants (green). *Mfsd2ab* mutants display no significant barrier permeability defects, both for the

injected NHS and the endogenous transgene DBP-EGFP (A). Each individual fish measured is

displayed as a single point. The mean and the standard error are drawn in black.

A *mfsd2aa⁺/⁺; mfsd2ab⁺/⁺*

B *mfsd2aaʰᵐ³⁷/ʰᵐ³⁷; mfsd2ab⁺/⁺*

C *mfsd2aa⁺/⁺; mfsd2abʰᵐ³⁸/ʰᵐ³⁸*

D *mfsd2aaʰᵐ³⁷/ʰᵐ³⁷; mfsd2abʰᵐ³⁸/ʰᵐ³⁸*

E

DBP-filled Parenchymal Cells (+/- SEM)

mfsd2aa⁺/⁺; mfsd2ab⁺/⁺

mfsd2aaʰᵐ³⁷/ʰᵐ³⁷; mfsd2ab⁺/⁺

mfsd2aa⁺/⁺; mfsd2abʰᵐ³⁸/ʰᵐ³⁸

mfsd2aaʰᵐ³⁷/ʰᵐ³⁷; mfsd2abʰᵐ³⁸/ʰᵐ³⁸

****

****

Figure 4 - Supplement 2. *Mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$; *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$ double mutants display similar

increased BBB permeability to *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$ fish. (A-D) Representative maximum intensity

projection images of the midbrain of wildtype (A; *mfsd2aa*$^{+/+}$; *mfsd2ab*$^{+/+}$), *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$ single

mutants (B), *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$ single mutants (C), and *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$; *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$ double

mutants (D) expressing the fluorescently labelled 80 kDa transgenic serum protein DBP-EGFP

(green) at 5 dpf. *Mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$; *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$ double mutants display a similar level of

increased tracer-filled parenchymal cells (yellow arrowheads) to the *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$ single

mutants. The scale bar represents 50 µm. (E) Quantification of DBP-EGFP-filled parenchymal

cells in the midbrain of wildtype (black), *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$ mutants (magenta), *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$

mutants (turquoise), and *mfsd2aa*$^{hm37/hm37}$; *mfsd2ab*$^{hm38/hm38}$ double mutants (green). Each

individual fish measured is displayed as a single point. The mean and the standard error are

drawn in black. **** $p < 0.0001$.

Figure 5. M*fsd2aa* mutants exhibit increased transcytosis. (A and B) Coronal sections of adult midbrain after 30 minutes of HRP (brown) circulation in wildtype (A) and *mfsd2aa* mutant fish (B). Wildtype adults confine the HRP within the blood vessels, but *mfsd2aa* mutants leak HRP into the brain parenchyma. The scale bar represents 200 µm. (C and D) TEM images of individual blood vessel cross-sections of adult wildtype (C) and *mfsd2aa* mutant fish (D). Endothelial cells (EC) are pseudo-colored green, pericytes (P) are pseudo-colored purple and red blood cells (RBC) are pseudo-colored red. (E and F) High magnification images of endothelial cells outlined with white dashed lines of wildtype (E) and *mfsd2aa* mutants (F). The images are oriented with the lumen (L) on top and the ablumen (A) on the bottom. *Mfsd2aa* mutants appear to have normal tight junctions (green arrowhead) but elevated levels of luminal and abluminal vesicles (magenta arrows). The scale bars represent 200 nm. (G and H) Quantification of the vesicular densities both on the luminal (G) and abluminal (H) side of the endothelial cells reveals that *mfsd2aa* mutants have increased vesicular densities. N=4 fish, each marked with a different color, with 15 blood vessels quantified for each fish. **** $p < 0.0001$, ** $p < 0.01$.

Figure 5 - Supplement 1. M*fsd2ab* mutants exhibit normal vascular maturation. (A and B)

TEM images of individual blood vessel cross-sections of adult wildtype (A) and *mfsd2ab* mutants

(B). Endothelial cells (EC) are pseudo-colored green, pericytes (P) are pseudo-colored purple

and red blood cells (RBC) are pseudo-colored red when present in the lumen (L). (C and D) High

magnification images of endothelial cells outlined with white dashed lines of wildtype (C) and

mfsd2ab mutants (D). The images are oriented with the lumen (L) on top and the ablumen (A) on

the bottom. *Mfsd2ab* mutants appear to have normal tight junctions (green arrowhead) and levels

of luminal and abluminal vesicles. The scale bars represent 200 nm. (E and F) Quantification of

the vesicular densities both on the luminal (E) and abluminal (F) side of the endothelial cells

reveals that *mfsd2ab* mutants have similar vesicular densities to wildtype siblings. N=4 fish, each

marked with a different color, with 15 blood vessels quantified for each fish.