Neurons expressing pathological Tau protein trigger dramatic noninflammatory changes in microglial morphology and dynamics

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Abstract

Microglial cells, the resident macrophages of the brain, are important players in the pathological process of numerous neurodegenerative disorders, including tauopathies, a heterogeneous class of diseases characterized by intraneuronal Tau aggregates. However, microglia response in Tau pathologies remains poorly understood. Here we exploit a genetic zebrafish model of tauopathy, combined with live microglia imaging, to investigate the behavior of microglia *in vivo* in the disease context. Results show that while microglia were almost immobile and displayed long and highly dynamic branches in a wild-type context, in presence of diseased neurons, cells displayed morphological changes, with highly mobile cell bodies together with fewer and shorter processes. We demonstrated that these changes in microglial cells are noninflammatory. We also imaged, for the first time to our knowledge, the phagocytosis of apoptotic tauopathic neurons by microglia *in vivo* and observed that microglia engulfed about as twice materials as in controls. Finally, genetic ablation of microglia in zebrafish tauopathy model significantly increased Tau hyperphosphorylation, suggesting that microglia provide neuroprotection to diseased neurons. Our findings demonstrate for the first time the dynamics of microglia in contact with tauopathic neurons *in vivo* and open perspectives for the real-time study of microglia in many neuronal diseases.

Introduction

Microglia, the resident brain macrophages, are highly plastic and multifunctional cells that

continuously monitor the health of neuronal networks (Kierdorf and Prinz, 2017). In a

physiological context, microglia display long cytoplasmic processes that constantly extend and

retract to contact neighbour neurons and check their physiology (Nimmerjahn et al., 2005; Peri

and Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008). Microglia also respond promptly to brain injury or infection, with

both immuno-protective and cytotoxic responses, including the secretion of a large set of

cytokines (Butovsky and Weiner, 2018; Hanisch, 2002; Hu et al., 2015; Wake et al., 2013) and

increased phagocytic capacities to eliminate pathogen debris and dead cells (Leong and Ling,

1992; Ling and Wong, 1993; Brockhaus et al., 1996; Nakajima and Kohsaka, 2001; Hanisch and

Kettenmann, 2007; Thameem Dheen et al., 2007). However, in some disease contexts, such as

tauopathies, microglia also appear to have harmful activities (Bhaskar et al., 2010; Eyo and

Dailey, 2013; Maphis et al., 2015; Laurent et al., 2018).

Tauopathies are a family of neurodegenerative disorders characterized by intra-neuronal

fibrillary aggregates containing abnormally hyperphosphorylated isoforms of the microtubule-

associated protein Tau (Alavi Naini and Soussi-Yanicostas, 2015; Spillantini and Goedert, 2013;

Wang and Mandelkow, 2016). While the causal role of Tau in the disease is supported by several

inherited tauopathies triggered by dominant missense mutations in the protein, such as Tau^{P301L},

causing fronto-temporal dementia with parkinsonism on chromosome 17 (FTDP-17) (Hutton et

al., 1998), the aetiology of these disorders and the contribution of microglia to their

physiopathology remain poorly understood (Hansen et al., 2018; Laurent et al., 2018; Perea et

al., 2018).

Because of their plasticity and well-established neuroprotective activities, microglial cells

are very promising therapeutic targets for the treatment of neuron disorders, including

neurodegenerative diseases. However, the scattered distribution of microglia in the brain has so

far limited their study to *ex vivo* and *in vitro* approaches that do not faithfully reproduce the complex changing environments of *in vivo* situations. For instance, the classification of mouse microglia cells defined following *ex vivo* approaches, is not readily applicable *in vivo* (Lee et al., 2013; Murray et al., 2014).

In an attempt to describe the behavior of microglial cells in a tauopathy disease context *in vivo*, we used the transgenic zebrafish Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) tauopathy model (Paquet al., 2009) and live microglia imaging (Peri and Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008). We observed that next to hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons, microglia display dramatic changes in morphology and dynamics, with cells showing fewer and shorter branches and amoeboid-like cell bodies alongside a markedly increased mobility and phagocytic activity. We also imaged the phagocytosis of dying neurons by microglia and showed that these cells could phagocyte nearly twice as much as in homeostatic brains. However, we also observed that these microglial cells failed to phagocyte all dead neurons, highlighting the limits of their phagocyting abilities.

Results

Microglia display dramatic changes in shape and dynamics in the presence of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons

To investigate the behavior of microglial cells in a tauopathy disease context *in vivo*, we used the transgenic Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) zebrafish model of Tau-induced neurodegeneration, combined with the transgenic Tg(ApoE-eGFP) microglia marker line. As previously shown, in the optic tectum of Tg(ApoE-eGFP) embryos, microglia displayed a ramified morphology, with a small cell body and several elongated branches (Figures 1A,C). By contrast, in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryo microglia displayed a rounder morphology, with a larger cell body and fewer, shorter branches (Figures 1B,B',D). Quantifications of morphological parameters confirmed these dramatic changes in microglia morphology seen in the presence of diseased neurons, with a smaller surface area (Figure 1E)

and volume (Figure 1F); and a greater sphericity (Figure 1G). However, alongside these rounded

microglia, a few branched cells were also observed in the disease context (Figures 1B, B').

Given that microglial cells are highly dynamic, we used *in vivo* real-time confocal imaging

combined with Imaris software (Bitplane Inc.) image analysis to determine whether the presence

of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons modified microglia dynamics. In Tg(ApoE-eGFP) embryos,

microglia displayed dynamic processes that were constantly extending and retracting, while

their cell bodies remained almost immobile (Figures 1H,J, Video 1, Supplementary figures 1A,C,

Video 5). By contrast, in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos, microglia were

highly mobile with their cell bodies traveling over longer distances (Figures 1I,K, Video 2,

Supplementary figures 1B,D, Video 6). Quantifications of microglia dynamics confirmed that in

the presence of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons, microglia displayed increased mean speed (Figure

1L) and mean track displacement of the processes (Figure 1M), and a much larger displacement

of the cell bodies over a similar time frame (Figure 1N).

To further characterize the phenotype of these microglial cells, we analysed the expression

levels of two pro-inflammatory cytokines, IL-1β and IL-8, in the brain tissue of the transgenic

Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) and wild-type embryos (Figures 1O,P). Interestingly, neither of these

cytokines were overexpressed in the pathologic context, the two tested groups displaying no

significant differences in expression levels of either IL-1β or IL-8, indicating that microglial cells

in the transgenic Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) were not in pro-inflammatory states.

Genetic depletion of microglia worsens pathology in Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos

As a first attempt to investigate the function of microglial cells in Tau pathology, we

generated Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos completely devoid of microglia following injection

of an antisense morpholino oligonucleotide targeting pU.1 (MO-pU1) transcripts encoding a

transcription factor essential for proper differentiation of macrophage/microglia (Rhodes et al.,

2005), and then studied the consequences of such microglial cell ablation on Tau

phosphorylation, neuron apoptosis and expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines. Injection of

the MO-pU1 (Figure 2A) leads to a complete absence of microglial cells in the brain of the

embryos as shown by either Neutral Red staining (Figure 2B), or immunocytochemistry using

L-plastin antibody (Figure 2C).

Using 5 dpf wild-type and transgenic Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos with or without

microglial cells, we then studied the consequences of microglia ablation on the expression of pro-

inflammatory cytokines IL-1β and IL-8. Results showed that while expression of Tau^{P301L} did

not stimulate overexpression of IL-1β (Figure 2D) and IL-8 (Figure 2E) in microglia-containing

embryos, microglia depletion in Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos provoked a markedly

increased expression of both pro-inflammatory cytokines, suggesting that microglia mitigate

pro-inflammatory activities elicited by other glial cells, likely astrocytes.

As a first attempt to determine the effect of microglia absence on Tau hyperphosphorylation

in vivo, we quantified phosphorylation levels at Ser396 site on hTau protein in Tg(HuC-

hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos with and without microglia (Figure 2F). Genetic ablation of microglia

in Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos increased the accumulation of hyperphosphorylated Tau

when compared to their siblings with microglia (Figure 2F, with microglia *vs.* without

microglia). Quantification of pTau/total Tau ratio confirmed that hTau protein

phosphorylation level was significantly increased in microglia-depleted Tg(HuC-

hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos (Figure 2G). To further investigate the effects of microglial ablation

on Tau hyperphosphorylation, Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos devoid of microglia were

analysed by immunohistochemistry using the antibody PHF1, targeting two phosphorylation

sites, Ser396 site and pathological phosphorylation site Ser404, on hTau protein (PHF1)

(Figures 2H,I). In good agreement with Western blot analysis, a significant increase in PHF1

labelling intensity was observed in the telencephalon of 6 dpf Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed; *nlrc3-*

like^{st73/73}) mutant embryos devoid of microglia (Figure 2I) when compared to that observed in

the brain of their siblings with microglia (Figure 2H). The quantification of the ratio of

hyperphosphorylated human Tau protein on brain sections from Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed;

nlrc3-like^{st73/73}) embryos confirmed the significant increase of this ratio displayed in protein

extracts from Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos microglia-depleted with morpholino (Figure

2J).

Microglia phagocytic activity is enhanced in the presence of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons

As phagocytosis is a main feature of microglial cells, we first monitored the phagocytic

activity of microglia in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos. We observed the

phagocytosis of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons by microglia, using confocal real-time imaging

(Figure 3B, Video 3). A microglial cell in the optic tectum (Figures 3B,C,0 min) sends one of

its processes to the pathological neuron (Figures 3B,C,5 min) to draw it towards its cell body

(Figures 3B,C,9 min) and execute the digestion of the neuron and its debris until completion of

the process (Figures 3B,C,18 min). We also observed the detail of a microglial cell engulfing

three neurons simultaneously (Supplementary figure 2, Video 7).We next assessed the

phagocytic activity of microglia by quantifying the total engulfed volume, which appeared

higher in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos (Figure 3D). Given the critical role

of microglia in removing apoptotic cells and other noxious bodies, we next visualized neuronal

death in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos using the apoptotic marker Acridine

Orange. Data showed that microglia specifically engulfed apoptotic neurons (Figures 3E-H,

Video 4) but not non-apoptotic hTau^{P301L}-expressing cells, supporting the notion that microglia

specifically responds to signals sent by degenerating neurons that are already apoptotic but not

hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons *per se*. However, quantification of the number of non-engulfed

apoptotic neurons in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) and control Tg(ApoE-eGFP;

HuC-RFP) embryos showed that microglia failed to phagocyte all apoptotic hTau^{P301L}-expressing

neurons compared with control neurons (Figure 3I).

Discussion

To date, almost all studies aimed at investigating the physiology of microglia or their

interactions with neurons in rodent models of neuronal diseases have relied widely on *ex vivo*

and *in vitro* approaches, which cannot accurately reproduce the complexity of the physiological

conditions observed in living brains (Bemiller et al., 2017; Hickman et al., 2013; Maphis et al.,

2015; Rustenhoven et al., 2018).

While these marker-based approaches remain useful to gather prerequisite knowledge on

immune cells, it is nonetheless crucial to preserve the morphology and dynamics of these highly

plastic cells, which respond to very small changes in the CNS, and so to study them in a living

brain (He et al., 2018). Recent studies show that time spent by microglia *ex vivo* is associated

with a different evolution of gene expression until their expression levels become the reverse of

the initial measures (Gosselin et al., 2017).

The present work is, to our knowledge, the first aimed at characterizing the dynamic behavior

of microglial cells in the presence of pathological neurons expressing a mutant human Tau

protein, hTau^{P301L}, causing tauopathy.

Our results show that the presence of these hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons caused dramatic

changes to microglia, with the cells displaying an amoeboid-like shape and higher mobility.

Although these morphological and dynamic changes are reminiscent of the classical microglial

activation profile in response to injury or disease (Nakajima and Kohsaka, 2001), these rounded

microglial cells did not overexpress assessed pro-inflammatory cytokines, IL-1β and IL-8,

showing that the observed changes were noninflammatory (Zhao et al., 2018). On the contrary,

the genetic depletion of microglia in these pathological brains was paired with a more than 2-

fold increase in the expression levels of these pro-inflammatory cytokines. This outcome, similar to that of a study of prion-induced neurodegeneration in mice (Zhu et al., 2016), may be linked to astrocytes, the largest glial group, which can also produce pro-inflammatory factors and exhibit a reactive state in tauopathy mice models (Sidoryk-Wegrzynowicz et al., 2017), likely exacerbated by the higher levels of pathological hyperphosphorylated Tau protein, which can be taken up by astrocytes (Martini-Stoica et al., 2018; Perea et al., 2019).

These noninflammatory, highly dynamic microglial cells displayed an intense phagocytic activity, specifically eliminating nearly twice as many apoptotic neurons as microglial cells in healthy brains. However, a significantly higher number of unengulfed apoptotic neurons in tauopathic brains suggests that these microglial cells are overwhelmed by an excessive neuronal death rate generated in this transgenic model. One therapeutic approach might thus be to enhance the phagocytic activity of microglia to slow disease spread.

This complete study in an intact brain visualizes interactions between microglia and hTau[P301L]-expressing neurons in real time and sheds light on noninflammatory microglia that exerts a protective role mainly through specific phagocytosis of apoptotic hTau[P301L]-expressing neurons, thereby limiting the spread of noxious overspills or pathologic hyperphosphorylated Tau. However, while displaying enhanced phagocytic activity towards hTau[P301L]-expressing neurons and efficiently eliminating dead neurons, microglial cells appeared overwhelmed, as evidenced by the higher number of unengulfed dead neurons in the transgenic embryo brains. These findings support therapeutic approaches based on the modulation of microglial phagocytic activity in a specific neurodegenerative context.

Materials and methods

Ethics statement

All the animal experiments described in the present study were conducted at the French National Institute of Health and Medical Research (INSERM) UMR 1141 in Paris in accordance with European Union guidelines for the handling of laboratory animals (http://ec.europa.eu/environment/chemicals/lab_animals/home_en.htm) and were approved by the Direction Départementale de la Protection des Populations de Paris and the French Animal Ethics Committee under reference No. 2012-15/676-0069.

Zebrafish lines and maintenance

Zebrafish were maintained at 26.5 °C in 14 h light and 10 h dark cycles. Embryos were collected by natural spawning and to avoid pigmentation, 0.003% 1-phenyl-2-thiourea (PTU) was added at 1 dpf (day post-fertilization). The transgenic lines Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) (Paquet et al., 2009) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP)(Peri and Nüsslein-Volhard, 2008) and $nlrc3$-$like^{st73/st73}$ mutants (Shiau et al., 2013) have been previously described.

Confocal imaging

For *in vivo* imaging, 7 dpf larvae were anaesthetized with 112 µg/ml 3-aminobenzoic acid ethyl ester (tricaine, Sigma), immobilized in 1.2% low melting-point agarose in the centre of a 35 mm glass-bottomed dish (Corning®), and covered with E3 medium containing 112 µg/ml tricaine. Images were acquired using a Leica SP8 confocal scanning laser microscope equipped with a Leica 20x/0.75 multi-immersion objective and an Olympus 40x/1.1 water objective; and a Leica DM6000FS Spinning disk L2 microscope equipped with a Leica 25x/0.95 water immersion objective. All the images were then processed using LAS-X (Leica), MetaMorph 7.8.9 (Molecular Devices), AutoQuant X3.1.1 (Media Cybernetics), Fiji (Version 2.0.0-rc-65/1.52b) and Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe System).

Image analysis

The surface area, volume and sphericity ($\Psi = \frac{\pi^{\frac{1}{3}}(6V_{\mathrm{p}})^{\frac{2}{3}}}{A_{\mathrm{p}}}$) of microglial cells were quantified using

Imaris MeasurementPro (Bitplane Inc.). The speed (distance travelled per unit time) and

displacement (distance between first and last positions) of microglial processes were analysed

using Imaris Filament tracer (Bitplane Inc.) on 15 minutes long time-lapses. Microglial cell body

displacement (distance between first and last positions) was tracked with Imaris

MeasurementPro on 30 minutes long time-lapses. Three-dimensional cell reconstructions were

created using Imaris MeasurementPro.

Ablation of microglia

Morpholino pU.1 (MO-pU1): 5'-GATATACTGATACTCCATTGGTGGT-3' was obtained

from Gene Tools. 2 nl of a 0.5 mM solution, corresponding to 1 pmol of pU.1 morpholino was

injected into 1 to 2 cells stage embryos using standard protocols. After injection, the embryos

were incubated in E3 medium at 28.5 °C until analysis at the desired stage. To select embryos

in which microglia differentiation was efficiently blocked, Neutral Red staining was used to label

microglia. Embryos were incubated in Neutral Red diluted in E3 medium for 5-8 hours at

28.5 °C, and rinsed 10 min before examination using a stereomicroscope (Zeiss).

Apoptosis labelling

To observe apoptotic neurons, embryos were incubated in Acridine Orange solution (1:500,

VectaCell) for 20 min at 28.5 °C in the dark, and rinsed twice for 10 min in E3 medium.

Although both GFP from microglia and acridine orange have very close excitation and emission

spectra, their signal is distinguishable, as acridine orange labelled neuronal cell bodies emit a

greater fluorescence. Therefore, GFP channel (green) also shows Acridine Orange staining (blue)

(Figure 3F).

Immunocytochemistry

6 dpf Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) and Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed; *nlrc3-like$^{st73/73}$*) embryos were

anaesthetized in 0.2% tricaine, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, cryoprotected in 10% sucrose

solution prior to flash freezing in isopentane. Samples were stored at -80°C until use. Embryos

were cut into 20 µm thick sections on cryostat, mounted on superfrost slides, and stored at -

80°C. Cryosections (20 µm) were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 10

min. After washing thrice with PBS, sections were treated with 0.25% trypsin in 1X PBS for 2

min at 25°C. Immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described (Puverel et al.,

2009). Briefly, sections were blocked and permeabilized with 0.2% gelatin, 0.25% Triton X-100

diluted in 1X PBS for 1 hr at room temperature and then incubated overnight at room

temperature with anti-PHF1 (1:100, mouse monoclonal, gift of Dr. Peter Davies, Albert Einstein

College of Medicine, New York, USA) After several washes, sections were incubated for 1 hr

with the donkey anti-mouse coupled to Alexa Fluor 488 (1:500, Jackson Laboratories, West

Grove, PA). Sections were counterstained for 10 min with 0.1% DAPI (Sigma-Aldrich) before

being mounted with Vectashield Mounting Medium (Vector). Sections were analyzed using a

Leica TCS SP8 confocal scanning system (Leica Microsystems). Images were acquired using a

Leica SP8 confocal scanning laser microscope equipped with a Leica 20x/0.75 multi-immersion

objective. Images were processed with LAS-X (Leica), Fiji (Version 2.0.0-rc-65/1.52b) and

Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe System).

For whole mount immunostaining, 5 dpf wild-type embryos with or without microglia, were

fixed in 4% formaldehyde in PBS for 1 hour 30 minutes at room temperature, washed three

times in PBS (10 minutes each) and permeabilized in cold acetone (-20°C) for 20 minutes. After

several washes, embryos were incubated in collagenase solution for 1 hour.

Immunocytochemistry was performed as described previously (Naini et al., 2018) using rabbit

anti-zebrafish L-plastin polyclonal antibody (gift of Dr. Michael Redd, University College

London, United Kingdom), followed by Alexa-coupled secondary anti-rabbit antibody

(Molecular Probes) at 1:500 dilution. After washing, the fluorescence was analyzed using a Leica

TCS SP8 confocal scanning system (Leica Microsystems). Images were collected using a Leica

20x/0.75 multi-immersion objective. Images were processed with LAS-X (Leica), Fiji (Version

2.0.0-rc-65/1.52b) and Adobe Photoshop 7.0 (Adobe System).

RT-qPCR

Total RNAs were extracted from independent batches of 15 embryos each, using the NucleoSpin

RNA kit (Macherey Nagel, Germany). The integrity and concentration of RNAs were assessed

by spectrophotometry using a Nanodrop™ device (Thermoscientific, USA). Total RNA (1µg)

samples were reverse transcribed using the iScript™ cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad, USA). RT-

qPCR experiments were performed in triplicate using SYBR Green Super-mix (Bio-Rad, USA)

according to a program of 40 cycles in 3 steps (denaturation of 5 seconds at 96 ° C, hybridization

of 10 seconds at 60 ° C and extension of 10 seconds at 72 ° C). Primers were designed manually

following visual inspection of gene sequences. Gene sequences and NCBI references are given in

Supplementary table 1. Specific mRNA levels were evaluated after normalization of the results

with tubulin-α (tuba1) mRNA as reference, and the results were indicated in arbitrary units

determined respectively to the levels of RNA determined in wild-type embryos.

Western blot

Embryos at 5 dpf were collected, anaesthetized and lysed on ice with lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-

HCl, 320mM Sucrose, pH 7.4) supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Roche).

Lysates were homogenized by sonication (thrice 10 seconds) and centrifuged at 600 g for 10

min. Samples containing 10 µg proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE in 4-20% gradient

acrylamide gel. Primary antibody against phosphorylated tau, Ser396 (1:1000, mouse

monoclonal, Ozyme); and anti-human total tau antibody (1:1000, rabbit polyclonal, Dako

Cytomation) were used. Subsequently, the blots were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature

with the corresponding secondary antibodies (anti-mouse or anti-rabbit, 1:5000, Cell Signalling

Technology) diluted in bovine serum albumin solution and developed with ECL RevelBlOt®

Plus (Ozyme) following manufacturer's instructions.

Statistics

All statistics were assessed using a Welch two-sample t-test or an ANOVA followed by a Tukey

post-test. All data are represented as means $\pm$ SEM.

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or

financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Figure 1. Noninflammatory microglia displays dramatic changes in morphology and dynamics in the presence of hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$–expressing neurons. (**A, B, B'**) Dorsal views of the optic tectum of 7 dpf Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (**A**) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) transgenic embryos (**B, B'**), showed the characteristic ramified morphology of microglia in wild-type (**A**), while in the presence of hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$-expressing neurons, microglial cells displayed shorter processes and larger cell bodies. (**C, D**) Detailed morphology of microglial cells in Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (**C**) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) embryos (**D**). (**E-G**) Measurements of microglia morphological parameters; surface area (**E**, $p < 0.0001$), volume (**F**, $p < 0.0001$) and sphericity (**G**, $p < 0.0001$), in Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (n=10) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) (n=24) embryos, confirmed the cell shape changes observed in the presence of hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$-expressing neurons. (**H, I**) Time-lapse sequences of microglia dynamics in Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (**H**, Video 1) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) embryos (**I**, Video 2). (**J, K**) Merged images of two time points separated by 15 minutes from video 1 (**J**) and video 2 (**K**). The merged images at t=0 minutes (cyan) and t=15 minutes (red) highlighted the dramatic increased mobility of microglial cell bodies in the presence of hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$-expressing neurons. (**L-N**) Measurements of microglia dynamics; process speed (**L**, $p = 0.0004$), process track displacement (**M**, $p = 0.0002$) and cell body displacement (**N**, $p = 0.0054$), in Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (n=3) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) (n=4) embryos, confirmed the increased mobility of both microglia processes and cell bodies observed in the presence of hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$-expressing neurons. (**O, P**) Measurements of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the brain of 5 dpf Tg(ApoE-eGFP) (n=6) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau$^{\text{P301L}}$:DsRed) (n=11) embryos. The comparison of relative expressions of IL-1β (**O**, $p = 0.80$) and IL-8 (**P**, $p = 0.89$) in both groups shows no significant differences. (**Q**) Schematic dorsal view of a 7 dpf zebrafish embryo. The red square shows the region of interest that comprises the optic tectum. ***: $p < 0.001$; **: $p < 0.01$; *= $p < 0.05$. Scale bar (A, B, B', H, I, J, K) = 50 μm, (C, D) = 10 μm. A.U.: arbitrary units.

Figure 2. Genetic depletion of microglia worsens the pathology in Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos. (A) Outline of microglia depletion experiments. Embryos were injected at the single cell stage with a solution of antisense morpholino oligonucleotide targeting pU.1 transcripts. At 5 dpf, injected embryos were incubated in Neutral Red solution to sort microglia-depleted embryos. (B) Dorsal views of the optic tectum of 5 dpf wild-type microglia-depleted (B2) and untreated live embryos (B1), following incubation in Neutral Red solution. (C) Dorsal views of the optic tectum of 5 dpf wild-type microglia-depleted (C2) and untreated fixed embryos (C1), labelled with L-plastin antibody. (D, E) Measurements of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the brain of 5 dpf wild-type embryos with (n=6), or without (n=3) microglia; and Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos with (n=11), or without microglia (n=7). Both relative

expressions of IL-1β (**D**, $p = 0.035$) and IL-8 (**E**, $p < 0.0001$) display a significant increase in the brains of Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos without microglia cells, compared to Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos with microglial cells. (**F, G**) Representative Western blots membranes of total protein extracts from 6 dpf Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos with (left) or without (right) microglia, hybridated with antibodies against human total Tau (total Tau) or human phosphorylated Tau at Ser396 residues (pTau) (**F**); and quantification of corresponding pTau/total Tau ratio (respectively, n=4 and n=4) (**G**, $p = 0.01$). The ratio of hyperphosphorylated hTau protein is significantly increased in Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos that are microglia-depleted with morpholino. (**H-J**) Dorsal views of the telencephalon of 6 dpf Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos (**H**) and Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed; *nlrc3-like*$^{st73/73}$) embryos (**I**), labelled with an antibody against human phosphorylated Tau at Ser396 and Ser404 residues (PHF1); and quantification of corresponding PHF1/hTau^{P301L}-DsRed signal ratio (respectively, n=4 and n=6) (**J**, $p = 0.0485$). The quantification of the ratio of hyperphosphorylated hTau protein on brain sections from Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed; *nlrc3-like*$^{st73/73}$) mutant embryos devoid of microglia confirmed the significant increase of this ratio displayed in protein extracts from Tg(HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryos microglia-depleted with morpholino. ***, $p < 0.001$; **, $p < 0.01$; *, $p < 0.05$. Scale bar (B, C, H, I) = 50 μm.

Figure 3. **Microglia phagocytic activity is increased in presence of hTau^{P301L}–expressing, but appears non-sufficient in eliminating all apoptotic neurons.** (**A**) Schematic illustration of 7 dpf embryo in dorsal view. The red square shows the region of the optic tectum where the time-lapse (**B, C**) was recorded. (**B, C**) Time-lapse imaging of a microglial cell phagocyting a diseased neuron (yellow arrowhead) in a 7 dpf Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) embryo; (**B**, Video 3) merge of GFP and DsRed; (**C**) DsRed only. (**D**, $p = 0.0262$) Quantification of the engulfed neuronal volume in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-RFP) (n=7) and Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) (n=9) embryos, showing a significantly increased phagocytosis level by microglial cells in the presence of hTau^{P301L}-expressing neurons. (**E-H**, Video 4) Time-lapse image sequences from the optic tectum of a double transgenic Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-hTau^{P301L}:DsRed)

7 dpf embryo, showing a detail of a microglial cell in the process of phagocyting a neuron

labelled with an apoptosis marker, acridine orange (merge: **E**, GFP and acridine: **F**, DsRed only:

G, acridine only: **H**). The microglial cell filled with other dead tauopathic neurons extends its

process to another dying tauopathic neuron and draws it towards its body cell to complete the

phagocytosis process. (**I**, $p = 0.027$), Quantification of the number of non-engulfed apoptotic

neurons in Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-RFP) (n=11) and double transgenic Tg(ApoE-eGFP; HuC-

hTau^{P301L}:DsRed) (n=4) embryos in which there is a significantly higher number of un-engulfed

apoptotic neurons. ***, $p < 0.001$; **, $p < 0.01$; *, $p < 0.05$. Scale bar (B, C, E, F, G, H) = 20

µm.

Figure 4. Summary illustration. (**A**, **B**) Brain illustrations of control embryo (**A**) and

tauopathic embryo (**B**). In the control embryo brain, microglial cells (green) display a highly

ramified morphology, allowing them to scan the brain and monitor neighbouring neurons

(orange) and eliminate apoptotic ones (blue). However, in presence of hTau^{P301L}–expressing

neurons (red), microglial cells (green) adopt a noninflammatory amoeboid morphology, that

allows them to move faster throughout the brain in order to eliminate tauopathic neurons

undergoing apoptosis (blue). In spite of an increased phagocytic rate of microglial cells in the

tauopathic brain, there is a higher number of non-engulfed apoptotic neurons (blue), in

comparison to the control brain; thus, suggesting a saturated phagocytic capacity of microglial

in the tauopathic brain.