Replacement of microglia by brain-engrafted macrophages provide protection against concussive injury

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Abstract

Brain resident microglia have a distinct origin compared to macrophages in other organs. Under physiological conditions, microglia are maintained by self-renewal from the local pool, independent of hematopoietic progenitors. Pharmacological depletion of microglia during therapeutic whole-brain irradiation prevents synaptic loss and long-term recognition memory deficits. Here we demonstrate that after concurrent therapeutic whole-brain irradiation and microglia depletion, macrophages originating from circulating monocytes engraft into the brain and replace the microglia pool. Comparisons of transcriptomes reveal that brain-engrafted macrophages have an intermediate phenotype which resembles both monocytes and embryonic microglia. In response to a secondary concussive brain injury, brain-engrafted macrophages display reduced phagocytic activity for synaptic compartments compared to that of microglia from normal brain. Notably, mice bearing engrafted macrophages are spared from concussive injury-induced memory loss. Taken together, our data demonstrate that replacement of microglia by brain-engrafted macrophages provides protection against concussive brain injury-induced memory deficits.

Brain resident microglia are the innate immune cells of the central nervous system (CNS). Arising from the yolk sac during embryonic development, microglia actively survey the environment to maintain normal brain functions (*1, 2*). Under physiological conditions, microglia populations are maintained solely by self-renewal from the local pool (*3*). Following brain injury and other pathological conditions, microglia become activated and play a central role in the clearance of cellular debris. However, if not controlled this process can result in aberrant synaptic engulfment (*4-7*). Temporary depletion of microglia can be achieved by using pharmacologic inhibitors of the colony-stimulating factor 1 receptor (CSF-1R) (*8*). In the normal brain, treatment with CSF-1R inhibitors (CSF-1Ri) can deplete up to 99% of microglia without causing detectable changes to cognitive functions (*8, 9*). Full repopulation occurs within 14 days of inhibitor withdrawal, and the repopulated microglia are morphologically and functionally identical to the microglia in naïve brains (*9*). Microglia depletion and repopulation by local progenitors has been shown to be beneficial for disease- ,injury- , and age-associated neuropathological and behavioral conditions(*10-15*).

Whole-brain radiotherapy (WBRT), delivered in multiple fractions, is routinely used to treat patients with brain tumors. While it is effective in intracranial tumor control, WBRT leads to deterioration of cognitive function and quality of life in patients(*16-18*). Depletion of microglia during or shortly after whole-brain irradiation in animal models can prevent long term radiation-induced loss of dendritic spines in hippocampal neurons and memory impairments(*12-14*)(and **Supplementary Figure 1**). These results demonstrate the critical role that microglia play in inducing synaptic abnormalities and consequently, cognitive deficits after brain irradiation. However, the cell-of-origin and functions of repopulated "microglia" after microglia depletion and WBRT are unknown. In the current study, we demonstrate the origin and functionality of repopulated microglia-like cells after concurrent microglia depletion and WBRT.

The fractalkine receptor CX3CR1 is expressed in both microglia and peripheral monocytes (*19*), while chemokine receptor CCR2 is mainly expressed in monocytes (*20*). In the Cx3cr1$^{GFP/+}$Ccr2$^{RFP/+}$ reporter mice, the expression patterns of GFP and RFP can be used to distinguish microglia (GFP+RFP-) from monocytes (GFP+RFP+) (*20*). To investigate the origin of the cells that repopulate after concurrent microglia depletion and WBRT we generated bone marrow chimeras with head-protected irradiation using fluorescent labeled bone marrow from Cx3cr1$^{GFP/+}$Ccr2$^{RFP/+}$ donor mice (**Figure 1a**). This approach allowed partial replacement of bone marrow cells without changing the permeability of the blood-brain-barrier (*2, 21, 22*). At six weeks after bone marrow transplantation about two thirds of peripheral monocytes were replaced by transplanted cells with fluorescent labels (**Figure 1b**). Bone marrow chimera animals were then treated with WBRT and CSF-1R inhibitor. Next we compared the compositions of myeloid cells in the brain after CSF-1R inhibitor-mediated depletion and repopulation. Flow cytometry analyses performed 33 days after WBRT revealed that microglia depletion and repopulation alone (Sham + CSF-1Ri) only resulted in limited accumulation of transplanted cells in the brain (**Figure 1c, BMT only**). However, in mice that received WBRT and CSF-1Ri, two thirds of the microglia were replaced by Cx3cr1-GFP labeled cells (**Figure 1c, BMT +fWBI**). These results demonstrate that peripheral monocyte-derived BEMs are the major component of the CNS myeloid cell pool after WBRT and microglia depletion. Importantly, radiation-induced differentially expressed genes in stress/radiation response, cell cycle regulation and DNA repair pathways were only found in the WBRT treated but not in CSF-1Ri or WBRT+CSF-1Ri treated brains (**Supplementary Figure 2**).

We next assessed the transcriptomic signature of the BEMs after microglia depletion and WBRT by comparing our RNAseq dataset with a previous report by Lavin and Winter *et al* (*23*). To minimize false discovery and noise signals, we examined 1201 genes from this published dataset with a fold change greater than 1.50 or smaller than 0.667 for down-regulated genes

(p<0.05, monocyte compared to naïve microglia), and found that 1066 genes were expressed in our samples (**Table S1**). Strikingly, the hierarchical clustering of 525 monocyte- and 541 microglia-signature genes revealed that the expression profile of monocyte-derived BEMs (WBRT + CSF-1Ri) does not cluster with naïve (Sham + Control diet), irradiated (WBRT + Control diet) or repopulated (Sham + CSF-1Ri) microglia (**Figure 1d**). A similarity matrix analysis using this microglia/monocyte signature gene list revealed that the expression pattern in BEMs is different from naïve, irradiated and repopulated microglia (**Figure 1e**). We counted genes in each group that expressed in the same trends as microglia or monocyte signature genes from the Lavin data set to determine the similarity scores to these two cell populations. Naïve, irradiated and repopulated microglia had 60%, 57% and 51% (718, 685 and 612) genes expressed in the same trends as microglia signature genes, respectively, with minimum similarity (2-3%) to monocyte signature genes; while BEMs expressed both microglia (28%, 331 genes) and monocyte signature genes (32%, 386 genes) (**Figure 1f**). These results validate that after concurrent microglia depletion and WBRT, BEMs originate from blood monocytes (see **Supplementary Figure 3** for qPCR validation of microglia vs monocyte markers).

To determine whether BEMs are present long-term in the brain, we monitored this cellular population six months after WBRT. To eliminate the limitation of using bone marrow obtained from the Cx3cr1$^{+/GFP}$Ccr2$^{+/RFP}$ knock-in reporter mouse strain, we used an actin-GFP transgenic line as bone marrow donors and generated chimeras using the same body-only irradiation protocol (**Figure 2 a**). Six weeks later, mice were treated with CSF-1R inhibitor and WBRT and then used to trace BEMs at varies time points (**Figure 2 a**). Whole coronal sections at the level of the dorsal hippocampus were stained with Iba1 and imaged to quantify total Iba1+ and GFP+ cells (**Supplementary Figure 4 a**). We found that all GFP+ cells in the brain were also Iba1+, suggesting that BEMs were indeed derived from the periphery. In addition, the morphology of Iba1+GFP+ BEMs were analyzed and compared to Iba1+GFP- microglia (**Figure**

2 b and d). We found that round-shaped Iba1+GFP+ BEM cells entered the brain starting from 7 days after WBRT, and started to obtain more processes that resembled microglia morphology (**Figure 2 b**). However, Sholl analysis demonstrated that the morphology of BEMs remained stable from 33 days after WBRT and never reached the structural complexity of microglia (**Figure 2c, Supplementary Figure 5**). We found that 40 – 90% of Iba1+ cells are also GFP+ at 14 days after WBRT. This ratio remained at high levels at one, three and six months after WBRT (**Figure 2 e**). Interestingly, although the Iba1+ and Iba1+GFP+ cell numbers were not fully recovered at 14 days after WBRT, the microglia replacement ratio was similar to the level of later time points (**Figure 2 e and Supplementary Figure 4 b and c**), suggesting a non-competitive manner of brain parenchyma occupancy by microglia and BEMs. These data demonstrate that BEMs enter the brain shortly after WBRT, adapt to a microglia-like morphology and maintain a stable population.

We have previously reported that a single mild concussive C̲losed H̲ead I̲njury (CHI) can induce memory deficits in mice(*24, 25*). To investigate the function of BEMs after they replaced microglia, a CHI was given to mice 30 days after CSF-1R inhibitor treatment and WBRT; microglia/BEMs morphology and phagocytic activities were measured following recognition memory test by NOR (**Fig 3 a**). By FACS analysis at 24 days post injury, we found that phagocytosis activity increased (p=0.0419) after CHI in microglia but not in BEMs (**Figure 3 b**). Quantification of immunofluorescent staining of Iba-1/PSD-95 co-localization revealed a trend of increased engulfment towards pre-stained synaptosomes by microglia, but not by BEMs (**Fig 3 c and d**). In addition, Sholl analysis demonstrated that the structural complexity of microglia decreased, while the morphology of BEMs remained unchanged after CHI (**Figure 3 e**). Furthermore, at 20 days after injury, CHI-induced recognition memory deficits were spared in mice whose microglia were replaced by BEMs (**Figure 3 f**). These results demonstrate that unlike resident microglia, which transition to a less ramified morphology and exhibit increased

phagocytic activity towards injected synaptosomes, BEMs remain unchanged in both morphology and phagocytic activity in response to CHI. More importantly, our data suggest that replacement of microglia by BEMs can protect against CHI-induced memory loss.

Here we demonstrate that peripheral monocytes contribute largely to repopulated microglia-like cells after concurrent microglia depletion and WBRT. After entering the brain, BEMs gradually gain a microglia-like morphology but never reach the structural complexity of microglia. BEMs persist in the brain and express both microglia and monocyte signature genes. More importantly, unlike microglia which respond to CHI by upregulating their phagocytic capacity and undergo structural changes toward a more amoeboid-like morphology, BEMs remain unchanged in both regards. As a result, BEM-bearing animals are spared from CHI-induced memory deficits. Our results provide evidence for the involvement of microglia as a direct cause of memory deficits after concussive injury, which can be prevented by replacement of microglia by BEMs.

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Author contributions

X.F. conceptualized the study, designed and performed the experiments, analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript. E.F. performed experiments, analyzed the data, drew the graphic abstract and wrote the manuscript. M.P performed experiments, analyzed the data and revised the manuscript. D.C. assisted in the in vivo phagocytosis assay and data analysis. Z.B. helped with the in vivo phagocytosis assay imaging and data analysis. M.B. assisted in the Sholl analysis of microglia and BEMs. S.G analyzed the long-term dendritic spine counts data. S.L. provided assistance in experiments related to WBRT and BM chimeras. N.G. provided critical inputs to the study and revised the manuscript. S.R. conceptualized and supervised the study and revised the manuscript. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Repopulated cells after concurrent microglia depletion and WBRT are brain-engrafted macrophages originating from peripheral monocytes. **a** experimental design of head-protected bone marrow transplantation (BMT) followed by CSF-1Ri-mediated microglia depletion and WBRT. Lower panel shows fur colors before euthanasian for brain analysis. **b** representative FACS analysis gating strategy to analyze bone marrow chimera efficiency 6 weeks after BMT, about two thirds of the CD11b$^+$Ly6C^{high} monocytes are replaced by GFP$^+$RFP$^+$ cells derived from donor bone marrow cells. **c** representative FACS analysis gating strategy and brain myeloid composition results. Upper panel shows FACS gating using CD45 and CD11b staining; microglia and microglia-like cells are defined by positive CD11b staining and low or intermediate CD45 levels. Lower panel shows scatter plots of GFP/RFP fluorescent levels of the CD11b$^+$CD45$^{low/intermediate}$ population in the brain, and a dot plot comparing percentages of peripheral myeloid cell derived microglia-like cells. Statistical analysis was performed using unpaired t-test, ***p<0.001. **d** hierarchically clustered heatmaps to compare microglia and monocyte signatures. A signature gene list was defined using a dataset published by Lavin and Winter et al, GSE63340. Defined list and expression details are in Table S1). **e** Similarity matrix comparisons using defined monocyte and microglia signature genes. **f** bar graph showing similarity scores to compare relative numbers of genes (in percentage of the defined list) that express in the same trends as monocytes or microglia based on the Lavin and Winter *et al* dataset.

Figure 2: BEMs gradually adapt to microglia-like morphology and persist in the brain. **a,** schematic of experimental design for long-term assessment of BEMs. **b,** representative images of microglia/BEMs counting, scale bar = 20 μm. **c,** Sholl analysis results showing numbers of intersections at different distances to cell center, BEMs at 7, 14, 33, 90 and 180 days after WBRT were compared to naïve microglia age-matched to 90 days after WBRT., representative

images showing differential Iba1 and GFP expressing bprofiles of microglia (Iba1+ GFP-) and BEMs (Iba1+ GFP+) in a BEM bearing brain at 33 days after WBRT. **e**, dot plot to show percentage of replacement of microglia by BEMs, each dot represent an individual mouse. n = 2 - 3. Statistical analyses were performed using unpaired t-test at each distance point (c) or time point (e). See Supplementary Figure 7 for detailed comparisons between microglia and BEMs at each time point.

Figure 3: Replacement of microglia by BEMs protects against concussive injury-induced memory deficits. **a**, schematic of experimental design for concussive injury, cognitive test and following analyses. **b**, dot plot to show the result of in vivo phagocytosis assay by FACS after injection of pre-stained synaptosomes, each dot represents value from an individual mouse, n = 4 -5. **c**, dot plot showing result of in vivo phagocytosis assay by IF imaging and quantification, each dot represents mean counts from an individual mouse, n = 3. **d**, representative images showing microglia and BEMs (arrows) phagocyting injected synaptosomes (green dots). **e**, Sholl analysis result showing numbers of intersections at different distances to the cell center, n = 5 - 6. **f**, dot plot showing NOR test result, each dot represent the performance of an individual mouse, n = 12. Statistical analyses were performed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (b and c) for each distance point (e) or unpaired t-test (f). *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3