**RESEARCH ARTICLE** 

retinal degeneration

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Abstract

Retinal Müller glial cells have been shown to undergo reactive gliosis in a variety of retinal diseases. Upregulation of glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) is a hallmark of Müller cell activation. Reactive gliosis after retinal detachment or ischemia/reperfusion is characterized by hypertrophy and downregulation of inwardly rectifying K<sup>+</sup> (Kir) currents. However, this kind of physiological alteration could not be detected in slowly progressing retinal degenerations. The photoreceptor toxin N-methyl-N-nitrosourea (MNU) leads to the rapid loss of cells in the outer nuclear layer and subsequent Müller cell activation. Here, we investigated whether Müller cells from MNU-treated mice exhibit reactive gliosis. We found that Müller cells showed increased GFAP expression and increased membrane capacitance, indicating hypertrophy. Membrane potential and Kir channel-mediated K<sup>+</sup> currents were not significantly altered whereas Kir4.1 29 mRNA expression and Kir-mediated inward current densities were markedly decreased. This suggests that MNU-induced 30 Müller cell gliosis is characterized by plasma membrane increase without alteration in the membrane content of Kir channels. Taken together, our findings show that Müller cells of MNU-treated mice are reactive and respond with a form of gliosis which is characterized by cellular hypertrophy but no changes in Kir current amplitudes.

Characteristics of Müller glial cells in MNU-induced

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## Introduction

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Müller cells are the dominating macroglial cells of the vertebrate retina. These cells have contacts to all types of retinal neurons and fulfill a variety of functions (Reichenbach and Bringmann, 2010, 40 2013). For example, Müller cells play an important role in the 41 homeostasis of the extracellular space. To this end, they express a 42 variety of ion channels, transmitter receptors, and transporters in their 43 membrane. Among them, the glial inwardly rectifying potassium 44 (Kir) channels, particularly of the Kir4.1 type, are involved in the 45 process of spatial buffering of K+ ions and in the retinal osmoregu-46 lation (Kofuji and Connors, 2003). During pathophysiological changes 47 in the retina, Müller cells undergo a process referred to as reactive 48 gliosis (Bringmann et al., 2006, 2009). Reactive Müller cells are 49 characterized by an increased expression of the intermediate fila-50 ment protein glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP; Lewis and 51 Fisher, 2003). Moreover, a role for glial K<sup>+</sup> channels during gliosis 52 has been hypothesized by Bringmann et al. (2000). We found spe-53 cific alterations of electrophysiological properties in many, but not 54 all cases of retinal degeneration. A decrease of currents through Kir 55 channels was observed in human eyes with different pathologies 56

36 (Francke et al., 1997) and in several animal species after retinal detachment, proliferative vitreoretinopathy, retinal ischemia, retinal vein occlusion, ocular inflammation, and diabetic retinopathy 39 (Francke et al., 2001; Pannicke et al., 2005a, b, 2006; Iandiev et al., 40 2006a; Rehak et al., 2009; Hirrlinger et al., 2010; Wurm et al., 41 2011). However, in some other animal models of retinal degenera-42 tion, the Kir current amplitude of Müller cells remained largely 43 unaltered, e.g., during Borna disease virus (BDV)-induced degen-44 eration or in the slowly degenerating retina of the rds mutant mouse 45 (Pannicke et al., 2001; Iandiev et al., 2006b). The reason for the 46 variability of the gliotic Müller cell response is currently unknown. 47 It has been hypothesized that downregulation of Kir currents is typ-48 ical for proliferating Müller cells (Bringmann et al., 2000) and that 49 slow retinal degenerations induce a type of Müller cell gliosis that 50 is characterized by cellular hypertrophy but lacks downregulation 51 of inward currents (Iandiev et al., 2006b). 52

The tumorigenic substance N-methyl-N-nitrosourea (MNU) is 53 well known to induce retinal degeneration in a variety of species 54 via DNA damage. Thereby, it evokes photoreceptor cell death within seven days after administration (Tsubura, 2003). MNU causes guanine methylation of the DNA (Jobst, 196) triggers 55 56 57 caspase-dependent as well as caspase-independent cell death path-58 ways (Yoshizawa et al., 1999; Zulliger et al., 2011; Reisenhofer 59 et al., 2015). Still, the exact mechanisms of photoreceptor degener-60 ation remain uncertain. Since the human retinal disease retinitis

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pigmentosa (RP) is in general characterized by the irreversible loss of photoreceptors, the MNU-model could be used to investigate photoreceptor cellular responses in vivo 4 (Yuge et al., 1996, seen in many retinal degenerations, Müller 5 cells displayed also enhanced GFAP expression in response to the 6 MNU-induced loss of photoreceptor cells (Wan et al., 2008; Chen 7 et al., 2014). Furthermore, in MNU-treated rats, Müller cells 8 re-entered the cell cycle which was indicated by the expression of 0 cyclin D1 and D3 (Wan et al., 2007). However, Müller cell responses were shown to vary under different pathophysiological conditions and little is known about Müller cells in MNU-induced retinal degeneration in mice. In this study, we investigated changes in Müller cell physiology and employed the patch clamp technique 14 to elucidate alterations in Müller cell membrane properties in the MNU model. 16

# 18 Materials and methods19

# 20 Animals

All animals were treated according to principles regarding care and
use of animals adopted by the American Physiological Society and
the Society for Neuroscience and after governmental approval. Six
weeks-old male C57/BL6 mice received a single intraperitoneal
(i.p.) injection of freshly prepared 1% MNU (Sigma-Aldrich,
Taufkirchen, Germany) in 0.9% saline containing 0.05% acetic
acid and were euthanized after 1, 3, 5, or 7 days post injection (PI),
respectively. Final concentration of MNU was 60 mg/kg bodyweight. Control animals received a similar volume of 0.9% saline
containing 0.05% acetic acid.

#### 34 Histology

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35 Eyes were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA; Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) at 4°C overnight (o/n), and embedded in paraffin. Sections  $(5 \ \mu m)$  were collected at the level of the optic nerve head (ONH). Slides were rehydrated in a graded alcohol series and stained with 39 Mayer's hemalum (Merck, Zug, Switzerland) and eosin (H&E; 40 Carl Roth, Arlesheim, Switzerland). After dehydration, slides were 41 mounted with EUKITT® (O. Kindler, Freiburg, Germany) and 42 visualized with a Nikon Eclipse upright microscope (Nikon, Egg, 43 Switzerland). 44

#### <sup>46</sup> 47 Immunohistochemistry

48 Eyes were fixed in 4% PFA at 4°C o/n, then retinae were dissected 49 and embedded in 3% agarose (Bio&SELL, Feucht, Germany) in 50 phosphate buffered saline (PBS; Merck). Subsequent, 40 µm sections were cut with a vibratome (Leica, Solms, Germany). Sections 51 AQ3 52 were incubated in blocking solution (PBS with 0.3% Triton X-100 and 53 1% DMSO (all from Roth, Karlsruhe, Germany) and 5% normal 54 goat serum (NGS; Jackson ImmunoResearch, Newmarket, UK) for 55 1 h at room temperature (RT). Primary antibodies (CRALBP, 56 1:300, Santa Cruz, Heidelberg, Germany; GFAP, 1:500, Dako, 57 Eching, Germany; Glutamine synthetase, 1:500, Merck; Kir4.1, 58 1:400, Alomone Labs, Jerusalem, Israel; SOX9, 1:500, Merck) 59 were incubated in blocking solution at 4°C o/n. After washing with 60 PBS at RT for 3 h, secondary antibodies (Cy2- or Cy3-coupled goat 61 anti-mouse, Cy2- or Cy3-coupled goat anti-rabbit, 1:400, Dianova, 62 Hamburg, Germany) were incubated in blocking solution at RT

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for 2 h. Sections were washed in PBS at RT for 1 h. Nuclei were 1 counterstained with TO-PRO®-3 iodide (1:1000 in PBS, Life 2 Technologies, Darmstadt, Germany) at RT for 30 min. After 3 washing at RT in PBS for 30 min, sections were mounted with 4 Immu-Mount<sup>TM</sup> (Life Technologies). Immunohistochemical stainings were visualized using a Zeiss LSM 510 Meta (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

#### Quantitative real-time PCR

For quantitative real time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR), 12 six retinae were pooled and total RNA was extracted using the 13 RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen, Hombrechtikon, Switzerland) accord-14 ing to the manufacturer's instructions. RNA quantity and quality 15 were assessed with the Experion Automated Electrophoresis 16 System (Bio-Rad, Cressier, Switzerland). For cDNA synthesis and 17 subsequent qRT-PCR, only RNA samples with an RNA quality 18 indicator (RQI) > 7.0 were used. cDNA was synthesized from 1  $\mu$ g total RNA using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad, 20 Cressier, Switzerland) according to the manufacturer's instructions. 21 qRT-PCR was performed using an iQ5 real-time PCR Detection 22 System (Bio-Rad). The 25  $\mu$ l PCR reaction mix included 1× iQ 23 SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad), 1 µl of cDNA (125 ng), and 24 1 µl of forward and reverse primer (400 nM, *Gapdh* [NM\_008084] 25 forward 3' AACTTTGGCATTGTGGAAGG 5', reverse 3' 26 ACACATTGGGGGTAGGAACA 5' (Takahashi, 2005); Kcnj10 27 [NM\_001039484] forward 3' TCACCGTTAGCCTCCAACTC 5', 28 reverse 3' CCTTGCACACTGGACACATC 5'). Relative quantifi-29 cation of mRNA expression was calculated using GenEx software 30 (MultiD, Göteborg, Sweden). Cycle thresholds were normalized to 31 the reference gene *Gapdh* and partly to control samples using the 32  $\Delta\Delta C_{\rm t}$  method.

#### Cell isolation

Retinal tissue was incubated in Ca<sup>2+</sup>/Mg<sup>2+</sup> free PBS containing papain (0.2 mg/ml; Roche, Mannheim, Germany) at 37°C for 30 min, followed by three washing steps with PBS. After incubation in DNase I (200 U/ml, Sigma-Aldrich) at RT for 2 min, tissue was triturated with a wide-bore pipette in serum-free Minimum Essential Medium (MEM; Sigma-Aldrich) containing 10 mM HEPES, to obtain a single cell suspension. Cells were stored at 4°C and analyzed within 4 h.

#### Whole cell patch clamp recordings of isolated Müller cells

Experiments were performed at RT. Patch pipettes were pulled 49 from borosilicate glass (GB150-8P, Science Products, Hofheim, 50 Germany) and had a resistance of 5–7 M $\Omega$  when filled with intra-51 cellular solution (ICS) containing (in mM) 10 NaCl (Roth, Karlsruhe, 52 Germany), 130 KCl (Roth), 2 MgCl<sub>2</sub> (Sigma), 1 CaCl<sub>2</sub> (Merck), 10 53 EGTA (SERVA, Heidelberg, Germany), 10 HEPES (Roth), pH 7.1. 54 The recording chamber was perfused with extracellular solution 55 (ECS) containing (in mM) 135 NaCl, 3 KCl, 2 CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1 MgCl<sub>2</sub>, 56 10 HEPES, 11 glucose, 1 Na<sub>2</sub>HPO<sub>4</sub> (all from Roth), pH 7.4. Cells 57 were visualized with an upright microscope (Axioskop, Zeiss) and 58 Müller cells were identified by their morphology. Membrane currents 59 of isolated Müller cells were recorded in the voltage clamp mode, using the Axopatch 200A amplifier (Axon Instruments, Foster City, 61 CA, USA) and the ISO-2 software (MFK, Niedernhausen, Germany). 62

Signals were low-pass filtered at 1, 2, or 6 kHz (Bessel filter, 2 Frequency Devices, Haverhill, USA). Membrane currents were evoked by applying depolarizing and hyperpolarizing voltage steps 4 of 10 mV increment and 250 ms duration from a holding potential 5 of -80 mV. The series resistance was compensated by 30-40%. 6 BaCl<sub>2</sub> (1 mM) was used to block Kir channels. The resting membrane potential was measured in the current clamp mode. The 8 membrane capacitance of the cells was measured by the integral of 9 the uncompensated capacitive artifact (filtered at 6 kHz) evoked by a 10 mV voltage step in the presence of extracellular BaCl<sub>2</sub> (1 mM). Current densities were calculated by dividing the current amplitudes recorded at a 60 mV hyperpolarizing step by the membrane capacitance.

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### 16 Statistical analysis

All results were replicated in at least three independent experiments. Values were presented as the mean  $\pm$  SD. Statistical analysis was performed using SigmaPlot Software (Systat Software Inc, Erkrath, Germany). Statistical difference between two groups was determined by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey or Holm-Sidak post hoc comparison test. Differences in means with P < 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

#### Results

#### Retinal degeneration

To quantify the loss of photoreceptor cells induced by the MNU treatment, nuclei were counted in H&E-stained paraffin cross sections (Fig. 1). In mice treated with MNU the number of cells in the outer nuclear layer (ONL) was not significantly changed after one day (101.00  $\pm$  20.60%). After three days, the number was however significantly decreased to 64.95  $\pm$  8.82% (*P* < 0.01) of the number of photoreceptor nuclei in untreated animals. After five days, the



Fig. 1. Quantification of photoreceptor nuclei in the ONL. Numbers of photoreceptor nuclei in the ONL were significantly decreased at d3, d5, and d7 when compared to numbers obtained from control samples (\*\*; P < 0.01). A significant decrease was also evident between d3 and d5–d7 (\*\*; P < 0.01). Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 animals per time point).

number decreased further to  $17.07 \pm 9.08\%$  (P < 0.01), and after 1 seven days only  $11.43 \pm 4.74\%$  (P < 0.01) of the original number 2 of photoreceptor nuclei were detectable. Three mice were used for 3 each time point. Nuclei were counted in a defined area in nine different slices per animal. 5

#### Müller cell reactivity

To assess whether the MNU-treatment has an effect on Müller cells, immunohistochemistry was performed on retinal sections. Under control conditions, Müller cells expressed the cell-specific marker cellular retinaldehyde-binding protein (CRALBP, Fig. 2A), whereas GFAP was only expressed in astrocytes localized in the nerve fiber layer and to a limited extent in Müller cell end feet (Fig. 2B). In retinas obtained from MNU-treated animals, CRALBP expression did not show prominent changes (Fig. 2A). In contrast, GFAP expression, indicating reactive Müller cells, was introduced in a number of Müller cell processes starting from d1 PI and could be observed at all time points analyzed (Fig. 2B). Three animals were used for immunostainings at each time point.

The increase of *Gfap* mRNA expression was confirmed by qPCR analysis (three mice per time point and three independent experiments). Fold changes of *Cralbp* were not significantly altered (d3:  $1.82 \pm 0.57$ , d5:  $2.45 \pm 0.36$ , d7:  $2.75 \pm 0.48$ ) relative to mRNA expression in control samples (Fig. 2C). In contrast, fold changes of *Gfap* were  $4.31 \pm 2.96$  (d3),  $7.30 \pm 2.86$  (d5, P < 0.001), and  $5.46 \pm 1.59$  (d7, P < 0.05) relative to mRNA expression in control samples (Fig. 2D). SOX9 is a marker for Müller cells in the adult retina (Poché et al., 2008). Immunohistochemical staining for SOX9 was performed one and three days PI. SOX9-positive nuclei were counted in a defined area in three different slices per animal. Quantification (Fig. 3) revealed that there was no statistically significant alteration of the Müller cell number (n = 3 mice per time point).

#### Electrophysiology

Müller cells are known to show altered membrane properties under certain pathological conditions. Therefore, we employed 40 the patch clamp technique to investigate possible changes in 41Müller cells from MNU-treated animals. Thereby, three mice 42 and  $\geq$ 15 cells per time point were used. Fig. 4 depicts representative outward (upward) and inward (downward) currents of 44 control cells and cells obtained from MNU-treated animals. 45 Cells (n = 16) from three control animals displayed a membrane 46 potential of  $-79 \pm 5$  mV (Fig. 5A), a membrane capacitance of 47  $21 \pm 7$  pF (Fig. 5B), and an amplitude of inward membrane 48 currents of  $1727 \pm 463$  pA at 60 mV hyperpolarization (Fig. 5C). 49 Those currents constitute to a large amount of K<sup>+</sup> currents which 50 are mediated by Kir channels. Conductance of Kir channels can 51 be blocked by barium, inward currents are absent under the 52 presence of  $Ba^{2+}$  ions (Fig. 4). The fact that outward currents 53 were also decreased by Ba<sup>2+</sup> ions, indicating a weak rectifica- 54 tion of blocked currents, leads to the conclusion that the weak 55 inwardly rectifying channel subunit Kir4.1 is the most predom- 56 inant one. The current density  $(84 \pm 39 \text{ pA/pF} \text{ for control cells})$ , 57 Fig. 5D) was calculated since whole cell currents were measured in this experiment and amplitude of these currents did not 59 allow concluding how many channels were located on a defined 60 membrane area. After the treatment with MNU, the membrane 61 potential was not significantly altered (Fig. 5A), whereas the 62





Fig. 2. Analysis of Müller cell marker expression. (A) CRALBP expression (green) did not change after the MNU-treatment. (B) GFAP expression (red) was only detectable in astrocytes and Müller cell endfeet in control retinas and 1 day PI, but was strongly increased 3 and 7 days PI. Nuclei were counterstained with TO-PRO3. Scale bars indicate 20 µm. GCL: ganglion cell layer, INL: inner nuclear layer, ONL: outer nuclear layer. (C) Cralbp mRNA expression did not significantly change after the MNU-treatment. (D) Gfap mRNA expression was significantly upregulated 5 (\*\*\*; P < 0.001) and 7 (\*; P < 0.05) days PI. The mRNA expression was normalized to the expression of the reference gene Gapdh and control samples. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 animals per time point, repeated in three independent experiments).

membrane capacitance was significantly increased at all time points analyzed (Fig. 5B). Furthermore, the amplitude of inward membrane currents at 60 mV hyperpolarization was not significantly

altered after application of MNU (Fig. 5C). The current density was significantly decreased at all time points analyzed after MNU  $\,$   $\,61$ treatment (Fig. 5D).

#### Kir4.1 expression and distribution

On the mRNA level, expression of Kir4.1 was significantly reduced compared to control samples at all time points analyzed (n = 3 mice per time point and 3 independent experiments). In control samples, relative gene expression was 7.49 ± 0.16 and this was significantly downregulated at d3 PI (4.53 ± 0.87, P < 0.001), d5 PI (5.01 ± 0.53, P < 0.001), and d7 (5.78 ± 0.64, P < 0.05) (Fig. 6A). Immuno-histochemical stainings were used to analyze the distribution of Kir4.1 immunoreactivity. In control samples, Kir4.1 is expressed around blood vessels and at the inner limiting membranes. This expression pattern does not markedly change after MNU-treatment (Fig. 6B).

#### Discussion

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Müller cell function is inevitable for retinal homeostasis. It has been shown in many cases of retinal diseases and animal models of



**Fig. 3.** Quantification of SOX9-positive cells. Nuclei located in the INL and immunopositive for the Müller cell marker SOX9 were quantified in control retinas and 1 and 3 days PI. No significant changes in the number of SOX9-positive cells were observed. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD (n = 3 animals per time point).

retinal degeneration that Müller cells respond to damage with activation characterized by increased filament protein expression 2 (Bringmann et al., 2006). In this study, we could show that in 3response to MNU-induced photoreceptor loss Müller cells increased 4 GFAP expression on the transcript and protein level (Fig. 2). We 5 did not find any evidence that the number of SOX9-positive Müller 6 cells was affected either by the treatment or by the photoreceptor loss (Fig. 3). We cannot draw a direct conclusion about the occur- 8 rence of proliferation from our data. Wan and colleagues (2007) demonstrated that Müller cells re-entered the cell cycle and started to proliferate during MNU-induced retinal degeneration. They used rats and did not perform a SOX9-staining, which might explain the differences to our study. Another study performed in mice after 14 light-induced photoreceptor injury showed that Müller cell activa-15 tion was followed by the expression of cell cycle markers, but not by proliferation. These findings suggest that mature murine Müller 16 cells can re-enter the cell cycle but that the transition to the S-phase 18 and subsequent mitosis are blocked (Joly et al., 2011).

To further investigate the murine Müller cell response we ana-19 lyzed electrophysiological properties of freshly isolated cells. In 20 our study, Müller cells displayed a typical negative membrane 21 potential that was not altered after the MNU-treatment (Fig. 5A). 22 Furthermore, we found that the membrane capacitance was notably 23 increased (Fig. 5B). Recording of the membrane capacitance by the patch clamp technique allows calculation of the cell surface 25 area (Neher and Marty, 1982). An enhanced capacitance indicates 26 an increased cell surface area and, thus, cell hypertrophy. This is often 27 seen in reactive Müller cells in retinal degenerations (Bringmann et al., 28 2002; Rehak et al., 2009). The amplitude of K<sup>+</sup> inward currents <sup>29</sup> was not significantly changed (Fig. 5C) suggesting that the number 30 of Kir4.1 channels remained nearly the same in MNU-treated animals. Therefore, the calculated current density (current amplitude divided 32 by membrane capacitance) was significantly decreased (Fig. 5D). Obviously, the gliotic Müller cells contained newly built membrane areas with less or no Kir4.1 channels. On the mRNA level, Kir4.1 expression was decreased (Fig. 6A) and the fact that the inward current amplitudes did not change significantly indicates that the 37 amount of functional Kir4.1 protein did not alter.

Similar changes in Müller cell electrophysiology have been <sup>39</sup> observed in other models of retinal degeneration. Iandiev and <sup>40</sup>



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Fig. 5. Müller cell membrane properties after MNU-treatment. (A) The membrane potential was not significantly altered after MNU-treatment. (B) Membrane capacitance was significantly increased at all time points analyzed. (C) K<sup>+</sup> currents at -60 mV hyperpolarization were not significantly altered. (D) Current density was significantly decreased at d3, d5 and d7 PI. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD and significance was reached with *P* < 0.005 (\*\*) or *P* < 0.001 (\*\*\*) *vs*. control ( $n \ge 15$  cells and three animals per time point).

44 colleagues (2006b) found decreased current densities in 3- and 45 5-weeks old rds mice, whereas current amplitudes were not 46 affected. Furthermore, DBA/2J mice, a model for ocular hyperten-47 sion, displayed increased membrane capacitances but no signifi-48 cant changes in membrane potentials or currents in Müller cells 49 (Bolz et al., 2008). As these models are characterized by a rather 50 slow retinal degeneration, it was speculated that reactive gliosis 51 with proliferation and reduced K<sup>+</sup> conductance is caused by fast 52 retinal degenerations whereas slow degenerations, such as rds, cause 53 another form of gliosis that is not characterized by decreased Kir 54 currents. In contrast, Sene and colleagues (2009) did not find 55 remarkable changes in the K<sup>+</sup> current amplitude but could show 56 increased membrane capacitance and subsequent decreased current 57 densities in mice after retinal detachment. Furthermore, Hirrlinger 58 and colleagues (2010) showed that Müller cells had an increased 59 membrane capacitance after high intraocular pressure-induced 60 transient retinal ischemia whereas current amplitudes were only 61 slightly decreased. These findings, together with our data obtained 62 from MNU-treated animals, contradict the hypothesis that gliosis without severe changes in K<sup>+</sup> current amplitudes is only observed 44 in slow retinal degenerations. MNU has been shown to rapidly 45 induce photoreceptor cell death within seven days. In this model, 46 we did not observe a decrease of inward current amplitudes, 47 whereas current densities were decreased. Thus, the velocity of 48 degeneration is obviously not the key factor which determines the 49 Müller cell reaction. It might be that Müller cells respond differ- 50 ently depending on which retinal cell types were injured. This is in 51agreement with data from a light-induced model of retinal degen- 52 eration in mice, where degradation of photoreceptors did not cause 53 alterations in Müller cell K<sup>+</sup> currents (Iandiev et al., 2008a). Kir4.1 54 channels are mainly located in the vitread endfeet of Müller cells 55 and in the glial membranes abutting the blood vessels. There is no 56 Kir4.1 labeling in the ONL (Fig. 6B). Thus, it can be assumed that 57 photoreceptors in the ONL do not provide signals for production or 58 insertion of Kir4.1 channels in the Müller cell membrane and, in 59 turn, the loss of photoreceptors does not influence Kir4.1 channels. 60 When light damage was induced in rats and inner retinal neurons 61 also degenerated, Müller cells displayed decreased K<sup>+</sup> currents 62

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Fig. 6. (A) Analysis of Kir4.1 mRNA expression. Relative gene expression was significantly downregulated at d3, d5, and d7 PI. The mRNA levels were normalized against Gapdh. Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SD and significance was reached with P < 0.05 (\*) or P < 0.001 (\*\*\*). (B) Immunohistochemical analysis of Kir4.1 expression. In control retinas, Kir4.1 was expressed around blood vessels and at the inner limiting membrane. The same expression pattern was maintained after the MNU-treatment. GCL: ganglion cell layer, INL: inner nuclear layer, ONL: outer nuclear layer. Scale bar indicates  $20 \,\mu$ m (n = 3 animals per time point, repeated in 3 independent experiments).

(Iandiev et al., 2008b). Therefore, it might be speculated that the severity of the retinal degeneration regulates the reaction of Müller cells. However, in BDV-infected rats, where most retinal neurons 30 were lost, Müller cells showed no changes in K<sup>+</sup> current amplitudes but only decreased K<sup>+</sup> current densities (Pannicke et al., 32 2001). Moreover, variations in the type or extent of gliosis may 33 result from species differences. Currently, there seems to be no general rule that determines the degree of Müller cell reactivity in response to retinal degeneration. 36

Taken together, our findings and those from others indicate, that Müller cells respond in different ways to different forms of retinal degenerations. However, it remains unanswered which kind of degeneration triggers which kind of response. Therefore, future 40 work should aim at investigating Müller cell responses in further 41 detail and possibly link these responses to the potential neuropro-42 tective or detrimental effects that Müller cells can have in retinal 43 degenerations. 44

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