Generation of a Motor Nerve Organoid with Human Stem Cell-Derived Neurons

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SUMMARY

During development, axons spontaneously assemble into a fascicle to form nerves and tracts in the nervous system as they extend within a spatially constrained path. However, understanding of the axonal fascicle has been hampered by lack of an in vitro model system. Here, we report generation of a nerve organoid composed of a robust fascicle of axons extended from a spheroid of human stem cell-derived motor neurons within our custom-designed microdevice. The device is equipped with a narrow channel providing a microenvironment that facilitates the growing axons to spontaneously assemble into a unidirectional fascicle. The fascicle was specifically made with axons. We found that it was electrically active and elastic and could serve as a model to evaluate degeneration of axons in vitro. This nerve organoid model should facilitate future studies on the development of the axonal fascicle and drug screening for diseases affecting axon fascicles.

INTRODUCTION

During development, neurons spontaneously assemble to build organized structures and functional circuits in various parts of the nervous system. A fascicle of axons is one of the major structural motifs often observed in the nervous system, e.g., the peripheral nerves, corticospinal tract, and corpus callosum (Ahsan et al., 2007; Stewart, 2003). Previous studies have shown that an axonal fascicle is formed as growing axons follow and gather along the preceding “pioneer axon” through axo-axonal interactions in vivo; however, further details of the mechanism of this process are yet to be clarified (Raper and Mason, 2010). Importantly, axon fascicles are often damaged by neurodegenerative diseases (Ito et al., 2016). For instance, previous studies suggest that amyotrophic lateral sclerosis disrupts axonal maintenance mechanisms, including the protein transportation system, thereby causing specific elimination of motor neurons (Alami et al., 2014; Bilsland et al., 2010; LaMonte et al., 2002; Morfini et al., 2009). Although numerous insights into the developmental and pathophysiological mechanisms have been derived from studies on single axons in dissociated 2D culture, we have little insight into fascicles of axons due to the lack of in vitro culture systems.

Human stem cell-derived neurons could provide a promising platform in drug discovery and the development of therapeutics for devastating neurological disorders, and they have been extensively studied for understanding neuronal development, functions, and diseases (Sances et al., 2016; Shi et al., 2012; Sterneckert et al., 2014). Since it is increasingly apparent that proper multi-cellular organization and microenvironment are critical for physiological modeling of development and diseases of the nervous system, in vitro three-dimensional brain “organoid” culture systems have been proposed to provide improved systems that more accurately represent multi-cellular structures (Lancaster et al., 2013; Sasai, 2013). The emerging technology currently relies on cell-intrinsic, self-assembly mechanisms to form tissue morphology, and few extrinsic environmental factors are considered. By developing methods that can form organoids representing specific parts of the nervous system, we would be able to model development and diseases of specific neuronal structures and circuitry.

In this study, we developed a method for the formation of a nerve organoid composed of a fascicle of axons extended from a spheroid of human stem cell-derived motor neurons. By providing a spatially confined environment in a microchannel, axons spontaneously assembled into a unidirectional fascicle within the microchannel. The resultant fascicle of axons can be subjected to various examinations, including morphological, electrical, and physical analyses. This nerve organoid model mimics development and dysfunction of a human motor nerve, thus potentially serving as a platform for high-throughput screening.

RESULTS

Generation of Nerve Organoids

To build an organoid mimicking developing nerve tissue, we employed a strategy that allowed the neurons to follow the cell-intrinsic axon growth and fasciculation programs...
with minimal intervention. We first differentiated human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) into spinal motor neurons for 12 days (Figure 1A). The neurons were then assembled into a spheroid for 10 days within a low-adhesive culture vessel. During these steps, pluripotent stem cell marker SSEA-4-positive cells were decreased and TUJ1-positive neuronal cells were increased correspondingly (Figures 1B and 1C). Importantly, more than 60% of cells expressed the motor neuron marker HB9 during the differentiation procedure (Figures 1B and 1C). The spheroid was transferred into a custom-made culture device for axon fascicle formation. The culture microdevice contains a chamber receiving a spheroid, a microchannel for axon fascicle formation, and a target chamber accommodating axon terminals (Figure 1D). Neurons spontaneously extended axons out from the spheroid in the chamber. As a portion of axons grew into the microchannel, other axons followed and extended into the microchannel. Consequently, the axons spontaneously formed a single, straight, and unidirectional fascicle within the microchannel after culturing the spheroid for about 20 days (Figures 1E–1G). The resulting structure, which we refer to as a nerve organoid, consists of two mutually connected parts: an axon fascicle and a spheroid of neurons. The efficiency of axon fascicle formation was over 90% at day 30 in three hiPSC lines derived from different individuals (Figure 1H), demonstrating that the nerve organoid formation process is robust and reliable.

Recapitulation of Motor Nerve Organization

After axon fascicles were formed (>20 days in the microdevice), nerve organoids were collected from the culture vessels, which allowed for various assessments of the organoids (Figure 2A). Whole-mount immunostaining of the collected organoid revealed that the axon fascicle was immunoreactive for axonal protein TAU1, while nuclear staining signals were absent in the axon fascicle (Figure 2A). In contrast, the spheroid was both TAU1 immunoreactive and nuclear staining positive. Further immunohistological analyses of cryosections confirmed that the fascicle contained axonal protein TAU1 and presynaptic protein SYNAPSIN1, but not nuclei or dendritic protein MAP2 (Figures 2B and 2C). Consistent with the histological observations, a western blotting analysis of cell lysates of physically separated spheroids and axon fascicles revealed that TAU1 and presynaptic protein SYNAPTOPHYSHIN were present in the axon fascicle lysate, but MAP2 and nuclear envelope protein NUCLEOPORIN were not (Figure 2D). These data indicate the fascicle structure formed in the microchannel contained axons, but not cell bodies or dendrites, and demonstrated successful organization of the axon fascicle spatially separated from the spheroid.

To address the identity of the motor neurons in the organoid, we stained for neuronal marker TUJ1 and the motor neuron marker SMI32 (Figures 2E and 2F). We observed that the majority of the cells are TUJ1-positive neurons. Importantly, about 50% of the cells in the organoids were SMI32-positive motor neurons. A minor fraction of cells were GFAP-positive astrocytes, and almost no cells were positive for neural stem cell marker NESTIN and oligodendrocyte marker O4. We employed scanning electron microscopy to observe the surface of the fascicle. The surface appeared to be unidirectionally assembled with numerous fibers (Figure 2G). To assess the internal structure, we analyzed the cross-section morphology of the fascicle at a higher magnification using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Figure 2H). This revealed that numerous axons were contained within the fascicle. Cross-sections of well-organized cytoskeletal fibers, including microtubules, were observed within the axons. In addition, the axons were directly contacting each other and packed tightly within the fascicle, which demonstrated that the
Axons were assembled into a fascicle within the nerve organoid.

**Electrophysiological and Physical Property of Nerve Organoid**

Next, we assessed the electrophysiological functionality of the neurons in the nerve organoid. Using a microelectrode array system, we recorded alterations of field potential near cell bodies of neurons in a nerve organoid. We observed spontaneous activity (Figures 3A and 3B), suggesting that the neurons in the organoid are functional. We observed synchronous activity from multiple electrodes contacting the organoid (Figure 3B), indicating that the neurons formed a functional network. To address the functionality of the axonal fascicle, we applied electrical stimulation to a spheroid compartment of a nerve organoid and assessed if electrical activity was propagated to the axon fascicle using calcium indicator dye (Figures 3C and 3D, Movie S1). Both spheroid and axon fascicle in the organoid responded to electrical stimulation. Importantly, the axon fascicle did not respond to electrical stimulation after it was separated from the spheroid where electric stimulation was applied. These data suggest that the nerve organoid is functionally active, and its axon fascicle conducts electrical activity.

Since the nerve fascicles were physically robust, we were able to pinch and grab them manually with forceps (Figure 3E). To evaluate its mechanical properties in the axon fascicles, we assessed the extension of the axon fascicle and applied force (Onoe et al., 2013) (Figures 3F and 3G; Movie S2). Tensile load-extension curves of three fascicles were assessed (Figure 3H). This result indicates that the fascicles were elongated in a linear manner against tensile load. A cross-section of a stretched fascicle was analyzed using TEM (Figure 3I), and a number of microtubules in the...
obtained images were counted (Figure 3J). The counting revealed that the number of microtubules was decreased by the mechanical stresses. The results obtained here indicate that the formed fascicles can serve as a unique platform for assessing the physical properties of an axon fascicle, and can be further applied for regenerative studies of acute physical damages to axons and nerves.

**Nerve Organoids Model Neurodegeneration**

Next, we used the nerve organoid to model neuronal damage and degeneration. Hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) treatment was employed to model the pathogenesis of oxidative stress-mediated neurodegenerative disease (Figure 4A). At day 30, we treated a nerve organoid with H$_2$O$_2$ for 3 hr, and then continued to culture it in fresh medium for 2 days. Observation of the organoid by bright-field microscopy revealed that the surface texture of the H$_2$O$_2$-treated nerve organoid became rough compared with the control (Figure 4B). The surface change in response to H$_2$O$_2$ treatment was confirmed with higher-magnification observation of the surface of the axon fascicle with scanning electron microscopy (Figure 4C). By texture analysis of the bright-field images of axon fascicles, we found that the roughness of the surface was significantly increased by the H$_2$O$_2$ treatment (Figure 4D). Immunostaining with TAU1 antibody further revealed that the axon fascicle had lost its linear and fibrous appearance (Figure 4E). By analyzing the TAU1-immunostaining images of the axon fascicles with a directional quantification software package, we found that the apparent directionality of axons within the nerve organoid was substantially reduced upon H$_2$O$_2$ treatment (Figures 4F and 4G). These data demonstrate that the nerve organoid can be used to model neuronal disorders caused by stress, and that texture analysis and directionality analysis provide unique quantitative indices for the health and quality of the nerve organoid. Since these measurements can be easily performed, they would be suitable for high-throughput chemical compound screening for neurological diseases affecting axons.

**DISCUSSION**

In summary, we developed a method for the construction of a nerve model from human stem cell-derived motor neurons. We demonstrated that the method presented here yielded a robust fascicle consisting of axons organized in a unidirectional structure. We successfully characterized the electrical and mechanical properties of the axon fascicles. Further, we modeled chemical stress on the nerve and provided easy methods to quantify the degeneration, suggesting that the nerve organoid can serve as a useful tool for compound evaluation and drug screening.

Compartmentalization of axons from other parts of neurons in *in vitro* cultures has been achieved in several well-characterized methods. Conventionally, an explant method of dorsal root ganglion neurons has been used widely to obtain or observe physically separated axons extending outward from other parts of the neurons. More recently, microdevices and porous filters were used to isolate axons by excluding cell bodies from a defined compartment with sufficiently small windows that only axons, but not cell bodies, can pass through. Although the microdevices and filters improve the purity of axons, they often yield a significantly reduced number of axons compared with the explant method. In our method, we achieved compartmentalization of axons from soma and dendrites by simply forming a spheroid with hiPSC-derived motor neurons and allowing axons to extend from the spheroid into a microchannel. Neurons in the spheroid exhibit limited motility, and cell bodies are only occasionally seen in the proximal part of the axon fascicle in the channel. By dissecting the axon fascicles, we were able to obtain high-quality axon lysates sufficient for western blotting analysis. We did not detect nuclear or dendritic proteins in the axonal lysate, demonstrating that our method efficiently separated axons from cell bodies and dendrites.

To test if growing neurons in a 3D spheroid is necessary for axon fascicle formation within the microdevice, we grew neurons in 2D inside the microdevice (data not shown). By enlarging the chamber to accommodate an equivalent number of cells, we could occasionally observe formation of axon fascicles similar to those formed from a spheroid of neurons. However, the efficiency of axon fascicle formation was low, and thus, was far less robust and reliable compared with the method presented in the current manuscript.

By only aligning axons in one orientation in a microchannel, we achieved assembly of axon fascicles. Alignment of axons presumably facilitates axo-axonal interactions to efficiently promote the formation of axon fascicles in the microdevice. In conventional two-dimensional culture of neurons, fasciculation of axons is occasionally observed but generally considered to be a product of insufficient interaction between neurons and culture surface, which in turn allows interaction between axons. To promote axon fascicle formation by avoiding excessive interaction between axons and culture surface, we coated the surface inside the microchannel with extracellular matrix proteins (Matrigel) instead of conventionally used synthetic polymer poly-L-lysine or ornithine. The axons formed a fascicle in a microdevice coated with Matrigel, but axons separately adhered to the culture surface and did not form a fascicle in a poly-L-lysine-coated microdevice (data not shown). These observations imply that
strength of interaction between axons and between axon and surrounding matrix or cells is strictly controlled in vivo to achieve formation of axon fascicles and nerves. The nerve organoid assembly method reported here provides an important step in modeling axon fascicles present in the nervous system. We have assembled a nerve
Figure 4. Oxidative Stress-Induced Nerve Degeneration Model

(A) Experimental timeline for H$_2$O$_2$ treatment of nerve organoids. At day 30, organoids were treated with H$_2$O$_2$ for 3 hr. Control organoids were exposed to fresh normal media instead of H$_2$O$_2$-containing media. After 2 days, the nerve organoids were evaluated.

(B) Representative bright-field images of axon fascicles without H$_2$O$_2$ treatment (top), and after induction of oxidative stress by 10 μM H$_2$O$_2$ for 3 hr at 2 days before examination (bottom).

(C) Representative scanning electron microscopy images of axon fascicles without H$_2$O$_2$ treatment (top), and after induction of oxidative stress by 10 μM H$_2$O$_2$ for 3 hr at 2 days before examination (bottom).

(D) The texture analysis of bright-field images of axon fascicles. The angular second movement represents homogeneity of images. The error bar denotes the SE of means of values acquired from three independent experiments (n = 3 for each group).

(E) Representative TAU1 immunohistochemistry images of axon fascicles without H$_2$O$_2$ treatment (top), and after induction of oxidative stress by 10 μM H$_2$O$_2$ for 3 hr at 2 days before examination (bottom).

(F) The directionality analysis of the axon fascicles. The error bar denotes the SE of means of values acquired from three independent experiments (n = 3 for each group).

(G) Average of SD of the directionalities from three independent experiments (n = 3 for each group).

*p < 0.05 (Student’s t test) and statistically significant. Scale bars, 100 μm (B), 10 μm (C), and 100 μm (E).
organoid using motor neurons derived from hiPSCs, which models the peripheral motor nerve. It will be interesting to apply this method to other types of neurons to model axon fascicles in the nervous system, e.g., the sensory nerve, corticospinal tract, and corpus callosum. Further, it will be interesting to provide postsynaptic target cells so that neurons can interact through synaptic connections. In addition, the nerve organoid can serve as a basic building block for in vitro connectivity modeling in “brain-on-a-chip” applications by connecting the axon fascicle with neurons or non-neuronal target cells. At this point in model development, the nerve organoid presented in this study did not contain myelin or an outer sheath (perineurium) that would naturally form after the development of the axon fascicle (Nave and Werner, 2014; Pifia-Oviedo and Ortiz-Hidalgo, 2008). We believe that the current method shows the way for further development of the nerve model and axon fascicle structures by amending methods to provide myelination and sheath formation in future studies.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Culture Device Fabrication

The culture devices were fabricated by the standard molding process (Hosokawa et al., 1999). The mold master was fabricated with an SU-8 2100 photoresist (MicroChem) using photolithography. We made microchannels 150 ± 10 μm in height. The photoresist was spin coated at 2,000 rpm on a silicon wafer. The photoresist-coated silicon wafer was baked at 95°C for 30 min. Then the photoresist was exposed to UV with the glass mask. After UV exposure, the silicon wafer was baked again at 95°C for 5 min. Finally, the wafer was developed using propylene glycol monomethylether. Poly(dimethylsiloxane) (PDMS, Dow Corning Toray) was poured on the mold and baked at 75°C for 2 hr. The PDMS chip was peeled from the mold, and then the culture chambers were punched using a 2-mm diameter biopsy trepan (Natsume Seisakusho). The PDMS chip was bonded to a glass bottom using oxygen plasma (Hosokawa et al., 1999). The culture device was sterilized using an autoclave (121°C for 15 min).

iPS Cell Culture and Differentiation

409B2 and 610B1 hiPSC lines were provided by Kyoto University through RIKEN BioResource center cell bank (HS0076 and HS0331) (Okita et al., 2011, 2013). ChiPSC12 hiPSC line was purchased (Takara Bio). The iPS cells were cultured on a Vitronectin (VTN-N, Thermo Fisher Scientific)-coated dish with Essential 8 Medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) to maintain the undifferentiated state. The motor neurons were differentiated by the previously described protocol with slight modifications (Chambers et al., 2009). hiPSCs were dissociated with Accutase (Millipore), and seeded on Matrigel (growth factor reduced, Corning, BD Biosciences)-coated dish with Essential 8 Medium with ROCK inhibitor Thiazovivin (1 μM, Tocris), and cultured until they reached 80% confluence. As an initial differentiation medium, we used DMEM/F12 medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 15% Knockout Serum Replacement (Thermo Fisher Scientific), GlutaMAX (Thermo Fisher Scientific), non-essential amino acid solution (Thermo Fisher Scientific), 10 μM SB-431542 (Sigma-Aldrich), and 100 nM LDN-193189 (Sigma-Aldrich) for the following 2 days. The medium was gradually switched to N2 medium (neurobasal medium supplemented with N2 supplement, GlutaMAX, and penicillin-streptomycin; Thermo Fisher Scientific) over the following 8 days. During this period, cells were treated with 1 μM retinoic acid (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 μM Smoothened Agonist (SAG, Calbiochem), 4 μM SUS402 (Sigma-Aldrich), and 5 μM DAPT (Sigma-Aldrich). The differentiated cells were dissociated by Accutase and seeded in a low-adhesion V-bottom 96-well plate (Sumitomo Bakelite) for 10 days to generate spheroids.

Formation of Motor Nerve Organoids

The culture devices were coated with Matrigel. The coating solution was replaced by motor neuron culture medium (B27 medium supplemented with 1 μM retinoic acid and 1 μM SAG), and then the spheroids were transferred into the culture device. Half of the culture medium was replaced with fresh medium every 4 days. Typically, 20–30 days after spheroids are transferred into the device, an axon fascicle forms within the microchannel.

Collection of Nerve Organoids from Culture Devices

Nerve organoids were collected from the culture microdevice by manually injecting 200 μL PBS from the axon terminal chamber after brief treatment with Accutase for 2 min. To collect axon fascicles and spheroids separately for biochemical analyses, nerve organoids were dissected manually by cutting through the PDMS device with a razor blade. After collecting spheroids, axon fascicles were collected from the device by pipetting PBS into the microchannels. Experimental Procedures for characterization of nerve organoids are described in detail in Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures and two movies and can be found with this article online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stemcr.2017.09.021.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J.K., E.K., T.F., and Y.I. designed the study; J.K., S.K., T.K., and A.M. conducted cellular and molecular experiments; T.K. and T.L. performed and analysed the MEA recordings; J.K., S.K., T.K., and Y.I. wrote the manuscript; S.K. and T.K. contributed equally.

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