New Methods in Cardiovascular Biology

Imaging the Vascular Bone Marrow Niche During Inflammatory Stress

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Rationale: Inflammatory stress induced by exposure to bacterial lipopolysaccharide causes hematopoietic stem cell expansion in the bone marrow niche, generating a cellular immune response. As an integral component of the hematopoietic stem cell niche, the bone marrow vasculature regulates the production and release of blood leukocytes, which protect the host against infection but also fuel inflammatory diseases.

<u>Objective:</u> We aimed to develop imaging tools to explore vascular changes in the bone marrow niche during acute inflammation.

Methods and Results: Using the TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand lipopolysaccharide as a prototypical danger signal, we applied multiparametric, multimodality and multiscale imaging to characterize how the bone marrow vasculature adapts when hematopoiesis boosts leukocyte supply. In response to lipopolysaccharide, ex vivo flow cytometry and histology showed vascular changes to the bone marrow niche. Specifically, proliferating endothelial cells gave rise to new vasculature in the bone marrow during hypoxic conditions. We studied these vascular changes with complementary intravital microscopy and positron emission tomography/magnetic resonance imaging. Fluorescence and positron emission tomography integrin αVβ3 imaging signal increased during lipopolysaccharide-induced vascular remodeling. Vascular leakiness, quantified by albumin-based in vivo microscopy and magnetic resonance imaging, rose when neutrophils departed and hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells proliferated more vigorously.

<u>Conclusions:</u> Introducing a tool set to image bone marrow either with cellular resolution or noninvasively within the entire skeleton, this work sheds light on angiogenic responses that accompany emergency hematopoiesis. Understanding and monitoring bone marrow vasculature may provide a key to unlock therapeutic targets regulating systemic inflammation. (*Circ Res.* 2018;123:415-427, DOI: 10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.118.313302.)

Key Words: bone marrow ■ hematopoiesis ■ inflammation ■ lipopolysaccharides ■ vascular remodeling

B one marrow endothelium is located in close proximity to hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells (HSPC), which produce most blood cells. ¹⁻⁴ The bone marrow is highly vascularized; its vessels act as gates for hematopoietic niches and the blood to exchange information, cells, nutrients, and waste products. ³ In addition, endothelial cells participate in niche cell functions by instructing HSPC and their progeny. Reacting to systemic signals, endothelial cells relay incoming information to hematopoietic cells via surface-bound and secreted signals, thus supporting either quiescence or proliferation depending on peripheral blood cell demand. ^{3,5}

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While we conceptually understand endothelial cells' strategic importance for steady-state hematopoiesis, concrete information on how the vascular niche adapts to disease remains relatively sparse. To a large degree, our insight is hindered by technical hurdles related to the tissue's location within calcified bone. The dense bone cortex scatters photons, hence impeding optical imaging. Modalities relying on longer wavelengths, such as nuclear imaging, or precessing dipole moments, such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), image bone more easily but are seldom

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Novelty and Significance

What Is Known?

- Lipopolysaccharides are part of the bacterial cell wall and induce acute inflammation throughout the body.
- During acute inflammation, the elevated demand for leukocytes is sustained by enhanced hematopoietic stem cell proliferation and differentiation in the bone marrow.
- Bone marrow endothelial cells are an important component of the hematopoietic niche, where they regulate stem cell and leukocyte activity.

What New Information Does This Article Contribute?

- · Bone marrow endothelial cells proliferate during acute inflammation.
- Intravital microscopy follows blood vessel changes in the skull bone marrow after lipopolysaccharide injection, reporting on the angiogenic marker integrin αVβ3 and blood vessel permeability.

- In conjunction with these vascular changes, intravital microscopy also follows neutrophil migration and hematopoietic stem cell proliferation in acute inflammation.
- Translatable positron emission tomography/magnetic resonance imaging, relying on radioisotope- and gadolinium-labeled versions of the optical imaging agents used for microscopy, reports on the entire skeleton noninvasively.

The immune response initiated by lipopolysaccharides transforms the bone marrow vasculature. Multiscale imaging revealed angiogenesis that occurs during emergency hematopoiesis. Bone marrow vasculature was imaged on a cellular level by intravital microscopy, and the same targets were also followed noninvasively by translatable positron emission tomography/magnetic resonance imaging. These diagnostic tools will facilitate our understanding of vascular functions during systemic inflammation.

Nonstandard Abbreviations and Acronyms

3D 3-dimensional

ANGPT1 angiopoietin-1

CT computed tomography

HSPC hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell

LSK Lin-Sca1+c-Kit+

MRI magnetic resonance imaging
PET positron emission tomography
RGD arginine-glycine-aspartic acid

ROI region of interest
TLR Toll-like receptor

VEGF vascular endothelial growth factor

VEGFR2 vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 2

applied to study hematopoiesis. Our primary objective was to test and validate positron emission tomography (PET)/MRI of the bone marrow vasculature, integrating PET/MR with nearinfrared intravital microscopy via multimodal imaging agents that are fluorescent and radioactive or paramagnetic. The notion that imaging can be transformative is illustrated by the recently developed intravital microscopy of the calvarium^{4,6,7} and ex vivo imaging of long bones.8 Imaging revealed that angiogenesis plays an active role in bone formation during development, 9 that bone remodeling is driven by oxygen tension and the production of VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor), 10,111 that endothelial permeability changes in leukemia,4,12 and that radiation preceding bone marrow transplantation affects the niche vasculature.¹³ However, how bone marrow vasculature anatomy and function respond to inflammatory stimuli is incompletely understood, which gave rise to the secondary objective of our study.

We used multiscale and multiparametric imaging to characterize the bone marrow vasculature response to lipopolysaccharide, a prototypical inflammatory component of the bacterial wall. This well-characterized TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand binds TLR4, increasing cell proliferation and differentiation, as well as output of mature myeloid cells, including neutrophils, ^{14,15} which serve as a first line of defense against infection. We use imaging to report that lipopolysaccharide triggers profound

bone marrow vasculature remodeling, including a surprising angiogenic response. Angiogenesis was accompanied by functional changes, like increased vascular leakiness and neutrophil release, and coincided with enhanced HSPC proliferation. To address the inherent technical limitations of microscopy, that is, lack of clinical translatability and confinement to data derived from a small fraction of the hematopoietic skull marrow close to the microscope's objective, we deployed clinically viable PET and MRI agents that correspond to the targets observed with fluorescence microscopy. Whole mouse PET/MRI complemented invasively obtained cellular resolution data, thereby indicating that such imaging may be used to characterize the entire marrow host response, possibly also in humans.

Methods

A detailed method section is available in the Online Data Supplement. The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Mice

Female wild-type C57BL/6 mice (26±1 weeks old) were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. Older mice were chosen to reduce the impact of growth plate angiogenesis during longitudinal bone growth. We chose older female mice as cohoused females have a lower propensity to fight than older male mice. Inflammatory stress was induced by intraperitoneally injecting 0.8 mg/kg lipopolysaccharide (lipopolysaccharides from *Escherichia coli* O55:B5, Sigma-Aldrich). Mice received isoflurane (3% to 4% induction; 1% to 2% maintenance) unless stated otherwise. All mouse procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee Subcommittee on Research Animal Care, Massachusetts General Hospital, Charlestown, MA.

Confocal Microscopy

Intravital Microscopic Imaging

Intravital microscopy was performed in vivo on calvaria and ex vivo on femurs with a confocal microscope (IV100 Olympus) as outlined in Online Figure I. A field of view at ×4 magnification covered a 2290 µm×2290 µm, and ×20 a 458 µm×458 µm data set of 512×512 pixels. Z-stack images were acquired at 2 µm steps. For in vivo imaging, mice were shaved at the skull and held in a stereotaxic skull holder. A skin incision revealed the calvaria, and glycerin (Sigma-Aldrich) was applied to prevent the tissue drying. The calvarian bone marrow was exposed as described before. To delineate bone marrow cavities in the calvaria, OsteoSense 750EX, a fluorescent bisphosphonate imaging agent, was

administered intravenously 24 hours before imaging (4 nmol/mouse, NEV10053EX, PerkinElmer). IntegriSense 680, as an angiogenic marker for integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ activation, was administered intravenously 24 hours before imaging (2 nmol/mouse, NEV10645, PerkinElmer).

To outline the vasculature, we used fluorescein isothiocvanate anti-CD31 (50 µL, MEC13.3, 102514, Biolegend). To assess VEGFR2 activation, APC anti-VEGFR2 (Avas 12, 136406, Biolegend) was used in combination with IntegriSense 750 (2 nmol/mouse, PerkinElmer, NEV10873). To analyze vascular leak, we followed a single plane through the center of the marrow cavities over 6 minutes at a frame rate of 0.2083 frames/sec before and after bolus injection through an indwelling tail vein catheter of bovine serum albumin (BSA) labeled with rhodamine B and gadopentetic acid (GdDTPA; RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA; excitation/emission: 555 nm/581 nm, 82 kDa, 2.5 mg/mouse, Symo-chem, The Netherlands). For serial permeability imaging, fluorescein isothiocyanate-albumin (495 nm; 66 kDa; 2.5 mg/mouse; Sigma) was used with the same temporal settings. To follow the cells serially by intravital microscopy of the calvarium, Lin-Sca1+c-Kit+ (LSK) were labeled ex vivo with the Vybrant 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'- tetramethylindodicarbocyanine perchlorate Cell-Labeling Solution (1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'- tetramethylindodicarbocyanine perchlorate, Molecular Probes) according to manufacturer's protocol. C57BL/6 mice were then intravenously injected with 75 000 labeled LSKs. In vivo imaging was performed using a confocal microscope (IV100 Olympus) on days 1 (day 0) and 2 (day 1) after adoptive cell transfer. Separately, 30 minutes after intravenous injection of APC anti-Ly6G (1A8; Biolegend), Ly6G+ neutrophils were imaged on day 0 and day 1. For LSK and Ly6+ neutrophil serial imaging, lipopolysaccharide was injected intraperitoneally directly after the imaging session at day 0. After intravital microscopy, animals were euthanized, and femurs were dissected in 4% PFA and embedded in optimal cutting temperature. Femurs were shaved 300 μm with a cryostat at -25°C to expose the bone marrow. These long bones were then thawed and imaged by confocal microscopy (IV100 Olympus) or by an epifluorescence imaging system (OV110 Olympus).

Image Processing

Maximal intensity projections of Z stack were reconstructed and processed using Image J version 1.51r software (National Institutes of Health). The signal intensity derived from IntegriSense maximal intensity projections of 16 slices was used to generate a thresholded image of the bone marrow vasculature and quantify, using the tracer, the percent area occupied in the field of view. To quantify the number of junctions from an maximal intensity projection with 16 slices, thresholded images were analyzed with AngioTool.¹⁶ Regions of interest for junction analysis were within the bone marrow niche 100 µm×100 µm. To quantify the number of buds from an maximal intensity projection with 16 slices, buds >10 μm protruding from a vessel were manually counted in ImageJ. Regions of interest for bud analysis were located within the bone marrow niche. For analysis of fractional blood volume, the first frame after albumin injection represented the amount of functional blood vessels, or (micro)vascular density, in the bone marrow niche. The extravasated RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA at t=2 minutes postinjection showed vessel permeability in control and lipopolysaccharide-treated animals. To assess vascular leakiness, we used the strategy detailed in Online Figure II. The signal intensity derived from the first image after RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA injection was used to generate a thresholded image of the bone marrow vasculature. Background subtraction was performed with a manual threshold. The thresholded area was used to segment the signal intensity derived from the albumin inside and outside of the vasculature. The ratio between these 2 intensities (outside/ inside) per time denotes vasculature leakiness at the given location. Target-to-background ratios of IntegriSense signal in whole mount femur images from the ov110 Olympus were calculated using image analysis of mean intensity at region of interest (ROI) of the whole femoral bone marrow divided by mean intensity of a background ROI.

PET/MRI Acquisition

MRI combined with PET/computed tomography (CT) was performed sequentially as described in Online Figure I. In short, mice were placed in a custom-designed mouse bed compatible with both MRI and PET/CT. Mice were imaged in a 4.7 Tesla Pharmascan (Bruker) with a mouse

volume coil (Rapid Biomedical) and monitored with respiratory gating (SA instruments). Each mouse underwent T2-weighted MRI and albumin-based dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI, which lasted ≈40 minutes total. A Rapid Acquisition with Refocused Echoes sequence was first acquired with the following parameters for T₂-weighted imaging: TE=40 ms; TR=4000 ms; echo spacing 10 ms; Rapid Acquisition with Refocused Echo factor 10; averages 8; field of view 40×40 mm; matrix 256×256; slice thickness 1 mm; 20 axial slices; spatial resolution 0.156×0.156×1 mm³/voxel; acquisition time 13 minutes 20 seconds. For macromolecular dynamic contrast enhanced-MRI, a bolus of RhoBalbumin-GdDTPA (10 mg/mouse; Relaxivity=145 mmol/L per second; Symo-Chem, The Netherlands) was injected intravenously through an indwelling tail vein as previously described. 17,18 After a series of variable flip angle precontrast T₁-weighted Fast Low Angle Shot, the imaging agent was injected, and images were sequentially acquired to determine the endogenous precontrast R₁. Dynamics of the labeled albumin were followed every 25 seconds, for 4 minutes after contrast administration, using 2-dimensional Fast Low Angle Shot images longitudinally over the entire femur. Imaging parameters were as follows: precontrast flip angles 2°, 6°, 9°, 15°, 25°, 50°, 70°; postcontrast flip angle=50°; TR=25 ms; TE=2.748 ms; number of averages=2; field of view 20×20 mm; 1 slice; 1.2 mm slice thickness; spatial resolution 0.078×0.078×1.2 mm³/ voxel; temporal resolution of 10 seconds 200 ms; no zerofilling.

Small animal PET-CT imaging was done 120 minutes after $^{68}Ga-NODAGA$ -arginine-glycine-aspartic acid (RGD) was injected via tail vein. This imaging time point was chosen based on published biodistribution data to avoid background. 19 Mice were imaged 3-dimensionally (3D) with an Inveon small animal PET-CT scanner (Siemens Medical Solutions, Inc, Malvern, PA). PET acquiring 360 cone beam projections with a source power 80 keV and a current of 500 μA . CT was performed before PET, acquiring 360 cone beam projections (source power 80 keV and current 500 μA).

PET/MRI Data Analysis

For albumin-based dynamic contrast enhanced-MRI, femur data were analyzed on a pixel-by-pixel basis with Matlab R2015b software (MathWorks Inc, Natick, MA) to derive concentrations of RhoBalbumin-GdDTPA for the selected slice in the dynamic datasets based on the relaxivity of RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA as described. 17,18 Entire femurs were drawn as ROIs. The RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA concentrations in the ROIs were normalized to the concentration in blood calculated from a ROI placed in the vena cava. Blood curves for the first 4 minutes are shown in Online Figure III, and details of contrast agent distribution have been described previously.¹⁷ From the temporal changes in these normalized concentrations, the rate of contrast accumulation or permeability×surface area product (permeability; min-1) was derived from a linear regression of the normalized concentrations over time. The permeability measured with rhodaminealbumin-GdDTPA reflects the extravasation of albumin from blood vessels and its accumulation in the tissue. Femur parametric permeability maps were projected to show the mean value in each pixel.

A 3D ordered subset expectation maximization was used with maximum a posteriori (3D OSEM/MAP) algorithm with 2 OSEM iterations and 18 MAP iterations for the PET reconstruction. CT reconstruction relied on a modified Feldkamp cone beam reconstruction algorithm (COBRA, Exxim Inc). For PET quantitative analysis, ROIs were drawn manually, guided by CT images, in the femur of each animal. Standardized uptake values were defined as the ratio of the tissue radioactivity concentration c(t) (Bq/g) at the time point of imaging t and the injected activity (in Bq, decay corrected for the time point of imaging t) divided by the body weight (g). Amira software (FEI) was used for 3D image reconstruction and registration of PET and MRI.

Results

Inflammatory Stress Alters the Bone Marrow Vasculature

To characterize the bone marrow vasculature in response to prototypical inflammatory stress, we first studied the vascular

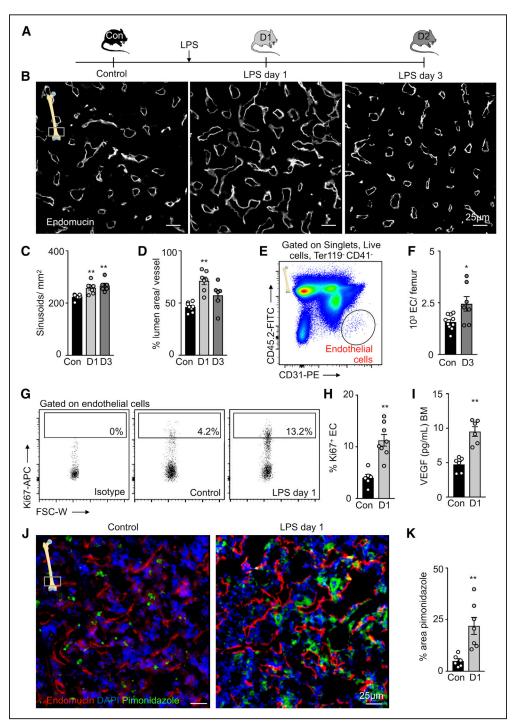


Figure 1. TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand-induced alterations of the bone marrow (BM) vasculature. A, Experimental set-up. B, Representative histological images of the distal femur metaphysis stained for endomucin. C and D, Quantification of blood vessel features on histological images of the distal femur metaphysis. Controls (con, n=8 mice), day 1 after lipopolysaccharide (LPS; D1, n=7), day 3 after LPS (D3, n=6 mice), 3 to 5 sections per animal; 1-way ANOVA followed by nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test. E, Gating for CD41⁻ Ter119⁻ CD45⁻ CD31^{high} BM endothelial cells (EC). F, Number of ECs per femur in control (n=10) and LPS-treated (n=8) mice. G, Ki67* staining for proliferation rates of BM ECs. H, Percentage of Ki67⁺ BM endothelial cells in controls (n=6) and treated after LPS treatment (n=8). I, Concentration of VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor) in the BM (n=6 mice per group). J, Representative histological section of the femoral distal metaphysis stained for pimonidazole/hypoxia. K, Quantification of hypoxic regions by percent area pimonidazole per high power field in control (n=6) and LPS-treated (n=7) mice (3–5 sections per animal). Each dot represents an individual mouse; all data from 3 independent experiments, displayed as mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test unless stated differently; *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.001. FITC indicates fluorescein isothiocyanate.

niche in the femurs of mice after intraperitoneal lipopolysaccharide injection (Figure 1A). In lipopolysaccharide-treated mice, histomorphometric analysis revealed substantial blood vessel alterations. One day after lipopolysaccharide, the bone marrow contained an increased number of sinusoids with dilated lumina. Three days after lipopolysaccharide injection, the number of sinusoids remained elevated, yet their lumens were no longer significantly dilated (Figure 1A through 1D). Flow cytometric analysis revealed more endothelial cells per femur on day 3 after lipopolysaccharide injection (Figure 1E and 1F). We observed a rise in proliferating Ki67⁺ endothelial cells on day 1 after lipopolysaccharide (Figure 1G and 1H). In line with this angiogenic response, VEGF abundance in the marrow of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice rose (Figure 1I). We further detected hypoxic conditions by elevated pimonidazole signals, which may have contributed to angiogenesis, in the femur marrow of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 1J and 1K).

TLR Signaling Induces Integrin αVβ3 Expression and Activation in Bone Marrow Endothelial Cells

Based on the observation that TLR signaling triggers bone marrow angiogenesis, we imaged this response with molecularly targeted agents that have translational potential. Angiogenesis-related integrins, in particular integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$, were chosen based on prior reports of fluorescence and PET imaging. 19,20 Integrins promote endothelial cell migration into hypo-vascularized regions during angiogenesis.^{21,22} Although many integrins are ubiquitous, integrin αVβ3 is most generously expressed on angiogenic endothelial cells.²² We therefore characterized integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ in the bone marrow of control and lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 2A). Itgav RNA expression, encoding the αV subunit of $\alpha V\beta 3$, was assessed in fluorescence-activated cell sorter-purified bone marrow endothelial cells and Ter119- CD41- CD45+ leukocytes. In contrast to leukocytes, endothelial Itgav expression was elevated 3 hours after lipopolysaccharide treatment (Figure 2B). While we observed low heterogeneous staining of integrin αVβ3 in steadystate marrow, integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ staining increased and localized at the outer surfaces of endomucin-positive blood vessels in the

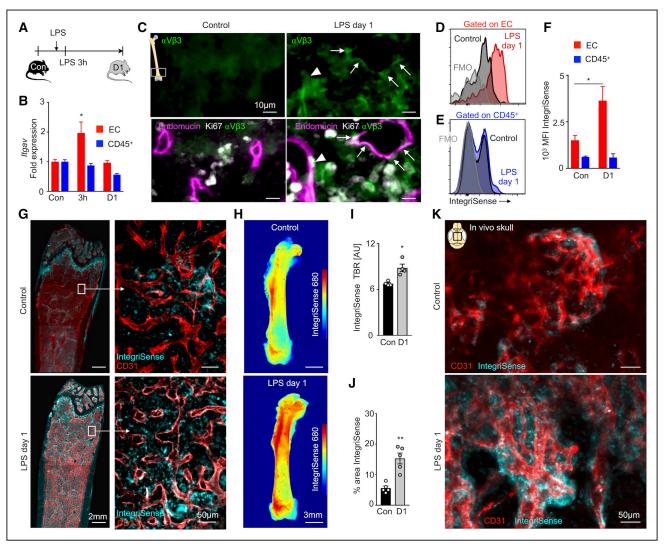


Figure 2. Bone marrow endothelial integrin α Vβ3 in response to inflammatory stress. A, Experimental outline. B, Itgav (encoding integrin α V) expression measured by quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction from sorted bone marrow endothelial cells (ECs) and CD45+ leukocytes in control mice (con, n=5), 3 h (3 h, n=5) and 1 d (D1, n=5) after lipopolysaccharide (LPS) injection; 2-way ANOVA followed by Holm-Sidak test for multiple comparisons. C, Histology of the distal femoral metaphysis: arrows point to colocalization of endomucin+ blood vessels and integrin α Vβ3; arrowhead shows an integrin α Vβ3+ endomucin+ Ki67+ cell from an LPS-treated mouse. D and E, Flow cytometry histograms, after intravenous injection of IntegriSense, on (D) ECs and (E) CD45+ leukocytes. F, Mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) in control (n=8) and LPS-treated (n=6) mice (2 independent experiments). G, Representative whole mount metaphysis fluorescence microscopy of the femur. H, Ex vivo epifluorescence imaging of femurs, after intravenous IntegriSense in jection, with (I) quantified target-to-background (TBR) in control (n=4) mice and LPS-treated (n=4) mice. J and K, Intravital images of CD31+ vessels and IntegriSense in control (n=5) and LPS-treated (n=5) mice. Each dot represents an individual mouse; mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test unless noted otherwise; *P<0.05, **P<0.01. FMO indicates fluorescence minus one.

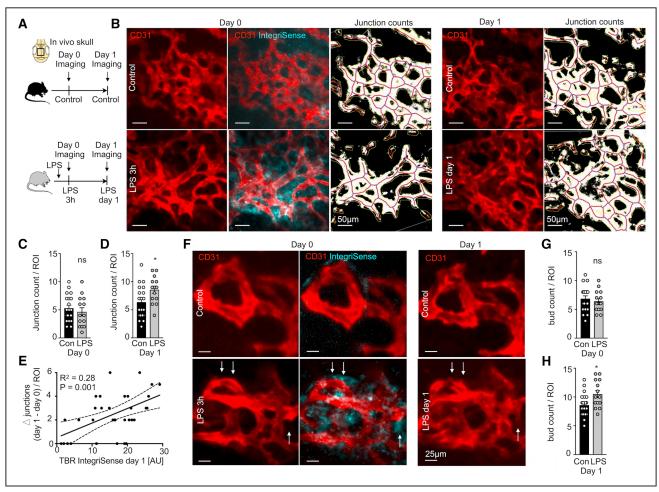


Figure 3. Angiogenesis imaging of blood vessels after TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand stress. A, Experimental outline. B, Intravital images of IntegriSense signal at day 0 in control, 3 h after lipopolysaccharide (LPS) injection and remodeling of CD31+ vessels between day 0 and day 1. C and D, Junction count per region of interest (ROI) at (C) day 0 and (D) day 1 after LPS injection. E, Correlation of integrin αVβ3 activation imaging signal obtained with IntegriSense on day 0 with the change (Δ) in number of CD31+ vessel junctions between day 0 and day 1. F, Intravital images showing IntegriSense signal at day 0 and CD31+ vessels on days 0 and 1. Note CD31+ buds on day 1 after LPS (arrows). G and H, Bud count per ROI at (G) day 0 and (H) day 1 after LPS injection. Control mice (con; n=4) and LPS-treated mice (LPS; n=4), 2 to 3 z-stacks per mouse; mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test; ns=not significant; *P<0.05.

marrow of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 2C). We detected integrin αVβ3+ Ki67+ endomucin+ endothelial cells, indicating that proliferating bone marrow endothelial cells stain for αVβ3 integrins (Figure 2C), which has previously been observed in other vascular territories. 23,24 Fluorescent and nuclear integrin-binding imaging agents are well-studied for angiogenesis in cancer^{24,25} and organ ischemia.²⁶ We therefore argued that IntegriSense, a near-infrared fluorescent agent,26 might be useful to follow bone marrow integrin αVβ3 activation by microscopy. After intravenously injecting IntegriSense, flow cytometry reported a higher fluorescence intensity on endothelial cells in lipopolysaccharide-treated mice, whereas fluorescence intensity of leukocytes remained unchanged (Figure 2D through 2F; Online Figure IV). Ex vivo whole mount fluorescence images displayed increased IntegriSense signal in the femur metaphysis (Figure 2G). Whereas intravenously injected, fluorescently labeled antibody for CD31 stained the inner surfaces of blood vessels, IntegriSense appeared to stain the external surfaces of endothelial cells and the surrounding stroma, a typical location of integrin upregulation during angiogenesis.²³ Higher IntegriSense binding after

lipopolysaccharide treatment was confirmed by an elevated target-to-background ratio in epifluorescence imaging of femurs (Figure 2H and 2I). Recapitulating the ex vivo data, in vivo intravital microscopy documented increased IntegriSense signal in calvaria of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 2J and 2K; Online Movies I and II). Of note, we also considered VEGFR2 (VEGF 2 receptor) as an imaging biomarker. The increased Kdr mRNA expression, encoding for VEGFR2, in fluorescence-activated cell sorter-purified leukocytes after lipopolysaccharide treatment (Online Figure VA) implies that this strategy is less specific for endothelial cells proliferating into blood vessel-poor areas. Accordingly, VEGFR2 signal, which stained the vasculature in control bone marrow niches, only increased mildly in nonvascular marrow after lipopolysaccharide treatment (Online Figure VB and VC). We therefore decided to pursue integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ rather than VEGFR2 as an imaging target.

Bone Marrow Vasculature Remodeling Correlates With Integrin αVβ3 Activation

To visualize integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ in conjunction with the marrow vasculature's response to TLR ligation, we serially imaged

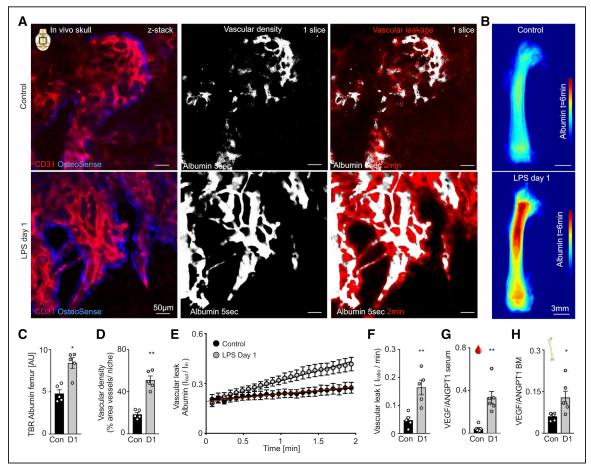


Figure 4. In vivo skull imaging of bone marrow vascular density and permeability after TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand stress. A, CD31* vessels in OsteoSense* bone marrow niches of the calvarium, with images at t=5 s after injection of fluorescently labeled albumin showing microvascular density and t=2 min displaying vessel permeability in control and lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-treated mice. B, Ex vivo epifluorescent imaging of femurs 6 min after albumin injection. C, Target-to-background (TBR) of albumin from ex vivo epifluorescence imaging. D, Bone marrow vascular density in the calvaria. E, Quantification of albumin leaking for time each frame. F, Vascular leakage quantification. G and H, VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor)/ANGPT1 (angiopoietin-1) ratio of (G) blood and (H) femur bone marrow (BM). For imaging: n=5 mice per group; for VEGF/ANGPT1 ratios: n=6 mice per group; each dot represents an individual mouse; mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test; *P<0.05, **P<0.01.

the skull bone marrow after lipopolysaccharide challenge. Specifically, we used microscopy stage coordinates and anatomic landmarks⁷ to revisit the same hematopoietic niches on consecutive days (Figure 3A). Comparing day 0 and 1 after lipopolysaccharide injection, we found that the skull marrow vasculature pattern became increasingly branched (Figure 3B), a finding that correlates well with a higher number of sinusoids in the femur (Figure 1C). We quantified the number of vessel junctions using AngioTool, an automated protocol to measure changes in vascular networks, 16 and found an increased branching index on day 1 after lipopolysaccharide (Figure 3C and 3D). The same mice were injected with IntegriSense to monitor integrin abundance parallel to modified vascular anatomy. Integrin αVβ3-related fluorescence, quantified as target-to-background ratio in hematopoietic niches, correlated with the enlarged vascular branching index (Figure 3B and 3E). This relationship between integrin activation and angiogenesis in the bone marrow matches prior reports on other vascular territories.²³ Interestingly, serial intravital imaging on consecutive days after lipopolysaccharide challenge revealed new sprout-like vessel structures (Figure 3F and 3H). Such structures exhibited high local

IntegriSense signal (Figure 3F), suggesting crosstalk between expanding endothelial cells and the extracellular matrix after lipopolysaccharide treatment. The αV integrins are particularly important during tissue remodeling associated with angiogenesis, as they allow endothelial cells to reach out and expand their vascular beds.²²

Inflammatory Stress Increases Vascular Permeability in the Bone Marrow

To investigate endothelial barrier function in the bone marrow after inflammatory stress, we pursued dynamic intravital imaging with dual-modality fluorescence/MRI-detectable albumin (RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA). This large molecular blood pool agent circulates in the vasculature and extravasates if vessels are leaky. Early after injection, albumin also serves to quantify tissues' vascular volume fraction. Quantifying the fluorescent area 5 seconds after albumin injection, we observed increased vascular density within osteoblast-surrounded hematopoietic niches in the skull (Figure 4A; Online Figure III). Afterward, time-lapse imaging over the next 2 minutes reported on vascular leakage. In lipopolysaccharide-treated mice, the skull vasculature

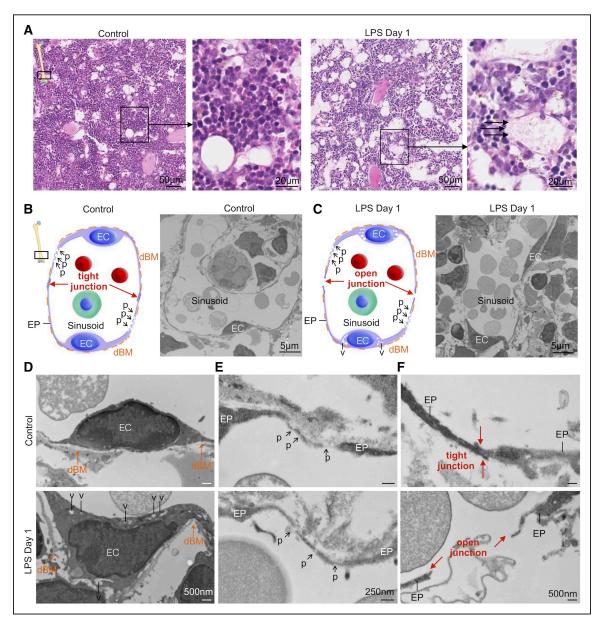


Figure 5. Microscopic evidence of impaired endothelial barrier function after TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand stress. A, H&E staining of distal metaphysis of the femur. Arrows highlight loss of endothelial barrier in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-treated mice. B and C, Illustration and electron microscopy images of bone marrow sinusoids with endothelial cells (EC) surrounded by a discontinuous basement membrane (dBM) without additional collagenous basement layer in control and LPS-treated mice. D, LPS-treated mice show sinusoid endothelial cells containing cytoplasmatic vacuoles (v). E, So-called bristle-coated pits (p) of sinusoids involved in endocytosis of macromolecules in control and LPS-treated mice. F, Electron-dense intercellular tight junctions between endothelial processes (EP) in control bone marrow sinusoids, whereas after LPS sinusoidal endothelial intercellular tight junctions (red arrows) are open.

displayed higher albumin signal at early and late time points (Figure 4A). Concomitantly, ex vivo epifluorescence imaging of femurs showed a similar signal increase in mice after lipopolysaccharide injection (Figure 4B and 4C), indicating that the observed changes are not limited to the skull marrow. In calvaria, vascular density (Figure 4D) and leakiness (Figure 4E and 4F) increased in lipopolysaccharide-treated mice. To correlate these imaging data to molecular signals that regulate vascular permeability, we quantified VEGF and ANGPT1 (angiopoietin-1)²⁷ in blood and femur bone marrow. The serum and bone marrow VEGF/ANGPT1 ratios indeed increased in lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 4G and 4H) and, according to prior studies, 27,28 likely caused the rise

in vessel permeability. Each bone marrow niche has a unique vascular network. To verify that permeability before and after lipopolysaccharide treatment changes even in the same niche, we used serial intravital imaging to revisit niches in the calvarium on 2 consecutive days. Serially imaging before and after lipopolysaccharide treatment confirmed that vessels become leaky 1 day after lipopolysaccharide treatment (Online Figure VI).

Bone Marrow Endothelial Tight Junctions Open in Response to Lipopolysaccharide

To assess the impaired endothelial cell barrier function after inflammatory stress with higher magnification, we studied

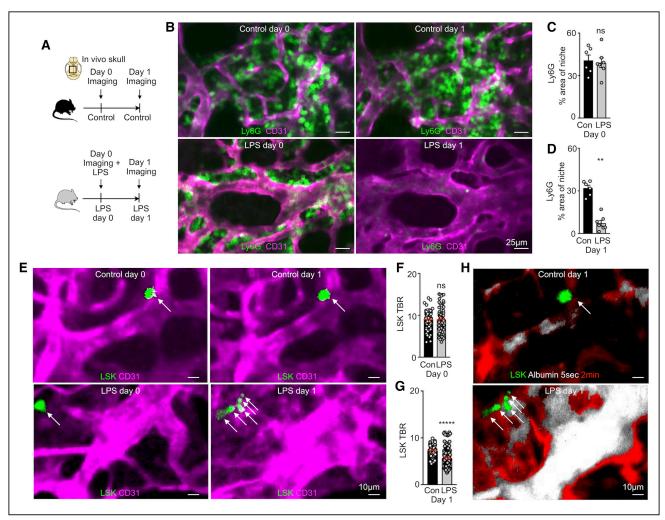


Figure 6. Imaging events in the hematopoietic niche that coincide with vascular changes after TLR (Toll-like receptor) ligand stress. A, Experimental outline. B, Imaging neutrophile egress after lipopolysaccharide (LPS). C and D, Percent area of Ly6G+ neutrophils in the bone marrow niche (C) before and (D) after LPS (n=3 mice and 2 z-stacks per group). E, Serial in vivo skull imaging of Lin-Sca1+Kit- cell (LSK) proliferation (arrows) on 2 consecutive days. F and G, Target-to-background ratio (TBR) of DiD+ (1,1/-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'- tetramethylindodicarbocyanine perchlorate) cells (F) before and (G) after inflammatory stress. H, Permeability imaging combined with LSK proliferation tracking, same niche as (E). (n=3 mice, 3 z-stacks and 65–195 individually validated cells per group). Mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test; ns=not significant; *P<0.05, **P<0.001, *****P<0.0001.

the ultrastructure of bone marrow endothelial cells and their junctions. We began by H&E staining the femoral metaphysis, which showed more porous sinusoidal endothelium after lipopolysaccharide treatment (Figure 5A). We next investigated these sinusoids by electron microscopy. Normal sinusoidal endothelial cells were surrounded by a discontinuous basement membrane without an additional collagenous basement layer. These cells also contain bristle-coated pits, areas where endocytosis of macromolecules occurs²⁹ (Figure 5B through 5E). After lipopolysaccharide treatment, sinusoidal endothelial cells exhibited cytoplasmatic vacuoles (Figure 5C and 5D), indicating an adaptive stress response, presumably to limit lipopolysaccharide-induced damage.30 Electron-dense intercellular tight junctions connected endothelial processes in steady state (Figure 5F). After lipopolysaccharide injection, ultrastructural analysis revealed open junctions between endothelial processes (Figure 5F). Such open junctions explain the observed vascular leakiness (Figure 4E) and may enable exchange of cells and molecular signals between hematopoietic niches and the systemic circulation.

Vascular Remodeling Coincides With Massive Neutrophil Egress and HSPC Proliferation

To evaluate the cellular events that occur during lipopolysaccharide-induced vascular remodeling, we used serial intravital imaging to visualize neutrophils and HSPC in the calvarium (Figure 6A through 6D). A significant increase in circulating neutrophils occurs as early as 2 hours after onset of acute inflammation.31 In accordance with prior reports,31 we observed Ly6G+ neutrophil egress from hematopoietic niches (Figure 6B). Specifically, the area occupied by Ly6G⁺ neutrophils decreased after lipopolysaccharide challenge (Figure 6C and 6D). At the same time, adoptively transferred LSK progenitor cells accelerated dilution of 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'tetramethylindodicarbocyanine perchlorate membrane dye after lipopolysaccharide treatment, an increase that indicates faster HSPC proliferation (Figure 6E through 6H; Online Figure IV). This occurred in close proximity to permeable blood vessels (Figure 6H). Taken together, these data, which align with previous research,15 highlight imaging's ability to locate hematopoietic cell activity within the vascular context.

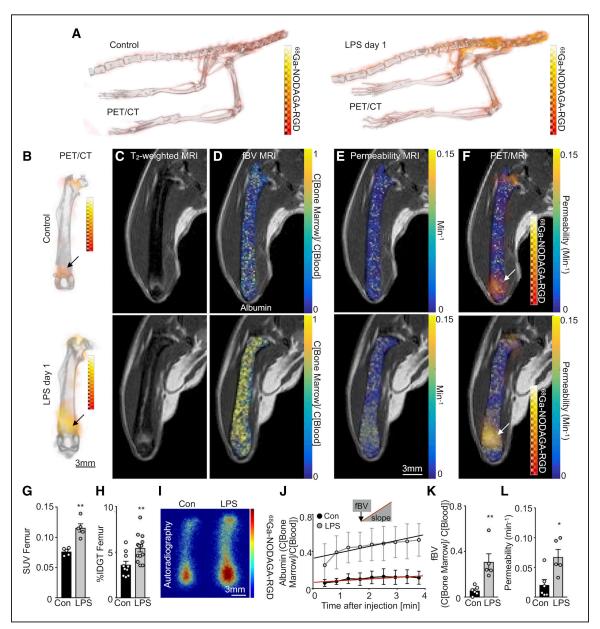


Figure 7. Noninvasive imaging of vascular bone marrow response to TLR ligand stress. A and B, In vivo 3D positron emission tomography (PET)/ computed tomography (CT) images of ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD uptake in control and lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-treated mice. C, In vivo precontrast T₂-weighted RARE MRI. D and E, Postcontrast parametric maps of (D) fractional blood volume (fBV) and (E) permeability'surface area product (vascular permeability) calculated from albumin-based dynamic contrast-enhanced magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) in control and LPS-treated mice. F, PET/MRI of ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD uptake combined with permeability parametric maps. G, In vivo standardized uptake values (SUV) and (H) ex vivo percent injection dose per gram tissue (% IDGT) of ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD in control (n=10) and LPS-treated (n=13) mice. I, Ex vivo autoradiography of ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD in control (n=4) and LPS-treated (n=4) mice. J, Mean contrast agent accumulation in the consecutive MR images for (K) fBV (intercept at time 0) and (I) permeability (=slope) in control and LPS-treated mice. Each dot represents an individual mouse; n=5 mice per group for in vivo imaging; mean±SEM; Mann-Whitney test; *P<0.05, **P<0.01.

PET/MRI Enables Noninvasive Imaging of the Bone Marrow's Vascular Response to Lipopolysaccharide

The microscopic imaging of angiogenic integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ activity and vascular permeability indicates that these are useful biomarkers; however, fluorescence imaging is less suitable for noninvasive assessment of bone marrow, which is a deep tissue. Because PET/MRI can be done in patients, and noninvasive whole mouse imaging may report on multiple sites of hematopoiesis, we explored gadolinium sensing by MRI and 68 Ga isotope detection with PET. Integrin $\alpha V\beta 3$ binds RGD sequences present on certain matrix proteins. 32 Therefore,

synthetic RGD-containing imaging peptides are widely used to image angiogenesis, including in humans.²⁵ Adopting this strategy, which parallels IntegriSense microscopy described above, for the bone marrow, we used ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD, an imaging agent based on the affinity peptide RGD derivatized with a chelator for efficient labeling with the radioisotope gallium-68 (Online Figure VII). The PET data were merged with MRI reporting on vascular leakage, which relied on the same imaging agent, RhoB-albumin-GdDTPA, that we used for intravital microscopy (Figure 4). This multimodal data set was acquired in 1 session, with 4.7 Tesla MRI after

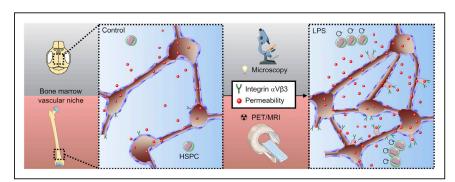


Figure 8. Summary cartoon. Multiscale and multiparametric imaging reports increased permeability and elevated integrin $\alpha V \beta 3$ in the bone marrow vascular niches concomitant with hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell (HSPC) proliferation in response to lipopolysaccharide (LPS). MRI indicates magnetic resonance imaging; and PET, positron emission tomography.

PET/CT acquisition in 2 separate small animal scanners.³³ Both data sets were coregistered offline using rigid CT and MRI bone landmarks.³³

On PET/CT, we noticed increased 68Ga-NODAGA-RGD uptake within the bones of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 7A and 7B). Standard T₂-weighted MR images were acquired in the femoral bone marrow before albumin injection (Figure 7C). After lipopolysaccharide injection, we detected increased T₂-weighted signal intensities, which indicate edema,³⁴ particularly near the distal metaphysis of the femur (Figure 7C). Intravenous injection of labeled albumin was followed by dynamic contrast-enhanced MRI. In agreement with our microscopy data, MRI-derived parametric maps confirmed elevated fractional blood volume and enhanced permeability-surface area product, that is, vascular permeability, in mice injected with lipopolysaccharide (Figure 7D and 7E). The increased MR permeability colocalized with areas of high 68Ga-NODAGA-RGD PET uptake on hybrid PET/ MR images (Figure 7F). Analyzing in vivo PET data revealed significantly higher ⁶⁸Ga-NODAGA-RGD uptake in femurs of lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 7G), which was corroborated by ex vivo scintillation counting (Figure 7H) and autoradiography exposure of the femur (Figure 7I). MRI provided albumin's spatial and temporal distribution (Figure 7J). The intercept of the fit with the y axis in Figure 7J estimates the vascular density, plotted in Figure 7K, which increased in response to lipopolysaccharide. The slope of the linear regression in Figure 7J indicates vascular permeability, which was higher for lipopolysaccharide-treated mice (Figure 7L). Taken together, noninvasive hybrid PET/MRI corroborated our microscopy data; both report a robust vascular marrow response to TLR ligand challenge.

Discussion

In this study, we describe 2 advances: (1) multiparametric PET/MRI is a useful tool to quantify vascular remodeling in the hematopoietic stem cell niche; (2) applying PET/MRI, in conjunction with fluorescence microscopy, reports a previously unknown angiogenic response that accompanies emergency hematopoiesis (Figure 8). Both claims are supported by gold standard ex vivo data, including flow cytometry and histology.

The vasculature is an integral component of the hematopoietic stem cell niche. Imaging has been instrumental to understanding the vasculature's role in organizing the environment in which HSPC reside. For instance, imaging reported where HSPC replicate. Proliferating HSPC locate proximal to sinusoids, while quiescent cells reside further

away.4 Microscopy's time-lapse capability allowed it to describe leukocyte motion, such as crawling and swarming. Despite its obvious advantages, microscopy, which is currently the only modality widely applied to image the marrow, also has inherent limitations. Because light waves scatter in bone, microscopy's depth capacity limits current in vivo application to the mouse skull marrow and precludes clinical imaging. Thus, despite propelling fundamental hematopoiesis research, microscopy will not translate insights to humans, where we are mostly limited to bone marrow biopsies. While optical tissue clearing addresses this limitation ex vivo, in vivo microscopy is currently unable to sample hematopoiesis beyond small areas in the mouse skull marrow. PET/MRI can overcome these hurdles, with certain trade-offs that include lower spatial resolution and a limitation to fewer, in our study 2, concurrent imaging targets.

Given that PET and MRI have evolved into leading molecular imaging modalities,³⁵ a multitude of imaging agents are available. In our study, we chose 2 imaging strategies that have been extensively studied for vascular processes outside the bone marrow.¹⁷⁻²⁰ Our choice was guided by vascular remodeling that may influence hematopoiesis and by these or similar agent's detectability via fluorescence microscopy. Such multiscale experimentation combines the advantages and overcomes the limitations of individual modalities. While microscopy provides high magnification and cellular resolution, PET and MRI provide clinical translatability and the opportunity to sample in vivo molecular processes in the entire hematopoietic marrow. Previous reports also indicate the shortcomings of both imaging agents we used. For instance, $\alpha V\beta 3$ integrin is expressed by leukocytes and fibroblasts,21 and the kinetics of blood pool agents may depend on altered hemodynamics. As imaging agent development continues, more specific options may become available in the future.

Previous data, some of which were acquired in the bone marrow, describe a cascade of events after TLR activation: first, macrophages release VEGF,³⁶ thereby stimulating angiogenesis. This process, which is regulated by integrins, such as our imaging target,²² gives rise to new vessels that typically appear leaky.³⁷ In the marrow, such leakiness associates with regions in which HSPC proliferate.⁴ Activated HSPC also reside in hypoxic niches.⁶ The increased oxygen demand of an expanding HSPC population, which proliferates at higher rates during acute inflammatory stress, may cause this hypoxia. Hypoxia is a strong stimulant of angiogenesis, and many cells, including HSPC and endothelial cells,³⁸⁻⁴¹ express

TLR. Indicating that these processes occur in the marrow after lipopolysaccharide-induced emergency hematopoiesis, we observed an increased VEGF/ANGPT1 ratio, integrin activation, new vessels, elevated blood volume fraction, opening of interendothelial cell junctions, and more vascular leakage. In the setting of TLR signaling-induced emergency hematopoiesis, these events' directionality and causal relation remains unclear. In this study, we imaged HSPC and neutrophils; however, also more differentiated progenitors and other offspring, including monocytes, macrophages, and lymphocytes could be monitored in a similar fashion. The described imaging toolbox provides a template for future study of the bone marrow vasculature in chronic inflammatory and cardiovascular diseases. There are many important open questions, among them whether angiogenesis is a bystander event or carries consequences for leukocyte production and release. If it is functionally relevant to blood cell supply, we should explore the consequences of antiangiogenic cancer therapy for hematopoiesis and whether targeting the bone marrow endothelium alters systemic leukocyte levels in chronic inflammatory diseases. Answering these questions and translating preclinical data to patients will rely, at least partially, on an expanded imaging tool set.

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Disclosures

None.

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