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# **A human-like model of aniridia-associated keratopathy for mechanistic and therapeutic studies**

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Aniridia is a rare congenital condition of abnormal eye development arising principally from heterozygous mutation of the *PAX6* gene. Among the multiple complications arising in the eye, aniridia-associated keratopathy (AAK) is a severe vision-impairing condition of the cornea associated with a progressive limbal stem cell deficiency that lacks suitable treatment options. Current mouse models of aniridia do not accurately represent the onset and progression dynamics of

human AAK, hindering therapy development. Here, we performed deep phenotyping of a haploinsufficient *Pax6 +/–* smalleye (Sey) mouse model on the129Sey/SvImJ background, that exhibits key features of mild presentation at birth and progressive AAK with aging, mimicking human disease. The model exhibits a slowly progressing AAK phenotype and provides new insights into the disease including disturbed basal epithelial cell organization, function and marker expression, persistent postnatal lymphangiogenesis, disrupted corneal innervation patterns, and persisting yet altered limbal stem cell marker expression with age. The model recapitulates many of the known features of human disease, enabling investigation of underlying disease mechanisms and importantly, to access a well-defined temporal window for evaluating future therapeutics.



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## **Abstract**

 Aniridia is a rare congenital condition of abnormal eye development arising principally from heterozygous mutation of the *PAX6* gene. Among the multiple complications arising in the eye, aniridia-associated keratopathy (AAK) is a severe vision-impairing condition of the cornea associated with a progressive limbal stem cell deficiency that lacks suitable treatment options. Current mouse models of aniridia do not accurately represent the onset and progression dynamics of human AAK, hindering therapy development. Here, we performed 30 deep phenotyping of a haploinsufficient  $Pax6^{+/-}$  small-eye (Sey) mouse model on the129Sey/SvImJ background, that exhibits key features of mild presentation at birth and progressive AAK with aging, mimicking human disease. The model exhibits a slowly progressing AAK phenotype and provides new insights into the disease including disturbed basal epithelial cell organization, function and marker expression, persistent postnatal lymphangiogenesis, disrupted corneal innervation patterns, and persisting yet altered limbal stem cell marker expression with age. The model recapitulates many of the known features of human disease, enabling investigation of underlying disease mechanisms and importantly, to access a well-defined temporal window for evaluating future therapeutics.

Keywords: congenital aniridia, aniridia-associated keratopathy, Sey mouse model, Limbal

stem cell deficiency, angiogenesis, lymphangiogenesis

# **Introduction**

 Congenital aniridia is a disorder of disrupted normal eye development owing to haploinsufficiency of the PAX6 protein caused by heterozygous mutations of the *PAX6* gene (1). Underdeveloped eye structures lead to multiple ocular pathologies including iris and foveal hypoplasia. Additionally early-onset glaucoma, and cataracts are reported, that may arguably be attributed to abnormal trabecular meshwork differentiation (1,2), Importantly, in most cases the development of aniridia-associated keratopathy (AAK) becomes the vision- limiting factor. AAK is a slow-onset, progressive loss of corneal transparency associated with inflammation, neovascularization, and an insufficiency of limbal stem cells that normally constantly renew the corneal epithelium. The prevalence and severity of AAK tends to increase as patients age, with progressive limbal stem cell deficiency, pervasive inflammation and neurodegeneration present in the cornea, and with surgical interventions unfortunately proving ineffective (3,4), leading to blindness with poor prognosis for subsequent interventions (5). To develop more effective and targeted therapies, a deeper understanding of the mechanisms leading to AAK and its progression is needed - thus, a relevant and accurate model of AAK is essential.

 Mice are an excellent model for congenital aniridia as the human *PAX6* and mouse *Pax6* genes are identical and encode the same amino acid sequence. Transgenic mice with an aniridia phenotype are created by targeted mutation of one allele of the *Pax6* gene (called the Sey allele, for 'small-eye') resulting in mutant mice exhibiting a spectrum of AAK phenotypes. As about 70% of all human cases of aniridia result from premature termination codon (PTC) mutations leading to nonsense-mediated PAX6 protein decay (6,7), this mutation type is the most useful for investigating disease mechanisms. Potential therapeutics also exist for this type of mutation, such as nonsense-suppression drugs (also called read-through drugs) designed to ignore the PTC and thereby produce a full-length PAX6 protein

 that does not degrade (8,9). Likewise, the genetic background is a significant factor affecting the ocular phenotype. The Sey allele on the C57BL/6 genetic background results in significant variability, with moderate to severe microphthalmia and structural abnormalities; however, microphthalmia is seldom reported in aniridia. Moreover, mutations on C57BL/6 and Balb/c backgrounds result in an aggressive, advanced AAK phenotype apparent upon eye opening in the early postnatal period (6,10,11). This is a clear departure from the majority of human aniridia cases, where the cornea is transparent and presents with a very mild AAK that generally does not progress during the first decade of life (12). Consequently, a critical therapeutic window for aniridia that exists early in life in humans (1,12) has been inaccessible 76 for therapy development in mouse models. The  $Pax6^{+/}$  haploinsufficient small eye (Sey) mouse model on the 129S1/SvImJ and hybrid F1 backgrounds was recently presented as an alternative aniridia model (11) that has a PTC mutation representing the most frequent human aniridia-causing mutation type. In particular, the mouse model on the 129S1/SvlmJ background exhibited slower development of corneal neovascularization, but the full characteristics of the model on this background, including the ocular and AAK phenotype, are largely unknown. Here, we perform deep phenotype characterization of the dynamics of AAK development in this model, to evaluate its relationship to human disease. We provide a comprehensive analysis of the histologic, morphometric, and immunohistochemical features of the cornea in this mouse model with 86 heterozygous  $Pax6^{+/}$  genotype, relative to wild-type  $(Pax6^{+/})$  littermates, showing that the model mimics the human disease and provides a previously inaccessible potential therapeutic window for AAK, to facilitate detailed mechanistic and therapeutic investigations of relevance for human congenital aniridia.

## **Results**

# 91 *Pax6***<sup>+/-</sup> haploinsufficient 129S1/SvImJ heterozygous (Het) mice exhibit human-like delayed onset AAK phenotypes.**

 The Het phenotype was visually discernible in adult mice upon observation, with smaller eye openings and more closed eyelids (Figure 1A). Relative to wild-type (Wt) mice on the same background, hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining revealed defects in Het mice such as keratolenticular adhesion, shallow anterior chamber, thickened cornea at the site of attachment, and iridocorneal angle abnormalities (Figure 1B). Examining the level of PAX6 98 protein, Western blot (Figure 1C) showed a PAX6 protein level of 42% in Het mice relative 99 to Wt ( $P < 0.001$ ).

 To assess AAK development, 26 Het mice and 24 Wt mice were characterized longitudinally, with monthly examination up to five months using slit lamp biomicroscopy. In Wt mice, a fully transparent cornea with full iris remained unchanged up to 5 months (Figure 1D, Figure 1E, top row). In Het mice, the onset of AAK was variable and progressive, as assessed by the degree of central corneal opacity (loss of transparency). Central corneal opacity progressively increased with age in Het mice while Wt corneas remained transparent (Figure 1D). In eyes exhibiting AAK (defined by the degree of blood vessel invasion into the cornea), two general phenotypes were apparent. In the 'early AAK' phenotype, invasion of blood vessels into the cornea occurred first at 1-2 months of age, gradually progressing from the periphery to the center of the cornea at 5 months of age (Figure 1E, middle row). In the second 'late AAK' phenotype, vessel invasion was apparent first at 4-5 months of age (Figure 1E, bottom row).

**Abnormalities in the cornea, lens, and iris in Het mice**

Table 1 provides a summary of the various abnormalities observed in the eyes of up to 60 Het

mice by in vivo slit lamp and in vivo confocal microscopy (IVCM) examinations in mice of

different ages. There was no significant sex differences noted in any of the parameters at the

 different ages (Supplementary Table S1). The diverse frequencies of abnormal findings in Table 1 reflect the varied phenotypes induced by AAK. However, keratolenticular (cornea- lens) adhesion was the most consistent feature observed in 100% of eyes in Het mice by IVCM examination, a feature observed even at a late prenatal stage (Supplementary Figure S4). The adhesion appeared in vivo as a dark ring structure in the posterior stroma (Figure 2A). In 15-20 % of eyes of Het mice, dark vacuole structures were visible in the posterior stroma near the keratolenticular adhesion (Figure 2B). Occasionally, this adhesion was minimal and challenging to detect with a slit lamp. However, further IVCM investigation confirmed the presence of adhesion (Supplementary Figure S1). Adhesions could also be confirmed by optical coherence tomography (OCT) examination, scanning the cornea in all directions. Infiltration of inflammatory cells into the corneal stroma was observed in up to 33% of eyes of Het mice at various ages (Figure 2C). The second most common feature observed in the cornea was neuromas, observed by IVCM imaging as a group of prominent nerve endings present at the termination point of a stromal nerve trunk (Figure 2D).

 Iris coloboma was present in about half of corneas from Het mice at all ages, with variable degree and patterns of coloboma apparent (Supplementary Figure S2). The persistence of lens remnants within the cornea is depicted in histology and in vivo by OCT in the same eyes in Figure 2E. Separation of the lens vesicle from the surface ectoderm during fetal development was incomplete in Het mice, resulting in keratolenticular adhesions of various degrees.

#### **Het mice exhibit thinner corneas and a compromised epithelial barrier**

 OCT images revealed a fully developed anterior chamber with clear and consistent iridocorneal angle in Wt mice, but markedly shallower anterior chamber depth in the eyes of Het mice, which was about half the depth of Wt (P < 0.0001, Figure 3A,B). Central corneal thickness was measured from OCT images of 235 eyes, with corneas of Het mice being

139 28.7% thinner than Wt mice at 1 month of age (P < 0.0001), retaining this reduction up to 5 months (Figure 3C).

 Histological investigation of the cornea revealed loss of columnar structure of basal epithelial cells, resulting in flattening of basal epithelial cells and loss of the distinctive contrast pattern of nuclear staining in corneas of Het mice relative to Wt mice (Figure 3D). The corneal epithelium in Het mice also appeared markedly thinner than the Wt corneal epithelium (Figure 3D). As basal cells build the epithelial basement membrane by producing and secreting components such as collagen IV (COL4), this was also examined. A distinct loss of collagen IV expression in the cornea of Het mice was noted and an epithelial basement membrane was not discernible. Additionally, loss of collagen IV expression within the cytoplasm of basal epithelial cells was noted (Figure 3E). A dot-like expression pattern of collagen IV was apparent in the corneal stroma of Wt mice, representing basement membrane surrounding corneal nerves (13), which was also visible in corneas of Het mice to some extent (Figure 3E). Staining of the live cornea with fluorescein dye and imaging under blue light confirmed impairment of the epithelial barrier function, with stromal uptake of the dye visible in corneas of Het mice (Figure 3F).

Quantitative analysis of H&E stained sections confirmed that relative to the Wt mice, the

corneal epithelium in corneas of Het mice was half the thickness (P < 0.0001, Figure 3G).

Additionally, the mean number of stratified cell layers in the epithelium was reduced from 5

in Wt to 3 in Het mice (P < 0.0001, Figure 3H). Basal epithelial cell layer thickness was

likewise reduced in Het mice (P < 0.0001, Figure 3I). Basal epithelial cell density in Het mice

160 was also reduced, with a significant reduction in the number of basal cells per 100 µm of

161 linear distance ( $P < 0.0001$ , Figure 3J). The nuclear area to basal layer area was significantly

increased in Het mice, with nuclei comprising most of the cellular volume (Figure 3K).

**Het mice exhibit delayed onset and variable progression of AAK**

 Progression and severity of AAK were assessed by slit lamp biomicroscopy to visualize the limbal region in all mice, applying the clinical grading scale for AAK (Figure 4A). In the eyes of Wt mice, a transparent cornea with intact limbal border was present, and whole mount staining with CD31 confirmed vessels were confined to the limbal border, representing Grade 0 AAK. In Het mice at one month of age, the majority (98%) had Grade 1 or 2 AAK with a transparent central cornea but with vessels just breaching the limbal border and entering the peripheral cornea. As Het mice age, AAK progresses with vessels entering the central cornea (Grade 3) and eventually resulting in a thick, white vascularized tissue covering the entire cornea (Grade 4). Relative proportions of Het mice with different AAK Grades at different ages are given in Figure 4B. Notably, a large proportion of Het mice remain in early-stage Grade 1-2 AAK as they age.

## **Progressive breakdown of the corneal cellular microenvironment in AAK**

 To investigate the impact of AAK development on the cornea at the microscopic level, longitudinal in vivo imaging of mouse corneas was performed using IVCM. Epithelium (superficial, wing and basal layers), stroma, and endothelium were imaged (Figure 5, A-F). The large-area flat, polygonal superficial epithelial cells with bright nuclei in Wt mice (Figure 5A) were replaced by smaller, oval-shaped cells with dark nuclei in Het mice, that became progressively smaller and less distinct as AAK progressed (Figure 5, G, L and Q). Wing cells that normally have a distinct mosaic pattern with clear cell borders and dark cytoplasm and no visible nuclei (Figure 5B), were transformed in Grade 1 AAK to cells with bright nuclei having lost the mosaic pattern and distinct cell borders (Figure 5H), which in more advanced AAK Grades completely lost all cellular structure and exhibited vacuoles (Figure 5M) and fibrous material (Figure 5R). The basal cell layer of Wt mice with densely packed cells with bright cell borders and dark cytoplasm (Figure 5C) with visible nerves of the subbasal epithelial nerve plexus (Figure 5D) was transformed in Grade 1 AAK of Het mice to a cell

 layer with bright nuclei and indistinct cell borders, with disrupted subbasal nerve fiber orientation (Figure 5I) that in later stages lost all cellular structure (Figure 5, N and S). Bright (hyper-reflective) nuclei of stromal keratocytes and thick stromal nerve fiber trunks (Figure 5E) in Wt mice were no longer visible in corneas of Het mice, instead being replaced by fibro-vascular tissue with abnormal microneuromas (Figure 5, J, O and T). A consistent monolayer of endothelial cells was visible in the normal corneal endothelium (Figure 5F) and in the endothelium of Het mice, but this posterior layer became more difficult to discern with increasing AAK Grade (Figure 5, K, P and U). Taken together, the results indicate a progressive breakdown of the cellular and neural structure of the corneal epithelium and stroma in Het mice that is discernible at the earliest stage in Grade 1 AAK when the central cornea is still transparent.

# **Het mice exhibit selective and persistent postnatal corneal lymphangiogenesis**

 To characterize corneal neovascularization with AAK development as an indicator of progressive limbal stem cell deficiency, whole mounted corneal tissues were immunostained for blood (CD31) and lymphatic (LYVE1) vessels. Surprisingly in Het mice, an early and selective ingrowth of corneal lymph vessels was observed at 1 month of age, extending into the central cornea even without the presence of blood vessels (Figure 6A). These lymphatics did not regress but persisted in the cornea to at least 5 months of age. CD31 staining revealed that corneal haemangiogenesis was less prominent and delayed relative to corneal lymphangiogenesis. In Wt mice, however, the cornea maintained corneal angiogenic privilege, devoid of both blood and lymphatic vessels (Figure 6A, first column). Blood and lymph vessel frequency was tracked over time in mice (Figure 6B) revealing that lymph vessels were highly prevalent in the corneas of Het mice regardless of age, and appeared to be independent of blood vessel presence, indicating that lymph vessels are more dominant than blood vessels in Het mouse corneas and persist over time.

 In the IVCM image depicted in Figure 6C, lymphatic vessels were observed coexisting with blood vessels at the same corneal depth. These lymphatic vessels appear morphologically distinct from adjacent blood vessels and are characterized by a larger and irregular diameter compared to blood vessels. In addition, lymph vessels have no discernible vessel walls, a dark lumen which is consistent with the transparency of the lymph fluid, and a few visible reflective cells (presumed leukocytes) compared with blood vessels that exhibit a smaller vessel diameter, thicker linear vessel walls, and a high number of small reflecting cells (erythrocytes) (14).

 Histological sections from the neovascularized area of a 2-month-old Het mouse revealed LYVE1 positive vessels in the anterior corneal stroma, with additional F4/80 staining of macrophages throughout the stroma. By contrast, Wt mouse corneas were devoid of both LYVE1 and F4/80 positive cells (Figure 6D).

#### **Disrupted corneal nerve organization in Het mice**

 β-III Tubulin whole mount immunostaining of corneal nerves (Figure 7) revealed that in Wt mice, stromal nerves were mainly confined to the peripheral cornea with very few stromal nerves in the central cornea. In contrast, in corneas of Het mice, stromal nerves extended into the central cornea (Figure 7, top row). Epithelial nerve bundles derived from the peripheral stromal nerve branches form a dense nerve layer called the corneal subbasal nerve plexus (SBNP). In corneas of Wt mice, nerve fibers in the SBNP were densely distributed and organized centripetally, converging to form a vortex at the corneal apex. In Het mice, this architecture was disrupted, with an uneven and sporadic distribution of nerves in the SBNP which did not exhibit any clear spatial pattern. Moreover, in the central cornea, anterior stromal nerve trunks invaded the SBNP layer in the corneas of Het mice, indicating loss of stromal-epithelial compartmentalization of nerves (Figure 7, bottom row).

# **Limbal stem cell markers persist in the basal epithelium and remnants of stem-like lens**

# **epithelium persist in the stroma of Het mice**

 As the emergence of AAK coincides with a progressive limbal stem cell deficiency in human aniridia (15), the location and distribution of limbal stem cells and differentiated epithelial cells were investigated along with PAX6 expression in Het corneas in Grades 1 and 2 AAK (Figure 8). In Wt mice, PAX6 was strongly expressed in all epithelial layers while in Het mice, PAX6 expression was confined mainly within the flattened basal layer of the thin epithelium. PAX6 expression continued to the limbal basal epithelium, where it was expressed equally and uniformly in the basal cells of the limbus in Wt and Het mice. The basal epithelium strongly expressed limbal stem cell marker ∆Np63 and the putative limbal stem cell marker GPHA2 in the central and limbal cornea of both Wt and Het mice. The superficial epithelial layer of the central cornea strongly expressed the KRT12 differentiation marker in Wt and Het mice (and notably did not strongly express PAX6 or stem cell markers). Superficial epithelium, however, lacked KRT12 expression in the area of keratolenticular attachment in Het mice and in the limbus of both Wt and Het mice. The expression of PAX6, ∆Np63, and KRT12 showed a similar pattern in Grade 3 and 4 AAK; however, GPHA2 in these more advanced AAK stages shifted to the superficial epithelium (Supplementary Figure S3). The proportion of Ki-67 positive cells was elevated in the basal layer of corneal epithelia in Het mice compared to normal Wt tissue and became more prominent as AAK developed to Grades 3 and 4. In addition, many MUC5AC-positive cells were detected in the epithelia of Het mice with later-stage AAK exhibiting a uniform MUC5AC expression throughout the epithelium, whereas MUC5AC expression was absent in the epithelia of Wt mice (supplementary Figure S5). Interestingly, within the central cornea of Het mice where the keratolenticular attachment is

present, clusters of cells were embedded within the corneal stroma anterior to the lens

- capsule. These clusters exhibited a morphology distinct from the typical flattened nuclei of
- corneal keratocytes. The positivity for stem cell markers (∆Np63 and GPHA2) and the
- absence of KRT12 expression within these stromal clusters imply the presence of a stem-like
- cell population originating from the keratolenticular adhesion.

# **Discussion**

 AAK has been identified in almost 80% of congenital aniridia patients (2), while the prevalence of a minimal keratopathy at the microscopic level has been reported to be 100% in aniridia (7). AAK in human aniridia leads to significant visual morbidity and importantly, there are no approved pharmacological treatments targeting its pathogenesis. An animal model that closely mimics the qualities of human AAK would facilitate deeper investigations of pathophysiological mechanisms and enable evaluation of potential therapies, that have been previously tested in mouse models exhibiting an advanced AAK (with malformed eyes) 275 at birth (6,10,11) which makes results difficult to translate to the human disease. Here, advanced in vivo imaging modalities (IVCM and OCT) alongside histopathological examination were used to extensively document the dynamic structural alterations in the 278 cornea at up to five time intervals in the  $Pax6^{+/}$  small eye (Sey) mouse model on the 129S1/SvImJ background, a model that uniquely mimics the slow-onset and progression of AAK that is not seen in other Sey mouse models. In humans the natural course of AAK usually begins after the first decade of life and progresses with age (7,12,15,16), a timeline similar to Het mice in the present study, which importantly provides a window of up to several months in mice where the central cornea remains transparent prior to AAK progression. Other advantages of the present model are the time of AAK emergence and rate of AAK progression. These, along with the bilateral asymmetry of AAK and even the variation in phenotype across individuals, all align with various clinical observations of AAK in humans (7,16). An association of AAK severity with age was found in the characterized Het mice, notably with no eye having grade 0 upon careful slit lamp examination. By 1 month of age, blood vessels were detected centrally or para-centrally in only 1.9 % of eyes of Het mice, increasing to 26.6% of eyes by the age of 4 months. Grade 1 and 2 AAK were more prominent in younger mice, while older mice mainly exhibited Grade 3 and 4 (Figure 4). This

 corresponds to the human AAK development, where subjects under 20 years of age are mostly reported with Grade 1 AAK while subjects older than 20 years usually progress to Grades 2-4 (16). Our findings also demonstrated a direct correlation between the extent of corneal opacification and the level of peripheral vascularization as the Het mice age, consistent with observations made in humans. Although the abnormality of the epithelium in aniridia has previously been documented, here we quantify several aspects of the compromised epithelium in the present mouse model, that are further discussed below. At the histological level, depletion of collagen IV, a prominent constituent of basement membranes, was notable in Het mice. A similar reduction in collagen IV has been previously reported in an aniridia patient (17), and loss of basement membrane has been noted histopathologically in humans (18). The deficiency in collagen IV is expected to lead to absent or aberrant basement membrane structure, disorganization of the basal layer, and a diminishment of cellular demarcations, leading to fragility of the epithelium. This finding was corroborated by the present in vivo findings using IVCM, where the cell borders and cellular mosaic structure diminished in conjunction with advancing AAK grades. As the basement membrane provides mechanical support, divides tissue into different compartments, and influences cell proliferation, differentiation, and migration, the compromised basal epithelium and basement membrane in Het mice, together with deficiency in the underlying Collagen IV matrix structure, may result in a decline in epithelial-to-stromal barrier function. This observation was confirmed by the infiltration of fluorescein dye, consistent with findings from Ou et al.'s 312 investigation on a  $Pax6^{+/}$  mouse model (19). We note here also that this function may be closely tied to the sparse, degenerate phenotype of the basal epithelial cells that no longer appear to produce collagen IV. Moreover, presumably due to this loss of epithelial-to-stromal barrier, stromal nerves migrated beyond the stromal compartment to invade the central subepithelial space, replacing the normal dense spiraling network of subbasal nerves in the

 central cornea with less dense and disorganized stromal nerve trunks. Moreover, abnormal hyperproliferative stromal nerve endings called microneuromas, not detected in the corneas of Wt mice, were observed in close proximity to the epithelium in Het mice, further suggesting a disruption of the nerve-epithelium homeostasis. Loss of the subbasal nerve spiral pattern, projection of stroma nerves into the epithelium and presence of dense 'knotting' of nerves (microneuromas) were all noted previously by Leiper et al. in a Sey-Neu aniridia mouse model (20), suggesting a compromised neurotrophic status as also observed in the present model. This closely resembles the declining subbasal nerve density with age reported in human studies (15,21). We note here that the neurotrophic deficit is already present in Grade 1 AAK, comparable to the early stages of AAK in patients (22). Moreover, the related early and progressive changes in the epithelial wing and basal cell layers noted here by IVCM with increasing AAK severity have also been reported in patients with aniridia (17).

 Taken together, the compromised epithelial function and structure, along with disturbed nerve organization and infiltration of inflammatory cells observed in this model, are aligned with the hypothesis that perturbations in ocular surface homeostasis disrupts the vital interaction between nerves and epithelial cells. This results in disruption of the normal corneal renewal process, leading to an inflammatory cascade and compromised wound healing, tipping the balance towards neovascularization by shifting expression of antiangiogenic factors to proinflammatory and regenerative factors (1), also seen in human cases of aniridia (4,23). Among inflammatory cells infiltrating the cornea, macrophages are potent triggers of

lymphangiogenesis due to the secretion of vascular endothelial growth factors C and D and

their physical incorporation within forming lymphatics (24). In the present model,

immunostaining revealed corneal lymph vessels accompanied by stromal infiltration of

 $F4/80<sup>+</sup>$  macrophages. Intriguingly, we also report the currently undocumented, selective and

341 early invasion of LYVE1<sup>+</sup> lymphatics into the central cornea without the presence of  $CD31<sup>+</sup>$ 

 blood vessels, that persisted over time in Het mice, without natural regression of these vessels. This finding is notable given that the normal mouse cornea is endowed with a significant number of lymphatic vessels during development, that subsequently undergo spontaneous regression to the limbal area after eye opening (25). The persistence of these vessels in Het mice provides further evidence for the hypothesis of a postulated frozen ocular developmental state in aniridia, which also encompasses incomplete normalization of corneal thickness, dendritic cell density, endothelial cell density and corneal innervation (21). This suggests that inadequate levels of PAX6 could lead to the failure of spontaneous lymphatic regression and thus failure of the associated postnatal corneal immune privilege. Interestingly, this failure of lymphatic regression may be related to the persistence of proangiogenic macrophages (24) that were observed here within the stroma of Het mice. These macrophages, chronically present, may also over time contribute to blood vessel invasion of the cornea and thus progression of AAK; however, given the persistent inflammation, neurotrophic deficit and compromised epithelium, multiple factors likely contribute to the progression of AAK.

 AAK is often considered to be a progressive form of limbal stem cell deficiency (LSCD). Immunostaining in the present model showed qualitatively that fewer epithelial cells expressed LSC markers in Het mice than in wildtypes. Thus, it is plausible that a reduced number of LSCs are developmentally determined in Het mice; yet, interestingly, the results also show that these cells have the ability to survive for extended periods and continue to express stem cell markers. However, these putative LSCs might be less efficient than wildtype LSCs in terms of proliferation and producing active migrating progeny. In vivo studies have also provided evidence that limbal epithelial stem cells are likely preserved in human AAK (18). Moreover, visible palisades of Vogt structures in the early stages of AAK

 have been reported, which along with preserved corneal epithelial phenotype in early stages, suggests a degree of preserved LSC niche function (15,16,22).

 Surprisingly, immunostaining results from Het mice with later-stage Grade 4 AAK also revealed the persistence of limbal stem cell markers in the epithelium. ∆Np63, a well-known marker for LSCs, was detected in the basal layer and supra basal epithelial layer in Wt mice while in Het mice, ∆Np63 expression was confined to a single layer of flattened basal cells. In Grade 4 AAK, further loss of ∆Np63 expression was apparent. Schlotzer-Schrehardt et al. proposed that these cells may represent hyperproliferative transient amplifying progenitors, which ensure a continuous provision and swift turnover of epithelial cells that in aniridia are

inadequately and aberrantly differentiated (18).

 GPHA2 has been introduced as a new marker for quiescent stem cells (qSCs) which are progenitor and slow-cycling cells surrounded by their progeny of abundant and fast-cycling cells (26,27). It has also been shown that GPHA2 expression depends on niche-specific signals whose function appears to be essential for LSC self-renewal and differentiation (28). In Wt mice, GPHA2 was expressed in the basal epithelial layer, while in Het mice expression shifted towards superficial layers of the epithelium, which was even more prominent in Grade 4 AAK, where expression in the basal epithelial layer was notably absent. Thus, GPHA2 expression in the basal epithelium appears to mirror the progressive limbal insufficiency in AAK and could be an important marker for further studies.

 The increased expression of Ki-67 in the corneal epithelium in Het mice suggests heightened proliferation of progenitor cells within the basal layer, contributing to an accelerated turnover of epithelial cells that are poorly differentiated, as noted above from the pattern of ∆Np63 expression. This leads to the development of conjunctival and epidermal phenotypes evidenced by MUC5AC staining of epithelial cells found in Het mice that increased as AAK

 progressed. Similar MUC5AC expression was found in the context of human AAK (18). Previous human studies of AAK have also demonstrated a clear transformation of corneal to conjunctival epithelium along with goblet cell invasion into the cornea (17,29). This suggests that the epithelium in the Het mice is abnormally proliferative and transforms into conjunctival epithelium that recapitulates the phenotype and progression of human AAK. Of additional note, the pattern of limbal stem cell marker expression in Het mice corresponded with our in vivo findings of progressive corneal opacification and vascularization associated with LSCD. As observed in slit lamp images in younger mice with Grades 1-2 AAK, corneal transparency is maintained implying at least partial function of the limbal niche and LSCs. As AAK progressed, LSC function was compromised, resulting in limbal barrier breakdown and invasion of blood vessels into the central cornea. Additionally, our IVCM results showed the increasing severity of LSCD correlated with a loss of normal corneal epithelial cell morphology and a decline in central subbasal nerves, in line with human studies (15,30).

 Whether the limbal stem cell function is compromised by the presence of other pathology such as inflammation, neurotrophic deficit and the presence of pro-angiogenic factors is unknown; however, marker expression in Het mice suggests a possibility for LSC survival, potentially even in late-stage AAK. The potential for maintaining or possibly even reversing the stem cell-related changes in AAK requires further exploration, and the Het mice characterized here provide an excellent model for future investigations of limbal stem cell biology in the context of *PAX6* transcriptional regulation. Importantly, current therapeutic interventions for aniridia patients aimed at restoring the niche environment to mitigate the deterioration of limbal epithelial stem cell (LESC) function are solely surgical and these have proven to be largely unsuccessful (3,4).

 Interestingly, in the region of corneas in Het mice in apposition with the kerato-lenticular attachment, clusters of cells were observed embedded within the corneal stroma. These cells exhibited morphological features distinct from corneal keratocytes and expressed PAX6, ΔNp63 and GPHA2, but not KRT12, and are presumed lens epithelial stem-like cells, which may originate from the developing prenatal lens.

 In summary, the present Het mouse model is highly analogous to human aniridia and is the only model presented to date with slow-onset AAK as observed in humans, with the cornea remaining transparent for periods of up to several months. This mirrors the human AAK time frame of progression according to the corresponding life cycle of mice. Phenotypic and histological analyses confirmed that the complications observed in human AAK such as a shallow anterior chamber, epithelial fragility, absence of Collagen IV in the epithelial basement membrane, and retained hyperproliferative progenitor cells with subsequent maldifferentiation of epithelial cells, are accurately recapitulated in this mouse model. In addition, we note several findings in this model suitable for deeper investigation, such as altered basal epithelial structure and function, persistent and selective lymphangiogenesis, disrupted corneal nerve organization with microneuromas and epithelial cells with partially retained stem cell markers even in late-stage AAK. There remain, however, important discrepancies between our model and human AAK, namely thinner corneas in mice and consistent presence of a keratolenticular adhesion. The thin cornea is common across all mouse models of PAX6 deficiency (6,10,11,31). This differs notably from the thicker corneal stroma in human AAK, which has been postulated to be a consequence of incomplete prenatal stromal development (21). The reason for this discrepancy between mice and humans is unclear and requires further investigation. The keratolenticular adhesion, present in all Het mice, results from incomplete separation of the cornea and the lens during prenatal development, and has been observed in other small-eye mouse models (9,10,31,32). The



## **Methods**

## **Sex as a biological variable**

Both male and female mice were examined, and phenotypic findings are reported for both

sexes combined and separately (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S1).

**Animal models**

In this study we characterized mice of the 129S1/SvlmJ background. Specifically, the

heterozygous 129S1.Cg-Pax6Sey/Mmmh strain (MMRRC stock number 050624-MU) with a

heterozygous *Pax6* mutation (11) was bred and genotyped at the animal facility of Linköpings

458 University to obtain homozygous non-mutant ( $Pax6^{+/+}$ , Wt) or heterozygous  $Pax6$  Sey mutant

 $(Pax6^{+/})$ , Het) mice. Specifically, this mouse strain bears a spontaneous point mutation in the

*PAX6* gene at exon 8 (nucleotide 27726 on ENSMUSG00000027168, PAX6 mRNA

nucleotide 903: G to T substitution) generating a premature stop codon. For colony breeding

462 purposes,  $Pax6^{+/+}$  females were bred with  $Pax6^{+/+}$  males. Mice were housed at 23<sup>o</sup>C and 40-

60% humidity in a 12h/12h dark/light cycle. In total, 88 mice were characterized at various

age stages, comprised of 26 Het females, 16 Wt females, 24 Het males and 22 Wt males.

Experiments were in accordance with guidelines of the regional ethics committee for animal

experiments at Linköping University, Sweden and in line with the Association for Research in

Vision and Ophthalmology (ARVO) guidelines for the use of animals in ophthalmic and

vision research.

## **Mouse genotyping and primer design**

To identify the mutational status of the mouse colony offspring and assign them to study

groups, PCR was performed on genomic DNA from digested ear clip tissue taken at weaning.

In order to identify the single point mutation, two pairs of primers were designed and used per

sample: They included a common forward primer for both pairs upstream of the mutation site,

and two reverse primers with an intentional penultimate base mismatch (same in both RV

 primers, T instead of C), and an ultimate base that matched either the Wt or the Sey allele (T or A, respectively). This, in the case of Wt mice, resulted in a functional Wt-RV primer with one mismatch, and a non-functional Sey-RV primer with a 2-base mismatch at the 3' end, giving a product only in the FW/Wt Sey primer pair. Conversely, in case of heterozygous Sey mice, the FW/Wt-RV pair gave a product from the normal allele and the FW/Sey-RV pair also gave a product from the mutated allele. Specifically, the primers used were: Common FW: CTGTGCCGAGTCCCATTAGG, Wt RV: CTGAGCTTCATCCGAGTCTTCTTC, Sey RV: CTGAGCTTCATCCGAGTCTTCTTA. DNA was extracted with 200uL 50mM NaOH 483 digestion at 90 $\degree$ C followed by pH neutralization by 35 $\mu$ L Tris-HCl (pH=8). DNA was measured and 150ng of total DNA was loaded in each reaction, along with a final C of 0.5µM of each primer in a reaction volume of 25µL. 12.5µL of 2x DreamTaq PCR master mix (Life Technologies, ThermoFischer scientific, product # K1072) was used in each reaction that ran 487 for 35 cycles of 95 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ , 60 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ , and 72 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ .

#### **Animal anesthesia and recovery**

 During the characterization experiments, animals were anesthetized with intra-peritoneal ketamine-xylazine injection (65mg/kg ketamine, 10mg/kg xylazine in a PBS dilution for 10μL per g of weight injection) and topical anesthesia of tetracaine-HCl 0.5% drops was also applied. At the end of the characterization, if the timepoint was not terminal, mice were administered 1.8mg/Kg in PBS atipamezole subcutaneously in the back and were allowed to wake up in a cage with paper bedding, warmed by warm pads. For analgesia, 0.12mg/Kg buprenorphine was included in the antisedan solution (injectable solution concentration: 0.225mg/mL atipamezole, 0.015mg/mL buprenorphine).

# **Characterization of mice**

 Characterization was performed on both eyes per mouse at 5 time points with 1-month intervals starting at the age of 1 month to 5 months of age using slit-lamp photography, IVCM

 imaging of corneal layers and Optical Coherence Tomography. At every timepoint, after the characterization of all eyes, 2 Het mice and 2 Wt mice were taken out of their groups and sacrificed for tissue extraction, while all other animals were kept in their housing until reaching the next age timepoint. Obtained tissues were dissected, processed or preserved according to the specific assay for which they were individually allocated. The specific assays and the corresponding tissue handling after extraction are described below in their respective sections. A clinical grading scale for AAK was applied to all Het mice, as previously reported (7). Briefly, Grade 0 AAK is a complete and undamaged limbal border indistinguishable from a healthy corneal limbus, Grade 1 AAK is where blood vessels cross the limbus while remaining within 1 mm of the limbal area, Grade 2 AAK is where blood vessels invade the 510 peripheral and paracentral cornea, but preserving the central 2 mm of the cornea, Grade 3 AAK is characterized by vascularization affecting the central cornea and Grade 4 is an advanced end-stage AAK with vascularization of the entire cornea and transformation of the anterior cornea into an opaque, thick, white, vascularized irregular structure.

## **Slit-lamp photography**

Mouse eyes were examined using a rodent slit-lamp camera (Micron III, Phoenix

Technologies, USA) for visualization and scoring of corneal haze and opacity. After initial

slit-lamp photography, 5mg/mL Tropicamide drops were applied for 4min to dilate the iris

and the eyes were re-photographed after rinsing of the tropicamide drops with PBS eye drops.

- Corneal haze grading was assessed by slit lamp examination at each time point using a
- previously reported grading scale (33).

## **In Vivo Confocal Microscopy (IVCM) imaging of corneal layers**

In vivo confocal microscopy (Heidelberg Retinal Tomograph 3 with Rostock Corneal

- Module, HRT3-RCM, Heidelberg Engineering, Germany) was used to image the corneal
- layers to detect possible lesions, abnormal features and inflammatory cell infiltrates while

- 525 also visualizing the corneal nerve plexus. After application of viscotears gel  $(2mg/g)$
- polyacrylic acid), the laser head was brought in close contact with the cornea epithelium and
- images were obtained and recorded throughout the corneal layers.

# **Optical Coherence Tomography**

 The Optovue iVue-100 OCT system with a corneal adaptor module was used on both eyes per mouse using the iVue system in the corneal pachymetry mode. The Fourier-domain OCT device operates at a scanning speed of 26000 A-scans per second with a frame rate of 256 to 4096 A-scans per frame. The axial and transverse resolutions of the iVue-100 OCT device are 5 μm and 15 μm respectively (manual).

#### **Cornea tissue sample processing**

Upon sacrifice, eye bulbs were extracted with forceps. For histology, the whole eye was

536 rinsed in PBS and immersed in 4% PFA in PBS at 4°C 2 hours, rinsed thoroughly with PBS

and kept in ethanol 70%. After being embedded in paraffine blocks, they were sectioned at 5

µm thickness, mounted to poly-L lysine coated microscopy slides, dried overnight at RT and

further processed for histological-immunohistological-IF staining. In all other cases, the

cornea was separated immediately and washed with ice-cold PBS. For protein analysis, the

cornea was immersed in 80μL RIPA buffer (Thermo-Scientific 89901) supplemented with

protease and phosphatase inhibitors with 5mM EDTA (Thermo-Scientific Halt™ 78442) ,

543 then was snap frozen and stored at -80°C. For whole mount staining the corneas after being

544 immersed in 1.3% PFA at 4°C 1 hour, were kept in PBS for staining.

# **Immunostaining and confocal fluorescence microscopy**

 Sections from Het mice corneas including the attachment were excluded from quantitative analyses to minimize the probable effect of attachment on the corneal phenotype outside the attachment zone. A standard protocol for section rehydration, antigen retrieval, blocking and antibody staining was used. Briefly, antigen retrieval was performed in the DAKO PT LINK  200 machine, nonspecific epitope blocking was performed by 1% BSA (Sigma-Aldrich via Merck #A7906) , 5% goat serum (Cell Signaling via BioNordika #CST-5425S), 0.1% Tween- 20 in PBS, primary ab was incubated overnight at 4°C, secondary antibodies were applied for 553 2h at RT and SlowFade<sup>TM</sup> Diamond Antifade mountant with DAPI (Fischer scientific # 15451244) were used to mount immunostained slides or Eukitt quick-hardening mounting medium (Sigma-Aldrich via Merck #03989) for IHC-stained slides. We specifically examined ∆Np63 and GPHA2 as indicators for limbal stem cells (LSC), in addition to KRT12 as a marker for differentiated epithelial cells (negative marker for stem cells). For completeness, images were taken of the central cornea including and excluding regions of keratolenticular adhesions in Het mice. For whole-mounts, corneas were cut into 4 leaflets and then proceeded to immunofluorescence protocol. Briefly, after nonspecific epitopes being blocked 561 for 1 hour, the corneas were incubated in primary antibody overnight. Fluorophore- conjugated secondary antibodies were applied for 2 nights. A Zeiss LSM 800 microscope (Carl Zeiss AG, Oberkochen, Germany) was used for imaging. Antibodies used are listed in the table provided in the supplementary Table S2.

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#### **Western blot**

 For protein extraction, samples were homogenized using the TissueLyser LT bead mill system (Qiagen) at 50Hz shaking for 5min, followed by sonication in ice-cold water for 10min and a 20min centrifugation step. Protein concentration was measured using the Pierce™ BCA Protein Assay kit (Thermo-Scientific) following the instructions for a 10μL sample volume. BIS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis was performed using 4-15% gradient pre-cast gel (Bio-Rad #4561084 Mini-PROTEAN® TGX™). 15μg total protein per sample were loaded, mixed with 4x Laemmli buffer (Bio-Rad #1610747), 0.5μL β-mercaptethanol and ddH2O. Proteins were transferred in a PVDF membrane using Trans-Blot Turbo Mini 0.2 µm PVDF Transfer Packs (Bio-Rad #1704156) and standard membrane immunostaining procedures were followed, detailed in the supplementary methods. Bands were visualized in an ImageQuant™ LAS 500 Chemiluminescent Imaging System (GE Healthcare), after being covered by 1mL of Pierce™ ECL Western Blotting Substrate (Thermo Fisher #32106). Band densitometry on the photographed membranes was performed using the Image Lab v.6.1 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

# **Quantitative measurements and statistics**

ImageJ software (version 1.54, FIJI distribution) was utilized for all morphometric

measurements of various aspects of microscopy images (34). Measurements in OCT images

were performed within the OCT built-in software (v 3.2.1.8). Prism v.8.3.0 (GraphPad

- Software) was used for the statistical evaluation in group comparisons and to produce charts.
- Multiple samples were compared using one-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc Tukey
- 588 multiple comparison tests. Results were reported as mean  $\pm$  standard error of mean (SEM). p-
- value of 0.05 or less was considered significant. For statistical comparisons for the frequency
- of phenotypic findings between sexes, IBM SPSS version 29.0.2.0 (IBM Corp.) software was
- used with the Chi-square method with continuity correction and Bonferroni adjustment for multiple testing.

#### **Study approval**

 Animal procedures were approved by the Linköping Regional Animal Ethics review board (Application Nos. 10940-2021, 06826-2024).

#### **Data availability**

- All relevant data along with raw measurements of all parameters have been provided in the
- manuscript or in the supplementary information (see 'Supporting Data Values' supplementary
- Excel file). All measurements are presented individually for each experiment sample.
- Libraries of microscopy photos are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable
- request with no restrictions on data availability.

## **Author contributions**

 DJ: Performed experiments, data acquisition, tissue processing, interpretation and drafted the manuscript. PM: Performed experiments, data and tissue processing, interpretation, image preparation, partial writing and review of the manuscript. MA: Performed tissue processing and analysis and review of the manuscript. AD: Performed imaging and assisted with image processing, tissue processing, and review of the manuscript. YR: Performed image analysis and review of the manuscript. NL: Conceptualization, study design, design and coordination of experiments, funding, data interpretation, assisted with manuscript writing and critical manuscript review and revisions.

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**Figure 1.** The  $Pax6^{+/-}$  129S1/SvImJ mouse model phenotype mimicking the variable onset of human AAK caused by PAX6 haploinsufficiency. (A) Representative images of a Wt and Het mouse head showing only slightly smaller and less bulging eyes. (B) Hematoxylin and eosin staining reveals an underdeveloped anterior segment in Het mice. Scale bar= 200 µm. (C) Western blot analysis indicates a significant 58% decrease in PAX6 protein levels in corneas 732 from Het mice compared to Wt littermates,  $n > 7$  (t-test \*\*\*:  $P < 0.001$ ). (D) Longitudinal characterization over a period of 5 months indicates a gradual and distributed pattern of loss of corneal transparency, n > 32 (Kruskal-Wallis test \*\*\*\*: P < 0.0001, group comparisons \* 735 for P < 0.05, \*\* for P < 0.01, \*\*\* for P < 0.001 and \*\*\*\* for P < 0.0001). (E) Slit lamp analysis revealed unchanged cornea status in Wt mice and early and late AAK onset phenotypes in Het mice, both being progressive. 







749<br>750 750 **Figure 3.** Corneal and epithelial structural abnormalities in Het mice. (A) OCT images of Wt and Het mouse eyes indicating thinner corneas and shallower anterior chamber depth in Het mice. (B) Anterior 751 mouse eyes indicating thinner corneas and shallower anterior chamber depth in Het mice. (B) Anterior<br>752 chamber depth is reduced by half in Het mice, n>25. (C) Central corneal thickness measured in vivo 752 chamber depth is reduced by half in Het mice, n>25. (C) Central corneal thickness measured in vivo<br>753 with OCT indicated significantly thinner corneas in Het mice not changing with age, n>25. (D) with OCT indicated significantly thinner corneas in Het mice not changing with age,  $n > 25$ . (D) 754 Representative H&E images of corneas from Het and Wt mice revealing thinner epithelium (marked)<br>755 in Het mice. (E) COL4 DAB staining revealed absence of COL4 production in basal epithelial cells in Het mice. (E) COL4 DAB staining revealed absence of COL4 production in basal epithelial cells 756 and absent epithelial basement membrane in Het mice (Inset, white arrows), and dot-like expression of 757 COL4 in the stroma representing basement membrane surrounding corneal nerves (black arrows). (F) 758 Fluorescein staining indicated compromised epithelial barrier function with stromal uptake of the dye<br>759 in vivo. (G-K) Comparative analysis from H&E images from Het (n=16) and Wt mice (n>10). (G) 759 in vivo. (G-K) Comparative analysis from H&E images from Het (n=16) and Wt mice (n>10). (G)<br>760 Epithelial thickness, n>10. (H) Number of epithelial layers, n>17. (I) Basal layer thickness, n>10. Epithelial thickness, n>10. (H) Number of epithelial layers, n>17. (I) Basal layer thickness, n>10. (J) 761 Number of basal cells per 100 µm linear distance,  $n > 13$ . (K) Nuclear area-to-basal layer area ratio in 762 basal cells, n>11. In all panels \*\*\*\* indicates p < 0.0001 (t-test in two-group panels or ANOVA 763 multiple pairwise comparison). 764







770 the cornea. (B) Distribution of AAK grade among Het mice of different ages,  $n > 32$ .





Figure 5. Longitudinal in vivo examination of corneal microstructure with IVCM. (First row) Normal corneal cellular layers in Wt mice. (A) Polygonal flat (arrow) superficial epithelial cells. (B) Wing cell layer with bright borders and dark cytoplasm (arrow). (C) Basal cell layer with bright borders and densely packed cells (arrow). (D) Network of subbasal nerves within a dense nerve plexus (black arrows). (E) Branching stromal nerve fiber trunk (arrow). (F) Hexagonal monolayer of endothelial cells. (Second row) cornea layers in Grade 1 AAK. (G) Superficial cells are small, non-polygonal and with dark nuclei (arrow). (H) Loss of distinct mosaic pattern and loss of dark cytoplasm of wing cells. (I) The parallel and regular pattern of subbasal nerves is disrupted (black arrow). (J) Vascular structure in the stroma. (K) Visible endothelial cells (arrow). (Third row) Cornea layers in Grade 2 AAK. (L) Indistinct superficial epithelial cells (arrow). (M) Dark vacuole-like structure (arrow) and loss of cellular mosaic. (N) Loss of distinct cellular structure, with neuroma visible that approaches the basal layer (arrow). (O) Large hyper-reflective neuromas (arrow) in stroma. (P) Indistinct hexagonal endothelial cell (arrow). (Fourth row) Cornea layers in Grade 4 AAK. (Q) Very small superficial cells (arrow). (R) Fibrous tissue replacing the wing cell layer. (S) Shadows of stromal vessels (arrow) at the level of the basal layer. (T) Co-appearance of vessels and neuromas in stroma (arrows). 789 (U) Faintly detectable nuclei (arrow) of endothelial cells. Scale bars =  $50 \mu m$ . 



 Figure 6. Time course and characteristics of corneal neovascularization. (A) Slit lamp images (top row) confirming Grade 1 and 2 AAK in Het mice up to the age of 5 months. Corresponding whole-mounted corneas immunostained for lymph vessels (LYVE1, middle row) and blood vessels (CD31, bottom row). White arrows in both rows highlight lymph and blood vessels, respectively. Sale bar= 500 µm (B) Prevalence of corneal lymph vessels was 3-4 times higher 797 than that of blood vessels at all ages,  $n > 32$ . (C) IVCM image indicating the presence of lymph vessel (black arrow) and blood vessel (white arrow) at the same stromal depth. (D) Immunostaining of cornea sections revealed LYVE1-positive vessels (orange) and F4/80 (green) cells throughout the stroma confirming the coincidence of macrophage infiltration and 801 lymphangiogenesis in Het but not in Wt mouse corneas. Scale bars =  $50\mu$ m.





 $\frac{803}{804}$ **Figure 7.**  $\beta$ -III Tubulin immunostaining of corneal nerves in whole mount corneas. (Top row)<br>805 Stromal nerve network, with central stromal nerves being scarce in Wt mice and highly 805 Stromal nerve network, with central stromal nerves being scarce in Wt mice and highly<br>806 prevalent in Het mice. (Bottom row) Vortex pattern of subbasal nerves in Wt mice and 806 prevalent in Het mice. (Bottom row) Vortex pattern of subbasal nerves in Wt mice and<br>807 disrupted pattern of subbasal nerves in Het mice with anterior stromal nerves invading t 807 disrupted pattern of subbasal nerves in Het mice with anterior stromal nerves invading the subbasal layer. Scale bars = 500  $\mu$ m. subbasal layer. Scale bars =  $500 \mu m$ .

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- 810
- 811
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<br> $814$ **Figure 8.** Immunolocalization of PAX6, ∆Np63, GPHA2, and KRT12 in the center, limbus,

and central attachment zone in cross sections of corneas from Wt and Het mice with Grade 1

and 2 AAK. (First column) PAX6. (Second column) ΔNp63. (Third column) GPHA2. (Forth

column) KRT12. Nuclei are counterstained with DAPI (blue) in most sections.