Interaction of reactive astrocytes with type I collagen induces astrocytic scar formation through the integrin-N-cadherin pathway after spinal cord injury

原,正光

https://hdl.handle.net/2324/1931776

1	
2	Interaction of reactive astrocytes with collagen type I induces astrocytic scar formation
3	through the integrin/N-cadherin pathway after spinal cord injury
4	
5	
6	
7	
8	
9	Authors:
10	Masamitsu Hara ^{1,2} , Kazu Kobayakawa ² , Yasuyuki Ohkawa ³ , Hiromi Kumamaru ² , Kazuya
11	Yokota ² , Takeyuki Saito ^{1,2} , Ken Kijima ^{1,2} , Shingo Yoshizaki ^{1,2} , Katsumi Harimaya ² , Yasuharu
12	Nakashima ² and Seiji Okada ^{1,2}
13	
14	Affiliations:
15	¹ Department of Advanced Medical Initiatives, Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Kyushu
16	University, Fukuoka, Japan
17	² Department of Orthopaedic Surgery, Graduate School of Medical Sciences, Kyushu University,
18	Fukuoka, Japan
19	³ Division of Transcriptomics, Medical Institute of Bioregulation, Kyushu University, Fukuoka,
20	Japan
21	Correspondence should be addressed to S.O. (seokada@ortho.med.kyushu-u.ac.jp)

1 Abstract

 $\mathbf{2}$ Central nervous system (CNS) injury activates naïve astrocytes into reactive astrocytes, which 3 eventually transform into scar-forming astrocytes that can impair axonal regeneration and 4functional recovery. This sequential phenotypic change, known as reactive astrogliosis, has $\mathbf{5}$ long been considered unidirectional and irreversible. However, we report here that reactive 6 astrocytes isolated from injured spinal cords retrogradely reverted to naïve astrocytes when $\mathbf{7}$ transplanted into a naïve spinal cord, whereas they formed astrocytic scars when transplanted 8 into an injured spinal cord, indicating the environment-dependent reversibility of reactive 9 astrogliosis. We also found that collagen type I was highly expressed during the scar-forming 10 phase and induced astrocytic scar formation via the integrin/N-cadherin pathway. 11 Pharmacological blockade of reactive astrocyte-collagen type I interaction prevented astrocytic 12scar formation, thereby leading to improved axonal regrowth and better functional outcomes in a mouse model of spinal cord injury. Our findings reveal environmental cues regulating 1314astrocytic fate decisions, thereby providing a potential therapeutic target for CNS injury.

1 Introduction

 $\mathbf{2}$ Spinal cord injury (SCI) is a devastating trauma that causes persistent severe motor/sensory dysfunction^{1,2}. After SCI, astrocytes, the most abundant resident cells in the central nervous 3 system (CNS), play a crucial role in the SCI pathology through a phenotypic change known as 4 $\mathbf{5}$ reactive astrogliosis. In this process, naïve astrocytes (NAs) sequentially exhibit opposite 6 phenotypes: first as reactive astrocytes (RAs) and then as scar-forming astrocytes (SAs). In the 7 subacute phase of SCI (4-14 days post-injury (dpi) in the mouse), RAs migrate to the lesion 8 epicenter and seclude inflammatory cells, leading to tissue repair and functional improvement 9 after SCI². However, RAs gradually transform into SAs that form astrocytic scars, the main 10 impediment for CNS axonal regeneration, resulting in a limited functional recovery in the chronic phase of SCI^{3,4} (more than 14 dpi in the mouse). Astrocytic scars have been shown to 11 12be irreversible and permanently inhibit axonal regrowth in both rodents and humans with SCI⁴⁻ 13⁶, although there is a different opinion that attenuating astrocytic scar formation failed to promote axonal regeneration after SCI^{7,8}. As such, clarifying the mechanism of astrocytic scar 1415formation and regulating this scar formation may be a potential therapeutic strategy for SCI.

Astrocytic scars have been studied for more than half a century^{9,10}, and their formation has been suggested to be regulated by complex and combinatorial inter- and intra-cellular signaling mechanisms^{3,5,11}. However, despite the large number of studies examining these astrocytic changes^{5,11,12}, the mechanism underlying astrocytic scar formation remains unclear. One factor limiting basic research in this area is the lack of clear definitions of NAs, RAs, and SAs. A conventional method for distinguishing between these cells is a histological analysis, but this method is neither objective nor quantitative.

In this study, we established a clear distinction between NAs, RAs, and SAs based on marker
 gene expression and investigated the regulatory mechanism underlying astrocytic scar

1 formation after SCI.

1 **Results**

In situ isolation of astrocytes after SCI enables the discovery of RA- and SA-specific marker genes

We employed the contusion SCI model in female C57BL/6J mice (8-10 weeks old). This 4 $\mathbf{5}$ approach is reported to resemble human SCI more closely than transection models, because 6 most human SCI are due to blunt trauma¹³. After SCI, NAs exhibited drastic changes around 7 the lesion area (Supplementary Fig. 1a). They underwent a typical change of hypertrophy, 8 process extension and increased GFAP expression within several dpi, characteristic of RAs (Supplementary Fig. 1b)². Thereafter, at 14 dpi, the RAs overlapped and transformed into 9 10 SAs, resulting in astrocytic scar formation (Supplementary Fig. 1b)^{3,12}. Although this 11 sequential astrocytic transformation is roughly referred to as "reactive astrogliosis", identifying 12the point at which the astrocytes are situated in this process is difficult: RAs and SAs both 13highly express their hallmark protein (GFAP, Nestin, β-catenin, N-cadherin and Sox9), but 14clearly distinguishing between each form of astrocytes (NAs, RAs, and SAs) based solely on their hallmark expression is difficult with a histological analysis (Supplementary Fig. 2a,b, 15Supplementary Fig. 3a,b)^{12,14-16}. 16

17Therefore, we selectively isolated each astrocyte type by laser microdissection (LMD) 18combined with immunohistochemistry: NAs, morphologically identical to resident astrocytes 19in the naïve spinal cord; RAs, with the morphological characteristics described above (observed 20in the injured spinal cord at 7 dpi); and SAs, scar-forming GFAP-positive cells observed in the 21injured spinal cord at 14 dpi in a mouse model of contusion SCI (Fig. 1a-g). Excellent RNA 22qualities as well as no contamination of other cell type were confirmed with a bioanalyzer and 23a PCR analysis in the collected samples of astrocytes (Fig. 1h, i). We investigated the expression levels of RA- and SA-characteristic genes that were reported previously, and 24

defined the specific genes both significantly and selectively upregulated in LMD-isolated NAs,
 RAs and SAs as their respective marker genes.

3 Regarding RAs, we confirmed elevated gene expressions of *Gfap*, *Nes*, *Vim*, and *Ctnnb1* 4 (encoding β -catenin) compared with NAs. However, increased expressions of *Gfap* and *Vim* $\mathbf{5}$ were also observed in SAs, indicating that only Nes and Ctnnb1 were suitable as RA marker 6 genes (Fig. 1j). In addition, we found the β -catenin-related genes suitable as RA markers from a functional aspect. In SCI, RA migration is crucial for both functional and tissue repair², and 7 8 recent reports have suggested a possible molecular link between β-catenin and cell movement 9 via MMPs^{17,18}. After β -catenin nuclear translocation, the β -catenin-LEF/TCF complex binds 10the enhancer of urokinase-type plasminogen activator receptor (uPAR) gene, resulting in the 11 activation of MMPs and cell migration. We demonstrated selectively elevated expression of 12Plaur (encoding uPAR), Mmp2, and Mmp13 in RAs compared with NAs and SAs (Fig. 1j). 13Furthermore, the expression of Axin2, a negative feedback regulator of β -catenin, was 14significantly higher in RAs than in NAs or SAs (Fig. 1j). These results show that *Plaur, Mmp2*, Mmp13, and Axin2 as well as Nes and Ctnnb1 are suitable as RA marker genes, providing 1516further insight into the mechanism of RA migration through β -catenin/MMPs signaling.

17Regarding SAs, we confirmed significantly elevated expression of Cdh2 (encoding N-18cadherin) and Sox9 compared with NAs and RAs (Fig. 1k). We also detected significantly 19higher expression of chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan (CSPG)-related genes, such as Xylt1, 20Chst11, Csgalnact1, Acan, and Pcan, in SAs than in NAs and RAs (Fig. 1k). These results 21were biologically plausible, because CSPGs are the most abundant extracellular inhibitor of 22axonal regeneration, and their expression has been selectively observed in the astrocytic scar area after SCI^{3,12,16,19}. In addition, the strong repulsive axon guidance gene $slit2^{3,20}$ was also 2324found to be suitable as a SA marker gene (Fig. 1k). These marker gene profiles combined with

the morphological definitions are useful for identifying the astrocyte phenotypes present, as
 reactive astrogliosis is a graded continuum of changes in gene expression and forms.

3

4 Dependence of reactive astrogliosis on the surrounding environment

 $\mathbf{5}$ The phenotypic changes in mammalian cells are roughly driven in a cell-autonomous or a non-6 cell-autonomous manner^{21,22}; however, the mechanism of reactive astrogliosis remains unclear. 7 To clarify the mechanism, we prepared GFP-positive NAs from primary astrocyte cultures of 8 CAG-EGFP mice and transplanted them into the spinal cord of either naïve mice or 9 immediately after spinal contusion in SCI mice (Fig. 2a, Supplementary Fig. 4a-c). At 7 and 10 14 days after transplantation (dat), we examined morphological transformations of the grafted 11 NAs in response to the environment (Fig. 2b). The morphology of transplanted NAs, such as 12the cell diameter and ratio of cells with overlapping of neighboring astrocytic processes, was 13unchanged in the naïve spinal cord, whereas they had transformed along with the host astrocytic 14changes and were integrated into reactive astrogliosis when transplanted into the injured spinal 15cord (Fig. 2c-j).

16In addition to these morphological changes, we examined the sequential changes in the gene 17expression by a cell-selective analysis of grafted NAs using LMD (Fig. 3a,b). Consistent with 18the morphological transition, gene expression of the grafted NAs remained unchanged when 19transplanted into the naïve spinal cord, whereas the expression of the RA marker genes at 7 dat 20and SA marker genes at 14 dat were significantly increased compared to those at other time 21points when transplanted into the injured spinal cord (Fig. 3c,d). These findings indicate that 22astrocytes change their phenotypes in an environment-dependent manner (Supplementary Fig. 235a).

1 Reversibility of reactive astrogliosis

 $\mathbf{2}$ After confirming the environment-dependent properties of reactive astrogliosis after SCI, we 3 examined the reversibility of the sequential astrocytic changes and whether or not RAs could 4 retrogradely revert to NAs after transplantation into naïve spinal cord. To selectively isolate RAs, we developed *Nes-Cre*; *CAG-CAT^{loxP/loxP}-EGFP* (*Nes-EGFP*) mice, which show selective $\mathbf{5}$ 6 EGFP expression in RAs upon Cre-mediated recombination². We confirmed that these mice 7 showed no GFP-positive cells in the naïve spinal cord, but had high Cre-mediated EGFP 8 expression in RAs around the lesion area at 7 dpi in SCI mice (Supplementary Fig. 6a-d, Fig. 9 **4a,b**). After dissociating the injured spinal cords of *Nes-EGFP* mice at 7 dpi, we selectively 10isolated the GFP-positive RAs by fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) and confirmed 11 significantly increased expressions of the RA marker genes in the isolated RAs 12(Supplementary Fig. 7a,b). We then transplanted these GFP-positive RAs into either naïve or 13injured spinal cord models and performed immunohistological and cell-selective gene 14expression analyses with LMD at 7 dat (Fig. 4c,d). The grafted RAs formed astrocytic scars 15when transplanted into the injured spinal cord but histologically reverted to NAs when 16transplanted into the naïve spinal cord at 7 dat. (Fig. 4e-h). Consistent with this morphological 17conversion, a selective gene expression analysis of the grafted cells demonstrated that the SA 18marker gene expressions were upregulated when transplanted into the injured spinal cord, while 19the original expression patterns of SA marker genes were significantly suppressed when 20transplanted into the naïve spinal cord (Fig. 4i). Moreover, the whole transcriptome analysis of 21isolated RAs, transplanted RAs in the naïve spinal cord at 7 dat, and host astrocytes in the naïve 22spinal cord, revealed that the global gene expression profile of transplanted and host astrocytes 23was comparable, while it was markedly different from isolated RAs (Fig. 4j, Supplementary 24Fig. 8a), suggesting that the *in situ* phenotype reprogramming of astrocytes depended on the

environment. These results clearly indicate that the process of reactive astrogliosis is reversible
 under certain conditions (Supplementary Fig. 9a).

3

4 Upregulation of collagen type I genes in the lesion area after SCI

5 RAs are beneficial, while SAs are harmful for the repair process after SCI; as such, preventing 6 the transformation of RAs to SAs through environmental regulation may be a new therapeutic 7 strategy for SCI. Given that grafted RAs reverted to NAs in the naïve spinal cord but 8 transformed into SAs in the injured spinal cord, the fate of RAs seems to be determined by 9 environmental differences between the naïve and injured spinal cord.

10 We therefore performed a time-course genome-wide expression analysis in naïve and injured spinal cord models after SCI, as described in our previous studies^{23,24}. The scatter plots showed 11 12both the upregulation and downregulation of all genes between the naïve and injured groups 13(Fig. 5a). The expressions of nearly 5% of the genes were considerably increased in the injured 14spinal cord at 14 dpi compared to those in the naïve spinal cord (>5-fold change; Fig. 5a). We 15originally expected that the genes involved in intracellular signaling or cytokines guiding cell 16transformation would be enriched in the scar-forming phase of SCI. However, interestingly, a 17GO term analysis showed that the genes associated with the extracellular matrix (ECM) were 18highly enriched at 14 dpi, indicating the involvement of the ECM in scar formation after SCI 19(Fig. 5b). Among the ECM genes, the collagen type I (Col I) genes (*Collal* and *Colla2*) were 20the most highly expressed in the injured spinal cord at 14 dpi (Fig. 5c). In addition, the mRNA 21expressions of Col I genes were significantly greater in the injured spinal cord than in the naïve 22spinal cord (Fig. 5d). Furthermore, in immunohistochemistry, the Col I expression was 23abundantly observed at the lesion area at 14 dpi in the injured spinal cord but not in the naïve 24spinal cord (Fig. 5e). Interestingly, astrocytic scars were formed by SAs colocalizing with Col

I; however, the RAs retained their phenotypes in the Col I-absent area at 14 dpi (Fig. 5e-g).
 These findings suggest that Col I is directly involved in the transformation of RAs into SAs as
 well as astrocytic scar formation after SCI.

4

5 Induction of N-cadherin-mediated adhesion by collagen type I in astrocytes

6 To clarify the influence of Col I on RA fate determination, we cultured RAs in vitro on Col I-7 coated dishes (Col I-coated group) or non-coated dishes (non-coated group) and performed an 8 immunocytological analysis. While the RAs of the non-coated group showed process retraction 9 and decreased GFAP expression, the RAs of the Col I-coated group adhered closely to the 10 adjacent cells and showed increased GFAP expression, exhibiting a phenotype similar to that 11 of SAs (Fig. 5h). In addition, we found significantly increased expression of N-cadherin, 12characteristic of SA, in only the Col I-coated group (Fig. 5h,i). Given that astrocytes form Ncadherin-mediated adhesion^{25,26} and that N-cadherin upregulation had been observed at 1314astrocytic scars (Supplementary Fig. 3a)¹⁵, these results suggest that Col I enhances N-15cadherin-mediated contacts in RAs and induces their transformation into SAs.

16

17 Induction of astrocytic transformation by the collagen type I-integrin axis

For ECM proteins, including Col I, their counterpart receptors are necessary in order to interact with cells²⁷. Among ECM receptors, $\alpha 1\beta 1$, $\alpha 2\beta 1$, $\alpha 10\beta 1$, and $\alpha 11\beta 1$ integrin are reported to be a major class of collagen-binding integrins that play an important role in cell-Col I interaction²⁷. Since these collagen-binding integrins are expressed on astrocytes^{28,29}, we speculated that they directly mediated the RA-Col I interaction and induced the transformation into SAs. We therefore analyzed the morphological and gene expression changes in RAs of the Col I-coated group treated with or without anti-collagen-binding integrin antibody (anti- $\beta 1$ Ab) (**Fig. 6a**). Notably, the RAs treated with control Ab showed cell adhesion and the increased expression of N-cadherin and GFAP, while those treated with anti- β 1 Ab remained scattered with no change in the expression of N-cadherin or GFAP (**Fig. 6b,c**). Similarly, N-cadherin neutralizing antibody (N-cadherin nAb) inhibited the transformation of RAs into SAs under the same conditions (**Supplementary Fig. 10a**). These results suggest that Col I induces the transformation of RAs into SAs via the integrin/N-cadherin pathway, indicating a potential therapeutic target.

8

9 Prevention of astrocytic scar formation and amelioration of functional recovery after SCI 10 via the blockade of RA-collagen type I interaction

11 Therapeutically, whether or not preventing the transformation of RAs into SAs can indeed 12 attenuate astrocytic scar formation after SCI is particularly important, because axons cannot 13 regenerate beyond astrocytic scars, thereby limiting the functional recovery^{3,4,6,12}. We 14 investigated the effects of inhibition of integrin-mediated RA-Col I interaction on *in vivo* 15 astrocytic scar formation and functional recovery after SCI (**Fig. 6a**).

16Anti-\beta1 Ab was administered from 9 to 13 dpi after SCI in order to selectively attenuate the 17transformation of RAs to SAs (Fig. 6d). At 14 dpi in the anti- β 1 Ab injection group, we 18observed significantly lower expression of both N-cadherin and GFAP at the lesion area, 19resulting in reduced cell adhesion and astrocytic scar formation compared to the control group 20(Fig. 6e,f). We also confirmed that the injection of N-cadherin nAb attenuated astrocytic scar 21formation similarly to the administration of anti- β 1 Ab (Supplementary Fig. 10b-d). 22Regarding the axonal regrowth, immunostaining using an antibody against GAP43, a marker 23for regenerating axons, showed that the number of GAP43-positive axons was significantly 24increased at both the lesion epicenter and the caudal area of the lesion in mice treated with anti-

1 β1 Ab compared with those treated with control Ab (Fig. 6g,h). The numbers of serotonin (5- $\mathbf{2}$ HT)-positive and tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive fibers in mice treated with anti-β1 Ab 3 were also larger in comparison to mice treated with control Ab, and most of these fibers in mice 4with anti-β1 Ab expressed GAP43 (Supplementary Fig. 11a-d). These results indicate that $\mathbf{5}$ the number of regenerative fibers passing through the lesion epicenter was significantly 6 increased by the attenuation of astrocytic scar formation. To investigate whether or not these $\mathbf{7}$ regenerating axons contribute to the behavioral improvements, we performed an open-field 8 locomotor test and a footprint analysis, and demonstrated that the motor functional recovery 9 with anti-β1 Ab injection was significantly greater than that achieved with control Ab injection 10(Fig. 6i-l). These results indicate that the inhibition of integrin-mediated RA-Col I interaction 11 prevents astrocytic scar formation via N-cadherin downregulation and promotes the axonal 12regeneration and functional recovery after SCI.

1 **Discussion**

 $\mathbf{2}$ Astrocytic scars, the final form of reactive astrogliosis, are widely regarded as a principal cause for axonal regrowth failure and a poor functional outcome^{3,12}. Reactive astrogliosis has long 3 been considered unidirectional and irreversible in the SCI pathology^{2,4,5}. However, our findings 4 $\mathbf{5}$ conversely showed the environment-dependent reversibility of reactive astrogliosis, 6 highlighting the therapeutic potential of regulating this astrocytic change through 7 environmental intervention. In particular, a time-course RNA-seq analysis identified Col I as a 8 prominent factor for the scar-forming phase of SCI, and Col I was crucial for astrocytic scar 9 formation via the integrin/N-cadherin pathway. Furthermore, the blockade of RA-Col I 10 interaction attenuated astrocytic scar formation and promoted functional improvement after 11 SCI, providing a novel therapeutic target for the treatment of SCI.

12Using LMD, we demonstrated for the first time the *in vivo* transcriptional profiles of NAs, RAs, and SAs and defined their marker genes. FACS or translating ribosomal affinity 1314purification (TRAP) have thus far been mainly used for cell-specific analyses^{23,30}; however, 15LMD had an advantage over these methods in our study. While FACS and TRAP require the separation of solid organ tissues into single cells³¹, LMD makes it possible to capture cells 16while maintaining and observing cell-specific structures³². Therefore, LMD combined with 1718immunohistochemistry was indispensable for selectively isolating each form of astrocyte based 19on the recognition of their antigens and morphologies, because the astrocytes exhibited 20phenotypic heterogeneity around the SCI lesion (Supplementary Fig. 1a, Fig. 5f-h).

Although the completed astrocytic scars strongly inhibit the regenerative response after CNS injury, RAs, transitional form of reactive astrogliosis, play beneficial roles in the subacute phase of SCI, in processes such as local immune regulation, neuroprotection, and tissue repair³³⁻³⁶. In addition to the definition of astrocytic marker genes, a cell-selective analysis with 1 LMD demonstrated that the signaling pathways related to these beneficial functions were $\mathbf{2}$ activated in RAs (Fig. 1j, Supplementary Fig. 12a). For example, the β -catenin/MMPs pathway was reported to be involved in astrocytic migratory activity as well as tissue repair 3 after SCI. TGF-B signaling contributes to both the neuronal survival and axonal 4 regeneration^{37,38}. PDGF reduces the inflammatory response by enhancing the phagocytic $\mathbf{5}$ 6 activity of microglia/macrophages after SCI³⁹. We found that these pathways were significantly 7 and selectively activated in RAs, providing deeper insight into the beneficial influence of RAs 8 on tissue repair and functional recovery after SCI.

9 As shown in Figs. 5 and 6, we demonstrated that Col I was involved in the N-cadherin-10 mediated cell-cell adhesion in astrocytes through integrin signaling and astrocytic scar 11 formation. To date, pericytes and fibroblasts have been reported to be the cell types that produce Col I after SCI^{12,40,41}, and we actually confirmed that these cells were clearly merged 1213with Col I in the lesion epicenter (Supplementary Fig. 13a,b). Regarding a possible molecular 14link between the Col I-integrin axis and increased N-cadherin-dependent contact in astrocytes, 15c-Jun-N-terminal kinase (JNK) may play a role. In previous studies of epithelial and cancer cells, the Col I-integrin axis was reported to activate the downstream JNK pathway, which 16influenced the N-cadherin-dependent intercellular adhesion^{42,43}. Similarly, in astrocytes, Col I-17integrin axis stimulation was recently reported to induce JNK activation⁴⁴, and upregulation of 1819both JNK and N-cadherin has been observed in astrocytes after CNS injury (Supplementary Fig. 3a)^{15,45,46}. Given that JNK inhibitor attenuates astrocytic scar formation in the injured 20spinal cord⁴⁷, the integrin/JNK/N-cadherin pathway is crucial for astrocytic scar formation after 2122SCI. In this study, we also confirmed both attenuated astrocytic scar formation via Col I-23integrin axis inhibition by anti- β 1 Ab as well as an improved functional outcome (**Fig. 6d-l**), 24providing a novel potential therapeutic target for SCI.

1 N-cadherin regulated reactive astrogliosis by increasing the astrocytic cell-cell adhesion. Ncadherin belongs to the classic cadherins that are calcium-dependent intercellular adhesion $\mathbf{2}$ molecules^{25,26} and has many functions in the CNS, such as differentiation, migration, and cell 3 4 polarization^{25,26,48}. In addition to cell adhesion, N-cadherin in astrocytes has also been reported $\mathbf{5}$ to be involved in the migratory activity and cellular morphology. For example, both a lack of 6 and the overexpression of N-cadherin result in the impairment of astrocytic migration^{48,49}. 7 Kanemura et al. also reported that astrocyte-specific knockout of N-cadherin results in insufficient morphological changes in both RAs and SAs after CNS injury⁴⁸. These results 8 9 indicate that the N-cadherin expression in astrocytes is finely tuned through the process of 10 reactive astrogliosis. Indeed, we confirmed the time-phase-dependent expression of N-cadherin 11 concomitant with cellular hypertrophy and process extension in RAs and SAs (Fig. 1k, Fig. 125h, Fig. 6b,e, Supplementary Fig. 3a). Although both anti- β 1 Ab and N-cadherin nAb prevented the transformation of RAs into SAs and attenuated astrocytic scar formation in this 1314study, there is a possibility that N-cadherin nAb impairs the beneficial function of RA more 15severely than anti- β 1 Ab, since N-cadherin has significant influence on the cellular morphology 16and migration of RA as described above. We therefore used anti- β 1 Ab. In the present study, 17anti-\beta1 was administered during only the scar-forming phase to attenuate scar formation 18without influencing the morphological changes or migratory activity of RAs. Our results have 19important implications for the optimization of therapeutic intervention from the time-phase-20dependent view of reactive astrogliosis.

Regarding the role of astrocytic scars after SCI, Anderson et al. recently reported that the attenuation of astrocytic scar formation failed to result in spontaneous axonal regrowth after SCI^{7,8}, suggesting that astrocytic scar formation aids axonal regeneration. However, the impairment of "the whole process of reactive astrogliosis" has already been reported to cause

the deterioration of axonal regrowth and functional recovery after SCI in several previous 1 $\mathbf{2}$ studies^{3,50,51}, and there has been no study demonstrating that astrocytic "scars" directly promote 3 axonal regeneration after SCI. In contrast, Silver and many other investigators demonstrated 4that astrocytic "scars" directly impede axonal regeneration^{3-6,12,51}, and our results supported $\mathbf{5}$ this finding. In this study, we therefore prevented only the transformation of RAs into SAs 6 without affecting RAs, leading to axonal elongation and functional improvement after SCI. $\mathbf{7}$ These findings suggest the significance of the time-phase-dependent regulation of reactive 8 astrogliosis for the SCI treatment.

9 In conclusion, we demonstrated the reversibility of reactive astrogliosis by a selective gene 10 expression analysis with LMD and transplantation experiments. We also clarified a mechanism 11 of astrocytic scar formation through RA-Col I interaction, supporting a novel therapeutic 12 strategy for attenuating astrocytic scar formation and improving the functional outcomes after 13 SCI.

1 Acknowledgements

We thank T. Tachibana for the gift of anti-Nestin antibody. This study was supported by a Grantin-Aid for Young Scientist (A) (25713053) (S.O.); Challenging Exploratory Research from the
Ministry of Education, Science, Sports (16K15668) (S.O.); a Grant-in-Aid for Young Scientist
(B) (16K20059) (K.Kobayakawa); Scientific Research on Innovative Areas (Comprehensive
Brain Science Network and Foundation of Synapse Neurocircuit Pathology) (K.Kobayakawa);
and research foundations from the general insurance association of Japan (M.H.),.
Author contributions

M.H. designed and performed most of the experiments with technical help from H.K., T.S., and
S.Y. Y.O. performed the RNA-Seq analysis. K.Y. and K. Kijima analyzed the data of LMD. K.
Kobayakawa, K.H. and Y.N. designed the studies and supervised the overall project. S.O.
designed the studies, supervised the overall project, and performed the final manuscript
preparation.

15

16 **Competing financial interests**

17 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

18

1 **References**

2	1.	McDonald, J. W. & Sadowsky, C. Spinal-cord injury. <i>Lancet</i> 359 , 417–425 (2002).			
3	2.	Okada, S. et al. Conditional ablation of Stat3 or Socs3 discloses a dual role for reactive			
4		astrocytes after spinal cord injury. Nat. Med. 12, 829-834 (2006).			
5	3.	Silver, J. & Miller, J. H. Regeneration beyond the glial scar. Nat. Rev. Neurosci.			
6		146–156 (2004).			
7	4.	Karimi-Abdolrezaee, S. & Billakanti, R. Reactive astrogliosis after spinal cord injury-			
8		beneficial and detrimental effects. Mol. Neurobiol. 46, 251–264 (2012).			
9	5.	Ridet, J. L., Malhotra, S. K., Privat, A. & Gage, F. H. Reactive astrocytes: cellular and			
10		molecular cues to biological function. Trends Neurosci. 20, 570–577 (1997).			
11	6.	Buss, A. et al. Gradual loss of myelin and formation of an astrocytic scar during			
12		Wallerian degeneration in the human spinal cord. Brain 127, 34–44 (2004).			
13	7.	Anderson, M. A. et al. Astrocyte scar formation aids central nervous system axon			
14		regeneration. <i>Nature</i> 532 , 195–200 (2016).			
15	8.	Liddelow, S. A. & Barres, B. A. Regeneration: Not everything is scary about a glial			
16		scar. <i>Nature</i> 532 , 182–183 (2016).			
17	9.	Windle, W. F., Clemente, C. D. & Chambers, W. W. Inhibition of formation of a glial			
18		barrier as a means of permitting a peripheral nerve to grow into the brain. J. Comp.			
19		Neurol. 96, 359–369 (1952).			
20	10.	Freeman, L. W. Return of Spinal Cord Function in Mammals After Transecting			
21		Lesions. Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci. 58, 564–569 (1954).			
22	11.	Sofroniew, M. V. Molecular dissection of reactive astrogliosis and glial scar formation.			
23		Trends Neurosci. 32, 638–647 (2009).			
24	12.	Cregg, J. M. et al. Functional regeneration beyond the glial scar. Exp. Neurol. 253,			

1 197–207 (2014).

- 2 13. Courtine, G. *et al.* Can experiments in nonhuman primates expedite the translation of
 3 treatments for spinal cord injury in humans? *Nat. Med.* 13, 561–566 (2007).
- 4 14. Renault-Mihara, F. *et al.* Beneficial compaction of spinal cord lesion by migrating
 5 astrocytes through glycogen synthase kinase-3 inhibition. *EMBO Mol. Med.* 3, 682–
 6 696 (2011).
- 7 15. Vázquez-Chona, F. & Geisert, E. E., J. N-cadherin at the glial scar in the rat. *Brain*8 *Res.* 838, 45–50 (1999).
- 9 16. McKillop, W. M., Dragan, M., Schedl, A. & Brown, A. Conditional Sox9 ablation
 10 reduces chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan levels and improves motor function
 11 following spinal cord injury. *Glia* 61, 164–177 (2013).
- 12 17. Mann, B. *et al.* Target genes of beta-catenin-T cell-factor/lymphoid-enhancer-factor
 13 signaling in human colorectal carcinomas. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* 96, 1603–
 14 1608 (1999).
- 15 18. Blasi, F. & Carmeliet, P. uPAR: a versatile signalling orchestrator. *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 3, 932–943 (2002).
- 17 19. Takeuchi, K. *et al.* Chondroitin sulphate N-acetylgalactosaminyl-transferase-1 inhibits
 18 recovery from neural injury. *Nat. Commun.* 4, 2740 (2013).
- Hagino, S. *et al.* Slit and glypican-1 mRNAs are coexpressed in the reactive astrocytes
 of the injured adult brain. *Glia* 42, 130–138 (2003).
- 21 21. Ilieva, H., Polymenidou, M. & Cleveland, D. W. Non-cell autonomous toxicity in
 neurodegenerative disorders: ALS and beyond. *J. Cell Biol.* 187, 761–772 (2009).
- 23 22. von Karstedt, S. et al. Cancer cell-autonomous TRAIL-R signaling promotes KRAS-
- 24 Driven cancer progression, invasion, and metastasis. *Cancer Cell* 27, 561–573 (2015).

1	23.	Kumamaru, H. et al. Direct isolation and RNA-seq reveal environment-dependent
2		properties of engrafted neural stem/progenitor cells. Nat. Commun. 3, 1140 (2012).
3	24.	Kumamaru, H. et al. Therapeutic activities of engrafted neural stem/precursor cells
4		are not dormant in the chronically injured spinal cord. Stem Cells 31, 1535-1547
5		(2013).
6	25.	Takeichi, M. The cadherin superfamily in neuronal connections and interactions. Nat.
7		<i>Rev. Neurosci.</i> 8, 11–20 (2007).
8	26.	Tran, M. D., Wanner, I. B. & Neary, J. T. Purinergic receptor signaling regulates N-
9		cadherin expression in primary astrocyte cultures. J. Neurochem. 105, 272–286 (2008).
10	27.	Hynes, R. O. Integrins: Bidirectional, Allosteric Signaling Machines. Cell 110, 673-
11		687 (2002).
12	28.	Previtali, S. C., Archelos, J. J. & Hartung, H. P. Modulation of the Expression of
13		Integrins on Cells during Experimental Autoimmune Encephalomyelitis. A Central
14		Role for TNF-alpha. Am. J. Pathol. 151, 1425–1435 (1997).
15	29.	Yonezawa, T. et al. Type IV collagen induces expression of thrombospondin-1 that is
16		mediated by integrin alpha1beta1 in astrocytes. Glia 58, 755–767 (2010).
17	30.	Doyle, J. P. et al. Application of a Translational Profiling Approach for the
18		Comparative Analysis of CNS Cell Types. Cell 135, 749–762 (2008).
19	31.	Garg, A. et al. Non-enzymatic dissociation of human mesenchymal stromal cells
20		improves chemokine-dependent migration and maintains immunosuppressive
21		function. Cytotherapy 16, 545–559 (2014).
22	32.	Yokota, K. et al. Engrafted Neural Stem/Progenitor Cells Promote Functional
23		Recovery through Synapse Reorganization with Spared Host Neurons after Spinal
24		Cord Injury. Stem Cell Reports 5, 264–277 (2015).

1	33.	Faulkner, J. R. et al. Reactive astrocytes protect tissue and preserve			
2		function after spinal cord injury. J. Neurosci. 24, 2143–2155 (2004).			
3	34.	Rolls, A. et al. Two faces of chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan in spinal			
4		repair: a role in microglia/macrophage activation. PLoS Med. 5, e171			
5		(2008).			
6	35.	Rolls, A., Shechter, R. & Schwartz, M. The bright side of the glial scar in			
7		CNS repair. Nat. Rev. Neurosci. 10, 235–241 (2009).			
8	36.	Shechter, R., Raposo, C., London, A., Sagi, I. & Schwartz, M. The glial scar-			
9		monocyte interplay: A pivotal resolution phase in spinal cord repair. <i>PLoS</i>			
10		<i>One</i> 6 , e27969 (2011).			
11	37.	Brionne, T. C., Tesseur, I., Masliah, E. & Wyss-Coray, T. Loss of TGF- β 1 Leads to			
12		Increased Neuronal Cell Death and Microgliosis in Mouse Brain. Neuron 40, 1133-			
13		1145 (2003).			
14	38.	Abe, K., Chu, P. J., Ishihara, A. & Saito, H. Transforming growth factor-β 1 promotes			
15		re-elongation of injured axons of cultured rat hippocampal neurons. Brain Res. 723,			
16		206–209 (1996).			
17	39.	Lutton, C. et al. Combined VEGF and PDGF Treatment Reduces Secondary			
18		Degeneration after Spinal Cord Injury. J. Neurotrauma 29, 957–970 (2012).			
19	40.	DePaul, M. A., Lin, C. Y., Silver, J. & Lee, Y. S. Peripheral Nerve			
20		Transplantation Combined with Acidic Fibroblast Growth Factor and			
21		Chondroitinase Induces Regeneration and Improves Urinary Function in			
22		Complete Spinal Cord Transected Adult Mice. PLoS One 10, e0139335			
23		(2015).			
24	41.	Goritz, C. et al. A Pericyte Origin of Spinal Cord Scar Tissue. Science. 333,			

- 238-242(2011).
- $\mathbf{2}$ 42. Shintani, Y., Wheelock, M. J. & Johnson, K. R. Phosphoinositide-3 Kinase-Rac1-c-3 Jun NH₂-terminal Kinase Signaling Mediates Collagen I-induced Cell Scattering and Up-Regulation of N-Cadherin Expression in Mouse Mammary Epithelial Cells. Mol. 4 Biol. Cell 17, 2963–2975 (2006). $\mathbf{5}$ 6 43. Shintani, Y., Hollingsworth, M. A., Wheelock, M. J. & Johnson, K. R. Collagen I 7 Promotes Metastasis in Pancreatic Cancer by Activating c-Jun NH₂-Terminal Kinase 8 1 and Up-regulating N-Cadherin Expression. Cancer Res. 66, 11745–11753 (2006). 9 44. Le Dréau, G. et al. NOV/CCN3 Upregulates CCL2 and CXCL1 Expression in 10 Astrocytes Through β 1 and β 5 Integrins. *Glia* **58**, 1510–1521 (2010). 11 45. Cao, J., Wang, J. S., Ren, X. H. & Zang, W. D. Spinal sample showing p-JNK and P38 12associated with the pain signaling transduction of glial cell in neuropathic pain. Spinal 13*Cord* **53**, 92–97 (2015).
- 46. Gao, K. *et al.* Traumatic Scratch Injury in Astrocytes Triggers Calcium Influx to
 Activate the JNK/c-Jun/AP-1 Pathway and Switch on GFAP Expression. *Glia* 61,
 2063–2077 (2013).
- 17 47. Repici, M. *et al.* Specific inhibition of the JNK pathway promotes locomotor recovery
 18 and neuroprotection after mouse spinal cord injury. *Neurobiol. Dis.* 46, 710–721
 19 (2012).
- 48. Kanemaru, K. *et al.* Calcium-dependent N-cadherin up-regulation mediates reactive
 astrogliosis and neuroprotection after brain injury. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.* 110, 11612–
 11617 (2013).
- 49. Péglion, F. & Etienne-Manneville, S. N-cadherin expression level as a critical
 indicator of invasion in non-epithelial tumors. *Cell Adhes. Migr.* 6, 327–332 (2012).

1	50.	Bush, T. G. et al. Leukocyte infiltration, neuronal degeneration, and neurite outgrowth
2		after ablation of scar-forming, reactive astrocytes in adult transgenic mice. Neuron 23,
3		297–308 (1999).
4	51.	Silver, J. The glial scar is more than just astrocytes. <i>Exp. Neurol.</i> 286, 147–
5		149 (2016).
6		
7		

1 Figure legends

 $\mathbf{2}$ Figure 1. Selective *in situ* isolation and gene expression analysis of astrocytes from the 3 naïve and injured spinal cords. (a, c and e) Example images depicting GFAP (green) staining 4 of the naïve (\mathbf{a}) and injured spinal cords at 7 (\mathbf{c}) and 14 (\mathbf{e}) dpi. The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice (c and e). Scale bars, 500 µm. (b, d and f) Example high magnification $\mathbf{5}$ 6 images depicting immunohistochemical analysis of GFAP-positive astrocytes (green) stained 7 with Hoechst (blue) in the naïve (b) and injured spinal cords at 7 (d) and 14 (f) dpi. The 8 arrowheads and dashed-outlines indicate the astrocytes before (left) and after (right) LMD. The 9 images are magnifications of the boxed areas in (a), (c) and (e), respectively. Scale bars, 50 μ m. 10 (g) A schematic representation of the selective isolation of GFAP-positive astrocytes using 11 LMD. (h) Bioanalyzer gel image (left) and electropherogram with the associated RNA integrity 12number (RIN) values (right) of RNA from LMD-isolated astrocytes. (i) Example PCR analysis 13of selected transcripts in whole spinal cord (top) and LMD-isolated astrocytes (bottom). (j) 14Quantification of mRNA expression levels of RA-related genes in NAs, RAs, and SAs (n = 4)15mice per group). (k) Quantification of mRNA expression levels of SA-related genes in NAs, 16RAs, and SAs (n = 4 mice per group). $\star P < 0.05$, analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the 17Tukey-Kramer post hoc test (j and k); n.s., not significant. Data represent mean \pm SEM.

18

Figure 2. Environment-dependent morphological changes of NAs transplanted into naïve or injured spinal cords. (a and b) The NA transplantation protocol. NAs from primary astrocyte cultures of *CAG-EGFP* mice were transplanted into the naïve and injured spinal cord immediately after SCI. An immunohistochemical (IHC) analysis of the grafted NAs was performed at 0, 7, and 14 dat. (c, e and g) Example images depicting IHC analysis of GFPpositive NAs (green) transplanted into the naïve spinal cord at 7 dat (c) and the injured spinal

1 cord at 7 (e) and 14 (g) dat, stained with GFAP (red). The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter $\mathbf{2}$ in SCI mice (e and g). Scale bars, 500 µm. (d, f and h) Example high magnification images 3 depicting IHC analysis of GFP-positive grafted NAs (green) stained with GFAP (red) and 4 Hoechst (blue) in the naïve spinal cords at 7 dat (d) and the injured spinal cords at 7 (f) and 14 (h) dat. The images are magnifications of the boxed areas in (c), (e) and (g), respectively. Scale $\mathbf{5}$ 6 bars, 50µm. (i) A morphometric analysis of the cell diameter in host or GFP-positive 7 transplanted astrocytes in naïve or injured spinal cords (n = 8 mice per group). (j) The 8 percentage of host or GFP-positive transplanted astrocytes with overlapping of neighboring 9 astrocytic processes in naïve or injured spinal cords (n = 8 mice per group). Wilcoxon's rank 10sum test (i and j); n.s., not significant. Data represent mean \pm SEM.

11

12Figure 3. Environment-dependent transcriptional profiles of NAs transplanted into naïve 13or injured spinal cords. (a and b) The NA transplantation and selective isolation protocol. 14NAs from primary astrocyte cultures of CAG-EGFP mice were transplanted into naïve or injured spinal cords immediately after SCI. GFP-positive grafted NAs were selectively isolated 1516by LMD for a gene expression analysis at 0, 7, and 14 dat. The arrowheads and dashed-outlines 17indicate the astrocytes before (left) and after (right) LMD. Scale bar, 50 µm (a). (c and d) Time-18course quantification of mRNA expression levels of RA (c) and SA marker genes (d) in NAs 19transplanted into naïve or injured spinal cords (n = 4 mice per group). Gene expression levels 20were normalized to that of the NAs transplanted into the naïve spinal cord at 0 dat. $\star P < 0.05$. 21ANOVA with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test; n.s., not significant. Data represent mean \pm SEM. 22

Figure 4. Reversibility of reactive astrogliosis depends on the surrounding spinal cord
environment. (a) Example images depicting GFP (green) staining of the sagittal section of

1 Nes-EGFP mice at 7 dpi after SCI. The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice. Scale bar, 500 µm. (b) Example high magnification images depicting immunostaining of GFP $\mathbf{2}$ 3 (green), GFAP (red), and Nestin (blue) triple-positive RAs in the perilesional area of Nes-EGFP 4 mice at 7 dpi. The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice. Scale bar, 50 µm. (c and $\mathbf{5}$ d) The protocol showing selective isolation and transplantation of RAs. (e and f) Example high 6 magnification images depicting immunostaining of the GFP-positive RAs (green) transplanted 7 into naïve or injured spinal cords at 7 dat, stained with GFAP (red) and Hoechst (blue). The 8 asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice (e). Scale bars, 50 µm. (g) A morphometric 9 analysis of the cell diameter in host or GFP-positive transplanted astrocytes in naïve or injured 10 spinal cords (n = 8 mice per group). (h) The ratio of host or GFP-positive transplanted 11 astrocytes with overlapping of neighboring astrocytic processes in naïve or injured spinal cords 12(n = 8 mice per group). (i) Time-course quantification of mRNA expression levels of SA 13marker genes in RAs transplanted into naïve or injured spinal cords (n = 4 mice per group). 14Gene expression levels were normalized to that of NAs in the naïve spinal cord of Nes-EGFP 15mice. (j) The hierarchical clustering of the whole transcriptome analysis data from RAs, 16transplanted astrocytes and host astrocytes (n = 3 mice per group). The values indicate Pearson's correlation coefficients. $\star P < 0.05$, ANOVA with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test (g, 1718**h** and **i**); n.s., not significant. Data represent mean \pm SEM.

19

Figure 5. RNA-seq analysis reveals the role of Col I in the induction of N-cadherindependent adhesion in RAs. (a) Scatter plots between the naïve and injured spinal cord (n =1 mice per group). These represent many overexpressed (>5-fold change) genes (red). (b) A GO term analysis of the overexpressed (> 5-fold change) genes in the RNA-seq analysis of the injured spinal cord (14 dpi) compared to those of the naïve spinal cord (n = 1 mice per group).

1 The lists show the top seven obtained GO terms ranked by *p*-value (Fisher's exact test with the $\mathbf{2}$ Benjamini-Hochberg correction). (c) The FPKM values of the top 20 extracellular matrix genes 3 at 14 dpi (n = 1 mice per group). (d) Quantification of mRNA expression levels of the Col I 4 genes (*Collal* and *Colla2*) of spinal cords before injury and at 14 dpi (n = 4 mice per group). $\mathbf{5}$ (e, f, and g) Example images depicting immunostaining of the naïve and injured spinal cord at 6 14 dpi, stained with GFAP (green), Col I (red), and Hoechst (blue). The asterisk indicates the 7 lesion epicenter in SCI mice (e). Scale bars, 100 µm (e), 50 µm (f and g). (h) Example images 8 depicting immunocytochemical analysis of the RAs on the non-coated or Col I-coated dishes, 9 stained with GFAP (green), N-cadherin (red), and Hoechst (blue). Scale bar, 50 µm. (i) 10Quantification of Cdh2 mRNA expression levels in the RAs on the non-coated or Col I-coated dishes (n = 4 wells per group). $\star P < 0.05$, Wilcoxon's rank sum test (**d** and **i**). Data represent 11 12mean \pm SEM.

13

14Figure 6. Inhibition of integrin-mediated RA-Col I interaction prevents astrocytic scar formation and promotes functional recovery after SCI. (a) A schematic representation of 1516the SA transformation induced by the Col I/integrin/N-cadherin pathway. Anti-β1 Ab blocks 17the Col I-integrin axis in RAs. (b) Example images depicting immunocytochemical analysis of 18RAs on Col I-coated dishes after anti-\beta1 Ab or control Ab administration, stained with GFAP 19(green), N-cadherin (red), and Hoechst (blue). Scale bar, 50 µm. (c) Quantification of Cdh2 20mRNA expression levels in RAs after anti- β 1 Ab or control Ab administration (n = 4 wells per 21group). Gene expression levels were normalized to that of the RAs on non-coated dishes 22without any Ab administration. (d) The schedule of *in vivo* anti- β 1 Ab injection to wild-type 23mice after SCI. (e) Example images depicting IHC analysis of the injured cords receiving anti-24β1 Ab or control Ab injection, stained with GFAP (green), N-cadherin (red), and Hoechst (blue).

1 The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice. Scale bar, 50 µm. (f) The ratio of GFAP- $\mathbf{2}$ positive astrocytes with overlapping of neighboring astrocytic processes in the lesion area of 3 SCI mice after anti- β 1 Ab or control Ab administration (n = 8 mice per group). (g) Example 4images depicting GAP43 (white) and Col I (red) staining of the injured cords receiving anti-β1 Ab or control Ab injection at 42 dpi. Scale bars below the images, $200 \,\mu\text{m}$, insets $40 \mu\text{m}$. (h) $\mathbf{5}$ 6 Quantification of GAP43-positive area per $4.0 \times 10^5 \,\mu\text{m}^2$ (n = 8 mice per group). (i) Time $\mathbf{7}$ course of the BMS score after SCI (n = 12 mice per group). (j) Example images depicting 8 footprint analysis at 42 dpi. (k) Quantification of the footprint analysis findings in each mouse 9 (n = 8 mice per group). (1) Scores for the grip walk test at 42 dpi (n = 8 mice per group). $\star P < 10^{-10}$ 100.05, $\star \star P < 0.005$, ANOVA with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test (c), Wilcoxon's rank sum test 11 (f, h, k and l), and two-way repeated measures ANOVA with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test 12(i). Data represent mean \pm SEM.

13

1 Online Methods

2 Animals

All animal studies were approved by the Committee of Ethics on Animal Experimentation of
the Faculty of Medicine, Kyushu University. The experiments were conducted in accordance
with the National Institutes of Health guidelines for the care and use of animals. Female
C57BL/6J mice (8–10 weeks old) were used in this study. *CAG-EGFP* mice, *Nes-Cre* mice,
and *CAG-CAT^{loxP/loxP}-EGFP* mice were as described previously^{2,52}. To generate *Nes-Cre*; *CAG-CAT^{loxP/loxP}-EGFP* (*Nes-EGFP*) mice, we crossed *Nes-Cre* mice and *CAG-CAT^{loxP/loxP}-EGFP*mice.

10

11 **Primary astrocyte cultures**

12Purified primary astrocyte cultures were prepared from CAG-EGFP mice or C57BL/6J mice, as described previously 2,53 . In brief, after the removal of the meninges, postnatal day 2 mouse 1314brain tissues were minced and incubated in a rocking water bath at 37 °C for 30 min in 15Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, California) in the presence of 0.25% trypsin (Sigma-Aldrich) and 300 g ml⁻¹ DNase I (Sigma-Aldrich). The 1617dissociated cells were triturated with 0.25% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and centrifuged at 300 18 \times g for 5 min. Following dilution with astrocyte-specific medium (DMEM containing 10%) 19FBS, 0.2 mML-glutamine, and 1% penicillin-streptomycin), the cells were plated on non-20coated culture dishes. After 7-10 days in a humidified CO₂ incubator at 37 °C, the astrocytes 21were used for experiments. For the activation to RAs, the astrocytes were stimulated with 50 ng ml⁻¹ IL-6 (R&D Systems Inc.) and 200 ng ml⁻¹ soluble IL-6 receptor (R&D Systems Inc.). 2223For the preparation of Col I-coated dishes, the dishes were incubated at 37 °C for 2 h with mouse collagen type I (50 µg ml⁻¹; AbD Serotec), as described previously⁵⁴. 24

2 Spinal cord injury

The animals were anesthetized via an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital (75 mg kg⁻¹) and subjected to a contusion injury (70 kilodyne) at the 10th thoracic level using an Infinite Horizons Impactor (Precision Systems Instrumentation)³². During the period of recovery from anesthesia, the mice were placed in a temperature-controlled chamber until thermoregulation was reestablished.

8

9 Flow cytometry and cell sorting

The spinal cord samples (4 mm in length, centered around the lesion) were dissociated in collagenase type I (Invitrogen), followed by an analysis using a cell sorter, SH800 (Sony), as described previously^{23,55}. GFP-positive RAs isolated from the injured spinal cord of *Nes-EGFP* mice were used for transplantation.

14

15 Cell transplantation

16 Using a stereotaxic injector (KDS 310; Muromachi-kikai), a 25- μ l Hamilton syringe 17 (Hamilton) with a glass tip was inserted into the injured spinal cord (1 mm rostral to the lesion 18 epicenter) or the naïve spinal cord. A total volume of 2 μ l of cell suspension (2.0 × 10⁴ viable 19 cells per microliter) was injected at a rate of 0.5 μ l min⁻¹.

20

21 Behavioral analyses

The motor function was evaluated with a locomotor open-field rating scale on the Basso Mouse Scale (BMS)³². A footprint analysis was also performed, as described previously³². The forelimbs and hindlimbs of the mice were dipped in red and green dyes, respectively. For the grip walk test, a grid walk was reconstructed for mice using two parallel pieces of wood. After
3 days of training, each mouse was evaluated using 50 cm of the grid with three patterns: easy
(50 steps, 1 cm apart), medium (every third step removed), and hard (every other step
removed)²⁴. The sum of the number of grips for all three patterns was calculated in the analysis.
All tests were performed in a double-blinded fashion.

6

7 Histopathological examination

8 After the animals were reanesthetized and transcardially fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde, the 9 spinal cord was removed, dehydrated, and embedded in an OCT compound. The frozen 10sections were cut in the sagittal plane at 16 µm or the axial plane at 20 µm. The sections were 11 subsequently stained with primary antibodies in the blocking solution at 4 °C overnight and 12then incubated with Alexa Fluor secondary antibodies 1 (1:200; Invitrogen) and Hoechst 33258. 13The following primary antibodies were used: GFAP (1:200, rabbit; Dako, Z0334), GFAP 14(1:200, rat; Life Technologies, 130300), Nestin (1:200, rat; a gift from Dr. Taro Tachibana, Osaka City University, Osaka, Japan), β-catenin (1:200, mouse; Millipore, 05-665), N-cadherin 1516(1:200, mouse; BD Transduction Laboratories, 610921), Sox9 (1:200, rabbit; Abcam, ab26414), 17COL1A1 (1:200, mouse; Sigma-Aldrich, SAB1402151), GAP-43 (1:200, rabbit; Novus 18Biologicals, NB300-143), serotonin (5-HT; 1:200, goat; ImmunoStar, 20079), tyrosine 19hydroxylase (TH; 1:200, mouse; Millipore, MAB318), platelet-derived growth factor receptor 20β (PDGFRβ; pericyte marker, 1:200, rabbit; Abcam, ab32570), ER-TR7 (fibroblast marker, 211:200, rat, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-73355). The GAP43-positive, 5-HT-positive or THpositive area per 4.0×10^5 µm² at 42 dpi was measured using the BZ-II analyzer software 2223program (Keyence). We randomly selected 20 cells in each sample and measured the astrocyte 24cell diameter or ratio of cells with overlapping of neighboring astrocytic processes using the

Image J software program (U.S. National Institutes of Health). All images were captured using
a BZ-9000 digital microscope system (Keyence) or epifluorescence microscope equipped with
a digital camera (BX51; 12 Olympus).

4

5 Laser-capture microdissection

6 Fresh spinal cords were immediately frozen in dry ice/hexane and stored in a deep freezer at -7 80 °C. The tissues were cut at 16 µm using a cryostat at -20 °C and mounted on PEN membrane 8 slides. The sections were then fixed in ice-cold acetone for 2 min and stained with the antibody 9 against GFAP (1:50, rabbit; Dako) for 5 min. GFP-positive RAs and GFAP-positive astrocytes 10 were dissected with an LMD 6500 system (Leica Microsystems) and transferred by gravity into 11 separate microcentrifuge tube caps placed directly beneath the section. The tube caps were then 12filled with 75 µl of RLT buffer (Qiagen). For each sample, 1000 cells were dissected from 1 13series of sagittal sections and subjected to RNA extraction.

14

15 **Reverse transcription (RT)-PCR**

16Total RNA was isolated from the astrocytes obtained from the spinal cord tissue using the 17RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen) or from the injured spinal cord (4 mm in length) using the RNeasy 18Mini Kit (Qiagen). For the complementary DNA (cDNA) synthesis, a reverse transcription 19reaction was performed using a PrimeScript first-strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Takara Bio). 20Quantitative RT-PCR was performed using primers specific to the genes of interest (Table S1) 21and SYBR Premix Dimmer-Eraser (Takara Bio). The data were normalized to the expression 22of glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase. RT-PCR was conducted using a Thermocycler 23(Biometra), and the products were detected by electrophoresis and ethidium bromide staining.

1 **RNA sequencing**

The sample preparation and data analyses were performed as described previously⁵⁶. In brief, $\mathbf{2}$ 3 the mRNA-seq library was prepared using the NEBNext Ultra Directional Library Prep Kit for 4 Illumina (NEB) and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq-1500 system. The sequence reads were $\mathbf{5}$ aligned to the mouse reference genome (mm9, build 37), and the gene expression (fragments 6 per kilobase of exon per million mapped sequence reads; FPKM) was calculated using the TopHat (version 2.0.11) and Cufflinks (version 2.1.1) software programs⁵⁷. The selected genes 7 8 of interest were converted into lists of GO terms on GO database annotations with DAVID⁵⁸. 9 The calculated $-\log_{10}(P$ -values) are displayed on the x-axis of the graph.

10

11 The sequencing and data analysis (CEL-Seq2)

12We performed CEL-Seq2 for the whole transcriptome analysis of RAs (isolated by FACS at 7 dpi), transplanted and host astrocytes (both isolated by LMD at 7 dat), in accordance with a 13previously described protocol⁵⁹. We sequenced the libraries using an Illumina MiSeq system. 1415The reads were mapped to the mouse reference genome (mm10) using the Bowtie 2 software program (version 2.2.6)⁶⁰. Pearson's correlation coefficients were calculated using the common 1617logarithm of the read counts for genes with non-zero counts in at least one sample. 18Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) were extracted using the DESeq2 library (version 1.10.1) for R (with adjusted p-values of < 0.1)⁶¹. 19

20

21 Anti-β1 Ab injection

SCI mice received an injection of 1 μ g function-blocking monoclonal antibody against β 1integrin (anti- β 1 Ab; BD Pharmingen, 555003) at the epicenter using a stereotaxic injector (KDS 310; Muromachi-kikai) every 2 days from 9 to 13 dpi. Control mice were given an 1 equivalent amount of isotype control (control Ab; BD Pharmingen, 553958). For *in vitro* 2 blocking of collagen-integrin signaling, anti- β 1 Ab or control Ab was added at 1 µg ml⁻¹, and 3 an immunocytological analysis and mRNA extraction were performed at 12 h after 4 administration.

 $\mathbf{5}$

6 The administration of N-cadherin nAb

We injected 10 µg of neutralizing monoclonal antibody against N-cadherin (N-cadherin nAb;
Sigma-Aldrich, C3865) at the lesion epicenter in SCI mice using a stereotaxic injector (KDS
310; Muromachi-kikai) every 2 days from 9 to 13 dpi. Control mice received an equivalent
amount of isotype control IgG (control IgG; BioXCell, BE0083). For the *in vitro* N-cadherin
blockade experiments, N-cadherin nAb or control IgG was added at 10 µg ml⁻¹, and an
immunocytological analysis was performed at 12 h after administration.

13

14 Statistical analysis

15Wilcoxon's rank-sum test was used to compare the medians of the data of qPCR, the cell 16diameter, the ratio of overlapping-positive cells, the GAP43-positive, 5-HT-positive or TH-17positive area, and the functional outcome scores. For multiple comparisons in qPCR, an 18analysis of variance (ANOVA) with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test was applied. For the 19analysis of the differences in the BMS scores between the groups over time, a two-way repeated 20measures ANOVA with the Tukey-Kramer post hoc test was performed. In all statistical 21analyses, the level of significance was set at 0.05. The values for groups are presented as the 22average \pm SEM. All of the statistical analyses were carried out using the JMP software program 23(version 11; SAS Institute).

1 Data availability

2	RNA-seq (whole spinal cords) and CEL-Seq2 (isolated astrocytes) data are deposited with
3	accession codes DRA004535 (DDBJ) and DRA005561 (DDBJ), respectively.
4	
5	
6	
7	

1 Methods-only References

2	52.	Okabe, M., Ikawa, M., Kominami, K., Nakanishi, T. & Nishimune, Y. `Green mice' as
3		a source of ubiquitous green cells. FEBS Lett. 407, 313–319 (1997).

- 4 53. Sanai, N. *et al.* Unique astrocyte ribbon in adult human brain contains neural stem
 5 cells but lacks chain migration. *Nature* 427, 740–744 (2004).
- 6 54. Takahashi, S. *et al.* C-type lectin-like domain and fibronectin-like type II domain of
 7 phospholipase A₂ receptor 1 modulate binding and migratory responses to collagen.
 8 *FEBS Lett.* 589, 829–835 (2015).
- 9 55. Hayashi, M. et al. Chd5 Regulates MuERV-L/MERVL Expression in Mouse
- Embryonic Stem Cells Via H3K27me3 Modification and Histone H3.1/H3.2. *J. Cell. Biochem.* 117, 780–792 (2016).
- 12 56. Harada, A. *et al.* Incorporation of histone H3.1 suppresses the lineage potential of
 13 skeletal muscle. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 43, 775–786 (2015).
- 14 57. Trapnell, C. *et al.* Differential gene and transcript expression analysis of RNA-seq
 15 experiments with TopHat and Cufflinks. *Nat. Protoc.* 7, 562–578 (2012).
- 16 58. Dennis, G., Jr. *et al.* DAVID: Database for Annotation, Visualization, and Integrated
 17 Discovery. *Genome Biol.* 4, P3 (2003).
- 18 59. Hashimshony, T. *et al.* CEL-Seq2: sensitive highly-multiplexed single-cell RNA-Seq.
 19 *Genome Biol.* 17, 77 (2016).
- 20 60. Langmead, B. & Salzberg, S. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods*.
 21 9, 357-359 (2012).
- Love, M. I., Huber, W. & Anders, S. Moderated estimation of fold change and
 dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* 15, 550 (2014).











Figure 4.





Figure 6.





Supplementary Figure 2. RAs expressing their hallmark proteins. (a and b) Example images depicting immunohistological analysis of the GFAP-positive astrocytes (green) stained with the RA markers Nestin or β-catenin (red) before injury and at 7 and 14 dpi. The nuclei are counterstained with Hoechst (blue). The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice. Scale bars, 50 µm.













1	
2	
3	
4	
5	
6	
7	Supplementary Figure 8
8	а
9	# of DEGs
10	Host astrocytes versus Transplanted astrocytes 0 RAs versus Host astrocytes 2386
11	RAs versus Transplanted astrocytes 2670 (# of common DEGs)
12	
13	Supplementary Figure 8. The whole transcriptome analysis of RAs, transplanted astrocytes
14	and host astrocytes. (a) The number of significant differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between RAs, transplanted astrocytes and host astrocytes. There were no significant DEGs
15	between transplanted and host astrocytes (with adjusted p-values of < 0.1).
16	
17	
18	
19	
20	
21	
22	
23	
24	







Supplementary Figure 10. The functional blockade of N-cadherin inhibited the 14transformation of RAs into SAs and attenuated astrocytic scar formation after SCI. (a) Example images depicting immunocytochemical analysis of RAs on Col I-coated dishes after the 15administration of N-cadherin nAb or control IgG, stained with GFAP (green) and Hoechst (blue). Scale bar, 50 µm. (b) The schedule of the injections of N-cadherin nAb or control IgG into WT 16mice after SCI in the in vivo experiments. (c) Example images depicting immunostaining of the lesion area of the injured spinal cord receiving N-cadherin nAb or control IgG injection at 14 dpi, 17stained with GFAP (green) and Hoechst (blue). The asterisk indicates the lesion epicenter in SCI mice. Scale bar, 50 µm. (d) The ratio of GFAP-positive astrocytes with overlapping of 18neighboring astrocytic processes (n = 8 mice per group). $\star \star P < 0.005$, Wilcoxon's rank sum test. Data represent mean \pm SEM.

- 19
- 20
- 21
- 22
- 23
- 24



 $\mathbf{2}$

Supplementary Table 1

Primers used for qPCR

6	Gene symbol	Accession number	5'- Forward primer -3'	5'- Reverse primer -3'
	Acan	NM_007424.2	tttgatttcccaccgtgcctttcc	ttcctggtcctgtcttctttcagc
7	Axin2	NM_015732.4	gagaagtttggattgctgtccacg	acccatttctgcatgtgtcgatgg
	Bcan	NM_001109758.1	aattctgctgaaggctcaatgccc	cggaagtgacagaatggaagatcc
8	Cdh2	NM_007664.4	tacgcagctggttgcagataaagg	tctgcactcctccatagtctatgc
0	Chst11	NM_021439.2	gttctggtgaagtccacaaactgc	tgtcaccatgggattctacacacg
9	Cnpase	NM_001146318.1	aaatggcagaccagtatcagtacc	gtctcagaactctttttggtcagg
10	Col1a1	NM_007742.3	catggagacaggtcagacctgtgt	ggacattaggcgcaggaaggtcag
10	Col1a2	NM_007743.2	atccaac taagtctcct cccttgg	ggcttctgacta tcttccacag ag
11	Csgalnact1	NM_001252623.1	cttgagacagtcttgtcacagagc	cagtccttagatcagatctccagg
	Ctnnb1	NM_001165902.1	gggtgaatactttactctgcctgc	gtataacgctgcaaaagctgtggc
12	Gapdh	NM_008084.3	gacttcaacagcaactcccactct	ggtttcttactccttggaggccat
	Gfap	NM_001131020.1	tgtactaacagagcgagcctatgc	gggacttgctgcctttaacattgg
13	lba1	NM_019467.2	caaagaacacaagaggccaactgg	ttccatgctgctgtcatcagaagc
	Mmp13	NM_008607.2	gagagcttagttctgtgaacgagc	aaagcagatggaccccatgtttgc
14	Mmp2	NM_008610.2	ctatcatcttcatcgctgcacacc	gtacagtcagcacctttctttggg
1 🛩	Mmp9	NM_013599.3	aaggtattcagttgcccctactgg	acacggagaatctctgagcaatcc
15	Nefh	NM_010904.3	tagcaagagaagataaccctgagc	tcatctgtcagttggacatacagg
16	Nes	NM_016701.3	gtcagctgagcctatagttcaacg	agagtcactcatcattgctgctcc
10	Pcan	NM_001081306.1	taatggtgcagctttgcctgatgg	cctgacagtaactcattctgctgc
17	Pdgfa	NM_008808.3	agacagatgtgaggtgagatgagc	acggaggagaacaaagaccgcacg
	Pdgfb	NM_011057.3	tacctccactctgtgtcttcttcc	catcccattacaaccttgctcacc
18	Plaur	NM_011113.3	tctggatcttcagagctttccacc	cttacggtataactccggtttccc
	Slit2	NM_001291227.1	cgtctctagaagcttctagcttcg	tgtaggggggggggttttagtacaagc
19	Sox9	NM_011448.4	gaaggtaacgattgctgggattcc	cgtcctccatgttaactctgaagg
	Tgfb1	NM_011577.1	gtgacagcaaagataacaaactcc	gagctgaagcaatagttggtatcc
20	Tgfb2	NM_009367.3	tctgagattacagcaacaacaacc	caatacgtacaactccactgaacg
01	Vim	NM_011701.4	tgctaactaccaggacactattgg	aggttagtttctctcaggttcagg
$\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{I}$	Xylt1	NM_175645.3	cagtgaagattctccatcactggg	tctggaaactctgctccatgtagg