Poor remyelination of large lesions is attributable to failed oligodendrocyte progenitor cell

recruitment.

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Abstract

Objective:

The development of remyelination-inducing therapies for the treatment of multiple sclerosis (MS)

has largely focused on driving oligodendrocyte differentiation. However, while rodent lesions

display efficient remyelination and have a substantial oligodendrocyte progenitor cell (OPC) pool,

the same is not true in MS lesions. Thus, we hypothesized that supernumerary densities of OPCs

are required for efficient remyelination.

Methods:

We characterized oligodendroglia dynamics in a rabbit model of lysolecithin-induced persistent

demyelination. To investigate volume dependance of these effects, we induced both large (10x

mouse volume) and small (1x) lesions.

Results:

Following WM demyelination, the density of mature oligodendrocytes failed to return to normal

levels for at least 6 months, consistent with chronic demyelination. Similar to MS, the density of

recruited OPCs in the rabbit rarely exceeded that of normal appearing white matter. OPC

activation was substantially delayed/prolonged relative to murine lesions, however only a small

portion underwent proliferation. Instead, we observed upregulation of the OPC quiescence

marker, Prrx1, in the lesion border. While small lesions displayed decreased OPC proliferation

and marginally improved rates of oligodendrogenesis, OPC density was equivalent to large

lesions.

Interpretation:

Inefficient oligodendrogenesis in the rabbit is accompanied by limited OPC recruitment which, in

turn, appears to be limited by insufficient proliferation and pathological Prrx1 quiescence.

Prolonged OPC activation may prevent oligodendrocyte differentiation and decouple

remyelination from the attendant inflammatory response. As such, the rabbit model provides a

valuable tool for understanding the mechanisms which limit progenitor recruitment and thereby

contribute to the failure of remyelination in MS.

INTRODUCTION

Primary demyelination is most commonly associated with multiple sclerosis (MS), a disease

where half of patients will require walking assistance after a decade of disease (Confavreux et

al., 2000). Immune-mediated demyelination and loss of oligodendrocytes (OL) results in functional

neurologic deficit. In most experimental models, remyelination relies on restoration of the OL

population through first the recruitment (both migration and proliferation) of oligodendrocyte

precursor cells (OPCs) and then their subsequent differentiation and maturation into

oligodendrocytes (Franklin and Ffrench-Constant, 2017). OPCs are a multipotent stem cell

population that are distributed throughout the adult CNS. While the role of adult OPCs in normal

brain remains elusive, OPCs are responsible for the replacement of lost OLs in the context of

demyelination (Hughes et al., 2013, Zawadzka et al., 2010). Following a demyelinating event,

OPCs migrate into the damaged region from adjacent healthy tissue and begin to proliferate. The

expression of activation markers, such as Sox2, are downregulated as OPC differentiate into OLs

(Zhao et al., 2015). Newly generated OLs engage and ensheath denuded axons and upregulate

myelin proteins resulting in the production of a thin myelin sheath with shorter internodes that is

capable of restoring saltatory conduction (Lubetzki et al., 2020).

While remyelination is a common feature of early relapsing-remitting MS, remyelination

failure becomes more common with increasing disease duration and age (Franklin and Ffrench-

Constant, 2017). Remyelination failure is thought to be due to the malfunction of one or more

stages of oligodendrocyte regeneration: namely OPC recruitment, differentiation, and myelin

formation (Franklin and Ffrench-Constant, 2017). While quiescent OPCs are associated with

chronic demyelination in MS (Wolswijk, 1998), the prevailing theory in the field has been that

remyelination fails in MS due to a failure of differentiation. In response, a number of drug

candidates aimed at boosting endogenous remyelination through the promotion of OPC

differentiation have been developed and advanced to clinical trials after successful preclinical

results, notably opicinumab (anti-Lingo1) (Mi et al., 2005) and clemastine (Mei et al., 2014).

Unfortunately, while both were able to improve a functional test indicative of remyelination in the

optic nerve, neither was able to significantly impact clinical outcome or imaging endpoints in initial

trials (Green et al., 2017, Mellion et al., 2017, Cadavid et al., 2019). The paradoxical success of

differentiation-promoting therapies in rodent models, but little success in clinical trials, suggests

fundamental differences in the rate-limiting steps between remyelination in animal models and

human MS.

In small rodent models of demyelination, the density of OPCs quickly rises two-three fold

above that of normal white matter shortly following lesion formation (Sim et al., 2002, Ulrich et al.,

2008, Kucharova and Stallcup, 2015, Lin et al., 2006). In contrast, OPC density in MS lesion rarely
exceed that of normal appearing white matter (NAWM) (Lucchinetti et al., 1999, Kuhlmann et al.,
2008, Boyd et al., 2013, Moll et al., 2013, Tepavcevic et al., 2014). This is significant as small
rodent models, which remyelinate efficiently, have an extensive progenitor pool to draw upon.
Furthermore, there is little evidence that OPC recruitment is rate-limiting in the rodent (Franklin
and Goldman, 2015). Remyelination was not accelerated when the number of OPCs within the
lesion was experimentally increased (Woodruff et al., 2004) and only 1-3 rounds of division are
required to restore OPC density in rodent lesions (Foerster et al., 2020). Indeed, it is only after
long-term administration of cuprizone resulting in chronic depletion of OPCs that recruitment fails
and remyelination becomes inefficient (Mason et al., 2004). Thus, we hypothesized that
supernumery densities of OPCs are required for efficient remyelination.

In this study, we sought a model of inefficient remyelination to assess oligodendroglia
dynamics and one that more accurately recapitulates the burden of OPC recruitment seen in MS
lesions. To do this we utilized the rabbit lysolecithin model of demyelination which is characterized
by chronic demyelination for at least 6 months post-injection (Blakemore, 1978, Waxman et al.,
1979, Foster et al., 1980). We found that OPC recruitment was substantially inferior to
corresponding small rodent models and closely resembled the pattern observed in MS. Failed
recruitment was associated with a protracted period of OPC activation, an upregulation of
quiescence associated marker Prrx1 (Wang et al., 2018, Saraswat et al., 2021b), and an apparent
decoupling of OPC recruitment and differentiation with the innate immune response.
Fascinatingly, when smaller murine sized lesions were created in the rabbit, OPC recruitment was
similarly deficient resulting in delayed OL generation, indicating that delayed recruitment in the
rabbit is not entirely volume-dependent. While both small and large lesions show slower OL
repopulation relative to rodent lesions, small lesions repopulate more efficiently. Additionally,
large volume rabbit lesions exhibited distinct regional differences in the pattern of gliotic response,
OPC recruitment, activation and proliferation that evolved with time following induction of
demyelination. Together, we describe lysolecithin-induced lesions in the rabbit that recapitulate
several key features of demyelination in MS and which may more accurately predict the outcome
of novel remyelination-inducing therapies in clinical trials.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and surgery

All experiments were performed according to protocols approved by the University at Buffalo's

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. New Zealand White Rabbits were purchased as

needed (Female, average weight 2.96 ± 0.13 kg and average age 15.79 ± 0.53 weeks) (Charles

Rivers Laboratories, Wilmington, MA). Induction anesthesia was accomplished via intramuscular

injection of ketamine (35 mg/kg) and xylazine (5 mg/kg) into epaxial muscles. After loss of

consciousness, supplemental heating began and corneas were lubricated. The proximal 3 cm of

the tail was shaved to provide an optimal location for the pulse oximetry probe (far preferable to

use of ear or tongue). ECG leads and rectal temperature probe were placed. After pre-

oxygenation via face mask, rabbits were intubated in ventral recumbency with heads and necks

held in extension. A size 3.0 endotracheal tube was threaded over an 8-French urinary catheter.

After placement of the catheter through the glottis, the ET tube was advanced over the catheter

and into the trachea. Successful intubation was verified via immediate capnography. Upon

success, isoflurane was delivered via Bain Circuit (1-3%). An IV catheter was placed (marginal

ear vein), and the surgical site was shaved and prepped prior to moving the rabbit to the operating

room (OR). Pre-emptive, initial analgesics were administered (0.05 mg/kg buprenorphine,

subcutaneously (SC) and 1.5 mg/kg carprofen, SC).

Once moved onto the OR table, rabbits were immediately reconnected to isoflurane to

ensure a suitable anesthetic plane. Then, they were transiently disconnected from the Bain Circuit

to allow loose movement of the head into the stereotaxic frame (Kopf Model 902 Small Animal

Stereotaxic Instrument + Kopf Model 1240 Rabbit Adaptor + Rabbit Risers, Kopf Instruments,

Tujunga, CA). The endotracheal (ET) tube, was carefully moved to rest between the arms of the

Kopf Rabbit Adaptor. It was important that the ET tube was not advanced beyond 12 cm to avoid

bronchial obstruction. Once positioned, the capnograph and Bain Circuit were quickly

reconnected. At this time further careful positioning of the rabbit's head was possible via tooth

bar, zygoma clamps and nose clamp. General anesthesia could be maintained for the remainder

of the stereotaxic procedure with isoflurane. Spontaneous respirations were augmented by

manual intermittent positive pressure ventilations (IPPV). 0.1 mL bupivacaine (0.25%) or lidocaine

(2%, diluted 1:1 with 0.9% NaCl) was injected SC. A 7-8 cm incision was made alone the midline

of the scalp to expose both bregma (intersection of the sagittal and coronal sutures) and lambda

(intersection of the sagittal and lambdoid sutures). Both left and right arm Hamilton needles were

filled with distilled H_2O to prevent occlusion and ensure flow prior to lysolecithin loading. Placing

the needles point on either bregma or lambda, the dorsal-ventral (DV) relationship was adjusted

using the Kopf Rabbit Adaptor until bregma was 1.5 mm above lambda. The arms of the Kopf

frame were adjusted to a 20° angle, and the needle points were placed on bregma. The anterior-

posterior (AP), lateral-medial (LM), and DV of each arm was recorded. The following adjustments

were made to these values: AP= +0.5 mm, LM= +7.7 mm, DV= -5.7 mm. Injection sites were

confirmed previously via Evans Blue injection. Drill bits (Burrs for Micro Drill 19007-29, 2.9 mm,

Foster City, CA) were sterilized via dry micro bead bench side sterilizer for 1 minute and cooled

with room temp saline. In advance of drilling, topical articaine (4%) was dripped onto the skull and

allowed to absorb and dry over drilling skull sites. Drill holes were made through the skull to the

level of the meninges with constant saline stream to prevent parenchymal heat damage. A 30G

needle was then used to puncture the meninges to allow for free passage of the Hamilton needle.

1% lysolecithin was then injected at a rate 0.1 µl/min, with 5-minute wait times between microliters

to allow for diffusion. Once injection was completed, the needles were left in place for 20 additional

minutes to allow for diffusion. Either 5 µL (large volume lesion) or 0.35 µL (small volume lesion)

or lysolecithin was injected.

Post-operatively, buprenorphine was administered (0.05 mg/kg, SC) 4 hours after the

initial dose, and carprofen (1.5 mg/kg, SC) was continued twice daily for a total of 4 consecutive

days. Rabbits were monitored daily after surgery and assessed for: mentation, weight loss from

baseline, appetite, water consumption, amount and character of feces, amount of urination, and

presence of neurologic signs. Post-surgical weight loss peaked at 28 dpl, followed by a rapid

recovery (data available upon request).

Tissue processing

Animals were sacrificed at 7, 14, 21, 56, or 180 days post-lesion (dpl) by transcardial perfusion of

saline followed by 4% paraformaldehyde under deep anesthesia. Following decapitation, whole

brain tissue was extracted and post-fixed for 30 minutes in 4% paraformaldehyde. For

cryopreservation, the tissue was first left in 1x PBS overnight, then transferred into a 7.5% sucrose

solution overnight, and finally 15% sucrose overnight. Cryoprotected tissue was then frozen in

optimal cutting temperature medium (Tissue-Tek). Serial, 16 µm-thick coronal sections were cut

using a Leica cryostat, and stored in -80 °C freezer until processing.

To identify lesion location and volume, every 10th section was washed with 1x PBST (x3

by 5 min), stained with FloroMyelin for 1 hour at room temperature (1:300, Thermo Fisher

Scientific) and 4′,6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) for 3 minutes (1:5000,

Sigma Aldrich), and mounted in prolong gold (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Lesions were identified

as regions with lesser FloroMyelin signal and corresponding hypercellularity by DAPI, compared

to surrounding white matter. Cross-sectional lesion areas were calculated for both left and right

hemisphere lesions using the NIH ImageJ software, and the largest cross-sectional area for each

lesion was identified as the lesion center.

Estimation of lesion volume

Lesion volume was calculated from the measured cross-sectional areas determined by

FloroMyelin staining using Cavalieri's estimator of morphometric volume (Rosen and Harry,

1990):

$$V_c = d\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n}(y_i)\right) - (t)y_{MAX}$$

Where V_c is the Cavalieri's estimated volume, d is the distance between sections, y_i is the cross-

sectional area of section i, t is the thickness of the sections, and y_{MAX} is the largest cross-

sectional area of the lesion. Since every 10th section was stained, $d = 160$ μm, and $t = 16$ μm.

Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Slides immediately adjacent to the lesion centers, identified by FloroMyelin staining, were used

for all immunohistochemical procedures. In general sections were permeabilized for 1 hour with

1% Triton X-100 (Alfa Aesar) and 0.25% Tween 20 (Calbiochem). Sections were blocked for 1

hour with a solution containing 0.5% Triton X-100, 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA), and 5%

normal donkey serum. For cytoplasmic antigens such as CC1, sections were permeabilized with

a 0.1% saponin and 1% normal donkey serum for 15 min and blocked for 1 hr with a 5% donkey

serum and 0.05% saponin. Primary antibodies utilized were goat anti-Olig2 (1:100, R&D

Systems), mouse anti-CC1 (1:50, Millipore), mouse IgG2a anti-SOX2 (1:100, R&D Systems),

mouse IgG1 anti-Ki67 (1:25, Fisher Scientific), rat IgG2a anti-MBP (1:300, Abcam Inc.), goat IgG

Smi311 & Smi312 (1:1000, BioLegend), rabbit IgG anti-App (1:500, Thermo Fisher), rabbit IgG

anti-Iba1 (1:300, Wako Chemicals), and mouse IgG1 anti-Gfap (1:400, Sigma-Aldrich). Alexa 488,

594, and 647-conjugated secondary antibodies (Invitrogen) were used at 1:500. Lesion areas

were captured at 10X, 20X, and 60X magnification using an Olympus IX83 with IX3-SSU

motorized stage and image tiles stitched via cellSens software. Images of immunostained

sections were aligned with their corresponding FloroMyelin stained section to accurately mark

lesion boundaries, with exclusion of any portion of the lesion which extends into the gray matter.

Cells counts were determined via a semi-automated, machine learning assisted, counting process

(code available upon request). The Keras based convolution network was trained on a set of

~3250 CC1 positive and ~3250 CC1 negative pre-classified images (supervised learning).

Fluorescence in situ hybridization

Fluorescence in situ hybridization was performed with probes targeting Prrx1 (GenBank

accession #NM_011127.2) mRNA by using the RNAscope Fluorescent Multiplex Detection Kit

(Advanced Cell Diagnostics) according to the manufacturer instructions and as described

previously (Wang et al., 2018, Saraswat et al., 2021a). Fixed sections were baked at 60°C for 30

min, washed with ethanol, followed by tissue pretreatment, and probe hybridization following

RNAscope fluorescence multiplex assay, and sections were counterstained with DAPI to visualize

nuclei. Positive signals were identified as punctate dots present in nucleus and cytoplasm.

Statistics

All statistical testing was completed using GraphPad Prism Version 8.4.0. The control

group for all analyses of cell numbers and phenotypes was normal white matter (NWM) from

uninjured animals, or normal appearing white matter (NAWM) from a region distant from the

lesion. Groups comprised either time-points following injection of lysolecithin, regional analysis

within the lesion, or small vs large volume lesions. For all reporting, an experimental unit

comprised a single lesion. A minimum of 4 experimental units (lesions) per group was set *a priori*

and along with a requirement for at least three animals per group. Criteria for lesion inclusion

were established *a priori*. Only lesions located within internal capsule white matter were included

in the analysis. No white matter lesions regardless of size were excluded from the analysis.

Rabbits were allocated to each group in a randomized fashion based on availability from the

vendor and surgical schedule. Manual cell count validations for all quantitative measures were

performed in a blinded fashion. Normality of data was tested in GraphPad using the D'Agostino-

Pearson omnibus test. For analysis of time-series data, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc

testing was performed. For analysis of time-series and region delimited/volume delimited data,

two-way ANOVA with Sidak's post-hoc testing was performed. Only a portion of pairwise

comparisons were highlighted, however full pairwise statistical comparisons are available upon

request.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available upon reasonable request.

RESULTS

Large lysolecithin-induced lesions in the rabbit persisted for at least 6 months.

To test the hypothesis that supernumery densities of OPCs are required for efficient

remyelination, we sought to characterize OPC dynamics in a model of inefficient remyelination.

Lysolecithin-induced lesions in the sizable white matter tracts of the rabbit have been noted to

persist for at least 6 months (Blakemore, 1978, Foster et al., 1980, Waxman et al., 1979). To

induce demyelination, we stereotactically injected lysolecithin into the internal capsules of adult

New Zealand White rabbits (bilateral injections of 1% lysolecithin, 5 µl) (**Fig. 1A**). We first

examined lesion formation at 14 days post lesion (dpl). Overlay of a mouse coronal section

included for size reference. Similar to murine lesions, lysolecithin induced focal demyelination at

the site of injection and resulted in a clearly demarcated region of hypercellularity that precisely

matched the region of myelin loss (**Fig. 1B**, white dashed line). Volumetric analysis by serial

section reconstruction of the lesion indicated a comet-like appearance with a relatively spherical

region of demyelination corresponding to the site of injection and a tapered region extending in

the posterior-ventral direction, likely due to diffusion within the fascicles of the internal capsule.

The mean maximal cross-sectional area and volume peaked at 14 dpl (volume: 3.57 ± 0.3 mm^3,

area: 1.90 ± 0.2 mm^2, $n = 8$) (**Fig. 1C-D**). Following the peak in lesion area at 14 dpl, lesion area

gradually declined with time (21 vs 14 days, Tukey's $p = 0.032$). In stark contrast to rodent models,

large regions of demyelination persisted in the rabbit even at 180 dpl by which time rodent models

have typically resolved.

Insufficient recruitment of OPCs in the rabbit was associated with prolonged suppression

of oligodendrocyte repopulation.

We next sought to characterize OPC recruitment and differentiation following demyelination in the

rabbit brain (**Fig 2**). We assessed the recruitment and differentiation status of oligodendrocyte

lineage cells using Olig2 to label the entire oligodendrocyte lineage and CC1/Olig2 to label post-

mitotic oligodendrocytes (OL) (**Fig. 2A**). Following demyelination, Olig2$^+$ cell density was

significantly reduced more than three-fold at 7 dpl (Tukey's $p < 0.0001$) and, unlike small rodent

models, never exceeded that of normal white matter (NWM) thereafter (**Fig. 2B**). The density of

OPCs/immature oligodendrocytes, defined as CC1$^-$Olig2$^+$ cells, increased between 7 and 14 dpl

and remained stable at later time points (**Fig. 2C**). Similar to MS lesions, the density of OPCs

never significantly exceed that of NWM (**Fig. 2C**). Following lysolecithin injection, the lesion was

essentially devoid of mature OLs at 7 dpl (NWM = 877.8 ± 62 vs 7 dpl = 79.9 ± 14 cells/mm^2) (**Fig.**

2D). By 8 weeks, OL density had partially recovered and reached a plateau but remained nearly

half that of NWM at 8 weeks (NWM = 877.8 ± 62 vs 56 dpl = 453.9 ± 64.65 cells/mm^2, Tukey's p

< 0.0017). The proportion of CC1$^+$ oligodendrocytes amongst the Olig2$^+$ population has been

used to infer the rate of oligodendrocyte differentiation. Intriguingly, while the proportion of mature

OLs increased with time until 21 dpl (**Fig. 2E**), the proportion of oligodendrocytes did not increase

at later time points suggesting that on-going oligodendrocyte generation may not continue after

this initial period. The distribution of OPCs to OLs remained aberrant at 6-months indicating a

chronic change in oligodendrocyte lineage homeostasis (NWM = 66.3 ± 3.2% vs 180 dpl = 42.2

± 9.1%). Together, these data suggest that OPC recruitment in the rabbit occurring following

demyelination is insufficient to generate sufficient oligodendrocytes necessary to repair these

lesions. The relative failure of OPC recruitment contrasted with small rodent models while

resembling that of MS lesions.

OPC activation and proliferation were impaired following demyelination in the rabbit

Insufficient oligodendrocyte progenitor cell (OPC) recruitment in the rabbit may result from a

failure of parenchymal OPCs to respond appropriately to environmental signals associated with

demyelination. As such, we next sought to assess OPC activation and proliferation. The

transcription factor Sox2 is upregulated in activated adult OPCs following demyelination and is

necessary for OPC recruitment and successful remyelination (Zhao et al., 2015). As expected, in

normal rabbit white matter the majority of Olig2$^+$ cells were Sox2$^-$ and Ki67$^-$ (**Fig. 3A**). Following

demyelination, recruited OPCs progressively upregulated Sox2, such that the majority of Olig2$^+$

cells in the lesion area coexpressed Sox2 by 14 dpl (NWM = 3.2 ± 2%, 14 dpl = 51.4 ± 3%) (**Fig.**

3B). Overall, the density of Sox2$^+$Olig2$^+$ OPC peaked at 14 dpl (NWM vs 14 dpl, 14 dpl vs 180

dpl, Tukey's p < 0.0001 and p < 0.0001, respectively), and returned to control levels by 6 months

(NWM vs 180 dpl, Tukey's p > 0.05) (**Fig. 3B-E**). The pattern of Sox2$^+$ expression among OL

lineage cells largely corresponded with their proliferative capacity defined by Ki67 expression.

The proportion of Ki67$^+$ cells peaked at 14 dpl and returned to baseline by 6 months (NWM vs 14

dpl, 14 dpl vs 180 dpl, Tukey's p = 0.004 and p = 0.02, respectively) (**Fig 3B-D, F**). However,

unlike mouse these responses were substantially smaller in magnitude and delayed relative to

lesion induction. For example, mouse Sox2$^+$ OPCs were highly proliferative at 5 dpl with 50%

Ki67$^+$ (Zhao et al., 2015). In contrast, rabbit Sox2$^+$ OPC proliferation did not peak until 56 dpl and

never exceeded 30% (NWM vs 56 dpl, Tukey's p = 0.025) (**Fig. 3G**). This indicates a far more

protracted period of OPC recruitment that ultimately fails to result in supernumerary OPC

generation.

Microglial/macrophage response correlates with the pattern of OPC recruitment

Next, we examined the microglial and astrocyte response following demyelination to determine

whether the failure to recruit supernumerary OPCs could be attribute to the pattern of the innate

immune response. In this regard, we noted substantial upregulation of Sox2 among Olig2

negative cells following demyelination (**Fig. 3B-D**). We confirmed that these Sox2$^+$ cells were

largely reactive Gfap$^+$ astrocytes that were concentrated within the center of the demyelinated

lesion (**Fig. 3H**). A substantial number of Sox2$^+$Olig2$^-$ cells were observed within the lesion at all

time points, with statistically greatest numbers at 8 weeks followed by a reduction at 6 months

(NWM vs 56 dpl, 56 dpl vs 180 dpl, Tukey's p = 0.045 and p = 0.018, respectively) (**Fig. 3I**).

At 7 dpl, both microglial (Iba1) and astrocyte (Gfap) markers were upregulated throughout

the demyelinated lesion with a relatively homogenous pattern throughout the lesion area (**Fig.

4A**). At higher magnification, Iba1$^+$ microglial largely adopted an ameboid morphology while

astrocytes were hypertrophic and reactive in appearance (**Fig. 4A**, insets). Interestingly, within

the lesion core ameboid microglia/macrophages commonly formed vesicular structures that were

surrounded by Gfap$^+$ astrocytic processes (**Fig. 4I-K**). At later timepoints both

microglia/macrophage and astrocyte signals were more concentrated toward the lesion center

(**Fig. 4B-D**). While Gfap immunoreactivity remained elevated for 6 months, Iba1 was more

transient with a peak between 7-14 days. Consistent with this qualitative assessment, Iba1 mean

florescent intensity (MFI) peaked at 7 and 14 days and was significantly elevated relative to

normal appearing white matter (**Fig. 4E**) (NAWM; defined as matched uninjured corpus callosum

from the same cohort of animals, n=29). Iba1 remained elevated versus NAWM at each time point

including 56 dpl (NAWM vs 56 dpl, Tukey's p = 0.006). In contrast, the astrocytic response defined

by Gfap area remained significantly elevated throughout the experimental time course, with

significantly Gfap upregulation still apparent at 180 dpl (NAWM vs 180 dpl, Tukey's p = 0.02) (**Fig.

4F**). Unlike mouse spinal cord lysolecithin and experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis

models (Dorrier et al., 2021), we did not observe substantial numbers of collagen 1-expressing

(Col1) fibroblasts within rabbit lesions at any time point. Together, these results suggest that

astroglial and microglial responses are distinct from one another in this model and intriguingly that

the overall microglial rather than the astroglial response corresponded to the pattern of OPC

activation and proliferation.

Rabbit lesions exhibit region specific gradients of OPC activation and OL differentiation.

While regional differences in MS lesions have been widely reported (Boyd et al., 2013, Absinta et

al., 2021), region-specific differences in murine models are difficult to assess due to their small

size. The larger rabbit lesions allowed us to better investigate region-specific lesion differences in

lesion evolution and correlate OPC recruitment with local gliotic responses. Surrounding the

central area of demyelination (**Fig. 5A,** white dashed line), we observed a defined region of mild

hypercellularity and disturbed myelin (Mbp) structure which we termed perilesion white matter

(PLWM) (**Fig. 5A**, blue dashed line) (**Fig. 5B-C**). The mean maximal cross-sectional area of the

PLWM expanded following lesion induction (**Fig. 5D**). Within the lesion, Mbp staining showed

abundant myelin debris at 7 dpl, with substantial clearance by 14 dpl (**Fig. 5E, 5G**). At 56 dpl,

there was a partial recovery of Mbp immunoreactivity in the PLWM, but it lacked the structure

observed in normal WM (**Fig. 5E, 5G**). Interestingly, PLWM exhibited increased numbers of both

microglia/macrophages and astrocytes at 21 dpl that generally resolved by 180 dpl (**Fig. 4G-H**).

Indicative of primary demyelination neurofilament (NF)-labelled axons were preserved at all time

points throughout the lesion (**Fig. 5F, 5H**). However, we noted a gradient of axonal density with

greater numbers of axons at the lesion edge (**Fig. 5F, 5H**). Consistent with the loss of axons in

the lesion core, we observed accumulation of App immunoreactivity specifically at 7 dpl which

disappeared at later time points (**Fig. 5F, 5H**). The lesion core was also enriched for microglial

and astrocytic antigens suggesting a more inflammatory core (**Fig. 4**). Thus, the rabbit lesion

displayed three distinct regions (PLWM, lesion edge, and lesion core) within which OPCs were

recruited and would have an axon substrate available for remyelination.

Next, we examined the pattern of OPC recruitment and differentiation in these regions

(**Fig. 6A-E**). As observed with flouromyelin staining, the PLWM, showed a clear alteration in

solochrome cyanine staining relative to NAWM (**Fig. 6A**). This corresponded with a reduction in

mature OL density (CC1$^+$Olig2$^+$). Across time points, the reduction in OL density corresponded to

lesion location, whereby mature OL density exhibited a gradient with the greatest density in the

PLWM (**Fig. 6B, Fig. 6F**) (Two-way ANOVA, region effect p = 0.0001). Consistent with a failure

to repair regardless of region, the density of mature OLs in the PVLM remained depressed relative

to NWM (unpaired t test, two-tailed, p = 0.0001). In MS lesions, OPCs tend to accumulate around

lesion borders (Heß et al., 2020). In contrast, the rabbit lysolecithin lesion showed the opposite

trend with the lesion core exhibiting the greatest Olig2$^+$CC1$^-$ defined OPC density at each time

point (Two-way ANOVA, region effect p = 0.0017), (**Fig. 6G**). Together, the regional analysis

confirmed the overall failure of OPC recruitment throughout the lesion with greatest recruitment

occurring in the lesion core. The relative lack of OPCs within the lesion edge suggesting a specific

failure of OPC activation and proliferation. We examined the proportion of Sox2$^+$ activated Olig2$^+$

cells in each region and observed that the Sox2$^+$ OPC accumulated in the lesion core (Two-way

ANOVA, region effect p < 0.0001) (**Fig. 6C, Fig. 6H**). This regional difference was inversely

related to mature OL density in consistent with previous observations that Sox2 can prevent OL
differentiation in mouse OPCs (Zhao et al., 2015).

Pathological OPC quiescence may contribute to failed differentiation in the lesion edge
We next sought to identify the potential mechanisms that may cause OPC recruitment to fail in
and around the rabbit lesion. We have previously shown that human OPCs expressing the
transcription factor Prrx1 enter a reversible state of quiescence that prevents their cell-cycle entry
and limits their capacity to myelinate host shiverer axons (Wang et al., 2018). Furthermore, Prrx1
mRNA is upregulated by inflammatory cytokines such as IFN-γ and found among non-cycling
OPCs within mouse lysolecithin lesions and human MS plaques (Wang et al., 2018). In rabbit
NAWM, we noted Prrx1-expression among many Olig2$^+$ cells (**Fig. 6I**). Similar to previous reports,
following induction of demyelination Prrx1 expression was found in both Olig2$^+$ oligodendrocyte
lineage and other Olig2$^-$ cells. However, unlike mouse lesions, we noted a striking accumulation
of Prrx1 expressing Olig2$^+$ cells in the lesion edge at 14 dpl (**Fig. 6J**). This was a transient
phenomenon as the overall level and number of Prrx1$^+$ cells decreased substantially by 56 dpl
(**Fig. 6K**). The accumulation of Prrx1$^+$Olig2$^+$ at the lesion edge suggests that OPCs entering the
demyelinating lesion rapidly upregulated Prrx1 and likely become quiescent, thereby reducing
their capacity to sufficiently repopulate the demyelination region.

In addition to Prrx1, we also noted an intriguing pattern of Olig2 immunoreactivity in a
subset of cells within the rabbit lesion. Unlike mouse lysolecithin lesions, a common though rare
observation was the presence of Olig2-expression within the cytoplasm of individual cells (**Fig.**
6L). The appearance of cytoplasmic Olig2 has been previously attributed to cells transitioning to
an astroglial fate via IFN-γ (Cassiani-Ingoni et al., 2006). Together these observations further
suggest that the microenvironment of the demyelinated rabbit brain was significantly different from
that of the adult mouse.

Small volume lesions exhibited similar astrogliosis but relatively reduced
microglial/macrophage responsiveness.
As large volume rabbit lesions require the generation of substantially more cells than mouse
models, we asked whether the deficits in OPC recruitment and differentiation could be attributed
to lesion volume alone. We created small volume lesions via injection of 0.35 µL lysolecithin.
Small volume lesions were 7-fold smaller by volume than large volume rabbit lesions, and closely
resembled the volume of murine lesions (Kucharova et al., 2011) (murine lesions = 0.4 mm^3, small
volume rabbit = 0.39 ± 0.1 mm^3, large volume rabbit = 3.6 ± 0.3 mm^3) (n=4 and 8, respectively).
Similar to large rabbit lesions, following demyelination small volume lesions displayed equivalent

levels of hypercellularity and astrogliosis (Gfap) compared to large volume lesions (**Fig 7A-B, 7D-**

E). Indeed, there were no significant differences between small and large volume lesions at any

time point (**Fig. 7H-I**). Intriguingly, we noted that small volume lesions had less intense Iba1

staining compared to large lesions (**Fig. 7C,F**) (Two-way ANOVA, volume main effect p < 0.0001).

Mean Iba1 intensity was highly significantly decreased relative to large volume lesions at both 7

and 14 dpl (Šídák's *p* = 0.0015 and 0.013, respectively) (**Fig. 7J**).

OPC activation and proliferation in small lesions

To determine whether OPC recruitment was altered in small volume lesions, we

interrogated activation and proliferation of OPCs using Sox2 and Ki67, respectively (**Fig. 8**). The

overall density of Olig2$^+$ cells following demyelination was similar between large and small lesions

(**Fig. 8A, E**). Unlike equivalently sized mouse lesions, Olig2 density never exceeded the control

level (dotted line). Two-way ANOVA revealed a statistically significant effect of lesion size on

Olig2 density (F(1,22)=7.3, *p* = 0.013) with the greatest relative increase in small lesions occurring

at 7 dpl.

Examination of Sox2 and Ki67 revealed far more apparent volume-dependent effects (**Fig.**

8B-C). The extent of Sox2 activation was significantly lower in small lesions with a >2-fold

decrease in Sox2$^+$Olig2$^+$ cell density at 14 dpl (Šídák's *p* = 0.0015) (**Fig. 8F**). This corresponded

with a profound reduction in the proportion of actively proliferating Ki67$^+$ OPCs (Two-way ANOVA,

volume; F(2,21) = 19.68, p = 0.0002) (**Fig. 8G**). As Olig2 expression is maintained in mature OLs,

we next examined the fraction of Ki67$^+$ cells among Sox2$^+$Olig2$^+$ activated OPCs (**Fig. 8H**). Very

few, <1%, of these OPCs expressed Ki67 suggesting that OPC proliferation is high dependent on

lesion volume in the rabbit and suggests that recruitment in small rabbit lesions is principally due

to migration from NAWM. This was in striking contrast with the proportion of Ki67$^+$ cells in

equivalently sized mouse lesions with 26.4 ± 1.4% and 7.5 ± 1.1% at 5 and 14 dpl, respectively

(Ki67% among Sox10$^+$ cells, n= 3-4 mice).

Although proliferation was substantially lower in small volume lesions, there was

surprisingly no significant difference in the density of CC1$^-$Olig2$^+$ OPCs between small and large

volume lesions (**Fig. 8I**). This likely reflects the reduced requirement for OPC generation. Large

lesions with 7-fold greater volume requires approximately 2-3 more cell divisions to achieve the

same density of OPCs. Interestingly, while the density of OPCs was equivalent at each stage, the

generation of CC1$^+$ mature OLs was significantly greater in small lesions (CC1$^+$Olig2$^+$ cell density;

Two-way ANOVA, volume main effect p = 0.0035) (**Fig. 8D, 8J**). In fact, small lesions were able

to successfully repopulate the lesion area with mature OLs (One-way ANOVA, p = 0.017). At 21

dpl, the density of mature OL was no longer significantly reduced compared to NWM (Tukey's p
= 0.30). The rate of oligodendrocyte generation was also significantly more rapid in small lesions
(**Fig. 8K**). By 7 dpl there was an increased proportion of mature OLs in small lesion relative to
large lesions (Šídák's, p = 0.019) (**Fig. 8K**). As such, the nature of OPC recruitment, being
principally migratory in small lesions and proliferative in large lesions, was associated with
differing rates of oligodendrogenesis. These results suggest that recruitment and differentiation
following demyelination exhibit both species- and volume-dependent influences that contribute to
a failure to coordinate OPC recruitment with differentiation and together lead to chronic
demyelination.

DISCUSSION

The optimal therapeutic strategy toward the goal of myelin restoration and thereby overcome the inhibitory microenvironment present in chronic MS lesions remains elusive. Recent drug candidates developed on the basis of promising results in various mouse models of demyelination have not yet been successfully translated into a meaningful clinical therapeutic (Cadavid et al., 2017, Cadavid et al., 2019, Green et al., 2017). This may be due, in part, to the already highly efficient nature of remyelination in the mouse CNS and critical differences in human cell biology (Dietz et al., 2016). Here, we show that inefficient remyelination occurs in the rabbit brain and that, unlike mouse models, the oligodendrocyte progenitor cell (OPC) is largely unable to rapidly repopulate the demyelinated lesion leading to MS-like chronic demyelination. Following lysolecithin injection, rabbit lesions exhibited chronic gliosis and demyelination with preservation of axons for at least six months. Notably, we found region-specific differences in the response of OPCs to demyelination, with chronic activation of OPCs in the core associated with regions of gliosis and increased oligodendrocyte (OL) generation in the lesion edge, a pattern commonly found in MS (Heß et al., 2020). Fascinatingly, we found that the delayed and insufficient OPC recruitment observed in rabbit lesions was not volume-dependent but likely due to species-specific differences that include a greater predisposition to upregulate a marker of quiescence in rabbit OPCs. Volume-specific differences did manifest as profound differences in the mechanism of OPC repopulation, with migration or proliferation predominant in small and large lesions respectively. These data support the need for additional models to investigate mechanisms underlying chronic demyelination and highlight the species-specific differences that contribute to remyelination failure.

Unlike several other experimental species including mouse, rat and cat, the rabbit lysolecithin model of demyelination exhibits chronic demyelination, persisting at least 3-6 months following injection of lysolecithin (Blakemore, 1978, Foster et al., 1980). This is similarly reflected by poor remyelination in the rabbit following induction of EAE (Williams et al., 1982, Prineas et al., 1969). In this study, we confirmed the presence of chronic demyelination in the rabbit brain with preservation of axons and overt myelin loss remaining at 6 months. Although reported over 40 years ago, the mechanisms underlying the failure of rabbit remyelination have not been investigated. Remyelination failure could result from a failure of surviving and/or newly-generated OL within the lesion microenvironment to synthesize myelin sheathes or insufficient *de novo* OL generation from resident progenitors (Franklin et al., 2021). While the current study is unable to address the ability of surviving rabbit OLs to remyelinate axons, the studies by Waxman and Blakemore do establish the potential for oligodendrocyte based remyelination as thinly

remyelinated axons are found within chronically demyelinated rabbit brain and spinal cord
(Blakemore, 1978, Foster et al., 1980). Our detailed study of OPC and OL cell dynamics at several
time points establish several distinguishing features of the rabbit model that may underly the
failure of remyelination. Unlike lysolecithin lesions in the mouse which result in increased OL
density relative to unlesioned white matter (Fancy et al., 2009), the density of OL in the rabbit
lesions never returns to normal levels and remains poorly repopulated with OLs at up to 6 months
following demyelination.

The failure to generate sufficient OLs in the adult rabbit may be caused by either a failure
to differentiate or an insufficient pool of OPCs able to undergo differentiation. Parenchymal adult
OPCs retain the capacity to generate new oligodendrocytes and are largely considered to be the
primary source of newly generated OLs following demyelination in the adult CNS (Serwanski et
al., 2018, Zawadzka et al., 2010). Differentiation occurs in a highly regulated manner and can be
influenced by a number of developmental and pathological processes (Fancy et al., 2011).
Likewise, the processes underlying OPC recruitment involve a combination of complex signaling
events that are activated by the local tissue microenvironment and inflammatory processes.
Together these lead to OPC migration and proliferation that are necessary for the appropriate
recolonization of demyelinated lesions, a process known as recruitment. In mouse models of
toxin-induced demyelination and EAE, OPC recruitment is not typically rate limiting (Franklin and
Goldman, 2015). Furthermore, approaches to improve recruitment have not meaningfully altered
the rate of myelin regeneration in focal mouse lesions. For example, overexpression of PDGF-AA
drives enhanced OPC recruitment following demyelination and yet this had no discernable effect
on the rate of remyelination (Woodruff et al., 2004). The progenitor pool in small rodents models
is especially capable of efficient recruitment and occurs following systemic depletion either by X-
irradiation (Chari and Blakemore, 2002) or pharmacogenetic depletion (Xing et al., 2021) and,
importantly, after demyelination. Repeated focal demyelination is not sufficient to deplete the
progenitor pool (Penderis et al., 2003) and only sustained depletion of OL lineage cells using 12-
week treatment can prevent efficient remyelination in the cuprizone model (Mason et al., 2004).
The relative success of OPC recruitment in the mouse is exemplified by the rapid regeneration of
OPC densities, 2-3 fold greater in demyelinated tissues than normal white matter (Sim et al.,
2002, Ulrich et al., 2008, Kucharova and Stallcup, 2015, Lin et al., 2006).

In contrast, rabbit lesions regardless of size are characterized by a failure of OPC
recruitment such that the density of OPCs never exceeds that of normal tissue and the
characteristic over-population of OPCs that occurs in the mouse and rat is absent. The rate of
recruitment is also comparatively delayed, reaching peak density only after 14 days. Whereas

mouse and rats reach peak progenitor density within the first week (Sim et al., 2002, Fancy et al.,

2004). While the dynamics of OPC recruitment in human are difficult to ascertain from postmortem

tissue, MS lesions similarly rarely display supernumerary OPC density (Lucchinetti et al., 1999,

Kuhlmann et al., 2008, Boyd et al., 2013, Moll et al., 2013, Tepavcevic et al., 2014). While our

data identify a substantial deficit in the ability of rabbit OPCs to repopulate regions of

demyelination, we also noted a relative failure in the ability of OPCs to undergo differentiation.

We observed a substantial decrease in the proportion of CC1$^+$ OL among the entire Olig2$^+$ lineage

relative to mouse/rat model systems. While this may represent a difference in the inherent rates

of OL difference in rabbit, an alternative hypothesis is that the failure of recruitment contributes to

failed differentiation. *In vitro* OL differentiation is dependent on the density of OPCs (Rosenberg

et al., 2008) and, similarly, following transplantation human OL differentiation is correlated with

the local density of human OPCs (Dietz et al., 2016). This suggests that below a certain threshold

local density of OPCs, the process of OL differentiation itself may be limited. Consist with this

hypothesis, remyelinated lesions and active lesions in MS, which have a higher propensity for

remyelination, tend to have higher densities of OPCs then chronic demyelinated lesions (Boyd et

al., 2013). Our data therefore are consistent with the model that critical species differences exist

in the capacity for OPCs to respond to demyelinating signals and that failed recruitment is the

primary determinant of failed remyelination in the rabbit model.

We next examined why OPC recruitment may be inadequate in the rabbit CNS.

Parenchymal OPCs are recruited from neighboring tissues and form an outside-in gradient of

OPC densities when depleted by X-ray irradiation (Chari and Blakemore, 2002). Intriguingly, we

consistently observed significantly higher densities of OPCs in the lesion core versus both lesion

edge and perilesion white matter. This suggests that the environment of the rabbit lesion may

differ in the signals capable of attracting and retaining OPCs within the lesion core (Boyd et al.,

2013, Piaton et al., 2011, Kerstetter et al., 2009).

Several pieces of evidence in our study point toward the importance of species difference

in the inadequacy of OPC recruitment in the rabbit. Sox2 is upregulated by the majority of OPCs

following demyelination in the mouse brain and is necessary for precursor proliferation such that

conditional deletion of Sox2 in OPCs leads to failed recruitment and remyelination (Zhao et al.,

2015). In the rabbit, Sox2 expression was substantially lower, occurring in far fewer OPCs and

over a much-protracted time course. This corresponded to a substantial relative reduction in the

rate proliferation with the peak occurring at 8 weeks after induction of demyelination. Furthermore,

unlike mouse lesions (Saraswat et al., 2021b), the transcriptional regulator Prrx1 was specifically

upregulated in numerous OPCs at the lesion edge. Prrx1 expression in human OPCs induces a

reversible state of quiescence inhibiting proliferation and thereby preventing efficient myelination

(Wang et al., 2018). Prrx1 itself is regulated by both interferon-γ and BMP signaling (Wang et al.,

2018, Saraswat et al., 2021b) and increased Prrx1 expression in the rabbit suggest that the lesion

environment may differ substantially from the mouse brain. Intriguingly, we also observed

prominent examples of cells expressing cytoplasmic Olig2 expression in the rabbit lesion that is

associated with an astroglial switch in stem/progenitor cells (Setoguchi, 2004) and observed in

rare cells in EAE (Cassiani-Ingoni et al., 2006). This is not observed in mouse lysolecithin lesions

and further supports species-specific differences in signaling. Lastly, small rabbit lesions of an

equivalent volume to mouse, display similar deficits in OPC recruitment. Intriguingly, OPC

proliferation is very low in the rabbit small lesion and contrasts with the rapid proliferation that

occurs in mouse. OPC autonomous differences between species have been suggested by several

other studies. For example, adult mouse OPCs are more than twice as migratory compared to

adult human OPCs (Bribian et al., 2020). Following transplantation human OPCs take 8-12 weeks

to generate myelin-forming OLs (Sim et al., 2011), while equivalent rodent cells typically complete

the process of differentiation in 3-4 weeks (Baron-Van Evercooren and Blakemore, 2004). Lastly,

when human OPCs are transplanted into mouse brain, the human cells outcompete their mouse

counterparts suggestive of substantial differences in cell biology and signaling between species

(Windrem et al., 2014). Together, these results support the hypothesis that species differences

are critical determinants of the OPC response to demyelination.

Another defining feature of the rabbit model is the capability to induce large volumes of

demyelination, approximately 10-fold larger than typical rodent lesions. To specifically examine

the role of lesion volume on OPC recruitment and differentiation, we induced both large (4 mm^3)

and small (0.4 mm^3) volume lesions in the rabbit brain. As expected, the smaller lesions displayed

accelerated regeneration of OLs with time. However, when OPC recruitment was assessed, we

noted a dramatic difference in the rate of proliferation in small vs. large lesions. Small lesions

exhibited very limited proliferation (<1% Ki67 among Olig2-expressing) whereas OPCs within

large lesions were more proliferative (5-15%). It has been estimated that only 1-3 rounds of

division are required to restore OPC density in rodent-sized lesions (Foerster et al., 2020). As

such, proliferation may not as important in small lesions. Regardless of lesion volume, OPC

recruitment never exceeded normal density. However, we did note a volume-dependent

difference in the pattern of gliotic response. While astroglial responses were similar between small

and large lesions, we observed a notable decrease in microglial reactivity in small lesions.

Several recent studies have increasingly highlighted the role that the innate immune

response plays in influencing remyelination (Lloyd and Miron, 2019). In this regard, the rabbit

microglial response was distinct from the astrocytic response, in that the intensity of staining
demonstrated a clear period of activation that waned after the first few weeks. Both microglial and
astrocyte activation was sustained in the lesion core for longer periods than the lesion edge and
this correlated with the density and activation state of OPCs in these regions. Proliferating
$Sox2^+Olig2^+$ cells were largely found in those regions with enhanced Iba1 and Gfap staining
suggestive that the gliotic core was in part driving the sustained OPC proliferation observed in
that region. As observed in rat demyelinating lesions and associated with successful
remyelination at the lesion rim, the greatest density of mature OL was observed within regions
with the least sustained gliotic response. In addition, cytoplasmic Olig2 staining was relatively
commonly at the lesion edge, with peak observations at 8 weeks. Interestingly, we observed a
corresponding peak in the density of $Sox2^+Olig2^-$ cells at 8 weeks post lesion induction.

The failure of OPC recruitment in the rabbit recapitulates that observed in the majority of
MS lesions and thereby provides a suitable test bed for therapeutic approaches to improve the
migration and proliferation of OPCs. Indeed, rabbit OPC recruitment resembles that following
lysolecithin-induced demyelination of the non-human primate optic nerve, in that densities of OPC
and OL do not return to normal white matter levels at 6 months and demyelination is present a 9
months (Sarrazin et al., 2022). In contrast to the macaque, the rabbit is substantially more cost-
effective and accessible to most neuroscience laboratories. As such, we propose that the
simplicity and accessibly of the rabbit model along with the clear differences in lesion environment
and patterns of OPC recruitment and differentiation will provide a vital complementary approach
for preclinical testing of remyelination therapeutics and aid in the successful development of
clinical interventions aimed at promoting myelin regeneration.

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Author Contributions:

Conception and design of the study: FJS and JJMC. Acquisition and analysis of data: all authors.

Drafting the manuscript or figures: FJS and JJMC. Study supervision: FJS.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. Large regions of demyelination following injection of lysolecithin into rabbit

subcortical white matter persisted for at least 6 months. A, Scale diagram representing

injection sites and white matter tract size (mouse included for reference). **B**, Lysolecithin-induced

lesion at 14 days post-lesion (dpl) in the rabbit stained for FloroMyelin (FM, red) and 4',6'-

diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, blue). White dotted line indicates lesion border. **C-D**, Lesion

volume (**C**) and maximal cross-sectional area (**D**) of lesions overtime. Mean ± SEM shown. Scale:

5 mm (**A**), 500 µm (**D**).

Figure 2. Insufficient oligodendrocyte progenitor cell recruitment and mature

oligodendrocyte generation following demyelination in rabbit white matter. A,

Oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs), and mature oligodendrocytes (OL) were identified as

$Olig2^+CC1^-$ and $Olig2^+CC1^+$, respectively. Insert shows a high magnification image of a $CC1^+$

(green) mature OL. **B**, Olig2 (red) was used to identify total oligodendrocyte lineage cell density

which was significantly depressed at 7 and 21 days post-lesion (dpl), but recovered by 56 dpl (n

= 3-6, One-way ANOVA, F (5, 23) = 0.44, *p* < 0.0001). **C**, Interestingly, OPC ($Olig2^+CC1^-$) density

did not significantly increase above that of normal white matter (NWM) at any timepoint (n = 3-6,

One-way ANOVA, F (5, 22) = 0.83, *p* = 0.008). **D**, Additionally, $CC1^+$ mature OL densities failed

to recover, remaining significantly below that of NWM even at 180 dpl (n = 3-6, One-way ANOVA,

F (5, 22) = 0.57, *p* < 0.0001). **E**, The percentage of $Olig2^+$ cells that were differentiated was also

depressed (n= 3-6, One-way ANOVA, F (5, 22) = 0.87, *p* < 0.0001). Tukey's multiple comparisons

post-test. *, **, ***, and **** indicate p ≤ 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001, respectively. Pairwise

significance shown between NWM and each respective timepoint. Dashed lines on graph

represent mean of NWM. Mean ± SEM shown. Scale: 50 µm (**A**), 10 µm (**A**, insert).

Figure 3. Abundant oligodendrocyte progenitor cell activation but disproportionately low

proliferation following injury. A-D, Representative images of normal white matter (**A**), or lesion

at 14 days post-lesion (dpl) (**B**), 56 dpl (**C**), 180 dpl (**D**). Activated $Sox2^+$ OPCs (cyan), proliferative

$Ki67^+$ OPCs (green) were identified by colocalization with Olig2 (red). Additionally, Sox2 has been

noted to be expressed by a subpopulation of astrocytes (Zhao et al., 2015) which are identified

as $Sox2^+Olig2^-$ cells. Insert shows high magnification of labelled cells. **E**, The density of activated

$Sox2^+$ OPCs increased following demyelination, which peaked at 14 dpl (One-way ANOVA, F (5,

21) = 0.86, *p* < 0.0001). **F**, Correspondingly, the proportion of $Ki67^+$ proliferating OPCs also

peaked at 14 dpl. Densities of both active and proliferative OPCs gradually decreased to normal

levels by 180 dpl (n= 3-6, One-way ANOVA, F (5, 21) = 2.05, *p* = 0.005). **G**, At 7dpl, the proportion

of Sox2$^+$ activated OPCs that are proliferating is not significantly increased relative to normal white

matter, and did not peak until 56 dpl (n= 3-6, One-way ANOVA, F (5, 21) = 1.02, *p* = 0.01). **H-I**,

Additionally, there was an accumulation of Sox2$^+$Olig2$^-$ astrocytes, confirmed with Gfap (**H**),

where densities peaked at 56 dpl (One-way ANOVA, F (5, 22) = 1.92, *p* = 0.0003) (**I**). Tukey's

multiple comparisons post-test. *, **, ***, and **** indicate p ≤ 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001,

respectively. Dashed lines on graph represent mean of normal white matter. Mean ± SEM shown.

Scale: 200 μm (**A**), 10 μm (**A**, inserts), 5 μm (**H**).

Figure 4. Large lesions displayed abundant gliosis, with the microglia/macrophage

response greatest at early timepoints. A-D, Iba1 (red), and Gfap (green) were used as markers

of microglia/macrophages and astrocytes, respectively, with nuclei labeled with DAPI (blue).

Lesion borders (white dashed line) and perilesion white matter (PLWM) outlines are shown (blue

dashed line). Inserts show higher power confocal images of areas outlined with white box. **E**, Iba1

mean fluorescent intensity (MFI) peaked at 7 dpl, and gradually decreased towards 180 days

post-lesion (dpl) (n = 4-29, One-way ANOVA, F (5, 57) = 3.13, *p* = 0.015). The corpus callosum

was considered normal appearing white matter (NAWM) for quantitative comparisons and to

control for batch and animal staining variability. **F**, Total Gfap$^+$ area was quantified and shown as

a proportion of total lesion area, and was elevated above NAWM at all timepoints (n = 4-29, One-

way ANOVA, F (5, 50) = 2.92, *p* < 0.0001). **G-H**, Both Iba1 MFI and Gfap % area was also

increased in the PLWM at 21 dpl, and decreased at later timepoints (n = 4-29, one-way ANOVA).

Tukey's multiple comparisons post-test. *, **, ***, and **** indicate p ≤ 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and

0.0001, respectively. Pairwise significance shown between normal white matter (NWM) and

respective timepoint. Dashed lines on graph represent mean of NWM (n = 3). Mean ± SEM shown.

Scale: 500 μm (**A-D**), 25 μm (**A**, inserts, **I-K**).

Figure 5. The perilesion white matter displayed hypercellularity and disturbed myelin

structure. A, Evolution of lysolecithin-induced lesions in the rabbit over time stained for

FloroMyelin (FM, red) and DAPI (blue). White dashed line indicates lesion bounds. An area of

hypercellularity extending past the lesion boundary was noted (blue dashed line). **B-C**,

Comparison of normal (**B**) and lesion nuclei density at 56 dpl (**D**) (DAPI, cyan). The density of

nuclei following lesion induction is clearly increased relative to matched normal white matter and

can be further subdivided at the FM-defined border corresponding with an additional increase in

cell density (**C**, white dashed line). **D**, Comparison of mean maximal cross-sectional area of lesion

(FM-defined border) and perilesion white matter (PLWM) areas (DAPI hypercellularity-defined

border). **E-F**, Representative confocal images of normal white matter stained for myelin, and

axonal markers. **G-H**, Following demyelination at 7 to 56 dpl, lesions were imaged by widefield

epifluorescence shown in the left panel. **G'-H'**, Higher power confocal images of the area outlined

with the white box are shown in the right panel. At 7 dpl, myelin basic protein (Mbp, gray) staining

demonstrated myelin loss and degeneration within the lesion, and Mbp levels remain depressed

over time (**G**). Axons, stained with neurofilament (NF, green), persist within the lesion bounds

even at 56 dpl. Axonal injury (App, red) is evident at 7dpl but is reduced thereafter following

demyelination (**H**). Dashed lines on graph represent mean of normal white matter. Mean ± SEM

shown. dpl, days post lesion. Scale: 500 µm (**A, G-H**), 200 µm (**C**), 25 µm (**E, G'-H'**).

Figure 6. Mature oligodendrocyte density was reduced in the perilesion white matter, with

increased expression of Prrx1 among OPCs at the lesion edge. A-E, Three regions were

defined for regional analysis: perilesion white matter (PLWM) (light green dashed line), lesion

edge (green dashed line), and lesion core (dark green dashed line). PLWM was defined as an

area of mild hypercellularity (defined using DAPI) extending past the lesion border. The lesion

proper was divided into the edge and core regions, with the edge defined as the outermost 75µm

rim. Cross-sectional columns of a 56 dpl lesion covering the various regions stained for

solochrome cyanine (**A**), mature oligodendrocytes (Olig2$^+$CC1$^+$) (**B**), active oligodendrocyte

progenitor cell (Olig2$^+$Ki67$^+$) (**C**), proliferative OPCs (Olig2$^+$Ki67$^+$) (**D**), and Gfap$^+$ astrocytes (**E**).

F-H, Quantification of cell density and/or proportion of total oligodendrocyte linage cells between

regions for mature OLs (Olig2$^+$CC1$^{+,}$ **F**), OPCs (Olig2$^+$CC1$^-$, **G**), and activated OPCs (Olig2$^+$Sox2$^+$,

H). Horizontal dotted lines represent mean ± SEM of the corresponding cellular density of normal

white matter (n = 3 rabbits). Two-way ANOVA was performed across all time points (TME: time

main effect) and comparing regions (RME: regional main effect). **I-K**, a combination of *in situ*

hybridization and immunohistochemistry was used to label Prrx1 mRNA (gray) and Olig2 protein

(red). Prrx1 expression was increased among the increased density of Olig2$^+$ cells found at the

lesion edge at 14 dpl. By 56 dpl, the expression of Prrx1 had decreased among Olig2$^+$ cells.

Arrowheads indicate coexpressing of Olig2 and Prrx1.**L**, an example of a cytoplasmic Olig2

immunoreactive cell at 56 dpl. These cells were relatively common observation following

demyelination (~1-2 cells per section, most commonly observed at 56 dpl). dpl, days post-lesion.

Mean ± SEM shown. Scale: 200 µm (**E, N-O**), 10 µm (**M**).

Figure 7. Small, murine sized, lesions produced in the rabbit displayed a lesser
microglia/macrophage response. Small (0.35 µL) (**A-C**) and large (5 µL) (**D-F**) volume lesions
were created via stereotaxic injection lysolecithin, and stained for Gfap (green), Iba1(red) and
DAPI (blue). White dashed lines indicate lesion border. **G**, As expected, 0.35 µL injections of
lysolecithin produced lesions with significantly smaller volumes as compared to 5 µL at every time
point (n= 4-9, two-way ANOVA, volume factor $F(1,33) = 72.5$, $p < 0.0001$). **H**, Small and large
volume lesions displayed similar levels of hypercellularity (DAPI$^+$/mm^2). **I**, Small and large lesions
also displayed a similar astrocyte response (Gfap$^+$ area/total lesion area) (n= 4-9, two-way
ANOVA, volume factor $F(1,32) = 0.05$, $p > 0.05$). **J**, However, Iba1 MFI was significantly greater
in large volume lesions compared to small lesions (n= 4-9, two-way ANOVA, volume factor
$F(1,28) = 17.39$, $p = 0.0003$). Šídák's multiple comparisons post-test. *, **, ***, and **** indicate p
≤ 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001, respectively. Dashed lines on graph represent mean of normal
white matter (n = 3 rabbits). dpl, days post-lesion. Mean ± SEM shown. Scale: 200 µm.

Figure 8. Small volume lesions displayed less oligodendrocyte progenitor cell activation
and improved oligodendrogenesis. A-C, Activated Sox2$^+$ oligodendrocyte progenitor cells
(OPCs) (**B**, cyan), and proliferative Ki67$^+$ OPCs (**C**, green) were identified by colocalization with
Olig2 at 14 dpl in small and large volume lesions. Insert shows high magnification of labelled cells.
D, oligodendrocyte differentiation was assessed by CC1 (green) and Olig2 (red)
immunofluorescence. A representative CC1$^+$Olig2$^+$ cell is shown (**D**, inset). **E**, Small volume
lesions had a significantly greater Olig2$^+$ cell density compared to large volume lesions (n = 4-5,
two-way ANOVA, volume factor $F(1,22) = 7.3$, $p = 0.013$), however there was no significant
difference at any timepoint. **F**, The density of Sox2$^+$ activated OPCs (Sox2$^+$Olig2$^+$) was
significantly greater in large lesions, peaking at 14 dpl in large volume lesions (n = 4-5, two-way
ANOVA, volume factor $F(1,21) = 31.3$, $p < 0.0001$). **G**, The proportion of proliferative OPCs
(Ki67$^+$Olig2$^+$) was also significantly increased in large lesions, again peaking at 14 dpl (n = 4-5,
two-way ANOVA). **H**, Roughly 20% of activated OPCs in large volume lesions are also
proliferating (Ki67$^+$Sox2$^+$Olig2$^+$) at 14 dpl, which is significantly increased relative to small lesions
where only about 2% of activated OPCs are also proliferating (n = 4-5, two-way ANOVA, volume
factor $F(1,21) = 28.4$, $p < 0.0001$). **I**, There were no significant differences between small and
large lesions in terms of OPC density (CC1$^-$Olig2$^+$) (n = 4-5, two-way ANOVA, volume factor
$F(1,22) = 0.67$, $p < 0.5$). **J**, Small lesions showed significantly greater densities of mature
oligodendrocytes (OL) (volume main effect), gradually increasing towards later timepoints (n = 4-
5, two-way ANOVA, volume factor $F(1,22) = 10.7$, $p = 0.004$). **K**, Additionally, a greater proportion

of Olig2$^+$ cells were differentiated in small lesions vs large lesions (n = 4-5, two-way ANOVA,

volume factor $F(1,22) = 15.7$, $p = 0.0007$). Šídák's multiple comparisons post-test. *, **, ***, and

**** indicate p > 0.05, p ≤ 0.05, 0.01, 0.001, and 0.0001, respectively. Dashed lines on graph

represent mean of normal white matter. dpl, days post-lesion. Mean ± SEM shown. Scale: 50 μm

(**A-D**), 10 μm (**A-D**, insets).

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8