Spatiotemporal orchestration of multicellular transcriptional programs and

communications in spinal cord injury

Zeqing Wang[1,5,6], Zhuxia Li[2,5,6], Tianle Luan[1,5], Guizhong Cui[4], Shunpan Shu[1,5], Yiyao Liang[3], Kai

Zhang[1,5], Wei Yu[3], Jihong Cui[1], Ang Li[3,4,*], Guangdun Peng[2,4,5,*], and Yanshan Fang[1,5,*]

[1]Interdisciplinary Research Center on Biology and Chemistry, Shanghai Institute of Organic

Chemistry, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shanghai, 201210, China

[2]Center for Cell Lineage and Development, CAS Key Laboratory of Regenerative Biology,

Guangdong Provincial Key Laboratory of Stem Cell and Regenerative Medicine, GIBH-HKU

Guangdong-Hong Kong Stem Cell and Regenerative Medicine Research Centre, Guangzhou

Institutes of Biomedicine and Health, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Guangzhou, 510530, China

[3]Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macau Institute of CNS Regeneration, Key Laboratory of CNS

Regeneration of Ministry of Education, Jinan University, Guangzhou, 510632, China

[4]Bioland Laboratory (Guangzhou Regenerative Medicine and Health Guangdong Laboratory),

Guangzhou, 510005, China

[5]University of Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100049, China

[6]These authors contributed equally to this work

***Co-corresponding authors**:

Ang Li: anglijnu@jnu.edu.cn

Guangdun Peng: peng_guangdun@gibh.ac.cn

Yanshan Fang: fangys@sioc.ac.cn

Running title: Spatial transcriptomics of SCI

Keywords: RNA-seq, spatial transcriptomics, spinal cord injury, astrocyte, neuroinflammation,

neuroprotection.

Word counts: ~7,450 words (*excluding the title page, acknowledgements and references)*

ABSTRACT (*≤200 words*):

The spinal cord is an assembly of spatially organized multicomponent cells that coordinates the

transmission of motor, sensory and autonomic nerve functions. Although complex pathological

and cellular alterations in spinal cord injury (SCI) have been documented, the spatiotemporal

architecture of the molecular events that drive the injury progression remains poorly understood.

Here, we conducted a spatially resolved transcriptomic profiling of gene expression in a mouse

model of SCI, which demonstrated the comprehensive gene co-expression networks and

transcriptional programs underlying the anatomic disorganization induced by SCI. Further, with

integration of the single-cell RNA-sequencing datasets, we delineated the exquisite orchestration

of multicellular transcriptional programs and *in situ* cell-cell interactions following SCI, and

discerned regional diversity of astrocyte populations in intact and injured spinal tissues. The

spatial molecular features endow the cell types with new biological significance, showcased by

the identification of a distinct, SCI-induced population of astrocytes that exhibit functional

heterogeneity in promoting both beneficial neuro/synapto-supportive and deleterious pro-

inflammatory programs. Together, our dataset and analysis provide a rich resource and a

spatiotemporal molecular atlas that potentially disentangle the cell organization in mammalian

SCI and advance the injury management.

MAIN (*≤2,500 words*):

Spinal cord injury (SCI) can cause permanent motor, sensory and/or autonomic dysfunctions,

accompanied by various local or systemic complications. Multiple intertangled cascades of

cellular and molecular events take place in the injured spinal cord, such as neuronal and axonal

degeneration, neuroinflammation and neuroimmune activation, glial scar formation, and

demyelination. Both the primary insult and the secondary responses contribute to the pathological

changes and the overall prognosis (Ahuja et al., 2017; Anjum et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021).

With the advent of the RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) technology especially single-cell (sc) and

single-nucleus (sn) RNA-seq, valuable insights into the transcriptional alterations and cell type-

specific regulatory programs in SCI have been gained (Noristani et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021;

Milich et al., 2021). However, the spinal cord is a spatially organized organ and the information of

the molecular anatomy of these post-SCI changes and their *in situ* cell properties are largely

missing.

A spatially resolved view of the changes in the transcriptional landscapes may enable

identification of unknown regulatory mechanisms and facilitate the development of new strategies

for treating human diseases. Indeed, the recent innovation in spatial transcriptomics, which allows

high-throughput measurement of gene expression while retaining the anatomic information (Moor

and Itzkovitz, 2017; Williams et al., 2022), has been applied to profile cell atlases and characterize

different biological processes, including normal tissue and organ development, pathological and

neurodegenerative diseases (Asp et al., 2019; Maniatis et al., 2019; Peng et al., 2019; Chen et

al., 2020; Ortiz et al., 2020; Fawkner-Corbett et al., 2021; Rao et al., 2021; Li and Peng, 2021;

Ratz et al., 2022; Tavares-Ferreira et al., 2022). Given its value in molecular profiling of physically

intact tissue samples in chronic conditions, here we made an attempt to employ spatial

transcriptomics to investigate mechanically damaged mouse spinal tissues in acute injury, aiming

to gain a holistic understanding of the transcriptional programs underlying the SCI-induced

molecular and cellular changes in their morphological context.

The mouse SCI model and the workflow of the spatial transcriptomic analyses

For the spatial transcriptomic analysis of mammalian SCI in this study, the spinal cord of

C57BL/6J mice was fully transected at the tenth thoracic vertebra (T10) (Fig. 1a and Extended

Data Fig. 1a). The motor function and the morphology of the spinal cord after injury were

examined at 0 (sham), 3, 24 and 72 hours post injury (hpi) to confirm a complete transection

(Extended Data Fig. 1b-d). We performed hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining on transverse

sections of various distances from the lesion center on both the rostral (-) and caudal (+) segments

(Extended Data Fig. 1e). As shown in Extended Data Fig. 1d and e, the spinal cords were severely

deformed within ±0.25 mm, precluding an informative spatial transcriptomic analysis. Therefore,

the rostral (-) and the caudal (+) sections at ±0.5 and ±1.0 mm from the injury site were subjected

to the 10x Visium spatial RNA-seq analysis. Four consecutive cryo-sections each at ±0.5 and

±1.0 mm were captured, and the spinal sections of the same distance at different time points (0,

3, 24 and 72 hpi) were attached to the same Visium Gene Expression slide and processed

simultaneously in the subsequent procedure (Fig. 1b). Together, 64 spinal cord sections from 9

different mice were examined in this spatial transcriptomic analysis, representing an inclusive

coverage of the dynamic injury responses in a high spatial and temporal resolution.

Overall, 22,820 spatial spots were obtained and profiled after filtering, with a mean of 12,574

RNA reads and 3,990 genes per spot (Extended Data Fig. 2a-d and Supplementary Table 1). The

discernible grey matter (GM) regions containing condensed neuronal cells showed higher

numbers of expressed genes (Extended Data Fig. 2d). We compared the intra- and inter-

correlations of the sample groups and found a high data reproducibility of the replicate sections

within each group at the bulk level (Extended Data Fig. 2e). We therefore analyzed all the sampled

spots of the four replicates but visualized the results on each representative sample section in all

the spatial view charts in this study.

Further spatiotemporal evaluation of the expression of known injury-related genes (e.g., *Atf3*,

Hmox1 and *Timp1*), aka, the injury score (see Methods), displayed remarkable patterns in

association with the injury time, the distance and the anatomy of the spinal cord (Extended Data

Fig. 2f). For example, the ±0.5 mm spinal sections at 72 hpi displayed the highest injury scores

(Extended Data Fig. 2f, g) and the lowest transcriptomic similarity to others (Extended Data Fig.

2e), which were in accordance with the most severe damage among all the 64 sections (Extended

Data Fig. 1e). Therefore, in the subsequent data analyses, we focused on revealing: (1) the

spatiotemporal molecular annotation of the spinal cord anatomy, (2) the gene co-expression

modules and regulatory networks, and (3) the cell type composition and cell-cell communications

in response to SCI (Fig. 1c). For readers with broader research interests, an interactive data

exploration portal is available at (*the website will be accessible to the public upon the acceptance*

of the manuscript).

Cluster analysis of the spatial spots reveals anatomic domain- and injury time-featured

expression profiles of SCI

First, we performed dimension reduction and cluster visualization on the collective spatial spots

using uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) (see Methods). Seven distinct gene

expression clusters were identified (Fig. 1d) and Clusters 1, 2, 6 and 7 showed a bona fide

anatomic and molecular annotation of the intact spinal cord at 0 and 3 hpi (Fig. 1e). This allowed

us to categorize the seven clusters into four major anatomic regions: white matter (WM), middle

grey (MG), dorsal horn (DH) and ventral horn (VH) (Fig. 1f). With the injury score increased along

the time (Extended Data Fig. 2f, g), the boundary of the anatomic regions became less clear (Fig.

1e). However, the spatiotemporal clusters could still be classified to the four major spatial domains

of the spinal cord following the coherence in the UMAP plot (Fig. 1g), which showcased the

advantage of spatial transcriptomics in providing the molecular annotation of tissue architecture

to better understand the SCI pathology.

Like the spatial domain, the major transcriptomic difference could be attributed to the time

after injury (Fig. 1h). In contrast, the rostral/caudal directionality and the distance to the injury site

showed minimal impacts on distinguishing the spatiotemporal clusters (Fig. 1i, j). Consistently,

analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) revealed remarkable domain-dependent

alterations, whereas only a small number of directionality- or distance-specific DEGs were

identified during SCI (except for the ±0.5 mm sections at 72 hpi, where more severe damage was

associated) (Extended Data Fig. 3a-c). As such, we focused on the factors of spatial domain and

injury time in the subsequent analyses (also see Extended Data Fig. 3d-g).

A remarkable shift of the compositions of spatiotemporal clusters in the WM and MG domains

was elicited by SCI (Fig. 1k). To understand the molecular changes and functional relevance of

these changes, we identified the cluster-enriched genes (CEGs) for each cluster and analyzed

their spatiotemporal expression profiles (Fig. 1l). The CEGs included not only the well-known

markers of the four anatomic domains of the intact spinal cord, such as *Mbp* (Cluster 1) for WM,

Snap25 (Cluster 2) for MG, *Tac2* (Cluster 6) for DH and *Prph* (Cluster 7) for VH, with their spatial

expression validated by *in situ* hybridization (ISH) (Fig. 1m), but also uncharted signature genes

for injured spatial domains (Extended Data Fig. 4). Gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analyses

of the CEGs revealed the biological processes that not only reflect the unique physiological

function of the different anatomic regions, but also underlie the pathological progression of SCI.

For example, Cluster 1 was predominantly localized to the WM at 0 and 3 hpi (Fig. 1k), and its

CEGs, such as the myelin-related genes *Plp1*, *Mog* and *Mbp* (Monje, 2018), were enriched in the

biological functions of myelination and oligodendrocyte differentiation (Fig. 1l). At 24 and 72 hpi,

the main clusters of the WM switched to Clusters 4 and 5 (Fig. 1k), whose CEGs, such as the

reactive astrocyte markers *Vim* and *Tm4sf1* (Li et al., 2022a) in Cluster 4 and the activated

macrophages markers *Lyz2* and *Lgals3* (Willemsen and Winther, 2020) in Cluster 5, were

enriched with the terms of protein synthesis, cell migration, responses to wounding, *etc*. (Fig. 1l).

Thus, the switch of the spatiotemporal clusters in the WM between 3 and 24 hpi suggested that

a reduction of myelination-related functions along with the activation of astrocytes and infiltration

of myeloid cells took place in the WM in the subacute phase during SCI.

Spatiotemporal analysis of gene co-expression patterns and transcriptional programs in

SCI

Next, to depict the intricate and dynamic transcriptional changes in SCI and unveil the

commonalities in the molecular events and regulations, we performed the weighted gene co-

expression network analysis (WGCNA, Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) (Fig. 2a). Thirty-three

spatially and temporally co-expressed gene modules (CGMs) were identified (see Methods and

Supplemental Table 2) and they displayed unique and diverse spatiotemporal expression patterns

(Extended Data Fig. 5a-c), providing an unbiased molecular annotation of the injury-induced

responses in SCI. We further performed module enrichment with the anatomic domains and

identified spatial domain- and injury time-dependent module activities (Fig. 2b). For example,

CGM13 showed an injury-induced expression in the WM specifically at 3 hpi, after which the

expression was sharply decreased (Fig. 2c). This module was highly associated with the cellular

functions of regulating the ERK1/2 signaling cascade and the node genes of the connectivity

network, *Csrnp1* and *Maff*, were known players in stress-induced immune and inflammatory

responses (Bensellam et al., 2015; Macdonald et al., 2018) (Fig. 2c). Thus, CGM13 likely

represented a group of MAPK/ERK-mediated "early response genes" regulating immunity and

inflammation in the acute phase of SCI.

In addition, we noticed that some modules, such as CGM9 and CGM11, exhibited an

interesting spatiotemporally-complementary expression pattern: CGM9 was expressed at a low

level in the WM of the intact spinal cord (0 hpi) and at 3 hpi, but was robustly increased at 24 hpi,

which expanded into the MG in the ±0.5 mm sections at 72 hpi (Fig. 2d). In contrast, CGM11 was

highly expressed in the MG at 0 and 3 hpi, which started to decrease at 24 hpi and only retained

weak expression at 72 hpi, with the expression in the ±0.5 mm sections reduced the most (Fig.

2e). Scrutinizing the biological functions and the connectivity network of the genes enriched in

these two CGMs, we found that CGM9 was mainly involved in stress, injury and immune

responses with the node genes such as *Ecm1* (encoding an extracellular and structural protein

contributing to the maintenance of tissue integrity and homeostasis) and *Emp3* (encoding a

transmembrane protein mediating cell proliferation and cell-cell interactions) (Fig. 2d); whereas

CGM11 was mostly associated with the function and regulation of neuronal synapse with the node

genes such as *Rab3a* (encoding a GTPase involved in vesicle exocytosis and plasm membrane

repair) and *Mdh1* (encoding a cytosolic isozyme in the citric acid cycle) (Fig. 2e). Thus, the

complementary spatiotemporal expression pattern of the two CGMs underscored the interplay of

SCI-induced immune activation and inflammation with the neuronal loss and dysfunction during

SCI. (A full characterization and analysis of the other CGMs, including the spatiotemporal

expression pattern in response to SCI, the connectivity network, the GO term enrichment and the

top 3 upstream regulatory transcription factors (TFs) for each CGM, were shown in Extended

Data Fig. 5 and 6a, b).

To further unravel the regulatory mechanisms that determine the spatiotemporal changes in

gene expression in SCI, we performed single-cell regulatory network inference and clustering

(SCENIC) analysis (Aibar et al., 2017) to analyze transcription regulons that are turned on or off

in response to SCI. Overall, 147 regulons were identified and classified into seven co-expressed

regulon modules (RMs) (Fig. 2f and Supplemental Table 3). The RMs showed distinct anatomic

region- and injury time-specificity (Fig. 2g) as well as diverse spatiotemporal patterns (Fig. 2h and

Extended Data Fig. 6c-h). Taking the WM as an example, RM2 was the main RM at 0 and 3 hpi

(Fig. 2g, h), which was superseded by RM3 at 3 and 24 hpi (Fig. 2g and Extended Data Fig. 6d)

and finally by RM1 at 72 hpi (Fig. 2g and Extended Data Fig. 6c). Along with the change of the

RMs, the main regulons in the WM switched from those represented by the TFs of Sox10, Oligo2

and Srebf2 (RM2), to Fos, Jun and Nfkb1/2 (RM3), and ultimately to Stat3, Stat6 and Irf5 (RM1)

(Fig. 2i). Sox10 and Oligo2 are important TFs in oligodendrocyte differentiation and maturation

(Zhou et al., 2000), and Srebf2 regulates genes involved in cholesterol biosynthesis (Pierrot,

2011); Fos and Jun are key TFs in TGFβ-mediated signaling and regulate cell proliferation,

differentiation and death (Shaulian and Karin, 2001), and Nfkb1/2 is a central activator of genes

related to inflammation and immune functions (Liu et al., 2017); and Stat3, Stat6 and Irf5 mediate

gene expression in response to cell stimuli and regulate cell growth and apoptosis (Yan et al.,

2016). Together, the switch of the main RMs in the WM (Fig. 2g) was in agreement with the

changes of the spatiotemporal clusters in the WM during SCI (Fig. 1k), which might drive the

injury-induced dysfunction of oligodendrocytes and dysregulation of lipid metabolism as well as

the activation of inflammation and cytokine activity in the WM. Of note, RM1 was present in other

spatial domains in addition to the WM at 72 hpi (Extended Data Fig. 6c), suggesting a widespread

upregulation of inflammatory genes in the spinal cord at this time point. Nevertheless, we noticed

that the RMs enriched in the WM were mostly anti-correlated with those enriched in the MG,

indicating that the main anatomic identity of the spinal cord was maintained at the transcription

regulon level during SCI.

Integration of the SCI scRNA-seq data for an *in situ* multicellular gene expression and cell

communication atlas

Because the Visium spot is not single-cell resolution, to allocate the cell type information to the

SCI spatial spots in a comparable manner, we performed deconvolution analysis by robust cell

type decomposition (RCTD) (Cable et al., 2022b; also see Methods) based on one normal and

one injured spinal cord scRNA-seq datasets (Rosenberg et al., 2018; Milich et al., 2021). The

proportions of different cell types detected within a single spatial spot were displayed as a pie

chart and the entire spinal cord section was displayed as an assembly of the spatial pie charts

(Fig. 3a and Extended Data Fig. 7a). We found the overall composition of the main cell types and

their anatomic localizations were in good accordance with the spatial architecture of the spinal

cord. For example, neurons and oligodendrocytes were predominantly localized to the GM and

the WM, respectively (Fig. 3b). Interestingly, we found that the two molecularly-defined astrocyte

subtypes, astrocyte-*Gfap* and astrocyte-*Slc7a10* (Rosenberg et al., 2018), showed distinct and

mutually exclusive distributions in the white (namely, astrocyte-WM) and grey matter (namely,

astrocyte-GM), respectively (Fig. 3b), which represented the general categories of astrocyte

heterogeneity in location of white (fibrous astrocyte) versus grey matter (protoplasmic astrocyte)

(Molofsky et al., 2012).

Upon injury, the cell type composition in the spinal cord demonstrated the spatial domain-

and the injury time-associated alterations (Fig. 3c and Extended Data Fig. 7b, c). For example,

both neurons in the GM and oligodendrocytes in the WM decreased slightly at 24 hpi and

drastically at 72 hpi (Extended Data Fig. 8a, b), indicative of injury-induced neurodegeneration

and demyelination. Homeostatic microglia were substantially reduced at 3 hpi (Extended Data Fig.

8c), whereas reactive microglia emerged at 24 and 72 hpi (Extended Data Fig. 8d).

Oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs) were increased along the time after SCI (Extended Data

Fig. 8e), which might represent a compensatory myelinogenesis response to injury. Several

peripheral immune and inflammatory cell types including myeloid cells, macrophages, monocytes

and neutrophils were induced, which showed up in the injured spinal cord at various time points

after SCI (Extended Data Fig. 8f-i). Meanwhile, fibroblasts, ependymal cells and vascular cells

previously shown to participate in the scar formation (Soderblom et al., 2013; Meletis et al., 2008;

Lacroix et al., 2014) were dramatically activated by SCI (Extended Data Fig. 8j-l). Noteworthily,

our analysis allocated ependymal cells only in one or two spatial spots at the very center of the

uninjured spinal cord, which faithfully reflected the anatomic localization and function of

ependymal cells in lining the central canal of the spinal cord, and developed a diverse

astroependymal distribution later in SCI (Extended Data Fig. 8k). Hence, deciphering *in situ* cell

type compositions and their spatiotemporal dynamics during SCI provided a reliable source for

characterizing SCI-induced cellular responses and interactions.

Cell-cell interaction plays important roles in maintaining tissue integrity and function. To

denote confident *in-situ* cell-cell interactions from our spatial transcriptomic data, we performed a

spatial-aware cell-cell communication analysis (SA-CCC). In brief, spatial colocalization of cell-

type pairs within spots and spot-enriched ligand_receptor (L_R) pairs deduced from CellChat

package (Jin et al., 2021) were subjected to co-occurrence test (Fig. 3d; also see Methods). Upon

injury, both the number of interacting L_R pairs per cell-type pair and the complexity of the network

of co-localized cell types were markedly increased, especially at 72 hpi (Fig. 3e), indicating much

escalated diversity of cell communications induced by SCI. Among all the cell types,

oligodendrocytes, astrocytes and neurons had the most extensive connections and served as the

nodes to interact with other cell types in the intact spinal cord and within 24 hpi. At 72 hpi, while

oligodendrocytes and astrocytes remained as the nodes of the cell-cell interactions, the

connectivity of macrophages, microglia, OPCs and fibroblasts were substantially increased,

suggesting that the latter become the cell communication coordinators in the subacute phase of

SCI.

To pinpoint the specific L_R pairs that regulate the spatiotemporal dynamics of cell-cell

communications, we selected the top L_R pairs in each cell-type pair and categorized them into

three main classes: (Class-I) the expression of the L_R pairs increased or emerged upon injury

(e.g., the *Col_Sdc* families); (Class-II) the expression of the L_R pairs switched from one cell-type

pair to another (e.g., the *Nrxn_Nlgn* families); and (Class-III) the expression of the L_R pairs

decreased or disappeared (e.g., the *Fgf_Fgfr* signaling pathway) (Fig. 3f). Further investigation

revealed that Class-I L_R pairs mainly participated in cell matrix adhesion, cell migration, immune,

angiogenesis and wound healing; Class-II L_R pairs were involved in neuron and synapse

adhesion, dendritogenesis, actin remodeling, and neuroprotection. Class-III L_R pairs functioned

in regulating axon growth and guidance, dendritic spine development, synapse formation and

elimination, and myelination (Fig. 3g).

Compared to the cell-cell communication analysis based solely on scRNA-seq datasets, the

SA-CCC analysis here is featured by identifying both the expression levels and the *in situ*

interacting cell types for a particular L_R pair in a context-dependent manner. For example, the

L_R pair of *Spp1_Cd44* was expressed predominantly in the WM at moderate levels at 0 and 3

hpi, which was increased remarkably at 24 hpi (primarily in the WM and scattered in some GM

regions) and spread throughout the entire spinal cord section at 72 hpi (Fig. 3h). Accompanying

the profound induction of the *Spp1_Cd44* pair expression, the interactions of which cell-type pair(s)

this L_R pair mediated expanded from "oligodendrocyte_astrocyte-WM" to "astrocyte-WM_OPC"

in the WM at 24 hpi and finally to "oligodendrocyte_macrophage" and "OPC_macrophage"

massively in the GM at 72 hpi (Fig. 3f, h), suggesting a multifaceted role of this L_R pair in different

phases of SCI.

Injury induces redistribution and repurposing of astrocytes-WM into the GM of the spinal

cord

Astrocytes are morphologically and functionally diverse and play vital roles in the nervous system

in both physiological and pathological conditions (Escartin et al., 2021). Being a significant portion

in the spinal cord, although total astrocytes only slightly increased during SCI, the proportions of

the two astrocyte subtypes altered dramatically (Fig. 3c). In fact, astrocytes-WM and astrocytes-

GM displayed quite different spatiotemporal distribution changes in response to SCI: astrocytes-

WM were largely unchanged at 3 hpi but were drastically increased at 24 and 72 hpi, at which

they were even present in the GM region; astrocytes-GM were increased at 3 hpi but then

drastically decreased at 24 hpi and became almost undetectable at 72 hpi (Fig. 4a, c). In order to

understand the molecular basis of the difference in the physiological functions and injury

responses of the two subtypes of astrocytes, we performed a series of exploratory data analyses

and also cross-tested with the published scRNA-seq datasets of mouse SCI (Fig. 4e).

First, we examined the gene expression features of the deconvoluted astrocytes-WM and -

GM in the uninjured spinal cord (0 hpi) when they were spatially distinct. Forty-seven DEGs were

identified by cell type-specific inference of differential expression (C-SIDE; Cable et al., 2022a;

also see Methods) (Extended Data Fig. 9a). GO term analysis of the DEGs and their upstream

transcription regulons (Extended Data Fig. 9b, c) pointed to the molecular basis underlying the

functional divergences of these two subtypes: astrocytes-WM were highly associated with the

function of gliogenesis, glial cell development and differentiation, inhibition of neuronal apoptosis

and wound response, with the TFs of the main regulons (e.g., Jund, Sox9, Atf3 and Irf8) enriched

in cell proliferation, differentiation and death, and cellular stress and immune responses (Yáñez

and Goodridge, 2016; Sykes et al., 2018; Molofsky et al., 2013); astrocytes-GM were energetically

active and provided trophic supports to neurons by mediating transmembrane transport of ion,

metabolites and neurotransmitter, with the TFs of the main regulons (e.g., Esrra and Esrrg)

enriched in cellular energy production (Saul et al., 2017; Frattini et al., 2018). Therefore, our

spatial classification of astrocytes-WM and astrocytes-GM corroborates the different physiological

functions of the known astrocyte subtypes in the mammalian nervous system (Sidoryk-

Wegrzynowicz et al., 2011).

Next, we re-analyzed the astrocytes in the scRNA-seq study of mouse SCI (Milich et al.,

2021). UMAP clustering also separated injured astrocyte cells into two distinct clusters at the

molecular level, which were denoted as astrocytes-WM and astrocytes-GM by their shared

signature genes with related spatial spots (e.g., *Gfap* and *Dhrs1* for astrocytes-WM and *Pla2g7*

and *Slc7a10* for astrocytes-GM; Extended Data Fig. 9d, e). We validated the subtype-specific

changes by examining the spatiotemporal expression patterns of the representative marker genes

of these two spatially-defined astrocytes (*Gfap* and *Pla2g7*) in the intact and injured spinal cords

by ISH (Fig. 4b, d). To further confirm this injury-induced cellular change at the protein level, we

performed immunostaining of the spinal astrocytes with anti-GFAP. The results not only verified

the predominant localization and fibrous appearance of GFAP⁺-astrocytes in the WM of the

uninjured spinal cord but also showed a remarkable emergence of GFAP⁺-astrocytes in the GM

after injury, and these GM-relocated GFAP⁺-astrocytes displayed a hypertrophic morphology

(Extended Data Fig. 9f).

The loss of astrocytes-GM at 24 and 72 hpi and the striking occupation of astrocytes-WM in

the GM prompted us to examine the possible role of GM-relocated astrocytes. By analyzing the

astrocyte-neuron interactions in the GM region, we revealed a clear switch of neuron-interacting

astrocytes from "astrocytes-GM" to "astrocytes-WM" in the GM after injury (Fig. 4f), accompanied

by the switch of the spatial L_R pair of *Nrxn3_Nlgn3* following the interacting cell-type pairs. The

Nrxn3_Nlgn3 is well-known for mediating astrocyte-neuron interaction and regulating astrocyte

maturation as well as synapse formation and function (Stogsdill et al., 2017). These findings

strongly suggested a functional relay of the original astrocytes-GM to the GM-relocated

astrocytes-WM in the interaction with neurons in the GM after SCI.

To avoid confusion due to the discrepancy in the anatomic localization and the transcriptional

features, we designated the injury-induced, GM-relocated astrocytes as astrocytes-GMii. To

address the question whether these astrocytes-GMii originated from local cell division or remote

cell migration, we calculated and compared the proliferation score and the migration score at the

section level (Fig. 4g and see Methods) and for each cell type (Extended Data Fig. 9g-i). The

results showed that significant cell proliferation was detected in astrocytes-WM, reactive microglia

and other cell types only at 72 hpi (Fig. 4g and Extended Data Fig. 9g, i), much later than the time

when a large number of astrocytes-GMii emerged (Fig. 4a). In contrast, the migration score

started to increase in astrocytes-WM as early as 3 hpi, which kept rising and expanded into the

GM at 72 hpi (Fig. 4h and Extended Data Fig. 9h). Notably, astrocytes-GM persistently showed

the low proliferation and migration scores with a minimal increase of migration at 3 hpi (Extended

Data Fig. 9g, h). In addition, our analysis of the SCI scRNA-seq dataset (Milich et al., 2021) also

indicated a markedly higher migration ability associated with astrocytes-WM than astrocytes-GM

(Extended Data Fig. 9j). Taken together, astrocytes-GMii likely originated from astrocytes-WM,

which migrated into the GM at the early phases of SCI and proliferated to replenish for the loss of

original astrocytes-GM at the later phases.

The astrocytes-GMii are molecularly distinct from the original astrocytes-WM/-GM and

exhibit a diverse range of functional heterogeneity

We were keen to know what unique molecular features astrocytes-GMii possess that made them

distinct from the other astrocytes-WM and drove them into the GM in response to SCI. To this

end, we subjected all astrocytes-WM-containing spots in our spatial transcriptomic data to a

pseudotime analysis (see Methods). To exclude potential confounding influences from other cell

types in the same spot, only the 317 marker genes used to define astrocytes in the SCI scRNA-

seq deconvolution (Milich et al., 2021) were included. Despite considerable overlapping in their

expression patterns, these 317 marker genes could be clustered into 4 spatiotemporally-separate

astrocyte (SA) gene groups (Fig. 4i and Supplemental Table 4). Among them, the SA-1 group

showed specifically high expression in the GM at 24 and 72 hpi, while the SA-4 group also showed

increased expression in the injured GM, although to a lesser extent (Fig. 4i), which together might

spatially define the astrocyte-GMii features. To assess whether these proposed astrocyte-GMii

signature genes could distinguish astrocytes-GMii from other astrocytes-WM, we re-clustered the

astrocytes in the single-cell study (Milich et al., 2021). Indeed, the *Gfap*-positive single-cell

astrocytes were gated into two distinct populations based on the SA-1 and SA-4 gene sets,

astrocytes-GMii and the rest astrocytes-WM (Extended Data Fig. 9k), which were well separated

from each other in the UMAP analysis, with one significantly presenting the GM spatial features

and the other showing the WM (Fig. 4j).

To facilitate the precise sorting of injured astrocytes, we expand the spatially-defined

molecular features of astrocytes-GMii by identifying signature genes in the whole single-cell

dataset based on the aforementioned classifications. We also examined the surface markers, and

the upstream TFs of these different astrocyte populations (Extended Data Fig. 9l-n). It was worth

noting that astrocytes-GMii were strongly associated with the increased activity of the Irf and Stat

families of TFs, pointing to the immune-triggered transition of astrocytes-WM to astrocytes-GMii.

All together, these findings based on the expanded signature genes demonstrated that our

spatiotemporal transcriptomic analysis could provide valuable metrics to annotate independent

cell states that are often hidden to common single-cell approaches.

In order to further understand the molecular reprogramming underlying the transition of

astrocytes-WM to astrocytes-GMii, we performed pseudo-trajectory analysis by slingshot (Street

et al., 2018) in the SCI single-cell dataset. We identified continuous transitive structures between

associated clusters in the low dimensional data (Fig. 4k) and highlighted the most dramatically

upregulated genes during this transition (Fig. 4l). One of such genes was *Igfbp2* (insulin-like

growth factor binding protein 2) and we performed fluorescence ISH (FISH) of *Igfbp2* together

with immunostaining of GFAP to confirm that astrocytes-GMii, represented by the *Igfbp2*$^+$-GFAP$^+$

double-positive cells, were specifically induced in the GM of injured spinal cord especially at 72

hpi (Fig. 4m). Of note, the GFAP$^+$ signal displayed a pattern invading from the WM into the GM,

which again indicated the WM-origin of astrocytes-GMii. The *Igfbp2*$^+$ signal appeared to emerge

within the GM and was drastically increased at 72 hpi, suggesting that the transition to astrocytes-

GMii occurred after astrocytes-WM had arrived in the GM.

To explicate the biological significance of this switch, we compared the DEGs of the three

populations of astrocytes-WM, -GM and -GMii in our spatial transcriptomic data (Supplemental

Table 5). Astrocytes-GMii appeared to share several neurotrophic functions in common with

astrocytes-GM (Fig. 4n), suggesting a functional replacement of astrocytes-GM by astrocytes-

GMii. In addition, the astrocyte-GMii signature genes such as *Vegfa*, *Gpr37l1*, *Fgfr3* and *Fgfr1*

were associated with a protective role in neurological disorders (Kaufmann et al., 2022). Finally,

re-analysis of the astrocytes-*Gfap*$^+$ in the SCI scRNA-seq dataset (Milich et al., 2021) by sub-

clustering (Fig. 4o) using the astrocyte-GMii spatial features (see Methods and Supplemental

Table 6) identified 3 sub-clusters of astrocytes with high astrocyte-GMii scores (Fig. 4p). The DEG

and GO term analyses indicated that these three sub-clusters were each enriched in the functions

of RNA splicing and processing, cell migration, and immune response and sterol biosynthesis,

respectively (Fig. 4q). Thus, the astrocytes-GMii were not a homogeneous population but rather

represented a diversity of injury-induced, WM-originated, GM-relocated sub-groups of astrocytes,

and they were thereby able to simultaneously execute the seemingly contradictory roles of both

pro-inflammatory and neurotropic functions in SCI. Future investigation is warranted for the finer

classification of the astrocytes-GMii and understanding of their spatial features and functional

implications.

Discussion

The spinal cord is a highly structured organ composed of various cell types that are well organized

to perform complicated yet interdependent physiological functions. Two earlier spatial

transcriptomic studies of the mammalian spinal cord identified pathway dynamics during the

disease progression of ALS (Maniatis et al., 2019) and described various cell transcriptional states

over the course of injury-induced scar formation (Gong et al., 2022). Meanwhile, several snRNA-

and scRNA-seq studies have demonstrated complex cellular heterogeneity and interactions in the

mouse spinal cord (Rosenberg et al., 2018; Sathyamurthy et al., 2018; Zeisel et al., 2018; Milich

et al., 2021; Li et al., 2022b; Matson et al., 2022). Thus, how the diverse cell types respond and

cross-talk to one another in a spatial- and context-dependent manner in the early phases of SCI

is central to the understanding of the molecular events that drive the pathological process and yet

remain incompletely understood. Here, we implemented the spatial transcriptomic analysis of a

time serial of transverse spinal cord sections in the acute and subacute phases of SCI. We

characterized and analyzed the spatiotemporal changes in gene expression, TF activities, regulon

networks, cell compositions as well as cell-cell communications in SCI. To demonstrate the utility

of the rich information generated in this study, we have set up an interactive web-portal for other

researchers to explore *in situ* gene expression dynamics in SCI (*the website will be accessible to*

the public upon the acceptance of the manuscript).

Anatomic heterogeneity in gene expression revealed by the spatial transcriptomic analysis in

this study allowed the identification of four molecularly-defined, spatially-distinct domains of the

spinal cord, and a large number of domain-enriched signature genes were uncovered in finer

details. Interestingly, we found that the WM responded to injury more robustly and sophisticatedly

than the GM, as the main molecular features of the WM shifted twice from Cluster 1 to 4 and to

5, whereas the GM changed only once from Cluster 2 to 3 (Fig. 1). Further, the WM appeared to

respond earlier than the GM, evidenced by the fast activation of the early response gene modules

(e.g., CGM13 and CGM22) in the WM but not GM at 3 hpi, whose cellular functions were enriched

in the MAPK/ERK signaling cascade, cytokine production and other immune and inflammatory

responses (Fig. 2). Thus, the WM is not a "passive" tissue that merely insulates the GM and

responds secondarily to neuronal damage. Rather, the WM and the cell types within it behave as

the "first responders" and play a more active, primary and probably deciding role in SCI than we

thought.

SCI triggers multicellular gene expression changes in a temporally and spatially coordinated

manner. By combining with scRNA-seq data, we illustrated a systematic overview of *in situ* cell

responses during SCI, which is more authentic and reliable compared with the single-cell data

that are limited by the sampling bias in the tissue dissociation procedure and low-coverage

sequencing (Denisenko et al., 2020). Besides, the cell communication based on the single-cell

data lacks the actual spatial constraint so that the calculated "interacting cells" may localize far

apart and a large portion of the speculated cell-cell interactions cannot occur in physiological

context. To amend this, we took the advantage of the spatial transcriptomics and developed a

new computation strategy (SA-CCC) to unfold the cell communication by simultaneous evaluation

of the physical distance between any cell-type pair and the locally aggregated expression level of

a L_R pair that is supposed to express in this cell-type pair (Fig. 3). Thus, our spatial

transcriptomic analysis not only identifies distinct categories of cell-cell interactions that were

rigorously restricted to spatial domain or injury time in SCI, but also provides a useful toolset (*will

be available to the public upon the acceptance of the manuscript*) to evaluate cell-cell

communications in the comprehensive multicellular context in biological processes and diseases.

The interregional and intraregional heterogeneity of astrocytes is widely recognized in both

the brain and spinal cord (Yoon et al., 2017; Hasel et al., 2021). Different subtypes of astrocytes

display distinct morphologies, physical functions and gene expression patterns, and the

heterogeneity is closely related with the local environment. By leveraging the spatiotemporal

transcriptomic allocation and profiling different cell types and subtypes, we uncovered a group of

injury-induced, WM-originated, GM-relocated astrocytes (astrocytes-GMii). These cells

expressed both the reactive astrocyte marker *Gfap* and the IGF signaling factor *Igfbp2*, and they

were molecularly distinct from the original astrocytes in the WM or the GM of the intact spinal cord

(Fig. 4). We explicitly showed that these GM-relocated astrocytes were migrated from the WM,

although not necessarily from the same segmental level of the injured spinal cord (Okada et al.,

2006) and unlikely through tangential astrocyte migration that was absent in adult spinal cord

even after injury (Tsai et al., 2012). The pseudotime trajectory and the DEG analysis strongly

suggested that the local environment in the GM likely triggered the transition of the migrated

astrocytes-WM to astrocytes-GMii, and the latter shared certain gene expression similarity with

the original astrocytes-GM, especially regarding the neurotrophic function in maintaining neuronal

synapse. However, the astrocytes-GMii were not homogeneous and the molecular features of

only one sub-population of these astrocytes appeared to compensate for the loss of the original

astrocytes-GM, while the other two sub-populations were more active in stress, immune and

inflammatory responses that are potentially detrimental. Thus, our findings not only provided an

explanation to the functional divergence of astrocytes-GMii, but also exemplified how the

spatiotemporal transcriptomic signatures combined with single-cell resolution may facilitate

subtype annotation and functional interrogation of astrocytes as well as for other cell types in SCI

and other diseased conditions. In addition, given that repopulation of mouse microglia was

recently shown to promote adult neurogenesis in traumatic brain injury (Willis et al., 2020), it is

tempting to propose that future efforts are warranted to induce astrocytes-GMii and manipulate

them to adopt a neuroprotective and pro-regenerative state that may aid spinal cord repair.

Taken together, this study provides the most comprehensive gene expression profiling of SCI

(to the best of our knowledge), involving injury time, distance, directionality, anatomic domain, cell

type and other dimensions. It disentangles the complex transcriptional programs induced by SCI

in the tissue context and establishes a spatiotemporal transcriptomic landscape for in-depth

research in the future, providing an open data resource and a platform for identifying potential

targets for therapeutic intervention of SCI.

488   Acknowledgements

489   We thank Drs. J. Hu, Z. He, C. Zhang, and Misses. J Zhu and Z. Sun for assistance in mouse

490   operation, Dr. Q. Wang for help with cryosection, Mr. G. Zhang for technical support with 10x

491   Genomics Visium spatial RNA-seq, Dr. X. Sun for help with ISH, and Drs. Z. He, C. Liu and J.

492   Yuan for comments and critical reading of the manuscript.

493   Fundings

This study was supported by grants from National Key R&D Program of China (2018YFA0801402

to G.P.); the National Natural Science Foundation of China (NSFC) (31970697 and 32270812 to

Y.F., 32270854 to G.P., and 82071372 to A. L.); the Science and Technology Commission of

Shanghai Municipality (201409003300, 20490712600 and 2019SHZDZX02 to Y.F.); the

"Strategic Priority Research Program" of the Chinese Academy of Science (XDA16020404) to G.

P.; Natural Science Foundation of Guangdong Province (2021A1515011231 to A.L. and

2019B151502054 to G.P.), the Outstanding Scholar Program of Bioland Laboratory

(2018GZR110102002) and the Science and Technology Program of Guangzhou (202007030012)

to A. L.

503   Author Contributions

504   AL, GP and YF conceived the research; ZW, SS, and YF designed the experiments; ZW, SS and

505   TL performed the experiments and analyzed the data; AL, WY and YL contributed important

506   reagents; ZL and GP performed the bioinformatic analyses; ZW, ZL, TL, GC, KZ, GP, AL and YF

507   interpreted the results; ZW, ZL, TL, GP and YF prepared the Figures; ZW, ZL, TL, AL, GP and

508   YF wrote the paper. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

509   Competing Interests

510   The authors declare no competing interests.

511   Data and Materials Availability

All data are available in the main text or the supplementary materials. All unique and stable

reagents generated in this study are available from the corresponding authors with a completed

Material Transfer Agreement (MTA).

Supplemental Information

Supplemental information includes Methods and Materials, Extended Data Fig. 1-10 and

Supplemental Tables 1-6.

REFERENCES *(≤50 references)*

Ahuja, C.S., Wilson, J.R., Nori, S., Kotter, M.R.N., Druschel, C., Curt, A., and Fehlings, M.G. (2017). Traumatic spinal cord injury. Nat Rev Dis Primers. *3*, 17018.

Aibar, S., González-Blas, C.B., Moerman, T., Huynh-Thu, V.A., Imrichova, H., Hulselmans, G., Rambow, F., Marine, J.-C., Geurts, P., Aerts, J., et al. (2017). SCENIC: single-cell regulatory network inference and clustering. Nat Methods. *14*, 1083-1086.

Anjum, A., Yazid, M.D., Fauzi Daud, M., Idris, J., Ng, A.M.H., Selvi Naicker, A., Ismail, O.H.R., Athi Kumar, R.K., and Lokanathan, Y. (2020). Spinal Cord Injury: Pathophysiology, Multimolecular Interactions, and Underlying Recovery Mechanisms. Int J Mol Sci. *21*, 7533.

Asp, M., Giacomello, S., Larsson, L., Wu, C., Fürth, D., Qian, X., Wärdell, E., Custodio, J., Reimegård, J., Salmén, F., et al. (2019). A Spatiotemporal Organ-Wide Gene Expression and Cell Atlas of the Developing Human Heart. Cell *179*, 1647-1660.e19.

Bensellam, M., Montgomery, M.K., Luzuriaga, J., Chan, J.Y., and Laybutt, D.R. (2015). Inhibitor of differentiation proteins protect against oxidative stress by regulating the antioxidant-mitochondrial response in mouse beta cells. Diabetologia *58*, 758-770.

Cable, D.M., Murray, E., Shanmugam, V., Zhang, S., Zou, L.S., Diao, M., Chen, H., Macosko, E.Z., Irizarry, R.A., and Chen, F. (2022a). Cell type-specific inference of differential expression in spatial transcriptomics. Nat Methods. *19*, 1076-1087.

Cable, D.M., Murray, E., Zou, L.S., Goeva, A., Macosko, E.Z., Chen, F., and Irizarry, R.A. (2022b). Robust decomposition of cell type mixtures in spatial transcriptomics. Nat Biotechnol. *40*, 517-526.

Chen, W.-T., Lu, A., Craessaerts, K., Pavie, B., Sala Frigerio, C., Corthout, N., Qian, X., Laláková, J., Kühnemund, M., Voytyuk, I., et al. (2020). Spatial Transcriptomics and In Situ Sequencing to Study Alzheimer's Disease. Cell *182*, 976-991.e19.

Denisenko, E., Guo, B.B., Jones, M., Hou, R., de Kock, L., Lassmann, T., Poppe, D., Clément,

O., Simmons, R.K., Lister, R., et al. (2020). Systematic assessment of tissue dissociation

and storage biases in single-cell and single-nucleus RNA-seq workflows. Genome Biol. *21*,

130.

Escartin, C., Galea, E., Lakatos, A., O'Callaghan, J.P., Petzold, G.C., Serrano-Pozo, A.,

Steinhäuser, C., Volterra, A., Carmignoto, G., Agarwal, A., et al. (2021). Reactive astrocyte

nomenclature, definitions, and future directions. Nature Neurosci. *24*, 312-325.

Fawkner-Corbett, D., Antanaviciute, A., Parikh, K., Jagielowicz, M., Gerós, A.S., Gupta, T.,

Ashley, N., Khamis, D., Fowler, D., Morrissey, E., et al. (2021). Spatiotemporal analysis of

human intestinal development at single-cell resolution. Cell *184*, 810-826.e23.

Frattini, V., Pagnotta, S.M., Tala, Fan, J.J., Russo, M.V., Lee, S.B., Garofano, L., Zhang, J., Shi,

P., Lewis, G., et al. (2018). A metabolic function of FGFR3-TACC3 gene fusions in cancer.

Nature *553*, 222-227.

Gong, L., Gu, Y., Han, X., Luan, C., Liu, C., Wang, X., Sun, Y., Zheng, M., Fang, M., Yang, S.,

et al. (2022). Spatiotemporal Dynamics of the Molecular Expression Pattern and Intercellular

Interactions in the Glial Scar Response to Spinal Cord Injury. Neurosci Bull. 1-32.

Hasel, P., Rose, I.V.L., Sadick, J.S., Kim, R.D., and Liddelow, S.A. (2021). Neuroinflammatory

astrocyte subtypes in the mouse brain. Nat Neurosci. *24*, 1475-1487.

Jin, S., Guerrero-Juarez, C.F., Zhang, L., Chang, I., Ramos, R., Kuan, C.-H., Myung, P., Plikus,

M.V., and Nie, Q. (2021). Inference and analysis of cell-cell communication using CellChat.

Nat Commun. *12*, 1088.

Kaufmann, M., Schaupp, A.-L., Sun, R., Coscia, F., Dendrou, C.A., Cortes, A., Kaur, G., Evans,

H.G., Mollbrink, A., Navarro, J.F., et al. (2022). Identification of early neurodegenerative

pathways in progressive multiple sclerosis. Nat Neurosci. *25*, 944-955.

Lacroix, S., Hamilton, L.K., Vaugeois, A., Beaudoin, S., Breault-Dugas, C., Pineau, I., Lévesque,

S.A., Grégoire, C.-A., and Fernandes, K.J.L. (2014). Central Canal Ependymal Cells

Proliferate Extensively in Response to Traumatic Spinal Cord Injury but Not Demyelinating

Lesions. PLoS One *9*, e85916.

Langfelder, P., and Horvath, S. (2008). WGCNA: an R package for weighted correlation network

analysis. BMC Bioinformatics *9*, 559.

Li, C., Wu, Z., Zhou, L., Shao, J., Hu, X., Xu, W., Ren, Y., Zhu, X., Ge, W., Zhang, K., et al.

(2022a). Temporal and spatial cellular and molecular pathological alterations with single-cell

resolution in the adult spinal cord after injury. Signal Transduct Target Ther. *7*, 65.

Li, L., Zhou, J., Han, L., Wu, X., Shi, Y., Cui, W., Zhang, S., Hu, Q., Wang, J., Bai, H., et al.

(2022b). The Specific Role of Reactive Astrocytes in Stroke. Front Cell Neurosci. *16*, 850866.

Li, Z., and Peng, G. (2021). Spatial transcriptomics: new dimension of understanding biological

complexity. Biophysics Reports *7*, 1-17.

Liu, T., Zhang, L., Joo, D., and Sun, S.-C. (2017). NF-κB signaling in inflammation. Sig Transduct

Target Ther *2*, 17023.

Macdonald, C.D., Falconer, A.M.D., Chan, C.M., Wilkinson, D.J., Skelton, A., Reynard, L.,

Litherland, G.J., Europe-Finner, G.N., and Rowan, A.D. (2018). Cytokine-induced cysteine-

serine-rich nuclear protein-1 (CSRNP1) selectively contributes to MMP1 expression in

human chondrocytes. PLoS One *13*, e0207240.

Maniatis, S., Äijö, T., Vickovic, S., Braine, C., Kang, K., Mollbrink, A., Fagegaltier, D.,

Andrusivová, Ž., Saarenpää, S., Saiz-Castro, G., et al. (2019). Spatiotemporal dynamics of

molecular pathology in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. Science *364*, 89-93.

Matson, K.J.E., Russ, D.E., Kathe, C., Hua, I., Maric, D., Ding, Y., Krynitsky, J., Pursley, R.,

Sathyamurthy, A., Squair, J.W., et al. (2022). Single cell atlas of spinal cord injury in mice

reveals a pro-regenerative signature in spinocerebellar neurons. Nat Commun. *13*, 5628.

Meletis, K., Barnabé-Heider, F., Carlén, M., Evergren, E., Tomilin, N., Shupliakov, O., and Frisén,

J. (2008). Spinal Cord Injury Reveals Multilineage Differentiation of Ependymal Cells. PLoS

Biol. *6*, e182.

Milich, L.M., Choi, J.S., Ryan, C., Cerqueira, S.R., Benavides, S., Yahn, S.L., Tsoulfas, P., and

Lee, J.K. (2021). Single-cell analysis of the cellular heterogeneity and interactions in the

injured mouse spinal cord. J Exp Med. *218*, e20210040.

Molofsky, A.V., Krenick, R., Ullian, E., Tsai, H., Deneen, B., Richardson, W.D., Barres, B.A., and

Rowitch, D.H. (2012). Astrocytes and disease: a neurodevelopmental perspective. Genes

Dev. *26*, 891-907.

Molofsky, A.V., Glasgow, S.M., Chaboub, L.S., Tsai, H., Murnen, A.T., Kelley, K.W., Fancy,

S.P.J., Yuen, T.J., Madireddy, L., Baranzini, S., et al. (2013). Expression profiling of Aldh1l1-

precursors in the developing spinal cord reveals glial lineage-specific genes and direct Sox9-

Nfe2l1 interactions. Glia *61*, 1518-1532.

Monje, M. (2018). Myelin Plasticity and Nervous System Function. Annu Rev Neurosci.*41*, 61-

76.

Moor, A.E., and Itzkovitz, S. (2017). Spatial transcriptomics: paving the way for tissue-level

systems biology. Curr Opin Biotechnol. *46*, 126-133.

Noristani, H.N., Sabourin, J.C., Boukhaddaoui, H., Chan-Seng, E., Gerber, Y.N., and Perrin, F.E.

(2016). Spinal cord injury induces astroglial conversion towards neuronal lineage. Mol

Neurodegener. *11*, 68.

Okada, S., Nakamura, M., Katoh, H., Miyao, T., Shimazaki, T., Ishii, K., Yamane, J., Yoshimura,

A., Iwamoto, Y., Toyama, Y., et al. (2006). Conditional ablation of Stat3 or Socs3 discloses

a dual role for reactive astrocytes after spinal cord injury. Nat Medi. *12*, 829-834.

Ortiz, C., Navarro, J.F., Jurek, A., Märtin, A., Lundeberg, J., and Meletis, K. (2020). Molecular

atlas of the adult mouse brain. Sci Adv. *6*, eabb3446.

Peng, G., Suo, S., Cui, G., Yu, F., Wang, R., Chen, J., Chen, S., Liu, Z., Chen, G., Qian, Y., et

al. (2019). Molecular architecture of lineage allocation and tissue organization in early mouse

embryo. Nature *572*, 528-532.

Pierrot, N. (2011). Amyloid precursor protein regulates SREBP-mediated neuronal lipid
homeostasis in mice and humans. Alzheimers Dement. *7*, S572.

Rao, A., Barkley, D., França, G.S., and Yanai, I. (2021). Exploring tissue architecture using
spatial transcriptomics. Nature *596*, 211-220.

Ratz, M., von Berlin, L., Larsson, L., Martin, M., Westholm, J.O., La Manno, G., Lundeberg, J.,
and Frisén, J. (2022). Clonal relations in the mouse brain revealed by single-cell and spatial
transcriptomics. Nat Neurosci. *25*, 285-294.

Rosenberg, A.B., Roco, C.M., Muscat, R.A., Kuchina, A., Sample, P., Yao, Z., Graybuck, L.T.,
Peeler, D.J., Mukherjee, S., Chen, W., et al. (2018). Single-cell profiling of the developing
mouse brain and spinal cord with split-pool barcoding. Science *360*, 176-182.

Sathyamurthy, A., Johnson, K.R., Matson, K.J.E., Dobrott, C.I., Li, L., Ryba, A.R., Bergman, T.B.,
Kelly, M.C., Kelley, M.W., and Levine, A.J. (2018). Massively Parallel Single Nucleus
Transcriptional Profiling Defines Spinal Cord Neurons and Their Activity during Behavior. Cell
Reports *22*, 2216-2225.

Saul, M.C., Seward, C.H., Troy, J.M., Zhang, H., Sloofman, L.G., Lu, X., Weisner, P.A., Caetano-
Anolles, D., Sun, H., Zhao, S.D., et al. (2017). Transcriptional regulatory dynamics drive
coordinated metabolic and neural response to social challenge in mice. Genome Res. *27*,
959-972.

Shaulian, E., and Karin, M. (2001). AP-1 in cell proliferation and survival. Oncogene *20*, 2390-
2400.

Sidoryk-wegrzynowicz, M., Wegrzynowicz, M., Lee, E., Bowman, A.B., and Aschner, M. (2011).
Role of Astrocytes in Brain Function and Disease. Toxicol Pathol. *39*, 115-123.

Soderblom, C., Luo, X., Blumenthal, E., Bray, E., Lyapichev, K., Ramos, J., Krishnan, V., Lai-
Hsu, C., Park, K.K., Tsoulfas, P., et al. (2013). Perivascular Fibroblasts Form the Fibrotic
Scar after Contusive Spinal Cord Injury. J Neurosci. *33*, 13882-13887.

Stogsdill, J.A., Ramirez, J., Liu, D., Kim, Y.H., Baldwin, K.T., Enustun, E., Ejikeme, T., Ji, R.-R.,

and Eroglu, C. (2017). Astrocytic neuroligins control astrocyte morphogenesis and

synaptogenesis. Nature *551*, 192-197.

Street, K., Risso, D., Fletcher, R.B., Das, D., Ngai, J., Yosef, N., Purdom, E., and Dudoit, S.

(2018). Slingshot: cell lineage and pseudotime inference for single-cell transcriptomics. BMC

Genomics *19*, 477.

Sykes, S.M., Di Marcantonio, D., Martinez, E., Huhn, J., Gupta, A., and Mistry, R. (2018). JUN

and ATF3 Regulate the Transcriptional Output of the Unfolded Protein Response to Support

Acute Myeloid Leukemia. Blood *132*, 1327.

Tavares-Ferreira, D., Shiers, S., Ray, P.R., Wangzhou, A., Jeevakumar, V., Sankaranarayanan,

I., Cervantes, A.M., Reese, J.C., Chamessian, A., Copits, B.A., et al. (2022). Spatial

transcriptomics of dorsal root ganglia identifies molecular signatures of human nociceptors.

Sci Transl Med. *14*, eabj8186.

Tsai, H.-H. ., Li, H., Fuentealba, L.C., Molofsky, A.V., Taveira-Marques, R., Zhuang, H., Tenney,

A., Murnen, A.T., Fancy, S.P.J., Merkle, F., et al. (2012). Regional Astrocyte Allocation

Regulates CNS Synaptogenesis and Repair. Science *337*, 358-362.

Wang, J.-J., Ye, G., Ren, H., An, C.-R., Huang, L., Chen, H., Zhang, H., Lin, J.-X., Shen, X.,

Heng, B.C., et al. (2021). Molecular Expression Profile of Changes in Rat Acute Spinal Cord

Injury. Front Cell Neurosci. *15*, 720271.

Willemsen, L., and Winther, M.P. (2020). Macrophage subsets in atherosclerosis as defined by

single-cell technologies. J Pathol. *250*, 705-714.

Williams, C.G., Lee, H.J., Asatsuma, T., Vento-Tormo, R., and Haque, A. (2022). An introduction

to spatial transcriptomics for biomedical research. Genome Med. *14*, 68.

Willis, E.F., MacDonald, K.P.A., Nguyen, Q.H., Garrido, A.L., Gillespie, E.R., Harley, S.B.R.,

Bartlett, P.F., Schroder, W.A., Yates, A.G., Anthony, D.C., et al. (2020). Repopulating

Microglia Promote Brain Repair in an IL-6-Dependent Manner. Cell *180*, 833-846.e16.

Yan, D., Wang, H.-W., Bowman, Robert L., and Joyce, Johanna A. (2016). STAT3 and STAT6

Signaling Pathways Synergize to Promote Cathepsin Secretion from Macrophages via IRE1α

Activation. Cell Rep. *16*, 2914-2927.

Yáñez, A., and Goodridge, H.S. (2016). Interferon regulatory factor 8 and the regulation of

neutrophil, monocyte, and dendritic cell production. Curr Opin Hematol. *23*, 11-17.

Yoon, H., Walters, G., Paulsen, A.R., and Scarisbrick, I.A. (2017). Astrocyte heterogeneity

across the brain and spinal cord occurs developmentally, in adulthood and in response to

demyelination. PLoS One *12*, e0180697.

Zeisel, A., Hochgerner, H., Lönnerberg, P., Johnsson, A., Memic, F., van der Zwan, J., Häring,

M., Braun, E., Borm, L.E., La Manno, G., et al. (2018). Molecular Architecture of the Mouse

Nervous System. Cell *174*, 999-1014.e22.

Zhang, K., Jiang, M., and Fang, Y. (2021). The Drama of Wallerian Degeneration: The Cast,

Crew, and Script. Annu Rev Genet. *55*, 93-113.

Zhou, Q., Wang, S., and Anderson, D.J. (2000). Identification of a Novel Family of

Oligodendrocyte Lineage-Specific Basic Helix-Loop-Helix Transcription Factors. Neuron *25*,

331-343.

FIGURE LEGENDS (< 250 words each)

Fig. 1. Spatiotemporal transcriptomics and molecular clusters of mouse SCI using Visium

(**a**) A carton of the mouse SCI model and the spinal cord sections obtained in this spatial

transcriptomic study. (**b**) A schematic of the Visium Gene Expression slide and the acquisition of

the mouse SCI sections for RNA-sequencing. (**c**) The main workflow of the spatial transcriptomic

data analyses. (**d**) The UMAP plot of the 22,820 transcriptomic profiles (one profile for each spatial

spot) of all the SCI samples identified 7 spatiotemporal clusters. (**e**) The clusters are color coded

and shown in the spatial view of the spinal cord sections at the indicated locations and time points

after injury. (**f**) A cartoon showing the main anatomic regions of the spinal cord: WM, white matter;

MG, middle grey; DH, dorsal horn; VH, ventral horn. (**g-j**) The UMAP plots of the spatial spots

were colored according to anatomic region (**g**), time after injury (**h**), directionality (**i**) and distance

to the injury site (**j**). (**k**) Quantification of the numbers of the spatial spots in each cluster at the

indicated time points. (**l**) The heatmap showing the expression levels of the top 10 CEGs (left)

and the dot-plot showing the top 5 GO terms (right) for each of the 7 spatiotemporal clusters. (**m**)

The spatial view of the gene expression levels in the spatiotemporal transcriptomics (ST, left) and

in situ hybridization (ISH, right) of four representative anatomic markers as indicated. Scale bar:

500 μm. SCI, spinal cord injury; hpi: hours post injury; UMI, unique molecular identifier; UMAP,

uniform manifold approximation and projection; CEGs, cluster-enriched genes; GO terms, gene

ontology terms; *p*. adjust, adjusted *p* value.

Fig. 2. Spatiotemporal analyses of gene co-expression dynamics and regulatory networks

in SCI

(**a**) Heatmap showing the pairwise-correlation network of the 33 SCI spatiotemporal CGMs. (**b**)

The Pearson correlation coefficients between each CGM and the four anatomic domains at the

indicated time points in SCI. (**c-e**) The molecular features of three representative CGMs: CGM13

(**c**), CGM9 (**d**) and CGM11 (**e**). From left to right: Left, the spatial view of average levels of the

genes expressed in the indicated CGM during the process of SCI; middle, the ridge plot

quantitatively illustrating the density distribution of the CGM expression within the 4 anatomic

domains at the indicated time points of SCI; right, the representative GO terms (top) and the gene

network showing the highest 50 connectivity weights (bottom) of the indicated CGM. The number

of genes in each CGM is shown in the parentheses. (**f**) The CSI heatmap of 147 transcription

regulons grouped into 7 RMs by hierarchical clustering. (**g**) The heatmap of the overall activity of

each RM enriched in the four anatomic domains at the indicated time points of SCI. (**h**) The spatial

view of the average regulon activity of RM2 at the indicated time points of SCI. The number of

regulons in RM2 is shown in the parentheses. (**i**) The Pearson correlation networks and the CSI

connectivity degree of the transcription regulons within and across the 7 RMs. CGM, co-

expressed gene module; CSI, connectivity specificity index; RM, regulon module.

Fig. 3. SCI-induced multicellular transcriptional responses and cell-cell communications

(**a**) The spatial view of the proportions of cell types (indicated as pie chart) in each spot of the

uninjured spinal cord (0 hpi, -0.5 mm). (**b**) The spatial distributions of the representative spinal

cord cell types from (a); for more, see Extended Data Fig. 7-8. (**c**) The fractions (%) of different

cell types at indicated time points in SCI. (**d**) A schematic cartoon illustrating the main procedure

for the spatial-aware cell-cell communication (SA-CCC) analysis that evaluates *in situ* intercellular

communication by testing the statistical significance of the co-occurrence of a cell-type pair and

a L_R pair. (**e**) The SA-CCC networks at each indicated time point in SCI. The size of the orange

circles represents the number of potential L_R pairs expressed in each cell-type pair. For the

connecting lines, the thickness denotes the GeoM of the significance of the interaction and the

shade indicates the average expression levels of the L_R pairs for each cell-type pair. (**f**) Dot

plots showing the top 2 (*p*. value) interacting L_R pairs in each cell-type pair at the indicated time

points in SCI. Color indicates the average expression levels of each L_R pair that are expressed

in the indicated, colocalized cell-type pairs. (**g**) The three major classes of SCI-induced changes

in the expression of the L_R pairs, summarized from (f). (**h**) Left: the spatial views of the

interaction of a representative Class-I L_R pair *Spp1_Cd44* in (g); right: the spatial distributions

of the major cell-type pairs hosting the L_R pair of *Spp1_Cd44* along the time during SCI. Astro,

astrocytes; WM, white matter; GM, grey matter; H-Microglia, homeostatic microglia; R-Microglia,

reactive microglia; SA-CCC, spatial-aware cell-cell communication; GeoM, geometric mean; EM,

assembly mean; L_R pair, ligand_receptor pair.

Fig. 4. Identification and molecular profiling of the SCI-induced astrocytes-GMii with

spatial transcriptomics and scRNA-seq integration

(**a-d**) The spatiotemporal distributions astrocytes-WM (**a**) and astrocytes-GM (**c**), validated with

ISH of *Gfap* for astrocytes-WM (**b**) and *Pla2g7* for astrocytes-GM (**d**). Scale bars: 500 μm. (**e**) An

overview of the comprehensive spatial and single-cell analyses (in Fig. 4f-q and Extended Data

Fig. 9) for the identification and characterization of the SCI-induced astrocytes-GMii. (**f**) From left

to right: left, the geometric proportions of the cell-type pairs of "astrocyte-GM_neuron" and

"astrocyte-WM_neuron"; middle, the expression levels of the individual ligand, receptor, and their

geometric mean of the L_R pair of *Nrxn3_Nlgn3*; right, the average expression of the

Nrxn3_Nlgn3 pair within the indicated co-localized cell-type pairs along the time in SCI. (**g, h**) The

spatiotemporal dynamics of the proliferation (**g**) and migration (**h**) scores in SCI. (**i**) The 317

astrocyte deconvolution marker genes are clustered into 4 SA groups based on their bulk

expression levels in the spatial spots that contain molecularly-defined astrocytes-WM, and their

correlations with the injury time and the anatomic domains of WM and GM are shown. (**j, k**) The

UMAP re-clustering (**j**) and pseudotime trajectory (**k**) analyses of the astrocytes-*Gfap* in the SCI

single-cell dataset (Milich et al., 2021) identify distinct populations of astrocytes-WM and

astrocytes-GMii sharing a continuous cell lineage. (**l**) The top 50 most dramatically-altered genes

along the trajectory in (k). Of them, an example of *Igfbp2* is examined by FISH in (m). (**m**)

Representative confocal images of immunostaining of GFAP combined with FISH of *Igfbp2* of the

mouse spinal cord (-1.0 mm section) at the indicated time points in SCI. The white-boxed areas

are shown in a higher magnification in the zoom-ins and the 3D rendering of a "GFAP$^+$-*Igfbp2*$^+$"

cell at 72 hpi (yellow box) is shown, with DAPI staining to indicate the location of the nucleus. The

average numbers of the indicated genotypes of cells per mm^2 of the mouse spinal cord area and

the percentage of "GFAP$^+$-*Igfbp2*$^+$" cells to total cell counts (indicated by DAPI) at the indicated

time points in SCI are quantified. Mean ± SEM; n = 6; *p < 0.05 and ***p < 0.001; one-way ANOVA.

Scale bars: 10 μm in 3D rendering, 25 μm in zoom-ins, and 200 μm in the rest. (**n**) GO term

analysis of the unique and shared DEGs (left) and the heatmap showing the average normalized

expression levels of the DEGs (right) associated with the three spatiotemporally-defined groups

of astrocytes-WM, -GM and -GMii. The DEGs that are cross-referenced as pro-inflammatory (red),

trophic (red) or protective (in bold) genes (Kaufmann et al., 2022) are highlighted. (**o**) The UMAP

re-projection of the astrocytes-*Gfap* in the scRNA-seq dataset (Milich et al., 2021) reveals 5

casual sub-clusters. (**p**) The violin plots showing the distributions of the GMii score of the 5

astrocyte sub-clusters in (o). (**q**) Heatmap showing the average expression levels of the top 10

(*p*. adjust < 0.05) DEGs (left) and GO terms (right) for each sub-cluster identified in (o). Astro,

astrocytes; WM, white matter; GM, grey matter; Astro-GMii, injury-induced GM-relocated

astrocytes. ISH, *in situ* hybridization; SA, spatiotemporally-separate astrocyte; FISH,

fluorescence ISH; DEGs, differentially expressed genes.

Figure 3 - SCI ST