Regional Gene Expression in the Retina, Optic Nerve Head, and Optic Nerve of Mice

with Experimental Glaucoma and Optic Nerve Crush

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Abstract

A major risk factor for glaucomatous optic neuropathy is the level of intraocular pressure (IOP),

which can lead to retinal ganglion cell axon injury and cell death. The optic nerve has a rostral

unmyelinated portion at the optic nerve head followed by a caudal myelinated region. The

unmyelinated region is differentially susceptible to IOP-induced damage in rodent models and in human

glaucoma. While several studies have analyzed gene expression changes in the mouse optic nerve

following optic nerve injury, few were designed to consider the regional gene expression differences

that exist between these distinct areas. We performed bulk RNA-sequencing on the retina and on

separately micro-dissected unmyelinated and myelinated optic nerve regions from naïve C57BL/6 mice,

mice after optic nerve crush, and mice with microbead-induced experimental glaucoma (total = 36).

Gene expression patterns in the naïve unmyelinated optic nerve showed significant enrichment of the

Wnt, Hippo, PI3K-Akt, and transforming growth factor β pathways, as well as extracellular matrix–

receptor and cell membrane signaling pathways, compared to the myelinated optic nerve and retina.

Gene expression changes induced by both injuries were more extensive in the myelinated optic nerve

than the unmyelinated region, and greater after nerve crush than glaucoma. Changes three and

fourteen days after injury largely subsided by six weeks. Gene markers of reactive astrocytes did not

consistently differ between injury states. Overall, the transcriptomic phenotype of the mouse

unmyelinated optic nerve was significantly different from immediately adjacent tissues, likely

dominated by expression in astrocytes, whose junctional complexes are inherently important in

responding to IOP elevation.

Keywords

gene expression, transcriptomics, optic nerve, retina, glaucoma, mouse, nerve crush

Introduction

Glaucoma is the second leading cause of blindness worldwide [1], and causes vision loss by killing retinal ganglion cells (RGCs). One of the most prominent risk factors for glaucomatous optic neuropathy is the level of intraocular pressure (IOP) [1]. Elevated IOP in rodent models produces optic nerve (ON) pathology that is first observable at the unmyelinated segment of the optic nerve head (ONH), the zone corresponding to the site of injury in human glaucoma, the lamina cribrosa [2-4]. Rodent glaucoma models provide the opportunity to study axonal and astrocytic responses in the laboratory over short time frames. The dominant glial cell of the ONH in all mammals is the astrocyte, though some microglia are also present. Astrocytes reside on connective tissue beams that course across the primate and human ONH. In the much smaller corresponding area of the mouse (the unmyelinated optic nerve [UON]), there is minimal connective tissue and astrocytes bridge from one side to the other of the ONH to form a so-called "glial lamina" [5, 6].

ONH astrocytes have distinct properties compared to most other astrocytes, even differing in important features from astrocytes in the retina and distal ON, exhibiting features not previously recognized [7]. They serve the biomechanical function of resisting IOP-generated stress by virtue of connections to the ONH perimeter through integrin-linked transmembrane junctions to their basement membrane. They have specialized junctional complexes on the internal cell membrane facing their basement membrane in both mouse and human ONH [8, 9]. Transcriptomic studies have now revealed many regional phenotypes in brain astrocytes [10]. The ONH astrocyte is likely to exhibit unique gene expression patterns since it is potentially the only astrocyte that is subjected to differential stress across the cell from its connection to the basement membrane and from the trans-ONH pressure differential from inside to outside the eye. However, the local gene expression of UON astrocytes has only recently been studied in the naïve state [11] and has not been studied in disease states.

There have been investigations of gene expression changes in the retina and the ON in various

injury models such as microbead-induced glaucoma and ON crush in rodents and cultured astrocyte

models [12-18]. Yet, the majority of this research did not distinguish the rodent UON from that of the

myelinated optic nerve (MON) region and other nearby tissues [15, 19, 20]. Moreover, conflicting

reports between whole ONH tissue studies and cultured astrocytes further confound accurate definition

of the gene expression changes occurring in these cells [12, 21, 22].

We performed bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) on the retina and micro-dissected UON and

MON to characterize the region-specific transcriptome of mouse eyes in the naïve state and following

ON crush and experimental ocular hypertension. We identified unique gene profiles of each tissue

region, and found genes related to the interaction between extracellular matrix and cell membrane

receptors, along with several downstream pathways important in integrin-linked signaling, significantly

enriched in the naïve UON. Interestingly, we found that the gene changes in MON were more extensive

than the UON in both IOP elevation and crush models, and these changes occurred in a time-dependent

manner. There were increases in both putative beneficial and detrimental astrocytic markers in both

models.

Results

Distinct expression patterns in naïve UON, MON, and retinal tissues

Total RNA was extracted from micro-dissected UON, MON, and whole retina of four B6 naïve

mice (2 male and 2 female mice per group) and pooled by sex for library preparation and RNA-seq

(Figure 1A). Replicates of each tissue type clustered well by principal component analysis (PCA; Figure

1B), demonstrating established markers for ON and retina in each group (Figure 1C). We also compared

expression of several genes known to be typically expressed by astrocytes, oligodendrocytes, microglia,

and capillaries in each tissue group (Figure 1C). We next compared these transcriptomic data with qPCR

data from a separate cohort of naïve mice for a series of genes known to be expressed in astrocytes and

often associated with beneficial or detrimental phenotypes in these glia and other genes of interest

(Figure 1D and Figure S1). Overall, the regional expression differences of these genes were similar

between RNA-seq and qPCR.

Differential expression analysis was performed to extract regional gene signatures of UON and

MON. For this, we identified subsets of genes that were significantly upregulated in UON and MON

compared to the other two tissue types (Figure 2A). There were 1194 genes commonly upregulated

(from both pairwise comparisons) in UON and 712 genes significantly enriched in MON (Figure 2A).

KEGG analysis of significantly enriched UON genes compared to MON and retina tissue included

pathways known to be associated with astrocyte functions in this region: extracellular matrix–receptor

interactions, focal and cell adhesion, and transforming growth factor β (TGFβ) signaling pathways

(Figure 2B-C). In MON, pathway analysis of upregulated genes using the KEGG database collection

showed enrichment of steroid biosynthesis and axon guidance pathways in MON upregulated genes

(Figure 2B-C and E). The differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in UON coding for molecules in the

critical pathway of cell attachment to the extracellular matrix (Figure 2C) included transmembrane

molecules (integrins: α3,5,8 and β1,4, syndecan, and dystroglycan), basement membrane components

(collagen 4 and laminins α1,4; β1,2; γ2), and extracellular matrix members near the cellular attachment

zone (fibronectin, tenascin, perlecan, and thrombospondin). Similar analysis of the naïve retinal tissue

found enrichment of neuronal/photoreceptor-related pathways, as expected (Figure S2).

We specifically compared gene expression between the two ON regions and found 1623 genes

enriched in UON and 1665 enriched genes in MON (Figure 2D). Similar KEGG pathways were enriched

from these UON genes compared to our earlier analysis in which UON and MON were contrasted with

retinal tissue (Figure 2E). The KEGG pathways selectively enriched in MON were more often related to

axonal functions (e.g., steroid biosynthesis, glutamatergic synapse, and cholinergic synapse), though

axonal guidance was an area seen in both UON and MON analyses (Figure 2E).

Differential gene expression after ON crush injury

We performed RNA-seq on the retina, UON, and MON following ON crush injury (Figure 3A). For

this study, we examined two time points, three days (early, 3D) and two weeks (late, 2W) after crush,

with a similar pooling strategy as used in the naïve tissue samples (Figure 3A). We estimated the degree

of injury or loss of RGCs by looking at the expression of several genes prominently expressed in RGCs in

the retinal tissue samples (Figure S3). Many of these RGC marker genes were significantly reduced by

three days after crush, including *Rbpms*, *Rbpms2*, and *Sncg* (Figure S3). At two weeks after crush, when

most RGC loss would typically have occurred after crush injury, RGC gene expression was drastically

downregulated (by greater than nine-fold for most genes) compared to naïve control retinas, suggesting

substantial RGC loss following optic crush injury (Figure S3).

We compared DEGs at early and late crush time points between UON, MON, and retinal tissue

(Figure 3 A-B). Samples from the same tissue region clustered together by PCA, with some separation

between crush time points within each region (Figure 3B). Gene expression changes in the retina

differed the most from the ON tissue regions (Figure 3C). In total, our RNA-seq analysis revealed 136 and

349 DEGs in the retina at early and late ON crush time points, respectively (Figure 3C and Spreadsheet

S5). DEGs three days after crush mostly consisted of genes involved in the response to a stimulus/insult,

whereas gene expression changes two weeks after crush also included genes related to neuronal cell

death and synaptic functions (Figure S6).

At three days, DEGs shared by all tissue regions included *Egr1* (early growth response 1, *Ccn1*

(cellular communication network factor 1), and *Serpina3n* (serine (or cysteine) peptidase inhibitor, clade

A, member 3N), which were upregulated with injury (Spreadsheet S1). Notably, while *Knstrn*

(kinectochore-localized astrin/SPAG5 binding) was significantly changed in all tissues three days after

crush, this gene was upregulated in both UON and MON but downregulated in the retinal tissue

(Spreadsheet S1). Overall, UON and MON had 146 and 188 DEGs in common at three days and two

weeks after crush, respectively (Figure 3C and Spreadsheet S1). Of these, all but the non-protein coding

gene *Neat1* (nuclear paraspeckle assembly transcript 1) followed a similar expression pattern between

the two tissues at three days after crush (Spreadsheet S1). The number of shared genes by all three

tissue regions increased two weeks after crush (Figure 3C). These 27 genes followed the same

expression pattern (either upregulated or downregulated) except for *A2m* (alpha-2-macroglobulin), a

reactive astrocyte marker, which was uniquely downregulated in UON at this time point (Figure 3D and

Spreadsheet S1). Interestingly, eight genes had opposite expression changes two weeks after crush:

Col2a1, *Trim56*, *Cnn1*, *Gp1bb*, *Bub1*, *Slc39a14*, *Oas3*, and *Nhlrc3* (Spreadsheet S1).

Gene expression changes were greater in MON compared to UON and retina at both crush time

points (Figure 3C). The 2368 DEGs in the MON at three-day crush were associated with pathways that

included processes like cell cycle and cytokine signaling (Figure 3D). Over 40% (n = 977) of these genes

were also differentially expressed at the two week crush time point (Figure 3E and Spreadsheet S4).

While most MON DEGs exhibited prolonged changes (either upregulated or downregulated at both time

points), several genes displayed an opposing response between early and late crush time points (Figure

3H). *Dlk1* (delta like non-canonical Notch ligand 1), *Gpd1* (glycerol -3-phosphate dehydrogenase 1

(soluble)), and *Il3ra* (interleukin 31 receptor A) were significantly upregulated at three days after crush

but significantly downregulated at the two week time point (Figure 3H and Spreadsheet S4). Conversely,

seven genes were initially downregulated, but substantially increased later following crush (Figure 3H

and Spreadsheet S4). DEG analysis of two week crush samples yielded 1693 significantly changed genes

in the MON (Figure 3E and F). While pathways such as phagocytosis and NF-kappa beta signaling were

still among the enriched KEGG pathways at two weeks, other processes like extracellular matrix–

receptor interactions and complement and coagulation cascades were also significantly upregulated

(Figure 3D).

There was a weaker response to crush in the UON (as compared to MON) (Figure 3C and F).

Notably, these UON genes were largely different between crush time points. Of the 210 UON DEGs at

three days, only 25.7% were significantly changed at both time points (Figure 3E and Spreadsheet S3).

Like the crushed MON tissue, these common genes showed consistent expression at both time points

except for *Ccnf* (cyclin F) and *Bub1* (BUB1, mitotic checkpoint serine/threonine kinase) (Figure 3G and

Spreadsheet S3). Generally, UON expression changes early after crush were in upregulated genes

involved in cell cycle regulation and cell division (Figure 3D and E). Despite 501 DEGs observed in the

UON at two weeks crush, these genes were not associated with specific KEGG pathways, aside from an

enrichment in apoptosis (Figure 3D). Taken together, these data suggest that there is a differential

response to crush within ON tissue regions.

Differential gene expression in the glaucoma model

The injection of microbeads into the anterior chamber produces IOP elevation known to cause

RGC death that is maximal by 6 weeks [23] (Figure 4A, Figure S4, Table S1). Mice exposed to elevated

IOP followed prior experience with bead injection [23, 24], having significant mean IOP elevation at

three days, decreasing at two weeks and with minimal difference from baseline at six weeks (Figure S4,

Table S1). Micro-dissected UON, MON, and retinal tissue was collected at three days (early, 3D), two

weeks (middle, 2W), and six weeks (late, 6W) post-injection to characterize gene expression changes

spanning the time course of this model (Figure 4A). There was a clear upregulation of

inflammatory/immune response genes in the retina detectable at the earliest glaucoma time point,

including *Gfap*, *Osmr*, *Fgf2*, *Edn2*, *Stat3*, and *Socs3* (Figure S6B). This stress response was generally

sustained in the retina through at least two weeks after IOP elevation before falling back to baseline

expression levels (Figure S6B). We estimated the degree of RGC injury from the retinal expression of

RGC genes in the glaucoma retinal tissue, as was carried out in the crush samples. There was an

immediate reduction in expression at three days in several RGC-specific genes, including *Rbpms* and

Tubb3, that remained similarly downregulated at six weeks (Figure S3).

PCA showed a clear separation of samples by tissue region (Figure 4B). As in crush injury, gene

expression changes differed greatly between UON, MON, and retina (Figure 4B). At three days, only

three genes were significantly upregulated in all regions: 1) *Timp1* (tissue inhibitor of

metalloproteinase), 2) *Fgcr* (Fc receptor, IgG, low affinity III); and 3) *Cd68* (CD68 antigen) (Spreadsheet

S2). Yet, the expression patterns of these genes varied greatly between tissue regions across later time

points, where upregulation in the retina typically persisted longer than increased expression in the ON

tissues (Spreadsheet S2). Few to no DEGs were common at the later glaucoma time points (Figure 4C

and Spreadsheet S2). An additional 28 genes were commonly upregulated in UON and MON regions at

the early time point but only four DEGs (*Fcrls*, *Pla2g3*, *Olig2*, and *Tsc22d3*) were shared by two weeks

(Figure 4C and Spreadsheet S2).

Similar to ON crush, the number of DEGs at the three day and two week time points were

greatest in MON (n = 427 at three days, n = 493 at two weeks) and fewest in UON tissues (n = 129 at

three days, n = 69 at two weeks) (Figure 4C). Early response genes in the UON were primarily

upregulated and related to cell proliferation pathways (Figure 4D and F). One noteworthy pathway

upregulated in both UON and MON glaucoma at three days was the p53 pathway, which was also

increased in UON and MON three days after crush injury (Figure 3D and 4D). In addition to the cell cycle-

related pathways shared with UON three days after microbead injection, top MON responses also

included phagocytosis and cytokine-cytokine receptor interactions (Figure 4D). At two weeks, many

stress response pathways like P13K-Akt and JAK-STAT signaling were also enriched among the MON

genes (Figure 4D).

Although gene expression changes were far more subtle in the glaucoma model, UON and MON

DEGs compared to naïve tissue still varied between each of the three time points akin to crush (Figure

4E). Only 14 DEGs were shared between the three day and two week time points in UON; by six weeks,

only four of these genes were significantly upregulated (Figure 4E and Spreadsheet S3). In the MON,

there was a robust response to IOP elevation that persisted through two weeks and few changes by six

weeks (Figure 4E-F). Only 18 MON DEGs were consistently changed among the three time points, and

131 genes that had a sustained response (either upregulated or downregulated) through two weeks

(Figure 4E and Spreadsheet S4). Of these, response to stimulus and several integrin subunits were

significantly elevated (Spreadsheet S4).

Injury-specific responses in ON tissue regions

We compared our ON crush and glaucoma RNA-seq datasets to determine whether there are

gene expression changes in the different ON tissue regions that are unique to the glaucoma disease

model. While 56% of glaucoma DEGs from our UON analysis (n = 112 out of 200 total DEGs) were

uniquely changed in at least one of the glaucoma time points (Figure 5A), individual inspection of these

genes showed many still elevated or reduced in ON crush (Figure 5B and Spreadsheet S6). In these

cases, the genes did not meet our preset threshold for statistical significance in our crush analysis to be

included as a DEG in the crush dataset. Of the 88 common DEGs between crush and glaucoma samples

in the UON, we found a small subset, such as *Cks2*, that had uniquely significant expression patterns

between the models (Figure 5B and Spreadsheet S6).

There were proportionally fewer unique DEGs in MON glaucoma samples compared to ON crush

(22.2%, n = 105 out of 472 total DEGs) (Figure 5A). However, these differences in response were more

apparent on the individual gene level than in UON, particularly in high-expressing DEGs (Figure 5B and

Spreadsheet S6). Interestingly, there were minimal examples of inversely shared gene expression among

the 367 MON DEGs (Spreadsheet S6). Overall, these data suggest that much of injury response at the

gene level is shared by the ON crush and ocular hypertensive injury models.

Astrocyte responses to ON injury

We examined our RNA-seq datasets for genes that are reported to be associated with either

general (or PAN) astrocyte behavior (e.g., *Gfap, Ptx3*), detrimental (or A1-specific) astrocyte/microglial

responses (e.g., *C3, Serping1, C1qa, Il1a*) or beneficial (or A2-specific) astrocyte/microglial responses

(e.g., *Stat3, Sphk1*) (Figure 5D). Astrocyte gene responses between crush and glaucoma samples were

generally consistent (Figure 5D). There was no clear A1 or A2-specific phenotype in UON samples or

retinal samples with ON injury (Figure 5D and Figure S7). MON had more consistently higher expression

of some A2 astrocyte markers (e.g., *Ptgs2, Slc10a6, B3gnt5*) in early crush and glaucoma time points that

shifted to an upregulation of A1-specific (detrimental) markers (e.g., *Serping1*, *C3*, *Fbln5*) after two

weeks; however, neither an A1 nor A2 phenotype dominated in our time course of ON injury samples

(Figure 5D).

Discussion

There have been several previous studies of gene expression in the ON of mouse or rat. In some

of these, the UON segment was specifically dissected from the MON [13, 14]. In most studies, there was

inclusion of MON, preONH tissue, or retina [15-18]. In the present study, we compared the gene

expression in retina, UON, and MON by microdissection, demonstrating that these areas have

dramatically different expression patterns that indicate regional phenotypes in both the naïve and

diseased states. In part, this would be expected from the morphological differences in astrocytes of the

two regions [25]. A recent report by Mazumder et al. also investigated regional astrocyte gene

expression in the mouse unmyelinated ONH (equivalent to UON in our studies) using the ribotag

approach, which enriches for translated mRNAs [11]. While this and the present study had certain

overlapping or complementary findings, there were also significant differences. For example, in naïve

UON alone, *Cartpt* is prominently expressed in both datasets and in our disease models, *Cartpt* is

significantly downregulated. On the other hand, some of the enriched pathways differed between the

two datasets. Notably, only in our study was cell—extracellular matrix interaction pathways so

prominently enriched in the UON region. Further, the UON astrocytes in Mazumder et al.'s report found

many genes typical for photoreceptors were expressed within the UON ribosomal mRNA, which we did

not. Potential methodological differences could explain these disparities. Astrocytes of the retina and

the ON derive from different embryologic origins; retinal astrocytes arise from an optic disc progenitor

zone driven by transcription factor *Pax2*, while ON astrocytes derive from progenitors in the optic stalk

[26]. Among many differences between the two types, retinal astrocytes are uniformly spaced (tile-like),

while UON astrocytes have overlapping processes that bridge from one side of the ONH to the other [5].

Thus, it is not surprising, but still intriguing that expression patterns of the adjacent UON and MON are

so different.

The major pathways identified in naïve UON, a tissue in which the vast majority of cells are

astrocytes, matched known features of the normal anatomy/function of the UON, whose role in

adherence to surrounding connective tissue vitally resists the biomechanical stress generated by IOP. It

is noteworthy that the UON tissue exhibited higher expression of genes related to interactions between

cells and the extracellular matrix, focal and intercellular adhesion, and four other signaling pathways:

Hippo, Wnt, PI3K-Akt, and TGFβ. By contrast, the enriched MON genes represented important pathways

for insulin, Ras, sphingolipid, and ErbB signaling. An important pathway in common between UON and

MON in our analysis was axon guidance. In the mouse UON, the vast majority of cells locally generating

RNA are astrocytes [24]. The major cellular content difference between UON and MON is the presence

of oligodendrocytes in the latter region. Thus, the observed DEG differences are understandable, but

indicate that cell to matrix adhesion is not as prominent in the MON. While the MON must withstand

some motion in the orbit, it is not subjected to the stress generated by IOP. We have recently

demonstrated that UON astrocytes and astrocytes of all mammalian ONH lack aquaporin expression

[27], and differential *Aqp4* expression was also observed in the current study (data not shown). It is now

widely recognized that astrocyte genetic expression varies substantially in the many regions of the

central nervous system [28, 29]. The regional phenotype of UON astrocytes is clearly focused on

interactions between these cells and their extracellular environment, a process mediating

mechanosensation and mechanotranslation. Recent studies of regional gene expression by brain

astrocytes found none of the highly expressed pathways involved transmembrane signaling to

extracellular matrix described here, illustrating the uniqueness of astrocytes in the UON [30].

One pathway identified as upregulated in both UON and MON in early glaucoma and crush time

points was the p53 pathway. Actions attributed to this widely studied pathway include control of cell

division and activation of caspase-mediated apoptosis[31-33]. Interestingly, cell cycle genes that were

upregulated in both UON and MON were *Cdk1*, *Ccnb1*, *Ccnb2* and *Top2a*, suggesting increased cell

division. At the same time, inhibitors of p53 activity were also upregulated (*Cdkn3* and *Gtse*). In MON,

but not UON, further downstream partners of p53 that were upregulated included *Serpine1* and *Thbs1*,

suggesting an effect of inhibiting angiogenesis. One genome wide association study found a relation

between a p53 polymorphism and one human glaucoma phenotype[34], while another found KEGG

pathways associated with human open angle glaucoma were focal adhesion, and Wnt and TGFβ

signaling, strikingly similar to the naïve UON pathways active in our study [35].

The gene expression changes in the UON with glaucoma differ from those of the MON in

glaucoma, with greater numbers of genes differentially expressed in MON. The MON had more

increases in cell cycle genes. Both astrocytes and microglia proliferate in the mouse glaucoma model

[24]. In both mouse and rat ocular hypertension models, there was loss of oligodendrocytes in the MON

and oligodendrocyte precursor cells proliferated, while activation of microglia was detected only in

advanced damage nerves [36]. We found that upstream stimulators of Aurora proliferative signaling had

increased expression in UON after three-day glaucoma (*Cenpa*, *Arhgef*, *Dlgap4*). However, molecules

involved in cell cycling can be inhibitory (e.g., p53 or *Tp53*), as well as stimulating to proliferation. We

found that *Cdk1* (cyclin-dependent kinase 1) was increased in UON and MON at three day ON crush and

glaucoma tissues, though cyclin D1 (*Ccnd1*), its downstream target was not. On the other hand, *Cdkn2c*

(cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2c) was upregulated in the UON at the three day crush time point and

Cdkn3 (cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 3), which prevents the activation of *Cdk2*, was also increased in

early glaucoma in this same region. These molecules would tend to inhibit proliferation. Interestingly,

genome wide association studies have identified *CDKN2b* polymorphisms as associated with either

increased or decreased risk of open angle glaucoma [18]. *Lockd* gene was increased in both three day

and two week UON glaucoma and three day UON crush. Its action enhances *Cdkn1b* transcription,

potentially acting as another cell cycle inhibiting factor [37].

There are some similarities between our findings and those of Morrison et al. using a glaucoma

model in whole rat ON, which found increased extracellular matrix and TGFβ1 gene, as well as

upregulation of cell cycle genes [14, 15]. These studies included both UON and MON together in the

analysis, as did DEG studies in mouse after nerve crush by Qu and Jakobs [13]. Howell et al. studied

DBA/2J glaucoma mouse gene expression in specimens that included some retinal tissue, choroid and

sclera, and an unknown amount of MON [38]. Upregulated pathways included the immune response,

chemotaxis, and cell–matrix interaction, including tenascin C, integrins, fibronectin, Timp 1 and 2, and

several collagens. Several of these individual genes were significantly upregulated in our two disease

models. Our demonstration that there are substantial differences in gene expression between retina

and MON compared to UON suggests selective dissection of these tissues is important in future studies.

There were both shared and unique gene expression differences between the glaucoma and

nerve crush models. The number of genes that significantly increased was greater in the MON compared

to the UON in both injury models, despite the fact that the axon injury is known to be initiated in the

UON in glaucoma while the crush injury is applied directly to the MON [3]. This observation makes it

more likely greater differential gene expression in MON is not simply related to the addition of

oligodendrocytes in that tissue, but some inherent tendency toward more stable gene expression in the

UON after injury. Qu and Jakobs found that UON astrocyte genes and proteins generally were

downregulated, while microglial markers were upregulated after ON crush [13]. Interestingly, expression

of *Gfap* did not increase after crush in their work, nor in the present study in any region or model.

Increased GFAP protein is often regarded as key sign of "reactivity" in the brain, where it normally is

expressed at low levels, only increasing after pathological insults. In contrast, *Gfap* is expressed at a high

level in naïve UON and does not further increase after crush or in rodent glaucoma models [14, 15, 38].

While prior research assumed that astrocyte "reactivity" was detrimental to neuronal survival,

the reactions of astrocytes to injury can be both beneficial and harmful [39-42]. A proposed paradigm

suggesting that there is an A1/A2 astrocyte dichotomy is now considered simplistic, and features of each

are found within the same cells. Astrocytes exhibit important local and age-related heterogeneity in

gene expression, structure, and function [43-47]. Our data show that the genes reported to be active in

detrimental (A1) and beneficial (A2) astrocyte responses in other models [48] are more prominently

expressed in the MON after crush and glaucoma, as well as in the crush model UON, than they are in

UON glaucoma. However, there was no clear pattern for differential upregulation of groups of genes

reported to be typical for A1 or A2 "phenotypes". Astrocytes have protective functions, and review of

astrocytic responses in retina suggests inhibiting some astrocyte responses could be neuroprotective

[39, 49-52]. Furthermore, beneficial astrocytic behavior is driven by the *Stat3* pathway, which can

worsen mouse glaucoma damage when genetically removed[39]. Experimental inflammation leads to

changes in single cell gene expression that produces many subtype-specific patterns in astrocytes in

particular brain regions [53].

Many genes known to be related to microglia changed in the both the MON and UON in the

glaucoma model. There are microglia in the ONH and have been shown to increase in number in rat

glaucoma models [54, 55]. Interestingly, mice lacking microglia still undergo neurodegeneration after

ON crush [56]. Microglia in the ON interact with astrocytes via complement 1q, tumor necrosis factor α,

and interleukin 1, activating some detrimental astrocytic behavior. Microglial knockout mice do not

develop detrimental astrocytic actions in brain. Microglia have been characterized into reactive forms

that are both pro-inflammatory (M1) and immunoregulatory (M2), though these may not be mutually

exclusive [47] and dichotomizing microglial responses may be oversimplistic as discussed in the context

of astrocytes. The activation of NF-kB in microglia is particularly associated with detrimental effects in

brain and glaucoma models of disease and microglial adenosine receptor activation, resulting from ATP

release from stressed astrocytes, may reduce microglial activation [57, 58].

Cellular pathways selectively active in UON included Wnt, Hippo, PI3K-Akt, and TGFβ signaling.

Their interactions are complex but are highly related to mechanosensation via transcellular membrane

mechanisms. Wnt signaling through cell membrane receptors activates both the Rho and Rac1

pathways, affecting the actin cytoskeleton [59]. In astrocytes, RhoA limits astrogliosis and anti-

regenerative action by suppressing Yes-activated protein signaling (the Hippo pathway) through actin-

mediated compaction, but independent of microtubules [60]. RhoA also affects the actin cytoskeleton

by activating Rho-kinase, inactivating cofilin and activating the actin motor myosin II [61]. Wnt signaling

also activates *Rac1*, and *Racgap1*, *Iqgap3*, and *Dock2* genes in this pathway that were upregulated in

three day glaucoma. Other genes that act through cell membrane receptors that were upregulated in

our glaucoma samples included thrombospondin, part of the TGFβ signaling system. The relationship of

membrane signaling through junctional complexes in astrocytes warrants additional focus.

Our study has several limitations of note. To study gene expression of cells in their native state

or resident within tissue under experimental conditions, we analyzed whole tissues and not cell type-

specific or single cells. Thus, we cannot distinguish that the significantly changed genes found in these

studies are exclusively produced by astrocytes or other cell types. In comparing the effects of glaucoma

and ON crush, we are aware that there was somewhat greater RGC damage in ON crush that could have

an unknown effect on our analysis when comparing the two models. In mammalian eyes with

connective tissues in the ONH, there are fibroblasts present in the extensive extracellular matrix. Gene

expression profiles have been done on cultured lamina cribrosa fibroblasts, whose behavior may lead to

different reactions in larger mammalian eyes than in mice that largely lack these cells [23].

Conclusions

Mouse UON tissue expresses genes that are distinct from immediately adjacent areas of the

retina and MON, as well as being nearly unique in the central nervous system. The major DEGs in UON

tissue were those likely to arise from the dominant astrocytes of this region and their extracellular

matrix and signaling through membrane receptors, along with pathways affecting cell response to

mechanostimulation. The responses to two different types of injury were more diverse in the MON than

in the UON, but included both stimulation and inhibition of cell proliferation in both regions. There was

no consistent gene expression pattern regarding typical astrocyte responses considered to be beneficial

or detrimental. Further analysis stemming from these data will include detailed dissection of the cell—

matrix interaction responses to experimental glaucoma.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Twenty four two to four month old C57BL/6 (B6, Cat # 0664, Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor,

ME, USA) mice were used for RNA-seq experiments (Table S2). An equal number of male and female

animals were included in all sample groups. For additional quantitative polymerase chain reaction

(qPCR) studies, tissue was obtained from three five to nine month old bilateral naïve, wild-type, (non-

fluorescent) FVB/N-Tg(GFAP-GFP)14Mes littermate mice (WT GFAP-GFP, Jackson Laboratories #003257,

Bar Harbor, ME, USA) as described in a previous publication[8] (Table S2).

Anesthesia

For surgical procedures and euthanasia, animals were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal

injection of 50 mg/kg ketamine (Fort Dodge Animal Health, Fort Dodge, IA), 10 mg/kg xylazine (VedCo

Inc., Saint Joseph, MO), and 2 mg/kg acepromazine (Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, Burlingame, CA), and

received topical ocular anesthesia of 0.5% proparacaine hydrochloride (Akorn Inc. Buffalo Grove, IL,

USA). For IOP measurements independent of additional procedures, animals were anesthetized using a

Rodent Circuit Controller (VetEquip, Inc., Pleasanton, CA, USA) delivering 2.5% isoflurane in oxygen at

500 cc/min.

IOP Measurements

IOP measurements were obtained using a TonoLab tonometer (TioLat, Inc., Helsinki, Finland),

recording the mean of six readings with optimal quality grading. IOP was first measured prior to the

procedure, and at one day, three days, one week, two weeks, and six weeks post-procedure until the

animal was sacrificed.

Microbead Injections (Glaucoma Model)

IOP elevation by microbead injection was performed in twelve B6 mice using a previously

established protocol [23]. IOP elevation was produced by unilateral anterior chamber microbead

injection. Erthoymycin ophthalmic ointment USP, 0.5% (Baush + Lomb, Laval, Canada) was given

bilaterally to prevent infection and lubricate the eye during recovery. The naïve eyes of treated animals

and both eyes of bilaterally naïve mice were used as controls in IOP analysis. Animals were sacrificed at

the following time points after injection for analysis: three days, two weeks, and six weeks. A total of

two males and two females were included for each time point.

ON Crush

Eight animals were subjected to unilateral ON crush. Topical proparacaine was used to numb

the eyes and 5% betadine was applied to disinfect prior to surgery. The conjunctiva was incised, and the

orbital venous sinus carefully dissected away to reveal the ON. The nerve was crushed for three seconds

using self-closing forceps (Dumoxel, World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL). Erythromycin

ophthalmic ointment USP, 0.5% (Baush + Lomb, Laval, Canada) was given bilaterally to prevent infection

and lubricate the eye during recovery. Animals were sacrificed at either three days or two weeks post-

crush for analysis (n = 2 males and 2 females per time point).

Tissue Collection

Three different tissue regions were dissected from each animal: UON, MON, and retina. Tissue

was collected from bilateral naïve animals for naïve control studies, as well as time points following

glaucoma/bead-injection and ON crush, on the same collection days. Animals were euthanized with

general intraperitoneal anesthesia as described above. The eyes were first enucleated and rinsed in cold

PBS, and the ON was cut flush to the globe. The dissected UON portions were ~200 µm in length

(calculated using digital calipers, and prior to the delineated opaque myelin transition zone), consistent

with a prior study [62]. The next 200–300 µm portion of nerve containing the myelin transition zone was

discarded. The MON collected was the first myelinated section posterior to the myelin transition zone,

200–300 μm in length. Next, the anterior chamber was excised, and retina was removed with little to no

retinal pigment epithelium/choroid attached. Dissected tissue was immediately placed into individual,

pre-chilled 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen before long-term storage at -80°C.

Tissue taken from naïve WT GFAP-GFP animals was immediately placed into QIAzol Lysis Reagent

(QIAgen) and processed using the manufacturer's protocol as previously reported [24]. For qPCR, six

biological replicates were collected for each tissue region.

Total RNA Extraction

TRIzol® Reagent was added to each Eppendorf tube of frozen tissue immediately following

removal from storage. Volumes were adjusted for each tissue region based on approximate size/weight.

Tissue was homogenized at room temperature using a battery-operated, motorized pestle, and total

RNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's protocol.

RNA-seq Library Preparation and Sequencing

For the three tissue regions, male and female replicate RNA samples (n = 4 replicates per tissue

per treatment/time point, with n = 2 replicates of each sex) were pooled by sex for a total of 36

individual samples processed for RNA-seq. Pooled RNA was submitted to Genewiz (from Azenta Life

Sciences) for library preparation and sequencing. Sample quality control was performed prior to

generating the libraries. Libraries were prepared using an ultra-low input kit for paired-end sequencing

(2 x 150 bp) using an Illumina HiSeq instrument. On average, 40M reads were generated per sample

(Figure S8).

RNA-seq Analysis

Paired-end reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome (GRCm38) using HISAT2 (v2.2.1)

with default parameters [63]. FastQC was performed to assess overall sequence quality [64]. Next,

mapped reads were assembled into transcripts through StringTie (v1.3.0) [65]. Gene annotation

GRCm38 M25 from gencode was used. Expression from both reference and *de novo* transcripts were

reported.

To conduct differential gene expression analysis, a raw gene count table was prepared using the

'prepDE.py' script provided with StringTie. For each treatment and tissue, a DESeq2 model was fit to

compare each treatment time point to the control while accounting for sex.

$$\text{Expression} = \beta_1 \text{TREATMENT\_TIME\_POINT} + \beta_2 \text{SEX}$$

where TREATMENT_TIME_POINT = 0, 3 day, 2 week, 6 week. and SEX = FEMALE, MALE.

Differential genes comparing each treatment time point to control were reported separately.

Specifically, genes with a false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 and an absolute log2 fold change > 1 were

considered significantly differential genes.

To conduct principal component analysis (PCA), raw gene counts were first normalized into

FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads) by adjusting for gene lengths.

Genes with FPKM < 1 in all samples were filtered out. Then, highly variable genes were selected. To

select highly variable genes, a mean-adjusted variance is computed for each gene. Mean and variance of

gene FPKM across all samples were first log10 transformed. Lowess regression was fit between

transformed variance and mean. Mean-adjusted variance for each gene was calculated by dividing its

variance by its predicted variance from the Lowess fit. By this procedure, 2633 genes with mean-

adjusted variance larger than 1.5 were selected. Finally, to conduct PCA, FPKM for each gene was

standardized and 'prcomp' was applied to compute the top two principal components.

KEGG pathway analysis for significantly changed genes was completed using g:Profiler GOst

(Version: 0.1.7) [66] with the multiple testing correction method applying a significance threshold of

0.05. Sample distances were measured by log2 transformation of the normalized counts data and

calculation of the Euclidean distance between samples.

Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR)

cDNA was synthesized from purified RNA using the High-Capacity Reverse Transcription Kit

(Thermo Fisher) per the manufacturer's instructions. SsoAdvanced Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-

Rad) was used for qPCR with exon junction-spanning primers (Table S3). Primer efficiencies were

checked and melt curve analyses were performed prior to experimental use of all primer pairs included

in this study. Data was analyzed using the Delta Ct method (plotted as relative expression), where the

triplicate raw Ct values were first averaged, then normalized to the geometric mean of two

housekeeping genes (Table S3). The mean of three biological replicates were plotted for each tissue

analyzed.

Figure 1. Transcriptomic analysis of astrocyte-containing tissues in bilaterally naïve mice. **(A)**

Experimental design of the study. Three tissue regions of bilaterally naïve mice were micro-dissected for

comparison: 1) myelinated optic nerve (MON), 2) unmyelinated optic nerve (UON), and 3) retina. Tissue

from four mice were collected and the sex replicates for each tissue group were pooled after RNA

extraction for library preparation and 150 bp paired end Illumina sequencing. **(B)** Principal component

analysis (PCA) of bilaterally naïve tissue regions. Each symbol represents a single sample, where symbol

colors denote the tissue region and symbol shapes signify sex. **(C)** FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of

transcript per Million mapped reads) expression of cell type markers characteristic of each tissue region:

glial (*Gja1*, encodes for Connexin-43), oligodendrocyte (*Mbp*, encodes for myelin basic protein), retinal

(*Rho*, encodes for Rhodopsin), microglial (*Cd68*, encodes for Cluster of Differentiation 68), and

capillary/endothelial (*Flt1*, encodes for VEGFR1). Dots represent a single sample and lines represent the

median FPKM of the replicate samples. **(D)** Expression of astrocyte genes in three naïve tissue regions:

UON, MON, and retina. Left y-axis and filled bars represent FPKM (from RNA-seq data), while right y-axis

and empty bars indicate relative expression via qPCR of independent tissue samples. Error bars indicate

standard deviation. For RNA-seq, n = 2 (pooled) samples per tissue type. For qPCR, n = 6 individual

samples per tissue group.

Figure 2. Region-specific gene signatures in the naïve ON. **(A)** Venn diagrams showing the number of

significantly enriched genes in naïve UON compared to MON and retina (top) and MON compared to

UON and retina (bottom). **(B)** KEGG analysis of enriched UON (top) and MON (bottom) genes compared

to all other tissue regions. **(C)** Clustered heatmaps of significantly upregulated UON genes within the

extracellular matrix (ECM)–receptor interactions (top) and MON-enriched genes in the steroid

biosynthesis (bottom) KEGG pathways. **(D)** Volcano plot showing differential expression analysis

comparing naïve UON and MON. Dotted lines indicate threshold cut-off for a significantly changed gene

($\log_2$FC ± 1, in addition to adjusted $p < 0.05$). Genes with $\log_2$FC > 1 were considered enriched in UON,

and genes with $\log_2$FC < -1 signified MON-enriched genes. **(E)** KEGG pathways enriched in UON and MON

genes.

Figure 3. Differential responses to ON crush. (A) Experimental design for studying gene expression

responses following ON crush in UON, MON, and retinal tissue. (B) PCA of tissue during the ON crush

time course. (C) Venn diagrams showing relationships of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) between

UON, MON, and retina three days (left, 3D) and two weeks (right, 2W) after crush. (D) KEGG pathway

analysis of UON and MON DEGs at early (top) and late (bottom) crush time points. (E) Venn diagrams

showing relationships of UON (top) and MON (bottom) responses to ON crush. (F) Number of

upregulated and downregulated genes in UON and MON at each crush time point. (G-H) Gene

expression changes in UON (G) and MON (H) during the ON crush time course.

Figure 4. Differential responses to glaucoma. **(A)** Experimental design for RNA-seq experiments in the

bead-induced glaucoma model. **(B)** PCA of control and experimental glaucoma tissue time points. **(C)**

Venn diagrams showing relationships of DEGs between UON, MON, and retina three days, two weeks,

and six weeks after IOP elevation. **(D)** KEGG pathway analysis of UON and MON DEGs at different time

points following IOP elevation. **(E)** Venn diagrams showing relationships of UON (left) and MON (right)

responses to bead-induced glaucoma. **(F)** Number of up/down genes in UON and MON at each

glaucoma time point. **(G-H)** Gene expression changes in UON (G) and MON (H) during the glaucoma time

course.

Figure 5. Shared responses to ON injury. **(A)** Venn diagrams comparing DEGs in ON crush and glaucoma

injuries in UON (top) and MON (bottom) tissue regions. DEGs are both upregulated and downregulated

in at least one time point. **(B-C)** Gene expression of select UON (B) and MON (C) DEGs in ON crush and

glaucoma injury. **(D)** Heatmap showing PAN-reactive, A1-specific, and A2-specific astrocyte markers in

naïve and injured UON and MON regions. UON tissue did not express a dominant A1 or A2 characteristic

phenotype in crush or glaucoma, while MON exhibited slightly more consistent A1/A2-specific gene

expression compared to UON tissue.

Supplementary Materials

Figures S1-8

Figure S1: qPCR validation of naïve RNA-seq data.

Figure S2: Gene signature of the naïve mouse retina.

Figure S3: Expression of RGC marker genes in retinal tissue following ON injury.

Figure S4: IOP measurements over time in the microbead-induced glaucoma model.

Figure S5: Sex-specific gene expression differences in disease models.

Figure S6: Differential responses to crush and glaucoma in the retina.

Figure S7: A1/A2-specific gene signatures in the retina.

Figure S8: Total number of sequences.

Tables S1-3

Table S1: IOP measurements over time in the microbead-induced glaucoma model.

Table S2: Animals used in this study.

Table S3: qPCR primers used in this study.

Spreadsheets S1-5

Spreadsheet S1: List of DEGs and their relationships between all tissue regions in ON crush.

Spreadsheet S2: List of DEGs and their relationships between all tissue regions in the glaucoma model.

Spreadsheet S3: List of UON DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.

Spreadsheet S4: List of MON DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.

Spreadsheet S5: List of retina DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.

Spreadsheet S6: List of DEGs comparing disease models by tissue region.

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Author Contributions

HAQ conceptualized ideas, wrote and edited the manuscript, and acquired funding. CJK

performed tissue preparations, analyzed study data, and wrote and edited the manuscript. TVJ provided

concepts and experimental advice, carried out animal treatment, and edited the manuscript. DJZ

provided concepts and experimental advice and edited the manuscript. MW, WF, and HJ performed

bioinformatic analysis. SQ, EK and JS carried out animal treatment and tissue preparation. All authors

read and approved the final manuscript.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interests.

Institutional Review Board Statement

All animal protocols were in accordance with the guidelines of the ARVO Statement for the Use

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University School of Medicine Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol #MO21M401).

Data Availability Statement

The dataset supporting the conclusion of this article is available in the [repository name]

repository, [unique persistent identifier and hyperlink to dataset in http:// format] and included within

the article (and its additional files).

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