Distinct expression profile reveals glia involvement in the trigeminal system attributing to post-traumatic headache

Gurueswar Nagarajan[1,2], Yumin Zhang[2,*]

[1]Henry M. Jackson Foundation for the Advancement of Military Medicine, 6720A Rockledge Dr, Bethesda, Maryland 20817, USA

[2]Department of Anatomy, Physiology and Genetics, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, 4301 Jones Bridge Road, Bethesda, Maryland 20814, USA

*Corresponding author: Yumin Zhang, MD, PhD, Dept. of Anatomy, Physiology and Genetics, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, 4301 Jones Bridge Road, Bethesda, MD 20814, USA. Email: yumin.zhang@usuhs.edu

Abstract

Post-traumatic headache (PTH) is a common comorbid symptom affecting at least one-third of

patients with mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI). While neuroinflammation is known to

contribute to the development of PTH, the cellular mechanisms in the trigeminal system crucial

for understanding the pathogenesis of PTH remain unclear. A non-invasive repetitive mTBI (4

times with a 24-hour interval) was induced in male mice and effect of mTBI was tested on either

bregma or pre-bregma position on the head. Periorbital allodynia and spontaneous pain behavior

were assessed using von Frey test and grimace score, respectively. Quantitative PCR was used to

assess extent of mTBI pathology. RNA sequencing was performed to obtain transcriptomic

profile of the trigeminal ganglion (TG), trigeminal nucleus caudalis (Sp5C) and periaqueductal

gray (PAG) at 7 days post-TBI. Subsequently, quantitative PCR, in situ hybridization and

immunohistochemistry were used to examine mRNA and protein expression of glia specific

markers and pain associated molecules. The repetitive impacts at the bregma, but not pre-bregma

site led to periorbital hypersensitivity, which was correlated with enhanced inflammatory gene

expression in multiple brain regions. RNA sequencing revealed mTBI induced distinct

transcriptomic profiles in the peripheral TG and central Sp5C and PAG. Using gene set

enrichment analysis, positive enrichment of non-neuronal cells in the TG and neuroinflammation

in the Sp5C were identified to be essential in the pathogenesis of PTH. In situ assays also

revealed that gliosis of satellite glial cells in the TG and astrocytes in the Sp5C were prominent

days after injury. Furthermore, immunohistochemical study revealed a close interaction between

activated microglia and reactive astrocytes correlating with increased calretinin interneurons in

the Sp5C. Transcriptomics analysis indicated that non-neuronal cells in peripheral TG and

successive in situ assays revealed that glia in the central Sp5C are crucial in modulating

headache-like symptoms. Thus, selective targeting of glia cells can be a therapeutic strategy for

PTH attributed to repetitive mTBI.

Keywords: Trigeminal System, TBI, Brainstem, Glia, Pain, Headache.

Background

Mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI) causes a myriad of pathologies and symptoms. Post-

traumatic headache (PTH) is one of the underreported comorbid symptoms of mTBI [1,2] and is

observed in more than 30% of clinical diagnoses [3–11]. Repetitive head injuries are associated

with an increased incidence of chronic pain, including headaches [6] and clinical data shows that

the incidence of PTH varies tremendously involving different mechanisms [12]. Over the last

two decades, the heterogeneous nature of PTH symptoms has led to increased understanding of

different headache classifications [1,2]. In parallel to these classifications, there are multiple

PTH phenotypes and pathology associated with the trigeminal system is thought to underlie one

of the phenotypes observed in the clinical population. Several theories regarding the central

sensitization that triggers headaches, including migraine, have been proposed [13–15]. However,

due to profound trigeminal innervation [16], the exact cellular and molecular mechanisms

through which trigeminal regions are primed for central pain sensitization of headache after

mTBI remain unclear.

Sensory pseudo-unipolar neurons in the trigeminal ganglion (TG) have innervation throughout

the head including the facial region, meninges, scalp, cranial bones and neurovasculature [16–

19]. These sensory neurons have a tight relationship with satellite glial cells (SGC) [20,21].

Thus, neurons in the TG are prone to primary insults during head injury via the afferent fibers

innervating the head and the injury may affect their first-order projections to the trigeminal

nucleus caudalis (Sp5C) as well as other regions of the brainstem. However, these brain regions

are subject to injury per se due to rotational movement [22,23] which can impact their

projections to the other areas of the brain, including periaqueductal gray (PAG), thalamus,

parabrachial nucleus, and anterior cingulate cortex. Thus, head injury-induced pathologies in the

TG and Sp5C could cause central sensitization in chronic pain conditions [24–28].

Preclinical models of neurotrauma have been reported for the past several decades [29–31]. Due

to the nature of the injury model and heterogenous symptoms associated with trauma [32–34],

the underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms of trigeminal pain following head injury

remain poorly understood. Recent evidence shows that invasive procedures have a major effect

on sensory neurons of the TG [35,36], leading to the development of trigeminal pain [37] and

thus, there is a need for non-invasive procedures to study the trigeminal pain pathway associated

with mTBI. Here we used repetitive head injury induced by the closed-head impact model of

engineered rotational acceleration (CHIMERA) [38] and showed that development of headache-

like symptoms depends on the localization of injury/trauma to the head. Using deep sequencing,

in situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry, we aimed to understand the cellular and

molecular mechanisms, particularly the inflammatory response, underlying the pathogenesis of

PTH attributed to repetitive mTBI.

Methods and Materials

Induction of repetitive mTBI animal model

Two months old male C57BL/6J mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratory and were

habituated for a week before experimental procedures. Once habituated, mice were randomized

into different groups. Baseline measurements for von Frey and grimace were obtained prior to

repeated mTBI. On the day of the mTBI procedure, mice were assimilated in the procedure room

for 30 min. Each mouse was anesthetized under 3% isoflurane in an induction box, and was then

placed in supine position under 1.5-2% isoflurane on the CHIMERA (Closed-Head Impact

Model of Engineered Rotational Acceleration) stage as described [38]. After a stabilized

breathing response and within 2-3 min of anesthesia each mouse received a hit from the piston

with an energy level of 0.7J. Since the location of mTBI determines the severity of comatose and

brainstem pathologies following the injury [39], mice received TBI impacts in either one of the

midline positions (pre-bregma and bregma regions, n=6/group) shown in Fig.1. The distance

between the two hit positions differed by ~0.5 cm. Immediately following mTBI, each mouse

was placed in the supine position on fresh bedding material and their righting reflexes (comatose

or time of recovery from mTBI) were recorded. Mice in the sham group (n=6) were placed on

the CHIMERA stage with anesthesia and without mTBI for the same 2-3 minutes duration. After

gaining consciousness, mice were returned to their respective home cages. Based on preliminary

experiments, we have found that mice with repeated mild injury tend to develop allodynia.

Hence, the above procedure was repeated once a day for 4 days. All animal procedures were

conducted in accordance with the NIH and AVMA guidelines and approved by the Uniformed

Services University of the Health Sciences Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee

(IACUC).

Behavioral assessment

On the 6th day following the last TBI impact, mechanical allodynia was measured in the

periorbital region using von Frey method. Mechanical threshold measurements were obtained

using a simplified Chaplan up-down method [124, 125]. Prior to von Frey test, each mouse was

tail restrained in a red tube and habituated for 10 minutes once a day for two days. On the test

day, a series of calibrated von Frey filaments (Bioseb, France) ranging from 0.02g to 2g were

applied to the midline periorbital region between the eyes. Each filament was perpendicularly

placed on the midline region and pressed firmly with sufficient force to bend the filament. A

positive response was defined as a rapid withdrawal of the head, or shaking of the head, or

retrieving back or face wipe. A minimum of 20-30 seconds elapsed between filament tests.

To measure spontaneous pain response following mTBI, a separate cohort of mice was tested for

grimace using mouse grimace score [40]. Prior to testing on the 5th day after the last mTBI, mice

were habituated in plastic animal enclosures (approximately 10 x 20 x 15 cm) for 15 minutes and

on test days each mouse was tested for 10 minutes. Baseline and post-injury grimace scores were

obtained from several still pictures and if needed, grimace was confirmed from video recordings.

Of the 5 standard mouse grimace features, grimace such as periorbital tightening and altered ear

positions were prominent in this mouse cohort and were used in the grimace analyses. In a

separate cohort to determine long term effect of mTBI, grimace was measured on day 6, day 16

and day 22 post mTBI. All tests were performed between 10 AM and 3 PM. The experimenters

were blind to the treatment conditions.

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Quantitative RT-PCR (qPCR)

To determine regional differences in gene expression following mTBI in pre-bregma and bregma

positions (n=5-6/group), fresh frozen samples from several brain regions were collected by

cryosectioning at 250μm using dissection mentioned above or using Palkovits punch method.

We collected different pain-related brain regions, including Sp5C, PAG (described above),

parabrachial nucleus/locus coeruleus (PB/LC), and thalamus. Because the parabrachial nucleus

(PB) and locus coeruleus (LC) are in close proximity, both PB and LC were collected together

during the Palkovits punch method. Further, to identify temporal variations in the gene

expression profile, in a separate cohort (n=6-7/group), fresh TG samples were obtained day1 and

day 8 after the last mTBI. Total RNA was extracted using Zymo Research spin column as per

manufacturer's instructions. Because TG samples are highly myelinated, excess TRI Reagent was

used to yield a good amount of RNA. One to two ug of RNA was then reverse transcribed using

Maxima First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit, and qPCR was performed using primer sets for genes

listed in Table 1.

Table 1 List of primes used in quantitative PCR

Genes	Forward primer	Reverse Primer
Gapdh	AGGTCGGTGTGAACGGATTTG	TGTAGACCATGTAGTTGAGGTCA
Gfap	CCTGAGGCAGAAGCTCCAAG	TCTCCTCCTCCAGCGATTCA
Gja1	ACCCAACAGCAGCAGACTTT	GTCTGGGCACCTCTCTTTCA
Slc1a2	AGTCAATGTGGTGGGCGATT	TCGGTGTTGGGAGTCAATGG
Kcnj10	ACCTCAAGGATCTATGGACGAC	AGCTACCAGATACCACACCAC
Egr1	GAGCACCTGACCACAGAGTC	CGAGTCGTTTGGCTGGGATA
Cd68	TGTCTGATCTTGCTAGGACCG	GAGAGTAACGGCCTTTTGTGA
Aif1	ATCAACAAGCAATTCCTCGATGA	CAGCATTCGCTTCAAGGACATA
Trem2	CTGGAACCGTCACCATCACTC	CGAAACTCGATGACTCCTCGG

Bulk RNAseq and gene set enrichment analysis

Seven days following the repetitive mTBI, flash frozen TG (n=3/group), cryo-dissected Sp5C

(n=3/group; bregma from -8.15 mm to -7.64 mm and medio-lateral 1.25 mm) and PAG

(n=3/group; bregma from -3.4 mm to -4.96 mm and medio-lateral 0.65 mm) were processed for

sequencing. RNA-seq was performed at GENEWIZ (Chelmsford, MA). RNA was extracted

using Rneasy Plus Universal mini kit and RNA from TG, Sp5C and PAG samples had a

RIN>8.4 (TapeStation) and concentrations were determined by Qubit RNA Assay. The

following configuration was used for sequencing: Illumina HiSeq 2x150bp paired end

sequencing on an average of 35M reads per sample. Deseq2 analysis was performed to identify

differentially expressed genes using apeglm algorithm in lfcShrink function [41].

Gene set enrichment analyses (GSEA) and KEGG pathway analyses were performed using

'clusterprofiler' and curated mouse gene sets from 'msigdbr' libraries obtained from Molecular

Signatures Database (MSigDB) were used to identify enriched gene sets in the mTBI group.

Gene ontology of biology processing from C5 collections were used for GSEA. Dotplots for the

GSEA were obtained using tidyverse's 'ggplot' or 'pathview' and 'enrichplot' bioconductor

packages.

Due to recent advances in single cell transcriptomics, there is an increased understanding of the

TG cell specific gene expression in headache pathology and TG specific cell atlas [35,36].

Custom gene sets were built containing gene sets specific for TG cell populations [36]. These

custom-built reference gene sets were then used for enrichment analyses to identify specific TG

cell types involved in mTBI. We then also performed a meta-analysis to identify commonly

expressed genes between the current mTBI dataset and different headache or injury models

(induced by cortical spreading depression, inflammatory soup, spared nerve injury, facial lesion

and scratch). Because these transcriptomic datasets are from single nuclear RNAseq, pseudobulk

differential expression analysis was performed (as described in Harvard Chan Bioinformatics

Core for scRNA-seq pseudobulk DE analysis) and Deseq2 tool was used as described above. For

meta-analysis we used p-value combined approach using Fishers methods available in

metaRNAseq or MetaVolcanoR packages.

In situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry

Based on gene set enrichment analysis and differential expression data, selective genes were

used for *in situ* hybridization using RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent v2 assays (Advanced Cell

Diagnostics, Inc, Newark, CA). The hybridization assay was performed according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Fresh frozen protocol was used for TG (12um thick sections) and the

fixed-frozen protocol was used for the Sp5C (15 um thick sections) with protease treatment for

15 min and 30 min, respectively. Localization of markers of satellite glial cells such as Slc1a2

(Cat No. 441341), Gfap (Cat No. 313211) and Kcnj10 (Cat No. 458831) were used to identify

the specificity of cell types in the TG. To identify the expression levels of mRNA (Gfap - Cat

No. 313211) as well as protein in the Sp5C, immunohistochemistry was performed following in

situ hybridization using manufacturer's instructions. Localization of the GFAP was identified

using Anti-GFAP (1:500 dilution; Dako Polyclonal Rabbit Z033429-2), followed by rinsing and

incubation with a secondary antibody (Alexa-Fluor 488).

To determine inflammatory response by assessing microglial activation in the Sp5C, we used

CD68 (1:300 dilution; eBioscience FA-11; rat anti-CD68) and Iba1 (1:500 dilution; Novus

NB100-1028; goat anti-Iba1) in a separate assay. For assessing inflammation induced pain

signaling (see below), we also performed calretinin immunostaining (1:500 dilution; Swant 6B3;

goat anti-calretinin) in the Sp5C and co-immunostained with neurofilament L (1:5000, Encor;

RPCA-NF-L-Degen) to define the boundaries of the superficial lamina.

Imaging of the tissue sections used for quantitative analysis was performed using Zeiss Axioscan

Z1 Slide Scanner. Confocal images were obtained using the Zeiss 980 Confocal microscope. To

identify the fine cell process, z-stack images at 1-2 µm intervals were acquired and maximal

projection was applied to all images. Calretinin intensity measurement was performed using

Profile View in Zen Lite 3.9.

Statistical analysis

All analyses were performed using R 4.2.3 (https://www.R-project.org/). Packages in tidyverse

library [42] were used for data processing and analyses. Behavioral and quantitative gene

expression data among sham, bregma and pre-bregma mTBI groups were analyzed using mixed

effect models or analysis of variance (ANOVA). Further, due to variability in between sections,

fluorescence intensity within tissue sections was normalized. Quantitative cell counts or intensity

of immunostains between sham and mTBI group were analyzed using stats package lm

regression model or welsh test using lme4 package. Effects of mTBI were considered significant

at an alpha level of 0.05. All datasets were tested for normality assumptions and when

assumptions were violated, non-parametric test (Wilcoxon test) was used. All data were

represented as mean ± standard error.

Results

Periorbital allodynia and spontaneous pain behavior in mice with repetitive mTBI

Acceleration head injury model by CHIMERA resulted in an increased righting reflex on each of

the 4 mTBI days, which reflected an increased unconscious state. On average, irrespective of the

hit position, the righting reflex of mTBI mice was ~53 seconds more than the sham group ($F(2,$

$93) = 7.7$, $p = 0.00079$; Fig. 1b). On each of the four repetitive mTBI days, no significant

difference was observed between bregma and pre-bregma hit groups (Additional File 1).

In contrast to the increased righting reflex, 6 days after the last mTBI, only mice that received

repeated mTBI hits in the bregma position showed significantly reduced mechanical threshold in

the periorbital region, compared to the sham group ($F(2, 23) = 9.41$, $p = 0.001$; Fig. 1c). Mice

that received repeated mTBI in the pre-bregma position had an estimated coefficient of -0.08 g (p

$= 0.59$), whereas the mTBI group in the bregma position had an estimated coefficient of -0.81 g

compared to the sham group ($p < 0.01$). Since pre-bregma position hit did not induce periorbital

sensitivity, grimace, gene expression and histology were performed in mTBI mice that exhibited

periorbital sensitivity from hit in the bregma position. In a separate cohort, where mice received

repetitive hits in the bregma position, grimace was measured at 5 days post-injury. Spontaneous

pain measured from grimace was significantly increased in the mTBI group compared to shams

($F(1, 15) = 7.118$, $p = 0.01755$; Fig. 1d). Further, a significant increase in grimace was noticed

on week 2 and week 3 following mTBI (Additional File 2).

Gene expression in the trigeminal pain regions following mTBI

Next, we used quantitative PCR to determine mRNA expression in several pain associated

regions following mTBI in the pre-bregma or bregma positions. Recent evidence shows that

Egr1, early growth response 1 - an immediate early gene, is associated with injury to ganglionic

cells [35, 43]. To identify whether mTBI induced injury in the TG the expression of Egr1 was

examined. Similar to mTBI mice (bregma hit) exhibiting mechanical allodynia, only the mTBI

bregma group showed increased Egr1 mRNA expression in the TG ($p = 0.018$, Fig. 2a)

compared to the sham group. Since gliosis and neuroinflammation are the primary sequelae to

injury, we also examined generic astrocytes (Gfap) and activated microglia/macrophage (Aif1,

Cd68, Trem2) markers in different brain regions including the Sp5C, PAG, PB/LC and thalamus.

As anticipated, different regions had differential expression of these genes (Fig. 2b) and the

expression levels of these markers were considerably higher in the bregma hit group ($p = 1.48e-$

07) than the pre-bregma hit group (p = 0.00579), which were both greater than the expression in

the sham group. In particular, the markers for microglia/macrophages were upregulated in the

Sp5C compared to PAG, PB/LC and thalamus, while the astrocyte marker gene expression was

highly upregulated in the PAG compared to Sp5C, PB/LC and thalamus.

Regional transcriptomics and gene set enrichment analysis following mTBI

Following the initial gene expression analyses, three pain related regions (TG, Sp5C and PAG)

from bregma hit position were sequenced for subsequent analyses. As expected, transcriptomics

data obtained from the TG, Sp5C and PAG revealed distinct gene expression profiles (Fig. 3a).

More than 70% of the variance was observed between peripheral (TG) and central (Sp5C/PAG)

regions. Whereas, within the brain, 21% variance was observed between the Sp5C and PAG.

Similarly, the number of differentially expressed genes varied between regions (with log fold

change > ±1, p-adjusted < 0.05 and base mean count >10). Specifically, differential expression

of 4862 genes between TG and Sp5C, 5268 genes between TG and PAG and, within the brain,

2056 genes between Sp5C and PAG were noted.

Gene set enrichment analyses showed a distinct profile between TG and Sp5C or PAG following

mTBI. Although gene sets involved in cell differentiation, tissue repair and remodeling were

commonly expressed following mTBI, gene sets related to immune functions were suppressed in

the TG but not in the Sp5C or PAG (Fig. 3b-d, Additional File 3). Particularly, following mTBI,

gene sets from biological processes of gene ontology showed decreased enrichment (negative

sign of normalized enrichment score) of the following GO terms: B cells, T cells, leukocytes,

cellular defense response, response to virus, defense response to bacteria, and response to

interferon gamma in the TG. Nonetheless, postsynaptic regulation, regulation of ion transport,

neuropeptide signaling pathway, and neural precursor of cell proliferation were enriched in the

TG of mTBI mice.

In contrast to the TG, with an exception of a few, the majority of the gene sets in the Sp5C of

medulla and the PAG of the midbrain, were enriched 7 days following mTBI. The only gene

sets with negative enrichment score in the Sp5C following TBI were related to microtubule

organization which includes axoneme assembly, cilium movement, flagellum dependent cell

motility, and microtubule bundle formation. In the PAG, only the gene set related to

ensheathment of neurons was negatively enriched. Full list of enriched gene sets obtained from

GSEA analyses from all the regions were presented in Additional File 3.

mTBI induced TG specific gene set enrichment analysis and meta-analysis

A GSEA analysis using custom gene sets specific for TG cell types [35,36] showed that non-

neuronal cells were highly enriched compared to neuronal cells following mTBI (Fig. 4a).

Particularly, a positive enrichment score was identified for fibroblast, myelinated schwann cells

($p < 0.05$) and satellite glial cells ($p = 0.18$). While immune cells and neurons (somatostatin,

neurofilament cluster - NF 1-3, non-peptidergic, cLTMRs) specific gene sets showed negative

enrichment ($p < 0.05$). Enrichment of fibroblast and satellite cells was consistent with other

headache models, such as migraine induced by cortical spreading depression (CSD) or

inflammatory soup (IS) [36].

Secondly, the overlapping genes between mTBI and other headache or TG injury models were

identified using meta-analysis. Because TG samples were collected 7 days following mTBI, only

minimal fold changes were noted in the current transcriptomic dataset. Thus, to identify

overlapping genes between mTBI and different TG pathology models, a less constraint fold

change was used in the current dataset. Since the sequencing datasets from spared nerve injury

(SNI), facial lesion and scratch injury [35] were based on TG neuronal population, the number of

overlapping genes were reasonably lower compared to those obtained from all cell population in

the CSD and IS models [36]. Nonetheless, a majority of the overlapping genes were upregulated

(Table 2). A few genes such as Lmo7 (LIM domain 7), involved in protein-protein interaction,

overlapped among all models including mTBI, and Nts (neurotensin) overlapped among mTBI,

CSD, spared nerve injury, facial injury and scratch. Kccn3 (Potassium Calcium-Activated

Channel Subfamily N Member 3) overlapped between mTBI, CSD and IS and belongs to

TRPM8 (Transient receptor potential melastatin subtype 8) neuronal cluster. Neuronal injury

marker, Atf3 - ATF/CREB family of transcription factors, was overlapped between mTBI, SNI,

facial lesion and scratch injury, reflecting Egr1 expression in mTBI. Non-neuronal cell markers

particularly for schwann cells, satellite glia, fibroblast and vascular endothelial cells were

commonly expressed between mTBI, CSD and IS. Interestingly, satellite glial markers such as

Gfap, Iqgap2 (cytoskeleton interacting protein), Slc6a6 (sodium and chloride-ion dependent

transporter) were shared among mTBI, CSD and IS. Only a few shared genes (Hmx1, Itga11 and

Fhit) were down regulated among mTBI, CSD and IS and were related to distinct neuronal

clusters (Table 2).

Table 2. Comparison of overlapping genes between mTBI and other TG pathology models.

	Up Regulated	Down Regulated
Cortical Spreading Depression and mTBI	Gfap, Slc14a1, Cacng4, Iqgap2, Lfng, Unc5d, Lamb3, Adgra1, Caly, Slc6a6, Lmo7, Ptpro, Ecel1, Fam107a, Kcnn3, Nts, Cyp26b1, Lrig1	Fhit, Hmx1, H2-Eb1, Itga11
Inflammatory Soup and mTBI	Fam107a, Plppr4, Gad2, Lamb3, Ccdc153, Cacng4, Il11, Grap, Rasgrp3, Tigd4, Grm1, Etnppl, Ecel1, Tmem30c, Epha10, Cpne7, Pak6, Scd3, Snx30, Htr2c, Shisa3, Rorb, Rgs9, Vwa5b1, Magel2, Slco1c1, Atp10a, Gm6145, Iqgap2, Lhx2, Grm5, Slc30a3, Gli2, Gm14204, Rasal1, Zan, Glra3, Usp54, Cfap65, Gm973,	Hmx1, Fhit, Itga11

	Cyp26b1, Slc6a6, Lrtm2, Gfap, Aldh1a1, Kcnn3, Plk5, Dpep1, Casq1, Lfng, Vsir, Prr5l, Ctxn2, Fzd4, Pou3f3, Lmo7, Gstm1, Lrig1, Dbndd2	
Spared Nerve Injury and mTBI	Atf3, Sema6a, Nts, Lmo7, Ulk4, Map3k19	-
Facial Lesion and mTBI	Atf3, Lmo7, Sez6l, Nts	-
Scratch and mTBI	Atf3, Nts, Sez6l, Lmo7, Myh3, Ptpro	-

Meta-analyses to obtain significantly overlapping genes between different headache models and
mTBI were based on Fisher's method.

Although spinal dorsal horn and Sp5C share some similarities in the rexed laminae appearance,

due to unique somatotopy and circuitry, Sp5C have quite distinct neurophysiological properties

[44]. Since, Sp5C specific transcriptome is not available yet, we utilized the brainstem astrocyte

specific gene sets [45] and found that astrocyte specific gene ontology gene sets were enriched in

the mTBI (Additional File 4).

Validation of gene expression in the TG

Transcriptomics data identified that gene sets associated with ion channel transport and satellite

glial cells were positively enriched in the mTBI mice. Moreover, satellite glia cells have gained

attention in the past several years due to their involvement in the pain mechanisms [20,21].

Therefore, we focused on the specific glia markers, Gfap (glial fibrillary acidic protein), Kcnj10

(potassium inwardly rectifying channel subfamily J member 10), Gja1 (gap junction protein,

connexin 43), and Slc1a2 (solute carrier family 1 - glial high affinity glutamate transporter). In a

separate cohort (n = 7-8/group), quantitative gene expression of satellite glia markers revealed

that Gfap and Slc1a2 (Fig. 5a) were upregulated one day after the last mTBI and continued to

show increased expression 1-week post mTBI (p<0.01). Gja1 was slightly increased on day 1 (p

= 0.0525), but was significantly upregulated at 1-week post-injury (p = 0.0339, Fig. 5a). Using

multiplex *in situ* hybridization, mTBI mice showed increased expression of these markers in

satellite glia surrounding neurons of the TG (Fig. 5b).

Neuroinflammation in the trigeminal nucleus caudalis

Trigeminal nucleus caudalis showed a wide range of gene expression changes in the

transcriptomic data. Importantly, GO terms such as inflammatory response, immune response,

cytokine production and regulation of immune system processes were highly enriched in the

Sp5C. Diffuse nature of mTBI injury and innervation of primary trigeminal afferents, to the

Sp5C, between trigeminal subnuclei and other brainstem regions [46–48], have prompted our

investigation of activated microglia using immunohistochemistry in different regions of rostral-

caudal extent of the trigeminal Sp5C (Fig. 6). Based on the area and cell number, a significant

proliferation of CD68+Iba1+ cells in the white matter, particularly in the spinocerebellar tract

(sc, p = 3.01e-11; Fig. 6a-c) was noted, while a moderate increase in the tectospinal tract (ts, p =

0.0038) and pyramidal tract (py, p = 0.0013) was observed. In the gray matter, the gracile

nucleus (Gr) was found to have significantly increased expression of CD68+Iba1+ cells (Gr, p <

0.001). Inter reticular nucleus showed a moderate increase in microglia (IRt, p = 0.0407) and no

differences were noted in the reticular nucleus (MdV, p=0.623). Although no significant

difference was found in the rostral Sp5C (p = 0.192) and caudal Sp5C (p=0.4), CD68 intensity

within the Iba1+ cells in Sp5C was significantly higher in the mTBI group (Fig. 6d, P < 0.0001).

Interestingly, these Iba1+ cells were in close association with GFAP+ cells/fibers (Fig. 7f and

also see below). Furthermore, morphological differences in microglia were noted in the white

matter tracts, gracile nucleus and Sp5C (Additional File 5).

Because astrocytes specific gene sets were also enriched in the Sp5C transcriptomic data

(Additional File 4) and known to be involved in inflammation [49,50], in parallel to the TG, we

also investigated glia expression in the Sp5C of mTBI mice. Similar to gene expression changes

in the TG, Gfap mRNA level in the Sp5C was upregulated 1-week post-injury (Fig. 2b and Fig.

7c-e). In contrast to the TG, Gfap mRNA expression was found colocalized on long astrocytic

processes identified by immunohistochemistry (Fig. 7a-c). Particularly, a fold increase in Gfap

mRNA expression was observed at the long processes of GFAP+ astrocytes in mTBI mice (Fig.

7e). Although Gfap mRNA was present in the superficial layer of Sp5C and increased in mTBI

(Fig. 7c and 7d), due to high density of astrocyte soma in the superficial layer we were unable to

quantify Gfap mRNA in GFAP+ soma. Immunostaining also showed that astrocytes in the Sp5C

have a distinct expression pattern as they transverse through deep layers of the Sp5C. Compared

to the reticular formation (Fig. 7b), only sparse presence of protoplasmic astrocytes were noted

in the Sp5C (Fig. 7a-b and Additional File 6). Moreover, in some sections, Gfap+ astrocytes

processes were bundled in the sham group while these astrocytes processes were separated in the

mTBI group. Although GFAP+ processes traversed from lamina 1 and deeper into lamina 3 (Fig.

7d insert), no significant differences were found in the length of GFAP+ processes in the Sp5C

between sham and mTBI groups.

Due to the increased interest in the astrocyte-microglia interaction in neuroinflammation [51], we

also performed triple immunohistochemistry targeting GFAP, Iba1 and CD68+ cells in the

brainstem sections. Irrespective of the morphology of GFAP (i.e. either fibrous or protoplasmic

astrocytes), a substantial proportion of the GFAP+ fibers or cells were in close contact with

Iba1/CD68+ cells (Fig. 7f). Interestingly, lamina 1 of the Sp5C had more GFAP+ fibers in

contact with Iba1/CD68+ cells (Fig. 7f - inset 1) than lamina 2 or 3 (Fig. 7f - inset 2-3). Other

regions in the brainstem, such as reticular formation and white matter tracts also expressed

GFAP+ cells and fibers, respectively, in close proximity to the Iba1/CD68+ cells (Fig. 7f - inset

4-6).

Cellular mechanisms of the pain modulation in the trigeminal Sp5C

Since we found increased reactive astrogliosis in the Sp5C of mTBI mice and glutamatergic

signaling is well known to be involved in the pain modulation, we next investigated the changes

of the glutamate transporter (Slc1a2 gene product of GLT1/EAAT2) in the trigeminal region,

Sp5C. Interestingly, the Slc1a2 expression was well defined in the gray matter, particularly in the

Sp5C. In contrast to our expectation, the expression of Slc1a2 was ubiquitous without clear

boundaries and no identifiable difference was observed between sham and mTBI mice (Fig. 7g).

In order to test whether GFAP+ fibers in the Sp5C were in close proximity to Slc1a2 expression,

we performed in situ hybridization of Gfap and Slc1a2 combined with GFAP

immunohistochemistry, and found that the majority of GFAP+ fibers containing Gfap mRNA

were in close proximity to Slc1a2 mRNA expression in lamina 2 and 3 of Sp5C in mTBI mice

(Fig. 7h).

Further to identify the causal relationship between cellular/molecular changes observed above

and headache-like symptoms, we sought to characterize calretinin, a marker involved in

allodynia associated with inflammatory pain [52]. We found a reorganization of calretinin

immunoreactivity in the Sp5C (Fig. 8a, 8b) where the peak intensity of the calretinin

immunoreactivity shifted from outer lamina II to lamina I in the Sp5C of mTBI mice (p =

0.0136). Moreover, we also identified that the number of calretinin cells differed between rostral-

caudal extent of Sp5C and was higher in the mTBI mice (Fig. 8c). Although, the number of

calretinin cells were lower in the rostral compared to caudal Sp5C, a significant increase was

noted in the rostral Sp5C (p= 0.004) and a non-significant increase was noted in the caudal Sp5C

(p = 0.1935).

Discussion

We found that non-invasive mTBI using the acceleration method induced comatose state as well

as headache-like symptoms, which resemble the hallmark comorbid conditions of TBI observed

in clinical populations [8,53–56]. Distinct expression profiles and increased inflammation in the

pain associated regions following mTBI showed that there was a concerted effort of different

brain regions involved in multimodal components of pain [57,58], thereby experiencing both

mechanical allodynia as well as spontaneous nociceptive pain response.

Repetitive mTBI induced allodynia and grimace

In the clinical population, mild head injury has higher prevalence for developing PTH [6,11,59].

Similar to clinical cases of mTBI in both nonhuman primates and humans [8,54,56], where

patients typically lose consciousness for less than 30 minutes, our mouse model exhibited

unconsciousness for a few minutes post-injury. It has been reported that the number of injuries

correlates with an increase in persistent headache symptoms [6] and brain pathology [60]. This

set the precedent for repetitive head injury in our model where mice developed periorbital

sensitivity and grimace over time. In line with this observation in mice, decreased mechanical

threshold is one of the characteristics of patients experiencing post-traumatic headache [61,62].

Particularly, here we have shown that there are differences in the site of injury on head where

mTBI mice exhibit distinct mechanical pain thresholds and varying degrees of inflammatory

gene expression in the brain. Although mice were in comatose state after receiving mTBI either

in the bregma or pre-bregma position on the dorsum of the head, only mice that received mTBI

in the bregma position displayed periorbital sensitivity and grimace thereby mimicking

symptoms similar to post-traumatic headache. This could potentially be related to injury to the

trigeminal nerve terminals surrounding the head [18,63–65] and these results might explain the

heterogeneity involved in mTBI induced symptoms. Effects of mTBI on grimace several days

after injury pointed to the fact that mTBI induced by the acceleration method had clinical

manifestation where headache symptoms were observed after injury [66]. The profound

innervation of the head by the TG, as well as its first and second order connections to the Sp5C,

PB, and PAG, suggests a potential role for these regions in the chronification of PTH [57,67,68].

Repetitive mTBI induced differences in gene expression

Having the proof of concept that periorbital sensitivity and grimace become prominent after

repetitive mTBI, we investigated gene expression changes in the TG and several other pain

related regions. Specifically, sensory information from the trigeminal system is relayed to the

ascending pain regions, including PB/LC [65,69,70], PAG [71–73], and the thalamus [74].

Similar to existing literature on the difference in the location of impact and regional differences

in brain pathology [75,76], we found that non-invasive traumatic injury to the head, only at the

bregma region, exhibited prominent changes in Egr1 gene expression in the TG and elevated

gene expression of astrocytic and inflammatory markers in the Sp5C, PB/LC, PAG and the

thalamus. This enhanced pathology of mTBI in the bregma region was likely due to the

proximity of injury to both coronal and sagittal sutures of the cranial vault, neurovasculature, and

the biomechanics involved in the trauma [65,77,78]. Together, in our mTBI mouse model, injury

to the bregma position of the head has increased TG/brain pathology that likely led to increased

headache-like symptoms characterized by periorbital sensitivity and grimace.

To comprehensively assess gene expression following mTBI, we performed deep sequencing of

the TG, Sp5C, and PAG in mTBI (bregma position) and sham groups. Due to the mild injury

model used in this study and sequencing performed in samples collected 7 days post mTBI,

fewer than 10 genes resulted in log2 fold change of greater than 1 in the tissues examined.

Nonetheless, gene sets enrichment analyses provided an opportunity to understand co-regulated

genes from these samples. At 7 days following repetitive mTBI, we found the peripheral TG had

a distinct gene expression profile compared to the central Sp5C and PAG. The

immunosuppressive state of the TG following mTBI might render it vulnerable to subsequent

infection or injury and possibly leading to hyperexcitability of sensory neurons under certain

pathogenic conditions [79–82] or even by migraine-like triggers provided several days post

injury [83–86]. In contrast to TG, the majority of gene expression in the Sp5C and PAG were

upregulated following mTBI. The only difference between the Sp5C and PAG was gene sets

involved in the microtubule formation and cilium movement, where these genes were

downregulated in the Sp5C and upregulated in the PAG. This difference could be due to the

proximity of brainstem Sp5C compared to the PAG, where severe axonal stretching may have

led to microtubule disassembly [87,88].

To further understand the cellular mechanisms of mTBI induced injury in the TG, we took

advantage of recently published TG cell atlas [36]. Using the gene enrichment analyses, it was

identified that non-neuronal gene clusters were highly enriched compared to neuronal gene

clusters. Enrichment of fibroblast and satellite glial cells was consistent with other mouse

headache models (inflammatory soup or cortical spreading depression), but the enrichment of

vascular cells shown in the inflammatory soup model [36] was not observed in our mTBI model.

We also found that gene sets related to myelinated schwann cells were highly enriched in the

mTBI and this could be of importance as schwann cell proliferation has been shown in other

nerve injury models [89,90] and might be involved in trigeminal pathology. Further, meta-

analysis also revealed a distinct set of genes from this study significantly overlapped with severe

injury models such as infra-orbital transection (spared nerve injury), facial lesion or scratch,

inflammatory soup or cortical spreading depression models of headache. Injury markers [36]

such as Atf3, and Sema6a overlapped between mTBI and severe injury models (spared nerve

injury, facial lesion and scratch) reflecting that mTBI induced injury to the TG. Interestingly,

Nts, neurotensin, was overlapped in the majority of the injury or headache model, and it has been

well documented that neurotensin modulate neuropathic pain [126]. A number of genes related to

schwann cells, fibroblast, satellite glia and vascular endothelial cells significantly overlapped

between mTBI and headache models (CSD and IS), indicating that non-neuronal cells of the TG

have a major role in headache pathology. A few ion channel markers, such as Kccn3 (potassium

Calcium-Activated Channel Subfamily N Member 3) and Slc6a6 (sodium and chloride-ion

dependent transporter) overlapped between mTBI, CSD and IS, where Kcnn3 has been

associated with migraine pathology [127]. Nonetheless, less than 50 genes overlapped between

mTBI and other models. As such, mTBI induced a distinct gene expression profile compared to

other TG pathology models. Collectively, increased susceptibility of TG and distinct gene

expression profile in the TG following mTBI could explain the headache heterogeneity following

mTBI in clinical populations [2] and the challenge in translatability using animal models [32].

Nevertheless, non-neuronal gene clusters, particularly, satellite glia have gained particular

interest for their potential role in headache pathology [20,36].

Glial activation in the trigeminal regions following mTBI

In light of recent evidence, satellite glial cells show a remarkable functional heterogeneity in

sensory ganglion [20,91, 21,92]. Here we focused on the expression of specific satellite glial cell

markers following mTBI. Consistent with the literature, increased gene expression of Gfap, Gja1

and Connexin 43 (Cx43) suggested that mTBI induced increase in satellite glial activity could

function as a protective mechanism [93], or to facilitate pain [20,91] as the expression of these

genes continued to increase through the post-injury days. In contrast to the existing evidence in

other model systems [94–96], we found mTBI increased Kcnj10 expression in the satellite glia

surrounding sensory neurons. This might suggest a protective role of glia in the TG through

buffering extracellular potassium [97–100] where satellite glial cells could prevent further

depolarization of sensory neurons. Additionally, the increased expression of glutamate

transporter, Slc1a2, in the mTBI group signifies that glutamate signaling is involved in mTBI

induced neuropathic pain as shown in other injury models [101,102]. Since, there is high

diversity in satellite glial cells [20,91], increased expression of specific markers found in this

study suggests that satellite glial cells of the TG may play a diverse role in mTBI whose precise

function in pain is yet to be determined.

Compared to the satellite glia cells in the TG, glia in the Sp5C possess a distinct morphology and

may have distinct functional roles [103–105]. Due to regional differences in the gene expression

pattern [45] and unavailability of trigeminal Sp5C specific transcriptional cell atlas, we applied

gene sets (e.g. astrocytes) specific for the brainstem and identified that astrocytes were enriched

in the Sp5C. Astrocytes in different lamina of the spinal cord dorsal horn are known to have

specific functions, including modulation of nociception and facilitation of tactile information

[106]. Interestingly, the morphology of Sp5C astrocytes closely resembles the interlaminar

astrocytes present only in the primate outer cortices [107,108], or radial glial cells and, recent

evidence shows that brainstem/cortical astrocytes have proliferative/migratory potentials [45].

Increased reactive gliosis or hypertrophied nature of Gfap+ fibrous astrocytes in the mTBI and

the presence of Gfap mRNA in the end processes of these fibrous astrocytes in the Sp5C suggest

that these astrocytes are dynamically modulated in the brainstem long after injury. Similar results

in the Sp5C were reported in partial ligation of the infraorbital trigeminal nerve [37], where

elevated astrocytes persisted even months after injury [76]. Although morphology of GFAP+

astrocytes are different in the spinal dorsal horn compared to Sp5C [109], because of the close

proximity to Slc1a2, functionally, GFAP+ fibers in the Sp5C could modulate neurons via

glutamate signaling involved in neuropathic pain [45,110–113]. In line with this, astrogliosis in

the Sp5C has been shown to be involved in the development [114] and maintenance of pain

[115]. Although we have not tested long term characteristics of reactive gliosis, Sp5C astrocytes

may play a major role in the development of headache-like symptoms following mTBI and could

be a target of treatment in chronic pain [116].

Potential involvement of inflammation in mTBI induced headache

Due to the extensive damage caused by the acceleration mTBI model to the brainstem, it was

expected that injury related pathology might extend beyond Sp5C. Microglial proliferation was

more prominent in white matter tracts (spinocerebellar/tectospinal/pyramidal tracts) than in gray

matter areas. While the role of microglia in white matter tracts is suggested to involve

phagocytosis of degenerating axons, as seen in spinal cord injury [117], their function in gray

matter may differ. For instance, activated microglia in the gracile nucleus, associated with touch

and proprioception, might contribute to pain symptoms, as seen in preclinical studies linking TBI

to plantar tactile hypersensitivity [83]. Although we did not assess plantar tactile sensitivity in

this study, the presence of activated microglia in the gracile nucleus indicated a potential role for

inflammation in the paratrigeminal region.

Additionally, reactive astrogliosis in various brainstem regions, often in close proximity to

microglia, suggests potential astrocyte-microglia interactions influencing neuroinflammation and

pain modulation [51]. The increased expression of microglial markers in the Sp5C seven days

post-injury, combined with the extended reach of astrocytic fibers, hints at a possible recruitment

of astrocytes by microglia during neuroinflammation [118]. This interaction could potentially

modulate glutamate signaling in the Sp5C, given the proximity of astrocytic fibers to Slc1a2. The

widespread presence of Slc1a2 throughout the Sp5C [119], indicates ongoing glutamate

signaling in healthy mice for facial proprioception, suggesting that increased reactive astrocytes

in mTBI might further influence this signaling pathway. Consequently, the combined effects of

reactive astrocytosis and elevated microglia activation could potentially regulate pain within the

trigeminal system.

Since we observed increased inflammatory response in the Sp5C and its neighboring region in

the brainstem, we sought to elucidate underlying neural mechanisms of pain. Calretinin-positive

interneurons, a population known for their involvement in inflammation-induced pain [52],

increased in number and reorganize within the superficial laminae of the Sp5C following mild

TBI. This pattern closely resembles with those observed in the spinal dorsal horn after peripheral

nerve injury [120]. Calretinin interneurons have been implicated in the activation of ascending

pain signals via projections to the parabrachial nucleus leading to chronification of pain [121].

Considering the predominant excitatory nature of these interneurons and their role in pain

propagation [122,123], it is possible that reorganization from lamina II to lamina I and the

increase in the number of calretinin-ir neurons following mTBI may contribute to the enhanced

allodynia detected one week post-injury. Moreover, such recruitment would also explain an

increase in microglia and astrocytes in the lamina I of the Sp5C to further augment ascending

somatosensory pain signals. Further investigation into the interaction between glia and calretinin

interneurons is warranted.

Conclusions
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Overall, mTBI in mice developed periorbital sensitivity and grimace days after injury thereby

exhibiting headache-like symptoms. While widespread inflammatory markers were observed in

several pain-related regions, transcriptomic analyses revealed that head injury induced distinct

pathogenic gene expression profiles in peripheral TG and central Sp5C, where glia have distinct

functional roles. Thus, glia in the trigeminal regions appear to modulate headache-like symptoms

and offer an avenue for further research on treatment targets for PTH following mTBI.

Availability of Data and Materials

The underlying data and computational scripts employed in this study will be shared upon

request. Mild TBI induced differentially expressed gene from each tissue region (TG, Sp5C and

PAG) are available in Additional file 3. Data from Yang et al., 2022 for custom gene sets used in

GSEA and meta-analysis can be found in GEO GSE197289 and data from Nguyen et al., 2019

used for comparison of injury models can be found in GEO GSE131272.

Abbreviations

mTBI - Mild traumatic brain injury

Sp5C - Trigeminal nucleus caudalis

TG - Trigeminal ganglion

PAG - Periaqueductal gray

IRt - Intermediate reticular nucleus

Mdv - Medullary reticular nucleus, ventral part

py - pyramidal tract

sc - spinocerebellar tract

ts - tectospinal tract

Iba1 - Ionized calcium binding adaptor molecule 1

CD68 - Cluster of differentiation 68

GSEA - Gene set enrichment analysis

CHIMERA - closed-head impact model of engineered rotational acceleration

Gapdh - Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase

Gfap - Glial fibrillary acidic protein

Gja1 - gap junction alpha-1

Egr1 - Early growth response factor 1

Aif1 - Allograft inflammatory factor 1

Kcnj10 - Potassium inwardly rectifying channel subfamily J member 10

Slc1a2 - solute carrier family 1 (glial high affinity glutamate transporter), member 2

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

GN and YZ designed the experiments. GN conducted the experiments, analyzed the data and

wrote the manuscript. GN and YZ interpreted the data and revised the manuscript. Y.Z. acquired

the research funding. All authors have read and agreed to the submitted version of the

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    Figure Legends:

Fig 1. Behavioral assessment following mTBI in mice. a) Schematic representation of the

experimental procedure involved in mTBI, with an illustration depicting the location of mTBI

hits in the dorsum of the head and a timeline depicting behavioral measurement and sample

collection. b) Increased righting reflex, a measure of comatose state, in mice following mTBI in

the bregma or pre-bregma locations. c) Depending on localization of injury, mTBI induced

differential peri-orbital sensitivity or mechanical threshold measured by von Frey filaments in

the periorbital region. d) Increased grimace score in mTBI mice observed 5 days after the last

mTBI. *, $p<0.05$, **, $p<0.01$, ***, $p<0.001$ and ****, $p<0.0001$. (n=5-6/group, Mean± SEM).

Fig 2. Quantitative gene expression in TG and brain regions following mTBI in mice. a)

Fold change (qPCR) in Egr1 (early growth response 1) mRNA expression in the TG of mTBI

mice after 7 days following hits in different positions of the head. Data (n=6) in the bar graph are

represented as mean ± standard error. *, $p<0.05$. b) Heatmap representing qPCR fold changes

(FC) in the gene expression of Gfap, Aif1, Cd68 and Trem2 in the Sp5C, PAG, PB/LC and the

thalamus of mTBI mice with hits in both bregma and pre-bregma positions. *, $p<0.05$, **,

$p<0.01$ (n=5-6/group).

Fig 3. Transcriptome analyses from TG, Sp5C and PAG following mTBI. a) Principal

component analysis of mouse transcriptome from TG, Sp5C, and PAG shows three distinct gene

clusters belonging to the peripheral ganglion (TG), the medulla (Sp5C) and midbrain (PAG)

regions. b) Dot plots of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) in the TG following repetitive

mTBI, representing the 15 most differentially enriched biological process gene sets obtained

from the C5 collection in the mouse molecular signatures database. Dot plots of GSEA analysis

in the Sp5C (c) and PAG (d) of mTBI mice, representing the 20 and 30, respectively, most

differentially enriched biological process gene sets obtained from the C5 collection in the mouse

molecular signatures database. Data used for PCA and GSEA were obtained from

n=3/group/region.

Fig. 4. Comparison of the TG transcriptome of mTBI mice with TG cell atlas. a) Dot plot

representing enriched gene clusters of different cell types in the TG. Non-neuronal gene clusters

have positively normalized enrichment scores (p-adjusted values <0.2) and neuronal gene

clusters have a negative normalized enrichment score (p-adjusted <0.05). Abbreviations:

cLTMRs - C-fiber low threshold mechanoreceptor (LTMR); fibroblast_Dcn - DCN+ meningeal

fibroblasts; fibroblast_Mgp - MGP+ meningeal fibroblast; NF1, neurofilament+ A-LTMR

enriched for A-beta-field; NF2, neurofilament+ A-LTMR enriched for A-beta-RA and A-beta-

field; NF3, neurofilament+ LTMR enriched for A-delta; NP - non-peptidergic nociceptor;

Schwann_M, myelinating Schwann cells; SST, somatostatin positive pruriceptors.

Fig. 5. Mild TBI induced gene expression of satellite glial markers in the TG. a) Fold change

(qPCR) in gene expression of satellite glial markers (Gfap, Gja1 and Slc1a2) in the TG of mTBI

mice. Bar graphs show mRNA expression on day 1 and day 8 after the last mTBI. Data (n=5-

6/group) in the bar graph are represented as mean±standard error. *, p<0.05, **, p<0.01. b)

Localization of mRNA expression of Kcnj10 (green), Gfap (red) and Slc1a2 (magenta) in the TG

of sham and mTBI mice obtained at 7 days post injury. Scale bar = 50µm.

Fig. 6. Distinct patterns of inflammatory markers in the trigeminocervical complex of

mTBI mice. a) A representative image of CD68+, Iba1+ cells in caudal Sp5C (AP coordinate ~ -

8.6) from sham and mTBI mice. b) A representative image of CD68+, Iba1+ cells at the level of

trigeminal region (Bregma coordinate ~-8.1) from a sham and mTBI mouse. c) Increased

CD68/Iba1+ cell count, most notable in the fiber tracts and in the gracile nucleus of mTBI mice.

d) Increased CD68 intensity within Iba1+ cells in the Sp5C of mTBI mice compared to the sham

group. n=10-15 cells/section; n=3 mice /group. Abbreviations: Cu - cuneate nucleus; Gr -

gracile nucleus; IRt - Intermediate reticular nucleus; Mdv - Medullary reticular nucleus, ventral

part; py - pyramidal tract; sc - spinocerebellar tract; Sp5c (MDH) - spinal trigeminal nucleus

caudalis (medullary dorsal horn); ts - tectospinal tract. *, p<0.05, **, p<0.01, ***, p<0.001 and

****, p<0.0001. (n=5-6/group, Mean± SEM).

Fig. 7. Reactive astrogliosis in brainstem of mTBI mice 7 days following injury. a) An

example brainstem section at the Bregma level -8.2 stained with GFAP (green,

immunohistochemistry) and Gfap (red, in situ hybridization). Scale bar = 200 μm. b) Insets in

Fig 7a representing differences in Gfap mRNA/GFAP antibody (Ab) staining in various

brainstem regions. Representative confocal images from a sham (c) and a mTBI (d) mouse

showing colocalization of Gfap mRNA (red, in situ hybridization) on GFAP+ astrocytes (green,

immunohistochemistry) in the Sp5c. Scale bar = 50 μm. Inset of 7d mTBI mice shows increased

Gfap mRNA expression in the processes of GFAP+ astrocytes in lamina III of Sp5C. Scale bar =

20 μm. e) Graph representing percent of Gfap mRNA in GFAP+ fibrous astrocytes in the Sp5c

between sham (n=155 fibers) and mTBI (n=168 fibers) group. f) Close proximity of GFAP-ir

fibers or cells to Iba1/CD68+ cells in different regions of the brainstem are shown in white

arrows. GFAP-ir fibers or cells that are not in close contact with Iba1/CD68+ cells are shown in

purple arrows. g) Representative image showing localized expression of Slc1a2 in the Sp5C of a

sham and mTBI mouse. Scale bar = 500μm. h) Presence of GFAP+ astrocytes (green,

immunohistochemistry) in close proximity to Slc1a2 mRNA puncta (purple, in situ

hybridization) in the lamina III of Sp5C are shown in white arrows. Scale bar = 50 μm. IRt -

Intermediate reticular nucleus; Mdv - Medullary reticular nucleus, ventral part; py - pyramidal

tract; sc - spinocerebellar tract; Sp5c (MDH)- spinal trigeminal nucleus caudalis (medullary

dorsal horn); ts - tectospinal tract.

Fig. 8. Calretinin in the Sp5C of mTBI mice potentially involved in trigeminal pain. a)

Reorganization of calretinin-ir was observed from outer lamina II to lamina I of mTBI mice

(n=3; Bregma coordinate ~8.2). Full extent of this reorganization is shown in Additional File 7.

b) Representative images from a sham and mTBI mice at Sp5C showing the shift in calretinin-ir

from lamina II to lamina I. Scale bar = 50 μm. c) Increased number of calretinin-ir neurons in the

rostral Sp5c compared to the caudal Sp5c of mTBI mice. **, p<0.01.

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Additional Files

Additional File1. Righting reflex in each of four mTBI days (n=6/group).

Additional File 2. Bar graphs representing grimace at 6, 16- and 22-days post mTBI (dpi) in

bregma position (n=4-5/group).

Additional File 3. Enriched Go terms and differentially expressed genes from three different

regions (TG, Sp5C and PAG) following mTBI.

Additional File 4. Dot plot representing astrocyte specific enriched gene sets in the Sp5C

following mTBI.

Additional File 5. Distinct expression pattern of CD68+, Iba1+ cells in the brainstem. Fiber

tracts, specifically spinocerebellar tract (sc), show a distinct morphological profile compared to

the microglia in the gray matter (Sp5C, Gr, Mdv). Gr - gracile nucleus; Mdv - Medullary

reticular nucleus.

Additional File 6. Increased presence of GFAP+ fibrous astrocytes in the Sp5C compared to the

paratrigeminal regions. Rare appearance of protoplasmic astrocytes in the Sp5C and prominent

protoplasmic appears in the reticular formation in both Sham and mTBI. IRt - Intermediate

reticular nucleus.

Additional File 7. Representative images from sham and mTBI mice showing calretinin-ir

neurons in the lamina I of Sp5C. Dotted white lines represent the Ib4+ staining. Atlas plate at the

level of ~ -8.3 from bregma. Scale bar = 200 µm.

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608

a

Experiment Timeline

-5   -4   -3   -2   -1   0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

Baseline
Behavior

mTBI: Closed Head Impact
Model of Engineering
Rotational Acceleration
(CHIMERA) Energy:
0.7J/day for 4 days

Pre-Bregma
Bregma

Grimace   Periorbital   Sample
            von Frey   Collection

b

Righting Reflex

Time (s)

Sham   Pre-Bregma   Bregma

***

****

c

von Frey

vF Threshold (g)

1.0

0.5

0.0

Sham   Pre-Bregma   Bregma

**

d

Grimace

Mouse Grimace Score

0.4

0.3

0.2

0.1

0.0

Sham   TBI

*

a

Egr1

a