1	Regional Gene Expression in the Retina, Optic Nerve Head, and Optic Nerve of Mice
2	with Experimental Glaucoma and Optic Nerve Crush
3	
4	Casey J. Keuthan ^{1*} , Julie Schaub ¹ , Meihan Wei ² , Weixiang Fang ² , Sarah Quillen ¹ , Elizabeth Kimball ¹ ,
5	Thomas V. Johnson ¹ , Hongkai Ji ² , Donald J. Zack ³ , and Harry A. Quigley ¹
6	
7	¹ Department of Ophthalmology, Wilmer Eye Institute, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine,
8	Baltimore, MD 21231, USA
9	² Department of Biostatistics, Johns Hopkins University Bloomberg School of Public Health, Baltimore,
10	MD 21205, USA
11	³ Departments of Ophthalmology, Wilmer Eye Institute, Neuroscience, Molecular Biology and Genetics,
12	and Genetic Medicine, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD 21231, USA
13	
14	*Corresponding Author: Casey J. Keuthan (<u>ckeutha1@jh.edu</u>)

16 Abstract

17	A major risk factor for glaucomatous optic neuropathy is the level of intraocular pressure (IOP),
18	which can lead to retinal ganglion cell axon injury and cell death. The optic nerve has a rostral
19	unmyelinated portion at the optic nerve head followed by a caudal myelinated region. The
20	unmyelinated region is differentially susceptible to IOP-induced damage in rodent models and in human
21	glaucoma. While several studies have analyzed gene expression changes in the mouse optic nerve
22	following optic nerve injury, few were designed to consider the regional gene expression differences
23	that exist between these distinct areas. We performed bulk RNA-sequencing on the retina and on
24	separately micro-dissected unmyelinated and myelinated optic nerve regions from naïve C57BL/6 mice,
25	mice after optic nerve crush, and mice with microbead-induced experimental glaucoma (total = 36).
26	Gene expression patterns in the naïve unmyelinated optic nerve showed significant enrichment of the
27	Wnt, Hippo, PI3K-Akt, and transforming growth factor eta pathways, as well as extracellular matrix–
28	receptor and cell membrane signaling pathways, compared to the myelinated optic nerve and retina.
29	Gene expression changes induced by both injuries were more extensive in the myelinated optic nerve
30	than the unmyelinated region, and greater after nerve crush than glaucoma. Changes three and
31	fourteen days after injury largely subsided by six weeks. Gene markers of reactive astrocytes did not
32	consistently differ between injury states. Overall, the transcriptomic phenotype of the mouse
33	unmyelinated optic nerve was significantly different from immediately adjacent tissues, likely
34	dominated by expression in astrocytes, whose junctional complexes are inherently important in
35	responding to IOP elevation.

36 Keywords

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

38

39 Introduction

40 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 41 42 neuropathy is the level of intraocular pressure (IOP) [1]. Elevated IOP in rodent models produces optic 43 nerve (ON) pathology that is first observable at the unmyelinated segment of the optic nerve head 44 (ONH), the zone corresponding to the site of injury in human glaucoma, the lamina cribrosa [2-4]. 45 Rodent glaucoma models provide the opportunity to study axonal and astrocytic responses in the 46 laboratory over short time frames. The dominant glial cell of the ONH in all mammals is the astrocyte, 47 though some microglia are also present. Astrocytes reside on connective tissue beams that course 48 across the primate and human ONH. In the much smaller corresponding area of the mouse (the 49 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]. 50 51 ONH astrocytes have distinct properties compared to most other astrocytes, even differing in

52 important features from astrocytes in the retina and distal ON, exhibiting features not previously 53 recognized [7]. They serve the biomechanical function of resisting IOP-generated stress by virtue of 54 connections to the ONH perimeter through integrin-linked transmembrane junctions to their basement 55 membrane. They have specialized junctional complexes on the internal cell membrane facing their 56 basement membrane in both mouse and human ONH [8, 9]. Transcriptomic studies have now revealed 57 many regional phenotypes in brain astrocytes [10]. The ONH astrocyte is likely to exhibit unique gene 58 expression patterns since it is potentially the only astrocyte that is subjected to differential stress across 59 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 60 61 been studied in the naïve state [11] and has not been studied in disease states.

62	There have been investigations of gene expression changes in the retina and the ON in various
63	injury models such as microbead-induced glaucoma and ON crush in rodents and cultured astrocyte
64	models [12-18]. Yet, the majority of this research did not distinguish the rodent UON from that of the
65	myelinated optic nerve (MON) region and other nearby tissues [15, 19, 20]. Moreover, conflicting
66	reports between whole ONH tissue studies and cultured astrocytes further confound accurate definition
67	of the gene expression changes occurring in these cells [12, 21, 22].
68	We performed bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) on the retina and micro-dissected UON and
69	MON to characterize the region-specific transcriptome of mouse eyes in the naïve state and following
70	ON crush and experimental ocular hypertension. We identified unique gene profiles of each tissue
71	region, and found genes related to the interaction between extracellular matrix and cell membrane
72	receptors, along with several downstream pathways important in integrin-linked signaling, significantly
73	enriched in the naïve UON. Interestingly, we found that the gene changes in MON were more extensive
74	than the UON in both IOP elevation and crush models, and these changes occurred in a time-dependent
75	manner. There were increases in both putative beneficial and detrimental astrocytic markers in both
76	models.
77	
78	Results

79 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.

90 Differential expression analysis was performed to extract regional gene signatures of UON and 91 MON. For this, we identified subsets of genes that were significantly upregulated in UON and MON 92 compared to the other two tissue types (Figure 2A). There were 12686 genes commonly upregulated 93 (from both pairwise comparisons) in UON and 868 genes significantly enriched in MON (Figure 2A). 94 KEGG analysis of significantly enriched UON genes compared to MON and retina tissue included 95 pathways known to be associated with astrocyte functions in this region: extracellular matrix-receptor interactions, focal and cell adhesion, and transforming growth factor β (TGF β) signaling pathways 96 97 (Figure 2B-C). In MON, pathway analysis of upregulated genes using the KEGG database collection 98 showed enrichment of steroid biosynthesis and axon guidance pathways in MON upregulated genes 99 (Figure 2B-C and E). The differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in UON coding for molecules in the 100 critical pathway of cell attachment to the extracellular matrix (Figure 2C) included transmembrane 101 molecules (e.g. integrins: α 3,5,8 and β 1,4, syndecan, and dystroglycan), basement membrane 102 components (e.g. collagen 4 and laminins α 4; β 1,2; γ 2), and extracellular matrix members near the 103 cellular attachment zone (e.g. fibronectin, tenascin, and perlecan). Similar analysis of the naïve retinal 104 tissue found enrichment of neuronal/photoreceptor-related pathways, as expected (Figure S2).

We specifically compared gene expression between the two ON regions and found 1646 genes enriched in UON and 1522 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 and glutamatergic synapse), though axonal guidance was an
area seen in both UON and MON analyses (Figure 2E).

111 Differential gene expression after ON crush injury

112 We performed RNA-seq on the retina, UON, and MON following ON crush injury (Figure 3A). For 113 this study, we examined two time points, three days (early, 3D) and two weeks (late, 2W) after crush, 114 with a similar pooling strategy as used in the naïve tissue samples (Figure 3A). We estimated the degree 115 of injury or loss of RGCs by looking at the expression of several genes prominently expressed in RGCs in 116 the retinal tissue samples (Figure S3). Many of these RGC marker genes were significantly reduced by 117 three days after crush, including *Rbpms*, *Rbpms2*, and *Sncq* (Figure S3). At two weeks after crush, when 118 most RGC loss would typically have occurred after crush injury, RGC gene expression was drastically 119 downregulated (by greater than nine-fold for most genes) compared to naïve control retinas, suggesting substantial RGC loss following optic crush injury (Figure S3). 120

121 We compared DEGs at early and late crush time points between UON. MON, and retinal tissue 122 (Figure 3 A-B). Samples from the same tissue region clustered together by PCA, with some separation 123 between crush time points within each region (Figure 3B). Gene expression changes in the retina 124 differed the most from the ON tissue regions (Figure 3C). In total, our RNA-seq analysis revealed 136 and 125 349 DEGs in the retina at early and late ON crush time points, respectively (Figure 3C and Spreadsheet 126 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 127 128 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*

132 (kinectochore-localized astrin/SPAG5 binding) was significantly changed in all tissues three days after 133 crush, this gene was upregulated in both UON and MON but downregulated in the retinal tissue 134 (Spreadsheet S1). Overall, UON and MON had 146 and 188 DEGs in common at three days and two 135 weeks after crush, respectively (Figure 3C and Spreadsheet S1). Of these, all but the non-protein coding 136 gene Neat1 (nuclear paraspeckle assembly transcript 1) followed a similar expression pattern between 137 the two tissues at three days after crush (Spreadsheet S1). The number of shared genes by all three 138 tissue regions increased two weeks after crush (Figure 3C). These 27 genes followed the same 139 expression pattern (either upregulated or downregulated) except for A2m (alpha-2-macroglobulin), a 140 reactive astrocyte marker, which was uniquely downregulated in UON at this time point (Figure 3D and 141 Spreadsheet S1). Interestingly, eight genes had opposite expression changes two weeks after crush: 142 Col2a1, Trim56, Cnn1, Gp1bb, Bub1, Slc39a14, Oas3, and Nhlrc3 (Spreadsheet S1).

143 Gene expression changes were greater in MON compared to UON and retina at both crush time 144 points (Figure 3C). The 2368 DEGs in the MON at three-day crush were associated with pathways that 145 included processes like cell cycle and cytokine signaling (Figure 3D). Over 40% (n = 977) of these genes 146 were also differentially expressed at the two week crush time point (Figure 3E and Spreadsheet S4). 147 While most MON DEGs exhibited prolonged changes (either upregulated or downregulated at both time 148 points), several genes displayed an opposing response between early and late crush time points (Figure 149 3H). Dlk1 (delta like non-canonical Notch ligand 1), Gpd1 (glycerol -3-phosphate dehydrogenase 1 150 (soluble)), and *Il3ra* (interleukin 31 receptor A) were significantly upregulated at three days after crush 151 but significantly downregulated at the two week time point (Figure 3H and Spreadsheet S4). Conversely, 152 seven genes were initially downregulated, but substantially increased later following crush (Figure 3H 153 and Spreadsheet S4). DEG analysis of two week crush samples yielded 1693 significantly changed genes 154 in the MON (Figure 3E and F). While pathways such as phagocytosis and NF-kappa beta signaling were 155 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). 158 159 Notably, these UON genes were largely different between crush time points. Of the 210 UON DEGs at 160 three days, only 25.7% were significantly changed at both time points (Figure 3E and Spreadsheet S3). 161 Like the crushed MON tissue, these common genes showed consistent expression at both time points 162 except for Ccnf (cyclin F) and Bub1 (BUB1, mitotic checkpoint serine/threonine kinase) (Figure 3G and 163 Spreadsheet S3). Generally, UON expression changes early after crush were in upregulated genes 164 involved in cell cycle regulation and cell division (Figure 3D and E). Despite 501 DEGs observed in the 165 UON at two weeks crush, these genes were not associated with specific KEGG pathways, aside from an 166 enrichment in apoptosis (Figure 3D). Taken together, these data suggest that there is a differential 167 response to crush within ON tissue regions.

168 Differential gene expression in the glaucoma model

169 The injection of microbeads into the anterior chamber produces IOP elevation known to cause 170 RGC death that is maximal by 6 weeks [23] (Figure 4A, Figure S4, Table S1). Mice exposed to elevated 171 IOP followed prior experience with bead injection [23, 24], having significant mean IOP elevation at 172 three days, decreasing at two weeks and with minimal difference from baseline at six weeks (Figure S4, 173 Table S1). Micro-dissected UON, MON, and retinal tissue was collected at three days (early, 3D), two 174 weeks (middle, 2W), and six weeks (late, 6W) post-injection to characterize gene expression changes 175 spanning the time course of this model (Figure 4A). There was a clear upregulation of 176 inflammatory/immune response genes in the retina detectable at the earliest glaucoma time point, 177 including Gfap, Osmr, Faf2, Edn2, Stat3, and Socs3 (Figure S6B). This stress response was generally 178 sustained in the retina through at least two weeks after IOP elevation before falling back to baseline

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

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

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

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

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

184 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

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

187 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*, *Pla2q3*, *Oliq2*, and *Tsc22d3*) were shared by two weeks

192 (Figure 4C and Spreadsheet S2).

193 Similar to ON crush, the number of DEGs at the three day and two week time points were 194 greatest in MON (n = 427 at three days, n = 493 at two weeks) and fewest in UON tissues (n = 129 at 195 three days, n = 69 at two weeks) (Figure 4C). Early response genes in the UON were primarily 196 upregulated and related to cell proliferation pathways (Figure 4D and F). One noteworthy pathway 197 upregulated in both UON and MON glaucoma at three days was the p53 pathway, which was also 198 increased in UON and MON three days after crush injury (Figure 3D and 4D). In addition to the cell cycle-199 related pathways shared with UON three days after microbead injection, top MON responses also 200 included phagocytosis and cytokine-cytokine receptor interactions (Figure 4D). At two weeks, many 201 stress response pathways like P13K-Akt and JAK-STAT signaling were also enriched among the MON 202 genes (Figure 4D).

203	Although gene expression changes were far more subtle in the glaucoma model, UON and MON
204	DEGs compared to naïve tissue still varied between each of the three time points akin to crush (Figure
205	4E). Only 14 DEGs were shared between the three day and two week time points in UON; by six weeks,
206	only four of these genes were significantly upregulated (Figure 4E and Spreadsheet S3). In the MON,
207	there was a robust response to IOP elevation that persisted through two weeks and few changes by six
208	weeks (Figure 4E-F). Only 18 MON DEGs were consistently changed among the three time points, and
209	131 genes that had a sustained response (either upregulated or downregulated) through two weeks
210	(Figure 4E and Spreadsheet S4). Of these, response to stimulus and several integrin subunits were
211	significantly elevated (Spreadsheet S4).
212	Injury-specific responses in ON tissue regions
213	We compared our ON crush and glaucoma RNA-seq datasets to determine whether there are
214	gene expression changes in the different ON tissue regions that are unique to the glaucoma disease
215	model. While 56% of glaucoma DEGs from our UON analysis (n = 112 out of 200 total DEGs) were
216	uniquely changed in at least one of the glaucoma time points (Figure 5A), individual inspection of these

217 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).

219

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.

228 Astrocyte responses to ON injury

229 We examined our RNA-seq datasets for genes that are reported to be associated with either 230 general (or PAN) astrocyte behavior (e.g., Gfap, Ptx3), detrimental (or A1-specific) astrocyte/microglial 231 responses (e.g., C3, Serping1, C1ga, Il1a) or beneficial (or A2-specific) astrocyte/microglial responses 232 (e.g., Stat3, Sphk1) (Figure 5D). Astrocyte gene responses between crush and glaucoma samples were 233 generally consistent (Figure 5D). There was no clear A1 or A2-specific phenotype in UON samples or 234 retinal samples with ON injury (Figure 5D and Figure S7). MON had more consistently higher expression 235 of some A2 astrocyte markers (e.g., Ptgs2, Slc10a6, B3gnt5) in early crush and glaucoma time points that 236 shifted to an upregulation of A1-specific (detrimental) markers (e.g., Serping1, C3, Fbln5) after two 237 weeks; however, neither an A1 nor A2 phenotype dominated in our time course of ON injury samples 238 (Figure 5D).

239

240 Discussion

241 There have been several previous studies of gene expression in the ON of mouse or rat. In some 242 of these, the UON segment was specifically dissected from the MON [13, 14]. In most studies, there was 243 inclusion of MON, preONH tissue, or retina [15-18]. In the present study, we compared the gene 244 expression in retina, UON, and MON by microdissection, demonstrating that these areas have 245 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 246 247 two regions [25]. A recent report by Mazumder et al. also investigated regional astrocyte gene 248 expression in the mouse unmyelinated ONH (equivalent to UON in our studies) using the ribotag

249 approach, which enriches for translated mRNAs [11]. While this and the present study had certain 250 overlapping or complementary findings, there were also significant differences. For example, in naïve 251 UON alone, Cartpt is prominently expressed in both datasets and in our disease models, Cartpt is 252 significantly downregulated. On the other hand, some of the enriched pathways differed between the 253 two datasets. Notably, only in our study was cell-extracellular matrix interaction pathways so 254 prominently enriched in the UON region. Further, the UON astrocytes in Mazumder et al.'s report found 255 many genes typical for photoreceptors were expressed within the UON ribosomal mRNA, which we did 256 not. Potential methodological differences could explain these disparities. Astrocytes of the retina and 257 the ON derive from different embryologic origins; retinal astrocytes arise from an optic disc progenitor 258 zone driven by transcription factor Pax2, while ON astrocytes derive from progenitors in the optic stalk 259 [26]. Among many differences between the two types, retinal astrocytes are uniformly spaced (tile-like), 260 while UON astrocytes have overlapping processes that bridge from one side of the ONH to the other [5]. 261 Thus, it is not surprising, but still intriguing that expression patterns of the adjacent UON and MON are 262 so different.

263 The major pathways identified in naïve UON, a tissue in which the vast majority of cells are 264 astrocytes, matched known features of the normal anatomy/function of the UON, whose role in 265 adherence to surrounding connective tissue vitally resists the biomechanical stress generated by IOP. It 266 is noteworthy that the UON tissue exhibited higher expression of genes related to interactions between 267 cells and the extracellular matrix, focal and intercellular adhesion, and four other signaling pathways: 268 Hippo, Wnt, PI3K-Akt, and TGF β . By contrast, the enriched MON genes represented important pathways 269 for insulin, Ras, sphingolipid, and ErbB signaling. An important pathway in common between UON and 270 MON in our analysis was axon guidance. In the mouse UON, the vast majority of cells locally generating 271 RNA are astrocytes [24]. The major cellular content difference between UON and MON is the presence 272 of oligodendrocytes in the latter region. Thus, the observed DEG differences are understandable, but

273	indicate that cell to matrix adhesion is not as prominent in the MON. While the MON must withstand
274	some motion in the orbit, it is not subjected to the stress generated by IOP. We have recently
275	demonstrated that UON astrocytes and astrocytes of all mammalian ONH lack aquaporin expression
276	[27], and differential Aqp4 expression was also observed in the current study (data not shown). It is now
277	widely recognized that astrocyte genetic expression varies substantially in the many regions of the
278	central nervous system [28, 29]. The regional phenotype of UON astrocytes is clearly focused on
279	interactions between these cells and their extracellular environment, a process mediating
280	mechanosensation and mechanotranslation. Recent studies of regional gene expression by brain
281	astrocytes found none of the highly expressed pathways involved transmembrane signaling to
282	extracellular matrix described here, illustrating the uniqueness of astrocytes in the UON [30].
283	One pathway identified as upregulated in both UON and MON in early glaucoma and crush time
284	points was the p53 pathway. Actions attributed to this widely studied pathway include control of cell
285	division and activation of caspase-mediated apoptosis[31-33]. Interestingly, cell cycle genes that were
286	upregulated in both UON and MON were Cdk1, Ccnb1, Ccnb2 and Top2a, suggesting increased cell
287	division. At the same time, inhibitors of p53 activity were also upregulated (<i>Cdkn3</i> and <i>Gtse</i>). In MON,
288	but not UON, further downstream partners of p53 that were upregulated included Serpine1 and Thbs1,
289	suggesting an effect of inhibiting angiogenesis. One genome wide association study found a relation
290	between a p53 polymorphism and one human glaucoma phenotype[34], while another found KEGG
291	pathways associated with human open angle glaucoma were focal adhesion, and Wnt and TGF eta
292	signaling, strikingly similar to the naïve UON pathways active in our study [35].
293	The gene expression changes in the UON with glaucoma differ from those of the MON in
294	glaucoma, with greater numbers of genes differentially expressed in MON. The MON had more
295	increases in cell cycle genes. Both astrocytes and microglia proliferate in the mouse glaucoma model

296 [24]. In both mouse and rat ocular hypertension models, there was loss of oligodendrocytes in the MON

297 and oligodendrocyte precursor cells proliferated, while activation of microglia was detected only in 298 advanced damage nerves [36]. We found that upstream stimulators of Aurora proliferative signaling had 299 increased expression in UON after three-day glaucoma (Cenpa, Arhgef, Dlgap4). However, molecules 300 involved in cell cycling can be inhibitory (e.g., p53 or Tp53), as well as stimulating to proliferation. We 301 found that Cdk1 (cyclin-dependent kinase 1) was increased in UON and MON at three day ON crush and 302 glaucoma tissues, though cyclin D1 (Ccnd1), its downstream target was not. On the other hand, Cdkn2c 303 (cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 2c) was upregulated in the UON at the three day crush time point and 304 Cdkn3 (cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor 3), which prevents the activation of Cdk2, was also increased in 305 early glaucoma in this same region. These molecules would tend to inhibit proliferation. Interestingly, 306 genome wide association studies have identified CDKN2b polymorphisms as associated with either 307 increased or decreased risk of open angle glaucoma [18]. Lockd gene was increased in both three day 308 and two week UON glaucoma and three day UON crush. Its action enhances Cdkn1b transcription, 309 potentially acting as another cell cycle inhibiting factor [37].

310 There are some similarities between our findings and those of Morrison et al. using a glaucoma 311 model in whole rat ON, which found increased extracellular matrix and TGF^{β1} gene, as well as 312 upregulation of cell cycle genes [14, 15]. These studies included both UON and MON together in the 313 analysis, as did DEG studies in mouse after nerve crush by Qu and Jakobs [13]. Howell et al. studied 314 DBA/2J glaucoma mouse gene expression in specimens that included some retinal tissue, choroid and 315 sclera, and an unknown amount of MON [38]. Upregulated pathways included the immune response, 316 chemotaxis, and cell-matrix interaction, including tenascin C, integrins, fibronectin, Timp 1 and 2, and 317 several collagens. Several of these individual genes were significantly upregulated in our two disease 318 models. Our demonstration that there are substantial differences in gene expression between retina 319 and MON compared to UON suggests selective dissection of these tissues is important in future studies.

320 There were both shared and unique gene expression differences between the glaucoma and 321 nerve crush models. The number of genes that significantly increased was greater in the MON compared 322 to the UON in both injury models, despite the fact that the axon injury is known to be initiated in the 323 UON in glaucoma while the crush injury is applied directly to the MON [3]. This observation makes it 324 more likely greater differential gene expression in MON is not simply related to the addition of 325 oligodendrocytes in that tissue, but some inherent tendency toward more stable gene expression in the 326 UON after injury. Qu and Jakobs found that UON astrocyte genes and proteins generally were 327 downregulated, while microglial markers were upregulated after ON crush [13]. Interestingly, expression 328 of Gfap did not increase after crush in their work, nor in the present study in any region or model. 329 Increased GFAP protein is often regarded as key sign of "reactivity" in the brain, where it normally is 330 expressed at low levels, only increasing after pathological insults. In contrast, *Gfap* is expressed at a high 331 level in naïve UON and does not further increase after crush or in rodent glaucoma models [14, 15, 38]. 332 While prior research assumed that astrocyte "reactivity" was detrimental to neuronal survival, 333 the reactions of astrocytes to injury can be both beneficial and harmful [39-42]. A proposed paradigm 334 suggesting that there is an A1/A2 astrocyte dichotomy is now considered simplistic, and features of each 335 are found within the same cells. Astrocytes exhibit important local and age-related heterogeneity in 336 gene expression, structure, and function [43-47]. Our data show that the genes reported to be active in 337 detrimental (A1) and beneficial (A2) astrocyte responses in other models [48] are more prominently 338 expressed in the MON after crush and glaucoma, as well as in the crush model UON, than they are in 339 UON glaucoma. However, there was no clear pattern for differential upregulation of groups of genes 340 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 341 342 [39, 49-52]. Furthermore, beneficial astrocytic behavior is driven by the *Stat3* pathway, which can 343 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 inparticular brain regions [53].

346 Many genes known to be related to microglia changed in the both the MON and UON in the 347 glaucoma model. There are microglia in the ONH and have been shown to increase in number in rat 348 glaucoma models [54, 55]. Interestingly, mice lacking microglia still undergo neurodegeneration after 349 ON crush [56]. Microglia in the ON interact with astrocytes via complement 1q, tumor necrosis factor α , 350 and interleukin 1, activating some detrimental astrocytic behavior. Microglial knockout mice do not 351 develop detrimental astrocytic actions in brain. Microglia have been characterized into reactive forms 352 that are both pro-inflammatory (M1) and immunoregulatory (M2), though these may not be mutually 353 exclusive [47] and dichotomizing microglial responses may be oversimplistic as discussed in the context 354 of astrocytes. The activation of NF-kB in microglia is particularly associated with detrimental effects in 355 brain and glaucoma models of disease and microglial adenosine receptor activation, resulting from ATP 356 release from stressed astrocytes, may reduce microglial activation [57, 58].

357 Cellular pathways selectively active in UON included Wnt, Hippo, PI3K-Akt, and TGF β signaling. 358 Their interactions are complex but are highly related to mechanosensation via transcellular membrane 359 mechanisms. Wnt signaling through cell membrane receptors activates both the Rho and Rac1 360 pathways, affecting the actin cytoskeleton [59]. In astrocytes, RhoA limits astrogliosis and anti-361 regenerative action by suppressing Yes-activated protein signaling (the Hippo pathway) through actin-362 mediated compaction, but independent of microtubules [60]. RhoA also affects the actin cytoskeleton 363 by activating Rho-kinase, inactivating cofilin and activating the actin motor myosin II [61]. Wht signaling 364 also activates Rac1, and Racgap1, Iqgap3, and Dock2 genes in this pathway that were upregulated in 365 three day glaucoma. Other genes that act through cell membrane receptors that were upregulated in 366 our glaucoma samples included thrombospondin, part of the TGFβ signaling system. The relationship of 367 membrane signaling through junctional complexes in astrocytes warrants additional focus.

368	Our study has several limitations of note. To study gene expression of cells in their native state
369	or resident within tissue under experimental conditions, we analyzed whole tissues and not cell type-
370	specific or single cells. Thus, we cannot distinguish that the significantly changed genes found in these
371	studies are exclusively produced by astrocytes or other cell types. In comparing the effects of glaucoma
372	and ON crush, we are aware that there was somewhat greater RGC damage in ON crush that could have
373	an unknown effect on our analysis when comparing the two models. In mammalian eyes with
374	connective tissues in the ONH, there are fibroblasts present in the extensive extracellular matrix. Gene
375	expression profiles have been done on cultured lamina cribrosa fibroblasts, whose behavior may lead to
376	different reactions in larger mammalian eyes than in mice that largely lack these cells [23].
377	
378	Conclusions
379	
	Mouse UON tissue expresses genes that are distinct from immediately adjacent areas of the
380	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
380 381	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
380 381 382	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
380 381 382 383	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
380 381 382 383 384	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
380 381 382 383 384 385	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
380 381 382 383 384 385 386	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—
380 381 382 383 384 385 386 386 387	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.

390 Materials and Methods

391 Animals

392	Twenty four two to four month old C57BL/6 (B6, Cat # 0664, Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor,
393	ME, USA) mice were used for RNA-seq experiments (Table S2). An equal number of male and female
394	animals were included in all sample groups. For additional quantitative polymerase chain reaction
395	(qPCR) studies, tissue was obtained from three two to six month old bilateral naïve, wild-type, (non-
396	fluorescent) FVB/N-Tg(GFAP-GFP)14Mes female littermate mice (WT GFAP-GFP, Jackson Laboratories
397	#003257, Bar Harbor, ME, USA) as described in a previous publication[8] (Table S2).
398	Anesthesia
399	For surgical procedures and euthanasia, animals were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal
400	injection of 50 mg/kg ketamine (Fort Dodge Animal Health, Fort Dodge, IA), 10 mg/kg xylazine (VedCo
401	Inc., Saint Joseph, MO), and 2 mg/kg acepromazine (Phoenix Pharmaceuticals, Burlingame, CA), and
402	received topical ocular anesthesia of 0.5% proparacaine hydrochloride (Akorn Inc. Buffalo Grove, IL,
403	USA). For IOP measurements independent of additional procedures, animals were anesthetized using a
404	Rodent Circuit Controller (VetEquip, Inc., Pleasanton, CA, USA) delivering 2.5% isoflurane in oxygen at
405	500 cc/min.

406 *IOP Measurements*

407 IOP measurements were obtained using a TonoLab tonometer (TioLat, Inc., Helsinki, Finland),
408 recording the mean of six readings with optimal quality grading. IOP was first measured prior to the
409 procedure, and at one day, three days, one week, two weeks, and six weeks post-procedure until the
410 animal was sacrificed.

411 Microbead Injections (Glaucoma Model)

412 IOP elevation by microbead injection was performed in twelve B6 mice using a previously 413 established protocol [23]. IOP elevation was produced by unilateral anterior chamber microbead 414 injection. Erthoymycin ophthalmic ointment USP, 0.5% (Baush + Lomb, Laval, Canada) was given 415 bilaterally to prevent infection and lubricate the eye during recovery. The naïve eyes of treated animals 416 and both eyes of bilaterally naïve mice were used as controls in IOP analysis. Animals were sacrificed at 417 the following time points after injection for analysis: three days, two weeks, and six weeks. A total of 418 two males and two females were included for each time point. 419 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 postcrush for analysis (n = 2 males and 2 females per time point).

427 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

435	discarded. The MON collected was the first myelinated section posterior to the myelin transition zone,
436	200–300 μm in length. Next, the anterior chamber was excised, and retina was removed with little to no
437	retinal pigment epithelium/choroid attached. Dissected tissue was immediately placed into individual,
438	pre-chilled 1.5 mL Eppendorf tubes and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen before long-term storage at -80°C.
439	Tissue taken from naïve WT GFAP-GFP animals was immediately placed into QIAzol Lysis Reagent
440	(QIAgen) and processed using the manufacturer's protocol as previously reported [24]. For qPCR, both
441	right and left eyes from three animals were collected for each tissue region for a total of six replicates.
442	Total RNA Extraction
443	$TRIzol^{*}$ Reagent was added to each Eppendorf tube of frozen tissue immediately following
444	removal from storage. Volumes were adjusted for each tissue region based on approximate size/weight.
445	Tissue was homogenized at room temperature using a battery-operated, motorized pestle, and total
446	RNA was extracted according to the manufacturer's protocol.
447	RNA-seq Library Preparation and Sequencing
448	For the three tissue regions, male and female replicate RNA samples (n = 4 replicates per tissue
449	per treatment/time point, with n = 2 replicates of each sex) were pooled by sex for a total of 36
450	individual samples processed for RNA-seq. Pooled RNA was submitted to Genewiz (from Azenta Life
451	Sciences) for library preparation and sequencing. Sample quality control was performed prior to
452	generating the libraries. Libraries were prepared using an ultra-low input kit for paired-end sequencing
453	(2 x 150 bp) using an Illumina HiSeq instrument. On average, 40M reads were generated per sample
454	(Figure S8).

456 RNA-seq Analysis

457	Paired-end reads were aligned to the mouse reference genome (GRCm38) using HISAT2 (v2.2.1)
458	with default parameters [63]. FastQC was performed to assess overall sequence quality [64]. Next,
459	mapped reads were assembled into transcripts through StringTie (v1.3.0) [65]. Gene annotation
460	GRCm38 M25 from gencode was used. Expression from both reference and <i>de novo</i> transcripts were
461	reported.
462	To conduct differential gene expression analysis, a raw gene count table was prepared using the
463	'prepDE.py' script provided with StringTie. For each treatment and tissue, a DESeq2 model was fit to
464	compare each treatment time point to the control while accounting for sex.
465	Expression = β_1 TREATMENT_TIME_POINT + β_2 SEX
466	where TREATMENT_TIME_POINT = 0, 3 day, 2 week, 6 week. and SEX = FEMALE, MALE.
467	Differential genes comparing each treatment time point to control were reported separately.
468	Specifically, genes with a false discovery rate (FDR) < 0.05 and an absolute log2 fold change > 1 were
469	considered significantly differential genes.
470	To conduct principal component analysis (PCA), raw gene counts were first normalized into
471	FPKM (Fragments Per Kilobase of transcript per Million mapped reads) by adjusting for gene lengths.
472	Genes with FPKM < 1 in all samples were filtered out. Then, highly variable genes were selected. To
473	select highly variable genes, a mean-adjusted variance is computed for each gene. Mean and variance of
474	gene FPKM across all samples were first log10 transformed. Lowess regression was fit between
475	transformed variance and mean. Mean-adjusted variance for each gene was calculated by dividing its
476	variance by its predicted variance from the Lowess fit. By this procedure, 2633 genes with mean-

477	adjusted variance larger than 1.5 were selected. Finally, to conduct PCA, FPKM for each gene was
478	standardized and 'prcomp' was applied to compute the top two principal components.

- 479 KEGG pathway analysis for significantly changed genes was completed using g:Profiler GOst
- 480 (Version: 0.1.7) [66] with the multiple testing correction method applying a significance threshold of
- 481 0.05. Sample distances were measured by log2 transformation of the normalized counts data and
- 482 calculation of the Euclidean distance between samples.
- 483 *Quantitative Polymerase Chain Reaction (qPCR)*

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

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

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

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

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

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

- 490 housekeeping genes (Table S3). The mean of the six samples from three biological replicates were
- 491 plotted for each tissue analyzed.

492 Figures and Tables with Captions





- 503 (*Rho*, encodes for Rhodopsin), microglial (*Cd68*, encodes for Cluster of Differentiation 68), and
- 504 capillary/endothelial (*Flt1*, encodes for VEGFR1). Dots represent a single sample and lines represent the
- 505 median FPKM of the replicate samples. (D) Expression of astrocyte genes in three naïve tissue regions:
- 506 UON, MON, and retina. Left y-axis and filled bars represent FPKM (from RNA-seq data), while right y-axis
- 507 and empty bars indicate relative expression via qPCR of independent tissue samples. Error bars indicate
- 508 standard deviation. For RNA-seq, n = 2 (pooled) samples per tissue type. For qPCR, n = 6 samples from 3
- 509 mice per tissue group.
- 510
- 511



513	Figure 2. Region-specific gene signatures in the naïve ON. (A) Venn diagrams showing the number of
514	significantly enriched genes in naïve UON compared to MON and retina (top) and MON compared to
515	UON and retina (bottom). (B) KEGG analysis of enriched UON (top) and MON (bottom) genes compared
516	to all other tissue regions. (C) Clustered heatmaps of significantly upregulated UON genes within the
517	extracellular matrix (ECM)-receptor interactions (top) and MON-enriched genes in the steroid
518	biosynthesis (bottom) KEGG pathways. (D) Volcano plot showing differential expression analysis
519	comparing naïve UON and MON. Dotted lines indicate threshold cut-off for a significantly changed gene
520	($log_2FC \pm 1$, in addition to adjusted p < 0.05). Genes with $log_2FC > 1$ were considered enriched in UON,
521	and genes with $log_2FC < -1$ signified MON-enriched genes. (E) KEGG pathways enriched in UON and MON
522	genes.









535 Figure 4. Differential responses to glaucoma. (A) Experimental design for RNA-seq experiments in the 536 bead-induced glaucoma model. (B) PCA of control and experimental glaucoma tissue time points. (C) 537 Venn diagrams showing relationships of DEGs between UON, MON, and retina three days, two weeks, 538 and six weeks after IOP elevation. (D) KEGG pathway analysis of UON and MON DEGs at different time 539 points following IOP elevation. (E) Venn diagrams showing relationships of UON (left) and MON (right) 540 responses to bead-induced glaucoma. (F) Number of up/down genes in UON and MON at each 541 glaucoma time point. (G-H) Gene expression changes in UON (G) and MON (H) during the glaucoma time 542 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.

551

552 Supplementary Materials

553 Figures S1-8

- 554 Figure S1: qPCR validation of naïve RNA-seq data.
- 555 Figure S2: Gene signature of the naïve mouse retina.
- 556 Figure S3: Expression of RGC marker genes in retinal tissue following ON injury.
- 557 Figure S4: IOP measurements over time in the microbead-induced glaucoma model.
- 558 Figure S5: Sex-specific gene expression differences in disease models.
- 559 Figure S6: Differential responses to crush and glaucoma in the retina.
- 560 Figure S7: A1/A2-specific gene signatures in the retina.
- 561 Figure S8: Total number of sequences.
- 562
- 563 <u>Tables S1-3</u>
- Table S1: IOP measurements over time in the microbead-induced glaucoma model.
- 565 Table S2: Animals used in this study.
- 566 Table S3: qPCR primers used in this study.
- 567
- 568 Spreadsheets S1-5
- 569 Spreadsheet S1: List of DEGs and their relationships between all tissue regions in ON crush.
- 570 Spreadsheet S2: List of DEGs and their relationships between all tissue regions in the glaucoma model.
- 571 Spreadsheet S3: List of UON DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.
- 572 Spreadsheet S4: List of MON DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.
- 573 Spreadsheet S5: List of retina DEGs by time point in ON crush and glaucoma models.
- 574 Spreadsheet S6: List of DEGs comparing disease models by tissue region.

575

576 Funding Information

577	This study was supported in part by PHS research grants EY 02120 (HAQ) and 5P30EY001765
-----	---

- 578 (Wilmer Eye Institute Core grant), NIH grant R01HG009518 (HJ), the A. Edward Maumenee Professorship
- 579 (HAQ), and unrestricted support from Mary Bartkus and from Tom Forrester.

580 Acknowledgements

581 Schematics for Figures 1, 3, and 4 were created with BioRender.com.

582 Author Contributions

- 583 HAQ conceptualized ideas, wrote and edited the manuscript, and acquired funding. CJK
- 584 performed tissue preparations, analyzed study data, and wrote and edited the manuscript. TVJ provided
- 585 concepts and experimental advice, carried out animal treatment, and edited the manuscript. DJZ
- 586 provided concepts and experimental advice and edited the manuscript. MW, WF, and HJ performed
- 587 bioinformatic analysis. SQ, EK and JS carried out animal treatment and tissue preparation. All authors
- 588 read and approved the final manuscript.

589 Conflicts of Interest

590 The authors declare no conflict of interests.

591 Institutional Review Board Statement

- 592 All animal protocols were in accordance with the guidelines of the ARVO Statement for the Use
- 593 of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research and approved and monitored by the Johns Hopkins
- 594 University School of Medicine Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol #MO21M401).

595 Data Availability Statement

- 596 The dataset supporting the conclusion of this article is available in the [repository name]
- 597 repository, [unique persistent identifier and hyperlink to dataset in http:// format] and included within
- 598 the article (and its additional files).

599 **REFERENCES**

- 600
- 1. Boland, M.V. and H.A. Quigley, Risk factors and open-angle glaucoma: classification and
- 602 *application*. J Glaucoma, 2007. **16**(4): p. 406-18.
- 603 2. Morrison, J.C., et al., Understanding mechanisms of pressure-induced optic nerve damage. Prog
- 604 Retin Eye Res, 2005. **24**(2): p. 217-40.
- 605 3. Howell, G.R., et al., *Axons of retinal ganglion cells are insulted in the optic nerve early in DBA/2J*
- 606 glaucoma. J Cell Biol, 2007. **179**(7): p. 1523-37.
- 4. Quigley, H.A., et al., Optic nerve damage in human glaucoma. II. The site of injury and
- 608 *susceptibility to damage*. Arch Ophthalmol, 1981. **99**(4): p. 635-49.
- 5. Sun, D., et al., *The morphology and spatial arrangement of astrocytes in the optic nerve head of*
- 610 *the mouse*. J Comp Neurol, 2009. **516**(1): p. 1-19.
- 6. Downs, J.C., M.D. Roberts, and C.F. Burgoyne, *Mechanical environment of the optic nerve head*612 *in glaucoma*. Optom Vis Sci, 2008. **85**(6): p. 425-35.
- 613 7. Kobayashi, S., et al., *Expression of neural cell adhesion molecule (NCAM) characterizes a*
- 614 *subpopulation of type 1 astrocytes in human optic nerve head.* Glia, 1997. **20**(3): p. 262-73.
- 615 8. Quillen, S., et al., *Astrocyte responses to experimental glaucoma in mouse optic nerve head*. PLoS
 616 One, 2020. **15**(8): p. e0238104.
- 617 9. Morrison, J.C., Integrins in the optic nerve head: potential roles in glaucomatous optic
- 618 *neuropathy (an American Ophthalmological Society thesis).* Trans Am Ophthalmol Soc, 2006.
- 619 **104**: p. 453-77.
- Forrest, S.L., et al., *Distribution Patterns of Astrocyte Populations in the Human Cortex.*Neurochem Res, 2022.
- Mazumder, A.G., et al., *Astrocyte heterogeneity within white matter tracts and a unique subpopulation of optic nerve head astrocytes.* iScience, 2022. **25**(12): p. 105568.

624	12.	Ahmed, F., et al., Microarray analysis of changes in mRNA levels in the rat retina after
625		experimental elevation of intraocular pressure. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci, 2004. 45(4): p. 1247-
626		58.
627	13.	Qu, J. and T.C. Jakobs, The Time Course of Gene Expression during Reactive Gliosis in the Optic
628		<i>Nerve</i> . PLoS One, 2013. 8 (6): p. e67094.
629	14.	Johnson, E.C., et al., Cell proliferation and interleukin-6-type cytokine signaling are implicated by
630		gene expression responses in early optic nerve head injury in rat glaucoma. Invest Ophthalmol
631		Vis Sci, 2011. 52 (1): p. 504-18.
632	15.	Johnson, E.C., et al., Global changes in optic nerve head gene expression after exposure to
633		elevated intraocular pressure in a rat glaucoma model. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci, 2007. 48(7): p.
634		3161-77.
635	16.	Guttenplan, K.A., et al., Neurotoxic Reactive Astrocytes Drive Neuronal Death after Retinal Injury.
636		Cell Rep, 2020. 31 (12): p. 107776.
637	17.	Tezel, G., et al., An astrocyte-specific proteomic approach to inflammatory responses in
638		experimental rat glaucoma. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci, 2012. 53(7): p. 4220-33.
639	18.	Hu, X., et al., Interplay between Muller cells and microglia aggravates retinal inflammatory
640		response in experimental glaucoma. J Neuroinflammation, 2021. 18(1): p. 303.
641	19.	Sun, D., J. Qu, and T.C. Jakobs, Reversible reactivity by optic nerve astrocytes. Glia, 2013. 61(8):
642		p. 1218-35.
643	20.	Karasawa, K., et al., Patterns of aquaporin expression in the canine eye. Vet J, 2011. 190(2): p.
644		e72-e77.
645	21.	Yang, P., et al., DNA microarray analysis of gene expression in human optic nerve head
646		astrocytes in response to hydrostatic pressure. Physiol Genomics, 2004. 17 (2): p. 157-69.

- 647 22. Salvador-Silva, M., et al., Responses and signaling pathways in human optic nerve head
- 648 astrocytes exposed to hydrostatic pressure in vitro. Glia, 2004. **45**(4): p. 364-77.
- 649 23. Cone-Kimball, E., et al., Scleral structural alterations associated with chronic experimental
- 650 *intraocular pressure elevation in mice.* Mol Vis, 2013. **19**: p. 2023-39.
- 651 24. Kimball, E., et al., The role of aquaporin-4 in optic nerve head astrocytes in experimental
- 652 glaucoma. PLoS One, 2021. **16**(2): p. e0244123.
- 65325.Ling, Y.T.T., et al., Pressure-Induced Changes in Astrocyte GFAP, Actin, and Nuclear Morphology
- 654 *in Mouse Optic Nerve*. Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci, 2020. **61**(11): p. 14.
- 655 26. Paisley, C.E. and J.N. Kay, Seeing stars: Development and function of retinal astrocytes. Dev Biol,
- 656 2021. **478**: p. 144-154.
- Kimball, E.C., et al., *Aquaporin 4 is not present in normal porcine and human lamina cribrosa*.
 PLoS One, 2022. **17**(6): p. e0268541.
- Khakh, B.S. and M.V. Sofroniew, *Diversity of astrocyte functions and phenotypes in neural circuits.* Nat Neurosci, 2015. **18**(7): p. 942-52.
- Westergard, T. and J.D. Rothstein, *Astrocyte Diversity: Current Insights and Future Directions.*Neurochem Res, 2020. 45(6): p. 1298-1305.
- 663 30. Endo, F., et al., *Molecular basis of astrocyte diversity and morphology across the CNS in health*664 *and disease*. Science, 2022. **378**(6619): p. eadc9020.
- 665 31. Chumakov, P.M., *Function of the p53 gene: choice between life and death.* Biochemistry (Mosc),
 666 2000. 65(1): p. 28-40.
- 667 32. Hernandez Borrero, L.J. and W.S. El-Deiry, *Tumor suppressor p53: Biology, signaling pathways,*
- 668 and therapeutic targeting. Biochim Biophys Acta Rev Cancer, 2021. **1876**(1): p. 188556.
- 669 33. Stracquadanio, G., et al., *The importance of p53 pathway genetics in inherited and somatic*
- 670 *cancer genomes.* Nat Rev Cancer, 2016. **16**(4): p. 251-65.

671	34.	Wiggs, J.L., et al., The p53 codon 72 PRO/PRO genotype may be associated with initial central
672		visual field defects in caucasians with primary open angle glaucoma. PLoS One, 2012. 7 (9): p.
673		e45613.
674	35.	Asefa, N.G., et al., Bioinformatic Prioritization and Functional Annotation of GWAS-Based
675		Candidate Genes for Primary Open-Angle Glaucoma. Genes (Basel), 2022. 13(6).
676	36.	Son, J.L., et al., Glaucomatous optic nerve injury involves early astrocyte reactivity and late
677		oligodendrocyte loss. Glia, 2010. 58(7): p. 780-9.
678	37.	Paralkar, V.R., et al., Unlinking an IncRNA from Its Associated cis Element. Mol Cell, 2016. 62(1):
679		p. 104-10.
680	38.	Howell, G.R., et al., Molecular clustering identifies complement and endothelin induction as early
681		events in a mouse model of glaucoma. J Clin Invest, 2011. 121 (4): p. 1429-44.
682	39.	Sun, D., S. Moore, and T.C. Jakobs, Optic nerve astrocyte reactivity protects function in
683		experimental glaucoma and other nerve injuries. J Exp Med, 2017. 214 (5): p. 1411-1430.
684	40.	Okada, S., et al., Conditional ablation of Stat3 or Socs3 discloses a dual role for reactive
685		astrocytes after spinal cord injury. Nat Med, 2006. 12 (7): p. 829-34.
686	41.	Liddelow, S.A., et al., Neurotoxic reactive astrocytes are induced by activated microglia. Nature,
687		2017. 541 (7638): p. 481-487.
688	42.	Jin, J., et al., Glial pathology and retinal neurotoxicity in the anterior visual pathway in
689		experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis. Acta Neuropathol Commun, 2019. 7(1): p. 125.
690	43.	Lanjakornsiripan, D., et al., Layer-specific morphological and molecular differences in neocortical
691		astrocytes and their dependence on neuronal layers. Nat Commun, 2018. 9 (1): p. 1623.
692	44.	Khakh, B.S. and B. Deneen, The Emerging Nature of Astrocyte Diversity. Annu Rev Neurosci,
693		2019. 42 : p. 187-207.

- 694 45. Chai, H., et al., *Neural Circuit-Specialized Astrocytes: Transcriptomic, Proteomic, Morphological,*695 and Functional Evidence. Neuron, 2017. 95(3): p. 531-549 e9.
- 46. Batiuk, M.Y., et al., *Identification of region-specific astrocyte subtypes at single cell resolution*.
- 697 Nat Commun, 2020. **11**(1): p. 1220.
- 698 47. Hinkle, J.T., V.L. Dawson, and T.M. Dawson, The A1 astrocyte paradigm: New avenues for
- 699 pharmacological intervention in neurodegeneration. Mov Disord, 2019. **34**(7): p. 959-969.
- 48. Zamanian, J.L., et al., Genomic analysis of reactive astrogliosis. J Neurosci, 2012. 32(18): p. 6391-
- 701 410.
- 49. Cuenca, N., et al., Cellular responses following retinal injuries and therapeutic approaches for
- 703 *neurodegenerative diseases.* Prog Retin Eye Res, 2014. **43**: p. 17-75.
- 50. Cui, Q.N., et al., *The role of glia in the physiology and pharmacology of glucagon-like peptide-1:*
- implications for obesity, diabetes, neurodegeneration and glaucoma. Br J Pharmacol, 2022.
- 706 **179**(4): p. 715-726.
- 70751.Gharagozloo, M., et al., Complement component 3 from astrocytes mediates retinal ganglion cell
- 708 *loss during neuroinflammation*. Acta Neuropathol, 2021. **142**(5): p. 899-915.
- 52. Guttenplan, K.A., et al., *Neurotoxic reactive astrocytes induce cell death via saturated lipids.*
- 710 Nature, 2021. **599**(7883): p. 102-107.
- 711 53. Hasel, P., et al., *Neuroinflammatory astrocyte subtypes in the mouse brain*. Nat Neurosci, 2021.
 712 24(10): p. 1475-1487.
- 713 54. Neufeld, A.H., Microglia in the optic nerve head and the region of parapapillary chorioretinal
- 714 *atrophy in glaucoma*. Arch Ophthalmol, 1999. **117**(8): p. 1050-6.
- 715 55. Bordone, M.P., et al., *Involvement of microglia in early axoglial alterations of the optic nerve*
- 716 *induced by experimental glaucoma*. J Neurochem, 2017. **142**(2): p. 323-337.

56.	Hilla, A.M., H. Diekmann, and D. Fischer, Microglia Are Irrelevant for Neuronal Degeneration and
	Axon Regeneration after Acute Injury. J Neurosci, 2017. 37 (25): p. 6113-6124.
57.	Yang, X., et al., Transgenic inhibition of astroglial NF-kappaB restrains the neuroinflammatory
	and neurodegenerative outcomes of experimental mouse glaucoma. J Neuroinflammation, 2020.
	17 (1): p. 252.
58.	Ferreira-Silva, J., et al., Activation of Adenosine A(3) Receptor Inhibits Microglia Reactivity
	Elicited by Elevated Pressure. Int J Mol Sci, 2020. 21(19).
59.	Ohnishi, M., et al., Selective enhancement of wnt4 expression by cyclic AMP-associated
	cooperation between rat central astrocytes and microglia. Biochem Biophys Res Commun, 2015.
	467 (2): p. 367-72.
60.	Hoffman, B.D., C. Grashoff, and M.A. Schwartz, Dynamic molecular processes mediate cellular
	mechanotransduction. Nature, 2011. 475(7356): p. 316-23.
61.	Martino, F., et al., Cellular Mechanotransduction: From Tension to Function. Front Physiol, 2018.
	9 : p. 824.
62.	Korneva, A., et al., A method to quantify regional axonal transport blockade at the optic nerve
	<i>head after short term intraocular pressure elevation in mice.</i> Exp Eye Res, 2020. 196 : p. 108035.
63.	Kim, D., et al., Graph-based genome alignment and genotyping with HISAT2 and HISAT-
	<i>genotype.</i> Nat Biotechnol, 2019. 37 (8): p. 907-915.
64.	de Sena Brandine, G. and A.D. Smith, Falco: high-speed FastQC emulation for quality control of
	<i>sequencing data</i> . F1000Res, 2019. 8 : p. 1874.
65.	Pertea, M., et al., StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq
	<i>reads.</i> Nat Biotechnol, 2015. 33 (3): p. 290-5.
66.	Raudvere, U., et al., g: Profiler: a web server for functional enrichment analysis and conversions
	of gene lists (2019 update). Nucleic Acids Res, 2019. 47 (W1): p. W191-W198.
	 56. 57. 58. 59. 60. 61. 62. 63. 64. 65. 66.