Accepted Manuscript

Review

Oligodendrogliogenesis and axon remyelination after traumatic spinal cord injuries in animal studies: A systematic review

Zahra Hassannejad, Aida Shakouri-Motlagh, Mona Mokhatab, Shayan Abdollah Zadegan, Mahdi Sharif-Alhoseini, Farhad Shokraneh, Vafa Rahimi-Movaghar

PII: S0306-4522(19)30039-9
DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2019.01.019
Reference: NSC 18845

To appear in: Neuroscience

Received Date: 16 October 2018
Revised Date: 12 January 2019
Accepted Date: 14 January 2019

Please cite this article as: Z. Hassannejad, A. Shakouri-Motlagh, M. Mokhatab, S. Abdollah Zadegan, M. Sharif-Alhoseini, F. Shokraneh, V. Rahimi-Movaghar, Oligodendrogliogenesis and axon remyelination after traumatic spinal cord injuries in animal studies: A systematic review, Neuroscience (2019), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuroscience.2019.01.019

This is a PDF file of an unedited manuscript that has been accepted for publication. As a service to our customers we are providing this early version of the manuscript. The manuscript will undergo copyediting, typesetting, and review of the resulting proof before it is published in its final form. Please note that during the production process errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.
Oligodendrogliogenesis and axon remyelination after traumatic spinal cord injuries in animal studies: A systematic review

Zahra Hassannejad1,2†, Aida Shakouri-Motlagh3†, Mona Mokhatab4†, Shayan Abdollah Zadegan2, Mahdi Sharif-Alhoseini3, Farhad Shokraneh5, Vafa Rahimi-Movaghar2*

1Pediatric Urology and Regenerative Medicine Research Center, Children’s Hospital Medical Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
2Sina Trauma and Surgery Research Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran
3Department of Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering, University of Melbourne, Victoria, Australia
4Brain and Mind Center, University of Sydney, New South Wales, Australia
5Cochrane Schizophrenia Group, Institute of Mental Health, University of Nottingham, Nottingham, UK

†Authors with the same contribution to this paper

*Correspondence to Vafa Rahimi-Movaghar
Email: v.rahimi@sina.tums.ac.ir
Phone: +98 21 667577001
Fax: +98 21 66757009
ABSTRACT
Extensive oligodendrocyte death after acute traumatic spinal cord injuries (TSCI) leads to axon demyelination and subsequently may leave axons vulnerable to degeneration. Despite the present evidence showing spontaneous remyelination after TSCI the cellular origin of new myelin and the time course of the axon ensheatment/remyelination remained controversial issue. In this systematic review the trend of oligodendrocyte death after injury as well as the extent and the cellular origin of oligodendrogliogenesis were comprehensively evaluated. The study design was based on Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA)-guided systematic review. PubMed and EMBASE were searched with no temporal or linguistic restrictions. Also, hand-search was performed in the bibliographies of relevant articles. Non-interventional animal studies discussing different types of myelinating cells including oligodendrocytes, Schwann cells and oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) were evaluated. The extent of oligodendrocyte death, oligodendrocyte differentiation and remyelination were the pathophysiological outcome measures. We found 12,359 studies, 34 of which met the inclusion criteria. The cumulative evidence shows extensive oligodendrocytes cell death during the first week post-injury (pi). OPCs and peripheral invading Schwann cells are the dominant cells contributing in myelin formation. The maximum OPCs proliferation was observed at around 2 weeks pi and oligodendrogliogenesis continues at later stages until the number of oligodendrocytes return to normal tissue by one month pi. Taken together, the evidence in animals reveals the potential role for endogenous myelinating cells in the axon ensheathment/remyelination after TSCI and this can be the target of pharmacotherapy to induce oligodendrocyte differentiation and myelin formation post-injury.

Keywords: Spinal cord injury; Myelin; Oligodendrocytes; Schwann cells; Progenitors; Oligodendrogliogenesis

INTRODUCTION
Traumatic spinal cord injury (TSCI) is a devastating event involving approximately between 3.6 and 195.4 cases per million annually in different countries (Jazayeri et al., 2015). The acute trauma initiate a cascade of progressive events which last by one year after injury and cause secondary injury (Rowland et al., 2008). Based on different degenerative events during the secondary injury various regenerative and repair strategies have been proposed and are under development to induce axon regeneration and remyelination which can be categorize in 3
different classes: cell-based strategies (Keirstead et al., 2005, Priest et al., 2015), drug therapies (Nagoshi et al., 2015) and tissue engineering approaches (Piantino et al., 2006, Fuhrmann et al., 2016). In some cases the outcomes of animal studies have provided the rationale for clinical trials (clinicaltrials.gov). Although many studies propose the advantageous of acute intervention in order to restrict the progress of secondary events (Fehlings et al., 2016), the endogenous regenerative responses at later times post-injury may also provide some extra therapeutic opportunities.

Oligodendrocytes are myelinating cells residing in central nervous system (CNS). During development oligodendrocytes are mostly derived from neuroepithelial zones, where neuroepithelial stem cells (i.e. stem cells of the nervous system) differentiate into oligodendrocyte precursor cells (OPCs). Subsequently, OPCs differentiate into pre-myelinating oligodendrocytes and finally into mature myelinating oligodendrocytes (van Tilborg et al., 2018). Myelination is a dynamic and plastic process with an excess of OPCs being generated and remained throughout adulthood which are recruited to drive remyelination in case of injury or neurodegenerative diseases (Gautier et al., 2015).

After SCI oligodendrocyte death leads to axon demyelination and leave axons vulnerable to degeneration (Hill et al., 2001, Houle and Jin, 2001, Hassannejad et al., 2018). Spontaneous remyelination after injury has been revealed in some studies (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Horky et al., 2006, McDonough et al., 2013, Hesp et al., 2015, Assinck et al., 2017). Mature oligodendrocyte, OPCs as well as Schwann cells (i.e. peripheral resident myelinating cells) have been introduced as the cells contributing in remyelination after SCI. It has been shown that after injury OPCs and Schwann cells that are quiescent in normal conditions become activated, develop a larger cytoplasm and thinner cell processes. They proliferate and recruited to the injury site to restore the damage caused by dying oligodendrocytes through expression of neurotrophic factors to establish a growth promoting environment and enwrapping neuronal axons to remyelinate nude axons (for excellent review, see de Castro et al. (2013)).

The extent of oligodendrocyte death, endogenous remyelination and contribution of each of the aforementioned cells in myelin formation have been evaluated separately in different time points from immediate to chronic phases. However, the spatial and temporal pattern of myelin formation as well as prominent cell type contributing in axon ensheathment/remyelination in each time point or various regions of cord have not yet fully addressed. In this study the fate of mature oligodendrocytes and their proliferative potential after injury, cell sources to compensate the extensive loss of oligodendrocyte and also the extent of remyelination after
injury have been systematically evaluated in order to reveal the appropriate time points to augment spontaneous remyelination. Based on the present evidence myelinating cells respond to TSCI in a way that after initial loss the number of oligodendrocytes approaches to the normal levels after about one month post-injury. The majority of oligodendrocytes are lost at the epicentre and adjacent regions, however, OPCs proliferation and subsequent differentiation to myelinating cells (both oligodendrocytes and Schwan cells) are the main route to compensate the extensive demyelination after injury. Invading peripheral Schwann cells also contribute in remyelination. Taken together, the evidence in animals suggests an important potential role for endogenous myelinating cells in the axon ensheathment/remyelination after TSCI.

METHODS

Search and Selection of Studies

We searched Embased and MEDLINE via Ovid SP on 9 November 2013 and we updated this search on 24 October 2015 and 7 September 2018. Keywords were determined based on research team discussion, experts’ opinion, literature reviews, controlled vocabulary (Medical Subject Headings = MeSH and ExcerptaMedica Tree = EMTREE) and review of the records retrieved in the initial search. The search strategy was then developed with assistance of a medical information specialist. The following keywords and MeSH terms were used: “Spinal cord injury”, “trauma”, “cell”, and “pathophysiology” Search results were exported into EndNote X5. Also, a detailed review of the reference lists of the most relevant publications was performed.

Eligibility Criteria

All the articles investigating the pathophysiology of TSCI in animal after acute traumatic mechanical spinal cord injury including compression, contusion, hemisection and transection were included. Publications that did not specify cell type, and exact time points for the pathophysiological events were not included. In addition, in order to increase the homogeneity of included studies, we excluded studies reporting on humans (i.e. all clinical studies and case reports), non-mechanical injuries, including thermal and ischemic injuries and other interventions. Finally, non-original articles, including review articles and letters were excluded. No restrictions in regard to period of publication and language were applied.
Selection Process
Two authors independently assessed each article based on the title, abstract and finally the full-text (ASM & MM, SA & ZH). In a case of disagreement, a third independent person (VRM) assessed the article and the final decision was made accordingly.

Outcome Measures
Different types of myelinating cells including oligodendrocytes, Schwann cells and OPCs, which are believed to be committed to oligodendrocyte lineage, were evaluated. Cell death, differentiation and proliferation rates for the aforementioned cell types were the pathophysiological outcome measures.

Data Extraction and Quality Assessment
Data were extracted to a data extraction form developed in our group by two independent members. On this form, general information about each article including the title, authors’ name, publication date, information about method including study design (type/severity/level of injury), time of assessments, animal number and animal characteristics (strain, sex, age or weight), method(s) of evaluation and finally the research question and relevant results were recorded.

In order to control the quality of the included articles, two independent reviewers evaluated each article according to the criteria for TSCI (Hassannejad et al., 2016). Briefly, the quality of each article was assessed based on 15 items including: 1. species; 2. using appropriate tests; 3. severity of injury; 4. level of injury; 5. age/weight; 6. number of animals per group; 7. designation of strain; 8. definition of control; 9. description of statistical analysis; 10. bladder expression; 11. genetic background; 12. method of allocation to treatments; 13. description of the reasons to exclude animals from the experiment during the study (attrition); 14. blindness of assessors of the original investigators; 15. regulations and ethics

RESULTS
Description of the Included Studies
The search yielded to 12,359 records. After screening the articles, 520 articles were included for the full-text review. A final 34 articles were included for outcome evaluation. The search flowchart and selection methods are presented in Fig. 1. Furthermore, characteristics of the
included studies are presented in Table 1. The quality assessment of 34 included studies was then assessed and the results are presented in the Table 2.

Figure 1

Table 1

Table 2

Oligodendrocytes and oligodendrocyte progenitor cells
There were 29 studies discussing the fate of oligodendrocytes as well as OPCs after TSCI (Griffiths and McCulloch, 1983, Blight, 1985, Shuman et al., 1997, Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998, Yong et al., 1998, Abe et al., 1999, Li et al., 1999, Frei et al., 2000, Casha et al., 2001, Grossman et al., 2001, McTigue et al., 2001, Warden et al., 2001, Dong et al., 2003, Wu et al., 2005, Zai and Wrathall, 2005, Horky et al., 2006, Yang et al., 2006, Lytle and Wrathall, 2007, Rabechevsky et al., 2007, Tripathi and McTigue, 2007, Ceruti et al., 2009, Sellers et al., 2009, Wang et al., 2009, Barnabe-Heider et al., 2010, McDonough et al., 2013, Huang et al., 2014, Hesp et al., 2015, Assinck et al., 2017).
A total of 287 CreER transgenic mice (2 studies), 135 Swiss Webster mice (one study), 56 mice (species not available, 2 studies), 299 Sprague-Dawley rats (6 studies), 365 Fischer rats (2 studies), 28 Long-Evans rats (one study), 62 Lewis rats (2 studies), 32 rats (species not available, one studies), 26 mongrel cats (one study) and 5 Rhesus monkeys (one study) underwent TSCI. Also, the number of animals was not mentioned in 11 studies: C57BL6 mice (one study), CD1 mice (one study), Wistar rats (2 studies), Sprague-Dawley rats (3 studies), Fisher rat (one study), cat (species not specified, one study), rat (species not specified, one study) and mice (species not specified, one study).
The collected data included the results of immunohistochemistry, light and electron microscopy and flow cytometry. The markers and methods used to identify the cell types (i.e., oligodendrocytes and OPCs) and to detect apoptosis are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3
The extent of oligodendrocytes death at the lesion center and adjacent regions after TSCI

The earliest evaluated time point was 15 minutes pi, when the number of oligodendrocytes (CC1⁺) significantly decreased at the epicenter as well as 2 mm caudal and rostral to the injury site (Grossman et al., 2001). Reduction in the number of oligodendrocytes persisted ±3 mm away from the lesion site, however, it was not statistically significant comparing to the uninjured tissue at this time point (Grossman et al., 2001). By one hour pi, no noticeable changes were observed 3 to 10 mm rostral and caudal to the lesion epicentre (Wang et al., 2009).

Four hours pi, a further 50% of oligodendrocytes were lost at the epicenter (Grossman et al., 2001) and according to Li et al. (1999) a small, statistically non-significant portion of this reduction was due to apoptosis. At 6 hours pi, TUNEL⁺ cells were detected at the epicenter and 1-2 mm distal to the injury, most of them displaying oligodendrocyte characteristics (double-labelled with CNPase) (Casha et al., 2001, Grossman et al., 2001). Eight and 24 hours pi, a persistent significant reduction in the number of oligodendrocytes was seen at distances up to 2 mm rostral and caudal to lesion epicenter (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Grossman et al., 2001).

At 24 hours pi, the number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes (TUNEL/CNPase⁺) at the white matter (WM) of epicenter approximately doubled compared to controls (Huang et al., 2014). Also, in spared WM at the epicenter, the density of mature oligodendrocytes decreased significantly by 24 hours pi (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). At this time point, 1.5 mm rostral and caudal to the injury site; as well as epicenter, CC1⁺ oligodendrocytes were significantly reduced (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). Accordingly, 24 hours pi PLP (proteolipid protein) mRNA expression was mostly absent in the central necrotic area which indicated a significant loss of oligodendrocytes in this area (Frei et al., 2000). Li et al. (1999) reported, using TUNEL assay, a statistically non-significant presence of apoptotic cells rostral (T1-T7) and caudal (T10-L2) (where the epicenter was T8-9) 24 hour pi after moderate and severe injuries (Li et al., 1999). At 2 days pi, the total number of mature oligodendrocytes (CC1⁺) decreased to less than half of the naïve animals at the epicenter and ventral-lateral funiculi up to 14 mm distal to the injury site (Rabchevsky et al., 2007).

At day 3, the number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes (TUNEL/CNPase⁺) was higher than day 1 as well as control animals, at the epicenter (Huang et al., 2014) and within 4 mm distal to the epicenter (Yong et al., 1998). From the third day, TUNEL-MBP⁺ (Myelin basic protein) cells were found sparsely scattered in the WM remote from the epicenter (Abe et al., 1999). It is likely that from the third day onwards, the zone of apoptotic oligodendrocytes spread
to sites remote from the epicenter. At 4 days pi, the number of apoptotic cells significantly decreased in caudal (T12, and L2 where the injury is applied at T8-9) and rostral segments (T1, T5, and T7) in moderate and severe compression (Li et al., 1999). The labelled cells were randomly distributed in the ventral, lateral and dorsal columns of the WM; most of them were located in the subpial region. However, very few labelled cells were found in grey matter (GM) (Li et al., 1999). The mentioned trend of oligodendrocytes apoptotic death is represented in Fig. 2.

**Figure 2**

At 7 days pi, the number of CC1\(^+\) cells reduced significantly in all zones up to 14 mm distal to the injury compared to control animals (Rabchevsky et al., 2007). Also, in ventrolateral WM, the density of mature oligodendrocytes was less than 50% of that in normal uninjured mice (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). In epicenter cross-sections, the proportion of oligodendrocytes to all survived cell types was reduced from 93% to %86 cells per section. Indeed, most oligodendrocytes in the impact site died within the first week after injury (McTigue et al., 2001). In another study, cell counts in the dorsal fasciculus above the lesion, as well as lateral tracts above and below the lesion, showed that TUNEL\(^+\) cells (presumably oligodendrocytes, because they were negative for GFAP, neurofilament, OX-6 and BS-1 markers) first appeared by 3 days pi, becoming maximal in number between days 5 and 7 (Abe et al., 1999). Also, two other studies confirmed that 7 days pi was the time point when the number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes reached the maximum (Casha et al., 2001, Huang et al., 2014).

At 8 days pi, apoptotic oligodendrocytes were most numerous in 7 and 13 mm rostral to the epicenter (Shuman et al., 1997). Also, eight days after T9 level hemisection in C57BL/6J mice, a selective loss of oligodendrocytes were observed 3-7 mm rostral and caudal to epicenter. Staining for CC1 and caspase-3 (a protein that is associated with apoptosis) confirmed activated caspase-3 was expressed in oligodendrocytes on injured side of this area but neither in the intact side of the cord nor in control sections. From double-labelling of CC1 and caspase-3, it was also concluded that approximately 10–15% of oligodendrocytes in this region expressed both epitopes. At this time point in the areas up to 5 mm from the epicenter, a significant loss of oligodendrocytes was observed on the injured side. Moreover, ultrastructural examination at 5-7 mm away from the epicenter showed prominent apoptotic features (Dong et al., 2003). In transection models from day 2 to 8, in situ hybridization revealed that a large
area surrounding the epicenter was completely free from MBP mRNA, indicating complete loss of oligodendrocytes within this zone (Bartholdi and Schwab 1998).

By 9 dpi, a significant increase in the number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes was seen in rostral (T1 to T7) and caudal segments (T10, T12, and L2) (Li et al., 1999). The number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes varied between moderate and severe injuries. After moderate injury the highest number of apoptotic cell death occurred in T7 and T10 segments while in severe injury the lesion size extended and the highest number of apoptosis observed in the T7 and T12 segments. In all examined segments there were more apoptotic oligodendrocytes in severely than in moderately injured rats. However, the difference was not statistically significant (Li et al., 1999).

By 10 days pi, oligodendrocytes were still present in areas with degenerating axons, Wallerian degeneration (WD) zone (i.e., 3 to 10 mm caudal and rostral to injury epicenter). However, the number of oligodendrocytes was significantly reduced to less than half of oligodendrocytes in sham operated animals (number of Olig2+ cells: ~ 60, 50, and 100 in dorsal ascending tracts, corticospinal tract and sham, respectively) (Wang et al., 2009).

In the second week after injury, the number of apoptotic oligodendrocytes declined significantly in lateral tracts above and below the injury site and the dorsal column (Abe et al., 1999), but they were still present 1-2 mm distal to the epicenter (Casha et al., 2001). The epicenter itself was already devoid of oligodendrocytes; only an amorphous mass of cell debris and MBP-positive macrophages were observed at the lesion epicenter, where MBP mRNA was almost absent. The very few MBP mRNA expressing cells detected in the dorsal funiculi that were probably due to invading Schwann cells (Bartholdi and Schwab 1998).

The oligodendrocyte processes formed a defined border separating the lesion area from the spared tissue (Bartholdi and Schwab 1998). In WM areas remote from the lesion, signs of WD became very prominent; at the center of the degeneration zone MBP mRNA+ oligodendrocytes were lost; however, levels of MBP mRNAs strongly increased at the borders of the lesion (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998).

Yong et al. also detected a second peak of oligodendrocyte apoptosis at 14 days pi (Yong et al., 1998). Since, at this time point the authors did not specify the areas where the TUNEL/RIP+ cells were present, this second peak could be due to death in the WD zones rather than the epicenter where the first peak of apoptotic oligodendrocytes was observed at 5-7 days pi.

Apoptotic cell death of oligodendrocytes continued by the third weeks pi (Crowe et al., 1997, Shuman et al., 1997). At this time point, oligodendrocytes apoptosis had decreased slightly in rostral blocks, in contrast to 7 mm caudal to the lesion epicenter where apoptosis increased
(Shuman et al., 1997). Between 8 and 30 days pi, a delayed apoptosis of oligodendrocytes continued specifically in distal zones both rostral and caudal (Dong et al., 2003). By the fourth week after injury, in WM at the epicenter, the density of apoptotic oligodendrocytes reduced to the normal level (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007); also at 1.5 mm rostral and caudal to the injury epicenter in two injured mice the density of oligodendrocytes returned to the levels of uninjured controls (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). Thus by the fourth week, the number of oligodendrocytes seemed to stabilize and remain constant thereafter (McTigue et al., 2001). The summary of OL’s death is schematically presented in Fig. 2.

The response of oligodendrocyte progenitor cells to TSCI
At 24 hours pi, the proportion of BrdU/Olig2+ cells dropped dramatically from ~90% in control to almost 40% at the epicenter (McDonough et al., 2013), which shows that OPCs that were proliferating before injury either die or do not activate a proliferation program to a significant extent after TSCI (Horky et al., 2006). Meanwhile, a peak of NG2+ cell proliferation was observed at the 1.5 mm away from the epicenter (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007), and a small increase in number of NG2+ cells at the WM 5 and 10 mm caudal to the epicenter was detected (Wu et al., 2005). The NG2+ cells as well as newly formed oligodendrocytes were surrounding lesion borders (Hesp et al., 2015).

At day 2 pi, the number of NG2+ cells were increased by 50% compared to controls at the distal ventrolateral funiculi but did not change at the epicenter (Rabchevsky et al., 2007). One to three days pi, the number of proliferating OPCs (BrdU/NG2+ cells) in spared WM increased slightly but insignificantly compared to control animals (25 and ~10 cells/mm², respectively), whereas in GM (borders and spared GM), the number was significantly higher (>40 cells/mm²). Most of the NG2+ cells proliferated at lesion borders (1-2 mm distal from epicenter) (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007, Tripathi and McTigue, 2007), significantly more than control animals (Ceruti et al., 2009) while decreasing at the epicenter compared to control (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). In areas 2-4 mm distal to the epicentre, as well as lesion borders, half of the dividing cells were NG2+ at day 3 and some of the NG2+ cells were co-labelled with GFAP (marker of astrocytes) (Zai and Wrathall, 2005, Ceruti et al., 2009). There were only a few proliferating CC1+ cells in the lesion area and WM distal to the epicentre (Ceruti et al., 2009).

Later, during 4-7 days pi, OPCs continued to proliferate at the WM and GM lesion borders and some evidence of oligodendrogliogenesis was revealed along the lesion borders (Tripathi and McTigue, 2007). At day 7, the total number of NG2+ cells were higher at the spared WM at the epicentre compared to control animals (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). There was small reduction
in NG2+ cells compared to day 2 (Rabchevsky et al., 2007), yet remained 8 times higher than control animal, comprising over 80% of the proliferating cells at the lesion borders (Ceruti et al., 2009). At the ventrolateral funiculi, an increase in total number of mature oligodendrocytes was observed (Rabchevsky et al., 2007). In another study, the number of proliferating NG2+ cells (BrdU/NG2) were reported to increase up to three times within the epicentre (both at the spared and lesion areas) and up to 6 times rostral and caudal to the epicentre (< 2 mm) (McTigue et al., 2001).

At the first week pi, in 5 mm caudal from the epicentre, an increased number of NG2+ cells was observed in WM. Also, NG2+ cells in the WM from subpial region 5 mm distal to the epicentre were predominantly co-labelled with GFAP (Wu et al., 2005).

The OPCs that had proliferated during the first week, kept proliferating during the second week (7-14 dpi) at the GM lesion borders, whereas at the WM lesion borders the number remained similar to 7 days pi. The proliferation of OPCs at the borders led to higher numbers of newly formed oligodendrocytes in this areas during the first three days (~17 cells/mm²) compared to control animals (<5 cells/mm²) (Tripathi and McTigue, 2007). In-situ hybridization of MBP mRNA at the lesion borders showed an increase in MBP expression in WM and GM at 8 days pi. These MBP-expressing cells, displayed the initial signs of remyelination by forming loose network of cells at the lesion borders (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998). At 9 days pi Mcdonough et al. reported a decrease in proportion of BrdU+ cells that expressed Olig2 at epicentre and regions next to the epicenter, both in WM and GM (McDonough et al., 2013). This could be due to the onset of differentiation of OPCs to a committed cell lineage when an upward trend is seen in the proportion of oligodendrocytes compared to previous time points (McDonough et al., 2013).

By the second week pi a continual trend in the reduction of the extent of NG2+ and Olig2+ cells was seen reaching that of normal controls and remaining at this level afterwards (McTigue et al., 2001, McDonough et al., 2013). Also, in the regions that OPCs were highly proliferative during 1-3 days (i.e. spared WM), the number of oligodendrocytes was doubled compared to day 3, indication of the oligodendroliogenesis process. An excess of oligodendrocytes was also observed in spared GM (>40 cells/mm²) where the OPCs proliferated within the first three days after injury. As expected, the greatest increase in number of oligodendrocytes was detected in the area where OPCs had proliferated i.e. WM and GM lesion borders (>50 cells/mm²). The highest proliferation rate occurred 1-2 mm distal from the epicentre (Tripathi and McTigue, 2007). The new oligodendrocytes formed a border between the lesion epicentre and the intact regions (Tripathi and McTigue, 2007). Similarly, it has been reported that the
number of oligodendrocytes was significantly increased in areas distant from the injury epicentre (> 6 mm), mainly in WM close to the border of the pia-matter (Rabchevsky et al., 2007, Hesp et al., 2015). By this time, the density of proliferating NG2\(^+\) cells was still higher at the epicentre and up to 2 mm away from the lesion epicentre (~3.8 and ~4.5-fold, respectively) compared to the control animals (McTigue et al., 2001). However, at 4 weeks pi, the density of the proliferating NG2\(^+\) cells at the epicenter was in the normal level (Horky et al., 2006).

At 4 weeks pi, the total number of NG2\(^+\) cells was higher in rostral and caudal spared WM, and at the epicentre (~ 76, ~ 63, and ~ 64 cells/mm\(^2\)) compared to control animals (~ 40 cells/mm\(^2\)) (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007). This observations validated that NG2\(^+\) cells were continuously proliferating during the first month while preserving their progeny (Hesp et al., 2015). McTigue et al. reported a decrease in the total number of NG2\(^+\) cells at the epicentre and rostral to the levels even less than uninjured animals, and a slight decrease compared to week 2 but still higher than caudal sections of normal tissue (McTigue et al., 2001). However, these cells were still proliferating at higher rates than in controls (~20-25 NG2/BrdU\(^+\) cells/section as opposed to ~5 cells/section in naïve) (McTigue et al., 2001). Similarly, the proliferation rate has been reported to decline after 4 weeks pi, but remaining 3-9 fold higher than control animals (Hesp et al., 2015). The highest number of NG2\(^+\) cells was observed 5-10 mm rostral and caudal to the epicentre (Wu et al., 2005), whereas, at the WM of the epicentre, the number of oligodendrocytes returned to normal amount (Lytle and Wrathall, 2007).

At 6 weeks pi, although the number of NG2\(^+\) cells was still higher than controls (Rabchevsky et al., 2007), a very few proliferating cells were seen distal (2-4 mm) to the epicentre. However, one-fourth of the total oligodendrocytes were proliferative in this region, which is presumably the result of the NG2\(^+\) cells proliferation at the early stages (Zai and Wrathall 2005). The number of oligodendrocytes had returned to normal, validating the recovery of oligodendrocyte population by this time (Rabchevsky et al., 2007). These newly formed oligodendrocytes ran processes along the axons, and initiated remyelination from 6 weeks pi to as late as 9 weeks pi (Hesp et al., 2015). The fluctuation in proliferation rate of OPCs in epicenter and distal regions has been schematically demonstrated in Fig. 3.

Figure 3
Extensive oligodendrogliogenesis occurred during the first 7 weeks after injury leading to the recovery of oligodendrocytes (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Horky et al., 2006, Rabchevsky et al., 2007, Tripathi and McTigue, 2007, Hesp et al., 2015). As opposed to NG2 expression that declined at 8 and 12 weeks pi (Wu et al., 2005) and was rarely detected at weeks 7 and 9 (Yang et al., 2006), the number of proliferating oligodendrocytes (BrdU+/APC+ or CC1+) continuously increased at 3 (Horky et al., 2006) 7, 9, 15, and 29 weeks pi (Yang et al., 2006). The vast majority of new oligodendrocytes at 3-4 months pi, was derived from OPCs (Barnabe-Heider et al., 2010, Assinck et al., 2017). McTigue et al. reported that the proliferative response of OPCs remains elevated compared to normal animals up to 4 weeks pi, and returns back to normal levels at 10 weeks pi (McTigue et al., 2001). In mice, on the other hand, the total number of NG2+ cells escalated 4, 5, 6, 7, and 9 weeks pi in both WM and GM compared to uninjured control animals (Hesp et al., 2015). This shows a long-term maintenance of the OPCs population in both rats and mice and it overall reveals that proliferation of OPCs during the first two weeks is the source of newly formed oligodendrocytes and remyelination at later times. The oligodendrogliogenesis and total number of oligodendrocytes over time after injury outlined in Fig. 4.

**Figure 4**

OPCs are the main source of new mature oligodendrocytes after TSCI and the reduction in the extent of OPCs at chronic phase after injury is a result of oligodendrocyte differentiation. This assumption has been confirmed using mapping the fate of OPCs after injury (Assinck et al., 2017). There was significantly more oligodendrocytes at 12 weeks pi compared with 3 weeks pi. Reciprocally, there was lower percentage of recombined OPCs (17%) at 12 weeks pi compared with 3 weeks pi (35%) (Assinck et al., 2017).

**Schwann Cells**

A total of 11 studies reporting data concerning Schwann cells and the comprehensive information as specified above were retrieved (Gilson and Stensaas, 1974, Matthews et al., 1979, Griffiths and McCulloch, 1983, Blight, 1985, Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Brook et al., 1998, Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998, Yang et al., 2006, Hui et al., 2010, James et al., 2011, Assinck et al., 2017). The experimental data of these studies were based on observations in 70 Sprague-Dawley rats (one study), 87 Lewis rats (two studies), 108 Long-Evan rats (2 studies), 24 Wistar rat (one study), 233 CreER transgenic mice (one study), 35 cats (2 studies), 30 zebrafish (one study) and 5 Rhesus monkeys (one study).
Reported data were based on immunohistochemistry, light and electron microscopy techniques. Also in one study the fate and origin of Schwann cells at the desired time was elucidated using the technology of CreER transgenic mice. In the earlier studies the presence of Schwann cells in the CNS parenchyma was identified using ultrastructural evaluations, Schwann cells produce thicker and more compact sheaths comparing to oligodendrocytes. While in the recent articles the expression of the P₀ was chosen as the marker of the myelinating Schwann cells. A schematic comparison between the morphology and composition of myelin generated by Schwann cells in the CNS versus that derived from OPC differentiation is depicted in Fig. 5.

**Figure 5**

Myelin production by Schwann cells is a protracted process, which occurs in moderate to severe spinal cord injuries (data were not available for mild injuries). The migration of Schwann cells to the spinal cord parenchyma was reported to be limited due to the presence of astrocytes (Franklin and Blakemore, 1993). Eventually, in moderate to severe injuries, where the supportive cells, particularly astrocytes, suffer considerable damage, Schwann cells can migrate to the CNS tissue (Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998). The extensive presence of dividing Schwann cells suggests that these cells are at least partly responsible for axon ensheathment/remyelination after injury (Hui et al., 2010).

The number of proliferative Schwann cells increases over time after injury. In one study evaluating the proliferative potential of P75⁺ Schwann cells in Rhesus monkeys, a 14-fold increase in the number of BrdU positive Schwann cells was detected at 25 weeks compared to 7 weeks pi, while there was no proliferative Schwann cells in non-injured control (Yang et al., 2006). At one week pi, Schwann cells or their precursors appeared caudal to the lesion (0.5-2 mm from the epicenter). The precursors were small, undifferentiated cells lacking a basement membrane and were in association with sprouts of invading axons near the roots (Gilson and Stensaas, 1974, Blight, 1985). Also, bipolar spindle-shaped cells with ovoid nucleus were randomly dispersed, which is a typical morphology of migrating Schwann cells (Brook et al., 1998). In zebrafish, division of Schwann cells was observed at day 10 after injury which probably is the onset for ensheathment/remyelination (Hui et al., 2010).

At the second week pi, the presence of Schwann cells were also detected in the dorsal funiculi (Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998), they possessed basement membrane, elongated nucleus and
were closely associated with individual axons (Gilson and Stensaas, 1974, Matthews et al., 1979).

By the third week, groups of axons myelinated by Schwann cells were frequent around the cystic cavity and base of the dorsal columns (Griffiths and McCulloch, 1983). Up to one month pi, many unmyelinated fibers were enveloped by Schwann cells, either isolated or in small clusters (Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998). In addition, many axons appeared to be remyelinated by Schwann cells (Hui et al., 2010, James et al., 2011).

Six weeks pi, at the dorsal column, there were fascicles with thin perineural sheath containing up to 50 axons and restricted to immediate regions of the lesion site (Matthews et al., 1979). By two months pi, many of myelinated axons had grown toward the scar matrix. Those in dorsal region were apparently myelinated by Schwann cells (Matthews et al., 1979, Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998). At this time, approximately one third of the fibers were myelinated and the ratio of myelinated axons by Schwann cells to oligodendrocytes was about 8:1 (Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998). It is worth noting that in this report the authors assume that thick myelin sheaths are associated with Schwann cells.

As the injury progressed into chronic stages (3 and 4 months), many axons had dense, healthy myelin sheaths and it was often associated with the presence of Schwann cells (Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998, James et al., 2011). The Schwann cells contribution in remyelination of the axons in dorsal column was also confirmed by co-staining of axons (NF 200) and Schwann cell-associated myelin (P0) (James et al., 2011). In this study P0 reactivity was detected at 4 and 12 weeks but not one week pi. Remyelination by Schwann cells continued by 12 months pi (Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998).

Although the Schwann cells contribution in remyelination after SCI is a well-shown evidence, the origin of the present Schwann cells in the CNS parenchyma is still a contentious issue. In a recent study at 12 weeks pi fate mapping experiments revealed that the most majority of Schwann cells (about 70-80%) which contribute in myelin production after TSCI were derived from Olig2+ and PDGFRα+ CNS OPCs rather than P0 expressing peripheral myelinating Schwann cells (Assinck et al., 2017). OPC-derived myelinating Schwann cells were mainly found in the dorsal column (Assinck et al., 2017).

DISCUSSION

Extensive oligodendrocytes cell death during the first two weeks after injury leave a broad number of denuded axons in the epicenter as well as distal regions. Oligodendrocyte cell death
occurs through both mechanisms of apoptosis and necrosis while apoptosis was initially detected in epicenter and was extended rostro-caudally.

Along with the mature oligodendrocytes, many OPCs are lost at early stages, however, as early as one day pi they start proliferation at the lesion borders and spared tissues. Later, differentiation of these newly formed OPCs compensate the lack of oligodendrocytes. Oligodendrogliogenesis continues at later stages until the number of oligodendrocytes return to normal (by one month pi). Despite differences between animals after TSCI, the glial response to injury and in particular myelinating cells shares similarities.

Recently numerous studies in the field of spinal cord regeneration has been focused on oligodendrocyte protection and enhancing remyelination after TSCI. Demyelination is a part of secondary injury cascade which initiate immediately after injury. The present preclinical evidence reveals the potential of remyelination in adult tissue. Remyelination of spared and growing axons occurs through a two-step process: 1. providing a sufficient population of myelinating cells and 2. induction of remyelination.

Therefore, a key determinant of the success of remyelination after injury is the proliferative ability of myelinating cells. In this study according to the included articles it can be concluded that oligodendrocytes within a demyelinated region of spinal cord are not induced to divide in the presence of demyelinated axons and the survived oligodendrocytes are post-mitotic and do not contribute to the remyelination in adult CNS. However, it should be noted that the oligodendrocyte proliferation after TSCI was not fully refute and there are some studies discussing the proliferative ability of oligodendrocytes within a demyelinated region of spinal cord (Vick et al., 1992). According to the fact that the Schwann cells and OPCs proliferation after injury is a prerequisite to remyelination, the finite proliferative potential of oligodendrocytes after injury may be the cause of low contribution of mature oligodendrocytes in remyelination.

OPCs constitute the dominating proliferating cell population in the intact adult spinal cord (Horky et al., 2006, Sellers et al., 2009, Barnabe-Heider et al., 2010). Indeed, according to accumulating evidence in this study spinal cord injury results in changing the proliferation rate of OPCs over time and within the first two weeks the proliferation rate of OPCs reaches to a maximum at both regions of epicenter and lesion border (Fig. 3). Reduction in the proliferation is followed by the oligodendrocyte differentiation, as demonstrated by detection of an elevated number of oligodendrocytes one week after injury which reaches to the normal level by about one month pi. Endogenous remyelination after TSCI was also confirmed by detection of an increase in the expression of MBP at first week pi compared to earlier days (Bartholdi and
Schwann cells that normally reside in peripheral nervous system, participate in remyelination of the denuded axons within the cord through a protracted process. Abundant preclinical (Martin et al., 1996, Oudega and Xu, 2006, Guest et al., 2013, Deng et al., 2015, Kanno et al., 2015) and clinical studies (Saberi et al., 2008, Anderson et al., 2017) have been conducted to evaluate the safety and efficacy of Schwann cell transplantation for repair of injured spinal cord. After peripheral nerve injury Schwann cells dedifferentiate into non-myelinating Schwann cells and proliferate extensively. These newly formed non-myelinating Schwann cells migrate within the lesion and involved in nerve regeneration through expression of neurotrophic factors and neural cell adhesion molecules, recruitment of macrophages for removal of myelin debris as well as myelination or ensheathment of growing axons after differentiation into myelin-forming Schwann cells. A moderate improvement of motor function after Schwann cell transplantation was also concluded in a systematic review discussing the efficacy of Schwann cell transplantation for motor function recovery after spinal cord injuries in animal models (Hosseini et al., 2016). There is some evidence showing that spinal cord injuries and disruption of the glia limitations induce Schwan cells invasion within the CNS parenchyma and remyelination (Gilson and Stensaas, 1974, Matthews et al., 1979, Griffiths and McCulloch, 1983, Blight, 1985, Franklin and Blakemore, 1993, Bartholdi and Schwab, 1998, Salgado-Ceballos et al., 1998, Hui et al., 2010, James et al., 2011). Besides of cell migration evidence, considerable proliferation of Schwann cells in the lesion confirm the participation of these cells in axon ensheathment/remyelination after TSCI. Schwann cells mostly contributed in ensheathment/remyelination of axons in the dorsal column. Although in the most studies this observation has been attributed to the route of peripheral Schwann cells invasion, one recent study through a comprehensive evaluation of the fate of OPCs showed that CNS OPCs are the main origin of remyelinating Schwann cells in the dorsal column (Assinck et al., 2017). Axon ensheathment/remyelination by Schwann cells continued to one year pi.

In conclusion, the cumulative evidence shows that in animal models, the number of oligodendrocytes approaches to the normal levels after about one month pi. The majority of oligodendrocytes are lost at the epicentre and adjacent regions, however, OPCs proliferation
and subsequent differentiation to myelinating cells (both oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells) are the main route to compensate the extensive demyelination after injury. Invading peripheral Schwann cells also contribute in remyelination. Therefore, pharmacotherapy for enhancing OPCs proliferation and differentiation to mature myelinating cells (oligodendrocytes or Schwann cells) can be the therapeutic target (Imamura et al., 2015) and the evidence-based trends obtained for oligodendrocyte apoptosis, proliferation and differentiation can be used as a guide to design preclinical and in the next step clinical studies.

Limitations of the work:
Although the evidence shows that oligodendrogliogenesis and axon ensheathment/remyelination after TSCI is a continual process by the chronic phase, we do not yet know whether the newly myelinated axons are functional, since mature oligodendrocyte can remyelinate even dead axons or artificial fibers (Lee et al., 2012, Lee et al., 2013). Therefore, the functional benefit of the new formed myelin remains to be clear.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT
The authors have no conflicts of interest.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS
All authors passed four criteria for authorship contribution based on recommendations of the International Committee of Medical Journal Editors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT
This study was supported by Sina Trauma and Surgery Research Center, Tehran University of Medical Sciences, Tehran, Iran (No. 38-40786).

REFERENCES
Abe Y, Yamamoto T, Sugiyama Y, Watanabe T, Saito N, Kayama H, Kumagai T (1999) Apoptotic cells associated with Wallerian degeneration after experimental spinal cord injury: a possible mechanism of oligodendroglial death. Journal of neurotrauma 16:945-952.
Anderson KD, Guest JD, Dietrich WD, Bartlett Bunge M, Curiel R, Dididze M, Green BA, Khan A, Pearse DD, Saraf-Lavi E, Widerstrom-Noga E, Wood P, Levi AD (2017) Safety of Autologous Human Schwann Cell Transplantation in Subacute Thoracic Spinal Cord Injury. Journal of neurotrauma 34:2950-2963.

Assinck P, Duncan GJ, Plemel JR, Lee MJ, Stratton JA, Manesh SB, Liu J, Ramer LM, Kang SH, Bergles DE, Biernaskie J, Tetzlaff W (2017) Myelinogenic Plasticity of Oligodendrocyte Precursor Cells following Spinal Cord Contusion Injury. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 37:8635-8654.

Barnabe-Heider F, Goritz C, Sabelstrom H, Takebayashi H, Pfrueger FW, Meletis K, Frisen J (2010) Origin of new glial cells in intact and injured adult spinal cord. Cell stem cell 7:470-482.

Bartholdi D, Schwab ME (1998) Oligodendroglial reaction following spinal cord injury in rat: transient upregulation of MBP mRNA. Glia 23:278-284.

Blight AR (1985) Delayed demyelination and macrophage invasion: a candidate for secondary cell damage in spinal cord injury. Central nervous system trauma : journal of the American Paralysis Association 2:299-315.

Brook GA, Plate D, Franzen R, Martin D, Moonen G, Schoenen J, Schmitt AB, Noth J, Nacimiento W (1998) Spontaneous longitudinally orientated axonal regeneration is associated with the Schwann cell framework within the lesion site following spinal cord compression injury of the rat. Journal of neuroscience research 53:51-65.

Casha S, Yu WR, Fehlings MG (2001) Oligodendroglial apoptosis occurs along degenerating axons and is associated with FAS and p75 expression following spinal cord injury in the rat. Neuroscience 103:203-218.

Ceruti S, Villa G, Genovese T, Mazzon E, Longhi R, Rosa P, Bramanti P, Cuzzocrea S, Abbracchio MP (2009) The P2Y-like receptor GPR17 as a sensor of damage and a new potential target in spinal cord injury. Brain : a journal of neurology 132:2206-2218.

Crowe MJ, Bresnahan JC, Shuman SL, Masters JN, Crowe MS (1997) Apoptosis and delayed degeneration after spinal cord injury in rats and monkeys. Nature Medicine 3:73.

De Castro F, Bribian A, Ortega MC (2013) Regulation of oligodendrocyte precursor migration during development, in adulthood and in pathology. Cellular and molecular life sciences : CMLS 70:4355-4368.

Deng LX, Walker C, Xu XM (2015) Schwann cell transplantation and descending propriospinal regeneration after spinal cord injury. Brain Res 1619:104-114.
Dong H, Fazzaro A, Xiang C, Korsmeyer SJ, Jacquin MF, McDonald JW (2003) Enhanced oligodendrocyte survival after spinal cord injury in Bax-deficient mice and mice with delayed Wallerian degeneration. The Journal of neuroscience: the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 23:8682-8691.

Fehlings MG, Nakashima H, Nagoshi N, Chow DS, Grossman RG, Kopjar B (2016) Rationale, design and critical end points for the Riluzole in Acute Spinal Cord Injury Study (RISCIS): a randomized, double-blinded, placebo-controlled parallel multi-center trial. Spinal cord 54:8-15.

Franklin RJ, Blakemore WF (1993) Requirements for Schwann cell migration within CNS environments: a viewpoint. International journal of developmental neuroscience: the official journal of the International Society for Developmental Neuroscience 11:641-649.

Frei E, Klusman I, Schnell L, Schwab ME (2000) Reactions of Oligodendrocytes to Spinal Cord Injury: Cell Survival and Myelin Repair. Experimental Neurology 163:373-380.

Fuhrmann T, Tam RY, Ballarin B, Coles B, Elliott Donaghee I, van der Kooy D, Nagy A, Tator CH, Morshead CM, Shoichet MS (2016) Injectable hydrogel promotes early survival of induced pluripotent stem cell-derived oligodendrocytes and attenuates longterm teratoma formation in a spinal cord injury model. Biomaterials 83:23-36.

Gautier HO, Evans KA, Volbracht K, James R, Sitnikov S, Lundgaard I, James F, Lao-Peregrin C, Reynolds R, Franklin RJ, Karadottir RT (2015) Neuronal activity regulates remyelination via glutamate signalling to oligodendrocyte progenitors. Nature communications 6:8518.

Gilson BC, Stensaas LJ (1974) Early axonal changes following lesions of the dorsal columns in rats. Cell and tissue research 149:1-20.

Griffiths IR, McCulloch MC (1983) Nerve fibres in spinal cord impact injuries. Part 1. Changes in the myelin sheath during the initial 5 weeks. J Neurol Sci 58:335-349.

Grossman SD, Rosenberg LJ, Wrathall JR (2001) Temporal-spatial pattern of acute neuronal and glial loss after spinal cord contusion. Exp Neurol 168:273-282.

Guest J, Santamaria AJ, Benavides FD (2013) Clinical translation of autologous Schwann cell transplantation for the treatment of spinal cord injury. Current opinion in organ transplantation 18:682-689.

Hassannejad Z, Sharif-Alhoseini M, Shakouri-Motlagh A, Vahedi F, Zadegan SA, Mokhatab M, Rezvan M, Saadat S, Shokraneh F, Rahimi-Movaghar V (2016) Potential variables
affecting the quality of animal studies regarding pathophysiology of traumatic spinal cord injuries. Spinal cord 54:579-583.

Hassannejad Z, Zadegan SA, Shakouri-Motlagh A, Mokhatab M, Rezvan M, Sharif-Alhoseini M, Shokraneh F, Moshayedi P, Rahimi-Movaghar V (2018) The fate of neurons after traumatic spinal cord injury in rats: A systematic review. Iranian journal of basic medical sciences 21:546-557.

Hesp ZC, Goldstein EZ, Miranda CJ, Kaspar BK, McTigue DM (2015) Chronic oligodendrogenesis and remyelination after spinal cord injury in mice and rats. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 35:1274-1290.

Hill CE, Beattie MS, Bresnahan JC (2001) Degeneration and sprouting of identified descending supraspinal axons after contusive spinal cord injury in the rat. Exp Neurol 171:153-169.

Horky LL, Galimi F, Gage FH, Horner PJ (2006) Fate of endogenous stem/progenitor cells following spinal cord injury. The Journal of comparative neurology 498:525-538.

Hosseini M, Yousefifard M, Baikpour M, Rahimi-Movaghar V, Nasirinezhad F, Younesian S, Safari S, Ghelichkhani P, Moghadas Jafari A (2016) The efficacy of Schwann cell transplantation on motor function recovery after spinal cord injuries in animal models: A systematic review and meta-analysis. J Chem Neuroanat 78:102-111.

Houle JD, Jin Y (2001) Chronically injured supraspinal neurons exhibit only modest axonal dieback in response to a cervical hemisection lesion. Exp Neurol 169:208-217.

Huang SQ, Tang CL, Sun SQ, Yang C, Xu J, Wang KJ, Lu WT, Huang J, Zhuo F, Qiu GP, Wu XY, Qi W (2014) Demyelination initiated by oligodendrocyte apoptosis through enhancing endoplasmic reticulum-mitochondria interactions and Id2 expression after compressed spinal cord injury in rats. CNS neuroscience & therapeutics 20:20-31.

Hui SP, Dutta A, Ghosh S (2010) Cellular response after crush injury in adult zebrafish spinal cord. Developmental dynamics : an official publication of the American Association of Anatomists 239:2962-2979.

Imamura O, Arai M, Dateki M, Ogata T, Uchida R, Tomoda H, Takishima K (2015) Nicotinic acetylcholine receptors mediate donepezil-induced oligodendrocyte differentiation. Journal of neurochemistry 135:1086-1098.

James ND, Bartus K, Grist J, Bennett DL, McMahon SB, Bradbury EJ (2011) Conduction failure following spinal cord injury: functional and anatomical changes from acute to chronic stages. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 31:18543-18555.
Jazayeri SB, Beygi S, Shokraneh F, Hagen EM, Rahimi-Movaghar V (2015) Incidence of traumatic spinal cord injury worldwide: a systematic review. European spine journal : official publication of the European Spine Society, the European Spinal Deformity Society, and the European Section of the Cervical Spine Research Society 24:905-918.

Kanno H, Pearse DD, Ozawa H, Itoi E, Bunge MB (2015) Schwann cell transplantation for spinal cord injury repair: its significant therapeutic potential and prospectus. Reviews in the neurosciences 26:121-128.

Keirstead HS, Nistor G, Bernal G, Totoiu M, Cloutier F, Sharp K, Steward O (2005) Human embryonic stem cell-derived oligodendrocyte progenitor cell transplants remyelinate and restore locomotion after spinal cord injury. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 25:4694-4705.

Lee S, Chong SYC, Tuck SJ, Corey JM, Chan JR (2013) A rapid and reproducible assay for modeling myelination by oligodendrocytes using engineered nanofibers. Nature Protocols 8:771.

Lee S, Leach MK, Redmond SA, Chong SY, Mellon SH, Tuck SJ, Feng ZQ, Corey JM, Chan JR (2012) A culture system to study oligodendrocyte myelination processes using engineered nanofibers. Nature methods 9:917-922.

Li GL, Farooque M, Holtz A, Olsson Y (1999) Apoptosis of oligodendrocytes occurs for long distances away from the primary injury after compression trauma to rat spinal cord. Acta neuropathologica 98:473-480.

Lytle JM, Wrathall JR (2007) Glial cell loss, proliferation and replacement in the contused murine spinal cord. The European journal of neuroscience 25:1711-1724.

Martin D, Robe P, Franzen R, Delree P, Schoenen J, Stevenaert A, Moonen G (1996) Effects of Schwann cell transplantation in a contusion model of rat spinal cord injury. Journal of neuroscience research 45:588-597.

Matthews MA, St Onge MF, Faciane CL, Gelderd JB (1979) Axon sprouting into segments of rat spinal cord adjacent to the site of a previous transection. Neuropathology and applied neurobiology 5:181-196.

McDonough A, Hoang AN, Monterrubio AM, Greenhalgh S, Martinez-Cerdeno V (2013) Compression injury in the mouse spinal cord elicits a specific proliferative response and distinct cell fate acquisition along rostro-caudal and dorso-ventral axes. Neuroscience 254:1-17.
McTigue DM, Wei P, Stokes BT (2001) Proliferation of NG2-positive cells and altered oligodendrocyte numbers in the contused rat spinal cord. The Journal of neuroscience: the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 21:3392-3400.

Nagoshi N, Nakashima H, Fehlings MG (2015) Riluzole as a neuroprotective drug for spinal cord injury: from bench to bedside. Molecules (Basel, Switzerland) 20:7775-7789.

Oudega M, Xu XM (2006) Schwann cell transplantation for repair of the adult spinal cord. Journal of neurotrauma 23:453-467.

Piantino J, Burdick JA, Goldberg D, Langer R, Benowitz LI (2006) An injectable, biodegradable hydrogel for trophic factor delivery enhances axonal rewiring and improves performance after spinal cord injury. Experimental Neurology 201:359-367.

Priest CA, Manley NC, Denham J, Wirth ED, Lebkowski JS (2015) Preclinical safety of human embryonic stem cell-derived oligodendrocyte progenitors supporting clinical trials in spinal cord injury. Regenerative medicine 10:939-958.

Rabchevsky AG, Sullivan PG, Scheff SW (2007) Temporal-spatial dynamics in oligodendrocyte and glial progenitor cell numbers throughout ventrolateral white matter following contusion spinal cord injury. Glia 55:831-843.

Rowland JW, Hawryluk GW, Kwon B, Fehlings MG (2008) Current status of acute spinal cord injury pathophysiology and emerging therapies: promise on the horizon. Neurosurgical focus 25:E2.

Saberi H, Moshayedi P, Aghayan HR, Arjmand B, Hosseini SK, Emami-Razavi SH, Rahimi-Movaghar V, Raza M, Firouzi M (2008) Treatment of chronic thoracic spinal cord injury patients with autologous Schwann cell transplantation: an interim report on safety considerations and possible outcomes. Neurosci Lett 443:46-50.

Salgado-Ceballos H, Gabriel G-S, Alfredo F-V, Israel G, Laura E, Antonio I, Ignacio M (1998) Spontaneous long-term remyelination after traumatic spinal cord injury in rats. Brain Research 782:126-135.

Sellers DL, Maris DO, Horner PJ (2009) Postinjury niches induce temporal shifts in progenitor fates to direct lesion repair after spinal cord injury. The Journal of neuroscience: the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 29:6722-6733.

Shuman SL, Bresnahan JC, Beattie MS (1997) Apoptosis of microglia and oligodendrocytes after spinal cord contusion in rats. Journal of neuroscience research 50:798-808.

Tripathi R, McTigue DM (2007) Prominent oligodendrocyte genesis along the border of spinal contusion lesions. Glia 55:698-711.
van Tilborg E, de Theije CGM, van Hal M, Wagenaar N, de Vries LS, Benders MJ, Rowitch DH, Nijboer CH (2018) Origin and dynamics of oligodendrocytes in the developing brain: Implications for perinatal white matter injury. Glia 66:221-238.

Vick RS, Neuberger TJ, DeVries GH (1992) Role of adult oligodendrocytes in remyelination after neural injury. Journal of neurotrauma 9 Suppl 1:S93-103.

Wang L, Hu B, Wong WM, Lu P, Wu W, Xu XM (2009) Glial and axonal responses in areas of Wallerian degeneration of the corticospinal and dorsal ascending tracts after spinal cord dorsal funiculotomy. Neuropathology : official journal of the Japanese Society of Neuropathology 29:230-241.

Warden P, Bamber NI, Li H, Esposito A, Ahmad KA, Hsu CY, Xu XM (2001) Delayed glial cell death following wallerian degeneration in white matter tracts after spinal cord dorsal column cordotomy in adult rats. Exp Neurol 168:213-224.

Wu D, Shibuya S, Miyamoto O, Itano T, Yamamoto T (2005) Increase of NG2-positive cells associated with radial glia following traumatic spinal cord injury in adult rats. Journal of neurocytology 34:459-469.

Yang H, Lu P, McKay HM, Bernot T, Keirstead H, Steward O, Gage FH, Edgerton VR, Tuszynski MH (2006) Endogenous neurogenesis replaces oligodendrocytes and astrocytes after primate spinal cord injury. The Journal of neuroscience : the official journal of the Society for Neuroscience 26:2157-2166.

Yong C, Arnold PM, Zoubine MN, Citron BA, Watanabe I, Berman NE, Festoff BW (1998) Apoptosis in cellular compartments of rat spinal cord after severe contusion injury. Journal of neurotrauma 15:459-472.

Zai LJ, Wrathall JR (2005) Cell proliferation and replacement following contusive spinal cord injury. Glia 50:247-257.

FIGURE LEGENDS AND TABLES

Fig. 1. PRISMA Flow diagram

Fig. 2. Evidence-based representation of temporal and spatial progress of oligodendrocytes apoptotic death after traumatic spinal cord injuries (TSCI): The extent of cell death is showed at the epicenter and the areas adjacent to the epicenter (i.e. 1-14 mm). The first sign of apoptotic death was observed at the epicentre at 6-24 hours post-injury. At day 3-7 the maximum number
of apoptotic oligodendrocytes was detected at the epicentre. After this time point, the majority of oligodendrocytes are dead (no results were reported at the epicentre after day 7: dash line as the hypothetic cell death trend). On the other hand, in the areas adjacent to the epicenter (distal), oligodendrocytes apoptosis was maximized at around 7 days post-injury. All the related data regardless of the method and reporting format are compiled in this schematic figure.

**Fig. 3.** Temporal proliferative response of oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) in response to TSCI: Proliferation rate at the epicentre decreases within a few days after injury compared to normal animals in which a constant low proliferation rate of progenitor cells is observed (horizontal dash line). However, the proliferation rate reached to a maximum in the epicenter at one week post-injury. At the lesion border and distal area, the proliferation of OPCs increases and peaks within 1-2 weeks post-injury, followed by a decrease to approach normal levels by the 10th week.

**Fig. 4.** Evidence-based temporal representation of the total number of mature oligodendrocytes: The total number of oligodendrocytes decreases dramatically due to extensive cell loss during the first week pi. At day 7, the earliest evidence of MBP mRNA was reported at the lesion borders which indicates a trigger for remyeliantion. During the second week, more progenitor cells are formed contributing to the subsequent increase in the number of mature oligodendrocytes. Oligodendrogliogenesis, i.e. increase in the number of newly formed mature oligodendrocytes, is followed by proliferation of progenitor cells from the second week onward until the total number of oligodendrocytes reaches to the number of cells in normal controls (dash line).

**Fig. 5.** Axon demyelination and remyelination after traumatic spinal cord injury (TSCI): (A) in the normal adult CNS tissue myelin sheath is produced by oligodendrocyte and each cell forms one segment of myelin for several adjacent axons. (B) TSCI results in extensive oligodendrocyte death and subsequently axon demyelination. Survived oligodendrocytes are post-mitotic and their contribution in remyelination is negligible. (C) However, increased proliferation and recruitment of oligodendrocyte progenitor cells (OPCs) and their differentiation to the mature myelinating oligodendrocytes at the injury site compensate the lack of myelin forming cells. (D) Schwann cells originated from peripheral nervous system or differentiated from OPCs are another contributing cells for myelin formation after TSCI. Myelin sheath formed by Schwann cells have thicker thickness and mainly contains P0,
peripheral myelin protein 22 kD (PMP22) and myelin basic protein (MBP). Also, each Schwann cell can wrap only on axon. However, myelin produced by oligodendrocytes has thinner thickness and contains myelin proteolipid protein (PLP), 2',3'-Cyclic nucleotide 3'-phosphohydrolase (CNPase), receptor interacting protein (RIP) and myelin basic protein (MBP).

**Table 1** Characteristics of included studies

**Table 2** Quality assessment of included studies

**Table 3** Summary of the markers and methods used to identify the cell types (i.e., oligodendrocytes and oligodendrocyte progenitor cells) and to detect apoptosis
Table 1 Characteristics of the included studies

| First author, Year | Sample Size (T/Inj./Cont.) | Gender/Species/Weight (g) or Age | Method/Level of Injury | Severity of Injury | Method of Evaluation | Time (post-injury) |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|------------------|
| 1 Abe 1999         | N2/N/N                      | M/ Wistar rat/4 W               | Complete transection T11 | razor blade        | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL | 3, 5, 7, 14D     |
| 2 Assinck 2017     | 233/at least 3/2            | M&F/ CreER transgenic mice      | Contusion T9-10         | Infinite Horizons Impactor, 70 kdyne | FACS, BrdU, Immunohistoc hemistry | 3, 12 W          |
| 3 Barnabe-Heider 2010 | 54/9/N                  | M&F /FoxJ1-CreER, Cx30-CreER and Olig2-CreER mice/2-8.5 M | Transection T4,T10 | Dorsal funiculus was cut transversely without reaching the gray matter | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL, BrdU | 14 D, 4 M        |
| 4 Bartholdi 1998   | 36/at least 2/1            | N/Lewis rat/8 W                 | Hemisection T10         | 2/3 of spinal cord depth | Immunohistoc hemistry | 6, 24 H, 2, 4, 8, 14 D |
| 5 Blight 1985      | 26/5/10                     | F/Mongrel cats/Adult            | Compression T9           | A 13 g cylindrical brass weight was dropped by a pin in the | Light and electron microscopy | 2, 7 D, 3, 8 M   |
| No. | Author Year | Materials | Methodology | Injuries | Immunohistochemistry | Follow-up |
|-----|-------------|-----------|-------------|----------|----------------------|-----------|
| 6   | Brook 1998  | M/Wistar rat/200–250 | Compression T11-T12 | Balloon inflated with 40 µl distilled water and left in place for 5 minutes | Immunohistoc hemistry | 2, 7, 14, 28 D |
| 7   | Casha 2001  | F/Wistar rats/220-260 | Compression C7-T1 | Moderately severe, Kerr Lougheed aneurysm clip, 35 g closing force, clip compression | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL, Electron microscopy | 1, 3, 7, 14 D |
| 8   | Ceruti 2009 | M/CD1 mice/Adult | Compression T5-T8 | Clip compression, closing force of 24 g, 1 min | Immunohistoc hemistry, BrdU, Light microscopy, Haematoxylin eosin staining, luxol fast blue staining, Methyl green pyronin staining | 24, 72 H, 1 W |
| 9   | Dong 2003   | N/ Mice/ 25–30 | Hemi-transection T9 | Transection on the right side only | Immunohistoc hemistry, Electron microscopy | 8, 30 D |
| 10  | Frei 2000   | F/Lewis rat/2 W | Contusion T8 | Moderate to severe injury contusion, NYU | Immunohistoc hemistry | 7 D |
| 11  | Gilson 1974 | N/Lewis rat/150 | Hemi-transection T1-T2 | Severe, razor, interrupted the dorsal columns, leaving the lateral funiculi intact | Light microscopy | 1, 4, 7, 14 D |
| 12  | Griffiths 1983 | N/Cat/N | Contusion L2 | 100, 150, 200 g/cm | light and electron microscopy | 1:30 H, 1, 3, 21, 42 D |
| 13  | Grossman 2001 | F/SD4 rat/200–250 | Contusion T8 | Incomplete contusion, 10g, 2.5cm | Electron microscopy, Immunohistoc hemistry | 15 min, 4 H, 8, 1, 2 D |
| 14  | Hesp 2015   | M&F/Mice/12 weeks | Compression T9 mouse, T8 rat | Moderate-severe (75 kDyne force; mouse), moderate (150 kDyne force; rat) contusion injury Infinite Horizons device | Immunocytoc hemistry | 0, 7, 14, 28, 42, 70 D |
| Study Reference | Number of Animals | Species | Lesion Type | Lesion Details | Staining Methods | Follow-Up Time |
|----------------|-------------------|---------|-------------|----------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Horky 2006     | 344/5/5           | F/Fisher rat/160-185 | Hemisection T8 | Hemi | BrdU, Immunohistoc hemistry | 1D, 1 M |
| Huang 2014     | 108/N/N           | N/SD rat/250-320 | Compression L1 | Custom-made screw | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL | 1, 3, 7 D |
| Hui 2010       | 30/6/6            | N/Zebrafish/3–4 cm | Compression 15–16th vertebrae | 1 S with a number-5 Dumont forceps | BrdU, Transmission electron microscopy, Immunohistoc hemistry | 3, 7, 10, 15 D, 1 M |
| James 2011     | 70/at least 4/4/N | F/SD rat/Adult | Compression T10 | Infinite Horizon impactor, moderate severe (159 kDyn) | Immunohistoc hemistry | 1, 2, 3, 4, 12 W, 6 M |
| Li 1999        | 32/4/N            | M/Rat /370 | Compression T1, T5, T7, T8–9, T10, T12, L2 | Compression, 35-50 g, 5 min | Hematoxylin and eosin, Immunohistoc hemistry, Luxol fast blue, TUNEL | 4, 9 D |
| Lytle 2007     | N/at least 2/2/N  | F/C57BL6 mice/5-7 W | Contusion T8-9 | 2g, 2.5cm Mild | Immunohistoc hemistry, BrdU | 1, 3, 7, 28D |
| Matthews 1979  | 80/20/20          | M/LE3 rat/Adult | Transaction T5 | Strict aseptic technique | Light and electron microscopy | 15, 30 90 D |
| McDonough 2013 | 135/10/5          | F/Swiss Webster mice/6-8 W | Compression T10 | Laterally compressed the spinal cord to a thickness of 0.35 mm and held for 15 s using one pair of modified forceps | Immunocytoc hemistry, BrdU, Nissl staining | 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 W |
| McTigue 2001   | N/at least 4/N    | F/Fisher rat/1 70 | Contusion T8 | Ooohio state electromagneti spinal cord injury device (rapidly displace spinal tissue 1.1 mm f), moderate to severe | Immunohistoc hemistry, BrdU | 7, 14, 28D |
| Rabchevsky 2007 | N/6/6            | F/SD rat/200–225 | Contusion T10 | Moderate, NYU injury device | Immunohistoc hemistry | 2, 7, 14, 42 D |
| Salgado-Ceballos 1998 | 28/at least 3/N | F/LE rat/14-16 W | Contusion T9 | weight-drop, severe | Electron microscopy | 1, 2, 4, 6, 12 M |
| Sellers 2009   | N/N/N             | N/Mice/8 W | Hemisection T9-10 | cutting the dorsla spinal cord tissue until the central | Immunohistoc hemistry, Flow cytometry | 1, 2 W |
| Provider | T: number of total animals used in the study; Inj.: the number of injured animals in each experimental group; Cont.: the number of animals (i.e. normal, sham operated or laminectomy) in each control group |
|----------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Shuman 1997 | N/at least 3/N | N/ Rat/ N | Contusion T10 | NYU weight drop device, 25g-cm | Immunohistoc hemistry | 8, 21 D |
| Tripathi 2007 | 24/at least 5/N | F/SD rat/225−264 | Contusion T8 | Moderate spinal contusions using the OSU injury | Electron microscopy, BrdU | 1, 3, 4, 7, 14 D |
| Wang 2009 | 36/at least 3/N | F/SD rat/230−250 | Transection T8 | Microscissors transected both the dorsal ascending tract and corticospinal tract bilaterally | Electron microscopy, Immunocytoc hemistry | 10, 30 D |
| Warden 2001 | 21/3/3 | F/Fisher rat/155-165 | Transection T7-8 | Junction between T7-T8 cord segments, microscissors lesion the dorsal funiculi and dorsal horns bilaterally | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL | 4, 24 H, 3, 7, 14, 28 D |
| Wu 2005 | N/5/5 | M/SD rat/280-330 | Contusion T11-12 | 2mm weighting 30g was gently placed on dura for 10 min | Immunohistoc hemistry, NG2, GFAP, DAPI, 3CB2, GFAP | 1 D, 1, 4, 8, 12 W |
| Yang 2006 | 5/1/1 | M/Rhesus monkey/6-14 Y | Hemi-section C6-C7 | Right-sided, 30, 50, 65% hemi-section | Immunohistoc hemistry, BrdU, Electron microscopy | 7 W and 7 M |
| Yong 1998 | N/N/N | F/SD rat/300-350 | Contusion T9-T10 | Severe, weight-drop method with the NYU impactor, using 50.0 g/cm force | Immunohistoc hemistry, TUNEL | 1, 3, 7, 14, 28 D |
| Zai 2005 | 40/at least 4/N | F/SD rat/225−275 | Contusion T8 | 10g-2.5cm-2.4mm | Immunohistoc hemistry, BrdU | 3, 7, 42 D |

1 T: the number of total animals used in the study; Inj.: the number of injured animals in each experimental group; Cont.: the number of animals (i.e. normal, sham operated or laminectomy) in each control group
2 N: not specified
3 S: second; Min: minute; H: hour; D: day; W: week; M: month; Y: year
4 SD: Sprague-Dawley
5 LE: Long-Evans

**Table 2** Quality assessment of included studies
| First author and Year | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 |
|-----------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Abe 1999           | + | + | + | + | ? | + | ? | + | ? | + | ? | + | ? | + | + |
| 2. Assimak 2017       | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 3. Barnabe-Heider 2010| + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | ? | + | ? | + | + | ? |
| 4. Bartholdi 1998     | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 5. Blight 1985        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 6. Brook 1998         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 7. Casha 2001         | + | + | + | + | ? | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 8. Ceruti 2009        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 9. Dong 2003          | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 10. Frei 2000         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 11. Gilson 1974       | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 12. Griffiths 1983    | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 13. Grossman 2001     | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 14. Hesp 2015         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 15. Horky 2006        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 16. Huang 2014        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 17. Hui 2010          | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 18. James 2011        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 19. Li 1999           | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 20. Lytle 2007        | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 21. Matthews 1979     | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 22. McDonough 2013    | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 23. McTigue 2001      | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 24. Rabchevsky 2007   | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 25. Salgado-Cabellos 1998 | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 26. Sellers 2009      | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 27. Shuman 1997       | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 28. Tripathi 2007     | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 29. Wang 2009         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 30. Warden 2001       | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 31. Wu 2005           | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 32. Yang 2006         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 33. Yong 1998         | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |
| 34. Zai 2005          | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + | + |

1. Species; 2. Using appropriate tests; 3. Severity of injury; 4. Level of injury; 5. Age/weight; 6. Number of injured animals per group; 7. Designation of strain; 8. Definition of control (normal, sham operated or laminectomy); 9. Description of statistical analysis; 10. Regulation and ethics; 11. Bladder expression; 12. Blindness of assessor; 13. Genetic background; 14. Method of allocation to treatments; 15. Description of the reasons to exclude animals from the experiment during the study (attrition), where + means clearly specified, ? has not specified clearly, and – specified as it has not been considered in the study.

**Table 3** List of the markers and methods used to identify the cell types (i.e., oligodendrocyte and OPCs) and to detect apoptosis

| Cell types/Assessment type | Markers/Method of Assessment |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| Mature oligodendrocytes     | CC1 (anti-APC)²              |
|                             | CNPase³                      |
|                             | PLP⁴                         |
|                             | MBP⁵                         |
|                             | RIP⁶                         |

32
OPCs

Olig2
NG2
PDGFRα

Proliferation assay
BrdU (Bromodeoxyyuridine)

Apoptosis assay
TUNEL (Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase (TdT)
dUTP Nick-End Labeling)
Caspase-3 expression

1 Oligodendrocyte Progenitor Cells
2 Anti-Adenomatous Polyposis Coli
3 2’,3’-Cyclic nucleotide 3’-phosphohydrolase
4 Myelin Proteolipid Protein
5 Myelin Basic Protein
6 Receptor Interacting Protein
7 Neuron-Glia Antigen 2
8 platelet-Derived Growth Factor Receptor-alpha

Highlights

• Extensive oligodendrocyte death during the first two weeks after TSCI leave a broad number of denuded axons
• OPCs start proliferation at the lesion borders and spared tissues as early as one day after injury
• Within the first two weeks after injury the proliferation rate of OPCs reaches to a maximum
• Differentiation of newly formed OPCs compensate the lack of oligodendrocytes
• OPC-derived Schwann cells as well as invading peripheral Schwann cells also contribute in remyelination after TSCI