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1 **Single-nucleus transcriptomic mapping**
2 **uncovers targets for traumatic brain injury**

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31

32

33 **Abstract**

34 The subventricular zone (SVZ) is a neurogenic niche that contributes to
35 homeostasis and repair after brain injury. However, the effects of mild
36 traumatic brain injury (mTBI) on the divergence of the regulatory DNA
37 landscape within the SVZ and its link to functional alterations remain
38 unexplored. In this study, we meticulously mapped the transcriptome atlas of
39 murine SVZ and its responses to mTBI at the single-cell level. We observed
40 cell-specific gene expression changes following mTBI and unveiled diverse
41 cell-to-cell interaction networks that influence a wide array of cellular
42 processes. Moreover, we reported novel neurogenesis lineage trajectories and
43 related key transcription factors, which we subsequently validated through
44 loss-of-function experiments. Specifically, we validated the role of *Tcf7l1*, a
45 cell cycle gene regulator, in promoting neural stem cell differentiation towards
46 the neuronal lineage after mTBI, providing a potential target for regenerative
47 medicine. Overall, our study profiles an SVZ transcriptome reference map,
48 which underlies the differential cellular behavior in response to mTBI. The
49 identified key genes and pathways that may ameliorate brain damage or
50 facilitate neural repair serve as valuable resources for drug discovery in the
51 context of mTBI.

52 **Key Words**

53 traumatic brain injury, single nucleus sequencing, neural stem cell,
54 differentiation, neurogenesis

55 **Introduction**

56 Mild traumatic brain injury (mTBI) is the most common type of traumatic
57 brain injury (Silverberg et al. 2020). A single mTBI can trigger
58 pathophysiological changes in the brain, resulting in acute neurological
59 dysfunction and a range of subsequent post-acute or chronic sequelae
60 (Mychasiuk et al. 2014; Collins-Praino et al. 2018). Nevertheless, specific and
61 effective mTBI biomarkers are currently lacking, and the clinical outcomes of
62 patients with mTBI are unsatisfactory.

63 The subventricular zone (SVZ) is a neurogenic niche in the adult brain
64 responsible for maintaining tissue homeostasis and recovery after brain
65 stimulation (Chavali et al. 2018). This neurogenic niche is an intricate
66 microenvironment comprising morphologically and molecularly distinct
67 subtypes of neural stem cells (NSCs) that give rise to specific progenitor cell
68 types committed to either neuronal or glial differentiation (Doetsch et al. 1999;
69 Buono et al. 2012). Upon brain injury, NSCs in the SVZ undergo
70 reprogramming to induce neurogenesis (Llorens-Bobadilla et al. 2015).

71 Although progress has been made in characterizing NSC proliferation and
72 differentiation during neurogenesis, their diversity, responsive heterogeneity,
73 and governing factors are not entirely clear. In addition, the number of newly
74 generated neurons is insufficient to fully compensate for the loss of neurons
75 caused by the injury (Cao et al. 2002). Therefore, it is essential to comprehend
76 the diversity and potential of niche cells, their dynamics upon injury, and the

77 underlying principles of their regulation to elucidate mTBI pathogenesis and
78 identify relevant diagnostic or therapeutic targets.

79 While recent advancements in snRNA-seq have contributed to unraveling the
80 heterogeneity of the SVZ under physiological circumstances (Zywitzka et al.
81 2018; Xie et al. 2020), the impact of mTBI on SVZ remains unexplored,
82 leaving a critical void in understanding of the post-injury dynamics within this
83 region. The primary purpose of our study is to use droplet-based snRNA-seq
84 to examine cellular and molecular heterogeneity within the SVZ niche under
85 both normal and mTBI conditions. The data obtained from this study will
86 serve as a crucial resource for investigating adult neurogenesis and its
87 governing mechanisms. Additionally, we aim to leverage this data resource to
88 explore and validate novel targets that have the potential to enhance
89 neurogenesis after mTBI.

90 **Results**

91 *Single-Cell Profiling of the Entire Adult SVZ Niche*

92 In this study, we investigated how the adult SVZ changes at the single-cell
93 level under mTBI (Fig. 1A). The Neurological Severity Score (NSS) (Fig. 1B)
94 revealed a significant difference between the CCI and sham-operated group 1
95 h post-injury. The NSS results, consistent with previous mTBI studies,
96 indicated mild brain impairment (Huynh et al. 2020) (Fig. 1B). To elucidate
97 the specific gene expression features of each cell type in the SVZ niche under

98 CCI insult, we profiled single-nucleus sequencing of matched SVZs from three
99 mTBI mice and three sham-operated controls (Fig. 1C). Specifically, the lateral
100 ventricular wall of each mouse was micro-dissected and digested into
101 individual cells, which were then suspended using an optimized protocol
102 without cell sorting to best preserve *in vivo* conditions (Biancalani et al. 2021).
103 We utilized a chromium controller chip to load the pooled samples, barcode
104 each cell, prepare an mRNA library, and perform sequencing. Following
105 quality control filtering, 15,265 single cells with an average of 6,948 detected
106 unique molecular identifiers and an average of 2,542 genes in each cell were
107 retained for subsequent analysis (Supplemental Fig S1A).

108 Sequencing data were normalized using SCTransform. Subsequent data
109 dimension reduction and visualization were achieved via PCA and UMAP
110 using the Seurat algorithm (Stuart et al. 2019) (<https://satijalab.org/seurat/>)
111 (Fig. 1A and Supplemental Fig S1B). The 17 designated clusters were classified
112 into 7 major cell types using previously known markers (Luo et al. 2015; Shah
113 et al. 2018; Zywitza et al. 2018; Mizrak et al. 2019) (Supplemental Table S1).

114 Considering that SVZ astrocytes share many hallmarks with NSCs and are
115 generally believed to function as NSCs in this neurogenic niche (Llorens-
116 Bobadilla et al. 2015), we grouped clusters 4, 5, and 10 together as “NSCs &
117 astrocytes.” (Fig. 1D-E, Supplemental Fig S1C, and Supplemental Table S2).

118 GO analysis of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) across cell types revealed
119 biological processes consistent with previously known functions (Fig. 1E). For

120 instance, the terms “dendrite development” in neurons, “myelination” in
121 oligodendrocytes, and “neural precursor cell proliferation” in NSCs &
122 astrocytes. These results further support our classification of the cell clusters.

123 Based on cell clustering and classification, we identified genes exclusively
124 expressed in individual cell types, which were previously unknown. These cell
125 type-specific genes included *Prr5l* in oligodendrocytes, *Kank1* in
126 oligodendrocyte precursor cell (OPC), *Rorb* in NSCs & astrocytes, *Fgfbr2* in
127 microglia, *Mecom* in endothelial and mural cells, and *Dnah12* in ependymal
128 cells ([Supplemental Fig S2A](#)), which could potentially serve as novel markers
129 for each cell type. We utilized the SVZ single-cell dataset from previous
130 studies to validate these markers and confirm their accuracy ([Supplemental](#)
131 [Fig S2B-C](#)) (Zywitza et al. 2018; Batiuk et al. 2020). Collectively, this profile
132 represents the first single-nucleus transcriptome map of rodent SVZ under
133 mTBI.

134 *Each SVZ Cell Type Showed Transcriptome Alterations in Response to mTBI*

135 To elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying mTBI pathogenesis, we
136 compared the cellular and transcriptional differences between the mTBI and
137 control groups ([Fig. 2A-B](#)). First, we examined the proportion of each cluster
138 in both groups and validated the results using scCODA (Buttner et al. 2021)
139 ([Supplemental Table S3](#)). Compared to the control group, scCODA suggested
140 the proportion of neurons in the mTBI group largely decreased, while OPCs,

141 oligodendrocytes, and microglia were more abundant ([Fig. 2A](#)). These shifts
142 are consistent with reports of neuronal loss (Bu et al. 2016; Holden et al. 2021;
143 Jamjoom et al. 2021) and glial responses post-injury, such as
144 neuroinflammatory responses induced by microglia and demyelination related
145 to oligodendrocyte pathology (Chiu et al. 2016; Furtado et al. 2021; Matson et
146 al. 2022). Notably, clusters 13 and 15, two neuron subtypes, were only
147 observed in the mTBI group ([Fig. 2B](#)). Cluster 13 highly expressed the genes
148 *Shox2*, *Slc17a6* and *Grid2ip* ([Supplemental Fig S3A](#) and [Supplemental Table](#)
149 [S1](#)), most of which were synapse-related ([Supplemental Fig S3A](#)) (Dougherty
150 et al. 2013; Matson et al. 2022). The enriched genes in cluster 15 mainly
151 participated in various metabolic and biosynthetic processes ([Supplemental](#)
152 [Fig S3B](#)), which suggested a metabolically active state. However, whether
153 these novel mTBI-induced subtypes are newly generated neurons or
154 previously uncharacterized neuronal states/identities still needs further
155 validation.

156 The mTBI-associated transcriptional changes in individual cell types were
157 investigated based on the regional gene set defined above ([Fig. 2C-D](#) and
158 [Supplemental Table S4](#)). Identified DEGs were evaluated and annotated using
159 GO and the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes, which helped explain
160 the fundamental mechanisms of mTBI pathogenesis ([Fig. 2C-D](#) and
161 [Supplemental Fig S3C](#)). Diverse biological processes were activated after
162 mTBI, including “learning” in neurons, “post-synapse organization” in

163 oligodendrocytes, and “autophagy” and “receptor-mediated endocytosis” in
164 microglia. In addition, we plotted certain signaling pathways using UMAP,
165 achieving an intuitive visualization of cell-specific enrichment and alterations
166 (Fig. 2E). For instance, “long-term potential” was down-regulated in neurons
167 post-injury, “nucleotide excision repair” was activated in certain NSC &
168 astrocyte subtypes, while the “PPAR signaling pathway” was augmented in
169 other subtypes. Altogether, this cell type-specific transcriptome atlas
170 elucidates the cellular basis of mTBI pathogenesis, providing a resource for
171 future investigations into SVZ pathophysiological processes at the cell-type
172 resolution.

173 *mTBI Induced Extensive Reorganization of Cell-Cell Interactions in the SVZ*

174 Cellular function and behavior can also be influenced by cell-cell interactions.
175 Therefore, we conducted a survey of the expression of various ligand-receptor
176 pairs to predict cellular crosstalk in the SVZ using CellChat (Jin et al. 2021;
177 Zhao et al. 2022) (Supplemental Fig S4A). To explore ligand-receptor
178 interaction patterns, cell types and pathways were clustered according to the
179 similarity of incoming or outgoing signaling (Supplemental Fig S4A). For
180 instance, the incoming communication of the targeted cells encompasses four
181 different patterns. Microglia incoming communication comprises a pattern
182 that includes the epigenetic regulator GAS, colony-stimulating factor (CSF),
183 chemokines, such as CX3C, and TGF- β (Supplemental Fig S4A). OPCs and
184 NSCs & astrocytes were assigned to another pattern, involving growth factors,

185 such as PDGF, EGF, and the neurogenesis-associated factor NRG.

186 By calculating the numbers and weights of these ligand-receptor pairs (Fig.
187 3A-C), we found that the total number of inferred interactions increased, and
188 interaction strength was enhanced in response to mTBI (Fig. 3B). The most
189 flexible cell types were oligodendrocytes, NSCs & astrocytes, and neurons (Fig.
190 3C). Notably, the communication between neurons and NSCs & astrocytes was
191 relatively more enhanced among all cell types after mTBI (Fig. 3A), consistent
192 with the reports of significant astrocyte-neuron crosstalk under adverse
193 stimulation (Volterra and Meldolesi 2005; Barreto et al. 2011). However,
194 communication between neurons and NSCs has not been studied. Here, we
195 found that these two cell types interact via the *Tgfa-Efgr* and *Erg1/2/3-ErbB4*
196 pairs. These ligand receptors are known to participate in progenitor cell
197 proliferation (Seshadri et al. 2010), indicating that insulted neurons may
198 release signals to NSCs following mTBI to promote neurogenesis via these
199 pairs. Additionally, we characterized the major pathways of the affected
200 ligand-receptor pairs (Fig. 3D-E) to visualize the detailed reorganization of
201 cell-to-cell signaling. For instance, CSF signaling, a pathway known to induce
202 inflammatory responses and microglia proliferation after brain injury (Wyss-
203 Coray 2006; Luo et al. 2013), was significantly enhanced between microglia
204 and endothelial cells in the mTBI SVZ (Fig. 3D). Whether endothelia play a
205 role in microglial behavior post-injury remains to be elucidated (Fig. 3A).
206 Taken together, the breadth of our study enables us to disclose elaborate

207 alterations in the molecular network after mTBI, pinpointing potential targets
208 for its treatment or diagnosis.

209 *Niche NSCs & Astrocytes Exhibited Strong Heterogeneity within the*
210 *Neurogenic Lineage*

211 To comprehensively characterize NSC heterogeneity within the SVZ, we
212 conducted further resolution of the original “NSCs & astrocytes” cell type (Fig.
213 4A and Supplemental Table S5) into 5 subtypes based on unbiased clustering
214 and previously known markers (Llorens-Bobadilla et al. 2015; Shah et al.
215 2018). By comparison, we identified several potential novel markers specific
216 to individual subtypes (Fig. 4B). For instance, *Mertk* and *Grin2c* were
217 especially enriched in niche astrocytes, but barely expressed in quiescent NSC
218 (qNSC) (Fig. 4B); thus, they can be potentially employed as markers to
219 distinguish these two cell types, which has long been a challenge. Other
220 markers, such as *Kank1* and *Ntsr2* for qNSC (Shah et al. 2018; Kim et al.
221 2022), *Adamts18* and *Thbs4* for early actively dividing NSCs (aNSCs)
222 (Beckervordersandforth et al. 2010), *Egfr* and *Mms22l* for late aNSCs
223 (Pluchino and Nicaise 2021), and *Cpne4* and *Dcx* for neuroblasts (Kim et al.
224 2022) (Fig. 4B), also exhibited specific expression and deserve future
225 downstream validation.

226 Based on the above sub-clustering, we found that the proportion of late aNSCs
227 and qNSCs increased in the acute post-injury stage, while the proportion of

228 early aNSCs, astrocytes, and neuroblasts decreased ([Fig. 4C](#)), the significant
229 change of qNSCs has also been validated using scCODA ([Buttner et al. 2021](#))
230 ([Supplemental Table S3](#)). This shift indicated that mTBI may promote SVZ
231 cell differentiation from early to late aNSCs and their descendants to
232 counterbalance cell loss caused by the sustained damage. Nevertheless, the
233 descendants failed to further differentiate into the neuronal lineage; instead,
234 they entered a quiescent status. This hypothesis may provide an explanation
235 for the limited ability of the adult brain to supply neuronal loss after injury.
236 Therefore, transcriptomic events in each subtype, detailed reprogramming
237 lineage trajectories, and their governing factors need to be addressed.

238 Here, we identified DEG details and their annotated functions for each NSC &
239 astrocyte subtype ([Fig. 4D](#) and [Supplemental Table S6](#)), creating an ideal
240 resource for subsequent studies of mTBI pathophysiology and therapeutic
241 targets to promote neurogenesis after brain injury. We focused on
242 transcription factors (TFs), critical factors regulating gene expression.

243 SCENIC analysis was used to establish a regulatory network for TFs and their
244 downstream genes ([Aibar et al. 2017](#)) ([Fig. 4E-F](#)). We used SCENIC analysis to
245 binarize TF enrichment and generate a regulon activity matrix ([Fig. 4E](#)). We
246 found that TF behavior (on/off) varied across different cell clusters, which can
247 be traced back to the subtypes characterized above. We detected 5 separate
248 modules in the SCENIC map and listed the TFs of interest in [Fig. 4E](#). For
249 instance, *ESRRG*, *RFX4*, *GRHL*, and *EPAS1* were especially active in

250 astrocytes and qNSCs; KLF9, GILS3, TEF, EPAS1, and TCF7L1 were “switched
251 on” in astrocytes, qNSCs, and early aNSCs; BRCA1, KDM5A, TAF1, and E2F1
252 were highly active in early aNSCs; and FOXP2, PBX3, and SOX4 were
253 enriched in late aNSC and neuroblasts (Fig. 4E). In addition, we found that
254 most DEGs were regulated by a combination of TFs, thus forming various
255 regulatory networks grouped in different modules (Fig. 4G). Particularly, we
256 found that the *Tcf7l1*, which was enriched in astrocytes, qNSC and early aNSC
257 (Fig. 4F), has been demonstrated to maintain spinal cord precocious
258 progenitor population by inhibiting its differentiation (Kim and Dorsky 2011).

259 We hypothesize that the *Tcf7l1* might play a similar differentiation-inhibiting
260 role in subsets of SVZ NSCs as well. Consequently, in the downstream
261 investigation, we explored this potential function of *Tcf7l1* in NSC
262 differentiation and neurogenesis. In summary, our study revealed the
263 significant heterogeneities among SVZ NSCs in response to mTBI, and these
264 responses were regulated by a complex network of TFs. Elucidating the roles
265 of these key genes may facilitate the recovery of brain tissues.

266 To elucidate the reprogramming lineage trajectories and their governing
267 factors under each condition, we used Monocle2 to uncover and exhibit
268 pseudo-time trajectory ordering of all NSC & astrocyte subtypes (Fig. 5A). 5
269 states were detected along the route, with 2 bifurcations: branch 1 from state 1
270 to states 2 and 5, and branch 2 from state 2 to states 3 and 4 (Fig. 5C). We

271 plotted the cell types against pseudotime and found that niche astrocytes took
272 up the tip of the pseudo-time tree (state 1) ([Fig. 5B](#)), indicating that niche
273 astrocyte priming may be the initial event of neurogenesis. This result
274 challenges the traditional notion of neurogenesis, but agrees with a recent
275 study on striatal astrocytes, which showed that astrocytes were located
276 upstream of NSCs in the neuronal lineage and may be targeted to guide
277 neuronal differentiation ([Magnusson et al. 2020](#)). Further experimental
278 validation and more scientific evidence are required to clarify this issue. This
279 process was followed by qNSC expansion (states 2 and 5) ([Fig. 5B](#)). Upon
280 branching, the vast majority of early aNSCs formed the end of state 2 and
281 dormant state 4. Another small group of early aNSCs gradually developed into
282 late aNSCs and then into neuroblasts ([Fig. 5B](#)). During this period, the mTBI
283 group exhibited an almost 10% decrease in the number of cells in state 3,
284 suggesting limited differentiation towards late aNSCs and neuroblasts ([Fig.](#)
285 [5D](#)). The changes in cell type proportions have been validated using scCODA
286 tool ([Buttner et al. 2021](#)) ([Supplemental Table S3](#)). This might partially
287 explain why the newly generated neurons in the adult brain is insufficient to
288 fully compensate for the loss of neurons caused after the injury.

289 To identify the factors and targets that govern neurogenesis, we analyzed gene
290 expression patterns along the reprogramming trajectories and grouped them
291 into 3 clusters according to their expression dynamics ([Fig. 5E](#)). Genes
292 responsible for NSC proliferation, differentiation, and neuronal function

293 exhibited largely different expression when cell identity switched from early
294 aNSCs to late aNSCs and neuroblasts (Fig. 5E). These changes included genes
295 involved in “nuclear division,” “axonogenesis,” “dendrite development,”
296 “regulation of neurogenesis,” and “neuron projection guidance” (Fig. 5E). In
297 addition, NSC maintenance factors, such as genes from the “Hippo signaling
298 pathways,” “Rap1 signaling pathways,” and “Wnt signaling pathways,”
299 increased in certain remaining qNSCs, which might underlie their maintained
300 cell fate (Fig. 5E). *Tcf7l1*, *Fars2*, *Wdr17*, *Csmd1*, *Prex2*, *Adamts18*, *ErbB4*,
301 *Maml3*, and *Nrxn3* exhibited varying degrees of increase or decline during
302 aNSC differentiation to neuroblasts (Fig. 5F). Considering the aforementioned
303 alterations of the regulon *Tcf7l1*, we are strongly interested in its role in
304 neurogenesis following mTBI.

305 *Inhibiting Tcf7l1 in NSCs Promoted Differentiation towards the Neuronal* 306 *Lineage*

307 Based on the above findings, as well as literature reviewing (Kim and Dorsky
308 2011), we hypothesized that *Tcf7l1* might play a differentiation-inhibiting role
309 in subsets of SVZ-NSC. To investigate this, we employed the loss-of-function
310 method to study the function of *Tcf7l1* in NSCs through siRNA-induced *Tcf7l1*
311 knockdown (KD) in NE-4C cells (an immortalized mouse NSC line) (Fig. 6A).
312 After validating the KD efficiency (Fig. 6B-C), we harvested NE-4C cells at
313 different time points following *Tcf7l1*_siRNA treatment (1 day and 3 days) and
314 analyzed gene expression. *Tcf7l1* deficiency decreased the expression of

315 marker genes for qNSCs (*Blbp*) and early aNSCs (*Adamts18* and *Cd9*) and
316 augmented the neuronal lineage markers *Dcx* and *Meg3* and the late aNSC
317 marker *Egfr*, suggesting differentiation towards late aNSCs and neuroblasts
318 (Fig. 6D and Supplemental Fig S4C). We further verified the gene expression
319 results using immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 6E-F). Consistently, the
320 qNSC marker *Thbs4* decreased, and the neuronal lineage marker *Dcx*
321 increased after KD. Furthermore, *Tcf7l1*-deficient cells gathered together in a
322 neurosphere-like manner. This morphological change has also been observed
323 in previous investigations of neuronal differentiation from NSCs (Fig. 6E-F).
324 Overall, these results suggest that *Tcf7l1* is critical in maintaining cell
325 stemness, and *Tcf7l1* deficiency could change the NSC programming trajectory,
326 promoting differentiation towards neuronal lineage cells.

327 *Targeting Tcf7l1 Enhanced Neurogenesis Following mTBI*

328 To further validate the critical role of *Tcf7l1*, we performed *Tcf7l1*-KD in an
329 experimental mouse model of mTBI. We stereotactically injected adenoviruses
330 loaded with vectors encoding green fluorescent protein (GFP) and scrambled
331 sh-*Tcf7l1* into the SVZ of mice 3 days before mTBI (Fig. 7A). On the third day
332 after mTBI, the mice were euthanized and the SVZ was dissected (Fig. 7A).
333 GFP signals were observed in a large number of cells in the SVZ niche,
334 suggesting successful injection and viral infection of the SVZ (Fig. 7B). *In vivo*
335 *Tcf7l1*-KD was validated via gene expression analysis of the SVZ (Fig. 7C).
336 Immunostaining revealed a significantly increased ratio of MKI67 and THBS4

337 co-stained/THBS4-positive cells in the SVZ after mTBI, further elevated in
338 mTBI mice pre-treated for *Tcf7l1*-KD. These results suggest that mTBI
339 promoted aNSC proliferation in this neurogenic niche, and suppressing
340 THBS4 augmented this alteration (Fig. 7D-E). Notably, the total number of
341 aNSCs (indicated as THBS4+) did not change significantly under *Tcf7l1*-KD
342 following mTBI. Overall, the above results raised the question whether
343 TCF7L1 deficiency promotes the differentiation of proliferated aNSCs towards
344 their descendants. To trace the fate of these proliferated cells, we treated mice
345 with BrdU injections for five consecutive days after mTBI and co-stained BrdU
346 with Dcx (Fig. 7A & 7F). We observed a significant increase in the percentage
347 of BrdU+ and DCX+/BrdU+ in the mTBI+*Tcf7l1*-KD group, suggesting that
348 neuronal lineage differentiation of proliferated NSCs is enhanced under
349 TCF7L1 deficiency (Fig. 7G). Together, our *in vitro* and *in vivo* results
350 demonstrate that *Tcf7l1* plays a critical role in maintaining NSC quiescence
351 and suppressing neuronal lineage differentiation. Targeting *Tcf7l1* represents
352 a potential direction in regenerative medicine for brain injury.

353 **Discussion**

354 Through high-throughput single-cell profiling, we(1) demonstrates that our
355 comprehensive snRNA-seq strategy generates a cell atlas of the entire SVZ
356 niche, (2) reports significant information about the cells, genes, and pathways
357 vulnerable to mTBI, and reveals cell-type-specific dynamics along the
358 neurogenic lineage, (3) identifies key genes like *Tcf7l1* that have the potential

359 to ameliorate cell damage in the brain or facilitate neural repair, making them
360 potential targets for developing therapeutics for mTBI, and (4) provides a
361 resource for studying adult neurogenesis in the SVZ under both physiological
362 and pathological conditions. To support our data-driven strategy, we
363 conducted experimental validations and demonstrated, for the first time, that
364 a deficiency of the transcription factor *Tcf7l1*, a regulator of cell cycle genes,
365 switches the NSC reprogramming directions and promotes NSC
366 differentiation towards neuronal lineage, providing a promising target for
367 future regeneration medicine approaches.

368 Previous studies have described the processes involved in cell proliferation
369 and differentiation during neurogenesis. Recent efforts continue to unveil the
370 diversity of NSCs and progenitors harbored in the heterogeneous pool, but
371 their lineage trajectories and delicate intercellular communications remain
372 poorly understood. Utilizing single-cell technology, Llorens-Bobadilla et al.
373 unveiled distinct cell types or states within the SVZ. Their investigation
374 successfully identified four subtypes of NSCs and elucidated the factors
375 implicated in the transition of NSCs from a quiescent state to an activated
376 state under forebrain ischemia (Llorens-Bobadilla et al. 2015). Subsequently,
377 Vera Zywitza et al. characterized and classified six subtypes of NSCs in the
378 SVZ based on molecular features and RNA velocity analysis (Zywitza et al.
379 2018). Additionally, they demonstrated the pivotal role of LRP2 as a key
380 regulator of neurogenesis in the SVZ. Recently, Xie et al. conducted an

381 analysis on the heterogeneity of SVZ stem cells in mice across different age
382 groups, spanning from neonates to aged individuals (Xie et al. 2020). Their
383 study successfully identified four distinct subtypes of qNSCs and three
384 subpopulations of progenitor cells. While these studies differ in terms of the
385 precision in subtyping SVZ stem cells, they share similarities in classifying
386 major NSC types such as aNSCs, qNSCs, and NBs, which aligns with the
387 findings of our study.

388 Using a well-established mTBI model and single-nucleus transcriptomics, we
389 conducted a pioneering investigation into the molecular and transcriptional
390 alterations specific to cell types within the SVZ stem cell pool following mild
391 brain trauma. In addition, we uncovered a number of novel genes that have
392 the potential to mark cell type in SVZ niche and each NSC/progenitor cell
393 subtype, thus filling this current knowledge gap. For instance, distinguishing
394 qNSCs from niche astrocytes effectively with a specific marker has been
395 challenging; hence, the likelihood ratio has been applied to identify them
396 (Llorens-Bobadilla et al. 2015). Our data detected several genes exclusively
397 enriched in qNSCs, not in niche astrocytes ([Supplemental Table S5](#)).
398 Specifically, *Kank1* exhibited exclusive expression in qNSCs, while *Grin2c* and
399 *Mertk* showed highly expression in astrocytes. These genes, not previously
400 reported, offer potential markers for identifying these cell types. Another
401 previous notion challenged by our data is that neurogenesis lineage priming is
402 initiated by qNSC activation. Using pseudotime analysis, a powerful approach

403 for revealing lineage trajectories (Holden et al. 2021; Jamjoom et al. 2021), we
404 discovered that niche astrocytes triggered the neurogenic process, rather than
405 qNSCs. Our findings align with a recent study suggesting that striatal
406 astrocytes act as latent NSCs, triggering neuronal lineage cell genesis
407 upstream of NSCs (Magnusson et al. 2020). In addition, our analysis revealed
408 that qNSCs differentiated into two branches along the pseudotime line. One
409 branch of qNSC transitioned into a dormant state, mainly comprising early
410 aNSCs. These cells shared similar activated TFs with astrocytes and qNSCs
411 (Fig. 4E), suggesting that their transcriptional regulatory network did not
412 undergo significant changes during differentiation. Another branch
413 differentiated into late aNSCs and subsequently into neuroblasts. In
414 comparison, this branch exhibited a completely different regulatory network
415 (Fig. 4G), suggesting a distinct switch in cell identity. Conducting in-depth
416 studies to validate these analytical results and further exploring targets
417 involved in NSC homeostasis and neurogenesis would be of significant
418 interest. Our data also offer insights into the mechanisms underlying the
419 limited replacement of lost neurons after brain injury and potential targets to
420 address this issue. In addition, we clarified the molecular events orchestrating
421 each neurogenic stage at the single-cell resolution and identified potential
422 genes that may govern the fate of each NSC/progenitor subtype. This
423 discovery is expected to facilitate the development of regenerative medicines.
424 Our single-nucleus SVZ transcriptome atlas and lineage trajectory regulation

425 analysis revealed *Tcf7l1* as a key gene in NSC differentiation. Among the four
426 TCF/lymphoid enhancer factor family members, *Tcf7l1* is the only one
427 expressed in undifferentiated mouse embryonic stem cells (Yi et al. 2011) and
428 in the developing forebrain primordium during the presomitic and early
429 somite stages (Galceran et al. 1999; Merrill et al. 2004). A literature review
430 revealed that *Tcf7l1* can maintain the spinal cord precocious progenitor cell
431 population and inhibit its differentiation in zebrafish (Andoniadou et al. 2011;
432 Kim and Dorsky 2011). However, its role in the SVZ of adult mice and its
433 effects on neurorepair after mTBI have not been addressed. *In vitro* and *in*
434 *vivo* loss-of-function experiments demonstrated that suppressing *Tcf7l1*
435 promotes qNSC differentiation towards neuronal lineage cells. This
436 experiment validates our single-nucleus data-driven strategy. In addition,
437 these results aid in understanding the pathophysiological process of mTBI,
438 and our fate-switching approach represents a significant advancement in
439 neuroregeneration, offering a potential therapeutic target for enhancing
440 neuronal supply after brain injury.

441 To further explore the potential therapeutic effects of *Tcf7l1*, we conducted the
442 NSS assessment in mice 1 hour after mTBI. Mice with *Tcf7l1*-KD exhibited
443 significantly lower NSS scores compared to the mTBI group treated with a
444 control vector (Supplemental Fig S5A), indicating a reduced level of
445 neurological impairment in the *Tcf7l1*-KD group. To evaluate the long-term
446 impact of *Tcf7l1* KD in mice, we conducted additional behavioral experiments

447 on Sham, mTBI+Control vector, and mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice 1 month post-
448 injury. These experiments included the Rotarod test, Morris water maze test
449 (MWM), Y-maze test, and novel object recognition test (Supplemental Fig S5).
450 In the Rotarod test, we found that the motor and coordination abilities of
451 mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice were significantly better than those of mTBI+Control
452 vector group in the first 3 trials (Supplemental Fig S5B). From the 2nd day
453 onwards (after the 4th trial), there was no significant difference among the 2
454 groups. The Y-maze test results showed that the spontaneous alternation rate
455 of mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice was significantly higher than that of mTBI+Control
456 vector mice 1 month after injury (Supplemental Fig S5C). The MWM results
457 showed that the latency of mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice on the 4th and 5th days was
458 significantly shorter than that of mTBI+Control vector mice, and their overall
459 spatial learning and localization abilities were close to those of Sham mice
460 (Supplemental Fig S5D). In the spatial exploration, mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice
461 explored the quadrant where the original platform was located for a longer
462 time than mTBI+Control vector mice, but the difference was not significant
463 (Supplemental Fig S5E). The novel object recognition test showed that there
464 was no significant difference among the groups of mice in exploring old
465 objects, but mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice spent significantly more time exploring
466 new objects than mTBI+Control vector mice (Supplemental Fig S5F). The
467 above results indicate that mTBI+*Tcf7l1* KD mice have better motor, memory,
468 and learning abilities than mTBI+Control vector mice 1 month after injury.

469 However, it's essential to acknowledge that the transition from SVZ
470 neurogenesis to cognitive function in post-TBI mice is a complex and
471 multifaceted process. This journey involves not only the proliferation and
472 differentiation of NSCs, but also the migration of neural cells, the
473 establishment of the surrounding micro-environment, and the construction of
474 neural circuits. Consequently, confirming a direct causal relationship between
475 the enhancement of cognitive function and SVZ neurogenesis regulated by
476 *Tcf7l1* would necessitate a considerable volume of subsequent and
477 comprehensive studies. As such, we recognize that further research is required
478 to fully unravel the exact mechanisms that underpin the observed
479 enhancements in cognitive function.

480 Acknowledging the limitations of our study is imperative. It has been observed
481 that following TBI, female animals experience an elevation in estrogen levels
482 at the site of trauma, which is potential to mitigate neuroinflammatory
483 responses mediated by microglia and astrocytes (Wang et al. 2020). This
484 increase in estrogen plays a vital role in reducing intracranial pressure and
485 mitigating brain edema, ultimately leading to a better prognosis (Brotfain et al.
486 2016; Lu et al. 2017). Consequently, many studies investigating brain injury
487 opt to restrict the use of mice to a specific sex in order to minimize variability
488 and eliminate the influence of sex hormones on experimental outcomes
489 (Llorens-Bobadilla et al. 2015; Arneson et al. 2018; Park et al. 2018;
490 Somebang et al. 2021). In the present study, in order to observe the molecular

491 level changes after mTBI more clearly, we have solely utilized male mice for
492 single-nucleus sequencing, which inherently restricts our ability to draw
493 conclusions regarding potential sex disparities in response to mTBI. Thus, we
494 have outlined future research directions that include conducting comparative
495 studies between male and female mice using the single-cell transcriptomic
496 approach to investigate sex-specific differences in mTBI response. We firmly
497 believe that such investigations will yield valuable insights into the underlying
498 mechanisms of sex disparities in mTBI and provide guidance for potential sex-
499 specific therapeutic interventions.

500 **Methods**

501 *Ethics approval and consent to participate*

502 Animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the institutional
503 guidelines approved by the Animal Care and Experimental Committee of
504 Sichuan University, China.

505 *Animals*

506 All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the institutional
507 guidelines following approval by the Animal Care and Experimental
508 Committee of Sichuan University, China. C57BL/6J male mice, aged 8-10
509 weeks, were group-housed conventionally in standard conditions (12 hrs
510 light/dark cycle, temperature: 22-25 °C, relative humidity: 40-60%) with ad
511 libitum food and water for at least one week before the experiment. To ensure
512 proper blinding, each mouse was assigned a unique alphanumeric code

513 unrelated to the treatment group for identification purposes. For NSS
514 assessment and single-cell sequencing, a total of 6 SVZ samples were utilized.
515 In the in vivo experiments, a cohort of 60 mice was employed, with 20 mice
516 allocated to each respective group. These mice underwent
517 immunofluorescence staining, BrdU injection, and behavioral testing
518 procedures. The study implemented specific exclusion criteria for mouse
519 selection in subsequent experimentation. Mice meeting any of the following
520 criteria were excluded: 1) age below 8 weeks or above 10 weeks, 2) body
521 weight below 18 grams or above 25 grams, 3) presence of illness or disease, 4)
522 technical issues during experimental procedures, 5) specific breeding or
523 housing conditions introducing confounding variables or impacting study
524 outcomes, 6) prior treatments or interventions, and 7) certain genetic or
525 phenotypic backgrounds.

526 *mTBI*

527 To ensure consistent and standardized anesthesia, we employed an inhalation
528 anesthesia machine with isoflurane for our study as isoflurane anesthesia
529 offers advantages such as rapid induction and recovery (Bielefeld et al. 2017;
530 Cho et al. 2019; Huynh et al. 2020). Mice were anesthetized with 4%
531 isoflurane and maintained anesthesia with 1.5% isoflurane until after impact
532 and suturing. Mice were placed in an anesthetic mask and a stereotaxic
533 apparatus, with a foam pad placed underneath to provide cushioning for the

534 impact (Xu et al. 2016). First, a 10 mm midline incision was made in the
535 mouse's scalp and the skin and the fascia were cleared. Then mice received an
536 impact by the CCI machine eCCI-6.3 (Custom Design & Fabrication, Inc.)
537 directly onto the skull, with an impact diameter of 3 mm, impact velocity of
538 3.5 m/s, depth of 1 mm, and duration of 150 ms. The impact position was 0.5
539 mm posterior to the bregma and 2 mm lateral to the midplane. These injury
540 parameters are consistent with those used in previous studies of mTBI (An et
541 al. 2016; Xu et al. 2021). The sham group of mice did not receive an impact,
542 but were otherwise treated identically to the mTBI group.

543 *NSS*

544 We used the NSS assessment to validate the severity of brain injury in mice 1
545 hr post injury as previously described in detail (Flierl et al. 2009). The NSS
546 evaluation comprises a comprehensive range of assessments to evaluate
547 neurological function, encompassing motor coordination, balance, and
548 reflexes. According to the established criteria (Beni-Adani et al. 2001), a score
549 of 3-4 was considered indicative of mTBI (Henninger et al. 2016). According
550 to the NSS protocol in Flierl et al.'s work, the mice were exposed to isoflurane
551 inhalation for a limited duration of 5-10 minutes to prevent prolonged
552 interference with NSS evaluation. To demonstrate that mice are fully awake
553 from the anesthetic state 1 hour after injury, we conducted an NSS
554 comparison between mice that received anesthesia-only and naive mice

555 (Supplemental Fig S5A). The results clearly demonstrated that the NSS scores
556 of anesthetized mice at 1 hour post-TBI were comparable to those of naive
557 mice, indicating no significant differences in neurological function.

558 *Intracranial injections, immunofluorescence staining, real-time quantitative*
559 *polymerase chain reaction (qPCR)*

560 Please refer to our previous publications (Xiao et al. 2019; Cao et al. 2022;
561 Long et al. 2022).

562 Antibodies: anti-Thbs4 (Abcam Cat# ab263898, RRID: AB_2922811), anti-
563 Dcx (Abcam Cat# ab207175, RRID: AB_2894710), anti-Ki67 (Abcam Cat#
564 ab279653, RRID: AB_2934265).

565 Primer sequences: please see [Supplemental Table S7](#).

566 *BrdU injection and immunostaining*

567 We initiated BrdU injections immediately after mTBI and continued daily
568 injections for 5 consecutive days to label proliferative cells. Mice were received
569 daily single i.p. injections of BrdU (Abcam, Cat# ab142567, 50 mg/kg).
570 Sections were incubated with 2 N HCl for 1 hour before immunostaining
571 against BrdU (Thermo Fisher Scientific Cat# MA3-071, RRID: AB_10986341).

572 *SVZ dissection*

573 Please refer to previous study (Kim and Dorsky 2011; Li et al. 2023).

574 *Nuclei isolation*

575 The mice SVZ was dissected according to previous study (Walker and

576 Kempermann 2014). NLB buffer (0.2 U/ μ L RNase Inhibitor (Takara), 250
577 mM Sucrose, 10 mM Tris-HCl, 3 mM MgAc₂, 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma-
578 Aldrich), 0.1 mM EDTA) was used to homogenize the frozen tissue. Different
579 concentrations of sucrose were applied to purify the nuclei using sucrose
580 density gradient centrifugation, and the nuclei were inspected for visual
581 appearance and cell lysis using trypan blue and quantified with a
582 hemocytometer before being adjusted to a concentration of 1000 nuclei/ μ L.

583 *Single nucleus RNA sequencing*

584 The snRNA-seq libraries were built using the 10 \times Genomics Chromium
585 Controller Instrument (Cat# PN-120223, 10 \times Genomics) and Chromium
586 Single Cell 3' V3.1 Reagent Kits (Cat# PN-1000121, 10 \times Genomics). Please
587 refer to manufacturer's instructions.

588 *Cell culture and transfection*

589 NE4C cell line were cultured in a 37 °C incubator under 5% CO₂ with
590 Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine
591 serum and 1% double antibody. For transfection, cells were transfected with
592 siRNA-Tcf7l1 or the control siRNA using Lipofectamine 3000 according to the
593 manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, 250 pmole of each siRNA were
594 transfected using 2.5 μ l of lipofectamine 2000 per dish in Opti-MEM.
595 Following transfection, cells were incubated at 37 °C in a 5% CO₂ humidified
596 atmosphere for 48 h before being harvested for the assays. The sequences

597 corresponding to the siRNA-Tcf711 were: sense 5'-
598 GGAAGAAGAAGAAGAGGAAGAGAGA-3'.

599 *Single nucleus RNA sequencing quality control*

600 Expression matrixes were loaded into R (v.4.1.3) using the function `Read10x`
601 in Seurat (v.1.1) (Stuart et al. 2019; R Core Team YEAR) and then merged
602 together by column (detailed dataset descriptions of the sham group has been
603 reported in our recent data descriptor,
604 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE198074>) (Li et al.
605 2023). This resulted in total of 16,754 cells. We performed quality control to
606 remove doublets, dead cells, and empty droplets that could impact the
607 accuracy and reliability of our sequencing results. The quality control criteria
608 are as follows: (1) $1,000 < \text{total UMI counts} < 20,000$; (2) $500 < \text{gene numbers}$
609 $< 7,500$; and (3) mitochondrial gene percentage $< 10\%$. After attempts of
610 quality control, we filtered out 1489 low-quality cells that did not meet our
611 filtering criteria for analysis. This step was crucial in ensuring the quality of
612 our data and minimizing any potential sources of bias or artifacts in our
613 analysis. The expression level of each gene in each cell was normalized using
614 the function `NormalizeData` with the default parameters to remove the
615 influence of sequencing library size, which converted expression values from
616 UMI counts to $\ln[10,000 \times \text{UMI counts}/\text{total UMI counts in cell} + 1]$. The
617 Seurat R package (v4.1.1) and `SCTransform` (vo.2.1) R packages were used for
618 the downstream analysis of single-cell RNA-seq data (Hafemeister and Satija

619 2019; Stuart et al. 2019). Briefly, the expression matrix was processed using
620 SCTransform with default parameters, followed by dimensionality reduction
621 (PCA, principal component analysis). Then, clusters were visualized using
622 Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection for Dimension Reduction
623 (UMAP). Cell clustering was further performed using the FindNeighbors and
624 FindClusters functions in Seurat. Cell populations were defined based on the
625 DEGs identified between clusters.

626 *Marker gene identification*

627 Marker genes were identified with a Wilcoxon rank sum test implemented in
628 the FindAllMarkers function with the criteria ($\log_{2}FC > 0.25$; $p < 0.05$;
629 $\text{min.pct} > 0.1$). The expression of single genes was depicted using custom R
630 scripts, either per cell cluster as distribution of normalized UMI counts
631 (violins) or per cell as color gradient in UMAP.

632 *Functional annotation and pathway Analysis*

633 Gene Ontology (GO) annotations (The Gene Ontology Consortium et al. 2000)
634 were downloaded from NCBI (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>), GO
635 knowledgebase (<http://www.geneontology.org/>), and UniProt
636 (<http://www.uniprot.org/>). Pathway analysis was performed using the KEGG
637 database (<https://www.genome.jp/kegg/>). Fisher's exact test was applied to
638 identify significant GO categories and pathways. False Discovery Rate (FDR)
639 was used to correct the p-values, and p-values < 0.05 were considered

640 significant (Draghici et al. 2007).

641 *Cell-Cell communication analysis*

642 Communications between cells were analyzed using CellChat (Jin et al. 2021).
643 Please refer to <https://github.com/sqjin/CellChat>. P-values < 0.05 were
644 selected for revealing relationships between cell types.

645 *Single-cell regulatory network inference and clustering (SCENIC)*

646 For SCENIC (Aibar et al. 2017), we created the motif databases the allow to
647 use RcisTarget and SCENIC (v1.3.1) on mouse. Briefly, we used GENIE3 to
648 construct co-expression network and RcisTarget to identify the direct binding
649 by DNA-motif analysis. After construct regulons for each transcription factor
650 using motif data set (mm9-tss-centered-10kb-7-species.mc9nr.feather, mm10-
651 refseq-r80-500bp-up-and-100bp-down-tss.mc9nr.feather), the activity score
652 of the regulons in each cell was quantified using AUCell. The activity scores of
653 regulons generated in NSC & astrocyte in mTBI and control mice were
654 averaged, scaled, and visualized via heat map. The network of the regulon and
655 its targets was visualized using Cytoscape (v3.8.0) (Shannon et al. 2003). Only
656 the connections of a specific regulon and downstream Targets that were co-
657 regulated by multiple TF were shown.

658 *Pseudo-time analysis*

659 The reprogramming trajectory analysis was performed using Monocle2
660 (v2.22.0, <http://cole-trapnell-lab.github.io/monocle-release>), with DDR-Tree

661 (v0.1.5) and default parameters. A heatmap was produced to display the series
662 of genes with certain expression patterns along the pseudotime. Using the
663 differential gene test function of Monocle2, a q value < 0.01 was set to identify
664 significantly changed genes.

665 *scCODA*

666 To identify statistically significant changes in cell population composition, we
667 utilized the scCODA v.0.1.9 Python package to perform compositional analysis
668 of the single-cell data (Buttner et al. 2021). For Fig. 2A, Fig. 4C, and Fig. 5D,
669 we selected ependymal, astrocyte, and State1 cells as the reference cell types,
670 respectively. To ensure the detection of subtle yet biologically relevant
671 changes, we set the FDR value to 0.4, as recommended by Buttner et al. in
672 their documentation.

673 *Statistical analyses*

674 The data analysis was carried out by a blinded investigator, unaware of the
675 treatment groups. The data were labeled with unique alphanumeric codes,
676 unlinked to the treatment groups. In the statistical analysis, FDR was
677 employed to correct the p-values. We defined p-values < 0.05 as significant.
678 The p-values are reported in the figures, figure legends (*p ≤ 0.05 , ** \leq
679 0.01 , ***p ≤ 0.001 , ****p ≤ 0.0001 , n.s. denotes not significant). The error
680 bars in the figures represent the mean \pm SEM. For the statistical analysis of
681 snRNA-seq data, we utilized R (v4.1.3). The Wilcoxon rank sum test was

682 utilized for marker gene identification, as well as for the selection of DEGs for
683 pseudo-time analysis, cell-cell communication analysis, and other related
684 analyses. Fisher's exact test was applied to identify significant GO categories
685 and pathways. Additionally, the *t*-test was employed to determine statistical
686 differences between samples. Detailed analysis methods and relevant
687 parameter indicators have been described aforementioned. For NSS, qPCRs,
688 and immunostaining statistic data, we performed unpaired two-tailed *t*-tests
689 using GraphPad Prism (v.8.0) to determine statistical differences between
690 samples.

691 **Data access**

692 All raw and processed sequencing data of mTBI generated in this study have
693 been submitted to the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO;
694 <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE198074>) under
695 accession number GSE198074. The analysis code is available at GitHub
696 (<https://github.com/limanrui/scseq.git>) and as Supplemental Code. Matrix of
697 samples in this study are available at Figshare
698 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.21907497.v2>) and as Supplemental
699 Data.

700 **Competing interests statement**

701 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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706 **Authors' contributions**

707 Q.Y., Lingxuan.Z., Manrui.L., Y.X., Xiaogang.C and R.Y. performed the
 708 statistical and computational analysis. X.O., M.H. and Miao.L performed CCI
 709 and tissue sampling. Q.Y., Lingxuan.Z., Manrui.L., Y.X., and H.D. performed
 710 the PCR validation, immunofluorescence staining, cell counting and SVZ
 711 injection. Q.Y. and Xiameng.C. wrote the manuscript. Lin.Z., Xiaogang.C. and
 712 Meili.L. revised the manuscript. The study was designed and managed by
 713 Xiameng.C., W.L., and X.X.

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906

907 **Figure legends**

908 **Fig.1. Major cell types in adult SVZ and cell type specific markers at**
909 **Single-Cell Profiling.**

910 **A.** Workflow of sample preparation, single-nucleus RNA-seq and the
911 downstream analysis.

912 **B.** Neurological Severity Score (NSS) of control group and mTBI group. 3
913 mice in each group were included. The *t*-test was used to determine statistical
914 significance, $**P \leq 0.01$.

915 **C.** Bright-field image of the SVZ, the sampling area is circled by the dotted
916 line.

917 **D.** Uniform manifold approximation and projection (UMAP) visualization of
918 15,265 cell from the SVZ of the control and the mTBI group, 17 cell clusters
919 were detected.

920 **E.** Heat map showing differentially expressed genes in each cell type, dot plot
921 showing the gene expression level in the indicated GO terms in each cell type.

922 **F.** Violin plots showing expression level of representative genes that were
923 explicitly expressed in each cell population.

924 **Fig.2. Transcription characteristics and heterogeneity of each cell**
925 **type in response to the mTBI.**

926 **A.** Bar plot showing the cell count proportion of 7 major cell types in the
927 control and mTBI group.

928 **B.** Pie chart showing the proportion of cells in 16 clusters in the control and
929 mTBI group.

930 **C.** Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) analysis of the major
931 cell types.

932 **D.** GO analysis showing enriched terms in 7 major cell types (left: up-
933 regulated, right: down-regulated in the mTBI).

934 **CE.** Enrichment of representative signaling pathways on UMAP plot.

935 **Fig.3. Alterations of the cell-cell crosstalk in the SVZ after mTBI.**

936 **A.** Cell-cell communication signaling network among major cell types
937 analyzed with CellChat. The width of the lines indicates the number of pairs,
938 different colours represent different signal sources.

939 **B.** Bar plot showing the number of inferred interactions and the proportion of
940 interaction strength in the control and the mTBI.

941 **C.** The location of major cell types based on the count of their significant
942 incoming (Y-axis) or outgoing (X-axis) signaling pattern.

943 **D.** Signal pathway network and bar plot showing the expression of specific
944 signaling pathways in the control and the mTBI SVZ. Width of the lines
945 indicates signal strength.

946 **E.** Dot plot showing the pairing of ligands (red)-receptors (blue) in the control
947 and the mTBI SVZ.

948 **Fig.4. NSC & astrocyte diversities in the niche and their alteration**
949 **post-mTBI.**

950 **A.** UMAP plot showing 5 sub-types of NSCs & astrocytes.

951 **B.** Dot plot showing the representative markers for each sub type. A gradient

952 of light purple to yellow indicates inhibition to activation of the term. Size of
953 the bubble indicates the P-value.

954 **C.** Bar plot showing the proportion of each cell types in the control and mTBI
955 group.

956 **D.** Upper: volcano plot showing DEGs in the control and mTBI group. Lower:
957 violin plot showing up-regulated and down-regulated genes in each cell type.
958 The *t*-test was used to determine statistical significance, **** $P \leq 0.0001$.

959 **E.** SCENIC results of the control and mTBI group. Major regulators were
960 exhibited, their corresponding enriched DNA-binding motifs were shown in
961 right column.

962 **F.** Ridge plot showing the expression of *Tcf7l1*.

963 **G.** Protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks of TFs and miRNAs in
964 neuroblast (upper), and astrocyte, qNSC, early aNSC (lower).

965 **Fig.5. Pseudotime analysis revealed reprogramming trajectory of**
966 **NSCs after injury.**

967 **A.** Upper: coloured cells plotted onto the UMAP according to the pseudotime.
968 Lower: monocle2-generated pseudo-temporal trajectory of NSC & astrocyte.

969 **B.** Different astrocyte & NSC sub-types along the pseudotime trajectory.

970 **C.** Cell ordering from different differentiation stages along the pseudotime
971 trajectory.

972 **D.** Bar plot showing the proportion of each differentiation stage in the control
973 and the mTBI.

974 **E.** Left: heatmap showing gene expression patterns along the pseudotime
975 (1,000 genes). Right: 3 clusters were identified based on the expression
976 dynamics, GO term for each cluster was displayed on the right column.

977 **F.** Expression pattern of representative genes during differentiation from
978 aNSC to neuroblasts. States are shown in colours, and branches are indicated
979 by lines.

980 **Fig.6. Knockdown of *Tcf7l1* induced differentiation of NE-4C cells**
981 **towards neuron lineage cells *in vitro*.**

982 **A.** Schematic showing the siRNA knockdown approach on NE-4C cell line.

983 **B.** Cy3 signal indicating successful transfection of cells using siRNA.

984 **C.** qPCR results of *Tcf7l1* in each group. Expression levels were normalized to
985 *Gapdh*, 3 technical duplicates were performed in individual qPCR
986 experiments. The *t*-test was used to determine statistical significance, * $P \leq 0.05$,
987 ** $P \leq 0.01$, *** $P \leq 0.001$, **** $P \leq 0.0001$, ns. denotes for not significant.

988 **D.** qPCR assay of marker genes of different NSCs, progenitors and neuroblasts
989 under different treatment. Expression levels were normalized to *Gapdh*, 3
990 technical duplicates were performed in individual qPCR experiments. The *t*-
991 test was used to determine statistical significance, * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$,
992 *** $P \leq 0.001$, **** $P \leq 0.0001$, ns. denotes for not significant.

993 **E, F.** Immunofluorescence staining against THBS4 (E) and DCX (F) in
994 cultured cells under different treatments. Sections are counterstained with
995 DAPI.

996 **Fig.7. Suppressing *Tcf7l1* promoted neuronal differentiation of the**
997 **SVZ NSCs after mTBI.**

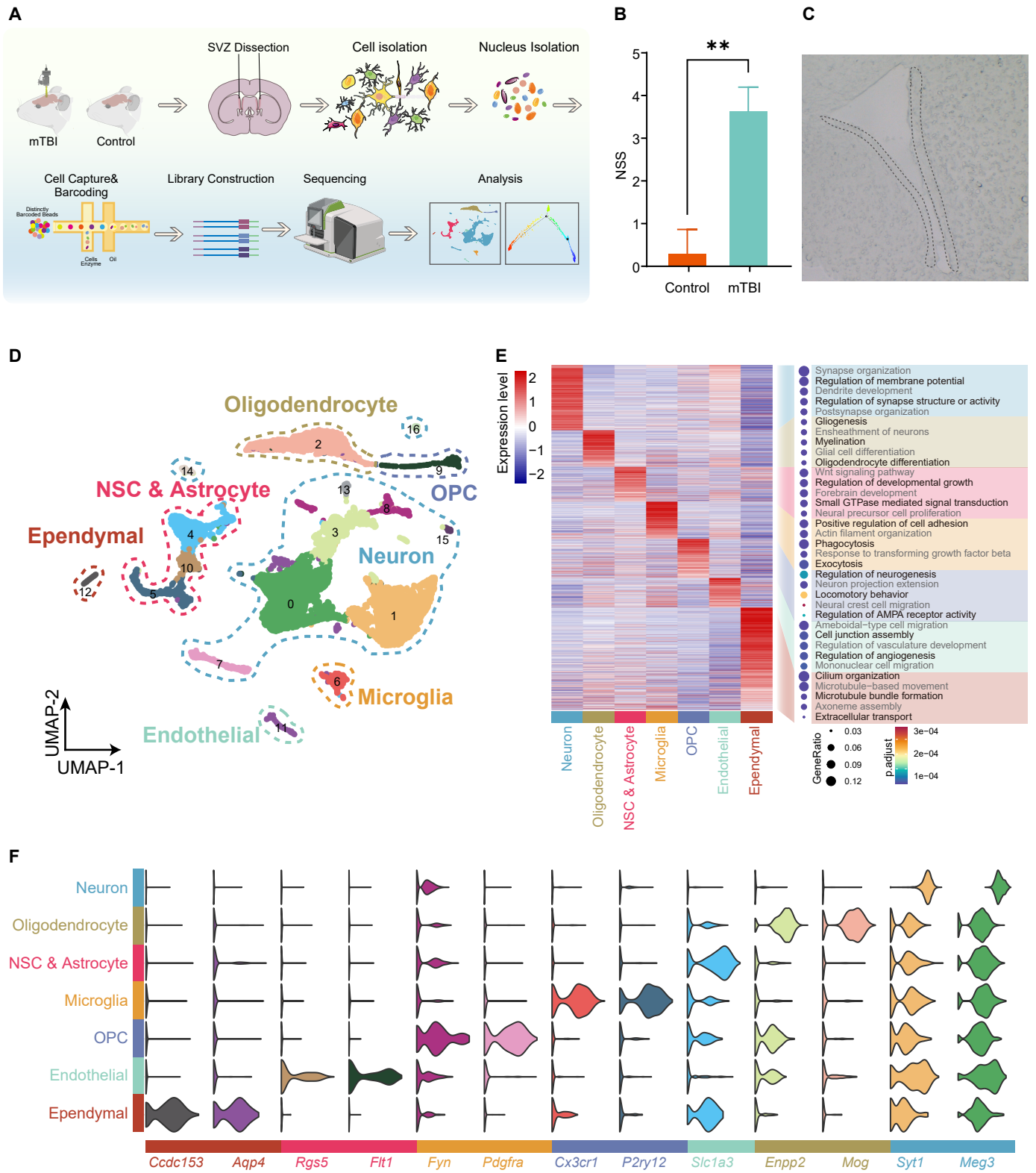
998 **A.** Upper: Schematic diagram of in vivo experiment. Lower: Schematic
999 representing the adenovirus injection, along with its genetic sequence.

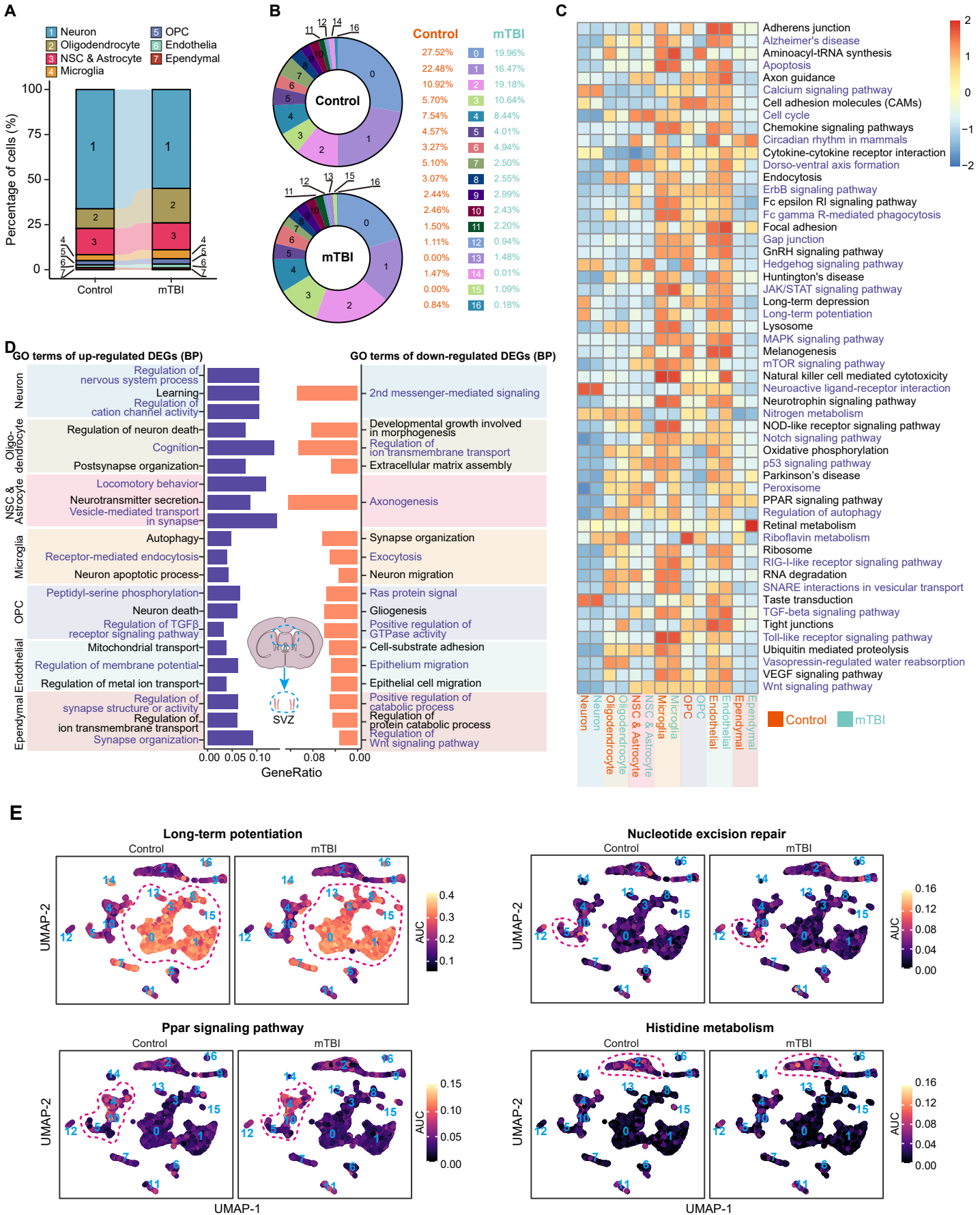
1000 **B.** GFP signal indicating successful SVZ injection of the adenovirus.

1001 **C.** qPCR assay of *Tcf7l1* indicating successful knockdown of *Tcf7l1* in the SVZ.
1002 Expression levels were normalized to *Gapdh*. 3 technical duplicates were
1003 performed in individual qPCR experiments.

1004 **D, E.** Immunofluorescence staining (D) and THBS4⁺MKI67⁺/THBS4⁺ cell
1005 counting results (E) for THBS4 and MKI67 in the SVZ region from sham,
1006 mTBI+control vector, and mTBI+*Tcf7l1* vector. Tissues are counterstained
1007 with DAPI. The *t*-test was used to determine statistical significance, *P≤0.05.

1008 **F, G.** Immunofluorescence staining (F) and DCX⁺BrdU⁺/BrdU⁺ cell counting
1009 results (G) for DCX and BrdU in the SVZ region from sham, mTBI+control
1010 vector, and mTBI+*Tcf7l1* vector. Tissues are counter-stained with DAPI. The
1011 *t*-test was used to determine statistical significance, **P≤0.01.





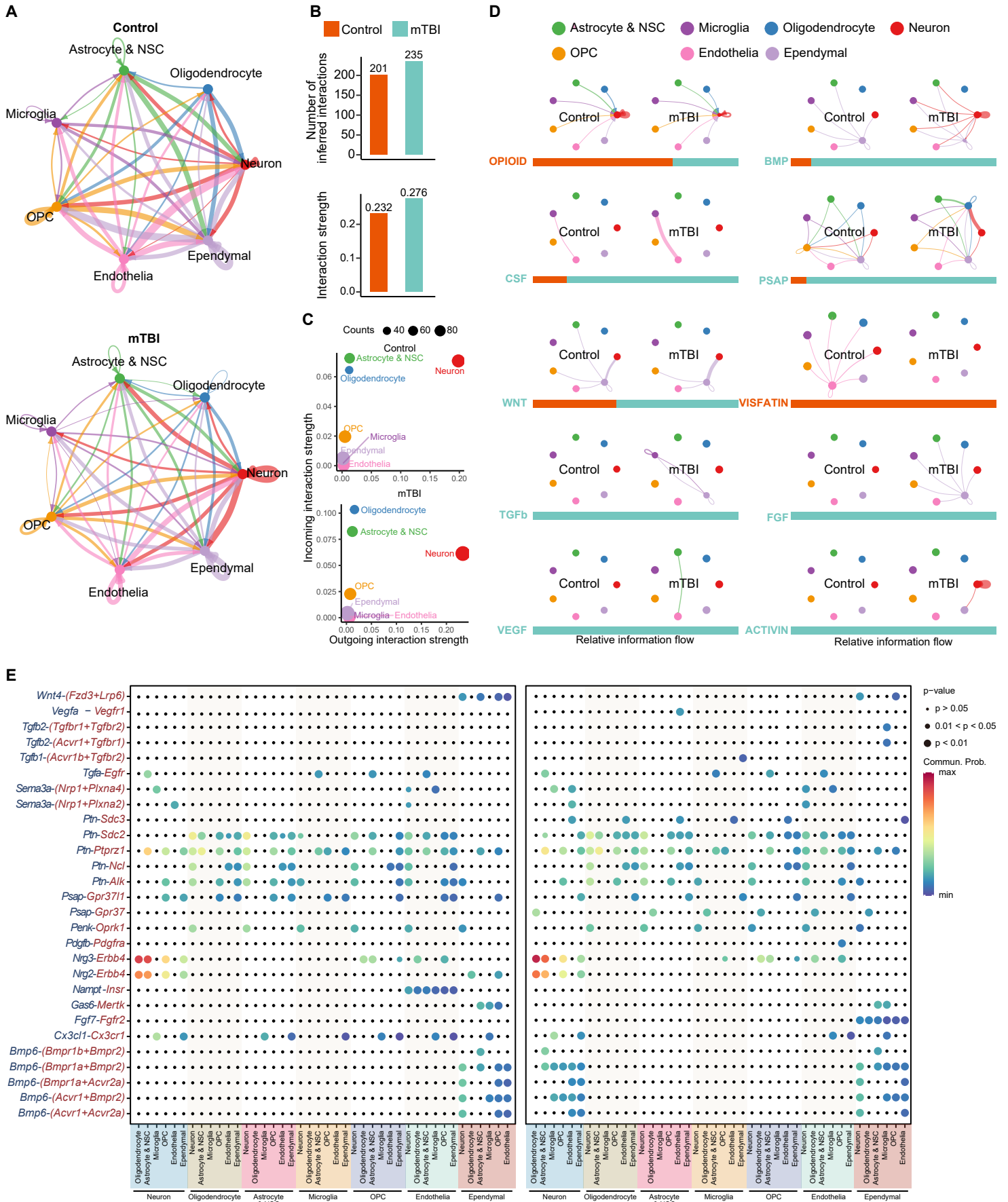


Figure 5

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