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The effect of clopidogrel and aspirin on the severity of traumatic brain injury in a rat model

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ABSTRACT

Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI) is one of the leading causes of death and disability worldwide. Aspirin (ASA) and clopidogrel (CLOP) are antiplatelet agents that inhibit platelet aggregation. They are implicated in worsening the intracerebral haemorrhage (ICH) risk post-TBI. However, antiplatelet drugs may also exert a neuroprotective effect post-injury. We determined the impact of ASA and CLOP treatment, alone or in combination, on ICH and brain damage in an experimental rat TBI model. We assessed changes in platelet aggregation and measured serum thromboxane by enzyme immune assay. We also explored a panel of brain damage and apoptosis biomarkers by immunoblotting. Rats were treated with ASA and/or CLOP for 48 h prior to TBI and sacrificed 48 h post-injury. In rats treated with antiplatelet agents prior to TBI, platelet aggregation was completely inhibited, and serum thromboxane was significantly decreased, compared to the TBI group without treatment. TBI increases UCHL-1 and GFAP, but decreases hexokinase expression compared to the non-injured controls. All groups treated with antiplatelet drugs prior to TBI had decreased UCH-L1 and GFAP serum levels compared to the TBI untreated group. Furthermore, the ASA and CLOP single treatments increased the hexokinase serum levels. We confirmed that αII-spectrin cleavage increased post-TBI, with the highest cleavage detected in CLOP-treated rats. Aspirin and/or CLOP treatment prior to TBI is a double-edged sword that exerts a dual effect post-injury. On one hand, ASA and CLOP single treatments increase the post-TBI ICH risk, with a further detrimental effect from the ASA + CLOP treatment. On the other hand, ASA and/or CLOP treatments are neuroprotective and result in a favourable profile of TBI injury markers. The ICH risk and the neuroprotection benefits from antiplatelet therapy should be weighed against each other to ameliorate the management of TBI patients.

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1. Introduction

Traumatic brain injury (TBI) is a major cause of mortality and morbidity worldwide with an estimated 69 million individuals experiencing TBI each year (Dewan et al., 2018). Moreover, TBI crude mortality rates range from 3.3 to 24.4 per 100,000 population per year in Europe (Brazinova et al., 2021). In elderly patients, neurological injuries are associated with higher rates of hospitalizations, long-term disability, and mortality (Floyd et al., 2014; Roozenbeek et al., 2013). Moreover, elderly patients frequently have multiple comorbid conditions that require antiplatelet or anticoagulant treatment (King et al., 2010). In particular, aspirin and CLOP are two common adjuncts to the medical care of elderly patients with cardiovascular diseases. ASA irreversibly inhibits the production of thromboxane (TX) A₂ by platelets (Floyd et al., 2014). CLOP inhibits ADP-mediated platelet activation and aggregation (Sangkuhl et al., 2010).

To date, several studies have evaluated the effect of antiplatelet agents on TBI with inconsistent and even conflicting results. Some reported increased mortality rates in patients on antiplatelet therapy following TBI (Gaetani et al., 2012; Ivascu et al., 2008). Fabbri et al. demonstrated an increased risk of unfavorable outcomes in adult patients on CLOP, independent of ASA treatment (Fabbri et al., 2013). Clinical studies showed that patients on antiplatelet drugs before head trauma were at an increased risk to develop intracerebral haemorrhage (ICH) leading to higher neurosurgical intervention rates (Joseph et al., 2014; McCammack et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2012; Peck et al., 2014). Other studies showed that anticoagulant treatments had no impact on mortality (Ahmed et al., 2009), and revealed a protective role of ASA against ICH following TBI (Gangavati et al., 2009). Interestingly, a dual effect of antiplatelet or anticoagulant therapy on TBI was revealed in literature, suggesting neuroprotection despite an increased risk of haemorrhage. Albrecht et al. demonstrated that warfarin therapy resumption post-TBI reduced the stroke risk while increasing that of ICH (Albrecht et al., 2014). Exerting a neuroprotective effect, dalteparin significantly decreased the number of apoptotic neurons following experimental TBI in rats (Hasan et al., 2018). In mice, warfarin pre-treatment increased intracerebral blood volumes post-TBI without significantly worsening the functional outcome (Foerch et al., 2012).

We aimed to test the 'dual role' hypothesis concerning the antiplatelet therapy's effect on TBI in a rat model. For this purpose, we assessed the effect of single or combined treatment of ASA and/or CLOP on TBI-induced haemorrhage and neuronal injury. Platelet aggregation and TXB₂ were measured to assess platelet function. TXB₂ also represents a direct measure of the pharmacological effect of ASA and CLOP (Brun et al., 2016; Good et al., 2015; Kidson-Gerber et al., 2010). Blood-brain barrier (BBB) dysfunction is a secondary outcome of ICH characterized by the presence of blood components in the brain (Nadeau et al., 2019). To evaluate the BBB dysfunction post-TBI, we monitored the unspecific entrance of transferrin - a blood-borne factor-into the brain.

To evaluate neuronal and glial damage, we explored a panel of markers reflecting different pathobiological processes. We assessed the levels of ubiquitin C-terminal hydrolase-L1 (UCH-L1), glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP), hexokinase, and aII-spectrin cleavage products. UCH-L1 is a neuron-specific ubiquitin recycling enzyme (Tongaonkar et al., 2000), and GFAP is an intermediate filament protein expressed almost exclusively in astrocytes (Mondello et al., 2014). Substantially elevated levels of these markers after TBI have been associated with injury severity and outcome (Brophy et al., 2009; Kobeissy et al., 2008; Mondello et al., 2011, 2012; Mrozek et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021) and were also found elevated after stroke (Ren et al., 2016). Serum GFAP is increased in the acute phase post-TBI and is correlated with worse clinical outcomes (Nylen et al., 2006; Shahim et al., 2021). Using a neuroproteomics platform, we previously demonstrated a reduction in hexokinase levels 48 h after TBI using an experimental rat controlled cortical impact (CCI) TBI model (Kobeissy et al., 2006). αII-spectrin is

cleaved by several caspases during the apoptotic process, making its cleavage an indicator of ongoing apoptosis (Elmore, 2007).

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Animals: This study was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the American University of Beirut (Approval # 13-05-257). Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (~70 days old, 250-300 g) were housed at the AUB Animal Care Facility under constant temperature (22 \pm 2 $^{\circ}$ C) and humidity (60 \pm 5%) control. Rats were fed ad libidum with Teklad traditional standard rodent diet (Envigo cat # 7012). They were kept in same-sex groups of three per cage (1354G Eurostandard Type IV cage with floor area of 1820 cm²) to prevent crowding, while facilitating social interaction. To detect physiological or behavioral abnormalities, rats were monitored regularly. Those with the same intervention were housed in the same cage to prevent eliciting a stress response in non-treated animals. To decrease the stressful effects of surgery, rats were habituated earlier to gentle handling by the experimenter. Wood shavings were used as bedding material that was changed regularly. Cages, water bottles and bedding were sterilized by autoclaving.

2.2. Experimental design

Rats received a daily single dose of ASA (20 mg/kg i.p.), CLOP (10 mg/kg p.o.), or the combination of both for two days prior to TBI. They were sacrificed 48-h later as described previously (Abou-Abbass et al., 2016). Since it is not highly soluble in water, ASA (Acetylsalicylic acid, Sigma, USA) was reconstituted in ethanol, and then diluted with saline to a concentration of 10 mg/ml. Animals received 0.5 ml of the ASA preparation by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection at a dose of 20 mg/kg. Clopidogrel tablets (Sanofi Aventis, France) were crushed, dissolved in saline, and 1ml/rat was administered by oral gavage at a dose of 10 mg/kg (Giachini et al., 2014). Drug concentrations were chosen based on previous studies in rats (Ma et al., 2016; Schoemaker et al., 1998; Umemura et al., 1995). Rats were sedated with 5% isoflurane and sacrificed by decapitation for brain protein extraction. For platelet aggregation experiments, fresh rat blood was collected via cardiac puncture directly after euthanization. Control groups (no TBI) consisted of four groups (n = 5 in each group): untreated (saline) or treated rats (ASA, CLOP, or both). For TBI groups (n=5 per group), control sham rats corresponded to untreated rats subjected to surgery without TBI. The experimental TBI groups included a group that received saline and three other groups that received ASA, CLOP, or the combination of both (ASA + CLOP).

2.3. Traumatic Brain Injury model

Controlled cortical impact (CCI) was performed using the Leica Angle Two system (Leica Biosystems Inc., Wetzlar, Germany) to model TBI in rats as described previously (Abou-Abbass et al., 2016). Surgical procedures were performed under anesthesia induced by an intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of a xylazine (100 mg/kg) and ketamine (10 mg/kg). Proper anesthesia was verified by the response lack after toe pinching. All surgical tools were decontaminated by a dry sterilizer (Germinator 500). The stereotaxic frame was cleaned by ethanol, and the head of the rat was secured with ear bars to stabilize the surgical intervention. The eyes were lubricated using a sterile ointment and the head was shaved before making a midline scalp incision. The Angle $\mathsf{Two^{\textsc{tm}}}$ software was used to determine the target's coordinates on the exposed skull according to Bregma and Lambda (-1.8 mm Anteroposterior (AP) and 3.6 mm Right (R) to Bregma ipsilateral). Craniectomy (7 mm diameter) was performed midway between bregma and lambda on the right ipsilateral cortex. TBI was induced by a 2 mm diameter impactor with a velocity of 4 m/s and a depth of 1 mm. The dwell time was 0.8 s, after which the surgical site was sutured. Sham rats were exposed to an identical surgical procedure without the impact injury. We monitored postoperative behavior and body weight during the light phase of the cycle.

2.4. Platelet aggregation

Washed platelets were prepared from fresh blood as described previously (Gallet et al., 1999; Hirz et al., 2012). Briefly, blood samples (9 ml) were collected on acid citrate dextrose, and platelets were washed and resuspended in Hanks buffer, pH 7.4 containing 1 mg/ml of bovine serum albumin (BSA). Aggregation of washed platelets was determined using light transmittance aggregometry (Chrono-Log Corp., Havertown, PA). An increase in light transmission corresponds to an increase in platelet aggregation. Total platelets of 0.4×10^9 platelet/ml were incubated with an optimal concentration of arachidonic acid (AA) (as determined in Supplementary Fig. 1). For the CLOP experiments, platelets were triggered with 15 µM adenosine diphosphate (ADP), a P2Y₁₂ receptor agonist, as previously described (Hirz et al., 2012).

2.5. Enzyme immunoassay

During the sacrifice, rat blood was immediately collected and centrifuged and sera were stored at -80 °C. TXB₂ - the stable metabolite of TXA₂-was measured by enzyme immunoassay (EIA) as previously described (Pradelles et al., 1985) according to the manufacturer's instructions (Cayman Chemicals). Each serum sample was measured twice at two different diltutions. Results are expressed as means of TXB₂ measurements obtained from each rat.

2.6. Western blot

Brains were dissected in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) on ice. The area surrounding the lesion epicenter on the ipsilateral cortex was rapidly collected, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80 °C. Cortical tissue was crushed by mortar and pestle, then homogenized for 1 h in 1X diluted RIPA buffer containing a mix of protease inhibitors. The lysate was centrifuged and the supernatant was collected for protein quantification. Protein extracts from tissue or serum were resolved on a 12% SDS PAGE and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane using the Trans-Blot® SD Semi-Dry® (BioRad) transfer system. Membranes were incubated with antibodies against (UCH-L1) (cat # MCA-Bh7, EnCor Biotechnologies, FL), GFAP (cat # 556320, BD Biosciences), αIIspectrin/fodrin (cat # BML-FG6090, Enzo Life Sciences Lausen, Switzerland), Hexokinase (cat #AB3543, Millipore) or Transferrin (cat #ab82411, Abcam). Positive protein bands were visualized using horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG (Jackson Immuno Research, PA, USA) and ECL (Roche). GAPDH detection was used as an internal quantitative control for brain tissue proteins and its expression levels were used to normalize those of each investigated protein in the densitometry analysis. Protein loading was controlled by Coomassie blue staining of a gel run in parallel with same loading conditions. Positive signals were detected using the Chemidoc imaging system (BioRad). Regarding the serum Western blot data, equal loading was confirmed by staining with rabbit polyclonal anti-beta-actin (Abcam, 1801, 1/10000). The expression levels were used to normalize for each investigated protein in the densitometry analysis. We also ran separate gels with the same loading conditions and confirmed equal loading by Coomassie blue staining.

2.7. Immunofluorescence

For the immunofluorescence experiments, rats were intracardially perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) and brains were extracted and stored at 4 °C in PFA solution. 24 h later, the brains were placed in 30% sucrose in PFA maintained at 4 °C. The brains were sliced by a microtome into 40 μ m-thick sections. The latter were stained and

washed with PBS-tween (PBST) and then blocked with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS) for 1 h at room temperature. Sections were then incubated with rabbit anti-GFAP antibody (1:1000) (Cat. # ab7260, Abcam antibodies) overnight at 4 °C. The following day, sections were washed with PBST, then incubated for 1 h with an Alexa-fluor 532 fluorescent antirabbit secondary antibody (Cat. # A11009, Thermofisher). After washing with PBS, sections were mounted on Superfrost[™] slides. Images were obtained using confocal microscopy.

2.8. Statistical analysis

TXB₂ measurements were expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. (n = 3). Densitometric analyses were performed using Scion Image (Scion Corporation, MD) and data was expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 5). The ratio of the different analyzed bands to GAPDH or beta actin was determined. Data was represented as percentage change compared to the sham group (no treatment and no TBI). Densitometric analysis of transferrin was performed using Image J (NIH) and its data was represented as fold change compared to the sham group (no treatment and no TBI). Statistical analysis was performed using One Way Anova followed by the Dunnet test using Sigma Plot (Systat Software Inc., San Jose, CA). Probability values were 2 sided, with statistical significance set at p-value<0.05.

3. Results

3.1. Aspirin, clopidogrel, or a combination of both inhibit platelet aggregation

To normalize the aggregation experiments, we first assessed the ASA treatment effect on platelet aggregation in animals without TBI. Blood platelets from animals treated with ASA (20 mg/kg) injected intravenously (i.v.) or i.p. were prepared and platelet aggregation was performed in the presence of arachidonic acid (AA) (50 µM). Platelets from these animals (from both *i.v.* or *i.p.* administration) showed complete inhibition of aggregation (0%) compared to control untreated rats (only saline + AA), which exhibited 70% aggregation as depicted in Fig. 1A. Similarly, we tested the effect of clopidogrel (CLOP) treatment on platelet aggregation in animals without TBI. Blood collected from animals treated with CLOP (10 mg/kg) was prepared in the presence or absence of adenosine diphosphate (ADP, $15 \mu M$). The latter is an agonist of platelet activation that was shown to bind P2Y12 receptors. Platelets from rats treated with clopidogrel and activated with ADP showed complete inhibition of aggregation (0%) in comparison to control untreated rats (saline + ADP) (50%) (Fig. 1B). Moreover, platelet aggregation was not observed in platelets purified from control rats, neither treated with CLOP, nor activated by ADP (baseline). We finally evaluated the effect of co-administration of ASA + CLOP on platelet aggregation in animals without TBI. Washed platelets were obtained from treated rats and incubated with 50 μM AA and 15 μM ADP. Platelet aggregation was absent in the ASA + CLOP rats group (0%) and significantly higher (~80%) in untreated rats (saline) triggered by both ADP and AA (Fig. 1C).

3.2. Aspirin, clopidogrel, or the combination of both inhibit platelet aggregation and decrease serum TXB₂ levels post-TBI

Fig. 2A presents the experimental timeline used to carry out the in vivo experiments. To evaluate aspirin/clopidogrel effects on platelet aggregation following TBI, platelets were isolated from control rats (CTRL, without TBI) and four TBI groups: saline, ASA, CLOP, and combined treatment with aspirin and CLOP. Platelet aggregation was inhibited (0%) in rats treated with ASA alone or with ASA + CLOP prior to TBI (Fig. 2B). Clopidogrel treatment alone also resulted in the inhibition of platelet aggregation (0%) (data not shown). The TBI- rats (saline) showed around 30% platelet aggregation. We then measured



Fig. 1. Effect of aspirin, clopidogrel, or the combination of both on washed platelet aggregation curves. Aggregation curves represented as percent of light transmission with the progression of time (in min) for washed platelets (0.4×109 platelets/m). **A**) Effect of ASA administered (*i.v.*) or (*i.p.*) on arachidonic acid-dependent aggregation of washed platelets. Curves represent saline-treated (*i.p.*) positive control rats (with AA), ASA-treated rats (*i.v.*) for 48 h (with AA), and saline-treated (*i.p.*) negative control rats (without AA)(Baseline). **B**) Effect of clopidogrel (CLOP) on ADP-dependent platelet aggregation. Curves represent washed platelets of the following conditions: saline-treated (*i.p.*) positive control rats (with ADP), and saline-treated (*i.p.*) negative control rats (without ADP) (baseline). **C**) ASA + CLOP treatment. Curves represent washed platelets of the following conditions: saline-treated (*i.p.*) positive control rats (with AA), saline-treated (*i.p.*) positive control rats (with AA).

serum TXB ₂ levels in sera collected from rats in the different treatment groups. Fig. 2C shows that rats treated with ASA, CLOP, or both had significantly decreased levels of TXB₂ post-TBI, compared to the control untreated group (saline with TBI). The latter had the highest TXB2 concentration among all TBI groups (serum TXB2 > 200 ng/ml). Fig. 2D shows higher transferrin expression levels in the brain tissue of rats treated with aspirin or CLOP, compared to TBI rats treated with saline. Surprisingly, transferrin levels in the ASA + CLOP treatment group were similar to those of the non-injured group.

3.3. Aspirin alone and when combined with clopidogrel result in a favourable effect on post-TBI α II-spectrin cleavage

We analyzed proteins by immunoblotting to assess the impact of ASA and/or CLOP on the expression levels of serum TBI biomarkers (Fig. 3). The control untreated rat group (saline with TBI) had a significant increase in the serum levels of UCH-L1 (Fig. 3A), and a significant decrease in Hexokinase levels in comparison to control rats without TBI (Fig. 3B). GFAP levels were significantly elevated in the TBI untreated group compared to the sham control (Fig. 3C). In the ASA group, the UCHL-1 and GFAP expression levels post-TBI were similar to those of non-injured animals. Similarly, CLOP administration restored UCHL-1 and hexokinase levels to those observed in rats without TBI. Although CLOP did not restore GFAP to pre-injury levels, it still resulted in lower levels compared to the untreated TBI rats. Similarly, both UCHL-1 and GFAP levels in the ASA + CLOP treatment group were lower than those in the TBI untreated group. We also assessed the expression of GFAP in astrocytes at the perilesional area by immunofluorescence. Fig. 3D shows that the astrocytes in all treatment groups with TBI form more extensive networks compared to the TBI untreated group.

3.4. The single aspirin and ASA + CLOP treatment have a favourable effect on post-TBI α II-spectrin cleavage

To determine the ASA/CLOP implication in post-injury apoptosis, we performed Western blot analysis on brain protein extracts. α II-spectrin/Fodrin is a cytoskeleton protein that is essential in maintaining the structural stability of cellular membranes. During apoptosis, this protein is cleaved by caspases into smaller fragments. A 145 kDa α II-spectrin/Fodrin cleavage product —an indicator of apoptosis — was detected in all rats with TBI. The highest expression was detected in the TBI CLOP group (Fig. 4). A second cleavage product of 150 kDa was detected in all groups. ASA alone, as well as the ASA + CLOP treatment, resulted in lower cleavage of α II-spectrin/Fodrin compared to untreated rats.

4. Discussion

Worldwide, TBI represents a major public health issue that is increasingly recognized as a global health priority (Collaborators, 2019). No pharmacological treatment has demonstrated clinical effectiveness following TBI, and medications are usually directed at treating post-TBI cognitive-behavioral symptoms (Plantier et al., 2016). Thus, it is relevant to identify risk factors for a poor TBI prognosis. Previous studies showed that mortality rates increased in TBI patients maintained



Fig. 2. Effect of aspirin, clopidogrel, or the combination of both on platelet aggregation, following TBI.

A) Animal experimental workflow used in the study. **B**) Platelet aggregation represented as percent of light transmitted with the progression of time (in min) for washed platelets collected from the following animal conditions: saline-treated (*i.p.*) negative control rats without TBI (with AA and ADP), saline-treated (*i.p.*) TBI positive control rats (with AA and ADP), ASA treated (*i.p.*) TBI rats for 48h (with AA and ADP), AS + ACLOP treated (*i.p./p.o.*) TBI rats for 48h (with AA and ADP). C) Quantification analysis of TXB₂ from collected serum. Values represent the average TXB₂ concentration detected in the EIA experiments (n = 3) and are reported as mean \pm S.E.M. * = p < 0.05. **D**) Western blot analysis for transferrin expression levels with its corresponding quantification. GAPDH was used to ensure equal loading of proteins. Values represent the average fold change expression, normalized to GAPDH (which was used as a loading control), and relative to control. Results are representatives of three independent experiments (n = 3) performed for each treatment condition and reported as mean \pm S.E.M.

on antiplatelet medications (Gangavati et al., 2009; Mondello et al., 2014; Tongaonkar et al., 2000), while others contradicted these findings (Ahmed et al., 2009; Fakhry et al., 2021). We aimed to determine the effect of ASA and/or CLOP administration on TBI severity in a rat model of TBI. We also aimed to elucidate the underlying molecular mechanistic pathways. For this purpose, we assessed changes in the serum protein expression levels of major TBI markers as well as platelet aggregation as illustrated in Fig. S2.

ASA or CLOP administration alone or in combination prior to TBI resulted in complete inhibition of aggregation when used with ADP or AA as an aggregation agonist. We further supported our observation by assessing serum TXB₂, a platelet activation marker. TXB₂ levels were reduced in the aspirin, CLOP, or combined ASA + CLOP treated rats with TBI. This disturbance in normal platelet activity induced by antiplatelet therapy may worsen the TBI-induced haemorrhage through a mechanism in which thromboxane is involved. Moreover, evidence of a worse BBB disruption was provided by the increased detection of transferrin in the brain tissue of rats treated with either ASA or CLOP. Moreover, the morphological changes observed in astrocytes after antiplatelet therapy are interesting. Astrocytes are key players in the maintenance of the BBB phenotype and function (Lecuyer et al., 2016). They induce brain endothelial cells through several astrocytic factors and pro-inflammatory mediators (Sobue et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2000) which explains the more extensive astrocytes networks observed as a response to BBB damage (Fig. 3D). The above results confirm the first assumption of the dual role hypothesis indicating that antiplatelet

therapy has a negative ICH outcome in TBI. They are in line with other studies on patient cohorts that demonstrate an increased risk to develop ICH in patients on antithrombotic therapy prior to a head injury (Joseph et al., 2014; McCammack et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2012; Peck et al., 2014). It is interesting to conduct clinical investigations of platelet aggregation alteration in TBI patients treated with anti-platelets drugs. Future studies should also measure and compare platelet activation markers levels in sera from TBI patients on different types and doses of antiplatelet treatments.

This work offers promising explanations on the underlying mechanisms following TBI and may offer better insights into the actual role of ASA and CLOP in this specific context. ASA or clopidogrel administered alone restored UCH-L1 and Hexokinase serum expression levels post TBI to those similar to non-injured levels. The combination of both drugs resulted in lower UCHL-1 expression compared to the untreated TBI group. These results demonstrate the neuroprotective role of antiplatelet therapy in the context of TBI which represents the second assumption of the dual role hypothesis. In all treatment conditions prior to TBI, GFAP levels were lower than those of the untreated TBI group, with aspirin even restoring GFAP to non-injured levels. These findings indicate that the aspirin and CLOP use in single or combination may be protective to glial cells as well. We showed that aspirin and CLOP were more protective when administered individually rather than together. We confirmed that all-spectrin cleavage — an early marker of apoptosis was increased after TBI in all groups compared to the non-injured control. It is unclear how aspirin or CLOP exert an effect on all-spectrin

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Fig. 3. Aspirin and clopidogrel modulate UCHL1, GFAP and Hexokinase serum protein levels after TBI.

A) Western blot analysis for UCHL1 expression levels with its corresponding quantification. **B**) Analysis for Hexokinase; **C**) GFAP expression. Immunoblottings are representative of five independent experiments performed for each treatment condition and with similar results. The same membrane was blotted for UCHL1 and hexokinase after stripping. The beta actin bands in panels a and b are identical for illustration purposes. The GFAP membrane was blotted separately. Quantification of Western blots is reported as mean \pm S.E.M. *, *** indicate p < 0.05, p < 0.01, p < 0.001; respectively. Values represent the average fold change expression, normalized to beta actin, and relative to control. **D**) Representative immunofluorescence images of GFAP for the different conditions. The green square on the atlas image represents the area imaged to obtain the represented immunofluorescence images. The white arrows refer to the astrocytes networks forming following TBI. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

cleavage. Investigating the involved pathways can explain why clopidogrel treatment was the most potent in inducing α II-spectrin cleavage. In addition, it is interesting to investigate the impact of each drug on other apoptosis markers.

The dual role hypothesis is not an uncommon concept in its essence. Beynon et al. questioned the antiplatelet therapy position as a doubleedged sword in head injury. They even suggested that the antiplatelet therapy's neuroprotective effects may be outweighed by the increased bleeding tendency in acute post-TBI haemorrhage (Beynon and Sakowitz, 2013). But it is worth considering the compensation of the ICH risk through platelet transfusion in TBI patients on antiplatelet therapy. Based on a systematic review pertaining to the matter, Thorn et al. concluded the need for randomized controlled trials investigating the effect of platelet transfusion in these patients (Thorn et al., 2019). Intensive-care unit (ICU) patients with TBI are at high risk of developing deep vein thrombosis (DVT) (Praeger et al., 2012) with venous thromboembolism (VTE) occurring in one out of every five patients with TBI treated in the ICU (Skrifvars et al., 2017). Anti-coagulant pharmacological prophylaxis may be effective against these post-TBI complications. Moreover, the benefits of antithrombotic agents in stroke or myocardial infarction prevention should be considered in relation to the risk of haemorrhage in those at increased risk for TBI.

This is the first study to examine the dual impact on altered bleeding and neuronal damage after TBI, with the administration of ASA/CLOP alone or together in a rat model. A strong point of our study is that we did not limit our assessment to a single post-TBI outcome. Alternately, we analyzed biomarkers of different systemic processes like apoptosis, inflammation, and bleeding. Assessing total protein offers distinct advantages over housekeeping genes as it is unbiased with respect to changes in the expression of a single (or multiple) housekeeping protein such as GAPDH (Bass et al., 2017). Moreover, our injury and animal models were suitable to address the study's goals. The histopathological and functional changes induced by the CCI in rats are consistent with what occurs in clinical TBI cases (Osier and Dixon, 2016), making it easier to translate our results clinically. The CCI model provided us with quantitative control over important key TBI parameters, which guaranteed that each rat was subject to the same TBI scale. The inclusion of sham controls allowed establishing control over confounding variables such as the effect of anesthesia or craniectomy on biochemical markers.

This study includes some limitations with the lack of functional outcomes and behavioral tests being the major one. The absence of brain imaging/histological outcomes of the TBI epicenter represents a limitation in this study for clinical translation. A histopathological analysis of the injury area in the brain in the context of each treatment will be considered for future studies. The TBI induced in all of our rats was moderate. It is interesting as well to determine the effect of antiplatelet therapy on severe TBI by modifying the impact's velocity and depth in our CCI model. Moreover, the analysis can be expanded to include a wide variety of apoptosis and inflammation markers. The dose diversity can be increased to allow the comparison of treatments with the same



Fig. 4. Aspirin and clopidogrel modulate all-spectrin/Fodrin protein levels after TBI.

A) Western blot for α II-spectrin/Fodrin. Positions of α II-spectrin/Fodrin and its cleavage products are indicated. GAPDH was used to ensure equal loading of proteins. B) Quantification analysis of the 145 and 150 kDa cleaved α II-spectrin/FodrinWestern blots. Values represent the average fold change expression, normalized to GAPDH (which was used as a loading control), and relative to control, and for 5 rats. Data are reported as mean \pm S.E.M. ** indicate p < 0.01.

drug. Ultimately, it is interesting to assess the impact of anticoagulant drugs or their combination with antiplatelet agents on TBI.

In conclusion, we showed that combined treatment of ASA and CLOP was further detrimental in terms of ICH in an experimental TBI rat model. A higher risk was revealed when both drugs were simultaneously administered. Our results offer new insights into the management of TBI patients. Understanding the relationship between ASA/CLOP and their potential additive or synergistic role in exacerbating the bleeding event would have an impact on the prescription of these drugs. This includes the antiplatelet drug type, its dose, and the administration with other antiplatelets. In light of our results, there should be more caution when prescribing antiplatelet therapy in combination. Especially that the neuroprotective role of antiplatelets in the TBI-context is more evident with the single rather than combination treatment. Thus, the management of TBI patients should be adapted to the type and potency of the anti-platelet regime received by the patient prior to the insult.

Ethics approval and consent to participate

This study involves animals and was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the American University of Beirut (approval # 13-05-257). All experiments were conducted in compliance with current Good Clinical Practice standards and in accordance with relevant guidelines and regulations and the principles set forth under the Declaration of Helsinki (1989). There is no human participation and thus consent to participate is not applicable.

Consent for publication

All authors read and approved the manuscript.

Availability of data and material

The data used and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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Author contributions

FK, AH, HD and EH conceptualize the study. EH, LN, ZD, FD, MN, GEA, NR, ZM and KM performed experiments. FK, KM, SM, WM, and AH prepared Figures. AH, EH, and FK designed the study. AH, EH, FD, WM, KZ, KM, and FK analyzed data and wrote the manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuint.2022.105301.

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