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**Research Articles: Systems/Circuits**

**Priming of adult incision response by early life injury: neonatal microglial inhibition has persistent but sexually dimorphic effects in adult rats**

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1 **Title**

2 Priming of adult incision response by early life injury: neonatal microglial inhibition has  
3 persistent but sexually dimorphic effects in adult rats

4 **Abbreviated title**

5 Neonatal microglia inhibitor and adult re-incision

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34 **Declaration of Interests**

35 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

36 **Author contributions**

37 Study design/planning by O.M., S.B., M.W.S, and S.M.W. Study conduct and research  
38 performed by O.M., Y-S T., A.S., S.B, S.M.W. Data analysis by O.M., Y-S T., A.S., S.B., S.M.W.  
39 Writing and revising paper by O.M., S.B., M.W.S, S.M.W.

40 **Abstract**

41 Neonatal hindpaw incision primes developing spinal nociceptive circuitry, resulting in  
42 enhanced hyperalgesia following re-injury in adulthood. Spinal microglia contribute to this  
43 persistent effect and microglial inhibition at the time of adult re-incision blocks the  
44 enhanced hyperalgesia. Here, we pharmacologically inhibited microglial function with  
45 systemic minocycline or intrathecal SB203580 at the time of neonatal incision and evaluated  
46 sex-dependent differences following adult re-incision. Incision in adult male and female rats  
47 induced equivalent hyperalgesia and spinal dorsal horn expression of genes associated with  
48 microglial proliferation (*Emr1*) and transformation to a reactive phenotype (*Irf8*). In control  
49 adults with prior neonatal incision, the enhanced degree and duration of incision-induced  
50 hyperalgesia and spinal microglial responses to re-incision were equivalent in males and  
51 females. However, microglial inhibition at the time of the neonatal incision revealed sex-  
52 dependent effects: the persistent mechanical and thermal hyperalgesia following re-incision  
53 in adulthood was prevented in males but unaffected in females. Similarly, re-incision  
54 induced *Emr1* and *Irf8* gene expression was downregulated in males, but not in females  
55 following neonatal incision with minocycline. To evaluate the distribution of re-incision  
56 hyperalgesia, prior neonatal incision was performed at different body sites. Hyperalgesia  
57 was maximal when the same paw was re-incised, and was increased following prior incision  
58 at ipsilateral, but not contralateral sites; supporting a segmentally restricted spinal  
59 mechanism. These data highlight the contribution of spinal microglial mechanisms to  
60 persistent effects of early-life injury in males, and sex-dependent differences in the ability of  
61 microglial inhibition to prevent the transition to a persistent pain state spans developmental  
62 stages.

63 *Impact statement:* Following the same surgery, some patients develop persistent pain.  
64 Contributory mechanisms are not fully understood, but early-life experience and sex/gender  
65 may influence the transition to chronic pain. Surgery and painful procedural interventions in  
66 vulnerable preterm neonates are associated with long-term alterations in somatosensory  
67 function and pain that differ in males and females. Surgical injury in neonatal rodents  
68 primes the developing nociceptive system and enhances re-injury response in adulthood.  
69 Neuroimmune interactions are critical mediators of persistent pain, but sex-dependent  
70 differences in spinal neuroglial signaling influence the efficacy of microglial inhibitors  
71 following adult injury. Neonatal microglial inhibition has beneficial long-term effects on re-  
72 injury response in adult males only, emphasizing the importance of evaluating sex-  
73 dependent differences at all ages in pre-clinical studies.

74 **Introduction**

75 Early-life stress, adversity and pain can influence neurodevelopmental and health outcomes  
76 throughout the lifespan (Nemeroff, 2016; Burke et al., 2017). The need to understand how  
77 early-life experience influences chronic pain in later life has been highlighted (Price et al.,  
78 2018). In preterm-born neonates, surgery and repeated painful procedures during intensive  
79 care are associated with worse neurodevelopmental outcome (Ranger and Grunau, 2014;  
80 Hunt et al., 2018), altered brain structure (Duerden et al., 2018), and differences in  
81 somatosensory function and pain experience during childhood (Hermann et al., 2006;  
82 Walker et al., 2009b) that persist, but with sex differences emerging in young adults (Walker  
83 et al., 2018). While analgesia improves acute outcome, the long-term benefit of neonatal  
84 analgesic interventions is debated (Walker, 2017; Schiller et al., 2018). Evaluating  
85 mechanisms triggered by early-life tissue injury is essential to identify preventive strategies  
86 that minimise long-term alterations in pain response.

87       Microglia are critical mediators of normal development, sculpting neuronal circuitry  
88 in the developing central nervous system, and being implicated in diverse functions  
89 including neurogenesis, synaptic pruning and synaptic plasticity (Kettenmann et al., 2013;  
90 Salter and Stevens, 2017). Early-life stress and tissue injury can disrupt microglial sex-  
91 dependent maturation or trigger long-term changes in microglial phenotype, altering  
92 reactivity to future immune or environmental challenges and influencing responses to  
93 physical and psychological stressors and susceptibility to neurological disorders (Perry and  
94 Holmes, 2014; Burke et al., 2016; Hanamsagar and Bilbo, 2017). While brain injury  
95 secondary to hypoxia/ischemia, hyperoxia, or trauma in neonatal rodents evokes a  
96 neuroinflammatory response and increased microglial reactivity, the pathophysiological role  
97 of microglia can vary with type of injury, time, and brain region (Hagberg et al., 2015; Salter

98 and Stevens, 2017). Microglial inhibition with minocycline has also been variably reported to  
99 have no benefit (Cikla et al., 2016), paradoxically increase acute cell death (Strahan et al.,  
100 2017) and worsen long-term function (Hanlon et al., 2017), or improve outcome (Wixey et  
101 al., 2011; Schmitz et al., 2014), depending on the assessment method, type and age of brain  
102 injury.

103         Plantar hindpaw incision during the first postnatal week in the rat produces activity-  
104 dependent alterations in adult sensory threshold and increased hyperalgesia when the paw  
105 is re-incised (Walker et al., 2009a; Moriarty et al., 2018). As this enhanced re-incision  
106 hyperalgesia is reduced by microglial inhibitors (intrathecal minocycline or p38 inhibitor) in  
107 adult males (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015), we hypothesized that spinal  
108 microglia are involved in priming spinal nociceptive signaling and amplifying the subsequent  
109 injury response. Neuroimmune signaling is sexually-dimorphic (Gutierrez et al., 2013; Nelson  
110 et al., 2018), and microglial inhibitors in male, but not female, adult rodents reduce pain  
111 behaviors following peripheral nerve injury, hindpaw inflammation (Sorge et al., 2011; Sorge  
112 et al., 2015; Taves et al., 2016; Mapplebeck et al., 2018), and hyperalgesic priming (Paige et  
113 al., 2018). As the efficacy of mechanism-based interventions may differ in males and  
114 females, and sex-dependent differences in experimental pain sensitivity and chronic pain  
115 prevalence are well-documented in clinical populations (Mogil, 2012; Fillingim, 2017),  
116 considering sex as a biological variable (Shansky and Woolley, 2016) is particularly relevant  
117 for pre-clinical pain studies (Rosen et al., 2017). In addition, evaluation following neonatal  
118 tissue injury is required to identify developmentally-regulated and persistent effects of  
119 early-life pain.

120         To further investigate the contribution of spinal microglia to persistent and  
121 potentially sex-dependent differences in pain response following early-life injury, we now

122 adopted a preventive strategy. Microglial inhibitors (systemic minocycline or intrathecal p38  
123 inhibitor SB203580) were administered concurrently with neonatal plantar hindpaw  
124 incision, and our primary outcome was the impact on re-incision hyperalgesia in adult male  
125 and female rats. To assess incision-induced spinal microglial response, expression of genes  
126 related to microglial reactivity and proliferation were assessed in adult males and females.  
127 Finally, to determine if re-incision hyperalgesia is restricted to the prior incision site or has a  
128 segmental distribution, neonatal incision was performed at different body sites, and  
129 hyperalgesia was compared following left hindpaw incision in adulthood.

130

### 131 **Materials and Methods**

132 *Animals.* All procedures were performed under personal and project licenses approved by  
133 the UK Home Office in accordance with the Animal (Scientific Procedures) Act, 1986 or with  
134 the approval of the Animal Care Committee of the Hospital for Sick Children, Toronto and in  
135 accordance with the Canadian Council on Animal Care. Reporting of results follows the  
136 ARRIVE Guidelines (Kilkenny et al., 2010). Behavioral and electrophysiology experiments  
137 were performed in the UK with Sprague-Dawley (RRID: MGI:5651135) adult rats and litters  
138 of rat pups obtained from the same colony, bred and maintained in-house by the Biological  
139 Services Unit, University College London. Handling of rat pups and duration of maternal  
140 separation was kept to a minimum with body temperature maintained on a heating blanket.  
141 Spinal cord gene expression studies were performed in Toronto, with additional Sprague-  
142 Dawley rats obtained from Charles River Laboratories (Boucherville, QC, Canada). All  
143 animals were regularly monitored and maintained under standard environmental conditions  
144 with food and water available *ad libitum*. All procedures were carried out during the light  
145 phase (12 h light/dark cycle, lights on 08:00-20:00 h). Individual litters were reduced to a



146 maximum of 12 pups and weaned into same-sex cages at postnatal day (P) 21. Experimental  
147 groups comprised male and female rats distributed across multiple litters and/or adult cage  
148 groups (4-5/cage). Each rat was considered an experimental unit except in the case of PCR  
149 tissue analysis where two animals were pooled per unit. Rats were randomly selected from  
150 the litter or cage, numbered, and then allocated to treatment groups according to a  
151 computer-generated randomization code. Animals and tissue samples were coded by an  
152 independent colleague to ensure the experimenter was unaware of treatment allocation  
153 during behavioral testing or tissue analysis.

154 *Surgical Procedures.* All procedures were performed under isoflurane (Isoflo®,  
155 Abbott, UK) anesthesia (2-4% in 1L/min oxygen). Plantar hindpaw incision was chosen as a  
156 clinically relevant and established model of surgical injury in infant and adult rodents,  
157 (Brennan et al., 1996) with incision of skin and muscle producing acute hyperalgesia and  
158 increased spinal excitability at all ages (Ririe et al., 2003; Ririe et al., 2008), and activity-  
159 dependent long-term alterations in spinal reflex sensitivity, synaptic signaling and response  
160 to re-injury (Walker et al., 2009a; Li et al., 2015; Li and Baccei, 2016). Skin incisions in  
161 neonatal (P3) and adult (6-8 weeks age) rats were matched to the relative length of the  
162 hindpaw from the midpoint of the heel to the first skin pad as previously described (Beggs  
163 et al., 2012), with elevation and longitudinal incision of underlying plantaris muscle using a  
164 number 11 blade scalpel. Neonatal non-incision minocycline or saline controls had injections  
165 performed with the same depth and duration of anesthesia as incision groups, and the same  
166 degree of handling and duration of maternal separation. We have previously shown that the  
167 response to adult incision does not differ between littermates with prior neonatal handling  
168 and anesthesia and naïve age-matched adults (Beggs et al., 2012).

169 Neonatal incisions were also performed at different sites: ipsilateral (left) hindpaw;  
170 contralateral (right) hindpaw; and the left and right forepaw. Forepaw and hindpaw sizes  
171 are more comparable in pups than adult rats, and we have previously shown incision at  
172 either site produces the same degree of acute hyperalgesia (Walker et al., 2015). As  
173 microglial reactivity in the lateral dorsal horn was increased following thigh incision for  
174 exposure of the sciatic nerve in adult rats with prior neonatal incision (Beggs et al., 2012),  
175 we also performed neonatal incisions on the left anterior thigh based on the skin-muscle  
176 incision and retraction model (Flatters, 2008), but without retraction to minimize tissue  
177 damage in neonatal animals.

178 All adult incisions were performed on the plantar surface of the left hindpaw.  
179 Incisions were closed in rat pups with a single loop of 5-0 silk suture (Mersilk #W595,  
180 Ethicon, UK) to produce small stable knots in pups, and with two mattress 5-0 silk sutures in  
181 adult animals to standardize the material at both ages. Animals were monitored daily to  
182 ensure skin closure remained intact and residual sutures were removed at 5 days. Pups  
183 were maintained on a warming blanket and returned to the dam following recovery from  
184 anesthesia or between evaluations.

185 *Drug Administration.* All injections of drug or control solutions were performed  
186 under brief isoflurane (Isoflo®, Abbott, UK) anesthesia (2-4% in 1L/min oxygen). Minocycline  
187 hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich, UK Cat# M9511,) was diluted to 4mg/ml in sterile saline and  
188 administered by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection. P3 rats received 45mg/kg minocycline 30  
189 min prior to incision, and 22.5mg/kg on day 1 (P4) and 2 (P5) post incision, as neonatal rats  
190 have previously been shown to tolerate this dose regime (Buller et al., 2009; Wixey et al.,  
191 2011). Control animals received an equivalent volume of saline.

192           The p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) inhibitor 4-(4-fluorophenyl)-2-(4-  
193 methylsulfonylphenyl)-5-(4-pyridyl)-1H-imidazole (SB203580; EMD Millipore Corporation,  
194 Temecula, CA Cat# 19-135) was solubilized in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma-Aldrich  
195 D2650 Hybri-Max<sup>®</sup> sterile-filtered, PubChem ID 24893703) and then diluted to a final  
196 concentration of 0.8mg/ml in 8% DMSO. We have previously shown that intrathecal  
197 SB203850 1mg/kg reduces mechanical hyperalgesia and spinal microglial expression of  
198 phosphorylated-p38 following hindpaw incision in adult rats (Schwaller et al., 2015). Here,  
199 percutaneous low lumbar injections were performed by the same investigator (SMW) as  
200 previously described (Walker et al., 2010), with divided doses to match the timing of  
201 minocycline experiments: 0.4mg/kg SB203850 (injectate volume 0.5mcl/g) 30 minutes prior  
202 to P3 incision, and 0.3mg/kg SB203850 on day 1 and 2 post incision. As the developing  
203 spinal cord is susceptible to high local concentrations of some drugs and diluents (Walker  
204 and Yaksh, 2012), vehicle control animals received an equivalent volume of 8% DMSO.

205           *Behavioral testing.* In rat pups, hand held calibrated von Frey filaments (0.13g to  
206 7.8g) were sequentially applied five times at one-second intervals and the number of  
207 evoked flexion reflexes recorded. The maximum force applied was that which evoked five  
208 withdrawal responses. A sigmoidal stimulus-response curve was generated for each animal  
209 with the midpoint (50% effective force,  $EF_{50}$ ) calculated as the threshold (Walker et al.,  
210 2009a).

211           Adult rats were habituated on an elevated mesh platform for one hour prior to  
212 testing. An electronic von Frey device (Dynamic Plantar Aesthesiometer, Cat# 37450, Ugo  
213 Basile, Italy) applied increasing pressure to the plantar hindpaw (20g/s to a maximum of  
214 50g), and mechanical withdrawal threshold was calculated as the mean of three measures  
215 of the force producing brisk hindlimb withdrawal. For thermal latency, animals were

216 habituated to the heated glass surface of a modified Hargreaves apparatus (University  
217 Anesthesia Research and Development Group, University of California San Diego, La Jolla,  
218 CA), and the time for withdrawal from a heat stimulus directed at the mid-plantar paw was  
219 recorded (maximum 20 s). The mean of three measures was designated as thermal  
220 withdrawal latency.

221 For evaluation of spontaneous locomotor activity, animals were habituated to an  
222 open field consisting of a 90cm square dark grey plastic arena (40 cm high) for 20 min on the  
223 day prior to adult incision and testing was carried out 48h later (24h post incision). A video  
224 camera placed above the open field tracked movement over a 3-min period for subsequent  
225 analysis with Ethovision® behavioral tracking software (Version XT 11, Noldus, Wageningen,  
226 Netherlands, RRID: SCR\_004074).

227 *Electromyography (EMG) recording.* Flexor reflex EMG recordings were performed  
228 24 hours after incision in neonatal and adult rats (Walker et al., 2009a). Briefly, animals  
229 were anesthetized (2-4% isoflurane in 1L/min oxygen), and the trachea cannulated for  
230 mechanical ventilation (Small Animal Ventilator, Harvard Apparatus Ltd., Cambridge, UK).  
231 The inspired isoflurane concentration was reduced to 1.75% in P4 pups and 1.25% in adult  
232 rats for 20 min to allow equilibration and was maintained at this level to provide stable  
233 anesthesia during EMG recordings. The left hindpaw was secured with an adhesive pad on a  
234 fixed platform and a bipolar EMG electrode comprising a stainless steel 30-gauge needle  
235 with a central copper wire core was placed through a small skin incision into the biceps  
236 femoris muscle. Von Frey hairs were applied to the plantar surface of the hindpaw for 1 s,  
237 and the EMG response to the mechanical stimulus was processed (Neurolog, Digitimer,  
238 Welwyn Garden City, UK) and recorded in 12-s epochs (PowerLab 4S, AD Instruments, Bella  
239 Vista, Australia, RRID: SCR\_001620). To evaluate responses to both threshold and

240 suprathereshold stimuli, Von Frey hairs were sequentially applied up to a maximum 60 g  
241 bending force (von Frey hair number 17) at P4, and 180 g (von Frey hair number 20) in  
242 adults, with a minimum of 60 s between stimuli. The duration of the EMG response was  
243 outlined from the display of the raw data and the integral of the root mean square (RMS) of  
244 the signal was calculated (EMG response)(Chart, Powerlab AD Instruments, Bella Vista,  
245 Australia). The EMG response was plotted against the von Frey hair number (mechanical  
246 stimulus) and the area under the stimulus-response curve (AUC) calculated to quantify the  
247 overall “reflex response” (Walker et al., 2009a).

248 *Tissue Preparation and Analysis.* Rats were terminally anesthetized with  
249 pentobarbital (i.p. 100mg/kg, Euthatal, Merial Animal Health Ltd., UK) and transcardially  
250 perfused with heparinized saline followed by 4% paraformaldehyde (Fisher Scientific,  
251 Loughborough, UK Cat# 10131580). Spinal cords were exposed, and the L4 to L5 spinal  
252 segment dissected. Tissue was post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, then cryoprotected in  
253 sucrose (30% sucrose, 0.02% sodium azide in 0.1M phosphate buffer).

254 Neonatal L4/L5 spinal 20 micron free floating sections were mounted on SuperFrost®  
255 slides (Fisher Scientific Loughborough, UK Cat# 10149870). P4 cords (24h post intervention)  
256 were assessed for cell death with Fluoro-Jade C (FJ-C) staining, and P6 cords (3 d post  
257 intervention) for microglial cell counts with ionized calcium binding adaptor molecule (Iba1)  
258 immunohistochemistry.

259 For Iba1 immunohistochemistry, sections were washed initially and between  
260 subsequent steps with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 0.1% Triton X-100,  
261 blocked for 1h at room temperature (5% chicken serum in PBS), and then incubated for 24h  
262 with primary goat anti-Iba1 antibody (1:400, AbCam, UK, Cat# ab5076, RRID: AB\_2224402)  
263 followed by AlexaFluor® 594-conjugated chicken anti-goat IgG (1:200, Invitrogen, USA, Cat#

264 A-21468, RRID: AB\_2535871) for 24h at room temperature. Sections were coverslipped with  
265 Prolong Gold fluorescent mounting media (Molecular Probes, USA, Cat# P36930, RRID:  
266 SCR\_015961). Negative controls omitting the primary antibody resulted in a complete  
267 absence of positive staining.

268 For Fluoro-Jade C staining, slides were stained in the following sequence: washed in  
269 0.1M PB, immersed in 1% sodium hydroxide in 80% ethanol, rinsed with 70% ethanol then  
270 distilled water, incubated in 0.06% potassium permanganate for 10 min, stained with  
271 0.0002% Fluoro-Jade<sup>®</sup> C (Millipore, USA, Cat# AG325-30MG) and 0.0001% 4, 6-diamidino-2-  
272 phenylindole (DAPI, Molecular Probes, USA, Cat# D1306, RRID: 2629482) prepared in 0.1%  
273 acetic acid, and then cleared and coverslipped.

274 Sections were visualized at 10X magnification for fluorescence (Leica DMR,  
275 Germany) under FITC or TRITC filters, and images obtained using a Hamamatsu (ORCA-100  
276 C4742-95) digital camera. Iba1-positive cells within a standard size region of interest over  
277 the medial dorsal horn were counted (Image J software <https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/>, RRID:  
278 SCR\_003073, cell-counter plugin). Fluoro-Jade C-positive cells were counted in each  
279 quadrant (dorsal: ipsilateral and contralateral; ventral: ipsilateral and contralateral). All  
280 counts were averaged for a minimum of 6 sections (Iba1), or summed for 6 sections (FJ-C),  
281 per rat and 'n' represents the number of rats per group.

282 Three days following adult incision, animals for qPCR experiments were  
283 transcardially perfused with approximately 30ml of RNAlater<sup>®</sup> (Ambion<sup>®</sup>, Life Technologies,  
284 UK Cat# AM7021), and a cylindrical biopsy tissue punch (2.0 mm internal diameter, Harvard  
285 Apparatus, UK Cat# 72-5041) was used to isolate tissue from the ipsilateral L5 medial dorsal  
286 horn and stored in RNAlater<sup>®</sup> until processing.

287 For Quantitative Real Time Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR), tissue from two  
288 animals was pooled for each experimental unit, and total RNA was extracted using a  
289 PureLink® RNA mini kit (Ambion®, Life Technologies, Canada, Cat# 12183018A). The  
290 quantity, purity and quality of RNA were assessed with an ND-2000 Nanodrop  
291 spectrophotometer. Samples were equalized to a concentration of 250ng/20µl by addition  
292 of RNAase free water, and RNA extracts were reverse transcribed to cDNA using the  
293 SuperScript VILO cDNA kit (Life Technologies, Canada Cat# 11754050). Gene expression of  
294 target proteins was determined using commercially available Taqman® gene expression  
295 assays (Applied Biosystems, Canada, Cat# 4331182) containing specific forward and reverse  
296 target primers and FAM-labelled MGB probes. Assay IDs for the genes investigated were:  
297 *Emr1*, Rn01527631\_m1; *Irf8*, Rn01762214\_m1. qPCR reactions were run with 12.5ng of  
298 cDNA and Taqman® Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Canada, Cat# 4324018) on a StepOne®  
299 Plus real-time PCR machine (Life Technologies, Canada, Cat# 4376600, RRID: SCR\_015805)  
300 using the following parameters: one cycle of 95°C for 20 s, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for  
301 1 s and 60°C for 20 s. Reactions were performed in triplicate, and non-template controls  
302 were included in each run. Amplification plots and copy threshold (Ct) values were  
303 examined using StepOne® software (Version 2.3, Life Technologies, Canada, RRID:  
304 SCR\_014281). Expression was normalized to the average of three housekeeping genes  
305 (*Abt1*, *Eef2* and *GAPDH*). Relative gene expression was calculated using the  $\Delta\Delta C_t$  method  
306 and data are expressed relative to the naïve or the saline-treated double incision group.

307 *Experimental design.* To assess the long-term impact of microglial inhibition  
308 restricted to the time of neonatal incision, and minimize potential disruption of normal  
309 development, pharmacological microglial inhibitors were administered 30 minutes prior to  
310 incision and at 24 and 48 hours. Male and female P3 rat pups were randomly assigned to

311 four experimental groups: neonatal saline (ns); neonatal minocycline (nm); neonatal saline  
312 plus incision (nsIN); and neonatal minocycline plus incision (nmIN) (Figure 1). The number of  
313 animals per group was based on our previous studies using similar methodology (Beggs et  
314 al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015). Several outcomes were compared across treatment  
315 groups. 1) Changes in hindlimb reflex withdrawal assessed behavioral hyperalgesia. In  
316 neonatal animals, mechanical withdrawal thresholds were measured at baseline on P3, and  
317 then 4, 24, 48 and 72h post intervention. At 7-8 weeks of age, baseline mechanical  
318 threshold and thermal withdrawal latency were measured prior to and at regular intervals  
319 to 21 days after left hindpaw incision (ns-IN; nm-IN; nsIN-IN; nmIN-IN). 2) EMG recordings in  
320 anesthetized animals quantified reflex sensitivity 24 h post neonatal or adult incision. 3)  
321 Spontaneous locomotor activity was assessed in adults by movement in an open field 24 h  
322 following incision. 4) Tissue analysis was performed on lumbar spinal cord. In neonates,  
323 sections were collected on P4 for FJ-C staining or on P6 for Iba1 immunohistochemistry. In  
324 adults, punch biopsies for qRT-PCR were taken from the medial superficial dorsal horn 3  
325 days following adult incision.

326 In additional experiments, male and female P3 rat pups were randomly assigned to  
327 three experimental groups: neonatal DMSO vehicle (nv,  $n=8$ ); neonatal vehicle plus incision  
328 (nvIN,  $n=8$ ); and neonatal intrathecal SB203580 plus incision (nSBIN,  $n=8$  males + 8 females).  
329 Mechanical withdrawal thresholds were measured at baseline on P3, and then 4, 24, 48 and  
330 72h post neonatal intervention. At 7-8 weeks of age, mechanical thresholds were measured  
331 at baseline and at regular intervals to 21 days after left hindpaw incision (nv-IN; nvIN-IN;  
332 nSBIN-IN). To evaluate potential tissue effects of repeat intrathecal SB203580 in 8% DMSO,  
333 spinal cords were collected for FJ-C staining following P3 injection of 0.4mg/kg 24 hours  
334 previously plus 0.3mg/kg 6 hours prior to sacrifice on P4.



335 To assess the anatomical distribution of re-incision hyperalgesia, P3 incision was  
336 performed at 5 sites: left or right hindpaw (nIN ipsilateral or contralateral), left anterior  
337 thigh (nThi), left or right forepaw (nFor ipsilateral or contralateral) in P3 male rat pups.  
338 Littermate controls received the same duration of neonatal anesthesia, handling and  
339 maternal separation. Mechanical and thermal hindlimb thresholds were measured in  
340 adulthood (7-8 weeks of age) and at regular intervals to 21 days after incision of the left  
341 hindpaw in all groups (nIN-IN ipsilateral or contralateral, nThi-IN, nForIN-IN ipsilateral or  
342 contralateral). As behavioral responses to hindpaw incision did not differ between males  
343 and females, and no additional intervention was performed, these experiments were  
344 performed only in males.

345 *Statistical analysis.* Our primary outcome was the impact of neonatal minocycline on  
346 re-incision hyperalgesia in adult male and female rats. Based on comparisons of sensory  
347 threshold in male and female adult rats from the same in-house colony using the same test  
348 protocol (Walker et al., 2015), a sample size of 8 was chosen (80% power at  $P < 0.01$  for  
349 detecting a 20 and 25% difference in mechanical withdrawal threshold in males and females  
350 respectively; 80% power at  $P < 0.05$  for detecting a 35% difference in thermal withdrawal  
351 latency). Sensory threshold data is also presented as percentage of baseline  $[(\text{post-incision}$   
352  $\text{threshold}) / (\text{pre-incision baseline threshold}) \times 100]$  plotted against time. To incorporate  
353 differences in both the degree and duration of hyperalgesia, the hyperalgesic index for each  
354 animal was calculated as the area over the percentage change sensory threshold versus  
355 time curve from baseline (0) to 21 days, such that a larger area over the curve represents a  
356 greater change from baseline and greater degree and/or duration of hyperalgesia. Based on  
357 our previous data (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015), a sample size of 8 has 90%

358 power for detecting a 30% difference ( $P < 0.05$ ) in mechanical hyperalgesic index following  
359 adult incision.

360 Behavioral data were normally distributed (D'Agostino and Pearson omnibus  
361 normality test), and analyzed by unpaired Student's t-test (baseline thresholds) or three-  
362 way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with sex, incision, and drug (minocycline or saline) as  
363 factors. Data are graphed separately for males and females and analyzed with 2-way ANOVA  
364 with group and sex as variables, and timeline data with repeated measures; time as the  
365 within-subjects factor and treatment group as between-subject factors. Dunnett's *post hoc*  
366 tests were used to assess changes relative to baseline and Bonferroni *post hoc tests* to  
367 assess between-group differences, with  $p$  values adjusted for multiple comparisons.  
368 Normalized RT-PCR data was analyzed by two-way ANOVA with sex and drug as factors,  
369 followed by Bonferroni *post hoc tests* as appropriate. Cell counts (Iba1, FJ-C) were analyzed  
370 by three-way ANOVA (sex, surgery and drug) with Bonferroni *post hoc tests*.

371 For clarity of behavioral timelines, data points are represented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. For  
372 other outcomes, individual data points are shown with bars representing mean  $\pm$  SD. Data  
373 were analyzed with GraphPad Prism (Version 7, San Diego, USA, RRID: SCR\_002798) or IBM  
374 SPSS Statistics (Version 22, Portsmouth, UK, RRID: SCR\_002865).  $p < 0.05$  was considered  
375 statistically significant;  $p$  values are reported in the text apart from very small values below  
376 0.001, which is designated as  $p < 0.001$ .

377

## 378 **Results**

379 **Re-incision hyperalgesia following neonatal incision is equivalent in adult males and**  
380 **females**

381 To support our previous finding of enhanced re-incision hyperalgesia following neonatal  
382 incision (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015), larger groups of males and females were  
383 compared to evaluate potential sex-differences in behavioral response. Mechanical  
384 withdrawal thresholds following adult incision (nsIN-IN vs ns-IN) were influenced by prior  
385 neonatal incision ( $F_{(1,28)} = 11.2, p = 0.002$ ) but not sex ( $F_{(1,28)} = 1.7, p = 0.20$ ); and similarly,  
386 thermal withdrawal latency was influenced by prior neonatal incision ( $F_{(1,28)} = 6.1, p = 0.02$ )  
387 but not sex ( $F_{(1,28)} = 0.7, p = 0.41$ ). Differences in the degree of hyperalgesia following adult  
388 incision were not solely due to alterations in adult baseline values, as nsIN-IN groups had  
389 both higher pre-incision and lower post-incision thresholds for mechanical withdrawal  
390 threshold (nsIN-IN vs nsIN: baseline mean $\pm$ SD 30.2 $\pm$ 5.4 vs 24.9 $\pm$ 3.1g; [ $t(29) = 3.3, p = 0.002$ ];  
391 4hrs post-incision 7.4 $\pm$ 1.4 vs 11.1 $\pm$ 1.3g;  $t(29) = 7.6, p < 0.001$ ). Differences in thermal latency  
392 were less marked (nsIN-IN vs nsIN: baseline 12.1 $\pm$ 2.1 vs 10.8 $\pm$ 1.8 s  $t(29) = 1.9, p = 0.056$ ; 4hrs  
393 post incision 3.3 $\pm$ 1.1 vs 4.1 $\pm$ 1.1 s;  $t(29) = 2.0, p = 0.052$ ). Expression as percentage change  
394 from baseline facilitated comparison of the relative change across groups and demonstrated  
395 increased hyperalgesia following neonatal incision at time points to 21 days in males and  
396 females (nsIN-IN vs nsIN; Figures 2A-D). Prior neonatal incision increases mechanical and  
397 thermal behavioral hyperalgesia to an equivalent degree in males and females.

398

399 **Neonatal perioperative minocycline prevents enhanced re-incision hyperalgesia in adult**  
400 **males but not females.**

401 We next evaluated the potential for a neonatal intervention to prevent long-term  
402 alterations in injury response. While there was a significant main effect of prior incision in  
403 both males ( $F_{(1,31)} = 33.3, p < 0.001$ ) and females ( $F_{(1,24)} = 48, p < 0.001$ ), minocycline had a  
404 significant effect in males ( $F_{(1,31)} = 6.6, p = 0.02$ ) but not females ( $F_{(1,24)} = 2.8, p = 0.10$ ). In males,

405 neonatal minocycline prevented re-incision hyperalgesia (nmIN-IN did not differ from ns-  
406 IN) and significant differences between nsIN-IN and nmIN-IN groups emerged after 7 days  
407 (Figure 2A). In females, mechanical hyperalgesia did not differ from the re-incision saline  
408 group (nmIN-IN vs nsIN-IN) and enhanced hyperalgesia persisted (nmIN-IN vs ns-IN from 7  
409 days post-incision; Figure 2B). Thermal withdrawal latencies similarly showed a main effect  
410 of prior incision in both males ( $F_{(1, 31)} = 38.5, p < 0.01$ ) and females ( $F_{(1, 24)} = 27.0, p < 0.001$ ). At  
411 time points after 10 days, thermal latency in the male nmIN-IN group differed from nsIN-IN  
412 (ie. reduced re-incision hyperalgesia; Figure 2C), whereas in females nmIN-IN differed from  
413 the ns-IN group (ie. re-incision hyperalgesia persisted; Figure 2D). Summary figures for  
414 mechanical threshold (Figure 2E) and thermal latency (Figure 2F) highlight the differences in  
415 male and female nmIN-IN groups, with sex-dependent differences particularly apparent 7-  
416 10 days after adult re-incision.

417 Neonatal minocycline alone, in the absence of neonatal incision (nm) did not alter  
418 the response to adult incision in males or females. The degree and duration of incision-  
419 induced hyperalgesia in adulthood did not differ between neonatal minocycline and  
420 neonatal saline control groups (nm-IN vs ns-IN; Figures 2A-D).

421 To provide a composite measure encompassing both the degree and duration of  
422 behavioral response, hyperalgesic indices (area over threshold vs time 0-21 days) were  
423 calculated. For mechanical hyperalgesic index there were significant main effects of incision  
424 ( $F_{(1,55)} = 88.1; p < 0.001$ ), sex ( $F_{(1,55)} = 9.3, p = 0.003$ ) and drug ( $F_{(1,55)} = 9.4, p = 0.003$ ). Similarly,  
425 thermal hyperalgesic index showed a main effect of incision ( $F_{(1,55)} = 68.1, p < 0.001$ ), sex  
426 ( $F_{(1,55)} = 7.7, p = 0.007$ ) and drug ( $F_{(1,55)} = 4.6, p = 0.036$ )(3-way factorial ANOVA). Re-incision  
427 mechanical hyperalgesia was modulated by neonatal minocycline in males (nmIN-IN < nsIN-  
428 IN,  $p = 0.002$ ) but in females an enhanced response persisted (nmIN-IN > ns-IN,  $p = 0.008$  and

429 nmIN-IN > nm-IN,  $p=0.002$ )(Figure 2G). Similar results were seen with thermal hyperalgesic  
430 index in males (nmIN-IN < nsIN-IN,  $p=0.009$ ) and females (nmIN-IN > ns-IN,  $p=0.004$  and  
431 nmIN-IN > nm-IN,  $p=0.002$ )(Figure 2H).

432 To confirm differences were not restricted to behavioral withdrawal thresholds,  
433 reflex sensitivity to threshold and suprathreshold stimuli was quantified by  
434 electromyographic recordings in anesthetized animals 24 hours following adult incision.  
435 There were significant main effects of incision ( $F_{(1, 68)} = 87.6$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and interactions  
436 between incision and sex ( $F_{(1, 68)}=5.8$ ,  $p=0.004$ ) and incision and drug ( $F_{(1, 68)}=8.8$ ,  $p=0.019$ ).  
437 Minocycline at the time of neonatal incision (nmIN-IN) reduced re-incision hyperalgesia in  
438 males (nmIN-IN < nsIN-IN,  $p=0.024$ ), but in females reflex sensitivity was enhanced (nmIN-IN  
439 > ns-IN,  $p<0.001$ )(Figure 2I).

440 These data demonstrate that while reflex sensitivity is enhanced by prior neonatal  
441 incision in both males and females, administering minocycline at the time of neonatal injury  
442 prevents the long-term re-incision hyperalgesia in males only, and the same dose is  
443 ineffective in females.

444

#### 445 **Adult incision increases spinal cord microglial-specific gene expression, but modulation by** 446 **neonatal minocycline is sex-dependent**

447 As spinal expression of genes associated with microglial proliferation (*Emr1*) and  
448 transformation to a reactive phenotype (*Irf8*) increase following peripheral nerve injury in  
449 adult rodents (Masuda et al., 2012; Sorge et al., 2015), we first determined if expression of  
450 these genes was also increased in the medial superficial dorsal horn following hindpaw  
451 incision in adult rodents. Expression was assessed 3 days following incision, as spinal  
452 microglial reactivity (Iba1 immunohistochemistry) increased at this time point in adults

453 without prior neonatal injury (Beggs et al., 2012). *Emr1* expression showed a main effect of  
454 incision ( $F_{(1,26)}=30.4, p<0.001$ ) but not of sex ( $F_{(1,26)}=0.4, p=0.55$ ) (Figure 3A). Similarly, there  
455 was a main effect of incision ( $F_{(1,26)}=21.5, p<0.001$ ) but not sex ( $F_{(1,26)}=4.1, p=0.053$ ) on *Irf8*  
456 expression (two-way ANOVA; Figure 3B).

457 As prior neonatal incision alters the time course, degree and distribution of spinal  
458 microglial response (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015), effects of neonatal  
459 minocycline following adult incision (nmIN-IN) were normalized against the re-incision saline  
460 group (nsIN-IN). There were significant effects of sex and sex by drug interactions for both  
461 *Emr1* ( $F_{(1,27)}=5.5, p=0.027$ ) and for *Irf8* ( $F_{(1,27)}=5.7, p=0.024$ ). In neonatal minocycline groups,  
462 expression following adult re-incision (nmIN-IN) was significantly lower in males than in  
463 females for *Emr1* ( $p=0.023$ ; Figure 3C) and *Irf8* ( $p=0.019$ ; Figure 3D). Therefore, in addition  
464 to sex-dependent long-term effects on behavioral hyperalgesia, neonatal minocycline  
465 specifically effects the spinal microglial response following re-incision, but in males only.

466

467 **Neonatal intrathecal p38 inhibitor prevents enhanced re-incision mechanical hyperalgesia**  
468 **in adult males but not females**

469 As microglial P2X<sub>4</sub> receptors are a key point of divergence for sex-dependent responses in  
470 neuroglial signaling in adult rodents (Mapplebeck et al., 2018), we also evaluated the effect  
471 of inhibition of the downstream p38 MAPK signaling pathway. Prior neonatal incision  
472 increased adult-incision induced expression of microglial phospho-p38 and anti-allodynic  
473 efficacy of the p38 MAPK inhibitor SB203580 (Schwaller et al., 2015). Here, SB203580 was  
474 administered intrathecally at the time of neonatal incision (nSBIN; 1mg/kg in divided doses  
475 30 mins pre- and 24 and 48 hours post-incision). In vehicle control animals, prior neonatal  
476 incision was again associated with higher baseline mechanical withdrawal threshold in

477 adulthood in both the ipsilateral (nvIN vs nv;  $29.3 \pm 3.6$  vs  $24.1 \pm 2.2$ g;  $t(14)=3.5$ ,  $p=0.010$ )  
478 and contralateral paw, and an increased degree and duration of re-incision hyperalgesia.  
479 Changes in mechanical withdrawal threshold following adult incision (nvIN-IN vs nv-IN) were  
480 influenced by time ( $F_{(7,84)}=47$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) and prior neonatal incision ( $F_{(1,12)}=36$ ,  $p<0.001$ ). As  
481 there was no main effect of sex ( $F_{(1,12)}=0.48$ ,  $p=0.5$ ) or sex by group interaction ( $F_{(1,12)}=0.3$ ,  
482  $p=0.6$ ), male and female data were combined in subsequent analyses of nv-IN and nvIN-IN  
483 groups (Figure 4).

484       Following neonatal incision with intrathecal SB203580 (nSBIN), baseline mechanical  
485 withdrawal thresholds in adulthood were higher and more variable in females than males  
486 ( $35.1 \pm 8.9$ g vs  $25.3 \pm 1.2$ g;  $t(14)=3.1$ ,  $p=0.01$ ). Despite this higher baseline, raw mechanical  
487 withdrawal thresholds following re-incision (nSBIN-IN) were significantly lower in females  
488 than males at time points from 7 to 21 days post-incision ( $p<0.05$ ; two-way repeated  
489 measures ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons). Expression as percentage change  
490 from baseline facilitated comparison across all groups (nv-IN vs nvIN-IN vs nSBIN-IN males vs  
491 nSBIN-IN females;  $n=8$  per group; Figure 4). There was a significant main effect of group ( $F$   
492  $_{(3,28)}=29$ ,  $p<0.001$ ) with differences between male and female nSBIN-IN groups initially at 3  
493 days ( $p=0.02$ ) that were more marked from 7 to 21 days post incision ( $p<0.001$ ; two-way  
494 repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons; Figure 4A). Neonatal  
495 microglial inhibition with intrathecal SB203580 prevented re-incision hyperalgesia in males  
496 (nSBIN-IN males vs nvIN-IN,  $p<0.001$ ) and this group did not differ from adults without prior  
497 incision (nsSBN-IN males vs nv-IN,  $p=0.9$ ). By contrast, in females re-incision hyperalgesia  
498 was evident (nSBIN-IN females vs nv-IN,  $p<0.001$ ) and values did not differ from the vehicle  
499 re-incision group (nSBIN-IN females vs nvIN-IN,  $p=0.4$ ).

500 The composite measure of mechanical hyperalgesic index (0-21 days) similarly  
501 highlighted a main effect of prior neonatal incision ( $F_{(1,26)} = 27, p < 0.001$ ), sex ( $F_{(1,26)} = 14,$   
502  $p = 0.002$ ), and sex by drug interaction ( $F_{(1,26)} = 13, p = 0.001$ ). Enhanced re-incision  
503 hyperalgesia (nv-IN vs nvIN-IN,  $p < 0.001$ ) was prevented by neonatal SB203580 in males  
504 (nSBIN-IN males vs nvIN-IN,  $p < 0.001$ ), but was still evident in females (nSBIN-IN females vs  
505 nv-IN,  $p < 0.001$ )(Figure 4B).

506

#### 507 **Enhanced hyperalgesia is not restricted to re-incision of the same paw**

508 Neonatal incision produces baseline *hypoalgesia* and re-incision unmasks *hyperalgesia* in  
509 adulthood. We have previously shown that elevated baseline thresholds have a generalized  
510 distribution, with enhanced descending inhibition from the rostroventral medulla  
511 influencing reflex sensitivity irrespective of prior incision on the ipsi- or contralateral  
512 hindpaw or forepaw (Walker et al., 2015). Hindpaw carrageenan inflammation in the first  
513 postnatal week, but not at older ages, is similarly associated with generalized hypoalgesia in  
514 adulthood, whereas an enhanced hyperalgesic response is restricted to re-inflammation of  
515 the same, but not contralateral hindpaw (Ren et al., 2004). As we have previously assessed  
516 re-incision in the same paw only, we now evaluated the degree and distribution of  
517 *hyperalgesia* following neonatal incision at different body sites. The same length of initial  
518 incision was performed either on the left or right hindpaw (nIN ipsilateral or contralateral),  
519 left anterior thigh (nThi), left or right forepaw (nFor ipsilateral or contralateral) at P3, and  
520 we have previously shown that forepaw and hindpaw incisions produce similar acute  
521 hyperalgesia at this age (Walker et al., 2015). Hindlimb reflex thresholds were then assessed  
522 at baseline and following incision of the left hindpaw in adulthood (Figure 5). As our



523 previous experiments had shown no difference in behavioral response in males and  
524 females, these experiments were performed in males only.

525         At 6-7 weeks of age, baseline mechanical withdrawal threshold in the left hindpaw  
526 was significantly altered following prior neonatal incision (main effect of group  $F_{(5,50)}=5.7$ ,  
527  $p<0.001$ ) with thresholds higher following prior incision in all sites, apart from the  
528 contralateral forepaw; Figure 5A). Thermal latency was increased following all prior  
529 neonatal incisions with a main effect of group ( $F_{(5,50)}=5.9$ ,  $p<0.001$ ); Figure 5B).

530         In all adults, the left hindpaw was incised to facilitate comparison across groups  
531 (Figure 4). Mechanical withdrawal thresholds and thermal latency were plotted against time  
532 and expressed as percentage change from baseline (data not shown) for calculation of  
533 hyperalgesic indices. The mechanical hyperalgesic index (0-21 days) was increased following  
534 prior ipsilateral (na-IN vs nIN-IN, nThi or nFor-IN; all  $p<0.001$ ) but not contralateral incision  
535 (contralateral hindpaw nIN-IN,  $p=0.07$ ; contralateral forepaw nFor-IN,  $p=0.9$ )(one way  
536 ANOVA with Dunnett's comparison to na-IN). Thermal data demonstrated enhanced  
537 hyperalgesia following prior incision of the same paw and ipsilateral thigh (na-IN vs nIN-IN  
538 or nThi,  $p<0.001$ ), but not ipsilateral forepaw ( $p=0.14$ ) or contralateral hindpaw ( $p=0.35$ ) or  
539 forepaw ( $p=0.16$ ). The relative changes in hyperalgesic index highlight that increased  
540 mechanical hyperalgesia was maximal with re-incision in the same paw (nIN-IN vs IN  
541 mean $\pm$ SD: 97 $\pm$ 25% increase), but also increased following prior ipsilateral anterior thigh  
542 (37 $\pm$ 15%) or ipsilateral forepaw (35 $\pm$ 11%) incision (Figure 5C). Similarly, thermal  
543 hyperalgesia was enhanced following prior ipsilateral incision, with maximal effect when the  
544 same hindpaw was incised (82 $\pm$ 28%), but prior contralateral hindpaw incision had no effect  
545 (Figure 5D). In adults with prior neonatal incision, we have previously shown that enhanced  
546 hyperalgesia and spinal microglial reactivity is independent of peripheral re-injury and can

547 be induced by lateral thigh incision and tibial nerve stimulation (Beggs et al., 2012), and  
548 these current data further support a role for segmentally restricted spinal mechanisms in  
549 the primed response to injury following neonatal surgical incision.

550

551 **Neonatal incision produces acute hyperalgesia and a spinal microglial response in male**  
552 **and female rat pups**

553 To evaluate acute effects of microglial inhibition and incision, we also present data from the  
554 neonatal period. Plantar incision at P3 acutely reduced mechanical withdrawal threshold  
555 with lower mechanical withdrawal threshold 4 hours after incision in males (nsIN < ns,  
556  $p=0.011$ ; nmIN < ns,  $p=0.045$ ; Figure 6A) and females (nsIN < ns,  $p=0.046$ ; nmIN < ns,  
557  $p=0.003$ ; two-way repeated measures with Bonferroni post-hoc comparisons; Figure 6B).  
558 Withdrawal thresholds in non-incised saline and minocycline groups did not differ at any  
559 time point. Reflex sensitivity to both threshold and more intense suprathreshold mechanical  
560 stimuli (quantified by EMG response 24 hours post P3 incision) showed a main effect of  
561 treatment group ( $F_{(3,55)}=10.4$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), but not sex ( $F_{(1,55)}=1.6$ ,  $p=0.21$ )(two-way ANOVA  
562 with sex and group as variables; Figure 6C). Minocycline did not prevent acute hyperalgesia  
563 in incised rats, and values did not differ between minocycline alone and saline controls  
564 (Figures 6A-C). This suggests that effects of systemic minocycline are not due to the non-  
565 specific acute peripheral anti-inflammatory effects shown with higher doses of systemic  
566 minocycline in adult animals (Beggs et al., 2012).

567 Four hours following neonatal incision, mechanical withdrawal thresholds were  
568 reduced from baseline in intrathecal vehicle (nvIN,  $p=0.04$ ) and female SB203580 groups  
569 (nSBIN,  $p=0.04$ ) but to a reduced degree in males (nSBIN males,  $p=0.38$ ; two-way repeated  
570 measures with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons). Overall, values did not differ significantly

571 across groups at each time point, and the normal developmental increase in mechanical  
572 withdrawal threshold with postnatal age was evident (P6 > P3 baseline, all groups,  $p < 0.001$ ).

573 Three days following neonatal incision, analysis of the number of Iba1-positive cells  
574 in the medial superficial ipsilateral dorsal horn (Figure 6D) demonstrated a main effect of  
575 incision ( $F_{(1,48)} = 25.3$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but not sex ( $F_{(1,48)} = 3.4$ ,  $p = 0.07$ ) or drug ( $F_{(1,48)} = 0.01$ ,  $p = 0.72$ ).  
576 Minocycline did not prevent incision-induced increases in Iba1-positive cell counts in males  
577 or females, although analysis was limited by variability in this outcome (Figure 5E).

578 In neonatal rodents, normal developmental neuronal apoptosis occurs  
579 predominantly in the dorsal horn of the spinal cord (Lowrie and Lawson, 2000), but can be  
580 increased by injury and anesthesia/analgesia (Walker and Yaksh, 2012; Chiarotto et al.,  
581 2014), and in the developing brain, systemic minocycline has been reported to paradoxically  
582 increase brain cell death in an age- (Arnoux et al., 2014), and dose-dependent manner (5  
583 fold increase in somatosensory cortex following 5 x 45mg/kg between P3 to P5)(Strahan et  
584 al., 2017). Therefore, we used FJ-C staining to assess cell death 24 hours following P3  
585 interventions. At P4, FJ-C counts were higher in the dorsal versus ventral horn (ns  $28 \pm 7$  vs  
586  $9 \pm 4$ ; mean  $\pm$  SD, summed from 6 sections per animal). In the ipsilateral dorsal horn, FJ-C cell  
587 counts showed a main effect of incision ( $F_{(1,56)} = 26.7$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) but not sex ( $F_{(1,56)} = 0.13$ ,  
588  $p = 0.72$ ) or minocycline administration ( $F_{(1,56)} = 0.18$ ,  $p = 0.68$ )(Figure 6G). FJ-C cell counts  
589 increased 24 h following incision in males (nsIN vs ns:  $41 \pm 14$  vs  $25 \pm 7$ ) and females (nsIN vs  
590 ns:  $43 \pm 9$  vs  $31 \pm 10$ ). This relative increase (40-60%) was lower than following intrathecal  
591 ketamine doses at P3 (>300% increase) that were also associated with long-term alterations  
592 in adult hindlimb sensory thresholds and gait (Walker et al., 2010). Dorsal horn FJ-C counts  
593 following 2 intrathecal doses of SB203580 in 8% DMSO did not significantly differ from  
594 saline or minocycline non-incision groups (nSB vs ns vs nm:  $33 \pm 5$  vs  $28 \pm 7$  vs  $29 \pm 7$ ,  $p = 0.36$ ).

595 Therefore, the pharmacological interventions used here did not cause paradoxical cell death  
596 in the neonatal spinal cord.

597 To exclude effects of injury or minocycline on growth and sensorimotor function,  
598 body weight and spontaneous locomotor activity were measured in adulthood. Males were  
599 heavier than females (mean  $\pm$  SD: 312  $\pm$  17 g vs 218 $\pm$ 21 g;  $t(59)=19.2$ ,  $p<0.001$ ), but within  
600 sexes, weight did not differ markedly across treatment groups (data not shown).  
601 Spontaneous locomotor activity was assessed by distance travelled during 3 minutes in a 90  
602 x 90cm open field 24 hours following adult incision. Males were less active than females  
603 (distance travelled mean $\pm$ SD: 11.9 $\pm$ 3.8 m vs 14.1 $\pm$ 4.8 m) resulting in a main effect of sex ( $F_{(1,$   
604  $64)} = 6.14$ ,  $0.016$ ), but there was no effect of incision ( $F_{(1, 64)} = 0.06$ ,  $p=0.81$ ) or minocycline  
605 ( $F_{(1, 64)} = 2.71$ ,  $p=0.81$ ) on distance travelled.

606

## 607 **Discussion**

608 Prior neonatal incision has a long-term impact on somatosensory processing, and enhanced  
609 post-surgical hyperalgesia following adult re-incision is abolished by microglial inhibitors in  
610 adult males (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al., 2015). We now demonstrate persistent  
611 sexually-dimorphic effects following microglial inhibition in early development: neonatal  
612 peri-incision minocycline prevents re-incision hyperalgesia only in adult males, and dorsal  
613 horn genes related to microglial function are down-regulated in males but up-regulated in  
614 females. MAPK signaling is involved as neonatal intrathecal SB203850 also prevented re-  
615 incision hyperalgesia in males only. Following neonatal incision at different sites, adult re-  
616 incision hyperalgesia is restricted to prior ipsilateral injury and is maximal when the same  
617 paw is re-injured, supporting a segmentally-restricted spinal mechanism.

618 Hindpaw incision produces equivalent acute hyperalgesia in male and female rat  
619 pups, and enhanced hyperalgesia following subsequent adult re-incision is also independent  
620 of sex. In adults, spinal microglial inhibition selectively minimized re-incision hyperalgesia at  
621 doses that were ineffective following adult-only incision (Beggs et al., 2012; Schwaller et al.,  
622 2015), but experiments were predominantly in males. Sexually-dimorphic responses to  
623 microglial inhibition in adult rodents follow peripheral nerve injury and inflammation (Sorge  
624 et al., 2015; Mapplebeck et al., 2018), hindpaw formalin (Taves et al., 2016), and  
625 hyperalgesic priming to prostaglandin E2 (Paige et al., 2018). Here, the key finding is that  
626 microglial inhibition with systemic minocycline or intrathecal SB203580 at the time of  
627 neonatal injury has a long-term preventive effect: modulating re-incision hyperalgesia in  
628 males only, with significant sex-dependent group differences following adult incision. These  
629 data suggest the transition from acute to persistent post-incision pain state is mediated by  
630 different mechanisms (Echeverry et al., 2017; Price et al., 2018), and more effectively  
631 modulated by neonatal microglial inhibition in males.

632 Sex-dependent responses to microglial inhibition following tissue injury in adult rodents are  
633 spinally-mediated (Taves et al., 2016; Mapplebeck et al., 2018). While intrathecal LPS  
634 induced mechanical allodynia only in adult males, intracerebroventricular or intraplantar LPS  
635 produced equivalent allodynia in both sexes (Sorge et al., 2011). However, there has been  
636 limited evaluation of age-dependent changes in microglial function in the spinal cord.  
637 Compared to brain microglia, spinal microglia have a reduced *in vitro* inflammatory  
638 response to LPS (Baskar Jesudasan et al., 2014). Behavioral and microglial responses in  
639 juvenile rodents also vary with type of injury. In male P10 rats, intrathecal LPS but not  
640 spared nerve injury produced acute hyperalgesia and increased spinal microgliosis, and age-  
641 dependent shifts between anti-inflammatory and pro-inflammatory spinal microglial

642 responses influenced the delayed emergence of behavioral allodynia following nerve injury  
643 (Moss et al., 2007; McKelvey et al., 2015). Plantar incision induces microgliosis in the  
644 ipsilateral dorsal horn in both neonatal and adult rats, and prior incision increases the  
645 degree, duration and distribution of the adult response (Beggs et al., 2012). To investigate  
646 potential sex differences in the underlying molecular pathway, we first confirmed that  
647 hindpaw incision upregulated *Emr1* a marker of microglial proliferation, and *Irf8* a  
648 transcription factor critical for adoption of a reactive phenotype (Masuda et al 2012) in the  
649 ipsilateral dorsal horn of adult males and females. The response following neonatal  
650 microglial inhibition in the re-incision groups was sex-dependent, with *Emr1* and *Irf8*  
651 upregulated in minocycline-treated females, but downregulated in males. Spinal P2X<sub>4</sub>R-  
652 signaling pathways underlie sexually-dimorphic effects to microglial inhibitors in adults  
653 (Sorge et al., 2015; Taves et al., 2016; Mapplebeck et al., 2018), and we now demonstrate a  
654 role for downstream MAPK signaling in the long-term preventive effects following neonatal  
655 incision in males, but not females.

656         Directly activating spinal microglia by intrathecal LPS produces testosterone-  
657 dependent allodynia in male but not female mice (Sorge et al., 2011) and manipulating sex  
658 hormone levels also alters efficacy of microglial inhibitors which become ineffective in  
659 castrated males (Sorge et al., 2015). Microglia in the developing and adult mouse brain  
660 show sex-specific transcriptomic and proteomic differences that can be influenced by, or  
661 independent of, circulating sex hormones (Hanamsagar et al., 2017; Guneykaya et al., 2018;  
662 Nelson et al., 2018; Villa et al., 2018). The molecular mechanisms underlying this sex  
663 dichotomy are not well-established (Villa et al., 2018), and following brain injury the  
664 response to microglial inhibitors varies across studies. Minocycline efficacy following  
665 traumatic injury at P11 varied across brain regions, but sex had minimal impact (Hanlon et

666 al., 2017). While minocycline improved outcome following brain hypoxia/ischemia in adult  
667 males only (Spsychala et al., 2017), benefit in P3 rats has not been separately assessed in  
668 males and females (Wixey et al., 2009; Wixey et al., 2011). Using a similar repeat dose  
669 regimen, that was well-tolerated and improved outcome in rat pups, minocycline alone did  
670 not alter spinal reflex sensitivity or cell death in male or female rat pups. Peri-incision  
671 minocycline did not block acute injury-induced microgliosis or hyperalgesia following  
672 neonatal incision, suggesting doses were insufficient to produce anti-hyperalgesic effects  
673 seen with high systemic doses in adults (Beggs et al., 2012). Nevertheless, systemic  
674 minocycline modulated priming by neonatal incision, producing long-term preventive  
675 effects on re-incision hyperalgesia in adult males, but not females; and more selective  
676 inhibition with intrathecal SB203580 produced the same sexually-dimorphic effects.

677 Priming of microglial responses may reflect intrinsic phenotypic changes with  
678 exaggerated responses to subsequent challenges (Perry and Holmes, 2014; Burke et al.,  
679 2016), and perinatal insults can alter the normal sex-dependent trajectory of microglial  
680 development (Hanamsagar et al., 2017). Microglia have multiple roles in normal activity-  
681 dependent refinement of sensory system circuitry (Salter and Stevens, 2017). Induction of  
682 long-term changes in re-incision response is both developmentally-regulated and activity-  
683 dependent. Blocking primary afferent input at the time of neonatal incision prevents early  
684 alterations in glutamatergic signaling (Li et al., 2009) and subsequent re-incision  
685 hyperalgesia (Walker et al., 2009a; Moriarty et al., 2018). Neonatal plantar incision produces  
686 long-term increased gain in spinal nociceptive circuitry (Li et al., 2015; Li and Baccei, 2018),  
687 including increased monosynaptic input from low-threshold mechanoreceptors onto spinal  
688 projection neurons (Li and Baccei, 2016). As postnatal refinement of A-fiber distribution  
689 (Beggs et al., 2002) and maturation of local inhibitory circuitry in the spinal dorsal horn

690 (Baccei and Fitzgerald, 2004; Koch et al., 2012) are sensitive to altered afferent input,  
691 microglial involvement in developing normal sensory circuits may also be influenced by  
692 injury-induced alterations in microglial reactivity.

693         A key consideration is whether priming by neonatal incision is dependent upon both  
694 neonatal and adult surgeries being performed at the same site. Adult incision rapidly  
695 induced extracellular signal-related kinase phosphorylation in spinal dorsal horn neurons,  
696 but the distribution and degree was not influenced by prior neonatal incision (Schwaller et  
697 al., 2015). Effects are also not dependent on peripheral re-injury, as tibial nerve electrical  
698 stimulation increased the degree of hyperalgesia and microglial reactivity in adults with  
699 prior neonatal incision. Microglial reactivity extended beyond the somatotopic afferent field  
700 of the initial hindpaw injury, with enhanced microgliosis related to the ipsilateral mid-thigh  
701 incision required to expose the nerve (Hathway et al., 2009; Beggs et al., 2012), and  
702 microglial phospho-p38 expression in adults with prior neonatal incision was also more  
703 extensive (Schwaller et al., 2015). While enhanced hyperalgesia was greatest when neonatal  
704 and adult incisions were at the same location, behavioral responses to adult hindpaw  
705 incision were also primed following neonatal incision at other ipsilateral but not  
706 contralateral sites; supporting a segmental mechanism that differs from effects on baseline  
707 threshold. Following neonatal hindpaw incision or inflammation, baseline hypoalgesia  
708 emerges after the fourth postnatal week and is generalized to ipsilateral and contralateral  
709 paws in adulthood (Ren et al., 2004; Walker et al., 2015; Moriarty et al., 2018). We  
710 hypothesize these phenomena are mediated by two distinct mechanisms, with centrally-  
711 mediated increased descending inhibition from the rostral ventromedial medulla  
712 contributing to generalized hypoalgesia (Zhang et al., 2010; Walker et al., 2015), while the  
713 restricted ipsilateral distribution of re-incision hyperalgesia is spinally-mediated.



714           The present study provides further evidence for the role of microglia in persistent  
715 effects of early-life injury and the transition from acute to chronic pain following  
716 subsequent injury. In addition, we identify a novel preventive mechanism: pharmacological  
717 microglial inhibition at the time of neonatal injury prevented subsequent re-incision  
718 hyperalgesia in a sex-dependent manner. Following preterm birth, male sex is an  
719 independent risk factor for adverse neurodevelopmental outcome (Linsell et al., 2018), but  
720 repeated procedural pain exposure has a greater impact on brain volume and connectivity  
721 in females (Schneider et al., 2018), and both somatosensory function and pain experience  
722 differ in young adult males and females born extremely-preterm (Walker et al., 2018). In  
723 later life, chronic pain conditions are more prevalent in females (Mogil, 2012; Fillingim,  
724 2017). From a clinical perspective, our data highlight the need to consider early-life  
725 experience when assessing risk for persistent pain in later life, and to compare efficacy in  
726 males and females enrolled in clinical trials of microglial inhibitors (Tong et al., 2012). In line  
727 with NIH Federal Pain Research Strategy priorities (Price et al., 2018), our data identify an  
728 important contribution of early-life experience to pain in later life, and further highlight the  
729 importance of sex as a biologic variable when evaluating mechanism and efficacy of  
730 therapeutic interventions in preclinical pain research.  
731

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925 **Figure Legends**

926

927 **Figure 1:** Schematic of experimental design. Treatment groups included: neonatal saline, ns;

928 neonatal minocycline, nm; neonatal saline and incision, nsIN; neonatal minocycline and

929 incision, nmIN. Injections were performed on postnatal day (P) 3, 4 and 5. All animals the

930 underwent incision in adulthood (ns-IN, nm-IN, nsIN-IN, nmIN-IN). Evaluations included:

931 measures of reflex sensitivity with mechanical withdrawal threshold, thermal withdrawal

932 latency and electromyography (EMG) recordings; spontaneous activity in open field;

933 neonatal spinal tissue analysis with Fluoro-Jade C (FJ-C) staining and Iba1

934 immunohistochemistry; and spinal gene expression with Quantitative Real Time Polymerase

935 Chain Reaction (RT-PCR) following adult incision. In additional experiments, treatment

936 groups included intrathecal injection at the same neonatal time points of 8% DMSO vehicle

937 (nv), and neonatal incision with vehicle (nvIN) or SB203580 (nSBIN). Mechanical withdrawal

938 thresholds were compared following incision 6-7 weeks later (nv-IN vs nSBIN-IN vs nvIN-IN).

939

940 **Figure 2:** Mechanical and thermal hyperalgesia following adult re-incision is sex-941 dependently influenced by minocycline at the time of neonatal incision. **A-D**, Changes in

942 behavioral thresholds following incision are normalized as percentage change from baseline

943 (adult pre-incision). Data points are mean  $\pm$  SEM;  $n = 8-9$  animals per group analyzed by two-944 way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons. Mechanical945 withdrawal threshold (MWT) in male (**A**) and female (**B**) rats and thermal withdrawal946 latency (TWL) in male (**C**) and female (**D**) rats are plotted against time points to 21 days947 post-incision. Hyperalgesia is enhanced by prior incision (nsIN-IN vs nsIN; \*\*\* $p < 0.001$ ;948 \*\* $p < 0.01$ , \* $p < 0.05$ ) in both males and females. In male rats (**A**), neonatal minocycline

949 treatment significantly attenuated the enhanced mechanical hyperalgesia from 7 to 21 days

950 (nmIN-IN vs nsIN-IN: §§  $p < 0.01$ , §  $p > 0.05$ ). In females (**B**) mechanical hyperalgesia following  
951 re-incision was enhanced 7-21 days following incision despite neonatal minocycline (nm-IN  
952 vs nmIN-IN: ####  $p < 0.001$ , ###  $p < 0.01$ , #  $p < 0.05$ ). Differences in thermal latency in males (**C**) and  
953 females (**D**) were less marked but followed the same overall pattern with neonatal  
954 minocycline attenuating re-incision hyperalgesia in males but not females. **E,F**, Summary  
955 figures of mechanical (**E**) and thermal (**F**) hyperalgesia highlight sex-dependent differences  
956 following neonatal incision with minocycline (nmIN-IN). Within the ns-IN and nsIN-IN  
957 groups, data did not differ between males and females and are combined to minimize  
958 overlap in the figure. The impact of prior neonatal incision is highlighted by the clear  
959 separation in both the degree and duration of hyperalgesia (ns-IN vs nsIN-IN). In males,  
960 minocycline at the time of neonatal incision prevents adult re-incision hyperalgesia (♂  
961 nmIN-IN differs from nsIN-IN) and this group more closely approximates animals with no  
962 prior neonatal injury (ns-IN). In females, minocycline at the time of neonatal incision (♀  
963 nmIN-IN) has no effect; enhanced adult re-incision hyperalgesia persists and this group  
964 approximates the nsIN-IN group. **G,H**, Behavioral data are expressed as the hyperalgesic  
965 index (area over the curve to 21 days post-incision) of mechanical threshold (**G**) or thermal  
966 latency (**H**). Re-incision hyperalgesia is apparent in males and females (nsIN vs nsIN-IN:  
967 \*\*\*  $p < 0.001$ , \*\*  $p < 0.01$ ) and is reduced by neonatal minocycline in males only (nsIN-IN vs  
968 nmIN-IN: §§  $p < 0.01$ ). In females, enhanced re-incision hyperalgesia persists despite  
969 minocycline (nmIN vs nmIN-IN: ##  $p < 0.01$ ). Data points are individual animals ( $n = 8-9$  per  
970 group) with bars = mean  $\pm$  SD analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc*  
971 comparisons. **I**, Reflex sensitivity 24 hours following adult incision quantified as the area  
972 under the stimulus (hindpaw mechanical von Frey hair) versus response curve  
973 (electromyography recording biceps femoris; EMG area under curve reflex response)

974 demonstrates re-incision hyperalgesia in males and females (nsIN-IN>ns-IN \*\* $p<0.01$ ).  
975 Neonatal minocycline (nmIN-IN) reduced the re-incision response in males only (nmIN-IN <  
976 nsIN-IN § $P<0.05$ ), but enhanced hyperalgesia persisted in females (nmIN-IN > nsIN  
977 \*\* $P<0.001$ ). Data points are individual animals ( $n=9-10$  per group) and bars = mean  $\pm$  SD  
978 analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with sex and group as variables and Bonferroni *post-hoc*  
979 comparisons. Groups = ns-IN, neonatal saline plus adult incision; nm-IN, neonatal  
980 minocycline plus adult incision; nsIN-IN, neonatal saline and incision plus adult re-incision;  
981 nmIN-IN, neonatal minocycline and incision plus adult re-incision.

982

983 **Figure 3:** Incision, neonatal minocycline and sex influence expression of microglial related  
984 genes in the medial ipsilateral dorsal horn. **A**, Expression of *Emr1* increased 3 days following  
985 single adult incision (IN) in males and females. **B**, Expression of *Irf8* increased following IN.  
986 **A,B**, Data normalized to age- and sex-matched naïve rats. **C**, Expression of *Emr1* was lower  
987 in males than females following neonatal minocycline and re-incision (nmIN-IN). Male nmIN-  
988 IN vs female nmIN-IN,  $p=0.023$ . **D**, Expression of *Irf8* was lower in males than females  
989 following neonatal minocycline and re-incision (male nmIN-IN vs female nmIN-IN  $p=0.019$ ).  
990 **C,D**, nmIN-IN data normalized to saline repeat incision (nsIN-IN). **A,B,C,D**, Data points are  
991 individual units with each including 2 animals ( $n = 6-9$  units per group); Bars = mean  $\pm$  SD.  
992 \* $p<0.05$ , \*\* $p<0.01$ , \*\*\* $p<0.001$  analyzed by two-way ANOVA with sex and group as variables  
993 and Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons.

994

995 **Figure 4.** Mechanical hyperalgesia following adult re-incision is sex-dependently  
996 influenced by intrathecal SB203580 at the time of neonatal incision. **A**, Changes in  
997 mechanical withdrawal threshold following incision are normalized as percentage change

998 from baseline (adult pre-incision). Within the nv-IN and nvIN-IN groups, data did not differ  
999 between males and females, and are combined. The impact of prior neonatal incision is  
1000 highlighted by the clear separation in both the degree and duration of hyperalgesia (nv-IN vs  
1001 nvIN-IN; \*\* $p < 0.001$ ). In males, SB203580 at the time of neonatal incision attenuated the  
1002 enhanced re-incision mechanical hyperalgesia from 7 to 21 days ( $\sigma^7$  nSBIN-IN vs nvIN-IN:  $\S\S$   
1003  $p < 0.001$ ,  $\S$   $p > 0.05$ ). In females, neonatal SB203850 has no effect; enhanced adult re-incision  
1004 hyperalgesia persists 3 to 21 days following incision ( $\varphi$  nSBIN-IN vs nv-IN:  $\#\#$   $p < 0.001$ ). Data  
1005 points are mean  $\pm$  SEM;  $n=8$  animals per group; analyzed by two-way repeated measures  
1006 ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons. **B**, The mechanical hyperalgesic index (area  
1007 over the curve 0 to 21 days post-incision) identifies enhanced re-incision hyperalgesia (nv-IN  
1008 vs nvIN-IN, \*\* $p < 0.001$ ) that is reduced by neonatal SB203580 in males only (nSBIN-IN males  
1009 vs nvIN-IN,  $\S\S$   $p < 0.01$ ). In females, enhanced hyperalgesia persists (nSBIN-IN female vs nv-  
1010 IN,  $\#\#$   $p < 0.01$ ). Data points are individual animals ( $n=8$  per group) with bars = mean  $\pm$  SD  
1011 analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons.

1012

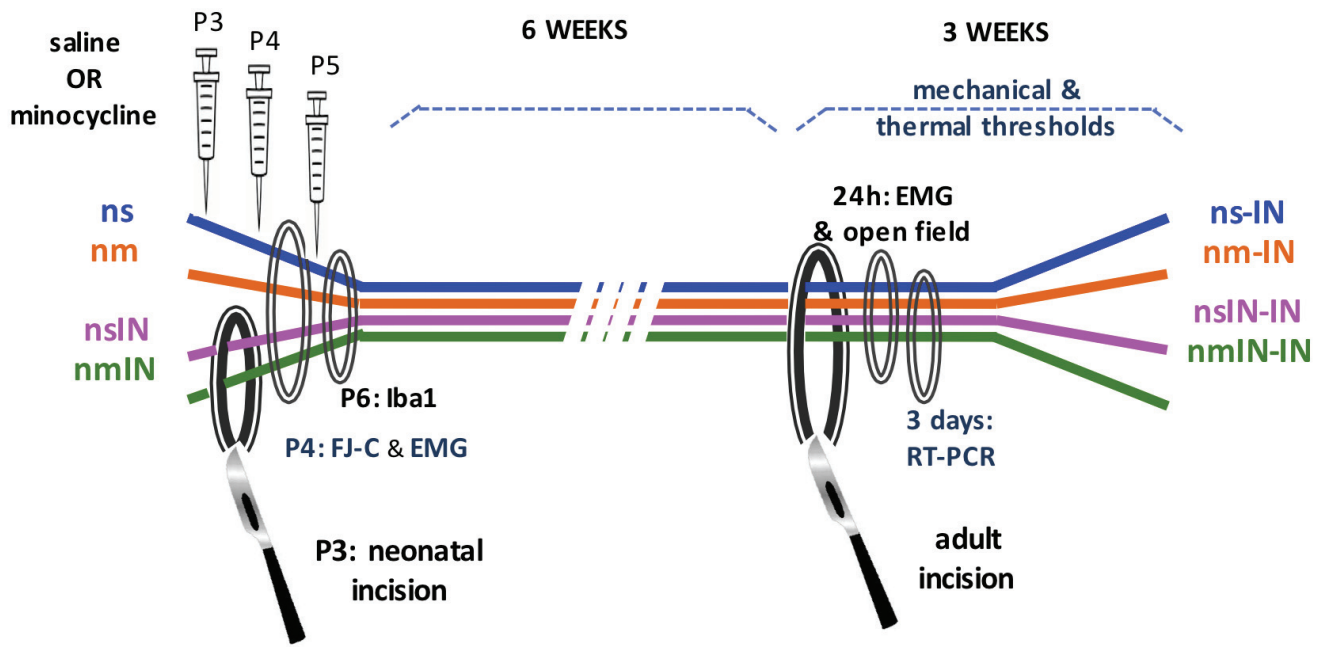
1013 **Figure 5.** Distribution of baseline hypoalgesia and re-incision hyperalgesia in adults  
1014 differs following neonatal incision. **A**, The schematic demonstrates different ipsilateral or  
1015 contralateral incision sites (nIN, hindpaw; nThi, thigh; nFor, forepaw) performed in neonatal  
1016 (postnatal day 3) animals, that are followed by incision of the left hindpaw in adulthood. **B**,  
1017 Mechanical withdrawal thresholds of the left hindpaw in young adult rats were higher than  
1018 neonatal anesthesia (na) controls following neonatal incision of the ipsilateral hindpaw  
1019 ( $p < 0.001$ ), thigh ( $p = 0.003$ ) and forepaw (nFor  $p = 0.002$ ) and contralateral hindpaw ( $p = 0.015$ ).  
1020 **C**, Thermal withdrawal latency of the left hindpaw was prolonged following prior incision at  
1021 all sites (na vs nIN  $p = 0.006$ , vs nThi  $p < 0.001$ , vs nFor  $p = 0.033$ , vs contralateral nIN  $p = 0.003$ ,

1022 vs contralateral nFor  $p=0.001$ ). **D**, Mechanical hyperalgesic index (HI) following adult incision  
1023 (area over behavioral withdrawal curve versus time to 21 days post incision) was increased  
1024 by prior ipsilateral incision. **E**, Thermal HI was similarly increased following prior ipsilateral  
1025 hindpaw or thigh incision, but not contralateral hindpaw incision. Forepaw incisions did not  
1026 significantly alter thermal HI. **B-E**, Data are presented for individual animals ( $n=8-10$  per  
1027 group), with bars = mean  $\pm$  SD; \*\*\* $p<0.001$ , \*\* $p<0.01$ , \* $p<0.05$  analyzed by one-way ANOVA  
1028 with Dunnett's comparison to neonatal anesthesia (na: **A,B**) or neonatal anesthesia plus  
1029 adult incision (na-IN: **C,D**).

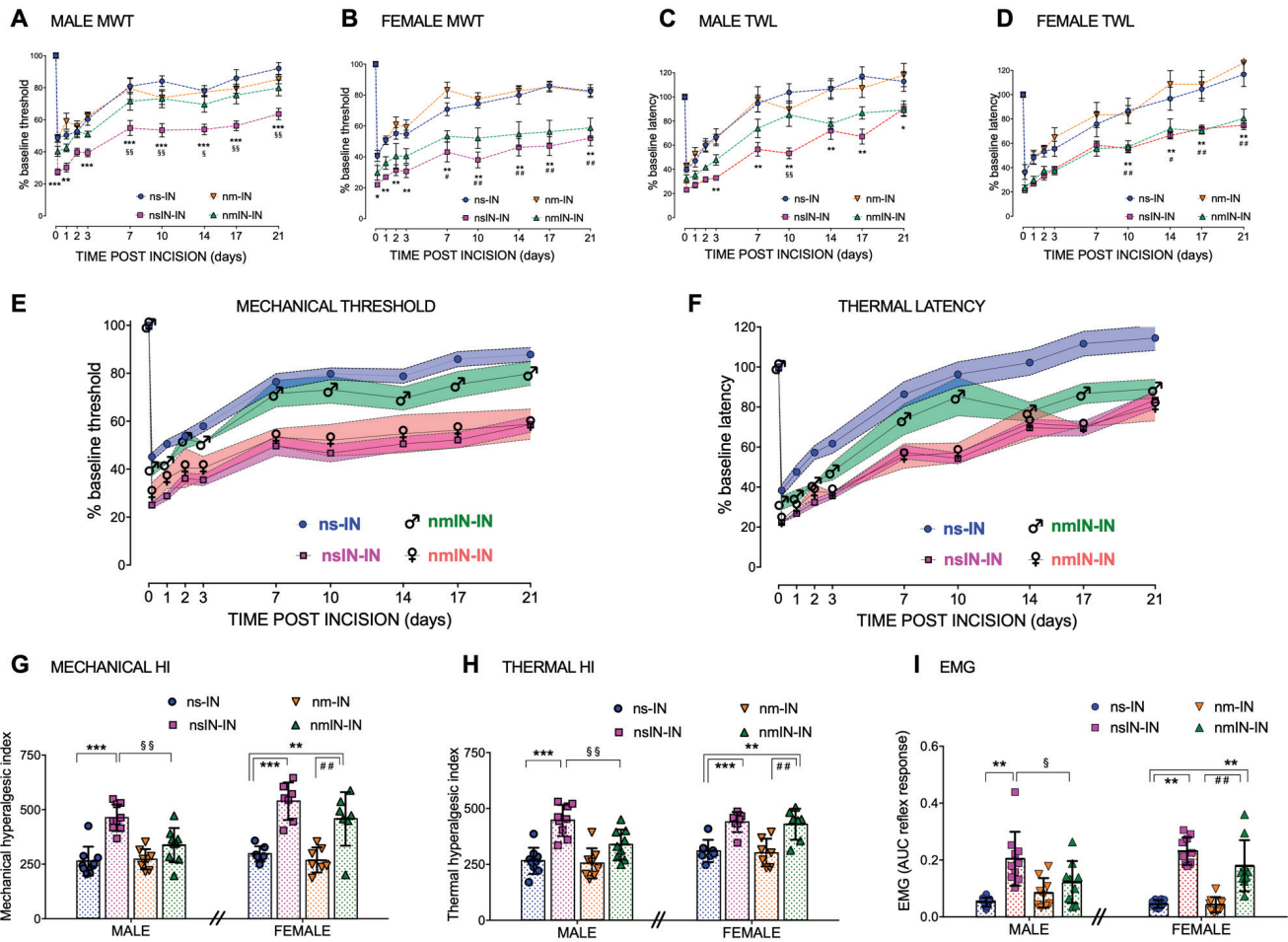
1030

1031 **Figure 6.** Acute neonatal effects of incision and/or minocycline. **A,B**, Mechanical  
1032 withdrawal threshold (MWT) is reduced 4 hours following neonatal saline and incision (nsIN)  
1033 in male (**A**) and female (**B**) rat pups compared to non-incised saline (ns) and minocycline  
1034 (nm) controls. Minocycline at the time of neonatal incision (nmIN) has no effect. Data are  
1035 means  $\pm$  SEM ( $n=6$  ns animals,  $n=10$  all other groups); ns vs nsIN: \* $p<0.05$ ; ns vs nmIN:  
1036  $^{##}p<0.01$ ,  $^{\#}p<0.05$  analyzed by 2-way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni *post-hoc*  
1037 comparisons. **C**, Twenty-four hours following P3 interventions, reflex sensitivity was  
1038 quantified as the area under the curve (AUC) of the stimulus (von Frey hair to hindpaw)  
1039 versus biceps femoris electromyography (EMG) response. Data points are individual animals  
1040 ( $n=7-9$  per group) with bars = mean  $\pm$  SD. Male nmIN > ns  $p=0.043$ , nmIN > nm  $p=0.035$ ;  
1041 Female nsIN > ns  $p=0.007$ , nmIN > ns  $p=0.008$  analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with Bonferroni  
1042 *post-hoc* comparisons. **D**, Representative low- and high-power images of the dorsal horn of  
1043 male and female rats 3 days following incision with perioperative saline (nsIN) or  
1044 minocycline (nmIN). Bar= 210 micron. **E**, Iba1+ve cells within a fixed region of interest (ROI)  
1045 in the medial superficial dorsal horn were significantly increased following incision in males

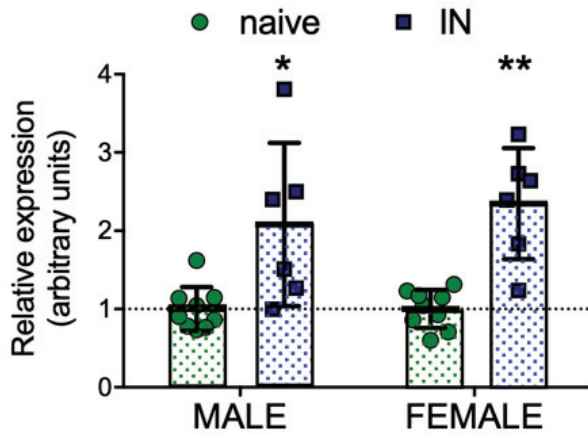
1046 (ns vs nsIN,  $p=0.007$ ), and females given saline (ns vs nsIN,  $p=0.011$ ) or minocycline (ns vs  
1047 nmIN,  $p=0.005$ ). Data points = average of at least 6 spinal L4/5 sections for each individual  
1048 animal ( $n=4$  ns or nm;  $n=10$  nsIN or nmIN). **F**, Fluoro-Jade C (FJ-C) positive cell counts in the  
1049 ipsilateral (left) lumbar cord (L4,5 segments) were increased following incision in males (ns  
1050 vs nsIN,  $p=0.008$ , ns vs nmIN  $p=0.002$ , nm vs nmIN  $p=0.024$ ) and females (nm vs nsIN  
1051  $p=0.019$ ). Data points = sum of FJ-C +ve counts from 6 L4/5 spinal cord sections per animal  
1052 ( $n = 8$  animals per group). **E,F**, Bars = mean  $\pm$  SD; \* $p<0.05$  analyzed by 2-way ANOVA with  
1053 Bonferroni *post-hoc* comparisons. Groups = ns, neonatal saline; nm, neonatal minocycline;  
1054 nsIN, neonatal saline plus incision; nmIN, neonatal minocycline plus incision.



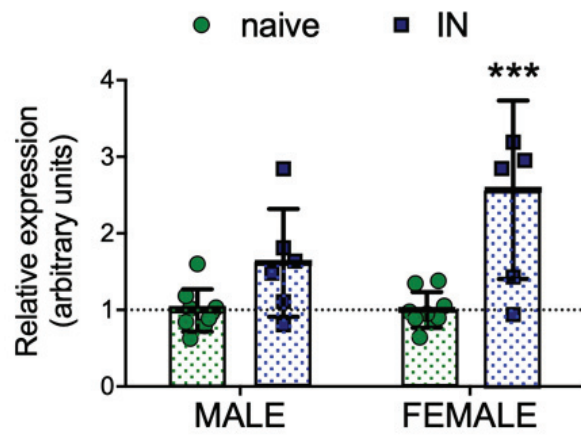




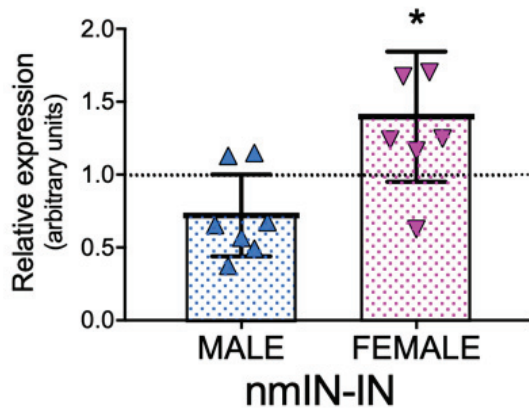
**A** *Emr1*



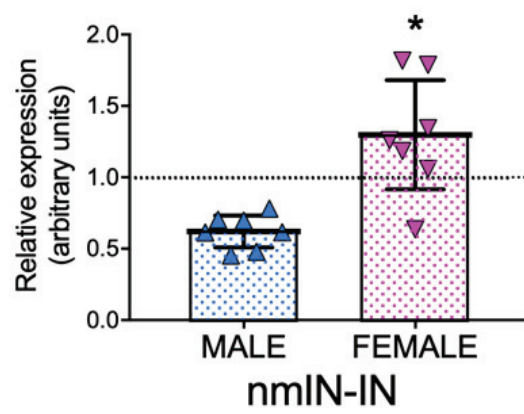
**B** *Irf8*

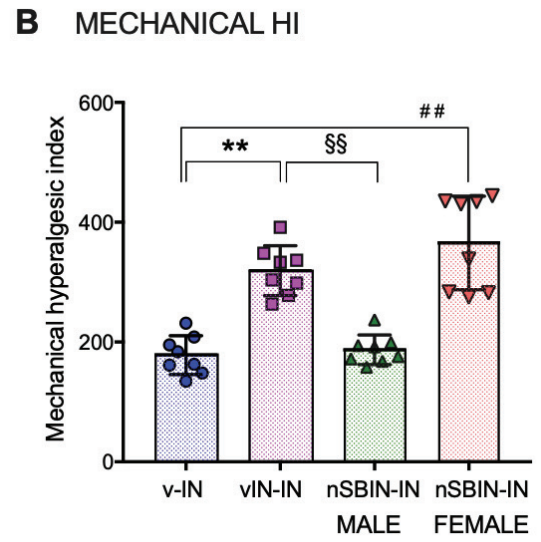
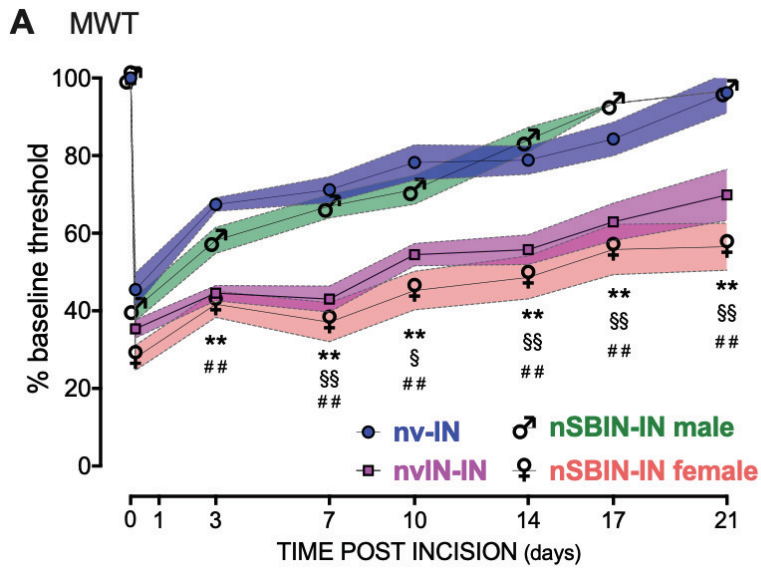


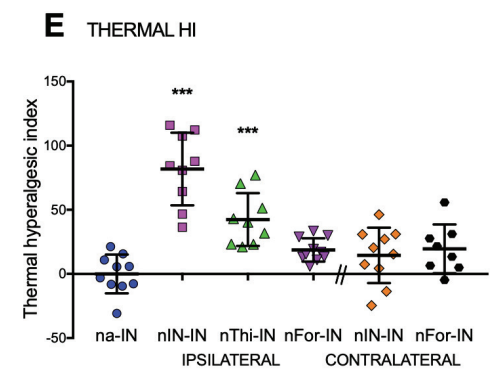
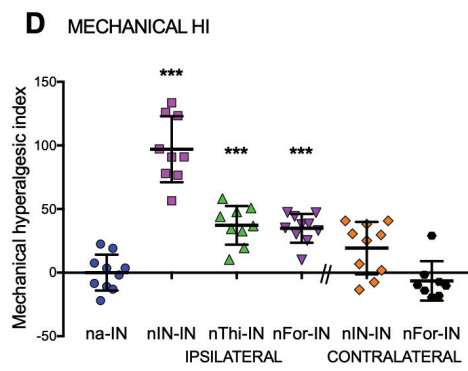
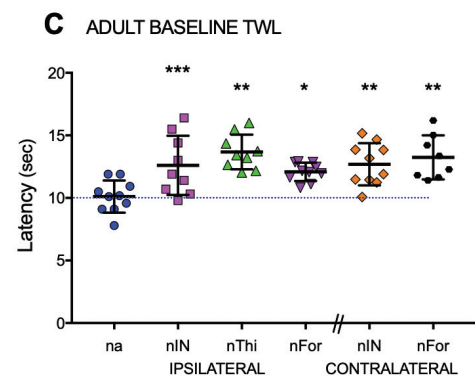
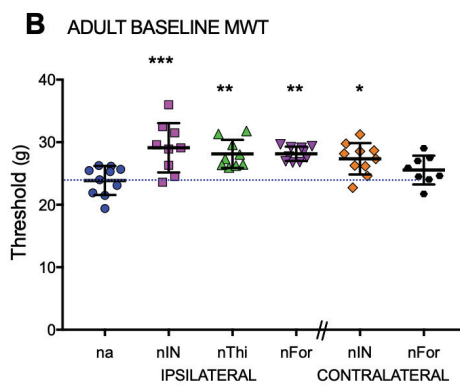
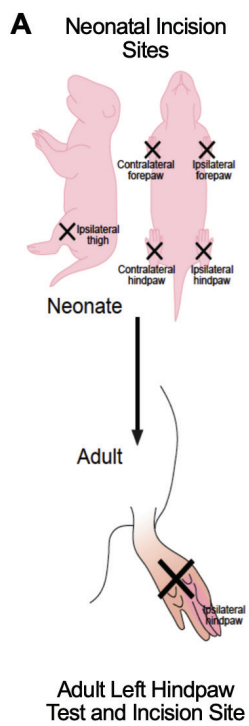
**C** *Emr1*



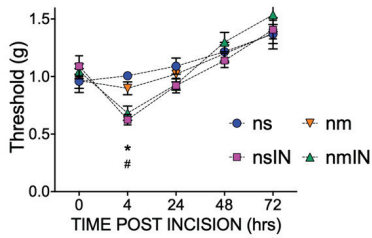
**D** *Irf8*



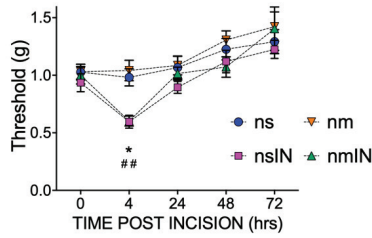




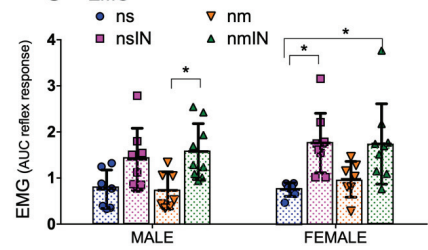
**A** MALE MWT



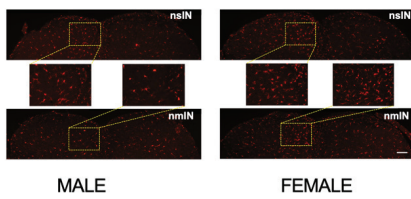
**B** FEMALE MWT



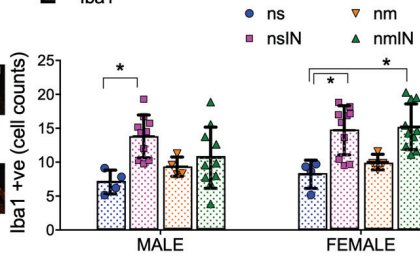
**C** EMG



**D** Iba1 IHC



**E** Iba1



**F** Fluoro-Jade C

