



alone accelerates cognitive decline during aging in conjunction with altered regulation of immune cells and microglia in the brain.

Keywords Circadian rhythm dysregulation, Activity rhythm, Barnes maze, Cognition, Adaptive immune cell, B cells, T cells, Microglia, Aging, Mice

Introduction

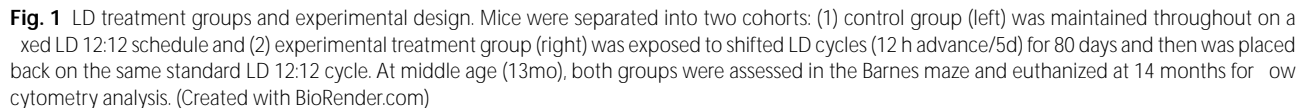
The brain is a complex organ that is highly sensitive to changes in the environment. One of the most important factors that influence brain function is the circadian rhythm, which is a 24-hour cycle of physiological processes. The circadian rhythm is regulated by a group of genes called clock genes, which are expressed in a rhythmic pattern. The clock genes are part of a feedback loop that controls the expression of other genes. The circadian rhythm is also influenced by external factors, such as light and darkness. The circadian rhythm is important for many aspects of brain function, including sleep, metabolism, and cognition. Disruption of the circadian rhythm can lead to a variety of health problems, including insomnia, depression, and cognitive decline. In this study, we investigated the effects of circadian rhythm dysregulation on cognitive decline during aging in mice. We found that mice with disrupted circadian rhythms showed accelerated cognitive decline and altered regulation of immune cells and microglia in the brain. These findings suggest that circadian rhythm dysregulation may be a key factor in the development of cognitive decline during aging.

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Materials and methods

Animals

The study was conducted in accordance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) at the University of California, San Diego. All procedures were approved by the IACUC. The mice were housed in a temperature-controlled environment (22°C) with a 12-hour light/dark cycle. The mice were divided into two groups: control and circadian rhythm dysregulation. The control group was housed in a standard 12-hour light/dark cycle. The circadian rhythm dysregulation group was housed in a constant darkness environment. The mice were monitored for weight gain and health status throughout the study.



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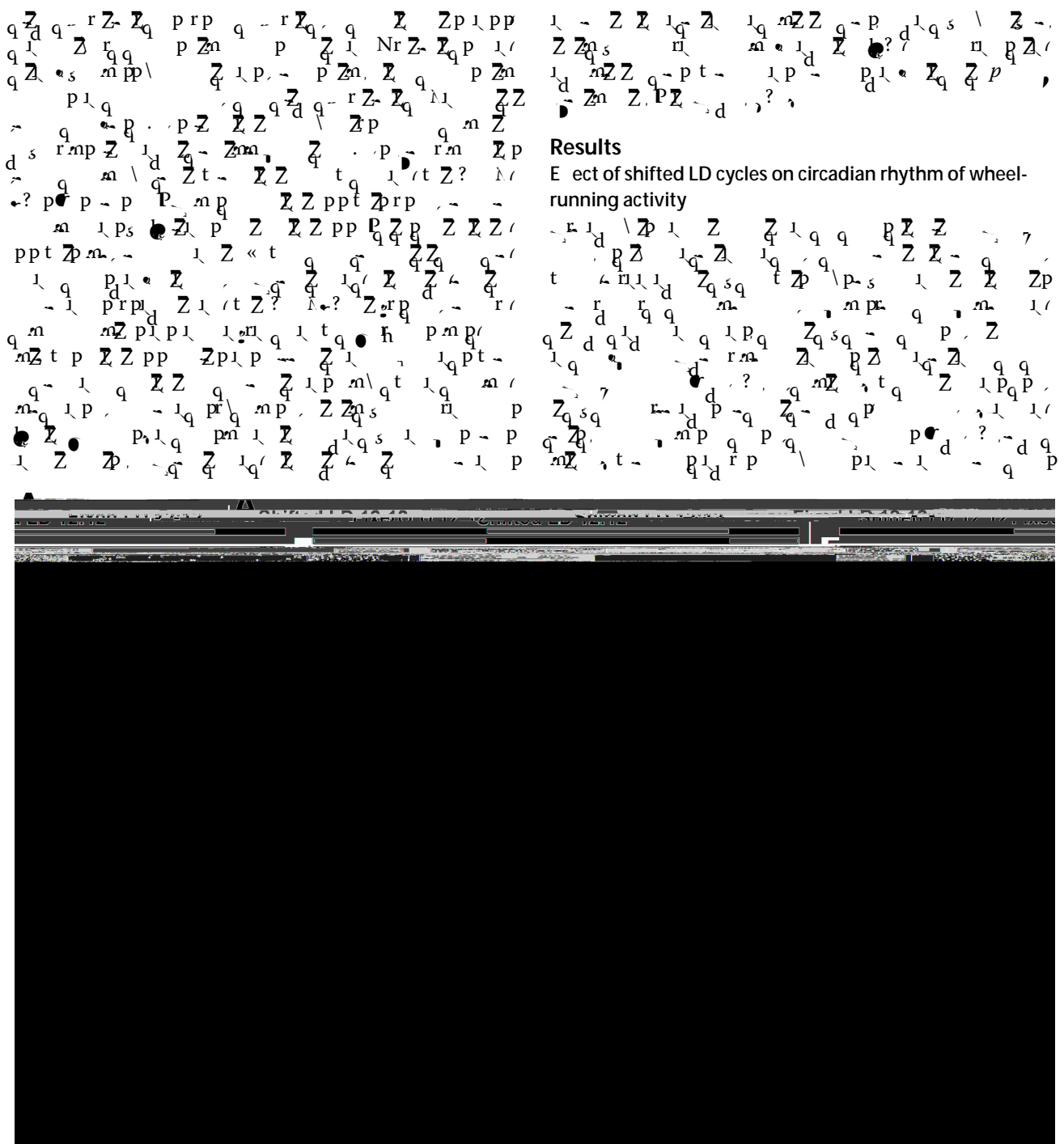
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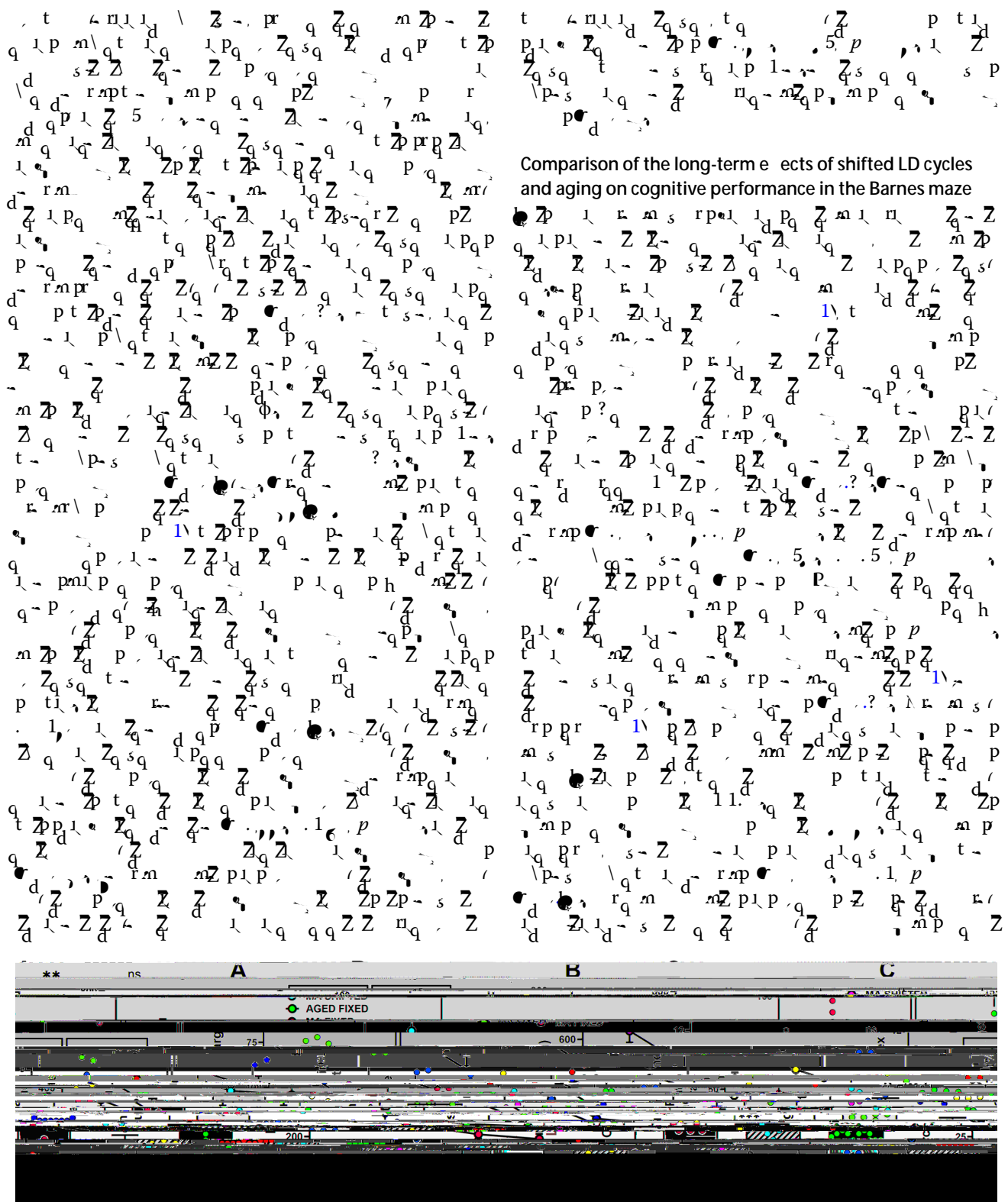
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IBA-1 immunohistochemistry and morphological analysis

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis





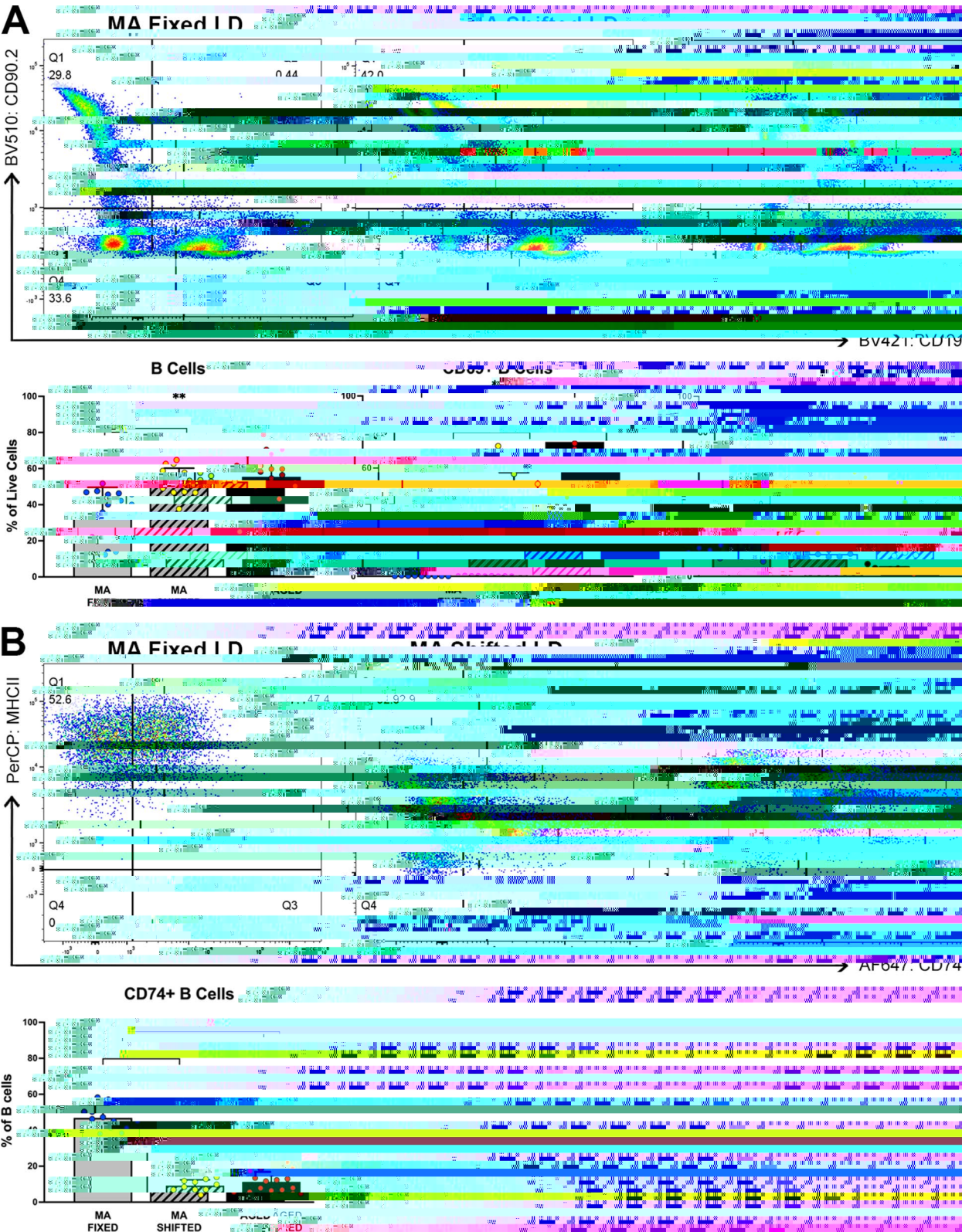
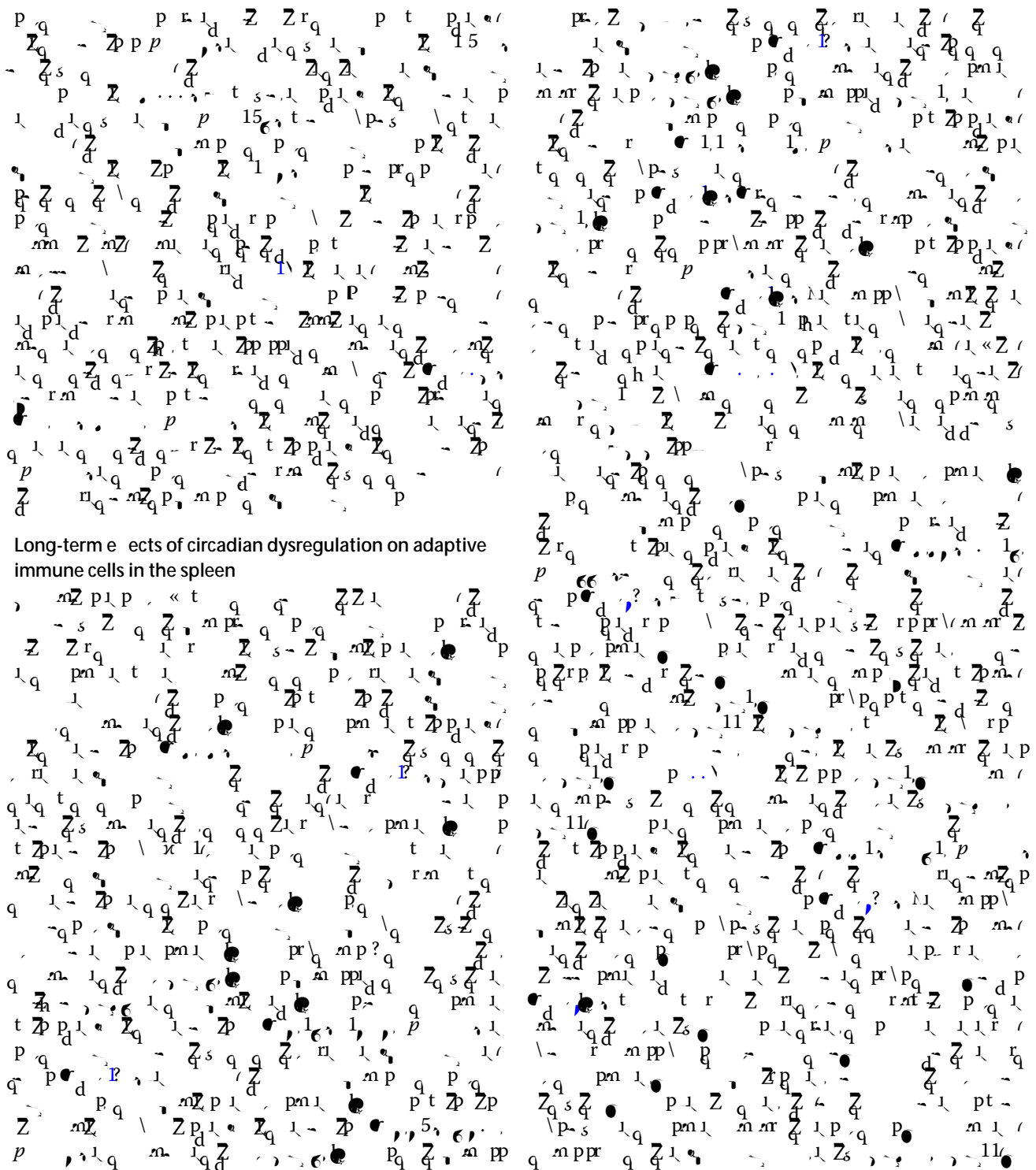
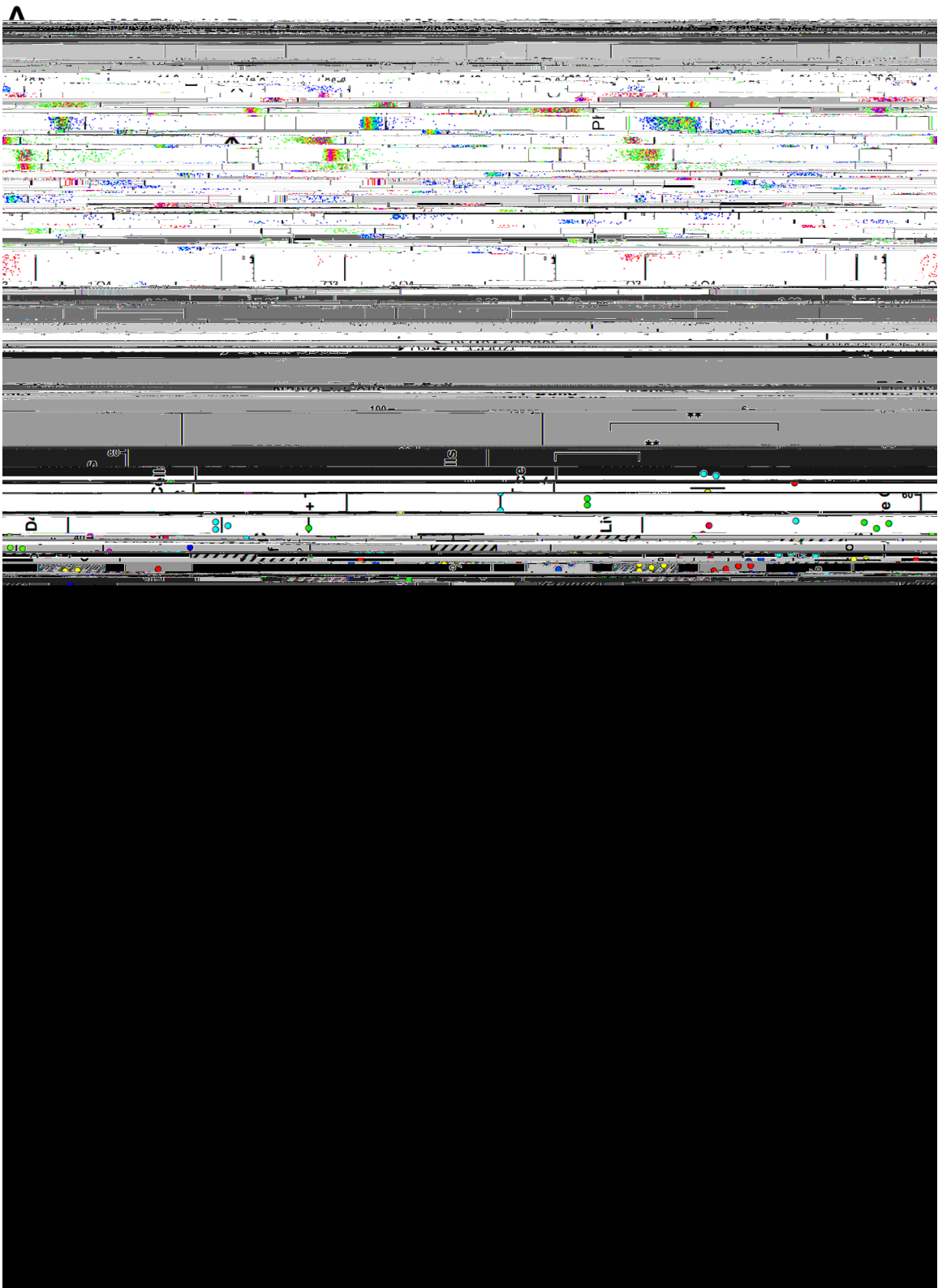


Fig. 4 (See legend on next page.)

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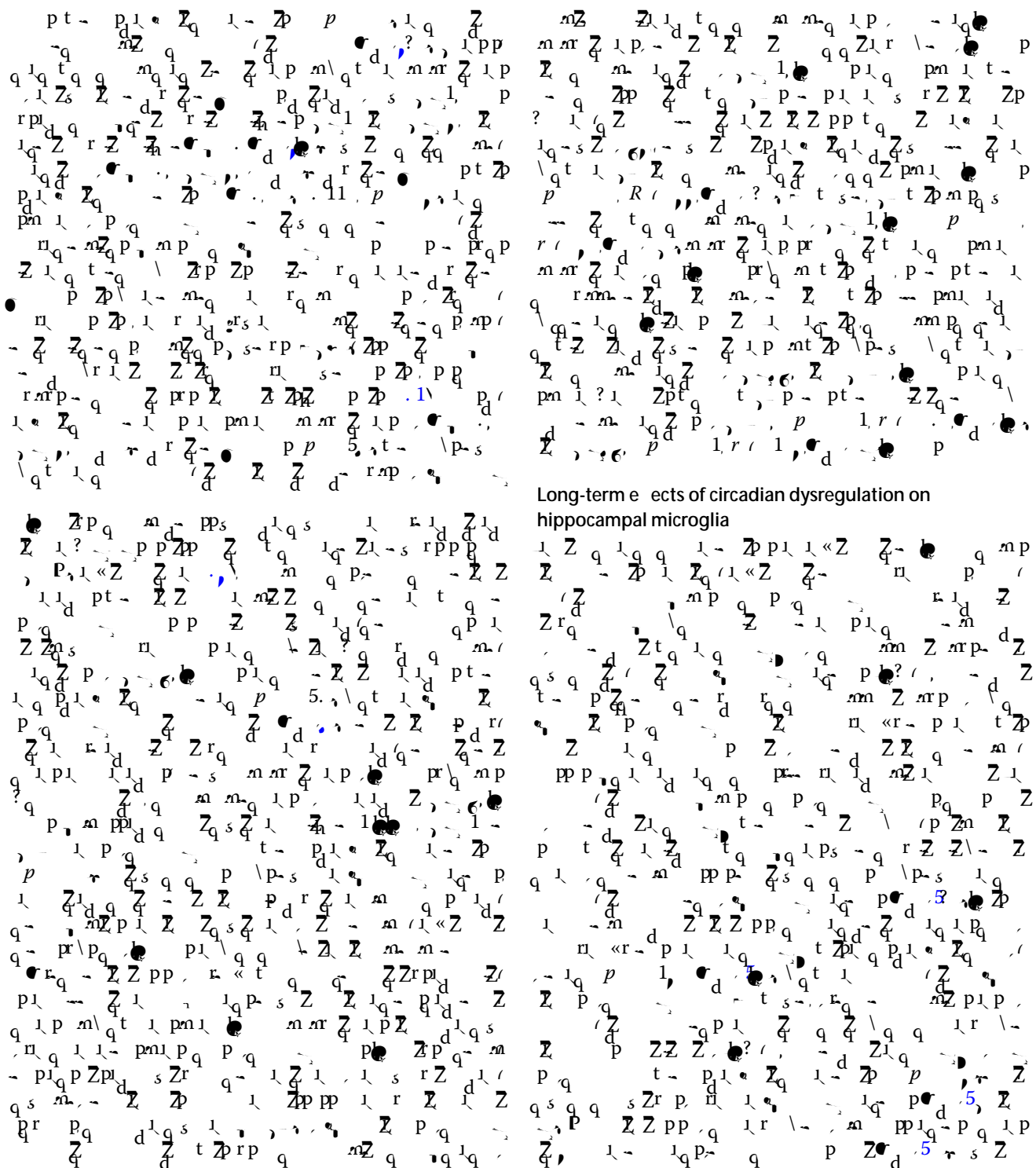
Fig. 4 Effects of experimental LD cycles and aging on splenic B cell populations. **(A)** Representative dot plots (top) using CD19 (x-axis) as a B cell marker versus CD90.2 as a T cell marker to compare populations of B cells in isolated splenocyte samples from middle-aged (MA) mice on fixed (left) and shifted (12 h/5d, center) LD 12:12 cycles, and from an aged (18–22mo) animal (right) maintained on a fixed LD cycle. Bar graphs (bottom) depict group comparisons (MA fixed, $n=12$; MA shifted, $n=13$; Aged fixed, $n=13$) of the percentage (mean \pm SEM) of B cells identified from Quadrant 3 (left), and of CD19+B cell populations expressing the activation marker CD69 (center) or cell surface CLIP (right). **(B)** Representative dot plots (top) of live B cells gated from quadrant 3 (see panel **A**) displaying MHCII (y-axis) and CD74 (x-axis) expression. Bar graph (bottom) depicts group comparisons (MA fixed, $n=9$; MA shifted, $n=10$; Aged fixed, $n=10$) of the percentage (mean \pm SEM) of CD74+B cells identified from quadrant 2 and 3 (left). (* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$; Tukey's multiple comparisons)





(See figure on previous page.)

Fig. 5 Effects of experimental LD cycles and aging on splenic T cell populations **(A)** Flow cytometry analysis using CD90.2 (y-axis from Fig. 4A, quadrant 1) as a T cell marker to compare populations of T cells in isolated splenocyte samples from middle-aged (MA) mice on fixed (left) and shifted (12 h/5d, center) LD 12:12 cycles, and from an aged (18–22mo) cohort (right) of fixed LD mice. Representative dot plots (top) depict gated CD4+ T cells exhibiting expression of CD44 (y-axis) and CD62L (x-axis). Bar graphs (bottom) depict group comparisons (MA fixed, $n = 10$; MA shifted, $n = 11–13$; Aged fixed, $n = 13–14$) of the percentage (mean \pm SEM) of T cells (left) identified in quadrant 1 of Fig. 4A and of CD4+ naive T cells (right) that were gated from quadrant 3 as CD62L+/CD44-. **(B)** Representative dot plots (top) of CD4+ T cells displaying expression of FoxP3 (y-axis) and CD25 (x-axis). FoxP3+ and CD25+ (high) expression was used to gate regulatory T cells, as shown in the outlined box. Bar graph (bottom) depicts group comparisons (MA fixed, $n = 8$; MA shifted, $n = 10$; Aged fixed, $n = 3$) of FoxP3+ and CD25+ regulatory T cells. (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; Tukey's multiple comparisons)



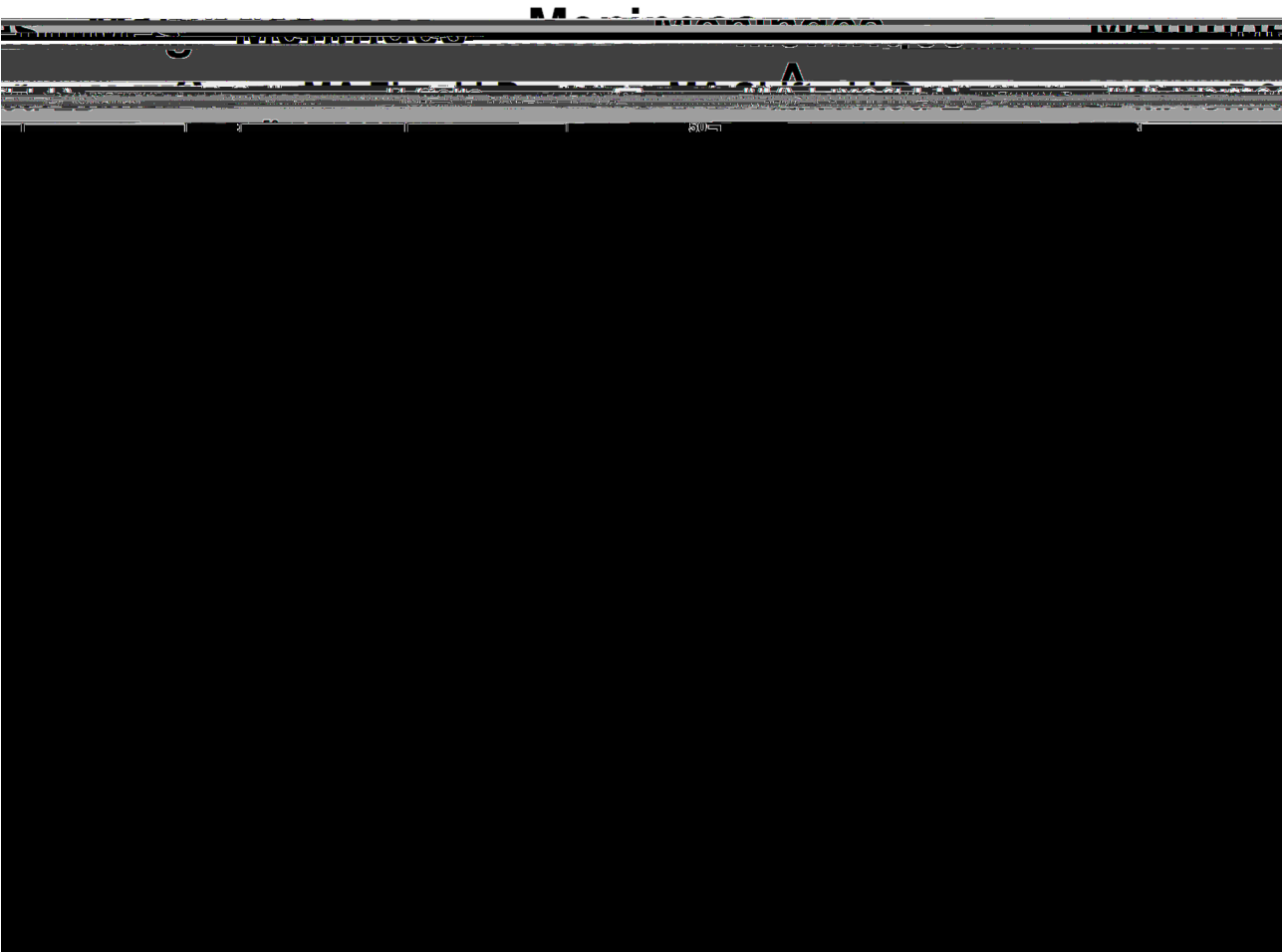


Fig. 6 Effects of experimental LD cycles on meningeal B cell populations. **(A)** Representative dot plots using CD19 (x-axis) as a B cell marker versus CD90.2 as a T cell marker to compare populations of B cells in isolated meningeal samples from mice on fixed (left) and shifted (12 h/5d, right) LD 12:12 cycles. Bar graph depicts group comparisons of the percentage (mean \pm SEM) of CD19+ B cells (right). **(B)** Bar graphs depict group comparisons (MA fixed, $n = 9\text{--}10$; MA shifted, $n = 16$) of the percentage (mean \pm SEM) of CD19+ B cell subsets expressing 41BBL (left), CLIP (center), or CD74 (right) as indicated. (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; Mann-Whitney test)

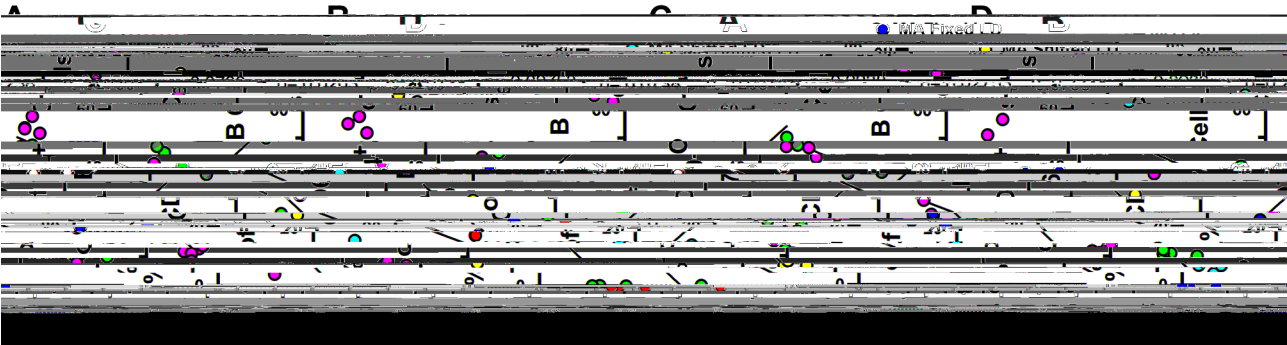


Fig. 7 Relationship between splenic B cell populations and cognitive performance in Barnes maze for middle-aged (MA) mice that were exposed to fixed or shifted LD cycles. Pearson correlation coefficients comparing cognitive index with the percentage of: **(A)** B cells, **(B)** CLIP + B cells, **(C)** CD74 + cells and **(D)** CD69 + cells in the middle-aged cohorts of fixed ($n = 5$) and shifted ($n = 6\text{--}8$) LD mice. Circles represent individual data values for each mouse. Lines in each graph denote simple linear regression for the data set with corresponding p values

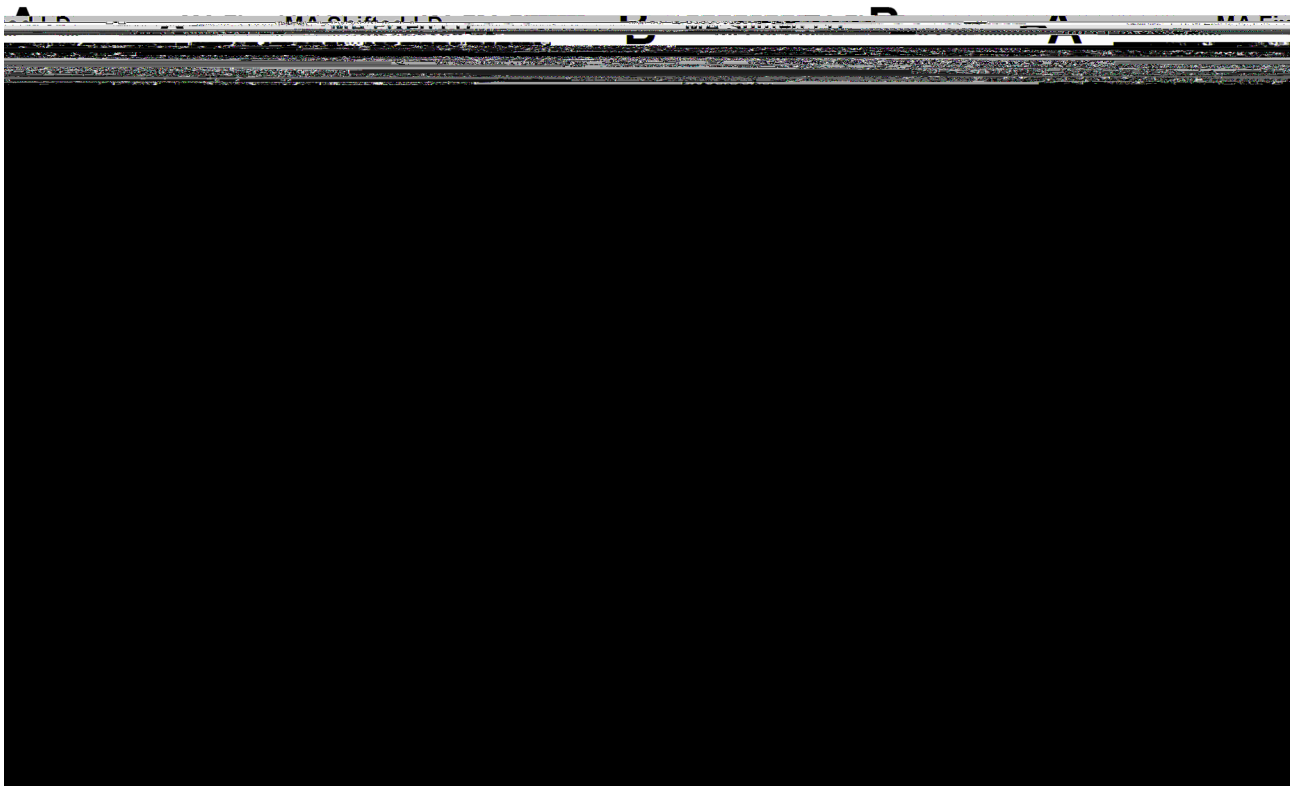


Fig. 8 Effects of experimental LD cycles on the morphology of hippocampal microglia. **(A)** High-magnification (60X) confocal images of IBA1+ hippocampal microglia located within the dentate gyrus (DG) of representative fixed (left) and shifted (right) LD mice at middle age. Bar graphs depict quantitative analysis of the morphological profiles of IBA-1+ microglia in the DG (mean \pm SEM) from regions of interest (ROI) in fixed ($n=5$) and shifted ($n=5$) LD mice with regard to: **(B)** integrated fluorescent intensity, **(C)** number of immunopositive cells, **(D)** soma area, and **(E)** the number of primary immunopositive processes with Sholl intersections (at 5 μ m intervals of the distance from the microglial soma). For all morphological analyses, three representative hemibrain sections through the hippocampus were analyzed from each animal and three randomized FOV within the dentate gyrus (DG) of the hippocampus were captured in each section. In turn, the data points represent individual IBA-1+ microglia (approximately 10–20/FOV) in the DG that were selected as ROI. (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; Mann-Whitney test)

Discussion

The present study investigated the effects of experimental LD cycles on the morphology of hippocampal microglia. We found that shifted LD mice showed a significant increase in the number of immunopositive cells, soma area, and the number of primary immunopositive processes with Sholl intersections compared to fixed LD mice. These findings suggest that shifted LD cycles may induce microglial activation and morphological changes in the hippocampus. The quantitative analysis of the morphological profiles of IBA-1+ microglia in the DG (mean \pm SEM) from regions of interest (ROI) in fixed ($n=5$) and shifted ($n=5$) LD mice with regard to: (B) integrated fluorescent intensity, (C) number of immunopositive cells, (D) soma area, and (E) the number of primary immunopositive processes with Sholl intersections (at 5 μ m intervals of the distance from the microglial soma). For all morphological analyses, three representative hemibrain sections through the hippocampus were analyzed from each animal and three randomized FOV within the dentate gyrus (DG) of the hippocampus were captured in each section. In turn, the data points represent individual IBA-1+ microglia (approximately 10–20/FOV) in the DG that were selected as ROI. (* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$; Mann-Whitney test)

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Author contributions

Karienn A. de Souza: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. Morgan Jackson: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. Justin Chen: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Project administration. Jocelin Reyes: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. Judy Muyad: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Project administration. Emma Tran: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Project administration. William Jackson: Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation, Project administration. M. Karen Newell-Rogers: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. David J. Earnest: Conceptualization, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Writing - Review & Editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition.

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Data availability

No datasets were generated or analysed during the current study.

Declarations

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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