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³ Selective contributions of neuronal and astroglial interleukin-1 receptor 1 to the regulation of sleep

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ABSTRACT

Interactions between sleep and immune function are bidirectional. Although the mechanisms that govern 31 these interactions are not fully elucidated, the pro-inflammatory cytokine, interleukin-1 β (IL-1), is a 32
known regulator of sleep and mediator of immune responses. To further clarify the underlying substrates 33 known regulator of sleep and mediator of immune responses. To further clarify the underlying substrates 33 of sleep and immune interactions, we engineered two transgenic mouse lines that express interleukin-1 34
receptor 1 (IL1R1) only in the central nervous system (CNS) and selectively on neurons (NSE-IL1R1) or 35 receptor 1 (IL1R1) only in the central nervous system (CNS) and selectively on neurons (NSE-IL1R1) or astrocytes (GFAP-IL1R1). During spontaneous sleep, compared to wild type (WT) animals, NSE-IL1R1 36 and GFAP-IL1R1 mice have more rapid eye movement sleep (REMS) that is characterized by reduced 37 theta power in the electroencephalogram (EEG) spectra. The non-REM sleep (NREMS) EEG of each of 38 the IL1R1 transgenic mouse strains also is characterized by enhanced power in the delta frequency band. 39 In response to 6 h of sleep deprivation, sleep of both IL1R1 transgenic mouse strains is more consolidated 40 than that of WT animals. Additionally, the NREMS EEG of NSE-IL1R1 mice contains less delta power after 41 sleep deprivation, suggesting astroglial IL1R1 activity may modulate sleep homeostasis. 42 Intracerebroventricular injection of IL-1 fails to alter sleep or brain temperature of NSE-IL1R1 or 43 GFAP-IL1R1 mice. These data suggest that selective IL1R1 expression on neurons or on astrocytes is 44 not sufficient for centrally-administered IL-1 to induce sleep or fever. Lack of sleep and febrile responses 45 to IL-1 in these IL1R1 transgenic mouse strains may be due to their inability to produce IL-6 in brain. 46 Overall, these studies demonstrate, through the use of novel transgenic mice, that IL1R1 on neurons 47 and astrocytes differentially mediates aspects of sleep under physiological conditions and in response 48 to central IL-1 administration. 49

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1. Introduction

 The reciprocal interactions between sleep and immune function are extensively studied. We now know that insufficient sleep alters immune function and immune activation alters sleep [reviewed by ([Imeri and Opp, 2009; Krueger et al., 2011; Besedovsky et al.,](#page--1-0) 2012]. Interleukin-1 β (IL-1) is a well-characterized pro-in- flammatory cytokine that plays critical roles in host defense and mediates, in part, sleep and immune responses. Although IL-1 is commonly associated with pathological states, this cytokine also is involved in the regulation of physiological sleep [reviewed ([Imeri and Opp, 2009; Krueger et al., 2011](#page--1-0))].

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Sleep is composed of two distinct phases that differ from each 65 other and from wakefulness in electroencephalogram (EEG) char- 66 acteristics, autonomic tone, and other physiological processes. 67 Pre-clinical sleep studies generally categorize these sleep phases 68 as non-rapid eye movement sleep (NREMS) and rapid eye move- 69 ment sleep (REMS). Laboratory rodents, including mice, are 70 polyphasic sleepers, with sleep distributed during the light and 71 the dark periods of the light:dark cycle. However, the majority of 72 laboratory rodent sleep occurs during the light period. It is during 73 the sleep period that IL-1 concentrations peak, whereas waking 74 hours coincide with the diurnal nadir of IL-1 [\(Moldofsky et al.,](#page--1-0) 75 [1986; Lue et al., 1987; Taishi et al., 1998\)](#page--1-0). IL-1 also exerts effects 76 on known sleep circuitry ([Breder et al., 1988; Alam et al., 2004;](#page--1-0) 77 Brambilla et al., 2007; [Brambilla et al., 2010\)](#page--1-0). Central administra- 78 tion of IL-1 increases NREMS and suppresses REMS [\(Opp et al.,](#page--1-0) 79 [1991; Olivadoti and Opp, 2008](#page--1-0)). IL-1-induced alterations of 80 NREMS and REMS are attenuated by pharmacological and genetic 81

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82 manipulations of IL-1 activity [\(Opp and Krueger, 1991; Fang et al.,](#page--1-0) [1998; Imeri and Opp, 2009\)](#page--1-0). IL-1 binds to IL-1 receptor 1 (IL1R1) present on neurons and astrocytes [\(Smith et al., 2009\)](#page--1-0), and these cells also produce IL-1 ([Bartfai and Schultzberg, 1993; Baumann](#page--1-0) [et al., 1993; Dong and Benveniste, 2001](#page--1-0)). Indeed, mice lacking IL1R1 spend less time in NREMS under baseline conditions, and administration of IL-1 does not alter sleep in these animals ([Fang](#page--1-0) [et al., 1998\)](#page--1-0).

 Much of our current understanding of sleep and immune func- tion is based on neuron-centric studies. However, recent research implicates astrocytes as critical, active mediators of central ner- vous system (CNS) processes. Astrocytes are the most abundant glial cell type in the brain, are responsible for homeostasis of neu- ronal function, express receptors for immunomodulators, respond rapidly to inflammation, and have a newly demonstrated role in sleep-wake processes ([Aschner, 1998; Farina et al., 2007; Halassa](#page--1-0) [et al., 2009; Frank, 2011; Ingiosi et al., 2013](#page--1-0)). These observations suggest astrocytes are well-positioned to contribute to brain immunity and to participate in the regulation of sleep. However, *in vivo* investigations of astroglial contributions to CNS-mediated processes and behaviors are generally lacking. Consequently, much remains to be elucidated regarding the role of astrocytes in the regulation of sleep.

 To further our understanding of cellular contributions to sleep and immune interactions in the brain, we engineered two transgenic mouse lines that express IL1R1 only in the CNS and selectively on neurons or astrocytes. Although these mice offer a unique opportunity to dissect neuronal and astroglial roles in vari- ety of processes, behaviors, and pathologies, this study focuses on 111 sleep.

112 2. Methods

113 2.1. Engineering of transgenic mice

114 All protocols for creating transgenic mice were approved by the 115 University of Michigan Committee on Use and Care of Animals and 116 the University of Washington Institutional Animal Care and Use 117 Committee. Full length *Il1r1* cDNA was generated by RT-PCR (pri-118 mers listed in Table 1) from a total RNA sample extracted from 119 mouse liver using Trizol reagent. The NSE-IL1R1 transgene was 120 constructed by excising the rat neuron-specific enolase (NSE) pro-121 moter [described by [\(Forss-Petter et al., 1990; Mucke et al., 1994;](#page--1-0) 122 [Race et al., 1995; Kearney et al., 2001\)](#page--1-0); from Dr. Miriam Meisler, 123 University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI] using SalI and HindIII 124 digests and ligating with the pBluescriptII SK vector $(-)$. *Il1r1*

cDNA was inserted into the NSE-containing vector at the EcoRV 125 site. The transgene fragment for microinjection was excised with 126 SalI and SacII digests. 127

The GFAP-IL1R1 transgene was built in the pGfa2-cLac plasmid 128 containing the promoter for human glial fibrillary acidic protein 129 (GFAP) [described by [\(Brenner et al., 1994\)](#page--1-0); from Dr. Michael 130 Brenner, University of Alabama, Birmingham, AL]. The lacZ gene 131 was excised via digestion with BamHI. BgIII ends were added to 132 Il1r1 cDNA that was subsequently cloned into the BamHI site of 133 the pGfa2 plasmid. The transgene fragment for microinjection 134 was excised with BgIII digest. The same state of the state of the

Two independent strains were generated for each transgene. 136 Two NSE-IL1R1 lines and one GFAP-IL1R1 line were generated by 137 the Transgenic Animal Model Core at the University of Michigan 138 via pronuclear injection of the transgenes into (C57BL/6 X SJL)F2 139 oocytes. The second GFAP-IL1R1 strain was generated by the 140 Preclinical Research and Transgenic Services core at the 141 University of Washington via pronuclear injection of the transgene 142 into (B6C3 X C57BL/6) oocytes. Tg(NSE-IL1R1) mice were identified 143 via PCR of tail snip DNA which produced a 433 bp product. PCR of 144 Tg(GFAP-IL1R1) DNA yielded a 489 bp product. Primer pairs 145 (Table 1) were complementary to the promoters and *Il1r1* cDNA 146 sequences. Initial phenotyping results were the same for both 147 founder lines for each transgene indicating that the observed 148 phenotypes were caused by the transgene itself and not by the 149 integration sites. Results presented in this study are from only 150 one founder line per transgene. The same state of the state of the

Transgenic founders were bred with mice null for *Il1r1* and *Tnfr1* 152 genes (B6;129S-Tnfrsf1a^{tm1Imx} Il1r1^{tm1Imx}/J, stock #003244, The 153 Jackson Laboratory, Bar Harbor, ME). *Il1r1^{-/-}Tnfr1^{-/-} mice were* 154 used for breeding because transgenic TNFR1 counterparts were 155 simultaneously engineered with the transgenic IL1R1 mice. To 156 generate transgenic IL1R1 strains null for the endogenous Il1r1 gene 157 and wild type for the endogenous Tnfr1 gene, transgenic progeny of 158 the founders were crossed with non-transgenic littermates 159 $(Tg(IL1R1)ll1r1^{+/-}Tnfr1^{+/-} \times ll1r1^{+/-}Tnfr1^{+/-})$. Non-transgenic pro- 160 geny carrying endogenous Il1r1 and Tnfr1 (Il1r1^{+/+}Tnfr1^{+/+}) were 161 used as wild type (WT) controls. Mice were genotyped for wild type 162 and mutant alleles of *Il1r1* and *Tnfr1* using custom primers 163 (Table 1). 164

To determine cell-type specificity for the IL1R1 transgene, mice 165 were lightly anesthetized, euthanized via bilateral pneumothorax, 166 and transcardially perfused with 10% buffered formalin. Brains were 167 paraffin embedded and cut sagittally on a sliding microtome in 168 10μ M sections. Identification of IL1R1 in NSE-IL1R1 brain tissue 169 was achieved via in situ hybridization using a digoxigenin (DIG)-
170 labeled probe generated from murine IL1R1 cDNA using the 171 AmpliScribe T7-Flash Transcription Kit (ASB71110, Epicentre, 172 Madison, WI). After in situ hybridization, tissue was blocked in 10% 173 normal donkey serum (017-000-121, Jackson ImmunoResearch, 174 Inc., West Grove, PA) and incubated with anti-DIG made in sheep 175 (11333089001, Roche Nutley, NJ) for 1 h. DIG was then visualized 176 via 1 h incubation with Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-sheep 177 (A-11015) secondary antibody. Neurons were identified by sequen- 178 tial 1 h incubations with the primary antibody mouse anti-NeuN 179 (MAB377, EMD Millipore, Temecula, CA) and the secondary anti- 180 body Alexa Fluor 555 donkey anti-mouse (A-31570). All antibody 181 solutions were made in 1% normal donkey serum at a concentration 182 of 1:500. Secondary antibodies were purchased from Life 183 Technologies (Carlsbad, CA). 184

IL1R1 in GFAP-IL1R1 brain sections was detected with sequen- 185 tial 1 h incubations with the primary antibody rabbit anti-IL1R1 186 (sc-25775, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc., Dallas, TX) and sec- 187 ondary antibody Alexa Fluor 555 donkey anti-rabbit (A-31572, 188 Life Technologies). Astrocytes were identified via sequential treat- 189 ment with the primary antibody anti-GFAP made in chicken (GFAP, 190)

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