Title (50-word maximum): Repeated administration of 2-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin

(HPβCD) attenuates the chronic inflammatory response to experimental stroke

Abbreviated Title (50-character maximum): HPβCD attenuates chronic inflammation

after stroke

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# of Figures: 14

# of Tables: 1 (No multimedia or 3D models in this manuscript)

# of Words in Abstract: 244

# of Words in Introduction: 586

# of Words in Discussion: 1296

Conflict of Interest Statement: The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Acknowledgments: This work was funded by NINDS R01NS096091 (KPD), NIA

R01AG063808 (TVN), NIA R21AG062781 (TVN), United States Department of

Veterans Affairs I01RX003224 (RGS), NIA T32AG058503-01A1 (DAB), NINDS

F31NS105455 (JCZ), and the Fondation Leducq Transatlantic Network of Excellence

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Stroke-IMPaCT (KPD). We thank Dr. Oswald Quehenberger (UCSD Lipidomics Core),

Branden Lau, and Jonathan Galina-Mehlman (University of Arizona Genetics Core) for

their technical assistance with lipidomics and transcriptomics analyses. We also thank

Dr. Julia Slone-Murphy (NeuroEdit Ltd) for editing a draft of this manuscript.

Abstract (250 words maximum, including citations)

Globally, more than 67 million people are living with the effects of ischemic stroke.

Importantly, many stroke survivors develop a chronic inflammatory response that

contributes to cognitive impairment, a common and debilitating sequela of stroke that is

insufficiently studied and currently untreatable. 2-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin (HPβCD)

is an FDA-approved cyclic oligosaccharide developed to solubilize and entrap lipophilic

substances. The goal of the present study was to determine whether the repeated

administration of HPβCD curtails the chronic inflammatory response to stroke by

reducing lipid accumulation within stroke infarcts in a distal middle cerebral artery

occlusion + hypoxia (DH) mouse model of stroke. We subcutaneously injected young

adult and aged mice with vehicle or HPβCD three times per week for up to 7 weeks

following stroke and evaluated them using immunostaining, RNA sequencing,

lipidomics, and behavioral analyses. Chronic stroke infarct and peri-infarct regions of

HPβCD-treated mice were characterized by an upregulation of genes involved in lipid

metabolism and a downregulation of genes involved in innate and adaptive immunity,

reactive astrogliosis, and chemotaxis. Correspondingly, HPβCD reduced the

accumulation of lipid droplets, T lymphocytes, B lymphocytes, and plasma cells in

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stroke infarcts. Repeated administration of HPβCD also improved recovery through the

preservation of neurons in the striatum and thalamus, induction of c-Fos in hippocampal

regions, protection of hippocampal-dependent spatial working memory, and reduction in

impulsivity at 7 weeks after stroke. These results indicate that systemic HPβCD

treatment following stroke attenuates chronic inflammation and secondary

neurodegeneration and prevents post-stroke cognitive decline.

Significance Statement (120 words maximum)

Dementia is a common and debilitating sequela of stroke. Currently, there are no

available treatments for post-stroke dementia. Our study shows that lipid metabolism is

disrupted in chronic stroke infarcts, which causes an accumulation of uncleared lipid

debris and correlates with a chronic inflammatory response. To our knowledge, these

substantial changes in lipid homeostasis have not been previously recognized or

investigated in the context of ischemic stroke. We also provide a proof of principle that

solubilizing and entrapping lipophilic substances using HPβCD could be an effective

strategy for treating chronic inflammation after stroke and other CNS injuries. We

propose that using HPβCD for the prevention of post-stroke dementia could improve

recovery and increase long-term quality of life in stroke sufferers.

Introduction (650 words maximum, including citations)

Ischemic stroke is a leading cause of death and disability worldwide (Virani et al., 2020).

Of stroke survivors, approximately one-third develop a delayed and progressive form of

cognitive decline (Black, 2011); however, there are currently no targeted

pharmacological interventions to prevent chronic neurodegeneration after stroke. With

an aging global population, there is an increasing need for novel and effective

treatments intended to resolve the chronic inflammatory response and promote

functional recovery after stroke.

We previously reported, in a mouse model of post-stroke dementia, that delayed

cognitive impairment is caused by a chronic inflammatory response to stroke that is

mediated in part by B lymphocytes (Doyle et al., 2015; Doyle, Fathali, Siddiqui, &

Buckwalter, 2012). In addition to the progressive infiltration of B lymphocytes, T

lymphocytes, and IgA+ plasma cells into the infarct in the weeks following stroke, the

chronic inflammatory response is also characterized by the production of neurotoxic

molecules such as antibodies, cytokines, and degradative enzymes (Zbesko et al.,

2020; Zbesko et al., 2018). These neurotoxic molecules permeate the glial scar and

promote chronic inflammation and secondary neurodegeneration in the surrounding

parenchyma (Zbesko et al., 2018). Notably, the chronic inflammatory response to stroke

has a similar cellular and molecular profile to atherosclerosis. Chronic stroke infarcts

contain foamy macrophages, lipid droplets, and intracellular and extracellular

cholesterol crystals (Chung et al., 2018). These distinguishing characteristics are

caused by overwhelmed lipid processing systems within macrophages, resulting in the

recruitment of adaptive immune cells and the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines

and degradative enzymes.

Lipids are principal structural components of the myelin sheath and are major

constituents of the human brain (Vance, 2012). Therefore, it is likely that foamy

macrophages and cholesterol crystals form in infarcts following ischemic stroke

because lipid debris derived from the breakdown of myelin and other cell membranes

overwhelms the processing capacity of infiltrating macrophages and resident microglia

(Cantuti-Castelvetri et al., 2018). 2-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin (HPβCD) is a U.S.

Food and Drug Administration-approved compound that entraps lipids and promotes

liver X receptor-mediated transcriptional reprogramming in macrophages to improve

cholesterol efflux and incite anti-inflammatory mechanisms (Zimmer et al., 2016).

Importantly, HPβCD reduces lipid levels in the lesion following spinal cord injury (Mar et

al., 2016) and prevents lipid overload within phagocytic cells in atherosclerosis and

Niemann–Pick disease type C (Taylor et al., 2012; Matsuo et al., 2013; Zimmer et al.,

2016). Thus, administration of HPβCD represents a multi-pronged approach to

mitigating lipid accumulation in phagocytic cells following ischemic stroke.

The overarching goal of this study was to investigate the efficacy of HPβCD as a

potential treatment for chronic inflammation and delayed cognitive impairment following

ischemic stroke. The aims of the current study were 2-fold: (1) to characterize the

lipidome of chronic stroke infarcts and (2) to determine whether lipid complexation and

macrophage reprogramming within infarcts, via the repeated systemic administration of

HPβCD, attenuates chronic inflammation and secondary neurodegeneration following

stroke. To accomplish these aims, we used the distal middle cerebral artery occlusion +

hypoxia mouse model of ischemic stroke in conjunction with immunohistochemistry,

RNA-Seq, lipidomics, and behavioral analyses. Our resulting data indicate that,

coincident with the substantial accumulation of infiltrating immune cells (Doyle et al.,

2015; Zbesko et al., 2020), chronic stroke infarcts amass lipids, including

sphingomyelins, cholesterol esters, and sulfatides. We also demonstrate that repeated

administration of HPβCD in young adult and aged mice attenuates immune cell and lipid

accumulation within chronic stroke infarcts and improves recovery at transcriptional and

functional levels. Therefore, HPβCD has the potential to improve stroke recovery and

prevent post-stroke dementia in humans.

Materials and Methods

Experimental design and statistical analysis

Experiments were designed using power analyses to determine sample sizes based on

expected variances and group differences. Statistical analyses were performed with

Prism 6.0 (GraphPad). Data are presented as the mean ± standard error of mean

(SEM). Group sizes, statistical tests, and *p* values for each experiment are reported in

Table 1. For GSEA, the normalized enrichment score (NES) is reported. The NES

accounts for differences in gene set size and in correlations between gene sets. The

NES is based on all dataset permutations to correct for multiple hypothesis testing.

Mice

Young adult (3- to 4-month-old) and aged (17- to 18-month-old) wild-type male

C57BL/6J mice (Jackson Laboratory, Stock No. 000664) were used. Mice were housed

in a temperature-controlled suite under a 12-hour light–dark regimen, with food and

water available *ad libitum*. All procedures met NIH guidelines and were approved by the

University of Arizona Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. At each time point,

mice were euthanized by isoflurane anesthesia (JD Medical), exsanguination, and

subsequent intracardial perfusion with 0.9% saline. Whole brains or individual brain

regions were then removed and either placed in RNAlater (Invitrogen, Cat. No.

AM7020) for RNA sequencing analysis; flash frozen in liquid nitrogen for lipidomics

analysis; or placed in a 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) solution for 24 h before being

transferred into a 30% sucrose solution for immunostaining analysis. Whole blood

collected at the time of euthanasia was either placed directly in heparin-coated tubes for

complete blood count analysis or extracted with sodium citrate to separate plasma via

centrifugation.

Stroke surgeries

Stroke was induced in mice using the distal middle cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia

(DH) model. The DH stroke model generates a sizable infarct (24% of the ipsilateral

hemisphere centered on the somatosensory cortex), has little variability, and has

exceptional long-term survivability (Doyle et al., 2012; Nguyen et al., 2016). To induce

stroke, we anesthetized animals by isoflurane inhalation and kept them at 37°C

throughout the surgical procedure. For all experiments, we injected mice

subcutaneously (s.c.) with a single dose of buprenorphine hydrochloride (0.1 mg/kg;

Henry Schein) and a single dose of cefazolin antibiotic (25 mg/kg; Sigma-Aldrich)

dissolved in sterile saline. Following pre-operative preparation, the skull was exposed

by creating a surgical incision in the skin and temporalis muscle. The right middle

cerebral artery was visually identified, and a microdrill was used to expose it. The

meninges were cut, and the vessel was cauterized using a small vessel cauterizer

(Bovie Medical Corporation). Surgical wounds were closed using Surgi-lock 2oc tissue

adhesive (Meridian Animal Health). We then immediately transferred mice to a hypoxia

chamber (Coy Laboratory Products) containing 9% oxygen and 91% nitrogen for 45

min. Sustained-release buprenorphine (Bup-SR, 1 mg/kg s.c.; ZooPharm) was

administered 24 h after surgery as post-operative analgesia.

Drug treatment

We injected HPβCD or vehicle s.c. three times per week, beginning 7 days after stroke

surgery, for 6 weeks until euthanasia at 7 weeks after stroke. Mice in the treatment

group received 2-hydroxypropyl-β-cyclodextrin powder (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No. H-107)

dissolved in sterile phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at a dose of 4 g HPβCD/kg body

weight. Mice in the vehicle control group received 300 µL sterile PBS.

Immunostaining

Coronal brain sections (40 µm) were collected using a freezing Microm HM 450 sliding

microtome (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and stored in cryoprotectant medium at –20°C

until processing. Immunostaining was performed on free-floating brain sections using

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standard protocols (Doyle et al., 2015; Nguyen et al., 2016; Zbesko et al., 2018).

Primary antibodies against neuronal nuclei (NeuN; 1:500; Millipore Sigma, Cat. No.

MAB377; RRID:AB_2298772), c-Fos (1:2000; Abcam, Cat. No. ab190289;

RRID:AB_2737414), CD3ε (1:1000; BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 550277;

RRID:AB_393573), B220/CD45R (1:500; BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 553085;

RRID:AB_394615), immunoglobulin A (IgA; 1:1000; BioLegend, Cat. No. 407004;

RRID:AB_315079), and CD138 (Syndecan-1; 1:200; BioLegend, Cat. No. 142514;

RRID:AB_2562198) were used in conjunction with the appropriate secondary antibody

and visualized using the VECTASTAIN Elite ABC Reagent, Peroxidase, R.T.U. (Vector

Laboratories, Cat. No. PK-7100) and Vector DAB Substrate (3,3'-diaminobenzidine) Kit

(Vector Laboratories, Cat. No. SK-4100). Secondary antibodies were diluted 1:400 for

biotinylated horse anti-mouse IgG (Vector Laboratories, Cat. No. BA-2000;

RRID:AB_2313581), biotinylated goat anti-hamster IgG (Vector Laboratories, Cat. No.

BA-9100; RRID:AB_2336137), and biotinylated rabbit anti-rat IgG (Vector Laboratories,

Cat. No. BA-4000; RRID:AB_2336206). Sections were imaged using a Keyence BZ-

X700 digital microscope with phase contrast, light, and fluorescence capabilities.

Oil Red O staining

Frozen tissue sections were mounted on slides and allowed to dry. Mounted sections

were dehydrated in 100% propylene glycol for 5 min and then stained with Oil Red O

(ORO) for 10 min (Abcam, Cat. No. ab150678). The sections were then differentiated in

85% propylene glycol for 3 min and rinsed with distilled water three times. Coverslips

were applied to all slides using an aqueous mounting medium (Vector Laboratories,

Cat. No. H-1400). Stained sections were imaged with a Keyence BZ-X700 digital

microscope.

Alcian blue staining

Frozen tissue sections were mounted on slides and allowed to dry. Slides were

immersed in eosin (VWR, Cat. No. 95057-848) and then rinsed eight times in PBS.

Slides were incubated in 3% acetic acid (pH 2.5) for 3 min and then placed in a solution

of 1% w/v Alcian Blue in 3% acetic acid (pH 2.5) for 30 min (EMD Millipore, Cat. No.

TMS-010-C). Slides were then rinsed in 3% acetic acid and allowed to dry overnight.

Slides were cleared in xylene and preserved with Entellan mounting medium (EMD

Millipore, Cat. No. 14802) and coverslips. Stained sections were imaged with a Keyence

BZ-X700 digital microscope.

Quantification of staining

To quantify the amount of positive staining for CD3ε, B220, Oil Red O, and Alcian blue,

we used Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012). The 'Colour Deconvolution' function was used to

separate color channels in images of Alcian blue staining. We then converted all

stitched images to 8-bit and traced the stroke infarct using the 'Polygon selections' tool.

We applied a threshold of positive staining to each image and measured the pixel area

of positive staining within the selected region. To quantify IgA and CD138, we utilized

the 'Cell Counter' plugin to manually count the number of positive cells within the stroke

infarct. To quantify NeuN and c-Fos immunoreactivity in vehicle- and HPβCD-treated

mice, we used Fiji to perform global thresholding in conjunction with a watershed

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algorithm on the ipsilateral side and equivalent region in the contralateral hemisphere.

Fields covering the selected regions were analyzed at bregma +0.38 mm and −1.46 mm

(NeuN) or −1.82 mm (c-Fos) using a 20× objective lens. We also measured

hippocampal area in images captured with a 2× objective lens by tracing the

hippocampus with the 'Polygon selections' tool in Fiji.

RNA sequencing and data analysis

Fresh brain tissue dissected from vehicle- and HPβCD-treated mice was immersed in

RNAlater (Invitrogen, Cat. No. AM7020) and delivered to the University of Arizona

Genetics Core. Samples were assessed for quality with an Advanced Analytics

Fragment Analyzer (High Sensitivity RNA Analysis Kit, Cat. No. DNF-491/User Guide

DNF-491-2014AUG13) and quantity with a Qubit RNA HS Assay Kit (Cat. No. Q32852).

Given satisfactory quality (RNA integrity number >8) and quantity, samples were used

for library construction with the TruSeq Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit from Illumina

(Cat. No. 20020595), as well as the KAPA Dual-Indexed Adapter Kit from Roche (Cat.

No. 8278555702). Upon completion of library construction, samples were assessed for

quality and average fragment size with the Advanced Analytics Fragment Analyzer

(High Sensitivity NGS Analysis Kit, Cat. No. DNF-846/User Guide DNF-486-

2014MAR10). Quantity was assessed with an Illumina Universal Adaptor-specific qPCR

kit from KAPA Biosystems (KAPA Library Quantification Kit for Illumina NGS, Cat. No.

KK4824/KAPA Library Quantification Technical Guide – AUG2014). Following the final

library quality control, samples were equimolar-pooled and clustered for paired-end

sequencing on the Illumina NextSeq500 machine to generate 75 bp reads. The

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sequencing run was performed using Illumina NextSeq500 run chemistry

(NextSeq500/550 High Output v2 Kit 150 cycles, Cat. No. FC-404-2002). Sequencing

data is publicly available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information through

Gene Expression Omnibus accession numbers: GSE173544 and GSE173715. For data

analysis, the resulting sequences were demultiplexed using bcl2fastq v2.19 (Illumina)

and trimmed of their indexing adaptors using Trimmomatic v0.32 (Bolger, Lohse, &

Usadel, 2014). The trimmed reads were aligned to the GRCm38 reference genome

using STAR v2.5.2b (Dobin et al., 2013). Gene expression was calculated using the

htseq-count function of the HTSeq python tool (Anders, Pyl, & Huber, 2015). Genes

were annotated using the BioMart database. Differential expression analysis of count

tables was performed using DESeq2 (Love, Huber, & Anders, 2014). Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) was performed on all significant differentially expressed

genes (false discovery rate [FDR]-adjusted $p < 0.05$) using a database of Gene

Ontology (GO) terms for biological processes. Enrichment maps were constructed from

GO terms using the Enrichment Map Cytoscape application (Merico, Isserlin, Stueker,

Emili, & Bader, 2010). Minimal editing, such as repositioning of nodes and removal of

repetitive gene-sets, was performed to optimize the map layout. Pathway analysis was

performed on differentially expressed genes using Ingenuity Pathway Analysis v01-13

(IPA).

Targeted lipidomics analysis (LIPID MAPS Lipidomics Core)

Fresh brain tissue dissected from vehicle- and HPβCD-treated mice was flash frozen

and delivered to the LIPID MAPS Lipidomics Core at the University of California, San

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Diego. Upon arrival, each sample underwent lipid extraction and quality control

analyses. The comprehensive sphingolipid panel and cholesterol ester panel were

independently performed using established protocols (Quehenberger et al., 2010).

Flow cytometry

To assess peripheral immune cell populations, spleens were extracted after transcardial

perfusion with 0.9% saline. Each spleen was crushed in 1 mL ammonium–chloride–

potassium RBC lysing buffer and resuspended in 1 mL complete DMEM. For cell

staining, fluorophore-conjugated monoclonal antibodies specific for CD4 (RM4-5), CD8α

(53-6.7), and TCRβ (H57-597) were obtained from BioLegend. Monoclonal antibodies

specific for CD19 (6D5) and GL7 (GL7) were purchased from BD Pharmingen.

Antibodies against IgG1 (RMG1-1) and IgA (RMA-1) were obtained from BioLegend.

For intranuclear staining, buffers from a Foxp3 Staining Buffer Set (eBioscience) were

used to stain antibodies recognizing Foxp3 (FJK-16s, eBioscience). Cells were run on a

BD LSR II flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) and analyses were performed with FlowJo

v10.7 for Windows (Tree Star).

Y-maze spontaneous alternation behavior test

Spatial working memory was assessed with the spontaneous alternation behavior (SAB)

paradigm. Testing occurred in a Y-shaped maze consisting of two symmetrical arms

and one longer arm arranged at 120° angles (symmetrical arms: 7.5 cm wide, 37.0 cm

long, 12.5 cm high; longer arm: 7.5 cm wide, 42.0 cm long, 12.5 cm high). Mice were

placed at the end of the longest arm and allowed to freely explore the three arms in a 5

min trial, as described previously (Doyle et al., 2015). The number of arm entries and

the number of correct alternations were recorded by an ANY-maze behavioral video

tracking software (Stoelting, Co.). An entry was recorded when all four limbs of the

mouse were within an arm.

Light/dark transition test

The light/dark box arena consisted of a Plexiglas box (40 cm wide, 40 cm long, 35 cm

high) divided by a small underpass into two equally sized compartments: a brightly

illuminated zone (390 lux) and a covered dark zone (2 lux). Prior to the test, animals

were habituated to the dark for 30 min. Mice were then placed in the dark chamber of

the arena and allowed to move freely between the two chambers for 10 min. The time

spent in each chamber, the latency to exit the dark chamber, and the total number of

transitions were recorded by an ANY-maze behavioral video tracking software

(Stoelting, Co.).

Results

Lipid composition of chronic stroke infarcts in young adult mice

We previously reported that, similar to atherogenesis, chronic stroke infarcts

accumulate foamy macrophages, cholesterol crystals, and lipid droplets, which results

in the upregulation of osteopontin, MMPs, and pro-inflammatory cytokines (Chung et al.,

2018). To further evaluate the similarities between the pathophysiology of chronic stroke

infarcts and atherosclerosis, we evaluated lipid droplet accumulation in chronic stroke

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infarcts. In the context of atherosclerosis, macrophages frequently become foamy in

appearance due to the accumulation of cholesterol esters stored within lipid droplets. In

addition to their role as storage containers within foamy macrophages, lipid droplets

also contribute directly and indirectly to the pathology of progressing atherosclerotic

plaques (Goldberg et al., 2018). To visualize lipid droplets in chronic stroke infarcts, we

performed Oil Red O (ORO) staining on brain sections from young adult mice at 7

weeks after stroke. ORO staining revealed more intracellular lipid droplets in infarcts

compared to contralateral cortices **(Fig. 1A)**. These findings provide additional evidence

that chronic stroke infarcts and atherosclerotic plaques have a similar molecular and

morphological profile.

To assess whether lipid accumulation in the infarct results from myelin breakdown

following stroke, we performed Alcian blue staining on brain sections from young adult

mice at 7 weeks post-stroke. Alcian blue stains for sulfatide, a major constituent of CNS

myelin. Importantly, sulfatide was recently identified as a myelin-associated inhibitor of

neurite outgrowth (Winzeler et al., 2011). Chronic stroke infarcts contained an

abundance of sulfatides at 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 1B)**, indicating that phagocytic

cells, including resident microglia and infiltrating macrophages, are strained in their

capacity to process and eliminate myelin lipid debris for at least 7 weeks after stroke.

To further evaluate myelin-derived lipids in chronic stroke infarcts, we performed

targeted lipidomics analysis to assess sphingomyelin levels within infarcts compared to

contralateral cortices of young adult mice at 7 weeks after stroke. Importantly,

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sphingomyelins play a central role in the structure of myelin, constituting 4% of myelin

lipid content. The accumulation of sphingomyelin is a hallmark of Niemann–Pick

disease and leads to changes in the plasma membrane that promote

neurodegeneration (Mar et al., 2016). Sphingomyelins are also involved in signal

transduction pathways and in the regulation of cholesterol and protein trafficking to

myelin (Poitelon, Kopec, & Belin, 2020). In addition to their role in myelin architecture,

sphingomyelins are involved in microglial activation and inflammation (Fitzner et al.,

2020; Yang, Hu, Yang, & Meng, 2020). Chronic stroke infarcts were enriched in

sphingomyelins 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 1C),** indicating a pronounced dysregulation of

myelin lipid homeostasis in chronic stroke infarcts of young adult mice.

Lipid composition of chronic stroke infarcts in aged mice

Stroke remains the leading cause of long-term disability in people over the age of 65

(Virani et al., 2020). Therefore, we used aged (18-month-old) mice to further

characterize the lipid composition of chronic stroke infarcts. First, to corroborate our

observations in young adult mice, we used ORO to stain for lipid droplets in brain

sections collected from aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke. We observed significantly

more intracellular lipid droplets in infarcts compared to contralateral cortices **(Fig. 2A)**.

In addition, Alcian blue staining revealed that chronic stroke infarcts are characterized

by an abundance of sulfatides when compared with contralateral cortices at 7 weeks

after stroke **(Fig. 2B)**. When comparing these results with those obtained in young adult

mice, we see that aged mice have a comparable accumulation of lipid droplets and

sulfatides at 7 weeks after stroke.

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Cholesterol is esterified prior to storage in cytoplasmic lipid droplets to prevent free

cholesterol-associated cell toxicity (Ghosh, Zhao, Bie, & Song, 2010). Therefore, we

evaluated the composition of cholesterol esters stored in lipid droplets via targeted

lipidomics analysis. For these analyses, we compared infarcts at 7 weeks after stroke to

equivalent regions of the contralateral cortex. All quantified cholesterol ester species

were significantly elevated in infarcts of aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke compared to

contralateral cortices **(Fig. 2C)**.

Transcriptome of the chronic stroke infarct in young adult mice

To systematically characterize the chronic stroke infarct transcriptome, we conducted

bulk RNA sequencing (RNA-Seq) on infarcts collected at 7 weeks after stroke and

compared them to equivalent regions of the contralateral cortex **(Fig. 3A)**. As expected,

differential expression (DE) analysis revealed marked differences between infarcts and

contralateral cortices. The resultant volcano plot illustrates the distribution of 3,930

upregulated and 2,869 downregulated genes **(Fig. 3B)**. The most significantly

upregulated genes, including *Lpl*, *Spp1*, *Cd36*, *Mmp2*, and *Mmp19*, and the most highly

enriched genes, including *Cd5l*, *Mmp3*, *Mmp12*, and *Mmp13*, indicate a pronounced

disturbance in lipid homeostasis in infarcts at 7 weeks after stroke. Importantly, Zhu et

al. (2017) similarly identified *Cd5l*, *Lpl*, and *Cd36* as highly expressed genes in foamy

macrophages after spinal cord injury (SCI) (Zhu et al., 2017).

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Correspondingly, chronic stroke infarcts were also characterized by an upregulation of

TLRs, including *Tlr1*, *Tlr2*, and *Tlr4*, and scavenger receptors, including *Scarb2*, *Cd68*,

Msr1, and *Cxcl16*. These genes are implicated in the induction and progression of

atherosclerosis; importantly, these scavenger receptors mediate the uptake of oxLDL

into macrophages and promote their differentiation into foam cells (Aslanian & Charo,

2006; Febbraio, Hajjar, & Silverstein, 2001; Park, 2014; Rahaman et al., 2006; Zeibig et

al., 2019). Dysregulated lipid homeostasis within infarcts is further evidenced by the

upregulation of genes involved in lipid metabolism: *Npc1*, *Npc2*, *Lamp1*, *Ffar1*, *Pparg*,

Apoe, *Trem2*, and *Abca1* **(Fig. 3C)**.

In addition to alterations in lipid metabolism, the transcriptome also revealed a signature

of chronic inflammation at 7 weeks after stroke. For instance, activation of the innate

immune response is indicated by the upregulation of genes involved in complement

cascade activation, including *C1s1*, *C3ar1*, and *C3*, and in phagocytosis, including

Tmem119, *Hexb*, *Nlrp3*, *Ctsb*, and *Myd88*. Further, upregulated genes included *Gfap*,

Lcn2, and *Serpina3n*, which have been validated as specific markers of reactive

astrogliosis in ischemic stroke and LPS-induced neuroinflammation (Zamanian et al.,

2012) **(Fig. 3C)**. Together, these genes signify the activation of innate immune cells,

including infiltrating macrophages, resident microglia, and astrocytes.

Additionally, activation of the adaptive immune system is indicated by the upregulation

of genes associated with T lymphocytes, including *Cd2*, *Cd3e*, *Gzma*, *Gzmb*, and *Prf1*;

B lymphocytes, including *CD19*, *Cd79a*, and *Blnk*; and antibody-producing plasma cells,

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including *Sdc1* and *Jchain* **(Fig. 3C)**. These perturbations in innate and adaptive

immunity demonstrate that chronic inflammation persists in infarcts for at least 7 weeks

after stroke, as we have shown previously (Chung et al., 2018; Doyle et al., 2015;

Zbesko et al., 2020).

In conjunction with the upregulation of genes involved in chronic inflammation and lipid

metabolism, the DE analysis revealed a downregulation of genes involved in neuronal

structure and function. Specifically, the neurofilament subunits *Nefh*, *Nefm*, and *Nefl*

were downregulated, which indicates persistent disruption or absence of neuronal

cytoskeletons in infarcts at 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 3C)**.

We then used IPA software to define upstream regulators and identify altered biological

processes based on DE analysis. Differentially expressed genes were associated with

the following upregulated biological processes: (i) atherosclerosis signaling, (ii) IL-1

signaling, (iii) inflammasome pathway, (iv) eicosanoid signaling, (v) B cell receptor

(BCR) signaling, and (vi) phospholipases, along with others. In contrast, differentially

expressed genes were associated with the following downregulated biological

processes: (i) calcium signaling, (ii) glutamate receptor signaling, and (iii) synaptic long-

term potentiation **(Fig. 4A, B)**. These altered biological processes indicate that the

stroke infarct transcriptome is characterized by chronic inflammation, dysregulated lipid

metabolism, and impaired or absent neuronal function at 7 weeks after stroke. In

addition, IPA identified lipid metabolic upstream regulators such as cholesterol,

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phospholipids, and LDL, as well as immunological upstream regulators such as MYD88,

IL18, CD3, IL1B, TLR4, and TNF **(Fig. 4C)**.

HPβCD attenuates the chronic inflammatory response to stroke in young adult

mice

To investigate the role of lipid metabolism in the chronic inflammatory response to

stroke, we administered subcutaneous injections of 4 g/kg HPβCD or vehicle control to

young adult mice triweekly (Monday, Wednesday, and Friday) for 6 weeks, beginning 1

week after stroke **(Fig. 5A)**. We performed immunostaining on vehicle- and HPβCD-

treated brain sections at 7 weeks post-stroke. These analyses revealed substantially

fewer B220+ B lymphocytes, CD3ε+ T lymphocytes, and CD138+ and IgA+ antibody-

producing plasma cells in infarcts of HPβCD-treated mice than in infarcts of vehicle-

injected mice. In addition, ORO staining revealed that infarcts of HPβCD-treated mice

had fewer lipid droplets than those of vehicle-injected mice **(Fig. 5B)**. These differences

indicate that repeated administration of HPβCD following stroke attenuates chronic

inflammation and lipid droplet formation in young adult mice.

HPβCD attenuates the chronic inflammatory response to stroke in aged mice

Stroke prevalence and mortality rates increase with advancing age in both males and

females (Virani et al., 2020). Therefore, to address age as a biological variable, we

performed immunohistochemistry and bulk RNA-Seq analyses on aged (18-month-old)

mice treated with HPβCD using the same treatment regimen as in in young adult mice

(HPβCD or vehicle control three times per week for 6 weeks) **(Fig. 6A)**. We discovered

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that, consistent with young adult mice, aged mice had substantially fewer B220+ B

lymphocytes, CD3ε+ T lymphocytes, and IgA+ antibody-producing plasma cells in

infarcts following repeated administration of HPβCD. In addition, ORO staining revealed

that infarcts of HPβCD-treated mice had significantly less lipid droplet accumulation

than vehicle-injected mice at 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 6B)**. When comparing these

results with those obtained in young adult mice, we see that aged mice similarly exhibit

attenuated lipid droplet and immune cell accumulation in chronic stroke infarcts

following repeated administration of HPβCD. Conversely, vehicle- and HPβCD-treated

aged mice displayed an equivalent accumulation of sulfatides in chronic stroke infarcts

(Fig. 6B), suggesting that HPβCD may not aid in the clearance of sulfatides.

HPβCD does not alter peripheral immune cell populations in the blood or spleens

of aged mice after stroke

The spleen, a secondary lymphoid organ, is a major reservoir of immune cells and a

focal point for the immune response to tissue injury. In response to ischemic stroke,

splenocytes enter into systemic circulation and migrate to the brain, exacerbating

neurodegeneration (Seifert et al., 2012). To determine the effect of HPβCD on immune

activation at systemic sites, we used flow cytometry to quantify splenic cell populations.

There were no significant differences in CD19+ B lymphocytes or GL-7+ germinal

center B lymphocytes **(Fig. 7A, B),** or in IgG1 and IgA isotypes **(Fig. 7C)**, between the

spleens of vehicle- and HPβCD-treated mice at 7 weeks after stroke. The CD4+ T

lymphocyte, CD8+ T lymphocyte, and Treg populations were also not significantly

altered by repeated HPβCD administration **(Fig. 7D, E)**. These results demonstrate that

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splenic cell populations in HPβCD-treated aged mice are not significantly altered in

comparison to those of vehicle-injected mice.

A complete blood count analysis on blood collected from vehicle- and HPβCD-treated

aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke revealed no significant differences in the number of

circulating white blood cells, neutrophils, lymphocytes, monocytes, eosinophils, or

basophils **(Fig. 7F)**. Together, the flow cytometry and complete blood count analyses

indicate that, while there were substantially fewer immune cells in infarcts of HPβCD-

treated aged mice than in those of vehicle-injected mice at 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig.**

6B), repeated systemic HPβCD administration does not significantly alter circulating or

splenic immune cell populations in aged mice.

HPβCD promotes lipid metabolism and attenuates inflammation in infarcts of

aged mice after stroke

We systematically characterized the transcriptomes of stroke infarcts in vehicle- and

HPβCD-treated aged mice by performing bulk RNA-Seq on infarcted brain tissue

collected 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 8A)**. As shown in the volcano and MA plots, the DE

analysis revealed 991 upregulated genes and 1,876 downregulated genes **(Fig. 8B, C)**.

HPβCD treatment upregulated intracellular cholesterol transporters, lipoproteins, and

lipoprotein receptors, such as *Npc1*, *Npc2*, *Apoe*, *Trem2*, *Abca1*, *Vldlr*, and *Hdlbp*, and

downregulated *Ffar1*, *Lrpb1*, and *Dgkb* **(Fig. 8D, E)**. These alterations in lipid

metabolism suggest that HPβCD aids in the restoration of lipid homeostasis by 7 weeks

after stroke. In addition, the DE analysis revealed a downregulation of genes involved in

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chemotaxis, including *Cx3cr1*, *Cxcl5*, and *Ccr6*, and innate and adaptive immune

responses, including *Mmd2*, *Mzb1*, *Btla*, *Jchain*, and *Igkv5-48*. Correspondingly, there

was an upregulation of anti-inflammatory genes, such as *Tgfb1*, *Tgfb2*, *P2ry2*, and

Il18bp **(Fig. 8D)**. These results indicate that HPβCD attenuates the chronic

inflammatory response to stroke in aged mice.

We also identified alterations in genes involved in the composition of membranes,

including *Olig1*, *Pmp22*, *Mal2*, *Rftn1*, and *Plp*. These alterations suggest that HPβCD

modifies lipid rafts and cell membranes by 7 weeks after stroke. Genes involved in

angiogenesis were also upregulated, including *Nrp1*, *Vash2*, *Hpse*, *Vegfc*, *Vegfd*, and

Ndnf **(Fig. 8D)**. In addition, enrichment maps constructed from GO terms revealed an

upregulation of lipid metabolism, angiogenesis, and collagen synthesis pathways and a

downregulation of immune response pathways **(Fig. 9A)**. These results indicate that

HPβCD treatment promotes lipid metabolism and angiogenesis and dampens chronic

inflammation in infarcts of aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke.

Next, we performed genome-wide expression analysis of the RNA-Seq data using

GSEA, which revealed significant enrichment of various biological processes in infarcts

of HPβCD-treated aged mice, including (i) collagen formation, (ii) regulation of

angiogenesis, (iii) lipid catabolic process, (iv) regulation of autophagy, and (v) regulation

of apoptotic process. Conversely, GSEA identified biological processes more enriched

in infarcts of vehicle-injected mice compared to HPβCD-treated mice, including (i) innate

immune response, (ii) adaptive immune response, (iii) immunoglobulin production, (iv)

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phagocytosis, engulfment, and (v) complement activation, classical pathway **(Fig. 9B)**.

These results further indicate that infarcts of vehicle-injected mice are defined by

increased innate and adaptive immune responses, whereas those of HPβCD-treated

mice are defined by increased angiogenic and lipid metabolic processes.

Transcriptome of the peri-infarct region in aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke

Prior to assessing the impact of repeated HPβCD administration on the peri-infarct

region of the brain, we first compared the transcriptome of the peri-infarct region to the

equivalent region of the contralateral hemisphere in aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke

(Fig. 10A). The peri-infarct region was characterized by 3,910 differentially expressed

genes **(Fig. 10B, C)**. Of these, 2,123 were upregulated, many of which were also

upregulated in infarcts at 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 3C)**. For instance, the infarct and

peri-infarct regions were both defined by the upregulation of degradative enzymes,

including *Mmp2*, *Mmp3*, and *Mmp8*; TLRs, including *Tlr1*, *Tlr2*, and *Tlr4*; and scavenger

receptors, including *Cd36*, *Cd68*, and *Cxcl16*. Additionally, peri-infarct regions were

characterized by specific markers of reactive astrogliosis, including *Gfap*, *Lcn2*, and

Serpina3n **(Fig. 10D)**.

Similar to the transcriptome of the infarct at 7 weeks after stroke, the transcriptome of

the peri-infarct region was primarily defined by genes involved in chronic inflammation

and dysregulated lipid metabolism. The upregulation of *Lpl*, *Lrp2*, *Ch25h*, *Apoe*, *Trem2*,

and *Abca1* signifies a divergence from lipid homeostasis. Moreover, *Ldlr* was

downregulated, which implies impaired lipoprotein and lipid metabolism (Go & Mani,

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2012). In addition, genes involved in complement cascade activation (including *C1s1*,

C3ar1, and *C3*) and phagocytosis (including *Tmem119*, *Hexb*, *Nlrp3*, and *Mmd2*) were

upregulated in peri-infarct regions. These alterations in innate immunity coincided with

corresponding perturbations in adaptive immunity. The upregulation of *Cd3d*, *Cd3e*,

Cd3g, *Blnk*, *Sdc1* and *Jchain* suggests that chronic inflammation persists in peri-infarct

regions for at least 7 weeks after stroke **(Fig. 10D)**.

Conversely, the DE analysis revealed that 1,787 genes were downregulated in peri-

infarct regions compared to equivalent regions of the contralateral hemisphere. These

genes were primarily involved in mitochondrial respiration and neuronal function.

Specifically, genes involved in mitochondrial fission and respiration, including *Cyc1*,

Coa3, *Cox5a*, and *Mff*, and the neurofilament subunits *Nefh*, *Nefm*, and *Nefl*, were

downregulated **(Fig. 10D)**. Together, these results demonstrate that the transcriptome

of the peri-infarct region is characterized by the upregulation of genes involved in

inflammation and lipid metabolism and the downregulation of genes involved in

mitochondrial respiration and neuronal function.

Next, we performed genome-wide expression analysis of the RNA-Seq data using

GSEA. GSEA revealed significant enrichment of various biological processes in peri-

infarct regions of aged mice, including (i) macrophage activation, (ii) cytokine

production, (iii) BCR signaling pathway, (iv) lipoprotein metabolism, and (v)

phagocytosis. In contrast, GSEA identified biological processes more significantly

enriched in equivalent regions of the contralateral hemisphere, including (i) synaptic

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vesicle localization, (ii) mitochondrion organization, (iii) neurotransmitter secretion, (iv)

myelin sheath, and (v) mitochondrial transport **(Fig. 11)**. These results further indicate

that peri-infarct regions are defined by chronic inflammation and dysregulated lipid

metabolism, whereas equivalent regions of the contralateral hemisphere are defined by

intact neuronal function.

HPβCD attenuates inflammation and increases transcripts associated with

neuronal function in peri-infarct regions of aged mice after stroke

To evaluate the impact of HPβCD treatment on the transcriptome of the peri-infarct

region, we performed bulk RNA-Seq on brain tissue collected 7 weeks after stroke. For

this analysis, we compared the peri-infarct regions of vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged

mice **(Fig. 12A)**. The peri-infarct region of HPβCD-treated mice was characterized by

5,385 differentially expressed genes **(Fig. 12B, C)**. The DE analysis revealed that

specific markers of reactive astrogliosis, including *Gfap*, *Serpina3n*, and *Stat3*, were

downregulated following HPβCD treatment. The peri-infarct region of HPβCD-treated

mice was also characterized by the downregulation of multiple degradative enzymes,

including *Mmp2*, *Mmp8*, and *Mmp14*; chemokine receptors, including *Ccr2*, *Cx3cr1*; and

Cxcr4, and scavenger receptors, including *Cd36*, *Cd68*, and *Cxcl16* **(Fig. 12D)**.

In addition, the transcriptomic analysis demonstrated a restoration of lipid homeostasis

in peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated mice compared to vehicle-injected mice, as

evidenced by the downregulation of *Lipa*, *Apoe*, *Lamp1*, *Npc1*, and *Npc2* and

upregulation of *Nceh1* and *Ldlr*. A reduction in the innate immune response (identified

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by *Tlr4*, *Csf1*, and *C2*) and in the adaptive immune response (identified by *Sdc1*,

Gsdmd, and *Cd1d1*) characterized peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated mice **(Fig.**

12D); these alterations are consistent with the attenuated chronic inflammation that

characterized infarcts of the HPβCD-treated aged mice **(Fig. 8D)**. These results

demonstrate that HPβCD treatment after stroke attenuates chronic inflammation and

promotes lipid metabolism in peri-infarct regions of aged mice. Additionally, the DE

analysis revealed an upregulation of genes involved in myelin sheath structural integrity,

such as *Ina*, *Omg*, and *Nefl*, and synaptic plasticity and neuroplasticity, such as *Syn1*,

Bdnf, *Nrg1*, *Negr1*, and *Nsg1* **(Fig. 12D)**. These results suggest that HPβCD treatment

improves the structure and function of neurons in peri-infarct regions of aged mice after

stroke.

Next, we performed genome-wide expression analysis of the RNA-Seq data using

GSEA, which revealed a significant enrichment of various biological processes in peri-

infarct regions of HPβCD-treated aged mice, including (i) synaptic vesicle localization,

(ii) neuron projection membrane, (iii) dendritic spine organization, (iv) myelin sheath,

and (v) regulation of axonogenesis. Conversely, biological processes more significantly

enriched in vehicle-injected mice than in HPβCD-treated mice included (i) macrophage

activation, (ii) binding and uptake of ligands by scavenger receptors, (iii) cytokine

production, (iv) lipid droplet, (v) lymphocyte mediated immunity, and (vi) lipid catabolic

process **(Fig. 13)**. These results demonstrate that peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated

aged mice are characterized by enhanced membrane integrity and reduced

inflammation compared to vehicle-injected aged mice.

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HPβCD attenuates neurodegeneration and improves recovery in aged mice after

stroke

To assess behavioral outcomes following HPβCD treatment, we used the light/dark

transition test and the Y-maze spontaneous alternation behavior (SAB) test. The

light/dark transition test is based on the innate aversion of mice to brightly illuminated

areas and on their spontaneous exploratory behavior in response to mild stressors

(Bourin & Hascoët, 2003; Takao & Miyakawa, 2006). Our results revealed that in the

light/dark box, HPβCD-treated mice spent less time in the brightly illuminated

compartment than vehicle-injected mice **(Fig. 14A)**. Additionally, HPβCD-treated mice

were slower to emerge from the dark compartment after being habituated to the dark for

30 min prior to the test **(Fig. 14A)**. These behaviors indicate decreased impulsivity and

behavioral disinhibition in HPβCD-treated mice. We also assessed hippocampal-

dependent spatial working memory at 7 weeks after stroke with the Y-maze SAB test

(Yamada et al., 1996). We discovered that vehicle-injected mice developed a delayed

cognitive deficit, whereas HPβCD-treated mice displayed neurotypical cognitive function

comparable to baseline recordings **(Fig. 14B)**. To assess hippocampal edema, we

measured the total hippocampal area of the ipsilateral and contralateral hemispheres in

aged mice that received vehicle or HPβCD. Hippocampal enlargement 7 weeks after

stroke was attenuated in mice that had received HPβCD **(Fig. 14C)**. This reduction in

hippocampal edema correlates with improved hippocampal-dependent spatial working

memory outcomes in the Y-maze SAB test **(Fig. 14B)**. We next evaluated secondary

neurodegeneration by quantifying NeuN immunoreactivity as a biomarker of secondary

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neurodegeneration in regions of axonal degeneration. Repeated administration of

HPβCD led to the preservation of NeuN immunoreactivity in the striatum and thalamus

(Fig. 14D, E). These results demonstrate that HPβCD attenuates secondary

neurodegeneration and improves cognitive function following stroke.

To investigate neuronal activation in hippocampal regions, we next measured the

immunoreactivity of c-Fos, a transcription factor thought to primarily reflect NMDA-

mediated neuronal activity (Albertini et al., 2018). We observed an induction of c-Fos

expression in the dentate gyrus, CA1, and CA3 areas of HPβCD-treated mice **(Fig.**

14F). Importantly, Fleischmann et al. demonstrated a critical role for c-Fos in

hippocampal-dependent spatial learning and memory, as well as in NMDA receptor-

dependent LTP formation (Fleischmann et al., 2003). Together, our results show that

improvement in hippocampal-dependent spatial working memory **(Fig. 14B)** correlates

with an induction of c-Fos in hippocampal regions of HPβCD-treated mice at 7 weeks

after stroke.

To corroborate these findings, we further analyzed the results from the GSEA

performed on peri-infarct regions from vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged mice **(Fig. 13)**.

We discovered that peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated aged mice were characterized

by enriched biological processes that signify improved neuronal and synaptic function,

including (i) long-term synaptic potentiation, (ii) neurotransmitter transport, (iii) synaptic

signaling, (iv) glutamate receptor activity, (v) membrane depolarization during action

potential, and (vi) learning or memory **(Fig. 14G)**. These results provide evidence that

HPβCD improves neuronal integrity in peri-infarct regions by 7 weeks after stroke.

Discussion (1,500 words maximum, including citations)

Dysregulated lipid homeostasis has been implicated in chronic neurodegenerative

diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and Niemann–Pick

disease type C, and in acute neuronal injuries, including ischemic stroke (Vance, 2012).

Lipid metabolism is particularly important in the mammalian brain, as lipids constitute

50–60% of the dry weight (Luchtman & Song, 2013). Notably, the mammalian brain is

highly enriched in cholesterol, which primarily exists in two distinct pools within the

CNS: in plasma membranes of glial cells and neurons and in myelin sheaths

surrounding axons. Due to the intact blood–brain barrier, cholesterol synthesis and

lipoprotein transport are regulated independently of the peripheral circulation (Dietschy

& Turley, 2001; Vance, 2012). Therefore, further investigation into the role of altered

lipid metabolism in neurodegeneration will likely aid in the development of novel

therapeutic strategies.

Our preclinical studies indicate that the pathological characteristics of chronic stroke

infarcts closely resemble the hallmark features of atherosclerotic plaques. Similar to

atherosclerotic plaques, chronic stroke infarcts contain foamy macrophages, lipid

droplets, and intracellular and extracellular cholesterol crystals (Chung et al., 2018). We

have also shown that the development of these pathologies coincides with the

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recruitment and infiltration of adaptive immune cells (Doyle et al., 2015; Zbesko et al.,

2020). Importantly, in atherogenesis, the formation of foamy macrophages, caused by

dysregulated lipid metabolic processes, leads to the recruitment of adaptive immune

cells and the production of cytokines and degradative enzymes. Herein, we postulated

that following stroke, lipids derived from myelin debris and other cell membranes

overwhelm the processing capability of phagocytes in the brain, leading to the formation

of lipid-laden foam cells, generation of cholesterol crystals, secretion of pro-

inflammatory cytokines, and production of degradative enzymes. Further, we

hypothesized that this chronic inflammatory response, coupled with concurrent cell

death, causes post-stroke secondary neurodegeneration and impairs functional

recovery.

Using the distal middle cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia mouse model of stroke, we

first characterized the lipidome of chronic stroke infarcts. The lipidome of infarcts at 7

weeks after stroke showed a substantial elevation of lipids, including sphingomyelins,

sulfatides, and cholesterol esters, compared to contralateral cortices. We also observed

an accumulation of intracellular lipid droplets. It has been shown that the excessive

accumulation of cholesterol esters in lipid droplets contributes to foam cell formation

(Yu, Fu, Zhang, Yin, & Tang, 2013). Therefore, the foam cells identified in chronic

stroke infarcts likely contain an abundance of myelin-derived lipids.

Using transcriptomic analyses, we assessed the impact of lipid dyshomeostasis on

chronic stroke infarcts and peri-infarct regions. We anticipated disparity between

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ipsilateral and contralateral regions. Indeed, the transcriptomes of chronic stroke

infarcts and peri-infarct regions were characterized by an upregulation of genes

involved in inflammation, reactive astrogliosis, and lipid metabolism. Specifically, the

upregulation of TLRs, including *Tlr1*, *Tlr2*, and *Tlr4*; scavenger receptors, including

Scarb2, *Cd68*, *Msr1*, and *Cxcl16*; and other lipid mediators, including *Npc1*, *Npc2*,

Lamp1, *Ffar1*, *Pparg*, *Apoe*, *Trem2*, and *Abca1* indicates a pronounced disruption in

lipid homeostasis at 7 weeks after stroke. These transcriptomic analyses suggest that

the mechanism of foam cell formation in ischemic stroke shares commonalities with the

mechanism extensively characterized in atherosclerosis, albeit distinct in that myelin

debris, rather than circulating LDL cholesterol, is the primary source of lipids that

overwhelm the processing capacity of infiltrating macrophages and resident microglia.

We next assessed the efficacy of HPβCD in counteracting or reversing foam cell

formation and immune cell infiltration following stroke, as HPβCD induces liver X

receptor target gene expression in macrophages and leads to an increase in cholesterol

transporters that further promote cholesterol efflux (Zimmer et al., 2016). Cyclodextrins

are cyclic oligosaccharides comprised of glucose monomers. With hydrophobic interiors

and hydrophilic exteriors, cyclodextrins can form inclusion complexes with hydrophobic

compounds and yield aqueous solubility and stability across tissues. Cyclodextrins are

commonly utilized as carriers and solubilizing agents for steroids, antivirals, and

chemotherapies (Gidwani & Vyas, 2015; Rasheed, Kumar C.K., & Sravanthi, 2008). In

addition, HPβCD has also proven efficacious in the regression of atherosclerotic

plaques and the prevention of age-related lipofuscin accumulation (Gaspar et al., 2017;

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Zimmer et al., 2016). Here, we found that repeated administration of HPβCD after

stroke significantly attenuated chronic inflammation in young adult and aged mouse

models. Specifically, there were substantially fewer intracellular lipid droplets, B

lymphocytes, T lymphocytes, and antibody-producing plasma cells in the infarcts of

young adult and aged HPβCD-treated mice than in vehicle-injected mice at 7 weeks

after stroke.

We discovered that HPβCD is effective in attenuating B-lymphocyte accumulation in

chronic stroke infarcts, which suggests that HPβCD has potential as a treatment for

post-stroke dementia. We have shown that B lymphocytes mediate cognitive

dysfunction following stroke (Doyle et al., 2015). Correspondingly, activated B

lymphocytes and autoantibodies have been shown to cause neuropathology in models

of experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis (EAE), SCI, and transient middle

cerebral artery occlusion (Ankeny, Lucin, Sanders, McGaughy, & Popovich, 2006;

Ortega et al., 2015; Raine, Cannella, Hauser, & Genain, 1999). Recently, we also found

that the production of natural IgA antibodies is a part of the B-lymphocyte response to

stroke (Zbesko et al., 2020). However, future studies are required to determine if the

function of these natural IgA antibodies is to aid in the clearance of myelin debris and

the neutralization of apoptotic foamy macrophages.

Using transcriptomic analyses, we next assessed transcripts in infarct and peri-infarct

regions of HPβCD-treated aged mice. We found that systemic administration of HPβCD

distinctively altered the transcriptomes of infarct and peri-infarct regions. In infarcts,

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HPβCD upregulated genes involved in lipid metabolic processes, including *Lipa*, *Npc1*,

Apoe, and *Abca1*; in peri-infarct regions, HPβCD had an inverse effect on these genes.

These observations suggest that HPβCD has supported the restoration of lipid

homeostasis through transcriptional reprogramming of macrophages, consistent with a

previously described mechanism of action (Zimmer et al., 2016). In addition, HPβCD

influenced expression profiles in infarcts through the upregulation of genes involved in

angiogenesis and in peri-infarct regions through the upregulation of genes involved in

neuronal and synaptic structure and function. Together, these results indicate that

HPβCD exerts multiple restorative effects on affected brain regions after stroke.

We next evaluated the efficacy of HPβCD in enhancing recovery after stroke. We

assessed impulsivity and risk-taking behavior using the light/dark transition test. We

have previously demonstrated a chronic impact of stroke on the psychological

measurement of impulsivity in the light/dark transition test, resembling the uninhibited,

risk-taking behaviors exhibited by patients with Alzheimer and frontotemporal dementias

(Liscic, Storandt, Cairns, & Morris, 2007; Nguyen et al., 2018). HPβCD-treated mice

spent less time in the brightly illuminated chamber and were slower to exit the dark

chamber. These behaviors suggest that HPβCD-treated mice act less erratically and

impulsively than vehicle-injected mice. We also measured hippocampal-dependent

spatial working memory using the Y-maze spontaneous alternation behavior test. We

found that vehicle-injected mice developed a delayed cognitive deficit, whereas HPβCD-

treated mice displayed neurotypical cognitive function. This improvement in recovery

correlated with a reduction in hippocampal edema, a preservation of neurons in the

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striatum and thalamus, and an induction of c-Fos expression in hippocampal regions

(dentate gyrus, CA1, CA3). Correspondingly, peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated

mice were defined by an enrichment of biological processes signifying improved

neuronal and synaptic integrity. Thus, administration of HPβCD reduced stroke-induced

neuropathology and improved cognitive function after stroke.

In conclusion, we have shown that, coincident with the progressive infiltration of

adaptive immune cells, chronic stroke infarcts accumulate lipids, including

sphingomyelins, sulfatides, and cholesterol esters. To our knowledge, this substantial

disruption in lipid homeostasis has not been previously recognized or investigated in the

context of stroke. We also discovered that repeated administration of HPβCD following

stroke aids in the restoration of lipid homeostasis, attenuates lipid droplet and immune

cell accumulation, and improves recovery at transcriptional and functional levels.

Therefore, we propose that HPβCD could be repurposed for the treatment of ischemic

stroke and other CNS injuries.

Figure 1. Lipid composition of chronic stroke infarcts in young adult mice. *A, B,*

Representative 20× images and quantification of positive staining with Oil Red O (***A***)

and Alcian blue (***B***) show markedly more lipid droplets and sulfatides, respectively, in

infarcts than in contralateral cortices. Scale bar, 125 μm. ($n \geq 4$; paired (***A***) or unpaired

(***B***) *t* test; ****p < 0.0001). ***C,*** Targeted lipidomics analysis revealed that infarcts had

significantly higher levels of sphingomyelins than equivalent regions of the contralateral

823   cortex at 7 weeks after stroke. (n = 8; multiple t tests, Holm–Sidak correction for multiple

824   comparisons; *p < 0.05). Data are presented as mean ± SEM.

Figure 2. Lipid composition of chronic stroke infarcts in aged mice. *A, B,*

Quantification of positive staining with Oil Red O (***A***) and Alcian blue (***B***) shows

significantly more lipid droplets and sulfatides, respectively, in infarcts compared to

contralateral cortices. Scale bar, 125 μm. ($n \geq 4$; paired *t* tests; ****$p < 0.0001$). ***C,***

Targeted lipidomics analysis revealed significantly higher levels of cholesterol esters in

infarcts than in equivalent regions of the contralateral cortex at 7 weeks after stroke. (n

= 5; multiple *t* tests, Holm–Sidak correction for multiple comparisons; *$p < 0.05$). Data

are presented as mean ± SEM. CE, cholesterol ester.

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Figure 3. Transcriptome of the chronic stroke infarct in young adult mice. *A,*

Schematic of a mouse coronal brain section following stroke induced by distal middle

cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia, with the analyzed region of each hemisphere

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838   shaded in gray. *B,* Volcano plot showing differences in gene expression between the

839   infarct and contralateral cortex at 7 weeks following stroke (false discovery rate-

840   adjusted $p < 0.05$; FC > |2|). *C,* Row-scaled heatmap displaying differentially expressed

841   genes associated with dysregulated lipid metabolism and pronounced inflammation

842   (false discovery rate-adjusted $p < 0.05$; FC > |2|). FC, fold change.

Figure 4. Canonical pathways and upstream regulators based on differentially

expressed genes in chronic stroke infarcts of young adult mice. *A,* Ingenuity

Pathway Analysis (IPA) performed on differentially expressed genes revealed a

significant upregulation of inflammatory pathways in infarcts of young adult mice at 7

weeks after stroke compared to contralateral cortices. *B,* Additional canonical pathway

analysis confirmed activation of inflammatory pathways in the infarcts of young adult

mice at 7 weeks after stroke. *C,* IPA identified putative upstream regulators associated

with inflammation and lipid metabolism, including cholesterol, LDL, MYD88, CD3, and

IL1B. All canonical pathways and upstream regulators shown are significantly up- or

downregulated ($p < 0.05$).

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Figure 5. HPβCD attenuates the chronic inflammatory response to stroke in

young adult mice. *A,* Experimental design, *n* = 31–32 per group. Three-month-old

mice received subcutaneous (s.c.) injections of 4 g/kg HPβCD or vehicle three times a

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week, beginning 1 week after stroke induced by distal middle cerebral artery occlusion +

hypoxia. Brains were extracted at 7 weeks post-stroke and processed for

immunohistochemistry. **B,** Representative 40× images of infarcts in vehicle- or HPβCD-

treated young adult mice stained for B lymphocytes (B220), T lymphocytes (CD3ε),

antibody-producing plasma cells (CD138, IgA) and lipid droplets (Oil Red O).

Quantification of images is shown to the right of each photomicrograph. (n = 4–11;

unpaired t tests; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ****p < 0.0001). Scale bar, 125 µm. Data are

presented as mean ± SEM.

45

867 **Figure 6. HPβCD attenuates the chronic inflammatory response to stroke in aged**

868 **mice. *A,*** Experimental design, *n* = 39–40 per group. Eighteen-month-old mice received

869 subcutaneous (s.c.) injections of 4 g/kg HPβCD or vehicle three times a week,

870 beginning 1 week after stroke induced by distal middle cerebral artery occlusion +

46

hypoxia. Brains were dissected at 7 weeks post-stroke and processed for

immunohistochemistry or RNA-Seq. *B,* Representative 40× images of infarcts in

vehicle- or HPβCD-treated aged mice stained for B lymphocytes (B220), T lymphocytes

(CD3ε), antibody-producing plasma cells (IgA), and lipid droplets (Oil Red O), followed

by representative 20× images of infarcts stained for sulfatides (Alcian Blue).

Quantification of images is shown to the right of each photomicrograph. (n = 4–10;

unpaired t tests; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001). Scale bar, 125 µm. Data are

presented as mean ± SEM.

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Figure 7. HPβCD does not alter peripheral immune cell populations in the blood or spleens of aged mice after stroke. *A, B,* Splenocytes from HPβCD- and vehicle-injected aged mice were stained with antibodies against CD19 and GL7. Representative flow cytometry plots (***A***) and quantification of CD19+GL7- B cells and CD19+GL7+ germinal center B cells as a percentage of total lymphocytes (***B***) showed no significant

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differences in splenic B cell populations between vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged

mice at 7 weeks after stroke. **C,** Quantification of antibody isotypes (IgG1 and IgA) in

the spleen revealed no significant differences between vehicle- and HPβCD-treated

aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke. **D, E,** Splenocytes from HPβCD- and vehicle-injected

aged mice were stained with antibodies against TCRβ, CD4, CD8, and Foxp3.

Representative flow cytometry plots of CD4+ and CD8+ T cells (**D**) and quantification of

CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, and Tregs as a percentage of total lymphocytes (for CD4+

and CD8+ gates) or TCRβ+CD4+ T cells (for Treg gate) (**E**) revealed no significant

differences in splenic T cell populations between vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged

mice at 7 weeks after stroke. (n = 9–10; unpaired t tests; *$p < 0.05$). **F,** Complete blood

count analysis in vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke

revealed no significant differences in circulating immune cell populations (n = 6; multiple

t tests, Holm–Sidak correction for multiple comparisons; *$p < 0.05$). Data are presented

as mean ± SEM. GC, germinal center.

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Figure 8. HPβCD promotes lipid metabolism and attenuates inflammation in

infarcts of aged mice after stroke. *A,* Schematic of a mouse coronal brain section

following stroke induced by distal middle cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia, with the

analyzed region shaded in gray. ***B, C,*** Volcano (***B***) and MA (***C)*** plots constructed from

count data show differences in gene expression between infarcts from vehicle- and

HPβCD-treated mice at 7 weeks after stroke (false discovery rate-adjusted *p* < 0.05; FC

> |2|). ***D,*** Row-scaled heatmap displaying differentially expressed genes associated with

lipid metabolism, inflammation, and angiogenesis (false discovery rate-adjusted *p* <

0.05; FC > |2|). ***E,*** Graphs representing rlog-normalized expression of selected genes

related to lipid metabolism. (*n* = 4; unpaired *t* tests; **p* < 0.05, ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001).

FC, fold change.

Figure 9. Biological processes enriched in infarcts of HPβCD-treated aged mice at

7 weeks after stroke. *A,* Enrichment maps constructed from Gene Ontology terms

revealed a significant upregulation of metabolism, angiogenesis, and collagen synthesis

pathways and a significant downregulation of immune response pathways. Pathways

are shown as circles (nodes) that are connected with lines (edges) if the pathways

share genes. Node colors are based on the enrichment score, and edge sizes are

based on the number of genes shared by the connected pathways. ***B,*** Gene set

enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed significant enrichment of various biological

processes in the infarcts of HPβCD-treated aged mice, depicted in red. Conversely,

GSEA identified biological processes more significantly enriched in the infarcts of

vehicle-injected mice compared to HPβCD-treated mice, depicted in blue.

Figure 10. Transcriptome of the peri-infarct region in aged mice at 7 weeks after

stroke. A, Schematic of a mouse coronal brain section following stroke induced by

distal middle cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia, with analyzed regions indicated. **B, C,**

Volcano (**B**) and MA (**C**) plots constructed from count data show differences in gene

928   expression between peri-infarct regions and equivalent regions in the contralateral

929   cortex at 7 weeks after stroke (false discovery rate-adjusted $p < 0.05$; FC > |2|). **D,** Row-

930   scaled heatmap displaying differentially expressed genes associated with lipid

931   metabolism, inflammation, and mitochondrial function (false discovery rate-adjusted $p <$

932   0.05; FC > |2|). FC, fold change.

Figure 11. Biological processes enriched in peri-infarct regions of aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed significant enrichment of multiple biological processes in the peri-infarct regions of aged mice, depicted in red. Conversely, GSEA identified biological processes more significantly enriched in the equivalent region of the contralateral hemisphere, depicted in blue.

Figure 12. HPβCD attenuates inflammation and increases transcripts associated

with neuronal function in peri-infarct regions of aged mice after stroke. ***A,***

Schematic of a mouse coronal brain section following stroke induced by distal middle

cerebral artery occlusion + hypoxia, with the analyzed region indicated. ***B, C,*** Volcano

(***B***) and MA (***C***) plots constructed from count data show differences in gene expression

between peri-infarct regions from vehicle- and HPβCD-treated aged mice at 7 weeks

after stroke (false discovery rate-adjusted p < 0.05; FC > |2|). ***D,*** Row-scaled heatmap

947   displaying differentially expressed genes associated with lipid metabolism,

948   inflammation, and neuronal function (false discovery rate-adjusted $p < 0.05$; FC > |2|).

949   FC, fold change.

Figure 13. Biological processes enriched in peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke. Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) revealed significant enrichment of multiple biological processes in peri-infarct regions of HPβCD-treated aged mice, depicted in red. Conversely, GSEA identified biological processes

more significantly enriched in peri-infarct regions of vehicle-injected aged mice, depicted

in blue.

Figure 14. HPβCD attenuates neurodegeneration and improves recovery in aged

mice after stroke. **A,** HPβCD-treated aged mice exhibited less impulsive behavior than

vehicle-injected mice in the light/dark transition test at 7 weeks after stroke. (n = 13–15;

unpaired t tests; *$p < 0.05$). **B,** HPβCD-treated aged mice exhibited intact spatial

working memory in the Y-maze spontaneous alternation behavior test compared to

vehicle-injected aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke. (n = 14–15; unpaired t test; *$p <$

0.05). **C,** Quantification of hippocampal edema at 7 weeks after stroke in vehicle- and

HPβCD-treated mice. (n = 7–9; unpaired t test; *$p < 0.05$). **D, E,** Quantification of NeuN

immunoreactivity in the striatum and thalamus from vehicle- or HPβCD-treated mice. (n

= 5; unpaired t tests; *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$). **F,** Representative 20× images of c-Fos

immunoreactivity in hippocampal regions from vehicle- or HPβCD-treated mice.

Quantification of images is shown to the right of each photomicrograph. (n = 9–10;

unpaired t tests; *$p < 0.05$, ***$p < 0.001$). Scale bar, 125 µm. Data are presented as

mean ± SEM. **G,** Gene set enrichment analysis revealed significant enrichment of

biological processes associated with neuronal function and activity in peri-infarct regions

of HPβCD-treated aged mice at 7 weeks after stroke.

Figure	Group Size (*n*)	Statistical Test	Statistical Values	*p* value	*post hoc* Comparisons	*p* value
1A	4	Paired *t* test	*M* (Contra Cortex - Infarct) = -51.71 *SEM* = 1.300	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A
1B	Infarct = 7 Contra Cortex = 4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (Contra Cortex - Infarct) = -34.14 *SEM* = 1.077	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A
1C	8	Multiple *t* tests; Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test	N/A	N/A	SM 14:0_16.51	0.000003
					SM 15:0_17.67	< 0.000001
					SM 16:0_19.05	< 0.000001
					SM 16:1_16.92	0.000003
					SM 16:1_17.23	0.000004
					SM 18:0_22.55	0.00379
					SM 18:1_19.71	0.000172
					SM 18:1_20.12	0.009913
					SM 19:0_24.48	0.002555
					SM 20:0_26.16	0.000813
					SM 20:1_23.41	0.0018
					SM 21:0_27.48	0.006607
					SM 22:0_28.28	< 0.000001
					SM 22:1_26.30	0.000006
					SM 22:1_26.87	0.000056
					SM 22:2_23.57	0.000003
					SM 23:0_28.82	0.002919
					SM 23:1_27.48	< 0.000001
					SM 23:2_25.37	0.000017
					SM 24:0_29.21	< 0.000001
					SM 24:1_28.23	< 0.000001
					SM 24:2_26.78	0.000062
					SM 24:3_24.26	0.000002
					SM 24:3_24.64	0.000004
					SM 24:4_22.21	0.000005
					SM 25:0_29.62	0.000226
					SM 26:0_29.96	0.000076
					SM 26:1_29.14	0.000001
					SM 26:2_28.42	0.00016
2A	4	Paired *t* test	*M* (Contra Cortex - Infarct) = -54.83 *SEM* = 1.527	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A
2B	9	Paired *t* test	*M* (Contra Cortex - Infarct) = -27.39	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A

			SEM = 0.9784			
2C	5	Multiple *t* tests; Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test	N/A	N/A	CE 12:0	0.007817
					CE 14:0	0.000752
					CE 15:0	0.003201
					CE 16:0	0.000217
					CE 16:1	0.000495
					CE 17:0	0.001331
					CE 18:0	0.000894
					CE 18:1	0.001131
					CE 18:2	0.001921
					CE 18:3	0.001145
					CE 20:0	0.005071
					CE 20:3	0.001136
					CE 20:4	0.000936
					CE 20:5	0.000785
					CE 22:0	0.00243
					CE 22:6	0.005786
					CE 24:0	0.007793
					CE 24:1	0.000802
5B (B220)	Vehicle = 11	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -12.22	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 1.819			
5B (CD3ε)	Vehicle = 11	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -7.695	< 0.0001	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 0.9035			
5B (CD138)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -51.22	0.0163	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 15.49			
5B (IgA)	8	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -34.30	0.0026	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 9.362			
5B (ORO)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -4.999	0.0462	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 1.995			
6B (B220)	Vehicle = 4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -6.580	0.0039	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 5		*SEM* = 0.8794			
6B (CD3ε)	Vehicle = 8	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -12.75	0.0002	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 7		*SEM* = 2.429			
6B (IgA)	Vehicle = 5	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -21.55	0.0477	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 6		*SEM* = 8.139			
6B (ORO)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -9.330	0.0002	N/A	N/A

			SEM = 1.124			
6B (Alcian Blue)	Vehicle = 9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -1.372	0.4921	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 1.954			
7B (CD19+GL 7-)	Vehicle = 10	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 3.258	0.2191	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 9		*SEM* = 2.553			
7B (CD19+GL 7+)	Vehicle = 10	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -0.1013	0.4796	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 9		*SEM* = 0.1402			
7C (IgG1)	Vehicle = 10	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -2.589	0.9292	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 9		*SEM* = 28.71			
7C (IgA)	Vehicle = 10	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 7.567	0.647	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 9		*SEM* = 16.23			
7E (CD4+ T cells)	9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.03444	0.9715	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.9497			
7E (CD8+ T cells)	9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -0.08889	0.9419	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 1.201			
7E (Tregs)	9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -1.844	0.422	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 2.238			
7F	6	Multiple *t* tests; Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test	N/A	N/A	WBC	0.109564
					Neutrophils	0.213092
					Lymphocytes	0.0445
					Monocytes	0.027171
					Eosinophils	0.662546
					Basophils	0.58393
8E (*Npc1*)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.8853	0.0008	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.1417			
8E (*Npc2*)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.6104	0.0071	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.1525			
8E (*Abca1*)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.7311	0.0208	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.2348			
8E (*Apoe*)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.6647	0.0228	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.2186			
8E (*Trem2*)	4	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.7428	0.0187	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.2325			
14A (Time)	Vehicle = 15	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -26.63	0.0393	N/A	N/A

	HPβCD = 13		*SEM* = 12.27			
14A (Latency)	Vehicle = 15	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 157.5	0.0165	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 13		*SEM* = 61.44			
14B	Vehicle = 15	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 8.520	0.0113	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 14		*SEM* = 3.133			
14C	Vehicle = 7	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = -0.1564	0.0311	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 9		*SEM* = 0.06527			
14D	5	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.3339	0.0487	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.1438			
14E	5	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.3901	0.0039	N/A	N/A
			SEM = 0.09717			
14F (CA1 Hippocampus)	Vehicle = 9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.3379	0.0268	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 0.1394			
14F (CA3 Hippocampus)	Vehicle = 9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.3196	0.0229	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 0.1278			
14F (Dentate Gyrus)	Vehicle = 9	Unpaired *t* test	*M* (HPβCD - Vehicle) = 0.6193	0.0178	N/A	N/A
	HPβCD = 10		*SEM* = 0.2362			

Table 1. Statistical table.

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