Social isolation of aged mice drives dramatic release of inflammatory lipoxygenase-derived

oxylipins

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Abstract

Oxylipins, signalling molecules derived from polyunsaturated fatty acids, act as key mediators

controlling inflammatory processes. Ageing fuels the disruption of this network, promoting

inflammageing. Social isolation, a common feature of ageing, may contribute to the emergence of

pro-inflammatory responses, further aggravating conditions like cognitive decline and frailty.

Here, we studied how repeated social isolation impacts inflammation-related oxylipin profiles in

seven different organs and serum of aged mice. Additionally, we explored physical exercise as a

tool to ameliorate age- and isolation-associated inflammation. Our results show that social

isolation induces significant increases in interleukin-1β levels and stimulates a dramatic

production of lipoxygenase (LOX)-derived oxylipins in an organ-dependent manner, particularly

pronounced in liver, lung, and spleen. Physical exercise failed to mitigate the pro-inflammatory

effects induced by social isolation. These effects did not occur in the circulatory system as serum

oxylipin levels remained relatively unchanged by isolation. The unexpected and striking elevation

of oxylipins across the organs highlights the detrimental effect of social isolation and proposes key

roles of oxylipins in stress-related inflammageing.

Key Words

Exercise / Inflammageing / Oxylipins / Social isolation / Stress

Introduction

Ageing is a complex, multifactorial biological and social process, accompanied by the accumulation of deleterious changes often resulting in decreased health, cognitive decline, and overall loss of function and fitness (Harman 2006; Khan, Singer, and Vaughan 2017).

Disruption of homeostasis, caused by impaired immune functions, immunosenescence (Franceschi et al. 2000), and subsequent increase in chronic low-grade inflammation, termed inflammageing (Furman et al. 2019; Fulop et al. 2023), is considered one of the proposed hallmarks of ageing (Lopez-Otin et al. 2023). Inflammatory processes are tightly regulated by a network of mediators, such as cytokines, chemokines, and oxylipins (Franceschi et al. 2018). During ageing, this complex network becomes dysregulated and aggravates inflammatory processes, as oxylipins play vital roles as lipid mediators in facilitating the initiation, perpetuation, and resolution of inflammation (Arnardottir et al. 2014; Chiurchiu, Leuti, and Maccarrone 2018). Oxylipins are produced from polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) including omega-6 (e.g., arachidonic acid (AA, C20:4)) and omega-3 (e.g., docosahexaenoic acid (DHA, C22:6), eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, C20:5) members. Their mode of action can be both pro- and anti-inflammatory: while pro-inflammatory AA-derived prostaglandins (PG) and leukotrienes (LT) are biosynthesised via the cyclooxygenase (COX) and 5-lipoxygenase (LOX) pathway, anti-inflammatory and pro-resolving oxylipins are mainly omega-3-PUFA-derived and are generated by 5-, 12-, and 15-LOX. The latter oxylipins encompass specialized pro-resolving mediators (SPM) such as protectins, lipoxins (LX), maresins (MaR), resolvins (Rv), as well as their mono-hydroxylated precursors (e.g., 15-hydroxy-eicosapentaenoic acid (15-HEPE), 17-hydroxy-docosahexaenoic acid (17-HDHA)) (Serhan 2014; Leuti et al. 2020). Aberrant oxylipin biosynthesis is a characteristic feature of several age-related diseases, such as cardiovascular disease (Nayeem 2018; Bäck and Hansson 2019), atherosclerosis

(Gleim et al. 2012), and neurodegeneration (Whittington, Planel, and Terrando 2017; Chiurchiu et

al. 2022). In recent studies, we revealed that oxylipin formation exhibits unique organ- and cell

type-specific signatures (Schädel et al. 2021; Schadel et al. 2023), underlining the necessity to

consider age as variable when investigating inflammation.

Furthermore, lifestyle crucially determines biological health and the severity of ageing (Larsson,

Kaluza, and Wolk 2017; Wang, Chen, et al. 2023). Social isolation and loneliness are directly

associated with poor health outcomes, increased inflammation, and cognitive decline in ageing

(Leigh-Hunt et al. 2017; Cardona and Andres 2023). A meta-analysis of 148 studies on social

relationships and mortality risks has found that individuals with stronger social relationships

exhibit a higher likelihood of survival (Holt-Lunstad, Smith, and Layton 2010). Moreover,

genome-wide analyses revealed that people experiencing a high degree of subjective social

isolation show increased leukocyte transcriptional activity, especially in pro-inflammatory

pathways, directly linking social isolation with inflammation (Cole et al. 2007). Maintaining social

connections in old age has proven to be particularly beneficial, as the negative impact of social

isolation is estimated to be higher than that of diabetes (Yang et al. 2016). Mouse studies on social

isolation show elevated corticosterone levels, which acts as the main active endogenous

glucocorticoid in mice, indicating a physiological stress response, along with increased

inflammation and impaired cognitive and immune function (Berry et al. 2012; Ederer et al. 2022;

Muta et al. 2023). Conversely, a positive social environment is associated with better immunity

and increased lifespan (Garrido et al. 2022), underscoring the critical role of social connections in

both ageing and inflammatory processes. But how social isolation affects oxylipin networks and

which roles oxylipins play in physiological consequences of social isolation is unknown.

Metabolic interventions such as voluntary exercise (e.g., for humans taking a walk, for mice

voluntary wheel running) are well established as a tool that may prolong the life and health span

of an individual (Lopez-Otin et al. 2016) and subsequently may mitigate the negative impact of

other lifestyle factors like isolation. While regular exercise yields a multitude of positive outcomes,

the exact molecular drivers behind these benefits are not yet fully understood. Exercise not only

decreases the secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines but also shifts the oxylipin pathways toward

omega-3 substrates, leading to elevated levels of SPM and their precursors (Markworth,

Maddipati, and Cameron-Smith 2016; Pena Calderin et al. 2025). Additionally, it was found that

exercise reduces perceived loneliness (Pels and Kleinert 2016). Although previous studies have

examined inflammageing, age-related social isolation, and late-life exercise interventions

individually, the combined effects and interactions of these factors remain unexplored. Here, we

elucidated the implications of age-associated social isolation and related stress on the

inflammatory microenvironment in aged mice, focusing on oxylipins, as well as cognitive

function, and whether accompanied exercise (i.e., voluntary wheel running) can mitigate the

detrimental effects of social isolation. We accounted for differential plasticity in various organs by

screening seven different organ/tissue types, as well as serum (systemic circulation), creating a

fundamental framework linking inflammation, ageing, and age-associated isolation stress.

Results

The inflammatory status of 7 organs (brain, heart, fat, liver, lung, muscle, spleen) and serum of

adult (5 months) and aged (20 months) C57BL6/J/UKJ mice was assessed by analysis of

inflammation-related cytokine and oxylipin profiles. To investigate the effect of social isolation

stress at a later stage in life, we recurrently separated mice at an age of 18 months into single cages

for three individual nights per week over a period of 8 weeks. Moreover, we addressed exercise as

an established, anti-inflammatory metabolic intervention by providing a running wheel to a

subgroup of isolated aged mice. In this context, aged mice additionally underwent a Barnes maze

test to assess intervention-related changes in cognition. The detailed experimental setup is depicted

in Figure 1.

Organ-specific inflammatory cytokines are differentially affected by ageing but significantly

induced by recurring social isolation

Ageing significantly increased ($p = 0.018$) the body weight of the mice. Old mice in group-housing

(O-GH) had a mean weight of 35.2 ± 0.6 g while the mean weight of adult mice in group-housing

(Ad-GH) was 32.1 ± 0.9 g. Social isolation stress in old mice due to repeated isolation into single

cages (O-ISO) did not significantly alter the final body weight (35.9 ± 1.7 g, $p = 0.692$). However,

the body weight of these isolated aged mice (O-ISO) showed a higher degree of variation versus

old mice in group-housing (O-GH) (Fig. 2a).

To address the inflammatory status of the investigated organs, we examined the protein level of

the pro-inflammatory cytokine interleukin (IL)-1β, and its counteractor IL-1 receptor antagonist

(IL-1ra). We found that ageing did not markedly change IL-1β levels in fat, muscle, and spleen

(Fig. 2b). However, IL-1β levels were significantly decreased due to ageing in brain (Ad-GH: 8.7

$\pm$ 0.2, O-GH: 6.5 ± 0.3 pg/50 mg), heart (Ad-GH: 34.5 ± 5.3, O-GH: 12.3 ± 1.5 pg/50 mg), and

liver (Ad-GH: 273.7 ± 31.7, O-GH: 117.5 ± 17.6 pg/50 mg). Only in the lung, IL-1β was

significantly elevated (Ad-GH: 143.5 ± 8.1, O-GH: 205.9 ± 14.6 pg/50 mg) in the aged compared

to the adult mice (Fig. 2b). When the aged mice underwent social isolation (O-ISO), however,

IL-1β significantly increased in all studied organs except in spleen with only minor elevation

versus the O-GH mice (Fig. 2b, 1.8-fold, $p = 0.234$). Overall, this translates to a distinct, organ-

specific ageing-related impact on IL-1β secretion while stress due to isolation seems to consistently

promote inflammation in most organs. A similar pattern was observed for the levels of IL-1ra,

being significantly increased following isolation of aged mice in fat, heart, liver, muscle, and

spleen (Fig. 2c).

Social isolation potently induces lipoxygenase-derived oxylipin formation

Since oxylipins are crucial regulators of all stages of inflammation (Funk 2001; Levy et al. 2001;

Serhan 2014) we assessed the oxylipin signature profiles of the different organs using a targeted

lipidomic approach based on UPLC-MS/MS. To get an overview of age- and isolation-related

changes in the complex oxylipin profiles, we performed an unbiased principal component analysis.

This analysis revealed distinct age-related alterations in the oxylipin profiles for brain, fat, heart,

and spleen between both group-housed adult (Ad-GH) and aged mice (O-GH) (Fig. 2d). An even

more pronounced separation of the clusters for all organs was observed following isolation of aged

mice (O-ISO) and only in the heart, age had a stronger effect on oxylipin profiles than isolation

(Fig. 2d).

Looking at the changes of the individual screened oxylipins due to ageing, we found distinct organ-

specific ageing signatures with liver, muscle, and spleen exhibiting an overall decrease in

oxylipins, whereas brain, fat, and lung showed divergent oxylipin profiles with age (Fig. 2e, left).

In the heart, ageing led to increased amounts of oxylipins, particularly pronounced for PGs (Fig.

2e, left). Social stress in aged mice due to isolation, however, drives a remarkable increase of a

broad spectrum of oxylipins, especially derived from 5-, 12-, and 15-LOX across various organ

systems (Fig. 2e, right). Interestingly, in lung and spleen, the inflammation-resolving SPMs RvD5

and PDX produced by12/15-LOX were elevated along with pro-inflammatory LTs derived from

5-LOX. In the brain and heart, the oxylipin levels were mostly unaffected by isolation of the aged

mice (Fig. 2e, right).

In order to further characterise the age- and isolation-related effects on the oxylipin formation, we

classified the oxylipins according to their rate-limiting biosynthetic enzymes, i.e., COX, 5-LOX,

12-LOX, and 15-LOX. In detail, for COX products, age-related increases were most pronounced

in the heart (3.71-fold) with minor changes in other organs. Isolation did not affect COX products

in most organs (fat, heart, lung, and muscle), except for brain (0.71-fold), liver (2.79-fold) and

spleen (1.41-fold; Fig. 3a). Taken together, the effect size and its statistical significance indicate

that age and isolation only have a moderate impact on COX-derived oxylipins in most organs.

5-LOX products were much more affected by age and isolation. Thus, 5-LOX product levels

strongly decreased in fat, liver, muscle, and spleen of aged mice compared to adult controls (Fig.

3b). Conversely, ageing markedly increase 5-LOX products in the heart, which is surprisingly not

further aggravated by isolation (Fig. 3b). For all other organs – except muscle where 5-LOX

products were not detectable – isolation led to a marked increase of 5-LOX-derived oxylipins (Fig.

3b, brain: 2.0-fold, fat: 2.1-fold, liver: 18.2-fold, lung: 8.8-fold, spleen: 17.1-fold). The same trend

was observed for oxylipins produced by 12- and 15-LOX (Fig. 3c,d). Thus, ageing caused only

moderate changes in the levels of 12-LOX and 15-LOX products, while social isolation caused a

dramatic increase for both 12-LOX (brain: 5.7-fold, fat: 7.1-fold, liver: 30.1-fold, lung: 4.5-fold,

muscle: 22.2-fold, spleen: 4.3-fold) and 15-LOX products (brain: 1.6-fold, fat: 7.5-fold, liver:

33.4-fold, lung: 7.9-fold, muscle: 2.8-fold, spleen: 15.6-fold) in all organs except for the heart (no

elevation). In more detail, the radar charts showing individual representative oxylipins for each

enzyme class (COX: PGE_2; 5-LOX: LTB_4 and 5-HETE; 12-LOX: 12-HEPE, 12-HETE and 14-

HDHA; 15-LOX: PDX, 15-HEPE, 15-HETE and 17-HDHA) confirm the massive elevation of

LOX-derived oxylipins in all organs caused by social stress due to isolation, except for heart, with

minor or even opposite impact on COX products (e.g., PGE_2). Together, social isolation stress

consistently upregulates LOX-derived oxylipins in organs of aged mice while only the heart and,

to a lesser extent, the brain exhibit a lower susceptibility to social stress-related oxylipin alterations

(Fig. 3e). These increases in LOX-derived oxylipins were evident for conversion of all PUFAs as

substrates, i.e. AA, EPA and DHA.

Late-life exercise cannot rescue isolation effects on inflammatory state

Since voluntary exercise yields a multitude of positive outcomes prolonging the life and health

span (Lopez-Otin et al. 2016) with impact on cytokines and oxylipins (Markworth, Maddipati, and

Cameron-Smith 2016; Pena Calderin et al. 2025), we further investigated whether exercise can

mitigate the effects on the inflammatory mediators induced by social isolation stress. We employed

voluntary wheel running as a late-life exercise intervention in socially isolated aged mice (runners:

O-EX, non-runners: O-ISO). After the intervention period, the group of O-ISO mice (non-runners)

showed a mean weight of 35.9 ± 1.7 g, whereas the group of O-EX mice (runners) showed a slight

decrease in body weight (33.9 ± 1.1 g), yet this difference was not significant (Fig. 4a, $p = 0.357$).

However, the weight loss seems to be connected to the individual running performance of the mice,

as the mouse with the lowest running performance across the 10-week-long experimental period

showed the highest weight and vice versa (Fig. 4b).

We then investigated the levels of IL-1β and IL-1ra and assessed the oxylipin signature profiles of

organs from aged mice during isolation that were either allowed to exercise (O-EX) or not (O-ISO).

Only in the lung, exercise led to a significant decrease in IL-1β levels (0.72-fold) (Fig. 4c) and a

small decrease by trend was observed in heart (0.72-fold, $p = 0.241$) and spleen (Fig. 4c, 0.62-fold,

$p = 0.151$). For all other organs, the IL-1β levels were essentially unchanged. Similarly, IL-1ra

levels remained essentially unaltered between O-EX and O-ISO, without significant impact of

exercise in any organ (Fig. 4d). Principal component analysis of the overall oxylipin profiles

showed no marked differences (no separation of clusters) for all organs comparing O-ISO versus

O-EX, with both the position of mean and 95% confidence intervals being similar (Fig. 4e). Yet,

when looking at individual oxylipins in detail (Fig. 4f), oxylipin levels in fat (increased) and liver

(decreased) were most affected by exercise, particularly pronounced for monohydroxylated fatty

acids like 5-HETE, 4-HDHA, 12-HETE, 12-HEPE etc. (Fig. 4f). Interestingly, in the lung, exercise

decreased PG and RvD5 formation but did not affect other oxylipins (Fig. 4f). Analysis of oxylipin

groups according to biosynthetic enzymes (i.e., COX, 5-, 12-, 15-LOX) reveals no significant

alterations due to exercise in any organ (Fig. S2a-d), and only in fat and liver a tendency for

changes was observed. Thus, the most notable change by trend upon exercise is the increase of 5-

and 15-LOX-derived products in fat tissue (5-LOX: 2.02-fold, $p = 0.131$; 15-LOX: 1.52-fold,

$p = 0.082$) while COX- and 12-LOX-derived products remain at a similar level to sedentary mice

(Fig. 4g). Furthermore, exercise led to a small decrease in LOX-derived products (5-LOX: 0.72-

fold, $p = 0.214$; 12-LOX: 0.52-fold, $p = 0.140$; 15-LOX: 0.67-fold, $p = 0.188$) in the liver, while

the level of COX-derived products was unaltered (Fig. 4h). Together, for aged mice undergoing

social isolation stress, the variable of voluntary exercise has only a minor impact on the massive

alterations of oxylipins and cytokine levels caused by isolation.

Cognitive function does not benefit from voluntary exercise in isolation

In a previous study (Ederer et al. 2022), we addressed the relation between age and cognition in

male, group-housed mice by subjecting them to a Barnes maze test, revealing a cognitive decline

that occurs between the ages of 15 and 24 months. It was also shown that for aged mice, constant

social isolation further impairs cognitive function. To evaluate whether voluntary wheel running

can mitigate cognitive decline in ageing and social stress through repeated isolation and

resocialisation, we tested isolated aged mice in the Barnes maze to assess spatial learning, as well

as short- and long-term memory. The timeline of the implementation of the Barnes maze test is

shown in the schematic in Fig. 5a. During the training period for the Barnes maze test, both cohorts

with recurring social stress (O-ISO and O-EX) showed a similar, improved performance over time.

No strong exercise-mediated improvements were observed during training (Fig. 5b). The probe

trial (short-term memory) and the retention test (long-term memory) did not reveal cognitive

improvement following exercise (Fig. 5c,d). During the reversal test (cognitive flexibility), the

O-EX mice showed a shorter primary latency and an increased cognitive score compared to O-ISO

mice, suggesting a potential facilitation in task adaptation (Fig. 5e). Overall, exercise intervention

in late life does not seem to improve spatial learning, short and long-term memory in aged mice

experiencing social isolation stress, but O-EX showed an improved cognitive flexibility.

Reduced age-associated inflammatory repertoire of oxylipins and proteins in serum is

maintained after isolation and exercise

To determine whether the observed organ-specific effects due to ageing and isolation as well as

exercise are reflected in the systemic circulation, we characterised the inflammatory secretome

(oxylipins and proteins) in the serum of the mice cohorts from above. Based on both, the principal

component analysis of the oxylipin profiles and the detailed analysis of the individual oxylipins,

age but not isolation or exercise is the main driver for the observed alterations (Fig. 6a,b). While

in the PCA all aged cohorts (O-GH, O-ISO, O-EX) cluster tightly together, the oxylipin profile of

the adult cohort (Ad-GH) shows a distinct shift (Fig. 6a). The majority of the screened oxylipins

in serum are decreased due to age (O-GH/Ad-GH, Fig. 6b) with significant changes for 5- and 15-

LOX-derived products (5-LOX: 0.55-fold, 15-LOX: 0.54-fold, Fig. 6c). To our surprise and in

contrast to organs (see above), isolation only had a minor impact on oxylipin levels in serum,

reflected by the lack of changes for COX and 12-LOX products, and only moderate increases in

5- and 15-LOX-derived products in serum from O-ISO versus O-GH mice (5-LOX: 1.63-fold,

$p = 0.014$; 15-LOX: 1.44-fold, $p = 0.174$, Fig. 6c). These serum oxylipin levels of O-ISO did not

markedly change due to exercise, apart from a 4-fold increase in 5-LOX-derived products (O-ISO:

mean $= 822.2 \pm 124.0$ pg/mL, O-EX: mean $= 3341.3 \pm 1661.3$ pg/mL; $p = 0.211$) which was,

however, not significant and attributed to only 2 out of the 6 biological replicates (Fig. 6c).

We next employed an unbiased analysis of the repertoire of inflammation-related cytokines,

chemokines, enzymes, and growth factors in the serum of Ad-GH, O-GH, O-ISO, and O-EX mice,

using a commercially available Proteome Profiler, allowing us to screen for the relative abundance

of 111 candidates. In line with the reduced amounts of most of the oxylipins (Fig. 6b), ageing led

to an overall downregulation (82.0%) of the investigated proteins in serum (Fig. 6d). Isolation,

however, led to an increased expression of 82.9% of the proteins (Fig. 6d). Despite the seemingly

contradictory dynamics, the proportions of proteins being down-regulated with age and up-

regulated due to isolation are not congruent (Fig. S3). The exercise intervention (O-EX) led to less

pronounced and more balanced alterations for aged mice under isolation (O-ISO) with 59.5% up-

and 38.7% downregulated proteins (Fig. 6d). Acute phase proteins (APPs, e.g., complement factors

and pentraxins) and chemokines (particularly of the CCL and CXCL classes) were impaired due

to age versus adult mice (Fig. 6e,f). Such overarching class effects could not be observed for the

cohorts O-ISO and O-EX under isolation. Interestingly, the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-6, the

chemokine CXCL1, and the LPS receptor cluster of differentiation (CD)14 were increased in

O-ISO versus O-GH mice (Fig. 6e,f). Exercise of aged mice under isolation, however, induced

higher levels of murine C-reactive protein (CRP), CCL11, CCL21, and vascular endothelial

growth factor (VEGF) versus O-ISO mice (Fig. 6e,f). These alterations in the abundance of

inflammation-related serum markers indicate a reduced immune competence with age, and distinct

pro-inflammatory responses due to isolation and exercise.

Discussion

Social isolation, a phenomenon commonly occurring in late life, is extensively described as a risk factor for increased morbidity and mortality and is associated with higher levels of inflammation and cognitive decline (Hodgson et al. 2020; Wang, Gao, et al. 2023). Considering inflammation as a shared feature of ageing (Ferrucci and Fabbri 2018), isolation (Yang et al. 2013; Smith et al. 2020), and an inactive lifestyle (Fenton et al. 2018), we examined the inflammatory cytokine and oxylipin secretome in mice undergoing recurring social isolation and resocialisation, and whether voluntary physical exercise can ameliorate the inflammatory stress responses due to isolation in single housing. Unexpectedly, we found dramatic elevation of inflammation-related LOX-derived oxylipins due to social isolation in an organ-specific manner, especially affecting liver, lung, and spleen. Surprisingly, physical exercise showed a neglectable impact on the organ-intrinsic oxylipin secretome of isolated mice and was hardly evident in systemic circulation.

Previous studies have frequently investigated and described social isolation as a stressor, resulting in a variety of adverse health outcomes (Grant, Hamer, and Steptoe 2009; Mumtaz et al. 2018). The magnitude of these events, however, varies greatly depending on the type and duration of social isolation (Shoji and Mizoguchi 2011; Hammig 2019). Studies on permanent or short- to long-term social isolation reported mixed and sometimes contradictory results. Thus, a four-week social isolation period of both male and female adult mice (3 months) affected female animals more than males, but overall, the isolation only had minimal effects on serum levels of the stress marker corticosterone, behaviour, and body weight (Smolensky et al. 2024). Conversely, shorter periods of single housing of mice, such as 4 - 5 days only, tend to produce more pronounced detrimental effects, including anxiety behaviour, elevated urinary stress hormones, and weight loss (Muta et al. 2023). These findings suggest that, while isolation quickly triggers a strong stress

response, mice may adapt within a few weeks, resulting in lower or unchanged stress markers over

prolonged isolation. Nevertheless, despite seemingly modest stress responses, long-term isolation

of degus over a period of 20-24 months still promotes a pro-inflammatory state (Oliva et al. 2023).

Research on the effects of long-term isolation in human cohorts is limited. One study reported

elevated cortisol levels and heightened immune activation in men after an isolation period of

approximately 1.5 years (Yi et al. 2014). However, to allow comparability between studies on

isolation, further adjustments to the experimental conditions are needed. In our study, aged mice

underwent a social stress protocol of repeated isolation in single housing for three individual nights

per week and subsequent resocialisation in group housing over a total period of 8 weeks. Our

results confirm that such repeated social isolation acts as a potent and impactful stressor, elevating

the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL-1β. We showed before, that oxylipins are affected by ageing in

an organ-specific manner (Schädel et al. 2021), which we also confirm in this study. Additionally,

we here uncover a dramatic upregulation of LOX-derived oxylipin production in several organs

due to isolation, while COX products that are produced from the same PUFA substrates (Funk

2001) were hardly altered. Increased IL-1β has previously been linked to an isolation-associated

inflammatory phenotype (Magalhaes et al. 2024), but our findings demonstrate, for the first time

the tremendous effect of social isolation stress on oxylipins as responsible mediators of the

inflammatory response in several organs. Notably, these age- and isolation-related effects did not

occur systemically, reflected by the overall moderate changes of oxylipin levels in serum of mice.

The dramatic changes in oxylipin formation due to isolation may be attributed to a dysregulation

of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis in response to social isolation as a psychosocial

stressor, resulting in elevated glucocorticoid (GC) signalling. It is known that oxylipins,

particularly eicosanoids such as PGs, can be affected by stress-related GC (Umamaheswaran et al.

2018), and that GC may influence the expression of COX-1 and -2 (Goppelt-Struebe, Wolter, and

Resch 1989; Ehrchen et al. 2007). LOX expression has likewise been shown to be regulated

through exogenous GC, which can decrease the pro-inflammatory immune response along with

elevated 15-LOX-2 expression and elevated SPM levels (Riddick et al. 1997; Rao et al. 2023).

Although the murine paralog of 15-LOX-2, also called m8-LOX, is known to oxygenate free

substrates at the 8-position primarily, it has been demonstrated to oxygenate the 15-position in the

case of phospholipid-esterified fatty acid substrates (Bender et al. 2016). This could explain the

observed increase in 15-LOX-derived products. Our present results documenting elevated LOX

products in several organs and tissues of aged mice due to social isolation stress, predominantly in

immunological organs like spleen, liver, and lung, are in good agreement with the above-

mentioned impact of GC on oxylipin biosynthesis. Whether or not isolation of aged mice elevates

LOX expression and if GC are involved in this process remains to be explored in more detail.

Aberrations in inflammatory signalling caused by age and isolation may raise the risk of

dysregulated homeostasis, leading to chronic basal inflammation. Cognitive decline may also

result from age- and stress-related imbalances in oxylipins, as PG signalling and 5-LOX expression

have been associated with reduced cognitive function and depression-like symptoms (Luo et al.

2016; Minhas et al. 2021; Mrowetz et al. 2023). Furthermore, chronic social stress has been found

to significantly elevate levels of 12-LOX-derived metabolites 12-HETE and 12-HEPE in the brain

(Akiyama et al. 2022). In our study, isolation of aged mice elevated both, 5-LOX products with

mainly pro-inflammatory features (Haeggstrom 2018) but also 12/15-LOX-derived SPM like

RvD5, PDX, and MaR2 and their precursors 17-HDHA and 14-HDHA, which act as

immunoresolvents that terminate and resolve inflammation (Serhan 2014). Therefore, these

alterations in oxylipin profiles may be connected to a stress-induced activation of the innate

immune system, triggering the mobilisation of neutrophils, monocytes, and monocyte-derived

macrophages, as primary producers of oxylipins (McKim et al. 2018).

Lifestyle interventions such as diet or exercise are popular and well-characterised means of

mitigating or circumventing negative age-related health outcomes (Ngandu et al. 2015; Fitzgerald

et al. 2021). Exercise has been shown to exhibit anti-inflammatory features, which are, however,

highly dependent on type, duration, onset, and intensity (Gleeson et al. 2011). For example, Sun

et al. found that exercise indeed reduces inflammageing features like IL-1β secretion during long-

term exercise (12-month voluntary exercise) in young and aged mice exposed to infectious injury

(Sun et al. 2023). Thus, mice that underwent exercise were more protected from LPS challenge

than sedentary mice. However, this effect was less pronounced in mice that started the exercise

regimen at an older age (Sun et al. 2023), and is in line with results indicating that adaptive and

acute responses to physical activity decline with advancing age (Durham et al. 2010). This may

also explain why our results did not confirm previous findings showing that exercise stimulates

both pro- as well as anti-inflammatory pro-resolving lipid mediators (Calderin et al. 2022; Malan

et al. 2024; Pena Calderin et al. 2025). In contrast to these studies, our exercise protocol started in

late life (18 mo), in addition to the stress factor of repeated social isolation and resocialisation. We

suppose that the detrimental effects of social isolation override the benefits of physical exercise,

and thus, no ameliorating effect of exercise on pro-inflammatory signatures could be observed.

While our protocol of repeated isolation and resocialisation may better mimic isolation in the

elderly than current long-term isolation models, several limitations should be recognised. Past

studies have shown that the effects of social isolation occur in a sex-specific manner, with female

mice generally being more affected than males (Smolensky et al. 2024). To understand the origin

and implications of the proposed effects, future studies in female mice, ideally in comparison to

male counterparts, will be essential. Additionally, inclusion of an infection model, e.g., bacterial

pneumonia caused by *S. pneumoniae*, a common infection in the elderly (Gutierrez et al. 2006;

Ruiz et al. 2014), would be helpful to assess not only the basal inflammatory microenvironment

but also to evaluate immune competence and whether repeated social isolation stress may

significantly impair immunological resilience and resolution processes.

In future studies, the molecular signalling circuits that connect social isolation and inflammageing

need to be further explored. It is also important to recognise that the idea of gradual ageing is

increasingly challenged, with findings indicating that nonlinear ageing may be more common and

that abrupt changes might amplify ageing processes (Shen et al. 2024; Olecka et al. 2024; Olecka,

Morrison, and Hoffmann 2025). As such, social isolation stress in elderly may push individuals

past a critical threshold, triggering escalation of inflammation and accelerating ageing.

Our findings demonstrate that repeated cycles of social isolation and resocialisation may act as

stressors, increasing inflammation-related cytokine secretion and dramatically enhancing the

formation of LOX-derived oxylipins in defined organs, impacting inflammation and tissue

homeostasis. Notably and to the best of our knowledge, this is the first report revealing organ-

specific oxylipin modulation upon social isolation, offering a novel framework for future

interdisciplinary research at the intersection of inflammation, ageing, and social isolation. Under

our experimental conditions, voluntary physical exercise did not counteract the consequences of

social isolation stress on oxylipin production. Conclusively, the dramatic elevation of LOX-

derived oxylipins highlights the impact of social isolation stress, a common phenomenon in the

elderly, on inflammatory mediators within several specific organs and propose oxylipins as

determinants of stress-related inflammageing.

Methods

Animals and sample isolation

Male C57BL/6J/UKJ mice were bred and housed at the Central Experimental Animal Facility at

Jena University Hospital, Jena, Germany. Mice were kept on a 14/10 h light/dark cycle and at 22

$\pm$ 2 °C with a relative humidity of 55 $\pm$ 10%. The mice had unrestricted access to water and food

(ssniff mouse V1534-300, ssniff Spezialdiäten GmbH, Soest, Germany). Four experimental

cohorts were established: (1) Ad-GH ($n = 5$), adult mice at 5 months of age that were kept in group-

housing throughout their lives; (2) O-GH ($n = 6$), 20-months-old mice that were kept in group-

housing throughout their lives; (3) O-ISO ($n = 5$ for oxylipin analysis, $n = 18$ for cognitive testing),

aged mice that were kept in group-housing until 18 months of age, then over a period of 8 weeks,

repeatedly separated for three individual nights per week (Sunday, Tuesday, Thursday) into single

cages before being returned to their littermates; and (4) O-EX ($n = 6$ for oxylipin analysis, $n = 17$

for cognitive testing), aged mice treated identically to O-ISO mice but provided with running

wheel during the isolation nights, allowing for voluntary wheel running.

After the experimental period, mice were euthanised by cervical dislocation. Whole blood was

collected immediately after death. To extract serum, blood was kept at room temperature for

around 60 min to ensure clotting. Samples were subsequently centrifuged for 30 min at 2,000 xg.

Serum was transferred into fresh reagent tubes and stored at -80 °C. Seven organs, namely brain,

fat (visceral WAT), heart, liver, lung, muscle (quadriceps and gastrocnemius), and spleen were

harvested, washed with PBS (pH 7.4, SERVA, Heidelberg, Germany; 47302.03), and stored

at -80 °C.

Cognitive testing with Barnes maze

The Barnes maze is employed to assess spatial learning, short- and long-term memory, memory

retrieval, and cognitive flexibility by training animals to associate distal cues with a fixed escape

box (Ederer et al. 2022). Mice are placed on a brightly lit circular platform with 20 holes, one of

which provides access to an escape box. The protocol comprises one day of habituation, followed

by 6 training days (3 trials/day with an inter-trial interval of 60 min) to assess learning. The

following day, a probe trial, for which all holes are closed, evaluates short-term memory. After

three days without further training, a retention test assesses long-term memory retention with the

original hole with the escape box opened again. Lastly, one day later the position of the escape

box is placed 180° opposite to the original position. This reversal test measures cognitive

flexibility.

Organ homogenisation

For fat, liver, lung, muscle and spleen, organ homogenates were prepared by weighing 20-40 mg

of organ tissue in tubes containing around 100 mg of lysing matrix D per 10 mg organ (M.P.

Biomedicals, Irvine, CA, USA; 116540434). The lysis buffer was added at a ratio of 20 µL per

milligram organ (1% (*v/v*) NP-40 (AppliChem, Darmstadt, Germany; A1694), 1 mM sodium

orthovanadate (AppliChem; A2196), 10 mM sodium fluoride (AppliChem; A3904), 5 mM sodium

pyrophosphate (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA; S8282), 25 mM β-glycerophosphate (Sigma

Aldrich; G9422), 5 mM EDTA (AppliChem; A2937), 25 µM leupeptin (Sigma Aldrich; L2884),

3 mM soybean trypsin inhibitor (Sigma Aldrich; T9128) and 1 mM phenylmethanesulfonyl

fluoride (Sigma Aldrich; P7626)). For the homogenisation of brain and heart, one hemisphere and

the whole heart, respectively, were weighed into tubes containing lysing matrix D, and 5 µL of

lysis buffer per milligram organ was added. All organs were homogenised using a FastPrep-24™

5G bead beating homogeniser using established protocols (M.P. Biomedicals).

Cytokine quantification via ELISA

For cytokine quantification, homogenates were centrifuged at 21,100 xg, 4 °C for 10 min. The

supernatant was transferred into fresh reagent tubes and stored at -20 °C until further analysis. The

final concentration of the homogenates was 50 mg/mL for fat, liver, lung, muscle, spleen, and

200 mg/mL for brain and heart.

Quantification of cytokines in organ homogenates was performed using commercially available

ELISA kits for murine IL-1β (DY401-05) and IL-1ra (DY406-15), manufactured by R&D Systems

(Minneapolis, MN, USA). The assays were completed per the manufacturer's instructions.

Quantification was based standard curves generated individually for each experiment.

Oxylipin quantification via UPLC-tandem mass spectrometry

For oxylipin quantification, immediately after homogenisation, homogenates were mixed 1:1 with

ice-cold methanol (fisher chemical; 10653963). Samples were kept on ice for around 20 min, and

then centrifuged at 21,100 xg, 4 °C for 10 min. The amount of supernatant equivalent to 20-30 mg

organ was then transferred into glass vials containing 990 µL ice-cold methanol and 10 µL of

deuterium-labelled internal standard [200 nM d_8-5S-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (HETE)

(Cayman Chemical; 334230), d_4-LTB$_4$ (Cayman Chemical; 320110), d_5-LXA$_4$ (Cayman

Chemical; 24936), d_5-RvD2 (Cayman Chemical; 11184), d_4-PGE$_2$ (Cayman Chemical; 10007273)

and 10 µM d_8-AA (Cayman Chemical; 390010). Finally, lysis buffer was added to yield a total

volume of 3 mL and stored overnight at -20 °C to ensure protein precipitation.

After centrifugation (1,200 xg, 4°C for 10 min), supernatants were transferred to clean glass vials

and acidified by addition of 9 mL of MilliQ water (pH 3.5). Solid phase extraction of organ

samples was performed as previously described (Werner et al. 2019). Purified samples were

evaporated under continuous N$_2$ flow, and the residue was resuspended in 200 µL of an equal

mixture of methanol and water (VWR Chemicals, 83645320). After final centrifugation at

21,100 xg, 4°C for 5 min, the supernatant was used for ultra-performance liquid chromatography

coupled with tandem mass spectrometry (UPLC-MS/MS) analysis. Analytes were separated on an

Acquity UPLC system (Waters, Milford, MA, USA) equipped with an Acquity UPLC BEH C18

column (1.7 µm, 2.1 mm × 100 mm; Waters, Eschborn, Germany) and a pre-column of identical

material with column temperature set to 50°C. The gradient was adjusted as listed in Table 1.

Analytes were detected using a QTRAP 5500 mass spectrometer (ABSciex, Darmstadt, Germany)

with electrospray ionisation, operated as previously described.(Werner et al. 2019)

Table 1: Composition of mobile phase and elution gradient for targeted lipidomics.

Time [min]	Flow rate [mL/min]	Eluent A [%] (H$_2$O/MeOH 90/10 + 0.01 % CH$_3$COOH)	Eluent B [%] (MeOH + 0.01 % CH$_3$COOH)
0	0.3	64.4	35.6
4.8 - 19.0	0.3	45.5	54.5
26.7	0.3	15.6	84.4
29.7	0.3	2.2	97.8
30.7	0.3	64.4	35.6

The QTRAP 5500 was operated in negative mode using scheduled multiple reaction monitoring

(MRM) with the MRM window set to 60 s. The retention time and constitutional stereochemistry

of analytes were confirmed by external standards (Cayman Chemical), and individual calibration

curves were obtained for quantification, using the ratios of the areas of external standards to their

corresponding internal standard (ES/IS). Additional information, such as the specific transitions,

detection and quantitation limits for each screened metabolite, is listed in Table S1. Representative

unsmoothed chromatograms from samples showing peaks of oxylipins relevant to this study are

provided in Fig. S4. For further analysis, the determined concentration was normalised to pg or ng

oxylipin per 50 mg organ. The normalised raw data is provided in Table S2.

Assessment of serum proteome (Proteome Profiler)

Serum samples were pooled from 4-5 biological replicates to a final volume of 100 μL. The serum

samples were assessed for the relative abundance of 111 cytokines using the commercially

available Proteome Profiler Mouse XL Cytokine Array Kit (ARY028) by R&D Systems, following

the manufacturer's guidelines. After treatment with IRDye 800CW streptavidin (LI-COR, Bad

Homburg, Germany), and the membranes were analysed with an LI-COR Odyssey Infrared

Imaging System. Pictures of the raw blots are included in Fig. S1.

Data handling and statistical analysis

Results are presented as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) unless stated otherwise. For data

analysis and visualisation GraphPad Prism (Version 10.4.1), Origin Pro (Version 2023b), RStudio

(2024.12.0) and Adobe Illustrator (version 29.3) were used. For the analysis of the oxylipin data,

values below the determined limits of detection (LOD) were set to the corresponding LOD, and

values between LOD and the lower limit of quantification (LLOQ) were set to ½ LLOQ, unless

stated otherwise. For the principal component analysis, RStudio in combination with the R

packages FactoMineR (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/FactoMineR/index.html) and

factoextra   (https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/factoextra/index.html)   was   used,   and

metabolites for which all values were below the LLOQ were excluded from analysis. The ROUT

outlier test was used to identify outliers within data sets, with a Q-value set to 0.5. Detected outliers

were excluded from further analysis. The distribution of datasets was checked by Shapiro-Wilk

test with α set to 0.05 and, if implied, data was log-transformed for statistical analysis. For group

comparisons, an unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-test was performed. Statistical significance was

assumed for comparisons with $p \leq 0.05$. Significance is indicated as: *$p \leq 0.05$, **$p \leq 0.01$,

***$p \leq 0.001$, ****$p \leq 0.0001$, or # respectively, ns, not significant.

List of abbreviations

AA – arachidonic acid

Ad – adult

APP – acute-phase proteins

CD – cluster of differentiation

COX – cyclooxygenase

CRP – C-reactive protein

DHA – docosahexaenoic acid

EPA – eicosatetraenoic acid

EX – exercise

GC – glucocorticoid

GH – group-housed

HDHA – hydroxydocosahexaenoic acid

HETE – hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid

HPA – hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal

IL – Interleukin

IL-1ra – IL-1 receptor antagonist

ISO – isolated for 3 individual nights per week

LLOQ – limit of lower quantification

LOD – limit of detection

LOX – lipoxygenase

LT – leukotriene

LX – lipoxin

MaR – maresin

MRM – multiple reaction monitoring

O – aged

PG – prostaglandin

Rv – resolvin

SEM – standard error of mean

UPLC-MS/MS – ultra-performance liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry

VEGF – vascular endothelial growth factor

Declarations

Ethical Statement

All studies were conducted in compliance with the recommendations of the European Commission

for the protection of animals used for scientific purposes and with the approval of the local

authorities Thüringer Landesamt für Verbraucherschutz, Germany license UKJ-19-014, and

TWZ09-2022.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Availability of data and materials

The datasets analysed during the current study are included in this published article and its

supplementary information files.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Figures

Figure 1: Schematic representation of the recurring social isolation and physical exercise

intervention.

5-month-old, adult male mice (Ad-GH, $n = 5$) were kept in group housing until sacrificed. For the

O-GH cohort, aged mice were maintained in group housing throughout their lives and underwent

cognitive testing in the last three weeks before sacrifice. To investigate the effect of recurring

social isolation in late-life, 18-month-old mice were repeatedly isolated into single cages for 3

individual nights per week, and resocialised with their corresponding littermates throughout a total

of 8 subsequent weeks. The single cages were equipped with (= O-EX) or without (= O-ISO)

running wheels. Aged mice underwent cognitive testing ($n = 17\text{-}18$) during the last weeks before

the end of the experiment. Organs and blood for serum investigation ($n = 5\text{-}6$) were collected

immediately after sacrifice.

Figure 2: Ageing leads to organ-specific inflammatory phenotypes that are aggravated by

social isolation stress.

(a) Body weight of adult (5 months) and aged (20 months) mice after being kept in group-housing

(Ad-GH and O-GH, respectively) or repeatedly isolated (O-ISO). **(b,c)** Concentration of the

cytokines IL-1β and IL-1ra in pg per 50 mg organ. **(d)** Principal component analysis of organ-

specific oxylipin profiles. Hexagons indicate the mean PCA score of all screened replicates within

respective experimental groups. **(e)** Log$_2$-fold changes for the organ-specific concentrations of

individual oxylipins for the comparison of aged (O-GH) and adult (Ad-GH) mice kept in group-

housing (left panel), and the comparison of aged, repeatedly isolated (O-ISO) and aged, group-

housed (O-GH) mice (right panel). Fold-changes that could not be calculated due to missing values

(e.g., below limit of detection = nd) are depicted in grey. **Statistics**: Data are shown as **(a-c)** mean

± SEM. The number of biological replicates is $n = 5$ for Ad-GH and O-ISO, $n = 6$ for O-GH.

Unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-tests with or without Welch-correction were performed for

indicated comparisons. #, comparison of O-GH versus Ad-GH.

Figure 3: Social isolation stress leads to induction of LOX pathways.

Total grouped amounts of oxylipins that are products of the COX **(a)** or LOX **(b-d)** pathways.

Metabolites were grouped as follows: *COX* – PGD_1, PGE_1, $PGF_{1\alpha}$, 6-keto $PGF_{1\alpha}$, PGD_2, PGE_2,

15-keto PGE_2, $PGF_{2\alpha}$, $PGF_{2\beta}$, PGJ_2, PGD_3/PGE_3, $PGF_{3\alpha}$, TXB_2; *5-LOX* – RvE1, RvE2, *trans*-

LTB_4, *epitrans*-LTB_4, LTB_4/5S,12S-diHETE, 5S,6R-diHETE, 20-OH LTB_4, LTB_5, 5-HETE, 5-

HEPE, 7-HDHA; *12-LOX* – MaR1, MaR2, 12-HETE, 12-HEPE, 14-HDHA; *15-LOX* – PDx, PD1,

RvD1, RvD2, RvD3, RvD4, RvD5, RvE4, LXA_4, LXB_4, LXA_5, 5S,15S-diHETE, 15-HETE, 15-

HEPE, 17-HDHA. Values are given as ng per 50 mg organ. LOD of the oxylipins is indicated, if

applicable. **(e)** Radar charts of individual oxylipins in aged, group-housed mice (O-GH, blue) and

aged mice undergoing repeated isolation (O-ISO, red). **Statistics**: Data are shown as (a-d) mean ±

SEM. The number of biological replicates is $n = 5$ for Ad-GH and O-ISO, $n = 6$ for O-GH.

Unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-tests with or without Welch-correction were performed for

indicated comparisons. #, comparison of O-GH versus Ad-GH.

Figure 4: Exercise cannot ameliorate increased oxylipin secretion in aged mice affected by

social isolation stress.

(a) Body weight of aged (20 month) mice after being repeatedly isolated into single cages with

(O-EX) or without running wheels (O-ISO) for 3 separate nights per week over a period of 8

weeks. **(b)** Total running performance of O-EX mice is summarised in km over the experimental

period of eight weeks. **(a,b)** Numbers indicate the individual animals in the O-EX cohort. **(c,d)**

Concentration of IL-1β and IL-1ra in pg per 50 mg organ from O-ISO and O-EX mice. **(e)** Principal

component analysis of organ-specific oxylipin profiles from O-ISO and O-EX mice. Hexagons

indicate the mean PCA score of all screened replicates within respective experimental groups. **(f)**

Log_2-fold changes for the organ-specific levels of individual oxylipins comparing the levels of O-

EX versus O-ISO mice. Fold-changes that could not be calculated due to missing values (e.g.,

below limit of detection = nd) are depicted in grey. **(g,h)** Total amounts of grouped oxylipin species

derived from the COX or LOX pathways in **(g)** fat and **(h)** liver. Oxylipins were grouped as

indicated in Fig. 3. Values are given as ng per 50 mg organ. Limit of detection (LOD) of oxylipins

is indicated, if applicable. **Statistics**: Data are shown as (**a-d**, **g-h**) mean ± SEM. The number of

biological replicates is $n = 5$ for O-ISO and $n = 5$-6 for O-EX. Unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-

tests with or without Welch-correction were performed for indicated comparisons.

Figure 5: Cognitive function assessment of mice undergoing recurring social isolation with

and without physical exercise.

Results from the Barnes maze test, depicted as the primary latency period and as cognitive scores

for **(b)** training, **(c)** probe trial, **(d)** after a retention period, and **(e)** in a reversal test. **Statistics**:

Data are shown as mean ± SEM. The number of biological replicates is $n = 18$ for O-GH and $n =$

17 for O-EX. Unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-tests with or without Welch-correction were

performed for indicated comparisons.

Figure 6: Impact of age and social isolation on inflammatory oxylipins and proteins in serum

(a) Principal component analysis of oxylipin profile of serum. Hexagons indicate the mean PCA

score of all screened replicates within respective experimental groups. **(b)** Log$_2$-fold changes for

the concentrations of individual lipid mediators, detected in serum, comparing the levels of (AGE)

O-GH versus Ad-GH, (ISOLATION) O-ISO versus O-GH, and (EXERCISE) O-EX versus O-ISO

mice. **(c)** Total amounts of grouped LM species that are products of the COX or LOX pathways in

serum. Metabolites were grouped as indicated for Fig. 3. Values are given as pg per mL serum.

Limit of detection (LOD) of the metabolites is indicated, if applicable. **(d)** Log$_2$-fold changes of

111 screened, circulating proteins in pooled serum samples and percentages of regulated proteins

for the depicted comparisons. **(e)** Heatmap showing the relative abundance of the investigated

proteins in all experimental cohorts. **(f)** Radar charts displaying the relative abundance of selected

(top left) acute-phase proteins, (top right) classical cytokines and chemokines, and (bottom)

various surface markers and inflammatory proteins. **Statistics**: Data are shown as mean ± SEM

(**c**). The number of biological replicates is $n = 5$ for Ad-GH and O-ISO, $n = 14$ for O-GH and $n =$

6 for O-EX. (**d-f**) Samples were pooled from the serum of 4-5 biological replicates for all screened

cohorts. Unpaired, two-tailed Student's *t*-tests with or without Welch-correction were performed

for indicated comparisons.

Supplementary Information

Figure S1: Raw pictures of proteome profiler membranes

(a) Schematic layout of the proteome profiler overlay template used for the analysis of circulating

proteins in pooled serum samples. **(b)** List of the 111 screened proteins allotted to their

corresponding position on the membrane. **(c)** Pictures of the membranes used for the analysis of

circulating serum proteins in pooled serum samples.

a.

b.

spot	legend	spot	legend
A1-A2	reference spots	F1-F2	IGFBP-3
A3-A4	adiponectin	F3-F4	IGFBP-5
A5-A6	amphiregulin	F5-F6	IGFBP-6
A7-A8	angiopoietin-1	F7-F8	IL-1α
A9-A10	angiopoietin-2	F9-F10	IL-1β
A11-A12	angiopoietin-like 3	F11-F12	IL-1ra
A13-A14	CD257	F13-F14	IL-2
A15-A16	CD93	F15-F16	IL-3
A17-A18	MCP-1	F17-F18	IL-4
A19-A20	MIP-1α/β	F19-F20	IL-5
A21-A22	RANTES	F21-F22	IL-6
A23-A24	reference spots	F23-F24	IL-7
B3-B4	MRP-1	G1-G2	IL-10
B5-B6	eotaxin	G3-G4	IL-11
B7-B8	MCP-5	G5-G6	IL-12
B9-B10	TARC	G7-G8	IL-13
B11-B12	MIP-3β	G9-G10	IL-15
B13-B14	MIP-3α	G11-G12	IL-17A
B15-B16	SCYA21	G13-G14	IL-22
B17-B18	MDC	G15-G16	IL-23
B19-B20	CD14	G17-G18	IL-27
B21-B22	CD40	G19-G20	IL-28A/B
C3-C4	CD160	G21-G22	IL-33
C5-C6	chemerin	G23-G24	LDL R
C7-C8	chitinase 3-like 1	H1-H2	leptin
C9-C10	CD142	H3-H4	LIF
C11-C12	C5a	H5-H6	lipocalin-2
C13-C14	complement factor D	H7-H8	LIX
C15-C16	CRP	H9-H10	M-CSF
C17-C18	fractalkine	H11-H12	MMP-2
C19-C20	KC	H13-H14	MMP-3
C21-C22	MIP-2	H15-H16	MMP-9
D1-D2	MIG	H17-H18	myeloperoxidase
D3-D4	IP-10	H19-H20	osteopontin
D5-D6	I-TAC	H21-H22	osteoprotegerin
D7-D8	BCA-1	H23-H24	gliostatin
D9-D10	CXCL16	I1-I2	PDGF-BB
D11-D12	cystatin C	I3-I4	pentraxin 2
D13-D14	DKK-1	I5-I6	pentraxin 3
D15-D16	CD26	I7-I8	periostin
D17-D18	EGF	I9-I10	Pref-1
D19-D20	endoglin	I11-I12	proliferin
D21-D22	endostatin	I13-I14	PCSK9
D23-D24	fetuin A	I15-I16	RAGE
E1-E2	FGF acidic	I17-I18	RBP4
E3-E4	FGF-21	I19-I20	Reg3G
E5-E6	Flt-3 ligand	I21-I22	resistin
E7-E8	Gas 6	J1-J2	reference spots
E9-E10	G-CSF	J3-J4	E-selectin
E11-E12	GDF-15	J5-J6	P-selectin
E13-E14	GM-CSF	J7-J8	serpin E1
E15-E16	HGF	J9-J10	serpin F1
E17-E18	ICAM-1	J11-J12	thrombopoietin
E19-E20	IFN-γ	J13-J14	TIM-1
E21-E22	IGFBP-1	J15-J16	TNF-α
E23-E24	IGFBP-2	J17-J18	VCAM-1
		J19-J20	VEGF
		J21-J22	WISP-1
		J23-J24	negative control

c. Ad-GH, O-GH, O-ISO, O-EX

Figure S2: Enzyme-derived oxylipin levels for isolated mice with and without exercise.

(a-d) Total amounts of grouped LM species for isolated mice with (O-EX) and without exercise

(O-GH) that are products of the COX or LOX pathways in brain, heart, lung, muscle, spleen.

Metabolites were grouped as follows: **(a)** *COX* – PGD_1, PGE_1, $PGF_{1\alpha}$, 6-keto $PGF_{1\alpha}$, PGD_2, PGE_2,

15-keto PGE_2, $PGF_{2\alpha}$, $PGF_{2\beta}$, PGJ_2, PGD_3/PGE_3, $PGF_{3\alpha}$, TXB_2; **(b)** *5-LOX* – RvE1, RvE2, *trans*-

LTB_4, *epitrans*-LTB_4, LTB_4/5S,12S-diHETE, 5S,6R-diHETE, 20-OH LTB_4, LTB_5, 5-HETE, 5-

HEPE, 7-HDHA; **(c)** *12-LOX* – MaR1, MaR2, 12-HETE, 12-HEPE, 14-HDHA; **(d)** *15-LOX* –

PDx, PD1, RvD1, RvD2, RvD3, RvD4, RvD5, RvE4, LXA4, LXB4, LXA5, 5S,15S-diHETE, 15-

HETE, 15-HEPE, 17-HDHA. Values are given as ng per 50 mg organ. LOD of the metabolites is

indicated, if applicable.

Figure S3: Circulatory proteome changes.

(a) Log$_2$-fold changes of 111 screened, circulating proteins in pooled serum samples and

percentages of up- or downregulated proteins for the comparison of aged, isolated mice (O-ISO)

against adult, group-housed (Ad-GH) mice.

a.

O-ISO / Ad-GH

↑ 45.9%
↓ 54.1%

-2   0   2   4
log$_2$-fold change

694   *Figure S4: Representative chromatograms.*

695   Representative. unsmoothed chromatograms including the integration of relevant metabolites **(a)**

696   LTB$_4$/5S,12S-diHETE, **(b)** PGE$_2$, **(c)** 15-HETE, **(d)** 15-HEPE, **(e)** 17-HDHA, and **(f)** PDx. Given

697   values represent the measured mass on column, the calculated mass in the sample, and the

698   normalized amount per 50 mg organ.

a.

LTB$_4$/5S,12S-diHETE
lung of Ad-GH_4
= 15.18 pg measured mass
≙ 303.6 pg / sample
≙ 759.0 pg / 50 mg lung

b.

PGE$_2$
liver of O-GH_1
= 18.01 pg measured mass
≙ 360.3 pg / sample
≙ 900.7 pg / 50 mg lung

c.

15-HETE
lung of Ad-GH_2
= 2,401.61 pg measured mass
≙ 48,032.3 pg / sample
≙ 120,080.7 pg / 50 mg lung

d.

15-HEPE
lung of O-GH_2
= 48.15 pg measured mass
≙ 963.0 pg / sample
≙ 2,407.6 pg / 50 mg lung

e.

17-HDHA
muscle of O-ISO_5
= 756.82 pg measured mass
≙ 15,136.3 pg / sample
≙ 25,227.2 pg / 50 mg muscle

f.

PDx
fat of Ad-GH_4
< LOD

PDx
fat of O-ISO_2
= 2.23 pg measured mass
≙ 44.6 pg / sample
≙ 74.3 pg / 50 mg fat

701   ***Table S1: Screened metabolites, RT, transitions, LOD and LLOQ***

702   ***Table S2: Oxylipin raw data***

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