

1 Original Research Article

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3 **Age or ischemia uncouples the blood flow response, tissue acidosis, and the direct current potential**

4 **signature of spreading depolarization in the rat brain**

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16

17 **Running head:** Metabolic coupling with spreading depolarization

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27

28 **Abstract**

29

30 Spreading depolarization (SD) events contribute to lesion maturation in the acutely injured human
31 brain. Neurodegeneration related to SD is thought to be caused by the insufficiency of the cerebral blood
32 flow (CBF) response; yet, the mediators of the CBF response, or their deficiency in the aged or ischemic
33 cerebral cortex remain the target of intensive research. Here we postulate that tissue pH effectively
34 modulates the magnitude of hyperemia in response to SD, which coupling is prone to be dysfunctional in the
35 aged or ischemic cerebral cortex. To test this hypothesis, we conducted systematic correlation analysis
36 between the direct current (DC) potential signature of SD, SD-associated tissue acidosis and the hyperemic
37 element of the CBF response, in the isoflurane-anesthetized, young or old, and intact or ischemic rat
38 cerebral cortex. The data demonstrate that the amplitude of the SD-related DC potential shift, tissue acidosis
39 and hyperemia are tightly coupled in the young intact cortex; ischemia and old age uncouples the amplitude
40 of hyperemia from the amplitude of the DC potential shift and acidosis; the duration of the DC potential
41 shift, hyperemia and acidosis positively correlate under ischemia alone; and old age disproportionately
42 elongates the duration of acidosis with respect to the DC potential shift and hyperemia under ischemia. The
43 coincidence of the variables supports the view that local CBF regulation with SD must have an effective
44 metabolic component, which becomes dysfunctional with age or under ischemia. Finally, the known age-
45 related acceleration of ischemic neurodegeneration may be promoted by exaggerated tissue acidosis.

46

47

48 **Key words**

49 aging, cerebral blood flow, cerebral ischemia, metabolic coupling, spreading depolarization

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51

52 **New & Noteworthy**

53 The hyperemic element of the cerebral blood flow response to spreading depolarization is effectively
54 modulated by tissue pH in the young intact rat cerebral cortex. This coupling becomes dysfunctional with age
55 or under ischemia, and tissue acidosis lasts disproportionately longer in the aged cortex, making the tissue
56 increasingly more vulnerable.

57

58 **Introduction**

59

60 Spontaneously occurring spreading depolarization (SD) events have been implicated in the maturation of
61 ischemic brain infarction and the development of secondary injury after subarachnoid hemorrhage and
62 traumatic brain injury [14,27]. In addition, SD events have been recently proposed to be “a universal
63 principle of cortical lesion development” in the cerebral gray matter [11,26]. Waves of SD that propagate
64 over the cerebral cortex at a low rate of a few millimeters per minute involve a critical mass of neurons and
65 glia cells at any point of the wave front as the depolarization event is spreading, and generate a metabolic
66 demand for the nervous tissue to regain an electrophysiological resting state [13,37]. The metabolic
67 challenge is reflected by a transient tissue acidosis spatiotemporally coupled with SD [42,43], and answered
68 by a typical cerebral blood flow (CBF) response including a pronounced transient hyperemic component that
69 evolves conditional upon the actual energetic status of the tissue [2,10].

70 The regulation of the CBF response to SD has been a target of intensive research, but its nature and
71 mediators have not been unequivocally identified. First, the hyperemic component of the CBF response was
72 perceived as reactive hyperemia predominantly driven by metabovascular coupling [36]. This view was later
73 revised, and the increased perfusion in response to SD was assumed to be functional hyperemia mediated by
74 neurovascular coupling [2]. In a recent study, we found in the cerebral cortex of young adult rats, that the
75 higher amplitude of tissue acidosis with SD strongly correlated with the higher amplitude of the SD-related
76 hyperemia [42], supporting the view of a potential metabolic coupling. This observation has prompted us to
77 hypothesize that the intensity of depolarization must be proportional to the magnitude of the subsequent
78 tissue acidosis, which, in turn, should drive the evolution of the ensuing hyperemia with SD. Indeed, tissue
79 pH has long been proposed to control CBF [35,54] and was shown to mediate functional hyperemia
80 associated with seizure activity [33]. Therefore, we set out here to systematically explore meaningful
81 associations between the kinetics of the typical DC potential signature of SD, the related variations in tissue
82 pH, and the hyperemic component of the CBF response, in order to shed light on potential patterns of
83 coupling.

84 With aging, SDs propagating over the ischemic cerebral cortex appear to be increasingly more harmful, as
85 evidenced by the enlarged surface of cortical tissue involved in prolonged depolarization [7]. Repolarization
86 may be delayed in the aging cortex because recovery from the SD-related acidosis is considerably hampered
87 by age [42], and the SD-related hyperemia becomes insufficient and often seriously impaired (i.e. spreading
88 ischemia) [7,18,41,42]. All these together have been considered to indicate or promote the conversion of the
89 ischemic penumbra to the irreversibly damaged core region [26,42], a pathophysiological process
90 accelerated in the aged brain [1,7,16,58].

91 Despite the age-related weakening of hyperemia in response to SD, there is no evidence that the
92 intensity of the underlying depolarization would proportionally be smaller. This raises the assumption that
93 age weakens the coupling between SD and the associated hyperemia. Such a hypothesis is reasonable, since
94 age has been shown to impair neurovascular coupling with somatosensory stimulation, probably due to the
95 increased production of NADPH oxidase-derived reactive oxygen species in the neurovascular domain
96 [46,61]. Likewise, neurovascular coupling was found dysfunctional immediately or days after cerebral
97 ischemia onset, as indicated by failing functional hyperemia in response to preserved neuronal activity
98 corresponding to somatosensory stimulation [31]. Hence, we sought to evaluate how ischemia or age would
99 influence the perceived association between SD, tissue acidosis and CBF.

100

101 **Materials and Methods**

102

103 *General procedures*

104 The experimental procedures were approved by the National Food Chain Safety and Animal Health
105 Directorate of Csongrád County, Hungary. The procedures conformed to the guidelines of the Scientific
106 Committee of Animal Experimentation of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences (updated Law and Regulations
107 on Animal Protection: 40/2013. (II. 14.) Gov. of Hungary), following the EU Directive 2010/63/EU on the
108 protection of animals used for scientific purposes.

109 Procedures were identical to those reported recently [42]. Briefly, isoflurane-anesthetized (1.1-1.3 %
110 isoflurane in N₂O:O₂, 70%:30%), spontaneously breathing young adult (2 month-old, n=20) and old (18-20
111 month-old, n=18) male Sprague-Dawley rats were used. Mean arterial blood pressure was continuously
112 monitored via a femoral artery cannule throughout the experiments, which was also used for the withdrawal
113 of blood samples for arterial blood gas analysis. Together with the parallel, live display of the
114 electrocorticogram, the mean arterial blood pressure signal was also used as feed-back to adjust and keep
115 anesthesia at an optimal level. The experimental protocol consisted of three, subsequent phases: (i) a
116 baseline period of 50 min followed by (ii) incomplete, global forebrain ischemia induced by the transient,
117 bilateral occlusion of the common carotid arteries, and (iii) concluded an hour later by reperfusion, initiated
118 by the release of the carotid arteries. The experiments were terminated by the overdose of the anesthetic
119 agent. Three SDs were triggered during each phase of the experiments, with the topical application of 1M
120 KCl at an inter-SD interval of 15 minutes.

121 For the monitoring of tissue pH and CBF, the animals were assigned to two series of experiments. In
122 *Series 1*, a pH-sensitive microelectrode was implanted into the cerebral cortex and a laser Doppler probe was
123 positioned near the penetration site of the microelectrode to assess CBF variations (n=17). In *Series 2*, a
124 large, closed cranial window was created over the parietal cortex for the imaging of tissue pH and CBF in the
125 upper layers of the cortex (n=20).

126

127 *Series 1*

128 As presented earlier [42], two small, open craniotomies were drilled in the right parietal bone. Ion-
129 sensitive microelectrodes were constructed according to Voipio and Kaila [65]. In each experiment, a pH-
130 sensitive microelectrode together with a reference electrode was lowered into the cortex with their tips
131 positioned as near as possible; an Ag/AgCl electrode implanted under the skin of the animal's neck served as
132 common ground (n=17). The reference electrode acquired DC potential. The raw signals were recorded at 1
133 kHz, filtered, conditioned, amplified (AD549LH, Analog Devices, Norwood, MA, USA; NL834, NL 820, NL125,
134 NL530, Digitimer Ltd., U.K.) and converted to digital signals (MP 150 and AcqKnowledge 4.2.0, Biopac

135 Systems, Inc. USA) as detailed previously [42]. Extracellular pH (pHe) changes were expressed in mV to be
136 translated into pH units offline, using least squares linear regression. To monitor changes in local CBF, a
137 laser-Doppler needle probe (Probe 403 connected to PeriFlux 5000; Perimed AB, Sweden) was positioned
138 adjacent to the intra-cortical microelectrodes (n=14). The laser-Doppler flow (LDF) signal was digitized and
139 displayed together with the DC potential and pH signals. The caudal craniotomy was later used for SD
140 elicitation by placing a 1M KCl-soaked cotton ball on the exposed cortical surface. The cotton ball was
141 removed and the cranial window rinsed with artificial cerebrospinal fluid (aCSF; composition in mM
142 concentrations: 126.6 NaCl, 3 KCl, 1.5 CaCl₂, 1.2 MgCl, 24.5 NaHCO₃, 6.7 urea, 3.7 glucose bubbled with 95
143 % O₂ and 5 % CO₂ to achieve a constant pH of 7.4) immediately after each successful SD elicitation.

144

145 *Series 2*

146 The imaging experiments relied on a closed cranial window preparation (size: 4.5 × 4.5 mm) that was
147 created over the right parietal cortex of the rats [19,45]. The cranial window incorporated a glass capillary at
148 the caudomedial edge, used to eject 1 µl 1M KCl to evoke SD, and a glass capillary microelectrode near the
149 lateral edge of the craniotomy to acquire DC potential with reference to an Ag/AgCl neck electrode. Signal
150 amplification, conditioning and filtering for the DC signal was achieved as published earlier [30].

151 Imaging relied on infrastructure developed and updated in our lab [17,42], and followed established
152 protocols [42]. Briefly, the fluorescent pH indicator Neutral Red (3-amino-m-dimethylamino-2-
153 methylphenazine hydrochloride, NR, Sigma-Aldrich) was dissolved in saline (35 mM), and administered i.p. (2
154 x 1 ml) 30-35 min prior to the start of imaging [34]. Neutral Red incorporated by the nervous tissue was
155 excited with a light emitting diode (LED; 530 nm peak wavelength, SLS-0304-A, Mightex Systems, Pleasanton,
156 CA, USA; bandpass filter 3RD 540-570 nm, Omega Optical Inc. Brattleboro, VT, USA; illumination 100 ms/s),
157 and the emitted fluorescence was captured with a monochrome CCD camera (Pantera 1M30, DALSA,
158 Gröbenzell, Germany) attached to a stereomicroscope (MZ12.5, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany)
159 after proper bandpass filtering (50 nm wide, centered on 625 nm, XF3413-625QM50; Omega Optical Inc.
160 Brattleboro, VT, USA). The stereomicroscope was equipped with a 1:1 binocular/video-tube beam splitter to

161 allow the mounting of a second camera, which, synchronous with NR images, captured green intrinsic optical
162 signal (IOS) (exposure: 100 ms/s), and was additionally used to generate CBF maps utilizing laser speckle
163 contrast analysis (LASCA) [45]. For the latter purpose, a laser diode illuminated the cortical surface
164 (HL6545MG, Thorlabs Inc., New Jersey, USA; 120 mW; 660 nm emission wavelength; power supply:
165 LDTC0520, Wavelength Electronics, Inc., Bozeman, USA), the illumination being synchronized with camera
166 exposure (1 frame/second; 2 ms for illumination and 100 ms for exposure). A dedicated program written in
167 LabVIEW environment coordinated the illuminations by various light sources and the exposures of the two
168 cameras. Image processing including the conversion of raw speckle images to flow maps and correction of
169 NR fluorescence for absorption by hemoglobin and dye bleaching were computed offline in MATLAB (The
170 MathWorks Inc., Natick, MA, USA) [9,56].

171 Local changes in NR fluorescence intensity and CBF with time were extracted by placing regions of
172 interest (ROIs) of $\sim 70 \times 70 \mu\text{m}$ at selected sites devoid of any blood vessels visible in the images. CBF
173 recordings delivered by LDF or LASCA were expressed relative to baseline by using the average CBF value of
174 the first 240 s of baseline (100%) and the recorded biological zero obtained after terminating each
175 experiment (0%) as reference points.

176

177 *Data processing and analysis*

178 Experiments were selected for data analysis based on the quality of the recordings: experiments in which
179 all synchronous variables (i.e. DC potential, tissue pH and CBF) were of high quality (i.e. devoid of noise or
180 artifact during SD events) to allow reliable quantitation were processed.

181 The duration and relative amplitude of the negative DC potential shift indicative of SD, of the related
182 acidosis and of hyperemia were measured. For group comparisons, data are given as mean \pm stdev, and were
183 statistically tested by a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) paradigm (factors: phase of experiments, and
184 age of animals) of the software SPSS (IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 22.0, IBM Corp.) Correlation
185 analysis between variables was achieved by a two-tailed Pearson correlation test run in the same statistical

186 software. Levels of significance were determined and labeled as $p < 0.05^*$ and $p < 0.01^{**}$. Relevant statistical
187 methods are also provided in detail in each Figure legend.

188

189 **Results**

190

191 In our current experiments, the amplitude of the negative DC potential shift corresponding to SDs fell on
192 a continuum as demonstrated in Figure 1, ranging between 0.99-19.44 mV in *Series 1*. SDs with various DC
193 potential shift amplitude were evenly distributed between age groups and phases of the experiments,
194 establishing no particular impact of age or ischemia (two-way ANOVA: $F_{\text{age}}=0.460$, $F_{\text{phase}}=0.773$).

195 For the evaluation of the metabolic consequences of SDs, the association between the amplitude and
196 duration of the DC potential shift, related acidosis, and hyperemia was analyzed in detail in *Series 1* (Fig. 2-
197 4). During baseline, in the young animals, the amplitude of all three variables was tightly coupled (e.g. DC
198 potential shift & hyperemia: $r=0.819^*$) (Fig. 2B-C), while their duration appeared to be unrelated to each
199 other (e.g. DC potential shift & hyperemia: $r=0.176$) (Fig. 2E-F).

200 Under ischemia, the amplitude of hyperemia dissociated from the amplitude of both the DC potential
201 shift and acidosis ($r=0.236$ and $r=0.429$, respectively), and remained uncoupled during reperfusion, as well
202 (Fig. 2B-C). At the same time, the positive correlation between the amplitude of the DC potential shift and
203 acidosis continued to be unaffected by ischemia ($r=0.789^{**}$) (Fig. 2B). The durations of the three variables
204 independent under baseline became interrelated over the ischemic phase (e.g. DC potential shift & acidosis:
205 $r=0.935^{**}$), and lost correlation again during reperfusion (Fig. 2E-F).

206 Aging exerted a discernible effect on the amplitude of the three variables during baseline (Fig. 3).
207 Strikingly similar to the impact of ischemia, old age uncoupled the amplitude of hyperemia from that of the
208 DC potential shift and acidosis ($r=0.221$ and $r=0.249$, respectively), while left the amplitude of the DC
209 potential shift and acidosis strongly correlating ($r=0.998^{**}$) comparable to young age (Fig. 3B-C).

210 Finally, aging dissociated the duration of acidosis from the duration of the DC potential shift and
211 hyperemia under ischemia ($r=0.482$ and $r=0.286$, respectively), while did not alter the baseline association

212 between the length of the DC potential shift and hyperemia ($r=0.657^*$) (Fig. 4B). The age-related uncoupling
213 of acidosis from the other variables was clearly due to the marked elongation of the duration of acidosis
214 relative to the other variables in the old group (Fig. 4C). More specifically, the length of acidosis was
215 approximately 40 % longer than the DC potential shift in the young animals, while almost doubled relative to
216 the duration of the DC potential shift in the old group. Remarkably, the duration of acidosis was relatively
217 shorter than the duration of hyperemia in the young group, but exceeded the duration of hyperemia in the
218 old animals (Fig. 4C). Finally, it is noteworthy that the relative duration of hyperemia was gradually
219 decreasing (195 % \rightarrow 172 % \rightarrow 167 %, young baseline \rightarrow young ischemia \rightarrow old ischemia), while the relative
220 duration of acidosis was increasing with ischemia and age (127 % \rightarrow 140 % \rightarrow 192 %, young
221 baseline \rightarrow young ischemia \rightarrow old ischemia) (Fig. 4C).

222 Examining the videos obtained with green IOS, NR imaging and LASCA in *Series 2*, it has become clear that
223 SDs with small amplitude as seen on DC potential traces must designate extinguishing SD waves. In the
224 representative example given in Figure 5, the optical signals of CBF, tissue pH and green IOS revealed that
225 the SD diminished halfway over its course in the field of view. Yet, the electrode positioned about 500 μm
226 distant to the rim of the aborting SD still indicated a small negative DC potential shift, even though the
227 optical signature of SD did not reach that site. We hypothesized, that such SD events could become gradually
228 smaller and then cease to propagate because they travel against a lowering tissue pH gradient reported to
229 inhibit SD [58,60]. Indeed, brighter NR fluorescence associated with lower pH in Figure 4A₂ corresponds with
230 the area where SD came to a halt. When SD events evoked during baseline in *Series 1* were sorted on the
231 basis of DC potential shift amplitude (i.e. smaller than 5 mV and greater than 5 mV) (Fig. 6A), tissue pH
232 proved to be significantly more acidic prior to SDs with small DC potential shift amplitude (pH 7.20 ± 0.04 vs.
233 7.31 ± 0.03) (Fig. 6B). In further support, a strong positive correlation was established between tissue pH prior
234 to SD and the DC potential shift amplitude with SD ($r=0.909^{**}$), which was abolished by ischemia ($r=0.244$),
235 and re-established during reperfusion ($r=0.739^*$) (Fig. 6C-D).

236 In summary, our correlation analyses demonstrate that (i) low tissue pH in the intact cortex predicts small
237 DC potential shift amplitude with SD, indicative of SD vanishing; (ii) the amplitude of the SD-related DC

238 potential shift, tissue acidosis and hyperemia are tightly coupled in the young intact cortex; (iii) ischemia and
239 old age uncouples the amplitude of hyperemia from the amplitude of the DC potential shift and acidosis; (iv)
240 the duration of the DC potential shift, hyperemia and acidosis positively correlate under ischemia in young
241 animals; and (v) old age dissociates the duration of acidosis from that of the DC potential shift and
242 hyperemia under ischemia.

243

244

245 **Discussion**

246 The recording of the DC potential is a conventional, robust experimental technique, which has been
247 routinely used for over seven decades to identify SD occurrence in the cerebral cortex of anesthetized
248 animals, *in vitro* brain slice preparations, and most recently, in brain injury patients [12,28,55]. The DC
249 potential shift representing the sum of neuronal and glial depolarization reflects gross ionic translocations
250 between the intra- and extracellular compartments, and correlates well with the extracellular surge of K^+
251 with SD [49,51,55]. Recurrent SDs in the injured brain of patients are perceived to mark and to exacerbate
252 metabolic failure and excitotoxic injury [10,11,26], especially because the long cumulative duration of
253 recurrent SDs has emerged as an early indicator of delayed ischemic brain damage [11,14]. Still, it has
254 remained largely unexplored whether the SD-related metabolic challenge could possibly be estimated by
255 examining and evaluating the quantitative characteristics of the negative DC potential shift of individual SD
256 events. More importantly, proving direct coupling between depolarization, tissue pH variations and the CBF
257 response with SD should foster the understanding of the pathophysiological sequence and significance of
258 events initiated by SD in the injured brain.

259

260 *The degree of tissue acidosis is related to the negative DC potential shift with spreading depolarization*

261 The recording of the DC potential is an inherent component of the assessment of tissue pH variations
262 with the use of ion-sensitive microelectrodes [65], which, therefore, allows the direct comparison of the two
263 synchronous signals. Still, thorough correlation analysis between quantitative features of the DC potential

264 shift and acidosis with SD has not been presented. Investigators exploring tissue pH changes with SD relying
265 on microelectrodes focused on the cellular mechanisms of pH regulation [43], or examined the close relation
266 between the elevation of lactate and the decrease of tissue pH [52]. Later *in vitro* studies concentrated on
267 the short-lasting alkalotic shift that precedes the SD-related acidosis with the purpose to dissect its role in
268 the potential facilitation of SD occurrence in the ischemic nervous tissue, and left the subsequent phase of
269 longer lasting acidosis unattended [40,60].

270 Here we present that the amplitude of the SD-related DC potential shift and that of acidosis strongly
271 correlate in the intact rodent cortex, and this association persists steadily under ischemia and in the aged
272 brain. These findings suggest that the positive coupling between the amplitude of the DC potential shift and
273 subsequent acidosis with SD is highly conserved, and a larger shift of the DC potential predicts a more
274 pronounced acidic peak with SD. Assuming that a greater shift in the DC potential indicates more intensive
275 depolarization, and accepting that neuronal activity is directly followed by an increase in intra- and
276 extracellular acid load, as shown in experimental models as well as by non-invasive imaging of the human
277 brain [6,39], it is reasonable to anticipate that a larger DC potential shift as shown here yields deeper
278 acidosis.

279

280 *Ischemia or aging impairs the coupling between spreading depolarization and the associated cerebral blood*
281 *flow response*

282 Our correlation analysis here demonstrates that the peak of hyperemia in response to SD is directly
283 proportional to the amplitude of the DC potential shift and that of acidosis in the intact cortex. This result is
284 consistent with the outcome of fundamental positron emission tomography studies, which concluded that
285 local CBF was linearly coupled with neuronal activity in response to visual stimulation under physiological
286 conditions [21]. Furthermore, a recent report has also confirmed this association by showing larger whisker
287 stimulation-evoked CBF responses together with the intensification of neuronal activity in the intact rodent
288 cortex [38]. Finally, it appears that tissue pH decreasing transiently with SD can modulate the amplitude of
289 the ensuing CBF response (Fig. 7). The perceived causality would support the idea that local CBF regulation

290 with SD must have an effective metabolic component [36], in addition to the more accepted neurovascular
291 coupling hypothesis [2].

292 We have found that the correlation between the amplitude of hyperemia and that of the DC potential
293 shift or acidosis with SD becomes lost under ischemia. Ischemia is known to impair neurovascular coupling as
294 demonstrated by the attenuation of functional hyperemia to forepaw stimulation in rodent models [31].
295 Likewise, ischemia significantly reduced the amplitude of hyperemia in response to SD, which has been
296 systematically evaluated against SD-related hyperemia recorded in the intact cortex [30,41,42,64]. At the
297 same time, the amplitude of the SD-related DC potential shift was shown to be resistant to ischemia [41].
298 These data, fortified by the present analyses, demonstrate that even though SDs are as intense under
299 ischemia as in the intact cortex, the CBF response becomes impaired, clearly confirming dysfunctional
300 coupling between the two variables. In addition, we show here that not only ischemia but also healthy aging
301 dissociates the amplitude of hyperemia from that of the DC potential shift with SD. This phenomenon is
302 highly consistent with the well-studied adverse effect of aging on the efficacy of neurovascular coupling,
303 which was linked to the generation of free radicals and oxidative stress [46,62].

304

305 *Aging disproportionately increases the duration of tissue acidosis with spreading depolarization*

306 We reported previously that longer depression of the electrocorticogram (ECoG) or a longer DC potential
307 shift with SD was associated with longer hyperemia, and argued that the return of CBF to baseline after peak
308 hyperemia was postponed by the continuing energy need of the tissue, as reflected by the sustained
309 depolarization [30,41]. However, whether this association was valid for the intact as well as for the ischemic
310 condition has not been distinguished. Here we show that the longer duration of hyperemia to SD coincides
311 with longer depolarization, as well as with a longer-lasting acidosis in the ischemic brain only (Fig. 2E). One
312 plausible reason for the lack of correspondence between the length of hyperemia and the DC potential shift
313 in the intact cortex may be that hyperemia lasts disproportionately longer in the intact than in the ischemic
314 condition (Fig. 4C). This would be consistent with the notion that the CBF response to SD creates luxury
315 perfusion in the cortex that receives uninterrupted blood supply [2].

316 A novel observation of this study suggests that aging disrupts the correspondence of acidosis duration
317 with the duration of the DC potential shift and hyperemia with SD (Fig. 4B). At closer inspection, the relative
318 length of acidosis increases excessively in the aged ischemic brain, which accounts for the loss of correlation
319 (Fig. 4C). Acid load with SD was suggested to be caused by the accumulation of lactate [20,43,52], which is
320 readily cleared into the blood stream within minutes after SD is triggered in the intact young rodent cortex
321 [8]. Considering these data, it is conceivable that the sustained acidosis with SD in the aged brain is caused
322 by decelerated lactate efflux through the blood-brain barrier. The consequences of the exaggerated duration
323 of acidosis are thought to be twofold. First, the threshold of acid-induced cell death was shown to be
324 reduced with the prolongation of acid exposure [44], which may put the aging brain at a higher risk for acid-
325 induced ischemic neurodegeneration [32]. Second, considering that acidosis outlasts hyperemia as seen
326 here, the mismatch between these variables is perceived to indicate accentuated metabolic crisis instigated
327 by SD in the aged brain.

328

329 *Small DC potential amplitude corresponds with the extinguishing edge of spreading depolarizations*

330 As the DC potential shift indicative of SD was comprehensively analyzed here, a seemingly technical issue
331 that has been dormant for some time was addressed. We and others regularly encounter atypical SD-
332 associated, negative DC shifts in the intact and injured cortex, which are rather small in amplitude. These
333 events (Fig. 1A) give rise to uncertainty as to whether the small DC potential shift should be considered to
334 indicate a true SD wave. Moreover, the metabolic consequences of these obscure events on the DC potential
335 traces are of interest to assess their significance and injurious potential, but have not yet been examined.
336 Therefore we also aimed to identify the origin and nature of the small, atypical DC potential shifts that
337 occasionally evolve spontaneously in the injured cortex, or in response to experimental SD elicitation.

338 The typical size of the SD-related negative DC potential shift as measured by an intracortical electrode
339 relative to a distant ground is 15-30 mV [55]. The occasional, rather small amplitude (i.e. < 5 mV) of a few
340 SD-related DC potential shifts acquired via the same electrode, within the same preparation that also
341 delivers typically large signals with other SDs, has been puzzling to investigators who rely on the DC potential

342 signature to confirm SD occurrence. The ambiguity as to whether a DC potential shift of small amplitude
343 should be considered to reflect the actual evolution of an SD can be resolved by formulating the restriction
344 that a DC potential variation indicates an SD event only when its amplitude exceeds a given value. However,
345 what the threshold value should be is difficult to justify, particularly in view of our present data showing an
346 uninterrupted spectrum of the DC potential shift amplitude within the same set of experiments (Fig. 1B).
347 This dilemma seems to be settled by our imaging studies, which reveal the spatial in addition to the temporal
348 pattern of SD propagation. By the combination of DC potential recording with optical imaging, here we
349 demonstrate that extinguishing SDs leave their signature on the DC potential trace as transient negative
350 shifts of small amplitude (Fig. 5). This is supported by our previous observations achieved by imaging SD-
351 related membrane potential changes with a voltage-sensitive dye, whose fluorescence is analogous to that
352 of the DC potential [19]. We showed that the voltage-sensitive dye signature of SD was decreasing gradually
353 in amplitude as an SD wave was diminishing over its course, together with decreasing magnitude of the
354 coupled hemodynamic response [4]. All things considered, a small transient negative DC potential shift
355 recorded under identical experimental conditions that also deliver large DC potential shifts is assumed to
356 represent SD events, but obviously corresponds to the phase of the wave where SD is aborting as it
357 propagates over the cortex. The SD's metabolic impact at the site of the recording electrode appears to be
358 proportional to the small size of the negative DC potential shift; however this provides no evidence for the
359 metabolic impact of the same SD at its full magnitude, closer to the site of elicitation, before arriving at the
360 recording site.

361

362 *Does low tissue pH predict small DC potential amplitude with spreading depolarization?*

363 It has been long accepted that low pH hampers the elicitation and propagation of SD, which notion was
364 corroborated by the delayed occurrence and slower rate of propagation of SD in brain slices exposed to an
365 acidic medium [58,60]. The reason for SD suppression by low pH was suggested to be the inhibition of the
366 NMDA receptors by extracellular protons [57], or the modulation of the conductance and gating properties
367 of voltage-gated K^+ , Na^+ and Ca^{2+} channels [59]. Here we present data obtained *in vivo* that lower tissue pH

368 coincides with the smaller amplitude of the DC potential shift with arising SDs, but this association is valid
369 only in the normally perfused cortex and is lost under ischemia.

370 Taken our argument proposing that a smaller DC potential amplitude corresponds with an SD in its
371 diminishing phase, we can postulate that SD events do not only propagate slower at lower, albeit
372 physiological pH [60], but also cover a shorter distance before coming to a halt. The imaging data presented
373 here convincingly support this idea (Fig. 5).

374 In view of this suggestion, it is interesting to observe that lower pH does not predict smaller DC potential
375 shift – and thus supposedly shorter SD route – in the ischemic cortex. It appears that other ischemia-related
376 factors should overrule the inhibitory effect of low pH on SD propagation. It is conceivable, for instance, that
377 glutamate, which accumulates excessively in the ischemic nervous tissue [3,5], and has been recognized to
378 facilitate the spreading of depolarization via NMDA receptor and voltage-gated Ca^{2+} channel activation
379 [29,49,63], overrides tissue acidosis and promotes SD propagation. Further, extracellular K^+ has also been
380 implicated in sustaining SD propagation [23,49], and, like glutamate, it is elevated in the ischemic tissue over
381 physiological levels (e.g. from 2-4 mM up to 9-12 mM) that favor SD evolution [24,25]. Taken together, the
382 inhibitory impact of tissue acidosis on SD propagation under ischemia is suggested to be negligible as
383 compared with the facilitating role of high interstitial concentration of glutamate, potassium, or their
384 combination.

385

386 *Future perspectives*

387 Our recent [42] and present results together implicate tissue acidosis in the mediation of SD-related
388 neurodegeneration, especially in the aged brain, due to the poor recovery from the SD-induced acidic pH
389 shift. Appreciating that the apparent, persisting elevation of lactate concentration accounts for the SD-
390 related tissue acidosis [43,52,53], hampered lactate removal is thought to be a potential pathomechanism
391 sustaining low tissue pH in the aged brain. The facilitated diffusion of lactate to the blood stream is mediated
392 by monocarboxylic acid transporter 1 (MCT1) located on endothelial cells that form the blood-brain barrier
393 [48]. The dysfunction of MCT1 was previously perceived to contribute to acid-related neurodegeneration in

394 ischemic stroke [15]. Furthermore, MCT1 expression was found strongly age-dependent in the juvenile brain
395 [22,47], although no evidence can be retrieved to demonstrate how MCT1 expression or activity might be
396 altered by old age. Altogether, it is conceivable that MCT1 downregulation or dysfunction at the aged blood-
397 brain barrier could possibly impede lactate removal, thereby prolonging SD-induced lactate-acidosis, and
398 accelerate ischemia-related neurodegeneration. If this proposition stands true, potentiating the efficacy of
399 MCT1 function in the aged cortex under ischemia could possibly improve injury outcome after stroke. The
400 validity of the above hypothesis should, however, be scrutinized by upcoming research.

401

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403

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410

411 **Disclosures**

412 The Authors declare no perceived or potential conflict of interest, financial or otherwise.

413

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587 **Figure captions**

588

589 Figure 1. Variations in the amplitude of the negative direct current (DC) potential shift indicative of spreading
590 depolarization (SD). A, Representative traces of tissue pH and cerebral blood flow (CBF) changes
591 demonstrate signals corresponding to a conventional, fully developed DC signature of an SD (i.e. amplitude
592 of the negative DC shift greater than 5 mV) (left), and a small SD (i.e. amplitude of the negative DC shift
593 smaller than 5 mV) (right). B, Distribution of SD-related DC shift amplitudes in experimental Series 1. Each
594 symbol represents a single SD event (n=62). All three phases of the experiments (i.e. baseline, ischemia and
595 reperfusion) are included.

596

597 Figure 2. Correlation analysis considering the amplitude (A-C) and duration (D-F) of the spreading
598 depolarization (SD)-related direct current (DC) potential shift, transient tissue acidosis and hyperemic
599 response, to reveal the impact of aging. A & D, Illustration of the variables considered for the analysis. B,
600 Overview of correlation coefficients delivered by a Pearson two-tailed paradigm ($p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$) for the
601 association of amplitudes in the young group in *Series 1*, for each of the three subsequent phases of the
602 experiments. Alteration of correlation coefficients is highlighted in bold italic font. C, Representative plots
603 demonstrate the impact of ischemia on the correlation between the amplitude of the DC potential shift
604 indicative of SD and that of the related hyperemia (n=8/11). E, Overview of correlation coefficients delivered
605 by a Pearson two-tailed paradigm ($p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$) for the association of durations in the young group in
606 *Series 1*, for each of the three subsequent phases of the experiments. Alteration of correlation coefficients is
607 highlighted in bold italic font. F, Representative plots to demonstrate the impact of ischemia on the
608 correlation between the duration of the DC potential shift indicative of SD and that of the related tissue
609 acidosis (n=8/11). Open symbols stand for baseline; black symbols represent ischemia.

610

611 Figure 3. Correlation analysis considering the amplitude of the spreading depolarization (SD)-related direct
612 current (DC) potential shift, transient tissue acidosis and hyperemic response, to identify the impact of aging.

613 A, Illustration of the variables considered for the analysis. B, Overview of correlation coefficients delivered
614 by a Pearson two-tailed paradigm ($p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$) for the association of amplitudes over baseline in
615 *Series 1*, for each age group. Alteration of correlation coefficients is highlighted in bold italic font. C,
616 Representative plots demonstrate the impact of age on the correlation between the amplitude of the DC
617 potential shift indicative of SD and that of the related hyperemia ($n=8/\text{age group}$).

618

619 Figure 4. Correlation analysis and relative changes considering the duration of the spreading depolarization
620 (SD)-related direct current (DC) potential shift, transient tissue acidosis and hyperemic response, to identify
621 the impact of aging. A, Illustration of the variables considered for the analysis. B, Overview of correlation
622 coefficients delivered by a Pearson two-tailed paradigm ($p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$; $n=8-11/\text{group}$) for the
623 association of durations over ischemia in *Series 1*, for each age group. C, Duration of SD-related acidosis and
624 hyperemia relative to the duration of the DC potential shift (taken as 100 %) in *Series 1* during ischemia.
625 Horizontal bars are color-coded according to Panel A (i.e. green: DC potential shift, blue: acidosis, red:
626 hyperemia). Relative values (bold) were derived from the mean absolute values given in parentheses
627 ($\text{mean} \pm \text{stdev}$; $n=8-11/\text{group}$). A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Fisher post hoc test
628 was used for statistical analysis (*Young ischemia*, $F=10.962^{**}$; *Old ischemia*, $F=13.144^{**}$). Levels of
629 significance are given as $p < 0.01^{**}$, vs. DC potential; $p < 0.01^{\#\#}$, vs. acidosis.

630

631 Figure 5. Images illustrate a spreading depolarization (SD) event that was initiated at the stimulating glass
632 capillary (S in A_1), propagated radially, but aborted halfway within the field of view (dotted white line in A_1
633 indicates the zone where SD came to a halt). A_2 demonstrates an image of NR fluorescence captured in the
634 field of view prior to SD elicitation. A_3 and A_4 are pseudo-colored perfusion maps based on laser speckle
635 contrast images to demonstrate the cortical area involved in the propagation of the aborting SD (i.e.
636 hyperemia denoted by warm colors spatially extends as far as the SD propagated). B, Traces of Neutral Red
637 (NR) fluorescence intensity and cerebral blood flow (CBF) taken at three regions of interest (ROI) shown in
638 A_1 , and the direct current (DC) potential signature of a small SD (electrode "E" is shown in A_1). ROI3

639 (indicated in A_1) was positioned as near the glass capillary electrode (E in A_1) as the pial vascular architecture
640 allowed. Note that the extinguishing SD appears as a small DC shift at the recording site.

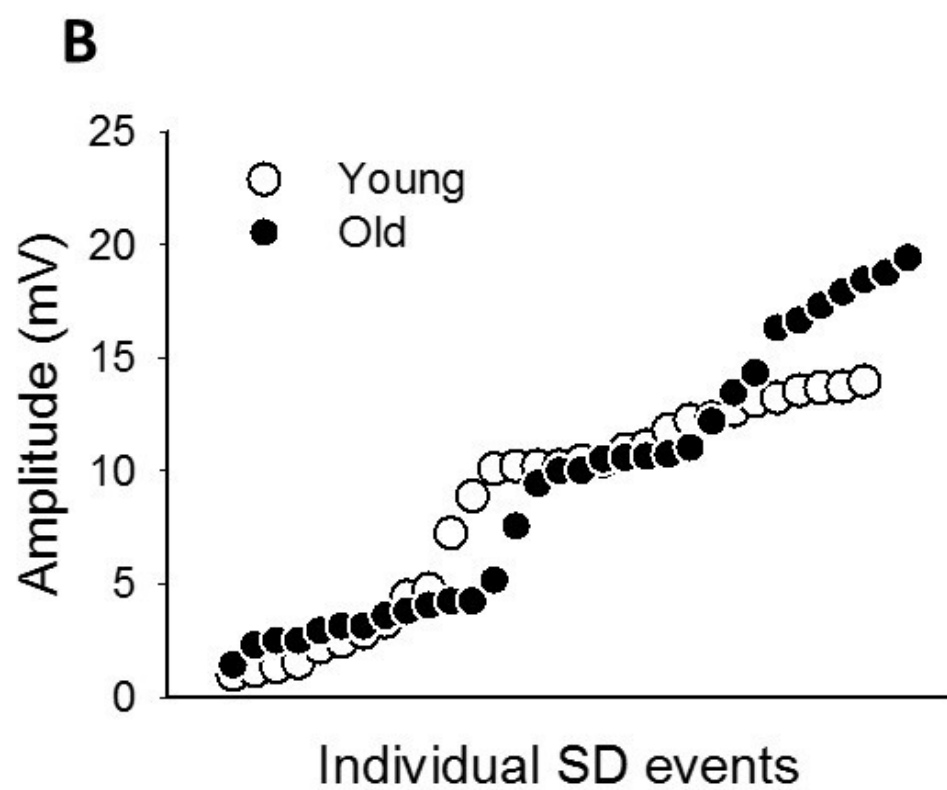
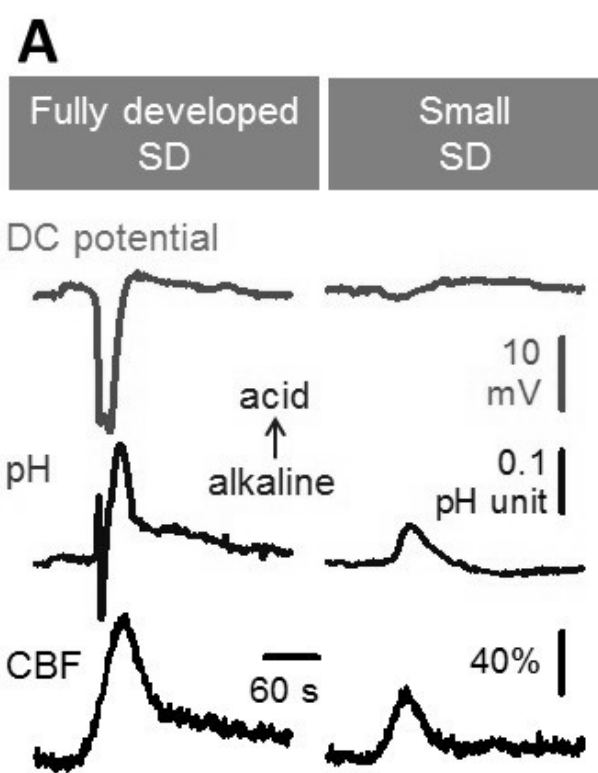
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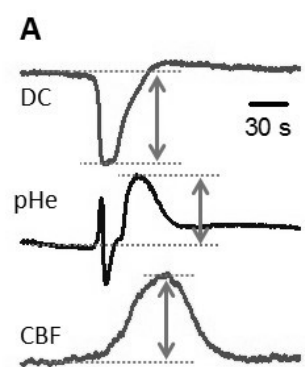
642 Figure 6. Association between tissue pH prior to spreading depolarization (SD) and the amplitude of the
643 direct current (DC) potential shift with SD. A, Illustration of the origin of data sets analyzed. B, Tissue pH
644 prior to SD events evoked during baseline in *Series 1*, events sorted on the basis of DC shift amplitude. C,
645 Correlation coefficients delivered by a Pearson two-tailed paradigm ($p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$; $n = 7/8$) for the
646 association of variables in the young group in *Series 1*, for each of the three subsequent phases of the
647 experiments. The impact of ischemia on the correlation coefficient is highlighted in bold italic font. D,
648 Graphic illustration of the impact of ischemia on the correlation between tissue pH and the amplitude of the
649 SD-related DC shift. Open symbols stand for baseline; black symbols represent ischemia.

650

651 Figure 7. Conceptual overview of the causal sequence of associations between the amplitudes of variables,
652 as proposed on the basis of the current analyses.

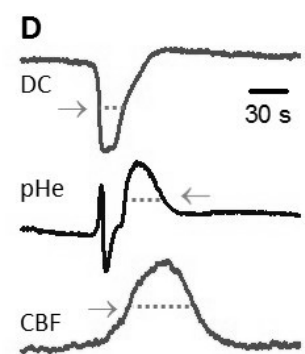
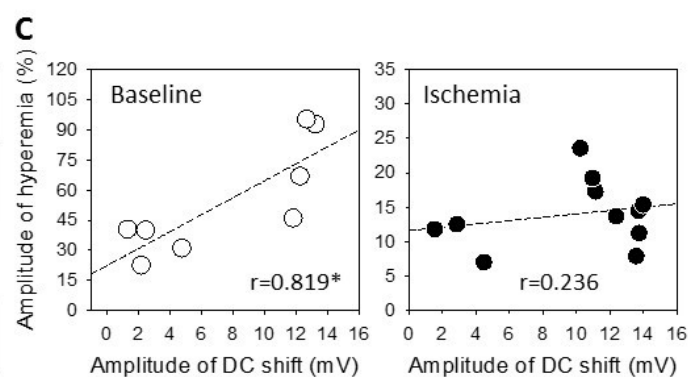
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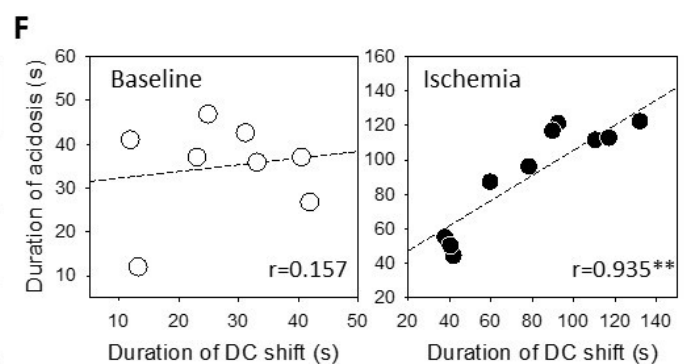
B

Amplitude	Baseline	Ischemia	Reperfusion
DC shift & acidosis	0.782*	0.789**	0.615
<i>hyperemia</i> & DC shift	0.819*	0.236	-0.133
<i>hyperemia</i> & acidosis	0.871**	0.429	-0.019

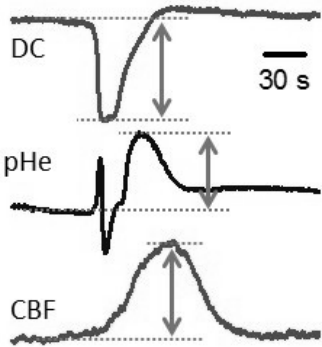


E

Duration	Baseline	Ischemia	Reperfusion
DC shift & acidosis	0.157	0.935**	0.071
hyperemia & DC shift	0.176	0.634*	-0.044
hyperemia & acidosis	0.556	0.681*	0.067



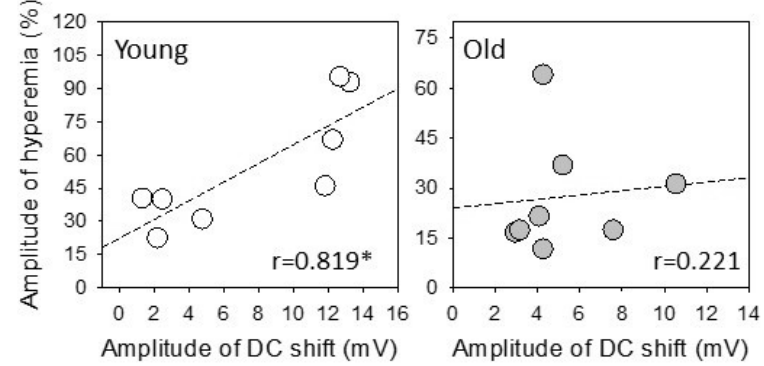
A Baseline

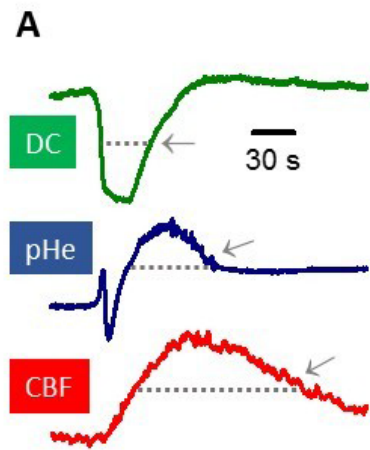


B

Amplitude	Young	Old
DC shift & acidosis	0.782*	0.998**
<i>hyperemia</i> & DC shift	0.819*	0.221
<i>hyperemia</i> & acidosis	0.871**	0.249

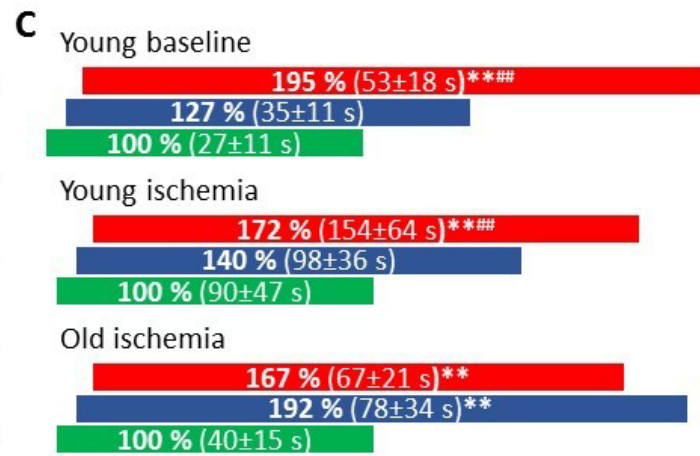
C

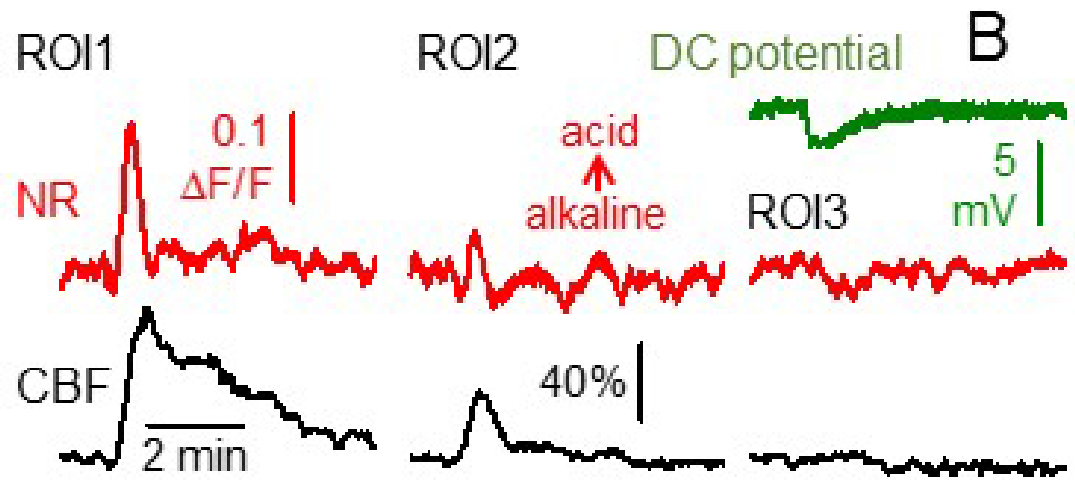
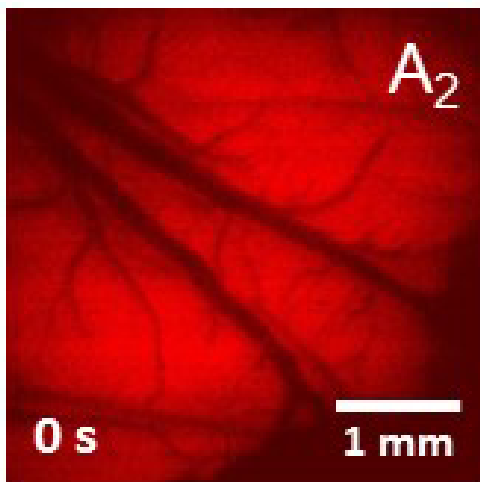
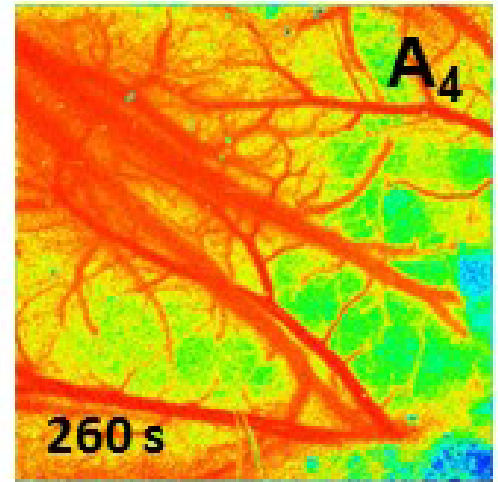
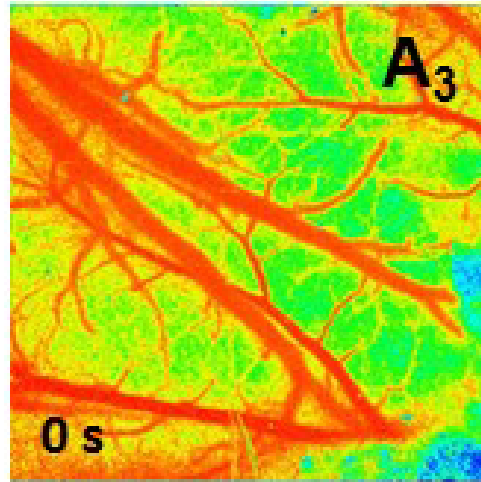
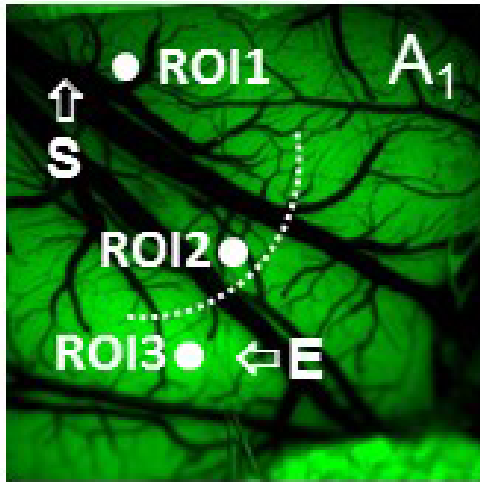


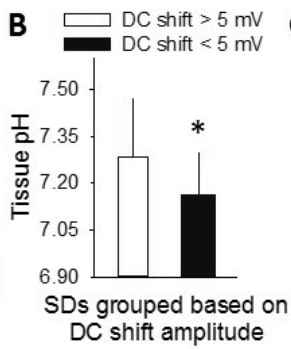
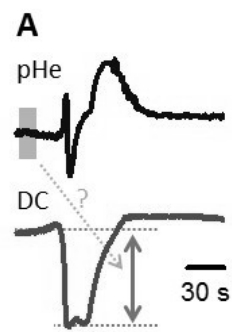


B

	Ischemia	
Duration	Young	Old
DC shift & acidosis	0.935**	0.482
hyperemia & DC shift	0.634*	0.657*
hyperemia & acidosis	0.681*	0.286







C Association between tissue pH prior to SD occurrence & DC amplitude

Phase	r
Baseline	0.909**
<i>Ischemia</i>	0.244
Reperfusion	0.739*

