

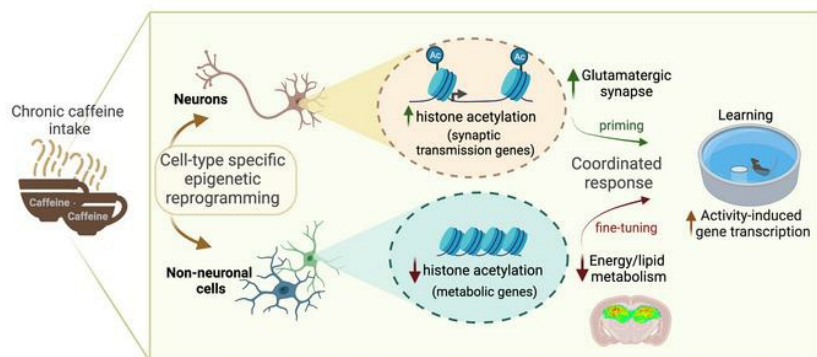
Caffeine intake exerts dual genome-wide effects on hippocampal metabolism and learning-dependent transcription

Isabel Paiva, ... , Anne-Laurence Boutillier, David Blum

J Clin Invest. 2022. <https://doi.org/10.1172/JCI149371>.

Research In-Press Preview Neuroscience

Graphical abstract



Find the latest version:

<https://jci.me/149371/pdf>



Caffeine intake exerts dual genome-wide effects on hippocampal metabolism and learning-dependent transcription

Isabel Paiva^{1†}, Lucrezia Cellai^{2,3†}, Céline Meriaux^{2,3†}, Lauranne Poncelet^{4†}, Ouada Nebie^{2,3}, Jean-Michel Saliou⁵, Anne-Sophie-Lacoste⁵, Anthony Papegaey^{2,3}, Hervé Drobecq⁶, Stéphanie Le Gras⁷, Marion Schneider⁸, Enas M. Malik⁸, Christa E. Müller⁸, Emilie Faivre^{2,3}, Kevin Carvalho^{2,3}, Victoria Gomez-Murcia^{2,3}, Didier Vieau^{2,3}, Bryan Thiroux^{2,3}, Sabiha Eddarkaoui^{2,3}, Thibaud Lebouvier^{2,3,9}, Estelle Schueller¹, Laura Tzeplaëff¹, Iris Grgurina¹, Jonathan Seguin¹, Jonathan Stauber⁴, Luisa V. Lopes¹⁰, Luc Buée^{2,3}, Valérie Buée-Scherrer^{2,3}, Rodrigo A. Cunha^{11,12}, Rima Ait-Belkacem^{4‡}, Nicolas Sergeant^{2,3‡}, Jean-Sébastien Annicotte^{13,14‡}, Anne-Laurence Boutillier^{1‡*}, David Blum^{2,3‡*}

† Equal contributions

‡ Equal contributions

1. University of Strasbourg, CNRS, UMR7364 - Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives (LNCA), F-67000 Strasbourg, France.

2. University of Lille, Inserm, CHU Lille, UMR-S1172 LiNCog - Lille Neuroscience & Cognition, Lille, France.

3. Alzheimer and Tauopathies, LabEx DISTALZ, France.

4. ImaBiotech SAS, Parc Eurasanté, F-59120 Loos, France.

5. Univ. Lille, CNRS, Inserm, CHU Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, UAR CNRS 2014 - US Inserm 41 - PLBS, F-59000 Lille, France

6. CIIL - Centre d'Infection et d'Immunité de Lille (CIIL) - INSERM U1019 - UMR 9017

7. Univ. Strasbourg, CNRS UMR7104, Inserm U1258 - GenomEast Platform – IGBMC - Institut de Génétique et de Biologie Moléculaire et Cellulaire, F-67404 Illkirch, France.

8. PharmaCenter Bonn, Pharmaceutical Institute, Pharmaceutical & Medicinal Chemistry, University of Bonn, D-53121 Bonn, Germany.

9. CHU Lille, Memory Clinic, Lille France.

10. Instituto de Medicina Molecular, Faculdade de Medicina de Lisboa, Universidade de Lisboa, Lisbon, Portugal.

11. CNC - Center for Neuroscience and Cell Biology, University of Coimbra, 3004-504 Coimbra, Portugal.

12. Faculty of Medicine, University of Coimbra, 3004-504 Coimbra, Portugal.

13. Univ. Lille, INSERM, CNRS, CHU Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, Inserm U1283 / CNRS UMR8199 - EGID, 59000 Lille, France.

14. Univ. Lille, INSERM, CHU Lille, Institut Pasteur de Lille, U1167 – RID-AGE-Facteurs de risque et déterminants moléculaires des maladies liées au vieillissement, 59000 Lille, France.

Correspondence to:

David Blum, Inserm UMR-S1172, "Alzheimer & Tauopathies", Place de Verdun, 59045, Lille Cedex, France. Orcid Number: 0000-0001-5691-431X. Tel: +33320298850, Fax: +33320538562. david.blum@inserm.fr

Anne-Laurence Boutillier, Laboratoire de Neurosciences Cognitives et Adaptatives (LNCA), UMR7364 Cnrs Unistra, 67000 Strasbourg, France. Orcid Number: 0000-0002-2317-928.0 laurette@unistra.fr

Conflict of interest. The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

1 **Abstract**

2

3 Caffeine is the most consumed psychoactive substance worldwide. Strikingly, molecular pathways
4 engaged by its regular consumption remain unclear. We herein addressed the mechanisms
5 associated with habitual (chronic) caffeine consumption in the mouse hippocampus using untargeted
6 orthogonal-omics techniques. Our results revealed that chronic caffeine exerts concerted pleiotropic
7 effects in the hippocampus, at the epigenomic, proteomic and metabolomic levels. Caffeine lowers
8 metabolic-related processes in the bulk tissue, while it induces neuronal-specific epigenetic changes
9 at synaptic transmission/plasticity-related genes and increased experience-driven transcriptional
0 activity. Altogether, these findings suggest that regular caffeine intake improves the signal-to-noise
1 ratio during information encoding, in part through a fine-tuning of metabolic genes while boosting the
2 salience of information processing during learning in neuronal circuits.

3

4

5

6

7 Introduction

8

9 Caffeine is the most consumed psychoactive substance worldwide (about 80% of the population) via
0 dietary intake from coffee, tea and soda beverages. Its popularity derives from its ability to enhance
1 well-being and some central-related functions such as attention and alertness (1). Large
2 epidemiological studies point out an inverse association between coffee/caffeine consumption and
3 all-cause mortality (2–4). In general, the impact of caffeine on human health follows an inverted bell-
4 shaped dose-response curve with benefits observable at doses of 200-400 mg *per* day, that can be
5 recapitulated by 0.3 g/L p.o. in rodents.

6 Compelling epidemiological and experimental evidence support that habitual/chronic caffeine
7 consumption normalizes synaptic plasticity and cognitive decline in altered allostatic situations such
8 as ageing, Alzheimer's disease or other neuro-psychiatric conditions (5–7). A more limited number
9 of studies however also support that, independently of its ability to favor arousal and attention,
0 caffeine may exhibit cognitive-enhancing properties. After being rewarded with caffeine, honeybees
1 are able to remember a previously learned floral scent (8). Also, acute caffeine administration in rats
2 can enhance memory test performance (9, 10). In Humans, caffeine intake immediately following
3 learning improves discrimination performance 24 hours later (11). These results are in line with
4 observations supporting the ability of caffeine to modulate hippocampal/cortical excitability in
5 homeostatic conditions. Indeed, caffeine treatment in hippocampal slices enhances basal synaptic
6 transmission (12–14) and modulates long-term potentiation (LTP) in rodents' hippocampus (12, 15,
7 16) and sharp wave ripple complexes, that are proposed to underlie memory consolidation (17).
8 Caffeine also controls neuronal excitability and LTP-like effects in the human cortex (18, 19). Most
9 of these studies however rely on acute administrations with limited relevance towards
0 habitual/chronic consumption.

1 Despite caffeine's popularity, brain molecular changes associated with its chronic intake remain ill-
2 defined. Caffeine is known to essentially interfere with the adenosinergic system where it acts as an

3 antagonist (20). However, adaptive downstream pathways engaged by habitual/chronic caffeine
4 consumption have been largely overlooked. In the present study, we used a combination of unbiased
5 orthogonal-omics techniques to analyze the epigenome, transcriptome, proteome and metabolome
6 of the mouse hippocampus in order to uncover the molecular pathways impacted by chronic caffeine
7 consumption in neuronal processing during learning.

8

9 Results

0

1 **Mouse monitoring and caffeine concentrations.** In our experimental conditions, neither mortality
2 nor signs of animal suffering in caffeine-treated animals were encountered. Average consumption of
3 0.3 g/L caffeinated water was 4.83 ± 0.15 mL/mouse/day resulting in brain caffeine concentrations
4 of 3.6 ± 1.1 μ M, corresponding to a moderate intake in Humans (20). Caffeine metabolites
5 (paraxanthine, theobromine and theophylline) were also detected in the brain of treated mice with
6 respective concentrations of 1.9 ± 0.4 μ M, 1.8 ± 0.3 μ M, and 0.10 ± 0.03 μ M (n=5).

7

8 **Chronic caffeine consumption decreases histone acetylation of metabolic-related genes in**
9 **the hippocampus.** We hypothesized that chronic caffeine consumption could affect hippocampal
0 epigenome of mice. As caffeine is a psychostimulant, we focused on two chromatin marks
1 associated with “active chromatin” and specific transcriptional states. Histone H3 acetylation at lysine
2 27 (H3K27ac) is preferentially enriched at active enhancers (21), also forming large clusters of
3 H3K27ac-enriched enhancers known as “super-enhancers” on highly transcribed genes that are cell-
4 or tissue-specific (22, 23). Histone H3 lysines K9 and K14 (H3K9/K14ac), on which acetylation co-
5 occurs at many gene regulatory elements, allows to differentiate active enhancers from inactive ones
6 and thus represents a dynamic mark accounting for stimuli dependent activation (24). Locus specific
7 acetylation was evaluated by chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (ChIP-seq)
8 experiments in dorsal hippocampus of control (water) and caffeine-treated mice. A total of 2 biological
9 replicates were performed and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of the two histone marks was
0 generated (**Supplemental Figure 1A,B**). Chronic caffeine intake significantly decreased the
1 acetylation of both histone marks at many genomic loci. H3K9/14ac was depleted in 778 genomic
2 regions (768 genes) while only 3 were rarely identified as significantly enriched in caffeine-treated
3 animals (FDR<1E-5) (**Figure 1A, Supplemental Table 1**). Gene ontology analysis using Genomic

4 Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT) revealed that these acetylation-depleted regions
5 were associated with genes involved in the regulation of metabolic processes (amide, lipids), mRNA
6 transport, regulation of translation and dendritic spine morphogenesis and development (**Figure 1B**).
7 A more robust effect was observed in H3K27ac whose peaks were found decreased in 2105 genomic
8 regions (1766 genes) and increased in only 4 genomic regions in caffeine vs. control mice (FDR<1E-
9 5) (**Figure 1C, Supplemental Table 2**). Metabolic-related pathways, such as lipid catabolic or amide
0 metabolic processes were among the decreased peaks of both histone marks (**Figure 1B,D**).
1 Additionally, H3K27ac-depleted regions were significantly associated with myelin-related processes,
2 MAP kinase, negative regulation of calcium-mediated signaling pathways, as well as
3 heterochromatin organization (**Figure 1D**). We also performed Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and
4 Genomes (KEGG) pathway analyses and identified many processes, some of which related to
5 cAMP-, MAP kinase, Rap1-signaling pathways and circadian entrainment for both H3K9/14 and
6 H3K27ac depleted regions (**Figure 1E**). Of note, the KEGG pathway database pointed out metabolic-
7 related pathways, such as “insulin signaling”, for genes depleted in acetylation of both histone marks
8 (**Figure 1E**) and “glucagon signaling pathway” for those associated with H3K9/14ac depleted regions
9 (**Figure 1E**, blue bars). Those genes associated with insulin and glucagon signaling pathways were
0 represented by protein-protein interaction network analysis (STRING), showing strong
1 interconnectivity (**Figure 1F**, yellow and pink dots, respectively). As examples, genomic region
2 representation of the Insulin Receptor Substrate 1 (*Irs1*) gene, which is required for insulin signaling
3 and related spine maturation and synaptic plasticity (25) and the Glycogen Synthase Kinase 3 Beta
4 (*Gsk3b*) gene are shown (**Figure 1G**), with significant acetylation depletion for both marks in the
5 caffeine-treated group *versus* control (respectively left, H3K9/14ac, FDR=7.75E-05 and H3K27ac,
6 FDR=1.82E-12; right, H3K9/14ac, FDR=2.58E-11 and H3K27ac, FDR=4.83E-05). Other regions,
7 such as those associated with *Dusp3*, *Psme3* and *Mlh3* genes, did not exhibit such histone
8 acetylation changes upon caffeine treatment, attesting for selectivity of the caffeine effect for both
9 histone marks (**Supplemental Figure 1C**). In addition, integrated pathway analysis (IPA) applied to

0 common ChIP-seq data of both marks confirmed that metabolic pathways, such as insulin or IGF-1
1 signaling, were canonical pathways downregulated upon caffeine treatment (**Supplemental Table**
2 **3**). Potential contributors to the caffeine effects on the epigenome were further assessed using the
3 “upstream regulator analysis” function of IPA (**Supplemental Table 4**). We identified in the
4 acetylation-depleted genes, TCF7L2 (Transcription factor 7-like 2) as the most significant upstream
5 regulator inhibited upon caffeine consumption for both marks. Furthermore, ADORA2A (A2AR) was
6 identified as another upstream regulator in the epigenomic data, in striking accordance with the
7 primary ability of caffeine to antagonize adenosine receptors (20). Altogether, these data show that
8 in the bulk hippocampus, chronic caffeine treatment induces an overall deacetylation of two active
9 transcription marks, H3K27ac and H3K9/14ac, on genes related to translation, lipid and
0 glucose/insulin-related metabolisms.

1 To assess whether this histone acetylation depletion exerts an effect on gene transcription, we
2 performed RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) of both water and caffeine-treated mice. Although differential
3 expression analysis revealed no statistically significant changes of gene expression between groups
4 (**Supplemental Figure 2A**), relative quantification of the gene expression (z-score) corresponding
5 to all H3K27ac-depleted loci showed an overall decrease in expression (**Supplemental Figure 2B**)
6 over the same number of randomly chosen genes. Furthermore, we also checked by RT-qPCR (n=5-
7 6/group) expression levels of several genes chosen amongst the most depleted ones in H3K27ac
8 and observed a decreased expression following chronic caffeine treatment (**Supplemental Figure**
9 **2D, red columns**). Importantly, we found that some of these genes, such as PBX Homeobox 1
0 (*Pbx1*), NAD Kinase 2 (*Nadk2*) and Spindle And Centriole Associated Protein 1 (*Spice1*), displayed
1 decreased expression not only upon chronic (2 weeks) but also following an acute (24h) caffeine
2 treatment (**Supplemental Figure 2D, green columns**). However, the Cytochrome P450 Family 51
3 Subfamily A Member 1 (*Cyp51*) gene, that plays a central role in cholesterol and lipid metabolisms,
4 showed decreased expression solely upon chronic caffeine treatment. Moreover, a persistent effect
5 of caffeine on gene expression was observed for *Pbx1* and *Nadk2* genes, as their expression

6 remained decreased even after a 2-week caffeine withdrawal following chronic administration
7 **(Supplemental Figure 2D, blue columns).**

8

9 **Impact of chronic caffeine consumption on hippocampal metabolome.** Considering that
0 caffeine decreased histone acetylation of metabolic-related genes, we further assessed the impact
1 of the decreased histone acetylation on the hippocampal metabolome. To do so, tissue spatial
2 distribution of molecules was visualized by MALDI (matrix assisted laser desorption ionization) mass
3 spectrometry imaging analysis, acquired from the dorsal hippocampus (Bregma -1.7mm; **Figure 2A**)
4 of water and caffeine-treated mice (n=6/group). PCA analysis was then performed on the recorded
5 mass spectrometry images from both mouse groups (water and caffeine-treated), in order to highlight
6 differences in their hippocampal molecular distribution profiles (**Figure 2B**). This revealed lipidomic
7 and metabolomic signatures related to chronic caffeine intake, resulting in two distinctly separated
8 clusters. The identification of metabolites and lipids was based on the measurement of their *m/z* and
9 subsequent comparison with different databanks. In total, 59% of the metabolome was assigned to
0 the biochemical class of metabolites (27%) and lipids (32%) (**Figure 2C**). The *m/z* value of the
1 remaining 41% did not allow for a univocal assignment to a specific biochemical class. Ultimately,
2 statistical analysis of the molecular datasets revealed that chronic caffeine consumption induced a
3 major decrease in metabolites and lipid levels (92% decreased vs. 8% increased; **Figure 2D**). The
4 identified species between water and caffeine groups ($p < 0.05$), detected in positive and negative
5 ionization mode, are listed in **Supplemental Table 5**. Related molecular images taken from
6 hippocampi of water and caffeine-treated mice, showing their different levels and distribution are
7 displayed in **Figure 2E**.

8

9 **Proteomic hippocampal signature associated with chronic caffeine consumption.** To gain
0 insights into the potential effect of chronic caffeine intake at the protein level, we performed mass
1 spectrometry proteomic analysis of the bulk dorsal hippocampus of water (control) and chronic

2 caffeine-treated mice (n=3/group). Caffeine induced alterations of 179 proteins, of which 49
3 displayed decreased and 130 increased expression levels (**Figure 3A, Supplemental Table 6**). In
4 line with the two previous datasets (epigenomics and metabolomics), gene ontology and protein
5 network analysis revealed that decreased proteins were again associated with peptide and cellular
6 amide metabolic processes as well as with mitochondria, with reduction of NADH:Ubiquinone
7 Oxidoreductase Subunit A3 (NDUFA3) involved in mitochondrial respiratory chain complex I
8 assembly, of Mitochondrial Pyruvate Carrier 1 (MPC1) responsible for transporting pyruvate into
9 mitochondria or of Long-Chain-Fatty-Acid-CoA Ligase 4 (ACSL4) involved in lipid metabolism
0 (**Figure 3B**). Together, these three approaches suggest a robust decrease in metabolic processes
1 induced by chronic caffeine intake in the bulk hippocampal tissue. 35 out of the 49 proteins
2 decreased by caffeine, including Insulin Degrading Enzyme (IDE) and NDUFA3, were reversed by
3 caffeine withdrawal. Only 14 proteins, such as Insulin Like Growth Factor 2 Receptor (IGF2R)
4 remained decreased following caffeine withdrawal (**Supplemental Table 6**).

5 Gene Ontology analysis of the increased proteins revealed three main protein clusters: one related
6 with RNA-binding and spliceosome, a second linked to autophagosome and protein processing to
7 endoplasmic reticulum, and a last one associated with glutamatergic synapse and phosphatase
8 activity. Considering that caffeine induced expression of some synaptic proteins, and controls
9 glutamatergic synaptic transmission (e.g. (19), we further assessed their predicted role in the
0 synaptic compartment using the Synaptic Gene Ontologies and annotations (SynGO) (26). We
1 observed that most of the synaptic proteins annotated were related to synaptic organization and
2 signaling, more particularly, to chemical synaptic transmission, such as SH3 And Multiple Ankyrin
3 Repeat Domains 3 (SHANK3) that encodes critical scaffolding proteins for glutamatergic
4 neurotransmission in the post-synaptic densities (27), Synaptopodin (SYNPO) a part of the actin
5 cytoskeleton of postsynaptic densities (28) or CREB-Regulated Transcription Coactivator 1
6 (CRTC1) involved in hippocampal plasticity and memory (29). Overall, proteomic analysis revealed
7 a decrease in metabolism-related proteins, concomitant with an increase of neuronal/synapse-

8 associated proteins. Interestingly, 57 out of the 130 proteins increased by chronic caffeine intake,
9 including SHANK3 and synaptopodin (SYNPO) were reversed 2 weeks after caffeine withdrawal,
0 while the other 73 proteins maintained a persistent increase. The latter includes the ATPase Family
1 AAA Domain Containing 1 (ATAD1) protein that controls synaptic plasticity by regulating the release
2 of neurotransmitter receptors from postsynaptic scaffolds (30) (**Supplemental Table 6**).

3
4 **Neuronal-specific H3K27ac in synaptic transmission-related genes is increased by chronic**
5 **caffeine consumption.** Our epigenomic data performed in bulk tissue revealed a robust decrease
6 of histone acetylation (H3K27ac and H3K9/14ac) (**Figure 1**). However, increased synaptic proteins
7 observed following mass spectrometry proteomics in caffeine-treated mice supported a presumable
8 neuron-autonomous impact of caffeine and stressed the importance of conducting cell-type specific
9 experiments to better understand caffeine-induced adaptive alterations of neuronal/synaptic
0 transmission. Thus, to assess cell-specific effects, we analyzed the epigenome of neuronal-enriched
1 populations derived from water and caffeine-treated mouse dorsal hippocampi. We used a novel
2 enzyme-tethering strategy, the Cleavage Under Targets and Tagmentation (CUT&Tag) approach,
3 instead of the ChIP-seq, that allows the profiling of a lower number of cells at higher resolution (31).
4 We first validated the CUT&Tag-seq approach by analyzing H3K27ac signatures in a hippocampal
5 cell suspension (all cells) and compared with ChIP-seq results obtained in bulk tissue. In all cells,
6 CUT&Tag-seq analysis revealed a strong depletion on H3K27ac in caffeine treated-mice as
7 observed by ChIP-seq (**Supplemental Figure 3A**). IPA analysis of the depleted H3K27ac genes
8 revealed common upstream regulators (TCF7L2, MKNK1, NFASC) with these two different
9 experimental designs (**Supplemental Figure 3B**). Additionally, a robust overlap was found on the
0 KEGG pathways of the common acetylation depleted genes obtained with CUT&Tag and ChIP-seq
1 analyses (**Supplemental Figure 3C**). We then proceeded with the neuronal epigenetic study by
2 CUT&Tag-seq using H3K27ac, the latter mark having displayed the stronger caffeine-associated
3 alterations in bulk ChIP-experiments. In addition, we investigated a repressive version of this mark,

4 the trimethylation of H3 histone lysine 27 (H3K27me3) to strengthen our results with additional
5 information (**Figure 4A**). We first confirmed that neuronal genes were enriched in H3K27ac and
6 depleted in H3K27me3 in our neuronal enriched cellular fraction, when the opposite was seen on a
7 set of glial-associated genes (**Supplemental Figure 4A**). In sharp contrast with data obtained from
8 bulk hippocampal tissue, differential analyses of caffeine-treated and control mice revealed a
9 preponderance of H3K27ac-enriched regions in neurons obtained from caffeine-treated mice (7127,
0 FDR<10E-6) as compared to the number of depleted regions (4343, FDR<10E-6) (**Figure 4B**,
1 **Supplemental Table 8**). H3K27ac PCA plot indicated a separation between the two groups with a
2 PC1 of 58% (**Supplemental Figure 4B**). While decreased regions were found in genes mostly
3 associated with immune response (**Supplemental Figure 5A**), increased regions-associated genes
4 were strongly related to the synaptic compartment involved in the regulation of synaptic plasticity,
5 action potential, LTP and memory (see DAVID: GO cellular component and GREAT: GO Biological
6 process) (**Figure 4C**). The repressive mark, H3K27me3, displayed also a higher number of enriched
7 regions (2734, FDR<10E-6) compared with depleted ones (1712, FDR<10E-6) (**Figure 4D**;
8 **Supplemental Table 8**). H3K27me3 PCA plot indicated a separation between the two groups with
9 a PC1 of 53% (**Supplemental Figure 4C**). Strikingly, H3K27me3 depleted regions-associated genes
0 in neurons were mostly linked to ion transport processes, such as calcium and potassium transport,
1 as well as chemical synaptic transmission and learning (**Figure 4E**), while enriched regions were
2 associated with transcription and histone deacetylase binding-related processes (**Supplemental**
3 **Figure 5B**). Analysis of the intersected regions depleted in acetylation and increased in methylation
4 showed 282 regions which corresponding to genes linked to the transcription machinery
5 (**Supplemental Figures 5C,D, blue**). The opposite overlap showing regions enriched in acetylation
6 and depleted in methylation represented 352 regions that were linked to ion transport functions
7 (**Supplemental Figures 5C,D; red**). This suggests that pathways linked to synaptic transmission,
8 learning and regulation of membrane potential are co-regulated in neurons by chronic caffeine
9 treatment leading to H3K27 acetylation enrichment and tri-methylation depletion, also clearly

0 visualized by cluster profiling representation (**Supplemental Figure 5E**). Finally, integration between
1 neuronal-specific epigenomic data and proteomic data showed that 28 out of the 130 proteins
2 increased by caffeine exhibited a significant H3K27ac enrichment at their coding sequence, mostly
3 related to synapses, particularly to glutamatergic synapses (**Figure 4F**). These 28 genes/proteins
4 include the calcium binding protein membrane-Associated Phosphatidylinositol Transfer Protein 3
5 (*Pitpnm3*), as well as the Tetratricopeptide Repeat, Ankyrin Repeat and Coiled-Coil Containing 1
6 (*Tanc1*), which is a PSD-95-interacting protein regulating dendritic spines at excitatory synapses
7 (32). Among these 28 genes/proteins, we also identified the CREB Regulated Transcription
8 Coactivator 1 (*Crtc1*), required for efficient induction of CREB target genes to engage activity-
9 dependent transcription during neuronal activity (33) (**Figure 4G**). Overall, these findings suggest
0 that chronic caffeine intake exerts a cell-autonomous positive epigenetic modulation of the synaptic
1 transmission and plasticity processes in hippocampal neurons.

2

3 **Chronic caffeine consumption enhances learning-dependent hippocampal transcription.** We
4 finally aimed at addressing whether chronic caffeine consumption had an impact on transcriptional
5 regulations induced by learning processes. Two experimental conditions were assessed: “Home
6 cage” conditions, consisting of resting mice and “Learning” conditions, consisting of 3 days of training
7 for spatial memory using the Morris Water Maze task, a hippocampal-dependent task (**Figure 5A**).
8 The learning groups showed a better acquisition of the hidden platform position at the third day of
9 training (D3), revealed by the decreased distance traveled during the last day (**Supplemental Figure**
0 **6**, left panel). Caffeine-treated animals spent significantly less time in the thigmotaxic zone than the
1 water-treated mice (**Supplemental Figure 6**, middle panel). The mean speed *per day* was similar in
2 both learning groups (**Supplemental Figure 6**, right panel). RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq)
3 experiments were then performed in the dorsal hippocampus in both “Home cage” and “Learning”
4 conditions (3 days of training + 1hr (34)) (**Figure 5B**; n=4/group). Interestingly, when the response
5 to training (Learning *versus* Home cage condition) was evaluated, differences emerged between the

6 water and caffeine-treated groups. While the expression of 209 genes was significantly modified by
7 learning in the water group (47 down- and 162 up-regulated), the caffeine-treated mice displayed
8 about 5-times more genes with altered expression in response to learning, i.e. 1139 (419 down- and
9 720 up-regulated) (**Figures 5C,D; Supplemental Table 9**). In resting mice, while none of the genes
0 were significantly modified by chronic caffeine treatment (**Supplemental Figure 2A**), z-scores of the
1 group of genes that were significantly down-regulated by learning (419 down) displayed increased
2 basal expression levels and decreased levels upon learning, thus showing a higher amplitude of
3 expression level (**Figure 5E, left panel**). Likewise, higher amplitude of expression was observed on
4 up-regulated genes by learning (720 up), as they presented decreased expression levels in resting
5 mice and increased expression levels in response to training (**Figure 5E, right panel**). The 419
6 down-regulated genes by caffeine plus training were significantly associated with “ribosome” KEGG
7 pathway (**Figure 5F**). Since we previously found that chronic caffeine treatment pointed to the
8 common GO Biological process term: “translation” (ChIP-seq data, **Figure 1B,D**) and the common
9 potential upstream regulator MKNK1 (**Supplemental Table 4 and 7**), these RNA-seq data indicate
0 that chronic caffeine treatment may have a functional effect on the general translation processes
1 already in resting mice, which can be amplified when the system is activated. The same reasoning
2 holds true for genes that are induced upon chronic caffeine and training: genes induced by training
3 in water-treated animals were associated with transcriptional processes (**Figure 5G**, dashed black
4 bars) similarly to the caffeine-treated group (**Figure 5h**, dashed blue bars); however, caffeine
5 treatment increased the significance of transcriptional pathways in response to learning as compared
6 to water-treated mice (**Figure 5G**). Accordingly, the immediate early gene *Fosb*, as well as the *Xbp1*
7 gene, which is known to play an important role in memory formation (35), were significantly more
8 activated by the learning process under caffeine treatment (**Supplemental Figure 7A**). Caffeine
9 treatment also promoted the activation of other pathways related to metal ion binding or
0 transferase/ligase/kinase activities (**Figure 5G**, dashed blue bars). Among the 607 genes specifically
1 upregulated in caffeine-treated animals under learning conditions, we identified *Vegfa*, an important

2 modulator of hippocampal neurogenesis and cognition (36) and *Acss1*, an Acetyl-CoA Synthetase-
3 coding gene, whose related family member *Acss2* regulates histone acetylation and hippocampal-
4 dependent memory (37) (**Supplemental Figure 7B**). Further integration of the 720 up-regulated
5 genes by learning in caffeine-treated animals revealed that 121 of them were already de-acetylated
6 (H3K27ac ChIP-seq) in resting conditions (**Figure 5H**), in coherence with their decreased expression
7 (z-score) levels in home-cage caffeine *versus* water (**Figure 5I**). Strikingly, these genes were strongly
8 related to metabolic processes (**Figure 5J**), suggesting that caffeine plays a role on re-setting histone
9 acetylation profiles of metabolic genes in bulk tissue (i.e. presumably in non-neuronal cells), so that
0 they become highly inducible by learning conditions (when metabolic support is most required). In
1 support, we further confirmed these findings by integrating these RNA-seq data with the H3K27ac
2 CUT&Tag-seq datasets using all cells (**Supplemental Figure 7C,D,E**).

3 Discussion

4

5 Caffeine is the most widely consumed psychoactive drug. However, there is a striking mismatch
6 between the epidemiological evidence associating the regular intake of caffeine with benefits for
7 chronic brain disorders and the molecular clarification of the impact of caffeine on brain function. In
8 fact, the majority of molecular and neurophysiological studies explored the impact of acute rather
9 than repeated exposure to caffeine, which have been documented to differently impact on brain
0 function (38–40). Herein, using a combination of different non-hypothesis driven-omic approaches,
1 we show that, in the bulk tissue analysis, chronic caffeine treatment reduced metabolic processes
2 related to lipids, mitochondria and translation in the mouse hippocampus, some of which were
3 identified at the different molecular levels analyzed, *i.e.* epigenome, transcriptome, proteome and
4 metabolome. In sharp contrast to what was observed in bulk tissue, we found that caffeine induced
5 a neuronal autonomous epigenomic response related to synaptic plasticity activation. These data
6 were corroborated by the fact that caffeine treatment induced an increase in glutamatergic synapse
7 proteins in the hippocampus and ultimately, enhanced transcriptomic regulations in response to
8 learning. Overall, our data prompt the novel concept that regular caffeine intake promotes a more
9 efficient ability of the brain to encode experience-related events. By coordinating epigenomic
0 changes in neuronal and non-neuronal cells, regular caffeine intake promotes a fine-tuning of
1 metabolism in resting conditions, likely improving neuronal activity in response to learning.

2 A major finding of this study is the observation that a 2-weeks exposure to caffeine induced a
3 prominent decrease of histone acetylation (H3K27ac and H3K9/K14ac) in genes associated with
4 several metabolic processes in the dorsal hippocampus in basal/resting conditions. H3K27ac
5 depleted genes had decreased z-score levels in the caffeine-treated group, suggesting a mild impact
6 on gene transcription as well. These data were supported by a metabolomic study indicating a global
7 decrease of metabolites and lipids in the same experimental conditions, as well as by a proteomic
8 analysis suggesting a decrease in energy metabolism with the reduction of several proteins involved

9 in mitochondrial activity (e.g. NDUFA3 and MPC1). These chronic changes were to some point
0 related to acute caffeine treatment as a few genes were similarly impacted following a 24h and a 2-
1 week caffeine treatment, in line with Yu et al., 2009 (41), but the main changes were associated with
2 long-term exposure to caffeine, as found for e.g. the *Cyp51* gene, encoding a protein involved in
3 cholesterol and lipid metabolism. In accordance, we found that 14 over 49 downregulated
4 hippocampal proteins were still altered despite 2 weeks of caffeine withdrawal, indicating a
5 persistence of chronic caffeine effects, as previously suggested (42). Among these long-lasting
6 impacted proteins by chronic caffeine intake, we found ACSL4 and GNA14, which are involved in
7 the cellular synthesis of fatty acids/lipids, or IGF2 receptor and ITPR3, involved in insulin-dependent
8 regulations. Importantly, these data are in line with and bring molecular support to recent functional
9 magnetic resonance imaging data showing that habitual coffee drinkers exhibit decreased brain
0 functional connectivity at rest (43). As bulk hippocampal tissue was investigated, a question lies in
1 understanding the cellular types underlying such metabolic decrease. Independent IPA analysis of
2 our two sets of epigenomic data (ChIP-seq on bulk hippocampal tissue and CUT&Tag-seq on
3 dissociated hippocampal cells, “all cells”) particularly pointed at three common upstream regulators:
4 TCF7L2 (transcription factor 7 like 2), MKNK1 (MAPK interacting serine/threonine kinase 1) and
5 NFASC (neurofascin). In the mouse brain, these genes are predominantly expressed by non-
6 neuronal cells: TCF7L2 is preferentially expressed by newly formed oligodendrocytes and
7 astrocytes, NFASC in newly formed oligodendrocytes, while MKNK1 is particularly enriched in
8 microglia (see <https://www.brainrnaseq.org/>). IPA analysis of “all cells” CUT&Tag-seq data further
9 highlighted the involvement of GLI1 and SOX2, that are both particularly enriched in astrocytes.
0 These observations strongly support that the basal/resting signatures elicited by chronic caffeine
1 intake may rely on non-neuronal, likely glial, responses.

2 Concomitant with this de-acetylation process observed in the bulk hippocampus, we showed that
3 chronic caffeine was able to induce a neuron-autonomous epigenomic response using both active
4 (H3K27ac) and repressive (H3K27me3) marks: acetylation of H3K27 was enriched while its tri-

5 methylation was depleted at genes related to membrane potential, potassium ion regulation and
6 learning and memory processes. This suggests that the overall chronic caffeine effect positively
7 regulates neuronal activity and synaptic transmission. Proteomic studies supported this argument as
8 a series of identified upregulated proteins were related to the glutamatergic synapse. It is interesting
9 to note that 73 out of 130 upregulated proteins -some of them related to the synapse- remained
0 elevated even after a 2-weeks caffeine withdrawal, revealing a long-lasting impact of chronic caffeine
1 intake on neurons. Integration of epigenomic and proteomic data particularly pointed towards
2 CRT1, known to act as a coincidence sensor of calcium and cAMP signals in neurons triggering a
3 transcriptional response involved in late-phase LTP maintenance at hippocampal synapses (44). We
4 further observed that chronic caffeine intake impacts the learning/training-induced transcriptome by
5 significantly enhancing the number of differentially regulated genes. Integration of the learning-
6 induced genes with epigenomic data identified a group of 121 genes related to metabolic processes
7 that, besides being over-activated in caffeine-treated mice in learning conditions, were also de-
8 acetylated with decreased overall expression in resting conditions (z-score). This suggests that the
9 resting-state effect of caffeine in non-neuronal/glia cells might be a pre-requisite to the robust
0 activation of metabolic pathways then improving quality and precision of learning-associated
1 processes, in line with its cognitive enhancing function.

2 Thus, a major overall conclusion of the present study is the ability of regular caffeine intake to exert
3 a long-term effect on neuronal activity/plasticity in the adult brain, through concerted actions on the
4 epigenome, transcriptome, proteome and metabolome, ultimately lowering metabolic-related
5 processes; and to simultaneously finely tuning activity-dependent regulations for a more efficient
6 response to experience. In other words, in non-neuronal cells caffeine decreases -omic activities
7 under basal conditions and improves the signal-to-noise ratio during information encoding in brain
8 circuits, thus contributing to bolster the salience of information in brain circuits. Remarkably, this dual
9 and opposite impact of caffeine under resting conditions and upon brain activation is in line with
0 human brain imaging studies: under basal conditions caffeine increased brain entropy (45) and

1 decreased functional connectivity (46), whereas it increases BOLD activation in the frontopolar and
2 cingulate cortex in a verbal working memory task (47) reflecting an increased processing potential.
3 Additionally, neurophysiological studies on the putative targets of caffeine - adenosine receptors –
4 are in line with this dual role of caffeine, as shown by the opposite effects of A_{2A}R to enhance
5 glutamate release contrasting with the A₁R-mediated inhibition of basal synaptic transmission (48),
6 which is also controlled by A_{2A}R (49). Finally, our data also show that the amplitude of the
7 transcriptomic effects of caffeine was far greater when neuronal networks were activated during the
8 learning process rather than in basal conditions, as noted by others when studying the impact of
9 caffeine on gene expression in the basal ganglia (50). This might particularly relate to a “priming” of
0 neuronal activity which would favor the rise of activity-dependent response, as it has been suggested
1 for the mechanism of action of HDAC inhibitors (51). How caffeine coordinates these epigenomic
2 responses in the different cell types is an interesting question that we are currently pursuing.
3 Finally, the present study highlights the molecular impact of caffeine in the homeostatic brain, that
4 will deserve further investigations, namely regarding the differential mechanisms operating at the
5 cell-specific level to modulate physiological brain activity in resting and activity settings. Our data
6 have additional far-reaching implications. While it is recognized that caffeine exhibits normalizing
7 properties in models of synaptic dysfunction, as in Alzheimer’s disease (52–54), the cell-specific
8 molecular mechanisms remains to be uncovered. In the opposite side of the allostatic brain spectrum
9 (55), caffeine has been suggested to impact synaptic fate in brain development (56, 57) but the
0 involvement of neuronal vs. non-neuronal mechanisms remains ill-defined. It is therefore particularly
1 relevant and important to address, at a larger scale, the integrated actions of caffeine in neuronal vs.
2 non-neuronal cells in the immature, homeostatic and ageing brain.

3

4 **Materials and Methods**

5

6 **Animals.** Male C57Bl6/J mice (Charles River Laboratories, France) were housed in a pathogen-free
7 facility (University of Lille, France). Mice were 5-6 per cage (GM500, Tecniplast) and maintained
8 under controlled housing conditions for temperature (22°C) and light (12-hour light/dark cycle), with
9 *ad libitum* access to food and water.

0

1 **Caffeine treatment.** Two-three-months-old mice were randomly assigned to the two following
2 experimental groups: water (control) and caffeine. Caffeine solutions were kept in dark bottles thus
3 protected from light and changed weekly. Treatment started at 8-9 weeks of age and lasted for two
4 weeks. The chronic caffeine treatment in mice has been set in order to mimic the usual dose range
5 of caffeine consumption in Humans. The selected caffeine dose of 0.3 g/L p.o., administered through
6 drinking water at 0.3 g/L, has been previously shown to provide a significant benefit in
7 neurodegenerative contexts (54, 58, 59). Regarding the comparison of caffeine exposure for 2
8 weeks vs. 24 hours vs. caffeine removal, we proceed as follows: 6 animals were kept under water
9 and other 6 animals were treated with caffeine for 2 weeks and returned to water for 2 additional
0 weeks (caffeine withdrawal group). When the later group of animals returned to water, an additional
1 group that was under water for 2 weeks was then treated with caffeine. A last group was kept under
2 water for 2 weeks and treated with caffeine for only 24 hours. All animals were then sacrificed the
3 same day, the dorsal hippocampus was sampled and stored as indicated below and used for
4 proteomics and RT-qPCR analysis.

5

6 **Quantitative determination of caffeine and metabolites in brain samples.** Brain tissues from
7 water and caffeine groups were used to assess concentrations of caffeine and its metabolites
8 (paraxanthine, theobromine and theophylline). Samples were weighed and 1 mL of 1% formic acid
9 (FA) solution was added to each sample. To determine the recovery rate, control samples were

0 spiked with a mixture of caffeine, paraxanthine, theobromine and theophylline (10 μ M each). The
1 tissues were lysed using 7 mm stainless steel beads and Tissue Lyser LT (Qiagen) for 8 min at 50
2 strokes/minute, then treated with an ultrasonic bath for 5 minutes and subsequently centrifuged for
3 15 minutes at 23000 \times g and 4°C. The supernatants were transferred to Amicon® Ultra 2 ml 3K
4 centrifugal filter units (Merck). The remaining pellets were subjected to the same protocol of tissue
5 disruption and centrifugation using 1 mL of acidified water (FA 1%). Amicon® filters containing the
6 combined supernatants from the two-fold extraction process were centrifuged for 140 minutes at
7 7500 \times g and 23°C. Filtrates were used for liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry analysis.
8 Samples were separated by using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 HPLC system with an integrated variable
9 wavelength detector, set at 280 nm, and equipped with a C18 column (EC Nucleodur® C18 Gravity
0 column, 2 mm ID x 50 mm, 3 μ m, Macherey & Nagel). Samples (5 μ L) were injected at flow rate of
1 300 μ L/minutes. A solvent gradient was run from 90% A (water containing 0.2% FA and 2 mM
2 ammonium acetate) and 10% B (methanol containing 2 mM ammonium acetate) to 50% A and 50%
3 B over 10 minutes.

4 The eluate was analyzed with a coupled mass spectrometer ESI-micrOTOF-Q (Bruker Daltonics).
5 Data were acquired in positive full scan MS mode with a scan range m/z 50-1000. Identification and
6 quantification of the xanthine derivatives were performed using Data Analysis software (Bruker
7 Daltonics). The limit of detection was 5 nM for caffeine and 10 nM for its metabolites (paraxanthine,
8 theobromine and theophylline).

9
0 **Learning activation in the Morris water maze.** An Atlantis Morris Water Maze (MWM) tank was
1 placed in a room with several visual extra-maze cues. Water opacified with powdered chalk (*Blanc*
2 *de meudon*) was maintained at a temperature of 21°C. Mice from water (control) and caffeine groups
3 were habituated to the set-up for two consecutive days (habituation 1 and 2). During habituation 1,
4 mice were allowed to discover the pool filled with 5 cm height of water and a visible platform during
5 60 seconds. During habituation 2, mice were allowed to swim in the pool filled with water in absence

6 of the platform for 60 seconds. The following 3 days (acquisition day 1–3), mice were trained to
7 localize the platform hidden underneath the opacified water using the spatial cues present in the
8 room. In each acquisition day, mice performed four trials each of 60 seconds maximal duration. Each
9 trial was terminated when the mouse reached the platform or after the 60 seconds. Mice failing to
0 find the platform were gently guided to the platform and allowed to stay for 8–10 seconds. During the
1 training days, mice were subjected to MWM in a random order, so that they were tested at different
2 times of the day. All MWM evaluations of caffeine- or water-treated mice were performed by
3 experimenter blind to mouse treatments.

4

5 **Sacrifice and brain tissue preparation.** For transcriptomic analysis, mice from Learning group were
6 killed by cervical dislocation, one hour after the last training session, while mice from the Home cage
7 group were killed at the same time. Freshly dissected tissues were immediately frozen in liquid
8 nitrogen and kept at -80°C until RNA extraction. Similar sacrifice procedures were used for animals
9 used for proteomic and RTqPCR analyses. For molecular MALDI imaging experiments, mice were
0 deeply anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (50 mg/kg, *i.p.*), and then transcardially perfused with
1 cold NaCl (0.9%). Brains were collected, frozen on dry ice and stored at -80°C until use.

2

3 **RNA-seq analysis.** Total RNA was extracted from dorsal hippocampal tissues using TRIzol reagent
4 (Invitrogen) (n=4/group). Freshly dissected tissue was chopped, homogenized in 300 µL of TRIzol
5 reagent, and frozen (20 minutes at -80°C), followed by 3-minutes centrifugation at 14000xg before
6 chloroform/isoamyl extraction. The supernatant was used to precipitate RNA with isopropanol and
7 RNase-free glycogen (30 minutes at 4°C). The pellet was washed once with 70% ethanol and
8 resuspended in Milli-Q water. A new RNA precipitation was performed with 100% ethanol and 3 M
9 sodium acetate (overnight at -20°C). After two further 70% ethanol washes, the pellet was air-dried
0 and resuspended in 30 µL nuclease-free Milli-Q water, heated 6 minutes at 50°C, and RNA
1 quantification was performed. RNA-seq libraries (n=4/group) were generated from 500 ng of total

2 RNA using Illumina® TruSeq® Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit v2. Briefly, following purification with
3 poly-T oligo attached magnetic beads, the mRNA was fragmented using divalent cations at 94°C for
4 2 minutes. The cleaved RNA fragments were copied into first-strand cDNA using reverse
5 transcriptase and random primers. Strand specificity was achieved by replacing dTTP with dUTP
6 during the second-strand cDNA synthesis by DNA Polymerase I and RNase H. Following the addition
7 of a single “A” base and the subsequent ligation of the adapter on double-stranded cDNA fragments,
8 the products were purified and enriched with PCR [30 s at 98°C; (10 seconds at 98°C, 30 seconds
9 at 60°C, 30 seconds at 72°C) × 12 cycles; 5 minutes at 72°C] to create the cDNA library. Surplus
0 PCR primers were further removed by purification using AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter), and
1 the final cDNA libraries were checked for quality and quantified using capillary electrophoresis.
2 Sequencing was performed on the Illumina® Genome HiSeq4000 as single-end 50 base reads
3 following Illumina’s instructions. Reads were mapped onto the mm10 assembly of *Mus musculus*
4 genome using STAR v2.5.3a (60) and the Bowtie 2 aligner v2.2.8 (61). Only uniquely aligned reads
5 were kept for further analyses. Quantification of gene expression was performed using HTSeq-count
6 v0.6.1p1 (62) and gene annotations from Ensembl release 90 and “union” mode. Read counts were
7 normalized across libraries with the method proposed by Ander et al. (2010) (63). Comparisons of
8 interest were performed using the test for differential expression proposed by Love (64) and
9 implemented in the DESeq2 Bioconductor library (v1.16.1). Resulting p-values were adjusted for
0 multiple testing using the Benjamini and Hochberg method (65).

1

2 **Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP).** Freshly dissected tissue was chopped by a razor blade
3 and rapidly incubated in 1.5 mL phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) containing 1% formaldehyde for
4 10 minutes at room temperature. To stop fixation, glycine was added (0.125 M final concentration).
5 Dorsal hippocampi from 4 mice were pooled per sample and two biological replicates *per* condition
6 were used for the ChIP-seq. Tissue samples were then processed as described in Chatterjee *et al.*
7 (34) and sonicated using the Diagenode Bioruptor (30 seconds ON-30 seconds OFF at High Power

8 x 35 cycles). Sonicated chromatin was centrifuged 10 minutes at 14000xg, the supernatant collected
9 and diluted 1:10 in ChIP dilution buffer (0.01% SDS, 1.1% Triton X-100, 1.2 mM EDTA, 16.7 mM
0 Tris-Cl, pH 8.1, 167 mM NaCl). A fraction of the supernatant (50 μ L – 10%) from each sample was
1 saved before immune-precipitation for ‘total input chromatin’. Supernatants were incubated overnight
2 (4°C) with 1/1000 primary antibodies against H3K9/14ac (Diagenode #C15410200) and H3K27ac
3 (Abcam #ab4729), followed by protein A Dynabeads (Invitrogen) for 2 hours at room temperature.
4 After several washes (low salt, high salt, LiCl and TE buffers), the resulting DNA-protein complexes
5 were eluted in 300 μ L elution buffer (1% SDS, 0.1 M NaHCO₃). The crosslinking was reversed
6 (overnight at 65°C) and the DNA was subsequently purified with RNase (30 minutes at 37°C) and
7 proteinase K (2 hours at 45°C). DNA from the immunoprecipitated and input samples was isolated
8 using Diagenode MicroChIP DiaPure columns with 20 μ L nuclease-free milliQ water in low binding
9 tubes. ChIP samples were further purified at the Genomeast Platform using Agencourt AMPure XP
0 beads (Beckman Coulter) and quantified using Qubit (Invitrogen).

1

2 **ChIP-seq libraries and sequencing.** ChIP-seq libraries were prepared from 2-10 ng of double-
3 stranded purified DNA using the MicroPlex Library Preparation kit v2 (C05010014, Diagenode s.a.,
4 Seraing, Belgium), according to manufacturer's instructions. DNA was first repaired and yielded
5 molecules with blunt ends. Next, stem-loop adaptors with blocked 5' ends were ligated to the 5' end
6 of the genomic DNA (gDNA), leaving a nick at the 3' end. The adaptors cannot ligate to each other
7 and do not have single-strand tails thus non-specific background is avoided. In the final step, the 3'
8 ends of the gDNA were extended to complete library synthesis and Illumina compatible indexes were
9 added through a PCR amplification (4+7 cycles). Amplified libraries were purified and size-selected
0 using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter) to remove unincorporated primers and other
1 reagents. Prior to analyses, DNA libraries were checked for quality and quantified using a 2100
2 Bioanalyzer (Agilent). The libraries were loaded in the flowcell at 8 pM concentration, and clusters

3 were generated using the Cbot and sequenced using the Illumina HiSeq 4000 technology as single-
4 end 50 base reads following Illumina's instructions. Image analysis and base calling were performed
5 using RTA and CASAVA.

6
7 **ChIP-seq analyses.** Sequenced reads were mapped to the *Mus musculus* genome assembly mm10
8 using Bowtie v1.0.0 with the following parameters «-m1-strata-best-y-l40». Samtools merge v1.3.1
9 (66) was used to combine biological replicates by condition. Then, BEDtools intersect v2.26.0 (67)
0 was used to remove reads located within ENCODE blacklisted regions. SICER (SICER-df.sh) v1.1
1 (68) was used to detect differentially bound regions on the pools of biological replicates using the
2 following parameters: «Species: mm10, Effective genome size as a fraction of reference genome:
3 0.74, Threshold for redundancy allowed for treated reads: 1, Threshold for redundancy allowed for
4 WT reads: 1, Window size: 200 bps, Fragment size: 200 bps, Gap size: 600 bps, FDR for
5 identification of enriched islands: 1E-2, FDR for identification of significant changes: 1E-2. Finally,
6 differentially bound regions were annotated with respect to the closest gene using Homer
7 annotatePeaks.pl v4.11.1 (69). An FDR of 1E-5 was used in differential analyses (caffeine vs.
8 control).

9
0 **Neuronal and all cells isolation.** Neuronal and all cells suspensions were obtained from mouse
1 hippocampus chronically treated with caffeine or water (control). For that, we used Neural Tissue
2 Dissociation (Miltenyi, #130-092-628) and Neuron Isolation Kits (Miltenyi, #130-115-389), following
3 manufacturer's instructions with some adaptations. Briefly, two mouse hippocampi were pooled *per*
4 sample and harvested in a pre-heated buffer solution containing papain. This was followed by series
5 of manual mechanical dissociations, using scissors and fire polished Pasteur pipettes of descending
6 diameter, and incubations at 37°C under slow rotation. The solution was then filtered (50 µm) and
7 centrifuged (10 minutes, 300xg, at room temperature) and myelin was removed using Myelin
8 Removal Beads II kit (Miltenyi, #130-096-733), incubating for 15 minutes at 4°C, centrifuging (10

9 minutes, 300xg at 4°C) and filtering the sample through MS columns (Miltenyi, #130-042-201) placed
0 in MiniMACS™ Separator (Miltenyi, #130-042-102) to collect the myelin depleted flow-through, free
1 of cell debris. The ‘all cells’ suspension was collected at this point and counted using the TC20
2 Automated Cell Counter (Bio-Rad, #1450102) to obtain a total of 70,000 cells *per* sample. With the
3 remaining of the samples, we proceeded with neuronal isolation according to manufacturer's
4 instructions, finally depleting the samples through MS columns to collect the flow-through enriched
5 in neurons. The samples were counted and 70,000 cells *per* sample were taken for CUT&Tag
6 experiments.

7
8 **Cleavage Under Targets and Tagmentation (CUT&Tag).** Having isolated all cells and neuronal
9 populations we proceeded with CUT&Tag method to assess their genome-wide H3K27ac and
0 H3K27me3 chromatin state. The protocol was adapted from that described by Kaya-Okur *et al.*, 2019
1 (31) The method is based on digitonin-induced cell permeabilization (Sigma, #300410-250MG) and
2 concanavalin A-coated magnetic beads (Cell signaling, #93569S) immobilization. This is followed by
3 over-night incubation at 4°C with primary antibodies against H3K27ac (Abcam, #ab4729) and
4 H3K27me3 (Diagenode, #C15410195), followed by 1 hour incubation with the secondary antibody
5 (Antibodies online, #ABIN101961). The loaded-Tn5 is then added (Diagenode, #C01070001) and
6 the cleaved DNA is extracted using MinElute PCR Purification Kit (Quiagen, # 28004). Library
7 preparation was conducted using Nextera primers (Illumina, #FC-131-2001) and post-PCR clean-up
8 using SPRI bead slurry (Beckmann Coulter, #B23317). Concentration of the collected DNA was
9 achieved by Qubit (Invitrogen, #Q32851). Two biological replicates were used *per* group and Rabbit
0 IgG (Diagenode #C15410206) was used as control.

1
2 **CUT&Tag analyses.** Reads (paired-end) were mapped to *Mus musculus* genome (assembly mm10)
3 using Bowtie2 (61) v2.2.8 with default parameters except for “–end-to-end-very-sensitive-no-mixed
4 –no-discordant-l10-X700”. Prior to peak calling, reads with mapping quality below 30 were removed

5 using samtools v1.13 (66) with the command line “samtools view-b-q30.” Then, reads falling into
6 Encode blacklisted regions v2 (70) were removed using BEDtools intersect v2.30.0 (67). Biological
7 replicates were pooled (n=2) using samtools merge v1.13 (66). Then, peak calling was done with
8 SICER v1.1 (69) with the following parameters: Window size: 200 bps; Gap size: 800 (H3K27ac) and
9 1200 (H3K27me3). Detected peaks were combined to get the union of all peaks using the tool
0 Bedtools merge v2.30.0 (67). Differentially bound regions were detected used SICER v1.1 and
1 annotated relative to genomic features using Homer v4.11.1 (71). An FDR<1E-5 was used for further
2 analyses (caffeine vs. control) in all cells and neuronal enriched population.

3

4 **Mass spectrometry proteomic analysis.** 100 µg of proteins were digested from dorsal
5 hippocampus (n=3/group) with trypsin by FASP method. Peptides were fractionated with 4
6 increments (7.5, 12.5, 17.5 and 50%) of acetonitrile in 0.1% TEA on High pH Reversed-Phase -
7 Peptide Fractionation Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Eluents were dried by vacuum centrifugation
8 and resolved in 0.1% formic acid. An UltiMate 3000 RSLCnano System (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
9 was used for separation of the eluents. Peptides were automatically fractionated onto a commercial
0 C18 reversed phase column (75 µm × 500 mm, 2-µm particle, PepMap100 RSLC column, Thermo
1 Fisher Scientific, temperature 55 °C). Trapping was performed during 4 minutes at 5 µL/minute, with
2 solvent A (98% H₂O, 2% acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid). The peptides were eluted using two
3 solvents A (0.1% formic acid in water) and B (0.1% formic acid in acetonitrile) at a flow rate of 300
4 nL/minute. Gradient separation was 3 minutes at 3% B, 170 minutes from 3 to 20% B, 20 minutes
5 from 20% B to 80% B and maintained for 15 minutes at 80% B. The column was equilibrated for 17
6 minutes with 3% buffer B prior to the next sample analysis. The eluted peptides from the C18 column
7 were analyzed by Q-Exactive instruments (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The electrospray voltage was
8 1.9 kV, and the capillary temperature was 275 °C. Full MS scans were acquired in the Orbitrap mass
9 analyzer over *m/z* 400–1200 range with a 70,000 (*m/z* 200) resolution. The target value was
0 3.00E+06. The fifteen most intense peaks with charge state between 2 and 5 were fragmented in

1 the higher-energy collision-activated dissociation cell with normalized collision energy of 27%, and
2 tandem mass spectrum was acquired in the Orbitrap mass analyzer with a 17,500 (*m/z* 200)
3 resolution. The target value was 1.00E+05. The ion selection threshold was 5.0E+04 counts, and the
4 maximum allowed ion accumulation times were 250 ms for full MS scans and 100 ms for tandem
5 mass spectrum. Dynamic exclusion was set to 30 s.

6
7 **Proteomic data analysis.** Raw data collected during nanoLC–MS/MS analyses were processed
8 and converted into a *.mgf peak list format with Proteome Discoverer 1.4 (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
9 MS/MS data were analyzed using search engine Mascot (version 2.4.0, Matrix Science, London, UK)
0 installed on a local server. Searches were performed with a tolerance on mass measurement of 10
1 ppm for precursor and 0.02 Da for fragment ions, against a composite target-decoy database
2 (17125*2 total entries) built with a *Mus musculus* Swissprot database (taxonomy 10090, november
3 2019, 17007 entries) fused with the sequences of recombinant trypsin and a list of classical
4 contaminants (118 entries). Cysteine carbamidomethylation, methionine oxidation, protein N-
5 terminal acetylation, and cysteine propionamidation were searched as variable modifications. Up to
6 one missed trypsin cleavage was allowed. For each sample, peptides were filtered out according to
7 the cut-off set for protein hits with one or more peptides taller than 9 residues, and a 1% false positive
8 rate.

9
0 **MALDI mass spectrometry imaging (MSI) of lipids and metabolites.** Hippocampal sections (10
1 μm) were collected from Bregma -1.7 mm using a CM3050 cryostat (Leica Microsystems; *n*=6 *per*
2 experimental group) and then mounted on indium tin oxide (ITO)-coated slides for MALDI-MSI and
3 on SuperFrost™ (Thermo Scientific) slides for histological analysis. In order to monitor analytical
4 reproducibility, biological replicates were used for each group. For MALDI-MSI, 1,5-
5 diamionaphtalene (1,5-DAN) matrix at 10 mg/mL in acetonitrile:H₂O (1:1, v/v) was used in negative
6 ion mode, whereas 2,5-dihydroxybenzoic acid (2,5-DHB) matrix at 40 mg/mL in methanol:H₂O with

7 0.1% trifluoroacetate (1:1, v/v) was used in positive ion mode. A uniform layer of matrix was
8 deposited on brain tissue sections using an HTX TM-sprayer™ device (HTX Technologies, LLC).
9 Lipids and metabolites imaging was performed on a Solarix 7T MALDI-FTICR instrument (Bruker
0 Daltonics) equipped with a SmartBeamII™ laser and controlled using FtmsFlexControl 2.1.0 software
1 (Bruker Daltonics). Data sets were recorded in full scan negative or positive ion mode using an online
2 calibration from m/z 100 to 1000, at a spatial resolution of 35 μm for the hippocampus. MSI data
3 were acquired from each tissue section as well as matrix adjacent control areas in order to check for
4 analyte delocalization eventually occurring during sample preparation. All data processing,
5 visualization and quantification were performed using Multimaging 1.1.9 software (ImaBiotech SAS).
6 For statistical analysis, SCiLS Lab 2015 software (SciLS) was used to perform principal component
7 analysis (PCA) with a Student t -test assumed as significant for p -value < 0.05 . These analyses were
8 done for both positive and negative ion mode and the significant results were grouped together.
9 Annotation of the discriminant m/z was done based on experimental accurate (m/z) mass and by
0 using METLIN library (<http://metlin.scripp.edu/>) and Human Metabolome Database (HMDB)
1 (<http://www.hmdb.ca/>) with 10 ppm delta error. These online databases are linked to KEGG
2 (<http://www.genome.jp/kegg/>), PubChem (<https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/>) and LIPID MAPS
3 (<http://www.lipidmaps.org/>), which were used for further investigations. After MSI data acquisition,
4 any residual matrix on the tissue sections was removed with a 100% methanol washing. Tissue
5 sections were then stained with Nissl dye and high-definition histological images were acquired using
6 a Panoramic digital slide scanner (3DHistech Ltd) and then loaded in Multimaging software to
7 perform the high-definition overlays with convoluted molecular images, improving molecular images
8 resolution.

9
0 **RNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR analysis (RT-qPCR).** Total RNA was extracted
1 from dorsal hippocampi and purified using the RNeasy Lipid Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen, France). 500
2 ng of total RNA were reverse-transcribed using the Applied Biosystems High-Capacity cDNA reverse

3 transcription kit. Real time PCR was performed on a StepOne device using Taqman Gene
4 Expression Master Mix (Thermo Fisher), following manufacturer's recommendations. Expression
5 levels of the following genes were evaluated by the comparative CT method (2- deltaCT) using the
6 following Taqman probes: *Cyp51* ID :Mm00490968_m1, *Spice1* ID:Mm00519954_m1, *Nadk2* ID:
7 Mm01297768_m1, *Pbx1* ID: Mm04207617_m1, *Ppia* ID: Mm02342430.

8

9 **Pathway analysis of epigenomic data.** ChIP-seq and CUT&Tag data from hippocampus of water
0 and caffeine-treated mice were uploaded to Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) software (Qiagen). A
1 p -value < 0.05 with Student's t -test was set as threshold and an integrated pathway analysis of ChIP-
2 seq, proteomic and metabolomic data was performed using the core analysis function, including
3 canonical pathways, upstream regulators, diseases, biological functions and molecular networks
4 filtered by "Central Nervous System"-associated terms.

5

6 **Statistical Analysis.** This omics study includes different statistical approaches that are detailed in
7 the appropriate method paragraph. All data needed to evaluate the conclusions are provided in the
8 paper or the Supplementary Materials. Sequencing data that support the findings of this study have
9 been deposited in GEO with the primary accession code GSE167123. The number of biologically
0 independent experiments, sample size, p values, and statistical tests are all indicated in the main
1 text and/or figure legends. The significance level was set at $p < 0.05$, unless otherwise stated in the
2 figure legend.

3

4 **Study approval.** All experimental protocols were approved by the local Animal Ethical Committee
5 (Agreement #12787-2015101320441671v9 from CEEA75, Lille, France). All procedures complied
6 with European standards for the care and use of laboratory animals.

7

8 **Author contributions.**

9 Conceptualization: IP, LC, CM, LP, LB, VBS, RAB, NS, JSA, ALB, DB

0 Methodology: IP, LC, CM, LP, AP, HD, SLG, CEM, EF, KC, SE, JS, JS, ON, JMS, ASL

1 Investigation: IP, LC, CM, LP, AP, HD, SLG, MS, EMM, EF, KC, VGM, BT, SE, ES, JS, RAB, NS,
2 LT; IG

3 Data analysis: IP, LC, CM, LP, HD, SLG, CEM, DV, JS, RAB, NS, JSA, ALB, DB, ON, JMS

4 Supervision: RAB, NS, JSA, ALB, DB

5 Writing—original draft: LC, IP, CM, LP, DV, LVL, RAC, RAB, NS, JSA, ALB, DB

6 Writing—review & editing: LC, IP, CM, CEM, TL, LVL, LB, VBS, RAC, NS, JSA, ALB, DB

7

8 **Acknowledgements.** We thank the Animal Facilities (F-59000 Lille, France; F-67000 Strasbourg,
9 France) and Mélanie Besegher, Cyrille Degraeve, Caroline Declerck, Kim Letten, Didier Montignies,
0 Christian Meunier, Laure Taquet and Romain Dehayn (U1172), as well as Olivier Bildstein,
1 Onwukanjo-Daniel Egesi and George Edomwonyi (UMR 7364) for animal care. Sequencing was
2 performed by the GenomEast Platform, a member of the ‘France Génomique’ consortium (ANR-10-
3 INBS-0009). This work was supported by grants from Hauts-de-France (PARTEN-AIRR,
4 COGNADORA; START-AIRR, INS-SPECT) and Programs d’Investissements d’Avenir LabEx
5 (excellence laboratory) DISTALZ (Development of Innovative Strategies for a Transdisciplinary
6 approach to ALzheimer’s disease) and EGID (European Genomic Institute for Diabetes ANR-10-
7 LABX-46). Our laboratories are also supported by ANR (GRAND to LB, ADORATAU, ADORASTraU,
8 METABOTAU to DB and BETAPLASTICITY to JSA), COEN (5008), Fondation pour la Recherche
9 Médicale, France Alzheimer/Fondation de France, FHU VasCog research network (Lille, France),
0 Fondation Vaincre Alzheimer (ADOMEMOTAU), European Foundation for the Study of Diabetes
1 (EFSD to JSA), Fondation Plan Alzheimer as well as Inserm, CNRS, Université Lille, Lille Métropole
2 Communauté Urbaine, DN2M. KC hold a doctoral grant from Lille University. VG-M was supported
3 by Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (SPF20160936000). CM was supported by Région Hauts-

4 de-France. ALB is supported by CNRS, Unistra (Strasbourg, France), ANR-16-CE92-0031
5 (EPIFUS), ANR-18-CE16-0008-02 (ADORASTrAU), Alsace Alzheimer 67, France Alzheimer (AAP
6 SM 2017 #1664). IP is supported by Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale (SPF201909009162).
7 CEM is grateful for the support by the Alzheimer Forschung Initiative e.V. (AFI, Düsseldorf,
8 Germany). LC was funded by SIF Italian Society of Pharmacology. RAC was supported by LaCaixa
9 Foundation (LCF/PR/HP17/52190001) and FCT (POCI-01-0145-FEDER-03127). Santa Casa da
0 Misericórdia (MB-7-2018) and CEECIND/01497/2017 to LVL.

1

2

3 References

4

- 5 1. Smith A. Effects of caffeine on human behavior.. *Food Chem Toxicol.* 2002;40(9):1243–1255.
- 6 2. Kim Y, Je Y, Giovannucci E. Coffee consumption and all-cause and cause-specific mortality: a
7 meta-analysis by potential modifiers.. *Eur J Epidemiol.* 2019;34(8):731–752.
- 8 3. Lofffield E et al. Association of Coffee Drinking With Mortality by Genetic Variation in Caffeine
9 Metabolism: Findings From the UK Biobank. *JAMA Intern Med.* 2018;178(8):1086–1097.
- 0 4. Freedman ND, Park Y, Abnet CC, Hollenbeck AR, Sinha R. Association of coffee drinking with
1 total and cause-specific mortality. *N Engl J Med.* 2012;366(20):1891–1904.
- 2 5. Flaten V et al. From epidemiology to pathophysiology: what about caffeine in Alzheimer’s disease?
3 *Biochem Soc Trans.* 2014;42(2):587–592.
- 4 6. Cunha RA. How does adenosine control neuronal dysfunction and neurodegeneration?. *J*
5 *Neurochem.* 2016;139(6):1019–1055.
- 6 7. Cellai L et al. The Adenosinergic Signaling: A Complex but Promising Therapeutic Target for
7 Alzheimer’s Disease. *Front Neurosci.* 2018;12:520.
- 8 8. Wright GA et al. Caffeine in Floral Nectar Enhances a Pollinator’s Memory of Reward. *Science.*
9 2013;339(6124):1202– 1204.
- 0 9. Marques S, Batalha VL, Lopes LV, Outeiro TF. Modulating Alzheimer’s disease through caffeine:
1 a putative link to epigenetics.. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2011;24 Suppl 2:161–171.
- 2 10. Angelucci MEM, Cesário C, Hiroi RH, Rosalen PL, Da Cunha C. Effects of caffeine on learning
3 and memory in rats tested in the Morris water maze. *Brazilian J Med Biol Res.* 2002;35(10):1201–
4 1208.
- 5 11. Borota D et al. Post-study caffeine administration enhances memory consolidation in humans.
6 *Nat Neurosci.* 2014;17(2):201–203.
- 7 12. Lopes JP, Pliássova A, Cunha RA. The physiological effects of caffeine on synaptic transmission
8 and plasticity in the mouse hippocampus selectively depend on adenosine A(1) and A(2A) receptors.
9 *Biochem Pharmacol.* 2019;166:313–321.
- 0 13. Costenla AR, Cunha RA, de Mendonça A. Caffeine, adenosine receptors, and synaptic plasticity.
1 *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2010;20 Suppl 1:S25-34.
- 2 14. Simons SB, Caruana DA, Zhao M, Dudek SM. Caffeine-induced synaptic potentiation in
3 hippocampal CA2 neurons. *Nat Neurosci.* 2011;15(1):23–25.
- 4 15. Lao-Peregrín C et al. Caffeine-mediated BDNF release regulates long-term synaptic plasticity
5 through activation of IRS2 signaling. *Addict Biol.* 2017;22(6):1706–1718.

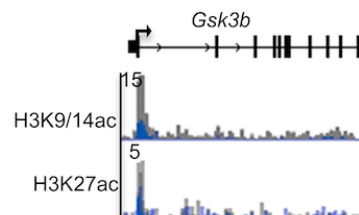
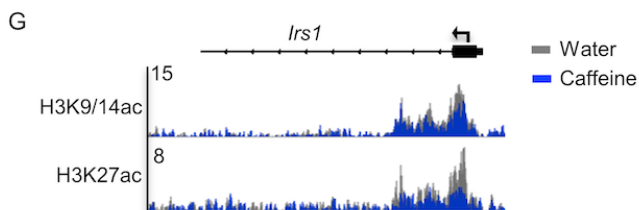
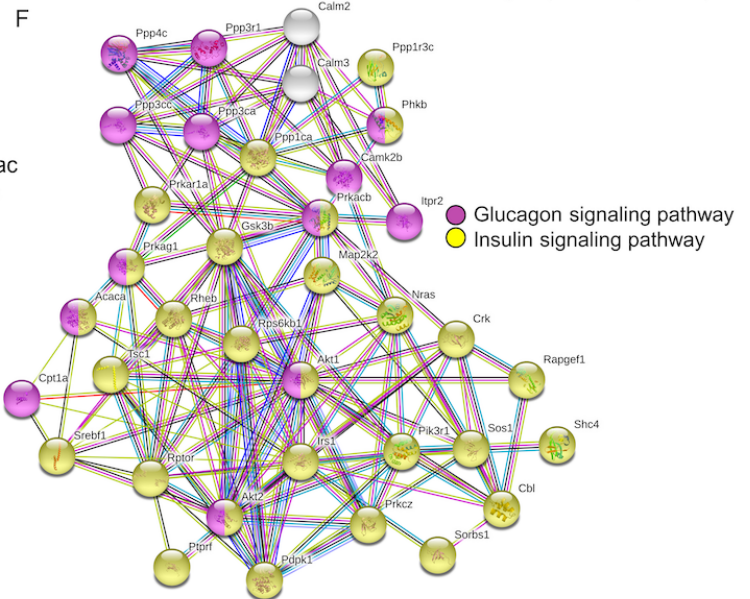
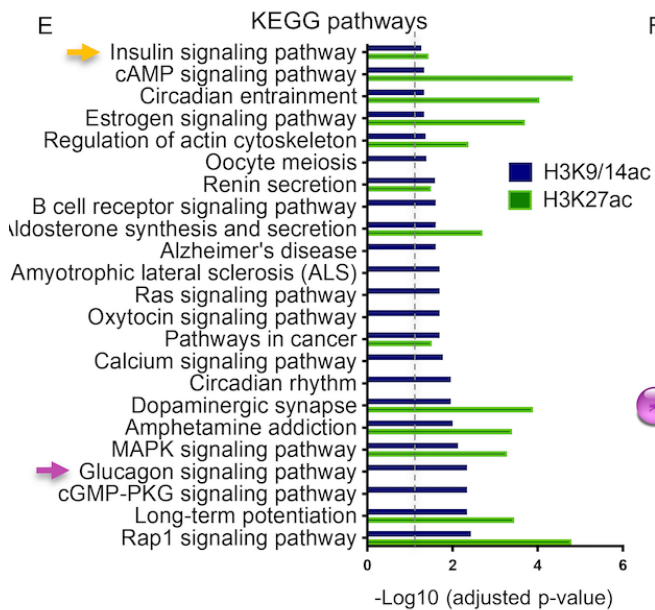
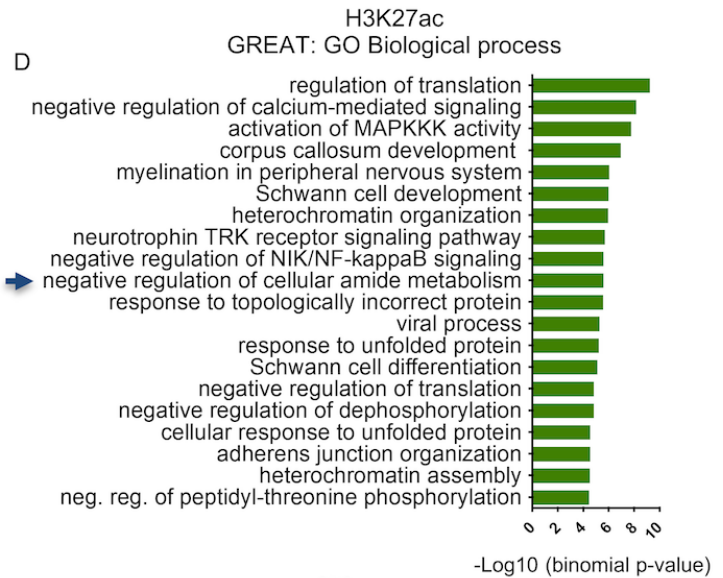
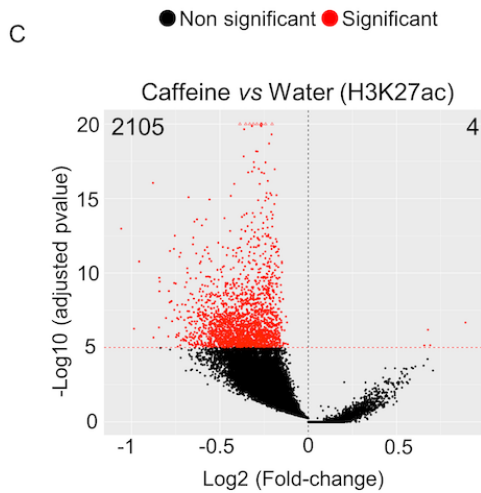
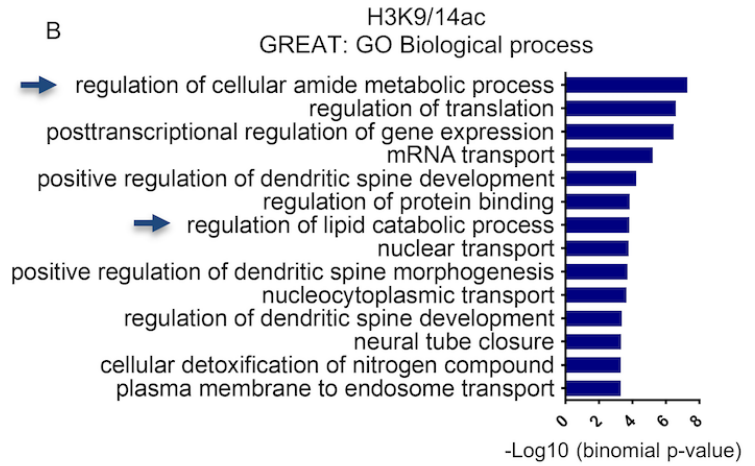
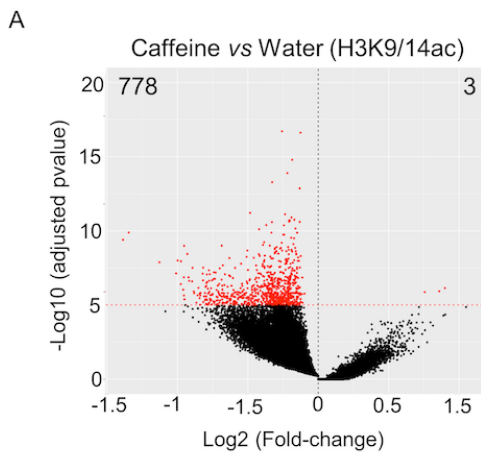
- 6 16. Blaise JH, Park JE, Bellas NJ, Gitchell TM, Phan V. Caffeine consumption disrupts hippocampal
7 long-term potentiation in freely behaving rats. *Physiol Rep*. 2018;6(5):e13632.
- 8 17. Watanabe Y, Ikegaya Y. Caffeine Increases Hippocampal Sharp Waves in Vitro. *Biol Pharm Bull*.
9 2017;40(7):1111–1115.
- 0 18. Hanajima R et al. Effect of caffeine on long-term potentiation-like effects induced by quadripulse
1 transcranial magnetic stimulation. *Exp Brain Res*. 2019;237(3):647–651.
- 2 19. Kerkhofs A et al. Caffeine Controls Glutamatergic Synaptic Transmission and Pyramidal Neuron
3 Excitability in Human Neocortex. *Front Pharmacol*. 2017;8:899.
- 4 20. Fredholm BB, Bättig K, Holmén J, Nehlig A, Zvartau EE. Actions of caffeine in the brain with
5 special reference to factors that contribute to its widespread use. *Pharmacol Rev*. 1999;51(1):83–
6 133.
- 7 21. Heintzman ND et al. Distinct and predictive chromatin signatures of transcriptional promoters and
8 enhancers in the human genome. *Nat Genet*. 2007;39(3):311–318.
- 9 22. Hnisz D et al. Super-enhancers in the control of cell identity and disease. *Cell* 2013;155(4):934–
0 947.
- 1 23. J. PSC et al. Chromatin stretch enhancer states drive cell-specific gene regulation and harbor
2 human disease risk variants. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 2013;110(44):17921–17926.
- 3 24. Karmodiya K, Krebs AR, Oulad-Abdelghani M, Kimura H, Tora L. H3K9 and H3K14 acetylation
4 co-occur at many gene regulatory elements, while H3K14ac marks a subset of inactive inducible
5 promoters in mouse embryonic stem cells. *BMC Genomics* 2012;13:424.
- 6 25. Sánchez-Sarasúa S et al. IRS1 expression in hippocampus is age-dependent and is required for
7 mature spine maintenance and neuritogenesis. *Mol Cell Neurosci*. 2022;118:103693.
- 8 26. Koopmans F et al. SynGO: An Evidence-Based, Expert-Curated Knowledge Base for the
9 Synapse. *Neuron* 2019;103(2):217-234.e4.
- 0 27. Sheng M, Kim E. The Shank family of scaffold proteins. *J Cell Sci*. 2000;113(11):1851–1856.
- 1 28. Mundel P et al. Synaptopodin: an actin-associated protein in telencephalic dendrites and renal
2 podocytes. *J Cell Biol*. 1997;139(1):193–204.
- 3 29. Parra-Damas A et al. CRTC1 Function During Memory Encoding Is Disrupted in
4 Neurodegeneration. *Biol Psychiatry* 2017;81(2):111–123.
- 5 30. Wang L, Walter P. Msp1/ATAD1 in Protein Quality Control and Regulation of Synaptic Activities.
6 *Annu. Rev. Cell Dev Biol*. 2020;36(1):141–164.
- 7 31. Kaya-Okur HS et al. CUT&Tag for efficient epigenomic profiling of small samples and single cells.
8 *Nat Commun*. 2019;10(1):1930.
- 9 32. Han S et al. Regulation of dendritic spines, spatial memory, and embryonic development by the

- 0 TANC family of PSD-95-interacting proteins. *J Neurosci*. 2010;30(45):15102–15112.
- 1 33. Parra-Damas A, Rubió-Ferrarons L, Shen J, Saura CA. CRTCL1 mediates preferential
2 transcription at neuronal activity-regulated CRE/TATA promoters. *Sci Rep*. 2017;7(1):18004.
- 3 34. Chatterjee S et al. Reinstating plasticity and memory in a tauopathy mouse model with an
4 acetyltransferase activator. *EMBO Mol Med*. 2018;10(11).
- 5 35. Martínez G et al. Regulation of Memory Formation by the Transcription Factor XBP1. *Cell Rep*.
6 2016;14(6):1382–1394.
- 7 36. Cao L et al. VEGF links hippocampal activity with neurogenesis, learning and memory. *Nat*
8 *Genet*. 2004;36(8):827–835.
- 9 37. Mews P et al. Acetyl-CoA synthetase regulates histone acetylation and hippocampal memory.
0 *Nature* 2017;546(7658):381–386.
- 1 38. Jacobson KA, von Lubitz DK, Daly JW, Fredholm BB. Adenosine receptor ligands: differences
2 with acute versus chronic treatment. *Trends Pharmacol Sci*. 1996;17(3):108–113.
- 3 39. Ferré S. An update on the mechanisms of the psychostimulant effects of caffeine. *J Neurochem*.
4 2008;105(4):1067–1079.
- 5 40. Doepker C et al. Caffeine: Friend or Foe? *Annu Rev Food Sci Technol*. 2016;7:117–137.
- 6 41. Yu L et al. Uncovering multiple molecular targets for caffeine using a drug target validation
7 strategy combining A2A receptor knockout mice with microarray profiling. *Physiol Genomics*
8 2009;37(3):199–210.
- 9 42. Svenningsson P, Nomikos GG, Fredholm BB. The stimulatory action and the development of
0 tolerance to caffeine is associated with alterations in gene expression in specific brain regions. *J*
1 *Neurosci*. 1999;19(10):4011–4022.
- 2 43. Magalhães R et al. Habitual coffee drinkers display a distinct pattern of brain functional
3 connectivity. *Mol Psychiatry* 2021;26(11):6589–6598.
- 4 44. A. KK et al. TORC1 is a calcium- and cAMP-sensitive coincidence detector involved in
5 hippocampal long-term synaptic plasticity. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*. 2007;104(11):4700–4705.
- 6 45. Chang D et al. Caffeine Caused a Widespread Increase of Resting Brain Entropy. *Sci Rep*.
7 2018;8(1):2700.
- 8 46. Tal O et al. Caffeine-Induced Global Reductions in Resting-State BOLD Connectivity Reflect
9 Widespread Decreases in MEG Connectivity. *Front Hum Neurosci*. 2013;7:63.
- 0 47. Koppelstaetter F et al. Does caffeine modulate verbal working memory processes? An fMRI
1 study. *Neuroimage* 2008;39(1):492–499.
- 2 48. Cunha RA. Different cellular sources and different roles of adenosine: A1 receptor-mediated
3 inhibition through astrocytic-driven volume transmission and synapse-restricted A2A receptor-

- 4 mediated facilitation of plasticity. *Neurochem Int.* 2008;52(1–2):65–72.
- 5 49. Lopes L V, Cunha RA, Ribeiro JA. Cross talk between A(1) and A(2A) adenosine receptors in
6 the hippocampus and cortex of young adult and old rats. *J Neurophysiol.* 1999;82(6):3196–3203.
- 7 50. Dassel D, Ledent C, Parmentier M, Schiffmann SN. Acute and chronic caffeine administration
8 differentially alters striatal gene expression in wild-type and adenosine A(2A) receptor-deficient
9 mice. *Synapse* 2001;42(2):63–76.
- 0 51. Burns AM, Gräff J. Cognitive epigenetic priming: leveraging histone acetylation for memory
1 amelioration. *Curr Opin. Neurobiol.* 2021;67:75–84.
- 2 52. Duarte JMN, Cunha RA, Carvalho RA. Adenosine A₁ receptors control the metabolic recovery
3 after hypoxia in rat hippocampal slices. *J Neurochem.* 2016;136(5):947–957.
- 4 53. Laurent C et al. Beneficial effects of caffeine in a transgenic model of Alzheimer’s disease-like
5 tau pathology. *Neurobiol Aging* 2014;35(9):2079–2090.
- 6 54. Arendash GW et al. Caffeine protects Alzheimer’s mice against cognitive impairment and reduces
7 brain beta-amyloid production. *Neuroscience* 2006;142(4):941–952.
- 8 55. David B, V. LL. Stabilizing synapses. *Science.* 2021;374(6568):684–685.
- 9 56. G. SC et al. Adenosine Receptor Antagonists Including Caffeine Alter Fetal Brain Development
0 in Mice. *Sci Transl Med.* 2013;5(197):197ra104-197ra104.
- 1 57. Ferran G-C et al. Convergence of adenosine and GABA signaling for synapse stabilization during
2 development. *Science.* 2022;374(6568):eabk2055.
- 3 58. Arendash GW et al. Caffeine reverses cognitive impairment and decreases brain amyloid-beta
4 levels in aged Alzheimer’s disease mice. *J Alzheimers Dis.* 2009;17(3):661–680.
- 5 59. Laurent C et al. Beneficial effects of caffeine in a transgenic model of Alzheimer’s disease-like
6 tau pathology. *Neurobiol Aging* 2014;35(9):2079–2090.
- 7 60. Dobin A et al. STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* 2013;29(1):15–21.
- 8 61. Langmead B, Salzberg SL. Fast gapped-read alignment with Bowtie 2. *Nat Methods*
9 2012;9(4):357–359.
- 0 62. Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W. HTSeq--a Python framework to work with high-throughput
1 sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* 2015;31(2):166–169.
- 2 63. Anders S, Huber W. Differential expression analysis for sequence count data. *Genome Biol.*
3 2010;11(10):R106.
- 4 64. Love MI, Huber W, Anders S. Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq
5 data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.* 2014;15(12):550.
- 6 65. Benjamini Y, Hochberg Y. Controlling the False Discovery Rate - a Practical and Powerful
7 Approach to Multiple Testing. *J R Stat Soc Ser B-Methodological.* 1995;57(1):289–300.

- 8 66. Li H et al. The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics*
9 2009;25(16):2078–2079.
- 0 67. Quinlan AR, Hall IM. BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing genomic features.
1 *Bioinformatics* 2010;26(6):841–842.
- 2 68. Xu S, Grullon S, Ge K, Peng W. Spatial clustering for identification of ChIP-enriched regions
3 (SICER) to map regions of histone methylation patterns in embryonic stem cells. *Methods Mol Biol.*
4 2014;1150:97–111.
- 5 69. Zang C et al. A clustering approach for identification of enriched domains from histone
6 modification ChIP-Seq data. *Bioinformatics* 2009;25(15):1952–1958.
- 7 70. Amemiya HM, Kundaje A, Boyle AP. The ENCODE Blacklist: Identification of Problematic
8 Regions of the Genome. *Sci Rep.* 2019;9(1):9354.
- 9 71. Heinz S et al. Simple combinations of lineage-determining transcription factors prime cis-
0 regulatory elements required for macrophage and B cell identities. *Mol Cell* 2010;38(4):576–589.

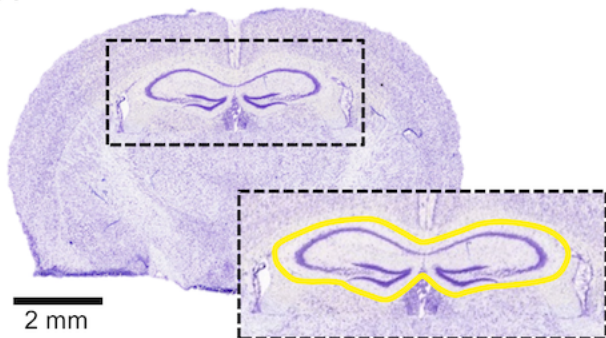
1



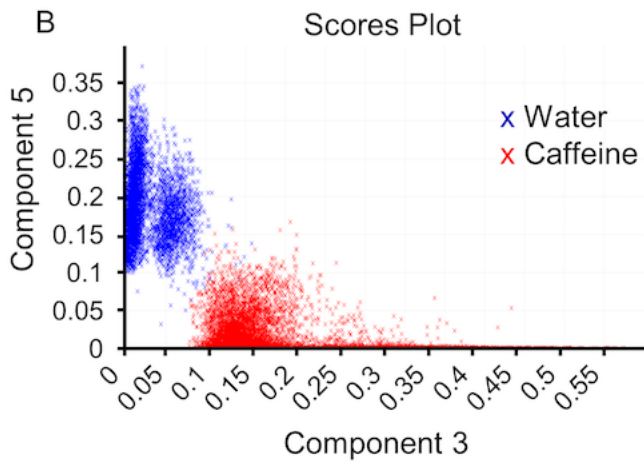
3 **Figure 1. Hippocampal epigenomic alterations associated with chronic caffeine consumption.**
4 (A) Volcano plot showing the differential enriched genomic regions of H3K9/14ac (ChIP-seq) upon
5 chronic caffeine treatment (778 decreased and 3 increased peaks). Red dots represent the
6 significant different regions (FDR<1E-5). (B) Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool
7 (GREAT) analysis showing the most enriched biological processes associated with the H3K9/14ac
8 decreased peaks in caffeine-treated mice. Blue arrows point towards metabolic processes and
9 translation related terms. (C) Volcano plot representing the differentially regulated regions of
0 H3K27ac upon chronic caffeine treatment (2105 decreased and 4 increased peaks, with FDR<1E-
1 5). (D) GREAT analysis representing the most common biological processes associated with the
2 H3K27ac decreased peaks in the caffeine group. Regulation of metabolic processes are indicated
3 by the blue arrows. (E) KEGG pathway analyses of depleted regions of both histone marks. Dashed
4 grey line indicates the significant adjusted p-value <0.05. (F) Functional protein-protein network
5 analysis (STRING) representation of insulin and glucagon-related genes found decreased in both
6 histone acetylation marks. (G) Representation of the genomic regions (IGV) of the metabolic genes
7 *Irs1* and *Gsk3b* showing significant decrease of H3K27ac and H3K9/14ac after caffeine treatment
8 (*Irs1* H3K27ac FDR=1.82E-12; H3K9/14ac FDR=7.75E-05; *Gsk3b* H3K27ac FDR=4.83E-05;
9 H3K9/14ac FDR=2.58E-11). Two biological replicates per histone mark were used for ChIP-seq
0 experiments.

1

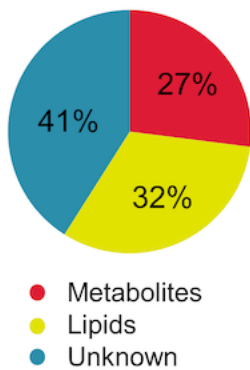
A



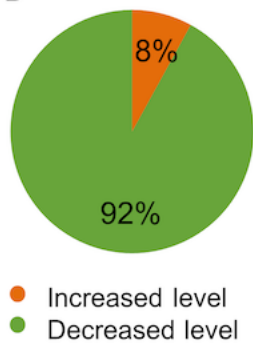
B



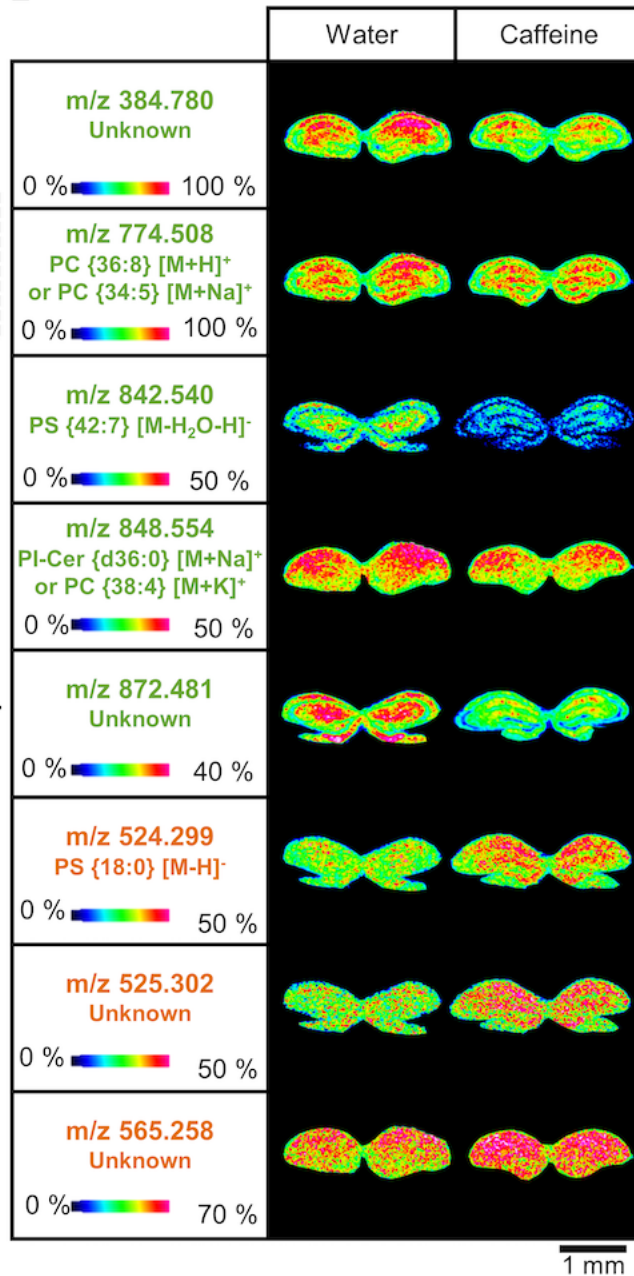
C



D



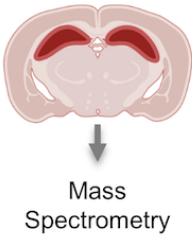
E



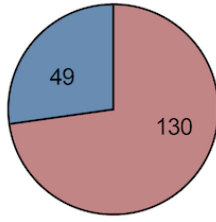
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
0

1 **Figure 2. Hippocampal metabolomic changes induced by chronic caffeine consumption.**
2 Unsupervised principal component analysis (PCA) performed in the hippocampal region of interest
3 delimited in yellow on the Nissl staining of the brain tissue section (A). Scores from the
4 unsupervised PCA in the hippocampus of Water- (in blue) and Caffeine-treated mice (in red) are
5 presented in a plot where the differences between the molecular signatures of the two experimental
6 groups clearly emerge (B). Pie charts showing the distribution of the different classes of molecules
7 (C) and their abundance changes (D) of m/z measured in positive or negative ionization modes with
8 a significant quantitative difference after the Student's t -test analysis in the hippocampus of Caffeine-
9 compared to Water-treated animals (N = 6/group). (E) Mass spectrometry images obtained at a
0 spatial resolution of 35 μm for m/z presenting a decreased (green) or increased (orange) density in
1 the hippocampus of Caffeine-treated compared to Water-treated mice. The color scale shows the
2 intensity of the m/z of interest. *Cer*, ceramide; *PC*, phosphatidylcholine; *PI*, phosphatidylinositol; *PS*,
3 phosphatidylserine.
4
5
6
7
8
9
0

A



Proteomics
Caffeine vs Water

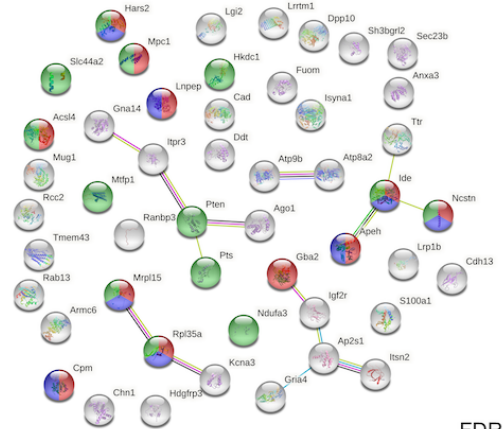


■ up
■ down

Total: 179

B

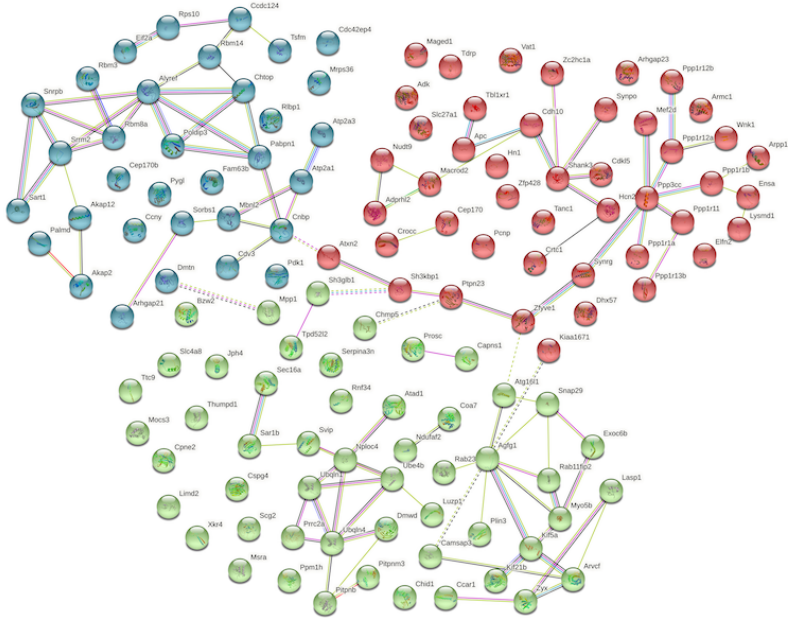
Decreased by caffeine (49)



● Peptide metabolic process (BP) FDR 0.0290
 ● Cellular amide metabolic process (BP) FDR 0.0019
 ● Mitochondrion (CC) FDR 0.0241

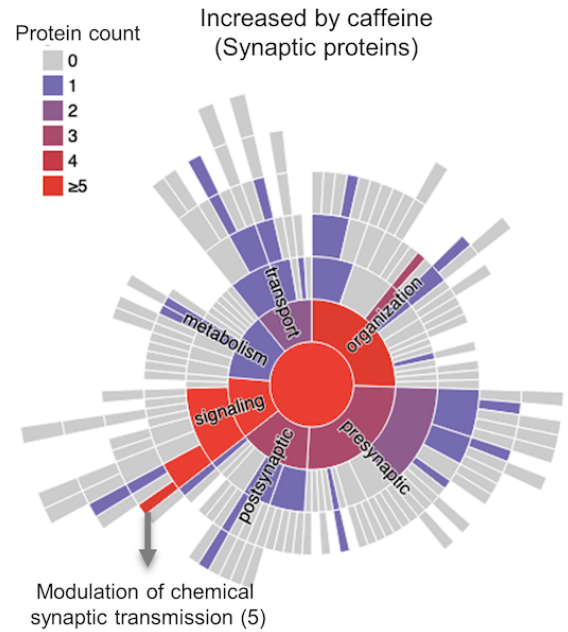
C

Increased by caffeine (130)



● Glutamatergic synapse (CC) FDR 0.0130
 ● Regulation of phosphatase activity (BP) FDR 4.41E-7
 ● RNA binding (BP) FDR 3.07E-7
 ● Spliceosome (KEGG) FDR 0.0158
 ● Autophagosome (CC) FDR 6.35E-5
 ● Protein processing in ER (KEGG) FDR 0.0178

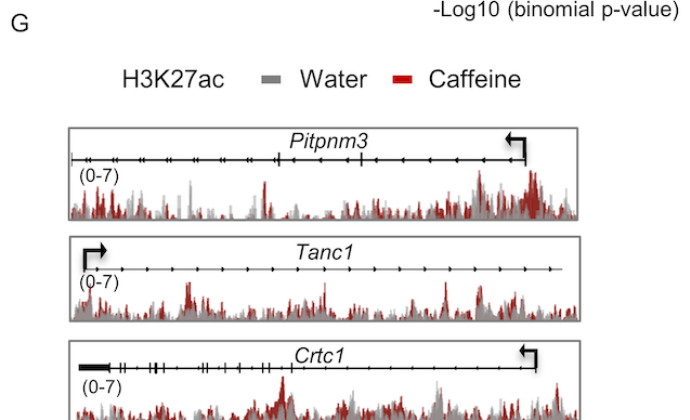
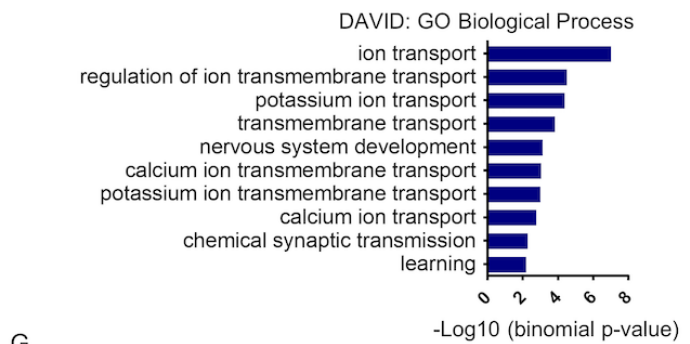
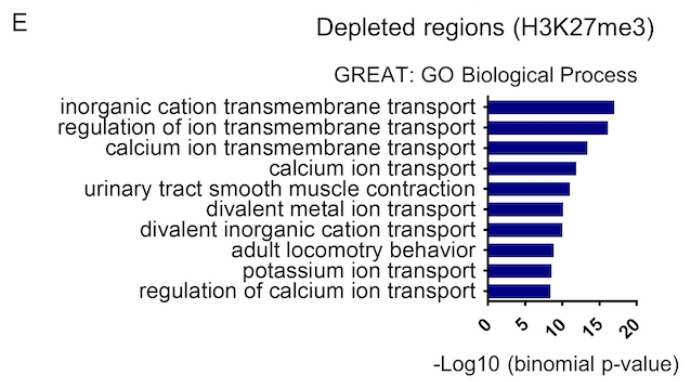
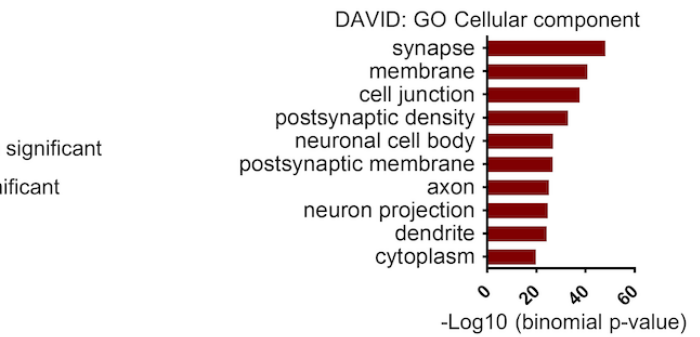
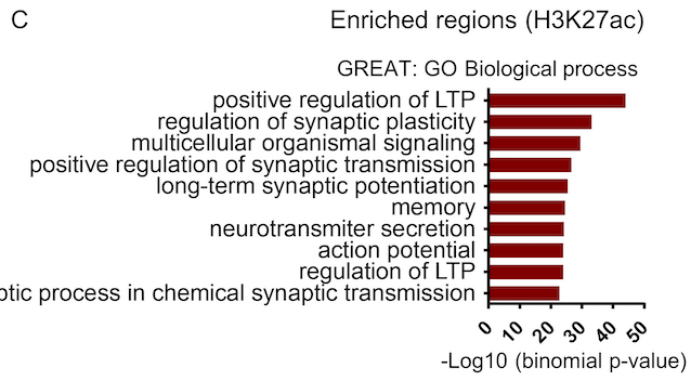
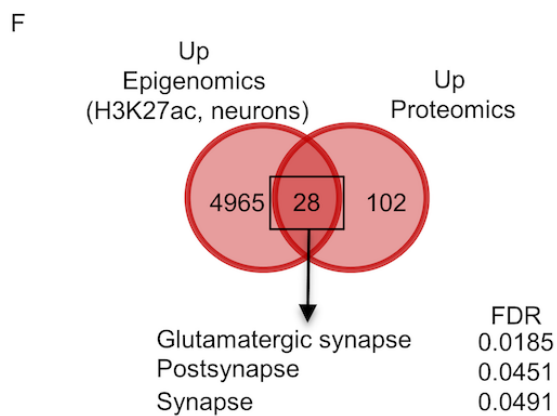
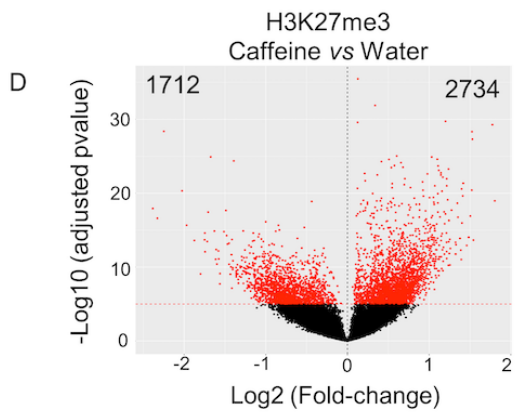
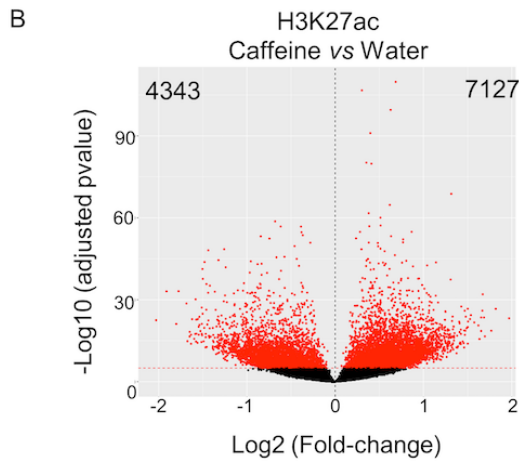
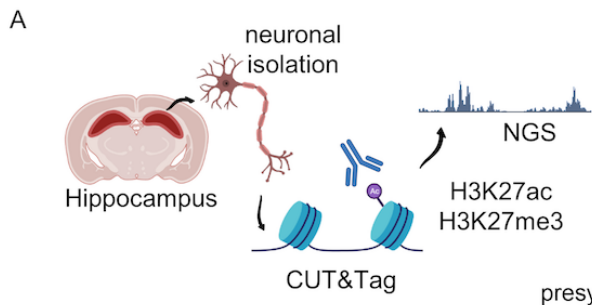
D



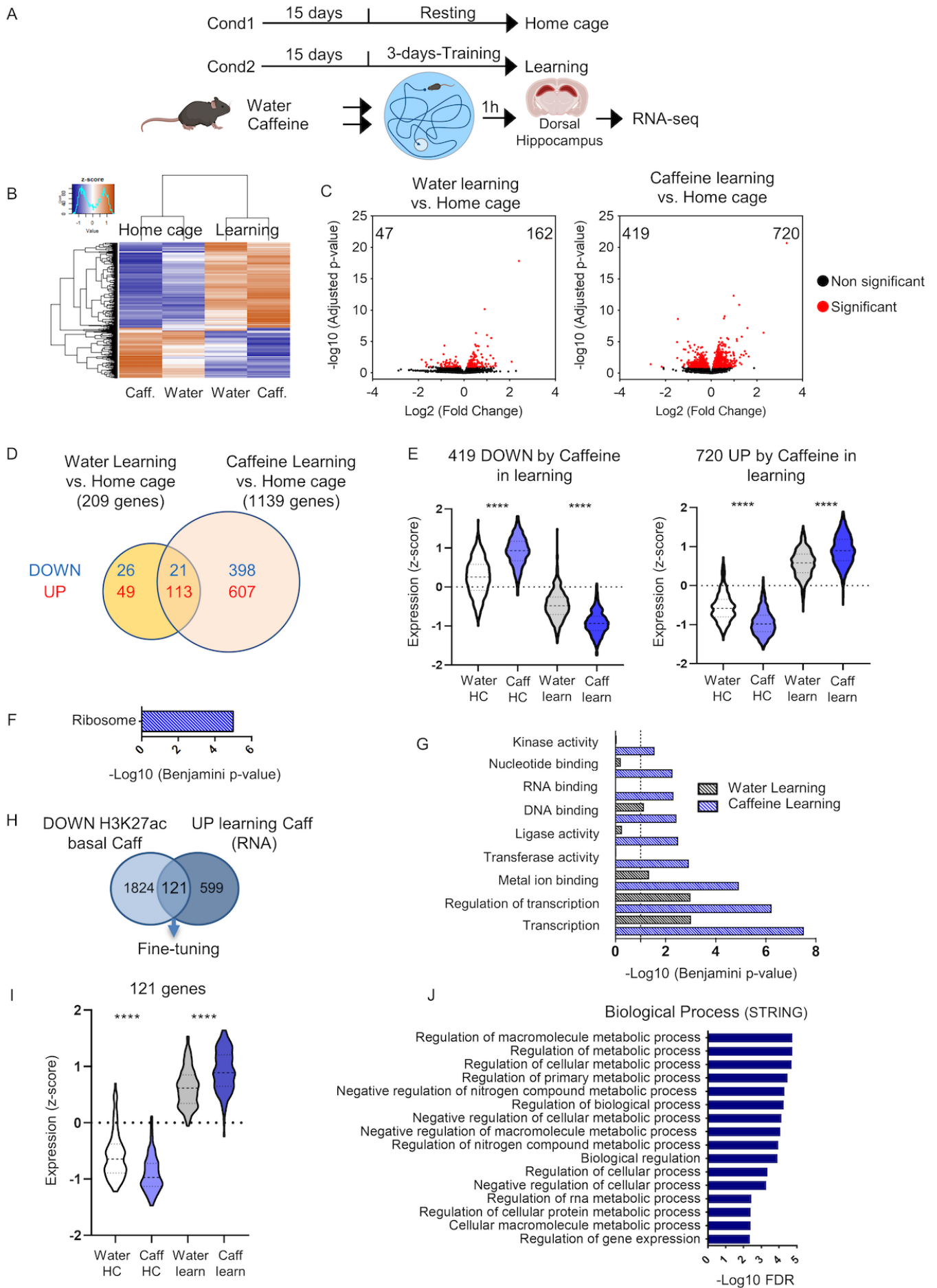
1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9

0 **Figure 3. Alteration of hippocampal proteomics induced by chronic caffeine consumption.** (A)
1 Pie-chart indicating proteins altered in the hippocampus of water and caffeine-treated mice
2 determined by mass spectrometry analysis (N=3/group). In total 179 proteins were altered, of which
3 49 were decreased and 130 were increased by chronic caffeine. (B) STRING network analysis of the
4 49 decreased proteins in the caffeine condition showing that they were related to metabolic and
5 mitochondrion related terms. (C) STRING network analysis of the 130 increased proteins by chronic
6 caffeine revealing 3 major clusters (kmeans). The cluster in red shows significance for glutamatergic
7 synapse-related terms, the blue cluster represents proteins associated with RNA binding and the
8 green one autophagosome related-pathways. (BP-biological processes; CC-cellular component;
9 KEGG: Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes). (D) Synaptic Gene Ontologies and annotations
0 (SynGO, (26)) tool revealing that most of the synaptic proteins among the increased proteins by
1 chronic caffeine are mostly associated with synaptic signaling and modulation of chemical synaptic
2 transmission. Warmer colors represent predominance of proteins associated with the respective
3 pathway.

4



6 **Figure 4. Neuronal-specific H3K27ac and H3K27me3 changes induced by chronic caffeine**
7 **consumption.** (A) Schematics of the experimental design used to assess the active (H3K27ac) and
8 repressive (H3K27me3) histone marks by CUT&Tag technique in an hippocampal neuronal-enriched
9 population. (B) Volcano plot representing H3K27ac differentially regulated regions (4343 depleted
0 and 7127 enriched, FDR<1E-5). (C, above) GREAT analysis showing the most enriched biological
1 processes associated with the H3K27ac enriched peaks in caffeine-treated mice, mostly related to
2 synaptic transmission. (C, below) DAVID Gene Ontology analysis revealing the most significant
3 cellular components associated with H3K27ac enriched regions. (D) Volcano plot showing
4 H3K27me3 differentially regulated regions between the water (control) and caffeine-treated mouse
5 hippocampus (1712 depleted and 2734 enriched, FDR<1E-5). (E, above) GREAT analysis showing
6 that depleted regions are mostly associated with ion transport processes. (E, below) DAVID Gene
7 Ontology analysis indicating the most significant biological processes associated with H3K27ac
8 enriched genes in neurons. (F) Venn diagram showing that 28 proteins were increased by caffeine
9 and enriched in H3K27ac at their coding genes. These proteins are mostly associated with
0 glutamatergic synapse (STRING analysis). (G) Representation of the genomic regions (IGV) of
1 enriched H3K27ac genes by chronic caffeine in neurons. Two biological replicates per histone mark
2 were used for CUT&Tag experiments.



4 **Figure 5. Hippocampal transcriptomic alterations induced by chronic caffeine consumption**
5 **in learning conditions.** (A) Experimental procedure of the RNA-seq experiments in home cage and
6 learning groups. After chronic caffeine consumption (or water as a control), mice were subjected to
7 3 days training in Morris Water Maze and dorsal hippocampus was dissected 1h after the last trial
8 for RNA-seq. (B) Heatmap representation of RNA-seq results (z-score) between the four groups. A
9 total of 4 biological replicates were used per group. Color coding was performed according to the z-
0 score of the normalized reads counts divided by gene length. (C, left) Volcano plots showing the
1 differentially expressed hippocampal genes (adjusted p -value < 0.1) between Control learning vs.
2 Control Home cage. (C, right) Volcano plot showing Caffeine-treated mice learning vs. Caffeine
3 home cage differentially expressed genes (adjusted p -value < 0.1). (D) Venn diagrams showing the
4 transcriptome changes induced by learning in Water and Caffeine animals (adjusted p -value < 0.1).
5 (E) Violin plots representing the expression values (z-score) of the 419 genes downregulated and
6 the 720 upregulated by caffeine (caff) in learning (learn) showing opposite trend among the home
7 cage (HC) groups. (F) KEGG pathways analysis showing that most of the downregulated genes by
8 caffeine upon learning are associated with ribosome. (G) Functional annotation performed with
9 DAVID and their significance for the effect of learning in either water (black dashed bars) and
0 Caffeine-treated animals (blue dashed bars). (H) Venn diagram revealing 121 genes depleted in
1 H3K27ac (bulk hippocampus ChIP-seq) and up-regulated (RNA-seq) by learning in caffeine-treated
2 mice. (I) Violin plots of the expression values (z-score) of the 121 genes. (J) Gene ontology analysis
3 performed with STRING of the 121 genes showing a strong association with metabolic related
4 biological processes (top 16 by FDR). Statistical significance in E and I were calculated by one-way
5 ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparison post hoc test;**** $p < 0.0001$.