Catestatin (CST) is a key mediator of the immunoendocrine regulation of cardiovascular function

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Abstract

Hypertension is a global pandemic, affecting more than one billion people. We generated CST knockout (CST-KO) mice to pinpoint the role of CST in hypertension. CST-KO mice are hypertensive and display left ventricular hypertrophy. Serum cytokines are elevated and their hearts show marked infiltration with macrophages. CST replenishment reverses these phenotypes. Pre-conditioning-induced cardioprotection is also abolished in CST-KO mice. CST-KO mice became normotensive when given chlodronate to deplete macrophages or when given bone marrow from wild-type littermates, implicating macrophage regulation of the hypertensive phenotype in CST-KO mice. Cardiac tissue transcriptomes revealed altered gene expression in CST-KO mice that are similar to human cardiomyopathies. For example, a reduction of *Glo1* was seen in CST-KO mice, while CST supplementation increased its expression. Because *Glo*1 in macrophages metabolizes methylglyoxal, an inflammatory agent linked to vascular damage in hypertension and diabetes, increasing expression with CST may attenuate inflammation and improve cardiovascular health. Repletion of CST also increased glucose metabolism and decreased catecholamine secretion; the latter explains CST's anti-hypertensive action. The anti-hypertensive effects of CST are mediated at least partly via CST's anti-inflammatory actions. The findings also implicate CST as a key mediator of the observed crosstalk between systemic and cardiac inflammation in hypertension.

Nonstandard Abbreviations and Acronyms

2DG, 2-deoxy-glucose
Actc1, cardiac muscle actin alpha
Ang4, angiogenin ribonuclease family member 4
Arg1, arginase 1
Astn2, astrotactin 2
ATP, adenosine triphosphate
Atp5j, mitochondrial ATP synthase subunit F6
BMT, bone-marrow transplantation
BP, blood pressure
Cap1, adenylate cyclase-associated protein 1
Ccl2 (Mcp1), chemokine CC motif ligand 2
CDN, chlodronate
Cd36, cluster of differentiation 36
Cers2, ceramide synthase 2
CgA, chromogranin A
Clec7a, C-type lectin family domain 7, member A
Clec10a, C-type lectin family domain 10, member A
Col1a2, collagen type 1 alpha 2
CST, catestatin
CST-KO, CST knockout
Cyb5, cytochrome b5
DA, dopamine
Defa20, defensin a-20
DIO, diet-induced obese
Dgat2, diacylglycerol O-acyltransferase 2
Ear11, eosinophil-associated ribonuclease A family member 11
Emr1 (F4/80), epidermal growth factor-like module containing mucin-like hormone receptor 1
EPI, epinephrine
FA, fatty acid
FACS, fluorescence activated cell sorting
FRT, *Flp* recognition target
G6P, glucose-6-phosphate
Glo1, glyoxylase I
Glut4, glucose transporter 4
Gm7120, predicted gene 7120
GSK-3β, glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta
HTN, hypertension
IACUC, institutional animal care and use committees
IFM, inter/intramyofibrillar mitochondria
Il2, interleukin 2
Il4, interleukin 4
Il6, interleukin 6
Il10, interleukin 10

IPC, ischemic preconditioning

IFNγ, interferon gamma

Il12p40, interleukin 12 subunit p40

Itgam (Cd11b), integrin alpha-M

Itgax (Cd11c), integrin alpha-X

Kc/Gro, keratinocyte chemoattractant/growth related oncogene

KOH, potassium hydroxide

LVDP, left ventricular developed pressure

LVEDP, left ventricular end diastolic pressure

mAb, monoclonal antibody

Mip1α, macrophage inflammatory protein 1 alpha

Mrc1, macrophage mannose receptor 1

Myl4, myosin light chain 4

Myl7, myosin light chain 7

Myh7, myosin heavy chain 7

NADH, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide hydride

NCD, normal chow diet

NE, norepinephrine

Nos2a (Inos), nitric oxide synthase 2A

Nppa, natriuretic peptide precursor A

pAb, polyclonal antibody

Pam, peptidylglycine alpha-amidating monooxygenase

Pdk2, pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 2

Pfkm, phosphofructokinase, muscle form

PI-3K, phosphoinositide 3-kinase

Pparα: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha

qPCR, quantitative polymerase chain reaction

ROS, reactive oxygen species

SBP, systolic blood pressure

Sdhc, succinate dehydrogenase complex subunit c

Slc27a1, solute carrier family 27 member 1

Slc27a2, solute carrier family 27 member 2

SNA, sympathetic nerve activity

Sptlc1, serine palmitoyltransferase long-chain base subunit 1

SSM, subsarcolemmal mitochondria

T2DM, Type 2 diabetes mellitus

TCA, trichloroacetic acid

TEM, transmission electron microscopy

TNFα, tumor necrosis factor alpha

Tnni3, cardiac Troponin I

Tnnt2, cardiac Troponin T2

Tpm, tropomyosin

Ttn, Titin

Introduction

Hypertension (HTN) is an important risk factor for cardiovascular disease (CVD) and mortality (1). The burden of HTN and the estimated HTN-associated deaths have increased substantially over the past 25 years.

The role of catecholamines, e.g., dopamine (DA), norepinephrine (NE), and epinephrine (EPI) in the regulation of blood pressure (BP) and their dysregulated secretion or function in HTN has been well recognized (2, 3). Catecholamines are produced and secreted predominantly by chromaffin cells in the adrenal medulla and have hormonal and neurotransmitter functions. Once released, catecholamines interact with adrenergic receptors to impose an intricate neuro-hormonal regulation of BP.

Besides catecholamines, the immune system is also recognized for the genesis and progression of HTN(4, 5). Inflammation is an essential component of many diseases, and the connections between innate and adaptive immunity, HTN and CVD support the role of the immune system in cardiovascular pathology (5). Known as integrators of neural, hormonal, and immune signals, inflammation influences catecholamine biosynthesis. The converse, how catecholamines may impact inflammation, remains unknown. More specifically, although the impact of immune activation and inflammation in the regulation of HTN is evolving, the specific immunologic mechanisms that contribute to the pathogenesis of HTN are incompletely understood. Here we reveal an unexpected finding of how the process of catecholamine secretion and its impact on systemic HTN is fueled by an immunologic phenomenon *via* Chromogranin A (CgA), and more specifically, its proteolytic biologic fragment, catestatin (CST: hCgA$_{352-372}$) (6).

Co-stored and co-released with catecholamines, CgA, a ~49 kDa secretory proprotein, (7, 8) is overexpressed in humans with essential HTN (9) and in rodent genetic models of HTN (10). Unlike CgA, plasma CST levels are diminished not only in essential HTN (9, 11) but also in the normotensive offspring of patients with HTN (11). Additionally, HTN-associated single nucleotide polymorphisms within the CST segment of CgA have been extensively evaluated (12-15). Processing of CgA to CST is low in patients with HTN and heart failure (9, 16), suggesting dysregulation in the processing of CgA to CST in CVD. Furthermore, both CgA heterozygote (CgA+/-) and CgA knockout (CgA-/-) mice are hypertensive (17); but treatment with CST decreases BP and the levels

of plasma catecholamines to that seen in control littermates. Although these findings,

especially the repletion studies, point to the importance of CST and its sufficiency in

reversing HTN, none conclusively show that CST is necessary. This is because CgA has

many biologically active peptides (18), and it is possible that any or many of these CgA-

derived peptides could be confounding the findings in these studies.

To mitigate these issues, and pinpoint the actions of CST, we generated a precise

tool, i.e., CST-KO mice. Given the hypertensive, hyperadrenergic, and inflammatory

phenotypes in these mice, we used that as a model to dissect the role of CST in the

maintenance of cardiovascular homeostasis. Our studies revealed a complex interplay

between a trifecta: the innate immune system, the adrenal medulla with its catecholamine

secretion catecholamine secretion and the cardiovascular system, all coordinated by

CST.

Results

Generation and validation of CST-KO mice. Our strategy (see **Fig 1; S1A**) for the development of CST-KO mice involved a targeted elimination of the CST domain (63 bp) from Exon VII of the *Chga* gene. Using a mouse monoclonal antibody (mAb 5A8), we detected full-length CgA (~70 kDa) in WT mice and a proteoglycan form of CgA in CST-KO mice in adrenal gland lysates (**Fig. 1B**), indicating the presence of CgA in CST-KO mice. However, blots using a polyclonal antibody directed against the C-terminal domains of CST (pAb CT-CST) showed a proteolytically processed CgA (~46 kDa) corresponding to mCgA$_{1-385}$ in WT littermates, but not in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 1C**). Because this antibody detected synthetic CST (a positive control, indicating specificity of the antibody) we conclude that CST-KO mice indeed lack CST (**Fig. 1C**). Adrenal CgA content was comparable in WT and CST-KO mice (**Fig. 1D**), confirming expression of CgA in CST-KO mice. Plasma CST levels further confirmed the complete absence of CST in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 1E**).

CST-KO mice are hypertensive and show thickened left ventricular posterior wall. To test whether lack of CST affected heart structure and function, we undertook echocardiographic ultrasound imaging, as it provides a comprehensive array of information on cardiac anatomy, physiology, and mechanical properties. The findings revealed that although CST-KO mice maintained a similar level of left ventricular function (fractional shortening) to age-matched WT mice, there were significant abnormalities in LV remodeling as evidenced by the significant increase in LV posterior wall thickness (LVPWd) and a mild increase in interventricular septum wall thickness (IVSd) (p=0.07) when compared to WT control mice (**Fig. 1J-L**). Heart rate (HR), fractional shortening, left ventricular internal diameter during systole (LVIDs) and left ventricular internal diameter during diastole were comparable between WT and CST-KO mice (Fig. S1B-E). Consistent with echocardiography findings, CST-KO mice showed increased heart weights coupled with enlarged hearts compared to WT mice (**Fig. 1F&G**). Consistent with the association between increased posterior wall thickness with high BP (19-22), we found that the CST-KO mice are hypertensive (**Fig. 1H**). These findings indicate that CST regulates heart structure and function.

Next, we checked plasma CST levels. In WT mice, the plasma CST level was 0.86

nM, which increased to 1.72 nM 24 hr after intraperitoneal treatment with CST (2 µg/g

body weight) (**Fig. 2A&B**). In CST-KO mice, plasma CST was undetectable at baseline,

as expected, and rose to 1.17 nM after 24 hr of CST supplementation (**Fig. 2B**), indicating

that CST supplementation provided a near physiological concentration of CST. We next

examined the CST-KO phenotypes and asked whether CST supplementation can restore

some of the key phenotypes.

First, we found that CST-KO mice show increased levels of proinflammatory

plasma cytokines, including TNFα, IFNγ, MIP1α, MCP1, and KC/GRO (**Fig. 2C**). By

contrast, the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL10 was decreased in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 2C**).

CST treatment decreased proinflammatory cytokines and increased anti-inflammatory

cytokines in both WT and CST-KO mice (**Fig. 2C**), which were consistent with transcripts

in the heart muscle. CST-KO mice showed a reduction in several anti-inflammatory

markers (*IL4*, *Arg1*, *Clec7a* and *Clec10a*) (**Fig. 2D**) and a concomitant increase in several

other pro-inflammatory markers (**Fig. 2E**). These findings show that the balance between

pro- and anti- inflammatory pathways is skewed towards inflammation in CST-KO mice.

CST supplementation (2 µg/g BW for 15 days) reversed this disbalance; it induced several

anti-inflammatory pathways (**Fig. 2D**) and either normalized or markedly decreased

proinflammatory cytokine mRNA levels (**Fig. 2E**). These findings show that CST is both

necessary and sufficient for restoring immune homeostasis in accordance with CST's role

as an anti-inflammatory peptide (23-26).

Second, we checked the systolic BP (SBP) in these mice: high BP in CST-KO mice

was reduced to WT level after supplementation with CST (**Fig. 3A-B**), demonstrating that

CST is necessary and sufficient for BP homeostasis. This is consistent with the anti-HTN

functions of CST (17, 27). In addition, the proinflammatory hypertensive phenotype in

CST-KO mice is also consistent with prior studies showing that proinflammatory cytokine

(IL6) increases BP (28, 29) and anti-inflammatory cytokines (IL2 and IL10) decrease BP

(30-32).

Third, we analyzed the microarchitecture of the heart: In the saline-treated WT

mice, Transmission Electron Microscopic (TEM) micrographs showed resident

macrophages in the inter-sarcolemmal spaces (**Fig. 3C**). In contrast, the saline-treated

CST-KO heart showed a marked infiltration of monocyte-derived macrophages (**Fig. 3C**),
indicating inflammation of the CST-KO heart; other immune cells, e.g., neutrophils and
lymphocytes, constitute <15% of all immune cells observed (**Fig. S4**). While treatment of
WT mice with CST did not change the resident macrophage population, CST-KO mice
showed almost complete disappearance of infiltrated macrophages after CST substitution
(**Fig. 3F**). This was supported by FACS analysis showing ~38% decrease of
CD11b$^+$F4/80$^+$ macrophages in CST-supplemented CST-KO heart (**Fig. 3D**), revealing
that CST is required for cardiac homeostasis and its absence is permissive to cardiac
inflammation. Consistent with macrophage-induced fibrosis, CST-KO heart displayed
marked cardiac fibrosis as shown by Masson's trichrome staining (**Fig. S3A&B**) and TEM
micrographs (**Fig S3C-G**). Fibrosis was markedly reduced upon supplementation of CST-
KO mice with CST (**Fig. S3F**).

Macrophages are key effector cells responsible for the anti-inflammatory actions
of CST. Next, we explored the implications of infiltrated macrophages in the CST-KO
hearts and its relevance to cardiovascular physiology using two independent approaches
(**Fig. 3A**). First, we depleted macrophages by chlodronate (CDN) liposomes (**Fig. S4B-**
E), which not only depleted resident and infiltrated macrophages but also reversed the
HTN phenotype of CST-KO mice (**Fig. 3G&H**). Gating strategy is shown in **Fig. S4A**.
Because CDN did not reduce BP in WT mice, these findings show that macrophages may
not be required for normal cardiac functions, but its dysregulation (increased infiltration
and/or aberrant activation) may be a key contributor of the HTN phenotype in CST-KO
mice.

Second, we carried out bone marrow (BM) transplantation (BMT) assays in which
we irradiated both WT and CST-KO mice and then cross-transplanted their marrows -
CST-KO-BM was transplanted into WT mice and *vice versa*. To our surprise, we found
that BMT could transfer the hypertensive phenotype - while CST-KO-BM recipient WT
mice showed increased BP, WT-BM recipient CST-KO mice showed decreased BP (**Fig.**
3I), indicating that paracrine secretion of CST and/or cytokines by macrophages may
regulate BP.

283  To confirm whether CST is responsible for the observed BMT-induced phenotype
284 switch, we analyzed plasma CST and found that WT-BM recipient CST-KO mice, but not
285 CST-KO-BM recipients, had near physiologic levels of plasma CST (0.52 nM) (**Fig. 3J**),
286 suggesting that marrow-resident immune cells and/or hematopoietic system are
287 significant contributors of circulating CST. They may do so either directly through
288 paracrine secretion from macrophages, as observed in the case of serum cytokines (**Fig.**
289 **2C**) or indirectly (perhaps *via* other immune cells that feedback and regulate macrophage
290 response).

291  Regardless, our studies using CDN and BMT implicate the macrophages and the
292 innate immune system as key effectors of the anti-hypertensive actions of CST. In the
293 absence of CST (as in CST-KO mice), macrophages are hyperactive and support both
294 systemic (**Fig. 2**) and local cardiovascular inflammation (**Fig. 3**) and trigger systemic HTN.
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296 **Microarray studies reveal that CST impacts core bioenergetic and metabolic**
297 **functions of the myocardium.** To gain insight into the nature of the immunoendocrine
298 actions of CST on the heart, we carried out transcriptomic analyses of the left ventricle
299 (LV) (gene microarray) in WT and CST-KO mice, which revealed 437 genes with altered
300 expression, up- or downregulated (false discovery rate <0.05), as shown in the form of a
301 heatmap (**Fig. 4A**).

302  Downregulated genes, which were most enriched in pathways that impact muscle
303 conduction and contractility (**Fig. 4B**) include, among other genes, *Glo1* (detoxifies
304 methylglyoxal, which is a cytotoxic byproduct of glycolysis). Upregulated genes include
305 *Gm7120* (acts as a hypercapnia responsive gene), *Astn2* (functions as a lipid raft), and
306 *Defa20* (exerts antibacterial humoral response) genes.

307  We validated several of these up- and downregulated genes by qPCR and found
308 that CST supplementation reversed these aberrant expressions in all cases, i.e.,
309 downregulated what was aberrantly overexpressed or upregulated what was aberrantly
310 suppressed (**Fig. 4C**). Of note, *Glo1* in macrophages metabolizes methylglyoxal, an
311 inflammatory agent whose accumulation promotes vascular damage in HTN and
312 diabetes. Therefore, it is possible that CST attenuates inflammation and improves
313 cardiovascular health in part through the regulation of *Glo1* expression.

Targeted qPCR analyses of sarcomeric genes revealed reduced expression of *Tnni3* (coordinates the contraction of the heart), *Tnnt2* (coordinates cardiac contraction), *Myl4* (modulates atrial fibrillation) and *Myl7* (modulates cardiac development and contractility) genes in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 4D**). CST treatment increased expression of *Tnni3*, *Tnnt2*, *Actc1* (regulates cardiomyopathy), *Myl4* and *Myl7* genes in both WT and CST-KO mice albeit to a much higher level in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 4D**).

Tpm (regulates cardiac contraction) and *Ttn* (regulates cardiac contraction) genes were not affected by the presence or absence of CST.

An analysis of mitochondrial genes revealed reduced expression of *Ndufa3* (modulates the transfer of electrons from NADH to the respiratory chain in complex I), *Sdhc* (regulates electron transfer from succinate to ubiquinone in Complex II) and *Atp5j* (produces ATP from ADP in Complex V) genes in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 4E**). CST treatment increased the expression of all three genes in WT and CST-KO mice (**Fig. 4E**).

Taken together, these unbiased approaches and qPCR validation studies provide insight into how an inflamed dysfunctional CST-KO heart may impact core fundamental functions by affecting its ultrastructure, muscle function (contractility), rhythm, mitochondrial bioenergetics and conduction.

CST-KO mice display a cardiometabolic shift: glucose utilization is decreased with a concomitant increase in the utilization of fatty acids and insulin resistance. We next asked how CST may impact metabolism. The heart is an omnivore, consuming fat, carbohydrate, protein, ketone bodies, or lactate (33), and generating ~95% of total energy via oxidation of fatty acids (FA) and glucose (34). Because diabetic hearts shift away from the utilization of glucose (35), relying almost completely on FA as an energy source, we looked at cardiac metabolism in insulin-resistant CST-KO mice (23). CST-KO mice showed decreased uptake of 2DG in LV compared to WT mice (**Fig. 5A**). Furthermore, G6P utilization was significantly lower in CST-KO compared to WT (**Fig. 5A**). G6P formation was not altered in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 5A**).

We next looked at the mRNA levels of key genes involved in glucose metabolism. Thus, we found decreased mRNA expressions of *Glut4* (transports glucose into cell), *Pfkm* (catalyzes the irreversible conversion of fructose-6-phosphate to frustose-1,6-

bisphosphate) and *Pdk2* (inhibits pyruvate dehydrogenase activity resulting in decreased

glucose utilization and increased fat metabolism) in CST-KO mice compared to WT mice

(**Fig. 5B**), which corroborates with the biochemical findings.

Poor glucose metabolism in CST-KO mice is consistent with its reduced insulin

sensitivity (23). CST supplementation improved glucose uptake, G6P formation and

utilization in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 5A**), indicating CST has an insulin-like activity or CST is

an insulin-sensitizing peptide. We also found that compared to WT mice, CST-KO mice

show a significantly higher FA uptake (**Fig. 5C**) due to the higher plasma insulin level in

CST-KO mice, (23) which drives increased lipid metabolism. Furthermore, ^{14}C-labeled

acid soluble metabolites (ASM) were significantly higher in CST-KO compared to WT

mice (**Fig. 5C**), suggesting that increased dependence on FA for energy needs make

CST-KO hearts resistant to insulin.

We confirmed these biochemical findings by analyzing the levels of expression of

key genes involved in lipid metabolism. We found increased mRNA levels of FA

transporter *Cd36* (functions in high affinity tissue uptake of long-chain FA) and *Slc27a1*

(FATP1) (transports long-chain FA) as well as of the enzyme for triglyceride formation

Dgat2 (catalyzes the terminal step in triacylglycerol synthesis), and the transcription factor

Pparα, which supports FA oxidation (**Fig. 5D**). In addition, we found increased expression

of *Sptlc1* (catalyzes the 1st step in sphingolipid biosynthesis) and *Cers2* (catalyzes the

synthesis of very long acyl ceramides) genes (**Fig. 5D**), indicating increased ceramide

synthesis, which will make the CST-KO heart more resistant to insulin.

In contrast, CST treatment decreased expression of *Cd36, Dgat2, Sptl1c, Cers2*

and *Pparα* genes (**Fig. 5D**), indicating that CST improved metabolic health of the CST-

KO heart by making them insulin-sensitive. Next, we checked the status of glycogen. We

found low glycogen storage in 'Fed' CST-KO heart compared to 'Fed' WT mice. CST

supplementation improved glycogen storage in both WT and CST-KO heart as evidenced

by biochemical and ultrastructural analyses (**Fig. 5E-G**).

Furthermore, because increased accumulation of FA, diacylglycerol, and ceramide

impairs insulin signaling (36), we also evaluated WT and CST-KO hearts for

phosphoproteins (e.g., AKT and GSK-3β) crucial for insulin signaling. We found that the

CST-KO hearts had reduced phosphorylation of AKT at ser473 site and GSK-3β at ser9

site (**Fig. 5H-J**), indicating decreased insulin sensitivity. This phenotype was reversed upon CST treatment (**Fig. 5H-J**), reinforcing CST as an insulin-sensitizing peptide in the heart, which is consistent with previous studies in liver (23, 37).

Taken together with the cardiometabolic shifts, these findings indicate that CST maintains cardiometabolic homeostasis; it does so at least in part by acting as an insulin-sensitizing peptide, thereby allowing the heart to use glucose for generating ATP.

The myocardium in CST-KO mice show mitochondrial dysfunction. The myocardium relies heavily on mitochondria for the generation of ATP and maintenance of intracellular Ca^{2+} fluxes (38). HTN is associated with structural mitochondrial abnormalities that result in impaired energy production and accelerated formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) through instability of electron transport chain complexes (39). Because the hypertensive CST-KO mice showed gene expression **(Fig. 4)** and biochemical **(Fig. 5)** profiles indicative of altered bioenergetics and mitochondrial dysfunction, next we analyzed the mitochondria health in the WT and CST-KO mice. To this end, we used TEM to analyze and resolve the two populations of mitochondria in the heart - the intermyofibrillar mitochondria (IFM) which align in longitudinal rows between myofibrils and the subsarcolemmal mitochondria (SSM) that localize below the sarcolemma. These two subpopulations have distinct respiration rates associated with different metabolic enzyme activities, morphological structures, and lipid contents (40, 41). Under low magnification we analyzed the shape, location and orientation of SSM (**Fig. 6A-D**) and IFM (**Fig. 6I-L**). Under high magnification we analyzed the shape and orientation of mitochondrial cristae [SSM (**Fig. 6E-H**) and IFM (**Fig. 6M-P**)]. These morphometric analyses revealed significant reduction in cristae surface area in CST-KO mice, which was rescued after CST supplementation (**Fig 6E-H; 6M-P**).

Because cristae shape and density determine the assembly and stability of respiratory chain supercomplexes and efficiency (39), taken together with transcriptomic and biochemical analyses the TEM findings showed that both mitochondrial structure and function are impaired in the hearts of CST-KO mice.

Consistent with myocardial insulin resistance, CST-KO hearts showed accumulation of lipid droplets (**Fig. 6K**), which are implicated in contractile and diastolic

dysfunctions (42). Mitophagy, the mitochondrial-specific analog of autophagy, represents

breakdown of damaged and malfunctioning mitochondria (43). Ultrastructural

demonstration of mitophagy in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 6C&R**) indicates impaired

mitochondrial function. CST supplementation improved cristae surface area (**Fig. 6S**),

markedly reduced lipid accumulation (**Fig. 6L**), and decreased mitophagy in CST-KO

heart (**Fig. 6D**), indicating that CST can enhance cardiovascular functions by improving

mitochondrial health and thus cardiomyocyte metabolism.

Ischemic pre-conditioning-induced cardioprotection is severely impaired in CST-

KO heart. We subjected WT and CST-KO hearts to ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) followed

by ischemic preconditioning (IPC). Assessing 'LVDP (mmHg)' (**Fig. S5A**), 'LVEDP

(mmHg)' (**Fig. S5C**)**,** 'dP/dt$_{max}$ (mmHg/sec.)' (**Fig. S5B**)**,** 'dP/dt$_{min}$ (mmHg/sec.)' (**Fig. S5D**)

revealed that IPC significantly increased post-ischemic LVDP and lowered LVEDP in WT

hearts compared to CST-KO hearts and their respective IR controls (**Fig S5A&5C**).

Furthermore, neither LVDP nor LVEDP was significantly modified in IPC-treated CST-KO

hearts compared to respective IR controls. IPC improved recoveries of both dP/dt$_{max}$ (**Fig.**

S5C) and dP/dt$_{min}$ (**Fig. S5D**) compared to respective IR controls. When compared to

CST-KO mice, a moderate effect on dP/dt$_{max}$ and dP/dt$_{min}$ was seen. Furthermore, neither

dP/dt$_{max}$ nor dP/dt$_{min}$ was increased significantly in IPC treated CST-KO hearts compared

to respective IR controls.

In aggregate, these data show CST-KO mice could not be preconditioned to the

extent seen in WT mice. WT mice were protected with IPC, with observed improvements

in all functional measures in the reperfusion period, while CST-KO mice showed only

marginal improvements.

CST-KO adrenal medulla is populated with infiltrated macrophages and fibrosis

coupled with heightened sympathetic stimulation and hypersecretion of

catecholamines. Because prior studies have implicated altered catecholamine secretion

from an inflamed adrenal medulla in progression of HTN (2, 3), we evaluated CST-KO

adrenal glands. TEM studies revealed abundant infiltration of macrophages and fibrosis

in the intercellular spaces of chromaffin cells in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 7A and S6**). CST

supplementation reduced the abundance of macrophage infiltrates in CST-KO mice, but
did not affect the resident macrophage population in the WT mice (**Fig. 7A**). By contrast,
treatment with CDN resulted in complete loss of macrophages (both resident and
infiltrates) in both WT and CST-KO mice (**Fig. 7A**).

Because prior studies in humans, mice, and rats have shown that pro-inflammatory
cytokines such as IFNα (44), IL1β (45), and TNFα(46) increase catecholamine production
and secretion, we wondered if the inflamed CST-KO adrenal glands produce and secrete
more catecholamines. We found that compared to WT littermates, both adrenal and
plasma catecholamine levels were elevated in CST-KO mice (**Fig. 7B&C**). In addition,
the CST-KO adrenal medulla exhibit abundant docked chromaffin granules and
decreased acetylcholine containing vesicles at the sympatho-adreno-medullary synapse
(**Fig. 7D&E**), implicating heightened sympathetic nerve activity (SNA) eventuating in
hypersecretion of catecholamines. Supplementation of CST-KO mice with CST not only
inhibited infiltration of macrophages in the adrenal medulla (**Fig. 7A**) but also had a
concomitant decrease in both plasma and adrenal catecholamines (**Fig 7B&C**).

These findings demonstrate that CST is necessary and sufficient to suppress
catecholamine production and secretion and thereby exert an anti-HTN effect and
orchestrate cardiometabolic homeostasis. Findings also support the following working
model for how CST may accomplish these roles *via* two independent but synergistic
mechanisms (see **Fig. 8**): (i) inhibiting the infiltration of macrophages, thereby inhibiting
paracrine cytokine regulation of catecholamine production and secretion, (ii) attenuating
SNA, thereby decreasing cholinergic stimulus for secretion of catecholamines.

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Discussion

Previous studies showing low levels of CST in hypertensive subjects (11) and normalization of BP in CgA-KO mice by CST (17) as well as decreasing BP in rodent HTN (27) indicate that CST is sufficient to reverse HTN. The findings of hypertensive phenotype in CST-KO mice and restoration of that phenotype by exogenous administration of recombinant CST establishes that CST is both necessary and sufficient in regulating HTN. This precise experimental model also uncovered three mutually interdependent mechanisms (discussed below) by which CST may exert its anti-HTN and cardioprotective effects and therefore maintain cardiovascular homeostasis.

Immunoendocrine regulation of BP. Cardiac macrophages are critical for myocardial homeostasis (47, 48). While a subset of macrophages orchestrate monocyte recruitment and contribute to heart failure pathogenesis (49), others are increased during diastolic dysfunction (50), myocardial infarction, and acute hemodynamic stress (51). We found an abundance of infiltrated macrophages in the hearts and the adrenal glands of CST-KO mice. Using two parallel approaches (CDN and BMT) to decrease macrophage activity, we found that macrophages are key effector cells for the anti-HTN actions of CST.

Immune regulation of cardiometabolic homeostasis, mitochondrial structure and function. The regulation of heart function by immune cells is well documented (52). Although myocardial dysfunctions in rodents (53) and humans (54) have been associated with increased TNFα production, how inflammation may reduce cardiac contractility and/or conduction, two of the most important functions of the myocardium, remains poorly defined. Contractility of the myocardium requires ATP (55), ~6 kg of ATP/ d, which is ~20 times its own weight (56, 57), produced predominantly *via* oxidative phosphorylation in the mitochondria and, to a lesser extent, by glycolysis (58). Therefore, mitochondrial health is critical for the proper functioning of the heart. A plethora of substrate are used to produce ATP, including FA, glucose, lactate, and ketones (33, 59) and substrate selection depends largely on substrate availability, oxygen concentration and myocardial

workload (60). Under normal conditions, the heart relies predominantly (~60-90%) on FA
oxidation to fuel ATP production, whereas the remaining ~10-40% of ATP is derived from
pyruvate oxidation (61). Metabolic flexibility (the capacity of the healthy heart to shift
between different substrates to ensure a continuous output of energy) is established as
a crucial feature of cardiac energy metabolism (62). Such flexibility is lost in CST-KO mice
because hearts in these mice show increased FA uptake and oxidation coupled with
decreased glucose uptake and oxidation; these changes have been reported in insulin-
resistant and diabetic rodents (63) and is a distinctive feature in obesity-associated
metabolic diseases in humans (64). Such metabolic inflexibility was reversed by
supplementation of CST-KO mice with CST, underscoring that CST is necessary and
sufficient for cardiometabolic homeostasis and flexibility.

As for how CST may regulate the cardiometabolic state, we found that
mitochondrial structure and function were altered in its absence and restored by
exogenous supplementation of CST. These findings are consistent with prior studies
showing that HTN is associated with decreased mitochondrial mass and density,
increased mitochondrial swelling, impaired energy production and the accelerated
formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (65). In addition, HTN rats display
mitochondrial fragmentation and increased ROS production (66).

In congruence with increased FA uptake in the setting of decreased mitochondrial
oxidative capacity, CST-KO mice displayed intramyocardial lipid droplets; such droplets
are normally found in an obese and diabetic heart (67, 68) and are known to trigger
mitochondrial dysfunction and energetic compromise, resulting in cardiac dysfunctions
(64, 69, 70). In addition, like a diabetic heart, myocardial insulin resistance (decreased
phosphorylation of AKT and GSK-3β) and impaired glucose utilization (decreased
glucose uptake and oxidation) in CST-KO mice resulted in a further increase in cardiac
FA uptake and accumulation of toxic lipid metabolites including triacylglycerol,
diacylglycerol, and ceramide (71, 72). Of note, inflammatory cytokines like TNFα induce
synthesis of ceramides, linking immune cells in induction of ceramide synthesis (73). We
have previously shown that CST markedly decreases triglyceride, FA and ceramides in
diet-induced obese (DIO) liver and improves insulin sensitivity in CST-KO and DIO mice
(23). CST supplementation in CST-KO mice results in the development of the following

phenotypes: (i) increased glucose uptake and metabolism, (ii) decreased FA uptake and
oxidation, (iii) decreased accumulation of lipid droplets, and finally, (iv) decreased
mitophagy, thereby underscoring the crucial roles that CST plays in improvement of
cardiac metabolism and function.

Neuro-adrenergic overdrive-induced HTN and immunoendocrine regulation of BP.
Existing literature reveals heightened SNA in white coat syndrome and borderline
hypertensive subjects (74), and the magnitude of the elevation of SNA is related to the
magnitude of HTN (75). Like humans, SHR shows reduced cardiac parasympathetic
nerve activity, elevated SNA and increased NA release (76). Here, we found neuro-
adrenergic overdrive-induced HTN in CST-KO mice. Augmented SNA in HTN is known
to activate both myeloid cells and T cells (5), and primary HTN shows increased
circulating concentration of proinflammatory cytokines such as TNFα and IL6 (77). To our
knowledge, the present study is the first to demonstrate increased infiltration of
macrophages in the adrenal medulla concomitant with increased secretion of
catecholamines and the consequent development of HTN in CST-KO mice, which were
normalized after CST supplementation. These findings imply that CST regulates BP
through a novel immunoendocrine regulation of catecholamine secretion.

We conclude that the anti-hypertensive effects of CST are mediated at least partly via
CST's anti-inflammatory actions, since without CST, macrophages are more reactive,
infiltrate the heart, and alter the ultrastructure, physiologic makeup, and molecular
makeup of the myocardium. Additionally, the data implicate CST as a key mediator of the
observed crosstalk between systemic and cardiac inflammation in HTN and acts as a
central mediator of cardiovascular homeostasis *via* a complex immunoendocrine axis.

Material and Methods

Mice. To generate CST-KO mice, we selectively targeted to eliminate the 63 bp CST encoding segment from Exon VII of the *Chga* gene. The general cloning strategy involved PCR and subcloning into pBluescript. We introduced a diphtheria toxin sequence to serve as a negative selection at the 3'-end of the construct that would enrich (by ~5-fold) positive clones after transfection of the targeted construct into ES cells by electroporation. For positive selection by G418 we have introduced a Neo cassette flanked by FRT (*Flp* recognition target) site. PCR screening of CST-KO mice are shown in **Fig. S1.**

Male WT and CST-KO (20-24 weeks old) with a mixed genetic background (50% 129svJ/50% C57BL/6) or in C57BL/6 background were studied. Since CgA is overexpressed in patients with hypertension, especially hypertensive men, and CgA predicted catecholamine secretion (78) we used only male mice in this study. Further studies will look into female mice. Mice were kept in a 12 hr dark/light cycle and fed a normal chow diet (NCD: 13.5% calorie from fat; LabDiet 5001, Lab Supply, Fort Worth, TX).

Protein analysis by immunoblotting. Left ventricles were homogenized in a buffer containing phosphatase and protease inhibitors, as previously described (79). Homogenates were subjected to SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted. Primary antibodies for phosphorylated and total AKT and GSK-3β were from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA); mouse monoclonal mAb 5A8 (hCgA$_{R47-L57}$) antibody and rabbit polyclonal C-terminal CST pAb CT-CST (hCgA$_{P368-R373}$) (80) were generously provided by Angelo Corti (IRCCS San Raffaele Scientific Institute, Milan, Italy).

Echocardiography. Echocardiography was performed as previously described (81). Briefly, adult age-matched WT and CST-KO mice were anesthetized with 5% isoflurane and maintained with 0.5% isoflurane during the entire procedure. Vevo 2100 ultrasound system (FUJIFILM VisualSonics Inc.) with a linear transducer 32-56MHz (MS550S) was used to capture the images and videos. Heart rate, percentage fractional shortening (%FS), left ventricular (LV) internal diameter at end-diastole (LVIDd) and end-systole (LVIDs), LV posterior wall thickness at end-diastole (LVPWd) and interventricular septum thickness at end-diastole (IVSd) were measured from the M-mode tracing.

Non-invasive tail-cuff measurement of blood pressure. Systolic blood pressure (SBP) was measured using the mouse and rat tail cuff blood pressure (MRBP) System (IITC Life Sciences

Inc. Woodland Hills, CA). Mice were restrained in plexiglass tubes and heated to 34°C for 10-15

min in individual warming chambers prior to BP measurement. The tails were placed inside

inflatable cuffs with a photoelectric sensor that measured tail pulses. The SBP was measured

over 6 separate days with an average of two values per day.

Determination of plasma CgA and CST. Commercial mouse EIA kits were used to determine

CgA from two adrenal glands (CUSABIO Technology LLC, Houston, TX) and plasma (200 µl)

CST (RayBiotech Life, Peachtree Corners, GA) and followed according to the manufacturer's

protocol.

Measurement of plasma cytokines. Plasma cytokines (20 µl) were measured using U-PLEX

mouse cytokine assay kit (Meso Scale Diagnostics, Rockville, MD) via the manufacturer's

protocol.

Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM) and morphometric analysis. To displace blood

and wash tissues before fixation, mice were cannulated through the apex of the heart and

perfused with a Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} free buffer composed of DPBS and 9.46 mM KCl (to arrest hearts

in diastole), as described previously (82). Fixation, embedding, sectioning and staining were done

following our previous publication (82). Grids were viewed using a JEOL JEM1400-plus TEM

(JEOL, Peabody, MA) and photographed using a Gatan OneView digital camera with 4k x 4k

resolution (Gatan, Pleasanton, CA). Morphometric analysis of glycogen granules and cristae

surface area were determined as described previously by us (80).

Flow cytometry analysis

Mouse heart perfusion was performed as previously described (50). Cardiac stromal cells were

stained with fluorescence-tagged antibodies to detect macrophages (CD11b^{+}F4/80^{+}). Data were

analyzed using FlowJo software.

Tissue macrophage depletion study.

To deplete tissue macrophages, mice were given clodronate liposomes (50 mg/kg body weight;

catalog F70101C-N, FormuMax, Sunnyvale, CA) every 3 days via intraperitoneal injection. Mice

treated with control liposomes were used as control.

Bone marrow transplantation.

To generate irradiated chimeras, 10-12 week old WT or CST-KO NCD recipient mice received a

lethal dose of 10 Gy radiation, followed by tail vein injection of 2 x 10^6 bone marrow cells from

either WT or CST-KO NCD donor mice. After 16 weeks of bone marrow transplantation, all mice

were subjected to non-invasive tail-cuff measurement of BP.

Microarrays. Total RNA from left ventricular tissue from four CST-KO and age-matched WT mice

was isolated using a RNeasy Kit. RNA quality was assessed by using the Agilent Model 2100

Bioanalyzer. RNA was labeled and hybridized to a Nimblegen mouse 12-plex array. Array was

scanned on a GenePix 4000B scanner and data extracted using Arraystar 4. Raw data was

analyzed using a Bayesian variance modeling approach in VAMPIRE using a FDR of 0.05 (83).

Data were visualized using GeneSpring 14.5. Microarray data is available at GEO Accession

Number (GSE104071).

Real Time PCR

Total RNA from heart tissue was isolated using RNeasy Mini Kit and reverse-transcribed using

qScript cDNA synthesis kit. cDNA samples were amplified using PERFECTA SYBR FASTMIX L-

ROX 1250 and analyzed on an Applied Biosystems 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR system. All PCRs

were normalized to *Rplp0*, and relative expression levels were determined by the $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method.

***In vivo* tissue glucose uptake and metabolism.** *In vivo* glucose uptake and production of

glucose-6-phosphate (G6P) and glycogen was assessed following a published protocol but using

double isotopes - ^{3}H-glucose and ^{14}C-2-deoxyglucose (2DG) as described previously by us (82).

***In vivo* fatty acid incorporation and lipid extraction and oxidation.** A 100 µl solution of U-^{14}C-

palmitic acid-BSA complex (molar ration 2.5:1), containing 1 µCi and 250 µM palmitate was

injected per mouse. After 90 min, mice were sacrificed, blood was saved and tissues were

subjected to lipid extraction by Bligh and Dyer's adaptation (84) of Folch's original method (85).

Radioactivity in the lower chloroform layer was determined by measuring fatty acids in the

aqueous layer by determining acid soluble metabolites (ASM, representing fatty acid oxidation)

as described previously by us (86).

Determination of tissue glycogen. Glycogen was extracted from the left ventricle by boiling with

30% KOH, precipitation by alcohol and determination with anthrone reagent (87).

Langendorff perfused heart model. Mice were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (50 mg/kg i.p.), the heart was excised and the aorta was cannulated for Langendorff perfusion of the coronary circulation, as described previously (88). For the ischemic preconditioning (IPC) protocol the stabilization period was followed by two cycles of ischemia (5 min, no pacing) and reperfusion (5 min, pacing after 1 min re-perfusion).

Measurement of catecholamines: Mice were anesthetized by inhalation of isoflurane and blood was collected from the heart in potassium-EDTA tubes. Adrenal and plasma catecholamines were measured by ACQUITY UPLC H-Class System fitted with Atlantis dC18 column (100A, 3 μm, 3 mm x 100 mm) and connected to an electrochemical detector (ECD model 2465) (Waters Corp, Milford, MA). The mobile phase (isocratic: 0.3 ml/min). consisted of phosphate-citrate buffer and acetonitrile at 95:5 (vol/vol). An internal standard 3.4-dihydroxybenzylamine (DHBA 400 ng) was added to the mixture of adrenal homogenate from one adrenal gland and 0.1N HCl (50 μl each). While the injection volume for NE and EPI was 4 μl and the ECD was set at 50 nA, the injection volume was 8 μl and the ECD was set at 2 nA. For determination of plasma catecholamines, DHBA (2 ng) was added to 150 μl plasma (2 ng) and adsorbed with ~15 mg of activated aluminum oxide for 10 min in a rotating shaker. After washing with 1 ml water adsorbed catecholamines were eluted with 100 μl of 0.1N HCl. The injection volume was 10 μl and the ECD was set at 500 pA. The data were analyzed using Empower software (Waters Corp, Milford, MA). Catecholamine levels were normalized with the recovery of the internal standard. Plasma catecholamines are expressed as nM. Adrenal catecholamines are expressed as nmol/mg protein.

Statistics. Statistics were performed with SPSS Statistics (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY). Data were analyzed either with a Repeated Measure (RM) 2x2 ANOVA, 2-way ANOVA, UNIANOVA, and subjected to post-hoc tests and pairwise comparisons where appropriate. Additionally, we performed unpaired student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test depending on Shapiro-Wilk's test of normality (with results corrected for Levene's test for Equality of Variances where appropriate). All data are presented as mean ± SEM and significance was assumed when $p < 0.05$.

Study approval. All studies with mice were approved by the UCSD and Veteran Affairs San Diego Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (IACUC) and conform to relevant National Institutes of Health guidelines.

Author contributions:

W. Ying designed and generated CDN liposome and BMT data; and edited the MS. K. Tang designed and generated qPCR, cytokine, CgA, CST, and catecholamine data, and edited the MS. E. Avolio generated western blot data. J.M. Schilling generated ischemia reperfusion and ischemic pre-conditioning data; and made statistical analyses. T. Pasqua and G. Bandyopadhyay generated glucose and fatty acid uptake and oxidation data and edited the MS. M.A. Liu generated blood pressure data and edited the MS. H. Cheng made targeted *Chga* construct for generation of CST-KO mice. JZ and FS analyzed the echocardiography data. S. Mahata generated qPCR data and edited the MS. S. Das provided intellectual input in the analysis of the CST-KO immunophenotype. D.M. Roth and H.H. Patel supervised ischemia reperfusion and ischemic pre-conditioning studies and provided financial support for those studies. D. Sahoo analyzed and interpreted the microarray dataset, generated heat map. N.J.G. Webster designed and generated microarray data. P. Ghosh extensively edited the MS and Figures, interpreted transcriptomic dataset, and provided crucial inputs on the overall organization of the MS and Figures. S.K. Mahata conceived the idea, generated TEM data, supervised >90% of the studies, analyzed the data and made the graphics with extensive inputs from P.G., wrote the MS with extensive inputs from P.G. and provided financial support (>95%).

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Disclosures:

None

 Figure legends

Fig. 1. CST-KO mice have enlarged hearts.

(A) Schematic diagram showing the cloning strategy for generating CST-KO mice. **(B)**

Western blot showing the presence of CgA in the LV of WT and CST-KO mice. **(C)**

Western blot showing the presence of CgA and CST. A rabbit polyclonal C-terminal CST

antibody detected a truncated CgA (CgA_{1-373}) in the WT mice but not in CST-KO mice,

confirming the deletion of CST domain. **(D). Graph** displays adrenal CgA content (n=12)**.**

(E) Graph displays plasma CST level (n=6). **(F&G) Representative echocardiograms**

from the left ventricle of age-matched male WT (n=12) and CST-KO (n=13) mice showing

increased posterior wall thickness (shown by white arrow) in CST-KO mice. **(H) Bar**

graph showing posterior wall thickness (n=12-13). **(I) Bar graphs** displaying

interventricular septal thickness (n=12-13). **(J) Weight** of wet heart (n=16). **(K&L) Size** of

the wet heart**. (M) Systolic BP** (n=12) in WT and CST-KO mice. DTA, diphtheria toxin;

FRT, *Flp* recognition target. The data were analyzed by unpaired t test using GraphPad

Prism software version 8.2. ***p<0.001.

Fig. 2. CST-KO mice are hypertensive, display systemic and cardiac inflammation;

all phenotypes are reversed by exogenous CST (2 µg/g body weight for 3 weeks).

(A) Schematic diagram showing the interventional studies. **(B) Plasma CST** after saline

or CST treatment (n=6). **(C) Plasma cytokines** in WT and CST-KO mice (n=8). **(D) RT-**

qPCR data showing steady-state mRNA levels of anti-inflammatory cytokines in LV

(n=8). **(E) RT-qPCR data** showing steady-state mRNA levels of proinflammatory

cytokines in LV (n=8). The data were analyzed either by unpaired t test or 2-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. Ns, not significant; *p<0.05; **p<0.01;

***p<0.001.

Fig. 3. Macrophages are key mediators of the proinflammatory cardiovascular phenotypes in the CST-KO mice.

(A) Schematic diagram showing the interventional studies. **(B) SBP** after saline or CST treatment. **(C, F&G) Ultrastructural demonstration** of macrophages in WT and CST-KO heart (n=4). **(C) Saline-treated** WT and CST-KO heart. **(D) FACS data** showing macrophage population in CST-KO heart (n=3). **(E) Bar graph** showing CD45$^+$ leukocytes in CST-KO mice. **(F) CST-treated** WT and CST-KO heart. **(G) CDN-treated** WT and CST-KO heart. **(H) SBP** after depletion of macrophages by CDN (n=8). **(I) SBP** after BMT into irradiated mice (n=8). **(J) Plasma CST** in BMT mice (n=6). The data were analyzed either by unpaired t test or 2-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. Col, collagen; IFM, intermyofibrillar mitochondria; MyoN, myocyte nucleus; Mϕ, macrophage; ns, not significant; SL, sarcolemma; SSM, sub-sarcolemmal mitochondria; ZD, Z disc. *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Fig. 4. Analysis of cardiac transcripts in CST-KO mice reveal defects in the core

myocardial functions.

(A) Gene array data showing differential expression of genes (log2) in WT and CST-KO

mice (n=5). **(B) RT-qPCR data** validating gene array data (n=6). (**C**) **Expression of**

sarcomere genes in WT and CST-KO mice (n=6)**. (F) Expression of mitochondrial**

genes in WT and CST-KO mice (n=6). The data were analyzed by 2-way ANOVA

followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. Ns, not significant; *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$;

***$p<0.001$.

Fig. 5. CST-KO mice display an altered cardiometabolic phenotype and insulin
resistance

(A) 2DG uptake, G6P formation and utilization 90 min after 2DG injection (n=6). **(B)**
Relative expression of genes involved in glucose metabolism (n=6). **(C) FA uptake and**
oxidation (acid soluble metabolite: ASM) 90 min after injection of FA (n=6). (**D**) **Relative**
expression of genes involved in fat metabolism (n=6). **(E) Cardiac glycogen** level in
WT and CST-KO mice (n=6). **(F) Morphometric analyses** of glycogen granules. **(G)**
Ultrastructural demonstration of glycogen granules (GG) in LV of WT and CST-KO mice.
(H) Representative LV immunoblots of AKT and GSK-3β in fasting (12 hr) mice (n=4).
(I&J) Densitometric values of immunoblots: **(I)** AKT and **(J)** GSK-3β. The data were
analyzed by 2-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test. SSM,
subsarcolemmal mitochondria; Ns, not significant; *$p<0.05$; **$p<0.01$; ***$p<0.001$.
780
781

Fig. 6. CST-KO mice display altered mitochondrial morphology

Transmission Electron Microscopic (TEM) images showing mitochondria and

cristae (n=4). (A-D) Low magnification micrographs showing sub-sarcolemmal

mitochondria (SSM). Mitophagy (Mp) is shown in saline-treated CST-KO mice **(C),** which

was abolished after CST treatment **(D). (E-H) High magnification micrographs** showing

SSM in saline-treated **(E&G)** and CST-treated **(F&H)** WT and CST-KO mice. **(I-L) Low**

magnification micrographs showing intermyofibrillar mitochondria (IFM) in WT and

CST-KO mice. Lipid droplets (LD) are seen juxtaposed to IFM in saline-treated CST-KO

mice **(K). (M-P) High magnification micrographs** showing IFM in WT and CST-KO

mice. **(Q) High magnification IFM** showing LD. **(R) High magnification SSM** showing

mitophagy (Mp). **(S) Morphometric data** showing cristae surface area. The data were

analyzed by 2-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test.EDCS, electron

dense contact site; LD, lipid droplet; MyoN, myocyte nucleus; Ns, not significant; SL,

sarcolemma; ZD, Z-disc; *p<0.05.

Fig. 7. CST-KO mice display inflamed adrenal medulla and altered catecholamine

secretion

(A) TEM micrographs of the adrenal medulla (n=4). Low magnification micrographs

showing resident macrophage in WT mice and resident plus infiltrated macrophages in

CST-KO mice. (**B**) **Adrenal catecholamines** in WT and CST-KO mice (n=12). **(C)**

Plasma catecholamines in WT and CST-KO mice (n=12). **(D) High magnification**

micrographs showing chromaffin granules (CG) in the adrenal medulla. Docked CGs are

abundant in CST-KO mice. (**E**) **High magnification micrographs** showing splanchnico-

adrenomedullary synapse with clear acetylcholine vesicles (AChV) and dense core

peptidergic vesicles (PdV). The data were analyzed by 2-way ANOVA followed by

Tukey's multiple comparison test.AT, axon terminal; CC, chromaffin cell; CG, chromaffin

granule; GJ, gap junction; Mϕ, macrophage; ns, not significant; PM, plasma membrane;

*$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$.

Fig. 8. Summary or findings and working model.

Schematic showing the major conclusions from the current work and its relevance to

human cardiovascular health and HTN. CST maintains cardiac homeostasis and prevents

HTN and cardiac remodeling (hypertrophy and fibrosis) *via* two major mechanisms (red

lines) - First, it exerts an anti-inflammatory action *via* its effect on macrophage processes

and polarization. Second, it exerts a negative feedback loop on catecholamine secretion

from chromaffin cells (6, 89, 90). In the absence of CST, plasma catecholamines are

elevated and macrophages become reactive in phenotype. While the former results in

HTN, the latter causes inflammation in the adrenals and heart. Macrophage infiltration in

the heart and local secretion of cytokines by activated macrophages result in altered

myocardial ultrastructure, bioenergetics, cardiometabolic shift, insulin resistance, and

core myocardial functions, e.g., BP and cardioprotection by IPC. In doing so, CST acts

as a central mediator of cardiovascular homeostasis *via* a complex immunoendocrine

axis.

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