Chromogranin A regulates gut permeability *via* the antagonistic actions of its proteolytic peptides

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Abstract

Background and Aims. A 'leaky' gut barrier has been implicated in the initiation and progression of a multitude of diseases, e.g., inflammatory bowel disease, irritable bowel syndrome, celiac disease, and colorectal cancers. Here we asked how Chromogranin A (CgA), a major hormone produced by the enteroendocrine cells, and Catestatin (CST), the most abundant CgA-derived proteolytic peptide, affect the gut barrier.

Methods and Results. Ultrastructural studies on the colons from Catestatin (CST: $hCgA_{352-372}$) knockout (CST-KO) mice revealed (i) altered morphology of tight (TJ) and adherens (AJ) junctions and desmosomes, indicative of junctional stress and (ii) an increased infiltration of immune cells compared to controls. Flow cytometry studies confirmed these cells to be macrophages and $CD4^+$ T cells. Gene expression studies confirmed that multiple TJ-markers were reduced, with concomitant compensatory elevation of AJ and desmosome markers. Consistently, the levels of plasma FITC-dextran were elevated in the CST-KO mice, confirming leakiness' of the gut. Leaky gut in CST-KO mice correlated with inflammation and a higher ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteroidetes, a dysbiotic pattern commonly encountered in a multitude of diseases. Supplementation of CST-KO mice with recombinant CST reversed this leakiness and key phenotypes. Supplementation of CgA-KO mice with either CST alone, or with the pro-inflammatory proteolytic CgA fragment pancreastatin (PST: $CgA_{250-301}$) showed that gut permeability is regulated by the antagonistic roles of these two peptide hormones: CST reduces and PST increases leakiness.

Conclusion. We conclude that the enteroendocrine cell-derived hormone, CgA regulates gut permeability. CST is both necessary and sufficient to reduce the leakiness. CST acts primarily *via* antagonizing the effects of PST.

What you need to know

Background and Context. The intestinal barrier is disrupted in many intestinal diseases

such as Crohn's disease. Chromogranin A (CgA) is produced by enteroendocrine cells in

the gut. CgA is proteolytically cleaved into bioactive peptides including catestatin (CST)

and pancreastatin (PST). The role of CgA in the gut is unknown.

New findings. CgA is efficiently processed to CST in the gut and this processing might

be decreased during active Crohn's disease. CST promotes epithelial barrier function and

reduces inflammation by counteracting PST.

Limitations. The complete mechanism of intestinal barrier regulation by CST likely

involves a complex interplay between the enteroendocrine system, metabolism, the

epithelium, the immune system and the gut microbiota.

Impact. Our findings indicate that CST is a key modulator of the intestinal barrier and

immune functions that correlates with disease severity of Crohn's disease. CST could be

a target for therapeutic interventions in Crohn's disease.

Introduction

The intestinal tract harbors 10^3-10^{11} bacteria/ml[1], that in aggregate, can constitute >1 g of endotoxin[2]. Endotoxins stimulate immune cells in the lamina propria, which can trigger mucosal inflammation[3]. Two factors can increase such inflammation: (i) luminal dysbiosis[4] and (ii) gut barrier defects. The gut barrier is comprised of a surface mucus layer which separates intact bacteria and large particulates from the mucosa[5] and the colonic epithelium which provides a physical and immunological barrier separating the body from the luminal contents (e.g., dietary antigens, a diverse intestinal microbiome, and pathogens)[6-8]. Mucosal homeostasis is maintained by the delicate and complex interactions between epithelial cells, immune cells, and luminal microbiota[6].

The gastrointestinal epithelium not only forms the body's largest interface with the external environment but also establishes a selectively permeable epithelial barrier; it allows nutrient absorption and waste secretion while preventing the entry of luminal contents. The epithelial barrier is regulated by a series of intercellular junctions between polarized cells: an apical tight junction (TJ), which guards paracellular permeability, the subjacent adherens junction (AJ) and the desmosomes; the AJs and desmosomes do not seal the paracellular space but provide essential adhesive and mechanical properties that contribute to barrier functions[7].

The permeability of the barrier is regulated by numerous factors. For example, TNF-α increases flux of larger molecules, such as proteins and other macromolecules, through the leak pathway, and IL-13 selectively enhances the flux of small molecules and ions via the pore pathway[9]. TNF-α plays crucial roles in the caveolin-1-mediated internalization of occludin (OCLN), which elevates gut permeability. Conversely, overexpression of OCLN alleviates the cytokine-induced increase in gut permeability[10]. IFN-γ increases gut permeability by reducing the expression of tight junction protein 1 (TJP1) and OCLN as well as by modulating acto-myosin cytoskeleton interactions with TJ proteins[11]. The simultaneous presence of TNF-α and IFN-γ deteriorates intestinal integrity by dissociating TJ proteins[12].

Here we show that the permeability of the gut barrier is finetuned by a major gut hormone, Chromogranin A (CgA). CgA is an acidic secretory proprotein[13-15] that is

abundantly expressed in enteroendocrine cells (EEC) of the gut and serves as a common

marker for the EEC of the gut[16,17]. As a proprotein, CgA gives rise to several peptides of

biological importance: catestatin (CST: $hCgA_{352-372}$)[18], pancreastatin (PST: $hCgA_{250-301}$)[19],

WE14[20], vasostatin[21], and serpinin[22]; we show that CST is abundantly processed in the

gut. Unexpectedly, we found, that CgA regulates the gut permeability via the antagonistic

actions of its two peptides, PST and CST; while PST is a pro-inflammatory, pro-

obesigenic and anti-insulin peptide[23] which loosens the barrier, CST acts as anti-

inflammatory, antiobesigenic, anti-microbial, and proinsulin peptide[15,24-27] that appears to

be necessary and sufficient to neutralize the actions of PST and tighten the barrier. Using

knockout (KO) mice in conjunction with recombinant proteins, we show that CST exerts

its actions *via* counteracting PST.

Material and Methods

Mice. Male WT, CST-KO and CgA-KO mice (3 weeks old) on C57BL/6 background were kept in a 12 hr dark/light cycle on normal chow diet (NCD: 13.5% calorie from fat; LabDiet 5001, Lab Supply, Fort Worth, TX). All mouse studies were approved by the UCSD and Veteran Affairs San Diego Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees and conform to relevant National Institutes of Health guidelines. Experiments were conducted in a blinded fashion whenever possible. For terminal procedure, mice were deeply anesthetized (assessed by pinching toe response) with isoflurane followed by harvesting of tissues. Euthanasia was achieved through exsanguination. For rescue experiments with exogenous CST and PST, mice were injected intraperitoneally with CST (2 µg/g body weight) and/or PST (2 µg/g body weight) at 9:00 AM for 2-4 weeks before collecting feces or harvesting tissues.

Determination of CgA, CST, and calprotectin in colon. Mouse EIA kits from CUSABIO (CUSABIO Technology LLC, Houston, TX) were used to determine CgA (CSB-EL005344MO), CST (CSB-E17357m), and calprotectin (CSB-EQ013485MO).

Gut permeability assay. Fluorescein isothiocyanate conjugated dextran (FITC-dextran-FD4) (MilliporeSigma, St. Louis, MO) was administered (44 mg/100 g body weight) to 8 hr fasting mice by oral gavage followed by collection of blood after 4 hr of administration from the heart under deep isloflurane anesthesia[28]. Plasma concentration of FITC was determined by comparison of fluorescence signals with a FITC-dextran standard curve.

Measurement of tissue and plasma cytokines. Tissue and plasma cytokines were measured using U-PLEX mouse cytokine assay kit (Meso Scale Diagnostics, Rockville, MD) via the manufacturer's protocol.

Determination of CgA and CST levels in human plasma. EDTA-plasma was collected from patients with Crohn's disease (N=89) and ulcerative colitis (N=101) (Supplementary table 1) and healthy controls (N=50). Intestinal inflammation was assessed by

colonoscopy. A flare-up was defined as histological and endoscopic disease activity,

whereas remission entailed absence of endoscopic inflammation and histological disease

activity. Informed consent was obtained and the study was conducted in accordance with

the Institutional Board Review of the University Medical Center Utrecht (approval number

NL35053.041.11 & 11-050). EDTA-plasma from healthy controls (Supplementary table 2)

was obtained from the Mini Donor Service at the University Medical Center Utrecht.

Samples were thawed and diluted 50-times with extraction buffer (PBS with 0.5% Tween

and 0.05% sodium azide), thoroughly vortexed followed by incubation at 4°C for 20 min

on a rolling device. Afterwards samples were centrifuged at 760 ×g for 20 min at 4°C and

the supernatant was collected for analysis. Samples were collected in compliance with

the Declaration of Helsinki. EDTA plasma was used to quantify CgA and CST using ELISA

(CUSABIO CSB-E17355h, CSB-E09153h).

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 as described[29]. Fixation, embedding, sectioning and staining were done as

described[29]. Grids were viewed using a JEOL JEM1400-plus TEM (JEOL, Peabody, MA)

and photographed using a Gatan OneView digital camera with 4×4k resolution (Gatan,

Pleasanton, CA). Morphometric analyses of the dense core vesicles were determined as

described[30].

Flow cytometry analysis. Isolated colon cells from digested mouse colon were stained

with fluorescence-tagged antibodies to detect macrophages ($CD45^+CD11b^+Emr1^+$) and

helper T cells ($CD45^+CD4^+$). Data were analyzed using FlowJo.

Microbiome analysis. DNA was extracted from cecum using the Zymobiomics miniprep

kit. Isolated DNA was quantified by Qubit (ThermoFisher Scientific). DNA libraries were

prepared using the Illumina Nextera XT library preparation kit. Library quantity and quality

was assessed with Qubit and Tapestation (Agilent Technologies). Libraries were

sequenced on Illumina HiSeq platform 2×150bp. Unassembled sequencing reads were

directly analyzed by CosmosID bioinformatics platform (CosmosID)[31-33] for multi-kingdom
microbiome analysis and profiling of antibiotic resistance and virulence genes and
quantification of organism's relative abundance. This system utilizes curated genome
databases and a high-performance data-mining algorithm that rapidly disambiguates
hundreds of millions of metagenomic sequence reads into the discrete microorganisms
engendering the particular sequences. Data mining, interpretation and comparison of
taxonomic information from the metagenomic datasets were performed using Calyspo
Bioinformatics software V.8.84.

Real Time PCR. Total RNA from colon 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. Primer sequences are in Supplementary table 3. All
PCRs were normalized to *Rplp0*, and relative expression levels were determined by the
$\Delta\Delta C_t$ method as described[26].

Statistics. Statistics were performed with PRISM 8 (version 8.4.3; San Diego, CA). Data
were analyzed using either unpaired two-tailed Student's *t*-test for comparison of two
groups or one-way or two-way analysis of variance for comparison of more than two
groups followed by Tukey's *post hoc* test if appropriate. All data are presented as mean
± SEM and significance were assumed when $p < 0.05$.

Results

CgA is extensively processed to CST. To study the role of CgA and its peptides in the regulation of the gut barrier, we used systemic CgA-KO (deletion of exon 1 and ~1.5 kbp proximal promoter, thereby completely inactivating the *Chga* allele)[34] and CST-KO mice (the 63 bp CST domain of CgA was deleted from Exon VII of the *Chga* gene)[35]. We analyzed the function and morphology of the gut barrier in CST-KO mice. We used transmission electron microscopy (TEM) to resolve the ultrastructure of EECs and to evaluate the subcellular compartment where hormones are stored and released, i.e., dense core vesicles (DCVs). While DCV numbers were reduced in both CgA-KO and CST-KO mice, DCV areas were smaller in CgA-KO mice but larger in CST-KO mice (Fig. 1A-B). WT colon showed a lower concentration of CgA (average 0.019 nmol/mg protein) than of CST (average 0.37 nmol/mg protein), indicating extensive processing of CgA to CST (Fig. 1C). As anticipated, in CST-KO mice the levels of CgA in the colon were similar to that in WT mice, but those of CST were undetectable (Fig. 1C). Consistent with enhanced processing of CgA, we found increased expression of the proteolytic enzymes Cathepsin L (*Ctsl*, which cleaves CST from CgA) and Plasminogen (*Plg*, the precursor of plasmin, which is involved in CgA processing) in CST-KO and CgA-KO, respectively (Fig. 1D)[36-39].

Because the processing of CgA to CST is compromised in several diseases [40-44], we determined plasma CgA and CST levels in patients with Crohn's disease and with ulcerative colitis, both with active disease and in remission (Fig. 1E; Supplementary Fig. 1). In line with previous findings[45-50], we found higher CgA levels in plasma of patients with active Crohn's disease but not in patients in remission. In contrast, we found higher plasma CST levels in Crohn's disease regardless of disease activity, indicating that the processing of CgA to CST is more efficient in disease activity.

CST-KO mice have a 'leaky' gut. Ultrastructural evaluation of the gut epithelium showed that the TJs, AJs and desmosomes are significantly different in CST KO mice compared to wild-type (WT); the TJs, AJs and desmosomes were elongated and widened (Fig. 2A-B). Gene expression studies show reduced expression of multiple TJ-markers such as

Ocln (regulates the paracellular pathway), *Marveld2* (modulates macromolecular flux),

F11r (regulates gut permeability), and *Tjp1* (modulates leak pathway flux), with

concomitant compensatory elevated expression of AJ genes including alpha-E-Catenin

(*Ctnna1;* regulates gut permeability by binding to Tjp1), Cadherin-associated protein

(*Ctnnb1;* creates an inflammatory microenvironment), Cadherin 1 (*Cdh1,* mediates

homotypic intercellular adhesions) (Fig. 2C). Increased plasma FITC-dextran in the CST-

KO mice (Fig. 2D), confirmed leakiness of the gut. Consistent with increased leakiness,

we found increased expression of *Cldn2* (Fig. 2C), a specific claudin that is known to

increase the paracellular flux (pore pathway) of cations (e.g., Na^+) and water[51].

The leaky gut in CST-KO mice is accompanied by mucosal inflammation and

dysbiosis. Because increased gut permeability is often associated with mucosal

inflammation, we investigated the immune cell populations in the colons of CST-KO mice.

As expected, increased leakiness in the CST-KO colon was associated with an increased

abundance of immune cells (Fig. 3A). Flow cytometry confirmed increased abundance of

macrophages ($CD45^+11b^+Emr1^+$) and helper $CD4^+$ T cells (Fig. 3B). CST-KO mice show

increased expression of the following proinflammatory genes: tumor necrosis factor alpha

(*Tnfa*), interferon gamma (*Ifng*), chemokine CXC motif ligand 1 (*Cxcl1* aka *Kc/Gro1*),

chemokine CC motif ligand 2 (*Ccl2* aka *Mcp1*), egg-like module-containing mucin-like

hormone receptor 1 (*Emr1* aka *F4/80*), integrin alpha-M (*Itgam* aka *Cd11b*), and integrin

alpha-X (*Itgax* aka *Cd11c*) (Fig. 3C). Increased expression of *Tnfa, Ifng, Cxcl1*, and *Ccl2*

genes correlated with increased protein levels (Fig. 3D). Upregulation of proinflammatory

cytokines is in line with prior work demonstrating a positive correlation of IFN-γ[52] and TNF-

α[53] with intestinal leakiness. The decreased expression of anti-inflammatory cytokines,

such as interleukin 4 (*Il4*) and interleukin 10 (*Il10*), in CST-KO mice is also in congruence

with the reported role of anti-inflammatory cytokines in gut permeability (Fig. 3E)[54]. The

decreased *Il10* mRNA levels correlated with a decreased protein level of IL-10 (Fig. 3F).

Furthermore, the expression of *S100a9* gene and protein levels (forming Calprotectin in

complex with S100a8) were increased in colon of CST-KO mice (Fig. 3G); increased

Calprotectin, a protein secreted by activated neutrophils and macrophages, has been

shown to increase intestinal permeability[55-57].

Because a leaky gut may either cause or be the consequence of altered luminal

microbes[58,59], we investigated whether the microbial population in CST-KO mice was

altered. We found that the microbiome in CST-KO mice was indeed quite different in

composition than its WT littermates (Fig. 4; Supplementary Fig. 2). Most prominently,

CST-KO mice showed a higher ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteroidetes (Fig. 4B-D), which is

opposite to the decreased ratio observed in WT mice intra-rectally infused with CST[60],

and supports the idea that a low ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteriodetes could be beneficial

to dampen intestinal inflammation[60,61].

That the leaky gut of CST-KO mice is inflamed and harbors dysbiotic luminal

contents implies that CST is required for maintaining gut barrier integrity and preventing

dysbiosis and gut inflammation. This is important because a "leaky gut"[62], dysbiosis[63],

and hyperactivated immunity[64] are all well known to play a role in inflammatory bowel

disease (IBD). It is also consistent with others' observation that administration of

exogenous CST can ameliorate colitis in mice[65,66].

CST is sufficient to tighten the leaky gut barrier in CST-KO mice and reduce

inflammation. To test whether CST is sufficient to regulate gut permeability, we

supplemented CST-KO mice with recombinant CST (2 µg/g body weight once daily for

15-30 days, IP), which reversed gut leakiness and the associated abnormalities such as:

(i) reduced plasma FITC-dextran even lower than WT level (Fig. 5A), (ii) increased

expression of *Ocln*, *Marveld2*, *F11r*, *Tjp1, and Dsg2* (Fig. 5B&D), (iii) decreased

expression of *Cldn2*, *Ctnna1*, *Ctnnb1*, and *Cdh1* (Fig. 5B-C), (iv) decreased expression

of proinflammatory genes (*Tnfa*, *Ifng*, *Cxcl1, Ccl2, Emr1*, *Itgam*, and *Itgax)* (Fig. 5E*)*, and

proteins (Tnf-α, Ifn-γ, Cxcl1, Ccl2) (Fig. 5F), (v) increased expression of anti-inflammatory

genes (*Arg1*, *Il4*, *Tgfb1*, *Il10, Mrc1*, *Clec7a*, and *Clec10a*) (Fig. 5G), and protein (Il10)

(Fig. 5H), (vi) decreased expression of calprotectin gene (subunit *S100a9)* and protein

levels (Fig. 5I). These findings demonstrate that CST is not only required for the integrity

of the gut barrier but is also sufficient to maintain the integrity of this barrier during

homeostasis.

The permeability of the gut is intact in CgA-KO mice. Next, we carried out the gut barrier studies in CgA-KO mice, which not only lack CST, but also lack all other peptides derived from CgA. Ultrastructural studies showed no structural changes in TJ, AJ and desmosomes in CgA-KO mice compared to WT mice (Fig. 6A). To our surprise, we found that despite the absence of CST in these mice, gut permeability was not increased, as assessed by FITC-dextran uptake (Fig. 6B); if anything, the barrier was even tighter than WT control mice. This decreased permeability was not accompanied by changes in CgA-KO mice in genes coding for components of TJ, AJ and desmosomes, except that *Ocln* and *Dsg2* gene expression were decreased in CgA-KO mice compared to WT mice (Fig. 6C). Likewise, proinflammatory gene and protein expressions were not affected in CgA-KO mice (Fig. 6D-E). However, increased expression of anti-inflammatory genes and protein in CgA-KO mice was observed (Fig. 6F-G). Decreased expression of calprotectin protein is also consistent with decreased gut permeability (Fig. 6H). Compared to CST-KO mice, Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes bacteria populations in CgA-KO mice were more comparable to WT mice (Fig. 7A; Supplementary Fig. 2). These findings suggest that CST is not essential in the absence of CgA. Because a leaky and inflamed gut was seen in the CST-KO mice which specifically lack the proteolytic fragment of CST, but not in CgA-KO mice which lack CST and all other peptides that are generated proteolytically from CgA, these findings raised the possibility that CST may be required to antagonize the actions of some other peptide hormone that is also a product of CgA.

Gut permeability is regulated by the antagonistic effects of two CgA peptides: CST and Pancreastatin (PST). Among the various proteolytic peptides, we hypothesized that CST could be acting to balance the impact of another peptide fragment of CgA, i.e., pancreastatin (PST) (Fig. 7B). This hypothesis was guided by prior work[67] alluding to PST's deleterious impact on the gut mucosa, causing macrophage infiltration and inflammation. To test the nature of contribution of PST and CST on the gut barrier function, we supplemented the CgA-KO mice with either CST alone (2 μg/g body weight for 15 days), or PST alone (2 μg/g body weight for 15 days), or both PST and CST co-administered at equimolar ratio for 15 days. CST alone did not change leakiness in CgA-KO mice (Fig. 7C). By contrast, PST alone increased the leakiness in CgA-KO mice and

this leakiness was markedly reduced when the CgA-KO mice received both PST and CST

at equimolar concentration (Fig. 7C). These findings indicate that PST is sufficient to

increase gut permeability, and that CST is sufficient to antagonize this action. Together,

these data lead us to propose a working model (Fig. 7D) in which the intestinal epithelial

barrier is finetuned by the EECs via a major gut hormone, CgA. Our data show that CgA

is proteolytically processed into two peptides, CST and PST, which tighten and loosen

the gut barrier, respectively.

Discussion

The major finding in this work is the discovery of a molecular mechanism that involves a major EEC-derived gut hormone that has a balanced action on the gut barrier; two hormone derivatives of CgA, i.e., CST and PST, which either tighten or loosen the barrier, respectively. Because CgA-KO mice had an unimpaired gut barrier, which was loosened by exogenous administration of PST but not tightened by exogenous CST alone, findings also indicate that the barrier-homeostatic mechanism(s) is contained within and converge at a molecular level on the prohormone CgA and its processing into counteracting peptide hormones. These findings are important because CST is a major peptide hormone in EEC which is proteolytically produced from CgA by PC1[68], cathepsin L[39], plasmin[37] and kallikrein [69]. Its abundance in the gut suggests that the permeability of the gut barrier is regulated by CST.

Antagonistic effects of PST and CST determine gut permeability. CgA is unique in having peptide domains that antagonize several functions including inflammation (CST suppresses while PST promotes)[23,26], obesity (CST inhibits while PST stimulates)[23,26] and sensitivity to insulin (CST increases while PST diminishes)[23,26,70,71]. Since CgA-KO mice lack both CST and PST, and we observed increased permeability in CST-KO mice and decreased permeability in CgA-KO mice, we reasoned that these opposing phenotypes are probably caused by the lack of PST in the CgA-KO mice. Indeed, the increased permeability in PST-treated CgA-KO mice and its reversal by co-treatments of PST and CST lead us to conclude that CST promotes the epithelial barrier function by counteracting PST.

CST tightens the gut barrier by its anti-inflammatory effect on the macrophages. While PST exerts deleterious impact on the gut mucosa, causing macrophage infiltration and inflammation[67], we found that lack of CST caused an increased expression of proinflammatory genes and proteins and treatment of CST-KO mice with CST reversed expression of those genes and proteins. Our findings are in congruence with the existing literature which showed increased TJ permeability in presence of increased

proinflammatory cytokines such as TNF-α, IL-1β, and IFN-γ[52,53,72]. Of course, a reduced

gut barrier function will facilitate the leakage of microbial components such as

lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and peptidoglycan (PGN) from the lumen of the gut into the

tissues, where they can bind to pattern recognition receptors and activate the immune

system. In turn, the increased inflammation can result in further leakage of the gut. For

instance, myosin light chain kinase (MLCK) plays critical roles in cytokine-mediated TJ

regulation by disrupting the interaction between TJ proteins and the actin-myosin

cytoskeleton[73,74] leading to damage of the TJ scaffold, which is crucial for the

maintenance of barrier integrity[74]. Inflammatory cytokine-induced intestinal barrier loss is

also believed to be due to endocytosis of TJ proteins[10], which also requires MLCK

transcription and activity at the TJ. In addition to the above mechanisms, TNF-α

suppresses TJ barrier function by decreasing expression of TJP1 protein, increasing

expression of CLDN2, and activating the NF-κB pathway[75]. IL-6 also increases

expression of CLDN2[76]. Besides TJP1, IFN-γ also reduces expression of OCLN in an

AMPK-dependent pathway to increase barrier permeability[11].

Emergence of CST as an important gastrointestinal peptide hormone. The present

study unequivocally demonstrates that CST is a key regulator of gut permeability since

the absence of CST (CST-KO) is accompanied by dysbiosis, increased gut permeability,

increased infiltration of macrophages and CD4$^+$ T cells and higher local inflammatory

gene and protein expression with the substitution of CST-KO mice with CST reversing

many of the above abnormalities. Do gut hormones simulate the actions of CST? While

Cholecystokinin (CCK) decreases mucosal production of proinflammatory cytokines

induced by LPS and increases the expression of seal forming TJ proteins (OCLN, CLDN

and JAM-A)[77], Ghrelin ameliorates sepsis-induced gut barrier dysfunction by activation of

vagus nerve via central ghrelin receptors[78] as well as by decreasing production of TNF-α

and IL-6[79]. Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) has also been shown to decrease

inflammation of enterocytes[80]. Vasoactive intestinal peptide, a neuropeptide found in

lymphocytes[81], mast cells[82], and enteric neurons of the gastrointestinal tract regulates

both epithelial homeostasis[83] and intestinal permeability[84]. The multitude of effects of CST

on gut physiology and their recapitulation by these well-investigated gut hormones
establishes CST as an important gastrointestinal peptide hormone.

CST and CgA regulate gut barrier function. CST-KO mice (loss of barrier integrity) are
insulin-resistant on normal chow diet[26] and CgA-KO mice (intact barrier integrity) are
supersensitive to insulin in both normal chow and on high fat diet[23,70]. Could metabolic
endotoxemia explain the above phenotypes? Besides gastrointestinal peptide hormones
and neuropeptides, TJ homeostasis is altered by proinflammatory cytokines, pathogenic
bacteria, and pathological conditions like insulin resistance and obesity. Firmicutes (e.g.,
Lactobacillus, *Clostridium*, and *Enterococcus*) and Bacteroidetes (e.g., *Bacteroides*)
constitute the major bacterial phyla in the gut[85]. Enteric pathogenic bacteria such as
Escherichia coli and *Salmonella typhimurium* alter the intestinal epithelial TJ barrier and
cause intestinal inflammation[86]. LPS alters expression and localization of TJ proteins such
as TJP1 and OCLN[87]. Since high fat diet-induced insulin-resistant mice and patients with
obesity or diabetes display elevated levels of Firmicutes and Proteobacteria compared to
the beneficial phylum Bacteroidetes[61], it is conceivable that dysbiosis (i.e., increased
Firmicutes and decreased Bacteroidetes) in CST-KO mice is due to their resistance to
insulin. This is further supported by the fact that *Akkermansia muciniphila*, which
regulates intestinal barrier integrity, is less abundant in diabetic individuals[88].
Furthermore, the daily administration of *A. muciniphila* is known to mitigate high fat-
induced gut barrier dysfunction [89]. Conversely, metabolic endotoxemia, resulting from the
loss of barrier integrity, contributes to insulin resistance and obesity[90,91]. The intact barrier
function in CgA-KO mice could thus be due to their heightened sensitivity to insulin.

Human calprotectin, a 24 kDa dimer, is formed by S100A8 and S100A9 monomers
and released from neutrophils and monocytes. In fact, this calprotectin complex
constitutes up to 60% of the soluble proteins in the cytosol of neutrophils[92] and fecal
calprotectin levels serve as a marker of intestinal inflammation[93,94]. Because of the
positive correlation between calprotectin concentration in gut lavage fluid and intestinal
permeability[95], calprotectin levels are also used to assess intestinal permeability.
Increased calprotectin levels have been reported to increase intestinal permeability [56].

Therefore, increased gene and protein expressions in the colon of CST-KO mice are in
line with the increased permeability in CST-KO mice.

Impact of CgA and CST in inflammatory bowel diseases. Elevated plasma CST levels
in patients suffering from Crohn's disease both in disease remission and flare-up as
compared to elevated precursor CgA in Crohn's disease flare-ups only suggests that
while CgA is generally upregulated in Crohn's disease, it is only efficiently processed to
CST during disease remission. Previous studies revealed higher plasma CgA levels
during flare-ups as compared to ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease patients in
remission[45]. These and our findings suggest a proteolytic switch, where CgA and CST
are excessively produced in Crohn's disease regardless of the disease state, but CgA is
converted more into the anti-inflammatory CST in quiescent Crohn's disease. The gut
barrier dysfunction in CST-KO mice is reminiscent of active Crohn's disease, because the
gut permeability provided by cell-cell junctions is generally diminished in IBD patients[96].
Based on our findings, we hypothesize that the higher levels of CST during Crohn's
disease remision promote anti-inflammatory responses and aid restoration of epithelial
cellular junctions.

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470 **Data and materials availability:** All data is available in the main text or the

471 supplementary materials. Raw data is available upon request via Geert van den Bogaart

472 (g.van.den.bogaart@rug.nl) and Sushil K. Mahata (smahata@health.ucsd.edu).

Figure legends

Fig. 1. CgA is efficiently processed to CST in the colon and CST levels correlate with Crohn's disease activity. (A) TEM micrographs (n=3) showing enteroendocrine cell DCV in colon of WT, CgA-KO and CST-KO mice, (**B**) fewer DCV in CgA-KO and CST-KO mice (1-way ANOVA) but enlarged DCV in CST-KO mice and smaller DCV in CgA-KO mice (>500 vesicles from 30 micrographs) (Kolmogorov-Smirnov test). DCV, dense core vesicles; Nuc, nucleus. (**C**) CgA protein and CST peptide levels in colon of WT and CST-KO mice. CgA levels are comparable between WT and CST-KO mice. CST level is markedly higher in WT mice and is undetectable in CST-KO mice (n=6; Welch's t test). (**D**) Expression of proteolytic genes (n=7). *Ctsl* and *Plg* are differentially expressed in colon of CgA-KO and CST-KO mice (n=8; 1-way ANOVA). (**E**) CgA and CST levels in EDTA-plasma of healthy donors (Control) and Crohn's disease patients (N=89) in remission or flare-up (2-way ANOVA). Ns, not significant; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Fig. 2. Impaired epithelial barrier function in CST-KO mice. (**A**) TEM micrographs (n=3) showing tight junction (TJ), adherens junction (AJ), and desmosomes (Des). MV, microvillus. (**B**) Morphometrical analyses (n=20-54) showing increased length and diameter of TJ, AJ and Des in CST-KO mice (Welch's t test). (C) Differential expression of genes in TJ (*Cldn2, Ocln, Marveld2, F11r*, and *Tjp1*), AJ (*Ctnna1*, *Ctnnb1*, and *Cdh1*) and Des (*Dsg2*) in colon of CST-KO mice compared to WT mice (n=8; 2-way ANOVA or Welch's t test). (D) Increased gut permeability as measured by FITC-dextran level in CST-KO compared to WT mice (n=8; Welch's t test). *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.

Fig. 3. Increased gut inflammation in colon of CST-KO mice. (A) TEM micrographs (n=3) showing increased number of immune cells in colon of CST-KO mice. Arrows indicate immune cells. Cap, capillary; Ec, enterocytes; Gc, goblet cells; LP, lamina propria. (**B**) Flow cytometry study (n=5-10) shows increased number of macrophages (CD45$^+$CD11b$^+$Emr1$^+$) and T cells (CD45$^+$CD4$^+$) in colon of CST-KO mice (n=5-10; Welch's t test). (**C**) Increased expression of proinflammatory genes (*Tnfa, Ifng, Cxcl1, Ccl2, Emr1, Itgam*, and *Itgax*), and (**D**) proinflammatory proteins (Tnfα, Ifnγ, Cxcl1, and

- 20 -

506 Ccl2) in colon of CST-KO mice (n=8; 2-way ANOVA). Decreased expression of (**E**) anti-
507 inflammatory genes (*Arg1, Il4, Tgfb1, Il10, Mrc1, Clec7a,* and *Clec10a*) (n=8; 2-way
508 ANOVA), and (**F**) anti-inflammatory protein (Il10) (n=8; Welch's *t* test) in colon of CST-
509 KO mice (n=8). (**G**) Increased expression of proinflammatory calprotectin gene and
510 protein in colon of CST-KO mice (n=5; Welch's *t* test). *p<0.05; **p<0.01; ***p<0.001.
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513 **Fig. 4. Increased ratio of Firmicutes to Bacteriodetes in CST-KO mice. (A)** Principal
514 CoordiNATE Analysis (PCoA) of microbiome data using Bray-Curtis distance of species
515 composition and abundance in individual WT (blue) and CST-KO (red) mice. **(C-D)**
516 Microbiota composition of cecum of WT and CST-KO mice for main bacteria phyla **(B)**
517 and the geni within the *Bacteriodetes* **(C)** and *Firmicutes* **(D).**
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Fig. 5. Exogenous CST can rescue epithelial barrier function and inflammation in
CST-KO mice. (A) Gut permeability as measured by FITC-Dextran plasma level in WT
and CST-KO mice treated with saline of CST (n=8; 2-way ANOVA). Relative mRNA
expression of genes involved in (**B**) tight junctions (*Cldn2*, *Ocln*, *Marveld2*, *F11r* and
Tjp1), (**C**) adherens junctions (*Ctnna1, Ctnnb1*, and *Cdh1*), and (**D**) desmosomes (*Dsg2*)
in colon of CST-KO mice treated with saline or CST (n=8; 2-way ANOVA or Welch's *t*
test). Decreased expression in colon of (**E**) proinflammatory genes (*Tnfa, Ifng, Cxcl1,*
Ccl2, Emr1, Itgam, and *Itgax*) and (**F**) proinflammatory proteins (Tnfα, Ifnγ, Cxcl1*,* and
Ccl2) after treatment of CST-KO mice with CST compared to treated with saline (n=8; 2-
way ANOVA). (**G**) Supplementation of CST-KO mice with CST increased colon
expression of (**G**) anti-inflammatory genes (*Arg1, Il4, Tgfb1, Il10, Mrc1, Clec7a,* and
Clec10a), and (**H**) anti-inflammatory protein (Il10) (n=8; 2-way ANOVA or Welch's *t* test).
Treatment of CST-KO mice with CST decreased colon expression of both (**I**) gene *s100a9*
coding for calprotectin subunit, and (**J**) calprotectin protein. *: P<0.05; **: P<0.01;
***P<0.001.
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Fig. 6. Increased epithelial barrier function and lower inflammation in CgA-KO mice.
(A) Electron microscopy micrographs of colon of WT and CgA-KO mice. TJ: tight junction.

AJ: adherens junction. Des: desmosomes. **(B)** Gut permeability as measured by FITC-
Dextran plasma level in WT and CgA-KO mice (n=7; Welch's *t* test). **(C)** Relative mRNA
expression of genes in tight junction (*Cldn2*, *Ocln*, *Marveld2*, *F11r,* and *Tjp1*) (n=8, 2-way
ANOVA), adherens junction (*Ctnna1, Ctnnb1*, and *Cdh1*) (n=8; 2-way ANOVA), and
desmosome (*Dsg2*) (n=8; Welch's *t* test) in colon of WT and CgA-KO mice. Comparable
expression of **(D)** proinflammatory genes (*Tnfa, Ifng, Cxcl1, Ccl2, Emr1, Itgam*, and *Itgax*),
and **(E)** proinflammatory proteins (Tnfα, Ifnγ, Cxcl1*,* and Ccl2) in colon of WT and CgA-
KO mice (n=8, 2-way ANOVA). Increased expression of **(F)** anti-inflammatory genes
(*Arg1, Tgfb1, Clec7a, and Clec10a*) and comparable expression of anti-inflammatory
genes (*Il4, Il10,* and *Mrc1*), and **(G)** anti-inflammatory protein (Il10) in colon of WT and
CgA-KO mice (n=8; 2-way ANOVA or Welch's *t* test). **(H)** Comparable expression of
s100a9 gene and decreased expression of calprotectin protein in CgA-KO colon (n=5;
Welch's *t* test). **: $P<0.01$; ***$P<0.001$.
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Fig. 7. Altered microbiome composition in CgA-KO mice and CST and PST
oppositely regulate gut permeability. (A) Microbiota composition of cecum of WT and
CgA-KO mice for main bacteria phyla and the geni within the Bacteriodetes and
Firmicutes. **(B)** Scheme of CgA indicating the positions of the peptide products vasostatin
1, PST, CST and serpinin. **(C)** Gut permeability as measured by FITC-Dextran plasma
levels in WT, CST-KO and CgA-KO mice treated with saline or CST (n=8; 2-way ANOVA)
and in CgA-KO mice treated with PST or a combination of PST and CST (n=8; 1-way
ANOVA). **(D)** Model of gut barrier regulation by CST and PST. ***$P<0.001$.
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Fig. 1

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Fig. 7