

Fat Tissue Regulates the Pathogenesis and Severity of Cardiomyopathy in Murine Chagas Disease

Running Title: Adipose tissue regulates chronic Chagas cardiomyopathy

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27 **ABSTRACT**

28
29 Chronic Chagas cardiomyopathy (CCC) caused by a parasite *Trypanosoma cruzi* is a life-threatening
30 disease in Latin America, for which there is no effective drug or vaccine. The pathogenesis of CCC is
31 complex and multifactorial. Previously, we demonstrated *T. cruzi* infected mice lose a significant
32 amount of fat tissue which correlates with progression of CCC. Based on this an investigation was
33 undertaken during both acute and chronic *T. cruzi* infection utilizing the FAT-ATTAC murine model
34 (that allows modulation of fat mass) to understand the consequences of the loss of adipocytes in the
35 regulation of cardiac parasite load, parasite persistence, inflammation, mitochondrial stress, ER
36 stress, survival, CCC progression and CCC severity. Mice were infected intraperitoneally with 5×10^4
37 and 10^3 trypomastigotes to generate acute and chronic Chagas models, respectively. Ablation of
38 adipocytes was carried out in uninfected and infected mice by treatment with AP21087 for 10 days
39 starting at 15DPI (acute infection) and at 65DPI (indeterminate infection). During acute infection,
40 cardiac ultrasound imaging, histological, and biochemical analyses demonstrated that fat ablation
41 increased cardiac parasite load, cardiac pathology and right ventricular dilation and decreased
42 survival. During chronic indeterminate infection ablation of fat cells increased cardiac pathology and
43 caused bi-ventricular dilation. These data demonstrate that dysfunctional adipose tissue not only
44 affects cardiac metabolism but also the inflammatory status, morphology and physiology of the
45 myocardium and increases the risk of progression and severity of CCC in murine Chagas disease.

46
47 **Keywords:** *Trypanosoma cruzi*, adipose tissue, fat ablation, cardiomyopathy, Chagas Disease

48
49 **Abbreviations:** CCC, Chronic Chagas cardiomyopathy; CD, Chagas disease; FAT-ATTAC, fat
50 apoptosis through targeted activation of caspase 8; *T. cruzi*, *Trypanosoma cruzi*; DPI, days post

- 51 infection; LVID, left ventricular internal diameter; RVID, right ventricular internal diameter; ER,
- 52 endoplasmic reticulum

54 AUTHOR SUMMARY

55

56 An estimated eight million individuals worldwide are chronically infected with *Trypanosoma cruzi*, the

57 causative agent of Chagas disease (CD). Of these infected individuals, 30% will develop chronic

58 Chagas cardiomyopathy (CCC), a major cause of morbidity and mortality in CD endemic regions for

59 which there is currently no effective drug or vaccine. The molecular mechanisms underlying CCC

60 pathogenesis, progression and severity are complex, multi-factorial and not completely understood.

61 Earlier, it was demonstrated that *T. cruzi* persists in adipose tissue, alters adipocyte physiology, and

62 causes loss of body fat mass in *T. cruzi* infected mice with CCC. In this study, the authors examined

63 the role of visceral fat pad (adipose tissue) in regulating the pathogenic signalling in the development

64 and progression of CCC using a fat mass modulatable transgenic mouse CD model. Loss of fat cells

65 increased cardiac lipid load and deregulated cardiac lipid metabolism leading to mitochondrial

66 oxidative stress and endoplasmic reticulum stress and severe CCC. In addition, loss of fat cells

67 increased cardiac parasite load during acute infection and altered immune signalling in the hearts of

68 infected mice during chronic infection. These discoveries underscore the importance of adipose

69 tissue in the development of CCC.

72 73 INTRODUCTION

74
75 Chronic Chagas cardiomyopathy (CCC) is a devastating heart disease caused by infection with
76 *Trypanosoma cruzi*. Following initial infection cardiomyopathy can develop in approximately 30% of
77 patients after a prolonged duration of time. The disease severity varies in patients with chronic
78 Chagas Disease (CD) and the spectrum of CCC includes EKG abnormalities, myocarditis, cardiac
79 hypertrophy, progressive myocardial fibrosis, left ventricular dilatation and dysfunction, ventricular
80 aneurysm, congestive heart failure, thromboembolism, ventricular arrhythmias, cardiac conduction
81 system abnormalities and sudden cardiac death. CCC is a leading cause of death related to
82 cardiovascular diseases in the CD endemic regions of Latin America. Globalization has increased
83 the cases of patients with CCC/CD in developed countries due to immigration. Currently, CD affects
84 6 to 8 million people globally.

85 Despite this disease being described for over 100 years, the cellular and molecular
86 mechanisms contributing and driving the various disease manifestations, e.g ventricular hypertrophy
87 to severe multi-ventricular dilation, are still not completely understood. Following infection, the
88 development of acute myocarditis is attributed mainly to cardiac parasite load and pro-inflammatory
89 signaling. However, the cellular mechanisms involved in the pathogenesis of the clinical
90 manifestations of chronic CD are multifactorial and while the persistence of parasites and the
91 presence of inflammatory signaling, which varies among patients, is involved, other mechanisms such
92 as inflammation-induced cell death followed by fibrosis are important in the development of CCC.

93 Lipids and lipotoxicity have now been recognized to have a role in various heart diseases [1, 2]
94 Previously, our research group demonstrated that cardiac lipidopathy leading to endoplasmic
95 reticulum (ER) stress and mitochondrial oxidative stress is a factor in the development of CCC [3]. *T.*
96 *cruzi* infected mice that are treated with the ER stress inhibitor, 2-Aminopurine or the lipid
97 biosynthesis inhibitor Betulin have a significant modulation in cardiomyopathy, mitochondrial stress,

98 and ER stress during chronic infection [4]. Cardiac lipid levels are regulated by many intrinsic and
99 external factors including genetics, diet, and metabolic status [5]. High-fat diet differentially regulates
100 cardiac parasite load, lipid accumulation, and pathology and survival rate during acute and chronic *T.*
101 *cruzi* infection in mice and this effect is dependent on the observed body fat mass [6].

102 Adipose tissue (fat tissue) and the liver play important roles in maintaining and regulating
103 cardiac lipid metabolism. *T. cruzi* persists in adipose tissue and alters the functions of adipose tissue
104 by regulating lipolysis and inflammation [7-9]. Cardiac fat tissue (epicardial and pericardial fat tissue)
105 is located in proximity to heart muscle and probably plays an important role in regulating cardiac
106 parasite load, inflammation, and metabolic functions [10]. Clinical studies have shown an association
107 between body mass index (BMI), fat mass, dyslipidemia, nutritional status, and CCC severity [11, 12].
108 However, it is not known whether adipocytes directly regulate the pathogenesis of CCC. In the
109 current study, our laboratory group investigated the role of altered adipocyte levels and physiology,
110 using a fat-amendable transgenic murine FAT-ATTAC (fat apoptosis through targeted activation of
111 caspase 8) model, on the regulation of cardiac parasite load, parasite persistence, inflammation,
112 mitochondrial stress, ER stress, and CCC progression and severity, and survival during acute and
113 chronic *T. cruzi* infection [13-15]. FAT-ATTAC mice are indistinguishable from their wild-type
114 littermates; however, apoptosis of adipocytes can be induced at any developmental stage by
115 administration of an FK1012 analog, leading to the dimerization of a membrane-bound, adipocyte-
116 specific caspase 8-FK506 binding protein (FKBP) fusion. Within 2 weeks of the dimerizer
117 administration, FAT-ATTAC mice have severely reduced (95%) levels of circulating adipokines and
118 substantially reduced levels of adipose tissue [13, 14]. This model has allowed us to directly test the
119 role of adipocytes and adipose tissue physiology in regulating cardiac pathology, parasite load
120 burden, and immune status by selectively ablating fat tissue during acute and indeterminate stages of
121 *T. cruzi* infection in a murine model. Ablation of fat cells increased cardiac parasite load, cardiac
122 pathology and right ventricular dilation and decreases survival in the infected mice during acute

infection. To investigate the effect of loss of fat cells in the transition from the indeterminate stage to the determinate chronic stage, fat ablation was induced in the infected mice at the early stage of chronic infection. Ablation of fat cells increased cardiac pathology and caused bi-ventricular dilation in infected mice during early chronic stages of infection. Loss of adipocytes contributed to cardiac lipidopathy and associated mitochondrial and ER stress and increased the risk of a severe form of CCC. These results suggest that adipocytes participate in the pathogenesis and progression of CCC via multiple signaling pathways.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

All experimental animal protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use and Institutional Biosafety Committees of Hackensack University Medical Center (IACUC #282) and Rutgers University (IACUC# PROTO999900866) and adhere to the National Research Council guidelines.

Animal model and experimental design: The Brazil strain of *T cruzi* (DTU1, 21) was maintained by passage in C3H/HeJ mice (Jackson Laboratories, Bar Harbor, ME) [16]. The transgenic FAT-ATTAC mice (generous gift of Dr. Scherer, Texas) were bred at New Jersey Medical School, Rutgers University. Mice were maintained on a 12-h light, 12-h dark cycle and housed in groups of two to four, with unlimited access to water and chow (no. 5058; LabDiet). 6- to 7-wk-old male (both male and female) FAT-ATTAC mice were infected with trypomastigotes of the Brazil strain to generate the murine models of acute and early chronic Chagas disease (CD) as described below (Supporting Figure 1):

Acute CD model: Mice (n=20) were infected intraperitoneally with 5×10^4 trypomastigotes. A separate group of uninfected mice (n=20) were included as controls. At 15 days post infection (DPI),

148 one set of infected and uninfected mice (n=10/group) were administered AP21087 (see below) to
149 induce fat ablation. Mice were sacrificed 30 DPI and hearts and visceral fat pads (epididymal fat
150 pads) were harvested. The experiment was performed twice using the same number of mice in each
151 group.

152 **Indeterminate/early chronic CD model:** Mice (n=25, expecting 35% mortality during acute
153 stage) were infected intraperitoneally with 10^3 trypomastigotes. A separate group of uninfected mice
154 (n=20) were included as controls. At 65 DPI, one set of infected and uninfected mice (n=10/group)
155 were administered AP21087 (see below) to induce fat ablation. Mice were sacrificed 90 DPI and
156 hearts and visceral fat pads (epididymal fat pads) were harvested. Portions of the harvested tissues
157 were fixed in 10% formalin for histological analysis. Portions of tissues were also stored immediately
158 at -80°C for total RNA isolation and protein extraction. A flow chart describing the experimental
159 design is presented as Supporting Figure 1.

160
161 **Protocol for fat ablation:** AP21087 ((B/B homodimerizer, Takara Bio, CA, USA) was administered
162 by intra-peritoneal (ip) injection at a dose of $0.5\ \mu\text{g/g}$ of body weight once daily for 10 d starting at
163 15DPI (acute CD model) and at 65DPI (indeterminate CD model).

164
165 **Cardiac ultrasound analysis:** Cardiac ultrasound imaging of the mice was performed at 30 DPI
166 (acute stage of infection) and 90 DPI (early chronic stage of infection) using a Vevo 2100
167 ultra-high-frequency ultrasound system (Visual Sonics Inc, Toronto, Canada) at the Rutgers
168 University Molecular Imaging Center, as previously published [3]. B-mode, M-mode, and pulse wave
169 Doppler image files were collected from both the parasternal long-axis and short-axis views.
170 Morphometric measurements were determined using image analysis tools available in the Vevo
171 workstation software.

173 **Histological analyses:** Freshly isolated tissues were fixed with phosphate-buffered formalin for a
174 minimum of 48 hours and then embedded in paraffin wax. Hematoxylin and eosin and Masson
175 chrome staining were performed, and the images were captured as previously published [7]. Four to
176 six images/section of each tissue were scored blindly. For each heart sample, histologic evidence of
177 pathology was classified in terms of infiltrated immune cells, lipid droplets, cell death and presence of
178 amastigote nests and was graded on a six-point scale ranging from 0 to 5+. For each fat tissue
179 sample, histologic evidence of pathology was classified in terms of infiltrated immune cells and size of
180 lipid droplets was graded on a six-point scale ranging from 0 to 5+.

181
182 **Immunoblot analysis:** Protein lysates of the heart and adipose tissue samples were prepared and
183 immunoblot analysis performed as published previously [7]. Adiponectin-specific mouse monoclonal
184 antibody (1:1000 dilution, AB22554, Abcam), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR)- γ
185 specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, C26H12, Cell Signaling), PPAR- α -specific
186 mouse monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, MA1-822, Thermo scientific), Hormone sensitive lipase
187 (HSL)-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, D6W5S, Cell Signaling), Phospho-HSL
188 (Ser563)-specific rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #4139, Cell Signaling), Adipose
189 Triglyceride lipase (ATGL)-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, 30A4, Cell Signaling),
190 F4/80-specific mouse monoclonal antibody (1:500 dilution, sc-377009, Santa Cruz Biotechnology,
191 INC) ,Tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α -specific rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:2000 dilution, AB6671,
192 Abcam), Fatty acid binding protein (FABP)-4-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution,
193 D25B3, Cell Signaling), BNIP3 specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #3769, Cell
194 Signaling), Caspase 3 specific polyclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #9662, Cell Signaling), Acyl-CoA
195 synthetase (ACSL)-1-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #9189, Cell Signaling),
196 CETP-specific mouse monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, ATM192, Abcam), ATP binding cassette
197 transporter (ABCA)-1-specific mouse monoclonal antibody (1:500 dilution, AB.H10, Abcam),

198 Phospho-perilipin1 (Ser522)-specific mouse monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #4856, Vala
199 Sciences), Cytochrome c-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, 136F3, Cell Signaling),
200 Anti-prohibitin (PHB)-1-rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #2426, Cell Signaling), Superoxide
201 dismutase (SOD)-1-specific mouse monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, 71G8, Cell Signaling), Heat
202 shock protein (HSP)-60-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, D6F1, Cell Signaling),
203 Succinate dehydrogenase subunit A (SDHA)-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution,
204 D6J9M, Cell Signaling), Pyruvate Dehydrogenase-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000
205 dilution, C54G1, Cell Signaling), CCAAT-enhancer binding protein (CHOP)-specific mouse
206 monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, L63F7, Cell Signaling), Binding immunoglobulin protein (BIP)-
207 specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, C50B12, Cell Signaling), Low density lipoprotein
208 receptor (LDLR)--specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, ab52818, Abcam), Acetyl CoA
209 carboxylase specific rabbit monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, C83B10, Cell Signaling), acetyl-
210 coenzyme A acetyl transferase (ACAT)-1-specific rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, #44276,
211 Cell Signaling), Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1A (CPT1A)-specific mouse monoclonal antibody
212 (1:1000 dilution, 8F6AE9, Abcam) and interferon gamma (IFN γ)-specific rabbit monoclonal antibody
213 (1:1000 dilution, EPR1108, Abcam) were used as primary antibodies. Horseradish peroxidase
214 (HRP)-conjugated goat anti-mouse immunoglobulin (1:2000 dilution, Thermo Scientific) or HRP-
215 conjugated goat anti-rabbit immunoglobulin (1:2000 dilution, Thermo Scientific) were used to detect
216 specific protein bands (as noted in the figure legends) using a chemiluminescence system.
217 Guanosine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor (GDI) (1: 10,000 dilution, 71-0300, rabbit polyclonal,
218 Invitrogen, CA) and a secondary HRP-conjugated goat anti-rabbit antibody (1:2000 dilution,
219 Amersham Biosciences) were used to normalize protein loading.

220
221 **Statistical analysis:** For immunoblotting analysis, the densitometric values of the immunoreactive
222 bands (immunoblotting) were analyzed with the Image Studio lite package V5.2 (LI-COR Biosciences,

223 Lincoln, NE). Statistical analyses were performed using a Student t test (Microsoft Excel), as
224 appropriate, to compare between 2 groups. Results were expressed as mean \pm SE. Significant
225 differences were reported for p values between <0.05 and <0.001 .

226

228
229 **RESULTS:**

230
231 **Loss in adipocytes affects cardiac pathology and survival rate in *T. cruzi* infected mice during**
232 **acute infection.**

233
234 Mice infected with 5×10^4 parasites (Brazil strain) developed acute myocarditis and cardiomyopathy by
235 25 DPI. The effect of loss of adipocytes on cardiac pathology and survival in infected mice was
236 analysed by ablating fat cells via induced apoptosis for 10 days (between 15 and 25 DPI) [7, 17]
237 (Supporting Figure 1). Histological analysis demonstrated the presence of amastigote nests and
238 increased infiltration of immune cells in the hearts of *T. cruzi* infected mice (Figure 1A and Supporting
239 Figure 2A). Fat ablation during acute infection significantly increased parasite load, the number of
240 infiltrated immune cells and enhanced cell damage compared with infected fat-unablated (infected)
241 mice as demonstrated by the histologic analysis (Figure 1A and Supporting Figure 2A, B). *T. cruzi*
242 infection increased the accumulation of macro lipid bodies, whereas, the fat ablation increased the
243 accumulation of micro lipid bodies in the hearts of infected mice as demonstrated by histological
244 analysis (Figure 1B).

245
246 Cardiac ultrasound imaging analysis was performed to evaluate the effect of fat ablation on
247 cardiac morphology during acute infection (Figure 2). This morphological analysis demonstrated no
248 significant change in the left ventricle internal diameter diastole (LVIDd) in mice with and without
249 infection and with and without fat ablation. The LVID systole was reduced ($p < 0.05$) in the infected fat-
250 ablated mice compared with the mice in other groups. The right ventricle internal diameter (RVID)
251 both diastole and systole increased ($p < 0.05$ and $p < 0.05$, respectively) in the infected mice compared
252 with uninfected fat un-ablated (control mice). Fat ablation in the infected mice increased RVID
253 diastole and RVID systole compared to control *T. cruzi* infected mice (1.5-fold, $p < 0.05$ and 1.5-fold,

p<0.05) as well compared to the uninfected control (3-fold, p<0.01 and 2.5-fold, p<0.001) mice. Fat ablation increased RVID in uninfected mice compared with fat uninfected unablated (control) mice. Fat-ablation increased the mortality of *T. cruzi* infected mice resulting in only a 50% survival rate compared with the survival rate in the infected fat ablated (65%) mice (Supporting figure 2C). Thus, fat ablation during acute infection caused increased cardiac lipid accumulation, increased infiltration of immune cells, increased cardiac cell death and increased parasite load, increased cardiomyopathy and increased mortality in *T. cruzi* infected mice.

***T. cruzi* infection alters adipocyte morphology and adipose tissue physiology during the chronic stage of infection.**

Mice infected with 10^3 *T. cruzi* (Brazil strain) generally display cardiomyopathy around 90 DPI, which we define as the early chronic phase of infection. We analyzed the effect of fat ablation during the indeterminate stage (65 DPI) on the pathogenesis and progression of cardiomyopathy at 90DPI (early chronic infection). Histologic analysis of adipose tissue demonstrated that adipocytes in infected mice varied in size ranging from 5 – 130um compared with the uniformly distributed adipocytes (size ranging between 50 -100um) in control mice (Figure 3A, B). Histologic analysis demonstrated increased levels of infiltrated immune cells (p value) in the adipose tissues of infected mice compared with uninfected mice (Figure 3A, B). Some of the adipocytes had multi-ocular lipid droplets and were surrounded by infiltrating immune cells (Figure 3A). Fat ablation via induced apoptosis further increased the number of dead adipocytes and infiltrated immune cells seen by histologic analysis (Figure 3A, B).

The effect of infection and fat-ablation on adipogenesis in adipose tissue was then analysed. Immunoblot analyses of fat tissues demonstrated significant alterations in the protein levels of adipogenic markers, such as adiponectin, FABP4 and PPAR γ in *T.cruzi*-infected mice compared with

control mice (Figure 4). The levels of adiponectin were reduced ($p < 0.05$), FABP4 levels were increased ($p < 0.01$) and PPAR γ levels were no changed during infection compared to the levels in control mice (Figure 4A). However, the levels of adiponectin, FABP4 and PPAR γ were all increased in the fat tissues of infected fat-ablated mice compared with infected mice (11-fold $p < 0.001$, 1.5-fold $p < 0.01$, and 1.4-fold $p < 0.01$, respectively), as well compared to control mice (5-fold $p < 0.01$, 7-fold $p < 0.001$, and 1.7-fold $p < 0.01$, respectively) (Figure 4A).

We analyzed the effect of infection and fat-ablation on lipolysis in adipose tissue (Figure 4B). Immunoblot analysis demonstrated a reduction in the levels of lipases such as ATGL, HSL and p-HSL (1.7-fold $p < 0.01$, 2.5-fold, $p < 0.001$ and 1.2-fold, $p < 0.01$) in the fat tissues of infected mice as compared to control mice (Figure 4B). Fat ablation increased the levels of ATGL (1.7-fold, $p < 0.01$) in infected mice compared with infected fat-unablated mice, and did not show any significant difference compared to control mice. Interestingly, the levels of p-perilipin and PPAR α (2.33-fold $p < 0.05$, and 1.7-fold and $p < 0.001$, respectively) were increased in the adipose tissue of infected mice compared with control mice as demonstrated by immunoblot analysis (Figure 4B). Fat-ablation in infected mice increased the levels of p-perilipin and PPAR α (1.4-fold $p < 0.001$, and 2.2-fold and $p < 0.001$, respectively) compared with infected mice and also compared to control mice (4-fold $p < 0.001$, and 3.8-fold and $p < 0.001$, respectively).

These results suggest that persistence of infiltrated immune cells in adipose tissue alters adipose tissue physiology by causing an imbalance between adipogenesis and lipolysis.

Chronic *T. cruzi* infection induces inflammation and cell death in adipose tissue via necrosis and apoptosis

The effect of the loss of adipocytes and increased lipolysis on the infiltration of immune cells and inflammatory signaling into adipose tissue during infection and fat-ablation was evaluated (Figure 5).

304 Immunoblot analysis demonstrated increased levels of infiltrated macrophages as indicated by F4/80
305 levels in the adipose tissue of infected mice (6.2-fold, $p < 0.01$) and fat ablation in infected mice further
306 increased the levels of macrophages (12.5-fold, $p < 0.01$), compared to control mice (Figure 5A).
307 Although, the levels of macrophages were increased in infected mice, the levels of INF_{γ} and TNF_{α} did
308 not increase and TNF_{α} was reduced (1.2- fold, $p < 0.01$) compared to control mice (Figure 5A).
309 However, fat-ablation in infected mice increased the levels of TNF_{α} (1.2-fold, $p < 0.05$) compared to
310 infected mice (Figure 5A). Immunoblot analysis showed a significant increase in the levels of the
311 necrosis marker BNIP3 (1.8-fold, $p < 0.001$) in the adipose tissue of *T. cruzi*-infected mice as
312 compared to control mice (Figure 5B). This further increased in infected fat-ablated mice as
313 compared to both infected and control mice (1.8-fold, $p < 0.001$ and 4-fold, $p < 0.001$, respectively)
314 (Figure 5B).

315 There was an increase in apoptosis as determined by the apoptosis marker, cleaved
316 Caspase3 (6-fold, $p < 0.01$), with chronic *T. cruzi* infection as compared to uninfected mice (Figure 5B).
317 As expected, fat ablation further increased both cleaved caspase3 (2-fold, $p < 0.001$ and 12-fold,
318 $p < 0.001$ respectively) and caspase 3 (2-fold, $p < 0.001$ and 2-fold, $p < 0.001$ respectively) in infected
319 mice as compared with infected fat-unablated and control mice (Figure 5B).

320 These data indicate that the presence of dysfunctional adipocytes increases infiltration of
321 immune cells and induces adipocyte cell death via necrosis and apoptosis in adipose tissue during
322 the indeterminate/early chronic infection in *T. cruzi* infected mice.

323
324 **Fat ablation increases adipogenic signaling and elevates lipid levels in the hearts during the**
325 **early chronic stage in *T. cruzi* infected mice.**

326
327 The effect of *T. cruzi* infection on cardiac adipogenesis, lipid levels and metabolism during the early
328 chronic stage (90DPI) was evaluated in our murine CD model (Figure 6). Immunoblot analysis

329 demonstrated an increase in adipogenic markers, such as FABP4 (2-fold, $p < 0.05$), PPAR γ (2-fold,
330 $p < 0.001$) and adiponectin (3-fold, $p < 0.001$) in the hearts of infected mice as compared to control mice
331 (Figure 6A). Fat ablation further increased the levels of FABP4 (2-fold, $p < 0.01$ and 2-fold, $p < 0.001$
332 respectively), and PPAR γ (2-fold, $p < 0.01$ and 5-fold, $p < 0.001$) in the hearts of infected mice as
333 compared with both infected and control mice (Figure 6A).

334 Immunoblot analysis demonstrated an increase in the cardiac LDL levels in infected mice,
335 though it was not significant compared with control mice at 90DPI (Figure 6B). However, fat-ablation
336 significantly increased the levels of LDL in the hearts of infected mice compared with control mice
337 (1.5-fold, $p < 0.01$) (Figure 6B). Although, the levels of LDL were not significantly increased in the
338 hearts of infected mice at 90DPI, the levels of p-perilipin and PPAR α were significantly increased (3-
339 fold, $p < 0.001$ and 2.5-fold, $p < 0.001$) compared with control mice, suggesting that the infiltrated lipids
340 might have been degraded and oxidized at this time point (Figure 6B). Fat-ablation in infected mice
341 further increased the levels of PPAR α (1.1-fold, $p < 0.001$) compared with infected mice and also with
342 control mice (3-fold, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 6B). Increased activation of p-perilipin and PPAR α should
343 increase the levels of enzymes involved in lipid catabolism and mitochondrial β -oxidation. However,
344 we observed reduced levels of long chain fatty acyl-CoA ligase (ACSL) and acetyl Co-A carboxylase
345 (1.5-fold, $p < 0.01$ and 1.5-fold, $p < 0.01$) in the hearts of infected mice compared with control mice.
346 Interestingly, the levels of ABCA1, which regulates the intracellular cholesterol efflux and CETP
347 (involved in cholesterol esterification) were increased in the hearts of infected mice (50-fold, $p < 0.001$
348 and 3.2-fold, $p < 0.001$) compared with control mice (Figure 6B). Fat-ablation in infected mice did not
349 increase the levels of proteins involved in fatty acid catabolism except for CPT1 (2-fold, $p < 0.01$),
350 however, it increased the levels of ABCA1 and CETP (2.4-fold, $p < 0.01$ and 1.5-fold, $p < 0.05$)
351 compared with infected fat-unablated mice.

Fat ablation increases mitochondrial dysfunction, ER stress and inflammation in the hearts of chronically infected mice.

The increase in cardiac lipid levels leads to over activation of mitochondria and can cause mitochondrial stress resulting to elevation of ER stress. The cardiac level of proteins involved in mitochondrial function were evaluated including cytochrome C, pyruvate dehydrogenase, heat shock protein 60 (HSP60), superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1), Prohibitin (PHB1), succinate dehydrogenase (SDHA1) (Figure 7A). We observed a decrease in cytochrome C (1.33-fold and $p < 0.05$), pyruvate dehydrogenase (1.25-fold and $p < 0.01$) and SDHA (1.1-fold and $p < 0.05$) in the hearts of *T. cruzi* infected mice compared to control mice (Figure 7A). The levels of cytochrome C, pyruvate dehydrogenase and SDHA did not significantly change in the hearts between the infected fat-ablated mice and infected mice. The levels of HSP60 and SOD1 increased (1.1-fold, $p < 0.001$ and 2.6-fold, $p < 0.001$, respectively) in the hearts of infected mice compared to control mice (Figure 7A). Fat ablation further elevated the levels of HSP60 and SOD1 in the infected mice (1.2-fold, $p < 0.05$ and 1.2-fold, $p < 0.05$ respectively) compared with infected mice as well as control mice (1.4-fold, $p < 0.01$ and 3-fold, $p < 0.001$) (Figure 7A).

Immunoblot analysis demonstrated an increase in the levels of ER stress markers, BIP (2-fold, $p < 0.01$) and CHOP (9-fold, $p < 0.01$), in *T. cruzi* infected heart tissue as compared to control mice (Figure 7B). The levels of CHOP further increased in the hearts of infected fat-ablated mice as compared with both infected (1.5-fold, $p < 0.05$) and control (6-fold, $p < 0.01$) mice (Figure 7B). Increased mitochondrial stress and ER stress are associated with infiltration of immune cells in the hearts of infected mice, as demonstrated by an increase in the levels of the macrophage marker F4/80 (4-fold, $p < 0.001$) compared to amount seen in control mice (Figure 7C). However, the levels of pro-inflammatory markers such as $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and $\text{IFN}\gamma$ demonstrated a significant decrease and no significant change respectively, in the hearts of infected mice compared to control mice (Figure 7C).

378 Interestingly, the levels of TNF α (1.25-fold, $p < 0.01$) further decreased and IFN γ increased (2-fold,
379 $p < 0.001$) in the heart of infected fat-ablated mice compared to infected mice (Figure 7C).

380 These data demonstrated that loss in fat cells during the indeterminate stage led to significant
381 effects on mitochondrial function, increased ER stress and increased infiltration of IFN γ -producing
382 immune cells in the hearts of *T. cruzi* infected mice during the early stage of chronic infection (90DPI).

383 384 **Loss in fat cells exacerbates cardiac pathology and causes bi-ventricular enlargement in the** 385 **hearts of chronically infected mice.**

386
387 Histologic analysis of myocardium demonstrated significant changes in the morphology seen in heart
388 sections of infected mice compared to that seen in control mice. H&E staining demonstrated
389 presence of infiltrated immune cells, fibrosis, increased accumulation of macro-lipid droplets,
390 vasculitis and hemorrhage, and wide separation of the cardiac muscle fibers with an increase in the
391 inter-fiber spaces in the heart sections of infected mice compared to control mice (Figure 8A, B and
392 Supporting Figure 3). Fat ablation increased hyaline degeneration, disruption and fragmentation of
393 myofibril striations and further significantly elevated cardiac damage (increased dead cells and
394 infiltrated immune cells), and accumulation of micro-lipid droplets (Figure 8A, B). Masson trichrome-
395 stained sections demonstrated increased fibrosis in the myocardium of the infected mice compared
396 with control mice (data not shown). However, no significant change in the levels of fibrosis was
397 observed between the infected fat-ablated and infected fat-unablated mice (Supporting Figure 3).

398 Cardiac ultrasound imaging at 90DPI demonstrated a slight increase (no significant change) in
399 LVID (both systole and diastole) in infected mice compared to control mice (LVIDs has $p < 0.05$)
400 (Figure 8C). In contrast, RVID of these hearts was significantly increased (both diastole and systole)
401 in infected mice compared to control mice at 90DPI (Figure 8C)/ Fat ablation during the
402 indeterminate stage in these infected mice significantly increased both LVID and RVID (diastole and

403 systole) compared with both control and infected mice (Figure 8C} The LVID diastole and systole in
404 infected fat-ablated mice were increased 1.1-fold ($p<0.05$) and 1.2-fold ($p<0.05$) respectively,
405 compared with infected mice (Figure 8C). The increase in RVID diastole and systole in infected fat-
406 ablated mice were 1.1-fold ($p<0.01$) and 1.1-fold ($p<0.01$) respectively, compared with infected mice
407 (Figure 8C).

408 These data suggest that loss of fat cells during indeterminate stage increases the risk and
409 progression of cardiomyopathy at the chronic stage of *T. cruzi* infection.

411 DISCUSSION

412
413 Acute myocarditis is mainly due to cardiac parasite load, infiltration of immune cells and inflammation
414 leading to hypertrophic cardiomyopathy whereas, the pathogenesis and progression of chronic dilated
415 cardiomyopathy is multifactorial. The clinical manifestations of chronic cardiomyopathy vary ranging
416 from mild hypertrophic myocarditis to severe form of biventricular dilated cardiomyopathy. The effects
417 of cardiac lipid accumulation on mitochondrial dysfunction and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress in
418 the progression of dilated cardiomyopathy have been previously described [3, 4, 18]. In addition, it is
419 known that mice infected with *T. cruzi* lose a significant amount of body fat and this may contribute to
420 the pathogenesis of cardiomyopathy [16]. However, the specific role of adipocytes on cardiac lipid
421 metabolism, mitochondrial and ER functions, inflammation and the pathogenesis of cardiomyopathy
422 in chronic CD is currently not known.

423 To test the hypothesis that acute loss in fat cells increases the risk of cardiac pathogenesis, we
424 used *T. cruzi* infected FAT-ATTAC mice in both acute and indeterminate/chronic murine CD models.
425 Herein, we showed that ablation of fat cells during acute infection (mice infected with 5×10^4 parasites)
426 significantly increased the accumulation of micro-vesicular lipids, infiltration of immune cells, cardiac

427 parasite load, led to an altered cardiac morphology (elevated LV and RV internal diameters) and
428 reduced survival compared to infected mice without fat ablation (Figure 1 and 2).

429 The observation of reduced survival in fat ablation is in agreement with the previous studies
430 where the authors showed that adipocytes/adipose tissue protected mice from acute *T. cruzi*
431 infection, when mice were fed a high-fat diet, by acting as a reservoir for the parasites and sparing
432 the heart from both parasites and inflammation.⁷ During acute infection, a high-fat diet increased the
433 amount of body fat in mice compared with mice fed a control diet [7], however, this high-fat diet
434 aggravated the complications of cardiomyopathy in the chronic CD murine model [6]. Although, the
435 chronic mice were fed a high-fat diet, they displayed a significant loss of body weight suggesting that
436 loss in body weight may contribute to CCC [6]. Herein, we showed that ablation of fat cells during the
437 indeterminate stage increases the risk of developing chronic cardiomyopathy and elevates severity of
438 the disease which also agrees with clinical data showing significant loss in body weight and fat mass
439 in patients with a severe form of CCC.

440 In our previous study, and confirmed by other authors, *T. cruzi* has been demonstrated to
441 reside in adipose tissue and alter adipose tissue physiology during both acute and chronic infection in
442 the murine CD model [16, 19, 20]. Adipocytes form a nutritional niche for parasites and an abrupt
443 loss in adipocytes may trigger the translocation of parasites and stored lipids from adipose tissue into
444 other organs including heart. Loss of adipocytes may trigger the infiltration of immune cells and
445 induce pro-inflammatory signaling in adipose tissue [16]. In the current study, we demonstrated that
446 fat-ablation during acute infection significantly increased parasite load and lipid droplets in the hearts
447 of infected mice compared with the hearts of infected fat-unablated mice (Figure 1). Acute infection
448 per se causes significant loss in adipocytes and induces pro-inflammatory signaling in adipose tissue
449 and alters adipose tissue physiology.²⁰ Although, the morphology and physiology of adipose tissue
450 improves after the acute infection, due to the persistence of parasites in the adipose tissue, the
451 adipocytes are compromised and not fully functional during the indeterminate/chronic stage.

452 Adipocyte physiology depends on the fine regulated balance between adipogenesis and
453 lipolysis, which is deregulated during the indeterminate/chronic stages of infection. We observed the
454 presence of disintegrated adipocytes with multi-ocular lipid droplets and infiltrated immune cells in
455 adipose tissue at 90 DPI (Figure 3). The phenotype of adipocytes in the adipose tissue of infected
456 mice was like pre-adipocytes as evident by increased levels of FABP4 and reduced levels of
457 adipogenic markers of matured adipocytes such as adiponectin and PPAR γ compared to control mice
458 (Figure 4). However, fat ablation increased the levels of FABP4, adiponectin and PPAR γ indicating
459 that apoptotic cell death of adipocytes induces pro-adipogenic signaling. Adipose tissue from mice
460 with chronic infection demonstrated a deregulated lipolysis pathway with decreased levels of HSL but
461 increased levels of p-perilipin and PPAR α . Perilipin is a regulatory protein that coats and protects the
462 lipid droplets from lipolysis in adipocytes in the basal state [21]. Phosphorylation of perilipin exposes
463 lipid droplets to HSL and activates lipolysis [22]. Although the levels of HSL and pHSL were lower in
464 the adipose tissue of chronic infected mice compared to control mice, the ratio of pHSL/HSL was
465 greater in infected mice compared with control mice. These data suggest that phosphorylated perilipin
466 may be involved in the regulation of lipolysis and lipid oxidation as evident by pHSL/HSL ratio and the
467 levels of PPAR α , respectively (Figure 4). Fat ablation induced by apoptosis significantly elevated
468 cardiac lipid droplets suggesting that the activated cell death pathways in adipose tissues of chronically
469 infected mice may cause the chronic accumulation of lipid droplets in the hearts (Figure 5 and Figure
470 8). These combined observations suggest that *T. cruzi* infection compromises adipocytes causing a
471 leaky phenotype and any further shock to adipocytes during the indeterminate stage of infection may
472 elevate lipolysis/loss of lipid droplets in adipose tissue and increase lipid accumulation in the hearts.

473 In previous studies, we and others had shown an accumulation of lipid droplets in the hearts of
474 chronic CD mice and CD patients [17, 23]. This accumulation of lipid droplets in the myocardium
475 increases mitochondrial oxidative stress and ER stress, leads to mitochondrial dysfunction, cardiac
476 cell death and fibrosis, and results in dilated cardiomyopathy. Interestingly, in the current study we

477 found that an abundance of micro-vesicular lipid droplets in the hearts of infected fat-ablated mice
478 and mostly macro-vesicular lipid droplets in the hearts of infected fat-unablated mice. These changes
479 in lipid droplet sizes were associated with altered adipogenic signaling and lipid metabolism in the
480 hearts of infected mice with and without fat ablation. Fat ablation significantly increased pre-
481 adipocyte differentiation associated FABP4 and PPAR γ signaling in the hearts and induced a
482 breakdown of lipid droplets (causing micro-vesicular lipid droplets) as evident by increased levels of
483 p-perilipin in the infected fat-ablated mice (Figure 6). Adipogenic adiponectin regulates PPAR α [24].
484 Although the levels of fatty acid oxidation marker PPAR α increases in the hearts, the catabolic
485 pathways of fatty acid oxidation are impaired during the early chronic stage as shown by the
486 decreased levels of ACSL, acetyl CoA carboxylase and ACAT1. These data suggest that the
487 mitochondrial functioning is reduced during early chronic infection which is also supported by the data
488 showing the reduced levels of pyruvate dehydrogenase and cytochrome in the hearts of infected mice
489 (Figure 7).

490 Cardiac lipidopathy induces ER stress due to increased lipid oxidation.³ Our data also
491 suggested increased ER stress in the hearts during chronic infection due to the accumulation of lipids
492 as evidenced by the presence of significantly increased CHOP and BIP, and the levels of CHOP
493 further elevated in the infected fat-ablated mice compared with infected fat-unablated mice (Figure 7).
494 Fat ablation further increased lipid oxidation as evidenced by increased PPAR α and SOD during
495 infection which could have caused a further increase in cardiac ER stress.

496 We found that the levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF α and IFN γ were significantly
497 reduced in the hearts during chronic infection even though the levels of infiltrated immune cells
498 (macrophages) were significantly higher compared to control mice (Figure 7). The reduction in TNF α
499 may be due to the increased levels of adiponectin in the hearts of infected mice, which is known to
500 regulate TNF α [25]. Fat-ablation further significantly increased the levels of macrophages in the
501 hearts and decreased TNF α , however, interestingly increased IFN γ levels. These data suggest that

502 degradation of macro-vesicular lipid droplets may activate IFN γ producing immune cells and induce
503 cardiac cell death and fibrosis. We observed increased fibrosis in the hearts of infected fat-ablated
504 mice, however, no significant difference was observed compared with the infected fat-unablated mice.

505 Our data establish a strong association between an increase in the loss of fat cells (adipose
506 tissue) and cardiac adipogenesis and impairment of lipid metabolism. We also demonstrated a
507 strong correlation between cardiac adipogenesis/lipid metabolism and progression of cardiomyopathy
508 [3]. Increased levels of loss of fat cells aggravated cardiac adipogenic/lipid metabolism and caused
509 severe form of cardiomyopathy displaying biventricular enlargement (Figure 8). All together these
510 observations suggest that *T. cruzi* infection compromised adipocytes/adipose tissue induced cardiac
511 adipogenesis and impaired mitochondrial and ER functions leading to cardiac cell death and fibrosis.
512 This suggests that fat tissue has a significant role in the pathogenesis of cardiomyopathy and may be
513 involved in the transition of the progression of the indeterminate stage of infection to chronic
514 cardiomyopathy. Furthermore, a sudden loss of adipocytes/adipose tissue not only increases the risk
515 of cardiomyopathy, but also worsens the severity of chronic CD.

516 Our results argue for a more potent role for adipocytes in regulating cardiac lipid metabolism,
517 mitochondrial dysfunction, ER stress, inflammation and progression and severity of cardiomyopathy
518 in Chronic CD. Considering the proximity of adipose tissue to and as a part of myocardium
519 (epicardial and pericardial fat tissue), dysfunctional adipose tissue not only affects cardiac
520 metabolism but also the inflammatory status, morphology and physiology of the myocardium. This
521 association is highly important given that both the myocardium and adipose tissue are compromised
522 in *T. cruzi* infection. In summary, our study ascribes a central role of adipocytes pathophysiology in
523 the pathogenesis and severity of cardiomyopathy in CD. There is a direct correlation between an
524 acute loss of body fat and the severe form of cardiomyopathy in infected mice. Further studies are
525 warranted to understand the mechanism(s) of interactions of pathological myocardial fat with the
526 myocardium during the transition of chronic CD.

527

528

529 **SOURCES OF FUNDING**

530 This study was supported by grants from the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute (National
531 Institutes of Health HL-122866) to Dr Nagajyothi.

532

533

534 **DISCLOSURES**

535 None.

536

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539

540 **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

541

542 We thank members of the Rutgers Imaging Center and Histology Core Facility for their assistance
543 with tissue collection, histological analysis, and image acquisition.

544

545

546 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

547

548 K. Lizardo and J. P. Ayyappan performed research; N. Oswal analysed data and drafted the
549 manuscript; L. M. Weiss reviewed the data and the manuscript; P.E. Scherer contributed the
550 transgenic mice and reviewed the data; and J. F. Nagajyothi designed the research, analysed data,
551 prepared the manuscript and acquired the financial support.

552

553

554 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

555

556 The authors have stated explicitly that there are no conflicts of interest in connection with this article.

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646 **FIGURE LEGENDS:**

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648
649 **FIGURE 1: Fat ablation increases cardiac parasite load, lipid accumulation and cardiac**
650 **pathology in *T. cruzi* infected acute (30 DPI) CD murine model (n=6; minimum 5**
651 **images/section were analyzed).**

652
653 A. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of hearts in indicated mice (infected or uninfected mice,
654 fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-). Infiltrated immune cells, black arrowhead;
655 amastigote nests, black long arrow, and presence of lipid granules (see Figure S2). Bar=100
656 μ m, 20x magnification. Additional images are presented as Figure S3.

657 B. Magnified (40x) images of H&E stained heart sections of indicated mice showing macro-
658 vesicular (black long pointer) and micro-vesicular (black short pointer) lipid droplets. Bar=50
659 μ m.

660
661
662 **FIGURE 2: Loss in adipocytes increases cardiac enlargement during acute *T. cruzi* infection**
663 **(30DPI).**

664
665 Left ventricle internal diameter (LVID) and right ventricle internal diameter (RVID), measured by
666 ultrasound analysis of the hearts both at diastole (d) and systole (s) conditions at 30 DPI, in infected
667 or uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-) mice as indicated.

670 **FIGURE 3: *T. cruzi* infection alters adipose tissue pathology and fat-ablation further increases**
671 **infiltration of immune cells into adipose tissue in FAT-ATTAC mice during early chronic stage**
672 **(90 DPI).**

673
674 A. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of adipose tissue in indicated mice (infected or
675 uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-) n=5). Infiltration of immune cells,
676 long black arrow; multi-ocular lipid droplets/smaller size lipid droplets, black arrowhead.
677 Bar=50 μ m, 20x magnification.

678 B. Histological grading of adipose tissue pathology was carried out according to experimental
679 groups and classified in terms of degree of infiltrated immune cells, size of adipocytes (lipid
680 droplets μ m), and number of dead adipocytes in adipose tissue during chronic *T. cruzi* infection
681 and/or fat ablation (5 images per section/mouse in each group. Each class was graded on a
682 six-point scale ranging from 0 to 5+ as discussed in Method section and presented as a bar
683 graph. The values plotted are mean \pm standard deviation (SD) from n = 5. ***, P < 0.01.

684
685
686 **FIGURE 4: *T. cruzi* infection and fat ablation alter adipogenesis and lipolysis in adipose tissue**
687 **during chronic stage in the infected mice.**

688
689 Immunoblot analyses of (A) adipogenic markers (adiponectin, FABP4 and PPAR) and (B) lipid
690 degradation markers such as lipases (ATGL, HSL and p-HSL), loss of lipid droplets (p-
691 perilipin) and lipid oxidation (PPAR α) in adipose tissue of indicated mice (infected or
692 uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-) n=8). The change in protein levels
693 were normalized to the levels of Guanosine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor (GDI) and plotted
694 column scatter graph. The error bars represent SEM. A.U. indicates arbitrary unit. *P \leq 0.05 or

695 **P≤0.01 compared with uninfected untreated. #P≤0.05 or ##P≤0.01 compared with infected
696 untreated.

697

698 **FIGURE 5: *T. cruzi* infection induces inflammation and cell death in adipose tissue via**
699 **necrosis and apoptosis.**

700

701 Immunoblot analysis of (A) markers of inflammation (infiltrated macrophages (F4/80), and
702 cytokines (INF_γ and TNF_α)), and (B) cell death (BNIP3 (a marker of necrosis), and cleaved
703 Caspase3 (a marker of apoptosis)) in the adipose tissue of indicated mice (infected or
704 uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab -) n=8). The change in protein levels
705 were normalized to the levels of Guanosine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor (GDI) and plotted
706 column scatter graph. The error bars represent SEM. A.U. indicates arbitrary unit. *P≤0.05 or
707 **P≤0.01 compared with uninfected untreated. #P≤0.05 or ##P≤0.01 compared with infected
708 untreated.

709

710

711 **FIGURE 6: Fat ablation increases adipogenic signaling and elevates lipid levels in the hearts**
712 **during the early chronic stage in *T. cruzi* infected mice.**

713

714 Immunoblot analysis of (A) adipogenic markers (FABP4, PPAR_γ and adiponectin), and (B) lipid
715 metabolism (LDL and lipid metabolism markers (p-perilipin, PPAR_α, acyl-CoA ligase (ACSL)
716 and acetyl Co-A carboxylase, CPT1, ABCA1 and CETP) in the hearts of indicated mice
717 (infected or uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab -) n=8). The change in
718 protein levels were normalized to the levels of Guanosine nucleotide dissociation inhibitor
719 (GDI) and plotted column scatter graph.

720 The error bars represent SEM. A.U. indicates arbitrary unit. * $P \leq 0.05$ or ** $P \leq 0.01$ compared
721 with uninfected untreated. # $P \leq 0.05$ or ### $P \leq 0.01$ compared with infected untreated.

722
723
724 **FIGURE 7: Fat ablation on mitochondrial dysfunction, ER stress and inflammation in the**
725 **hearts of chronic CD mice.**

726
727 Immunoblot analysis of (A) markers of mitochondrial function (cytochrome C, pyruvate
728 dehydrogenase, SDHA, HSP60 and SOD1), (B) markers of ER stress (BIP and CHOP) and
729 (C) markers of infiltration of macrophage (F4/80) and cytokines (TNF α and IFN γ) in the hearts
730 of indicated mice (infected or uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab -)
731 n=8). The change in protein levels were normalized to the levels of Guanosine nucleotide
732 dissociation inhibitor (GDI) and plotted column scatter graph. The error bars represent SEM.
733 A.U. indicates arbitrary unit. * $P \leq 0.05$ or ** $P \leq 0.01$ compared with uninfected untreated. # $P \leq 0.05$
734 or ### $P \leq 0.01$ compared with infected untreated.

735
736
737 **FIGURE 8: Loss in fat cells exacerbates cardiac pathology and causes bi-ventricular**
738 **enlargement in the hearts of chronic CD mice.**

739
740 A. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of hearts in indicated mice (infected or uninfected
741 mice, fat-ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-)). Infiltrated immune cells, red arrowhead;
742 vasculitis, black arrowhead; and presence of lipid droplets, black arrow. Bar=100 μ m, 20x
743 magnification.

744 B. Histologic grading of heart tissue pathology was carried out according to experimental
745 groups and classified in terms of degree of infiltrated immune cells, size of adipocytes (macro
746 lipid and micro lipid droplets), and fibrosis in the H&E sections of hearts in chronic *T. cruzi*
747 infected mice with and without fat ablation (5 images per section/mouse in each group). Each
748 class was graded on a six-point scale ranging from 0 to 5+ as discussed in Method section and
749 presented as a bar graph. The values plotted are mean \pm standard deviation (SD) from n = 5.
750 ***, P < 0.01.

751 C. Cardiac ultrasound imaging analysis in indicated mice (infected or uninfected mice, fat-
752 ablated (Fab +) or fat-unablated (Fab-) 90DPI). Left ventricle internal diameter (LVID) and right
753 ventricle internal diameter (RVID) both at diastole (d) and systole (s) conditions. The error
754 bars represent SEM. A.U. indicates arbitrary unit. *P \leq 0.05 or **P \leq 0.01 compared with
755 uninfected untreated. #P \leq 0.05 or ##P \leq 0.01 compared with infected untreated.

756
757
758 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1:** Schematic representation of the experimental design of the acute (a)
759 and chronic (b) induction of disease in mice.

760
761 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 2:** Effect of fat ablation on survival of mice and parasite load, immune
762 cell infiltration and lipid accumulation in the hearts of acute CD murine model.

763
764 A. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of hearts in indicated mice (infected or uninfected mice,
765 fat-ablated (Fab+) or fat-unablated (Fab-). Infiltrated immune cells, black arrowhead;
766 amastigote nests, black long arrow, and presence of lipid granules. Bar=100 μ m, 20x
767 magnification.

- 768 B. Histologic grading of heart tissue pathology was carried out according to experimental groups
769 and classified in terms of degree of parasite load, infiltrated immune cells, size of adipocytes
770 (macro lipid and micro lipid droplets) in the H&E sections of hearts in acute *T. cruzi* infected
771 mice with and without fat ablation. The values plotted are mean \pm standard deviation (SD) from
772 $n = 5$. **, $P < 0.01$ ***, $P < 0.001$.
- 773 C. Survival plot of acute *T. cruzi* infected mice with and without fat ablation.

774

775 **SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 3:** Effect of fat ablation in lipid accumulation in the hearts of acute CD
776 murine model.

- 777
- 778 A. Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and masson trichrome staining of hearts in indicated mice
779 (infected or uninfected mice, fat-ablated (Fab+) or fat-unablated (Fab-). Presence of lipid
780 granules, black arrowhead. Bar=100 μm , 20x magnification.

Fig. 1

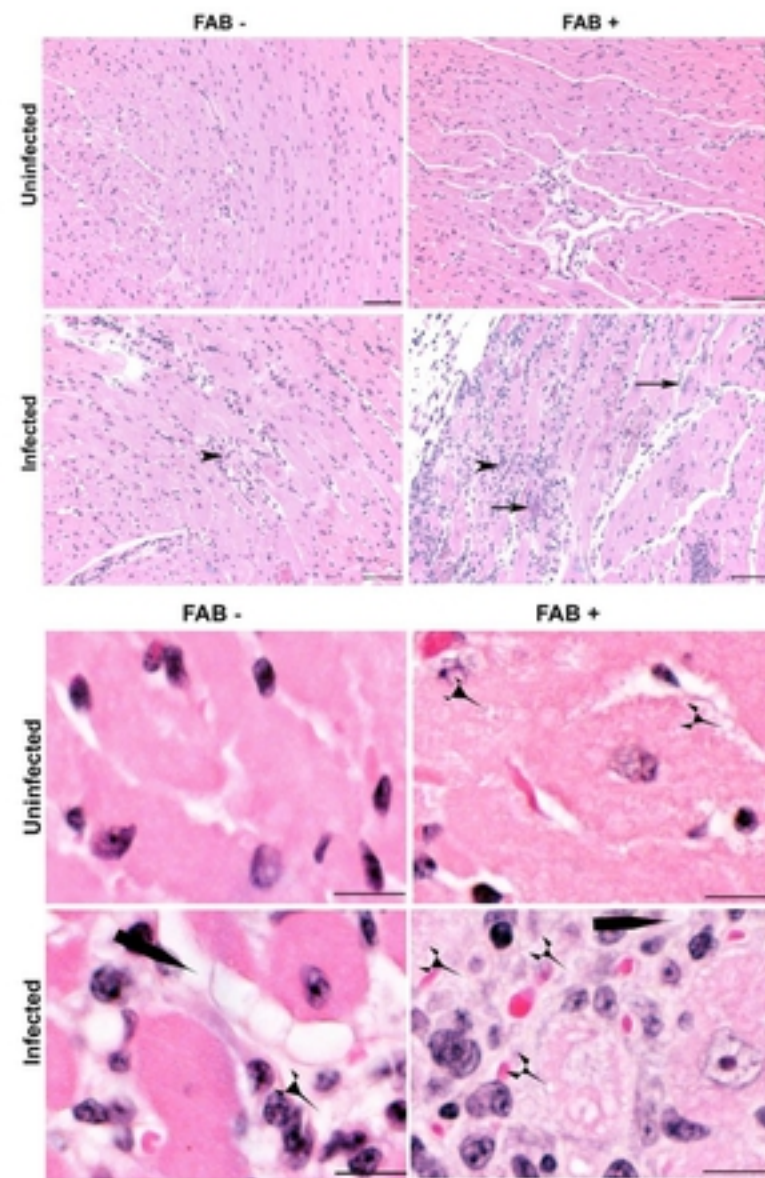


Figure. 2

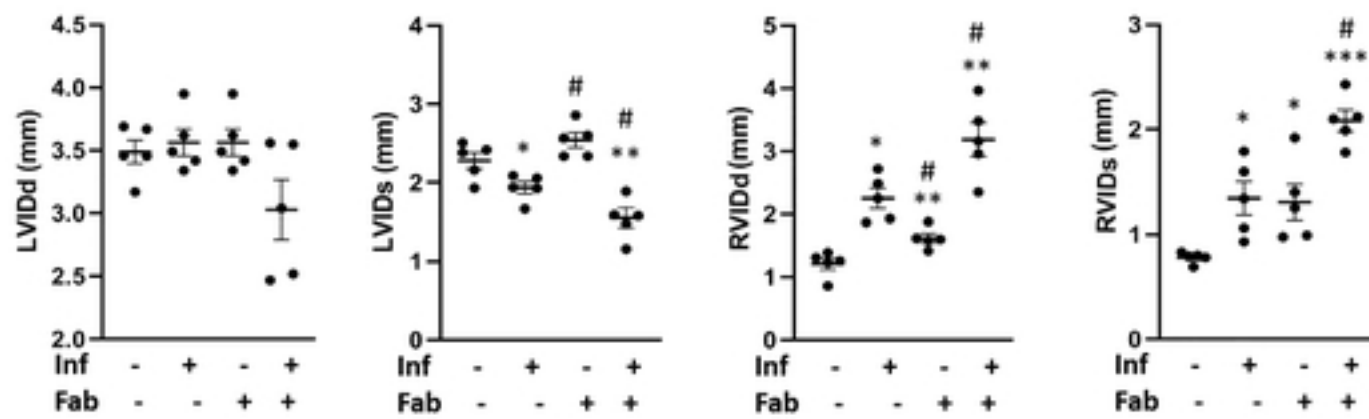


Figure 3

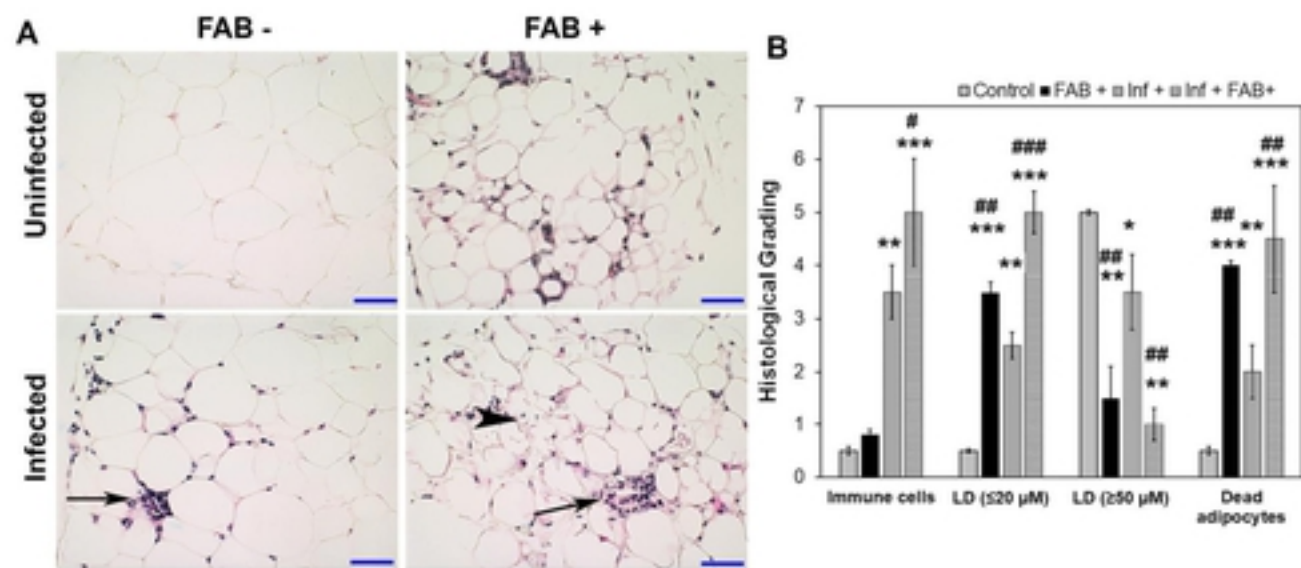


Figure 4

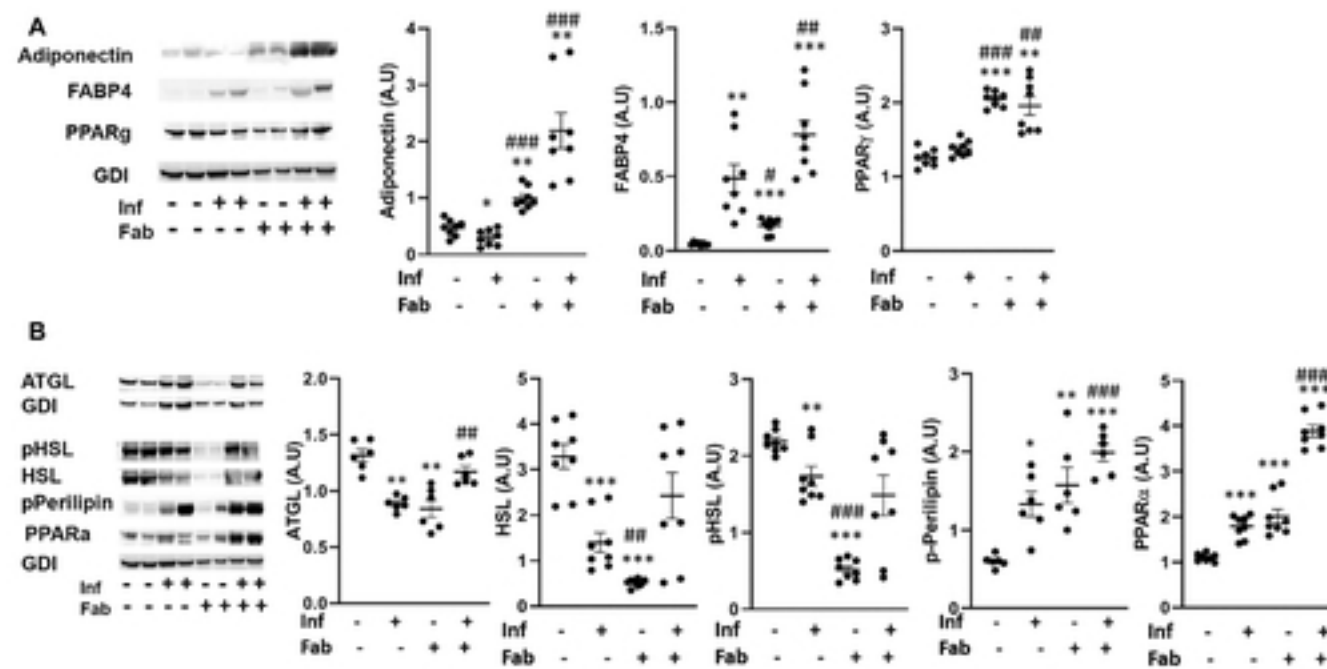


Figure 5

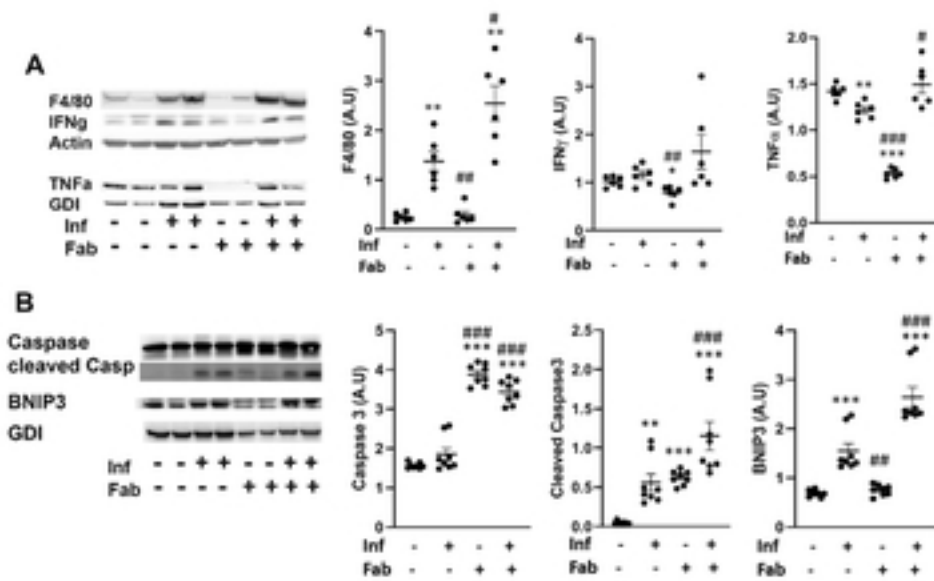


Figure 6

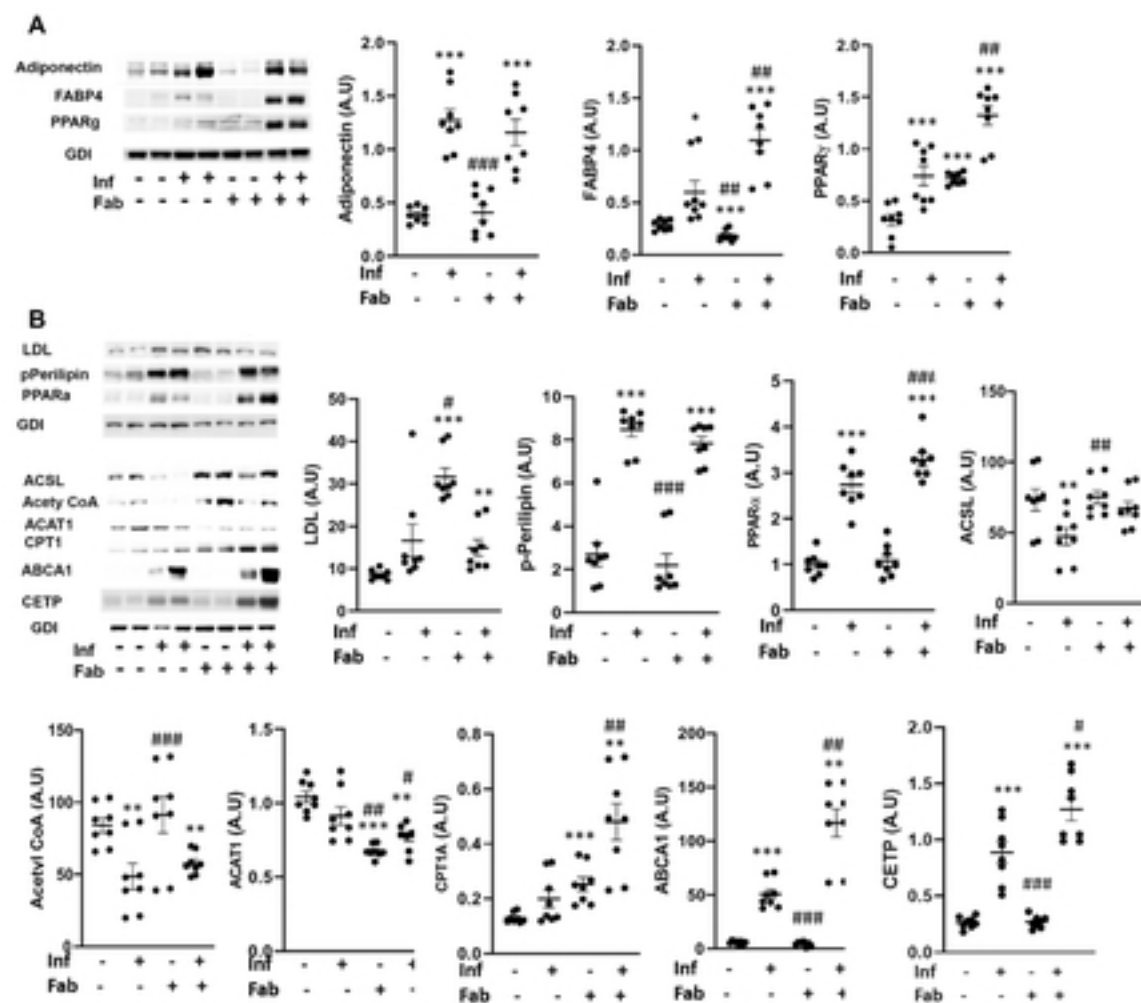


Figure 7

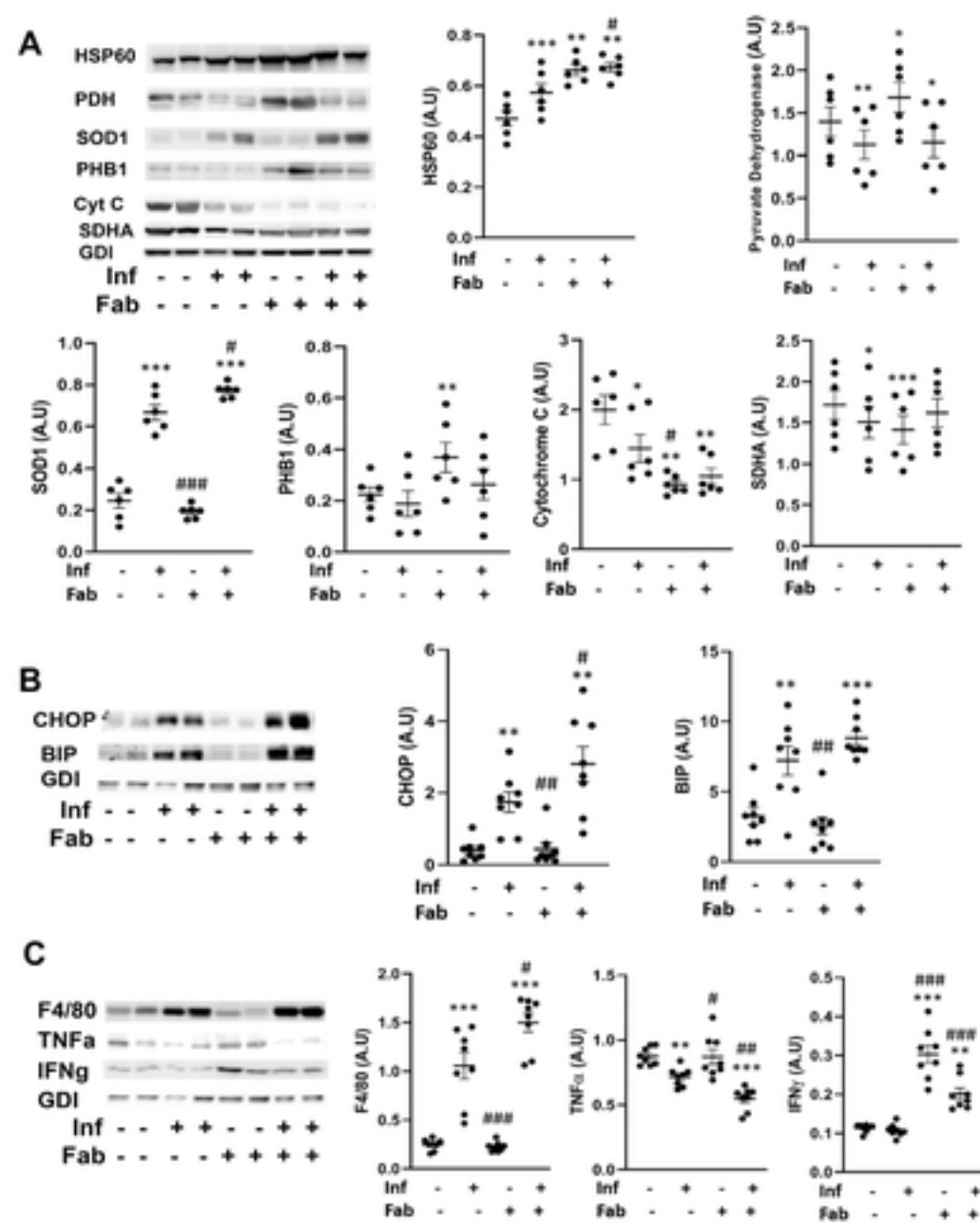
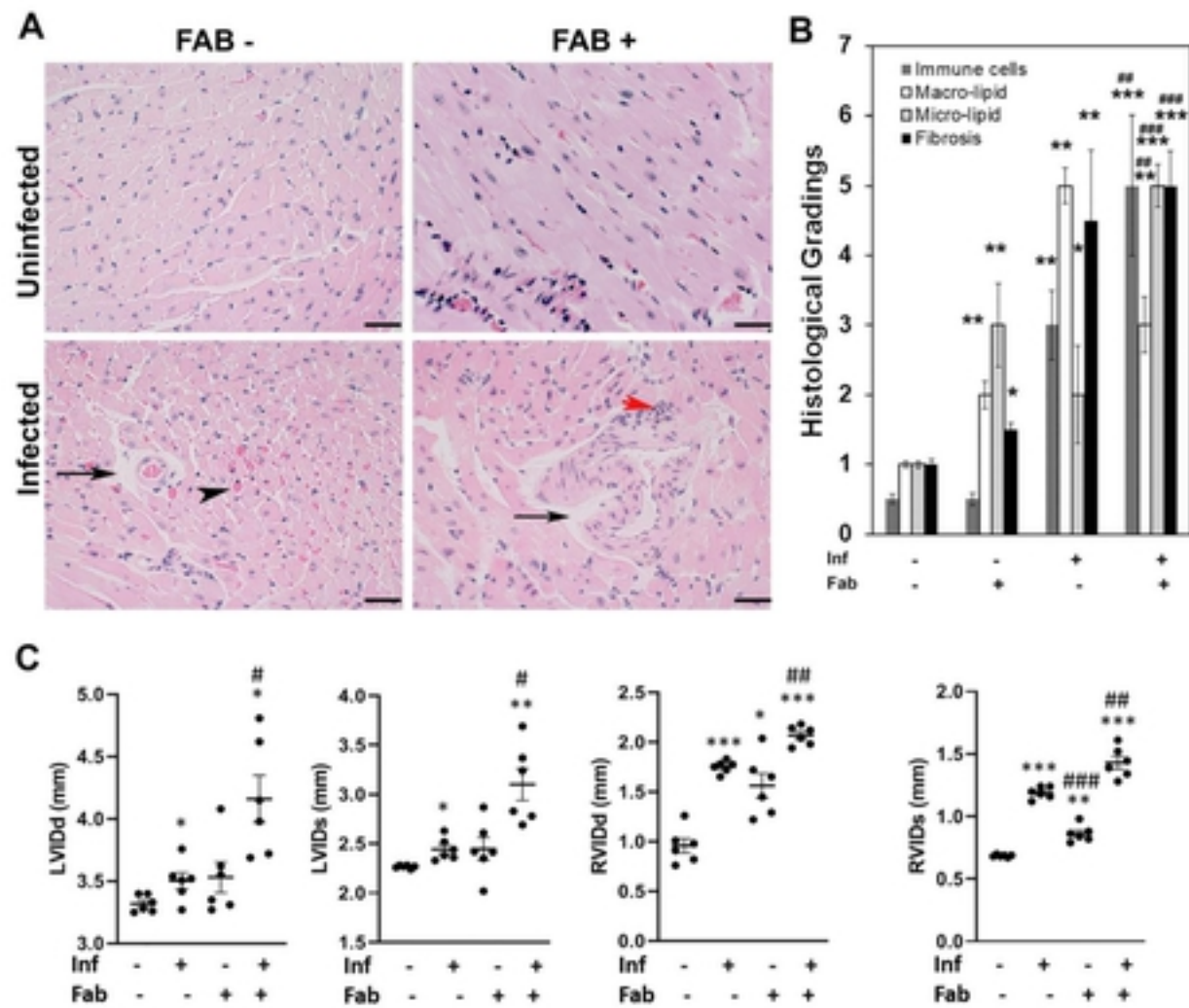
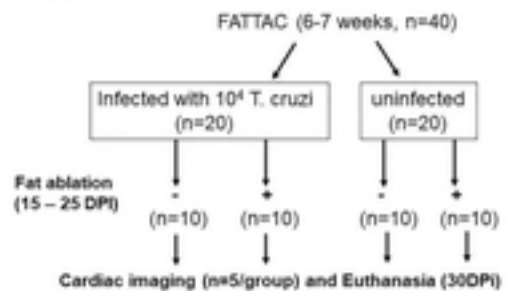


Figure 8

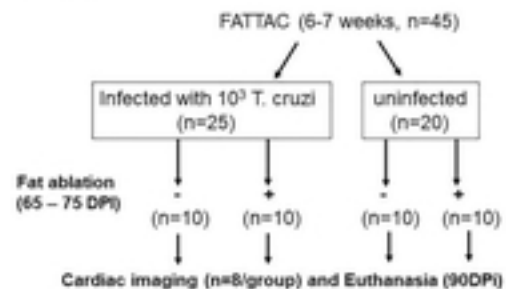


Supplemental 1

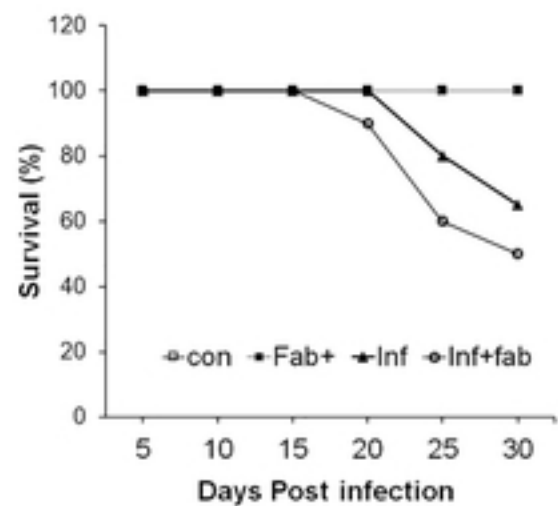
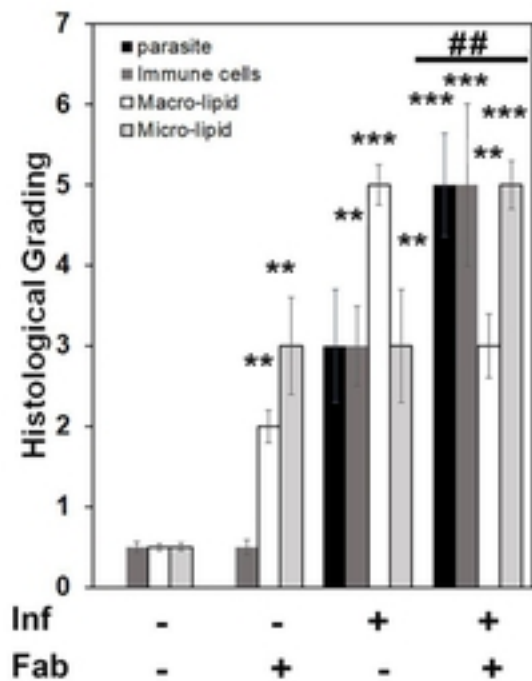
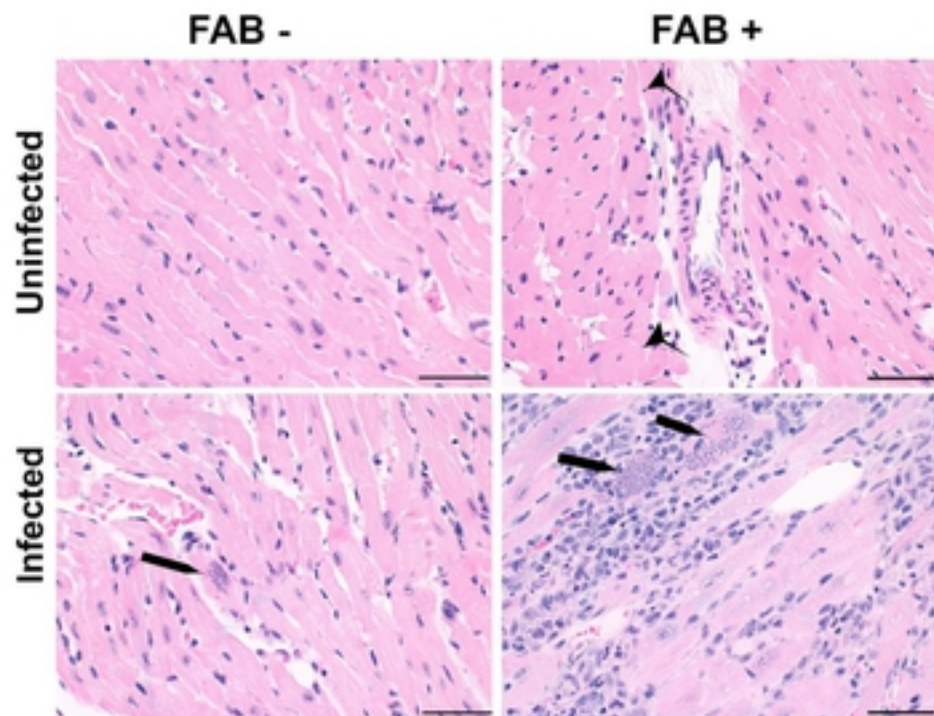
Acute



Chronic



Supplemental 2



Supplemental 3

