1   Meningeal IL-17 producing T cells mediate cognitive impairment in salt-sensitive hypertension
2

3   Monica M. Santisteban[1]

4   Samantha Schaeffer[1]

5   Antoine Anfray[1]

6   Giuseppe Faraco[1]

7   David Brea Lopez[1]

8   Gang Wang[1]

9   Melissa Sobanko[1]

10   Rose Sciortino[1]

11   Gianfranco Racchumi[1]

12   Ari Waisman[2]

13   Laibaik Park[1]

14   Josef Anrather[1]

15   Costantino Iadecola[1]

16
17   [1]Feil Family Brain and Mind Research Institute
18   Weill Cornell Medicine
19   New York, NY 10065, USA
20
21   [2]Institute for Molecular Medicine
22   University Medical Center,
23   Mainz, Germany
24
25
26   Correspondence:
27   Costantino Iadecola, MD
28   ORCID: 0000-0001-9797-073X
29   coi2001@med.cornell.edu
30
31   Monica M. Santisteban, PhD*
32   ORCID: 0000-0002-2836-9075
33   mms2012@med.cornell.edu
34   Present address: monica.santisteban@vumc.org
35
36   Feil Family Brain and Mind Research Institute
37   Weill Cornell Medicine
38   407 E 61st Street
39   New York, NY 10065
40   Phone: 646-962-8279

41
42   Word Count: 14,604
43
Short running title: Meningeal IL-17 and cognitive impairment

NONSTANDARD ABBREVIATIONS

Ach: acetylcholine

Ang II: angiotensin II

ASL: arterial spin label

AT1R: ang II type 1 receptor

BAM: brain associated macrophages

bECKO: brain endothelial cell knockout

BM: bone marrow

BP: blood pressure

CBF: cerebral blood flow

DOCA: deoxycorticosterone acetate

eNOS: endothelial nitric oxide synthase

HTN: hypertension

i.c.v.: intracerebroventricular

IL-17: interleukin 17

IL-17RA: IL-17 receptor A

KO: knockout

NO: nitric oxide

RAS: renin angiotensin system

ROS: reactive oxygen species

Th17: T-helper 17

WT: wild-type

ABSTRACT

Hypertension, a disease afflicting over one billion individuals worldwide, is a leading cause of

cognitive impairment, the mechanisms of which remain poorly understood. In a mouse model of

hypertension, we found that the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction depends on IL-17, a

cytokine elevated in hypertensive individuals. However, neither circulating IL-17 or brain

angiotensin signaling could account in full for the dysfunction. Rather, IL-17 produced by T-cells

in the dura mater was the major culprit by reaching the cerebrospinal fluid and activating IL-17

receptors on brain associated macrophages. Accordingly, depleting brain macrophages,

deleting IL17-RA in brain macrophages, or suppressing meningeal T cells completely rescued

cognitive function without attenuating blood pressure elevation, circulating IL-17 or brain

angiotensin signaling. The data unveil a critical role of meningeal T-cells and macrophage IL-17

signaling in the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction of hypertension and suggest novel

therapies to counteract the devastating effects of hypertension on cognitive health.

INTRODUCTION

Hypertension (HTN) is a major cause of death and disability worldwide, and a leading risk factor

for dementia[1]. Although there have been significant advances in the pharmacotherapy, a sizable

proportion of patients have uncontrolled or resistant HTN which is particularly damaging to the

brain[2, 3]. Furthermore, despite suggestive evidence that a rigorous control of blood pressure

(BP) may lower the risk of mild cognitive impairment[4], the burden of HTN on the brain remains

substantial, including a 10% risk of recurrent cerebrovascular events despite BP control and no

proven strategy to prevent dementia[5]. Therefore, there is need to gain a deeper understanding

the damaging effects of HTN on the brain and to develop new approaches to protect cognitive

health. Dysfunction of vital cerebrovascular regulatory mechanisms, such as the ability of neural

activity to adjust the delivery of cerebral blood flow (CBF; functional hyperemia) or the regulation

of microvascular perfusion by endothelial cells, have been strongly implicated in the deleterious

effects of HTN on the brain[6]. However, the cellular and molecular basis through which the

factors involved in BP elevation drive the neurovascular dysfunction associated with cognitive

impairment remain poorly understood.

Salt-sensitivity is a critical factor in essential HTN[7], affecting approximately 50% of

hypertensive individuals[8]. Experimental studies using the deoxycorticosterone acetate (DOCA)-

salt model have provided evidence that the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) is activated in brain

and suppressed in the periphery[9, 10]. Indeed, a large proportion of individuals with resistant HTN,

particularly African American and women, exhibit low levels of circulating renin, a key protease

needed for angiotensin II (Ang II) production, suggesting suppression of systemic RAS[11, 12]. It is

also well established that HTN induces immune dysregulation and elevates circulating levels of

the cytokine interleukin (IL)-17 both in animals and humans[13-15]. Interestingly, high dietary salt

increases circulating levels of IL-17 by promoting polarization of T-helper 17 lymphocytes

(Th17) in the gut and induces neurovascular dysfunction and cognitive impairment[16-18].

However, the role IL-17 in the deleterious effects of salt-sensitive HTN on cognitive function, its

sources and targets, and its relationships with brain RAS remain unexplored.

Here, we used the DOCA-salt model to examine the role of IL-17 in the neurovascular

and cognitive dysfunction associated with salt-sensitive HTN. We found that DOCA-salt HTN

alters key homeostatic mechanisms controlling the cerebral blood supply and leads to cognitive

impairment. These deleterious effects are not driven by central Ang II signaling, but are

associated with IL-17 signaling on both sides of the blood-brain barrier (BBB). In the circulation,

IL-17 derived from gut and circulating T-cells activates IL-17 receptors A (IL-17RA) on cerebral

endothelial cells to impair their ability to regulate cerebral perfusion, but this mechanism does

not explain in full the cognitive deficits. On the brain side, unexpectedly, IL-17 derived from T-

cells in the dura mater acts on IL-17RA on brain-associated macrophages (BAM)[19, 20] to induce

neurovascular uncoupling and cognitive impairment. Accordingly, depletion of meningeal T-cells

or BAM completely rescues the cognitive phenotype. These findings unveil a previously

unappreciated critical involvement of meningeal T-cells and IL-17 in the cognitive impairment

associated with salt sensitive HTN and suggest novel approaches to ameliorate the deleterious

impact of HTN on cognitive function.

RESULTS

Salt-sensitive HTN induces neurovascular and cognitive impairment linked to expansion of IL-

17-producing cells

First, we sought to examine the impact of HTN on neurovascular and cognitive function. To this

end, we used the DOCA-salt model of salt-sensitive HTN, in which mice are implanted with a

s.c. pellet of DOCA and receive 0.9% NaCl in the drinking water[9, 21]. DOCA-salt treatment

evoked a sustained elevation of BP beginning 3 days after pellet implantation (Fig 1A). An

increase in circulating sodium was observed at 21 days (Suppl table 1), but the sodium content

did not increase in brain, kidney and small intestine (Suppl Fig 1A). However, as previously

reported in mouse models and in individuals with refractory HTN[22], skin sodium content was

increased without changes in potassium (Suppl Fig 1B). To examine the neurovascular effects

of DOCA-salt HTN, we assessed CBF by laser-Doppler flowmetry in anesthetized mice with a

cranial window overlying the somatosensory cortex under close monitoring of key physiological

variables (Fig 1B; Methods)[23, 24]. DOCA-salt attenuated the increase in CBF evoked by neural

activity induced by mechanical stimulation of the facial whiskers (functional hyperemia; Fig 1B-

D), as well as the increase in CBF produced by bathing the somatosensory cortex with

acetylcholine (ACh; Fig 1E), a response dependent on endothelial nitric oxide (NO)[25]. Both

responses were impaired starting at day 10 after DOCA. However, smooth muscle vasoactivity,

tested by neocortical application of adenosine (Fig 1F), BBB permeability to low molecular

weight dextran (Suppl Fig 2A-B), and resting CBF (ml/100g/min) assessed by arterial spin label

(ASL)-MRI (Suppl Fig 2C-D) were not impaired at day 21 after DOCA, indicating that the

suppression of functional hyperemia and endothelial vasodilatation did not result from

widespread neurovascular damage. DOCA-salt also altered cognitive function, as demonstrated

by a reduction in the mice ability to discriminate between familiar and novel objects (working

memory) (Fig 1G), a reduction of time spent in the target quadrant during the Barnes Maze

probe trial (spatial learning and memory) (Fig 1H), and impaired nest building ability (activities of

daily living) (Fig 1I). Representative images from each group are shown for each of these

cognitive tasks (Fig 1G-I). Importantly, the neurovascular alterations preceded the development

of cognitive impairment (Fig 1D, E, G), an observation consistent with a mechanistic link

between neurovascular dysfunction and cognitive impairment[26].

Based on the emerging role of IL-17 in human HTN[13-15, 27, 28] and in dietary salt-induced

cognitive impairment[24], we then examined whether IL-17 contributes to the neurovascular and

cognitive effects of DOCA-salt HTN. Circulating IL-17 increased gradually over the course of the

DOCA-salt treatment (Fig 2A), beginning at day 10 when neurovascular dysfunction first

became apparent (Fig 1D-E). Focusing on the gut, an organ enriched with IL-17-producing

cells[29], we observed that 21 days of DOCA-salt increased *Il17a* mRNA expression (Fig 2B). To

identify the cellular sources of IL-17, we induced DOCA-salt HTN in mice carrying the gene

encoding eGFP at the *Il17a* locus[30] and observed increased IL17-GFP+ cells at 21 days (Fig

2C-D) in the small intestine lamina propria, identified by flow cytometry to be Th17 and $\gamma\delta$T17

cells (Fig 2E-G, Suppl Fig 3). Th17 and $\gamma\delta$T17 cells have been shown to enter the circulation[30,

31], and they were also increased in blood and spleen in DOCA-salt (Fig 2H-I), as in patients with

HTN in whom circulating IL17-producing cells are increased[27, 28]. We found no evidence of IL-17

production by neutrophils (Suppl. Fig 4).

To test whether IL-17 contributes to the deleterious effects of salt-sensitive HTN, we

induced DOCA-salt HTN in IL-17 deficient mice (IL17KO; Fig 2J, Suppl table 2). IL17KO mice

developed an increase in BP and circulating sodium similar to wild-type (WT) mice (Suppl Fig

5A, Suppl Table 1), but did not exhibit an attenuation in functional hyperemia and endothelial

vasodilation (Fig 2K-L). Furthermore, no deficits were observed in either novel object or Barnes

maze tests (Fig 2M-N). Thus, IL-17 produced by Th17 and $\gamma\delta$T17 cells is essential for the

neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction in DOCA-salt HTN.

<u>IL-17 impairs endothelial vasodilation by downregulating NO bioavailability via endothelial IL-17</u>

<u>receptors</u>

Next, we sought to identify the cellular targets of the IL-17 contributing to neurovascular and

cognitive impairment. Since endothelial cells are in direct contact with circulating IL-17, which is

elevated in DOCA salt HTN (Fig 2A), we first assessed the contribution of cerebral endothelial

IL-17RA. To this end, we deleted brain endothelial IL-17RA by administering an adeno-

associated virus expressing Cre recombinase in cerebral endothelial cells (AAV-BR1-iCre;

i.v.)[32, 33] to IL-17RA[flox/flox] mice[34], referred to as IL-17RA[bECKO]. AAV-BR1-iCre delivery in Ai14-

ROSA[tdTomato] reporter mice (Suppl Fig 6A) demonstrated widespread endothelial cell

transduction in the cerebral microvasculature (Suppl Fig 6B). Most importantly, we observed 90-

95% endothelial viral transduction in vessels less than 20μm (Suppl Fig 6C-D), which include

the arterioles involved in CBF regulation[35] . Three weeks after AAV-BR1-iCre delivery in IL-

17RA[flox/flox], we observed a reduction in *Il17ra* genomic DNA in sorted brain endothelial cells but

not in microglia (Supp Fig 6E-F), consistent with the selectivity of this viral vector[33, 36]. IL-

17RA[bECKO] mice (Fig 3A) had increases in BP and circulating IL-17 comparable to those of

DOCA-salt WT mice (Suppl Fig 5B, Suppl table 2), but the CBF response to ACh was

completely rescued (Fig 3B). However, no improvement was observed in functional hyperemia

(Fig 3C). Since the IL-17 has been shown to suppress endothelial NO production by inducing

inhibitory eNOS phosphorylation at Thr^{495} [24], we also examined NO production and endothelial

nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) phosphorylation in DOCA-salt treated mice. Resting and ACh-

induced endothelial NO production was attenuated in DOCA cerebral microvascular

preparations (Fig 3D), an effect associated with an increase in eNOS inhibitory phosphorylation

(Fig 3E). However, as predicted by the rescue of endothelial vasoactivity (Fig 3B), the increase

in eNOS Thr^{495} phosphorylation was suppressed in IL-17RA[bECKO] DOCA-salt mice (Fig 3F),

attesting to the link between endothelial IL-17RA and eNOS inhibitory phosphorylation.

Consistent with the partial rescue in neurovascular function, IL-17RA[bECKO] DOCA-salt mice

displayed cognitive improvement only at novel object recognition, not the Barnes maze (Fig 3G-

H).

<u>BAM contribute to the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction in DOCA-salt HTN</u>

Cerebral endothelial IL-17RA knockdown ameliorated the neurovascular and cognitive function

only partially, while total IL17KO rescued the dysfunction in full, suggesting the involvement of

IL-17RA on other vessel-associated cell types. BAM, including perivascular and leptomeningeal

macrophages, express IL-17RA[37] and have been implicated in models of neurovascular and

cognitive dysfunction[23, 38], raising the possibility that they may also play a role DOCA-salt HTN.

To test this hypothesis, we examined the effect of BAM depletion via intracerebroventricular

(i.c.v.) delivery of liposome-encapsulated clodronate (Fig 4A)[23, 38]. Liposomes containing vehicle

(PBS) or clodronate were injected i.c.v. on the same day as DOCA-salt treatment was started.

This protocol depleted 80% of perivascular and leptomeningeal BAM (Fig 4B-C) within the time-

frame of the experiment[23], without affecting microglia or blood leukocytes[23], BBB permeability[33],

or neurovascular function[23, 38]. Dural macrophages were depleted initially but, unlike the

leptomeningeal and perivascular BAM, were fully restored within 21 days (Suppl Fig 7A-B). The

BP (Suppl Fig 5C) and serum IL-17 (Suppl table 2) increases evoked by DOCA-salt were not

affected by clodronate treatment. However, BAM depletion completely normalized functional

hyperemia (Fig 4D), and partially improved endothelial vasoactivity (Fig 4E). Additionally, BAM

depletion improved cognitive function as assessed by novel object recognition and Barnes maze

(Fig 4F-G). These observations demonstrate that BAM contribute to the deleterious

neurovascular and cognitive effects of DOCA-salt HTN.

<u>BAM contribute to neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction through IL17RA-dependent ROS</u>

<u>production</u>

Due to their myeloid origin, BAM are enriched with the ROS producing enzyme Nox2 and are

major source of vascular oxidative stress[23, 39, 40]. Neocortical application of the ROS scavenger

MnTBAP rescued the impairment of functional hyperemia in DOCA-salt (Fig 4H), attesting to the

involvement of ROS in the neurovascular dysfunction. Therefore, we sought to determine if

DOCA-salt increases ROS production in BAM and, based on the results in IL17KO mice (Fig 2J-

N), whether the effect is IL-17 dependent. Dissociated brain cells from WT control and DOCA-

salt mice were incubated with the ROS probe dihydroethidium (DHE; Fig 4I) and stained for

identification of BAM ($CD45^{hi}CD11b^+CD36^+$; Suppl Fig 8A,D)[23, 41], microglia ($CD45^{int}CD11b^+$)[33,

[42], and endothelial cells ($CD45^-Ly6C^+$)[33, 42] using flow cytometry[23, 33, 41, 42]. We found that DOCA-

salt increased ROS production in BAM, but not in microglia or endothelial cells (Fig 4J). DOCA-

salt failed to increase ROS in BAM of IL-17RA deficient mice (Fig 4K), indicating that IL-17

signaling is needed for BAM ROS production in DOCA-salt HTN. Consistent with this

conclusion, recombinant IL-17 (10ng/mL) increased ROS production in BAM, as assessed with

two different probes (Fig 4L).

238   To provide further evidence that IL-17RA in BAM are involved, we used a bone marrow

(BM) chimera-based approach. We and others have demonstrated that BM transplantation after

total body irradiation repopulates leptomeningeal and perivascular compartments with BM-

derived macrophages[23, 33, 43, 44]. Therefore, we transplanted IL-17RA^{-/-} or Nox2^{-/-} BM into WT

mice to replace BAM with IL-17RA^{-/-} or Nox2^{-/-} BM-derived cells (Fig 4M). Three months later,

mice were placed on the DOCA-salt protocol. WT mice transplanted with WT BM (WT→WT)

exhibited alterations in CBF responses and cognition identical to those observed in naïve mice

(Fig 4N-Q, Fig 1D-H), indicating that although BAM in these mice are derived from the BM, they

are pathogenically equivalent to native yolk sac-derived BAM[23, 38]. Deletion of either IL-17RA or

Nox2 in BAM prevented the impairment of functional hyperemia in full (Fig 4N) and partially

improved endothelial vasoactivity (Fig 4O), as observed in the BAM depletion experiments (Fig

4D-E). Additionally, IL-17RA^{-/-}→ WT and Nox2^{-/-}→ WT chimeras showed improved cognitive

function (Fig 4P-Q). Attesting to the requirement of IL-17RA in BAM, ROS production was

blunted in BAM from IL-17RA^{-/-}→ WT DOCA-salt chimeras (Suppl Fig 9B). Since ROS are a

well-known product of IL17 signaling[45] these data also provide evidence of IL17RA activation in

BAM.

254   To complement the BM chimera data implicating IL17RA in BAM, we developed a novel

mouse expressing tamoxifen-inducible Cre recombinase under the control of the Mrc1 promoter

(Mrc1[CreERT2/+]; Fig. 5A). First, we sought to determine whether Mrc1[CreERT2] heterozygosity altered

BAM number and distribution across brain compartments (Suppl Fig 10A). To this end, after

labeling BAM by i.c.v. injection of FITC dextran (Suppl Fig 10B), we confirmed that the number

of BAM in dural, pial, and perivascular spaces of Mrc1[CreERT2/+] mice were not different from those

in Mrc1$^{+/+}$ (WT) mice (Suppl Fig 10C-G). Next, to characterize the efficiency of this novel Cre

driver mouse, we crossed Mrc1^{CreERT2} with Ai14 TdTM (Fig 5B-C). Following tamoxifen

treatment, we found widespread TdTM expression in pial and perivascular BAM (Suppl Fig 11A-

F). TdTM was not detected in Iba1+ microglia (Suppl Fig 11E). Tamoxifen treatment of adult

Mrc1$^{CreERT2/+}$ crossed with IL17-RA$^{flox/flox}$ (BAM$^{IL17RA-/-}$) led to a 78.9% reduction in IL17-RA+ BAM

(Fig 5D-E, Suppl Fig 11G-H), without affecting the BP response (Fig 5F) and circulating IL-17

elevation (Suppl Table 2) induced by DOCA-salt. Consistent with the findings in IL-17RA$^{-/-}$→ WT

chimeras, we observed full rescue of functional hyperemia without improvement of endothelial

vasodilation (Fig. 5G-H). Additionally, BAM$^{IL17RA-/-}$ DOCA-salt mice showed improved cognitive

function (Fig 5I-J). Collectively, the findings with BM chimera, and our novel Mrc1$^{CreERT2/+}$ mouse

provide converging evidence that IL-17RA in BAM are critical for the alterations in functional

hyperemia and cognitive function induced by DOCA-salt HTN.

<u>DOCA-salt HTN increases IL-17-producing T cells in the dura mater</u>

Next, we sought to define the cellular source(s) of IL-17 acting on BAM IL-17RA to induce

neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction. Recent evidence indicates that IL-17-producing T cells

are present in the dura mater[46, 47], and are able to modulate rodent behavior[48, 49]. In agreement

with these findings, *Il17a* mRNA was detected in the dura of control mice and was markedly

increased by 21 days of DOCA-salt treatment (Fig 6A). *Il17a* mRNA was not observed in the

brain parenchyma (Fig 6A). To map IL-17 producing cells in brain and dura we used IL17-GFP

reporter mice. Consistent with the mRNA data, IL17-GFP+ cells were not observed in the brain

(Suppl Fig 12), but were found in the dura (Fig 6B-D), as previously reported[48, 50]. DOCA-salt

treatment (21 days) led to a significant increase in IL17-GFP+ cells surrounding the venous

sinuses but not in regions removed from the sinus (Fig 6B-C). To determine whether these cells

actually secrete IL-17, we performed an IL-17 ELISpot assay to detect cytokine release with

single-cell resolution[51] in isolated dural leukocytes. We found that dural cells secrete IL-17, and

this response is increased in DOCA-salt mice (Fig 6E-F). We then used flow cytometry to

characterize the IL17-GFP+ cells. We did not observe an increase of CD45+ immune cells in

the dura of DOCA-salt mice (Fig 6G). We found no change in the total number of CD4 or Th17,

(Suppl Fig 13A-B), or the percent of CD4 producing IL-17 (Fig 6H), excluding a role for these

cells. There was no change in the total number of total $\gamma\delta$T cells (Suppl Fig 13C) and a trend

towards increase of $\gamma\delta$T17 cells (Suppl Fig 13D). Interestingly, we observed an increase in the

percentage of $\gamma\delta$T cells producing IL17 (Fig 6I). Since the total number of $\gamma\delta$T-cells did not

change (Suppl Fig 13C), changes in other cells populations would not impact the % of $\gamma\delta$Tcells

producing IL17. Therefore, consistent with data in the literature[48], we observed an increased in

the proportion of dural $\gamma\delta$T cells producing IL17. The increase in dural IL-17 production after 21

days of DOCA-salt was associated with increased detection of IL-17 in the cerebrospinal fluid

(CSF; Fig 6J). To gain insight on how dura-derived IL-17 reaches the CSF, we assessed the

structural integrity of the arachnoid barrier using immunocytochemistry for the arachnoid barrier

tight junction marker claudin-11[52]. We found significant tight junction remodeling in DOCA-salt

mice as evidenced by (1) discontinuous tight junctions (Fig 6K), (2) reduced arachnoid domain

areas (Fig 6L-M), and (3) altered tight junction morphology (Fig 6K)[53, 54]. Collectively, these

findings suggest that IL-17 generated by T-cells in the dura reach the CSF in the subarachnoid

space via a disrupted arachnoid barrier and engage IL-17RA on BAM. Of note, we did not

observe changes in key inflammatory genes (Suppl Fig 14A-B) or evidence of microglia and

astrocyte activation (Suppl Fig 14C-D), suggesting that dura-derived IL17 did not result in a

massive neuroinflammatory reaction which could potentially contribute to cognitive impairment

in DOCA-salt.

Cognitive impairment in salt-sensitive HTN is driven by dural IL17-producing $\gamma\delta$T cells

310 Next, we sought to provide evidence in support of the involvement of dural IL17-producing cells

311 in the neurovascular and cognitive effects of DOCA salt HTN. Dural $\gamma\delta$T cells, like other $\gamma\delta$T

312 cells[55], are tissue resident, with only 1-2% being derived from the circulation under

313 homeostasis[48]. However, in inflammatory conditions, an increased influx of $\gamma\delta$T cells into lymph

314 nodes and subsequent homing to inflamed tissues via the circulation has been shown[56, 57].

315 Given that circulating Th17 and $\gamma\delta$T17 cells are both elevated in DOCA-salt, it is conceivable

316 that T cells migrate from the circulation to the dura. To test this hypothesis, we utilized FTY720

317 (fingolimod), a sphingosine-1-phosphate receptor (S1PR) modulator that depletes circulating

318 lymphocytes, including $\gamma\delta$T17 and Th17 cells, by preventing their egress from lymphoid tissues

319 and gut, as well as other mechanisms[31, 58-61]. FTY720 (1mg/kg i.p. every 3 days[24]) was

320 administered from day 7 through day 21 of DOCA-salt treatment (Fig 7A) and did not affect the

321 development of HTN (Fig 7B). As expected, FTY720 significantly reduced circulating CD4^{+} T

322 cells (Fig 7C) without affecting the elevation in circulating IL-17 in DOCA-salt mice (Fig 7D).

323 FTY720 depleted IL17-GFP+ cells in the dura (Fig 7E), both Th17 cells (Fig 7F), and $\gamma\delta$T17 cells

324 (Fig 7G). Interestingly, FTY720 did not ameliorate the CBF response evoked from the

325 endothelium (Fig 7H), attesting to its dependence on circulating IL-17 acting on cerebral

326 endothelial IL-17RA and not BAM. The reduction of IL-17 producing T cells in the dura was

327 associated with full rescue of functional hyperemia (Fig 7I) and improved of cognitive function

328 (Fig 7J-K), as well as suppression of ROS production in BAM (Suppl Fig 9C).

329  To confirm the role of dural $\gamma\delta$T cells in the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction in

330 DOCA-salt, we infused anti-TCR$\gamma\delta$ antibody into the cerebral ventricles (i.c.v.) using osmotic

331 minipumps from day 7 through day 21 of DOCA-salt treatment (Fig 7L) to deplete $\gamma\delta$T cells in

332 the dura (Fig 7M). i.c.v. delivery of this antibody has been previously shown to decrease $\gamma\delta$T

333 cell production of IL-17 in the dura[48], but did not affect the BP response to DOCA-salt (Fig 7N).

334 Consistent with results of the FTY720 experiments, $\gamma\delta$T cell-depletion in the dura did not

improve endothelial vasodilation (Fig 7O). The reduction of $\gamma\delta$T cells in the dura rescued

functional hyperemia (Fig 7P), and improved cognitive function (Fig 7Q-R). Thus, dural IL17-

producing T-cells are the source of the IL-17 contributing to the neurovascular and cognitive

impairment in salt-sensitive HTN.

<u>The contribution of Ang II to the cerebrovascular dysfunction in DOCA-salt depends on IL-17</u>

<u>signaling</u>

It is well established that the DOCA-salt treatment leads to activation of brain RAS[9, 10], which

has been implicated in endothelial dysfunction in large and small cerebral vessels[62]. In apparent

contrast, our data suggest that IL-17 is essential for the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction

in DOCA-salt HTN. Therefore, we investigated the relationship between brain Ang II and IL-17

in this model. As expected, DOCA-salt treatment elevated Ang II levels in brain and reduced it in

the circulation (Fig 8A-B). These effects were associated with mRNA upregulation of brain Ang

II receptors type 1A (AT1R) (*Agtr1a*; Fig 8C*)* and downregulation of kidney renin (*Ren1*; Fig 8D),

confirming activation of RAS in brain and suppression in the periphery[62]. Central AT1R blockade

by i.c.v. infusion of losartan (Fig 8E), prevented the increase in BP caused by DOCA-salt[9]

(Suppl Fig 5) but did not attenuate the increase in circulating IL-17 (Suppl table 2). Accordingly,

i.c.v. losartan restored functional hyperemia (Fig 8F), but did not improve endothelium-

dependent vasodilation (Fig 8G), consistent with circulating IL-17 being the predominant

mediator of the endothelial dysfunction. Central AT1R blockade ameliorated cognitive

impairment only partially, with an improvement observed only in novel object recognition, but not

at the Barnes maze (Fig 8H-I). Since Ang II induces ROS production in BAM leading to

neurovascular dysfunction[23], we wondered if IL-17 signaling in BAM is required for Ang II-

induced ROS production. Ang II stimulation increased ROS production in WT but not IL17RA^{-/-}

BAM (Fig 8J). However, indices of brain RAS activation were not attenuated in IL17KO mice

(Suppl Fig 15A) or mice in which dural production of IL-17 was suppressed by treatment with

FTY720 (Suppl Fig 15B), suggesting that brain RAS activation in the absence of dural IL-17 is

not sufficient to induce neurovascular dysfunction. In support of this conclusion, bathing the

cerebral cortex with Ang II to activate AT1R on BAM[23], induced neurovascular dysfunction in

WT but not IL17KO mice (Fig 8K-L). Thus, IL-17 signaling is necessary for the contribution of

Ang II to the neurovascular and cognitive impairment of salt-sensitive HTN.

DISCUSSION

We have demonstrated that the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction associated with salt-

sensitive HTN is mediated by two distinct mechanisms involving IL-17 signaling in cerebral

endothelium and BAM (Suppl Fig 16): (1) in the circulation, IL-17 produced by T-cells acts on

cerebral endothelial IL-17RA to reduce NO production leading to suppression of endothelial

vasoactivity without affecting the increase in CBF induced by neural activity; (2) in the brain, IL-

17 produced by dura T-cells acts on IL-17RA on BAM to induce vascular oxidative stress and

suppression of functional hyperemia with minimal effects on endothelial function. However,

these two mechanisms do not contribute equally to the cognitive dysfunction: counteracting the

effect of circulating IL-17 by endothelial IL-17RA deletion rescues cognition only partially, while

counteracting the sources (T-cells) or targets of central IL-17 (BAM or BAM IL-17RA) rescues

cognitive function in full. Furthermore, endothelial NO synthase phosphorylation is not involved

in the mechanisms of neurovascular coupling since functional hyperemia can be rescued

completely by BAM depletion or IL17RA deletion in BAM despite persistent endothelial

vasomotor dysfunction. Thus, the deleterious effects of BAM on functional hyperemia cannot be

attributed to endothelial dysfunction or eNOS phosphorylation. Therefore, the data unveils an

unanticipated central role of meningeal T-cells in the deleterious cognitive effect of salt sensitive

hypertension.

There is increasing evidence that inflammation and immunity participate in the

pathobiology of HTN[63]. Pioneering studies have unveiled a role of innate and adaptive immunity

in the central and peripheral mechanisms driving the elevation in BP and on the end organ

damage, particularly in the kidney and the vasculature[64-66]. In this context, T-cells and IL-17

have emerged as important mediators of the effect of Ang II and DOCA-salt HTN on peripheral

organs and vessels, in part verified in hypertensive patients[67]. Here, we extend these

observations by providing evidence that dural T-cells and IL-17 play a critical role in the

neurovascular and cognitive deficits in a model of HTN reproducing key attributes of the human

disease[10, 68]. While the dura mater has recently been recognized as major players in the

immune responses of the brain underling brain injury and repair[46, 48], our findings provide insight

into an previously unrecognized pathogenic role of meningeal immunity in HTN. Our studies

revealed that the dura is the critical site of the immune responses underlying the neurovascular

and cognitive deficits in HTN. This process is driven by a crosstalk between dural T-cells and

BAM through IL-17 signaling. Thus, depletion of IL-17-producing T-cells in the dura, depletion of

BAM or deletion of IL-17RA on BAM, rescues the cognitive deficits in full. As for the

mechanisms by which BAM alter neurovascular coupling, evidence from our studies implicate

Ang II[23] and amyloid-beta[38] inducing BAM production of ROS, which are thought to inactivate

neuronal NO and other vasoactive mediators released from neurons and converging on

resistance arteriole to mediate vasodilatation[35, 69].

The DOCA salt model is associated with increases in brain RAS signaling and reduction

of the systemic RAS[10], which we have verified by central and peripheral measurements of Ang

II. DOCA salt HTN is well established to induce alterations in cerebral vascular regulation both

in vivo and in isolated cerebral arteries and arterioles[21, 62]. Surprisingly, however, our study

showed that the vascular effects of Ang II, mediated by ROS production by BAM, require IL-17.

Thus, ex vivo Ang II is unable to increase ROS production in BAM in the absence of IL-17RA,

and in vivo Ang II applied to the neocortex to target meningeal and perivascular BAM does not

induce neurovascular dysfunction IL17KO mice. These observations unveil a critical

requirement of IL-17 in the deleterious effects of Ang II. Considering the key role that Ang II and

IL-17 signaling play in health and disease the molecular basis of their interaction is of great

interest and will require further exploration.

Owing to the absolute reliance of the brain on the delivery of blood flow, reduced

cerebral perfusion or alterations in neurovascular regulation have long been implicated in

cognitive impairment induced by vascular factors as well as Alzheimer's disease[70, 71]. Our

studies, in general, support a link between CBF regulation and cognitive health, but they also

suggest effects of IL-17 independent of blood flow. While resting CBF is not reduced, blocking

cerebral endothelial IL-17 signaling rescues endothelial vasoactivity and produces partial

cognitive improvement. On the other hand, counteracting central Ang II signaling rescues only

neurovascular coupling and leads to a partial improvement in cognition. Although it is

conceivable that endothelial dysfunction and neurovascular uncoupling could play an additive

role in the cognitive deficits, this possibility seems unlikely because depletion of dural T-cells

provides complete cognitive rescue while improving only neurovascular coupling and not

endothelial function. Direct effects of IL-17 on neurons have been demonstrated in other

models[48, 49, 72, 73], which in conjunction with the vascular effects could contribute to the cognitive

dysfunction.

It is well established that HTN is a leading risk factor for cognitive impairment caused

both by vascular factors and neurodegeneration[6], but the evidence that antihypertensive

therapy reduces such risk is inconsistent and limited[74, 75]. Our findings reveal an additional layer

of complexity in the deleterious effects of HTN on the brain and suggest new preventive and

therapeutic approaches. The central actions of Ang II are critical for the development of HTN by

inducing neurohumoral dysfunction. This aspect was highlighted by our observation that central

inhibition of AT1R prevented the BP elevation completely but did not rescue the cognitive

dysfunction in full. While BP control remains critical for attenuating hypertensive end-organ

damage to kidney, heart, and vasculature[76], full protection of the brain may require also

targeting meningeal immunity. Considering the diversity of mechanisms underlying human

HTN[77], efforts to select hypertensive patients in which immune factors are involved, may identify

individuals at greater risk for the deleterious effects of dural immune signaling on the brain.

Since the infectious complications of suppressing immune signaling is a well-known concern in

patients with cardiovascular diseases[78], strategies to selectively target dural immunity would be

required[79].

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors

upon request. Details on antibodies used and specific primer sequences are found in the Online

Supplement. For rigor and reproducibility, experiments were repeated at least twice throughout

the manuscript, and figures present pooled data.

Experimental mouse models

All procedures were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Weill

Cornell Medicine and performed in accordance with the National Institutes of Health (NIH)

Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. Studies were performed in a blinded fashion

in male C57BL/6 mice (WT, age 3-5 months, weight 25-30g; JAX, the Jackson Laboratory), IL-

17 GFP reporter mice (C57BL/6-*IL17a^{tm1Bcgen}*/J, JAX strain# 018472), IL-17 knockout mice

(*IL17a^{tm1.1(icre)Stck}*/J, JAX strain# 016879), and IL-17RA^{flox/flox} mice[34]. IL-17RA^{flox/flox} mice were

crossed with the germ-cell driven Sox2-Cre mice (B6.Cg-*Edil3^{Tg(Sox2-cre)1Amc}*/J, JAX strain#

008454)[80] to generate whole-body IL-17RA knockout mice. Bone marrow chimera experiments

detailed below were performed on C57BL/6 mice receiving donor cells from IL-17RA knockout

mice or B6.129S-*Cybb^{tm1Din}*/J mice (*Nox2^{-/-}*, JAX strain# 002365), both lines are congenic for

C57BL/6. AAV-BR1-iCre experiments detailed below were performed on B6.Cg-

Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}/J (Ai14 TdTomato reporter, JAX strain# 007914), and

homozygous IL-17RA^{flox/flox} mice. Mrc1^{CreERT2} mice were generated by Cyagen. The Mrc1

targeting construct was linearized by restriction digestion with NotI, followed by

phenol/chloroform extraction and ethanol precipitation. The linearized vector was transfected

into C57BL/6 ES cells according to Cyagen's standard electroporation procedures. The

transfected ES cells were subject to G418 selection (200 μg/mL) 24 hours post electroporation.

179 G418 resistant clones were picked and amplified in 96-well plates. Two copies of 96-well

plates were made, one copy was frozen down and stored at -80°C and the other copy of the 96-

well plates was used for DNA isolation and subsequence PCR screening for homologous

recombination. The PCR screening identified 18 potential targeted clones, from among which 6

were expanded and further characterized by Southern blot analysis. Five of the six expanded

clones were confirmed to be correctly targeted.

The Mrc1 gene (NCBI Reference Sequence: NM_008625.2) is located on mouse chromosome

2. Thirty exons have been identified, with the ATG start codon in exon 1 and the TAG stop

codon in exon 30. In the targeting vector, the coding region of exon 1 plus part of intron 1 was

replaced with the CreERT2-polyA cassette. Correct integration of the CreERT2-polyA cassette

was confirmed by diagnostic PCR. Sequencing of the genomic region of interest after

amplification by PCR was further used to verify correct integration. After germline transmission,

correctly targeted founders were crossed with C57BL/6J mice to establish the colonies for this

study. Adult 6-10 week old mice were treated with tamoxifen citrate (Sigma: T-5648; oral

gavage; 200mg/kg) once a day for 5 consecutive days. Female mice were not included in this

study, as previous studies have shown that they have a blunted hypertensive and immune

response to DOCA-salt[81].

DOCA-salt HTN

Mice were randomized to treatment group and anesthetized by isoflurane inhalation for

subcutaneous implantation of a 50 mg pellet of DOCA (Innovative Research of America, Cat#

M-121) or sham surgery of equal duration[21]. After recovery from anesthesia, DOCA animals

were maintained on standard chow and *ad libitum* access to 0.9% NaCl in autoclaved tap water.

Control animals were maintained on standard chow and *ad libitum* access to autoclaved tap

water. Systolic BP was monitored in awake mice using tail-cuff plethysmography (Hatteras)[23, 33].

Mice were acclimated to tail-cuff plethysmography for one week prior to pellet or sham surgery,

and systolic BP was monitored twice a week after initiation of DOCA-salt.

Tissue sodium measurement

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane, and blood was collected through cardiac puncture.

Brain, kidney, skin (dorsal abdomen), and distal small intestine (distal 10 cm) were isolated,

flash frozen, and stored at -80°C until analysis. After 15 minutes, blood was centrifuged at

2,000g for 15 minutes and serum was separated and stored at -80°C until analysis. The serum

renal chemical panel was performed by the Laboratory of Comparative Pathology (LCP) of Weill

Cornell Medicine Research Animal Resource Center, and the tissue mineral panel for sodium

measurement was performed by the Animal Health Diagnostic Center Toxicology Lab of Cornell

University Veterinary Medicine using inductively coupled plasma – atomic emission

spectrometry (ICP-AES)[82, 83].

General surgical procedures for CBF studies

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (induction, 5%; maintenance, 2%) and artificially

ventilated with a mixture of N_2 and O_2. One of the femoral arteries was cannulated for recording

mean arterial pressure (MAP) and collecting blood samples. Rectal temperature was maintained

at 37°C. After surgery, isoflurane was discontinued and anesthesia was maintained with

urethane (750 mg/kg, i.p.) and chloralose (50 mg/kg, i.p.). Throughout the experiment, the level

of anesthesia was monitored by testing of motor responses to tail pinch. Arterial blood gases

were monitored at the beginning and end of the experiment and maintained at pO_2 100-

110mmHg, pCO2 30-40mmHg, and pH 7.3-7.4[23]. As in previous studies[84], MAP remained within

the autoregulated range for CBF (Control: 82.77 ± 0.85 mmHg; DOCA: 106.37 ± 0.99 mmHg;

p<0.05). Due to the anesthesia, the baseline BP and the increase in BP induced by DOCA-salt

was lower than that observed in awake mice[9].

Experimental protocol for experiments monitoring CBF reactivity

As previously performed[23, 24, 38], a small craniotomy (2 × 2 mm) was performed to expose the

parietal cortex, the dura was removed, and the site was superfused with Ringer's solution

(37°C; pH 7.3–7.4)[23]. CBF was continuously monitored at the site of superfusion with a laser-

Doppler probe (Perimed) positioned stereotaxically on the cortical surface and connected to a

data acquisition system (PowerLab). CBF values were expressed as percentage increases

relative to the resting level. After MAP and blood gases were stable, CBF responses were

recorded. The whisker-barrel cortex was activated for 60 seconds by stroking of the

contralateral vibrissae, and the evoked changes in CBF were recorded. ACh (10 µM; Sigma-

Aldrich) or adenosine (400 µM; Sigma-Aldrich) was superfused on the exposed neocortex for 5

minutes[23, 24, 38]. In some experiments, CBF responses were tested before and after 30 minutes

of superfusion with the ROS scavenger MnTBAP (100µM)[23, 84] or Ang II (500nM)[23, 85].

BBB permeability

BBB permeability was assessed using fluorescein-dextran (FITC-dextran, MW 3kDa; 100µl of

1% solution i.v.), as previously described[23, 33]. The tracer was allowed to circulate for 20

minutes, and then mice were transcardially perfused with cold PBS to clear the intravascular

tracer. Brains were removed and olfactory bulb, brainstem, and cerebellum were discarded.

Samples were weighed and frozen on dry ice and stored at −80 °C until analysis. Tissue was

homogenized in 400µL of PBS, mixed with 400µL of methanol, and centrifuged at 13,000*g* for

30 minutes. The supernatant was used for measurement of the amount of FITC-dextran (485nm

excitation and 530 nm emission), measured in duplicate using a fluorescence

spectrophotometer, together with standards, and normalized to brain tissue weight.

Measurement of resting CBF by ASL-MRI

CBF was assessed quantitatively using arterial spin labeling magnetic resonance imaging (ASL-

MRI) at 21 days of DOCA-salt, performed on a 7.0-tesla 70/30 Bruker Biospec small-animal MRI

system with 450 mT/m gradient amplitude and a 4,500 T $\cdot$ m^{-1} $\cdot$ s^{-1} slew rate. A volume coil was

used for transmission and a surface coil for reception. Anatomical localizer images were

acquired to find the transversal slice approximately corresponding to bregma +0.5 mm. This

position was used for subsequent ASL-MRI, which was based on a flow-sensitive alternating

inversion recovery rapid acquisition with relaxation enhancement (FAIR-RARE) pulse sequence

labeling the inflowing blood by global inversion of the equilibrium magnetization. One axial slice

was acquired with a field of view of 15 × 15 mm, spatial resolution of 0.117 × 0.117 × 1 mm, TE

(echo time) of 5.368 ms, effective TE of 48.32 ms, recovery time of 10 s, and a RARE (rapid

imaging with refocused echoes) factor of 72. Twenty-two turbo inversion recovery values

ranging from 30 to 2,300 ms were used, and the inversion slab thickness was 4 mm. For

computation of resting CBF (rCBF), the Bruker ASL perfusion processing macro was used. It

uses a published model[86] and includes steps to mask out the background. The masked rCBF

images were exported to Analyze format on the MRI console. The ASL images were analyzed

by ImageJ and the average CBF value is reported in mL per 100 g of tissue per min[24].

Novel object recognition test

The novel object recognition test (NOR) task was conducted in a plastic box measuring 29 cm ×

47 cm × 30 cm high[23, 24]. Stimuli consisted of plastic objects that varied in color and shape, but

had similar size. A video camera was used to record the testing session for offline analysis

using AnyMaze software. Mice were acclimated to the testing room for 1 hour each day prior to

the start of each day. On day 1, mice were acclimated to the testing chamber (habituation). On

day 2, mice were placed in the same chamber in the presence of 2 identical sample objects and

were allowed to explore for 5 minutes. After an intersession interval of 1 hour, mice were placed

in the same chamber, but 1 of the 2 objects was replaced by a novel object. Mice were allowed

to explore for 5 minutes. Between trials, the maze is cleaned with 10% ethanol in water to

minimize olfactory cues. Exploratory behavior was assessed manually by two experimenters

blinded to the treatment group. Exploration of an object was defined as the mouse sniffing the

object or touching the object while looking at it[23]. A minimal exploration time for both objects

(total exploration time) during the test phase (5 seconds) was used. The amount of time taken to

explore the novel object was expressed as percentage of the total exploration time and provides

an index of working memory.

Barnes Maze

As described previously[23, 24], we used a Barnes maze consisting of a circular open surface (90

cm in diameter) elevated to 90cm by four wooden legs. There are 20 circular holes (5 cm in

diameter) equally spaced around the perimeter, positioned 2.5cm from the edge of the maze.

No wall or intra-maze visual cues are placed around the edge. A plastic escape box (11 x 6 x 5

cm) was positioned beneath one of the holes. Mouse movement is tracked with the Any-Maze

software (Stoelting). Mice are tested in groups of 10, and between trials are placed into cages in

a dark room adjacent to the test room for the intertrial interval (45 minutes). Mice are habituated

to the dark room for 60 min prior to the start of each day. No habituation trial is performed. The

acquisition phase consists of three consecutive training days with three 3-minute trials per day

with the escape hole located at the same location across trials and days. On each trial, a mouse

is placed into a start tube located in the center of the maze, the start tube is raised, and the

buzzer is turned on until the mouse enters the escape hole. After each trial, mice remain in the

escape box for 60s before being returned to their home cage. Between trials, the maze is

cleaned with 10% ethanol in water to minimize olfactory cues. Three parameters of learning

performance are recorded: (1) latency to locate the escape hole, (2) distance traveled before

locating the escape hole, and (3) number of errors made. Errors are defined as head-pokes into

non-escape holes and are counted manually. On the fourth day, the probe trial is performed and

consists of a 1.5 min trial where the escape hole has been removed. The memory parameter

recorded is percent of time spent in the target quadrant where the escape hole used to be.

Nest building

The ability of mice to build nests is assessed by the Deacon rating scale[24, 87]. 1 hour prior to the

dark cycle, each mouse is placed in a new clean cage containing 5g of nestlet (Ancare) in the

middle of the cage. Food, water, and lighting parameters are not changed from standard

housing practices. The next day, nests are assessed on a rating scale of 1-5[87], and untorn

nestlet pieces are weight. The cognitive parameters recorded are (1) nest score, and (2) percent

of untorn nestlet.

IL-17 measurement

IL-17 concentration in serum was measured by cytometric bead array mouse IL-17A Enhanced

Sensitivity Flex Set (BDBiosciences)[24] or by electrochemiluminescence-based multi-array MSD

V-Plex Mouse IL-17A Kit (MesoScale)[88], according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Immunofluorescence

IL17-eGFP and wild-type mice were anesthetized with sodium pentobarbital (120 mg/kg, i.p.)

and perfused transcardially with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) followed by 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS. Distal small intestine, brain, and skull cap were removed and

post-fixed overnight in 4% PFA. Small intestine was then submerged in 30% sucrose solution

for 3 days, frozen, and sections (thickness: 30 μm) were cut through the whole distal small

intestine using a cryostat and then place on a slide. Free-floating coronal brain sections

(thickness 40 μm) were cut through the whole brain using a vibrating microtome. Dura whole

mounts were prepared by careful stripping from the skull cap using fine surgical forceps, as has

been previously described by us[24, 30, 89] and others[48, 50, 90]. For leptomeningeal mounting, PFA-

perfused brains were post-fixed in methanol on a shaker at room temperature for 10 minutes[52].

Then, the leptomeninges were carefully stripped from the surface of the brain, and mounted on

slides for staining[52-54]. Brain sections and dura whole mounts were permeabilized in 0.5%

Triton-PBS and then blocked with 5% of normal donkey or goat serum in 0.1% Triton-PBS.

Sections were incubated with primary antibodies (Suppl Table 3) at 4°C overnight in 2% normal

donkey or goat serum in 0.1% Triton-PBS. Leptomeningeal mounts were blocked with 5%

normal donkey or goat serum and 5% BSA in 0.1% Triton-PBS. Sections were then incubated

with species-specific secondary antibody (1:100, Jackson ImmunoResearch whole IgG affinity-

purified antibodies) and mounted on slides with VectaShield Hardset mounting medium with

DAPI (Vector Labs), visualized with a laser-scanning confocal microscope (Leica TCS SP8),

and analyzed on ImageJ software by an investigator blinded to the treatment groups. IL17-GFP

cells in the dura were analyzed as sinus-associated if they were in close proximity with the

venous sinus, and non-sinus if they were in all other areas of the dura. For TdTM+ vessel

quantification in AAV-BR1-Cre injected Ai14 TdTM reporter mice, 100 vessels were randomly

selected from 10 different images of the cortex from 3 mice. The area of TdTM as a percent of

CD31 immunofluorescence was quantified.

Cell suspension preparation from lymph nodes, spleen, and blood

At the indicated timepoints, mesenteric, axillary and inguinal (non-brain draining) lymph nodes

were extracted from each animal and pooled, placed on a premoistened 70-μm cell strainer,

gently triturated, washed with 10 mL of PBS and spun at 500g for 7 min[24]. The cell suspension

was then either stained for flow cytometry analysis or processed for analysis of intracellular

cytokines. The spleen was removed, its epithelium was cut longitudinally, and cells were

isolated as described for the lymph nodes. Blood (150 μL) was drained from the submandibular

venous plexus into heparinized tubes, incubated with erythrocytes lysis buffer and spun at

500g for 7 min, and cells were stained for flow cytometry analysis[24].

Isolation of intestinal lamina propria mononuclear cells

Mice were euthanized by isoflurane overdose, and small intestines were removed and

separated as previously described[24, 30]. Peyer patches were cut out from the small intestine and

small intestines were completely cleaned of mesenteric fat and intestinal contents[24]. Then

intestines were opened longitudinally, washed of fecal contents with PBS, cut into approximately

1 cm pieces and placed into 20 mL of HBSS/10 mM HEPES, 8% FBS, 4 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM

DTT. Next intestinal pieces were washed three times in a shaking incubator set at 250 rpm and

at 37 °C for 20 min. After each round, intestinal pieces were vortexed for 20 s and the cell

suspension containing intraepithelial lymphocytes (IELs) was collected. Suspensions from the

three washes of IELs were combined and filtered over 0.3 g of prewashed nylon wool placed

into a 10-mL syringe and then over a 70-μm strainer. Intestinal pieces were washed with

complete PBS to remove EDTA, minced thoroughly with scissors and placed into 5 mL of

0.2 mg/mL of collagenase D in HBSS/10 mM HEPES with 5% of FBS. Then the intestinal pieces

were digested at 250 rpm and 37 °C for 20 min, followed by 20 s of vortex. The resulting cell

suspension contained the LPMCs, and was filtered with a 40-μm nylon cell strainer; the strainer

was washed with 10 mL of PBS. LPMCs cell suspensions were spun at 500g for 10 min at 4 °C.

Cell pellets were resuspended in 8 mL 44% Percoll and overlaid on 5 mL of 67% Percoll.

Gradients were centrifuged at 500g for 20 min at 4 °C (without brake) and cells at the interface

were collected and washed with 10 mL of PBS. Cells were then spun at 500g for 10 min at 4 °C

and cells were stained for flow cytometry analysis.

Flow cytometry and fluorescence activated cell sorting

For surface marker analysis, 1×10^6 cells approximately were resuspended in 50 µL of FACS

buffer. Cells were blocked with anti-CD16/CD32 for 10 min at 4 °C and then stained with the

appropriate antibodies for 15 minutes at 4 °C. Antibodies and concentrations used are listed in

Supplementary table 4. Cells were washed with FACS buffer, resuspended in 200 µL of FACS

buffer and acquired NovoSampler Q (NovoCyte Quanteon), and absolute cell numbers and

frequencies were recorded. Samples were analyzed with FlowJo (Vers.10, Tree Star) by an

investigator blinded to the treatment groups (Suppl Figs 3, 4, and 9). Appropriate isotype

controls, "fluorescence minus one" staining, and staining of negative populations were used to

establish sorting parameters. Endothelial cells were identified as CD45⁻Ly6C⁺, microglia were

identified as $CD45^{int}CD11b^{+}$[33]. Brain macrophages were identified as $CD45^{hi}CD11b^{+}CD36^{+}$[26, 41,

91-93]. We could not use the canonical BAM marker CD206 because this approach requires cell

permeabilization for intracellular antibody access and cannot be used in conjunction with live

cells assays, such as those for measuring ROS production. Therefore, we used CD36 as a

marker of BAM, as shown by single-cell RNA sequencing data[37]. To validate this approach, we

quantified the overlap of CD206 and CD36 expression within the CD45 and CD11b population.

We found that close to 90% of CD206 cells express CD36 (Suppl Fig 8) attesting to the validity

of this approach. For fluorescence activated cell sorting, endothelial and microglia cells (Suppl

Fig 7) were sorted on a FACSAria II (BD Biosciences) or CytoFlex SRT (Beckman) and

collected in sample buffer for genomic DNA qRT-PCR.

Cerebral endothelial knockdown of IL17-RA

Seven-ten week-old C57BL/6J, B6.Cg-*Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm14(CAG-tdTomato)Hze}*/J (Ai14 TdTomato

reporter, Stock #007909), and IL-17RA^{flox/flox} mice[34] mice were administered $1.8x10^{11}$ VG in

100µL sterile PBS of AAV-BR1-iCre[32, 33] (AAV-NRGTEWD-CAG-iCre). In Ai14 TdTomato mice,

virus transduction was assessed by immunofluorescence (described above) and analyzed as

TdTomato colocalization with the endothelial CD31 marker (100 vessels per mouse; n=3 mice).

In IL-17RA[flox/flox] mice, DOCA pellets were implanted three weeks after AAV-BR1-iCre

administration.

Nitric oxide measurement in pial microvessels

Pial microvessels were removed under a dissecting microscope[94] and incubated with DAF-FM

(25 µM; Molecular Probes) in l-ACSF (124 mM NaCl, 26 mM $NaHCO_3$, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM

NaH_2PO_4, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 2 mM $MgSO_4$, 20 mM glucose, 4.5 mM lactic acid, oxygenated with 95%

O_2 and 5% CO2, pH=7.4) at room temperature for 45 min[24, 94]. Time-resolved fluorescence was

measured every 60 s with an exposure time of 150 ms using image analysis software (IPLab,

Scanalytics Inc). After a stable fluorescence baseline was achieved, microvessels were

superfused with ACh (100 µM) for 15 min. DAF-FM fluorescence intensity is expressed as

$RFU/µm^2$, where RFU is the relative fluorescence unit, and $µm^2$ is unit of the area in which RFU

was measured.

Western blotting

Cerebral blood vessels and brain microvascular endothelial cells samples were lysed in RIPA

buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% deoxycholic acid, 0.1% SDS, 1 mM EDTA

pH 8.0, 1% IGEPAL CA-630) and equal volumes were mixed with SDS sample buffer, boiled,

and analyzed on 4–12% SDS polyacrylamide gels. Proteins were transferred to PVDF

membranes (Millipore), blocked with 5% milk in TBS/0.1% Tween-20 (TBST) and incubated with

anti-phospho-eNOS (Thr[495]) and anti-eNOS (Suppl Table 3; 1:1,000, Cell Signaling cat. #9574

and 9572, respectively). Membranes were washed in TBST, incubated with goat anti-rabbit

secondary antibodies conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (1:5,000; Jackson

ImmunoResearch peroxidase affinity-purified whole IgG antibodies), and protein bands were

visualized with Clarity Western ECL Substrate (Bio-Rad) on a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP Imaging

System. Raw images are provided in Suppl Fig 17-22.

In vivo treatments

To deplete cerebral CD206+ brain macrophages, clodronate- or PBS-loaded liposomes were

prepared as previously described[23, 33]. Under isoflurane anesthesia, 10 µl of clodronate-

liposomes (7 mg/ml) and PBS-liposomes (vehicle) were injected (rate: 500 nl/min, approaching

CSF clearance rates 300-400 nl/min[95]) into the cerebral ventricles (i.c.v.) with a Hamilton

syringe through a burr hole drilled on the right parietal bone (coordinates: 0.5 mm posterior to

bregma 1.0 mm lateral from midline, 2.3 mm below the brain surface) on the same day as

DOCA pellet implantation. Assessments were made 21 days after the injection, allowing ample

time for any potential perturbations in CSF homeostasis to subside. Attesting to the lack of

untoward effects of the injection we did not observe any alterations in cerebrovascular

regulation (functional hyperemia, endothelial vasoactivity, smooth muscle vasomotor function),

BBB permeability, or cognition in mice injected with the same volume of control PBS-liposomes.

FTY720 (1 mg/kg; Cayman Chemical)[24] was injected i.p. three times every 3 d after the first

week of DOCA-salt. Control and DOCA-salt mice were equipped with an intracerebroventricular

(i.c.v.) cannula attached to a osmotic mini-pump (ALZET brain infusion kit 3 #0008851, pump

#1004) for delivery of anti-TCRγδ antibody (UC7-13D5, BioXCell 0.1µg/hr) or isotype control

(polyclonal Armenian hamster IgG, BioXCell) on day 7 of DOCA salt. i.c.v. delivery of losartan

(5µg/hour) or saline was started on the same day as DOCA pellet implantation.

Isolation of brain and dural leukocytes

Isolation of brain leukocytes was performed as described[33]. Mice were anesthetized with

pentobarbital (100 mg/kg, i.p.) and transcardially perfused with heparinized PBS. Brain cell

isolation was performed by enzymatic digestion with Liberase DH (Roche Diagnostics) and

Dispase (Worthington). Brain hemispheres were separated from the cerebellum and olfactory

bulb and gently triturated in HEPES-HBSS buffer containing the following: 138mM NaCl, 5mM

KCl, 0.4mM Na_2HPO_4, 0.4mM KH_2PO_4, 5mM d-glucose, and 10mM HEPES using a Gentle

MACS dissociator (Miltenyi Biotec) following the manufacturer's instructions. The dura was

stripped from the skull[90] using a dissection microscope. The suspension was digested with 125

μg/ml Liberase, 0.8U/ml dispase, and 50 U/ml DNase I at 37°C for 45 min (brain) or 15 min

(dura) in an orbital shaker at 100 rpm. Brain cells isolated were washed and subjected to 30%

Percoll (GE Healthcare) density gradient centrifugation at 500g for 15 min. Dura were placed on

the surface of a premoistened 70-μm cell strainer. Tissue was gently homogenized with the end

of a 1-mL syringe plunger, washed with 20 mL 2% FBS in PBS and centrifuged at 500g for

7 min.

ROS assessment by flow cytometry

Following isolation of brain leukocytes, cells were incubated with dihydroethidium (DHE, 2.5μM)

or dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCF, 2μM) in stimulation buffer (RPMI-1640, 10% (v/v)

heat inactivated FBS, 100 units/mL penicillin, 100 μg/mL streptomycin) for 30 minutes at 37°

and 5% CO_2. Some cells were pooled and separated for stimulation experiments, and were

incubated with PBS, murine recombinant IL-17 (10ng/mL, Preprotech), or Ang II (300nM,

Sigma) for 30 minutes prior to addition of DHE (as above). Cells were washed with FACS buffer

(1X PBS, 2% FBS, 0.05% NaN_3) and centrifuged at 500g for 7 min.

Bone marrow transplant

As previously described[23, 33], whole-body irradiation was performed on 6-week-old C57BL/6

male mice with a lethal dose of 9.5 Gy of γ radiation using a ^{137}Cs source (Nordion Gammacell

40 Exactor). Eighteen hours later, BM cells (2 × 10⁶, i.v.) isolated from donor IL-17RA knockout

mice or B6.129S-*Cybb^{tm1Din}*/J mice (*Nox2^{–/–}*, JAX stock# 002365) were transplanted in irradiated

mice. Mice with transplanted BM cells were housed in cages with Sulfatrim diet for the first 2

weeks.

qRT-PCR

Procedures for RT-PCR were identical to those previously described[23, 24, 33]. Briefly, samples

were collected in TRIzol (Invitrogen Life Technologies) and RNA was extracted according to the

manufacturer's instructions. RNA samples were treated with Rnase-free DnaseI (Roche) to

remove DNA contamination. cDNA was produced from mRNA samples using the iScript

Reverse Transcription Supermix (Bio-Rad). Quantitative determination of gene expression was

performed on a Quantstudio 5 (Applied Biosystems). Hypoxanthine-guanine

phosphoribosyltransferase (HPRT) was used to normalize gene expression. qRT-PCR was

conducted with cDNA in duplicate 10-µL reactions on a 384-well plate using the Maxim a SYBR

Green/ROX qPCR Master Mix (2×) (Thermo Scientific). The reactions were incubated at 50°C

for 2 min and then at 95°C for 10 min. A polymerase chain reaction cycling protocol consisting

of 15 s at 95°C and 1 min at 60°C for 45 cycles was used for quantification. Relative expression

levels were calculated according to Livak and Schmittgen, and values were normalized to

respective normal control samples. Reference primer sequences are described in Suppl table 4.

For assessment of *Il17ra* knockdown *in vivo*, genomic DNA was extracted from sorted

endothelial and microglia cells. Cre recombination specifically targets exons 4-7 of the *Il17ra*

gene in IL17-RA^{flox/flox} mice, thus we normalized *Il17ra* exon 5 expression to the non-targeted

Il17ra exon 3. Primer sequences as described in Suppl table 4.

RNAscope

Tissue was treated according to manufacture's instructions for the RNAScope Multiplex

Fluorescent v2 Assay. Following 2% PFA perfusion, brain tissue was left in 2% PFA overnight.

The tissue then went through a sequential sucrose gradient (10%, 20%, 30%) before freezing

and storing at -80C. Tissue was cut at 10um on a cryostat, mounted on charged slides, and

stored at -80C until use. Slides were left to warm up for 2 hours at -20C then baked at 60C for

30+ min. Slides were washed with 1x PBS for 5 min then treated with RNAScope Hydrogen

Peroxide for 10 min. Slides were washed with nuclease-free water and pretreated with target

retrieval buffer in a slide envelope placed in 100C boiling water for 5 min. Slides were then

washed with distilled water, dipped in 100% EtOH, and a barrier was established around the

tissue using a hydrophobic marker. Slides were then allowed to air dry overnight. Slides were

treated with Protease IV for 15 min at 40C, followed by a probe incubation for 2 hours at 40C.

The probes (purchased from ACD) used were Mm-Mrc1 (Cat # 437511) and Mm-Il17ra-O1-C2

(Cat # 566131-C2). A 3-plex positive control probe and 3-plex negative control were run

concurrently. After probe incubation, slides underwent three amplification steps (RNAScope

Multiplex Fluorescent Detection Reagents v2, ACD, Cat # 323110) followed by the development

of horseradish peroxidase (HRP) signal fluorescence with TSA-based fluorophores. HRP

blockers were used after every fluorophore incubation. After each step, slides were washed

twice with wash buffer. Slides were then treated with RNAScope DAPI for 30 seconds then

cover-slipped in Fluorosave Reagent (Sigma, Cat # 345789) and left to dry for 20 min. Slides

were then stored at 4C until imaging.

IL-17A ELISpot Assay

Dura leukocytes were isolated as described above, and incubated in ELISpot plate for 4 hours

in stimulation buffer (RPMI-1640, 10% (v/v) heat inactivated FBS, 100 units/mL penicillin, 100

μg/mL streptomycin, 100 ng/mL phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), 1 μg/mL of ionomycin)

in a 37C humidified incubator with 5% CO_2. Mouse IL-17A ELISpotPLUS kit ALP (MABTECH,

Cat# 3521-4APW-2) was performed following manufacturer's instructions. Wells were

developed with BCIP/NBT-plus for 15 minutes, and color development was stopped by washing

with diH2O. Images were obtained using a digital camera (T TAKMLY, MX200-B) and analyzed

using ImageJ software.

CSF Collection

Mice were anesthetized with isoflurane (3% induction, 1.5% maintenance), and placed on a

stereotaxic frame with the head slightly tilted forward. A small incision was made over the back

of the neck, and muscle tissue moved to expose the dura over the cisterna magna. The area

was cleaned with a cotton bud. Heparinized glass capillaries were prepared using a

micropipette puller, attached to a thin tube and syringe connected through a three-way valve,

and mounted on a micromanipulator[96]. Under a dissecting microscope, the glass capillary was

aligned to the cisterna magna, avoiding blood vessels in the area, and tapped through the dura

to collect CSF for a maximum of 10 minutes. On average, 15-18μl was obtained per mouse.

Equal volumes of CSF from two animals were pooled to maximize loading sample volume of

25μl for IL-17 quantification (Mesoscale).

Ang II assay

Mice were euthanized, and blood was collected by cardiac puncture in a prechilled tube

containing a mix of protease inhibitors. Plasma was collected and transferred to a prechilled

tube and stored frozen at –80°C. Brains were collected and immediately frozen on dry ice. Ang

II concentration was determined using a radioimmunoassay by the Hypertension Core

Laboratory of the Wake Forest University School of Medicine (Winston-Salem, North Carolina,

USA)[97].

Statistical analysis

Sample size was determined according to standard power analysis (80% power and α=0.05)

based on standardized effect sizes calculated from published studies[23, 24, 30, 88, 98]. Animals were

randomly assigned to treatment and control groups, and analysis was performed in a blinded

fashion. After testing for normality (Bartlett's test), intergroup differences were analyzed by

unpaired two-tailed t-test for single comparison, or by 1-way ANOVA or 2-way ANOVA with

Tukey's or Bonferroni's multiple comparison test, as appropriate and indicated in the figure

legends. If non-parametric testing was indicated, intergroup differences were analyzed by

Mann-Whitney test or Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction, as appropriate and indicated in

the figure legends. Statistical tests through the manuscript were performed using Prism 7

(GraphPad). All data are presented as mean $\pm$ SEM.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by grants R37-NS089323 (CI), R01-NS095441(CI) and K22-

NS123507 (MMS), as well as the Leon Levy Fellowship in Neuroscience (MMS). The support

from the Feil Family Foundation is gratefully acknowledged. The authors declare no competing

financial interests. Figure schematics were made on Biorender.

REFERENCES

1.   Levine DA, Springer MV, Brodtmann A. Blood pressure and vascular cognitive
impairment. *Stroke*. 2022;53:1104-1113
2.   Muntner P, Miles MA, Jaeger BC, Hannon L, 3rd, Hardy ST, Ostchega Y, et al. Blood
pressure control among us adults, 2009 to 2012 through 2017 to 2020. *Hypertension*.
2022:101161hypertensionaha12219222
3.   Carey RM, Sakhuja S, Calhoun DA, Whelton PK, Muntner P. Prevalence of apparent
treatment-resistant hypertension in the united states. *Hypertension*. 2019;73:424-431
4.   Williamson JD, Pajewski NM, Auchus AP, Bryan RN, Chelune G, Cheung AK, et al.
Effect of intensive vs standard blood pressure control on probable dementia: A
randomized clinical trial. *Jama*. 2019;321:553-561
5.   Webb AJS, Werring DJ. New insights into cerebrovascular pathophysiology and
hypertension. *Stroke*. 2022;53:1054-1064

6.   Iadecola C, Gottesman RF. Neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction in hypertension:
882   Epidemiology, pathobiology and treatment. *Circ Res*. 2019;124:1025-1044

883   7.   Oh YS, Appel LJ, Galis ZS, Hafler DA, He J, Hernandez AL, et al. National heart, lung,
884   and blood institute working group report on salt in human health and sickness: Building
885   on the current scientific evidence. *Hypertension*. 2016;68:281-288

886   8.   Elijovich F, Weinberger MH, Anderson CA, Appel LJ, Bursztyn M, Cook NR, et al. Salt
887   sensitivity of blood pressure: A scientific statement from the american heart association.
888   *Hypertension*. 2016;68:e7-e46

889   9.   Grobe JL, Buehrer BA, Hilzendeger AM, Liu X, Davis DR, Xu D, et al. Angiotensinergic
890   signaling in the brain mediates metabolic effects of deoxycorticosterone (doca)-salt in
891   c57 mice. *Hypertension*. 2011;57:600-607

892   10.   Basting T, Lazartigues E. Doca-salt hypertension: An update. *Curr Hypertens Rep*.
893   2017;19:32

894   11.   Meade TW, Imeson JD, Gordon D, Peart WS. The epidemiology of plasma renin. *Clin
895   Sci (Lond)*. 1983;64:273-280

896   12.   Alderman MH, Madhavan S, Ooi WL, Cohen H, Sealey JE, Laragh JH. Association of
897   the renin-sodium profile with the risk of myocardial infarction in patients with
898   hypertension. *N Engl J Med*. 1991;324:1098-1104

899   13.   Madhur MS, Lob HE, McCann LA, Iwakura Y, Blinder Y, Guzik TJ, et al. Interleukin 17
900   promotes angiotensin ii-induced hypertension and vascular dysfunction. *Hypertension*.
901   2010;55:500-507

902   14.   Yao W, Sun Y, Wang X, Niu K. Elevated serum level of interleukin 17 in a population
903   with prehypertension. *J Clin Hypertens (Greenwich)*. 2015;17:770-774

904   15.   Simundic T, Jelakovic B, Dzumhur A, Turk T, Sahinovic I, Dobrosevic B, et al. Interleukin
905   17a and toll-like receptor 4 in patients with arterial hypertension. *Kidney Blood Press
906   Res*. 2017;42:99-108

907   16.   Kleinewietfeld M, Manzel A, Titze J, Kvakan H, Yosef N, Linker RA, et al. Sodium
908   chloride drives autoimmune disease by the induction of pathogenic th17 cells. *Nature*.
909   2013;496:518-522

910   17.   Wilck N, Matus MG, Kearney SM, Olesen SW, Forslund K, Bartolomaeus H, et al. Salt-
911   responsive gut commensal modulates th17 axis and disease. *Nature*. 2017;551:585-589

912   18.   Wu C, Yosef N, Thalhamer T, Zhu C, Xiao S, Kishi Y, et al. Induction of pathogenic th17
913   cells by inducible salt-sensing kinase sgk1. *Nature*. 2013;496:513-517

914   19.   Faraco G, Park L, Anrather J, Iadecola C. Brain perivascular macrophages:
915   Characterization and functional roles in health and disease. *J Mol Med (Berl)*.
916   2017;95:1143-1152

917   20.   Kierdorf K, Masuda T, Jordao MJC, Prinz M. Macrophages at cns interfaces: Ontogeny
918   and function in health and disease. *Nat Rev Neurosci*. 2019;20:547-562

919   21.   Faraco G, Park L, Zhou P, Luo W, Paul SM, Anrather J, et al. Hypertension enhances
920   abeta-induced neurovascular dysfunction, promotes beta-secretase activity, and leads to
921   amyloidogenic processing of app. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab*. 2016;36:241-252

922   22.   Kopp C, Linz P, Dahlmann A, Hammon M, Jantsch J, Müller DN, et al. 23na magnetic
923   resonance imaging-determined tissue sodium in healthy subjects and hypertensive
924   patients. *Hypertension*. 2013;61:635-640

925   23.   Faraco G, Sugiyama Y, Lane D, Garcia-Bonilla L, Chang H, Santisteban MM, et al.
926   Perivascular macrophages mediate the neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction
927   associated with hypertension. *J Clin Invest*. 2016;126:4674-4689

928   24.   Faraco G, Brea D, Garcia-Bonilla L, Wang G, Racchumi G, Chang H, et al. Dietary salt
929   promotes neurovascular and cognitive dysfunction through a gut-initiated th17 response.
930   *Nat Neurosci*. 2018;21:240-249

25. Toda N, Ayajiki K, Okamura T. Cerebral blood flow regulation by nitric oxide: Recent
advances. *Pharmacol Rev*. 2009;61:62-97

26. Iadecola C, Smith EE, Anrather J, Gu C, Mishra A, Misra S, et al. The neurovasculome:
Key roles in brain health and cognitive impairment: A scientific statement from the
american heart association/american stroke association. *Stroke*. 2023

27. Itani HA, McMaster WG, Jr., Saleh MA, Nazarewicz RR, Mikolajczyk TP, Kaszuba AM,
et al. Activation of human t cells in hypertension: Studies of humanized mice and
hypertensive humans. *Hypertension*. 2016;68:123-132

28. Kim S, Goel R, Kumar A, Qi Y, Lobaton G, Hosaka K, et al. Imbalance of gut microbiome
and intestinal epithelial barrier dysfunction in patients with high blood pressure. *Clin Sci*
(Lond). 2018;132:701-718

29. Esplugues E, Huber S, Gagliani N, Hauser AE, Town T, Wan YY, et al. Control of th17
cells occurs in the small intestine. *Nature*. 2011;475:514-518

30. Benakis C, Brea D, Caballero S, Faraco G, Moore J, Murphy M, et al. Commensal
microbiota affects ischemic stroke outcome by regulating intestinal gammadelta t cells.
Nat Med. 2016;22:516-523

31. Maeda Y, Seki N, Kataoka H, Takemoto K, Utsumi H, Fukunari A, et al. Il-17-producing
vγ4+ γδ t cells require sphingosine 1-phosphate receptor 1 for their egress from the
lymph nodes under homeostatic and inflammatory conditions. *J Immunol*.
2015;195:1408-1416

32. Korbelin J, Dogbevia G, Michelfelder S, Ridder DA, Hunger A, Wenzel J, et al. A brain
microvasculature endothelial cell-specific viral vector with the potential to treat
neurovascular and neurological diseases. *EMBO Mol Med*. 2016;8:609-625

33. Santisteban MM, Ahn SJ, Lane D, Faraco G, Garcia-Bonilla L, Racchumi G, et al.
Endothelium-macrophage crosstalk mediates blood-brain barrier dysfunction in
hypertension. *Hypertension*. 2020;76:795-807

34. El Malki K, Karbach SH, Huppert J, Zayoud M, Reissig S, Schuler R, et al. An alternative
pathway of imiquimod-induced psoriasis-like skin inflammation in the absence of
interleukin-17 receptor a signaling. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2013;133:441-451

35. Schaeffer S, Iadecola C. Revisiting the neurovascular unit. *Nat Neurosci*. 2021;24:1198-
1209

36. Nikolakopoulou AM, Wang Y, Ma Q, Sagare AP, Montagne A, Huuskonen MT, et al.
Endothelial lrp1 protects against neurodegeneration by blocking cyclophilin a. *J Exp*
Med. 2021;218

37. Van Hove H, Martens L, Scheyltjens I, De Vlaminck K, Pombo Antunes AR, De Prijck S,
et al. A single-cell atlas of mouse brain macrophages reveals unique transcriptional
identities shaped by ontogeny and tissue environment. *Nat Neurosci*. 2019;22:1021-
1035

38. Park L, Uekawa K, Garcia-Bonilla L, Koizumi K, Murphy M, Pistik R, et al. Brain
perivascular macrophages initiate the neurovascular dysfunction of alzheimer abeta
peptides. *Circ Res*. 2017;121:258-269

39. Sayd A, Vargas-Caraveo A, Perea-Romero I, Robledo-Montaña J, Caso JR, Madrigal
JLM, et al. Depletion of brain perivascular macrophages regulates acute restraint stress-
induced neuroinflammation and oxidative/nitrosative stress in rat frontal cortex. *Eur*
Neuropsychopharmacol. 2020;34:50-64

40. Mendiola AS, Ryu JK, Bardehle S, Meyer-Franke A, Ang KK, Wilson C, et al.
Transcriptional profiling and therapeutic targeting of oxidative stress in
neuroinflammation. *Nat Immunol*. 2020;21:513-524

41. Ivan DC, Walthert S, Berve K, Steudler J, Locatelli G. Dwellers and trespassers:
Mononuclear phagocytes at the borders of the central nervous system. *Front Immunol*.
2020;11:609921

42.   Garcia-Bonilla L, Sciortino R, Shahanoor Z, Racchumi G, Janakiraman M, Montaner J,
983   et al. Role of microglial and endothelial cd36 in post-ischemic inflammasome activation
984   and interleukin-1β-induced endothelial activation. *Brain Behav Immun*. 2021;95:489-501

985   43.   Hohsfield LA, Najafi AR, Ghorbanian Y, Soni N, Hingco EE, Kim SJ, et al. Effects of
986   long-term and brain-wide colonization of peripheral bone marrow-derived myeloid cells in
987   the cns. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2020;17:279

988   44.   Chinnery HR, Ruitenberg MJ, McMenamin PG. Novel characterization of monocyte-
989   derived cell populations in the meninges and choroid plexus and their rates of
990   replenishment in bone marrow chimeric mice. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol*. 2010;69:896-
991   909

992   45.   Pietrowski E, Bender B, Huppert J, White R, Luhmann HJ, Kuhlmann CR. Pro-
993   inflammatory effects of interleukin-17a on vascular smooth muscle cells involve nad(p)h-
994   oxidase derived reactive oxygen species. *J Vasc Res*. 2011;48:52-58

995   46.   Louveau A, Herz J, Alme MN, Salvador AF, Dong MQ, Viar KE, et al. Cns lymphatic
996   drainage and neuroinflammation are regulated by meningeal lymphatic vasculature. *Nat*
997   *Neurosci*. 2018;21:1380-1391

998   47.   Rua R, McGavern DB. Advances in meningeal immunity. *Trends Mol Med*. 2018;24:542-
999   559

1000   48.   Alves de Lima K, Rustenhoven J, Da Mesquita S, Wall M, Salvador AF, Smirnov I, et al.
1001   Meningeal γδ t cells regulate anxiety-like behavior via il-17a signaling in neurons. *Nat*
1002   *Immunol*. 2020

1003   49.   Ribeiro M, Brigas HC, Temido-Ferreira M, Pousinha PA, Regen T, Santa C, et al.
1004   Meningeal γδ t cell-derived il-17 controls synaptic plasticity and short-term memory. *Sci*
1005   *Immunol*. 2019;4

1006   50.   Rustenhoven J, Drieu A, Mamuladze T, de Lima KA, Dykstra T, Wall M, et al. Functional
1007   characterization of the dural sinuses as a neuroimmune interface. *Cell*. 2021;184:1000-
1008   1016.e1027

1009   51.   Ranieri E, Netti GS, Gigante M. Ctl elispot assay and t cell detection. *Methods Mol Biol*.
1010   2021;2325:65-77

1011   52.   Jones HE, Abrams KA, Siegenthaler JA. Techniques for visualizing fibroblast-vessel
1012   interactions in the developing and adult cns. *Neurophotonics*. 2022;9:021911

1013   53.   Derk J, Como CN, Jones HE, Joyce LR, Kim S, Spencer BL, et al. Formation and
1014   function of the meningeal arachnoid barrier around the developing mouse brain. *Dev*
1015   *Cell*. 2023

1016   54.   Zhang Y, Bailey JT, Xu E, Singh K, Lavaert M, Link VM, et al. Mucosal-associated
1017   invariant t cells restrict reactive oxidative damage and preserve meningeal barrier
1018   integrity and cognitive function. *Nat Immunol*. 2022;23:1714-1725

1019   55.   Prinz I, Silva-Santos B, Pennington DJ. Functional development of γδ t cells. *Eur J*
1020   *Immunol*. 2013;43:1988-1994

1021   56.   Gray EE, Ramírez-Valle F, Xu Y, Wu S, Wu Z, Karjalainen KE, et al. Deficiency in il-17-
1022   committed vγ4(+) γδ t cells in a spontaneous sox13-mutant cd45.1(+) congenic mouse
1023   substrain provides protection from dermatitis. *Nat Immunol*. 2013;14:584-592

1024   57.   McKenzie DR, Kara EE, Bastow CR, Tyllis TS, Fenix KA, Gregor CE, et al. Il-17-
1025   producing γδ t cells switch migratory patterns between resting and activated states. *Nat*
1026   *Commun*. 2017;8:15632

1027   58.   Mandala S, Hajdu R, Bergstrom J, Quackenbush E, Xie J, Milligan J, et al. Alteration of
1028   lymphocyte trafficking by sphingosine-1-phosphate receptor agonists. *Science*.
1029   2002;296:346-349

1030   59.   Chiba K, Yanagawa Y, Masubuchi Y, Kataoka H, Kawaguchi T, Ohtsuki M, et al. Fty720,
1031   a novel immunosuppressant, induces sequestration of circulating mature lymphocytes by
1032   acceleration of lymphocyte homing in rats. *J Immunol*. 1998;160:5037-5044

60.   Enosawa S, Suzuki S, Kakefuda T, Li XK, Amemiya H. Induction of selective cell death
targeting on mature t-lymphocytes in rats by a novel immunosuppressant, fty720.
Immunopharmacology. 1996;34:171-179
61.   Krebs CF, Paust HJ, Krohn S, Koyro T, Brix SR, Riedel JH, et al. Autoimmune renal
disease is exacerbated by s1p-receptor-1-dependent intestinal th17 cell migration to the
kidney. *Immunity*. 2016;45:1078-1092
62.   De Silva TM, Modrick ML, Grobe JL, Faraci FM. Activation of the central renin-
angiotensin system causes local cerebrovascular dysfunction. *Stroke*. 2021;52:2404-
2413
63.   Lu X, Crowley SD. The immune system in hypertension: A lost shaker of salt 2021 lewis
k. Dahl memorial lecture. *Hypertension*. 2022;79:1339-1347
64.   Guzik TJ, Hoch NE, Brown KA, McCann LA, Rahman A, Dikalov S, et al. Role of the t
cell in the genesis of angiotensin ii induced hypertension and vascular dysfunction. *J*
Exp Med. 2007;204:2449-2460
65.   Norlander AE, Madhur MS, Harrison DG. The immunology of hypertension. *J Exp Med*.
2018;215:21-33
66.   Drummond GR, Vinh A, Guzik TJ, Sobey CG. Immune mechanisms of hypertension. *Nat*
Rev Immunol. 2019;19:517-532
67.   Higaki A, Mahmoud AUM, Paradis P, Schiffrin EL. Role of interleukin-23/interleukin-17
axis in t-cell mediated actions in hypertension. *Cardiovasc Res*. 2020;117:1274-1283
68.   Lerman LO, Kurtz TW, Touyz RM, Ellison DH, Chade AR, Crowley SD, et al. Animal
models of hypertension: A scientific statement from the american heart association.
Hypertension. 2019:e87-e120
69.   Carvalho C, Moreira PI. Oxidative stress: A major player in cerebrovascular alterations
associated to neurodegenerative events. *Front Physiol*. 2018;9:806
70.   Gorelick PB, Scuteri A, Black SE, Decarli C, Greenberg SM, Iadecola C, et al. Vascular
contributions to cognitive impairment and dementia: A statement for healthcare
professionals from the american heart association/american stroke association. *Stroke*.
2011;42:2672-2713
71.   Cortes-Canteli M, Iadecola C. Alzheimer's disease and vascular aging: Jacc focus
seminar. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2020;75:942-951
72.   Brigas HC, Ribeiro M, Coelho JE, Gomes R, Gomez-Murcia V, Carvalho K, et al. Il-17
triggers the onset of cognitive and synaptic deficits in early stages of alzheimer's
disease. *Cell Rep*. 2021;36:109574
73.   Salvador AF, de Lima KA, Kipnis J. Neuromodulation by the immune system: A focus on
cytokines. *Nat Rev Immunol*. 2021;21:526-541
74.   Rouch L, Cestac P, Hanon O, Cool C, Helmer C, Bouhanick B, et al. Antihypertensive
drugs, prevention of cognitive decline and dementia: A systematic review of
observational studies, randomized controlled trials and meta-analyses, with discussion
of potential mechanisms. *CNS Drugs*. 2015;29:113-130
75.   Ding J, Davis-Plourde KL, Sedaghat S, Tully PJ, Wang W, Phillips C, et al.
Antihypertensive medications and risk for incident dementia and alzheimer's disease: A
meta-analysis of individual participant data from prospective cohort studies. *Lancet*
Neurol. 2020;19:61-70
76.   James PA, Oparil S, Carter BL, Cushman WC, Dennison-Himmelfarb C, Handler J, et al.
2014 evidence-based guideline for the management of high blood pressure in adults:
Report from the panel members appointed to the eighth joint national committee (jnc 8).
Jama. 2014;311:507-520
77.   Harrison DG, Coffman TM, Wilcox CS. Pathophysiology of hypertension: The mosaic
theory and beyond. *Circ Res*. 2021;128:847-863

78. Ridker PM, Everett BM, Thuren T, MacFadyen JG, Chang WH, Ballantyne C, et al.
Antiinflammatory therapy with canakinumab for atherosclerotic disease. *N Engl J Med*.
2017;377:1119-1131
79. Ma T, Wang F, Xu S, Huang JH. Meningeal immunity: Structure, function and a potential
therapeutic target of neurodegenerative diseases. *Brain Behav Immun*. 2021;93:264-276
80. Hayashi S, Lewis P, Pevny L, McMahon AP. Efficient gene modulation in mouse epiblast
using a sox2cre transgenic mouse strain. *Mech Dev*. 2002;119 Suppl 1:S97-s101
81. Belanger KM, Crislip GR, Gillis EE, Abdelbary M, Musall JB, Mohamed R, et al. Greater t
regulatory cells in females attenuate doca-salt-induced increases in blood pressure
versus males. *Hypertension*. 2020;75:1615-1623
82. Korvela M, Lind AL, Wetterhall M, Gordh T, Andersson M, Pettersson J. Quantification of
10 elements in human cerebrospinal fluid from chronic pain patients with and without
spinal cord stimulation. *J Trace Elem Med Biol*. 2016;37:1-7
83. Bischoff K, Lamm C, Erb HN, Hillebrandt JR. The effects of formalin fixation and tissue
embedding of bovine liver on copper, iron, and zinc analysis. *J Vet Diagn Invest*.
2008;20:220-224
84. Capone C, Faraco G, Park L, Cao X, Davisson RL, Iadecola C. The cerebrovascular
dysfunction induced by slow pressor doses of angiotensin ii precedes the development
of hypertension. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol*. 2011;300:H397-407
85. Kazama K, Wang G, Frys K, Anrather J, Iadecola C. Angiotensin ii attenuates functional
hyperemia in the mouse somatosensory cortex. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol*.
2003;285:H1890-1899
86. Kober F, Iltis I, Izquierdo M, Desrois M, Ibarrola D, Cozzone PJ, et al. High-resolution
myocardial perfusion mapping in small animals in vivo by spin-labeling gradient-echo
imaging. *Magn Reson Med*. 2004;51:62-67
87. Deacon RM. Assessing nest building in mice. *Nat Protoc*. 2006;1:1117-1119
88. Faraco G, Hochrainer K, Segarra SG, Schaeffer S, Santisteban MM, Menon A, et al.
Dietary salt promotes cognitive impairment through tau phosphorylation. *Nature*.
2019;574:686-690
89. Brea D, Poon C, Benakis C, Lubitz G, Murphy M, Iadecola C, et al. Stroke affects
intestinal immune cell trafficking to the central nervous system. *Brain Behav Immun*.
2021;96:295-302
90. Louveau A, Filiano A, Kipnis J. Meningeal whole mount preparation and characterization
of neural cells by flow cytometry. *Curr Protoc Immunol*. 2018;121
91. Goldmann T, Wieghofer P, Jordao MJ, Prutek F, Hagemeyer N, Frenzel K, et al. Origin,
fate and dynamics of macrophages at central nervous system interfaces. *Nat Immunol*.
2016;17:797-805
92. Borst K, Prinz M. Deciphering the heterogeneity of myeloid cells during
neuroinflammation in the single-cell era. *Brain Pathol*. 2020;30:1192-1207
93. Mendes NF, Velloso LA. Perivascular macrophages in high-fat diet-induced
hypothalamic inflammation. *J Neuroinflammation*. 2022;19:136
94. Park L, Wang G, Zhou P, Zhou J, Pitstick R, Previti ML, et al. Scavenger receptor cd36
is essential for the cerebrovascular oxidative stress and neurovascular dysfunction
induced by amyloid-beta. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A*. 2011;108:5063-5068
95. Rudick RA, Zirretta DK, Herndon RM. Clearance of albumin from mouse subarachnoid
space: A measure of csf bulk flow. *J Neurosci Methods*. 1982;6:253-259
96. Lim NK, Moestrup V, Zhang X, Wang WA, Møller A, Huang FD. An improved method for
collection of cerebrospinal fluid from anesthetized mice. *J Vis Exp*. 2018
97. Nakamoto H, Ferrario CM, Fuller SB, Robaczewski DL, Winicov E, Dean RH.
Angiotensin-(1-7) and nitric oxide interaction in renovascular hypertension.
Hypertension. 1995;25:796-802

98.   Park L, Hochrainer K, Hattori Y, Ahn SJ, Anfray A, Wang G, et al. Tau induces psd95-
1135   neuronal nos uncoupling and neurovascular dysfunction independent of
1136   neurodegeneration. *Nat Neurosci*. 2020;23:1079-1089
1137

Figure 1. DOCA-salt hypertension induces neurovascular and cognitive impairment. (A) Systolic blood pressure (SBP), assessed by tail cuff plethysmography, is elevated in DOCA-salt hypertension over 28 days of treatment (HTN: p<0.0001, time: p<0.0001, interaction: p<0.0001; n=15). **(B)** Schematic of methods used to assess neurovascular function. **(C-D)** DOCA attenuates the increase in cerebral blood flow (CBF) induced by 60s stimulation of the facial whiskers (functional hyperemia),

beginning at 10 days of DOCA (HTN: p<0.0001, time: p=0.001, interaction: p<0.0001; n=4-7). **(E)** Endothelial vasodilation was attenuated by DOCA beginning at 10 days (HTN: p<0.0001, time: p<0.0001, interaction: p<0.0001; n=4-7). **(F)** No difference was observed in smooth muscle reactivity (HTN: p=0.9702, time: p=.1981, interaction: p=.6479; n=4-7). **(G-I)** DOCA induced cognitive impairment assessed by **(G)** percent time exploring a novel object (HTN: p<0.0001, time: p<0.0001, interaction: 0.0012; n=5-11), **(H)** time in target quadrant (TQ) during Barnes maze probe trial (HTN: p<0.0001, time: p=0.6531, interaction: 0.7123; n=13), and **(I)** nest building assessed on the Deacon score scale (HTN: p=0.0125, time: p=0.0069, interaction: p=0093; n=10-20). Representative images of a single mouse from each group are shown for novel object recognition, Barnes maze probe trial, and nest building. All intergroup differences analyzed by two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 2. The neurovascular and cognitive impairment induced by DOCA is mediated by IL-17.
(A) Serum IL-17 is elevated in DOCA HTN starting at 10 days (p<0.0001; one-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5-18 as shown). **(B)** 21 days of DOCA-salt increased *Il17a* mRNA (unpaired two-tailed t-test, n=11) as well as **(C-D)** IL17-GFP cells in the small intestine. (unpaired two-tailed t-test); Scale bar: 300µm. **(E)** By flow cytometry, these cells were identified to be **(F)** Th17 and **(G)** γδT17 in the lamina propria (LP) not intraepithelial lymphocytes (IEL) (unpaired two-tailed t-test, n=6). **(H-I)** Th17 and γδT17 were also expanded in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) and spleen (SP), but not in the bone marrow (BM) or lymph nodes (LN) (unpaired two-tailed t-test per organ, n=7-8). **(J-N)** IL-17 deficient mice (KO) did not exhibit an attenuation in functional hyperemia (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=0.0024, interaction: p=0.0002; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6-8) and endothelial vasodilation (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=0.0079, interaction: p=0.0004; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6-8), and no deficits were observed in either novel object (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=2603, interaction: p=0.0003; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=9-11) or Barnes maze tests (HTN: p=0.001, genotype: p=0.0076, interaction: p=0.0114; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=9-11). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 3. IL-17 impairs endothelial vasodilation by downregulating NO bioavailability via endothelial IL-17 receptors. (A-C) IL17RA brain endothelial cell knockout (IL17RAb[ECKO]) mice are protected from the impairment in endothelial vasodilation (HTN: p=0.0007, genotype: p=0.0067, interaction: p=0.0223; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=7-8) but not the impairment in functional hyperemia induced by DOCA (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=0.9446, interaction: p=0.0161; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=7-8). **(D)** Resting and ACh-induced endothelial NO production was attenuated in DOCA cerebral microvascular preparations (p<0.0001, repeated measured one-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=8). Scale bar: 50µm. **(E-F)** eNOS inhibitory phosphorylation was increased by DOCA in WT mice (unpaired two-tailed t-test), an effect suppressed in IL-17RAb[ECKO] (HTN: p=0.0185, genotype: p=0.0037, interaction: p=0.0266; two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5-7). **(G-H)** IL17RAb[ECKO] displayed cognitive improvement only at novel object recognition (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=0.0061, interaction: p=0.0338; two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-12), not the Barnes maze (HTN: p<0.0001, genotype: p=0.9599, interaction: p=0.2875; two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-12). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 4. IL-17 impairs functional hyperemia via enhanced free radical production mediated by IL-17RA in BAM. (A-C) Brain associated macrophage (BAM), including perivascular and leptomeningeal macrophages, were depleted by 80% 21 days after intracerebroventricular delivery of liposome-encapsulated clodronate depletes (HTN: p=0.3156, liposomes: p=<0.0001, interaction: p=0.7304; two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=5). Scale bar: 150µm. **(D-G)** BAM

depletion normalized functional hyperemia (HTN: p<0.0001, liposomes: p=0.0050, interaction: p=0.0004; two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=9-10) and partially improved endothelial vasoactivity (HTN: p<0.0001, liposomes: p=0.01, interaction: p=0.0112, two-way ANOVA and Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=9-10) while also improving cognitive function assessed by novel object recognition (HTN: p<0.0001, liposomes: p<0.0001, interaction: p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=10) and Barnes maze (HTN: p=0.1240, liposomes: p=0.0648, interaction: p=0.0062, two-way ANOVA and Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=10-12). **(H)** Neocortical application of the ROS scavenger MnTBAP rescued the impairment of functional hyperemia in DOCA-salt (p=0.0017, repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test, n=5). **(I-K)** The increased ROS production in BAM induced by DOCA-salt (HTN: p=0.0033, cell type: p<0.0001, interaction: p<0.0001; two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test; n=6-7) is prevented in IL-17RA deficient mice (HTN: p=0.0006, genotype: p<0.0001, interaction: p=0.0002; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6-8). **(L)** Recombinant IL-17 increased ROS production in BAM (unpaired two-tailed t-test per ROS indicator, n=5-8). **(M-Q)** Deletion of either IL-17RA or Nox2 from BAM in BM chimeras prevented the impairment of functional hyperemia in full (HTN: p=0.0030, BAM genotype: p=0.0003, interaction: p<0.0001; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-8), improved endothelial vasoactivity (HTN: p<0.0001, BAM genotype: p=0.1898, interaction: p=0.0248; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-8), as well as cognitive function (novel object HTN: p=0.0392, BAM genotype: p<0.0001; interaction: p=0.0004; Barnes HTN: p=0.2287, BAM genotype: p=0.0362, interaction: p=0.0040; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-8). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 5. IL17-RA deletion in BAM improves functional hyperemia and cognitive function in DOCA-salt. (A) CreERT2 cassette was introduced into the endogenous Mrc1 locus. **(B)** These mice were crossed with the Ai14 TdTomato reporter mice, and **(C)** showed TdTM expression in BAM. Scale bar: 50μm. **(D)** Mrc1^{CreERT2} mice were crossed with IL17-RA$^{flox/flox}$ to generate BAM$^{IL17RA-/-}$. **(E)** IL17RA expression was reduced by 78.9% in BAM$^{IL17RA-/-}$ compared to BAM^{WT} mice. (n=3 mice/group; 50 BAM per mouse; p<0.0001, two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparisons test). **(F)** Blood pressure under control and DOCA-salt conditions was not altered in BAM^{WT} or BAM$^{IL17RA-/-}$ mice (two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test). **(F-G)** IL17-RA deletion in BAM restored functional hyperemia (HTN: p=0.0048, genotype: p=0.0080, interaction: p=0.0499; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=4-5) without improving endothelial vasodilation (HTN: p<0.001, genotype: p=0.8120, interaction: p=0.4368; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=4-5), and **(H-I)** rescued cognitive function after 21 days of DOCA-salt (novel object HTN: p=0.2638, genotype: p=0.0460; interaction: p=0.0100; Barnes HTN: p=0.0427, genotype: p=0.5297, interaction: p=0.0365; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=5-7). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 6. Salt-sensitive hypertension increases IL17-producing T cells located in the dura mater.
(A) *Il17a* mRNA was not observed in the brain parenchyma, but it was detected in dura mater of control mice and was markedly increased by DOCA-salt (unpaired two-tailed t-test; n=6). **(B)** Dura whole

mount stained with CD31 (magenta). Scale bar: 1mm. **(C)** DOCA-salt treatment led to a significant increase in IL17-GFP+ cells in the vicinity of the venous sinuses (HTN: p=0.0017, Sinus: p<0.0001, interaction: p=0.0034; two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6). **(D)** Representative images of control and DOCA sinus and non-sinus regions. Analysis shown in 6C. **(E-F)** Dural isolated cells secrete IL-17, and this response is increased in DOCA-salt mice (unpaired two-tailed t-test; n=5). **(G)** DOCA-salt does not change the total number of CD45 immune cells isolated from dura. **(H-I)** DOCA-salt increases the percentage of $\gamma\delta$T17 cells but no difference in Th17 cells (unpaired two-tailed t-test; n=14-17 mice). **(J)** IL-17 detection was increased in the cerebrospinal fluid (CSF) after 21 days of DOCA-salt (Wilcoxon signed-rank test, n=12-13). **(K)** Arachnoid barrier integrity was assessed by the arachnoid barrier tight junction marker Claudin-11. Arrowheads indicate discontinuous tight junctions, # indicates reduced arachnoid domain size, and thin arrows indicate altered tight junction morphology. **(L-M)** Arachnoid barrier domain size (Kolmogrov-Smirnov test; n=616-663 domains [5 mice, 10 images per mouse, all domains per image quantified]) and distribution was altered by DOCA-salt (HTN: p=0.9880, domain size bin: p<0.0001; interaction: p<0.0001; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 7. Cognitive impairment in salt-sensitive hypertension is driven by meningeal IL17-producing T cells. (A-B) FTY720 was administered from day 7 through day 21 of DOCA-salt and did not affect the increase in systolic blood pressure (treatment: p<0.0001, time: p<0.0001, interaction:

p=0.0182; two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=5-8). **(C-D)** FTY720 reduces circulating CD4 T cells (HTN: p=0.0705, treatment: p<0.0001, interaction: p=0.0737; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=4-7), without affecting the elevation in serum IL-17 in DOCA-salt (HTN: p<0.0001, treatment: p=0.7200, interaction: p=0.6622; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=9-11). **(E-G)** FTY720 reduced IL17-GFP cells in the meninges, including both Th17 (HTN: p=0.8358, treatment: p<0.0001, interaction: p=0.7848; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=8-10) and $\gamma\delta$T17 (HTN: p=0.2517, treatment: p=0.0003, interaction: p=0.3639; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=8-10). **(H-K)** FTY did not improve endothelial vasoactivity (HTN: p<0.0001, treatment: p=0.4839, interaction: p=0.9293; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5-6), but completely restored functional hyperemia (HTN: p<0.0001, treatment: p=0.0004, interaction: p<0.0001; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5-6), as well as improved cognitive function (novel object HTN: p=0.0007, treatment: p=0.0037; interaction: p=0.0023; Barnes HTN: p=0.0023, treatment: p=0.0045, interaction: p=0.1695; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=8-12). **(L)** anti-TCRgd antibody was delivered i.c.v. from day 7 to 21 of DOCA-salt. **(M)** anti-TCRgd antibody treatment reduced gdT cells in the dura (p<0.0001, two-tailed unpaired t-test). **(N)** anti-TCRgd antibody did not alter the blood pressure response to DOCA-salt (two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test). **(O-R)** Dura gdT cell depletion did not restore endothelial vasodilation (HTN: p=0.0008, treatment: p=0.8541, interaction: p=0.2935; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=4-5), but was associated with improved functional hyperemia (HTN: p=0.0190, treatment: p=0.3072, interaction: p=0.0655; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=4-5) and cognitive function (novel object HTN: p=0.0012, treatment: p=0.0323; interaction: p=0.0004; Barnes HTN: p=0.0040, treatment: p=0.0229, interaction: p=0.3002; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=6-8). Data are shown as mean ± SEM.

Figure 8. The contribution of Ang II to the cerebrovascular dysfunction in DOCA-salt depends on IL-17 signaling. (A-B) DOCA-salt treatment elevated Ang II levels in brain and reduced it in the circulation (unpaired two-tailed t-test; n=7-8). **(C-D)** DOCA-salt upregulates brain *Agtr1a* and downregulates kidney renin (unpaired two-tailed t-test; n=4-5). **(E-G)** Central AT1R blockade with i.c.v. losartan restored functional hyperemia (HTN: p=0.0088, treatment: p=0.0148, interaction: p<0.0001; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6-8), but did not improve endothelium-dependent vasodilation (HTN: p<0.0001, treatment: p=0.9604, interaction: p=0.2642; two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=6-8). **(H-I)** Central AT1R blockade improved novel object recognition (HTN: p<0.0001, treatment: p=0.0005, interaction: p<0.0001; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=8-10), but did not improve Barnes maze (HTN: p=0.0002; treatment: p=0.6968, interaction: p=0.2113; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=7-8). **(J)** Ang II stimulation increased ROS production in WT but not IL17RA^{-/-} BAM (genotype: p=0.0015; treatment: p=0.0050, interaction: p=0.0087; two-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison test; n=5-7). **(K-L)** Neocortical application of Ang II impaired endothelial vasoactivity (genotype: p=0.0029; treatment: p=0.0003, interaction: p=0.0004; two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5) and induced neurovascular dysfunction (genotype: p=0.0374; treatment: p=0.0003, interaction: p=0.0005; two-way repeated measures ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test; n=5) in WT but not IL17KO mice. Data are shown as mean ± SEM.