The splicing factor kinase SRPK1 is a therapeutic target for Peripheral

Vascular Disease

[1]Sohni Ria Bhalla, [1]Mussarat Wahid, [1]Jason Amartey, [1]Federica Riu, [1]Yizhuo Gao,

[1]Jyoti Agrawal, [1]Amy P Lynch, [1]Maria JC Machado, [2]Tom Hawtrey, [3]Ryosuke Kikuchi,

[1]Kathryn R Green, [4]Lydia Teboul, [1]Claire Allen, [1]Zoe Blackley, [1]Keerthana Rajaji,

[1]Daisy Marsden, [1]Jennifer Batson, [5]Steven J Harper, [6]Sebastian Oltean, [7]Winfried

Amoaku, [1]Andrew V Benest, [2]Jonathan Morris, [8]Bruce Braithwaite, [1]David O Bates.

[1]Tumour and Vascular Biology Laboratories, Division of Cancer and Stem Cells, Centre for

Cancer Sciences, School of Medicine, Biodiscovery Institute, University of Nottingham,

Science Road, NG7 2RD.

[2]School of Chemistry, University of New South Wales, Sydney, Australia.

[3]Division of Clinical Laboratory, Gifu University Hospital, 1-1 Yanagido, Gifu, 501-1194,

Japan.

[4]Mary Lyon Centre, MRC Harwell Institute, Harwell Campus, Oxfordshire, OX11 0RD, UK.

[5]Division of Nephrology, North Bristol NHS Trust, Southmead Hospital, Bristol

[6] Department of Clinical and Biomedical Sciences, Medical School Building, St Luke's

Campus, Magdalen Road, Exeter, EX1 2LU, UK

[7]Department of Ophthalmology, School of Medicine, University of Nottingham, Queen's
Medical Centre, Nottingham, NG7 2UH.
22
23   [8]Department of Vascular Surgery, Nottingham University Health Care Trust, Queen's
24   Medical Centre, Nottingham, NG7 2UH.
25

Abstract

Introduction. VEGF-A splicing has been shown to be regulated in epithelial cells and

cancer cells by the phosphorylation of serine/arginine splicing factor 1 (SRSF1) by

serine-arginine protein kinase 1 (SRPK1). In these cell types inhibition of SRPK1

switches splicing to the anti-angiogenic VEGF-A isoforms. In peripheral arterial

disease (PAD) vascular insufficiency and reduced blood flow results from

overexpression of the anti-angiogenic isoform of VEGF-A, VEGF-A$_{165}$b, in circulating

monocytes. To determine if SRPK1 was involved in VEGF expression by monocytes

driving impaired collateral vessels, we investigated the effects of SRPK1 inhibition and

monocyte specific SRPK1 knockout in mouse models of PAD and in human

monocytes from patients with PAD.

Methods. VEGF-A$_{165}$b activity was measured in monocytes from patients with PAD

by co-culture with endothelial cells in a migration assay in the presence of SRPK1

inhibitors. Mice with impaired revascularisation due to either soluble frizzled related

protein 5 knockout (Sfrp5$^{-/-}$), monocyte specific gain of function of Wnt5a (LysM-

Wnt5a^{GOF}), or obese mice on a high fat high sucrose (HF/HS) diet were subjected to

left femoral artery ligation and treated with SRPK1 inhibitor SPHINX31. To determine

monocyte specific SRPK1 activity we generated an SRPK1 conditional knockout

under the control of a monocyte specific (LysM-Cre) driver (SRPK1^{MoKO}) mice. Blood

flow to the paw was measured by Laser Speckle Imaging before, and for 28 days after,

surgery.

Results. Monocytes from patients with PAD significantly inhibited migration of human

endothelial cells in culture, which was inhibited by an anti-VEGF-A$_{165}$b antibody.

Surprisingly, this inhibition was reversed by SRPK1 inhibition, which switched splicing

from VEGF-A$_{165}$b to VEGF-A$_{165}$a. In the Sfrp5$^{-/-}$, LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} and HF/HS mouse

models of PAD, impaired blood flow was reversed by SRPK1 inhibition. The impaired

revascularisation in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice was also rescued in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}:

SRPK1^{MoKO} mice. Impaired blood flow recovery was also rescued in obese-

SRPK1^{MoKO} mice.

Conclusion. VEGF splicing in monocytes is differently regulated from VEGF splicing

in epithelial cells or cancer cells. This indicates that control of splicing is dependent on

cell type and/or environment. SRPK1 inhibition is able to enhance collateralisation in
mice, and in vitro models of monocyte dependent impaired angiogenesis in human
endothelial cells.
66

Introduction

More than 4 million people in the UK have diabetes (7.9% of the population), predominantly type 2 (T2D). This is predicted to rise by 20% by 2030 (data from APHO Diabetes Prevalence Model). Progressive atherosclerosis and microvascular disease are the leading causes of amputations and are most common in people with diabetes. However, in otherwise healthy individuals, progressive atherosclerosis and microvascular disease can be circumvented by the development of collateral vessels. This collateral formation is impaired in people with diabetes, resulting in more severe PAD, critical limb threatening ischemia (CLTI) and ischemia of other tissues, including coronary vascular disease (CVD), leading to increased incidence of fatal myocardial infarction (MI)[1]. Understanding why diabetes impairs collateral formation, and identifying ways that can overcome that inhibition, could provide radical, effective new therapies for people with diabetes, PAD and CVD.

Hyperactivation of the Wnt5a pathway in monocytes has been proposed to be a key mechanism through which metabolic syndrome patients[2] have impaired collateralisation[3-5]. In T2D and in obesity circulating monocytes are pro-inflammatory[6]. These circulating monocytes have increased VEGF production[7], suggesting that they should be able to aid arteriogenesis and angiogenesis and stimulate collateral formation. However, the monocytes appear unable to elicit the actions of VEGF[8]. This paradox – increased VEGF production but reduced angiogenic capability in diabetic patients – may be partly explained by findings that monocytes from T2D patients, and mouse and rat models of T2D, have increased Wnt5a expression and activity[4]. Sfrp5, the endogenous inhibitor of Wnt5a is reduced in plasma from patients with obesity, T2D or both[9,10]. The effect of Sfrp5 knockout on angiogenesis in adult mice is significantly impaired recovery of blood flow and angiogenesis after hind limb ischemia (HLI), a model of collateralisation in mice. This impairment is reproduced by a Wnt5a overexpressing monocytic lineage-specific gain of function animal (LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}). VEGF-A mRNA and protein levels are dramatically upregulated in these animals, contrary to the findings of reduced angiogenesis[5].

VEGF-A exists as two functionally contrasting families of isoforms resulting from mRNA processing[11]. Alternative 3' splice site selection in the terminal exon, exon 8, can generate either pro-angiogenic isoforms termed VEGF-A$_{xxx}$a where xxx is the

number of amino acids in the mature polypeptide (e.g. VEGF-A$_{165}$b), or isoforms that can inhibit angiogenesis by use of a splice site 66 nucleotides downstream of the proximal 3' splice site, termed VEGF-A$_{xxx}$b[12]. VEGF-A$_{165}$b is the most studied member of this family. VEGF-A$_{165}$b acts as a partial agonist for its receptors[13-15], inhibiting VEGF-A$_{165}$a induced angiogenesis[15], but protecting endothelial and epithelial cells (including ocular and renal epithelial cells) from cytotoxic insults[16,17]. VEGF-A$_{165}$b binds to the tyrosine kinase receptors VEGFR1 and VEGFR2[13-15] but not neuropilin or heparan sulphate proteoglycans[14] resulting in partial activation of VEGFR2[18], unstable kinase activation due to lack of phosphorylation of Tyr1054 in VEGFR2[13] and inhibition of VEGFR1 signalling[19].

Interestingly, the impaired revascularisation seen in sfrp5$^{-/-}$ and LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice is VEGF$_{xxx}$b dependent as VEGF$_{xxx}$b neutralising antibodies reversed the blocked revascularisation[5]. Moreover, VEGF-A$_{165}$b is upregulated in mouse obesity models, and VEGF-A$_{165}$b selective antibodies improved collateralisation in models of both peripheral ischemia[5,19-21] and coronary vascular disease[22]. VEGF$_{165}$b has also been shown to be upregulated in people with peripheral arterial disease and in people with coronary vascular disease[23], both at the RNA level in circulating monocytes[5], and at the protein level in plasma[22], muscle and macrophages[5]. These results provide a potential explanation for impaired collateral formation in diabetes, and a potential novel therapeutic strategy to reduce cardiovascular disease in diabetic patients. That strategy would require selective inhibition of VEGF-A$_{165}$b in monocytes in people with diabetes and ischemia. Pre-mRNA splicing is orchestrated by splicing factors. In contrast with constitutive splicing, alternative splicing refers to the recruitment of a unique pattern of splicing factors (tissue and developmental stage-specific) resulting in transcripts that encode different proteins, often with contrasting properties. The actions of key splicing factors (SFs) such as the SR proteins SRSF1 and SRSF6 can be modulated by small molecular weight inhibitors of their specific kinases SRPK1/2 (e.g. SPHINX31[24]) and CLKs (e.g. TG003)[25]. SRSFs are known to affect VEGF-A splicing – in epithelial cells, SRSF6 over-expression switches expression to VEGF-A$_{165}$b[26], and SRSF1 to VEGF-A$_{165}$a in kidney and ocular epithelial cells[27,28], and SRSF2 to VEGF-A$_{165}$ in lung cancer cells[29]. In epithelial and cancer cells, inhibition of SRSF1 phosphorylation by SRPK1 blockade inhibits VEGF-A proximal splice site selection in exon 8[30,31], and SRPK1 inhibition is an effective anti-angiogenic strategy

for retinal neovascularisation and choroidal neovascularisation in eye disease[30,32,33].
However, we do not yet know what regulates VEGF splicing in monocytes, or whether
this holds true in monocytes from diabetic patients with cardiovascular disease, or
monocytes as they differentiate into macrophages during adherence and
extravasation.
We therefore investigated the mechanism of splicing control in monocytes, and
show that SRPK1 in monocytes, in contrast to epithelial cells, switches splicing to the
VEGF-A$_{165}$b isoform in monocytes, and SRPK1 inhibition is able to reverse peripheral
vascular disease in mice, and induce the angiogenic capability of human monocytes.
144

Methods

Patient samples

Patients with peripheral artery disease (ankle brachial pressure index <0.9) were enrolled from Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham (UK) after obtaining their written informed consent. 50 mL of whole peripheral blood was collected in EDTA tubes. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were isolated from blood by density gradient centrifugation using Ficoll® Paque Plus (Cytiva, Marlborough, MA, USA). Blood was buffered by mixing it with an equal volume of PBS. 15mL of Ficoll-Paque Plus solution (Cytiva) in a 50 mL conical tube was carefully overlaid with 30 mL of diluted blood and centrifuged for 20 minutes at 1,000 g at room temperature with slow accelerator and no brake. The interface containing the cellular layer was collected from each tube with a transfer pipette, washed with PBS and placed into a 50 mL tube and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 600g with maximum acceleration and deceleration at room temperature. The obtained PBMCs were treated with 5mL of red blood cell lysis buffer (0.83g NH4Cl, 0.1g KHCO3, 5% EDTA dissolved in 100 mL of distilled water and filter sterilized using 0.22 µM filter) and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature to lyse the remaining red blood cells. This tube containing lysed cells was then centrifuged for 6 minutes at 400g at room temperature. The PBS wash was repeated followed by centrifugation for 6 minutes at 400 g at room temperature, cell count and viability assessment were performed. To separate monocytes from the PBMCs, antihuman CD14 MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Bergisch Gladbach, Germany), were used as per manufacturer's protocol. The CD14 positive cells were then re-suspended in RPMI 1640 medium (Fisher Scientific, Leicester, UK) supplemented with 10% human AB serum (Zen Bio, Durham, NC, USA).

Endothelial cell migration assay

Human Umbilical Vein Endothelial Cell (HUVEC) (PromoCell GmbH, Heidelberg Germany) were serum starved overnight in Endothelial cell basal medium (ECBM) supplemented with endothelial cell growth kit (PromoCell GmbH, Heidelberg Germany) without serum. Transwell migration assays were performed in 24-well Thincert, (8.0µm pore size; Greiner Bio-One, GL, UK) placed in 24-well plates containing 0.1% fetal calf serum without or with 40ng/ml $VEGF_{165}a$, 40ng/ml $VEGF_{165}a$ and 40ng/ml $VEGF_{165}b$, or both isoforms and increasing concentrations of mouse anti-$VEGF-A_{165}b$ antibody[15], or in human AB serum (HSER-ABP100ML AMSBio, Oxford,

UK) in RPMI 1640 media (Fisher Scientific, Leicester, UK) alone (0.5% control), with

40ng/ml $VEGF_{165}$a or with 40ng/ml $VEGF_{165}$a $CD14^+$ labelled monocytes suspended

at a density of $5x10^4$ cells and treatments as shown. HUVEC were suspended in

serum-free ECBM (without supplements) and plated at a density of $5x10^4$ cells on the

upper chamber of the 8μm inserts. Endothelial cells were allowed to migrate overnight

at 37°C under 5.0% CO_2. The inserts were washed 3 times in PBS and fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 15 minutes. After fixation, inserts were washed 3 times in

PBS and stained with DAPI (nuclei stain) for 15 minutes at room temperature. Stained

membranes were removed from inserts and mounted on the glass slide. The migrated

cells were counted under a microscope in 3 different views away from the insert edge

by an observer blinded to treatment (10x magnification). Each monocyte sample was

reproduced in triplicate.

Animal model. $Sfrp5^{-/-}$ and LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice were a kind gift of K Walsh. Mice

with SRPK1 knockout were generated in collaboration at MRC Harwell by flanking

exon 7 of *Srpk1* gene with LoxP sites. The promoter driven L1L2-Bact-P cassette was

removed by crossing mice with flipase mediated recombination generating SRPK1$^{Fl/Fl}$

mice. To generate the SRPK1 knockout mouse model (hereafter referred to as

SRPK1^{MoKO}), the Srpk1$^{Fl/Fl}$ mice were crossed with Lysozyme M-Cre mice. To

generate the double transgenic mouse model (hereafter referred to as LysM-

Wnt5a^{GOF}: SRPK1^{MoKO}), the LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice were crossed with the SRPK1$^{Fl/Fl}$

mice. All mice were maintained on a C57/BLJ background. Mice were fed either a

normal chow diet (Teklad global, 2018S) or a HF/HS diet (Bio-Serv, S1850) as

indicated. The composition of the HF/HS diet was 35.8% fat, 36.8% carbohydrates

and 20.3% protein. For the HF/HS diet, mice were maintained on a HF/HS diet from

the age of 4 weeks old for the duration of the study.

Hind limb ischemia surgical procedure. All animal experiments were conducted in

accordance with the Animal Scientific Procedures Act (ASPA) of 1986 under a UK

Home Office License at the University of Nottingham Biological Services Unit. All

mixed gender transgenic C57/BLJ mice were subjected to unilateral hindlimb ischemia

between 10 to 12 weeks of age. Anaesthesia was induced with 2% isoflurane in 100%

oxygen at rate of 2L/min. Body temperature was controlled throughout using a

homeothermic blanket and rectal probe (Harvard Apparatus). The hair was removed

from the hind limb using Nair hair removal cream and sterilised using chlorohexidine-
based solution. Mice were administered a pre-operative analgesic, buprenorphine
(0.05mg/kg, subcutaneous) and saline solution (0.9% sodium chloride at 40ml/kg). An
incision was cut in the left medial thigh and the connective tissue was teased apart to
expose the femoral artery, vein and nerve. The nerve bundle and vein were teased
apart from the femoral artery. The femoral artery was ligated in two sites above and
below the epigastric branch and electro-coagulated in between to induce ischemia to
the left hind paw. The blood flow to both paws was measured using the laser speckle
imaging system (Moors FLIP2, Moors instruments). The blood flow was monitored on
pre-operative day 0 and post-operative days 0, 3, 7, 14, 21 and/or 28. The ratio of the
blood flow was calculated between the ischemic vs contralateral paw to measure the
blood flow recovery throughout the duration of the study. If the reduction in blood flow
was less than 70% the animals were excluded for subsequent analysis *a priori*. For
SPHINX31 *in vivo* treated experiments, animals were treated with 0.8mg/kg
SPHINX31 synthesised as described in [24] bi-weekly for the duration of the study.
Twenty Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ and twenty wild type mice were used, and 8 of each type treated with
Sphinx31. Two sfrp5-/- and one wild type animal were excluded due to lack of impaired
flow (as outlined above). Eight of each group were perfuse fixed for
immunofluorescence and four had protein extracted for VEGF assessment. In one wild
type animal protein was lost during processing.
Eighteen Wnt5A^{GOF} mice were used, 9 in the control group and 9 in the Sphinx31
treated group. 2 mice were excluded from the Wnt5A^{GOF} and one from the Sphinx31
group due to insufficient ligation.
236
Immunofluorescent staining. At the experimental end-point, mice euthanized by
cardiac perfusion with 4% PFA/PBS had gastrocnemius muscle collected. Tissue was
post fixed in 4% PFA/PBS overnight at 4°C, cryoprotected in 30% sucrose and
embedded in OCT. The muscles were cryosectioned into 5μm- thick sections and
stained for IB$_4$ (1:150, Sigma) and αSMA-Cy3 (1:300, Sigma). Sections were imaged
using a confocal microscope and fluorescent microscope.
243
Isolation of CD11b mouse monocytes. Freshly isolated bone marrow and spleen
from 10 to 12 weeks of age WT and SRPK1^{MoKO} mice were used. Bone marrow
immune cells and splenocytes were exposed to red blood cell lysis. The remaining

cells were separated from a mixed population of cells to monocytes and non-
monocytes using the CD11b monocyte isolation kit (Miltenyi Biotech) following the
manufacturer's instructions using Miltenyi LS columns.
250

Western blotting
Mouse gastrocnemius muscle tissue samples obtained on postoperative day 7 were
homogenized in lysis buffer containing 20 mm Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1% Nonidet P-40,
150 mm NaCl, 0.5% deoxycholic acid, 1 mm sodium orthovanadate, and protease &
phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Thermo Scientific). Protein content was determined by
the Bradford method. Equal amounts of protein lysates were resolved by SDS-PAGE.
The membranes were immunoblotted with the indicated antibodies (anti-SRPK1
antibody (ab38017), abcam, anti-SRSF6 antibody (ab244425), and anti-SRPK1,
HPA016431, Sigma Aldrich) at a 1:1000 dilution followed by the secondary antibody
conjugated to horseradish peroxidase at a 1:1000 - 5000 dilution. An ECL western
blotting Detection kit (Thermo Scientific) was used for detection. Immunoblots were
normalized to total loaded protein.
263

Cell Lysis

Protein was extracted from monocytes after treatment. Cells previously treated with
inhibitors were centrifuged at 10,000 RPM at 4°C untill a pellet was formed. Cell lysis
buffer (1xNP40, 1mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), 10mM Sodium
orthovanadate (Na$_3$VO4), 1x Protease Inhibitor cocktail (Roche), 10mM sodium
fluoriude) was added to the pellet for 10 mins. The cell extract was vortexed for 15 sec
three times over a 10 min incubation on ice. Samples were centrifuged at 12,000 x g
for 10 min at 4oC and the supernatant was collected in a fresh Eppendorf and stored
at -80oC. Protein concentration was quantified using a Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit
(Thermo Scientific 23225).

ELISA
High binding 96-well plates were coated with 100µl of either 0.75µg/ml hVEGF-A$_{165}$a
AbD24645 or 10µg/ml VEGF-A$_{165}$b capture antibody overnight at room temperature on
the shaker. The plates were washed three times with wash buffer (0.05% Tween-
20/PBS, T-PBS) and blocked twice with 300µl/well of Superblock and discarded

immediately. Serial dilutions were prepared with rhVEGF-A$_{165}$a and rhVEGF-A$_{165}$b

diluted in PBS (ranging from 1.95 to 4000pg/ml as well as a blank and a negative

control) were added in duplicate (100µl/well). 100µg of protein tissue was added in

duplicate to each well. The 96-well plates were incubated for two hours at room

temperature on a shaker. Then the 96-well plates were washed three times and

incubated with 100µl of detection antibody from kit diluted in 1% BSA/PBS for two

hours. After another wash step, 100µl/well of horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-

conjugated streptavidin (diluted according to kit in 1% BSA in PBS was added and the

plate was left in the dark for 30 minutes. After a final wash step, 100µl/well of the

substrate solution (Abcam) was incubated for 20 to 30mins at room temperature in the

dark. The reaction was stopped by the addition of 50µl/well of either 1M hydrochloric

acid or sulphuric acid. The colorimetric reaction was measured using the microplate

reader at 450nm with a 620nm reference (Infinite F50, Tecan UK). The protein

concentration in each sample was calculated by subtracting absorbance values from

the blank and the standard curves was used to calculate protein content in each

sample.

PCR. RNA was isolated from CD11b$^+$ and CD11b$^-$ cells using Trizol. 1µg RNA was

transcribed to cDNA using the Takara Primescript RT kit (Takara) as directed by the

manufacturer. Each 15µl consisted of 0.4uM primers, 2x GoTaq master mix (Promega)

and 1µl cDNA. The primer sequences for the target genes were: *Srpk1*: forward, 5'-

TCTCGCCATGGAGCGGAAAG-3', reverse, 5' TCCAGGCCCTGTAGCACTTG-3';

Gapdh: forward, 5'-CCATCTTCCAGGAGCGAGAC-3', reverse, 5'-GCCC

TTCCACAATGCCAAAG-3'. The thermal cycling conditions compromised of an initial

denaturation at 95°C for 3 minutes, followed by 35 cycles at 95°C for 30s, annealing

at 62°C for *Srpk1* or 58°C for *Gapdh* for 30s, 72°C for 1 min. This was followed by a

full extension at 72°C for 5 mins. PCR products were run on a 2% agarose gel with

25ng/ml ethidium bromide for 1hr 30 mins at 90V. The agarose gel was visualised on

a UV transilluminator GelDocEZ system. qRT-PCR was carried out for VEGF-A$_{165}$b

and VEGF-A$_{165}$a using isoform specific primers Forward:5'-

GGCAGCTTGAGTTAAACGAAC-3', Reverse: 5'-AGTCTTTCCTGGTGAGAGAT

CTGCA-3' as previously described [34]

Statistical analysis. Statistical analyses were completed on GraphPad Prism, Microsoft Excel, FIJI and Laser Speckle imaging analysis software (Moor's Instruments). All data is presented as the mean ± SEM as indicated in the figure legends. In all cases $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results

To determine the effect of SRPK1 inhibition on monocyte VEGF-A$_{165}$b we treated monocytes from patients with PAD (N=9) with 3µM SPHINX31 (a selective SRPK1 inhibitor) overnight and measured VEGF-A$_{165}$a and VEGF-A$_{165}$b using isoform specific ELISAs[35,15]. VEGF-A$_{165}$a expression was not detected in PAD monocytes, but surprisingly was significantly increased by SRPK1 inhibition (Figure 1A). In contrast, VEGF-A$_{165}$b expression was significantly reduced by SRPK1 inhibition (Figure 1B). Monocytes from patients with dominance of VEGF-A$_{165}$b RNA as measured by RT-PCR, were subjected to SPHINX31 treatment, which significantly increased the ratio of VEGF-A$_{165}$a:VEGF-A$_{165}$b RNA as measured by qRT-PCR (Figure 1C). To determine whether this change in expression would functionally affect the ability of monocytes to induce angiogenesis we developed an in vitro assay for VEGF-A$_{165}$b mediated inhibition of endothelial cell migration. Figure 1D shows that in the presence of 1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$a, endothelial cell migration across a transwell was significantly increased compared with control, but this was significantly decreased by treatment with recombinant VEGF-A$_{165}$b. This inhibition was dose dependently reversed with a neutralising antibody to VEGF-A$_{165}$b (Figure 1D). Figure 1D shows that culturing monocytes in the lower half of the transwell inhibits migration towards VEGF-A$_{165}$a, and that this can be reversed by treatment with the neutralising antibody to VEGF-A$_{165}$b. Figure 1E shows that treatment with an SRPK1 inhibitor blocks the inhibition of migration by PAD monocytes. These results indicate that PAD monocytes produce VEGF-A$_{165}$b, sufficiently to inhibit endothelial cell migration towards 1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$a and that SRPK1 treatment switches splicing and sufficiently to stop the inhibition of migration by VEGF-A$_{165}$b under these circumstances. To determine whether this would be effective in vivo we used an animal model of PAD previously shown to be VEGF-A$_{165}$b dependent[5].

Impaired collateral revascularisation in Sfrp5 knockout (Sfrp5$^{-/-}$) mice is reversed with SPHINX31, an SRPK1 inhibitor.

Previous studies have identified that Sfrp5 acts to inhibit the non-canonical Wnt5a signalling pathway in macrophages and impaired revascularisation in a hindlimb ischemia model. This correlated with an upregulation of Wnt5a at a transcriptional level in the ischemic limb[4,5], and upregulation of VEGF-A$_{165}$b in monocytes[5]. We therefore used this model to determine whether SRPK1 was able to modulate the angiogenic activity of monocytes in ischemia. Twenty Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ and twenty wild type mice underwent left femoral artery ligation and the blood flow to the hind paws were monitored non-invasively using laser speckle imaging on pre- and post-operative days (Figure 2A). Quantitative analysis revealed that Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ had impaired revascularisation compared to WT mice on days 21 (0.60 ± 0.04 vs 0.76 ± 0.04, p=0.007) and 28 (0.62 ± 0.04 vs 0.85 ± 0.08, p=0.0002) (Figure 2B). At the end of the study, in 4 sfrp5-/- and 3 wild types, gastrocgnemius muscle was taken and protein extracted. ELISA for VEGF-A$_{165}$b demonstrated that the sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice had significantly greater VEGF-A$_{165}$b than the wild type (figure 2C) in both ischemic and contralateral muscle.   The gastrocnemius muscle was collected, sectioned, stained and imaged for arterioles and capillaries (Figure 2D).   The capillary density was unchanged in the ischemic gastrocnemius muscle of both mouse groups (650.1 ± 43.7/mm^2 vs 721.9 ± 72.6/mm^2, p=0.41) (Figure 2E). However, the arteriolar density was significantly reduced in the ischemic gastrocnemius muscle of Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice (4.40 ± 0.90/mm^2) compared to WT (7.01 ± 0.67/mm^2, p=0.04) (Figure 2F). To determine whether SRPK1 and SR protein expression was altered in these mice, protein was extracted from total muscle tissue and subjected to immunoblotting for SRSF1, SRSF6 and SRPK1. SRSF1 was increased in both cytoplasm and nucleus of cells from muscle from Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice, whereas SRSF6 was reduced. SRPK1 levels were increased in ischemia only in Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice (Supplementary Figure 1). To explore the significance of SRPK1 on revascularisation, SPHINX31[24,36] was administered to Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice via an intraperitoneal route after the ischemic hind limb surgery and bi-weekly thereafter. Quantitative analysis of the speckle images (Figure 2G) revealed that the flow was significantly increased in Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ treated with SPHINX31 on post-operative days 14 (0.55 ± 0.04 vs 0.93 ± 0.08, p=0.001) and days 21 (0.51 ± 0.05 vs 0.75 ± 0.07, p=0.04) when compared to the Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ treated with DMSO alone (Figure 2H).

Inhibition of SRPK1 improves revascularisation in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice.

To determine whether SRPK1 inhibition would exert the same effect in a different
mouse model of Wnt5A activation, we used a monocytic Wnt5a overexpression
(LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}) model. This resulted in a significant decrease in blood flow (Figure
3A) compared with wild type animals, which was reversed by SPHINX31 treatment.
Quantitative analysis of the speckle intensity revealed that the blood flow recovery was
significantly slower in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice when compared to WT mice on post-
operative day 3 (0.19 ± 0.03 vs 0.72 ± 0.09 compared with contralateral limb,
p<0.0001), 7 (0.40 ± 0.03 vs 0.82 ± 0.10, p<0.0002) and 14 (0.59 ± 0.08 vs 0.92 ±
0.05, p=0.0039) but this was completely reversed by treatment with SPHINX31 as
above (Figure 3B). Recovery between mouse groups was not different at post-
operative day 21, when gastrocnemius muscle was collected, stained and imaged for
capillary and arterioles (Figure 3C). The capillary density was significantly decreased
in the ischemic gastrocnemius muscle of LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} (311 ± 18mm^2) when
compared with WT mice (491 ± 55mm^2, p<0.05) and SPHINX31 treated mice (516 ±
42.01/mm^2, p<0.05) (Figure 3D). Similarly, the arteriolar density was significantly
reduced in the ischemic gastrocnemius muscle of LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice (4.32 ±
0.55/mm^2) compared to WT mice (19.22 ± 2.03/mm^2, p=0.004) and SPHINX31 treated
mice (20.45 ± 4.22/mm^2, p=0.002) (Figure 3E). This suggested that impaired
revascularisation of LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} may be dependent on SRPK1.

Monocytic-SRPK1 is responsible for impaired revascularisation in LysM-
Wnt5a^{GOF} mice.
Systemic treatment with an SRPK1 inhibitor could have many effects on many tissues.
To determine whether monocytic-SRPK1 regulated the prolonged blood flow recovery
in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice, we generated a double transgenic, monocyte specific LysM
over-expressing, SRPK1 knockout mouse model (LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}:SRPK1^{MoKO}).
Quantitative analysis of the speckle images revealed that revascularisation in LysM-
Wnt5a^{GOF} littermates had impaired flow compared to littermate control wild type mice
on post-operative days 3 (0.19 ± 0.03 vs 0.48 ± 0.07, p=0.0034) and 7 (0.40 ± 0.03 vs
0.68 ± 0.07, p=0.004), which was rescued on day 7 in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}:SRPK1^{MoKO}
mice (0.65 ± 0.08, p=0.03) (Figure 4A-B). There was a moderate, but not statistically
significant reduction in the capillary density in the ischemic gastrocnemius of LysM-
Wnt5a^{GOF} mice compared with wild type which was partially but not significantly
reversed by the SRPK1^{MOKO} (Figure 4C-D). However, the impaired arteriolar density

in the ischemic gastrocnemius muscle of LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice (4.32 ± 0.55/mm^2) was

significantly reversed in the LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}:SRPK1^{MoKO} mice (13.15 ± 2.48/mm^2,

p=0.007) and was comparable to WT mice (12.75 ± 1.60/mm^2, p=0.009) (Figure 4E).

Collectively, these results show that impaired revascularisation is dependent on

monocytic-SRPK1 in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice.

SRPK1 knockout reverses impaired blood flow recovery in diet-induced obese

mice.

Previous studies have confirmed that mice fed on a HF/HS diet have an increase in

Wnt5a expression in the ischemic gastrocnemius, which was co-localised to the

macrophages[5]. Therefore, we hypothesised that diet-induced obese mice would have

impaired blood flow recovery, which would be reversed with SRPK1^{MoKO}. Quantitative

analysis of the representative speckle images in Figure 5A revealed that the level of

the ischemia induced in the left hind limb of HF/HS-SRPK1^{MoKO} mice (0.12 ± 0.01) was

greater than that in HF/HS-WT mice (0.23 ± 0.03, p=0.02) (Figure 5B). Therefore, the

flow was normalised to post-operative day 0, which revealed that rate of

revascularisation was more rapid in obese-SRPK1^{MoKO} mice when compared to WT

mice on post-operative days 14 (5.21 ± 0.41 vs 3.29 ± 0.41, p=0.002), 21 (5.30 ± 0.40

vs 3.55 ± 0.41, p=0.003) and 28 (6.29 ± 0.51 vs 3.73 ± 0.46, p<0.0001) (Figure 5C).

Staining of capillaries and arterioles (Figure 5D) showed that HFHS-SRPK1^{MoKO} mice

had a higher capillary density and arteriolar density than HFHS wild type mice after

ischemia (Figure 5E).

Discussion

We show here that monocytes control VEGF splicing to be able to regulate

angiogenesis through SRPK1 using both transgenic models driving VEGF splicing to

the anti-angiogenic VEGF-A$_{165}$b isoform, pharmacological and genetic manipulation

of SRPK1 activity or expression, and human monocytes from patients with PAD. The

implications of the finding are consistently that SRPK1 inhibition switches monocytes

away from an anti-angiogenic phenotype, and in both the human monocyte ex vivo

assay and the mouse in vivo assay, this is sufficient to induce behaviours associated

with collateral formation (endothelial cell migration, new capillary and new arteriole

formation).

We show in human cells that monocytes, when co-cultured with endothelial
cells secrete the anti-angiogenic isoforms VEGF-A$_{165}$b, as shown by the use of a
neutralising antibody to VEGF-A$_{165}$b. This antibody is raised against the C-terminal tail
of VEGF-A$_{165}$b and is effective in detecting VEGF-A$_{165}$b and VEGF-A$_{189}$b and the
readthrough isoform VEGF-Ax[37]. We have previously shown that this antibody has
neutralising properties in the mouse models described here, which do not express
VEGF-Ax[5]. Treatment with SRPK1 inhibitor increased VEGF-A$_{165}$a from 0 to 40pg/ml,
and reduced VEGF-A$_{165}$b from 275 to 175pg/ml in the monocyte cell lysate.
Interestingly, monocytes secrete sufficient VEGF-A$_{165}$b to inhibit endothelial cell
migration, and the neutralising antibody to VEGF-A$_{165}$b completely reverses the
monocyte mediated inhibition. Given that these experiments include 1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$b,
we can assume that the concentrations of VEGF-A$_{165}$b in the media need to be close
to that to inhibit endothelial cell migration. The proportion of VEGF that is VEGF-A$_{165}$b
in the monocytes has changed from 100% to 80% with SRPK1 inhibition, but this is
sufficient to allow migration to occur. This suggest that the concentration of VEGF-
A$_{165}$b in the media must be close to the threshold for inhibition of VEGF-A$_{165}$a,
(potentially 1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$b:1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$a), and that switching the splicing
therefore switches that to 0.8nM VEGF-A$_{165}$b:1.2nM VEGF-A$_{165}$a, i.e. from 50% to
40% VEGF-A$_{165}$b. This again indicates that the switch in splicing does not have to be
very great to allow angiogenesis to happen. Given that the angiogenic drive in the
ischemic tissue is from the hypoxic muscle the balance between VEGF-A$_{165}$b and
VEGF-A$_{165}$a in the tissues is likely to be critical for the efficacy of a splicing switch.
There have been surprisingly few studies investigating the effect of monocytes on
endothelial cells in transwell studies (removing the interfering effects of contact
between the cells). It has previously been shown that monocytes from healthy
individuals stimulated to differentiate into macrophages can produce angiogenic
effects by production of VEGF-A, depending on the differentiation state[38] and that this
is inhibited by treatment with IL4 as this enhances production of the inhibitory isoform
of VEGFR1, soluble flt1[39]. This suggests that control of splicing of angiogenic
processes in monocytes is a process that depends on the differentiation state of the
monocytes and the environment in which they find themselves.
We also show that in transgenic animals with enhanced Wnt5a monocyte signalling[5],
and in animals in which this signalling is induced metabolically[4], and in which VEGF-
A$_{165}$b is upregulated in monocytes[5], there is impaired collateral formation, which is

reversed by SRPK1 inhibition. This finding is in direct contrast to the well described (including by us) action of SRPK1 inhibition in many other cell types, and was highly surprising, as we have previously shown that SRPK1 inhibition switches splicing from the VEGF-A$_{165}$a isoform to the VEGF-A$_{165}$b in epithelial cells (retinal pigmented epithelial cells[33], glomerular visceral epithelial cells[27], in neurons (dorsal root ganglion neurons[40], and SHSY5Y neurons[41]), and in cancer cells (melanoma[42], prostate cancer [31] and cholangiocarcinoma cells[43], and others have shown it regulates VEGF splicing in renal carcinoma[44], melanoma and Hela cells[45] and lung alveolar epithelial cells[46]. Thus it appears that the control of VEGF splicing is not fixed, but dependent on either cell type or cell environment. While we cannot say for certain which of these is deterministic, it is unlikely that the diabetic environment controls whether SRPK1 determines splicing to VEGF-A$_{165}$b or VEGF-A$_{165}$a as SRPK1 inhibition switches splicing to VEGF-A$_{165}$b in diabetic retinal epithelial cells[30], but the data here suggests that it switches it to VEGF-A$_{165}$a in diabetic monocytes. SRPK1 acts via phosphorylation of SR rich sequences in SR proteins such as SRSF1[47]. While we have shown that SRSF1 is the key target for SRPK1 in epithelial cells, we have not shown that for monocytes, and it should be noted that SRSF2 has been implicated in control of VEGF splicing in lung cancer cells[48] and in monocytes[5], suggesting that potentially SRPK1 may act in monocytes by phosphorylation of SRSF2 or other SRSF proteins. Furthermore, SRSF1 and SRPK1 are both significantly upregulated in ischemic Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice (Supp Figure 1), strongly suggesting that in monocytes, Wnt5a signalling can change splicing factor protein expression and hence alter the role of SR protein kinase.

Finally, we describe here for the first time a viable SRPK1 inducible knockout mouse. Previously, Wang et al have described a conditional SRPK1 with a deletion of exon 3 this mouse line was lost early after its development, and no further information has been available[49]. We made numerous attempts to recreate this line using exon 3 and exon 1 Lox-P flanking, but this was unsuccessful, presumably due to disruption of regulatory element within the introns. The insertion of the LoxP sites flanking exon 7 however, resulted in a robust knockout when crossed with Cre Driver lines, and the parental line has a normal phenotype. According to the International Mouse Strain Resource, there are 44 strains of mice that have been generated as ES cells that have a gene trap, one that is a CRISPR-Cas9 exon 3 knockout, and one that has a loxP exon 3 flanking region. However, these mice have never been published or validated.

While we have driven the knockout here in monocytes by crossing the SRPK1-LoxP mouse with a monocyte specific driver line, it is clearly of interest to generate lines where SRPK1 is knocked out in tissues in which VEGF expression is controlled in the opposite direction, e.g. in retinal epithelial cells[33], retinal neurons[30], and in renal epithelial cells[27], and determine whether control of isoform expression can affect diabetic nephropathy or retinopathy. SRPK1 knockout has been shown to be embryonically lethal before e14.5, as it appears to affect heart development[49] so this mouse is an ideal tool to investigate the role of SRPK1 in adult physiology. Further work will show how tissue specific and development stage specific SRPK1 knockout affects tissue function, and also the effects of global SRPK1 knockout in adult tissues. It was of interest that the monocyte specific knockout of SRPK1 (which would have occurred in the myeloid lineage from birth onwards[50]) had impaired flow after ligation indicating that residual collateral formation during development was impaired in these mice suggesting that monocytic SRPK1 is involved in the development of blood vessels.

In summary we show here that splicing control is cell type dependent, that monocytic SRPK1 controls VEGF splicing and that targeting SRPK1 can enhance collateral formation in models of peripheral vascular disease

Acknowledgements.

This work was funded by the MRC (MR/K020366/1, MR/K013157/1), The British Heart Foundation (PG/21/10796, PG/13/47/30337, TG/18/3/33773) and the BBSRC Doctoral Training Program (BB/M008770/1).

References

1.   Abaci A, Oguzhan A, Kahraman S, Eryol NK, Unal S, Arinc H, Ergin A. Effect of diabetes mellitus on formation of coronary collateral vessels. *Circulation*. 1999;99:2239-2242.

2.   Yadav SS, Hussain S, Dwivedi P, Khattri S, Sawlani KK, Usman K. Assesement of serum Sfrp5/Wnt-5a level and its utility in the risk stratification of treatment naive patients with metabolic syndrome. *J Immunoassay Immunochem*. 2023;44:1-12. doi: 10.1080/15321819.2022.2104125

3.   Murdoch CE, Shuler M, Haeussler DJ, Kikuchi R, Bearelly P, Han J, Watanabe Y, Fuster JJ, Walsh K, Ho YS, et al. Glutaredoxin-1 up-regulation induces soluble vascular endothelial growth factor receptor 1, attenuating post-ischemia limb revascularization. *J Biol Chem*. 2014;289:8633-8644. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M113.517219

4. Ouchi N, Higuchi A, Ohashi K, Oshima Y, Gokce N, Shibata R, Akasaki Y, Shimono A,
Walsh K. Sfrp5 is an anti-inflammatory adipokine that modulates metabolic
dysfunction in obesity. *Science*. 2010;329:454-457. doi: science.1188280 [pii]
10.1126/science.1188280
5. Kikuchi R, Nakamura K, MacLauchlan S, Ngo DT, Shimizu I, Fuster JJ, Katanasaka Y,
Yoshida S, Qiu Y, Yamaguchi TP, et al. An antiangiogenic isoform of VEGF-A
contributes to impaired vascularization in peripheral artery disease. *Nat Med*.
2014;20:1464-1471. doi: 10.1038/nm.3703
6. Lolmede K, Duffaut C, Zakaroff-Girard A, Bouloumie A. Immune cells in adipose
tissue: key players in metabolic disorders. *Diabetes Metab*. 2011;37:283-290. doi:
S1262-3636(11)00061-9 [pii]
10.1016/j.diabet.2011.03.002
7. Panutsopulos D, Zafiropoulos A, Krambovitis E, Kochiadakis GE, Igoumenidis NE,
Spandidos DA. Peripheral monocytes from diabetic patients with coronary artery
disease display increased bFGF and VEGF mRNA expression. *J Transl Med*. 2003;1:6.
doi: 10.1186/1479-5876-1-6
1479-5876-1-6 [pii]
8. Tchaikovski V, Olieslagers S, Bohmer FD, Waltenberger J. Diabetes mellitus activates
signal transduction pathways resulting in vascular endothelial growth factor
resistance of human monocytes. *Circulation*. 2009;120:150-159. doi:
CIRCULATIONAHA.108.817528 [pii]
10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.108.817528
9. Hu W, Li L, Yang M, Luo X, Ran W, Liu D, Xiong Z, Liu H, Yang G. Circulating Sfrp5 is a
signature of obesity-related metabolic disorders and is regulated by glucose and
liraglutide in humans. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2013;98:290-298. doi: jc.2012-2466
[pii]
10.1210/jc.2012-2466
10. Hu Z, Deng H, Qu H. Plasma SFRP5 levels are decreased in Chinese subjects with
obesity and type 2 diabetes and negatively correlated with parameters of insulin
resistance. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract*. 2013. doi: S0168-8227(12)00491-3 [pii]
10.1016/j.diabres.2012.11.026
11. Harper SJ, Bates DO. VEGF-A splicing: the key to anti-angiogenic therapeutics? *Nat
Rev Cancer*. 2008;8:880-887.
12. Bates DO, Cui TG, Doughty JM, Winkler M, Sugiono M, Shields JD, Peat D, Gillatt D,
Harper SJ. VEGF165b, an inhibitory splice variant of vascular endothelial growth
factor, is down-regulated in renal cell carcinoma. *Cancer Res*. 2002;62:4123-4131.
13. Kawamura H, Li X, Harper SJ, Bates DO, Claesson-Welsh L. Vascular endothelial
growth factor (VEGF)-A165b is a weak in vitro agonist for VEGF receptor-2 due to
lack of coreceptor binding and deficient regulation of kinase activity. *Cancer Res*.
2008;68:4683-4692.
14. Cebe Suarez S, Pieren M, Cariolato L, Arn S, Hoffmann U, Bogucki A, Manlius C, Wood
J, Ballmer-Hofer K. A VEGF-A splice variant defective for heparan sulfate and
neuropilin-1 binding shows attenuated signaling through VEGFR-2. *Cell Mol Life Sci*.
2006;63:2067-2077.
15. Woolard J, Wang WY, Bevan HS, Qiu Y, Morbidelli L, Pritchard-Jones RO, Cui TG,
Sugiono M, Waine E, Perrin R, et al. VEGF165b, an inhibitory vascular endothelial

595   growth factor splice variant: mechanism of action, in vivo effect on angiogenesis and
596   endogenous protein expression. *Cancer Res*. 2004;64:7822-7835.

597 16. Bevan HS, van den Akker NM, Qiu Y, Polman JA, Foster RR, Yem J, Nishikawa A,
598   Satchell SC, Harper SJ, Gittenberger-de Groot AC, et al. The alternatively spliced anti-
599   angiogenic family of VEGF isoforms VEGFxxxb in human kidney development.
600   *Nephron Physiol*. 2008;110:p57-67.

601 17. Magnussen AL, Rennel ES, Hua J, Bevan HS, Beazley Long N, Lehrling C, Gammons M,
602   Floege J, Harper SJ, Agostini HT, et al. VEGF-A165b is cytoprotective and
603   antiangiogenic in the retina. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2010;51:4273-4281. doi:
604   iovs.09-4296 [pii]
605  10.1167/iovs.09-4296

606 18. Peach CJ, Kilpatrick LE, Friedman-Ohana R, Zimmerman K, Robers MB, Wood KV,
607   Woolard J, Hill SJ. Real-Time Ligand Binding of Fluorescent VEGF-A Isoforms that
608   Discriminate between VEGFR2 and NRP1 in Living Cells. *Cell Chem Biol*.
609   2018;25:1208-1218 e1205. doi: 10.1016/j.chembiol.2018.06.012

610 19. Ganta VC, Choi M, Kutateladze A, Annex BH. VEGF165b Modulates Endothelial
611   VEGFR1-STAT3 Signaling Pathway and Angiogenesis in Human and Experimental
612   Peripheral Arterial Disease. *Circ Res*. 2017;120:282-295. doi:
613   10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.116.309516

614 20. Ganta VC, Choi M, Farber CR, Annex BH. Antiangiogenic VEGF165b Regulates
615   Macrophage Polarization via S100A8/S100A9 in Peripheral Artery Disease.
616   *Circulation*. 2019;139:226-242. doi: 10.1161/CIRCULATIONAHA.118.034165

617 21. Kuppuswamy S, Annex BH, Ganta VC. Targeting Anti-Angiogenic VEGF165b-VEGFR1
618   Signaling Promotes Nitric Oxide Independent Therapeutic Angiogenesis in Preclinical
619   Peripheral Artery Disease Models. *Cells*. 2022;11. doi: 10.3390/cells11172676

620 22. Rios-Navarro C, Hueso L, Diaz A, Marcos-Garces V, Bonanad C, Ruiz-Sauri A, Vila JM,
621   Sanz MJ, Chorro FJ, Piqueras L, et al. Role of antiangiogenic VEGF-A165b in
622   angiogenesis and systolic function after reperfused myocardial infarction. *Rev Esp*
623   *Cardiol (Engl Ed)*. 2020. doi: 10.1016/j.rec.2020.03.013

624 23. Hueso L, Rios-Navarro C, Ruiz-Sauri A, Chorro FJ, Nunez J, Sanz MJ, Bodi V, Piqueras
625   L. Dynamics and implications of circulating anti-angiogenic VEGF-A165b isoform in
626   patients with ST-elevation myocardial infarction. *Scientific reports*. 2017;7:9962. doi:
627   10.1038/s41598-017-10505-9

628 24. Batson J, Toop HD, Redondo C, Babaei-Jadidi R, Chaikuad A, Wearmouth SF, Gibbons
629   B, Allen C, Tallant C, Zhang J, et al. Development of Potent, Selective SRPK1 Inhibitors
630   as Potential Topical Therapeutics for Neovascular Eye Disease. *ACS chemical biology*.
631   2017;12:825-832. doi: 10.1021/acschembio.6b01048

632 25. Muraki M, Ohkawara B, Hosoya T, Onogi H, Koizumi J, Koizumi T, Sumi K, Yomoda J,
633   Murray MV, Kimura H, et al. Manipulation of alternative splicing by a newly
634   developed inhibitor of Clks. *J Biol Chem*. 2004;279:24246-24254.

635 26. Nowak DG, Woolard J, Amin EM, Konopatskaya O, Saleem MA, Churchill AJ,
636   Ladomery MR, Harper SJ, Bates DO. Expression of pro- and anti-angiogenic isoforms
637   of VEGF is differentially regulated by splicing and growth factors. *J Cell Sci*.
638   2008;121:3487-3495. doi: 10.1242/jcs.016410

639 27. Amin EM, Oltean S, Hua J, Gammons MV, Hamdollah-Zadeh M, Welsh GI, Cheung
640   MK, Ni L, Kase S, Rennel ES, et al. WT1 mutants reveal SRPK1 to be a downstream

angiogenesis target by altering VEGF splicing. *Cancer Cell*. 2011;20:768-780. doi:
10.1016/j.ccr.2011.10.016

28.   Nowak DG, Amin EM, Rennel ES, Hoareau-Aveilla C, Gammons M, Damodoran G,
Hagiwara M, Harper SJ, Woolard J, Ladomery MR, et al. Regulation of vascular
endothelial growth factor (VEGF) splicing from pro-angiogenic to anti-angiogenic
isoforms: a novel therapeutic strategy for angiogenesis. *J Biol Chem*. 2010;285:5532-
5540. doi: M109.074930 [pii]

10.1074/jbc.M109.074930

29.   Merdzhanova G, Gout S, Keramidas M, Edmond V, Coll JL, Brambilla C, Brambilla E,
Gazzeri S, Eymin B. The transcription factor E2F1 and the SR protein SC35 control the
ratio of pro-angiogenic versus antiangiogenic isoforms of vascular endothelial
growth factor-A to inhibit neovascularization in vivo. *Oncogene*. 2010;29:5392-5403.
doi: onc2010281 [pii]

10.1038/onc.2010.281

30.   Malhi NK, Allen CL, Stewart E, Horton KL, Riu F, Batson J, Amoaku W, Morris JC, Arkill
KP, Bates DO. Serine-arginine-rich protein kinase-1 inhibition for the treatment of
diabetic retinopathy. *Am J Physiol Heart & Circ* 2022;322:H1014-H1027. doi:
10.1152/ajpheart.00001.2022

31.   Mavrou A, Brakspear K, Hamdollah-Zadeh M, Damodaran G, Babaei-Jadidi R, Oxley J,
Gillatt DA, Ladomery MR, Harper SJ, Bates DO, et al. Serine-arginine protein kinase 1
(SRPK1) inhibition as a potential novel targeted therapeutic strategy in prostate
cancer. *Oncogene*. 2015;34:4311-4319. doi: 10.1038/onc.2014.360

32.   Gammons MV, Dick AD, Harper SJ, Bates DO. SRPK1 Inhibition Modulates VEGF
Splicing to Reduce Pathological Neovascularization in a Rat Model of Retinopathy of
Prematurity. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*. 2013;54:5797-5806. doi: 10.1167/iovs.13-
11634

33.   Gammons MV, Fedorov O, Ivison D, Du C, Clark T, Hopkins C, Hagiwara M, Dick AD,
Cox R, Harper SJ, et al. Topical Antiangiogenic SRPK1 Inhibitors Reduce Choroidal
Neovascularization in Rodent Models of Exudative AMD. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci*.
2013;54:6052-6062. doi: 10.1167/iovs.13-12422

34.   Bates DO, Mavrou A, Qiu Y, Carter JG, Hamdollah-Zadeh M, Barratt S, Gammons MV,
Millar AB, Salmon AH, Oltean S, et al. Detection of VEGF-A(xxx)b isoforms in human
tissues. *PLoS One*. 2013;8:e68399. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0068399

35.   Alalwany R, Hawtrey T, Morgan K, Morris JC, Donaldson LF, Bates DO. Vascular
endothelial growth factor isoforms differentially protect neurons against neurotoxic
events associated with Alzheimer's disease. *Frontiers in Molecular Neuroscience*.
2023;in press.

36.   Tzelepis K, De Braekeleer E, Aspris D, Barbieri I, Vijayabaskar MS, Liu WH, Gozdecka
M, Metzakopian E, Toop HD, Dudek M, et al. SRPK1 maintains acute myeloid
leukemia through effects on isoform usage of epigenetic regulators including BRD4.
Nature communications. 2018;9:5378. doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-07620-0

37.   Eswarappa SM, Potdar AA, Koch WJ, Fan Y, Vasu K, Lindner D, Willard B, Graham LM,
DiCorleto PE, Fox PL. Programmed Translational Readthrough Generates
Antiangiogenic VEGF-Ax. *Cell*. 2014;157:1605-1618. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2014.04.033

38.   Wu WK, Llewellyn OP, Bates DO, Nicholson LB, Dick AD. IL-10 regulation of
macrophage VEGF production is dependent on macrophage polarisation and
hypoxia. *Immunobiology*. 2010;215:796-803. doi: 10.1016/j.imbio.2010.05.025

39. Wu WK, Georgiadis A, Copland DA, Liyanage S, Luhmann UF, Robbie SJ, Liu J, Wu J,
Bainbridge JW, Bates DO, et al. IL-4 regulates specific Arg-1(+) macrophage sFlt-1-
mediated inhibition of angiogenesis. *Am J Pathol*. 2015;185:2324-2335. doi:
10.1016/j.ajpath.2015.04.013

40. Hulse RP, Beazley-Long N, Hua J, Kennedy H, Prager J, Bevan H, Qiu Y, Fernandes ES,
Gammons MV, Ballmer-Hofer K, et al. Regulation of alternative VEGF-A mRNA
splicing is a therapeutic target for analgesia. *Neurobiology of disease*. 2014;71:245-
259. doi: 10.1016/j.nbd.2014.08.012

41. Alalwany RH, Hawtrey T, Morgan K, Morris JC, Donaldson LF, Bates DO. Vascular
endothelial growth factor isoforms differentially protect neurons against neurotoxic
events associated with Alzheimer's disease. *Front Mol Neurosci*. 2023;16:1181626.
doi: 10.3389/fnmol.2023.1181626

42. Gammons MV, Lucas R, Dean R, Coupland SE, Oltean S, Bates DO. Targeting SRPK1 to
control VEGF-mediated tumour angiogenesis in metastatic melanoma. *Br J Cancer*.
2014;111:477-485. doi: 10.1038/bjc.2014.342

43. Supradit K, Boonsri B, Duangdara J, Thitiphatphuvanon T, Suriyonplengsaeng C,
Kangsamaksin T, Janvilisri T, Tohtong R, Yacqub-Usman K, Grabowska AM, et al.
Inhibition of serine/arginine-rich protein kinase-1 (SRPK1) prevents
cholangiocarcinoma cells induced angiogenesis. *Toxicol In Vitro*. 2022;82:105385.
doi: 10.1016/j.tiv.2022.105385

44. Pan XW, Xu D, Chen WJ, Chen JX, Chen WJ, Ye JQ, Gan SS, Zhou W, Song X, Shi L, et
al. USP39 promotes malignant proliferation and angiogenesis of renal cell carcinoma
by inhibiting VEGF-A(165b) alternative splicing via regulating SRSF1 and SRPK1.
Cancer Cell Int. 2021;21:486. doi: 10.1186/s12935-021-02161-x

45. Li Q, Zeng C, Liu H, Yung KWY, Chen C, Xie Q, Zhang Y, Wan SWC, Mak BSW, Xia J, et
al. Protein-Protein Interaction Inhibitor of SRPKs Alters the Splicing Isoforms of VEGF
and Inhibits Angiogenesis. *iScience*. 2021;24:102423. doi: 10.1016/j.isci.2021.102423

46. Wagner KD, El Mai M, Ladomery M, Belali T, Leccia N, Michiels JF, Wagner N. Altered
VEGF Splicing Isoform Balance in Tumor Endothelium Involves Activation of Splicing
Factors Srpk1 and Srsf1 by the Wilms' Tumor Suppressor Wt1. *Cells*. 2019;8. doi:
10.3390/cells8010041

47. Ghosh G, Adams JA. Phosphorylation mechanism and structure of serine-arginine
protein kinases. *FEBS J*. 2011;278:587-597. doi: 10.1111/j.1742-4658.2010.07992.x

48. Gout S, Brambilla E, Boudria A, Drissi R, Lantuejoul S, Gazzeri S, Eymin B. Abnormal
expression of the pre-mRNA splicing regulators SRSF1, SRSF2, SRPK1 and SRPK2 in
non small cell lung carcinoma. *PLoS One*. 2012;7:e46539. doi:
10.1371/journal.pone.0046539

49. Wang P, Zhou Z, Hu A, Ponte de Albuquerque C, Zhou Y, Hong L, Sierecki E, Ajiro M,
Kruhlak M, Harris C, et al. Both decreased and increased SRPK1 levels promote
cancer by interfering with PHLPP-mediated dephosphorylation of Akt. *Mol Cell*.
2014;54:378-391. doi: 10.1016/j.molcel.2014.03.007

50. Clausen BE, Burkhardt C, Reith W, Renkawitz R, Forster I. Conditional gene targeting
in macrophages and granulocytes using LysMcre mice. *Transgenic Res*. 1999;8:265-
277. doi: 10.1023/a:1008942828960

732
733

Figure Legends

Figure 1. SRPK1 inhibition switches splicing to the angiogenic forms of VEGF

in PAD monocytes. (A). Monocytes from patients with PAD were cultured for 24

hours in the presence of 3µM of SRPK1 inhibitor SPHINX31 or vehicle (0.1%

DMSO). Protein was extracted and (A) VEGF-A$_{165}$a or (B) VEGF-A$_{165}$b measured by

isoform specific ELISA. (C) RNA was extracted from monocytes incubated with

either vehicle or SPHINX31 and VEGF-A$_{165}$b and VEGF-A$_{165}$a measured by qRT-

PCR. (D) Endothelial cells seeded onto the upper side of a transwell membrane and

cultured with either media (0.1% serum control), 1nM VEGF-A$_{165}$a, or 1nM VEGF-

A$_{165}$a and monocytes from PAD patients with increasing concentration of anti-VEGF-

A$_{165}$b antibody in the lower half of the transwell. After 12 hours the number of

endothelial cells that had migrated were calculated. E). Endothelial cell migration in

response to monocytes treated with 3µM SPHINX31.

Figure 2. SRPK1 inhibition with SPHINX31 reverses impaired revascularisation

in Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice. (A) WT and Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice underwent left femoral artery ligation and

the blood flow to the paw was quantified using the laser speckle imaging system, as

shown in the representative speckle images. **(B)** Measurement of VEGF-A$_{165}$b from

muscle tissue from sfrp5$^{-/-}$ and wild type mice. Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice (N=4) had significantly

greater VEGF-A$_{165}$b expression than the wild type controls (N=3) in both ischemic and

contralateral muscle. **(C)** Quantitative analysis of the ischemic/ non-ischemic speckle

intensity was calculated through to post-operative day 28**.** Results are shown as the

mean ± SEM (N=19-20/group). Data was analysing using a two-way ANOVA with

post-hoc Bonferroni's test. **(D)** Confocal images from the representative muscle

sections of the gastrocnemius on post-operative day 28 stained with isolectin B4 for

endothelial (green) and α-smooth muscle actin for vascular smooth muscle cells (red).

(E) Capillary density was not changed in WT and Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice. **(F)** Arteriole density is

reduced in Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice when compared to WT mice. Results are shown as the mean

± SEM (N=8/group). Data was analysing using an unpaired t-test. **(G)** Sfrp5$^{-/-}$ mice

received an intraperitoneal dose of DMSO or SPHINX31 (0.8mg/kg) bi-weekly for the

duration of the study. The representative speckle images are shown on pre-operative

day and on post-operative days 3, 7, 14, 21 and 28. **(H)** Quantitative analysis of the

ischemic/ non-ischemic speckle intensity was calculated through to post-operative day 28. Results are shown as the mean ± SEM (N=8-14/group). Data was analysed using a two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Bonferroni's test. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Figure 3. SRPK1 inhibition improves (and does not further impair) the blood flow recovery in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice. (A) LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice underwent left femoral artery ligation followed by treatment with SPHINX31 biweekly (0.8mg/kg, i.p) or vehicle for the duration of the study. Blood flow to the paw was quantified using the laser speckle imaging system, as shown in the representative speckle images. **(B)** Quantitative analysis of the ischemic/ non-ischemic speckle intensity was calculated through to post-operative day 21. Results are shown as the mean ± SEM (N=7-9/group). Data was analysed using a two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Bonferroni's test. **(C)** Confocal images from the representative muscle sections of the gastrocnemius on post-operative day 21 stained with isolectin B4 for endothelial (green) and a-smooth muscle actin for vascular smooth muscle cells (red). **(D)** The capillary density was increased in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} treated with SPHINX31 compared with LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice and matched the density in WT mice. **(E)** The arteriole density was increased in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} treated with SPHINX31 compared with LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice and matched the density in WT mice. Results are shown as the mean ± SEM (N=4-5/group). Data was analysing using a one-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni's test. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001, ****p<0.0001.

Figure 5. Impaired revascularisation in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice is controlled by monocyte specific SRPK1 activity *in vivo*. (A) WT, LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} and LysM-Wnt5aGOF: SRPK1^{MoKO} mice underwent left femoral artery ligation Blood flow to the paw was quantified using the laser speckle imaging system, as shown in the representative speckle images. **(B)** Quantitative analysis of the ischemic/ non-ischemic speckle intensity was calculated through to post-operative day 21. Results are shown as the mean ± SEM (N=7-14/group). Data was analysed using a two-way ANOVA with post-hoc Bonferroni's test. **(C)** Confocal images from the representative muscle sections of the gastrocnemius muscle on post-operative day 21 stained with isolectin B4 for endothelial (green) and a-smooth muscle actin for vascular smooth muscle cells (red). **(D)** The capillary density in WT, LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} and LysM-

Wnt5aGOF: SRPK1^{MoKO} mice was the same on post-operative day 21. **(E)** The

arteriole density was increased in LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF}: SRPK1^{MoKO} mice compared with

LysM-Wnt5a^{GOF} mice and matched the density in WT mice. Results are shown as the

mean ± SEM (N=4-5/group). Data was analysing using a one-way ANOVA with post

hoc Bonferroni's test. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$.

Figure 6. Blood flow recovery is reversed in SRPK1^{MoKO} mice fed on a HF/HS

diet. (A) WT and SRPK1^{MoKO} mice were fed on a HF/HS diet underwent left femoral

artery ligation Blood flow to the paw was quantified using the laser speckle imaging

system, as shown in the representative speckle images. **(B) (C)** Quantitative analysis

of the ischemic/ non-ischemic speckle intensity was calculated through to post-

operative day 28. **(B)** The level of ischemia induced on post-operative day 0 was

greater in SRPK1^{MoKO} mice compared to WT. Results are shown as the mean ± SEM

(N=9-11/group). Data was analysed using an unpaired t-test. **(C)** Data was further

normalised to post-operative day 0 of each respective mouse in each group through

to post-operative day 28. Results indicate the mean ± SEM (N=9-11/group). **(D)** The

capillary density in ischemic muscle of SRPK1^{MoKO} mice was significantly greater than

wild type controls in obese animals. **(E)** The arteriole density in obese mice was

increased in ischemic muscle of SRPK1^{MoKO} mice compared with wild type controls

(N=4-5/group). Data was analysing using a one-way ANOVA with post hoc

Bonferroni's test. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$, $***p<0.001$, $****p<0.0001$. Data was analysed

using a two-way ANOVA with post hoc Bonferroni test. $*p<0.05$, $**p<0.01$,

$****p<0.0001$.

Supplementary Figure 1. Muscle tissue was taken from Sfrp5^{-/-} or wild type
littermate mice 7 days after ischemia was induced in the left hind limb. Cells were
disaggregated and nuclear extract made and both nuclear and cytoplasmic extract
subjected to immunoblotting for SRSF1 and SRSF6. Whole protein extract was
subjected to immunoblotting for SRPK1.

Supplementary Figure 2. **(A).** Generation of the SRPK1 conditional knockout.
Homologues recombination was used to insert LoxP sites either side of exon 7 of
SRPK1. This results in deletion of exon 7 and loss of SRPK1 RNA presumably due
to nonsense mediated decay. **(B)** CD11b⁺ Monocytes were extracted from mouse
spleens and bone marrow from LysM-Cre:SRPK1^{loxp/loxp} mice (SRPK1^{MOKO})or wild
type littermates (Cre negative mice) and subjected to PCR for SRPK1. In wild type

mice SRPK1 was expressed in CD11b$^+$ and CD11b$^-$ cells from both bone marrow
and spleen, but was only expressed in CD11$^-$cells from spleen in the SRPK1^{MOKO}.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURES

(A)

(B)

Srpk1 expression: RT-PCR

Key: BM= Bone marrow; Spl= Splenocytes

Supp fig 1

Supp fig 2