AARS2 ameliorates myocardial ischemia *via* fine-tuning PKM2-mediated

metabolism

Zongwang Zhang[1], Lixia Zheng[1], Yang Chen[1], Yuanyuan Chen[1], Junjie Hou[2],

Chenglu Xiao[2], Xiaojun Zhu[1], Shi-Min Zhao[3], and Jing-Wei Xiong[1,2,*]

[1]Beijing Key Laboratory of Cardiometabolic Molecular Medicine, Institute of

Molecular Medicine, College of Future Technology, Academy for Advanced

Interdisciplinary Studies, and State Key Laboratory of Natural and Biomimetic Drugs,

Peking University, Beijing 100871, China; [2]School of Basic Medical Sciences and

The Second Affiliated Hospital, Jiangxi Medical College, Nanchang University,

Nanchang 330031, China; [3]Obstetrics and Gynecology Hospital of Fudan University,

State Key Lab of Genetic Engineering, School of Life Sciences and Institutes of

Biomedical Sciences, Fudan University, Shanghai 200032, China

[*] Corresponding author: Jing-Wei Xiong, Ph.D.

E-mail address: jingwei_xiong@pku.edu.cn

Abstract

AARS2, an alanyl-tRNA synthase, is essential for protein translation, but its function in mouse hearts is not fully addressed. Here, we found that cardiomyocyte-specific deletion of mouse AARS2 exhibited evident cardiomyopathy with impaired cardiac function, notable cardiac fibrosis and cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Cardiomyocyte-specific AARS2 overexpression in mice improved cardiac function and reduced cardiac fibrosis after myocardial infarction (MI), without affecting cardiomyocyte proliferation and coronary angiogenesis. Mechanistically, AARS2 overexpression suppressed cardiomyocyte apoptosis and mitochondrial reactive oxide species production, and changed cellular metabolism from oxidative phosphorylation toward glycolysis in cardiomyocytes, thus leading to cardiomyocyte survival from ischemia and hypoxia stress. Ribo-Seq revealed that AARS2 overexpression increased pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2) protein translation and the ratio of PKM2 dimers to tetramers that promote glycolysis. Additionally, PKM2 activator TEPP-46 reversed cardiomyocyte apoptosis and cardiac fibrosis caused by AARS2 deficiency. Thus, this study demonstrates that AARS2 plays an essential role in protecting cardiomyocytes from ischemic pressure via fine-tuning PKM2-mediated energy metabolism, and presents a novel cardiac protective AARS2-PKM2 signaling during the pathogenesis of MI.

Keywords

AARS2, PKM2, Cardiomyocytes, Glycolysis, Cardiac remodeling

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) remains the leading cause of death worldwide (Mendis, Davis, & Norrving, 2015). Myocardial infarction (MI), a major type of CVDs, is considered an epidemic, affecting ~1 to 2 percent of adults and posing a serious threat to human health and life (Thygesen et al., 2018). MI is due to coronary atherosclerosis and coronary heart disease, and MI patients can develop arrhythmia, shock, heart failure, and even death in a short time in severe cases (Frangogiannis, 2015; Thygesen et al., 2018). MI results in massive loss of cardiomyocytes and abnormal cardiac remodeling with severe inflammation and fibrosis (Q. Zhang et al., 2022). However, it is incompletely understood how to prevent massive cardiomyocyte death and inhibit cardiac fibrosis in time to achieve cardiac repair. Therefore, the main goals of cardiovascular research are to improve the adverse consequences of MI by improving immune inflammation and cardiac remodeling, cardiomyocyte protection, cardiomyocyte regeneration, and avoiding the expansion of fibrosis and scars.

As the heart ages, the reduced integrity and increased risk of heart diseases such as myocardial ischemia frequently take place, ultimately leading to heart failure (Strait & Lakatta, 2012). Due to limited regenerative potential of mammalian cardiomyocytes, massive death of cardiomyocytes leads to a decrease in their numbers, causing

myocardial remodeling, hypertrophy, and impaired cardiac function after MI (Whelan,

Kaplinskiy, & Kitsis, 2010). Over the years, the most effective approach to reducing

acute myocardial ischemic injury is to salvage surviving cardiomyocytes. During

ischemia, oxygen supply is reduced, leading to a decrease in ATP generation

(Kalogeris, Baines, Krenz, & Korthuis, 2012). The significant reduction in ATP levels

during ischemia is associated with the development of irreversible changes in

cardiomyocytes because the cells deplete their energy reserves and cannot maintain

internal homeostasis (Saraste, 1999). To compensate for the reduced oxidative

phosphorylation (OXPHOS) during ischemia, cardiomyocytes increase glycolysis to

maintain homeostasis. Under extreme stress conditions, such as MI, cardiomyocytes

experience toxic levels of Ca^{2+} and reactive oxygen species (ROS). Mitochondrial

electron transport chain (ETC) uncoupling leads to excessive ROS production,

resulting in lipid and protein oxidation, widespread cell damage, and initiation of

cardiomyocyte death (Penna, Mancardi, Rastaldo, & Pagliaro, 2009). The detrimental

effects of ROS include DNA and RNA damage, lipid peroxidation, protein oxidation,

and functional impairments (Schieber & Chandel, 2014). Mitochondria play a vital

role in various metabolic pathways (Sissler, González-Serrano, & Westhof, 2017).

Mitochondria protein mutations, which are involved in mitochondrial metabolism and

directly affect the central functions of mitochondria, have been extensively studied for

a long time (Gorman et al., 2016). On the other hand, mitochondrial dysfunction and

mutations in different components of the mitochondrial translation machinery may

indirectly impact ATP production (Pearce, Nezich, & Spinazzola, 2013). These

includes mitochondrial aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (mt-AARSs).

Mt-AARSs are a group of nuclei-coding enzymes that ensure the accurate

translation of the genetic code by binding 20 amino acids to their homologous tRNA

molecules (Meyer-Schuman & Antonellis, 2017; Ognjenović & Simonović, 2018;

Sissler et al., 2017). Cytoplasmic AARS provide amino acid-tRNA binding for

protein translation, and the corresponding mt-AARS are introduced into the

mitochondrial matrix, fulfilling their typical role of transporting amino acids for

tRNA molecules encoded by their mitochondrial genomes (mt-tRNA). The accuracy

of mitochondrial protein synthesis depends on the coordination of nuclear encoded

mt-AARS and mitochondrial DNA-encoded tRNA (Ognjenović & Simonović, 2018).

Mitochondrial dysfunction is known to preferentially affect tissues with high energy

requirements, especially the brain, muscles, and heart. It is widely recognized that

nearly all nuclear genes associated with mt-AARS are considered pathogenic genes

responsible for mitochondrial diseases (Euro et al., 2015). Typically, mutations in the

mitochondrial alanyl-tRNA synthetase (AARS2) gene cause infantile-onset

cardiomyopathy and white matter brain disease from childhood to adulthood (Nielsen

et al., 2020). AARS2 is the gene encoding mitochondrial alanyl-tRNA synthetase,

which is responsible for connecting specific tRNA with its cognate amino acid,

alanine (X. Zhang et al., 2022). Recent studies have shown that AARS2 contains

proline-hydroxylated conserved amino acid sequences, and its stability is enhanced

under hypoxic conditions (Mao et al., 2024). Mutations in AARS2 can cause

mitochondrial dysfunction (Dallabona et al., 2014; Vasilescu et al., 2018), leading to a

reduction in cellular energy production (Fine, Nemeth, Kaufman, & Fatemi, 2019).

However, the precise mechanisms by which AARS2 deficiency contributes to the

development of cardiomyopathy in patients are not fully understood, and the potential

of AARS2 as a therapeutic target for heart-related diseases remains to be explored.

One of the nodal points of energy metabolism is pyruvate kinase that catalyzes the

conversion of phosphoenolpyruvate (PEP) to pyruvate, the last step of glycolysis

(Méndez-Lucas et al., 2017). Mammalian pyruvate kinases (PKs) are encoded by two

genes (PKLR and PKM), and each can generate two isoforms, respectively (PKL and

PKR; PKM1 and PKM2) (Wong, Ojo, Yan, & Tang, 2015). Pyruvate kinase muscle

isozyme 1 (PKM1) and pyruvate kinase muscle isozyme 2 (PKM2) are alternative

splicing products of the PKM gene and express in various tissues (Israelsen & Vander

Heiden, 2015). PKM1 is found in some differentiated adult tissues, such as heart,

muscle, and brain. PKM2 is widely expressed and a predominant isoform in many

adult cell types, including kidney tubular cells, intestinal epithelial cells, and lung

epithelial cells (Dayton, Gocheva, et al., 2016). PKM1 has constitutively high

catalytic activity, whereas PKM2 enzyme activity is subject to complex allosteric

regulation (Ikeda, Tanaka, & Noguchi, 1997), which allows cells to switch between

glycolysis and biosynthesis (Tang et al., 2023). PKM2 was recently found to protect

cardiomyocytes from ischemia and promote cardiomyocyte proliferation (Magadum

et al., 2020; Ni et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2021). However, it remains to be addressed

how PKM2 protein and mRNA are regulated during pathogenesis of MI.

We have previously reported that AARS2 binds lactate to modulate metabolic

proteins in ischemia hearts and skeletal muscles(Du et al., 2022; Mao et al., 2024).

However, we have very limited knowledge on AARS2 function in the heart. And our

previous experiments demonstrated that AARS2 overexpression had no significant

effect on pyruvate dehydrogenase PDHA1 lactylation in cardiomyocytes. Here, we

investigated AARS2 function under ischemic and hypoxic stress by employing both

loss-of-function and gain-of-function of AARS2 in mice and neonatal rat

cardiomyocytes (NRCMs). And we deciphered the mechanistic insights of AARS2

into energy metabolism by using variety of cell biology, biochemistry, mass

spectrometry, and transcriptomics technologies. This work not only reveals a novel

cardiac improvement signaling AARS2-PKM2, but also identifies therapeutic targets

and small molecules for cardiomyopathy and MI.

Results

Deleting AARS2 in adult cardiomyocytes causes heart failure

It is known that AARS2 deficiency causes human cardiomyopathy (Nielsen et al.,

2020; Vasilescu et al., 2018), but the underlying mechanisms remain unclear. By

comparing expression pattern of AARS2 before and after mouse MI, we found that

both AARS2 proteins and mRNA decreased in the hearts after MI (Figure 1A–B),

suggesting that AARS2 might be involved in the pathological progression of MI. To

elucidate AARS2 function in adult cardiomyocytes, we crossed AARS2$^{floxed/floxed}$

(AARS2$^{fl/fl}$) mice with α-MHC-MerCreMer mice to achieve cardiomyocyte-specific

knockout of AARS2 after tamoxifen treatment (Figure 1C). We used AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice

as control group, and α-MHC-MerCreMer; AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice as cKO group (Figure 1–

figure supplement 1A). As expected, AARS2 conditioned knockout (AARS2^{cKO})

hearts had lower levels of AARS2 than that of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ hearts (Figure 1D), while

the levels of AARS2 were comparable in the liver, lung and skeletal muscle between

AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and cKO groups (Figure 1–figure supplement 1B). The results suggest that

we succeed in achieving myocardial-specific deletion of AARS2 in adult

cardiomyocytes.

We then asked whether AARS2 cKO mice have abnormal heart function. By

applying intraperitoneal injection of tamoxifen to induce Cre-LoxP mediated cardiac

specific deletion of AARS2 for 5 days, we measured cardiac function by

echocardiography (ECHO) at various time points and myocardial fibrosis by Masson

staining at the experimental endpoint (Figure 1E). ECHO showed that ejection

fraction (EF) amd fractional shortening (FS) were comparable between AARS2$^{fl/fl}$

control and AARS2^{cKO} mice before tamoxifen induction. At day 7 after tamoxifen

induction, AARS2^{cKO} mice showed reduced EF and FS, with a downward trend on

days 14 and 28 after induction, whereas AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control mice exhibited normal EF

and FS (Figure 1G). Moreover, the heart wave tracings by ECHO were flatter in

AARS2^{cKO} mice than those of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice at day 28 (Figure 1F). In addition, the

AARS2^{cKO} mice performed worse in terms of cardiac output, as well as left ventricle

end-diastolic diameter (LVEDD), and left ventricle end-systolic diameter (LVESD)

(Figure 1H–I). At day 28 after induction, 50% of AARS2^{cKO} mice died, while all

AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice survived (Figure 1J). Wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) staining showed

that cardiomyocyte hypertrophy was evident in AARS2^{cKO} hearts (Figure 1K), and

Masson staining indicated severe cardiac fibrosis in AARS2^{cKO} hearts compared with

AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ hearts (Figure 1L) at 28 days after induction. The results collectively

indicate that the deletion of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes results in abnormal cardiac

function and fibrosis in mice, displaying characteristics of cardiomyopathy.

AARS2 is required for energy metabolism in cardiomyocytes

In order to clarify the underlying mechanisms in AARS2^{cKO} hearts, we investigated

cardiomyocyte apoptosis and metabolism. TUNEL staining showed that AARS2^{cKO}

hearts had a significant increase of TUNEL$^+$ cardiomyocytes compared with those in

AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control hearts (Figure 2A). Consistently, the anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2

decreased while the pro-apoptotic protein BAX increased in AARS2^{cKO} hearts (Figure

2B). Given that the depletion of AARS2 causes cellular energy metabolism imbalance

in human patients (Zhou et al., 2019), we asked if AARS2^{cKO} mouse cardiomyocytes

exhibit metabolic defects. We performed Seahorse assays to evaluate mitochondrial

OXPHOS and cardiomyocyte glycolysis from adult mouse hearts, as well as the

OXPHOS and glycolysis of NRCMs. We found that the baseline of mitochondrial

oxygen consumption rate (OCR) in AARS2^{cKO} cardiomyocytes was similar to that in

AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control cardiomyocytes, but the maximal OCR decreased in mutant

mitochondria (Figure 2C). Furthermore, the baseline of extracellular acidification rate

(ECAR) in AARS2^{cKO} cardiomyocytes was also similar to that of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control

cardiomyocytes, but the maximal ECAR decreased in mutant cardiomyocytes (Figure

2D). In addition, knocking down of AARS2 by small interfering RNA (siRNA) in

NRCMs (Figure 2–figure supplement 1A–B) resulted in similar effect on both

maximal OCR and ECAR *in vitro* (Figure 2E–F). Taken together, these results

indicate that the depletion of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes leads to cardiomyocyte death

and impairs energy metabolism.

Overexpression of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes alleviates MI in mice

To further elucidate the function of AARS2 in the pathology of MI, we generated

cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of AARS2 driven by the α-MHC promoter by

crossing α-MHC-MerCreMer mice with AARS2 transgenic mice (Figure 3A). In all

experiments presented here, we used α-MHC-MerCreMer (AARS2^{WT}) mice as

control group while used α-MHC-MerCreMer; AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ (AARS2$^{Tg/+}$) mice as

experimental group (Figure 3–figure supplement 1A). Western blots showed that AARS2 was only overexpressed in the heart after tamoxifen induction for 5 days while normally expressed in the liver, lung and skeletal muscle (Figure 3B and Figure 3–figure supplement 1C). In addition, immunofluorescence analysis revealed that AARS2 was highly expressed in cardiomyocytes of AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mouse hearts, whereas there was a significantly lower level of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes of AARS2^{WT} control hearts (Figure 3–figure supplement 1B). Together, we have successfully generated transgenic mice with cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of AARS2.

Then, we evaluated the impact of AARS2 overexpression on cardiac function post-MI by using AARS2 transgenic mice (Figure 3C). Before MI, we confirmed that EF and FS were comparable between AARS2^{WT} control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic groups, and at day 3 after MI, EF and FS decreased significantly in both AARS2^{WT} control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mouse groups. ECHO showed that the waveforms of AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts recovered well compared with those of AARS2^{WT} control hearts at day 28 (Figure 3D). Importantly, from day 7 to 28 post-MI, we found that EF and FS gradually increased in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic group, while decreased in AARS2^{WT} control group (Figure 3E). In addition, the cardiac output increased, while LVEDD and LVESD decreased in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts compared with AATS2^{WT} control hearts at day 28 post-MI (Figure 3F–G). Consistently, Masson staining showed that cardiac fibrosis decreased in the AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts compared with AARS2^{WT} control hearts at day 28 post-MI (Figure 3H). Briefly, these

results suggest that overexpression of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes improves cardiac

function and alleviates fibrosis in mice post-MI.

We next asked whether overexpression of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes has an impact

on cardiomyocyte proliferation and coronary artery regeneration post-MI. We found

that the proliferation index of either $Ki67^+/cTnT^+$ or $pH3^+/cTnT^+$ cardiomyocytes was

comparable between $AARS2^{Tg/+}$ transgenic and $AARS2^{WT}$ control hearts at 7 days

post-MI (Figure 3–figure supplement 2A–B). Similarly, overexpression of AARS2 in

NRCMs had no effect on either $Ki67^+/cTnT^+$ or $pH3^+/cTnT^+$ cardiomyocytes *in vitro*

(Figure 3–figure supplement 2C–D). As compensatory collateral vessel formation in

the infarcted area contributes to cardiac repair, we evaluated the coronary vessel

density using anti-CD31 (an endothelial cell marker) and α-SMA (a smooth muscle

cell marker). However, there were no changes in coronary vessel density between

$AARS2^{WT}$ control and $AARS2^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts at day 7 post-MI (Figure 3–figure

supplement 2E). Additionally, WGA staining showed that AARS2 overexpression had

no effect on cardiomyocyte hypertrophy in AARS2 transgenic hearts (Figure 3–figure

supplement 2F). In conclusion, these results suggest that overexpression of AARS2

has no direct influence on cardiomyocyte proliferation, hypertrophy, and arterial

vessel formation during the pathology of MI.

Overexpression of AARS2 decreases cardiomyocyte mtROS and apoptosis

Given that overexpression of AARS2 does not promote cardiomyocyte proliferation

and hypertrophy in adult mice, we further investigate whether it salvages

cardiomyocytes from ultimate death. TUNEL staining revealed less amounts of

TUNEL$^+$/cTnT$^+$ cardiomyocytes in AARS2^{WT} transgenic hearts compared with those

in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ control hearts at 7 days post-MI (Figure 4A). Consistently, we found

that the anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 increased, and the pro-apoptotic protein BAX

decreased in the left ventricles of AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts compared with

AARS2^{WT} control hearts (Figure 4B). The level of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) in

the blood serum is a standard marker for assessing the severity of MI, therefore we

examined LDH and found that it decreased in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mouse serum

(Figure 4C). In parallel, we also found that under hypoxia and reoxygenation (H/R),

mitochondrial ROS indicator mtSOX decreased in AARS2 overexpression (AARS2^{OE})

NRCMs compared with Mock NRCMs (Figure 4D). Consistent with the findings *in*

vivo, AARS2^{OE} also decreased pro-apoptotic protein BAX while increased

anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 in NRCMs subjected to H/R injury (Figure 4E), as well as

decreased the release of LDH in the NRCM supernatants under either normoxia or

hypoxia conditions (Figure 4F). Together, these results suggest that AARS2

overexpression alleviates ischemic- or hypoxia-induced cardiomyocyte damage.

Overexpression of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes promotes glycolysis

We then asked what are the underlying mechanisms of AARS2 on cardiac

protection. Since a previous study has shown that overexpression of AARS2 leads to

intracellular metabolic changes (Zhao et al., 2018), we performed Mass Spectrometry

for assessing metabolites of homogenates from heart tissues or NRCMs. We found

that the amounts of lactate and pyruvate increased, while acetyl-CoA decreased in

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts compared with AARS2^{WT} control hearts (Figure 5A).

Similarly, we also found that AARS2 overexpression led to elevating lactate and

pyruvate as well as decreasing acetyl-CoA in AARS2^{OE} NRCMs compared with

Mock control NRCMs (Figure 5B). To further assess the impact of AARS2

overexpression on cardiac energy metabolism, we conducted Seahorse to evaluate

mitochondrial OXPHOS and cellular glycolysis in adult mouse hearts and NRCMs.

The baseline of OCR was comparable between AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic and AARS2^{WT}

control hearts, but the maximal OCR decreased in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts

(Figure 5C). Additionally, the baseline of ECAR had no difference in adult

cardiomyocytes of both groups, but the maximal ECAR increased in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$

transgenic cardiomyocytes compared with AARS2^{WT} control cardiomyocytes (Figure

5D). We found similar findings that the baseline OCR and ECAR had no changes in

both groups, but the maximal OCR decreased and maximal ECAR increased in

AARS2^{OE} NRCMs (Figure 5E–F). Thus, these results indicate that AARS2^{OE} in

cardiomyocytes can shift the metabolic profile from OXPHOS to glycolysis. Under

ischemic or hypoxia conditions, this metabolic shift allows cardiomyocytes to avoid

OXPHOS dysfunction and enables them to produce energy through glycolysis as a

protective mechanism for self-preservation and energy supply. This metabolic

adaptation may be crucial in maintaining cell viability and function during periods of

reduced oxygen availability in the heart.

AARS2 promotes glycolysis *via* regulating the PKM2 translation and ratio of

PKM2 dimers to tetramers

We then asked how elevated AARS2 in cardiomyocytes leads to metabolic changes

from OXPHOS toward glycolysis. AARS2 is an alanyl-tRNA synthase that is critical

for RNA translation, so we applied Ribosome RNA-seq to examine whether

over-expression of AARS2 has any effect on RNA translation of metabolic genes. We

found that AARS2 overexpression promoted the translation of glycolytic proteins,

including PKM (Figure 6A), PDK4 and LDHA proteins (Figure 6B). Considering that

PKM is the key enzyme that promotes glycolysis (Tang et al., 2023; Vander Heiden,

Cantley, & Thompson, 2009), which PKM1 and PKM2 are two different splicing

forms of the PKM gene (Dayton, Jacks, & Vander Heiden, 2016), we examined

whether AARS2 overexpression has effect on PKM1 and PKM2 translation. Western

blots showed a significant increase in PKM2 proteins with AARS2 overexpression in

both mouse hearts and NRCMs (Figure 6D–E). Conversely, PKM2 protein markedly

decreased in AARS2^{cKO} hearts (Figure 6F). On the other hand, we found that AARS2

overexpression had no effect on PKM1 proteins (Figure 6C), suggesting that AARS2

overexpression upregulates PKM2 but not PKM1 translation. In addition,

overexpression of AARS2 also enhanced the translation of other signaling pathways

including genes encoded by mitochondria, lipoprotein metabolic process, cellular

response to hypoxia, and sodium ion transport (Figure 6–figure supplement 1A–D),

which has a positive effect on mitochondrial function and cardiomyocyte function.

Because PKM2 can be converted between dimers and tetramers, which is critical

for maintaining energy metabolism between glycolysis and OXPHOS, with dimers

toward glycolysis (Dayton, Jacks, et al., 2016). We found that AARS2 overexpression

increased, while AARS2 cKO decreased, PKM2 dimers and tetramers (Figure 6G–H),

thus corroborating the increase of glycolysis in AARS2 transgenic hearts and the

reduction of glycolysis and OXPHOS in AARS2 cKO. Previous studies have

suggested that an increase in alanine causes a shift of PKM2 tetramers to dimers,

consequently promoting glycolysis (Dayton, Jacks, et al., 2016). Mass spectrometry

analysis revealed that alanine indeed increased in transgenic hearts and NRCMs upon

AARS2 overexpression (Figure 6I), which is consistent with the observation that the

ratio of dimers/tetramers increased in AARS2 transgenic hearts (Figure 6J). In

addition, co-immunoprecipitation assay revealed no direct interaction between

AARS2 and PKM2 (Figure 6K). Moreover, regardless of AARS2 overexpression or

cKO in mouse hearts and NRCMs, we found that the level of PKM2 mRNA was not

altered (Figure 6L–M), suggesting that AARS2 has no effect on PKM2 transcription.

Therefore, AARS2 overexpression enhances glycolysis through regulating alanine

and PKM2 translation.

Activation of PKM2 alleviates cardiomyopathy in AARS2 cKO mice

To establish the functional relationship between AARS2 and PKM2, we then investigated whether the PKM2 activator TEPP-46 (TEPP-46 tetramerizes PKM2, thereby enhancing energy supply) alleviates cardiomyocyte death caused by AARS2 deficiency. After inducing AARS2 deficiency with tamoxifen in AARS2[cKO] mice, we administered TEPP-46 according to the timeline and examined cardiac function by ECHO as shown (Figure 7A). We found that the baseline of EF and FS were comparable before tamoxifen induction, EF and FS decreased at day 0 (5 days after tamoxifen induction) in both vehicle (AARS2[cKO]) control and TEPP-46 (AARS2[cKO]) groups. While EF and FS continued to decline in vehicle control mice, EF and FS exhibited a significant recovery and tended to stabilize in TEPP-46 mice after 7 days of treatment (Figure 7B). ECHO revealed better waveforms and an improvement in cardiac function in TEPP-46 group compared to vehicle group at 28 days post treatment (Figure 7C). Moreover, increased cardiac output, decreased LVESD and LVEDD indicated a significant improvement in TEPP-46 group (Figure 7D–E). Masson staining showed less cardiac fibrosis in the hearts of TEPP-46 group compared with vehicle group at day 28 post treatment (Figure 7F). Furthermore, AARS2 knockdown in NRCMs resulted in a significant increase in LDH *in vitro*, which was repressed by TEPP-46 treatment (Figure 7G). Additionally, TEPP-46 also effectively suppressed mitochondrial ROS generation induced by AARS2 knockdown (Figure 7H). Taken together, these results suggested that activating PKM2 by TEPP-46 effectively alleviates cardiomyopathy in AARS2 deficient mice.

Discussion

CVDs have become a prevalent cause of morbidity and mortality worldwide (Z.

Zhang et al., 2023). The pathological processes of CVDs involve irreversible

cardiomyocyte death, oxidative stress, inflammation, and cardiac fibrosis, which

further contribute to adverse cardiac remodeling and ultimately lead to heart failure.

Currently, there are no effective therapeutic strategies available for CVDs. This study

showed that AARS2 plays a crucial role in salvaging cardiomyocytes from ischemic

stress *via* fine-tuning PKM2-mediated energy metabolism, thus presenting novel

therapeutic targets and potential small molecules for treating cardiomyopathy and MI.

Previous studies have shown that AARS2 mutations lead to abnormal

cardiomyocyte function, eventually to cardiomyopathy in human patients (Nielsen et

al., 2020). However, it remains unknown whether AARS2 functions in

cardiomyocytes or non-cardiomyocytes and how AARS2 regulates cardiomyocyte

function and metabolism. Mitochondrial OXPHOS is the primary pathway for adult

cardiomyocytes to produce ATP, relying on oxygen in the mitochondria to oxidize

substrates and generate ATP through the cellular respiratory chain. Under hypoxia,

glycolysis serves as an alternative pathway for cells to produce energy, breaking down

glucose into lactate and generating a small amount of ATP (Vander Heiden et al., 2009;

Wei et al., 2023). By creating cardiomyocyte-specific cKO and transgenic

overexpression of AARS2 mouse models, we found that AARS2 is not only required

for cardiomyocyte function, but also sufficient for promoting cardiac remodeling of

cardiomyocytes from ischemia and hypoxia. This provides a principle for future

AARS2 gene therapy with targeted delivery into cardiomyocytes not

non-cardiomyocytes. Our mechanistic investigations revealed that mitochondrial

OXPHOS and glycolysis were impaired in cardiomyocytes lacking AARS2, leading

to energy supply disruption and metabolic imbalance, ultimately resulting in

cardiomyocyte death. On the other hand, AARS2 overexpression had a striking

protective effect on cardiomyocytes, partly *via* enhancing glycolysis and resistance of

cardiomyocytes to ischemia and hypoxia. Unbiased Ribosome RNA-Seq and

functional analyses point out PKM2 as an important mediator of AARS2 in regulating

cardiomyocyte function and metabolism. Our data suggest that PKM2 decreased in

the hearts of AARS2 cKO mice, with the reduced formation of PKM2 dimers and

tetramers; and AARS2 overexpression led to an increase in glycolysis and attenuated

OXPHOS, with increased PKM2 translation and the ratio of PKM2 dimers to

tetramers. PKM2 is a key enzyme in the glycolytic pathway, involved in converting

PEP into pyruvate and ATP (Méndez-Lucas et al., 2017). Under certain conditions, an

elevation in PKM2 levels can enhance the activity of the glycolytic pathway, thereby

increasing the cell ability to produce ATP through glycolysis (Wong et al., 2015).

Recent studies have found that not only AARS1 (Ju et al., 2024; Zong et al., 2024),

but also AARS2 is a lactate binding protein (Mao et al., 2024). Increased AARS2

further leads to increased binding to lactate, and PKM2 dimer, as a key enzyme in

lactate production, can promote the production of lactate through glycolysis. Thus,

AARS2 overexpression promotes the glycolytic pathway by increasing PKM2

translation and formation of dimers, thereby supporting the survival and function of

cardiomyocytes. This metabolic adaptation is crucial for the heart to maintain its

physiological functions under hypoxic or ischemic stress. Indeed, the PKM2 activator

TEPP-46 enables to rescue cardiomyopathy phenotypes including cardiomyocyte

death and cardiac fibrosis. This is because TEPP-46 enhances the tetramerization of

PKM2, which enhances OXPHOS for cardiomyocytes. Therefore, this work presents

a new cardiomyocyte survival mechanism involving AARS2-PKM2 signaling under

ischemic conditions.

It is widely recognized that cardiomyocytes undergo dramatic metabolic alterations

and responses to oxidative stress during the pathogenesis of CVDs. Our Seahorse data

suggested that the maximal OCR decreased, while the maximal ECAR strikingly

increased, in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts. These findings suggest an enhanced

glycolytic pathway in AARS2 overexpressing cardiomyocytes, thereby augmenting

their capacity for ATP production through glycolysis. This metabolic adaptation may

contribute to sustaining the survival and functionality of cardiomyocytes, particularly

under hypoxia or other stress conditions. This notion was also supported by functional

analyses of AARS2 in NRCMs. Additionally, overexpression of AARS2 inhibits

mtROS production and confers protection against ischemia and H/R-induced injury in

cardiomyocytes. ROS represents a major oxidative species closely associated with

cardiomyocyte damage and disease occurrence (Wei et al., 2023). Despite causing a

reduction in OXPHOS, AARS2 overexpression also suppresses mtROS generation

caused by ETC disorders, thus mitigating the detrimental effects of oxidative stress.

Consequently, overexpression of AARS2 provides a protective mechanism by

reducing mtROS levels and helps maintain normal physiological homeostasis within

cardiomyocytes. In summary, upregulation or activation of PKM2 dimers mediated by

AARS2 overexpression enhances glycolysis, thereby supporting the survival and

functionality of cardiomyocytes, especially under hypoxic or stressful conditions.

This metabolic adaptation coupled with reduction of ROS holds significant

importance for maintaining normal cardiac function during challenging situations.

However, this study has certain limitations. The interaction between PKM2 and

HIF-1α in the nucleus can affect the expression of glycolysis genes and promote cell

survival (Chen et al., 2014; Palsson-McDermott et al., 2015; Prakasam, Iqbal,

Bamezai, & Mazurek, 2018), and this mechanism will also be elucidated in the future

in cardiomyocytes. Investigating specific interactions between PKM2 and AARS2 in

the context of cardiac pathophysiology will provide a better understanding of

cardiomyocyte metabolism and adaptation mechanisms, but glycolysis is only a

process in which the body makes adaptive changes under special conditions. It

remains unclear whether continuous excessive glycolysis level is beneficial to

cardiomyocytes. This study primarily relies on mouse models and NRCMs, lacking

sufficient human data to validate the experimental outcomes in human

cardiomyocytes. Therefore, before applying these findings to clinical treatments in

humans, more researches related to human subjects are necessary. Moreover,

ribosome profiling sequencing (Ribo-Seq) shows that AARS2 enhances PKM2

translation only as part of the investigated mechanisms. In fact, AARS2 also affects

the translation of many other proteins. Further exploration into the influence of

AARS2 on gene translation will be conducted. Additionally, delving into the mutual

interactions and regulatory mechanisms between AARS2 and PKM will help uncover

the regulatory mechanisms of AARS2 on cardiomyocyte energy metabolism,

providing a deeper understanding and potential therapeutic targets for the treatment of

CVDs.

Materials and methods

Key Resources Table				
Reagent type (species) or resource	**Designation**	**Source or reference**	**Identifiers**	**Additional information**
genetic reagent (M. musculus)	AARS2flox/flox	Zhao Lab, Fudan University	N/A	C57BL/6J
genetic reagent (M. musculus)	AARS2 Transgenic	Zhao Lab, Fudan University	N/A	C57BL/6J

genetic reagent (M. musculus)	α-MHC-Mer CreMer	Xiong Lab, Peking University	N/A	C57BL/6J
primary cell （Rat）	Primary neonatal rat cardiomyocytes	Charles River	N/A	CD®(SD) IGS Rat, 3 days
antibody	anti-PKM2 (Rabbit polyclonal)	CST	4053S	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-AARS2 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam	ab197367	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-Bcl2 (Rabbit polyclonal)	CST	3498S	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-BAX (Rabbit polyclonal)	CST	14796S	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-PKM1 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Proteintech	15821-1-AP	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-PDK4 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Bioss	bs-0682R	WB (1:1000)
antibody	anti-LDHA (Rabbit polyclonal)	Bioss	bs-34202R	WB (1:1000)

antibody	Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (H&L)-HRP Conjugated	EASYBIO	BE0101-100	WB (1:10000)
antibody	HRP-conjugated GAPDH	Proteintech	HRP-60004	WB (1:10000)
antibody	HRP-conjugated Beta Actin	Proteintech	HRP-60008	WB (1:10000)
antibody	HRP-conjugated Alpha Tubulin	Proteintech	HRP-66031	WB (1:10000)
antibody	anti-Ki67 (Rabbit polyclonal)	CST	12075S	IF (1:300)
antibody	anti-pH3 (Rabbit polyclonal)	CST	53348S	IF (1:300)
antibody	anti-cTnT (Mouse polyclonal)	Abcam	ab8295	IF (1:300)
antibody	anti-α-SMA (Mouse polyclonal)	CST	48938S	IF (1:300)

antibody	anti-CD31 (Rabbit polyclonal)	Abcam,	ab18291	IF (1:300)
antibody	Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG H&L (Alexa Fluor® 488)	Abcam	ab150077	IF (1:500)
antibody	Goat Anti-Mouse IgG H&L (Alexa Fluor® 555)	Abcam	ab150118	IF (1:500)
recombinant DNA reagent	pLenti-CMV-MCS-PGK-Puro-WPRE (plasmid)	This paper	N/A	CMV-MCS-PGK-Puro
Ribo-seq data	Ribosome sequencing of the effect of control lentivirus and AARS2 overexpression lentivirus on neonatal rat cardiomyocyte translation	ArrayExpress	E-MTAB-13767	N/A

Experimental animals

Sprague-Dawley neonatal rats (postnatal day 3, P3) and adult mice were obtained

from Vital River Laboratory Animal Technology Co., Ltd (Beijing, China). All

experimental procedures involving animal subjects were conducted in accordance

with the protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at

Peking University, Beijing, China (IACUC: IMM-XingJW-4).

Generation of cardiomyocyte-specific AARS2 knockout mice and AARS2

overexpression mice were achieved by crossing either AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ or AARS2^{Tg} mice

with α-MHC-MerCreMer transgenic mice (Sohal et al., 2001). The AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice

and AARS2^{Tg} mice were obtained from Dr. Shi-Min Zhao's lab at Fudan University,

which were kept in C57BL/6J background.

The AARS2 cKO mice were given with TEPP-46 (10 mg/kg, MCE, Shanghai,

China) by intraperitoneal injection once a day for the first and second weeks, and

every other day for the third and fourth weeks after tamoxifen induction (20 mg/kg,

Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, Missouri, USA).

Adult mouse MI

The MI model was established in mice at an age ranging 8–10 weeks through

ligation of the left anterior descending coronary artery (Du et al., 2022). Initially, each

mouse was anesthetized by intraperitoneal injection of tribromoethanol (300 mg/kg;

Sigma-Aldrich). Following complete anesthesia, the mouse was positioned supine and

immobilized. Endotracheal intubation was performed, and the mouse was connected

to a small-animal ventilator (MouseVent, Kent Scientific Corp., Torrington, CT,

USA). The thoracotomy was carried out in the left intercostal space between the third

and fourth ribs, exposing the heart by removing the pericardium. The left anterior

descending coronary artery was permanently ligated using a 6-0 non-absorbable

surgical suture, and the chest and skin were promptly sutured. Finally, the mouse was

removed from the ventilator and kept warm until fully awaken.

Echocardiography

ECHO was performed on anesthetized mice using a Vevo 3100 system (Visual Sonics,

Toronto, ON, Canada) with 1.0% isoflurane anesthesia (T. Zhang et al., 2016). The

hair on the left chest was completely removed using a depilatory paste to ensure

optimal image acquisition. Two-dimensional ECHO images were obtained using a

20-MHz variable-frequency transducer in both the mid-ventricular short axis and the

parasternal long axis. Heart rate, LVEDD and LVESD were measured from the

short-axis M-mode tracings at the level of the papillary muscle. Left ventricle

functional parameters, including the percentage of EF, FS, and cardiac output were

calculated using the aforementioned measurements and accompanying software.

ECHO data were collected and analyzed on day -1 (baseline, 1 day before MI) as well

as on days 3, 7, 14, and 28 post-MI.

Pathological evaluation of mouse hearts

Mouse hearts were harvested and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for a minimum of 2 days. Following fixation, the hearts underwent a series of processing steps, including dehydration, clearing, and infiltration, using a Histoprocessor (Tissue-Tek, Sakura, Tokyo, Japan). The paraffin-embedded tissues were then sectioned at a thickness of 5 μm. Masson's trichrome staining was performed according to the protocol (Chuang et al., 2016). Briefly, heart sections were immersed in Bouin's solution, followed by sequential staining with Mayer's hematoxylin solution, Biebrich scarlet–acid fuchsin, phosphomolybdic acid–phosphotungstic acid, and aniline blue reagents (Sigma-Aldrich), with distilled water rinses between each step. Subsequently, the sections were dried, mounted on glass slides, and examined and photographed under a microscope.

Isolation of NRCMs and transfection

NRCMs were isolated from P3 Sprague-Dawley rat hearts according to a previously described method (Du et al., 2022). Briefly, the hearts of rat pups were dissected and washed with Ca^{2+}- and Mg^{2+}-free HBSS (MacGene, Beijing, China). Using micro-dissecting scissors, ventricular tissues were minced into small pieces, and were then treated with 5 mL of digestion solution containing collagenase II (0.3 mg/mL; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Pittsburgh, PA, USA) and trypsin (1 mg/mL; Amresco, Pennsylvania, PA, USA) in HBSS for 5 min at 37°C. The cell supernatant was

collected and the residual tissue was repeatedly treated with the digestion solution

until little remained. The supernatants were transferred to a tube with an equal volume

of ice-cold Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; MacGene) containing 10%

fetal bovine serum (FBS; Thermo Fisher Scientific, 16140071) and 1%

penicillin-streptomycin, and then centrifuged at 400 g for 5 min. The cell pellets were

re-suspended in 25-mL DMEM containing 10% FBS, 1% penicillin-streptomycin and

1 μmol/L cytosine arabinoside. The cells were incubated in a 100-mm dish for 1.5 h at

37°C to eliminate fibroblast contamination, then non-adherent cells were collected

and seeded at a concentration of 5×10^5 cells/mL. After incubation for 48-72 h, the

medium was removed and the NRCMs were then cultured with DMEM containing 10%

FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin for further analysis.

Transfection of cells was performed by using Lipofectamine 3000 (Invitrogen)

according to the manufacturer's protocol. Cells were harvested at 72 h post

transfection and washed in phosphate-buffered saline for further RNA extraction and

whole-cell protein extraction. The sequences of the small interfering RNA used are

listed in Table S1.

The vector pLenti-CMV-MCS-PGK-Puro-WPRE was selected for lentiviral

packaging, and the AARS2 gene was used according to the Gene Bank. Briefly,

AARS2 sequence was ligated with restriction enzymes. The vector was ligated, and

the sequence-confirmed plasmids were transfected into 293T cells. The supernatant

was collected, and lentiviruses at 10 MOI were used to infect the cells for AARS2

overexpression. AARS2 overexpression and its control, Ad-green fluorescent protein

lentiviruses, were utilized. NRCMs were infected with the lentivirus for 72 h. Then

NRCMs were fixed for staining or lysed for protein extraction at 72 h after removing

virus from NRCMs.

Genotyping

The last 1–3 mm of the mouse tails was used for genotyping. Lyophilized

proteinase K (1245680100, Merck) was dissolved at 10 mg/mL in 50 mmol/L

Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, with 5 mmol/L calcium acetate and stored at 4°C. Then added 2 μL

stock solution to tail tip samples that had been previously placed into 200 μl GNT-K

buffer (10 mmol/L Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, 50 mmol/L KCl, 1.5 mmol/L $MgCl_2$, 0.01%

gelatin, 0.45% Nonidet P-40, and 0.45% Tween20). The samples were digested for no

more than 2 h at 56°C on a dry heat block. The samples were then heated at 95°C for

15 min to inactivate proteinase K and were briefly centrifuged at 13,000 g for 1 min.

Immediately after centrifugation, 2 μL DNA containing supernatant was transferred to

20-μL reactions. 2× Taq Master Mix (Vayzme, P112-01) was used for the PCR

reactions. The amplified products were then used for DNA electrophoresis. Primer

pairs for genotyping are shown in Table S2.

Isolation of mitochondria from hearts

Mitochondria were isolated from mouse heart tissues as previously described (Wieckowski, Giorgi, Lebiedzinska, Duszynski, & Pinton, 2009). In brief, mice were euthanized and heart tissue was immediately washed in ice-cold PBS (three times with PBS to remove the blood), then tissue was cut into small pieces using scissors. The used PBS solution was discarded and the tissue was washed once again with 10 mL of fresh, ice-cold IB-1. The heart tissue was transferred to an ice-cold glass/Teflon Potter Elvehjem homogenizer. IB-1 was added in the ratio of 4 mL of buffer per gram of heart tissue. Homogenization, as well as the following steps, were carried out at 4°C to minimize the activation of proteases and phospholipases. After homogenization was completed, tissue was transferred to a centrifuge and spun at 700 g for 10 min at 4°C (repeated 3 times). The supernatant was collected and centrifuged at 9,000 g for 10 min at 4°C. The supernatant (representing the cytosolic fraction containing lysosomes and microsomes) was then discarded, and the pellet (containing the mitochondria) was gently resuspended in 20 mL of ice-cold IB-2. The mitochondrial suspension was then centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min at 4°C (repeated 2 times). The pellet representing the crude mitochondrial fraction was used for further experimentation.

Adult mouse cardiomyocyte isolation

Adult mouse cardiomyocytes were isolated according to a previously published

method (Li et al., 2021). Briefly, after sacrifice, the mouse heart was immediately

harvested and cannulated. The heart was then perfused with the modified

Krebs-Ringer buffer (HEPES 20 mM, NaCl 137 mmol/L, KCl 5.4 mmol/L,

$MgCl_2.6H_2O$ 1.2 mmol/L, Na_2HPO_4 1.2 mmol/L, glucose 10 mmol/L, taurin 10

mmol/L, pH 7.4) with collagenase II (0.8 mg/mL, Worthington, LS004177) and

protease (0.04 mg/mL，Sigma-Aldrich, P5147). After digestion for approximately 25

min, atria were removed and ventricles were dissociated by pipetting. After filtration

by cell strainer, adult cardiomyocytes were separated and enriched by sedimentation

twice, and stored for further use.

Seahorse metabolic assays

The OCR was measured using a Seahorse XFe24 analyzer (Agilent, USA). NRCMs

were seeded at 50,000 cells/well on to XFe24 microplates (Agilent, 100777) in high

glucose DMEM medium (Hyclone) containing 10% FBS, penicillin and streptomycin

at 37°C and 5% CO_2. After 48 h, cells were treated with lentivirus or transfected

siRNA, and after 72 h, seahorse assay medium was prepared by adding pyruvate,

glutamine and glucose to XF Base Medium. Cells were then cultured in the assay

medium for 1 h in a 37°C and non-CO_2 incubator prior to the assay. 50 μg of

mitochondrial protein from the hearts was added to XFe24 microplates. A

mitochondrial stress test kit (Agilent, 103015-100) was used to monitor OCR where

611 baseline measurements were made followed by sequential injection of ADP (4

612 mmol/L), oligomycin (4 μmol/L), FCCP (2 μmol/L), and Rotenone (1 μmol/L). Data

613 were analyzed in seahorse wave software. The ECAR was measured using a Seahorse

614 XFe24 analyzer (Seahorse Bioscience) following the manufacturer's protocol.

615 NRCMs were cultured and treated before assay following a similar protocol as in

616 mitochondrial stress test assay. A glycolysis stress test kit (Agilent, 103020-100) was

617 used to monitor ECAR where baseline measurements were made followed by

618 sequential injection of glucose (10 mmol/L), oligomycin (1 μmol/L), 2-DG (50

619 mmol/L). Data were analyzed in Seahorse wave software.

621 **Hypoxia and reoxygenation assay**

622 NRCMs were cultured for 48h under normoxia before being transferred to a

623 hypoxia incubator with a gas mixture containing 37°C, 5% CO_2 and 0.1% O_2 balanced

624 with nitrogen. After 12 h of hypoxic culture, the cells were reoxygenated in the

625 normal incubator containing 37°C, 5% CO2 for 1 h. Cells were immediately harvested

626 at the indicated time points.

628 **Western blot analysis**

629 Cells and left ventricular tissue were lysed with RIPA lysis buffer (Beyotime, P0013B,

630 Shanghai, China) and protein concentrations were measured using the BCA assay kit

(Beyotime, P0010). The total proteins were separated by sodium dodecyl

sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to nitrocellulose

membranes. After blocking, the membranes were incubated with anti-AARS2 (1:1000,

Abcam, ab197367, Cambridge, UK), anti-B-cell lymphoma-2 (Bcl-2, 1:1000, CST,

3498S), anti-Bcl-2 associated X (BAX, 1:1000, CST, 14796S), anti-PKM2 (1:1000,

CST, 4053S), anti-PKM1 (1:1000, Proteintech, 15821-1-AP), anti-PDK4 (1:1000,

Bioss, bs-0682R) and anti-LDHA (1:1000, Bioss, bs-34202R). After washing with

TBS with Tween-20, Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (H&L)-HRP Conjugated (1:10000,

EASYBIO, BE0101-100) was added, HRP-conjugated GAPDH Monoclonal antibody

(1:10000, Proteintech, HRP-60004), anti-β-actin (1:10000, Proteintech, HRP-60008)

and anti-α-Tubulin (1:10000, Proteintech, HRP-66031) were used as a control for

normalization. Protein signals were detected with Super ECL Detection Reagent

(Yeasen, 36208ES60) in a ChemiDoc™ MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad). Native

proteins were extracted using Column Tissue & Cell Protein Extraction Kit (Epizyme,

PC201 plus) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Co-Immunoprecipitation

For immunoprecipitation, cells with an 85% confluent at 15-cm plate were used

and equilibrated to serum free DMEM for 2 h prior to immunoprecipitation. The total

protein from cell lysate was immunoprecipitated. Firstly, the extract was incubated

with anti-PKM2 for 24 h at 4°C. The protein A/G Agarose (Beyotime, P2012) was

added and further incubated for 3h at 4°C followed by centrifuged at 12,000 g for 5

min. Then recovered the precipitate for washing, resuspended it in 40 μL SDS lysis

buffer and boiled for 5 min, and finally analyzed the precipitate by immunoblotting

with the indicated antibody.

Immunofluorescence cytochemistry

Heart tissues were embedded in OCT compound and sectioned at 6 μm on a

cryostat. After fixation in PFA, sections were permeabilized with 1% Triton X-100

for 10 min and blocked with 1% BSA for 60 min. NRCMs on cell culture plates were

fixed in 4% PFA for 30 min and permeabilized with 1% Triton X-100 for 10 min and

blocked with 1% BSA for 1 h. Then, slices and NRCMs were incubated with rabbit

anti-AARS2 (1:300; Abcam, ab197367), rabbit anti-Ki67 (1:300; CST, 12075S),

rabbit anti-pH3 (1:300; CST, 53348S), rabbit anti-CD31 (1:300; Abcam, ab182981),

mouse Anti-Cardiac Troponin T (cTnT, 1:300; Abcam, ab8295) and mouse

anti-α-SMA (1:300; CST, 48938S) at 4°C overnight. After washing with 1%

PBS-Tween, Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-rabbit and Alexa Fluor 555-conjugated

anti-mouse secondary antibodies (1:500; Abcam, ab150077, ab150118) were added.

Terminal deoxynucleotidyl transferase dUTP nick end labeling (TUNEL) assay was

performed using the TUNEL Apoptosis Detection Kit (Alexa Fluor 488; Beyotime,

C1088) according to the manufacturer's instructions. MitoSOX (Thermo Fisher

Scientific, M36008) staining was applied directly on the NRCMs for 10 min

following the manufacturer's instructions. All the sections were counterstained with 4',

6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, Abcam, ab104139). Fluorescent cells and tissues

were visualized and digital images were captured using Axio Scan Z1 (Carl Zeiss,

Germany).

WGA staining

To determine the cross-section areas of CMs, heart sections were dewaxed in

xylene, rehydrated in an ethanol series, washed in PBS, and then incubated for 1 h

with Wheat Germ Agglutinin, Alexa Fluor 488 Conjugate (5 μg/mL, Invitrogen,

W11261). Added mouse Anti-cTnT (1:300; Abcam, ab8295) at 4°C overnight. Then

added Alexa Fluor 555-conjugated anti-mouse secondary antibodies (1:500; Abcam,

ab150118) for 1 h. The slides were then rinsed in PBS and co-stained with DAPI. To

quantify the size of cells, images at $20 \times$ magnification were analyzed using ImageJ.

LDH release assay

The mice serum and cell lysate were collected and analyzed for LDH release using

an LDH-release kit (Beyotime, C0016) following the manufacturer's instructions.

Quantitative Real-Time PCR

mRNA was isolated from cells or tissues with a Total RNA kit (Tiangen, DP424,

Shanghai, China), and reverse-transcribed with an RT Master Mix kit (Yeasen,

111141ES60, Shanghai, China). Quantitative Real-Time PCR (qRT-PCR) was

performed with the SYBR Premix Ex Taq kit (Yeasen, 11184ES08) on an AB 7500

Fast Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems). β-actin and GAPDH were used as

an internal control. The sequences of primers are summarized in Table S3. The fold

changes in mRNA expression levels were normalized to β-actin and GAPDH using

the $^{\Delta\Delta}$Ct method.

Metabolite Profiling

Frozen mouse heart tissues were homogenized with TissueLyser II by adding the

−20°C-cold high-performance liquid chromatography-grade methanol to the final

concentration of 100 mg/mL. The denatured protein was pelleted by centrifuging the

tube at 14,000 rpm for 20 min at 4°C and the supernatant of individual sample was

transferred into the new tube for metabolite profiling analysis. Before the LC-MS

based analysis, 10 μL of supernatant was diluted with 90 μL of methanol for positive

mode analysis, and 30 μL of supernatant was diluted with 70 μL of

acetonitrile/methanol (3:1) for negative mode analysis, respectively.

10 μL of reconstituted sample was loaded onto either a 150 × 2.1 mm Atlantis

HILIC column (Waters, Milford, MA) for positive mode analysis or 5 μL was loaded

on a 100 × 2.1 mm 3.5 μm XBridge amide column (Waters) for negative mode

analysis using an HTS PAL Autosampler (Leap Technologies, Carrboro, NC) or

Agilent 1290 Infinity Autosampler. The metabolites were separated using an Agilent

1200 Series high-performance liquid chromatography system (Agilent Technologies,

Santa Clara, CA) coupled to a 4000-QTRAP mass spectrometer (AB SCIEX, Foster

City, CA) in positive mode analysis; an Agilent 1290 infinity high-performance liquid

chromatography binary pump system (Agilent Technologies) coupled to a 6490-QQQ

mass spectrometer (Agilent Technologies) in negative mode analysis MultiQuant

software v2.1 (AB SCIEX) and MassHunter quantitative software were used for

automated peak integration, respectively, and metabolite peaks were also assessed

manually for quality of peak integration.

Ribosome Profiling Sequencing

Ribo-Seq of NRCMs was performed by Novogene. Briefly, use RNase I to digest

the unprotected RNA, leaving only the ribosome-protected mRNA fragments, and

sequencing libraries were constructed and carried out on an Illumina Novaseq 6000

SE50. Differential gene expression of control and AARS2^{OE} groups was analyzed

using the DESeq2 R package. DESeq2 provides statistical routines for determining

digital differential gene expression data using a model based on the negative binomial

distribution. We used the cluster Profiler R package to test the statistical enrichment

of differentially expressed genes.

Statistical analysis

Values are reported as mean ± s.e.m. unless indicated otherwise. The 2-tailed

non-parametric Student's T-test was used for 2-group comparisons by Prism 9.0

(GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA) statistical software. In addition, one-way

analysis of variance analysis (ANOVA) was used to evaluate the statistical

significance for multiple-group comparisons. Values of $P<0.05$ were considered

statistically significant.

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Data availability

RNA-Seq data have been deposited at ArrayExpress (E-MTAB-13767).

Disclosures

Author contribution

ZW Zhang designed and performed experiments, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript; LX Zheng, Y Chen, YY Chen and JJ Hou performed the experiments and analyzed the data. CL Xiao and XJ Zhu analyzed the data and managed the project. SM Zhao provided AARS2$^{\text{fl/fl}}$ and AARS2$^{\text{Tg}}$ mouse lines, designed the experiments and analyzed the data. JW Xiong conceived and designed this work, analyzed data, and wrote the manuscript. All the authors approved the final draft for submission.

Competing Interests

The authors have declared no competing interests.

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 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Cardiomyocyte-specific knockout of AARS2 leads to cardiac

dysfunction and fibrosis in mice. (A–B) Western blot and qRT-PCR analysis

showing reduced expression of AARS2 proteins (A) or mRNA (B) of 3-day MI hearts

compared with sham hearts (n = 3). (C) Construction diagram of α-MHC-MerCreMer

(upper) and AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ mice (lower). (D) Western blots showing reduced AARS2

proteins in AARS2^{cKO} hearts compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ hearts (n = 3). (E) Schematic

timelines of tamoxifen treatment and echocardiography (ECHO). (F) Representative

M-mode tracings of ECHO in control and cKO hearts before and after tamoxifen

treatment. (G) Ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS) of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and

AARS2^{cKO} hearts at different time points after tamoxifen induction (n = 10–11). (H)

Cardiac output of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} mice at 28 days after tamoxifen

induction (n = 8–10). (I) Left ventricular end-diastolic diameter (LVEDD) and left

ventricular end-systolic diameter (LVESD) in AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} hearts at 28

days after tamoxifen induction (n = 8–10). (J) Survival percentage of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and

AARS2^{cKO} mice at 28 days after tamoxifen treatment (n = 8–10). (K) WGA

immunofluorescence showing cardiomyocyte hypertrophy on heart slices of

AARS2^{cKO} group compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ group at 28 days after tamoxifen

induction (scale, 100 μm, n = 5). (L) Masson staining and quantitative analysis

showing increased cardiac fibrosis in AARS2^{cKO} hearts compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$

control hearts at 28 days after tamoxifen induction (scale bar, 1 mm; n = 8). Mean ±

s.e.m.

Figure 2. Cardiomyocyte-specific cKO of AARS2 results in cardiomyocyte

apoptosis and energy metabolism deficiency. (A–B) Immunofluorescence staining

showing increased numbers of cTnT$^+$ TUNEL$^+$ cardiomyocytes (A) and Western blot

showing reduced anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2 and increased pro-apoptotic protein

BAX (B) in AARS2^{cKO} hearts compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control hearts at 28 days post

tamoxifen treatment (scale, 200 μm; n = 6 for panel A; n = 3 for panel B). (C)

Seahorse analysis showing reduced oxygen consumption rate (OCR) of cardiac

mitochondria in AARS2^{cKO} hearts compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control hearts at 28 days

after tamoxifen induction (n = 4). (D) Seahorse analysis showing reduced

extracellular acidification rate (ECAR) of adult mouse cardiomyocytes in AARS2^{cKO}

hearts compared with AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ control hearts at 28 days after tamoxifen induction (n

= 4). (E–F) Seahorse analysis showing reduced OCR (E) and ECAR (F) of NRCMs in

AARS2 siRNA group compared with control group at 3 days after transfection (n = 4).

Mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 3. Cardiomyocyte-specific AARS2 overexpression improves cardiac

function and decreases cardiac fibrosis in mice post-MI. (A) Schematic diagram of

α-MHC-MerCreMer, and CAG-AARS2 mice that is driven by the CAG promoter. (B)

Western blots showing transgenic overexpression of AARS2 proteins in the hearts of

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ compared with AARS2^{WT} control mice (n = 3). (C) Experimental

protocols for Tamoxifen induction for 5 days, and then recovery for 7 days before

ECHO and MI. (D) Representative M-mode of ECHO in control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$

mouse hearts at 3 days or 28 days post-MI. (E) EF and FS of the AARS2^{WT} and

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mouse hearts were measured at different time points before and after MI

(n = 10–11). (F) The cardiac output of AARS2^{WT} and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mice was measured

before MI and 28 days after MI (n = 10–11). (G) LVEDD and LVESD of AARS2^{WT}

and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mice before MI and 28 days after MI (n = 10–11). (H) Masson's

staining showing decreased fibrotic area in the hearts of AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ compared with

AARS2^{WT} mice at 28 days after MI (scale bar, 1 mm, n = 10–11). Mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 4. Overexpression of AARS2 attenuates cardiomyocyte apoptosis. (A)

Immunofluorescence staining showing reduced cTnT$^+$/TUNEL$^+$ cardiomyocytes in

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ hearts compared with AARS2^{WT} control hearts at 7 days after MI (scale

bar, 200 μm, n = 6). (B) Western blots showing increased anti-apoptotic protein Bcl-2

and decreased pro-apoptotic protein BAX in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ compared with AARS2^{WT}

control hearts at 7 days after MI (n = 3). (C) The serum level of LDH decreased in

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ hearts compared with AARS2^{WT} control hearts at 28 days after MI (n =

10). (D) Immunofluorescence staining and quantitative analysis showing reduced

MitoSOX in AARS2^{OE} NRCMs after 12 h of hypoxia followed by 1 h of

reoxygenation (H/R, scale bar, 20 μm; n = 4). (E) Western blots showing increased

Bcl-2 and decreased BAX in NRCMs overexpressing AARS2 (AARS2^{OE}) compared

with control NRCMs after 12 h of hypoxia followed by 1 h of reoxygenation (n = 3).

(F) The level of LDH decreased in AARS2^{OE} NRCMs after 12 h of hypoxia followed

by 1 h of reoxygenation (n = 6). Mean ± s.e.m.

Figure 5. Cardiomyocyte overexpression of AARS2 regulates cardiac metabolism.

(A) Mass spectrometry showing increased lactate and pyruvate but reduced

acetyl-CoA in AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ hearts compared with AARS2^{WT} hearts after 7 days of MI

(n = 5). (B) Mass spectrometry showing increased lactate and pyruvate but decreased

acetyl-CoA in NRCMs overexpressing AARS2 (AARS2^{OE}) for 3 days (n = 9). (C)

Seahorse analysis showing OCR of cardiac mitochondria in AARS2^{WT} and

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mice at 28 days after tamoxifen induction (n = 3). (D) Seahorse analysis

showing ECAR and quantitative analysis of adult mouse cardiomyocytes in

AARS2^{WT} and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ mice at 28 days after tamoxifen induction (n = 4). (E–F)

Seahorse analysis showing OCR (E) and ECAR (F) of NRCMs in Mock control and

AARS2^{OE} groups at 3 days after transfection (n = 4). Mean ± s.e.m.

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Figure 6. Overexpression of AARS2 increases the protein level of glycolytic

PKM2 *via* enhancing PKM2 translation. (A) Ribosome RNA-Seq showing elevated

translation of signaling pathways of glycolysis in the AARS2^{OE} NRCMs compared to

the Mock NRCMs. (B) Western Blots showing the level of AARS2, PDK4 and

LDHA proteins in the hearts of AARS2^{WT} control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice (n

= 3). (C) Western Blots showing the level of AARS2 and PKM1 proteins in the hearts

of AARS2^{WT} control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice (n = 3). (D–F) Western Blots

showing the level of AARS2 and PKM2 proteins in the hearts of AARS2^{WT} control

and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice (n = 3) (D), in Mock control and AARS2^{OE} NRCMs

(E) (n = 3), and in the hearts of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} mice (F) (n = 3). (G–H)

Western Blots by non-denatured gels (G) and statistics (H) showing the amounts of

PKM2 monomers, dimers and tetramers in the hearts of AARS2^{WT} control and

AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice, and in the hearts of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} mice (n =

4). (I) Mass spectrometry analysis measuring the amounts of alanine (Ala) from

homogenates of heart tissues (n = 6) and NRCM lysates (n = 6). (J) Ratio of

quantitative results of PKM2 dimers and tetramers in the hearts of AARS2^{WT} control

and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice of panel H (n = 4). (K) Co-immunoprecipitation

reveals no evident interactions between PKM2 and AARS2 in NRCMs. (L–M)

qRT-PCR showing the comparative level of PKM2 mRNA in the hearts of control

sibling and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic hearts; control sibling and AARS2^{cKO} hearts (L);

and in control, AARS2^{OE}, and AARS2^{siRNA} NRCMs (M) (n = 3). FC, Fold changes;

Mean ± s.e.m.

1023

Figure 7. PKM2 activator TEPP-46 improves cardiomyopathy in AARS2 cKO

mice. (A) Experimental scheme and time points for tamoxifen induction, ECHO and

TEPP-46 administration. (B) EF and FS of AARS2^{cKO} mouse hearts at different time

points after administration of control solvent and TEPP-46 (n = 7–8). (C)

Representative M-mode of ECHO in different groups of 4-week mice. (D) Cardiac

outputs of AARS2^{cKO} mouse hearts at different time points after administration of

control solvent and TEPP-46 (n = 7–8). (E) Left ventricular end-diastolic diameter

(LVEDD) and left ventricular end-systolic diameter (LVESD) at 28 days of

AARS2^{cKO} mice after administration of control solvent and TEPP-46 (n = 7–8). (F)

Masson staining showing cardiac fibrosis of AARS2^{cKO} mouse hearts at 28 days after

administration of either control solvent or TEPP-46 (scale bar, 1 mm; n = 7–8). (G)

Measurements of LDH release in NRCMs from the control group and TEPP-46 group

(20 μM) after AARS2 siRNA or control siRNA treatment for 72 h (n = 5). (H)

Quantitative analysis of MitoSOX immunofluorescence in NRCMs from the control

group and TEPP-46 group (20 μM) after AARS2 siRNA or control siRNA treatment

for 72 h (scale bar, 20 μm; n = 5). Mean ± s.e.m.

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1041   **Figure 1–figure supplement 1. Genotyping of cardiomyocyte-specific AARS2**

1042   **knockout mice.** (A) Genotyping of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} mice (n = 3; Mut,

1043   mutant). (B) Western Blot showing normal expression of AARS2 proteins in the liver,

1044   lung, and skeletal muscle of AARS2$^{fl/fl}$ and AARS2^{cKO} mice (n = 3).

1045

1046 **Figure 2–figure supplement 1. Evaluating AARS2 siRNA for knockout efficiency**

1047 **of AARS2 proteins in NRCMs.** (A) Western blots showing knockdown efficiency of

1048 3 different AARS2 siRNAs in NRCMs, respectively (n = 3). (B) Western blots

1049 confirming knockdown efficiency of AARS2 siRNA#3 in NRCMs (n = 3). Ctrl,

1050 control; si, small interfering; mean ± s.e.m.

1051

Figure 3–figure supplement 1. Cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of AARS2

in the heart but not in the liver, lung, and skeletal muscle. (A) Genotyping of wild

type (WT), α-MHC-MerCreMer; AARS2^{WT} (AARS2^{WT}) control, and

α-MHC-MerCreMer; AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ (AARS2$^{Tg/+}$) mice (n = 3). (B) Immunofluorescence

staining showing ectopic AARS2 proteins in cardiomyocytes of AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic

mice compared with AARS2^{WT} control mice (scale bar, 50 μm). (C) Western blots

showing comparable expression of AARS2 proteins in the liver, lung, and skeletal

muscle of AARS2^{WT} control and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ transgenic mice (n = 3). Mean ± s.e.m.

1060

Figure 3–figure supplement 2. Overexpression of AARS2 in cardiomyocytes has

no apparent effect on cardiomyocyte proliferation, hypertrophy, and

angiogenesis after MI. (A–B) At 7 days after MI, immunofluorescence staining

showing comparable cTnT$^+$/Ki67$^+$ (A) and cTnT$^+$/pH3$^+$ (B) cardiomyocytes in the

heart sections of AARS2^{WT} and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ groups (scale, 200 μm; n = 5). (C–D)

Immunofluorescence staining showing comparable numbers of cTnT$^+$/Ki67$^+$ (C) and

cTnT$^+$/pH3$^+$ (D) cardiomyocytes at 48 h after infection of NRCMs with Mock

lentivirus or AARS2 lentivirus (scale, 50 μm; n = 3). (E) At 7 days after MI,

immunofluorescence staining showing comparable CD31$^+$/α-SMA$^+$ coronary vessels

in the heart sections of AARS2^{WT} and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ groups (scale, 200 μm; n = 5). (F)

WGA staining showing no evident cardiomyocyte hypertrophy in heart slices of

AARS2^{WT} and AARS2$^{Tg/+}$ groups at 28 days after MI (scale, 100 μm; n = 6). Mean ±

s.e.m.

1074

Figure 6–figure supplement 1. Overexpression of AARS2 increases the

translation level of some cellular proteins. (A–D) Ribosome RNA-Seq showing

elevated translation of signaling pathways of genes encoded by mitochondria(A),

lipoprotein metabolic process (B), cellular response to hypoxia (C), and sodium ion

transport (D) in the AARS2^{OE} NRCMs compared to the Mock NRCMs. FC, fold

changes.

1081