Deficiency of mitophagy mediator Parkin in aortic smooth muscle cells exacerbates abdominal aortic aneurysm

Hui Wang[1,2,7], Mattew Kazaleh[2], Rachel Gioscia-Ryan[3], Jessica Millar[2], Gerard Temprano-Sagrera[4], Sherri Wood[1], Fran Van Den Bergh[5], Muriel G. Blin[1], Kathleen M. Wragg[1], Adrian Luna[1], Robert B. Hawkins[2,6], Scott A. Soleimanpour[1,5], Maria Sabater-Lleal[4], Chang Shu[7], Daniel A. Beard[5], Gorav Ailawadi[2,6], Jane C. Deng[8,9], Daniel R. Goldstein[6,9], and Morgan Salmon[2,6,10]

[1] Department of Internal Medicine, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[2] Department of Cardiac Surgery, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[3] Department of Anesthesiology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[4] Unit of genomics of Complex Diseases, Institut de Recerca Sant Pau (IR SANT PAU), Sant Quintí 77-79, 17 08041 Barcelona, Spain

[5] Department of Molecular and Integrative Physiology, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[6] Frankel Cardiovascular Center, University of Michigan School of Medicine, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[7] Department of Vascular Surgery, The Second Xiangya Hospital, Central South University, Changsha, China.

[8] Pulmonary Division, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[9] Veterans Affairs Ann Arbor, Ann Arbor, Michigan, USA.

[10] Corresponding author: Morgan Salmon, msalmon@med.umich.edu

2800 Plymouth Road, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109 USA.

24   Word count**:** 12091

25   Running Title: Parkin SMCKO exacerbates AAAs

Abbreviations: AAAs, abdominal aortic aneurysms; AngII, angiotensin II; mtDAMPs, mitochondrial damage – associated molecular patterns; EVAR, endovascular aneurysm repair surgery; VSMCs, vascular smooth muscle cells; mtDNA, mitochondrial DNA; HFD, high-fat diet; DMSO, dimethylsulfoxide; IP, intraperitoneal; MFI, mean fluorescence intensity; PKO, Parkin knock-out; TPM, transcripts per million; BP, biological process; CC, cellular component; MF, molecular function; DEG, differentially expressed genes; Parkin SMCKO, Parkin knock-out in smooth muscle cells; RBC, red blood cells; WT, wild-type; USP30i, USP30 inhibitor; shRNA, short hairpin RNA; SEM, standard error of the mean.

Abstract

Abdominal aortic aneurysms (AAAs) are a degenerative aortic disease and associated with

hallmarks of aging, such as mitophagy. Despite this, the exact associations among mitophagy,

aging, and AAA progression remain unknown. In our study, gene expression analysis of human

AAA tissue revealed downregulation of mitophagy pathways, mitochondrial structure, and

function-related proteins. Human proteomic analyses identified decreased levels of mitophagy

mediators PINK1 and Parkin. Aged mice and, separately, a murine AAA model showed reduced

mitophagy in aortic vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) and PINK1 and Parkin expression.

Parkin knockdown in VSMCs aggravated AAA dilation in murine models, with elevated

mitochondrial ROS and impaired mitochondrial function. Importantly, inhibiting USP30, an

antagonist of the PINK1/Parkin pathway, increased mitophagy in VSMCs, improved

mitochondrial function, and reduced AAA incidence and growth. Our study elucidates a critical

mechanism that proposes AAAs as an age-associated disease with altered mitophagy, introducing

new potential therapeutic approaches.

1. Introduction

An abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA) is defined as a local enlargement of the infrarenal aorta, with a global prevalence of 0.92% in individuals aged 30-79, which then escalates to 1.2%-3.3% in individuals over 60 years old [1, 2]. AAAs are currently understood to be an irreversible and progressive aortic dilation with the potential to rupture, which carries a mortality rate over 81%[3]. Other risk factors for AAAs include smoking, genetics, and sex. Men are at four times the risk of developing AAA compared to women, while women experience faster aneurysm growth and have a fourfold higher risk of rupture[1]. Currently, effective clinical management relies on open surgical repair or less invasive endovascular aneurysm repair (EVAR)[4]. Clinical trials investigating the potential of statins, antihypertensives, doxycycline, and anti-inflammatory medications as alternatives or adjuncts to surgical or endovascular treatment have yet to yield definitive efficacy[5-9]. Therefore, studies exploring the pathogenesis of AAAs, identifying potential new pharmacologic targets, are crucial for advancing current clinical management.

Vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) constitute the predominant cellular population within the aortic wall, playing a pivotal role in the pathogenesis of AAAs. Their contribution to AAA development is characterized by a loss of contractile phenotype, increased apoptosis, immune cell recruitment, extracellular matrix remodeling, and enhanced oxidative stress[10]. Additionally, these adverse alterations are more pronounced in aged VSMCs and could describe potential mechanisms for the increased susceptibility of elderly populations to AAAs[11, 12]. However, definitive studies investigating the causal role of aging in AAA progression currently remain unexplored and largely unknown.

Emerging evidence indicates that mitochondrial dysfunction and aberrant mitochondrial dynamics are associated with the pathogenesis of AAA. For example, damaged mitochondria

release double-stranded mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) into the cytosol, stimulating the

downstream cGAS-STING, a critical innate immune pathway, promoting AAA development[13].

Separate studies demonstrated that mitochondrial fission, regulated by DRP1, is significantly

increased in AAA tissues, and inhibition of DRP1 mitigates AAA progression[14]. Finally,

decreased mitochondrial biogenesis, regulated by PGC1-α, has been identified in human and

mouse aneurysm tissues when compared to health vascular tissue[15]. These studies suggest that

the processes that regulate mitochondrial turnover and dynamics may be important in AAA

progression. As a part of mitochondrial dynamics, mitophagy, a macro-autophagy that selectively

degrades damaged mitochondria, is essential for mitochondrial quality control and hemostasis[16].

Recent evidence suggests that mitophagy mitigates inflammation triggered by the activation of the

cGAS-STING pathway by mtDNA[17]. Given that reduced mitophagy is a hallmark of aging, and

considering AAA's prevalence in older populations, investigating mitophagy's impact on AAA

progression could represent a promising avenue for further understanding mechanisms of AAA

formation or rupture[18, 19].

Previous studies, especially in Parkinson's disease, have investigated the ubiquitin-

mediated mitophagy pathway facilitated by mitochondrial kinase PINK1 and cytosolic E3

ubiquitin ligase Parkin [20, 21]. In detail, PINK1 accumulates on the outer mitochondrial

membrane in damaged mitochondria with reduced membrane potential, where it recruits and

phosphorylates Parkin. Activated Parkin ubiquitinates various mitochondrial membrane proteins,

which are then recognized by autophagy receptors. These receptors facilitate the recruitment of

LC3-decorated phagophores, leading to the encapsulation of the damaged mitochondria and

subsequent fusion with lysosomes for degradation [22]. Mutations in *PINK1* or *PARK2* genes are

associate with defective mitochondrial dysfunction and numerous studies suggest that targeting

the PINK1/Parkin pathway could be effective in preventing and treating cardiovascular diseases

[23, 24]. However, its role in the pathogenesis of AAAs has never been explored. USP30 is a

deubiquitinase localized to the mitochondrial outer membrane which antagonizes PINK1/Parkin

mediated mitophagy [25]. Inhibition of USP30 has been shown to enhance PINK1/Parkin-

mediated mitophagy [26]. Given the availability of a USP30 inhibitor, VB-08, exploring the role

of PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy in the development of AAAs holds promise for identifying

potential pharmacological targets.

In this study, we tested our hypothesis that Parkin-mediated mitophagy is a critical factor

in the pathogenesis of AAAs. Our results demonstrate that genes related to the mitophagy pathway,

as well as genes involved in mitochondrial structure and function, were downregulated in human

AAA samples, coinciding with decreased protein expression of PINK1 and Parkin. Additionally,

we observed reduced mitophagy in VSMCs in advanced-aged murine aortas and in young murine

AAAs, both associated with decreased PINK1 and Parkin expression. Furthermore, Parkin

knockout in VSMCs resulted in more severe AAA rupture and increased aortic diameter, whereas

administration of a USP30 inhibitor, VB-08, reduced AAA incidence and diameter. Our findings

suggest that PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy represents a potential novel therapeutic target for

AAA treatment.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Ethics statement

Mice were housed and maintained at 70°F, 50% humidity, in 12-hour light-dark cycles per

institutional animal protocols. Animal care and use were in accordance with the Guide for the Care

and Use of Laboratory Animals. The animal protocol was approved by the University of Michigan

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (PRO00010704) in compliance with the Office of

Laboratory Animal Welfare. The authors declare that all supporting data are available within the

article and its online supplementary files but can provide additional information upon request to

corresponding author.

2.2 Mice.

WT young (8-12 weeks) and aged (18-20 months) male C57BL/6J mice were obtained from The

Jackson Laboratory (stock #000664). mito-QC mice, mitophagy reporter mice on the C57BL/6J

background were generously provided by Dr. Ian Ganley and originally generated by Taconic

Artemis[27]. These mice were bred and aged to the indicated age under specific pathogen free

conditions in the animal facility at the University of Michigan. C57BL/6J Parkinfl/fl mice were a

gift from the lab of Dr. Scott Soleimanpour, originally generated by Dr. Ted Dawson and Lexicon

Genetics, with loxP sites flanking exon 7 of the Prkn allele [28]. C57BL/6J *Parkin^{fl/fl}* mice were

bred to *Myh11-cre/ER^{T2}* (stock #019079, C57BL/6 background), which were purchased from The

Jacson Laboratory. 6-10 weeks *Parkin^{fl/fl} Myh11-cre/ER^{T2}* mice received five daily intraperitoneal

injections (i.p.) of either tamoxifen, to induce gene deletion, or vehicle (corn oil) and then rested

for nine days. The outcomes of *Parkin^{fl/fl} Myh11-cre/ER^{T2}* mice were evaluated alongside their

vehicle-treated litter-mate controls. We used male mice to for conduct the research, as a significant

body of studies has focused on males in AAA. This choice is supported by two key reasons. First,

like humans, male mice exhibit a four-fold higher prevalence of AAA when infused with

Angiotensin II compared to females [29], offering consistent and reproducible results with an

optimal sample size. Second, the widely used *Myh11-cre/ER^{T2}* is carried on the Y chromosome and

effective for gene deletion only in male mice [30]. All the mice were maintained on a 12-h light-

dark cycle and had unrestricted access to food and water.

2.3 Angiotensin II infusion AAA model.

We employed an abdominal aortic aneurysm model combined with a PCSK9 gain-of-function

mutation with Angiotensin II infusion [31-34]. The PCSK9 gain of function mutation is induced

using a single intraperitoneal injection of recombinant adeno-associated virus 8-D377Y-murine

PCSK9 (PCSK9-AAV) at a dose of 5.0×10^9 vector genomes per gram body weight purchased from

the University of Pennsylvania Vector core. The mice were then fed ad libitum a high-fat diet (42%

calories from fat, HFD, Teklad, catalog #88137) for 6 weeks. Starting on the third week, mice

received subcutaneous infusion of Angiotensin II (Sigma, catalog #A9525) or saline at a rate of

1000 ng/kg/min using mini osmotic pumps (Alzet, model #1004) for the subsequent four weeks

[35].

2.4 Elastase application AAA model.

As a secondary model for AAA, periadventitial elastase was applied following established

methods[36, 37]. Male *Parkinfl/fl Myh11-cre/ER^{T2}* mice received a series of injections of either

corn oil (control, n=10/group) or tamoxifen (n=11/group) at 6-8 weeks of age. One month

following injection, the mice underwent a midline laparotomy to expose the infra-renal aorta,

which was then treated with full-strength elastase (Sigma, catalog #E1250). Each surgeon

determined the optimal elastase dose and duration through a pre-experimental dose-response curve,

reliably producing a 110% increase in aortic diameter in control mice. Fourteen days post-

operatively, the infra-renal abdominal aortas were harvested from both groups. During the harvest,

the abdominal aorta was exposed similarly, and maximal aortic diameters were measured using

video micrometry. To calculate the percentage of diameter dilation, a specific section of the aorta

not exposed to elastase served as an internal control.

2.5 USP30 inhibitor studies.

For C57/B6 male mice (n=25/group) receiving either VB-08 (25 mg/kg, i.p., daily, Vincerebio.com)

or a vehicle (confidential, i.p., daily, Vincerebio.com). Treatment began nine days after the

initiation of PCSK9 AAV and a HFD, and five days before the implantation of an Angiotensin II

pump. The treatment continued for the following 5 days and 4 weeks during the induction of

abdominal aortic aneurysm (AAA), or until the mice succumbed to aneurysm rupture within this

period. Mice were harvested, and anatomical pictures were taken. Tissues were processed

according to experimental purposes.

2.6 Cholesterol and blood pressure measurements.

Serum cholesterol levels in fasting mice were determined using a colorimetric assay (Cell Biolabs,

catalog #STA-384). Blood pressure in mice was obtained using the CODA® non-invasive blood

pressure system (Kent Scientific Corporation) via the tail-cuff method.

2.7 Aortic aneurysm assessments (rupture and diameters).

Following the implantation of the Angiotensin II pump, autopsies were conducted on mice that

were found deceased. Deaths due to aortic aneurysm rupture were noted for inclusion in survival

curve analysis. Four weeks post-implantation, mice were euthanized with CO_2 and a thoracotomy

was performed. Blood was collected from the right ventricle, and the mice were perfused with cold

PBS through the left ventricle after opening the right atrium. The abdominal cavity was then

opened, and visceral organs were removed. The fat tissue and connections around the entire aorta

and adjacent heart were isolated under a dissecting microscope. Aortas with aneurysms were

identified under the microscope, and the corresponding mice were documented. The entire murine

aorta and adjacent heart were isolated and pinned to the wax-coated base of a Petri dish alongside

a ruler for scale. Photographs were taken, and the absolute value of maximal diameters of the aortic

aneurysms were measured using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, USA).

2.8 Isolation and culture of primary aortic VSMCS.

Vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) were extracted from the abdominal aortas of 5-week-old

male mito-QC mice using an enzymatic digestion method. Following euthanasia, the aorta was

dissected under sterile conditions. The fatty and adventitial layers were removed through an 8–10-

minute digestion with an enzyme cocktail consisting of 1 mg/ml collagenase type II (Worthington

Biochemical Corp, catalog #LS004176), 1 mg/ml soybean trypsin inhibitor (Worthington

Biochemical Corp, catalog #LS003570), and 0.744 units/ml elastase (Worthington Biochemical

Corp, catalog #LS002279), all at 37°C in a 5% CO_2 atmosphere. The aortas were then

longitudinally sliced open and rinsed three times to remove the endothelial cell layer. These aortas

were then segmented into 1-2 mm pieces and incubated in a fresh enzyme cocktail at 37°C in 5%

CO_2 for one hour. Post centrifugation, the resulting pellet was resuspended and cultured in VSMC

media composed of 10% FBS (Gibco, catalog #16000044), 100 unit/ml penicillin and 100ug/ml

streptomycin (Gibco, catalog #15140122) in DMEM/F12(Gibco, catalog #11320033). The media

was refreshed every 2-3 days, and cells were passaged upon reaching approximately 80%

confluence. Cells were utilized up to the eighth passage.

2.9 Cell culture, pharmacological intervention and Lentiviral shRNA transduction.

MOVAS (ATCC, catalog #CRL-2797) were cultured in DMEM/F12 (Gibco, catalog #11320033)

supplemented with 10% FBS (Gibco, catalog #16000044), 100 unit/ml penicillin and 100ug/ml

streptomycin (Gibco, catalog #15140122) at 37°C in 5% CO2. Cells were passaged at 80%

confluence. MOVAS and VSMCs were starved in DMEM/F12 containing 0.2% FBS for 48 hours

and then received 100nM, 500nM or 1000nM Angiotensin II (Sigma, catalog #A9525) for an

additional 48 hours. The USP30 inhibitor was administered at concentrations of 100nM, 200nM,

500nM or 1000nM, either concurrently with or 24 hours prior to the Angiotensin II treatment.

Particularly, to assess mitophagy level changes in MOVAS cells, Mtphagy dye (Dojindo, catalog

MT02-10) was incubated for 30 minutes prior to any pharmacological intervention, in

accordance with the manufacturer's protocol.

Lentiviral shRNA targeting Parkin (Santa Cruz, catalog #sc-42159-V) and control shRNA particles

(Santa Cruz, catalog #sc-108080) were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Transduction

and selection of transduced cells were performed according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly,

MOVAS cells were seeded in 12-well plates and cultured to 70-80% confluence. Cells were then

transduced with Parkin shRNA or control lentiviral particles at a multiplicity of infection (MOI)

of 0.25, 0.5, or 1, in the presence of 5 µg/mL polybrene (Santa Cruz, catalog #sc-134220).

Following overnight incubation, the medium was replaced with fresh complete media, and cells

were incubated for an additional 24 hours. To select stably transduced cells, the cultures were split

and maintained in complete medium supplemented with 2 µg/mL puromycin (Santa Cruz, catalog

#sc-108071) for 7 days, with medium changes every 2-3 days. Surviving cells were then expanded

for further experimentation. Knockdown efficiency was confirmed by Western blot analysis.

2.10 MitoSOX Red, MitoTracker, and TMRM staining in cells.

After Angiotensin II treatment, cells were detached using 0.05% Trypsin-EDTA (Gibco, 25300054)

and collected. LIVE/DEAD™ Aqua (Thermo Scientific, catalog #L34957) staining was performed

for 5 minutes. Subsequently, cells were incubated with 5μM MitoSOX Red (Thermo Scientific,

catalog #M36008) or 25nM MitoTracker Deep Red (Thermo Scientific, catalog #M22426) along

with 100nM TMRM (Thermo Scientific, catalog #I34361) in a dark environment at 37°C.

Following incubation, cells were washed, and flow cytometry acquisition using a ZE5 Cell

Analyzer was conducted immediately.

2.11 Flow cytometry.

For the cellular samples requiring staining with MitoSOX Red, MitoTracker or TMRM, cells were

processed and stained according to method *2.10*. Subsequently, flow cytometric analysis was then

conducted using a ZE5 Cell Analyzer (Bio-Rad). For the murine aortic samples processing, aortas

were isolated following PBS perfusion and then slightly sectioned longitudinally into strips. These

tissue strips were then enzymatically digested into single-cell suspensions using a cocktail

containing 3.2mg/ml collagenase Type II (Worthington Biochemical Corp, catalog #LS004176),

0.7mg/ml elastase (Worthington Biochemical Corp, catalog #LS002279), 0.2mg/ml soybean

trypsin inhibitor (Worthington Biochemical Corp, catalog #LS003570) in RPMI 1640(Gibco,

catalog #11875093) at 37°C. The digestion took 30 minutes and was facilitated by intermittent

pipetting. The resulting cell suspension was filtered through a 70μm mesh. Red blood cells were

lysed using a 2-minute incubation with RBC lysis buffer (BioLegend, catalog #420302) and the

cells were then washed. For staining, cells were first labeled with LIVE/DEAD™ Aqua for

viability assessment for 5 minutes, followed by a 5-minute incubation with Fc blocking reagent,

anti-mouse CD16/32 (BioLegend, catalog #101320). A cocktail of surface antibodies was then

applied for 30 minutes, including Brilliant Violet 785™ CD31 antibody (BioLegend, catalog

#102435), APC CD90.2 (Thy-1.2) antibody (BioLegend, catalog #140312) and Alexa Fluor® 700

CD45 antibody (BioLegend, catalog #103128). After surface staining, cells were fixed,

permeabilized using BD Cytofix/Cytoperm™ (BD Biosciences, catalog #555028), and stained

with intracellular antibody for α-actin (Invitrogen, catalog #14-9760-82) and subsequent

secondary antibody (BioLegend, catalog #405317) for 30 minutes each. Flow cytometric data

acquisition was again performed on a ZE5 Cell Analyzer (Bio-Rad). All the data analysis was

conducted by FowJo™ Software_v10.9.0 (Ashland, 2023).

2.12 Western blotting of MOVAS and aortic tissues.

Cellular and aortic tissue proteins were extracted using RIPA buffer (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog

#R0278) supplemented with 1% protease inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #P8340) and

phosphatase inhibitor (Sigma-Aldrich, catalog #P5726). Protein concentration was determined by

the BCA protein assay per manufacturer's protocol (Thermo Scientific, catalog #23225). Equal

amounts of protein (20-25mg) were separated onto a 10% Nupage SDS-PAGE gels (Thermo

Scientific, catalog #NP0315BOX, NP0303BOX) and then transferred to PVDF membranes

(Thermo Scientific, catalog #IB24001) through semi-dry method. Membranes were blocked in 5%

BSA (Gemini Bio-Products, catalog #700-100P) in 0.1% TBST for 1 hour at room temperature,

then incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C on a shaker. After washing, the

membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (abcam, catalog

#ab205718, ab205719) for 1 hour at room temperature. Bands were visualized using enhanced

chemiluminescence (Thermo Scientific, catalog #34580, 34094) and captured with ChemiDoc MP

imaging system (Bio-Rad). Band intensity was quantified with ImageJ software and normalized to

Vinculin, β-tubulin or GAPDH. All the antibodies used here are listed in supplementary table 1.

2.13 Frozen section and mitophagy measurement of GFP and mCherry fluorescence.

Aortic segments were harvested and immersed in 3.7% paraformaldehyde within 200 mM HEPES

buffer for overnight fixation. Subsequently, the fixed tissues were cryo-preserved in OCT

compound (Sakura, catalog #4583) and sectioned into 6 μm slices using a Leica Cryostat (model

CM1850-3-1). The sections were then placed on slides and sealed with Prolong Diamond mounting

media (Thermo Scientific, catalog #P36961). Imaging was conducted with a Nikon A1si confocal

microscope, utilizing a 100x magnification objective lens across both GFP and mCherry channels.

Quantitative analysis of mCherry puncta was performed using ImageJ software.

2.14 qPCR analysis.

RNA extraction from aortic tissue was conducted using the TRIzol-ethanol method. The

concentration of extracted RNA was determined using a NanoDrop spectrophotometer.

Subsequently, 1 μg of RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using the iScript cDNA Synthesis

Kit (Bio-Rad, catalog #1708891). TaqMan primers, obtained from Thermo Fisher Scientific, were

employed for qPCR, which was performed according to the TaqMan Advanced Master Mix Kit

protocol (Applied Biosystems, catalog #4444557) on a QuantStudio 3.0 Real-Time PCR System.

Gene expression levels were quantified based on the fold change in Ct values. The details of the

primers used are listed in supplementary table 1.

2.15 Immunohistochemistry and immunofluorescence.

Aortic segments were harvested and immersed in a 4% paraformaldehyde buffer for overnight

fixation. Subsequently, the fixed tissues were dehydrated, cleared, embedded, sectioned, and

mounted on positive-charged slides. For the staining, tissue sections were deparaffinized and

hydrated. Endogenous peroxidase activity was quenched by hydrogen peroxide in methanol for 30

minutes. Antigen retrieval was performed using citrate buffer (pH 6.0, Vector, catalog #H-3300-

250) in a microwave for 20 minutes, followed by blocking non-specific binding with 10% horse

serum at room temperature. Supplementary table 2 lists all the antibodies used in the subsequent

steps. For immunohistochemistry, primary antibody was applied to the sections and incubated

overnight at 4°C. After washing by PBS, secondary antibody was applied to the sections and

incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. The signal was detected using DAB for 5-10 minutes.

Then the sections were counterstained by hematoxylin, dehydrated, cleared, and mounted with

Permount™ mounting media (Fisher Scientific, catalog #SP15-100). Images were captured and

quantification of staining intensity was performed using ImageJ software. For

immunofluorescence, primary antibodies conjugated with distinct fluorophores were applied to the

sections and incubated overnight at 4°C. After washing by PBS, sections were stained by DAPI.

These sections were then placed on slides and sealed with Prolong Diamond mounting media

(Thermo Scientific, catalog #P36961). Imaging was conducted with a Nikon A1si confocal

microscope, utilizing a 60x magnification objective lens across channels of DAPI, Alexa Fluor

488, 555 and 647.

2.16 MitoSox Red staining for tissue.

Aortic segments were excised and immediately snap-frozen in OCT compound (Sakura, catalog #4583). The blocks were sectioned to a thickness of 6 µm and mounted onto slides. Sections were rinsed with HBSS, followed by incubation in 5 µM MitoSox Red (Thermo Scientific, catalog #M36008) for 1 hour at 37°C. After a subsequent wash with HBSS, slides were promptly imaged using a Nikon A1si confocal microscope with a 100x magnification objective lens.

2.17 Oxygraph analysis of murine aortas.

Aortas were isolated and maintained in BIOPS buffer on ice, followed by permeabilization with 50 µg/ml saponin for 25 minutes, and subsequently rinsed in MiR05 for 10 minutes [38]. The wet weights of the aortas were then blotted, measured, and documented. High-resolution measurements of oxygen consumption in permeabilized aortic tissue were performed in 2 ml of MiR05 buffer using the Oroboros Oxygraph-2k (O2k; Oroboros Instruments, Innsbruck, AT). The oxygen consumption rate was determined from plateau values on the oxygraphy chart and expressed as pmol s^{-1} per mg of wet weight. All measurements of respiration were carried out at 37 °C within an oxygen concentration working range of approximately 190-50 µM. As published previously by our lab [39], the respiration process was assessed through sequential titrations of substrates and inhibitors: 11.25 mM ADP (CalBiochem, catalog #117105), 0.5 mM malate (Sigma, catalog #M1000), 5 mM pyruvate (Sigma, catalog #P2256), 10 mM glutamate (Sigma, catalog #G1626), 10 mM succinate (Sigma, catalog #S2378, mentioned twice and may need correction), 0.5 µM CCCP (Sigma, catalog #C2759), 0.5 µM rotenone (Sigma, catalog #R8875), and 2.5 µM antimycin-A (Sigma, catalog #A8674).

2.18 Mitochondrial DNA copy numbers.

Relative mtDNA copy numbers by qPCR with SYBR-based detection (Thermo scientific, catalog

#A46109) was conducted following DNA isolation with the Blood/Tissue DNeasy kit (Qiagen,

catalog #69504) according to manufacturer's protocols. Primer sequences: mt9/mt11 (5′-

GAGCATCTTATCCACGCTTCC-3′ and 5′- GGTGGTACTCCCGCTGTAAA-3′) for mtDNA

and Ndufv1 (5′- CTTCCCCACTGGCCTCAAG-3′ and 5′- CCAAAACCCAGTGATCCAGC-3′)

for nuclear DNA. The fold changes in mt9/mt11 expression were normalized to the Ndufv1 gene

[40].

2.19 Metabolomics experiments and analysis.

Targeted metabolomics analyses were performed as reported by Seals Laboratory and carried out

by the University of Colorado Metabolomics Core Facility[41], plasma (20 µL) were extracted in

1 mL of ice-cold lysis/extraction buffer (methanol:acetonitrile:water 5:3:2). After discarding

protein pellets, water and methanol soluble fractions were injected into a C18 reversed phase

column (phase A: water, 0.1% formic acid; B: acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid - Phenomenex)

through an ultra-high performance chromatographic system (UHPLC, Ultimate 3000; Thermo

Fisher). UHPLC was coupled online with a high-resolution quadrupole Orbitrap instrument run in

either polarity modes (QExactive, Thermo Fisher) at 70,000 resolution (at 200 *m/z*). Maven

software (Princeton), KEGG pathway database, and an in-house validated standard library (>650

compounds; Sigma Aldrich; IROATech) were used for metabolite assignment and peak integration

for relative quantitation. Integrated peak areas were exported into Excel (Microsoft) and elaborated

for statistical analysis (*t* test, ANOVA) and hierarchical clustering analysis through the software

GraphPad Prism (GraphPad Software) and GENE E (Broad Institute). Top up- and down-regulated

metabolic   pathways   were   determined   through   MetaboAnalyst   3.0

(www.metaboanalyst.ca/MetaboAnalyst/).

2.20 Analysis of Bulk RNA Sequence data.

For our team's dataset, the expression values used in these plots correspond to the residuals

obtained from a linear regression with gene expression that included all covariates except the

disease variable (AAA/control). Gene quantifications were expressed as transcripts per million

(TPM), normalized via quantile normalization. Prior to differential expression analysis, genes with

low expression levels, defined as TPM values below 0.5 in more than 50% of the samples, were

excluded. To identify differentially expressed genes between AAA and controls, a linear regression

model was employed, incorporating a number of covariates, including age, sex, flow cell type,

flow cell lane, mean GC content, RIN, percentage of RNA fragments > 200 and Qubit. The p-

values obtained from the regression were corrected using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure, and

a gene was considered to be differentially expressed if the adjusted p-value was less than 0.05.

Samples were clustered into a heatmap by mitophagy-related genes, including "ATG7",

"MAP1LC3B", "AMBRA1", "OPTN", "USP30", "BNIP3", "BNIP3L", "PHB2", "PINK1",

"FUNDC1", "ATG5", "BECN1", "PARK2", "PPARGC1A".

We also analyzed one published AAA dataset, Erik et al. (GEO accession number, GSE 57691),

with 20 small and 49 large human AAA samples and 10 donor samples in this cohort. The

normalization was applied using limma package. Principal Component Analysis was performed to

facilitate clustering of the samples. Outliers were identified and removed. The data matrices were

annotated using attached gene symbols. Matrix file was obtained for analyzing Differentially

Expressed Genes (DEGs), with |log2FC| > 0.8 and an adjusted p-value < 0.05. Genes were

matched with human genes in org.Hs.eg.db. Then GO and KEGG enrichment analysis were

conducted. Dot plot and gene-concept network plot were plotted. Finally, samples were clustered

into a heatmap by available mitophagy-related genes, including "ATG7", "MAP1LC3B", "OPTN",

"USP30", "BNIP3", "BNIP3L", "PHB2", "FUNDC1", "ATG5", "BECN1", "PPARGC1A".

2.21 Statistics.

All results are presented as mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). Normality was determined

using Shapiro-Wilk test. Nonparametric tests were used for data that were not normally distributed.

Data with one independent variable were analyzed using Student's t test or Mann-Whitney U-test.

When more independent variables were analyzed, one-way ANOVA or 2-way ANOVA with

multiple comparisons were used. Specific statistical tests and *P values* are denoted in figure

legends. Two-sided *P values* were used and values <0.05 were considered significant. GraphPad

Prism 10.0.0 (GraphPad Software) was used to generate figures and for statistics.

3. Results

mito-QC aged mouse aortas demonstrate decreased mitophagy in VSMCs and endothelial cells

and a reduction of PINK1/Parkin expression.

Previous studies have demonstrated decreased mitophagy in aged brain and heart tissue, as

well as reduced Parkin levels in aged aortas [42-44]. Despite this, changes in mitophagy levels

within aged aortic tissue and AAAs have not been explored. We utilized flow cytometry to analyze

digested aortas from young (8-10 weeks) and aged (18-20 months) male mito-QC mice using a

previously published staining strategy [45] (Fig. 1A, Supplementary Fig. S1A). As gating strategy

showed, endothelial cells were identified as CD45$^-$CD31$^+$ cells, general CD45$^+$ cells were

identified as CD31$^-$CD45$^+$ cells, and VSMCs as CD45$^-$CD31$^-$CD90$^-$α-actin$^+$ cells (Supplementary

Fig. S1A). Plots comparing GFP and mCherry fluorescence across three cellular populations

revealed a decrease in GFP levels in CD45$^+$ cells from aged aortas and in VSMCs from young

aortas. (Fig. 1B). Mitophagy levels were quantified by the mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of

mCherry versus GFP for each group as reported previously by our lab [46]. In endothelial cells,

aged mice exhibited a significant decrease in mitophagy of approximately 5%, in both thoracic

and abdominal aortic segments compared to young mice (Fig. 1C). Conversely, the CD31$^-$CD45$^+$

cellular population showed a significant increase in mitophagy levels in aged mice (Fig. 1C).

Finally, there was a notable decrease in mitophagy levels of approximately 10%, in the VSMCs of

the thoracic and abdominal aged aortic segments (Fig. 1C).

Western blot analyses of mitophagy-related pathways in the aged aortas demonstrated

significant decreases in PINK1 and Parkin expression, whereas changes in Nix and PHB2 were

not significant (Fig. 1D, E). Additional mitophagy biogenesis markers, including PGC1α and Paris,

and autophagy-related markers LC3II and MTOR, also showed significant reduction via Western

blot (Fig. 1D, E). However, the mitochondrial fission marker DRP1 and mitochondrial complexes

remained unchanged between young and aged aortas (Fig. D, E, Supplementary Fig. S1B, C). On

the other hand, VDAC1, an internal control for mitochondrial complexes, demonstrated a

significant decrease in the aged aorta. The specificity of Parkin was further validated in brain and

aortic tissues of WT versus Parkin knockout mice (Supplementary Fig. S1D).

Reduction of Mitophagy in VSMCs in Angiotensin II induced AAAs

We next sought to determine whether AAA induction alters mitophagy using mito-QC male

mice in three groups: male mice on a chow diet with saline pump, male mice on HFD with saline

pump, and male mice on HFD with AngII infusion at 1000 ng/kg/min. In the HFD/AngII AAA

model, serum cholesterol levels gradually increased over a 4-week HFD period (Supplementary

Fig. S2A). Mice were harvested 28 days posted AngII infusion, cells were stained as previously

mentioned, and flow cytometry was conducted as in Figure 1 (Fig. 2A). The gating strategy was

consistent with Figure 1 and adjusted for VSMCs which were categorized into $CD45^-CD31^-CD90^-$

α-actin^{high} and $CD45^-CD31^-CD90^-\alpha$-actin^{low} groups, due to altered expression of α-actin in the

AAA (Supplementary Fig. S2B-C) [45]. α-actin^{high} and α-actin^{low} VSMCs from the HFD plus

AngII group exhibited significantly reduced mitophagy levels compared to the HFD plus saline

group (Fig. 2B, C), whereas endothelial cells and $CD31^-CD45^+$ immune cells showed no

significant changes (Fig. 2B). In separate studies, mice on an AngII pump without HFD also

displayed markedly lower mitophagy in VSMCs compared to Saline pump without HFD

(Supplementary Fig. S2D). Additionally, analysis of frozen aortic sections revealed fewer mCherry

puncta and reduced colocalization of LAMP-1, a lysosomal marker, and TOMM20, a

mitochondrial marker, in the HFD plus AngII group compared to those on HFD plus saline (Fig.

2D, E and F).

The previous studies demonstrated decreased mitophagy levels in the VSMCs in AAAs

following AngII infusion; therefore, we sought to investigate the potential involvement of the

PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy pathway in AAAs. qPCR analysis demonstrated Parkin

(*Park2*), and α-actin (*ACTA2*) were significantly downregulated in AAA specimens, while *PINK1*,

MYH11, and other autophagy markers demonstrated no significant changes (Fig. 3A). Western blot

analysis noted Parkin and PINK1 were substantially reduced within murine AAAs, whereas PHB2

increased significantly, and Nix remained largely unchanged following HFD and AngII treatment

(Fig. 3B, C). Additional Mitochondrial biogenesis and autophagy markers analyzed noted with a

reduction in PGC1α, increases in STING, TBK1 and LC3II, alongside a decrease in α-actin in

murine AAAs (Fig 3B, C). The downregulation of Parkin and α-actin was further corroborated by

IHC staining, with markedly diminished signals in the aortic medial layer (Figure 3D, E and

Supplementary Fig. S2C). Furthermore, Western blot analysis confirmed a reduction in SDHB, a

complex II protein, in HFD plus Ang II infusion along with a decreasing trend observed for ATP5A

in complex V and NDUFB8 in complex I (Fig. 3F, G).

Human AAA samples exhibit decreased expression of mitophagy mediator Parkin and PINK1 in

gene and protein level.

The expression of mitophagy-related genes was analyzed in our bulk RNA-seq dataset,

which included 44 control samples and 96 AAA samples (Fig. 4A). PINK1 exhibited a significant

decrease in the AAA group and PARK2 showed a decreasing trend. Similarly, USP30, an

antagonist of the PINK1/Parkin mitophagy pathway, also exhibited a decreasing trend. Mediators

of other mitophagy pathways, such as BNIP3 and BNIP3L, were downregulated, but PHB2

expression remained unchanged. For generic autophagy mediators, MAP1LC3B and ATG7 were

upregulated, whereas ATG5 showed no significant change. Regulators of the mitophagy pathway,

including AMBRA1, BECN1, FUNDC1, and OPTN, were decreased in the AAA group. The

mitochondrial pathogenesis-related gene, PPARGC1A, showed no change.

In this dataset, the control and AAA groups could not be distinctly clustered based on these

mitophagy-related genes (Supplementary Fig. S3A). In the publicly available dataset GSE57691,

a clearer distinction between the control and AAA groups was observed using available mitophagy-

associated genes (Supplementary Fig. S3B). KEGG pathway enrichment analysis (Supplementary

Fig. S3C) indicated that genes involved in biological processes such as aerobic respiration, the

electron transport chain, oxidative phosphorylation, ATP synthesis coupled with electron transport,

and the mitochondrial ATP synthesis coupled electron transport and aerobic electron transport

chain were downregulated in the AAA group. Additionally, genes associated with cellular

components, including the respirasome, respiratory chain complex, and mitochondrial respirasome,

were downregulated. Genes related to molecular functions, such as electron transfer activity and

antioxidant activity, were also downregulated.

A gene-concepts plot revealed that the observed decreases in ATP synthesis coupled with

electron transport and the electron transport chain were primarily due to downregulated proteins

in the mitochondrial complex, which were also associated with the response to peptide hormones

via gene CYC1 (Supplementary Fig. S3D). In our human bulk RNA-seq dataset, a significant

downregulation of nuclear genes encoding mitochondrial complexes I-V (Supplementary Fig.

S3E-I) and mitochondrial ribosome components (Supplementary Fig. S3J-K) was observed in the

AAA samples. Protein expression analysis demonstrated that Parkin was significantly decreased

in the AAA samples, with PINK1 also showing a decreasing trend. There were no significant

changes in STING, Nix, and the LC3II/I ratio (Fig. 4B-C).

Parkin SMCKO mice have increased propensity for AAA rupture and an augmented maximal

diameter of the aneurysm, concomitant with enhanced mitochondrial dysfunction.

Given reduced mitophagy levels in VSMCs in AAAs and reduced Parkin expression in the

aortic medial layer following AngII infusion, we next sought to examine effects of cell specific

Parkin elimination in VSMCs in AngII AAAs. We utilized *Myh11-creER^{T2}Parkin^{fl/fl}* in an

HFD/AngII-induced AAA model [28, 30], by administering either vehicle (Control) or tamoxifen

(Parkin SMCKO) followed by AAA induction (Fig. 5A). Verification of Parkin knockout in

VSMCs was confirmed through genotyping of tail samples and Western blot analysis of the mouse

aorta (Supplementary Fig. S4A, B). Prior to AngII pump implantation, the Parkin SMCKO group

exhibited significantly lower serum cholesterol levels and weight gain compared to the control

group; however, no differences in cholesterol or weight gain were observed at the time of harvest

6 weeks following tamoxifen administration (Supplementary Fig. S4C, D). Following AngII

infusion, aortic ruptures were confirmed by autopsy and were included as a death event in the

survival analysis. The Parkin SMCKO group exhibited lower survival rates (7/39 Parkin SMCKO

versus 1/35 WT; p=0.0383), a trend toward greater aneurysm incidence (p=0.066), and increased

maximal aortic diameters compared to WT controls (Fig. 5B, C). In the elastase-induced AAA

model, increased aortic dilation was also observed in the Parkin SMCKO group compared to the

control group, with mean dilation percentages of 136.80 ± 20.80% versus 99.69 ± 22.33%

(p=0.0009; Supplementary Fig. S4E).

At the tissue level, less colocalization of LAMP1 and TOMM20 was observed in the Parkin

SMCKO group (Fig. 5D). Western blot analysis revealed an increase in STING protein levels and

an altered autophagy marker ratio of LC3II to LC3I in the Parkin SMCKO group (Fig. 5E, F).

Furthermore, Parkin SMCKO exhibited increased mitochondrial ROS, decreased mitochondrial

copy numbers (p=0.0260), and a trending decline in protein levels of ATP5A in complex V

(p=0.140), UQCRC2 in complex III (p=0.0701), and SDHB in complex II (p=0.1027; Fig. 5I-J).

The protocol employed for measuring oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) capability in aortic

mitochondria is detailed schematically in Figure 5K [39], and demonstrated that the oxygen

consumption rate, both coupled and uncoupled for Complex I and II, was significantly reduced in

the Parkin SMCKO group compared to controls (Fig. 5L).

Parkin SMCKO AAA mice exhibited metabolomic profiles with altered ATP synthesis, nucleotide

metabolism, increased oxidative stress, deficient fatty acid β-oxidation.

532   Serum metabolomics analysis of control versus Parkin SMCKO groups following AngII

AAA formation was performed, and bioinformatics analyses was conducted. The scores plot (Fig.

6A) reveals a clear separation between the two groups, indicating significant metabolic differences

due to Parkin SMCKO. The heatmap, volcano plot, and analysis of individual metabolites (Fig.

6B, C and Supplementary Fig. S4F) show notable increases in phosphate and diphosphate levels,

suggesting alterations in ATP synthesis. Additionally, levels of UDP and xanthine were also

elevated, reflecting changes in nucleotide metabolism and increased oxidative stress. Elevated

acyl-C4-DC levels point to deficient fatty acid β-oxidation, while increased spermidine indicates

a compensatory response in autophagy. Metabolomic pathway analysis (Fig. 4P) also highlights

significant changes in metabolites involved in both glycolysis and the TCA cycle, including 2/3-

phospho-D-glycerate, 1,3-bisphospho-D-glycerate, and oxaloacetate.

VB-08, a USP30 inhibitor, can improve the reduction in mitophagy, and mitochondrial dysfunction

caused by AngII in vitro, with effect dependent on Parkin.

546   Primary VSMCs isolated from the aortas of mito-QC mice were treated with AngII at

varying concentrations with the proportion of lysosomal mitochondria, indicated by diminished

percentage of GFP signal, demonstrating a dose-dependent decrease following AngII treatment

(Fig. 7A). In separate studies, MOVAS cells treated with AngII exhibited an increase in

mitochondrial ROS that was not dose-dependent (Fig. 7B). In subsequent studies, when MOVAS

cells were co-treated with AngII and VB-08, a highly selective USP30 inhibitor small molecule

and enhancer of the PINK1/Parkin mitophagy pathway, the AngII-induced reduction in mitophagy

was significantly reversed (p=0.0004 AngII vs. AngII + VB-08; Fig. 7C). The co-treatment led to

a trend toward a reduction in mitochondrial ROS (p=0.0770; Fig. 7D). Concurrently, the MOVAS

cells displayed a decrease in total mitochondrial content but an increase in mitochondrial health,

as evidenced by the ratio of mitochondrial membrane potential (TMRM) to Mitotracker

fluorescence (Fig. 7E). Western blot analyses demonstrated that treatment with AngII notably

decreased Parkin expression, particularly at concentrations of 100 nM and 500 nM (Fig. 7F,

supplementary Fig. S5A, B). Conversely, treatment with VB-08 significantly increased the

expression of both PGC1α and Parkin (Fig. 7G). Protein expression analysis demonstrated that

Parkin was significantly decreased in the AAA samples, with PINK1 also showing a decreasing

trend. To demonstrate whether the protective effect of VB-08 is related to Parkin expression, we

used lentiviral Parkin shRNA to knock down Parkin protein in MOVAS by around 43%

(supplementary Fig. S5C, D). The cells were treated with AngII alone or in combination with VB-

08. In control (scrambled shRNA) and Parkin knockdown MOVAS, AngII increased mitochondrial

ROS levels and reduced the percentage of healthy mitochondria. While VB-08 was expected to

reduce ROS and promote the mitochondrial health, it left notably higher ROS levels and lower

percentage of healthier mitochondria in the Parkin knockdown MOVAS (Fig. 7H).

Treatment with USP30 inhibitor VB-08 *in vivo significantly reduced aneurysm incidence and*

diameter and enhanced mitochondrial function.

mito-QC mice, subjected to a HFD and AngII-induced AAA model, received either vehicle

or VB-08 treatment daily, starting five days before and continuing four weeks after AngII pump

implantation (Supplementary Fig. S6A). Subsequent flow cytometry analysis of harvested aortas

revealed an increase in mitophagy levels of VSMCs with VB-08 treatment (Supplementary Fig.

S6B). This regimen was replicated in C57BL/6 mice with the AAA model over the same duration

(Fig. 8A). Treatment with VB-08 and AngII infusion demonstrated no significant differences in

serum cholesterol levels between the two groups (Supplementary Fig. S6C) nor were there survival

differences (Fig. 8B). However, AAA incidence was significantly lower in the USP30 inhibitor

group compared to vehicle control (p=0.010; Fig. 8B) with a corresponding trend toward decreased

aneurysm diameter (p=0.0652; Fig. 8B, C). Protein expression analysis via Western blot in the

aorta indicated a significant increase in PINK1 levels (p=0.0164) and the ratio of LC3II to LC3I

(p=0.0011) in the USP30 inhibitor group (Fig. 8D, E). While STING expression decreased

significantly (p=0.0208), Parkin expression exhibited a downward trend (p=0.0626; Fig. 8D, E).

Conversely, PGC1α levels trended upward (p=0.2976), with no notable changes in Nix and PHB2

expressions (Fig. 8D, E). mtDNA copy numbers in the aorta markedly increased in the USP30

inhibitor group (p=0.0426; Fig. 8F). Following the established protocol described for Parkin

SMCKO, both uncoupled and coupled oxygen consumption rates in complex I and II showed an

upward trend in the USP30 inhibitor-treated group, although no significant changes were observed

in complex content except that ATP5A in complex V showing an increasing trend (Figure 8G,

supplementary Fig. S6D, E).

AAAs with USP30 inhibition exhibited metabolomics profile with altered ATP synthesis, energy

metabolism, neurotransmitter turnover, nucleotide metabolism, and decreased oxidative stress.

Serum metabolomics analysis of the vehicle (control) and VB-08 groups, as demonstrated

by the scores plot (Fig. 9A), shows a clear separation between groups, indicating significant

metabolic differences due to VB-08 treatment. Metabolomic profiling, as depicted in the heatmap,

volcano plot, and individual metabolite analysis (Fig. 9B, C, and Supplementary Fig. S6F), reveals

distinct metabolic shifts. Decreased levels of phosphate and acyl-carnitine, which are involved in

ATP synthesis and fatty acid oxidation [47, 48], contrast with the trends observed in the Parkin

SMCKO intervention, highlighting a unique and connected metabolic response to USP30

inhibition and Parkin SMCKO. Notably, pyruvate and 2-oxoglutarate levels are reduced, while

fumarate is increased, indicating a shift in energy metabolism from glycolysis and the citric acid

cycle towards oxidative phosphorylation with VB-08 administration. Changes in lipid and

carbohydrate metabolism are suggested from decreased hexanoic acid and D-rhamnose, alongside

increased gamma-L-glutamyl-D-glucose and N-acetylneuraminic acid, reflecting adjustments in

fatty acid oxidation and glycosylation [49, 50]. Alterations in nucleotide and amino acid

metabolism are marked by decreased cytidine and hypoxanthine levels, coupled with increased

GMP and L-methionine, suggesting enhanced nucleotide synthesis, RNA production, and DNA

methylation (supplementary Fig. S6F) [51, 52]. Additionally, there are notable changes in

neurotransmitter-related metabolites, with decreased acetylcholine versus increased 5-

hydroxyindoleacetate and serotonin, indicating altered cholinergic and serotonergic dynamics.

Elevated levels of S-glutathionyl-L-cysteine, ascorbate, and Cys-Gly highlight an up-regulation in

antioxidant defenses and detoxification processes, reducing oxidative damage and supporting

cellular health (supplementary Fig. S6F) [53]. These findings are further corroborated by the

metabolomic pathway analysis (Fig. 9D), which underscores significant alterations across various

metabolic pathways, illustrating a broad metabolic reprogramming driven by USP30 inhibition.

4. Discussion

Recent evidence suggests that the dysregulation of mitochondrial quality control during aging adversely affects mitochondrial function and may contribute to cardiovascular disease progression [54, 55]. Evidence also suggests that mitophagy acts as a molecular sensor for the maintenance of mitochondrial quality by clearing defective mitochondria. Although evidence suggests decline in mitophagy levels is a hallmark of aging, alterations in mitophagy within specific aortic cell types have not been reported. Our study shows that mitophagy declines in aged murine aortas specifically in VSMCs (CD90$^-$α-actin$^+$) and endothelial cells (CD31$^+$), but not in general immune cells (CD45$^+$). Furthermore, while it is known that the prevalence and severity of AAA increases with advancing age, few studies have investigated Parkin-dependent mitophagy in AAAs [15, 19]. Our findings reveal that mitophagy decline in VSMCs during AAA development is associated with reduced expression of PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy pathway in the aorta, a known mitophagy regulatory pathway, in both murine and human AAAs. We demonstrated Parkin SMCKO exacerbates murine AngII and elastase induced AAAs, leading to increased severity of mitochondrial dysfunction and STING expression, underscoring the importance of Parkin-mediated mitophagy in AAA. In contrast, enhancing the PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy pathway through USP30 inhibition significantly reduces AAA incidence, improves mitochondrial function, and decreases STING expression, indicating that the PINK1/Parkin mitophagy pathway is a promising therapeutic target for AAA. Our data suggest that enhancing the PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy pathway in VSMCs can improve AAA outcomes, positioning it as a potential therapeutic avenue for this aging-related disease.

We initially identified decreased mitophagy levels in the VSMCs and endothelial cells of

aged murine aortas (20-month-old mito-QC mice), while general immune cells demonstrated

increased mitophagy levels. This increase in general immune cell mitophagy is logical considering

that senescent immune cells in aged aortas are more inflammatory, relying on the turnover of

defective mitochondria to facilitate inflammatory responses [56, 57]. Previous research using mt-

Keima mice reported increased overall aortic mitophagy in 16-month-old male mice, although

failed to distinguish cellular types [39]. Both mito-QC and mt-Keima mice are mitophagy reporter

tools that utilize pH-sensitive fluorescence detection. The fixable characteristic of mito-QC mice,

unlike the live-imaging feature of mt-Keima mice, gives mito-QC method the ability to measure

mitophagy levels in different cellular types following fixation. Previous studies have demonstrated

good coordination between these two tools for mitophagy measurements[58, 59]. Moreover, mito-

QC mice exhibit longer lifespans than mt-Keima mice, making them more applicable for *in vivo*

aging studies. Consistent with our results, Thomas et al. found reduced Parkin expression in the

aortas of 27-28-month-old mice, attributing this impairment to increased mitochondrial redox

stress and superoxide, which is also implicated in AAA pathogenesis [42, 60, 61].

Mitophagy in VSMCs is suggested to protect cells from apoptosis and oxidative stress

caused by cytochrome C release and damaged mitochondria [62]. Despite the verified importance

of autophagy in maintaining VSMC homeostasis in AAA, verified by Atg5 or Atg7 SMCKO

exacerbating AAA, little is known about the role of VSMC mitophagy during AAA development

[45, 63]. Our study demonstrates that mitophagy decline in VSMCs occurs during AAA

development and removal of Parkin within VSMCs increases AAA incidence. Furthermore, the

impaired mitochondrial respiratory function, decreased healthy mitochondria proportion, and

increased mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (mtROS) in Parkin SMCKO AAA underscore

Parkin's importance in AAA. Our current findings corroborate previous studies that demonstrated

decreased Parkin expression in human AAA samples compared to healthy controls [64].

The cGAS-STING pathway, activated by cytosolic DNA, including leaked mtDNA

segments, is known to partially prevent AAA development when inhibited [13]. Defective

mitophagy during aging has been shown to activate the mtDNA-related cGAS-STING pathway[17,

65, 66]. Our results show decreased PINK1 and Parkin expression alongside increased STING in

AAA samples. In Parkin SMCKO AAA, where mitochondrial dysfunction is more severe, STING

expression is further elevated, while enhancing PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy through

USP30 inhibition decreases STING expression. This highlights a link between PINK1/Parkin-

mediated mitophagy and the STING-related innate immune pathway in AAA, providing additional

evidence for the investigation of mitophagy, aging, and STING interactions.

There is evidence suggesting crosstalk between different mitophagy mechanisms, although

the interplay remains to be further explored [67]. PHB2 and Nix are autophagy receptors located

at the inner and outer mitochondrial membranes, respectively, and traditionally viewed as

independent of the PINK1/Parkin pathway [68]. Our results suggest that Parkin expression

correlates with PHB2 but not with Nix. During AAA development, PHB2 expression significantly

increases while Parkin expression diminishes in AAA samples. In Parkin SMCKO AAA mice,

there is a trend of increasing PHB2 expression in aortic tissues. Recent research shows that PHB2

is essential for Parkin-mediated mitophagy and conversely, Parkin can directly interact with and

ubiquitinate PHB2 during mitophagy [69, 70]. Thus, our findings support a potential connection

between PHB2 and the PINK1/Parkin mitophagy pathway, warranting further investigation into

PHB2's impact on PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy during AAA.

Metabolomic analysis of Parkin SMCKO AAA serum reveals increased Acyl-C4-DC, a

marker of deficient mitochondrial β-oxidation of fatty acids, potentially due to increased

mitochondrial dysfunction in the AAA tissue of Parkin SMCKO mice. These data are consistent

with previous findings that suggests synthetic VSMCs rely more heavily on fatty acid oxidation

than glucose oxidation [71].Conversely, USP30 inhibitor treatment elevates serotonin levels in the

serum. Recent studies indicate that serotonin enhances mitochondrial functions by increasing

mitochondrial respiration and membrane potential, impacting reactive oxygen species and

intracellular ATP [72]. Serotonin also regulates mitochondrial biogenesis via the SIRT1-PGC1α

axis [73]. While the role of serotonin in AAA is not yet investigated, its competing pathway, the

kynurenine pathway, is upregulated during AAA [74, 75]. Inhibition of Indoleamine 2–3

dioxygenase 1 (IDO), which converts tryptophan into the kynurenine pathway, has been shown to

improve AAA outcomes [76]. This implies that upregulating the tryptophan-serotonin pathway

might benefit AAA treatment, aligning with our findings that serotonin's role in AAA merits further

investigation.

USP30 antagonizes Parkin-mediated mitophagy, with studies showing that USP30

inhibition attenuates Parkinson's disease, subarachnoid hemorrhage induced early brain injury, and

kidney injury by inducing mitophagy [25, 77-79]; however, the role of USP30 in AAA remains

largely unexplored. Our *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments demonstrate that USP30 inhibitor

treatment enhances Parkin-mediated mitophagy and PGC1α expression, promoting mitochondrial

biogenesis, and significantly reducing AAA incidence. The potential mechanism behind promoting

mitochondrial biogenesis could involve Parkin ubiquitinating PARIS, thus relieving its inhibition

of PGC1α transcription [80]. This evidence supports the notion that USP30 inhibition and

promotion of PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy could be a promising therapeutic approach for

AAAs.

Our study has several limitations. Treating aged AAA mice with USP30 inhibitors would

enhance understanding, especially given the decreased baseline mitophagy levels in VSMCs from

aged aortas. However, aneurysm incidence is very low when applying the same AngII model to

aged mice, likely due to differences in aortic structure properties. Secondly, the designed

intervention aims to prevent rather than treat potentially influencing clinical translation. Thirdly,

the AngII and elastase AAA models do not fully represent human AAA pathogenesis and pathology;

thus, using additional complementary AAA models could further validate our results and would

represent potential future studies within this pathway. Future research could investigate potential

regulatory mechanisms of Parkin and PINK1 in the context of AAAs. There is limited evidence on

the upstream regulation of PINK1/Parkin, which remains to be explored. Research should also

explore Parkin's role in different cell types, as its function is suggested to extend beyond mitophagy

pathways due to its ability to ubiquitinate additional targets.

In conclusion, our study reveals a decline in mitophagy within aortic VSMCs during aging

and AAA formation, potentially linked to decreased PINK1/Parkin pathway activity. Parkin

SMCKO induces exacerbated AAA formation, while utilizing USP30 inhibitor to enhance

PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy significantly reduces AAA incidence. The USP30 inhibitor,

which also possesses therapeutic potential in other degenerative diseases, holds promise as a novel

treatment for AAA.

Acknowledgements The USP30i molecule VB-08 was provided at no cost by Vincere

Biosciences Inc. (published in US Patent No. US11845724B2).

Sources of Funding This work was supported by NIH R35HL155169 and R01AI138347 (to

D.R.G.), and NIHR01AG028082 (to D.R.G. and J.C.D.).

Disclosures The authors of this manuscript have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

References

1.   Song, P., et al., *The Global and Regional Prevalence of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms:*
A Systematic Review and Modeling Analysis. Ann Surg, 2023. **277**(6): p. 912-919.
2.   Force, U.S.P.S.T., et al., *Screening for Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm: US Preventive*
Services Task Force Recommendation Statement. JAMA, 2019. **322**(22): p. 2211-
2218.
3.   Reimerink, J.J., et al., *Systematic review and meta-analysis of population-based*
mortality from ruptured abdominal aortic aneurysm. Br J Surg, 2013. **100**(11): p.
1405-13.
4.   Isselbacher, E.M., et al., *2022 ACC/AHA Guideline for the Diagnosis and*
Management of Aortic Disease: A Report of the American Heart
Association/American College of Cardiology Joint Committee on Clinical Practice
Guidelines. Circulation, 2022. **146**(24): p. e334-e482.
5.   Karlsson, L., et al., *The effect of azithromycin and Chlamydophilia pneumonia*
infection on expansion of small abdominal aortic aneurysms--a prospective
randomized double-blind trial. J Vasc Surg, 2009. **50**(1): p. 23-9.
6.   Kiru, G., et al., *An evaluation of the effect of an angiotensin-converting enzyme*
inhibitor on the growth rate of small abdominal aortic aneurysms: a randomised
placebo-controlled trial (AARDVARK). Health Technol Assess, 2016. **20**(59): p. 1-180.
7.   Propanolol Aneurysm Trial, I., *Propranolol for small abdominal aortic aneurysms:*
results of a randomized trial. J Vasc Surg, 2002. **35**(1): p. 72-9.
8.   Baxter, B.T., et al., *Effect of Doxycycline on Aneurysm Growth Among Patients With*
Small Infrarenal Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms: A Randomized Clinical Trial. JAMA,
2020. **323**(20): p. 2029-2038.
9.   Weaver, L.M., C.D. Loftin, and C.G. Zhan, *Development of pharmacotherapies for*
abdominal aortic aneurysms. Biomed Pharmacother, 2022. **153**: p. 113340.
10.   Rombouts, K.B., et al., *The role of vascular smooth muscle cells in the development*
of aortic aneurysms and dissections. Eur J Clin Invest, 2022. **52**(4): p. e13697.
11.   Li, M. and N.K. Fukagawa, *Age-related changes in redox signaling and VSMC*
function. Antioxid Redox Signal, 2010. **12**(5): p. 641-55.
12.   Ungvari, Z., et al., *Mechanisms of Vascular Aging*. Circ Res, 2018. **123**(7): p. 849-
867.
13.   Luo, W., et al., *Critical Role of Cytosolic DNA and Its Sensing Adaptor STING in*
Aortic Degeneration, Dissection, and Rupture. Circulation, 2020. **141**(1): p. 42-66.

14. Cooper, H.A., et al., *Targeting mitochondrial fission as a potential therapeutic for*
abdominal aortic aneurysm. Cardiovasc Res, 2021. **117**(3): p. 971-982.
15. Wang, D., et al., *Mitochondrial quality control in abdominal aortic aneurysm: From*
molecular mechanisms to therapeutic strategies. FASEB J, 2023. **37**(6): p. e22969.
16. Garbern, J.C. and R.T. Lee, *Mitochondria and metabolic transitions in*
cardiomyocytes: lessons from development for stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes.
Stem Cell Res Ther, 2021. **12**(1): p. 177.
17. Jimenez-Loygorri, J.I., et al., *Mitophagy curtails cytosolic mtDNA-dependent*
activation of cGAS/STING inflammation during aging. Nat Commun, 2024. **15**(1): p.
830.
18. Chen, G., G. Kroemer, and O. Kepp, *Mitophagy: An Emerging Role in Aging and Age-*
Associated Diseases. Front Cell Dev Biol, 2020. **8**: p. 200.
19. Ouyang, M., M. Wang, and B. Yu, *Aberrant Mitochondrial Dynamics: An Emerging*
Pathogenic Driver of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm. Cardiovasc Ther, 2021. **2021**: p.
6615400.
20. Liu, Y.J., et al., *Mitochondrial fission and fusion: A dynamic role in aging and*
potential target for age-related disease. Mech Ageing Dev, 2020. **186**: p. 111212.
21. Corsa, C.A.S., et al., *The E3 ubiquitin ligase parkin is dispensable for metabolic*
homeostasis in murine pancreatic beta cells and adipocytes. J Biol Chem, 2019.
294(18): p. 7296-7307.
22. Ge, P., V.L. Dawson, and T.M. Dawson, *PINK1 and Parkin mitochondrial quality*
control: a source of regional vulnerability in Parkinson's disease. Mol Neurodegener,
2020. **15**(1): p. 20.
23. Morais, V.A., et al., *Parkinson's disease mutations in PINK1 result in decreased*
Complex I activity and deficient synaptic function. EMBO Mol Med, 2009. **1**(2): p. 99-
111.
24. Wu, Y., et al., *PINK1/Parkin-mediated mitophagy in cardiovascular disease: From*
pathogenesis to novel therapy. Int J Cardiol, 2022. **361**: p. 61-69.
25. Bingol, B., et al., *The mitochondrial deubiquitinase USP30 opposes parkin-mediated*
mitophagy. Nature, 2014. **510**(7505): p. 370-5.
26. Okarmus, J., et al., *USP30 inhibition induces mitophagy and reduces oxidative stress*
in parkin-deficient human neurons. Cell Death Dis, 2024. **15**(1): p. 52.
27. McWilliams, T.G., et al., *mito-QC illuminates mitophagy and mitochondrial*
architecture in vivo. J Cell Biol, 2016. **214**(3): p. 333-45.
28. Von Coelln, R., et al., *Loss of locus coeruleus neurons and reduced startle in parkin*
null mice. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2004. **101**(29): p. 10744-9.
29. Alsiraj, Y., et al., *Female Mice With an XY Sex Chromosome Complement Develop*
Severe Angiotensin II-Induced Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms. Circulation, 2017.
135(4): p. 379-391.
30. Wirth, A., et al., *G12-G13-LARG-mediated signaling in vascular smooth muscle is*
required for salt-induced hypertension. Nat Med, 2008. **14**(1): p. 64-8.
31. Lu, H., et al., *Hypercholesterolemia Induced by a PCSK9 Gain-of-Function Mutation*
Augments Angiotensin II-Induced Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms in C57BL/6 Mice-
Brief Report. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 2016. **36**(9): p. 1753-7.

32. Salmon, M., et al., *KLF4 regulates abdominal aortic aneurysm morphology and*
deletion attenuates aneurysm formation. Circulation, 2013. **128**(11 Suppl 1): p.
S163-74.
33. Pope, N.H., et al., *D-series resolvins inhibit murine abdominal aortic aneurysm*
formation and increase M2 macrophage polarization. FASEB J, 2016. **30**(12): p.
4192-4201.
34. Fashandi, A.Z., et al., *Female Mice Exhibit Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm Protection in*
an Established Rupture Model. J Surg Res, 2020. **247**: p. 387-396.
35. Lu, H., et al., *Subcutaneous Angiotensin II Infusion using Osmotic Pumps Induces*
Aortic Aneurysms in Mice. J Vis Exp, 2015(103).
36. Bhamidipati, C.M., et al., *Development of a novel murine model of aortic aneurysms*
using peri-adventitial elastase. Surgery, 2012. **152**(2): p. 238-46.
37. Millar, J.K., et al., *Endothelial to mesenchymal transition in the interleukin-1 pathway*
during aortic aneurysm formation. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg, 2024. **167**(5): p. e146-
e158.
38. Doerrier, C., et al., *High-Resolution FluoRespirometry and OXPHOS Protocols for*
Human Cells, Permeabilized Fibers from Small Biopsies of Muscle, and Isolated
Mitochondria. Methods Mol Biol, 2018. **1782**: p. 31-70.
39. Tyrrell, D.J., et al., *Age-Associated Mitochondrial Dysfunction Accelerates*
Atherogenesis. Circ Res, 2020. **126**(3): p. 298-314.
40. Sidarala, V., et al., *Mitofusin 1 and 2 regulation of mitochondrial DNA content is a*
critical determinant of glucose homeostasis. Nat Commun, 2022. **13**(1): p. 2340.
41. Cavalli, G., et al., *Interleukin 37 reverses the metabolic cost of inflammation,*
increases oxidative respiration, and improves exercise tolerance. Proc Natl Acad Sci
U S A, 2017. **114**(9): p. 2313-2318.
42. LaRocca, T.J., et al., *Mitochondrial quality control and age-associated arterial*
stiffening. Exp Gerontol, 2014. **58**: p. 78-82.
43. Sun, N., et al., *Measuring In Vivo Mitophagy.* Mol Cell, 2015. **60**(4): p. 685-96.
44. Bravo-San Pedro, J.M., G. Kroemer, and L. Galluzzi, *Autophagy and Mitophagy in*
Cardiovascular Disease. Circ Res, 2017. **120**(11): p. 1812-1824.
45. Clement, M., et al., *Vascular Smooth Muscle Cell Plasticity and Autophagy in*
Dissecting Aortic Aneurysms. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 2019. **39**(6): p. 1149-
1159.
46. Chen, J., et al., *Age-induced prostaglandin E(2) impairs mitochondrial fitness and*
increases mortality to influenza infection. Nat Commun, 2022. **13**(1): p. 6759.
47. Dunn, J. and M.H. Grider, *Physiology, Adenosine Triphosphate*, in *StatPearls*. 2024:
Treasure Island (FL).
48. Talley, J.T. and S.S. Mohiuddin, *Biochemistry, Fatty Acid Oxidation*, in *StatPearls*.
2024: Treasure Island (FL).
49. Castelli, S., et al., *Adaptive antioxidant response to mitochondrial fatty acid*
oxidation determines the proliferative outcome of cancer cells. Cancer Lett, 2023.
554: p. 216010.
50. Stine, K.J., *Application of Porous Materials to Carbohydrate Chemistry and*
Glycoscience. Adv Carbohydr Chem Biochem, 2017. **74**: p. 61-136.

51. Ipata, P.L. and F. Balestri, *The functional logic of cytosolic 5'-nucleotidases*. Curr
Med Chem, 2013. **20**(34): p. 4205-16.

52. Zhang, N., *Role of methionine on epigenetic modification of DNA methylation and
gene expression in animals*. Anim Nutr, 2018. **4**(1): p. 11-16.

53. Hasanuzzaman, M., et al., *Regulation of Ascorbate-Glutathione Pathway in
Mitigating Oxidative Damage in Plants under Abiotic Stress*. Antioxidants (Basel),
2019. **8**(9).

54. Zhang, R., et al., *Mitophagy in cardiovascular homeostasis*. Mech Ageing Dev, 2020.
188: p. 111245.

55. Li, A., et al., *Mitochondrial autophagy: molecular mechanisms and implications for
cardiovascular disease*. Cell Death Dis, 2022. **13**(5): p. 444.

56. Li, X., et al., *Inflammation and aging: signaling pathways and intervention therapies*.
Signal Transduct Target Ther, 2023. **8**(1): p. 239.

57. Esteban-Martinez, L., E. Sierra-Filardi, and P. Boya, *Mitophagy, metabolism, and cell
fate*. Mol Cell Oncol, 2017. **4**(5): p. e1353854.

58. Lee, J.J., et al., *Basal mitophagy is widespread in Drosophila but minimally affected
by loss of Pink1 or parkin*. J Cell Biol, 2018. **217**(5): p. 1613-1622.

59. Ganley, I.G., A.J. Whitworth, and T.G. McWilliams, *Comment on "mt-Keima detects
PINK1-PRKN mitophagy in vivo with greater sensitivity than mito-QC"*. Autophagy,
2021. **17**(12): p. 4477-4479.

60. Tavris, B.S., et al., *Mitochondrial Dysfunction and Increased DNA Damage in
Vascular Smooth Muscle Cells of Abdominal Aortic Aneurysm (AAA-SMC)*. Oxid Med
Cell Longev, 2023. **2023**: p. 6237960.

61. Miller, F.J., Jr., et al., *Oxidative stress in human abdominal aortic aneurysms: a
potential mediator of aneurysmal remodeling*. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 2002.
22(4): p. 560-5.

62. Xia, Y., et al., *Mitochondrial Homeostasis in VSMCs as a Central Hub in Vascular
Remodeling*. Int J Mol Sci, 2023. **24**(4).

63. Ramadan, A., et al., *Loss of vascular smooth muscle cell autophagy exacerbates
angiotensin II-associated aortic remodeling*. J Vasc Surg, 2018. **68**(3): p. 859-871.

64. Zamorano-Leon, J.J., et al., *Factor Xa Inhibition by Rivaroxaban Modified
Mitochondrial-Associated Proteins in Human Abdominal Aortic Aneurysms*. Ann
Vasc Surg, 2020. **67**: p. 482-489.

65. Zhong, W., et al., *Defective mitophagy in aged macrophages promotes
mitochondrial DNA cytosolic leakage to activate STING signaling during liver sterile
inflammation*. Aging Cell, 2022. **21**(6): p. e13622.

66. Li, C., et al., *Impaired mitophagy causes mitochondrial DNA leakage and STING
activation in ultraviolet B-irradiated human keratinocytes HaCaT*. Arch Biochem
Biophys, 2023. **737**: p. 109553.

67. Zimmermann, M. and A.S. Reichert, *How to get rid of mitochondria: crosstalk and
regulation of multiple mitophagy pathways*. Biol Chem, 2017. **399**(1): p. 29-45.

68. Wang, S., et al., *The mitophagy pathway and its implications in human diseases*.
Signal Transduct Target Ther, 2023. **8**(1): p. 304.

69.   Wei, Y., et al., *Prohibitin 2 Is an Inner Mitochondrial Membrane Mitophagy Receptor*.
900   Cell, 2017. **168**(1-2): p. 224-238 e10.
901   70.   Sun, S., et al., *The interaction between E3 ubiquitin ligase Parkin and mitophagy*
902   *receptor PHB2 links inner mitochondrial membrane ubiquitination to efficient*
903   *mitophagy*. J Biol Chem, 2022. **298**(12): p. 102704.
904   71.   Salabei, J.K. and B.G. Hill, *Mitochondrial fission induced by platelet-derived growth*
905   *factor regulates vascular smooth muscle cell bioenergetics and cell proliferation*.
906   Redox Biol, 2013. **1**(1): p. 542-51.
907   72.   Cardon, I., et al., *Serotonin effects on human iPSC-derived neural cell functions:*
908   *from mitochondria to depression*. Mol Psychiatry, 2024.
909   73.   Fanibunda, S.E., et al., *Serotonin regulates mitochondrial biogenesis and function in*
910   *rodent cortical neurons via the 5-HT(2A) receptor and SIRT1-PGC-1alpha axis*. Proc
911   Natl Acad Sci U S A, 2019. **116**(22): p. 11028-11037.
912   74.   Nishimura, M., et al., *Upregulated Kynurenine Pathway Enzymes in Aortic*
913   *Atherosclerotic Aneurysm: Macrophage Kynureninase Downregulates Inflammation*.
914   J Atheroscler Thromb, 2021. **28**(11): p. 1214-1240.
915   75.   Ramprasath, T., et al., *Tryptophan Catabolism and Inflammation: A Novel*
916   *Therapeutic Target For Aortic Diseases*. Front Immunol, 2021. **12**: p. 731701.
917   76.   Metghalchi, S., et al., *Indoleamine 2 3-dioxygenase knockout limits angiotensin II-*
918   *induced aneurysm in low density lipoprotein receptor-deficient mice fed with high*
919   *fat diet*. PLoS One, 2018. **13**(3): p. e0193737.
920   77.   Fang, T.Z., et al., *Knockout or inhibition of USP30 protects dopaminergic neurons in*
921   *a Parkinson's disease mouse model*. Nat Commun, 2023. **14**(1): p. 7295.
922   78.   Liu, Y., et al., *Inhibition of USP30 Promotes Mitophagy by Regulating Ubiquitination*
923   *of MFN2 by Parkin to Attenuate Early Brain Injury After SAH*. Transl Stroke Res, 2023.
924   79.   Andrew Lee , et al., *Enhancement of mmitophagy via USP30 inhibition as a*
925   *theraputic strategy for acute kidney injery*, in *ISN World Congress of Nephrology*
926   *(WCN) 2024*. 2024, the International Society of Nephrology: Buenos Aires,
927   Argentina. p. A1-A2, S1-S662.
928   80.   Lin, C.Y., et al., *Promotion of mitochondrial biogenesis via the regulation of PARIS*
929   *and PGC-1alpha by parkin as a mechanism of neuroprotection by carnosic acid*.
930   Phytomedicine, 2021. **80**: p. 153369.

Figure 1. mito-QC aged mouse aortas demonstrate decreased mitophagy in aortic VSMCs and
endothelial cells and a reduction of PINK1/Parkin expression. (A) Aortas of young (Y, 8-10 weeks, n=5)
and aged (A,18-20 months, n=5) mito-QC male mice were isolated and enzymatically digested into single-
cell suspensions, followed by incubation with flow cytometric antibodies conjugated distinct fluorophores.
(B) Pseudo color plots for visualizing comparisons of Y and A mitophagy levels (Compensated area for
GFP vs. Compensated area for mCherry). (C) Mitophagy levels of different cellular populations between Y
and A aorta were quantified by calculating the ratios of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of mCherry
versus GFP. (D) Protein levels of mTOR, DRP1, PGC1α, Paris, PINK1, Parkin, Nix, PHB2 and LC3I/II in
the Y and A aortas were determined by Western Blot (n = 4/group) and normalized to Vinculin (E). Results
are presented as mean ± SEM. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test were used for
statistical analysis.

Figure 2. Mitophagy is also Reduced in VSMCs in Angiotensin II induced AAAs (A) Schematic of
the murine AAA AngII model. Briefly, AAV containing murine PCSK9 gain-of function mutation was
administrated through a single intraperitoneal injection in conjunction with 42% HFD for 6 weeks. After
2-weeks HFD, the mice were subjected to subcutaneous implantation of an Ang II pump delivering a
dosage of 1000ng/kg/min for 4 weeks. Subsequently, aortas from three experimental groups – chow diet
with a saline pump, HFD with a saline pump and HFD with an AngII pump (8-12 weeks, n=5 per group,
mito-QC mice) – were harvested, digested into single-cell suspensions, and then subjected to the same
flow cytometric antibodies as described in Figure 1. (B) Mitophagy levels of endothelial cells (CD45^{-}
CD31^{+}), CD45^{+} cellular population, α-actin^{high} VSMCs (CD31-CD45-α-actin^{high}) and α-actin^{low} VSMCs
(CD31-CD45-α-actin^{low}) were quantified by calculating the ratios of mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of
mCherry versus GFP. (C) Pseudo color plots for visualizing comparisons of three groups' mitophagy
levels (Compensated area for GFP vs. Compensated area for mCherry). (D) Representative images of
frozen-sectioned slides from three groups mentioned above, displaying the GFP and mCherry
fluorescence within the aortic tissue. The mCherry puncta represents mito-lysosomes. The quantification
of the percentage of mito-lysosomes within ROI is shown in (E). (F) IF staining of α-actin, LAMP-1 and
TOMM20 of aortic slides from HFD + Saline or AngII pump group. Results are presented by mean ±
SEM. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test were used for statistical analysis.

Figure 3. Parkin expression is diminished within the AAA tissue, concomitant with a reduction in the
content of mitochondrial complexes. (A) mRNA levels of mitophagy related genes in the aortic tissue of
HFD with saline pump (HS) and AAA groups (n=5 per group), including Park2, ACTA2, MYH11, ATG5,
MAP1LC3b and PINK1, with r18s as housekeeping gene. (B-C) Protein levels in the aortic tissue of HS
and AAA groups, including PGC1α, TBK1, PINK1, Parkin, α-actin, STING, Nix, PHB2 and LC3II were
determined by Western blot (n=4 per group), employing GAPDH as internal control for quantification. (D-
E) Representative aortic IHC staining images and quantification of Parkin and PINK1 in the HS and AAA
group (n=5 per group). (F-G) The contents of four representative proteins associated with mitochondrial
complexes within the aortic tissues in HS and AAA group, including complex V - ATP5A, complex III -
UQCRC2, complex II - SDHB, complex I - NDUFB8, were determined by Western blot, utilizing VDAC1
as internal control for quantification. Results are presented by mean ± SEM. Unpaired two-tailed Student's
t-test or Mann-Whitney U test were used for statistical analysis.

Figure 4. Mitophagy mediators PINK1 and Parkin exhibited a decreasing trend in both gene and
protein expression levels in human AAA tissues. (A) Gene expression analysis of mitophagy-related
genes (including PARK2, PINK1, BNIP3, BNIP3L, USP30, PHB2, ATG5, ATG7, MAPLC3B, AMBRA1,
BECN1, FUNDC1, OPTN, and PPARGC1A) was conducted on human control (n=44) and AAA (n=96)
tissues using bulk RNA sequencing. (B-C) Protein levels of PGC1α, PINK1, Parkin, Sting, Nix, and
LC3I/II were assessed in human aortic tissue from healthy aorta and AAA groups (n=5-7 per group) by
Western blot, with GAPDH used as an internal control for quantification. Results are presented as mean ±
SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U
test.

Figure 5. Parkin deficiency in the VSMCs is associated with an increased propensity for AAA rupture
and augmented maximal aortic diameter, concomitant with enhanced mitochondrial dysfunction. (A)
Schematic of AngII AAA model in Myh11-creERT2 Parkin fl/fl mice cohort. Tamoxifen was administered
via intraperitoneal injection at a daily dosage of 75mg/kg for 5 days. After a 9-days interval, the standard
procedure for AAA was implemented. (B) Kaplan-Meier survival curves, AAA incidence rate, and maximal
aneurysmal diameters in control (n=35) versus Parkin SMCKO (n=39) groups. Log rank test was used for
survival analysis. Fisher's exact test was used for incidence analysis. (C) Representative images of dissected
aortas were presented from control and Parkin SMCKO groups. (D) IF staining of α-actin, LAMP-1 and
TOMM20 on aortic slides from control vs. Parkin SMCKO group. (E-F) Protein levels in the aneurysms of
control and Parkin SMCKO groups, including PINK1, STING, Nix, PHB2, LC3II/I and GAPDH, were
determined by Western blot (n=4 per group), employing GAPDH as internal control for quantification. (G)
Representative images of frozen-sectioned AAA slides stained with MitoSoxred from control vs. Parkin
SMCKO groups are displayed. (H) mtDNA copy numbers in the AAAs of control vs Parkin SMCKO groups
were determined by evaluating the fold change ratios of mt9/mt11 versus Ndufv1 respectively, a gene in
mtDNA and nuclear DNA encoding the proteins for mitochondrial complex I. (I-J) The contents of four
representative proteins associated with mitochondrial complexes within the aortic tissues in control and
Parkin SMCKO group, including complex V - ATP5A, complex III - UQCRC2, complex II - SDHB,
complex I - NDUFB8, were determined by Western blot, utilizing VDAC1 as internal control for
quantification. (K) Representative protocol for measuring the maximal oxygen consumption rate (OCR)
using substrates, inhibitors and uncoupler (see methods). (L) Maximal aortic OCR with substrates for
complex I and I+II coupled oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and maximal OCR for complex I+II and
complex II in uncoupled conditions, using the AAA tissues from control and Parkin SMCKO groups. 2-
way ANOVA with Sidak's multiple comparison test were used for **L**. Results are presented by mean ± SEM.
Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test were used for statistical analysis for **B (3)**, **I**,
F and **J**. Results are presented by mean ± SEM. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U
test were used for statistical analysis for **B (3)**, **I**, **F** and **J**.

Figure 6. Serum metabolomics data showed mitochondrial dysfunction in Parkin SMCKO AAA mice.
Metabolomic analysis was performed on serum samples from ctrl and Parkin SMCKO group (n=5 per
group). PLS-DA analysis was performed after normalization of the values (A). The heat map was plotted
by top 50 metabolites from two groups (B). The Volcano map was plotted with the threshold as p-value≤0.05
and Log2FC≥ ± 1.5 (C). VIP plot showed the scores of VIP features in different metabolomic pathways that
discriminate between Control and Parkin SMCKO group (D).

1015

1016

1017

Figure 7. Angiotensin II reduces mitophagy levels of VSMCs, leading to increased mtROS and
mitochondria dysfunction, while USP30 inhibition via VB-08 ameliorates the outcome in vitro. (A)
Pseudocolor plots for visualizing the mitophagy levels by gating the cells with lower MFI ratio of GFP
versus mCherry. Cells are primary VSMCs isolated from Mito-QC mice, treated with 100nM, 500nM and
1000nM AngII (n=3 per group). (B) The MFI of MitoSox Red in MOVAS treated with 100nM, 500nM,
and 1000nM AngII (n=6 per group). (C-E) The MFI of Mtphagy dye (n=7 per group) and MitoSox Red
(n=6 per group) within MOVAS respectively treated with vehicle, 100nM AngII, or a combination of
100nM AngII with 100nM VB-08, were quantified and showed in a histogram, same for the MFI of
Mitotracker and TMRM. The MFI ratio of TMRM to Mitotracker was employed as a metric for assessing
the proportion of healthy mitochondria within the cells. (F-G) Alteration of protein levels in MOVAS after
treatment with AngII alone or AngII in combination with VB-08, including PGC1α, Parkin, LC3I/II, were
determined by Western blot (n=4 per group). β-tubulin is the internal control for normalization. (H) For
MOVAS transfected with lentiviral scrambled or Parkin shRNA, the MFI of MitoSox Red within cells
treated with vehicle, 100nM AngII, or a combination of 100nM AngII with 100nM VB-08 (n=12 per group),
were quantified, same for the MFI ratio of TMRM to Mitotracker. Results are presented as mean ± SEM.
Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test or Mann-Whitney U test were used for statistical analysis. Two-way
ANOVA was used for **H**.

Figure 8. VB-08, a USP30 inhibitor, reduces aneurysm incidence and maximal aortic diameters in
vivo during Ang II infusion. (A) The strategy for inducing and therapeutically targeting AAA with VB-
08 in C57BL/6 male mice cohort. (B) Kaplan-Meier survival curve, AAA incidence rate, and maximal
diameters of aneurysms in blank (n=23), vehicle (n=25), and VB-08 (n=25) groups. Log rank test was
used for survival analysis. Fisher's exact test was used for incidence rate analysis. (C) The representative
images of dissected aortas in the vehicle vs. VB-08 group. (D-E) Protein levels in the descending aortas
of vehicle vs. VB-08 inhibitor groups, including PGC1α, PINK1, Parkin, STING, Nix, PHB2, LC3II/I
and GAPDH, were determined by Western blot (n=5 per group), employing GAPDH as internal control
for quantification. (F) mtDNA copy numbers in the aorta of vehicle vs. VB-08 treated group were
determined by evaluating the fold change ratios of mt9/mt11 versus Ndufv1. (G) Maximal aortic OCR
with substrates for complex I and I+II coupled oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) and maximal OCR
for complex I+II and complex II in uncoupled conditions, using the aortic tissues from vehicle vs. VB-08
groups (n = 8-9 per group).

1048
Figure 9. Serum metabolomics data showed altered metabolites in AAA mice following USP30
inhibition by VB-08. Metabolomic analysis was performed on serum samples from vehicle and VB-08
group (n=7 per group) in AAA mice. PLS-DA analysis was performed after normalization of the values
(A). The Volcano map was plotted with the threshold as p-value≤0.05 and Log2FC≥ ± 1.5 (B). The heat
map was plotted by top 50 metabolites from two groups (C). VIP plot showed the scores of VIP features
in different metabolomic pathways that discriminate between vehicle and VB-08 group (D).