1   Identification of Myeloid Protein Kinase C – Epsilon as a Novel Atheroprotective Gene

3   Alexis T. Wells[1], Ramon Bossardi Ramos[2], Michelle M. Shen[1], Redwan H. Binrouf[1],

4   Anna E. D'Amico[1], Michelle R. Lennartz[1]

[1]Department of Regenerative and Cancer Cell Biology, [2]Department of Molecular and

Cellular Physiology, Albany Medical College, 47 New Scotland Avenue, Albany, New

York, 12208-3479, USA

Short title: Myeloid PKCε is a Novel Atheroprotective Gene

Address correspondence to: Michelle R. Lennartz and Alexis T. Wells, 47 New Scotland

Ave, Room MS-309, Albany Medical College, Mail Code 165, Albany, New York 12208-

3479, USA; Telephone: 518-262-5217; e-mail: LennarM@amc.edu or

wellsa2@amc.edu

Total word count: 11,444

The authors have declared that no conflict of interest exists.

BACKGROUND: Atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory disease driven by

macrophages (MØ). Protein Kinase C – epsilon (PKCε) is a serine/threonine kinase

involved in diverse cellular processes including migration, growth, differentiation, and

survival. PKCε acts in a context dependent manner within the heart, however, its role in

atherosclerosis is unknown.

METHODS: Bone marrow derived MØ from global PKCε knockout mice were tested for

lipid retention and cytokine secretion. Public geneset analysis assessed raw counts of

PRKCE in human atheromas to determine translational relevance. A LysM Cre PKCε$^{fl/fl}$

(mεKO) mouse was developed to study the impact of myeloid PKCε on atherosclerosis.

After confirming myeloid selective PKCε deletion, human-like hypercholesterolemia was

induced and multiple metrics of atherosclerosis were compared in WT and mεKO

plaques. RNA sequencing was used to provide unbiased insight into possible

mechanisms by which PKCε regulates atherosclerosis.

RESULTS: Public geneset analysis of human atherosclerotic plaque tissue revealed

that PKCε expression is inversely correlated with plaque vulnerability. Similarly,

peritoneal MØ from WT hypercholesterolemic mice have significantly lower PKCε

expression, providing a translational rational for generation of the mεKO mouse. qPCR

revealed no differences between genotypes in the expression of genes related to

atherosclerosis, at either steady state or upon lipid loading, suggesting that loss of

PKCε does not fundamentally change the basal state and that differences seen are a

result of a more complex pathway. Comparing descending aorta and aortic root plaques

from WT and mεKO hypercholesterolemic mice revealed that mεKO plaques are larger,

have larger foam cells and regions of necrosis, and thinner collagen caps. Upon lipid

loading in vitro and in vivo, mεKO MØ retained significantly more cholesterol and lipid

droplets than WT; Gene Ontology suggests higher expression of genes related to

endocytosis in mεKO MØ compared to WT.

CONCLUSIONS: PKCε expression is decreased in vulnerable human plaques and

decreases in mouse MØ upon lipid loading. mεKO plaques are larger and exhibit

markers of vulnerability. With no differences in scavenger receptor (SR) expression, the

impact of PKCε deletion is more subtle than simple SR dysregulation. RNA sequencing

implicates higher expression of genes involved in endocytosis and mεKO MØ have

significantly more lipid-containing endosomes. The data define the atherophenotype of

mεKO mice and demonstrate that PKCε restricts lipid uptake into MØ by a mechanism

independent of SR expression. Taken together, these studies identify PKCε as a novel

atheroprotective gene, laying the foundation for mechanistic studies on the endocytic

signaling networks responsible for the phenotype.

75 **Non-standard Abbreviations and Acronyms**

CVD	Cardiovascular Disease	77
MØ	Macrophages	78
LDL	Low Density Lipoprotein	79
Hi-ox-LDL	Highly Oxidized LDL	80
Ac-LDL	Acetylated LDL	81
LD	Lipid Droplets	82
MI	Myocardial Infarction	83
BMDM	Bone marrow derived macrophages	84
pMAC	Peritoneal Macrophages	85
PKCε	Protein Kinase C epsilon	86
C57BL/6	C57BL/6 Mouse Strain	87
εKO	Global PKCε Knockout Mouse Strain	88
WT	PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ Mouse Strain	89
mεKO	LysM Cre PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ Mouse Strain	90
AAV8-PCSK9	Recombinant Adeno-Associated Viral Vector Serotype 8 –	91
	Proprotein Convertase Subtilisin/Kexin Type 9	92
HFD	High Fat Diet/Western diet	93
OCT	Optimal Cutting Temperature Compound	94
ORO	Oil Red O	95
TNFα	Tumor necrosis factor-α	96
IL6	Interleukin 6	97
TC	Total Cholesterol	98
FC	Free Cholesterol	99
CE	Cholesterol Esters	100
EDTA	Ethylenediaminetetraacetic Acid	101
DMEM	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium	102
BMM	Bone Marrow Media	103
FBS	Fetal bovine serum	104
PFA	Paraformaldehyde	105
PBS	Phosphate-buffered saline	106
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance	107
SEM	Standard error of the mean	108
PCA	Principle Component Analysis	109
CBC	Complete Blood Count	110
		111
		112

121 **GRAPHIC ABSTRACT**:
122

Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2024) https://BioRender.com/ u28y100

Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of death worldwide, with atherosclerosis being a major contributor.[1,2] Despite the widespread use of statins, CVD remains a major health care problem, accounting for 1 in 5 deaths in the U.S. (2022) and 12% of health care costs ($378 billion in 2017-2018).[3,4] New strategies and targeted therapies are needed to combat these statistics, reducing atherosclerosis and the catastrophic effects (heart attack and stroke) of plaque rupture.

There is a cascade of events that occur during the development of atherosclerosis (Figure 2A).[5,6] Macrophages (MØ) migrate to sites of endothelial damage, extravasate into the intima, and internalize modified and non-modified low-density lipoprotein (LDL) through scavenger receptors or LDLR. At later stages, cells within the plaque become apoptotic and, if not removed by efferocytosis, contribute to the necrosis prevalent in advanced plaques.[7] While plaque size may vary, the more critical factor in assessing vulnerability is plaque composition.[5,6,8] That is, human vulnerable plaques have thin fibrous caps, embedded collagen covered by new plaque growth, are foam cell rich, and have large necrotic cores.[6,8] This constellation of factors produces chronic inflammation that can result in thrombosis, leading to angina, myocardial infarction (MI), stroke, and even death.[5,9,10]

Previously, we analyzed gene expression in human carotid and femoral plaques and found that proximal regions of carotid plaques had increased expression of MØ activation markers, including FcγR, SR-A1, TNFα, and PKCδ.[11] Protein Kinase Cs are a family of master kinases, linked to virtually every known signaling network. Our subsequent work identified protein kinase C epsilon (PKCϵ), a PKCδ related family

member, as an inflammatory signaling node.[12] Its involvement in IgG-mediated

phagocytosis, respiratory burst, and NF-κB activation is well documented.[4,13-21] This

suggests that PKCε can moderate excessive inflammation but *how* it accomplishes this

is a fundamental unanswered question. As atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory

disease, we investigated the role of macrophage PKCε in plaque development.

PKCs act in protection and pathology, depending on context.[17,22-25] PKCε has been

linked to inflammation in patients with atherosclerosis, hypertension-induced heart

failure, and conversely, to protection against ischemia-reperfusion injury and myocardial

infarction.[22,23,25,26] In vascular smooth muscle cells, PKCε inhibits apoptosis, increases

MMP-2 and -9 expression, and induces migration. [27] In cardiomyocytes, PKCε regulates

the interaction between conexin43 and a potassium channel subunit (Kir6.1) within the

mitochondria, preventing hypoxia-induced cell death.[28] In MØ, PKCε has been linked to

phagocytosis of aggregated LDL and resistin signaling via TLR4/MyD88, thus

increasing lipid accumulation and inflammation.[23,27,29,30] In contrast, a large randomized

clinical trial using high-dose adenosine (activator of PKCε) during acute MI found a

significant *reduction* in infarct size.[27,31] Thus, the role of PKCε in cardiovascular disease

is still an open question.

PKCε is perhaps best known as an oncogene, overexpressed in many cancers

where it enhances tumor cell migration, invasion, and resistance to apoptosis.[32-37] If

applied to MØ and atherosclerosis, these properties could be atheroprotective. That is,

PKCε may support MØ recruitment into early plaques, regulate the uptake/retention/

efflux of cholesterol, promote cell survival extending MØ lifetime for increased

efferocytosis, and protect against metrics of atherogenesis that contribute to MI and

heart failure. Thus, the same PKCε processes that are pathological in cancer may slow

the development of atherosclerosis making it a potential therapeutic target. as a

therapeutic agent for several diseases. Its expression at steady state may sustain

homeostasis but its decrease or overexpression produces pathology. Yet, the role of

myeloid PKCε in atherosclerosis is unknown.

In vivo studies indicate that loading MØ with LDL decreases PKCε expression,

which parallels RNAseq data from human plaques (PKCε is significantly lower in

advanced plaques). This would suggest that PKCε levels decrease as atherosclerosis

progresses and implicates PKCε in lipid handling. This hypothesis is supported by

studies with MØ from PKCε KO mice, which revealed that PKCε null MØ retain more

lipid and secrete more TNFα, both pro-inflammatory responses. To study the impact of

MØ PKCε in atherosclerosis, we generated PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ mice and crossed them to LysM

Cre, generating a myeloid specific PKCε knockout mouse (mεKO). Using the AAV8-

PCSK9 model to induce hypercholesterolemia in mεKO and their siblings lacking LysM

Cre (i.e., "wild type" with respect to PKCε expression), we applied a variety of human

plaque metrics. Plaques from mεKO mice were more advanced with evidence of

vulnerability. RNA sequencing of MØ from hypercholesterolemic WT and mεKO mice

suggests that PKCε regulates signaling pathways related to endocytosis, that may

restrict lipid retention, slowing disease progression. Taken together, this work presents

multiple lines of evidence implicating MØ PKCε in atheroprotection and implicates

endocytosis signaling as a potential mechanism.

MATERIALS and METHODS

Sex as a Biological Variable/Limitations of the Study

Atherosclerosis disproportionately affects human males vs pre-menopausal women.[38]

As 8-24 weeks in mice correspond to ~15-25 years in humans,[39] and mice undergo

changes similar to menopause at 9-12 months,[40] female mice are still cycling at 8-24

weeks. Thus, to maximize the chances of seeing phenotypic differences, this study was

limited to males. It should be noted that while males and females were included in the

first cohort, the females did not remain hypercholesterolemic for the 16 weeks and did

not produce plaques. The response of female mice to AAV8-PCSK9 strategy is reported

to be lower than that of males, so the virus will have to be titrated[41] to ensure long-term

hypercholesterolemia before determining the effect of MØ PKCε on plaque progression

in females.

Reagents

ACK lysis buffer: 0.5 M NH_4Cl, 1 mM $KHCO_3$, and 0.1 mM EDTA (pH 7.4). Bone marrow

media (BMM): DMEM containing 10% FBS, 20% L Cell media, 1% Na Pyruvate, 1%

Glutamax, 0.03% sodium bicarbonate, 1% nonessential amino acids, and 50 μg/ml

gentamicin. Cell media: BMM lacking L cell media. Sucrose lysis buffer/P^3I: 50 mM Tris-

HCl, pH 7.4, 0.25 M sucrose, 2.5 mM DTT, 2.5 mM EDTA, containing P^3I [5 mM

benzamidine, 50 mg/mL leupeptin, 50 mg/mL aprotinin, 50 mg/mL trypsin inhibitor, 5

mg/mL pepstatin, 1 mM PMSF, 20 mM NaF, 1 mM Na_3VO_4, 1 mM para-nitro-

phenylphosphate, 5 mM imidazole (Sigma)]. TBST: 5 mM Tris, pH 7.4 containing 150

mM NaCl and 0.1% Tween® 20. Flow buffer: PBS, 2% FBS, 2mM EDTA. Flow blocking

buffer: flow buffer containing 10% rat serum and 5 µg/ml 2.4G2 FcR blocking Ab).

Publicly Available RNA-Seq Data (**GSE1104140**)

The RNA-seq data was retrieved from GSE104140. Raw counts of PRKCE, as a

measure of unmodified gene expression, in diffuse intimal thickening (defined by AHA

as normal intima[42]; and advanced calcified or non-calcified fibroatheroma. Data was

analyzed using iDEP custom R code for differential expression (limma-voom). Principle

component analysis (PCA) emphasizes the variation between groups as well as the

similarities within each group.

Insoluble Immune Complexes

10 µl of 10 mg/mL BSA (Sigma A0281) was added to 300 µl of 2 mg/mL rabbit anti-BSA

IgG (Sigma, B1520) in Optimem^{TM} buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific, 31985070).

Complexes formed by rotation (1 hour, 37°C). Complexes were pelleted and washed

twice with Optimem, and resuspended to the initial volume. 15 µl of this stock solution

was added/1 x 10^6 BMDM.

Mice

All animal procedures were approved by the Albany Medical Center Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committee protocol #1903003 and #2204004 (breeding) and #2304003

(AAV8 and high fat diet). Cells from both males and females were used for *in vitro*

studies; there were no effects of sex or age (3-6 months) on experimental outcome.

Cells obtained from one mouse represent one independent experiment. All animals/cells

were identified by ear-tag (not genotype) to minimize unconscious bias. The lab

manager identified animals to be used in each experiment. Genotypes were revealed

after all data was collected.

Global PKCε Knockout Mice (εKO)

PKCε$^{+/-}$ heterozygotes on the C57BL/6 background were purchased from Jackson

Laboratory (*B6.129S4-Prkce^{tm1Msg}/J* stock# 004189; Bar Harbor, ME) and bred in the

Albany Medical Center Animal Resources Facility. Mice were fed a standard chow,

housed under regular 12/12 light-dark cycles at a temperature of 20-26°C, and a

humidity level of 20-70%. Global deletion of PKCε in mice leads to noticeably smaller

offspring with an immunodeficiency causing εKO mice to succumb to infections and fall

out of lineage. Heterozygotes were crossed to produce the wild-type (C57BL/6) and

PKCε$^{-/-}$ (εKO) siblings.

Myeloid Selective PKCε Knockout Mouse (mεKO)

PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ mice were generated by IVF at Taconic Labs (Germantown, NY) from sperm

provided by The Genome Editing and Animal Models Core at the University of

Wisconsin (Madison) Biotechnology Center. This C57BL/6 congenic strain was

deposited at The Jackson labs (B6(Cg)-*Prkce$^{tm1.1Akv}$*/LennMmjax stock# 69556). PKCε$^{fl/fl}$

females were then crossed to LysM Cre males (Jackson Laboratory, Strain #004781

B6.129P2-*Lyz2$^{tm1(cre)Ifo}$*/J) to produce LysM Cre$^{+/-}$ PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ pups. To maintain the colony

PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ females were crossed to LysM Cre$^{+/-}$ PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ males to produce PKCε$^{fl/fl}$

offspring, some of which lacked LysM Cre (designated WT) and siblings expressing

hemizygous LysM Cre (**m**yeloid selective PKCε **k**nock**o**ut, designated mεKO). A subset

of this colony carried the ZsGreen Cre reporter gene (B6.Cg-*Gt(ROSA)26Sor*[tm6(CAG-

ZsGreen1)Hze]/J maintained as heterozygous) and was used to confirm specificity of Cre

expressing MØ in mεKO plaques [as well as in blood (neutrophils and MØ) and

splenocytes (B and T cells). Zs green carrying animals are indicated by green symbols

on graphs; expression of ZsGreen had no impact on plaque metrics. Mice were fed a

standard chow, housed under regular 12/12 light-dark cycles at a temperature of 20-

26°C, and a humidity level of 20-70%. Compared to the parental C57BL/6 strain, there

are no obvious size, behavioral, or health issues with either the WT or mεKO animals or

in animals carrying/expressing the ZsGreen gene.

Generation of Hypercholesterolemic Mice

Cohort animals were identified and their eartags recorded. Weights of 8-week-old mice

were recorded at the time of retro-orbital injections of AAV8-PCSK9 ($1x10^{12}$ gc/200 µl

sterile PBS). Animals were given a high fat (HFD, "Western") diet (Inotiv, TD.88137) for

4 or 16 weeks. At two weeks post-injection/HFD, and at the time of sacrifice, blood was

collected (submandibular bleed or portal vein pull) for plasma cholesterol

measurements (Fujifilm Healthcare Americas Corp Cholesterol E kit, NC9138103); ≥500

mg/dL was considered hypercholesterolemic. mεKO mice are indistinguishable from

their WT counterparts. Breeding LysMCre hemizygote studs to LysMCre negative dams

produced litters of 7-13 animals that were approximately 50% LysMCre$^{+/-}$ making it

relatively easy to generate sufficient numbers of each genotype for the atherosclerosis

cohorts.

The final experimental conditions were chosen from the results of a pilot

experiment. Pilot experiments: 16 mice (8 male, 8 female; two timepoints 9- and 16-

weeks post AAV8/HFD). Females had high plasma cholesterol at 2 weeks that

decreased over time. Males remained hypercholesterolemic for the duration. At 9

weeks, no animals had visible plaque. At 16 weeks, males, but not females, had

developed plaques. The lack of plaques in females correlates with their lack of

sustained hypercholesterolemia due to the AAV8-PCSK9 model dosage. Thus,

subsequent cohorts were male only, harvesting cells 4 weeks and tissue 16 weeks after

AAV8/HFD.

Elicited Peritoneal MØ (pMACs)

Mice were injected i.p. with 3 mL sterile 3% Thioglycolate solution. Animals were

euthanized after four days and pMACs recovered by peritoneal lavage with 10mL PBS

and red blood cells removed via ACK lysis.

Bone Marrow-derived MØ (BMDM)

Differentiated macrophages were derived from bone marrow stem cells as previously

described.[12] Briefly, mice were euthanized via isoflurane and cervical dislocation.

Femurs and pelvises were removed and flushed for bone marrow collection. Red blood

cells were lysed with ACK lysis buffer and the recovered stem cells were differentiated

in BMM. BMDM were used 7-9 days after harvesting.

ELISA assays

C57BL/6 and εKO BMDM (1.5 x 10^6/well, 6 well plate) were incubated with or without

immune complexes for 2 hours. Culture media was collected and IL6 and TNFα was

quantified using BioLegend ELISA Max^{TM} kits (431301 and 430901) per the

manufacturer's instructions. Results are reported as as pg/mL net release.

Western Blotting

Brains were homogenized (sucrose lysis buffer/P^{3}I) using a KINEMATICA Polytron PT

10 20 3500 115v. The homogenate was sonicated on ice 2 x 10 s (Sonics & Materials

Vibra-cell VC High Intensity Ultrasonic Processor) and centrifuged (13,000 x g, 10

minutes, 4°C) to remove particulates. 3 µg of protein (Bradford Assay) was used for

western blots. Spleens were minced in PBS and passed through a 70 µm cell strainer

(CELLTREAT, 229483). Erythrocytes were ACK lysed and splenocytes recovered by

centrifugation (400 x g, 10 minutes, 4°C). Splenocytes were solubilized in 400 µl

sucrose lysis buffer, followed by sonication on ice (2 x 10 s). After clarification by

centrifugation (13,000 x g, 10 minutes, 4°C), protein was quantified (Bradford Assay);

100 µg was loaded/lane. BMDMs and pMACs were suspended in 100 µl Sucrose Lysis

Buffer/P^{3}I, and sonicated for 7 s on ice. Samples were clarified by centrifugation (13,000

x g, 10 min 4°C), and protein was quantitated; 300 µg of protein/lane was used for

western blots.

Proteins were separated on a 10% PAGE under reducing conditions. The Bio-Rad

Precision Plus Protein Kaleidoscope ladder (1610375) served as the molecular weight

standards. Gels were transferred onto a PVDF membrane using an iBlot® system.

Membranes were blocked with 5% milk in 1X TBST (1 hour) and washed 3 times with

TBST. Antibodies were diluted in 3% BSA/TBST (Major Resources Table) and allowed

to bind overnight (4°C with rocking); GAPDH served as the loading control. The

following day, membranes were washed 5 times with TBST, probed with an HRP

secondary antibody (1:10,000 in 3% BSA/TBST, Major Resources Table) for 1 hour RT

while rocking. Membranes were washed (5 times with TBST) and developed using Bio-

Rad's Clarity Western ECL Substrate kit (1705060) according to the manufacturer's

instructions. Membranes were imaged using a Bio-Rad ChemiDoc^{TM} MP Imaging

System. Densitometry was used to quantify genotype differences in PKC expression.

TIFF files were opened in FIJI and the Analyze → Gels function was used to generate

peaks to the corresponding bands. Peaks were separated and the wand tool used to

quantify the area of each band. For each band the background was subtracted,

normalized to GAPDH and their WT counterparts. Fold change relative to C57BL/6 or

WT was reported.

Blood Collection for Complete Blood Count (CBC)

Blood was collected from mice via the portal vein into 1mL syringes containing 100 µl

heparin. CBC analysis was performed using a Heska ElementHT5 Veterinary

Hematology Analyzer (Heska Corporation, Loveland, Colorado). The percent

composition of total white blood cells was calculated and reported. The total number of

circulating RBC, WBC, lymphocytes, monocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, and basoplils

were collected and reported as Cells (10^6/µl).

qPCR

RNA from $1x10^6$ MØ were extracted with PureLink™ RNA Mini Kit (ThermoFisher

Scientific, 12183018A); RNA purity and concentration was determined by Nanodrop.

RNA was reversed transcribed using qScript cDNA SuperMix (QuantaBio, 95048-500).

cDNA was then used for qPCR. Each 20 μl reaction contained 10 μl Quanta PerfeCTa

Syber Green Fast Mix (QuantaBio, 95071-012), 8 nMol of forward and reverse primers

(Origene), and 50 ng cDNA. Thermocycler Ct values were exported into an Excel file

and the relative expression ($2^{-\Delta Ct}$) was calculated and reported. All samples were

normalized to β-actin (see Major Resources Table for primer sequences).

Flow Cytometry

50 - 100 μl of BMDM or pMAC (at 1×10^7/mL) were blocked (30-60 min, ice) before

antibody staining (45 min, ice in the dark; Major Resources Table). After staining, cells

were resuspended in 500 μl of flow buffer and read on a Bio-Rad ZE5 Cell Analyzer

driven by Everest software. Data was analyzed with FlowJo 10.10.

In Vitro Lipid Loading

Human highly-oxidized-LDL (Kalen Biomedical, #770252)*:* $5x10^5$ BMDM were incubated

with 50 μg/mL ox-LDL (24 hours, complete media), washed with PBS, and processed

for flow cytometry, cholesterol retention, or western blotting.

Ac-LDL (ThermoFisher Scientific, #L23380): 5.0×10^5 BMDM were incubated with 5

µg/mL A488 Acetylated LDL (30, 60 minutes, complete media), washed with PBS,

resuspended in flow buffer for flow cytometery.

Quantitation of Lipid Droplets in BMDM from Global PKCε Knockout (εKO) Mice

Initial studies (Figure 1) were done using BMDM from the global PKCε knockout mice

(εKO). 5.0×10^4 C57BL/6 or εKO BMDM were plated on coverslips in 24 well plates.

Acetylated LDL (Kalen BioMedical, 770201-6; 360 µg/mL in BMM) was added. After 4

hours, the cells were washed with PBS and fixed (4% PFA, 15 min, RT). Coverslips

were washed with PBS, stained with BODIPY (ThermoFisher Scientific, D3922, 30 min)

and mounted. Z stacks were collected, 3-D reconstitutions were made, and droplet

number and area was quantified using Imaris® software.

Quantitation of Cholesterol Retention

BMDM were lipid loaded (24 h, ox-LDL), washed and held at -80°C until analyzed. Total

and free cholesterol was quantified from the cell lysates using the Cholesterol Ester-

Glow^{TM} kit (Promega, J3190) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Data was

normalized to the total amount of protein collected from cell lysates. Technical replicates

were averaged, and cholesterol ester content calculated as the difference between total

and free cholesterol.

Lipid Droplet Quantitation in Foam Cells

Four weeks after induction of hypercholesterolemia, elicited pMACs were harvested,

resuspended in Dulbecci's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) and adhered in 8-well

chamber slides (Falcon, 354108) (30 minutes). Lipid droplets were visualized with

LipidTOX (Invitrogen, H34476; 1:100) (30 minutes, RT) and mounted using ProLong

Glass Antifade Mountant with NucBlue (Invitrogen, P36981). Merged images were

created using FIJI software.

Tissue Collection and Processing

Studies were terminated by isoflurane euthanasia and cervical dislocation. Blood was

collected from the portal vein for plasma cholesterol determination. Animals were

exsanguinated with 10 mL warm PBS through the left ventricle using a syringe and 25-

gauge needle at constant pressure. Hearts and aortic arches/descending aortas were

collected.

Descending aortas were collected from the base of the ascending aorta to the

common iliac artery, keeping the branches of the brachiocephalic, left common carotid,

and left subclavian arteries intact. Aortas were fixed (4% PFA overnight, RT) and stored

at 4°C in PBS/Thimerosal. *En face* preparations were made by opening the lumen,

pinning the tissue flat, and staining with 0.3% ORO (15 minutes, RT). After staining,

arches were washed with 70% EtOH for 1 minute followed by 2 washes of 1X PBS for 5

minutes. Tissue area was defined by the aortic arch and 3 mm of the descending aorta

(no plaque was present beyond 3 mm). Plaque area was quantitated in FIJI using the

color thresholding macro and normalized to tissue area. The percent lesion coverage

was reported.

For aortic roots, hearts were cut parallel to the tip of the atria. The upper half,

containing the aortic root was placed in a cryomold containing optimal cutting

temperature compound (OCT) and held at -80°C until sectioned. A total of 25 charged

slides with 3-4 10 μm thick sections per slide were collected from each mouse as

previously described.[43] Briefly, sequential sections were put on individual slides, such

that sections 1 to 25 went on slides 1 to 25. Sections 26 to 50 were placed on slides 1

to 25, respectively, and so on. This generated 25 slides, each containing multiple

sections separated by ~250 μm and spanning the entire plaque length. Six slides (e.g.

Slides 1, 5, 9, etc.) were chosen for H & E staining. Contiguous slides (e.g. 2,6,10, etc.)

were stained with ORO. Sirius red staining was done on serial slides (e.g. 3,7,11, etc.)

and the next slides in the series (e.g. 4,8,12, etc.) for F4/80. This strategy produced

multiple datapoints (6 slides x multiple measurements per slide) for each plaque feature,

with contiguous slides allowing for visualization of different features in close proximity.

H&E Staining and Analysis

To quantify lesion size and necrosis, 6 slides (see above) were chosen, with the first

beginning at the base of the aortic root (the first site of plaque deposition). Fresh tissue

sections were fixed for 3 minutes in a solution comprised of 100% EtOH, 40% PFA,

100% Glacial acetic acid, and diluted with diH$_2$O to make a 4% PFA solution. Fixed

sections were dehydrated in 70% EtOH followed by 95% EtOH (1 minute), washed in

running tap H$_2$O and diH$_2$O (30 s), stained with Hematoxylin (4 minutes), and washed

with tap H$_2$O until clear. Stained samples were then clarified for 15 seconds, washed

with tap H$_2$O, placed in bluing agent for 1 minute and then washed with tap H$_2$O. After

Hematoxylin staining, tissues were placed in 95% EtOH followed by Eosin-Y stain for 15

s each. To wash away excess Eosin samples were placed in multiple changes of 95%

EtOH (x2) and 100% EtOH (x3) for 1 minute each. Tissues were cleared in xylene,

mounted in Cytoseal XYL, and left to dry overnight prior to imaging. Images were

analyzed with NDP.view 2 software. The lesion and necrotic regions were outlined, and

the areas were recorded. Areas were then averaged between sections of the same

mouse and the average lesion area per mouse was reported. Percent necrosis was

then calculated by dividing the necrotic area by lesion area per mouse.

ORO Staining and Analysis

Sections consecutive to those stained with H&E were taken to quantify average foam

cells size. Slides were fixed (4% PFA, 10 minutes), washed, and dried with 60%

isopropyl alcohol. Sections were stained with 0.3% ORO (20 minutes), rinsed with H_2O,

counter-stained with Hematoxylin (1 minute) and mounted in Gelvatol. Slides were

imaged within 24 hours of staining. Images were analyzed with NDP.view 2 software.

Regions of foam cells were measured for area and divided by the number of nuclei

within that area (number of nuclei obtained from H&E sections). This was performed at

3-5 regions on all sections, averaged for each mouse and reported as average foam cell

size/animal.

Sirius Rred Staining and Analysis

Consecutive sections to those stained with ORO were taken to quantify cap thickness

and percent collagen. Slides were fixed in 70% EtOH for 3 minutes, washed with diH_2O

and stained in 0.1% Sirius red/Direct 80 saturated in an aqueous solution of picric acid

(1 hour, room temperature). Tissues were washed (2 x 0.5% acetic acid, 5 minutes),

dehydrated in 100% EtOH and cleared with xylene. Slides were mounted with Cytoseal

XYL and dried overnight prior to imaging. Images were analyzed with FIJI software. The

percent collagen content was calculated by normalizing the collagen area to the lesion

area and was reported per mouse. The plaque cap thickness was taken from 3-5

regions along each plaque and averaged per section. If no cap was present, then the

thickness was recorded as 0. Average cap thickness was then divided by the lesion

area and was reported per mouse. The thickest and thinnest cap regions were then

extracted and assessed for genotype differences.

RNA Ssequencing (**GSE291828**)

8 week-old WT and mεKO mice were administered with AAV8-PCSK9 and given a

chow or Western diet (as previously described) for 4 weeks and elicited pMACs were

harvested. RNA was isolated from each mouse using TRIzol (Invitrogen, 15596026)

according to manufacturer instructions. Sequencing was done as previously described,

but with the mm10 gemone.[44] Briefly, all RNA samples passed quality control (>8.6 RIN)

and the RNA library was performed using the polyA selection method. RNA samples

were sequenced by GENEWIZ using the illumina HiSeq system in a 2 x 150-bp

configuration. Files were trimmed using Trim Galore (GitHub repository,

https://github.com/FelixKrueger/TrimGalore) and aligned/annotated with Rsubread's

v1.5.3 to the mm10 genome. Genes above 0.5 counts-per-million in at least 3 samples

were kept in the analysis. Differential expression analysis was performed using limma-

voom and significance was defined as *P* value < 0.05. Principal component analysis

(PCA) indicates a distinct gene expression profile between conditions using R.

Functional enrichment analysis was performed using WebGestalt

(https://www.webgestalt.org/), and Metascape (version 3.5). Notably, between WT and

mεKO atheroprone mice (AAV8-PCSK9 + Western diet/HFD), Gene Ontology revealed

the *Import Into Cell* GO family of differentially regulated genes was within the top 20 GO

families. This family includes genes related to phagocytosis, endocytosis, and receptor-

mediated endocytosis. From which, a heatmap was generated using raw counts in R.

Imaging

<u>Lipid loaded C57BL/6 and εKO BMDM</u>: Cells were imaged on an Olympus IX81-DSU

spinning-disc confocal microscope at 60X oil with a Hamamatsu electron multiplying

charge-coupled device camera, driven by MetaMorph software (Molecular Devices,

Sunnyside, CA). Raw images were then processed using Imaris Software. <u>Aortic</u>

<u>arches</u>. Olympus SZ61 Dissecting Microscope equipped with an HD camera & monitor

system from Excelis HDS was used to acquire images of aortic arches. Raw images

were processed with FIJI software. <u>Aortic root:</u> H&E, ORO, and Sirius red images were

aquired on a high-Speed, High-resolution Digital Slide Scanner. Hamamatsu

NanoZoomer 2.0RS. Images were collected with a 40X air objective. F4/80 images

were aquired on an Olympus BX51 microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with

a QImaging Retiga 2000R digital camera (QImaging, Surrey, British Columbia, Canada)

and CellSens software (Olympus Life Science, Waltham, MA). Images were collected

with a 40X air objective. Raw images were processed with NDP.view 2 or FIJI software.

In vivo lipid loaded WT and mεKO pMAC. Images were aquired on an Olympus

BX51 microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) equipped with a QImaging Retiga 2000R

digital camera (QImaging, Surrey, British Columbia, Canada) and CellSens software

(Olympus Life Science, Waltham, MA). Images were collected with a 40X air objective.

Raw images were processed with FIJI software.

Statistics

All experiments were conducted in a blinded fashion using ear-tags for identification.

Once all data was analyzed, the code was broken to run statistics. Data are expressed

as mean ± SEM of independent experiments or animals; *n* is noted in the figure

legends. Limma-voon was used to assess differential expression. Comparison of means

between groups was evaluated by one-way ANOVA or two-way ANOVA with Tukey

multiple comparisons, 2-tailed paired or unpaired students t-test, or Mann-Whitney U

test. Bland-Altman test was used for interobserver variability. A p-value less than 0.05

was considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were performed using

GraphPad Prism, SPSS, and R. Representative images were chosen based on those

closest to the mean.

Study Approval

All animals received humane care in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and

Use of Laboratory Animals. All procedures were approved by the Albany Medical Center

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee protocol #1903003 (εKO breeding),

#2204004 (mεKO breeding), and #2304003 (WT and mεKO AAV8 and high fat diet).

Data Availability

The public geneset data used to assess PRKCE read counts in early and advanced

stages of atherosclerosis can be found on NCBI under GSE104140. RNA sequencing

performed for this manuscript can be found on NCBI under GSE291828. Please see the

Major Resources Table in the Supplemental Materials.

RESULTS

εKO BMDM and a human atheroma RNAseq dataset suggest PKCε may be

atheroprotective, regulating lipid dynamics. Based on our work demonstrating the role of

PKCε in vesicular trafficking and FcR-mediated phagocytosis,[12] we hypothesized that

PKCε is involved in the uptake of modified lipids. To test this, we incubated bone

marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) from wild type (C57BL/6) and global PKCε

knockout (εKO) mice with acetylated LDL (acLDL) and quantified lipid droplet number

and area. εKO BMDM contained significantly more, and larger, lipid droplets, implicating

PKCε in lipid handling (Figure 1A). Secondly, we know that the vulnerable regions of

human carotid plaques have elevated expression of Fc receptors (FcR) and TNFα, that

PKCε is activated upon FcR ligation, and that MØ treated with oxLDL-immune

complexes become foam cells.[11,45] The impact of PKCε expression on cytokine release

is unknown. Thus, we treated C57BL/6 and εKO BMDM with immune complexes (to

mimic the uptake of immune complexes present at high levels in humans with

atherosclerosis) and quantified release of TNFα and IL6, two cytokines linked to

atherosclerosis.[46,47] Surprisingly, we found that secretion of TNFα, but not IL-6, was

significantly *higher* in εKO cells (Figure 1B,C). This suggests that PKCε restricts TNFα,

but not IL-6 release. That MØ lacking PKCε retain more lipid and release more TNFα

suggests that PKCε limits foam cell formation and restricts the release of inflammatory

cytokines, properties that could be protective, effectively slowing atherosclerosis

progression.

To assess the translational potential of our (mouse) results, we searched for human

plaque datasets but found none reporting protein expression. However, PRKCE (PKCε

gene) raw counts were extracted from GSE104140, a curated RNAseq dataset obtained

from carotid endarterectomy tissue that includes compares diffuse intimal thickening,

("stage 0", a preclinical control[48,49], n=9) with two types of late stage plaques, calcified

(n=9) and soft atheromas (n=14) . Raw counts were used because they provide the

most basic and unbiased representation of gene expression. The principle component

analysis (PCA) demonstrates the differential expression patterns of atheromas between

each group as well as the similarities within each group (Figure 2B). Using R, raw

counts of PRKCE per person were plotted and assessed for statistical differences.

Compared to diffuse intimal thickening, advanced plaques have significantly lower

PRKCE counts. While there was no statistical difference between the calcified and soft

atheromas, counts trend lower in the advanced soft plaque, suggesting that PKCε

expression is inversely correlated with plaque stage (Figure 2B).[50]

Given that PKCε null MØ retain more lipid, and advanced human plaques have

lower PKCε expression, we asked if MØ from hypercholesterolemic mice have lower

PKCε. The AAV8-PCSK9 plus Western diet strategy was used for inducing

hypercholesterolemia[51]; control animals received AAV8-PCSK9 but were fed chow.

Elicited pMACs were harvested 4 weeks after AAV8 injection and PKCε expression

quantified by PCR. Compared to chow fed, PKCε expression was significantly lower in

pMACs from HFD mice (Figure 2C). To test the hypothesis that lipid loading decreases

PKCε protein,we quantified PKCε expression in control MØ (no lipid) and foam cells

produced upon incubation with highly oxidized low-density lipoprotein (Hi-ox-LDL); lipid

loading decreased PKCε protein levels by ~ 73 ± 2% (n=2, Figure 2D). Thus, looking at

mouse and human, mRNA and protein, we see a consistent decrease in PKCε in

advanced plaques and hypercholesterolemic MØ, suggesting that the presence of PKCε

in MØ limits lipid retention and, possibly, development of atherosclerosis. Testing this

required a mouse in which PKCε is selectively deleted from myeloid cells, an mεKO

mouse.

LysM Cre deletes PKCε from Macrophages. We generated a PKCε^{fl/fl} mouse[52] and

crossed it to LysM Cre. LysM Cre deletes flox'd genes in the myeloid lineage, primarily

macrophages and neutrophils, with little to no effect on the lymphoid lineage.[53] PKCε^{fl/fl}

dams were mated with LysM Cre^{+/-} PKCε^{fl/fl} studs to produce PKCε^{fl/fl} siblings that were

LysM Cre negative or hemizygous (Figure 3A).

To determine the efficiency of myeloid deletion, we compared PKCε protein

expression across four mouse strains: C57BL/6 (parental, all cells positive), global

PKCε knockout (εKO, all cells negative[54]; PKCε^{fl/fl} (designated WT, theoretically all cells

positive), and LysM Cre^{+/-} PKCε^{fl/fl} (designated mεKO: **m**yeloid selective PKC**ε**

knoc**k**out).[12] Brains and spleens were used as controls; brain because PKCε expression

is highest in this tissue and spleens because the majority of cells are lymphoid so PKCε

expression should not be affected by LysM Cre. As predicted, PKCε was expressed in

brains and spleens of C57BL/6 mice but was undetectable in their εKO counterparts

(Figure 3B). PKCε expression in WT and mεKO brains and spleens was not significantly

different from C57BL/6 (Figure 3B) nor was mεKO expression significantly different from

WT (i.e., PKCε$^{fl/fl}$). These results confirm the myeloid selectivity of LysM Cre deletion in

the PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ background (Figure 3B) and validate the specificity of the PKCε antibody.

With respect to the efficiency of PKCε deletion in MØ: BMDMs from mεKO mice had

no detectable PKCε; expression in mεKO pMACs was reduced >85% compared to WT,

a level not statistically different from mεKO BMDMs (Figure 3C,D). In conclusion, PKCε

expression in mεKO brains and spleens is similar to the parental C57BL/6 tissues. In

contrast, PKCε in mεKO MØ is low/not expressed.

Characterization of mεKO mice. Complete blood counts of WT and mεKO blood

revealed no differences in total numbers of circulating red blood cells (RBC), white

blood cells (WBC), lymphocytes, monocytes, neutrophils, eosinophils, or basophils

(Figure 3E-L). These results parallel the more extensive immune cell analysis done on

the global PKCε knockout mice (i.e., no differences in number or activity of any immune

cell type.[54] Additionally, we found no differences in the number of stem cells harvested

from bones, the number of BMDM differentiated from WT and mεKO stem cells (p=0.76,

n=6), or the number of elicited pMACs recovered from WT and mεKO (p=0.66, n=3),

Finally, we found no differences in expression of FcγR, CD11b, MHCII and Ly6C

between mεKO and WT BMDM, suggesting that PKCε deletion does not alter MØ

polarization (Supplemental Figures S1, S5D). These data suggest that, at steady state,

deletion of myeloid PKCε has no substantive effect on the immune system.

To determine the effect of PKCε deletion on other PKCs, we compared their relative

expression levels in BMDMs. Expression of PKC α, β, δ, η, and ζ were not significantly

different by PCR or western blotting (Figure 4 A-G). Thus, there is no obvious

compensation for PKCε in mεKO MØ. Additionally, the unique substrate specificity of

PKCε.[15,51,54,55] would make functional compensation difficult.

Deletion of PKCε does not affect expression of key atherosclerotic and inflammatory

mediators. Since εKO BMDMs retained more and larger lipid droplets and released

more TNFα (Figure 1), a likely explanation could be differential expression of scavenger

receptors and/or a more polarized phenotype. qPCR of BMDM, elicited pMAC, and lipid

loaded BMDM was used to determine the effect of PKCε deletion on the expression of

25 genes linked to atherosclerosis.[56] Surprisingly, there were no statistical differences in

message levels for any of the markers tested (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S2-6).

Similary, surface expression of scavenger receptors (SR-A1, SR-E2, SR-B2, SR-E1,

SR-E2, and SR-B1) and pattern recognition receptors TLR 2 and 4 did not change with

genotype or upon lipid loading (Figure 5, Supplementary Figure S2). Thus, any

differences in plaque phenotype is more likely due to MØ PKCε signaling than intrinsic

effects of differential receptor expression.

Plaques from hypercholesterolemic mεKO mice are more advanced than WT.

Knowing that MØ lacking PKCε retain more lipid (Figure 1A) and release more TNFα

(Figure 1B), we hypothesized that loss of myeloid PKCε would exacerbate

atherosclerosis *in vivo* (ie, PKCε expression is protective). AAV8-PCSK9 injections plus

Western diet strategy[57] was used to induce human-like hypercholesterolemia and

plaques after 16 weeks (T=16, Figure 6A) Weight was recorded at the start of the

experiment and prior to tissue harvesting (T =0 and 16 weeks). While weight increased

with time, there were no significant genotype differences (Figure 6B). Likewise, plasma

cholesterol (taken at weeks 2 and 16) increased with time but there were not genotype

differences (Figure 6C); $\geq$500mg/dL of cholesterol was defined as hyper-

cholesterolemic.[58]

Standard metrics of atherosclerosis include plaque area, foam cell content, amount

of necrosis, and collagen cap thickness. Plaque area was measured in both the arotic

root and aortic arch while quantitation of foam cell number, necrotic area and cap

thickness was scored for arotic roots.

Lesion area in the aortic arch was quantified by Oil red O staining and normalized to

arch area as detailed in Methods. Percent lesion coverage was significantly higher in

mϵKO aortic arches compared to WT, indicative of a higher plaque burden (Figure

7A,C). To test for inter-observer variability, two observers quantified a subset of the

aortic arches; no significant variability was found (Figure 7B).

The aortic root lends itself to more detailed analyses. Sections were collected at the

first sign of plaque near the aortic valve and sectioned such that each slide contained 3

x 10 µm sections at levels 250 µm apart (details in Methods). Six slides containing

sections closest to the center of valves were stained with Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E).

Consecutive slides were stained for ORO, followed by Sirius red, followed by F4/80.

Lesion area and percent necrosis was quantified from H & E stained slides and

recapitulated the results of the aortic arches in that the aortic root lesion area was

significantly larger in mϵKO than WT. Necrotic area, as defined by H&E dull/devoid of

nuclei, was significantly larger inmϵKO plaques (Figure 8A). Finally, we noted

cholesterol clefts present in mεKO plaques;few were apparent in WT plaques (Figure

8A). While difficult to quantify, embedded cholesterol crystals are a hallmark of

advanced human plaques. [59,60]

Consecutive slides were stained with ORO to assess lipid retention. ORO rich areas

were quantified, normalized to the number of nuclei (obtained from the contiguous H&E

stained section), and reported as average foam cell area per mouse. Consistent with

the larger plaque area, mεKO plaques have larger foam cells (Figure 8B). Larger foam

cells would imply more retained lipid, providing in vivo validation of the in vitro lipid

loading of PKCε negative MØ shown in Figure 1A. These data support the hypothesis

that PKCε plays a role in lipid handling.

Consecutive slides were stained with Sirius red to visualize collagen. Overall

content was quantified and normalized to lesion area. Surprisingly, there was

significantly *more* collagen in mεKO lesions compared to WT (Figure 8C). However,

closer examination revealed that while collagen overlayed the foam cells in WT, much

of it was buried in mεKO samples. We previously reported buried collagen in carotid

mouse plaques[43], a metric that was used as one criteria to stage murine carotid

plaques. "Buried" fibrosis is also seen in human plaques and is consistent with a

previous disruption (i.e., instability).[61] Thus, vulnerable plaques could have more

collagen but with thinner caps. Larger and more necrotic plaques with little to no cap are

indicators of vulnerability in humans; rupture is less likely if the soft necrotic core is

protected by a thick fibrous cap. Applying this metric, we found significantly thicker

collagen caps in WT plaques; many mεKO plaques had regions with *no* cap (Figure

8C). Notably, a plaque is only as stable as its thinnest cap, therefore we assessed the

thickest and thinnest plaque cap per mouse. There were and found no differences in the

thickest cap regions. In contrast, mɛKO plaques have significantly thinner caps than

their WT counterparts (Figure 8C).

Knowing MØ release MMPs that degrade the fibrous cap, and that MMPs 8, 9, and

12 are significantly upregulated in the inflamed regions of human plaques, we asked if

MØ are the cells overlaying the collagen in mɛKO plaques.[62] To do this, we exploited

the availability of Jackson Laboratories **RCL-**ZsGreen reporter mouse and introduced

this gene into some individuals in the mɛKO colonly; cells with an active LysM Cre gene

will be green. All the BMDM and pMACs from mɛKO mice expressed ZsGreen while

their siblings lacking Cre did not (Figure S7B). Knowing that ZsGreen does not alter

plaque metrics (Figure 8) and mɛKO MØ do not express PKCɛ (Figure 3C,D), we asked

if the cells overlaying collagen were F4/80 positive (i.e., MØ). Plaques from ZsGreen$^{+/-}$

mɛKO and WT were stained for F4/80. We found co-localization of ZsGreen and F4/80

in mɛKO but not WT mice (where Zs isn't expressed), confirming that the cells

overlaying collagen in mɛKO plaque are PKCɛ null MØ (Supplemental Figure S7A).

Lipid loaded MØ from mɛKO mice retain more cholesterol. Histologically, mɛKO

plaques have larger foam cells than WT (Figure 8B). Also, we know that ɛKO BMDM

retain more lipid than their C57BL/6 counterparts (Figure 1A). Given this information, we

asked if mɛKO MØ have a lipid handling defect. To test this, WT and mɛKO BMDM

were treated with highly-oxidized LDL (Hi-ox-LDL, 24 hours) and retained total (TC) and

free cholesterol (FC) were quantified. Cholesterol ester (CE), the primary component of

lipid droplets was calculated and reported as the difference between TC and FC. mɛKO

BMDMs contained significantly more TC and CE (Figure 9A). These data utilize a

different technique for quantifying lipid while providing an independent but consistent

result that expression of PKCε moderates lipid retention by MØ. Indeed, these in vitro

results are recapitulated in vivo (i.e, higher ORO staining in mεKO aortic roots;Figure

8B).

While larger foam cells in mεKO plaques implies more lipid, it is not a direct

measure of MØ lipid content. Thus we isolated elicited peritoneal macrophages from

mεKO and WT mice that were injected with AAV8-PCSK9 and fed either a chow or high

fat diet (4 weeks, Figure 9B). mεKO PMACs, even from animals on a chow diet,

contained significantly more lipid droplets than WT (Figure 9C). While a HFD increased

lipid retention in both genotypes, retention was substantially higher in mεKO cells

(Figure 9C). In conclusion, these data provide in vivo validation of the in vitro results

and implicate MØ PKCε in the regulation of regulates lipid dynamics in a way that could

slow the progression of atherosclerosis. _How_ this occurs is an open question.

RNAseq. Given that mεKO MØ retain dramatically more lipid than WT, and that lipid

loading does not alter SR (Figure 5) or efflux transporter expression (Supplemental

Figure S3C,D), we are left with a conundrum: *How* is PKCε regulating lipid dynamics

independently of receptor expression? We turned to RNAseq as a discovery based

means to provides clues as to PKCε's mechanism of action. We submitted the RNA

from pMACs isolated from mεKO and WT mice (Figure 9B) for RNA sequencing and

produced the GSE291828 database. Principle Component Analysis (PCA) revealed

distinct differences between chow and HFD groups confirming that diet changes gene

expression. That there are differences between WT and mεKO HFD animals indicates

that genotype is also affecting gene expression (Figure 9D). To determine *how* PKCε

may be protective in a hypercholesterolemic environment, we focused on the data from

HFD fed mice. A volcano plot reveals 173 genes upregulated and 105 genes down-

regulated in hypercholesterolemic mεKO compared to WT. PRKCE is significantly

downregulated in mεKO confirming the efficiency/selectivity of our LysM Cre PKCε^{fl/fl}

model (Figure 9E). Not surprisingly, many of the upregulated gene families include

response to bacteria and regulation of immune effector functions, consistent with the

fact that the global PKCε knockout mouse succumbs to infections that are cleared by

WT mice.[54] Of particular interest is the Gene Ontology (GO) summary family *Import Into*

Cell (Figure 9F). This family includes genes related to phagocytosis, endocytosis, and

receptor-mediated endocytosis (Figure 9G), which dovetails with our previous work

demonstrating a role for PKCε in phagocytosis, membrane mobilization, and vesicular

trafficking.[12,13] As modified lipids are taken up by endocytosis, and endocytosis would

not necessarily require changes in receptor expression, we asked if *endocytosis* is

altered in mεKO MØ. To test this, we implemented a model of synchronized endocytosis

(30, 60 minutes) using Alexa-488 labeled Ac-LDL. At these early timepoints, mεKO MØ

contain significantly more fluorescent endosomes than their WT counterparts (Figure

9H) consistent with the hypothesis that PKCε regulates lipid trafficking independent of

receptor expression. Further work is needed to elucidate exactly what that pathway is

and how it is impacted by expression or absence of PKCε but this body of work is the

first to implicate MØ PKCε in restricting/slowing atherosclerosis.

In summary, the overall composition of mεKO plaques (larger, more necrotic,

engorged foam cells, embedded collagen overlayed with new plaque, and significantly

thinner caps) is consistent with human metrics of vulnerability. In addition, RNA

sequencing reveal atheroprone mεKO mice have increased expression in genes related

to endocytosis and endocytosis studies confirm differences in the amount of

endocytosis lipid (Figure 9H). As the mεKO animals have PKCε deletion restricted to

myeloid cells, we can conclude that loss of *myeloid* PKCε exacerbates the

atherosclerotic program. Conversely, this work identifies myeloid PKCε as a potential

atheroprotective gene.

DISCUSSION

Knowing that FcR ligation stimulates TNFα release, and that FcR ligation activates

PKCε, it was initially surprising that PKCε deletion enhanced TNFα release but had no

effect on IL6 (Figure 1B). In contrast, εKO macrophages have blunted responses to

LPS/IFNγ, including lower production of NO, TNFα, and IL6. [54] These conflicting results

suggest that MØ responses are tuned to their environment, with their signaling

response differing if initiated through TLR *vs* FcR. In the context of atherosclerosis, the

scale maybe tipped in favor of an FcR activation pathway, based on the elevation of

modified LDL-immune complexes in patients with atherosclerosis.[46,47,63] Notably, Murray

and Stow[64] reported that secretion of TNFα and IL6 occurs by different pathways in MØ.

Although the involvement of PKCε was not addressed, we would postulate that TNFα

release involves PKCε signaling while IL6 does not. Furthermore, the fact that εKO

secreted significantly more TNFα suggests PKCε expression moderates TNFα

secretion, thereby limiting inflammation. According to GSE104140, PKCε expression is

significantly decreased in advanced plaques and can be recapitulated in vitro (Figure

2B,C). Granted, this is a single database. Extensive searching of the GSE databases

turned up one other curated database of human atherosclerotic plaques (GSE120521).

The numbers of specimens were low (n=4 stable and 4 unstable). PKCε levels were not

significantly different between stable vs unstable plaques. However, it should be noted

that these were endarterectomy specimens; disease was already advanced to the point

of intervention. With no control to compare, these specimens may reflect the gene

signature of the advanced plaques of GSE104140. Indeed, PKCε is significantly lower

in both advanced plaque stages of GSE104140 compared to diffuse intimal thickening

(Fig 2B) but they are not significantly different from each other (although expression in

advanced soft plaques trends lower). However, plaque tissue is a complex mix of cells.

Thus, we tested PKCε knockout MØ for lipid uptake and cytokine release in response to

FcR ligation (Fig 1). Deletion of PKCε exacerbates both of these metrics and led us to

hypothesize that PKCε slows plaque progression.

Because PKCε is expressed in many tissues, and modulates such diverse cellular

processes as endothelial function, smooth muscle cell migration, proliferation, and

inflammation,[24,65,66] determining its role in MØ required generation of a mouse lacking

myeloid PKCε. LysM Cre was chosen as it is the most selective and efficient myeloid

deletor;[53] the specificity of LysM for PKCε deletion in myeloid cells paralleled that

reported for other genes (Figure 3B-D, 4). We exploited the AAV8 PCSK9 + western

diet strategy to mimic the hypercholesterolemia produced in humans carrying gain-of-

function PCSK9 mutations[51,67] rather than crossing into the more traditional ApoE or

LDLR knockout mice.

We did note a light PKCε band in pMAC, but not BMDM lysates from mεKO animals

(Figure 3C,D) This signal may be from resident peritoneal B-1A cells that express high

levels of PKCε (ImmGen Probe Set 10447294). Importantly, we established that, similar

to the global PKCε knockout mouse, loss of MØ PKCε does not alter steady state blood

composition (Figure 3E-L) or expression of 25 genes linked to atherosclerosis (Figure 5

and Supplemental Figures S2-S6). Thus, any differences in the context of

hypercholesterolemia can be linked to myeloid PKCε.

Having established that plaques from mεKO mice are significantly more advanced

than WT, and exhibit markers similar to that of vulnerable human plaques, we turned to

lipid loaded MØ to probe mechanism (Figures 6-8). Lipid loading was done either in vivo

(pMAC from hypercholesteremic mice) or in vitro (Hi-ox-LDL fed BMDM). Regardless of

loading strategy, expression of the cohort of genes was unchanged, yet mεKO retained

more TC and CE as well as more lipid droplets compared to control, arguing that PKCε

regulates lipid handling but not through these genes (Figures 5, 9A-C).

RNAseq of pMAC isolated from hypercholesterolemic WT and mεKO mice provided

a discovery-based approach to uncover potential signaling pathways impacted by PKCε

expression. Consistent with results from the global knockout mouse, response to

bacterium was dramatically upregulated in lipid loaded mεKO pMAC (Figure 9F).

Potentially relevant to atherosclerosis are signaling pathways that would facilitate MØ

entry into plaques (i.e., cell adhesion, cell motility, locomotion, chronic inflammation,

and cytokine signaling). Additionally, upregulation of apoptosis signaling suggests that

mεKO MØ may be more sensitive to apoptosis. This is in line with numerous cancer

studies in which overexpressed PKCε was found to be anti-apoptotic.[32-37] Notably,

increased MØ apoptosis in plaques can lead to necrosis which is higher in mεKO

plaques (Figure 8).

That loss of PKCε results in more lipid retention was validated in BMDM from mεKO

and εKO mice and in pMACs isolated from hypercholesterolemic mice (Figures 1,9).

This could theoretically be extended to humans as PKCε is lower in advanced plaques

(Figure 2B). However, with no change in SR expression (Figure 5) and no apparent

difference in expression of the efflux transporters ABCA1 and ABCG1 (Supplemental

Figure S3C,D), we are left to consider PKCε signaling. We know that PKCε controls

vesicular trafficking for membrane expansion during FcR mediated phagocytosis.[12,68]

Most lipid loading experiments rely on long term (4-72 hours) incubations for lipid

droplet assessment and uptake typically occurs by receptor mediated endocytosis. To

compliment this, RNA sequencing revealed the GO families *Import into Cell* and

Endocytosis to be significantly upregulated in mεKO pMAC from hypercholesterolemic

mice (Figure 9F,G). To test the hypothesis that endocytosis may be elevated in mεKO

MØ, we followed uptake of A488 labeled Ac-LDL for 30 and 60 minutes. At these early

timepoints mεKO MØ were significantly more fluorescent that their WT counterparts

(Figure 9H), consistent with enhanced endocytosis.

Given no change in receptor expression, our data suggests PKCε acts on an

intracellular signaling network; its loss leads to increased lipid retention. But, we know

that PKCε regulates vesicle delivery from Golgi to phagosomes and that vesicles are

not delivered in PKCε null MØ.[12,68] How then, do we explain the apparent disparity, its

loss decreases vesicle trafficking to the plasma membrane in phagocytosis but

increases lipid uptake during hypercholesterolemia? One possibility is that PKCε

functions at a trafficking node to move vesicles along microtubules. During

phagocytosis, it brings Golgi-derived vesicles to the phagosome and phosphorylates

proteins necessary for vesicle fusion.[12] It may facilitate endocytosis by regulating

trafficking and/or fusion along the maturation path. Its loss may interrupt endosome

maturation, allowing accumulation of lipid laden endosomes and ultimately, larger foam

cells. That mεKO MØ have more endosomes after 30 minutes of lipid loading (Figure

9H), retain more TC and CE (Figure 9A), and lipid droplets after lipid loading (Figure

9C), is consistent with such a model. While requiring a rigorous test of the hypothesis,

this work provides a framework for studies going forward.

In conclusion, we generated and characterized the mεKO mouse with

PKCε selectively and efficiently deleted in myeloid cells. Utilizing the AAV8-PCSK9 +

western diet strategy, we established that mεKO mice have more advanced plaques

with markers (e.g. thin/no collagen caps, more necrosis, cholesterol clefts) reminiscent

of vulnerable human plaques. mεKO MØ retain more lipid despite no differences in

expression of SR or ABCA1 ABCG1. RNAseq results highlight endocytosis as a

signaling pathway upregulated in MØ from hypercholesterolemic animals and

endocytosis is significantly elevated in mεKO MØ. Together, these results are the first to

report a protective role for PKCε in atherogenesis. The reduction of PKCε in advanced

human plaques suggests that strategies to retain PKCε expression may represent a

novel therapeutic approach to limit atherosclerosis and the medical conditions

associated with cardiovascular disease. Our ongoing challenge is to determine the

mechanism of PKCε protection and why it decreases as atherosclerosis progresses.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Dr. Gabrielle Fredman for her expertise in atherosclerosis and

constructive feedback on experimental design, technical training, and data analysis. Dr.

Younghwa Goo for help with cholesterol assays. Thank you to Dr. Paul Feustel for

aiding in statistical analysis. The authors would also like to thank Genome Editing

and Animal Models Core at the University of Wisconsin (Madison) Biotechnology Center

for supplying the PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ sperm, Taconic Biosciences (Rensselaer, NY) for producing

PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ mice, Cheryl Zjad for doing the initial animal husbandry and aiding in the

development of the LysMCre PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ murine line, Rosemary Prestipino for assisting in

the creation of the graphical abstract, Albany Medical College's Bioinformatic Core for

producing graphs from RNA sequencing data, and BioRender for aiding in diagram

development. ATW backcrossed the PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ mice to generate the congenic strain for

Jackson Labs (B6(Cg)-*Prkce$^{tm1.1Akv}$*/LennMmjax stock# 69556), maintained the LysM

Cre PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ colony, designed and conducted experiments, analyzed the data, and

wrote the manuscript. RBR managed and analyzed NCBI's geneset GSE104140 and

our GSE291828. MMS processed and analyzed the aortic arch tissue and ran qPCR

and western blots. RHB processed MØ and ran qPCR. AED ran and analyzed

experiments using the global (εKO) knockout MØ. MRL coordinated the research,

provided the funding, ran and analyzed flow cytometry, and edited the manuscript.

Sources of Funding

This work was supported by R03 AI144841, R21 AI185827, Johnathan Vasiliou

Foundation, and Albany Medical College Bridge Funds.

Disclosures

None.

Supplemental Material

Figure S1-S7

Full unedited gels

Major Resources Table
915
916

REFERENCES

1. What is Cardiovascular Disease. https://www.heart.org/en/health-topics/consumer-healthcare/what-is-cardiovascular-disease.

2. Di Cesare M, Perel P, Taylor S, Kabudula C, Bixby H, Gaziano TA, McGhie DV, Mwangi J, Pervan B, Narula J, et al. The Heart of the World. *Glob Heart*. 2024;19:11. doi: 10.5334/gh.1288

3. Heart Disease Facts. CDC Heart Disease. https://www.cdc.gov/heart-disease/data-research/facts-stats/index.html. 2024

4. Liu Y, Yuan J, Tan T, Jia W, Lugea A, Mareninova O, Waldron RT, Pandol SJ. Genetic inhibition of protein kinase Cε attenuates necrosis in experimental pancreatitis. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol*. 2014;307:G550-563. doi: 10.1152/ajpgi.00432.2013

5. Tabas I, García-Cardeña G, Owens GK. Recent insights into the cellular biology of atherosclerosis. *J Cell Biol*. 2015;209:13-22. doi: 10.1083/jcb.201412052

6. Hafiane A. Vulnerable Plaque, Characteristics, Detection, and Potential Therapies. *J Cardiovasc Dev Dis*. 2019;6. doi: 10.3390/jcdd6030026

7. Bobryshev YV, Ivanova EA, Chistiakov DA, Nikiforov NG, Orekhov AN. Macrophages and Their Role in Atherosclerosis: Pathophysiology and Transcriptome Analysis. *Biomed Res Int*. 2016;2016:9582430. doi: 10.1155/2016/9582430

8. Petersen C, Peçanha PB, Venneri L, Pasanisi E, Pratali L, Picano E. The impact of carotid plaque presence and morphology on mortality outcome in cardiological patients. *Cardiovasc Ultrasound*. 2006;4:16. doi: 10.1186/1476-7120-4-16

9. Kasikara C, Doran AC, Cai B, Tabas I. The role of non-resolving inflammation in atherosclerosis. *J Clin Invest*. 2018;128:2713-2723. doi: 10.1172/jci97950

10. Moore KJ, Tabas I. Macrophages in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis. *Cell*. 2011;145:341-355. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2011.04.005

11. Lennartz MR, Aggarwal A, Michaud TM, Feustel PJ, Jones DM, Brosnan MJ, Keller RS, Loegering DJ, Kreienberg PB. Ligation of macrophage Fcγ receptors recapitulates the gene expression pattern of vulnerable human carotid plaques. *PLoS One*. 2011;6:e21803. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0021803

12. D'Amico AE, Wong AC, Zajd CM, Zhang X, Murali A, Trebak M, Lennartz MR. PKC-ε regulates vesicle delivery and focal exocytosis for efficient IgG-mediated phagocytosis. *J Cell Sci*. 2021;134:jcs258886. doi: 10.1242/jcs.258886

13. Hanes CM, D'Amico AE, Ueyama T, Wong AC, Zhang X, Hynes WF, Barroso MM, Cady NC, Trebak M, Saito N, et al. Golgi-associated protein kinase C-ε is delivered to phagocytic cups: Role of phosphatidylinositol 4-phosphate. *J Immunol*. 2017;199:271-277. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.1700243

14. Larsen EC, Ueyama T, Brannock PM, Shirai Y, Saito N, Larsson C, Loegering D, Weber PB, Lennartz MR. A role for PKC-epsilon in Fc gammaR-mediated phagocytosis by RAW 264.7 cells. *J Cell Biol*. 2002;159:939-944. doi: 10.1083/jcb.200205140

15. Wood TR, Chow RY, Hanes CM, Zhang X, Kashiwagi K, Shirai Y, Trebak M, Loegering DJ, Saito N, Lennartz MR. PKC-ε pseudosubstrate and catalytic

activity are necessary for membrane delivery during IgG-mediated phagocytosis. *J Leukoc Biol*. 2013;94:109-122. doi: 10.1189/jlb.1212634

16. Poolman TM, Quinn PA, Ng L. Protein kinase C epsilon contributes to NADPH oxidase activation in a pre-eclampsia lymphoblast cell model. *Diseases*. 2013;1:1-17. doi: 10.3390/diseases1010001

17. Reyland ME. Protein kinase C isoforms: Multi-functional regulators of cell life and death. *Front Biosci (Landmark Ed)*. 2009;14:2386-2399. doi: 10.2741/3385

18. Larsen EC, DiGennaro JA, Saito N, Mehta S, Loegering DJ, Mazurkiewicz JE, Lennartz MR. Differential requirement for classic and novel PKC isoforms in respiratory burst and phagocytosis in RAW 264.7 cells. *J Immunol*. 2000;165:2809-2817. doi: 10.4049/jimmunol.165.5.2809

19. Crane MJ, Daley JM, van Houtte O, Brancato SK, Henry WL, Jr., Albina JE. The monocyte to macrophage transition in the murine sterile wound. *PLoS One*. 2014;9:e86660. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0086660

20. Tabas I. Macrophage apoptosis in atherosclerosis: consequences on plaque progression and the role of endoplasmic reticulum stress. *Antioxid Redox Signal*. 2009;11:2333-2339. doi: 10.1089/ars.2009.2469

21. Fredman G, Li Y, Dalli J, Chiang N, Serhan CN. Self-limited versus delayed resolution of acute inflammation: temporal regulation of pro-resolving mediators and microRNA. *Sci Rep*. 2012;2:639. doi: 10.1038/srep00639

22. Chen L, Shi D, Guo M. The roles of PKC-d and PKC-e in myocardial ischemia/reperfusion injury. *Pharmacol Res*. 2021;170:105716

23. Zuniga MC, Raghuraman G, Hitchner E, Weyand C, Robinson W, Zhou W. PKC-epsilon and TLR4 synergistically regulate resistin-mediated inflammation in human macrophages. *Atherosclerosis*. 2017;259:51-59. doi: 10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2017.02.021

24. Inagaki K, Churchill E, Mochly-Rosen D. Epsilon protein kinase C as a potential therapeutic target for the ischemic heart. *Cardiovasc Res*. 2006;70:222-230. doi: 10.1016/j.cardiores.2006.02.015

25. Palaniyandi SS, Sun L, Ferreira JC, Mochly-Rosen D. Protein kinase C in heart failure: a therapeutic target? *Cardiovasc Res*. 2009;82:229-239. doi: 10.1093/cvr/cvp001

26. Saurin AT, Pennington DJ, Raat NJH, Latchman DS, Owen MJ, Marber MS. Targeted disruption of the protein kinase C epsilon gene abolishes the infarct size reduction that follows ischaemic preconditioning of isolated buffer-perfused mouse hearts. *Cardiovasc Res*. 2002;55:672-680

27. Lien CF, Chen SJ, Tsai MC, Lin CS. Potential role of protein kinase C in the pathophysiology of diabetes-associated atherosclerosis. *Front Pharmacol*. 2021;12:716332. doi: 10.3389/fphar.2021.716332

28. Waza AA, Andrabi K, Hussain MU. Protein kinase C (PKC) mediated interaction between conexin43 (Cx43) and K(+)(ATP) channel subunit (Kir6.1) in cardiomyocyte mitochondria: Implications in cytoprotection against hypoxia induced cell apoptosis. *Cell Signal*. 2014;26:1909-1917. doi: 10.1016/j.cellsig.2014.05.002

29. Singh RK, Haka AS, Asmal A, Barbosa-Lorenzi VC, Grosheva I, Chin HF, Xiong
Y, Hla T, Maxfield FR. TLR4 (Toll-Like Receptor 4)-dependent signaling drives
extracellular catabolism of LDL (Low-Density Lipoprotein) aggregates.
Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2020;40:86-102. doi:
10.1161/atvbaha.119.313200
30. Faisal A, Saurin A, Gregory B, Foxwell B, Parker PJ. The scaffold MyD88 acts to
couple protein kinase Cepsilon to Toll-like receptors. *J Biol Chem*.
2008;283:18591-18600. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M710330200
31. Ross AM, Gibbons RJ, Stone GW, Kloner RA, Alexander RW. A randomized,
double-blinded, placebo-controlled multicenter trial of adenosine as an adjunct to
reperfusion in the treatment of acute myocardial infarction (AMISTAD-II). *J Am
Coll Cardiol*. 2005;45:1775-1780. doi: 10.1016/j.jacc.2005.02.061
32. Gorin MA, Pan Q. Protein kinase C epsilon: an oncogene and emerging tumor
biomarker. *Mol Cancer*. 2009;8:9. doi: 10.1186/1476-4598-8-9
33. He S, Li Q, Huang Q, Cheng J. Targeting Protein Kinase C for Cancer Therapy.
Cancers (Basel). 2022;14:1104. doi: 10.3390/cancers14051104
34. Casado-Medrano V, Baker M, J., Cooke M, Kazanietz MG. Mechanisms of
protein kinase C epsilon down-regulation by transforming growth factor-beta in
lung cancer cells. *bioR$_x$iv*. 2020:2. doi: https://doi.org/10.1101/2020.10.28.359588

35. Nicholson R, Menezes AC, Azevedo A, Leckenby A, Davies S, Seedhouse C,
Gilkes A, Knapper S, Tonks A, Darley RL. Protein kinase C epsilon
overexpression is associated with poor patient outcomes in AML and promotes
Daunorubicin resistance through p-glycoprotein-mediated drug efflux. *Front*
Oncol. 2022;12:840046

36. Sivaprasad U, Shankar E, Basu A. Downregulation of Bid is associated with
PKCepsilon-mediated TRAIL resistance. *Cell Death Differ*. 2007;14:851-860. doi:
10.1038/sj.cdd.4402077

37. Huang B, Cao K, Li X, Guo S, Mao X, Wang Z, Zhuang J, Pan J, Mo C, Chen J,
et al. The expression and role of protein kinase C (PKC) epsilon in clear cell renal
cell carcinoma. *J Exp Clin Cancer Res*. 2011;30:88

38. Poznyak AV, Sukhorukov VN, Guo S, Postnov AY, Orekhov AN. Sex Differences
Define the Vulnerability to Atherosclerosis. *Clin Med Insights Cardiol*.
2023;17:11795468231189044. doi: 10.1177/11795468231189044

39. Wang S, Lai X, Deng Y, Song Y. Correlation between mouse age and human age
in anti-tumor research: Significance and method establishment. *Life Sci*.
2020;242:117242. doi: 10.1016/j.lfs.2019.117242

40. Diaz Brinton R. Minireview: translational animal models of human menopause:
challenges and emerging opportunities. *Endocrinology*. 2012;153:3571-3578.
doi: 10.1210/en.2012-1340

41. Vozenilek AE, Blackburn CMR, Schilke RM, Chandran S, Castore R, Klein RL,
Woolard MD. AAV8-mediated overexpression of mPCSK9 in liver differs between
male and female mice. *Atherosclerosis*. 2018;278:66-72. doi:
10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2018.09.005

42. Nakashima Y, Wright TN, Sueishi K. Early atherosclerosis in humans: role of
diffuse intimal thickening and extracellular matrix proteoglycans. *Cardiovasc Res*.
2008;79:14-23. doi: 10.1093/cvr/cvn099

43. Harmon EY, Fronhofer V, 3rd, Keller RS, Feustel PJ, Zhu X, Xu H, Avram D,
Jones DM, Nagarajan S, Lennartz MR. Anti-inflammatory immune skewing is
atheroprotective: Apoe−/−FcγRIIb−/− mice develop fibrous carotid plaques. *J Am*
Heart Assoc. 2014;3:e001232. doi: 10.1161/jaha.114.001232

44. Barra J, Crosbourne I, Roberge CL, Bossardi-Ramos R, Warren JSa, Matteson
K, Wang L, Jourd'heuil F, Borisov SM, Bresnahan E, et al. DMT1-dependent
endosome-mitochondria interactions regulate mitochondrial iron translocation
and metastatic outgrowth. *Oncogene*. 2024;43:650-667.

45. Lopes-Virella MF, Virella G. Pathogenic role of modified LDL antibodies and
immune complexes in atheroslcerosis. *J Atheroscler Thromb*. 2013;20:743-754.
doi: 10.5551/jat.19281

46. Sobenin IA, Salonen JT, Zhelankin AV, Melnichenko AA, Kaikkonen J, Bobryshev
YV, Orekhov AN. Low density lipoprotein-containing circulating immune
complexes: role in atherosclerosis and diagnostic value. *Biomed Res Int*.
2014;2014:205697. doi: 10.1155/2014/205697

47. Wolf D, Ley K. Immunity and Inflammation in Atherosclerosis. *Circ Res*.
2019;124:315-327. doi: 10.1161/circresaha.118.313591

48. Nakashima Y, Fujii G, Sumiyoshi S, Wright TN, Sueishi K. Early human
atherosclerosis: accumulation of lipid and proteoglycans in intimal thickenings

followed by macrophagbe infiltration. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2007;27:1159-1165. doi: 10.1161/ATVBAHA.106.134080

49. Kolodgie FD, Burke AP, Nakazawa G, Virmani R. Is pathological intimal thickening the key to understanding early plaque progression in human atherosclerotic disease? *Art Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2007;27:986-989. doi: 10.1161.ATV.0000258865.44774.41

50. Transcriptome sequencing of human fibroatheromas identifies genetic signature of plaque formation and suggests roles of TREM1 and PIK3CG in atherosclerosis. https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE104140. 2020

51. Keeter WC, Carter NM, Nadler JL, Galkina EV. The AAV-PCSK9 murine model of atherosclerosis and metabolic dysfunction. *Eur Heart J Open*. 2022;2:oeac028. doi: 10.1093/ehjopen/oeac028

52. Hafeez BB, Zhong W, Weichert J, Dreckschmidt NE, Jamal MS, Verma AK. Genetic ablation of PKC epsilon inhibits prostate cancer development and metastasis in transgenic mouse model of prostate adenocarcinoma. *Cancer Res*. 2011;71:2318-2327. doi: 10.1158/0008-5472.Can-10-4170

53. Abram CL, Roberge GL, Hu Y, Lowell CA. Comparative analysis of the efficiency and specificity of myeloid-Cre deleting strains using ROSA-EYFP reporter mice. *J Immunol Methods*. 2014;408:89-100. doi: 10.1016/j.jim.2014.05.009

54. Castrillo A, Pennington DJ, Otto F, Parker PJ, Owen MJ, Boscá L. Protein kinase Cepsilon is required for macrophage activation and defense against bacterial infection. *J Exp Med*. 2001;194:1231-1242. doi: 10.1084/jem.194.9.1231

55. Schaap D, Parker PJ, Bristol A, Kriz R, Knopf J. Unique substrate specificity and regulatory properties of PKC-epsilon: a rationale for diversity. *FEBS Lett*. 1989;243:351-357. doi: 10.1016/0014-5793(89)80160-7

56. Stöger JL, Gijbels MJ, van der Velden S, Manca M, van der Loos CM, Biessen EA, Daemen MJ, Lutgens E, de Winther MP. Distribution of macrophage polarization markers in human atherosclerosis. *Atherosclerosis*. 2012;225:461-468. doi: 10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2012.09.013

57. Xu M, Wu X, Liu Z, Ding Y, Kong W, Little PJ, Xu S, Weng J. A novel mouse model of diabetes, atherosclerosis and fatty liver disease using an AAV8-PCSK9-D377Y injection and dietary manipulation in db/db mice. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*. 2022;622:163-169. doi: 10.1016/j.bbrc.2022.07.031

58. Getz G, Reardon CA. Animal models of atherosclerosis. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol*. 2012;32:1104-1115

59. Grebe A, Latz E. Cholesterol crystals and inflammation. *Curr Rheumatol Rep*. 2013;15:313

60. Nadkarni SK, Pierce MC, Park BH, de Boer JF, Whittaker P, Bouma BE, Bressner JE, Halpern E, Houser SL, Tearney GJ. Measurement of collagen and smooth muscle cell content in atherosclerotic plaques using polarization-sensitive optical coherence tomography. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2007;49:1474-1481

61. Libby P. Inflammation during the life cycle of the atherosclerotic plague. *Cardiovasc Res*. 2021;117:2525-2536

62. Lennartz MR, Aggarwal A, Michaud TM, Feustel PJ, Jones DM, Brosnan MJ, Keller RS, Loegering DJ, Kreienberg PB. Ligation of macrophage Fcγ receptors

recapitulates the gene expression pattern of vulnerable human carotid plaques.
PLoS One 2011;6:e21803

63.   Lopes-Virella MF, Binzafar N, Rackley S, Takei A, La Via M, Virella G. The uptake
of LDL-IC by human macrophages: predominant involvement of the Fc gamma
RI receptor. *Atherosclerosis*. 1997;135:161-170. doi: 10.1016/s0021-
9150(97)00157-3

64.   Murray RZ, Stow JL. Cytokine Secretion in Macrophages: SNAREs, Rabs, and
Membrane Trafficking. *Front Immunol*. 2014;5:538. doi:
10.3389/fimmu.2014.00538

65.   Ringvold HC, Khalil RA. Protein Kinase C as Regulator of Vascular Smooth
Muscle Function and Potential Target in Vascular Disorders. *Adv Pharmacol*.
2017;78:203-301. doi: 10.1016/bs.apha.2016.06.002

66.   Capuani B, Pacifici F, Pastore D, Palmirotta R, Donadel G, Arriga R, Bellia A, Di
Daniele N, Rogliani P, Abete P, et al. The role of epsilon PKC in acute and
chronic diseases: Possible pharmacological implications of its modulators.
Pharmacol Res. 2016;111:659-667. doi: 10.1016/j.phrs.2016.07.029

67.   Cui Yf, Chen Xc, Mijiti T, Abudurusuli A, Deng Lh, Ma X, Chen B. PCSK9 with a
gain of function D374Y mutation aggravates atheroslcerosis by inhibiting PPARa
expression. *Scientific Reports*. 2025;15

68.   D'Amico AE, Lennartz MR. Protein kinase C-epsilon in membrane delivery during
phagocytosis. *J Immunol Sci*. 2018;2:26-32

1139
1140

Highlights:

1141

1142  • A novel murine model in which PKCε is floxed (PKCε$^{fl/fl}$) on both alleles haas

1143   been generated, backcrossed, and deposited into Jackson Laboratories

1144   (B6(Cg)- *Prkce$^{tm1.1Akv}$*/LennMmjax). Then, PKCε$^{fl/fl}$ LysM Cre (mεKO) mice have

1145   been generated.

1146  • Deletion of PKCε has no basal affects on other PKC isoforms, lipid handling

1147   markers, or inflammatory markers.

1148  • Upon (in vitro) lipid loading of BMDM or isolating lipid loaded pMACs from

1149   hypercholesterolemic mice (in vivo), mεKO BMDMs retain more cholesterol.

1150  • Long term (16 wk) hypercholesterolemis generates larger lesions, more necrosis,

1151   and thinner plaque caps (i.e., a more vulnerable plaque phenotype) in mεKO

1152   mice.

1153  • RNA sequencing suggests PKCε regulates endocytosis mechanisms post initial

1154   uptake of LDL and has been confirmed in a model of synchronized endocytosis.

1155  • These findings identify myeloid PKCε as a novel atheroprotective molecule

1156   whose expression impacts multiple metrics of atherosclerosis. This opens new

1157   avenues of investigation to uncover the PKCε signaling network responsible for

1158   the phenotype. Understanding how myeloid PKCε slows atherosclerosis

1159   development will aid in the development of novel preventative and therapeutic

1160   treatments.

1161

1162

1163

1164

Figure 1: MØ from global PKCε knockout (εKO) mice retain more/larger lipid droplets and release more TNFα. (**A**) C57BL/6 and εKO BMDM were treated with AcLDL (360 µM) for 4h, fixed and lipid droplets stained with BODIPY. Z-stacks were collected, 3-D reconstructions made, and number of lipid droplets and droplet area was quantified (each symbol represents one cell/droplet n = 3 independent experiments). Data are presented as ± SEM. (**B**,**C**) C57BL/6 and εKO BMDM were incubated with or without immune complexes (2 h). Media was collected and TNFα and IL-6 was quantified by ELISA. Net TNFα and IL-6 release is represented (n = 3). Statistical analysis was preformed by two-tailed unpaired t-test (**A**) and two-tailed paired t-test in (**B**,**C**). Scale bars: 10 µm. *$p < 0.05$; ****$p < 0.0001$.

1165
1166

1167

Figure 2: PKCε expression is significantly lower in advanced human plaques and is recapitulated in murine pMACs from hypercholesterolemic mice. (**A**) Schematic of atherogenesis. Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2024) https://BioRender.com/ b96z554. (**B**) RNAseq of human atherosclerotic plaques (GSE104140) plotting PRKCE raw counts (left) and the corresponding principal component analysis (PCA) (right) (n = 9-14 samples). (**C**) qPCR of PKCε in elicited pMACs from chow and HFD fed WT mice administered with AAV8-PCSK9 for 4-wks (n=3). (**D**) Western blot of BMDM treated with Hi-ox-LDL (50 µg/mL, 24h). Data are presented as ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by Limma-voon differential expression analysis (**B**) and two-tailed unpaired t-test (**C**). **$p < 0.01$.

1168

1169

Figure 3: LysM Cre deletes PKCε selectively from myeloid cells and does not affect blood composition. (**A**) Schematic of the LysM Cre PKCε^fl/fl breeding strategy. (**B-D**) Representative Western blot and corresponding densitometry of PKCε and GAPDH expression in brains and spleens (**B**), BMDMs (**C**), and pMACs (**D**) (n=3-6). Tissues from the global PKCε knockout mouse (εKO) are included for reference; ratios of expression. No substantive reduction in PKCε expression was detected in brains or spleens of LysMCre expressers; little/no PKCε was detected in lysates from BMDMs or pMACs expressing Cre. (**E-L**) Blood was collected and analyzed with a Heska HT5 CBC analyzer. (**E**) Composition of total white blood cells (WBC). Total numbers of (**F**) Red blood cells (RBC), (**G**) WBC, (**H**) Lymphocytes, (**I**) Monocytes, (**J**) Neutrophils, (**K**) Eosinophils, and (**L**) Basophils are shown. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed unpaired t-test (**B**,**D**,**F-L**) and one-way ANOVA (**B**,**C**,**E**) Red dotted line indicates respective C57BL/6 or WT (ie, PKCε^fl/fl) used as the normalization control. Each symbol represents an individual mouse. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.001$; ****$p < 0.0001$.

1170

1171

Figure 4: LysM Cre PKCε^fl/fl selectively deletes PKCε in MØ. (**A**) qPCR for novel (PKCε, PKCη, PKCδ), conventional (PKCα, PKCβ), and atypical (PKCζ) PKC's reveal a significant decrease in PKCε with no effect on other isoforms. (n = 5-8, each symbol represents cells from a single animal). (G) Representative westerns confirming that PKCε deletion does not alter protein expression of other isoforms. (n=3). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed unpaired t-test in. *$p < 0.05$.

1172

1173

Figure 5: Deletion of PKCε does not alter scavenger receptor expression. (**A-F**) qPCR and flow cytometry for SR-AI (CD204), SR-E3 (CD206), SR-B2 (CD36), SR-E1 (Lox-1), SR-E2 (Dectin-1), and SR-B1 (SCARB1) in BMDMs (column 1,4) and elicited pMACs (column 2) at steady state (each symbol represents an individual animal, n = 3-6). In vivo derived foam cells (column 3, see Methods): qPCR of SR from elicited pMACs. In vitro derived foam cells (column 5): flow cytometry of SR receptors from BMDM loaded with Hi-oxLDL (50 µg/ml, 24 h). Flow cytometry are representative of 3-5 independent experiments. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed unpaired t-test and two-way ANOVA (there were no significance difference in expression between genotype).

1174

1175

Figure 6: WT and mεKO animals have similar weights and plasma cholesterol levels in an in vivo model of hypercholesterolemia.
(**A**) Timeline of in vivo model. Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2024) https://BioRender.com/ e98l871. (**B**) Weights were recorded at T = 0 and T = 16 wks. Genotype did not affect weight gain. (**C**) Blood was collected at 2 and 16 weeks for determination of plasma cholesterol concentrations. While cholesterol increased over the time course, there was no genotype difference. Each symbol (blue-WT, red-mεKO) represents one animal (n =12-13, two independent cohorts). Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed paired t-tests (**B,C**) and unpaired t-tests (**B,C**). ****p < 0.0001.

1176

1177

Figure 7: mεKO aortic arches have a higher percent lesion coverage than their WT counterparts. (**A**) Schematic of the region of descending aorta removed; area analyzed is enlarged. Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2024) https://BioRender.com/ q65k186. Representative images of Oil red O stained *en face* preparations of aortic arches recovered from animals after 16 weeks of hypercholesterolemia. (**B**) A subset of (8) mice were assessed for inter-observer variability, no shift in the bias was detected. (**C**) Quantitation of the aortic arch and 3 mm of descending aorta for percent lesion coverage (n = 12-13, each point represents one animal). See methods for details. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by Bland-Altman analysis in (**B**) and two-tailed unpaired t-test in (**C**). Scale Bars: 1 mm. *$p < 0.05$.

1178

1179

Figure 8: mεKO plaques have a more vulnerable phenotype. Animals were identified by ear tag such that the operator was blinded to genotype until all data was collected (n=12-13/genotype, 2 independent cohorts). See methods for processing/staining details. (**Bottom right**) Schematic of aortic root processing. Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2024) https://BioRender.com/ f19i190. (**A**) H&E staining: Plaques (black outlined), necrotic regions (yellow outlined) and cholesterol clefts (yellow asterisk) were identified and lesion area and percent necrosis per mouse were quantified. Plaques from mεKO mice were significantly larger and more necrotic. (**B**) Slides consecutive to H&E were stained with ORO and the average foam cell area per mouse was recorded; foam cells (black arrowheads) are significantly larger in mεKO plaques (n = 7-8). (**C**) Plaque sections were stained for collagen with Sirius Red, were outlined (black hashed lines) and overall collagen content reported as a percent of plaque area. As vulnerable plaques have thin collagen caps, we measured the average cap thickness per mouse as well as the thickest and thinnest regions; mεKO plaques have significantly thinner regions than their WT controls; arrow denotes a plaque with a cap and arrowhead denotes a plaque with no cap. (n = 12-13). (**A,C**) Scale bars: 500 μm (left) or 250 μm (right). (**B**) Scale bars: 500 μm (left) or 100 μm (right). Each symbol represents one animal and green symbols represent animals that are genotypically ZsGreen Positive. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by two-tailed unpaired t-test in. *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$.

1180

Figure 9: mεKO BMDMs and elicited pMACs retain more cholesterol/lipids in vitro and in vivo through enhanced endocytosis mechanisms. (**A**) BMDMs were loaded with human Hi-ox-LDL for 24h and assessed for total cholesterol (TC), free cholesterol (FC), and cholesterol esters (CE) (n = 3 with 4 technical replicates per n). (**B**) Strategy for generation of foam cells in. vivo. Created in BioRender. Wells, A. (2025) https://BioRender.com/ f20m105. (**C**) Elicited pMACs from animals in (**B**) were stained with LipidTOX and Dapi to label neutral lipids and nuclei. Scale bar: 1μm. The total number of well-defined lipid droplets was assessed by FIJI, normalized to the total number of nuclei, and reported as the average number of lipid droplets per cell. (**D**-**G**) RNA sequencing of elicited pMACs from hypercholesterolemic mice revealed significant differences in gene expression. (**D**) Principal component analysis (PCA) indicates distinct gene expression profiles as shown by differential clustering by genotype and diet. (**E**) Volcano plot from total RNA sequencing illustrating differentially regulated genes upon deletion of PKCε in hypercholesterolemic mice, where PRKCE is in relation. P value < 0.05 and fold change log2 > 2. (**F**) Gene Ontology analysis of differentially regulated genes upon PKCε deletion. (**G**) Heatmap of gene expression values for significantly downregulated and upregulated genes for import into the cell (i.e., endocytosis, phagocytosis, and receptor-mediated endocytosis) upon deletion of PKCε. (**H**) Synchronized endocytosis of Alexa-488 Ac-LDL for 30 and 60 minutes and assessed for the total MFI of lipid loaded (green) endosomes. (n = 3). Each point in **A**-**D**,**H** represents one animal n = 3-4. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was performed by one-way ANOVA (**A**,**C**) or paired t-test (**H**). *$p < 0.05$; **$p < 0.01$; ***$p < 0.001$, ****$p < 0.0001$.

1194
1195