Macrophage Cholesterol Homeostasis Underpins the Role of Sertraline as an Adjunctive

Agent in Tuberculosis Therapy.

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Abstract:

Cellular metabolism plays a deterministic role in the macrophage responses to intracellular

pathogens such as *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) and infection control. Here, we demonstrate

that the significant rewiring of the macrophage cholesterol metabolism by sertraline (SRT), an

FDA-approved antidepressant, effectively enhances bacterial control. SRT, by virtue of its potent

cationic amphiphilicity leads to the accumulation of lysosomal cholesterol in macrophages and

activating the transcription factor SREBP2 and enhancing cholesterol biosynthesis. By specific

gene silencing and biochemical inhibition assays, we further demonstrate that this metabolic

reprogramming promotes lysosomal membrane permeabilization, mitochondrial reactive oxygen

species (ROS) generation, heightened IL-1β release, collectively enhancing macrophage

bactericidal activity. Our results thus highlight a previously underappreciated link between

cholesterol homeostasis and inflammasome activation, which contributes to improved Mtb

clearance in the presence of adjunctive sertraline therapy.

Statement of significance:

Tuberculosis remains a leading cause of global mortality, and treatment success is limited due to

a long treatment regimen. This study identifies macrophage cholesterol homeostasis as a central

pathway to enhance anti-tubercular therapy. We show that Sertraline, an FDA-approved

antidepressant, a cationic amphiphilic drug (CAD), reprograms cholesterol trafficking through

NPC1 inhibition. This drives the consequential processing of the master regulator SREBP2,

accompanied by lysosomal membrane permeabilization. Collectively, these lead to mitochondrial

ROS production and activation of NLRP3 signalling, boosting inflammasome-mediated bacterial

clearance. By establishing cholesterol sequestration as the mechanistic basis of host-directed

activity of sertraline and distinguishing it from ineffective CADs, our work provides a mechanistic

framework for developing cholesterol-modulating host-directed adjuncts to improve TB treatment

outcomes.

Graphical abstract: SRT induced lysosomal cholesterol accumulation results in enhanced

bacterial control via inflammasome activation

Introduction:

Tuberculosis (TB), caused by *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), remains the leading cause of death from a single infectious agent globally, outpacing all other bacterial and viral pathogens (1-3). The multiple initiatives to curb the infection have not been successful enough to eradicate the disease, instead have led to an increase in drug resistance in the population (4, 5). These limitations have spurred an interest in therapeutic strategies designed to aid the host in controlling infection. Such host-directed therapies (HDTs) have relied on harnessing the cellular physiological pathways to enhance antimicrobial properties (6-8). We have previously shown that sertraline (SRT), a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI), can act as a potent adjunct to standard anti-TB therapy (ATT), accelerating bacterial clearance, improving tissue resolution, and enhancing host survival in preclinical infection models (9). These properties are associated with the restriction of type I IFN responses via the activation of the host inflammasome pathway, thus defining the therapeutic potential of manipulating host immunity for infection control (10).

Recent findings strongly advocate for the influence of host sterol metabolism in regulating the inflammatory capacity of innate immune cells (11-13). More importantly, oxysterols have emerged as promoters of the pro-inflammatory capacity of macrophages (14, 15). Recently, SREBP2, the master regulator of cellular cholesterol metabolism has been associated with the direct activation of the host cell inflammasomes via the NLRP3 axis (16).

Here, we demonstrate that the ability of SRT to adjunctively augment intracellular bacterial control with frontline TB drugs is contingent on the significant alteration of macrophage cholesterol homeostasis. We demonstrate that treatment with SRT leads to a significant increase in intracellular cholesterol levels in Mtb-infected macrophages. We sought to investigate the mechanistic basis and consequence of this increase on bacterial growth control by employing chemical modulation and gene silencing, and demonstrate that the SRT induces significant cholesterol buildup in the macrophage lysosomes, resulting in distinct membrane permeabilization (LMP) and mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) production. We thus

highlight a novel connection between cellular sterol homeostasis and the inflammasome mediated

IL1β release in Mtb-infected macrophages. Taken together, our findings provide a strong

mechanistic link between the cellular metabolic machinery (cholesterol metabolism) and

antimicrobial efficacy. This work offers both conceptual and translational insights into leveraging

host metabolism as a host-directed therapeutic strategy to improve TB treatment outcomes.

Results:

Treatment with sertraline increases cellular cholesterol in macrophages

In an attempt to decipher the underlying mechanism for sertraline- mediated increase of antibiotic

efficacy in Mtb infections, global expression profiles of Mtb-infected THP1 macrophages with a

combination of isoniazid (H) and rifampicin (R) with (SRT) were compared with HR-treated cells.

A total of 160 genes of cholesterol homeostasis were differentially upregulated on treatment with

HRS (HR with SRT) when compared to HR treatment (Figure 1A). Interestingly, cholesterol

homeostasis emerged as the most significantly enhanced metabolic pathway along with an

increase in the mTORC1 signaling complex in macrophages treated with HRS (Figure 1B). In fact,

HRS-treated macrophages displayed a significant increase in the expression of genes involved

in cholesterol biosynthesis (Figure 1C) and import, with the markedly lower expression of sterol

export genes (Figure 1D). A similar pattern was reflected in SRT or HRS-treated macrophages

by qRT-PCR. While infection or treatment with HR failed to alter the expression of genes involved

in cholesterol metabolism, genes involved in biosynthesis and import were 3-5-fold higher with

treatment with HRS or SRT at 24 h of infection (Figure 1E). This increment in gene expression

reflected as an SRT-dependent 1.2-1.5-fold increase in intracellular cholesterol (Figure 1F). To

specifically inhibit cholesterol biosynthesis, we employed a pharmacological inhibitor of *HMGCR*,

simvastatin. Contrary to our expectations of diminishing antibiotic efficacy, the addition of

simvastatin significantly enhanced the control of Mtb by antibiotics by 3-5-fold in comparison to

the cells treated with HR or HRS alone (Figure 1G). Previous reports have suggested that statins,

in turn, can enhance expression of genes in cholesterol biosynthesis (17), we also tested for the

gene expression following treatment with statins. Treatment with simvastatin induced the

expression of the genes of the biosynthetic pathway as well as genes of cholesterol import. Also,

a decrease in the cholesterol export genes has been observed with simvastatin treatment (Figure

1H). This suggested that the increased involvement of the pathway may be crucial in enhancing

bacterial control by SRT.

Figure 1

Figure 1: Global transcriptomics of Mtb-infected macrophages following treatment with sertraline.

A) A comparison of the differentially expressed genes in Mtb-infected macrophages following an 18 h treatment with HR or HRS is shown as a volcano plot. Y- and X-axes denote the $-\log_{10}$ P values and $\log_2$ fold change, respectively. The upregulated genes with ≥ 2 fold

change with p-value of ≤ 0.01 are highlighted in orange, while the downregulated genes

with ≤ -2 fold change with p-value of ≤ 0.01 are in blue.

B) GSEA analysis of the top significantly enriched gene sets in HRS vs HR is represented as

a bubble plot. Gene sets that are significantly (P-value ≤ 0.05, 0.01) enriched (Blue) or

downregulated (green) are represented, with the X-axis denoting the normalized

enrichment score.

C-E) Gene expression patterns in HR and HRS-treated macrophages: Expression of genes

involved in cholesterol biosynthesis (C) and cholesterol trafficking (D), normalised to the

untreated controls in the RNA-seq data was validated by gene-specific qRT-PCR (E). The

relative expression of specific genes relative to *GAPDH* is represented as fold change w.r.t

uninfected control (UI) at 6h $\pm$ SEM of triplicate assays from 3 independent experiments

(N=3).

F) Cholesterol levels in THP1 macrophages after treatment with sertraline (SRT) for 24 hours.

Total free cholesterol was normalized to the amount of protein and is represented as mean

± SEM for triplicate assays of three independent experiments (N=3).

G) Growth of Mtb in HR or HRS treated macrophages that were treated with 10µM simvastatin

(ST) for 3 days. Bacterial numbers are represented as mean $\log_{10}$ CFU ± SEM from

triplicate assays of three or four independent experiments (N = 3 or 4).

H) Effect of simvastatin on the expression of genes for biosynthesis (HMGCR, MVK, DHCR7),

import (LDLR), and export (ABCA1) of cholesterol in Mtb-infected macrophages, after 18

h of treatment. The relative expression of specific genes, normalized to GAPDH, is

represented as the fold change ± SEM of triplicate assays from three independent

experiments (N = 3).

P values less than 0.05, 0.01, 0.005 are represented as *, ** and *** respectively.

Lysosomal cholesterol accumulation is crucial for Mtb control in macrophages

Cholesterol levels in different subcellular locations are tightly regulated to maintain a steady state

in cells. To test the effect of increased cellular cholesterol on intracellular distribution,

macrophages were stained with the cholesterol specific dye- filipin and visualized by fluorescence

microscopy. While filipin staining was primarily concentrated on the membranes of untreated (UT)

cells with minimal staining within, treatment with SRT severely impacted intracellular sterol levels,

with cells displaying significantly higher intracellular staining in addition to the membrane (Figure

2A).

To further identify the intracellular niche of the accumulated cholesterol, cells fed with NBD-

cholesterol were stained with the lysotracker that labels acidic compartments consistent with the

lysosomes. While in the untreated cells, minimal levels of NBD-cholesterol co-localized with

lysotracker, the majority of the internalized cholesterol in SRT-treated cells was found to be

accumulated in these compartments, indicating a pronounced accumulation of cholesterol in the

acidic lysotracker positive compartments corresponding to lysosomes with SRT treatment (Figure

2B, C).

In order to understand if this increase in cholesterol biosynthesis was a generic property of SSRIs,

another widely used antidepressant, citalopram, was tested for its ability to control intracellular

bacterial growth. Surprisingly, the addition of citalopram to the frontline TB drugs-HR did not affect

bacterial control in macrophages, unlike the increased control of infection by HRS in comparison

to the antibiotics alone (Figure 2D). Remarkably, unlike SRT, citalopram induced only a modest

and heterogeneous increase in lysosomal cholesterol accumulation, with the effect restricted to a

small subset of cells, and did not enhance expression of the genes involved in cholesterol

biosynthesis (Figure 2E, F).

Figure 2

Figure 2: Sertraline treated macrophages accumulate lysosomal cholesterol.

A-C) Cholesterol quantitation in THP1 macrophages after SRT treatment for 24 h.   A)

Representative confocal images of two independent cells (i and ii) stained for cholesterol with

filipin and quantitated densitometrical (box). B) Representative confocal images of cells fed

with NBD-cholesterol and stained with lysotracker Red and Hoechst 33342 were imaged and

quantitated for the extent of colocalization of the NBD-cholesterol and lysotracker positive

compartments and is depicted as mean % co-localization from multiple fields of three

independent experiments. Scale bar = 10μm/ 20μm.

D) Intracellular bacterial growth was estimated in Mtb–infected THP1 macrophages left untreated

(NT) or treated with (HR alone or HRC (HR in combination with 20 μM citalopram (CIT)) for 3

days. The data are represented as mean $\log_{10}$ values ± SEM from triplicate assays of four

independent experiments (N = 4).

E) Representative confocal images of THP1 macrophages treated with citalopram (CIT) along

with NBD-cholesterol for 24 hours and stained with lysotracker Red, and the colocalization

percentage is calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar = 20μm.

F) Gene expression levels in macrophages infected with Mtb, followed by treatment with HR alone

or with citalopram. The relative expression of the specific gene, relative to GAPDH, is represented

as fold change with respect to HR ± SEM of triplicate assays from three independent experiments

(N=3).

P values less than 0.05, 0.01, 0.005 are represented as *, ** and *** respectively.

Sertraline enhances SREBP2 processing in macrophages

The feedback activation of SREBP2 in response to the absence of cholesterol sensing in the ER

on account of lysosomal accumulation is well documented (18, 19). To assess whether SRT

activates the signaling cascade, levels of mature SREBP2 (mSREBP2) were measured in

macrophages following SRT treatment. Indeed, commensurate with the significant induction of

the SREBF2 gene in HRS-treated macrophages, in both the global transcriptomic data and with

qRT-PCR analysis, macrophages treated with SRT harbored ~2-fold higher levels of the cleaved,

active form of SREBP2 (mSREBP2) by 24h compared to the untreated cells (Figure 3A-D). The

relatively unchanged levels of mSREBP2 in both untreated and citalopram treated cells, lend

further support to the importance of this signaling axis in the antibiotic potentiating effect of SRT

(Figure 3 E, F).

Figure 3

Figure 3: Sertraline enhances SREBP2 processing in macrophages.

A -B) Expression levels of *SREB*F2 in the global transcriptomic analysis dataset (A) or quantified

by qRT-PCR (B) in Mtb-infected macrophages left untreated (NT) or treated with HR, HRS, or

SRT for 18h. The relative expression of specific genes relative to *GAPDH* is represented as fold

change $\pm$ SEM of triplicate assays of three independent experiments (N=3).

C-F) The levels of SREBP2 in protein extracts of macrophages left untreated, treated with SRT

(C) or 20µM of citalopram (E) for 24 hours were checked by immunoblotting with specific

antibodies for SREBP2 and β-actin and quantified by densitometry (D, F). The reactivity for

SREBF2 in cells relative to β-actin was quantified in three independent experiments (N=3) and is

represented as mean $\pm$ SEM.

P values less than 0.05, 0.01 and 0.005 are represented as *, ** and *** respectively.

SREBP2 processing is critical for controlling intracellular Mtb growth:

SREBP2 activation is regulated by multiple feedback mechanisms; typically, cholesterol and

oxysterols have been shown to downregulate this process by modulating the SCAP-SREBP2

egress to the Golgi (20). To test the importance of SREBP2 activation on Mtb control,

macrophages were treated with cholesterol exogenously to inhibit SREBP2 processing and tested

for their ability to control Mtb growth in the presence of HR or HRS. Addition of cholesterol

significantly inhibited SREBP2 processing (2-fold) (Figure 4A, Figure S1A) and resulted in a

significant reversal (5-fold) of the effect of SRT on antibiotic potentiation (Figure 4B). Further, the

inhibition of SREBP2 activation with a specific S2P protease inhibitor- 1,10-phenanthroline,

resulted in a partial but significant reversal of bacterial control by SRT (3-4-fold higher bacterial

numbers than HRS alone) (Figure 4C). To further test the relevance of SREBP2 processing,

macrophages deficient in the SREBP2 cleavage activation protein (SCAP) were tested for their

ability to restrict Mtb growth. As expected, THP1 cells with >50% silencing of *SCAP* with specific

shRNAs displayed significantly lower levels of mature SREBP2 in comparison to the cells treated

with scrambled shRNAs (SCR) (Figure 4D-F). Consistent with the inhibition of S2P, silencing of

SCAP reduced the effectiveness of SRT on Mtb control without affecting the uptake of bacteria

(Figure 4G). As observed in Figure 4G, SCAP-silenced macrophages harbored significantly 3-4-

fold higher bacterial numbers than the control cells. Even in the untreated cells, loss of SCAP

severely impaired the ability to control Mtb with nearly 3-fold higher CFU in the SCAP-deficient

cells than in the control (Inset, Figure 4H), corroborating the requirement of SREBP2 maturation

in

Mtb

Figure 4

285   control by macrophages.

Figure 4: SREBP2 processing is critical for controlling intracellular Mtb growth.

A) The levels of SREBP2 in cell extracts of macrophages treated with 20µg/ml of cholesterol for 24 h were analysed by immunoblotting. The levels of β-actin were used as the control values for the comparison.

B-C) The intracellular bacterial growth was estimated in Mtb-infected macrophages that were either untreated or treated with (B) cholesterol or (C)- 0.5 mM of 1,10-phenanthroline (P) for 1 hour. This was followed by treatment with HR and HRS alone, in combination with cholesterol, which was replenished every 24 hours in the LPDS media, or with 1,10-phenanthroline. The data is represented as mean $\log_{10}$ values ± SEM from triplicate assays of four independent experiments (N = 4).

(D) Evaluation of gene expression levels in *SCAP-silenced* macrophages. The relative expression of the *SCAP* is represented as fold change ± SEM w.r.t. scrambled control in triplicate assays from three independent experiments (N=3).

(E) Estimation of mature SREBP2 in protein extracts of *SCAP-silenced* cells by immunoblotting with specific antibodies for SREBP2 and β-actin. The protein marker used is Prestained Protein ladder (MBT092).

(F) Densitometric quantification of the reactivity for SREBP2 in cells relative to β-actin of six independent experiments (N=6) is represented as mean $\pm$ SEM.

(G) Bacterial uptake in *SCAP-silenced* cells compared to scrambled control after 6 hours of incubation with Mtb at MOI 5.

(H) Intracellular growth of Mtb is depicted in untreated (NT) (inset) or HRS-treated *SCAP-silenced* cells. The data are represented as mean $\log_{10}$ values ± SEM from triplicate assays of three independent experiments (N = 3).

SRT recapitulates key features of NPC1 inhibition in macrophages.

A similar phenotype of organellar sterol accumulation, specifically in the endosomal-lysosomal

compartments, is a characteristic feature of NPC1 mutation/ deficiency in the human population

(21, 22). A strong binding of SRT and the related antidepressant – indatraline, with the N-terminal

domain of NPC-1, has been shown to cause accumulation of cholesterol in lysosomes (23). In

order to investigate the relevance of this mechanism, a computational structural analysis using

ligand docking for SRT with NPC-1 was performed. The well-established cargo for NPC1-

cholesterol, resulted in the identification of a prominent cluster of docked poses with 88% of the

docked poses and a mean binding energy of -10.68 kcal/mol (Figure 5A). Having established the

correct binding pose, the binding of SRT was tested. Docking of sertraline in the same framework

indicated that the docked poses clustered into 2 prominent different clusters, with the top-ranked

cluster comprising 56% of the poses, a mean binding energy of -8.28 and -8.13 kcal/mol (Figure

5B). Similar to cholesterol, SRT is also stabilized by hydrophobic interactions and hydrogen

bonds, forming a stable protein-ligand complex with a defined pose, indicating its ability to bind to

NPC1.

Given its inability to impact lysosomal cholesterol distribution, the other SSRI, citalopram, was

evaluated for its ability to bind to NPC-1. In contrast to cholesterol and SRT, the docked poses

were found to be distributed across six different clusters, with the top-ranked cluster comprising

32% of the docked poses (mean binding energy = -7.67 kcal/mol), indicating the absence of a

defined pose for citalopram in the NPC1 site, suggestive of poor binding to NPC-1 (Figure 5C).

To test the relevance of this binding on bacterial control, the specific inhibitor, U18666A, was

tested for its NPC-1 binding capacity and the ability to enhance antibiotic efficacy in macrophages.

Surprisingly, U18666A also bound specifically to the same binding pocket as cholesterol with a

prominent cluster comprising 92% of the docked poses, having a mean binding energy of -9.66

kcal/mol (Figure 5D) (Interactions listed in Suppl table S1). The binding energies computed for

the best docked poses of the ligands, cholesterol, and U18666A indicate high affinities in both

cases (binding energies -10.82 kcal/mol and -9.71 kcal/mol, respectively), possibly due to the

stabilization by a large number of hydrophobic interactions. While the best docked poses of SRT

also indicated a high affinity (binding energy –8.31 kcal/mol), citalopram bound NPC1 at a lower

affinity of -7.88 kcal/mol (Figure 5E).

In addition, Citalopram had a higher torsional penalty than SRT, lending it a poorer ligand to NPC1

as compared to sertraline (Figure 5F). Further analysis of cholesterol levels in U18666A-treated

macrophages revealed a pronounced accumulation in the lysotracker positive compartments with

the consequent SREBP2 processing and activation, with an enhanced expression of the

cholesterol biosynthetic machinery similar to SRT (Figure 5G, H, S1B). To verify the importance

of increased SREBP2 processing in Mtb control, the effect of antibiotics was tested in cells treated

with U18666A. Addition of U18666A to the frontline TB drugs -HR resulted in a 3-4-fold better

control of Mtb in macrophages by day 3 of infection, emphasizing the relevance of lysosomal

cholesterol loading in bacterial control (Figure 5I). To simulate conditions of enhanced cholesterol

biosynthesis via increased SREBP2 activation, we resorted to silencing INSIG1, the inhibitor of

SCAP-SREBP2 translocation for processing and activation at the Golgi, and observed a

significant (>60%) decrease in the levels of INSIG1 expression (Figure 5J). However, we did not

observe any detectable change in the levels of mature SREBP2 in these macrophages (Figure

S1C). As an alternative, macrophages were treated with brefeldin A (BFA) to facilitate constitutive

proteolysis and activation of SREBP2 due to the collapse of the ER-Golgi network(24). In sync

with our expectations, the addition of BFA significantly increased the expression of active

SREBP2 in macrophages (2-fold- Figure 5K, Figure S1D) that reflected as a 3-4-fold decrease in

bacterial numbers in HR treated cells, further emphasizing the importance of SRT-mediated

increase in SREBP2 activation in the ability of macrophages to restrict bacteria (Figure 5L).

Figure 5

Figure 5: SRT treatment phenocopies NPC1 deficiency.

A-D) The best docked poses for Cholesterol (A), Sertraline (B), Citalopram (C), and U18666A (D), having the lowest binding energy. Bar plots represent the clusters of docked poses and binding sites (Mean binding energy (kcal/mol) for each cluster is mentioned at the top of the bar). Grey dotted line: hydrophobic interactions, blue solid line: hydrogen bonds, green dotted line: pi-pi stacking.

E-F) The bar plots represent the overall binding energy of each ligand (E), and (F) shows the breakdown of the overall binding energy into intermolecular energy and torsional penalty components.

G) The localization of cholesterol was analyzed in cells treated with 2.5 µg/ml of the NPC1

inhibitor- U18666A (U18). The extent of colocalization of NBD-cholesterol and lysosomes

(lysotracker) in macrophages was quantified and is expressed as percent co-localization from

three independent experiments (N=3) (inset). Scale bar = 20µm.

H) The extent of mature SREBP2 was evaluated in macrophages left untreated or treated with

U18666A by immunoblotting and densitometric analysis of the lysates. Levels of β-actin

expression were used as the control. The relative levels of mSREBP2 in SRT-treated cells (w.r.t.

untreated) are represented as relative mean expression $\pm$ SEM from six independent

experiments, as shown in the box (N=6).

I) Growth of Mtb in macrophages that were left untreated or treated with HR alone or in combination

with U18666A and HRS for 3 days. The CFU numbers are represented as mean $\log_{10}$ values ±

SEM from triplicate assays of four independent experiments (N = 4).

J) Expression of *INSIG1* gene was quantified by qRT-PCR. *GAPDH* expression values were used

as controls for normalization. The relative expression in the *INSIG1* silenced cells was compared

with the scrambled control and is represented as Rel. fold change mean ± SEM of triplicate assays

from three independent experiments (N=3).

K) The levels of mature SREBP2 or β- actin were analyzed by specific immunoblotting of the

protein lysates from *INSIG1-silenced* macrophages (Upper panel) and in THP1 macrophages left

untreated or treated with 3µg/ml BFA (Lower panel). Levels of β-actin expression were used as

the control.

L) Growth of Mtb in macrophages left untreated or treated with HR, HRS alone, or in combination

with brefeldin A (BFA) for 3 days. The CFU numbers are represented as mean $\log_{10}$ values ± SEM

from triplicate assays of three independent experiments (N = 3).

P values less than 0.05, 0.01, and 0.005 are represented as *, ** and ***, respectively.

Loss of lysosomal integrity couples SRT-mediated cholesterol accumulation with activation of inflammasomes.

Accumulation of cholesterol in lysosomes has been associated with a significant damage to the lysosomal membrane, resulting in the formation of pores, a process called lysosomal membrane permeabilization (LMP) (23, 25). This loss of membrane integrity is rapidly repaired by the recruitment of the ESCRT complex via the lectin-galectin 3 (26). Treatment with SRT significantly induced the expression of *LGALS3* in Mtb infected macrophages (Figure 6A-B). To check if SRT compromised the membrane integrity of lysosomes, cells expressing GFP-tagged galectin 3 were treated with

SRT. As observed in Figure 6C, galectin3 was distributed uniformly in the untreated cells, in contrast to the punctate signal in the cells treated with LLOme, a dipeptide documented to induce lysosomal damage (27). Interestingly, SRT- treated cells also displayed punctate signals, unlike the treatment with citalopram (Figure 6D), suggestive of extensive lysosomal damage. A close connect between the host lysosomal cholesterol levels and mitochondrial function has been established (28-30). Accumulation of cholesterol in the lysosomes has been associated with altered

 mitochondrial physiology, exacerbated ROS production, and disorders (31-34). Given our previous observation for an important role for inflammasome activation by SRT (9) via the induction of mitochondrial ROS (10) and an elegant study by Guo et.al, 2018, establishing a direct link between the activation of SREBP2 and inflammasome induction (35), the role of cholesterol accumulation by SRT as a putative cause of inflammasome activation was evaluated in Mtb infections. In line with our previous studies, while SRT induces significant ROS, citalopram failed to activate mitochondrial ROS in macrophages (Figure 6E-G). A direct link between the host cell cholesterol accumulation, increased SREBP2 processing, and inflammasome activity was probed in cells by estimating the levels of IL1β secretion in the different macrophages. Inhibition of SRT-mediated SREBP2 maturation in SCAP-deficient cells reduced the secreted IL1β levels (Figure

438   6H). This study firmly establishes the importance of the affinity of cationic amphiphilic drugs to

439   the NPC1 protein in augmenting bacterial control, thereby providing a novel target for the future

440   development of host-directed therapy against infections.

Figure 6

Figure 6: SRT-induced lysosomal cholesterol accumulation induces macrophage inflammasome

(A-B) Gene expression of *LGALS3* (A) in the transcriptomics data and quantified by qRT-PCR (B)

in the Mtb-infected macrophages after 18 hours of treatment with HR, HRS, and SRT. The relative

expression of specific genes relative to *GAPDH* is represented as fold change $\pm$ SEM of triplicate

assays of three independent experiments (N=3).

(C) Representative images of macrophages overexpressing GFP-tagged galectin 3 protein

treated with SRT for 24 hours or LLOme for 15 min and stained with lysotracker Red. Boxes

indicate insets, magnified on the right. Scale bar = 10µm.

(D) Images after citalopram treatment for 24h in GFP-tagged galectin3 overexpressing

macrophages. The inset represents the zoom-in. Scale bar = 10µm.

(E-G) Representative images showing mitoSox staining after treatment with sertraline (SRT),

citalopram (CIT), U18666A (U18), and rotenone (ROT) as the positive control for mitochondrial

ROS induction. The extent of ROS was quantified after 24 h (F) and 48 h (G) of treatment and is

represented as arbitrary fluorescence units (AFU) from ~ 800 cells of three independent

experiments (N=3).

(H) IL-1β levels in the supernatants of Mtb-infected SCR and *SCAP-silenced* cells following

treatment with HR or HRS, compared to the untreated group.

P values less than 0.05, 0.01 and 0.005 are represented as *, ** and *** respectively.

Discussion:

Infection control by innate immune cells is a complex process with the involvement of multiple

modalities, intertwining metabolic and inflammatory response pathways to ensure pathogen

removal (36, 37). The complexity only increases with the pathogen adept at modifying signaling

cascades and occupying intracellular niches that are designed for infection control (38, 39). The

incidence of TB, particularly, has been strongly associated with severe malnutrition(38, 39).

Epidemiological data suggest a strong inverse correlation between serum cholesterol levels and

TB incidence and mortality, with TB patients displaying severe hypocholesterolemia (40-42). In

fact, the enhanced levels of sputum sterilization in a small set of pulmonary TB patients on a

cholesterol-rich diet only highlight the importance of improving sterol levels for improved treatment

outcomes(43). Recent studies have also implicated a significant role of cholesterol and its

derivatives in dictating macrophage response dynamics (44, 45). In line with these observations,

we identified an important role for the host cell cholesterol metabolic pathway in the antibiotic-

mediated potentiation of Mtb control by SRT.

In this context, we demonstrate that SRT treatment enhances macrophage cholesterol

biosynthesis programs through robust activation of the SREBP2 processing, leading to elevated

intracellular cholesterol. We reasoned that altering the cholesterol biosynthetic pathway in

macrophages would modulate the effects of sertraline. To our surprise, sertraline activity

remained unaltered even in conditions of restricted biosynthesis via statins (46). Contrary to our

expectations, SRT treatment in the presence of statins increased the expression of the cholesterol

biosynthetic genes in macrophages, resulting in enhanced effect of antibiotics in controlling

infection, implying the compensatory activation of alternative pathways to maintain homeostasis

of cholesterol in cells. Notably, the SREBP2 axis emerged as a critical focal point connecting

cholesterol metabolism and infection control in macrophages. In concordance with recent studies

that suggest a direct role for statins, we also observed significant activation of SREBP2 with SRT

treatment in macrophages is consistent with increased bacterial control (47-49). However, both

genetic perturbation (silencing *SCAP*) and pharmacological activation (BFA), but not silencing of

INSIG1 (induced by SRT in macrophages), confirmed the essential role of this pathway in SRT-

mediated Mtb restriction.

Our data relates the altered cholesterol trafficking and storage as vital mediators of SRT function.

Recently, TMEM97, a cholesterol-responsive NPC1-binding protein, has been implicated in

cholesterol trafficking between lysosomes and ER; RNA-interference mediated restraint of

TMEM97 reduces lysosomal lipid storage and restores cholesterol levels in the ER in cell models

of NPC1 (50). SRT-treated macrophages with increased expression of TMEM97 (Data not shown)

resonate with phenotypes of Niemann-Pick type C disease, with cholesterol-laden lysosomes and

disrupted ER-lysosome crosstalk. Along similar lines, treatment with the potent NPC1 inhibitor

U18666A induced significant dysregulation of cholesterol trafficking from lysosomes to the

endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Consistent with this, cells treated with either SRT or U18666A but

not with citalopram exhibited markedly enlarged lysosomes, indicative of cholesterol

accumulation.

This lysosomal sequestration appears to be a key trigger for downstream immune responses.

Oxysterols, particularly 25-hydroxy cholesterol (25HC), a dominant negative regulator of

cholesterol biosynthesis (51)acts as a dampener of inflammation, preventing the overstimulation

of macrophages by downregulating cholesterol biosynthesis and SREBP2 processing, in addition

to activating the esterification of excess free cholesterol (52, 53). 25HC is documented to protect

macrophages against mitochondria induced NLRP3 inflammasome activation with ch25h^{-/-}

macrophages the gene encoding for 25HC, elaborating significantly high levels of IL1β in

response to LPS stimulation (54, 55). Mitochondrial ROS, SCAP-SREBP2, and the *FASN*

effectively mediate NLRP3-mediated inflammasome activation in cells (35, 56, 57). Reduced

expression of *CH25H* (2-fold) and upregulation of *FASN* (~ 3-fold) suggest a coordinated

suppression of anti-inflammatory oxysterol signaling and a shift towards an activated inflammatory

state. This metabolic-inflammatory axis distinguishes SRT from related SSRIs such as citalopram,

which lacks these effects. In contrast, citalopram had an insignificant effect on these processes,

thereby validating the critical role of host cell cholesterol metabolism in macrophage-mediated

control of Mtb. These findings further support a model in which host cell cholesterol metabolism

plays a critical role in regulating mitochondrial stress and inflammasome activation, thereby

contributing to macrophage-mediated control of Mtb.

Further, the observed increase in assembly of galectin 3 close to the lysosomes in SRT-treated

macrophages advocates for extensive lysosomal membrane permeabilization (LMP) as a result

of lysosomal cholesterol accumulation, which is a property of lysosomotrophic molecules like

cationic amphiphilic drugs (CADs) (58). While similar effects were observed with SRT and

U18666A, with strong experimental evidence as a CAD, citalopram, a less well-documented

cationic amphiphile, failed to bind to NPC-1 protein directly to induce cholesterol accumulation

and resultant LMP.

Our findings advance a previously understudied axis of reprogramming macrophage cholesterol

metabolism and the consequent induction of a lysosomal stress response that enhances

inflammasome activation and bacterial clearance (as seen with SRT). While we effectively

establish a direct correlation between the induced LMP and the subsequent activation of

mitochondrial ROS, in line with previous reports (59, 60), a detailed analysis of the molecular

mechanism by which SRT and U18666A mediates LMP-induced mitochondrial ROS activation

will be part of a comprehensive future manuscript. While one can envisage a possible contribution

also of accumulated cholesterol in altering the intracellular distribution of frontline TB drugs,

leading to enhanced bacterial control, these will be part of future work and communications.

Our current findings thus emphasize the significance of evaluating host metabolic programs for

the design of future adjunct therapies for infection control, specifically in the population cohorts

with malnutrition and dyslipidemia. Taken together, our work integrates lipid metabolism and

innate immune signaling and places host cholesterol metabolism as a crucial determinant of TB

pathogenesis and treatment outcome.

Author contribution

KB and VR were instrumental in the design of the work. KB, RS, NB, JK, MM, and DS were

involved in the conduct of the work. SJ and SB were involved in the analysis of the transcriptome

high throughput data. None of the authors have any conflict of interest.

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Figure S1

A) The extent of SREBP2 activation was evaluated in macrophages left untreated or treated

with cholesterol for 24h by immunoblotting and densitometric analysis of the lysates. Levels

of β- actin expression were used as the control. The relative levels of mSREBP2 in

cholesterol-treated cells (w.r.t. untreated) are represented as relative mean expression $\pm$

SEM from three independent experiments, is shown in the box (N=3).

B) Expression of genes for cholesterol biosynthesis was quantified by qRT-PCR in the Mtb-

infected macrophages left untreated or after 18 hours of treatment with HR with and without

U8666A (UA). The relative expression of specific genes relative to GAPDH is represented as

fold change + SEM of triplicate assays of three independent experiments (N=3).

C, D) The extent of SREBP2 activation was evaluated in SCR or *INSIG1-silenced*

macrophages (C) or left untreated or treated with 3µg/ml brefeldin A (D) for 24h by

immunoblotting and densitometric analysis of the lysates. Levels of β-actin expression were

used as the control. The relative levels of mSREBP2 in cells (w.r.t. untreated) are represented

as relative mean expression $\pm$ SEM from three independent experiments, as shown in the

box (N=3).

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612 **Table S1 : Binding interactions predicted for the best docked poses of each ligand**
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Cholesterol		
Amino acid	**Ligand atom**	**Distance in Å**
Hydrophobic interactions		
PHE86	C19	3.73
L154	C25	3.64
W167	C27	3.68
Y170	C24	3.98
M171	C18	3.35
N176	C21	3.67
Q178	C21	3.51
A179	C12	3.18
F181	C2	3.95
I183	C2	3.33
Hydrogen bonds		
T90	O1	2.80
U18666A		
Amino acid	**Ligand atom**	**Distance in Å**
Hydrophobic interactions		
W5	C13	3.86
Q57	C16	3.16
T60	C16	3.54

L61	C15	3.51
N64	C23	3.88
L65	C23	3.77
F86	C23	3.48
F86	C3	3.34
F86	C7	3.59
T90	C11	3.37
A179	C25	3.99
F181	C14	3.91
I183	C6	3.27
Hydrogen bonds		
N19	O2	1.86

Sertraline		
Amino acid	**Ligand atom**	**Distance in Å**
Hydrophobic interactions		
N64	C8	3.73
L65	C8	3.13
P68	C9	3.26
F86	C7	3.08
Q178	C3	3.74
Hydrogen bonds		
A64	N11	1.99
Citalopram		

Amino acid	Ligand atom	Distance in Å
Hydrophobic interactions		
L61	C17	3.30
N64	C15	3.85
L65	C13	3.81
F86	C18	3.23
F86	C10	3.56
F86	C15	3.34
A179	C09	3.52
Hydrogen bonds		
T90	N04	2.35
pi-pi stacking		
F86		3.95

615 **KEY RESOURCE TABLE**

REAGENT or RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Rabbit polyclonal anti- SREBP2	Invitrogen	Cat# PA1-338
Mouse monoclonal anti-β-actin	Santa Cruz biotechnology	Cat#sc-47778
Bacterial and virus strains		

Mtb Erdman strain	Animal passaged strain EF2	NA
Chemicals, peptides, and recombinant proteins		
HiGlutaXL-RPMI-1640	Himedia	Cat# AL060G
DMEM high glucose	Himedia	Cat# AL007A
Sodium pyruvate	Himedia	Cat# TCL015
Fetal bovine serum	Himedia	Cat# RM9955
Fetal bovine serum lipid depleted	Biowest	Cat# S180L
Phorbol 12-Mysristate 13-acetate(PMA)	SIGMA	Cat# P8139
Ethambutol dihydrochloride	SIGMA	Cat# E4630
Isoniazid	SIGMA	Cat# I3377
Rifampicin	Himedia	Cat# CMS1889
Pyrazinamide carboxamide	SIGMA	Cat# P7136
Sertraline	SIGMA	Cat# S6319
Citalopram hydrobromide	SIGMA	Cat#C7861
U18666A	SIGMA	Cat#U3633
Simvastatin	SIGMA	Cat#S6196
Cholesterol	SIGMA	Cat#C3045
1,10 Phenanthroline	SIGMA	Cat#131377
Brefeldin A	Invitrogen	Cat#00450651
NBD- cholesterol	Avanti	Cat# 810250P
LysoTracker Red DND-99	Invitrogen	Cat#L7528
Hoechst 33342	Gift	NA

Filipin III readymade solution	SIGMA	Cat# SAE0087
Rotenone	SIGMA	Cat# R8875
MitoSox dye	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# M36008
Lipofectamine LTX reagent with Plus reagent	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 15338100
Puromycin dihydrochloride	Himedia	Cat# TC198
Cholroform EMPARTA grade	Merck	Cat# 1.07024.2500
Methanol HPLC grade	Merck	Cat# 60600725001730
16% methanol free formaldehyde	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Cat# 28908
Critical commercial assays		
BCA protein estimation kit	GBiosciences	Cat#786-571
Total cholesterol	Abcam	Cat#ab282928
Human IL-1β ELISA kit	BD	Cat#557953
ECL Western Blotting Substrate	Promega	Cat#W1015
Deposited data		

RNA sequencing	GEO database	GSE308209
Experimental models: Cell lines		
THP1/NT shRNA	This study	N/A
THP1/SCAP shRNA#1	This study	N/A
THP1/SCAP shRNA#2	This study	N/A
THP1/SCAP shRNA#3	This study	N/A
THP1/Insig1 shRNA#1	This study	N/A
THP1/Insig1 shRNA#2	This study	N/A
THP1/Insig1 shRNA#3	This study	N/A
THP1/GFP-tagged Gal3 overexpression	This study	N/A
Oligonucleotides		
Human *GAPDH* primer forward: 5'-GAAGGTGAAGGTCGGAGTC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *GAPDH* primer reverse: 5'-GAAGATGGTGATGGGATTTC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ACSS2* primer forward: 5'-CATCAGCTTCTGGTCCAAGTG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ACSS2* primer reverse: 5'-GCTGGAATCCAAGATCCGTTCAC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *HMGCS1* primer forward: 5'-CTCCCTGACGTGGAATGTCT-3'	This study	N/A

Human *HMGCS1* primer reverse: 5'-GAACTGTCTGCCCAGGTGAT-3'	This study	N/A
Human *HMGCR* primer forward: 5'-GACGTGAACCTATGCTGGTCAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *HMGCR* primer reverse: 5'-GGTATCTGTTTCAGCCACTAAGG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *MVK* primer forward: 5'-CACCTCAGAGCAAGTGGAGAAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *MVK* primer reverse: 5'-TGCTGCCAGACACACCGAGTAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *MVD* primer forward: 5'-CTCGGTGAAGTCCTTGCTGATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *MVD* primer reverse: 5'-AGCGCGATGAAGAGCTGGTTC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *IDI1* primer forward: 5'-CTCCTGGCAGAGATGTGTATCC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *IDI1* primer reverse: 5'-CGGCTGGATTGCTTAATGGATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *NSDHL* primer forward: 5'-GGATCGGTGGCTCTGGATTC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *NSDHL* primer reverse: 5'-GCAGAGGTCACCCAGAAAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SQLE* primer forward: 5'-CTCCAAGTTCAGGAAAAGCCTGC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SQLE* primer reverse:	This study	N/A

5'-GAGAACTGGACTCGGGTTAGCT-3'		
Human *CYP51A1* primer forward: 5'-CTCTTACCAGGTTGGCTGCCTT-3'	This study	N/A
Human *CYP51A1*primer reverse: 5'-CTTGAGACTGTCTGCGTTTCTGG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *DHCR7* primer forward: 5'-CAGCGCCAGAGACTGCAAA-3'	This study	N/A
Human *DHCR7* primer reverse: 5'-CAGCTTGAATCAAACCACTTCCC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *FDFT1* primer forward: 5'-TGTGACCTCTGAACAGGAGTGG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *FDFT1* primer reverse: 5'-CCCATAGAGTTGGCACGTTCTG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *LDLR* primer forward: 5'-CACGAAGTCAGGAAGATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *LDLR* primer reverse: 5'-GGGTGCTGCAGATCATTC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SREBF2* primer forward: 5'-GCTGCCAAGGAGAGTCTATAC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SREBF2* primer reverse: 5'-GGCCTGAGGTTTCACCAAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SCAP* primer forward: 5'-CAAGAACCTCCTGGCAGTAG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *SCAP* primer reverse: 5'-CATGGAAGCGTTCCCAGTC-3'	This study	N/A

Human *INSIG1* primer forward: 5'-TAGCCCTGGTGCTCAAC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *INSIG1* primer reverse: 5'-AGCACTGGCGTGGTTAATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *LGALS3* primer forward: 5'-GATGCGTTATCTGGGTCTGG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *LGALS3* primer reverse: 5'-GCACTTGGCTGTCCAGAAGATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ABCA1* primer forward: 5'-GATGCGTTATCTGGGTCTGG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ABCA1* primer reverse: 5'-GCACTTGGCTGTCCAGAAGATG-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ACAT1* primer forward: 5'-CAGTAACAGCTGCCAATGC-3'	This study	N/A
Human *ACAT1* primer reverse: 5'-GGTTCTACAGCAGCGTCAG-3'	This study	N/A
Recombinant DNA		
SCAP shRNA#1	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_227412984
SCAP shRNA#2	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_228955440
SCAP shRNA#3	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_228534848
Insig1 shRNA#1	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_227321339

Insig1 shRNA#2	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_228332166
Insig1 shRNA#3	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#V3SH11240_226630552
Non-targeting shRNA	Horizon (Dharmacon)	Cat#VSC11716
pcDNA-EF-Gal3_GFP	This study	
Software and algorithms		
ImageJ		https://imagej.net/ij/
GSEA		https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/index.jsp
Graphpad Prism	PRISM 10	licensed

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL DETAILS

CELL CULTURE

THP1 and THP1 dual monocytes purchased from ECACC were used in this study. Both THP1 and THP1 dual monocytes were cultured in RPMI 1640 containing 10% FBS and 1 mM sodium pyruvate at 37^0C in a 5% CO_2 humidified incubator. They were differentiated into macrophages using 100 nM Phorbol-13-myristate 13-acetate (PMA) for 24 hours, followed by media change. Following a resting period of 48 hours, cells were utilized for respective experiments.

BACTERIAL STRAINS AND MEDIA

Mtb Erdmann strain was grown in Middlebrook 7H9 medium with 4% Albumin-dextrose-saline Or Middlebrook 7H10 plates supplemented with 10% oleic acid-albumin-dextrose-catalase (OADC) at 37^0C. A final concentration of 0.05% Tween 80 was added to the liquid medium.

METHOD DETAILS

RNA sequencing and analysis:

Total RNA was isolated from the Mtb-infected macrophages after treatment with anti-TB drugs (Isoniazid and rifampicin) in the presence or absence of sertraline for 18 hours. Total RNA was used for stranded library preparation and paired-end clustering with 150bp x 2 end of sequencing performed on HiSeqX (Illumina) by Medgenome Labs. Raw and processed RNA-Seq data are openly available on GEO database (GSE308209). Quality check of raw sequenced reads was performed using Fastqc 0.12.1 and summarized with Multiqc 0.4. Adapters (Illumina universal adapters) and poor-quality bases were trimmed using Trimmomatic 0.39. The trimmed reads were aligned to the human genome gtf (v44) using Star (2.7.10b). Finally, the rawcounts matrix was generated using Subread 2.0.6. Differential gene expression analysis was conducted via edgeR3.42.4. Gene set enrichment analysis was used to compare datasets.

Quantitative PCR:

RNA was isolated using RNAzol (Sigma), and cDNA was synthesized using oligo-dT primers using Verso cDNA synthesis kit following the manufacturer's protocol. Quantitative PCR was performed using KAPA SYBR green (Sigma) on a LightCycler480 (Roche).

Total cholesterol estimation:

THP1 monocytes were seeded in a 24-well plate at a density of 0.5*10^6 cells. Cells after washing with 1X PBS were lysed in 100ul of 1% Triton X-100 for 20 mins on ice. Protein was estimated by the BCA protein estimation kit following the protocol given. For total lipid isolation, 400µL of chloroform: methanol (1:2) was added along with 100µL of 50 mM citric acid. The mix was vortexed and spun down. After the addition of 100µL of autoclaved water, the mix was vortexed and spun down, and finally, 100µL of chloroform was added. After centrifugation of the mix at 12000g for 10 minutes, the lower phase was collected and vacuum centrifuged for 30 minutes. The pellet was diluted in cholesterol assay buffer, and total cholesterol levels were assessed

using the Total Cholesterol & Cholesteryl Ester Colorimetric Assay Kit (ab282928) following the

recommended protocol. Values were normalized with the protein content.

Macrophage infection:

The Mtb culture was centrifuged and washed with PBST (1x PBS with 0.05% of Tween 80) twice,

and a single cell suspension was made after spinning down the culture at 800g for 10 minutes.

THP1 dual macrophages were infected for 6 hours at MOI5. After 6 hours, cells were washed

twice with 1X PBS, and appropriate cell culture media was added.

Intracellular bacterial growth assay:

THP1 dual monocytes were seeded in a 48-well plate at a density of 0.15 million cells. Cells were

differentiated into macrophages as indicated, and after a 48-hour resting period, cells were

infected with Mtb for 6 hours at MOI5. After stopping the infection, cells were treated with drugs

isoniazid (20ng/mL), rifampicin (100ng/mL), and sertraline (20µM) given in 10% FBS RPMI media.

At day 3 post-treatment, cells were lysed with water containing 0.05% Tween 80, and dilutions of

intracellular bacteria were made in PBST. The final diluted lysate was plated on 7H10 plates.

To restrict cholesterol uptake by the macrophages, treatment with TB drugs was given in RPMI

media supplemented with 10% Lipoprotein-deficient serum (LPDS).

For the cholesterol replenishment assay, Mtb-infected THP1 macrophages were treated with

cholesterol (2µg/ml) for an hour after infection, followed by incubation with anti-TB drugs in LPDS

medium, and further cholesterol was added every 24 hours.

Immunoblotting

THP1 dual macrophages were lysed in RIPA buffer along with a protease inhibitor cocktail.

Protein concentration was estimated by BCA assay, and 50µg of total protein was loaded per

sample in a 10% polyacrylamide gel. Protein was transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane, and

the membrane was blocked using a 5% BSA solution. The membrane was next incubated

overnight in anti-rabbit SREBP2 antibody, on shaking at 4°C. Next, the membrane was washed

thrice with PBST (1X PBS with 0.05% Tween 20) solution and incubated with HRP-conjugated

secondary antibody for an hour at room temperature. After washing with PBST, the membrane

was imaged using ImageQuant LAS 500. The protein markers used are Prestained Protein ladder

(MBT092) and puregene three color prestained protein ladder (PG- PMT2922).

Filipin Staining:

The THP1 macrophages were seeded in confocal chamber slides (1.5*10^4 cells per chamber)

and treated with sertraline at 20μM for 24 hours. Cells were washed twice with 1x PBS before

fixation with 4% methanol-free formaldehyde in 1X PHEM buffer for 20 mins at room temperature.

After an additional wash with 1x PBS, cells were stained with filipin staining solution (50ug/ml

diluted in 1x PBS) for an hour in the dark at room temperature. Next, the cells were washed with

1x PBS and imaged on a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope. Filipin was excited at

the 405nm laser.

Cholesterol compartmentalization assay:

THP1 monocytes were seeded at a density of 0.15 million cells in a four-chamber confocal dish

and differentiated as mentioned. The NBD-cholesterol at a final conc of 10μM was added for 24

hours along with the different compounds such as sertraline (20μM), citalopram (20μM), and

U18666A (2.5μg/ml). Before initiation of imaging, cells were stained with Lysotracker Red

(100nM) along with Hoechst dye for 1 hour in 10% FBS containing RPMI. Images were taken

using a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope.

Stable knockdown/overexpression cell line generation:

Lenti-X 293T cells were transfected with pVSVG and pDR8.2 plasmids together with lentiviral

constructs expressing gene-specific shRNA or non-targeting controls to generate viral particles.

After 6 hours of transfection, the media was changed to 2% FBS containing DMEM, and after 48

hours, the cell supernatant was collected and centrifuged at 100g for 5 minutes to remove cell

debris. Further, this supernatant was filtered through a 0.45μ syringe filter, and viral particles were

concentrated using a 30kDa centricon filter. For transduction in THP1 monocytes, 50,000 cells

were seeded in a 24-well plate, and 100μL of viral stock was added along with a final

concentration of 8µg/mL polybrene. After 24 hours media was changed, and antibiotic selection

was initiated after 48 hours of transduction with 0.6µg/mL of puromycin. Cells showing tRFP

fluorescence co-expressed with shRNA were checked regularly.

The hGal3 and eGFP are excised from the pEGFP-hGal3 plasmid using Nhe1, Nde1, and Msc1

restriction enzymes and ligated to Xba1 and Msc1 digested pcDNA 3.1 vector. The final plasmid

is transfected into THP1 monocytes using Lipofectamine LTX.

Computational assessment of NPC1- SSRI interactions:

A composite structure of NPC- 1 protein (cryo-EM, PDB IDL 6W5V) with the addition of missing

atoms (PDB Fixer) (61) and validated for structure quality by Procheck (62) for Ramachandran

parameters were used as a template for the analysis of interaction with SSRIs- Sertraline and

citalopram. Ligand structures of Cholesterol, U18666A, sertraline, and citalopram from the PDB

ligand library were converted from SDF to PDB format using OpenBabel (63)and used for docking

studies focused on the binding region reported earlier (23). The residues reported to interact with

sertraline were selected as the binding site region, with the centroid of the binding site used as

the center of the grid box with dimensions (40,40,40 npts) for docking analysis with 50 iterations

for each ligand by Autodock4.2 (64). The docked poses were clustered at the default value of

2.0Å RMSD, and the clusters were ranked based on the lowest binding energy in each cluster.

The binding energy is calculated in AutoDock as a semi-empirical function of intermolecular forces

such as Vanderwaals forces, hydrogen bonds, desolvation energy, electrostatic energy, and

torsional energies (65). The binding energy of the best docked pose, the mean binding energy of

the top cluster, and the total number of clusters were noted. The docked pose with the lowest

binding energy was visualised using PyMOL, and the protein-ligand interactions were predicted

using PLIP (66).

Galectin 3 puncta assessment:

GFP tagged galectin-3 overexpressing THP1 monocytes were seeded in a chambered confocal

dish and treated with sertraline (20µM) and citalopram (20µM) for 24 hours, and with 1mM LLOMe

for 15 minutes. Before imaging, cells were stained with Lyostracker Red and Hoechst for an hour.

Images were taken using a Leica SP8 laser scanning confocal microscope.

Mitochondrial ROS estimation:

THP1 dual cells were differentiated as indicated. Treatment was given with rotenone at 10µM for

30 minutes or with different indicated compounds. The cells were incubated with 5µM of MitoSox

dye for 30 minutes. After washing with 1X PBS, cells were imaged in the Invitrogen™ EVOS™

M5000 Imaging System.

ELISA:

THP1 dual macrophages were infected with Mtb at MOI5 and treated with different compounds.

Supernatant was collected at the indicated time points and filtered through a 0.2µ filter.

Concentration of IL-1β was determined using an ELISA kit following the recommended protocol.

Statistical analysis

The results are depicted as mean ± SEM. Statistical analysis was carried out using Student's t-

test (Welch's test or Mann-Whitney test) using GraphPad Prism. P values less than 0.05, 0.01,

0.005 are represented as *, ** and *** respectively.

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