Macrophage Cholesterol Homeostasis Underpins the role of Sertraline as an Adjunctive

Agent in Tuberculosis Therapy.

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Running Title: Cholesterol flux dictates bacterial control

Abstract:

An intricate relationship exists between metabolism and the macrophage response in controlling

intracellular pathogens such as Mycobacterium tuberculosis (Mtb). Here, we identify a

deterministic role for macrophage cholesterol metabolism in the efficacy of anti-tubercular therapy

(ATT). We found that sertraline (SRT), an FDA-approved antidepressant capable of enhancing

tuberculosis treatment, rewires the macrophage lipid metabolism to potentiate Mtb clearance.

Treatment with SRT leads to lysosomal cholesterol accumulation, thereby activating the

cholesterol-sensing transcription factor SREBP2 and increasing biosynthetic cholesterol flux in

macrophages. In addition, this buildup of cholesterol induces lysosomal membrane

permeabilization (LMP), mitochondrial ROS production, and downstream NLRP3 inflammasome

activation, contributing to enhanced macrophage-mediated bacterial killing. 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.

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 by 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 directly activation of the

host cell inflammasomes via the NLRP3 axis [16].

Here, we demonstrate that treatment with SRT leads to a significant increase in intracellular

cholesterol levels in Mtb-infected macrophages—an effect critical for enhanced bacterial control.

In light of these observations, we sought to investigate whether the adjunctive efficacy of sertraline

is mechanistically linked to its influence on host cholesterol metabolism. By employing chemical

modulation and gene silencing, we demonstrate that the SRT-mediated cholesterol buildup

perturbs lysosomal integrity, thereby promoting mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS)

production and thus cascading into the activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome. Taken together,

our findings provide a mechanistic link between cellular metabolic machinery, particularly

cholesterol metabolism, and antimicrobial efficacy, offering both conceptual and translational

insights into how metabolic reprogramming can be leveraged for augmenting host immunity 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 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 flux 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) 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

$\pm$ 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 $\pm$ 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 $\pm$ 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 lysosomal stain-lysotracker. Again, while in the untreated cells,

minimal levels of cholesterol co-localized with lysosomes, the majority of the internalized

cholesterol in SRT-treated cells was found to be accumulated in the lysosomal compartments,

indicating a pronounced accumulation of cholesterol in the lysosomal compartments 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 failed to induce

cholesterol accumulation in the lysosomes or enhance the expression of cholesterol biosynthesis

in macrophages, validating the importance of this mechanism in enhanced antibiotic control of

Mtb (Figure 2E, F).

Figure 2

Figure 2: Sertraline treated macrophages accumulate lysosomal cholesterol.

A-B) Representative confocal images of THP1 macrophages after SRT treatment for 24 h, stained

with filipin (A) or fed with NBD-cholesterol and stained with lysotracker Red and Hoechst 33342

(B). The inset shows the zoom-in along the black lines. Scale bar = 10µm.

(C) The graph shows the percent colocalization of the NBD-cholesterol in the lysosomes from

three independent experiments.

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

(NT) or treated with HR alone or 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 along with

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

is calculated using ImageJ. Scale bar = 10µm.

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 activation in macrophages:

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

on account of lysosomal sequestration 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, lends further

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

3 E, F).

Figure 3: Sertraline enhances SREBP2 activation 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 ± 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 ± SEM.

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

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 activation (2-fold) (Figure 4A, Figure S1A) and resulted in a significant reversal of the

effect of SRT on antibiotic potentiation (Figure 4B). Interestingly, even in the HR treated cells, the

addition of cholesterol restricted the ability of HR to control bacterial growth with ~2-3-fold higher

bacterial numbers (Figure 4B). Further, the inhibition of SREBP2 activation with a specific S2P

protease inhibitor- 1,10-phenanthroline, resulted in a significant but partial 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 SREBP2

activation 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 folds 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 activation in Mtb control by macrophages.

Figure 4

Figure 4: Role of SREBP2 activation in restricting intracellular bacterial 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 activation of SREBP2 in protein extracts of *SCAP-silenced* cells by

immunoblotting with specific antibodies for SREBP2 and β-actin.

(F) Densitometric quantification of the reactivity for SREBP2 in cells relative to β-actin of six

independent experiments (N=6) is represented as mean ± 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 phenocopies the effects of NPC1 inhibition in cells.

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 lysosomal compartments with the

consequent SREBP2 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 SREBP2 activation 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 analysed 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).

H) The extent of SREBP2 activation 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 ± 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 activation, and inflammasome activity was probed in cells by estimating the levels of IL1β secretion in the different macrophages. Inhibition of SRT-mediated SREBP2 activation in SCAP-deficient cells reduced the secreted IL1β levels (Figure 6H). This study firmly establishes the importance of the affinity of cationic amphiphilic drugs to the NPC1

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

424   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 flux in the antibiotic-mediated

potentiation of Mtb control by SRT.

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

biosynthesis and import programs through robust activation of the SREBP2 pathway, leading to

elevated intracellular cholesterol. We thus reasoned that altering cholesterol flux 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, necessary for 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). These findings 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).

589 **Table S1 : Binding interactions predicted for the best docked poses of each ligand**
590

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

592 **STAR METHODS**

593 **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		
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: 5'-GAGAACTGGACTCGGGTTAGCT-3'	This study	N/A
Human *CYP51A1* primer forward: 5'-CTCTTACCAGGTTGGCTGCCTT-3'	This study	N/A
Human *CYP51A1*primer reverse:	This study	N/A

5'-CTTGAGACTGTCTGCGTTTCTGG-3'		
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. 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.

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 (2µg/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 pDR2.8 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) [59] and validated for structure quality by Procheck [60] 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 [61]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 [62]. 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 [63]. 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 [64].

Galectin 3 puncta assessment:

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

dish and treated with sertraline (20µM), citalopram (20µM), U18666A (2µg/ml) 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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