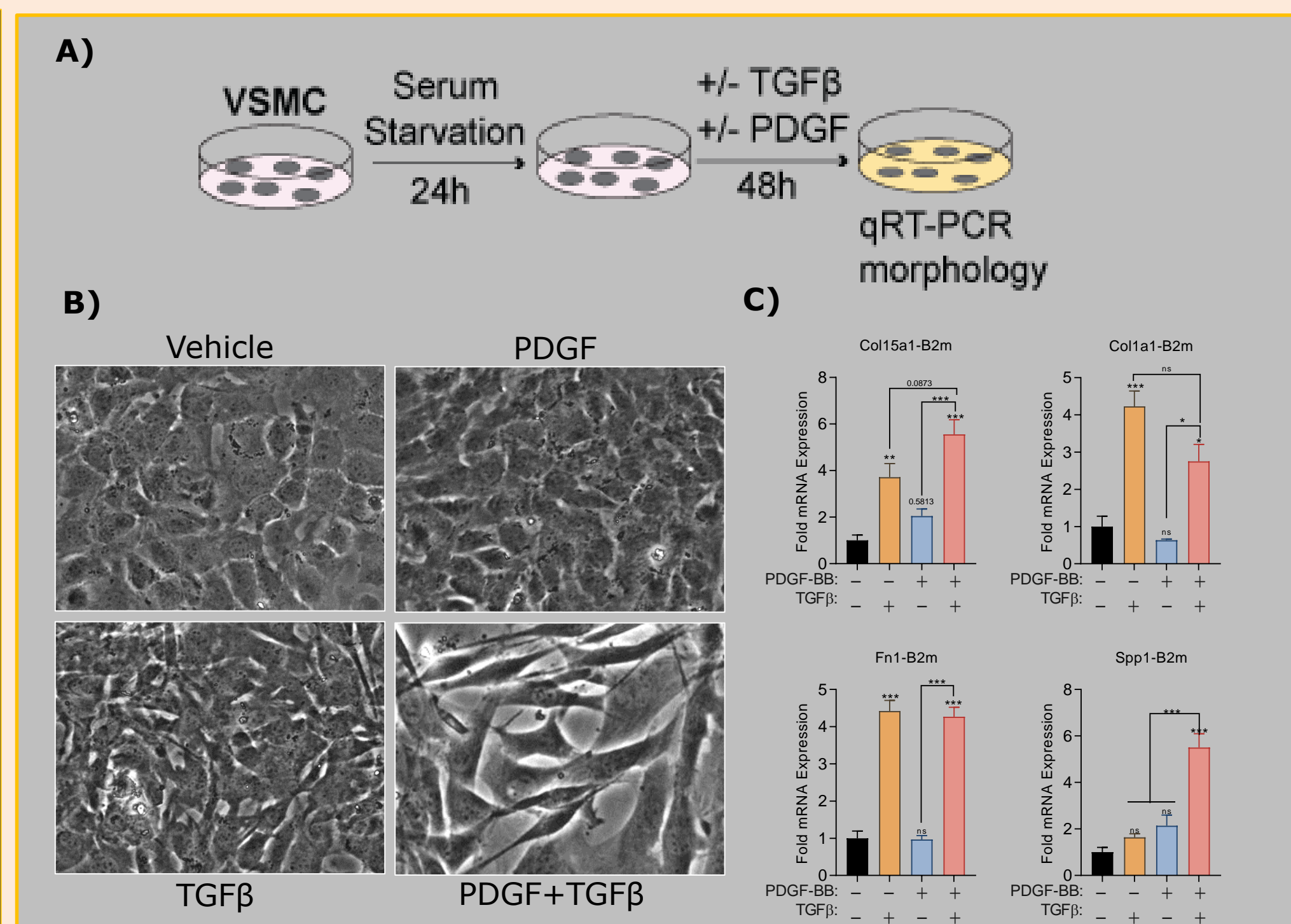


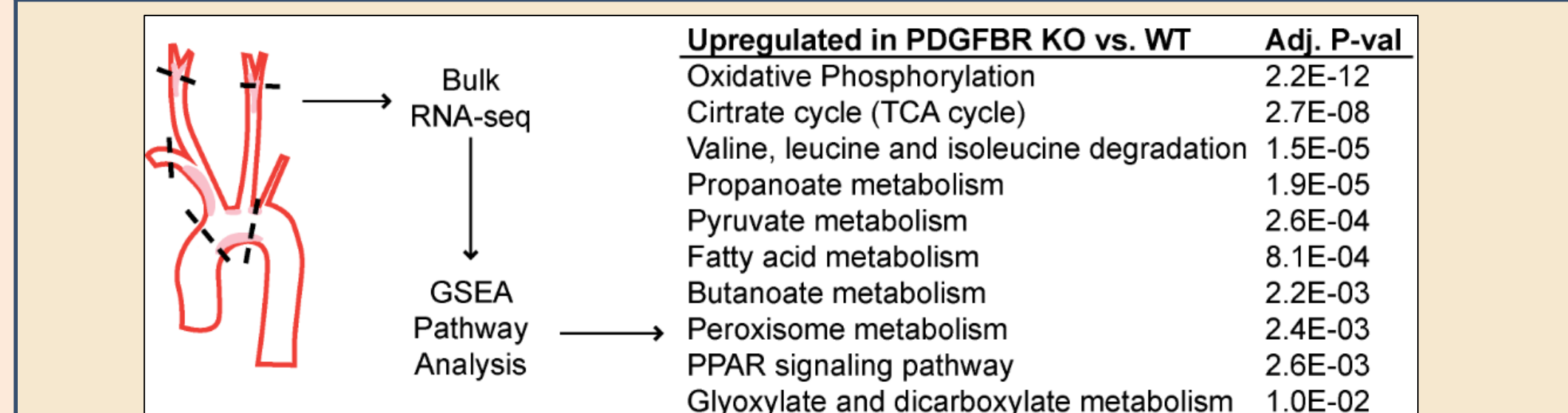
- Rupture or erosion of unstable atherosclerotic plaques is the underlying cause of heart attack or stroke, which are the leading causes of death worldwide.<sup>1</sup>
- Post-mortem human studies concluded that atherosclerotic plaque stability depends more on the cellular and extracellular matrix (ECM) composition of the protective fibrous cap than on lesions size.<sup>2</sup>
- The major source of ECM-producing myofibroblasts (MF) that populate the fibrous cap include smooth muscle cells (SMC) (~60% of all ACTA2<sup>+</sup> cells in the fibrous cap area). (Newman *et al. manuscript in review*)
- Deletion of platelet-derived growth factor receptor- $\beta$  (PDGFRB) in SMC of Western diet-fed mice prevented SMC investment into the fibrous cap and resulted in eventual decreased collagen content and increased intraplaque hemorrhage. (Newman *et al. manuscript in review*)
- SMC transition to a myofibroblast (MF) phenotype is promoted by transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (TGF $\beta$ ) signaling pathway and atherosclerotic lesions of anti-TGF $\beta$ -treated mice showed decreased collagen content and increased infiltration of inflammatory cells.<sup>3-4</sup>
- Analysis of 150 human carotid endarterectomies showed that **glutamine** was among the most significantly changed metabolites between stable and unstable plaques.<sup>5</sup>
- Glutamine (Gln) is converted to glutamate by glutaminase (Gls).<sup>6</sup>

Glutamine availability is a critical requirement for SMC-to-MF transitions within atherosclerotic lesions, not only as a **catabolic** substrate for the energetically demanding process of ECM production but also as an **anabolic** source of proline, which comprises nearly 30% of the amino acid composition of collagen



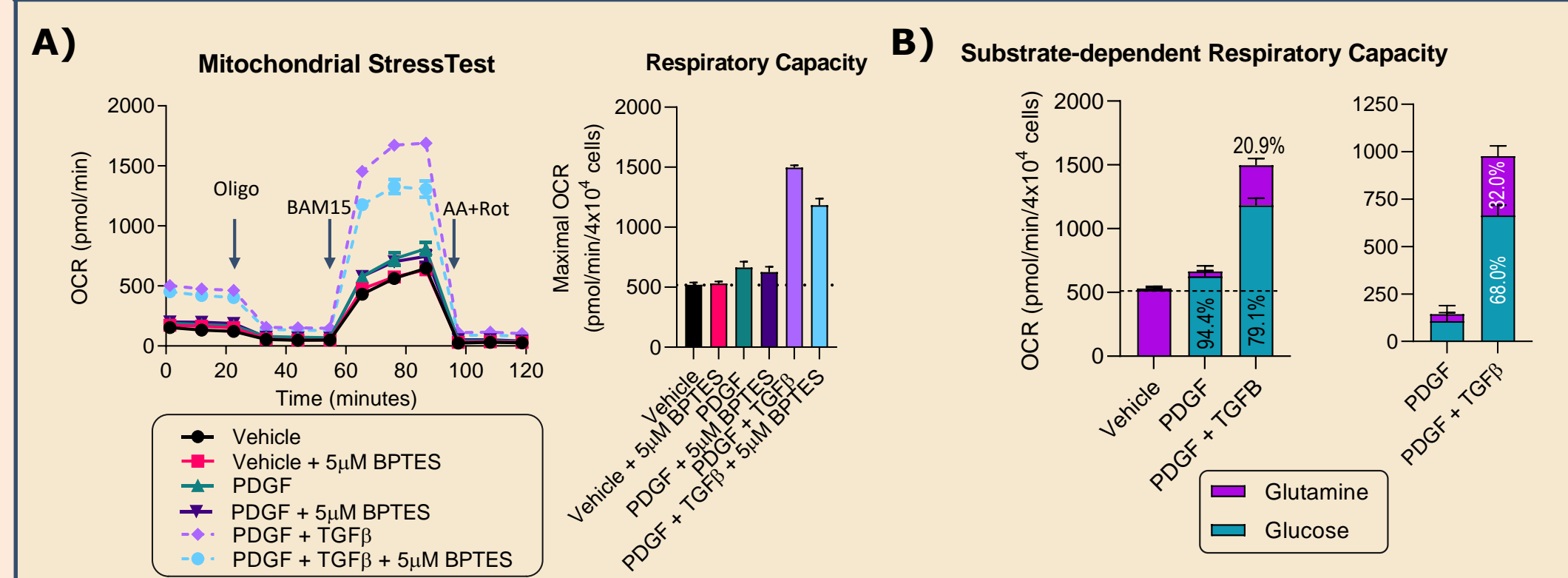
**Figure 1. PDGF and TGF $\beta$  together phenotypically modulate SMC to a MF-like state.** a) Schematic showing the experimental design. 8x10<sup>4</sup> cultured murine aortic smooth muscle cells (mASMCs) were serum-starved for 24-72 hours prior induction of the SMC-to-MF system. mASMCs were treated for 48h with 50ng/mL mouse platelet-derived growth factor BB (mPDGF-BB), and 50ng/mL mouse transforming growth factor- $\beta$  (mTGF $\beta$ 1), followed by morphological assessment and transcriptome studies. b) Representative phase contrast images and c) gene expression showing PDGF and TGF $\beta$  induced the phenotypic transition of SMC to a myofibroblast state. Graphs were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for post-hoc analysis with  $n \geq 3$ , error bars represent mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05

## 1. Bulk RNA-seq data from advanced brachiocephalic artery (BCA) lesions of *Pdgfrb*<sup>SMC-Δ/Δ</sup> versus *Pdgfrb*<sup>SMC-wt/wt</sup> mice, showed the greatest induction in bioenergetic pathways



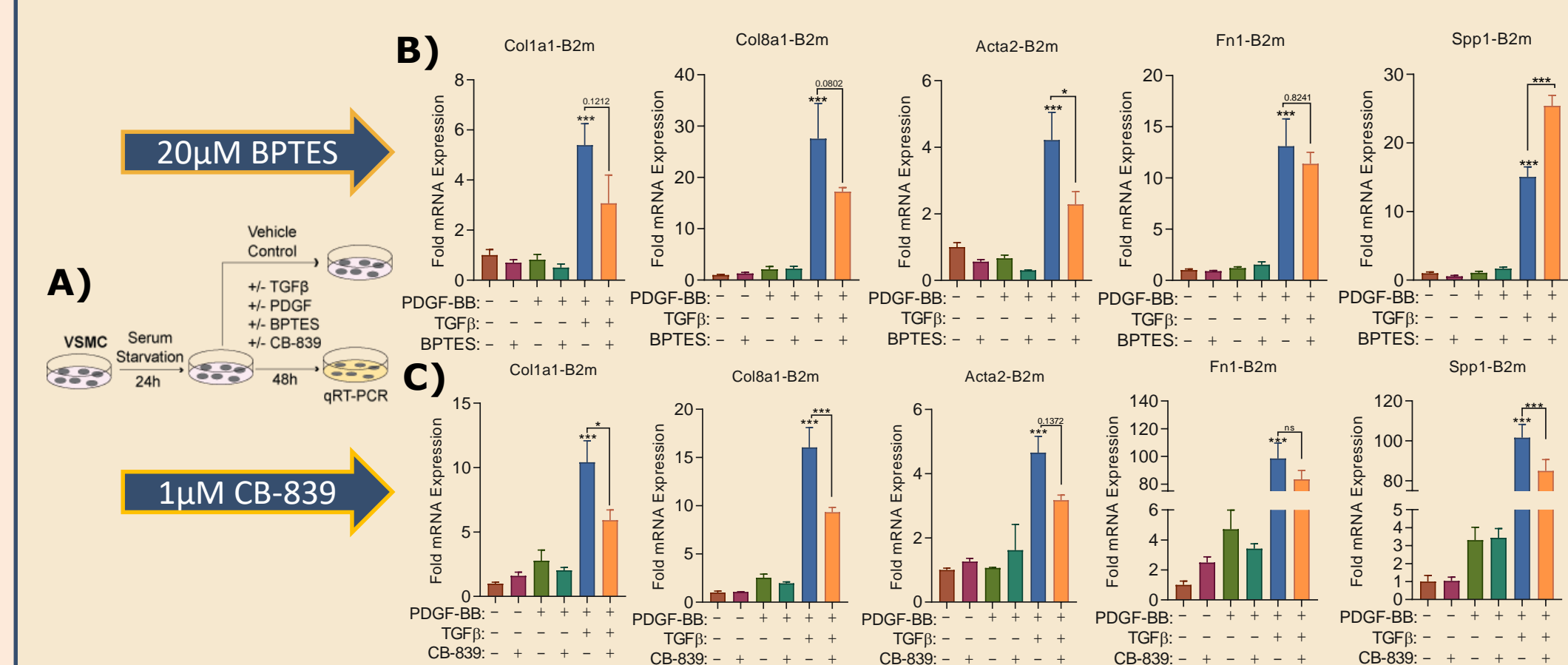
**Table 1. Major transcriptional changes in energy metabolism underlie loss of SMC-PDGFRB signaling.** GSEA pathway analysis showed substrate utilization and energy production pathways comprised the top 10 upregulated pathways in *Pdgfrb*<sup>SMC-Δ/Δ</sup> compared to *Pdgfrb*<sup>SMC-wt/wt</sup> mice fed WD for 18 weeks.

## 2. SMC treated with PDGF/TGF $\beta$ experience a 3-fold increase in oxidative phosphorylation compared to control, 32% of which is glutamine-derived



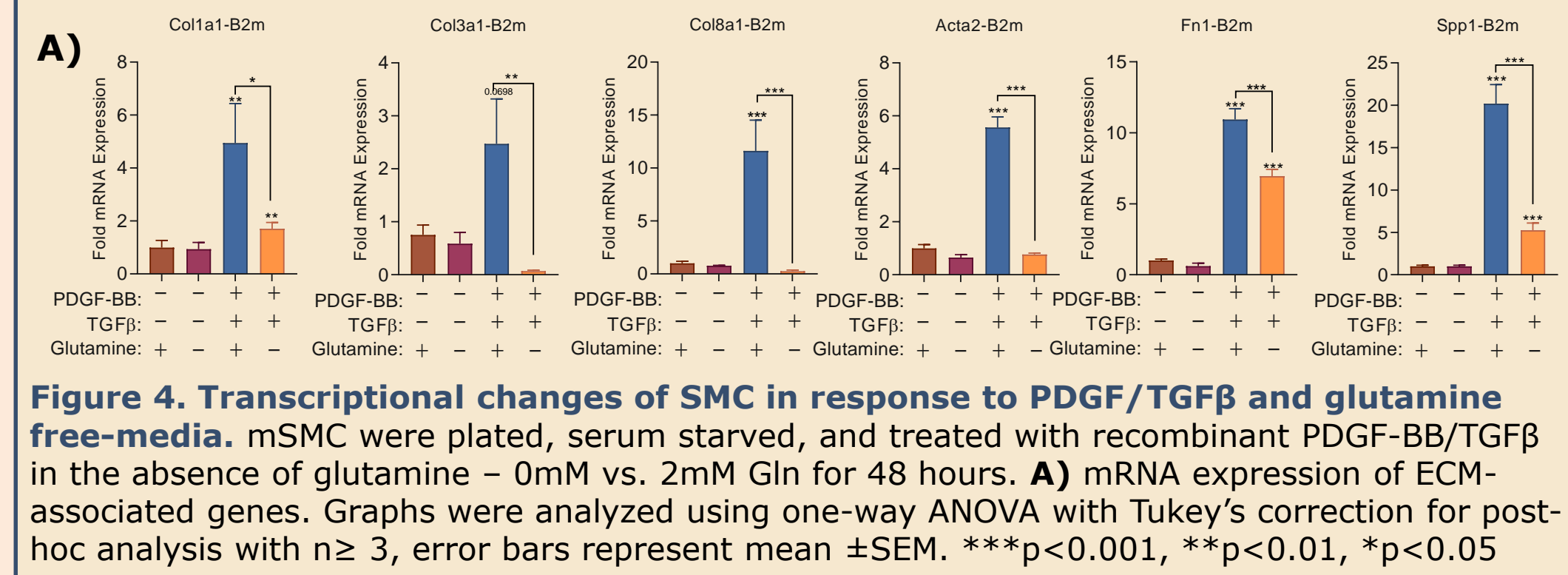
**Figure 2. Substrate utilization by SMC in response to PDGF/TGF $\beta$ .** 4x10<sup>4</sup> cultured murine aortic smooth muscle cells (mASMCs) were serum-starved for 24-72 hours prior to experiments. mASMCs were treated for 24 hours in basal medium with vehicle (4μM HCl in PBS), 10ng/mL PDGF-BB, 10ng/mL TGF $\beta$ . **A)** Cellular respiratory capacity was assessed with a mitochondrial stress test measuring oxygen consumption rate (OCR) using DMEM media (20mM glucose; 2mM glutamine; with DMSO vehicle or 5μM glutaminase inhibitor BPTES) serially injected with ATP-synthase inhibitor oligomycin (1μM), mitochondrial uncoupler BAM15 (2μM), and mitochondrial complex III and I inhibitors antimycin A (10μM) and rotenone (1μM). **B)** The contribution of glutamine to respiratory capacity was determined by subtracting the X + BPTES condition's respiratory capacity from the X + Vehicle condition, where X is vehicle, PDGF, or TGF $\beta$ . The contribution of glucose was determined as the respiratory capacity of the X + BPTES condition. The substrate contribution to the enhanced respiratory capacity (over vehicle control) of the PDGF and TGF $\beta$  conditions is shown. Statistical significance was calculated by One-way ANOVA followed by post-hoc multiple comparison tests. (\*p < 0.05; \*\*p < 0.01)

## 3. The glutaminase inhibitors BPTES and CB-839 decreased expression of ECM-associated genes in the SMC-to-MF system



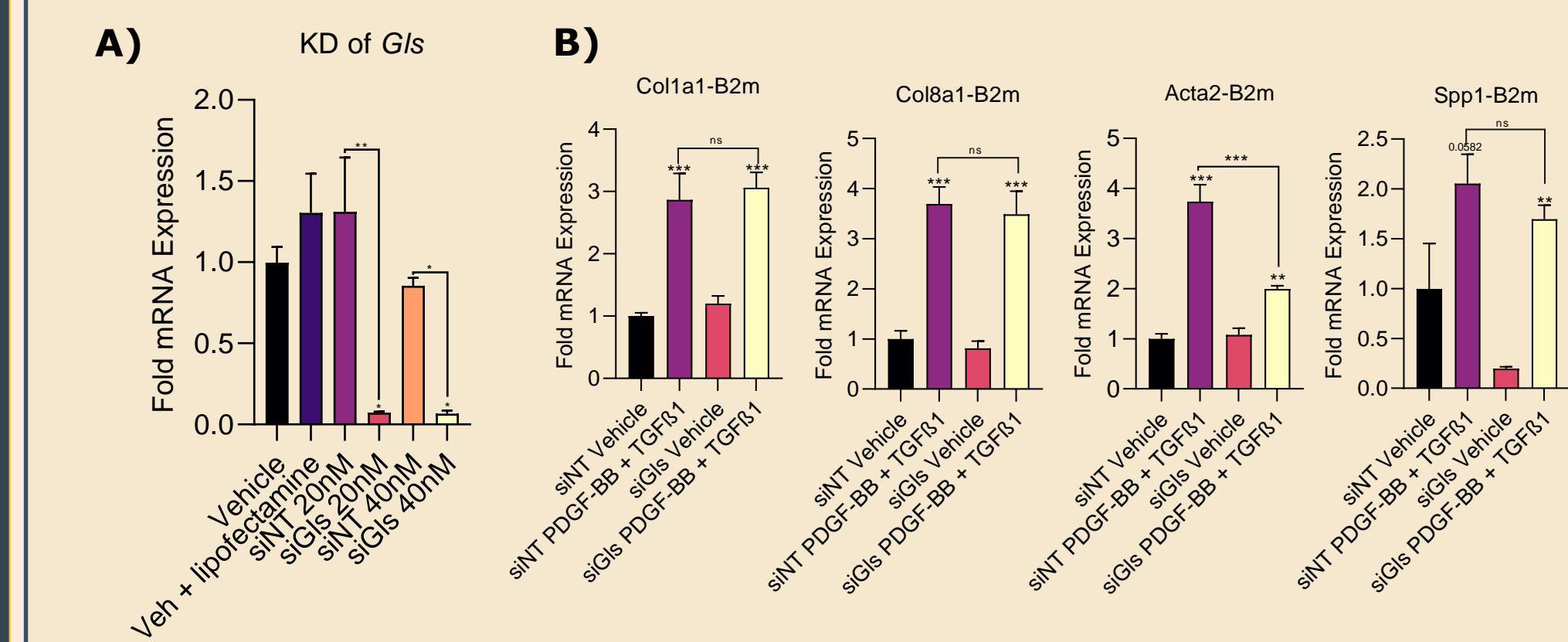
**Figure 3. Transcriptional changes of SMC in response to PDGF/TGF $\beta$  and inhibitors of glutamine metabolism.** **A)** Schematic showing the experimental design. Briefly, mSMC were plated, serum starved, and treated with recombinant PDGF-BB/TGF $\beta$  with or without Gln-inhibitors: BPTES, and CB-839 for 48 hours, followed by transcriptome studies. **B)** mRNA expression of ECM-associated genes after treatment with BPTES, and **C)** CB-839. Graphs were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for post-hoc analysis with  $n \geq 3$ , error bars represent mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05

## 4. Absence of glutamine results in nearly complete reduction of ECM-related gene expression



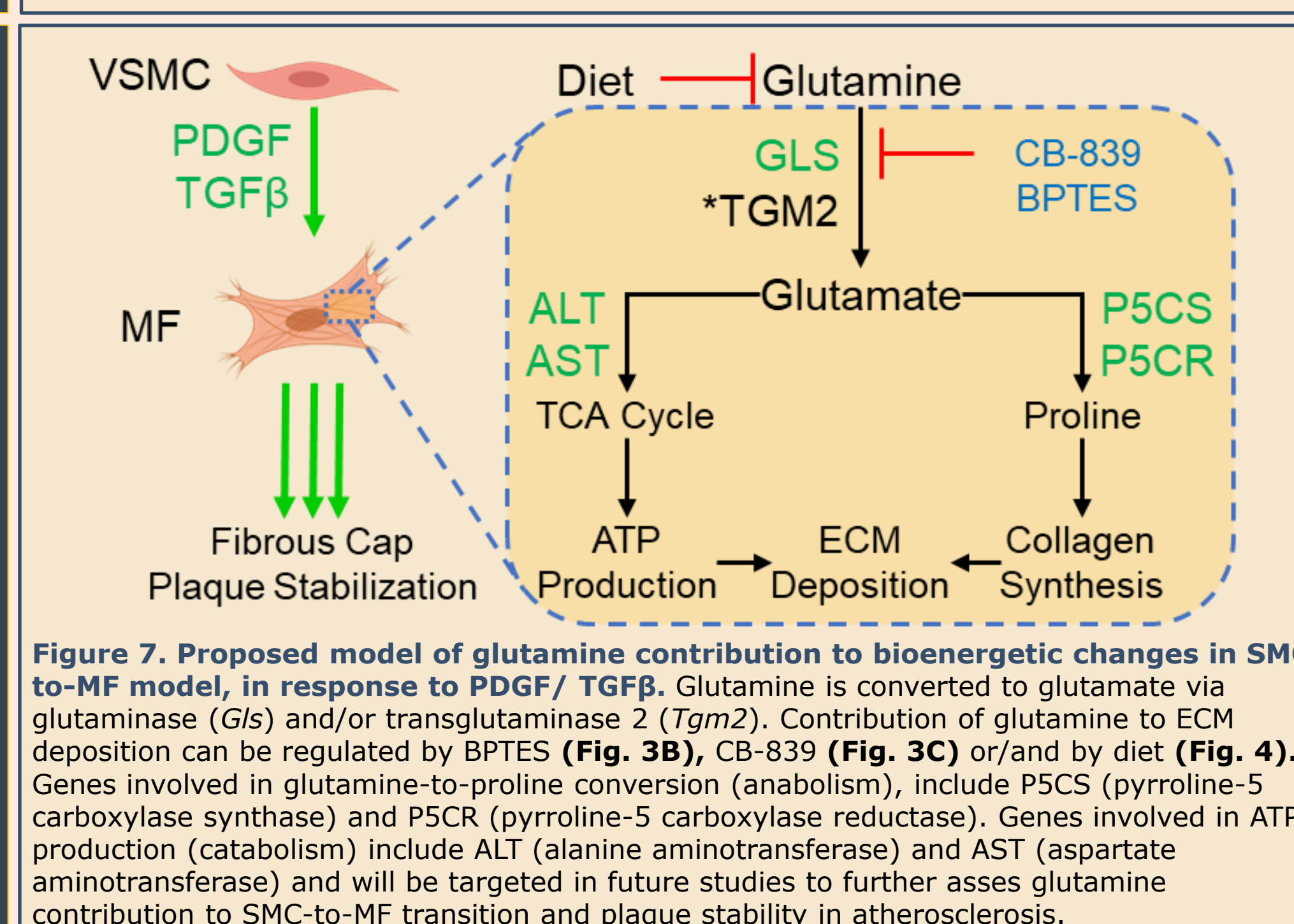
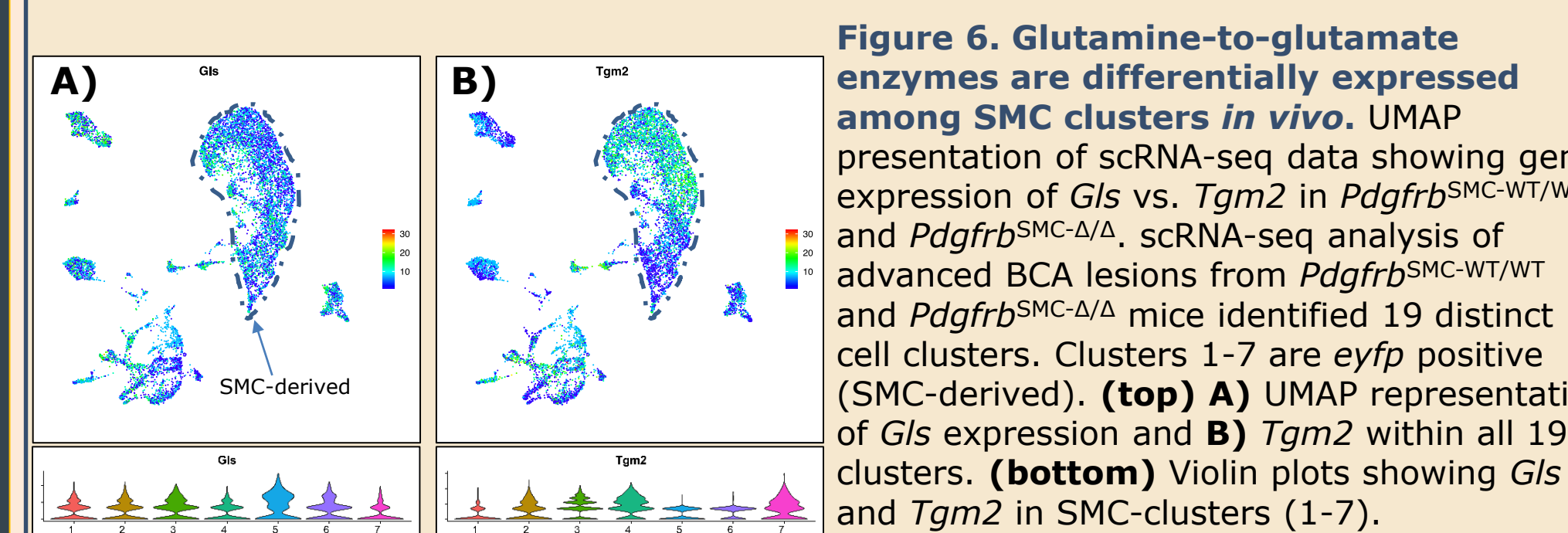
**Figure 4. Transcriptional changes of SMC in response to PDGF/TGF $\beta$  and glutamine free-media.** mSMC were plated, serum starved, and treated with recombinant PDGF-BB/TGF $\beta$  in the absence of glutamine - 0mM vs. 2mM Gln for 48 hours. **A)** mRNA expression of ECM-associated genes. Graphs were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for post-hoc analysis with  $n \geq 3$ , error bars represent mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05

## 5. Genetic knockdown of glutaminase did not change expression of *Col1a1*, *Col8a1* and *Spp1*



**Figure 5. Transcriptional changes of SMC in response to PDGF/TGF $\beta$  and siRNA of glutaminase.** **A)** mSMC were plated, treated with 20nM and 40nM of siRNA (targeting *Gls* - siGls and non-targeting RNA - siNT) and serum starved, followed by transcriptome studies. Gene expression of *Gls* showed > 90% reduction of expression compared to vehicle controls (vehicle, vehicle + lipofectamine, siNT). **B)** mSMC were plated, serum starved, treated with 20nM of siRNA for 24 hours, next treated with PDGF/TGF $\beta$  for 48h. Graphs represent mRNA expression of ECM-associated genes after treatment with siRNA and PDGF/TGF $\beta$ . Graphs were analyzed using one-way ANOVA with Tukey's correction for post-hoc analysis with  $n \geq 3$ , error bars represent mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*\*\*p<0.001, \*\*p<0.01, \*p<0.05

## 6. Transglutaminase 2 (Tgm2) may convert glutamine to glutamate in lesion SMC



□ Using oxygen consumption rate (OCR) as a measure for mitochondrial respiration, we found that 32% of the PDGF/TGF $\beta$ -induced oxidative phosphorylation in SMC is glutamine-dependent - **Fig. 2**

□ Perturbation of glutamine metabolism with CB-839 and BPTES markedly reduced PDGF-TGF $\beta$  -induced SMC-to-MF transition - **Fig. 3**

□ Absence of glutamine led to a complete reduction of *Col8a1* and *Col3a1* (~95%) and a significant reduction of *Col1a1* and *Fln1* - 65% and 36%, respectively - **Fig. 4**

□ siRNA knockdown of glutaminase in mSMC have not affect SMC-to-MF transitions as shown by ECM expression at the mRNA level of *Col1a1*, *Col8a1* and *Spp1* - **Fig. 5**

□ Glutamine-to-glutamate enzymes are differentially expressed among SMC clusters *in vivo* - **Fig. 6**

1. Glutamine is essential in the phenotypic modulation of SMC to an ECM-producing myofibroblast-state (SMC-to-MF), which forms and maintains stable fibrous caps
2. Manipulation of SMC-derived ECM-production by energetic reprogramming is of great clinical interest. We propose to alter SMC bioenergetics *in vivo* through genetic (**Fig. 5**) and pharmacologic approaches (**Fig. 3**), or through manipulation of substrate availability (**Fig. 4**)
3. We propose that SMC glutamine metabolism is necessary for atherosclerotic plaque stability with the ultimate goal of identifying new therapies and dietary approaches to lower the risk of thrombotic events

**Question:** Can glutamine metabolism augmentation or depletion impact the pathogenesis in late state atherosclerotic lesion *in vivo*?

- **Approach 1:** Systemic inhibition of *Gls* through administration of CB-839 after lesion development
  - a. Initially feed Myh11-Cre<sup>ERT2</sup>-RAD/tomato<sup>+/+</sup>/ApoE<sup>-/-</sup> mice Western diet for 18-26 weeks
  - b. Expectations: decreased indices of lesion stability, including decreased fibrous cap thickness and reduced collagen content
- **Approach 2:** Dietary augmentation of glutamine with normal versus high glutamine levels
  - a. Initially feed Myh11-Cre<sup>ERT2</sup>-RAD/tomato<sup>+/+</sup>/ApoE<sup>-/-</sup> mice custom Western diet with normal (2.8%) versus high (10%) glutamine level for 18-26 weeks
  - b. Expectations: Improved indices of lesion stability, including increased fibrous cap thickness and higher collagen content

1. Our preliminary data relied on small number of genes but with bulk RNA-seq as a readout of ECM-related genes we will be able to assess how glutamine contribute to SMC-to-MF
2. Genetic manipulation of glutaminase with and without siGls resulted in similar expression of ECM-related genes, suggesting a compensation driven by other glutamine-to-glutamate enzymes which needs to be verified via siTgm2 and similar approaches as shown here

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