



Article Myeloid GSK3α Deficiency Reduces Lesional Inflammation and Neovascularization during Atherosclerotic Progression

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Abstract: The molecular mechanisms by which cardiovascular risk factors promote the development of atherosclerosis are poorly understood. We have recently shown that genetic ablation of myeloid glycogen synthase kinase (GSK)- 3α attenuates atherosclerotic lesion development in low-density lipoprotein receptor-deficient (Ldlr^{-/-}) mice. However, the precise contributions of GSK 3α / β in atherogenesis are not known. The aim of this study is to investigate the effect of GSK 3α and/or β deficiency on lesional inflammation and plaque vascularization. Five-week-old female Ldlr^{-/-} mice were fed a high-fat diet for 10 weeks to establish atherosclerotic lesions. Mice were harvested at 15 weeks of age and atherosclerotic lesions were characterized. The results indicate that, in addition to significantly reducing plaque volume, GSK 3α -deficiency decreases inflammation, reduces vasa vasorum density at the aortic sinus, and reduces plasma c-reactive protein (CRP) levels. GSK 3β -deficiency is associated with decreased plasma CRP levels but does not affect lesional inflammation or vascularization. These results suggest GSK 3α may be an applicable target for the development of novel anti-atherogenic therapies.

Keywords: atherosclerosis; glycogen synthase kinases; inflammation

1. Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of death globally and a significant burden to healthcare systems [1]. Atherosclerosis is characterized by the buildup of plaque within arterial walls and plays a significant role in the pathogenesis of CVD [2,3]. As atherosclerosis progresses, the arteries narrow, reducing blood supply to vital organs and tissues and potentially causing ischemic events such as myocardial infarction (MI) and stroke [1,4].

Macrophages are a major component of atherosclerotic plaques and play a crucial role in the inflammatory response [5]. Monocytes migrate to the site of inflammation where they polarize into M1 or M2 macrophages, depending upon microenvironmental stimuli [6]. M1 macrophages are pro-inflammatory, driving inflammation through cytokine production, whereas M2 macrophages are anti-inflammatory and help maintain tissue homeostasis [7,8]. During atherosclerosis, macrophages ingest cellular debris and oxidized low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles, becoming lipid-laden foam cells. Foam cell apoptosis and necroptosis lead to the formation of a dense necrotic core that destabilizes the plaque [1]. Unstable plaques can rupture, causing blood clots, potentially leading to fatal consequences such as MI [9].

Despite extensive research, the underlying mechanisms that link atherosclerotic risk factors to cardiovascular events remain poorly understood. Current therapies are generally focused upon reducing risk factors and include statins to lower LDL levels, anti-hypertensive medications to reduce blood pressure, and various drugs to reduce blood



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Copyright: © 2024 by the authors. Licensee MDPI, Basel, Switzerland. This article is an open access article distributed under the terms and conditions of the Creative Commons Attribution (CC BY) license (https:// creativecommons.org/licenses/by/ 4.0/). glucose levels in individuals with diabetes [10]. Our group has previously identified a role for endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress-induced glycogen synthase kinase (GSK)-3 activity in the initiation and progression of atherosclerosis [11].

GSK-3 is a ubiquitously expressed serine/threonine kinase with two isoforms, GSK3 α and GSK3 β , which play a crucial role in many cell regulation pathways, including macrophage polarization, the inflammatory response, and cell viability [12]. Previous research has shown the GSK3 α / β regulates the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-1 β [1,13]. Additionally, our group has shown the myeloid-specific GSK3 α -deficient low-density lipoprotein receptor-deficient (Ldlr^{-/-}) mice show increased lesional M2 macrophage polarization and decreased atherosclerotic plaque volumes [11].

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of myeloid-specific GSK3 α/β deficiency on pro-inflammatory and micro-vascularization pathways. We hypothesize that myeloid-specific GSK3 α deficiency may reduce atherogenesis through the modulation of these pathways in Ldlr^{-/-} mice.

2. Results

2.1. Myeloid-Specific GSK3a Deficiency Reduces Inflammation and Attenuates Atherosclerosis

As previously observed, myeloid GSK3 α deficiency attenuates the development of atherosclerosis at the aortic sinus in Ldr^{-/-} mice (Figure 1) [8]. Deficiency of GSK3 β has no significant effect on atherosclerotic volume. To explore the effects of GSK3 α / β deficiency on lesional inflammatory response, the expression of markers related to inflammation was examined in cross sections of the aortic sinus. Expressions of these markers were quantified in each of the experimental groups using immunofluorescent staining with antibodies against nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF κ B), Nod-like receptor family pyrin domain containing 3 (NLRP3), or IL-1 β (Figure 2A–C).



Figure 1. Myeloid-specific glycogen synthase kinase (GSK)- 3α deficiency reduces lesion area at the aortic sinus in low density lipoprotein receptor knockout (Ldlr^{-/-}) mice. (**A**) Representative Mason's trichrome-stained sections of aortic sinus from GSK $3\alpha\beta$ floxed (L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl) and GSK $3\alpha\beta$ double knockout (LM $\alpha\beta$ KO) mice. Scale bar = 500 µm. (**B**) Quantification of lesion area at the aortic sinus of Ldlr^{-/-} control mice (L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl), or myeloid GSK 3α (LM α KO), β (LM β KO), or α and β (LM $\alpha\beta$ KO) was genetically deleted. n = 6–8/experimental group, * *p* < 0.05, ** *p* < 0.01, ns—not significant (One-way ANOVA).

LM α KO and LM $\alpha\beta$ KO mice had significantly decreased levels of NF κ B, NLRP3, and IL-1 β compared to L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl (controls) (Figure 2D–F). LM β KO mice showed no changes in NF κ B or NLRP3 but had elevated IL-1 β expression compared to the L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 2D–F). These findings suggest that myeloid GSK3 α may promote inflammation and thereby accelerate the growth of the atherosclerotic plaque.





Figure 2. Myeloid-specific GSK3α deficiency reduces lesional inflammation. Representative sections of aortic sinus immunostained with an antibody against (**A**) NFκB (green), (**B**) NLRP3 (green) or (**C**) IL-1β (green). Lesional areas are indicated by a dotted white line. Scale bar = 100 µm. Quantification of (**D**) NFκB and (**E**) NLRP3 and (**F**) IL-1β-stained area normalized to the total lesion area. n = 8/experimental group; mean ± SEM; * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, **** p < 0.001, ns—not significant (One-way ANOVA).

To determine the effects of GSK3 α/β deficiency on systemic inflammatory responses, the plasma level of C-reactive protein (CRP) was quantified. LM α KO, LM β KO, and LM $\alpha\beta$ KO mice showed decreased plasma CRP levels compared to L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 3). This finding suggests that both myeloid GSK3 α and GSK3 β may play a role in systemic inflammation.



Figure 3. Myeloid GSK3 α and GSK3 β both modulate CRP expression. Quantification of plasma levels of C-reactive protein (CRP). n = 8/experimental group; mean \pm SEM; ** *p* < 0.01 (One-way ANOVA).

2.2. Myeloid-Specific GSK3α Deficiency Reduces Vasa Vasorum Density

Cross sections of the aortic sinus were immunostained with an antibody against hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF)-1 α (Figure 4A). LM α KO and LM $\alpha\beta$ KO mice had decreased levels of HIF-1 α compared to L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 4B). LM β KO mice showed no changes in HIF-1 α compared to the L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 4B). This suggests that myeloid GSK3 α plays a role in activation of lesional HIF-1 α which may affect atherogenesis.



Figure 4. Myeloid-specific GSK3 α deficiency is associated with reduced HIF1 α in atherosclerotic lesions. Representative sections of aortic sinus immunostained with an antibody against (**A**) HIF-1 α (green). Lesional areas are indicated by a dotted white line. Scale bar = 100 µm. Quantification of (**B**) HIF-1 α -stained area normalized to the total lesion area. n = 8/experimental group; mean \pm SEM; **** p < 0.0001, ns—not significant (One-way ANOVA).

To measure the vasa vasorum density at the aortic sinus and ascending aorta, aortic cross sections were immunostained with an antibody against endothelial marker, Von

Willebrand factor (vWF), and the number of positively stained microvessels per cross section were quantified (Figure 5A). LM α KO and LM $\alpha\beta$ KO mice had relatively fewer positively stained microvessels compared to L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 5B). LM β KO mice showed no change in microvessel numbers compared to the L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls. These findings suggest that myeloid GSK3 α deficiency significantly reduced microvessel density (Figure 5B).



Figure 5. Myeloid-specific GSK3 α deficiency reduces micro-vascularization at the aortic sinus. Representative sections of aortic sinus immunostained with an antibody against (**A**) vWF (green). Microvessels are indicated by arrows. Scale bar = 100 µm. Quantification of (**B**) vasa vasorum density (number of vessels per cross section). n = 8/experimental group; mean ± SEM; **** *p* < 0.0001, ns—not significant (One-way ANOVA).

To further investigate the effect on vasa vasorum density, aortic cross sections were immunostained with an antibody against vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) (Figure 6A). LM α KO and LM $\alpha\beta$ KO mice had decreased levels of VEGF compared to L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 6B). LM β KO mice showed no changes in VEGF levels compared to the L $\alpha\beta$ fl/fl controls (Figure 6B). Together, these data suggest a primary role for GSK3 α in the modulation of the HIF-1 α -VEGF pathway that regulates vasa vasorum density.



Figure 6. Cont.



Figure 6. Myeloid-specific GSK3 α deficiency reduces VEGF expression at the aortic sinus. Representative sections of aortic sinus immunostained with an antibody against (**A**) VEGF (green). Lesional areas are indicated by a dotted white line. Scale bar = 100 µm. Quantification of (**B**) VEGF-stained area is normalized to the total lesion area. n = 7/experimental group; mean \pm SEM; **** *p* < 0.0001, ns—not significant (One-way ANOVA).

3. Discussion

The results of this study suggest that myeloid-specific GSK3 α (and GSK3 $\alpha\beta$) deficiency reduces atherosclerosis and inflammation in atherosclerotic lesions and reduces vasa vasorum density at the aortic sinus in Ldlr^{-/-} mice. In contrast, GSK3 β deficiency appears to have no significant effect on these variables. This suggests that deletion of GSK3 α is the driving factor behind the observed phenotype in GSK3 $\alpha\beta$ double knockout mice.

Previous studies have shown that a buildup of unesterified cholesterol causes endoplasmic reticulum stress in macrophages, leading to the activation of GSK3 α/β via the protein kinase R-like ER kinase (PERK) pathway [11]. GSK3 subsequently activates the pro-inflammatory response via the NF κ B signaling cascade [14–16]. The results presented here suggest a correlation between inflammation and the stabilization/accumulation of HIF-1 α and the upregulation of VEGF [17,18]. VEGF increases endothelial permeability and contributes to monocyte adhesion and also activates angiogenesis and neovascularization, crucial for atherosclerotic progression [19,20]. Our results elucidate GSK3 α/β 's role in these pathways.

We observed that myeloid-specific GSK3 α - and GSK3 $\alpha\beta$ -deficient Ldlr^{-/-} mice show lower expression of lesional NF κ B, NLRP3, and IL-1 β compared to controls, correlating with reduced lesion area during atherosclerosis. The downregulation of NF κ B leads to decreased NLRP3 expression and reduced IL-1 β secretion at injury sites [14]. IL-1 β recruits monocytes and induces monocyte adhesion molecules such as vascular cell adhesion molecule (VCAM)-1 and P-selectin, thereby promoting inflammation [21]. Consequently, GSK3 α deletion reduces monocyte recruitment/adhesion and inflammation, aligning with previous research indicating that GSK3 α deficiency promotes an M2 macrophage phenotype [12].

Furthermore, by visualizing vWF, we observed that myeloid-specific GSK3 α - and GSK3 $\alpha\beta$ -deficient Ldlr^{-/-} mice exhibit reduced microvascularization at the aortic sinus. GSK3 α and GSK3 $\alpha\beta$ deficiency lowers VEGF expression in Ldlr^{-/-} mice. Previous research has primarily focused on GSK3 β 's role in VEGF expression and angiogenesis in endothelial cells [22,23]. However, our data suggest that GSK3 α may play a more significant role in VEGF expression and angiogenesis in atherogensis than previously recognized.

Our findings suggest that GSK3 α may be a suitable target for developing antiatherosclerotic therapies. Specifically targeting GSK3 α may be advantageous as GSK3 β is known to regulate important functions, including roles in the Wnt signaling pathway, glycogen metabolism regulation, and apoptosis [24]. Previous studies have shown that whole-body GSK3 β knockout mice die during gestation, underscoring the necessity of preserving GSK3 β 's functions [12]. A therapeutic focus on GSK3 α may therefore limit unwanted side effects.

In summary, these findings are consistent with previous studies identifying atherosclerosis as a chronic inflammatory immune-mediated disease [2–4,25]. These results suggest that myeloid-specific GSK3 α deficiency reduces inflammation in lesions and vasa vasorum density at the aortic sinus in Ldlr^{-/-} mice. Future research should aim to quantify HIF-1 α expression in GSK3 α / β -deficient Ldlr^{-/-} mice to better understand the reduction in VEGF expression observed with GSK3 α and GSK3 $\alpha\beta$ deficiency. Additionally, mechanistic studies to determine how GSK3 α promotes M1 macrophage polarization are warranted. Overall, these insights will advance our understanding of GSK3 isoforms, whilst opening new avenues for therapeutic intervention in atherosclerosis.

4. Materials and Methods

4.1. Mouse Models

Myeloid-specific GSK3 α - and/or GSK3 β -deficient mice, were created by our lab [26]. This includes Ldlr^{-/-} mice with loxP-flanked GSK3 α gene (Ldlr^{-/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$) crossed with mice expressing a single copy of the Cre recombinase gene controlled by the myeloid-specific lysozyme M promoter (Ldlr^{-/-}LyzMCre^{+/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$). By using this breeding method, we were able to generate the Ldlr^{-/-} myeloid-specific GSK3 α knockout mice (Ldlr^{-/-}LyzMCre^{+/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$ or LM α KO). The Ldlr^{-/-} myeloid-specific GSK3 β knockout mice (Ldlr^{-/-}LyzMCre^{+/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$ or LM β KO). Breeding strategies using the above mice were also used to generate Ldlr^{-/-} myeloid-specific GSK3 α / β -deficient mice (Ldlr^{-/-}LyzMCre^{+/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$ or LM α βKO) and the control Ldlr^{-/-} GSK3 α / β floxed mice (Ldlr^{-/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$ GSK3 $\beta^{fl/fl}$ or LM α βKO) and the control Ldlr^{-/-} GSK3 α / β floxed mice (Ldlr^{-/-}GSK3 $\alpha^{fl/fl}$ GSK3 $\beta^{fl/fl}$ or L α β fl/fl). All the mouse strains described above exist in a C57Bl/6 genetic background. All animal experiments were pre-approved by the McMaster University Animal Research Ethics Board. All experiments conform with the guidelines and regulation of the Canadian Council on Animal Care.

4.2. Atherosclerotic Progression Model

Five-week-old female mice $(L\alpha\beta fl/fl, LM\alpha KO, LM\beta KO, and LM\alpha\beta KO)$ were fed a high-fat diet (HFD) containing 21% fat and 0.2% cholesterol, with 42% calories from fat (TekLad TD97363, Inotiv, Madison, WI, USA) for 10 weeks to establish atherosclerotic plaques. All mice were granted access to water ad libitum. Eight mice per experimental group were harvested at 15 weeks of age. Mice were fasted for 6 h prior to sacrifice. Body weight was measured, and 3% isoflurane was used to anesthetized mice. Blood was collected via cardiac puncture and livers and perigonadal fat pads were harvested and weighed (Supplementary Table S1). The vasculature was flushed with 1x phosphatebuffered saline (PBS) and perfusion fixed with 10% neutral buffer formalin. Hearts and aortas, along with other tissues, were collected and fixed in formalin.

4.3. Characterization of Aortic Lesions

Hearts and aortas from eight mice per experimental group were embedded in paraffin and 5 μ m sections were collected onto slides, starting from the aortic sinus and moving up the ascending aorta [27]. For immunofluorescent staining, sections were deparaffinized and antigen retrieval was performed using antigen-unmasking solution (Vector laboratories H-3300, Burlington, ON, Canada). Sections were blocked in 10% goat serum and then immunostained overnight with primary antibodies against the pro-inflammatory markers NF- κ B diluted 1:50 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology sc-8008, Dallas, TX, USA), inflammasome marker NLRP3 diluted 1:100 (Invitrogen MA5-32255, Mississauga, ON, Canada), and IL-1 β diluted 1:100 (Invitrogen P420B, Mississauga, ON, Canada). To investigate the effect on vasa vasorum density, sections were immunostained overnight with primary antibodies against HIF-1 α (NOVUSNB100-105, Toronto, ON, Canada), vWF (Aligent Technologies GA52761-2, Mississauga, ON, Canada) and VEGF (Santa Cruz Biotechnology sc-7269, Dallas, TX, USA). Sections were then incubated with secondary antibodies Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG diluted 1:250 (Thermofisher Scientific A11001, Mississauga, ON, Canada), Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-rabbit IgG diluted 1:250 (Thermofisher Scientific A11008, Mississauga, ON, Canada) for 2 h, and then stained with the DAPI (diluted 1:5000) (Invitrogen D1306, Mississauga, ON, Canada). Slides were mounted with Fluoromount Aqueous Mounting Medium (Sigma F4680, Oakville, ON, Canada) and stored at 4 °C in the dark. Separate slides were stained with pre-immune IgG instead of primary antibodies to control for nonspecific staining. Images of the stained sections were collected using the Leica STELLARIS 5 confocal microscope. All images were taken at $100 \times$ magnification ($10 \times$ objective, $10 \times$ eyepiece). Image J 1.52q software was used to quantify immunofluorescent staining. Four sections were analyzed per mouse and three images were captured per section (one for each lesion/leaflet). The threshold for image analysis was based on the quality of antibody staining in comparison to negative controls, and this threshold was consistently applied across all samples. The total area of the plaque and the total stained area within that plaque were determined, and then the percentage of stained area for each section was calculated. The percentage of stained area was averaged across the four sections for each animal to represent the data for each sample.

4.4. Determination of Plasma CRP

The plasma CRP levels were determined by using the Mouse C-Reactive Protein (CRP) ELISA Kit (Crystal Chem 80634, Elk Grove Village, IL, USA). Assays were performed (n = 8/experimental group) according to manufacturer's instructions.

4.5. Statistical Analysis

All statistical analysis was performed in GraphPad Prism software (version 9.3.1). All data was analyzed by a one-way ANOVA, followed by the Tukey's multiple comparison test between all groups. All error bars on graphs represent the standard error of the mean (SEM). For all experiments, a *p* value lower than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, **** p < 0.001, **** p < 0.001.

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Institutional Review Board Statement: All studies involving mice were performed according to the guidelines and regulations of the Canadian Council on Animal care and all animal studies were pre-approved by McMaster University Animal Research Ethics Board (AUP 21-02-07).

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