

LXR α phosphorylation in cardiometabolic disease: insight from mouse models

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The authors have nothing to declare.

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ABSTRACT

Post-translational modifications, such as phosphorylation, are a powerful means by which the activity and function of nuclear receptors such as LXR α can be altered. However, despite the established importance of nuclear receptors in maintaining metabolic homeostasis, our understanding of how phosphorylation affects metabolic diseases is limited. The physiological consequences of LXR α phosphorylation have, until recently, only been studied *in vitro* or non-specifically in animal models by pharmacologically or genetically altering the enzymes enhancing or inhibiting these modifications. Here we review recent reports on the physiological consequences of modifying LXR α phosphorylation at serine 196 (S196) in cardiometabolic disease including non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), atherosclerosis and obesity. A unifying theme from these studies is that LXR α S196 phosphorylation rewires the LXR-modulated transcriptome, which in turn alters physiological response to environmental signals, and that this is largely distinct from the LXR-ligand-dependent action.

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INTRODUCTION

Liver X Receptors (LXRs) are ligand-activated transcription factors that control lipid and glucose homeostasis, as well as inflammation (1,2). LXRs consist of two subtypes, LXR α and LXR β (NR1H3 and NR1H2, respectively), which exhibit 75% sequence homology (3). LXR α is expressed in tissues involved in lipid metabolism, such as adipose tissue and liver, as well as in bone marrow and immune cells while LXR β is ubiquitously expressed (4). Like other nuclear receptors LXR is organized with an N-terminal activation function (AF), a central DNA binding domain (DBD) followed by a flexible hinge region, and a C-terminal ligand binding domain (LBD) (Fig. 1A). LXRs form obligatory heterodimers with 9-*cis* Retinoid X receptor (RXR) and are activated by desmosterol and oxysterols (2,5), which are oxidized-cholesterol derivatives. LXR can also homodimerize (6), however, the biological significance of this interaction has not been demonstrated. In the absence of ligand, the LXR/RXR heterodimer occupies LXR response elements (LXREs) on the regulatory regions of target genes (7). Unliganded LXR/RXR interacts with co-repressors, such as the Nuclear Receptor Co-Repressor (NCoR) and Silencing Mediator of Retinoic Acid and Thyroid Hormone Receptor (SMRT), thereby silencing gene expression (8). This is also known as ligand-independent active repression. Once ligand binds to nuclear receptors, their ligand binding domain (LBD) undergoes a structural shift to a more stable position, which inhibits co-repressor interaction and creates a high-affinity site for co-activator proteins (9). These co-activator complexes are responsible for the modification of chromatin structure, thereby facilitating the assembly of the general transcriptional machinery to the gene promoter and inducing ligand-dependent transactivation of gene expression (10). LXRs can also repress gene expression through a mechanism known as transrepression (11,12), by which LXRs antagonize the activity of other signal-dependent transcription factors, such as the nuclear factor- κ B (NF κ B) and activator protein 1 (AP-1) (13,14). It appears this is partly the mechanism through which LXRs exert their anti-inflammatory functions (15,16). LXRs must be present in the nucleus to regulate target gene transcription, and the LXR α subtype has shown nuclear localization both in the absence and presence of its ligands (17,18).

Most proteins are subjected to post-translational modifications (PTMs), which are covalent modifications catalyzed by specific enzymes that result in changes in protein function (19,20). PTMs of nuclear receptors, such as phosphorylation, acetylation, sumoylation, methylation and O-GlcNAcylation, play important regulatory roles and allow rapid and reversible molecular changes in the nuclear receptor response (21). Phosphorylation (22-24), O-GlcNAcylation (25), and acetylation (26) of LXR α have been shown to influence LXR α -mediated transcriptional activation of target genes through changes in LXR α stability, transcriptional activity (either increasing or decreasing LXR α transcriptional potential), and/or recruitment of transcription factors at specific LXR target genes.

We have demonstrated that altering LXR α phosphorylation modifies its target gene repertoire *in vitro* in LXR α -overexpressing macrophage-like cell lines (22,27), and more recently *in vivo* in the context of cardiometabolic disease models of atherosclerosis progression (28), atherosclerosis regression and diabetes (29), obesity (30) and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) (31). In this review, we discuss these recent findings and the potential of targeting LXR α phosphorylation for chronic inflammatory diseases.

LXR α PHOSPHORYLATION AT SERINE 198 AND ITS KINASES

LXR α is phosphorylated at Serine198 (S198) in human LXR α , and at the cognate serine196 (S196) site in mouse (22-24). Phosphorylation of this site is observed in mouse and human macrophages *in vitro* and in atherosclerotic plaque macrophages in Apolipoprotein E knock out (*ApoE KO*) mice (22,27), as well as in the liver (24,31). This site is located in the hinge region of LXR α , and is conserved between humans, rats, and mice while absent in LXR β (Fig. 1A). Phosphorylation at this site is increased by both endogenous and synthetic LXR ligands (24(S),25-epoxycholesterol and T0901317 or GW3965, respectively), and has been reported to be a substrate of Casein Kinase 2 (CK2) (22), and Protein Kinase A (PKA) (24). Phosphorylation at S198 also affects LXR α transcriptional activity in a gene-selective manner. Molecular modeling of the DNA-bound LXR α -RXR α heterodimer (32) reveals alterations in the orientation of the

LXR α S198 residue upon its phosphorylation. Phosphorylated S198 is exposed on the surface of the complex, consistent with a site for protein interactions (Fig. 1B), whereas the unphosphorylated S198 is buried. However, a segment containing the unphosphorylated S198 adopts a short alpha helical stretch, suggesting an additional surface for protein interaction in this S198 non-phosphorylated state (27) (Fig. 1C). This is consistent with the phosphorylated and unphosphorylated LXR α imparting distinct structural characteristics to the hinge domain to influence cofactor recruitment, and modulating LXR α activity in a gene-specific manner. Given the structural impact and functions effects of LXR α phosphorylation at this site in cell based models, we examined the relevance of LXR α phosphorylation in mouse models of cardiometabolic disease, which is the focus of this review.

LXR α S196 PHOSPHORYLATION DEFICIENT KNOCK-IN MICE

To determine the effect of mouse LXR α S196 phosphorylation (pS196) *in vivo*, we developed a global LXR α S196A knock-in mouse carrying a serine-to-alanine mutation (S196A) introduced by site-directed mutagenesis. This mutation prevents phosphorylation at this site but does not significantly affect the level of LXR α expression. The LXR α S196A mice do not present any apparent morphological phenotype, have similar developmental growth compared to matched wild type (WT) mice, and exhibit equivalent metabolic parameters (31). These mice have been used to determine the effect of LXR α phosphorylation *in vivo* on various diseases, such as NAFLD (31), atherosclerosis (28), diabetes (29), and obesity (30). Their phenotypes and mechanisms are discussed below and summarized graphically in Figure 2 and the models, sex of animals, diets used and phenotypes detailed in Table 1.

LXR α PHOSPHORYLATION IN NAFLD - LXR α S196A RETARDS NAFLD PROGRESSION

NAFLD is a progressive liver disease that ranges from simple fatty liver (steatosis) to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), and can progress to fibrosis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma (33). NAFLD is the major cause of chronic liver disease in the Western world, and is predicted to become the main cause for liver transplantation by 2030 (34). NAFLD may progress from benign steatosis to inflammatory and

fibrotic steatohepatitis. LXRs contribute to this pathology by promoting fatty acid and triglyceride accumulation (35). While deletion of LXRs in mouse models have shed light onto the LXR-mediated pathways controlling steatohepatitis (36,37), the impact of LXR α phosphorylation on NAFLD progression remained unclear, and we sought to address this gap.

To this end, Becares *et al.* (31) used a global knock-in mouse carrying an LXR α homozygous serine-to-alanine mutation at Ser196 (S196A) that impairs LXR α phosphorylation without affecting overall hepatic LXR α levels (LXR α S196A mouse). As cholesterol induces LXR α phosphorylation (22); it was hypothesized that LXR α S196A mice may respond differently to a high-fat-high-cholesterol (HFHC) diet when compared to chow.

Phenotype: LXR α S196A mice fed an HFHC diet showed higher levels of hepatic non-esterified fatty acids (NEFAs) and triglycerides compared to WT mice and exhibited enhanced hepatic steatosis. Livers of the LXR α S196A mice featured increased numbers of larger lipid droplets, associated with enhanced expression of lipid droplet genes. Since plasma NEFAs, triglycerides and insulin levels did not differ between genotypes, the increased hepatic fat accumulation in S196A mice was likely a result of enhanced *de novo* lipogenesis. In fact, S196A livers showed an increase in the total amount of saturated as well as unsaturated fatty acids, specifically ω 9 and certain ω 6 fatty acid species. Thus, LXR α S196A expressed globally induces hepatic steatosis and alters fatty acid profiles in response to a HFHC diet.

Despite the increased steatosis, HFHC-fed LXR α S196A mice displayed *less* liver inflammation and collagen deposition than their WT counterparts. This was associated with reduced expression of pro-inflammatory and pro-fibrotic mediators. Expression of factors involved in the activation of ER stress were reduced in LXR α S196A mice suggesting these animals are protected from lipotoxicity through a reduction in ER stress. In addition, HFHC-fed LXR α S196A mice were protected from plasma and hepatic cholesterol accumulation. This was accompanied by a 20% reduction in liver weight in LXR α S196A compared to controls and a decrease in the expression of the cholesterol efflux transporter ATP Binding Cassette Subfamily G Member 1 (*Abcg1*). The HFHC-fed LXR α S196A mice also showed a unique induction in the expression of the cholesterol transporter ATP Binding Cassette Subfamily G Member 5

(*Abcg5*). Thus, reduced cholesterol accumulation in S196A mice is likely due to increased hepatobiliary secretion of cholesterol.

Mechanism: RNA-seq was performed on livers from LXR α S196A and WT mice fed a HFHC diet to gain insight into the mechanism of steatosis managed by LXR α phosphorylation. This revealed increased expression of a subset of the hepatic enzymes involved in fatty acid elongation and fatty acid oxidation. These changes likely contribute to the distinct hepatic fatty acid profile of S196A mice.

LXR α S196A mice also showed a decrease in the levels of wound healing and fibrotic mediators, including collagen genes and enzymes responsible for collagen stabilization. Moreover, expression of a subset of genes involved in extracellular matrix remodeling and tissue regeneration that distinguish between low-risk and high-risk NAFLD among pre-symptomatic patients (38) were remarkably different between WT and S196A mice. Thus, LXR α phosphorylation could alter pre-clinical NAFLD progression by regulating tissue regenerative and remodeling pathways.

Variations in the hepatic transcriptome observed in the liver of LXR α S196A mice compared to WT coincided with changes in chromatin modifications: differences in H3K27 acetylation, which mark active genes, between LXR α WT and S196A mice strongly overlapped with changes in gene expression. For example, expression of the Carboxylase 1F (*Ces1f*) gene was strongly induced in livers from LXR α S196A on a HFHC diet while showing a significant increase in H3K27Ac compared to WT. *In silico* analysis of the *Ces1f* gene for putative LXR binding sites revealed a degenerate DR4 (direct repeat 4) sequence resembling the LXRE consensus binding site (7). In livers from the LXR α S196A HFHC-fed mice this site was preferentially bound by LXR compared to WT, and was associated with increased RNA Polymerase II (Pol II) and phospho-Ser2 Pol II (pSer-Pol II) occupancy, indicative of enhanced transcriptional initiation and elongation. This suggests that impaired LXR α S196 phosphorylation allows for the transcriptional activation of new target genes containing non-canonical DR4 sequences.

We have previously reported using a macrophage cell line that upon LXR ligand activation, phosphorylation affected the transcriptional activity of LXR α by modulating the binding of the NCoR corepressor to genes controlled by LXR α phosphorylation (22). However, differences in NCoR occupancy

in the livers of mice exposed to the HFHC diet were not detected, suggesting responses to cholesterol *in vivo* involve other transcriptional regulatory factors whose interaction with LXR α is sensitive to phosphorylation. One such factor is the Transducin Beta Like 1 X-Linked Receptor 1 (TBLR1), which participates in nuclear receptor cofactor exchange (39) and modulates LXR target gene expression in hepatic cells (40). TBLR1 was found to preferentially bind to LXR α S196A and, occupy the *CesIf* LXRE in livers from LXR α S196A as compared to WT HFHC-fed mice. *CesIf* is a carboxylesterase that regulates VLDL lipid packaging and assembly in the hepatocytes (41), with enhanced expression expected to result in increased hepatic lipid clearance. This suggests changes in LXR α phosphorylation at Ser196 in the context of a cholesterol rich diet affect its interactions with regulatory factors such as TBLR1 to drive new sets of target genes that influence diet-induced responses in liver.

LXR α PHOSPHORYLATION IN ATHEROSCLEROSIS

Atherosclerosis is a metabolic and inflammatory disease that begins when cholesterol-rich Low Density Lipoprotein (LDL) and other apolipoprotein B-containing lipoproteins in the circulation are deposited in the sub-endothelial space of large arteries, where they and their modified forms promote inflammatory responses (42). In macrophages, LXR α signaling is critical for the homeostatic response to cellular lipid loading (43). Macrophage uptake of normal and oxidized LDL leads to increased cellular concentrations of cholesterol and oxysterols. Activation of LXRs by oxysterols induces the expression of genes involved in cellular cholesterol trafficking and efflux. However, in the face of persistent high cholesterol (hyperlipidemia) the LXR-mediated cholesterol homeostatic mechanism in macrophages is overwhelmed. This results in their becoming foam cells retained in the subendothelial space and the growth of an atherosclerotic plaque (42). In addition, plaque macrophage content reflects additional parameters including monocyte recruitment, macrophage proliferation and apoptosis, and efferocytosis, the process where dead cells are removed by phagocytosis. We initially reported an increase in LXR α pS196 in plaque macrophages under inflammatory conditions associated with atherosclerosis progression, and a decrease in LXR α pS196 during the resolution of inflammation in regressing plaques. We also demonstrated *in vitro*,

that LXR α pS196 selectively regulates a subset of LXR α target genes in macrophages, including genes with anti-inflammatory and atheroprotective functions (22,27). However, the specific contribution of LXR α phosphorylation in macrophages and immune cells to atherosclerosis development remained unknown.

Altering LXR α phosphorylation in macrophages during atherosclerosis progression: impact on FoxM1 expression and macrophage proliferation.

Phenotype: To address the impact of LXR α phosphorylation in macrophages in atherosclerosis, Gage *et al.* (28) generated a mouse model expressing LXR α S196A specifically in myeloid cells on the LDL receptor (LDLR)-deficient (*Ldlr*-KO) atherosclerotic-prone background (M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO}). This was accomplished using a conditional LXR α S196A mouse whereby LysM-Cre-mediated recombination of lox sites results in the replacement of the wild type LXR α with the non-phosphorylatable S196A allele. The LysM-Cre promotes significant recombination in the monocyte/macrophage lineage, as well as promoting recombination in neutrophils (44).

M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO} mice fed a western diet for 12 weeks developed accelerated plaque progression compared to WT^{Ldlr-KO} controls shown through increased lipid content measured by *en face* examination of aortas and plaque coverage in aortic roots. Despite no change in the metabolic characteristics such as systemic glucose or lipid homeostasis, atherosclerotic plaques were larger in M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO} compared to control mice. This reflected increased proliferation of cells within the plaque (likely macrophages). Smaller necrotic cores and reduced fibrous caps of the M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO} plaques were also observed.

Mechanism: To determine the mechanism of increased atherosclerosis in M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO} mice the transcriptomic profiles of bone marrow derived macrophages (BMDMs) from the western diet-fed mice were compared. This revealed significant genome-wide transcriptional changes and an enrichment in G2/M checkpoint and E2F targets, indicating cell cycle and cell proliferation pathways were induced in macrophages expressing LXR α S196A. This included a threefold increase in the proto-oncogene *FoxM1* and several of its target genes from western diet-fed LXR α S196A compared to WT LXR α BMDMs. Macrophages expressing the LXR α S196A also showed increased proliferation. Interrogation of ChIP-seq

data and *in silico* analysis identified specific LXR α occupancy at the *FoxM1* gene in macrophages. Furthermore, pharmacological inhibition of *FoxM1* using the specific inhibitor FDI-6 (45) reduced the LXR α S196A macrophage proliferation and *FoxM1* target gene expression confirming that *FoxM1* up-regulation mediates the increased macrophage proliferation observed in M-S196A^{Ldlr-KO} mice. Interrogation of the LXR α S196A regulated transcriptome also revealed selective expression of several pro- and anti-phagocytic molecules predicted to increase efferocytosis, which may contribute to the decreased necrotic core size observed.

To further understand the magnitude of the transcriptional changes imposed by the LXR α phosphorylation disruption, response to an LXR ligand GW3965 was explored through RNA-seq analysis on western diet exposed M-196A^{Ldlr-KO} and WT^{LdlrKO} BMDM. GW ligand activation promoted substantial changes in macrophage gene expression that was different and of a different magnitude in cells expressing the LXR α S196A mutant compared with WT macrophages highlighting the significance of LXR α S196 phosphorylation in rewiring the LXR α transcriptome.

Inhibiting LXR α phosphorylation in bone marrow cells during atherosclerosis progression promotes an anti-atherogenic phenotype

In addition to macrophages, other immune cells accumulate in the arterial wall and contribute to atherosclerosis (46-48). In a complementary approach to the macrophage specific knock-in described above, Voisin *et al.* (30) interrogated the requirement of LXR α phosphorylation on the entire cadre of immune cells expressing LXR α S196A compared to WT using a bone marrow transplantation model into the atherosclerotic-prone *Ldlr-KO* fed a western diet to promote plaque formation. This strategy can provide evidence for communication between immune cells types in atherosclerosis that respond to LXR α phosphorylation.

Phenotype: In contrast to myeloid-specific LXR S196A, plaques from LXR α S196A bone marrow transplant mice showed reduced lipid accumulation in the plaques and reduced macrophage proliferation. LXR α S196A decreased the recruitment of inflammation-prone Ly6C^{high} monocytes, which was opposed

by a decrease in macrophage apoptosis. Consequently, we observed a small reduction in plaque size and macrophage (CD68+ cells) accumulation. In this model, unlike the myeloid-specific knock in, lipoprotein profiles were affected with an increase in atheroprotective HDL-C and a decrease in atherogenic LDL-C in LXR α S196A compared to WT. This increase in HDL-C may occur through recruitment of LXR α S196A expressing resident macrophages (Kupffer cells) to the liver in the context of bone marrow transplantation after whole body irradiation to influence liver cells to either increase HDL-C particle secretion or decrease HDL-C uptake (49,50).

Mechanism: To characterize the mechanisms governing macrophage phenotype in atherosclerotic plaques when LXR α phosphorylation at S196 is inhibited in all bone marrow-derived cells, we examined by RNA-seq the gene expression profiles of CD68+ plaque macrophages collected by laser-capture microdissection from LXR α S196A and LXR α WT mice (51). Genes repressed by LXR α S196A aligned to pro-inflammatory pathways, while genes induced by LXR α S196A associated with mitochondrial function, oxidative phosphorylation pathways, but not fatty acid oxidation. This indicates that mitochondrial activity and energy metabolism are induced in LXR α S196A CD68+ cells relative to WT. These are characteristics of metabolic pathways upregulated in anti-inflammatory macrophages. In parallel, we found that LXR α S196A M1 BMDMs had increased basal respiration, ATP production, fatty acid metabolism and mitochondrial abundance. Since the metabolic dependence of macrophages on oxidative phosphorylation is a hallmark of the anti-inflammatory response by M2 macrophages (52), our findings indicate that inhibiting LXR α phosphorylation at S196 in CD68+ plaque macrophages promotes the acquisition of an anti-inflammatory metabolic phenotype.

The difference in phenotype between the myeloid-specific expression of S196A described above versus the bone marrow transplant model, in which the entire complement of hematopoietic cells express LXR α S196A, suggest that LXR α S196A expression within additional bone marrow-derived cells restrain macrophage proliferation in the plaque to deter atherosclerosis. Recent advances in single cell RNA-seq revealed different leukocyte clusters, including T cells, B cells, dendritic cells, macrophages, monocytes

and NK cells, are present in the plaques of *Ldlr*-KO mice fed a western diet (53). Elucidating which cell subset influences macrophage proliferation within the plaques of LXR α S196A mice remains an interesting and open question.

LXR α PHOSPHORYLATION IN CARDOMETABOLIC DISEASES

Disrupting LXR α phosphorylation in bone marrow during atherosclerosis progression protects against diet-induced obesity

Obesity shares pathological features with atherosclerosis, including chronic inflammation mediated by both innate and adaptive immune cells that accumulate in the visceral adipose tissue (VAT) and contribute to adipocyte dysfunction (54). Given the pivotal role of LXR α in cholesterol metabolism and inflammation and the influence of LXR α pS196 on gene expression, strategies that reduce LXR α pS196 could help diminish obesity. To determine the effect of LXR α pS196 on diet-induced obesity, we took advantage of the bone marrow transplant model of LXR α S196A in *Ldlr*-KO background (30).

Phenotype: *Ldlr*-KO mice reconstituted with LXR α WT or S196A bone marrow fed a western diet become obese. Interestingly, LXR α S196A mice gained less weight (15% less than WT mice) after 16 weeks of western diet. Despite equivalent food intake, bone mineral density, and lean body mass, LXR α S196A mice showed reduced fat mass, in particular perigonadal white adipose tissue mass (pWAT), compared to LXR α WT mice. Consistent with the reduced lipid accumulation in perigonadal adipose tissue, we also observed a decrease in adipocyte size when LXR α S196 phosphorylation was inhibited.

Mechanism: Associated with the reduction of adipose tissue, flow cytometry of the perigonadal adipose tissue revealed that LXR α S196A altered a unique type of immune cell population. Total adipose tissue macrophages (ATMs) and recruited pro-inflammatory FBC (triple positive $\underline{F4/80+CD11b+CD11c+}$) macrophages (M1-like macrophages) were reduced, although the number of resident anti-inflammatory FB (double positive $\underline{F4/80+CD11b+ CD11c-}$) macrophages (M2-like macrophages) did not change. This resulted in a higher ratio of inflammation-resolving FB to inflammation-promoting FBC macrophages in

LXR α S196A adipose tissue compared to LXR α WT (55). Dendritic cell (DC) and T cell numbers were not affected by LXR α S196A. RNA-seq analysis of ATMs revealed a large change in the LXR α S196A transcriptomes between ATM subtypes consistent with a less inflammatory phenotype suggestive of reduced inflammatory-mediated signaling to adipocytes.

Thus, expression of LXR α S196A in the bone marrow significantly decreased mouse weight, total fat, pWAT, and adipocyte size in pWAT compared to WT. This phenotype was not reported in myeloid-specific S196A expressing mice in the *Ldlr*-KO background, suggesting that other bone marrow-derived cells in combination with macrophages are promoting this phenotype (30).

Disrupting LXR α phosphorylation alters atherosclerosis regression associated with diabetes

Diabetic patients have earlier onset and more extensive atherosclerosis than non-diabetic patients (56,57). Clinical data shows that the diabetes significantly hampers the regression of human atherosclerosis, even when lipid levels are lowered (58). This effect has been recapitulated in mouse model of atherosclerosis where the favorable effects of lowering lipid levels on plaque development are impaired in diabetic mice (59). Plaque regression- the ability to resolve inflammation upon lipid lowering- is also significantly impaired in diabetic mice compared to non-diabetic mice, even when LDL cholesterol is similarly reduced in both (59). We have demonstrated that chronically high level of glucose alters LXR-dependent gene activation in BMDM, suggesting that LXR function is dysregulated by hyperglycemia in diabetes (60). Given that phosphorylation of LXR α at S196 was increased by diabetes-relevant high glucose levels in a macrophage cell line and also modulated LXR α - gene expression, we examined whether LXR α function in atherosclerosis regression is impaired in diabetic mice as a function of S196 phosphorylation. To determine whether LXR α phosphorylation affected macrophage function during atherosclerosis regression in diabetes, we used an inducible LXR α S196A phosphorylation deficient knock-in mouse so plaques could develop normally under LXR α WT expression and then be switched to LXR α S196A to isolate the effect of LXR phosphorylation on regression. Mice homozygous for LXR α S196A floxed allele (S196A^{FL/FL}) with or without a tamoxifen inducible CRE recombinase (*RosaCreER*^{T2}; *Cre*⁺ or *Cre*⁻) were

used as donors for bone marrow (BM) transplantation into recipient Reversa mice (*Ldlr*^{-/-}; *ApoB*^{100/100}; *Mttp*^{fl/fl}; *Mx1-Cre*^{+/+}) (61). This is an *Ldlr*-KO model where the hyperlipidemia can be reversed after conditional inactivation of microsomal triglyceride transfer protein (*Mttp*). Mice were fed a western diet for 16 weeks to allow plaques to develop. Tamoxifen was administered at week 14.5 to all groups. This induced recombination of *LoxP* sites in the *Cre* expressing mice resulting in the replacement of LXR α WT with the LXR α S196A allele after the development of atherosclerosis. The regression/diabetic mice were administered an intraperitoneal injection of Streptozotocin (STZ) for 5 days to induce hyperglycemia (29).

Phenotype: Expression of LXR α S196A in hematopoietic cells had differential effects on atherosclerosis regression in normoglycemic versus hyperglycemic conditions. Under normoglycemia, LXR α S196A expression increased macrophage accumulation, macrophage apoptosis, and plaque necrotic area. In diabetes, LXR α S196A reduced macrophage retention in the plaque, which would be predicted to be anti-atherogenic and enhance plaque regression. However, this favorable effect on regression was negated by increased monocyte infiltration in the plaque, attributed to increased leukocytosis in LXR α S196A mice.

Mechanism: The increase in macrophage plaque accumulation under normoglycemia observed in LXR α S196A mice is due to an increase in the number of circulating white blood cells, especially monocytes. In fact, elevated white blood cell counts have been linked to an increased incidence of coronary heart disease in humans (62). Monocytosis occurs in hypercholesterolemic animal models as a result of western diet feeding, which promotes accumulation of macrophages in the plaque (63). Plaques from LXR α S196A mice also showed increased necrotic area and higher numbers of apoptotic macrophages compared to WT. This is likely the result of a defect in efferocytosis since plaque macrophages expressing LXR α S196A showed reduced expression of the efferocytosis promoting factor *Mertk*, a known LXR target gene (64).

While LXR α S196A reduced macrophage retention in plaques in diabetes, this favorable effect on regression is masked by increased monocyte infiltration in the plaque attributed to increased leukocyte production in LXR α S196A mice. Thus, in the absence of leukocytosis, the phosphorylation-deficient LXR α S196 has atheroprotective effects in diabetes by reducing the retention and accumulation of macrophages in atherosclerotic plaque (29).

LXR α S196 PHOSPHORYLATION AS A POTENTIAL DRUG TARGET

LXR α represents a promising target for the treatment of diseases involving dysregulation of metabolism and inflammation given that its activity can be controlled by both small molecule ligands and phosphorylation. This includes atherosclerosis (15), diabetes (65), obesity (36), and fatty liver disease (37,66), as well as cancer (67,68), and Alzheimer's disease (35). However, undesirable side effects of targeting LXR using ligands— such as elevated liver triglycerides via LXR-dependent activation of *SREBP5*— have hindered the clinical utility of compounds targeting LXR α (69-71). Therefore, finding ways to selectively activate (or repress) LXR α targets genes via changes in LXR α phosphorylation could represent a new therapeutic strategy, since alterations in LXR α phosphorylation elicit different patterns of gene expression. This is consistent with the finding that phosphorylation of PPAR γ at S273 in the hinge region by the Cyclin dependent kinase 5 (CDK5), changes expression of specific genes involved in insulin sensitivity (72). In fact, PPAR γ ligands that block CDK5-mediated phosphorylation of the receptor have potent anti-diabetic activity through selective changes in gene expression, suggesting the possibility of novel pharmacology achieved by modulating phosphorylation of nuclear receptors (72,73). We have reported that we can stimulate the non-phosphorylated form of LXR α pharmacologically by blocking the upstream kinase (e.g. CK2) or using a combination of LXR α ligands, such as T0901317 and 9cRA (22). To circumvent systemic side effects of LXR activation, site-specific delivery of LXR α ligands and/or kinase inhibitors that block phosphorylation could be accomplished using nanoparticles. Nanomedicine using LXR α ligands has been demonstrated success in treating atherosclerosis in a mouse model while minimizing systemic effects in the liver (74). However, a better understanding of the complex activities of LXR α pS196 in pathological contexts, especially in models that recapitulate human pathophysiology, is necessary to develop alternative targeted therapies.

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

We have shown that LXR α phosphorylation at S196 plays a key role in the control of LXR α transcriptional activity in cardiometabolic disease. One overarching theme from these studies is that S196

phosphorylation reprograms the LXR-modulated transcriptome, and this appears distinct from the LXR transcriptome in response to ligand (28,31). For example, Gage *et al.* found that the majority of the genes in the macrophage transcriptional response that were sensitive to the LXR α phosphomutant were observed in the absence of LXR ligand stimulation (28). This suggests that environmental cues such as diet are perceived by LXR phosphorylation. These findings are also supported by work from Ramon-Vazquez and colleagues in immortalized BMDMs from LXR-deficient mice reconstituted with either LXR α or LXR β that found most of the gene expression differences were seen when receptors were expressed rather than with pharmacological activation of LXR (75). In addition, comparison of gene expression profiles between macrophages from the plaque and macrophages from the visceral adipose tissue from the same mouse were non-overlapping (30), highlighting the role of the local tissue microenvironment in determining gene expression managed by LXR α .

While our studies have established the physiological relevance of LXR α phosphorylation in cardiometabolic diseases, several questions remain. For example, which kinase(s), CK2 or PKA, phosphorylate LXR α *in vivo*, and is this dependent on the diet or cell type? To address these questions, we could use genetics and pharmacological manipulation via kinase conditional knock out mice, and kinase inhibitors. Another remaining question is how does LXR α S196A induce such a dramatic change in transcription? LXR α S196A can selectively occupy certain genes via preferential interaction with co-regulators (22,31). This reinforces work on LXR β phosphorylation at S426 by Calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II γ (CaMKII γ) leading to the de-repression of inflammatory genes via the release of Coronin 2 (CORO2A), a component of the NCoR repression complex (76). But are these mechanisms the exception or the rule? To gain insight into this question, ChIP-seq studies of LXR α WT and LXR α S196A upon dietary changes, as well as characterization of the LXR α S196 phospho-cistrome using LXR α phospho-specific antibody in macrophages and liver could inform LXR α phosphorylation-dependent gene regulatory mechanisms by identifying potential collaborating transcription factors.

We are also interested in applying the LXR α S196A mouse model to other diseases linked to LXR α signaling including neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer (77). Additionally, an atlas of LXR α

phosphorylation in normal and diseased human tissues would help inform homeostatic or pathological states where LXR α phosphorylation could be relevant. Together, such studies would reveal mechanisms underlying LXR α phosphorylation-dependent gene expression, and inform physiological settings where LXR α phosphorylation is important.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by grants from the NIH (R01HL117226, MJG, EAF), and an American Heart Association postdoctoral fellowship (19POST34410010, MV), Jan Vilcek/David Goldfarb Fellowship (MV), British Heart Foundation Project Grants (PG/13/10/30000, IPT and PG/16/87/32492, MG & IPT), Medical Research Council New Investigator Grant (G0801278 to IPT) and University College of London Grand Challenges PhD Studentship (IPT, NB).

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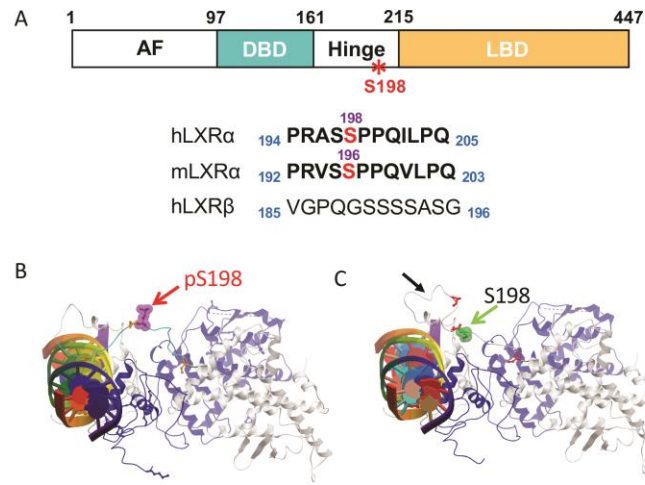
FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1 LXR α S196 phosphorylation of the hinge region. A) Schematic of human LXR α showing the N-terminal activation function (AF), DNA binding domain (DBD), the hinge region, the ligand binding domain (LBD), and conservation of the LXR α phosphorylation site in mouse on the S196.

Phosphorylated serine residues are in red. This site is not conserved in LXR β . B-C) Molecular modeling of LXR α S198 phosphorylation on the DNA-bound LXR α -RXR α heterodimer reveals changes in LXR α S198 residue orientation upon phosphorylation: conformations of the human LXR α -RXR α heterodimer bound to DNA (multicolored cylinder with central plates) (B) in the S198 phosphorylated form (red arrow) and (C) in the S198 non-phosphorylated form (green arrow). Residues 181 to 195 loop orientation in the LXR α S198 non-phosphorylated state is altered in the phosphorylated state (panel C: black arrow). RXR α is shown in blue, and LXR α is depicted in gray. Adapted from (27).

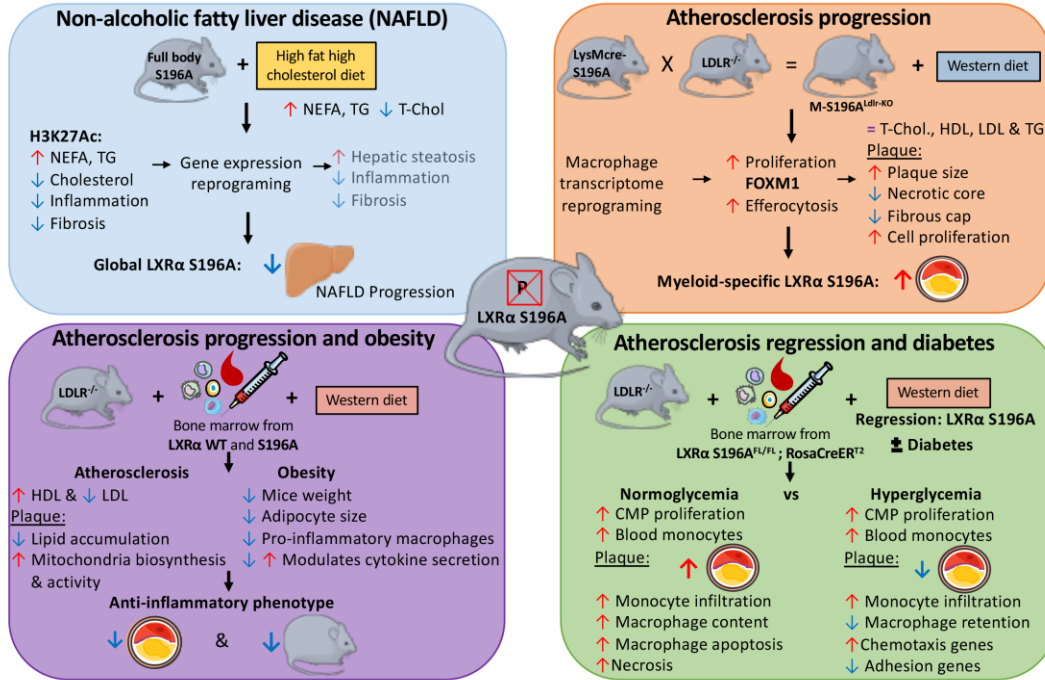
Figure 2: LXR α S196A mouse models in cardiometabolic diseases. *Top, Left*, The full body knock-in of LXR α S196A showed reduced progression from steatosis to steatohepatitis in a model of diet-induced non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) (31). *Top, Right*, A myeloid specific knock-in of LXR α S196A in an atherosclerotic background demonstrated that LXR α S196A increased atherosclerosis via enhanced macrophage proliferation. *Bottom, Left*, and *Bottom, Right*, bone marrow transplant models where all hematopoietic cells express LXR α S196A, revealed that LXR α S196A decreased atherosclerosis progression and obesity (30) and reduced atherosclerosis during regression in a diabetic context (29).

Figure 1



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Figure 2



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Table 1: Models used in assessing LXR α S196 phosphorylation in cardiometabolic diseases

Disease	Model	CRE	S196A Expression	Genetic Background	Diet	Sex	Phenotype	Reference
Atherosclerosis	LXR α S196A ^{FL/FL}	LYSM-CRE	Monocyte/Macrophage	C57B16; <i>Ldlr</i> ^{-/-}	WD#	Male	Increased atherosclerosis & macrophages proliferation	Gage <i>et al</i> , PNAS 2018 (ref. 28)
Nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)	LXR α S196A ^{FL/FL}	PGK1-CRE	Whole body	C57B16	HFHC*	Female	Retards NAFLD progression	Becares <i>et al</i> , Cell Reports 2019 (ref. 31)
Atherosclerosis and diabetes	LXR α S196A ^{FL/FL}	ROSA-CRE-ERT2: BMT	All hematopoietic cells	C57B16; <i>Ldlr</i> ^{-/-}	WD [^]	Male	Decreased macrophage adhesion in diabetic plaques	Shrestha <i>et al</i> , BioRxiv 2018 (ref. 29)
Atherosclerosis and obesity	LXR α S196A ^{FL/FL}	ROSA-CRE-ERT2: BMT	All hematopoietic cells	C57B16; <i>Ldlr</i> ^{-/-}	WD [^]	Male	Decreased atherosclerosis and obesity	Voisin <i>et al</i> , BioRxiv 2020 (ref. 30)

WD; Western Diet = 20% [wt/wt] fat, 0.15% cholesterol

* HFHC; High Fat High Cholesterol diet = 17.2% Cocoa Butter, 2.8% Soybean Oil, 1.25% Cholesterol, 0.5% Sodium Cholate

[^] Western Diet (WD) = 21% [wt/wt] fat, 0.3% cholesterol

BMT= bone marrow transplant