



Cardiac LXR α protects against pathological cardiac hypertrophy and dysfunction by enhancing glucose uptake and utilization

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Abstract

Pathological cardiac hypertrophy is characterized by a shift in metabolic substrate utilization from fatty acids to glucose, but the molecular events underlying the metabolic remodeling remain poorly understood. Here, we investigated the role of liver X receptors (LXRs), which are key regulators of glucose and lipid metabolism, in cardiac hypertrophic pathogenesis. Using a transgenic approach in mice, we show that overexpression of LXR α acts to protect the heart against hypertrophy, fibrosis, and dysfunction. Gene expression profiling studies revealed that genes regulating metabolic pathways were differentially expressed in hearts with elevated LXR α . Functionally, LXR α overexpression in isolated cardiomyocytes and murine hearts markedly enhanced the capacity for myocardial glucose uptake following hypertrophic stress. Conversely, this adaptive response was diminished in LXR α -deficient mice. Transcriptional changes induced by LXR α overexpression promoted energy-independent utilization of glucose via the hexosamine biosynthesis pathway, resulting in O-GlcNAc modification of GATA4 and Mef2c and the induction of cytoprotective natriuretic peptide expression. Our results identify LXR α as a key cardiac transcriptional regulator that helps orchestrate an adaptive metabolic response to chronic cardiac stress, and suggest that modulating LXR α may provide a unique opportunity for intervening in myocyte metabolism.

Keywords glucose metabolism; left ventricular hypertrophy; liver X receptor; nuclear receptor; O-GlcNAcylation

Subject Categories Cardiovascular System; Metabolism

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Introduction

Pathological cardiac hypertrophy and remodeling ensue in response to sustained elevations in hemodynamic workload (Frey & Olson, 2003). A hallmark of this remodeling process is the alteration in myocardial energy metabolism which is necessitated by increased energy demand (Neubauer, 2007; Ventura-Clapier *et al*, 2011). Under normal physiological conditions, the heart predominantly consumes fatty acids (FA), whereas various stressors trigger a compensatory shift toward glucose, the preferred substrate for its oxygen-sparing effect in ATP production (Stanley *et al*, 2005; Opie & Knuuti, 2009). Despite the success of current pharmacological strategies which aim to reduce afterload and hypertrophic growth using beta blockers and inhibitors of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system, heart failure nevertheless remains a progressive disease with high morbidity and mortality. Interventions in metabolic remodeling therefore represent a promising therapeutic adjunctive for targeting pathological cardiac hypertrophy and development of heart failure (Ardehali *et al*, 2012).

Liver X receptors (LXRs) are nuclear receptors that have emerged as central metabolic regulators in various organ systems and cell types. At the molecular level, LXRs function as ligand-activated transcription factors that intricately regulate and coordinate cholesterol homeostasis, glucose and lipid metabolism, and inflammatory signaling. As such, the importance of LXRs in the cardiovascular system is mainly attributed to their atheroprotective effects in accelerating reverse cholesterol transport (Naik *et al*, 2006; Zhang *et al*, 2012), and reducing atherosclerotic lesion size and inflammation (Schuster *et al*, 2002; Joseph *et al*, 2003; Giannarelli *et al*, 2012). The biological functions of LXRs are mediated via two subtypes,

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LXR α (NR1H3), which is predominantly expressed in liver, adipose, intestine, and macrophages, but also in heart, kidney, adrenal gland, and lung, and LXR β (NR1H2), expressed ubiquitously (Chen *et al*, 2005). LXRs reside in the nucleus where they heterodimerize with retinoid X receptor and are bound to cognate LXR response elements (LXREs) in regulatory regions of target genes (Peet *et al*, 1998).

Less is known regarding the role of LXR in pathological cardiac hypertrophy. LXRs have been implicated in blood pressure control by regulating renin gene expression *in vivo* (Morello *et al*, 2005). In blood pressure-independent models, the LXR agonist, T0901317 (T09), attenuated the hypertrophic response to pressure overload in mice (Kuipers *et al*, 2010), whereas this effect was exacerbated in LXR α -null mice (Wu *et al*, 2009). These studies, however, are limited by confounding systemic effects of pharmacological LXR activation and by the lack of agonist specificity. Therefore, it remains unclear whether LXR α directly affects the pathogenesis of hypertrophy. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the cardiospecificity of LXR α in modulation of myocardial metabolism and pathological hypertrophy by generating a murine model of cardiac-specific LXR α overexpression.

Results

Mice with cardiac-specific LXR α overexpression exhibit no overt cardiac phenotype at baseline or with aging

To study LXR α activation in the heart, we generated transgenic (LXR α -Tg) mice with cardiac-specific overexpression of murine LXR α driven by the cardiomyocyte-specific α MHC promoter (Fig 1A). LXR α mRNA and protein expression were increased 130-fold and 9-fold, respectively (Fig 1B, C and D). Heart weight in LXR α -Tg mice, as assessed by LV weight normalized to tibia length (LV/tibia), was marginally less compared to Wt (Fig 1E). Mean arterial pressure (MAP) was unaltered in LXR α -Tg mice (Fig 1F). Echocardiography-determined LV dimensions and function were comparable to Wt, and no differences in indices of contractility and intracardiac pressures, measured *in situ* with microtip catheterization, were observed (Supplementary Table S1). Histological analyses of ventricular sections stained with WGA-FITC or Masson's trichrome displayed no evidence of abnormal cardiomyocyte morphology or collagen deposition in LXR α -Tg hearts (Fig 1G). To verify whether overexpression indeed induced functionally active LXR α , we determined mRNA levels of well-described LXR α target genes (Tontonoz & Mangelsdorf, 2003) including *Srebp1c*, *Scd1*, and *Abca1*. These were significantly increased in LXR α -Tg mice (Fig 1H). Furthermore, *Pgc1a*, a co-activator of LXR (Oberkofler *et al*, 2003), was also upregulated, plausibly to maintain LXR α in a constitutively active state. *Lxrb* expression was not changed. The long-term effects of cardiac-specific LXR α activation were also assessed in mice up to 12 months of age. Chronic LXR α activation did not impair gross cardiac morphology or function in aged mice (Supplementary Table S1). In summary, LXR α -Tg mice displayed normal physiological development, and all structural and functional cardiac parameters were within normal range.

LXR α overexpression attenuates pathological development of cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and dysfunction

To evaluate specific effects of LXR α in pathological cardiac hypertrophy, mice were subjected to pressure overload by TAC for 5 weeks. Heart weights were similar between sham-operated Wt and LXR α -Tg groups (Fig 2A). TAC caused significant increases in LV/tibia ratios; however, LXR α -Tg mice exhibited 24% less hypertrophy compared to Wt, which was further evidenced by reduced cardiomyocyte size (Fig 2B and C). In comparison with LXR α -Tg mice, the greater degree of hypertrophy observed in Wt was attributable to larger increases in interventricular septal and LV free wall thicknesses, while no marked dilatation of the LV chamber was observed for either TAC group (Supplementary Table S2). To further assess the impact of LXR α on other parameters of myocardial remodeling, fibrosis was quantified in cross-sectional LV. Collagen deposition was only marginally detected in LXR α -Tg hearts following TAC, whereas this increased 4-fold in Wt (Fig 2C and D). These anti-fibrotic effects were associated with less induction of genes involved in fibrogenesis, *Col1a1* and *Ctgf* (Fig 2E). Following TAC, typical reactivation of the fetal gene program occurred in both groups, but to a lesser extent in LXR α -Tg mice (Fig 2E). Interestingly, we observed elevated basal levels of natriuretic peptides, *Anp* and *Bnp*, in LXR α -Tg mice. In contrast, other gene markers representative of fetal gene activation were more strongly induced in Wt following TAC: α MHC to β MHC isoform transition (*Myh6/Myh7* ratio), *Acta1*, as well as the hypertrophic gene, *Rcan1*.

Functional evaluation revealed that Wt mice subjected to TAC achieved significantly less systolic LV thickening and demonstrated greater acceleration toward heart failure as fractional shortening declined 11% versus only 6% in LXR α -Tg (Fig 3A). These functional improvements in LXR α -Tg mice were further accompanied by reduced intracardiac pressures (Fig 3C and D). No changes in MAP or HR were recorded (Fig 3B, Supplementary Table S2).

To determine whether cardiac LXR α overexpression affects early hypertrophic remodeling processes, mice were subjected to 1 week of TAC-induced pressure overload. Cardiac hypertrophy was present in Wt mice after 1 week of TAC; however, this was significantly attenuated in LXR α -Tg mice (Supplementary Fig S1A). Assessment of cardiac function with echocardiography indicated that function remained relatively compensated in TAC-operated mice (Supplementary Fig S1B). The effect of cardiac LXR α on hypertrophy, including expression of fetal genes (Supplementary Fig S1C), is comparable to what we observed in TAC after 5 weeks. Molecular determinants of inflammation were more strongly upregulated in Wt hearts compared to LXR α -Tg (Supplementary Fig S1D–G), whereas the anti-apoptotic factor, *Bcl2*, was significantly induced with LXR α overexpression (Supplementary Fig S1I and J). These data implicate an anti-inflammatory role for LXR α in the initial phase of hypertrophic pathogenesis, and possible protection against anti-apoptotic triggers.

To further verify that our observations were not model dependent, we conducted experiments with Ang II infusion over 10 days. Consistent with our findings from TAC experiments, LXR α -Tg mice showed reduced Ang II-induced myocardial hypertrophy and fibrosis with moderate improvements in hemodynamic parameters (Supplementary Fig S2). Taken together, these data demonstrate

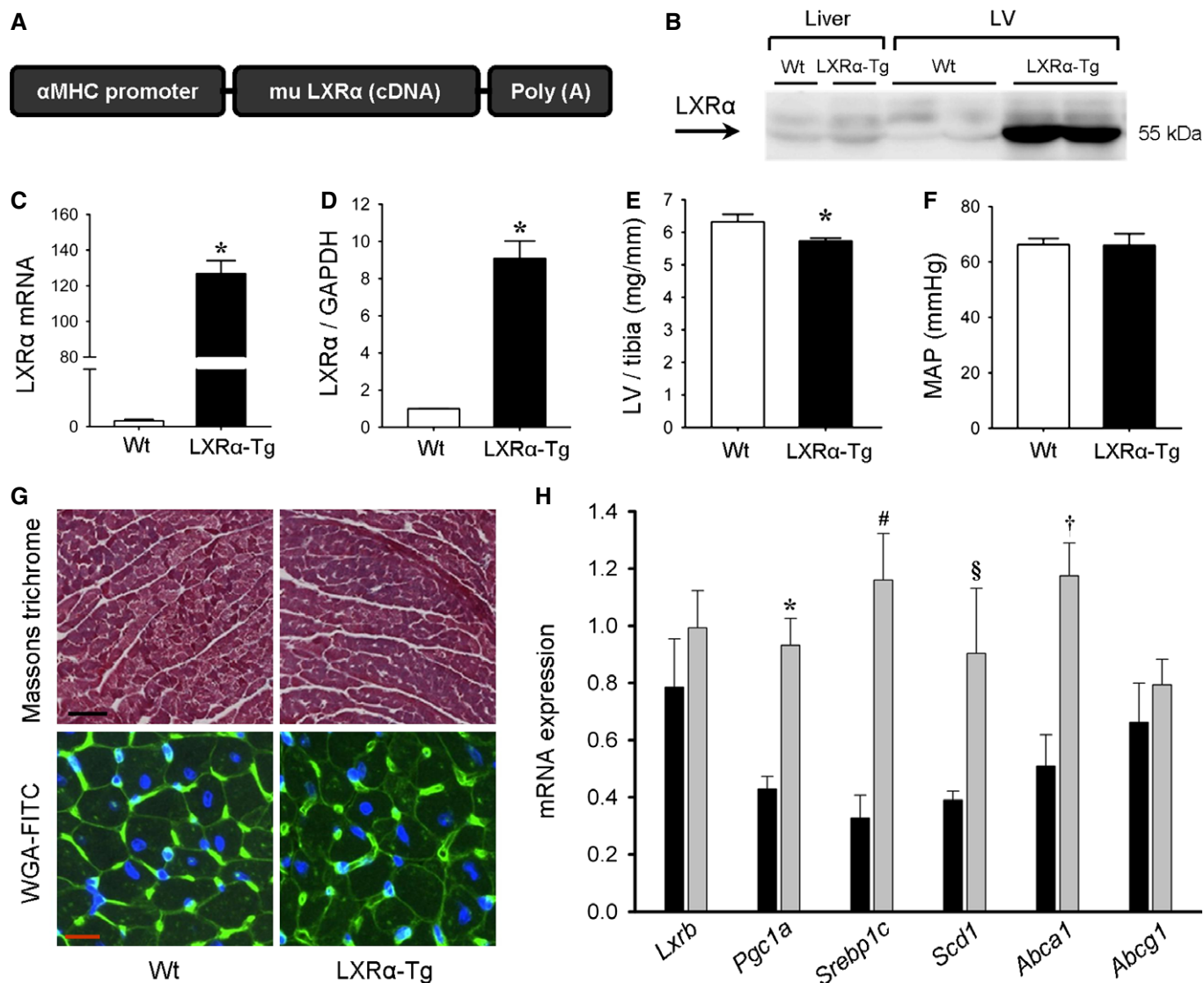


Figure 1. Baseline characterization of mice with cardiac-specific LXR α overexpression.

A Murine LXR α DNA construct for the generation of transgenic (LXR α -Tg) mice.

B–D Left ventricular LXR α expression in Wt and LXR α -Tg mice aged 12 weeks. (B) Western blot of LXR α in liver and LV tissue. Quantification of (C) mRNA expression (normalized to *36b4*; $n = 6$ –8/group, $*P < 0.00001$ versus Wt) and (D) protein expression (normalized to GAPDH; $n = 4$ /group, $*P = 0.0001$ versus Wt).

E LV weight to tibia length ratios (LV/tibia); $n = 15$ /group. $*P = 0.02$.

F Assessment of mean arterial pressure (MAP) with *in situ* catheterization shows no significant differences.

G Representative Masson's trichrome and wheat germ agglutinin (WGA)-FITC staining in cross-sectional LV, scale bars = 100 μ m and 10 μ m, respectively.

H Relative mRNA levels of known LXR α -associated and target genes assessed with RT-PCR; $n = 8$ /group. $*P = 0.0003$, $#P = 0.0004$, $§P = 0.043$, $†P = 0.0009$ versus Wt.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM; Student's paired 2-tailed t-test was used to compare groups.

Source data are available online for this figure.

that cardiac-specific LXR α activation ameliorates adverse cardiac remodeling and dysfunction in mice in response to diverse pathological hypertrophic stimuli.

LXR α overexpression induces transcriptional alterations in metabolic pathways

Gene profiling of the LV transcriptome was performed to uncover the molecular basis for the cardioprotective phenotype observed in

LXR α -Tg mice (Supplementary Fig S3, Supplementary Table S3). Basal LXR α overexpression induced substantial changes in genes relating to metabolism (Fig 4A). To further investigate microarray pathway analysis, mRNA levels of several key genes regulating FA and glucose metabolism were determined (Supplementary Fig S4). In LXR α -Tg hearts, glycolysis-related genes were more differentially expressed, including upregulation of the glucose transporters, *Glut1* and *Glut4*, as well as *Pdk4*, regulating pyruvate oxidation in mitochondria.

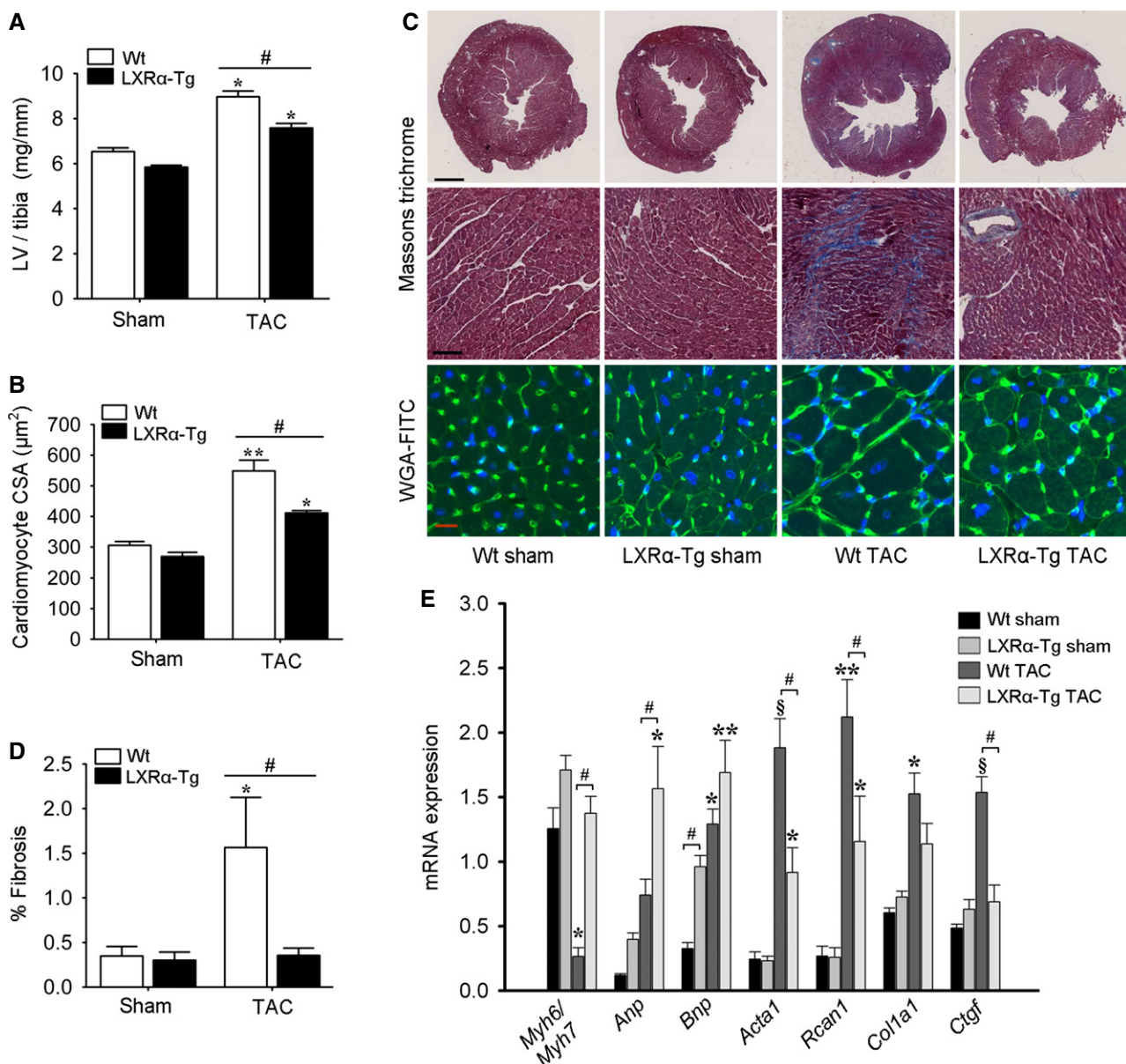


Figure 2. LXR α overexpression attenuates TAC-induced cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis after 5 weeks.

A LV/tibia ratios in sham- and TAC-operated Wt and LXR α -Tg mice; $n = 21$ Wt sham, $n = 24$ LXR α -Tg sham, $n = 24$ Wt TAC, $n = 26$ LXR α -Tg TAC. * $P < 0.00001$ versus respective sham, # $P = 0.00004$.
B Quantification of cardiomyocyte cross-sectional area from WGA-FITC-stained histological sections; $n = 5$ Wt sham, $n = 4$ LXR α -Tg sham, $n = 5$ Wt TAC, $n = 3$ LXR α -Tg TAC. ** $P = 0.00001$ versus Wt sham, * $P = 0.01$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.01$.
C Representative LV sections stained with WGA-FITC and Masson's trichrome to assess cardiomyocyte hypertrophy and fibrosis, respectively; scale bars = 1 mm, 100 μ m, 10 μ m, from top to bottom.
D Whole area percentage of fibrosis in Masson's trichrome-stained sections; $n = 8$ per group, except $n = 7$ in Wt TAC group. * $P = 0.02$ versus Wt sham, # $P = 0.02$.
E Measurement of mRNA levels with RT-PCR to assess induction of fetal gene program, as well as hypertrophy (*Rcan1*) and fibrosis (*Col1a1*, *Ctgf*); $n = 8$ per group, except $n = 7$ in Wt TAC group. *Myh6/Myh7*: * $P = 0.0001$ versus Wt sham, # $P = 0.00001$; *Anp*: * $P = 0.0005$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.02$; *Bnp*: * $P = 0.0006$ versus Wt sham, ** $P = 0.009$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.03$; *Acta1*: § $P < 0.00001$ versus Wt sham, * $P = 0.01$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.001$; *Rcan1*: ** $P = 0.00004$ versus Wt sham, * $P = 0.05$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.04$; *Col1a1*: * $P = 0.00003$ versus Wt sham; *Ctgf*: § $P < 0.00001$ versus Wt sham, # $P = 0.00001$.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test was used to compare groups.

TAC provoked parallel transcriptional alterations in Wt and LXR α -Tg mice, downregulating FA metabolism and similarly upregulating pathways pertaining to extracellular remodeling and

cardiovascular disease. However, the comparison between differentially expressed genes in hypertrophic hearts was most striking for LXR α -Tg where more than 50% of upregulated genes clustered into

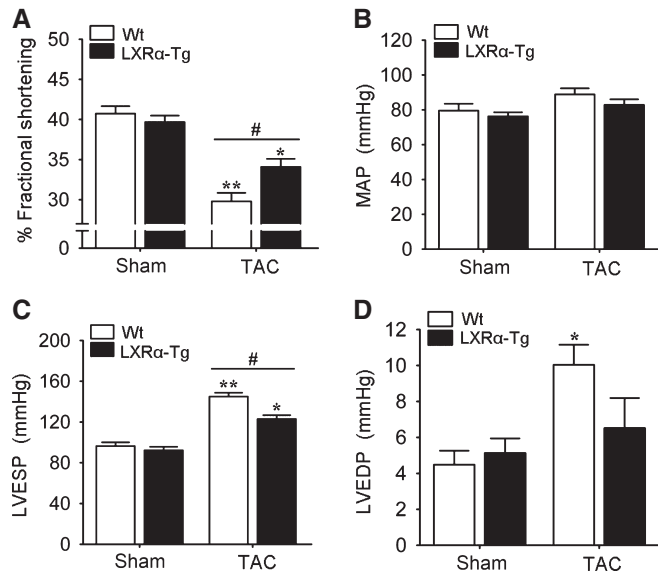


Figure 3. Reduced cardiac dysfunction in mice with cardiac LXR α activation in response to pathological pressure overload.

A Echocardiographic assessment of percent fractional shortening in mice subjected to 5 weeks of TAC; $n = 19$ Wt sham, $n = 22$ LXR α -Tg sham, $n = 24$ Wt TAC, $n = 26$ LXR α -Tg TAC. ** $P < 0.00001$ versus Wt sham, * $P = 0.0005$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.009$.
 B–D Hemodynamic measurements obtained *in situ* in sham- and TAC-operated mice; $n = 6$ –8/group. (B) Mean arterial pressure (MAP) showed no significant differences. (C) LV end-systolic pressure (LVESP). ** $P < 0.00001$ versus Wt sham, * $P = 0.00004$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, * $P = 0.003$. (D) LV end-diastolic pressure (LVEDP). * $P = 0.02$ versus Wt sham.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test was used to compare groups.

metabolic pathways, for example, glutathione metabolism. Collectively, these expression data convey that LXR α activation transcriptionally reprograms metabolic pathways in the heart, specifically glucose metabolism.

Constitutive LXR α activation enhances myocardial glucose uptake and utilization

We next evaluated whether global transcriptional changes relating to glucose metabolism translated into a functional metabolic outcome. To this end, *in vivo* glucose uptake measurements were performed in a separate sham/TAC cohort ($n = 22$) by injecting mice with FDG and using microPET imaging modality. Basal myocardial FDG-glucose uptake was 1.9-fold higher in LXR α -Tg mice compared to Wt, indicating a greater propensity for glucose utilization. Consistent with previous reports showing a substrate shift to glucose following hypertrophic perturbation (Liao *et al*, 2002; Voelkl *et al*, 2012), TAC lead to a substantial increase in FDG-glucose uptake in both groups. Wt mice achieved 90% increase, which subsequently matched basal LXR α -Tg levels. On the other hand, TAC-operated LXR α -Tg mice exhibited comparatively even greater capacity for glucose uptake that was augmented 50% above both basal LXR α -Tg levels and that of Wt TAC cohorts (Fig 4B and C). Increased glucose uptake in LXR α -Tg hearts did

not impact systemic blood glucose levels as no significant differences in basal levels prior to scan, nor under fasted conditions (Supplementary Table S1), were observed. Furthermore, enhanced glucose uptake was not stored, but rather utilized since myocardial glycogen content was unaltered (Fig 4D).

Expression levels of several key proteins involved in substrate metabolism and regulation were measured. In concert with FDG-glucose uptake levels, GLUT1 and GLUT4 protein levels were increased in LXR α -Tg hearts (Fig 4E), suggesting their membrane translocation and functionality. No appreciable differences between LXR α -Tg and Wt were observed for hexokinase 2 (HK2), the enzyme catalyzing the first step in glycolysis, nor phosphorylated-AMPK, a key metabolic regulator in response to increased workload and energetic stress, as well as for CD36 regulating myocardial FA uptake (Supplementary Fig S5). In summary, enhanced myocardial glucose uptake evidenced in LXR α -Tg mice in the stressed and non-stressed state is associated with induction of GLUT1 and GLUT4.

LXR α -deficient mice manifest reduced myocardial glucose uptake capacity in response to TAC

To gain further insight into LXR α regulation of myocardial metabolism in cardiac hypertrophy, loss-of-function studies were performed in LXR α ^{-/-} mice (Supplementary Table S4). Following 5 weeks of pressure overload, both WT and LXR α ^{-/-} mice developed LV hypertrophy (Fig 5A). The relative increases in LV/tibia ratios were considerably higher for LXR α ^{-/-} compared to WT, 50% versus 30%, albeit not significantly different from each other. Furthermore, LXR α -deficient hearts exhibited a greater tendency toward cardiac dysfunction (Fig 5B and C). Activation of the fetal gene program occurred to a similar extent in both LXR α ^{-/-} and WT mice (Fig 5D–G).

The metabolic response of LXR α -null hearts to hypertrophic perturbation was assessed by evaluating myocardial glucose uptake and GLUT expression. Both GLUT1 and GLUT4 were evidently less upregulated in LXR α ^{-/-} hearts in response to TAC (Fig 5H). Furthermore, FDG-glucose analysis with microPET revealed that LXR α ^{-/-} mice demonstrated an inability to normalize the increases in glucose uptake levels achieved in pressure overload-induced hypertrophy (Fig 5I and J, Supplementary Fig S6). Myocardial glucose uptake increased 1.6-fold in WT, but only 1.3-fold in LXR α ^{-/-} mice. Overall, loss of LXR α resulted in a more progressive deterioration of function following TAC that was associated with a compromised adaptive capacity to augment glucose uptake.

Mitochondrial oxidative capacity of pyruvate is unaltered by chronic LXR α overexpression

To assess whether LXR α -Tg mice displayed increased mitochondrial capacity to oxidize glucose-derived substrates, we determined oxidative phosphorylation in permeabilized LV muscle fibers in the presence of pyruvate in an additional sham/TAC cohort ($n = 26$). Basal (state 2) and maximal ADP-stimulated (state 3) oxygen consumption rates did not differ among stressed and unstressed LXR α -Tg and Wt hearts (Supplementary Fig S7A), indicating that the capacity for pyruvate oxidation was neither impaired nor enhanced by LXR α overexpression or by TAC. Citrate synthase activity, a marker of mitochondrial density to which all

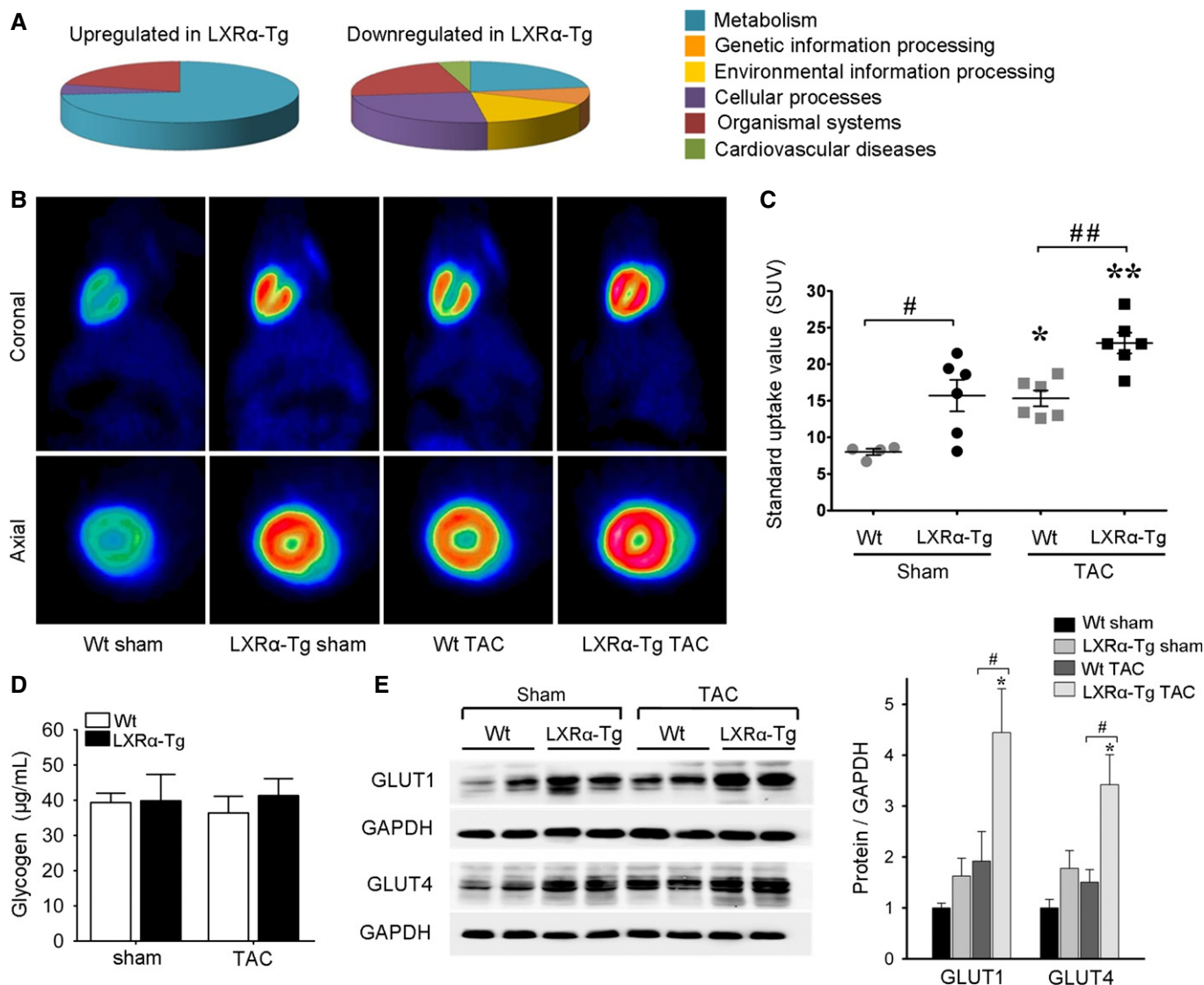


Figure 4. Cardiac LXR α overexpression enhances myocardial glucose uptake.

A Classification of genes differentially expressed in LXR α -Tg hearts (see Supplementary Fig S3).

B Representative ¹⁸F-FDG images with microPET in the coronal and axial planes in Wt and LXR α -Tg mice 5 weeks post-TAC.

C Myocardial FDG uptake measured as standard uptake value (SUV); $n = 4$ –6/group. * $P = 0.04$ versus Wt sham, ** $P = 0.02$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.03$, ## $P = 0.01$.

D Quantification of myocardial glycogen content shows no significant differences; $n = 5$ per sham group, $n = 7$ per TAC group.

E GLUT protein expression in LV tissue normalized to GAPDH; $n = 6$ /group. GLUT1: * $P = 0.01$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.03$; GLUT4: * $P = 0.03$ versus LXR α -Tg sham, # $P = 0.01$.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test was used to compare groups.

Source data are available online for this figure.

respirometry measurements were normalized, was similar for all groups (Supplementary Fig S7B).

Interestingly, we recorded increased state 2 and state 3 respiration rates with palmitoyl (C16)-carnitine in LXR α -Tg, suggesting a trend toward increased capacity to oxidize FA (Supplementary Fig S7C). This may be due to a reciprocal effect on pyruvate oxidation by *Pdk4*, which was induced in LXR α -Tg (Supplementary Fig S4A). The respiratory control ratio, indicative of overall mitochondrial function (Brand & Nicholls, 2011), tended to be higher for palmitoyl-carnitine in stressed and unstressed hearts overexpressing LXR α

(Supplementary Fig S7D). Further lipid profiling revealed increased myocardial leanness in LXR α -Tg hearts (Supplementary Fig S8), despite induction of several lipogenic gene targets (*Srebp1c*, *Scd1*, *Fasn*) (Fig 1H, Supplementary Fig S4B).

LXR α -mediated glucose uptake increases O-GlcNAc signaling in cardiomyocytes

Since no differences in mitochondrial capacity to utilize pyruvate was identified, we postulated that beneficial effects derived from

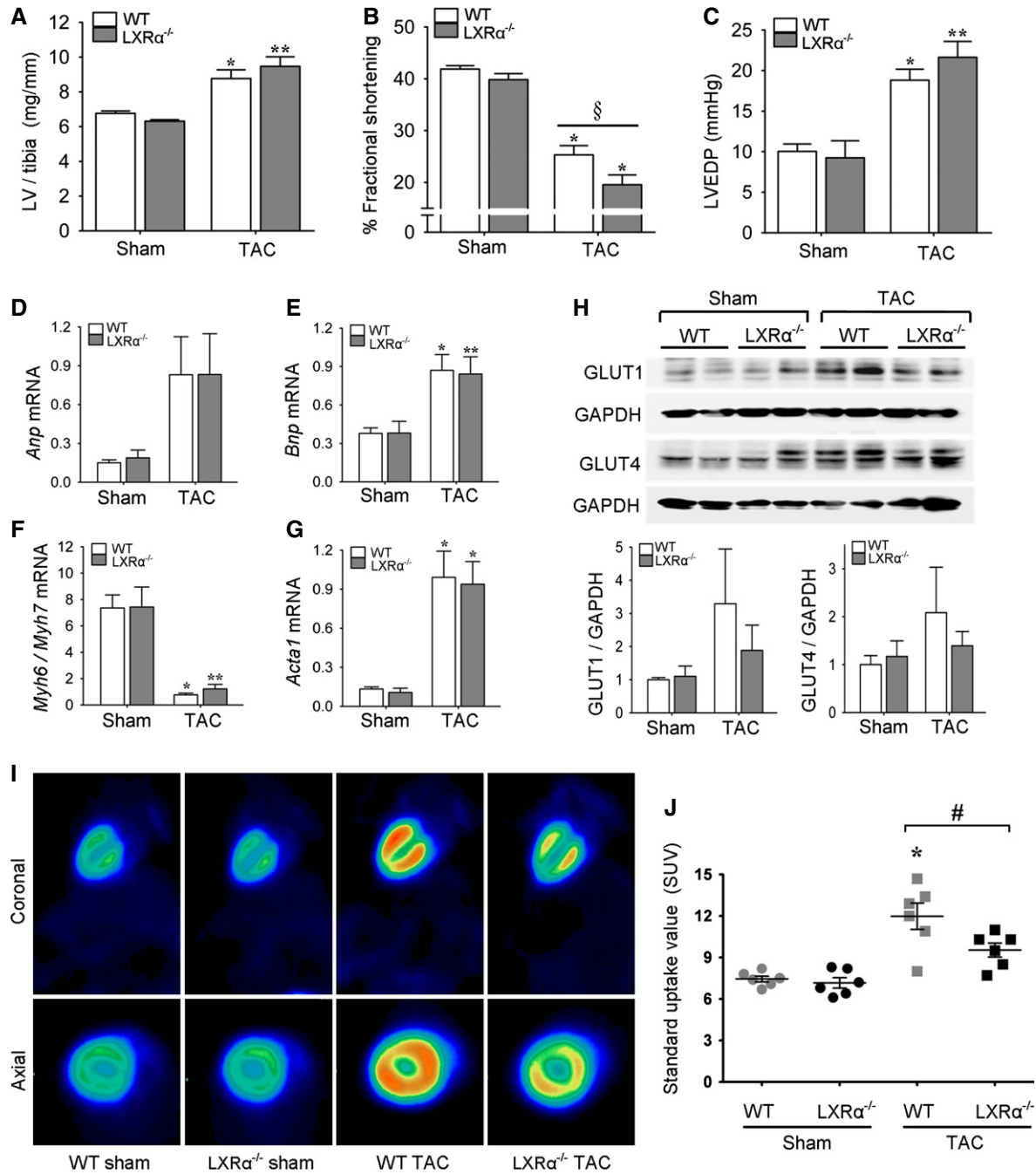


Figure 5. LXRα-null mice manifest reduced myocardial glucose uptake capacity in response to TAC.

- A** LV/tibia ratios in sham- and TAC-operated WT and LXRα^{-/-} mice; $n = 10$ WT sham, $n = 8$ LXRα^{-/-} sham, $n = 12$ WT TAC, $n = 10$ LXRα^{-/-} TAC. * $P = 0.006$ versus WT sham, ** $P = 0.00008$ versus LXRα^{-/-} sham.
- B, C** Cardiac functional assessment at 5 weeks post-TAC. (B) Percent fractional shortening determined with echocardiography; $n = 10$ WT sham, $n = 7$ LXRα^{-/-} sham, $n = 12$ WT TAC, $n = 10$ LXRα^{-/-} TAC. * $P < 0.00001$ versus respective sham, § $P = 0.06$. (C) LV end-diastolic pressure (LVEDP) recorded *in situ*; $n = 10$ WT sham, $n = 7$ LXRα^{-/-} sham, $n = 10$ WT TAC, $n = 9$ LXRα^{-/-} TAC. * $P = 0.001$ versus WT sham, ** $P = 0.00005$ versus LXRα^{-/-} sham.
- D–G** Relative mRNA gene expression as determined by RT-PCR, normalized to *36b4*; $n = 8$ /group. *Anp*: no significant differences; *Bnp*: * $P = 0.01$ versus WT sham, ** $P = 0.03$ versus LXRα^{-/-} sham; *Myh6/Myh7*: * $P = 0.0002$ versus WT sham, ** $P = 0.0003$ versus LXRα^{-/-} sham; *Acta1*: * $P = 0.001$ versus respective sham.
- H** Western blot detection of GLUT protein expression in LV tissue normalized to GAPDH, expressed as fold change, shows no significant differences among groups; $n = 6–8$ /group.
- I** Representative ¹⁸F-FDG-microPET scans.
- J** Myocardial FDG uptake quantified as standard uptake value (SUV); $n = 6$ /group. * $P = 0.0001$ versus WT sham, # $P = 0.047$.

Data information: Data are means ± SEM; one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni's multiple comparison test was used to compare groups.

Source data are available online for this figure.

LXR α -mediated enhanced glucose uptake involved alternate pathways of glycolytic metabolism. One such pathway is the hexosamine biosynthesis pathway (HBP) which culminates in the formation of O-GlcNAc, a posttranslational modifier of numerous proteins. The HBP has been demonstrated to be an essential signaling system in the failing heart (Watson *et al*, 2010), and accumulating evidence from *in vitro* and *ex vivo* systems shows that augmented O-GlcNAc levels via the HBP potentiates cytoprotection (Ngoh *et al*, 2010; Darley-Usmar *et al*, 2012). Using NRVMs, we tested the hypothesis that LXR α -mediated increases in glucose uptake would enhance substrate availability for O-GlcNAc. NRVMs transfected with Ad-LXR α showed significantly elevated 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG) levels of 1.8-fold compared to Ad-cont cells, which was further augmented 40% following PE stimulation (Fig 6A). *Glut4* and *Glut1* mRNA levels were correspondingly increased (Fig 6B and C). Next, we assessed whether enhanced glucose availability led to HBP activation and downstream formation of O-GlcNAc. Ad-LXR α cells displayed increased global protein O-GlcNAcylation that was further enhanced with PE (Fig 6D). Administration of DON to inhibit HBP flux attenuated Ad-LXR α -increased O-GlcNAcylation (Fig 6D), confirming the link between LXR α and HBP-O-GlcNAc signaling.

From our findings in LXR α -Tg mice, we speculated that increased myocardial natriuretic peptide expression (Fig 2E) in conjunction with preference for glucose may, in part, be evidence of an endogenous cardioprotective stress response elicited via LXR α overexpression. The anti-hypertrophic properties of ANP and BNP are well established (Nishikimi *et al*, 2006). Ad-LXR α cells expressed both increased *Anp* and *Bnp* (3.2-fold and 3.8-fold, respectively), which were subsequently suppressed following DON inhibition, suggesting that their induction is linked to O-GlcNAc effector signaling (Fig 6E and F). Further assessment of cellular hypertrophy indicated that DON inhibition of HBP flux also abolished the Ad-LXR α -mediated reductions in cell size that was increased upon PE stimulation (Fig 6G and H).

Alternative experiments were performed with si-LXR α to address the causal relationship among LXR α expression, protein O-GlcNAc modification, and hypertrophy. Knockdown of LXR α led to comparatively higher levels of hypertrophic growth (Fig 7A), and lower levels of O-GlcNAc following PE-induced cellular stress (Fig 7B). Interestingly, gene expression analysis (Fig 7C–F) revealed significant downregulation of *Anp* in LXR α -silenced cells (Fig 7C).

Transcriptional activators of natriuretic peptides are O-GlcNAc modified in LXR α -Tg hearts

Finally, to corroborate our *in vitro* findings, we assessed global protein O-GlcNAc levels from LV tissue lysates of mice overexpressing and deficient for LXR α . Most extensive O-GlcNAcylation was observed in LXR α -Tg hearts involving proteins between 40 and 55 kDa in size (marked in Fig 8A). In contrast, loss of LXR α resulted in attenuated O-GlcNAc signal in response to TAC (Fig 8B). To further identify specific O-GlcNAc targets, agarose wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) precipitation was performed to isolate nuclear GlcNAcylated proteins. Using antibodies specific for known transcription factors activating ANP and BNP (Morin *et al*, 2000; Hayek & Nemer, 2011), Western blot analysis revealed that GATA4 and Mef2c precipitated with WGA in LXR α -Tg hearts, but not with

Nkx-2.5, suggesting that O-GlcNAc modification of GATA4 and Mef2c potentiates their activities (Fig 8C and D). *N*-acetylglucosamine (GlcNAc), a competitor, served as a control.

In summary, these data indicate that cardiac LXR α integrates glucose metabolism and downstream O-GlcNAcylation with induction of cytoprotective natriuretic peptides to orchestrate an anti-hypertrophic response. Therefore, the energy-independent effects of glucose that, herein, are governed by LXR α may be an important salutary mechanism in modulating and preserving myocyte function (Fig 9).

Discussion

In the present study, we describe a cardiac-specific overexpression model for LXR α in mice, and herewith, elucidate the significance of LXR α in modulating myocardial metabolism in pathological hypertrophy. We established that constitutive LXR α activation in murine hearts substantially diminished LV hypertrophy, adverse cardiac remodeling, and improved overall cardiac function following chronic pressure overload and Ang II stimulation. Using this model, we identified the intrinsic transcriptional regulatory mechanisms LXR α exerts in the heart and in counteracting hypertrophic stress. By principally modulating glucose pathways, LXR α functionally enhanced the capacity for myocardial glucose uptake, which was conversely impaired in hypertrophic hearts deficient for LXR α . Furthermore, increased glucose utilization via an energy-independent pathway resulted in the glycosylation of transcription factors inducing natriuretic peptide expression, which we identified as a putative end effector of LXR α -mediated protective effects in the heart.

The role of LXR α in protection against cardiac pathophysiology is not well established. This has been previously addressed in pharmacological studies using the LXR agonist, T09, and LXR α -null mice (Wu *et al*, 2009; Kuipers *et al*, 2010). Conceivably, these approaches are restrained by confounding variables associated with systemic LXR activation, which include lipogenic (Peet *et al*, 1998), anti-inflammatory (Zelcer & Tontonoz, 2006), and blood pressure lowering (Leik *et al*, 2007) effects. Moreover, T09 mediates its effects indiscriminately via other nuclear receptors since it is also a co-activator of farnesoid X receptor, pregnane X receptor, and retinoic acid receptor signaling (Houck *et al*, 2004; Mitro *et al*, 2007; Kumar *et al*, 2010). Selectively overexpressing cardiac LXR α in mice circumvented these confounding factors and afforded a system for delineating the heart-specific effects of LXR α . Using two diverse hypertrophic perturbations, we demonstrated that constitutive LXR α activation countervailed pathological growth and remodeling processes in the heart, including blunting the development of myocardial fibrosis, an observation in line with previous studies demonstrating the anti-fibrotic effects of LXRs in kidney (Tachibana *et al*, 2012) and in liver (Beaven *et al*, 2011). Cardiac LXR α also appears to influence early remodeling processes since less inflammation in association with decreased hypertrophy occurred at an earlier time point of 1 week post-TAC. LXR α -Tg mice may also be less susceptible to apoptosis, which is underscored by upregulation of Bcl2. Taken together, counteraction of inflammatory signaling and myocyte death may explain the attenuated development of fibrosis remodeling we observed after 5 weeks TAC.

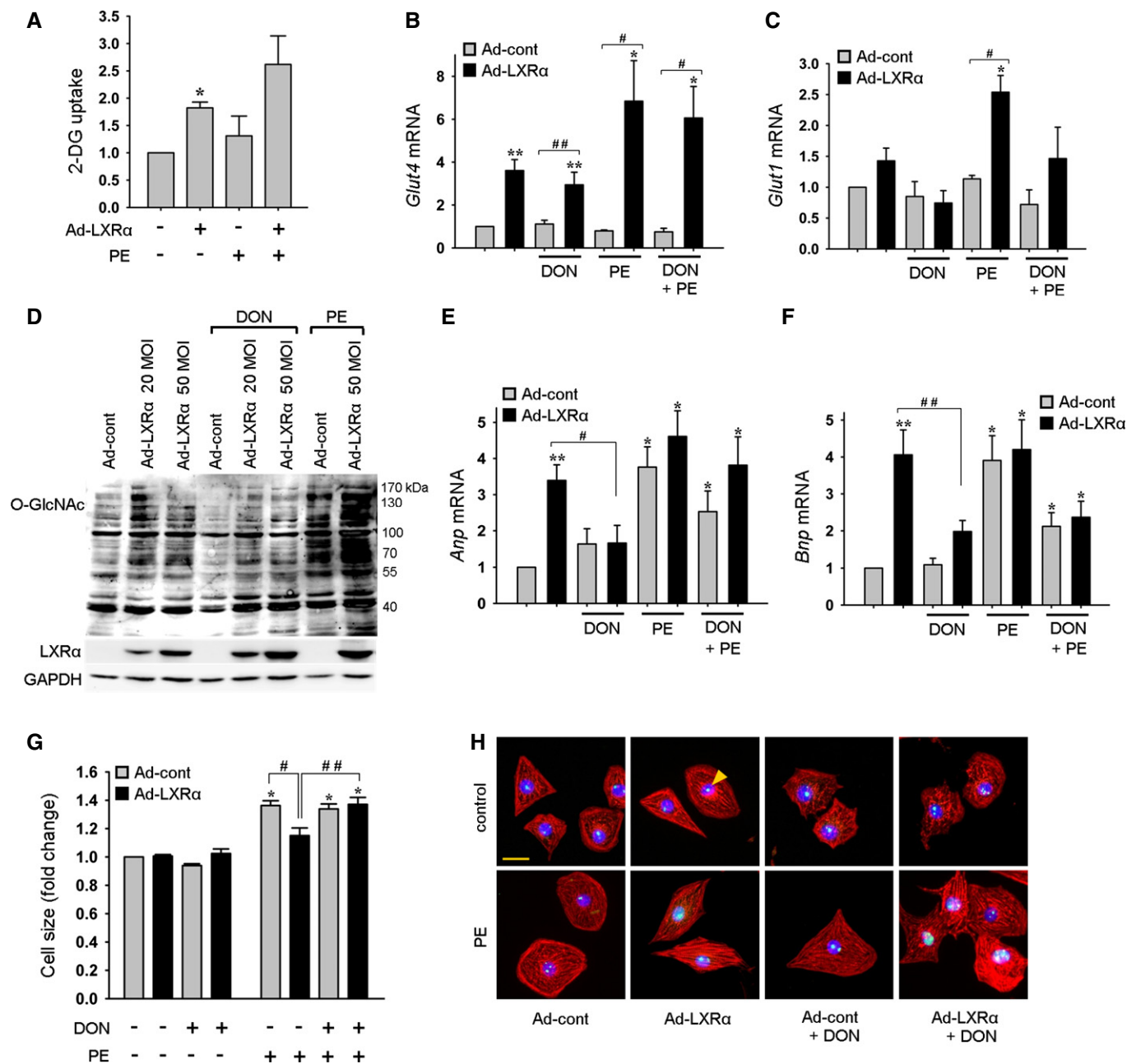


Figure 6. LXR α enhances glucose uptake and O-GlcNAc signaling via activation of the hexosamine biosynthetic pathway (HBP) in cultured cardiomyocytes. Neonatal rat ventricular myocytes were transfected with Ad-LXR α or GL2 (Ad-cont), and treatments with phenylephrine (PE) and DON (inhibitor of HBP) were initiated for 24 h.

A Assessment of 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG) uptake from 4 independent experiments. * $P = 0.03$ versus Ad-cont.

B, C *Glut* mRNA expression determined by RT-PCR normalized to *36b4*, $n = 5$ per condition in the absence of PE, $n = 4$ per condition in the presence of PE. * $P = 0.02$ versus Ad-cont, ** $P = 0.008$ versus Ad-cont, # $P = 0.03$, ## $P = 0.008$.

D Western blot indicating Ad-LXR α - and PE-induced increases in global protein O-GlcNAcylation, which was abrogated following inhibition of HBP with DON. LXR α protein expression is shown, and GAPDH served as a loading control.

E, F Modulation of *Anp* and *Bnp* mRNA levels by Ad-LXR α -induced O-GlcNAc signaling. Gene expression as determined by RT-PCR normalized to *36b4*, $n = 5$ per condition in the absence of PE, $n = 4$ per condition in the presence of PE. * $P = 0.02$ versus Ad-cont, ** $P = 0.008$ versus Ad-cont, # $P = 0.03$, ## $P = 0.02$.

G Measurement of cell size, $n = 5$ per condition. * $P = 0.008$ versus Ad-cont, # $P = 0.02$, ## $P = 0.03$.

H Representative images for the determination of cell size. Cells were stained with an antibody specific for LXR α (green, indicated by arrow), DAPI for nuclei (blue), and rhodamine-phalloidin for F-actin (red); scale bar = 50 μm .

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM and are reported as fold change with respect to control group; Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used for group comparisons.

Source data are available online for this figure.

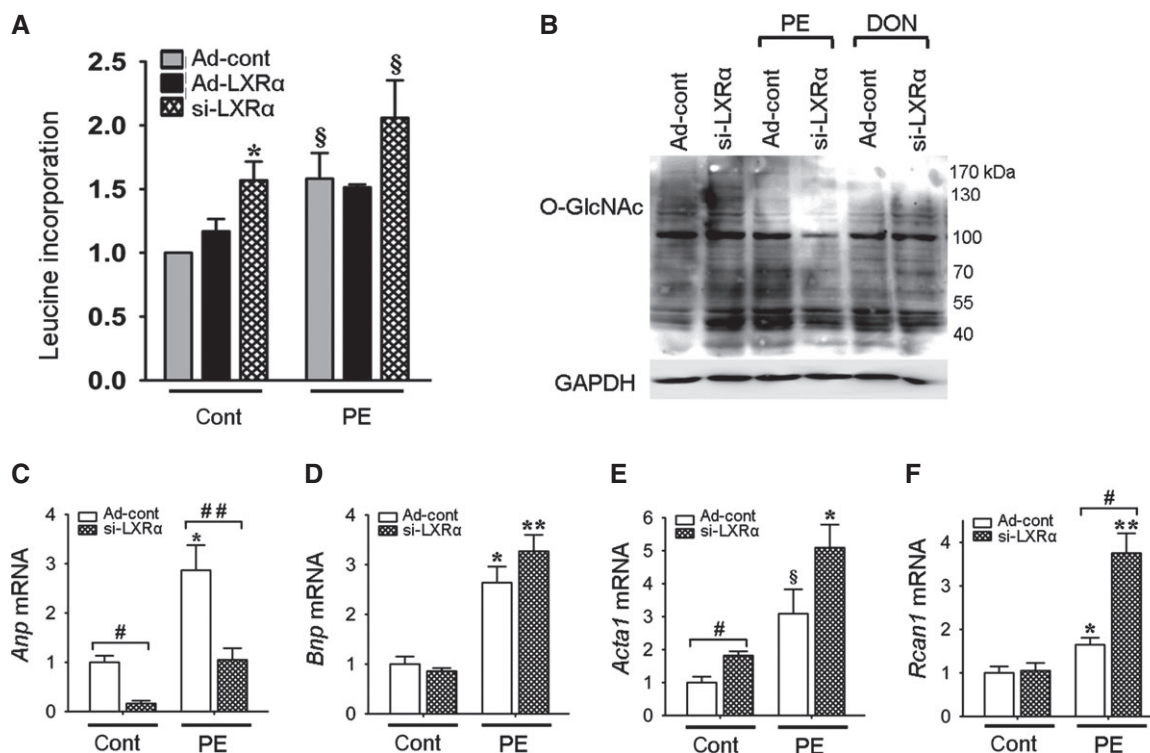


Figure 7. Knockdown of LXR α increases cellular hypertrophy in cultured cardiomyocytes.

Cells were transfected with Ad-LXR α , si-LXR α , or Ad-cont, in the absence or presence of phenylephrine (PE).

A Protein synthesis determined via leucine incorporation, $n = 2-4$ independent experiments. * $P = 0.03$ versus Ad-cont, $^{\S}P = 0.06$ versus Ad-cont.

B Global O-GlcNAc protein expression with Western blot, GAPDH served as a control.

C-F mRNA expression, normalized to *36b4*, $n = 6$ per condition, except $n = 5$ for si-LXR α control. *Anp*: * $P = 0.009$ versus Ad-cont, $^{\#}P = 0.004$, $^{##}P = 0.009$; *Bnp*:

* $P = 0.004$ versus Ad-cont, $^{**}P = 0.002$ versus Ad-cont; *Acta1*: * $P = 0.002$ versus Ad-cont, $^{\S}P = 0.06$ versus Ad-cont, $^{\#}P = 0.02$; *Rcan1*: * $P = 0.03$ versus Ad-cont,

$^{**}P = 0.004$ versus Ad-cont, $^{\#}P = 0.004$.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM and are reported as fold change with respect to control group; Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Mann–Whitney U -test was used for group comparisons.

Source data are available online for this figure.

In loss-of-function studies, LXR $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice did not develop significantly greater severity of hypertrophy with respect to WT, although function was worsened in LXR α -deficient hearts. This is in contrast to a previous report showing exacerbated hypertrophic response in LXR $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (Wu *et al*, 2009). The discrepancy between LXR α overexpression and deficiency cannot be fully explained herein; however, our *in vitro* data indicate that, at the cellular level, there is a clear effect on hypertrophic growth in cardiomyocytes lacking LXR α , and thus, compensatory mechanisms may be operative in the intact heart. Interestingly, recent evidence from a genome-wide association study (GWAS) of electrocardiographic LV hypertrophy (LVH) found a genetic variant, or SNP, in the LXR α (*Nr1h3*) locus to be significantly associated with the LVH trait. Furthermore, expression QTL analysis showed a significant correlation between decreased expression of *Nr1h3* and increased LVH (P. Van der Harst, unpublished data, 2011), supporting an anti-hypertrophic role for LXR α .

Functionally, gene profiling in our model of cardiac-specific LXR α overexpression identified primary effects for LXR α on metabolic pathways, and further investigation into this metabolic profile revealed that myocardial glucose uptake in association

with GLUT expression was significantly increased in LXR α -Tg hearts and in isolated cardiomyocytes. GLUT1 and GLUT4 have previously been elucidated as targets for transcriptional regulation by LXRs in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle (Ross *et al*, 2002; Dalen *et al*, 2003; Laffitte *et al*, 2003; Kase *et al*, 2005; Griesel *et al*, 2010). Myocardial glucose uptake capacity was enhanced in LXR α -Tg mice, and more importantly, when challenged with hypertrophic stress, these mice demonstrated an even more robust response versus that of Wt. Conversely, insufficient glucose uptake capacity that ensued in hypertrophic hearts deficient for LXR α resulted in a worsened functional outcome. The shift toward greater glucose reliance is believed to be an adaptive response that confers cardioprotection (Opie & Knuuti, 2009; Kolwicz & Tian, 2011), and evidence from other genetic mouse models renders further support for a role for glucose uptake in myocardial protection. Cardiac-specific overexpression of GLUT1 in mice increased glucose uptake and glycolysis which prevented the development of ventricular dysfunction and improved survival (Liao *et al*, 2002; Luptak *et al*, 2005), whereas reduced glucose utilization in GLUT4 knockout mice manifested greater hypertrophy and acceleration toward heart failure (Katz *et al*,

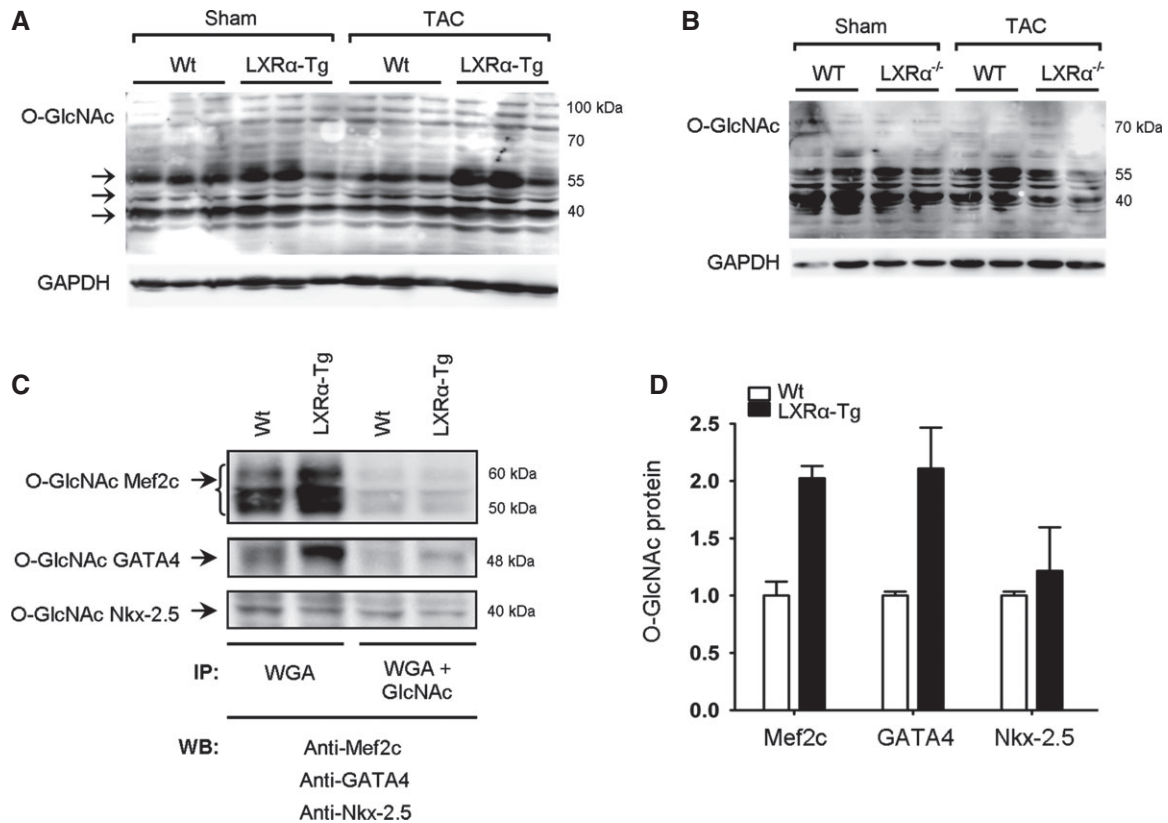


Figure 8. O-GlcNAcylation is increased with cardiac LXR α overexpression in mice.

A, B Western blot analyses of global protein O-GlcNAc levels in left ventricles of mice with either (A) cardiac-specific LXR α overexpression or (B) LXR α deficiency and subjected to 5 weeks TAC. C, D Nuclear protein extracts were precipitated with agarose WGA in the absence or presence of GlcNAc, a competitor, and analyzed by Western blot with antibodies against Mef2c, GATA4, or Nkx-2.5, known transcription factors of natriuretic peptides; bands represent 3 pooled hearts per Wt and LXR α -Tg lanes, and (D) quantification is for $n = 2$, expressed as fold change.

Data information: Data are means \pm SEM. IP, immunoprecipitation; WGA, wheat germ agglutinin; GlcNAc, *N*-acetylglucosamine; WB, Western blot. Source data are available online for this figure.

1995; Domenighetti *et al*, 2010). With cardiac insulin resistance and metabolic dysregulation known to precede the development of heart failure (Witteles & Fowler, 2008; Brouwers *et al*, 2013), strategies sensitizing the heart to glucose uptake may thus have clinically relevant implications in the long-term prognosis of heart failure.

Since glucose uptake rates were enhanced by LXR α activation, we hypothesized that this would also lead to downstream changes in energy-dependent pathways, causing increased mitochondrial oxidative capacity. However, we did not observe corresponding increases in oxidative capacity from pyruvate, suggesting that LXR α does not transcriptionally reprogram pathways for the enhancement of mitochondrial glucose utilization. In essence, excess glucose uptake and glycolysis appears to be partially uncoupled from mitochondrial oxidation and ATP synthesis in LXR α -Tg hearts, possibly via a regulatory effect of LXR α on *Pdk4*, which negatively regulates pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (PDC) activity. This is in contrast to previous reports showing that, in the protection against cardiac stress, GLUT1 overexpression corrected insufficient glucose utilization and oxidation caused by PPAR α deficiency in mice (Luptak *et al*, 2005), and preserved mitochondrial energetic status (Liao *et al*, 2002). That glucose oxidative capacity is not increased in

LXR α -Tg hearts may be due to the fact that mitochondrial oxidation rates are indeed normal and not compromised, and since myocardial contractility is unimpaired is evidence that ATP supply is sufficient to fuel contraction. Consequently, excess glucose uptake is neither stored nor oxidized, but is instead diverted into other glycolytic functions due to a modulatory effect of *Pdk4*.

Currently, the role of glucose signaling independent of its energy-providing effects is largely unaddressed in the hypertrophic and failing heart, but has been implicated to play an important role in myocyte function and survival (Kolwicz *et al*, 2013). Moreover, the fate of glucose is of interest given that increased glucose uptake and glycolysis in cardiac hypertrophy do not always result in concomitant increases in glucose oxidation (Allard *et al*, 1994; Wambolt *et al*, 1999; Doenst *et al*, 2013). Our data indicate that, by enhancing glucose flux, cardiac LXR α activates an ancillary pathway of glycolysis, the HBP, increasing levels of the posttranslational modifier, O-GlcNAc. Further, we establish that this pathway induces transcription of natriuretic peptides via glycosylation of GATA4 and Mef2c, transcriptional activators of ANP and BNP (Morin *et al*, 2000). It is interesting that LXR α -Tg hearts exhibit increased basal ANP and BNP mRNA levels without inducing the complete fetal gene

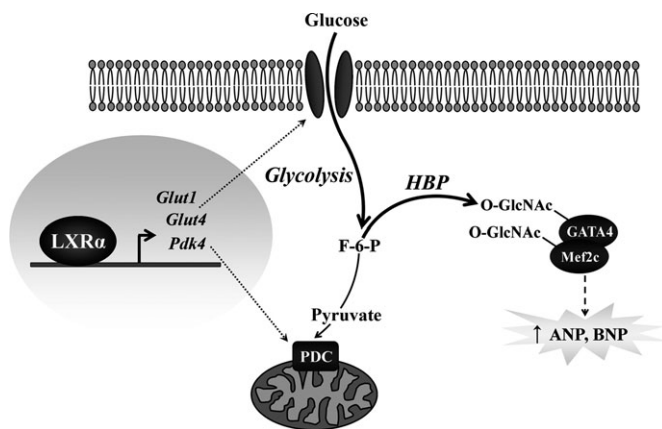


Figure 9. Schematic representation of LXR α -mediated glucose protection.

LXR α transcriptionally regulates glycolytic metabolism by targeting glucose utilization at distinct levels. Increased *Glut1* and *Glut4* enhance glucose uptake, and *Pdk4* regulates pyruvate oxidation in mitochondria. Subsequent increases in glycolytic flux activate the HBP, resulting in downstream O-GlcNAc modification of transcription factors inducing natriuretic peptide expression, a putative end effector mediating anti-hypertrophic effects in the heart. ANP, atrial natriuretic peptide; BNP, B-type natriuretic peptide; F-6-P, fructose-6-phosphate; Glut, glucose transporter; HBP, hexosamine biosynthesis pathway; Mef2c, myocyte enhancer factor 2C; O-GlcNAc, β -O-linkage of *N*-acetylglucosamine; PDC, pyruvate dehydrogenase complex; Pdk4, pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 4.

response or displaying signs of cardiac dysfunction normally associated with their induction, suggesting that the expression of individual fetal genes is indeed regulated by distinct signal mechanisms. Nevertheless, the cardioprotective effects of natriuretic peptide signaling are well established (Nishikimi *et al*, 2006), and murine models with ablated natriuretic peptide signaling show increased propensity for cardiac hypertrophy and myocardial fibrosis (Tamura *et al*, 2000; Holtwick *et al*, 2003; Wang *et al*, 2003). Therefore, the anti-hypertrophic and anti-fibrotic potential of local ANP and BNP signaling may largely contribute to the protective phenotype observed in LXR α -Tg mice, an adaptive response mediated via transcriptional control of glucose-O-GlcNAc-dependent signaling by cardiac LXR α . Future studies aimed at elucidating additional O-GlcNAc targets should provide further insight into the link between myocyte metabolism and survival in the diseased heart.

In clinical cardiology, progressive cardiac remodeling often transitions into overt symptomatic heart failure, and although several effective treatments have been developed to prevent this transition, there remains a high residual risk. Alterations in myocardial substrate metabolism contribute to this progression; however, no metabolic modulators are part of the guideline-based therapy for heart failure. Promising pharmacological agents such as trimetazidine and perhexiline inhibit FA oxidation and indirectly cause a reciprocal shift to glucose utilization, yet drugs for direct glucose enhancement are not available. Our data indicate that targeting LXR α as a metabolic intervention to increase glucose metabolism profoundly influenced cardiac hypertrophy and remodeling, independent of hemodynamic or neurohormonal effects.

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that LXR α confers heart-specific protective effects in the attenuation of pathological LV hypertrophy and preservation of cardiac function. We identify LXR α

as an important cardiac transcriptional regulator that further promotes the adaptive capacity for glucose uptake and utilization in cardiac hypertrophy. Furthermore, this study highlights the under-recognized potential for non-energy-dependent pathways of glycolysis such as the HBP in promoting cytoprotection. New generation LXR agonists with less lipogenic profiles are currently being developed, and we postulate that such agonists may be useful modulators of myocyte metabolism in the prevention of pathological cardiac remodeling and heart failure.

Materials and Methods

For more detailed Methods, see the Supplementary Information.

Animal models

The murine NR1H3 gene (GeneBank: NM_013839) was obtained from German Science Centre for Genomic Research (RZPD; clone # IRAPv968B0923D). This PCR product was amplified by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and cloned into a previously described vector containing the cardiac-specific α MHC promoter (Gulick *et al*, 1991). Transgenic founders were obtained by pronuclear injection of the α MHC-LXR α construct into FVB oocytes. Transgene identification was performed by a PCR-based method using the following primers: sense 5'-CGGCACTCTTAGCAAACCTC-3', antisense 5'-TGCTGACTCAACCCTATCC-3'. Mice were backcrossed for at least three generations into the C57BL/6 (#000664, The Jackson Laboratory) genetic background. α MHC-LXR α (LXR α -Tg) mice were generated by the UMCG mouse clinic in collaboration with the Mayo Clinic (Rochester, NY, USA). For all experiments, non-transgenic littermates (WT) served as controls.

Homozygous LXR α knockout mice (LXR α ^{-/-}; gift from Dr. Gustafsson) (Alberti *et al*, 2001) and matching C57BL/6BomTac wild-type (WT) mice were obtained from Taconic, Denmark.

Experimental protocol

All experimental protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Groningen. Male mice (8–10 weeks) were subjected to an infusion of angiotensin II (Ang II) (1.0 mg/kg/day) for 10 days, or pressure overload by transverse aortic constriction (TAC) for either 1 or 5 weeks. In subsequent studies, a subset of mice underwent sham/TAC for 5 weeks for further assessment of myocardial 2-deoxy-2-(¹⁸F)fluoro-D-glucose (FDG)-glucose uptake with microPET, or mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation measurements. Cardiac function was determined with echocardiography and invasive hemodynamic monitoring, as previously described (Yu *et al*, 2013). LV tissue samples were used to perform expressional studies, immunohistochemical, and biochemical analyses.

In vitro studies

Neonatal rat ventricular myocytes (NRVMs) were isolated from 1- to 3-day-old Sprague Dawley pups, as described (Lu *et al*, 2012). Recombinant adenovirus containing murine LXR α (Ad-LXR α) or silenced LXR α (si-LXR α) was used to infect NRVMs, and cells were

The paper explained**Problem**

The heart responds to pathological stress by shifting myocardial substrate metabolism toward a greater reliance on glucose. Liver X receptors (LXRs) are nuclear receptors with described functions in lipid and glucose metabolism. Although it has been suggested that pharmacological LXR activation may protect the heart, lipogenic side effects of current LXR agonists preclude their clinical applicability, while the heart-specific effects of LXRs in cardiac pathophysiology and metabolism remain unknown.

Results

Here, we show that LXR α protects the heart from pathological cardiac remodeling. Using a transgenic approach to selectively overexpress LXR α in murine hearts, we demonstrate that the cardioprotective effects of LXR α are indeed heart specific in the attenuation of cardiac hypertrophy and myocardial fibrosis. LXR α overexpression markedly improved cardiac function, as assessed by echocardiography and invasive hemodynamics. Gene profiling revealed that LXR α transcriptionally reprograms metabolic pathways by upregulating a set of genes involved in glucose metabolism. This was functionally confirmed in isolated cardiomyocytes and *in vivo* with FDG-microPET scanning as LXR α overexpression markedly enhanced the capacity for glucose uptake in response to hypertrophic stress. Conversely, LXR α -deficient mice displayed an impaired adaptive capacity in augmenting glucose uptake. Further, cardiac LXR α overexpression promoted energy-independent utilization of glucose by activating the hexosamine biosynthesis pathway, resulting in downstream O-GlcNAc modification of transcription factors inducing natriuretic peptide expression, a putative end effector of LXR α -mediated anti-hypertrophic effects in the heart.

Impact

We identified LXR α to be a key cardiac transcriptional regulator that mediates an adaptive metabolic response to pathological cardiac stress. Targeting of LXRs as a metabolic intervention in cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure may therefore represent a promising therapeutic approach.

treated with phenylephrine (PE) or 6-diazo-5-oxonorleucine (DON) (Sigma). Cellular glucose uptake and protein synthesis were assessed with 2-deoxyglucose (2-DG) and [3 H]leucine assays, respectively.

Statistical analysis

All data are presented as means \pm standard error of the mean (SEM). Student's paired 2-tailed *t*-test was used for two group comparisons. One-way ANOVA was performed to analyze differences for multiple-group comparisons, followed by Bonferroni *post hoc* analysis. Kruskal–Wallis test followed by Mann–Whitney *U*-test was used to analyze cell experiments. All results were tested at the $P < 0.05$ level of significance.

Supplementary information for this article is available online: <http://embomolmed.embopress.org>

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Author contributions

MVC, JC, HHWS, PvdH, and RAdB designed the study. MVC, JWAS, IVB, GJJS, and RAdB performed animal experiments, PET scanning, and echocardiography. HHWS, BvdS, JvD, and JAG designed and generated transgenic mice. MVC and JC conducted and analyzed metabolic assays. MVC and HHWS conducted cell experiments; the data were analyzed and interpreted by MVC, HHWS, JWAS, JC, BvdS, and LjdW. WHvG and RAdB were involved in funding and supervision. MVC and RAdB drafted the manuscript. HHWS, LjdW, PvdH, WHvG, JC, BvdS, GJJS, and JvD were involved in critical evaluation and intellectual contribution to the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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