



Involvement of P2Y₁₂ receptor of stellate ganglion in diabetic cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy

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Abstract

Diabetes as a chronic epidemic disease with obvious symptom of hyperglycemia is seriously affecting human health globally due to the diverse diabetic complications. Diabetic cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy (DCAN) is a common complication of both type 1 and type 2 diabetes and incurs high morbidity and mortality. However, the underlying mechanism for DCAN is unclear. It is well known that purinergic signaling is involved in the regulation of cardiovascular function. In this study, we examined whether the P2Y₁₂ receptor could mediate DCAN-induced sympathetic reflexes. Our results revealed that the abnormal changes of blood pressure, heart rate, heart rate variability, and sympathetic nerve discharge were improved in diabetic rats treated with P2Y₁₂ short hairpin RNA (shRNA). Meanwhile, the expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor, interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and connexin 43 (Cx43) in stellate ganglia (SG) was decreased in P2Y₁₂ shRNA-treated diabetic rats. In addition, knocking down the P2Y₁₂ receptor also inhibited the activation of p38 MARK in the SG of diabetic rats. Taken together, these findings demonstrated that P2Y₁₂ receptor in the SG may participate in developing diabetic autonomic neuropathy, suggesting that the P2Y₁₂ receptor could be a potential therapeutic target for the treatment of DCAN.

Keywords P2Y₁₂ receptor · Diabetic cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy · Stellate ganglia · Satellite glial cells

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is mainly due to the defects of insulin secretion and/or insulin action, displaying chronic hyperglycemia accompanied by the disorders in carbohydrate, lipid, and protein metabolism [1]. The incidence of diabetes is fast increasing [2] and the number of patients with diabetes mellitus will rise from 415 million in 2015 to 642 million by 2040, according to the latest data from the International Diabetes Federation [3]. Diabetic cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy

(DCAN) is one of the most common complications in diabetic patients [4]. DCAN is defined as the impairment of autonomic control of the cardiovascular system in the case of diabetes after exclusion of other causes [5]. The clinical manifestations of DCAN include sinus tachycardia, exercise intolerance, and orthostatic hypotension. DCAN is a risk marker of mortality and cardiovascular morbidity, and a promoter for diabetic nephropathy [6]. In addition, the prevalence of DCAN is increasing with age (up to 44% of patients with type 2 diabetes over 65) and diabetes duration (up to 65% in long-term type 2 diabetes) [4, 7]. The large number of patients with DCAN and the rather complex pathogenesis of DCAN cry for an urgent need to elaborate the underlying mechanism.

Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and its analogues bind to P2 receptors [8–10]. P2 receptors can be divided into P2X and P2Y subgroups. Seven P2X (P2X_{1–7}) and eight P2Y (P2Y_{1,2,4,6,11,12,13,14}) receptor subtypes have been cloned in mammals [10]. The P2Y₁₂ receptor is a Gi-coupled ADP receptor, which is first described in blood platelets where it plays a central role in their activation and aggregation [11, 12]. The P2Y₁₂ receptor participates in arterial thrombosis and is an established target of antithrombotic drugs like the

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thienopyridine compounds (e.g., ticlopidine, clopidogrel, and prasugrel) or the direct, reversible antagonists such as ticagrelor and cangrelor [12]. Recent studies have revealed that the P2Y₁₂ receptor is also expressed in both the microglia of the central nervous system and satellite glial cells of the peripheral ganglia [13–16], suggesting that it may play a key role in microglial activation especially in the early stages [14].

Purinergic signaling may also participate in the regulation of cardiovascular function [17]. Studies showed that the P2Y₁₂ receptor antagonist ticagrelor could enhance adenosine-induced coronary vasodilatory responses in humans [18, 19]. P2Y₁₂ inhibitors could lead to significant attenuation of injury of myocardium in diabetic animals [20] and resulted in a significant reduction in infarct size when administered prior to the onset of reperfusion [21]. Moreover, the P2Y₁₂ receptor in the dorsal root ganglia might be involved in diabetic neuropathic pain [22]. Thus, P2Y₁₂ receptor may play an important role in developing diabetic cardiovascular complications.

The autonomic ganglia include sympathetic and parasympathetic ones. The cervical sympathetic nervous system contributes to the maintenance of cardiovascular homeostasis [23]. Cardiac sympathetic innervation is largely made by the superior cervical ganglia (SCG) and the stellate ganglia (SG) [24]. The latter distributes to the cardiac plexus, receiving and integrating the afferent and efferent signals and thus regulating heart function [25]. Stellate ganglion block is widely used in the treatment of heart diseases [26]. Stellate ganglion neurons are often surrounded by satellite glial cells (SGCs) [27]. Axotomy, inflammation, and other injuries can activate the SGCs of primary sensory ganglia [28]. P2Y₁₂ receptor is expressed in SGCs [23, 29–31] and may participate in bidirectional neuronal-glia communications [15, 32]. However, little is known whether P2Y₁₂ receptor is implicated in DCAN. The purpose of this study was to explore the potential role of P2Y₁₂ receptor in DCAN and underlying mechanisms.

Materials and methods

Animal models and groups

Adult male Sprague-Dawley rats (200–250 g) were provided by the Center of Laboratory Animal Science of Nanchang University. The use of animals was reviewed and approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees of Nanchang University Medical Schools. All rats were housed in standard metabolic cages (three rats each) and kept at 40–70% humidity and room temperature (21–25 °C). Control rats (Ctrl, $n = 10$) were free to obtain water and common diet (which consisted of 53% carbohydrate, 23% protein, and 5% fat). Type 2 diabetic model rats were given a high-fat and high-

sugar diet (66.5% basal diet, 20% sugar, 10% oil, 2.5% cholesterol, and 1% sodium cholate) for 4 weeks. Subsequently, diabetic model rats were injected intraperitoneally with a low dose of streptozotocin (STZ, 30 mg/kg) [33]. After 1 week of STZ injection, blood glucose was measured. Diabetic rats were defined as fasting plasma glucose (FPG) ≥ 7.8 mM or postprandial blood glucose (PBG) ≥ 11.1 mM [33–35]. Diabetic rats were continuously fed with high-fat and high-sugar diet for additional 2 weeks after verified as hyperglycemic.

To test the effects of P2Y₁₂ short hairpin RNA (shRNA), type 2 diabetic rats were randomly divided into three groups ($n = 10$ in each group): type 2 diabetic group (DM), type 2 diabetic rats treated with P2Y₁₂ shRNA group (DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA) and type 2 diabetic rats treated with scramble shRNA negative control group (DM+NC shRNA). The P2Y₁₂ shRNA and scramble shRNA were constructed by Novobio Company of Shanghai. The Entranster™ - in vivo transfection reagents were provided by Engreen Company of Beijing. According to the manufacturer's instructions, a mixture of 10 μ g P2Y₁₂ shRNA and 20 μ l transfection reagent was injected into the sublingual vein for the DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group. And for the DM+NC shRNA group, a mixture of 10 μ g scramble shRNA and 20 μ l transfection reagent was injected. The same volume of saline was injected into the control and DM group. After 1 week, the rats were anesthetized with intraperitoneal administration of 50 mg/kg sodium pentobarbital, and the SGs were collected.

To assess the effect of P2Y₁₂ overexpression, rats were randomly divided into three groups: control group (Ctrl with no injections), control rats treated with pcDNA3.1-P2Y₁₂ plasmid group (Ctrl+P2Y₁₂), and control rats treated with pcDNA3.1 empty vector as negative control group (Ctrl+vector). The pcDNA3.1-P2Y₁₂ plasmid or pcDNA3.1 plasmid vector was injected into left stellate ganglia at a dose of 5 μ g/20 μ L per rat via Entranster™ - in vivo transfection reagents [36]. After 4 days, blood pressure, heart rate, and sympathetic nerve discharge were measured.

Measurements of blood pressure, heart rate, and sympathetic nerve activity

Blood pressure and heart rate were measured using an indirect tail-cuff method (Softron BP-98 A, Softron Co., Tokyo, Japan). Heart rate variability (HRV) was analyzed using electrocardiogram (ECG) recording by the frequency domain. The power of the RR-interval variations in the whole frequency range of the spectrum (total power frequency, TP, 0–0.5 Hz) and in the range of very-low frequency (VLF, 0.003–0.04 Hz), low frequency (LF, 0.04–0.15 Hz), and high frequency (HF, 0.15–0.40 Hz) were calculated from short-term recordings of 5 min. LF indicates sympathetic activity and HF indicates parasympathetic activity.

The postganglionic cervical sympathetic nerve discharge (SND) of SG was recorded and analyzed using a RM6240 biological signal analytical system (Chengdu Instrument Factory, Chengdu, China). In brief, four groups of rats were anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (50 mg/kg, i.p.). The left cervical sympathetic nerve was identified and immersed in warm paraffin. Silver electrodes connected to the RM6240 system for recording SND were attached to the cervical sympathetic nerve, and the reference electrode to a skin fold. The settings for the SND patterns were as follows: recording sensitivity (25–50 μ V), scanning speed (200 ms/div), power gain (200 μ V), time constant (0.001 s), and frequency filtering (3 kHz). Cervical SND was integrated and quantified as μ volts \times seconds (μ V s) [37, 38].

Quantitative real-time PCR

Total RNA was isolated from the SG using the TRIzol Total RNA Reagent (Beijing Tiangen Biotech Co.). The reverse transcription reaction was completed using a RevertAid™ First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Fermentas, Glen Bernie, MD, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The primers were designed with the Primer Express 3.0 software (Applied Biosystems, Inc., Foster City, CA, USA), and the sequences were as follows: sense GCTCTCTCCAGCC TTCCTT and anti-sense CTTCTGCATCCTGTCAGCAA for β -actin; sense CTTCGTTCCCTCCACTTTG and anti-sense AGGGTGCTCTCCTTCACGTA for P2Y₁₂; sense CCTATGTCTTGCCCGTGGAG and anti-sense CACACACTAGCAGGTCGTCA for interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β); sense ATGGGCTCCCTCTCATCAGT and anti-sense GCTTGGTGGTTTGCTACGAC for tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α); sense GGTGTCCTTGGTGTCTCTCG and anti-sense CTTACGCGATCCTTAACGC for Cx43. Quantitative PCR was performed using SYBR® Green Master Mix on an ABI PRISM® 7500 Sequence Detection System (Applied Biosystems, Inc., Foster City, CA, USA). The quantification of gene expression was calculated by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta C_t}$ method in comparison with respective levels of β -actin mRNA.

Western blotting

Total protein was extracted by homogenizing the SG samples by mechanical disruption in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris–Cl, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.02% sodium deoxycholate, 100 μ g/ml phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 1 μ g/ml aprotinin, 1% phosphatase inhibitors, and 1% protease inhibitors) and incubating on ice for 40 min. The lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 \times g for 15 min at 4 °C. The supernatants were collected to measure protein concentrations using a bicinchoninic acid assay reagent kit and then stored at –20 °C until use. Upon Western

blotting, the supernatants were diluted with sample buffer (250 mM Tris–Cl, 200 mM dithiothreitol, 10% SDS, 0.5% bromophenol blue, and 50% glycerol) and denatured by heating at 95 °C for 5 min. Supernatant samples containing 20 μ g protein were loaded onto 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels for electrophoresis and then transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes. The PVDF membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature in 5% nonfat dried milk in 25 mM Tris-buffered saline (pH 7.2) plus 0.05% Tween-20 (TBST). The membranes were incubated with the primary rabbit antibodies against P2Y₁₂ (1:1000, Cat# ab184411; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), IL-1 β (1:500, AF5103; Affinity, Golden, CO, USA), TNF- α (1:500, AF7014; Affinity, Golden, CO, USA), p38 mitogen-activated protein kinases (p38 MAPK) (1:1000, 8690; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), phosphorylated p38 MAPK (p-p38 MAPK) (1:1000, 4511; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), mouse anti-connexin 43 (Cx43) (1:1000, ab79010; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), or mouse anti-glutamine synthetase (GS) (1:1500, ab64613; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) for overnight at 4 °C. After three washes with TBST, the membranes were incubated with one of horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies: goat anti-rabbit IgG or goat anti-mouse IgG (1:2000, Beijing Zhongshan Biotechnology Co.) for 1 h at room temperature. Protein signal was visualized and detected using a chemiluminescence gel imaging system (XRS+, Bio-Rad Company, USA). The membranes were stripped and incubated with mouse anti- β -actin (1:2000, A3854; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) to verify equally loading the samples. The changes of integrated optical density (IOD) for the protein of interest were analyzed with Image Pro-Plus software.

Immunohistochemistry

Collected SGs were washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 24 h at 4 °C. The specimen was transferred to 20% sucrose in 4% PFA and kept overnight. Tissues were sectioned at a thickness of 8 μ m with a freezing microtome. The sections were mounted onto the glass slides and then stored at –20 °C for further processing. Co-expression of P2Y₁₂ and GS or calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) and co-localization of p-p38 MARK with CGRP were observed by double-label immunofluorescence staining. The sections were washed with PBS and punched with 0.3% Triton X-100 for 10 min at room temperature. Following 30-min incubation with blocking solution, the sections were incubated with mouse anti-GS (1:150, Cat# ab64613; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and rabbit anti-P2Y₁₂ (1:150, ab184411; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) overnight at 4 °C. The sections were then rinsed and incubated with TRITC (tetraethyl rhodamine isothiocyanate)-labeled goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:150, Beijing Zhongshan Biotech

CO.) or FITC (fluorescein isothiocyanate)-labeled goat anti-mouse IgG (1:150, Beijing Zhongshan Biotech Co.) for 1 h at 37 °C. For coexpression of P2Y₁₂ and CGRP, the sections were incubated with mouse anti-CGRP (1:150, ab81887; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) and rabbit anti-P2Y₁₂ (1:150) overnight at 4 °C, followed by rinsing and incubating sections with TRITC-labeled goat anti-mouse IgG or FITC-labeled goat anti-rabbit IgG for 1 h at 37 °C. For colocalization of p-p38 MARK with CGRP, the sections were incubated with mouse anti-CGRP (1:150) and rabbit anti-p-p38 MARK (1:150, 4511; Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) overnight at 4 °C, and further processed using fluorescent probe-labeled secondary antibodies in the same way as described above. The completed sections were rinsed and mounted with anti-fluorescent quenching agent. For detecting the expression of Cx43, sections were processed in 3% H₂O₂, blocked by normal goat serum, and incubated with the primary antibody mouse anti-Cx43 (1:150, ab79010; Abcam, Cambridge, UK) for overnight at 4 °C, followed by incubating with biotinylated secondary antibody (1:200; Beijing Zhongshan Biotech Co.) and processing with DAB (Beijing Zhongshan Biotech Co.). All images were captured by fluorescence microscopy (Olympus DP72, Japan) under the same exposure, light, hue, and contrast conditions. The yellow fluorescence density (coexpression level) of each image was analyzed by Image-Pro Plus software. Immunofluorescence intensity was measured in a square region of interest (100 × 100 μm). The mean optical density value from each region of interest was normalized against the background defined as the signal measured in an area devoid of specific immunostaining. Data were collected from five discontinuous slices of each rat with six rats in each group.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was performed on SPSS 11.5 software. All results were expressed as mean ± SEM. Cervical SND responses were reported as both percentage change from baseline values (control) and in absolute terms (μV s). Control values of cervical SND were considered as 100%. Significant differences were evaluated using one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's or Tukey's tests. $p < 0.05$ was considered to have a significant difference.

Results

Elevated expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor in the SG of DM rats was inhibited by P2Y₁₂ shRNA

Real-time PCR results (Fig. 1a) showed that the expression levels of P2Y₁₂ receptor in DM group were significantly higher than those in control group ($p < 0.01$). The mRNA levels of P2Y₁₂ receptor in DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group were

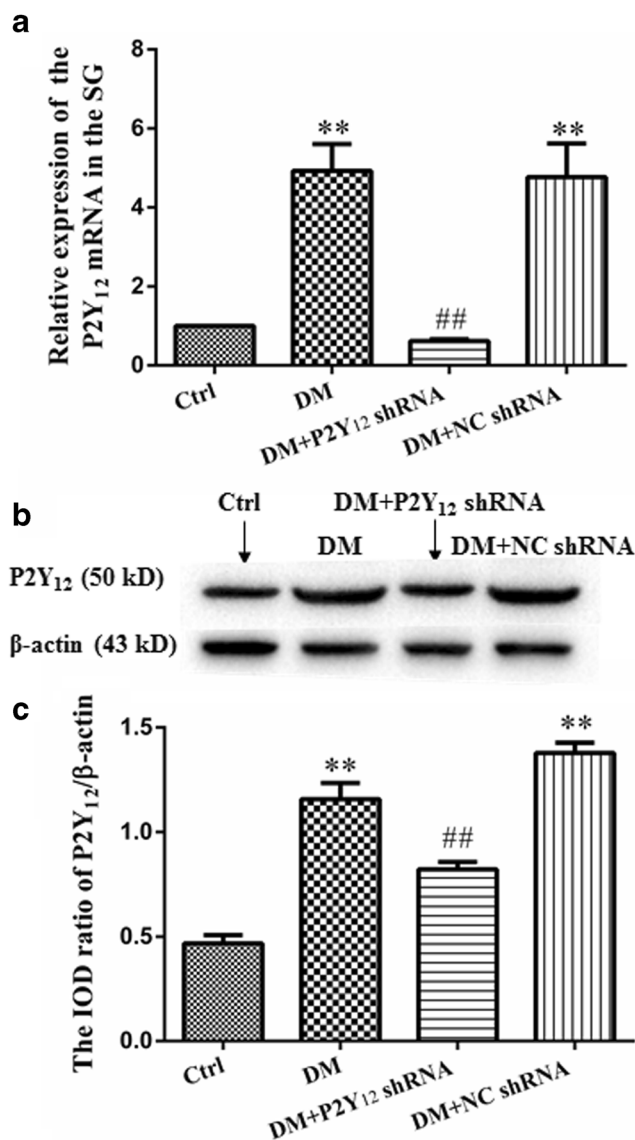


Fig. 1 The expression levels of P2Y₁₂ receptor mRNA and protein in SG of type 2 diabetic rats. **a** The expression of P2Y₁₂ mRNA was detected by real-time PCR analysis using β-actin as internal control. Values are mean ± SEM of fold changes from three independent experiments. **b** The protein level of P2Y₁₂ was measured by Western blotting. **c** The bar histograms show the integrated optical density (IOD) ratio of P2Y₁₂ protein level to β-actin in each group and the values are mean ± SEM from three independent experiments. ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ## $p < 0.01$ vs. DM

decreased compared to that in DM group ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, nor between control group and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$).

The expression of P2Y₁₂ was further analyzed at protein level by Western blotting (Fig. 1b). By image analysis, the stain values (integrated optical density, IOD) of P2Y₁₂ protein mass (normalized to individual β-actin internal control) in DM group were significantly higher than that in control group ($p < 0.01$). In addition, the IOD of P2Y₁₂ in DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group

Table 1 Effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on heart rate and blood pressure in rats

Group	Heart rate (beat/min)	Blood pressure		
		SBP (mm Hg)	DBP (mm Hg)	MBP (mm Hg)
Ctrl	317.2 ± 12.04	106.71 ± 13.56	80.21 ± 8.68	87.61 ± 8.96
DM	363.97 ± 39.87**	129.96 ± 11.89**	85.74 ± 9.58**	96.49 ± 9.37**
DM+P2Y ₁₂ shRNA	318.28 ± 11.9 ^{##}	112.48 ± 6.46 ^{##}	76.48 ± 11.95 ^{##}	88.6 ± 7.89 ^{##}
DM+NC shRNA	354.56 ± 27.83**	130.25 ± 12.99**	86.44 ± 9.16**	98.75 ± 10.97**

Values are mean ± SEM from ten observations in each group

SBP systolic blood pressure, DBP diastolic blood pressure, MBP mean arterial pressure

** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ^{##} $p < 0.01$ vs. DM

was reduced compared with DM group ($p < 0.01$). No significant difference was seen between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, nor between Ctrl and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 1c). These results indicated that P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment may counteract the upregulated expression of P2Y₁₂ in SGs of diabetic rats.

Targeting P2Y₁₂ by shRNA improved the abnormal changes of heart rate, blood pressure, and sympathetic nerve activity in DM rats

The heart rate (HR), systolic blood pressure (SBP), diastolic blood pressure (DBP), and mean arterial pressure (MBP) were increased in the DM group compared to that in the control group ($p < 0.01$). By contrast, the upregulated SBP, DBP, MBP, and HR were diminished in DM treated with P2Y₁₂ shRNA ($p < 0.01$; Table 1). There was no significant difference in these cardiovascular parameters between DM+NC shRNA group and DM group, and nor between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$).

The postganglionic cervical SND of SG in the DM group was significantly enhanced compared with that in the control group ($p < 0.01$). After treatment of DM rats with P2Y₁₂

shRNA, the cervical SND was significantly decreased compared with that in the untreated DM group ($p < 0.01$). No significant difference was observed between DM+NC shRNA group and DM group, nor between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 2). The elevated blood pressure, increased heart rate, and sympathetic nerve activity in DM rats suggested an increase of excitability in cardiac sympathetic nerve.

Overexpression of P2Y₁₂ increased heart rate, blood pressure, and sympathetic nerve activity in control rats

The HR, SBP, DBP, and MBP were increased in the Ctrl+P2Y₁₂ group compared to that in the control group. There was no significant difference in these cardiovascular parameters between Ctrl group and Ctrl+vector group ($p > 0.05$; Table 2).

The postganglionic cervical SND of SG in the Ctrl+P2Y₁₂ group was significantly enhanced compared with that in the control group ($p < 0.01$). No significant difference was observed between Ctrl group and Ctrl+vector group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 3). The elevated blood pressure, increased heart rate, and

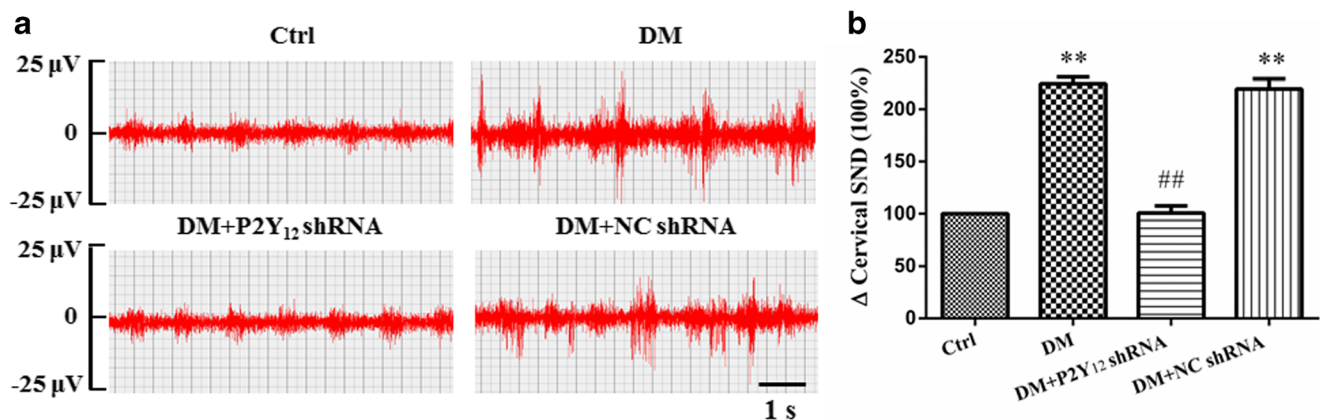


Fig. 2 The effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on the cervical sympathetic nerve activity of type 2 diabetic rats. **a** Representative images of the postganglionic cervical sympathetic nerve discharge of SG. **b** Integrated

cervical sympathetic discharge in all groups. Data are represented as means ± SEM ($n = 8$). ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ^{##} $p < 0.01$ vs. DM

Table 2 Effects of P2Y₁₂ overexpression on heart rate and blood pressure in rats

Group	Heart rate (beat/min)	Blood pressure		
		SBP (mm Hg)	DBP (mm Hg)	MBP (mm Hg)
Ctrl	316.85 ± 13.11	105.88 ± 10.5	80.45 ± 6.45	86.99 ± 8.23
Ctrl+P2Y ₁₂	351.43 ± 32.16*	125.59 ± 11.41**	85.09 ± 7.37	95.92 ± 8.45*
Ctrl+vector	317.92 ± 18.11	108.57 ± 10.9	81.91 ± 8.73	88.41 ± 8.28

Values are mean ± SEM from six observations in each group

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl

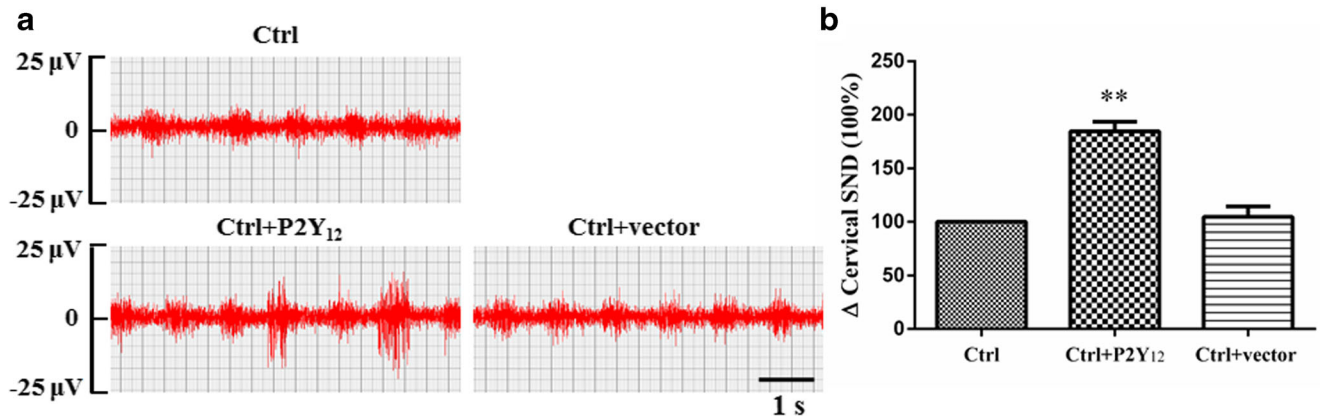


Fig. 3 The effects of overexpression of P2Y₁₂ on the cervical sympathetic nerve activity of control rats. **a** Representative images of the postganglionic cervical sympathetic nerve discharge of SG. **b**

Integrated cervical sympathetic discharge in all groups. Data are represented as means ± SEM ($n = 6$). ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl

sympathetic nerve activity in the P2Y₁₂ overexpressed rats suggested that the upregulated P2Y₁₂ receptor could increase the excitability in cardiac sympathetic nerve.

Targeting P2Y₁₂ by shRNA decreased LF/HF ratio of HRV in DM rats

The effects of shRNA targeting P2Y₁₂ on heart rate variability (HRV) are shown in Table 3. In DM and DM+NC shRNA group, the total power frequency (TP), very-low frequency (VLF), low frequency (LF), and high frequency

(HF) were decreased compared with those in control group ($p < 0.01$), suggesting that both sympathetic and parasympathetic tones were reduced in DM. In addition, LF/HF ratio was significantly increased in DM, pointing to a stronger inhibition of parasympathetic activity than sympathetic activity, because LF reflected the former and HF reflected the latter. P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment increased the TP, VLF, LF, and HF but decreased the LF/HF ratio in type 2 diabetic rats ($p < 0.01$), suggesting that P2Y₁₂ shRNA alleviated the relatively high sympathetic tone in DM rats. There was no significant difference between

Table 3 Effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on heart rate variability in rats

	TP (ms ²)	VLF (ms ²)	LF (ms ²)	HF (ms ²)	LF/HF
Ctrl	137.01 ± 14.34	119.3 ± 12.35	6.84 ± 0.78	11.97 ± 1.69	0.58 ± 0.05
DM	108.96 ± 11.54**	106.3 ± 11.09**	2.27 ± 0.29**	0.89 ± 0.09**	2.39 ± 0.34**
DM+P2Y ₁₂ shRNA	135.56 ± 13.91###	123.02 ± 15.06##	5.18 ± 0.44###	10.12 ± 1.31###	0.52 ± 0.05###
DM+NC shRNA	108.36 ± 11.55**	104.19 ± 13.25**	2.71 ± 0.24**	1.29 ± 0.29**	1.97 ± 0.23**

Values are mean ± SEM from ten observations in each group

TP total power frequency, VLF very-low frequency, LF low frequency, HF high frequency

** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ### $p < 0.01$ vs. DM

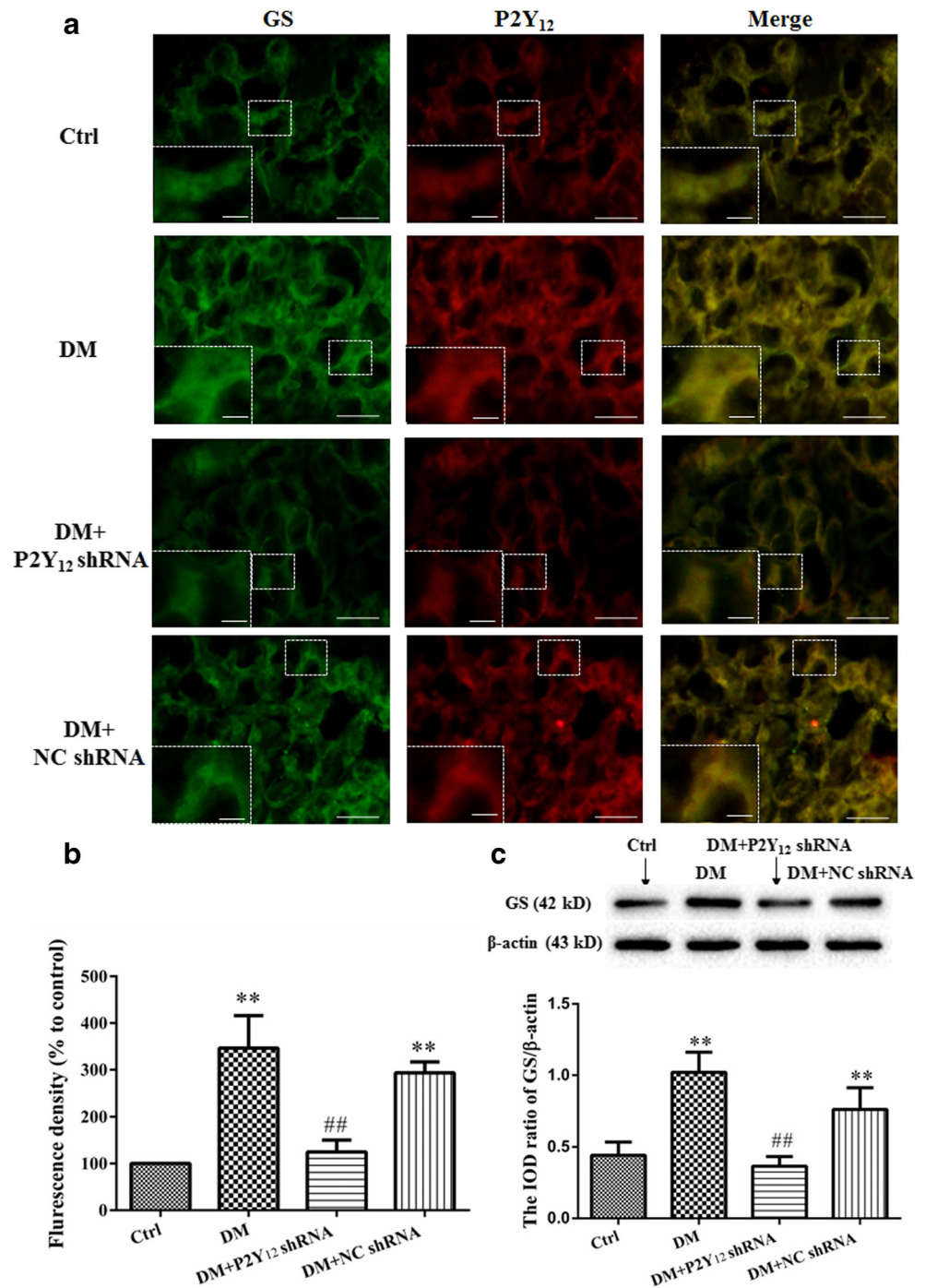
DM+NC shRNA and DM group, nor between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$).

Colocalization of P2Y₁₂ receptor and GS in SGCs of SG

Since upregulated expression of GS is a typical characteristic of SGC activation, the colocalization of the P2Y₁₂ receptor and GS (a marker of SGCs) was measured using double-label immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 4a). The coexpression

levels of P2Y₁₂ and GS in the DM group were higher than those in the control group, whereas P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment could antagonize such upregulated coexpression of P2Y₁₂ and GS ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 4b). Moreover, the intensity of staining of P2Y₁₂ in SG was changed in parallel to that of GS. In addition, Western blotting also indicated that the expression level of GS protein in the DM group was higher than that in the control group, whereas P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment could antagonize such upregulated expression of GS

Fig. 4 The double-label immunofluorescence staining of P2Y₁₂ and GS and the expression of GS protein in SG. **a** Coexpression of P2Y₁₂ receptor and GS was seen in the SG. The green signal represents GS staining with FITC, and the red signal indicates P2Y₁₂ staining with TRITC. Merged image denotes the P2Y₁₂ and GS double staining. Scale bar, 20 μ m; insets, 5 μ m ($n = 6$ in each group). **b** Quantification of P2Y₁₂ receptor and GS immunostaining (yellow) fluorescence. The yellow fluorescence density in control group was considered as 100% ($n = 6$ in each group). **c** The protein level of GS was measured by Western blotting. The bar histograms show the IOD ratio of GS protein level to β -actin in each group, and the values are mean \pm SEM from three independent experiments. ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ## $p < 0.01$ vs. DM



($p < 0.01$; Fig. 4c). The pattern of such changes of GS expression in SG was also observed for P2Y₁₂ under similar experimental conditions (see Fig. 1b). These results indicated that P2Y₁₂ receptor was expressed in the SGCs of SG, and furthermore, upregulated coexpression of GS and P2Y₁₂ receptor occurred in the SGCs of SG under diabetic condition.

Double-label immunofluorescence staining detected expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor and CGRP in SG

We also detected P2Y₁₂ and CGRP in SG by double-label immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 5). The results showed that CGRP was expressed in neurons whereas P2Y₁₂ was surrounded rather than colocalized with the neuron, which also indicated that P2Y₁₂ receptor was expressed in SGCs rather than neurons.

Targeting P2Y₁₂ by shRNA reduced expression of IL-1 β and TNF- α in SG

Activated SGCs can release many inflammatory factors. The results from real-time PCR showed that the expression levels of IL-1 β and TNF- α were significantly increased in DM group compared with those in control group ($p < 0.01$). The levels of IL-1 β and TNF- α mRNA in DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group were decreased compared with those in DM group ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference either between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, or between control group and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 6a).

The expression of IL-1 β and TNF- α was further examined at protein level by Western blotting (Fig. 6b). The results showed that IL-1 β and TNF- α protein mass in DM group were significantly higher than that in control group ($p < 0.01$). In addition, treatment with P2Y₁₂ shRNA could diminish the IL-1 β and TNF- α protein mass in DM group ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, nor between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 6c).

Targeting P2Y₁₂ by shRNA lowered expression of Cx43 in SG

Cx43 is an important and common gap-junction protein in the body and is associated with nerve damage. The immunohistochemistry staining results revealed that Cx43 was expressed in the SGCs of SG (Fig. 7a). Real-time PCR results showed that the expression of Cx43 in diabetic rats was increased compared with that in control rats ($p < 0.01$). The levels of Cx43 mRNA in DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group were lower than those in DM group ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference either between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, or between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 7b). Western blotting analysis indicated that the protein mass of Cx43 was also increased in DM rats compared with control rats ($p < 0.01$; Fig. 7c). Treatment with P2Y₁₂ shRNA significantly relieved the upregulated Cx43 mass in DM rats ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, nor between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group ($p > 0.05$; Fig. 7d).

Targeting P2Y₁₂ by shRNA mitigated phosphorylation of p38 MAPK in SG

The cellular localization of p-p38 MAPK and CGRP in SG was observed by double-label immunofluorescence staining (Fig. 8a). The results showed that p-p38 MAPK was colocalized with CGRP, which indicated that p-p38 MAPK was expressed in neurons of SG.

The expression levels of both p38 MAPK and p-p38 MAPK were assessed by Western blotting (Fig. 8b). There was no significant difference among the four groups for the IOD ratio of p38 MAPK to β -actin ($F_{(3, 20)} = 0.89$, $p = 0.46$, data not shown). However, the IOD ratio of p-p38 MAPK to p38 MAPK in DM group was higher than that in the control group ($p < 0.01$). Compared with DM group, the IOD ratio of p-p38 MAPK to p38 MAPK in the DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA group was decreased ($p < 0.01$). There was no significant difference either between DM group and DM+NC shRNA group, or between control and DM+P2Y₁₂ shRNA

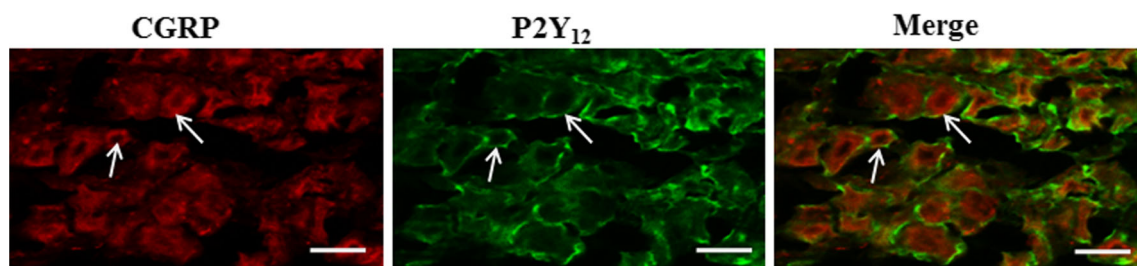


Fig. 5 The double-label immunofluorescence staining of P2Y₁₂ and CGRP in SG. The expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor and CGRP in SG was detected by double-label immunofluorescence staining. The green signal

represents P2Y₁₂ staining with FITC, and the red signal indicates CGRP staining with TRITC. The merged image represents the double staining of P2Y₁₂ and CGRP. Scale bar, 20 μ m

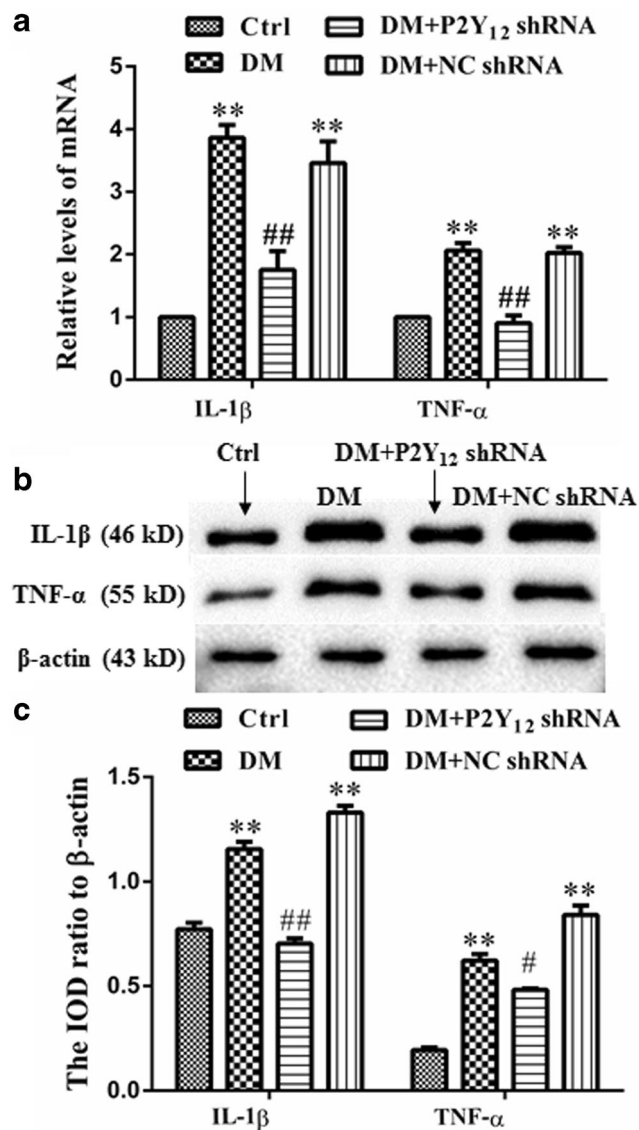


Fig. 6 The effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on expression levels of IL-1 β and TNF- α mRNA and protein in SG of type 2 diabetic rats. **a** The expression levels of IL-1 β and TNF- α mRNA were determined by real-time PCR analysis using β -actin as internal control. Results were expressed as mean \pm SEM of fold changes from three independent experiments. **b** The protein levels of IL-1 β and TNF- α were measured by Western blotting. **c** The bar histograms show the IOD ratio of IL-1 β and TNF- α protein level to β -actin in each group. Values are mean \pm SEM from three independent experiments. ** p < 0.01 vs. Ctrl; # p < 0.05, ## p < 0.01 vs. DM

group (p > 0.05; Fig. 8c). These results indicated that the phosphorylation of p38 MAPK in SG was correlated with the enhanced P2Y₁₂ receptor-mediated sympatho-excitatory responses in DM rats.

Discussion

Subjects with diabetes frequently suffer from DCAN [39]. Upon injury and nociceptive stimulation, the damaged cells,

stressed cells, and nerve endings release a large amount of ATP. Inflammatory substances such as ATP and its receptors (P2X and P2Y) are involved in the transmission of nociceptive information. ATP can modulate cardiac function [18, 40]. P2Y receptors are activated by purine, pyrimidine nucleotides or sugar-nucleotides, producing intracellular second-messengers through stimulating heterotrimeric G-proteins [10, 41]. The P2Y₁₂ receptor is expressed in human β -cells and brown adipocytes, in rodent pancreas (islet and cell preparations) and in β -cell lines, and may be involved in diabetes [42]. The cervical sympathetic ganglion neurons participate in regulating the function of heart and blood vessels [17]. The cardiovascular complications of diabetes involve the damage of autonomic nerve fibers that control heart and blood vessels, leading to abnormalities in heart rate control, vascular dynamics, and sympathetic nerve activity [43]. Upregulation of P2Y₁₂ signaling occurs in hyperglycemia, and P2Y₁₂ receptor inhibition reduces the adverse events following percutaneous coronary intervention [44]. Our data showed that the expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor in SG at both P2Y₁₂ mRNA and protein levels was increased in diabetic rats and P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment could alleviate the elevated expression. Moreover, our results revealed that P2Y₁₂ shRNA reduced the elevated blood pressure, heart rate, and cervical SND induced by diabetes, whereas the overexpression of P2Y₁₂ receptor increased blood pressure, heart rate, and cervical SND in the control rats, indicating that P2Y₁₂ receptor may be actively involved in DCAN. Thus, it suggests that upregulation of P2Y₁₂ receptor may be relevant to the pathophysiological cardiovascular changes in diabetes.

The assessment of HRV has been a well-accepted method to evaluate the status of autonomic control of the heart. In diabetics, the reduction in HRV is attributed to the cardiac self-injury, which occurs early in hyperglycemic settings [45]. Loss of HRV was found to be an independent predictor of all-cause and cardiovascular mortality in population-based studies. Analysis of HRV in time and frequency domains reveals substantial information on the balance between sympathetic and parasympathetic innervation of the heart. In this study, TP, very-low frequency (VLF), LF and HF in type 2 diabetic rats were lower than those in control rats, indicating the impairing of both parasympathetic and sympathetic nerve activity. However, the increased ratio of LF/HF suggested that the parasympathetic nerve was more severely damaged. This would result in the imbalance between sympathetic and parasympathetic tones, and consequently, the sympathetic nerve was relatively more excited. After treatment with P2Y₁₂ shRNA in type 2 diabetic rats, the changes in TP, VLF, LF, HF, and the ratio of LF/HF were prevented. Thus, P2Y₁₂ receptor may play an important role in autonomic nerve injury in type 2 diabetes and downregulation of P2Y₁₂ receptor may be targeted to alleviate the autonomic neuropathy.

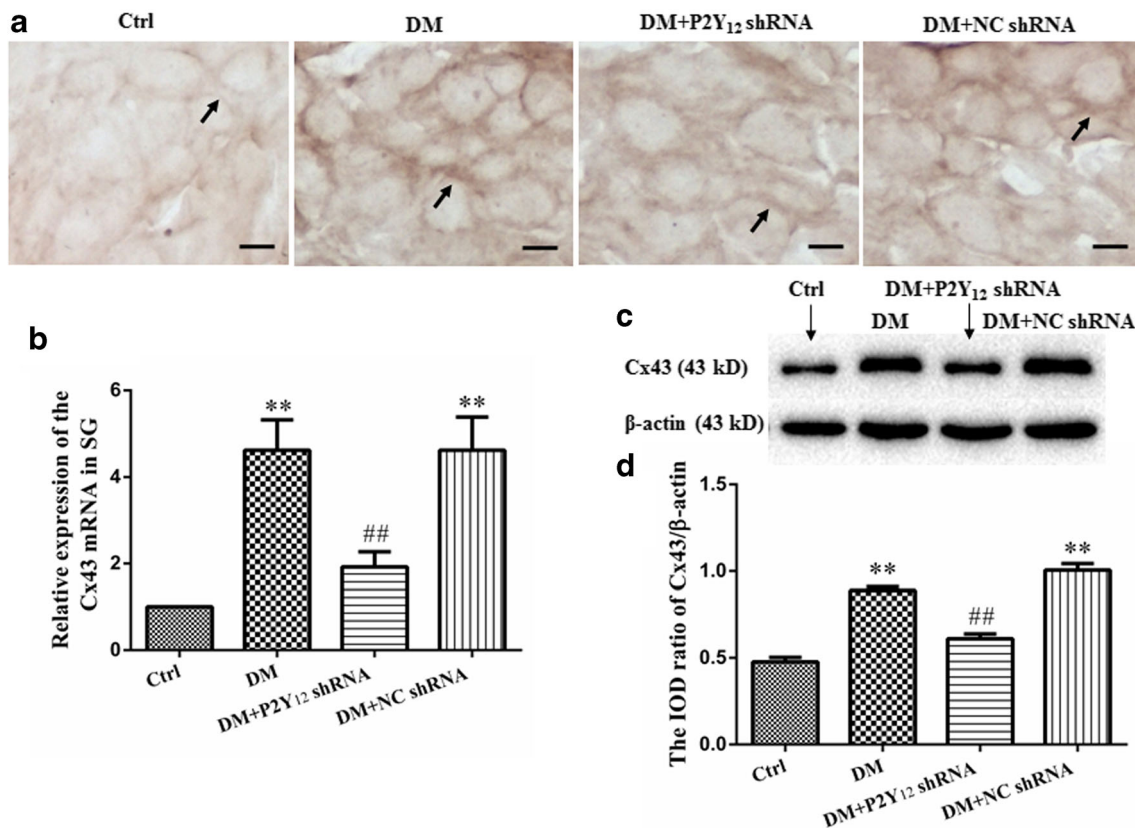


Fig. 7 The effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on the expression of Cx43 in SG of type 2 diabetic rats. **a** The expression of Cx43 was detected by immunohistochemistry. Scale bar, 20 μm. **b** The mRNA level of Cx43 was examined by real-time PCR. **c** The protein level of Cx43 was

measured by Western blotting. **d** The bar histograms show the IOD ratio of Cx43 to β-actin in each group. Values are mean ± SEM from three independent experiments. ***p* < 0.01 vs. Ctrl; ##*p* < 0.01 vs. DM

The approach to introduce shRNA into rats used in this study might cause knockdown of the P2Y₁₂ receptor in all tissues and cells expressing it. Although the participation of other tissues/cells in the regulation of cardiovascular function cannot be excluded, several lines of evidence from this study strongly indicate a correlation between P2Y₁₂ activity in SGCs and cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy in diabetes. First, P2Y₁₂ receptor is expressed in microglial of the central nervous system [13]. It is also expressed in SGCs of SG [27]. Upregulation P2Y₁₂ receptor in the SGCs of superior cervical ganglia participates in the sympatho-excitatory reflex after myocardial ischemia [23]. Second, overexpression of P2Y₁₂ receptor in SG increased blood pressure, heart rate and cervical SND in non-diabetic rats whereas treatment of P2Y₁₂ shRNA could decrease the elevated blood pressure, heart rate and cervical SND occurring in diabetic rats. Third, our results of double-label immunofluorescence staining revealed that P2Y₁₂ receptor was coexpressed with GS (a marker of SGCs) but not colocalized with CGRP (expressed in neurons), indicating that P2Y₁₂ receptor was expressed in SGCs rather than neurons in SG. Thus, the P2Y₁₂ receptor in SGCs may be implicated in pathophysiological cardiovascular changes in diabetes.

MAPKs are a family of signaling molecules, transducing extracellular stimuli into intracellular responses in a wide variety of circumstances [46]. P38 MAPK is a member of MAPKs, and inflammation induces an increase in active p-p38 MAPK [47]. Recent studies have shown that P2Y₁₂ receptor can activate p38 MAPK signaling pathway [48]. Stimulation of P2Y₁₂ receptor by released ATP or the hydrolyzed products may enhance p38 MAPK activity, since intrathecal infusion of the P2Y₁₂ agonist 2-(methylthio) adenosine 5'-diphosphate (2Me-SADP) into naive rats induced phosphorylation of p38 MAPK in spinal microglia and elevated pain behaviors [49, 50]. Both the pharmacological blockade by intrathecal administration of P2Y₁₂ antagonist and the antisense knockdown of P2Y₁₂ expression also suppressed not only the development of pain behaviors but also the phosphorylation of p38 MAPK in spinal microglia after partial sciatic nerve ligation (PSNL) or induced by 2Me-SADP [49, 50]. We found that phosphorylation of p38 MAPK in SG was significantly increased in type 2 diabetic rats and the activation of p38 MAPK in SG was remarkably inhibited in diabetic rats treated with P2Y₁₂ shRNA, further demonstrating the important role of P2Y₁₂ receptor in SG activation and subsequent inflammatory responses. There are communications between

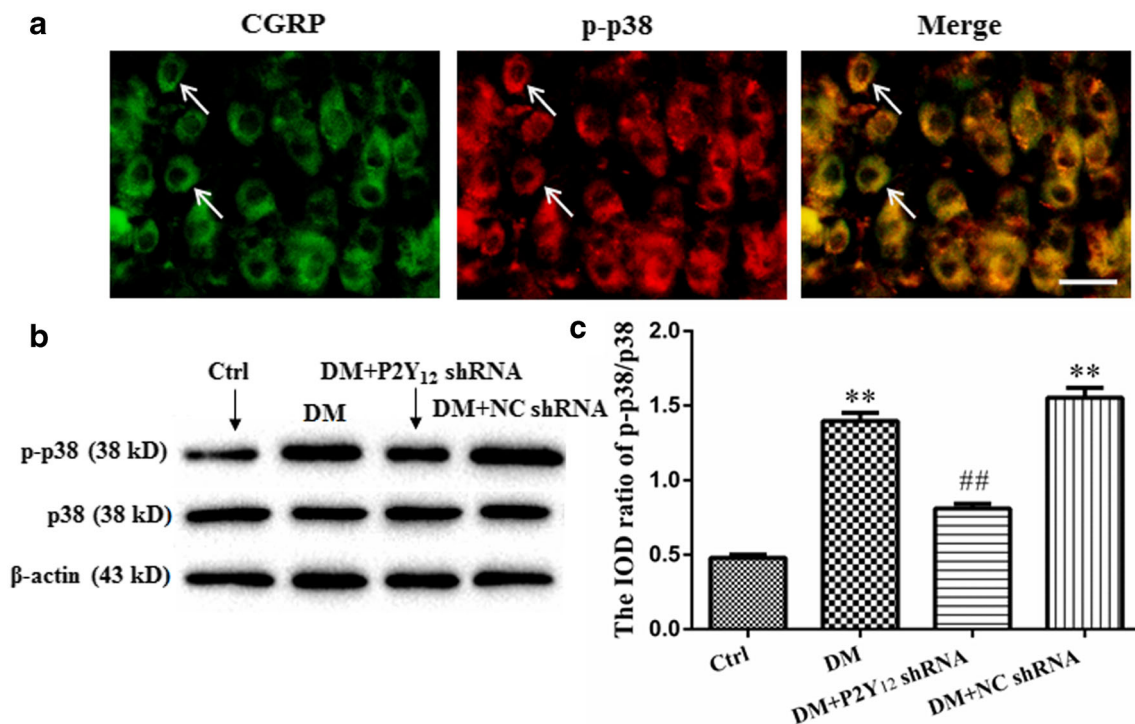


Fig. 8 The effects of P2Y₁₂ shRNA on the phosphorylation level of p38MAPK in SG of type 2 diabetic rats. **a** Double-label immunofluorescence staining of p-p38 MAPK and CGRP. The green signal represents CGRP staining with FITC, and the red signal indicates p-p38 MAPK staining with TRITC. Merged image denotes the p-p38

MAPK and CGRP double staining. Scale bar, 20 μ m. **b** The expression levels of p38 MAPK and p-p38 MAPK were detected by Western blotting. **c** The bar histograms show the IOD ratio of p-p38 MAPK to p38 MAPK in each group. The values are mean \pm SEM from three independent experiments. ** $p < 0.01$ vs. Ctrl; ## $p < 0.01$ vs. DM

neurons and glial cells in the sympathetic ganglia [27] and activation of P2Y₁₂ receptor by ATP and ADP in DRG SGCs may mediate the neuron-to-glia communication [41, 51]. This study revealed that P2Y₁₂ and p38 MAPK appeared to present dominantly in SGCs and neurons, respectively, suggesting the communication between the two types of cells in SG. The observed activation of p38 MAPK in neurons could be due to enhanced release of pro-inflammatory molecules from SGCs following increased activity of P2Y₁₂ receptor under diabetic condition.

Type 2 diabetes is considered to be associated with chronic inflammatory responses. SGCs possess functions similar to those of astrocytes in the central nervous system; for example, they release pro-inflammatory cytokines such as IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF- α , and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) and mediate the inflammatory response [27, 52]. The expression of these cytokines may be increased markedly under neurotoxic and inflammatory conditions [53]. In the process of injury and inflammation, the hyperactivity of neurons can lead to SGC activation, which in turn induces the proliferation of glial cells and increases the expression of certain regulatory proteins (e.g., glial fibrillary acidic protein and GS) and inflammatory mediators [54]. Our results showed that the expression of IL-1 β and TNF- α at both mRNA and protein level in SGCs was upregulated in diabetic rats, suggesting that the hyperglycemic environment of diabetes could enhance the

release of inflammatory factors. Furthermore, P2Y₁₂ shRNA significantly mitigated the upregulated expression of IL-1 β and TNF- α due to diabetes, strengthening the notion that P2Y₁₂ receptor may regulate the expression of inflammatory factors in SGCs. Connexins (Cx) are the structural subunits of both single membrane channels (also referred to as “hemichannels” or “connexons”) in nonjunctional membranes and gap junction channels. Cx43 is the major Cxs expressed in SGCs and astrocytes [55]. Our results also revealed that the expression levels of Cx43 mRNA and protein in diabetic rats were increased. In addition, the hyperglycemic environment of diabetes may upregulate gap junction proteins, and thus enhances the interaction between SGCs and neurons, facilitating inflammatory responses. The gap junction may mediate the coupling of SGCs and directs the movement of the small molecule and metabolites between adjacent cells [56]. The abnormal interaction might aggravate the neuronal damage which contributes to the typical symptom of DCAN. We found that P2Y₁₂ shRNA significantly decreased the upregulated expression of Cx43 in SGCs of diabetic rats. Therefore, SGC activation in SG may also play an important role in the development of DCAN.

In conclusion, P2Y₁₂ shRNA treatment could suppress the elevated expression of P2Y₁₂ receptor and Cx43, inhibit p38 MAPK activation and the release of inflammatory cytokines in SG, improve the impaired sympathetic function, and

thereby alleviate cardiovascular autonomic neuropathy in diabetes. Thus, P2Y₁₂ receptor may be involved in the pathogenesis of DCAN and the P2Y₁₂ receptor may be exploited as a potential target for dealing with DCAN.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflicts of interest Jingjing Guo declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Xuan Sheng declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Yu Dan declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Yurong Xu declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Yuanruohan Zhang declares that he has no conflict of interest.

Huihong Ji declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Jiayue Wang declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Zixi Xu declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Hongyu Che declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Guodong Li declares that he has no conflict of interest.

Shangdong Liang declares that he has no conflict of interest.

Guilin Li declares that she has no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval The use of animals was reviewed and approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees of Nanchang University Medical Schools.

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