Heart Slice Culture System Reliably Demonstrates Clinical Drug-Related Cardiotoxicity

Jessica M. Miller*[1,2]; Moustafa H. Meki*[1,2]; Qinghui Ou*[1]; Sharon A. George*[3]; Anna Gams[3];
Riham R. E. Abouleisa[1]; Xian-Liang Tang[1]; Brooke M. Ahern[4]; Guruprasad A. Giridharan[2];
Ayman El-Baz[2]; Bradford G. Hill[5]; Jonathan Satin[4]; Daniel J. Conklin[5]; Javid Moslehi[6]; Roberto
Bolli[1]; Alexandre J. S. Ribeiro[7]; Igor R. Efimov[3]; Tamer M. A. Mohamed[1,2,5,8,9,10].

[1]From the Institute of Molecular Cardiology, Department of Medicine, University of Louisville,
KY, USA

[2]Department of Bioengineering, University of Louisville, KY, USA

[3]Department of Biomedical Engineering, The George Washington University, Washington, DC,
USA

[4]Department of Physiology, University of Kentucky, KY, USA

[5]Envirome Institute, Diabetes and Obesity Center, Department of Medicine, University of
Louisville, KY, USA

[6] Division of Cardiology, Cardio-Oncology Program, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, 2220
Pierce Avenue, Nashville, USA.

[7]U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, Office of
Translational Science, Office of Clinical Pharmacology, Division of Applied Regulatory Science,
Silver Spring, MD, USA

[8]Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, University of Louisville, KY, USA

[9]Institute of Cardiovascular Sciences, University of Manchester, UK

[10]Faculty of Pharmacy, Zagazig University, Egypt

* Authors equally contributed to the work.

Correspondence to:

Tamer M A Mohamed, Institute of Molecular Cardiology, University of Louisville, 580 South
Preston Street, Louisville, KY 40202. Email: tamer.mohamed@louisville.edu

Igor R Efimov, Department of Biomedical Engineering, The George Washington University,
5000 Science and Engineering Hall, Washington, DC 20052, USA. Email: efimov@gwu.edu

Alexandre J. S. Ribeiro, U.S. Food and Drug Administration, Center for Drug Evaluation and
Research, Office of Translational Science, Office of Clinical Pharmacology, Division of Applied
Regulatory Science, Silver Spring, MD, USA. Email: Alexandre.Ribeiro@fda.hhs.gov

Abstract

The limited availability of human heart tissue and its complex cell composition are major limiting factors for reliable testing drug efficacy, toxicity and understanding mechanism. Recently, we developed a functional human and pig heart slice biomimetic culture system that fully preserves the viability and functionality of 300 μm heart slices for 6 days. Here, we tested the reliability of this culture system in delineating the mechanisms of known anti-cancer drugs that cause cardiomyopathy. We tested three anti-cancer drugs (doxorubicin, trastuzumab, and sunitinib) associated with different mechanisms leading to cardiotoxicity at three concentrations and assessed the effect of these drugs on heart slice viability, structure, function and transcriptome. Slices incubated with any of these drugs for 48 h showed significant loss in viability, cardiomyocyte structure and functionality. Mechanistically, RNA sequencing demonstrated a significant downregulation of cardiac genes and upregulation of oxidative response in doxorubicin-treated tissues. Trastuzumab treatment caused major downregulation in cardiac muscle contraction-related genes, consistent with its clinically known direct effect on cardiomyocytes. Interestingly, sunitinib treatment resulted in significant downregulation of angiogenesis-related genes in line with its mechanism of action. Heart slices are not only able to demonstrate the expected toxicity of doxorubicin and trastuzumab similar to hiPS-derived-cardiomyocytes; they are superior in detecting sunitinib cardiotoxicity phenotypes and mechanism in the clinically relevant concentration range, 100 nM – 1 μM. These results indicate that heart slice tissue culture models have the potential to become a reliable platform for testing drug toxicity and mechanism of action.

Introduction

In the past 30 years, cardiotoxicity induced by side effects of drugs that affect the electrical activity as well as the contractility of cardiomyocytes has been the cause for 40% of all drug withdrawals from the market[1, 2]. In addition, in the last decade, there has been an explosion of cancer therapies, several of which often lead to cardiotoxic effects, causing cardiomyopathy, arrhythmias, irreversible heart failure or death[3]. For example, both traditional (e.g., anthracyclines and radiation) and targeted (e.g., trastuzumab) breast cancer therapies can result in cardiovascular complications in a subset of patients[4, 5]. The cardiovascular effects of newer classes of drugs, such as CDK4/6 inhibitors and PI3K inhibitors, are still unclear[6, 7]. The recent higher cancer survival is partially offset by increased morbidity and mortality related to the cardiotoxic side effects of anti-cancer therapeutics[8]. Hence, a close collaboration between cardiologists and oncologists (in the emerging field of cardio-oncology) aims to make these complications manageable to ensure that patients can be treated as safely and as effectively as possible[2].

Detection of cardiotoxic effects of drug candidates requires the use of *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies prior to clinical trials[9]. Therefore, there is a growing need for reliable preclinical screening strategies for cardiovascular toxicities associated with emerging cancer therapies prior to human clinical trials. Animal models can fail in predicting drug adverse cardiac effects[10, 11], can be expensive and do not replicate many of the biochemical properties and hemodynamic aspects of the human heart and circulation[12-14]. Recently, human induced pluripotent stem cell derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CMs) started being used to assess cardiotoxicity[15, 16]. However, these cells have several fetal-like properties that can limit their usefulness in comprehensively predicting clinical cardiac drug side effects. The development of hiPSC-CMs microtissues is a promising effort to generate more mature phenotypes, but it is still a work in progress[15, 16]; because such microtissues still exhibit immature electrophysiology and lack cell-cell electrical coupling[17]. A less

common approach has been the use of isolated primary human cardiomyocytes. While these cells

are functionally mature, and can be used for high-throughput testing, they readily dedifferentiate

in culture, thereby limiting their use for cardiotoxicity studies[18]. The adult human heart tissue is

structurally more complicated, being composed of a heterogeneous mixture of various cell types

including cardiomyocytes, endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, and various types of stromal

fibroblasts linked together with a sophisticated three-dimensional network of extracellular matrix

proteins[19]. This heterogeneity of the non-cardiomyocyte cell population[20-22] in the adult heart is a

major obstacle in modeling heart tissue using individual cell types. Human ventricular wedge

preparations have also been used to study electrophysiology[23, 24]. However, the wedge

preparations are typically large in size and have functional viability of only several hours, limiting

their applicability to high-throughput applications.

These major limitations highlight the importance of developing optimal methods to enable

the culture of intact cardiac tissue for studies involving physiological and pathological

conditions[17]. Culturing human heart slices has shown promise in extending the functionality and

viability of cardiac tissue. By retaining the normal tissue architecture, the multi-cell type

environment, and the 3-dimensional structure, tissue slices can more faithfully replicate the

organ-level adult cardiac physiology in terms of normal conduction velocity, action potential

duration, and intracellular calcium dynamics[25, 26]. Recently, we have developed a novel

biomimetic culture system that maintains full viability and functionality of human and pig heart

slices (300 μm thickness) for 6 days in culture through optimization of the medium and culture

conditions with continuous electrical stimulation at 1.2 Hz and oxygenation of the culture

medium[27]. In the present study, we aim to test the reliability of this culture system in

recapitulating clinical toxicity and potentially delineating the mechanisms of known cardiotoxic

drugs. To this end, we selected three anticancer drugs with known adverse cardiac side effects:

doxorubicin, an anthracycline with a long history of cardiotoxicity; trastuzumab, a monoclonal

antibody target HER2; and, sunitinib, a small molecule multi-targeted kinase inhibitor (TKI) with

potent activity against VEGF and PDGF receptors[5]. All three drugs have been associated with

cardiomyopathy through a different mechanisms[5]. These 3 drugs were selected as in hiPSC-

CMs doxorubicin and trastuzumab are shown to be cardiotoxic[28, 29], however, nanomolar

concentrations of sunitinib do not cause any cardiotoxicity on hiPSC-CMs [30]. Therefore, we first

confirmed in our hands the previously reported data that hiPSC-CMs are able to demonstrate

the cardiotoxic phenotype of doxorubicin, but not sunitinib, at low concentrations[30]. Then, in pig

heart slices, we tested three different concentrations of each drug in ten-fold incremental values

with the lowest dose being the most clinically relevant and assessed the effect of these drugs on

heart slice viability, structure, function and transcriptome. As the maximum blood concentration

of doxorubicin ranges between 100nM-300nM[31], we used 100nM, 1µM, 10µM concentrations.

We used 1µg/mL, 10µg/mL and 100µg/mL concentrations for trastuzumab as the blood level is

ranging between 1-10µg/mL[32]. Sunitinib concentrations of 100nM, 1µM, 10µM were used as the

normal blood concentration range is 100nM-200nM[33]. Finally, we assessed the ability and

reproducibility of the human heart slices in demonstrating the true cardiotoxic mechanism of

doxorubicin between different human subjects.

Methods

Apoptotic assay on hiPSC-CMs: hiPSC-CMs (iCell Cardiomyocytes[2]) were purchased

from Cellular Dynamics (Currently FujiFilm Inc.). These hiPSC-CMs have been selected after

differentiation using an a-MHC-Blastocidin selection cassette. This strategy yields nearly 100%

pure hiPSC-CMs. Following vendor recommendations, hiPSC-CMs were seeded on fibronectin

coated plates and cultured in maintenance medium. . hiPSC-CMs were exposed to a range of

concentrations of doxorubicin (cardiotoxin), sunitinib (cardiotoxic TKI), aspirin (non-toxic drug),

erlotinib (non-cardiotoxic TKI) over 48 h. DMSO in the medium at a concentration of 0.1% (v/v)

was used as a control condition for each drug. Live cell brightfield and fluorescent images for

time-lapse experiments were acquired using the Incucyte® S3 Live Cell Analysis System

(Essen Bioscience / Sartorius) running version 2019A (20191.1.6976.19779). Plates were

imaged hourly following initiation of drug treatment. Three images at set locations within each

well were acquired at 10x magnification for each time point. For fluorescent imaging of

apoptosis, the Incucyte Caspase-3/7 Green dye (Essen Bioscience 4440) was added to the

media/drug cocktail at a concentration of 5 µM for the duration of the assay. Analysis of

apoptosis using the Caspase 3/7 fluorescent dye was performed using the Incucyte software.

Parameters were set to quantify green fluorescent intensity metrics and areas of high signal

intensity are marking cell death.

Harvesting porcine heart tissue: All animal procedures were in accordance with the

institutional guidelines and approved by the University of Louisville Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committee. The protocol for harvesting pig hearts has been described in detail[27, 34]. Briefly,

following deeply anesthetizing the pig with 5% isoflurane, pig heart was quickly excised out and

the heart was clamped at the aortic arch and perfused with 1L sterile cardioplegia solution (110

mM NaCl, 1.2 mM $CaCl_2$, 16 mM KCl, 16 mM $MgCl_2$, 10 mM $NaHCO_3$, 5 units/mL heparin, pH to

7.4), then the heart was preserved on an ice-cold cardioplegic solution and immediately

transported to the lab on wet ice.

Human heart Slices: Donor hearts that were not used in transplantation were acquired

through our collaboration with the Washington Regional Transplant Community. Human cardiac

organotypic slices were prepared as previously described[35, 36].

Heart slicing and culturing: Slicing and culturing 300 µm thick heart tissue slices were

performed as previously described in[27, 34]. A refined oxygenated growth medium was used

(Medium 199, 1x ITS supplement, 10% FBS, 5 ng/mL VEGF, 10 ng/mL FGF-basic, and 2x

Antibiotic-Antimycotic), and changed 3 times/day. Sunitinib (Tocris Inc.) (100 nM, 1µM, and 10

µM), trastuzumab (InvivoGen Inc.) (1 µg, 10 µg, and 100 µg), or doxorubicin (Sigma Millipore

Inc.) (100 nM, 1µM, and 10 µM, and 50 µM) was added freshly to the culture medium at each

medium change. Control slices received DMSO at the same dilution factor as the drug-treated

slices.

MTT viability assay: For the MTT assay we used the Vybrant ® MTT Cell Proliferation

Assay kit (Thermo Scientific) following the manufacturer's protocol with slight modifications.

Using a sterile scalpel, each heart slice was cut into 2 ~0.5 cm^2-sized sections for the MTT

assay. The heart slice segments were placed into a single well of a 12-well plate containing 0.9

mL growth media with 0.1 mL of reconstituted MTT substrate that was prepared according to

the manufacturer's protocol. The tissue was incubated at 37°C for 3 h. During this time, viable

tissue metabolized the MTT substrate and produced a purple color formazan compound. To

extract the purple formazan from the tissue slices, the tissue was transferred into 1 mL of

DMSO and incubated at 37°C for 15 min. The resulting solution was purple in color. This

solution was then transferred into a clear bottom 96-well plate in triplicate at 3 dilutions, 1:2, 1:5,

and 1:10. The intensity of the purple color was measured using cytation 1 plate reader (BioTek)

at 570 nm. The readings were normalized to the weight of each heart tissue section and

converted into OD/mg tissue. The 3 dilutions of the solution were performed to correct for any

possible signal saturation and the average of all readings was normalized to their dilution factor.

Heart slice fixation, mounting and immunofluorescence: Heart slices were fixed with 4%

paraformaldehyde for 48 h. Fixed tissue was dehydrated in 10% sucrose for 1 hour, 20%

sucrose for 1 h, and 30% for overnight. The dehydrated tissue was then embedded in optimal

cutting temperature compound (OCT compound) and gradually frozen in isopentane/dry ice

bath. OCT embedded blocks were stored at -80°C until sectioning. 8 μm sections were cut and

immunolabeled for target proteins using the following procedure: To remove the OCT

compound, the slides were heated for 5 min at 95°C until the OCT compound melted. Then 1

mL of PBS was added to each slide and incubated at RT for 10-30 min until the OCT compound

washed off. Sections were then permeabilized by incubating for 30 min in 0.1% Triton-X in PBS

at RT. The Triton-X was removed, and non-specific antibody binding of the sections were

blocked with 3% BSA solution for 1 h at RT. After washing the BSA off with PBS, each section

was marked off with a wax pen. After marking sections off, the primary antibodies (1:200 dilution

in 1% BSA) connexin 43 (Abcam; #AB11370), troponin-T (Thermo Scientific; #MA5-12960)]

were added to each section and incubated for 90 min at RT. The primary antibodies were

washed off with PBS three times followed by the addition of the secondary antibodies (1:200

dilution in 1% BSA) anti-Ms AlexaFluor 488 (Thermo Scientific; #A16079), anti-Rb AlexaFluor

594 (Thermo Scientific; #T6391) and incubated for 90 min at RT. The secondary antibody was

removed by washing the sections 3 times with PBS. To distinguish the *bona fide* target staining

from the background, we used a secondary antibody only as a control. After 3 times PBS

washes, DAPI was added for 15 min. The sections were washed again 3 times with PBS.

Finally, slices were mounted in vectashield (Vector Laboratories) and sealed with nail polish. All

immunofluorescence imaging and quantification were performed using a Cytation 1 high content

imager and the fluorescent signal quantification and masking were performed using the Gen5

software.

Calcium-transient assessment: Calcium transients were assessed as previously

described[27]. Briefly, heart slices were loaded with Fluo-4 for 30 min at room temperature before

being transferred to the imaging chamber. The loading solution contained a 1:10 mixture of

5 mM Fluo-4 AM in dry DMSO and PowerloadTM concentrate (Invitrogen), which was diluted

100-fold into extracellular Tyrode's solution (NaCl 140mM; KCl 4.5mM; glucose 10mM; HEPES

10mM; $MgCl_2$ 1mM; $CaCl_2$ 1.8mM; 2x Antibiotic-Antimycotic; pH 7.4). Additional 20 min were

allowed for de-esterification before recordings were taken. Contractions and calcium transients

were evoked by applying voltage pulses at 1 Hz between platinum wires placed on either side of

the heart slice and connected to a field stimulator (IonOptix, Myopacer). Fluo-4 fluorescence

transients were recorded via a standard filter set (#49011 ET, Chroma Technology). Resting

fluorescence was recorded after cessation of pacing, and background light was obtained after

removing the heart slice from the field of view at the end of the experiment. All analyses of

calcium transients were based on calcium transients recorded from single cardiomyocytes

within the heart slice and the calcium transient's amplitude was assessed as the average of 10

consecutive beats from each cell. Calcium transients and amplitude was assessed following

normalization to the basal florescence of each cell and represented as F/F_0.

RNA Sequencing: RNA was isolated from the heart slices by using the Qiagen miRNeasy

Micro Kit, #210874, following the manufacturer's protocol after homogenization of tissue in

Trizol. RNAseq library preparation, sequencing, and data analysis were performed as described

previously[27].

Optical Mapping: Slices were incubated with Di-4-ANEPPS (30 µl of stock solution at 1.25

mg/mL diluted to 1 mL with recovery solution(140 mM NaCl, 4.5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl2, 1.8 mM

CaCl2, 10 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES, 10 mM BDM; pH 7.4)) for single parameter voltage

optical mapping. Slices were paced at 1 Hz frequency, 2 ms duration at an amplitude of 1.5X

the threshold for stimulation using a platinum bipolar pacing wire positioned at the center of the

slice. Slices were excited using excitation light at 520 ± 5 nm and the emitted light was collected

by a tandem lens optical mapping system, filtered using a 610 ± 20 nm filter and recorded using

the SciMedia Ultima L-type CMOS cameras.

Optical signals were analyzed as previously described[35, 36]. Briefly, activation times were

defined as the time of maximum first derivative of the fluorescence signal during the upstroke.

End of action potential and calcium transients were defined as the point where the signal returns

to 80% of its total signal amplitude. Conduction velocity was determined in the transverse

direction of propagation using activation times and known interpixel resolution.

Cap analysis of gene expression: For high-throughput analysis of transcriptional starting

point and identification of promoter usage, we performed cap analysis of gene expression

(CAGE). Total RNA from the cultured slices was extracted using the RNeasy Fibrous Tissue

Mini Kit according to the manufacture's protocol. Library preparation and sequencing with

HiSeq2500 was performed according to the Morioka *et al* protocol[37]. Read mapping was

performed with Burrows-Wheeler Aligner[38]; subsequent analysis of reads into decomposition

peak identification (DPI) and transcription start site-like peaks was performed with *DPI1*

(https://github.com/hkawaji/dpi1/) followed by *TomeTools TSSClassifier*

(https://sourceforge.net/projects/tometools/). Differential expression analysis was performed

with *edgeR*[39], gene ontology (GO) with *limma*[40], and heatmap plotting with *pheatmap*

(https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=pheatmap).

Results

hiPSC-CMs demonstrate doxorubicin cardiotoxicity but not sunitinib

A major distinction between the heart slice preparation and hiPSC-CMs is the retention of

multiple cell types in heart slices. It has been reported hiPSC-CMs is able to demonstrate the

cardiotoxic phenotype of doxorubicin in nanomolar concentrations but not for nanomolar

concentrations of sunitinib[30]. First we needed to reproduce these findings in our hands,

therefore, we tested different the effect of different concentrations of doxorubicin, and sunitinib

on hiPS-CMs viability using caspapse3/7 apoptosis assay over 48 hours. aspirin and erlotinib

(non-cardiotoxic TKI) used as negative controls (Figure 1). consistent with the previous report[30],

sunitinib did not show any cardiotoxicity in hiPSC-CMs at 500 nM or 1 µM concentrations as

assessed by caspase3/7 apoptosis assay (Figure 1d-f). Sunitinib at 60 µM showed acute

apoptotic response within one hour of addition, therefore, no more fluorescence was detected

over the course of the experiment using this concentration (Figure 1d-f). However, doxorubicin

as low as 500 nM demonstrated the expected cardiotoxicity on hiPSC-CMs and the negative

controls (aspirin and erlotinib (non-cardiotoxic TKI) did not show any cardiotoxic effect on

hiPSC-CMs up to 60 µM (Figure 1a-c).

Effect of cardiotoxins on heart slices viability and cardiomyocyte integrity

Pig heart slice exposure to these concentrations of cardiotoxins for 48 h resulted in a

significant decline in the general viability of the tissue as assessed by the MTT viability assay

(Figure 2a). Structurally, following the tissue exposure to doxorubicin, there was a decrease in

the gap junction protein, connexin-43, expression starting at the lowest concentration (Figure

1b). Heart slices treated with trastuzumab showed disruption in connexin-43 localization at the

gap junction accompanied by a lower level of troponin expression starting at the lowest

concentration (Figure 2b). Interestingly, low concentration sunitinib treatment did not appear to

have an effect on the structure of the tissue slices; however, the higher concentrations showed

disruption of connexin-43 localization (Figure 2b).

Effect of cardiotoxins on heart slices calcium homeostasis

We next tested the effects of cardiotoxins on the calcium homeostasis within the pig heart

slices after 48 h exposure. All high concentrations of cardiotoxins completely abolished the

calcium transients (Supp Movie 3, 4, 6, 7, 9 and 10) compared with the control (Supp movie 1),

However, as the lower concentrations are more clinically relevant, they demonstrated several of

the clinically-observed effects on the cardiac contractility and rhythm[5]. Treatment with 100 nM

doxorubicin showed abolished calcium transients, indicating direct cardiomyocyte damage

(Figure 3 Supp movie 2). Trastuzumab (1 µg) (Figure 3, Supp movie 5) or sunitinib (100 nM)

(Figure 3, Supp movie 8) treatment resulted in severe disruption in calcium homeostasis within

the heart slices.

Mechanistic understanding of the cardiotoxic effects

Transcriptomic analyses were performed to understand the mechanism behind the

responses of the pig heart slice to cardiotoxins. The top significant up/downregulated gene

ontology (GO) terms for tissue treated with 100 nM of doxorubicin are shown in Figure 4a-c. The

top downregulated GO terms were genes responsible for cardiac muscle and development as

well as cellular division genes. The top upregulated GO terms were genes involved in

oxidation/reduction and inflammatory response that is consistent with the known free radical

induction by doxorubicin. Figure 5a-c shows the up/downregulated genes in heart slices treated

with 1 μg trastuzumab for 48 h. The downregulated genes are mainly contractile genes, which

indicates a direct effect on the cardiomyocytes structure. Figure 6a-c shows the

up/downregulated GO terms in heart slices treated with 100 nM sunitinib. Sunitinib treatment

resulted in significant downregulation in angiogenesis-related genes.

Human heart slices can reliably and consistently predict doxorubicin cardiotoxicity

The experiments described above with viability, structure and calcium assays were

performed on pig hearts to ensure consistency between the tissues. However, the ultimate goal

of the field is to predict cardiotoxicity in human heart tissue, therefore, we used healthy human

heart tissue to demonstrate doxorubicin cardiotoxicity on functional and transcriptomics levels.

To ensure gender consistency between the human hearts in demonstrating the mechanism of

doxorubicin cardiotoxicity, we used 2 female and 4 male hearts. Consistent with the pig heart

data, electrophysiological remodeling was also observed in human heart slices. Significant

slowing of cardiac conduction velocity in the transverse direction of propagation in response to

50 μM doxorubicin exposure for 24 h was observed in all human hearts used within the

experiment[36] (Figure 7a-b). These results are consistent with reports of acute electrophysiologic

alterations in some patients treated with doxorubicin[41]. Furthermore, Cap analysis of gene

expression (CAGE) transcriptome analysis revealed 1433 differentially expressed genes in

control and 2172 differentially expressed genes at the promoter level in doxorubicin-treated

human cardiac slices as illustrated in (Figure 7c). GO analysis revealed that most differentially

expressed genes were associated with DNA repair, oxidation-reduction, mitochondria viability

and oxidative phosphorylation, which are likely to be related to the damage of the energetic

capacity of the cardiomyocytes (Figure 7d). Hierarchical clustering analysis further illustrated

different clustering of control and doxorubicin-treated human cardiac organotypic slices (Figure

7e). Importantly, these analyses show the consistency of the transcriptomic response to

doxorubicin among different human subjects (Figure 7e).

Discussion

Drug-induced cardiotoxicity is a major cause of drug attrition[42]. Therefore, there is a pressing

need for predictable preclinical screening strategies for cardiovascular toxicities associated with

emerging new drugs prior to clinical trials. The recent consideration of hiPSC-CMs for testing

drug toxicity provided a partial solution for some contexts of use but did not solve the overall

need in predicting effects in a diversity of functional cardiac modes of failure e.g., effects on

endothelial cells, microvasculature or smooth muscle cells[15, 16]. In addition to fetal-like

properties, a single cell type does not replicate the complexity of a 3D heart tissue that contains

multiple cell types and biological connections. For the first time, we were able to demonstrate

the clinical cardiotoxic phenotype of three mechanistically different cardiotoxic drugs using a 3D

pig heart slice culture model.

The first drug that we tested was an anthracycline, which is a class of antibiotics discovered

over 60 years ago and used to treat many different cancers[43]. Doxorubicin is one of the

commonly used anthracyclines for the treatment of lymphoma, leukemia, sarcoma, and breast

cancer[43]. The anticancer activity of doxorubicin results from DNA and RNA synthesis

disruption[43], attenuated DNA repair[44], and generation of free radicals which damage the DNA[45].

Even though doxorubicin is an effective and commonly used anticancer therapy, its use is

limited by its cardiotoxicity. Between 5% and 23% of the patients that receive doxorubicin

develop diminished exercise capacity and progressive heart failure symptoms[46, 47]. Toxicity

mechanisms of doxorubicin dependent on patient-specific properties are still poorly understood,

despite being a compound extensively studied for decades; doxorubicin has been found to

induce multiple forms of direct cellular injury to cardiomyocytes as a result of free radical

production induced by the quinone group[48]. This direct damage to cardiomyocytes has been

demonstrated in hiPSC-CMs[28, 30]. Consistent with these reports, our pig and human heart slice

models recapitulated the known response to doxorubicin, as our RNAseq data show

downregulation of genes responsible for cardiac development and cellular division and

upregulation of genes involved in oxidation/reduction and inflammatory response, which is

congruent with the known oxidative stress induced by doxorubicin[30].

The second cardiotoxin is a HER2-targeted agent (Trastuzumab) that targets and inhibit

HER2/*neu* receptors (also known as ERBB2). Here we used trastuzumab, the first approved

HER2-targeted agent[49]. Trastuzumab is a humanized monoclonal antibody that exerts its

anticancer effect through blocking the activation of the HER2(ERBB2)/*neu* receptor, leading to

the inhibition of epidermal growth factors/HER2 ligand receptor activity and disrupting the

phosphorylation of tyrosine kinases which are critical regulators of the cell cycle[49]. It has been

noted that trastuzumab treatment results in asymptomatic cardiac dysfunction and, less often,

symptomatic heart failure in some patients[50]. Trastuzumab-induced cardiotoxicity is thought to

be driven by disruption of ERBB2/neuregulin signaling in cardiomyocytes, which is critical for

normal myocyte growth, survival, and homeostasis[51]. The trastuzumab-induced direct

cardiomyocyte damage phenotype and mechanism has been recently modeled in hiPSC-CMs[29,

52]. Consistent with these findings, pig heart slices treated with trastuzumab showed direct

cardiomyocyte damage, as evidenced by disruption of calcium homeostasis and downregulation

of cardiac contractile gene expression.

Sunitinib was the third cardiotoxin tested, a tyrosine kinase and angiogenesis inhibitors

(TKIs), which directly inhibits angiogenesis through inhibition of vascular endothelial growth

factor (VEGF). This is usually accompanied by cardiovascular toxicity related to increased blood

pressure[53]. Other direct cardiac toxicities included cardiac systolic dysfunction, which has been

observed in patients treated with sunitinib and sorafenib[54] and has been attributed to the

disruption of the coronary microvascular pericytes leading to hypoxia of cardiomyocytes[55] and

cardiomyopathy. It was not possible to model these indirect effects using hiPSC-CMs, as

nanomolar concentrations of sunitinib treatment have no obvious cardiotoxic effects on hiPSC-

CMs due to its indirect effect on cardiomyocytes as indicated by our own data (Figure 1) and

others[30]. However, in our heart slice system we were able to demonstrate clearly that although

sunitinib (as low as 100nM) causes no major damage to the cardiomyocyte structure, it induces

disruption of the angiogenic gene program in the heart tissue, which is consistent with its clinical

effects.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that the heart slice culture system is a

promising platform for modeling cardiotoxicity phenotypes and mechanisms. These data

suggest that this system will be useful to test acute and subacute cardiotoxicity of new

therapeutics.

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Author contributions

J.M.M, M.H.M, Q.O, S.A.G.: collection and analysis of data, manuscript writing, and final approval of manuscript; A.G., R.R.E.A., X-L.T., B.M.A. collection and analysis of data; G.A.G., A.E., B.G.H., J.S., D.J.C., J.M., R.B., A.J.S.R, I.R.E, and T.M.A.M: conception and design, manuscript writing, and final approval of manuscript.

Competing Interests

TMAM, holds equities in Tenaya Therapeutics. GAG, is consultant for NuPulseCV. The other authors report no conflicts.

Disclaimer

This article reflects the views of the authors and should not be construed to represent the views or policies of the FDA

 Figure legends

Figure 1. Pro-apoptotic effect of doxorubicin and sunitinib on hiPSC-CMs: Kinetics of

caspase-3/7 activation in hiPSC-CMs exposed to a range of concentrations of **(a)** aspirin (non-

toxic drug), **(b)** doxorubicin (cardiotoxin), **(c)** erlotinib (non-cardiotoxic TKI) and **(d)** sunitinib

(cardiotoxic TKI) over 48 h. DMSO in the medium at a concentration of 0.1% (v/v) was used as

a control. (A-D) Variations in total caspase integrated intensity was calculated from fluorescent

images of the caspase-3/7 green dye acquired every hour, which captured the extent of

apoptosis within cultured cells. Acute apoptotic effects were detected upon exposing cells to 60

µM of sunitinib as noted by the arrow in **(d)**. **(e and f)** Phase microscopy images of cells

acquired when 60 µM of sunitinib was added to cells **(e)** and one hour after being exposure **(f)**,

where total cell detachment was observed. Scale bar: 200 µm.

Figure 2. Effect of cardiotoxins on heart slice viability and structure: (a) Bar graph shows

the quantification of heart slice viability after 2 days of treatment with the corresponding

cardiotoxin using MTT assay (n=2 independent experiments, 4 replicates in each, One-Way

ANOVA test was conducted to compare between groups; *P<0.05 compared to the control). **(b)**

Representative immunofluorescence images showing the expression of connexin 43 (red) in

cardiomyocytes (green) in cross sections taken from heart tissue slices treated for 2 days with

the corresponding concentration of the cardiotoxin (Scale bar, 100 µm). These representative

images have been reproducible over 2 independent experiments with 3 technical replicates in

each experiment; however, the lack of reliable tools for quantifying localization of connexin 43

has limited our ability for quantification.

Figure 3. Effect of cardiotoxins on heart slices functionality and calcium homeostasis: (a)

Representative calcium traces from day 2 cultured control slices and heart slices treated with

the corresponding concentration of each cardiotoxin for 2 days. Transients were recorded after

loading the heart slices with Fluo-4 calcium dye and using 1 Hz/20 V electrical stimulation at the

time of recording. **(b)** Scoring of calcium transient amplitude as indication of the cardiomyocyte

function from slices treated with each cardiotoxin (n=36 cells in each group from 2 independent

experiments).

Figure 4. Differential gene expression in slices treated with 100 nM doxorubicin: (a)

Volcano plot showing significant changes in gene expression in 100nM doxorubicin (Dox)

treated tissue. Bar graph shows the GO terms for the significantly downregulated **(b)** or

upregulated **(C)** genes from RNA-seq data between control heart slices and heart slices treated

with 100nM doxorubicin (n=2 pig hearts).

Figure 5. Differential gene expression in slices treated with 1μg trastuzumab: (a) Volcano

plot demonstrating the genes which are significantly different between control heart slice and

slices treated with 1μg trastuzumab. Bar graph shows the GO terms for the significantly

downregulated **(b)** or upregulated **(c)** genes from RNA-seq data between control heart slices

and heart slices treated with 1μg trastuzumab (n=2 pig hearts).

Figure 6. Differential gene expression in slices treated with 100nM sunitinib: (a) Volcano

plot demonstrating the genes which are significantly different between control heart slice and

slices treated with 100nM sunitinib. Bar graph shows the GO terms for the significantly

downregulated **(b)** or upregulated **(c)** genes from RNA-seq data between control heart slices

and heart slices treated with 100nM sunitinib (n=2 pig hearts).

Figure 7. Doxorubicin toxicity in human heart slices: **(a)** Activation maps obtained by optical

mapping of human cardiac organotypic slices cultured for ~24 h with or without doxorubicin (50

μM). Crowding of activation lines in the transverse direction indicate conduction slowing with

doxorubicin treatment. **(b)** Average transverse conduction velocity determined from human

cardiac slices with and without doxorubicin treatment. Transverse conduction velocity was

significantly slower in doxorubicin treated slices (n=7, $p < 0.05$). **(c)** Differentially expressed

genes between control and doxorubicin-treated human cardiac organotypic slices following Cap

Analysis of Gene Expression (n=3). **(d)** Gene ontology (GO) enrichment analysis of differentially

expressed genes in control and doxorubicin-treated slices. BP: biological process, CC: cellular

component, MF: molecular function (n=3). **(e)** Heat map demonstrating hierarchical clustering of

differentially expressed genes (n=3). F: female, M: male.

Figure 1

Figure 2

a

b

Figure 3

a

Figure 4

a

b

c

Figure 5

a

b

Downregulated GO terms

c

Upregulated GO terms

a

b

c

Figure 7