-Research Article-

Unveiling reversibility and plasticity in cardiac hypertrophy: insights from a transverse

aortic constriction-release model

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Abstract

Transverse aortic constriction (TAC) is a well-established animal model used to study the

pathomechanisms of pressure overload-induced heart failure. A number of studies have shown

that treatment of the heart failure in this model may reverse the associated hypertrophy and

fibrosis. However, because no TAC-release model in which hemodynamics improve upon

alleviation of the physical stenosis has yet been established, the histologic changes and

regulatory molecular biological mechanisms underlying the reversibility of cardiac hypertrophy

and fibrosis are unknown. This study was conducted to establish an animal TAC-release model

and thereby investigate the mechanisms that govern reversibility and plasticity of myocardial

hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis. TAC surgery was performed on rats, and 4 weeks later

TAC release was achieved by cutting the constricting threads. TAC-subjected heart exhibited

severe myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis, and increased angiogenesis, along with diastolic

dysfunction. Heart released from TAC showed reduced hypertrophy and fibrosis and improved

diastolic function. Gene expression analysis uncovered regulator of calcineurin 1 (*Rcan1*) as a

key player in cardiac function and histologic changes after TAC release. *Rcan1* knockdown

exacerbated myocardial hypertrophy and fibrosis in heart released from TAC. The left

ventricular afterload relief model revealed that increased oxidative stress and *Rcan1*

upregulation, which suppresses the calcineurin-NFAT pathway, are key to structural and

functional recovery from pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy.

Keywords

Heart failure, Hypertrophy, Fibrosis, Angiogenesis, Transverse aortic constriction, Reversibility

Introduction

Left ventricular pressure overload, as represented by systemic hypertension and aortic stenosis,

induces progressive fibrosis, markedly decreasing myocardial compliance, often leading to

lethal outcomes[1]. Animal models, such as transverse aortic constriction (TAC), have been

developed to study the pathophysiology of pressure overload-induced heart failure, with

numerous experiments exploring the underlying cellular and molecular mechanisms[2-4]. Elevated

pressure in the left ventricle triggers the binding of stress hormones, especially angiotensin II

and noradrenaline, to myocardial cell surface receptors, activating intracellular signaling

pathways. This culminates in increased expression of transcription and cell growth factors,

inducing myocardial hypertrophy. However, interventions can block these pathways, inhibiting

cardiomyocyte apoptosis and impeding progression of the hypertrophy, thereby regulating

cardiac reversibility and plasticity[5, 6]. Myocardial fibrosis resulting from left ventricular pressure

overload impairs heart function by excessive accumulation of extracellular matrix (ECM)

produced by activated myocardial fibroblasts[7, 8]. Extensive fibrosis is generally irreversible, but

studies have suggested the potential for reversal with treatment addressing underlying diseases

in experimental models[9, 10]. Cardiac hypertrophy has also been linked to accelerated

angiogenesis[11], which occurs to support increased myocyte proliferation and metabolism.

Although the mechanisms of reversibility of angiogenesis have not been fully clarified, it

appears that reducing cardiac overload and hypertrophy through appropriate treatment reverses

angiogenesis by apoptosis-induced elimination of vascular cells and by decreasing growth

factors, reducing inflammation and angiogenic demand[12]. Understanding the mechanisms

responsible for reversibility and plasticity of myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis

is crucial for the development of heart failure therapies. However, understanding of the

regulatory mechanisms involved in reversal of cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis

following hemodynamic changes remains incomplete because there is no animal model in

which left ventricular pressure load resulting from the physical stenosis introduced by TAC is

decreased. To bridge this gap in our understanding, a TAC-release model was created, allowing

for comprehensive profiling of the structure, function, and histology of the heart. The goal was

to elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying reversibility and plasticity particular to

myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis.

Results

Characteristics of heart released from TAC

To elucidate the mechanism by which myocardial homeostasis is maintained in myocardial

environments with under different hemodynamic loads, rats were divided into groups for

establishment of the following conditions: a normal heart (NH) condition (for control), a

pressure-overload heart condition, with hearts by subjected to TAC (TAC-subjected heart), and

an overload relief condition, with removal of the constricting threads 4 weeks after TAC surgery

(heart released from TAC), as previously described[13] (Fig. 1a). M-mode echocardiography

revealed a significant increase in left ventricular posterior wall thickness at diastole (LVPWd),

reduction in left ventricular dimension at diastole and at systole (LVDd and LVDs), and volume

of TAC-subjected heart compared to measures in normal heart. These alterations improved in

heart released from TAC, seemingly due to a reduction in left ventricular afterload. Left

ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF) and other indicators of left ventricular contractility did not

differ significantly between conditions, presumably due to compensatory left ventricular

hypertrophy (Fig. 1b). The causes of these echocardiographic changes were then investigated in

terms of histology. A significant increase in the cross-sectional area around the short-axis of

individual cardiomyocytes (viewed from the transverse section) was observed in TAC-subjected

heart compared to that area in normal heart, and in heart released from TAC, the area decreased

to the size observed in normal heart (Fig. 1c). The amount of collagen deposition was

significantly increased in the TAC-subjected heart versus that in normal heart, and this increase

was attenuated in heart released from TAC (Fig. 1d). Capillary density was increased in TAC-

subjected heart and decreased in heart released from TAC (Fig. 1e). The data suggest that

hypertrophy of individual cardiomyocytes and increased collagen deposition in the interstitium

enhance left ventricular wall thickness and that angiogenesis is augmented by the increased

oxygen demand of the hypertrophied myocardium. Furthermore, the reduction in left ventricular

afterload effected by TAC release suppressed cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis.

Interestingly, reversible histologic changes were observed in response to the hemodynamic

changes.

Expression of genes associated with myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis was

examined next. Representative genes associated with cardiac hypertrophy (*Igf1, Mybpc3, Tnni3,*

Tnnt2, Tpm1, Actc1, Myl2, and *Myl3*) were upregulated in TAC-subjected heart in comparison

to expression of the same genes in normal heart. Expression of these genes was reduced in heart

released from TAC (Fig. 2a). This trend in gene expression was similar for genes associated

with fibrosis and angiogenesis. Expression of representative genes associated with fibrosis

(*Col1a1, Col3a1, Mmp2, Mmp9, Tgfb1, Acta2, Timp1,* and *Fn1*) and angiogenesis (*Vegfa, Fgf1,*

Fgf2, Fgf9, Pdgfb, and *Angpt2*) was upregulated in TAC-subjected heart in comparison to

expression in normal heart, whereas expression of these genes was downregulated in heart

released from TAC (Fig. 2b, c). Expression of genes that encode inflammatory cytokines TNFα

and IL1b, which play a role in promoting transcription of myocardial matrix metalloproteinases

(MMPs) and releasing latent Tgfb1 bound to the ECM, was similarly upregulated in TAC-

subjected heart and downregulated in heart released from TAC (Fig. 2d). Furthermore,

microarray analysis revealed the molecular signature of TAC-subjected heart and heart released

from TAC against that of normal heart. Genes with a twofold or greater increase or decrease in

expression between conditions were entered into Metascape, a gene annotation and analysis

resource (https://metascape.org/gp/index.html#/main/step1)[14]. A representative subset of terms

from the entire cluster was selected and transformed into a network layout, which characterized

changes in gene expression associated with muscle hypertrophy in response to stress, muscle

development, extracellular matrix organization, and blood vessel development to reflect

histologic changes in TAC-subjected heart and heart released from TAC (Supplementary Fig. 1;

the full dataset is available in the Gene Expression Omnibus [GEO] repository (GSE270186).

Effects of oxidative stress following reperfusion

Histologic features and expression of genes associated with myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis,

and angiogenesis were significantly altered in TAC-subjected heart relative to those in normal

heart. However, these changes were reversed in heart released from TAC, with histologic

features and gene expression approximating those in normal heart. Based on these results and

the echocardiography-determined features, heart released from TAC appeared similar in

phenotype to that of normal heart. Interestingly, principal component analysis revealed a

difference in gene expression trends between normal heart and heart released from TAC,

differences that were as far apart as the differences in gene expression trends between normal

heart and TAC-subjected heart (Fig. 3a). Metascape was searched for relevant Gene Ontology

(GO) biological process terms[14] to determine which biological processes are involved in the

changes from TAC-subjected heart to heart released from TAC, with a focus on "response to

oxidative stress (GO: 0006979)" in heart released from TAC (Fig. 3b). The resolution of left

ventricular afterload by TAC release appeared to improve myocardial diastolic dysfunction,

increase diastolic coronary blood flow, and increase oxygen supply to the tissues. Tissue

damage due to increased oxygen supply from a state of relative chronic hypoxia to re-

oxygenation (reperfusion injury) was considered the main cause of elevated oxidative stress

levels in heart released from TAC. Oxidative stress during such reperfusion injury is likely due

in part to overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Mitochondria are the major source

of ROS production. Mitochondrial ROS (mtROS) account for the majority of ROS produced in

the cell. mtROS causes damage to the mitochondria themselves and increases permeability of

the mitochondrial membrane. This causes a rapid influx of calcium and other molecules into and

out of the mitochondria, inducing mitochondrial dysfunction[15-17]. mtDNA copy number, a

measure of mitochondrial function, was therefore assessed and found to be reduced in heart

released from TAC more than in TAC-subjected heart, suggesting association between the

increase in oxidative stress following reperfusion injury and decreased mitochondrial function

(Fig. 3c). Heatmaps generated by a group of genes associated with the GO biological process

term "response to oxidative stress" revealed markedly accelerated expression of regulator of

calcineurin 1 (*Rcan1*), especially in heart released from TAC (Fig. 3d), a finding confirmed by

quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) (Fig. 3e). RCAN1 is

primarily responsible for (i) maintenance of mitochondrial function[18], (ii) inhibition of

inflammation[19], (iii) inhibition of Rho kinase activity[20], and (iv) inhibition of calcineurin-NFAT

signaling[20]. In this context, enrichment analysis was performed to clarify the role of *Rcan1* in

the oxidative stress state associated with reperfusion (the TAC-release condition). Genes with a

twofold or greater increase in expression in heart released from TAC compared to expression in

TAC-subjected heart were entered into Enricher, a comprehensive resource for curated gene sets

as well as a search engine (https://maayanlab.cloud/Enrichr/)[21]. The GO biological process

terms related to (i)–(iv) noted above were identified (Table 1). Of these, negative regulation of

calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade (GO:0070885) was found to be a biological process

closely (though not significantly) related to the change from the TAC condition to the TAC-

release condition. The calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade is a stress response in which

calcineurin activates NFAT transcription factors, leading to the expression of genes responsible

for hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis. Activation of calcineurin-NFAT signaling by

oxidative stress simultaneously induces its own negative regulator, RCAN1[19]. The data obtained

indicate that activation of the calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade due to oxidative stress

induced by reperfusion following absence of afterload in heart released from TAC is inhibited

by RCAN1. In other words, findings suggest the existence of a cardiac-specific homeostatic

mechanism effecting hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis, with RCAN1 as one of the key

regulators (Fig. 3f).

RCA1 is a potential regulator of cardiac remodeling

To affirm the importance of *Rcan1* in the regulatory mechanism of myocardial hypertrophy,

fibrosis, and angiogenesis in myocardial environments with different hemodynamic loads,

hearts released from TAC were transfected *in vivo* with negative control small interfering RNA

(NC siRNA) or *Rcan1* siRNA (Fig. 4a). Results were as follows: Expression of *Rcan1* was

confirmed to be decreased in *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected heart (Fig. 4b). M-mode

echocardiography performed 4 weeks after TAC surgery revealed a significant increase in left

ventricular wall thickness and a reduction in left ventricular volume and LVEF in TAC-

subjected heart compared to measures in normal heart. Subsequently, in NC siRNA-transfected

heart, echocardiography performed at 8 weeks showed improvement in these alterations.

However, an increase in left ventricular wall thickness and a reduction in left ventricular volume

and LVEF were seen in *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected heart, compared to measures in NC siRNA-

transfected heart (Fig. 4c, d). In *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected heart, the weight change ratio was

significantly reduced compared to that of normal heart and of NC siRNA-transfected heart (Fig.

5a), suggesting cardiac cachexia due to reduced cardiac function as a cause. Histology was then

investigated. Extracted heart weight corrected for body weight did not differ between normal

heart and NC siRNA-transfected heart but was significantly increased in *Rcan1* siRNA-

transfected heart (Fig. 5b). Interventricular septum thickness in NC siRNA-transfected heart

was similar to that in normal heart but significantly increased in the *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected

heart compared to that in both normal heart and NC siRNA-transfected heart (Fig. 5c). The

trend was the same as that of left ventricular wall thickness. The cross-sectional area around the

short-axis of individual cardiomyocytes (Fig. 5d), amount of collagen deposition (Fig. 5e), and

capillary density (Fig. 5f) were significantly increased in *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected heart.

Increased (though not always significantly increased) expression of hypertrophy-related genes

(*Igf1, Mybpc3, Tnni3, Tnnt2, Tpm1, Actc1,* and *Myl3*) (Fig. 6a), fibrosis-related genes (*Col1a1,*

Col3a1, Mmp2, Tgfb1, Timp1, and *Fn1*) (Fig. 6b), and angiogenesis-related genes (*Fgf1, Fgf2,*

and *Angpt2*) (Fig. 6c) in heart released from TAC transfected with *Rcan1* reflected an increased

cross-sectional area around the short-axis of individual cardiomyocytes, increased amount of

collagen deposition, and increased capillary density. Briefly, *Rcan1* knockdown attenuated

cardiac reversibility and plasticity in heart released from TAC. Thus, *Rcan1* appears to be a

principal gene regulating the reversibility and plasticity of cardiomyocyte hypertrophy, fibrosis,

and angiogenesis in heart released from TAC.

Discussion

Cardiac hypertrophy frequently causes structural and functional modifications in the heart,

including changes in coronary blood flow, which can lead to reduced flow due to diastolic

failure and impaired myocardial perfusion[22]. Resolution of the hypertrophy, whether via

therapeutic interventions or adaptive mechanisms, can lead to reperfusion of previously

ischemic or hypoxic myocardial tissue. Although reperfusion restores blood flow to these areas,

it can also induce oxidative stress and tissue damage through various mechanisms, such as ROS

overproduction and inflammation[23]. Inflammatory cells and mediators contribute to oxidative

stress through pathways including nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate oxidase

activation and ROS release[24]. Additionally, cardiac hypertrophy is linked to changes in

mitochondrial function[25]. Resolving hypertrophy may enhance mitochondrial function, but it

can temporarily disrupt mitochondrial homeostasis, leading to ROS production and oxidative

stress[26]. In myocardium, ROS are constantly produced by a variety of enzymes, including

mitochondrial electron transfer enzymes, and under physiological conditions ROS in

myocardial tissue are maintained at low levels by intrinsic antioxidant mechanisms. However,

during reperfusion injury, overproduction of ROS results in a state of oxidative stress[15]. The

ROS induce opening of the mitochondrial permeability transition pore, which leads to cell death

by activation of the apoptotic pathway, resulting in mitochondrial dysfunction, which in turn

produces mtROS[17]. Indeed, mtROS production during reperfusion injury correlates with

reduced myocardial function and myocyte death[16]. The study described herein revealed the

following as a possible mechanism inducing oxidative stress under TAC release: (1) reversal of

the physical stenosis created by TAC decreasing left ventricular afterload and increasing

coronary reperfusion; (2) increased oxidative stress through the production of ROS; and (3)

mitochondrial dysfunction resulting in the production of mtROS, further contributing to the

oxidative stress.

The calcineurin-NFAT (nuclear factor of activated T cells) signaling pathway that was

suggested by results of the enrichment analysis to relate to phenotypic change is integral to

various physiological processes, including immune response and oxidative stress. Calcineurin, a

calcium/calmodulin-dependent phosphatase, activates NFAT transcription factors, leading to the

expression of genes responsible for cardio-structural alterations. NFAT proteins are typically

located in the cytoplasm in a phosphorylated, inactive state. ROS can directly activate

calcineurin, prompting dephosphorylation and subsequent nuclear translocation of NFAT

proteins. Once dephosphorylated by calcineurin, NFAT proteins move from the cytoplasm to

the nucleus, where they act as transcription factors regulating genes involved in myocardial

hypertrophy[27]. Activation of the calcineurin-NFAT pathway by ROS or oxidative stress

contributes to pathological cardiac remodeling and heart failure.

Genes such as *Igf1* (insulin-like growth factor 1)[28], *Mybpc3* (myosin binding protein C)[29],

Tnni3 (troponin I)[30], *Tnnt2* (troponin T)[31], *Tpm1* (tropomyosin 1)[31], *Actc1* (actin alpha cardiac

muscle 1)[32], *Myl3* (myosin light chain 3)[33], and *Myl2* (myosin light chain 2)[34] are crucial for

cardiac hypertrophy. In response to various stimuli, expression of these genes is upregulated,

causing cardiac hypertrophy and remodeling. In a comparison of normal heart, TAC-subjected

heart, and heart released from TAC, significant up-regulation of *Tnni3* was observed in TAC-

subjected heart and related to cardiac hypertrophy. Up-regulation, though not significant, of

Igf1, Mybpc3, Tnnt2, Actc1, Myl2, and *Myl3* was also observed. In comparison to both normal

heart and NC siRNA-transfected heart, *Rcan1* siRNA-transfected heart showed significantly

increased expression of *Mybpc3*, related to increased cardiac hypertrophy. Expression of *Igf1,*

Tnnt2, Tpm1, Actc1, and *Myl3* tended to be increased. The calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway

is crucial for transcriptional regulation of *Igf1*[35] and *Mybpc3*[36]. However, transcriptional

regulation of other cardiac hypertrophy-related genes by the calcineurin-NFAT signaling

pathway was not clarified. The author speculates that *Rcan1* knockdown in heart released from

TAC affected the expression of other cardiac hypertrophy-related genes, including *Igf1* and

Mybpc3, whose transcriptional regulation mechanisms are already known, mainly by enhancing

the calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway. To prove this, studies are needed to clarify the

association between transcriptional regulation of cardiac hypertrophy-related genes other than

Igf1 and *Mybpc3* and the calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway.

With the ECM being an essential component of myocardium, alterations in the ECM

significantly affect myocardial structure and function. The calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway

regulates genes involved in cardiac fibrosis, including collagen genes such as *Col1a1* (collagen

type I alpha 1 chain), *Col3a1* (collagen type III alpha 1 chain), *Mmp2* (matrix metallopeptidase

2), and *Mmp9* (matrix metallopeptidase 9)[37, 38]. This pathway also influences *Tgfb1*

(transforming growth factor beta 1), *Acta2* (actin alpha 2, smooth muscle)[37]. Furthermore,

inflammatory cytokines such as TNFa (tumor necrosis factor alpha) and IL1b (interleukin-1

beta) drive the transcription of MMPs in the myocardium[39], releasing latent TGFB1 bound to

the ECM. Therefore, besides the calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway, increased expression of

inflammatory cytokines in TAC-subjected heart and its decreased expression in heart released

from TAC may have affected the regulation of MMP and TGFB1 expression. TGFB1 then

activates the Smad signaling pathway in fibroblasts, promoting the production of fibrous

collagens type I and III, key components of the ECM[40-42]. ACTA2, a marker of activated

myofibroblasts, is crucial in cardiac fibrosis, enhancing myofibroblast differentiation and the

contractile and matrix-producing abilities of fibroblasts. FN1 (fibronectin 1), another significant

ECM protein, is upregulated in cardiac fibrosis. Because MMP2 and MMP9 are downstream

factors of ROS and inflammatory cytokines TNFa and IL-1b, their expression and activity

increase during myocardial remodeling, promoting interstitial fibrosis. Studies on MMP2-

deficient mice have shown reduced myocardial hypertrophy and fibrosis in response to

hypertension and cardiac pressure overload[43]. Similarly, MMP9 deficiency partially improves

myocardial hypertrophy and fibrosis after pressure overload[44], pointing to the pivotal roles of

MMP2 and MMP9 in fibrosis and ECM remodeling. MMPs are regulated by tissue

metalloproteinase inhibitors (TIMPs), and ECM remodeling is intricately related to the

MMP/TIMP balance[45]. Left ventricular fibrosis may result from both increased collagen

synthesis and reduced collagen degradation due to decreased collagenase activity, which is

associated with increased *Timp1* expression[46]. In TAC-subjected heart, increased collagen

synthesis and changes in *Timp1* and *Mmp* expression and the MMP/TIMP balance may have

promoted collagen deposition. Conversely, in heart released from TAC, changes in expression

of *Mmps* and *Timp1* and the balance between them may have suppressed left ventricular

fibrosis. MMPs and TIMPs may also individually influence fibroblast behavior and ECM

production. Therefore, other regulatory mechanisms governing diverse fiber production need to

be elucidated for us to understand myocardial fibrosis.

The calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway governs expression of essential angiogenic factors,

including VEGFA (vascular endothelial growth factor A)[47], FGF1 (fibroblast growth factor 1)[48],

PDGFB (platelet-derived growth factor beta)[49], and ANGPT2 (angiopoietin 2)[50]. VEGFA is a

potent inducer of angiogenesis, the process by which new blood vessels form from existing

ones. In cardiac hypertrophy, increased *Vegfa* expression leads to increased levels of VEGFA,

stimulating growth of new blood vessels in the heart. Whereas such angiogenesis initially meets

the heightened oxygen and nutrient demands of hypertrophic cardiac tissue, prolonged

angiogenesis can contribute to adverse remodeling and heart failure[51]. Thus, regulation of

VEGFA by the calcineurin-NFAT pathway plays a crucial role in balancing beneficial and

detrimental angiogenesis occurring with cardiac hypertrophy. FGF1, FGF2, and FGF9 are key

angiogenic factors that bind to fibroblast growth factor receptors, activating intracellular

signaling cascades[52]. Such binding promotes blood vessel formation and endothelial cell

proliferation, ensuring adequate blood supply to the expanding myocardium. PDGFB is crucial

for pericyte recruitment and vascular stabilization during angiogenesis. Secreted by endothelial

cells and other myocardial cells, PDGFB binds to receptors on pericytes and vascular smooth

muscle cells, promoting their recruitment to newly formed blood vessels[53]. ANGPT2 is a

context-dependent angiogenic factor that modulates vessel remodeling and maturation. Acting

as a competitive antagonist to ANGPT1, ANGPT2 disrupts the TIE2 receptor signaling pathway

and destabilizes endothelial cell junctions. This destabilization promotes vessel sprouting and

remodeling, facilitating angiogenesis in the myocardium[54]. Collectively, VEGFA, FGF,

PDGFB, and ANGPT2 play critical roles in regulating angiogenesis, ensuring proper vascular

adaptation with development of cardiac hypertrophy. The study reported herein revealed a

certain link between the transcriptional regulation of angiogenesis-related genes and the

calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway in response to hemodynamic changes, but further studies

are needed.

Rcan1 gene, known as regulator of calcineurin 1 gene, is a crucial inhibitor of the calcineurin-

NFAT signaling pathway, and it plays a role in preventing cardiac hypertrophy[20].

Overexpression of RCAN1 has been shown to attenuate pathological cardiac injury in

ischemia/reperfusion animal models by suppressing calcineurin-NFAT signaling and

hypertrophic gene expression. Conversely, decreased expression of RCAN1 is associated with

exacerbated cardiac injury[55]. Studies have shown that *Rcan1* expression is dynamically

regulated by oxidative stress during inflammation[19]. The present study on oxidative stress

through increased coronary blood flow with reduced left ventricular afterload and the regulation

of calcineurin-NFAT signaling activity by RCAN1 provided valuable insight into the molecular

mechanisms underlying cardiac reversibility and plasticity. RCAN1 can function as a pro-

survival factor, protecting cells from stress-induced apoptosis by inhibiting calcineurin-NFAT

signaling activation[18]. Thus, during increased oxidative stress associated with reperfusion,

RCAN1 may determine the balance between cell survival and cell death, not just effect cardiac

tissue remodeling. Optimal regulation of RCAN1 expression and activity is essential for

coordinating the cellular responses necessary for reversibility and plasticity mechanisms in

cardiac hypertrophy.

Understanding the role of ROS generation and oxidative stress due to reperfusion injury

following relief from left ventricular afterload has important therapeutic implications for cardiac

repair and regeneration strategies. Targeting oxidative stress or modulating RCAN1

expression/activity through gene therapy or pharmacological interventions could be potential

therapeutic approaches to attenuate cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis and thereby improve

cardiac function. Further research in the form of preclinical and clinical studies is needed to

elucidate specific mechanisms and explore the therapeutic potential of targeting this axis.

Limitations

In the study described, markers of cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis were assessed

by qRT-PCR, with total RNA from whole hearts used as starting material. Therefore, the results

do not allow for a conclusion whether the transcriptional differences originate from

cardiomyocytes, fibroblasts, or endothelial cells. Further studies are needed to isolate each cell

type from normal heart, TAC-subjected heart, and heart released from TAC and then run a cell-

by-cell analysis to determine the role of each cardiac component cell. Promotion of the

calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway by suppression of RCAN1 expression was found to have a

significant effect on the cardiac tissue recovery process, i.e., suppression of RCAN1 expression

may exacerbate cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis and promote angiogenesis. However, besides

regulating the calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway, RCAN1 also regulates other pathways

involved in cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis, including the RHO and TGFb

(transforming growth factor-beta) signaling pathways. Thus, it is uncertain whether

exacerbation of cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis by *Rcan*1 knockdown in the TAC-release

model results solely from enhanced calcineurin-NFAT signaling.

Conclusion

A left ventricular afterload relief model was established by releasing TAC, and study of the

model shed light on the structural, functional, and histologic changes that occur in the heart

during the recovery from pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy (Fig. 7). Increased

oxidative stress upon reperfusion and upregulation of the *Rcan1* gene, suppressing the

calcineurin-NFAT signaling pathway, are pivotal in the tissue repair process following heart

damage. Their intricate interaction dynamically influences cellular responses to injury,

inflammation resolution, and tissue remodeling. These study findings provide insight into

cardiac repair and regeneration. Further exploration in this realm may ultimately open novel

therapeutic avenues for managing heart disease.

Materials and methods

TAC procedure and TAC release

Animal experiments were conducted on approval of the Animal Experiment Committee in

accordance with the Animal Experiment Regulations of the Center for Experimental Medicine,

Jichi Medical University (Approval No. 21058-01). TAC surgery and TAC-release were

performed as previously reported but with some modifications[13, 56-58]. Animals used were male

Sprague Dawley rats (10 weeks old). Food and water were withheld 6 hours prior to surgery.

Surgical instruments were sterilized in an autoclave, and the surgical field was disinfected with

75% isopropyl alcohol. A heating pad was used during surgery, set to an appropriate

temperature (37°C) to maintain the animals' normal body temperature and thereby avoid rapid

changes in heart and respiratory rates. Inhalation anesthesia was achieved with a mixture of 2%

isoflurane and 100% oxygen at 0.5–1.0 L/min. Hairs on the animal's anterior neck and chest

were removed with depilatory cream. Each rat was positioned supine on the heating pad, with

their anterior teeth fixed over silk threads, the neck stretched, and limbs secured with paper

surgical tape. Anesthesia was maintained throughout the surgery by administration of 1.5–2%

isoflurane and 0.5–1.0 L/min 100% oxygen and confirmed by the toe-pinch test. The surgical

field was sterilized with 70% alcohol, and sterile drapes and gloves were used for each rat. Skin

incisions were made with a scalpel at the midline of the rat's neck and chest. The muscular layer

over the trachea was separated bilaterally. Partial sternotomy, up to the second rib, was

performed, and the sternum was separated with a chest retractor. The thymus was removed and

adipose tissue was gently detached from the aortic arch. After identification of the transverse

aorta, a 3-0 silk thread was passed between the brachiocephalic artery and left common carotid

artery with the use of sharp forceps. A loop of about 10 mm in diameter was created with 5-0

monofilament thread, and a 3-0 silk thread was passed through it (to indicate where to later cut

the silk thread for TAC-release). A 21-gauge blunt needle was placed parallel to the aorta, the 3-

0 silk thread was quickly tied to prevent loosening, and the needle was removed to produce

aortic stenosis. In control rats, procedures were the same, with the exception of aortic ligation.

The chest traction device was removed, the sternum was brought together with 4-0 silk thread,

and the skin was closed by continuous suturing with 6-0 monofilament. Postoperative analgesia

was provided by means of intraperitoneal buprenorphine injection. Anesthesia was gradually

lessened, and the rats were allowed to recover on a heating pad on signs of spontaneous

respiration. After full recovery, the rats were returned to their original housing room under a 12-

hour light/dark cycle and fed soft food. For pain relief, rats were given buprenorphine (0.1

mg/kg) intraperitoneally every 12 hours for 3 days. Four weeks after the transverse aortic

ligation, skin incisions were made at the neck and chest midline under inhalation anesthesia.

Adhesive scar tissue was dissected, and the silk thread ligating the aorta was identified by the

loop created with 5-0 monofilament thread. The 3-0 silk thread was cut, eliminating the

stenosis, taking care to avoid aorta damage. Procedures in the normal heart (NH), negative

control (NC), and TAC groups were performed similarly, with the addition of cutting the aortic

ligatures in the TAC-release (TAC-R) group. The chest was closed as in the initial surgery, and

postoperative pain was managed as described above.

Echocardiography

Cardiac function was assessed by means of transthoracic echocardiography at 4 and 8 weeks

after surgery. Echocardiography was performed with a Lumify L12-4 (Philips, Amsterdam,

Netherlands) Linear Array Ultrasound System equipped with a 12- to 4-MHz transducer. The

animals were anesthetized with isoflurane gas, and two-dimensional imaging of their hearts was

performed, with M-mode recordings acquired through the ventricular septum and posterior LV

wall. Interventricular septum and posterior wall thicknesses (both end-diastolic and end-

systolic) and LV internal dimensions were measured over at least three consecutive cardiac

cycles, according to established protocols[13, 59, 60]. LV volume was determined by M-mode

echocardiography; the left ventricular end-diastolic dimension (LVDd) and left ventricular end-

systolic dimension (LVDs) were measured on the parasternal short-axis view, assuming the left

ventricle to be a spheroid. LV volume was typically calculated according to the Teichholz

formula: $V = 7.0 \times D3 / (2.4 + D)$[61]. Left ventricular stroke volume (LVSV) was derived by

subtracting left ventricular end-systolic volume (LVESV) from left ventricular end-diastolic

volume (LVEDV). LVEF was calculated as follows: $LVEF = SV \times 100 / LVEDV$ (%)[61]. Data

shown were derived from three independent measurements obtained in a blinded fashion.

RNA extraction and RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from rats' hearts with use of the Gene Jet PCR Purification Kit

(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) and quantified with a Nano-Drop One

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). For this RNA extraction, fresh tissue was excised from

the LV wall. cDNA was synthesized from 150 ng of total RNA extracted from heart tissues with

use of a High Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Framingham,

MA). RT-PCR was performed with QuantStudio (Applied Biosystems) and SYBR Premix Ex

Taq II (Takara Bio, Shiga, Japan) reagent under the following conditions: 95°C for 30 seconds

followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 5 seconds and 60°C for 30 seconds. Gene expression levels

were normalized to *Gapdh* (forward, 5'-CCCCTGGCCAAGGTCATCCA-3'; reverse, 5'-

CGGAAGGCCATGCCAGTGAG-3') expression. Gene expression data were acquired from

independent biological replicates. Primers were *Actc1* (forward, 5'-

TTTGGTGTGCGACAATGGCT-3'; reverse, 5'- TGCCCCATACCTACCATGAC-3'), *αSMA*

(forward, 5'-ACAACTGGTATTGTGCTGGACT-3'; reverse, 5'-

TGGCATGAGGCAGAGCATAG-3'), *Angpt2* (forward, 5'-AGTCAGGACTCACCACCAGT-

3'; reverse, 5'-CCTCCACCCATGTCCATGTC-3'), *Col1a1* (forward, 5'-

TGAGCCAGCAGATTGAGAAC-3'; reverse, 5'-CCAGTACTCTCCGCTCTTCC-3'), *Col3a1*

(forward, 5'-AGTCTGGAGTCGGAGGAATG-3'; reverse, 5'-

AGGATGTCCAGAGGAACCAG-3'), *Fgf1* (forward, 5'-CTTACCACAGCAGCAGGAATG-

3'; reverse, 5'- AACTGTCGATGGTGCGTTCA-3'), *Fgf2* (forward, 5'-

CTCTACTGCAAGAACGGCG-3'; reverse, 5'-ACTCCTCTCTCTTCTGCTTGGA-3'), *Fgf9*

(forward, 5'-GGAAAGACCACAGCCGATTC-3'; reverse, 5'-TGATCCATACAGCTCCCCCT-

3'), *Fn1* (forward, 5'-CGGAGGCCACCATCACTG-3'; reverse, 5'-

GTGGAAGGGTAACCAGTTGGG-3'), *Igf1* (forward, 5'-TACTTCAACAAGCCCACAGG-3';

reverse, 5'-CTCATCCACAATGCCTGTCT-3'), *Igfbp5* (forward, 5'-

AACGAAAAGAGCTACGGCGA-3'; reverse, 5'-GACCTTCGGGGAGTAGGTCT-3'), *Il1b*

(forward, 5'- TGGCAACTGTCCCTGAACTC-3'; reverse, 5'-

AAGGGCTTGGAAGCAATCCTTA-3'), *Mmp2* (forward, 5'-

AGAAGGCTGTGTTCTTCGCA-3'; reverse, 5'-AAAGGCAGCGTCTACTTGCT-3'), *Mmp9*

(forward, 5'-TGCCCTGGAACTCACACAAC-3'; reverse, 5'-GTTCACCCGGTTGTGGAAAC-

3'), *Mybpc3* (forward, 5'-AGGGCATGAAGCACGATGAA-3'; reverse, 5'-

AGCCAGTTCCACAGTAAGCC-3'), *Myl2* (forward, 5'-CAGCAGCCAGCCTCAGAC-3';

reverse, 5'-CCGTCTCTGTTCTGGTCCAT-3'), *Myl3* (forward, 5'-

AATCCTACCCAGGCAGAGGT-3'; reverse, 5'-TGTGCCCGTGTCTTTGTTCT-3'), *Pdgfb*

(forward, 5'-GGAGTCGGCATGAATCGCT-3'; reverse, 5'-ATGGAGTGGTCACTCAGCAT-

3'), *Rcan1* (forward, 5'-CTGCCCGTTGAAAAAGCAGAA-3'; reverse, 5'-

AATTTGGCCCTGGTCTCACTT-3'), *Tgfb1* (forward, 5'-CAACTTCTGTCTGGGACCCT-3';

reverse, 5'-CGGGTTGTGTTGGTTGTAGA-3'), *Timp1* (forward, 5'-

TTTCTGCAACTCGGACCTGG-3'; reverse, 5'-CGTCGAATCCTTTGAGCATCTTA-3'),

TNFα (forward, 5'- TCGTAGCAAACCACCAAGTG-3'; reverse, 5'-

TTGTCTTTGAGATCCATGCC-3'), *Tnni3* (forward, 5'-GGGACACCCTTCTAAGACCC-3';

reverse, 5'-CATCGCTGCTCTCATCCGC-3'), *Tnnt2* (forward, 5'-

CTGAGGCTGAGCAGACACC-3'; reverse, 5'-GCGTCAGACATGTTCTCCGT-3'), *Tmp1*

(forward, 5'-TCCAGCTGAAAGAGGCCAAG-3'; reverse, 5'-

CACATTTGCCTTCCGAGAGC-3'), and *Vegfa* (forward, 5'-GTACCTCCACCATGCCAAGT-

3'; reverse, 5'-GCATTCACATCTGCTGTGCT-3').

mtDNA copy numbers

Total DNA, including mtDNA, was extracted from heart tissue with use of the ISOSPIN Tissue

DNA Kit (NIPPON GENE, Tokyo, Japan) and quantified with a Nano-Drop One

spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific). For DNA extraction from rat hearts, fresh tissue was

excised from the left ventricular wall. RT-PCR was performed with use of the QuantStudio

(Applied Biosystems) and SYBR Premix Ex Taq II (Takara Bio) under the following

conditions: 98℃ for 2 minutes followed by 40 cycles at 98℃ for 10 seconds, 60℃ for 15

seconds, and 68℃ for 30 seconds. RT-PCR was performed on one sample by using four primer

pairs, and the mtDNA copy number was calculated by relative quantification based on the

difference in cycle threshold values between mtDNA and nuclear DNA. Primers used were *mt-*

ND1 (forward, 5'-ATCTGTGTTATTAGACATGCACCA-3'; reverse, 5'-

TAGTCACCCCCAGGACGAAT-3'), *mt-ND5* (forward, 5'-

ACATGCACCATTAAGTCATAAACCT-3'; reverse, 5'-ATAGTCACCCCCAGGACGAA-3'),

SLCO2B1 (forward, 5'-TCAGCCCTTTGGCATCTCC-3'; reverse, 5'-

CATCATGGTCACTGCAAACAGG-3'), and *SERPINA1* (forward, 5'-

AGCCAGGGAGACAGGGA-3'; reverse, 5'-AGCCAGGGAGACAGGGA-3').

Microarray analysis

Total RNA was isolated from whole heart according to the aforementioned procedure and

analyzed by means of GeneChip technology (GeneChip Arrays platform with Clariom™ S

Assay, Rat; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Standard quality control steps were included to

determine total RNA quality with use of Agilent Bioanalyzer 2100 (RNA integrity number

(RIN) > 7.0; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) and quantity with use of a nanoliter

spectrophotometer (Nanodrop, Thermo Fisher Scientific). Two independent biological

replicates were prepared from whole hearts. Median per-chip normalization was applied to each

array. Differentially expressed genes were identified at a fold-change cutoff of 2.0.

Immunohistochemistry

For immunohistochemical analysis, rats were euthanized under deep anesthesia with complete

respiratory and cardiac arrest. Cervical dislocation was then added to achieve reliable

euthanasia, and this was followed immediately by clamping of the aorta and injection of ice-

cold PBS into the left ventricular cavity. The heart was then perfused with ice-cold 4%

paraformaldehyde in PBS. Subsequently, the heart was excised, bisected at the midpoint along

the short axis of the left ventricle, embedded in optimal cutting temperature compound (VWR

International, Radnor, PA), and rapidly frozen in isopentane chilled in liquid nitrogen. Frozen

tissue sections (8 μm thick) were prepared, and non-specific antibody-binding sites were

blocked with PBS containing 5% goat serum. Antibodies were then applied overnight at 4°C:

Griffonia Simplicifolia I-Isolectin B4, DyLight 594 Conjugate at 1:100 dilution (DL-1207,

Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA) and anti-Cardiac Troponin T Ab at 1:00 dilution (15513-

1-AP, Proteintech, Rosemont, IL). Slides were washed and, if necessary, incubated with

fluorophore-conjugated secondary antibody at 1:300 dilution (Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated

polyclonal antibody, Invitrogen, Waltham, MA) and DAPI in blocking buffer for 1 hour at room

temperature. Data were acquired from independent biological replicates.

Masson's Trichrome staining

Frozen tissue sections (8 μm thick) were prepared as described above and stained with

trichrome (Trichrome Stain Kit, Scytek Laboratories, Logan, UT) according to the

manufacturer's instructions. Data were acquired from independent biological replicates.

Imaging and analysis

Digital images were captured with use of an all-in-one fluorescence microscope (BZ-8000;

KEYENCE, Osaka, Japan) and imported as TIFF files into ImageJ (National Institutes of

Health). Images were obtained from three separate regions, and the fibrin-positive area in each

region was quantified as a percentage of the total region area. The Color Threshold function in

ImageJ was used to measure the fibrin clot area. Initially, the image was divided into three parts

by means of the Split Channels function, and the clearest view of the target area was selected.

Subsequently, the threshold was adjusted and set to detect and highlight only the object of

interest (i.e., the fibrin clot area). The percentage of the object area in the image was then

calculated. This procedure was applied to both Control and target group images, with the

threshold value set for the Control group also used for the target group.

In vivo transfection

To investigate the role of RCAN1 in cardiac fibrosis, in vivo gene silencing was performed by

using *Rcan1* siRNA (AM16706, Invitrogen) along with a transfection reagent, according to a

previously described protocol[62] with modifications. Forty micrograms of siRNA, combined with

non-viral in vivo transfection reagent JetPEI® (Polyplus-transfection), was administered to each

animal three times per week by tail-vein injection. An N/P ratio of 8 in a total volume of 500 μL

of 5% dextrose was maintained for each injection, according to the manufacturer's protocol. NC

siRNA (AM4635, Invitrogen) was administered for negative control.

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed with GraphPad Prism version 8 (GraphPad Software, San

Diego, CA). Data were assumed to be normally distributed and are presented as mean ± SEM.

All statistical tests were parametric. For comparison between multiple sample sets, repeated-

measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) or one- or two-way ANOVA was performed, followed

by Bonferroni's post-hoc test. To evaluate differences between two sample sets, two-tailed,

unpaired Student's t-test was applied.

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Author contributions

M.S. conceptualized and designed the study; performed the experiments, acquired, analyzed,

and interpreted the data; and drafted and critically revised the manuscript.

Data availability statement

The author declares that all supporting data are available within the article and its online

supplementary file. For purposes of reproducibility, additional technical information and data

that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable

request. Microarray data can be obtained from Gene Expression Omnibus GSE270186

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE270186

Competing interests

The author declares no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Heart released from transverse aortic constriction attenuates cardiac

hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis.

(**a**) Schematic representation of the *in vivo* experiment. Transverse aortic constriction (TAC)

was performed, followed by 8 weeks of observation (TAC heart). Heart was released from TAC

4 weeks after TAC surgery, reducing afterload, and this was followed by 4 weeks of

observation (TAC-R). Normal heart (NH) was used for control.

(**b**) Echocardiography revealed increased left ventricular posterior wall thickness at diastole

(LVPWd) and decreased left ventricular end-diastolic volume (LVEDV) and left ventricular

end-systolic volume (LVESV) in TAC heart relative to values in NH. Echocardiography also

improvement in these changes in TAC-R heart. Other measures of interest were interventricular

septal thickness at diastole (IVSd), left ventricular diastolic dimension (LVDd), left ventricular

systolic dimension (LVDs), stroke volume (SV), and left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF). n

= 4 animals per group. *$p < .05$ versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

(**c**) Cardiac troponin T staining showed a significant increase in the cross-sectional area around

the short-axis of individual cardiomyocytes (viewed from the transverse section) in TAC heart.

TAC release contributed to the decrease in this area in cardiomyocytes in TAC-R heart. scale

bars: 50 μm in low magnification. scale bars: 10 μm in high magnification. n = 4 animals per

group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .005, ****p < .001 versus

the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

(**d**) Masson's trichrome staining showed increased collagen deposition in TAC heart. TAC

release contributed to the decreased collagen deposition in TAC-R heart.

(**e**) Isolectin B4 staining showed increased capillary density in TAC heart. TAC release

contributed to the decreased capillary density in TAC-R heart.

(**d-e**), scale bars: 100 μm. n = 4 animals per group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *p < .05,

**p < .01, ***p < .005, ****p < .001 versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 2. Gene expression analysis pertaining to cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and

angiogenesis.

(**a**) qRT-PCR showed hypertrophy-associated genes (*Igf1, Mybpc3, Tnni3, Tnnt2, Actc1, Myl2,*

and *Myl3*) to be upregulated, most (but not all) significantly upregulated in TAC heart relative

to expression in normal heart (NH). Expression of these genes was then shown to be decreased

in TAC-R heart relative to expression in NH.

(**b**) qRT-PCR showed fibrosis-associated genes (*Col1a1, Col3a1, Mmp2, Mmp9, Tgfb1, Acta2,*

Timp1, and *Fn1*) to be upregulated, some (but not all) significantly upregulated in TAC heart.

The trend was similar in TAC-R heart.

(**c**) qRT-PCR showed angiogenesis-associated genes (*Vegfa, Fgf1, Fgf2, Fgf9, Pdgfb,* and

Angpt2) to be upregulated, some (but not all) significantly upregulated, in TAC heart. These

genes were shown to be downregulated, some significantly downregulated, in TAC-R heart.

(**d**) qRT-PCR showed inflammation-associated genes (*IL1b* and *TNFa*) to be upregulated, some

significantly upregulated, in TAC heart. These genes were shown to be downregulated in heart

TAC-R heart.

(**a-d**), n = 4 animals per group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***p

$< .005$, ****$p < .001$ versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 3. Reperfusion following left ventricular loading increases oxidative stress.

(**a**) Principal component analysis clearly revealed distinct grouping of normal heart (NH), TAC

heart, and TAC-R heart, indicating that TAC and TAC-R hearts have unique gene expression

patterns compared with NH.

(**b**) The top 20 significantly enriched molecules are displayed in the heatmap. The heatmap cells

are colored according to their p-values, with white indicating lack of enrichment for that term in

the corresponding gene list.

(**c**) Average mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) copy number showed mitochondrial function to be

significantly attenuated in TAC heart. In TAC-R heart, average mtDNA copy number was

further decreased.

(**d**) Comprehensive gene expression analysis showed significant changes in the expression of 14

genes associated with Gene Ontology term "Response to oxidative stress" including *Rcan1*.

(**e**) qRT-PCR showed revealed *Rcan1* to be significantly upregulated in TAC-R heart. n = 4

animals per group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *$p < .05$ versus the other group(s) by one-

way ANOVA.

(**f**) Schematic representation and overview of the calcineurin-nuclear factor of activated T cells

(NFAT) signaling pathway. NFAT proteins are typically located in the cytoplasm in a

phosphorylated, inactive state. Various stressors can directly activate calcineurin, prompting the

dephosphorylation and subsequent nuclear translocation of NFAT. Once dephosphorylated by

calcineurin, NFAT proteins move from the cytoplasm to the nucleus, where they act as

transcription factors regulating genes involved in myocardial hypertrophy, fibrosis, and

angiogenesis.

Figure 4. Knockdown of regulator of calcineurin 1 exacerbates hypertrophy and

attenuates cardiac contractility.

(**a**) Schematic representation of the *in vivo* experiment. Regulator of calcineurin 1 (*Rcan1*)

siRNA or negative control (NC) siRNA combined with JetPEI® was injected into the tail vein of

rats 1 week after transverse aortic constriction (TAC) release (TAC-R heart), followed by a total

of three intravenous infusions (one given every other week).

(**b**) qRT-PCR showed *Rcan1* expression to be increased in heart released from TAC transfected

with NC siRNA. In contrast, its expression was markedly suppressed in TAC-R heart

transfected with *Rcan1* siRNA. n = 4 animals per group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *p

< .05, **p < .01, ***p < .005, ****p < .001 versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

(**c**) Representative M-mode echocardiography tracings of normal heart (NH) and TAC-R heart

transfected with NC *Rcan1* siRNA or *Rcan1* siRNA.

(**d**) Echocardiography revealed increased left ventricular wall thickness and decreased left

ventricular end diastolic and end systolic volumes (LVEDV and LVESV) in TAC heart at 4

weeks after TAC surgery, and improvement in such changes in TAC-R heart transfected with

NC siRNA at 8 weeks after surgery. *Rcan1* knockdown further increased left ventricular

posterior wall thickness and decreased left ventricular volume, and it attenuated LVEF in TAC-

R heart examined at 8 weeks after surgery. n = 4 animals per group. *p < .05 versus the other

group(s) by one-way ANOVA; [#]*P*<0.05 versus the same group at 4 weeks after surgery by

paired t-test.

TAC-R (NC), heart released from TAC transfected with NC siRNA; TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD), heart

released from TAC transfected with *Rcan1* siRNA; IVSd, interventricular septal thickness at

diastole; LVPWd, left ventricular posterior wall thickness at diastole; LVDd, left ventricular

diastolic dimension; LVDs, left ventricular systolic dimension; LVEDV, left ventricular end-

diastolic volume; LVESV, left ventricular end-systolic volume; SV, stroke volume; EF, ejection

fraction.

Figure 5. Regulator of calcineurin 1 knockdown (KD) exacerbates hypertrophy, fibrosis

and angiogenesis in heart.

(**a**) Body weight change (upper graph) and its ratio (lower graph) of normal heart (NH), Heart

released from TAC transfected with negative control (NC) siRNA (TAC-R [NC]) or *Rcan1*

siRNA (TAC-R [*Rcan1* KD]).

(**b**) Representative images of NH and TAC-R (NC) and TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD) hearts. Heart

weight (HW)/body weight (BW) ratio (mg/g) was markedly increased in TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD)

heart.

(**c**) Representative images of the cross-sectional area around the short-axis of individual

cardiomyocytes (viewed from the transverse section) of NH and TAC-R (NC), and TAC-R

(*Rcan1* KD) hearts. Interventricular septal thickness (IVST) was markedly increased in TAC-R

(*Rcan1* KD) heart.

(**d**) Cardiac troponin T staining showed significantly increased area of short-axis transverse

section of cardiomyocyte in TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD) heart.

(**e**) Masson's trichrome staining showed significantly increased collagen deposition in TAC-R

(*Rcan1* KD) heart.

(**f**) Isolectin B4 staining showed increased capillary density in TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD) heart.

(a) n = 4 animals per group. *$p < .05$ versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA; (b, c) scale

bars: 10 mm; (d) scale bars: 50 μm in low magnification. scale bars: 10 μm in high

magnification; (e, f) scale bars: 100 μm; (**a–e**) n = 4 animals per group; mean ± SEM values are

shown. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .005$, ****$p < .001$ versus the other group(s) by one-way

ANOVA.

Figure 6. Knockdown of regulator of calcineurin 1 affects expression of genes related to

cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis.

(**a**) qRT-PCR revealed upregulated expression of hypertrophy-associated genes (*Igf1, Mybpc3,*

Tnnt2, Tpm1, Actc1, Myl2 and *Myl3*) in TAC-R heart transfected with *Rcan1* siRNA (TAC-R

[*Rcan1* KD]) relative to expression in normal heart and TAC-R heart transfected with negative

control (NC) siRNA (TAC-R [NC]).

(**b**) qRT-PCR revealed significantly upregulated expression of fibrosis-associated genes

(*Col3a1, Tgfb1, Timp1,* and *Fn1*) in TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD) heart relative to that in normal heart

and/or TAC-R (NC) heart.

(**c**) qRT-PCR revealed significantly upregulated expression of angiogenesis-associated genes

(*Fgf1, Fgf2,* and *Fgf9*) in TAC-R (*Rcan1* KD) heart relative to that in normal heart and/or TAC-

R NC heart.

(**a–c**) n = 4 animals per group; mean ± SEM values are shown. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .005,

****p < .001 versus the other group(s) by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 7. Schematic representation and overview of reversibility of hemodynamic changes

in the heart.

Increased left ventricular afterload resulting from transverse aortic constriction (TAC) promotes

cardiac hypertrophy, fibrosis, and angiogenesis. In contrast, reduction in afterload by TAC

release (TAC-R) attenuates these changes. The structural change in the heart involves

modulation of the activity of the calcineurin nuclear factor of activated T cells (NFAT)

signaling pathway, with a potential regulator of calcineurin 1.

Name	p-value	Odds Ratio
Regulation of mitochondrion organization (GO: 0010821)	0.3672	2.23
Regulation of cytokine production involved in inflammatory response (GO:1900015)	0.3436	2.43
Inflammatory response (GO:0006954)	0.3636	1.41
Positive regulation of inflammatory response (GO:0050729)	0.6145	1.06
Regulation of inflammatory response (GO:0050727)	0.6446	0.91
Rho protein signal transduction (GO:0007266)	0.3787	2.14
Negative regulation of calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade (GO:0070885)	0.0957	10.94
Regulation of calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade (GO:0070884)*	0.2673	3.31

Table 1 Gene Ontology (GO) terms associated with maintenance of mitochondrial function, inhibition of inflammation, inhibition of Rho kinase activity, and inhibition of calcineurin-NFAT signaling.

*Negative regulation of calcineurin-NFAT signaling cascade (GO:0070885) is more involved in the effects of release from TAC than in other biological processes.

a

Normal heart (NH)

TAC heart (TAC)

Heart released from TAC (TAC-R)

TAC release

4 weeks   8 weeks

b

IVSd (mm) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVPWd (mm) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVDd (mm) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVDs (mm) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVEDV (ml) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVESV (ml) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
SV (ml) — NH, TAC, TAC-R * *
LVEF (%) — NH, TAC, TAC-R

c

Cardiac Troponin T   DAPI

NH

TAC

TAC-R

Cellular area (/μm²)
NH, TAC, TAC-R
**** * **

d

Masson's Trichrome stain

NH   0.51 ± 0.35 %

TAC   8.67 ± 2.18 %

TAC-R   4.73 ± 1.52%

Collagen deposition (%)
NH, TAC, TAC-R
*** * *

e

Isolectin B4 stain

NH

TAC

TAC-R

Capillary density (/mm²)
NH, TAC, TAC-R
** **

a

PCA2 25.9%

NH

- NH1
- NH2
- TAC1
- TAC2
- TAC-R1
- TAC-R2

TAC-R

TAC

PCA1 27.9%

PCA3 17.0%

b

-log10(P)

0 234 6 10   20

GO:0035994: response to muscle stretch
GO:0060537: muscle tissue development
GO:0006979: response to oxidative stress
GO:0006026: aminoglycan catabolic process
GO:0097190: apoptotic signaling pathway
GO:0006954: inflammatory response
GO:0009612: response to mechanical stimulus
GO:0001938: po...   ...ation
R-RNO-1793185...   ...tabolism
GO:0007162: ne...   ...uction
GO:0032689: ne...   ...ependent cell spreading
GO:1900025: ne...
GO:0010942: po...
GO:0070106: in...
GO:0001676: lon...
GO:0001959: reg...   ...thway
GO:0010800: po...   ...sphorylation
GO:0015669: ga...
GO:0035456: res...
GO:0009615: res...

TAC
(vs. NH)

TAC-R
(vs. TAC)

f

c

Average mtDNA copy number

6×10⁸

4×10⁸

2×10⁸

NH   TAC   TAC-R

d

4.5

3.5

Rcan1
Txnip
Prdx6
Sod3
Bcl2l1
Idh1
Aldh1a1
Apoe
Mmp2
Srxn1
Mmp14
Ddit3
Txnrd1
Pxdn

TAC1 TAC2 TAC-R1 TAC-R2

e

Rcan1

Relative expression

NH   TAC   TAC-R

*   *

Oxidative stress

Cytoplasm

Ca²⁺

Ca²⁺

RCAN1

Calcineurin

Calcineurin

P

NFAT3

NFAT3

P

NFAT3   GATA4

Nucleus

Hypertrophy

Fibrosis

Angiogenesis

Normal heart   TAC   TAC-subjected heart   Release from TAC   Heart released from TAC

Hemodynamic loading

Hypertension
Aortic valve stenosis etc.

Hemodynamic unloading

Valve surgery
Antihypertensive therapy
etc.

Remodeling   Reverse remodeling

Fibrosis
Myocardial hypertrophy   ECM degradation
Resolution of myocardial hypertrophy

Angiogenesis   Regression of capillaries