A novel Notch and WNT signaling mechanism contribute to pediatric DCM: a pathway to new therapeutics.

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Short title: Novel mechanism of DCM via Notch and WNT.

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ABSTRACT

Background

Idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy (iDCM) in children is a life-threatening disease. Little is

known about its cellular and transcriptional landscape, and the lack of disease-specific

animal models limits our understanding of its mechanisms. We previously demonstrated

that pediatric iDCM serum-circulating proteins promote pathologic remodeling *in vitro*, and

that secreted frizzled related protein 1 (sFRP1) increases stiffness in cardiomyocytes.

Here we investigated the mechanisms by which sFRP1 contributes to cardiac

dysfunction.

Methods

The effect of sFRP1 in combination with isoproterenol (ISO) (to recapitulate the increase

in circulating catecholamine observed in pediatric DCM patients) was evaluated in

neonatal rat ventricular myocytes (*in vitro*), and in neonatal rats through intraperitoneal

injections (*in vivo*). Function and molecular mechanisms were investigated through

echocardiography and next-generation-sequencing respectively. Protein levels and

localization were determined by Western blot. Tissue stiffness was measured by Atomic

Force Microscopy. *In vitro* and *in vivo* data were compared to explanted human heart

tissue (*ex vivo*).

Results

We show that ISO+sFRP1 reactivates the fetal gene program *in vitro,* and promotes

cardiac dysfunction, dilation and stiffness *in vivo*. Importantly, we show stiffness is also

increased in pediatric iDCM hearts. We identified co-activation of Notch and WNT

signaling in both ISO+sFRP1-treated rats and pediatric iDCM hearts. Mechanistically, *in*

vitro inhibition of Notch or β-catenin prevented pathological remodeling, and Notch

inhibition improved cardiac function and reduced ventricular dilation in ISO+sFRP1-

treated rats and NRVMs.

Conclusion

We identified concordant alterations in Notch and WNT signaling in pediatric iDCM hearts

and in our ISO+sFRP1-treated rats. Notch inhibition abrogated pathologic changes *in*

vitro and *in vivo*. These findings provide novel mechanistic insights and a potential

therapeutic target for pediatric iDCM.

Keywords- Pediatric, Heart failure, dilated cardiomyopathy, stiffness, Notch, WNT,

Clinical perspective

What is new?

• iDCM in children continues to be poorly understood due to the lack of an animal

model and lack of understanding of the disease mechanisms.

• This study establishes a unique young rat model that recapitulates key features of

the disease, which include impaired systolic function with ventricular dilation,

myocardial stiffness and distinct transcriptomic signatures.

• This study investigates molecular pathways commonly altered in pediatric iDCM

heart and our novel animal model.

What are the clinical implications

• We identified Notch and WNT co-activation as key regulators of pathological

remodeling and cardiac dysfunction, and show that inhibition of Notch signaling

can prevent pathological remodeling and cardiac dysfunction, suggesting targeting

the Notch pathway may be a viable option to treat pediatric DCM.

• These findings provide a preclinical model to investigate targeted interventions for

pediatric DCM.

INTRODUCTION

Idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy (iDCM) is one of the main causes of cardiac-related mortality in children. Pediatric iDCM is a rare disease, making it very difficult to perform large, randomized placebo-controlled clinical trials (RCTs) in this population. The first RCT performed in children with heart failure (HF) studied the non-selective β-adrenergic receptor (β–AR) blocker, carvedilol. Importantly, although carvedilol has been shown to decrease morbidity and mortality in adults with DCM, the results of the trial were neutral in children[1], even though there are similarities in the pathophysiology of HF in children and adults, including increased circulating catecholamines[2,3]. Unfortunately, to date, there is limited evidence to support the treatment of HF in children, and current therapies are largely based on extrapolation of guideline-directed medical therapy (GDMT) for adult patients without proven efficacy in children.

Existing animal models of HF in children tend to focus on specific genetic mutations. However, only about one-third of children with iDCM have any identified pathogenic genetic variant[4], making use of any single genetic model difficult to generalize to the pediatric iDCM population. The lack of a generalizable animal model has negatively impacted the ability to investigate mechanisms of disease and identify targeted therapeutic options, which likely contributes to the fact that pediatric HF outcomes lag behind those of adults[5]. There is, however, a growing appreciation that molecular and cellular pathologic remodeling in pediatric HF is unique and lacks the well-known phenotypic changes observed in the adult heart[6]. We and others have shown that pediatric iDCM hearts have minimal fibrosis[5,7], lack cardiomyocyte hypertrophy[5,8], display

an age-specific transcriptome profile[5,8], unique changes to the β–AR system[9], and

diminished immune cell response[5].

In the pathological state, the heart responds by reverting to the fetal gene program

(FGP)[10], which includes re-expression of natriuretic peptides (*NPPA*/*NPPB*) and reduced

expression of the ratio α/β-Myosin Heavy Chain (MHC–*Myh6/Myh7*)[10,11]. We tested the

effect of the pediatric iDCM secretome on gene expression and cellular stiffness in

primary cardiomyocytes and showed that circulating proteins contribute to pathologic

changes in cells[12]. We further showed that the protein secreted frizzled protein 1 (sFRP1)

is increased in the serum and hearts of patients with iDCM and promoted cellular stiffness

in primary cardiomyocytes[12]. sFRP1 is known to modulate the WNT signaling pathway[13].

WNT ligands regulate cellular activities through the activation of β-catenin-dependent

(canonical) and independent (non-canonical) pathways[13]. The WNT signaling pathway

influences Notch signaling activity in various cellular and developmental contexts. In

cardiogenesis, both WNT and Notch signaling pathways are crucial in determining cell

fate and survival[14,15]. The activity of Notch signaling is usually reduced in the postnatal

heart but increased in cases of damage or injury[16]. Activation of the Notch receptors and

subsequent cleavage by ADAM metalloproteinases and γ-secretase leads to the release

of the Notch intracellular domain (NICD) in the cytoplasm, which translocates to the

nucleus and activates transcription of Notch target genes resulting in cell specific

effects[14].

In this study we investigated the effect of sFRP1 *in vitro* and *in vivo* through the

development of a novel animal model that consists of intraperitoneal injections of sFRP1

and isoproterenol (to recapitulate the increase in circulating catecholamine observed in

pediatric DCM patients)[2,3]. We show that this model reproduces aspects of pediatric

iDCM, including decreased cardiac function associated with dilation, and activation of

Notch and WNT signaling. We further show that ISO+sFRP1 promotes cardiac stiffness,

and importantly, inhibiting Notch signaling prevents pathological remodeling and cardiac

dysfunction.

RESULTS

Human Samples

Detailed demographics from all patients included in the study are depicted in Supplemental Table 1. Median age for DCM patients was 3.9 years (interquartile range-IQR=6.2), with an average EF of 17.33%, 58.3% were female, 8.3% were on beta-blockers, all were on angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors (ACEi) and 75% were on a phosphodiesterase 3-inhibitor (PDE3i). Non-failing control (NF) subject had a median age of 6.9 years (IQR=9.5), 28.6% were female and 14.3% were on beta-blockers.

sFRP1 and ISO treatment promotes pathological remodeling *in vitro*

We first evaluated if treatment with ISO and/or sFRP1 promoted pathological remodeling i*n vitro*. NRVMs were treated with ISO, sFRP1 or a combination of both factors for 72 hours. Fetal gene program (FGP), as measured by upregulation of *NPPA, NPPB*, and a decrease in the ratio of α-myosin heavy chain (*MYH6*) to β-myosin heavy chain (*MYH7*), was observed only when cells were treated with ISO+sFRP1. *NPPA* increased in both sFRP1 (p=0.0379) and ISO+sFRP1-treated cells (p<0.0001), *NPPB* increased in ISO (p<0.0001) and ISO+sFRP1-treated cells (p<0.0001), while *MYH6/MYH7* decreased in response to sFRP1 (p<0.0001) and ISO+sFRP1 treatments (p=0.0142) (**Fig.** 1a). sFRP1 expression increased in cells treated with ISO+sFRP1 (p=0.0111) (**Fig.** 1b). Furthermore, the increase in sFRP1 gene expression in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells positively correlated with *NPPA* (p=0.0004) and *NPPB* expression (p<0.0001) and negatively correlated with *MYH6/MYH7* (p<0.0001) (Supp. **Fig.** 1). These results suggest that a combination of ISO and sFRP1 promote pathological remodeling *in vitro*.

sFRP1 and ISO treatment promotes cardiac dysfunction and dilation in a young

rodent model

To further validate the translational relevance of the *in vitro* model, we tested the effect of

ISO+sFRP1 *in vivo*. Rats were injected with ISO and/or sFRP1 intraperitoneally for 2

weeks (**Fig.** 1c). Rats injected with ISO+sFRP1 had significantly reduced ejection fraction

(EF) (p<0.0001) when compared to vehicle-treated control rats, as well as when

compared to rats injected solely with ISO (p=0.0316) or sFRP1 (p<0.0001) (**Fig.** 1d).

Echocardiogram findings also showed that left ventricular volume in systole (LV vol(s))

increased in ISO+sFRP1-treated rats compared to vehicle-treated controls (p=0.0002),

ISO-treated rats (p=0.0306) or sFRP1-treated rats (p=0.0006) (**Fig.** 1e). Similarly, left

ventricular internal diameter in systole (LVID(s)) increased in ISO+sFRP1 rats compared

to vehicle-treated controls (p<0.0001), ISO-treated rats (p=0.0334) or sFRP1-treated rats

(p<0.0001) (**Fig.** 1f). There were no significant differences in left ventricular anterior and

posterior wall thickness for any of the treated groups (**Fig.** 1g, h). Diastolic parameters,

LV vol(d) and LVID(d), followed the same trend as systolic parameters (Supp Fig. 2a, b).

Morphometric data showed a significant increase in whole heart to body weight and LV

weight to body weight ratios in ISO+sFRP1 rats compared to vehicle-treated controls

(Supp. Fig. 2c, d). Functional alterations were not restricted to male animals; changes

were also observed in females (Supp Fig. 2e).

As in the *in vitro* expression studies, *NPPA* expression increased in sFRP1- (p=004) and

ISO+sFRP1-treated rats (p=0.0035) compared to vehicle-treated controls (Supp. Fig 3a).

However, *NPPB* expression only increased in sFRP1-treated rats (p=0.0011) and not in

response to ISO+sFRP1 treatment (Supp. Fig 3b). *MYH6/MYH7* ratio decreased in both

sFRP1 (p=0.0272) and ISO+sFRP1 rats (p=0.049) (Supp. Fig 3c). A simple linear

regression was performed to evaluate the relationship between pathological cardiac

remodeling, evidenced by reactivation of the FGP, and ejection fraction. We found that

the relative expression of *NPPA*, but not *NPPB*, was significantly correlated with a

decrease in EF (p=0.0039) (Supp. Fig 4a), whereas the ratio of *MYH6/MYH7* trended

towards a positive correlation (higher *MYH6/MYH7* correlated with higher EF) (p=0.0825)

(Supp. Fig 4b). These results, together with the *in vitro* data, provide evidence that

ISO+sFRP1 promotes pathological remodeling *in vitro* and cardiac dysfunction

associated with left ventricular dilation *in vivo.*

To investigate the translational significance of the rat ISO+sFRP1 DCM model, we

investigated cardiac mRNA and serum sFRP1 levels in rats relative to our published data

in human pediatric DCM patients[8,12]. We observed a significant increase in cardiac sFRP1

mRNA levels in ISO+sFRP1 rats (p=0.0003) (**Fig.** 2a) that was negatively correlated with

EF (p=0.0121) (Supp. Fig 5a). Moreover, levels of sFRP1 in the serum of ISO+sFRP1

rats were significantly higher than vehicle-treated controls (**Fig.** 2b) (p=0.0146). There

was a trend to negative correlation when analyzing levels of serum circulating sFRP1 and

EF (p=0.0888) in rats (Supp. Fig 5b). The observed increase in rat cardiac and serum

sFRP1 levels was comparable to our previously published human data[12].

ISO+sFRP1 promotes increased stiffness in the absence of myocyte hypertrophy

or fibrosis.

We previously showed that DCM serum or sFRP1 treatment promotes stiffness in NRVMs

assessed by atomic force microscopy (AFM)[12]. To further explore if sFRP1 promotes

stiffness *in vivo*, we investigated myocardial stiffness in rats. As shown in **Fig.** 2c-e,

ISO+sFRP1 promoted a significant increase in LV stiffness when compared to vehicle-

treated control rats (p=0.02). Stiffness is specific to cardiac dysfunction as changes in

myocardial stiffness were not observed in rats treated with ISO only or sFRP1 only (Supp.

Fig. 6a-d). Importantly, we tested stiffness in the LV of children with DCM and show that

stiffness is increased when compared to NF healthy controls (p=0.0176) (**Fig.** 2f-h).

We and others previously showed that pediatric DCM patients have minimal fibrosis and

lack myocyte hypertrophy[5,17]. Compared to vehicle-treated controls, ISO+sFRP1 rats did

not exhibit increased fibrosis, as determined by Masson's trichrome staining (Supp. Fig.

7a-c). Additionally, RT-qPCR analysis of the rat LV tissue demonstrated no significant

upregulation of profibrotic genes, including *COL1A1, COL3A1, Galectin-3, TGFB1,*

TGFB2 and *TIMP1-4* (Supp. Fig 7d-l). Furthermore, myocyte hypertrophy was not

observed in ISO+sFRP1 rats compared to controls (Supp. Fig.7m-o).

Notch signaling is altered in ISO+sFRP1 rats and in pediatric DCM hearts.

To better understand the pathophysiology of ISO+sFRP1-mediated DCM and identify the

mechanisms underlying the disease, we performed bulk RNA sequencing analysis of the

LV of rats treated with ISO and/or sFRP1 compared to vehicle-treated controls

(n=6/group) (**Fig.** 3a). Of the 14,350 genes identified, there were 286 differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) (p<0.05) in ISO+sFRP1 rats compared to vehicle-treated

controls (113 up-regulated and 173 down-regulated) (Supp. Table 2). Unsupervised

hierarchical clustering separated control and ISO+sFRP1 treatment groups based on the

gene expression profile. Unsupervised hierarchical cluster heatmaps of the top 50 DEGs

in ISO+sFRP1- (**Fig.** 3b), sFRP1- or ISO-treated rats (supp. Fig. 8a, b) compared to

vehicle-treated controls were generated and showed a clear separation between

individual groups and control. Pathways were analyzed using the identified significantly

upregulated or downregulated genes. Pathway analysis of upregulated genes highlighted

Notch signaling pathway as one of the main dysregulated pathways associated with

upregulated genes uniquely enriched in response to ISO+sFRP1 compared to controls

(**Fig.** 3c). WNT/β-catenin signaling was the 2nd top pathway for all dysregulated DEGs in

ISO+sFRP1 rats (**Fig.** 3d). Pathway analysis was also done for downregulated genes

(Supp. Fig. 8c), and for ISO- or sFRP1-treated rats. The WNT/β-catenin signaling

pathway was significantly dysregulated in sFRP1-treated rats while mitochondrial

organization pathways were dysregulated in ISO-treated rats (Supp. Fig. 8d-g)

Importantly, in our prior investigations of explanted pediatric DCM hearts, we identified

changes in gene expression that suggested alterations in the Notch and WNT pathways[8].

To investigate commonalities in hearts from children with DCM and our rat model, we

assessed similarities between DEGs from ISO+sFRP1 rats, pediatric DCM hearts, and

from our previously published data on pediatric DCM serum-treated NRVMs[12].

Transcriptomic analysis revealed a substantial overlap in DEGs in the LV tissue of

ISO+sFRP1-treated rats and human DCM hearts or serum-treated cells. Notably, 96% of

DEGs in the LV tissue of ISO+sFRP1-treated rats were also observed in the human DCM

heart (65% unique only to human LV DEGs, 31% shared between human LV and rat LV

DEGs with only 4% DEGs unique to rats) (**Fig.** 3e). Additionally, 57% of DEGs were

common between the LV tissue of ISO+sFRP1-treated rats and NRVMs treated with

human DCM serum (57% unique only to NRVMs treated with human DCM serum DEGs,

1% shared between NRVMs treated with human DCM serum DEGs and rat LV DEGs

with 42% DEGs unique to rats) (**Fig.** 3f). Again, Notch signaling was one of the top

dysregulated pathways associated with commonly upregulated genes in DCM serum-

treated NRVMs and LV tissue of ISO+sFRP1-treated rats (**Fig.** 3g).

Single-nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) identifies activation of Notch and β-

catenin signaling in response to ISO+sFPR1

To further characterize the cell types and biological mechanisms altered at the individual

cellular level, we performed single-nuclei RNA sequencing of LV tissue from ISO and/or

sFRP1, and vehicle-treated control rats (n=3/group). A total of 9,214 nuclei in control,

11,588 nuclei in ISO-, 13,758 nuclei in sFRP1-, and 11,127 in ISO+sFRP1-treated rats

were identified after cells were pooled. Clusters were annotated based on canonical cell

marker expression (supp. Table 3). We assessed the distribution of cell-type annotated

nuclei across all samples and identified 26 transcriptionally distinct cell-type clusters

marked by canonical gene markers (**Fig.** 4a)[18,19]. The proportions of the different

identified cell types varied across treatment groups. Representation of the various cell

type distribution showed an increase in the relative ratio of ventricular cardiomyocytes in

the ISO+sFRP1-treated rats (**Fig.** 4b, c, supp. Table 3). A sub-analysis of ventricular

cardiomyocytes identified eight different sub-clusters (**Fig.** 4d). Pathway analysis of

dysregulated DEGs in the ISO+sFRP1 ventricular cardiomyocyte subcluster 2 (the cluster

with the most relative proportion of ventricular cardiomyocytes) suggests activation of

Notch signaling as one of the top dysregulated pathways (**Fig.** 4e), and *CTNNB1* (β-

catenin) as one of the top transcription factors predicted to control expression of

upregulated genes (**Fig.** 4f). Additionally, pathway analysis suggests extracellular matrix

(ECM) proteoglycan enrichment as the top dysregulated pathway in subcluster 6 (cluster

with the 2nd most relative proportion of ventricular cardiomyocytes), and *Notch1* as one of

the top transcription factors predicted to control expression of dysregulated genes (**Fig.**

4g, h). We then used ClinVar to evaluate how DEGs in the ventricular cardiomyocyte

cluster relate to human health, and identified DCM as the top phenotype, which further

validates our model (**Fig.** 4i).

Levels of Notch change *in vivo*, *in vitro* and in human DCM hearts.

To further explore Notch signaling dysregulation in DCM, we investigated levels of Notch-

target genes and Notch intracellular domain (NICD), the constitutively active form of

Notch1, in the different models. We found increased expression of Notch target genes,

which was associated with increased nuclear and cytoplasmic NICD. NICD protein was

increased in cytoplasmic (p=0.0013) and nuclear (p=0.0143) fractions of pediatric DCM

hearts (**Fig.** 5a-d), in cytoplasmic (p=0.0053) and nuclear fractions (p=0.0086) of

ISO+sFRP1 rat hearts (**Fig.** 5e-h), and in cytoplasmic (p=0.0371) and nuclear (p =0.0119)

fractions of ISO+sFRP1-treated NRVMs (**Fig.** 5i-l). In parallel, we also observed

increased expression of Notch-target genes; *Hey1*, was upregulated in pediatric DCM

hearts (1.55x, q=0.02 from RNA-seq data)[8]. *Notch1* (p=0.0398) and *HEY1* (p=0.0467)

were up-regulated in ISO+sFRP1 rat hearts (**Fig.** 5m). *Notch1* (p=0.0276) together with

the expression of Notch target genes *HEY1* (p=0.0006), *HEY2* (p=0.0124), *HES1*

(p=0.0361) and *HEYL* (p=0.0436) were increased in NRVMs treated with ISO+sFRP1

compared to vehicle-treated controls (**Fig.** 5n). There was no increase in expression of

other Notch receptor genes such as Notch2-4 (Supp. Fig. 9a-c). Expression of *Notch 1*

and Notch-target genes in ISO or sFRP1-treated NRVMs did not change (Supp. 10a-e).

Levels of β-catenin change *in vivo*, *in vitro* and in human DCM hearts

sFRP1 is known to modulate the β-catenin pathway in a context-dependent manner[20]. As

shown in **Fig.** 3d our transcriptomic data strongly suggested the activation of the β-catenin

pathway in ISO+sFRP1-treated rats, which is in agreement with our published explanted

pediatric DCM heart data[8]. We tested expression of β-catenin gene *(CTNNB1)* and β-

catenin protein levels in the cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions of explanted pediatric DCM

hearts, ISO+sFRP1 rat hearts and ISO+sFRP1-treated NRVMS (**Fig.** 6). We found higher

levels of β-catenin in the cytoplasmic (p=0.0013) and nuclear (p=0.0433) fractions in DCM

hearts (**Fig.** 6a-d), in the cytoplasmic (p=0.0099) and nuclear fractions (p-value=0.0191)

of ISO+sFRP1 rat hearts (**Fig 6.** e-h), and in the cytoplasmic (p=0.0101) and nuclear

fractions (p=0.0039) of ISO+sFRP1-treated NRVMs (**Fig 6.** i-l). Additionally, we also

observed an increase in expression of *CTNNB1* (p=0.0263) in ISO+sFRP1 rats (**Fig.** 6m)

and ISO+sFRP1-treated NRVMs (p=0.0460) (**Fig.** 6n). Similar to what we observed when

evaluating Notch signaling, the increase in *CTNNB1* levels was unique to ISO+sFRP1-

treated NRVMs and was not observed in response to ISO or sFRP1. (Supp. Fig. 10f)

β-catenin contributes to Notch activation in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells

Others have reported an interplay between Notch and β-catenin signaling[21,22]. We next

evaluated the contribution of β-catenin to Notch activation. siRNA-mediated down-

regulation of *CTNNB1* in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells prevented ISO+sFRP1-mediated

activation of Notch target gene expression by blunting expression of *HEY1* (p<0.0001),

HEY2 (p=0.0026), *HES1* (p=0.0167) and *HEYL* (p=0.0401) (**Fig.** 7a). Additionally, siRNA

for *CTNNB1* also prevented activation of the FGP by ISO+sFRP1 by blunting the increase

in expression of *NPPA* (p=0.0063) and *NPPB* (p=0.0003), and by increasing the ratio of

MYH6/MYH7 (p=0.0446) (**Fig.** 7b). siRNA for *CTNNB1* also reduced the cytoplasmic

(p=0.0041) (**Fig.** 7c, d) and nuclear (p=0.0063) (**Fig.** 7e, f) increase of NICD by

ISO+sFRP1. The effect of si-CTNNB1 on β-catenin levels is shown in **Fig**. 8 c, e.

Notch antagonism prevented pathological remodeling *in vitro* and cardiac

dysfunction associated with dilation *in vivo*

We also tested the effect of DAPT, a γ-secretase inhibitor known for reducing the levels

of NICD, on β-catenin levels and activation of the FGP. DAPT, as expected, prevented or

decreased the activation of Notch target genes HEY*1* (p<0.0001), *HEY2* (p=0.0004),

HES1 (p<0.0001) and *HEYL* (p<0.0001) by ISO+sFRP1 (**Fig.** 8a). We next tested

whether Notch inhibition affected activation of the FGP. As shown in **Fig.** 8b. DAPT

prevented the reactivation of FGP by ISO+sFRP1 by blunting the increased expression

of *NPPA* (P=0.025), and *NPPB* (P=0.0014), and by increasing the ratio of *MYH6/MYH7*

(p=0.007). Additionally, DAPT prevented ISO+sFRP1-mediated increase in cytoplasmic

(p=0.0487) (**Fig.** 8c, d) and nuclear (p=0.0385) (**Fig.** 8e, f) β-catenin. DAPT also

prevented the increase in *CTNNB1* gene expression by ISO+sFRP1 (p=0.008) (**Fig.** 8g).

These data support the premise that the co-activation of Notch and β-catenin promotes

pathological remodeling.

Lastly, we investigated the role of DAPT in preventing cardiac dysfunction associated with

ventricular dilation in our ISO+sFRP1 *in vivo* model. DAPT prevented the reduction of EF

by ISO+sFRP1 (p=0.0048) and trended towards inhibiting the increase in LV vol(s)

(p=0.088) and LVID(s) (p=0.0935) (**Fig.** 8h). These results suggest that Notch inhibition

improves cardiac function in our rat model.

DISCUSSION

Studies focused on the mechanisms of HF in children are lacking. The rarity of the

disease, associated with the difficulty in performing studies in a vulnerable population,

has limited the development of age-specific therapies for pediatric iDCM, which

contributes to a relatively high rate of mortality in this population[23]. Currently, there is no

well-established disease model that accurately recapitulates the pathophysiology of

pediatric iDCM. Importantly, pediatric and adult iDCM differ in several key aspects,

including minimal myocardial fibrosis and no cardiomyocyte hypertrophy. These

differences could be due to age-dependent mechanisms or to intrinsic differences in the

disease process and may explain the differential response to medical therapies[24]. An

optimal *in vivo* model should, therefore, mirror not only the echocardiographic and

histological features but also the mechanistic characteristics of pediatric DCM. Our

ISO+sFRP1 rat model fulfills these criteria, by exhibiting ventricular dilation, cardiac

dysfunction, myocardial stiffness with minimal fibrosis, and activation of Notch-WNT

signaling, closely paralleling the pediatric iDCM phenotype.

sFRP1-mediated pathologic remodeling and cardiac dysfunction

We have previously shown that circulating sFRP1 levels are elevated in pediatric DCM

sera[12]. Likewise, catecholamines are increased in the serum of pediatric HF patients[3]. In

this study we found that *in vivo* co-administration of ISO+sFRP1 in neonatal rats results

in lower EF and LV dilation, and reactivation of the FGP. These findings suggest that β-

adrenergic stimulation primes cardiomyocytes to revert to a fetal-like transcriptional state,

which is a hallmark of maladaptive cardiac remodeling and HF and drives structural and

functional cardiac dysfunction *in vivo*.

sFRP1 regulation of WNT signaling

sFRP1 is traditionally viewed as a WNT signaling antagonist, which reduces β-catenin

levels. Our results suggest that sFRP1, in the context of β-adrenergic stimulation, acts as

a WNT agonist rather than an antagonist as evidenced by the increased levels of β-

catenin in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells and rats. Importantly, the increase in β-catenin levels

was also observed in explanted pediatric DCM hearts. In support of our findings, other

models of cardiac disease (such as myocardial infarction, cardiac fibrosis and HF) have

highlighted the role of sFRP1 in activating WNT signaling in response to cardiac injury[25].

Classically, sFRP1 inhibition of WNT signaling occurs relatively rapidly. Within the first 1-

6 hours of treatment, sFRP1 inhibits WNT signaling by directly binding to WNT ligands or

to frizzled receptors[26]. However, prolonged exposure and/or increased concentration of

sFRP1 can promote β-catenin stabilization and WNT signaling activation[27]. Our results

agree with these findings, as initial exposure to ISO+sFRP1 did not increase β-catenin

levels (not shown), but persistent (72 hours) exposure increased levels of β-catenin in

cardiomyocytes. The mechanisms associated with sFRP1-mediated stabilization of β-

catenin are unclear; sFRP1 may directly form complexes with frizzled receptors, possibly

mimicking the effects of WNT ligands or displacing inhibitory interactions, thus activating

downstream signaling[28]. Furthermore, it has been proposed that the duration or levels of

exposure to sFRP1 may stabilize certain WNT ligands or alter receptor dynamics to

enhance β-catenin accumulation[27].

Our results also suggest a context-dependent function of sFRP1, in which sFRP1 may

differentially modulate WNT signaling under adrenergic stress. In cancer, chronic

adrenergic stress has been shown to promote sFRP1 secretion, enhancing tumor growth

through β-catenin activation[27]. Hence targeting sFRP1 has been explored as a potential

therapeutic target for patients with adenocarcinoma[29]. Our findings extend these

observations by demonstrating that simultaneous β-adrenergic stimulation and WNT

pathway modulation can synergistically trigger maladaptive gene expression patterns and

cardiac dysfunction, which may be unique to the pediatric population. In this context, ISO

appears to act as a modulator of the response to sFRP1 and may modify the cellular

context, allowing WNT signaling components to become activated despite the presence

of a known antagonist, perhaps through non-canonical or compensatory mechanisms.

WNT signaling in cardiac pathological remodeling

WNT signaling is an essential pathway implicated in cell-cell communication and plays a

role in cardiac development, function and disease from embryonic stages to adult life[30].

The WNT/β-catenin pathway has a biphasic role in cardiac development and

differentiation, promoting cardiac differentiation before gastrulation and inhibiting cardiac

development after gastrulation[20]. Additionally, although stabilizing β-catenin promotes

proliferation of mammalian cardiomyocytes[31], it is also required for stress-induced cardiac

hypertrophy[32]. Furthermore, it has been suggested that active WNT/β-catenin signaling a

week after cardiac injury is involved in cardiac healing[33]. In contrast, depletion of β-catenin

attenuates ischemic cardiac remodeling through increased differentiation of resident

cardiac progenitor cells[34]. These studies highlight the complexity of WNT/β-catenin

signaling in the heart. In our study, we show that WNT/β-catenin contributes to a

pathological phenotype, suggesting the activation of this pathway in post-natal hearts is

associated with maladaptive remodeling and cardiac dysfunction.

Notch and β-catenin axis promote DCM phenotype in a young rodent model

Using transcriptomic data from our animal model, our data on molecular alterations in

pediatric iDCM hearts and serum-treated NRVMs, we explored molecular pathways

commonly altered in all models[8,12]. Importantly, of the genes altered in ISO+sFRP1 rat

hearts, the vast majority also changed in pediatric iDCM hearts (**Fig.** 3e). Additionally,

pathway analysis of DEGs in ISO+sFRP1 rat hearts and in pediatric iDCM hearts[8]

highlight activation of Notch and WNT signaling. Recent evidence has suggested a

crosstalk between the WNT and Notch signaling pathways in cardiac development and

disease[35]. Notch signaling is fundamentally involved in cell-cell communication and has

been implicated in cardiac development, function and cardiac birth defects[36]. Notch target

genes contribute to cardiac development and disease[37], and aberrations in the Notch

signaling pathway are associated with congenital heart defects[38]. In addition, Notch

signaling is activated after cardiac injury[39], and promotes cardiac regeneration[40], and

cellular stiffness[41]. These suggest that Notch might be beneficial in regenerative,

compliant environments such as the developing heart, but potentially detrimental in stiff,

non-regenerative conditions such as the postnatal heart.

Prior studies have shown that both Notch and WNT pathways can stimulate proliferation

of immature cardiomyocytes[42] and promote cardiomyocyte survival[43]. Notch signaling has

been shown to maintain the cardiac gene network needed for cardiac chamber formation

through WNT signaling[44]. In the heart, both pathways are tightly regulated during

embryogenesis, where they coordinate cardiac progenitor specification and

morphogenesis[40]. However, in disease states, their reactivation often contributes to

maladaptive remodeling[45]. Previous studies have shown that WNT/β-catenin signaling

can enhance Notch pathway activation through direct transcriptional regulation of Notch

ligands[21,22] while Notch signaling has been reported to modulate β-catenin stability and

nuclear translocation[46]. This bidirectional crosstalk may underlie the robust transcriptional

and protein response we observed in our data. In summary, the relationship between

Notch and WNT signaling is complex, dynamic, context dependent and is still being

explored, but both pathways are known to play critical roles in cardiac development,

homeostasis, and disease progression.

The interplay between catecholamine and Notch and WNT signaling

Interestingly, in our model, we observed an expansion of cardiomyocyte cluster 2 in

ISO+sFRP1 hearts. In this cluster, there is an upregulation of Notch signaling, and

CTNNB1 is predicted to be one of the top transcriptional regulators, supporting our

findings that ISO+sFRP1 treatment results in WNT/Notch activation. Thus, the expansion

of ventricular cardiomyocyte nuclei in cluster 2 may reflect both a compensatory survival

mechanism and a shift toward a transcriptionally dysregulated state driven by concordant

Notch-WNT pathway synergy. In congruence, ventricular cardiomyocyte cluster 6

predicts *Notch1* as one of the top transcription factors predicted to control expression of

upregulated genes. This suggests that one cluster may be more β-catenin-regulated and

the other Notch-regulated.

In our model, we observe Notch signaling activation specifically in ISO+sFRP1-treated

NRVMs, but not when cells are treated with sFRP1 or ISO independently. This supports

the published data that chronic catecholamine stress may positively upregulate Notch

signaling via ADAM17-mediated catalytic cleavage, thereby linking the sympathetic

stress typical of HF to maladaptive developmental reprogramming[47].

Overall, these results suggest that catecholamines act not only as a stressor but also as

a molecular modulator, driving how cardiomyocytes convert developmental signals such

as WNT and Notch to pathological states that promote iDCM. To suggest a potential

crosstalk or relationship between the two pathways in the setting of ISO treatment, we

investigated the relationship between Notch and WNT signaling in our model. Down-

regulation of β-catenin in ISO+sFPR1-treated cells blunted the effect of Notch activation

on NICD protein levels and Notch target gene expression, and chemical inhibition of

Notch by DAPT blunted the increase of β-catenin by ISO+sFRP1. Our observation that

both pathways are upregulated in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells, rats, and human DCM hearts

suggests a cooperative role in driving pathological gene expression programs associated

with cardiac dysfunction and ventricular dilation *in vivo*. These findings support a model

in which combined β-adrenergic stimulation and increased WNT signaling activate

Notch–WNT signaling, contributing to sustained pathological remodeling and cardiac

dysfunction.

Notch as a potential therapeutic target in pediatric iDCM.

We also show that inhibiting Notch/WNT signaling prevents pathological remodeling.

Modulating these pathways could offer age-specific strategies for pediatric HF that differ

from adult therapies, especially in diseases like DCM. DAPT, a γ-secretase inhibitor, has

shown promise as a potential therapeutic target for many conditions ranging from cancer

to cardiovascular diseases. DAPT promotes cardiac reprogramming and has been

suggested as a potential therapeutic option for cardiac regeneration[48]. In this study, we

show that DAPT prevents cardiac dysfunction in ISO+sFRP1-treated rats. These findings

provide not only mechanistic insight into DCM in children but also a potential therapeutic

target for pediatric DCM.

Cardiac stiffness as a characteristic of pediatric DCM

Additionally, our *in vivo* model recapitulates other aspects of pediatric DCM, such as no

difference in cardiac *NPPB* levels, minimal fibrosis or lack of myocyte hypertrophy[8,17].

While fibrosis was not observed in our model, we detected an increase in myocardial

stiffness, which recapitulates our prior *in vitro* studies in cells treated with sFRP1[12].

Notably, both WNT and Notch signaling have been implicated in the regulation of

extracellular matrix dynamics and fibroblast activation in adult cardiac fibrosis[49]; however,

in pediatric iDCM, our transcriptomic data suggest these pathways may instead contribute

to cardiomyocyte-intrinsic changes and ECM remodeling resulting in stiffness in the

absence of classical interstitial fibrosis. The enrichment of ECM pathways in our rat model

aligns with this observation and supports the idea that pediatric iDCM may involve

dynamic ECM dysregulation without overt fibrotic conversion. Also, ECM remodeling in

the absence of overt fibrosis may represent a unique pathogenic mechanism underlying

pediatric iDCM. ECM remodeling and myocardial stiffness have been detected in the

hearts of children with iDCM[5,26]. Our results expand on these prior findings and show that

stiffness is increased in pediatric iDCM hearts by AFM and may contribute to impaired

cardiac function. ECM stiffness is an important cue that usually precedes fibrosis and can

act through WNT signaling[50]. In addition, modulation of Notch signaling regulates

substrate stiffness associated with stiffness of the ECM via mechanotransduction[41], and

may explain the lack of fibrosis but presence of stiffness in pediatric iDCM. Taken

together, our findings suggest myocardial stiffness as an important contributor to pediatric

iDCM and support WNT and Notch signaling pathways as important drivers of the disease

in children.

CONCLUSION

Our study identified a novel paradigm in the investigations of pediatric iDCM that consists

of a combined activation of WNT and Notch pathways. Through *in vitro* studies, we

established the secretome as an important mediator of disease, which led to the

development of an *in vivo* model of pediatric iDCM. Using this model, we identified co-

activation of Notch and WNT in ISO+sFRP1-treated rats and human pediatric iDCM

tissue. Mechanistically, *in vitro* inhibition of Notch and β-catenin signaling prevented

pathological remodeling, and *in vivo* Notch inhibition improved cardiac function. These

results emphasize the relevance of our model for studying pediatric-specific mechanisms

of HF and suggest that targeting the Notch–WNT axis could offer new therapeutic

opportunities. Collectively, our findings provide an opportunity to explore potential novel

therapeutic targets in pediatric DCM.

LIMITATIONS

(1) This study focused on a young model of disease and its relationship to the pediatric

heart. Adults were not included in our analysis. (2) The increase in myocardial stiffness

justifies the need to explore the potential mechanisms underlying this increase in

stiffness. Understanding the processes associated with ECM remodeling will further our

understanding of iDCM mechanisms in children and may identify novel approaches to

prevent or reverse stiffness. (3) Although our studies suggest Notch inhibition may be a

sound approach to prevent the disease process, the effect of inhibiting β-catenin is yet to

be investigated. (4) The current study focused on the interplay between β-catenin and

Notch. However, other pathways identified in our transcriptomic data may be relevant and

can be further explored in future studies.

METHODS

Detailed methods can be found in the Supplemental Materials.

Author contributions

OON performed experiments, data analysis and interpretation, manuscript writing and

editing. ER performed experiments, data analysis and manuscript writing. JG performed

experiments and data analysis. AKF performed statistical and bioinformatics analyses.

CC performed some experiments. LHL performed experiments, MPAB performed data

analysis. BP performed experiments and guided AFM analysis. SDM was involved in

experimental design, project supervision, clinical data interpretation, and manuscript

writing and editing. BLS was involved in experimental design, project supervision, data

interpretation, and manuscript writing and editing. CCS conceptualized the study, was

involved in experimental design, data analysis and interpretation, manuscript writing and

editing. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

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Disclosure of interest

None of the authors have a conflict of interest

Data availability statement

Bulk and single-nucleus RNA sequencing data will be deposited upon acceptance of the

manuscript.

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FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. ISO+sFRP1 promotes pathological remodeling in NRVMs and cardiac

dysfunction *in vivo*.

(A) RT-qPCR of FGP expression in NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control), ISO,

771   sFRP1 or ISO+sFRP1. Expression of *NPPA*, *NPPB*, and ratio of *MYH6* to *MYH7*.

772   Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data are presented as a relative

773   fold change to Controls. NRVMs treated with 100nM Isoproterenol (ISO) +/- 1

774   µg/mL human recombinant sFRP1 for 72 hours. *n* = 8 independent NRVM preps.

775   All groups are log2 transformed.

776   (B) RT-qPCR of sFRP1 gene expression in NRVMs treated with ISO+sFRP1

777   compared to vehicle-treated controls. Gene expression was normalized to 18S,

778   and data are presented as a relative fold change to controls. *n* = 6 independent

779   NRVM preps.

780   (C) Schematic of injection plan, timeline and duration. Rats were treated with

781   0.1mg/kg/day ISO every other day for the first 5 treatments and every day for the

782   subsequent 7 days. sFRP1 (50µg/kg/day) was co-administered with ISO (or

783   vehicle (PBS, 0.5mM ascorbic acid).

784   (D) EF of neonatal rats treated with vehicle (Control), ISO, sFRP1 and ISO+sFRP1.

785   (E) LV vol(s) of neonatal rats treated with vehicle (Control), ISO, sFRP1 and

786   ISO+sFRP1.

787   (F) LVID(s) of neonatal rats treated with vehicle (Control), ISO, sFRP1 and

788   ISO+sFRP1.

789   (G) LVAW(s) of neonatal rats treated with vehicle (Control), ISO, sFRP1 and

790   ISO+sFRP1.

(H) LVPW(s) of neonatal rats treated with vehicle (Control), ISO, sFRP1 and

ISO+sFRP1.

Control n = 20, ISO n = 9, sFRP1 n = 9, ISO+sFRP1 n=19. Only significant p-

values are notated in the Figure.

Only significant P values ($p < 0.05$) are notated in the Figure. Fitting a mixed

model, Tukey's multiple comparisons test was used for multiple comparison.

Unpaired t-test was used for two-group analysis. Error bar denotes mean± SEM.

NRVMs, neonatal rat ventricular myocytes; FGP, fetal gene program; ISO,

Isoproterenol; sFRP1, secreted frizzled protein 1; EF, ejection fraction; LV vol(s),

Left ventricular volume in systole; LVID. Left ventricular internal diameter in

systole; LVAW(s), left ventricular anterior wall in systole; LVPW (s), left

ventricular posterior wall in systole.

Figure 2. Cardiac stiffness is increased in pediatric DCM hearts and ISO+sFRP1 rats.

(A) Levels of sFRP1 mRNA in left ventricle (LV) tissue of ISO+sFRP1-treated rats

compared to controls. Gene expression was measured by RT-qPCR and

normalized to 18S. n = 12/group. Data are presented as a relative fold change to

NF controls; all data are log2 transformed.

(B) Levels of sFRP1 in serum from ISO+sFRP1 rats compared to controls. Serum

levels were measured by ELISA. Control n = 3, ISO+sFRP1 n = 5. ELISA,

Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay.

(C-E) Elasticity/stiffness (Young's modulus) in rats treated with ISO+sFRP1 (D)

compared to controls (C). Quantification is shown in (E). n =3 per group.

(F-H) Elasticity/stiffness (Young's modulus) in explanted pediatric DCM hearts (G)

compared to non-failing controls (F). Quantification is shown in (H). NF n =3,

DCM n =4.

Unpaired 2-tailed t-test was used in all analyses. Only Significant p-values

(p<0.05) are notated in the Figure. Error bar denotes mean ± SEM. NF, non-

failing; DCM, dilated cardiomyopathy

A

C Top 10 Dysregulated Reactome Canonical
Pathways using upregulated genes

D Top 10 Dysregulated Hallmark Canonical
Pathways using all DEGs

E

Comparison of genes dysregulated in LV of pediatric DCM and
rats treated with ISO+sFRP1

- Human DCM
- Common genes
- Rat model of disease

F

Comparison of genes dysregulated in NRVMs treated
with pediatric DCM serum and in rats treated with
ISO+sFRP1.

- Human DCM serum
- Common genes
- Rat model of disease

G Top 10 Dysregulated Reactome Canonical
Pathways using shared upregulated genes

Figure 3. Notch and WNT signaling are predicted to be altered in ISO+sFRP1 rats and

in pediatric DCM hearts.

(A) Schematic of the experimental plan and bulk RNA-sequencing.

(B) Heatmap representing unsupervised hierarchical clustering of the top 50

significantly differentially expressed genes (DEGs). n = 6/group; Welch's t test p

< 0.05.

(C) Pathway analysis using the 113 upregulated genes in ISO+sFRP1 vs Control rats

using Reactome pathway analysis tool.

(D) Pathway analysis using all 286 differentially expressed genes in ISO+sFRP1 vs

Control rats using Hallmark pathway analysis tool.

(E) Venn diagram representation of overlapping genes altered in pediatric DCM left

ventricle (LV) tissue compared to non-failing controls, and in LV tissue from

ISO+sFRP1-treated rats compared to controls.

(F) Venn diagram representation of overlapping genes altered in pediatric DCM

serum-treated NRVMs compared to cells treated with serum from age-matched

non-failing controls, and in LV tissue from ISO+sFRP1-treated rats compared to

controls.

(G) Pathway analysis using the upregulated genes shared in serum-treated NRVMs

and LV tissue of ISO+sFRP1-treated rats identified by Reactome pathway

analysis tool.

DCM, dilated cardiomyopathy; ISO-Isoproterenol, sFRP1- secreted frizzled

protein 1; NRVMs, neonatal rat ventricular myocytes; LV, left ventricle.

Figure 4. Single-nuclei RNA sequencing (snRNA-seq) identifies activation of Notch and

β-catenin signaling in response to ISO+sFPR1.

(A) Representative UMAP plot from single-nuclei RNA sequencing of LV tissue from

850   Controls, ISO-, sFRP1- or ISO+sFRP1-treated rats, n = 3/group. A total of 9214

851   nuclei in control, 11588 nuclei in ISO-, 13758 nuclei in sFRP1-, and 11127 in

852   ISO+sFRP1-treated rats were identified after cells were pooled. 26 distinct cell

853   clusters were identified including 8 CMs and 5 FBs.

854   (B) Graphical representation of the percent cell type distribution in vehicle-treated

855   control rats.

856   (C) Graphical representation of the percent cell type distribution in ISO+sFRP1 rats.

857   (D) Graphical representation of the percent ventricular cardiomyocyte sub-clusters in

858   vehicle-treated control rats and ISO+sFRP1.

859   (E) Reactome pathway analysis using upregulated genes in Ventricular

860   cardiomyocyte sub-cluster 2 of ISO+sFRP1 vs Control rats.

861   (F) Enrichr analysis identifies transcription factors predicted to control expression of

862   upregulated genes in ventricular cardiomyocyte sub-cluster 2.

863   (G) Reactome pathways analysis using upregulated genes in ventricular

864   cardiomyocyte sub-cluster 6 of ISO+sFRP1 vs Control rats.

865   (H) Enrichr analysis identifies transcription factors predicted to control expression of

866   upregulated genes in ventricular cardiomyocyte sub-cluster 6.

867   (I) ClinVar database analysis of upregulated genes in the ventricular cardiomyocyte

868   cluster.

869   Clusters were annotated into major cell populations, and the ventricular

870   cardiomyocyte cluster was sub-clustered into eight different sub-clusters using R

statistical software. Differentially expressed genes for each cluster were calculated

with the FindAllMarkers function. UMAP: uniform manifold approximation and

projection, CM: cardiomyocytes; FB: fibroblast; NK: Natural Killer cells; B/T: B cells

and T cells

Figure 5. Levels of NICD are increased in nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions in *vivo*, *in*

vitro and in explanted human DCM hearts.

(A-D) Western blot showing increased protein levels of NICD in the cytoplasm (A)

and nuclear fractions (C) of NF vs DCM human LV tissue. (B) and (D) represent

quantification of (A) and (C) respectively. Cytoplasmic n=6/group, Nuclear

n=7/group.

(E-H) Western blot showing increased protein levels of NICD in the cytoplasm (E)

and nuclear fractions (G) of ISO+sFRP1 vs vehicle-treated control rat LV tissue.

(F) and (H) represent the quantification of (E) and (G) respectively. Cytoplasmic

n=6/group, Nuclear n=7/group.

(I-L) Western blot showing the increased protein levels of NICD in the cytoplasm (I)

and nuclear fractions (K) of ISO+sFRP1 vs vehicle-treated NRVMs. (J) and (L)

represent the quantification of (I) and (K) respectively. Cytoplasmic n = 4

independent NRVM preps, nuclear n = 5 independent NRVM preps. NICD. Notch

Intracellular domain, NRVMs, neonatal rat ventricular myocytes.

(M) RT-qPCR of Notch1 and Hey1 gene expression in ISO+sFRP1 rat LV tissue

compared to Control. Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data are

presented as a relative fold change to Controls. n=8/group.

(N) RT-qPCR of Notch target genes in NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control) and

ISO+sFRP1. Expression of Notch1, Hey1, HEY2, HES1 and HEYL genes. Gene

expression was normalized to 18S, and data are presented as a relative fold

change to Controls. n = 6 independent NRVM preps/group. NF, non-failing; DCM,

dilated cardiomyopathy; NICD, Notch Intracellular domain. Unpaired 2-tailed t

test was used in analysis. P-values are notated in each graph.

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Figure 6. Levels of β-catenin are increased in nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions *in vivo*,

in vitro and in explanted human DCM hearts.

(A-D) Western blot showing increased protein levels of β-catenin in the cytoplasm

(A) and nuclear fractions (C) of NF and DCM explanted human LV tissue. (B) and

(D) represent the quantification of (A) and (C) respectively. NF, non-failing; DCM,

dilated cardiomyopathy; cytoplasmic n=3/group, nuclear n=7/group.

(E-H) Western blot showing increased protein levels of β-catenin in the cytoplasm

(E) and nuclear fractions (G) of ISO+sFRP1 vs vehicle-treated control rat LV

tissue. (F) and (H) represent the quantification of (E) and (G) respectively.

Cytoplasmic n=3/group, nuclear, n=7/group.

(I-L) Western blot showing increased protein levels of β-catenin in the cytoplasm (I)

and nuclear fractions (K) of ISO+sFRP1 vs vehicle-treated NRVMs. (J) and (L)

represent the quantification of (I) and (K) respectively. Cytoplasmic and nuclear

fractions from n=4 independent NRVM preps.

(M) RT-qPCR of CTNNB1 gene expression in ISO+sFRP1-treated rat LV tissue

compared to Control. Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data are

presented as a relative fold change to Controls. n=7/group

(N) RT-qPCR of CTNNB1 gene expression in NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control)

or ISO+sFRP1. Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data are presented

as a relative fold change to Controls. n=8 independent NRVM preps/group

NRVMs, neonatal rat ventricular myocytes. Unpaired 2-tailed t test was used in

analysis. p-values are notated in each graph.

A

B

C **D** **E** **F**

Figure 7. β-catenin contributes to Notch activation, and inhibiting β-catenin prevents

pathological remodeling in ISO+sFRP1-treated cells.

(A) RT-qPCR of Notch target gene expression in NRVMs transfected with scrambled

control siRNA (scr) or siCTNNB1, and treated with vehicle (Control) or ISO+sFRP1.

Expression of *Hey1, HEY2, HES1* and *HEYL* genes. Gene expression was

normalized to 18S, and data are presented as a relative fold change to Controls.

n=6 independent NRVM preps/group

(B) RT-qPCR of FGP gene expression in NRVMs transfected with scrambled control

siRNA (scr) or siCTNNB1 and treated with vehicle (Control) or ISO+sFRP1.

Expression of *NPPA, NPPB,* and ratio of *MYH6* to *MYH7*. Gene expression was

normalized to 18S, and data are presented as a relative fold change to Controls.

n=4 independent NRVM preps/group

(C-F) Western blot showing reduced protein levels of NICD in the cytoplasm and

nuclear fractions (E) of NRVMs treated with ISO+sFRP1 and transfected with si-

CTNNB1 when compared to ISO+sFRP1-treated cells. (D) and (F) represent the

quantification of (C) and (E) respectively. n=3 independent NRVM preps/group. NICD,

Notch Intracellular domain, NRVMs, neonatal rat ventricular myocytes

Figure 8. Notch contributes to β-catenin activation, and inhibiting Notch prevents

pathological remodeling and cardiac dysfunction.

(A) RT-qPCR of Notch target gene expression (*HEY1, HEY2, HES1* and *HEYL)* in

NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control), ISO+sFRP1, DAPT (20μM) or

ISO+sFRP1+DAPT. Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data are

presented as a relative fold change to Controls. *n* = 7 independent NRVM

preps/group

(B) RT-qPCR of FGP in NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control), ISO+sFRP1, DAPT

(20μM) or ISO+sFRP1+DAPT. Gene expression was normalized to 18S, and data

are presented as a relative fold change to Controls. *n* = 5 independent NRVM

preps/group

(C) Western blot showing the reduced protein levels of β-catenin in the cytoplasm and

nuclear fractions (E) of ISO+sFRP1+DAPT or ISO+sFRP1-treated NRVMs. (D) and

(F) represent the quantification of (C) and (E) respectively. *P*-values are notated in

each graph. *n* = 4 independent NRVM preps/group. NRVM, neonatal rat ventricular

myocytes

(G) RT-qPCR of CTNNB1 gene expression in NRVMs treated with vehicle (Control),

ISO+sFRP1, DAPT (20μM) and ISO+Sfrp1+DAPT. Gene expression was

normalized to 18S, and data are presented as a relative fold change to Controls.

Tukey's multiple comparisons test was used for all data sets. Control, n = 4,

ISO+sFRP1 n = 8, DAPT n = 4 and ISO+sFRP1+DAPT n = 7

(H) EF, LV vol(s) and LVID(s) of neonatal rats treated with Control, ISO+sFRP1 and

DAPT ISO+sFRP1. Control n=13, ISO+sFRP1 n=13. DAPT+ISO+sFRP1 n=6.

970  EF: ejection fraction; LV vol(s), Left ventricular volume in systole; LVID. Left

971  ventricular internal diameter in systole. Tukey's multiple comparisons test was

972  used for all data sets. P-values are notated in the graph.

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