

1 **Full Title: Transforming growth factor-beta signaling via ALK1 and ALK5 regulates distinct**  
2 **functional pathways in vein graft intimal hyperplasia**

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9 **Short title:** TGF $\beta$  activates distinct receptor pathways in vein grafts

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## Abstract

**Rationale:** Transforming growth factor-beta (TGF $\beta$ ) is tightly regulated at multiple levels, with regulation at the receptor level now recognized as a key determinant of the cellular response to this pleiotropic cytokine. TGF $\beta$  promotes saphenous vein graft neointima formation after coronary artery bypass graft (CABG) surgery, inducing smooth muscle cell (SMC) hyperplasia and fibrosis by signaling via activin receptor-like kinase 5(ALK5). However, the role of the alternate TGF $\beta$  receptor ALK1 remains completely unknown.

**Objective:** To define the receptor pathways activated by TGF $\beta$  in SMCs and their mechanistic importance during CABG neointima formation.

**Methods and results:** Radioligand co-IP assays revealed direct interactions between TGF $\beta$ , ALK5 and ALK1 in primary saphenous vein graft SMC (HSVSMC) from patients undergoing CABG. Knockdown and pharmacological inhibition of ALK5 or ALK1 in HSVSMC significantly attenuated TGF $\beta$ -induced phosphorylation of receptor-regulated (R)-Smads 2/3 and 1/5, respectively. Microarray profiling followed by qRT-PCR validation showed that TGF $\beta$  induced distinct transcriptional networks downstream of ALK5 or ALK1, associated with HSVSMC contractility and migration, respectively and confirmed using migration assays as well as qRT-PCR and western blot assays of contractile SMC markers. scRNAseq analysis of TGF $\beta$ -treated HSVSMC identified distinct subgroups of cells showing ALK5 or ALK1 transcriptional responses, while RNA velocity analyses indicated divergence in differentiation towards ALK5 or ALK1-dominant lineages. ALK1, ALK5 and their downstream effectors pSmad1/5 and pSmad2/3 were localized to  $\alpha$ SMA<sup>+</sup> neointimal SMCs in remodelled mouse vein grafts. Pharmacological inhibition or genetic ablation of Smad1/5 substantially reducing neointima formation following acute vascular injury. Notably, expression and activation of ALK1, ALK5 and their respective downstream R-Smads was already evident in hyperplastic saphenous veins prior to grafting.

**Conclusions:** Whilst canonical TGF $\beta$  signaling via ALK5 promotes a contractile HSVSMC phenotype, transactivation of ALK1 by TGF $\beta$  induces neointima formation by driving cell migration. Restoring the balance between ALK1 and ALK5 in HSVSMC may represent a novel therapeutic strategy for vein graft failure.

## 55 Introduction

56 Coronary artery bypass grafting (CABG) is a mainstay in the treatment of coronary artery disease  
57 (CAD), with over 400,000 CABG surgeries performed per annum in the United States alone [1]. However,  
58 fewer than 60% of saphenous vein grafts (SVG) remain patent in the long-term (>10yrs) due to the formation  
59 of a hyperplastic, occlusive neointima within the grafted vessel [2]. Smooth muscle cell (SMC) hyperplasia  
60 and matrix biosynthesis are key drivers of vein graft intimal hyperplasia (IH), which is a fertile substrate for  
61 the accelerated development of rupture-prone atherosclerotic plaques [3, 4]. SMC hyperplasia has therefore  
62 been identified as an important target for therapeutic interventions aimed at improving outcomes after CABG  
63 surgery [5].

64 The pleiotropic cytokine transforming growth factor-beta ( $TGF\beta$ 1) is highly expressed in re-stenotic  
65 vessels from CAD patients and is acutely upregulated following vein graft implantation in animal models of  
66 vein graft disease, inducing constrictive and fibrotic vascular remodelling [6-8]. However, to date most studies  
67 investigating the role of  $TGF\beta$  in IH have used global approaches to target  $TGF\beta$ , or have focused on the  
68 canonical  $TGF\beta$  type I receptor (also termed activin receptor-like kinase 5/ALK5), Smad2/3-mediated  
69 pathway.  $TGF\beta$  elicits a diverse range of cellular responses by activating different signaling pathways, and in  
70 certain cell types can also signal via a distinct type I receptor, activin receptor-like kinase 1(ALK1), activating  
71 a separate set of receptor-regulated (R)-Smad proteins (Smad1/5) that can antagonize ALK5 signaling [9].  
72 Interestingly, a recent study showed that vascular injury-induced upregulation of KLF6 (Kruppel-like growth  
73 factor 6) in endothelial cells (ECs) was associated with increased expression of ALK1 in neighboring SMC  
74 [10]. Moreover, mutations in exon 10 of the *ACVRL1* gene (encodes ALK1) are associated with pulmonary  
75 arterial hypertension, a fatal condition that is characterized by the development of IH within the small  
76 pulmonary arteries [11]. Although this points to a potentially relevant role for ALK1 in SMC during  
77 neointima formation, studies have so far failed to show whether  $TGF\beta$  is able to signal via ALK1 in human  
78 SMCs. The role of SMC ALK1 during the development of vein graft IH has also yet to be defined. Here we  
79 show that whilst  $TGF\beta$  signaling via ALK5 is associated with SMC contractility and fibrosis, activation of  
80 ALK1 promotes neointima formation by inducing a distinct transcriptional network that drives SMC  
81 migration, identifying this pathway as a potential therapeutic target in the setting of vein graft failure (VGF).

## Results

### *TGFβ1 signals through ALK1 in saphenous vein SMCs*

The expression pattern and abundance of TGFβ receptors varies substantially between cell types, influencing the cellular response to TGFβ stimulation. We therefore set out to characterize the expression and activation of TGFβ receptors in SMC outgrowth cultures (HSVSMC) from saphenous vein segments obtained from patients undergoing CABG surgery. *ALK1*, *ALK5*, *TβR2* (TGFβ type II receptor) and the accessory TGFβ receptors endoglin (*ENG*) and betaglycan (*TβR3*) were widely expressed in HSVSMC at the RNA level (n=7-12 patients, Fig.1A). Affinity labeling and crosslinking studies using I<sup>125</sup>TGFβ indicated binding of TGFβ to all these receptors in HSVSMC, with particularly strong binding to ALK5, ENG and TβRIII/ TβR3 (Fig.1B). Activation of ALK receptors induces R-Smad phosphorylation, initiating a cascade of receptor-specific downstream events that culminate in the translocation of phosphorylated R-Smad proteins to the nucleus [12]. Immunoblotting revealed that treatment with even low doses of TGFβ (0.1ng/mL) could induce a rapid increase in pSmad1/5 as well as pSmad2 (Fig.1C, upper [pSmad2] and lower [pSmad1/5] panels), while immunocytochemistry confirmed the nuclear localization of both pSmad1/5 and pSmad2/3 signaling complexes following stimulation of HSVSMC with TGFβ (Fig.1D). QRT-PCR evaluation of the prototypical ALK1 and ALK5 gene targets inhibitor of differentiation-1 (*ID1*; ALK1/pSmad1/5 target) and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (*PAI1/SERPINE1*; ALK5/pSmad2/3 target) was consistent with activation of both pathways by TGFβ at the transcriptional level (Fig.1E and 1F). Importantly, pharmacological inhibition (using the ALK1 kinase inhibitor KO2288/KO, or the ALK5 kinase inhibitor SB525334/SB; Supplemental Fig.1A) or dsiRNA-mediated knockdown of ALK1 or ALK5 (Supplemental Fig.1B) in TGFβ-stimulated HSVSMC reduced the expression of pSmad1/5 and pSmad2, respectively, confirming that TGFβ can bind to both ALK1 and ALK5 in HSVSMC, activating separate Smad-mediated signaling pathways.

### *TGFβ1 regulates distinct subsets of pro-migratory or contractile genes by signaling via ALK1 and ALK5*

Having shown that stimulation of HSVSMC with TGFβ induces the rapid activation of both ALK1 and ALK5 pathways, we next aimed to evaluate the effect of ALK1 and ALK5 signaling at the transcriptional level, by performing microarray analysis of HSVSMC stimulated with TGFβ in the presence or absence of pharmacological ALK1 or ALK5 inhibitors (KO2288/KO or SB525334/SB respectively, n=3 patients, venn

111 diagram of 5% FDR [false discovery rate] significant probesets shown in Supplemental Fig.2). Interestingly,  
112 Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) of Limma (linear models for microarray data) significant probes ( $p < 0.05$ )  
113 showed that there was little overlap in the molecular and cellular functions and top canonical pathways  
114 regulated by TGF $\beta$  signaling via ALK5 or ALK1 (Fig.2A and 2C respectively). Top downregulated genes  
115 following ALK5 inhibition included many key mediators of fibrosis, including connective tissue growth factor  
116 (*CTGF*) and fibroblast growth factor-2 (*FGF2*) (Supplemental Fig.3A and B; qRT-PCR validation of *CTGF*,  
117 *FGF2* and other top ALK5 targets shown in Fig.2B), in line with previous studies indicating that ALK5 is  
118 responsible for driving the pro-fibrotic actions of TGF $\beta$  [13]. Importantly, several genes associated with the  
119 contractile SMC phenotype were also highlighted in our array analyses, and qRT-PCR validation in HSVSMC  
120 from a further three CABG patients confirmed the ALK5-specific regulation of alpha-smooth muscle actin  
121 (*ACTA2*), calponin (*CNN1*), transgelin (*TAGLN*) and smooth muscle myosin heavy chain 11 (*MYH11*) (Figure  
122 2E). S20 myosin light chain subunit phosphorylation (pS20-MLC), a key regulatory event driving SMC  
123 contraction, was also reduced following ALK5 inhibitor treatment in TGF $\beta$ -stimulated HSVSMCs (Fig.2F).  
124 To corroborate these findings, we employed an established contractile SMC differentiation protocol [14].  
125 Western immunoblot analysis confirmed a substantial induction of ACTA2, CNN1 and transgelin (SM22 $\alpha$ )  
126 (Supplemental Fig.4A), pS20-MLC and total MLC (tMLC; Supplemental Fig.4B) in HSVSMC cultured in  
127 smooth muscle differentiation medium (SMDS) compared to 15% FCS SMC growth medium, peaking at the  
128 6 day timepoint. Pharmacological inhibition of ALK5, but not ALK1, significantly downregulated the mRNA  
129 expression of *ACTA2* and *CNN1* in SMDS-treated cells at day 6 ( $p < 0.01$ , Supplemental Fig.4C and D), further  
130 confirming the importance of the ALK5 receptor pathway in the regulation of SMC contractility.

131 Top genes identified in our microarray analysis as dysregulated following ALK1 inhibition were also  
132 confirmed by qRT-PCR validation (Fig.2D,  $p < 0.05$  [*FADS1*, *HIF0*, *PPP1R18* and *SCARA3*]) and included  
133 regulators of cholesterol transport and biosynthesis (Supplemental Fig.3; tables C and D). Intriguingly,  
134 cholesterol biosynthesis and lipid metabolism were highlighted as two functional pathways regulated by  
135 TGF $\beta$  via ALK1, suggesting that ALK1 in SMC may play a similar role in promoting lipid uptake as recently  
136 observed in ECs [15]. Importantly, IPA analysis highlighted ‘cellular movement’ as the top cellular function  
137 targeted at the transcriptional level following ALK1 inhibition (Fig.2C, top table). In agreement with this  
138 observation, pharmacological inhibition of ALK1 in wound healing assays significantly attenuated TGF $\beta$ -

139 mediated HSVSMC migration (Fig.2F, KO2288/KO group;  $p < 0.01$ ,  $n = 7$  patients) whereas inhibition of ALK5  
140 led to a slight increase in migration (Fig.2F, SB525334/SB group;  $p = 0.11$ ). Taken together, these data indicate  
141 that TGF $\beta$  activates two divergent receptor signaling pathways in HSVSMC, inducing migration by activating  
142 a specific sub-set of target genes downstream of ALK1 whilst promoting SMC fibrosis and contractility by  
143 signaling via ALK5.

#### 144 ***scRNA-seq analysis identifies nonoverlapping ALK5- and ALK1-dominant HSVSMC subgroups***

145 Having identified divergent receptor pathways in HSVSMCs using bulk cell approaches including western  
146 blotting, microarray and qPCR analysis, we next aimed to evaluate the heterogeneity of HSVSMC  
147 transcriptional responses to TGF $\beta$  stimulation using scRNA-seq. Quiesced HSVSMC were stimulated with  
148 TGF $\beta$ 1 for 24 hours prior to harvesting for scRNA-seq using the droplet-based 10x Chromium platform.  
149 5,245 untreated cells and 7,073 TGF $\beta$ -treated cells from the same patient were analyzed, with approximately  
150 3000 genes detected per cell in both samples (Supplemental Fig.5). In line with our previous observations,  
151 TGF $\beta$ -treated cells showed substantially higher expression of well-established TGF $\beta$  response genes including  
152 *SERPINE1* and *CTGF* (connective tissue growth factor), as well as ALK1 transcriptional targets such as *ID3*  
153 (inhibitor of differentiation 3) and *PLAUR* (plasminogen activator) (Fig.3A, L-R, gene names indicated above  
154 plots) (Nurgazieva et al, 2014). We observed an uneven distribution of *SERPINE1* and *PLAUR* expression in  
155 particular. To further evaluate this heterogeneous expression pattern, cells were projected into 2-dimensional  
156 space and unsupervised clustering using the Louvain algorithm was performed, identifying 11 sub-groupings  
157 within the TGF $\beta$ -treated group (sample 2; Fig.3B; 30 most differentially expressed genes in each subgroup  
158 shown in Supplemental Fig. 5). Between these sub-groups, *SERPINE1* was most highly expressed in  
159 subgroup 4; conversely, this subgroup showed the lowest expression of *PLAUR* (Fig.3C). Instead, *PLAUR*  
160 showed high expression in subgroup 0, which was amongst the lowest-expressing subgroups for *SERPINE1*  
161 expression and located at the opposite end of the UMAP Louvain plot (Fig.3C, upper and lower panels). A  
162 similar pattern of expression was also observed for *CTGF* and *ID3* (Fig. 3C, upper and lower panels). To  
163 determine whether these subgroups represented more ALK5- or ALK1- responsive cell populations, we  
164 evaluated the expression of ALK5- and ALK1 signature gene sets, chosen based on their strong dysregulation  
165 in our microarray analysis of HSVSMC and including well-established ALK5 & ALK1 target genes  
166 (signature gene sets listed in Supplemental Information, Table 4). UMAP visualization showed an opposing

167 expression pattern for the two transcriptional signatures (Fig.3D and Fig.3F). Gene ontology analysis of the  
168 100 most differentially expressed genes (top 30 most differentially-expressed genes shown in Supplemental  
169 Fig. 6) in the ALK5-dominant subgroup showed specific enrichment of terms associated with endoplasmic  
170 reticulum stress, chondroblast differentiation, regulation of smooth muscle cell migration & proliferation  
171 (Supplemental Fig.7A, FDR  $p < 0.05$ ). Interestingly, ‘negative regulation of wound healing’ was identified as  
172 an enriched term, in line with our observation of enhanced HSVSMC migration following pharmacological  
173 inhibition of ALK5 (Fig.2F). Conversely, the ALK1-dominant group (subgroup 0) showed enrichment of  
174 terms associated with senescence, positive regulation of cell aging and vasculogenesis (Supplemental Fig.7B,  
175 FDR  $p < 0.05$ ). Next, we used the scvelo RNA velocity toolkit to analyze the dynamic change in the  
176 transcriptional state of TGF $\beta$ -treated HSVSMC. Scvelo is a toolkit that can be used to model transcript  
177 dynamics in scRNA-seq datasets, by statistical modeling of RNA processing and decay using nascent  
178 transcript information present in the scRNA-seq data. Interestingly, RNA velocity analysis of TGF $\beta$ -treated  
179 HSVSMCs suggested that treated cells were differentiating along separate lineages, with the ALK5-dominant  
180 and ALK1-dominant subgroups at opposite poles of the low-dimensional embedding produced with UMAP as  
181 shown in Fig.4B (RNA velocity plot for untreated cells shown in Fig.4A).

182 Having observed differences in the directionality of RNA velocity vectors between opposite poles of the  
183 UMAP plot for TGF $\beta$ -treated cells (Fig.4B), we next aimed to analyze how consistent the directionality of  
184 velocity vectors was, not only in the two-dimensional embedding visualized with UMAP plots, but also in the  
185 original velocity space. To this end, we devised a simple method based on linear algebra, whereby we  
186 decompose the velocity vector for each cell into two components: the directional velocity component  
187 (measured as flowing away from the cluster centre) and the neutral velocity component (measured as the  
188 velocity component minus directional velocity component). We observed that TGF $\beta$ -treated HSVSMC  
189 displayed lower neutral velocity than control, untreated HSVSMC, suggestive of higher directional velocity  
190 and, by extension, increased differentiation (Fig.4C).

### 191 ***Genetic ablation or pharmacological inhibition of pSmad1/5 attenuates neointima formation in vivo***

192 Previous studies in animal models of vascular injury have convincingly shown that ALK5-mediated  
193 TGF $\beta$  signaling promotes endothelial to mesenchymal transition [16], myofibroblast conversion [17] and  
194 extracellular matrix deposition [18]. However, no studies to date have addressed the role of ALK1 signaling



195 during neointima formation. First, to identify whether ALK1-mediated TGF $\beta$  signaling in SMC might  
196 contribute to neointima formation *in vivo*, we used immunostaining to evaluate the localization of TGF $\beta$   
197 signaling pathway components within SMC in an inter-positional cuff mouse model of vein graft disease [19].  
198 Confocal microscopy revealed that TGF $\beta$ 1, ALK5 and ALK1 were expressed in  $\alpha$ SMA<sup>+</sup> intimal SMCs 28  
199 days following murine vein graft implantation (Fig.5A). Interestingly, although nuclear localization of both  
200 pSmad2/3 and pSmad1/5 was observed in  $\alpha$ SMA<sup>+</sup> intimal SMCs in remodelled vein graft tissue at the 28-day  
201 timepoint, only pSmad2/3 nuclear localization was present in native, un-grafted vena cava (Fig.5B). Vein  
202 graft neointima formation is initiated by the acute, reperfusion injury-mediated activation of the graft  
203 endothelium, which is followed by a period of SMC and extracellular matrix expansion [5]. As the  
204 contribution of different cell types to neointima formation varies widely depending on the experimental model  
205 used [20] and no single model can fully recapitulate human vein graft disease, we chose to also evaluate two  
206 models of arterial injury. Similar to our findings in murine vein grafts, we observed TGF $\beta$ 1, ALK5 and ALK1  
207 in  $\alpha$ SMA<sup>+</sup> intimal SMCs in wire-injured or ligated mouse carotid arteries (Supplemental Fig.8A and 8C) with  
208 nuclear localization of pSmad1/5 within SMC only evident in injured vessels (Supplemental Fig.8B and 8D).  
209 These data confirm the expression of ALK1 in intimal SMC and indicate that Smad1/5 is consistently  
210 activated in SMC during neointima formation *in vivo*.

211 We next aimed to assess the contribution of pSmad1/5 signaling in SMCs to neointima formation by  
212 inducing acute vascular injury in male c57bl6/J mice treated with 10mg<sup>kg</sup><sup>-1</sup> LDN193189, which inhibits  
213 Smad1/5 phosphorylation downstream of ALK1/ALK2 (IC<sub>50</sub> ALK1 = 0.8nM, IC<sub>50</sub> ALK2 = 0.8nM; [21, 22])  
214 and Smad1<sup>+/-</sup> mice or wild-type littermate controls. A substantial neointima was observed in injured carotid  
215 arteries from saline-treated c57bl6/J mice and Smad1<sup>+/+</sup> mice (Fig.3D & 3F; 2.02 $\pm$ 0.5 $\times$ 10<sup>4</sup> and 1.8 $\pm$ 0.2 $\times$ 10<sup>4</sup>  
216  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup>, respectively, Supplemental Fig.9A & 9B). However, neointima formation was substantially reduced in  
217 LDN193189-treated mice compared to saline-treated controls (mean intima:media ratio/IMR = 0.26 $\pm$ 0.01 vs  
218 0.96 $\pm$ 0.18, Fig.5C; p<0.001) and in Smad1<sup>+/-</sup> mice compared to wild-type siblings (mean IMR = 0.87 $\pm$ 0.07 vs  
219 1.1 $\pm$ 0.05, Fig.5E; p<0.05), indicating that activation of Smad1/5 following acute vascular injury promotes  
220 intimal hyperplasia.

221 ***ALK1 and associated TGF $\beta$  signaling components are widely expressed in hyperplastic pre-implantation***  
222 ***saphenous vein grafts***

223 Having identified a pathological, pro-migratory role for ALK1/Smad1/5 through our *in vitro* and *in*  
224 *vivo* studies, we next sought to evaluate the expression of ALK1 and other components of the TGF $\beta$  signaling  
225 pathway in intact pre-implantation saphenous vein (SV) segments from CABG patients. Surprisingly,  
226 morphometric analyses revealed the presence of pre-existing intimal thickening (defined as an IMR >0.15) in  
227 over 88% of SV segments analyzed (Fig.6A & 6B; n=75, IMR range 0.067-1.37). The pathogenesis of vein  
228 graft IH is associated with the acquisition of a proliferative, synthetic phenotype by medial SMC,  
229 characterised by the downregulation of mature, contractile SMC proteins such as CNN1 and SMMHC [23].  
230 Accordingly, confocal microscopy of immunostained SV sections with elevated IMR (>0.6) showed  
231 decreased CNN and SMMHC (Fig.6C; data not shown for SMMHC) but increased PCNA (proliferating cell  
232 nuclear antigen; Fig.8D) in the SV neointima compared to the media (n=8-10). qRT-PCR evaluation of laser-  
233 capture micro-dissected segments of SV neointima and media provided quantitative confirmation that genes  
234 associated with SMC contractility were downregulated in intimal segments, while genes associated with cell  
235 cycle progression were concordantly upregulated (Supplemental Fig.10B, n=8). Together, these confirm the  
236 presence of IH in pre-implantation SV segments from our cohort of CABG patients.

237 Finally, to identify whether ALK1 signaling in SMC might contribute to vein graft IH we evaluated  
238 the localization of TGF $\beta$  signaling pathway components within SV samples showing substantial pre-existing  
239 neointima formation (IMR>0.6; n=7-15). Immunostaining revealed that TGF $\beta$ 1, T $\beta$ R2, ALK5 and ALK1  
240 were all highly expressed in  $\alpha$ SMA+ intimal SMCs (Fig.6E), while dual staining for T $\beta$ R2 and ALK5 or  
241 ALK1 showed strong colocalization between ALK1/ALK5 and T $\beta$ R2(Fig.6F). Both pSmad2/3 and pSmad1/5  
242 were localized to the nuclei of intimal SMCs, which also showed elevated expression of the transcriptional  
243 targets *CTGF* and *IDI1* (Fig.6E). Furthermore, gene expression analysis of laser-capture microdissected SV  
244 segments confirmed the expression of the top transcriptional targets identified in our HSVSMC microarray  
245 analyses (*CTGF*, *FGF2*, *SCARA3* and *FADS1*; Supplemental Fig.11). Interestingly, we also observed  
246 abundant nuclear-localized pSmad2/3 and pSmad1/5 in  $\alpha$ SMA+ intimal SMCs in three failed SVG specimens  
247 obtained from patients undergoing cardiac transplantation (Supplemental Fig.12A & 12B). Together, these  
248 data indicate that ALK1 expression in SMC within pre-implantation SV tissue from CABG patients may be  
249 clinically relevant to the pathogenesis of vein graft neointima formation and, ultimately, failure.

## 250 Discussion

251 Although previous studies have extensively characterized the pro-fibrotic role of ALK5 in animal  
252 models of vascular injury [16-18], no studies to date have addressed the role of ALK1 signaling during  
253 neointima formation following CABG surgery. We report for the first time that ALK1 and its co-receptor  
254 endoglin, which can potentiate ALK1 signaling, are highly expressed in primary human vein graft SMCs from  
255 CABG patients (HSVSMC); we also show that TGF $\beta$  can bind both these receptors at the cell surface.  
256 Importantly, using ALK inhibitors and siRNA approaches we demonstrate that induction of Smad1/5  
257 phosphorylation by TGF $\beta$  in HSVSMC is mediated by ALK1, with canonical Smad2/3 phosphorylation  
258 occurring downstream of ALK5. The ability of TGF $\beta$  to signal via two different type I receptors was first  
259 identified in ECs, with early studies showing that activation of ALK1/pSmad1/5 by TGF $\beta$  induced EC  
260 proliferation and migration whereas activation of ALK5/pSmad2/3 antagonized these processes [28]. While  
261 our results contrast with previous studies in cultured human aortic SMCs, where phosphorylation of Smad1/5  
262 was shown to be primarily mediated by ALK5 [29], another group has recently demonstrated that TGF $\beta$ -  
263 induced Smad1/5 phosphorylation in new-born murine pulmonary artery SMCs involves ALK1 [30],  
264 suggesting that the ability of TGF $\beta$  to activate this signaling mechanism varies between SMC sub-types. This  
265 context-specificity is an established hallmark of TGF $\beta$  superfamily signaling and critically influences cellular  
266 responses to TGF $\beta$ ; moreover, studies show that type I receptors bind different ligands in different contexts,  
267 with ALK1 able to act downstream of bone morphogenetic protein-9 (BMP9) and BMP10 as well as TGF $\beta$   
268 [31, 32]. Interestingly, *Daly et al* [33] reported that heterotetrameric receptor complexes incorporating ALK5  
269 and ALK1 generate mixed pSmad complexes which have lower affinity for BMP response elements in  
270 canonical Smad1/5 target genes such as *IDI* and *ID3*. This has raised questions around the functional  
271 relevance of ALK1:TGF $\beta$  signaling. Whilst we cannot exclude the generation of mixed Smad complexes in  
272 our experiments, the nuclear localization of pSmad1/5 and sustained induction of *IDI* expression (and *ID3*;  
273 data not shown) following TGF $\beta$  stimulation clearly indicates that activation of ALK1 is functionally  
274 significant in HSVSMC.

275 Our qRT-PCR validated, whole genome expression profiling of HSVSMC provides further evidence that  
276 ALK1 and ALK5 are both key mediators of TGF $\beta$  signaling in vein graft SMCs, showing that TGF $\beta$  regulates  
277 distinct transcriptional pathways by signaling via these two receptors. Specifically, we observed that the

278 upregulation of SMC contractility genes by TGF $\beta$  was driven by ALK5, associated with enhanced pS20-MLC  
279 expression and corroborated using an established SMC contractile differentiation model. Interestingly, our  
280 scRNA-seq analyses suggested that treated cells were differentiating along separate lineages, with the ALK5-  
281 dominant and ALK1-dominant subgroup separated in the UMAP embedding space. Computational estimation  
282 of the directionality of RNA velocity vectors indicated reduced neutral velocity in TGF $\beta$ -treated HSVSMC  
283 compared to control, untreated HSVSMC, indicative of increased differentiation following TGF $\beta$  treatment.  
284 We would like to note however, that estimation of RNA velocity vectors is still an active area of research and  
285 our method of RNA vector decomposition would have to be tried on larger sample sizes before it can lead to  
286 any definitive biological conclusions.

287         Previous studies performed in SMCs of arterial origin have shown that activated Smad2/3 complexes  
288 interact with Smad binding elements in the  $\alpha$ SMA (*ACTA2*?), SM22 $\alpha$  (*TAGLN*) and SMMHC (*MYH11*)  
289 promoters [34]. Our findings therefore show that this transcriptional mechanism is highly conserved across  
290 venous and arterial beds, highlighting a fundamental role for ALK5 in the regulation of SMC contractility.  
291 We also found similarities between our ALK5 target gene dataset and those identified from previous  
292 microarray analyses performed in ECs, in which *CTGF* and collagen genes were shown to be specific targets  
293 of the ALK5 pathway. This suggests wider conservation of TGF $\beta$ :ALK5 gene targets across cell types [35,  
294 36]. Conversely, the ALK1-specific transcriptional targets we identified showed little overlap with known  
295 TGF $\beta$  or ALK1 target genes [36, 37], and included genes such as *SCARA3*, which encodes a scavenger  
296 receptor that promotes the uptake of modified lipoproteins and plays an important role in fatty streak  
297 development during atherogenesis [38]. This may be linked to differences in experimental approach: previous  
298 studies overexpressed a constitutively active form of ALK1 in ECs, whilst we employed a recently-developed  
299 pharmacological ALK1 inhibitor (K02288) to pinpoint TGF $\beta$ -specific targets downstream of ALK1 in CABG  
300 patient SMC. Alternatively, this may indicate that the response to ALK1 activation by TGF $\beta$  is more  
301 sensitive to cell context, varying according to the presence or absence of transcriptional coregulators.  
302 Interestingly, the pro-migratory transcription factors Sox4 and Runx1 (Runt-related transcription factor 1)  
303 ([39][40]), which can act as DNA binding co-factors for Smad1/Smad5, are upregulated by TGF $\beta$  in  
304 HSVSMCs (2.1- and 3-fold, respectively; data not shown); by integrating TGF $\beta$ :ALK1 signaling, co-  
305 regulators such as Sox4 and Runx1 may help promote HSVSMC migration. In support of this hypothesis, our

306 microarray analyses and wound healing assays identified a novel role for ALK1 in the regulation of HSVSMC  
307 migration. SMC migration is integral to vein graft neointima formation, during which proliferative medial  
308 SMCs move into the expanding intima. ALK1 expression and activation in HSVSMCs may therefore be a  
309 pathophysiological response to injury, promoting SMC migration and negative, inward vein graft remodeling.

310 In agreement with previous reports [10, 18] we found that TGF $\beta$ , ALK5 and ALK1 are expressed by  
311 neointimal SMCs in injured mouse carotid arteries and remodeled vein grafts. We also observed that  
312 pSmad2/3 and pSmad1/5 were localized to the nuclei of SMCs in mouse vein grafts, in correlation with the  
313 *Cooley et al* study on EndMT in VGF [41]. Interestingly, while ALK5 signaling was active in both non-  
314 injured and injured vessels, ALK1 signaling was only activated following vascular injury, evidenced by the  
315 absence of nuclear pSmad1/5 in uninjured vessels. Whilst BMPs can also activate Smad1/5 via ALK2, 3 and  
316 6, previous studies indicate that only ALK1 expression is upregulated in wire-injured arteries 28 days  
317 following injury [10]. Together with the substantially reduced neointima formation we observed in mice  
318 treated with the ALK1/2 inhibitor LDN193189 and in heterozygous null *Smad1* mice, these data indicate that  
319 activation of the ALK1/Smad1/5 pathway is involved in the acute phase response to vascular injury. The  
320 identity of the ligand(s) triggering Smad1/5 activation *in vivo* remains to be elucidated; although our *in vitro*  
321 work clearly demonstrates that TGF $\beta$  is an active ligand for ALK1 in HSVSMC, ALK1 also binds BMP9 and  
322 BMP10 with high affinity [42]. The role of alternate ALK1 ligands during neointima formation following  
323 acute vascular injury therefore requires further investigation. However, we were unable to detect BMPRII  
324 expression in injured mouse arteries following carotid ligation (data not shown), which suggests a role for  
325 TGF $\beta$ :ALK1 in the phosphorylation of Smad1/5 in SMCs during neointima formation after vascular injury.

326 To evaluate the clinical relevance of ALK1 expression in cultured HSVSMC, we performed detailed  
327 histological assessments of surplus pre-implantation SVG tissues from a cohort of 75 patients undergoing  
328 CABG surgery, reasoning that the presence of ALK1 in SMC within these samples may provide further  
329 evidence supporting a role for this pathway in vein graft neointima formation. We were surprised to observe  
330 that the vast majority of these vessels showed significant pre-existing IH, with IMRs measuring >0.15 in 88%  
331 of the vein graft segments analyzed. Interestingly, several studies including *ex vivo* organ culture experiments  
332 [43] and ultrasonographic studies of CABG grafts *in situ* [44, 45] indicate that pre-existing intimal thickening  
333 within SVG can act as a substrate for accelerated neointima formation following vein graft implantation and

334 increase the risk of failure. Follow-up studies of our cohort of CABG patients will be of value in determining  
335 the clinical impact of our histological observations. Of note, ALK1 was highly expressed in  $\alpha$ SMA+ intimal  
336 SMCs from the most hyperplastic vein graft segments (IMR>0.6), associated with reduced mature SMC  
337 marker expression and increased markers of proliferation. Although we cannot exclude the contribution of  
338 alternate ALK1 ligands, clinical studies of re-stenotic arteries clearly show, that TGF $\beta$  is acutely and  
339 chronically upregulated at vascular injury sites [reviewed in Bradshaw et al, 2018]. Together with our data  
340 showing localization of ALK1, T $\beta$ RII, pSmads and target genes to vein graft SMCs, this is strongly  
341 suggestive of a role for TGF $\beta$ :ALK1 in the development of vein graft IH.

342 In summary, the present study shows that TGF $\beta$  activates two distinct Smad-mediated signaling  
343 pathways downstream of ALK5 and ALK1 in vein graft SMC from CABG patients, inducing receptor-  
344 specific transcriptional networks associated with SMC contractility and migration, respectively. Smad1/5  
345 activation is identified as a pathological hallmark of the SMC response to acute vascular injury, promoting  
346 neointima formation and inward remodeling. Tipping the balance of TGF $\beta$  signaling away from ALK1 may  
347 represent a novel therapeutic strategy for vein graft disease, resulting in a more favorable, contractile SMC  
348 phenotype during vein graft remodeling after CABG surgery.

349 **Methods**

350 An expanded Methods section can be found in the supplemental materials.

351

352

353 **Author contributions**

354 ACB, AHB, SAN, MJH and PTD designed the studies. ACB, ELL, JTS, DJK, ASS and MT performed the  
355 experiments, CD and SEF provided clinical material for the study and NM provided Smad1<sup>+/-</sup> mice. ELL,  
356 JTS, MM, JmC and ACB analyzed the data. PH oversaw the 10X single cell assay and performed the initial  
357 CellRanger based analysis. AK and MP constructed the Python pipeline and performed bioinformatics  
358 analysis of scRNAseq data. ACB and ELL wrote the manuscript, which was edited by all authors.

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360



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366 Polyomics research facility at the University of Glasgow.

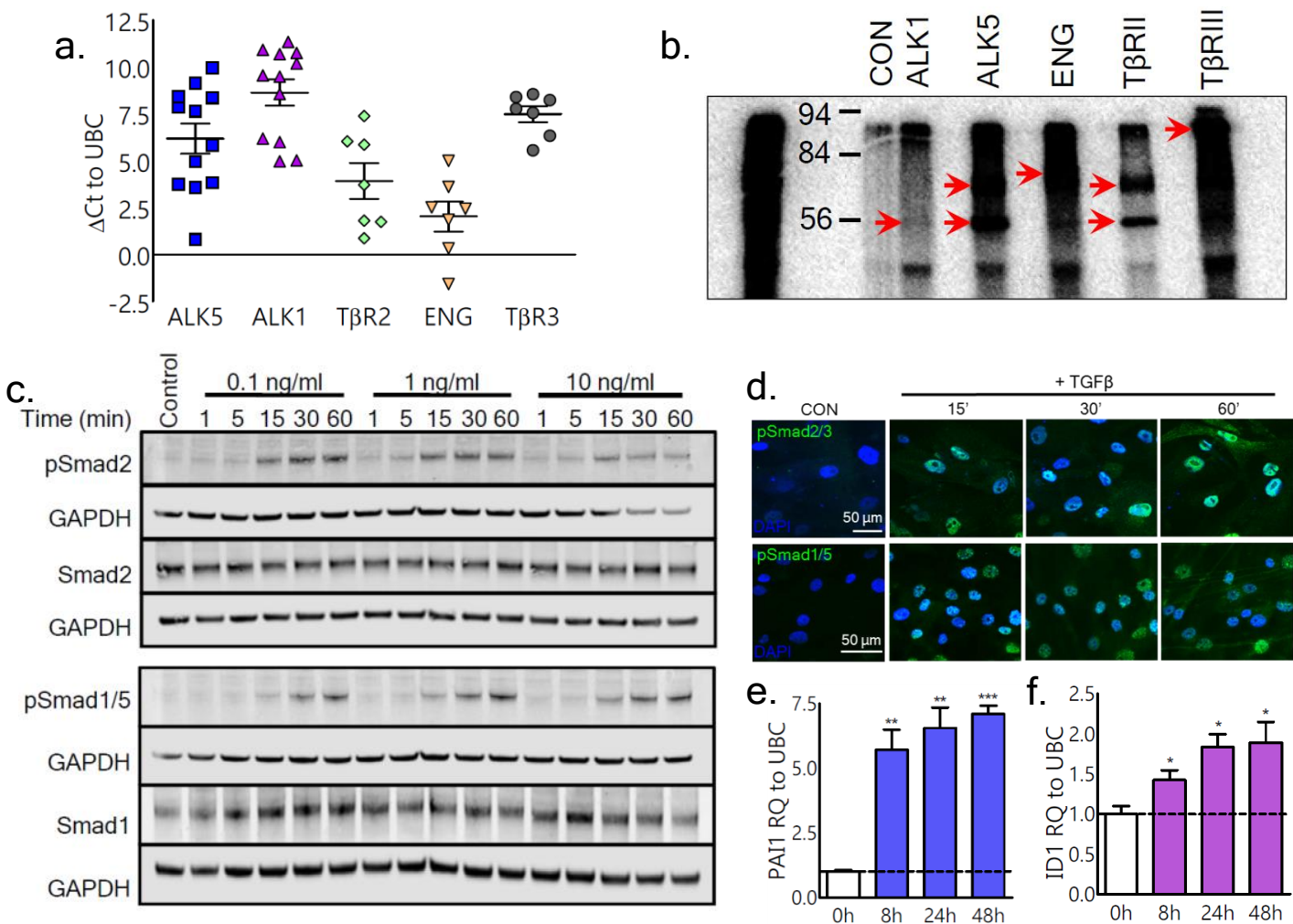
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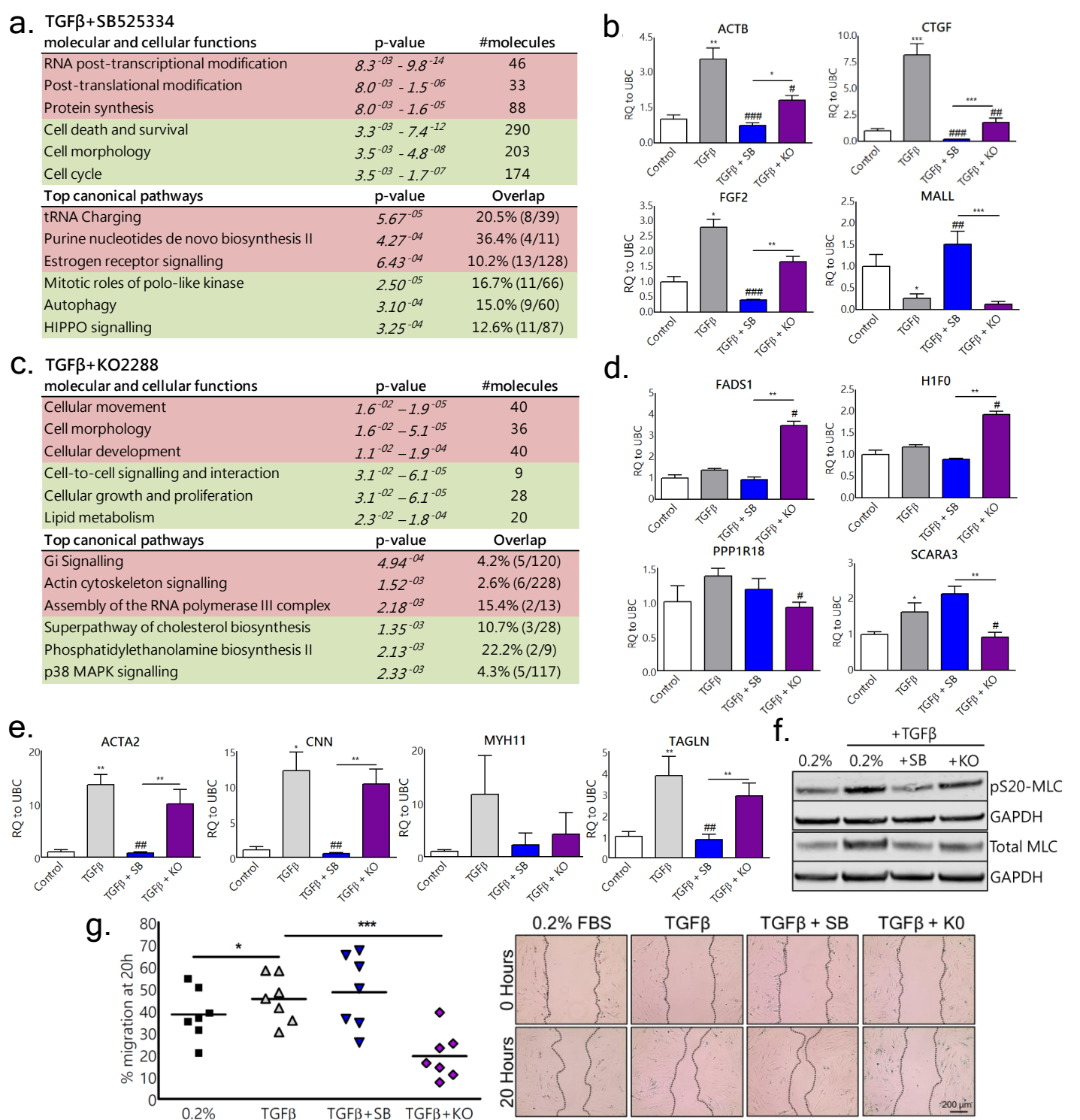
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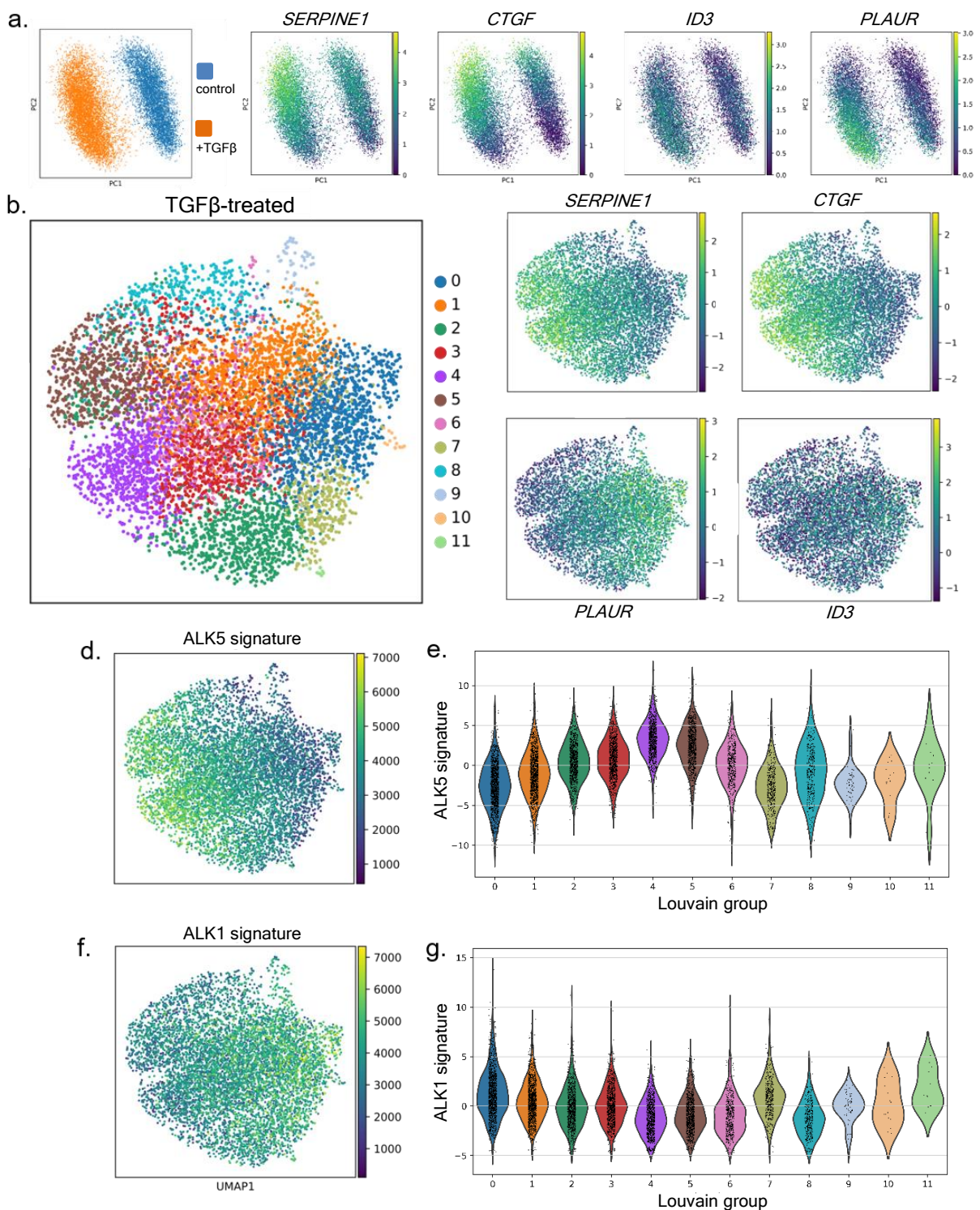
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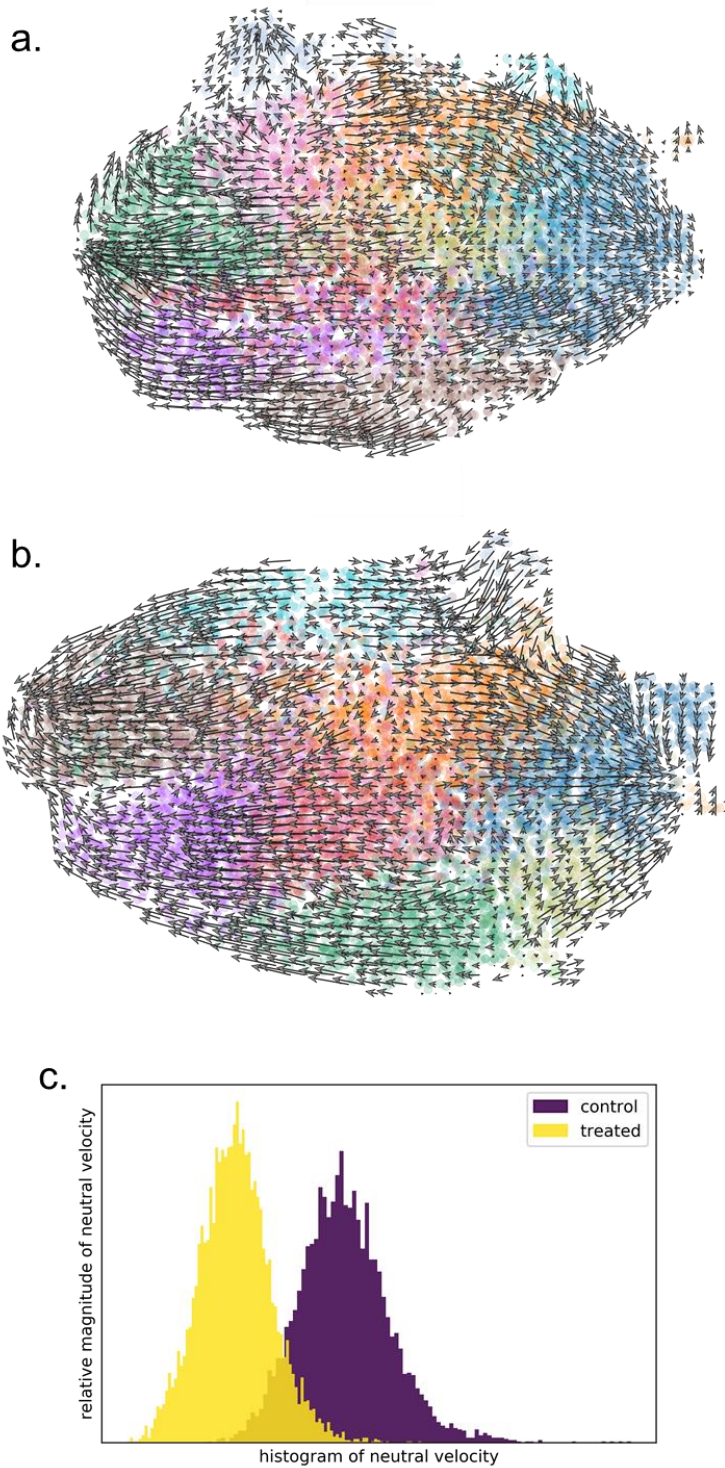
**Figure 1. TGF $\beta$  signals via both ALK5 and ALK1 pathways in human saphenous vein SMCs.** mRNA expression of TGF $\beta$  receptors in HSVSMCs from CABG patients was assessed via qRT-PCR (A) (data expressed as  $\Delta$ Ct relative to UBC housekeeping gene; n=7-12) HSVSMCs were treated with I<sup>125</sup> TGF $\beta$  prior to biochemical crosslinking and harvesting for immunoprecipitation with TGF $\beta$  receptor antibodies as indicated (B). Serum-starved HSVSMCs were stimulated with TGF $\beta$  for up to 1h for Western blot (C) or ICC (D) analysis of phosphorylated and unphosphorylated Smad2 or Smad1 (Representative western blot and confocal microscopy ICC images shown; n=3). (E, F) qRT-PCR analysis of known gene targets of the ALK5 pathway (PAI1:E) and ALK1 pathway (ID1:F) were performed following 24h stimulation with TGF $\beta$  (n=3; repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Tukeys post-hoc tests, \*=p<0.05, \*\*=p<0.001, \*\*\*= p<0.001 compared to control).



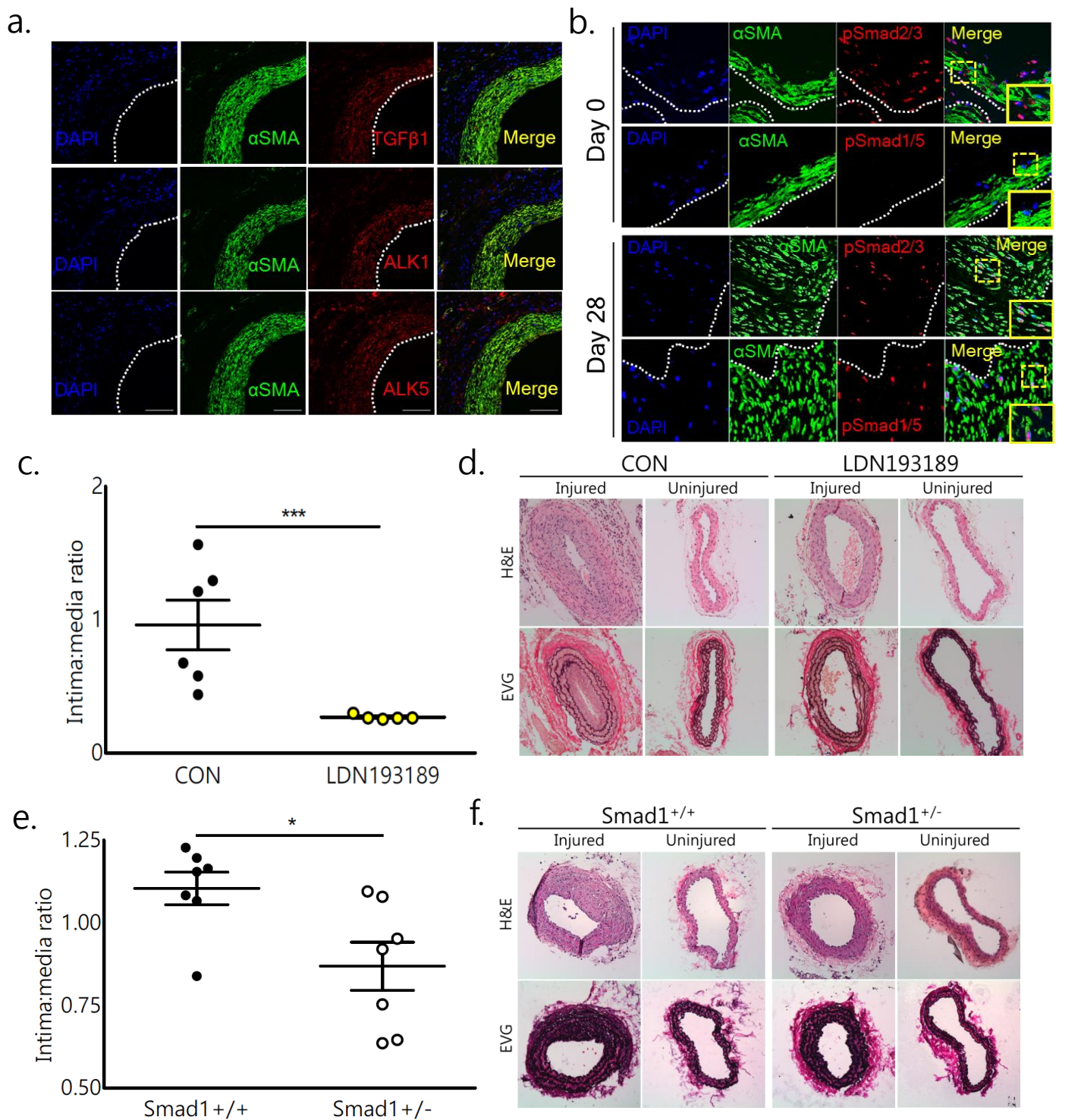
**Figure 2. Activation of ALK5 and ALK1 pathways by TGFβ in HSVSMCs induces pathway-specific transcriptional changes associated with distinct functional outcomes.** Whole-genome expression profiling using the Illumina HT-12 v4 Expression BeadChip was performed on mRNA extracted from serum-starved HSVSMC stimulated with TGFβ ± ALK5 or ALK1 kinase inhibitors (SB525334/SB or K02288/KO, respectively) for 24h (n=3). Ingenuity Pathway Analysis identified significantly downregulated (red) and upregulated (green) molecular and cellular functions/canonical pathways based on limma significant probes using a 5 % FDR cut-off (A, C) Microarray validation by qRT-PCR was performed on a further 3 patients for top dysregulated genes following ALK5 (ACTB, FGF2, CTGF, MALL; B) or ALK1 inhibition (FADS1, H1F0, PPP1R18 and SCARA3; D) as well as evaluation of the contractile SMC markers ACTA2, CNN, MYH11 and TAGLN (E) (\*/#=p<0.05, \*\*/##=p<0.01, \*\*\*/####=p<0.001 compared to control(\*) or TGFβ (#)). Expression of phosphorylated and total myosin light chain was evaluated by western immunoblotting (representative images from n=3 patients)(F). Migration 20h after scratch was compared to 0h timepoint in HSVSMC treated with TGFβ ± inhibitors (\*=p<0.05, \*\*\*=p<0.001; n=7)(F). Data in graphs represent mean ± SEM, analysed by repeated measures one-way ANOVA with Tukeys post-hoc tests.



**Figure 3. scRNA-seq analysis identifies nonoverlapping ALK5- and ALK1-dominant HSVMC subgroups**  
 Quiesced HSVMC were stimulated with TGFβ for 24h prior to harvesting for scRNA-seq using the droplet-based 10x Genomics system, at an average read depth of ~50,000/cell. 5,245 untreated cells and 7,073 TGFβ-treated cells from the same patient were analysed using a Python pipeline (A) Cells were separated into two batches for analysis (TGFβ-treated/orange and untreated control/blue), with expression of SERPINE1, CTGF, ID3 and PLAUR mapped (L-R). (B) Graph-based UMAP clustering of TGFβ-treated cells using the Louvain method. (C) Expression of SERPINE1, CTGF, ID3 and PLAUR is mapped to the Louvain UMAP graph (upper and lower panels, gene names indicated above the plots). (D) Expression of an ALK5 signature gene set, mapped to the Louvain UMAP graph. Violin plots (E) indicate the expression of ALK5 signature genes across clusters. (F) Expression of an ALK1 signature gene set, mapped to the Louvain UMAP graph. Violin plots (G) indicate the expression of ALK1 signature genes across clusters.

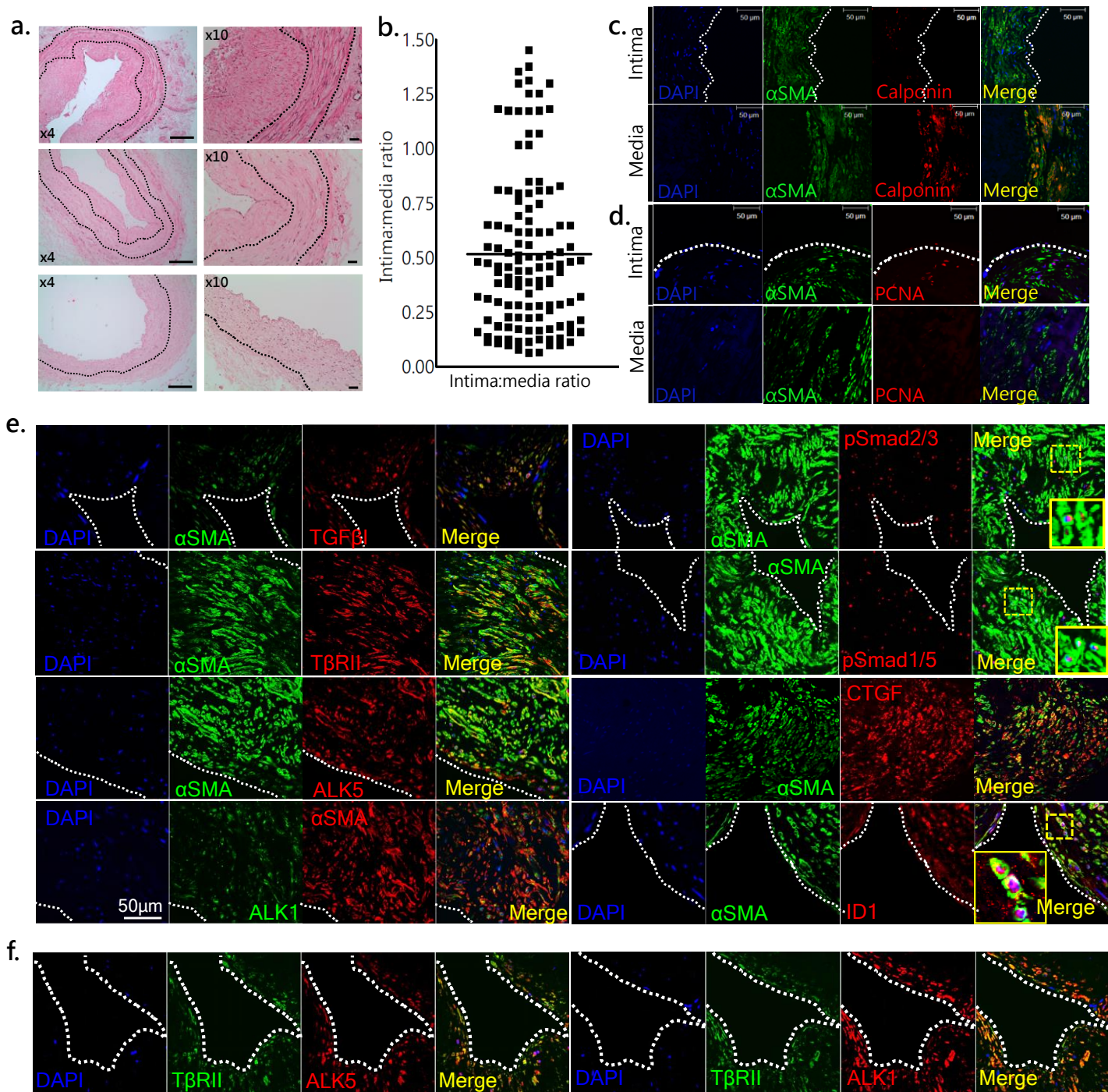


**Figure 4. TGF $\beta$  treatment alters the transcriptional dynamics of HSVSMC** Quiesced HSVSMC were stimulated with TGF $\beta$  for 24h prior to harvesting for scRNA-seq using the droplet-based 10x Genomics system, at an average read depth of  $\sim 50,000$ /cell. RNA velocity analyses were performed on 5,245 untreated cells (A) and 7,073 TGF $\beta$ -treated cells (B) from the same patient. Arrows indicate directionality in the vector space, underlying colours correspond to Louvain grouping. Linear algebra was used to decompose velocity vectors for each cell into two components, a neutral velocity component and a directional component. Neutral directional components of treated and untreated cells were plotted against the relative magnitude of neutral velocity; increased neutral velocity corresponds to reduced directional movement in the RNA velocity analysis (C)



**Figure 5. Smad1/5 activation promotes neointima formation following acute vascular injury in mice (A)** Immunostaining for TGF $\beta$ 1, ALK1 or ALK5 in remodeled mouse vein graft sections. **(B)** Dual immunostaining for pSmad2/3 and pSmad1/5 in pre-implantation (day 0, upper panels) and remodeled (day 28, lower panels) mouse vein grafts; SMC are identified using the SMC marker  $\alpha$ SMA. Confocal images of immunostained sections are representative images from  $n=3$  animals. Dotted line indicates location of the lumen. **(C, D)** Morphometric assessment of intima:media area ratio in LDN193189-treated (10mg/kg IP every 48h) or saline-treated control mice following acute vascular injury ( $n=5/6$  per group). **(E/F)** morphometric assessment of intima:media area ratio following acute vascular injury in male Smad1<sup>+/-</sup> mice or littermate controls (Smad<sup>+/+</sup>;  $n=8$ /group) \*= $p<0.05$ , \*\*\*= $p<0.001$  compared to wild-type/control by students T-test; IMR data represent mean  $\pm$  SEM.





**Figure 6.** Histological analyses of saphenous vein grafts (SVG) from CABG patients show widespread pre-existing intimal hyperplasia and expression of TGF $\beta$  signaling pathway components. Surplus SVG tissue was obtained from a cohort of CABG patients (n=75). Intima and media areas and ratios (IMR) were calculated by performing morphometric analyses on H&E stained SVG sections (B) (representative H&E images from high[top]/medium[middle]/low[bottom] IMR SVG sections are shown in A). Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Immunostaining for the mature SMC marker calponin (CNN; C) and PCNA (D) in SVG sections with IMR >0.6 (E) Immunostaining for TGF $\beta$ 1, T $\beta$ RII, ALK5, ALK1, pSmad2/3, pSmad1/5, CTGF and ID1(target genes of ALK5 and ALK1, respectively), as well as colocalisation of T $\beta$ RII and ALK5 (F, left panel) and ALK1 (F, right panel) in SVG sections with IMR>0.6.  $\alpha$ SMA was used as a global marker for SMCs. Inset images show nuclear localisation of pSmads in  $\alpha$ SMA<sup>+</sup> SMCs. n=7-15 patient samples analysed, representative confocal microscopy images shown. Scale bars are indicated.