The role of the calcineurin/NFAT signaling pathway and its regulation in muscle diseases

Manal Al Zein

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By: Manal Al Zein

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Signed by the final examining committee:

	Chair
Dr. G. Brown	
	External Examiner
Dr. K.E.M. Hastings	
	External to Program
Dr. A. Piekny	
	Examiner
Dr. P. Joyce	
	Examiner
Dr. J. Powlowski	
	Examiner
Dr. A. Bergdahl	
	Administrative Supervisor
Dr. H. Muchall	

Approved by _____

Dr. H. Muchall, Graduate Program Director

August 19, 2013____

Interim Dean J. Locke, Faculty of Arts and Science

Abstract

The role of the calcineurin/NFAT signaling pathway and its regulation in muscle diseases

Manal Al Zein, PhD Concordia University, 2013

Elevations in intracellular calcium activate the phosphatase Calcineurin (Cn) and its downstream target the Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (NFAT), leading to the expression of genes involved in skeletal muscle growth and cardiac remodeling. In this thesis, we set out to investigate the role of the Cn/NFAT signaling pathway in the progression of two muscle diseases: Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD), which is characterized by the loss of the functional protein dystrophin, and cardiac hypertrophy. First, to understand the roles of Cn and Cn regulators in DMD, we used *mdx* mice crossed with mice expressing transgenes that manipulate the Cn/NFAT pathway. For instance, the expression of the transgene Parvalbumin (PV) in mdx mice leads to attenuation of Cn activity and reduction in the expression of utrophin, a protein that compensates for the loss of dystrophin. Our results show that strategies promoting Ca^{2+}/Cn signaling are considered an effective countermeasure in the treatment of DMD and that Cn regulators might have a critical role in the progression of the disease. Secondly, the role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in Cn-dependent cardiac hypertrophy is emphasized using adult NFATc2 knockout mice in the presence and absence of biochemical stress. Here we show a cardio-protective role for NFATc2 in normotensive hearts, but not in hearts exposed to stress. Together, the results of this thesis provide a better understanding of the role of the Cn/NFAT pathway in the regulation of various muscle diseases.

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Contribution of Authors

In this thesis, I performed all presented experiments with exceptions of: Chapter 4:

1- Patrick Sin-Chan has generated Figures 1-4 (which have been added to Appendix IV). In Figure 4a, I added data to Patrick's results and performed the calculations and analyses, as well as One Way Analysis of Variance (Anova) test for Figures 4d-4f. Patrick has also interpreted the results coming form the mentioned Figures, which are part of his MSc thesis.

2- Dr. Mathieu St-Louis carried out NFATc1 immunofluorescence experiments in the 14 day Angiotensin II stimulated hearts. I performed the calculations and the corresponding graphs. He also helped in extracting gelatin-stimulated hearts.

3- Dr. Robin N. Michel performed the Angiotensin II implantation with my assistance, and I exchanged the pumps after 14 days.

Note: Dr. Bernard Jasmine (an author in the first manuscript: Chapter 2), works in collaboration with Dr. Robin Michel and they both share funding.

Table of contents

List of Figures	х
List of Tables	xii
List of Abbreviations	
Chapter 1 : General Introduction	1
1.1 Muscle structure, contraction and development	2
1.1.1 Muscle structure and contraction	2
1.1.2 Skeletal muscle development	4
1.1.3 Cardiac muscle development	6
1.1.4 Muscle fiber types	9
1.2 Muscle function and signal transduction	11
1.2.1 Calcium and calmodulin	11
1.2.2 Calcineurin (Cn)	
1.2.3 NFAT proteins; structure and regulation	
1.2.4 Cn/NFAT signaling and Duchenne muscular dystrophy	
1.2.5 Cn/NFAT signaling and cardiac hypertrophy	26
1.2.6 IGF-1-Akt signaling and cardiac hypertrophy	28
1.3 Direct calcineurin modulators	31
1.3.1 Z-line proteins	31
1.3.2 RCAN	33
1.3.3 CAIN	34
1.4 Thesis organization and hypotheses	35
Chapter 2 : Distinct calcineurin-related transgenic approaches rescu dystrophic phenotype in fibers from crossbred mdx mice despite con expression	stant HSP70
2.1 Background	38
2.2 Abstract	
2.3 Introduction	40
2.4 Methods	45
2.4.1 Animals	45
2.4.2 Mice genotyping	
2.4.3 Muscle extraction and preservation	47
2.4.4 Immunofluorescence	47
2.4.5 Fiber typing	
2.4.6 RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)	
2.4.7 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting	51

2.4.8 Assessment of central nucleation and muscle fiber size	53
2.4.9 Evans Blue uptake and staining	54
2.4.10 Statistical analyses	54
2.5 Results	55
2.5.1 Generation and identification of <i>mdx</i> /PV mice	5
2.5.2 Forced expression of PV transgene leads to impairment of downstream Ca ²⁺ /CaM-base	
	55
2.5.3 Utrophin and utrophin-A expressions are reduced in <i>mdx</i> /PV soleus muscles	
2.5.4 Dystrophic slow fibers expressing PV exhibit more hallmarks of <i>mdx</i> cellular damage	
2.5.5 HSP70 expression does not change in soleus msucle of <i>mdx</i> /PV with reduction in utrop	
2.5.6 RyR1 is significantly increased, while SERCA1 & 2 protein levels are not changed by PV expression in <i>mdx</i> soleus muscles	
2.5.7 Transgenic models known to rescue [106, 193] or exacerbate [98] the dystrophic pheno	
<i>mdx</i> mice via utrophin regulation, display constant muscle HSP70 levels	
2.6 Discussion	73
crossbreeds	
3.1 Background	77
3.2 Abstract	78
3.3 Introduction	79
3.4 Methods	83
3.4.1 Animals	83
3.4.2 Muscle extraction and preservation	
3.4.3 RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)	
3.4.4 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting	
3.4.5 Statistical analyses	8'
3.5 Results	
3.5.1 RCAN1.4 and calsarcin-1 transcript levels are increased while MLP does not change in s muscle of <i>mdx</i> /PV	8
3.5.2 RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP protein levels are not changed in the soleus muscle of <i>md.</i> 3.5.3 <i>RCAN1.4, calsarcin-2</i> and <i>MLP</i> transcript levels do not change in <i>mdx</i> and <i>mdx</i> /CnA* EE muscles	DL fast
3.5.4 Calsarcin-2 and MLP protein levels are reduced while RCAN1 does not change in <i>mdx/</i> C mice	CnA*
3.6 Discussion	9
Chapter 4 : The role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in Calcineurin-dependent	
cardiac hypertrophy in adult mice	
4.1 Background	10

vii

4.2 Abstract	
4.3 Introduction	
4.4 Methods	
4.4.1 Mouse model, breeding and maintenance	
4.4.2 Mice genotyping	
4.4.3 Muscle extraction and preservation	
4.4.4 RNA extraction and semi-quantitative RT-PCR	
4.4.5 Real time quantitative-PCR (qPCR)	
4.4.6 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting	
4.4.7 Angiotensin II infusion	
4.4.8 Histology, Staining and Microscopy	
4.4.9 Statistical analyses	
4.5 Results	
4.5.1 Characterization of heart phenotype in NFATc2-/- mice	
4.5.2 NFATc1 has increased nuclear localization in the hearts of NFATc2-/- mice	
4.5.3 The GATA4 transcription factor has a higher protein expression and nuclear transit in	the
NFATc2-/- compared to NFATc2+/+ hearts	
4.5.4 The 14 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice have morphological and anatomical mai	
heart failure comparable to NFATc2+/+ counterparts	
4.5.5 The 14 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice display altered cardio-protective gene e	xpre
 4.5.7 Phospho-Akt, α-SMA, phospho-Foxo3a and Vimentin protein levels do not change in the Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice	
4.6 Discussion	
hapter 5 : General conclusions	
hapter 6 : Future Directions	
eferences	
ppendix I: Chapter 2- Statistical Analyses	
QPCR	
Immunoblotting	
Histology	
ppendix II: Chapter 3- Statistical Analyses	
QPCR	
Immunoblotting	

Appendix III: Chapter 4- Statistical Analyses	208
Semi-quantitative PCR	208
QPCR	212
Immunoblotting	
Histology	235
Appendix IV: Chapter 4-Additional Figures	241

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: The general structures of skeletal, cardiac and smooth muscles [1]2
Figure 1.2: A schematic drawing of the sarcomere [4]4
Figure 1.3: Transcription factors regulating myogenesis [11]5
Figure 1.4: A schematic drawing of cardiac mesoderm differentiation [31]8
Figure 1.5: MyHC isoforms in skeletal muscle and their properties [45]10
Figure 1.6: Cardiac MyHC isoforms and their properties (information taken from [47])11
Figure 1.7: A schematic presentation for the Ca^{2+} binding proteins involved in the Ca^{2+} cycle[51]12
Figure 1.8: The crystal structure of calmodulin (Song Tan, University Park, PA 2001)13
Figure 1.9: Calcineurin structure and its active and inactive conformations[52]15
Figure 1.10: The primary structure of NFAT proteins [73]16
Figure 1.11: Dystrophin associated protein complex. Modified from [94]20
Figure 1.12: Dystrophin and utrophin protein structures. Modified from [94]
Figure 1.13: Schematic diagram showing dystrophin in the cytoplasm and utrophin at the NMJ [136]24
Figure 1.14: Ca ²⁺ signaling pathways implicated in cardiac hypertrophy [153]28
Figure 1.15: The involvement of the IGF-1-Akt pathway in protein synthesis and degradation; (Modified
from [65] and [175])
Figure 1.16: Classes of calcineurin binding and regulatory proteins (modified from [192])
Figure 2.1: Forced expression of PV in mdx slow fibers decreases Cn signaling via NFATc1 nuclear
localization
Figure 2.2: PV expression does not cause fiber type conversions in mdx soleus muscles
Figure 2.3: PV expression in WT and mdx soleus muscles leads to decreased utrophin expression61
Figure 2.4: Dystrophic slow fibers expressing PV exhibit more hallmarks of mdx cellular damage
Figure 2.5: Decreased utrophin expression in mdx/PV slow fibers appears independent of HSP70 and
SERCA1 and 2 expressions but associated with higher fast RyR1 protein levels
Figure 2.6: Transgenic models known to rescue [106, 193] or exacerbate[98] the dystrophic phenotype in
muscles of mdx mice via utrophin regulation [93], display constant muscle HSP70 levels
Figure 2.7: HSP70 expression does not change in Lateral Gas muscles between mdx and mdx/CnA* mice.70
Figure 3.1: RCAN1.4 and calsarcin-1 mRNA levels are increased in mdx/PV while MLP level does not change
in soleus slow muscles
Figure 3.2: RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP protein levels are not changed in the soleus muscle of mdx/PV91
Figure 3.3: RCAN1.4, calsarcin-2 and MLP mRNA levels do not show significant changes between mdx and
mdx/CnA* mice
Figure 3.4: RCAN1, calsarcin-2 and MLP protein levels in WT, CnA*, mdx and mdx/CnA* mice95
Figure 4.1: The 14 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice display less protective properties
Figure 4.2: The 14 day Ang II-stimulated hearts do not show differential signs of damage from
normotensive hearts
Figure 4.3: PAkt (Ser473), α -SMA, pFoxo3a (Ser253), Vimentin and CnAB expression levels in the 14 day
Ang II-stimulated mice
Figure 4.4: Absence of signaling changes between the hearts of the 28 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/-
mice and their NFATc2+/+ counterparts
Figure 5.1: Schematic diagram showing the three transgenes used to manipulate the Cn/NFAT pathway
and showing the effect of HSP70 on DMD143

Figure 1: NFATc2-/- mice have similar relative heart weights but different morphological charact	teristics to
those of NFATc2+/+ mice	241
Figure 2: NFATc1 nuclear localization in the hearts of NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- mice	243
Figure 3: GATA4 has higher nuclear expression in the hearts of NFATc2-/- mice	245
Figure 4: The 14 day Ang II-stimulated mice display more severe heart pathology	246

List of Tables

Table 2.1: Antibodies and conditions for immunofluorescence	
Table 2.2: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR	51
Table 2.3: Antibodies and their conditions for immunoblotting	52
Table 3.1: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR	85
Table 4.1: Primers for semi-quantitative PCR	
Table 4.2: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR	

List of Abbreviations

r o 2+1					
$[Ca^{2+}]_i$	intracellular Calcium				
Ach	Acetylcholine				
AchR	Acetylcholine Receptor				
Ang II	Angiotensin II				
ANP	Atrial Natriuretic Peptide				
ATF	Activating Transcription Factor				
ATP	Adenosine Triphosphate				
AU	Arbitrary Units				
AVN	Atrioventricular Node				
BMD	Becker Muscular Dystrophy				
BNP	Brain Natriuretic Peptide				
BSA	Bovine Serum Albumin				
CAIN	Calcineurin Inhibitor				
Calsarcins	Calcineurin-Interacting proteins				
CaM	Calmodulin				
CaMBP	Calmodulin-Binding Protein				
CaMK	Calmodulin-dependent protein Kinase				
CK	Casein Kinase				
Cn	Calcineurin				
CnA	Calcineurin A				
CnA*	Activated from of Calcineurin				
$CnA\beta_1$	β_1 isoform of CnA subunit				
CnB	Calcineurin B				
CSA	Cross Sectional Area				
CsA	Cyclosporine A				
CSRP3	Cysteine Rich Protein3				
CTD	C-Terminal Domain				
DAB	Diaminobenzidine				
DAPC	Dystrophin-Associated Protein Complex				
Dapi	Diamidino-2-phenylindole				
DHPR	Dihydropyridine Receptor				
DMD	Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy				
EBD	Evans Blue Dye				
EDL	Extensor Digitorum Longus				
ERK	Extracellular-Regulated-Signal Kinases				
f-actin	Filamentous actin				
FKBP	FK506 Binding Protein				
GABP	GA-Binding Protein				
GAPDH	Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase				
GSK3-β	Glycogen-Synthase kinase3-β				
H&E	Hematoxylin and Eosin				
HA	Haemaglutinin				
HDAC	Histone Deacetylase				
IIDAU	Instant Dealerylast				

HPRT	Hypoxanthine-guanine Phospho Ribosyl Transferase
HRP	Horse Radish Peroxidase
HSP	Heat Shock Protein
HW/BW	Heart Weight-to-Body Weight
IF	Immunofluorescence
IGF-1	Insulin Growth Factor-I
IGF-R	Insulin Growth Factor-I Receptor
IRS	Insulin Receptor Substrate
JNK	Janus-N-Terminal Kinase
LG	Lateral Gas
MAFbx	Muscle Atrophy F-box
MAPK	Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase
MCIP	Modulatory Calcineurin-Interacting Protein
MLP	Muscle LIM Protein
MRF	Muscle Regulatory Factor
mTOR	mammalian Target Of Rapamycin
Myf	Myogenic factor
MyHC	Myosin Heavy Chain
MyoD	Myogenic Determination factor
NÉS	Nuclear Export Signal
NFAT	Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells
NF- _K B	Nuclear Factor- _K B
NHR	N-Homology Region
NLS	Nuclear Localization Signal
NMJ	Neuromuscular Junction
Pax	Paired box
PDK	Phospho-Inositide-Dependent Kinase
PFA	Paraformaldehyde
PI	Phosphatidyl-Inositol
РКВ	Protein Kinase B
РКС	Protein Kinase C
PMSF	Phenylmethanesulfonyl Fluoride
PPN	Peripheral Purkinje Network
PV	Parvalbumin
PVDF	Polyvinyl difluoride
RCAN	Regulator of Calcineurin
RHR	Rel-Homology Region
RPL13	60S Ribosomal Protein L13
RyR	Ryanodine Receptor
S6K	S6 kinase
SAN	Sinoatrial Node
SDS	Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate
SDS	Succinate Dehydrogenase
SERCA	Sarcoplasmic Reticulum-Ca ²⁺ -ATPases
SGK	Serum and Glucocorticoid-regulated Kinase
Six	Sine oculis-related homeobox

SP	Serine-Proline
SR	Sarcoplasmic Reticulum
SRR	Serine-Rich Regions
T/TBS	Tween/Tris Buffered Saline
ТА	Tibialis Anterior
TAD	Transactivation Domain
TBP	TATA-Binding Protein
TEMED	Tetramethylethylenediamine
TGF	Transforming Growth Factor
TnIs	Troponin I slow promoter
TonEBP	Tonicity-response Enhancer-Binding Protein
T-tubules	Transverse tubules
WT	Wild-Type
α-SMA	Alpha Smooth Muscle Actin

Chapter 1 : General Introduction

1.1 Muscle structure, contraction and development

1.1.1 Muscle structure and contraction

Muscle tissue is a highly vascularized organ used for contraction. All muscles show biochemical specialization which allows them to produce body movement [1]. There are three basic types of muscle tissue: skeletal, cardiac and smooth (Figure 1.1). Skeletal muscle cells are long, cylindrical, voluntary-controlled, multi-nucleated and striated cells formed by fusing hundreds of myoblasts end-to-end. Skeletal muscles stabilize the position of the skeleton, generate heat and protect internal organs. Cardiac muscle cells (cardiomyocytes) are long, branched involuntary-controlled cells that are mono-nucleated but still show a striated pattern. Intercalated discs connect these cells whose main functions are to circulate blood and maintain blood pressure. Smooth muscle cells are mono-nucleated, involuntary-controlled cells with no striations. They are found in the walls of hollow internal structures such as blood vessels, urinary bladder, respiratory, digestive and reproductive tracts. Smooth muscles function to move foods, urine and reproductive tract secretions, regulate the diameter of blood vessels and control the width of respiratory passage ways [1].

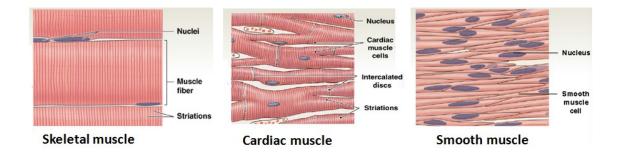


Figure 1.1: The general structures of skeletal, cardiac and smooth muscles [1]

Each skeletal muscle fiber is enveloped by a plasma membrane called the sarcolemma, which surrounds a cytoplasm (called sarcoplasm) and contains a <u>S</u>arcoplasmic <u>R</u>eticulum (SR). Most of the cytoplasm is occupied by cylindrical bundles of contractile proteins called myofibrils, each of which measures approximately 1-2 μ m in diameter. The sarcomere is the repeating subunit of myofibrils and the functional unit of muscle contraction [2]. Filamentous actin (f-actin), titin and nebulin are the three filament systems of the sarcomere that interact with the Z-disc (also known as the Z-band or Z-line), which forms the borders of the sarcomere (Figure 1.2), whereas myosin-based thick filaments do not directly interact with the Z-disc [3]. Those thick filaments are located in the central portion of the sarcomere, while the thin filaments that are composed of actin, are situated at the extremities of the functional unit and bind myosin to perform the muscle contraction process.

During contraction, myosin heads bind to actin. This interaction is regulated by two proteins, tropomyosin and troponin, which are bound to the thin filaments and are capable of covering the binding sites for myosin. At this stage, myosin cannot bind to actin and thus, muscle contraction is inhibited [2]. In a process known as excitation-contraction coupling, a nerve impulse triggers the release of the neurotransmitter <u>Acetylcholine (Ach)</u> from the presynaptic terminus into the synaptic cleft. The released Ach binds to its receptor (AchR) on the postsynaptic muscle surface, and induces a conformational change causing this channel to open for ion flux. For instance, Na⁺ influx leads to membrane depolarization and propagation of an action potential. This action potential is transmitted into the <u>T</u>ransverse tubules (T-tubules; special extensions of the sarcolemma) where it opens the SR Ca²⁺ channel. Upon the increase of sarcoplasmic Ca²⁺

concentration, troponin binds Ca^{2+} , causing a conformational change, which pulls tropomyosin away from its blocking position. Consequently, as the actin binding sites become uncovered for myosin to bind, the contraction process begins [2].

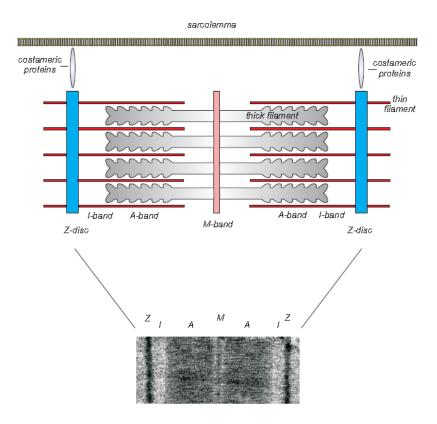


Figure 1.2: A schematic drawing of the sarcomere [4]

The f-actin-containing thin filaments anchor at the Z-disc and interdigitate with the myosincontaining thick filaments at the level of the A-band. Costameric proteins ensure lateral force transduction and linkage to the sarcolemma and its associated protein complexes.

1.1.2 Skeletal muscle development

The process of generating muscle (myogenesis) is divided into several stages [5]. The initial muscle fibers of the body are created by mesoderm, which is a derived structure that develops during embryonic development. Subsequently, additional fibers are formed from the template fibers [5, 6]. In the course of maintaining homeostasis, adult skeletal muscle relies on a compensatory mechanism for the turnover of terminally differentiated cells. This compensatory mechanism involves activation of satellite cells that are capable of differentiation into new fibers [7, 8]. Satellite cells can be activated after damage caused by mechanical stress or chemical injection [9, 10]. In both embryonic myogenesis and regeneration of skeletal muscle processes, there are common transcription factors and signaling molecules that are utilized (Figure 1.3) [5].

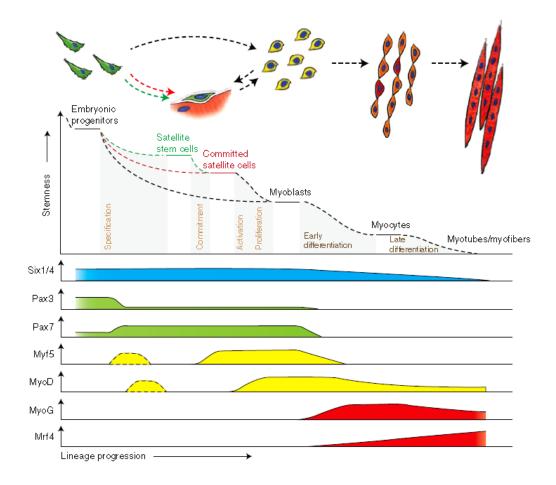


Figure 1.3: Transcription factors regulating myogenesis [11]

Muscle progenitors that are involved in embryonic muscle differentiation skip the quiescent satellite cell stage and directly become myoblasts. Some progenitors remain as satellite cells in postnatal muscle and form stem and committed cells. Six1/4 and Pax3/7 are master regulators of early lineage specification, whereas Myf5 and MyoD commit cells to the myogenic program. Expression of the terminal differentiation genes required for the fusion of myocytes and the formation of myotubes, are performed by both myogenin (MyoG) and MRF4.

Myogenesis is a well-controlled process that is separated into two steps: 1) proliferation of cells and 2) differentiation and maturation of proliferated cells. The basic helix-loop-helix Myogenic Determination factor (MyoD) is capable of transforming a group of cell types such as fibroblasts into cells that fuse into myotubes [12]. Myogenic factor 5 (Myf5), myogenin and Muscle Regulatory Factor 4 (MRF4, also known as Myf6) are three other myogenic basic helix-loop-helix factors which induce myoblast traits in non-muscle cell lines [13, 14]. Collectively, these four transcription factors are referred to as Myogenic Regulatory Factors (MRFs) [15]. Each of these factors has a critical function in myogenesis. While Myf5 has a role in myoblast proliferation, MyoD and myogenin promote myoblast differentiation [16-18], and MRF4 is essential for myoblast maturation [19, 20]. The Paired box (Pax) 3 and 7 are additional factors involved in satellite cell differentiation and proliferation, as well as in the myogenesis process [21, 22]. Additionally, myostatin, an important negative regulator of muscle mass, is present in satellite cells and myoblasts [23]. Interestingly, myostatin overexpression downregulates Pax7 expression while myostatin inhibition upregulates Pax7 expression [24]. Moreover, the Sine oculis-related homeobox transcription factors (Six) 1 and 4 are also master regulators of early lineage specification. Thus, Six1 and 4 proteins act as cofactors to activate Six target genes such as Pax3 and MRFs [25].

1.1.3 Cardiac muscle development

Cardiac muscle development (cardiogenesis) is an additive process in which additional layers of complexity are added throughout the evolution of a simple structure (linear heart tube) [26]. The earliest stages of heart development are nearly identical among all vertebrates unlike the subsequent septation of the chambers and the outflow tract, which vary between species depending on utilization of the lungs [26]. The heart field is the region of the embryonic mesoderm that contains the cardiac progenitor cells. The mesodermal cells are committed to the heart by the early gastrulation stage. These pre-heart cells migrate toward the anterior embryonic pole to condense in bilateral areas of the splanchnic mesoderm. Soon after formation, the precardiac areas migrate to the embryonic midline, fuse under the endodermal foregut and form the primitive tubular heart. The precardiac mesoderm contains both endocardial and myocardial precursors [27]. In vivo, precardiac mesodermal cells express transcription factors including Transforming Growth Factors as TGF^β1, TGF^β2 and activin A, which regulate the expression of α -Myosin Heavy Chain (α -MyHC), an initial marker of cardiac differentiation [27, 28]. Furthermore, cell-cell interactions within the precardiac mesoderm also may have a significant influence on cardiac differentiation. At the organ level, the adequate integration of the different heart components ultimately results in the development of heart shape and function [28].

Cardiac looping arises from the coordinated integration of the different components of the heart tube [27]. The mechanisms involved in looping are still under discussion. After the initial fusion of the paired primordial cells, a single heart tube is formed in the embryonic midline. This primitive heart represents the future trabeculated part of the right ventricle. Continued fusion of the paired primordium brings about the merging of the trabeculated part of the left ventricle, the atrium and the sinus venosus, which are progressively incorporated into the developing heart [29]. The myocardium is formed throughout looping of a single population of developing myocytes. Molecular modifications in cellular proliferation, transformation, migration and death are thought to be involved in the process of looping, but the relative contributions of these cellular mechanisms are still unknown [29]. When looping is complete, the heart progressively acquires an adult configuration. Internally, independent septa develop in the atrial and ventricular chambers, the bulbus cordis, and the atrioventricular canal. These septa reunite in the center of the heart to transform the cardiac tube into a four chambered organ (two atria and two ventricles; left and right) (Figure 1.4). This system is connected to the blood entry system by the inferior and the superior vena cavae from one side and by the pulmonary veins from the other side [30].

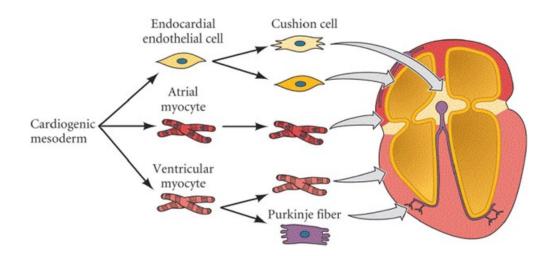


Figure 1.4: A schematic drawing of cardiac mesoderm differentiation [31]

In the formed heart, it is critical to distinguish between the working myocardium (whose main function is contraction) and the conduction system (which is responsible for generation and conduction of the electrical impulse from the sinusal node formed at the atrial junction) [32]. The conduction system comprises separate components with distinct functions. The <u>Sino-A</u>trial <u>N</u>ode (SAN), which contains the leading pacemaker, generates

the impulse that is subsequently conducted, via the atrial myocardium toward the <u>A</u>trio-<u>V</u>entricular <u>N</u>ode (AVN), with a delay. The impulse is then rapidly transmitted from the AVN via the bundle branches and the <u>P</u>eripheral <u>P</u>urkinje <u>N</u>etwork (PPN) to ensure a coordinated activation of the ventricular myocardium from apex to base. Hence, the development of the conduction system does not require the invention of new building blocks, but a remodeling of existing components [32].

1.1.4 Muscle fiber types

Skeletal muscles comprise fiber types with distinctive contractile and metabolic properties. Scientists used to distinguish skeletal muscles based on their colors as red or white and on their contractile properties as fast and slow. However, during the last 40 years, the classification of muscle fiber types changed such that now four major fiber types are recognized in adult mammalian skeletal muscles [33]. Since 1968-1970, fastwhite muscles have been identified as those specialized for phasic activity, whereas slowred muscles are those dedicated for more continuous activity [34]. Using histochemicalphysiological studies, fast-twitch fibers have been shown to display large variations in levels of Succinate Dehydrogenase (SDH) as an indication of variable resistance to fatigue [35]. Simultaneously, two fast fiber populations (named type IIa and IIb), which are distinct from the slow type I fibers have been identified [36, 37]. Additionally, skeletal muscle fibers can be classified into slow oxidative, fast-twitch oxidative glycolytic and fast-twitch glycolytic muscle fibers based on the levels of glycolytic and oxidative enzymes they possess [38]. Biochemical analysis also identified a third fast fiber type called type IIx or IId which has a strong SDH staining [39, 40] with an intermediate maximal velocity of shortening between that of IIa and IIb fibers [41, 42]. The properties of the major skeletal muscle fiber types are demonstrated in Figure 1.5.

Fiber type switching is possibly induced by electric stimulation that causes changes in nerve activity [43]. For instance, phasic high-frequency electrical stimulation leads to a slow-to-fast fiber switch in the direction $I \rightarrow IIa \rightarrow IIx \rightarrow IIb$, whereas tonic-low frequency electrical stimulation causes a fast-to-slow switch in the direction IIb \rightarrow IIx \rightarrow IIa \rightarrow I [43]. Moreover, fast muscles have the capacity to adapt in the range IIb \leftrightarrow IIx \leftrightarrow IIa, while slow muscles adapt in the range I \leftrightarrow IIa \leftrightarrow IIx [44].

MyHC type	Twitch duration	Shortening velocity	Cross-sectional area	Metabolism	Endurance	Energy efficiency
I	Slow	Slow	Small	Oxidative	High	High
lla						
llx						
llb	Fast	Fast	Large	Glycolytic	Low	Low

Figure 1.5: MyHC isoforms in skeletal muscle and their properties [45]

The classification of muscle fibers in cardiomyocytes is different from that of skeletal muscles. Thus, in cardiac cells, there are two types of MyHC protein; α and β . The expression of these two isoforms is correlated to the contractile velocity of cardiac muscles [46]. However, the skeletal slow MyHC and the cardiac β -MyHC are the same isoform [47]. Cardiomyocytes expressing α -MyHC are found in adult hearts, have a more contractile velocity and are quicker to fatigue than β -MyHC. In contrast, cardiomyocytes expressing more β -MyHC are present in fetal and developing hearts, have a great capability of force generation and are more resistant to fatigue (Figure 1.6) [46, 48].

MyHC type	Location	ATP source	ATPase activity	Contraction velocity	Fatigue rate
∘α-МуНС	Adult hearts	Glycolysis	Fast	Fast	Fast
β-МуНС	Fetal hearts	Oxidative phosphorylation	Slow	Slow	Slow

Figure 1.6: Cardiac MyHC isoforms and their properties (information taken from [47])

Like in skeletal muscles, several pathological stimuli cause a shift in the MyHC composition from α to β [46]. β -MyHC is re-activated in cardiovascular diseases that usually cause pathophysiological cardiac growth and hypertrophy, leading to heart failure and death [49].

1.2 Muscle function and signal transduction

1.2.1 Calcium and calmodulin

Skeletal muscle plasticity is the ability of muscles to adapt to variations in activity and work [50]. This process is linked to the Ca^{2+} handling system, which displays Ca^{2+} influx into the cells via depolarization and Ca^{2+} release to the SR [51]. The Ca^{2+} handling system controls all functions of muscle including contraction and relaxation. The major mechanism involved in the latter process is the troponin-tropomyosin system, which is restricted to skeletal and cardiac muscles and has been previously described in depth [51].

A variety of Ca^{2+} binding proteins such as <u>Calm</u>odulin (CaM), calpains, <u>Calcineurin</u> (Cn), sorcin and annexins might be important for muscle performance and plasticity,

although they are not directly involved in the process of muscle contraction and relaxation. The <u>Ry</u>anodine <u>Receptor</u> (RyR) causes release of Ca^{2+} from the SR (Figure 1.7). Additionally, the high-affinity Ca^{2+} -binding protein <u>Parvalbumin</u> (PV) facilitates Ca^{2+} translocation from the myofibril to the SR in fast muscle fibers [51]. The SR-ATPase, in turn regulates Ca^{2+} uptake into the SR. Inside the SR, Ca^{2+} binds to the high-capacity and low affinity Ca^{2+} -binding protein calsequestrin. Elevated cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} may cause a variety of muscle diseases, leading to changes in muscle fiber transcription and transformation, necrosis and apoptosis [51]. The Ca^{2+} handling process and the effects of elevated cytoplasmic Ca^{2+} levels are explained in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

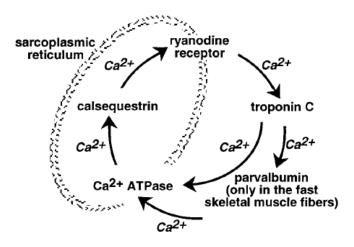


Figure 1.7: A schematic presentation for the Ca²⁺ binding proteins involved in the Ca²⁺ cycle[51]

CaM is one of the major Ca^{2+} binding proteins that is involved in many signaling pathways. It is a small protein of 148 residues (17 kDa), containing four EF-hand motifs that bind Ca^{2+} [52]. The term EF-hand refers to the two COOH-terminal α -helical sequence stretches, which are oriented in a perpendicular position and present in a large number of Ca^{2+} binding proteins. Each motif binds one Ca^{2+} ion in the central loop region [53-55]. In the absence of Ca^{2+} , CaM appears in a closed or semi-open conformation [52]. When the intracellular Ca^{2+} [Ca^{2+}]_i levels increase, Ca^{2+} binds to the Ca^{2+} binding loops, causing conformational changes in the EF-hand motifs from the semi-open to the more 'open' shape (Figure 1.8), promoting the binding of other target proteins including kinases and phosphatases [51]. Furthermore, CaM might have a regulatory role in other muscle activities such as metabolism and activation of <u>CaM</u>-dependent Protein <u>K</u>inases (CaMK) including glycogen synthase kinase and CaMK II, and phosphatases including Cn [56-58].

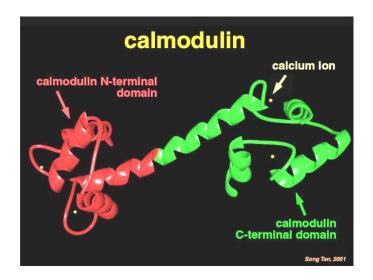


Figure 1.8: The crystal structure of calmodulin (Song Tan, University Park, PA 2001)

1.2.2 Calcineurin (Cn)

Cn is a <u>Calcium/Calm</u>odulin (Ca²⁺/CaM) dependent serine-threonine phosphatase that plays an important role in cell signaling and the immune system. The administration of immunosuppressive drugs such as <u>Cyclos</u>porine <u>A</u> (CsA) and FK506, decreases Cn activity [59, 60]. Cn exists as a heterodimer comprising the <u>Calcineurin A</u> (CnA) subunit with catalytic activity and the <u>Calcineurin B</u> (CnB), which is a calcium binding subunit that helps regulate Cn activity (Figure 1.9A). CnA is made up of two domains; the catalytic domain, which is located at the N-terminal region and the regulatory domain, which is located at the C-terminal region. The regulatory domain has three binding sites; CnB, CaM and autoinhibitory binding domains [61]. At rest, the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels are low and thus the autoinhibitory domain covers the catalytic domain of CnA and renders Cn in an inactive conformation (Figure 1.9B). The opposite takes place during physical activity, where the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels increase and Ca^{2+} binds to the CnB subunit, causing a conformational change that releases the inhibition caused by the autoinhibitory domain (Figure 1.9C). This in turn exposes the CaM binding domain where activated CaM binds to activate Cn phosphatase activity [62, 63].

 $CnA\alpha$, $CnA\beta$ and $CnA\gamma$ are three genes that encode for CnA. The first two are ubiquitously expressed, whereas $CnA\gamma$ is expressed only in brain and testis [61, 64]. $CnA\beta$ exists in two splice variants, $CnA\beta 1$ and $CnA\beta 2$, whose proteins differ in their Cterminal domains [61]. CnA $\beta 1$ lacks the typical autoinhibitory domain present in CnA $\beta 2$, which is replaced by an alternative C-terminal domain, generated by the translation of intronic sequences [64]. It is noteworthy that CnA $\beta 1$ displays a cardio-protective function via activation of the Akt (a protein kinase) and <u>S</u>erum and <u>G</u>lucocorticoid-regulated <u>K</u>inase (SGK) pathways, thus decreasing inflammation [65].

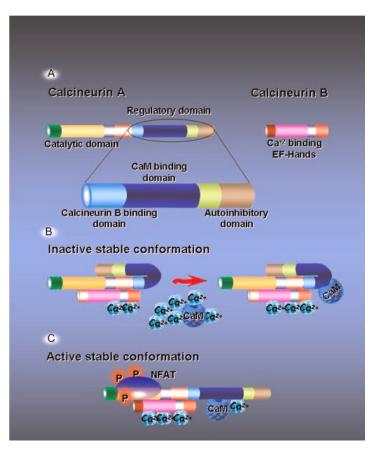


Figure 1.9: Calcineurin structure and its active and inactive conformations[52]

(A) The heterodimeric structure of calcineurin consists of two subunits catalytic-regulatory (calcineurin A) and a Ca²⁺-binding (calcineurin B). Calcineurin A contains two domains, the N-terminal catalytic and C-terminal regulatory, which consists of three domains: the calcineurin binding site, calmodulin binding site and an auotoinhibitory site. (B) In resting skeletal muscle cells where the intracellular Ca²⁺ level is low, calcineurin is in the inactive conformational state. Increased intracellular Ca²⁺ levels activate calmodulin which, in turn, binds to the heterodimer calcineurin, inducing its active conformational changes. (C) In its active stable conformational state, the auotoinhibitory domain has been displaced from the catalytic domain where the nuclear factor of activated T-cell (NFAT) protein binds.

Cn interacts with numerous transcription factors, scaffolding and cytoskeleton proteins. Thus, Cn regulates various functions in muscle, which potentially affect both skeletal and cardiac muscles [66]. For instance, the hypertrophy of skeletal muscle cells in culture is induced by activating Cn, while inhibition of Cn blocks the hypertrophy induced by Insulin Growth Factor-I (IGF-I) [67, 68], suggesting that Cn has a prominent

role in skeletal muscle hypertrophy either alone or with other signals that might be important for activation of Cn-dependent genes [69, 70]. Additionally, when CsA is administered to heat-stressed Wistar rats exercised at 41°C for 60 minutes, a smaller hypertrophic response is induced in their soleus muscles [71].

1.2.3 NFAT proteins; structure and regulation

Cn regulates several signaling pathways through dephosphorylation of a majority of proteins such as the <u>N</u>uclear <u>Factor of A</u>ctivated <u>T</u> cells (NFAT) [72]. NFAT proteins belong to the Rel-family of transcription factors and have a molecular weight that varies between 70 to 200 kDa, due to the presence of different splicing of genes (Figure 1.10) [72].

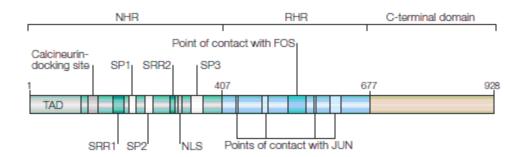


Figure 1.10: The primary structure of NFAT proteins [73]

The NHR includes the calcineurin-docking site, the nuclear localization signal (NLS), the serinerich regions (SRRs) and the SPXX-repeat motifs (SPs). An inducible phosphorylation site has also been described in the N-terminal transactivation domain (TAD) of NFAT. The RHR contains the DNA-binding domain, points of contact with FOS and JUN, which allows the formation of the synergistic NFAT–FOS–JUN–DNA quaternary complex. The phosphoserines that are targeted by calcineurin dephosphorylation are located in the SP2, SP3 and SRR1 motifs.

NFAT transcription factors consist of five isoforms; The first four including NFATc1 (also called NFAT2, or NFATc), NFATc2 (also called NFAT1, or NFATp),

NFATc3 (also called NFAT4, or NFATx) and NFATc4 (also called NFAT3) reside in the cytoplasm in unstimulated cells but rapidly move to the nucleus in response to stimulation triggered by Ca^{2+} mobilization [74]. Therefore, these isoforms have well-known roles in both skeletal and cardiac muscles [72, 75]. The fifth one is called NFAT5 or <u>Ton</u>icity-response Enhancer-Binding Protein (TonEBP) and is insensitive to Cn signaling due to the absence of SPRIEIT sequence. The latter sequence allows Cn to bind to NFAT and dephosphorylate thirteen serine residues of the NFAT protein [76].

Structurally, NFAT consists of three domains: a conserved <u>N-Homology Region</u> (NHR), a conserved <u>Rel-Homology Region</u> (RHR) and a non-conserved <u>C-T</u>erminal <u>Domain</u> (CTD). The first 407 amino acid residues form the N-homology region, which contains a <u>Transactivation Domain</u> (TAD) required for NFAT binding to the promoter region of genes and transcriptional initiation, a Cn docking domain that contains the SPRIEIT sequence, a <u>Nuclear Localization Signal</u> (NLS), <u>Serine-Rich Regions</u> (SRR) and repeating <u>Ser-Pro-X-X</u> motifs (SP) (X refers to any amino acid). Additionally, there is a <u>Nuclear Export Signal</u> (NES) but its exact location in the NFAT primary structure is still unknown [77, 78]. Residues 408 to 677 constitute the RHR domain, which is conserved among all Rel proteins [79]. Finally, residues from 678 to 928 form the CTD whose role is still unclear due to the discrepancy in the length of this domain among NFAT isoforms. Yet, many scientists suggest that it may be responsible for NFAT transcriptional activity [75, 80]. Having this critical structure, an important question could be raised, how does NFAT shuttle between the nucleus and the cytoplasm?

In resting cells, NFAT proteins are located in the cytoplasm. Upon activation, they become dephosphorylated by Cn and then transported to the nucleus [74, 81]. To

examine how phosphorylation controls localization and function of NFAT, the Okamura group in 2000 used a combination of mass spectrometry and systematic mutational analysis. They showed that thirteen out of fourteen conserved phosphoserine residues of NFAT are dephosphorylated by Cn, in an event that contributes to NFAT transcriptional activity [82]. Upon dephosphorylation, the NES sequence of NFAT is hidden, whereas the NLS sequence becomes unmasked allowing NFAT to enter the nucleus. Inside the nucleus, a number of kinases phosphorylate the same serine residues of NFAT that are targeted by Cn, and thus regulate NFAT transcriptional activity. Those kinases include the Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase (MAPK) family that consists of p38, Janus-N-Terminal Kinase (JNK) and Extracellular-Regulated Signal Kinases (ERK). Other kinases include Casein Kinase (CK) and Glycogen-Synthase Kinase3-B (GSK3-B) [83-86]. Upon rephosphorylation, the NES sequence becomes re-exposed whereas the NLS sequence becomes masked, leading to the nuclear export of NFAT back to the cytoplasm [82]. Those regulatory kinases are classified into maintenance kinases that phosphorylate NFAT in the cytoplasm preventing its nuclear import, and export kinases that phosphorylate NFAT in the nucleus promoting its nuclear export. GSK3- β acts as an export kinase on the SPXX repeat motifs; SP2 and SP3 of NFATc1 and on SP2 of NFATc2 [73, 87], whereas CK functions as both a maintenance and an export kinase on SRR1 of NFATc2 [88]. Furthermore, JNK phosphorylates NFATc1, while p38 phosphorylates NFATc2 [84, 86].

1.2.4 Cn/NFAT signaling and Duchenne muscular dystrophy

Activation of Cn signaling is initiated in response to increased levels of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, which binds to Cn and activates its phosphatase activity. It has been shown that Cn signaling can distinguish between different patterns in the amplitude of changes in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ [89, 90]. Cn signaling activity responds to sustained, low-amplitude release of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, which is characteristic of nerves innervating slow muscles [89]. However, phasic nerve activity, which is characteristic of nerves innervating fast fibers leads to high-amplitude of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ that is insufficient to activate the Cn pathway [89].

Activation of Cn leads to dephosphorylation and nuclear localization of dephosphorylated NFAT, which in turn binds to the promoter regions of many genes and potentiates their expressions [91-93]. Some of these genes, such as *utrophin*, are implicated in skeletal muscle diseases, whereas others are linked to cardiac hypertrophy. The autosomal gene *utrophin* is one of the most critical downstream targets of NFAT. The therapeutic value of this gene arises from the high degree of sequence identity that it shares with the *dystrophin* gene [94].

The *dystrophin* gene encodes for the muscle sarcolemmal protein dystrophin, which is 427 kDa and an integral part of the <u>Dystrophin-Associated Protein Complex</u> (DAPC) family [95]. Three tissue-specific promoters of dystrophin include brain (B), muscle (M), and purkinje (P) [96]. The M promoter drives high levels of dystrophin expression in skeletal muscles and cardiomyocytes [96, 97]. Dystrophin is linked to the sarcolemma of normal muscle by DAPC, which is composed of at least 10 different proteins (Figure 1.11). Together with other members of DAPC, dystrophin links the

extracellular matrix with the actin network [98]. Structurally, dystrophin contains four separate regions (Figure 1.12); an actin binding domain at the NH₂ terminus, a central rod domain composed of 24 repeating units giving the molecule a flexible rod-like structure, a WW domain that mediates the interaction between β -dystroglycan (a member of DAPC) and dystrophin, a cysteine-rich domain and a COOH-terminal domain [94].

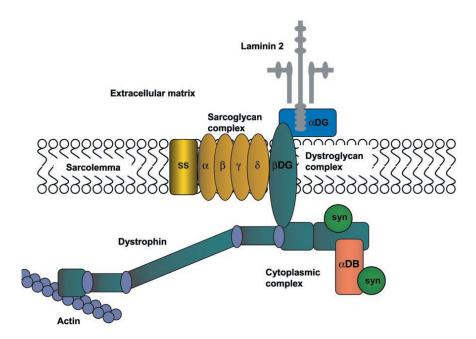


Figure 1.11: Dystrophin associated protein complex. Modified from [94]

Dystrophin binds to cytoskeletal actin at its NH2 terminus. At its COOH terminus, dystrophin is associated with a number of integral and peripheral membrane proteins. β -dystroglycan binds to dystrophin and completes the link between the actin-based cytoskeleton and the extracellular matrix.

<u>D</u>uchenne <u>M</u>uscular <u>D</u>ystrophy (DMD) is a neuromuscular disease caused by loss of dystrophin [95]. <u>Becker M</u>uscular <u>D</u>ystrophy (BMD) is a much milder form of the disease, where patients have much longer survival than DMD [94]. Both disorders are characterized by muscle wasting and early death, and caused by mutations in the gene encoding dystrophin leading to truncated, non-functional protein [94]. Many mutations have been identified in DMD and BMD affecting almost all domains of dystrophin [94]. DMD mutations lead to the absence or much reduced levels of dystrophin protein, due to premature termination of translation associated with protein instability. BMD mutations lead to some partially functional but smaller dystrophin protein, due to the expression of truncated transcripts without affecting the reading frame [94]. Early results show that the cysteine-rich domain is not deleted in BMD, and mutations in this domain and the COOH-terminal domain cause severe clinical phenotypes, suggesting that these domains are critical for dystrophin function [94].

Studies have shown that the regulation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is disrupted in dystrophic muscle fibers due to abnormal fluxes of Ca^{2+} from the SR [94, 99], leading to extensive cycles of degeneration and regeneration accompanied by invasion of free radicals and related oxidative stress [99, 100]. The loss of functional dystrophin, mechanical disruption of the sarcolemma and activation of the Ca^{2+} -dependent protein calpain lead to Ca^{2+} leakage and the triggering of a pathophysiological Ca^{2+} concentration in the cytosol [101, 102].

Currently, there is a limited efficacy for the pharmacological interventions to treat patients with DMD [94]. Glucocorticoids have been used to minimize the inflammatory responses, as well as to enhance the respiratory function of patients [103]. Yet, the side effects of steroids might negatively affect the progression of the disease. Furthermore, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs have been shown recently to ameliorate muscle morphology and reduce macrophage infiltration, without affecting the levels of the dystrophin-homologue protein utrophin [104]. Several studies have shown that upregulating utrophin protein levels at the muscle sarcolemma can compensate for the loss of dystrophin in dystrophin-deficient animal models [105, 106]. In addition, exon skipping in combination with other measures very often has been considered for correcting the gene defect in DMD and expressing the missing dystrophin protein [107-109]. Additionally, Deflazacort has been considered the "gold standard" drug therapy in DMD [110, 111], as it reduces muscle fiber necrosis caused by membrane damage [112, 113]. In addition to its anti-inflammatory effect, Deflazacort upregulates Cn/NFAT pathway activity, which increases utrophin expression [114, 115]. Therefore, utrophin has been considered a strong candidate among therapeutic strategies for treating DMD [105].

The *utrophin* gene is located on chromosome 6 in humans and on chromosome 10 in mice, and encodes a protein with a predicted molecular mass of 395 kDa [116, 117]. The predicted structure of utrophin shares similarity with dystrophin, and both proteins have conserved binding domains (Figure 1.12). Utrophin is highly expressed in most organs including smooth, skeletal and cardiac muscles in addition to vascular endothelia and platelets [118-120]. In healthy adult muscle fibers, utrophin is confined to the <u>Neuromuscular Junctions (NMJ)</u> [119], but in developing muscle, it is located at the sarcolemma [121, 122]. Unlike utrophin, dystrophin accumulates in the cytoplasm (Figure 1.13) [123, 124]. <u>Acetylcholine receptors (AchR) clusters colocalize with utrophin at the NMJ in developing muscle and in cultured muscle cells [125-127]. In myasthenia gravis, an autoimmune neuromuscular disorder caused by circulating antibodies that block AchRs at the NMJ, utrophin is also lost from the NMJ [128, 129]. In DMD, utrophin can relocalize to the sarcolemma and compensate for the lack of dystrophin due to its ability to bind to other components of DAPC [130].</u>

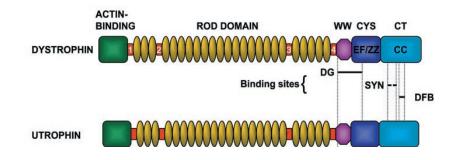


Figure 1.12: Dystrophin and utrophin protein structures. Modified from [94]

An 800 bp fragment of the utrophin promoter is essential for its expression in muscle. The promoter contains: 1) an E-box motif, which is a characteristic motif for muscle specific proteins and binds myogenic transcription factors [131, 132] and 2) an N-box motif essential for directing synapse-specific gene expression [133]. There are two different isoforms of utrophin; utrophin-A and utrophin-B. Utrophin-A is expressed in mature skeletal muscle fibers and utrophin-B is expressed in the endothelial cells [105, 134]. Both isoforms contain different 5' exons and are transcribed from different promoters. In skeletal muscles, the A and B transcripts are relatively equal [134]. Since utrophin-B promoter does not contain an N-box motif, it might not induce the synapse-specific expression of utrophin-B transcripts and this explains the presence of utrophin transcripts in extrasynaptic regions of muscle fibers [134, 135].

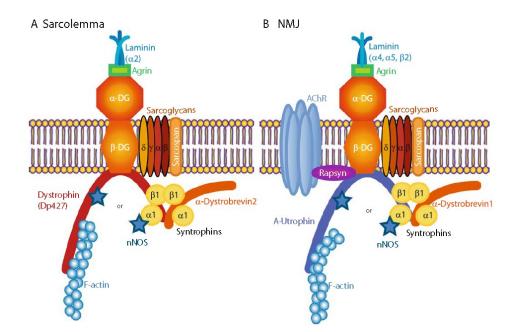


Figure 1.13: Schematic diagram showing dystrophin in the cytoplasm and utrophin at the NMJ [136]

The *mdx* mouse model has been developed to study and represent DMD, as it lacks the full-length dystrophin protein due to a point mutation in exon 23 of the *dystrophin* gene, leading to a premature stop codon [99]. The lack of functional dystrophin protein in *mdx* mice leads to reduced stability of the sarcolemma and necrosis of muscle fibers during a crisis period at 3-4 weeks of age [137, 138]. After this period, extensive degeneration and regeneration of muscle fiber continues, leading to increased proportions of myofibers with centrally located nuclei (a marker for muscle necrosis and regeneration), large variations in myofiber size, elevated levels of muscle enzymes and defective regulation of energy metabolism [137, 139, 140], until mice eventually die due to muscle wasting and respiratory failure [141]. It is clear that DMD and *mdx* mice share common features of the disease including the onset, progression, complexity and severity [94]. Therefore, the *mdx* mouse has been considered a key resource in the identification

of dystrophic pathophysiology and potential therapies [94]. However, Cn serum levels are shown to be lower in DMD patients than *mdx* mice [142] possibly due to insufficient utrophin and impairment of muscle regeneration. To study the importance of utrophin, other knockout (-/-) mice have been generated. *Utrophin-/-* mice do not show any obvious functional abnormalities, but do exhibit reduced numbers of AchRs [143]. Mice deficient for both dystrophin and utrophin show more severe progressive muscular dystrophy than *mdx* mice, resulting in premature death [144, 145]. Thus, the double mutant mouse may provide a useful model for studying human DMD disease and potential therapies using utrophin [146, 147].

Targeting Cn/NFAT signaling is essential to prevent the progression of DMD, knowing that transgenic mice overexpressing Cn (CnA*), where the C-terminal autoinhibitory domain is cleaved, display shifting towards slower MyHC fiber-type, upregulation of utrophin around the sarcolemma and improvement of sarcolemmal integrity [105, 106]. Inhibition of the latter pathway using CsA, leads to skeletal muscle degeneration and impairment of the muscle regeneration process [148]. Interestingly, this mechanism is supported by the finding that Deflazacort attenuates the progression of DMD via activating Cn/NFAT signaling, which mediates gene expression [115]. However, caution should be taken as the increase in Cn levels also might cause severe side effects such as cardiac hypertrophy [149]. Accordingly, DMD patients are susceptible to heart failure when activated Cn is used to alleviate the dystrophic symptoms. The process of upregulating utrophin at the muscle sarcolemma of slow muscle fibers in *mdx* mice via the Cn/NFAT pathway is thoroughly explained in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

In addition to utrophin, overexpressing the <u>H</u>eat <u>Shock Protein 70</u> (HSP70) in *mdx* and *mdx/utrophin-/-* mouse models has been shown to play a role in the rescue of the dystrophic phenotype [150]. The mechanism by which HSP70 improves the dystrophic symptoms is still unclear. However, HSP70 binds to and enhances the function of the <u>Sarcoplasmic Reticulum-Ca²⁺-A</u>TPases (SERCA) in the removal of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ from the cytoplasm by an unknown mechanism [151]. Further, overexpression of HSP70 in rat soleus muscles protect skeletal muscle from atrophy [152]. These effects might explain the importance of targeting HSP70 for the treatment of muscle dystrophy.

1.2.5 Cn/NFAT signaling and cardiac hypertrophy

The role of Cn signaling in cardiac hypertrophy has been under debate for many years. Several studies have shed light on the ability of Cn to trigger reprogramming of gene expression and hypertrophic growth in the heart upon release of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ [81, 149]. The immunosuppressant drugs CsA and FK506 are highly specific inhibitors of Cn and therefore, can block hypertrophic responses in neonatal cardiomyocytes which have been exposed to hypertrophic agonists. Thus, such drugs can be used in treatment of cardiac hypertrophy associated with heart diseases [153]. Moreover, the direct Cn modulators such as <u>Modulatory Calcineurin-Interacting Protein (MCIP)</u> (recently known as RCAN), also can block the hypertrophic response in cultured cardiomyocytes [154].

The Cn/NFAT pathway is initiated upon $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ release and activation of Cn. Subsequently, Cn dephosphorylates members of the NFAT family, specifically NFATc4, which translocates to the nucleus and binds to the promoter of the cardiac-restricted Zinc finger transcription factor GATA4 (Figure 1.14) [155]. The two conserved Zinc fingers of GATA4, are required for binding to the consensus DNA sequences 5'-(A/T)GATA(A/G)-3' [156-158]. GATA4 has been shown to regulate the expression of cardiac structural genes during development [159-161]. Many cardiac fetal genes are activated during physiological and/or pathological heart growth [156]. However, the major ones highlighted in Chapter 4 of this thesis are β -MyHC, Atrial Natriuretic Peptide (ANP) and Brain Natriuretic Peptide (BNP). Thus, binding of NFATc4 to GATA4 leads to the activation of those fetal cardiac genes, which are responsible for physiological cardiac growth during heart development. However, in adult hearts, the activation of these genes would be responsible for pathological cardiac growth [155]. It is noteworthy that in CnA* mice, other Cn-dependent signaling events are augmented. For instance, specific c-Jun N-terminal kinases are activated [162, 163]. Additionally, <u>Calmodulindependent protein Kinase</u> (CaMK), a potent inducer of cardiac hypertrophy, is also activated where it targets the <u>H</u>istone <u>Deac</u>etylase (HDAC) protein complexes, leaving HDAC free (Figure 1.14) [164-166].

Furthermore, the relative <u>H</u>eart <u>W</u>eight to <u>Body W</u>eight (HW/BW) ratio of CnA* transgenic mice is three-fold higher than that of <u>W</u>ild-<u>Type</u> (WT) counterparts. These mice also display a two-fold increase in <u>Cross Sectional Area</u> (CSA) of cardiomyocytes and are more susceptible to death than WT mice. Such effects are blocked by treating CnA* mice with CsA [149]. GATA4 also is phosphorylated by GSK3- β , a negative regulator of cardiac hypertrophy. This phosphorylation leads to the export of GATA4 from the nucleus and thus minimizes the consequences of cardiac hypertrophy [167, 168]. Other kinases that target GATA4 include ERK1/2 and P38 MAPK that phosphorylate GATA4 at serine 105, leading to increased DNA binding affinity during heart failure [169, 170].

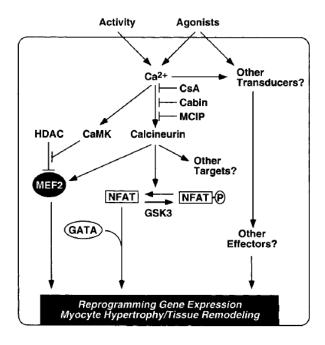


Figure 1.14: Ca²⁺ signaling pathways implicated in cardiac hypertrophy [153]

1.2.6 IGF-1-Akt signaling and cardiac hypertrophy

Stimulation of cardiac hypertrophy is not restricted to Cn. Other signaling pathways have been shown to play a critical role in this process [171]. One major pathway is the IGF-1-Akt/PKB pathway. The importance of Akt, a Protein Kinase B, (PKB) in heart diseases is based on previous data showing that short-term activation of the IGF-1-Akt/PKB pathway induces compensatory cardiac hypertrophy. Moreover, *Akt-/-* mice are not subject to physiological cardiac hypertrophy as are WT mice. On the contrary, mice overexpressing Akt demonstrate severe heart failure, suggesting an important role for Akt in cardiac hypertrophy [172, 173].

At the inner surface of the plasma membrane, IGF-1 binds to the receptor tyrosine kinase <u>IGF-1 Receptor</u> (IGF-R). This binding leads to the phosphorylation of <u>Insulin</u> <u>Receptor Substrate</u> (IRS) by the IGF-R. In turn, phosphorylated IRS activates <u>Phosphatidyl-Inositol-3-Kinase</u> (PI3K) to phosphorylate membrane phospholipids, giving rise to <u>Phospho-Inositide-3,4,5-tri-Phoshate</u> (PIP3) from <u>Phospho-Inositide</u> 4,5-bi-<u>Phosphate</u> (PIP2). At this stage, the inactive Akt translocates from the cytoplasm to the inner surface of the plasma membrane. This leads to a conformational change of Akt followed by its phosphorylation by <u>Phospho-Inositide-Dependent Kinase 1</u> (PDK1) at Threonine 308, which causes its activation. Akt in turn, represses the transcription factors of the Foxo family, and inhibits protein degradation and activation of the <u>m</u>ammalian <u>Target Of Rapamycin</u> (mTOR) and GSK3- β proteins that stimulate protein synthesis (Figure 1.15) [174].

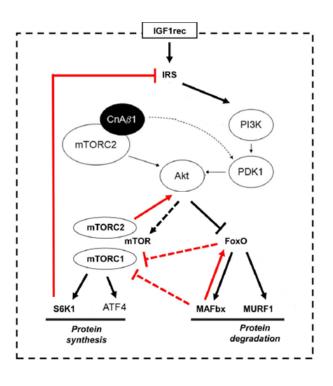


Figure 1.15: The involvement of the IGF-1-Akt pathway in protein synthesis and degradation; (Modified from [65] and [175])

The insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF1)-Akt pathway controls muscle growth via mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and Foxo. The internal feedback loops that control the IGF1-Akt pathway are indicated in red. The dotted line indicates that the effect of Akt on mTOR is indirect and mediated by other proteins. Protein synthesis is mediated by the activation of cardio-protective signaling via CnA β 1 and ATF4 in the heart.

Foxo factors regulate the transcriptional regulation of a ubiquitin ligase called <u>Muscle Atrophy F-box</u> (MAFbx) (also called atrogin-1) and Murf-1, leading to protein degradation via the proteosome [175]. There are two isoforms of mTOR; mTORC1 and mTORC2 [176]. While mTORC2 is required for Akt phosphorylation and activation, mTORC1 phosphorylates <u>S6 Kinase</u> (S6K), which phosphorylates S6 and thus stimulates protein synthesis [177].

To control the IGF-Akt pathway, two feedback loops exist; a negative one which inhibits IRS phosphorylation by S6K leading to degradation and altered localization, and a positive one where mTORC2 phosphorylates Akt at Serine 473 and Threonine 308, by which Akt is activated and protein synthesis is stimulated [178, 179]. Other factors involved in the Akt pathway include the β_1 isoform of the CnA subunit (CnA β_1), which has an essential role in the activation of Akt and thus, is sufficient to produce a protective mechanism [64, 65]. It is possible that CnA β_1 enters the Akt pathway below PI3K (Figure 1.15) and then interacts with mTORC2 through its C-terminal domain, which is critical for the activation of Akt [65]. Further, the <u>A</u>ctivating <u>T</u>ranscription <u>F</u>actor <u>4</u> (ATF4) is considered a potential mediator of the cardio-protective effect produced by CnA β_1 . ATF4 is also a downstream target of mTORC1, and has been shown to activate the amino acid biosynthesis program and induce the expression of a protective growth factor [65, 180, 181]. The role of both the Cn/NFAT and Akt pathways in cardiac hypertrophy are explained in Chapter 4 of this thesis.

1.3 Direct calcineurin modulators

It has been postulated that the direct Cn modulators are part of a feedback inhibition mechanism to control the regulation of the Cn/NFAT pathway and expression of myofiber genes [182, 183]. The importance of the Cn modulators originated from studying different kinds of cardiac myopathy and heart hypertrophy, where the majority of these proteins exhibit a cardio-protective effect [4, 184, 185]. Since utrophin expression in skeletal muscles is regulated by Cn [105], studying the direct regulators of Cn might be essential when seeking pharmacological interventions for DMD. Therefore, we are interested in studying these modulators in skeletal muscles to see if they have a protective role in certain diseases such as muscle dystrophy, especially when various manipulations in the Cn/NFAT pathway are conducted. Some of these modulators are Zline proteins, such as the <u>Ca</u>lcineurin-Interacting proteins (Calsarcins) and <u>M</u>uscle <u>L</u>IM <u>Protein (MLP)</u>, while others have direct interactions with Cn and/or NFAT, such as <u>Regulator of Ca</u>lcineurin <u>1</u> (RCAN 1) and <u>Ca</u>lcineurin <u>In</u>hibitor (CAIN). In both cases, these modulators are major regulators for Cn activity (Figure 1.16).

1.3.1 Z-line proteins

The Z-lines are defined as the lateral boundaries of the basal contractile unit of the myocyte (Figure 1.2) [3]. The Z-disc consists of parallel layers of α -actinin, which is a 97 kDa actin-binding cytoskeletal protein and a member of the dystrophin family, in which the central rod domain is used for interaction with actin and titin filaments from neighboring sarcomeres [186]. It has been shown that α -actinin is essential for stabilizing the muscle sarcolemma at the beginning of the contraction process [187]. Yet, other

proteins can partially substitute for the loss of α -actinin function during myofibrillogenesis (the assembly of myofibrils in skeletal muscles) [188]. Z-disc-associated proteins play a major role in mechanotransduction, a process by which biomechanical stress is sensed by cardiac myocytes and translated to cardiac hypertrophy [189-191].

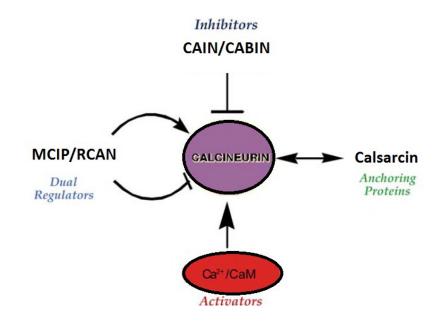


Figure 1.16: Classes of calcineurin binding and regulatory proteins (modified from [192])

Calsarcins, a family of Cn-interacting proteins, tether Cn to α -actinin at the Z- line of cardiac and skeletal muscle cells and inhibit Cn activity, which in turn affects utrophin regulation [184, 193]. Members of this family include calsarcin-1 and calsarcin-2, which are expressed in developing cardiac and skeletal muscles during embryogenesis. In addition, calsarcin-1 is expressed specifically in adult cardiac and slow twitch skeletal muscles, whereas calsarcin-2 is restricted to fast-twitch skeletal muscles [194]. Calsarcin-3 is expressed specifically in skeletal muscle and is enriched in fast-twitch muscles [195]. All members of this family bind to α -actinin, colocalize with Cn and interact with the following Z-line proteins: telethonin, γ filamin, ZASP/oracle and myotilin (reviewed in [190]). It has been reported that mice overexpressing calsarcin-1 are protected against <u>Ang</u>iotensin <u>II</u> (Ang II)-induced cardiac hypertrophy, whereas *calsarcin-1-/-* mice suffer from sensitization to pathological stimuli through pressure overload, excessive Cn activity and exacerbated hypertrophy (reviewed in [4]).

MLP, also known as <u>Cysteine Rich Protein3</u> (CSRP3), contains two LIM domains (tandem zinc fingers consisting of a cysteine-rich consensus) each followed by a glycine rich domain [196]. MLP is tethered to calsarcin-1 and colocalizes with Cn at the sarcomeric Z-disc, thereby affecting Cn activity [197]. It has been revealed that MLP is found in the sarcomeric Z-discs of different species [197-199], in the cytoplasm where it binds with titin [200] and in the nucleus [199]. MLP also binds to the following Z-line proteins: α -actinin, telethonin, Zyxin, N-Rap and β -spectrin [4]. Hypertrophy and dilated cardiac myopathy are reported in MLP-deficient animals, suggesting MLP negatively regulates skeletal and cardiac myofibers [196], whereas overexpression of MLP in differentiating myoblasts, promotes myogenic differentiation [200].

1.3.2 RCAN

RCAN belongs to a family of endogenous Cn regulators that are conserved from yeast to humans. This Cn regulator functions in a negative feedback loop to inhibit Cn activity via its N-terminus [201, 202]. Two different isoforms are identified; RCAN1.1 and RCAN1.4 [203]. Both bind near or at the catalytic domain of CnA and inhibit its activity [204-206].Yet, the expression of the RCAN1.4 isoform is under the control of Cn

through the NFAT binding sites located in exon 4 of the *RCAN* gene [207]. GSK3 phosphorylates the RCAN1 isoform, allowing it to bind and inhibit Cn activity [201]. MAPK can also phosphorylate RCAN1 at five sites giving rise to the phospho-RCAN, which is a good candidate for Cn. Nevertheless, this phosphorylation decreases RCAN affinity to Cn suggesting that the phosphorylated form reduces the inhibitory effect on Cn by RCAN [202]. Binding of RCAN to Cn specifically affects its phosphatase activity, but does not interfere with binding of either Ca²⁺/CaM complex or the regulatory subunit (B) to the catalytic subunit (A) of Cn [208]. It has been shown that overexpression of RCAN1 in mice causes sustained cardiac function after myocardial infarction [185]. Additionally, those mice show *in vitro* and *in vivo* inhibition of Cn activity through direct association with the catalytic subunit [185]. On the contrary, *RCAN1-/-* mice show reduction in cardiac activity, impaired NFAT activation and diminished hypertrophic response to pressure overload similar to mice lacking CnAβ₁ [185, 209].

1.3.3 CAIN

CAIN, also known as Cabin1, is a soluble cytosolic novel Cn-binding 240 kDa protein with no significant similarity to any known protein [182]. CAIN is widely expressed in various tissues as well as in the brain in a similar manner to Cn, suggesting a physiological relationship between the two proteins [182]. Despite its high molecular weight, CAIN contains a putative Cn-binding domain through a very small portion of its COOH terminus, where binding to Cn leads to inhibition of its catalytic activity [182, 210]. Moreover, CAIN functions as a scaffolding protein that is linked to other proteins like kinases and phosphatases in addition to Cn. Yet, it is not clear so far, whether phosphorylation affects its activity or not [182]. It has been shown that mice overexpressing CAIN have repressed NFAT dephosphorylation [211], whereas *cain-/-* mice show no gross defects in Cn activity *in vitro* compared to their WT counterparts [212]. However, the cellular Cn activity of these knockout mice was not measured *in vivo* [213]. The roles of RCAN1, calsarcins and MLP in DMD disease are thoroughly discussed in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

1.4 Thesis organization and hypotheses

Cn/NFAT is one of the most critical Ca^{2+} signaling pathways involved in muscle adaptation and disease. Further, other pathways might interfere with the regulation of this pathway. Thus, it is worth exploring the roles of these molecules, which will provide a better understanding of the regulation of Cn and its modulators in both skeletal muscle and heart diseases. In this manuscript-based thesis, we used transgenic and knockout models in addition to animal breeding to study the role of Ca^{2+} and Cn in DMD and cardiac hypertrophy. For each chapter, I have included background that should be read before the manuscript to help understand the basics of the content. Here is a summary for the chapters:

<u>Chapter 2</u>: The role of the Cn/NFAT pathway and the expression of the <u>Heat Shock</u> <u>Protein 70</u> (HSP70) are discussed in transgenic mice overexpressing the Ca²⁺ buffering protein PV in an *mdx* background. Due to the impairment of Ca²⁺ signaling and the subsequent downregulation of Cn activity, we hypothesize a dramatic exacerbation in the pathology of slow muscle fibers of *mdx*/PV with no changes in HSP70 expression. In this chapter, the role of HSP70 is further studied in *mdx* mice crossed with transgenic mice overexpressing either Cn (which upregulates utrophin expression) or <u>Calmodulin-Binding</u> <u>Protein</u> (CaMBP), (which attenuates Cn activity and reduces utrophin expression). Herein, we hypothesize a constant HSP70 level with such changes in utrophin expression. <u>Chapter 3</u>: The roles of direct Cn modulators are investigated in different transgenic models in an *mdx* background. These regulators have a major feedback mechanism, which is essential for regulating Cn activity. Therefore, they may be of great importance in the treatment of DMD. In this context, we hypothesize that the expression of these proteins would be regulated with changes in Cn activity. Thus, the final objective would be to inhibit these inhibitors, for the sake of rendering Cn active through a reasonable mechanism that does not cause severe side effects such as cardiac hypertrophy.

<u>Chapter 4</u>: The role of the NFATc2 transcription factor is studied in the hearts of adult *NFATc2-/-* mice, where we hypothesize that NFATc2 would be more essential in later stages of normotensive adult hearts than in young mice. Additionally, the importance of this transcription factor is thoroughly revealed in the hearts of *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice stimulated by AngII administration for 14 and 28 days. The objective behind this stress, is to inspect the role of NFATc2 and changes in different signaling molecules when adult hearts are exposed to an additional workload via Ang II implantation.

Chapter 2 : Distinct calcineurin-related transgenic approaches rescue or exacerbate the dystrophic phenotype in fibers from crossbred *mdx* mice despite constant HSP70 expression

Manal Al Zein¹, Bernard J. Jasmin² and Robin N. Michel¹ ¹Department of Exercise Science, Concordia University, Montreal, QC, Canada, ²University of Ottawa, Ottawa, ON, Canada

2.1 Background

In Chapter 2, we are interested in looking at the <u>Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of</u> <u>Activated T</u> cells (Cn/NFAT) signaling in *mdx* mice, an animal model for <u>D</u>uchenne <u>M</u>uscular <u>D</u>ystrophy (DMD), particularly in the context of overexpression of the transgene <u>Parvalbumin</u> (PV) that attenuates Cn activity [214]. Herein, we shed light on the effect of this transgene on the downstream targets of Cn including NFAT and utrophin. Unlike previous animal models, the transgene in this study targets $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics and causes a shift in Ca^{2+} oscillations from low to high amplitude spikes, a characteristic of fast fibers. These high amplitude spikes are insufficient to activate the Cn/NFAT pathway and thus affect utrophin expression and the progression of the disease [89, 214]. Additionally, we seek to investigate the role of the <u>H</u>eat <u>Shock Protein 70</u> (HSP70) that is linked to the <u>Ry</u>anodine <u>R</u>eceptor (RyR) and <u>S</u>arcoplasmic <u>R</u>eticulum-<u>C</u> a^{2+} -<u>A</u>TPases (SERCA), which are considered critical parts of the C a^{2+} cycle and play a major role in maintaining C a^{2+} homeostasis [51].

The results of this chapter are to be submitted for publication to *The FASEB Journal,* which is a premier journal for biomedical and cell biology research. Our work emphasizes the effectiveness of the strategies promoting the slower high oxidative myofiber program via Ca^{2+}/Cn signaling in the treatment of muscle dystrophy. Additionally, they give new insights into the role of HSP70 in rescuing DMD.

Note: Special thanks to Daniel Spensieri who helped in cutting tissues for HSP70 staining.

2.2 Abstract

We have shown the dystrophic phenotype to be rescued by driving the slower oxidative myogenic program via Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (Cn/NFAT) signaling together with an increase in utrophin-A expression (Chakkalakal et al., 2004). In this study, we set out to determine the impact of interfering with Ca^{2+}/Cn based signaling in targeted dystrophin-deficient myofibers. We thus crossbred *mdx* mice with transgenic mice expressing the Ca^{2+} -buffering protein Parvalbumin (PV), driven by the fiber-specific Troponin I slow promoter (TnIs). This approach forced expression of this non-native fast Ca²⁺-regulatory protein in slow fibers, thus lowering their Cn activity. Consistent with impairments in Cn, we observed significant reduction in utrophin-A expression together with a clear exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype in mdx/PV slow fibers exemplified by several pathological indices. However, a recent study suggests an alternate strategy in the rescue of the dystrophic phenotype by overexpressing the Heat Shock Protein 70 (HSP70), without necessary changes in utrophin-A expression (Gehrig et al., 2012). Therefore, we examined HSP70 expression in mdx mice crossbred with mice expressing transgenes either stimulating or attenuating Cn activity. Immunoblotting results showed changes in utrophin-A despite constant levels of HSP70, indicating that the regulation of these two proteins is not correlated. Further, immunofluorescence showed colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I in transgenic-modified mdx slow fibers displaying impaired Cn signaling with exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype. These results not only underscore the therapeutic potential of targeting Ca^{2+}/Cn -based signaling intermediates as effective countermeasures for muscle dystrophy, but also raise questions about the role of HSP70 in rescuing the dystrophic pathology.

2.3 Introduction

"Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy" (DMD), the most prevalent inherited neuromuscular disorder, is caused by the loss of the muscle sarcolemmal protein dystrophin [95]. Dystrophin is an integral part of the Dystrophin-Associated Protein Complex (DAPC) family, which is composed of at least 10 different proteins [94]. Together with other members of DAPC, dystrophin links the extracellular matrix with the actin network [98]. Many mutations have been identified in the *dystrophin* gene preventing the synthesis of the full length protein in DMD patients [94]. These mutations lead to instability of the sarcolemma due to the loss of the linkage provided by dystrophin [215, 216]. Currently, pharmacological interventions show limited efficacy in treating patients with DMD [193].

It has been shown that the regulation of intracellular calcium concentration $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ is disrupted in dystrophic muscle fibers [99]. In healthy muscles, excitation of muscle fiber via a motor nerve generates an action potential that spreads along the sarcolemma and the <u>T</u>ransverse tubular system (T-tubules). Accordingly, the <u>Dihydropyridine</u> <u>Receptor (DHPR)</u>, senses the membrane depolarization, causes conformational changes and activates the <u>Ryanodine Receptor (RyR)</u> leading to the release of Ca²⁺ from the <u>S</u>arcoplasmic <u>Reticulum (SR) [217]</u>. In addition, the rapid re-uptake of Ca²⁺ ions is facilitated by the <u>S</u>arcoplasmic <u>Reticulum-Ca²⁺-A</u>TPase (SERCA) enzymes and the Ca²⁺ binding protein calsequestrin [101]. The disruption in [Ca²⁺]_i kinetics in DMD is caused by abnormal fluxes of Ca²⁺ from the SR (reviewed in [94]), leading to chronic inflammation and extensive cycles of degeneration and regeneration accompanied by invasion of free radicals and related oxidative stress [99, 100]. Such impairment of Ca²⁺ handling in DMD occurs due to loss of functional dystrophin, mechanical disruption of the sarcolemma and activation of the Ca^{2+} -dependent protein calpain, leading to Ca^{2+} leakage and the triggering of a pathophysiological Ca^{2+} concentration in the cytosol [101, 102].

Utrophin, a neuromuscular junctional protein that shares a high degree of sequence identity with dystrophin, has been considered a strong candidate among therapeutic strategies for treating DMD [105]. Several studies have shown that upregulating utrophin at the muscle sarcolemma, compensates for the loss of dystrophin in DMD and dystrophin-deficient animal models [218, 219]. Along with these findings, studies on the *mdx* mouse, an animal model of DMD, have shown that overexpression of utrophin in skeletal muscles results in improvement of the pathological symptoms of the disease [220-222]. The relevance of utrophin as a therapeutic target for DMD has been correlated to its location. Thus, utrophin normally accumulates at the neuromuscular junction sites of slow and fast muscle fibers but extrajunctionally along the sarcolemma in slow fibers [98]. In the *mdx* mouse, utrophin expression is upregulated within extrajunctional regions of slow but not fast fibers via stimulation of the Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (Cn/NFAT) pathway. This event explains utrophin compensation for the loss of dystrophin and the rescuing of the slow fibers but not their fast counterparts, leading to degeneration and eventual death [98].

Of the two isoforms of utrophin, only utrophin-A is expressed in mature skeletal muscle fibers and is under the regulation of the Cn/NFAT pathway, whereas utrophin-B is expressed in endothelial cells [105, 133, 134]. To this end, we have previously shown that utrophin-A expression in slow muscle fibers is regulated by the Cn/NFAT signaling

pathway which promotes the slower, high oxidative myofiber gene program [105]. Ca²⁺ and <u>Calm</u>odulin (CaM), a calcium binding protein, are regulators for Cn and <u>CaM K</u>inase (CaMK) activities [216]. These enzymes modulate the activity of various transcriptional regulators[89]. Once activated, the phosphatase activity of Cn leads to dephosphorylation of NFAT, followed by nuclear translocation and binding to target promoters to stimulate the expression of the slower myofiber genes including *utrophin* [66, 89]. Utrophin-A expression also is influenced by nerve-derived factors including agrin and heregulin, which promote a series of transcriptional reactions that stimulate the activity of the <u>GA-Binding Protein</u> (GABP) α and β [223]. When activated, GABP binds to the N-box motif of the utrophin-A promoter and stimulates utrophin-A expression [223].

To further establish the role of the Cn/NFAT pathway in regulating utrophin-A expression, we and others illustrated the concept that strategies aimed at promoting the slower high oxidative myofiber program in muscle play a role in the treatment of DMD [98, 224, 225]. In our laboratory, the latter strategy was established by crossbreeding *mdx* mice with transgenic mice expressing an activated form of Cn (CnA*), leading to an increase in utrophin-A expression [106]. Moreover, the transgene expression of a small peptide inhibitor called <u>Calmodulin-Binding Protein</u> (CaMBP) driven by the fiber-specific <u>Troponin-slow I</u> promoter (TnIs) in *mdx* mice, leads to a reduction in the levels of utrophin-A and the transcript of slow <u>Myosin Heavy Chain I</u> (MyHC I), thus exacerbating the dystrophic phenotype [98]. This strategy establishes the impact of interfering with Ca²⁺/CaM-based signaling in dystrophin-deficient slow myofibers.

Another strategy in the rescue of the dystrophic phenotype involves overexpressing the Heat Shock Protein 70 (HSP70) in mdx and mdx/utrophin-/- mouse

models [150]. Early studies on human DMD tissues have shown elevated levels of HSP70 suggesting an autoprotective role for this protein [226]. Further, overexpression of HSP70 in rat soleus muscles inhibits skeletal muscle atrophy and therefore is cytoprotective [152]. From this perspective, we have shown earlier that constitutive expression of HSP70 is restricted to the slower, high oxidative fibers (MyHC I and IIa) in rat plantaris [227]. In addition, this heat shock protein binds to and protects the function of the SERCA enzymes [151]. The reason for this protection is not very well understood. However, it might be due to the ability of HSP70 to prevent protein aggregation [228]. Taken together, these findings might explain the potential role of HSP70 in the treatment of muscle dystrophy.

In this study, we introduce a new approach for targeting the Cn/NFAT pathway by forced transgenic expression of the Ca²⁺ buffering protein Parvalbumin (PV) in slow fibers of crossbred *mdx* mice. PV is an EF-hand protein normally expressed only in fast fibers [229], but the transgene is driven by the TnIs, linked to the <u>Ha</u>emaglutinin (HA) epitope and forced expressed in slow fibers leading to a decrease in Cn activity and a turning off of the Cn/NFAT pathway [214]. Our strategy is based on different types of nerve activities controlling fast and slow gene expression programs [89]. Tonic motor nerve activity, which is characteristic of nerves innervating slow muscles leads to lowamplitude sustained [Ca²⁺]_i that activates the Cn/NFAT pathway [89]. However, phasic nerve activity, which is characteristic of nerves innervating fast fibers leads to highamplitude of [Ca²⁺]_i that is insufficient to activate the Cn/NFAT pathway [89]. In agreement, PV overexpression in slow fibers, leads to expression of a fast fiber gene and metabolic profile via shifting Ca^{2+} oscillations from low to high amplitude spikes and subsequent attenuation of Cn signaling [214].

The objective of this study is first to investigate if PV overexpression in *mdx* slow muscle fibers would interfere with Cn/NFAT signaling via utrophin and exacerbate the dystrophic phenotype. Second, we sought to determine if attenuation of the latter pathway and the change in Ca²⁺ dynamics have influenced HSP70, RvR and SERCA isoform expressions. Indeed, PV overexpression led to a prominent exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype in soleus muscles as exemplified by reduction in utrophin-A expression and higher hallmarks of *mdx* cellular damage. However, reduction of utrophin expression was not accompanied by differences in HSP70 protein levels between *mdx* and *mdx* crossed with PV (mdx/PV) mice. In addition, RyR1 (an isoform that is expressed mainly in skeletal muscles) was considerably increased in mice expressing the PV transgene, whereas SERCA 1 and 2 protein levels did not change between mdx and mdx/PV soleus muscles. Additionally, the role of HSP70 was examined in mdx mice crossed with transgenes expressing either CnA^* (*mdx*/CnA^{*}) that rescues the dystrophic phenotype, by upregulation of utrophin-A [106] or CaMBP (mdx/CaMBP) that exacerbates muscular dystrophy, by downregulation of utrophin-A [98]. Our results showed constant HSP70 levels with either an increase in utrophin-A levels in Tibialis Anterior (TA) muscles of mdx/CnA* or a decrease in utrophin-A expression in soleus muscles of mdx/CaMBP mice. Finally, immunofluorescence experiments (IFs) showed colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I fibers in mdx and mdx/PV mice and with both MyHC I and IIa in *mdx*/CnA* mice but not with utrophin positive fibers.

These results collectively emphasize that strategies promoting the slower high oxidative myofiber gene program via Ca^{2+}/Cn signaling are considered effective countermeasures in the treatment of DMD, but independent of HSP70. Additionally, they raise questions about the potential role of HSP70 in rescuing the dystrophic pathology.

2.4 Methods

2.4.1 Animals

Animal care and experimental procedures were performed in accordance to the guidelines of the Canadian Council of Animal Care. Transgenic mice expressing either CnA*, CaMBP or PV proteins were generated as described previously [163, 214, 230]. Female *mdx* mice were crossed with CnA*, CaMBP or PV tagged with HA (PV-HA) transgenic mice resulting in pups having the dystrophic pathology. Male pups were selected for the experiments and the presence of the transgene in PV and *mdx*/PV mice was identified by PCR screening of genomic DNA extracted from tails using primers recognizing PV-TnIs (Sigma Genosys). Immunoblotting of soleus proteins using anti-PV antibody (Swant) was also performed to detect PV whereas, Extensor Digitorum Longus (EDL) tissues were used as a negative control. Wild-Type (WT), PV, CnA*, CaMBP, *mdx*, *mdx*/PV, *mdx*/CnA* and *mdx*/CaMBP of 10-12 week old male mice were utilized for all subsequent analyses.

2.4.2 Mice genotyping

Mdx genotyping was performed by amplifying DNA from mouse tails as described earlier [231]. Briefly, 5 μ l of DNA was added to 4 μ l Taq buffer with KCl

(Fermentas), 2 mM MgCl₂ (Fermentas), 0.2 mM dNTP (Invitrogen), 0.66 µM primers (Sigma Aldrich) and 1µl Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentas) yielding a final volume of 20 µl. The following primers were used; a common forward primer: 5'-GCGCGAAACTCATCAAATATGCGTGTTAGTGT-3', a mutant reverse primer: 5'-CGGCCTGTCACTCAGATAGTTGAAGCCATTTTA-3 and a WT reverse primer: 5'-GATACGCTGCTTTAATGCCTTTAGTCACTCAGATAGTTGAAGCCATTTTG-3'.

Cycling conditions were as follows: 1) initial denaturation at 95°C for two minutes, 2) five cycles of first-stage amplification including: denaturation at 95°C for 20 seconds, primer annealing at 60°C for 20 seconds and extension at 72°C for 20 seconds, 3) 23 cycles of the second-stage amplification including: denaturation at 95°C for 20 seconds, primer annealing at 64°C for 20 seconds and extension at 72°C for 20 seconds, 4) final extension at 72°C for one minute. PCR products were loaded on a 3% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and resolved, after electrophoresis, under UV irradiation using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system (Cell Biosciences).

Detection of CnA* and CaMBP transgenes was thoroughly described in earlier studies [98, 106]. Similarly, PV-HA in PV transgenic mice was identified by extracting DNA from mouse tails followed by the addition of 2 µl DNA to 1X Taq buffer with KCl (Fermentas), 2 mM MgCl₂ (Fermentas), 0.2 mM dNTP (Invitrogen), 0.5 mM primers (Sigma Aldrich) and 0.5 µl Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentas) yielding a final volume of 25 µl. The following forward and reverse primers were used: 5'-CCCACCAGCCC AGCTTTTCTA-3'and 5'-TTAGGCGTAGTCGGGCACGTCATATGGGTAGCTTT GG CCAC-3' respectively. Cycling conditions were as follows: 1) initial denaturation at 95°C for five minutes, 2) denaturation at 94°C for 30 seconds, 3) primer annealing at 65 °C for one minute and extension at 72°C for one minute, 4) repeat steps 2 and 3 for 24 cycles, 5) final extension at 72°C for ten minutes. PCR products were loaded on 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and visualized as described above.

2.4.3 Muscle extraction and preservation

Mice were anesthetized by a mixture of 100 mg/ml ketamine hydrochloride (Bimeda-MTC Animal Health Inc.) and 20 mg/ml xylazine (Bayer HealthCare) in a volume ratio of 1.6:1. A dosage of 0.04 ml/30 g of body weight was administered intramuscularly to each mouse. Muscles were extracted and frozen directly in liquid nitrogen for biochemical use or embedded with Tissue-Tek Optimum Cutting Temperature compound (Fisher Scientific) and frozen in a pool of melting isopentane cooled in liquid nitrogen for histology. Samples were then stored at -86°C until used. Animals were euthanized after extraction using CO₂ gas.

2.4.4 Immunofluorescence

Assessment of NFATc1 nuclear localization was done as described earlier [106]. In summary, soleus muscle cross sections (10 µm thick) were fixed with 4% Paraformaldehyde (PFA), blocked and permeabilized with 2% goat serum and 0.2% Triton X-100, then washed with 1X phosphate buffer saline (PBS) and incubated at 4°C overnight with primary antibodies recognizing NFATc1. This was followed by incubation with secondary antibodies coupled with fluorescent molecules for one hour, with subsequent washing and mounting with Vectashield containing 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (Dapi) (Vector laboratories). Quantification of NFATc1 nuclear localization

was performed by counting the number of myonuclei positively stained for NFATc1 in cross sectional views of myofibers and calculating the percentage of nuclear NFATc1.

Colocalization of utrophin with MyHC I and IIa was performed as described previously [193]. Co-staining was achieved by applying anti-utrophin antibody together with either anti-MyHC I or IIa antibodies at 4°C overnight. On the following day, secondary antibodies for utrophin detection with secondary antibodies for either MyHC I or IIa were applied for one hour. This was followed by washing, mounting with Vectashield with Dapi and detection using fluorescent microscopy. Additionally, the percentage of fibers with central nucleation in positively stained MyHC I fibers was calculated and compared in mdx and mdx/PV mice. Further, the colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I, MyHC IIa, MyHC IIb and utrophin was done as previously discussed [193]. Serial sections (10 µm thick) were fixed, blocked and incubated with primary and secondary antibodies as described above. The same areas were captured at 40X magnification to detect the presence or absence of co-staining using a Zeiss Axioplan fluorescence microscope mounted with a Lumenera Infinity 3-1C1.4 camera (Ottawa, ON, Canada). Negative control slides without primary antibodies revealed the absence of background staining at the acquisition time used. Colocalization analysis was performed using ImagePro Plus version 6.2 software (Olympus, Markham, ON, Canada). All primary and secondary antibodies and their proper conditions are listed in Table 2.1.

PROTEIN	SUPPLIER	1°ANTIBODY (overnight)	2°ANTIBODY (1 hour)
NFATc1	Santa Cruz# sc-13033	1:50	1:100 Alexa Fluor® 488 Goat anti- rabbit IgG (Invitrogen# A-11008)

Utrophin	Santa Cruz# sc-15377	1:40	1:100 Alexa Fluor® 546 Goat anti- rabbit IgG (Invitrogen# A-11010)
MyHC I	DSHB# A4.840	1:100	1:200 anti-mouse IgM FITC conjugate (Sigma Aldrich# F9259)
MyHC IIa	DSHB# SC-71	1:10	1:100 Alexa Fluor® 488 Goat anti- mouse IgG (Invitrogen# A-11001)
MyHC IIb	DSHB# BF-F3	1:25	1:100 anti-mouse IgM FITC conjugate (Sigma Aldrich# F9259)
HSP70	Enzo Life Sciences# ADI-SPA-812)	1:10	1:100 Alexa Fluor® 546 Goat anti- rabbit IgG (Invitrogen# A-11010)

2.4.5 Fiber typing

Immunohistochemistry of MyHC I and IIa in slow muscle fibers from *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice was conducted using specific antibodies. Briefly, soleus cross sections were blocked for one hour, incubated with anti-MyHC I or IIa overnight at 4°C, washed and further incubated for two hours with secondary anti-mouse IgM (A8786, Sigma Aldrich) and anti-mouse IgG (A8924, Sigma Aldrich) to detect MyHC I and IIa, respectively. Slides then were washed for several times, incubated with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) (Thermoscientific) for five minutes and finally dried, mounted and visualized. The percentage of fibers stained for each of MyHC I and IIa was calculated in three 20X cross sectional views of myofibers from the mid-belly regions of soleus muscles, from four animals per group. Cross sectional areas also were measured and analyzed in the corresponding tissues.

2.4.6 RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)

Skeletal muscles were homogenized in a solution of guanidinium thiocyanate (Sigma Aldrich), sodium citrate, N-laurylsarcosine (Sigma Aldrich) and 2mercaptoethanol (Bioshop), followed by addition of sodium acetate (pH 4.0) with vortexing, phenol (Sigma Aldrich) and chloroform: isoamyl alcohol until a white emulsion appeared. Samples were cooled on ice for fifteen minutes, and then centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. Afterwards, two volumes of 99% ethanol were added to the aqueous layer with vortexing and centrifugation again at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol was decanted and the RNA was suspended in 200 μ l of 70% ethanol and centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol again was decanted and the RNA pellet was dried and suspended in 15 µl of RNAse free H₂O (Bioshop) per 10 mg of tissue with subsequent vortexing and heating at 70°C for 3 minutes. The RNA concentration was measured and its integrity was validated using an Eppendorf Biophotometer (Eppendorf) at 260nm. About 2 µg of RNA was mixed with a 2:1 formamide:ethidium bromide, formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich), 10X MOPS (pH 7.0) and bromophenol blue, heated at 65°C for ten minutes and loaded on a 1.5% agarose gel containing 1X MOPS and formaldehyde. All rRNA bands; 5S, 18S and 28S were visualized indicating RNA integrity. The changes in the abundance of utrophin, utrophin-A, MyHC I and MyHC IIa were assessed using real time PCR. Briefly, 2 µg of freshly extracted RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using iScript reverse transcription supermix (Bio-Rad) and qPCR was performed using gene specific primers together with proper reference genes for quantification (CFX96 Real-Time System, Bio-Rad). Relative quantities then were normalized by the Real-time System software to the average relative

quantities of the *36B4*, *beta actin* and *gamma actin* housekeeping genes. All primer sequences used for qPCR in this study are listed in Table 2.2.

Gene	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer	Product Size(bp)
Utrophin	5'- gtttgaggtgcttcctcagc -3'	5'- gcgctatctggtagctgtcc -3'	203
Utrophin-A	5'- tggaccatttttcagattta -3'	5'- atcgagcgtttatccatttg -3'	207
MyHC I	5'- ctcccaaggagagacgactg-3'	5'-ttaagcaggtcggctgagtt-3'	252
MyHC IIa	5'- gaaccctcccaagtacgaca-3'	5'- taagggttgacggtgacaca -3'	147
36B4	5'- getecaageagatgeagea -3'	5'- ccggatgtgaggcagcag -3'	143
β- actin	5'- ccagccatgtacgtagccatccag -3'	5'- cacgcacgatttccctctcagctgt -3'	244
y- actin	5'- acccaggcattgctgacaggatgc-3'	5'-ccatctagaagcatttgcggtggacg-3'	216

Table 2.2: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR

2.4.7 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting

Protein levels of PV, utrophin, HSP70, RyR1, SERCA1 and SERCA2 were measured by immunoblotting using extracts from soleus tissues of WT, PV, mdx or mdx/PV mice. Similarly, utrophin and HSP70 protein levels were detected in TA muscles of mdx and mdx/CnA* mice and in soleus muscles of mdx or mdx/CaMBP mice using commercially available primary and secondary antibodies coupled to horse radish peroxidase (HRP). Briefly, tissues were homogenized in 1X RIPA buffer solution (6 µl/mg tissue) consisting of 1X PBS, 1% Igepal, 0.5% Sodium Deoxycholate, 0.1% Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS), 0.001 M Sodium Orthovanadate, 0.01 M Sodium Fluoride, 0.01 mg/ml Aprotinin, 0.01 mg/ml Leupeptin and 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). Homogenates were centrifuged at 15,000 x g for twenty minutes and the supernatant layers were collected and re-centrifuged.

Protein concentrations were measured using Quick Start Bradford dye reagent (Bio-Rad), followed by loading 40 µg of soleus or TA and 5 µg of EDL proteins, with electrophoresis using SDS-PAGE (5% gel for utrophin and RyR1 and 12% for PV, HSP70, SERCA1 and SERCA2) at 120V and transfer at 30V for 90 minutes, using Borax (Bioshop), to a Polyvinyl difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Millipore). This was followed by blocking for one hour using either 5% non-fat milk in Tween/Tris Buffered Saline (T/TBS) or 1% Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) in 0.1% T/TBS. Primary antibodies were incubated on a shaker at a moderate speed and at 4°C overnight. Membranes then were washed and incubated with secondary antibodies (Sigma Aldrich and Cell Signaling) coupled to HRP on a shaker at room temperature and moderate speed for one hour, followed by washing and developing with enhanced chemi-luminescence reagents (Millipore) using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system (Cell Biosciences). Bands were then quantified and their intensities were measured using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem software. Alpha tubulin was used as a loading control and groups were normalized to WT. All information about antibodies, suppliers and conditions are listed in Table 2.3.

PROTEIN	SUPPLIER	PRODUCT SIZE (kDa)	1°ANTIBODY (overnight)	2°ANTIBODY (1 hour)
Utrophin	Novacastra #NCL-DRP2	395	1:500 in T/TBS	1:500 in T/TBS (anti-mouse)
PV-HA	Swant	Endogenous=12 Transgene=14	1:2000 for soleus and 1:10000 for EDL in 5%milk	1:2000 for soleus and 1:10000 for EDL in 5% milk (anti-rabbit)
HSP70	Enzo Life Sciences #ADI-SPA-810	70	1:2000 in 5%milk	1:2000 in 5%milk (anti-mouse)

Table 2.3: Antibodies and their conditions for immunoblotting

RyR1	Abcam #ab2868	565	1:500 in 5%milk	1:5000 in 5%milk (anti-mouse)
SERCA1	Pierce # MA3-912	110	1:1000 in 5%milk	1:5000 in 5%milk (anti-rabbit)
SERCA2	Pierce #MA3-919	110	1:500 in 5%milk	1:5000 in 5%milk (anti-rabbit)
α-tubulin	Cell Signaling #2125	52	1:2000 in 5%milk	1:2000 in 5%milk (anti-rabbit)

2.4.8 Assessment of central nucleation and muscle fiber size

Necrosis and regeneration of soleus muscles was assessed using Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E) to examine the percentage of fibers with centrally located nuclei. Hematoxylin stains the nucleus purple, whereas eosin stains the cytoplasm pink. Simply, cross sections (10 µm thick) from soleus muscles were stained with H&E, dehydrated through a series of alcohol solutions, cleared with xylene and mounted using permount (Fisher Scientific). The sections were visualized using a standard light microscope, and images were captured and used to count the number of fibers with centrally located nuclei. The extent of regeneration occurring in soleus muscles was determined by counting the number of fibers having central nucleation relative to the total number of fibers and then comparing the average percentage of fibers with central nuclei between samples [106]. To assess size variability of fibers within dystrophic mice, a pathological feature of *mdx* mice [232], cross sectional area for each individual fiber was measured using ImagePro Plus Software. The average standard deviation from three 20X cross sectional views of myofibers from the mid-belly of muscles from four animals per group was calculated and the values were compared between mdx and mdx/PV mice.

2.4.9 Evans Blue uptake and staining

Evans Blue dye (EBD) injections were carried out as described elsewhere [233]. Briefly, 50 μ l/10 g of body weight of EBD (Fisher Scientific) was injected intraperitoneally. Muscles were isolated 12 to 16 hours later, frozen in isopentane, then in liquid nitrogen and finally removed and stored at -86°C. Prior to visualizing the tissues under the microscope, 10 μ m sections were collected, fixed in 4% PFA for 20 minutes, washed five times for five minutes with PBS and mounted with Vectashield mounting medium. The intensity level of Evans blue dye was determined using ImagePro Plus Software by converting images to 8-bit gray scale and determining the total and average gray intensity in cytosolic regions of myofibers as a measure of Evans blue dye fluorescence. The average gray intensity was then compared between groups with three animals per group. Three 10X cross sectional views from soleus mid-belly regions were used to obtain average intensities.

2.4.10 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS software program version 17.0. (IBM SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Results were expressed as means \pm SEM. Statistical differences between individual groups (P<0.05) were analyzed using One Way Analysis of Variance (Anova) to test for differences among four groups of different phenotypes. Student's *t*-test was applied when comparing only two groups with one variable. Analyses for Chapter 2 are fully explained in Appendix I.

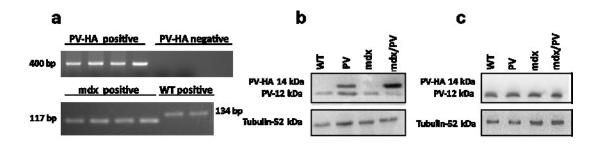
2.5 Results

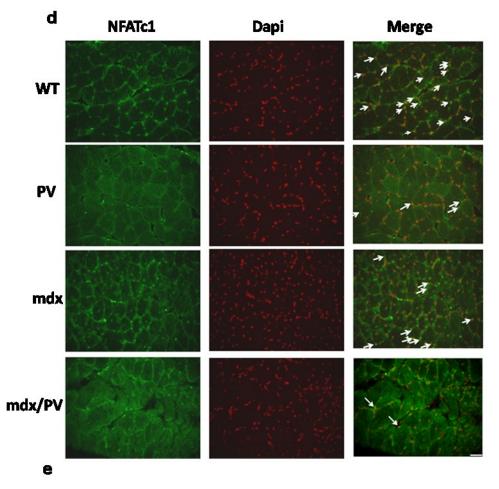
2.5.1 Generation and identification of *mdx*/PV mice

To assess the role of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics in a dystrophin-deficient background, we generated *mdx* mice expressing the PV transgene specifically in slow muscle fibers. Our previous findings determined that PV-TnIs mice are healthy and capable of breeding [214]. PCR-based screening was used to identify animals expressing the PV transgene in addition to a spontaneous nonsense mutation in exon 23 of the *dystrophin* gene in *mdx* mice [234, 235] (Figure 2.1a). Immunoblotting analyses of soleus and EDL muscles from WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice demonstrated the presence of endogenous PV in both soleus (Figure 2.1b) and EDL (Figure 2.1c) muscles of all mice and the expression of the PV-HA transgene solely in soleus muscles of PV and *mdx*/PV mice with no detectable levels in EDL muscles.

2.5.2 Forced expression of PV transgene leads to impairment of downstream Ca²⁺/CaM-based signaling

To assess the consequences of impaired CaM signaling in slow muscle fibers from *mdx*/PV mice, we sought to determine the nuclear localization of NFATc1, which has been shown to be regulated by the Cn pathway [66, 236, 237]. IFs of soleus muscles demonstrated changes in NFATc1 nuclear localization (Figure 2.1d). Quantitative assessment revealed a significant decrease in the nuclear localization of NFATc1 in PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV compared to WT and in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* soleus muscles (Figure 2.1e).





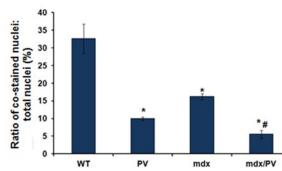


Figure 2.1: Forced expression of PV in *mdx* slow fibers decreases Cn signaling via NFATc1 nuclear localization

(a) Representative photomicrographs depicting DNA products of PV-HA and *mdx* genotyping, using a forward primer from the PV-cDNA and a reverse primer from the HA epitope tag, which was inserted at the 3' end of the cDNA to generate a 400 bp product representing the PV-HA cDNA. For *mdx*, the first five nucleotides of the common forward and the mutant reverse primers are not present in the *dystrophin* gene, whereas the first 23 nucleotides of the WT mutant primer were chosen arbitrarily to give a larger product (134 bp in WT *vs* 117 bp in *mdx*). (b-c) Representative immunoblots for PV-HA in soleus (b) and EDL (negative control) (c) muscles giving products of 12 kDa for the endogenous PV and 14 kDa for the PV-HA transgene. The 2 kDa difference is due to the HA epitope tag. (d) Representative photomicrographs for NFATc1 nuclear localization by IF. Arrows indicate nuclei positively stained for NFATc1. (e) Quantification reveals significant reduction in PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV compared to WT (*) and in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* (#) (n=3; P<0.05). Scale bars, 20µm. Means ± SEM are shown.

We previously have assessed alterations in gene expression of fiber type-specific genes that may be downstream of a Ca²⁺-regulated transcriptional pathway. These changes are accompanied by the overexpression of PV [214]. We also have shown that changes in mRNA levels for these proteins are related to alterations in Cn activity [214]. Furthermore, Cn signaling has been shown to be involved in controlling the slow oxidative myofiber program, as well as the transcriptional activity of slower isoforms of MyHC genes [89, 91, 238-241]. Therefore, we tested the mRNA levels of both *MyHC I* and *MyHC IIa*. Accordingly, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles did not show significant differences in the transcript levels of both isoforms (Figures 2.2a and 2.2b).

Further, immunohistochemical analyses showed no fiber-type switching between MyHC I and MyHC IIa in soleus muscles of *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* mice (Figures 2.2c and 2.2d), suggesting that the changes in Cn downstream signaling accompanied by the expression of the PV transgene are not due to fiber type switching.

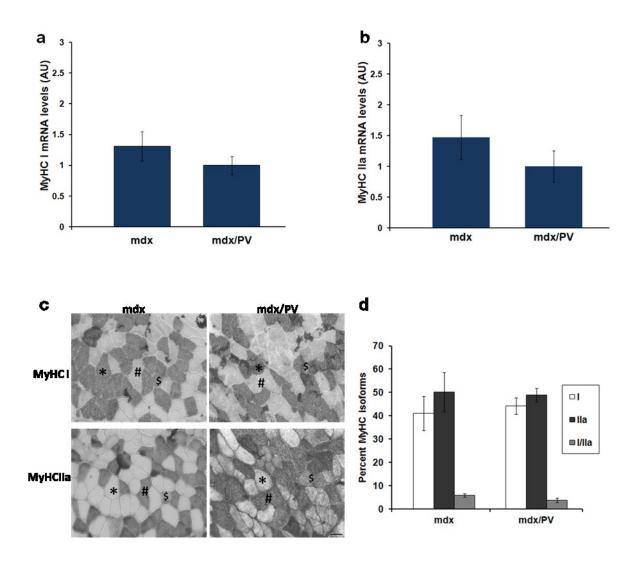


Figure 2.2: PV expression does not cause fiber type conversions in *mdx* soleus muscles

QPCR histograms of mRNA levels of *MyHC I* (**a**) and *MyHC IIa* (**b**) in soleus muscles of *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. Relative quantities are normalized to 36B4, beta and gamma actin (n=4). AU represents Arbitrary Units. (**c**) Representative photomicrographs of cross sections from *mdx*, and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles processed to detect MyHC I and MyHC IIa. Fibers labeled with (*) and (#) express MyHC I and MyHC IIa respectively and the ones labeled (\$) co-express both MyHC I and IIa in the different cross sections. Scale bars, $40\mu m$ (**d**) MyHC fiber type proportions in *mdx* soleus are not changed by the PV transgene (n=4). Means ± SEM are shown.

2.5.3 Utrophin and utrophin-A expressions are reduced in *mdx*/PV soleus muscles

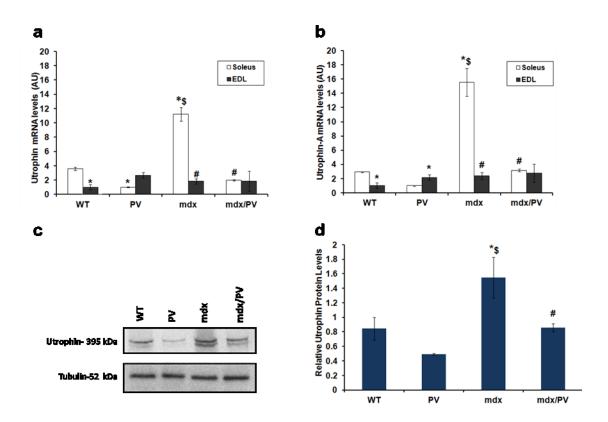
Repeatedly, we have correlated changes in utrophin expression with changes in Cn activity [98, 106]. In the present study, we hypothesized that the impairment of Cn activity driven by PV overexpression would have affected utrophin and utrophin-A expression in slow muscle fibers. Indeed, qPCR analyses showed reduction in the mRNA levels of both *utrophin* and *utrophin-A* in PV compared to WT soleus muscles and in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* soleus muscles (Figures 2.3a and 2.3b). In these experiments, EDL was used as a negative control to show first, that expression of the transgene did not affect *utrophin* and *utrophin-A* expression in EDL *mdx*/PV muscle fibers and secondly, to show the significant differences in the expression of the latter genes between soleus and EDL muscle fibers from WT mice, confirming previous semi- quantitative RT-PCR data [242].

In agreement with the qPCR results, immunoblotting experiments showed a significant reduction of total utrophin protein levels in mdx/PV compared to mdx soleus muscles, while mdx muscles showed a significant increase compared to WT and PV soleus muscles (Figures 2.3c and 2.3d).

Utrophin expression in *mdx* mice is upregulated within extrajunctional regions of slow but not fast fibers, which plays a critical role in compensation for the loss of dystrophin. This compensation rescues slow but not fast fibers, which will eventually die [98]. Therefore, we next examined whether Cn pathway impairment compromised slow fibers due to reduced utrophin expression. IFs revealed reduced utrophin staining in both

MyHC I and IIa fibers of *mdx*/PV soleus muscles, suggesting that these fibers were not rescued from damage. However, there was positive utrophin staining in MyHC I fibers of *mdx* soleus muscles indicating that these fibers were rescued by utrophin and protected from damage (Figures 2.3e and 2.3f).

Thus, expression of the PV transgene in slow dystrophin-deficient muscle fibers resulted in impaired activity of downstream targets for CaM-based signaling, including NFATc1 as well as utrophin expression in slow myofibers.



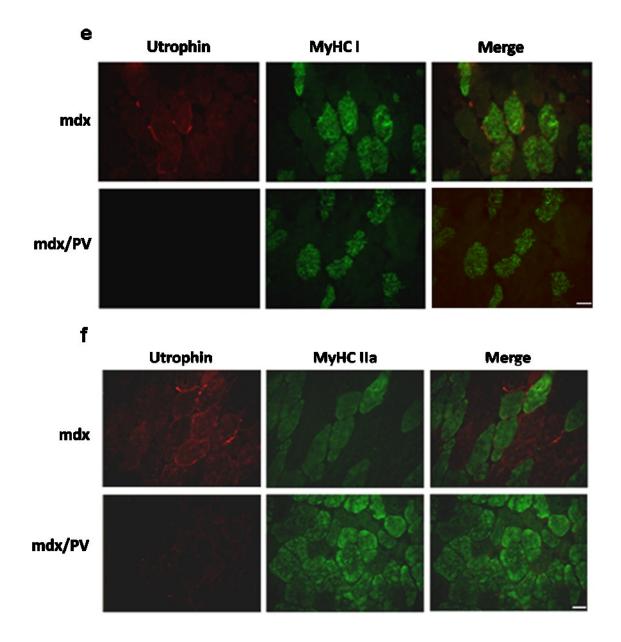


Figure 2.3: PV expression in WT and *mdx* soleus muscles leads to decreased utrophin expression

QPCR of mRNA levels of *utrophin* (**a**) and *utrophin-A* (**b**) in soleus and EDL tissues of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. Relative quantities are normalized to 36B4, beta and gamma actin (n=4 for soleus and n=3 for EDL). AU represents Arbitrary Units. (**c-d**) Representative immunoblot and quantification for total utrophin protein levels in the soleus muscle of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. Relative quantities are normalized to α -tubulin (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to WT soleus; \$compared to PV soleus, #compared to *mdx* soleus. Means ± SEM are shown. (**e-f**) IFs for utrophin co-staining with MyHC I (**e**) and MyHC IIa (**f**) in *mdx* and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles (n=3). Scale bars, 20µm.

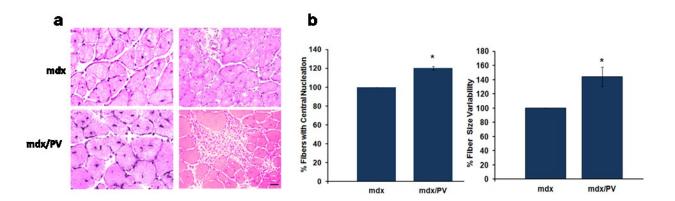
2.5.4 Dystrophic slow fibers expressing PV exhibit more hallmarks of *mdx* cellular damage

Reduced utrophin expression in mdx mice has been correlated with augmented severity in dystrophic pathology [144, 146]. To determine whether impairment of Cn signaling and reduced utrophin expression have affected the pathological features in slow fibers of mdx/PV mice, we assessed several morphological indices in soleus muscles from mdx/PV mice.

H&E staining of muscle sections revealed an exacerbated appearance and extended infiltration in mdx/PV muscle fibers compared to mdx counterparts. The left column shows more central nucleation, whereas the right column shows more fibrosis and infiltrate in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* (Figure 2.4a). Quantification and measurement showed a $\sim 20\%$ increase in the percentage of fibers with central nucleation in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* soleus muscles (Figure 2.4b), indicating extensive cycles of regeneration and degeneration in those fibers. The latter suggests, once again, the role of the Cn pathway in the improvement and/or exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype [98, 106]. Additionally, healthy skeletal muscle exhibits relatively uniform size in individual muscle fibers [234]. Among the several pathological parameters, dystrophic muscle fibers display more variations in fiber size than normal muscles [234]. Quantitative evaluation of fiber size variability determined by the averaged standard deviation of the cross sectional areas of soleus muscles, revealed higher variability in mdx/PV compared to mdx(Figure 2.4b). This exacerbation is in agreement with our previous findings that impairment of the Cn pathway has a critical role in the pathological features of mdx muscle fibers [98, 106].

To test for membrane integrity that might have been affected by reduced utrophin expression, we injected *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice with the small dye Evans Blue (EB) and monitored, using fluorescence microscopy, the uptake of the dye in myofibers (Figure 2.4c). This dye is normally excluded from cytosolic regions of normal muscle fibers except if lesions take place in the sarcolemma [233]. Quantitative assessment of the average intensity of EB staining showed a significant increase in soleus muscles from *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* mice (Figure 2.4d). These results add to the pathological features of *mdx*/PV soleus muscle fibers and suggest a correlation with reduced utrophin expression.

Fast fibers are more susceptible than their slower counterparts to damage stimulated by forced lengthening contractions [243, 244], whereas slow muscle fibers in *mdx* mice are rescued by upregulation of utrophin [220]. Therefore, we hypothesized that slow muscle fibers of *mdx*/PV would be more sensitive than *mdx* slow muscle fibers. This was tested by measuring the percentage of slow fibers with central nucleation in soleus tissues stained with MyHC I in both *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice (Figure 2.4e). Quantification revealed more central nucleation in MyHC I positive fibers of *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* MyHC I positive fibers (Figure 2.4f).



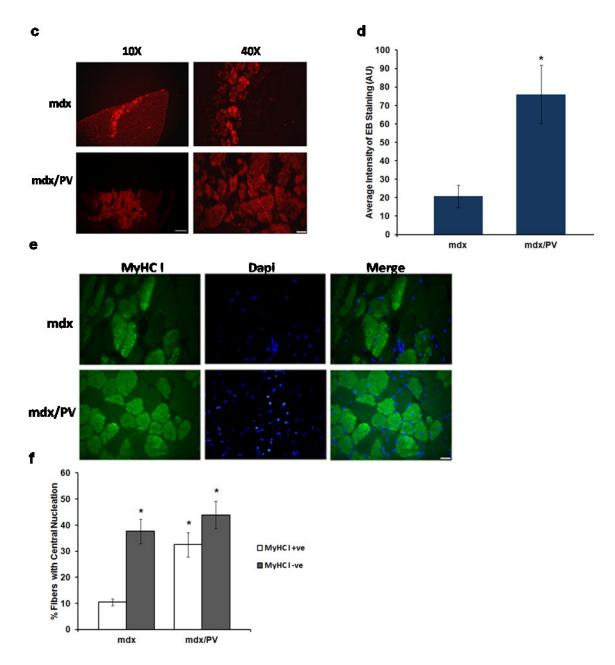


Figure 2.4: Dystrophic slow fibers expressing PV exhibit more hallmarks of *mdx* cellular damage

(a) Representative photomicrographs of cross sections from mdx and mdx/PV muscles processed for hematoxylin and eosin staining. Scale bars, 50µm. (b) Quantitative evaluation of central nucleation and size variability. Values are normalized to mdx and then multiplied by 100 (n=4; *p<0.05). (c) Cross sectional views of Evans blue dye-positive regions of soleus muscles from mdx and mdx/PV mice intraperitoneally injected (images taken at 10X; scale bars, 100µm and 40X; scale bars, 20µm). (d) Assessment of Evans blue dye staining in damaged regions of mdxand mdx/PV mice (n=3; *p<0.05). AU represents Arbitrary Units. (e-f) IFs for MyHC I showing central nucleation in MyHC I +ve fibers of mdx and mdx/PV mice. Scale bars, 20µm. (n=4 for mdx and n=3 for mdx/PV; *P<0.05). Means ± SEM are shown.

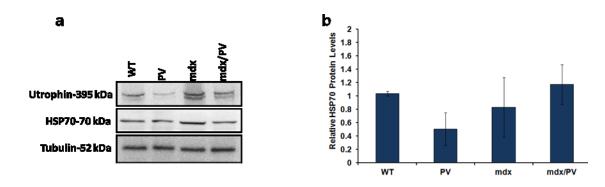
2.5.5 HSP70 expression does not change in soleus msucle of mdx/PV with reduction in utrophin level

Early studies done on human DMD tissues have shown elevated levels of HSP70, suggesting an autoprotective role for this protein [226]. Moreover, it has been recently demonstrated that pharmacological induction of HSP70 preserves muscle strength and contractile function in mdx mice. Yet, this amelioration is not accompanied by a significant increase in utrophin transcript levels in both diaphragm and TA muscles [150]. Therefore, we sought to investigate if HSP70 expression was changed in mdx/PV soleus muscles with reduced utrophin levels. Using immunoblotting analysis, HSP70 protein levels did not change in soleus muscles between mdx and mdx/PV mice, suggesting that the expression of HSP70 and utrophin is not co-regulated (Figures 2.5a and 2.5b). In agreement, IFs on soleus muscles showed colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I and utrophin positive fibers in mdx mice. HSP70 also was colocalized with MyHC I-positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers in mdx/PV soleus tissues. Nevertheless, both HSP70 and MyHC I positive fibers were not stained for utrophin. On the contrary, they showed more central nucleation when stained with Dapi (Figure 2.5c).

2.5.6 RyR1 is significantly increased, while SERCA1 & 2 protein levels are not changed by PV expression in *mdx* soleus muscles

RyR is an intracellular Ca²⁺ release channel located at the SR membrane [245]. This receptor is activated when muscle fibers are excited via motor nerves that generate an action potential, thus leading to the release of Ca^{2+} from the SR [217]. In addition, PV facilitates Ca^{2+} translocation from the myofibril to the SR in fast muscle fibers, whereas SR-Ca²⁺-ATPases (SERCA) enzymes regulate Ca^{2+} uptake into the SR [51]. Furthermore, the maximal activity of SERCA enzymes decreases with alterations in Ca^{2+} binding and ATP binding domains [151]. In addition, HSP70 binds SERCA and enhances its activity in cases of cellular stresses [151]. Thus, we next examined whether the expression of PV has affected RyR1 or SERCA1 or 2 expressions in *mdx* soleus muscles.

Being expressed predominantly in fast skeletal muscles, RyR1 transcript was significantly increased in PV soleus muscles compared to WT counterparts, suggesting a possible regulation of this protein with alterations in Ca²⁺ handling [214]. Our current findings, showed an increase in RyR1 protein level in PV compared to WT and in mdx/PV compared to mdx soleus muscles. However, SERCA1 (mostly expressed in fast fibers) and SERCA2 (mostly expressed in slow fibers) did not change between the corresponding groups (Figures 2.5d and 2.5e). Thus, higher levels of RyR1, without changes in SERCA isoforms suggest that the additional chelation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ by PV led to a faster profile and produced a reciprocal effect to Cn in slow mdx fibers.



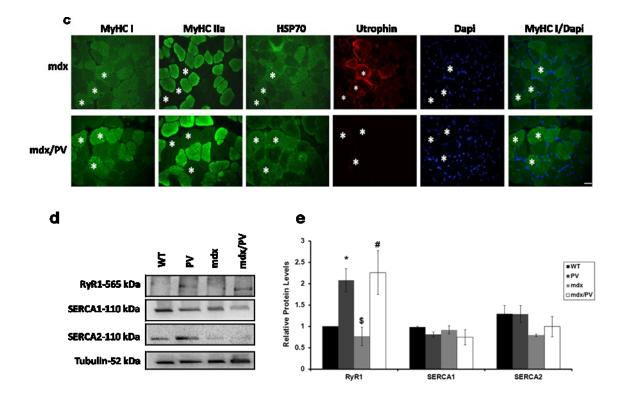


Figure 2.5: Decreased utrophin expression in *mdx*/PV slow fibers appears independent of HSP70 and SERCA1 and 2 expressions but associated with higher fast RyR1 protein levels

(a-b) Representative immunoblots and quantification of HSP70 protein levels in *mdx* and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles (n=3). (c) IFs showing HSP70, MyHC I, MyHC IIa and utrophin expression in *mdx* and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles. Asterisks indicate fibers stained for both MyHC I and HSP70 (n=3). Scale bars, 20µm. (d-e) Representative immunoblots and quantification of RyR1, SERCA1 and SERCA2 protein levels in *mdx* and *mdx*/PV soleus muscles. Relative quantities are normalized to α -tubulin (n=4; P<0.05). *compared to WT; \$compared to PV, #compared to *mdx*. Means ± SEM are shown.

2.5.7 Transgenic models known to rescue [106, 193] or exacerbate [98] the dystrophic phenotype in *mdx* mice via utrophin regulation, display constant muscle HSP70 levels

We then wanted to investigate if HSP70 and utrophin proteins are regulated differently in other transgenic models. Thus, we studied HSP70 expression in mdx mice crossed with mice expressing an activated form of Cn (mdx/CnA*) where utrophin

expression is upregulated [106] and in *mdx* mice crossed with transgenic mice expressing CaMBP (*mdx*/CaMBP) where utrophin expression is downregulated [98].

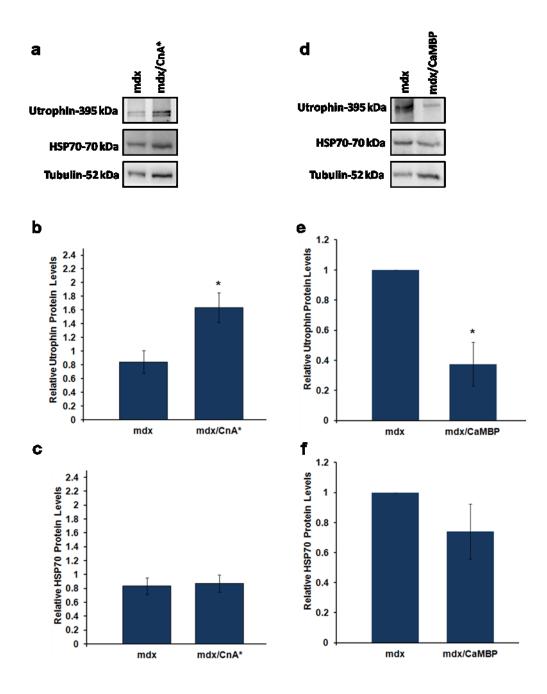
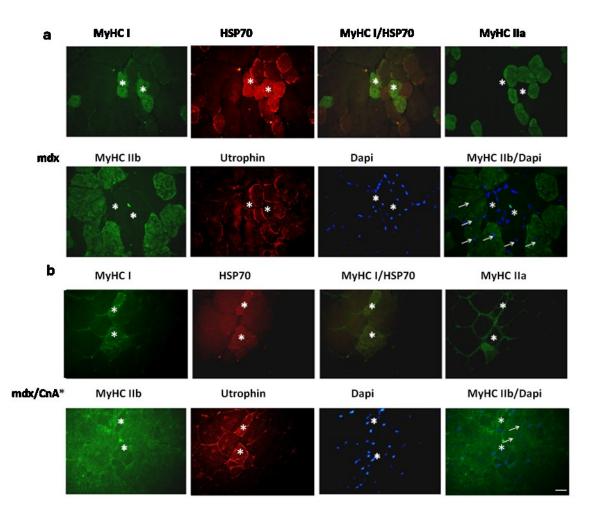


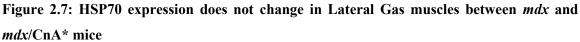
Figure 2.6: Transgenic models known to rescue [106, 193] or exacerbate[98] the dystrophic phenotype in muscles of *mdx* mice via utrophin regulation [93], display constant muscle HSP70 levels

(a,d) Representative immunoblots for utrophin and HSP70 proteins in the TA muscles of *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice and in the soleus muscles of *mdx* and *mdx*/CaMBP mice. (b,e) Quantifications of utrophin protein levels. (c,f) Quantifications of HSP70 protein levels. Relative quantities are normalized to α -tubulin (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to *mdx*. Means ± SEM are shown.

Immunoblotting analysis suggests that activation of Cn signaling in TA muscles of *mdx*/CnA* leads to increased utrophin but not HSP70 expressions supporting our previous results [98] (Figures 2.6a, 2.6b and 2.6c). Similarly, attenuation of Cn signaling in soleus muscles of *mdx*/CaMBP leads to reduced utrophin but not HSP70 expression [98] (Figures 2.6d, 2.6e and 2.6f). These results suggest, once again, that HSP70 is not regulated with changes in Cn signaling.

To further support this observation, data from IFs in Lateral Gas (LG) tissues of both *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice showed colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I and MyHC IIa but not with MyHC IIb muscles confirming our previous data [227]. Those MyHC IIb fibers were shown to be rescued by increased utrophin expression and reduced central nucleation accompanied by the expression of the CnA* transgene. Additionally, utrophin positive fibers were not necessarily stained for HSP70 in *mdx*/CnA*, suggesting that HSP70 is not affected with the regulation of the slow myofiber gene program accompanied by manipulations in Cn activity (Figures 2.7a and 2.7b).





IFs demonstrate colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I and MyHC IIa but not MyHC IIb fibers in mdx (a) and mdx/CnA^* (b) Lateral Gas muscles. Asterisks indicate fibers positively stained for MyHC I and HSP70. Arrows indicate central nucleation in MyHC IIb positive fibers (n=3). Scale bars, 20 μ m.

2.6 Discussion

Our lab previously has demonstrated the involvement of the Cn/NFAT signaling pathway in the regulation of utrophin-A expression in slow muscle fibers [98, 106]. Therefore, we and others illustrated the concept that strategies aimed at regulating the slower, high oxidative myofiber program in muscle could play a role in the treatment or exacerbation of DMD [98, 106, 224, 225]. In the current study, we attenuated Ca²⁺/CaM-based signaling in dystrophin-deficient slow muscle fibers by crossbreeding *mdx* mice with transgenic mice expressing PV, which is normally expressed only in fast fibers [229]. This transgene is driven by the TnIs promoter and forced expressed in slow fibers, leading to attenuation of Cn activity [214]. Having done that, slow *mdx* fibers became more stressed and subject to deterioration. Unlike our previous approaches, the transgene in the present study causes alterations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics in slow fibers which would interfere with Cn/NFAT signaling [214]. Indeed, expression of PV in *mdx* slow muscle fibers inhibited the latter pathway via reducing utrophin expression, decreased NFATc1 nuclear localization and drastic increase in the hallmarks of *mdx* cellular damage.

Attenuation of the Cn/NFAT pathway has a well-known effect on the downstream targets of Cn [98]. Herein, we observed reduced percentage of nuclear NFATc1 in PV compared to its WT soleus muscles and in mdx/PV compared to mdx soleus muscles possibly due to reduced Cn activity (Figure 2.1). Surprisingly, mdx soleus muscle showed also reduced NFATc1 nuclear localization compared to WT counterparts despite the increase in the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels in mdx mice. This increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels is due to that the total Ca^{2+} content in muscle biopsies from mdx mice is double that in muscle biopsies from WT mice, in addition to the increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ influx through the cellular membrane

[246, 247]. Such an increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ should theoretically stimulate the Cn pathway and NFATc1 nuclear localization. However, altered $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ levels also can affect other transcriptional factors such as the <u>Mitogen Activated Protein Kinase</u> (MAPK) family that consists of <u>Janus-N-T</u>erminal Kinase (JNK), leading to their activation [248]. The increased JNK activity observed in dystrophic muscles might result in increased interactions with NFATc1, causing its transport out of the nucleus [106, 114]. Furthermore, the reduced NFATc1 nuclear localization in *mdx*/PV soleus muscles could be explained in part via activation of the MAPK-JNK pathway and also via Ca^{2+} buffering caused by expression of the PV transgene.

Our previous findings did not show changes in fiber type conversion due to overexpression of PV [214]. Neither did our current study comparing mdx/PV to mdx mice. In 2003, it was suggested that PV would buffer additional Ca²⁺ in non-stressed fibers. It is also possible that the amplitude and duration of the Ca²⁺ transients are altered by PV through an unknown mechanism. Yet, there might be an alteration in contractile and biochemical characteristics in soleus muscles without any fiber type conversion [214]. We did not observe changes in *MyHC I* or *IIa* transcripts in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* soleus muscles (Figure 2.2). These results together with our previous ones, suggest a selective role for Ca²⁺-dependent transcriptional pathways in regulating muscle energetics but not all fiber type-related muscle characteristics [214]. It is also possible that complete transformation from slow to fast muscles, might require additional regulation of Ca²⁺ and perhaps other signaling pathways.

The involvement of Cn/NFAT signaling in regulating utrophin-A expression has previously been discussed [105, 249]. In addition to reduced NFATc1 nuclear

localization, the expression of PV in *mdx* slow muscles has caused reduction in utrophin and utrophin-A expression (Figure 2.3). The absence of a difference in utrophin expression between mdx and mdx/PV EDL muscle fibers, supports the fact that the transgene is solely expressed in slow muscle fibers. With respect to these findings, it is critical to mention that adult *mdx* fast muscles are more susceptible to the damage caused by forced lengthening contractions than are slow muscles [243]. Since this damage is rescued by upregulation of utrophin and due to that slow fibers are capable of expressing more utrophin, the latter fibers can overcome the pathological progression of the disease [105, 220, 242]. In the current study, IF co-staining of utrophin and MyHC I revealed positive utrophin staining in MyHC I fibers of *mdx* soleus muscle confirming the rescue provided by utrophin. However, and due to reduced utrophin staining in both MyHC I and IIa fibers of *mdx*/PV soleus muscles, this rescue was abolished in both slow and fast muscle fibers of dystrophic mice expressing the PV transgene (Figures 2.3e and 2.3f). Moreover, the increase in central nucleation and invasion of EBD staining in mdx/PVslow fibers compared to the rescued *mdx* counterparts support the fact that only fast fibers are sensitive to death in *mdx* mice and that the most exacerbated fibers were indeed those where the PV transgene was being expressed (Figure 2.4). Taken together, these results clearly show the detrimental effects of attenuating Cn activity in muscular dystrophy.

The pharmacological induction of HSP70, as well as its overexpression in mdx/utrophin-/- mice, have been shown recently to rescue the dystrophic phenotype [150]. Further, HSP70 can improve the function of SERCA enzymes in the removal of excess Ca²⁺ from the cytosol [150]. Nevertheless, our current results did not show significant changes in HSP70 and SERCA1 and 2 expressions between mdx and mdx/PV

slow fibers (Figure 2.5). In agreement, Gehrig *et al.*, [150] also showed no differences in SERCA1 and 2 protein levels between 10 week old WT and *mdx* mice. In the same context, Chin *et al.*, [214] showed no differences in the transcript level of SERCA2 between WT and PV soleus muscles. Moreover, our IFs showed colocalization of HSP70 with MyHC I positive fibers in both *mdx* and *mdx*/PV. Interestingly, utrophin negative fibers that were stained positive for HSP70 in *mdx*/PV soleus muscles, showed more central nucleation than utrophin and HSP70 positive fibers in *mdx* mice. These data indicate that utrophin but not HSP70 might have rescued those fibers. They further suggest that both HSP70 and SERCA proteins are not regulated via the Cn/NFAT pathway.

In addition to the PV model, other transgenic approaches in our study that manipulate the Cn/NFAT pathway showed that HSP70 expression was constant despite increased utrophin expression in mdx/CnA* mice and decreased utrophin levels in mdx/CaMBP mice (Figure 2.6). Accordingly, IFs revealed colocalization of HSP70 in MyHC I and IIa fibers and in utrophin positive fibers as well, but not in MyHC IIb fibers in mdx/CnA* mice, MyHC IIb fibers were rescued by increased expression of utrophin and decreased central nucleation compared to mdx. However, those rescued fibers were not positive for HSP70, suggesting once again, that HSP70 is not regulated via the Cn/NFAT pathway (Figure 2.7). In this context, HSP70 has been shown to prevent disuse muscle fiber atrophy via inhibition of Foxo3a, which in turn prevents the increase of atrogin-1 and Murf1 promoter activities [152]. In this case, rescuing muscular dystrophy by HSP70 might be correlated to the prevention of muscle atrophy via the Akt-growth pathway. HSP70 also inhibits Nuclear Factor- κ B (NF- κ B)

activity during muscle disuse but without affecting atrogin-1 and Murf1 promoter activities [152]. It also has been shown that the pharmacological blockade or genetic manipulations of the NF- $_{\rm K}$ B pathway reduces inflammation and ameliorates muscular dystrophy [250, 251]. Therefore, another possibility for the regulation of HSP70 might be via the NF- $_{\rm K}$ B pathway, which needs further investigation.

Simultaneously, RyR1, a marker of increased SR $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ release, was significantly increased in PV compared to WT and in *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx* mice (Figure 2.5). Interestingly, Chin *et al.*, [214] showed a significant increase in *RyR1* transcript level in PV compared to WT soleus muscle. In our study, RyR1 expression did not change between WT and *mdx* soleus muscles. In agreement, no difference in RyR1 expression was shown between WT and *mdx* mice [252], suggesting that changes in Ca²⁺ homeostasis in *mdx* mice might not be due to changes in RyR1 expression but to other signaling molecules. In addition, the changes in RyR1, but not SERCA isoforms, suggest that the additional chelation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ by PV led to a faster profile and produced a reciprocal effect to Cn in *mdx* slow fibers. The increase in RyR1 expression in PV and *mdx*/PV mice also suggests an activation of the Ca²⁺-sensitive RyR to uptake more Ca²⁺ from the SR to the cytoplasm.

Collectively, our data from the current study would be of great influence in studying the regulation of the Cn/NFAT pathway, promoting the slower, more oxidative myofiber gene program and eventually in the treatment of DMD. Further, this study increases the chances of understanding the physiological and pathological features of the disease. It also raises the possibility that HSP70 acts upon different mechanisms in the rescue of muscular dystrophy.

Chapter 3 : Direct calcineurin modulators regulate Calcineurin/NFAT signaling in *mdx* crossbreeds

Manal Al Zein and Robin N. Michel

Department of Exercise Science, Concordia University, Montreal, QC, Canada

3.1 Background

In Chapter 3, we seek to understand the regulation of direct <u>Calcineurin</u> (Cn) modulators in different transgenic models in an *mdx* background. The transgenic models either stimulate or inhibit Cn activity and utrophin expression. The Cn modulators have a major feedback mechanism, which is essential for regulating Cn activity. Therefore, they may be of great value in the treatment of <u>D</u>uchenne <u>M</u>uscular <u>D</u>ystrophy (DMD) disease. Our preliminary results illustrate changes in the expression of these proteins suggesting a critical role in *mdx* mice, which will need further investigation.

The results of this chapter, once completed, could be submitted for publication to a scientific journal that publishes topics in chemistry, biology and/or genetics. Our work provides new insights into the regulation of Cn in *mdx* mice and unveils some facts about Cn modulators, which could be essential for future research. All these collectively, increase the chances for finding good therapeutic targets for muscle dystrophy.

3.2 Abstract

We have previously shown that dystrophic symptoms are ameliorated by stimulation of the Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (Cn/NFAT) pathway and an increase in utrophin-A expression. Further, we have shown exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype upon impairment of Cn signaling and reduction in utrophin-A levels (Chakkalakal *et al.*, 2004, 2006). Additionally, alterations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics by forced expression of the fast protein Parvalbumin (PV) in slow fibers of crossbred mdx mice also exacerbates the dystrophic phenotype (Chapter 2). The direct Cn modulators were first identified in various types of cardiac diseases, where the majority provide cardio-protective effect. However, little is known about the role of these molecules in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD). Therefore, we set out to determine the role of various Cn modulators in *mdx* mice, an animal model of DMD, particularly with respect to changes in the Cn/NFAT signaling pathway. Herein, we hypothesize that the expression of the Cn modulators is modified upon changing Cn activity and that the inhibition of these inhibitors, may be of therapeutic value since inhibiting the inhibitors will maintain effective Cn levels. Using qPCR and immunoblotting analyses, our results showed an upregulation in the mRNA level of *RCAN1.4*, whereas RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP protein levels did not change between mdx and mdx crossed with PV (mdx/PV) soleus muscles. On the contrary, the expression levels of RCAN1 did not change in *mdx* crossed with mice over expressing CnA (mdx/CnA*). However, calsarcin-2 protein level was significantly lower in mdx/CnA* compared to CnA* mice. These preliminary results confirm the dual regulation of RCAN and open discussions on the regulation and the roles of these proteins in muscle dystrophy.

3.3 Introduction

Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD) is a disease characterized by muscle wasting and early death and caused by the loss of the cytoskeletal protein dystrophin [94, 95]. Although there has been limited success in the use of pharmacological drugs to treat DMD patients [193], stimulating the Cn pathway has shown positive effects in increasing the expression of the dystrophin-homologue protein utrophin-A [106, 224]. Utrophin-A relocalizes at the muscle sarcolemma in slow but not fast *mdx* muscle fibers, to compensate for the loss of dystrophin [98]. Such compensation rescues slow fibers, but leads to eventual death of their fast counterparts [98]. Therefore, targeting Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (Cn/NFAT) signaling may be a useful approach when considering an effective treatment for DMD [98, 106]. One of the possible concepts in targeting the Cn pathway involves regulation of a group of modulators, which directly regulate Cn activity. Being linked to cardiac hypertrophy, the direct Cn modulators have initially been identified to regulate diseases linked to Cn [4, 184, 185]. They are well-characterized in heart diseases such as cardiac myopathy and heart hypertrophy [4, 184, 185]. In this context, overexpression of most of these regulators has been shown to provide cardio-protective effects [4, 185]. However, little is known about the role of these Cn regulators in the progression of neuromuscular diseases such as DMD. Such information may be useful in planning strategies for ameliorating the effects of the disease.

The Cn modulators are introduced as a replacement for the non specific pharmacological drugs that inhibit Cn but cause severe side effects [213]. Drugs such as <u>Cyclosporin A</u> (CsA) and FK506 inhibit the phosphatase activity of Cn in a unique

manner [253]. Cn dephosphorylates NFAT at its N-terminal regulatory domain [82]. There are multiple domains in NFAT, called "anchors", which are used for interaction with different sites on the phosphatase Cn. One important anchoring sequence lying in the N-terminal region of NFAT contains the consensus site "PXIXIT", in which X represents any amino acid. This sequence is sufficient for Cn-substrate docking [254]. While CsA binds to the cytosolic receptor protein cyclophilin, FK506 binds to FK506-Binding Protein (FKBP) [255, 256]. Thus, the immunophilins cyclophilin and FKBP might either have a direct interaction with Cn or just serve in an allosteric manner to fix the drugs in a certain conformation that interact with Cn. Therefore, both drugs and immunophilins are necessary for significant inhibition of Cn [213]. However, these drugs are not specific for the immune system since they cause neurotoxicity and nephrotoxicity side effects [257]. Hence, the PXIXIT sequence required for any substrate to interact with Cn, has been utilized in the development of NFAT-specific inhibitors of Cn, which are direct Cn modulators or inhibitors. These modulators affect NFAT dephosphorylation solely without causing any side effects such as neurotoxicity or nephrotoxicity, as these novel inhibitors do not affect dephosphorylation of other substrates [213].

The direct Cn inhibitors are classified into three major groups based on the way they affect Cn: inhibitors of Cn, dual regulators and Anchoring proteins. Inhibitors of Cn bind to and inhibit Cn activity, such as <u>Ca</u>lcineurin <u>In</u>hibitor (CAIN/Cabin1). Dual regulators have both inhibitory and stimulatory effects, driven by a feedback mechanism such as <u>Regulator of Ca</u>lcineurin (RCAN) or called <u>Modulatory Calcineurin-Interacting</u> <u>Protein (MCIP)</u>. Anchoring proteins tether Cn to other signaling proteins such as the Zline family of proteins "Calsarcins" (reviewed in [192]). CAIN/Cabin1 is a phospho-protein, discovered in a mouse T-cell cDNA library. It is highly expressed in the brain, and accumulates in the cytoplasm and the nucleus [182]. CAIN may serve in a negative regulatory loop. Thus, upon activation of <u>Protein Kinase C</u> (PKC), CAIN becomes hyperphosphorylated, which increases its affinity to Cn (reviewed in [192]).

The RCAN family is the only known family of Cn inhibitors that is conserved from yeast to humans. RCAN is known by its dual regulation of Cn, acting as an activator at low concentration and an inhibitor at high concentration [204, 258, 259]. Two splice variants of RCAN are identified: RCAN1.1 and RCAN1.4 [207]. Like CAIN, RCAN also serves as a feedback inhibitor of Cn. Upon activation of Cn signaling, the dephosphorylated NFAT binds to the putative NFAT binding site in RCAN1.4 promoter region and stimulates its expression. RCAN1.4 protein then binds and inactivates Cn [207, 258].

Anchoring proteins include <u>M</u>uscle <u>L</u>IM <u>P</u>rotein (MLP), calsarcin-1, which is expressed specifically in adult cardiac and slow-twitch skeletal muscles and calsarcin-2, which is expressed in fast-twitch skeletal muscles. These proteins also function as Cn modulators [194]. Calsarcins link Cn to α -actinin at the Z-line of cardiac and skeletal muscle, whereas MLP is tethered to calsarcin-1 and colocalizes with Cn at the Z-disc. Accordingly, both calsarcins and MLP inhibit Cn activity [184, 197].

We set out to learn more about the Cn pathway by monitoring changes in the expression of Cn modulators in various mutant conditions. Thus, we decided to examine the expression of RCAN, calsarcins and MLP in different transgenic models in an *mdx* background. In a previous study, we showed that crossbreeding *mdx* mice with transgenic

mice expressing an activated form of Cn (CnA*) upregulates utrophin-A and improved the pathological symptoms of DMD [106]. In addition, crossbreeding *mdx* mice with transgenic mice expressing a small peptide inhibitor called <u>Calmodulin-Binding Protein</u> (CaMBP) leads to a reduction in the levels of utrophin-A and the transcript of slow <u>myosin heavy chain I</u> (MyHC I) [98]. Recently, we showed that alterations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics by forced expression of the fast protein <u>Parvalbumin</u> (PV) in slow fibers of crossbred *mdx* mice, interfered with Cn/NFAT signaling via reduction in utrophin expression and exacerbation of the dystrophic phenotype (Chapter 2). Herein, we hypothesize that the expression of the Cn modulators would be modified in *mdx* mice expressing either the CnA* transgene (which stimulates Cn activity) or the PV transgene (which attenuates Cn activity). Understanding how these proteins are regulated may eventually help in maintaining Cn in an activated state.

Using quantitative real time <u>PCR</u> (qPCR) and immunoblotting analyses, our results showed an upregulation in the mRNA levels but no change in protein levels of RCAN1 in the soleus muscles of mdx/PV compared to mdx mice. Further, we showed *calsarcin-1* mRNA levels to be increased in mdx/PV compared to <u>W</u>ild-<u>Type</u> (WT) mice, with no difference between mdx and mdx/PV mice at the transcript or protein level. In contrast, we saw no changes in the expression levels of RCAN1 in the <u>Extensor</u> <u>Digitorum Longus</u> (EDL) muscles of mdx/CnA^* mice compared to mdx mice but a downregulation of *calsarcin-2* mRNA level in EDL tissue of mdx/CnA^* mice compared to those of CnA* mice. MLP protein level also showed a significant decrease in mdx/CnA^* mice compared to WT mice.

These preliminary results confirm the dual regulation of RCAN and raise questions about the role of these proteins in DMD. Further, understanding the different effectors that control various Cn regulators will possibly assist in controlling those inhibitors, to maintain Cn activity and high levels of utrophin-A in *mdx* mice.

3.4 Methods

3.4.1 Animals

Animal care and experimental procedures were performed in accordance to the guidelines of the Canadian Council of Animal Care. Transgenic mice expressing either PV or CnA* proteins were generated [163, 214]. Female *mdx* mice were crossed with male PV or CnA* transgenic mice, resulting in pups having the dystrophic pathology. Male pups were selected for the experiments and the presence of the transgene in PV and *mdx*/PV mice was identified by PCR screening of genomic DNA extracted from tails using primers encoding PV-TnIs (Sigma Genosys). WT, PV, CnA*, *mdx*, *mdx*/PV and *mdx*/CnA* of 10-12 week old were utilized for all subsequent analyses. Details about mice genotyping techniques and the primers used are explained in Chapter 2 of this thesis.

3.4.2 Muscle extraction and preservation

Mice were anesthetized by a mixture of 100 mg/ml ketamine hydrochloride (Bimeda-MTC Animal Health Inc.) and 20 mg/ml xylazine (Bayer HealthCare) in a volume ratio of 1.6:1. A dosage of 0.04 ml/30 g of body weight was administered intramuscularly to each mouse. Muscles were extracted and frozen directly in liquid

nitrogen for biochemical use. Samples were stored at -86°C until used. Animals were euthanized after extraction using CO₂ gas.

3.4.3 RNA extraction and quantitative real time PCR (qPCR)

Soleus and EDL skeletal muscles were homogenized in a solution made up of 4 M guanidinium thiocyanate (Sigma Aldrich), 25 mM sodium citrate, 0.5% (v/v) Nlaurylsarcosine (Sigma Aldrich) and 0.1 M 2-mercaptoethanol (Bioshop), followed by addition of 0.2 M sodium acetate (pH 4.0) with vortexing, phenol (Sigma Aldrich) and chloroform: isoamyl alcohol with vortexing until the appearance of a white emulsion. Samples were cooled on ice for fifteen minutes, and then centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. Afterwards, two volumes of 99% ethanol were added to the aqueous layer with vortexing and centrifugation again at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol was decanted and the RNA was suspended in 200 µl of 70% ethanol and centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol again was decanted and the RNA pellet was left to dry and re-suspended in 15 µl of RNAse free H₂O (Bioshop) per 10 mg of tissue with subsequent vortexing and heating at 70°C for 3 minutes. To test RNA integrity, the RNA concentration was determined using an Eppendorf Biophotometer (Eppendorf) at 260nm. Subsequently, 2 µg of RNA was mixed with a 2:1 formamide: ethidium bromide, formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich), 10X MOPS (pH 7.0) and bromophenol blue, heated at 65°C for ten minutes and loaded on a 1.5% agarose gel containing 1X MOPS and formaldehyde. The three rRNA bands: 5S, 18S and 28S were visualized to indicate RNA integrity.

The changes in abundance of *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-1*, *calsarcin-2* and *MLP* were assessed using real time PCR. Briefly, 2 μ g of freshly extracted RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using iScript reverse transcription supermix (Bio-Rad) and qPCR was performed, using gene specific primers together with appropriate reference genes for quantification (CFX96 Real-Time System, Bio-Rad). Relative quantities were then normalized by the Real-time System software to the average relative quantities of *36B4*, *beta actin, gamma actin* and/or *28S* rRNA housekeeping genes. All primer sequences are listed in Table 3.1.

Gene	Forward Primer		Product Size(bp)
RCAN1.4	5'-aaggaacctccagcttgggct-3'	5'-ccctggtctcactttcgctg-3'	160
Calsarcin-1	5'-gccaaaggggtgggtatct-3'	5'-tgccctaagcagaccaacag-3'	156
Calsarcin-2	5'-accgaggctccaagatgttc-3'	5'-cagagccctgctgatgacg -3'	243
MLP	5 '-gtcttcaccatgccaaac-3'	5'-agctttcctgcaggccatgc-3'	138
28S	5'-ttgttgccatggtaatcctgctcagta-3'	5'-tctgacttagaggcgttcagtcataatc-	3' 132
36B4	5'-gctccaagcagatgcagca-3'	5'-ccggatgtgaggcagcag-3'	143
β- actin	5'-ccagccatgtacgtagccatccag -3'	5'-cacgcacgatttccctctcagctgt-3'	244
y- actin	5'-acccaggcattgctgacaggatgc-3'	5'-ccatctagaagcatttgcggtggacg-3	3' 216

 Table 3.1: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR

3.4.4 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting

The expression levels of RCAN1, calsarcin-1, calsarcin-2 and MLP were measured by immunoblotting using extracts from soleus tissues of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice and EDL or Tibialis Anterior (TA) tissues of WT, CnA*, *mdx* and

mdx/CnA* mice. Relative protein levels were measured using commercially available primary antibodies and secondary antibodies coupled to horse radish peroxidase (HRP). Briefly, whole tissues were homogenized in 1X RIPA buffer solution (6 μ l/mg tissue) consisting of 1X PBS, 1% Igepal, 0.5% Sodium Deoxycholate, 0.1% Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS), 0.001 M Sodium Orthovanadate, 0.01 M Sodium Fluoride, 0.01 mg/ml Aprotinin, 0.01 mg/ml Leupeptin and 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). Homogenates were centrifuged at 15,000 x g for twenty minutes and the supernatant layers were collected and re-centrifuged.

Protein concentrations were measured using Quick Start Bradford dye reagent (Bio-Rad), followed by loading 40 µg of proteins with electrophoresis on 10% SDS-PAGE at 120V and transfer at 30V for 90 minutes, using Borax (Bioshop), to a Polyvinyl difluoride (PVDF) membrane (Millipore) followed by blocking in 5% non-fat milk in 0.1% Tween/Tris Buffered Saline (T/TBS) for one hour. Primary antibodies were incubated with the blot on a shaker at 4°C overnight. The following primary antibodies and concentrations were used; RCAN1 (NBP1-46853, Novus Biologicals; 1:500), calsarcin-1 (rabbit polyclonal antibody; a gift from Drs. Norbert Frey and Derk Frank; 1:2000), calsarcin-2 (13160-1-AP, Cedarlane; 1:1000) and MLP (10721-1-AP, Cedarlane; 1:1000). Membranes were washed with 0.1% T/TBS and incubated with secondary antibodies (Sigma Aldrich and Cell Signaling; 1:2000), coupled to HRP on a shaker at room temperature for one hour, followed by washing and developing with enhanced chemi-luminescence reagents (Millipore), using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system (Cell Biosciences). Bands were then quantified and their intensities were measured using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem software. Alpha tubulin (2125, Cell Signaling) was used as a loading control and groups were normalized to WT.

3.4.5 Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS software program version 17.0. (IBM SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA). Results were expressed as means \pm SEM. Statistical differences between individual groups (P<0.05) were analyzed using One Way Analysis of Variance (Anova) to test for differences among four groups of different phenotypes. Kruskal Wallis non-parametric test was used for the statistical analysis of the mRNA levels of RCAN in EDL samples of the PV models. Analyses for Chapter 3 are fully explained in Appendix II.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 RCAN1.4 and calsarcin-1 transcript levels are increased while MLP does not change in soleus muscle of *mdx*/PV

The expression of the direct Cn modulators including RCAN1, calsarcins and MLP was assessed by generating *mdx* mice expressing a PV or an activated form of Cn (CnA*) transgene. PV is normally expressed only in fast fibers [229], but was driven by the fiber-specific TnIs promoter to express the transgene in slow fibers [214]. CnA* is a transgene driven by the fast muscle creatine kinase promoter [260].

Concurrent with the reduction in Cn activity and accompanied by the expression of PV [214], we showed previously a reduction in the expression of the NFAT down stream target, utrophin (Chapter 2). Being another NFAT target [207], RCAN was hypothesized to be reduced with a reduction in Cn activity, but since RCAN1 also functions in a negative feedback loop to inhibit Cn activity [201, 202], we expected to see different results in its expression. Additionally, calsarcin-1 tethers Cn to α -actinin at the Z- line of cardiac and skeletal muscle cells, and inhibits Cn activity [184]. MLP as well, colocalizes with Cn at the sarcomeric Z-disc and probably affects Cn activity [197]. Besides Z-disc, MLP also is found in the cytoplasm and the nucleus [199, 200]. Moreover, multiple proteins might interact with MLP and influence its expression. Yet, it is still unclear if calsarcin and MLP work through a negative feedback loop as RCAN does.

To assess whether downregulation of the Cn signaling pathway, caused by overexpression of PV, affected Cn modulators expression, we sought to determine the transcript levels of *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-1* and *MLP* in soleus muscles. Our qPCR results showed constant *RCAN1.4* mRNA levels among WT, PV and *mdx* mice, but a significant increase in *mdx*/PV mice compared to the other three groups (Figure 3.1a), suggesting a possible feed back regulation of RCAN or interference with other transcription factors. Similarly, *calsarcin-1* mRNA levels did not change within the soleus muscles of WT, PV and *mdx* mice but instead there was a significant increase in *the mdx*/PV mice compared to the *mdx* mice also was seen (Figure 3.1b). In addition, *MLP* expression was constant in the groups tested (Figure 3.1c). In these experiments, the fast muscle, EDL, was used as a negative control since the PV transgene is solely expressed in slow muscle fibers [214], and thus should not affect the expression of the Cn modulators in EDL muscles.

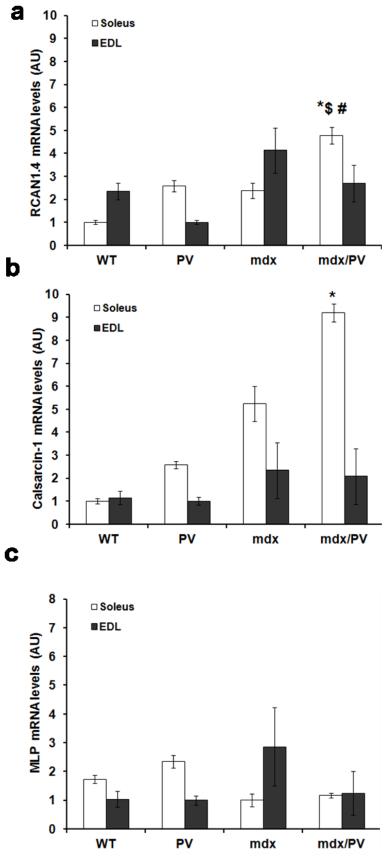


Figure 3.1: *RCAN1.4* and *calsarcin-1* mRNA levels are increased in *mdx*/PV while MLP level does not change in soleus slow muscles

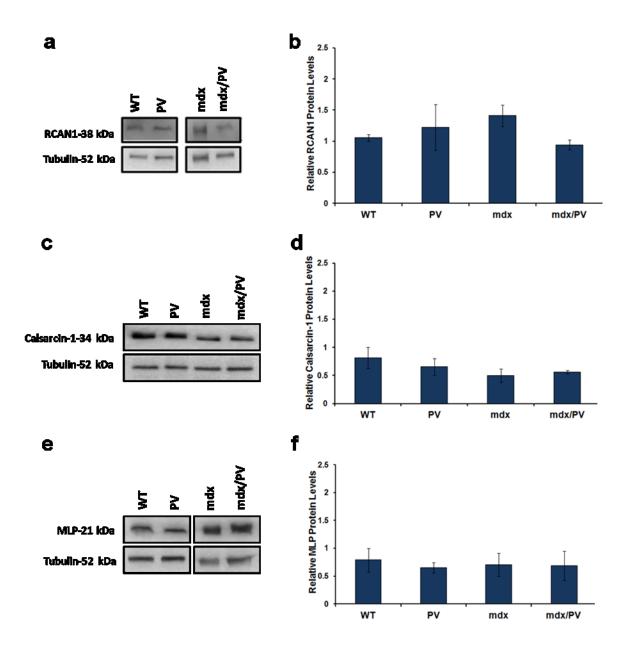
(a) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *RCAN1.4* in soleus muscles of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. (b) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *calsarcin-1* in soleus muscles of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. (c) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *MLP* in soleus muscles of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. Note that EDL is used as a negative control in these experiments. Relative quantities are normalized to *36B4*, *beta* and *gamma actin* (n=4 for soleus and n=3 for EDL; P<0.05). AU represents Arbitrary Units. *compared to soleus WT, \$compared to soleus PV, #compared to soleus *mdx*. Means ± SEM are shown.

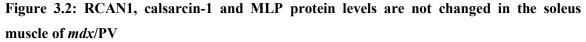
3.5.2 RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP protein levels are not changed in the soleus muscle of *mdx*/PV

To examine the effect of the PV transgene on protein levels, we next asessed the levels of RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP in soleus tissues of WT PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. Unexpectedly, our immunoblotting experiments showed downregulation in RCAN1 protein levels in the soleus muscle of *mdx*/PV compared to *mdx*, with no changes in other phenotypes (Figures 3.2a and 3.2b). Although the latter effect is insignificant (P=0.15), it suggests that the mRNA and protein levels of RCAN1 are regulated independently.

Although there was a significant increase in calsarcin-1 mRNA levels in mdx/PV compared to WT, there was no change in calsarcin-1 protein levels among WT, PV, mdx and mdx/PV mice (Figures 3.2c and 3.2d), suggesting a possible post transcriptional modification of calsarcin-1.

In agreement with the calsarcin-1 expression results, MLP protein levels did not change among WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice (Figures 3.2e and 3.2f). This might be due to potential interactions with other Z-line proteins.





(**a,c,e**) Representative immunoblots for RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP proteins in the soleus muscles of WT, PV, *mdx* and *mdx*/PV mice. (**b,d,f**) Quantifications of the immunoblots showing RCAN1, calsarcin-1 and MLP expression. Relative quantities are normalized to α -tubulin (n=3). Means ± SEM are shown.

3.5.3 *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-2* and *MLP* transcript levels do not change in *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* EDL fast muscles

Being linked to the fast muscle creatine kinase promoter, the transgene that overexpresses Cn is expressed in fast fibers causing stimulation of the slow myofiber gene program [260]. Accordingly, EDL fast muscle was used to test the trasncript levels of *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-2* and *MLP*. Since Cn activity is stimulated with overexpression of CnA, we hypothesized an increase in *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-2* and/or *MLP* mRNA levels in EDL tissues of CnA and *mdx*/CnA mice.

Our qPCR results showed constant *RCAN1.4* and *MLP* mRNA levels between WT and CnA* EDL tissues. They both showed a tendency for a decrease in mdx and mdx/CnA* where Cn activity is high, but with no difference between mdx and mdx/CnA* mice (Figure 3.3a and Figure 3.3c).

In additon, *calsarcin-2*, which is expressed in fast-twitch skeletal muscles, showed no difference in transcript levels between mdx and mdx/CnA* EDL muscles (Figure 3.3b).

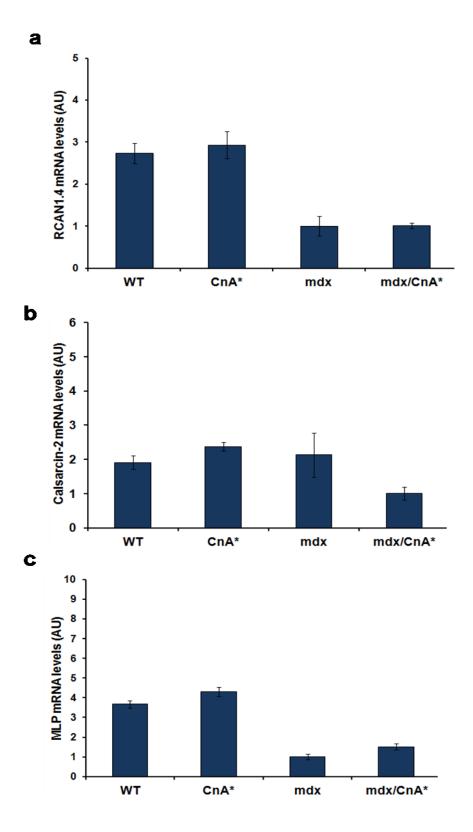


Figure 3.3: *RCAN1.4*, *calsarcin-2* and *MLP* mRNA levels do not show significant changes between *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice

(a) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *RCAN1.4* in EDL muscles of WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice. (b) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *calsarcin-2* in EDL muscles of WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice. (c) QPCR histograms showing mRNA levels of *MLP* in EDL muscles of WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice. AU represents Arbitrary Units. Relative quantities are normalized to 36B4 and 28S (n=3). Means \pm SEM are shown.

3.5.4 Calsarcin-2 and MLP protein levels are reduced while RCAN1 does not change in *mdx*/CnA* mice

To see the effect of the transgene on the translational level of the Cn modulators, we then examined the protein levels of RCAN1, calsarcin-2 and MLP in fast muscles of WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice (EDL muscle was used for RCAN1 and calsarcin-2 and TA muscle was used for MLP).

Our imunblotting results for RCAN1 expression showed similar levels in WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* in agreement with the qPCR results (Figures 3.4a and 3.4b). In addition, the calsarcin-2 protein level was significantly reduced in *mdx*/CnA* mice compared to CnA* mice with a tendency for downregulation compared to *mdx* mice (P=0.1) (Figures 3.4c and 3.4d). Finally, MLP protein level was not changed between WT and CnA, or between *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice fibers. Yet, there was a significant decrease in MLP protein level in *mdx*/CnA* mice compared to CnA* mice (P=0.06) (Figures 3.4e and 3.4f). These results were also unexpected, as we hypothesized an increase in MLP expression to inhibit any additional Cn.

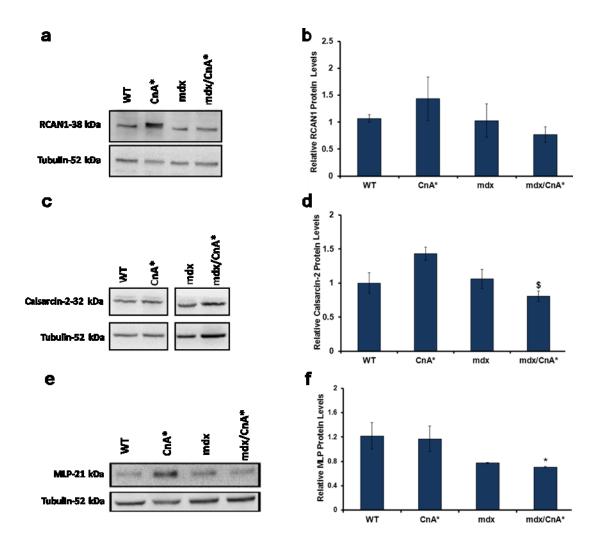


Figure 3.4: RCAN1, calsarcin-2 and MLP protein levels in WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice

(**a,c,e**) Representative immunoblots for RCAN1, calsarcin-2 and MLP proteins in WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice. (**b,d,f**) Quantification of the immunoblots showing RCAN1, calsarcin-2 and MLP expression. Relative quantities are normalized to α -tubulin (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to WT, \$compared to CnA*. Means ± SEM are shown.

3.6 Discussion

DMD, the most prevalent inherited neuromuscular disorder, is caused by the loss of the muscle sarcolemmal protein dystrophin, which is a 427 kDa cytoskeletal protein [95]. Utrophin, a neuromuscular junctional protein that shares a high degree of sequence identity with dystrophin, has been considered a strong candidate among therapeutic strategies for treating DMD [105]. Several studies have shown that upregulating utrophin-A at the muscle sarcolemma by stimulating the Cn/NFAT pathway, can compensate for the loss of dystrophin [105, 106]. Our lab previously has demonstrated the involvement of the Cn/NFAT signaling pathway in the regulation of utrophin-A expression in slow muscle fibers, and thus in the treatment of DMD [98, 106]. In 2003, our lab defined a new approach to knock down Ca²⁺/CaM-based signaling in slow muscle fibers by overexpressing the transgene PV [214].

Recently, we crossbred *mdx* mice with transgenic mice expressing PV, which is normally expressed only in fast fibers [229]. This transgene is driven by the TnIs promoter, which leads to the force expression of PV in slow fibers leading to alterations in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ kinetics and attenuation of Cn activity [214]. Thus, we showed that overexpression of PV in *mdx* slow muscle fibers reduces utrophin expression and increases the hallmarks of *mdx* cellular damage accompanied with an increase in the severity of the dystrophic pathology (Chapter 2). To better understand utrophin regulation, we started looking at proteins, which might have a role in regulating Cn activity and thus utrophin expression. The direct Cn modulators have been identified in Cn related-diseases such as cardiac hypertrophy [4, 184, 185]. However, their role in skeletal muscle diseases is still not clear. Consequently, we set out to determine the expression levels of the direct Cn modulators in DMD disease using different transgenic models crossed with *mdx* mice.

Our preliminary results showed a mixture of expected and unexpected findings, which might be correlated to different types of regulation of these proteins. These differences might be driven by changes in the Cn/NFAT pathway and the various phosphatases and kinases affecting it. For instance, *RCAN1.4* mRNA levels were increased in the soleus muscle of mdx/PV mice compared to those of WT, PV and mdx mice (Figure 3.1). There was a tendency for downregulation in the RCAN1 protein level in mdx/PV mice compared to mdx mice (P=0.15) (Figure 3.2). In the fast EDL tissue, we did not find significant changes in RCAN1.4 mRNA and protein levels between mdx and mdx/CnA^* mice (Figures 3.3 and 3.4). Therefore, there seems to be different regulation of RCAN1 expression upon changes in Cn activity driven by different transgenes.

RCAN is known to have a dual regulatory effect on Cn, thus acting as both an activator at low concentrations and an inhibitor at high concentrations [204, 258, 259]. The dual regulation of RCAN for Cn has been observed earlier by the Olson group while investigating the role of RCAN1 in cardiac hypertrophy. They have shown that deletion of the *RCAN* gene leads to a significant reduction in Cn activity, with similar levels of Cn expression in *RCAN* knockout (*RCAN-/-*) and WT mice [261]. Moreover, under conditions of high Cn activity, RCAN1 suppresses Cn signaling and exacerbates cardiac hypertrophy but not to the same extent as other transgenic models do [149, 261]. Not only in mice but also in other organisms such as yeast, the dual regulation exists, supporting our finding [258]. Furthermore, upon activation of Cn signaling, RCAN1.4 is

induced and then binds and inactivates Cn in a part of a feedback inhibition mechanism [207, 258]. This suggests that our results might be correlated to the time the expression of RCAN was measured. Thus measurement of RCAN could have been performed either during its induction or after being induced to go back and further inhibit Cn, as well as the expression of the downstream targets of NFAT including RCAN. In the future, it might be worth measuring RCAN expression in different time points; during development, in young and in adult mice. Additionally, the Olson group has shown no changes in Cn protein level in *RCAN1-/-* mice, but an increase in RCAN1 protein stability in the presence of Cn [261]. In our transgenic models in an *mdx* background, it would be interesting to look at RCAN1 protein stability bearing in mind the different kinases that might phosphorylate RCAN and affect its stability. One more thing that would be useful is to knockout the *RCAN* gene in *mdx* mice, with either impaired Cn activity such as *mdx*/PV or stimulated Cn activity such as *mdx*/CnA*. This will better underscore the role of RCAN in the Cn/NFAT pathway.

In this study, we observed an unexpected increase in *calsarcin-1* mRNA levels with impairment of Cn activity in the soleus muscle of *mdx*/PV mice compared to WT but not to *mdx* mice (Figure 3.1). However, protein levels did not change in the same transgenic models (Figure 3.2). Moreover, the mRNA levels of *calsarcin-2*, the isoform that is expressed in fast-twitch muscles, was also unchanged between *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* (Figure 3.3), whereas the protein level showed a significant reduction in *mdx*/CnA* compared to CnA* EDL tissues (Figure 3.4). So, what is controlling the expression of calsarcins and how do they exert their function on Cn?

It has been shown that mice lacking the *calsarcin-1* gene have normal hearts but increased NFAT activity [262]. Like the RCAN studies, mice lacking *calsarcin-1* crossed with CnA* mice show an enhanced hypertrophic response [262]. Moreover, *calsarcin-1* is a known cardio-protective gene whose overexpression prevents Angiotensin II and Endothelin-1-induced hypertrophy in the heart [263]. However, does the same protection effect exist in skeletal muscles? If so, then the increase in *calsarcin-1* transcript level that we saw in *mdx*/PV mice might be related to protection provided by *calsarcin-1* in a failed attempt to rescue the dystrophic phenotype, as we did not see the same increase at the translational level. Additionally, calsarcin-1 is not restricted to the Z-disc, it also can shuttle to the nucleus [194]. Whether it interacts with NFAT in the nucleus is not yet established. Like RCAN1, calsarcin-1 could be phosphorylated, but the kinases responsible for this phosphorylation are still to be determined [264]. Further, Vondrisk's group has documented phosphorylation and post-translational processing of calsarcin-1 in the heart in a trial to establish growth-signaling mechanisms during heart diseases [265]. This regulation of calsarcin-1 is worth looking into in the future work. In regard to calsarcin-2, it has been shown, again by the Olson group, that *calsarcin-2-/-* mice exhibit improved running distances in exercise studies via the regulation of the Cn/NFAT pathway [184]. It is possible that calsarcin-2 was downregulated in our mdx/CnA* mice as a result of the improved performance carried out by stimulating the Cn/NFAT pathway. Yet, the latter needs further study. Thus, research on the role of calsarcins in the sarcomere function and their medical value particularly in DMD remains to be explored.

Finally yet importantly, we showed that there was no change in MLP expression in the soleus tissues of mdx/PV mice compared to mdx mice (Figures 3.1 and 3.2). Nevertheless, we saw a down regulation in MLP protein levels in the TA tissues of mdx/CnA^* compared to WT mice (Figure 3.4). As in RCAN1 and calsarcin-1, mice lacking *MLP* display hypertrophy and dilated cardiac myopathy, suggesting MLP negatively regulates skeletal and cardiac myofibers [196]. It was also shown that *MLP-/-* cardiomyocytes are not able to induce the <u>Brain Natriuretic Peptide</u> (BNP) when exposed to mechanical stimulation, where BNP together with the <u>Atrial Natriuretic Peptide</u> (ANP) decrease blood volume and thus lower systemic blood pressure [266]. These data suggest that MLP has a cardio-protective role. However, it is essential to figure out whether the decrease in the protein level that we detected in mdx/CnA^* is related to Cn inhibition or considered as a negative reaction toward the protection provided by stimulating Cn in those mice.

One important Cn modulator whose role should not be ruled out is CAIN. The latter protein works in a negative regulatory loop. Thus, it becomes hyperphosphorylated upon activation of <u>Protein Kinase C</u> (PKC), which in turn affects Cn activity (reviewed in [192]). The importance of CAIN, has been well discussed in T-lymphocytes where CAIN could shuttle between the nucleus and the cytoplasm just like calsarcin-1 (Fan Pan and J.O.L, unpublished data). Further, CAIN contains a putative Cn-binding and <u>Myocyte Enhancer Factor 2</u> (MEF2)-binding domain at its COOH terminus [182, 210, 212]. Knocking down these two binding domains in the C-terminus of CAIN, leads to upregulation of cytokines including interleukin-2 (IL-2) in response to stimulation by T-cell receptor agonists, yet with no changes in Cn activity. This might be explained in part by the low sensitivity of the NFAT dephosphorylation assay, in which low differences are undetectable. It can also be explained by the nature of T-lymphocytes, where CAIN may

have other functions rather than Cn inhibition [192]. Additionally, there might be competition between CAIN and NFAT or other substrates of Cn [192]. Therefore, it is worth exploring the expression and binding of CAIN with other transcription factors like MEF2. This might help understanding how this protein works to inhibit and regulate Cn.

Together, RCAN1, calsarcins, MLP and CAIN are four examples of Cninteracting proteins which are quite important in regulating Cn and muscle diseases. Nevertheless, they require further studies on their regulation. It might be worthwhile to overexpress and/or knockdown the genes encoding these proteins in order to understand the importance of their roles in skeletal muscles particularly in certain types of muscle diseases such as muscle dystrophy. In case these proteins have only inhibitory effects on Cn, it would be interesting in the future to inhibit those inhibitors in order to maintain high but effective levels of Cn, which could stimulate utrophin expression in *mdx* mice and DMD patients.

Chapter 4 : The role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in Calcineurin-dependent cardiac hypertrophy in adult mice

Manal Al Zein, Patrick Sin-Chan, Mathieu St-Louis and Robin N. Michel

Department of Exercise Science, Concordia University, Montreal, QC, Canada

4.1 Background

In Chapter 4, we are interested in investigating the role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in the hearts of adult mice. A new manipulation in the <u>Calcineurin/Nuclear Factor of Activated T</u> cells (Cn/NFAT) pathway includes the knockout of the functional NFATc2 isoform in the heart. It has been demonstrated that young (1-2 month old) *NFATc2-/-* mice display a complete inhibition of forced hypertrophy and reduced fibrosis, suggesting a clear protection against pathological cardiac remodeling in the absence of NFATc2 [267]. However, we observed that adult (6-9 month old) *NFATc2-/-* mice were more susceptible to sudden death and had enlarged hearts when autopsied. Hence, we wanted to shed light on the role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy, in normotensive and <u>Ang</u>iotensin <u>II</u> (Ang II)-stressed hearts.

The results of this chapter are to be submitted for publication to the *Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology*. This journal publishes work advancing knowledge of the mechanisms responsible for both normal and diseased cardiovascular function. Our work emphasizes a hidden role of the NFATc2 transcription factor in the adult heart and the regulation of some genes that might have an essential role in cardiac hypertrophy.

Patrick Sin-Chan has generated Figures 1-4 (Appendix IV). I added data to Figure 4a and performed the calculations and analyses for Figures 4d-4f. Patrick has also interpreted the results of the mentioned Figures, which are part of his MSc thesis. Dr. Mathieu St-Louis carried out NFATc1 immunofluorescence in the 14 day Ang II stimulated animals. I performed the calculations and generated the corresponding graphs.

4.2 Abstract

Cardiac hypertrophy is an overall increase in heart mass without improved contractile function. In this abnormality, the heart can no longer supply adequate amounts of blood to meet the body's hemodynamic demands, resulting in cardiac dilatation, decrease in contractile effectiveness, organ failure and death. The Ca²⁺-dependent phosphatase, Calcineurin (Cn) and its downstream target, the Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (NFAT), are major intracellular modulators of cardiac hypertrophy. In young mice, the NFATc2 transcription factor has been identified as the major NFAT isoform responsible for Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy. Surprisingly, we observed that adult NFATc2 null (NFATc2-/-) mice were more prone to sudden death, suggesting that NFATc2 might be essential at later rather than earlier stages of life. Hence, we raised a question as to the role of NFATc2 in the hearts of adult mice. Our histological analysis showed that NFATc2-/- mice displayed left ventricular inner chamber dilatation, which might cause death to those mice. Nevertheless, Angiotensin II (Ang II)-stimulated cardiac growth for 14 days displayed alterations of transcriptional mechanisms in NFATc2-/- mice but no changes in the damage hallmarks compared to their Wild-Type (NFATc2+/+) counterparts. Additionally, Ang II stimulation for 28 days showed more damage in the stressed hearts compared to normotensive ones, with no detectable changes between *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice. Our data collectively suggest a cardio-protective role for NFATc2 in normotensive adult mice to maintain normal heart function and signaling. This protection is compromised when stressing the hearts for 14 and 28 days of Ang II stimulation. This study moves the discussion toward a better understanding of the role of NFATc2 in Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy in adult mice.

4.3 Introduction

Cardiovascular disease represents one of the leading causes of death in the modern world. An abnormality associated with the majority of cardiovascular diseases is pathological cardiac hypertrophy in which hearts are subjected to increased workload and decreased contractile efficiency [268]. Individuals living with this disease have a greater susceptibility to cardiac arrhythmias, organ failure and sudden death [268]. Further, prolonged cardiac hypertrophy leads to heart failure in which the heart cannot supply the body with enough blood and can no longer sustain the increased workload required to meet the body's hemodynamic demands as a healthy heart can, causing left ventricular dilatation. This enlargement of the left ventricle causes irregular heartbeats (arrhythmia), thinning of the myocardial walls and an overall decrease in heart contraction and function resulting in sudden death [269, 270]. The Ca²⁺/Calmodulin (CaM)-dependent phosphatase, Calcineurin (Cn) and its downstream transcriptional target, the Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (NFAT), are major intracellular modulators of pathological cardiac hypertrophy [155, 271-273]. Of the five known NFAT isoforms, four (NFATc1, NFATc2, NFATc3, NFATc4) are regulated by Cn signaling and their presence has been detected in the heart [72, 274]. Cn dephosphorylates NFAT triggering its nuclear transit, where it interacts with other cardiac factors to activate the transcription of cardiac fetal genes including β -Myosin Heavy Chain (β -MyHC), Atrial Natriuretic Peptide (ANP) and Brain Natriuretic Peptide (BNP), thereby initiating the hypertrophic gene program [156]. In vivo and in vitro studies previously have demonstrated the effectiveness of Cn/NFAT signaling in the mediation of cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure [72, 149, 155, 275-282]. Another well-characterized inducer of cardiac hypertrophy is the GATA4

transcription factor. Transgenic mice overexpressing *GATA4* display increased heart sizes, cardiomyopathy and reactivation of the cardiac fetal genes [283]. In addition, GATA4 has been shown to cooperate with NFATc4 to synergistically activate the BNP promoter to induce cardiac hypertrophy [149].

Genetic loss-of-function studies have identified that NFATc2 is the major NFAT isoform responsible for Cn-induced pathological cardiac hypertrophy. Thus, 1-2 month old NFATc2-/- mice display a complete inhibition of forced hypertrophy, decreased cardiac fetal gene expression, reduced fibrosis and restored contractile functions suggesting a clear protection against pathological cardiac remodeling [267]. However, we observed that 6-9 month NFATc2-/- mice are physically frailer in appearance, more susceptible to sudden death and have larger hearts upon autopsy. These observations suggest that in younger NFATc2-/- mice, other transcription factors may be compensating for the absence of functional NFATc2. Over time, these compensatory transcription factors might not be able to completely restore normal cardiomyocyte growth and function, predisposing these mice to heart failure. Having this difference between early findings on young mice and our observations on adult mice, we decided to examine the role of NFATc2 transcription factor in the hearts of adult mice in normotensive and Angiotensin II (Ang II)-stimulated hearts for 14 and 28 days. Ang II performs a physiologic stimulus, which promotes myocyte growth and cardiac hypertrophy [267].

Our results on normotensive adult NFATc2-/- mice showed a similar <u>H</u>eart <u>W</u>eight-to-<u>B</u>ody <u>W</u>eight (HW/BW) ratio as NFATc2+/+ mice. However, NFATc2-/- mice displayed left ventricular inner chamber dilatation and thinning of the right ventricular wall, which might be correlated with heart failure. We also demonstrated that NFATc2-/-

mice have increased GATA4 expression and both NFATc1 and GATA4 nuclear translocation, suggesting a compensatory mechanism induced by these factors for the loss of NFATc2 in an attempt to rescue cardiomyocyte growth. Moreover, when inducing cardiac hypertrophy using Ang II implantation for 14 days, we observed that the overall heart morphology of Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice was similar to those of NFATc2+/+ mice. We also showed that the expression of cardiac fetal genes may be regulated by separate mechanisms, since the change in their expression did not show the same pattern. However, the mRNA levels of the cardio-protective genes *calsarcin-1*, the beta 1 isoform of <u>Calcineurin A</u> (CnA β 1) and the <u>Activating Transcription Factor 4</u> (ATF4), were either reduced or unchanged in the stimulated NFATc2-/- hearts compared to their NFATc2+/+ counterparts. The protein levels of phospho-Akt (pAkt) (Ser473), phospho-Foxo3a (pFoxo3a) (Ser253) and CnA β were unchanged in the 14 day Ang IIstimulated NFATc2-/- mice compared to their NFATc2+/+ counterparts. Additionally, Haematoxylin and Eosin (H&E), picrosirius red, CD45 and the fibroblast markers Alpha Smooth Muscle Actin (α -SMA) and Vimentin did not show any differences between the 14 day stimulated NFATc2-/- mice and their NFATc2+/+ counterparts. Comparable to the 14 day stimulation, the 28 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts were both overstressed showing the same degree of damage, collagen infiltrate and fibrosis.

Our results collectively, suggest that the NFATc2 transcription factor does not cause pathological cardiac hypertrophy in normotensive hearts. On the contrary, it might have a protective role in maintaining normal heart function and regulating growthmediated biochemical signaling. In addition, upon stressing the hearts with Ang II, the loss of NFATc2 does not confer any protection against damage and failure since both stimulated *NFATc2-/-* and *NFATc2+/+* hearts show similar degree of inflammation and fibrosis. In all cases, we propose that normal Cn/NFAT signaling is required for proper heart function. Simultaneously, abnormalities driven by Ang II are able to induce changes in this signaling pathway, thereby produce an exacerbated pathological situation.

4.4 Methods

4.4.1 Mouse model, breeding and maintenance

Transgenic *NFATc2* null (*NFATc2-/-*) mice were generously provided by Drs. Grace Pavlath (Emory University) and Laurie Glimcher (Harvard University). As a result of NFATc2 gene disruption, a loss of function mutation is produced as previously described [284]. Breeding of heterozygous (*NFATc2+/-*) or homozygous (*NFATc2-/-*) mice yielded a second generation *NFATc2-/-* mice. For the experimental design, *NFATc2-/-* mice were age and sex-matched with Wild-Type (*NFATc2+/+*) counterparts, which were purchased from (Charles River Laboratories) or generated from breeding. All mice were housed under standard environmental conditions (20-22°C) and provided with standard rodent food and tap water. Mice between 6 and 9 months of age were used for all subsequent analyses. Animal care and experimental procedures were performed in accordance to the guidelines of the Canadian Council of Animal Care.

4.4.2 Mice genotyping

DNA from mouse tails was amplified by adding 2 µl of DNA to 1X Taq buffer with KCl (Fermentas), 2 mM MgCl₂ (Fermentas), 0.2 mM dNTP (Invitrogen), 0.5 mM primers (Sigma Aldrich) and 20 U Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentas), yielding a final volume of 20 µl. The following primers were used 5' -gcaagcctcagtgacaaagtatccacttca-3', 5'-ccacgagctgcccatggtggagagacaaga-3' and 5'-agcgttggctacccgtgatattgctgaaga-3'. Cycling conditions were as follows: 1) initial denaturation at 95°C for five minute, 2) denaturation at 94°C for one minute, 3) primer annealing at 60 °C for one minute, extension at 72°C for one minute, 4) repeat steps 2 and 3 for 36 cycles, 5) final extension at 72°C for ten minutes. PCR products were loaded on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and resolved, after electrophoresis, under UV irradiation using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system (Cell Biosciences).

4.4.3 Muscle extraction and preservation

Prior to muscle extraction, mice were anesthetized by an intramuscular injection of a 1.6:1 volume ratio mixture of 100 mg/ml ketamine hydrochloride (Bimeda-MTC Animal Health Inc.) and 20 mg/ml xylazine (Bayer Health Care). A dosage of 0.04 ml/30 g of body weight was administered to each mouse. Animals were euthanized after extraction using CO₂ gas. Hearts for biochemical use were extracted and frozen directly in liquid nitrogen. For histology, the hearts were stimulated with an equal volume of 5% gelatin (Sigma Aldrich) in each ventricle, embedded with Tissue-Tek *Optimum Cutting Temperature* compound (Fisher Scientific) and frozen in a pool of melting isopentene cooled in liquid nitrogen. All samples were stored at -86°C until used.

4.4.4 RNA extraction and semi-quantitative RT-PCR

Mouse hearts were homogenized in a solution made up of guanidinium thiocyanate (Sigma Aldrich), 25 mM sodium citrate, 0.5% (v/v) N-laurylsarcosine

(Sigma Aldrich) and 0.1 M 2-mercaptoethanol (Bioshop), followed by addition of 0.2 M sodium acetate (pH 4.0) with vortexing, phenol (Sigma Aldrich) and chloroform: isoamyl alcohol with vortexing until the appearance of a white emulsion. Samples were cooled on ice for fifteen minutes, and then centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. Afterwards, two volumes of 99% ethanol were added to the aqueous layer with vortexing and centrifugation again at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol was decanted and the RNA was suspended in 200 µl of 70% ethanol and centrifuged at 10,000 x g for ten minutes at 4°C. The ethanol again was decanted and the RNA pellet was left to dry and re-suspended in 15 μ l of RNAse free H₂O (Bioshop) per 10 mg of tissue with subsequent vortexing and heating at 70°C for 3 minutes. To test RNA integrity, the RNA concentration was determined using an Eppendorf Biophotometer (Eppendorf) at 260nm. Subsequently, 2 µg of RNA was mixed with a 2:1 formamide:ethidium bromide, formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich), 10X MOPS (pH 7.0) and bromophenol blue, heated at 65°C for ten minutes and loaded on a 1.5% agarose gel containing 1X MOPS and formaldehyde. The three rRNA bands: 5S, 18S and 28S were visualized to verify RNA integrity.

RT-PCR was performed by combining 2 μ g of RNA and ultrapure water, to a final volume of 10 μ l. The final volume of the RT mixture was 40 μ l, and consisted of 0.625 μ M random primer hexamers (Invitrogen), 1X RT-buffer (Ambion), 0.5 μ M dNTP (Invitrogen), 40 U of RNase Inhibitor (Ambion) and 100 U of MMLV-RT (Ambion). The RT-PCR program (fifteen minutes at 20°C, one hour at 37°C, and ten minutes at 65 ° C) was performed using an MJ Research PTC-100 thermalcycler. As a negative control, RT

samples were duplicated in the absence of MMLV-RT. The cDNA was stored at -20°C until used.

The cDNA was amplified by adding 2.5 µl of cDNA to 1X Taq buffer with KCl (Fermentas), 1.5 mM MgCl₂ (Fermentas), 0.1 mM dNTP (Invitrogen), 0.2 mM primers (Sigma Aldrich) and 0.5 µl Taq DNA polymerase (Fermentas), yielding a final volume of 50 µl. Cycling conditions were as follows: 1) initial denaturation at 94°C for one minute, 2) denaturation at 94°C for one minute, 3) primer annealing at 55 °C for one minute and extension at 72°C for one minute, 4) repeat steps 2 and 3 for X number of cycles, 6) final extension at 72°C for ten minutes, using an MJ Research PTC-100 thermalcycler. PCR products were loaded on a 1.5% agarose gel stained with ethidium bromide and resolved under UV irradiation using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system (Cell Biosciences) after electrophoresis. The primer sequences used for semi-quantitative RT-PCR are listed in Table 4.1.

Gene	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer	Product Size (bp)
NFATc1	5'-ttccagcaccttcggaagggtgc-3'	5'-agtgagccctgtggtgagac -3'	205
NFATc2	5'-tctgctgttctcatggatgccc-3'	5'-ggatgcagtcacagggatgct-3'	282
NFATc3	5'-cgatctgctcaagaactccc-3'	5'-ggcagatgtaactgctgggt-3'	246
NFATc4	5'-ctgaggatcgaggtacagcc-3'	5'-ttgttctctgggagcaaggt -3'	293
28S	5'-ttgttgccatggtaatcctgctcagta-3'	5'-tctgacttagaggcgttcagtcataatc-3'	132
β-МНС	5'-gccaacaccaacctgtccaagttc-3'	5'-tgcaaaggctccaggtctgagggc-3'	205
ANP	5'-ttggcttccaggccataattg-3'	5'-aagagggcagatctatcgga-3'	282
BNP	5'-atggatctcctgaaggtgct-3'	5'-tcttgtgcccaaagcagctt-3'	505

Table 4.1: Primers for semi-quantitative PCR

4.4.5 Real time quantitative-PCR (qPCR)

Changes in gene expression for *calsarcin-1*, *CnA\beta1*, *ATF4*, *Foxo3a* and *myostatin* were assessed by qPCR. Briefly, 2 µg of freshly extracted heart RNA was reverse transcribed to cDNA using iScript reverse transcription supermix (Bio-Rad) and qPCR was performed using gene-specific primers together with appropriate reference genes for quantification (CFX96 Real-Time System, Bio-Rad). Relative quantities then were normalized by the Real-time System software to the relative quantities of Hypoxanthine-guanine Phospho-Ribosyl Transferase (*HPRT*), 60S Ribosomal Protein L13 (*RPL13*) and/or TATA-Binding Protein (*TBP*) housekeeping genes. The primer sequences used for qPCR are listed in Table 4.2.

Gene	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer	Product Size(bp)
Calsarcin-1	5'-gccaaaggggtgggtatct-3'	5'-tgccctaagcagaccaacag-3'	156
CnAβ1	5'-agaaggtgaagaccagt-3'	5'-agcaagttgcataacatcatt-3'	144
ATF4	5'-atgctctgtttcgaatgga-3'	5'-gtctgaggggggctccttatt-3'	121
Foxo3a	5'-caaagcagaccctcaaactga-3'	5'-caaaggtgtcaagctgtaaacgg-	3'102
MSTN	5'-taacetteccaggaccagga-3'	5'-cactctccagagcagtaatt-3'	223
RPL13	5'-aaggtggtggtcgtacgctgtg-3'	5'-gcgccagaaaatgcggctgg-3'	153
HPRT	5'-ccagcgtcgtgattagcgatgatg-3'	5'-gagcaagtetttcagteetgtee-3'	135
TBP	5'-caccaatgactcctatgacc-3'	5'-gtttacagccaagattcacg-3'	111

 Table 4.2: Primers for quantitative real-time PCR

4.4.6 Protein extraction and Immunoblotting

Briefly, whole hearts were homogenized in 1X RIPA buffer solution (6 µl/mg tissue) consisting of 1X PBS, 1% Igepal, 0.5% Sodium Deoxycholate, 0.1% Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS), 0.001 M Sodium Orthovanadate, 0.01 M Sodium Fluoride, 0.01 mg/ml Aprotinin, 0.01 mg/ml Leupeptin and 1 mM Phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride (PMSF). Homogenates were centrifuged at 15,000 x g for twenty minutes and the supernatant layers were collected and re-centrifuged. Protein concentrations were measured using Quick Start Bradford dye reagent (Bio-Rad) and extracts were stored at -86°C until used. For nuclear-cytosolic protein extraction, fractionation into cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins was performed using the NE-PER® Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Extraction Kit (Pierce Biotechnology) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Between 50-100 µg of protein were loaded on an SDS polyacrylamide gel consisting of a 5% w/v stacking gel composed of 3.9% acrylamide (Sigma Aldrich), 0.125 M Tris (pH 6.8), 0.1% SDS, 0.06% ammonium persulfate and 0.14% Tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) (Bioshop), and a 10% w/v separating gel composed of 9.9% acrylamide, 0.375 M Tris (pH 8.8), 0.1% SDS, 0.06% ammonium persulfate and 0.25% TEMED. Samples were electrophoresed at 120V until the protein sizes of interest were visibly separated using the Amersham Full-Range Rainbow Molecular Weight Markers (GE Healthcare Bio-Sciences Corp). Proteins were transferred to a PVDF membrane (Millipore) at 30V for 90 minutes using Borax (Bioshop), followed by blocking in 5% non-fat milk or bovine serum albumin in 0.1% Tween/Tris Buffered Saline (T/TBS) for one hour. Primary antibodies to GATA4

113

(1:1000; sc-25310, Santa Cruz), α -tubulin (1:2000; 2125, Cell Signaling), Histone H3 (1:1000; 9715, Cell Signaling), GAPDH (1:2000; ab9484, Abcam), pAkt (Ser473) (1:1000; 9271, Cell Signaling), total Akt (1:1000; 610861, BD Biosciences), Alpha smooth muscle actin (1:1000; ab5694, Abcam), pFoxo3a (Ser 253) (1:500; sc-101683, Santa Cruz), total Foxo3a (1:500; sc-11351, Santa Cruz), CnA β (1:1000; ADI-SPA-610, Enzo Life Sciences), Vimentin (1:500; C0390, Assay BioTech) and calsarcin-1 (1:2000; rabbit polyclonal antibody; a gift from Drs. Norbert Frey and Derk Frank) were added to membranes based on the manufacturer's recommendation and incubated on a shaker at 4°C overnight. The following day, membranes were washed three times with 0.1% T/TBS and incubated with secondary antibodies (1:2000, Sigma Aldrich and Cell Signaling) coupled to horse radish peroxidase (HRP) for one hour. Membranes were washed three times with 0.1% T/TBS and developed with enhanced chemi-luminescence reagents (Millipore) using the Alpha Innotec FluorChem system.

4.4.7 Angiotensin II infusion

Alzet 2002 micro-osmotic pumps (Alzet) were placed through a small dorsal incision in the skin between the scapulae in 6-9 month old female mice anesthetized as described above. Pumps were filled with Ang II (Sigma Aldrich), administered in a dosage of $432 \ \mu g \cdot k g^{-1} \cdot da y^{-1}$ in 150 mM NaCl-0.01N acetic acid. Ang II was continuously stimulated into mice for a period of 14 days. The hearts were then extracted as described earlier. For the 28 day stimulated hearts, the incision was opened and the pump was replaced by another one to give an additional dose for 14 more days before the hearts were extracted.

4.4.8 Histology, Staining and Microscopy

Hearts embedded in *Optimum Cutting Temperature* were transversally sectioned in 10 µm cuts, using a Leica CM3060S cryostat (Leica Microsystems Inc.) and collected on Superfrost Plus microslides (VWR).

For H&E, samples were incubated in 0.5% Harris haematoxylin (Sigma Aldrich) for five minutes, rinsed with water, quickly immersed in 1% HCl/70% ethanol solution, rinsed with water, incubated in 1% eosin (Fisher Scientific) for three minutes and rinsed with water. Slides were subsequently incubated in 70%, 80% and 90% ethanol solution for two minutes each and immersed in xylene (Fisher Scientific) for thirty seconds. Slides were air dried and mounted in Permount (Fisher Scientific). Images were captured on a Nikon SMZ1500 stereomicroscope or Zeiss microscope.

Picrosirius red staining for collagen infiltrate was performed using the picrosirius red kit (Polysciences, Inc.) as follows: hearts from the normotensive and Ang II stimulated mice were transversally sectioned in 10 µm cuts. Slides were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 30 minutes, followed by washing with distilled water and incubation in 20% of the stock solution A (Phosphomolybdic acid hydrate) for 5 minutes. Slides then were rinsed in distilled water and further incubated in 20% of the stock solution B (Trinitrophenol) for 30 minutes. This was followed by rinsing with distilled water and incubation in 20% of the stock solution C (Hydrogen chloride) for 2 minutes. Slides were finally dehydrated in 70% ethanol for 30 seconds, cleared with xylene for fifteen seconds, air dried and mounted in Permount. Images were visualized and captured using a microdissection microscope (Applied Biosystems).

For immunofluorescence (IF), samples were fixed in 2% PFA and washed with 1X PBS three times for five minutes. Tissues were blocked and permeabilized with 2% goat serum (Sigma Aldrich) and 0.2% Triton X-100 (Sigma Aldrich) for one hour. Samples were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies; 1:50 NFATc1 (sc-13033), 1:25 NFATc2 (sc-13034), 1:25 NFATc3(sc-8321), 1:50 NFATc4 (sc-13036) (Santa Cruz), 1:50 CD45 (05-1413, Millipore), 1:50 α-SMA (ab5694, Abcam) or 1:50 Vimentin (C0390, Assay BioTech) in 1X PBS containing 1% goat serum and 0.05% Triton X-100. The following day, samples were washed three times with 1X PBS and incubated with 1:100 Alexa Fluor® 488 Goat Anti-mouse IgG (A-11001) (Invitrogen) for mouse primary antibodies or 1:100 Alexa Fluor® 546 Goat Anti-rabbit IgG (A-11010) (Invitrogen) for rabbit primary antibodies in 1X PBS, containing 1% goat serum and 0.05% Triton X-100 for one hour at room temperature. Slides were washed five times with 1X PBS, dried and mounted with Vectashield with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (Dapi) (Vector Laboratories Inc.). Images were captured at 40X magnification using a Zeiss Axioplan fluorescence microscope mounted with a Lumenera Infinity 3-1C1.4 camera (Ottawa, ON, Canada). Negative control slides without primary antibodies revealed the absence of background staining at the acquisition time used. Colocalization analysis was performed using ImagePro Plus version 6.2 software (Olympus, Markham, ON, Canada).

4.4.9 Statistical analyses

The levels of cDNA and protein expression were quantified by measuring the density of the band of interest with respect to a control using the Alpha Innotec

FluorChem system. Differences between experimental groups were evaluated for statistical significance using One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) with necessary Post-Hoc tests. Student's *t* test was used for comparing two groups with one variable. Values were considered to be statistically significant if P<0.05. Analyses for Chapter 4 are fully explained in Appendix III.

4.5 Results

4.5.1 Characterization of heart phenotype in NFATc2-/- mice

NFATc2-/- mice were generated by substituting the NFATc2 N-terminal DNA binding domain of the NFAT <u>Rel Homology Domain (RHD)</u> with a neomycin cassette, using homologous recombination [284]. The genotypes of experimental mice were validated by amplifying DNA isolated from tails by PCR (Appendix IV; Figure 1a). Normotensive hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice displayed a comparable overall gross morphology (Appendix IV; Figure 1b) and a similar relative HW/BW ratio compared to *NFATc2+/+* mice (Appendix IV; Figure 1c).

We monitored changes in the sizes of heart ventricles and myocardial wall thickness, well-characterized markers of heart disease and failure (Appendix IV; Figure 1d). The ratio of the left ventricular chamber inner diameter to total heart diameter showed that the left ventricular chamber of NFATc2-/- mice was approximately 28% more dilated than NFATc2+/+ hearts (Appendix IV; Figure 1e). Additionally, the right ventricular wall was approximately 25% thinner than in NFATc2+/+ hearts. However, the latter effect was not significant (Appendix IV; Figure 1f). The changes in both ventricular

dilatation and thickness of the myocardial wall suggest that adult *NFATc2-/-* mice might be more susceptible to heart failure and sudden death.

4.5.2 NFATc1 has increased nuclear localization in the hearts of *NFATc2-*/- mice

To monitor the ability of NFATc1, NFATc3 and NFATc4 to compensate for the absence of functional NFATc2 at the mRNA level, semi-quantitative RT-PCR was conducted on RNA isolated from experimental hearts. Although mRNA transcript levels showed no differences between NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts (Appendix IV; Figure 2a), IFs showed that NFATc1 had a significantly higher nuclear presence, whereas NFATc3 and NFATc4 were unchanged in the hearts of NFATc2-/- compared to NFATc2+/+ mice (Appendix IV; Figures 2b and 2c). This suggests that NFATc1 may have increased nuclear translocation in order to potentially compensate for the absence of the non-functional NFATc2 in the adult hearts.

4.5.3 The GATA4 transcription factor has a higher protein expression and nuclear transit in the *NFATc2-/-* compared to *NFATc2+/+* hearts

GATA4 transcription factor is one of the most well-characterized proteins required for cardiac morphogenesis and a marker of adult cardiac failure [285]. It has been demonstrated that GATA4 can interact with NFATc4 to synergistically activate the transcription of genes leading to cardiac growth and eventually heart failure [149]. Although GATA4 was not altered in the hearts of adult *NFATc2-/-* mice at the transcript level (data not shown), it was significantly upregulated at the protein level (Appendix IV; Figures 3a and 3b), suggesting that the synthesis of GATA4 protein was increased maybe

to compensate for the loss of a functional DNA binding domain in the NFATc2 protein. To determine whether there also was increased nuclear transit of GATA4 in the hearts of adult *NFATc2-/-* mice, we fractionated the hearts into cytoplasmic and nuclear protein extracts and used <u>Glyceraldehyde-3-Phosphate Dehydrogenase</u> (GAPDH) as a cytosolic loading control and Histone H3 as a nuclear loading control (Appendix IV; Figure 3c). Results showed that GATA4 expression was comparable in the cytoplasmic fraction of *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts, whereas GATA4 was significantly upregulated in the nuclear fraction of *NFATc2-/-* hearts, compared to the *NFATc2+/+* counterparts (Appendix IV; Figures 3d and 3e). Thus, as a molecular partner of NFATc2, GATA4 had an increased expression as well as increased nuclear transit in the absence of functional NFATc2.

4.5.4 The 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice have morphological and anatomical markers of heart failure comparable to *NFATc2+/+* counterparts

Because normotensive adult *NFATc2-/-* mice displayed both physiological and biochemical alterations indicative of heart failure, we induced acute cardiac hypertrophy in those mice using Ang II administration for 14 days. We hypothesized that imposing further strain on *NFATc2-/-* mice by using a functional overload, the hearts of these mice would display a more severe pathological state. Ang II-mediated cardiac hypertrophy was validated by a 20% increased HW/BW ratio in both stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to their normotensive counterparts (Appendix IV; Figure 4a). When comparing the left ventricular inner chamber diameter and thickness of the right ventricular wall in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice, we visually

observed some differences (Appendix IV; Figure 4b). Yet, there was no significant change in the left ventricular chamber inner wall diameter or the right ventricular wall diameter between stimulated NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts (data not shown), implying that imposed acute pharmacological stress on these mice might have caused some but not major changes.

In addition, we saw alterations in the expression of the cardiac fetal genes, β -MyHC, ANP and BNP (Appendix IV; Figure 4c). The reactivation of the cardiac fetal genes is another hallmark feature of hearts undergoing pathophysiological hypertrophy and damage [156]. We showed that of all fetal genes tested, only the β -MyHC gene was increased in expression, whereas ANP and BNP did not change between Ang II-induced NFATc2-/- and their NFATc2+/+ counterparts (Appendix IV; Figures 4d, 4e and 4f).

4.5.5 The 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice display altered cardio-protective gene expressions

In addition to cardiac fetal genes, we monitored gene expression of regulators of cardiac growth following 14 days of Ang II-induced hypertrophy in *NFATc2-/-* mice. Based on our previous findings on normotensive *NFATc2-/-* mice that had altered cardiac fetal gene expression, we predicted that genes with a cardio-protective function would be downregulated, whereas genes involved in heart failure and damage would be increased in expression. Interestingly, we observed that genes with cardio-protective roles; *calsarcin-1* and *CnA* β *1*, were significantly increased in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice compared to *NFATc2+/+* counterparts. However, *calsarcin-1* was unchanged and *CnA* β *1* was reduced in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to their *NFATc2+/+*

counterparts (Figures 4.1a and 4.1b). In agreement with this observation, *ATF4*, a downstream target of the <u>mammalian Target Of Rapamycin</u> (mTORC1) and a potential mediator of the cardio-protective effect produced by $CnA\beta_1$ [64, 175, 180, 181], had a tendency for an increase (P=0.09) in stimulated *NFATc2+/+* compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+* mice. However, this increase was lost in stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts (Figure 4.1c).

Additionally, the expression levels of genes with known roles in cardiac damage and atrophy were measured [174, 286-289]. *Foxo3a* was upregulated in stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to normotensive *NFATc2-/-* mice, whereas *myostatin* was increased in stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to all other groups (Figures 4.1d and 4.1e).

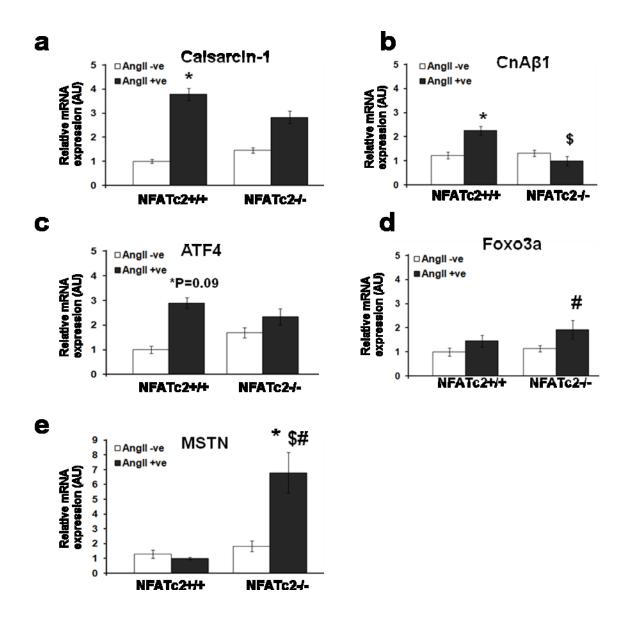


Figure 4.1: The 14 day Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice display less protective properties

QPCR showing changes in relative mRNA expression levels of *calsarcin-1* (**a**), $CnA\beta 1$ (**b**), ATF4 (**c**), Foxo3a (**d**) and *myostatin* (MSTN) (**e**) in normotensive as well as in the hearts of Ang II-stimulated NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- mice. Relative quantities are normalized to *HPRT*, *TBP* and/or *RPL13* (n=3 for calsarcin-1, CnA $\beta 1$ and Foxo3a and n=4 for ATF4 and MSTN; P<0.05). AU represents Arbitrary Units. *compared to normotensive NFATc2+/+, \$compared to stimulated NFATc2+/+, #compared to normotensive NFATc2-/-. Means ± SEM are shown.

4.5.6 The 14 day Ang II-stimulated hearts show similar signs of damage as normotensive hearts

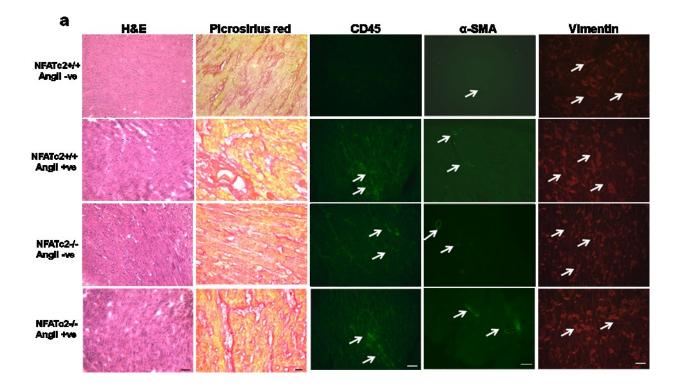
In order to determine if changes in the expression of cardiac fetal genes driven by Ang II stimulation had generated any damage hallmarks in the hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice, we next assessed various pathological indices. Picrosirius red, a strong anionic dye, was introduced to substitute for Acid Fuchsin in Van Gieson's trichrome method. This dye specifically stains collagen by direct interaction between the basic groups in collagen and sulphonic acid groups of sirius red [290]. Accordingly, H&E and picrosirius red staining did not show differences in visual morphological abnormalities between stimulated and normotensive *NFATc2-/-* hearts (Figure 4.2a).

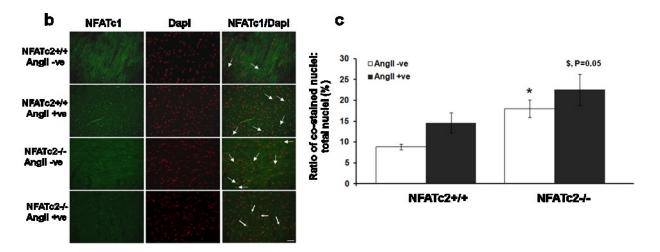
CD45, also called Leukocyte common antigen, is a high molecular weight transmembrane glycoprotein, which is expressed in nucleated hematopoietic cells [291, 292]. CD45 is a member of the protein tyrosine phosphatase family, which is an essential regulator of T- and B-cell antigen receptor signaling and functions by activating various kinases required for antigen receptor signaling [292]. This protein is considered a valuable marker to identify cells of leukocyte origin as well as to distinguish naive from memory T-cells that are induced during inflammatory responses [293, 294]. Thus to investigate the presence of inflammation due to 14 day Ang II stimulation, we stained for CD45. Both stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* showed a similar staining for this marker (Figure 4.2a).

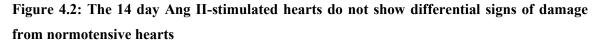
To detect and examine the presence of fibrosis in NFATc2-/- mice, we used two markers: α -SMA, a marker of fibrosis and smooth muscle differentiation, is a protein

synthesized from the myofibroblasts at the site of injury during wound healing [295]. Vimentin is the most frequent occurring intermediate filament in fibroblasts and thus a reliable fibroblast marker [296]. Both α -SMA and Vimentin showed similar staining in normotensive *NFATc2-/-*, stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts (Figure 4.2a).

We previously saw an increased NFATc1 nuclear localization in the hearts of normotensive *NFATc2-/-* mice, which might be correlated to the ability of NFATc1 to compensate for the absence of *NFATc2* (Appendix IV; Figure 2c). In agreement with this, IFs showed that NFATc1 had a tendency for a higher nuclear presence in the hearts of the 14 day stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to the 14 day stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice (P=0.05) (Figures 4.2b and 4.2c).







(a) H&E, picrosirius red staining and IFs for CD45, α -SMA and Vimentin in the hearts of normotensive and stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice (n=3). Arrows indicate positive staining. Scale bars; 50µm for (H&E), 10µm for (Picrosirius red), 20µm for (CD45 and Vimentin) and 100µm for (α -SMA). (b) Representative photomicrographs depicting nuclear localization of NFATc1 isoform in the heart. Arrows indicate nuclei positively stained for NFATc1. Scale bars, 20µm. (c) Quantification of the percentage of myonuclei stained for NFATc1 in normotensive *NFATc2-/-* compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+* hearts (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+*. Means \pm SEM are shown.

4.5.7 Phospho-Akt, α-SMA, phospho-Foxo3a and Vimentin protein levels do not change in the 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice

We next investigated whether pathways regulating protein translation were affected in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice. The Insulin Growth Factor-I/Akt (IGF-1/Akt) signaling pathway is one of the most studied growth pathways involved in promoting both gene transcription and protein translation, as well as in inhibiting the activation of pathways resulting in protein degradation [178, 179]. We thus speculated that the expression of activated Akt would also be downregulated in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice. Our results showed an upregulation of pAkt (Ser473) in the stimulated

NFATc2+/+ hearts compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+* hearts, but no change in the stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to their *NFATc2+/+* counterparts (Figures 4.3a and 4.3c). Although two bands were visible when probing for total Akt, the lower band was deemed unspecific in mice using alkaline phosphatase treatment and Western blots on rat muscles (data not shown). In addition, pFoxo (Ser253), which is inhibited by the active form of Akt [174], was also unchanged with Ang II stimulation in both phenotypes (Figures 4.3b and 4.3e)

We also examined the protein levels of α -SMA, Vimentin and CnA β (Figure 4.3). Here, we showed a slight but not significant increase in the expression of α -SMA in both stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to normotensive ones. Nevertheless, there was no difference between *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice (Figures 4.3a and 4.3d). Likewise, there was no difference in the expression of Vimentin (Figures 4.3b and 4.3f). Unlike qPCR results, our immunoblotting did not show a difference in CnA β expression between stimulated *NFATc2-/-* and *NFATc2+/+* hearts but a significant decrease in stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to their normotensive *NFATc2-/*counterparts (Figures 4.3b and 4.3g).

Since the changes in signaling observed in normotensive *NFATc2-/-* mice were compromised after 14 days Ang II stimulation, we decided to carry out 28 days Ang II implantation to further stress the hearts and examine the role of NFATc2 under very high stressing conditions.

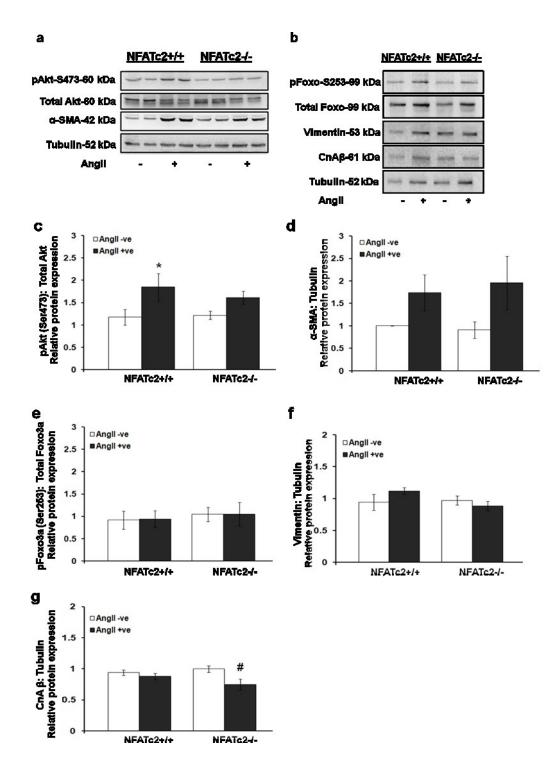


Figure 4.3: PAkt (Ser473), α-SMA, pFoxo3a (Ser253), Vimentin and CnAβ expression levels in the 14 day Ang II-stimulated mice

(a) Representative immunoblots for pAkt (Ser473), total Akt and α -SMA. (b) Representative immunoblots for pFoxo3a (Ser253), total Foxo3a, Vimentin and CnA β . (c-g) Quantifications of the immunoblots normalized to α -tubulin expression (n=4; P<0.05). *compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+*, \$compared to stimulated *NFATc2+/+*, #compared to normotensive *NFATc2-/-*. Means ± SEM are shown.

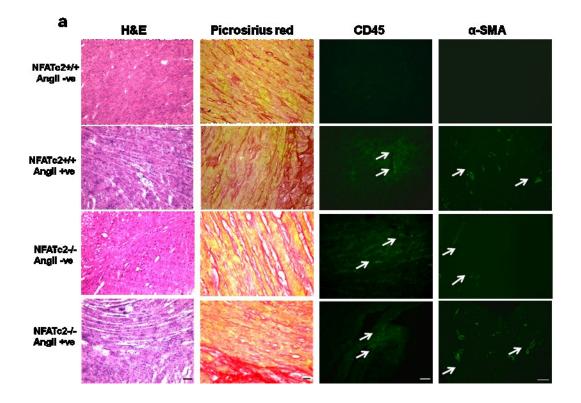
4.5.8 The 28 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts have similar features as their *NFATc2+/+* counterparts

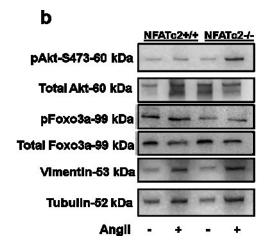
The same collagen infiltrate, inflammatory and fibroblast markers used for the 14 day Ang II-stimulated hearts were used for the 28 day stimulated hearts. Thus, heart cross sections were stained for H&E, picrosirius red, CD45 and α -SMA (Figure 4.4a). Similar to the 14 day stimulation, we did not observe differences in those markers among the tested groups. However, picrosirius red in the stimulated hearts showed increased collagen infiltrate.

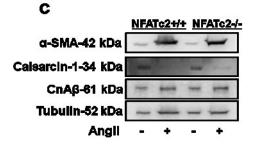
Additionally, we wanted to see if the prolonged Ang II stimulation has affected the Akt pathway. Immunoblotting for pAkt (Ser473) showed no changes in expression despite a slight increase in both stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts (Figures 4.4b and 4.4d). In agreement with this finding, pFoxo3a (Ser253), was also unchanged with Ang II stimulation for 28 days in both phenotypes (Figures 4.4b and 4.4e).

We next set out to monitor the expression of the fibroblast markers Vimentin and α -SMA (Figures 4.4b and 4.4c). Both targets did not show any differences in expression between stimulated *NFATc2-/-* and stimulated *NFATc2+/+* hearts (Figures 4.4f and 4.4g). Interestingly, α -SMA was significantly higher in stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* compared to normotensive ones (Figure 4.4g).

In addition, we tested the expression of the cardio-protective genes *calsarcin-1* and $CnA\beta$ (Figure 4.4c). Interestingly calsarcin-1 was lower, whereas CnA β was not changed in the stimulated hearts (Figures 4.4h and 4.4i).







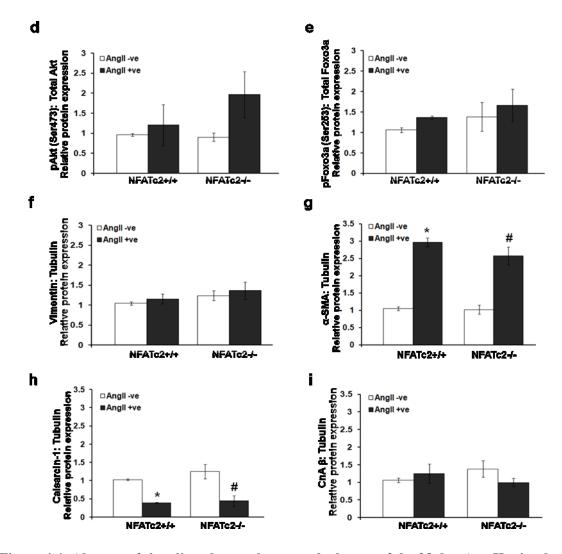


Figure 4.4: Absence of signaling changes between the hearts of the 28 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice and their *NFATc2+/+* counterparts

(a) H&E, picrosirius red staining and IFs for CD45 and α -SMA demonstrate similar staining in the hearts of stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to *NFATc2+/+* mice (n=3). Arrows indicate positive staining. Scale bars; 50µm for (H&E), 10µm for (Picrosirius red), 20µm for (CD45) and 100µm for (α -SMA). (b-c) Representative immunoblots for pAkt (Ser473), total Akt, pFoxo3a (Ser253), total Foxo3a, Vimentin, α -SMA, Calsarcin-1 and CnA β expressions. (d-i) Quantifications of the immunoblots normalized to α -tubulin expression (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+*, #compared to normotensive *NFATc2-/-*. Means ± SEM are shown.

4.6 Discussion

During the initial phase of our study, we observed that adult 6-9 month old *NFATc2-/-* mice were susceptible to sudden death and had enlarged hearts when autopsied. However, it has been demonstrated that 1-2 month old *NFATc2-/-* mice display a complete inhibition of forced hypertrophy, decreased cardiac fetal gene expression and reduced fibrosis, suggesting a clear protection against pathological cardiac remodeling in the absence of the NFATc2 [267]. Hence, we wanted to shed light on the role of NFATc2 transcription factor in Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy taking into consideration the age differences between our mice and the mice in the earlier study.

Although the hearts of 6-9 month old NFATc2-/- mice shared an overall similar gross morphology and HW/BW ratio as age and sex-matched NFATc2+/+ mice, only normotensive NFATc2-/- mice displayed a more dilated left ventricular chamber inner diameter and a thinner right ventricle wall, which are characteristics of compromised cardiac contractility and eventual heart failure (Appendix IV; Figure 1). In this case, the heart cannot supply the body with enough blood causing left ventricular enlargement and sudden death. Previous work has demonstrated that hearts of 1-2 month old NFATc2-/mice display no significant change in left ventricular internal diameter and contractility of the left ventricle compared to NFATc2+/+ mice [267], which correlates with our findings in adult stimulated mice.

NFATc2 has been shown to be the major isoform responsible for cardiac hypertrophy [267], but other transcription factors are possibly compensating for its loss, raising questions about the cardio-protective role of NFATc2 at later stages of life.

Because no compensation by NFATc1, NFATc3 and NFATc4 was detected at the transcript level for the absence of functional NFATc2, we decided to monitor NFAT cellular localization. As transcription factors, NFAT proteins become active after being dephosphorylated by Cn, which enables nuclear translocation leading to increased expression of the cardiac fetal genes. Our IFs indicate that the nuclear translocation of NFATc1 was significantly higher in the normotensive hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice, whereas nuclear NFATc3 and NFATc4 levels were unchanged (Appendix IV; Figure 2). Thus, NFATc1 may be compensating for NFATc2 in an attempt to increase growth-mediated transcription.

Dunn *et al.*, [297] have shown that Cn-mediated dephosphorylation of NFATc1 is correlated with increased muscle usage. They showed that normal weight-bearing soleus and functional overload-induced plantaris muscles express more dephosphorylated NFATc1. In addition, Shen *et al.*, [298] have demonstrated that NFATc1 has a higher cytoplasmic to nuclear shuttling rate in resting skeletal muscle cells compared to other NFAT proteins, which suggests that Cn/NFAT has a higher basal activity than other NFAT isoforms. In addition, the role of the NFATc1 transcription factor in heart function remains poorly understood since *NFATc1-/-* mice are embryonic lethal, whereas other *NFAT* knockout mice remain viable [299]. This suggests that NFATc1 is likely an important factor for physiological heart growth, which may explain why NFATc1 is the only isoform that compensates for the genetic loss of NFATc2 function in the heart. Nevertheless, NFATc1 might not be able to fully restore proper cardiomyocyte growth, function and size because *NFATc2-/-* mice display changes in the ventricles, which are characteristic of heart failure.

NFAT transcription factors can interact with molecular partners in the nucleus to re-activate cardiac fetal genes in response to hypertrophic stimuli leading to heart failure [79, 92, 149, 300]. Our results showed that nuclear protein expression of GATA4 is significantly elevated in both whole homogenate and fractionated hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice (Appendix IV; Figure 3). As a well-characterized marker of cardiac hypertrophy, such an increased level of GATA4 protein might be a strong indicator of a diseased, overly stressed and most likely failed heart. Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* overexpression of GATA4 is necessary and sufficient to induce morphological, functional, molecular and structural changes resulting in cardiomyocyte remodeling and failure [283, 301, 302]. The significant increase in GATA4 protein expression and nuclear import in *NFATc2-/-* mice suggests that GATA4 is compensating for the absence of functional NFATc2. Similar to NFATc1, GATA4 may be attempting to promote transcriptional growth in the hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice, but cannot completely compensate for the lack of NFATc2, causing these hearts to fail in adulthood.

Because some changes in signaling were minimal or absent in normotensive hearts, we stimulated cardiac hypertrophy in mice using Ang II for 14 and 28 days. As observed in normotensive hearts, the HW/BW ratio of 6 month old 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice was similar to that of Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice, but it was higher in stimulated hearts compared to normotensive ones, suggesting a preserved ability of these hearts to develop hypertrophy due to induced stress (Appendix IV; Figure 4a). These results differ from previous work showing that 1-2 month old Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice display a HW/BW ratio that is significantly lower than *NFATc2+/+* counterparts [267]. The latter suggests that there could be a difference

between young and adult mice in the role of NFATc2 in the heart, and this interesting possibility should be confirmed by future studies with direct side-by-side comparison of the two age groups.

We initially expected that the transcript expression of β -MvHC, ANP and BNP would be increased in Ang II-stimulated adult NFATc2-/- mice, which would suggest that these mice are more vulnerable to cardiac disease. Although we observed increased β -MyHC expression, ANP and BNP expression did not change in Ang II-stimulated NFATc2-/- mice compared to their NFATc2+/+ counterparts (Appendix IV; Figures 4c-4f). As a major structural protein in the myocardial sarcomeric contractile unit, β -MyHC is thought to be a more representative indirect marker of pathological cardiac hypertrophy and failure [303]. Abraham et al., [303] found that β -MyHC transcript expression incrementally declines when patients having idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy are treated with β -blockers, whereas ANP expression decreases in both placebo and β blocker treated groups. This indicates that ANP responds non-specifically to the method of treatment and that the regulation of other cardiac fetal genes might be controlled by a separate mechanism from that of the cardiac MyHC isoforms. In addition, it seems that once hearts are hypertrophied with Ang II, changes in contractile protein expression take place causing these hearts to fail.

As a known negative regulator of Cn signaling in the heart, *in vitro* and *in vivo* work has shown that overexpression of *calsarcin-1* attenuates Ang II-mediated cardiac hypertrophy [263]. In *NFATc2+/+* mice, *calsarcin-1* was increased in expression following stimulation as an initial cellular reaction to increased load and as a rescue response. However, it was not changed in Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared

to stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice, indicating decreased protective properties in NFATc2deficient hearts (Figure 4.1a). Moreover, calsarcin-1 protein level was downregulated in the 28 day Ang II-stimulated mice compared to normotensive hearts, suggesting the absence of cardio-protection (Figure 4.4h). Whether NFATc2 has a role in regulating *calsarcin-1* gene expression as a manner for preventing heart failure remains unclear.

Recent studies have demonstrated that mice overexpressing cardiac $CnA\beta I$ are not subject to hypertrophy, but rather display a cardio-protective function through activation of the Akt and Serum and Glucocorticoid-regulated Kinase (SGK) pathway [65]. In our study, $CnA\beta I$ expression was increased following 14 day Ang II treatment in NFATc2+/+mice, suggesting that its expression is activated as a protective measure in response to induced stress. In contrast, $CnA\beta I$ expression was decreased in stimulated NFATc2-/mice, which indicates that additional exerted stress by Ang II treatment may have caused those hearts to pass a critical stage for recovery and to lose the cardio-protective functions of $CnA\beta I$ (Figure 4.1b). It is noteworthy that the change in $CnA\beta$ expression between stimulated NFATc2-/- and NFATc2+/+ mice was restricted to the transcript, but not protein level suggesting a possible post-transcriptional modification of $CnA\beta$ in the hearts of NFATc2-/- mice (Figures 4.3g and 4.4i).

Further, ATF4 activates an amino acid biosynthesis program and mediates the cardio-protective effect produced by CnA β_1 [65, 180, 181]. Here, ATF4 worked in concert with CnA β_1 , and showed a tendency for upregulation in the stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice perhaps to produce a protective effect. However, it was unchanged in the stimulated *NFATc2-/-* compared to normotensive ones, suggesting once more the loss of protection after Ang II stimulation (Figure 4.1c).

Foxo factors are the downstream targets of pAkt which represses Foxo transcription and thus inhibits protein degradation [174]. All members of the Foxo family except Foxo6 are essential for cardiac function [304]. Akt phosphorylates Foxo3a at Ser253, which masks its nuclear localization sequence, leading to its export from the nucleus to the cytoplasm [305, 306]. Thus, Akt signaling is a major regulator of Foxo activity. In this context, we showed an upregulation of Foxo3a only at the transcript level in the stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice compared to normotensive *NFATc2-/-* mice but with no significant difference compared to stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice, suggesting a possible shift toward protein degradation in the knockout stressed hearts (Figure 4.1d).

The exact role of myostatin in the heart is still being established and several studies have reported an elevated myostatin expression in mammalian models of heart failure [286-289]. Heineke *et al.*, [307] showed that the heart can actively secrete myostatin to skeletal muscles to induce cachexia in an endocrine manner and that the genetic deletion of myostatin in the heart inhibits skeletal muscle wasting. Another report has shown that myostatin inhibition could contribute to repairing damaged cardiac muscle fibers by increasing contractility and Ca²⁺ influx into cardiomyocytes, both of which are features of physiological cardiac hypertrophy [308]. Furthermore, myostatin plasma levels correlate with biomarkers of heart failure severity [288]. In agreement with Foxo3a expression levels, we showed that *myostatin* is significantly upregulated in the hearts of stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice, which signifies that these mice have a greater susceptibility to heart failure (Figure 4.1e). The collective findings that *CnAβ1* is lowered, and that *myostatin* and *Foxo3a* are elevated in the hearts of Ang II-treated *NFATc2-/-* mice, suggest that these hearts may have passed a critical stage of heart failure

severity in which rescue is not feasible. These results also suggest that induced cardiac hypertrophy causes a shift in gene expression profiles toward a more damaged status.

Additionally, both the 14 and 28 day stimulated hearts from *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice did not show variations in any of the damage markers used in this study, suggesting that NFATc2 is neither protecting nor exacerbating the hearts of adult mice exposed to pathological stress (Figures 4.2a and 4.4a).

Upon imitating cardiac workload by Ang II stimulation, we observed that activated pAkt (Ser473) was higher in the hearts of the 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2+/+* mice than in normotensive mice supporting previous findings [309]. This observation suggests that the upregulation of pAkt expression in the stimulated *NFATc2+/+* was an attempt to overcome the stress produced by Ang II. However, this attempt did not work with the stimulated *NFATc2-/-* hearts since the expression of pAkt was unchanged in the hearts of the 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2-/-* mice, which suggests an inactivation of translational-mediated cardiac growth in *NFATc2-/-* mice (Figure 4.3c). After 28 days of Ang II stimulation no change was observed, suggesting an inactivation of the Akt growth pathway due to Ang II stimulation as opposed to the loss of NFATc2 (Figure 4.4d).

The knockdown of α -SMA in embryonic stem cells using RNA interference has been shown to affect cardiac differentiation [310]. In addition, it has been shown that α -SMA is expressed during pressure-overload hypertrophy [311]. Another study has found an absence of α -SMA in cardiomyocytes during various pathological situations [312]. We showed a non-significant increase in the expression of α -SMA in the 14 day stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to their normotensive controls, without any difference between the stimulated hearts (Figure 4.3d). In the 28 day Ang II-stimulated hearts, there was a significant increase in α -SMA in the stimulated hearts compared to the normotensive ones, which is most likely due to prolonged Ang II stimulation (Figure 4.4g).

Vimentin also has been used as a reliable fibroblast marker in many recent studies to identify cardiac myofibroblasts [313, 314]. Vimentin expression was unchanged among the tested groups in both the 14 and 28 day Ang II-stimulated hearts (Figures 4.3f and 4.4f). This indicates that prolonged Ang II stimulation does not affect the expression of Vimentin, which was not the case for α -SMA expression in the 28 day Ang IIstimulated hearts.

Our work provides evidence that Cn/NFAT signaling has a crucial role in the normal function of the adult heart, contrary to the general theory which postulates that Cn signaling is responsible for cardiac disorders, heart failure and sudden death. Physiological and biochemical signaling alterations in the hearts of *NFATc2-/-* mice indicate that these mice are susceptible to disease, which provides further insights toward understanding the importance of the Cn/NFATc2 pathway in the adult heart. Bourajjaj *et al.*, [267] provided additional evidence that the absence of NFATc2 produces clear protection against cardiac hypertrophy in young mice. Our study showed that NFATc2 might produce cardio-protection in adult non-stressed hearts. However, this protection was minimized after stressing the hearts for 14 days and completely lost after 28 days of Ang II-stimulation. Nevertheless, the loss of NFATc2 isoform neither exacerbated the response of the hearts of adult mice nor prevented hypertrophy.

138

Moreover, NFATc1 nuclear localization was significantly higher in normotensive NFATc2-/- mice compared to normotensive NFATc2+/+ mice (Appendix IV; Figure 2c), and nuclear localization had a tendency to increase (P=0.05) in the hearts of 14 day stimulated NFATc2-/- mice compared to their NFATc2+/+ counterparts (Figure 4.6c). Thus, our results from this study implicate a compensation for loss of NFATc2 by the NFATc1 isoform. Another explanation might be related to the fact that stressing the hearts for 14 or even 28 days with a potent drug like Ang II, might have caused a level of damage which masked any difference between NFATc2-/- and NFATc2+/+ mice, as those hearts have reached a damaged point which could not be exceeded. Over time, changes in growth-mediated signaling may predispose these mice to eventual heart deterioration and overt heart failure due to Ang II-mediated stress rather than through loss of the NFATc2 isoform. Therefore, there is still much to be explored about this branch of Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy.

Bourajjaj *et al.*, [267] proposed that because the hearts of young 1-2 month old NFATc2-/- or NFATc3-/- mice are either totally or partially impaired in their ability to grow in response to Cn-mediated hypertrophy, a combined NFATc2c3-/- mouse would display more complete inhibition to hypertrophy. Whether similar effects would be seen in adult NFATc3-/-, remains to be elucidated. Additionally, there are many signaling effectors that can regulate both physiological and pathophysiological cardiac growth and it is difficult to identify which other pathways could be activated or inactivated in the NFATc2-/- mouse model. An interesting pathway to investigate in NFATc2-/- mice would be that involving the Ca²⁺/CaM dependent Kinases (CaMK). It is likely that a disruption of Cn/NFATc2 signaling may be compensated by a parallel branch of the Ca²⁺/CaM

pathway. Transgenic mice overexpressing CaMK II in the heart are subject to cardiac hypertrophy, which is likely caused by increased nuclear export and dissociation of class II <u>H</u>istone <u>Deac</u>etylases (HDAC) from the DNA, allowing the <u>Myocyte Enhancer Factor 2</u> (MEF2) and other transcription factors to bind DNA more readily to compensate for the absence of NFATc2 [171, 285, 315, 316].

All these data collectively will help explain the role of NFATc2 in Cn-mediated cardiac hypertrophy in normal hearts and following biochemical stress, which leads to deterioration, further damage and eventual death.

Chapter 5 : General conclusions

The $Ca^{2+}/calmodulin-dependent$ phosphatase, Calcineurin (Cn) and its downstream transcriptional target, the Nuclear Factor of Activated T cells (NFAT) play a major role in controlling a variety of muscle diseases. Strategies that aim to control the amount of Cn may be of great value in identifying novel pharmacological targets for the treatment of muscle disorders. This research provides new insights into understanding different mechanisms by which Cn regulates and affects muscle diseases. The involvement of the Cn/NFAT pathway in Duchenne Muscular Dystrophy (DMD) has been thoroughly discussed in previous studies. These studies manipulated the activity of Cn, using several transgenic models that target either Cn or calmodulin [98, 106]. However, the study presented here is the first that shows manipulation of Ca²⁺ kinetics and the effect of such manipulation on Cn activity as well as on the expression of important genes such as *utrophin*. We provide information about the expression of other proteins including the Heat Shock Protein 70 (HSP70) in mdx and mdx crossbreeds. This protein recently has been shown to be involved in ameliorating the symptoms of DMD in the absence of utrophin [150]. Our results show no correlation between utrophin and HSP70 suggesting that the two proteins are regulated by different mechanisms. This looks exciting, as it shows the possibility that other pathways are involved in the regulation of DMD. Thus, targeting more than one pathway might be a more effective countermeasure for treating muscle dystrophy. Additionally, understanding the roles of various Cn modulators will help to clarify what is still unknown about this disease. Figure 5.1 illustrates the three transgenes used in this thesis and shows the effect of the PV transgene on the Cn/NFAT pathway. It also shows that HSP70 does not work through the same pathway suggesting alternative explanations.

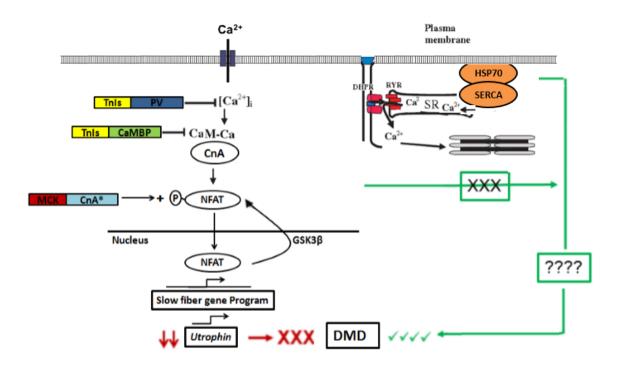


Figure 5.1: Schematic diagram showing the three transgenes used to manipulate the Cn/NFAT pathway and showing the effect of HSP70 on DMD

In addition, our research provides evidence that normal Cn/NFAT signaling has a crucial role in the function of the adult heart. Thus, it is not the high Cn activity that causes deterioration in cardiac hypertrophy, but the inability to adapt to and utilize high Cn levels. In accordance, we provide new insights toward understanding the importance of the Cn/NFAT pathway in the adult heart. Interestingly, our study might help in investigating pharmacological interventions to treat cardiac disorders.

Chapter 6 : Future Directions

As it is one of the crucial Ca^{2+} signaling pathways involved in muscle diseases, it is important to continue research involving the Cn/NFAT pathway. This will lead to a better understanding of the regulation of Cn and its modulators in muscle disorders. In this manuscript-based thesis, we dealt with two important muscle diseases: Duchenne muscular dystrophy and cardiac hypertrophy, in which Cn and its effectors play a major role in their progression. The results of the second chapter (First manuscript): "Distinct calcineurin-related transgenic approaches rescue or exacerbate the dystrophic phenotype in fibers from crossbred *mdx* mice despite constant HSP70 expression" are completed and ready for submission to one of the most effective journals in the field such as *The FASEB Journal*, which has many contributions to health. As our results showed that utrophin-A and HSP70 are regulated by different mechanisms, I believe the next manuscript should involve research on the pathways that might be regulating HSP70 as well as other HSP isoforms, which also might have roles in muscle dystrophy. Suggestions for such pathways are included in the discussion of Chapter 2 in this thesis.

Similarly, the results of the fourth chapter (Third manuscript): "The role of NFATc2 transcription factor in Calcineurin-dependent cardiac hypertrophy in adult mice" are completed and ready for submission to one of the important cardiology journals such as the *Journal of Molecular and Cellular Cardiology*. Since our work investigates the role of the NFATc2 transcription factor and since little is known about the role of NFATc3 in the heart, it would be interesting for the next manuscript to involve research on the role of the double knockout model *NFATc2c3-/-* in the hearts of adult mice. In our laboratory, we already have this model and mice are being bred continuously.

The third chapter of this thesis (Second manuscript): "Direct calcineurin modulators regulate calcineurin/NFAT signaling in mdx crossbreeds" is a manuscript in preparation, which needs a lot of work to be finalized for publication. Our preliminary results confirm the dual regulation of RCAN for Cn, which was observed earlier by the Olson group while they investigated the role of RCAN1 in cardiac hypertrophy [261]. However, RCAN could be phosphorylated by different kinases, which might affect its stability. Therefore, it would be interesting to explore those kinases and study how phosphorylation affects both the expression and stability of RCAN. Since our results might be correlated to the time the expression of RCAN was measured, as mentioned in the discussion of Chapter 3, it might be worth measuring RCAN expression in different time points; during development, in young and in adult mice. Additionally, the knockout of the *RCAN* gene in mdx mice, with either impaired Cn activity such as mdx/PV or stimulated Cn activity such as mdx/CnA^* , might better reveal the role of RCAN in the Cn/NFAT pathway.

Similar to RCAN, mice lacking *calsarcin-1* crossed with CnA* mice show an enhanced hypertrophic response [262], suggesting a cardio-protective role for calsarcin-1. Since calsarcins can shuttle to the nucleus [194], investigating whether they interact with NFAT in the nucleus might explain the current results. Moreover, Vondrisk's group has documented phosphorylation and post-translational processing of calsarcin-1 during heart diseases [265], which is worth looking into in the future.

Since MLP is suggested to negatively regulate skeletal and cardiac myofiber responses [196], it is thus essential to study the proteins that possibly interact and affect MLP. In this context, it is noteworthy that the fast muscle EDL was used in the qPCR

reactions of MLP in WT, CnA*, *mdx* and *mdx*/CnA* mice, whereas the fast muscle TA was used for the immunoblotting reactions in the same mice. Therefore, it would be important to replicate those experiments using the same type of muscle, in case there is any discrepancy between EDL and TA tissues.

Finally, it has been shown that CAIN works in a negative regulatory loop and becomes hyperphosphorylated upon activation of PKC, which in turn affects Cn activity (reviewed in [192]). Further, it was suggested that CAIN competes with NFAT or other substrates of Cn [192]. Therefore, it is worth studying the expression and binding of CAIN with other transcription factors. This might help in understanding how this protein works to inhibit and regulate Cn.

As discussed earlier in Chapter 3, research is continuing to overexpress and/or knockdown the genes encoding Cn modulators in order to understand their roles in muscle diseases particularly in muscle dystrophy. The objective of this research would be of great value to show the importance of inhibiting Cn modulators that inhibit Cn activity. Consequently, inhibiting the inhibitors will maintain effective Cn levels, which stimulate the Cn/NFAT pathway without side effects.

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Appendix I: Chapter 2- Statistical Analyses

QPCR

1) MyHC I in PV models:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	mdx	mdx/PV
Mean	4.347084	3.560541
Variance	9.187562	11.06789
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	10.12773	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	0.349528	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.369317	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.738634	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

2) MyHC IIa in PV models:

	Variable	Variable
	mdx	mdx/PV
Mean	2.7895737	1.7791748
Variance	2.542547	0.3444196
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	1.4434833	
Hypothesized Mean	0	
Difference		
df	6	
t Stat	1.189329	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.1396188	
t Critical one-tail	1.9431803	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.2792377	
t Critical two-tail	2.4469118	

3) Total utrophin levels in PV models:

Utrophin							-	
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower Upper			
					Bound	Bound		
WT Sol	4	5.7668	2.08676	1.04338	2.4463	9.0873	3.48	8.10
PV Sol	4	1.5737	.44372	.22186	.8676	2.2798	1.00	2.03
mdx Sol	4	10.9832	5.36512	2.68256	2.4461	19.5202	3.68	16.03
mdx/PV Sol	4	3.5978	2.42721	1.21360	2644	7.4601	1.29	6.98
WT EDL	3	1.7236	.62987	.36365	.1589	3.2883	1.00	2.15
PV EDL	3	4.3659	.70876	.40920	2.6052	6.1266	3.80	5.16
mdx EDL	3	3.0469	.62411	.36033	1.4965	4.5972	2.36	3.59
mdx/PV EDL	3	3.6411	2.40612	1.38918	-2.3361	9.6182	1.24	6.05
Total	28	4.5007	3.72985	.70487	3.0544	5.9469	1.00	16.03

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Utrophin

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
2.807	7	20	.033	

ANOVA

Utrophin					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	243.780	7	34.826	5.283	.002
Within Groups	131.838	20	6.592		
Total	375.618	27			

Dependent Var	Multiple Comparisons Dependent Variable: Utrophin							
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval		
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
	PV Sol	4.19311*	1.81547	.032	.4061	7.9801		
	mdx Sol	-5.21634*	1.81547	.009	-9.0033	-1.4293		
	mdx/PV Sol	2.16898	1.81547	.246	-1.6180	5.9560		
WT Sol	WT EDL	4.04320	1.96094	.052	0472	8.1336		
	PV EDL	1.40093	1.96094	.483	-2.6895	5.4914		
	mdx EDL	2.71996	1.96094	.181	-1.3705	6.8104		
	mdx/PV EDL	2.12574	1.96094	.291	-1.9647	6.2162		
	WT Sol	-4.19311*	1.81547	.032	-7.9801	4061		
	mdx Sol	-9.40945*	1.81547	.000	-13.1965	-5.6224		
	mdx/PV Sol	-2.02413	1.81547	.278	-5.8111	1.7629		
PV Sol	WT EDL	14992	1.96094	.940	-4.2404	3.9405		
	PV EDL	-2.79219	1.96094	.170	-6.8826	1.2983		
	mdx EDL	-1.47315	1.96094	.461	-5.5636	2.6173		
	mdx/PV EDL	-2.06737	1.96094	.304	-6.1578	2.0231		
	WT Sol	5.21634*	1.81547	.009	1.4293	9.0033		
	PV Sol	9.40945*	1.81547	.000	5.6224	13.1965		
	mdx/PV Sol	7.38532*	1.81547	.001	3.5983	11.1723		
mdx Sol	WT EDL	9.25953 [*]	1.96094	.000	5.1691	13.3500		
	PV EDL	6.61726 [*]	1.96094	.003	2.5268	10.7077		
	mdx EDL	7.93630*	1.96094	.001	3.8459	12.0267		
	mdx/PV EDL	7.34208*	1.96094	.001	3.2516	11.4325		
	WT Sol	-2.16898	1.81547	.246	-5.9560	1.6180		
	PV Sol	2.02413	1.81547	.278	-1.7629	5.8111		
	mdx Sol	-7.38532*	1.81547	.001	-11.1723	-3.5983		
mdx/PV Sol	WT EDL	1.87421	1.96094	.351	-2.2162	5.9647		
	PV EDL	76806	1.96094	.699	-4.8585	3.3224		
	mdx EDL	.55098	1.96094	.782	-3.5395	4.6414		
	mdx/PV EDL	04324	1.96094	.983	-4.1337	4.0472		
	WT Sol	-4.04320	1.96094	.052	-8.1336	.0472		
WT EDL	PV Sol	.14992	1.96094	.940	-3.9405	4.2404		
	mdx Sol	-9.25953*	1.96094	.000	-13.3500	-5.1691		

Multiple Comparisons

	mdx/PV Sol	-1.87421	1.96094	.351	-5.9647	2.2162
	PV EDL	-2.64227	2.09633	.222	-7.0151	1.7306
	mdx EDL	-1.32323	2.09633	.535	-5.6961	3.0496
	mdx/PV EDL	-1.91745	2.09633	.371	-6.2903	2.4554
	WT Sol	-1.40093	1.96094	.483	-5.4914	2.6895
	PV Sol	2.79219	1.96094	.170	-1.2983	6.8826
	mdx Sol	-6.61726 [*]	1.96094	.003	-10.7077	-2.5268
PV EDL	mdx/PV Sol	.76806	1.96094	.699	-3.3224	4.8585
	WT EDL	2.64227	2.09633	.222	-1.7306	7.0151
	mdx EDL	1.31904	2.09633	.536	-3.0538	5.6919
	mdx/PV EDL	.72482	2.09633	.733	-3.6480	5.0977
	WT Sol	-2.71996	1.96094	.181	-6.8104	1.3705
	PV Sol	1.47315	1.96094	.461	-2.6173	5.5636
	mdx Sol	-7.93630*	1.96094	.001	-12.0267	-3.8459
mdx EDL	mdx/PV Sol	55098	1.96094	.782	-4.6414	3.5395
	WT EDL	1.32323	2.09633	.535	-3.0496	5.6961
	PV EDL	-1.31904	2.09633	.536	-5.6919	3.0538
	mdx/PV EDL	59422	2.09633	.780	-4.9671	3.7786
	WT Sol	-2.12574	1.96094	.291	-6.2162	1.9647
	PV Sol	2.06737	1.96094	.304	-2.0231	6.1578
	mdx Sol	-7.34208*	1.96094	.001	-11.4325	-3.2516
mdx/PV EDL	mdx/PV Sol	.04324	1.96094	.983	-4.0472	4.1337
	WT EDL	1.91745	2.09633	.371	-2.4554	6.2903
	PV EDL	72482	2.09633	.733	-5.0977	3.6480
	mdx EDL	.59422	2.09633	.780	-3.7786	4.9671

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Note: WT soleus and WT EDL were compared using student-t-test as done earlier [242].

	Variable	Variable
	WT Sol	WT EDL
Mean	5.766813	1.72362
Variance	4.354566	0.39673
Observations	4	3

2.771431	
0	
5	
3.179904	
0.01227	
2.015048	
0.024541	
2.570582	
	0 5 3.179904 0.01227 2.015048 0.024541

4) Utrophin-A levels in PV models:

Utrophin-A		-					-	
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT Sol	4	6.3575	1.17266	.58633	4.4916	8.2235	5.03	7.39
PV Sol	4	3.4053	2.77895	1.38947	-1.0166	7.8272	1.00	7.41
mdx Sol	4	65.7969	57.17105	28.58553	-25.1750	156.7688	8.80	125.92
mdx/PV Sol	4	8.9390	3.45650	1.72825	3.4389	14.4390	4.81	12.70
WT EDL	3	1.5327	.69911	.40363	2040	3.2694	1.00	2.32
PV EDL	3	3.1684	.67708	.39091	1.4865	4.8504	2.71	3.95
mdx EDL	3	3.5022	.76854	.44371	1.5930	5.4113	2.83	4.34
mdx/PV EDL	3	4.3730	2.17575	1.25617	-1.0318	9.7779	2.18	6.53
Total	28	13.4187	29.06918	5.49356	2.1469	24.6906	1.00	125.92

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Utrophin-A

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
49.915	7	20	.000	

ANOVA

Utrophin-A

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	12934.202	7	1847.743	3.740	.009

Within Groups	9881.266	20	494.063	
Total	22815.468	27		

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV Sol	2.95221	15.71724	.853	-29.8334	35.7378
	mdx Sol	-59.43936*	15.71724	.001	-92.2249	-26.6538
	mdx/PV Sol	-2.58144	15.71724	.871	-35.3670	30.2041
WT Sol	WT EDL	4.82484	16.97656	.779	-30.5876	40.2373
	PV EDL	3.18910	16.97656	.853	-32.2234	38.6016
	mdx EDL	2.85537	16.97656	.868	-32.5571	38.2678
	mdx/PV EDL	1.98450	16.97656	.908	-33.4280	37.3970
	WT Sol	-2.95221	15.71724	.853	-35.7378	29.8334
	mdx Sol	-62.39157*	15.71724	.001	-95.1772	-29.6060
	mdx/PV Sol	-5.53365	15.71724	.728	-38.3192	27.2519
PV Sol	WT EDL	1.87263	16.97656	.913	-33.5399	37.2851
	PV EDL	.23689	16.97656	.989	-35.1756	35.6494
	mdx EDL	09684	16.97656	.996	-35.5093	35.3156
	mdx/PV EDL	96771	16.97656	.955	-36.3802	34.4448
	WT Sol	59.43936 [*]	15.71724	.001	26.6538	92.2249
	PV Sol	62.39157*	15.71724	.001	29.6060	95.1772
	mdx/PV Sol	56.85792 [*]	15.71724	.002	24.0723	89.6435
mdx Sol	WT EDL	64.26420 [*]	16.97656	.001	28.8517	99.6767
	PV EDL	62.62846*	16.97656	.001	27.2160	98.0409
	mdx EDL	62.29472 [*]	16.97656	.002	26.8822	97.7072
	mdx/PV EDL	61.42386 [*]	16.97656	.002	26.0114	96.8363
	WT Sol	2.58144	15.71724	.871	-30.2041	35.3670
	PV Sol	5.53365	15.71724	.728	-27.2519	38.3192
	mdx Sol	-56.85792 [*]	15.71724	.002	-89.6435	-24.0723
mdx/PV Sol	WT EDL	7.40628	16.97656	.667	-28.0062	42.8188
	PV EDL	5.77054	16.97656	.737	-29.6419	41.1830
	mdx EDL	5.43681	16.97656	.752	-29.9757	40.8493
	mdx/PV EDL	4.56594	16.97656	.791	-30.8465	39.9784
	WT Sol	-4.82484	16.97656	.779	-40.2373	30.5876
WT EDL	PV Sol	-1.87263	16.97656	.913	-37.2851	33.5399
	mdx Sol	-64.26420 [*]	16.97656	.001	-99.6767	-28.8517

Dependent Variable: Utrophin-A

	mdx/PV Sol	-7.40628	16.97656	.667	-42.8188	28.0062
	PV EDL	-1.63574	18.14871	.929	-39.4933	36.2218
	mdx EDL	-1.96948	18.14871	.915	-39.8270	35.8881
	mdx/PV EDL	-2.84034	18.14871	.877	-40.6979	35.0172
	WT Sol	-3.18910	16.97656	.853	-38.6016	32.2234
	PV Sol			.855		
		23689	16.97656		-35.6494	35.1756
	mdx Sol	-62.62846*	16.97656	.001	-98.0409	-27.2160
PV EDL	mdx/PV Sol	-5.77054	16.97656	.737	-41.1830	29.6419
	WT EDL	1.63574	18.14871	.929	-36.2218	39.4933
	mdx EDL	33374	18.14871	.986	-38.1913	37.5238
	mdx/PV EDL	-1.20460	18.14871	.948	-39.0621	36.6529
	WT Sol	-2.85537	16.97656	.868	-38.2678	32.5571
	PV Sol	.09684	16.97656	.996	-35.3156	35.5093
	mdx Sol	-62.29472 [*]	16.97656	.002	-97.7072	-26.8822
mdx EDL	mdx/PV Sol	-5.43681	16.97656	.752	-40.8493	29.9757
	WT EDL	1.96948	18.14871	.915	-35.8881	39.8270
	PV EDL	.33374	18.14871	.986	-37.5238	38.1913
	mdx/PV EDL	87086	18.14871	.962	-38.7284	36.9867
	WT Sol	-1.98450	16.97656	.908	-37.3970	33.4280
	PV Sol	.96771	16.97656	.955	-34.4448	36.3802
	mdx Sol	-61.42386 [*]	16.97656	.002	-96.8363	-26.0114
mdx/PV EDL	mdx/PV Sol	-4.56594	16.97656	.791	-39.9784	30.8465
	WT EDL	2.84034	18.14871	.877	-35.0172	40.6979
	PV EDL	1.20460	18.14871	.948	-36.6529	39.0621
	mdx EDL	.87086	18.14871	.962	-36.9867	38.7284

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Note: WT soleus and WT EDL were compared using student-t-test

	Variable	Variable
	WT Sol	WT EDL
Mean	6.357532	1.53269
Variance	1.375136	0.488754
Observations	4	3
Pooled Variance	1.020583	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	5	

t Stat	6.253174
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.000767
t Critical one-tail	2.015048
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.001533
t Critical two-tail	2.570582

Immunoblotting

1) Total utrophin levels in PV models:

Utrophin								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confider	ice Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	3	.8433	.27140	.15669	.1691	1.5175	.53	1.00
PV	3	.4938	.02136	.01233	.4407	.5468	.48	.52
mdx	3	1.5498	.48699	.28116	.3400	2.7595	.99	1.88
mdx/PV	3	.8590	.09638	.05564	.6196	1.0984	.75	.92
Total	12	.9365	.46724	.13488	.6396	1.2333	.48	1.88

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Utrophin

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
7.864	3	8	.009

ANOVA

Utrophin					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.760	3	.587	7.322	.011
Within Groups	.641	8	.080		
Total	2.401	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV	.34955	.23114	.169	1835	.8826
WТ	Mdx	70645*	.23114	.016	-1.2395	1734
	mdx/PV	01572	.23114	.947	5487	.5173
	WT	34955	.23114	.169	8826	.1835
PV	Mdx	-1.05600 [*]	.23114	.002	-1.5890	5230
	mdx/PV	36528	.23114	.153	8983	.1677
	WТ	.70645*	.23114	.016	.1734	1.2395
mdx	PV	1.05600*	.23114	.002	.5230	1.5890
	mdx/PV	.69072*	.23114	.017	.1577	1.2237
	WT	.01572	.23114	.947	5173	.5487
mdx/PV	PV	.36528	.23114	.153	1677	.8983
	Mdx	69072 [*]	.23114	.017	-1.2237	1577

Dependent Variable: Utrophin

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

2) HSP70 levels in PV models:

Descriptives

HSP70								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confiden	ce Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WT	3	1.0361	.06257	.03612	.8807	1.1915	1.00	1.11
PV	3	.5058	.42134	.24326	5409	1.5524	.26	.99
mdx	3	.8315	.77486	.44737	-1.0934	2.7564	.37	1.73
mdx/PV	3	1.1735	.51492	.29729	1056	2.4527	.59	1.57
Total	12	.8867	.50921	.14700	.5632	1.2103	.26	1.73

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

HSP70

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.852	3	8	.033

ANOVA

HSP70					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.758	3	.253	.966	.455
Within Groups	2.094	8	.262		
Total	2.852	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
	PV	.53034	.41773	.240	4330	1.4936	
WT	mdx	.20463	.41773	.637	7587	1.1679	
	mdx/PV	13741	.41773	.751	-1.1007	.8259	
	WT	53034	.41773	.240	-1.4936	.4330	
PV	mdx	32572	.41773	.458	-1.2890	.6376	
	mdx/PV	66775	.41773	.149	-1.6310	.2955	
	WT	20463	.41773	.637	-1.1679	.7587	
mdx	PV	.32572	.41773	.458	6376	1.2890	
	mdx/PV	34204	.41773	.437	-1.3053	.6213	
	WT	.13741	.41773	.751	8259	1.1007	
mdx/PV	PV	.66775	.41773	.149	2955	1.6310	
	mdx	.34204	.41773	.437	6213	1.3053	

Dependent Variable: HSP70

3) RyR1 levels in PV models:

Note: Multiple student t-tests were performed for RyR1, which is 565 kDa in size since PV, mdx and mdx/PV were normalized to WT in each set. Thus, the loading control tubulin (52 kDa) of the four sets was done on different gels.

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable WT	Variable PV
Mean	1	2.077784
Variance	0	0.487075
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance Hypothesized Mean	0.243537	
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	-3.08862	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.010713	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.021426	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable PV	Variable mdx
Mean	2.077784	0.766988
Variance	0.487075	0.146738
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	0.316907	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	3.292945	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.008276	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.016553	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

	Variable	Variable
	mdx	mdx/PV
Mean	0.766988	2.258649
Variance	0.146738	1.388342
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	0.76754	

Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	6	
t Stat	-2.40788	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.026363	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.052726	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

4) SERCA1 levels in PV models:

Descriptives

SERCA1								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WT	4	.9873	.02531	.01266	.9471	1.0276	.95	1.00
PV	4	.8079	.11643	.05821	.6226	.9931	.66	.93
mdx	4	.9195	.18680	.09340	.6223	1.2168	.81	1.20
mdx/PV	4	.7451	.35198	.17599	.1851	1.3052	.42	1.15
Total	16	.8650	.20996	.05249	.7531	.9768	.42	1.20

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

SERCA1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
10.633	3	12	.001	

ANOVA

SERCA1

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.142	3	.047	1.097	.388
Within Groups	.519	12	.043		
Total	.661	15			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV	.17948	.14705	.246	1409	.4999
WТ	mdx	.06782	.14705	.653	2526	.3882
	mdx/PV	.24221	.14705	.125	0782	.5626
	WT	17948	.14705	.246	4999	.1409
PV	mdx	11165	.14705	.462	4320	.2087
	mdx/PV	.06273	.14705	.677	2577	.3831
	WT	06782	.14705	.653	3882	.2526
mdx	PV	.11165	.14705	.462	2087	.4320
	mdx/PV	.17438	.14705	.259	1460	.4948
	WT	24221	.14705	.125	5626	.0782
mdx/PV	PV	06273	.14705	.677	3831	.2577
	mdx	17438	.14705	.259	4948	.1460

Dependent Variable: SERCA1

5) SERCA2 levels in PV models:

Descriptives

SERCA2								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WT	4	1.2974	.38869	.19434	.6790	1.9159	1.00	1.82
PV	4	1.2902	.40498	.20249	.6458	1.9346	.86	1.69
mdx	4	.7905	.04704	.02352	.7156	.8653	.74	.84
mdx/PV	4	.9930	.48135	.24067	.2271	1.7589	.62	1.70
Total	16	1.0928	.39797	.09949	.8807	1.3048	.62	1.82

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

SERCA2

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
3.320	3	12	.057	

ANOVA

SERCA2							
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
Between Groups	.729	3	.243	1.770	.206		
Within Groups	1.647	12	.137				
Total	2.376	15					

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: SERCA2						
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV	.00726	.26196	.978	5635	.5780
WT	mdx	.50695	.26196	.077	0638	1.0777
	mdx/PV	.30444	.26196	.268	2663	.8752
	wт	00726	.26196	.978	5780	.5635
PV	mdx	.49969	.26196	.081	0711	1.0705
	mdx/PV	.29718	.26196	.279	2736	.8679
	WТ	50695	.26196	.077	-1.0777	.0638
mdx	PV	49969	.26196	.081	-1.0705	.0711
	mdx/PV	20251	.26196	.454	7733	.3683
	wт	30444	.26196	.268	8752	.2663
mdx/PV	PV	29718	.26196	.279	8679	.2736
	mdx	.20251	.26196	.454	3683	.7733

Dependent Variable: SERCA2

6) Total utrophin levels in CnA* models:

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/CnA*
Mean	0.842697	1.636483
Variance	0.081017	0.138693
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance Hypothesized Mean	0.109855	
Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	-2.93318	

P(T<=t) one-tail	0.021339
t Critical one-tail	2.131847
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.042678
t Critical two-tail	2.776445

7) HSP70 levels in CnA* models:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	mdx	mdx/CnA*
Mean	0.833651	0.870902
Variance	0.042237	0.04419
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.043213	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	4	
t Stat	-0.21947	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.418514	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.837028	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

8) Total utrophin levels in CaMBP models:

Note: The four sets of utrophin were done on separate gels. CaMBP, mdx and mdx/CaMBP were normalized to WT in each set and WT was standardized to 1.

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/CaMBP
Mean	1	0.374818
Variance	0	0.064136
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.032068	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	4	
t Stat	4.275776	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.006445	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	

P(T<=t) two-tail	0.012891
t Critical two-tail	2.776445

9) HSP70 levels in CaMBP models:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/CaMBP
Maan		
Mean	0.998953	0.755409
Variance	0.078827	0.192775
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.135801	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	4	
t Stat	0.809416	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.231837	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.463674	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

Histology

1) NFATc1 nuclear localization in PV models:

Descriptives

NFATc1 nuclear localization

	N	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Interval for Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper		
						Bound		
WT	3	32.5795	7.23009	4.17429	14.6189	50.5400	24.24	36.99
PV	3	9.9939	.84413	.48736	7.8970	12.0908	9.02	10.53
mdx	3	16.2044	1.40801	.81292	12.7067	19.7021	14.91	17.70
mdx/PV	3	5.5476	1.86867	1.07888	.9055	10.1896	3.39	6.63
Total	12	16.0813	11.19084	3.23052	8.9710	23.1917	3.39	36.99

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

NFATc1 nuclear localization

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
9.233	3	8	.006

ANOVA

NFATc1 nuclear localization

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1260.662	3	420.221	28.752	.000
Within Groups	116.922	8	14.615		
Total	1377.584	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV	22.58558 [*]	3.12146	.000	15.3875	29.7837
WТ	mdx	16.37510 [*]	3.12146	.001	9.1770	23.5732
	mdx/PV	27.03189*	3.12146	.000	19.8338	34.2300
	WТ	-22.58558*	3.12146	.000	-29.7837	-15.3875
PV	mdx	-6.21047	3.12146	.082	-13.4086	.9876
	mdx/PV	4.44632	3.12146	.192	-2.7518	11.6444
	WT	-16.37510 [*]	3.12146	.001	-23.5732	-9.1770
mdx	PV	6.21047	3.12146	.082	9876	13.4086
	mdx/PV	10.65679*	3.12146	.009	3.4587	17.8549
	wт	-27.03189*	3.12146	.000	-34.2300	-19.8338
mdx/PV	PV	-4.44632	3.12146	.192	-11.6444	2.7518
	mdx	-10.65679*	3.12146	.009	-17.8549	-3.4587

Dependent Variable: NFATc1 nuclear localization

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

2) Fiber-type proportions in PV models:

Note: student t-test was done to compare each MyHC type in mdx compared to mdx/PV

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances (MyHC I)

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/PV
Mean	41.04335	44.20607
Variance	221.0337	50.77086
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	135.9023	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	6	
t Stat	-0.38367	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.357224	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.714448	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances (MyHC IIa)

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/PV
Mean	50.24074	48.83463
Variance	282.5569	32.8443
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	157.7006	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	6	
t Stat	0.15835	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.439688	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.879376	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances (MyHC I/IIa co-expression)

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/PV
Mean	5.861323	3.74982
Variance	2.881379	4.278988

Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	3.580183	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	1.578171	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.082801	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.165603	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

3) H&E central nucleation in PV models:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/PV
Mean	100	120.1314
Variance	0	15.93319
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	7.966596	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	-10.0868	
P(T<=t) one-tail	2.76E-05	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	5.51E-05	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

4) H&E size variability in PV models:

	Variable	Variable
	mdx	mdx/PV
Mean	100	144.0923
Variance	0	757.4866
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	378.7433	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	6	

t Stat	-3.2041
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.009252
t Critical one-tail	1.943181
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.018504
t Critical two-tail	2.446914

5) Evan's blue intensity in PV models:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable mdx	Variable mdx/PV
Mean	20.72271	75.96756
Variance	112.6333	752.357
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	432.4952	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	4	
t Stat	-3.25347	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.015637	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.031273	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

6) MyHC I central nucleation in PV models:

Descriptives

Central nucleation									
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum	
			Deviation	Error	for Mean				
					Lower	Upper			
					Bound	Bound			
mdx-Typel +ve	4	10.4374	2.67827	1.33913	6.1757	14.6991	6.47	12.30	
mdx/PV-Type I +ve	3	32.8799	8.14085	4.70012	12.6569	53.1029	25.00	41.26	
mdx-Type I -ve	4	37.6226	9.35807	4.67904	22.7319	52.5134	25.18	47.06	
mdx/PV-Type I -ve	3	43.9219	8.89645	5.13637	21.8219	66.0219	34.27	51.79	
Total	14	30.1890	15.04895	4.02200	21.5000	38.8780	6.47	51.79	

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Central nucleation

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
1.210	3	10	.356	

ANOVA

Central nucleation

	Sum of Squares	df	df Mean Square		Sig.
Between Groups	2369.042	3	789.681	13.732	.001
Within Groups	575.080	10	57.508		
Total	2944.122	13			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference	Error		Lower	Upper
		(I-J)			Bound	Bound
	mdx/PV-Type I +ve	-22.44251*	5.79192	.003	-35.3477	-9.5373
mdx-Type I +ve	mdx-Type I -ve	-27.18525*	5.36228	.000	-39.1331	-15.2373
	mdx/PV-Type I -ve	-33.48452*	5.79192	.000	-46.3897	-20.5793
	mdx-TypeI +ve	22.44251*	5.79192	.003	9.5373	35.3477
mdx/PV-Type I +ve	mdx-Type I -ve	-4.74274	5.79192	.432	-17.6479	8.1625
	mdx/PV-Type I -ve	-11.04201	6.19182	.105	-24.8383	2.7542
	mdx-TypeI +ve	27.18525*	5.36228	.000	15.2373	39.1331
mdx-Type I -ve	mdx/PV-Type I +ve	4.74274	5.79192	.432	-8.1625	17.6479
	mdx/PV-Type I -ve	-6.29927	5.79192	.302	-19.2045	6.6059
	mdx-Typel +ve	33.48452*	5.79192	.000	20.5793	46.3897
mdx/PV-Type I -ve	mdx/PV-Type I +ve	11.04201	6.19182	.105	-2.7542	24.8383
	mdx-Type I -ve	6.29927	5.79192	.302	-6.6059	19.2045

Dependent Variable: Central nucleation

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix II: Chapter 3- Statistical Analyses

QPCR

1) RCAN1.4 levels in soleus muscles of PV models:

Descriptives

RCAN1.4	ļ							
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confider	ice Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	4	1.3785	.37520	.18760	.7815	1.9755	1.00	1.87
PV	4	3.5689	1.02850	.51425	1.9323	5.2055	2.57	4.87
mdx	4	3.4565	1.58098	.79049	.9408	5.9722	1.99	5.25
mdx/PV	4	6.9215	3.32524	1.66262	1.6303	12.2127	4.10	11.74
Total	16	3.8314	2.67540	.66885	2.4057	5.2570	1.00	11.74

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RCAN1.4

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
3.569	3	12	.047	

ANOVA

RCAN1.4					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	63.100	3	21.033	5.702	.012
Within Groups	44.266	12	3.689		
Total	107.366	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: RCAN1.4

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	PV	-2.19041	1.35809	.133	-5.1494	.7686
WT	mdx	-2.07802	1.35809	.152	-5.0371	.8810
	mdx/PV	-5.54303 [*]	1.35809	.002	-8.5021	-2.5840

	WT	2.19041	1.35809	.133	7686	5.1494
PV	mdx	.11238	1.35809	.935	-2.8466	3.0714
	mdx/PV	-3.35263*	1.35809	.030	-6.3117	3936
	WT	2.07802	1.35809	.152	8810	5.0371
mdx	PV	11238	1.35809	.935	-3.0714	2.8466
	mdx/PV	-3.46501*	1.35809	.025	-6.4240	5060
	WT	5.54303 [*]	1.35809	.002	2.5840	8.5021
mdx/PV	PV	3.35263 [*]	1.35809	.030	.3936	6.3117
	mdx	3.46501*	1.35809	.025	.5060	6.4240

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

2) RCAN1.4 levels in EDL muscles of PV models: Kriskal Wallis non-parametric test:

	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation
WТ	3	3.2623	.87256
PV	3	1.4077	.50373
mdx	3	5.7770	1.93515
mdx/PV	3	4.3927	2.80839
Total	12	3.7099	2.25656

Hypothesis Test Summary

	Null Hypothesis	Test	Sig.	Decision
1	The distribution of RCAN is th same across categories of Genotype.	ndependent- Samples Kruskal- Wallis Test	.066	Retain the null hypothesis.

Asymptotic significances are displayed. The significance level is .05.

3) Calsarcin-1 levels in soleus muscles of PV models:

Descriptives

Calsarcin	Calsarcin-1										
	N	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum			
			Deviation	Error	Mean						
					Lower	Upper					
					Bound	Bound					
WТ	4	4.3679	3.89354	1.94677	-1.8276	10.5634	1.00	9.98			
PV	4	8.8391	4.17848	2.08924	2.1902	15.4880	5.80	15.02			
mdx	4	28.7825	26.67746	13.33873	-13.6673	71.2323	3.92	51.88			
mdx/PV	4	35.3554	21.32983	10.66492	1.4149	69.2959	10.92	58.22			
Total	16	19.3362	20.52341	5.13085	8.4001	30.2724	1.00	58.22			

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
25.599	3	12	.000	

ANOVA

Calsarcin-1									
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Between Groups	2720.352	3	906.784	3.024	.071				
Within Groups	3597.804	12	299.817						
Total	6318.156	15							

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-1

(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower Upper		
		J)			Bound	Bound	
	PV	-4.47127	12.24371	.721	-31.1480	22.2055	
WT	mdx	-24.41467	12.24371	.069	-51.0914	2.2621	
	mdx/PV	-30.98756*	12.24371	.026	-57.6643	-4.3108	
	WТ	4.47127	12.24371	.721	-22.2055	31.1480	
PV	mdx	-19.94340	12.24371	.129	-46.6202	6.7334	
	mdx/PV	-26.51629	12.24371	.051	-53.1930	.1605	

	WT	24.41467	12.24371	.069	-2.2621	51.0914
mdx	PV	19.94340	12.24371	.129	-6.7334	46.6202
	mdx/PV	-6.57289	12.24371	.601	-33.2496	20.1039
	WT	30.98756*	12.24371	.026	4.3108	57.6643
mdx/PV	PV	26.51629	12.24371	.051	1605	53.1930
	mdx	6.57289	12.24371	.601	-20.1039	33.2496

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

4) Calsarcin-1 levels in EDL muscles of PV models:

Calsarcin	-1							
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confider	95% Confidence Interval for		Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	3	3.8617	3.48453	2.01180	-4.7943	12.5178	1.00	7.74
PV	3	2.6053	1.22637	.70805	4412	5.6518	1.86	4.02
mdx	3	8.6736	9.70529	5.60335	-15.4357	32.7829	2.76	19.87
mdx/PV	3	6.5238	5.56433	3.21256	-7.2988	20.3463	2.24	12.81
Total	12	5.4161	5.59274	1.61448	1.8626	8.9696	1.00	19.87

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.337	3	8	.026

ANOVA

Caisarcin-1					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	66.465	3	22.155	.638	.611
Within Groups	277.601	8	34.700		
Total	344.066	11			

Calsarcin-1

Multiple Comparisons

	ariable: Calsa		044	Qia	05% Osefield	waa lutawaal
(1)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	PV	1.25641	4.80972	.801	-9.8348	12.3476
WT	mdx	-4.81190	4.80972	.346	-15.9031	6.2793
	mdx/PV	-2.66205	4.80972	.595	-13.7533	8.4292
	WT	-1.25641	4.80972	.801	-12.3476	9.8348
PV	mdx	-6.06831	4.80972	.243	-17.1595	5.0229
	mdx/PV	-3.91845	4.80972	.439	-15.0097	7.1728
	WT	4.81190	4.80972	.346	-6.2793	15.9031
mdx	PV	6.06831	4.80972	.243	-5.0229	17.1595
	mdx/PV	2.14985	4.80972	.667	-8.9414	13.2411
	WT	2.66205	4.80972	.595	-8.4292	13.7533
mdx/PV	PV	3.91845	4.80972	.439	-7.1728	15.0097
	mdx	-2.14985	4.80972	.667	-13.2411	8.9414

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-1

5) MLP levels in soleus muscles of PV models:

Descriptives

MLP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confider	ce Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Me	an		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	4	8.5681	3.16846	1.58423	3.5264	13.6098	5.84	12.26
PV	4	11.2472	2.85125	1.42563	6.7102	15.7842	7.96	14.88
mdx	4	6.5623	4.81832	2.40916	-1.1047	14.2293	1.00	12.61
mdx/PV	4	6.6709	4.21651	2.10825	0385	13.3803	1.98	11.49
Total	16	8.2621	3.95975	.98994	6.1521	10.3721	1.00	14.88

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

MLP			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.559	3	12	.652

ANOVA

MLP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	57.703	3	19.234	1.300	.319
Within Groups	177.492	12	14.791		
Total	235.195	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: MLP							
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper	
		J)			Bound	Bound	
	PV	-2.67910	2.71946	.344	-8.6043	3.2461	
WТ	mdx	2.00580	2.71946	.475	-3.9194	7.9310	
	mdx/PV	1.89722	2.71946	.499	-4.0280	7.8224	
	WT	2.67910	2.71946	.344	-3.2461	8.6043	
PV	mdx	4.68490	2.71946	.111	-1.2403	10.6101	
	mdx/PV	4.57632	2.71946	.118	-1.3489	10.5015	
	WT	-2.00580	2.71946	.475	-7.9310	3.9194	
mdx	PV	-4.68490	2.71946	.111	-10.6101	1.2403	
	mdx/PV	10857	2.71946	.969	-6.0338	5.8166	
	WT	-1.89722	2.71946	.499	-7.8224	4.0280	
mdx/PV	PV	-4.57632	2.71946	.118	-10.5015	1.3489	
	mdx	.10857	2.71946	.969	-5.8166	6.0338	

6) MLP levels in EDL muscles of PV models:

MLP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confiden	ice Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Me	an		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	3	2.0069	.99790	.57614	4720	4.4858	1.25	3.14
PV	3	1.9808	1.01490	.58595	5403	4.5020	1.00	3.03
mdx	3	5.4481	2.35989	1.36248	4142	11.3104	3.52	8.08

Descriptives

mdx/PV	3	2.9308	2.71433	1.56712	-3.8120	9.6736	1.20	6.06
Total	12	3.0917	2.21345	.63897	1.6853	4.4980	1.00	8.08

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

MLP

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.654	3	8	.120

ANOVA

MLP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	23.968	3	7.989	2.136	.174
Within Groups	29.925	8	3.741		
Total	53.893	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: MLP								
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval		
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper		
		J)			Bound	Bound		
	PV	.02605	1.57916	.987	-3.6155	3.6676		
WТ	mdx	-3.44122	1.57916	.061	-7.0828	.2003		
	mdx/PV	92394	1.57916	.575	-4.5655	2.7176		
	WТ	02605	1.57916	.987	-3.6676	3.6155		
PV	mdx	-3.46727	1.57916	.059	-7.1088	.1743		
	mdx/PV	94999	1.57916	.564	-4.5915	2.6916		
	WТ	3.44122	1.57916	.061	2003	7.0828		
mdx	PV	3.46727	1.57916	.059	1743	7.1088		
	mdx/PV	2.51728	1.57916	.150	-1.1243	6.1588		
	WT	.92394	1.57916	.575	-2.7176	4.5655		
mdx/PV	PV	.94999	1.57916	.564	-2.6916	4.5915		
	mdx	-2.51728	1.57916	.150	-6.1588	1.1243		

7) RCAN1.4 levels in EDL muscles of CnA* models:

Descriptives

RCAN1.4								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT	3	6.7756	4.19668	2.42295	-3.6496	17.2007	3.59	11.53
CnA	3	7.3028	4.81259	2.77855	-4.6523	19.2579	4.42	12.86
Mdx	3	2.1684	1.01298	.58484	3479	4.6848	1.00	2.80
mdx/CnA	3	2.3387	.66428	.38352	.6885	3.9888	1.65	2.98
Total	12	4.6464	3.73738	1.07889	2.2717	7.0210	1.00	12.86

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RCAN1.4

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
6.068	3	8	.019

ANOVA

RCAN1.4									
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Between Groups	69.167	3	23.056	2.183	.168				
Within Groups	84.481	8	10.560						
Total	153.648	11							

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: RCAN1.4

(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	CnA	52724	2.65332	.847	-6.6458	5.5913
WT	mdx	4.60711	2.65332	.121	-1.5115	10.7257
	mdx/CnA	4.43689	2.65332	.133	-1.6817	10.5555
	WT	.52724	2.65332	.847	-5.5913	6.6458
CnA	mdx	5.13435	2.65332	.089	9842	11.2529
	mdx/CnA	4.96413	2.65332	.098	-1.1544	11.0827
Mahr	WT	-4.60711	2.65332	.121	-10.7257	1.5115
Mdx	CnA	-5.13435	2.65332	.089	-11.2529	.9842

	mdx/CnA	17022	2.65332	.950	-6.2888	5.9483
	WТ	-4.43689	2.65332	.133	-10.5555	1.6817
mdx/CnA	CnA	-4.96413	2.65332	.098	-11.0827	1.1544
	mdx	.17022	2.65332	.950	-5.9483	6.2888

8) Calsarcin-2 levels in EDL muscles of CnA* models:

Descriptives

Calsarcin-2	2						-	
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Upper			
					Bound	Bound		
WТ	3	5.4847	.28371	.16380	4.7799	6.1895	5.16	5.65
CnA	3	7.2099	2.65420	1.53240	.6165	13.8033	4.18	9.12
Mdx	3	6.3149	1.97651	1.14114	1.4050	11.2248	5.09	8.59
mdx/CnA	3	4.0088	3.67884	2.12398	-5.1299	13.1475	1.00	8.11
Total	12	5.7546	2.44557	.70598	4.2007	7.3084	1.00	9.12

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-2							
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.				
3.660	3	8	.063				

ANOVA

Calsarcin-2									
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Between Groups	16.658	3	5.553	.904	.481				
Within Groups	49.131	8	6.141						
Total	65.789	11							

Multiple Comparisons

(1)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	CnA	-1.72522	2.02343	.419	-6.3913	2.9408
WT	mdx	83020	2.02343	.692	-5.4962	3.8358
	mdx/CnA	1.47590	2.02343	.487	-3.1901	6.1419
	WT	1.72522	2.02343	.419	-2.9408	6.3913
CnA	mdx	.89502	2.02343	.670	-3.7710	5.5611
	mdx/CnA	3.20112	2.02343	.152	-1.4649	7.8672
	WТ	.83020	2.02343	.692	-3.8358	5.4962
Mdx	CnA	89502	2.02343	.670	-5.5611	3.7710
	mdx/CnA	2.30610	2.02343	.287	-2.3599	6.9721
	WT	-1.47590	2.02343	.487	-6.1419	3.1901
mdx/CnA	CnA	-3.20112	2.02343	.152	-7.8672	1.4649
	mdx	-2.30610	2.02343	.287	-6.9721	2.3599

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-2

9) MLP levels in EDL muscles of CnA* models:

MLP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Upper			
					Bound	Bound		
WT	3	7.1036	5.04364	2.91195	-5.4255	19.6327	2.83	12.67
CnA	3	8.5211	6.04437	3.48972	-6.4939	23.5362	2.91	14.92
Mdx	3	1.6426	.37522	.21663	.7105	2.5747	1.28	2.03
mdx/CnA	3	3.0761	2.35078	1.35722	-2.7635	8.9158	1.00	5.63
Total	12	5.0859	4.57841	1.32167	2.1769	7.9948	1.00	14.92

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

MLP

11161			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.695	3	8	.117

ANOVA

MLP									
-	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Between Groups	95.301	3	31.767	1.879	.212				
Within Groups	135.279	8	16.910						
Total	230.580	11							

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: MLP							
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper	
		J)			Bound	Bound	
	CnA	-1.41753	3.35757	.684	-9.1601	6.3250	
WТ	mdx	5.46094	3.35757	.143	-2.2816	13.2035	
	mdx/CnA	4.02746	3.35757	.265	-3.7151	11.7700	
	WT	1.41753	3.35757	.684	-6.3250	9.1601	
CnA	mdx	6.87847	3.35757	.075	8641	14.6210	
	mdx/CnA	5.44499	3.35757	.144	-2.2976	13.1876	
	WT	-5.46094	3.35757	.143	-13.2035	2.2816	
Mdx	CnA	-6.87847	3.35757	.075	-14.6210	.8641	
	mdx/CnA	-1.43347	3.35757	.681	-9.1760	6.3091	
	WT	-4.02746	3.35757	.265	-11.7700	3.7151	
mdx/CnA	CnA	-5.44499	3.35757	.144	-13.1876	2.2976	
	mdx	1.43347	3.35757	.681	-6.3091	9.1760	

Immunoblotting

1) RCAN1 levels in PV models:

Descriptives

RCAN1								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		

199

WТ	3	1.0531	.09205	.05314	.8245	1.2818	1.00	1.16
PV	3	1.2222	.64067	.36989	3693	2.8138	.81	1.96
Mdx	3	1.4098	.29933	.17282	.6662	2.1534	1.22	1.76
mdx/PV	3	.9412	.13483	.07784	.6063	1.2761	.80	1.07
Total	12	1.1566	.36056	.10408	.9275	1.3857	.80	1.96

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RCAN1			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
7.035	3	8	.012

ANOVA

RCAN1

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.377	3	.126	.953	.460
Within Groups	1.053	8	.132		
Total	1.430	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: RCAN1							
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval	
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper	
		J)			Bound	Bound	
	PV	16911	.29629	.584	8523	.5141	
WT	mdx	35667	.29629	.263	-1.0399	.3266	
	mdx/PV	.11195	.29629	.715	5713	.7952	
	WТ	.16911	.29629	.584	5141	.8523	
PV	mdx	18756	.29629	.544	8708	.4957	
	mdx/PV	.28106	.29629	.371	4022	.9643	
	WТ	.35667	.29629	.263	3266	1.0399	
Mdx	PV	.18756	.29629	.544	4957	.8708	
	mdx/PV	.46862	.29629	.152	2146	1.1519	
	WТ	11195	.29629	.715	7952	.5713	
mdx/PV	PV	28106	.29629	.371	9643	.4022	
	mdx	46862	.29629	.152	-1.1519	.2146	

Dependent Variable: RCAN1

2) Calsarcin-1 levels in PV models:

Descriptives

Calsarcin	i-1							
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WТ	3	.8144	.32140	.18556	.0160	1.6128	.44	1.00
PV	3	.6534	.25840	.14919	.0115	1.2953	.43	.94
Mdx	3	.4972	.20399	.11777	0095	1.0039	.36	.73
mdx/PV	3	.5588	.05656	.03265	.4183	.6993	.51	.62
Total	12	.6310	.23384	.06751	.4824	.7795	.36	1.00

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.979	3	8	.096

ANOVA

Calsarcin-1								
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.			
Between Groups	.172	3	.057	1.066	.416			
Within Groups	.430	8	.054					
Total	.602	11						

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent	Variable: Calsarcin-1

(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	PV	.16105	.18924	.419	2753	.5974
WT	mdx	.31722	.18924	.132	1192	.7536
	mdx/PV	.25560	.18924	.214	1808	.6920
	WT	16105	.18924	.419	5974	.2753
PV	mdx	.15617	.18924	.433	2802	.5926
	mdx/PV	.09455	.18924	.631	3418	.5309

	WT	31722	.18924	.132	7536	.1192
Mdx	PV	15617	.18924	.433	5926	.2802
	mdx/PV	06162	.18924	.753	4980	.3748
	WТ	25560	.18924	.214	6920	.1808
mdx/PV	PV	09455	.18924	.631	5309	.3418
	mdx	.06162	.18924	.753	3748	.4980

3) MLP levels in PV models:

Descriptives

MLP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
WT	3	.7881	.36708	.21193	1238	1.6999	.36	1.00
PV	3	.6549	.16122	.09308	.2544	1.0554	.47	.75
Mdx	3	.7028	.35915	.20736	1894	1.5950	.33	1.05
mdx/PV	3	.6885	.45505	.26272	4419	1.8189	.17	1.00
Total	12	.7086	.30489	.08801	.5148	.9023	.17	1.05

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

MLP			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.329	3	8	.331

ANOVA

MLP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.029	3	.010	.078	.970
Within Groups	.994	8	.124		
Total	1.023	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(1)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	PV	.13318	.28775	.656	5304	.7967
WT	mdx	.08526	.28775	.775	5783	.7488
	mdx/PV	.09958	.28775	.738	5640	.7631
	WT	13318	.28775	.656	7967	.5304
PV	mdx	04791	.28775	.872	7115	.6156
	mdx/PV	03359	.28775	.910	6971	.6300
	WT	08526	.28775	.775	7488	.5783
Mdx	PV	.04791	.28775	.872	6156	.7115
	mdx/PV	.01432	.28775	.962	6492	.6779
	WT	09958	.28775	.738	7631	.5640
mdx/PV	PV	.03359	.28775	.910	6300	.6971
	mdx	01432	.28775	.962	6779	.6492

Dependent Variable: MLP

4) RCAN1 levels in CnA* models:

RCAN1				-				
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT	3	1.0690	.11956	.06903	.7720	1.3660	1.00	1.21
CnA	3	1.4339	.69304	.40013	2877	3.1555	.76	2.14
mdx	3	1.0275	.53294	.30769	2965	2.3514	.60	1.62
mdx/CnA	3	.7691	.24667	.14241	.1564	1.3819	.59	1.05
Total	12	1.0749	.46251	.13351	.7810	1.3687	.59	2.14

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

RCAN1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.851	3	8	.216

ANOVA

RCAN1					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.674	3	.225	1.071	.414
Within Groups	1.679	8	.210		
Total	2.353	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent V	ariable: RCAN	1					
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval		
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper	
		J)			Bound	Bound	
	CnA	36490	.37405	.358	-1.2275	.4977	
WT	mdx	.04158	.37405	.914	8210	.9041	
	mdx/CnA	.29992	.37405	.446	5626	1.1625	
	WT	.36490	.37405	.358	4977	1.2275	
CnA	mdx	.40647	.37405	.309	4561	1.2690	
	mdx/CnA	.66481	.37405	.113	1977	1.5274	
	WT	04158	.37405	.914	9041	.8210	
mdx	CnA	40647	.37405	.309	-1.2690	.4561	
	mdx/CnA	.25834	.37405	.509	6042	1.1209	
	WT	29992	.37405	.446	-1.1625	.5626	
mdx/CnA	CnA	66481	.37405	.113	-1.5274	.1977	
	mdx	25834	.37405	.509	-1.1209	.6042	

5) Calsarcin-2 levels in CnA* models:

Descripti	ves

Calsarcin-	2							
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval for		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Ме	an		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT	3	1.1512	.26183	.15117	.5007	1.8016	1.00	1.45
CnA	3	1.4186	.16594	.09581	1.0064	1.8308	1.25	1.58

mdx	3	1.2481	.24137	.13936	.6485	1.8477	1.06	1.52
mdx/CnA	3	.9326	.13565	.07832	.5957	1.2696	.81	1.08
Total	12	1.1876	.25505	.07363	1.0256	1.3497	.81	1.58

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-2

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
1.069	3	8	.415	

ANOVA

Calsarcin-2					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.370	3	.123	2.856	.105
Within Groups	.346	8	.043		
Total	.716	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	Lower	Upper
		J)			Bound	Bound
	CnA	26742	.16968	.154	6587	.1239
WT	mdx	09692	.16968	.584	4882	.2944
	mdx/CnA	.21853	.16968	.234	1728	.6098
	WT	.26742	.16968	.154	1239	.6587
CnA	mdx	.17050	.16968	.344	2208	.5618
	mdx/CnA	.48595*	.16968	.021	.0947	.8772
	WT	.09692	.16968	.584	2944	.4882
mdx	CnA	17050	.16968	.344	5618	.2208
	mdx/CnA	.31545	.16968	.100	0758	.7067
	WT	21853	.16968	.234	6098	.1728
mdx/CnA	CnA	48595*	.16968	.021	8772	0947
	mdx	31545	.16968	.100	7067	.0758

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-2

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

6) MLP levels in CnA* models:

Descriptives

MLP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confiden	ce Interval for	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	Ме	an		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT	3	1.2190	.37931	.21899	.2767	2.1612	1.00	1.66
CnA	3	1.1699	.36113	.20850	.2728	2.0670	.90	1.58
mdx	3	.7720	.02296	.01326	.7150	.8290	.75	.79
mdx/CnA	3	.7076	.01391	.00803	.6731	.7422	.69	.72
Total	12	.9671	.32751	.09454	.7590	1.1752	.69	1.66

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

MLP

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
8.481	3	8	.007	

ANOVA

MLP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.630	3	.210	3.054	.092
Within Groups	.550	8	.069		
Total	1.180	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent V	Dependent Variable: MLP								
(I)	(J)	Mean	Std.	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval			
Genotype	Genotype	Difference (I-	Error		Lower	Upper			
		J)			Bound	Bound			
	CnA	.04912	.21409	.824	4446	.5428			
WТ	mdx	.44699	.21409	.070	0467	.9407			
	mdx/CnA	.51136*	.21409	.044	.0177	1.0051			
	WT	04912	.21409	.824	5428	.4446			
CnA	mdx	.39787	.21409	.100	0958	.8916			
	mdx/CnA	.46224	.21409	.063	0314	.9559			
mdx	WT	44699	.21409	.070	9407	.0467			

	CnA	39787	.21409	.100	8916	.0958
	mdx/CnA	.06437	.21409	.771	4293	.5581
	WT	51136 [*]	.21409	.044	-1.0051	0177
mdx/CnA	CnA	46224	.21409	.063	9559	.0314
	mdx	06437	.21409	.771	5581	.4293

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Appendix III: Chapter 4- Statistical Analyses

Semi-quantitative PCR

1) β -MyHC levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

β-ΜγΗϹ								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confide	ence Interval	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT-VE	3	.4679	.16859	.09734	.0491	.8867	.34	.66
WT +VE 14 days	3	.8566	.16214	.09361	.4538	1.2594	.67	.96
KO -VE	3	.3856	.11942	.06894	.0889	.6822	.26	.49
KO +VE 14 days	3	1.2670	.17642	.10186	.8288	1.7053	1.13	1.46
Total	12	.7443	.38998	.11258	.4965	.9921	.26	1.46

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

β-ΜγΗϹ

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.346	3	8	.793

ANOVA

β-ΜγΗC

	Sum of Squares	quares df Mean Square		F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.473	3	.491	19.617	.000
Within Groups	.200	8	.025		
Total	1.673	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 14 days	38868*	.12916	.017	6865	0908
WT -VE	KO -VE	.08237	.12916	.541	2155	.3802
	KO +VE 14 days	79908*	.12916	.000	-1.0969	5012
	WT -VE	.38868*	.12916	.017	.0908	.6865
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.47105*	.12916	.007	.1732	.7689
	KO +VE 14 days	41040 [*]	.12916	.013	7083	1126
	WT-VE	08237	.12916	.541	3802	.2155
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	47105*	.12916	.007	7689	1732
	KO +VE 14 days	88146 [*]	.12916	.000	-1.1793	5836
	WT -VE	.79908*	.12916	.000	.5012	1.0969
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	.41040*	.12916	.013	.1126	.7083
	KO -VE	.88146*	.12916	.000	.5836	1.1793

Dependent Variable: β -MyHC

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

2) ANP levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

ANP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	.2186	.04780	.02760	.0999	.3374	.16	.25
WT +VE 14 days	3	.4755	.08816	.05090	.2564	.6945	.38	.55
KO -VE	3	.2643	.09525	.05499	.0277	.5009	.16	.34
KO +VE 14 days	3	.5260	.01685	.00973	.4841	.5678	.51	.54
Total	12	.3711	.14998	.04329	.2758	.4664	.16	.55

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

ANP

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.200	3	8	.084

ANOVA

ANP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.209	3	.070	14.325	.001
Within Groups	.039	8	.005		
Total	.247	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: ANP									
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval			
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
		(I-J)							
	WT +VE 14 days	25685*	.05688	.002	3880	1257			
WT -VE	KO -VE	04567	.05688	.445	1768	.0855			
	KO +VE 14 days	30734*	.05688	.001	4385	1762			
	WT -VE	.25685*	.05688	.002	.1257	.3880			
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.21118*	.05688	.006	.0800	.3424			
	KO +VE 14 days	05049	.05688	.401	1817	.0807			
	WT -VE	.04567	.05688	.445	0855	.1768			
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	21118 [*]	.05688	.006	3424	0800			
	KO +VE 14 days	26167*	.05688	.002	3928	1305			
	WT -VE	.30734*	.05688	.001	.1762	.4385			
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	.05049	.05688	.401	0807	.1817			
	KO -VE	.26167*	.05688	.002	.1305	.3928			

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3) BNP levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Descriptives

BNP								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	.0808	.03937	.02273	0170	.1786	.04	.12
WT +VE 14 days	3	.2160	.00928	.00536	.1930	.2391	.21	.23
KO -VE	3	.1319	.04276	.02469	.0257	.2381	.10	.18
KO +VE 14 days	3	.1715	.02038	.01177	.1209	.2221	.15	.19
Total	12	.1500	.05845	.01687	.1129	.1872	.04	.23

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

BNP

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.808	3	8	.224

ANOVA

BNP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.030	3	.010	10.251	.004
Within Groups	.008	8	.001		
Total	.038	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: BNP									
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval				
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
	WT +VE 14 days	13524*	.02543	.001	1939	0766			
WT -VE	KO -VE	05108	.02543	.079	1097	.0076			
	KO +VE 14 days	09071*	.02543	.007	1493	0321			
	WT-VE	.13524*	.02543	.001	.0766	.1939			
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.08416*	.02543	.011	.0255	.1428			
	KO +VE 14 days	.04454	.02543	.118	0141	.1032			

	WT -VE	.05108	.02543	.079	0076	.1097
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	08416*	.02543	.011	1428	0255
	KO +VE 14 days	03962	.02543	.158	0983	.0190
	WT -VE	.09071*	.02543	.007	.0321	.1493
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	04454	.02543	.118	1032	.0141
	KO -VE	.03962	.02543	.158	0190	.0983

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

QPCR

1) Calsarcin-1 levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Calsarcin-1								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	1.5822	.63267	.36527	.0105	3.1538	1.00	2.26
WT +VE 14 days	3	5.7069	.70142	.40497	3.9645	7.4493	4.90	6.12
KO -VE	3	2.4209	1.30922	.75588	8314	5.6732	1.24	3.83
KO +VE 14 days	3	4.8697	2.62680	1.51658	-1.6556	11.3951	1.88	6.80
Total	12	3.6449	2.20594	.63680	2.2433	5.0465	1.00	6.80

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
4.065	3	8	.050

ANOVA

Calsarcin-1					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	34.515	3	11.505	4.841	.033
Within Groups	19.013	8	2.377		
Total	53.528	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-1							
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval	
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
		(I-J)					
	WT +VE 14 days	-4.12470*	1.25873	.011	-7.0273	-1.2221	
WT -VE	KO -VE	83868	1.25873	.524	-3.7413	2.0640	
	KO +VE 14 days	-3.28755*	1.25873	.031	-6.1902	3849	
	WT -VE	4.12470*	1.25873	.011	1.2221	7.0273	
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	3.28602*	1.25873	.031	.3834	6.1887	
	KO +VE 14 days	.83715	1.25873	.525	-2.0655	3.7398	
	WT -VE	.83868	1.25873	.524	-2.0640	3.7413	
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	-3.28602*	1.25873	.031	-6.1887	3834	
	KO +VE 14 days	-2.44886	1.25873	.088	-5.3515	.4538	
	WT -VE	3.28755*	1.25873	.031	.3849	6.1902	
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	83715	1.25873	.525	-3.7398	2.0655	
	KO -VE	2.44886	1.25873	.088	4538	5.3515	

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

2) CnAβ1 levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

CnAβ1								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	2.4564	1.14438	.66071	3864	5.2992	1.37	3.65
WT +VE 14 days	3	4.1993	.19155	.11059	3.7235	4.6752	4.00	4.38
KO -VE	3	2.5813	.99899	.57677	.0997	5.0630	1.90	3.73
KO +VE 14 days	3	2.0881	1.14892	.66333	7660	4.9422	1.00	3.29
Total	12	2.8313	1.17587	.33944	2.0842	3.5784	1.00	4.38

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

CnAβ1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.511	3	8	.284

ANOVA

CnAβ1

Спирт					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.881	3	2.627	2.868	.104
Within Groups	7.329	8	.916		
Total	15.209	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: CnAβ1									
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval			
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
		(I-J)							
	WT +VE 14 days	-1.74294	.78148	.056	-3.5450	.0592			
WT -VE	KO -VE	12494	.78148	.877	-1.9270	1.6772			
	KO +VE 14 days	.36830	.78148	.650	-1.4338	2.1704			
	WT -VE	1.74294	.78148	.056	0592	3.5450			
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	1.61800	.78148	.072	1841	3.4201			
	KO +VE 14 days	2.11124*	.78148	.027	.3091	3.9133			
	WT -VE	.12494	.78148	.877	-1.6772	1.9270			
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	-1.61800	.78148	.072	-3.4201	.1841			
	KO +VE 14 days	.49324	.78148	.546	-1.3089	2.2953			
	WT-VE	36830	.78148	.650	-2.1704	1.4338			
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	-2.11124*	.78148	.027	-3.9133	3091			
	KO -VE	49324	.78148	.546	-2.2953	1.3089			

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3) ATF4 levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Descriptives

ATF4								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	4	5.9883	4.75434	2.37717	-1.5769	13.5535	1.00	12.44
WT +VE 14 days	4	14.4966	8.35622	4.17811	1.2000	27.7933	5.18	24.43
KO -VE	4	8.1644	4.08719	2.04359	1.6608	14.6681	3.44	12.80
KO +VE 14 days	4	12.1799	7.90211	3.95106	3941	24.7540	3.51	21.67
Total	16	10.2073	6.79112	1.69778	6.5886	13.8260	1.00	24.43

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

ATF4			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.479	3	12	.270

ANOVA

ATF4					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	177.053	3	59.018	1.376	.297
Within Groups	514.736	12	42.895		
Total	691.789	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: ATF4							
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval	
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	
		(I-J)					
	WT +VE 14 days	-8.50837	4.63113	.091	-18.5987	1.5820	
WT -VE	KO -VE	-2.17616	4.63113	.647	-12.2665	7.9142	
	KO +VE 14 days	-6.19166	4.63113	.206	-16.2820	3.8987	
	WT -VE	8.50837	4.63113	.091	-1.5820	18.5987	
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	6.33221	4.63113	.197	-3.7581	16.4226	
	KO +VE 14 days	2.31671	4.63113	.626	-7.7737	12.4071	
KO -VE	WT -VE	2.17616	4.63113	.647	-7.9142	12.2665	
	WT +VE 14 days	-6.33221	4.63113	.197	-16.4226	3.7581	

215

	KO +VE 14 days	-4.01550	4.63113	.403	-14.1059	6.0749
	WT -VE	6.19166	4.63113	.206	-3.8987	16.2820
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	-2.31671	4.63113	.626	-12.4071	7.7737
	KO -VE	4.01550	4.63113	.403	-6.0749	14.1059

4) Foxo3a levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Descriptives

Foxo3a								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	1.3641	.40548	.23410	.3569	2.3714	1.00	1.80
WT +VE 14 days	3	1.9699	.54447	.31435	.6174	3.3225	1.64	2.60
KO -VE	3	1.5112	.13952	.08055	1.1646	1.8578	1.42	1.67
KO +VE 14 days	3	2.6801	.96190	.55535	.2906	5.0696	1.65	3.55
Total	12	1.8813	.73623	.21253	1.4135	2.3491	1.00	3.55

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Foxo3a			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.522	3	8	.131

ANOVA

Foxo3a

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.151	3	1.050	2.989	.096
Within Groups	2.811	8	.351		
Total	5.962	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Foxo3a								
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval		
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
		(I-J)						
	WT +VE 14 days	60580	.48401	.246	-1.7219	.5103		
WT -VE	KO -VE	14703	.48401	.769	-1.2631	.9691		
	KO +VE 14 days	-1.31596*	.48401	.026	-2.4321	1998		
	WT -VE	.60580	.48401	.246	5103	1.7219		
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.45877	.48401	.371	6573	1.5749		
	KO +VE 14 days	71016	.48401	.180	-1.8263	.4060		
	WT -VE	.14703	.48401	.769	9691	1.2631		
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	45877	.48401	.371	-1.5749	.6573		
	KO +VE 14 days	-1.16893*	.48401	.042	-2.2851	0528		
	WT -VE	1.31596*	.48401	.026	.1998	2.4321		
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	.71016	.48401	.180	4060	1.8263		
	KO -VE	1.16893*	.48401	.042	.0528	2.2851		

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5) Myostatin levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Myostatin										
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confide	ence Interval	Minimum	Maximum		
			Deviation	Error	for Mean					
					Lower	Upper				
					Bound	Bound				
WT -VE	4	5.9163	4.89668	2.44834	-1.8754	13.7080	1.19	12.37		
WT +VE 14 days	4	3.6115	1.95252	.97626	.5046	6.7184	1.59	5.96		
KO -VE	4	9.2726	9.43216	4.71608	-5.7361	24.2813	1.00	22.63		
KO +VE 14 days	4	43.2075	39.99396	19.99698	-20.4318	106.8468	5.93	99.95		
Total	16	15.5020	24.90983	6.22746	2.2285	28.7755	1.00	99.95		

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Myostatin

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
4.357	3	12	.027	

ANOVA

Myostatin									
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.				
Between Groups	4158.677	3	1386.226	3.231	.061				
Within Groups	5148.818	12	429.068						
Total	9307.495	15							

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Myostatin								
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval		
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
		(I-J)						
	WT +VE 14 days	2.30486	14.64698	.878	-29.6082	34.2179		
WT -VE	KO -VE	-3.35627	14.64698	.823	-35.2693	28.5568		
	KO +VE 14 days	-37.29116*	14.64698	.026	-69.2042	-5.3781		
	WT -VE	-2.30486	14.64698	.878	-34.2179	29.6082		
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	-5.66113	14.64698	.706	-37.5742	26.2519		
	KO +VE 14 days	-39.59602*	14.64698	.019	-71.5090	-7.6830		
	WT -VE	3.35627	14.64698	.823	-28.5568	35.2693		
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	5.66113	14.64698	.706	-26.2519	37.5742		
	KO +VE 14 days	-33.93489*	14.64698	.039	-65.8479	-2.0219		
	WT -VE	37.29116*	14.64698	.026	5.3781	69.2042		
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	39.59602*	14.64698	.019	7.6830	71.5090		
	KO -VE	33.93489*	14.64698	.039	2.0219	65.8479		

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Immunoblotting

1) GATA4 whole protein levels in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable NFATc2+/+	Variable NFATc2-/-
Mean	1	3.108567
Variance	0	0.566065
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance Hypothesized Mean	0.283032	
Difference	0	
Df	4	
t Stat	-4.85417	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.004157	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.008314	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

2) GATA4 cytoplasmic protein levels in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	1	0.974108
Variance	0	0.172746
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance Hypothesized Mean Difference	0.086373	
df	4	
t Stat	0.107902	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.459635	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.919269	
t Critical two-tail	2.776451	

3) GATA4 nuclear protein levels in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

Mariahla	Verieble
	Variable
NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
1	1.697305
0	0.017893
3	3
0.008946	
0	
4	
-9.02909	
0.000417	
2.131846	
0.000833	
2.776451	
	0 3 0.008946 0 4 -9.02909 0.000417 2.131846 0.000833

4) pAkt Ser 473 protein levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

pAkt Ser 473	-						-	
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	4	1.1732	.34647	.17324	.6219	1.7245	1.00	1.69
WT +VE 14 days	4	1.8466	.60999	.30500	.8760	2.8173	1.03	2.50
KO -VE	4	1.2184	.18837	.09418	.9186	1.5181	.94	1.35
KO +VE 14 days	4	1.6098	.28669	.14334	1.1536	2.0660	1.36	1.97
Total	16	1.4620	.45310	.11327	1.2206	1.7034	.94	2.50

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

pAkt Ser 473

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
.993	3	12	.429	

ANOVA

pAkt Ser 473

-	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.250	3	.417	2.733	.090
Within Groups	1.829	12	.152		
Total	3.079	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: pAkt Ser 473

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 14 days	67339 [*]	.27609	.031	-1.2749	0718
WT -VE	KO -VE	04514	.27609	.873	6467	.5564
	KO +VE 14 days	43655	.27609	.140	-1.0381	.1650
	WT-VE		.27609	.031	.0718	1.2749
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.62824*	.27609	.042	.0267	1.2298
	KO +VE 14 days	.23684	.27609	.408	3647	.8384
	WT -VE	.04514	.27609	.873	5564	.6467
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	62824*	.27609	.042	-1.2298	0267
	KO +VE 14 days	39141	.27609	.182	9930	.2101
	WT -VE	.43655	.27609	.140	1650	1.0381
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	23684	.27609	.408	8384	.3647
	KO -VE	.39141	.27609	.182	2101	.9930

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

5) α -SMA protein levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Note: Each set of α -SMA was carried out on a separate gel, quantified and normalized to WT, which is standardized to 1. Therefore multiple student-t-tests were performed.

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable NFATc2+/+ Ang II -ve	Variable NFATc2+/+ Ang II +ve
Mean	1	1.738549
Variance	0	0.638017

Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	0.319009	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
Df	6	
t Stat	-1.84924	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.056955	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.11391	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
	Ang II -ve	Ang II -ve
Mean	1	0.909822
Variance	0	0.134441
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	0.067221	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	0.491887	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.320138	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.640276	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
	Ang II +ve	Ang II +ve
Mean	1.738549	1.958736
Variance	0.638017	1.422662
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	1.03034	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	-0.30677	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.384692	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.769385	

	tical two-tail
--	----------------

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable NFATc2-/- Ang II -ve	Variable NFATc2-/- Ang II +ve
Mean	0.909822	1.958736
Variance	0.134441	1.422662
Observations	4	4
Pooled Variance	0.778552	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	6	
t Stat	-1.68117	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.071863	
t Critical one-tail	1.94318	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.143727	
t Critical two-tail	2.446912	

6) pFoxo3a Ser 253 protein levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

pFoxo3a Ser 253								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	4	.9164	.40502	.20251	.2720	1.5609	.35	1.31
WT +VE 14 days	4	.9370	.37434	.18717	.3413	1.5327	.57	1.46
KO -VE	4	1.0469	.31270	.15635	.5494	1.5445	.74	1.35
KO +VE 14 days	4	1.0462	.52232	.26116	.2150	1.8773	.55	1.73
Total	16	.9866	.37261	.09315	.7881	1.1852	.35	1.73

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

pFoxo3a Ser 253

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.399	3	12	.757

ANOVA

pFoxo3a Ser 253

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.058	3	.019	.115	.950
Within Groups	2.024	12	.169		
Total	2.083	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: pFoxo3a Ser 253

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 14 days	02056	.29042	.945	6533	.6122
WT -VE	KO -VE	13051	.29042	.661	7633	.5023
	KO +VE 14 days	12972	.29042	.663	7625	.5031
WT -VE		.02056	.29042	.945	6122	.6533
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	10994	.29042	.712	7427	.5228
	KO +VE 14 days	10916	.29042	.714	7419	.5236
	WT -VE	.13051	.29042	.661	5023	.7633
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	.10994	.29042	.712	5228	.7427
	KO +VE 14 days	.00079	.29042	.998	6320	.6336
	WT -VE	.12972	.29042	.663	5031	.7625
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	.10916	.29042	.714	5236	.7419
	KO -VE	00079	.29042	.998	6336	.6320

7) Vimentin protein levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

Vimentin								
	Ν	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	EIIO				
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	4	.9419	.25013	.12506	.5439	1.3399	.59	1.18
WT +VE 14 days	4	1.1188	.10512	.05256	.9515	1.2861	1.01	1.26
KO -VE	4	.9706	.14524	.07262	.7395	1.2017	.86	1.17

Descriptives

KO +VE 14 days	4	.8841	.14826	.07413	.6481	1.1200	.68	.99
Total	16	.9788	.17703	.04426	.8845	1.0732	.59	1.26

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Vimentin

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.820	3	12	.507

ANOVA

Vimentin					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.120	3	.040	1.371	.299
Within Groups	.350	12	.029		
Total	.470	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Vimentin								
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval			
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
		(I-J)						
	WT +VE 14 days	17689	.12077	.169	4400	.0863		
WT -VE	KO -VE	02866	.12077	.816	2918	.2345		
	KO +VE 14 days	.05786	.12077	.641	2053	.3210		
	WT -VE	.17689	.12077	.169	0863	.4400		
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	.14823	.12077	.243	1149	.4114		
	KO +VE 14 days	.23475	.12077	.076	0284	.4979		
	WT -VE	.02866	.12077	.816	2345	.2918		
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	14823	.12077	.243	4114	.1149		
	KO +VE 14 days	.08652	.12077	.487	1766	.3497		
	WT -VE	05786	.12077	.641	3210	.2053		
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	23475	.12077	.076	4979	.0284		
	KO -VE	08652	.12077	.487	3497	.1766		

8) CnA β protein levels in normotensive and 14 day stimulated hearts:

CnAβ								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	4	.9412	.08517	.04258	.8057	1.0768	.82	1.00
WT +VE 14 days	4	.8757	.10636	.05318	.7064	1.0449	.75	.99
KO -VE	4	.9958	.10367	.05183	.8309	1.1608	.87	1.12
KO +VE 14 days	4	.7428	.17940	.08970	.4573	1.0283	.52	.96
Total	16	.8889	.14771	.03693	.8102	.9676	.52	1.12

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

CnAβ

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.704	3	12	.568

ANOVA

CnAβ					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.143	3	.048	3.096	.068
Within Groups	.184	12	.015		
Total	.327	15			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable:	CnAβ
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(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		(I-J)				
	WT +VE 14 days	.06555	.08768	.469	1255	.2566
WT -VE	KO -VE	05460	.08768	.545	2456	.1364

	KO +VE 14 days	.19844*	.08768	.043	.0074	.3895
	WT -VE	06555	.08768	.469	2566	.1255
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	12015	.08768	.196	3112	.0709
	KO +VE 14 days	.13289	.08768	.155	0581	.3239
	WT -VE	.05460	.08768	.545	1364	.2456
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	.12015	.08768	.196	0709	.3112
	KO +VE 14 days	.25304*	.08768	.014	.0620	.4441
	WT -VE	19844*	.08768	.043	3895	0074
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	13289	.08768	.155	3239	.0581
	KO -VE	25304*	.08768	.014	4441	0620

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

9) pAkt Ser 473 protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

pAkt Ser 473										
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
WT-VE	3	.9637	.06288	.03631	.8075	1.1199	.89	1.00		
WT +VE 28 days	3	1.2035	.88883	.51317	-1.0045	3.4115	.65	2.23		
KO -VE	3	.9035	.17538	.10125	.4678	1.3392	.79	1.11		
KO +VE 28 days	3	1.9697	.98267	.56734	4714	4.4108	1.00	2.97		
Total	12	1.2601	.72274	.20864	.8009	1.7193	.65	2.97		

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

pAkt Ser 473

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.445	3	8	.072

ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	2.165	3	.722	1.612	.262
Within Groups	3.581	8	.448		
Total	5.746	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: pAkt Ser 473

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 28 days	23981	.54625	.672	-1.4995	1.0198
WT -VE	KO -VE	.06019	.54625	.915	-1.1995	1.3199
	KO +VE 28 days	-1.00600	.54625	.103	-2.2657	.2537
	WT -VE	.23981	.54625	.672	-1.0198	1.4995
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	.30000	.54625	.598	9597	1.5597
	KO +VE 28 days	76618	.54625	.198	-2.0258	.4935
	WT -VE	06019	.54625	.915	-1.3199	1.1995
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	30000	.54625	.598	-1.5597	.9597
	KO +VE 28 days	-1.06618	.54625	.087	-2.3258	.1935
	WT -VE	1.00600	.54625	.103	2537	2.2657
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	.76618	.54625	.198	4935	2.0258
	KO -VE	1.06618	.54625	.087	1935	2.3258

10) pFoxo3a Ser 253 protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

pFoxo3a Ser 253								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT-VE	3	1.0593	.10270	.05930	.8042	1.3144	1.00	1.18
WT +VE 28 days	3	1.3651	.06523	.03766	1.2031	1.5271	1.29	1.42
KO -VE	3	1.3827	.61963	.35775	1566	2.9219	.79	2.03
KO +VE 28 days	3	1.6639	.68462	.39527	0368	3.3646	.95	2.32

Descriptives

	Total	12	1.3678	.45569	.13155	1.0782	1.6573	.79	2.32
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Test of Homogeneity of Variances

pFoxo3a Ser 253

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.535	3	8	.130

ANOVA

pFoxo3a Ser 253

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.549	3	.183	.844	.507
Within Groups	1.735	8	.217		
Total	2.284	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: pFoxo3a Ser 253

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 28 days	30581	.38023	.444	-1.1826	.5710
WT -VE	KO -VE	32340	.38023	.420	-1.2002	.5534
	KO +VE 28 days	60465	.38023	.150	-1.4815	.2722
	WT -VE	.30581	.38023	.444	5710	1.1826
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	01758	.38023	.964	8944	.8592
	KO +VE 28 days	29884	.38023	.455	-1.1757	.5780
	WT -VE	.32340	.38023	.420	5534	1.2002
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	.01758	.38023	.964	8592	.8944
	KO +VE 28 days	28125	.38023	.481	-1.1581	.5956
	WT -VE	.60465	.38023	.150	2722	1.4815
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	.29884	.38023	.455	5780	1.1757
	KO -VE	.28125	.38023	.481	5956	1.1581

11) Vimentin protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

Descriptives

Vimentin								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	1.0433	.07504	.04332	.8569	1.2297	1.00	1.13
WT +VE 28 days	3	1.1546	.21383	.12346	.6234	1.6858	.96	1.38
KO -VE	3	1.2340	.21624	.12485	.6969	1.7712	1.07	1.48
KO +VE 28 days	3	1.3625	.37953	.21912	.4197	2.3053	.93	1.62
Total	12	1.1986	.24248	.07000	1.0445	1.3527	.93	1.62

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Vimentin

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
3.031	3	8	.093	

ANOVA

Vimentin					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.162	3	.054	.895	.485
Within Groups	.484	8	.061		
Total	.647	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Vimentin										
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval				
		Difference (I- J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
	WT +VE 28 days	11127	.20090	.595	5745	.3520				
	,									
WT-VE	KO -VE	19070	.20090	.370	6540	.2726				
	KO +VE 28 days	31914	.20090	.151	7824	.1441				
	WT -VE	.11127	.20090	.595	3520	.5745				
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	07943	.20090	.703	5427	.3838				
	KO +VE 28 days	20787	.20090	.331	6711	.2554				

	WT -VE	.19070	.20090	.370	2726	.6540
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	.07943	.20090	.703	3838	.5427
	KO +VE 28 days	12845	.20090	.540	5917	.3348
	WT -VE	.31914	.20090	.151	1441	.7824
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	.20787	.20090	.331	2554	.6711
	KO -VE	.12845	.20090	.540	3348	.5917

12) α -SMA protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

α-SMA								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confide	ence Interval	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	1.0496	.08583	.04955	.8363	1.2628	1.00	1.15
WT +VE 28 days	3	2.9670	.21094	.12179	2.4430	3.4911	2.74	3.15
KO -VE	3	1.0185	.22951	.13251	.4483	1.5886	.78	1.24
KO +VE 28 days	3	2.5772	.44401	.25635	1.4742	3.6802	2.15	3.04
Total	12	1.9031	.94848	.27380	1.3004	2.5057	.78	3.15

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

 α -SMA

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.446	3	8	.300

ANOVA

α-SMA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.292	3	3.097	41.069	.000
Within Groups	.603	8	.075		
Total	9.896	11			

Dependent Variab	le: α-SMA					Dependent Variable: α-SMA										
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval											
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound										
		(I-J)														
	WT +VE 28 days	-1.91749*	.22423	.000	-2.4346	-1.4004										
WT -VE	KO -VE	.03108	.22423	.893	4860	.5482										
	KO +VE 28 days	-1.52763*	.22423	.000	-2.0447	-1.0105										
	WT -VE	1.91749*	.22423	.000	1.4004	2.4346										
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	1.94857*	.22423	.000	1.4315	2.4657										
	KO +VE 28 days	.38985	.22423	.120	1272	.9069										
	WT -VE	03108	.22423	.893	5482	.4860										
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	-1.94857*	.22423	.000	-2.4657	-1.4315										
	KO +VE 28 days	-1.55872*	.22423	.000	-2.0758	-1.0416										
	WT-VE	1.52763*	.22423	.000	1.0105	2.0447										
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	38985	.22423	.120	9069	.1272										
	KO -VE	1.55872*	.22423	.000	1.0416	2.0758										

Multiple Comparisons

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

13) Calsarcin-1 protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

Calsarcin-1								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confide	ence Interval	Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	3	1.0240	.04153	.02397	.9208	1.1271	1.00	1.07
WT +VE 28 days	3	.3904	.02677	.01546	.3239	.4569	.36	.41
KO -VE	3	1.2490	.34750	.20063	.3858	2.1123	.86	1.54
KO +VE 28 days	3	.4412	.25662	.14816	1962	1.0787	.28	.74
Total	12	.7761	.42812	.12359	.5041	1.0482	.28	1.54

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Calsarcin-1

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.	
5.642	3	8	.023	

ANOVA

Calsarcin-1					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.638	3	.546	11.552	.003
Within Groups	.378	8	.047		
Total	2.016	11			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Calsarcin-1										
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confide	ence Interval				
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
		(I-J)								
	WT +VE 28 days	.63361*	.17751	.007	.2243	1.0429				
WT -VE	KO -VE	22503	.17751	.241	6344	.1843				
	KO +VE 28 days	.58274*	.17751	.011	.1734	.9921				
	WT -VE	63361*	.17751	.007	-1.0429	2243				
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	85864*	.17751	.001	-1.2680	4493				
	KO +VE 28 days	05087	.17751	.782	4602	.3585				
	WT -VE	.22503	.17751	.241	1843	.6344				
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	.85864*	.17751	.001	.4493	1.2680				
	KO +VE 28 days	.80777*	.17751	.002	.3984	1.2171				
	WT-VE	58274*	.17751	.011	9921	1734				
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	.05087	.17751	.782	3585	.4602				
	KO -VE	80777*	.17751	.002	-1.2171	3984				

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

14) CnA β protein levels in normotensive and 28 day stimulated hearts:

Descriptives

Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
		Deviation	Error	for Mean			
				Lower Upper			
				Bound	Bound		

CnAβ

WT -VE	3	1.0618	.10700	.06178	.7960	1.3276	1.00	1.19
WT +VE 28 days	3	1.2472	.48079	.27758	.0529	2.4415	.72	1.67
KO -VE	3	1.3794	.40255	.23241	.3794	2.3793	1.07	1.83
KO +VE 28 days	3	.9959	.19514	.11266	.5112	1.4807	.86	1.22
Total	12	1.1711	.32486	.09378	.9647	1.3775	.72	1.83

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

CnAβ			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.480	3	8	.135

ANOVA

CnAβ Sum of Squares df Mean Square F Sig. 3 .092 .275 .829 Between Groups .514 Within Groups .885 8 .111 1.161 11 Total

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference (I-J)			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
	WT +VE 28 days	18543	.27164	.514	8118	.4410
WT -VE	KO -VE	31758	.27164	.276	9440	.3088
	KO +VE 28 days	.06585	.27164	.815	5606	.6922
	WT -VE	.18543	.27164	.514	4410	.8118
WT +VE 28 days	KO -VE	13215	.27164	.640	7586	.4942
	KO +VE 28 days	.25127	.27164	.382	3751	.8777
	WT -VE	.31758	.27164	.276	3088	.9440
KO -VE	WT +VE 28 days	.13215	.27164	.640	4942	.7586
	KO +VE 28 days	.38343	.27164	.196	2430	1.0098
	WT -VE	06585	.27164	.815	6922	.5606
KO +VE 28 days	WT +VE 28 days	25127	.27164	.382	8777	.3751
	KO -VE	38343	.27164	.196	-1.0098	.2430

Dependent Variable: $CnA\beta$

Histology

1) Relative HW/BW in normotensive NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable	Variable
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	5.018853	4.756885
Variance	0.600745	0.206136
Observations	7	7
Pooled Variance	0.40344	
Hypothesized Mean		
Difference	0	
df	12	
t Stat	0.771602	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.227638	
t Critical one-tail	1.782288	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.455277	
t Critical two-tail	2.178813	

2) Relative HW/BW in normotensive and 14 day stimulated NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

HW								
	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for N	lean		
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT -VE	7	5.0189	.77508	.29295	4.3020	5.7357	4.48	6.56
WT +VE 14 days	7	6.0967	.82406	.31146	5.3345	6.8588	5.13	7.74
KO -VE	7	4.7569	.45402	.17160	4.3370	5.1768	4.35	5.70
KO +VE 14 days	7	5.9283	.92318	.34893	5.0745	6.7821	4.61	7.26
Total	28	5.4502	.92740	.17526	5.0906	5.8098	4.35	7.74

Descriptives

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

HW

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.899	3	24	.456

ANOVA

HW					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	9.193	3	3.064	5.242	.006
Within Groups	14.029	24	.585		
Total	23.222	27			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: HW						
(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
		(I-J)				
	WT +VE 14 days	-1.07780 [*]	.40868	.014	-1.9213	2343
WT -VE	KO-VE	.26197	.40868	.528	5815	1.1054
	KO +VE 14 days	90943*	.40868	.036	-1.7529	0660
	WT -VE	1.07780*	.40868	.014	.2343	1.9213
WT +VE 14 days	KO -VE	1.33977*	.40868	.003	.4963	2.1832
	KO +VE 14 days	.16837	.40868	.684	6751	1.0118
	WT -VE	26197	.40868	.528	-1.1054	.5815
KO -VE	WT +VE 14 days	-1.33977*	.40868	.003	-2.1832	4963
	KO +VE 14 days	-1.17140*	.40868	.009	-2.0149	3279
	WT -VE	.90943*	.40868	.036	.0660	1.7529
KO +VE 14 days	WT +VE 14 days	16837	.40868	.684	-1.0118	.6751
	KO -VE	1.17140*	.40868	.009	.3279	2.0149

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

3) Left ventricle inner chamber diameter: Total heart diameter in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable 1	Variable 2
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	0.457415	0.586696
Variance	0.00228	0.001459
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.001869	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	-3.66221	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.010769	

t Critical one-tail	2.131847
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.021538
t Critical two-tail	2.776445

4) Right ventricular wall diameter: Total heart diameter in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable 1	Variable 2
	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	0.114921	0.086165
Variance	0.001145	0.000353
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.000749	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	1.286941	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.13377	
t Critical one-tail	2.131847	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.26754	
t Critical two-tail	2.776445	

5) NFAT nuclear localization in NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable 1	Variable 2
NFATc1	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	14.36666667	22
Variance	0.253333333	0.67
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	0.461666667	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	-13.75927649	
P(T<=t) one-tail	8.08348E-05	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846486	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.00016167	
t Critical two-tail	2.776450856	

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

NFATc2	Variable 1 NFATc2+/+	Variable 2 NFATc2-/-
Mean	8.14	4.26
Variance	0.7284	1.7553
Observations	3	3

Pooled Variance	1.24185
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0
df	4
t Stat	4.264251239
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.006504748
t Critical one-tail	2.131846486
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.013009496
t Critical two-tail	2.776450856

t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Variable 1	Variable 2
NFATc3	NFATc2+/+	NFATc2-/-
Mean	10.12	9.776667
Variance	0.3292	6.892433
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	3.610816667	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	0.221288518	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.417852642	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846486	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.835705284	
t Critical two-tail	2.776450856	

-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

NFATc4	Variable 1 NFATc2+/+	Variable 2 NFATc2-/-
Mean	10.64333	10.56
Variance	5.754633	8.5783
Observations	3	3
Pooled Variance	7.166467	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	4	
t Stat	0.038125	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.485707	
t Critical one-tail	2.131846	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.971415	
t Critical two-tail	2.776451	

6) NFAT nuclear localization in normotensive and 14 day stimulated NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts:

Descriptives

NFATc1	nuclear	localization
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	Ν	Mean	Std.	Std.	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
			Deviation	Error	for Mean			
					Lower	Upper		
					Bound	Bound		
WT-VE	3	8.8480	1.08445	.62611	6.1541	11.5419	7.64	9.74
WT +VE 14 days	3	14.6195	4.14565	2.39349	4.3211	24.9179	10.64	18.91
KO -VE	3	18.0189	3.67902	2.12408	8.8797	27.1581	13.82	20.68
KO +VE 14 days	3	22.5326	6.53823	3.77485	6.2907	38.7745	16.13	29.20
Total	12	16.0048	6.38688	1.84373	11.9467	20.0628	7.64	29.20

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

NFATc1 nuclear localization

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.336	3	8	.329

ANOVA

NFATc1 nuclear localization

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	299.423	3	99.808	5.348	.026
Within Groups	149.292	8	18.662		
Total	448.715	11			

Multiple Comparisons

(I) Genotype	(J) Genotype	Mean	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval			
		Difference			Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
		(I-J)						
	WT +VE 14 days	-5.77148	3.52718	.140	-13.9052	2.3622		
WT -VE	KO-VE	-9.17091*	3.52718	.032	-17.3046	-1.0372		
	KO +VE 14 days	-13.68460*	3.52718	.005	-21.8183	-5.5509		

Dependent Variable: NFATc1 nuclear localization

WT +VE 14 days	WT -VE	5.77148	3.52718	.140	-2.3622	13.9052
	KO -VE	-3.39943	3.52718	.363	-11.5331	4.7343
	KO +VE 14 days	-7.91311	3.52718	.055	-16.0468	.2206
KO -VE	WT -VE	9.17091 [*]	3.52718	.032	1.0372	17.3046
	WT +VE 14 days	3.39943	3.52718	.363	-4.7343	11.5331
	KO +VE 14 days	-4.51369	3.52718	.237	-12.6474	3.6200
KO +VE 14 days	WT -VE	13.68460*	3.52718	.005	5.5509	21.8183
	WT +VE 14 days	7.91311	3.52718	.055	2206	16.0468
	KO -VE	4.51369	3.52718	.237	-3.6200	12.6474

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

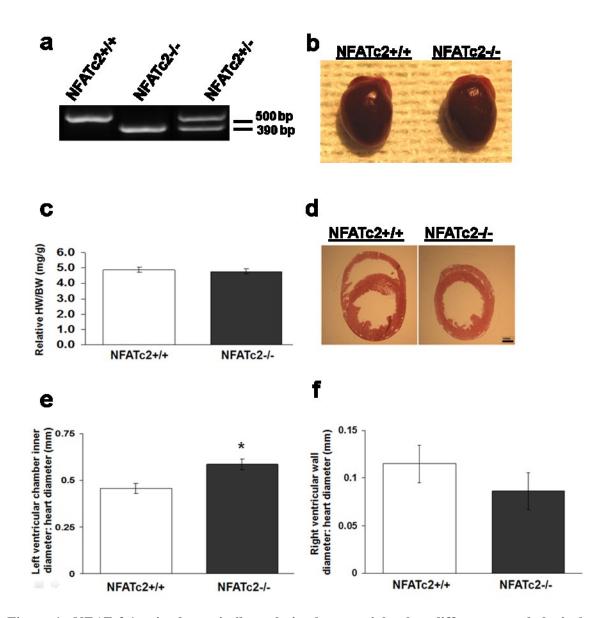


Figure 1: *NFATc2-/-* mice have similar relative heart weights but different morphological characteristics to those of *NFATc2+/+* mice

(a) Representative photomicrographs of ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels depicting DNA products of the Wild-Type (NFATc2+/+), NFATc2 knockout (NFATc2-/-) and heterozygous genotypes (NFATc2+/-); NFATc2+/+ bands are shown at 500 bp and NFATc2-/- bands are shown at 390 bp. (b) Freshly extracted mice hearts. (c) Quantification of the relative HW/BW for NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- (n=7) mice. (d) Representative photomicrographs of cross sections from NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- hearts processed for hematoxylin and eosin staining and

quantification of the left ventricular chamber inner wall diameter (e) and right ventricular wall diameter (f) normalized to total heart diameter (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to *NFATc2+/+*. Scale bars, 1mm. Means \pm SEM are shown. (Figure 1 is taken from Patrick Sin-Chan, MSc thesis, 2011).

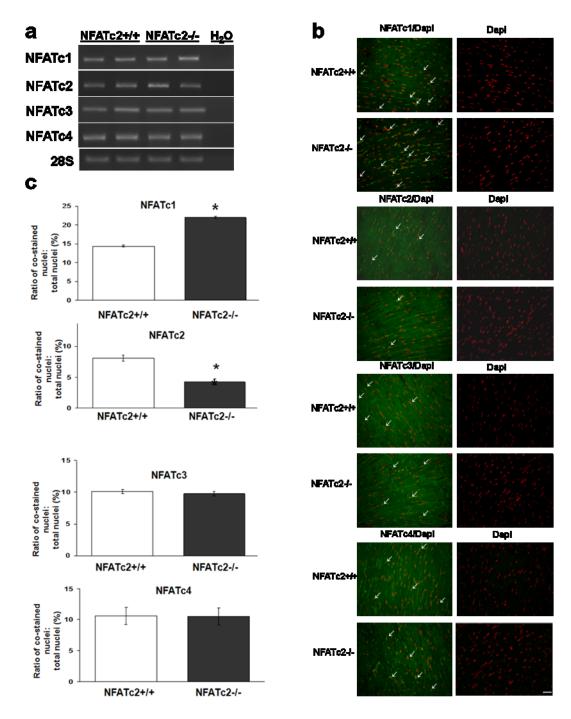


Figure 2: NFATc1 nuclear localization in the hearts of NFATc2+/+ and NFATc2-/- mice

(a) Representative photomicrographs of ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels depicting PCR products for NFATc1-c4 showing no significant differences between *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts (n=3). (b) Representative photomicrographs depicting nuclear localization of NFAT isoforms in the heart. Arrows indicate nuclei positively stained for NFATc1-4 isoforms. To control for unspecific secondary antibody staining, the Dapi images have only the secondary antibody conjugated to the fluorophore Alexa 488 added, without a primary antibody. Scale bars,

 $20\mu \text{m.}$ (c) Quantification of the percentage of myonuclei stained for NFATc1-4 reveals significant increase in NFATc1 nuclear localization of *NFATc2-/-* hearts compared to *NFATc2+/+* hearts (n=3; p<0.05). *compared to *NFATc2+/+*. Means ± SEM are shown. (Figure 2 is taken from Patrick Sin-Chan, MSc thesis, 2011).

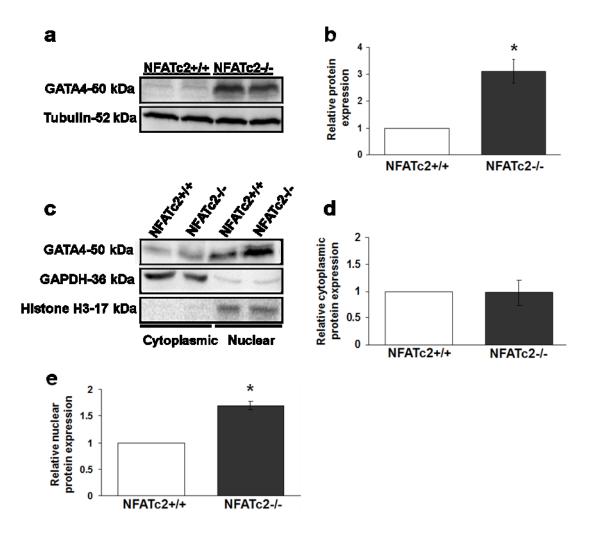


Figure 3: GATA4 has higher nuclear expression in the hearts of NFATc2-/- mice

(a-b) Representative immunoblot of GATA4 expression in whole heart protein homogenate and its quantification normalized to α -tubulin expression (n=3; P<0.05). (c-e) Representative immunoblot and respective quantifications of hearts fractionated in cytoplasmic and nuclear protein extracts. A double band is visualized in the nuclear fraction possibly due to additional phosphorylated sites on GATA4 (n=3; P<0.05). *compared to *NFATc2+/+*. Means ± SEM are shown. (Figure 3 is taken from Patrick Sin-Chan, MSc thesis, 2011).

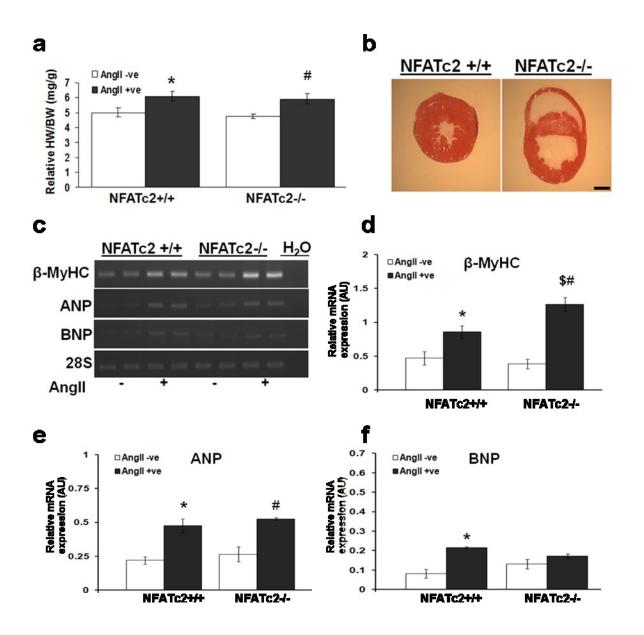


Figure 4: The 14 day Ang II-stimulated mice display more severe heart pathology

(a) HW/BW ratio of normotensive and Ang II-stimulated adult *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* mice (n=7; P<0.05). (b) Representative photomicrographs of cross sections from 14 day Ang II-stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and *NFATc2-/-* hearts processed for hematoxylin and eosin staining. Scale bars, 1mm. (c) Representative photomicrographs of ethidium bromide-stained agarose gels depicting PCR products for β -*MyHC*, *ANP* and *BNP*. (d-f) Quantifications of β -*MyHC*, *ANP* and *BNP* transcript levels normalized to 28S housekeeping gene (n=3; P<0.05). AU represents Arbitrary Units. *compared to normotensive *NFATc2+/+*, \$compared to stimulated *NFATc2+/+* and #compared to normotensive *NFATc2-/-*. Means ± SEM are shown. (Figure 4 except 4a, is taken from Patrick Sin-Chan, MSc thesis, 2011).