Pathological Ace2-to-Ace enzyme switch in the stressed heart is transcriptionally controlled by the endothelial Brg1–FoxM1 complex

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Genes encoding angiotensin-converting enzymes (Ace and Ace2) are essential for heart function regulation. Cardiac stress enhances Ace, but suppresses Ace2, expression in the heart, leading to a net production of angiotensin II that promotes cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis. The regulatory mechanism that underlies the Ace2-to-Ace pathological switch, however, is unknown. Here we report that the Brahma-related gene-1 (Brg1) chromatin remodeler and forkhead box M1 (FoxM1) transcription factor cooperate within cardiac (coronary) endothelial cells of pathologically stressed hearts to trigger the Ace2-to-Ace enzyme switch, angiotensin I-to-II conversion, and cardiac hypertrophy. In mice, cardiac stress activates the expression of Brg1 and FoxM1 in endothelial cells. Once activated, Brg1 and FoxM1 form a protein complex on Ace and Ace2 promoters to concurrently activate Ace and repress Ace2, tipping the balance to Ace2 expression with enhanced angiotensin II production, leading to cardiac hypertrophy and fibrosis. Disruption of endothelial Brg1 or FoxM1 or chemical inhibition of FoxM1 abolishes the stress-induced Ace2-to-Ace switch and protects the heart from pathological hypertrophy. In human hypertrophic hearts, BRG1 and FOXM1 expression is also activated in endothelial cells; their expression levels correlate strongly with the ACE/ACE2 ratio, suggesting a conserved mechanism. Our studies demonstrate a molecular interaction of Brg1 and FoxM1 and an endothelial mechanism of modulating Ace/Ace2 ratio for heart failure therapy.

Significance

Angiotensin-converting enzymes Ace and Ace2 counteract each other to control the metabolism of angiotensin peptides and heart function. When the heart is pathologically stressed, Ace is up-regulated whereas Ace2 is down-regulated, leading to a pathological Ace2-to-Ace switch and increased production of angiotensin II, which promotes hypertrophy and fibrosis. The mechanism of Ace2-to-Ace switch is unknown. In this study, we discovered that the Ace/Ace2 switch occurs at the transcription level and defined a chromatin-based endothelial mechanism that triggers Ace/Ace2 transcription switch and heart failure. Human tissue studies suggest that this mechanism is evolutionarily conserved. Our studies reveal a pharmacological method to simultaneously inhibit pathogenic Ace and activate cardioprotective Ace2. This finding provides new insights and methods for heart failure therapy.


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It is unclear how Ace and Ace2 expression is controlled by endothelial cells within the heart. Gene regulation requires control at the level of chromatin, which provides a dynamic scaffold to package DNA and dictates accessibility of DNA sequence to transcription factors. Here we show that Brahma-related gene-1 (Brg1), an essential ATPase subunit of the BAF chromatin-remodeling complex (24), is activated by pathological stress within the endothelium of mouse hearts to control Ace and Ace2 expression. Brg1 complexes with the forkhead box transcription factor forkhead box M1 (FoxM1), which has both transactivating and repressor domains for transcription regulation, to bind to Ace and Ace2 promoters to simultaneously activate Ace and repress Ace2 transcription. Mice with endothelial Brg1 deletion or with FoxM1 inhibition or genetic disruption show resistance to stress-induced Ace/Ace2 switch, cardiac hypertrophy, and heart dysfunction. In human hypertrophic hearts, Brg1 and FoxM1 are also highly activated, and their activation correlates strongly with the ACE/ACE2 ratio and disease severity, indicating a conserved endothelial mechanism for human cardiomyopathy. Brg1 and FoxM1 are therefore essential endothelial mediators of cardiac stress that triggers pathological hypertrophy. Given the lack of ACE2 drugs that limit full clinical exploitation of this pathway, targeting the Brg1–FoxM1 complex may offer an alternative strategy for concurrent ACE and ACE2 control in heart failure therapy. Furthermore, these studies demonstrated a molecular interaction between Brg1 and FoxM1 in gene control, which provides novel insights into the mechanisms of FoxM1-mediated organ development and oncogenic processes (25–27).

Results

Dynamic Changes of Endothelial Factors that Contribute to Cardiac Hypertrophy. To identify endothelial factors that might contribute to cardiomyopathy, we surveyed a number of endothelial genes for their changes of expression after left ventricular pressure overload generated by transaortic constriction (TAC) (24, 28). TAC-induced heart dysfunction was verified by echocardiography and molecular markers Myh6, Myh7, Anf, Bnp, and Serca2a (Figs. S1 A and B and S2 A–D). By performing reverse transcription and quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) of left ventricles (LVs), we examined the expression of the following cardiac endothelial factors with or without TAC: eNos, Et-1, Adams1, Hdac7, Nrg1, Ace, and Ace2 (29). Within 7 d after TAC, Et-1 and Ace were induced 2.6- and 2.1-fold in LVs, whereas Enos and Ace2 were reduced by 46% and 43%, respectively (Fig. LA). Adams1, Hdac7, and Nrg1 had no significant changes.

Given that Ace and Ace2 encode enzymes that are critical for heart function (20–23, 29), we focused on the control of Ace and Ace2 expression in TAC-stressed hearts. Immunostaining showed that Ace proteins were present at low levels in healthy hearts, but up-regulated in the endothelium of stressed hearts (Fig. 1 B and C and Fig. S1 C and D). In contrast, Ace2 proteins were present at high levels in the endothelium of healthy hearts, but down-regulated in TAC-stressed hearts (Fig. 1 D and E). To further verify the opposite changes of Ace and Ace2 in endothelial cells, we used anti-CD31 magnetic beads to isolate endothelial cells from hearts after 7 d of sham or TAC operation (30) (Fig. S1 E and F). Immunostaining with anti-CD31/Pecam showed that endothelial cells constituted >90% of the sorted cells (Fig. S1 E and F). Western blot analysis confirmed that Ace proteins were up-regulated to 2.0-fold and Ace2 proteins reduced by 46%, with the ratio of Ace/Ace2 proteins changed by 3.7-fold in endothelial cells of the stressed hearts (Fig. 1 H and I). Such Ace and Ace2 misregulation was also present after 2 and 4 wk of TAC (Fig. S2).

With the view that Ace is known to promote cardiac pathology (22), whereas Ace2 inhibits cardiomyopathy (20, 23), such opposite expression dynamics indicates that a loss of balance between Ace and Ace2 in pressure-stressed hearts is crucial for the development of pathological hypertrophy. Furthermore, the magnitude of stress-induced changes in Ace and Ace2 proteins was comparable to that of mRNA (Fig. 1 A and J), indicating that the primary regulation of Ace and Ace2 in stressed hearts occurs at the transcription level.

Endothelial Brg1 is Essential for Cardiac Hypertrophy and Dysfunction. Given that gene-transcription control requires chromatin regulation and that the chromatin remodeler Brg1 is known to control the pathological Myh6/Myh7 switch in stressed cardiomyocytes (24, 28), we hypothesized that Brg1, like in the control of the Myh6/Myh7 switch, could function in endothelial cells to control the Ace/Ace2 switch in stressed hearts. Immunostaining showed that Brg1 was expressed at a minimal/low level in endothelial cells of healthy adult hearts. However, when the hearts were stressed by TAC, Brg1 was up-regulated in the nuclei of both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells (Fig. 1 G and J). To compare Brg1 expression in cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells, we isolated these two types of cells from sham or TAC-stressed hearts (30) (Figs. S1 E and F and S3 A). We found comparable changes of Brg1 expression in those two cell types. TAC increased Brg1 mRNA by ~1.6-fold and Brg1 protein by twofold in both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells (Fig. S3 B–D). Although Brg1 activation in cardiomyocytes is crucial for the development of cardiac hypertrophy (24, 28), the function of Brg1 in the endothelium of hypertrophic hearts was unknown.

To test the role of endothelial Brg1 in stressed hearts, we used a tamoxifen-inducible ScICreERT mouse line (31) to induce endothelial Brg1 deletion in mice that carried floxed alleles of the Brg1 gene (Brg1fl/fl) (32). Immunostaining showed that tamoxifen treatment for 5 d (0.1 mg per gram of body weight, oral gavage once every other day, three doses total) before the TAC surgery was initiated led to the deletion of Brg1 in the endothelium of the left ventricle (Fig. 2 A and B). Immunostaining with anti-CD31/Pecam revealed that the deletion of Brg1 in endothelial cells was complete (Fig. 2 C and D). As expected, the deletion of Brg1 in endothelial cells reduced the immunostaining with anti-Ace and anti-Ace2, as well as the up-regulation of Brg1 in stressed hearts (Fig. 2 C and D).
sufficient to activate a β-galactosidase reporter (R26R) and to disrupt TAC-stressed hearts (Fig. 2A–D). We then used TAC to pressure-overload the heart and induce hypertrophy in littermate control (SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/fl or Brg1−/−) and mutant SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice with or without tamoxifen treatment. Left ventricular fractional shortening (FS) changes were followed by echocardiography (Fig. S4A). Four weeks after TAC, the control mice developed larger hearts than those of SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/fl mice lacking endothelial Brg1 (Fig. 2E). Analysis of the cardiac mass (ventricle–body weight ratio) showed an ~50% reduction of hypertrophy (from 77% to 41%) in SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice (Fig. 2F). Cell size measurement by wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) staining revealed ~70% reduction of cardiomyocyte size (from 74% to 21%) in SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice (Fig. 2G and Fig. S4 B–E). There was also a dramatic reduction of interstitial fibrosis in the SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice (Fig. 2 H and I). Within 4 wk after TAC, SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice showed 23% improvement of left ventricular FS (P < 0.01; Fig. 2F and Fig. S4A).

To further determine cardiac function, we inserted a catheter from the right carotid artery retrograde into the LV to measure its pressure and volume (Fig. 2K). The in vivo catheterization showed that TAC increased the peak LV systolic pressure from 100 to 150 mmHg (Fig. 2K), with a peak pressure overload of ~50 mmHg. This LV pressure overload was comparable between the control and mutant hearts (Fig. 2L). The peripheral systolic pressure (right carotid artery) was identical to WGA and had no difference between control and mutant mice. Endothelial Brg1 deletion greatly improved the function of TAC-stressed hearts. SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice exhibited much better cardiac function 4 wk after TAC. Ejection fraction (EF) improved by 49% (P < 0.001) (Fig. 2M); preload-adjusted maximal power (plPwr) by 38% (P = 0.04) (Fig. 2N); stroke volume (SV) by 35% (P = 0.02) (Fig. 2O); and stroke work (SW) by 20% (P = 0.03) (Fig. 2P). Also, SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice had less dilated hearts, with end-systolic volume (ESV) reduced by 32% (P < 0.01) (Fig. 2Q) and end-diastolic volume (EDV) reduced by 15% (P = 0.02) and normalized (Fig. 2R). Both the LV contractility and volume measurement indicate a major improvement in systolic function of the heart. Furthermore, SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ hearts had greatly improved diastolic function. This result was evidenced by the reduction of isovolumic relaxation time constant tau by 42.3% (P = 0.01) (Fig. 2S) and end-diastolic pressure (EDP) by 21% (P = 0.03) (Fig. 2T). As a result of systolic and diastolic functional improvement, SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice showed a 33% (P = 0.02) increase of cardiac output (CO) (Fig. 2U). Consistent with the functional improvement of TAC-operated SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ mice, molecular markers Myh6 and Sarca2a were significantly increased, whereas the stress markers Myh7, Anf, and Bnp were much reduced (Fig. S4F). This result is consistent with the resistance of SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ to TAC-induced heart failure. Overall, endothelial Brg1-null mice had a 50–70% reduction of cardiac hypertrophy, minimal/absent interstitial fibrosis, and reduction of heart functional decline after TAC. These findings indicate that the Brg1 is activated by stress in cardiac endothelial cells to trigger hypertrophy.

**Endothelial Brg1 Controls Ace/Ace2 Expression and Ang I/II Metabolism.**

Given that defective angiogenesis might contribute to cardiac hypertrophy and failure (33), we examined cardiac vessel density to test whether endothelial Brg1 was essential for angiogenesis in stressed hearts. By Pecam staining, we found no difference in vascular density of control and SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ hearts treated with tamoxifen and TAC (Fig. S5 A–E).

We then tested whether endothelial Brg1 controlled changes of Ace and Ace2 in stressed hearts. By RT-qPCR of heart ventricles, we examined the expression of eNos, Etl, Adam10, Hduc7, Nrg1, Ace, and Ace2 in tamoxifen-treated control and SclCreERT2;Brg1fl/+ hearts with or without TAC. Among these genes and after TAC, the stress-induced opposite changes of Ace and Ace2 were evident.
in the control mice, with TAC increasing Ace/Ace2 ratio by 4.3-fold (Fig. 3-4), however, such Ace/Ace2 changes were eliminated in the TAC-stressed hearts of SclCreERT;Brg1fl/fl mice (Fig. 3A and Fig. S5 F and G), indicating that endothelial Brg1 is essential for Ace up-regulation and Ace2 down-regulation in stressed hearts. In contrast, the changes of other endothelial genes (eNOS, E11, Adams1, Hdac7, and Nogl) were not affected by endothelial Brg1 (Fig. S5H). These data suggest a degree of Brg1 specificity in control of the Ace/Ace2 switch. Consistently, immunostaining showed that Brg1 was required for the pathological switch of Ace and Ace2 proteins in the heart endothelium. TAC-induced Ace protein up-regulation and Ace2 down-regulation were essentially abolished in the SclCreERT;Brg1fl/fl hearts (Fig. 3 B-D). These findings were confirmed by Western blot quantitation of Ace and Ace2 in heart protein extracts from the control and mutant mice (Fig. 3 J and K). Furthermore, consistent with the Brg1-mediated control of the Ace/Ace2 ratio, the TAC-induced Ang I reduction and Ang II increase was present in the control hearts, but reversed in the mutant SclCreERT;Brg1fl/fl hearts (Fig. 3L). Also, despite the cardiac changes of angiotensin, Brg1 mutation caused no change of Ang II in the plasma (Fig. 3M). These findings are consistent with cardiac Ang I and II being primarily produced locally (11–14) and that such local angiotensin production is regulated by cardiac endothelial Brg1. Collectively, the results indicate that endothelial Brg1 responds to cardiac stress to activate Ace and repress Ace2 expression, triggering a pathological switch of Ace and Ace2 in stressed hearts.

**Brg1 Binds to the Promoters of Ace and Ace2 to Regulate Their Expression.**

To determine whether Brg1 directly regulated Ace and Ace2 expression in the stressed hearts, we first examined the binding of Brg1 to Ace and Ace2 promoters. With sequence alignment, we identified four regions (a1–a4) in the ~3-Kb upstream region of the mouse Ace promoter that are evolutionarily conserved in mouse, rat, and human (Fig. 3N). Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay using
anti-Brg1 antibody (34) showed that, in TAC-operated hearts Brg1 was highly enriched in three of a1–a4 regions (a2, a3, and a4), compared with the sham-operated hearts (Fig. 3O). Additionally, we analyzed the 5.5-kb upstream region of the mouse Ace2 promoter, which contained five highly conserved regions among different species (b1–b5 in Fig. 3P). ChIP analysis of the TAC-stressed heart ventricles showed that Brg1 was highly enriched in three of the b1–b5 regions (b2, b3, and b4), compared with the sham-operated hearts (Fig. 3Q). These ChIP studies of stressed hearts indicate that Brg1, once activated by stress, binds to evolutionarily conserved regions of Ace and Ace2 proximal promoters.

We next tested the transcriptional activity of Brg1 on Ace and Ace2 promoters. We cloned Ace upstream promoter (−2,983 to +174 bp) and Ace2 upstream promoter (−7,063 to +786 bp) into the episomal reporter pREP4 that allows promoter chromatinization in mammalian cells (24, 35). We then transfected the reporter and Brg1-expressing plasmids into mouse cardiac (coronary) endothelial cells for reporter assays (36). In these cells Brg1 caused 1.7-fold increase in Ace promoter activity and 59% reduction in Ace2 promoter activity (Fig. 3R). These reporter studies, combined with the ChIP results, indicate that Brg1 activates the Ace promoter and represses the Ace2 promoter. This finding provides a molecular explanation for the antithetical changes of Ace and Ace2 in stressed hearts.

**Endothelial FoxM1 Is Required for Stress-Induced Cardiac Hypertrophy and Pathological Ace/Ace2 Switch.** We next hypothesized that FoxM1 (a forkhead box transcription factor) was the transcription factor that worked with Brg1 to antithetically regulate Ace and Ace2 expression and contribute to cardiac hypertrophy. This hypothesis was based on the following observations. First, FoxM1 regulates the expression of genes associated with pathological hypertrophy (37, 38). Second, the FoxM1 protein contains both transactivation and repressor domains, capable of functioning as a transcription activator or repressor (25–27). Third, we found that FoxM1 had expression dynamics in fetal, normal adult, and stressed adult hearts, similar to that of Brg1. RT-qPCR and immunostaining of heart ventricles showed that FoxM1 was abundant in fetal hearts (Fig. S6A), but its expression was downregulated in normal adult hearts. In contrast, in TAC-stressed hearts, FoxM1 mRNA increased by 8.4-fold (Fig. A4), and the proteins were up-regulated in the nucleus of both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells of stressed hearts (Fig. B and C and Fig. S6 B and C). Western blot analysis of isolated cardiac endothelial cells and cardiomyocytes showed that FoxM1 protein was upregulated by 2.5- and 2.3-fold after stress (Fig. D and E and Fig. S6 D and E).

We then tested the necessity of FoxM1 activation for cardiac hypertrophy by using the FoxM1 inhibitor thiorstenone (39, 40) in TAC-stressed hearts. Within 4 wk after TAC, the control mice injected with the vehicle (DMSO) developed severe cardiac hypertrophy with increased ventricle–body weight ratio, interstitial fibrosis, and cardiac dysfunction with reduced left ventricular FS (Fig. 4 F–I). In contrast, thiorstenone-treated mice exhibited mild cardiac hypertrophy (Fig. 4F), mild interstitial fibrosis (Fig. 4 G and H), and a lesser degree of cardiac dysfunction (Fig. 4I). There was a ∼50% reduction of hypertrophy and 28% improvement of FS, comparable to the improvement observed in endothelial Brg1-null hearts (Fig. 2 F and J). In addition, Western blot analysis of heart ventricles showed that TAC-induced Ace and Ace2 switches were abolished when FoxM1 was inhibited by thiorstenone, with the Ace/Ace2 ratio reduced by 6.5-fold in stressed hearts (Fig. 4 J and K). This finding suggests that FoxM1 is required for the pathological switch of Ace and Ace2.

To test the genetic role of FoxM1 in endothelial cells, we crossed ScCreERT2 mice (31) with mice that carried floxed FoxM1 alleles (41) to generate the ScCreERT2;FoxM1fl/fl mouse line. This line enabled tamoxifen-induced deletion of FoxM1 in endothelial cells. In tamoxifen-treated, TAC-operated ScCreERT2;FoxM1fl/fl hearts, FoxM1 protein was absent in endothelial cells, but not in cardiomyocytes (Fig. 4 L and M), indicating an endothelial knockout of FoxM1. Within four weeks after TAC, ScCreERT2;FoxM1fl/fl mice displayed ∼50% reduction of cardiac mass (ventricular/body weight ratio reduced from 68% to 36%, P < 0.01) (Fig. 4N) and ∼55% reduction of cardiomyocyte size measured by WGA staining (from 69% to 31%, P < 0.01) (Fig. S6 F–J). Also, ScCreERT2;FoxM1fl/fl mice
showed ~50% improvement of left ventricular FS by echocardiography (P = 0.02) (Fig. 4O) and a dramatic reduction of stress-induced interstitial fibrosis (Fig. 4P and Q). A complete characterization of heart function by cardiac catheterization further validated that endothelial FoxM1 deletion greatly improved the function of TAC-stressed hearts (Fig. 4R). Endothelial FoxM1 deletion improved EF of the stressed hearts by 49%, SV by 32%, CO by 28%, and plPwr by 54% (Fig. S7A-D). The left ventricular ESV was reduced by 32% (P < 0.01), and end-diastolic volume was reduced by 11% (P = 0.03). The stress-induced changes of diastolic relaxation (Tau) were reduced by 34% (Fig. S7E-G), and the left ventricular filling pressure (EDP) was reduced by 38% (P < 0.01) (Fig. S7H). These findings indicate that endothelial FoxM1 disruption prevents the development of cardiac dysfunction in stressed hearts. Furthermore, the TAC-induced pathological Ace/Ace2 switch was abolished with Ace/Ace2 ratio normalized in those hearts lacking endothelial FoxM1 (Fig. 4S). These findings indicate that activation of endothelial FoxM1 expression is essential for stress-induced cardiac hypertrophy and the pathological Ace/Ace2 switch.

Fig. 5. Brg1 cooperates with FoxM1 to control Ace and Ace2 expression. (A) Coimmunoprecipitation of Brg1 with FoxM1 in heart ventricles after 7 d of TAC. (B and C) Proximity ligation assay of Brg1–FoxM1 complex in nuclei of cultured mouse cardiac endothelial cells. Original magnification: 400×. Red, proximity ligation signal; blue, DAPI, IgG control, cells treated with IgG but not primary anti-Brg1 or -FoxM1 antibodies. (D and E) ChIP-qPCR analysis of Ace (D) and Ace2 (E) promoters using antibodies against FoxM1 7 d after sham or TAC operation. (F and G) Luciferase reporter assays of the Ace (−2,983 to +174 bp) (F) and Ace2 (−7,063 to +786 bp) (G) proximal promoters (described in Fig. 3L and N) in mouse cardiac endothelial cells. sibBrg1, siRNA-mediated knockdown of Brg1; Thio, thiostrepton. P value: Student’s t test. Error bar: SEM. (H) Schematic illustration of FoxM1 repression, transactivation domains, and mutations. NRD, N-terminal repression domain; TAD, C-terminal transactivation domain. (I and J) Luciferase reporter assays of the Ace (I) and Ace2 (J) promoters with FoxM1 mutants in mouse cardiac endothelial cells. P value: Student’s t test. Error bar: SEM.

Fig. 6. BRG1 and FOXM1 activation in human cardiomyopathy. (A) qPCR analysis of BRG1, FOXM1, ACE, and ACE2 expression and ACE:ACE2 ratio in normal (n = 7) and LVH hearts (n = 4). (B and C) Coimmunostaining of BRG1 (red) and WGA (green) in normal and LVH hearts. Arrow, endothelial cell; arrowhead, myocardial cell. (Scale bars, 10 µm.) (D and E) Coimmunostaining of FOXM1 (red) and WGA (green) in heart of normal and LVH subjects. Arrow, endothelial cell; arrowhead, myocardial cell. (Scale bars, 10 µm.) (F) Correlation of BRG1 and FOXM1 mRNA level (x axis) with ACE:ACE2 mRNA ratio (y axis), n = 11, Red, nonlinear regression curve. e, the base of natural logarithm (~2.718). Equations of Boltzmann sigmoidal model are listed under the graphs. (G) Working model of how cardiac endothelial Brg1–FoxM1 complex mediates stress signals to control Ace/Ace2 and angiotensin production in the heart.
FoxM1 proteins: FoxM1 with C-terminal transactivation domain truncated (ΔTAD) and FoxM1 with N-terminal repression domain truncated (ΔNRD) (refs. 44 and 45 and Fig. 5H). Without the transactivation domain, the FoxM1–ΔTAD mutants failed to activate the Ace promoter, but maintained its repression of the Ace2 promoter (Fig. 5 I and J). Conversely, without the repressor domain, FoxM1–ΔNRD mutants failed to repress the Ace2 promoter, but preserved effects on Ace promoter activation (Fig. 5 I and J). These results indicate that FoxM1 functions through different transcriptional effector domains for the regulation of Ace and Ace2 promoters, providing a molecular explanation for the antithetical effects of the Brg1–FoxM1 complex on Ace and Ace2. Overall, the ChIP and reporter analyses, combined with the stress-induced formation of the Brg1–FoxM1 complex, suggest that Brg1 and FoxM1 cooperate to regulate the pathological switch of Ace and Ace2 in the stressed heart.

Implications for Human Cardiac Hypertrophy. To investigate whether Brg1 and FOXM1 were also activated in the endothelial cells of human hypertrophic hearts, we studied patients with left ventricular hypertrophy (LVH). The tissue samples were obtained from donor hearts that were considered unsuitable for transplantation because of the lack of timely recipients or mismatched surgical cut (Fig. 88). RT-qPCR of mRNA showed that the human hypertrophic hearts had a 2.1- and 2.6-fold increase of FOXM1 and BRG1, a 3.4-fold increase of ACE, and a 51% reduction of ACE2, with the ACE/ACE2 ratio increased by 6.7-fold (Fig. 64). Like in mice, BRG1 and FOXM1 were up-regulated in both cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells of the hypertrophic hearts (Fig. 6 B–E). Nonlinear regression analysis showed that the level of BRG1 and FOXM1 correlated strongly with the level of pathological switch of ACE/ACE2 in human hearts (Fig. 6F; $r^2 = 0.848$ and 0.995, respectively). The human tissue studies thus suggest an evolutionarily conserved mechanism underlying myopathy of mouse and human hearts.

Discussion

Controlling Ace/Ace2 expression is critical for maintaining cardiac function, given that an increase of Ace or reduction of Ace2 is sufficient to cause cardiomyopathy (20, 23, 46). We showed that the Ace and Ace2 amount in the heart is controlled primarily at the transcription level and identified an endothelial chromatin complex composed of Brg1 and FoxM1 that transcriptionally activates Ace and represses Ace2 in response to cardiac stress (Fig. 6G). This finding provides new molecular insights into endothelial–myocardial interaction under pathological conditions. The requirement of the Brg1–FoxM1 complex for pathological hypertrophy has important implications for heart failure therapy. In stressed hearts, a chemical inhibitor of FoxM1 is effective in reversing Ace/Ace2 and preventing cardiac hypertrophy and dysfunction. It is therefore pharmacologically feasible to inhibit Ace and activate Ace2 simultaneously to improve heart function. Given that there has not been an effective chemical activator of Ace2, likely because of the difficulty of generating protein activators of any kind, chemical inhibition of Brg1–FoxM1 complex reveals a new avenue for pharmacologically targeting Ace and Ace2 genes simultaneously to reverse Ace/Ace2 ratio in failing hearts. Besides Ace/Ace2 regulation, broader functions of the endothelial Brg1–FoxM1 complex will require a future genome-wide approach to determine other downstream targets of this complex in stressed hearts.

At the molecular level, Brg1 and FoxM1 interactions show a molecular mechanism for Brg1 and FoxM1 in gene regulation. The FoxM1 protein contains both a transactivating and a repressor domain for transcription regulation. How such dual transcription activity of FoxM1 is controlled remains unclear. We showed here that Brg1 is essential for FoxM1 to repress Ace and to activate Ace2. However, it remains unknown how Brg1 enables FoxM1 to use its repressor domain on one promoter (such as Ace) and its transactivating domain on another promoter (such as Ace2). Such promoter-specific activity of FoxM1 may be caused by how Brg1 rearranges the chromatin–DNA for FoxM1 to bind or by other unidentified factors in the promoter that differentially expose or enable the FoxM1 transactivating or repressor domain. Given that FoxM1 is required for embryogenesis and is a proto-oncogene up-regulated in many human cancers, including lung, breast, and colon cancers (25–27, 47), future studies to define the molecular details of the differential domain use of FoxM1 may have important implications in organ development, cardiac hypertrophy, and many other diseases.

Materials and Methods

Brg1fl/fl, FoxM1fl/fl, and SicCreERT [endothelial-SCL-Cre-ERT (31)] mice have been described (22, 48–50). Littermate CD1 male mice were purchased from Charles River (strain code 022). Animal use protocol was reviewed and approved by Indiana University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Only de-identified human tissues were used for studies. The human tissues were processed for RT-qPCR. The use of human tissues is in compliance with the regulation of Sanford-Burnham Medical Research Institute and Indiana University. Informed consent procedures were in compliance with institutional Biosafety Committee protocol (no. 1784) approved by Indiana University. Curve modeling was performed with the Levenburg–Marquardt nonlinear regression method and XLfit software.

Additional materials and procedures are provided in SI Materials and Methods.

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