Angiotensin II-induced vasodilation

Role of bradykinin, NO and endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors

W.W. Batenburg

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Angiotensin II-Induced Vasodilation

Role of bradykinin, NO and endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors

Angiotensine II-geïnduceerde vasodilatatie.

De rol van bradykinine, NO en endotheliale hyperpolariserende factoren

Proefschrift

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aan de Erasmus Universiteit Rotterdam
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Chapter 1

General introduction

Based on:

Angiotensin II type 2 receptor-mediated vasodilation. Focus on bradykinin, NO and endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor(s). *Vascular Pharmacology* 2005, 42:109-118.

Summary

Angiotensin (Ang) II type 1 (AT₁) receptors account for the majority of the cardiovascular effects of Ang II, including vasoconstriction and growth stimulation. Recent evidence, mainly obtained in animals, suggests that Ang II type 2 (AT₂) receptors counteract some or all of these effects. This review summarizes the current knowledge on the vasodilator effects induced by AT₂ receptors in humans and animals, focussing not only on the mediators of this effect, but also on the modulatory role of age, gender, and endothelial function. It is concluded that AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation most likely depends on the bradykinin – bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptor – NO – cGMP pathway, although evidence for a direct link between AT₂ and B₂ receptors is currently lacking. If indeed B₂ receptors are involved, this would imply that, in addition to NO, also the wide range of non-NO 'endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors' (EDHFs) that are released following B₂ receptor activation (e.g., K⁺, cytochrome P450 products from arachidonic acid, H₂O₂ and S-nitrososothiols), could contribute to AT₂ receptor-induced vasodilation.

Introduction

The octapeptide angiotensin (Ang) II mediates its biological actions by activating multiple intracellular pathways following its binding to membrane-bound receptors. Two Ang receptor subtypes are present in humans: Ang II type 1 (AT₁) and type 2 (AT₂) receptors. Most of the known cardiovascular effects induced by Ang II (e.g., vasoconstriction, water and salt retention, aldosterone synthesis and release, growth and remodelling) are mediated via AT₁ receptors. Recent studies emphasize the importance of the AT₂ receptor in the cardiovascular system. AT₂ receptor-mediated effects will become apparent especially during AT₁ receptor blockade, because the increased Ang II levels that accompany such blockade will predominantly result in AT₂ receptor stimulation. It has even been suggested that this mechanism underlies the beneficial effects of AT₁ receptor blockade. AT₁ receptor blockade.

AT₂ receptors and vasodilation: results from animal studies

In vitro experiments in cultured cells and isolated vessels, as well as in vivo studies in rats and mice, including studies in transgenic animals, have shown that AT_2 receptor stimulation counteracts some or all of the above-mentioned effects mediated via AT_1 receptors.^{4,13-21} The vasodilator effects have been investigated most intensely,^{4,22-26} although not all studies agree on this matter.^{27,28}

 AT_2 receptors are highly expressed during fetal development, ^{2,29,30} and re-appear in large numbers under pathological conditions. ^{26,31} This does not mean that AT_2 receptor are absent in healthy adult animals. In fact, AT_2 receptor-induced vasodilation can be observed in normal adult animals. ^{4,32,33}

AT₂ receptors are G-protein-coupled receptors,³² and their stimulation results in the activation of protein phosphatases,³⁴ thereby directly reversing the effects mediated by protein kinases in response to AT₁ receptor stimulation. Alternatively, as AT₁ and AT₂ receptors also form heterodimers,³⁵ AT₂ receptor-mediated effects may occur through a direct interaction with AT₁ receptors, possibly even in a ligand-independent manner.³⁶

Many studies support a link between AT₂ receptor stimulation and the NO-cGMP pathway, either directly or via bradykinin and subsequent B₂ receptor activation.^{4,18,22,33,37-39}

In support of a role for NO, the AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilator effects of Ang II in the rat heart *in vivo*²⁶ were reversed by the NO synthase inhibitor L-NAME, but not by the cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor indomethacin (Figure 1).

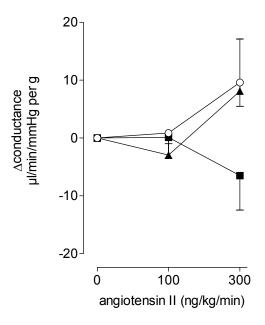


Figure 1. Effects of 10 min-intravenous infusions of angiotensin (Ang) II on myocardial conductance (=myocardial blood flow/mean arterial pressure) in rats pretreated with saline (open circles), L-NAME (10 mg/kg, followed by a continuous infusion of sodium nitroprusside to restore blood pressure pre-L-NAME level; squares) or indomethacin (triangles). Data (mean \pm SEM) are obtained from Schuijt et al., 2001a and 2001b 26,40 . Note that the increase in conductance (indicative vasodilation, and blocked PD123319²⁶ is reversed into a decrease (P=0.06)L-NAME indomethacin.

The exact location of vasodilator AT_2 receptors in the vessel wall is still a matter of debate. The most likely site, in view of the stimulation of the bradykinin- B_2 receptor-NO-cGMP pathway, appears to be the endothelium. Heterodimerisation with vasoconstrictor AT_1 receptors however would require the presence of AT_2 receptors on vascular smooth muscle cells. Thus, perhaps AT_2 receptors occur at multiple sites in the vessel wall.

AT₂ receptor-mediated effects in humans

Data on AT_2 receptor-mediated effects in humans are scarce. Gene variants of the AT_2 receptor are associated with left ventricular mass index in both young hypertensive males⁴¹ and females with hypertrophic cardiomyopathy,⁴² thereby supporting the antitrophic effect of AT_2 receptors. AT_2 receptors are upregulated in the human heart with interstitial fibrosis, and cardiac fibroblasts appear to be the major cell type for their expression.^{31,43}

Intrabrachial infusion of the AT_2 receptor antagonist PD123319 increased forearm vascular resistance in elderly women treated with the AT_1 receptor antagonist candesartan,⁴⁴ whereas Ang II tended to induce vasodilation in the forearm of healthy volunteers during AT_1 receptor blockade.⁴⁵ These data indirectly support the concept that AT_2 receptors mediate vasodilation in human forearm resistance vessels.

In large human coronary arteries (HCAs, diameter \approx 4-5 mm), obtained from subjects who had died of non-cardiovascular causes, Ang II induced contractile responses that were fully blocked by the AT₁ receptor antagonist irbesartan (Figure 2).⁴⁶ PD123319 modestly increased the contractile response to Ang II, but the difference was not significant. In contrast, in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs, diameter \approx 200-300 µm), PD123319 significantly increased the constrictor, AT₁ receptor-mediated effects of Ang II (Figure 2).⁴⁷ Moreover, Ang II relaxed preconstricted HCMAs in the presence of irbesartan, and this relaxation was prevented by PD123319. To the best of our knowledge, these data are the first to directly demonstrate AT₂ receptor-induced vasorelaxation in humans.

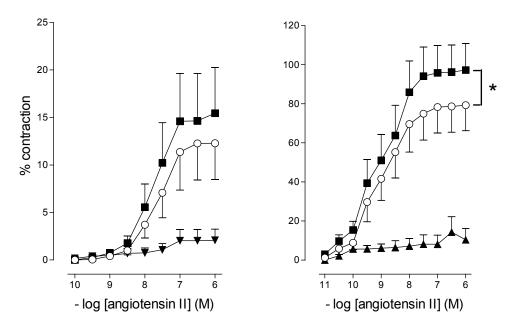


Figure 2. Contractions of large human coronary arteries (left panel) and human coronary microarteries (right panel) to angiotensin II in the absence (control, circles) or presence of irbesartan (triangles) or PD123319 (squares). Data (mean \pm SEM) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mM K $^{+}$ and have been obtained from MaassenVanDenBrink et al. (1999) and Batenburg et al. (2004b). Note the difference in scale. * P<0.05 vs. control

Radioligand binding studies and RT-PCR support the expression of AT₂ receptors in HCMAs, HCAs and human coronary endothelial cells.⁴⁷⁻⁴⁹ The presence of AT₂ receptors in HCAs, despite the non-significant effect of PD123319 on Ang II-induced vasoconstriction in these vessels, suggests either that their density in these arteries is lower, or that they mediate other (non-dilatory) effects, e.g., effects on vascular growth and remodelling.

Mediators of AT_2 receptor-mediated vasodilation in humans and the role of age, gender and endothelial function

Endothelium removal, NOS blockade and B₂ receptor blockade fully prevented the PD123319-induced potentiation of Ang II in HCMAs.⁴⁷ Thus, AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in HCMAs depends on the activation of endothelial B₂ receptors and NO, thereby fully supporting the animal data on this subject.^{7,22,37} The PD123319-induced effects correlated positively with age.⁴⁷ Since endothelial function decreases with age (Figure 3), this could point to increased AT₂ receptor expression in the face of decreased endothelial function, in agreement with the concept that AT₂ receptor density increases under pathological conditions.³¹

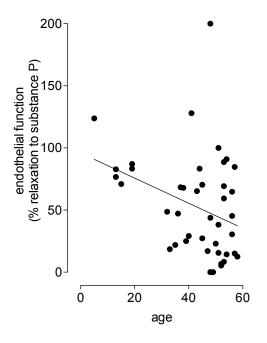


Figure 3. Correlation between age and endothelial function (defined as the substance P-induced relaxation of preconstricted vessels) of human coronary arteries (r=0.33, P<0.05). Data are obtained from MaassenVanDenBrink et al. (1999), Schuijt et al. (2003) and Tom et al. (2003).

The maximal contractile response (E_{max}) to Ang II was larger in women than in men (Figure 4), but this did not affect the effect of PD123319. There are at least two explanations for the increased E_{max} in women. Men display higher renin levels⁵⁰ and this could result, through increased Ang II levels, in AT_1 receptor downregulation. Secondly, estrogens modulate AT_1 receptor expression, which will directly affect Ang II-induced vasoconstriction.⁵¹

A multivariate regression analysis of all (n=43) Ang II concentration-response curves in HCAs, ^{46,52,53} entering age (range 5-58 years, mean±SEM 43±2.1 years), sex (21 women, 22 men), cause of death (cerebrovascular accident, trauma, hypoxia), maximal contractile response (i.e., the response to 100 mmol/L K⁺, 49±3 mN) and endothelial function (i.e., substance P-induced relaxation of preconstricted vessels, 53±6%) as variables, confirmed that Ang II efficacy was larger in women than in men (21±3.1 vs. 14±2.1% of the response to 100 mmol/L K⁺, P<0.05), independently of all the above parameters. Ang II potency did not differ between men and women (pEC₅₀ 7.8±0.1 vs. 7.7±0.1), and correlated positively with endothelial function (P<0.02) independently of age, sex, cause of death and maximal contractile response. Thus, the more dysfunctional the endothelium, the more Ang II is needed to exert a certain vasoconstrictor effect. This observation is in agreement with a counterbalancing (AT₂ receptor-mediated) effect under pathological conditions, even in vessels where the PD123319-induced effect is of modest proportion (Figure 2).

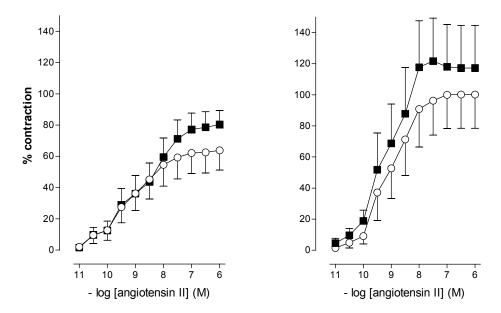


Figure 4. Contractions of human coronary microarteries obtained from men (left panel, n=12) and women (right panel, n=10) to angiotensin II in the absence (control, circles) or presence of PD123319 (squares). Data (mean \pm SEM) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mM K^{\dagger} and have been obtained from Batenburg et al. (2004b). Note that the maximum contraction is larger in women than in men (P=0.05), but that the effect of PD123319 is observed in both sexes.

Bradykinin and vasodilatation: role of NO and EDHF

The interaction between AT₂ receptors and B₂ receptor activation is not yet fully understood. Tsutsumi et al. (1999) proposed that Ang II decreases the intracellular pH in endothelial cells, which subsequently activates kininogenases that cleave bradykinin from intracellularly stored kininogens. It is difficult to conceive how this mechanism explains the AT₂ receptor-mediated dilatation of isolated vessels mounted in organ baths, since ACE inhibitors do not induce vasodilation in such vessels, thereby arguing against the presence of endogenous bradykinin in isolated vessels.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶ One possibility is that AT₂ receptors and B₂ receptors heterodimerize and interact in a bradykinin-independent manner.

B₂ receptor activation results in NO synthesis by endothelial NOS, and NO relaxes vascular smooth muscle cells through guanylyl cyclase activation and subsequent cGMP generation.^{54,57,58} Thus, if B₂ receptors are indeed involved in the relaxant effect mediated by AT₂ receptors, it is not surprising that AT₂ receptor activation results in cGMP accumulation. NOS inhibitors however do not completely block bradykinin-induced

vasorelaxation, suggesting the existence of either NO-storage sites^{59,60} or a non-NO 'endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor' (EDHF).⁶¹

EDHF-mediated responses in different arteries have been linked to K⁺, cytochrome-P450 products from arachidonic acid (epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs), in particular 5,6-EET, 11,12-EET and 14,15-EET), prostacyclin and H₂O₂.⁶²⁻⁶⁷ The identity of EDHF and its contribution to overall relaxation appear to differ between species, between vascular beds and between vessels of different sizes.⁶⁸ In general, de novo synthesized NO is of greater importance in large arteries than in microarteries (Figure 5).

Busse et al.⁶¹ recently summarized all currently available data on EDHF and proposed that EDHF-mediated relaxation depends on the activation of endothelial intermediate-and small-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels (IK_{Ca}, SK_{Ca}).^{69,70} Such activation results in the release of K⁺ into the myoendothelial space, which subsequently induces smooth muscle hyperpolarization by activating inwardly rectifying K⁺ channel (K_{IR}) channels and/or Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase (Figure 6). According to this concept, EETs regulate endothelial hyperpolarization as well as the spread of this hyperpolarization to the adjacent smooth muscle cells through myoendothelial gap junctions. In addition, EETs directly activate large-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels (BK_{Ca}) on smooth muscle cells.⁷¹ With regard to the latter, it is important to note that NO itself is capable of inducing hyperpolarization via activation of Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels in vascular smooth muscle.⁷² Interestingly, AT₂ receptor-induced relaxation of rat mesenteric microvessels has also been reported to depend on opening of BK_{Ca} channels.²⁴

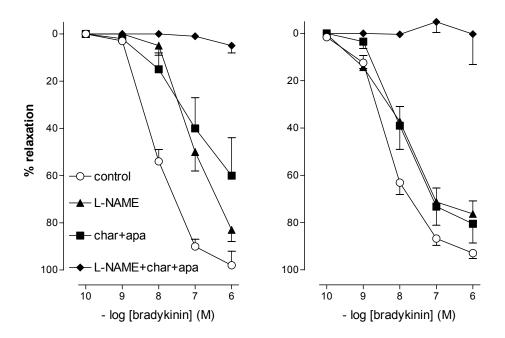


Figure 5. Relaxations of large porcine coronary arteries (left panel) and porcine coronary microarteries (right panel), following preconstriction with prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$ or U46619, to bradykinin in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μ M L-NAME and/or 100 nM charybdotoxin (char) + 100 nM apamin (apa). Data (mean \pm SEM) are expressed as a percentage of preconstriction and have been obtained from Danser et al. (2000) and Batenburg et al. (2004c). Note that the rightward shift induced by L-NAME is much larger in large coronary arteries, supporting a more important role for NO in these arteries.

Data obtained in human and porcine coronary microarteries fully agree with the unifying EDHF concept proposed by Busse et al..^{57,58} Bradykinin-induced relaxation of these vessels was found to depend on 1) endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, and 2) the activation of guanylyl cyclase, K_{IR} channels and Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase. Activation of Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels occurred by a factor other than NO. In HCMAs, this factor was not a cytochrome P450 epoxygenase product or H₂O₂. Since NO scavengers blocked bradykinin-induced relaxations of coronary arteries to a greater degree than NOS inhibitors, ^{54,58,73} whereas increasing the concentration of the NOS inhibitor did not yield additional blocking effects, ^{58,73} one possibility is that this factor is a NO-containing factor from a source that does not depend on the acute conversion of L-arginine by NOS.

NO-containing factors are thought to mediate light-induced photorelaxation of vascular smooth muscle cells.^{43,74} Nitrosothiol-depleting agents reduce photorelaxation responses,⁷⁴ and *S*-nitrosothiols have therefore been proposed to mediate this phenomenon.

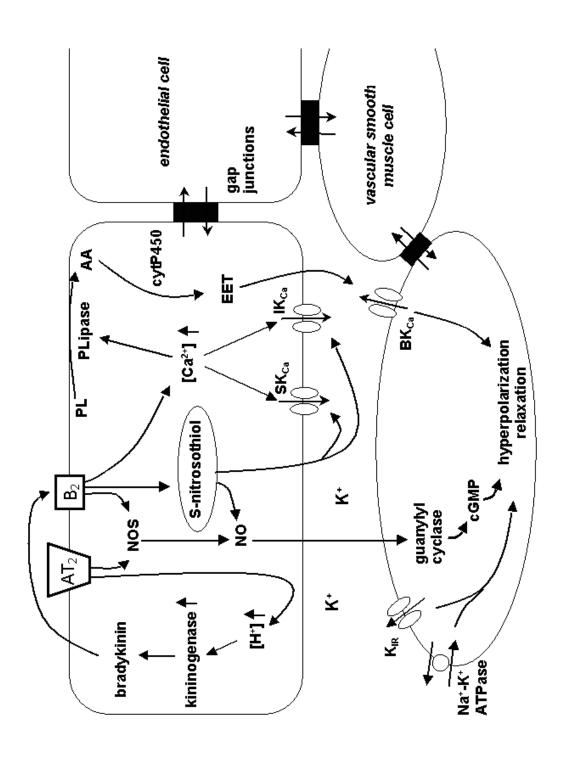


Figure 6. Unifying scheme linking AT₂ receptors to bradykinin, B₂ receptors, NO and the EDHF pathway. Modified according to Busse et al. (2002). AA, arachidonic acid; BK_{Ca}, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca}, Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels of large, intermediate and small conductance; EET, epoxyeicosatrienoic acid; K_{IR}, inwardly rectifying K⁺ channel; NOS, NO synthase; PL, phospolipase. See text for explanation.

S-nitrosothiols induce relaxation not only through their decomposition to NO,⁷⁵ but also by activating stereoselective recognition sites.⁷⁶ Recently, the cysteine residues within the α subunit of the BK_{Ca} channel were identified as a *S*-nitrosothiol binding site.⁷⁷ In support of the concept that *S*-nitrosothiols mediate bradykinin-induced, EDHF-dependent relaxations, the nitrosothiol-depleting agent p-hydroxymercurobenzoic acid reduced the relaxant effects of bradykinin in porcine coronary arteries.⁷⁸ Furthermore, the *S*-nitrosothiol L-*S*-nitrosocysteine activated endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels (Figure 7) and hyperpolarized smooth muscle cells.⁵⁸

The effect of NO blockade on bradykinin-induced relaxation of HCMAs was larger in men than in women (Figure 8). This suggests that the contribution of EDHF is larger in women. Similar observations were made in rat arteries, where it was simultaneously demonstrated that estrogens directly upregulate the EDHF pathway, without altering NOS expression.^{79,80} The reduced efficacy of Ang II in coronary arteries of men compared to women (Figure 4) may also relate to this phenomenon.

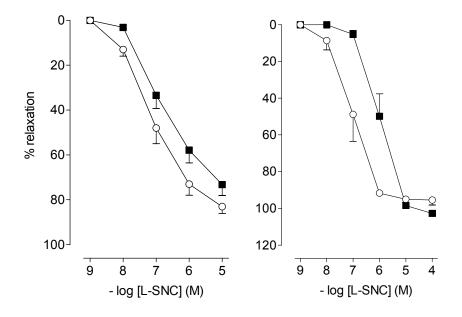


Figure 7. Relaxations of large porcine coronary arteries (left panel) and porcine coronary microarteries (right panel), following preconstriction with U46619, to the S-nitrosothiol L-S-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC) in the absence (control, circles) or presence of 100 nM charybdotoxin + 100 nM apamin (squares). Data (mean \pm SEM) are expressed as a percentage of preconstriction and have been obtained from Batenburg et al. (2004d, c).

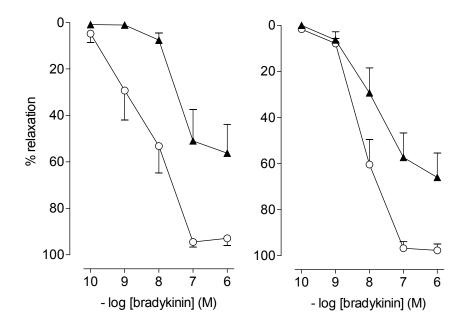


Figure 8. Relaxations of human coronary microarteries, following preconstriction with U46619, to bradykinin in men (left panel, n=8) and women (right panel, n=12) in the presence (control, circles) or absence of NO (triangles). Data (mean \pm SEM) are expressed as a percentage of preconstriction and have been obtained from Batenburg et al. (2004a). Note that the rightward shift induced by NO removal (with either L-NAME or hydroxocobalamin) is larger in men (P=0.003) than in women (P=0.01).

Aim of this thesis

The release of paracrine factors from endothelial cells is a critical determinant of vascular tone. Endothelium-dependent vasodilators such as acetylcholine and bradykinin stimulate endothelial cells to release the vasodilators NO and/or endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF). The relative contribution of each of these mediators to endothelium-dependent vasodilation is related to vessel size: NO-mediated responses predominate in conduit arteries, whereas EDHF is more prominent in resistance vessels. The latter vessels, with a diameter $<400~\mu m$, are the main contributors to peripheral vascular resistance.

Animal studies have recently shown that angiotensin (Ang) II, in addition to being a potent vasoconstrictor, is also capable of causing vasorelaxation, most likely in an endothelium-dependent manner (involving both bradykinin and NO).⁸¹ Consequently, the net effect of Ang II depends on the ratio of the Ang II receptors mediating constriction (Ang II type 1, AT₁) and relaxation (Ang II type 2, AT₂). Possibly, these receptors

interact as a consequence of heterodimerization,³⁵ similar to the interaction that has been reported previously between AT_1 receptors and other vasoconstrictor receptors, e.g., endothelin-1 receptors⁸² and α_1 -adrenoceptors.⁸³

It was the aim of the current thesis to investigate Ang II-dependent vasodilatation in humans, focussing in particular on the AT_2 receptor – bradykinin – NO/EDHF pathway (Chapter 2). We also tried to obtain more detailed information on the nature of EDHF, by studying bradykinin-induced relaxation during NO synthase (NOS) blockade in both human and porcine coronary (micro-)arteries (Chapters 3-5). Finally, we investigated the (heterodimeric) interaction between AT_1 and α_1 -adrenoceptors in human microarteries, in order to obtain a better understanding of the mechanism of action of the Ang II-inhibiting properties of the non-selective β - and α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist carvedilol (Chapter 6). All human studies were performed in coronary microarteries (diameter <500 μ m) obtained from heart valve donors, and mounted in Mulvany myographs. The porcine vessels that were used in this thesis were either large coronary arteries or coronary microarteries. All studies were complemented by simultaneous biochemical and molecular-biological measurements in vascular segments, in order to determine the contributing second messengers and receptor subtypes.

Chapter 2

Angiotensin II type 2 receptor-mediated vasodilation in human coronary microarteries

Circulation 2004; 109: 2296-2301

Summary

Angiotensin (Ang) II type 2 (AT₂) receptor stimulation results in coronary vasodilation in the rat heart. In contrast, AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation could not be observed in large human coronary arteries. Here we studied Ang II-induced vasodilation of human coronary microarteries (HCMAs). HCMAs (diameter 160-500 µm) were obtained from 49 heart valve donors (age 3-65 years) and mounted in Mulvany myographs. Ang II constricted HCMAs in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀ 8.6±0.2; maximal effect (E_{max}) 79±13 % of the contraction to 100 mmol/L K⁺). The Ang II type 1 receptor antagonist irbesartan prevented this vasoconstriction, whereas the AT₂ receptor antagonist PD123319 increased E_{max} to 97±14% (P<0.05). The increase in E_{max} was larger in older donors (correlation ΔE_{max} vs. age r=0.47, P<0.05). The PD123319-induced potentiation was not observed in the presence of the NO synthase inhibitor L-NAME, the bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptor antagonist Hoe140 or after removal of the endothelium. Ang II relaxed U46619-preconstricted HCMAs in the presence of irbesartan by maximally 48±16%, and PD123319 prevented this relaxation. Finally, radioligand binding studies and RT-PCR confirmed the expression of AT₂ receptors in HCMAs. In conclusion, AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in the human heart appears to be limited to coronary microarteries, and is mediated via B2 receptors and NO. Most likely, AT2 receptors are located on endothelial cells and their contribution increases with age.

Introduction

Angiotensin (Ang) II type 2 (AT₂) receptors are believed to mediate vasodilation, although data to support this concept in humans are not available. Neither in vitro studies investigating Ang II-induced vasoconstriction in isolated human coronary arteries⁴⁶ and saphenous veins,⁸⁴ nor in vivo studies investigating Ang II-induced vasoconstriction in the forearm vascular bed of healthy volunteers,^{45,85} provided evidence for AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation. In contrast, both in vitro and in vivo studies in rats and mice support this notion.^{5,20,24,26,86,87} One explanation for the discrepancy between the lack of AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in human coronary arteries,⁴⁶ and the occurrence of such dilation in the rat coronary vascular bed,²⁶ is that AT₂ receptors are located in coronary microarteries only. In the present study we therefore investigated AT₂ receptor-induced vasodilation in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs) mounted in Mulvany myographs. We also investigated whether endothelial NO and/or bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptors mediate such vasodilation in HCMAs, since studies in animals support this possibility.^{5,22,33,88} Finally, we verified, both through radioligand binding studies and RT-PCR, whether HCMAs express AT₂ receptors.

Methods

Human tissue collection

HCMAs were obtained from 49 heart-beating organ donors (22 men, 27 women, age 3-65 years, mean 45 years), who died of non-cardiac causes (3 cerebrovascular accident, 9 head trauma, 21 subarachnoid bleeding, 4 post-anoxic encephalopathy, 12 intracranial bleeding) <24 hours before the heart was taken to the laboratory. Hearts were provided by the Rotterdam Heart Valve Bank after removal of the heart valves for transplantation purposes. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Erasmus MC. The hearts were stored in an ice-cold sterile organ-protecting solution after circulatory arrest. After arrival at the laboratory, a tertiary branch of the left anterior descending coronary artery (diameter 160-500 μm, mean 360 μm) was removed and stored overnight in a cold (4°C), oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution of the following composition (mmol/L):

NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, CaCl₂ 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25 and glucose 8.3; pH 7.4. In addition, HCMAs, right epicardial coronary arteries and/or pieces of left ventricular tissue from 29 hearts were frozen in liquid nitrogen for mRNA determinations or radioligand binding studies.

Myograph studies

Following overnight storage, HCMAs were cut into segments of approximately 2 mm length and mounted in a Mulvany myograph (J.P. Trading) with separated 6-mL organ baths containing oxygenated Krebs at 37°C. The Krebs was continuously aerated with 95% O₂ and 5% CO₂, and tissue responses were measured as changes in isometric force, using a Harvard isometric transducer. Following a 30-min stabilization period, the optimal internal diameter was set to a tension equivalent to 0.9 times the estimated diameter at 100 mm Hg effective transmural pressure as described by Mulvany and Halpern.89 In some vessels, the endothelium was removed by gently rubbing a hair through the lumen of the mounted artery. Endothelial integrity or removal was verified by observing relaxation (or lack thereof) to 10 nmol/L substance P after preconstriction with 10 nmol/L of the thromboxane A₂ (TxA₂) analogue U46619 (Sigma). Subsequently, to determine the maximum contractile response, the tissue was exposed to 100 mmol/L KCl. The segments were then allowed to equilibrate in fresh organ bath fluid for 30 min. Next, segments were pre-incubated for 30 min with the Ang II type 1 (AT₁) receptor antagonist irbesartan (1 µmol/L, a gift of Bristol-Myers Squibb), 46 the AT₂ antagonist PD123319 (1 μmol/L, a gift of Parke-Davis), 13 the B₂ receptor antagonist Hoe140 (1 μmol/L, a gift of Hoechst)⁵⁴ and/or L-NAME (100 µmol/L, Sigma). Thereafter, concentration-response curves (CRCs) were constructed to Ang II, either directly or following preconstriction with 10 nmol/L U46619 to 60% of the maximum contractile response. A higher concentration of U46619 (30 nmol/L) was required in segments that had been preincubated with irbesartan, because irbesartan antagonizes TxA2 receptors. 90 The cyclooxygenase inhibitor indomethacin (5 µmol/L) was present during the entire experiment to suppress spontaneously occurring contractions and relaxations.

Cyclic GMP measurement

To study Ang II-induced cGMP production, vessel segments (5-10 mg) were exposed to 1 μ mol/L Ang II in 10 mL oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution for 1 min at 37°C in the presence of the phosphodiesterase inhibitor 3-isobutyl-1-methyl-xanthine (100 μ mol/L), following a 30-min preincubation without (control) or with 1 μ mol/L PD123319 or irbesartan. Tissues were then frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. To determine cGMP, frozen tissues were homogenized in 0.5 mL 0.1 mol/L HCl using a stainless steel ultraturrax (Polytron). Homogenates were centrifuged at 3300 g, and cGMP was measured in 300 μ L supernatant by ELISA following acetylation (R&D Systems). Results are expressed as pmol/mg protein. The lower limit of detection was 0.1 pmol/mg protein.

Radioligand binding studies

Sarcolemmal membrane fractions were prepared from HCMAs and porcine adrenal glands as described before.⁹¹ The adrenals were obtained from three 2-3 month old pigs that had been used in in-vivo experiments investigating the effects of calcitonin generelated peptide receptor (ant)agonists.⁹² ¹²⁵I-Ang II, prepared with the chloramine T-method (specific activity 2200 Ci/mmol),⁹³ was used as the radioligand. Assays were run for 60 minutes at 18°C in 30 μL Tris buffer (50 mmol/L), 40 μL membrane fraction (containing 100 μg protein, determined by the Bradford assay as described before¹³) and 30 μL radioligand (final volume: 100 μL). Non-specific binding, AT₁ receptor-specific binding and AT₂ receptor-specific binding were determined by repeating the experiment in the presence of Ang II (at a concentration 100 times the concentration of ¹²⁵I-Ang II), irbesartan (0.3 pmol/L-0.3 mmol/L) and PD123319 (0.3 pmol/L-0.3 mmol/L), respectively. Incubation was stopped by adding 4 mL ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4. Samples were then filtered through a Whatman GF/B filter. Filters were washed twice with 4 mL ice-cold PBS, and filter-bound radioactivity was measured in a gamma-counter.

AT₁ and AT₂ receptor mRNA

Total RNA was isolated from HCMAs, right epicardial coronary arteries and left ventricular tissue using the Trizol reagent (Gibco-BRL). RT-PCR was performed according to standard procedures and 35 cycles of amplification, using primer sequences as follows: AT₁ receptor sense 5'-CTT TTC CTG GAT TCC CCA C-3', and antisense 5'-CTT CTT GGT GGA TGA GCT TAC-3', AT₂ receptor sense 5'-GTG ACC AAG TCC TGA AGA TG-3' and antisense 5'-CAC AAA GGT CTC CAT TTC TC-3', resulting in amplification products of 304 and 335 bp, respectively. Positive and negative controls were mRNAs extracted from human liver, a human breast carcinoma cell line (MCF7) and a human colon carcinoma cell line (SW480).⁹⁴ The absence of non-specific amplification was verified by running RT-PCR and PCR amplifications without adding tissue extracts. As controls for RNA quality, amplification reactions were performed using pairs of primers specific for glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH).⁹⁵ Amplified transcripts were analyzed on 2% agarose gels.

Data analysis

Data are given as mean \pm SEM. Contractile or relaxant responses are expressed as a percentage of the contraction to 100 mmol/L K⁺ or U46619. CRCs were analyzed as described to obtain pEC₅₀ (- 10 logEC₅₀) values. Gata Statistical analysis was by paired t-test, once one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc evaluation, had revealed that differences existed between groups. P<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Myograph studies

Ang II constricted HCMAs in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀ 8.6±0.2, n=22) with a maximal response (E_{max}) of 79±13% (Figure 1). Irbesartan nearly completely blocked the Ang II-mediated constriction. PD123319 increased E_{max} to 97±14% (P<0.05). PD123319 did not affect the potency of Ang II (pEC₅₀=8.7±0.2, n=22), although in 11 experiments a leftward shift of the Ang II CRC (i.e., an increase in the pEC₅₀ value of 0.2 or more) was observed in the presence of the AT₂ receptor antagonist.

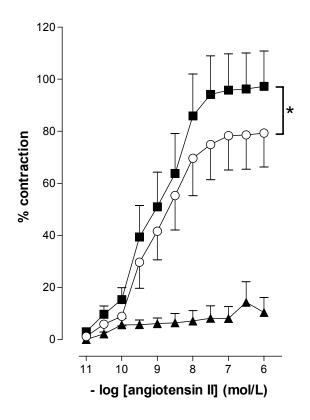


Figure 1. Contractions of HCMAs to Ang II in the absence (control; circles) or presence of irbesartan (triangles) or PD123319 (squares). Contractions (mean±SEM; n=5-22) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mmol/L K⁺. * P<0.05 vs control.

The PD123319-dependent increase in E_{max} was larger in older donors (r=0.47, P<0.05; Figure 2). The increase in E_{max} was largest in the 11 experiments where PD123319 induced a leftward shift of the Ang II CRC: +34±10% vs. +2.2±8.4% in the experiments where PD123319 induced either no (i.e., ΔpEC_{50} <0.2; n=7) or a rightward (i.e., pEC_{50} decreased by 0.2 or more; n=4) shift of the Ang II CRC.

L-NAME increased baseline contraction to 20-30% of the maximum response to 100 mmol/L K⁺ and prevented the PD123319-induced potentiation of Ang II (Figure 3). Potentiation was also not observed following removal of the endothelium and in the presence of Hoe140 (Figure 3).

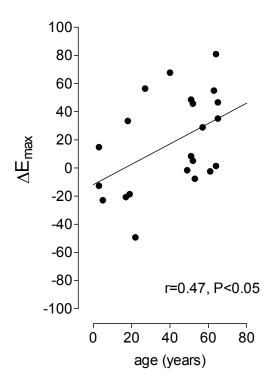


Figure 2. Correlation between donor age and the change in E_{max} (ΔE_{max}) of the Ang II CRC observed following the addition of PD123319 to the organ bath (n=22).

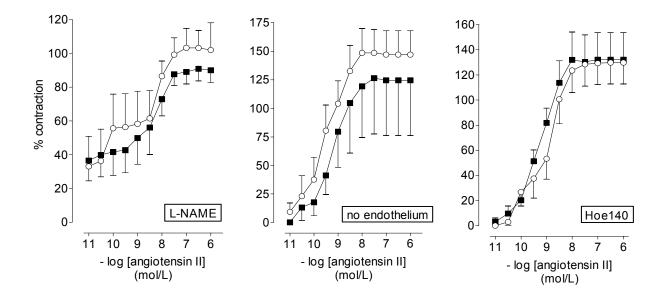


Figure 3. Contractions of HCMAs to Ang II in the absence (circles) or presence of PD123319 (squares) following pretreatment with L-NAME, endothelium removal, or pretreatment with Hoe140. Contractions (mean \pm SEM; n=3-7) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mmol/L K^{+} .

Following preconstriction with U46619 (to approximately 60% of the maximum response to 100 mmol/L K⁺), Ang II caused a marginal further increase (P=NS) in contraction (Figure 4). This response was unaltered by PD123319 and reversed into a relaxation (by maximally 49±16%) in the presence of irbesartan. PD123319 fully prevented the latter relaxation. Without Ang II, U46619-induced preconstrictions in the presence of irbesartan remained stable for at least 60 min (data not shown). Thus, the Ang II-induced relaxations under these conditions cannot be attributed to TxA₂ receptor antagonism by irbesartan.⁹⁰

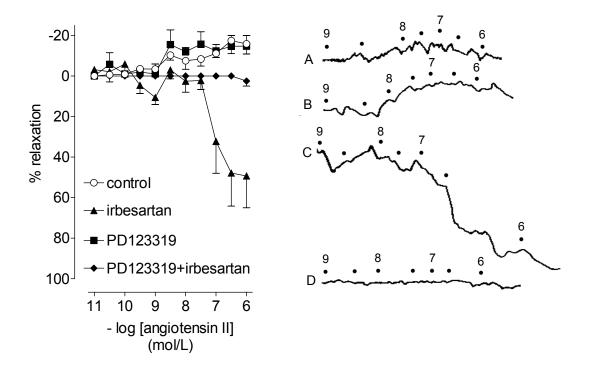


Figure 4. Left, response of U46619-preconstricted HCMAs to Ang II in the absence or presence of irbesartan, PD123319 or irbesartan + PD123319. Data (mean \pm SEM; n=2-5) are expressed as a percentage of the response to U46619. Right, original tracing of an experiment in which an U46619-preconstricted HCMA was exposed to Ang II under control conditions (A), or following pre-incubation with PD123319 (B), irbesartan (C), or irbesartan + PD123319 (D). Ang II concentrations were increased with half log steps, starting at 1 nmol/L (9) and ending at 1 μ mol/L (6).

Cyclic GMP measurement

Ang II did not significantly increase microvascular cGMP (Figure 5; n=8, P=0.11 vs. control), neither alone, nor in the presence of PD123319 or irbesartan.

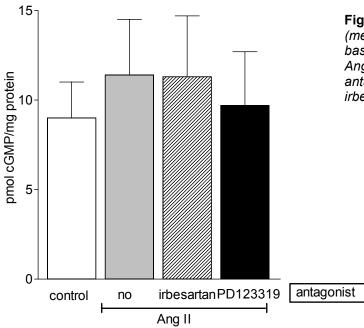


Figure 5. Cyclic GMP levels (mean±SEM; n=8) in HCMAs at baseline and after a 1-min exposure to Ang II under control conditions (no antagonist) and in the presence of irbesartan or PD123319.

Radioligand binding studies

The total amount of protein in the HCMA sarcolemmal membrane fraction (\approx 500 µg), prepared from vessel segments of 19 subjects, was too small to study a wide range of conditions. We therefore used sarcolemmal membrane fractions prepared from 6 porcine adrenal glands to obtain the most optimal conditions to demonstrate the presence of AT₂ receptors in HCMAs. Following a 1-hour incubation with ¹²⁵I-Ang II (final concentration in the incubation mixture: 0.5 nmol/L), total and non-specific ¹²⁵I-Ang II binding to porcine adrenal membranes amounted to 4660 ± 150 and 2100 ± 80 cpm/100 µg protein (n=8), respectively. PD123319 and irbesartan abolished specific binding in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 6, panel A). The inhibitor concentration required to reduce specific binding by 50% (IC₅₀) was 50 ± 1 nmol/L for PD123319. This value mimics the IC₅₀ of PD123319 obtained in previous experiments with cells expressing AT₂ receptors only. ⁹⁶ In contrast, the IC₅₀

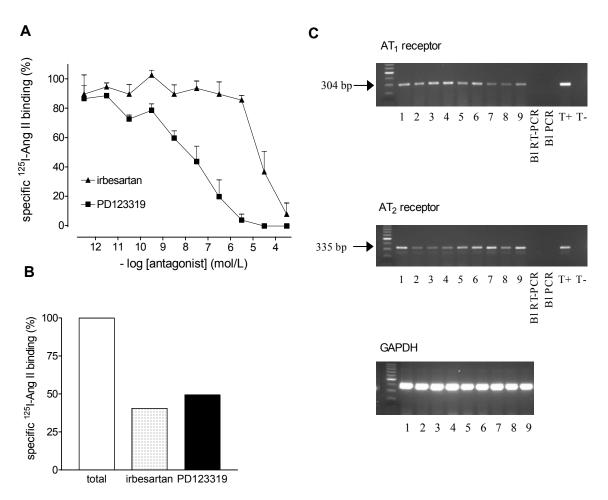


Figure 6. Panels A and B. Displacement of specifically bound 125 I-Ang II by irbesartan or PD123319 in sarcolemmal membrane fractions prepared from 6 porcine adrenal glands (A) and 19 HCMAs (B). Panel C. Results from the RT-PCR amplification of AT₁ receptor mRNA (304 bp), AT₂ receptor mRNA (335 bp), and GAPDH mRNA in HCMAs (lanes 1-3), large epicardial human coronary arteries (lanes 4-6) and human left ventricular tissue (lanes 7-9) obtained from 5 hearts. Positive controls (T+) for AT₁ - and AT₂ receptor mRNA are extracts of human liver and human breast carcinoma cells (MCF7), respectively. Negative controls (T-) for AT₁ - and AT₂ receptor mRNA are extracts of human breast carcinoma cells (MCF7) and colon carcinoma cells (SW480), respectively. BI RT-PCR and BI PCR represent the results of RT-PCR or PCR amplifications performed in the absence of added tissue extracts (to exclude contamination).

of irbesartan in the present study ($20\pm1~\mu\text{mol/L}$) exceeded its IC₅₀ in cells exclusively expressing AT₁ receptors by three orders of magnitude.⁹⁷ Taken together, these data suggest that our porcine adrenal membrane fraction contained predominantly AT₂ receptors. A PD123319 concentration of 10 μ mol/L is required to fully block ¹²⁵I-Ang II binding to these receptors.

Based on these findings, as well as on previous studies investigating irbesartan concentrations that selectively block AT_1 receptors, 97,98 we incubated HCMA membranes with 0.5 nmol/L 125 I-Ang II, in the absence or presence of 50 nmol/L Ang II, 10 μ mol/L PD123319, or 1 μ mol/L irbesartan. Ang II reduced 125 I-Ang II binding from 1813 to 1175 cpm/100 μ g protein. PD123319 and irbesartan both reduced specific binding by approximately 50%, thereby indicating that HCMAs contain AT_1 as well as AT_2 receptors (Figure 6, panel B).

AT₁ and AT₂ receptor mRNA

RT-PCR revealed expression of AT₁ and AT₂ receptors in HCMAs, large epicardial coronary arteries and/or left ventricular tissue from 5 hearts (Figure 6, panel C). Similar data were obtained in an additional HCMAs from 7 hearts (data not shown).

Discussion

This study is the first to show AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in human blood vessels. Evidence for this effect was obtained in two ways. First, the AT₂ receptor antagonist PD123319, at a concentration that has been reported to result in complete blockade of AT₂ receptor-mediated effects,¹³ increased the maximal contractile response to Ang II, thereby indirectly demonstrating that AT₂ receptor stimulation counteracts AT₁ receptor-mediated vasoconstriction. Second, during AT₁ receptor blockade with irbesartan (allowing selective AT₂ receptor stimulation) Ang II relaxed preconstricted HCMAs and this was prevented by PD123319. Such vasodilation was not observed in quiescent HCMAs in the presence of irbesartan, probably because vasodilator responses are more difficult to detect without preconstriction. Based on these data, it is clear that, at least in HCMAs, the net contractile effect of Ang II is determined by the magnitude of the response mediated via AT₁ (contraction) and AT₂ (relaxation) receptors.

In addition to its effect on E_{max} , PD123319 caused a leftward shift of the Ang II CRC in $\approx 50\%$ of the experiments. Such increased potency of Ang II in the presence of PD123319 is not due to an effect of the AT_2 receptor antagonist on Ang II metabolism.^{53,98} It could point to more efficient AT_1 receptor signal transduction during AT_2 receptor blockade.

Furthermore, a recent study has suggested that AT_1 and AT_2 receptors form heterodimers.³⁵ An alternative explanation for the increased potency might therefore be that in some donors AT_1 receptor- AT_2 receptor heterodimers exist which bind Ang II with higher affinity during AT_2 receptor blockade. The underlying assumption for this explanation is however that AT_1 and AT_2 receptors in these donors are located on the same cell.

The increase in E_{max} was larger in older donors, suggesting that the contribution of AT_2 receptors increases with age. Although AT_2 receptor density increases under pathological conditions, see the donors in the present study died of non-cardiac causes and did not use cardiovascular medication. Thus, it is unlikely that the increased E_{max} during AT_2 receptor blockade in older donors simply reflects the occurrence of cardiovascular disorders in these subjects. It might reflect a general decrease of vascular function with age.

In an earlier study in large epicardial human coronary arteries we were unable to detect AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation,⁴⁶ whereas vasodilation did occur in the rat coronary vascular bed.²⁶ The present study solves this discrepancy, by demonstrating that AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation is limited to coronary microarteries. Importantly, AT₂ receptor expression in HCMAs could be demonstrated by both RT-PCR and radioligand binding experiments. Unexpectedly, AT₂ receptor mRNA was also detected by RT-PCR in large coronary arteries. This would imply that either the AT₂ receptor density in large coronary arteries is too low to allow detection of vasodilation in the organ bath setup, or that AT₂ receptors in these arteries mediate other (non-dilatory) effects, e.g., effects on vascular growth and remodeling.^{99,100} AT₂ receptor expression has been demonstrated before in the human myocardium, including the coronary vascular bed.^{31,48}

The mechanism underlying AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in HCMAs is currently unknown. AT₂ receptors themselves may act as AT₁ receptor antagonists, independently of Ang II.³⁵ This would require their occurrence on the same cell, as discussed above. Furthermore, B₂ receptors, NO, cGMP, Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels and/or phosphatases have been implicated in AT₂ receptor-induced effects.^{5,18,22,24,33,87,88,101} Our data with L-NAME and Hoe140 in HCMAs support a role for B₂ receptors and NO. Since the vasodilator effects in HCMAs were observed in the presence of indomethacin,

prostaglandins do not appear to be involved. The lack of effect of PD123319 in deendothelialized segments confirms the contribution of endothelial B_2 receptor-induced NO release, and simultaneously suggests that AT_2 receptors in HCMAs are located on endothelial cells. In agreement with this concept, cultured human coronary artery endothelial cells do express AT_2 receptors.⁴⁹

Taken together, the most likely scenario to explain our results is that Ang II stimulates endothelial AT_2 receptors in HCMAs. This results in endothelial B_2 receptor activation and NO release. NO subsequently activates guanylyl cyclase in vascular smooth muscle cells, thereby counteracting the contractile responses mediated via the AT_1 receptors on these cells. Guanylyl cyclase generates cGMP, and although the Ang II-induced (AT_2 receptor-mediated) increase in the microvascular cGMP content in the present study was not significant, the tendency of PD123319 (but not irbesartan) to block this increase mimics similar observations in rat aorta and rat uterine arteries. The lack of significance in the present experiments most likely relates to the modest ($\approx 30\%$) increase in cGMP content induced by Ang II as compared to other agonists. For instance, in our experimental setup, 1 μ mol/L bradykinin increased microvascular cGMP 7±2 fold (n=4, data not shown).

In conclusion, AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation occurs in the coronary microcirculation of non-diseased human hearts in an endothelium-dependent manner, and is mediated via B₂ receptors and NO. This finding could be of clinical relevance, not only because cardiac AT₂ receptors are upregulated under pathological conditions,³¹ but also because animal studies have shown that the beneficial effects of AT₁ receptor antagonists, in contrast to those of ACE inhibitors, depend on AT₂ receptor stimulation.^{11,12}

Chapter 3

Mediators of bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation in human coronary microarteries

Summary

To investigate the mediators of bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs), HCMAs (diameter ≈300 µm), obtained from 42 heart valve donors (20 men, 22 women, age 3-65 years, mean 46 years) were mounted in Mulvany myographs. In the presence of the cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor indomethacin, bradykinin relaxed preconstricted HCMAs (pEC₅₀ 8.2±0.1). L-NAME and ODQ (inhibitors of NO synthase and guanylyl cyclase, respectively), and the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin, alone or in combination, shifted the bradykinin concentration-response curve (CRC) to the right. Removal of H₂O₂ (with catalase), inhibition of cytochrome P450 epoxygenase (with sulfaphenazole or clotrimazole) or gap junctions (with 18α-glycyrrhetinic acid or carbenoxolone), and blockade of large- (BK_{Ca}) and small-conductance (SK_{Ca}) Ca^{2+} dependent K⁺-channels (with iberiotoxin and apamin), either alone or on top of hydroxocobalamin, did not affect bradykinin. In contrast, complete blockade of bradykinin-induced relaxation was obtained when combining the non-selective large- and intermediate-conductance (IK_{Ca}) Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺-channel blocker charybdotoxin and apamin with hydroxocobalamin, whereas charybdotoxin + apamin alone were without effect. Inhibition of inwardly rectifying K⁺ channels (K_{IR}) and Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase (with BaCl₂ and ouabain, respectively) shifted the bradykinin CRC 10-fold to the right, but did not exert an additional effect on top of hydroxocobalamin. In conclusion, bradykinininduced relaxation in HCMAs depends on 1) the activation of guanylyl cyclase, K_{IR}, and Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase by NO, and 2) IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels. The latter are activated by a factor other than NO. This factor is not a cytochrome P450 epoxygenase product or H₂O₂, nor does it depend on gap junctions or BK_{Ca} .

Introduction

Endothelium-dependent relaxation induced by bradykinin cannot fully be attributed to the release of nitric oxide (NO). In resistance-sized vessels a large proportion of endothelium-derived relaxation involves the release of endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors (EDHFs).⁶⁸ Putative EDHF candidates are prostacyclin, S-nitrosothiols, K⁺, cytochrome-P450 products of arachidonic acid (epoxyeicosatrienoic acids, EETs) and hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂),^{54,63-65,67,71,102}, and EDHF-dependent responses have been reported to involve large-, intermediate- and/or small-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels (BK_{Ca}, IK_{Ca}, SK_{Ca}), inwardly rectifying K⁺ (K_{IR}) channels, Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase and gap junctions.^{61,64,65,71,103}

Busse et al.⁶¹ recently summarized all currently available data on EDHF and proposed that EDHF-mediated relaxation (i.e., relaxation observed in the absence of NO) depends on the activation of endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels.⁶⁴ Such activation results in the release of K⁺ into the myo-endothelial space, which subsequently induces smooth muscle hyperpolarization by activating K_{IR} channels, Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase and/or BK_{Ca} channels.⁶⁴ According to this concept, EETs regulate endothelial hyperpolarization as well as the spread of this hyperpolarization to the adjacent smooth muscle cells through myo-endothelial gap junctions. In addition, EETs may directly activate BK_{Ca} channels on smooth muscle cells.⁷¹

In the present study we set out to verify the above concept in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs). Bradykinin has already been reported to hyperpolarize smooth muscle cells in human coronary arteries, ¹⁰⁴ and this hyperpolarization could not be attributed to NO.^{73,105}

Methods

Human tissue collection

HCMAs were obtained from 42 heart beating organ donors (20 men, 22 women, age 3-65 years, mean 46 years), who died of non-cardiac causes (3 cerebrovascular accident, 11 head trauma, 18 subarachnoidal bleeding, 3 post-anoxic encephalopathy, 7 intracranial

bleeding) <24 hours before the heart was taken to the laboratory. Hearts were provided by the Rotterdam Heart Valve Bank after removal of the heart valves for transplantation purposes. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Erasmus MC. The hearts were stored in an ice-cold sterile organ-protecting solution after circulatory arrest. After arrival at the laboratory, a tertiary branch of the left anterior descending coronary artery (diameter 160-600 μm, mean 380 μm) was removed and stored overnight in a cold (4°C), oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution of the following composition (mmol/L): NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, CaCl₂ 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25 and glucose 8.3; pH 7.4.

Myograph studies

Following overnight storage, HCMAs were cut into segments of approximately 2 mm length and mounted in a Mulvany myograph (J.P. Trading) with separated 6-mL organ baths containing Krebs bicarbonate solution, aerated with 95% O2 and 5% CO2, and maintained at 37 °C. Tissue responses were measured as changes in isometric force, using a Harvard isometric transducer. Following a 30-min stabilization period, the optimal internal diameter was set to a tension equivalent to 0.9 times the estimated diameter at 100 mm Hg effective transmural pressure as described by Mulvany and Halpern.⁸⁹ Endothelial integrity was verified by observing relaxation to 10 nmol/L substance P after preconstriction with 10 nmol/L of the thromboxane A2 analogue U46619. Subsequently, to determine the maximum contractile response, the tissue was exposed to 100 mmol/L KCl. The segments were then allowed to equilibrate in fresh organ bath fluid for 30 min in the absence or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: the bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptor antagonist Hoe140 (1 µmol/L), the NO synthase inhibitor L-NAME (100 µmol/L), the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin (200 μmol/L), the guanylyl cyclase inhibitor ODQ (10 μmol/L), the IK_{Ca} + BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor charybdotoxin (100 nmol/L), the SK_{Ca} channel inhibitor apamin (100 nmol/L), the BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor iberiotoxin (100 nmol/L), the inwardly rectifying K⁺ channel (K_{IR}) inhibitor BaCl₂ (30 μmol/L), the Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase inhibitor ouabain (1 mmol/L), the H₂O₂ inhibitor catalase (1000 units/ml), the cytochrome P450 epoxygenase inhibitors sulfaphenazole (10 μmol/L) and clotrimazole (50 μmol/L), or the gap junction inhibitors 18α -glycyrrhetinic acid ($10 \mu mol/L$) and carbenoxolone ($100 \mu mol/L$). Vessels were then preconstricted with U46619 (3-30 nmol/L), and concentration-response curves (CRCs) were constructed to bradykinin. The cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor indomethacin ($5 \mu mol/L$) was present during all experiments to suppress spontaneously occurring contractions and relaxations.

Cyclic GMP (cGMP) Measurement

To study bradykinin-induced cGMP production, vessel segments (5-10 mg) were exposed to 1 μmol/L bradykinin in 10 mL oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution for 1 min at 37°C in the presence of the phosphodiesterase inhibitor 3-isobutyl-1-methyl-xanthine (100 μmol/L) following a 30-min preincubation in the absence (control) or presence of ODQ or L-NAME at the above concentrations. Tissues were then frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. To determine cGMP, frozen tissues were homogenized in 0.5 mL 0.1 mol/L HCl using a stainless steel ultraturrax (Polytron). Homogenates were centrifuged at 3300 g, and cGMP was measured in 300 μL supernatant by ELISA following acetylation (R&D Systems). Results are expressed as pmol/mg protein. The lower limit of detection was 0.1 pmol/mg protein.

Data Analysis

Data are given as mean \pm SEM or median and range. Relaxant responses are expressed as a percentage of the contraction to U46619. CRCs were analyzed as described⁴⁶ to obtain pEC₅₀ (-¹⁰logEC₅₀) values. In experiments where no clear maximum effect (E_{max}) was reached, E_{max} was defined as the relaxation obtained at the highest bradykinin concentration tested (1 μ mol/L). pEC₅₀ values were not calculated when E_{max} was < 50%, and in such cases statistical analysis was performed under the assumption that pEC₅₀ equaled 6. The addition of L-NAME, ODQ, hydroxocobalamin, charybdotoxin + apamin, iberiotoxin + apamin, or ouabain + BaCl₂ increased basal tone by 20-80%. In such cases the concentration of U46619 was adjusted to obtain a preconstriction corresponding with ≈95 % of the maximal contractile response. Statistical analysis of the relaxant responses (pEC₅₀ and E_{max}) was by t-test, once one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc evaluation, had revealed that differences existed between groups. Statistical analysis of

the cGMP data was by Mann-Whitney U-test, because of non-normal distribution of the cGMP levels. P<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Role of NO and H₂O₂

Bradykinin relaxed preconstricted vessel segments in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀ 8.2±0.1, E_{max} 94±2%, n=32; Figure 1). Relaxation was fully prevented by Hoe140 (n=3, data not shown), confirming that it is mediated via B₂ receptors. ¹⁰⁶ L-NAME (n=8), ODQ (n=5) and hydroxocobalamin (n=14) shifted the bradykinin CRC to the right (pEC₅₀ 7.4±0.4, 7.8±0.1, and 7.1±0.3, respectively), although significance was reached for L-NAME (P<0.05) and hydroxocobalamin (P<0.01) only. When given on top of hydroxocobalamin, L-NAME did not induce a further rightward shift (pEC₅₀ 7.2±0.3, n=7). Both L-NAME and hydroxocobalamin reduced E_{max} (from 95±2% to 69±9% and 60±9%, respectively; P<0.02), and a similar reduction (E_{max} 73±11%; P<0.01) was observed when the two drugs were combined. ODQ did not affect E_{max} (85±8%). Catalase, either alone (pEC₅₀ 7.7±0.5, E_{max} 73±13%; n=5) or on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 6.9±0.3, E_{max} 50±12%; n=7), did not affect the bradykinin CRC.

Role of K⁺ channels

Charybdotoxin + apamin tended to decrease E_{max} (to 73±15%, P=NS vs. control, n=8; Figure 2) without affecting potency (pEC₅₀ 7.7±0.5). When given on top of hydroxocobalamin, charybdotoxin + apamin completely abolished bradykinin-induced relaxations in 6 experiments, whereas a >10-fold rightward shift was observed in 2 experiments (difference vs. hydroxocobalamin for all 8 experiments: P<0.05). Iberiotoxin + apamin did not affect the bradykinin CRC (pEC₅₀ 8.0±0.4, E_{max} 101±1%; n=5), nor did these drugs exert additional effects on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 7.1±0.4, E_{max} 62±15%; n=6). Moreover, in no experiment did these drugs, in combination with hydroxocobalamin, fully block the effects of bradykinin. Ouabain + BaCl₂ decreased E_{max} to 53±14% (n=5; P<0.05) and shifted the bradykinin CRC 10-fold to the right (pEC₅₀

7.1 \pm 0.5; P<0.05), but did not exert additional effects on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 6.4 \pm 0.4, E_{max} 26 \pm 13%; n=5).

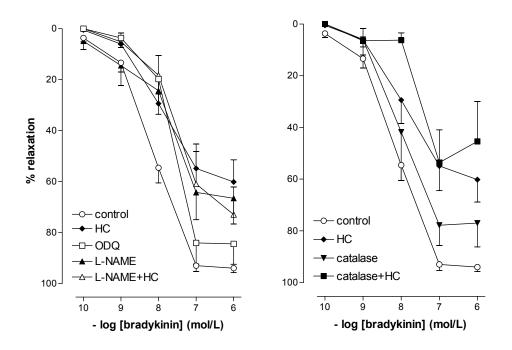


Figure 1. Relaxations of HCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μmol/L ODQ, 100 μmol/L L-NAME, 200 μmol/L hydroxocobalamin (HC) or 1000 units/mL catalase. Data (mean±SEM; n=5-32) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Role of EETs and gap junctions

Clotrimazole (n=5) and sulfaphenazole (n=7) did not affect the bradykinin CRC (pEC₅₀ 7.9±0.3 and 8.3 ± 0.2 and E_{max} 89±6% and $85\pm10\%$, respectively; Figure 3), nor did clotrimazole exert effects on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 6.7±0.6, E_{max} 63±8%; n=5). Similarly, carbenoxolone (n=5) and 18α -glycyrrhetinic acid (n=5) did not affect bradykinin-induced relaxation when given alone (pEC₅₀ 8.2±0.3 and 8.3±0.1 and E_{max} 81±9% and 85±11%, respectively) or on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 6.6±0.5 and 6.7±0.4 and E_{max} 58±13% and 47±17%, respectively; n=5 for each).

cGMP levels. Bradykinin increased microvascular cGMP from 3.9 (range 0.1-12.6) to 9.1 (0.7-43) pmol/mg protein (n=11, P<0.01). ODQ and L-NAME reduced cGMP following bradykinin stimulation to 0.1 (0.1-0.5; n=5) and 0.1 (0.1-1.7; n=4) pmol/mg protein, respectively (P<0.001 for both).

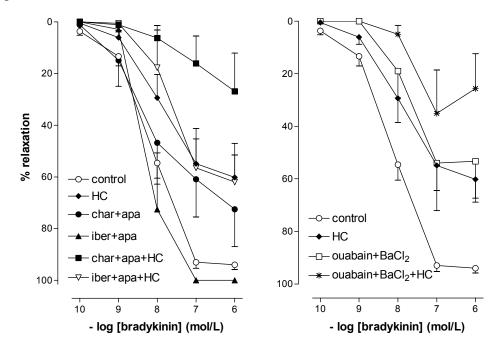


Figure 2. Relaxations of HCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in absence (control) or presence of 200 µmol/L hydroxocobalamin (HC) with one or more of the following inhibitors: 100 nmol/L charybdotoxin (char), 100 nmol/L apamin (apa), or 100 nmol/L iberiotoxin (iber), 1 mmol/L ouabain + 30 µmol/L BaCl₂. Data (mean±SEM; n=5-32) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

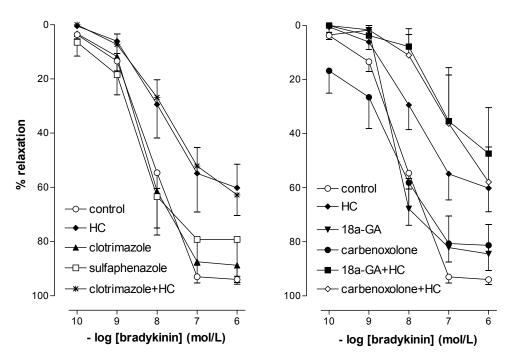


Figure 3. Relaxations of HCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in absence (control) or presence of 200 μ mol/L hydroxocobalamin (HC) with one or more of the following inhibitors: 50 μ mol/L clotrimazole, 10 μ mol/L sulfaphenazole, 18 α -glycyrrhetinic acid (18 α -GA) or 100 μ mol/L carbenoxolone. Data (mean±SEM; n=5-32) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Discussion

Bradykinin-induced, B2 receptor-mediated relaxation of HCMAs in the presence of indomethacin depends on NO and an EDHF that is not de novo synthesized NO. Both pathways appear to be interchangeable, since inhibiting the EDHF pathway only (with the K_{Ca} channel inhibitors charybdotoxin + apamin) did not significantly shift the bradykinin CRC, whereas combined inhibition of the NO and EDHF pathways (with the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin and charybdotoxin + apamin) resulted in full blockade of the bradykinin-induced effects in 6 out of 8 experiments. In the two remaining experiments a >10-fold rightward shift of the bradykinin CRC occurred, without an alteration in the maximum effect of bradykinin. The most likely explanation of this latter finding is incomplete scavenging of NO at the hydroxocobalamin concentration that was used in the present study. Its solubility did not allow us to use higher concentrations,⁵⁴ and thus, in vessels that release large amounts of NO in response to bradykinin, a rightward shift of the bradykinin CRC rather than complete inhibition of the bradykinininduced effects will occur at this concentration of hydroxocobalamin. Heterogeneity in bradykinin-induced NO release, as well as the possibility that EDHF replaces NO in vessels where endothelial B₂ receptor stimulation no longer results in sufficient NO release, were already predicted in an earlier study investigating the effects of intracoronary Hoe140 application in humans. 106

In agreement with previous studies in porcine coronary arteries,⁵⁴ the rightward shift of the bradykinin CRC in the presence of hydroxocobalamin was larger than the rightward shift in the presence of L-NAME. Similar data were obtained in HCMAs using the NO scavenger HbO and the NOS inhibitor L-NOARG.⁷³ Taken together, these data suggest the release of NO from a source other than L-arginine, e.g. from NO-containing factors such as *S*-nitrosothiols. Such sources become depleted only upon repeated exposure to bradykinin or following prolonged NOS inhibition.^{54,59,107} Interestingly, the guanylyl cyclase inhibitor ODQ did not significantly affect the bradykinin CRC, despite the fact that ODQ fully prevented the 2-3-fold rise in cGMP levels following the exposure of HCMAs to 1 μmol/L bradykinin. This suggests that NO is capable of inducing relaxation through mechanisms other than the guanylyl cyclase-cGMP pathway. Since the blocking

effects of BaCl₂ and ouabain towards bradykinin were comparable to the effect of hydroxocobalamin, whereas these drugs did not exert significant additional effects on top of hydroxocobalamin, one possibility is that NO activates K_{IR} channels and/or Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase directly. Evidence to support the latter is available. Direct activation of K_{Ca} channels by NO,72,110 seems unlikely, since neither charybdotoxin + apamin, nor iberiotoxin + apamin, affected the bradykinin CRC in the absence of hydroxocobalamin. With regard to the identity of EDHF, our data confirm the blocking effects of charybdotoxin + apamin, reported by Miura et al., 105 towards bradykinin in HCMAs in the absence of NO. However, since no significant effects were observed with the selective BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor iberiotoxin on top of hydroxocobalamin, the present results suggest that the effects of the non-selective IK_{Ca} and BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor charybdotoxin are due to blockade of IK_{Ca} channels rather than blockade of BK_{Ca} channels. Thus, the EDHF component of the bradykinin-induced relaxation in HCMAs involves the activation of both IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels. In endothelial cells, such activation results in the release of K⁺ in the myo-endothelial space. 64 This K⁺ subsequently relaxes smooth muscle cells through activation of K_{IR} channels and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase.¹¹¹ Although our data are in agreement with this concept, we cannot exclude the possibility that the IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels are located on smooth muscle cells.

Finally, our data do not support a role for H_2O_2 , EETs or gap junctions in the bradykinin-induced relaxations of HCMAs, despite previous studies in other human vessels that have demonstrated such a role. Apparently, the nature of EDHF differs among vessels from different organs, as it also varies between vessels from different species and even between vessels of different sizes. The lack of effect of the cytochrome P450 epoxygenase inhibitors is in agreement with the non-significant effect of iberiotoxin, since EETs have been reported to exert their effects through activation of BK_{Ca} channels on smooth muscle cells.

In conclusion, bradykinin-induced relaxation in HCMAs depends on 1) the activation of guanylyl cyclase, K_{IR} , and Na^+/K^+ ATPase by NO, and 2) IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels. The latter are activated by a factor other than NO. This factor is not a cytochrome P450 epoxygenase product or H_2O_2 , nor does it depend on gap junctions or BK_{Ca} .

Perspective

Our data are the first to show that the unifying EDHF concept proposed by Busse et al.⁶¹ also applies to human coronary arteries. As such, they form a basis for further investigations on the identity of EDHF, as well as on ways to interfere with EDHF in humans. This is of particular importance in patients with endothelial dysfunction, where B₂ receptor-mediated vasorelaxation depends largely on EDHF.¹⁰⁶

Chapter 4

Bradykinin-induced relaxation of coronary microarteries: S-nitrosothiols as EDHF?

Summary

We investigated whether S-nitrosothiols, in addition to NO, mediate bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation. Porcine coronary microarteries (PCMAs) were isolated and mounted in Mulvany myographs. Following preconstriction, concentration-response curves (CRCs) were constructed to bradykinin, the NO donors S-nitroso-N-penicillamine (SNAP) and diethylamine NONOate (DEA-NONOate) and the S-nitrosothiols L-S-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC) and D-SNC. All agonists relaxed PCMAs. L-SNC was ≈5-fold more potent than D-SNC. The guanylyl cyclase inhibitor ODQ and the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin induced a larger shift of the bradykinin CRC than the NO synthase inhibitor L-NAME. although all three inhibitors equally suppressed bradykinin-induced cGMP responses. Complete blockade of bradykinin-induced relaxation was obtained with L-NAME in the presence of the large- and intermediate-conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^{+} -channel (BK_{Ca}, IK_{Ca}) blocker charybdotoxin and the small-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channel (SK_{Ca}) channel blocker apamin, but not in the presence of L-NAME, apamin and the BK_{Ca} channel blocker iberiotoxin. Inhibitors of cytochrome P450 epoxygenase, cyclooxygenase, voltage-dependent K⁺ channels and ATP-sensitive K⁺ channels did not affect bradykinin-induced relaxation. SNAP-, DEA-NONOate- and D-SNC-induced relaxations were mediated entirely by the NO-guanylyl cyclase pathway. L-SNC-induced relaxations were partially blocked by charybdotoxin + apamin, but not by iberiotoxin + apamin, and this blockade was abolished following endothelium removal. ODQ, but not hydroxocobalamin, prevented L-SNC-induced increases in cGMP, and both drugs shifted the L-SNC CRC 5-10 fold to the right. L-SNC hyperpolarized intact and endotheliumdenuded coronary arteries. Our results support the concept that bradykinin-induced relaxation is mediated via de-novo synthesized NO and a non-NO, endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF). S-nitrosothiols, via stereoselective activation of endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, and through direct effects on smooth muscle cells, may function as an EDHF in porcine coronary microarteries.

Introduction

Bradykinin relaxes coronary arteries in an endothelium-dependent manner. This effect is mediated via bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptors. B₂ receptor activation results in NO synthesis by endothelial NOS, and NO relaxes vascular smooth muscle cells through guanylyl cyclase activation and subsequent cGMP generation.⁵⁴ NOS inhibitors however do not completely block bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation, suggesting the existence of either NO-storage sites^{59,60} or a non-NO 'endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor' (EDHF).^{61,113}

EDHF-mediated responses in different arteries have been linked to the release of K^+ , the generation of cytochrome-P450 products from arachidonic acid (epoxyeicosatrienoic acids, EETs), and to the production of H_2O_2 . ^{62-64,66,67,111,114} The identity of EDHF and its contribution to to overall relaxation differs between species, between vascular beds and between vessels of different sizes. ⁶⁸

EDHF-mediated relaxation depends on the activation of intermediate- and small-conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ -channels (IK_{Ca} , SK_{Ca}). These channels are located on endothelial cells, 69,70 and (as a consequence of endothelial hyperpolarization), may be responsible for the subsequent relaxation that is generally attributed to the release of an EDHF. This EDHF induces smooth muscle hyperpolarization by activating inwardly rectifying K^+ channel (K_{IR}) channels, Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase and/or large-conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ (BK_{Ca}) channels. With regard to the latter, it is important to note that NO itself is capable of inducing hyperpolarization via activation of Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ channels in vascular smooth muscle.

Bradykinin induces release of NO-containing factors (e.g., *S*-nitrosothiols) from cellular storage sites. ^{56,59,60} Depletion of NO storage sites occurs only after repeated exposure to bradykinin or following prolonged inhibition of NOS. ^{59,60} *S*-nitrosothiols induce relaxation through decomposition to NO, ⁷⁵ or by activating stereoselective recognition sites. ⁷⁶ These recognition sites could either be cysteine residues within Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels ⁷⁷ or a novel class of receptors which specifically recognize L-*S*-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC) and structurally similar *S*-nitrosothiols such as L-*S*-nitroso-β,β-dimethylcysteine. ¹¹⁵

In the present study we set out to investigate the possibility that *S*-nitrosothiols act as an EDHF in porcine coronary microarteries (PCMAs). PCMAs rather than large porcine coronary arteries were used, because the contribution of EDHF to vasorelaxation is larger in smaller vessels. ^{54,68} We compared the relaxant effects of L-SNC to those of bradykinin and the NO donors *S*-nitroso-N-acetylpenicillamine (N-acetyl-3-(nitrosothio)-D-valine or SNAP) and diethylamine NONOate (DEA-NONOate), both in the absence and presence of an inhibitor of NOS, an inhibitor of guanylyl cyclase, and inhibitors of a wide range of EDHF candidates. To rule out residual NO (i.e., non-EDHF)-mediated effects as much as possible we also made use of the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin. Guanylyl cyclase activation by NO or NO-containing factors was quantified by measuring cGMP generation. To verify the stereoselectivity of L-SNC-induced effects, parallel experiments were performed with D-*S*-nitrosocysteine (D-SNC). Finally, electrophysiological measurements were performed in intact and endothelium-denuded porcine coronary arteries to verify direct hyperpolarization by bradykinin and L-SNC.

Methods

Drugs

Bradykinin, SNAP, DEA-NONOate, L-cysteine, D-cysteine, NaNO₂, 9,11-dideoxy- 11α ,9α-epoxy-methano-prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$ (U46619), N^ω-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester HCl (L-NAME), N^ω-nitro-L-arginine (L-NA), 1H-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxalin-1-one (ODQ), hydroxocobalamin, indomethacin, diclofenac, glibenclamide, 4-aminopyridine, charybdotoxin, apamin, iberiotoxin, ouabain, BaCl₂, sulfaphenazole, miconazole and 3-isobutyl-1-methyl-xanthine were from Sigma-Aldrich (Zwijndrecht, The Netherlands). D-Arg[Hyp³,Thi⁵,D-Tic³,Oic³]-bradykinin (Hoe140) was a kind gift of Dr. W. Linz, Hoechst, Frankfurt, Germany. Indomethacin, glibenclamide, ouabain and ODQ were dissolved in dimethylsulphoxide. Sulfaphenazole and miconazole were dissolved in ethanol. Hydroxocobalamin was dissolved in methanol. All other chemicals were dissolved in water.

Tissue collection

Pig hearts (n=123) were collected at the local slaughterhouse. Epicardial arteries (diameter ≈ 1.5 mm) and tertiary branches of the left anterior descending coronary artery (PCMAs; diameter 337 ± 8.4 µm) were removed and either used directly or stored overnight in cold, oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution of the following composition (mM): NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, CaCl₂ 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25 and glucose 8.3; pH 7.4.

Organ bath studies

PCMAs were cut into segments of \approx 2 mm length and mounted in microvascular myographs (J.P. Trading) with separated 6-ml organ baths containing Krebs bicarbonate solution aerated with 95% O₂/5% CO₂ and maintained at 37°C. Changes in contractile force were recorded with a Harvard isometric transducer. Following a 30-min stabilization period, the internal diameter was set to a tension equivalent to 0.9 times the estimated diameter at 100 mm Hg effective transmural pressure.⁸⁹

The normalised vessel segments were exposed to 30 mM KCl twice. In some vessels, the endothelium was removed by gently rubbing a hair through the lumen of the mounted artery. Endothelial integrity or removal was verified by observing relaxation (or lack thereof) to 10 nM substance P after preconstriction with 10 nM of the thromboxane- A_2 analogue U46619. The maximal contractile response to KCl was determined by exposing the tissue to 100 mM KCl. Thereafter, vessels were allowed to equilibrate in fresh organ bath fluid for 30 min in the absence or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: the NOS inhibitor L-NAME (100 μ M), the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin (200 μ M), the guanylyl cyclase inhibitor ODQ (10 μ M), the COX inhibitor indomethacin (10 μ M), the IK_{Ca} + BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor charybdotoxin (100 nM), the SK_{Ca} channel inhibitor apamin (100 nM), the BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor iberiotoxin (100 nM), the voltage-dependent K⁺ channel (K_v) inhibitor 4-aminopyridine (5 mM), the ATP-sensitive K⁺ channel (K_{ATP}) inhibitor glibenclamide (1 μ M), the K_{IR} inhibitor BaCl₂ (30 μ M), the Na⁺-ATPase inhibitor ouabain (0.5 mM), the cytochrome P450 epoxygenase inhibitors sulfaphenazole or miconazole (10 μ M) or the B₂ receptor antagonist Hoe140 (1 μ M).

Vessels were then preconstricted with U46619, and concentration-response curves (CRCs) were constructed to bradykinin, SNAP, DEA-NONOate, L-SNC or D-SNC. L-SNC and D-SNC were prepared immediately prior to the experiment and stored in the dark below 0°C. In short, 50 μ L of a 0.2 M solution of L-cysteine, D-cysteine was mixed with 50 μ L 0.2 M NaNO₂. The subsequent addition of 10 μ L 1 M HCl resulted in a stable 0.1 M solution (pH \approx 5) of the respective SNC isomers.⁷⁶ Preliminary studies with NaNO₂, L-cysteine and D-cysteine (n=3 each) revealed that, separately, these drugs did not exert relaxant effects in preconstricted PCMAs (data not shown).

Cyclic GMP measurement

To study bradykinin- and L-SNC induced cGMP production, vessel segments (5-10 mg) were exposed to bradykinin (1 μ M) or L-SNC (10 or 100 μ M) in 10 ml oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution for 1 min at 37°C in the presence of the phosphodiesterase inhibitor 3-isobutyl-1-methyl-xanthine (100 μ M), following a 30-min preincubation in the absence (control) or presence of hydroxocobalamin, ODQ, Hoe140 and/or L-NAME at the above concentrations. Tissues were subsequently frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. To determine cGMP, frozen tissues were homogenized in 0.5 mL 0.1 M HCl using a stainless steel ultraturrax (Polytron). Homogenates were centrifuged at 3300 g, and cGMP was measured in 300 μ L supernatant by ELISA following acetylation (R&D Systems). Experiments were performed in quadruplicate, and results are expressed as pmol mg⁻¹ protein. The lower limit of detection was 0.1 pmol mg⁻¹ protein.

Electrophysiological measurements

Freshly isolated epicardial artery segments (\approx 40 mm length) were excised, slit and mounted in heated (37°C) chambers and maintained in modified Tyrode's solution (in mM: NaCl 132, KCl 4, CaCl₂ 1.6, MgCl₂ 1.2, NaH₂PO₄ 0.36, NaHCO₃ 23.8, Ca²⁺-EDTA 0.05, glucose 10; gassed with 20% O₂/5% CO₂/75 % N₂, pH 7.4) containing the NOS inhibitor L-NA (300 μ M), the COX inhibitor diclofenac (10 μ M), and U46619 (1 μ M) to mimic conditions in the organ chamber experiments as closely as possible.

Both endothelium intact and endothelium-denuded segments were used. Smooth muscle membrane potential was recorded by impaling cells through the intima as described.⁶³ Bradykinin (100 nM) and L-SNC (50 μM) were applied as bolus injections into the bath.

Data analysis

Data are given as mean±s.e.mean. Contractile responses are expressed as a percentage of the contraction to U46619. CRCs were analysed as described using the logistic function described by de Lean et al.¹¹⁶ to obtain pEC₅₀ (-¹⁰logEC₅₀) values (Table 1). L-NAME, ODQ, hydroxocobalamin and/or ouabain+BaCl₂ increased basal tone by 10-40%, whereas 4-aminopyridine increased basal tone by 80%. In such cases the concentration of U46619 (range 10-30 nM) was adjusted to obtain a preconstriction corresponding to ≈95% of the maximal contractile response in all vessels. Statistical analysis was by paired t-test, once one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc evaluation, had revealed that differences existed between groups. P<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Mechanism of Bradykinin-Induced Relaxation

Bradykinin relaxed preconstricted vessel segments in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀ = 8.2 ± 0.1 , n=45; Figure 1). Bradykinin-induced relaxations were unaffected by indomethacin and abrogated by Hoe140. L-NAME shifted the bradykinin CRC \approx 5-fold to the right, whereas ODQ and hydroxocobalamin induced a \approx 10-fold rightward shift (see Table 1 for pEC₅₀ values). Apamin, iberiotoxin and charybdotoxin, separately or in combination, did not significantly affect the bradykinin CRC (Figure 2, Table 1), nor did ouabain + BaCl₂ (Figure 1, Table 1).

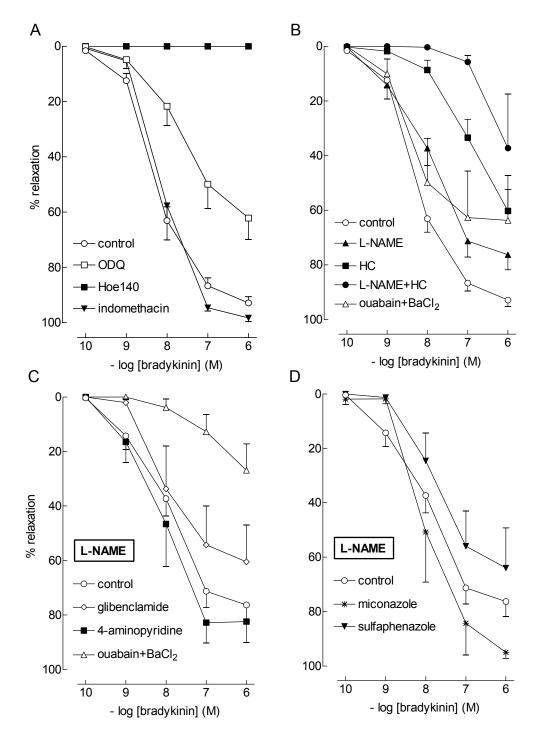


Figure 1. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in absence (control; A, B) or presence of of 100 μ M L-NAME (C, D) with one or more of the following inhibitors: 1 μ M Hoe140, 10 μ M ODQ, 10 μ M indomethacin, 100 μ M L-NAME, 200 μ M hydroxocobalamin (HC), 0.5 mM ouabain, 30 μ M BaCl₂, 1 μ M glibenclamide, 5 mM 4-aminopyridine, 10 μ M miconazole or 10 μ M sulfaphenazole. Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=5-45) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Table 1. pECso values as calculated for the bradykinin, SNAP, L-SNC or D-SNC CRCs in the absence or presence of several inhibitors

Inhibitor		pECso	C50	
	Bradykinin	SNAP	L-SNC	D-SNC
none	8.2±0.1 (40)	7.1±0.1 (14)	6.5±0.1 (22)#	6.0±0.1 (18)
Hoe140	<6 (3)*			
indomethacin	8.0 ± 0.1 (5)			
ODQ	7.2±0.2 (15)*	5.7±0.1 (11)*	5.3±0.1 (9)*	5.3±0.1 (13)*
hydroxocobalamin	6.8±0.2 (16)*	$6.5\pm0.2 (11)^*$	$5.4\pm0.2~(8)^{\dagger}$	5.5±0.1 (13)*
L-NAME	7.7±0.1 (23)*		7.5±0.3 (5)	
apamin	8.5±0.2 (7)		7.2±0.1 (4)	
charybdotoxin	8.2±0.2 (8)			
iberiotoxin	8.4±0.2 (6)		7.1±0.1 (4)	
charybdotoxin + apamin	7.6±0.3 (7)	7.2±0.1 (6)	6.0±0.1 (10)*	5.9±0.1 (13)
iberiotoxin + apamin	8.8±0.2 (6)		$7.1\pm0.2(5)$	
ouabain+BaCl ₂	8.7±0.1 (6)		$6.7\pm0.1~(4)^{\dagger}$	
glibenclamide			7.2±0.1 (5)	
4-aminopyridine			$7.1\pm0.5(4)$	
no endothelium			$7.3\pm0.1 (9)^{\dagger}$	
no endothelium + charybdotoxin + apamin			7.0±0.1 (4)	
ODQ + hydroxocobalamin		<5 (5)* [‡]	4.6±0.3 (5)*§	4.3±0.2 (12)*‡
ODQ + charybdotoxin + apamin		$5.6\pm0.2 (5)^*$	5.3±0.1 (5)*	5.2±0.1 (5)*
hydroxocobalamin + charybdotoxin + apamin		$6.3\pm0.2~(6)^{\dagger}$	$5.3\pm0.2~(5)^{\dagger}$	$5.7\pm0.1~(5)^{\dagger}$
ODQ + hydroxocobalamin + charybdotoxin + apamin		<5 (3)* [‡]	4.5±0.2 (5)*‡	4.3±0.2 (8)*‡

Data are mean \pm SEM (n value); *P<0.01, †P<0.05 vs none; ‡P<0.01, \$P<0.05 vs hydroxocobalamin or ODQ; #P<0.05 vs D-SNC.

In the presence of L-NAME, apamin and charybdotoxin, when given separately, did not affect the bradykinin CRC (pEC₅₀s 7.8±0.3 and 8.2±0.2, respectively, n=6 for each; Figure 2), nor did glibenclamide, 4-aminopyridine, sulfaphenazole and miconazole (pEC₅₀s 7.8±0.5, 8.0±0.3, 7.8±0.4 and 7.9±0.6, respectively, n=5 for each; Figure 1). In contrast, when given in addition to L-NAME, charybdotoxin + apamin fully blocked the bradykinin-induced responses (Figure 2, n=5), whereas hydroxocobalamin (n=5) and ouabain + BaCl₂ (n=5) shifted the bradykinin CRC >100-fold (P<0.01; Figure 1) to the right. Iberiotoxin, without (n=6) or with (n=6) apamin, reduced the maximum effect of bradykinin in the presence of L-NAME (P<0.01; Figure 2), without altering its pEC₅₀ (7.8±0.5 and 8.1±0.2, respectively).

Thus, NO and/or NO-containing factors as well as Ca^{2+} -activated K^+ -channels (BK_{Ca}, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca}), K_{IR} channels, and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase are involved in the bradykinin-induced relaxation, and the NO-induced effects are mediated, at least in part, via activation of guanylyl cyclase. No evidence for a role of K_v channels, K_{ATP} channels, COX products, or cytochrome P450 epoxygenase products was obtained.

Mechanism of NO-Induced Relaxation

SNAP and DEA-NONOate relaxed preconstricted coronary microvessels in a concentration-dependent manner (Figures 3 and 4; Table 1). Both hydroxocobalamin and ODQ shifted the SNAP and DEA-NONOate-induced CRC to the right and, in combination, completely blocked SNAP-induced relaxation. Charybdotoxin + apamin, either as combination or together with hydroxocobalamin or ODQ, did not elicit a rightward shift in the SNAP or DEA-NONOate CRC.

Thus, the relaxation induced by exogenous NO depends entirely on activation of guanylyl cyclase, and does not involve Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels.

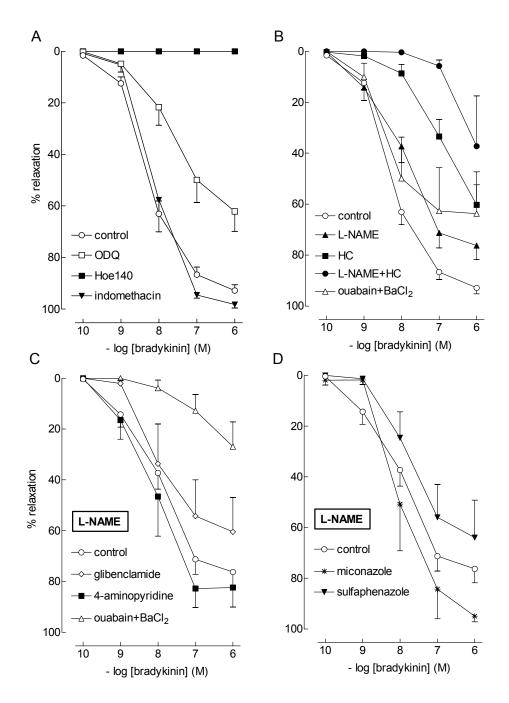


Figure 2. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in absence (control; A, B) or presence of 100 μ M L-NAME (C, D) with one or more of the following inhibitors: 100 μ M charybdotoxin (char), 100 μ M apamin (apa), or 100 μ M iberiotoxin (iber). Data (mean±s.e.mean; μ =5-45) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

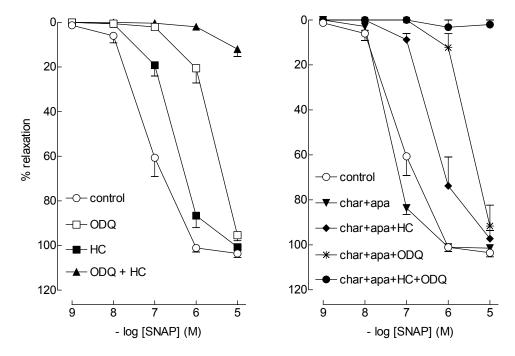


Figure 3. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to SNAP in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μ M ODQ, 200 μ M hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nM charybdotoxin (char) or 100 nM apamin (apa). Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=5-14) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

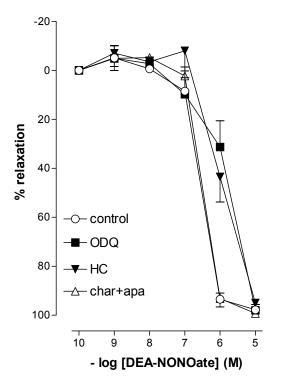


Figure 4. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to DEA-NONOate in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μM ODQ, 200 μM hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nM charybdotoxin (char) or 100 nM apamin (apa). Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=4) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Mechanism of S-nitrosothiol-induced relaxation

L-SNC and D-SNC relaxed preconstricted PCMAs in a concentration-dependent manner. L-SNC was 5 times more potent than D-SNC (P<0.05; Figure 5, Table 1). ODQ and hydroxocobalamin shifted the CRCs of both L-SNC and D-SNC 5-10-fold to the right (P=NS for the difference in rightward shift between L-SNC and D-SNC) and, when combined, caused a further rightward shift (Table 1).

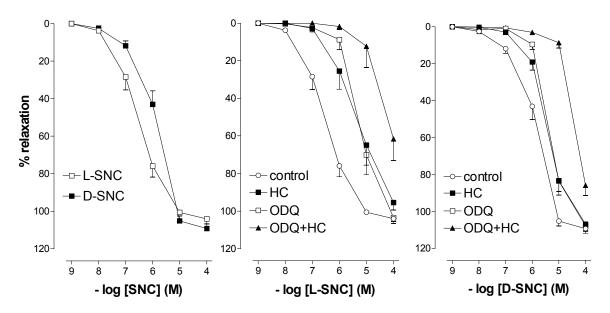


Figure 5. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNC or D-SNC in the absence (control) or presence of 10 μ M ODQ and/or 200 μ M hydroxocobalamin (HC). Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=4-18) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Charybdotoxin + apamin shifted the L-SNC CRC, but not the D-SNC CRC, 5-10 fold to the right (Figure 6, Table 1). Endothelium-denudation shifted the L-SNC CRC 5-10 fold to the left, and abolished the rightward shift induced by charybdotoxin + apamin (Figure 6, Table 1). Charybdotoxin + apamin did not have additional effects on top of ODQ, hydroxocobalamin (Table 1) or ODQ + hydroxocobalamin (Figures 5 and 6, Table 1) with either L-SNC or D-SNC.

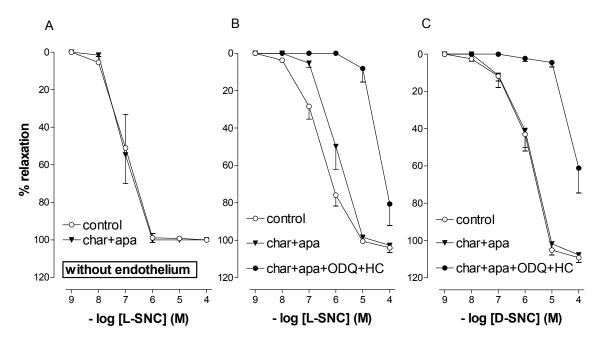


Figure 6. Relaxations of PCMAs without (A) or with (B, C) endothelium, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNC or D-SNC in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μ M ODQ, 200 μ M hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nM charybdotoxin (char) or 100 nM apamin (apa). Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=4-18) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

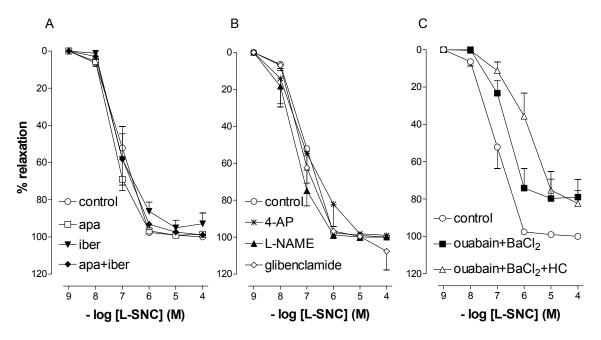


Figure 7. Relaxations of PCMAs, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNC in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 100 nM iberiotoxin (iber), 100 nM apamin (apa), 5 mM 4-aminopyridine (4-AP), 100 μ M L-NAME, 1 μ M glibenclamide, 0.5 mM ouabain or 30 μ M BaCl₂. Data (mean±s.e.mean; n=4-9) are expressed as a percentage of the contraction induced by U46619.

Glibenclamide, 4-aminopyridine, L-NAME, apamin, iberiotoxin, and iberiotoxin + apamin did not affect the L-SNC CRC (Figure 7, Table 1).

Ouabain + BaCl₂ shifted the L-SNC CRC 5-fold to the right (Figure 7, Table 1) but did not exert an additional effect on top of hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀ 5.9±0.2, n=4; Figures 5 and 7).

Thus, S-nitrosothiol-induced relaxation occurs in a stereoselective manner, and is mediated via activation of guanylyl cyclase, endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, K_{IR} channels and the Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase. Neither NOS, K_v channels, K_{ATP} channels, nor BK_{Ca} channels appear to mediate this response.

Cyclic GMP

Baseline cGMP levels were 9.4 ± 2.7 pmol mg⁻¹ protein (n=16). Bradykinin increased the microvascular cGMP levels 4-5 fold (Figure 8; P<0.05 vs. control). Hoe140 largely prevented this increase, whereas L-NAME, hydroxocobalamin and ODQ reduced the microvascular cGMP content following bradykinin stimulation to levels below baseline. The combination of hydroxocobalamin and L-NAME did not further decrease cGMP levels. L-SNC increased cGMP >5-fold (P<0.05 vs control). ODQ fully prevented the increase induced by 10 μ M L-SNC, and a similar tendency was observed for hydroxocobalamin (P=NS). ODQ did not fully prevent the increase induced by by 100 μ M L-SNC.

Electrophysiological measurements

Both bradykinin (n=6) and L-SNC (n=6) hyperpolarized vascular smooth muscle cells (P<0.01) in porcine coronary arteries (Figure 9). The effect of L-SNC was not affected by the removal of the endothelium (n=5).

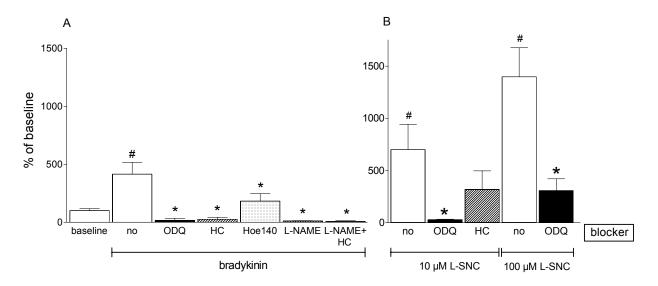


Figure 8. Cyclic GMP levels (expressed as % of baseline) in PCMAs after 1 min exposure to (A) bradykinin (1 μ M) or (B) L-SNC (10 μ M or 100 μ M) under control conditions (no blocker) and in the presence of 10 μ M ODQ, 200 μ M hydroxocobalamin (HC), 1 μ M Hoe140 and/or 100 μ M L-NAME. Data are mean±s.e.mean (n=3-10). #P<0.05 vs. control, * P<0.05 vs. no blocker.

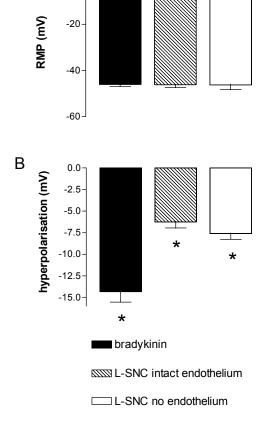


Figure 9. Hyperpolarization of smooth muscle cells by 100 nM bradykinin and 50 μM L-SNC in porcine coronary arteries with or without endothelium. A, resting membrane potential (RMP). B, change in membrane potential. Experiments were performed in the presence of 300 µM L-NA, 10 µM diclofenac and 1 µM U46619. Data are mean±s.e.mean of 5-6 separate experiments: * P<0.01 vs. control. U46619 did not significantly affect RMP $(-44.5\pm1.2 \text{ mV vs. } -42.7\pm1.7 \text{ mV, } n=6),$ and in parallel experiments, using arterial rings from the same pig and following preconstriction with the same U46619 concentration (1 µM), 100 nM bradykinin relaxed the arteries by $89\pm9\%$ (n=6).

Α

Discussion

microarteries involves the NOS/NO/guanylyl cyclase/cGMP pathway and Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels, but not COX products or K_{ATP} channels. This is in full agreement with the concept that both NO and an EDHF that is not de novo synthesized NO determine bradykinin-induced relaxation. The two pathways appear to be interchangeable, since blocking each pathway separately (with L-NAME and charybdotoxin + apamin, respectively) only marginally affected bradykinin-mediated relaxation, whereas blocking both pathways together abrogated the effects of bradykinin. The modest effect of blocking NOS in the present study opposes earlier data in large porcine coronary arteries, where L-NAME alone induced a ≈10-fold rightward shift of the bradykinin CRC.⁵⁴ Apparently, as has been suggested before, de novo synthesized NO is of greater importance in large arteries, and the contribution of EDHF is larger in microarteries.⁶⁸ The BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor iberiotoxin, with or without the SK_{Ca} channel inhibitor apamin, reduced the maximum effect but not the potency of bradykinin in the presence of L-NAME. This finding, combined with the lack of effect of the K_v channel inhibitor 4aminopyridine, suggests that the complete inhibition of bradykinin-induced relaxation obtained with charybdotoxin (a non-selective inhibitor of BK_{Ca}, IK_{Ca} and K_v channels) in the presence of apamin and L-NAME can be attributed to the blockade of all three types of K_{Ca} channels.

The present study shows that B₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in porcine coronary

BK_{Ca} channels are located on vascular smooth muscle cells.⁷¹ Although endothelial EETs are believed to activate these channels,^{61,63,64,71,117-119} the lack of effect of the cytochrome P450 epoxygenase inhibitors miconazole and sulfaphenazole excludes this possibility in our experimental setup.

 IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels are expressed in endothelial cells 69,70 , 69,70 and their activation results in endothelial hyperpolarization and the accumulation of K^+ in the myoendothelial space. This K^+ is believed to subsequently hyperpolarize vascular smooth muscle cells by activating K_{IR} channels and/or the Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase. 61,64,65 The inhibitory effect of $BaCl_2$ and ouabain towards bradykinin in the presence of L-NAME confirms this concept in PCMAs.

S-Nitrosothiols as EDHF?

We propose that NO-containing/releasing factors, *S*-nitrosothiols in particular, act as an EDHF in PCMAs. The contribution of such factors is supported by our observations that the guanylyl cyclase inhibitor ODQ and the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin inhibited the bradykinin-induced effects to a much greater degree than L-NAME, and that, in combination, L-NAME + hydroxocobalamin almost completely prevented bradykinin-induced relaxations. Since *S*-nitrosothiol-induced relaxations occur through activation of stereoselective recognition sites and/or via their decomposition to NO,^{76,120} we used both L-SNC and D-SNC to verify this proposal.

L-SNC was ≈ 5 times more potent than D-SNC. This difference disappeared in the presence of charybdotoxin + apamin (but not in the presence of iberiotoxin with or without apamin), suggesting that L-SNC, but not D-SNC, hyperpolarizes endothelial cells via IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel activation. The comparable rightward shift of the L-SNC CRC in the presence of ouabain + $BaCl_2$ and charybdotoxin + apamin is in agreement with the concept that such hyperpolarization results in endothelial K^+ release and subsequent smooth muscle cell hyperpolarization. In further support of this hypothesis, endothelium-denudation abolished the effect of charybdotoxin + apamin towards L-SNC, and L-SNC reduced the membrane potential of smooth muscle cells in intact porcine coronary arteries.

Unexpectedly however, the removal of the endothelium potentiated L-SNC 5-10 fold. This suggests that L-SNC, like other endothelium-dependent vasodilators, not only hyperpolarizes endothelial cells, but also induces the release of an endothelium-derived contractile factor. Alternatively, endothelial denudation might uncover direct L-SNC-induced effects on smooth muscle cells, as evidenced by the fact that L-SNC also hyperpolarized endothelium-denuded coronary arteries. One such direct effect is BK_{Ca} channel activation via *S*-nitrosylation of cysteine residues. However, the lack of effect of charybdotoxin + apamin towards L-SNC in endothelium-denuded vessels does not support this concept in PCMAs.

Taken together, the relaxant effects of L-SNC, like those of bradykinin, involve K_{Ca} channels, and they occur, at least in part, in a stereoselective manner.

The greater potency of L-SNC versus D-SNC is in agreement with previous in vivo studies, ^{76,120} and may indicate the existence of binding sites that specifically recognize L-SNC and structurally related *S*-nitrosothiols. These binding sites may either be novel receptors or 'nitrosation motifs' in functional proteins such as receptors and ion channels. ^{77,115,122,123}

NO Release from S-Nitrosothiols?

The effects of L-SNC, at the concentrations used in the present study, are unlikely to be due entirely to its decomposition to NO, nor do they involve de novo NO generation by NOS. First, NO did not activate Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channels in PCMAs, because the dilatory effects of the NO donors SNAP and DEA-NONOate were unaffected by charybdotoxin and apamin. Second, L-NAME did not affect L-SNC-mediated responses. Third, detectable NO production has been reported to occur at *S*-nitrosothiol concentrations above 100 μM only, ¹²⁴ i.e., at concentrations that are >100 times above the EC₅₀ value of L-SNC in the present study. Fourth, the ODQ, but not hydroxocobalamin, fully prevented the L-SNC-induced increases in cGMP. This suggests direct, NO-independent, activation of guanylyl cyclase by L-SNC, in agreement with a previous study in cultured vascular smooth muscle cells. ¹²⁵ Alternatively, the concentration of hydroxocobalamin used in the present study may have been too low to scavenge all NO generated following L-SNC application. ¹²⁶

Taken together, the following mechanisms may underlie L-SNC-induced vasorelaxation: direct activation of endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, direct activation of guanylyl cyclase in smooth muscle cells, and decomposition to NO. Simultaneous inhibition of all mechanisms (with charybdotoxin + apamin, ODQ and hydroxocobalamin, respectively) did not fully prevent the relaxations induced by the highest concentration of L-SNC (100 μ M). This could relate to the inability of hydroxocobalamin to scavenge all NO^{126} and/or the competitive inhibition of guanylyl cyclase by ODQ,¹²⁷ allowing full blockade of the cGMP increases and relaxations induced by 10 μ M L-SNC, but not of those induced by a tenfold higher L-SNC concentration (Figures 6 and 8).

Release of S-nitrosothiols?

Finally, despite the fact that L-SNC is capable of exerting EDHF-like effects, direct evidence demonstrating that L-SNC (or a related compound) mediates bradykinin-induced, EDHF-dependent relaxation is currently lacking. Previous studies support the existence of preformed pools of NO-containing factors (such as *S*-nitrosothiols) in endothelial and vascular smooth muscle cells. ^{54,59,107,128} These pools become depleted after repeated exposure to endothelium-dependent agonists such as acetylcholine and bradykinin, following prolonged NOS inhibition, or after exposure to UV. ^{54,59,107}

We did not measure *S*-nitrosothiol release following bradykinin stimulation in the present study. Such release may occur in a specific compartment (e.g., the myo-endothelial space, gap junctions, intra-endothelial) that does not allow easy detection. Moreover, since it depends on preformed pools, it cannot be monitored by measuring the vascular *S*-nitrosothiol content following bradykinin stimulation. Similar difficulties exist with regard to EETs,^{71,118} and it has therefore been proposed that these cytochrome-P450 products contribute to the activation of endothelial K⁺ channels as second messengers,⁶¹ rather than being released from endothelial cells in large amounts.

Clinical perspective

S-nitrosylated proteins, the most abundant of which is albumin, are present in micromolar concentrations in normal subjects.¹²² They are thought to serve both as a source and a sink of NO, thereby buffering the concentration of free NO. A recent in vivo study showed that *S*-nitrosothiols induce dilator responses in human conduit and resistance arteries that are comparable with those of bradykinin and acetylcholine,¹²⁹ and it has therefore been suggested¹³⁰ that *S*-nitrosothiols provide a new pharmacological route for delivering NO regionally. Our data extend these findings, by implying not only that *S*-nitrosothiols may act by inducing hyperpolarization in microarteries (i.e., exert NO-independent effects), but also by showing that their effects occur in a stereoselective manner.

Chapter 5

L-S-nitrosothiols: endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors in porcine coronary arteries?

Summary

Bradykinin-induced, endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF)-mediated responses depend on Ca^{2+} -dependent K⁺-channels (K_{Ca}) of small (SK_{Ca}) and intermediate (IK_{Ca}) conductance, inwardly rectifying K⁺ (K_{IR}) channels and/or Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. Here we investigated in porcine coronary arteries (PCAs) whether S-nitrosothiols can act as EDHF. Preconstricted PCAs were exposed to bradykinin, the NO donor S-nitroso-Npenicillamine (SNAP), or the S-nitrosothiols L-S-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC), D-SNC and L-S-nitrosoglutathione (L-SNG), with or without KCl, the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin, the S-nitrosothiol-depleting agent p-hydroxymercurobenzoic acid (PHMBA) and/or inhibitors of NO synthase (L-NAME), guanylyl cyclase (ODQ), SK_{Ca} channels (apamin), K_{Ca} channels of large conductance (BK_{Ca}) (iberiotoxin), $IK_{Ca} + BK_{Ca}$ channels (charybdotoxin), K_{IR} channels (BaCl₂) or Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase (ouabain). All agonists concentration-dependently relaxed PCAs. L-NAME, charybdotoxin + apamin, KCl, and ouabain shifted the bradykinin concentration-response curve (CRC) ≈10-fold to the right. BaCl₂ did not exert additional effects on top of ouabain. Full blockade of bradykinin was obtained when combining L-NAME with charybdotoxin + apamin, KCl or ouabain + BaCl₂. PHMBA reduced the maximum effect of bradykinin. Iberiotoxin + apamin, alone or on top of L-NAME, did not affect bradykinin, SNAP or L-SNC. ODQ and hydroxocobalamin shifted the SNAP, L-SNC, D-SNC, and L-SNG CRCs ≈10-fold to the right, and, in combination, fully blocked SNAP-induced effects. Charybdotoxin + apamin shifted the L-SNC and L-SNG CRCs, but not the D-SNC or SNAP CRCs, ≈5fold to the right. KCl and ouabain (but not BaCl₂) shifted the SNAP, L-SNC and L-SNG CRCs 5-10 fold to the right. In conclusion, L-S-nitrosothiols activate SK_{Ca} + IK_{Ca} channels in a stereoselective manner, whereas NO activates Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. Since Snitrosothiols decompose to NO, stored L-S-nitrosothiols may mediate bradykinininduced, EDHF-dependent relaxation.

Introduction

Bradykinin-induced relaxation of coronary arteries is thought to depend on NO synthesized de novo by endothelial NO synthase (NOS) as well as a non-NO endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor (EDHF). At present, there is no clear consensus on the identity of EDHF or the exact mechanism by which EDHF relaxes smooth muscle cells. According to a recent review, ⁶¹ EDHF release from endothelial cells depends on the activation of endothelial intermediate-conductance and small-conductance Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺-channels (IK_{Ca}, SK_{Ca}). ^{64,65,69,70,131} Subsequently, EDHF is assumed to hyperpolarize smooth muscle cells through activation of inwardly rectifying K⁺ channel (K_{IR}) channels, Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase and/or large-conductance Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺ (BK_{Ca}) channels. ^{61,64,71,132} With regard to the latter, it is important to note that NO itself is capable of inducing hyperpolarization via activation of Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺ channels and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. ^{72,108,109} EDHF candidates include prostacyclin, K⁺, and cytochrome-P450 products of arachidonic acid (epoxyeicosatrienoic acids, EETs). ^{61,63-65,71}

In previous studies on bradykinin-induced relaxation of porcine coronary arteries (PCAs), we and others were unable to demonstrate a role for either prostacyclin or EETs, both in the absence and presence of the NOS inhibitor N^ω-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester HCl (L-NAME).^{54,133,134} Interestingly, the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin blocked the bradykinin-induced relaxation of PCAs to a greater degree than L-NAME.⁵⁴ Similar observations were made in human coronary arteries, where it was simultaneously observed that increasing the concentration of the NOS inhibitor did not yield additional effects.^{57,73} Taken together, these data support the release of NO or an NO-containing factor from a source that does not depend on the acute conversion of L-arginine by NOS. Repeated bradykinin exposure rapidly depletes such 'NO pools', independently of bradykinin type 2 receptor desensitisation.^{54,56,59,60} NO-containing factors are also thought to mediate light-induced photorelaxation of vascular smooth muscle cells.^{74,135} Nitrosothiol-depleting agents reduce photorelaxation responses,⁷⁴ and *S*-nitrosothiols have therefore been proposed to mediate this phenomenon.

Similarly, S-nitrosothiols might be the tissue source of non-de novo synthesized NO. S-nitrosothiols induce relaxation not only through their decomposition to NO,⁷⁵ but also by

activating stereoselective recognition sites.⁷⁶ Recently, the cysteine residues within the α subunit of the BK_{Ca} channel were identified as a *S*-nitrosothiol binding site.⁷⁷

It was the aim of the present study to investigate whether *S*-nitrosothiols mediate the bradykinin-induced, EDHF-dependent relaxation in PCAs. First, we verified the exact mechanism of the bradykinin-induced, EDHF-mediated responses in PCAs, and we studied the effects of nitrosothiol-depleting agents on bradykinin-induced relaxation with or without L-NAME. Second, we ruled out the possibility that NO mediates EDHF-like responses, using the NO donor *S*-nitroso-N-penicillamine (SNAP). Third, we investigated the pathways involved in the relaxant effects of S-nitrosothiols, as well as the stereoselectivity of their effects, using the *S*-nitrosothiols L-*S*-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC), D-SNC and L-*S*-nitrosoglutathione (L-SNG).

Methods

Tissue collection

Coronary arteries were obtained from 92 slaughterhouse pigs. The arteries were removed after the heart had been brought to the laboratory in cold, oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution of the following composition (mmol/l): NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, CaCl₂ 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25 and glucose 8.3; pH 7.4. Vessels were stored in cold, oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution for 12 or 36 hours. They were then cut into segments of approximately 4 mm length, suspended on stainless steel hooks in 15 mlorgan baths containing Krebs bicarbonate solution, aerated with 95% O₂ / 5% CO₂, and maintained at 37°C. In some segments, the tips of a pair of watchmakers forceps had been inserted into the lumen to remove the endothelium by gently rolling the ring back and forth over saline-loaded filter paper.

Organ bath studies

All vessel segments were allowed to equilibrate for at least 30 min and the organ bath fluid was refreshed every 15 min during this period. Changes in tissue contractile force were recorded with a Harvard isometric transducer (South Natick, MA, USA). The vessel segments, stretched to a stable force of about 15 mN, were exposed to 30 mmol/l KCl

twice. The functional integrity of the endothelium (or its absence) was verified by observing relaxation to 1 nmol/l substance P after preconstriction with 1 umol/l U46619. Subsequently, the tissue was exposed to 100 mmol/l KCl to determine the maximal contractile response to KCl. The segments were then allowed to equilibrate in fresh organ bath fluid for 30 min in the absence or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: the NOS inhibitors L-NAME (100 or 300 μmol/l) and Nω-nitro-L-arginine (L-NOARG) (100 µmol/l), the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin (200 µmol/l), the guanylyl cyclase inhibitor 1H-[1,2,4]oxadiazolo[4,3-a]quinoxalin-1-one (ODQ, 10 μmol/l), the Snitrosothiol-depleting agents ethacrynic acid (50 µmol/l) and p-hydroxymercurobenzoic acid (PHMBA, 10 μ mol/l), the IK_{Ca} + BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor charybdotoxin (100 nmol/l), the SK_{Ca} channel inhibitor apamin (100 nmol/l), the BK_{Ca} channel inhibitors iberiotoxin (100 nmol/l) and tetraethylammonium (1 mmol/l), the two-pore domain K⁺ channel (TASK-1) inhibitor ZnCl₂ (200 µmol/l), 136 the K_{IR} inhibitor BaCl₂ (30 µmol/l), the Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase inhibitor ouabain (1 mmol/l) or KCl (20 mmol/l). Vessels were then preconstricted with U46619, and concentration-response curves (CRCs) were constructed to bradykinin, SNAP, L-SNC, D-SNC, L-SNG or KCl. In the experiments evaluating the effect of relaxant effects of KCl, KCl in the Krebs buffer was replaced by NaCl. L-SNC, D-SNC and L-SNG were prepared immediately prior to the experiment and stored in the dark on ice. In short, 50 µl of a 0.2 mol/l solution of L-cysteine, D-cysteine or Lglutathione was mixed with 50 µl 0.2 mol/l NaNO₂. The subsequent addition of 10 µl 1 mol/l HCl resulted in a stable 0.1 mol/l solution of the respective isomers. Preliminary studies with NaNO₂, L-cysteine, D-cysteine and L-glutathione (n=3-6 each) revealed that, separately, these drugs did not exert relaxant effects in preconstricted PCAs (data not shown).

Data analysis

Data are given as mean±SEM. No differences were observed between PCAs that had been stored for 12 hours or 36 hours, and data from all vessels were therefore combined. Relaxant responses are expressed as a percentage of the contraction to U46619. CRCs were analyzed as described using the logistic function described⁴⁶ to obtain pEC₅₀ (-¹⁰logEC₅₀) values. L-NAME, ODQ, hydroxocobalamin, BaCl₂, ouabain and KCl

increased basal tone to 10-15% of the maximum contractile response when given separately, and to 15-40% of the maximum contractile response when given in combination. U46619-induced preconstrictions were corrected for this increase in baseline. Statistical analysis versus control was by one-way ANOVA, followed by Dunnett's post-hoc evaluation. P<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Bradykinin-induced relaxation

Bradykinin relaxed preconstricted vessel segments in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀=7.8±0.1, n=21; Figure 1). L-NAME (100 μ mol/l) shifted the bradykinin CRC \approx 10-fold to the right (pEC₅₀=7.1±0.1, n=20; P<0.01). Increasing the L-NAME concentration threefold (n=6), or using the NOS inhibitor L-NOARG (n=6) yielded similar results (Figure 2), indicating that NOS inhibition was maximal at a concentration of 100 μ mol/l L-NAME. Comparable rightward shifts were obtained with KCl (pEC₅₀=6.6±0.3, n=7; P=0.10), charybdotoxin + apamin (pEC₅₀=6.5±0.1, n=6; P<0.01) and ouabain + BaCl₂ (pEC₅₀=6.3±0.4, n=8; P<0.01), but not with iberiotoxin + apamin (pEC₅₀=7.4±0.1, n=8).

Complete blockade of the bradykinin-induced effects was obtained when combining L-NAME with either KCl (n=5), charybdotoxin + apamin (n=6), or ouabain + BaCl₂ (n=8). In contrast, iberiotoxin + apamin did not have an additional effect on top of L-NAME (n=10).

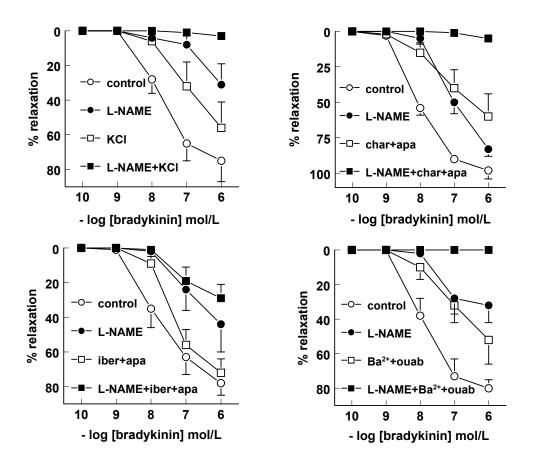


Figure 1. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μ mol/l L-NAME and/or 20 mmol/l KCl, 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char) + 100 nmol/l apamin (apa), 100 nmol/l iberiotoxin (iber) + 100 nmol/l apamin, or 1 mmol/l ouabain (ouab) + 30 μ mol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺). Data (mean±SEM of 5-21 experiments) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

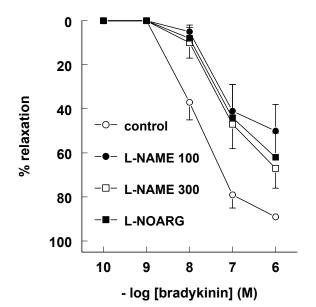


Figure 2. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μmol/l L-NAME, 300 μmol/l L-NAME or 100 μmol/l L-NOARG. Data (mean±SEM of 6-9 experiments) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

When given separately, apamin, charybdotoxin, iberiotoxin, tetraethylammonium, $BaCl_2$ and $ZnCl_2$ did not affect the bradykinin CRC (Figure 3, n=7 for each). Ouabain shifted the bradykinin CRC to the right (pEC₅₀=6.9±0.3, n=7; P<0.01). This shift was not different from the shift observed in the presence of ouabain + $BaCl_2$, suggesting that $BaCl_2$ has no additional effect on top of ouabain.

The *S*-nitrosothiol-depleting agent PHMBA reduced the maximum relaxant effect of bradykinin from 88±2% to 64±7% (n=6, P=0.01; Figure 4), without affecting its potency. Similar results were obtained with PHMBA in the presence of L-NAME (n=6). In contrast, the *S*-nitrosothiol-depleting agent ethacrynic acid (alone or on top of L-NAME) did not affect the bradykinin CRC (n=11, Figure 4).

Thus, NO, S-nitrosothiols, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels and Na^+-K^+ -ATPase are involved in bradykinin-induced relaxations of PCAs.

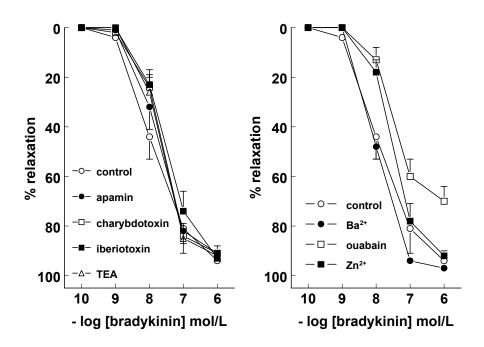


Figure 3. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in the absence (control) or presence of 100 nmol/l apamin (apa), 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char), 100 nmol/l iberiotoxin (iber), 1 mmol/l tetraethylammonium (TEA), 30 μmol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺), 1 mmol/l ouabain or 200 μmol/l ZnCl₂ (Zn²⁺). Data (mean±SEM of 7 experiments) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

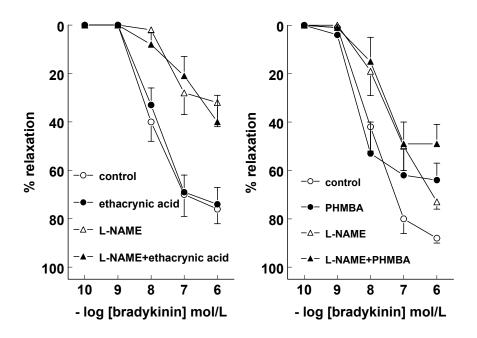


Figure 4. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to bradykinin in the absence (control) or presence of 100 μmol/l L-NAME and/or 50 μmol/l ethacrynic acid and 10 μmol/l PHMBA. Data (mean±SEM; n=6-11) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

NO-induced relaxation

SNAP relaxed preconstricted vessel segments in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀=6.4±0.1, n=21; Figure 5). Both hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀=5.6±0.1, n=14; P<0.005) and ODQ (pEC₅₀=5.3±0.1, n=13; P<0.001) shifted the SNAP-induced CRC to the right, and, in combination, completely blocked SNAP-induced relaxation (Figure 5). Charybdotoxin + apamin, as well as iberiotoxin + apamin, either together or on top of hydroxocobalamin or ODQ, did not induce a rightward shift of the SNAP CRC (Figures 5 and 6; n=6-13). KCl (pEC₅₀=6.0±0.2, n=10) and ouabain + BaCl₂ (pEC₅₀=5.7±0.2, n=8) comparably shifted the SNAP CRC to the right, although significance (P=0.02) was reached for ouabain + BaCl₂ only. When given separately, BaCl₂ (n=8) did not affect the SNAP CRC, whereas ouabain (pEC₅₀=6.1±0.3, n=8; P=0.02) induced a similar rightward shift as ouabain + BaCl₂ (Figures 5 and 7).

Thus, relaxations induced by exogenous NO depend on guanylyl cyclase and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase.

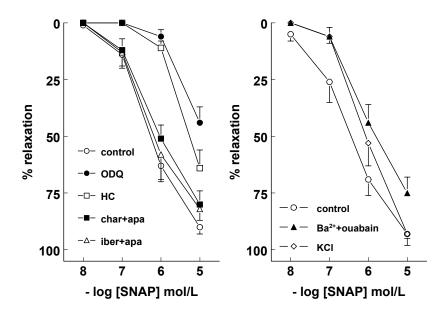


Figure 5. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to SNAP in the absence (control) or presence of 10 μ mol/l ODQ, 200 μ mol/l hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char) + 100 nmol/l apamin (apa), 100 nmol/l iberiotoxin (iber) + 100 nmol/l apamin, 20 mmol/l KCl or 1 mmol/l ouabain + 30 μ mol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺). Data (mean±SEM; n=6-21) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

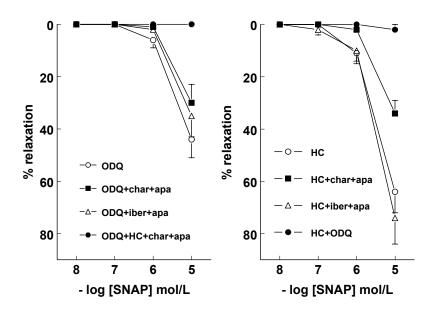


Figure 6. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to SNAP in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μmol/l ODQ, 200 μmol/l hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char), 100 nmol/l apamin (apa) and 100 nmol/l iberiotoxin (iber). Data (mean±SEM; n=6-13) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

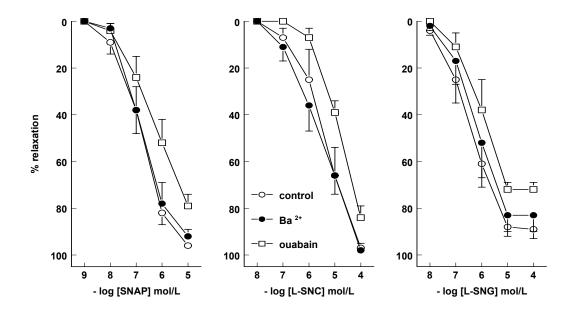


Figure 7. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to SNAP, L-SNC or L-SNG in the absence (control) or presence of 30 μ mol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺) or 1 mmol/l ouabain. Data (mean±SEM; n=6-8) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

S-nitrosothiol-induced relaxation

Both L-SNC (pEC₅₀=6.3±0.3, n=20) and D-SNC (pEC₅₀=5.9±0.2, n=15) relaxed preconstricted PCAs in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 8). ODQ and hydroxocobalamin shifted the CRCs of both L-SNC (pEC₅₀'s 4.2±0.1 and 4.3±0.1, n=6; P<0.01) and D-SNC (pEC₅₀'s 4.6±0.3 and 4.2±0.1, n=5-6; P<0.01) >10 fold to the right and, when combined, nearly completely prevented the L-SNC- and D-SNC-induced effects. Charybdotoxin + apamin shifted the L-SNC CRC (pEC₅₀=5.5±0.2, n=14; P=0.02), but not the D-SNC CRC, 5-10 fold to the right. Endothelium-denudation (n=7) did not prevent L-SNC-induced relaxations, nor did iberiotoxin + apamin (n=7) affect the L-SNC CRC (Figure 9). KCl (pEC₅₀=5.0±0.1, n=7; P<0.01) and ouabain + BaCl₂ (pEC₅₀=5.0±0.3, n=7; P=0.04) shifted the L-SNC CRC to the right. When given on top of ODQ and hydroxocobalamin, ouabain + BaCl₂, but not charybdotoxin + apamin, iberiotoxin + apamin or KCl, fully blocked the L-SNC-induced effects (Figure 9, n=9 for all). When given separately, BaCl₂ (n=6) did not affect the L-SNC CRC, whereas ouabain (pEC₅₀=4.8±0.1, n=6; P=0.03) induced a similar rightward shift as ouabain + BaCl₂ (Figures 7 and 9).

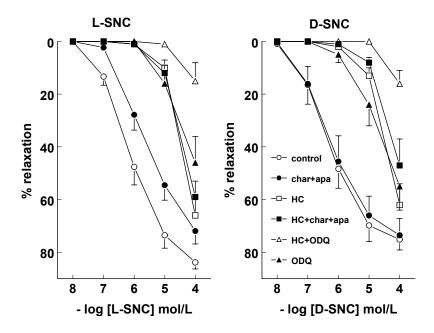


Figure 8. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNC or D-SNC in the absence (control) or presence of one or more of the following inhibitors: 10 μmol/l ODQ, 200 μmol/l hydroxocobalamin (HC), 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char) and 100 nmol/l apamin (apa). Data (mean±SEM; n=5-20) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

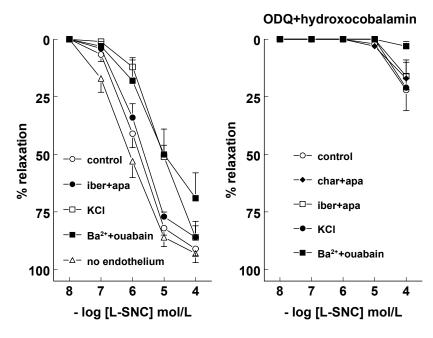


Figure 9. Relaxations of intact or endothelium-denuded PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNC without (left panel) or with 10 μ mol/l ODQ and 200 μ mol/l hydroxocobalamin (right panel) in the absence (control and no endothelium) or presence of 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char) + 100 nmol/l apamin (apa), 100 nmol/l iberiotoxin (iber) + 100 nmol/l apamin, 20 mmol/l KCl or 1 mmol/l ouabain + 30 μ mol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺). Data (mean±SEM; n=7-20) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

Results obtained with L-SNG (pEC₅₀=6.6±0.2, n=9; Figure 10) were identical to those with L-SNC, in that ODQ (pEC₅₀=5.0±0.1, n=9; P<0.001 vs. control), hydroxocobalamin (pEC₅₀=5.4±0.1, n=9; P<0.001), charybdotoxin + apamin (pEC₅₀=6.0±0.2, n=9; P=0.04) and ouabain + BaCl₂ (pEC₅₀=4.8±0.3, n=9; P<0.01) all shifted the L-SNG CRC to the right. In addition, ouabain + BaCl₂ reduced the maximal relaxant effect of L-SNG from 95±3% to 46±11% (P<0.001). Results with ouabain alone (pEC₅₀=5.6±0.3, n=6; P=0.04) were identical to those with ouabain + BaCl₂ (Figures 7 and 10). BaCl₂ alone (n=6) did not affect L-SNG (Figure 7).

Thus, S-nitrosothiol-induced relaxation occurs in a stereoselective manner and depends on guanylyl cyclase, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase.

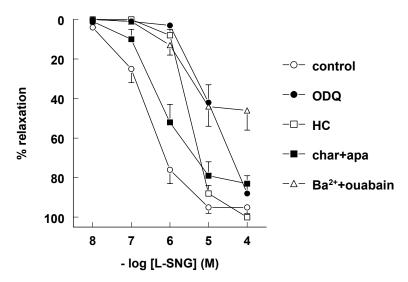


Figure 10. Relaxations of PCAs, preconstricted with U46619, to L-SNG without (control) or with 10 μ mol/l ODQ, 200 μ mol/l hydroxocobalamin, 100 nmol/l charybdotoxin (char) + 100 nmol/l apamin (apa) or 1 mmol/l ouabain + 30 μ mol/l BaCl₂ (Ba²⁺). Data (mean±SEM; n=9) are expressed as a percentage of the constriction induced by U46619.

KCI-induced relaxation

KCl relaxed preconstricted PCAs in a concentration-dependent manner. At a concentration of 2.5 mmol/l KCl, relaxation amounted to 30±4% of the U46619-induced preconstriction (n=7), and 7.5 mmol/l KCl relaxed preconstricted vessels by 45±7%. In contrast, 17.5 mmol/l KCl induced a constrictor response (corresponding with 18±1% of the maximum contraction) on top of the U46619-induced preconstriction.

Thus, low concentrations of KCl induce relaxation, and high (depolarizing) concentrations induce constriction.

Discussion

In the present study, bradykinin-induced, EDHF-mediated vasodilation in PCAs was found to involve IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase, in agreement with a recent proposal by Busse et al..⁶¹ It does not involve BK_{Ca} channels, two-pore domain K⁺ channels (TASK-1), K_{IR} channels or (as shown in a previous study⁵⁴) ATP-dependent K⁺ channels. The NO donor SNAP, in addition to its well-known effects on guanylyl cyclase, also activated Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. SNAP did not affect Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺-channels, thereby confirming that, in PCAs, NO is not EDHF. Finally, the nitrosothiols L-SNC and L-SNG, but not D-SNC, on top of their relaxant effects via the NO-guanylyl cyclase-cGMP pathway, activated IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, and Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase. This finding, combined with our observation that the nitrosothiol-depleting agent PHMBA reduced the maximum relaxant effect of bradykinin, supports the concept that *S*-nitrosothiols, in a stereoselective manner, mediate bradykinin-induced, EDHF-dependent effects in PCAs.

Despite reports on EET- (a putative EDHF candidate) and NO-induced activation of BK_{Ca} channels, ^{63,71,72} the selective BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor iberiotoxin did not affect the relaxant response to any of the agonists applied in the present study. Tetraethylammonium, at a concentration that selectively blocks BK_{Ca} channels, ¹³⁷ also did not affect the relaxant response to bradykinin. Thus, in PCAs, BK_{Ca} channels do not contribute to bradykinin-induced relaxation. In addition, based on the lack of effect of inhibitors of the cytochrome-P450 metabolism of arachidonic acid towards bradykinin in porcine and human coronary arteries, ^{54,57,58} an EET is unlikely to be EDHF in these coronary arteries.

Because of the lack of effect of BK_{Ca} channel blockade, the inhibitory effects of the non-selective IK_{Ca} and BK_{Ca} channel inhibitor charybdotoxin in this study must have been due to blockade of IK_{Ca} channels. Charybdotoxin-induced blockade became apparent only in the presence of the SK_{Ca} channel inhibitor apamin, in agreement with the idea that both

 IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels contribute to the EDHF response, and that blockade of one channel offers an 'escape' via the other.^{57,58,69,70,131} IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels reside in porcine coronary artery endothelial cells,⁷⁰ and SK_{Ca} channels have also been demonstrated in smooth muscle cells.¹²⁴ Thus, the IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel-dependent effects of L-SNC and L-SNG may have resulted in hyperpolarization of both endothelial and smooth muscle cells. In support of the latter, L-SNC also relaxed de-endothelialized PCAs. However, this cannot be taken as unequivocal evidence for the activation of Ca^{2+} -dependent K^+ -channels on smooth muscle cells by S-nitrosothiols, since it may well be explained by the activation of guanylyl cyclase through the decomposition of L-SNC and L-SNG to NO.

Endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel activation results in modest K^+ accumulation in the myo-endothelial space. This K^+ is believed to subsequently hyperpolarize vascular smooth muscle cells by activating Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase and/or K_{IR} channels. 61,64,65,132 We tested this hypothesis by studying the relaxant effects of KCl in PCAs. Indeed, in agreement with a study in porcine renal arteries, 132 low (<10 mmol/l) KCl concentrations relaxed preconstricted vessels, whereas higher (depolarizing) concentrations induced constriction. K_{IR} channels did not contribute to the relaxations observed in our experimental setup, as $BaCl_2$ (alone or on top of ouabain) did not exert a blocking effect towards bradykinin, SNAP, L-SNC or L-SNG. Since NO itself was also found to activate Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase, both endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel activation and decomposition to NO may underlie the S-nitrosothiol-induced activation Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase.

Direct activation of Ca^{2+} -dependent K^+ -channels by S-nitrosothiols has been demonstrated before. Such activation most likely involves 'nitrosation motifs' within the ion channels. For instance, in the BK_{Ca} channel, the cysteine residues within the α subunit have been identified as S-nitrosothiol binding sites. The stereoselectivity of this effect (Figure 8) confirms previous in vivo studies with S-nitrosothiols in rats.

The contribution of IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels to the relaxant effects of L-S-nitrosothiols appears to be more modest than the NO-related contribution. Complete blockade of the L-SNC-induced effects was obtained only in the presence of ODQ, hydroxocobalamin and ouabain. This supports the idea that, in the absence of NO, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel activation results in K^+ release and subsequent activation of Na^+ - K^+ -ATPase. However,

in contrast with this concept, IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel inhibition did not yield additional effects on top of blockade of the NO-guanylyl cyclase-cGMP pathway. This discrepancy may relate to incomplete or reversible inhibitory actions of both ODQ and hydroxocobalamin, 54,58,127 which could become apparent at high agonist concentrations and/or during particular inhibitor combinations only.

Although bradykinin-induced *S*-nitrosothiol release has not been demonstrated so far, our data with the *S*-nitrosothiol-depleting compound PHMBA (which reduced the relaxant effect of bradykinin by ≈30%, both in the presence and absence of NO) fully support this concept. Furthermore, endothelial and smooth muscle cells have been reported to contain preformed pools of NO-containing factors such as *S*-nitrosothiols.^{54,59,107,128} These pools become depleted after repeated exposure to endothelium-dependent agonists (e.g., bradykinin), following prolonged NOS inhibition, and after exposure to light.^{54,59,60,107} The thiol alkylating agent ethacrynic acid did not affect the bradykinin-induced relaxations in PCAs, possibly because this agent inhibits regeneration of the stores rather than directly inducing depletion.¹³⁸ Both NOS and non-NOS sources are believed to contribute to the maintenance of NO stores.^{107,135,138}

In conclusion, our data support the concept that L-S-nitrosothiols mediate bradykinin-induced, EDHF-dependent relaxation in PCAs. Moreover, they raise the possibility that L-S-nitrosothiols are EDHFs themselves. Thus, in addition to providing a new pharmacological route for delivering NO regionally, S-nitrosothiols could simultaneously exert EDHF-like actions.

Chapter 6

Carvedilol-induced antagonism of angiotensin II:

A matter of α_1 -adrenoceptor blockade

Summary

Recent trials have suggested favourable effects on diabetes onset and control of the nonselective $\beta + \alpha_1$ -adrenoceptor blocker carvedilol as compared to the selective β_1 adrenoceptor blocker metoprolol. Similar metabolic effects have been established for renin-angiotensin-system (RAS) blockers. Angiotensin (Ang) II type-1 (AT₁)- α_1 -receptor crosstalk may provide a mechanism by which carvedilol affects the RAS. Accordingly, we examined the effects of selective versus non-selective β-adrenoceptor blockade on AT₁ receptor-mediated vasoconstrictor responses to Ang II in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs), simulating both the hyperadrenergic and activated RAS states present in cardiovascular disease. Therefore, HCMAs, obtained from 23 heart valve donors, were mounted in myographs. Ang II and the α_1 -adrenoceptor agonist phenylephrine constricted HCMAs to maximally 57±15 and 56±25% of the contraction to 100 mmol/L K⁺. Neither carvedilol, metoprolol, the nonselective β-adrenoceptor antagonist propranolol, nor the α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist prazosin affected the constrictor response to Ang II. Thus, α_1 - and β -adrenoceptors are not involved in the direct constrictor effects of Ang II, nor do the anti-oxidant and anti-endothelin-1 properties of carvedilol antagonize Ang II. Ang II, when added to the organ bath at a subthreshold concentration, greatly amplified the response to phenylephrine. Both carvedilol and the AT₁ receptor antagonist irbesartan inhibited this Ang II-induced potentiation. Furthermore, carvedilol blocked the Ang II-induced amplification of phenylephrine-induced inositolphosphate accumulation in cardiomyocytes. In conclusion, AT_1 - α_1 -receptor crosstalk, involving inositolphosphates, sensitizes HCMAs to α_1 adrenoceptor agonists. Our results suggest that, in the presence of an increased sympathetic tone, carvedilol provides AT_1 receptor blockade via its α_1 -adrenoceptor blocking effects. Herein lies an explanation for the favourable metabolic effects of carvedilol versus metoprolol.

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is a co-morbidity with adverse prognostic impact in subjects with cardiovascular disease and its incidence and progression is favorably affected by blockade of the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) in a dose-dependent fashion. Recent evidence obtained in subjects with chronic heart failure (CHF)¹⁴² as well as hypertension¹⁴³ further suggests that the incidence and progression of diabetes mellitus may be differentially affected by selective (metoprolol) versus non-selective (carvedilol) β-adrenoceptor blockade in subjects already treated with RAS-blocking agents. The precise mechanism for this effect of carvedilol remains to be elucidated. Interestingly, it has recently been demonstrated that subjects with CHF treated chronically with carvedilol are less sensitive to angiotensin (Ang) II than subjects treated with metoprolol. It is conceivable that this potentiation of RAS blockade impacts metabolic control in a similar manner as an increase in the dose of a RAS blocker.

Several mechanisms could underlie the carvedilol-induced antagonism of Ang II: First, α_1 -Ang II type 1 (AT₁)-receptor crosstalk (e.g., due to heterodimerization) greatly sensitizes α_1 -adrenoceptor-mediated responses in the presence of subthreshold concentrations of Ang II. ^{145,146} Carvedilol, being an α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist, will block such Ang II-dependent potentiation. Second, carvedilol inhibits the synthesis of both endothelin-1 (ET-1) and superoxide, ^{147,148} two mediators of Ang II-induced responses. ^{82,149} Third, carvedilol stimulates NO release from endothelial cells through ATP efflux ¹⁵⁰ and might thus counteract Ang II-induced hypertensive responses. ⁴⁰ Finally, Barki-Harrington et al. ¹⁵¹ recently reported a direct interaction between β -adrenoceptors and AT₁ receptors in mouse cardiomyocytes, allowing dual inhibition of both receptors by either the non-selective β -adrenoceptor antagonist propranolol or the AT₁ receptor antagonist valsartan. In the present study we investigated the effect of selective versus non-selective β -adrenoceptor blockade on Ang II-induced vasoconstriction in human coronary microarteries (HCMAs). We also addressed the precise mechanism of this effect, using both HCMAs and isolated cells.

Methods

Human tissue collection

HCMAs were obtained from 23 heart-beating organ donors (9 men, 14 women, age 13-61 years, mean 45 years), who died of non-cardiac causes (1 cerebrovascular accident, 8 head trauma, 7 subarachnoid bleeding, 1 post-anoxic encephalopathy, 6 intracranial bleeding) <24 hours before the heart was taken to the laboratory. Hearts were provided by the Rotterdam Heart Valve Bank after removal of the heart valves for transplantation purposes. The study was approved by the Ethics Committee of the Erasmus MC. The hearts were stored in an ice-cold sterile organ-protecting solution after circulatory arrest. After arrival at the laboratory, a tertiary branch of the left anterior descending coronary artery (diameter, 240-500 μm; mean 320 μm) was removed and stored overnight in a cold (4°C), oxygenated Krebs bicarbonate solution of the following composition (mmol/L): NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, CaCl₂ 2.5, MgSO₄ 1.2, KH₂PO₄ 1.2, NaHCO₃ 25 and glucose 8.3; pH 7.4.

Myograph studies

Following overnight storage, HCMAs were cut into segments of \approx 2 mm length and mounted in a Mulvany myograph (J.P. Trading) with separated 6-mL organ baths containing oxygenated Krebs at 37°C. The Krebs was continuously aerated with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2 , and tissue responses were measured as changes in isometric force, using a Harvard isometric transducer. After a 30-minute stabilization period, the optimal internal diameter was set to a tension equivalent to 0.9 times the estimated diameter at 100 mm Hg effective transmural pressure as described before. Endothelial integrity was verified by observing relaxation to 10 nmol/L substance P after preconstriction with 10 nmol/L of the thromboxane A_2 analogue U46619 (Sigma). Subsequently, to determine the maximum contractile response, the tissue was exposed to 100 mmol/L KCl. The segments were then allowed to equilibrate in fresh organ bath fluid for 30 min. Next, segments were pre-incubated for 30 minutes with carvedilol (a gift of Roche), metoprolol (Sigma), propranolol (Sigma), prazosin (Sigma), irbesartan (a gift of Bristol-Myers Squibb) or eprosartan (a gift of SmithKline-Beecham). Thereafter, concentration-

response curves (CRCs) were constructed to Ang II, endothelin-1 (ET-1) and/or phenylephrine. The cyclo-oxygenase inhibitor indomethacin (5 μ mol/L) was present during the entire experiment to suppress spontaneously occurring contractions and relaxations.

Inositolphosphate generation in cardiomyocytes

Primary cultures of neonatal rat ventricular cardiomyocytes were prepared as described before. 13 Cells were labelled with 2 μ Ci myo-[2- 3 H]inositol/mL for 24 hours, washed, and preincubated for 10 minutes with vehicle, carvedilol or irbesartan. Next, the cells were stimulated for 30 minutes with phenylephrine and/or Ang II in the presence of 10 mmol/L LiCl to inhibit inositolmonophosphatase activity. Intracellular water-soluble inositolphosphates (InsP_n) were then separated and quantified as described before. 13

Bioluminescence Resonance Energy Transfer (BRET)

Enhanced yellow fluorescent protein (eYFP) was appended to the C-terminal tail of the human AT₁ receptor from which the stop codon was eliminated, and the human α_{1B} adrenoceptor was modified by C-terminal, in-frame addition of Renilla luciferase. The α_{1B} -adrenoceptor was chosen because it represents the major α_1 -adrenoceptor subtype in human arteries. 152 In addition, carvedilol inhibits α_{1B} -adrenoceptor-mediated effects with high potency (pK_i=8.6).¹⁵³ HEK293 cells were transfected with the two receptors and harvested after 48 hours as described before. 154 Cells were then suspended in phosphatebuffered saline and mixed (1:1) with 10 µmol/L h-coelenterazine. eYFP will act as a resonance energy transfer acceptor for light emitted by the oxidation of h-coelenterazine by Renilla luciferase only if the two receptors are within 50-100 Å. 155 Immediately after the addition of h-coelenterazine, using a Spex fluorolog spectrofluorimeter, the emission spectrum (400-600 nm) was acquired with the excitation lamp turned off (slit width=10 nm, 2 sec/increment). For comparisons between experiments, emission spectra were normalized with the peak emission from *Renilla* luciferase in the region of 480 nm being defined as an intensity of 1.00. Energy transfer signal was calculated by measuring the area under the curve between 500 nm and 550 nm. Background was taken as the area of this region of the spectrum when examining emission of cells expressing only the energy

donor. Energy acceptor to energy donor expression ratios were measured as described previously.¹⁵⁴

Data analysis

Data are given as mean±SEM. Contractile responses are expressed as a percentage of the contraction to 100 mmol/L K⁺. CRCs were analyzed as described to obtain pEC₅₀ (- ¹⁰log50) values. ⁴⁶ In order to compare the effects of the various agents, the amounts of InsP_n were expressed as a percentage of the total cellular amount of [2-³H]inositol-labeled products. Statistical analysis was by paired t-test or ANOVA, followed by post hoc evaluation according to Dunnet. P<0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Myograph Studies

Ang II (n=9), ET-1 (n=5) and phenylephrine (n=9) constricted HCMAs in a concentration-dependent manner (pEC₅₀'s: 8.5 ± 0.1 , 8.2 ± 0.1 and 4.8 ± 0.2 ; E_{max} 57±15, 121 ± 16 and $56\pm25\%$ of the contraction to 100 mmol/L K⁺; Figure 1). Carvedilol (n=6), metoprolol (n=6), propranolol (n=7), and prazosin (n=8), all at a concentration of 10 μ mol/L, did not affect the Ang II CRC (Figure 2). Prior application of 1 nmol/L Ang II to the organ bath greatly amplified the maximum response to phenylephrine (E_{max} 113±28 vs. $56\pm25\%$, n=6; P<0.01), without altering the pEC₅₀. No such amplification was observed following prior application of 1 nmol/L ET-1 (E_{max} 64±17 vs $58\pm36\%$, n=4;

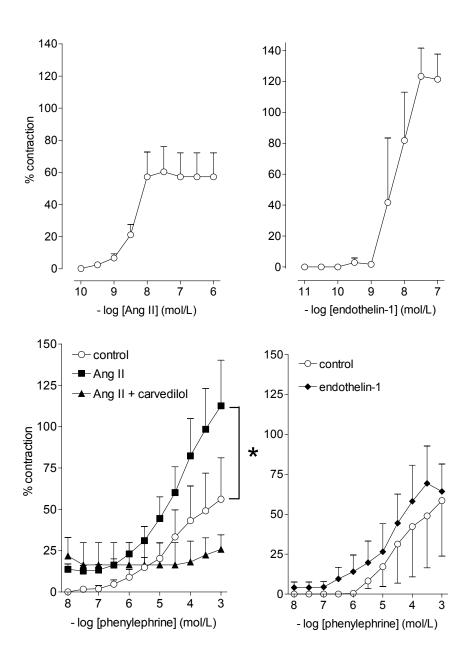


Figure 1. Top panels, contractions of HCMAs to Ang II or endothelin-1. Bottom panels, contractions of HCMAs to phenylephrine in the absence (control) or presence of 1 nmol/L Ang II, 1 nmol/L Ang II + 10 μ mol/L carvedilol, or 1 nmol/L endothelin-1. Contractions (mean±SEM, n=3-9) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mmol/L κ^{+} . *, P<0.01.

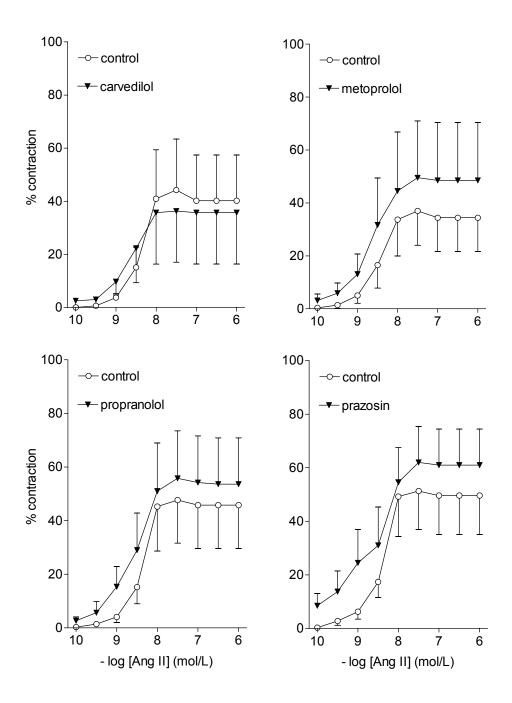


Figure 2. Contractions of HCMAs to Ang II in the absence (control) or presence of carvedilol, metoprolol, propranolol, or prazosin, all at a concentration of 10 μ mol/L. Contractions (mean±SEM, n=5-8) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mmol/L K $^{+}$.

P=NS), although the vasoconstriction induced by this concentration of ET-1 ($4.0\pm3.4\%$) was not significantly different from that induced by 1 nmol/L Ang II ($13.6\pm3.3\%$). Carvedilol ($10 \mu mol/L$; n=3) fully prevented the phenylephrine-induced effects in the presence of Ang II (Figure 1).

Irbesartan (n=5) concentration-dependently inhibited the Ang II-induced increase in phenylephrine efficacy, fully reversing the potentiation at a concentration of 100 nmol/L and higher (Figure 3). The inhibitory profile of irbesartan towards phenylephrine in the presence of 1 nmol/L Ang II was indistinguishable from that towards Ang II (Figure 3). Furthermore, neither 1 μ mol/L irbesartan (n=5) nor 1 μ mol/L eprosartan (n=5) affected the phenylephrine-induced responses in the absence of Ang II (data not shown).

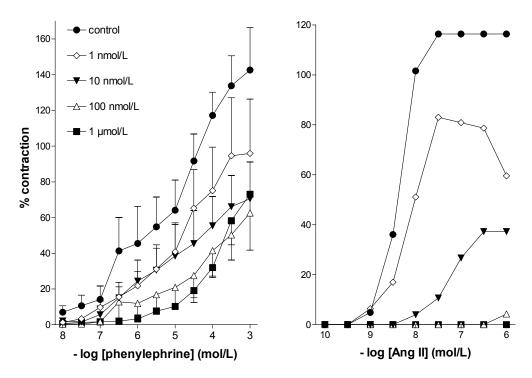


Figure 3. Contractions of HCMAs to phenylephrine in the presence of 1 nmol/L Ang II (left) and to Ang II (right) at increasing concentrations of irbesartan. Contractions (mean \pm SEM; n=4-5) are expressed as a percentage of the response to 100 mmol/L K † . The phenylephrine CRCs in the presence of the two highest irbesartan concentrations are indistinguishable from the phenylephrine CRC in the absence of this inhibitor (see Figure 2). Note that the inhibitory profile of irbesartan towards the Ang II-dependent component is identical in the two graphs.

Inositolphosphate generation in cardiomyocytes

Phenylephrine stimulated $InsP_n$ accumulation in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 4, n=3). Carvedilol (10 μ mol/L) fully blocked this effect (n=3). In agreement with a previous study, 13 10 μ mol/L Ang II (n=3) did not significantly affect $InsP_n$ accumulation. However, this concentration of Ang II amplified the response to 1 μ mol/L phenylephrine, an effect that was abolished by 10 μ mol/L carvedilol (n=3 for all conditions).

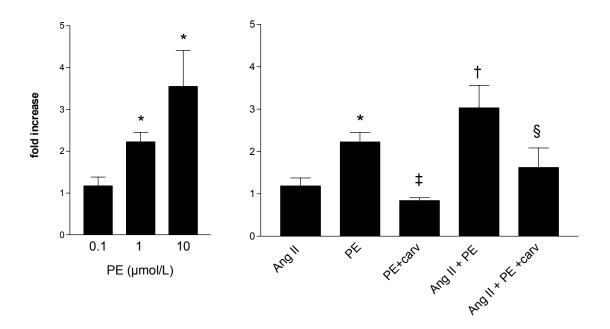
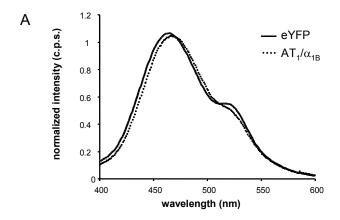


Figure 4. Left panel, concentration-dependent effect of phenylephrine (PE) on inositolphosphate ($InsP_n$) accumulation in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes. Right panel, effect of 1 μ mol/L phenylephrine and/or 10 nmol/L angiotensin II (Ang II) in the absence or presence of 10 μ mol/L carvedilol (carv) on $InsP_n$ accumulation in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes. Data are mean±SEM of 3 experiments each. Phenylephrine increased $InsP_n$ accumulation in all 3 experiments at concentrations \geq 1 μ mol/L (*). Ang II increased the effect of phenylephrine in all 3 experiments (†), and carvedilol reduced the effect of phenylephrine both without (‡) and with Ang II (§) in all 3 experiments.

BRET

Co-expression of the α_{1B}-adrenoceptor C-terminally tagged with *Renilla* luciferase and the AT₁ receptor with eYFP in HEK293 cells, followed by the addition of h-coelenterazine, generated a major peak in the region of 480 nm (representing light output from the oxidation of the substrate by the luciferase) and a second peak (representing resonance energy transfer between luciferase and eYFP), centred at 527 nm (Figure 5). This is consistent with the hypothesis that the two receptors are able to form a constitutive oligomeric complex. The signal generated was of similar magnitude to that reported previously for the interaction between the AT₁ receptor and a second G-protein-coupled receptor, the Mas proto-oncogene. ¹⁵⁶



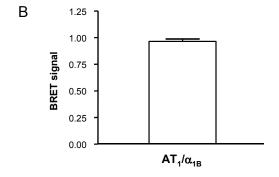


Figure 5. Panel A, Hetero-oligomeric interaction following co-expression of the α_{1B} -adrenoceptor-Renilla luciferase and the AT₁ receptor-eYFP in HEK293 cells. A fusion protein incorporating the sequences of both Renilla luciferase and eYFP serves as a BRET-positive control.(Ramsay et al., 2002) c.p.s., counts per second. Panel B, Quantitation of the area under the peak from 500-550 nm. Data are mean±SEM of 3 experiments.

Discussion

Ang II stimulates the sympathetic nervous system in a number of ways, including a central action to improve sympathetic outflow, 157,158 together with a facilitation of the release of catecholamines from peripheral sympathetic neurons via ganglionic and axonal presynaptic receptors. 159,160 In addition, Ang II increases the vascular sensitivity to α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists. 146 Indirect confirmation of this concept in humans has come from a study in which the ACE inhibitor perindoprilat attenuated the forearm blood flow response to exogenous norepinephrine. 161 The present study is the first to directly confirm Ang II-induced potentiation of α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists in HCMAs. Potentiation was not observed after application of a subthreshold concentration of ET-1 to the organ bath, and thus, this effect is specific for Ang II. Furthermore, the lack of effect of prazosin towards Ang II excludes the possibility that release of endogenous norepinephrine (through stimulation of presynaptic AT_1 receptors) contributed to the vasoconstrictor effect of Ang II in this preparation.

Irbesartan blocked the Ang II-induced potentiation of phenylephrine in a concentration-dependent manner. The inhibitory profile of the AT_1 receptor antagonist towards the potentiating effects of Ang II was indistinguishable from that towards the direct constrictor effects of Ang II. At irbesartan concentrations of 100 nmol/L and higher, the effects of phenylephrine were identical to those without Ang II, and neither irbesartan nor eprosartan interfered with phenylephrine in the absence of Ang II. Thus, the potentiating effects of Ang II depend on AT_1 receptor activation, and do not involve direct α_1 -adrenoceptor stimulatory effects. Consequently, AT_1 receptors and α_1 -adrenoceptors may interact physically (e.g., through heterodimerization), and/or the Ang II-induced amplification results from changes in a common signaling process regulating contractility or from crosstalk between different signaling processes. Our data support both possibilities. BRET confirms the potential for constitutive physical association between the two receptor types, and the inositolphosphate data are in full agreement with the fact that both receptors couple to $G_{q/11}$, and, through activation of phospholipase $C\beta$, promote the hydrolysis of phosphatidylinositol 4,5- bisphosphate into inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate

and sn-1-2 diacylglycerol. ^{162,163} The latter molecule activates isoforms of protein kinase C, which have already been shown to contribute to the Ang II-induced amplification of α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists in rabbits. ¹⁶⁴

Carvedilol inhibited both the enhanced vasoconstriction to phenylephrine and the increased inositolphosphate accumulation in the presence of Ang II. It did not block the direct constrictor effects of Ang II in HCMAs. This implies that ET-1 and superoxide (which are both blocked by carvedilol^{147,148}) do not mediate the effects of Ang II, in agreement with a previous study in human coronary arteries,52 and that the carvedilolinduced release of NO from endothelial cells, 150 if occurring in HCMAs, is insufficient to counteract the Ang II-induced vasoconstriction. Taken together therefore, particularly in view of the increased sympathetic tone in chronic heart failure, the α_1 -adrenoceptor blocking effects of carvedilol most likely underlie its capacity to antagonize angiotensin II. Such antagonism may be expected to exert additional effects on top of RAS blockade in chronic heart failure, since the ACE inhibitors and/or AT₁ receptor antagonists that are currently being used do not fully suppress the RAS. Either they are dosed too low¹⁶⁵ or their effects are overcome, at least in part, by the reactive rise in renin release, 166 ACE upregulation¹⁶⁷ and/or alternative converting enzymes like chymase.⁵³ Thus, carvedilol blocks the RAS in two ways: it inhibits renin release through blockade of renal β₁adrenoceptors, and it prevents the functional consequences of α₁-AT₁-receptor interaction. As the latter does not apply to the selective β_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist metoprolol, this additional property could underlie the favourable metabolic profiles in subjects with heart failure or hypertension treated with carvedilol as compared to metoprolol. 142,143

Our data do not support a direct interaction between β -adrenoceptors and AT_1 receptors in HCMAs. Such interaction has been reported in mouse cardiomyocytes, ¹⁵¹ allowing propranolol and the AT_1 receptor antagonist valsartan to block both Ang II- and isoproterenol-induced contractile responses. At least two explanations for this discrepancy may be put forward. First, the interaction may be limited to β_1 -adrenoceptors, whereas HCMAs contain β_2 -adrenoceptors. Second, unlike the comparable (positive inotropic) effects of β -adrenoceptors and AT_1 receptors in cardiomyocytes, β_2 -adrenoceptors and AT_1 receptors exert opposite effects in

Chapter 6

HCMAs, 47,168 and thus, if anything, propranolol would be expected to enhance Ang II-induced vasoconstriction. For instance, blockade of vasodilator AT₂ receptors (which also heterodimerize with AT₁ receptors³⁵) increases the Ang II-induced constriction in HCMAs. 47 The fact that β_2 -adrenoceptor blockade did not enhance Ang II-induced vasoconstriction confirms the absence of endogenous catecholamines in this preparation. In summary, we report for the first time that α_1 -AT₁-receptor crosstalk is of functional importance in human coronary arteries. Our findings provide a mechanism that could explain the results of clinical studies comparing metoprolol and carvedilol in cardiovascular diseases states.

Chapter 7

Summary and general discussion

Summary

Introduction and aim (Chapter 1)

Angiotensin (Ang) II induces vasorelaxation via activation of Ang II type 2 (AT₂) receptors. This effect most likely depends on endothelial bradykinin type 2 (B₂) receptorinduced NO release, suggesting that AT₂ receptors either stimulate bradykinin release and/or couple directly (e.g., through heterodimerization) to B₂ receptors in a bradykinin-independent manner. B₂ receptor stimulation also results in the release of a wide range of non-NO endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factors (EDHFs) like K⁺, prostacyclin, epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs), H₂O₂ and S-nitrososothiols. Consequently, some or all of these EDHFs might simultaneously contribute to the AT₂ receptor-mediated vasorelaxation. It was the aim of the present thesis to study AT₂ receptor-induced vasodilation in humans, and to focus further on the identity of EDHF. In addition, the interaction between AT₁ and α_1 -adrenergic receptors was studied in order to obtain an explanation for the Ang II-antagonistic effects of the non-selective β - and α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist carvedilol.

AT_2 receptors and vasorelaxation in humans (Chapter 2)

Ang II constricted human coronary microarteries (HCMAs) through activation of AT₁ receptors. Pre-incubation of HCMA segments with the AT₂ receptor antagonist PD123319 increased the constrictor effect of Ang II, a phenomenon that was particularly present in older subjects and that was abolished after endothelium removal and during blockade of either B₂ receptors or NO synthase (NOS). Exposure of preconstricted HCMAs to Ang II in the presence of the AT₁ receptor antagonist irbesartan (allowing selective AT₂ receptor activation) resulted in relaxation. PD123319 fully abolished this effect. Radioligand binding studies and RT-PCR confirmed the expression of AT₁ and AT₂ receptors in HCMAs. Taken together, these data are the first to support AT₂ receptor-mediated vasodilation in human coronary arteries. This effect depends on endothelial B₂ receptors and NO, and appears to increase with age.

The identity of EDHF (Chapters 3, 4 and 5)

To obtain further insight into the identity of EDHF, bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation was studied in HCMAs, porcine coronary microarteries (PCMAs) and large porcine coronary arteries (PCAs), both in the absence and presence of inhibitors of NO and/or EDHF.

As expected, the contribution of de novo synthesized NO was more important in large arteries than in microarteries. In all vessels, the NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin induced a greater degree of inhibition towards bradykinin than the NOS inhibitor L-NAME. This suggests that NO can also be released from a source other than L-arginine, e.g., from NO-containing factors like *S*-nitrosothiols.

In the absence of NO, full inhibition of the bradykinin response was obtained during combined blockade of intermediate- and small-conductance Ca²⁺-dependent K⁺-channels (IK_{Ca}, SK_{Ca}), and in the presence of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase inhibitor ouabain. Ouabain also diminished the response to the NO donor SNAP, whereas combined IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel blockade did not. Furthermore, inhibitors of catalase, cyclooxygenase (COX), cytochrome P450 epoxygenase, gap junctions and large-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺-channels (BK_{Ca}) did not interfere with bradykinin-mediated responses.

Taken together, these findings suggest that bradykinin-induced relaxation in human and porcine coronary arteries depends on activation of guanylyl cyclase and Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase by NO, and activation of IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels by a factor other than NO. This factor is not prostacyclin, a cytochrome P450 product, or H₂O₂, nor does it depend on gap junctions and BK_{Ca} channels. The following evidence was obtained to support that this factor may be a *S*-nitrosothiol: 1) L-*S*-nitrosocysteine (L-SNC) relaxed PCMAs and PCAs, and this effect was diminished during combined IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel blockade in the presence but not in the absence of the endothelium, 2) L-SNC hyperpolarized vascular smooth muscle cells in PCAs, and 3) *S*-nitrosothiol-depleting agents reduced the response to bradykinin. Interestingly, combined IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channel blockade did not affect the response to D-*S*-nitrosocysteine. Thus, *S*-nitrosothiols, via stereoselective activation of endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels, may function as EDHF. In addition, due to their decomposition to NO, these factors may provide an alternative source of NO.

AT₁ and α_1 -adrenergic receptor interaction (Chapter 6)

Neither carvedilol, the selective β_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist metoprolol, the nonselective β -adrenoceptor antagonist propranolol, nor the α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist prazosin affected the constrictor response to Ang II in HCMAs. Ang II, when added to the organ bath at a subthreshold concentration, greatly amplified the response to the α_1 -adrenoceptor agonist phenylephrine. Both carvedilol and the AT_1 receptor antagonist irbesartan inhibited this Ang II-induced potentiation. Furthermore, carvedilol blocked the Ang II-induced amplification of phenylephrine-induced inositolphosphate accumulation in neonatal rat cardiomyocytes. Thus, AT_1 - α_1 -receptor crosstalk, involving inositolphosphates, sensitizes HCMAs to α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists. Its α_1 -adrenoceptor blocking effects allow carvedilol to antagonize Ang II in the face of increased sympathetic activity, e.g., in subjects with chronic heart failure.

General Discussion and Future Studies

AT₂ receptors and vasodilation in humans

Animal studies from many groups around the world support the idea that AT₂ receptors mediate vasodilation.^{5,18,22,24,33,87,88,101} Our in vitro data are the first to confirm that such vasodilation also occurs in humans. The clinical relevance of AT₂ receptor stimulation has not yet been fully established. AT₂ receptors are upregulated under pathological conditions in the human heart,^{31,43} and their stimulation may underlie, at least in part, the beneficial effect of AT₁ receptor antagonists in cardiovascular disease.^{44,45} The link between AT₂ receptors and B₂ receptors suggests that the (side-)effects of AT₁ receptor antagonists, like those of ACE inhibitors, may depend on B₂ receptor activation. Yet many questions remain: does AT₂ receptor activation result in bradykinin release or do these receptor directly couple to B₂ receptors without intermediate bradykinin synthesis? Our previous studies do not support the idea of bradykinin generation in isolated human vessels.⁴⁷ Furthermore, since the net effect of Ang II depends on the AT₁/AT₂ receptor ratio, it needs to be established how and where these receptors interact. AT₂ receptors occur predominantly on endothelial cells, whereas AT₁ receptors are believed to be

located mainly on vascular smooth muscle cells. However, the opposite has also been reported, ¹²⁶ and thus the idea of heterodimerization³⁵ may be relevant. Future studies in transgenic animals, allowing selective expression of these receptors, could shed light on this issue. Finally, we detected AT₂ receptor expression in large human coronary arteries, but could not relate this to an effect on Ang II-induced contractility. Thus, the role of these receptors in large arteries still needs to be determined.

The identity of EDHF

Bradykinin relaxed human and porcine coronary arteries in the absence of de novo synthesized NO, through pathways that did not involve guanylyl cyclase-dependent cGMP generation. Thus, an EDHF that is not de novo synthesized NO contributes to the relaxant effects of bradykinin in a cGMP-independent manner.

A recent study in endothelial NOS (eNOS)/COX-1 double-knockout mice¹⁶⁹ suggests that EDHF is the predominant endothelium-derived relaxing factor in female mice. Our human data support this conclusion, because the effect of NO blockade on bradykinin-induced relaxation of HCMAs was larger in men than in women. Possibly therefore, estrogens upregulate the EDHF pathway.^{79,80,170} Further work is needed to unravel this issue.

Combined blockade of IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels (with charybdotoxin and apamin, respectively) fully inhibited the EDHF-mediated responses in our experimental setup, as well as in the above double-knockout mice. ¹⁶⁹ These channels are located in endothelial cells. ⁶¹ Their activation results in the release of K⁺ into the myo-endothelial space. This K⁺ is capable of hyperpolarizing vascular smooth muscle cells by activating inwardly rectifying K⁺ (K_{IR}) channels and/or Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase. ^{61,64,65,132} Consequently, combined blockade of K_{IR} channels and Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase (with Ba²⁺ and ouabain, respectively) should also inhibit EDHF-mediated responses. Our data support this contention, although, at least in PCAs, Ba²⁺ did not exert effects on top of ouabain. Moreover, we and others ¹⁰⁸ observed that NO donors also activate Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase. Thus, future studies should delineate to what degree bradykinin-induced Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase activation depends on NO and/or EDHF.

Unlike several other groups, 63,71,72 we were unable to obtain evidence supporting a role for EETs (generated from arachidonic acid by cytochrome P450 epoxygenases) as EDHF. A recent study in human coronary arterioles 171 offers an explanation for this discrepancy. It was found that H_2O_2 inhibited the bradykinin-induced generation of EETs as well as the BK_{Ca} channels that normally mediate the EET-induced hyperpolarization of vascular smooth muscle cells. Thus, the contribution of EETs in HCMAs needs to be re-addressed on top of hydroxocobalamin and catalase. A complicating factor in this regard is that cytochrome P450 epoxygenases also generate superoxide, the precursor of H_2O_2 . 172

We propose that S-nitrosothiols act as EDHF in coronary (micro-)arteries. NO reacts with thiols in proteins such as albumin and hemoglobin to form S-nitrosoalbumin and Snitrosohemoglobin. These S-nitrosothiols are believed to provide a reservoir of NO bioactivity, although controversy exists with regard to their concentrations in blood. As a consequence of differences in sample handling and detection methods, plasma levels of S-nitrosothiols range from 10 nmol/L to 10 µmol/L. 173 Perhaps more important than level is the S-nitrosothiol throughput. 174 Depletion of ascorbate reduces the release of NO from S-nitrosothiols, and this may explain why the higher circulating levels of Snitrosoalbumin in women with preeclampsia (who have 50% lower ascorbate levels than normal pregnant controls) do not result in more NO release.¹⁷⁴ However, S-nitrosothiols induce relaxation not only through their decomposition to NO,75 but also by activating stereoselective recognition sites. 120 Recently, the cysteine residues within the α subunit of the BK_{Ca} channel were identified as a S-nitrosothiol binding site.⁷⁷ Our data extend these observations by providing evidence for stereoselective activation of endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels by L-S-nitrosocysteine and L-S-nitrosoglutathion and (subsequent) vascular smooth muscle cell hyperpolarization.

Electrophysiological studies should now further substantiate these findings, investigating in particular which Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channel(s) in which cell(s) can be activated by *S*-nitrosothiols. Simultaneously, it should be studied to what degree NO release determines *S*-nitrosothiol-induced coronary vasorelaxation, and how this can be influenced by vitamin C. Furthermore, in view of the findings in eNOS knockout mice, ¹⁶⁹ the *S*-nitrosothiol levels in such animals should be measured, considering the fact that inducible NOS and/or neuronal NOS may also contribute to the generation of *S*-

nitrosothiols. 107,175 It is also of importance to demonstrate bradykinin-induced release of *S*-nitrosothiols. This may prove to be difficult, because such release could be limited to a specific compartment (e.g., the myo-endothelial space) that does not allow easy sampling. Theoretically, it is even possible that *S*-nitrosothiols are not released at all and exert their effects on endothelial IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} channels entirely through intracellular pathways.

Finally, if B₂ receptors are involved in AT₂ receptor-induced vasodilation, this would imply that inhibitors of the EDHF pathway will also interfere with AT₂ receptor-induced vasodilation. This should be investigated in future experiments. Confounding factors in this regard are the upregulation of AT₂ receptors and the EDHF pathway under pathological conditions, the existence of AT₁ receptor-AT₂ receptor heterodimers, and the gender-related differences in the expression of components of the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) and the EDHF pathway. These aspects should therefore be taken into consideration when designing new studies.

AT₁ and α_1 -adrenergic receptor interaction

The RAS and the sympathetic nervous system interact in several ways. Ang II increases the vascular sensitivity to α_1 -adrenoceptor agonists, improves central sympathetic outflow, and facilitates the release of catecholamines from peripheral sympathetic neurons via ganglionic and axonal presynaptic receptors. Vice versa, catecholamines stimulate renin release via renal β_1 -adrenoceptors.

Our study is the first to directly demonstrate AT_1 - α_1 -receptor interaction in humans. The interaction may occur both at the receptor level (i.e., physical interaction through heterodimerization) and at the second messenger level (inositol phosphate generation). Future studies should delineate to what degree the enhanced second messenger generation is the consequence of constitutive physical association. Such studies should also verify the α_1 -adrenoreceptor subtype(s) (A, B and/or D) that contribute(s) to this phenomenon in HCMAs. Furthermore, other second messenger(s) that mediate the interaction should be considered, in particular 20-hydroxyeicosatetraeonic acid (20-HETE). Ang II stimulates 20-HETE production,¹⁷⁶ and 20-HETE has been reported to increase the sensitivity to phenylephrine in renal interlobar arteries.¹⁷⁷ Finally, the possibility of Ang II potentiation by phenylephrine should be investigated.

Chapter 7

The current data explain why the non-selective β - and α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist carvedilol antagonizes Ang II. In addition, this Ang II-antagonizing capacity offers an explanation for the beneficial metabolic effects of carvedilol versus metoprolol. AAS blockade prevents the onset of diabetes in hypertensive patients and reduces cardiovascular and renal disease progression in diabetic patients with hypertension. Alternatively, the antidiabetic effects might be explained on the basis of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ (PPAR γ) activity of (some) AT₁ receptor antagonists, and/or the bradykinin-potentiating effects of ACE inhibitors. Thus, to fully understand the metabolic effects of carvedilol on top of RAS blockade, future studies should unravel the respective role(s) of Ang II, bradykinin and PPAR γ in this regard.

Nederlandse samenvatting

Introductie and doel (Hoofdstuk 1)

Het renine-angiotensine systeem (RAS) reguleert de bloeddruk en de water- en zout huishouding in het lichaam. Angiotensine (Ang) II is het actieve eindproduct van het RAS. Ang II verhoogt de bloeddruk door binding aan Ang II type 1 (AT₁) receptoren in de vaatwand. Verschillende studies naar de werking van Ang II type 2 (AT₂) receptoren berichten dat de AT₂ receptor dienst doet als tegenpool van de AT₁ receptoren. Veel is hier nog niet over bekend en zeker niet in de mens.

Het effect van vaatverwijding via de AT_2 receptoren wordt gemedieerd door bradykinine type 2 (B₂) receptoren, die vervolgens zorgen voor stimulatie van de afgifte van stikstofmonoxide (NO). Dit proces vindt waarschijnlijk plaats in de endotheelcellen van de bloedvatwand. AT_2 receptoren kunnen mogelijk de afgifte van bradykinine stimuleren of een directe interactie met de B₂ receptoren aangaan zonder dat bradykinine hier zelf bij betrokken is. Stimulatie van de B₂ receptor resulteert naast NO afgifte ook in de afgifte van een groot aantal endotheliale hyperpolarizerende factoren (EDHF's), zoals K^+ , prostacycline, waterstofperoxide and *S*-nitrososothiolen. Zodoende kunnen wellicht een aantal of alle EDHF's bijdragen aan de vaatverwijding via de AT_2 receptor. Het doel van dit proefschrift is om de vaatverwijding via de AT_2 receptor verder te bestuderen in de mens en daarbij aandacht te besteden aan de identiteit van EDHF. Daarnaast is de interactie tussen AT_1 en α_1 -adrenerge receptoren bestudeerd, om een verklaring te vinden voor de Ang II-remmende effecten van de niet-selectieve β - en α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist carvedilol.

AT₂ receptoren en vasorelaxatie in de mens (Hoofdstuk 2)

Ang II contraheert humane coronaire microarteriën (HCMA's) door activatie van AT₁ receptoren. Pre-incubatie van HCMA segmenten met de AT₂ receptor antagonist PD123319 verhoogde het constrictoire effect van Ang II, een fenomeen dat vooral aanwezig was bij oudere mensen. Dit effect verdween na verwijdering van het endotheel en tijdens blokkade van B₂ receptoren of NO synthase (NOS).

Blootstelling aan Ang II van vooraf gecontraheerde HCMA's in de aanwezigheid van de AT₁ receptor antagonist irbesartan (zodat selectieve AT₂ receptor activatie mogelijk is) resulteerde in relaxatie. PD123319 blokkeerde dit effect volledig. Radioligand bindingsstudies and RT-PCR bevestigden dat AT₁ and AT₂ receptoren in HCMA's aanwezig zijn. Samenvattend zijn deze data de eerste die vaatverwijding via de AT₂ receptor in humane coronairen bevestigen. Dit effect is afhankelijk van endotheliale B₂ receptoren en NO, en neemt waarschijnlijk toe met de leeftijd.

De identiteit van EDHF (Hoofdstukken 3, 4 en 5)

Om verder inzicht te krijgen in de identiteit van EDHF werd door bradykinine geïnduceerde vaatrelaxatie bestudeerd in HCMA's, coronaire microarteriën van varkens (PCMA's) en grote coronaire arteriën van varkens (PCA's), in de afwezigheid en aanwezigheid van remmers van NO en/of EDHF.

In overeenstemming met de literatuur was tijdens de relaxatie het aandeel van door NOS gevormd NO belangrijker in grote arteriën dan in microarteriën. In alle vaten induceerde de NO scavenger hydroxocobalamin een grotere mate van remming van de respons op bradykinine dan de NOS remmer L-NAME. Dit suggereert dat er ook NO wordt afgegeven uit een andere bron dan L-arginine, bijvoorbeeld uit NO-bevattende *S*-nitrosothiolen.

In afwezigheid van NO werd de respons op bradykinine volledig geblokkeerd door een combinatie van remmers van intermediate- en small-conductance Ca²⁺-geactiveerde K⁺-kanalen (IK_{Ca}, SK_{Ca}) en door de Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase remmer ouabaïne. Ouabaïne verminderde ook de respons op de NO donor SNAP, terwijl gecombineerde blokkade van IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} kanalen dit niet deed. De door bradykinine geïnduceerde reacties werden niet beïnvloed door remmers van catalase, cyclooxygenase, cytochroom P450 epoxygenase, gap junctions en large-conductance Ca²⁺-geactiveerde K⁺-kanalen (BK_{Ca}). Samengevat suggereren deze resultaten dat de door bradykinine geïnduceerde relaxatie in humane en varkens coronairen afhankelijk is van de activatie van guanylyl cyclase en Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase door NO, en van de activatie van IK_{Ca} and SK_{Ca} kanalen door een factor die niet *de novo* gevormd NO is. Aanvullende studies maakten duidelijk dat deze factor waarschijnlijk een *S*-nitrosothiol is.

Interactie tussen AT₁ en α_1 -adrenerge receptoren (Hoofdstuk 6)

Carvedilol, de selectieve β_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist metoprolol, de niet-selectieve β -adrenoceptor antagonist propranolol, en de α_1 -adrenoceptor antagonist prazosin beïnvloedden geen van allen de constrictoire respons van HCMA's op Ang II.

Ang II, na toevoeging aan het orgaan bad in een lage (non-constrictoire) concentratie, versterkte de respons op de α_1 -adrenoceptor agonist fenylefrine enorm. Zowel carvedilol als de AT_1 receptor antagonist irbesartan remden deze door Ang II geïnduceerde potentiatie. Carvedilol remde eveneens de door Ang II versterkte ophoping van inositolfosfaten onder invloed van fenylefrine in hartspiercellen. Samenvattend kan gesteld worden dat AT_1 - α_1 -receptor 'crosstalk', mogelijk via inositolfosfaten, HCMA's gevoeliger maakt voor α_1 -adrenoceptor agonisten. De α_1 -adrenoceptor blokkerende effecten van carvedilol zorgen er voor dat carvedilol dit potentiërende effect van Ang II tegen kan gaan. Dit verklaart waarom het bloeddrukverhogende effect van Ang II bij patiënten met hartfalen die behandeld worden met carvedilol kleiner is dan bij patiënten die behandeld worden met metoprolol

Publications

Full papers

Batenburg WW, Garrelds IM, van Kats JP, Saxena PR, Danser AHJ, Mediators of bradykinin-induced vasorelaxation in human coronary microarteries. *Hypertension*. 2004; 43: 488-492.

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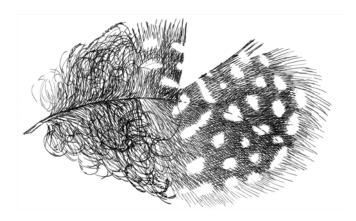
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Curriculum vitae

De auteur van dit proefschrift werd geboren op 18 oktober 1976 te Sliedrecht. Nadat zij het VWO diploma behaalde aan de Lage Waard te Papendrecht in 1995, begon ze aan de opleiding Fundamentele Biomedische Wetenschappen aan de Universiteit van Utrecht om deze vervolgens in 2000 met het doctoraalexamen af te ronden. Tijdens de doctoraalfase liep zij haar eerste stage in Utrecht bij de afdeling Veterinaire Farmacie Farmacologie en Toxicologie. Onder leiding van prof.dr. J. Fink-Gremmels bestudeerde ze de mogelijke rol van haem oxygenase en xanthine oxidase bij de afbraak van cytochroom P450 in in vitro celsystemen. Ze vervolgde haar studie met haar tweede stage bij Programme on Mycotoxins and Experimental Carcinogenesis, Medical Research Council, te Kaapstad, Zuid-Afrika onder begeleiding van dr. W. Gelderblom. Hier was ze betrokken bij het bestuderen van de mogelijke anti-mutageniteit van twee inheemse theesoorten, rooibos (Aspalathus Linearis) en honeybush thee (Cyclopia Intermedia) en hun invloed op de enzymen glutathione-S-transferase en cytochroom P450. In haar afstudeerscriptie richtte zij zich op de drugsresistentie van patienten met hepatitis C. Sinds mei 2001 is ze werkzaam geweest als assistent in opleiding op de afdeling Farmacologie van het Erasmus MC te Rotterdam onder supervisie van prof.dr. A.H.J. Danser. Tijdens deze periode heeft ze een half jaar Rotterdam verruild voor Berlijn waar ze onder leiding van dr. D.N. Müller en prof.dr. M. Bader deelnam aan het onderzoek naar de renine receptor, om mogelijk via siRNA downregulatie van de receptor te bewerkstelligen. Haar onderzoek onder directe leiding van haar promotor prof.dr. A.H.J. Danser resulteerde in dit proefschrift.

Abbreviations

ACE angiotensin converting enzyme

Ang angiotensin apa apamin

 AT_1 angiotensin II type 1 AT_2 angiotensin II type 2 B_2 bradykinin type 2

BK_{Ca} large-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channel

cGMP cyclic guanylylmonophosphate

char charybdotoxin CHF chronic heart failure

CRC concentration response curve
DEA-NONOate dietylamine NONOate
D-SNC D-S-nitrosocysteine

EDHF endothelium-derived hyperpolarizing factor

EET epoxyeicosatrienoic acid

ET-1 endothelin-1

eYFP enhanced yellow fluorescent protein

HC hydroxocobalamin
HCA human coronary artery
HCMA human coronary microartery
HEK293 human embryonic kidney cells 293

iber iberiotoxin

IK_{Ca} intermediate-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ channel

InsP_n inositolphospates

 K_{IR} inwardly rectifying K^+ channel K_V voltage gated K^+ channel

L-NAME N^o-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester HCl

 $\begin{array}{lll} \text{L-NOARG} & \text{N}^{\omega}\text{-nitro-L-arginine} \\ \text{L-SNC} & \text{L-S-nitrosocysteine} \\ \text{L-SNG} & \text{L-S-nitrosoglutathione} \end{array}$

NO nitrix oxide

NOS nitrix oxide synthase
PCA porcine coronary artery
PCMA porcine coronary microartery
PHMBA p-hydroxymercurobezoic acid

PE phenylephrine

RAS renin angiotensin system
RMP resting membrane potential

RT-PCR reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction SK_{Ca} small-conductance Ca^{2+} -activated K^{+} channel

SNAP S-nitroso N-penicillamine

 TxA_2 thromboxane A_2

U46619 9,11-dideoxy- 11α , 9α -epoxymethano-prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$

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