

# S-nitrosylation and permeation through connexin 43 hemichannels in astrocytes: Induction by oxidant stress and reversal by reducing agents

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Contributed by Michael V. L. Bennett, December 28, 2005

**Marked increase in cell permeability ascribed to open connexin (Cx)43 hemichannels is induced by metabolic inhibition (MI) of cortical astrocytes in culture, but the molecular mechanisms are not established. Dephosphorylation and/or oxidation of Cx43 hemichannels was proposed as a potential mechanism to increase their open probability. We now demonstrate that MI increases the number of hemichannels on the cell surface assayed by biotinylation and Western blot, and that this change is followed by increased dephosphorylation and S-nitrosylation. The increase in rate of dye uptake caused by MI is comparable to the increase in surface expression; thus, open probability and permeation per hemichannel may be unchanged. Reducing agents did not affect dephosphorylation of Cx43 hemichannels but reduced dye uptake and S-nitrosylation. Uptake was also reduced by elevated intracellular but not extracellular levels of reduced glutathione. Moreover, nitric oxide donors induced dye uptake and nitrosylation of surface Cx43 but did not affect its abundance or phosphorylation. Thus, permeability per channel is increased, presumably because of increase in open probability. We propose that increased dye uptake induced by MI is mediated by an increased number of Cx43 hemichannels in the surface and is associated with multiple molecular changes, among which nitrosylation of intracellular Cx43 cysteine residues may be a critical factor.**

astroglia | ischemia | nitric oxide | permeabilization

Gap junction channels are formed by two hemichannels in series, one provided by each of two contacting cells. Each hemichannel is a hexamer of protein subunits called connexins (Cxs), a family of highly conserved proteins; of these, Cx43 is probably the most commonly expressed. The existence of hemichannels on the cell surface can be demonstrated by using different experimental approaches, including morphological, biochemical, and functional methods. Moreover, recent studies have shown the involvement of functional hemichannels in diverse physiological and pathological conditions (1, 2).

Under physiological conditions, hemichannels composed of Cx43 have a very low open probability (3) but apparently sufficient to release physiologically relevant quantities of signaling molecules (e.g., ATP, glutamate,  $\text{NAD}^+$ , and  $\text{PGE}_2$ ) to the extracellular milieu (4–7). Thus, under physiological conditions, hemichannels mediate autocrine and/or paracrine signaling and may be an additional transmembrane pathway for diffusion of cellular nutrients and/or waste products. In addition, excessive opening of hemichannels formed of Cx30, Cx32, or Cx43 may accelerate cell deterioration in pathological conditions (8–11).

Oxygen deprivation during hypoxia and ischemia causes intracellular accumulation of toxic metabolites and ATP depletion, which can lead to cell death. In numerous studies, metabolic inhibition (MI) has been used as model to elucidate the effect of hypoxia with or without substrate deprivation on cells in culture or in *ex vivo* preparations. In these preparations, hemichannel opening induced by MI or ischemia is thought to accelerate cell

death (9, 12). In cardiomyocytes, ischemia activates a large nonselective cationic conductance (13). In cardiomyocytes, cortical astrocytes and renal proximal tubule cells MI or ischemia enhance the plasma membrane permeability to small molecules, such as calcein, ethidium bromide (EtdBr), and Lucifer yellow (9, 12–14). In all these systems, the cellular response to the ischemic insult has been attributed to opening of Cx43 hemichannels. However, the molecular mechanisms remain unknown. Two possible mechanisms have been proposed: (i) dephosphorylation of Cx43 due to ATP depletion and activation of  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ -dependent protein phosphatases and (ii) oxidation of Cx43 due to enhanced generation of reactive oxygen-derived species (15), to which we now add, (iii) insertion of additional hemichannels into the surface membrane. In support of the first mechanism, liposomes in which nonphosphorylated (NP) Cx43 hemichannels are reconstituted show much greater permeability than those containing hemichannels phosphorylated by mitogen-activated protein kinase (16). In addition, hemichannels formed of Cx43(S368A), which are missing a demonstrated phosphorylation site, are PKC-unresponsive and remain preferentially open (17). Thus, Cx dephosphorylation may be sufficient to activate opening of Cx43 hemichannels. However, a free-radical scavenger (Trolox) blocks opening of Cx43 hemichannels in metabolically inhibited astrocytes (9, 15, 18), suggesting the involvement of redox potential in the opening. In astrocytes subjected to MI, Trolox does not prevent dephosphorylation of total Cx43. Conversely, in astrocytes subjected to MI and treated with cyclosporin A, dephosphorylation of Cx43 is partially inhibited, but the cells still become permeabilized (15).

In the present work, levels of Cx43 in the surface membrane of astrocytes during MI were assessed by biotinylation. We assume from the work of Musil and Goodenough (19) that the surface Cx43 is in the form of hemichannels assembled before insertion into the membrane. Moreover, their work indicates that Cx43 in gap junctions is biotinylated to only a small degree. We evaluated cell-surface Cx43 levels, phosphorylation, and S-nitrosylation by Western blotting. We found that MI increased the levels of Cx43 on the cell surface and induced dephosphorylation and nitrosylation of the Cx. Both MI-induced cell permeabilization and nitrosylation of surface Cx43 were blocked with reducing agents, i.e., reduced glutathione (GSH) and DTT. Moreover, nitric oxide (NO) donors also induced cell permeabilization and nitrosylation of Cx43 with little change in level or state of phosphorylation of the surface protein. DTT and Trolox, two reducing agents, decreased the MI- or NO-induced dye uptake but did not prevent

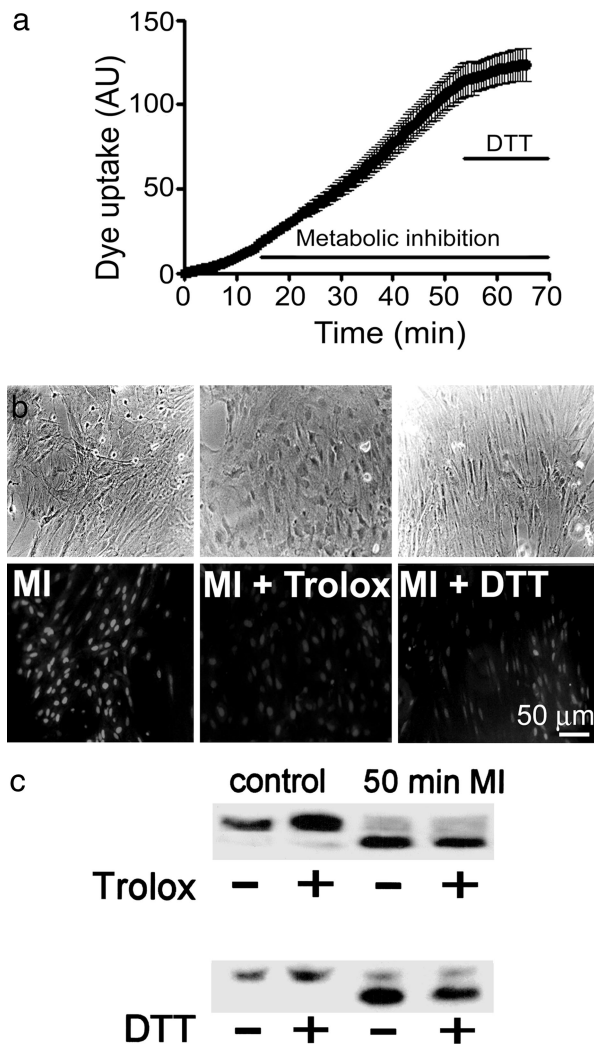
Conflict of interest statement: No conflicts declared.

Abbreviations: Cx, connexin; GSH, glutathione; NP, nonphosphorylated; EtdBr, ethidium bromide; MI, metabolic inhibition; GSNO, nitrosoglutathione.

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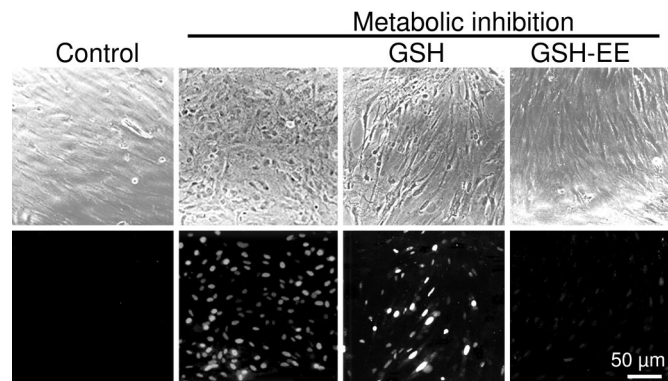
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**Fig. 2.** Dye uptake but not Cx43 dephosphorylation induced by MI is reduced by antioxidants. (a) Time-lapse measurements of EtdBr ( $10 \mu\text{M}$ ) uptake during MI. Later application of  $10 \text{ mM}$  DTT reduced the rate of uptake. Mean and standard error of  $>20$  cells in an experiment representative of seven. (b) Phase micrographs (Upper), fluorescence (Lower), from a different experiment. Astrocytes after 50 min of MI showed prominent EtdBr ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ ) uptake during a 5-min application of the dye (MI). In sister cultures with  $100 \mu\text{M}$  Trolox (MI + Trolox) added 20 min or  $10 \text{ mM}$  DTT (MI + DTT) added 10 min before the end of 50 min of MI, the dye uptake was greatly reduced ( $n = 3$ ). (c) Western blot analysis of cell surface Cx43 pulled down with biotin from control astrocytes incubated for 20 min with or without Trolox (Upper Left) or 10 min with or without DTT (Lower Left) or from astrocytes subjected to 50 min of MI without or with application of  $100 \mu\text{M}$  Trolox 20 min (Upper) or  $10 \text{ mM}$  DTT 10 min before the end of the period of inhibition (Lower). Representative results of three experiments are shown. The reducing agents did not prevent dephosphorylation of surface Cx43 induced by MI.

abolished by Trolox or melatonin, two potent free-radical scavengers, but that these agents do not affect the dephosphorylation of total Cx43 (9, 15). In agreement, at 50 min of MI, astrocytes treated with  $100 \mu\text{M}$  Trolox during the last 20 min showed much less EtdBr uptake after a 5-min dye application ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ ) than cells subjected only to MI (Fig. 2*b*, MI + Trolox,  $n = 3$ ). Moreover, Trolox applied at this time did not prevent dephosphorylation of cell surface Cx43 (Fig. 2*c*,  $n = 4$ ). Independence of the dephosphorylation and permeabilization was suggested by the earlier finding that dye uptake induced by MI is not affected by cyclosporin A, which partially inhibits the dephosphorylation of total Cx43 (9, 15).



**Fig. 3.** Intra- but not extracellular GSH blocks the dye uptake induced by MI. Astrocyte cultures near to confluency were subjected to a 30-min period of MI followed by a 5-min application of EtdBr ( $100 \mu\text{M}$ ). (Upper) Phase contrast; (Lower) fluorescence. Control astrocytes did not show dye uptake (control, first column). MI induced dye uptake and changes in appearance (second column), which were prevented by cell-permeant GSH ethyl ester ( $10 \text{ mM}$ , fourth column) but not by cell-impermeant GSH ( $10 \text{ mM}$ , third column) applied for the last 10 min of MI. ( $n = 3$ .)

To elucidate the redox reaction responsible for the dye uptake elicited by MI, we tested the effect of DTT, a reducer of oxidized sulfhydryl groups that has more limited antioxidant activity than Trolox but is known to reduce oxidized cysteine residues. Application of  $10 \text{ mM}$  DTT during the last 10 min of a 50-min period of MI reduced dye uptake (Fig. 2*b*, MI + DTT); moreover, DTT, like Trolox, did not significantly affect the phosphorylation of surface Cx43 in astrocytes either under control conditions or undergoing dephosphorylation during MI (Fig. 2*c*,  $n = 4$ ). We have not carefully examined the interaction of reducing agents and MI on surface expression of Cx43.

**Intracellular but Not Extracellular GSH Blocks the Dye Uptake Induced by MI.** Cx43 has four transmembrane domains, and both the N and C termini are located on the cytoplasmic side. The first and second extracellular loops and the C-terminal tail of Cx43 each contain three cysteine residues (22) that may be susceptible to oxidation. To localize cysteine residues that may be involved in the EtdBr uptake induced by MI, we studied the effect on dye uptake of GSH ( $10 \text{ mM}$ ), which is membrane-impermeant, and GSH ethyl ester (GSH-EE,  $10 \text{ mM}$ ), which is membrane-permeant, and from which GSH is generated intracellularly by the action of cytoplasmic esterases (23). Extracellular GSH had no effect on EtdBr uptake induced by MI, whereas GSH-EE reduced it to levels similar to those in cells under control conditions (Fig. 3).

**NO Induces Dye Uptake by Astrocytes.** Because the generation of NO, a free radical, is increased in astrocytes during MI (25, 26), and NO can oxidize cysteine residues (24, 27, 28), we tested whether NO donors induce dye uptake by astrocytes. Application of  $100 \mu\text{M}$  nitrosoglutathione (GSNO) (Fig. 4*a* Left) or  $100 \mu\text{M}$  NOR-3 (data not shown), two NO donors, increased dye uptake, which at 50 min of treatment was similar to that seen in metabolically inhibited astrocytes. In cells treated with an NO donor, this permeabilization was markedly reduced by the hemichannel blocker  $\text{La}^{3+}$  ( $200 \mu\text{M}$ ) during last 5 min of a 50-min application of NO donor (just before dye application at 50 min; Fig. 4*a* Center).  $\text{Gd}^{3+}$  ( $50 \mu\text{M}$ ) gave similar results (data not shown). The NO-induced dye uptake was greatly reduced by  $10 \text{ mM}$  DTT applied during the last 5 min of a 50-min NO donor treatment (Fig. 4*a* Right). In time-lapse studies, application of GSNO within minutes in-



greater at 50 min of treatment than at 15 min of treatment (Fig. 5*b*,  $n = 3$ ). At 50 min, little of the P2 and P3 forms remained, and S-nitrosylation occurred mainly in the NP form. Because DTT reduced EtdBr uptake, we also tested whether DTT reduced Cx43 S-nitrosylation. In agreement with the effect on dye uptake, S-nitrosylation was undetectable in cells treated with 10 mM DTT during the last 5 min of a 20-min period of MI (Fig. 5*c*, +DTT). In contrast, S-nitrosylation was evident in Cx43 from astrocytes subjected to 20 min of MI but not treated with DTT (Fig. 5*c*, -DTT,  $n = 2$ ).

## Discussion

In the present study, we investigated the mechanisms of the pronounced increase in dye uptake mediated by Cx43 hemichannels in cultures of cortical astrocytes subjected to MI. We found that MI increases the levels of surface Cx43, presumably already incorporated into hemichannels (20), and most if, not all, of the increase in dye uptake can be ascribed to the increased insertion. The surface protein becomes NP and S-nitrosylated over a low basal level, and it appears likely that these covalent changes occurred at least in part after insertion into the surface. In contrast, increased dye uptake induced by NO donors could not be accounted for by the insertion of new hemichannels. We propose that NO donors increase open probability by oxidative reactions of surface Cx43 rather than by dephosphorylation, because nitrosylation of surface Cx43 and dye uptake were inhibited by reducing agents with no obvious effect on dephosphorylation evaluated by Western blot analysis. We demonstrated S-nitrosylation and permeabilization by NO donors that do not increase the level of surface Cx43 (Fig. 4*c*) but cannot exclude a contribution from other oxidizing reactions (33). The difference between MI and NO donors will require further investigation.

Because surface Cx43 isolated by biotinylation was only  $\approx 15\%$  of the total in control cultures, assaying changes required separation of this material from the Cx43 in gap junctions and intracellular membranes. In control cultures, surface Cx43 was mainly phosphorylated, and the cells showed little dye uptake, probably due to infrequent hemichannel opening. Furthermore, open probability is likely very low, even under conditions of increased dye uptake (3), and we cannot exclude that the open hemichannels are among the small NP fraction on the surface. Cx43 hemichannels phosphorylated by mitogen-activated protein kinase or PKC and reconstituted in liposomes show decreased activity and/or permeability (16, 17); thus, dephosphorylation may contribute to the increase in dye uptake induced by MI, but increased insertion appears adequate to account for our observations, and we found no obvious effect of hemichannel dephosphorylation in dye uptake induced by MI. The rapid reduction in dye uptake by application of reducing agents (Fig. 2*a*) seems unlikely to be due to internalization of surface hemichannels and instead to be due to reduction in open probability. The underlying mechanism might involve changes in sensitivity to intracellular regulators, such as  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ . It has recently been proposed that Cx32 hemichannels open over a narrow range of cytoplasmic free  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  (34). Future experiments will clarify these issues.

We used biotin labeling and immunofluorescence with an antibody to a region of the (extracellular) E1 domain and observed with biotinylation that levels of surface Cx43 increased within minutes of MI. The increase in surface Cx43 could result from enhanced insertion into the plasma membrane from an intracellular pool, reduced endocytosis, or reduced recruitment to gap junctions. Recently, it was demonstrated that oxidant stress reduces the degradation of endocytosed Cx43 by interfering with its targeting and/or transport to the lysosome, possibly by increasing the level of unfolded protein in the cytosol (35).

Our group has previously shown that cyclosporin A, an inhibitor of calcineurin, reduces the dephosphorylation of total Cx43 but not the dye uptake induced by MI (15), suggesting that dephosphorylation is not the main mechanism of opening. Moreover, the dye uptake but not the dephosphorylation is almost completely prevented by reducing agents such as melatonin and Trolox, suggesting oxidation of -SH group(s) as an activating mechanism (9, 15). Here, we confirmed those findings for surface Cx43; Trolox and DTT did not prevent the dephosphorylation induced by MI but rapidly blocked the dye uptake. We did not determine whether reducing agents caused internalization of surface Cx43; the rapidity of the effects on dye uptake (Figs. 2 and 4) suggests that the primary action was reduction in open probability or permeability of hemichannels.

In support of a role of cysteine residue oxidation in Cx43 hemichannel opening, we found that a brief application of DTT to metabolically inhibited astrocytes decreased dye uptake and S-nitrosylation of surface Cx43 without apparent effect on the degree of dephosphorylation of this protein. Moreover, we demonstrated that dye uptake induced by NO donors was greatly reduced by DTT and by hemichannel blockers. Notably, NO donors had little effect on the amount of surface Cx43 or its phosphorylation state.

Hemichannels formed of Cx43 lacking the extracellular cysteine residues are permeable to carboxyfluorescein, as are hemichannels formed of wild-type Cx43, and this permeability is decreased by PKC-mediated phosphorylation (36), suggesting that those amino acid residues are not relevant for the normal activity of Cx43 hemichannels. Here we showed that extracellular application of the cell permeant GSH-ethyl ester markedly reduced the MI-induced activation of hemichannels, whereas the membrane-impermeant GSH had no effect. These data suggest that the affected cysteine residues are located intracellularly. Cx43 has only three such cysteines, all of which are in the cytoplasmic C-terminal domain (37). S-nitrosylation of one or more of these cysteines may be sufficient to induce opening of surface Cx43 hemichannels in astrocytes treated with metabolic inhibitors or NO donors. Mutation studies should help determine which residue(s) is involved.

S-nitrosylation is a common protein modification that can occur under oxidative stress and may be a common mediator of NO effects (22, 38). Other possible protein modifications include S-glutathionylation (-S-SG; reaction with oxidized GSH (GSSG) (16), formation of disulfide bonds (-S-S-) with another cysteine residues (38) and S-hydroxylation (-S-OH; oxidation by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ) (16, 39). Further studies are required to elucidate any functional differences conferred by oxidative changes in Cx43 hemichannels, as has been done for other proteins (16). Moreover, quantitation of S-nitrosylation of cysteine residues per protein subunit and hemichannel might suggest the function of basal Cx43 nitrosylation and illuminate the structure-activity relations in opening of hemichannels by this or other oxidative covalent modification.

Our findings and interpretations are consistent with restricted opening of hemichannels in normal cells adequate to allow release of signaling molecules and with greater opening that may accelerate death under pathological conditions such as ischemia, in which there is enhanced NO generation (25, 26). Mutations of the cysteine residues should give a clearer view of hemichannels as a sensor of redox potential and possible target for therapeutic intervention. The findings are likely to have wide application, because Cx43 is expressed in numerous organs subject to ischemia, including brain and heart.

## Materials and Methods

Details are described in *Supporting Text*, which is published as supporting information on the PNAS web site. Methods for culture and surface labeling of astrocytes, Western blotting, dye uptake, and light microscopy were as routinely applied. MI was induced by

application of antimycin A (5 ng/ml) and iodoacetic acid (270  $\mu$ M). Detection of S-nitrosylated Cx43 used the NitroGlo kit (PerkinElmer). After surface biotinylation and pull down, unmodified —SH groups were blocked, nitrosyl groups were removed, and the unmasked —SH groups were reacted with NitroGlo HPDP-Biotin to allow for protein isolation with NeutrAvidin and resolution by Western blotting. Results are presented as means  $\pm$  SE.

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We are thankful for the outstanding technical assistance of Ms. Teresa Vergara, who prepared all astrocyte cultures. This work was funded in part by Fondo Nacional de Desarrollo Científico y Tecnológico (FONDECYT) Grant 1030945 (to J.C.S.), National Institutes of Health Grants GM068586 (to L.R.) and NS045287 (to M.V.L.B.), and the F. M. Kirby Program in Neural Repair and Protection at the Albert Einstein College of Medicine. M.V.L.B. is the Sylvia and Robert S. Olnick and Distinguished Professor of Neuroscience.