

NIH Public Access

Author Manuscript

Curr Opin Pharmacol. Author manuscript; available in PMC 2010 June 1.

Published in final edited form as:

Curr Opin Pharmacol. 2009 June; 9(3): 287–296. doi:10.1016/j.coph.2009.02.006.

Mechanisms of hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction and their roles in pulmonary hypertension: new findings for an old problem

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Abstract

Hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction (HPV) normally optimises ventilation-perfusion matching in the lung, but leads to pulmonary hypertension under conditions of global hypoxia. The past few years have provided some major advances in our understanding of this complex phenomenon, but significant controversy remains concerning many of the key underlying mechanisms. On balance, recent evidence is most consistent with an elevation in mitochondria-derived reactive oxygen species as a key event for initiation of HPV, with consequent Ca^{2+} release from intracellular ryanodinesensitive stores, although the activation pathways and molecular identity of the associated Ca^{2+} entry pathways remain unclear. Recent studies have also raised our perception of the critical role played by Rho kinase in both sustained HPV and the development of pulmonary hypertension, further promoting Rho kinase and the pathways regulating its activity and expression as important therapeutic targets.

Introduction

Hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction (HPV) is an important physiological mechanism that optimises ventilation-perfusion matching and pulmonary gas exchange by diverting blood flow from poorly ventilated areas of the lung. However, in conditions associated with global hypoxia, such as respiratory disease or altitude, HPV leads to detrimental increases in pulmonary artery (PA) pressure. In chronic hypoxic lung disease dysfunction of mechanisms regulating vascular tone and remodelling of the pulmonary vasculature contribute to the development of sustained pulmonary hypertension (PH). The mechanisms underlying HPV and their role in the development of chronic PH remain incompletely resolved. This review focuses primarily on literature from the past 2 years, that exemplify new insights and some of the current controversies surrounding this complex phenomenon.

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Characteristics of HPV

The primary locus of HPV is the PA smooth muscle cell (PASMC), although the endothelium plays an important facilitatory or permissive role for sustained HPV. Whilst acute hypoxia often causes a monophasic increase in PA pressure *in vivo*, the response in isolated PA is biphasic (also observed in some perfused lung and *in vivo* studies). This consists of a rapid, transient vasoconstriction lasting about 10–15 min (phase 1), and a slowly developing vasoconstriction that is sustained as long as hypoxia is present (phase 2) (e.g. [1,2, reviewed in 3]; Figure 1). Differing mechanisms underlie these components. Whilst both are associated with an elevation of PASMC intracellular $[Ca^{2+}]$ ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$), variously attributed to voltage-dependent and -independent Ca²⁺ entry, Ca²⁺ release from ryanodine-sensitive intracellular stores and/or capacitative or store operated Ca²⁺ entry (SOCE), the sustained phase is also highly dependent on RhoA/Rho kinase (ROCK) mediated Ca²⁺ sensitisation (reviewed in [3]).

Initiation of HPV

PASMC mitochondria act as the O_2 sensor and initiate HPV, but the downstream signalling pathways remain controversial [4,5]. Whereas the Redox hypothesis proposes that decreased generation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) and a more reduced cytosolic redox state initiates HPV [6], the ROS hypothesis proposes the response is due to increased generation of ROS [7]. Alternatively, it has been suggested that hypoxia elevates the cytosolic AMP/ATP ratio which activates AMP-activated kinase (AMPK) and stimulates production of cyclic ADP ribose (cADPR), an endogenous activator of ryanodine receptors [8] (See Figure 1).

Recently, Mehta *et al.* [9] reported that hypoxia (\geq 1hr) decreased ROS generation in human cultured PASMC, as estimated with 3 different probes. This study is interesting in that the hypoxic challenge was longer than most, and coronary artery smooth muscle cells responded in a qualitatively similar fashion to PASMC, implying that differences in the response to hypoxia between PA and systemic arteries relate to downstream effectors rather than O₂ sensing pathways. Similar results are reported by Wu *et al.* [10] in the same tissues, though they also showed that ROS were increased by endothelin-1 and after 48 hr of hypoxia. Indirect support for the Redox hypothesis also comes from a study showing that the thiol oxidant diamide causes PA vasodilatation via activation of K⁺ channels and inhibition of SOCE [11]. Whereas oxidising agents have previously been shown to activate K⁺ channels, this is the first report to show inhibition of SOCE, a key component of HPV.

Although the above are consistent with several previous studies (reviewed in [5,6]), they differ from numerous other recent reports. Hypoxia has been reported to increase mitochondrial ROS production in both freshly isolated and cultured rat PASMCs, albeit over shorter durations of hypoxia [12,13], and the same result was obtained using a novel FRET based redox probe [5, 14], which does not have the serious limitations of commonly-used probes (see [15]). Indirect evidence for the ROS hypothesis is also provided by recent observations that low concentrations of peroxide induce sustained constriction of PA [16] and elevation of PASMC $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ via release from ryanodine sensitive stores [12,13,16,17]. Moreover, antioxidants or overexpression of antioxidant mechanisms suppress HPV in perfused lungs [18] and hypoxiainduced elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in PASMC [12]. ROS have also been implicated as mediators of ROCK activation in chronic hypoxic PH [19]. Intriguingly, Rathore *et al.* have added another level of complexity by showing in PASMC that the hypoxia-induced elevation in mitochondrial ROS generation activates NADPH oxidase via PKC ε , consequently enhancing the levels of ROS production and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ [13], though it has been noted that this mechanism of ROS-induced ROS production apparently only applies to the initial transient phase of HPV [20] (Figure 1).

Whereas on balance recent reports strongly favour the ROS hypothesis, Robertson *et al.* [21] have provided additional evidence for the AMPK hypothesis, by showing that compound C, an inhibitor of AMPK, suppresses both hypoxia-induced phosphorylation of a classical AMPK substrate and HPV in PA. However, this highly suggestive report is inconclusive due to the recently reported non-selectivity of Compound C [22].

K_v channels and HPV

It has been proposed that inhibition of voltage-gated K⁺ channels (K_V) channels, particularly K_V1.5, plays a central role in HPV (see [6], Figure 2), although this has been questioned (see [3]). Whilst the Redox hypothesis proposes that this inhibition is caused by reduction of K_V channel residues (see above), an intriguing study by Cogolludo *et al.* [23] has implicated a novel pathway involving increased production of ceramide by neutral sphingomyelinase and subsequent activation of PKC ξ , which inhibits K_V channels.

Platoshyn *et al.* [24] have demonstrated that K_V expression in PASMC is heterogeneous, and that hypoxia only inhibits IK_V in cells expressing high levels of $K_v 1.5$ (46% of cells), and elicits Ca²⁺ release from cyclopiazonic acid (CPA)-sensitive stores in ~34% of PASMC (see below). The authors speculate that in HPV this sub-set of hypoxia-sensitive cells signal to the remainder via gap junctions. Notably, a theoretical model has suggested that hypoxic inhibition of K⁺ currents is insufficient to cause contraction, unless combined with activation of nonselective cation channels (NSCC) [25]. This is potentially a key finding, as NSCC, possibly associated with SOCE (see below), have been strongly implicated in HPV (reviewed in [3], Figure 2). Interestingly, Firth et al. [26] have described a novel Mg²⁺ and ATP-mediated mechanism by which mitochondria may directly influence K_V activity, in addition to any effects of ROS or redox state, such that inhibition of oxidative phosphorylation increases IK_{V} at negative potentials, but decreases IK_{V} at positive potentials. Both studies predict that inhibition of IK_V by hypoxia may only occur following partial depolarisation, as has been observed in several previous studies (reviewed in [4]). Importantly, in a subsequent study Firth et al. [27] show that this mechanism is facilitated by a very close approximation of mitochondria with the PASMC membrane, but that in systemic artery smooth muscle this close approximation is absent. This discovery of a difference in the spatial distribution of mitochondria has potentially important ramifications for all types of mitochondrial signalling in PASMC.

Ca²⁺ entry and release pathways

Ca²⁺ release from ryanodine sensitive stores is generally regarded as obligatory for HPV (reviewed in [3], Figure 2), Li *et al.* [28] have now demonstrated that homo- and heterozygous gene deletion of RyR1 in mice blocks the hypoxia-induced elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in PASMC and HPV in PA. Intriguingly, depolarisation-induced PA contraction and elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in both Ca²⁺ free and containing media were also substantially suppressed in RyR1+/– mice [28], implying an unexpected link between depolarisation and ryanodine-sensitive stores. Mouse resistance PA are reported to have about equal expression of RyR1, 2 and 3, compared to conduit PA and mesenteric arteries which have low expression of RyR3 [29]. Interestingly, Kinnear *et al.* [30] have reported spatial heterogeneity of RyR within rat PASMC, with RyR3 predominant in the perinuclear region, and provide intriguing evidence that clustering of lysosomes and RyR3-rich SR in this region provides a trigger zone for NAADP (nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate)-induced Ca²⁺ signalling and generation of Ca²⁺ waves. This and the spatial distribution of RyR subtypes could have important ramifications for Ca²⁺ signalling in HPV.

Depletion of Ca^{2+} stores activates SOCE, which is strongly implicated in HPV (reviewed in [3]). However, ryanodine differentially suppresses phase 2 of HPV [31], whilst the SERCA

(sarco-endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} ATPase) inhibitor CPA only inhibits phase 1, and the pharmacological profile of voltage-independent Ca^{2+} entry differs between phases [32]. Notably, CPA does not affect caffeine-induced Ca^{2+} release in canine freshly isolated PASMC, but abolishes that induced by agonists, implying that IP₃- and ryanodine-sensitive stores are functionally separate [33]. Ng *et al.* [34] have also found in the same preparation that whereas SOCE elicited by store depletion with CPA and agonists requires functional IP₃ receptors, hypoxia-induced SOCE does not, and concluded that mechanisms in addition to store depletion are involved in the latter [34]. These and other data suggest that more than one SOCE pathway exists (e.g. [35]), possibly linked to different stores.

However, Ng *et al.* [33] have reported that culture of PASMC reorganises IP₃- and ryanodinesensitive stores into a single pool, and that both pharmacological depletion of this store and hypoxia activate not only SOCE and voltage-gated Ca²⁺ entry, but also Ca²⁺ entry via reverse operation of the Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger (NCX), which was not observed in fresh cells [33]. This pooling of CPA- and ryanodine-sensitive stores presumably reflects the finding of Platoshyn *et al.* [24] that CPA abolishes hypoxia-elicited Ca²⁺ release in cultured PASMC (see above). Another study also excludes a role for reverse operation of NCX in HPV of isolated PA [36], suggesting that NCX may be upregulated during dedifferentiation and proliferation of PASMC [33], as recently observed in PASMC from patients with idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension (IPAH) [37]. Under these conditions Na⁺ influx via NSCC associated with SOCE (see below) could be responsible for activating reverse mode NCX [33] Figure 2). An important message is that culture alters Ca²⁺ handling in PASMC, making this model of limited use for the study of hypoxia-induced mobilisation of Ca²⁺ in HPV.

Until recently, the molecular correlates of SOCE were generally believed to be NSCC formed of TRPC proteins, but this is being reconsidered following the discovery that the Ca²⁺ release activated channel (CRAC) is due to interaction between the endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ sensor STIM (stromal-interacting molecule) and Orai channel proteins [38]. However, CRAC is highly Ca²⁺ selective, whereas store depletion- and hypoxia-induced SOCE has been associated with NSCC in PASMC (see [34,39]). Recent reports suggest that STIM1 may interact with most TRPC proteins to determine their function as store-operated channels [40]. Interestingly, Lu *et al.* [41] have shown that the amplitude of both store depletion- and hypoxia-induced SOCE correlates with expression of STIM1, TRPC1, TRPC4 and TRPC6, all being much greater in PASMC from distal PA which constrict most strongly to hypoxia. Notably, IPAH has been associated with enhanced SOCE and expression of TRPC3 and TRPC6 [42].

Direct evidence for a role for TRPC6 in HPV has been provided by Weissmann *et al.* [2], who showed that phase 1 of HPV and the associated elevation of PASMC $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ were ablated in TRPC6–/– mice, and that regional hypoventilation caused severe hypoxaemia in these animals. The latter also demonstrates that phase 1 of HPV is important for acute optimisation of regional gas exchange. However, neither phase 2 of HPV nor chronic hypoxia-induced PH were affected, suggesting that TRPC6 plays little role in SOCE activated by depletion of ryanodine sensitive stores (see above). Notably, hypoxia increased diacylglycerol, an activator of TRPC6, in PASMC, which could be due to ROS-mediated activation of PLC [2] (Figure 2). Moreover, Keseru *et al.* [43] report that hypoxia causes translocation of TRPC6 to the membrane, and provide evidence that this is mediated by cytochrome P450-derived epoxyeicosatrienoic acids (EETs).

Ca²⁺ sensitisation and Rho kinase

ROCK-mediated Ca^{2+} sensitisation of PA contraction is of critical importance for sustained HPV (reviewed in [3]), and contributes to increased pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) in chronic hypoxic PH [44–46] (Figure 3). However, Wang *et al.* [47] add a twist to the story, at

least in normotensive PA, by reporting that inhibition of ROCK or MLCK also suppresses the hypoxia-induced elevation in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, possibly via disruption of cytoskeletal-dependent spatial interrelationships among the signalling components. Whether these are promoted by activation of ROCK or sustained by basal ROCK activity (which is significant in PA [48,49]) remains to be determined. The mechanism by which hypoxia activates ROCK has until recently remained obscure. Knock *et al.* have now shown in rat distal PA that Src-family kinases are involved in the activation of ROCK by both agonists [48] and hypoxia [1], and indeed also by superoxide (but not peroxide) [50], consistent with the ROS hypothesis of HPV (Figure 3). Notably, basal activity of ROCK is independent of Src [1,48]. There is evidence that stimulation of ET_A and 5-HT_{1B/1D} receptors by endogenous ET-1 and 5-HT is involved in sustained activation of ROCK in chronically hypoxic hypertensive rat PA [51], and this might also be mediated by increased production of ROS [19].

Factors other than ROCK can attenuate myosin phosphatase activity and thereby augment myosin phosphorylation. Telokin is a myosin-binding protein homologous with the C-terminal domain of MLCK, and when phosphorylated promotes myosin phosphatase activity [52] (Figure 3). An intriguing study by Madden *et al.* [53] suggests that in normoxia levels of phosphorylated telokin are greater in feline distal PA compared to arteries that relax to hypoxia, but that in hypoxia telokin is dephosphorylated, thus facilitating myosin phosphorylation and contraction. The importance of this phenomenon is unknown, though it has implications for the mechanism of action of cGMP-raising agents such as sildenafil, as telokin is a substrate for protein kinase G-mediated phosphorylation [52].

Although acute inhibition of ROCK reverses the sustained increase in PVR in chronic hypoxic models of PH [44,45], there is debate concerning the role of vasoconstriction in severe occlusive PH, where the increase in PVR has been attributed primarily to vascular remodelling. Oka *et al.* [54] utilised a rat model of severe occlusive PH, where chronic hypoxia is coupled with blockade of VEGF receptors, to address this question. The model exhibited occlusive pulmonary vascular lesions, and sustained vasoconstriction that was reversed by acute inhibition of ROCK [54]. Consistent with this, chronic hypoxia induces ROS and ROCK-dependent, Ca²⁺ signal-independent myogenic tone in rat distal PA [55]. In contrast to the apparent Ca²⁺ signal-independent constriction of the adult rat hypertensive PA, Hirenallur-S *et al.* [56] observed increased voltage-gated L-type Ca²⁺ channel-dependent vasoconstriction and upregulation of the pore-forming α_{1C} -subunit in distal PA of chronically hypoxic piglets. ROCK-mediated vasoconstriction also plays a role in the PH of fawn-hooded rats [57]. However, the activation of ROCK in this model might not be due to ROS, since Bonnet *et al.* [58] have reported that ROS levels are diminished in the hypertensive pulmonary arteries of fawn-hooded rats.

The role of ROCK in PH-associated vascular remodelling remains to be deciphered [see [46]). Whereas Mair *et al.* [59] report that ROCK potentiates 5-HT_{1B} receptor stimulated pulmonary fibroblast proliferation and that hypoxic PH exaggerated by overexpression of the human serotonin transporter (SERT) in mice is associated with elevated expression of ROCK and ROCK-dependent vascular remodelling, Desbuards *et al.* [60] have observed in rats that discontinuation of dexfenfluramine treatment augments the severity of subsequent hypoxia-induced PH, and that this is associated with increased activation of RhoA and expression of SERT and ROCK, but no apparent worsening of the PA muscularization. A recent report suggests that upregulation of RhoA and ROCK expression in the remodelled resistance PA of explanted IPAH lungs is associated with activation of a non-canonical WNT-pathway, the planar cell polarity pathway [61].

Conclusions

The studies reviewed here exemplify the heterogeneity of the field, and reaffirm HPV as a complex phenomenon involving a multiplicity of interacting mechanisms. Thus it is often difficult to distinguish key mechanisms from those that are permissive or facilitatory. Moreover, it is now even more apparent that the immediate and sustained components of HPV are different, and that mechanisms specifically involved in the latter play a key role in the development of PH. Nevertheless, the past 2 years have provided some important advances. Whilst irrefutable proof is still lacking, the weight of evidence for an elevation of ROS as the trigger of HPV is now very strong. The key role of ryanodine-sensitive Ca²⁺ stores in HPV is now also firmly established, though further work is required to determine the nature, regulation and molecular correlates of SOCE, particularly the putative interaction between STIM/Orai and TRPC proteins. An increasingly important area concerns ROCK, which has now been identified as central to both sustained HPV and the development of PH (Figure 4). This further affirms ROCK and the pathways leading to its activation and expression as prime therapeutic targets.

Acknowledgments

Work in the authors' laboratories was supported by: the Wellcome Trust (078075) and British Heart Foundation (PG21995) [JPTW]; the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Grant HL-15985 and University of South Alabama [IFMc]. We thank PI Aaronson for commenting on the manuscript.

Abbreviations

5-HT	serotonin, 5-hydroxytryptamine
AMPK	AMP activated kinase
cADPR	cyclic ADP ribose
СаМ	Ca ²⁺ -calmodulin
CRAC	Ca ²⁺ release activated channel
DAG	diacylglycerol
ET-1	endothelin-1
HPV	hypoxic pulmonary vasoconstriction
IPAH	idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension
K _V	voltage gated K ⁺ channels
L-type	voltage-gated Ca ²⁺ channels

MP	myosin phosphatase
NAADP	nicotinic acid adenine dinucleotide phosphate
NCX	Na ⁺ -Ca ²⁺ exchanger
NSCC	non-selective cation channels
PASMC	pulmonary artery smooth muscle cell
PGF _{2a}	prostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$
ROCK	Rho kinase
ROS	reactive oxygen species
RyR	ryanodine receptors
SERCA	sarco-endoplasmic reticulum Ca ²⁺ ATPase
SERT	serotonin transporter
SFK	src family kinases
SO	superoxide
SOC	store operated channels
SOCE	store operated Ca ²⁺ entry
SK	sarcoplasmic reticulum
STIM	stromal-interacting molecule
IRP	transient receptor potential protein

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18638544]In this intriguing study it was shown that hypoxia (~10 min) caused activation of NADPH oxidase (NOX) and translocation of p47^{phox} in mouse PA but not mesenteric artery, and that inhibition of NOX or gene deletion of p47^{phox} attenuated the hypoxia-induced elevation of ROS, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and force in PA. PKC inhibitors and PKC ε gene deletion were used to identify a key role for PKC ε , whereas use of mitochondrial inhibitors, genetic manipulation of glutathione peroxidase and exogenous peroxide provided evidence that the initial event was an increase in mitochondrial ROS generation, leading to activation of PKC ε and hence NOX. This suggests that during acute hypoxia ROS derived from mitochondria activate NOX to produce more ROS, thus potentiating the elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and contraction. Note that the time course of these experiments coupled with previous studies suggests that this phenomenon may only apply to phase 1 of HPV (see commentary on this paper, Ref 20).

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classical AMPK substrate acetyl CoA carboxylase, which was attenuated by the AMPK inhibitor compound C (40 μ M); this strongly suggests that AMPK is activated by hypoxia. Compound C also selectively suppressed the sustained phase of HPV in isolated PA, without affecting phase 1. This study is consistent with activation of AMPK being instrumental to at least the sustained component of HPV, but may be limited due to the recently described non-selective actions of compound C (see Ref 22).

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Figure 1. Initiation of HPV

Representation of the Redox, ROS and AMPK hypotheses and their potential signalling pathways lxinking the mitochondrial O_2 sensor to the initial and sustained components of HPV. The boxes highlight studies from the last 2 years that lend support to and/or suggest additional pathways for each hypothesis. \dagger : as yet, no mechanisms have been implicated by which the Redox hypothesis could account for identified key components of phase 2 of HPV, notably Ca²⁺ release from ryanodine-sensitive stores and activation of ROCK (see text). AMPK, AMP-activated kinase; NOX1, NADPH oxidase; PH, chronic hypoxic pulmonary hypertension; ROS, reactive oxygen species.



Figure 2. Ca²⁺ mobilisation in HPV

Mechanisms that have been implicated in the hypoxia-induced elevation of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$, and their potential signalling pathways. Note that some mechanisms are probably only applicable to one phase of HPV (see text). Not shown for clarity: possibility of functionally different types of SOC and Ca^{2+} store. Note that Na⁺ entry via NSCC would also contribute to depolarisation. The boxes highlight studies from the last 2 years that address that pathway or channel. $\dot{\tau}$: action of Mg²⁺ and ATP on K_V channels depends on membrane potential (see text). DAG, diacylglycerol; cADPR, cyclic ADP ribose; depol, depolarization; K_V, voltage-gated K⁺ channels; L-type, voltage-gated Ca²⁺ channels; NCX, Na⁺-Ca²⁺ exchanger; RyR, ryanodine receptors; SOC, store operated channels.



Figure 3. Ca²⁺ sensitisation and ROCK-mediated pathways in HPV and PH

Mechanisms that have been implicated in the activation and modulation of Ca²⁺ sensitisation pathways in HPV, and sustained vasoconstriction and vascular remodelling in PH, showing the central role of RhoA and ROCK. Not shown: the influence of ROS, RhoA/ROCK and PKC on the cytoskeleton, which could modulate Ca²⁺ mobilisation, actin-myosin interactions, and remodelling. The boxes highlight studies from the last 2 years that address that pathway. *†*: the pathways mediating activation of ROCK via 5-HT_{1B/1D} receptors have not been established, but could include SFK. 5-HT, serotonin, 5-hydroxytryptamine; CaM, Ca²⁺-calmodulin; ET-1, endothelin-1; Frizzled, Wnt receptor; IPAH, idiopathic pulmonary arterial hypertension; MP, myosin phosphatase; PGF_{2α}, prostaglandin F_{2α}; SERT, serotonin transporter; SFK, src-family kinases; SO, superoxide.

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Figure 4.

Hypothetical diagram showing the contribution to the hypoxia-induced elevation in pulmonary vascular resistance (PVR) of Ca²⁺-dependent and -independent vasoconstriction and vascular remodelling. Inhibitors of ROCK or its activation pathways may therefore be of benefit for PH, without significantly impairing acute ventilation-perfusion matching.