β Adrenergic Receptor Kinase C-Terminal Peptide Gene-Therapy Improves β_2 -Adrenergic Receptor-Dependent Neoangiogenesis after Hindlimb Ischemia \mathbb{S}

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ABSTRACT

After hindlimb ischemia (HI), increased catecholamine levels within the ischemic muscle can cause dysregulation of β_{2} adrenergic receptor (β_2 AR) signaling, leading to reduced revascularization. Indeed, in vivo β_2 AR overexpression via gene therapy enhances angiogenesis in a rat model of HI. G proteincoupled receptor kinase 2 (GRK2) is a key regulator of β AR signaling, and β adrenergic receptor kinase C-terminal peptide (bARKct), a peptide inhibitor of GRK2, has been shown to prevent β AR down-regulation and to protect cardiac myocytes and stem cells from ischemic injury through restoration of β_2 AR protective signaling (i.e., protein kinase B/endothelial nitric oxide synthase). Herein, we tested the potential therapeutic effects of adenoviral-mediated β ARKct gene transfer in an experimental model of HI and its effects on β AR signaling and on endothelial cell (EC) function in vitro. Accordingly, in this study, we surgically induced HI in rats by femoral artery resection (FAR). Fifteen days of ischemia resulted in significant β AR down-regulation that was paralleled by an approximately 2-fold increase in GRK2 levels in the ischemic muscle. Importantly, in vivo gene transfer of the β ARKct in the hindlimb of rats at the time of FAR resulted in a marked improvement of hindlimb perfusion, with increased capillary and β AR density in the ischemic muscle, compared with control groups. The effect of β ARKct expression was also assessed in vitro in cultured ECs. Interestingly, ECs expressing the β ARKct fenoterol, a β_2 AR-agonist, induced enhanced β_2 AR proangiogenic signaling and increased EC function. Our results suggest that β ARKct gene therapy and subsequent GRK2 inhibition promotes angiogenesis in a model of HI by preventing ischemia-induced β_2 AR downregulation.

Introduction

Peripheral arterial occlusive disease and critical limb ischemia, its most advanced form, represent a major clinical problem that affects 10%–15% of the aged adult population (Norgren et al., 2007). Despite advances in endovascular revascularization and drug therapies, its prognosis remains poor, with about 40% of patients requiring limb amputation. Therefore, new therapeutic options are urgently needed. In this regard, therapeutic angiogenesis has emerged as a promising investigational strategy for the treatment of patients with limb ischemia, and gene therapy has been established as a potential method to manipulate levels/ activity of key molecules to induce revascularization in patients with ischemic cardiovascular diseases (Lederman et al., 2002; Pugh and Ratcliffe, 2003; Rajagopalan et al., 2003; Kusumanto et al., 2006; Nikol et al., 2008; Belch et al., 2011).

Angiogenesis is a biologic process that generates new blood vessels from existing vasculature (Carmeliet 2005). In physiologic conditions, this process occurs during embryonic development, pregnancy, and through the ovarian cycle, but angiogenesis is also reactivated in a variety of pathologic conditions, including ischemia, inflammation, wound healing, tumor growth, and diabetic retinopathy (Melillo et al., 1997; Rafii and Lyden, 2003). Importantly, in all these processes,

ABBREVIATIONS: Ad, adenovirus; Akt, protein kinase B; β AR, β adrenergic receptor; β_2 AR, β_2 -adrenergic receptor; β ARKct, β adrenergic receptor kinase C-terminal peptide; BAEC, bovine aortic endothelial cell; BrdU, bromodeoxyuridine (5-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine); ¹²⁵I-CYP, (¹²⁵I)cyanopindolol; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; EC, endothelial cell; eNOS, endothelial nitric oxide synthase; FAR, femoral artery resection; FBS, fetal bovine serum; GRK2, G protein-coupled receptor kinase 2; GFP, green fluorescent protein; HI, hindlimb ischemia; ICI 118551, (2R,3S)-1-[(7-methyl-2,3-dihydro-1H-inden-4-yl)oxy]-3-(propan-2-ylamino)butan-2-ol; KO, knockout; NO, nitric oxide; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; WT, wild type.

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angiogenesis is primarily regulated via endothelial cell (EC) proliferation and migration (D'Amore and Thompson, 1987). At the molecular level, it is known that the β_2 -adrenergic receptor (β_2 AR), the most abundant β adrenergic receptor (βAR) isoform in ECs, is involved in the control of these functions (Howell et al., 1988). However, ischemia can result in increased sympathetic catecholamine levels that can cause β_2 AR signaling dysfunction in ECs, resulting in an inadequate angiogenic response and loss of tissue integrity and/or function (Iaccarino et al., 2005; Rengo et al., 2012).

Mechanistically, G protein-coupled receptor kinases phosphorylate and desensitize activated β ARs, thus preventing deleterious receptor overstimulation, but chronically this process continues through receptor internalization and degradation (Rengo et al., 2011). G protein-coupled receptor kinase 2 (GRK2) is the isoform that appears to be the most important for regulated β ARs in muscle (Rengo et al., 2011). The β adrenergic receptor kinase C-terminal peptide $(\beta A R Kct)$, a peptide derived from the carboxyl terminal portion of GRK2 that blocks $G\beta\gamma$ recruitment of this kinase to the activated membrane-embedded receptor, can inhibit β AR desensitization and improve signaling down-regulation/ desensitization (Rengo et al., 2009b; Cannavo et al., 2013a; Salazar et al., 2013). Of note, different reports have proposed β ARKct as a new therapeutic molecule for various model of cardiovascular disease, mainly through the potentiation of β_2 AR signaling (Cannavo et al., 2013a; Salazar et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2014). Accordingly, because the effects of β ARKct and GRK2 manipulation on EC function and angiogenesis are not well understood, we posited that this peptide could have the potential to improve postischemic revascularization through restoration of β_2 AR signaling/function both in vivo and in vitro.

Materials and Methods

Rat Hindlimb Ischemia Model and In Vivo Gene Therapy. Hindlimb ischemia was induced in adult Sprague-Dawley male rats (300 g) by excision of the right common femoral artery, as previously reported elsewhere (Leosco et al., 2007). Briefly, rats were anesthetized with isoflurane (2%, v/v). A surgical incision was made in the skin overlying the middle portion of the right hindlimb. After ligation of the proximal end of the femoral artery, the distal portion of the saphenous artery was legated, and the artery and all side branches were dissected free and excised. Then the skin was closed with a 2.0 silk suture. Sham-operated animals underwent the same procedure without ligation and excision of the right common femoral artery.

In a group of rats receiving in vivo gene therapy, a silastic catheter was placed into the femoral artery distal to the resection through which a solution containing 10^{12} total viral particles of an adenovirus (Ad) encoding for β ARKct or green fluorescent protein (GFP) , or vehicle (saline), was infused into the hindlimb and allowed to remain there for 30 minutes while the saphenous vein was temporarily occluded. Afterward, the virus was removed through the catheter, the common femoral artery was removed, and the wound was closed in layers. All animal care and experimental protocols were approved by the ethics committee for the use of animals in research of our institution.

b-Adrenergic Receptor Radioligand Binding. Plasma membrane fractions from excised skeletal muscles (gastrocnemius) were prepared and used for β AR radioligand binding studies using the nonselective β AR antagonist ligand (¹²⁵I)-cyanopindolol (¹²⁵I-CYP), as described previously elsewhere (Rengo et al., 2010). The concentration of 125I-CYP used in each series of reactions (assay) was 68.9 pmol/ml CYP and total activity was 5μ Ci (¹²⁵I-CYP specific activity: 2.2 Ci/ μ mol).

Cell Culture. Bovine aortic endothelial cells (BAECs) were purchased from Lonza (Basel, Switzerland) and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 200 mg/ml L-glutamine, 100 units/ml penicillin, and 100 μ g/ml streptomycin at 37°C in 95% air and 5% CO₂. For all experiments, BAECs were used at passage 14 or less.

Primary ECs were isolated from wild-type (WT) and global endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) knockout (KO) mice. Thoracic aorta was dissected, placed rapidly in ice-cold phosphatebuffered saline (PBS), and gently flushed using a 1-ml syringe fitted with a 23-G needle to remove blood clots. After removing the fibroadipose tissue and small lateral blood vessels, we cut the aorta into 1-mm rings. The aortic rings were further washed using sterile ice-cold PBS and then transferred in six-well plates coated with Matrigel (Corning Life Sciences, Tewksbury, MA). The aortic rings were then covered with few drops of Matrigel and endothelial cell growth medium (DMEM with 25 mM HEPES, 10% FBS, $90 \mu g/ml$ heparin sulfate, 90 μ g/ml endothelial cell growth factor, 10,000 U/ml penicillin, 10 mg/ml streptomycin). The EC sprouts were observed after 2 days. On day 4, the aortic rings were carefully removed, and the ECs were allowed to proliferate in Matrigel until reaching confluence.

To collect the ECs, the Matrigel was digested using Dispase, then the cells were cultured to 80% confluence and sorted for CD-31 using CD-31 Endothelial Cell Dynabeads (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The $CD31⁺$ cells were then plated and used for experimental procedures.

BAECs and primary ECs were stimulated with fenoterol $(1 \mu M)$; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for 5, 15, and 30 minutes and for 6 hours for the immunoblot assay. We used 6 and 24 hours of fenoterol stimulation to assess the EC function. Before fenoterol stimulation, some cells were pretreated for 30 minutes with the highly selective β_2 AR-antagonist ICI 118551 [(2R,3S)-1-[(7-methyl-2,3-dihydro-1Hinden-4-yl)oxy]-3-(propan-2-ylamino)butan-2-ol] (IC_{50} value: 1.2 nM (K_i) ; 10 μ M), as previously reported elsewhere (Cannavo et al., 2013c).

Adenoviral Constructs. For in vivo and in vitro procedures we used recombinant Ad vectors encoding for the bovine WT GRK2 gene (Ad-GRK2) or one encoding for the C-terminal region containing the last 194 amino acids of GRK2, which makes up β ARKct (Ad- β ARKct). An Ad encoding for GFP (Ad-GFP) was used as the control (Lymperopoulos et al., 2008).

In Vitro Adenoviral Infection. Infections were accomplished on ECs at 50%–60% confluence. Cells were infected with Ad expressing GRK2, β ARKct, or GFP as the control at a multiplicity of infection of 100 per cell for 24 hours at 37°C, as previously described elsewhere (Lymperopoulos et al., 2008; Homan et al., 2014). The cells were then incubated in fresh medium for an additional 24 hours before experimentation.

Immunoblot. Cells and skeletal muscle samples were lysed in a radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer with protease and phosphatase inhibitors cocktail (Basel, Switzerland) as previously described elsewhere (Cannavo et al., 2013b). Protein concentrations in all lysates were measured using a dye-binding protein assay kit (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) and a spectrophotometer reader (Bio-Rad Laboratories) at a wavelength of 750 nm. Protein levels of GRK2 (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX), phospho-protein kinase B (pAkt, 1:1000; Sigma-Aldrich), tAkt (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), eNOS (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA), p-eNOS (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology), β_2 AR (1:1000; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), p- β_2 AR (1:1000; EMD Millipore Corporation, Billerica, MA) and GAPDH (1:1000; EMD Millipore Corporation) were assessed. Secondary antibodies were purchased from Amersham Life Sciences (Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom). Bands were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence (EMD Millipore) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and were quantified using densitometry (Chemidoc; Bio-Rad Laboratories). Each experiment and densitometric analysis was separately repeated 3 times.

Immunohistochemistry. Immunohistochemistry was performed as previously described elsewhere (Cannavo et al., 2013b). Briefly, deparaffinized slides were treated with the following polyclonal antibodies: GRK2 (1:200; Santa Cruz Biotechnology), GFP (1:200; Santa Cruz Biotechnology). The visualization was performed using an ABC kit (Thermo Scientific, Rockford, IL) and diaminobenzidine (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL) chromogen.

Confocal Microscopy. Confocal microscopy studies were performed as previously described elsewhere (Cannavo et al., 2013c). After fixation with 3% paraformaldehyde, cells were incubated with an anti- β_2 AR antibody (1:200 anti-rabbit IgG; Santa Cruz Biotechnology) in 1% bovine serum albumin. Next, the cells were incubated with the secondary rabbit polyclonal antibody (1:200, Texas Red conjugated; Sigma-Aldrich). Visualization with confocal laser scanning microscopy was performed at 568 nm (Cy3) with a Zeiss 510 confocal laser scanning microscope (Carl Zeiss Light Microscopy, Göttingen, Germany). The fluorescent data sets were analyzed by LSM 510 software (Carl Zeiss).

EC Function In Vitro Assays. For EC proliferation and migration assays, the stimulation was performed in the presence of DMEM supplemented with 2% FBS. Cell migration was assessed by a woundhealing scratch assay performed in 12-well tissue culture plates. Twenty-four hours after Ad infection, scratches were made using $100-\mu$ l pipette tips, and the wells were washed twice with PBS. After 6 hours of fenoterol (1 μ M) stimulation, the cells were fixed in 3.7% paraformaldehyde and stained with 0.1% crystal violet staining solution as previously described elsewhere (Liu et al., 2013). Photographs were taken on Nikon TE2000-U inverted microscope connected to a Nikon camera (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). Quantification of cell migration was done by measuring the distance between 10 random points within the wound edge. The gap distance of the wound was measured using ImageJ software [\(http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/](http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/)), and the data were normalized to the average of the wound of control cells fixed at the time of scratches.

Proliferation was assessed by quantitative measurement of DNA synthesis using a 5-bromo-2ʹ-deoxyuridine (BrdU) enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit (Roche), according to manufacturer instructions. Briefly, after 24 hours from Ad infection, BrdU was added to the medium at a final concentration of 10 μ M, and the cells were incubated for 6 or 24 hours in presence or absence of fenoterol (1 μ M). The BrdU incorporation was then assayed using a colorimetric detection system. The number of proliferating cells was represented by the level of BrdU incorporation, which directly correlates to the color intensity and the absorbance values.

Nitric Oxide Measurement. BAECs or murine aortic endothelial cells infected with Ad- β ARKct and Ad-GFP, were stimulated or not with fenoterol $(1 \mu M)$ for 6 hours. After stimulation, the concentrations of nitric oxide (NO) in the culture medium were measured using the NO colorimetric assay kit (BioVision, Mountain View, CA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, the nitrate was converted to nitrite using nitrate reductase, then the nitrite was converted to a deep purple azo compound using Griess reagent. The amount of the azochromophore was detected by the colorimetric determination at 540 nm using a microplate reader.

Blood Flow Determination. Blood flow in the posterior tibial artery of ischemic and nonischemic hindlimb was evaluated by ultrasound Doppler using a VisualSonics Vevo 770 imaging system (Fujifilm VisualSonics, Amsterdam, the Netherlands) with a 708 MHz scan head in isofluorane-anesthetized rats (2% v/v) immediately before and at 12 hours and 3, 7, 10, and 15 days after surgery, as previously described elsewhere (Ciccarelli et al., 2011). Data are expressed as ischemic to nonischemic ratio. Fifteen days after surgery, blood flow was also measured by dyed beads assay, as previously described elsewhere (Ciccarelli et al., 2011).

Histology. Tibialis anterior muscle specimens were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and embedded in paraffin. After deparaffinization and rehydration, $5-\mu m$ -thick sections were prepared and mounted on glass slides. The capillary density measurement was performed as previously described elsewhere (Ciccarelli et al., 2011; Rengo et al., 2013).

Statistical Analysis. Data are summarized as mean \pm S.E.M. Comparisons were made with the use of t tests or analysis of variance, as appropriate. A Bonferroni correction was applied to the probability values whenever multiple comparisons arose, $P < 0.05$ was considered significant.

Results

bARKct Gene-Therapy Improves Angiogenesis and Restores β AR Density in the Ischemic Hindlimb. After hindlimb ischemia (HI), increased levels of catecholamines are responsible for β AR-signaling dysfunction, leading to reduced angiogenesis in the ischemic tissue (Iaccarino et al., 2005; Sorriento et al., 2012). Importantly, a similar mechanism has been observed also in the heart, where β ARKct gene-therapy has been proposed as a potential strategy to prevent βAR dysregulation and to ameliorate cardiac response to ischemia (White et al., 2000). However, the effects of β ARKct gene-therapy in a model of HI have not been specifically investigated. Thus, we surgically induced HI in adult male Sprague-Dawley rats by resection of the right common femoral artery (FAR). A group of sham-operated rats served as control. At 15 days after surgery, we measured the blood flow with a dyed beads perfusion assay, which showed a significant reduction in hindlimb perfusion in the ischemic muscle of the group undergoing FAR compared with sham-operated rats, as expected (Fig. 1A).

In line with previous reports (Iaccarino et al., 2005), 2 weeks after surgically induced ischemia, we observed a significant reduction in β AR density within the ischemic skeletal muscle compared with the skeletal muscle of sham-operated rats (Fig. 1B). The reduction in β AR plasma membrane density was paralleled by a robust up-regulation of GRK2 protein levels in the ischemic skeletal muscle compared with the limbs of sham-operated rats (Fig. 1C).

Next, to test the effects of β ARKct expression, a group of rats was injected into the femoral artery with an Ad encoding for β ARKct (Ad- β ARKct) or Ad-GFP as control at the time of FAR. A separate group of animals was treated with a saline injection to provide an additional control to assess any potential effect of Ad infection or GFP expression (Fig. 2A). At the end of the study period, transgene expression was successfully detected by immunohistochemistry and resulted in predominant perivascular localization (Fig. 2B). However, consistent with previous reports (Iaccarino et al., 2005), transgene expression was not limited to the endothelium but was also observed in the skeletal muscle. Moreover, we assessed β ARKct expression in the ischemic skeletal muscle of rats at the end of the study period by immunoblot analysis (Fig. 2C). As expected, β ARKct was clearly detectable in the muscle of rats treated with Ad - β ARKct (Fig. 2D).

Next, to evaluate the effects of β ARKct gene-therapy on postischemic angiogenesis, we measured the blood flow in all groups by Doppler ultrasound over the course of 15-day study period. As shown in Fig. 3A, immediately after FAR, blood flow was not detectable in the ischemic tibial posterior artery of all study groups. As expected, blood flow was partially and progressively restored in rats treated with saline or GFP over the 15-day study period (Fig. 3A). However, β ARKct gene therapy resulted in a significant increase in blood flow

Fig. 1. β AR down-regulation is associated with increased GRK2 protein levels in the ischemic muscle. (A) Bar graph showing blood perfusion in the ischemic hindlimb in rats at 15 days after femoral artery resection $(H, n = 6)$ and in sham-operated rats (sham; $n = 6$) as assessed by dyed beads dilution method. Data are expressed as percentage of ischemic to nonischemic hindlimb. (B) Bar graphs showing total bAR density on skeletal muscle plasma membrane preparations from rats 15 days after femoral artery resection (HI; $n = 6$) and sham-operated rats ($n = 6$). (C) Representative immunoblots (upper panel) and densitometric analysis (lower panel) of multiple $(n = 3)$, including two samples per group each) independent experiments showing GRK2/GAPDH protein levels in skeletal muscle lysates from the ischemic hindlimb of rats undergoing femoral artery resection (HI, $n = 6$) and from sham-operated rats ($n = 6$). GAPDH was used as a loading control. Data are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. $P < 0.05$ versus sham.

compared with the control groups (Fig. 3A). Data from the dyed beads perfusion assay confirmed these results (Fig. 3B). In line with blood flow and perfusion data, histologic analysis of the tibial anterior muscle revealed that 15 days of HI induced a robust capillary rarefaction in saline- and Ad-GFPtreated rats (Fig. 3C). Of note, we found a complete restoration of the capillary density in β ARKct-treated rats that was not statistically different from that measured in sham-operated animals (Fig. 3C).

Finally, we assessed β AR plasma membrane density in the ischemic gastrocnemius from all study groups (Fig. 3D). In line with previous reports (Iaccarino et al., 2005), a significant $down$ -regulation of total βAR density was observed in salinetreated and GFP-treated groups compared with the shamoperated animals. More importantly, β ARKct gene therapy resulted in the restoration of β AR density in the ischemic muscles, at levels that were almost similar to the sham groups.

 β ARKct Improves In Vitro β_2 AR-Signaling in Endo**thelial Cells.** Our in vivo data showing that β ARKctdependent revascularization is associated with a restoration of β AR density in the ischemic skeletal muscle prompted us to

Fig. 2. In vivo gene delivery study design. (A) Overall study design. Rats underwent femoral resection and were randomized to receive intravascular injection of Ad - β ARKct or Ad -GFP or saline (vehicle). Hindlimb perfusion was evaluated by Doppler ultrasound before, immediately after, and 3, 7, 10, and 15 days after surgery. (B) Representative immunohistochemistry images showing β ARKct/endogenous GRK2 expression in skeletal muscle of rats treated with Ad - β ARKct or saline. bARKct was detected using an anti-GRK2 antibody. (Scale bar: 100 μ m, C–D.) Representative immunoblot (C) and densitometric analysis (D) of multiple independent experiments $(n = 4)$ to evaluate GRK2 and bARKct expression in the skeletal muscle lysates of rats treated with Ad - β ARKct or saline. GRK2 expression was normalized with GAPDH, and β ARKct expression is expressed as a fold of the endogenous GRK2 level.

Fig. 3. β ARKct gene delivery in skeletal muscle improves postischemic angiogenesis and restores β_2 AR density. (A) Blood flow measured by Doppler ultrasound in the tibial posterior artery of rats (n = 6 to 8 rats for each group) over the course of 15 days after surgery. Data are expressed as a percentage of the ischemic to nonischemic limb. (B) Blood perfusion $(n = 6 \text{ to } 8 \text{ rats}$ for each group) in the ischemic hindlimb of all four study groups as evaluated by dyed beads dilution assay performed at the end of the study period (15 days after gene transfer). Perfusion data are expressed as the ischemic-tononischemic ratio percentage of dyed beads content per milligram of hindlimb muscle tissue. (C) Representative images of Lectin Bandeiraea simplicifolia I staining of capillaries in the ischemic hindlimb (scale bar: 100 μ m, left panels); and bar graph (right panel) showing capillary-to-myocyte ratio in ischemic muscles ($n = 8$ each group) of all four groups and in sham-operated rats as control. Arrows indicate capillaries. (D) β AR Plasma membrane density in skeletal muscle homogenates, purified from the hindlimb $(n = 6$ rats for each group) from the sham and ischemic groups (saline, GFP, and β ARKct) at 15 days after surgery and gene delivery. $*P < 0.05$ versus sham; $*P < 0.05$ versus saline and GFP.

investigate the effects of this peptide on EC function. BAECs were stimulated in vitro with the selective β_2AR agonist fenoterol $(1 \mu M)$ (January et al., 1997) to test the activation of Akt and eNOS because these proteins are known to be nodal regulators of EC function (Howell et al., 1988). Indeed, we found that fenoterol was able to increase both Akt and eNOS activation after 15 minutes of stimulation (Fig. 4, A and B). Notably, the pretreatment of cells for 30 minutes with the selective β_2 AR antagonist ICI-118,551 (10 μ M) completely prevented the ability of fenoterol to increase in Akt and eNOS phosphorylation (Fig. 4, A and B), indicating that these effects are completely dependent on β_2 AR activation.

Next, ECs were infected in vitro with Ad-GRK2 or Ad- β ARKct or Ad-GFP (as control), and we assessed the effects of fenoterol on β_2AR phosphorylation/desensitization (p- β_2AR) by measuring the phospho-threonine (pThr) 384 levels of the bovine β_2AR (i.e., the homologous residue to the threonine targeted by GRK2 in the human β_2 AR, triggering rapid receptor desensitization) (Fredericks et al., 1996). In absence of agonist stimulation, there were no differences in terms of β_2 AR phosphorylation between GFP-infected, GRK2-infected, and β ARKct-infected cells (Fig. 5A). Five minutes of fenoterol

stimulation resulted in a significant increase in $p-\beta_2AR$ levels in all EC groups compared with unstimulated ECs. However, GRK2 overexpression induced a further significant increase in $p-\beta_2AR$ levels compared with both GFP and $\beta ARKct$ cells, suggesting that increased GRK2 activity is responsible for augmented β_2 AR phosphorylation and consequent desensitization also in ECs (Fig. 5A).

Next, we tested the direct effects of GRK2 and β ARKct on fenoterol-dependent Akt and eNOS activation (Queen et al., 2006; Figueroa et al., 2009). Indeed, in GFP-treated and β ARKct-treated cells, 15 minutes of fenoterol administration induced a significant enhancement in both Akt and eNOS phosphorylation (Fig. 5, B and C), while GRK2 overexpression resulted in a blunted activation of these factors. Notably, after 15 minutes of fenoterol stimulation no significant changes in GRK2 protein levels were observed between GFP-infected and β ARKct-infected cells (Fig. 5D).

Next, we tested the impact of longer fenoterol stimulation on β_2 AR signaling in ECs. Interestingly, after 6 hours of fenoterol administration, GRK2 expression was increased in both GFP and β ARKct cells at levels almost comparable but statistically different from those observed in Ad-GRK2 treated

Fig. 4. Fenoterol selectively stimulates endothelial β_2 AR proangiogenic signaling in BAECs. (A, B) Representative immunoblots (upper panels) and densitometric quantitative analysis (lower panel) of multiple $(n = 3)$ independent experiments to evaluate in BAECs unstimulated (Ns) or stimulated with fenoterol (Fen, 1 μ M) for 15 minutes. (A) Akt phosphorylation levels on serine 473 (ser⁴⁷³p-Akt) and (B) eNOS phosphorylation levels on serine 1177 $\rm s^{exp1177}$ p-eNOS) and total protein levels. Total Akt and total e-NOS served as loading controls, respectively. Before Fen stimulation, a group of cells was pretreated with selective β 2AR antagonist ICI-118,551 (ICI, 10 μ M). *P < 0.05 versus Ns.

cells (Fig. 6A). However, a robust β_2AR phosphorylation/ desensitization was evident only in GFP and GRK2 cells. Further, $p-\beta_2AR$ levels were significantly reduced in presence

of β ARKct (Fig. 6B). Consistent with increased β_2 AR desensitization, long-term fenoterol stimulation resulted in decreased Akt (Fig. 6C) and eNOS (Fig. 6D) activation in both

Fig. 5. Effects of GRK2 levels on β_2 AR phosphorylation and Akt and eNOS activation after fenoterol (Fen) stimulation in BAECs. (A–D) Representative immunoblots (upper) and densitometric analysis (bottom) of multiple independent experiments ($n = 3$) to evaluate: (A) β_2 AR phosphorylation levels on
threonine 384 (^{thr384}p- β_2 AR), (B) ^{ser473}p-Akt, and (C) ^{ser1} encoding for GFP, GRK2, or β ARKct. Cells were not stimulated Ns or stimulated with Fen $(1 \mu M)$, respectively, for (A) 5 minutes or (B–D) 15 minutes. Total β_2 AR, total Akt, total eNOS and GAPDH served as loading controls. Data are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. *P < 0.05 versus GFP Ns; $^{\#}P$ < 0.05 versus GFP Fen.

Fig. 6. Long-term effects of fenoterol (Fen) stimulation on β_2 AR function in BAECs. (A–D) Densitometric analysis of multiple independent experiments
to evaluate (A) GRK2 protein levels and (B) ^{thr384}p- β_2 AR, (C encoding for GFP, GRK2, or βARKct. Cells were not stimulated Ns or stimulated with Fen (1 μ M), respectively, for 6 hours (A–D). GAPDH, total β2AR,
total Akt, and total eNOS served as loading controls, respectively, *P total Akt, and total eNOS served as loading controls, respectively. $*P < 0.05$ versus GFP Ns. $*P < 0.05$ versus GRK2.

GFP and GRK2 overexpressing cells. In contrast, the presence of β ARKct, which prevented β_2 AR phosphorylation and subsequent desensitization (Fig. 6B), resulted in an increased activation of Akt and eNOS, at levels comparable to basal unstimulated conditions (Fig. 6, C and D).

These results strongly suggest a potential role of β ARKct in preventing GRK2-dependent β_2 AR phosphorylation and consequent receptor down-regulation. To confirm this hypothesis, we performed plasma membrane purifications in extracts obtained from BAECs infected with GFP and β ARKct, and either left unstimulated or stimulated with both with fenoterol for 6 hours. We found a significant reduction in β_2AR plasma membranes levels in GFP cells (Fig. 7, A and B). Further, internalized β_2 AR levels were increased compared with unstimulated cells. In contrast, β ARKct expression prevented the effects of fenoterol on β_2 AR-plasma membrane down-regulation (Fig. 7, A and B).

In line with these results, confocal microscopy experiments confirmed that β_2 AR was mainly localized at cytosolic level after fenoterol stimulation in GFP ECs (Fig. 7C). In contrast, β ARKct expression resulted in predominant β_2 AR localization at the plasma membrane similar to that observed in unstimulated cells (Fig. 7C).

bARKct Enhances In Vitro EC Function in Response to Selective β_2 AR Stimulation. Because our data above showed that β ARKct prevented the fenoterol-induced β_2 AR desensitization/down-regulation and rescued associated proangiogenic signaling, we evaluated the effects of β_2 ARagonism on EC function. We first assessed NO release because it has been demonstrated to be a potential modulator of EC function. As showed in Fig. 8A, after 6 hours of fenoterol stimulation, we observed a significant increase in NO release in GFP cells compared with unstimulated ones. Of note, after fenoterol stimulation in the presence of β ARKct, we observed a more pronounced NO release compared with all cell groups.

Next, we assessed the effects of β_2 AR-agonism on EC function. We evaluated EC migration by performing a wound healing scratch assay under basal conditions and after challenge with β_2AR agonist. As shown in Fig. 8B, under basal conditions, the expression of β ARKct did not induce any significant effect on cell migration compared with GFP cells. Importantly, fenoterol stimulation resulted in a \approx 2-fold increase in migration in GFP cells, and the presence of β ARKct induced significantly enhanced EC migration in response to β_2 AR stimulation that was almost double to that observed in control GFP cells. Similar results were obtained in an EC proliferation assay by 5-bromo-2ʹ-deoxyuridine (BrdU) incorporation (Fig. 8C). Fenoterol induced a significant increase in EC proliferation in GFP cells compared with nonstimulated cells at both 6 and 24 hours, and β ARKct expression induced a

Fig. 7. β ARKct prevents fenoterol-induced β_2 AR-internalization in BAECs. (A, B) Representative immunoblots (A) and densitometric quantitative analysis (B) of multiple $(n = 3)$ independent experiments to evaluate β_2 AR levels in crude plasma membrane preparations and in cytosolic fraction obtained from BAECs infected with Ad-GFP and Ad- β ARKct. Cells were not stimulated (Ns) or were stimulated with fenoterol (Fen, 1 μ M) for 6 hours. $*P < 0.05$ versus GFP Ns. $*P < 0.05$ versus GFP Fen. (C) Representative immunofluorescence images (scale bar: 10 μ m) of β_2AR in BAECs infected with Ad-GFP and Ad-GARKet. Cells were not stimulated (Ns) or were treate Ad-GFP and Ad- β ARKct. Cells were not stimulated (Ns) or were treated for 6 hours with Fen (1 μ M). Arrows indicate receptors that are internalized.

robust proliferative response to β_2 AR-agonism that was significantly higher than that observed in GFP-treated cells at both time points (Fig. 8C).

Finally, to study the role of β ARKct on β_2 AR-dependent eNOS activation, we isolated primary ECs from the aorta of WT and eNOS KO mice. The ECs were then infected with Ad-GFP and Ad - β ARKct. Importantly, the lack of eNOS almost completely prevented the effects of β ARKct on fenoteroldependent increase in EC migration (Fig. 9A) and proliferation (Fig. 9B) compared with WT cells. In line with these results, at the molecular level we observed that the lack of eNOS abolished the ability of β ARKct to activate/rescue β_2 ARdependent Akt activation ([Supplemental Fig. 1, A and B\)](http://jpet.aspetjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1124/jpet.115.228411/-/DC1) and to increase NO release after fenoterol stimulation (Fig. 9C).

Discussion

There is extensive literature supporting the therapeutic value of β ARKct gene therapy to ameliorate cardiac function and remodeling after myocardial infarction (Cannavo et al., 2013a), especially for its ability to block GRK2-dependent β_2 AR dysfunctional signaling (Cannavo et al., 2013a; Salazar et al., 2013; Khan et al., 2014). Herein, we report for the first time the effects of β ARKct gene therapy in a rat model of HI. In particular, we show that β ARKct is a new potential therapeutic tool to improve postischemic angiogenesis through the

preservation of β_2 AR signaling in the endothelium. We observed that ischemia induces the up-regulation of GRK2 protein levels in skeletal muscle, and this event appears to be critical in the processes of revascularization of the ischemic hindlimb as it is associated with β AR-desensitization/down-regulation.

Our present study confirms the relevant role of endothelial β_2 AR in the control of revascularization in vivo and EC function in vitro. In this context, previous studies have reported a crucial role of β_2AR at promoting in vivo postischemic revascularization; in particular, its functional relevance in the regulation of EC function in vitro has emerged as a key mechanism (Iaccarino et al., 2005). β_2AR KO mice exhibited impaired revascularization after ischemia with a high rate of tissue necrosis and subsequent autoamputation of ischemic limbs (Iaccarino et al., 2005). Moreover, in a rat model of HI, when β_2AR was down-regulated the gene therapy using the receptor resulted in improved revascularization of the ischemic limb (Iaccarino et al., 2005).

Importantly, no mechanism has been proposed for triggering ischemic-mediated β_2 AR dysfunction. Accordingly, the ability of GRK2 to regulate β AR signaling and function in the heart has been well established (Cannavo et al., 2013a; Huang et al., 2011) and therapies that inhibit the activity of this kinase on receptor phosphorylation/down-regulation at the plasma membrane have been shown to be strongly protective toward cardiac injury and stress, in part by

βARKct

FEN

GFP

ALLES

P.A.

 \Box Ns

Fen

FEN

βARKct

 $25 \overline{um}$

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βARKct

в

60

50

40

30

20 10

 Ω

GFP

Cell Migration (% over T=0)

GFF

Fig. 8. The presence of β ARKct enhances BAEC function. (A) Bar graph showing NO release in the media obtained from BAECs infected with Ad-GFP or Ad-βARKct, not stimulated (Ns) or stimulated with fenoterol (Fen, 1 μ M) for 6 hours. *P < 0.05 versus GFP Ns. $^{\#}P$ < 0.05 versus GFP Fen. (B) Representative images (upper: scale har: 25 μ m) and har graphs (low Representative images (upper; scale bar: 25 μ m) and bar graphs (lower) showing percentage of cell migration in response to 6 hours of Fen (1 μ M) stimulation, evaluated by wound healing scratch assay. Confluent monolayers of BAECs infected with Ad-GFP and Ad- β ARKct were wounded at time 0 $(T = 0)$. The average rate of wound closure during the first 6 hours of wound healing was calculated from three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$ versus GFP Ns. $\rm {}^{*}P$ < 0.05 versus GFP Fen. (C) BrdU proliferation assay in BAECs infected with Ad-GFP and Ad-βARKct at different time points (0, 6, and 24 hours) of stimulation with Fen (1 µM). Results are expressed and 24 hours) of stimulation with Fen (1 μ M). Results are expressed as the percentage of proliferation over nonstimulated (Ns) cells. *P < 0.05 versus GFP Ns. $^{\#}\!P < 0.05$ versus GFP Fen.

restoring myocardial β AR signaling abnormalities (Rengo et al., 2009a; Rengo et al., 2011; Cannavo et al., 2013a).

Herein, we show that the resection of the common femoral artery in rats, a well-recognized model of peripheral artery disease (Iaccarino et al., 2005; Leosco et al., 2007), results in \approx 2-fold increase in GRK2 levels in the ischemic gastrocnemius compared with sham-operated rats. Moreover, we confirmed that GRK2 up-regulation is paralleled by significant βAR down-regulation in the ischemic skeletal muscle. Thus, we tested the in vivo properties of Ad-mediated intra-arterial gene transfer of the GRK2 inhibitor β ARKct on HI.

Our data show that β ARKct expression in the ischemic tissue induces a significant increase in blood flow recovery and perfusion of the ischemic hindlimb compared with control groups (saline and GFP treated) at 15 days after FAR. Of note, this result is associated with a significant increase in capillary density, suggesting improved postischemic angiogenesis. As reported by others (Iaccarino et al., 2005), ischemia is associated with significant β AR down-regulation and dysfunction in the affected muscle. Consistently, in our control groups undergoing HI, β AR density is reduced in the ischemic muscle. However, 15 days of β ARKct expression significantly improved β AR density in the ischemic hindlimb, almost to levels observed in sham-operated rats, thus suggesting a possible

explanation for the beneficial effects of this therapeutic strategy on in vivo revascularization.

Because a pivotal role of β_2 ARs exists for EC function (Howell et al., 1988; Iaccarino et al., 2005; Ciccarelli et al., 2011), particularly in respect to the regulation of postnatal ischemic angiogenesis, our mechanistic focus targeting GRK2 activity was to investigate the impact of β ARKct on EC function in vitro. In BAECs, we have observed that GRK2 overexpression, obtained via Ad-mediated gene transfer, significantly impairs both cell migration and proliferation in response to selective β_2AR stimulation. This shows that indeed GRK2 has influence at the level of the β_2 AR and can be a mediator of dysregulation of the system. At the molecular level, these deleterious effects exerted by GRK2 on EC function are paralleled by β_2AR dysfunctional signaling, as suggested by levels of receptor phosphorylation and reduced Akt and eNOS activation after acute fenoterol stimulation (5 and 15 minutes, respectively). Interestingly, after 6 hours of fenoterol stimulation, these negative effects are also observed in GFP-infected cells, but it is important to underline that at this time point fenoterol induces a strong up-regulation of endogenous GRK2 levels (Fig. 6). However, after 15 minutes of fenoterol stimulation, a time point where GRK2 is not upregulated, Ad-GFP treated ECs show reduced levels of $p-\beta_2AR$

Fig. 9. The lack of eNOS prevents the effects of β ARKct in ECs. Murine aortic endothelial cells (ECs), isolated from WT and eNOS KO mice, infected with Ad-GFP or Ad- β ARKct, not stimulated (Ns) or stimulated with fenoterol (Fen, 1 μ M). (A) Bar graphs (lower) showing the percentage of cell migration, evaluated by wound healing scratch assay. Confluent monolayers of ECs were wounded at time $0(T = 0)$. The average rate of wound closure during the first 6 hours of wound healing was calculated from three independent experiments. (B) BrdU proliferation assay in ECs at different time points (0, 6, and 24 hours). Results are expressed as the percentage of proliferation over nonstimulated cells. *P < 0.05 versus GFP Ns. # P < 0.05 versus GFP Fen. $^{\wedge}P$ < 0.05 versus WT GFP. (C) Bar graph showing NO release in the medium from ECs stimulated with Fen (1 μ M) for 6 hours. *P < 0.05 versus WT GFP. $^{#}P < 0.05$ versus WT β ARKct.

and an increased level of Akt and eNOS activation when compared with Ad-GRK2 treated cells, thus indicating higher responsiveness to β_2 AR activation (Fig. 5).

Of further importance, β ARKct expression improves EC migration and proliferation and preserves β_2 AR signaling and function after fenoterol stimulation (Fig. 7). These data suggest that β ARKct is able to enhance β_2 AR signaling and to improve EC function after fenoterol administration.

Study Limitations. GRK2 has been shown to directly interact with and inhibit both Akt and eNOS (Brinks at al., 2010; Huang at al., 2013), so it is quite likely that some of the observed effects of β ARKct are due to direct inhibition of GRK2 acting on Akt/eNOS and independently of the β_2 AR. However, our results strongly suggest that acute β 2AR stimulation by fenoterol can directly activate Akt and eNOS in ECs in vitro and that although β ARKct expression does not affect the acute action of fenoterol it ameliorates later effects of fenoterol on β 2AR phosphorylation, enhancing NO release in these cells. Moreover, our data obtained in eNOS KO ECs support the hypothesis that the preservation of β_2 AR/eNOS axis is relevant for the positive effects of β ARKct in ECs.

It is important to underline that we cannot exclude any potential involvement of other cell types (i.e., skeletal muscle cells or smooth muscle cells) other than ECs and endothelial progenitor cells, for which a relevant role has been proposed in postischemic angiogenesis in vivo (Galasso et al., 2013). In this regard, it has been recently demonstrated that in C2C12 myoblasts GRK2 overexpression led to a significant impairment in cell differentiation, thus suggesting for this kinase a relevant role in skeletal muscle myogenesis (Garcia-Guerra et al., 2014). Thus, we cannot exclude additional effects of β ARKct in skeletal muscle cells in our in vivo model.

As an addition limitation, as reported by others previously (Iaccarino et al., 2005) and as shown in our immunohistochemical analysis [\(Supplemental Fig. 1](http://jpet.aspetjournals.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1124/jpet.115.228411/-/DC1)), the gene delivery technique we used results in a predominant localization of the transgenes to the existing vascular structures within the ischemic tissue.

Finally, in our in vivo study we measured total β AR density in the ischemic muscle of rats rather than β_2 AR density. However, the β_2AR is known to be the main isoform expressed in EC and in the skeletal muscles (Osswald and Guimarães, 1983; Guimarães and Moura, 2001; Lynch and Ryall, 2008), so we can assume that part of the effects of HI and β ARKct gene therapy on total β AR density might be ascribed to changes in β_2 AR density. Moreover, our in vitro data in ECs have specifically investigated the effects of β ARKct on β_2 AR signaling and function, clearly demonstrating a protective effect of β ARKct on β_2 AR down-regulation.

In conclusion, in the present study we provide novel evidence that β ARKct expression and subsequent GRK2 inhibition positively regulate β_2 AR signaling and function in ECs, with relevant implications for postischemic angiogenesis. For this reason, we propose β ARKct gene therapy as a new therapeutic approach to reestablish blood flow to the limbs affected by critical ischemia.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: Cannavo, Liccardo, Rengo, Koch, Leosco.

Conducted experiments: Cannavo, Liccardo, Lymperopoulos, Gambino, D'Amico, Rengo.

Contributed new reagents or analytic tools: Cannavo, Liccardo, Rengo, Koch, Leosco.

Performed data analysis: Liccardo, Cannavo, Rengo.

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Cannavo, Liccardo, Rengo, Rengo, Koch, Ferrara, Leosco.

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