Superoxide Flux in Endothelial Cells via the Chloride Channel-3 Mediates Intracellular Signaling

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Reactive oxygen species (ROS) have been implicated in both cell signaling and pathology. A major source of ROS in endothelial cells is NADPH oxidase, which generates superoxide (O$_2^-$) on the extracellular side of the plasma membrane but can result in intracellular signaling. To study possible transmembrane flux of O$_2^-$, pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells were preloaded with the O$_2^-$-sensitive fluorophore hydroethidine (HE). Application of an extracellular bolus of O$_2^-$ resulted in rapid and concentration-dependent transient HE oxidation that was followed by a progressive and nonreversible increase in nuclear HE fluorescence. These fluorescence changes were inhibited by superoxide dismutase (SOD), the anion channel blocker DIDS, and selective silencing of the chloride channel-3 (CIC-3) by treatment with siRNA. Extracellular O$_2^-$ triggered Ca$^{2+}$ release in turn triggered mitochondrial membrane potential alterations that were followed by mitochondrial O$_2^-$ production and cellular apoptosis. These “signaling” effects of O$_2^-$ were prevented by DIDS treatment, by depletion of intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ stores with thapsigargin and by chelation of intracellular Ca$^{2+}$. This study demonstrates that O$_2^-$ flux across the endothelial cell plasma membrane occurs through CIC-3 channels and induces intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ release, which activates mitochondrial O$_2^-$ generation.

INTRODUCTION

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) have been implicated in cellular signaling processes as well as a cause of oxidative stress (Taniyama and Griendling, 2003). It is now appreciated that a major source of ROS in the vasculature is through one or more isoforms of the phagocytic enzyme NADPH oxidase, a membrane-localized protein which generates the superoxide (O$_2^-$) anion on the extracellular surface of the plasma membrane (Lambeth, 2004). As a charged and short-lived anion, it is believed that O$_2^-$ flux is insufficient to initiate intracellular signaling due to the combination of poor permeability through the phospholipid bilayer (Tanabe et al., 2005) and a rapid dismutation to its uncharged and more stable derivative, hydrogen peroxide (Finkel, 2003). However, recent evidence has indicated discrete signaling roles for both O$_2^-$ and H$_2$O$_2$ (Madesh and Hajnoczky, 2001; Devadas et al., 2002). In our studies, we have found that extracellular O$_2^-$, but not H$_2$O$_2$, leads to Ca$^{2+}$ signaling and apoptosis in pulmonary endothelial cells (Madesh et al., 2005). This indicates that extracellular O$_2^-$ produced by NADPH oxidase or other sources either crosses the plasma membrane or modifies cell surface proteins to mediate cell signaling.

Previous studies of erythrocytes and amniotic cells have provided evidence for O$_2^-$ transport through anion channels, which could be effectively blocked by 4,4'-diisothiocyanostilbene-2,2'-disulfonic acid (DIDS; Lynch and Fridovich, 1978; Ikebuchi et al., 1991). DIDS also effectively blocked release of O$_2^-$ from mitochondria into the cytosol (Han et al., 2003) without affecting ROS production (Korchak et al., 1980). Despite these reports, whether O$_2^-$ crosses the cell membrane to elicit a discrete intracellular signal remains controversial (Babior, 1999; Mikkelsen and Wardman, 2003).

The present study evaluated the response of pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells (PMVECs) to extracellular O$_2^-$. Our findings using a fluorophore trap demonstrate that O$_2^-$ enters the cell through a chloride channel-3 (CIC-3)-dependent mechanism. Further, extracellular O$_2^-$, through a Ca$^{2+}$-mediated signaling event, stimulates the production of O$_2^-$ by the mitochondria. This observation provides a model by which extracellular O$_2^-$ can propagate intracellular ROS signaling.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Hydroethidine (HE), MitoSOX Red, propidium iodide (PI), rhodamine 123, Fluo-4/AM, and BAPTA-AM were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA). The Basic Nucleofector Kit for primary mammalian endothelial cells was purchased from Amaza Biosystems (Gaithersburg, MD). Silencer Predesigned CIC-3 (ID 60947 and 60858), negative control 1, and Cy3-labeled GAPDH primers for β-actin, CIC-3, and CIC-4 were obtained from Operon Biotechnologies (Huntsville, AL). Rabbit polyclonal anti-CIC-3 antibody was obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). pEYFP-Mito was purchased from Clontech (BD Biosciences, Mountain View, CA). KO$_2$, apoc-
yn, angiotsin II, thapsigargin, and all other chemicals were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME).

Cell Culture

Immortalized human pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells (HPMVEC clone ST1.0R) were generated as described previously (Krump-Konvalinkova et al., 2001) and cultured in Medium-199 supplemented with 15% FBS, glutamates, antibiotics, and endothelial cell growth supplement. Isolation, characterization, and propagation of mouse pulmonary microvascular endothelial cells (MPMVEC) from wild-type (C57BL/6) and gp91 phox gene-targeted mice have been previously described (Milovanova et al., 2006). Primary cells were cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS, nonessential amino acids, endothelial cell growth supplement, and antibiotics and used between 3×10⁵ and 4×10⁵ cells. For some experiments, cells were transfected with various DNA constructs by electroporation (Amazix Biosystems, Gaithersburg, MD) using programs T-23 or S-05 according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Imaging of O₃⁻ Flux

PMVECs cultured on 0.2% gelatin-coated 25-mm diameter glass coverslips were loaded with the O₃⁻ sensitive dye HE (10 μM) in DMEM for 10 min at 37°C. Cells were then placed on a temperature-controlled stage, and images were recorded every 5 s for 5 min using LaserSharp software (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA) on a Bio-Rad Radiance 2000 imaging system (Bio-Rad Laboratories) equipped with a Kr/Ar-ion laser source at 568- and 605-nm excitation and emission, respectively, using a 60× objective. A bolus of KO₂ was added after 1 min of baseline recording. KO₂ was prepared in imaging and mitochondrial inhibitors were added similarly as KO₂. HE was present during HE loading and KO₂ addition. Antioxidant enzymes were added immediately before imaging and mitochondrial inhibitors were added similarly as KO₂. HE fluorescence was quantified by nuclear masking of all cells in the field. For angiotsin II (Ang II) and thrombin experiments, PMVECs were cultured on coverslips, and the medium was replaced with M-199 containing 2% FBS before study. PMVECs were pretreated with DIDS (300 μM) or apocynin (Apox 2 μM) for 10 min before addition of 2 μM Ang II or 0.5 U/ml thrombin. For imaging, cells were loaded with HE (10 μM) and five independent fields were recorded by confocal microscopy.

Cell-free HE Oxidation Measurement

HE fluorescence (40 μM) in a 2 ml solution of PBS was monitored in a multiwavelength-excitation dual wavelength-emission fluorimeter (Delta RAM, PTI, Birmingham, NJ) using 510- and 568-nm excitation and emission, respectively. Briefer, KO₂ or the xanthine/xanthine oxidase (X/XO; X-100 μM; XO-50 μM/ml) O₂⁻ generation system was added to the solution after 60 s of baseline recording. Total recording time was 3 min. O₂⁻ and KOH were added in a similar manner. For dismutation studies, KO₂ was not directly applied to the image field to avoid alterations in microscope focus. For inhibitor studies, DIDS (200 μM) was present during HE loading and KO₂ addition. Antioxidant enzymes were added immediately before imaging and mitochondrial inhibitors were added similarly as KO₂. HE fluorescence was quantified by nuclear masking of all cells in the field. For angiotsin II (Ang II) and thrombin experiments, PMVECs were cultured on coverslips, and the medium was replaced with M-199 containing 2% FBS before study. PMVECs were pretreated with DIDS (300 μM) or apocynin (Apox 2 μM) for 10 min before addition of 2 μM Ang II or 0.5 U/ml thrombin. For imaging, cells were loaded with HE (10 μM) and five independent fields were recorded by confocal microscopy.

Mitochondrial Membrane Potential

Cells cultured on coverslips were incubated with the cationic potentiometric fluorescent dye rhodamine 123 (25 μM) for 20 min at 37°C. After dye loading, the cells were washed and resuspended in DMEM. Images were recorded every 5 s for 5 min using the Bio-Rad Radiance 2000 imaging system with excitation at 488 nm. A decrease in mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm) results in loss of rhodamine 123 from the mitochondria into the cytoplasm and the nucleus. Quantitation of the ΔΨm change was determined by nuclear masking for fluorescence of all cells in the field. Treatment with DIDS and other agents was performed as described above.

Measurement of [Ca²⁺]i, Mobilization

Endothelial cells adherent to 25-mm-diameter glass coverslips were loaded with the cytosolic Ca²⁺ indicator Fluo-4/AM (5 μM; Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) at 37°C and imaged for 30 min in extracellular medium containing 121 mM NaCl, 5 mM NaHCO₃, 10 mM Na-Hepes, 4.7 mM KCl, 1.2 mM KH₂PO₄, 1.2 mM MgSO₄, 2 mM CaCl₂, 10 mM glucose, and 2.0% bovine serum albumin (BSA), pH 7.4, in the presence of 100 μM nifedipine and 0.0001% pluronic acid. After dye loading, the cells were washed and resuspended in M-199 before incubation with the corresponding ionophore (BSA) and images recorded every 3 s at 488-nm excitation using the Bio-Rad Radiance 2000 imaging system.

Annexin V Imaging

To determine phosphatidylinerine externalization as an indication of early apoptosis, PI was added to KC₃O₄ for 3 h and incubated with the conjugate annexin V Alexa-Fluor-488 (Molecular Probes) for 15 min in annexin V binding buffer. PI (0.5 μg/ml) was added 5 min before imaging. After treatment, annexin V-PI-positive cells were excited at 488 and 560 nm, respectively, and were counted in 10 independent fields. The normal-PI, impermeable PI is internalized as the plasma membrane loses integrity. Positive PI staining indicates either late stage apoptosis or necrosis.

Data Analysis

Either nuclear (HE, rhodamine 123) or perinuclear (MitoSOX Red) masking of all cells in a given field was used to quantitate the cellular response using Spectralyzer (custom software provided by Paul Anderson, Thomas Jefferson University) image analysis software. Tracings indicate the mean fluorescence value of all cells in one field and are indicative of n independent experiments. Multiple experiments were normalized to baseline average and expressed as fold change. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM for n independent experiments.

RESULTS

Extracellular O₃⁻ Causes Rapid and Transient Intracellular HE Oxidation

To evaluate transmembrane flux of O₃⁻, we measured the effects of the addition of a single extracellular bolus of O₃⁻ (10 μM) to the cell culture medium, a concentration within
the range produced by activated macrophages or by the granulocyte respiratory burst (Nathan and Root, 1977; Johnston et al., 1978). The bolus of O$_2^-$ caused rapid and transient HE oxidation in MPMVECs (Figure 1A), which was eliminated by pretreatment with DIDS (200 μM; Figure 1B). HPMVECs responded similarly to bolus O$_2^-$ addition (Figure 1C). Subsequent experiments with MPMVECs exposed to varied O$_2^-$ concentrations revealed a concentration-dependent response that was blocked either by SOD (2500 U/ml; n = 5), O$_2^-$ at 0.5 μM (n = 5), 2 μM (n = 5), 5 μM (n = 4), and 10 μM (n = 5), and H$_2$O$_2$ (500 μM; n = 3). The effects of SOD (2500 U/ml; n = 5), catalase (1000 U/ml; n = 3), and DIDS (200 μM; n = 5) were evaluated in the presence of 10 μM O$_2^-$ (Figure 1D). Mean cellular nuclear HE fluorescence after treatment with mitochondrial complex III inhibitor antimycin A (20 μM; n = 3) or the uncoupler FCCP (2 μM; n = 3).

To evaluate the effects of O$_2^-$ from an intracellular source, the mitochondrial complex III inhibitor antimycin A (AA; 20 μM) and the mitochondrial uncoupler carbonyl cyanide p-trifluoromethoxy)-phenyl-hydrazone (FCCP; 2 μM) were applied to HE-loaded MPMVECs because these compounds are known to lead to rapid generation of intracellular O$_2^-$ (Koopman et al., 2005). Mitochondrial-derived O$_2^-$ resulting from either FCCP or AA treatment resulted in a rapid and progressive increase in HE fluorescence (Figure 1E). The

Figure 1. Hydroethidine (HE) oxidation with addition of extracellular O$_2^-$. (A) A single bolus of O$_2^-$ was delivered to HE-loaded MPMVECs and recorded every 5 s. (B) Tracing indicating mean nuclear fluorescence of all cells in the field after addition of DMSO vehicle (control) or O$_2^-$ with or without preincubation with DIDS (200 μM). (C) Same experiment as B using HPMVECs. (D) Peak fluorescence change in MPMVECs (fold change normalized to baseline) in response to DMSO (vehicle control, n = 5), O$_2^-$ at 0.5 μM (n = 5), 2 μM (n = 5), 5 μM (n = 4), and 10 μM (n = 5), and H$_2$O$_2$ (500 μM; n = 3). The effects of SOD (2500 U/ml; n = 5), catalase (1000 U/ml; n = 3), and DIDS (200 μM; n = 5) were evaluated in the presence of 10 μM O$_2^-$. (E) Mean cellular nuclear HE fluorescence after treatment with mitochondrial complex III inhibitor antimycin A (20 μM; n = 3) or the uncoupler FCCP (2 μM; n = 3).
fluorescence spectrum at 494-nm excitation was similar after treatment with either extracellular O$_2^-$ or AA, suggesting the same HE oxidation product (Supplementary Figure 1). The present studies do not allow us to differentiate between oxyethidium and ethidium in these experiments although previous studies suggest oxyethidium as the major stable metabolite (Zhao et al., 2005).

O$_2^-$ Causes Rapid and Transient HE Oxidation in a Cell-free System

The reaction of HE with O$_2^-$ creates a stable product in a multistep process (Fink et al., 2004; Zhao et al., 2005). We therefore hypothesized that the HE fluorescence transient (Figure 1) may be an HE oxidation intermediate. A cell-free system was used to investigate the chemical nature of the transient response of HE to O$_2^-$ observed in PMVECs. The HE fluorescence changes were monitored after delivery of either a bolus of KO$_2$ (200 μM) or a bolus of X/XO (50 mU/ml) delivered to HE (40 μM) dissolved in PBS (Figure 2A). Similar to findings with PMVECs, a rapid HE fluorescence transient was observed after KO$_2$ application, whereas the X/XO O$_2^-$ generating system resulted in a progressive increase. HE fluorescence was unaltered after addition of DMSO vehicle (200 μl), KOH (200 μM), H$_2$O$_2$ (5 mM), or KO$_2$ (100 μM) that had been predissimulated into H$_2$O$_2$ by SOD (1000 U/ml). Increasing concentrations of O$_2^-$ correlated with the magnitude of both the initial peak and the stable postpeak HE fluorescence (Figure 2B).

Extracellular O$_2^-$ Leads to Progressive HE Fluorescence Increase

After the rapid HE transient, we consistently observed a gradual increase in HE fluorescence over the subsequent 300 s of imaging (Figure 1, B and C). We therefore monitored the effect of extracellular O$_2^-$ on stable (i.e., not transient) nuclear HE fluorescence in PMVECs. Examination by microscopy showed a pronounced increase in nuclear HE fluorescence at 20 min after O$_2^-$ exposure that was prevented by pretreatment with DIDS (200 μM; Figure 3A). Quantitation of the images showed a 5.7 ± 1.5-fold increase over baseline in nuclear HE fluorescence with KO$_2$ addition versus a 1.0 ± 0.1-fold increase with DIDS pretreatment. Similarly, extracellular O$_2^-$ derived from X/XO resulted in a profound increase in HE fluorescence (6.2 ± 0.7-fold) versus DIDS-pretreated cells (1.7 ± 0.3-fold). The fluorescence in cells without addition of O$_2^-$ was essentially unchanged (Control, Figure 3B). Because O$_2^-$ added as a bolus to the aqueous medium of a cell monolayer would be rapidly dissipated, we postulated a secondary source of oxidants for the delayed increase in endothelial cell nuclear HE fluorescence. MPMVECs lacking the gp91phox catalytic subunit of endothelial NADPH oxidase showed no difference from wild-type cells in the response of nuclear HE fluorescence to a bolus addition of O$_2^-$ (Figure 3B). This result indicates that the progressive HE oxidation triggered by extracellular O$_2^-$ is not the direct result of plasma membrane NADPH oxidase O$_2^-$ production, but rather suggests an intracellular source.

Receptor-mediated Increase in HE Fluorescence

To determine whether “physiological” stimulation of O$_2^-$ production could be detected by measurement of HE fluorescence, we used angiotensin II (Ang II; 2 μM) and thrombin (0.5 U/ml), two agonists known to increase endothelial ROS production through receptor-mediated signaling cascades (Takano et al., 2002; Li and Shah, 2004). O$_2^-$ production was monitored by the increase in HE fluorescence after 1 h of agonist stimulation. Both Ang II and thrombin increased O$_2^-$ production in HPMVECs (Supplementary Figure 2 and Figure 4). Pretreatment with the NADPH oxidase inhibitor Apo (2 μM) or with DIDS (300 μM) decreased HE oxidation in Ang II–stimulated cells (Supplementary Figure 2 and Figure 4), compatible with Ang II–mediated extracellular O$_2^-$ generation via NADPH oxidase. Thrombin-stimulated O$_2^-$ release, on the other hand, was insensitive to Apo and DIDS, suggesting an intracellular source of O$_2^-$ for this agonist.

Extracellular O$_2^-$ Triggers Mitochondrial O$_2^-$ Production

To assess mitochondria as a secondary source of O$_2^-$ in this model system, MPMVECs transfected with mitochondrial-
cell culture medium evoked a large increase in MitoSOX Red fluorescence that was prevented by pretreatment of the cells with DIDS (Figure 5, A and B). The increase in MitoSOX Red fluorescence was ~5.5-fold higher for O$_2^-$ versus untreated (vehicle only) cells (Figure 5B). Treatment with the sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca$^{2+}$-ATPase inhibitor thapsigargin (Tg) in the absence of extracellular O$_2^-$ resulted in transient elevation of intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ and also triggered mitochondrial ROS production. Chelation of intra-cellular Ca$^{2+}$ by BAPTA abolished the increase in MitoSOX Red fluorescence in response to bolus O$_2^-$ (Figure 5B). This result provides evidence that mitochondrial ROS generation occurs as a result of intracellular Ca$^{2+}$ mobilization (Madesh et al., 2005). These data indicate that inhibition of O$_2^-$ flux across the plasma membrane by DIDS or ablation of O$_2^-$-triggered Ca$^{2+}$ release by chelation prevents mitochondrial ROS production associated with extracellular O$_2^-$.

**O$_2^-$ Effect Can Be Blocked by Selective ClC-3 Knockdown**

The effect of DIDS on HE and MitoSOX Red fluorescence in PMVECs suggests the requirement of an anion channel in O$_2^-$ flux across the plasma membrane. Because ClC-3 is the most abundant anion channel in endothelial cells (Lamb et al., 1999) and is inhibitable by DIDS (Hirotsu et al., 1999), we chose to assess whether knockdown of ClC-3 elicits a reduction in HE fluorescence similar to that demonstrated by DIDS. Electroporation efficiently delivered siRNA to MPMVECs as evidenced by microscopic evaluation of Cy3-labeled GAPDH siRNA (Figure 6A). siRNA sequences targeting exon 10 (sequence 1) and exons 2 and 3 (sequence 2) resulted in a marked decrease in ClC-3 mRNA expression by RT-PCR at an equivalent cycle amplification as compared with wild-type and negative control siRNA-transfected MPMVECs (Figure 6B). No differences in $\beta$-actin or ClC-4 expression were observed, indicating specificity of the siRNA effect. A reduction in ClC-3 protein expression was also noted at 72 h after delivery of ClC-3 siRNA (Figure 6B, bottom panel). Both the rapid peak (Figure 6C) and the subsequent increased nuclear HE fluorescence at 20 min after O$_2^-$ exposure (Figure 6, D and E) were markedly inhibited in ClC-3 siRNA treated cells (sequence 1) compared with negative control–transfected cells. These siRNA knockdown experiments provide additional evidence that O$_2^-$ membrane flux is mediated by ClC-3 and are consistent with the effect of DIDS on O$_2^-$-mediated HE oxidation.

**Mitochondrial O$_2^-$ Production Is Associated with Ca$^{2+}$-dependent Changes in $\Delta\Psi_m$**

The effect of extracellular O$_2^-$ on mitochondrial membrane potential was evaluated as a potential mechanism for inducing mitochondrial O$_2^-$ production. In rhodamine 123–loaded PMVECs, addition of O$_2^-$ (10 $\mu$M) to the medium caused a rapid leakage of dye from the mitochondria compatible with mitochondrial membrane depolarization (Figure 7A). Depolarization was associated with a dramatic alteration in mitochondrial morphology (Figure 7A, 105 s compared with zero time). At later times, mitochondrial depolarization was propagated to adjacent cells (Figure 7A, 200 and 300 s). Mitochondrial depolarization was blocked by pretreatment of cells with DIDS (Figure 7B). Reversible mitochondrial depolarization without major alterations in mitochondrial morphology was observed at low levels of O$_2^-$ (2 $\mu$M; data not shown). HPMVECs and MPMVECs demonstrated similar biphasic $\Delta\Psi_m$ changes after addition of 5 $\mu$M O$_2^-$ (Figure 7, D and E). However, HPMVECs appeared to be more sensitive to O$_2^-$, as addition of a 10 $\mu$M bolus produced irreversible $\Delta\Psi_m$ loss (data not shown). $\Delta\Psi_m$ changes

**Figure 3.** The stable increase of nuclear HE fluorescence by extracellular O$_2^-$ is blocked by DIDS but is gp91phox independent. (A) HE fluorescence in MPMVECs before and 20 min after exposure to extracellular O$_2^-$ (10 $\mu$M KO$_2$) and in the absence (top panels) and presence of DIDS (200 $\mu$M). (B) HE fluorescence expressed as fold change versus baseline (zero time) was measured in untreated MPMVECs at 20 min after addition of O$_2^-$ (10 $\mu$M KO$_2$ and 20 $\mu$M X/XO) with or without preincubation with DIDS (200 $\mu$M) and in gp91phox null cells. Control represents no additions. Results are mean ± SE; n = 3.
were consistently delayed in comparison to the HE fluorescence transient. However, the biphasic phenomenon of \( \Delta \psi_m \) alteration is similar to that observed with HE after \( O_2^- \) exposure (see Figures 2 and 7).

Bolus addition of \( O_2^- \) triggered rapid mobilization of intracellular \( Ca^{2+} \) that could effectively be abolished by BAPTA (50 \( \mu M \); Figure 7C). Because \( Ca^{2+} \) mobilization demonstrated a similar transient to that of the \( \Delta \psi_m \), we investigated the causal role of intracellular \( Ca^{2+} \) in \( \Delta \psi_m \) alterations in MPMVECs pretreated with Tg (2 \( \mu M \)). This pretreatment with Tg prevented mitochondrial depolarization after bolus addition of \( O_2^- \) (Figure 7D) without having a direct effect on \( \Delta \psi_m \) (Supplementary Figure 3), indicating that the effect of increased extracellular \( O_2^- \) on \( \Delta \psi_m \) requires \( Ca^{2+} \) derived from intracellular stores. The specificity of the \( Ca^{2+} \) effect was evaluated by measuring the responses to an uncoupler of mitochondrial respiration and to depolarization of the plasma membrane. Addition of the mitochondrial uncoupler FCCP (2 \( \mu M \)) facilitated irreversible \( \Delta \psi_m \) loss in contrast to the biphasic response to extracellular \( O_2^- \). To investigate a possible interaction between plasma membrane and mitochondrial membrane potentials, 20 mM KCl was added to rhodamine 123–loaded HPMVECs in order to partially depolarize the plasma membrane (Zhang et al., 2005). KCl addition had no effect on \( \Delta \psi_m \) (Figure 7E).

This excludes a possible effect of this cation when added with \( O_2^- \).

**Anion Channel Blockade Prevents \( O_2^- \)-induced Apoptosis**

Addition of \( O_2^- \) as a single bolus led to a subsequent significant increase in the number of MPMVECs that stained positively for annexin V (Figure 8, A and B). Many of the annexin V–positive cells also stained positively for PI. There was no significant population of PI-positive but annexin V–negative cells. These results are compatible with early to later events of apoptosis of MPMVECs associated with the \( O_2^- \) bolus.

**DISCUSSION**

Pathophysiological models indicate that endothelial oxidative stress can lead to vascular dysfunction and damage (Taniyama and Griendling, 2003). However, specific oxidants may result in discrete effects on endothelial cells (Finkel, 2001; Devadas et al., 2002). Endogenous \( O_2^- \) produced by NADPH oxidase has been implicated in cell proliferation (Milovanova et al., 2006), whereas phagocyte-derived \( O_2^- \) is associated with endothelial apoptosis (Madesh et al., 2005). Although it is possible that the disparate functions of extracellular \( O_2^- \) may be attributed to varying

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**Figure 4.** Receptor-mediated endothelial cell \( O_2^- \) generation results in a stable increase of nuclear HE fluorescence. HPMVECs were loaded with HE (10 \( \mu M \)) and stimulated with Ang II (2 \( \mu M \) ) or thrombin (0.5 U/ml) for 1 h with or without pretreatment with the NADPH oxidase inhibitor apocynin (Apo; 2 \( \mu M \)) or the anion channel blocker DIDS (300 \( \mu M \)). Nuclear HE fluorescence was quantitated from the confocal microscopic images. Data represent mean ± SE of five independent fields (\( n = 3 \)).
mechanisms including rapid dismutation to H$_2$O$_2$, modification of cell-surface proteins, or release of cytokines secondary to endothelial cell activation, we hypothesize a unique signaling cascade specific to the extracellular presence of this anion. The biological effects of extracellular ROS have been studied primarily by adding exogenous H$_2$O$_2$ to target cells (Wright et al., 1994) or by examining autocrine effects on the ROS-producing cells themselves (Thannickal and Fanburg, 2000). No studies, to our knowledge, have demonstrated a role for paracrine-derived O$_2$ in triggering intracellular ROS generation in a physiological/pathophysiological relevant context. In the present study, we demonstrate that extracellular O$_2$ can cross the cell membrane via CIC-3 and initiate an intracellular signaling cascade resulting in Ca$^{2+}$-mediated O$_2$ production by the mitochondria. These results suggest an important role for extracellular O$_2$ in endothelial cell biology.

In this study, we investigated O$_2$ membrane flux by utilizing a previously unpublished property of the O$_2$-sensitive fluorophore HE. The transient intracellular fluorescence peak associated with HE oxidation was O$_2$ concentration-dependent in both live cell and cell-free models. Specificity of this transient to O$_2$ is indicated by its inhibition with SOD, whereas catalase had no effect. Addition of
KO2-treated HE to the extracellular milieu did not alter HE fluorescence (data not shown), excluding the possibility that HE oxidized outside the cell rapidly traverses the plasma membrane. Abrogation of the effect by DIDS suggests that this intracellular HE fluorescence transient results from membrane flux of \( \text{O}_2^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) through an anion channel. ClC-3 is the most abundant chloride channel in endothelial cells (Lamb et al., 1999) and knockout of this channel results in compensatory changes in cell membrane protein expression and function (Yamamoto-Mizuma et al., 2004). Selective knockdown of ClC-3 using siRNA resulted in a significant reduction in the HE transient similar to that observed by anion channel inhibition with DIDS. Therefore, we conclude that ClC-3 is the primary channel that supports transmembrane \( \text{O}_2^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) flux in endothelial cells.

After the HE transient with addition of \( \text{O}_2^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \), we observed a progressive increase in nuclear HE fluorescence that was blocked by DIDS and ClC-3 knockdown. It seems unlikely that this delayed response is due to the extracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \) because of the expected short lifetime of \( \text{O}_2^- \) in solution. A possibility for this finding is that extracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \) triggered a secondary response in the cells leading to \( \text{O}_2^- \) generation from a cellular source. Intracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \) production by the mitochondrial inhibitor AA and the uncoupler FCCP resulted in progressive increase of nuclear HE fluorescence. This led us to hypothesize that the mitochondria may be a secondary source of \( \text{O}_2^- \) after addition of \( \text{O}_2^-/\text{H}_2\text{O}_2 \) to the extracellular medium. Measurement of nuclear HE fluorescence has been suggested as an indicator for \( \text{O}_2^- \) derived from NADPH oxidase (Sun et al., 2005). However, \( \text{O}_2^- \) generated by the mitochondria elicits a similar response (Becker et al., 1999). The failure of NADPH oxidase deficient cells to change the response and the use of the mitochondrial \( \text{O}_2^- \) specific dye MitoSOX Red in the present experiments indicate that mitochondrial production of \( \text{O}_2^- \) is primarily responsible for the progressive increase in nuclear HE fluorescence associated with extracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \). These results suggest that nuclear HE fluorescence associated with activation of NADPH oxidase and consequent extracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \) generation may actually reflect mitochondrial-

![Figure 6](image-url)

**Figure 6.** ClC-3 knockdown attenuates intracellular HE oxidation. (A) Electroporation of siRNA effectively delivers siRNA to MPMVECs. Images represent cy3-labeled GAPDH siRNA counterstained with the nuclear marker DAPI. (B) ClC-3, ClC-4, and β-actin mRNA expression in MPMVECs 60 h after transfection with one of two different ClC-3 sequences or negative control siRNA (250 pmol). Bottom, Western blot of ClC-3 protein expression in wild-type (WT) MPMVECs and at 72 h after transfection with ClC-3 #1 or negative control siRNA (control). (C) HE fluorescence transient in WT (n = 5), ClC-3 #1 (n = 5) and #2 (n = 5) and negative control (n = 5) siRNA transfected MPMVECs after addition of 10 μM KO2 normalized to fold change versus baseline. (D) HE fluorescence at baseline and at 20 min after exposure to extracellular \( \text{O}_2^- \) (10 μM) in ClC-3 siRNA #1 and negative control siRNA-transfected MPMVECs. (E) Quantitation of HE fluorescence normalized to fold change versus baseline for control and ClC-3 #1-treated MPMVECs (n = 3).
derived ROS resulting from intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\)-mediated signaling.

Addition of Ang II or thrombin was used to initiate endogenous NADPH oxidase activity in endothelial cells in order to test whether mitochondrial O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) production was activated by physiological levels of extracellular O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\). We observed that Ang II triggered a significant increase in H\(_2\)O\(_2\) fluorescence that was blocked by both Apo and DIDS. Ang II–induced endothelial cell O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) production has been linked to endothelial dysfunction and associated hypertension (Lassegue et al., 2001), and a link has been demonstrated between Ang II stimulated NADPH oxidase-derived O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) and mitochondrial ROS production (Kimura et al., 2005). It has been proposed that ROS produced by mitochondria in endothelial cells serve an intracellular signaling function (Quintero et al., 2006). Oscillations in mitochondrial ROS production due to a localized production of ROS by a small number of mitochondria have provided evidence for mitochondrial-mediated signaling via ROS (Zorov et al., 2000; Aon et al., 2003). However, the possibility that extracellular ROS also could stimulate intracellular ROS production by the mitochondria has not been previously reported. The present study demonstrates that extracellular O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) produced by NADPH oxidase can permeate the cell membrane to trigger intracellular (mitochondrial) ROS production.

Transmembrane O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) flux has previously been shown in membranes highly enriched with anion channels, such as the erythrocyte (Lynch and Fridovich, 1978). However, under normal conditions, the diffusion distance of O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) before spontaneous dismutation to H\(_2\)O\(_2\) is estimated at 0.5 \(\mu\)m (Mikkelsen and Wardman, 2003). The rate of dismutation would be increased within the cell by cytosolic SOD (Fridovich, 1995). This precludes extracellular O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) from traveling much beyond the plasma membrane to react with potential intracellular signaling proteins (Finkel, 2001). Nonetheless, we demonstrate that O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\)-mediated signaling can be attenuated by both molecular inhibition of ClC-3 and anion channel blockade by DIDS, indicating a discrete role for O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) membrane flux in endothelial function. The question therefore arises as to the mechanism through which the short-lived O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\) anion leads to cell signaling. The experimental findings are that extracellular O\(_2\)\(^{\cdot}\)–trig-
through cell signaling secondary to Ca\(^{2+}\) release from intracellular stores. The present evidence supports this hypothesis, because mitochondrial O\(_2^-\) generation occurred in association with increased intracellular Ca\(^{2+}\) after Tg treatment and was abolished by chelation of the increased Ca\(^{2+}\) mediated by extracellular O\(_2^-\). Based on our previous studies, O\(_2^-\)-mediated Ca\(^{2+}\) release occurs via an inositol trisphosphate receptor-dependent mechanism (Madesh et al., 2005).

In summary, transmembrane O\(_2^-\) flux occurs in PMVECs through CIC-3 channels and results in \(\Delta\Psi_m\) alterations and mitochondrial O\(_2^-\) production. This novel finding elucidates a potential mechanism by which extracellular O\(_2^-\) is propagated to the intracellular milieu to trigger endothelial cell signaling or dysfunction associated with oxidative stress. We postulate that endothelial cell injury via paracrine O\(_2^-\) signaling may represent a basis for pulmonary vascular remodeling.

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