

ADRENERGIC MECHANISM IN THE CONTROL OF ENDOTHELIAL FUNCTION

Daniela Sorriento¹
Bruno Trimarco¹
Guido Iaccarino²

¹ Department of Internal Medicine of Federico II University of Naples, Napoli, Italy
² School of Medicine of University of Salerno, Baronissi (SA), Italy

Addresses for Correspondence

Corresponding author

Daniela Sorriento, PhD
Università degli Studi di Napoli "Federico II"
Via Pansini 5, 80131 Napoli, Italia
Tel: 0817462220
Fax: 0817462256
Email: danisor@libero.it

Senior author

Guido Iaccarino, MD, PhD
Università di Salerno
Via Salvador Allende, 84081 Baronissi (SA), Italia
Tel: 089965021
E-mail: giaccarino@unisa.it

Abstract

There is considerable evidence that many disease are associated with endothelial dysfunction and reduced nitric oxide production such as hypertension, obesity, dyslipidemias, diabetes, heart failure, atherosclerosis. Notably these conditions are also characterized by alteration in the adrenergic tone. Whether these two mechanisms are just epiphenomenal each other or there is a functional link, it is still to be established. A starting ground to establish this issue is that vascular endothelium plays an important role in the function of cardiovascular system and that adrenergic receptors on endothelial cells contribute to the regulation of vasomotor tone. The aim of this excerpt is to review current knowledge on the physiology of endothelial adrenergic receptors to contribute to the basis for newer and better approaches to endothelial dysfunction in the setup of cardiovascular conditions.

Introduction

The endothelium controls several vascular functions, including vasculature tone and permeability, thrombosis, hemostasis and angiogenesis¹⁻⁴. It is noteworthy that all these functions can be regulated by the activation of receptors and often the same receptor can activate multiple endothelial functions. The adrenergic system is the major regulator of cardiac and vascular function and of endothelial vasorelaxation by means of α and β adrenergic receptors activation. The adrenergic receptors (ARs) are part of a large family of G protein coupled receptors (GPCR) which mediate the functional effects of catecholamines like epinephrine and norepinephrine. The ARs family includes three β (β_1 , β_2 , β_3), three α_1 (α_{1A} , α_{1B} , α_{1D}) and three α_2 (α_{2A} , α_{2B} , α_{2C}) receptor subtypes. These receptors actively participate to the release of nitric oxide (NO) in order to regulate endothelial function⁵. NO plays a crucial role in endothelium homeostasis, with important vasodilatory, anti-thrombotic and anti-atherogenic properties. NO mediates most of the endothelial functions: it has been invoked as a mechanism in vasorelaxation, endothelium permeability and neoangiogenesis³. NO in the endothelium is constitutively produced by the endothelial NO synthase, eNOS⁶. This latter is then further activated through calcium levels⁷ and phosphorylation of various serine residues by a number of protein kinases^{8,9}. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that NO is activated by means of the PI3K pathway in response to the stimulation of tyrosine kinase¹⁰.

11.

The impaired ability of vascular endothelium to stimulate vasodilation is referred to as “Endothelial Dysfunction” and the major cause is the decreased bioavailability of NO in different conditions which can be due to various mechanisms: reduced eNOS expression, altered NO production and increased NO catabolism. Endothelial dysfunction plays a key role in the development of cardiovascular disease such as hypertension, type 2 diabetes and heart failure. The identification of the underlying pathogenic mechanisms will lead to the discovery of newer and more potent tools to

treat such diseases. On this issue, endothelial dysfunction has been associated to signal transduction abnormalities observed in hypertension. In particular, adrenergic vasorelaxation has been demonstrated to be impaired in hypertensive patients, probably due to the presence of increased desensitization and impaired signalling of β AR. Adrenergic receptors on endothelium have been longely not considered functional to the regulation of the vascular tone. On the contrary, it is possible to identify very specific roles for such receptors in several endothelial function. This review will summarize the effects of adrenergic receptors on endothelial functions, focusing on modulation of NO synthesis and angiogenesis.

α adrenergic receptors

α AR are GPCRs that couple to $G\alpha_q$ protein. The $G\alpha_q$ subunit is a primary activator of phospholipase C (PLC). Activation of PLC promotes the cleavage of the inositol substrate phosphatidyl-inositol 4,5 bisphosphate (PIP₂) to yield diacylglycerol (DAG) and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃). DAG and IP₃ promote the activation of a protein kinase C (PKC). α_1 AR can also activate specific adenylate (adenylyl) cyclases (AC) leading to an increase in cAMP levels. The activation of specific PLCs and ACs requires a complex balance of signals from G-proteins, especially the $G\alpha$ subunits, within specific cell contexts. DAG and cAMP are second messengers that affect a wide array of cell signaling pathways and responses.

1. α_1 AR and Nitric oxide

Several reports^{12, 13} have produced evidence for the functional presence of vasorelaxant α_1 AR in the brachial and pulmonary arteries isolated from the rabbit and rat, respectively. According to these reports, the pharmacological stimulation of α_1 AR located on endothelial cells, is able to generate NO, whereas the stimulation of α_2 AR releases a relaxing prostanoid^{12, 13}. Filippi demonstrated that nanomolar concentrations of phenylephrine, which are devoid of any contractile effect, induced a

slight endothelium-dependent vasorelaxation in the rat mesenteric vascular bed through the stimulation of α_{1D} AR, located on endothelial cells, which act through phospholipase C stimulation, followed by IP1 generation, and nitric-oxide synthase activation. Conversely, the increase in perfusion pressure induced by micromolar concentrations of phenylephrine is attributable to the stimulation of α_{1A} AR¹⁴.

2. α_1 AR and angiogenesis

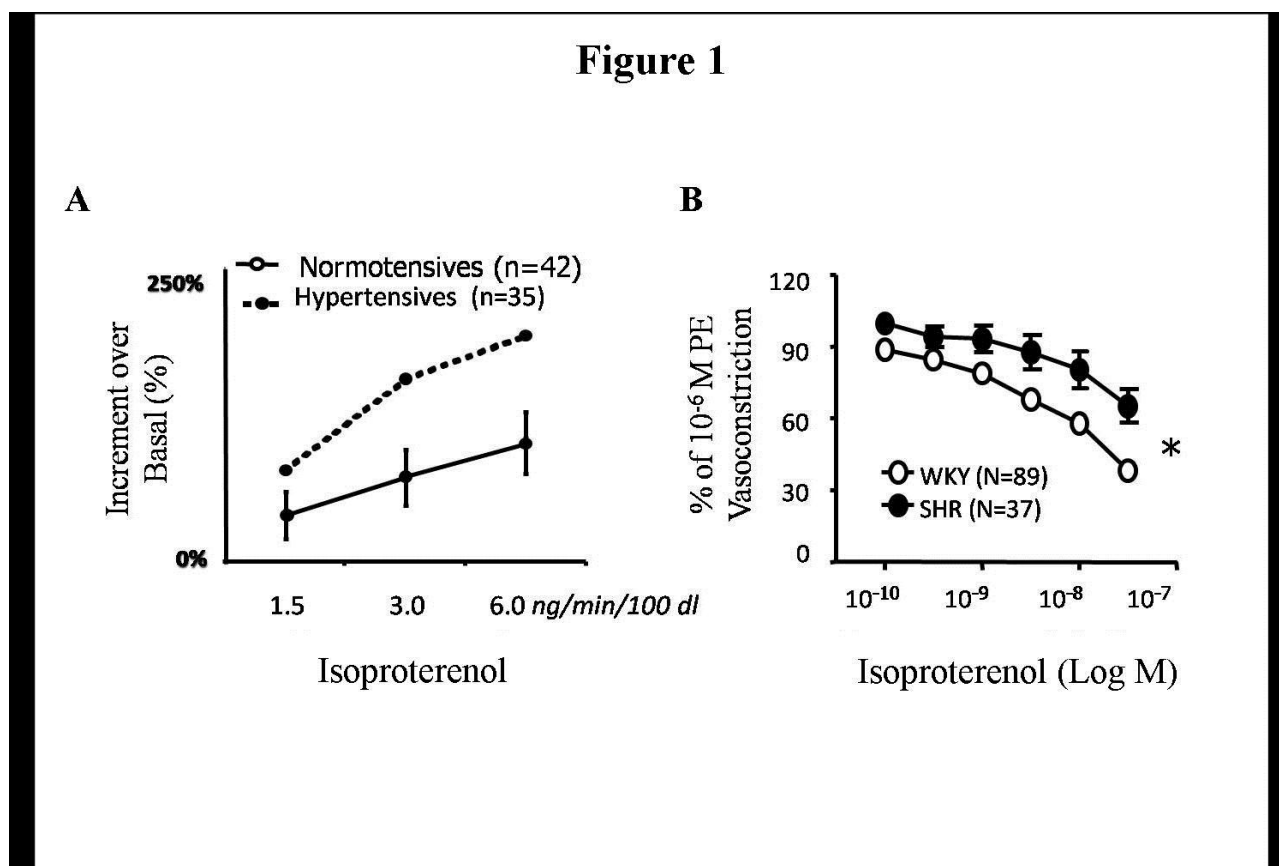
Neo-angiogenesis has long been known to be a highly ordered multistep molecular process under tight regulation by endothelial cells¹⁵ and closely associated with endothelial cell proliferation and migration and to the capability of these cells to modulate the levels of VEGF, the most important cytokine system involved in the formation of new vessels¹⁶. A series of biological, chemical, hormonal effectors can interfere with this process. Several data support the notion that α_1 -adrenergic receptor should also be ranked among these agents. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that the α_{1A} - and the α_{1B} -AR subtypes but not the α_{1D} subtype are expressed in cultured rat aorta endothelial cells. The activation of these α_1 -AR in endothelial cells provide a negative regulation of angiogenesis¹⁷. Indeed, pharmacological antagonism of α_1 -AR in endothelial cells from WKY rats by doxazosin enhanced, while stimulation of these adrenergic receptors with phenylephrine, inhibited endothelial mechanisms of angiogenesis such as cell proliferation and DNA synthesis, ERK and retinoblastoma protein (Rb) phosphorylation, cell migration and tubule formation¹⁷. A similar phenotype can be observed *in vivo*, since an increased α_1 -adrenergic receptor density in the ischaemic hindlimb, compared to non-ischaemic hindlimb, suggested an enhanced α_1 -adrenergic receptor tone in the ischaemic tissue. Treatment with doxazosin did not alter systemic blood pressure but enhanced neo-angiogenesis in the ischaemic hindlimb¹⁷.

3. α_2 AR and Nitric oxide

It has been demonstrated that α_2 adrenergic agonists cause endothelium dependent relaxation, that is reduced or abolished by inhibitors of L-arginine/NO pathway. It depends on the activation of α_2 AR on endothelial cells which stimulates the release of NO, an action that would tend to attenuate vasoconstriction produced by the activation of post-junctional vascular α_1 AR¹⁸⁻²⁰. The α_2 AR subtype that cause endothelium dependent relaxation belongs to the $\alpha_{2A/D}$ subtype, despite the prominent presence of α_{2C} AR (77% of α_{2C} versus 23% of $\alpha_{2A/D}$)²¹. It appears that this ratio may not be constant, since it varies within the vascular bed. Indeed, Bockman demonstrated that in the rat mesenteric artery the α_2 AR is coupled to endothelium dependent NO-mediated relaxations and belongs to the $\alpha_{2A/D}$ subtype appearing in its α_{2D} version²². It has been demonstrated that endothelium dependent relaxation to α_2 adrenergic agonists is prevented by pertussis toxin²³⁻²⁸, suggesting the involvement of G_i proteins in the signal transduction from the receptor to the activation of nitric oxide synthase^{29, 30}. Indeed, α_2 adrenergic agonists cause activation of G_i proteins in endothelial cells and stimulate NO synthase activity^{31, 32}. Contrary to what expected, cAMP is not involved in the signal transduction pathway for $\alpha_{2A/D}$ AR mediated NO formation²². Indeed, the use of forskolin to oppose α_2 adrenergic receptor mediated inhibition of cAMP formation in endothelium did not affect the relaxant response to α_2 AR agonists, suggesting that cAMP is not involved in the coupling of α_2 AR to NO. There are physiological modulation of endothelium dependent relaxation to α_2 adrenergic agonists. Such relaxation is upregulated by chronic increase in blood flow³³ or exercise training³⁴. Insulin enhances NO mediated vasorelaxation both in animal²⁵ and human³² vasculature.

β -adrenergic receptors

β ARs signal by coupling to the stimulatory G protein, Gs, leads to the activation of adenylyl cyclase and accumulation of the second messenger cAMP^{35, 36}. However, recent studies indicate that under certain conditions β AR, and particularly β_2 AR, can couple to Gi as well as to Gs³⁷⁻⁴¹. It is now widely accepted that β AR exist on endothelial cells^{10, 38, 40, 42} and contribute to the regulation of vasomotor tone. β AR are classically known to be present in the vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) where they cause vasodilation. The relative relevance of endothelial VSMC in adrenergic vasodilation is demonstrated by the observation that, in presence of intact endothelium, vasorelaxation to β AR agonist, isoproterenol (ISO), is sensitive to low doses of ISO (10^{-10} M- 10^{-8} M). On the contrary, in absence of endothelium, the vasorelaxation is sensitive to higher doses of ISO (10^{-7} M- 10^{-5} M). This appears to hold true through experimental models (rat or man) and vascular districts (*see Figure 1*).



1. β_1 and β_2 adrenergic receptors

It is now recognized that β AR located in the endothelium play an important role in the relaxant response to ISO, since the non selective β_1 -and β_2 -adrenergic receptor antagonist propranolol antagonized this relaxant effect^{43, 44}. However, recent studies carried out in humans, in umbilical veins *in vitro*¹⁰ or in the forearm *in vivo*⁴⁵, showed that vasorelaxation to ISO is abolished by the selective β_2 AR antagonist ICI-118551 and remains unchanged in the presence of the β_1 AR antagonist CGP-20712, indicating that, as in the vascular smooth muscle cells⁴⁶, the endothelial β AR are totally or at least predominantly of the β_2 subtype^{10, 45}.

β_2 AR are seven transmembrane receptors coupled through G_s proteins to a cAMP dependent intracellular pathway⁴⁷. It has been demonstrated that PKA phosphorylation of the third intracellular loop of the β_2 AR increases the affinity of the receptor for G_i protein^{48, 49}. This switch leads to two consequences: first, it decreases the rate of cAMP generation, since G_i activation inhibits adenylyl cyclase activity. Second, it increases non cAMP dependent signaling through G_i , such as activation of the extracellular signal-regulated kinases ERK1/2 and PI_3K ⁵⁰⁻⁵⁴. G_i coupled receptors have been shown to regulate non-receptor tyrosine kinases, such as SRC, which acts as an intermediate between G_i and other molecules like RAS and PI_3K ^{53, 55}.

2. β_2 AR and Nitric oxide

For years it has been given for granted that vascular β_2 AR mediate adrenergic vasorelaxation through direct activation of vascular smooth muscle cells⁵⁶. However, recent data challenge this vision, and show that β_2 AR-dependent vasorelaxation is mediated at least in part, by endothelium through nitric oxide (NO) dependent processes¹⁰. We have recently demonstrated that the β_2 AR are expressed on endothelial cells (EC) and their stimulation causes endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) activation⁵⁷. In particular, β_2 AR couple to eNOS and induce NO dependent vasodilation⁵⁷. The mechanism of eNOS activation following β_2 AR stimulation is known to be AKT dependent⁵⁸.

Indeed, the activity of eNOS is regulated by both a calcium/calmodulin dependent fashion⁵⁹ and AKT dependent eNOS phosphorylation in Ser 1177^{8, 60-63}. AKT is primarily activated in response to stimulation of transmembrane receptors with intrinsic tyrosine kinase activity or indirectly coupled to tyrosine kinases or to seven transmembrane G protein-coupled receptor^{11, 61, 64}. Therefore AKT acts as integrator of different signal transduction pathways converging on eNOS, including endothelial β_2 AR receptor^{9, 58, 62, 63, 65}.

3. β_2 AR and angiogenesis

In the endothelium β ARs control other important endothelial functions like angiogenesis, that is tightly associated to endothelial cell migration and proliferation^{57, 65, 66}. We demonstrated that β_2 AR stimulation with ISO and the overexpression of β_2 AR increases endothelial cell proliferation. Moreover, β_2 AR stimulation induces ERK phosphorylation and the MEKK inhibitor, U0126, inhibits β_2 AR induced cell proliferation⁶⁶ suggesting that β_2 AR dependent cell proliferation is dependent on ERK activation. We studied post-ischaemic angiogenesis in the hindlimb (HL) of β_2 AR knock-out mice (β_2 AR^{-/-}) in vivo and explored possible molecular mechanisms in vitro. Angiogenesis was severely impaired in β_2 AR^{-/-} mice subjected to femoral artery resection, but was restored by gene therapy with AD β_2 AR. The proangiogenic responses to a variety of stimuli were impaired in β_2 AR^{-/-} EC *in vitro*¹⁷. Moreover, removal of β_2 ARs impaired the activation of NF κ B, a transcription factor that promotes angiogenesis; ISO did not induce NF κ B activation in β_2 AR^{-/-} EC¹⁷. AD β_2 AR administration restored β_2 AR membrane density and reinstated the NF κ B response to ISO¹⁷. These results suggest that β_2 ARs control angiogenesis through the tight regulation of nuclear transcriptional activity.

4.

5. *α_1 AR and β_2 AR differently regulate neo-angiogenesis*

α_1 - and β_2 -adrenergic receptors mediate opposite effects on neo-angiogenesis, comparable to their regulation of the vascular tone. In particular, the α_1 -AR is inhibitory, whereas the β_2 -AR is stimulant to neo-angiogenesis. Interestingly, in ischaemia, the α_1 -AR are upregulated, thus causing a predominance of α_1 -adrenergic receptor signalling over that of β_2 -AR, which is downregulated. Furthermore, in conditions such as hypertension, where the α_1 -AR tone is higher than that of the β_2 -AR, there is also an impairment in neo-angiogenesis^{66, 67}. It is interesting to note that in the ischaemic hindlimb, α_1 -AR blockade resulted in a normalization of β_2 -AR density together with improved neo-angiogenesis. α_1 -AR upregulation, in particular, might be a regulatory mechanism aimed at preventing excessive angiogenesis. This upregulation might be triggered by ischaemia, through regulatory sequences within the gene promoter, which have been demonstrated for both the α_{1A} - and α_{1B} -adrenergic receptor^{68, 69}.

6. *β_3 adrenergic receptors*

In rat thoracic aorta, Trochu showed that β_3 AR are mainly located on endothelial cells and act in conjunction with β_1 AR and β_2 AR to mediate relaxation through activation of NO synthase pathway and subsequent increase in tissue cyclic GMP content and is reduced by endothelium removal or in presence of L-NMMA⁷⁰. This β_3 AR mediated aorta relaxation seems to be independent of G_i proteins stimulation, since the blockage of G_i protein by PTX does not modify β_3 AR agonists induced relaxation. On the contrary, selective potassium channels blockers of K (Ca), K (ATP) and K (v) decreased β_3 AR agonists induced relaxation. So it appears that this effect results from the activation of several potassium channels, K (Ca), K (ATP) and K (v)⁷¹.

Pathological implications

It was reported that noradrenaline-induced release of nitric oxide is enhanced in mineralcorticoid hypertension⁷² indicating that α_2 AR may play an important role in the regulation of vascular tone not only in physiological but also in pathological conditions. The implications of impaired β AR signalling in the pathophysiology of several cardiovascular disorders has been studied in animals and humans. Data from these studies indicate that changes in β AR function are induced by heart failure^{73, 74} and hypertension^{75, 76}. Moreover, alteration in β AR function were found also with physiological aging^{77, 78}, due to receptor downregulation and desensitization. Exercise restored the impaired signalling and β AR dependent vasorelaxation⁷⁹. We and others have observed that impaired β AR signalling may account for dysfunctional β AR vasorelaxation in hypertension. In this condition, β_2 AR overexpression in hypertensive rat carotids corrects impaired vasorelaxation to β AR stimulation to levels similar to those seen in normotensive rats⁵⁷. We proved that impaired endothelium dependent vasorelaxation in spontaneously hypertensive rats (SHR) can be corrected by increasing the signal transduction pathways leading to nitric oxide synthase activation⁸⁰. In particular, since eNOS is activated in response to phosphorylation by AKT and impaired AKT activity is involved in endothelial dysfunction, AKT overexpression should result in the correction of impaired phenotype. Indeed, insulin and ISO cause AKT membrane localization and this subcellular localization is impaired in SHR. AKT overexpression, through means of adenovirus mediated AKT gene transfer to the endothelium, increases the amount of AKT localized to the membrane and corrects impaired NO release and endothelium dependent vasodilation to agonists of both the GPCR and tyrosine kinase (TK) dependent pathways.

Conclusions

In the last years great advances have been made in the study of adrenergic receptors signaling and function in the endothelium also thanks to the development of new technologies. Indeed, genetic mouse models have significantly improved our understanding of the mechanisms of action of specific drugs *in vivo*. The ability to induce transgene expression at defined times or in defined tissues is an important goal as well as the ability to induce or repress the expression of endogenous genes in a developmental or tissue specific fashion. Indeed, deletion of the genes encoding for adrenergic receptor subtypes has helped to identify the specific subtypes which mediate *in vivo* effects of specific drugs. Thus, the combination of molecular biological, genetic, and pharmacological techniques greatly facilitates our understanding of adrenergic receptor function *in vivo*, and in turn leads to more effective and specific therapeutic treatment in humans. β ARs, for instance, are already target of therapeutic intervention in many diseases: β AR stimulation in asthma and obesity or β AR blocking in hypertension and coronary insufficiency. In conclusion, given the importance of endothelial function in most physiological and pathological conditions, it is clear that the increasing knowledge of adrenergic receptors function in the endothelium is helpful for future progresses in clinical application.

References

1. Furchgott RF, Vanhoutte PM. Endothelium-derived relaxing and contracting factors. *FASEB J* 1989;3:2007-18.
2. Lusher JM, Salzman PM. Viral safety and inhibitor development associated with factor VIIIc ultra-purified from plasma in hemophiliacs previously unexposed to factor VIIIc concentrates. The Monoclate Study Group. *SeminHematol* 1990;27:1-7.
3. Schmidt HH, Walter U. NO at work. *Cell* 1994;78:919-25.
4. Vanhoutte PM. Endothelial dysfunction in hypertension. *J HypertensSuppl* 1996;14:S83-93.
5. Guimaraes S, Moura D. Vascular adrenoceptors: an update. *Pharmacol Rev* 2001;53:319-56.
6. Nathan C, Xie QW. Nitric oxide synthases: roles, tolls, and controls. *Cell* 1994;78:915-8.
7. Forstermann U, Pollock JS, Schmidt HH, Heller M, Murad F. Calmodulin-dependent endothelium-derived relaxing factor/nitric oxide synthase activity is present in the particulate and cytosolic fractions of bovine aortic endothelial cells. *Proc NatlAcadSci U S A* 1991;88:1788-92.
8. Butt E, Bernhardt M, Smolenski A, et al. Endothelial nitric-oxide synthase (type III) is activated and becomes calcium independent upon phosphorylation by cyclic nucleotide-dependent protein kinases. *J BiolChem* 2000;275:5179-87.
9. Dimmeler S, Fleming I, Fisslthaler B, Hermann C, Busse R, Zeiher AM. Activation of nitric oxide synthase in endothelial cells by Akt-dependent phosphorylation. *Nature* 1999;399:601-5.
10. Ferro A, Queen LR, Priest RM, et al. Activation of nitric oxide synthase by beta 2-adrenoceptors in human umbilical vein endothelium in vitro. *Br J Pharmacol* 1999;126:1872-80.
11. Kohn AD, Kovacina KS, Roth RA. Insulin stimulates the kinase activity of RAC-PK, a pleckstrin homology domain containing ser/thr kinase. *EMBO J* 1995;14:4288-95.
12. Boer C, Scheffer GJ, de Lange JJ, Westerhof N, Sipkema P. Alpha-1-adrenoceptor stimulation induces nitric oxide release in rat pulmonary arteries. *J Vasc Res* 1999;36:79-81.
13. Zschauer AO, Sielczak MW, Smith DA, Wanner A. Norepinephrine-induced contraction of isolated rabbit bronchial artery: role of alpha 1- and alpha 2-adrenoceptor activation. *J ApplPhysiol* 1997;82:1918-25.
14. Filippi S, Parenti A, Donnini S, Granger HJ, Fazzini A, Ledda F. alpha(1D)-adrenoceptors cause endothelium-dependent vasodilatation in the rat mesenteric vascular bed. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2001;296:869-75.
15. Papetti M, Herman IM. Mechanisms of normal and tumor-derived angiogenesis. *Am J Physiol Cell Physiol* 2002;282:C947-70.
16. Carmeliet P, Collen D. Molecular basis of angiogenesis. Role of VEGF and VE-cadherin. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2000;902:249-62; discussion 62-4.
17. Ciccarelli M, Sorriento D, Cipolletta E, et al. Impaired neoangiogenesis in beta-adrenoceptor gene-deficient mice: restoration by intravascular human beta-adrenoceptor gene transfer and role of NFkappaB and CREB transcription factors. *Br J Pharmacol*;162:712-21.
18. Angus JA, Cocks TM, Satoh K. The alpha adrenoceptors on endothelial cells. *Fed Proc* 1986;45:2355-9.
19. Richard V, Tanner FC, Tschudi M, Luscher TF. Different activation of L-arginine pathway by bradykinin, serotonin, and clonidine in coronary arteries. *Am J Physiol* 1990;259:H1433-9.
20. Vanhoutte PM, Miller VM. Alpha 2-adrenoceptors and endothelium-derived relaxing factor. *Am J Med* 1989;87:1S-5S.
21. Bockman CS, Jeffries WB, Abel PW. Binding and functional characterization of alpha-2 adrenergic receptor subtypes on pig vascular endothelium. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1993;267:1126-33.
22. Bockman CS, Gonzalez-Cabrera I, Abel PW. Alpha-2 adrenoceptor subtype causing nitric oxide-mediated vascular relaxation in rats. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1996;278:1235-43.

23. Bryan RM, Jr., Eichler MY, Swafford MW, Johnson TD, Suresh MS, Childres WF. Stimulation of alpha 2 adrenoceptors dilates the rat middle cerebral artery. *Anesthesiology* 1996;85:82-90.
24. Flavahan NA, Shimokawa H, Vanhoutte PM. Pertussis toxin inhibits endothelium-dependent relaxations to certain agonists in porcine coronary arteries. *J Physiol* 1989;408:549-60.
25. Lembo G, Iaccarino G, Vecchione C, et al. Insulin modulation of an endothelial nitric oxide component present in the alpha2- and beta-adrenergic responses in human forearm. *J Clin Invest* 1997;100:2007-14.
26. Miller VM, Flavahan NA, Vanhoutte PM. Pertussis toxin reduces endothelium-dependent and independent responses to alpha-2- adrenergic stimulation in systemic canine arteries and veins. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 1991;257:290-3.
27. Shimokawa H, Flavahan NA, Vanhoutte PM. Natural course of the impairment of endothelium-dependent relaxations after balloon endothelium removal in porcine coronary arteries. Possible dysfunction of a pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein. *Circ Res* 1989;65:740-53.
28. Shimokawa H, Flavahan NA, Vanhoutte PM. Loss of endothelial pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein function in atherosclerotic porcine coronary arteries. *Circulation* 1991;83:652-60.
29. Boulanger CM, Vanhoutte PM. G proteins and endothelium-dependent relaxations. *J Vasc Res* 1997;34:175-85.
30. Flavahan NA, Vanhoutte PM. G-proteins and endothelial responses. *Blood Vessels* 1990;27:218-29.
31. Freeman JE, Kuo WY, Drenger B, Barnett TN, Levine MA, Flavahan NA. Analysis of lysophosphatidylcholine-induced endothelial dysfunction. *J CardiovascPharmacol* 1996;28:345-52.
32. Lembo G, Iaccarino G, Vecchione C, et al. Insulin enhances endothelial alpha2-adrenergic vasorelaxation by a pertussis toxin mechanism. *Hypertension* 1997;30:1128-34.
33. Miller VM, Barber DA. Modulation of endothelium-derived nitric oxide in canine femoral veins. *Am J Physiol* 1996;271:H668-73.
34. Cheng L, Yang C, Hsu L, Lin MT, Jen CJ, Chen H. Acute exercise enhances receptor-mediated endothelium-dependent vasodilation by receptor upregulation. *J Biomed Sci* 1999;6:22-7.
35. Dixon RA, Kobilka BK, Strader DJ, et al. Cloning of the gene and cDNA for mammalian beta-adrenergic receptor and homology with rhodopsin. *Nature* 1986;321:75-9.
36. Emorine LJ, Marullo S, Briend-Sutren MM, et al. Molecular characterization of the human beta 3-adrenergic receptor. *Science* 1989;245:1118-21.
37. Asano T, Katada T, Gilman AG, Ross EM. Activation of the inhibitory GTP-binding protein of adenylatecyclase, Gi, by beta-adrenergic receptors in reconstituted phospholipid vesicles. *J BiolChem* 1984;259:9351-4.
38. Buxton BF, Jones CR, Molenaar P, Summers RJ. Characterization and autoradiographic localization of beta-adrenoceptor subtypes in human cardiac tissues. *Br J Pharmacol* 1987;92:299-310.
39. Chaudhry A, MacKenzie RG, Georgic LM, Granneman JG. Differential interaction of beta 1- and beta 3-adrenergic receptors with Gi in rat adipocytes. *Cell Signal* 1994;6:457-65.
40. Gauthier C, Tavernier G, Charpentier F, Langin D, Le Marec H. Functional beta3-adrenoceptor in the human heart. *J Clin Invest* 1996;98:556-62.
41. Xiao RP, Ji X, Lakatta EG. Functional coupling of the beta 2-adrenoceptor to a pertussis toxin-sensitive G protein in cardiac myocytes. *Mol Pharmacol* 1995;47:322-9.
42. Molenaar P, Malta E, Jones CR, Buxton BF, Summers RJ. Autoradiographic localization and function of beta-adrenoceptors on the human internal mammary artery and saphenous vein. *Br J Pharmacol* 1988;95:225-33.
43. Oriowo MA. Different atypical beta-adrenoceptors mediate isoprenaline-induced relaxation in vascular and non-vascular smooth muscles. *Life Sci* 1995;56:PL269-75.
44. Brawley L, Shaw AM, MacDonald A. Beta 1-, beta 2- and atypical beta-adrenoceptor-mediated relaxation in rat isolated aorta. *Br J Pharmacol* 2000;129:637-44.

45. Dawes M, Chowienczyk PJ, Ritter JM. Effects of inhibition of the L-arginine/nitric oxide pathway on vasodilation caused by beta-adrenergic agonists in human forearm. *Circulation* 1997;95:2293-7.
46. Lands AM, Luduena FP, Buzzo HJ. Differentiation of receptors responsive to isoproterenol. *Life Sci* 1967;6:2241-9.
47. Rubenstein RC, Linder ME, Ross EM. Selectivity of the beta-adrenergic receptor among Gs, Gi's, and Go: assay using recombinant alpha subunits in reconstituted phospholipid vesicles. *Biochemistry* 1991;30:10769-77.
48. Okamoto T, Murayama Y, Hayashi Y, Inagaki M, Ogata E, Nishimoto I. Identification of a Gs activator region of the beta 2-adrenergic receptor that is autoregulated via protein kinase A-dependent phosphorylation. *Cell* 1991;67:723-30.
49. Zamah AM, Delahunty M, Luttrell LM, Lefkowitz RJ. Protein kinase A-mediated phosphorylation of the beta 2-adrenergic receptor regulates its coupling to Gs and Gi. Demonstration in a reconstituted system. *J BiolChem* 2002;277:31249-56.
50. Baillie GS, Sood A, McPhee I, et al. beta-Arrestin-mediated PDE4 cAMP phosphodiesterase recruitment regulates beta-adrenoceptor switching from Gs to Gi. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 2003;100:940-5.
51. Jalali S, Li YS, Sotoudeh M, et al. Shear stress activates p60src-Ras-MAPK signaling pathways in vascular endothelial cells. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 1998;18:227-34.
52. Luttrell LM, Lefkowitz RJ. The role of beta-arrestins in the termination and transduction of G-protein-coupled receptor signals. *J Cell Sci* 2002;115:455-65.
53. Nagao M, Kaziro Y, Itoh H. The Src family tyrosine kinase is involved in Rho-dependent activation of c-Jun N-terminal kinase by Galpha12. *Oncogene* 1999;18:4425-34.
54. Xiao RP. Beta-adrenergic signaling in the heart: dual coupling of the beta2-adrenergic receptor to G(s) and G(i) proteins. *Sci STKE* 2001;2001:re15.
55. Ma YC, Huang J, Ali S, Lowry W, Huang XY. Src tyrosine kinase is a novel direct effector of G proteins. *Cell* 2000;102:635-46.
56. Jazayeri A, Meyer WJ, 3rd. Beta-adrenergic receptor binding characteristics and responsiveness in cultured Wistar-Kyoto rat arterial smooth muscle cells. *Life Sci* 1988;43:721-9.
57. Iaccarino G, Cipolletta E, Fiorillo A, et al. Beta(2)-adrenergic receptor gene delivery to the endothelium corrects impaired adrenergic vasorelaxation in hypertension. *Circulation* 2002;106:349-55.
58. Isenovic E, Walsh MF, Muniyappa R, Bard M, Diglio CA, Sowers JR. Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase may mediate isoproterenol-induced vascular relaxation in part through nitric oxide production. *Metabolism* 2002;51:380-6.
59. Schneider JC, El Kebir D, Chereau C, et al. Involvement of Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II in endothelial NO production and endothelium-dependent relaxation. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2003;284:H2311-9.
60. Brecht DS, Ferris CD, Snyder SH. Nitric oxide synthase regulatory sites. Phosphorylation by cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase, protein kinase C, and calcium/calmodulin protein kinase; identification of flavin and calmodulin binding sites. *J BiolChem* 1992;267:10976-81.
61. Franke TF, Yang SI, Chan TO, et al. The protein kinase encoded by the Akt proto-oncogene is a target of the PDGF-activated phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase. *Cell* 1995;81:727-36.
62. Fulton D, Gratton JP, McCabe TJ, et al. Regulation of endothelium-derived nitric oxide production by the protein kinase Akt. *Nature* 1999;399:597-601.
63. Luo Z, Fujio Y, Kureishi Y, et al. Acute modulation of endothelial Akt/PKB activity alters nitric oxide-dependent vasomotor activity in vivo. *J Clin Invest* 2000;106:493-9.
64. Burgering BM, Coffey PJ. Protein kinase B (c-Akt) in phosphatidylinositol-3-OH kinase signal transduction. *Nature* 1995;376:599-602.
65. Ciccarelli M, Cipolletta E, Santulli G, et al. Endothelial beta2 adrenergic signaling to AKT: role of Gi and SRC. *Cell Signal* 2007;19:1949-55.

66. Iaccarino G, Ciccarelli M, Sorriento D, et al. Ischemic neoangiogenesis enhanced by beta2-adrenergic receptor overexpression: a novel role for the endothelial adrenergic system. *Circ Res* 2005;97:1182-9.
67. Emanuelli C, Salis MB, Stacca T, et al. Rescue of impaired angiogenesis in spontaneously hypertensive rats by intramuscular human tissue kallikrein gene transfer. *Hypertension* 2001;38:136-41.
68. Eckhart AD, Yang N, Xin X, Faber JE. Characterization of the alpha1B-adrenergic receptor gene promoter region and hypoxia regulatory elements in vascular smooth muscle. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 1997;94:9487-92.
69. Michelotti GA, Bauman MJ, Smith MP, Schwinn DA. Cloning and characterization of the rat alpha 1a-adrenergic receptor gene promoter. Demonstration of cell specificity and regulation by hypoxia. *J Biol Chem* 2003;278:8693-705.
70. Trochu JN, Leblais V, Rautureau Y, et al. Beta 3-adrenoceptor stimulation induces vasorelaxation mediated essentially by endothelium-derived nitric oxide in rat thoracic aorta. *Br J Pharmacol* 1999;128:69-76.
71. Rautureau Y, Toumaniantz G, Serpillon S, Jourdon P, Trochu JN, Gauthier C. Beta 3-adrenoceptor in rat aorta: molecular and biochemical characterization and signalling pathway. *Br J Pharmacol* 2002;137:153-61.
72. Bockman CS, Jeffries WB, Pettinger WA, Abel PW. Enhanced release of endothelium-derived relaxing factor in mineralocorticoid hypertension. *Hypertension* 1992;20:304-13.
73. Choi DJ, Rockman HA. Beta-adrenergic receptor desensitization in cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure. *Cell Biochem Biophys* 1999;31:321-9.
74. Ungerer M, Parruti G, Bohm M, et al. Expression of beta-arrestins and beta-adrenergic receptor kinases in the failing human heart. *Circ Res* 1994;74:206-13.
75. Gros R, Benovic JL, Tan CM, Feldman RD. G-protein-coupled receptor kinase activity is increased in hypertension. *J Clin Invest* 1997;99:2087-93.
76. Gros R, Chorazyczewski J, Meek MD, Benovic JL, Ferguson SS, Feldman RD. G-Protein-coupled receptor kinase activity in hypertension : increased vascular and lymphocyte G-protein receptor kinase-2 protein expression. *Hypertension* 2000;35:38-42.
77. Davies CH, Ferrara N, Harding SE. Beta-adrenoceptor function changes with age of subject in myocytes from non-failing human ventricle. *Cardiovasc Res* 1996;31:152-6.
78. Marin J. Age-related changes in vascular responses: a review. *Mech Ageing Dev* 1995;79:71-114.
79. Leosco D, Iaccarino G, Cipolletta E, et al. Exercise restores beta-adrenergic vasorelaxation in aged rat carotid arteries. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 2003;285:H369-74.
80. Iaccarino G, Ciccarelli M, Sorriento D, et al. AKT participates in endothelial dysfunction in hypertension. *Circulation* 2004;109:2587-93.

Legend

Figure 1: β AR vasodilation is impaired in hypertension: A) In hypertensive patients, forearm vasodilation to ISO yielded an increase in forearm blood flow that was significantly lower to that observed in normotensive patients, at each dose of ISO. B) In hypertensive rats SHR, β AR-induced vasorelaxation to ISO in control-treated carotids was significantly impaired compared with that observed in normotensive WKY(* $F = 5.756$, $p < 0.01$, 2-way ANOVA).