Forum Review

The Role of Reactive Oxygen Species in Insulin Signaling in the Vasculature

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ABSTRACT

Although there is an abundance of evidence suggesting that insulin resistance plays a significant role in the vasculature, the precise mechanistic role involved still remains unclear. In this review, we discuss the current background of insulin resistance in the context of insulin signaling and action in the vasculature. Also, studies suggest that insulin resistance, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease all share a common involvement with oxidative stress. Recently, we reported that lysophosphatidylcholine, a major bioactive product of oxidized low-density lipoprotein, and angiotensin II, a vasoactive hormone and a potent inducer of reactive oxygen species (ROS), negatively regulate insulin signaling in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs). In endothelial cells, insulin stimulates the release of nitric oxide, which results in VSMC relaxation and inhibition of atherosclerosis. Other data suggest that angiotensin II inhibits the vasodilator effects of insulin through insulin receptor substrate-1 phosphorylation at Ser³¹² and Ser⁶¹⁶. Moreover, ROS impair insulin-induced vasorelaxation by neutralizing nitric oxide to form peroxynitrite. Thus, evidence is growing to enable us to better understand mechanistically the relationship between insulin/insulin resistance and ROS in the vasculature, and the impact they have on cardiovascular disease. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 7, 1053–1061.

INTRODUCTION

The PREVALENCE OF DIABETES and insulin resistance is fast approaching epidemic levels throughout the Western world. Insulin, the primary metabolic regulatory hormone that controls glucose uptake by cells, is the major player in diabetes and diabetes-related conditions/diseases. It exerts multiple biological responses in targets cells, which include pleiotropic actions on cell proliferation, migration, apoptosis, differentiation, and metabolism (35, 94). Insulin resistance is defined as a condition that occurs as a result of increased insulin concentration and decreased insulin sensitivity, but essentially, the critical aspect of insulin resistance is the alteration of insulin signaling linked to other intracellular pathways regulating the metabolic effects of insulin (76, 91).

The subsequent hyperinsulinemia that results from insulin resistance has been recognized as an important risk factor in development of cardiovascular diseases, particularly atherosclerosis, coronary artery disease, hypertension, restenosis, and heart failure (10, 22, 37, 81). Therefore, it is not surprising that other pathophysiological roles of insulin resistance include dyslipidemia where triglycerides in plasma are elevated, high-density lipoprotein cholesterol is decreased, and low-density lipoprotein (LDL) particles are increased (17). Together these abnormal conditions are referred to as the insulin resistance syndrome, the metabolic syndrome, or syndrome X. Although there is an abundance of evidence suggesting that insulin plays a significant role in the abovementioned diseases, the precise mechanistic role involved, especially in the vasculature, still remains unclear.

In general, cardiovascular diseases are among the most detrimental in terms of morbidity and mortality (81), and all the complications derived from diabetes and insulin resistance are heavy contributors that serve only to magnify the risk of cardiovascular morbidity and mortality (72). Specifically, atherosclerosis is the most common and serious compli-

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cation of diabetes and insulin resistance. In fact, these conditions adjust the function of various cell types, including smooth muscle cells, endothelium, and platelets, indicating the extent of vascular disturbance involved with this disease (2). Oxidized LDLs play a major role in the development of atherosclerosis and diabetic patients are known to have a greater susceptibility to LDL oxidation (31, 89, 92).

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) are strongly linked to the diabetic/cardiovascular syndromes. In fact, several studies provide evidence that insulin resistance, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease all share a common involvement with oxidative stress (14, 26). Furthermore, hyperglycemia leads to hydrogen peroxide ($\rm H_2O_2$) production within the cell (69). However, the relationship between insulin resistance and oxidative stress, particularly in "the vasculature," is not well defined.

There has been an increase in knowledge regarding ROS, particularly, the role these molecules play in both normal and abnormal cellular function. ROS are reduction/oxidation molecules derived from molecular oxygen that include superoxide anion (O2.-), H2O2, and hydroxyl radical (OH1). They are produced by a variety of extracellular stimuli such as growth factors, G protein-coupled receptor agonists, cytokines, ultraviolet radiation, increased osmolarity, and other cellular stresses (15, 50). Important to note, ROS are widely recognized as prominent players in the pathophysiology of cardiovascular diseases such as hypertension, atherosclerosis, and restenosis after vascular injury (6, 29). The current prevailing thought is that ROS induce cardiovascular diseases by three major mechanisms, which include oxidation of LDL to produce oxidized LDL; inhibition of nitric oxide (NO) function through O2. and NO interaction leading to peroxynitrite (ONOO-) formation; and activation of intracellular signal transduction pathways by acting as second messengers (6, 18, 27, 29, 57). However, another very plausible concept is that cross-talk between ROS and insulin signaling result in insulin resistance and lead to cardiovascular diseases, especially at the vasculature composed of endothelial cells (ECs) and vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs). Recent studies show that both of these cell types are major targets of insulin and that the dysfunction of insulin action in the vasculature contributes to the pathophysiology of cardiovascular diseases.

Therefore, the focus in this review will be on the current findings and thoughts of signal transduction research that lead to our understanding of the exact pathophysiological function(s) of insulin in the vasculature and the mechanism of ROS in mediating insulin resistance in vascular cells that promote cardiovascular diseases.

INSULIN ACTION IN VSMCs

Although VSMCs are affected in a variety of ways by insulin, the mechanisms of action, as well as the functional significances of insulin in VSMCs, have recently started to become identified. Under insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia, insulin-signaling pathways could be differentially regulated in VSMCs resulting in proatherogenic pathways within VSMCs. VSMC growth and migration play major roles in the development of atherosclerosis and other cardio-

vascular diseases. Insulin has been shown to be a modest promoter of VSMC growth (9, 39, 71, 79, 83). Insulin stimulates DNA synthesis in VSMCs through extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2), which also leads to transcription factor Elk-1 activation (24, 93). Along similar lines is the fact that S6 kinase is activated by insulin through insulin receptors (IRs) (84). Activation of S6 kinase has been associated with both protein synthesis and proliferation (8, 21, 70). Moreover, it has been shown that insulin promotes VSMC migration as measured by α-smooth muscle actin biomarker (91). Insulin-induced VSMC migration appears to be mediated via a mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK)-dependent pathway (91). Although, it remains controversial because the animal source of VSMCs, along with the time and concentration of insulin used for stimulation, indicates varied outcomes of migration (23, 66).

In contrast, Jacob et al. found that insulin inhibits plateletderived growth factor-induced migration of VSMCs partly by inactivating MAPKs through the induction of a MAPK phosphatase, MKP-1, expression, which inactivates MAPKs by dephosphorylation. NO and guanosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate (cGMP) signaling was shown to mediate the insulin-induced MKP-1 expression (42). Further support of this notion is provided by the findings of Zhang et al. that demonstrate that insulin-stimulated cGMP inhibits VSMC migration by inhibiting Ca²⁺/calmodulin-dependent protein kinases II (98). Other studies by the same research group indicated that in VSMCs insulin increases lactate, which leads to increased O2. (from activated NADH oxidase) that is converted to H₂O₂ by superoxide dismutase, and cGMP is increased by this H₂O₂ (47, 49). Determining the significance of each insulin function in VSMCs that modulate vascular diseases such as atherosclerosis requires careful interpretation. For example, the above information indicates that insulin stimulates or inhibits VSMC migration and that insulin-induced H₂O₂ formation, as well as growth of VSMCs, may rather promote atherosclerosis. Roles of insulin signals/functions in regard to prevention (protection) of atherosclerosis, as well as to promotion of atherosclerosis, are listed in Table 1. However, there is recent accumulating evidence that highlights the benefits of vascular insulin functions.

Insulin induces vasorelaxation by mechanisms that include stimulation of NO production and decreases in VSMC Ca²⁺ concentration and Ca2+-myosin light chain sensitization in VSMCs (80). The NO production seems to involve both inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) induction and endothelial NOS (eNOS) activation in VSMCs. Although the primary site of NO generation is ECs, VSMC-activated NOSs and subsequent generation of NO may have important functional consequences. Several reports indicate that VSMCs express iNOS (4, 45, 77, 78) that is activated by insulin and results in NO production, as well as cGMP (46, 47, 48). Interestingly, eNOS has also been shown to be expressed in VSMCs (68, 88), and this expression and activity along with O₂. release are enhanced by insulin stimulation. In human VSMCs, insulin-activated Ca2+-dependent eNOS leads to increased cGMP and cAMP generation (88). These findings further suggest that the insulin-induced relaxation of vessels is not completely due to endothelial mechanisms, but involves NO production in VSMCs. In addition, the availability of NO and

	Signaling	Response	References
Antiatherogenic	cGMP/MKP-1 PI3K/Akt/NOS/cGMP PI3K/Akt	Inhibition of migration Vasorelaxation Inhibition of apoptosis	42, 48, 98 4, 5, 46, 88 25
Atherogenic	ERK ERK PI3K/Akt/NFκB ROS	DNA synthesis Migration Growth/inflammation* Growth/inflammation*	24, 93 91

Inhibition of NO*

TABLE 1. VARIOUS EFFECTS OF INSULIN ACTIONS IN VSMCs

ROS

increased ROS in VSMCs seems to alter the level of cGMP in tissue from diabetic pancreatectomized rats, suggesting that ROS may have a significant impact on NO availability in diabetic VSMCs (68). Some of the vasodilatory effects of insulin on VSMCs are mediated by phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) activation and downstream signaling pathways. In this regard, it has been reported that insulin-induced MKP-1 expression is mediated by PI3K-initiated signals, leading to the induction of iNOS and elevated cGMP levels that stimulate MKP-1 expression (5). Also, insulin can reduce Ca²⁺ concentration by activating the Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase pump in VSMCs, a process known to be dependent on PI3K/Akt signaling (30, 58, 87).

The apoptosis of VSMCs has been implicated in vascular remodeling by accelerating phenotypic change of VSMCs. Goetze et al. demonstrated that tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) inhibits insulin-induced antiapoptotic signal transduction in VSMCs (25). This seems to be a direct consequence of preventing the association of the IR substrate-1 (IRS-1)/PI3K complex by TNF-α because it has been previously demonstrated that protecting cells against apoptosis induced by insulin depends on activation of the IRS-1/PI3K/ Akt pathway (35, 44, 95). Taken together, insulin seems to have both proatherogenic and antiatherogenic functions through ERK/MAPK/S6K-dependent hypertrophic/mitogenic effects and PI3K/Akt-dependent NO/cGMP production, as well as prevention of apoptosis, respectively (Fig. 1). The role of ERK in stimulating atherosclerosis is supported by the findings that activated ERK1/2 is highly expressed in atherosclerotic lesions of cholesterol-fed rabbits and that there is an increased migratory/proliferative ability of VSMCs derived from these lesions (40). Furthermore, Izumi et al. demonstrated that gene transfer of a dominant-negative mutant of ERK prevents neointimal formation in balloon-injured rat artery (41). Quite interestingly, under insulin resistance conditions, the ERK pathway is generally enhanced, whereas the PI3K/Akt pathway is down-regulated (22, 39). Therefore, prevention of insulin resistance in VSMCs could be beneficial in reducing the incidences of cardiovascular disease.

Although no direct evidence has been provided, the PI3K/Akt cascade activation by insulin may alternatively promote vascular diseases such as atherosclerosis. For example, prevention of apoptosis could enhance abnormal VSMC proliferation. In fact, causal roles of Akt in VSMC proliferation under response to injury (82) and hypertension (36) have

been reported. In addition, Akt has been shown to stimulate nuclear factor-κB (NFκB) activity in many cells (73), including VSMCs (33), thereby possibly promoting inflammatory responses under atherosclerosis. Thus, further studies are obviously needed to understand the precise roles of PI3K/Akt cascade activation by insulin in VSMCs in regard to its significance in modulating cardiovascular diseases.

Recently, we reported that protein kinase C (PKC) is a potent negative regulator of the insulin signal in the vasculature (63) and that lysophosphatidylcholine, a major bioactive substance of oxidized LDL, negatively regulates insulin signaling in VSMCs at the point of IRS-1 through the specific PKC- α isotype, possibly explaining the association of hyperlipidemia with hyperinsulinemia in cardiovascular diseases (64). Another study showed that angiotensin II (AngII), a vasoactive hormone and a potent ROS inducer, impairs insulin stimulation of IRS-1 tyrosine phosphorylation and coupling of the insulin receptor pathway to PI3K in cultured VSMCs (16). We have further demonstrated that AngII inhibits insulin-induced Akt activation in VSMCs through the PKC- α isotype (65) (Fig. 2). These findings are in line with clinical evidence that AngII receptor blockers and angiotensin-con-

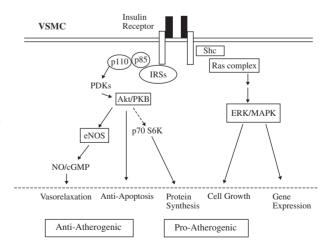


FIG. 1. Multiple insulin signaling pathways lead to proatherogenic and antiatherogenic functional responses in VSMCs through mainly the Akt/PI3K- and ERK/MAPK-mediated signals.

^{*}These insulin functions are speculated.

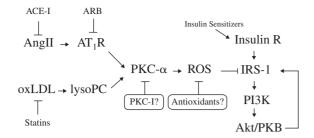


FIG. 2. AngII and lysophosphatidylcholine (lysoPC) inhibit insulin signals through PKC-α/ROS in VSMCs at the point of IRS-1, and several clinical agents can inhibit at other key signaling points. These agents belong to categories such as angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors (ACE-1), angiotensin receptor blockers (ARB), statins, PKC inhibitors (PKC-I), and antioxidants.

verting enzyme inhibitors have preferential effects against insulin resistance (59).

Again, there seems to be some discrepancies regarding these findings because we and others have shown that AngII activates Akt in VSMCs (13, 65, 90). The AngII-induced Akt activation requires ROS, and $\rm H_2O_2$ can activate Akt in VSMCs as well (90). As pretreatment of AngII effectively blocks Akt activation by insulin in VSMCs (65), the activation mechanism of Akt by AngII may be overridden by the inhibitory mechanism of Akt by AngII if followed by insulin stimulation.

INSULIN ACTION IN ECs

The endothelium plays an important role in mediating insulin's action through IRs, which are found on ECs in the blood vessels (43). One of the major vascular protective effects of the endothelium is attributed to its ability to produce NO. Insulin stimulates the release of NO from ECs, which results in VSMC relaxation and inhibition of atherosclerosis (12, 35). eNOS, which is responsible for NO production, is regulated by insulin at the level of expression and activity (56, 97).

The signaling pathways activated by insulin in ECs include IR tyrosine kinase, PI3K, and Akt, which are essential for activation of eNOS, leading to the production of NO in vascular endothelium (96, 97). Montagnani *et al.* demonstrated that phosphorylation of eNOS at Ser¹¹⁷⁹ by Akt is necessary for its activation by insulin (61). IRS-1 and phosphoinositide-dependent kinase-1 (PDK-1) are essential upstream components of the pathway (62), and this pathway is independent of the classical calcium-dependent eNOS activation pathway (Fig. 3). The PI3K/Akt pathway also mediates an antiapoptotic effect in ECs (11, 35, 56).

A recent study showed that AngII, through AngII type 1 receptor, inhibits NO production in human umbilical vein ECs by increased site-specific serine phosphorylation on IRS-1 (1). AngII increased c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) and ERK1/2 activity, which was associated with a concomitant increase in IRS-1 phosphorylation at Ser³¹² and Ser⁶¹⁶, respec-

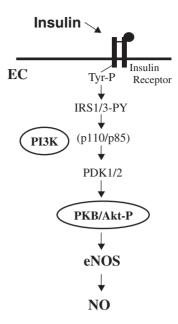


FIG. 3. Insulin signaling in ECs is mediated through the IR to the phosphorylation of IRS-1/3, which leads to the activation of the PI3K/PDK-1/2/Akt complex initiating NO production via eNOS.

tively. Inhibition of JNK and ERK1/2 activity reversed the negative effects of AngII on insulin-stimulated NO production. These findings suggest that AngII inhibits the vasodilator effects of insulin through IRS-1 phosphorylation at Ser³¹² and Ser⁶¹⁶, representing endothelial insulin resistance that leads to endothelial dysfunction. It should be noted that AngII is a potent inducer of ROS in both VSMCs and ECs and that ROS could activate ERK/JNK and PKC isoforms in these cells (18, 19, 27–29, 38, 54, 55). The possibility of ROS-dependent inhibition of vascular insulin signaling will be further discussed.

Multiple mechanisms, which are interrelated, also contribute to endothelial dysfunction in conditions of insulin resistance. A component of the metabolic syndrome that contributes to alterations in endothelial function is increased small dense LDL (the moiety of LDL cholesterol that is highly susceptible to oxidation). In addition, oxygen-derived free radials impair endothelium-dependent relaxation because NO is neutralized by O₂ - to form ONOO- (3). This endothelial dysfunction could involve AngII signaling as briefly mentioned earlier. Further along these lines, ROS generation is enhanced in blood vessels in hypertensive animal models and in atherosclerotic lesions in both animals and humans (34, 52, 60). An essential cofactor for the catalytic activity of eNOS is tetrahydrobiopterin (BH₄) (51, 85). This cofactor is synthesized de novo, as mediated by dihydropterin reductase, and is depleted during states of oxidative stress because of excessive oxidation (51, 85). A depletion of BH₄ causes eNOS to uncouple and results in a decrease in NO production. These multiple mechanisms leading to endothelial dysfunction in the metabolic syndrome with regard to insulin resistance are illustrated in Fig. 4.

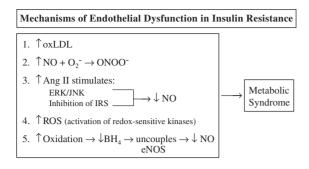


FIG. 4. Multiple mechanisms of ROS-related endothelial dysfunction in insulin resistance are responsible for the metabolic syndrome.

GENERAL MECHANISM BY WHICH ROS BLOCKS INSULIN SIGNALING

The complete understanding of ROS and its role in insulin signaling is still quite limited, but represents an increasing field of interest. In nonvascular but insulin target cells, H₂O₂ and other oxidative stress impair insulin-induced stimulated glucose transporter-4 (GLUT4) translocation, PI3K activation, and Akt activation (74, 75, 86). Hansen et al. showed in two fibroblast cell lines and 3T3-L1 adipocytes that micromolar concentrations of H2O2 strongly inhibit insulin responses by inhibiting IR kinase-mediated downstream signaling (IRS-1 phosphorylation, PI3K activation) (32). Furthermore, they speculated that the effect they observed with H₂O₂ could be via a tyrosine phosphatase and PKC mechanism (an IR-specific phosphatase) because orthovanadate prevented the inhibitory effect of H₂O₂, as did a PKC inhibitor. This is very plausible because, in general, H2O2 is known to inhibit phosphatases and PKC is widely believed to be activated by ROS (18, 53-55).

Agents that induce insulin resistance in insulin target cells activate particular sets of IRS kinases that induce serine/threonine phosphorylation of IRS, resulting in inhibition of insulin-induced IRS-1 tyrosine phosphorylation by dissociation of IR/IRS interaction (99). Some of these IRS kinases, in-

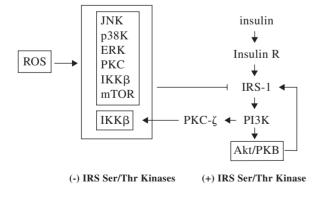


FIG. 5. ROS activate several IRS kinases in the vasculature that inhibit insulin signaling and, therefore, contribute to insulin resistance. mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin.

cluding PKC, JNK, ERK, p38 MAPK, and IkB kinase β (IKK β), could be activated by ROS (Fig. 5). In cultured L6 myotubes, insulin stimulated glucose uptake and glycogen synthesis, and H_2O_2 treatment prevented activation of both processes. Inhibition of glucose transport and not glycogen synthesis by H_2O_2 was found to be dependent on activation of the p38 MAPK pathway and not JNK, ERK1/2, or Akt (7). These findings provide good evidence that particular sets of ROS-sensing IRS kinases are required for the insulin resistance induced by ROS in a tissue/organ-dependent manner.

INHIBITION OF INSULIN SIGNALING BY ROS IN THE VASCULATURE

Despite the increasing evidence that a relationship between insulin resistance and ROS exists in the vasculature, the precise mechanism of their interaction is still unclear. In a recent study by our research group, we examined whether ROS, such as $\rm H_2O_2$, could inhibit Akt activation induced by insulin in cultured VSMCs. We found that $\rm H_2O_2$ clearly inhibits insulin-induced Akt activation, as well as IR binding and IR autophosphorylation in VSMCs. We further showed that the mechanism of the Akt inhibition by $\rm H_2O_2$ does not involve PKC (20).

In accord with reports by Hansen et al. (32), we have also shown that H₂O₂ decreased the autophosphorylation of IRβ. However, this inhibition we demonstrated may be partially due to the decreased receptor binding induced by H₂O₂. Therefore, inhibition of insulin function by H₂O₂ may be regulated at multiple levels proximal to Akt. ROS produced by vascular pathogens such as AngII activate multiple Ser/Thr kinases in ECs and VSMCs (18, 67) that are also implicated as negative IRS kinases. Whether ROS inhibits IRS function by activating IRS kinase(s) in VSMCs and ECs remains to be studied. Therefore, although there is the relative lack of vascular studies regarding insulin and ROS, the above findings together should provide a solid foundation from which to explore this topic focusing on vascular insulin resistance to promote a better understanding of the diabetic/insulin resistance and cardiovascular disease connection.

PERSPECTIVE AND FUTURE DIRECTION

The complex problems associated with insulin resistance, as well as the subsequent increased cardiovascular disease risk, do not simply involve primary insulin targets such as muscle and liver, but rather vascular insulin signaling and functions modulated by multiple factors such as ROS, NO, eNOS, ONOO-, and AngII. Insulin function as observed in ECs and VSMCs protects against cardiovascular diseases and insulin resistance that lead to endothelial and vascular dysfunction. This review discussed findings that indicate targeting ROS production may improve both insulin resistance and cardiovascular diseases such as hypertension, restenosis, and atherosclerosis. This has strong support because many of the current treatments for either diabetes/metabolic syndrome or

cardiovascular disease appeared to have additional antioxidant properties. Therefore, characterizing the vascular mechanism that ROS utilize to induce vascular insulin resistance should provide important clinical relevance and lead to the elimination of many of the current risk factors for development of insulin/ROS-mediated diseases in the vasculature.

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ABBREVIATIONS

Akt, protein kinase B; AngII, angiotensin II; BH₄, tetrahydrobiopterin; cAMP, adenosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate; cGMP, guanosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate; ECs, endothelial cells; eNOS, endothelial nitric oxide synthase; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; IKKβ, IκB kinase β; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide synthase; IR, insulin receptor; IRS, insulin receptor substrate; JNK, c-Jun N-terminal kinase; LDL, low-density lipoprotein; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MKP-1, MAPK phosphatase-1; NFκB, nuclear factor-κB; NO, nitric oxide; NOS, nitric oxide synthase; O₂·-, superoxide anion; ONOO-, peroxynitrite anion; PDK, phosphoinositide-dependent kinase; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PKC, protein kinase C; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α: VSMCs, vascular smooth muscle cells.

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