

Forum Review

Role of Rac-GTPase and Reactive Oxygen Species in Cardiac Differentiation of Stem Cells

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ABSTRACT

In the life of a cell, there is a constant balance between generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and activity of antioxidant defense mechanisms. Besides the damaging effects of ROS on many biomolecules, ROS also play a significant role in signal transduction pathways of growth factors suggesting a role of oxidative species in cell differentiation. ROS have recently been involved in the process of cardiac differentiation of stem cells. Several molecular mechanisms, including ones mediated by the GTPase Rac that underlie the regulatory role of ROS in the process of stem cell differentiation toward a cardiac lineage, are reviewed. *Antioxid. Redox Signal.* 7, 1435–1439.

INTRODUCTION

INTRACELLULAR REACTIVE OXYGEN SPECIES (ROS) are generated by any organism living in an aerobic environment. Furthermore, biological systems are continuously exposed to exogenous oxidants. ROS include both free radicals, such as superoxide ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) and hydroxyl radical ($OH\cdot$), and nonradical components, such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2). Several sources of ROS have been identified in the cell, the main one being the mitochondria respiratory chain. In the cytosol, other intracellular sources of ROS include xanthine oxidase, cytochrome P450, as well as the membrane NADPH oxidase and nitric oxide synthase.

ROS have both deleterious (at high concentration) and beneficial (at low concentrations) effects on the function of a cell. Indeed ROS can damage a variety of biomolecules, including proteins and nucleic acids. On the other hand, ROS activate many transcription factors, such as nuclear transcription factor- κ B (NF κ B) and activator protein-1 (AP-1) (6), required for cell proliferation and differentiation. ROS are thus involved in both cell proliferation and differentiation, as well as in cell survival and death, depending on their intracellular concentration and possibly their subcellular source. The cells have developed defense mechanisms (superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione reductase and peroxidase, etc.) to maintain a redox state compatible with their life. However, once

again in biology the frontier between normality and pathology remains hazy, and a thorough characterization of ROS signaling in the cells has to be pursued to understand better the physiological role of these oxidants.

This review will focus on the role of ROS in the process of early cardiogenesis. I will review data from the literature and will propose some new lines of research for the near future.

ROLE OF ROS IN CARDIAC CELL DIFFERENTIATION AND CARDIOGENESIS

There are no data available as to the direct role of ROS in formation of the heart in embryos. Some studies investigating the effect of hyperbaric oxygen enhancing the production of ROS suggested a teratogenic effect of oxygen in rat and in mouse (12, 17, 20, 35).

To investigate the molecular mechanisms of cardiac cell differentiation, most authors use an *in vitro* system, namely, the embryonic stem (ES) cells. Indeed, pluripotent ES cells derived from the inner cell mass of the blastocyst are capable of giving rise to different progeny representative of the three embryonic layers, namely, the endoderm, the mesoderm, and the ectoderm. ES cells have the capability to self-renew and to differentiate (31). ES cells are differentiated within embry-

oid bodies (EBs), a three-dimensional structure that recapitulates the early steps of embryogenesis and specifically cardiogenesis (16). ES cells feature a high level of antioxidant defense and can even grow under 40% hyperoxia. These cells express a high content of thioredoxin, glutathione reductase, glutathione *S*-transferase, and manganese superoxide dismutase. This capability to withstand high oxidative stress decreases upon cell differentiation. It is thus tempting to propose that a decrease in that capability to maintain thiol-disulfide equilibrium with glutathione/thioredoxin redox couple may allow the cell to adjust its level of ROS compatible with a role of these molecular species as second messenger in cell differentiation (27).

Sauer *et al.* (28) were the first to suggest a participation of ROS in cardiac cell differentiation. The authors treated ES cell-derived EBs at an early stage of differentiation, with 10 nM H₂O₂ or 20 μ M menadione, a compound known to generate H₂O₂. They observed an increase in the percentage of beating EBs, indicating the presence of cardiac cells in the EBs. Although inhibitors of phosphatidylinositol trisphosphate decreased beating activity of EBs, this effect was counteracted by addition of prooxidants H₂O₂ or menadione, suggesting that endogenous phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)-mediated ROS formation is required for cardiac differentiation of ES cells. The same authors further documented the ROS-dependent signaling pathway and reported that cardiotrophin induced proliferation of ES cell-derived cardiomyocytes through ROS generation. This effect is mediated by the JAK/STAT and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathways (29). However, the previously described effects of ROS have to be attributed to a low concentration of oxygen species. Indeed, forced expression of constitutive active Rac1, which generates ROS in ES cell-derived cardiomyocytes, or addition of 100 nM H₂O₂ dramatically impaired the process of cardiac cell differentiation (24). Similarly, the anticonvulsant valproic acid, which induces generation of ROS, delayed cardiac differentiation of ES cells (19). Na *et al.* pointed out that valproic acid-induced generation of ROS overwhelmed the antioxidative defense of the EBs. Despite all these reports, little is known as to the molecular mechanisms that underlie the effect of ROS on cardiac cell differentiation.

SIGNALING PATHWAYS UNDERLYING ROS GENERATION

A Rac-dependent signaling pathway generates intracellular ROS

Rac is a monomeric GTPase. Inactive Rac is bound to GDP and constitutively inhibited by guanine dissociation inhibitors (GDIs) to prevent the exchange of GDP for GTP. Once an agonist (platelet-derived growth factor, epidermal growth factor, insulin growth factor, angiotensin, tumor necrosis factor- α) induces Rac activation, guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) catalyze the exchange of GDP for GTP and membrane localization. GTPase-activating proteins then regulate the hydrolysis of GTP back to inactive GDP-bound Rac. The membrane NADPH oxidase is a major

Rac1/Rac2 effector enzyme (1, 2). The NADPH oxidase comprised of five components (p40^{phox}, p47^{phox}, p22^{phox}, p67^{phox}, and gp91^{phox} or Nox2) generates ROS.

The major evidence for the regulation of NADPH oxidase by Rac was first uncovered in phagocytes. Indeed, in neutrophils stimulated with formylmethionyl-leucylphenylalanine, concanavalin A, or phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate, both Rac 1 and Rac 2 are translocated from the cytosol to the membranes, and this phenomenon requires p67^{phox}, a subunit of the NADPH complex (7). In nonphagocytic cells, agonist stimulation was also shown to activate Rac and generates ROS (32). Rac-induced ROS activation mediates many cell functions, including gene expression, cell proliferation, and cell-cell or cell-matrix adhesion (34), pointing to a central role of the GTPase-mediated ROS generation in the cell life.

Several models have been proposed for NADPH oxidase regulation by Rac. Upon stimulation of cells with agonists, Rac dissociates from its cytosolic complex with GDI. GDP is then exchanged for GTP, a reaction catalyzed by a GEF. Rac further binds p67^{phox} (21) through its switch 1 domain (3), allowing for activation of the NADPH oxidase. A Rac GEF (pix) was recently found to be associated with Nox1, another member of NADPH Nox family. Sequential activation of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase, β Pix, Rac1, and Nox1 leads to ROS generation (22).

We showed that expression of a constitutively active mutant of Rac (RacV12) dramatically impaired cardiac differentiation of ES cells. Gp91^{phox}, p22^{phox}, and p67^{phox}, a Rac target, are highly expressed in embryonic tissues, including the heart, and in early differentiation stages of ES cell-derived EBs (5, 24, 28). ROS repress expression of numerous cardiac and muscle genes (18). We found that expression of RacV12 under the transcriptional control of the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter, which generates ROS at high concentration (23), decreased expression of Mef2C, a cardiac transcription factor required for expression of genes encoding cardiac constitutive proteins. Expression of a constitutively activated mutant of Rac (RacL61D38), which lost the ability to bind p67^{phox} and in turn to activate the NADPH oxidase (21), did not prevent ES cells from differentiating into functional beating cardiac cells. The ROS scavenger, catalase, added to the culture medium of EBs rescued Mef2C expression, myofibrillogenesis, and in turn beating activity of RacV12 EBs. These data demonstrated the crucial deleterious role of Rac-induced ROS generation in early stages of cardiac cell differentiation. The molecular mechanisms of ROS regulation of Mef2c gene expression remains to be established.

On the contrary, at a later stage of differentiation, expression of RacV12 under the transcriptional control of the ventricular myosin light chain (MLC) favors cardiac differentiation of ES cells mainly by facilitating the myofibrillogenesis. It is possible that moderate production of ROS, because of the mild activity of the MLC promoter compared with the strong activity of a CMV promoter, rather induces proliferation of cardioblasts (29) and may facilitate the process of differentiation through a PI3K-dependent pathway (28). Alternatively, expression of Rac under the transcriptional control of the MLC promoter and in turn production of intracellular ROS occur at a later stage of differentiation, at which cells develop

more specific defense mechanisms against ROS, including high expression of myoglobin, and feature a better control of their redox state. ROS at low concentration may facilitate proliferation of cardiac progenitors while improving their differentiation toward mature cardiomyocytes, both cell processes not being mutually exclusive in cardiac cells.

NFκB and chromatin remodeling

NFκB has been proposed together with AP-1 and hypoxia-inducible factor-1 as a major target of ROS although this has been recently challenged (10). NFκB induces hypertrophy of cardiac cells (14, 33) following ROS generation (11). NFκB is thus, in principle, capable of triggering an embryonic genetic program at the adult stage. Despite the lack of available information, a role of NFκB can be predicted in the process of cardiac cell differentiation.

More generally, ROS have been suggested to influence chromatin remodeling. As ES cells undergo differentiation, they spontaneously execute developmentally regulated programs of gene expression and silencing that are both associated with alterations in chromatin structure (26). ROS increase histone acetylation by regulating histone acetyltransferase and deacetylase activity and phosphorylation (25). This enhances transcription factor activity with recruitment of coactivators, such as CBP and p300. p300 is required for Mef2c and GATA4 transcriptional activity (9, 36). Thus, ROS may act directly on the activity of two key transcription factors in cardiogenesis.

Chromatin remodeling is essential for normal cardiogenesis (8, 15). ROS impact on the high order chromatin may thus dramatically affect the process of cardiac cell differentiation both *in vitro* (26) and *in vivo*.

Ca²⁺-dependent and kinase-dependent signaling pathways

ROS and Ca²⁺ interact to regulate mitochondrial metabolism (34). Ca²⁺ is known to regulate many processes of gene transcription and cell differentiation. More specifically, the early steps of cardiogenesis are dependent on Ca²⁺ signaling (13). Indeed, the activity of several proteins involved in the process of cardiac gene transcription or of formation of the contractile apparatus (myofibrillogenesis) is dependent on intracellular Ca²⁺-dependent kinase or phospholipase activities, generating second messengers mobilizing intracellular Ca²⁺ (inositol trisphosphate). The effects of ROS on the activity of numerous kinases and phospholipases (tyrosine kinases, protein kinase Cs, MAPKs, phospholipase Cγ, growth factor kinases) strongly suggest that ROS mediate some effects of growth factors on cardiac cell differentiation.

ROS also affect p21^{Cip} and cyclin D1, and several phases of the cell cycle (4). Up-regulation of p21^{Cip} and cyclin D1 by transforming growth factor β participates in cardiac commitment of ES cells (unpublished data). It is tempting to speculate that the switch between a high proliferative capability of ES cells (with prolonged S phase, absence of G1/S checkpoint) (30) and a MAPK-regulated somatic cell cycle upon cell differentiation can be tightly regulated by intracellular ROS levels.

CONCLUSIONS

The effects of ROS on the process of cardiac cell differentiation are just emerging (Fig. 1). There are specific questions that need to be answered to make progress in this issue. One

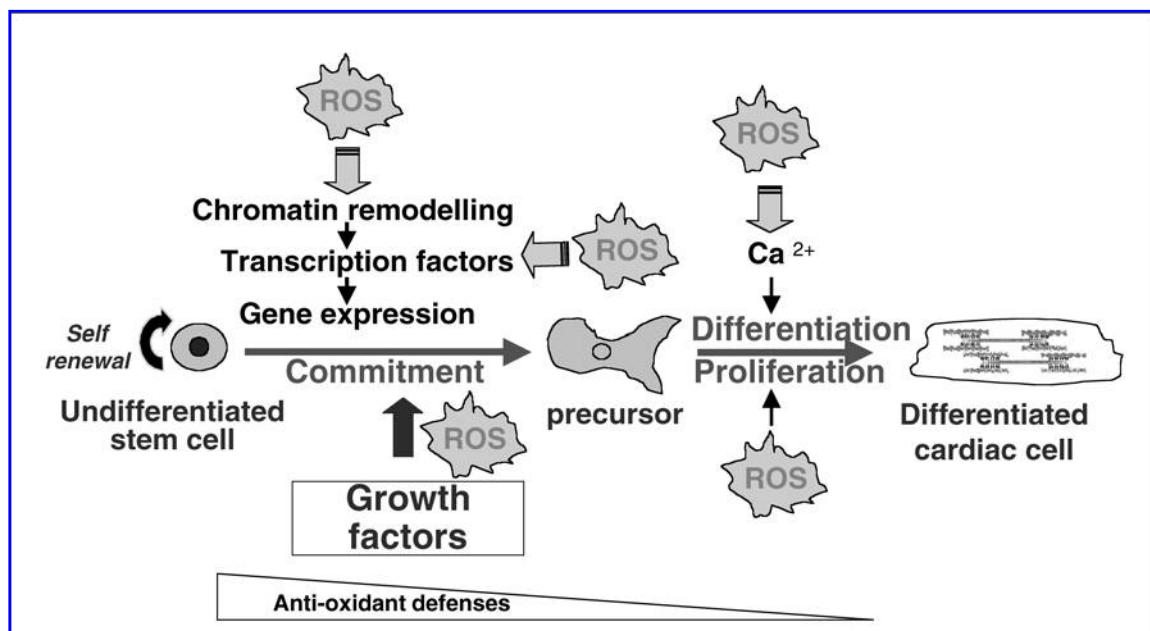


FIG. 1. Targets of ROS in processes of cardiac commitment and differentiation of ES cells.

needs to better investigate spatially localized ROS generation in cardiac progenitors and to quantify the phenomenon. Indeed any response of the cell at the molecular level (*e.g.*, gene transcription, protein synthesis) will depend on the level of ROS in a local environment. How ROS specifically target expression of muscle transcription factors (Mef2c, MyoD) has to be elucidated.

Stem cell differentiation represents the early step of embryogenesis and is essentially an attempt to achieve tissue-specific patterns of gene expression *in vitro*. Studies of the effects of ROS on chromatin in differentiating ES cells will greatly help in understanding the regulatory role of ROS in cardiac cell differentiation.

ABBREVIATIONS

AP-1, activator protein-1; CMV, cytomegalovirus; EB, embryoid body; ES, embryonic stem; GDI, guanine dissociation inhibitors; GEF, guanine nucleotide exchange factors; H₂O₂, hydrogen peroxide; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MLC, myosin light chain; NFκB, nuclear factor-κB; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; ROS, reactive oxygen species.

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