

## Adrenomedullin: molecular mechanisms and its role in cardiac disease

### Review Article

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**Summary.** Adrenomedullin (AM) is a potent, long-lasting vasoactive peptide originally isolated from human pheochromocytoma. Since its discovery, serum and tissue AM expression have been shown to be increased in experimental models and in patients with cardiac hypertrophy, myocardial infarction and end-stage heart failure with several beneficial effects. Considerable evidence exists for a wide range of autocrine, paracrine and endocrine mechanisms for AM which include vasodilatory, anti-apoptotic, angiogenic, anti-fibrotic, natriuretic, diuretic and positive inotropic. Thus, through regulation of body fluid or direct cardiac mechanisms, AM has additive and beneficial effects in the context of heart disease. Notable molecular mechanisms of AM include cyclic adenosine monophosphate, guanosine-3',5'-monophosphate, PI3K/Akt and MAPK-ERK-mediated cascades. Given the endogenous and multifunctional nature of AM, we consider this molecule to have great potential in the treatment of cardiovascular diseases. In agreement, early experimental and preliminary clinical studies suggest that AM is a new and promising therapy for cardiovascular diseases.

**Keywords:** Adrenomedullin – Heart disease – Signaling

### Introduction

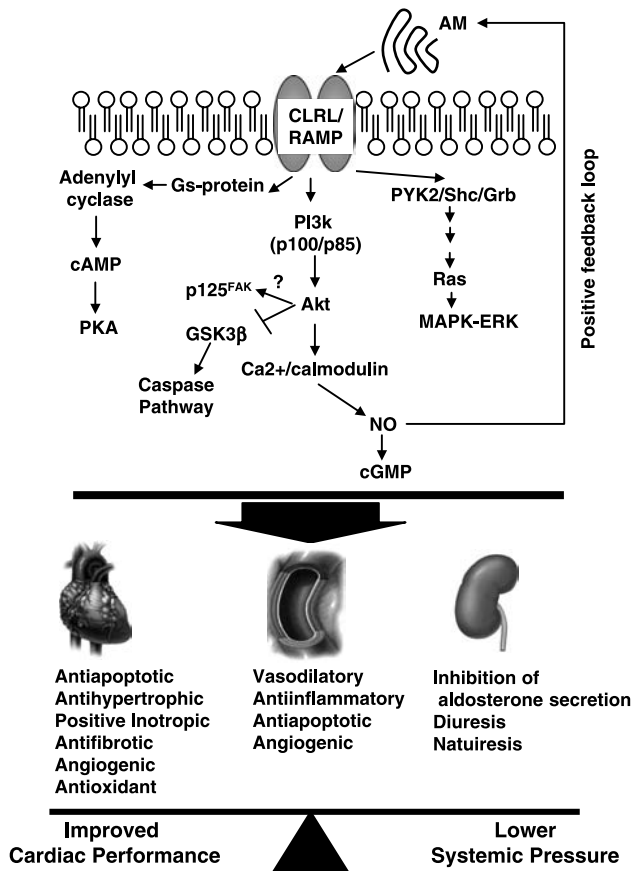
Adrenomedullin (AM) is a member of the calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) family, which was originally discovered in human adrenal medulla as a hypotensive factor produced by pheochromocytoma cells (Kitamura, 1993). This molecule is synthesized as an immature 53-amino acid precursor and modified by amidation into a mature 52-amino-acid peptide with an intramolecular disulfide bond, sharing slight homology with CGRP and amylin. Since its discovery, this molecule has subsequently been found in plasma and in a variety of tissues including the vasculature, lungs, heart and adipose tissue (Ichiki, 1994; Saito, 1987; Fukai, 2004). In the heart, AM is present in ventricular tissue and is particularly abundant in rat atria (Ichiki, 1994; Sakata, 1994). Although mainly produced

by vascular endothelial cells, vascular smooth muscle cells and macrophages, AM can also be produced by fibroblasts, adipocytes and cardiac myocytes (Sugo, 1994, 1994a; Kubo, 1998). Earlier studies have shown that plasma AM levels are increased in patients with heart failure (Nishikimi, 1995). Since then, increased AM has been detected in hearts of patients with acute myocardial infarction, hypertension, chronic heart failure and pulmonary hypertension.

In this review, although we will refer to studies involving AM signaling in various cell types and diseases settings, our focus on the role of AM in cardiovascular illness. Certainly, the critical importance of AM in cardiovascular development is highlighted by the severe tissue edema and cardiac abnormalities seen in AM-null mice (Caron, 2001). Here, we review the current literature regarding the molecular mechanisms of AM, investigate its role in cardiovascular disease and look ahead to the potential of AM in the treatment of heart disease.

### Signaling

Since its discovery, the role of AM in heart failure and its molecular mechanisms of action have been an intense area of study. Signaling studies of AM have largely been performed in endothelial and smooth muscle cell types with calcium- and cAMP-mediated cascades having been identified as the predominant mechanisms of AM action, respectively. Here, we will review the AM receptors and AM signaling pathways including cyclic adenosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cAMP) and calcium, cyclic guanosine 3',5'-monophosphate (cGMP), phosphatidylinositol



**Fig. 1.** Adrenomedullin (AM) signaling pathways and downstream consequences. Activation of three main signaling pathways has been identified thus far: cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP), phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt and mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK)-extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase (ERK). The downstream physiological effects are seen primarily in the vasculature, kidneys and heart, which results ultimately in a balance between improved cardiac performance and lower systemic blood pressure

3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt, and MAPK-ERK (Iwasaki, 1998, 2001; Shimekake, 1995) as summarized in Fig. 1.

The actions of AM are mediated by the 7 transmembrane G-protein-coupled calcitonin receptor-like receptor (CRLR), which co-assembles with subtypes 2 and 3 of a family of receptor-activity-modifying proteins (RAMPs) thus forming a receptor-co-receptor system (McLatchie, 1998). In rat hearts, CRLR and RAMP2 expression influences AM intracellular signaling, strongly suggesting that these are the functional receptors (Autelitano, 2001). The co-receptors RAMP2 and RAMP3 modify the effects of AM on CRLR, a G-protein-coupled receptor. Interestingly, AM and CRLR are both up-regulated under hypoxic conditions in microvascular endothelial cells (Kinitenko, 2003). The promoter for CRLR is at least partially regulated by HIF-1, which has also been shown to

regulate the expression of AM under hypoxic conditions. Therefore, CRLR shares a common transcriptional mechanism with AM.

The PI3K and downstream serine-threonine kinase Akt (or protein kinase B) pathway is a well-characterized protective signaling program (Matsui, 1999; Fujio, 2000). AM has a potent protective, anti-apoptotic role through the PI3K/Akt pathway (Kim, 2002). Adenovirus-mediated gene delivery of AM has been shown to protect the myocardium from apoptosis in a rat model of myocardial infarction whereas this effect was blocked in dominant-negative Akt mice (Yin, 2004). GSK-3 $\beta$  is a downstream protein kinase of Akt, which when phosphorylated, causes inactivation and reduced caspase signaling. In hypoxic and reoxygenated cardiomyocytes, the AM-mediated antiapoptotic effect is associated with increased GSK-3 $\beta$  signaling. The angiogenic effect of AM is mediated by activation of Akt as well as mitogen-activated protein kinase/extracellular signal-regulated kinase (MAPK/ERK) 1/2 and focal adhesion kinase (FAK) in endothelial cells (Kim, 2003).

The MAPK-ERK is also a well-characterized stress-induced protective signaling program whose expression is triggered in heart injury. In particular, ERK is part of an antiapoptotic and compensatory hypertrophic program (Baines, 2005). AM triggers smooth muscle cell proliferation at least in part via ERK (Shichiri, 2003). Following receptor binding in smooth muscle cells, AM triggers rapid ERK activation which likely limits acute myocardial injury (Iwasaki, 1998).

Binding of AM to CRLR can activate Gs, trigger cAMP accumulation and activate cyclic AMP-dependent protein kinase. cAMP/protein kinase in smooth muscle cells (SMCs) regulates the vasodilatory effects of AM (Ishizaka, 1994). AM strongly increases cAMP and Ca<sup>2+</sup> concentration in bovine aortic endothelial cells (Shimekake, 1995) and it is 10-times more potent than CGRP in increasing the cAMP level in rat vascular SMC (Eguchi, 1994). In endothelial cells, vasodilation predominantly occurs by an eNOS/NO pathway (Hirata, 1995). Nishimatsu et al. (2001) have shown that AM induces Akt activation in the endothelium via the Ca<sup>2+</sup>/calmodulin-dependent pathway. This is implicated in the production of nitric oxide, which in turn induced endothelium-dependent vasodilation. The increase in cAMP in SMCs by AM activates protein kinase A, resulting in decreased calcium content in SMCs (Ishizaka, 1994). The unique combination of the above signaling mechanisms results in a number of *in vivo* effects such as vasodilation, anti-apoptosis, angiogenesis, and positive inotropy. An improved understanding

of the signaling pathways whereby AM mediates its physiologic effect may bring us closer to using AM as a therapeutic agent.

### Adrenomedullin and the cardiovascular system

It is clear that AM expression is upregulated in patients with both acute and chronic cardiovascular disease and that such increases are associated with multiple host protective effects. Thus far, AM has been found to be increased in patients with essential hypertension (Ishimitsu, 1994), cardiac hypertrophy (Tsuruda, 2003), heart failure (Kreminski, 2002; Jougasaki, 1995; Nishikimi, 1995), acute myocardial infarction (Kobayashi, 1996; Miyao, 1998; Nagaya, 1999a), and peripheral arterial occlusive disease (Suzuki, 2004). In acute myocardial infarction, levels of AM expressed in patients correlates with the severity of illness (Miyao, 1998; Nagaya, 1999a). Tissue levels of AM peptide and mRNA are also markedly increased in the ischemic (Nagaya, 2000; Hofbauer, 2000) and failing heart (Cueille, 2002; Nishikimi, 2003; Tadokoro, 2003; Totsune, 2000). Thus, expression of AM is up-regulated both in serum and in the target tissue.

Even in a chronic setting, AM is increased in patients with end stage heart failure, a final common pathway for cardiomyopathies and ischemic heart disease, for which the only definitive treatment is heart transplantation. Notably, AM expression, as determined by immunohistochemistry on biopsy specimens, correlates with the severity of disease (Jougasaki, 1995; Nishikimi, 1995). Furthermore, evidence from patients with acute myocardial infarction shows plasma AM to be an independent prognostic indicator for mortality, although not for hemodynamic variables (Nagaya, 1999a; Katayama, 2004). Nagaya et al. (2000a) have shown that intravenous infusion of AM markedly increases cardiac index and improves hemodynamics, renal function and hormonal parameters in patients with left sided heart failure. Therefore, increase in AM above the endogenously mediated increase is of therapeutic benefit.

Although the precise mechanism of AM upregulation is unclear, the expression of proinflammatory cytokines TNF- $\alpha$  and IL-1 $\beta$  as well as IFN- $\gamma$  and NO can directly trigger increased AM expression in cultured endothelial cells, myocytes and SMCs (Hofbauer, 2002; Sugo, 1994, 1995; Ihara, 2000). Upregulation may occur via the hypoxia-inducible factor-1 (HIF-1) as observed under hypoxic conditions (Garaoya, 2000). Considering the lack of AM stores, transcriptional control is considered rather important for AM regulation. However, the precise

mechanism of AM transcriptional upregulation is incompletely understood.

The potential functions of AM include vasodilator, natriuretic, diuretic, antiapoptotic and pro-survival roles (Fig. 1). Also, the angiogenic and inflammatory modulating properties of AM have been recently described. Experimental and clinical evidence for the cardiovascular effects of AM will now be examined in greater detail.

### Positive inotropic effects

Considerable evidence exists for a positive inotropic effect of AM. AM increases cardiac cAMP, which is known to mediate the positive inotropic action of  $\beta$ -adrenergic stimulants. Szokodi et al. (1998) have shown that AM produces positive inotropic action through cAMP-independent  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  release. A recent binding study demonstrated the presence of abundant binding sites for AM in the ventricular myocardium (Owji, 1995). Furthermore, our laboratory has demonstrated that infusion of AM markedly increases cardiac index and stroke volume index in patients with congestive heart failure (Nagaya, 2000b, 2002). Considering the strong vasodilator effect of AM, a decrease in mean arterial pressure may be partially responsible for increased cardiac index during infusion. Oya et al. (2000) reported that AM administration increased cardiac index and stroke volume index in patients. However, some reports are indicative of negative inotropy or no effect on contractility following AM treatment in cultured cardiomyocytes and *in vivo* (Ikenouchi, 1997; Perret, 1993; Stangl, 2000). In primary cultured cardiocytes, AM induced a biphasic acute increase and decrease of myocyte shortening and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  transients (Mittra, 2004). Thus, it is possible that timing of AM administration *in vivo* is an important determinant of pump function. The particular circumstances for a positive inotropic effect of AM remain to be determined.

### Vasodilation

AM was originally characterized as a potent vasodilatory molecule (Kitamura, 1993). The vasodilatory effect of AM is mediated by cAMP (Ishizaka, 1994) and nitric oxide/cGMP-dependent mechanisms (Nakamura, 1997; Hayakawa, 1999). AM increases cAMP thus activating protein kinase A, resulting in decreased calcium content. Vasodilatation and natriuresis is NO- and cGMP-dependent as E-4021, a cGMP-specific phosphodiesterase inhibitor, blocked these effects (Hayakawa, 1999). In patients with congestive heart failure, intravenous infusion

of AM decreases mean arterial pressure but to a lesser extent than in normal patients (Nagaya, 2000). The fall in mean arterial pressure is associated with a significant increase in heart rate (Nagaya, 2000). Infusion of AM causes a greater and more prolonged reduction of mean arterial pressure than that of an equimolar amount of atrial natriuretic peptide (Oya et al., 2000). In patients with pulmonary hypertension, AM administration also decreases pulmonary vascular resistance and is a potential new treatment for this condition (Nagaya, 2004).

#### *Diuresis and natriuresis*

*In vivo* studies in sheep have shown that intravenously administered AM causes diuresis, in an experimental model of heart failure (Rademaker, 1997). Natriuretic activity that is characterized by increased glomerular filtration and decreased sodium reabsorption was also demonstrated in a NO-dependent manner (Elhawary, 1995; Majid, 1996). Even in normal animals, AM causes diuresis and natriuresis as well as vasodilation (Majid, 1996; Parkes, 1997). Systemically administered AM increases urine volume and urinary sodium excretion in patients with congestive heart failure, consistent with results obtained from earlier animal studies (Majid, 1996; Rademaker, 1997; Nagaya, 1999).

#### *Inhibition of aldosterone production*

The renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system is excessively activated in patients with heart failure, leading to adverse effects related to hypertension. In this setting, infusion of AM significantly and selectively decreases plasma aldosterone in patients with congestive heart failure, although there is no significant change in plasma renin (Nagaya, 2000a). *In vitro* studies showed that AM inhibits Ang II-induced secretion of aldosterone from dispersed rat adrenal zona glomerulosa cells (Yamaguchi, 1995). Thus, we speculate that AM may play a compensatory role in the pathophysiology of heart failure by inhibiting the augmented production of aldosterone thus preventing sodium retention.

#### *Antihypertrophic, anti-apoptotic and antifibrotic effects*

AM has direct cardioprotective effects in reducing ventricular remodeling following MI in rats in the absence of changes in mean arterial pressure (Nakamura, 2002). In this regard, it is a possible endogenous suppressor of myocyte hypertrophy and fibroblast proliferation (Tsuruda,

1998, 1999). AM inhibits collagen synthesis and cardiac fibroblast proliferation, and AM+/- mice have increased fibrosis compared to wildtype littermates (Nishikimi, 2005; Niu, 2004). As well, it confers an anti-apoptotic effect on cardiomyocytes via the PI3K/Akt pathway (Okumura, 2004). Inhibition of vascular endothelial cell apoptosis and induction of angiogenesis by AM also occurs through the PI3K/Akt pathway (Kim, 2002; Tokunaga, 2004). Thus, AM has protective effects in the myocardium and vasculature, which may have beneficial effects in patients with congestive heart failure.

#### *Angiogenesis*

An angiogenic effect of AM could partly explain the protective effect of AM seen following myocardial infarction. Recent studies using homozygous AM knockout mice highlight the importance of AM in vascular morphogenesis (Caron, 2001; Imai, 2001; Shindo, 2001). AM signaling is of particular significance in endothelial cell biology since the peptide protects cells from apoptosis (Kato, 1997), promotes angiogenesis (Kim, 2003; Oehler, 2002) and affects vascular tone (Ishizaki, 1994). AM activates the PI3K/Akt-dependent pathway in vascular endothelial cells which is considered to regulate multiple critical steps in angiogenesis, including endothelial cell survival, proliferation, migration, and capillary-like structure formation (Jiang, 2000; Nishimatsu, 2001). *In vitro*, AM enhances endothelial cell migration and neovessel formation, a function that is attenuated by PI3K and ERK inhibition (Kim, 2003). Similarly, AM promotes re-endothelialization in an injury model via PKA and PI3K-dependent Akt activation in HUVECs (Miyashita, 2003). Interestingly, AM inhibits the proliferation and migration of vascular SMCs (Horio, 1995; Kano, 1996).

A recent study demonstrated that heterozygous AM+/- mice show significantly less blood flow recovery with less collateral capillary development than their wild-type counterparts (Iimuro, 2004). AM gene transfer promotes blood flow recovery and capillary formation in a murine model of chronic hind limb ischemia (Tokunaga, 2004). Taken together, these findings raise the possibility that AM plays a role in modulating angiogenesis and neovascularization.

#### *Antioxidant effects*

Oxidative stress injury is induced by reactive oxygen species (ROS), the most common being free radicals and anions containing reactive oxygen atoms. Damage by

excess oxidative stress is a major metabolic abnormality in atherosclerosis as well as myocardial infarction. Oxidative stress caused by  $H_2O_2$  in endothelial cells can trigger AM transcription and increased expression (Chun, 2000). Such expression may be protective as angiotensin II-stimulated intracellular reactive oxygen species generation was directly blocked by AM, possibly in a cAMP-dependent manner (Yoshimoto, 2005).

#### *Pro- and anti-inflammatory effects of AM*

The effects of AM on inflammation are still unclear and appear to differ based on the disease model. For instance, ocular inflammation is increased with AM whereas acetic acid-induced colitis is attenuated (Ashizuka, 2005; Clementi, 1999). In a cultured macrophage cell line, AM increased secretion of IL-6 but slightly reduced TNF- $\alpha$  levels (Wong, 2005). Furthermore, AM can induce expression of the cell surface adhesion molecules E-selectin, VCAM-1, and ICAM-1, critical for leukocyte migration, on cultured endothelial cells (Hagi-Pavli, 2004). However, Kim et al. (2003) showed that AM inhibits VEGF-induced expression of these adhesion molecules. Thus, it appears that AM can act to both promote and inhibit inflammation depending on the cell type and disease of interest.

#### **Conclusion and future studies**

Since its discovery, there has been great interest in AM as a promising endogenous peptide for the treatment of cardiovascular diseases. Considering that AM is an endogenous neurohormonal peptide, it may be more readily accepted as a therapeutic agent. Its vasodilatory, inotropic, antiapoptotic, natriuretic and diuretic actions afford this molecule a significant potential clinical advantage in terms of cardiac injury and vascular alterations seen in cardiac diseases. However, it is still unclear which combination of effects of AM is triggered to produce the observed beneficial effects in experimental models and in patients. Several clinical studies have tested the effect of AM in hypertension, ischemic heart disease and pulmonary hypertension. Although their data looks promising, a prospective randomized control trial is needed to reinforce the pharmaceutical prospects of AM.

The optimum timing, amount and method of AM delivery are still under investigation. Although AM has a relatively short half-life compared to other peptides, it is still vulnerable to rapid degradation by renal neutral endopeptidases *in vivo*. Thus, in a clinical setting, AM

is likely to have an optimal benefit in acute diseases. To address this point, Nagaya et al. (2004) have investigated the efficacy of three types of AM delivery systems: intravenous administration, inhalation, and cell-based gene transfer. Interestingly, ionically-linked DNA-gelatin complexes were able to block chronic hind limb ischemia when delivered by direct muscular injection (Tokunaga, 2004).

Despite unanswered questions regarding the precise mechanism and optimum method of delivery of AM in a clinical setting, the data thus far fully warrants the excitement felt about its potential benefit as a treatment for cardiac diseases. We greatly look forward to the prospects of clinical trials using AM in the setting of cardiovascular illnesses.

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