

Effect of sulfur dioxide on vascular biology

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Summary. Gasotransmitters, such as nitric oxide, carbon monoxide and hydrogen sulfide, can be generated endogenously. These gasotransmitters play important roles in vascular biology, including vasorelaxation and inhibition of vascular smooth muscle cell (VSMC) proliferation. In recent years, sulfur dioxide (SO₂) has been considered as the fourth gasotransmitter. SO₂ is present in air pollution. Moreover, SO₂ toxicity, including oxidative stress and DNA damage, has been extensively reported in previous studies. Recent studies have shown that SO₂ can be endogenously generated in various organs and vascular tissues, where it regulates vascular tone, vascular smooth cell proliferation and collagen synthesis. SO₂ can decrease blood pressure in rats, inhibit smooth muscle cell proliferation and collagen accumulation and promote collagen degradation, and improve vascular remodelling. SO₂ can decrease cardiovascular atherosclerotic plaques by enhancing the antioxidant effect and upregulating nitric oxide/nitric oxide synthase and hydrogen sulfide/cystathionine-γ-lyase pathways. SO₂ can also ameliorate vascular calcification via the transforming growth factor - β1/Smad pathway. The effect of SO₂ on vascular regulation has attracted great interest. SO₂ may be a novel mediator in vascular biology

Key words: Sulfur dioxide, Mediator, Vascular, Biology

Introduction

Gasotransmitters have common characteristics; they are small gas molecules, are endogenously generated by enzyme catalysis, can freely pass through membranes without a membrane receptor, have special functions at physiological concentrations and have specific cellular

and molecular targets (Wang, 2002, 2003). The toxic effect of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) has been extensively examined in previous studies, which have demonstrated that inhalation of SO₂ is harmful to various organs (including the brain, lungs, heart, liver, stomach, intestine, spleen, kidney, and testis) in mice (Meng, 2003); however, endogenous SO₂ production has been detected in various organs and vascular tissues. The protective roles of SO₂, including reduction of lung injury (Chen et al., 2015; Zhai et al., 2019), myocardial injury induced by ischemia reperfusion injury or isoproterenol (Jin et al., 2008, 2013; Wang et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2013) and myocardial fibrosis (Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018a,b), alleviation of atherosclerotic lesions (Li et al., 2011) and abatement of hippocampal cell death (Zare Mehrjerdi et al., 2018), have been reported. Furthermore, SO₂ may be a mediator in the vasculature, and regulate vascular tone and alleviate vascular remodelling and atherosclerosis (Sun et al., 2010; Li et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2020). Therefore, SO₂ may be the fourth gasotransmitter in the cardiovascular system (Huang et al., 2016a).

Endogenous SO₂/aspirate aminotransferase system in vascular tissue

Endogenous SO₂ can be generated in various tissues, including the heart, lung, stomach, intestine, liver, pancreas, spleen, renal and brain (Luo et al., 2011). Endogenous SO₂ is produced by sulfur-containing amino acid metabolism. First, L-cysteine is metabolized to form sulfur-containing amino acids and then oxidized to L-cysteine sulfinate in a reaction catalysed by cysteine dioxygenase. L-cysteine sulfinate is transformed into β-sulfinyl pyruvate by aspirate aminotransferase (AAT) and then decomposed to pyruvate and SO₂ (Shapiro, 1977; Stipanuk et al., 1990). SO₂ dissociates into its derivatives, bisulfite and sulfite (HSO₃⁻/SO₃²⁻, molar ratio of 1:3), *in vivo* and is then oxidized to sulfate and excreted in the urine (Stipanuk, 1986). In activated neutrophils, hydrogen sulfide (H₂S) can also be transformed into sulfite in a reaction catalysed by

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DOI: 10.14670/HH-18-290



nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate-oxidase (Mitsuhashi et al., 2005) (Fig. 1).

SO₂ can be generated in both vascular endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells (SMCs), but is mainly produced in vascular endothelial cells (Du et al., 2008). AAT, a key SO₂-producing enzyme, was detected by in situ hybridization in rat aorta. AAT1 and AAT2 are two isoenzymes of AAT. The results showed that AAT1 and AAT2 mRNA expression was much higher in endothelial cells than in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs). The concentration of SO₂ in rat plasma was found to be 16.77±8.24 μmol/L, while the content of SO₂ was different in the arteries. The highest content of SO₂ was found in the aorta (5.55±0.35 μmol/g protein), followed by the pulmonary artery, mesenteric artery, tail artery and renal artery (3.27±0.21, 2.67±0.17, 2.50±0.20 and 2.23±0.19 μmol/g protein, respectively) (Du et al., 2008).

The generation of SO₂ can be increased by acetylcholine and decreased by noradrenaline (Meng et al., 2009). AAT1 overexpression or knockdown can directly regulate the generation of SO₂. In the supernatant of cultured pulmonary artery fibroblasts, the concentration of SO₂ was increased by AAT1 overexpression and decreased by AAT1 knockdown (Liu et al., 2016). Similarly, in the supernatant of cultured pulmonary artery SMCs, the generation of SO₂ was increased by AAT1 overexpression and decreased by AAT1 knockdown. SO₂ generation can be also auto-regulated. In cultured human umbilical vein endothelial cells, a high dose of SO₂ (100 μM) significantly decreased AAT activity and porcine purified AAT1 protein (Song et al., 2020). Furthermore, SO₂ was able to induce S-sulfenylation of AAT1 at Cys192; however, the thiol reductant DTT or a mutated plasmid of AAT1 containing a site-directed cysteine 192-to-serine (C192S) mutation reversed the above effects of SO₂. These data indicate that endogenous SO₂ generation can be auto-regulated by sulfenylation of AAT1 at Cys192. Additionally, the generation of SO₂ is involved in pathological conditions. The content of SO₂ was decreased in the plasma and lung tissue of rats with hypoxia-induced pulmonary hypertension but was upregulated by SO₂ treatment (Sun et al., 2010). The SO₂ concentration in myocardial tissue was significantly decreased by 41.9% in rats with isoproterenol-induced myocardial injury and increased following the administration of SO₂ derivatives (Liang et al., 2011).

The physiological effect of SO₂ on vascular biology

The effect of SO₂ on vascular tone

SO₂ and its derivatives can relax vascular tissue in an endothelium-dependent or endothelium-independent manner (Meng et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2009). The effect of SO₂ on aortic ring relaxation is much stronger than that of SO₂ derivatives (Zhang and Meng, 2009). The median concentrations of the maximum

vasorelaxation effect of SO₂ and its derivatives were 1.24±0.09 mM and 7.28±0.12 mM, respectively (Zhang and Meng, 2009). The mechanisms of SO₂-mediated and SO₂ derivative-mediated vasorelaxation differ.

The effect of SO₂ on endothelium-dependent relaxation

At basal and low concentrations (<450 μM), the vasorelaxation effect of gaseous SO₂ is endothelium dependent, which is related to the large-conductance Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ (BK_{Ca}) channel (Li and Meng, 2009; Zhang and Meng, 2009). SO₂ can also relax the aortic rings associated with increased cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP), while the soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) inhibitor 1H-[1, 2, 4] oxadiazolo [4,3-a] quinoxalin-1-one (ODQ) can reverse this effect of SO₂. The protein levels of sGC and protein kinase G (PKG) dimers were also upregulated. These data indicate that the increased cGMP induced by SO₂ occurs through sGC activation. In addition, SO₂ can reduce the activity of phosphodiesterase type 5, a cGMP-specific hydrolytic enzyme. Therefore, SO₂ upregulation is related to

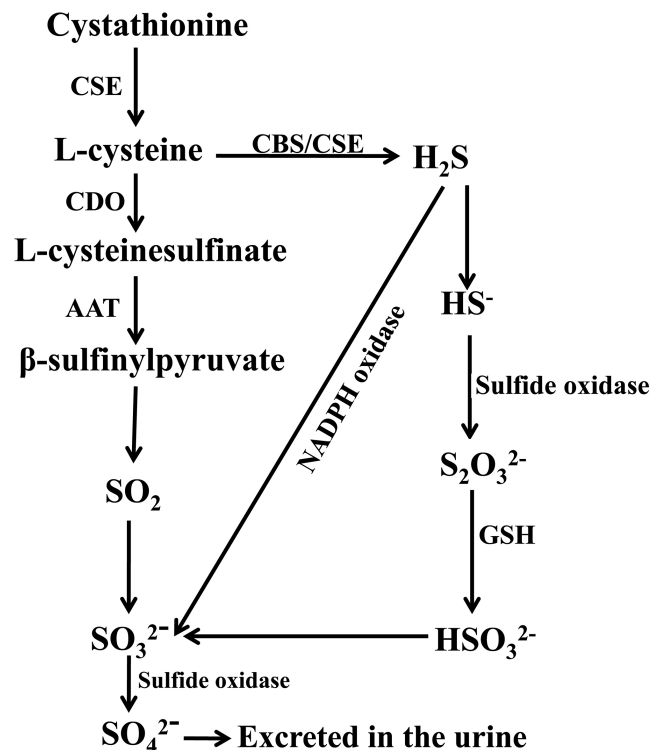


Fig. 1. The generation and metabolism of endogenous SO₂. Abbreviations: SO₂: sulfur dioxide; H₂S: hydrogen sulfide; CBS: cystathionine β-synthase; CSE: cystathionine γ-lyase; CDO: cysteine dioxygenase; AAT: aspartate aminotransferase; 3MST: 3-mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase; GSH: glutathione; NADPH: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate.

hydrolysis inhibition. These data indicate that the sGC/cGMP/PKG pathway is involved in the vasodilation effect of SO₂ (Yao et al., 2016).

In endothelium-intact rings, SO₂ derivatives (sodium sulfite and sodium bisulfite) (0.5–8 mM) relaxed aortic rings in a dose-dependent manner. The NOS inhibitor (L-NAME) reduced the vasorelaxation effect of SO₂ at low doses but not at high doses (≥2 mM). These data indicate that the relaxation induced by SO₂ is associated with NOS activation (Wang et al., 2009). At low concentrations of sodium bisulfite (≤500 μM), vasorelaxation is endothelium dependent. The vasorelaxation induced by bisulfite is mediated by the cGMP pathway and BK_{Ca} channels (Meng et al., 2012).

The effect of SO₂ on endothelium-independent relaxation

At high concentrations (>500 μM), the vasorelaxation effect of gaseous SO₂ is endothelium-independent and related to the adenosine triphosphate-sensitive potassium (K_{ATP}) channel and L-type Ca²⁺ channel (Zhang and Meng, 2009). Du et al. (2008) found that SO₂ derivatives relaxed aortic rings in a dose-dependent manner (1–12 mmol/L). SO₂ reversed the vasoconstriction effect induced by the L-type Ca²⁺ channel agonist, Bay K8644. These data indicate that the mechanism of SO₂ vasorelaxation is related to the inhibition of the L-type Ca²⁺ channel. At high concentrations of bisulfite (≥1000 μM), vasorelaxation is endothelium-independent. The underlying mechanism is related to K_{ATP}, Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ (K_{Ca}) and L-type Ca²⁺ channels (Wang et al., 2009; Meng et al., 2012). Furthermore, the vasorelaxation effect of SO₂ is related to the inhibition of Ca²⁺ entry and partially related to an increase in prostacyclin (Meng and Zhang, 2007). SO₂ and its derivatives inhibit L-Ca²⁺ channels by decreasing the expression of Cav1.2 and Cav1.3 in the rat aorta. SO₂ activated K_{ATP} channels by increasing the expression of Kir6.1, Kir6.2, SUR2B, α, and β1 (Zhang et al., 2014). In the presence of 14 mg/m³ gaseous SO₂, the activation of K_{ATP} channels is increased by the upregulation of Kir6.1, Kir6.2, and SUR2B expression. In addition, L-type Ca²⁺ channels are decreased by downregulated Cav1.2 and Cav1.3 expression in rat aortas (Zhang, et al., 2016a,b). These data indicate that SO₂ regulates K_{ATP} and L-type Ca²⁺ channels by controlling their subunits.

In aortic rings, the levels of cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) and prostaglandin I₂ (PGI₂) and the activities of adenylyl cyclase (AC) and protein kinase A (PKA) were significantly increased by SO₂ treatment. The cAMP/cGMP ratio was also significantly increased. These data indicate that the vasorelaxation effect of SO₂ is related to the PGI₂-AC-cAMP-PKA signalling pathway (Meng et al., 2007). The expression of endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) and the generation of NO were increased by SO₂ in the rat aorta (Li et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2012). The level of cGMP was

also increased. These data indicate that the vasodilation effect of SO₂ is partly related to the upregulation of the eNOS-NO-cGMP pathway (Li et al., 2010). Smooth muscle relaxation due to SO₂ (3 μM) can be enhanced by NO (3 or 5 nM), which suggests that the vasoactive effect of SO₂ is synergistic with NO (Li and Meng, 2009). These data indicate that some crosstalk exists between SO₂ and NO. In aging rats with aortic endothelial dysfunction mediated by D-galactose induction, SO₂ improved endothelial dysfunction by inhibiting oxidative stress injury. In addition, SO₂ downregulated the angiotensin II/AT1R pathway (Dai et al., 2018). In endothelial inflammatory injuries, H₂S decreased the generation of endogenous SO₂ by inhibiting the activity of AAT through the sulfhydration of AAT1/2. When the hydrogen sulfide/cystathionine-gamma-lyase pathway was inhibited, the generation of endogenous SO₂ was increased and played a protective role (Zhang et al., 2018a,b). Vasodilation induced by a low concentration of SO₂ (30 μM) can be partially inhibited by LY294002 and N(G)-nitro-L-arginine methyl ester (Zhang et al., 2020). Additionally, SO₂ significantly increased the protein expression of phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K), phosphorylated-protein kinase B (p-Akt), and p-eNOS; however, high-dose SO₂ (300 μM or 1500 μM) decreased the protein expression of PI3K, p-Akt, and p-eNOS and increased the NO and cGMP content and NOS activity. These data indicate that PI3K/Akt/eNOS and NO/cGMP are involved in the vasodilatation effect of SO₂. Furthermore, a high dose of SO₂ (1500 μM) significantly increased caspase-3 and caspase-9 content, indicating that a high dose of SO₂ might be detrimental to blood vessels.

The relaxation effect of SO₂ on aortic rings is much stronger than that of SO₂ derivatives (sodium sulfite and sodium bisulfite, 3:1 M/M), but the mechanisms differ (Table 1). At low concentrations of gaseous SO₂, the vasorelaxation effect of SO₂ is mainly through the cGMP pathway or BK_{Ca}, while at high concentrations it is through K_{ATP}, L-Ca²⁺ or BK_{Ca}. In contrast, the vasorelaxation effect of low concentration SO₂ derivatives is through the NO/NOS pathway, while those of high concentration depend on K_{ATP}, L-Ca²⁺, BK_{Ca} or the cAMP/PKA pathway. Therefore, at high concentrations, the vasorelaxation effects of SO₂ and its derivatives are related to K_{ATP}, L-Ca²⁺ or BK_{Ca} channels, while the mechanisms at low concentrations differ.

The effect of SO₂ on vascular smooth muscle cells

The excessive proliferation and hypertrophy of VSMCs contribute to vascular wall thickness and play important roles in vascular remodelling (Vogel et al., 1997). Liu et al. (2014) showed that SO₂ inhibited VSMC proliferation by decreasing DNA synthesis and inhibiting the progression of the cell cycle from the G1 phase to the S phase. VSMC proliferation is increased by

AAT1 or AAT2 knockdown and decreased by AAT1 and AAT2 overexpression. Following platelet-derived growth factor-BB-stimulated proliferation of VSMCs, SO₂ dephosphorylated extracellular-regulated protein kinase (ERK) 1/2, mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) kinase1/2 and RAF by inhibiting the activity of the RAF proto-oncogene serine/threonine-protein kinase. Furthermore, SO₂ stimulated the cAMP/PKA pathway, which inhibited ERK/MAPK transduction in VSMCs. These data indicate that the inhibitory effect of SO₂ on VSMCs occurs through cAMP/PKA signalling, which leads to inhibition of the EKR/MAPK pathway (Liu et al., 2014). In mice with angiotensin II-induced hypertension, SO₂ decreased systemic hypertension and aortic thickening. The increased expression of proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and P-ERK was also inhibited by SO₂ in the aorta. The inhibitory effect of SO₂ on VSMC proliferation was attenuated by the ERK phosphorylation inhibitor PD98059. These data indicate that ERK mediates the inhibitory effect of SO₂ on VSMC proliferation (Wu et al., 2016). SO₂ also promoted VSMC apoptosis by down-regulating the expression of B-cell lymphoma 2 (Bcl-2) and increasing the expression of Fas and caspase-3 in spontaneously hypertensive rats (Zhao et al., 2008a). Endothelin-1 increased the expression of PCNA and Ki-67 and enhanced VSMC migration but decreased SO₂ production and AAT activity in VSMCs (Tian et al., 2020). SO₂ treatment also inhibited the increased expression of PCNA and Ki-67 induced by endothelin-1

(Song et al., 2020). Additionally, endothelin-1 significantly increased the generation of reactive oxygen species, accompanied by SO₂/AAT pathway downregulation, and N-acetyl-L-cysteine (a reactive oxygen species scavenger) and glutathione reversed these effects. Therefore, endothelin-1 promotes VSMC proliferation and migration and is related to SO₂/AAT pathway downregulation via reactive oxygen species production.

The effect of SO₂ on vascular collagen

Abnormal vascular collagen synthesis and degradation play an important role in the process of vascular remodelling. In spontaneously hypertensive rats, SO₂ significantly decreased the expression of type I and III collagen in the thoracic aorta (Zhao et al., 2008b). In the stretch-induced accumulation of pulmonary artery fibroblasts, the protein expression of collagen I and III and TGF-β1 and the phosphorylation of Smad2/3 increased, but the SO₂/AAT1 pathway was downregulated (Liu et al., 2016). AAT1 overexpression reversed the above effect induced by stretching, while AAT1 knockdown mimicked the effect of stretching. The TGF-β1/Smad2/3 inhibitor SB431542 reversed the deposition of collagen I and III induced by AAT1 knockdown or stretching. The TGF-β/Smad pathway is also involved in high blood flow-induced pulmonary hypertension in rats. The content of SO₂ and the expression of AAT1 were downregulated. SO₂ treatment

Table 1. Regulatory effects and mechanisms of SO₂ on vascular tone.

Treatment administered	Concentration	Mechanism	Endothelium dependent	Method	Reference
SO ₂ gas	<450 μM; >500 μM and <2000 μM	cGMP	Yes; No	Isolated aortic rings	Li and Meng, 2009
	30, 300 μM; 1500 μM	BK _{Ca} ; K _{ATP} ; L-Ca ²⁺	Yes; No	Isolated aortic rings	Zhang and Meng, 2009
	1500 μM	K _{ATP} ; Kir6.1, Kir6.2, SUR2B; BK _{Ca} ; BK _{Caα} , BK _{Caβ} 1; L-type Ca ²⁺ ; Ca _v 1.2, Ca _v 1.3	No	Isolated aortic rings	Zhang et al., 2014
	14 mg/m ³	K _{ATP} ; Kir6.1, Kir6.2, SUR2B; BK _{Ca} ; BK _{Caα} , BK _{Caβ} ; L-type Ca ²⁺ ; Ca _v 1.2, Ca _v 1.3	-	Inhalation	Zhang et al., 2016
	300 μM; 1500 μM	eNOS-NO-cGMP	Yes; No	Isolated aortic rings	Li et al., 2010
SO ₂ derivatives	1, 50, 300 μM	sGC/cGMP/PKG	-	Isolated aortic rings	Yao et al., 2016
	0.5, 1 mmol/L	NOS; Voltage-gated Ca ²⁺	Yes; -	Isolated aortic rings	Wang et al., 2009
	0.5-8 mmol/L; 2, 4 mmol/L	K _{ATP} and K _{Ca}	No		
	2, 4, 8 mmol/L	PGI ₂ -AC-cAMP-PKA	No	Isolated aortic rings	Meng et al., 2007
	6 mmol/L	L-type Ca ²⁺	No	Isolated aortic rings	Du et al., 2008
	1500 μM	K _{ATP} ; Kir6.1, Kir6.2, SUR2B; BK _{Ca} ; BK _{Caα} , BK _{Caβ} ; L-type Ca ²⁺ ; Ca _v 1.2, Ca _v 1.3	No	Isolated aortic rings	Zhang et al., 2014
	3.7 mg/kg	NO	-	Intraperitoneal injection	Lu et al., 2012
1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12 mmol/L		-	Isolated aortic rings		
30 μM; 300 μM; 1500 μM	PI3K/Akt/eNOS NO/cGMP	-	Isolated aortic rings	Zhang, et al., 2020	
NaHSO ₃	400 μM; 2000, 4000 μM	BK _{Ca} ; cGMP; K _{ATP} ; L-type Ca ²⁺	Yes; No	Isolated aortic rings	Meng et al., 2012

SO₂ derivatives: NaHSO₃/NaSO₃²⁻, molar ratio of 1:3; AC, adenylate cyclase; Akt, protein kinase B; BK_{Ca} channel, large conductance calcium-activated potassium channel; cAMP, cyclic adenosine monophosphate; cGMP, 3'-5'-cyclic guanosine monophosphate; K_{Ca}, calcium-sensitive potassium channel; K_{ATP}, ATP-sensitive potassium channel; NOS, nitric oxide synthase; PKA, protein kinase A; L-type Ca²⁺, L-type calcium channel; sGC, guanylate cyclase; PGI₂, prostaglandin I₂; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase; PKG, protein kinase G.

inhibited collagen accumulation and TGF- β 1/Smad2/3 pathway activation. These data indicate that the endogenous SO₂/AAT1 pathway mediates stretch-induced collagen deposition through the TGF- β 1/Smad2/3 pathway (Liu et al., 2016). Additionally, SO₂ was able to improve pulmonary arteriolar remodelling by inhibiting the proliferation and migration of pulmonary arterial smooth cells in rats with hypoxia-induced pulmonary hypertension. Furthermore, SO₂ downregulated the mRNA expression of Wnt7b, Sfrp2 and Cacna1f, but upregulated the mRNA expression of Dkk1 in lung tissues (Luo et al., 2018). These data indicate that the effect of SO₂ on improving pulmonary arterial remodelling is related to the Dkk1/Wnt signalling pathway.

The endogenous SO₂/AAT pathway is also involved in the process of collagen formation in VSMCs. In TGF- β 1-treated VSMCs, endogenous SO₂ synthesis and AAT1 or AAT2 knockdown promoted collagen deposition (Huang et al., 2016b). In contrast, AAT1 or AAT2 overexpression increased SO₂ generation and inhibited collagen I and III expression induced by TGF- β 1. In addition, procollagen I and III mRNA and tissue inhibitors of matrix metalloproteinase (MMP)-1 were inhibited, but MMP-13 expression increased. These data indicate that SO₂ inhibits collagen formation and promotes collagen degradation. Furthermore, AAT1 or AAT2 downregulated the phosphorylation of type I TGF- β receptor (T β R1) and Smad2/3 in TGF- β 1-stimulated VSMCs. The TGF- β 1/Smad signalling pathway inhibitor SB431542 decreased the collagen formation induced by AAT knockdown in VSMCs. A similar effect was also found in ectopically expressed AAT or the exogenous addition of SO₂ derivatives during AAT knockdown in VSMCs (Huang, et al., 2016b). These data indicate that the TGF- β 1/T β R1/Smad2/3 pathway mediates the effect of SO₂ on improving collagen remodelling.

The pathophysiological effect of SO₂ on vascular related diseases

The effect of SO₂ on hypertension and vascular remodelling

Hypertension is the most common chronic disease and an important risk factor for cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases. Meng et al. (2003) found that SO₂ and its derivatives significantly decreased blood pressure in a dose-dependent manner. Additional studies showed that SO₂ derivatives significantly decreased blood pressure in spontaneously hypertensive rats and reduced pulmonary hypertension induced by monocrotaline, hypoxia or high pulmonary blood flow (Sun et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2012; Luo et al., 2013). The mechanism is related to the SO₂ vasodilation effect.

Vascular remodelling is an important step during the pathogenesis of hypertension (Ponticos and Smith, 2014) and is accompanied by SMC proliferation and migration

and extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition. The ECM is mainly composed of collagen, fibronectin, laminin, heparin sulfate proteoglycan perlecan, and other macromolecules. Type I and III collagen are the main types of media and adventitia in normal and injured arterial walls (Myllyharju and Kivirikko, 2001; Xu and Shi, 2014). SO₂ significantly decreased systolic blood pressure by 26%, ameliorated vascular remodelling, and reduced the ratio of the media to lumen radius in spontaneously hypertensive rats (Zhao et al., 2008b) (Table 2).

In rats with monocrotaline-induced pulmonary hypertension, SO₂ reduced pulmonary hypertension, ameliorated pulmonary vascular structural remodelling, and reduced the relative medial thickness and relative medial areas of the pulmonary artery (Jin et al., 2008). The underlying mechanism involved the upregulation of the antioxidant activities of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px). SO₂ significantly inhibited collagen synthesis and promoted collagen degradation. Transforming growth factor (TGF)- β 1 expression was decreased by SO₂ in pulmonary arteries. AAT1 overexpression inhibited the activation of the TGF- β /TGF- β 1/Smad2/3 signalling pathway. In contrast, AAT1 knockdown increased the phosphorylation of Smad 2/3 and aggravated the deposition of type I and III collagen in TGF- β 1-treated pulmonary arterial fibroblasts (Liu et al., 2016). These data indicate that the TGF- β /Smad pathway is involved in the SO₂-mediated reduction in collagen accumulation in monocrotaline-induced pulmonary artery remodelling. The protective effect of SO₂ was also found in rats with hypoxic pulmonary hypertension. SO₂ reduced pulmonary hypertension, improved vascular structural remodelling and inhibited pulmonary arterial SMC proliferation. In addition, SO₂ downregulated the expression of Raf-1 and mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase-1 (MEK-1) and decreased the ratio of p-ERK/ERK. These data indicate that the MAPK pathway is involved in the protective effect of SO₂ (Sun et al., 2010).

In rats with hypoxia-induced pulmonary hypertension, SO₂ also inhibited the expression of intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1) and nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) in pulmonary vascular endothelial cells. These data indicate that SO₂ inhibits the inflammation involved in hypoxic pulmonary hypertension (Sun et al., 2010). Furthermore, SO₂ is reportedly a new adipocyte-derived inflammatory inhibitor. In cultured 3T3-L1 adipocytes, the inflammatory factors (monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 and interleukin-8) induced by TNF- α were inhibited by AAT1 overexpression but increased by AAT1 knockdown. NF- κ B activation was also inhibited by endogenous SO₂ (Zhang et al., 2016a,b). Therefore, the mechanism by which SO₂ alleviates vascular remodelling is related to its anti-inflammatory effect. Interestingly, an endogenous SO₂/AAT system is also present in macrophages. SO₂ production and AAT

Table 2. Effects and mechanisms of SO₂ on vascular remodelling.

Form of SO ₂	Role of SO ₂	Mechanisms	Model	References
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Alleviate vascular collagen remodelling	Inhibit abnormal accumulation of collagen type I and III	Spontaneously hypertensive rat	Zhao et al., 2008a
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Alleviate pulmonary vascular structural remodelling	Increase SOD, GSH-Px, and MDA content Increase plasma SOD, GSH-Px, and CAT levels	Monocrotaline (MCT)-induced pulmonary hypertensive rats	Jin et al., 2008
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Improve pulmonary vascular remodelling Up-regulate endogenous H ₂ S pathway	Increase H ₂ S generation Increase CSE protein expression Increase CSE, MPST and CBS mRNA expression	Pulmonary hypertension induced by high pulmonary blood flow in rats	Luo et al., 2013
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Alleviate excessive collagen accumulation	TGF-β1/Smad2/3 pathway	Pulmonary hypertension induced by high pulmonary blood flow in rats	Liu et al., 2016
AAT1 overexpression	Deficiency of endogenous SO ₂ /AAT1 pathway-mediated collagen accumulation		Primary pulmonary fibroblasts	
AAT1 knockdown				
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Improve collagen remodelling Inhibit pulmonary VSMC proliferation Anti-inflammation	Inhibit Raf-1, MEK-1, and ERK phosphorylation Inhibit NF-κB and ICAM-1 expression	Hypoxic pulmonary hypertensive rats	Sun et al., 2010
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Attenuate pulmonary arteriolar remodelling Inhibit the proliferation and migration of PASMCs	Dkk1/Wnt signalling pathway	Hypoxia-induced pulmonary hypertensive rats	Luo et al., 2018
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Reduce proliferation and promote apoptosis of smooth muscle cells	Inhibit PCNA expression Decrease Bcl-2 expression Increase Fas and caspase-3 expression	Spontaneously hypertensive rats	Zhao et al., 2008b
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Inhibit vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation	Inhibit the Erk/MAPK pathway, which is mediated by cAMP/PKA signalling	Vascular smooth muscle cells	Liu et al., 2014
AAT1 or AAT2 overexpression and knockdown				
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Inhibit VSMC proliferation Reduce systemic hypertension and vascular wall thickness	ERK signalling Inhibit PCNA and P-ERK expression	Angiotensin II-induced hypertensive mice Vascular smooth muscle cells	Wu et al., 2016
AAT1 or AAT2 overexpression AAT1 or AAT2 knockdown	Alleviate collagen remodelling	Inhibit procollagen I and III mRNA and up-regulate MMP-13 expression Downregulate the MMP-1 level	Rat A7r5 VSMCs	Huang et al., 2016b
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Attenuate endothelial dysfunction	Inhibit oxidative stress injury and downregulate the angiotensin II/AT ₁ R pathway	D-galactose-induced aging in rats	Dai et al., 2018
HDX, NaHS	Inhibit endothelial inflammatory responses	Increase SO ₂ production and play a compensatory role while downregulating the H ₂ S/CSE pathway	Human umbilical vein endothelial cell line (EA.hy926) Monocrotaline rats	Zhang et al., 2018
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Ameliorate vascular calcification Increase smooth muscle alpha-actin expression	Inhibit Runx2 expression Downregulate the TGF-β/Smad pathway	Vascular calcification induced in rats by vitamin D3 and nicotine; Calcified A7r5 VSMCs	Li et al., 2016
Na ₂ SO ₃ /NaHSO ₃	Decrease atherosclerotic lesions	Increase plasma GSH-Px and SOD activity Reduced plasma MDA level Up-regulate the NO/NOS pathway	Atherosclerosis induced by vitamin D3 and high cholesterol in rats	Li et al., 2011

AAT, aspartate aminotransferase; Bcl-2, B-cell lymphoma 2; CAT, catalase; cAMP, cyclic adenosine monophosphate; CBS, cystathionine-beta-synthase; CSE, cystathionine-gamma-lyase; Dkk, dickkopf-1; ERK, extracellular signal-regulated kinase; GSH, reduced glutathione; GSH-Px, glutathione peroxidase; HDX, L-aspartate-beta-hydroxamate; H₂S, hydrogen sulfide; ICAM-1, intercellular adhesion molecule 1; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MDA, malondialdehyde; MEK-1, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase-1; MMP-13, matrix metalloproteinase-13; MPST, mercaptopyruvate sulfurtransferase; NF-κB, nuclear factor-κB; NO, nitric oxide; NOS, nitric oxide synthesis; PCNA, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; PKA, protein kinase A; SOD, superoxide dismutase; TGF-β1, transforming growth factor-β1; VSMC, vascular smooth muscle cell.

expression can be detected in cultured RAW267.4 macrophages (Zhu et al., 2020). AAT2 knockdown increased the levels of TNF- α and IL-6, which mediate inflammation, and induced macrophage chemotaxis, while an SO₂ donor reversed these effects. SO₂ also decreased macrophage infiltration in mouse hearts treated with angiotensin II. These data indicate that inflammation may regulate macrophages.

The effect of SO₂ on vascular calcification

In rats with vitamin D3-induced vascular calcification, the content of calcium, the activity of alkaline phosphatase (ALP), the osteochondrogenic marker Runx2 and TGF- β /Smad signalling all increased, but SM α -actin decreased (Li et al., 2016). In addition, the plasma level of SO₂ decreased, accompanied by downregulated AAT1 and AAT2 mRNA expression. Vascular calcification was also ameliorated by treatment with SO₂ derivatives. In addition, SO₂ derivatives treatment significantly inhibited the expression of TGF- β /Smad and Runx2 but increased the expression of SM α -actin. In calcified A7r5 VSMCs induced by calcium chloride, treatment with SO₂ significantly decreased calcium deposits and ALP activity and inhibited the TGF- β /Smad pathway. These data indicate that the improvement in vascular calcification induced by SO₂ is related to the downregulation of the TGF- β /Smad pathway (Li et al., 2016). Therefore, the TGF- β /Smad pathway may play different roles in vascular remodelling and calcification.

The effect of SO₂ on atherosclerosis

Atherosclerosis is a common fatal cardiovascular disease worldwide. In rats with vitamin D3 and high-cholesterol diet-induced atherosclerosis, SO₂ content and AAT activity were significantly decreased in the aorta

(Li et al., 2011). Atherosclerotic plaques formed in the aorta or the coronary artery. SO₂ derivatives treatment significantly decreased the size of atherosclerotic plaques with increasing H₂S content and downregulated cystathionine- γ -lyase (CSE) mRNA expression in the aortas. In addition, SO₂ significantly increased plasma GSH-Px and SOD activities, eNOS activity and NO content (Li et al., 2011). These data indicate that the anti-atherosclerotic effect of SO₂ is related to increased antioxidant activity and NO/NOS and H₂S/CSE pathway upregulation.

Perspective and challenges

Vascular diseases are an important cause of mortality or disability throughout the world and result in a serious financial burden to families. Moreover, vascular diseases are still not well prevented and treated. Recent studies showed that SO₂ could be endogenously generated in mammals, and the endogenous SO₂/AAT pathway is involved in the development of vascular remodelling. Vascular remodelling is a complicated pathological process that can be caused by hypertension, atherosclerotic injury and vascular calcification (Tanaka and Laurindo, 2017; Jaminon et al., 2019) (Fig. 2). Vascular calcification is the inevitable result and a pathological process of atherosclerosis (Faggiano et al., 2019). Hypertension is one of the causes of atherosclerosis. Atherosclerosis is a chronic pathological process in which lipids and complex carbohydrates first accumulate, followed by haemorrhage and thrombosis. Fibrous tissue hyperplasia and calcium deposition then occur, which gradually leads to degeneration and calcification in the arterial middle layer and results in thickening and hardening of the arterial wall and narrowing of the vascular lumen (Kobiyama and Ley, 2018). Interestingly, current studies showed that SO₂ exerts a vasorelaxation effect and decreases hypertension

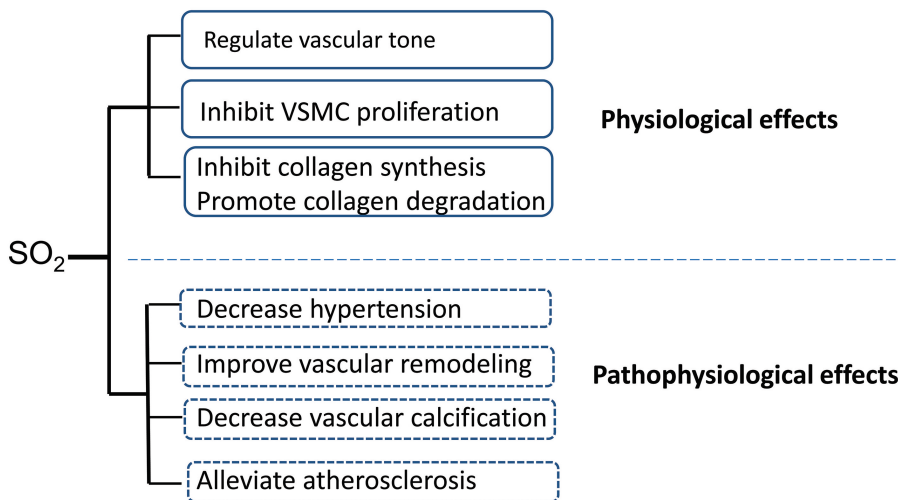


Fig. 2. The effect of SO₂ on vascular biology. SO₂ exerts physiological and pathophysiological effects on the vasculature, including regulating vascular tone, inhibiting smooth muscle cell proliferation and collagen accumulation and promoting collagen degradation. SO₂ can also alleviate vascular remodeling and ameliorate vascular calcification and cardiovascular atherosclerosis. (VSMC: vascular smooth muscle cell)

in rats. SO₂ also alleviates coronary artery atherosclerotic injury and vascular calcification, improves vascular remodelling and regulates the imbalance of collagen synthesis and degradation. The gaseous molecule SO₂ may be a novel mediator in vascular biology. In addition, the potential of SO₂ as a drug has also been studied. SO₂ prodrugs can be activated by a bioorthogonal click reaction, and the release rate can be adjusted by the substituents (Wang et al., 2017a). Another SO₂ donor, 2,4-dinitrophenylsulfonamides, can produce SO₂ by thiol activation and strongly inhibits mycobacterium tuberculosis growth (Malwal et al., 2012; Pardeshi et al., 2015). Although this drug has only recently been identified, it shows potential for further clinical application.

Additional studies of SO₂ on vascular diseases are required. For example, 1) SO₂ exerts a vasorelaxation effect and can reduce hypertension, but the effective therapeutic dose and side effects are unclear. 2) In the pathological process of atherosclerosis, the effects of SO₂ on endothelial injury, macrophage, proliferation of smooth muscle cells and low density lipoprotein receptor require further exploration. 3) In the development of vascular calcification, the effects of SO₂ on bone formation related protein, osteoblast-like cells differentiation, matrix vesicles formation and activation of genetic factors, and hormones are still unknown. 4) Vascular remodelling is an inevitable result of various vascular injuries. The mechanisms of SO₂ on abnormal extracellular matrix accumulation, signal pathway proliferation and apoptosis, and endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition remain unclear.

Acknowledgements. We thank Professor Chaoshu Tang from Peking University for his advice and guidance during the revision of this manuscript.

Conflict of interest statement. The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Accepted December 15, 2020