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ORIGINAL PAPER

Sprouty2 expression controls endothelial monolayer integrity and quiescence

Martin Peier · Thomas Walpen ·
Gerhard Christofori · Edouard Battegay ·
Rok Humar

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Abstract Vascular integrity is fundamental to the formation of mature blood vessels and depends on a functional, quiescent endothelial monolayer. However, how endothelial cells enter and maintain quiescence in the presence of angiogenic factors is still poorly understood. Here we identify the fibroblast growth factor (FGF) antagonist Sprouty2 (Spry2) as a key player in mediating endothelial quiescence and barrier integrity in mouse aortic endothelial cells (MAECs): Spry2 knockout MAECs show spindle-like shapes and are incapable of forming a functional, impermeable endothelial monolayer in the presence of FGF2. Whereas dense wild type cells exhibit contact inhibition and stop to proliferate, Spry2 knockout MAECs remain responsive to FGF2 and continue to proliferate even at high cell densities. Importantly, the anti-proliferative effect of Spry2 is absent in sparsely plated cells. This cell density-dependent Spry2 function correlates with highly increased Spry2 expression in confluent wild type MAECs. Spry2 protein expression is barely detectable in single cells but steadily increases in cells growing to high cell

densities, with hypoxia being one contributing factor. At confluence, Spry2 expression correlates with intact cell–cell contacts, whereas disruption of cell–cell contacts by EGTA, TNF α and thrombin decreases Spry2 protein expression. In confluent cells, high Spry2 levels correlate with decreased extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (Erk1/2) phosphorylation. In contrast, dense Spry2 knockout MAECs exhibit enhanced signaling by Erk1/2. Moreover, inhibiting Erk1/2 activity in Spry2 knockout cells restores wild type cobblestone monolayer morphology. This study thus reveals a novel Spry2 function, which mediates endothelial contact inhibition and barrier integrity.

Keywords Sprouty2 · Endothelial quiescence · Cell–cell contacts · FGF2 · Erk1/2

Introduction

During angiogenesis a concerted action of hypoxia and growth factors including vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) induces the formation of endothelial tip cells and stalk cells, and promotes vascular cell proliferation, cell migration, and lumen formation [1–4]. Ultimately, these cells mature and stabilize into new, functional blood vessels that are able to control permeability and to supply the newly vascularized areas with oxygen and nutrients. In this physiological state, endothelial cells form a tight monolayer, resist apoptosis and remain quiescent (defined as reversible cell growth/proliferation arrest) even in the presence of angiogenic factors [5, 6].

Endothelial cells in culture can display either an “activated” or a “quiescent” phenotype. The behavior of

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M. Peier · T. Walpen · E. Battegay · R. Humar (✉)
Division of Internal Medicine, University Hospital Zurich,
Gloriastrasse 30, GLO30 J14, 8091 Zurich, Switzerland
e-mail: Rok.Humar@usz.ch

G. Christofori
Department of Biomedicine, University of Basel, 4058 Basel,
Switzerland

E. Battegay · R. Humar
Zurich Center for Integrative Human Physiology (ZIHP),
Rämistrasse 100, 8091 Zurich, Switzerland

growing angiogenic (activated) cells is recapitulated by endothelial cells growing in sparse culture in vitro (thinly scattered cells), whereas a tight monolayer of cultured endothelial cells that is arranged in a cobblestone morphology is quiescent [5]. It has been suggested that several surface molecules associated with adherens and tight junctions mediate cell-contact inhibition (cells undergo growth arrest when they come into contact with each other) and vascular integrity through regulation of intracellular signaling cascades and transcription [7]. Endothelial cells mediate contact inhibition of growth in part by exiting cell cycle in response to the inhibition of extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (Erk1/2) activity, a major mitogen-activated kinase (MAPK) downstream of FGF and other angiogenic growth factors [8].

An important class of negative regulators of receptor tyrosine kinase (RTK) dependent MAPK activation is the Sprouty (Spry) family of proteins. In *Drosophila*, Sprouty (dSpry) modulates trachea branching [9] by inhibiting the RTK/Ras/Erk signaling downstream of different growth factors [10]. Sprouty2 (Spry2), one of four mammalian homologs, exhibits the highest sequence conservation across species [11] and plays a comparable role to dSpry in regulating the embryonic lung branching morphogenesis in mammals [12]. Furthermore, Spry2 modulates MAPK-signaling in embryogenesis [13, 14], organ development [15], and angiogenesis in vivo and in vitro [16, 17]. Spry2 is therefore a potential candidate to mediate cell-contact inhibition in endothelial cells.

Here, we have assessed the potential role of Spry2 in cell-contact inhibition and the formation and maintenance of the endothelial monolayer. We compared the ability of primary Spry2 expressing (Spry2^{fl/fl}) and Spry2 knockout (Spry2^{-/-}) mouse aortic endothelial cells (MAECs) to form a functional endothelial monolayer. Furthermore, we analyzed Spry2 expression and Erk1/2 activity in MAECs plated at defined cell densities. We were particularly interested of how endothelial cells process signals arising from increasing cell density to allow a switch from a proliferative, migratory phenotype to a quiescent, impermeable monolayer.

Materials and methods

Cell culture and treatments

Mouse aortic endothelial cells (MAECs) were isolated from aortae of C57BL/6 wild type male mice (MAECs ♂) or Sprouty2 floxed female mice (Spry2 floxed MAECs ♀) as described in a previous study [18]. Cells were used for experiments up to passage 10. For all experiments in this study, cell culture dishes were coated with 0.1 % gelatin

(Carl Roth GmbH, Karlsruhe, Germany) for 20 min at 37 °C. Cells were maintained in growth media (GM) [DMEM (Biochrom, Berlin, BW, Germany) complemented with 1 or 10 % FCS, 1 % sodium pyruvate, 1 % non-essential amino acids, and 1 % penicillin–streptomycin (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA)] in a humidified 5 % CO₂-air atmosphere at 37 °C. Serum-free media (GM without FCS) was used for starvation. Cell numbers were assessed with a NucleoCounter[®] NC-100[™] (Chemometec, Allerød, Denmark). MAECs were treated with one or more of the following growth factors and inhibitors: FGF2 25 ng/ml (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA); EGTA 2.5 mM (Merck, Billerica, MA, USA); Bapta-AM 10 μM (Invitrogen); TNFα 50 ng/ml (R&D Systems); thrombin 10 u/ml (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), and U0126 5 μM (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). To create a hypoxic environment, cells were placed in a hypoxia incubator (Hera Cell 150) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) with 1 % oxygen for 24 h. Micrograph pictures of cells were taken with a digital camera (F-viewXS) (Olympus, Hamburg, Germany) and an inverted microscope (IX71) (Olympus). GFP expression was monitored by using a U-LH100HG light source with a U-MWB2 filter (Olympus).

Generation of Spry2 knockout cells

We seeded 800,000 Spry2 floxed MAECs (♀) on a 10 cm culture dish. The next day, the media was removed and a virus (100 MOI) that contained either Ade-CRE-GFP or Ade-CMV-GFP (Vector Biolabs, Philadelphia, PA, USA) was added in 3 ml of growth media to the cells. After 6 h, the media was removed, replaced by 10 ml of normal growth media, and then incubated at 37 °C. Endothelial cells expressed GFP the following day. Downregulation of Spry2 was assessed by using qRT-PCR and Western blot. Steps that involved handling viruses or virus-transfected cells were undertaken in a level-2 biosafety hood (VSB 90) (Skan, Allschwil, Basel, Switzerland) in a certified cell culture laboratory.

mRNA extraction and quantitative real-time PCR

To isolate RNA from cells, cells were first harvested by scraping with a cell scraper (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) and the RNA then isolated by using RNeasy kit (Qiagen, Hilden, NRW, Germany) according to directions in the manufacturer's manual. The RNA was then reverse transcribed to cDNA by using the Taqman Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The following primers were used for qRT-PCR: Spry2-fwd (ATAATCCGAG TGCAGCCTAAATC), Spry2-rev (CGCAGTCCCTCACAC CTGTAG), GAPDH-fwd (TGTGTCCGTCGTGGATCTGA),

and GAPDH-rev (CCTGCTTCACCACCTTCTTGA). The cDNA samples and the forward and reverse primers for the endogenous control gene (GAPDH) and the target gene (Spry2), together with SYBR green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems) were loaded on a 96-well PCR reaction plate. Data was collected and normalized to GAPDH by running the relative quantitation program with the 7500 real time PCR system (Applied Biosystems).

Immunoblotting

To extract protein from the cells, cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS and then harvested by scraping with a cell scraper (BD) into 1 ml of ice-cold PBS. The cell suspension was collected and then centrifuged for 5 min at 14,000 rpm at 4 °C. The pellet was re-suspended in RIPA buffer that contained a complete mini protease inhibitor (Roche, Basel, Switzerland) and a phosphatase inhibitor cocktail 2 (Sigma-Aldrich) and then was lysed by using liquid nitrogen in four freeze-and-thaw cycles. The sample was centrifuged for 15 min at 14,000 rpm at 4 °C. The resulting supernatant was collected and the protein concentration measured by using a BCA protein assay kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Equal amounts of protein were separated by SDS-PAGE and then transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane (BA85) (Whatman, Maidstone, Kent, UK) by using a semidry blotting procedure. Membranes were blocked for 1 h at room temperature (RT) in TBS that contained 5 % skim milk powder (Sigma-Aldrich), washed once with TBS that contained 0.1 % tween (TBST) and then incubated overnight at 4 °C with one of the following primary antibodies: rabbit anti Sprouty2 (H-120) 1:4,000 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA); rabbit anti Sprouty2 (ab50317) 1:1,000 (Abcam, Cambridge, Cambs, UK); rabbit anti phospho-Erk1/2 (9102) 1:1,000, and rabbit anti total-Erk1/2 (9102) 1:1,000 (Cell Signaling, Danvers, MA, USA); rabbit anti Hif-1 α (NB100-479) 1:1,000 (Novus Biologicals, Littleton, CO, USA); and mouse anti β -Actin 1:10,000 (A-5441) (Sigma-Aldrich).

The next day, the membrane was washed three times in TBST and incubated with a secondary antibody—goat anti rabbit antibody HRP (7074) 1:5,000–1:20,000 (Cell Signaling) or anti mouse HRP (7076) (1:80,000) (Cell Signaling)—for 1 h at RT. After another wash step, a chemiluminescent substrate that is used for the detection of HRP (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was applied to the membrane for 1 min. The signal was detected with CL-XPosure film (Thermo Fisher Scientific), and the resulting bands were quantified by using ImageJ (Wayne Rasband, NIH, MD, USA).

Proliferation assay

Spry2 KO and Spry2 wild type MAECs (♀) were seeded at the indicated densities in 8 replicates and grown in 100 μ l of growth media with 1 % FCS in a 96-well plate both with and without 25 ng/ml of FGF2. After 48 h, 10 μ l of alamarBlue[®] solution (Invitrogen) was added for 3 h. Fluorescence was measured (Ex 560; Em 590) by using a Spectramax M2 reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

Permeability assay

The permeability assay was performed according to directions in the manufacturer's manual (Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA). 200,000 Spry2 KO and Spry2 wild type MAECs (♀) were suspended in 200 μ l of complete growth medium supplemented with 1 % FCS and both with and without 25 ng/ml of FGF2. The cells were then seeded in triplicate on cell culture inserts (3- μ m pore size) (Millipore) and placed in 24-well culture plates (BD) that contained 600 μ l of FGF2-free medium per well. After 48 h, the inserts were moved to a new 24-well plate and 70 kDa FITC-dextran was added for 10 min. Fluorescence at Ex 585 nm and Em 520 nm of the lower well compartments was analyzed by using a Spectramax M2 reader.

Oxygen sensing

Changes in the oxygen saturation of cell cultures were measured in real time by using an SDR SensorDish reader (Presens, Regensburg, BY, Germany). MAECs (♂) were plated on an Oxodish 24-well plate (OD24) with integrated oxygen sensors (Presens). Oxygen saturation of the media was measured every 30 min and data was collected and analyzed by using SDR_v38 software (Presens) on a personal computer.

Electric cell-substrate impedance sensing (ECIS)

Electrical resistance measurements were performed using an ECIS Z Θ apparatus (Applied Biophysics, Troy, NY, USA) in 8-well (0.8 cm²/well) arrays with 40 (8W10E +) gold electrodes, each with a diameter of 250 μ m (Applied Biophysics). Each experiment was carried out in duplicate. Before seeding the cells, each well was pre-incubated with serum-free DMEM overnight that was followed by a 20 min coating with 0.1 % gelatin (Carl Roth GmbH) and 0.9 % sodium chloride in PBS followed by three wash steps with growth media. The arrays in the measurement station were then placed in an incubator (37 °C, 5 % CO₂) to allow real time monitoring. Total resistance was

measured at a frequency of 4 kHz. Initial baseline values were normalized to 1.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were performed by using GraphPad Prism 5.04 for Windows® (GraphPad software, San Diego, CA, USA). We use unpaired *t* test to evaluate differences between two groups. If there were more than two groups, we used one-way ANOVA, followed by a Newman-Keuls post-test. *P* < 0.05 was considered significant.

Results

Lack of Spry2 expression results in loss of contact inhibition and endothelial monolayer integrity

We generated Spry2 knockout MAECs (mouse aortic endothelial cells) to explore whether Spry2 regulates the formation of the endothelial monolayer and thereby mediates cell-contact inhibition. Adenoviral transfection of floxed-Spry2 MAECs with a Cre recombinase encoding expression vector (Ade-CRE-GFP), but not with a control vector (Ade-CMV-GFP), efficiently down-regulated Spry2 mRNA and protein levels (Fig. 1a–d).

Spry2^{-/-} (knockout) and Spry2^{fl/fl} (wild type) MAECs were then seeded at confluence in the presence or absence of FGF2. We observed that Spry2^{-/-} MAECs grown for 48 h in the presence of FGF2, were incapable of forming a mature monolayer and displayed an elongated, angiogenic phenotype with longitudinal gaps between the cells and little cell–cell contacts (Fig. 2a2). In contrast to the latter results, control Spry2^{fl/fl} MAECs formed a regular cobblestone-type cell monolayer with only a few elongated cells (Fig. 2a1). FGF2 was required to disturb layer formation in Spry2^{-/-} MAECs, because without FGF2 stimulation, Spry2^{-/-} and Spry2^{fl/fl} cells both formed a regular mature monolayer (Fig. 2a1, a2).

To further characterize the perturbed endothelial monolayer formation by Spry2^{-/-} cells, we analyzed monolayer permeability. Indeed, the monolayer formed by Spry2^{-/-} cells exhibited significantly increased permeability to a 70 kDa FITC-dextran in the presence of FGF2, while no difference was observed in cells without FGF2 (Fig. 2b). Spry2^{-/-} MAECs appear to fail in establishing cell contact inhibition. We therefore asked, whether Spry2^{-/-} cells show increased cell proliferation. We then plated the cells at different densities and let them grow for 48 h in the presence or absence of FGF2 before evaluating the cell numbers. No difference was observed between Spry2^{-/-} and Spry2^{fl/fl} when cells were plated at initially sparse conditions (3,000 cells/cm²) (Fig. 2c). However,

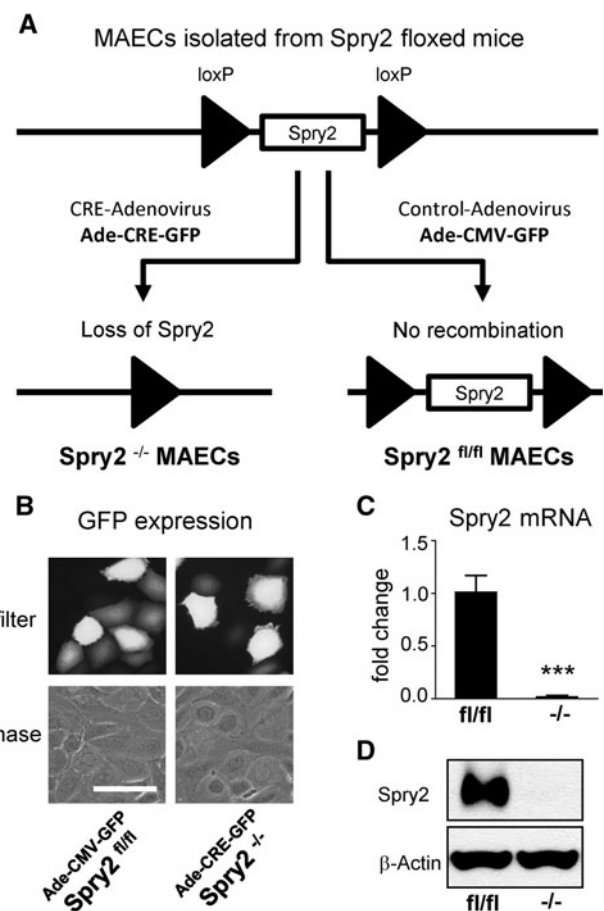


Fig. 1 Generation of Spry2 knockout MAECs **a** MAECs (♀) were isolated from floxed Spry2 female mice. The cells were then exposed to Ade-Cre-GFP Adenovirus or the corresponding Adenovirus without Cre. **b** GFP expression 24 h after transfection with either Ade-Cre-GFP (Spry2^{-/-}) or the corresponding control virus Ade-CMV-GFP (Spry2^{fl/fl}) (scale bar 100 μm). **c**, **d** Efficient knockout of Spry2 was confirmed by qRT-PCR analysis (error bars show mean ± SEM; ****P* < 0.001; *n* = 3) (**b**) and immunoblotting analysis (**c**). β-actin was used as loading control

when the cells were plated with a higher initial density (6,000 and 12,000 cells/cm²), the cell numbers increased significantly in Spry2^{-/-} MAECs as compared to Spry2^{fl/fl} MAECs after 48 h of FGF2 stimulation (Fig. 2c). No difference was observed between Spry2^{-/-} and Spry2^{fl/fl} when cells were grown without FGF2. These findings indicate that Spry2 is indispensable for endothelial cell monolayer formation and the maintenance of barrier integrity in the presence of FGF2. Apparently, the function of Spry2 thereby depends on an increased cell density.

High cell density induces Spry2 expression

Next we asked, whether the Spry2 function at high cell densities correlated with increased Spry2 expression at high cell densities. We therefore compared Spry2 protein

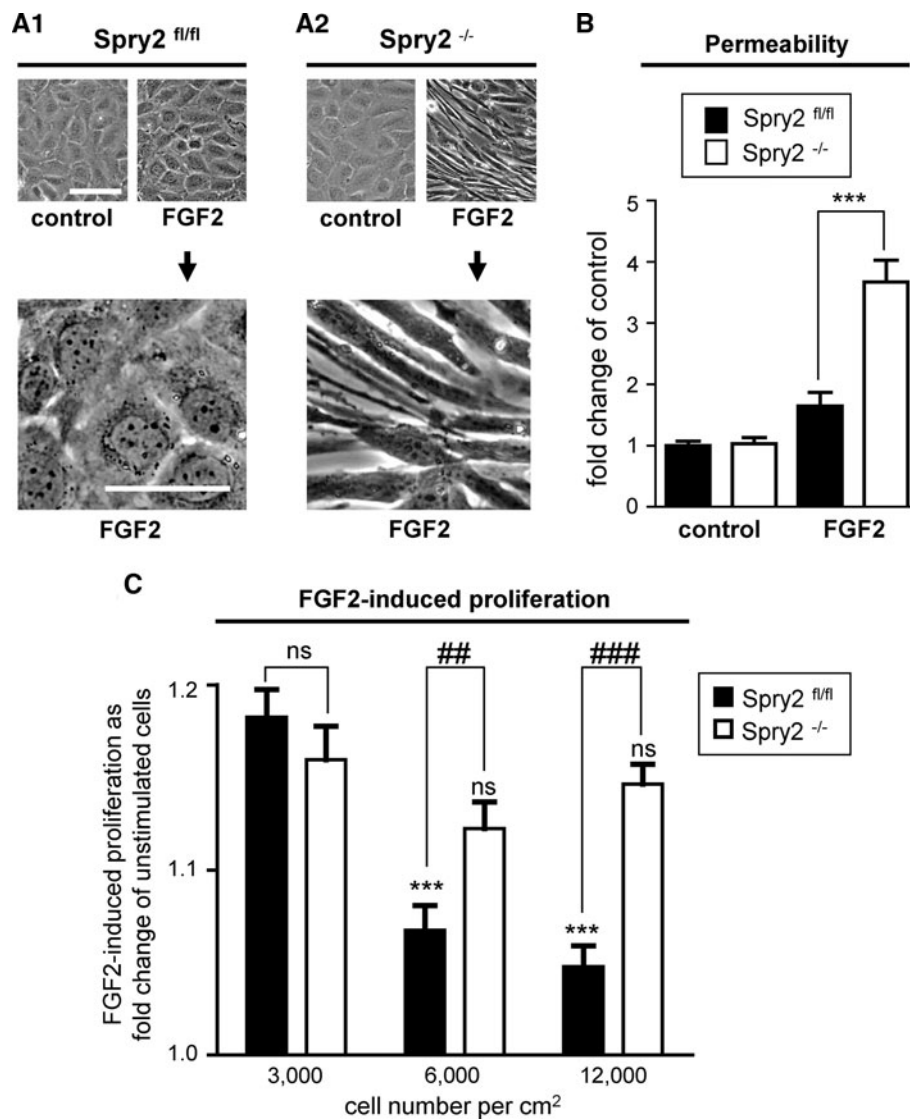


Fig. 2 Spry2 knockout results in a loss of contact inhibition and endothelial monolayer integrity (**a1**, **a2**). Micrographs (*scale bar* 100 μ m) display Spry2^{fl/fl} (**a1**) and Spry2^{-/-} (**a2**) MAECs (♀) plated at confluence and grown for 48 h in the presence of 1 % FCS both with and without FGF2 (25 ng/ml). Magnifications (*scale bar* 50 μ m) of FGF2-treated Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} cells are shown at the *bottom* of the panel. **b** Modulation in monolayer permeability of Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} cells in the presence of FGF2. Cells were seeded at confluence on a well insert in the presence of 1 % FCS with and without FGF2 (25 ng/ml). The permeability of the monolayer to

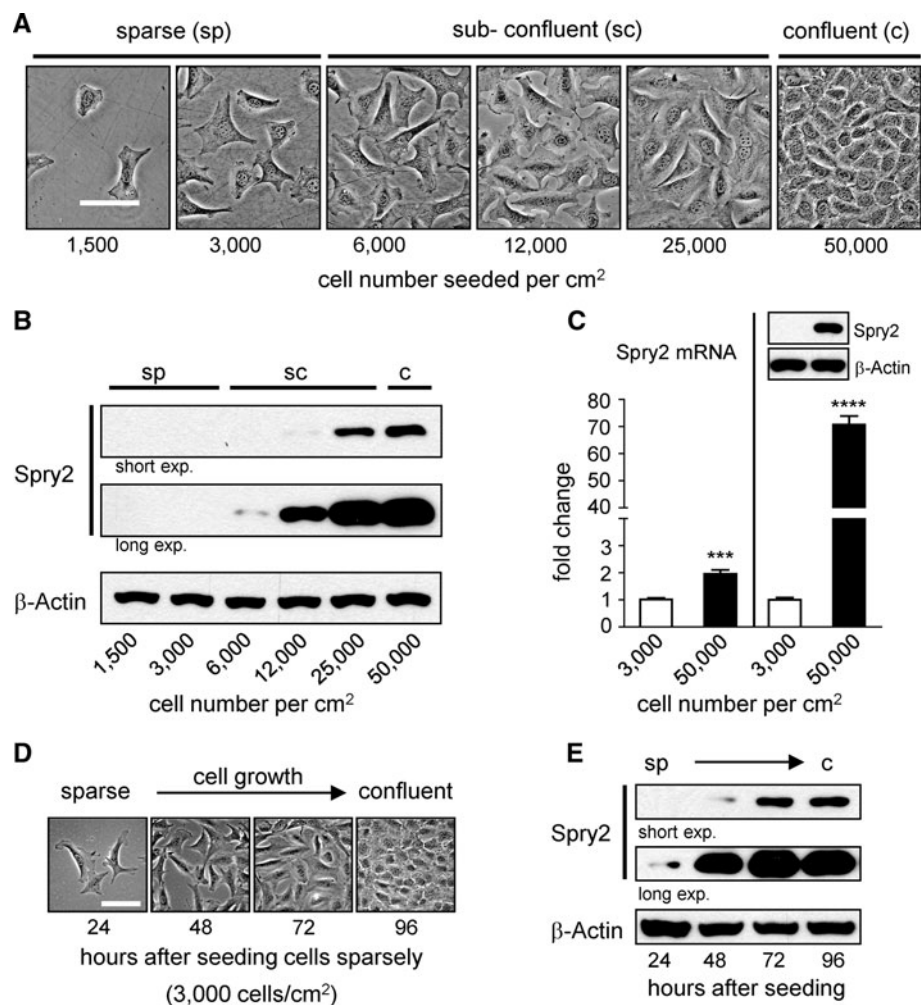
70 kDa FITC-dextran after 10 min was evaluated by measuring fluorescence of the lower well. *Bars* show values as fold change of control \pm SEM; ****P* < 0.001; n = 4. **c** Spry2^{-/-} cells lack contact inhibition. Cells were plated at the indicated cell densities and grown for 48 h in the presence of 1 % FCS both with and without FGF2 (25 ng/ml). *Bars* show the FGF2-induced proliferation of Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} MAECs (♀) normalized to the unstimulated cell at the indicated plating densities \pm SEM; ****P* < 0.001 versus 3,000 cells/cm² + FGF2; ##*P* < 0.01; ###*P* < 0.001 Spry2^{fl/fl} versus Spry2^{-/-}; ns = non-significant; n = 3

expression of cells, which were seeded at different densities (Fig. 3a). Sparsely plated cells (1,500–6,000 cells/cm²) expressed Spry2 protein at very low levels. Subconfluently plated cells (12,000–25,000 cells/cm²) increased Spry2 protein markedly. Plating 50,000 cells/cm² led to the formation of a confluent monolayer and a strong induction Spry2 protein (Fig. 3b). We then analyzed the Spry2 mRNA expression of sparse (3,000 cells/cm²) and confluent cells (50,000 cells/cm²) and compared it to the

corresponding protein expression. Whereas the Spry2 protein levels increased 70 fold in confluent compared to sparse cells, the mRNA levels increased only moderately (two fold), suggesting that density dependent Spry2 expression is regulated predominantly at a post transcriptional level (Fig. 3c).

To better understand the fashion of cell density-induced Spry2 expression, we analyzed Spry2 protein expression during formation of the endothelial monolayer. MAECs

Fig. 3 High cell density induces Spry2. **a** Representative micrographs of MAECs (♂) plated at different cell numbers (*scale bar* 100 μ m). **b** MAECs (♂) were subjected to immunoblotting after 24 h of serum starvation. **c** mRNA expression of sparse (3,000 cells/cm²) and confluent cells (50,000 cells/cm²) was analyzed by qRT-PCR and compared to the corresponding protein expression (Spry2/ β -Actin) of sparse and confluent cells (MAECs ♂). The present graphs summarize at least three independent experiments. The values shown are mean \pm SEM; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$ versus 3,000 cells/cm². **d**, **e** Cells (MAECs ♂) growing to confluence increase Spry2. **d** Micrographs (*scale bar* 100 μ m) of MAECs plated at sparse condition (3,000 cells/cm²) and grown for the indicated time. **e** Cell (MAECs ♂) samples were collected at the indicated times and Spry2 and β -actin levels were analyzed by immunoblotting



were plated sparsely and grown to high cell density and confluence over a time period of 24–96 h (Fig. 3d). Spry2 expression increased markedly after 48 h, and reached its maximum level between 72 and 96 h after seeding (Fig. 3e). Thus, Spry2 protein expression increased not only when cells were plated at high cell density, but also when cells grow from an initial sparse culture to a confluent culture.

Hypoxia increases Spry2 expression during formation of the endothelial monolayer

Conventional monolayer cultures are often hypoxic when incubated in an air/5 % CO₂ atmosphere [19]. Thus, hypoxia that results from increased oxygen-consumption during endothelial monolayer formation may correlate with high cell density and may upregulate Spry2 expression. To investigate this hypothesis, we analyzed the expression of the hypoxia marker Hif-1 α over a time period of 24–96 h. Hif-1 α levels increased at 48 h, dropped at 72 h, and were undetectable after 96 h of cell seeding (Fig. 4a). We then

further substantiated these findings by measuring oxygen levels of sparsely seeded cells directly and in real time over a period of 0–96 h: Oxygen saturation decreased slightly after 24 h (80 % O₂ saturation) and declined to a minimum between 48 and 72 h after cell seeding (70 % O₂ saturation) compared to a control with no cells present (85 % O₂ saturation throughout the experiment) (Fig. 4b). These results demonstrate that increased Spry2 expression after 48 h of endothelial cells growing to confluence is accompanied by hypoxia and elevated Hif-1 α expression.

To investigate whether hypoxia indeed induces Spry2 protein expression, we reduced oxygen consumption by starving the cells to reduce metabolism [19]. Indeed, Spry2 protein levels decreased but were still detectable in starved cells (Fig. 4c). In addition, Hif-1 α protein levels dropped and were undetectable after changing growth media to serum-free conditions (Fig. 4c). In parallel experiments replacement of the growth media by serum-free media after 24 h reduced the oxygen consumption of the endothelial cell cultures and restored basal oxygen levels after 48 h. However, in the presence of serum, oxygen levels

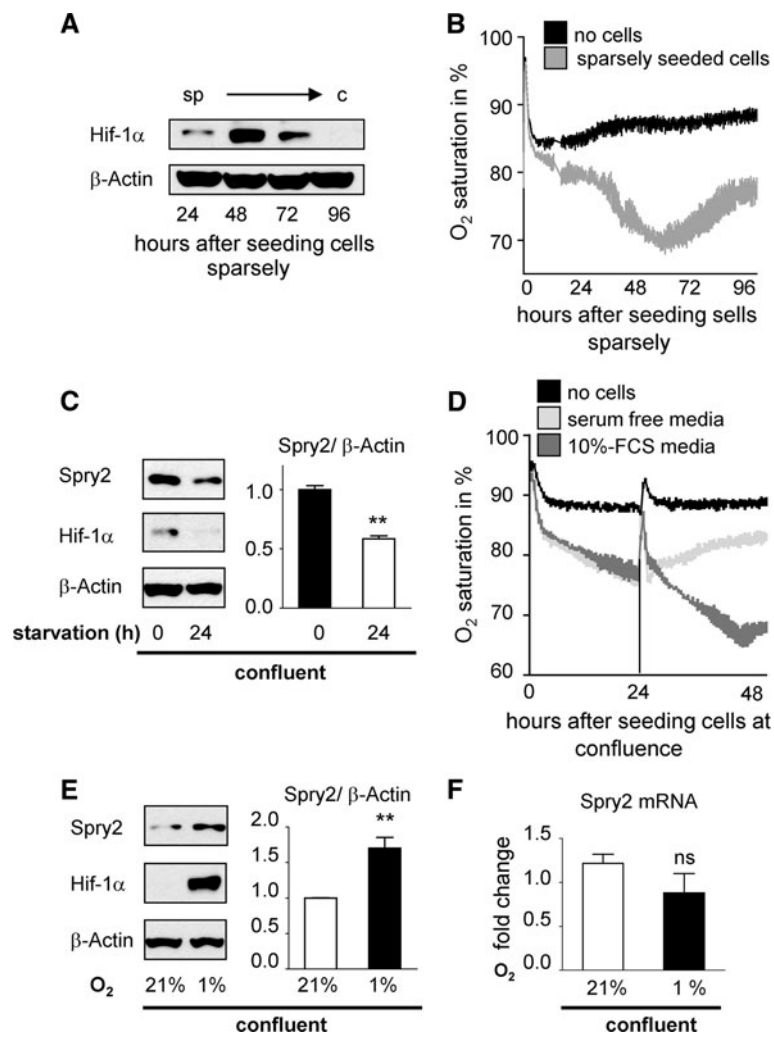


Fig. 4 Hypoxia increases Spry2 protein expression. **a** Cells (MAECs ♂) growing to confluence become hypoxic. Cell samples were collected at the indicated times and analyzed for Hif-1α and β-actin protein expression. **b** Real-time measurement of the oxygen consumption of MAECs (♂) growing to confluence (initially plated at sparse density; 3,000 cells/cm²). **c** Cells (MAECs ♂) were grown in 10 % FCS for 24 h and then either collected or starved for 24 h, and then Spry2 levels were determined by immunoblotting. Three independent experiments, normalized to β-actin expression, are summarized in a graph that shows densitometric quantification of the immunoblotting signals (***P* < 0.01). **d** In parallel experiments, real time oxygen consumption of growing and quiescent cells

(MAECs (♂) plated at confluence; 50,000 cells/cm²). After 24 h, either serum free or media with 10 % FCS was added for additional 24 h to the cells (indicated with a dashed line). **d** MAECs (♂) were grown for 24 h and then starved and grown under either hypoxic (1 % O₂) or normoxic (21 % O₂) conditions before lysis and immunoblotting for Spry2, Hif-1α and β-actin. Three independent experiments, normalized to β-actin expression, are summarized in a graph that shows densitometric quantification of the bands (***P* < 0.01). **h** mRNA was collected from MAECs (♂) grown for 24 h and then starved and grown under either hypoxic (1 % O₂) or normoxic (21 % O₂) conditions and analyzed for Spry2 expression by qRT-PCR. Values were normalized to GAPDH; n = 4

decreased further and reached a minimum level (65 % O₂ saturation) after 48 h of cell seeding (Fig. 4d).

To assess whether endothelial cells cultured in serum-free medium did not lose the potential to induce Spry2 expression under hypoxia, cells were seeded at sparse or confluent density, and serum-free endothelial cells were subjected to hypoxic (1 % O₂) and normoxic conditions in a hypoxia incubator. After 24 h, Spry2 increased in cells under hypoxic conditions; this correlated with increased Hif-1α protein levels (Fig. 4e). Hypoxia, however, did not

affect Spry2 mRNA levels (Fig. 4f). Thus, it is likely that hypoxia regulates Spry2 expression independent of Hif-1α on a post-transcriptional level.

Disruption of calcium dependent cell–cell contacts decreases Spry2 protein in confluent cells

Although transient hypoxia induced Spry2 expression in the early phase of endothelial cell monolayer formation, it appeared that hypoxia was not necessary to maintain high

Spry2 levels when the cells reached confluence (Figs. 3e, 4a). Therefore, we hypothesized that in confluent cells Spry2 might be stabilized at an elevated level through a hypoxia-independent mechanism, including cell–cell contact.

To examine whether cell–cell contact regulates Spry2, we used ethylene glycol tetraacetic acid (EGTA) to chelate extracellular calcium and to disrupt calcium-dependent cell–cell contacts [20]. The addition of EGTA to confluent MAECs resulted in the formation of gaps between cells after 30 min and in a complete detachment from each other

after 3 h (Fig. 5a). Replacement of EGTA with new media restored the monolayer after 24 h of incubation. In parallel experiments, treatment with EGTA completely eliminated Spry2 expression after 0.5 and 3 h of EGTA treatment (Fig. 5b). The restoration of the monolayer by new media also restored Spry2 protein to the levels seen prior to EGTA treatment. In addition, we measured the electrical resistance of the confluent endothelial monolayer during EGTA treatment by electrical cell impedance sensing (ECIS). The electrical resistance dropped markedly after

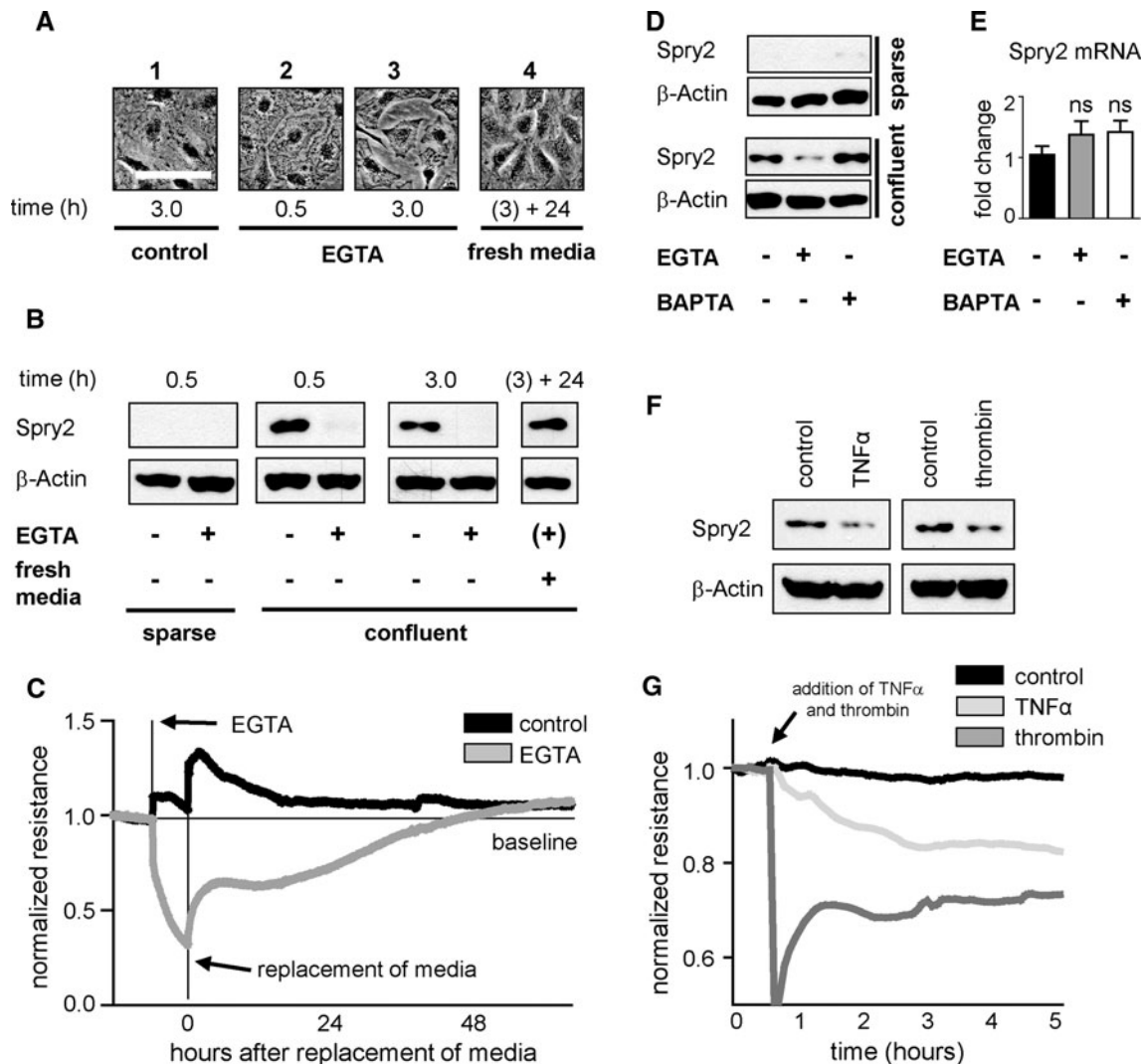


Fig. 5 Disruption of cell–cell contacts decrease Spry2 protein levels. **(a, panels 1–3)** Micrographs (scale bar 100 μm) of MAECs (♂) plated at confluence and treated with PBS (the control) or EGTA for the indicated time. **(a, panel 4)** After 3 h, EGTA was replaced by fresh growth media, and cells were grown for an additional 24 h. **b** Spry2 expression after EGTA treatment. MAECs (♂) were collected after the indicated incubation time with PBS (control) or EGTA or 24 h after replacement of EGTA with fresh media (3.0 + 24). **c** Cells were plated at confluence, and total resistance was measured in real time by ECIS. When cells reached a steady plateau in resistance (baseline), either EGTA or PBS (control) was added to the cells. After

8 h, new media was added to all cells and the time point was set to zero. **d** MAECs (♂) were treated with either EGTA or BAPTA-AM for 3 h, and Spry2 and β-actin expression were analyzed by immunoblotting. **e** In parallel experiments, total RNA was isolated from MAECs (♂) that had been treated with EGTA, BAPTA-AM, or PBS. Spry2 mRNA levels were determined by using qRT-PCR and normalized to GAPDH. The values shown are mean ± SEM; n = 3. **f** Spry2 protein expression 3 h after addition of either TNFα, thrombin or PBS (control) to confluent cells. **g** Normalized resistance of confluent cells treated with either TNFα, thrombin or PBS (control) for the indicated time

the addition of EGTA and then returned to basal levels (resistance prior the addition of EGTA) within 48 h after the addition of new media. This result demonstrated that the effect of treatment with EGTA was reversible and did not damage endothelial cell viability (Fig. 5c). Of note, chelation of intracellular calcium with Bapta-AM did not affect Spry2 protein levels (Fig. 5d), and neither EGTA nor Bapta-AM affected Spry2 mRNA levels (Fig. 5e).

Our results indicate that high Spry2 protein levels restrict endothelial permeability in confluent cells. Since several physiologic conditions such as inflammation display and require increased monolayer permeability, we asked whether Spry2 protein expression can be decreased by physiological mediators of endothelial permeability such as TNF α [21, 22] and thrombin [23]. Indeed, Spry2 protein expression decreased when confluent cells were treated for 3 h with either TNF α or thrombin as compared to the control cells (Fig. 5f). As control for the increased permeability, we measured the change in total resistance of cells after addition of either TNF α or thrombin. As expected, the results showed a rapid disruption of the endothelial barrier properties by thrombin with partial recovery as compared to a rather chronic destabilization by TNF α (Fig. 5g). Taken together, these findings demonstrate that density-dependent Spry2 protein expression depends on intact cell–cell contacts and is downregulated by agents that increases endothelial permeability.

At high cell densities high Spry2 protein levels correlate with decreased Erk1/2 phosphorylation

A well-established inhibitor of Erk1/2 activity downstream of FGF signaling [17, 24] Spry2 might mediate cell-contact inhibition in confluent cells via Erk1/2 inhibition. We therefore compared Spry2 expression with Erk1/2 phosphorylation in sparse and confluent cells. In sparse cells, FGF2-induced Erk1/2 phosphorylation levels were detected along with low Spry2 protein levels (Fig. 6a). Vice versa, Spry2 was exclusively increased in confluent cells and correlated with decreased Erk1/2 phosphorylation. In the presence of FGF2, cell confluence significantly decreased FGF2-induced Erk1/2 phosphorylation when compared to sparse, FGF2-stimulated cells (Fig. 6a). Taken together, these results suggest that cell density is crucial to regulate Spry2 expression and by that its function as an inhibitor of FGF2-Erk1/2 signaling.

Inhibition of Erk1/2 signaling restores wild type morphology of the monolayer

Next we asked, whether Spry^{-/-} MAECs exhibited increased Erk1/2 phosphorylation. Indeed, in Spry2^{-/-} cells, FGF2-induced Erk1/2 phosphorylation levels increased 2.5

fold compared to those in Spry2^{fl/fl} cells, while Erk1/2 phosphorylation was absent without stimuli in both cell types (Fig. 6c1, c2).

We therefore investigated whether inhibiting the MAPK Erk1/2 pathway could reverse disturbed endothelial monolayer formation of Spry2^{-/-} cells. Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} MAECs were plated in the presence or absence of the Erk1/2 inhibitor U0126. In the absence of U0126, Spry2^{-/-} MAECs showed a highly angiogenic phenotype upon FGF2 stimulation. However, when cells were pre-incubated with U0126 before adding FGF2, the wild type cobblestone phenotype was restored (Fig. 6b). The absence of Erk1/2 phosphorylation upon U0126-treatment in both Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} MAECs demonstrated the efficacy of the Erk1/2 inhibitor (Fig. 6c1). Notably, upon inhibition of Erk1/2 Spry2 expression was reduced in Spry2^{fl/fl} cells, indicating that the expression of Spry2 is partly regulated by Erk1/2 signaling. These findings show that Spry2, as a regulator of Erk1/2 activity, is indispensable for endothelial cell monolayer formation and the maintenance of barrier integrity in the presence of FGF2.

Discussion

Cell-contact inhibition is an important process for the regulation of vascular integrity for which proper understanding of underlying molecular events is still lacking. This study therefore addresses the important question of how endothelial cells process signals arising from increasing cell density to allow a switch from a proliferative, migratory phenotype to a quiescent, impermeable monolayer. Here, we identify the FGF receptor signaling antagonist Spry2 as a key component in the establishment of endothelial quiescence and barrier integrity.

Spry2 exclusively acts as an adaptor protein without any enzymatic activity [25]. Therefore cells have restricted possibilities to control Spry2 function: by regulating its abundance [26–28], its localization [17, 29], and/or its post-transcriptional modifications [30–32]. Here we show, that in primary endothelial cells, Spry2 is regulated in a previously unknown cell-density dependent fashion and is found at high levels only in dense endothelial cell monolayers. Highly elevated Spry2 protein levels might inhibit endothelial proliferation and, thus, maintain vascular integrity and quiescence. Forced Spry2 expression in human umbilical vein endothelial cells was shown to inhibit growth factor-induced proliferation and sprouting [17]. We here demonstrate that sparse cultures of proliferating endothelial cells express low Spry2 protein levels and that upon reaching cell confluence and cell quiescence Spry2 protein levels increase by a mostly post-transcriptional mechanism. Notably, ablation of Spry2 in dense cells

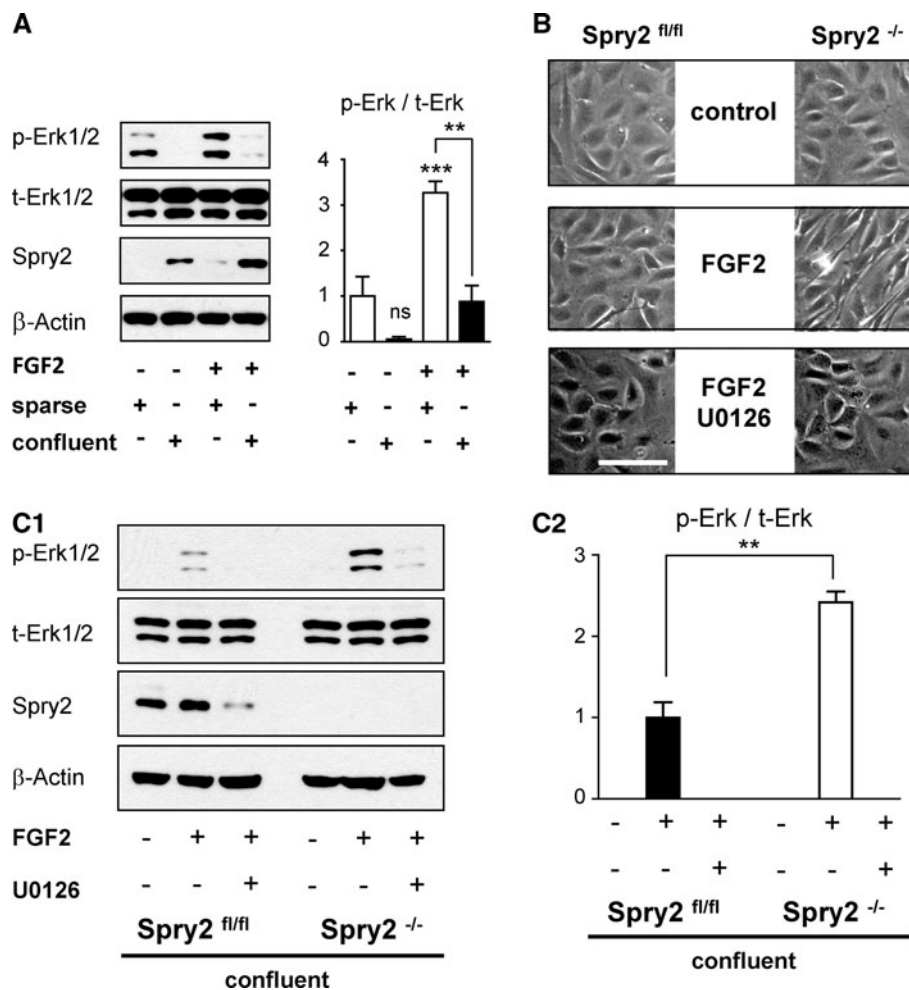


Fig. 6 Inhibition of Erk1/2 signaling restores wild type morphology of the Spry2^{-/-} monolayer. **a** High cell density-induced Spry2 correlates with decreased Erk1/2 phosphorylation. Sparse (3,000 cells/cm²) or confluent MAECs (♂) (50,000 cells/cm²) were starved and then treated with FGF2 (25 ng/ml) or PBS for 24 h before lysis and immunoblotting. Relative phosphorylation levels of Erk1/2 were quantified by densitometry. Bars show values as fold change of unstimulated sparse cells ± SEM; ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001; *n* = 3. **b** Micrographs displaying Spry2^{fl/fl} and Spry2^{-/-} MAECs (♀) plated at confluence in the absence or presence of FGF2 (25 ng/ml) and then

grown for 48 h. Where indicated, cells were incubated with U0126 (5 μM) 1 h prior the addition of FGF2 (scale bar 100 μm). **c1** MAECs (♀) were plated at confluence in the presence or absence of FGF2 both with and without pre-incubation with U0126 (5 μM). Cells were collected 4 h after seeding and phosphorylated Erk1/2 (p-Erk1/2), total Erk1/2 (t-Erk1/2), Spry2 and β-actin were analyzed by immunoblotting. **c2** Relative phosphorylation levels of Erk1/2 were quantified by densitometry. Bars show values as fold change of FGF2-stimulated Spry2^{fl/fl} cells ± SEM; ***P* < 0.01; *n* = 3

increases cell proliferation and permeability of the endothelial monolayer. Thus restriction of Spry2 may allow endothelial cell proliferation and migration during angiogenesis and wound closure [16, 33]. In accord with our findings, Zhang et al. [34] showed that Spry2 protein decreased in the vasculature after an injury to the endothelial lining of the carotid artery in rats and then reappeared weeks later after the inner endothelial lining had re-formed. We report that Spry2 protein levels increase steadily in cells that are growing toward confluence. Two independent and consecutive stimuli induce and stabilize Spry2 protein levels—transient intrinsic hypoxia and the establishment of cell–cell contacts. In the sub-confluent phase, Spry2 expression correlates with reduced oxygen

saturation and increases Hif-1α protein levels. Furthermore, exogenously applied hypoxia increases Spry2 protein in both sparse (results not shown) and confluent cells in post transcriptional manner. A possible explanation for this finding is delivered by Anderson et al. [26]. They showed that Spry2 interacts with prolyl hydroxylases preferentially during normoxic conditions. When hydroxylated on proline residues, Spry2 is recognized by pVHL and its associated E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, resulting in Spry2 degradation. Thus under hypoxic conditions, when PDHs are less active, Spry2 levels increase [26].

In vivo, hypoxia-induced Spry2 expression may provide a protective homeostatic function when the vasculature is exposed to hypoxia. Endothelium that is subjected to

oxygen deprivation maintains cell viability and basic biosynthetic mechanisms, but it displays multiple changes in barrier function that are relevant to vascular homeostasis [35, 36].

The observation that Spry2 expression still remains elevated in confluent cells showing normoxic oxygen levels points to another essential mechanism for stabilizing Spry2 in confluent cultures: intact cell–cell contacts. An intriguing question is how Spry2 is induced when cells reach confluence. Possible membrane initiators of the intracellular signals engaged by direct cell-to-cell contacts are the N- and VE-cadherins. N- and VE-cadherins are components of endothelial adherens junctions [37, 38] and interact with cadherins of neighboring cells in a homophilic manner [39]. These adhesive complexes strictly depend on extracellular calcium [20, 40]. We show that Ca^{2+} depletion disrupts cell–cell contacts and rapidly destabilizes Spry2 protein. Conversely, the formation of cell–cell contacts stabilizes Spry2 protein even at a stage, at which an impermeable endothelial barrier is not yet completely re-established. Thus, singular cell–cell contacts may already suffice to stabilize Spry2 protein levels. Consistent with this notion, previous reports have indicated that cadherin clustering induces signaling, and these events may stabilize Spry2 levels, when cells first touch each other before complete confluence is reached and junctions are fully stabilized [41, 42]. Thus, our findings point to calcium dependent cell–cell interactions which are needed for Spry2 expression when cells grow to confluence, with the final evidence of proof still to be elucidated in future. The observation that $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and thrombin increase endothelial permeability and at the same time, decrease Spry2 expression further add to the assumption that cell–cell contact upregulate Spry2 protein expression. In situations such as inflammation, the endothelial permeability needs to be increased to allow transmigration of immune cells to fight pathogens [43]. Since high Spry2 levels correlate with decreased endothelial permeability, cells might be forced to restrict Spry2 expression in confluent cells via physiological agonists of endothelial permeability such as $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and thrombin [21–23].

At high cell density, cell–cell contact inhibition promotes the switch from an angiogenic and proliferative state to a quiescent endothelial cell phenotype. It is assumed that membrane proteins in addition to maintaining cell–cell adhesion, also sense cell–cell interactions and transduce this information to intracellular signaling cascades [5, 44]. In endothelial cells for example, contact inhibition is mediated in part through inhibition of Erk1/2 [8]. Spry2 is a well-known feed-back loop inhibitor of RTK signaling and modulates Erk1/2 activity in various settings [16]. Therefore, we have hypothesized that Spry2, by inhibiting Erk1/2 activity, promotes cell contact inhibition in confluent

endothelial cells. Indeed, Spry2 expression correlates with decreased Erk1/2 activity at high cell density. Vice versa, ablation of Spry2 in confluent cells increases FGF2-induced but not basal Erk1/2 signaling. As a result, Spry2^{-/-} cells fail to form a connected monolayer and exhibit a spindle-shaped morphology with increased proliferation and monolayer permeability in the presence of FGF2.

The inability of Spry2^{-/-} cells to form a functional monolayer is likely due to unrestricted FGF2-Erk1/2 signaling because Erk1/2 inhibition in Spry2^{-/-} cells restores the wild type-like endothelial cobblestone phenotype. We speculate that unrestricted FGF2-Erk1/2 signaling activates Hif-1 α -induced gene regulation: experimental evidence in several studies has demonstrated that FGF2 activates the VEGF/VEGFR system [45, 46] in part via Hif-1 α [47–49]. Whereas fine-tuned intracellular VEGF-A/VEGFR-2 signaling supports endothelial survival in established mature blood vessels [50], uncontrolled expression of VEGF-A exceeding physiological thresholds leads to the formation of unstable and leaky blood vessels [51] or even hemangiomas [52]. Spry2 could potentially interfere with this signaling cascade and prevent activation of the VEGF/VEGFR system by FGF in quiescent blood vessels.

Spry2 knockout animals display discrete developmental defects that have been attributed to unrestricted FGF signaling [53–56]. Although we observe that Spry2 knockout markedly affected endothelial quiescence and integrity in vitro, Spry2 knockout mice seem to exhibit rather mild malformations without an overt vascular phenotype. This discrepancy might be due to redundancies amongst the Sprouty isoforms in in vivo models. Furthermore, exposition of the knockout animals to stress, such as severe hypoxia or high doses of growth factors, might reveal additional Spry2-specific phenotypes.

FGF signaling has been identified as a strong pro-angiogenic factor in physiological [4] and pathological situations [57]. Murakami et al. [58] have demonstrated, however, that it also plays a key role in the maintenance of vascular integrity, because disrupted FGF signaling results in severe impairment of the endothelial barrier function and eventually to a disintegration of the vasculature. Therefore, we propose that Spry2, by controlling Erk1/2 signaling, switches the response of endothelial cells to FGF2 from proliferation and migration to survival and quiescence (Fig. 7).

In conclusion, the data of the present study show for the first time that high Spry2 expression levels play a critical role in endothelial monolayer formation and stabilization by inhibiting FGF2-induced Erk1/2 signaling. This negative feedback loop may be important in situations, where endothelial monolayers form, where the regulation of basal permeability must be strict, and where vascular integrity and quiescence must be established and maintained in vivo.

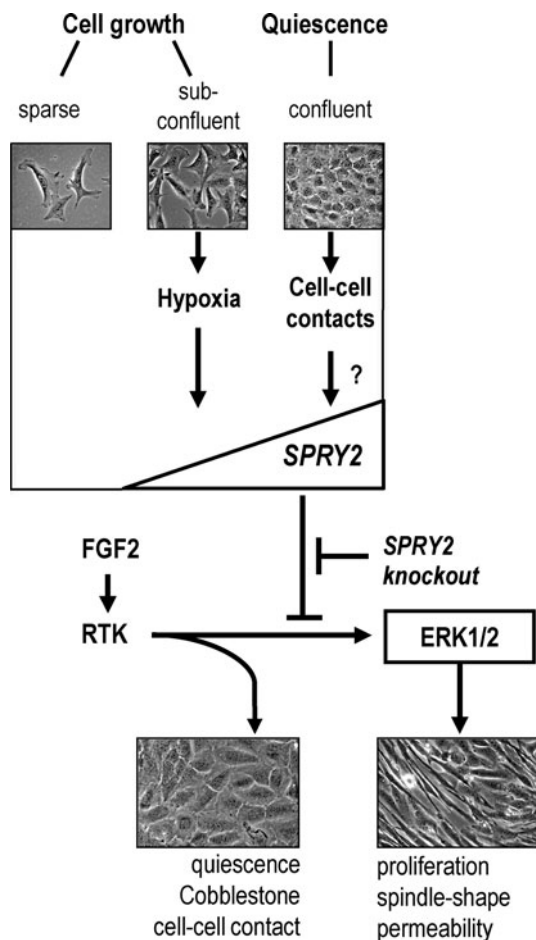


Fig. 7 A working model for the regulation of Spry2-dependent endothelial quiescence and integrity. **a** In wild type endothelial cells (*Spry2^{fl/fl}*), Spry2 is upregulated by increasing cell density via transient hypoxia in subconfluent cells and cell–cell contacts in confluent cells via a yet unknown mechanism. Spry2 expression allows the endothelial monolayer to retain its integrity and cell quiescence, upon FGF stimulation. In the absence of Spry2 (*Spry2^{-/-}*), FGF signaling extensively activates Erk1/2. Erk1/2 elicits an endothelial phenotype change from cobblestone to spindle-shaped endothelial cells, induces proliferation, and increases permeability

For example, endothelial Spry2 expression might prevent damage to the blood–brain barrier and the development of vasogenic brain edema under prolonged hypoxia at high altitude [59] or may promote vessel normalization by inhibiting extensive growth-factor signaling in cancer [60].

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Conflict of interest The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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