

1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ Causes ADAM10-Dependent Ectodomain Shedding of Tumor Necrosis Factor Receptor 1 in Vascular Smooth Muscle Cells

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Received November 30, 2014; accepted January 2, 2015

ABSTRACT

1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ (1,25D₃) has a potential antiatherosclerotic effect through anti-inflammatory actions. We investigated how 1,25D₃ regulates tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α)-induced lectin-like oxidized low-density lipoprotein receptor-1 (LOX-1) expression in cultured human aortic smooth muscle cells. TNF- α activated Rac1/reactive oxygen species/spleen tyrosine kinase and transcriptional factors, activator protein-1, and nuclear factor κ B, which led to LOX-1 expression. 1,25D₃ inhibited TNF- α -induced LOX-1 expression by inhibiting Rac1 activation and thereby its downstream signals. 1,25D₃ rapidly induced extracellular Ca²⁺ influx. Verapamil, an inhibitor of L-type calcium channels, inhibited 1,25D₃-induced Ca²⁺ influx and counteracted the inhibitory effects of 1,25D₃ on Rac1 activation, whereas Bay K8644 [1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-5-nitro-4-[2-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-3-pyridinecarboxylic acid, methyl ester], an L-type calcium channel agonist, attenuated TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation, as 1,25D₃ did. 1,25D₃ induced the

ectodomain shedding of TNF receptor 1 (TNFR1), which was abolished by verapamil and in Ca²⁺-free media. Like 1,25D₃, Bay K8644 induced the ectodomain shedding of TNFR1. Both 1,25D₃ and Bay K8644 caused the translocation of a disintegrin and metalloprotease (ADAM) 10 from the cytoplasm to the plasma membrane, which was dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺ influx. In contrast, depletion of ADAM10 by transfection of ADAM10–small interfering RNA prevented 1,25D₃- or Bay K8644-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 and abolished the suppressive effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation. Taken together, these findings suggest that 1,25D₃ induces extracellular Ca²⁺ influx via L-type calcium channel, triggering ADAM10-mediated ectodomain shedding of TNFR1, and it thereby decreases responsiveness to TNF- α . By shedding TNFR1 from the cell surface, 1,25D₃ may regulate inflammation and atherogenesis, whereas this effect could be attenuated by calcium channel blockers.

Introduction

1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ (1,25D₃) is the active form of vitamin D that regulates calcium and phosphate homeostasis (DeLuca, 2004). In addition to this classic role, 1,25D₃ has been suggested to have an antiatherosclerotic effect. In epidemiologic studies, a link was found between vitamin D deficiency and atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (Dobnig et al., 2008; Giovannucci et al., 2008). In apolipoprotein E knockout mice, 1,25D₃ administration induced a marked reduction in the formation of atherosclerotic lesions (Takeda

et al., 2010; Ish-Shalom et al., 2012). In these studies, 1,25D₃ was shown to prevent the development of atherosclerosis by changing the function or differentiation of dendritic cells and regulatory T cells (Takeda et al., 2010) or by downregulation of the renin-angiotensin system (Ish-Shalom et al., 2012). 1,25D₃ suppresses renin gene expression by blocking the binding of cAMP response element-binding protein to cAMP response element in the promoter of the gene (Yuan et al., 2007) and thereby reduces the production of angiotensin II, a potent proatherogenic peptide. Besides the suggested mechanisms, the antiatherosclerotic effect of 1,25D₃ could be mediated by its anti-inflammatory action.

Atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory disease of the arterial wall initiated by lipid overload (Legein et al., 2013). In

This work was supported by the Asian Institute for Life Sciences (Seoul, Korea) [Grant 02-200].
dx.doi.org/10.1124/mol.097147.

ABBREVIATIONS: 574711, 3-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl-methylene)-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-indole-5-sulfonamide; A23187, 5-(methylamino)-2-[[2*R*,3*R*,6*S*,8*S*,9*R*,11*R*]-3,9,11-trimethyl-8-[(1*S*)-1-methyl-2-oxo-2-(1*H*-pyrrol-2-yl)-ethyl]-1,7-dioxaspiro[5.5]undec-2-yl][methyl]-4-benzoxazolecarboxylic acid; ADAM, a disintegrin and metalloprotease; BAY 61-3606, 2-[7-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-imidazo[1,2-*c*]pyrimidin-5-ylamino]-nicotinamide, HCl; Bay K8644, 1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-5-nitro-4-[2-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-3-pyridinecarboxylic acid, methyl ester; 1,25D₃, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃; DMSO, dimethyl sulfoxide; HASMC, human aortic smooth muscle cell; HBSS, Hank's balanced salt solution; NAC, *N*-acetylcysteine; NF- κ B, nuclear factor κ B; NSC 23766, *N*⁶-[2-[[4-(diethylamino)-1-methylbutyl]amino]-6-methyl-4-pyrimidinyl]-2-methyl-4,6-quinolinediamine trihydrochloride; ODN, oligodeoxynucleotide; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PMA, phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate; ROS, reactive oxygen species; siRNA, small interfering RNA; Syk, spleen tyrosine kinase; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor α ; TNFR, tumor necrosis factor receptor; VSMC, vascular smooth muscle cell.

response to excessive accumulation of atherogenic lipoproteins in the subendothelial space, circulating monocytes are recruited and migrated into the intima and subintima and transformed into tissue macrophages (Ley et al., 2011). Proinflammatory cytokines are released from interactions among the macrophages and the cells constituting the vascular wall and contribute to the complex cascades of inflammatory processes leading to atherosclerosis (Lopponow et al., 2008).

Lectin-like oxidized-low-density lipoprotein receptor-1 (LOX-1), a receptor for oxidized low-density lipoprotein, is expressed on vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) and participates in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis (Kume and Kita, 2004; Eto et al., 2006). Through LOX-1, oxidized low-density lipoprotein stimulates VSMCs to proliferate and migrate into intima, which leads to neointima formation (Eto et al., 2006) and also causes apoptosis of VSMC, leading to plaque instability and rupture (Kume and Kita, 2004). Proinflammatory cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), stimulate VSMCs to express LOX-1 and thereby may promote the progression of atherosclerotic lesions (Hofnagel et al., 2004).

In a variety of cell types, 1,25D₃ has been shown to attenuate the effect of TNF- α . 1,25D₃ inhibited TNF- α -induced nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B) activation and expression of E-selectin in human coronary arterial endothelial cells (Suzuki et al., 2009), and it also inhibited TNF- α -induced expressions of intercellular adhesion molecule-1 and vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (Martinesi et al., 2006). In fibroblasts, 1,25D₃ suppressed the upregulation of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 induced by TNF- α (Chen et al., 2011).

Vitamin D receptor is also expressed on VSMCs (Kawashima, 1987). In the present study, therefore, we evaluated the effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced LOX-1 expression in human aortic smooth muscle cells (HASMCs) and investigated how 1,25D₃ regulates the effect of TNF- α .

Materials and Methods

We obtained 1,25D₃ from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK). TNF- α was from R&D Systems (Abingdon, UK); BAY 61-3606 (2-[7-(3,4-dimethoxyphenyl)-imidazo[1,2-c]pyrimidin-5-ylamino]-nicotinamide, HCl), spleen tyrosine kinase inhibitor 574711 (3-(1-methyl-1*H*-indol-3-yl-methylene)-2-oxo-2,3-dihydro-1*H*-indole-5-sulfonamide), (\pm)-Bay K8644 (Bay K8644; 1,4-dihydro-2,6-dimethyl-5-nitro-4-[2-(trifluoromethyl)phenyl]-3-pyridinecarboxylic acid, methyl ester), and dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) were from EMD Chemicals (Darmstadt, Germany). *N*-acetylcysteine (NAC), phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), calcium chloride, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride, and probenecid were from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO). NSC 23766 (*N*⁶-[2-[[4-(diethylamino)-1-methylbutyl]amino]-6-methyl-4-pyrimidinyl]-2-methyl-4,6-quinolinediamine trihydrochloride) and antibodies to human LOX-1, spleen tyrosine kinase (Syk), a disintegrin and metalloprotease (ADAM) 10, TNF receptor (TNFR) 1 (raised against amino acids within the extracellular domain of human TNFR1), and actin were from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Antibody to TNFR2 (recognizes the extracellular part of human TNFR2) was from Hycult Biotech Inc. (Uden, The Netherlands). Antibody to human phospho-Syk (pY525) was from Epitomics (Burlingame, CA). Rac1-small interfering RNA (siRNA), ADAM10-siRNA, control-siRNA (Ambion), and Fluo-4 AM (molecular probes) were from Life Technologies (Paisley, UK).

Cell Culture. We obtained HASMCs from Lonza Walkersville, Inc. (Walkersville, MD). Cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 (Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Biologic Industries Ltd., Cumbernauld, UK). Before each experiment, the cells were rested for

24 hours in RPMI 1640 containing 1% fetal calf serum and then refreshed with serum-free RPMI 1640 before the addition of various cell signal inhibitors and TNF- α .

Transfection of Decoy Oligodeoxynucleotides or siRNA. The phosphorothioate double-stranded oligodeoxynucleotides (ODNs) against the activator protein-1 (AP-1) or NF- κ B binding site and the mismatched ODNs were prepared by Bioneer Co. (Daejeon, Korea), as previously reported (Yang et al., 2010). The sequences of ODNs are as follows: AP-1 decoy ODN, 5'-AGCTTGTGAGTCAGAAGCT-3'; mismatched AP-1 decoy ODN, 5'-AGCTTGAATCTCAGAAGCT-3'; NF- κ B decoy ODN, 5'-AGTTGAGGGGACTTTCCCAGGC-3'; mismatched NF- κ B decoy ODN, 5'-AGTTGAGGCGACTTTCCCAGGC-3'. The double-stranded ODNs were prepared from complementary single-stranded phosphorothiolate-bonded oligonucleotides. Using Lipofectamine reagent (Life Technologies), ODNs or siRNA was transfected to cells seeded in a six-well plate and cultured for 24 hours.

Western Blot Analysis. Equal amounts of the cell lysates were separated by sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and transferred to an Immobilon-P membrane (Millipore, Bedford, MA). The membrane was probed with a primary antibody. Bands were visualized using horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody and the enhanced chemiluminescence agent (Luminata Forte Western HRP substrate; Millipore).

To detect TNFR1 or TNFR2 in cell culture supernatants, equal amounts of supernatants were precipitated with 20% trichloroacetic acid. After washing with acetone and air drying, the samples were subjected to immunoblot with anti-TNFR1 or anti-TNFR2 antibody.

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay. Oligonucleotides (Promega, Madison, WI) containing consensus binding-site sequences for AP-1 (5'-CGCTTGATGAGTCAGCCGAA-3') and NF- κ B (5'-AGTTGAGGGGACTTTTCAGGA-3') were labeled by biotin 3' end-labeling kit (Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL). Nuclear extract (5 μ g) was allowed to react on ice for 15 minutes with biotin-labeled AP-1 or NF- κ B oligonucleotides in the buffer containing 12% glycerol; 12 mM HEPES, pH7.9; 4 mM Tris-HCl, pH7.9; 1 mM EDTA; 25 mM KCl; 5 mM MgCl₂; 1 μ g/ μ l poly dI-dC (Sigma-Aldrich). Nucleoprotein-oligonucleotide complexes were resolved by electrophoresis on a 6% polyacrylamide gel at 80 V in 0.5 \times Tris/borate/EDTA buffer, and transferred to nylon membrane at 350 mA with 0.5 \times Tris/borate/EDTA buffer. The blots were UV crosslinked at 120 mJ/cm². DNA-protein complexes were detected using chemiluminescent nucleic acid detection module (Pierce Biotechnology). For the competitive assay, 80 \times excess unlabeled AP-1 or NF- κ B oligonucleotides was added in the reaction mixture before adding the biotin-labeled AP-1 or NF- κ B oligonucleotides.

Pull-Down Assay for Rac1 Activity. Rac1 activation was measured using Active Rac1 Pull-Down and Detection Kit (Pierce Biotechnology) in which glutathione *S*-transferase-human p21-activated kinase-p21 binding domain (GST-Pak1-PBD) fusion protein binds activated Rac1 (Rac1-GTP). Whole-cell lysates were incubated with GST-Pak1-PBD fusion protein. The protein-bead complexes were then recovered by centrifugation and washed. After the last wash, the protein-bead complexes were subjected to Western blot with a mouse anti-Rac1 antibody. To normalize the protein concentration of each lane, the total amount of Rac1 in whole cell lysates was also determined by Western blot analysis.

Measurement of Reactive Oxygen Species. The production of intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) was evaluated using the probe 5-(and-6)-chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR). HASMCs were preincubated with or without NSC 23766, NAC, BAY 61-3606, Syk inhibitor 574711, or 1,25D₃ for 30 minutes and further incubated with TNF- α for 30 minutes. Five minutes before the end of the incubation period, 5 μ M 5-(and-6)-chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate was added to the culture medium. After the incubation, the medium was removed, the cells were washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and intracellular ROS were visualized with a LEICA DM-IRE2 inverted microscope (Leica Microsystem GmbH, Wetzlar, Germany) attached to a Leica TCS-SP2 confocal system (excitation 488 nm, emission 520 nm).

Measurement of Intracellular Ca²⁺ by Confocal Microscopy. HASMCs cultured in a six-well plate were washed with PBS and loaded with Fluo-4 AM (2 μM) with probenecid (1.5 mM) for 10 minutes at 37°C in Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS; Ca²⁺ 1.2 mM). After incubation, the cells were gently washed twice with HBSS, preincubated with or without verapamil for 2 minutes, and then treated with DMSO (vehicle), 1,25D₃, or Bay K8644. In some experiments, the cells were treated with 1,25D₃ in Ca²⁺-free HBSS. The Fluo-4 AM in the cells was excited by wavelength at 494 nm, and fluorescence images were captured at 506 nm in 10-second intervals for 5 minutes using a Zeiss LSM710 laser-scanning confocal microscope (Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). The fluorescence intensities were quantified using ZEN 2011 imaging Software (Carl Zeiss). The change in intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration was represented by relative fluorescence intensity compared with the initial value.

Fluorescence Microscopy. To investigate the localization of ADAM10, the cells were washed with PBS, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes, permeabilized with 0.4% Triton X-100 in PBS for 10 minutes, and incubated with 1% BSA in PBS for 60 minutes to block nonspecific binding. Thereafter, the cells were incubated with goat anti-ADAM10 antibody overnight at 4°C, washed three times with PBS, and then incubated with fluorescein isothiocyanate-conjugated anti-goat IgG secondary antibody. The immunoreactivity for ADAM10 was captured using a confocal microscope.

Statistical Analysis. Data are presented as means ± S.E., with *n* representing the number of different experiments. An analysis of variance with Dunnett's multiple comparisons test was used to determine statistically significant differences between groups. A *P* value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

1,25D₃ Inhibits TNF-α-Induced LOX-1 Expression. TNF-α stimulated LOX-1 expression. In contrast, 1,25D₃ significantly attenuated TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression in a dose-dependent manner, whereas DMSO, a vehicle for 1,25D₃, had no effect (Fig. 1).

Involvement of Rac1, ROS, Syk, AP-1, and NF-κB in TNF-α-Induced LOX-1 Expression. Rac1 (a component of NADPH oxidase), ROS, and Syk are known to mediate TNF-α-induced signal transduction in other cell types (Ono et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2012). To test whether Rac1, ROS, and Syk are involved in TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression in HASMCs, the cells were preincubated with or without NSC 23766 (an inhibitor of Rac1), NAC, BAY 61-3606 (an inhibitor of Syk), Syk inhibitor 574711, or DMSO (vehicle) for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF-α. As shown in Fig. 2A, NSC 23766, NAC, BAY 61-3606, and Syk inhibitor 574711 all significantly

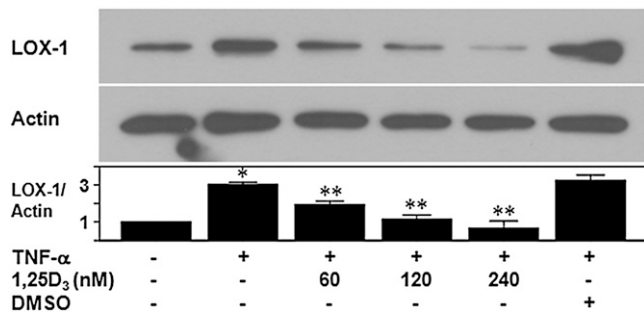


Fig. 1. 1,25D₃ inhibits TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression. HASMCs were preincubated with different concentrations of 1,25D₃ or DMSO (vehicle) for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF-α (10 ng/ml) for 24 hours. Whole-cell lysates were immunoblotted with an anti-LOX-1 antibody (*n* = 3). **P* < 0.05 compared with control; ***P* < 0.05 compared with TNF-α.

attenuated TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression, whereas DMSO had no effect.

To assess whether the transcriptional factor AP-1 or NF-κB is implicated in TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression, the cells were transfected with decoy oligodeoxynucleotides or mismatched oligodeoxynucleotides as control and then stimulated with TNF-α. Transfection of AP-1 or NF-κB decoy oligodeoxynucleotides significantly inhibited TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression, whereas mismatched AP-1 or NF-κB decoy oligodeoxynucleotides did not (Fig. 2B).

Sequence of Activations of Rac1, ROS, Syk, AP-1, and NF-κB. Because NAC attenuated TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression, we explored whether TNF-α increases ROS and the relation between ROS and Rac1 or Syk. As shown in Fig. 3A, intracellular ROS were increased by TNF-α. Pretreatment of cells with NSC 23766 or NAC greatly reduced TNF-α-induced ROS accumulation, whereas BAY 61-3606, Syk inhibitor 574711, did not.

Phosphorylation of tyrosines 525 and 526 of human Syk, which are located in the activation loop of the Syk kinase domain, is essential for its function (Zhang et al., 2000). To determine the relation between Syk and Rac1 or ROS, the cells preincubated with or without NSC 23766 or NAC for 30 minutes were stimulated with TNF-α, and then Syk activation was assessed in the immunoblot of whole-cell lysates using an anti-phospho-Syk (pY525) antibody. As shown in

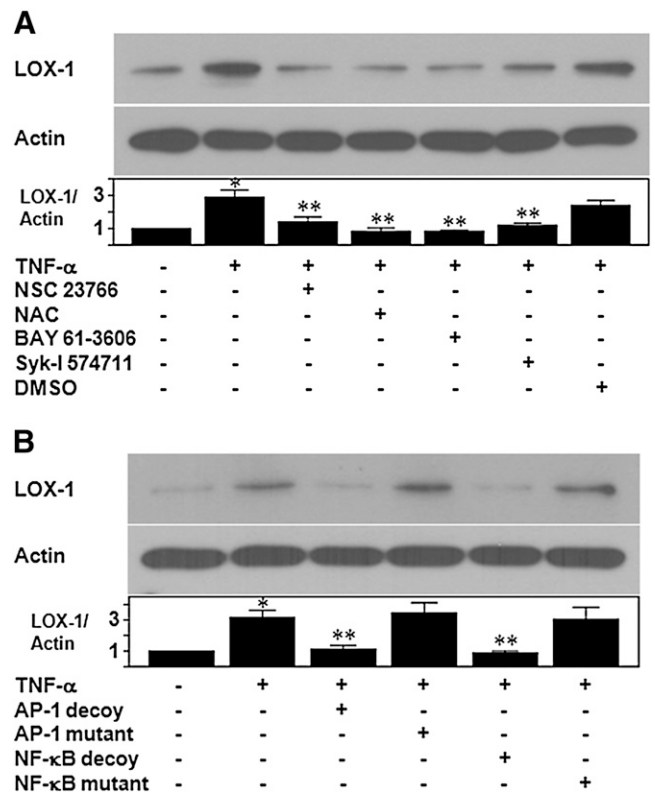


Fig. 2. Involvement of Rac1, ROS, Syk, AP-1, and NF-κB in TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression. (A) HASMCs were preincubated with NSC 23766 (50 μM), NAC (5 mM), BAY 61-3606 (1 μM), Syk inhibitor 574711 (1 μM), or DMSO (vehicle) for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF-α (10 ng/ml) for 24 hours. (B) HASMCs transfected with AP-1 or NF-κB decoy oligodeoxynucleotides, or mismatched oligodeoxynucleotides were incubated with TNF-α (10 ng/ml) for 24 hours. Whole-cell lysates were immunoblotted with an anti-LOX-1 antibody (*n* = 3). **P* < 0.05 compared with control; ***P* < 0.05 compared with TNF-α.

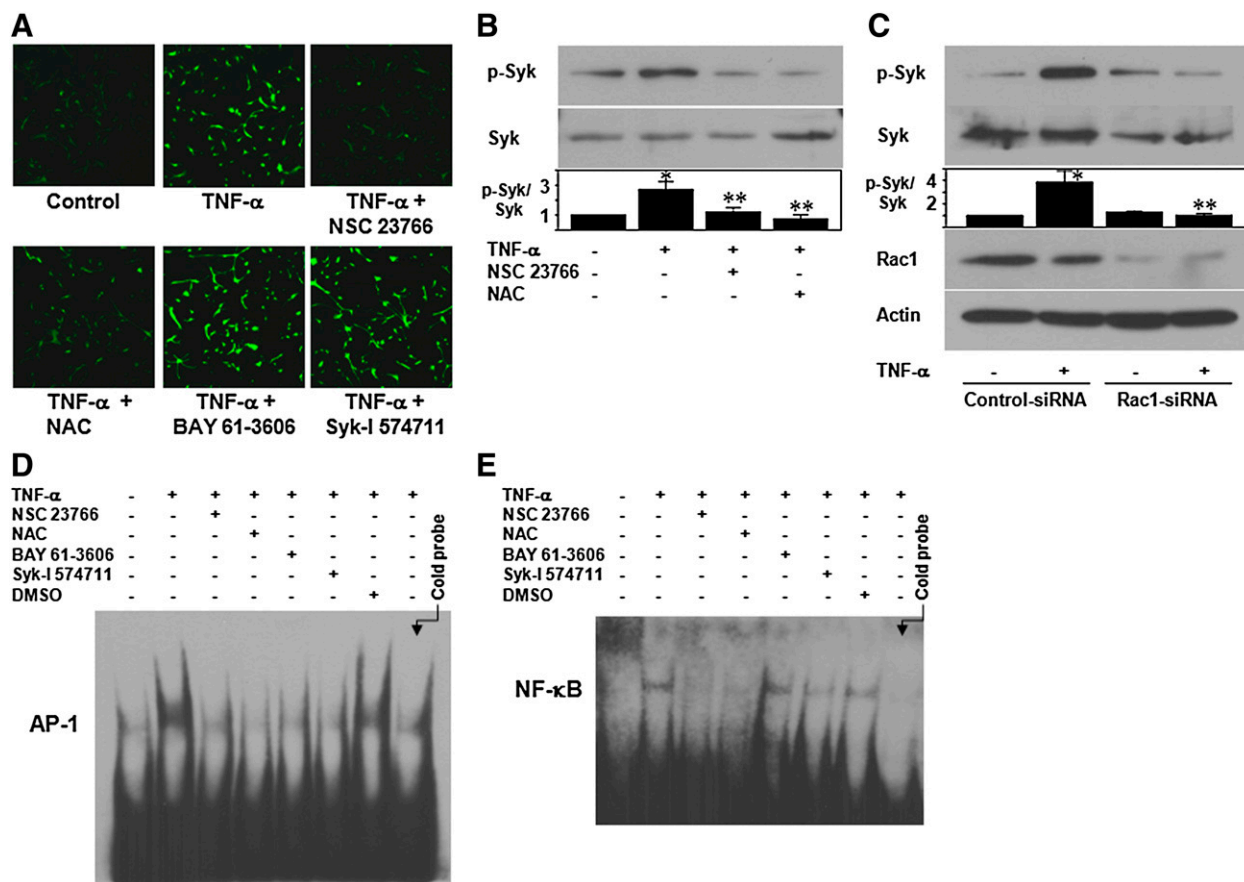


Fig. 3. Sequence of activations of Rac1, ROS, Syk, AP-1, and NF- κ B. (A) Rac1 and Syk in ROS generation. HASMCs preincubated with NSC 23766 (50 μ M), NAC (5 mM), BAY 61-3606 (1 μ M), or Syk inhibitor 574711 (1 μ M) for 30 minutes were incubated with TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 30 minutes. Intracellular ROS reacted with 5-(and-6)-chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate was visualized with confocal microscopy (200 \times). The result shown is representative of three independent experiments. (B and C) Rac1 and ROS precede Syk activation. HASMCs preincubated with NSC 23766 or NAC were stimulated with TNF- α for 30 minutes (B). HASMCs transfected with control-siRNA or Rac1-siRNA were stimulated with TNF- α for 30 minutes (C). Whole-cell lysates were immunoblotted with an anti-phospho-Syk antibody ($n = 4$). * $P < 0.05$ compared with control; ** $P < 0.05$ compared with TNF- α . (D and E) Rac1, ROS, and Syk regulate AP-1 and NF- κ B activation. HASMCs preincubated with NSC 23766, NAC, BAY 61-3606, Syk inhibitor 574711, or DMSO were stimulated with TNF- α for 30 minutes. The nuclear extracts were assayed for the ability to bind biotin-labeled AP-1 (D) or NF- κ B (E) oligonucleotides by electrophoretic mobility shift assay. The results shown are representative of three independent experiments.

Fig. 3B, TNF- α increased Tyr525 phosphorylation of Syk. In contrast, both NSC 23766 and NAC inhibited TNF- α -induced Syk activation. Depletion of Rac1 by transfection of Rac1-siRNA also attenuated TNF- α -induced Syk activation (Fig. 3C).

To evaluate whether Rac1, ROS, and Syk are linked to AP-1 or NF- κ B activation, the cells were preincubated with or without NSC 23766, NAC, BAY 61-3606, Syk inhibitor 574711, or DMSO for 30 minutes and then incubated with TNF- α for 15 minutes. The nuclear fraction was separated and subjected to electrophoretic mobility shift assay. NSC 23766 and NAC markedly attenuated TNF- α -induced DNA-binding activities of AP-1 and NF- κ B (Fig. 3, D and E). Syk inhibitors, both BAY 61-3606 and Syk inhibitor 574711, markedly attenuated TNF- α -induced DNA-binding activities of AP-1, but not NF- κ B (Fig. 3, D and E).

Next, the cells were incubated with or without TNF- α , and active Rac1 in the whole-cell lysates was measured using GST-Pak1-PBD. As shown in Fig. 4A, TNF- α activated Rac1 within 15 minutes.

1,25D₃ Inhibits TNF- α -Induced Rac1 Activation and Thereby Inhibits Its Downstream Signals. To determine how 1,25D₃ attenuates TNF- α -induced LOX-1 expression, we evaluated the effects of 1,25D₃ on the activations of Rac1, ROS,

Syk, AP-1, and NF- κ B. As shown in Fig. 4, 1,25D₃ inhibited TNF- α -induced activations of Rac1 and Syk and attenuated the increases in ROS and DNA-binding activities of AP-1 and NF- κ B.

Inhibitory Effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -Induced Rac1 Activation Is Dependent on Activation of L-Type Calcium Channels. 1,25D₃ activates L-type calcium channels (de Boland and Boland, 1994). We investigated whether activation of L-type calcium channels is involved in 1,25D₃ inhibition of Rac1 activation. The cells were preincubated with verapamil, 1,25D₃, or verapamil plus 1,25D₃ for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α . In the cells preincubated with verapamil plus 1,25D₃, verapamil was added 2 minutes before 1,25D₃. As shown in Fig. 5A, verapamil did not have an effect on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation but counteracted the inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃.

Bay K8644 is an L-type calcium channel agonist (Wahler and Sperelakis, 1984). To determine whether Bay K8644 has a similar effect, we preincubated the cells with or without Bay K8644 for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α . As shown in Fig. 5B, Bay K8644 also inhibited TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation in a dose-dependent manner.

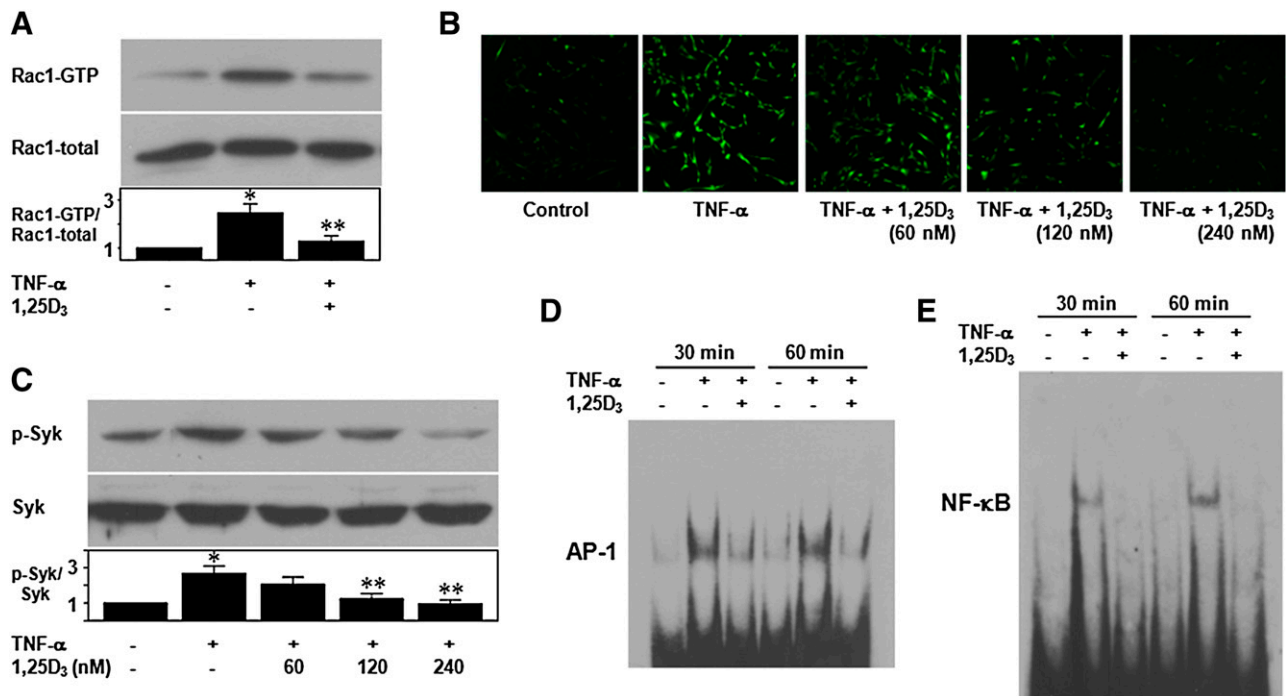


Fig. 4. 1,25D₃ inhibits TNF- α -induced Rac1, ROS, Syk activation, and AP-1 and NF- κ B DNA binding activities. (A) HASMCs were preincubated with 1,25D₃ (120 nM) for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 15 minutes. Active Rac1 (Rac1-GTP) in whole-cell lysate was precipitated using GST-Pak1-PBD beads and analyzed by Western blotting. Total Rac1 in whole-cell lysate was also analyzed ($n = 4$). * $P < 0.05$ compared with control; ** $P < 0.05$ compared with TNF- α . (B) HASMCs were preincubated with 1,25D₃ for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α for 30 minutes. Intracellular ROS reacted with 5-(and-6)-chloromethyl-2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate was visualized with confocal microscopy (200 \times). The result shown is representative of three independent experiments. (C) HASMCs were preincubated with 1,25D₃ for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α for 30 minutes. Whole-cell lysates were immunoblotted with an anti-phospho-Syk antibody ($n = 4$). * $P < 0.05$ compared with control; ** $P < 0.05$ compared with TNF- α . (D and E) HASMCs preincubated with 1,25D₃ (120 nM) were stimulated with TNF- α . The nuclear extracts were assayed for the ability to bind biotin-labeled AP-1 (D) or NF- κ B (E) oligonucleotides by electrophoretic mobility shift assay. The results shown are representative of three independent experiments.

1,25D₃ Stimulates Extracellular Ca²⁺ Influx through L-type Calcium Channels. The findings that the effect of 1,25D₃ was abolished by L-type calcium channel antagonist verapamil and was mimicked by L-type calcium channel activator Bay K8644 suggest that Ca²⁺ influx may be important in the action of 1,25D₃. Thus, we tested whether 1,25D₃ induces Ca²⁺ influx in HASMCs using Fluo-4 AM, a calcium fluorescent indicator. As shown in Fig. 6, 1,25D₃ induced a significant increase in the intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺ (1.2 mM), whereas DMSO (vehicle) did not. The fluorescent signal intensity reached a maximum rapidly within minutes after 1,25D₃ addition and then began to decrease slowly. In contrast, 1,25D₃-induced increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ was negligible in Ca²⁺-free media, which indicates that 1,25D₃ induces an increase in intracellular Ca²⁺ through extracellular Ca²⁺ influx. In addition, 1,25D₃-induced Ca²⁺ influx was abolished by 2-minute preincubation with verapamil. Like 1,25D₃, Bay K8644 induced a rapid increase in the intracellular Ca²⁺ concentration in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺ (1.2 mM), whereas this increase was abolished by preincubation with verapamil.

Extracellular Ca²⁺ Influx Stimulated by 1,25D₃ Leads to the Ectodomain Shedding of TNFR1 but Not TNFR2. In a previous study (Porteu and Nathan, 1990), TNF receptors on neutrophils were shed by calcium ionophore that was used as an agent to activate protein kinase C. Because calcium ionophore allows Ca²⁺ to cross the cell membrane and thereby induces extracellular Ca²⁺ influx, we explored whether

Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channels causes shedding of TNFR1 or TNFR2 in cells treated with 1,25D₃. The cells were incubated with 1,25D₃, 1,25D₃ plus verapamil, Bay K8644, or calcium ionophore A23187 [5-(methylamino)-2-[[2*R*,3*R*,6*S*,8*S*,9*R*,11*R*]-3,9,11-trimethyl-8-[(1*S*)-1-methyl-2-oxo-2-(1*H*-pyrrol-2-yl)-ethyl]-1,7-dioxaspiro[5.5]undec-2-yl]methyl]-4-benzoxazolecarboxylic acid] for 30 minutes, and then cell lysates and culture media were analyzed by Western blotting using anti-TNFR1 antibody recognizing the extracellular domain. In cells treated with verapamil plus 1,25D₃, verapamil was added 2 minutes before 1,25D₃. 1,25D₃ decreased TNFR1 in the cell lysate, and this was accompanied by an increase in the amount of soluble TNFR1 in the medium (Fig. 7A), which was located between 25 and 35 kDa in size, being close to 25-kDa. The changes in TNFR1 by 1,25D₃ were abrogated by verapamil. Both Bay K8644 and calcium ionophore A23187 also increased the amount of soluble TNFR1 in the medium while decreasing TNFR1 expression in the cells (Fig. 7A).

To determine whether extracellular Ca²⁺ is required for 1,25D₃-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1, we tested the effect of 1,25D₃ on the cells in Ca²⁺-free media. As shown in Fig. 7B, 1,25D₃ failed to induce ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺.

RPMI 1640 media, which was used in the present study, contains low Ca²⁺ (0.42 mM) compared with the physiologic level (1.1–1.35 mM). To determine the effect of 1,25D₃ on the cells in physiologic extracellular Ca²⁺ concentration, we

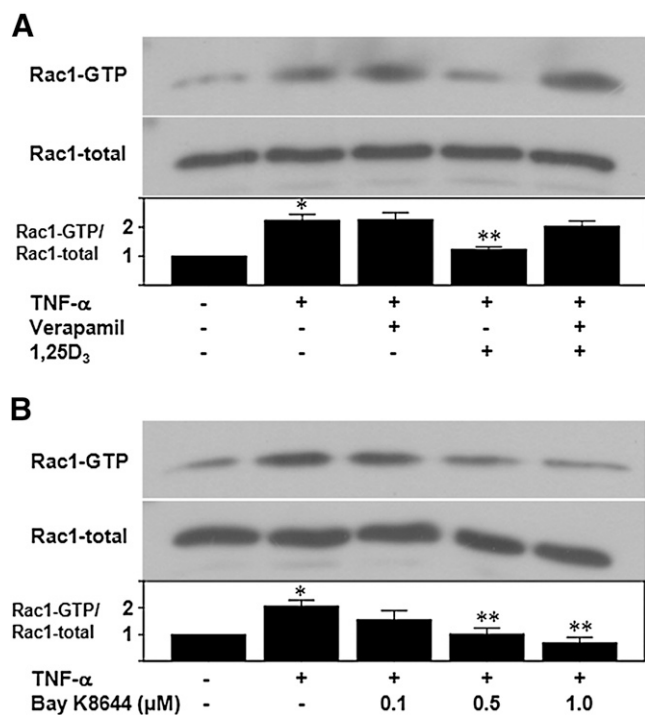


Fig. 5. Inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation is dependent on activation of L-type calcium channels. (A) Verapamil counteracts the inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation. HASMCs were preincubated with verapamil (1 μ M), 1,25D₃ (120 nM), or verapamil (1 μ M) plus 1,25D₃ (120 nM) for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 15 minutes. In the cells preincubated with verapamil plus 1,25D₃, verapamil was added 2 minutes before 1,25D₃. (B) Bay K8644 inhibits TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation. HASMCs were preincubated with different concentrations of Bay K8644 for 30 minutes and then stimulated with TNF- α (10 ng/ml) for 15 minutes. Active Rac1 in whole-cell lysate was precipitated using GST-Pak1-PBD beads and analyzed by Western blotting. Total Rac1 in whole-cell lysate was also analyzed. A representative blot from one of three independent experiments is shown. The bar graph shows the relative densities of Rac1-GTP/total Rac1 bands ($n = 3$). * $P < 0.05$ compared with control; ** $P < 0.05$ compared with TNF- α .

increased the Ca²⁺ concentration of RPMI 1640 media to 1.2 mM by adding calcium chloride. In this condition, 1,25D₃ induced TNFR1 shedding at concentrations of 0.1–100 nM in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 7C) and more potently than in RPMI 1640 media containing 0.42 mM Ca²⁺. We also tested the time course of TNFR1 ectodomain shedding of the cells in RPMI 1640 media containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺. Most of the ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 occurred within 10 minutes after treatment with 1,25D₃ (Fig. 7D).

TNF- α and PMA are known to induce the ectodomain shedding of TNFR2 (Dri et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2001). In another experiment, the cells were incubated with 1,25D₃, TNF- α , or PMA (the latter two as positive controls), and soluble TNFR2 in the medium and cell lysates was measured by Western blotting using anti-TNFR2 antibody recognizing the extracellular domain. As shown in Fig. 7E, both TNF- α and PMA induced the ectodomain shedding of TNFR2, whereas 1,25D₃ did not.

ADAM10 Is the Sheddase Responsible for 1,25D₃-Induced Ectodomain Shedding of TNFR1. ADAMs, membrane-anchored metalloproteinases, are known to cleave the ectodomains of cell surface receptors (van der Vorst et al., 2012). Because Ca²⁺ influx is known to activate ADAM10

(Saftig and Reiss, 2011), we investigated the role of ADAM10 in 1,25D₃-induced TNFR1 ectodomain cleavage. At first, we examined the location of ADAM10 by immunocytochemical staining and confocal microscopy (Fig. 8A). ADAM10 was detected predominantly in the cytoplasm of untreated cells. On treatment with 1,25D₃, ADAM10 immunoreactivity increased at the cell surface. In contrast, preincubation with verapamil inhibited 1,25D₃-induced ADAM10 translocation to the cell surface, and 1,25D₃ failed to induce ADAM10 translocation in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺. Like 1,25D₃, Bay K8644 also induced ADAM10 translocation to the cell surface in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺ (1.2 mM), whereas this translocation was abolished by preincubation with verapamil. In another experiment, we transfected the cells with control siRNA or ADAM10-siRNA, and treated them with 1,25D₃ or Bay K8644. In Western blot (Fig. 8, B–D), the anti-ADAM10 antibody detected mature ADAM10 (60 kDa), but not the ADAM10 precursor (100 kDa). Depletion of ADAM10 markedly decreased the ectodomain cleavage of TNFR1 induced by either 1,25D₃ (Fig. 8B) or Bay K8644 (Fig. 8C).

We further investigated whether depletion of ADAM10 reverses the inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation. As shown in Fig. 8D, 1,25D₃ had little effect on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation when ADAM10 was depleted.

Discussion

1,25D₃ was shown to suppress the effects of TNF- α in many previous studies, but the mechanism has not been clarified. The present study demonstrated that 1,25D₃ inhibits TNF- α -induced LOX-1 expression in HASMCs and suggested the mechanism as follows: 1,25D₃ induces extracellular Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channel, resulting in translocation of ADAM10 to the plasma membrane, which in turn causes ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 and thereby decreases responsiveness to TNF- α .

To induce LOX-1 expression in HASMCs, TNF- α activated Rac1 and increased ROS, which in turn activated transcriptional factors AP-1 and NF- κ B. NADPH oxidase generates superoxide or H₂O₂. Rac1 is a component of NADPH oxidase, and its activation is suggested to stimulate NADPH oxidase activity (Hordijk, 2006). In the present study, NSC 23766, a Rac1 inhibitor, abolished the increase in ROS. Syk was also activated as a downstream signal of ROS, and mediated activation of AP-1, but not NF- κ B. 1,25D₃ inhibited activations of all the tested mediators on the signal pathway, including Rac1, ROS, Syk, AP-1, and NF- κ B. Taken together, the findings suggest that 1,25D₃ attenuates TNF- α -induced LOX-1 expression by inhibiting activation of Rac1 or earlier steps and thereby subsequent downstream signals.

1,25D₃ interacts with vitamin D receptor and generates genomic responses in the nucleus via either upregulation or downregulation of gene transcription, whereas it also binds to vitamin D receptor in the plasma membrane to generate nongenomic responses (Haussler et al., 2011). Through the latter mode of action, 1,25D₃ induces rapid activation of L-type calcium channels, causing Ca²⁺ influx from the extracellular space within a few minutes in osteoblasts and skeletal muscle cells (de Boland and Boland, 1987; Uchida et al., 2010). The present study also showed that 1,25D₃ rapidly induces extracellular Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channels in HASMCs; 1,25D₃ rapidly increased intracellular Ca²⁺, whereas

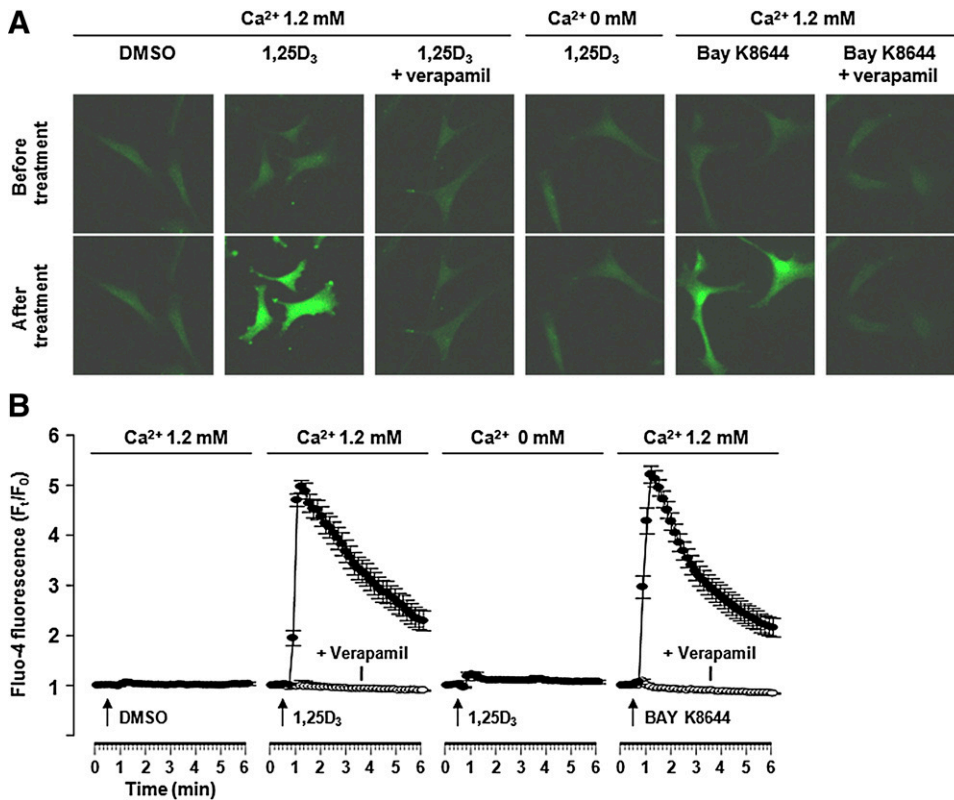


Fig. 6. 1,25D₃ induces extracellular Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channel. HASMCs were loaded with Fluo-4 AM (2 μM) and then treated with DMSO (vehicle), 1,25D₃ (100 nM), or Bay K8644 (1 μM) with or without 2-minute preincubation with verapamil (1 μM). The experiments were performed on the cells in HBSS containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺ or HBSS free of Ca²⁺. Additions of DMSO, 1,25D₃, and Bay K8644 are indicated by arrows. (A) Representative images before and after treatment. (B) Time-response traces of intracellular Ca²⁺ fluorescence intensity (mean ± S.E. of *n* = 47–63 cells in each group from three independent experiments).

this increase was undetectable in the absence of extracellular Ca²⁺, and 1,25D₃-induced extracellular Ca²⁺ influx was abolished by the L-type calcium channel antagonist verapamil. The key finding in the present study was that the activation of L-type calcium channels was essential for 1,25D₃ inhibition of TNF-α-induced Rac1 activation. Verapamil itself did not have an effect on TNF-α-induced Rac1 activation, but it completely reversed the inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF-α-induced Rac1 activation. In addition, Bay K8644, an L-type calcium channel agonist, mimicked 1,25D₃ by inhibiting TNF-α-induced Rac1 activation.

TNF-α exerts its effects by binding to two cell surface receptors, the 55-kDa type 1 (TNFR1) and the 75-kDa type 2 (TNFR2) TNF receptors (Cabal-Hierro and Lazo, 2012). TNFR1 is expressed in almost all cell types, whereas TNFR2 exhibits more restricted expression, being found on lymphoid cells and endothelial cells (Maddahi et al., 2011). VSMCs were shown to express TNFR2 as well as TNFR1 (Maddahi et al., 2011). TNF receptors are transmembrane glycoproteins consisting of extracellular, transmembrane and intracellular regions (Cabal-Hierro and Lazo, 2012). In the present study, 1,25D₃ caused ectodomain shedding of TNFR1, whereas it had no effect on TNFR2. Cleavage of TNFR1 leads to the release of soluble TNFR1, which not only reduces the number of receptors available on the outside of cells but also causes neutralization of TNF-α in the extracellular space by binding of soluble TNFR1 to TNF-α and thereby decreases responsiveness to TNF-α (Wallach et al., 1991). As in Rac1 activation, verapamil reversed 1,25D₃-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1. In the absence of Ca²⁺ in the culture media, 1,25D₃ failed to induce ectodomain shedding of TNFR1. In addition, calcium ionophore A23187 as well as Bay K8644 also induced ectodomain shedding of

TNFR1. Thus, our findings indicate that 1,25D₃ causes ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 and this effect is dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺ influx.

ADAMs are enzymes that cleave the extracellular domains of various cell surface molecules, and there are 12 proteolytically active ADAMs (van der Vorst et al., 2012). ADAM-mediated shedding is induced by different stimuli with activation of different sheddase, depending on the stimulus. For example, both PMA and ionomycin induce ectodomain cleavage of CD44, a type I transmembrane protein functioning as the major cellular adhesion molecule for hyaluronic acid, but the responsible sheddase is different. PMA induces the shedding by activating ADAM17, whereas ionomycin, an agent causing extracellular Ca²⁺ influx, induces it by activating ADAM10 (Nagano et al., 2004). So far, ADAMs 17 and 8, but not ADAM10, are known to cleave the extracellular domain of TNFR1 (Bell et al., 2007; Bartsch et al., 2010). In most studies, ADAM17 has been identified as a TNFR1 sheddase, but ADAM8 was responsible for shedding of TNFR1 in the isolated primary neurons and microglia stimulated with TNF-α (Bartsch et al., 2010). Because ADAM17 cleaves TNFR2 as well as TNFR1 (Saftig and Reiss, 2011), shedding of TNFR1, but not TNFR2 by 1,25D₃ in the present study, suggests that ADAM17 is not the responsible sheddase. For the mechanism of ionomycin-induced ADAM10 activation, extracellular Ca²⁺ influx was suggested to increase the conversion of pro-ADAM10 to the mature form (Nagano et al., 2004), but this was not the case in the present study since both 1,25D₃ and Bay K8644 did not increase the mature form of ADAM10 in the whole-cell lysates. To cleave the ectodomain of TNFR1 at the cell surface, the responsible sheddase should be located in the plasma membrane. In untreated cells, ADAM10 was detected predominantly in the

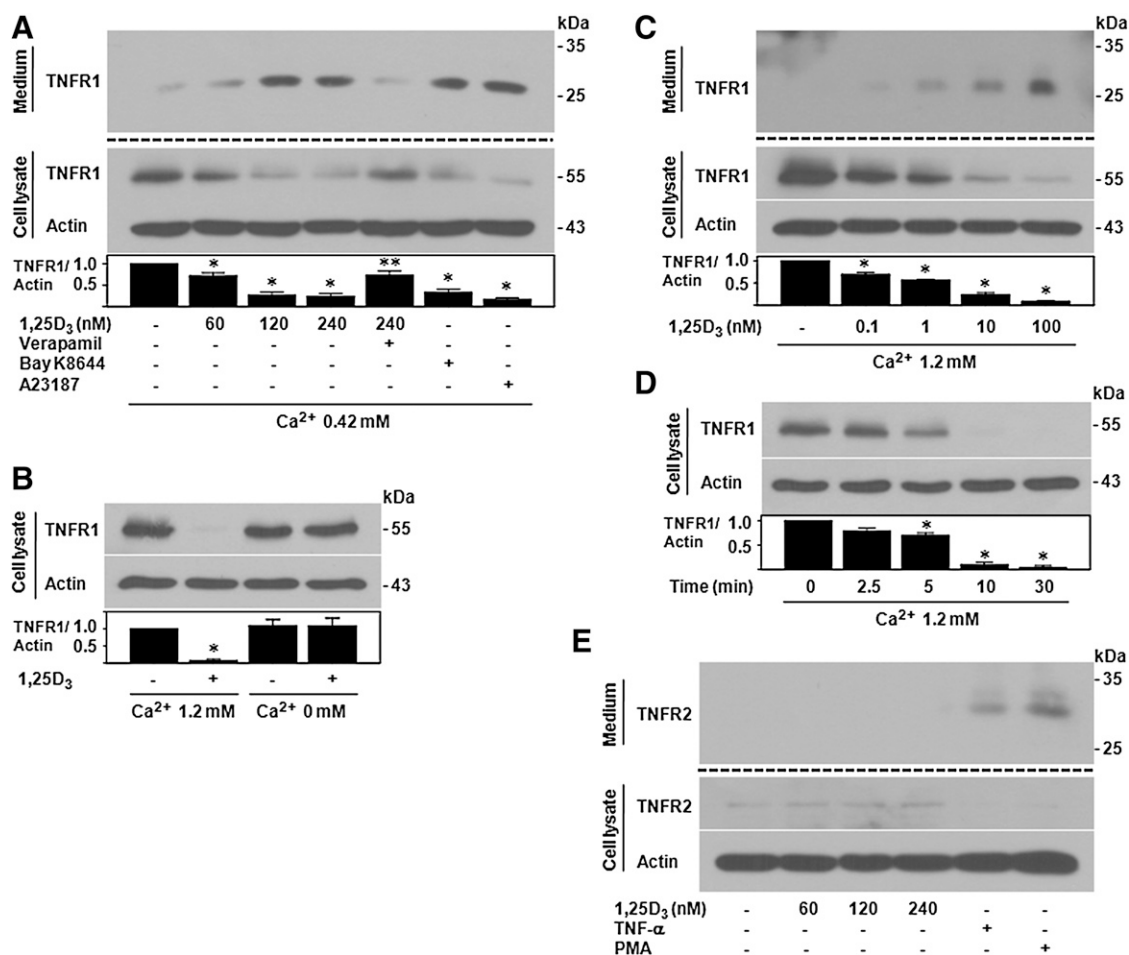


Fig. 7. 1,25D₃ induces the ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 but not TNFR2; the TNFR1 shedding is dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺ influx. (A) HASMCs in RPMI 1640 media (calcium 0.42 mM) were incubated with 1,25D₃, verapamil (1 μ M) plus 1,25D₃, Bay K8644 (1 μ M), or calcium ionophore A23187 (2 μ M) for 30 minutes ($n = 3$). In the cells incubated with verapamil plus 1,25D₃, verapamil was added 2 minutes before 1,25D₃. (B) HASMCs were incubated with 1,25D₃ (100 nM) for 30 minutes in DMEM media containing 1.2 mM Ca²⁺ or DMEM media free of Ca²⁺ ($n = 5$). (C and D) HASMCs in calcium-supplemented RPMI 1640 media (Ca²⁺ 1.2 mM) were incubated with different concentrations of 1,25D₃ for 30 minutes or 1,25D₃ (100 nM) for different times ($n = 3$). (E) HASMCs in RPMI 1640 media (calcium 0.42 mM) were incubated with 1,25D₃, TNF- α (10 ng/ml), or PMA (20 ng/ml) for 30 minutes ($n = 3$). Culture media and cell lysates were analyzed by Western blotting using anti-TNFR1 (A–D) or TNFR2 antibody (E). * $P < 0.05$ compared with control; ** $P < 0.05$ compared with 1,25D₃ (240 nM).

cytoplasm, but 1,25D₃ induced ADAM10 translocation to the plasma membrane. This effect was dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺ influx because 1,25D₃ failed to translocate ADAM10 when cells were preincubated with verapamil or when Ca²⁺ was absent in the culture media. Consistent with it, the L-type calcium channel agonist Bay K8644 also increased ADAM10 translocation to the plasma membrane whereas this effect was inhibited by verapamil. Our study also showed that depletion of ADAM10 by transfection of ADAM10-siRNA prevented 1,25D₃-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 and abolished the suppressive effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF- α -induced Rac1 activation. Bay K8644-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 was also prevented by the depletion of ADAM10. Based on the findings, it was considered that 1,25D₃ causes extracellular Ca²⁺ influx, which triggers translocation of ADAM10 to the plasma membrane, which in turn makes it possible to cleave the ectodomain of TNFR1 at the cell surface.

The driving force for Ca²⁺ influx induced by 1,25D₃ may depend on the concentration gradient between extracellular calcium and intracellular calcium. Normally, extracellular concentrations of calcium are in the range of 2.2–2.6 mM. About

50% of the total calcium in the plasma exists in the ionized form (1.10–1.35 mM) (Peacock, 2010). Compared with extracellular calcium, intracellular calcium concentrations are much low (about 100 nM in the resting state) (Guerini et al., 2005). This large concentration gradient across the cell membrane is formed by various plasma membrane calcium pumps and Na⁺/Ca⁺⁺ exchanger. In the present study, the ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 induced by 1,25D₃ was dose-dependent and was significant at concentrations as low as 100 pM when calcium concentration in the culture media was adjusted to 1.2 mM.

TNF- α is crucially involved in the pathogenesis and progression of atherosclerosis by altering endothelial and vascular smooth muscle cell function (Kleinbongard et al., 2010). It induces the expression of LOX-1 in vascular smooth muscle cells as well as endothelial cells (Kume et al., 1998; DeLuca, 2004; Hofnagel et al., 2004). In animal models, overexpression of LOX-1 accelerated intramyocardial vasculopathy and the atheroma-like lesion (Inoue et al., 2005), whereas deletion of LOX-1 reduced atherosclerosis (Mehta et al., 2007). Thus, LOX-1 is considered a possible therapeutic target for the treatment of atherosclerotic diseases (Xu et al., 2013). The present study

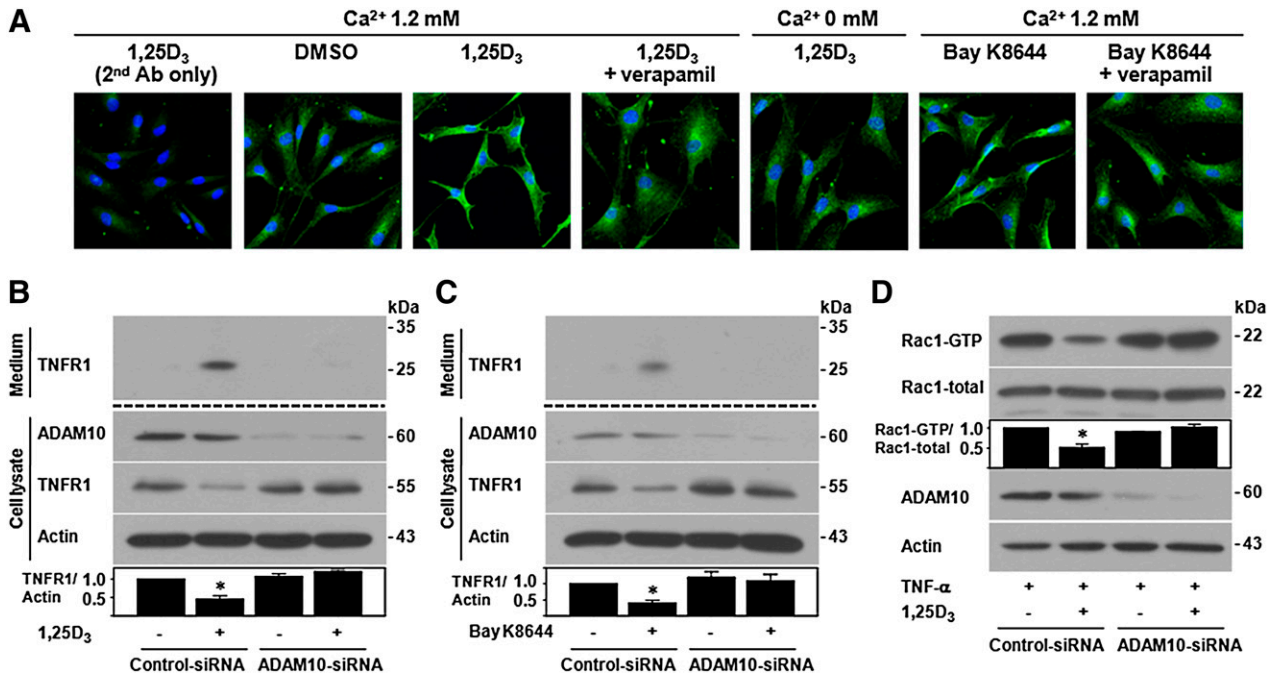


Fig. 8. ADAM10 is the sheddase responsible for 1,25D₃-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1. (A) 1,25D₃ induces extracellular Ca²⁺-influx-dependent ADAM10 translocation from the cytoplasm to the plasma membrane. HASMCs in 1.2 mM Ca²⁺ containing media were incubated for 10 minutes with DMSO (vehicle), 1,25D₃ (100 nM), or Bay K8644 (1 μM) with or without 2-minute preincubation with verapamil (1 μM). In another well, the cells in Ca²⁺-free media were also incubated for 10 minutes with 1,25D₃ (100 nM), after which the cells were permeabilized with Triton-X and immunostained for ADAM10 and visualized with confocal microscopy. Cell nuclei were stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole dihydrochloride. Representative images from three independent experiments with similar results are shown. Note that ADAM10 immunoreactivity at the surface of the cells treated with 1,25D₃ or Bay K8644 in the presence of extracellular Ca²⁺ (1.2 mM). (B and C) Depletion of ADAM10 abolishes 1,25D₃- or Bay K8644-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1. HASMCs were transfected with control-siRNA or ADAM10-siRNA and then incubated with 1,25D₃ (120 nM) (B) or Bay K8644 (1 μM) (C) for 30 minutes. Culture media and cell lysates were analyzed by Western blotting using anti-TNFR1 antibody (*n* = 3). **P* < 0.05 compared with control. (D) Depletion of ADAM10 abolishes the inhibitory effect of 1,25D₃ on TNF-α-induced Rac1 activation. HASMCs were transfected with control-siRNA or ADAM10-siRNA, preincubated with or without 1,25D₃ (120 nM) for 30 minutes, and then stimulated with TNF-α (10 ng/ml) for 15 minutes. Active Rac1 (Rac1-GTP) in whole-cell lysate was precipitated using GST-Pak1-PBD beads and analyzed by Western blotting. Total Rac1 in whole-cell lysate was also analyzed. (*n* = 3). **P* < 0.05 compared with control.

shows that 1,25D₃ inhibits TNF-α-induced LOX-1 expression on HASMCs. In view of the mechanism of inhibition revealed in the present study, however, 1,25D₃ is likely to attenuate the overall effects of TNF-α rather than to inhibit specifically the expression of LOX-1. Calcium channel blockers are commonly used for arrhythmia or hypertension. Because 1,25D₃-induced ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 was dependent on extracellular Ca²⁺ influx through L-type calcium channels, our data also suggest that calcium channel blockers may interfere with the anti-inflammatory and antiatherosclerotic actions of 1,25D₃, but this possibility needs to be further investigated in the animal or human studies.

In summary, 1,25D₃ causes ADAM10-mediated ectodomain shedding of TNFR1 in HASMCs. By shedding TNFR1 from the cell surface, 1,25D₃ may participate in the regulation of inflammation and atherogenesis, whereas this effect could be attenuated by calcium channel blockers.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Kim Jin Ju and Moon Soo Young for excellent technical assistance.

Authorship Contributions

Participated in research design: Yang, Park.
 Conducted experiments: J. M. Lee, Han, Kim.
 Performed data analysis: Yang, Park, M. J. Lee.
 Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Yang, Kim, M. J. Lee, Park.

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