Effects of hydrogen peroxide on voltage-dependent $K^+$ currents in human cardiac fibroblasts through protein kinase pathways

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ABSTRACT
Human cardiac fibroblasts (HCFs) have various voltage-dependent $K^+$ channels (VDKCs) that can induce apoptosis. Hydrogen peroxide (H$_2$O$_2$) modulates VDKCs and induces oxidative stress, which is the main contributor to cardiac injury and cardiac remodeling. We investigated whether H$_2$O$_2$ could modulate VDKCs in HCFs and induce cell injury through this process. In whole-cell mode patch-clamp recordings, application of H$_2$O$_2$ stimulated Ca$^{2+}$-activated $K^+$ (KCa) currents but not delayed rectifier $K^+$ or transient outward $K^+$ currents, all of which are VDKCs. H$_2$O$_2$-stimulated KCa currents were blocked by iberiotoxin (IbTX, a large conductance KCa blocker). The H$_2$O$_2$-stimulating effect on large-conductance KCa (BKCa) currents was also blocked by KT5823 (a protein kinase G inhibitor) and 1 H-[1, 2, 4] oxadiazolo-[4, 3-a] quinoxalin-1-one (ODQ, a soluble guanylate cyclase inhibitor). In addition, 8-bromo-cyclic guanosine 3’, 5’-monophosphate (8-Br-cGMP) stimulated BKCa currents. In contrast, KT5720 and H-89 (protein kinase A inhibitors) did not block the H$_2$O$_2$-stimulating effect on BKCa currents. Using RT-PCR and western blot analysis, three subtypes of KCa channels were detected in HCFs: BKCa channels, small-conductance KCa (SKCa) channels, and intermediate-conductance KCa (IKCa) channels. In the annexin V/propidium iodide assay, apoptotic changes in HCFs increased in response to H$_2$O$_2$, but IbTX decreased H$_2$O$_2$-induced apoptosis. These data suggest that among the VDKCs of HCFs, H$_2$O$_2$ only enhances BKCa currents through the protein kinase G pathway but not the protein kinase A pathway, and is involved in cell injury through BKCa channels.

INTRODUCTION
Cardiac fibroblasts (CFs) are the largest population of cells in the heart, and they play a critical role in maintaining its normal function and homeostasis [1]. These cells contribute to the structural, biochemical, mechanical, and electrical characteristics of the heart and are the main source of collagen, which is the most important component of the cardiac extracellular matrix [2]. Excessive extracellular matrix deposition and CFs proliferation lead to heart failure, sudden cardiac death, and other serious complications [3]; therefore, these cells act as mediators of inflammatory and fibrotic myocardial remodeling in injured hearts [4,5].

It has been reported that extensive networks exist between CFs and cardiomyocytes through numerous anatomical contacts, which suggests potential heterocellular electrical coupling in diseased myocardium in arrhythmogenesis [2,6,7]. The ion channels present in cardiomyocytes and their functions
have been well studied. CFs also have multiple ion channels, but their distribution and properties are quite distinct from those in cardiomyocytes [8]. It is well known that K’ channel-mediated signals, especially from voltage-dependent K’ channels (VDKCs), play an important role in cell death or apoptosis in many cell types [9-13]. There are two types of VDKCs, Ca2+-activated K’ (Kca) channels and voltage-gated K’ (Kv) channels. These channels are found in nearly every cell type, which suggests their physiological importance.

Kca channels can regulate membrane potential and intracellular K’ concentration, and constitute a major link between second messengers and the electrical activity of cells. There are three families of Kca channels that are based on differences in their biophysical and pharmacological properties, large-conductance Kca (BKca or Kca,1.1), intermediate-conductance Kca (IKca or Kca,3.1), and small-conductance Kca (SKca or Kca,2.x) channels. The ubiquitous BKca channels are composed of pore-forming α subunits and four auxiliary β subunits, and gating is regulated by Ca2+ and membrane voltage [14]. BKca currents have large conductances of 100–250 and 200–300 pS in physiological K’ gradients and a symmetrical 140 mM K’ solution, respectively [15]. In contrast, IKca channels are voltage-independent and have intermediate single channel conductance values of 20–80 pS in physiological conditions [16]. Finally, SKca channels have a small unitary conductance of 4–14 pS [17].

Kv channels modulate electrical excitability, regulate the repolarization of action potential, and are divided into two subfamilies, delayed rectifier K’ (KDr) or transient outward K’ (KT). KDr channels show fast activating kinetics with slow inactivation or no inactivation, whereas KT channels show fast activation and inactivation kinetics [18,19].

Hydrogen peroxide (H2O2), an oxidative stress inducer, is the main contributor to cardiac injury and remodeling [20]. H2O2 has been shown to activate or inhibit ion channels depending on channel type; it inhibits voltage-gated KT currents and KDr currents in rat hippocampal neurons [21], but enhances BKca currents in human dermal fibroblasts [9] and human endothelial cells through the cGMP signaling pathway [22]. In cardiomyocytes, H2O2 decreased KT currents and KDr currents in the ventricular myocytes of adult guinea pigs and increased apoptosis [23]. In contrast, H2O2 decreased KT currents but increased KDr currents in rabbit atrial myocytes [24]. However, in human CFs (HCFs), whether H2O2 can modulate K’ channels and its mechanism still remain unclear.

In this study, we identified three types of VDKCs in HCFs and investigated the effects of H2O2 on these K’ channels using a whole-cell patch-clamp technique. The key protein kinase pathways involved in the observed effects of H2O2 on the K’ currents and H2O2-induced injury of HCFs as well as the relationship between H2O2-induced injury and K’ currents were also investigated.

METHODS

Cell preparation and culture

Human cardiac fibroblasts (adult ventricle, Catalog #6310) were purchased from ScienCell Research Laboratory (San Diego, CA). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM; Welgene, Korea) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Welgene) and penicillin-streptomycin solution (GenDEPOT, Barker, TX) in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO2 and 95% air at 37°C. Confluent fibroblasts were detached by incubation with 0.25% trypsin (Welgene) and DMEM for a few minutes. The detached cells were pelleted by centrifugation, the supernatant was removed, and the pellet was suspended in 1 mL of bath solution. Cells used in this study were from early passages (3 to 7) to limit possible variation.

Electrophysiological recordings

A small aliquot of solution containing HCFs was placed in an open perfusion chamber mounted on the stage of an inverted microscope. Whole-cell currents were recorded with an Axopatch 200B patch clamp amplifier (Axon Instruments, Union City, CA) at room temperature. pCLAMP 9.0 software (Axon Instruments) was used for data acquisition and analysis of whole-cell currents. Activated currents were filtered at 2 kHz and digitized at 10 kHz. Patch pipettes were prepared from filament-containing borosilicate tubes (TW150F-4; World Precision Instruments, Sarasota, FL) using a two-stage microelectrode puller (PC-10; Narishige, Tokyo, Japan), and then fire polished on a microforge (MF-830; Narishige). When filled with pipette solution, the pipettes exhibited a resistance of 2–3 MΩ. The bath solution used for whole-cell recordings contained (in mM): 145 NaCl, 5 KCl, 1 CaCl2, 1 MgCl2, 5 glucose, and 5 HEPES (pH adjusted to 7.35 with NaOH). The pipette solution for patch clamping contained (in mM): 145 KCl, 5 CaCl2, 1 MgCl2, 5 glucose, and 5 HEPES (pH adjusted to 7.35 with NaOH). The pipette solution for patch clamping contained (in mM): 145 CaCl2, pCa 6.0), 1.013 MgCl2, 10 HEPES, 2 EGTA, and 2 K-ATP (pH adjusted to 7.3 with KOH). H2O2, ibetritoxin (IbTX, a BKCa channel blocker), KT5823 (a protein kinase G inhibitor), 1H-1,2,4-oxadiazolo [4,3-a]quinoxalin-1-one (ODQ, a soluble guanylyl cyclase inhibitor), 8-bromo-cyclic guanosine 3’, 5’-monophosphate (8-Br-cGMP), KT5720 and H-89 (protein kinase A inhibitors), and all other chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO).

Reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted from HCFs using the Total RNA Isolation PureLink RNA Mini Kit (Ambion, Carlsbad, CA). First-strand cDNA was prepared with the SuperScript III Cells Direct cDNA Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan). Reverse transcription was performed in a S1000 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad,)
Hercules, CA), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. RT-PCR reaction products (cDNA) were resolved by 1.2% agarose gel electrophoresis, and stained with ethidium bromide for visualization under ultraviolet light. The primer sequences are listed in Table 1.

Western blot analysis

The cells were rinsed twice with ice-cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and then lysed in ice-cold lysis buffer. After incubation on ice for 30 min with shaking, the samples were centrifuged at 14,000 rpm for 10 min at 4°C. The protein concentration was measured by the Bradford assay. Extracts containing 20 μg of protein were mixed with 5× sample buffer, boiled for 10 min, and then subjected to continuous electrophoresis using 10~12% SDS-PAGE gels. The separated proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (IPVH00010; EMD Millipore, Billerica, MA) by electrophoretic transfer and blocked with 5% skim milk in tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20 (TBS-T) for 1 h at room temperature. The membranes were rinsed and incubated with primary antibodies at 4°C overnight. Removal of primary antibodies was carried out by washing for 4×10 min in TBS-T. The secondary antibodies were incubated with membrane in TBS-T with 5% skim milk for 1 h at room temperature. After a final wash with TBS-T for 4×15 min, the bands were detected using the chemiluminescence system (ECL, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rockford, IL). The results were analyzed with Bio-Rad molecular analysis software. The primary and secondary antibodies used are listed in Table 2.

Annexin V/propidium iodide apoptosis assay

Apoptosis of HCFs was determined using flow cytometric analysis. Cellular apoptosis was observed by annexin V-FITC/PI double staining using the Annexin V/Dead Cell Apoptosis Kit (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, cells were seeded at a density of 6×10⁵ cells/mL and cultured in DMEM containing 100 μM H₂O₂ for 6 h, or with IbTX for 24 h, and then 100 μM H₂O₂ was added and incubated for 6 h. Cells were harvested by treatment with trypsin, and then washed twice with cold PBS and centrifuged to collect the cell pellet. Annexin V-FITC and PI were added, and the cells were incubated in the dark at room temperature. Cells were analyzed with a flow cytometer (BD Biosciences) at 530 nm. Data from 10,000 cells were collected for each data file. Annexin V-FITC-positive and PI-negative cells were defined as apoptotic cells. Finally, the number of cells in each category was expressed as a percentage of the total number of stained cells.

Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as the mean±standard error of the mean (S.E.M.). Comparison of measurements between groups was performed using Student’s t-test or one way ANOVA, depending on the experimental design. Differences were considered sig-

Table 1. Primers used for RT-PCR

| Gene          | Sequence             | Size, bp |
|---------------|----------------------|----------|
| GAPDH         | Forward 5'-AGCCACATCGCTCAGACACC-3' | 302      |
|               | Reverse 5'-GTACTCACGGCCACATCG-3'    |          |
| Kca.1.1α      | Forward 5'-CTACTGGGATGTTTCACCTGGTG-3' | 444      |
|               | Reverse 5'-TTGCTGTCAAAACTGCTG-3'    |          |
| Kca.1.1β1     | Forward 5'-TCTACTGCTCTCCGAC-3'      | 363      |
|               | Reverse 5'-GAGCAGGCAATGACCTG-3'     |          |
| Kca.1.1β2     | Forward 5'-GGGACTGGCTATGATG-3'       | 449      |
|               | Reverse 5'-GTGAATGGAAACAGCGCTG-3'    |          |
| Kca.1.1β3     | Forward 5'-GCTCAACAGTCTCTGGACA-3'    | 351      |
|               | Reverse 5'-TGGCCACGGCTTAAAGATT-3'    |          |
| Kca.1.1β4     | Forward 5'-CTGAGTCCAACTTGGGC-3'      | 300      |
|               | Reverse 5'-TTGTCAGGAGGAAATGGC-3'     |          |
| Kca.2.1       | Forward 5'-TGACACGACCACCAATGAG-3'    | 208      |
|               | Reverse 5'-TTAGGCCGTTGCTGCG-3'       |          |
| Kca.2.2       | Forward 5'-GCCTGCGTGTATTCCTTAC-3'    | 334      |
|               | Reverse 5'-GCATGACTTCGGCAATGCA-3'    |          |
| Kca.2.3       | Forward 5'-ACCACCCCTCTCTTCTC-3'      | 173      |
|               | Reverse 5'-CTCAAGAAAGCCAGGCAC-3'     |          |
| Kca.3.1       | Forward 5'-GAGGAGGACTGTTAATG-3'      | 215      |
|               | Reverse 5'-ACGTGCGTCTCTGCCTTGT-3'    |          |

Kca.1.1, large conductance type of Kca (BKca) channels; Kca.2.1–2.3, small conductance type of Kca channel (SKca1–3); Kca.3.1, intermediate conductance type of Kca (IKca) channel.
Table 2. List of primary and secondary antibodies

| Primary Antibody | Species          | Catalog No. | Dilution | KDa | Company     |
|------------------|------------------|-------------|----------|-----|-------------|
| Beta-Actin       | Mouse monoclonal | ab6276      | 1:5000   | 42  | Abcam       |
| Maxi Kα          | Goat polyclonal  | sc-14746    | 1:200    | 125 | Santa Cruz  |
| Maxi Kβ          | Goat polyclonal  | sc-14751    | 1:200    | 22  | Santa Cruz  |
| KCNN2            | Rabbit polyclonal| ab83733     | 1:300    | 64  | Abcam       |
| KCNN3            | Rabbit polyclonal| ab28631     | 2 μg/ml  | 82  | Abcam       |
| KCNN4            | Rabbit polyclonal| ab83740     | 1:300    | 47  | Abcam       |

| Secondary Antibody | | | | | |
|---------------------|------------------|----------|----------|-----|-------------|
| Donkey anti-goat IgG-HRP | sc-2020 | 1:2000 | Santa Cruz |
| Amersham ECL Anti-Rabbit IgG, HRP-linked Whole Antibody (from donkey) | NA934 | 1:5000 | GE Healthcare |
| Amersham ECL Anti-Mouse IgG, HRP-linked Whole Antibody (from sheep) | NA931 | 1:2000 | GE Healthcare |

Maxi K, large conductance calcium-activated potassium channels (KCa1.1, BKCa); KCNN2, small conductance calcium-activated potassium channels (KCa2.2, SKCa2); KCNN3, small conductance calcium-activated potassium channels (KCa2.3, SKCa3); KCNN4, intermediate conductance calcium-activated potassium channels (KCa3.1, IKCa).

Fig. 1. Identification of outward K⁺ currents in human cardiac fibroblasts and effect of H₂O₂. Representative K⁺ current traces were obtained by voltage step pulses from –80 mV to +50 mV for 400 ms in whole-cell mode patch clamp recordings (holding potential, –80 mV). (A) Strongly oscillating, non-inactivating K⁺ currents are stimulated by H₂O₂. (B) Fast activation with slow or non-inactivation K⁺ currents are not stimulated by H₂O₂. (C) Fast activating with rapid inactivation K⁺ currents are not stimulated by H₂O₂. (D) Current densities of KCa currents, KDR currents, and KTO currents, at +50 mV from a holding potential of –80 mV, in control cells and after the addition of H₂O₂. *p<0.05, versus the control.
RESULTS

Identification of outward K⁺ currents and effect of H₂O₂ in human cardiac fibroblasts

Macroscopic K⁺ currents were generated using a voltage protocol that consisted of depolarizing steps (from −80 mV to +50 mV) in 10 mV increments for 400 ms with a −80 mV holding potential in whole-cell mode patch-clamp recordings. Ca²⁺-activated K⁺ (KCa) channels and voltage-gated K⁺ (KV) currents with typical behavior were recorded in HCFs. KCa currents showed strong oscillation in response to strong depolarization, were well maintained throughout the test pulse without marked inactivation during depolarizing voltage increments, and their current-voltage (I–V) relationship showed strong outward rectification (Fig. 1A). These currents were detected in 47% (197 out of 419) of cells. Two types of KV currents could be distinguished based on their activation and inactivation kinetics: fast activating and slow or non-inactivating currents, called delayed rectifier K⁺ (KDR) currents (Fig. 1B), and fast activating and inactivating currents, called transient outward K⁺ (KTO) currents (Fig. 1C). KDR and KTO currents were detected in 46.8% and 6.2% of cells, respectively. They did not show the outward rectification in their I–V curves.

To determine the effect of H₂O₂ on outward K⁺ currents in HCFs, H₂O₂ (100 μM) was added to the bath solution. In the presence of H₂O₂, KCa currents were significantly increased (Fig. 1A). This increase was 274.6±29.7% of that in the absence of H₂O₂ at +50 mV (n=13, *p<0.05 vs. control). The current densities of KCa currents at +50 mV in the absence and presence of H₂O₂ were 3.43±0.77 pA/pF and 9.42±2.27 pA/pF, respectively (n=13, p<0.05, Fig. 1D). In contrast, H₂O₂ had no significant effects on KDR currents (106.7±10.3% of the control, n=12, Fig. 1B) or KTO currents (101.2±10.1% of the control, n=8; Fig. 1C). At +50 mV, the current densities did not differ (control KTO, 3.77±0.96 pA/pF vs. with H₂O₂, 4.03±0.99 pA/pF; control KTO, 3.30±0.91 pA/pF vs. with H₂O₂, 3.34±0.92 pA/pF, Fig. 1D).

Identification of KCa channels in human cardiac fibroblasts

To determine which of the KCa channels subtypes are present in HCFs, KCa channel gene expression was examined by RT-PCR using specific primers for the KCa channel families (shown in Table 1). We detected clear amplification of the mRNA encoding the pore-forming α subunit of the KCa1.1 (BKCa) channel along with the auxiliary 1.1β1, 1.1β3, and 1.1β4 subunits (Fig. 2A). The mRNA expression of the KCa2.2 and KCa2.3 subunits of the SKCa channel and the KCa3.1 subunit of the IKCa channel was also detected by RT-PCR. Expression of the KCa1.1β2 subunit of BKCa and the KCa2.1 subunit of SKCa was not detected. To examine whether the ion channels that were detected by RT-PCR were expressed in protein form, a western blot analysis was performed. As shown in Fig. 2B, the expected sizes of immunoreactive protein bands for the BKCa channel subunits (KCa1.1q and KCa1.1l) were detected (molecular weights, 125 kDa and 22 kDa, respectively). Expression of the subunits of the SKCa channels KCa2.2 and KCa2.3 and the IKCa channel KCa3.1 was also detected as prominent bands of molecular weights 64 kDa, 82 kDa, and 47 kDa, respectively. β-Actin (42 kDa) was used as a control for normalization.

Identification of BKCa channels and their role in H₂O₂-induced apoptosis in human cardiac fibroblasts

Previous studies have suggested that BKCa channels are the predominant KCa channels in HCFs [8,9,25]. Here, we employed IbTX, a specific BKCa channel blocker, to examine whether the K⁺ currents modulated by H₂O₂ were BKCa currents. IbTX (100 nM) significantly inhibited the strong oscillation of KCa currents (44.2±7.4% of the control at 50 mV, n=6; *p<0.05 vs. control; Fig. 3A). The current densities of KCa currents at +50 mV in the absence and presence of IbTX were 3.38±0.94 pA/pF and 1.49±0.70 pA/pF, respectively (n=6, p<0.05, Fig. 3C).
IbTX (from 208.1±10.3% to 116.2±5.7%, n=5, *p<0.05 vs. control; Fig. 3B). The current densities of KCa currents at +50 mV in the control, H2O2, and IbTX were 3.11±0.98 pA/pF, 6.48±1.0 pA/pF, and 3.62±0.55 pA/pF, respectively (n=5, *p<0.05 vs. control, #p<0.05 vs. H2O2; Fig. 3C).

We next examined whether the H2O2-induced increase in BKCa currents was associated with H2O2-induced cell injury and found that IbTX attenuated the H2O2-induced apoptosis of HCFs. The apoptosis patterns of HCFs induced by H2O2 were analyzed by flow cytometry. The resulting cytogram shows the percentage of cells with an apoptosis-specific staining pattern (Fig. 4). In total, 28.02% of the cells treated with H2O2 showed late apoptotic changes, whereas 7.18% of control cells were late apoptotic. When we pretreated the cells with IbTX for 24 h before adding H2O2, only 12.38% of the cells showed the late apoptotic changes induced by H2O2. These data demonstrated that the inhibition of K+ efflux through BKCa channels was able to inhibit late apoptosis and that H2O2-induced apoptotic cell death of HCFs is mediated by BKCa channels.

**Signaling pathway for the effects of H2O2 on BKCa currents**

We studied whether the effects of H2O2 on BKCa currents was
mediated by the cGMP signaling pathway. We added KT5823 (a PKG inhibitor, 1 μM) to the bath solution for 20 min, and then treated the cells with 100 μM H₂O₂. Under these conditions, H₂O₂ failed to increase BKₖ⁺ currents (95.1±8.3%, n=7; Fig. 5A). When we pretreated the cells with ODQ (a soluble guanylate cyclase inhibitor, 10 μM) for 20 min, H₂O₂ also failed to increase BKₖ⁺ currents (89.4±9.9%, n=5; Fig. 5B). We also assessed the effects of cGMP, which is generated by NO binding to soluble guanylate cyclase. Treatment with 8-Br-cGMP (a membrane-permeable cGMP analogue, 300 μM) increased the BKₖ⁺ currents to 169.2±14.6% of the control at +50 mV (n=5, p<0.05 vs. control; Fig. 5C). Fig. 5D shows the effect of H₂O₂ on the current density at +50 mV after KT5823 pretreatment (control, 3.20±0.89 pA/pF; +KT5823, 3.02±1.63 pA/pF; +H₂O₂, 3.04±1.57 pA/pF) and ODQ pretreatment (control, 3.07±1.22 pA/pF; +ODQ, 2.70±1.34 pA/pF; +H₂O₂, 2.74±1.21 pA/pF). The effect of 8-Br-cGMP on BKₖ⁺ currents is also shown (from 3.78±0.84 pA/pF to 6.39±1.22 pA/pF, p<0.05).

To determine whether PKA is also involved in the effect of H₂O₂ on BKₖ⁺ currents, we pretreated fibroblasts with KT5720 and H-89, well-known PKA inhibitors. KT5720 (1 μM) was added to the bath solution for 20 min, and then H₂O₂ (100 μM) was added. KT5720 increased BKₖ⁺ currents (116.9±15.6% of the control at +50 mV, n=6, Fig. 6A); however, this difference was not significant. BKₖ⁺ currents were still increased by 100 μM H₂O₂ in the presence of KT5720 (224.1±22.2%, n=6, p<0.01 vs. control; Fig. 6A). H-89 (1 μM) also increased BKₖ⁺ currents, and the difference was significant (131.2±12.9%, n=5, p<0.05 vs. control; Fig. 6B). However, pretreatment with H-89 did not inhibit the stimulatory effect of H₂O₂ on BKₖ⁺ currents because 100 μM H₂O₂ increased the BKₖ⁺ currents (174.7±12.6% of the control at +50 mV). Fig. 6C shows the effects of H₂O₂ on the current density at +50 mV after KT5720 pretreatment (control, 3.21±0.31 pA/pF; +KT5720, 3.69±0.48 pA/pF; +H₂O₂, 7.21±0.66 pA/pF) and H-89 pretreatment (control, 3.35±0.41 pA/pF; +H-89, 4.56±0.41 pA/pF; +H₂O₂, 5.85±0.50 pA/pF).

**Fig. 5. Effects of PKG pathway modulation on H₂O₂-induced BKₖ⁺ current changes.** (A, B) Representative current traces showing the effect of 100 μM H₂O₂ on BKₖ⁺ currents in the presence of 1 μM KT5823 and 1 μM ODQ. (C) Effect of 300 μM 8-Br-cGMP on BKₖ⁺ currents. (D) Bar graph summarizing the effects of H₂O₂ on BKₖ⁺ currents after pre-incubation with KT5823 or ODQ, and the effect of 8-Br-cGMP on BKₖ⁺ currents. *p<0.05, versus the control.
DISCUSSION

The main finding of this study is that, among the VDKCs in HCFs, H$_2$O$_2$ stimulates BK$_{Ca}$ currents but not K$_{DR}$ or K$_{TO}$ currents and that this H$_2$O$_2$-stimulating effect on BK$_{Ca}$ currents is mediated by activation of protein kinase G (PKG) pathways but not the protein kinase A (PKA) pathway. In addition, H$_2$O$_2$-induced apoptosis of HCFs is mediated by BK$_{Ca}$ channels.

The presence of VDKCs has been previously reported. These currents are thought to regulate resting membrane potential, proliferation of ventricular fibroblasts [26], the functional expression of BK$_{Ca}$ channels, and electrical coupling between cardiomyocytes and fibroblasts [25]. Li et al. [8] also reported the presence of three types of VDKCs in HCFs. However, we found some discrepancies between their results and ours. In their report, BK$_{Ca}$ currents were present in most HCFs (88%), whereas K$_{DR}$ and K$_{TO}$ currents were present in a small population of cells (15 and 14%, respectively). In contrast, our results showed 47% of cells with KCa currents, 46.8% of cells with K$_{DR}$ currents, and 6.2% of cells with K$_{TO}$ currents. This difference may be due to some confusion in their report. We think that they may have miscounted K$_{DR}$ currents as KCa currents. Their I-V curve of KCa currents did not show the strong outward rectification that is characteristic of KCa currents, even for currents inhibited by paxilline, this may explain why the K$_{DR}$ current is co-present with the BK$_{Ca}$ current in these cells. We also detected the coexistence of these three VDKCs in HCFs. To prevent confusion in identifying the types of K$^+$ current, we defined only strongly oscillating outward K$^+$ currents that had strong outward rectification in the I-V curve as KCa currents.

Furthermore, this earlier study [8] also showed significant mRNA expression of the K$_{Ca1.1}$ subunit of BK$_{Ca}$ channels, but no mRNA expression of the 2.1 subunit of SK$_{Ca}$ channels or the K$_{Ca3.1}$ subunit of IK$_{Ca}$ was detected. In contrast, we detected mRNA expression of channel genes corresponding to the three subtypes of K$_{Ca}$, including clear mRNA amplification of the pore-forming $\alpha$ subunit of K$_{Ca1.1}$ (BK$_{Ca}$) channels and the auxiliary 1.1$\beta$1, 1.1$\beta$3, and 1.1$\beta$4 subunits, the K$_{Ca2.2}$ and K$_{Ca2.3}$ subunits of SK$_{Ca}$ channels, and the K$_{Ca3.1}$ subunit of IK$_{Ca}$ channels by RT-PCR. The protein expression of BK$_{Ca}$, SK$_{Ca}$, and IK$_{Ca}$ channels (K$_{Ca1.1}$, K$_{Ca2.2}$, K$_{Ca2.3}$, and K$_{Ca3.1}$) was also detected as prominent bands in the western blot analysis. Even though these ion channels contribute to the electrical coupling between cardiomyocytes and fibroblasts, BK$_{Ca}$ currents have not been detected in human cardiomyocytes [8,25].

In our experiment, the H$_2$O$_2$-increased, strongly oscillating, outward rectifying K$_{Ca}$ currents were considered BK$_{Ca}$ currents since they were inhibited by IbTX, a BK$_{Ca}$-specific channel blocker. In addition, these currents were activated by high Ca$^{2+}$ levels introduced using an intra-pipette solution and a high-stimulation voltage, which is the cause of strong outward rectification.

Our results showing H$_2$O$_2$-enhanced BK$_{Ca}$ currents in whole-cell recordings are consistent with previous reports on vascular...
smooth muscle cells, human endothelial cells, and human dermal fibroblasts [9,22,27]. In contrast, in this study, H2O2 did not stimulate voltage-gated K+ currents (K_{v10} and K_{v11} currents) in HCFs. These results are not consistent with previous studies in cardiomyocytes [23,24] and coronary vascular smooth muscle cells [28]. These differences in the distribution of K+ currents and H2O2 effects imply variations in the functions of these channels in these two types of heart cells.

To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report showing that H2O2 enhances the BKCa currents of HCFs through PKG pathways but not through the PKA pathway. Several studies have reported that H2O2 stimulates BKCa channels through the PKG pathway in cultured human endothelial cells [22] and human coronary arterioles [29]. However, the effect of H2O2 on BKCa channels in HCFs and the underlying mechanism were not completely clear. In addition, inhibition of PKG by KT5823 and inhibition of soluble guanylate cyclase by ODQ attenuated the increase in BKCa currents following H2O2 exposure. 8-Br-cGMP, a membrane permeable analogue of cGMP, also increased BKCa currents. These results suggest that the PKG pathway is involved in the modulation of BKCa currents by H2O2 in HCFs.

Activation of BKCa channels likely elevates the intracellular Ca2+ level, which further enhances the release of NO in endothelial cells [30]. It has also been reported that NO increases BKCa currents in human dermal fibroblasts via the cGMP/PKG pathway [31] and cross-activation of the PKA pathway that stimulates currents through cGMP [32]. However, in this study, the H2O2-stimulating effects on BKCa currents were not decreased by pretreatment with KT5720 or H-89, suggesting that the PKA pathway is not involved in the modulation of BKCa currents by H2O2 in human cardiac fibroblasts. The stimulating effect of H-89 on BKCa currents was reported previously [33] and could explain the direct modulation of the currents observed here.

It is well known that K+ channel-mediated signals play an important role in cell death or apoptosis and that increased K+ efflux is one of the earliest indicators of apoptosis [10,12]. The K+ currents that are associated with apoptosis have been reported in a wide variety of cells [34,35]. When we pretreated cells with IbTX for 24 h before the addition of H2O2, the H2O2-induced early apoptotic changes decreased, which means that BKCa channels mediate early apoptotic cell death induced by H2O2 in HCFs. Similar results were also reported in human dermal fibroblasts [9]. We have also reported that activation of BKCa channels by its agonist, NS1619, mediates early apoptotic cell death in human dermal fibroblasts [36].

One limitation of the present study is that we cannot rule out the existence of other mechanisms for H2O2-induced cell injury in HCFs, especially the involvement of IKCa channels, since their expression was detected by RT-PCR and western blot analysis, and they also play important roles in cell proliferation [37,38].

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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