Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 knockdown attenuates oxidized low-density lipoprotein-induced oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction in human umbilical vein endothelial cells by downregulating activating transcription factor 2

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ABSTRACT
Atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory disease implicated in oxidative stress and endothelial dysfunction. Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 (PDIA3) has been reported to regulate oxidative stress and suppress inflammation. This study aimed to explore the function of PDIA3 in atherosclerosis and the underlying mechanisms. PDIA3 expression in oxidized low-density lipoprotein (ox-LDL)-induced human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) was detected using RT-qPCR and Western blotting. Following PDIA3 knockdown through transfection with small interfering RNA targeting PDIA3, cell viability, oxidative stress and inflammation in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs was examined using a Cell Counting Kit-8, corresponding kits and ELISA, respectively. The levels of CD31, α-smooth muscle, INOS, p-eNOS, eNOS and NO were assessed using RT-qPCR, Western blotting and an NO kit to reflect endothelial dysfunction in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. The relationship between PDIA3 and the activating transcription factor 2 (ATF2) was confirmed using co-immunoprecipitation. In addition, ATF2 expression was examined following PDIA3 silencing. The results indicated that PDIA3 is highly expressed in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. PDIA3 silencing increased cell viability, and reduced oxidative stress and inflammation, as evidenced by the decreased levels of reactive oxygen species, malondialdehyde, TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6, and increased superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidase activity. In addition, PDIA3 deletion improved endothelial dysfunction. PDIA3 interacted with ATF2, and PDIA3 deletion downregulated ATF2 expression. Furthermore, ATF2 overexpression reversed the effects of PDIA3 knockdown on ox-LDL-induced damage of HUVECs. Collectively, PDIA3 knockdown was found to attenuate ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs by downregulating ATF2 expression, showing promise for the future treatment of atherosclerosis.

Introduction
Atherosclerosis refers to a chronic cardiovascular disease characterized by the deposition of lipids in certain arteries accompanied by smooth muscle cells and fibrous matrix hyperplasia, which gradually develops into atherosclerotic plaques [1]. Large amounts of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) are modified to oxidized LDL (ox-LDL) and accumulate in the vessel lining, leading to the development of atherosclerotic plaques [2]. In addition, lipid accumulation in macrophages leads to inflammation, which in turn promotes the development of atherosclerosis [3]. Furthermore, LDL inhibits kruppel like factor 2 in endothelial cells by regulating DNA and histone methylation, which eventually develops into endothelial dysfunction [4]. The binding of ox-LDL to oxidized LDL receptor 1 could activate NOX in the cell membrane, which increases reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation and ultimately leads to oxidative stress [5]. Oxidative stress and inflammation triggered by ox-LDL are pivotal in the development and complications of atherosclerosis [6]. Therefore, preventing the oxidative stress and inflammatory response of atherosclerosis is the goal of diagnosis and treatment.
Protein disulfide-isomerase A3 (PDIA3), is a thiol oxidoreductase that belongs to the PDI family [7]. In recent years, the widespread impact of PDIA3 in disease development has attracted the attention of researchers. A large body of literature has reported that the high expression of PDIA3 in diseases is associated with patient prognosis and survival, such as ovarian cancer, diffuse glioma and acute myeloid leukemia [8–10]. In addition, PDIA3 can catalyze the formation or isomerization of disulfide bonds in proteins, participates in the regulation of oxidative stress, and is highly expressed in response to cellular stress [11]. It is worth noting that PDIA3 knockdown can inhibit the inflammatory response and oxidative damage in mice with traumatic brain injury [11]. To date, far too little attention has been paid to the role of PDIA3 in atherosclerosis. Activating transcription factor 2 (ATF2) is a component of the base-leucine zipper class of proteins and has been reported to modulate fatty diet-induced atherogenesis [12]. In addition, the protein kinase CTITA engaged in atherogenesis through ATF2-mediated CD36 expression and the formation of Ly6C (HI) cell foam cells [12]. Using BioGRID (https://thebiogrid.org/), it was predicted that PDIA3 may interact with ATF2. In light of the above studies, it was hypothesized that PDIA3 binding to ATF2 is involved in the development of atherosclerosis.

In the present study, PDIA3 expression in ox-LDL-induced human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) was first examined. Subsequently, the viability, oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction were explored in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs following PDIA3 knockdown and ATF2 overexpression, respectively. Our findings may provide a new approach and theoretical basis for the treatment of atherosclerosis.

Materials and methods

Cell culture and treatment

An immortalized HUVEC line was supplied by The Cell Bank of Type Culture Collection of The Chinese Academy of Sciences. Cells were maintained in endothelial cell medium (ScienCell Research Laboratories, Inc.) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin in a humidified environment of 5% CO2 and 95% air at 37°C. HUVECs were incubated with ox-LDL (100 μg/ml) for 24 h to establish an in vitro atherosclerosis model.

Cell transfection

Using Lipofectamine™ 2000 (Invitrogen; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.), HUVECs were transfected with small interfering RNA targeting PDIA3 (si-PDIA3) or negative control (si-NC), ATF2 overexpression vector (oe-ATF2) and empty vector (oe-NC) provided by Shanghai GenePharma Co., Ltd. A total of 48 h later, the transfection efficiency of PDIA3 and ATF2 was examined using reverse transcription-quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) and Western blotting.

Cell counting kit (CCK)-8 assay

HUVECs (1x10⁴ cells) treated in different groups were grown in 96-well plates for 24 h. Next, 10 μl CCK-8 solution was added to each well using a repetitive pipette and incubated for 2 h at 37°C. Absorbance (450 nm) was measured with the application of a Biotek microplate reader provided by Winooski (VT, USA).

ROS detection

ROS levels in HUVECs were assessed using 2′,7′-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA), which was provided by MedChemExpress. HUVECs treated with different stimuli were cultured with DCFH-DA at 37°C in the dark. Next, following washing three times with phosphate buffer solution (PBS), fluorescence was detected using a microplate reader (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.) using a fluorescence microscope (Olympus Corporation).

Measurement of superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) and malondialdehyde (MDA) levels

HUVECs were lysed in PBS using ultrasonic pyrolysis. Next, cells were centrifuged at 3,000 x g for 10 min at 4°C and the supernatant (100 μl) was mixed with
the SOD assay kit, GSH-Px kit and MDA assay kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. A microplate reader (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc.) was used for measuring the absorbance of SOD (550 nm), GSH-Px (450 nm) and MDA (532 nm).

**Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)**

ELISA was used to detect the levels of proinflammatory cytokines tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), interleukin (IL)-1β and IL-6 in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. Briefly, following the indicated treatments, the HUVEC supernatant was collected and the levels of TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6 were detected using ELISA kits (Shanghai Xitang Biological Technology Co., Ltd.), according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

**Nitric oxide (NO) detection**

NO content was assessed using an NO Assay Kit (Beyotime), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. HUVECs were lysed on ice with radiolocalmunoprecipitation assay (RIPA; Beyotime) buffer and then centrifuged. The supernatant was collected and added into the 96-well plates at 50 μl/well. Griess Reagent I was first added to each well at room temperature, followed by Griess Reagent II at room temperature. Finally, absorbance was measured at 540 nm with an enzyme-labeled instrument (Molecular Devices, LLC).

**Co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay**

HUVECs were first lysed in RIPA buffer containing protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Diagnostics) for 30 min and centrifuged for 5 min at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and incubated with the corresponding antibodies overnight at 4°C. Next, protein A + G Agarose was added for 2 h of incubation. Following denaturation and polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, the complexes were separated again. Finally, the collected protein samples were detected using Western blotting.

**RT-qPCR**

mRNA expression was detected using RT-qPCR. Total RNA from HUVECs was isolated with an RNeasy kit (Qiagen AB), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Reverse transcription into complementary DNA (cDNA) from the isolated RNA was performed using a cDNA Reverse Transcription kit (Applied Biosystems; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.). qPCR was conducted using SYBR-Green Realtime PCR MasterMix (Toyobo Life Science) on an ABI Prism Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems; Thermo Fisher Scientific, Inc.). The amplification process was performed as follows: 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 sec, 60°C for 15 sec and 72°C for 45 sec. Relative gene expression was determined using the 2^−ΔΔCq method [13]. Glyceraldehyde-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was used as an internal control for normalization.

**Western blotting**

Total protein extraction from HUVECs was performed using RIPA buffer (Beyotime) on ice. Next, protein concentration in the supernatant was examined using a bicinchoninic acid (BCA) protein assay kit (Beyotime). Each protein sample (30 μg) was separated using 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). The nitrocellulose membranes to which proteins were transferred were first blocked with 5% skimmed milk and then incubated with the primary antibodies against PDIA3, endothelial markers CD31, α-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA), inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS), phospho (p)-eNOS, ATF2 and GAPDH. These membranes were then cultured using a secondary antibody for a further 1 h. The protein bands were visualized using enhanced chemiluminescence and analyzed using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health). GAPDH was used as the internal control.

**Statistical analysis**

Data is presented as the mean ± standard deviation and statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism 8.0 (GraphPad Software, Inc.).
All data were conformed to normal distribution using Shapiro-Wilk test. The comparison employed one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey’s post hoc test for multiple groups and student’s t-test for two groups. P < 0.05 was considered to indicate a statistically significant difference.

Results

**PDIA3 knockdown inhibits ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress and inflammation in HUVECs**

Accumulating study confirms that PDIA3 deletion can inhibit the inflammatory response and oxidative damage [11,14]. To assess the impacts of PDIA3 in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs, the expression of PDIA3 was first detected using RT-qPCR and Western blotting. Figure 1(a,b) showed that PDIA3 expression was clearly increased in the ox-LDL-induced HUVECs compared with the control group. Following the transfection of HUVECs with si-PDIA3, the expression of PDIA3 was successfully decreased compared with the si-NC group (Figure 1(c,d)). As shown in Figure 1(e), the viability of HUVECs decreased by ~50% in the ox-LDL-induced group (vs. Control) and increased by ~30% in the ox-LDL + si-PDIA3 group (vs. si-NC). Figure 1(f) showed that ox-LDL induced high levels of ROS (vs. Control), a marker of oxidative stress marker, which was markedly reduced in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3 (vs. si-NC). At the same time, the levels of oxidative stress-related factors SOD and GSH-Px were markedly decreased in the ox-LDL-induced group compared with the control group, but markedly increased following transfection with si-PDIA3 compared with the ox-LDL+si-NC group (Figure 1(g,h)). While MDA content in each group exhibited a change trend completely opposite to that of SOD and GSH-Px (Figure 1(i)). Furthermore, Figure 1(j-l) revealed rapidly increased levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6 in the ox-LDL-induced group (vs. Control), which were markedly decreased in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3 group. Overall, these results highlighted the fact that PDIA3 is highly expressed in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs, and that PDIA3 knockdown effectively ameliorates ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress and inflammation in HUVECs.

**PDIA3 knockdown attenuates ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs**

Endothelial dysfunction in the occurrence and development of atherosclerosis plays a particularly important role. The endothelial cells can produce a variety of cytokines to regulate vascular inflammation [15,16]. This set of experiments examined the effects of PDIA3 on ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs. As shown in Figure 2(a,b), the mRNA and protein expression levels of the endothelial marker CD31 was decreased by ox-LDL and increased by PDIA3 knockdown. While the expression of mesothelial transition marker, a-SMA, showed the opposite trend in each group. In addition, an increase in the iNOS level in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs and a decrease in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs transfected with si-PDIA3 were detected using Western blotting (Figure 2(c)). By contrast, the expression of p-eNOS/eNOS was decreased in the ox-LDL group, but slightly increased following si-PDIA3 transfection. Excessive or insufficient NO release is closely associated with endothelial cell dysfunction [17]. Figure 2(d) shows that the NO level was clearly decreased following ox-LDL exposure, as compared with the control group, and increased in the ox-LDL +si-PDIA3 group, as compared with the ox-LDL +si-NC group. In combination, these results provided important insights into the ability of PDIA3 knockdown to attenuate ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs.

**PDIA3 interacts with ATF2 in HUVECs and PDIA3 silencing downregulates ATF2 expression**

To explore the potential mechanism of PDIA3 in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs, BioGRID was used, and it was predicted that PDIA3 may interact with ATF2 (Figure 3(a)). In light of the potential association between PDIA3 and ATF2, co-immunoprecipitation of PDIA3 and ATF2 demonstrated the existence of their interaction (Figure 3...
In addition, the expression of ATF2 was lower in HUVECs transfected with si-PDIA3 than in the control group (Figure 3(c)). In combination, these results suggested that PDIA3 can interact with ATF2 and ATF2, and PDIA3 knockdown can decrease ATF2 expression.

ATF2 overexpression reverses the inhibitory effects of PDIA3 deletion on ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress and inflammation in HUVECs

To investigate whether PDIA3 affected ox-LDL-induced HUVECs damage by regulating ATF2 expression, the effects of ATF2 overexpression in
ox-LDL-induced HUVECs transfected with si-PDIA3, PDIA3 expression following transfection with oe-ATF2 was first detected. Figure 4(a,b) showed that HUVECs transfected with oe-ATF2 expressed a higher level of ATF2 than those in the oe-NC group. As mentioned above, PDIA3 knockdown could promote the viability of HUVECs induced by ox-LDL. However, co-transfection of si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2 decreased the viability of HUVECs induced by ox-LDL when compared with the oe-NC group. In addition, the level of ROS, which had been decreased by si-PDIA3, was increased by the further overexpression of ATF2 in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs (vs. oe-NC; Figure 4(d)). As indicated in Figure 4(e–g), the SOD and GSH-Px levels, which were increased in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3 group, were decreased in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3+ oe-ATF2 group. Meanwhile, the MDA level decreased by si-PDIA3 was markedly increased by oe-ATF2. Furthermore, PDIA3 decreased the levels of TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6, which were elevated again in the ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2 (Figure 4(h–j)). These results indicated that the overexpression of ATF2 reverses the ameliorative effects of PDIA3 silencing on ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress and inflammation in HUVECs.

**ATF2 overexpression reverses the mitigatory effect of PDIA3 deletion on ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs**

PDIA3 knockdown has previously been shown to increase CD31 expression and decrease α-SMA expression. To determine whether PDIA3 affected ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs through ATF2, the expression of endothelial dysfunction related proteins was assessed experimentally. In Figure 5(a,b), it was clear that the decreased expression of CD31 and increased expression of α-SMA were observed in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-
PDIA3 and oe-ATF2, as compared with its negative control group. Likewise, the iNOS level, which was decreased in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3 group, was increased in the ox-LDL+si-PDIA3+ oe-ATF2 group, while the PDIA3 knockdown-induced increase in p-eNOS/eNOS level was slightly decreased by ATF2 overexpression (Figure 5(c)). In Figure 5(d), there was a clear decreasing trend in the level of NO in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2. Collectively, these results outlined a critical role for ATF2 overexpression; that is, to reverse the ability of PDIA3 knockdown to ameliorate ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs.

**Discussion**

Atherosclerosis is the most common cause of mortality in both developed and developing countries, due to the acute cardiovascular pathology and chronic vascular inflammatory damage it causes [18]. Atherosclerosis has become such a pressing issue in global health that early prevention and treatment are becoming of increasing importance. In addition, postoperative care, rehabilitation training and health education following atherosclerosis bypass grafting is important in improving the quality of life of patients and preventing poor prognoses. As previously stated, inflammation, oxidative stress and endothelial cell dysfunction triggered by the accumulation of ox-LDL in the vascular lining is the common basis for the pathological changes observed in atherosclerosis [19]. The findings of the present study showed that PDIA3 is a key biological factor in atherosclerosis. First, PDIA3 and ATF2 were highly expressed in HUVECs. Secondly, PDIA3 knockdown improved the loss of viability, oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction of ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. Thirdly, PDIA3 could interact with ATF2, and PDIA3 knockdown could downregulate ATF2 expression. Finally, ATF2 reversed all the ameliorative effects of PDIA3 on the viability loss, oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs.

The PDI family plays an important role in the process of atherosclerosis. A previous study
reported that PDI expression was upregulated in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) and may be a common pathway in the process of atherosclerosis [20]. The present study demonstrated that PDIA3, a member of the PDI family, was also highly expressed in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. However, PDI upregulation could promote excessive ROS generation [21]. The present study also revealed that HUVEC viability showed a marked decline following induction with ox-LDL. In addition, numerous studies stated that PDI gene knockout could reduce inflammation and oxidative stress. As previously mentioned, PDI knockdown markedly prevented the production of ROS in VSMCs [22]. In addition, PDIA3 siRNA significantly inhibited the proliferation of acute myeloid leukemia cells by regulating oxidative phosphorylation, amino acid sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolic pathways [10]. PDIA3 knockdown was also found to inhibit the inflammatory response and oxidative damage in mice with traumatic brain injury [11]. PDIA3 gene knockdown has
Figure 5. ATF2 overexpression reverses the mitigating effect of PDIA3 on ox-LDL-induced endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs. (a-b) Expression of CD31 and α-SMA was assayed adopting RT-qPCR and Western blot in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2. (c) Expression of iNOS, p-eNOS and eNOS was tested using Western blot in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2. (d) NO level was assessed employing NO kit in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs co-transfected with si-PDIA3 and oe-ATF2. Data were obtained from three independent experiments (n = 3). The comparisons in different groups were done with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by a Tukey’s post-hoc test. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001.

also been shown to significantly reduce the inflammatory response caused by influenza A virus infection in mouse lung epithelial cells [14]. During atherosclerosis, endothelial cells are activated and increase the permeability to LDL, which is subsequently oxidized to ox-LDL, and the circulating monocytes are attracted and become pro-inflammatory macrophages [23]. These macrophages produce excessive levels of ROS, leading to oxidative stress, which in turn induces pro-inflammatory cytokine synthesis, leading to inflammation [24]. In the present study, ox-LDL induced high levels of ROS and MDA, as well as low levels of SOD and GSH-Px. In reality, excessive production of ROS leads to a depletion of the antioxidant defense system, thereby resulting in a decrease in SOD activity, which exerts anti-inflammatory and antioxidant effects [25,26]. GSH-Px can clean up oxidative products and MDA is an indicator of lipid peroxidation in the heart [27]. In the present study, following PDIA3 knockdown, the levels of ROS and MDA were rapidly decreased, but the levels of SOD and GSH-Px were increased, suggesting that PDIA3 knockdown successfully inhibited oxidative stress in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. Furthermore, pro-inflammatory cytokines are expressed in atherosclerosis-related inflammation, including IL-1β, IL-6 and TNF-α [1]. A previous study has stated that in the case of plaque rupture, the IL-6 level was significantly increased [28]. Likewise, the IL-1β expression was elevated in atherosclerotic lesions [29]. Accordingly, the inhibition of the production of pro-inflammatory factors is essential for the anti-inflammatory treatment of atherosclerosis. The present experimental results revealed that the elevated levels of TNF-α, IL-1β and IL-6 induced by ox-LDL were markedly declined following PDIA3 knockdown, which implied that PDIA3 knockdown could inhibit inflammation in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs.

On the other hand, the expression of the endothelial marker CD31 and the mesothelial transition marker a-SMA was found to be decreased by ox-
LDL, but successfully increased by si-PDIA3, which indicated that PDIA knockdown inhibited the endothelial mesenchymalization in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. In addition, the key factor in endothelial dysfunction is that NO bioavailability is impaired and that eNOS enzyme activity is dysfunctional in atherosclerosis [30,31]. In addition, iNOS overexpression has been shown to result in endothelial damage [32]. In the present study, ox-LDL induced a decrease in eNOS and NO levels, and an increase in the iNOS levels, while PDIA knockdown reduced the iNOS levels and increased the eNOS and NO levels. This showed that PDIA3 could improve endothelial cell dysfunction in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs.

The Co-IP experiment in the present study demonstrated that PDIA3 can bind to ATF2, as decreased expression of ATF2 was detected by Western blotting following PDIA3 knockdown, suggesting that PDIA3 can bind to ATF2 and then positively regulate ATF2 expression. ATF2 has been reported to be involved in the regulation of inflammation in atherosclerosis. For example, the downregulation of long non-coding RNA HIF1A antisense RNA 2 has been shown to inhibit atherosclerotic inflammation by suppressing ATF2 [33]. Another study showed that ATF2 regulates anti-inflammatory activity [34]. It was previously shown that PDIA3 inhibited oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction in ox-LDL-induced HUVECs. However, following ATF2 overexpression, these effects were partly reversed.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, the studies discussed herein supported the hypothesis that PDIA3 knockdown attenuates ox-LDL-induced oxidative stress, inflammation and endothelial dysfunction in HUVECs through ATF2 downregulation. The present findings further elucidated the mechanism of PDIA3 and ATF2 in ox-LDL-stimulated HUVECs and provided insights into the potential of targeting these two genes in the treatment of atherosclerosis.

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**Data availability statement**

All data included in this study are available upon request through contact with the corresponding author.

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