

Neural Regeneration Research

Arteriovenous Malformations: the Newest Sonic Hedgehog Game in the Postnatal Brain

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Corresponding Author:	Roberto Pola, MD PhD Policlinico Universitario Agostino Gemelli Roma, Lazio ITALY
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:	
Corresponding Author's Institution:	Policlinico Universitario Agostino Gemelli
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:	
First Author:	Igor Giarretta, MD PhD
First Author Secondary Information:	
Order of Authors:	Igor Giarretta, MD PhD Roberto Pola, MD PhD
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	
Suggested Reviewers:	Edgar Kramer Plymouth University Peninsula Schools of Medicine and Dentistry edgar.kramer@plymouth.ac.uk Takayuki Asahara Kanagawa Daigaku - Shonan Hiratsuka Campus asa777@is.icc.u-tokai.ac.jp

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Arteriovenous Malformations: the Newest Sonic Hedgehog Game in the Postnatal Brain

Running Title: Sonic Hedgehog and brain AVMs

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4 Sonic hedgehog (Shh), initially known for its crucial role during the embryonic development
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6 of the central nervous system (CNS), is now recognized as an important and active player in the
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8 postnatal brain, with pleiotropic activities that range from the modulation of the self-renewal and
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10 specification of neural stem cells (NSCs) to the regulation of post-injury neural regeneration. There
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12 is a large body of evidence demonstrating the importance of the Shh signaling pathway in the adult
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14 CNS, generated in a number of experimental models. For instance, it is known that Shh is
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16 upregulated in the zebrafish floor plate after spinal cord transection and that treatment with
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18 cyclopamine – an inhibitor of the pathway – reduces the number of cells expressing markers of
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20 motor neuron regeneration (Belgacem et al., 2016). It is also known that Shh is upregulated in facial
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22 motor neurons after facial nerve axotomy in adult rats and that treatment with cyclopamine leads to
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24 decreased number of surviving motor neurons after injury (Belgacem et al., 2016). In mice,
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26 enhancing Shh signaling after ischemic stroke improves functional recovery (Belgacem et al., 2016)
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28 and eliminating Shh signaling is detrimental for oligodendrocyte differentiation and remyelination
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30 (Belgacem et al., 2016). Taken together, these findings suggest that, similarly to development,
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32 appropriate regeneration in the adult nervous system may require recapitulation of the Shh
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34 signaling. However, it is not always clear whether the reactivation of Shh signaling in the adult
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36 brain is beneficial. Indeed, there are studies that link Shh upregulation to aberrant and detrimental
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38 responses within the CNS and even to cancer. Indeed, active Shh signaling occurs in stem-like brain
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40 tumor cells and molecular subclasses of brain tumors, including pediatric medulloblastoma and
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42 juvenile and adult glioma (Alvarez-Buylla and Ihrie, 2014). In some cases, a Shh-responsive cell
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44 may also be the brain tumor cell of origin (Alvarez-Buylla and Ihrie, 2014). Therefore, Shh is likely
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46 an important mitogen, or self-renewal factor, not only under normal conditions, but also during
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48 oncogenesis in the postnatal brain.
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61 Recently, we have identified a novel role for the Shh signaling pathway in the adult brain,
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63 i.e. a possible involvement in the pathogenesis of brain arteriovenous malformations (AVMs)
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(Giarretta et al., 2020). Brain AVMs are tangles of abnormal vessels directly shunting blood from the arterial to the venous circulation without an interposed capillary bed. They are an important cause of intracranial hemorrhage in younger persons and account for 1–2% of all strokes in the general population and 50% of strokes in childhood (Chen et al., 2014). Despite intense investigations, etiology and pathogenesis of brain AVMs remain poorly understood and this hinders the development of effective therapeutic strategies.

In our recent study, we found aberrant expression of Shh in the endothelial layer of human brain AVMs. In the same endothelial layers, we also found evidence of the activity of both the canonical and non-canonical Shh pathway, as indicated by the aberrant expression of Gli1 and COUP-TFII, which respectively are the main transcription factor of the Shh canonical pathway and a target of the non-canonical Shh signaling (Giarretta et al., 2020). This is of note, because it is known that *nidi* of brain AVMs consist of not terminally differentiated vessels that co-express both arterial and venous markers and Shh is an important regulator of arterial versus venous identity of endothelial cells (ECs). Indeed, it is well established that Shh regulates the VEGF/Notch pathway to induce arterial differentiation of ECs (Lawson et al., 2002; Swift and Weinstein, 2009), but also has the ability to activate COUP-TFII, which is a down-regulator of Notch and is specifically expressed in venous, but not arterial, ECs (You et al., 2005).

Since vessels of normal human brain are negative for Shh expression, it is possible to hypothesize that the Shh signaling plays a role in the pathogenesis of brain AVMs. We tested this hypothesis by injecting a plasmid carrying the Shh gene in the brain of rats and demonstrating that focal intracerebral Shh upregulation induces the growth of tangles of vessels that display many characteristics that are reminiscent of human brain AVMs. Indeed, Shh-induced cerebral neovessels are enlarged and tortuous, display both venous and arterial phenotypes, and are interconnected by direct arteriovenous shunts without an interposed capillary bed.

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4 Based on these findings, one might speculate that abnormal upregulation of the Shh
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6 signaling in a specific brain region might lead to AVM formation, perhaps in subjects with a
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8 favorable background. This would be consistent with the more general concept that postnatal
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10 reactivation of developmental angiogenic pathways might play a critical role in the generation of
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12 brain AVMs in the adult. It would also be consistent with the so-called ‘response-to-injury’
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14 paradigm, which proposes that, in the presence of an underlying structural defect, an inciting event
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16 might lead to an abnormal angiogenic response, with the eventual generation of a brain AVM
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18 (Lawton et al., 2015). Certainly, it remains to be clarified which inciting events might result in
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20 aberrant reactivation of the Shh pathway in the brain. Based on the knowledge that we have of this
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22 pathway, we may speculate that these might be hypoxia, ischemia, inflammation, microscopic
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24 traumas, infections, or mechanical injuries. Among these, neuroinflammation is a documented
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26 trigger of Shh upregulation in the brain. Indeed, Shh transcription is induced in astrocytes upon
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28 exposure of these cells to inflammatory cytokines and Gli1 is upregulated in the inflammatory peri-
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30 ischemic area in the early stage of stroke (Giarretta et al., 2019). Regarding other potential inciting
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32 factors, it is known that neural cells increase Shh mRNA levels under hypoxic conditions and that
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34 Shh is secreted by activated astrocytes when these cells are incubated under oxygen-glucose
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36 deprivation (OGD) conditions or are exposed to oxidative stress (Giarretta et al., 2019). Also, it
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38 remains to be elucidated which structural pre-existing defects might constitute a favorable
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40 background for an aberrant angiogenic response to the above-mentioned inciting events. A
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42 possibility is the presence of a genetic influence, with mutations in genes such as endoglin (ENG),
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44 activin-like kinase 1 (ALK1, or ACVLR1), and SMAD4, which are involved in the pathogenesis of
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46 Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia (HHT), being obvious candidates. It has also been
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48 hypothesized that variations in genes encoding for inflammatory cytokines and angiogenic factors
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50 might contribute to AVM pathogenesis by enhancing or maintaining a pro-inflammatory and/or
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52 pro-angiogenic state that favors lesion formation (Mouchtouris et al., 2015). A practical example of
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54 the interaction between an inciting factor and a favorable background has been provided by Hao et
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4 al., who have shown that injection of VEGF into the brain of mice with heterozygous deletion of
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6 ALK1 results in the formation of vascular lesions that resemble brain AVMs (Hao et al., 2010). The
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8 proposed hypothetical mechanism through which Shh may contribute to brain AVM formation is
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10 schematically presented in **Fig. 1**. However, to fully understand the role played by the Shh pathway
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12 in AVM pathogenesis, a number of issues still need to be addressed. First, it should be clearly
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14 determined which physiological and/or pathological conditions have the ability to induce
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16 upregulation of the Shh pathway in specific brain regions. Second, it should be clarified which cells
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18 in the brain produce Shh in response to a given inciting factor and which cells respond to such
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20 endogenous production of Shh. Third, the molecular changes occurring in Shh-responding cells
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22 should be precisely investigated. Finally, it should be studied whether inhibition of the Shh pathway
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24 may have beneficial therapeutic effects in experimental models of brain AVMs.
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32 While waiting for these answers, we want to point out that at the moment it is no clear what
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34 is the most effective treatment for brain AVMs. Even more importantly, there is no evidence that
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36 any treatment is better than simple medical management. Indeed, in 2014, the ARUBA trial has
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38 demonstrated that medical management alone is superior to interventional therapy for the
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40 prevention of death or stroke in patients with unruptured brain AVMs. It is important to note that in
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42 the ARUBA study more than 10% of patients in the medical management group and more than 30%
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44 of patients in the interventional therapy group experienced a stroke or died, which indicates that the
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46 prevalence of adverse events is high in this population and there is the urgent need of more effective
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48 treatment options (Mohr et al., 2014). In this scenario, new exciting therapeutic opportunities might
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50 come if it will be confirmed that the Shh pathway is an important player in the pathogenesis of
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52 brain AVMs. Indeed, inhibitors of the Shh pathway are already available and some of them have
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54 been approved by the Food and Drug Administration for the treatment of diseases, such as basal cell
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56 carcinoma and acute promyelocytic leukemia. Anti-Shh strategies are currently under investigation
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58 for the treatment of other neoplastic diseases, such as medulloblastoma, small cell lung cancer,
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pancreatic cancer, intracranial meningioma, recurrent glioblastoma, prostate cancer, renal cell carcinoma, and colon cancer. A future perspective would be to use systemic administration of anti-Shh molecules in association with surgical procedures, or to combine local delivery of anti-Shh drugs with endovascular selective occlusion of AVM feeders.

In conclusion, we have found that AVMs are a novel playground for Shh in the brain.

Elucidating mechanisms and factors regulating Shh upregulation in the adult brain will increase our understanding of the role played by Shh in AVM lesion formation, with the possibility to design therapeutic strategies that interfere with the natural progression of the disease. A better comprehension of the pathophysiology of brain AVMs will also have important implications in other areas of neurovascular biology and neural regeneration and disease.

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Figure Legend

Fig. 1. Proposed mechanism of Sonic hedgehog (Shh) contribution to the development of Arteriovenous Malformations (AVMs) in the brain. In the presence of a genetically or anatomically favorable background, inciting events, such as inflammation, ischemia, hypoxia, or traumatic and toxic injuries, may lead to the upregulation of Shh in a specific brain area, with the activation of the Gli1-dependent canonical pathway, which leads to the upregulation of the VEGF/Notch signaling. Shh upregulation also leads to the activation of COUP-TFII via a non-canonical pathway. The effect of the concomitant activation of Notch and COUP-TFII is the generation of a brain AVM.

