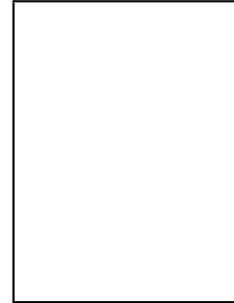


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BMP signaling in vascular biology and dysfunction

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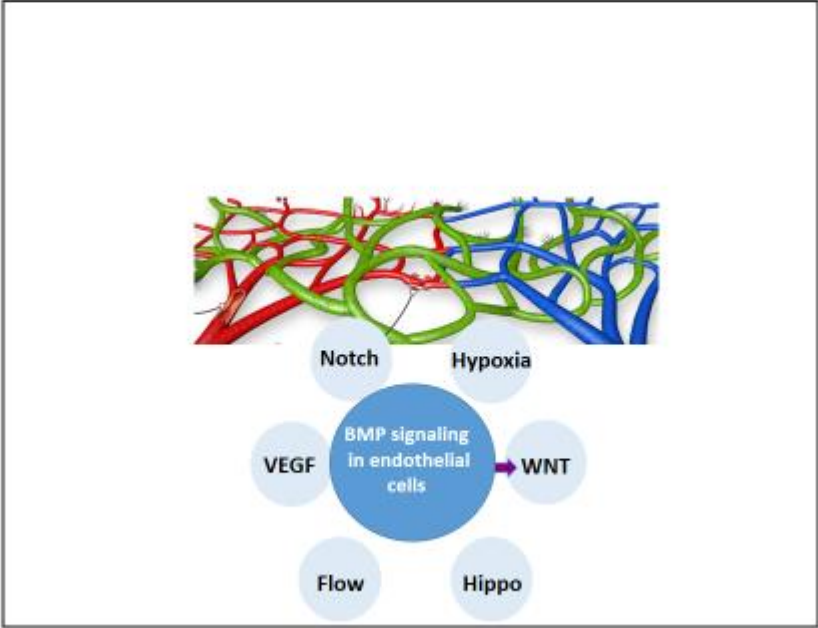
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Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- BMP signaling is a core signaling cascade in endothelium during vascular development and homeostasis
- Unbalanced BMP signaling is causative for several vascular dysfunctions
- BMP signaling is highly context-dependent in the vasculature
- Signaling interplay between BMPs and Notch, WNT, and Hippo signaling cascades co-regulates endothelial cell biology
- BMP signaling is implicated in interpretation of mechanosensitive responses derived from blood flow
- BMP and anti-BMP treatments are progressively been considered for the treatment of vascular disorders

Abstract

The vascular system is critical for developmental growth, tissue homeostasis and repair but also for tumor development. Bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) signaling has recently emerged as a fundamental pathway of the endothelium by regulating cardiovascular and lymphatic development and by being causative for several vascular dysfunctions. Two vascular disorders have been directly linked to impaired BMP signaling, pulmonary arterial hypertension and hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia. Endothelial BMP signaling critically depends on the cellular context, which includes amongst others vascular heterogeneity, exposure to flow, and the intertwining with other signaling cascades (Notch, WNT, Hippo and hypoxia). The purpose of this review is to highlight the most recent findings illustrating the clear need for reconsidering the role of BMPs in vascular biology.

Keywords: Bone morphogenetic proteins (BMP); Signaling; Vasculature; Development; Disease

1. Introduction

The vascular system is critical for developmental growth as well as for tissue homeostasis and repair. It allows an adequate supply of oxygen and nutrients, removal of waste products, and transports liquid and cells through blood and lymphatic vessels. These vessels consist of endothelial cells (ECs) lining the interior surface, which – depending on the vessel type - are covered by pericytes or vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs). The vasculature is constantly adapting to meet demands from tissues, which undergo growth, repair or regression. During embryonic development, vessel formation first depends on vasculogenesis, which refers to the *de novo* formation of blood vessels from locally differentiating ECs. Subsequently, angiogenesis or lymphangiogenesis produces new blood vessels or lymphatic vessels from pre-existing ones; all these processes can also occur during adult life. Vascular development via sprouting angiogenesis and vascular pruning requires the integration of multiple signaling cascades, including vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), Notch/Dll4 (delta-like protein 4) and the TGF β (transforming growth factor)/BMP (Bone morphogenetic protein) pathways [1, 2].

An extensive review has recently been dedicated on the role of BMP signaling in cardiovascular disease [3]. In this review, we discuss the role of the different BMP subgroups in angiogenesis, lymphangiogenesis, cardiovascular development, and their function in vascular diseases. In addition, the intertwining between BMPs and other signaling pathways that impact vascular biology will be highlighted. We will conclude by asking pertinent questions in this emerging field e.g. on how mutations in the same pathway can result in different diseases in different vascular beds, and how non-SMAD versus SMAD pathways or BMP9/10 contribute to endothelial heterogeneity.

2. BMP signaling

The BMP family consists of about 20 ligands, which are subdivided into at least four groups based on sequence similarity, and affinities for specific receptors [4]; the BMP2/4 subgroup; the BMP5-7 subgroup; the BMP9/10 subgroup and the GDF5-7 (growth and differentiation factor) subgroup. The different subgroups have been implicated in vascular biology, with BMP signaling in the endothelium being triggered mostly by BMP2/4/6/9/10 [5]. BMPs are secreted dimeric ligands that signal via binding to heteromeric combinations of type 1 [ALK1 (also known as SKR3), ALK2 (ACTRIA), ALK3 (BMPRIA) and ALK6 (BMPRIIB)] and type 2 (BMPRII, ActRIIA, ActRIIB) transmembrane serine/threonine kinase type receptors (Fig.

1) [6]. BMP-receptor binding triggers phosphorylation of the receptor-regulated SMAD1, -5 and -8, in their C-terminal segment. Once phosphorylated these SMADs form hetero-oligomeric complexes with SMAD4 that bind to DNA together with other transcription factors, initiating the SMAD pathway (Fig. 1). In pulmonary and some other ECs, BMPs also activate SMAD2 though less potently [7]. Furthermore, in epithelial cells, mixed complexes of pSMAD2 and pSMAD1 have been reported which can activate different sets of target genes [8]. Whether or not this is valid in ECs has not yet been documented. BMPs can trigger non-SMAD-signaling pathways involving different MAPK kinases (ERK, p38 and JNK), PI3 kinase/AKT, PKC and others [9] (Fig. 1). BMP signaling can be modulated by co-receptors such as Endoglin, which is strongly expressed on ECs [10], and agonistic or antagonistic extracellular proteins such as BMPER (BMP-binding endothelial cell precursor-derived regulator), which play an important role in vascular systems [11]. BMPs regulate (Fig. 1) and are also regulated by inputs from other pathways that fine-tune BMP signaling activity according to context (see section 7, Fig. 4).

3. BMP signaling subgroups in angiogenesis

3.1. The BMP2/4 subgroup

Ligands of the BMP2/4 subgroup bind to ALK3 and ALK6 and the corresponding type II receptors (BMPRII, ActRIIA or ActRIIB) (Fig. 1) to initiate distinct signaling pathways (SMAD or non-SMAD) depending on the mode of receptor oligomerization [12]. While SMAD signaling primarily leads to transcriptional regulation of SMAD target genes, non-SMAD pathways include also direct remodeling of the cytoskeleton or the plasma membrane which leads to the polarization and migration of cells [13] or to the induction and/or crosstalk regulation of pathways such as MAPK, JNK or PI3K (Fig. 1). *Bmp2*- and *Bmp4*-knockout mice are early embryonic lethal due to extraembryonic malformations, impaired cardiac development, and massive mesoderm defects, respectively [14]. These early and severe defects have precluded the analysis of potential vascular phenotypes.

BMP2 and BMP4 have been described to mediate pro-angiogenic effects both *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* [15, 16]. There have been contradictory reports regarding the proliferative effect of BMP2 in pulmonary arteries versus human umbilical vein ECs (HUVECs) [17, 18]. BMP4 was also shown to induce the proliferation of mouse embryonic stem cell (ESC)-derived endothelial cells (MESECs) and human microvascular endothelial cells (HMECs)

[19]. BMP2 and BMP4 both induce migration and tube formation in human microvascular ECs and HUVECs [16, 18, 19]. BMP4 promotes the proliferation and migration of ECs via stimulation of VEGF-A/VEGFR2 and angiopoietin-1/TIE2 signaling [19]. BMP4, but also BMP7 and BMP9, decrease the expression of Apelin in ECs, the ligand for the G protein coupled receptor APJ, which is enriched in tips cells [20].

3.2. The BMP5/6/7 subgroup

The ligands of the BMP5-7 subgroup can bind to ALK3, ALK6 or ALK2 [12], thereby offering a wider range of response (Fig. 1). *Bmp7* deficient mice display kidney failure, and defects in skeletogenesis, eye and heart development, and in neurogenesis [21]. However, deletion of *Bmp5* or *Bmp6* is not lethal suggesting that functional compensation by other family members takes place, at least in part. These studies did not allow conclusions on their potential implication in vascular development. However, interestingly, analysis of *Bmp6;Bmp7* double mutants showed that BMP6/7 were required for cardiac cushion formation [22].

In vitro, BMP6 induces migration and tube formation in bovine aortic ECs [23]. BMP6 induced migration of ECs was shown to be MyoX dependent, and both MyoX and ALK6 co-localize in filopodia of polarized cells [24]. Cyclooxygenase-2, which catalyzes the conversion of arachidonic acid to prostaglandins, was also shown to play a key role in BMP6-mediated angiogenesis [25]. A Chip-Seq analysis of SMAD1/5 binding sites in HUVECs showed that most of the sites identified with BMP6 overlapped with those of BMP9. The target genes include *ID1* (*Inhibitor of differentiation proteins*), *HEY1* (*hes-related family bHLH transcription factor with YPRW motif 1*), *BMPRII*, *Endoglin*, and *JAG1* (*Jagged1*) supporting the notion that these BMPs share some molecular mechanisms in ECs [26]. BMP7 increased *VEGF receptor* expression, proliferation and tube formation in ECs [27]. However, it was also recently published that a variant form of BMP7 represses tube formation in a SMAD4-independent manner, and decreases *VEGFR2* and *FGFR1* expression [28].

3.3. The BMP9/10 subgroup

BMP9 and BMP10 bind to the endothelial-specific receptor ALK1 with very high affinity ($EC_{50} = 50$ pg/mL, 2 pM) [29-31] (Fig. 1). BMP9 can also bind to ALK2 but only in the presence of a type II receptor [31], while BMP10 can also bind ALK3 [32]. BMP9 and BMP10 bind to the three BMP type II receptors though apparently with different affinities [29,

33]. The direct binding of BMP9 and -10 to the co-receptor Endoglin contrasts other TGF β family members that require the presence of a type 1 or type 2 receptor for Endoglin binding [30, 31, 34, 35]. So, despite apparent sequence homology it is likely that BMP9 and BMP10 do not always use the same receptor complex.

The main source of BMP9 and BMP10 are the liver and the heart, respectively [36-38]. The onset of *Bmp10* expression precedes *Bmp9* expression in the mouse (E8.5 versus E9.75–10) [39]. BMP9 and BMP10 are present in the circulation (0.5-15 ng/mL [30, 39]). However, plasma from *Bmp9*-knockout mice is not able to activate a BMP-SMAD signaling reporter (BRE, BMP Responsive Element [40]) [41], and most of the BRE-activity is inhibited by a neutralizing anti-BMP9 antibody [30, 39, 41] suggesting that BMP9 is the bioactive form within the circulation.

The role of ALK1 and Endoglin in vascular development has been clearly demonstrated by gene deletion in mice. Both *Acvrl1* (ALK1) and *Eng* deletions lead to embryonic lethality due to severe vascular abnormalities, including excessive capillary fusion [arteriovenous malformations (AVMs)], hyperdilation of vessels and deficiency of differentiation and recruitment of VSMCs [42-45]. *Bmp10*-deficient mice die between E9.5 and E10.5, due to cardiac development defects [46], but recently vascular defects in the yolk sac and in the embryo have also been found [39]. On the other hand, *Bmp9* inactivation results in viable mice. Analysis of the retinal vascularization in these mice, as a model of physiological angiogenesis, does not show any significant defect [39, 41]. However, injection of a neutralizing anti-BMP10 antibody in *Bmp9* knockout mice strongly inhibits vascular expansion of the retina and induces an increase in vessel density, demonstrating a redundancy between these two BMPs in vascular development [39, 41]. Similar results were obtained by injecting the extracellular domain of ALK1 (ALK1_{ECD}), which traps all ligands of ALK1 [41, 47]. BMP9 overproduction inversely inhibits retinal sprouting [47]. Redundancy between BMP9 and BMP10 has recently also been shown in the closure of the ductus arteriosus [48]. The role of ALK1, BMP9, and BMP-10 in vascular development has been confirmed in the zebrafish [49]. Injection of *bmp9* morpholinos had no effect on cranial vasculature but generated a venous remodeling defect in the tail [50]. On the other hand, *bmp10* morphants present a phenotype that is indistinguishable from *alk1* morphants [51]; arteries are enlarged, contain supernumerary ECs and AVMs connect the arterial system underlying the midbrain and hindbrain to adjacent veins. Therefore, BMP10, which is expressed first in mice and zebrafish, apparently plays a key role during early embryonic development and may control

EC numbers in nascent arteries [39, 51]. With the onset of BMP9 synthesis, both BMPs are involved in blood vascular development in an interchangeable manner and ensure vascular quiescence. Interestingly, this does not seem to account for lymphatic development, as *Bmp9* knockout mice present lymphatic defects [52] (see section 4).

Although *in vivo* data clearly indicate major roles for BMP9 and BMP10 in vascular remodeling, the cellular mechanisms mediated by BMP9 and BMP10 signaling in ECs are still not fully understood. Pro- and anti-angiogenic roles have been proposed for BMP9/BMP10 [7, 30, 31, 53-61]. These studies used different ECs, different doses of BMP9 and different experimental models, which likely explains the observed differences. *Ex vivo*, BMP9 inhibits EC sprouting in the metatarsal culture model and in angiogenic pancreatic islet cultures [31, 62] and it inhibits neo-angiogenesis in the sponge assay [63]. Concerning cellular mechanisms, BMP9 and BMP10 regulate the expression of many genes involved in vascular remodeling. They increase the synthesis of *ID1*, *ID2*, *SMAD6*, *SMAD7*, *ENG*, *BMPRII*, *Interleukin-8 (IL-8)*, *E-selectin*, *Endothelin-1*, *CXCR4* (the SDF1 (stromal-derived factor 1) receptor) [7, 30, 53, 55, 56, 64], while they reduce *APLN (Apelin)* expression [20, 41, 64]. BMP9 and BMP10 activate the expression of transcription factors (*HEY1*, *HEY2*, *HES1*) as well as ligands *JAG1 (Jagged1)* of the Notch signaling pathway [26, 41, 47, 65-67], but also *ephrinB2* [56], *FGFR1* and 2 [68] and *VEGFR1* [47] supporting important crosstalks between the BMP signaling pathways and other pathways (see further). Interestingly, BMP9 also strongly induces the expression of *ALK3*, *ALK6* and *BMPRII* allowing ECs to respond to other BMPs [55] in a positive feed forward loop as previously proposed [69]. Conversely, BMP9 also increases the expression of *BMPER*, which negatively regulates the activity of many BMPs [11, 70] (Fig. 1).

Altogether, these data show that the circulating BMP9 and BMP10, owing to the high expression of their receptors BMPRII, ALK1 and Endoglin in ECs, are two fundamental players in vascular development. Their cellular roles are still not completely understood but they are likely to function in a dose- and context-dependent manner within normal and dysregulated vascular beds. Importantly, BMP9 has recently been tested with success in pre-clinical mouse trials to treat vascular dysfunction like PAH [59] and ischemic neovascularization [60] (see section 6.5).

4. BMPs and lymphangiogenesis

The lymphatic vascular system drains interstitial fluids into the circulation, and regulates fat uptake and immune control. It is involved in numerous pathologies such as lymphedema,

lymph stasis, inflammatory diseases and tumor metastasis [71]. BMP signaling has recently been shown to be essential for lymphatic development in mice and zebrafish. Niessen et al. [72] showed that injection of ALK1_{ECD} or of a blocking anti-ALK1 antibody into newborn mice disrupted lymphatic development within the tail and intestine. An anti-proliferative role of ALK1 in postnatal lymphatic development was proposed because of the presence of enlarged lymphatic vessels within the cornea, intestine, and diaphragm of mice with an induced deletion of *Alk1* [73]. Enlarged lymphatic capillaries and collecting lymphatic vessels in mesentery, ear skin and back skin are also present in *Bmp9*-deficient mice, compatible with BMP9 being the ALK1 ligand involved in lymphatic vascular development [52, 73]. Furthermore, *Bmp9*-knockout mice also have a reduced number of lymphatic valves and decreased drainage efficiency [52]. Further, adenovirus-mediated overexpression of *BMP9* diminishes inflammatory lymphangiogenesis in mice [73]. *In vitro*, lymphatic endothelial cell (LEC) sprouting is induced by the addition of ALK1_{ECD}, BMPRII_{ECD}, or ACVRIIB_{ECD} [72]. In accordance with this result, BMP9 and BMP10 inhibit LEC proliferation, migration, and tube formation [73, 74]. In LEC, BMP9 inhibits *LYVE-1* expression in agreement with a role in lymphatic maturation and induces the expression of several genes known to be involved in valve formation (*Foxc2*, *Connexin37*, *EphrinB2* and *neuropilin1*) [52]. BMP9 also transiently inhibits the expression of the lymphatic transcription factor *Prox1* [52, 73] and induces *SMAD6* expression [72]. BMP9 is also proposed to induce the reprogramming of LEC to blood ECs (BECs) as it inhibits the expression of *VEGFR3*, *Podoplanin*, *Neuropilin2* expression and increases *VEGFR2*, *Endoglin* and *TIE2* expression [73]. Taken together, these data are in support of a role of BMP9 in inhibiting lymphangiogenesis *in vitro* and in promoting lymphatic maturation and valve formation *in vivo*.

BMP2 also regulates lymphatic development: *Bmp2b* overexpression inhibits the differentiation of LECs in zebrafish embryos and addition of BMP2 attenuated LEC differentiation in mouse embryoid body cultures [75]. Mechanistically, BMP2 promotes the expression of miRNAs, including *miR-31* and *miR-181a*, which in turn negatively regulate the stability of *Prox-1* mRNA [75]. On the other hand, morpholinos against the receptors *Alk3*, *Alk3b*, *Bmpr2a* and *-b* or *Smad5* decreased the number of LECs in zebrafish [76]. These results are in contrast with the anti-lymphangiogenic effects of BMP2 signaling which also signals via *Alk3* [75] and suggest that other BMPs can bind to ALK3 and play a pro-lymphangiogenic role.

BMPs have also been involved in tumor lymphangiogenesis. *BMP9* expression in the tumor mammary cell line 4T1 inhibits tumor lymphangiogenesis [73]. In contrast, blockade of

ALK1 reduced tumor lymphangiogenesis in the MDA-MB-231 mouse breast cancer cell model [77]. Taken together, these results illustrate that - like in the case of blood vessels - BMP signaling may modulate development and/or maintenance of lymphatic vessels in a context-dependent manner.

5. BMPs in cardiovascular development

BMPs play well-established roles in the regulation of early heart development and morphogenesis (reviewed in [78]). Recent studies, mainly in zebrafish but also in mice, show that BMPs also mediate the accommodation of the vasculature to altered hemodynamics and vascular remodeling, a new emerging domain for BMP signaling.

5.1. BMPs in the formation of axial and caudal veins in zebrafish

In tune with cell culture experiments, striking molecular differences for the roles of BMPs were also discovered in the zebrafish vasculature. ECs of the embryonic axial and caudal veins require BMP signaling to initiate sprouting morphogenesis, whereas those of the neighboring dorsal aorta are not responsive to this molecular cue [79]. These differences in sensitivity can be explained by differences in the expression of essential components of BMP signaling between both arterial and venous cell types. The higher expression levels of BMP type II receptors [79, 80], cargo-adaptor protein Dab2 [80], a factor that is required for the propagation of BMP signaling via SMADs [81], and LDL receptor-related protein 1, a component of the endocytic machinery required for BMP receptor signaling [82], may make venous beds more sensitive to BMPs. Two reviews have covered the main discoveries of these studies and, hence, this work will not be further discussed here [83].

Bmp2b-induced sprouting from the caudal vein was recently shown to be mediated through a regulatory cascade involving *Arhgef9b*, *Cdc42*, and Formin-like 3, an Actin-regulatory protein important for filopodia formation [84].

BMPs also play important roles in the stabilization of caudal vein EC differentiation by activating β -catenin-dependent transcriptional activity in a BMP receptor-dependent manner, which leads to the transcription of venous-specific genes including *nr2f2/coup-tfII*, a key regulator of caudal vein differentiation in the zebrafish embryo [85]. The activation of β -catenin by Bmps involves a Bmp-dependent upregulation of Angiogenic factor with G patch and FHA domains 1 (*aggf1*), a chromatin-associated nuclear protein that is required for venous specification of ECs in the zebrafish embryo that has been implicated as the causative

factor in a human venous endothelial malformation that is part of the Klippel-Trenaunay syndrome [86]. Recent studies have implicated *miR-26a* as a negative regulator of Bmp signaling during formation of the zebrafish caudal vein. *miR-26a* targets *Smad1* in ECs and the overexpression of *miR-26a* in zebrafish inhibited caudal vein formation [87].

However, a number of findings also point at different context-dependent molecular and cellular roles for BMP signaling in arteries and veins in mouse and zebrafish. There is prominent BMP-SMAD signaling in arteries and veins in the mouse embryo, as indicated by nuclear pSMAD1/5/8 expression and activity from a transgenic BRE:GFP reporter [65, 88]. Also, the primarily arterial defects observed in mice with endothelial deficiency of *Acvr11/Eng*, or with an endothelial-specific double knockout of *Smad1;Smad5* contrast with the exclusive venous phenotypes upon loss of BMP signaling in the zebrafish. The phenotypes observed under these conditions included ectopic sprouting of intersomitic vessels from the dorsal aorta [65]. Yet, the different approaches used to interfere with BMP signaling in zebrafish and mouse may also contribute to some of the observed differences [89]. Also, the role of BMP within arteries might only be very temporal and, hence, a combination of sophisticated inducible cell-type specific gain- and loss-of-function approaches and their crucial rescue experiments are required to resolve this issue.

5.2. BMPs and the endocardium

The endocardium is a specialized endothelial bed that is lining the interior of the myocardium. Studies in the mouse demonstrate that myocardial expression of BMPs (reviewed in [78, 90, 91]), and especially BMP2 [91-93], are critical for induction of endocardial cushion differentiation and endothelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EndMT) in the atrioventricular canal, which precedes valve formation. BMP4 is also required for endocardial cell proliferation in the outflow tract [94] while compound mutants for *Bmp6/7* show distinct valvulogenesis defects [22].

Recent studies in zebrafish confirm that BMP signaling plays also important roles in early endocardial morphogenesis and differentiation [95, 96]. During cardiac ballooning, when the two cardiac chambers of zebrafish approximately double to triple in volume, the inhibition of BMP signaling almost completely blocks endocardial cell proliferation [95]. The myocardium is a rich source of BMPs (reviewed in [78]) and among the BMPs that are expressed within the myocardium are BMP 2/4/5/6/7/10/16 [97, 98]. While the activity of BMP signaling is dampened within the myocardium (in the early zebrafish this is in part due

to the strong activation of inhibitory Smad6a [99]), endocardial cells in zebrafish and mouse strongly express the BMP receptor genes *alk3/6/8* and *alk2/6* respectively, and are highly responsive to BMPs as indicated by high levels of nuclear pSMAD-1/5/8 [78, 95]. In mouse, ectopic production of Noggin within the cushion endocardium only, results in undersized bradycardic hearts with immature cardiomyocyte contractile apparatus, hypoplastic endocardial cushions and altered expression profiles of *Alk1/Endoglin* and BMP/TGF β effectors [100]. In line with this is the observation that BMPER and Smad6 dampen the BMP-SMAD pathway in cardiac cushions to control cushion mesenchyme thickness [101, 102]. This illustrates that balanced levels of BMP activity are necessary for endocardial-cardiomyocyte crosstalk, and that suppression of BMP signaling results in both heart valve and myocardial trabeculae defects.

Depletion of myocardial cells in zebrafish by chemical inhibition using the genetically-encoded nitroreductase system prevents normal endocardial differentiation as indicated by the lack of expression of the endocardial-specific marker gene *nfatc1* [96]. The endocardial phenotype was rescued by expression of *Bmp2b*, which complemented the lack of myocardium and restored the expression of *nfatc1*. Hence, myocardium-derived Bmp2/4 signaling is pivotal for endocardial proliferation and differentiation.

5.3. BMP signaling and blood flow responses

Intriguingly, endocardial proliferation during these developmental stages was also triggered by the mechanical stimulus of blood flow [95]. Hemodynamic alterations induced by shear stress are sensed in the endothelium by PECAM/VE-cadherin/VEGFR2, proteoglycans embedded in the glycocalyx, the primary cilium and ion channels and are transmitted into biochemical signaling cues. Crosstalk between biomechanical and BMP signaling has been described before in several cell systems including osteoblasts and ECs [51, 103-105]. However the molecular mechanisms of how distinct mechanosensitive target genes are regulated synergistically with the BMP pathway in the vasculature are still largely unclear.

In particular the fraction of retrograde flow is a hemodynamic parameter with a strong impact on endocardial cell proliferation. These observations support the involvement of BMP signaling in mechanosensitive responses to blood flow and circulatory BMP ligands. One example is the BMP receptor ALK1, which is activated in response to blood flow [106, 107] (Fig. 2). Conversely, the occlusion of blood vessels or a lack of blood flow will result in the activation of angiogenesis or adaptive arteriogenesis in the adult. In zebrafish, blood flow

promotes Alk1 activity by concomitantly inducing *alk1* expression and distributing Bmp10, thereby reinforcing this pathway, which is proposed to limit arterial caliber at the onset of flow [51].

Altered hemodynamics in the adult aortic valve leaflets in mice upregulate the levels of the endothelial adhesion molecules ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 in a BMP4-dependent manner [108], while transient and persistent SMAD1/5/8 phosphorylation was reported upon exposure of endothelium to laminar shear stress (LSS) or oscillatory shear stress (OSS), respectively [104] (Fig. 2). Remarkably, the pro-inflammatory role of BMP4 was only shown for the ligand in systemic but not in pulmonary circulation [109]. BMP2, in contrast to BMP4, was not shown to be shear stress responsive, yet, it also elicits pro-inflammatory responses [110]. Force-specific activation of SMAD1/5 has been reported to cause endothelial proliferation in stenosed rat aorta, which involves BMP receptor-integrin interactions (ALK6- $\alpha\beta$ 3) [111]. This pathway subsequently activates Runx2/mTOR/p70S6K pathways that regulate the cell cycle [111] (Fig. 2). The authors concluded that BMP-SMAD activation occurred ligand-independently because overexpression of the BMP-antagonist Noggin could not rescue the effect; however such an approach would not rule out the involvement of BMP9/10 and ALK1-mediated activation of SMAD1/5 because BMP9/10 are Noggin insensitive [63]. Recently, MSX1 was identified in mice as an arterial-specific transcriptional mediator of SMAD1/5 dependent transduction of extrinsic arterial shear after femoral artery ligation. MSX1 induces an inflammation-mediated vascular remodeling response by direct induction and production of ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 [112] (Fig. 2).

Flow is reported to regulate cilia in ECs, with cilia being present when flow is low and disturbed, while being absent in regions with high shear stress [113]. Flow-induced loss of cilium sensitizes the endothelium for EndMT in cardiac valve forming regions in the embryo. Moreover, lack of primary cilium sensitizes ECs for BMP-induced mineralization in the adult vessel wall in atherosclerotic plaques [113, 114]. The primary cilium in ECs is thought to arrest the cells in a quiescent stage by controlling β -catenin availability. The lack or the disruption of the primary cilium leads to nuclear accumulation of β -catenin and activation of expression of *Slug* (Fig. 2). BMP-SMAD signaling potentiates expression of *Slug* in a β -catenin-dependent manner, thereby contributing to the atherosclerotic calcification of ECs [114]. Whether pSMAD1/5 triggers potentiation of β -catenin through *aggf1*, like in venous identity specification [85], has remained unaddressed. Recently, it was shown that BMP6, but not BMP9, synergizes with pro-atherogenic oxidized low-density-lipoproteins on transcription of different osteogenic and chondrogenic proteins in

human aortic ECs [115], linking BMP signaling and oxidative stress, and the above described flow and inflammation in recruiting vascular calcification associated with atherosclerosis.

6. BMPs in vascular diseases

Disruption of BMP signaling has been associated with the development of various vascular disorders and vascular dysfunctions. We will present here the major ones (Fig. 3).

6.1. Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension

Pulmonary Arterial Hypertension (PAH) is a rare vascular disorder (25 cases/million) defined as an increase in mean pulmonary arterial pressure >25 mmHg at rest [116]. The increase in pulmonary vascular resistance is attributable to constriction of small pulmonary arteries caused by profound vascular remodeling. Aberrant proliferation and apoptosis resistance of ECs, VSMCs and fibroblasts lead to a reduction in the luminal area, increased blood pressure and ultimately, death from right ventricular failure. An association between mutations in BMPRII (*BMPR2*), ALK1 (*ACVRL1*), or more recently SMAD8 (*SMAD8*) and PAH has been described [117-119].

Several BMP ligands play a key role in pulmonary hypertension. BMP2/4 stimulate BMPRII and induce endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) phosphorylation and activity leading to pulmonary artery EC (PAEC) proliferation, survival, and migration. However, in the presence of *BMPR2* mutations, BMP2/4 cannot induce *eNOS* expression in ECs, contributing to the phenotype of PAH [120]. Recent studies have demonstrated that BMPRII forms a signaling complex with ALK1 in EC in response to BMP9 and BMP10 [29-31], supporting that this pathway has a central role in the pathophysiology of PAH. BMP9 induces *BMPRII* expression that mediates the *IL-8* and *E-selectin* induction and growth inhibition observed in PAECs [7, 30]. Interestingly, PAECs from *Bmpr2* (+/-) mice have a constitutively activated SRC kinase, an increased numbers of caveolae, and impaired endothelial barrier function supporting that non-SMAD signaling pathways are involved in the physiopathology of BMP-related vascular diseases [121].

Sildenafil and prostacyclin analogues are currently used to treat PAH and they were shown to partly restore deficient BMP signaling [122, 123]. Sildenafil is a PDE5 (phosphodiesterase 5) inhibitor, thereby blocking the enzyme for cGMP degradation. Of

interest here is that the cGMP kinase (cGKI) was shown to interact with BMPRII and to support SMAD-signaling [124]. Recently, screening of FDA-approved drugs identified tacrolimus, a potent immunosuppressor, which when injected into mice with conditional deletion of *Bmpr2* prevented the development of PAH [125]. More recently, administration of BMP9 *in vivo* prevented and also reversed established pulmonary hypertension in two rat models of PAH, as well as in a new mouse model bearing a knock-in allele of a common human disease-causing allele (*Bmpr2*^{+/*R899X*}), highlighting the therapeutic potential of BMP9 as a possible treatment for PAH patients [59].

6.2. Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia

Hereditary Hemorrhagic Telangiectasia (HHT) or Rendu–Osler–Weber syndrome is a rare (1/8000) autosomal dominant disorder characterized by frequent epistaxis, telangiectasia in skin and mucosa, and AVMs in lung, liver or brain, and hemorrhages associated with these vascular lesions [126]. Mutations in the genes encoding endoglin (*ENG*), ALK1 (*ACVRL1*), SMAD4 (*SMAD4*) and more recently BMP9 (*GDF2*) have been associated with the development of HHT or related HHT [127].

The cellular role of ALK1 is still not completely understood and the most frequent hypothesis is that the pathogenesis of HHT could be due to an enhanced response to angiogenic cues in ALK1- or Endoglin-deficient ECs [57]. In accordance, therapeutic approaches blocking pathological angiogenesis (such as anti-VEGF antibodies or thalidomide) have yielded beneficial effects to the patients [128, 129]. In the future, administration of BMP9 or BMP10, as for PAH [59], or additional approaches directed to stimulate the deficient pathway, could result in an effective therapy for HHT patients (discussed in [130]). In this sense, the immunosuppressant sirolimus, when given to an HHT patient to prevent liver transplantation rejection, resulted in loss of telangiectases, epistaxes, and anemia [131] suggesting that a similar approach for PAH [125] and HHT could potentially be intended in the future.

6.3. Cerebral cavernous malformation

Cerebral cavernous malformation (CCM) is a vascular dysplasia, mainly localized within the brain. CCM lesions are formed by enlarged and irregular blood vessels that often result in cerebral hemorrhages. CCM is caused by *loss-of-function* mutations in one of three genes, namely *CCM1*, *CCM2* and *CCM3*, and occurs in both sporadic and familial forms [132]. It was recently described that EndMT in *CCM1*-ablated ECs is mediated by upregulation of *Bmp6* and inhibitors of the TGF β and BMP pathways reduced the numbers and sizes of vascular lesions in *Ccm1*-deficient mice [133].

6.4. Vascular calcification

Vascular calcification is a common feature encountered in several pathologies such as atherosclerosis, chronic kidney disease, diabetes and hypertension. Vascular calcification is a tightly regulated process that involves differentiation of ECs into chondrocyte- and osteoblast-like cells followed by mineralization of the surrounding matrix. It was shown that BMP2 and -4 s are upregulated in atherosclerotic sites potentiating the calcification [134, 135], whereas BMP inhibition by BMP antagonist (matrix Gla protein, MGP) or treatment with pharmacological inhibitors of BMP signaling reduces vascular inflammation and calcification [136]. In this sense, overexpression of MGP is shown to attenuate vascular calcification in *ApoE*^{-/-} mice [137, 138]. Another study showed that treatment with LDN-193189, a small molecule BMPRI kinase inhibitor, or ALK3_{ECD} led to reduction of vascular inflammation and calcification in *Ldlr*^{-/-} mice [139]. A recent study showed that oxidized-LDL (oxLDL) and BMP6 synergistically recruit osteogenic differentiation in ECs providing a potential mechanism for the interactions of BMP signaling, oxidative stress, and inflammation in recruiting vascular calcification associated with atherosclerosis [115].

6.5. Ischemic neovascularization

Vasculogenesis and angiogenesis play also a crucial role in adults in various ischemic disorders. Several therapeutic approaches are highlighting the potential of using endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) to promote re-endothelialization of damaged vessels and to enhance neovascularization after ischemic diseases such as heart and limb ischemia. A very recent

report showed that BMP9 in a mouse hindlimb ischemia model enhances blood flow recovery *in vivo* [60].

6.7. Tumor angiogenesis

Angiogenesis plays also a key role in tumor growth, invasion and metastasis. Current anti-angiogenic therapies in cancer are mainly focusing on targeting VEGF signaling. However, the development of anti-VEGF therapy resistance as well as compensatory angiogenic mechanisms by the tumors, has urged the search of alternative approaches, including modulation of BMP signaling [136]. Altered expression of BMPs has been found in several types of cancer (ovarian, gastric, lung, colon, breast) [136]. Among them, BMP2 and -4 have been shown to promote tumor angiogenesis via different mechanisms. Blockade by BMP antagonists like Noggin or Chordin, or specific antibodies resulted in reduced tube formation in a melanoma model, or decreased tumor growth *in vivo* in a lung carcinoma mouse model (reviewed in [136]).

Since ALK1 and endoglin are specifically expressed on ECs, several studies have focused on ALK1 or Endoglin as promising targets to interfere with tumor angiogenesis [10, 140]. Targeting ALK1 directly by using anti-ALK1 antibodies or by sequestering BMP9 and 10 with the ligand trap ALK1_{ECD}, has been performed in mouse preclinical models and phase 2 clinical trials; Two studies published in 2015, using mouse models and ALK1_{ECD}, show slightly different results; one shows that ALK1_{ECD} reduces tumor growth, vessel density and metastasis [141] while the other shows no effect on tumor growth but a normalization of the vessels and a beneficial effect combining ALK1_{ECD} with cisplatin [142]. The conclusions of the first two clinical trials are that blocking ALK1 as a monotherapy is insufficient and that combinatory therapy should be investigated [143, 144]. Inhibition of EC proliferation and tumor growth has also been achieved in mouse cancer models by targeting Endoglin [10]. Injection of Endoglin_{ECD} results in inhibition of VEGF-induced angiogenesis and tumor growth, highlighting its potential as a therapeutic target in tumor angiogenesis [145, 146].

7. BMP signaling interplay in the vasculature

BMP pathways are intensely regulated by inputs from other pathways that fine-tune BMP signaling activity according to contextual status (Notch, WNT, Hippo, FGF, VEGF, Ephrins, apelin). We will present here the most relevant signaling interplay in the vasculature.

7.1. BMP and Notch signaling

Notch signaling is critical to balance angiogenic sprouting by limiting the tip cell and promoting the stalk cell phenotype [1](Fig. 4A), to trigger EndMT in endocardium during cardiac valve formation and to regulate context dependently LEC specification and lymphatic valve formation. In contrast to BMPs, Notch mediated signaling elicits binary types of responses. Interaction between membrane-embedded Delta-like (DLL) and Jagged (JAG) ligands and the Notch-receptor requires cell-cell contact. The Notch receptor becomes proteolytically processed upon ligand-receptor interaction, its intracellular domain (NICD) translocates into the nucleus where it complexes with RBP-J and Mastermind to activate expression of target genes [147].

Different interactions between the BMP and Notch cascade have been reported in vascular cell types (reviewed in [78, 148]). BMP9 and -6 signaling directly regulate expression of *JAG1* and *HEY2* in ECs through binding of SMAD1/5 to GC-SBE binding sites in their promoter [26]. *JAG1* dampens DLL4-Notch signaling in tip cells [149]. BMP-SMADs and SMAD4 can also form a complex with NICD and RBP-J resulting in BMP enhanced recruitment of the complex to the RBP-J binding site to transactivate target genes of Notch signaling like *Hey1/2* and *Cdh2* [150, 151] (Fig. 4A).

Interestingly, several studies indicate that pSMAD1/5/8 can activate Notch target genes like *Hey-1/2* and *Ephb2* in a Notch/RBPJ-independent manner [41, 47, 66, 152]. *Loss-of-function* of *Notch* and/or *Alk1* signaling in zebrafish shows that both exhibit context-specific and target-specific interactions in controlling Notch target gene expression *in vivo* e.g. in the dorsal aorta, but also that AVMs associated with *Alk1* deficiency do not result from perturbations in Notch activity [152]. This illustrates that care should be given when generalizing findings to different vascular beds and setting.

BMP and Notch signaling seem to synergize and to antagonize each other often in the same cell type to dynamically control cellular signaling responses (Fig. 4A). HEY and HES1 are basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcriptional repressors, while ID proteins are HLH factors that can dimerize with bHLH proteins. The ID-HES1 interaction releases the negative autoregulation of HES1, which results in increased expression of *Hes1* [153].

However, upon increased production of HEY2, the latter can compete with HES1 for ID-binding, and HEY2-ID complexes are targeted for proteosomal degradation [65, 150]. Relative abundance of HES1, ID and HEY-components may thus pivot BMP and Notch signaling modes between synergy and antagonism [148].

Reciprocal BMP and Notch signaling between the endocardium and the myocardium is required for initiation of EndMT in the valve forming site: with *Jag1* being induced in endocardium by BMP signaling, while JAG1-Notch1 signaling regulates on its turn *Bmp2* expression in myocardium [92, 154], a process that has extensively been reviewed [78].

Recently, Neuropilin 1 (NRP1) has been linked in ECs to Notch and TGF β signaling [155]. NRP1, a transmembrane co-receptor for several unrelated ligands, limits activation of SMAD2/3, and perhaps also SMAD1/5/8, through ALK1 and -5. Doing so, NRP1 represses actively stalk cell phenotype in the tip cell; while Notch mediated signaling represses *Nrp1* in the stalk cell. It is yet unclear how NRP1 interferes with phosphorylation of SMAD2/3; whether Notch-mediated repression of *Nrp1* involves SMADs directly or involves SMAD- and Notch-effectors. This work supports a paradigm launched by Moya et al. [65], that the tip cell is not the default response, but requires active suppression of the stalk cell phenotype. These studies show that cells transfected with siRNAs against *ALK1*, *ALK5*, *SMAD2/3* or *SMAD1/5* preferentially occupy the tip position in mosaic HUVEC tip cell competition assays. Hence, pSMAD1/5 and now also pSMAD2/3 appear critical for stalk cell competence and phenotype, likely prior tip cell selection. Interestingly, deletion of a single copy of *Nrp1* normalizes the hypervascular phenotype observed in *Alk1*-deficient retinas raising the possibility of targeting NRP1 as a therapeutic approach for HHT patients or other vascular disorders [155].

7.2. BMP and WNT signaling

WNT signaling pathways play a key role in angiogenesis, cardiac development and disease [156]. WNTs are a family of 19 secreted glycoproteins that signal through distinct pathways, referred to as the canonical WNT/ β -catenin pathway, the non-canonical WNT/calcium and the planar cell polarity (PCP) pathways depending on the WNTs acting respectively via frizzled (FRZ) receptors, or via a complex composed of FRZ and LRP5/6, or the transmembrane receptor tyrosine kinases ROR2 and RYK.

Reciprocal BMP and Notch signaling is required for EndMT in the valve forming site, and regulates *Wnt4* expression in the endocardium [154]. Inhibition of WNT signaling,

presumably WNT4, in whole embryo mouse cultures has shown that *Bmp2* and *Msx1* expression in myocardium depends on WNT signaling; and either BMP2 and WNT4 can rescue the defective EndMT resulting from Notch inhibition, with WNT4 rescue requiring BMP activity [154]. The BMP/SMAD axis activates directly expression of the T-box transcription factor *Tbx20* [157], which on its turn regulates the WNT pathway to direct endocardial cushion maturation and valve elongation, but is not required for initiation of EndMT [158]. In addition, TBX20 regulates *Lef1*, a key transcriptional mediator for WNT/ β -catenin signaling, in this developmental process [159] (Fig. 4B). As discussed in section 5.1 BMP signaling induces the expression of *aggfl* in ECs, which promotes β -catenin-mediated transcription of *Nr2f2/CouptfII* important for cardinal vein identity [85] (Fig. 4B).

Finally, it has been described – although not yet in ECs - that the BMP signaling duration becomes prolonged when levels of canonical WNT signaling are high. This can be explained by the fact that WNT signaling inhibits GSK3 and thus prevents GSK3-mediated inhibitory linker phosphorylation of SMAD1 and SMAD4 [160, 161] (Fig. 4B).

7.3. BMP and Hippo signaling

The Hippo cascade is a critical pathway for mechanotransduction and the regulation of cell-cell contacts; this pathway seems not to have a classical ligand-receptor interaction but to be activated by cell polarity, cell-cell contact, cellular stress and mechanotransduction (Fig. 4C). Activation of LATS1/2 (large tumor suppressor) kinases results in phosphorylation and cytoplasmic retention of amongst others YAP (yes-associated protein) and TAZ (transcriptional co-activator with a PDZ-binding domain). In the absence of Hippo signaling, YAP and TAZ act in the nucleus and regulate transcription via interaction with cognate transcription factors, like TEADs (reviewed in [162]). YAP mediates endothelial junctional stability and vascular remodeling via Angiopoietin 2 [163].

Recently, BMP-SMADs have also been implicated in Hippo crosstalk in ECs. BMP9 has been shown to induce YAP1 nuclear localization in an Endoglin-dependent manner [164]. Furthermore, the YAP target genes *CCN1* (cysteine-rich 61, CYR61) and *CCN2*, also known as connective tissue growth factor (CTGF), as well as the chemokine *CCL2* (monocyte chemotactic protein 1, MCP-1) are regulated by BMP9 [164].

It was recently shown in epithelial cells that SMAD1 linker phosphorylation mediates binding of YAP to this region resulting in full activation of SMAD-dependent transcription [165]. It is not known yet whether this will also occur in the endothelium.

YAP has recently been shown to regulate EndMT in endocardium [166]; given the pivotal role of BMP2 in this event it is tempting to speculate that Hippo and BMP pathways may cooperate in the process of atrioventricular valve formation as well.

7.4. BMP and FGF signaling

FGF signaling has been implicated in early vascular development. The FGF family consists of 18 FGFs that activate via interaction with tyrosine kinase receptors intracellular RAS-MAPK, PI3K-Akt, PLC- γ and STAT intracellular signaling pathways [167]. Many of these pathways intersect with BMP elicited non-SMAD cascades. High levels of FGF signaling will also shorten the BMP signaling duration because of increased MAPK activity and MAPK-mediated inhibitory linker phosphorylation of SMADs [160, 161], however this has not been described in ECs yet. Enhanced expression and activation of the FGF signaling pathway results in increased levels of BMPER, which has been described to dampen the BMP response and to promote angiogenesis [82, 168]. BMP was recently shown to induce FGFR1 and 2 in ECs [68].

7.5. BMP and VEGF signaling and the hypoxic environment

BMP4, BMP7 and BMP9 repress *VEGF* expression [169, 170] (Fig. 4D). BMP9 also represses the expression of *VEGFR2* and induces the expression of *VEGFR1* [19, 47, 56], which is described as a receptor trap for VEGF, further supporting that BMPs decrease VEGF signaling in ECs (Fig. 4D). Interestingly, AVM formation in *Eng* or *Alk1* loss-of-function is strongly potentiated by VEGF and reciprocally interference with the VEGF pathway has shown beneficial effects in the treatment of HHT [171, 172].

Although hypoxia is not a classical signaling pathway, it is a major trigger for angiogenesis; hence we discuss here the consequences of hypoxia on expression of BMP signaling components. BMPs secreted under hypoxic conditions – remotely from the vessel - may diffuse and contribute in concert with other pro-angiogenic signals like VEGF in the activation of tip cells in nearby vessels; this may trigger activation of distinct receptor complexes and cascades than the circulatory BMPs that activate ECs at the luminal side. Several studies have reported that expression of *BMP4* is induced by hypoxia [173-175] (Fig. 4D). Hypoxia and ischemic reperfusion in intestinal epithelium causes upregulation of *Bmp2/4* and *Alk3* and *Bmpr2* [176]. In cartilage and osteoblasts, hypoxia induced expression of *Bmp2* is partially mediated through HIF1 α induced ILK/mTOR/AKT pathways [177, 178]. Conversely, BMP9/SMAD1/5/8 mediated signaling induces expression of *HIF1 α* in

mesenchymal stromal cells [179], while BMP2 downregulates *HIF1 α* in GBM cells [180]. It remains whether similar regulations occur in ECs.

8. Conclusions and perspectives

In this review we have zoomed in on recent discoveries on how BMP signaling co-regulates vascular biology and functions, and how impaired BMP signaling can underlie disease. One of the emerging trends is the pro-inflammatory and atheriogenic, remodeling role of BMP signaling in the vessel wall and the valvular endocardium, which seems tightly linked to the interpretation of mechanosensitive responses derived from blood flow. In addition to the crucial crosstalks of BMP signaling and Notch, WNT, or Hippo signaling cascades it becomes very clear that the BMP-pathway is a core signaling cascade in vascular cells. Exciting progress has also been made towards the development of agents for the treatment of vascular disorders.

The recent studies have opened the door for several important unanswered questions with respect to BMP signaling within endothelial beds. We have listed a few of them:

- What are the differences in ALK1-BMP9/10 signaling versus other branches of the BMP signaling pathway? In other words what determines the specificity of the type-1 receptor signaling? Which roles play non-SMAD versus SMAD signaling in explaining EC plasticity and heterogeneity?
- Are there specific targets and functions for SMAD1, SMAD5 and SMAD8? SMAD8 being linked to vascular disease suggests no redundancy in the adult vasculature.
- How widespread or scattered and dynamic is signaling in different vascular beds?
- What is the impact of miRNA or lncRNA mediated silencing of BMP signaling components on vascular integrity of different vascular beds?
- Could somatic loss-of-heterozygosity of *ALK1* or *ENG* trigger lesion development in HHT or PAH patients, as was shown for CCM [181]?
- How can mutations in the same *ACVRL1/BMP2* pathway cause different diseases, PAH versus HHT? Can we imagine similar therapeutically approach for these 2 diseases? How do mutations of *BMP2*, *ACVRL1* and *ENG* cause diseases that are restricted to pulmonary circulation or liver, lungs, and brain, respectively [182]?

The many levels of modulation of the BMP signaling cascade (see also review by others in this issue) by e.g. the ECM, co-receptors, competition for the receptors or the SMADs between BMPs, endocytosis, post-translational modifications and degradation, or miRNAs all

contribute to the highly context-dependent physiological roles and activities of BMPs in different vascular beds. So does the intersection between BMP and other signaling cascades; and the formation of different receptor complexes with different ligand affinities. This complexity often confounds results obtained in cell culture experiments using different cell types and model organisms. A deeper understanding of the context-dependency and the different effects of BMP signaling on arteries, veins and lymphatic vessels, on capillary beds of different organs or on tip, stalk and phalanx ECs may give insight in vessel-type restricted disorders and lead to refinement of (anti)-angiogenic therapies.

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Legends to Figures

Throughout all figures, genes are italicized and in capitals, while proteins are in regular font irrespective whether data is obtained in human, mouse or zebrafish models. See main text for further details, abbreviations and references.

Figure 1. **Schematic overview of BMP signaling in endothelial cells (ECs).** BMP dimers signaling are triggered by ligand binding to heteromeric surface receptor complexes of specific type II and type I receptors. Different BMP subgroups can signal via different receptor complexes (black and dashed arrows correspond respectively to high and lower affinity receptors). The relative levels of type I and type II (mRNA) in ECs are represented, this however depends on the EC origin as ALK6 has been found highly expressed in HUVECs (asterisk) [18]. Ligand binding triggers activation of the type I receptors by the type II receptors. SMAD- and non-SMAD pathways can become activated. SMAD1/5/8 are the effectors of the BMP SMAD-pathway. Phosphorylated SMAD1/5/8 (pSMAD1/5/8) form heteromeric complexes with SMAD4 and translocate to the nucleus where they regulate target gene expression by interaction with other transcription factors (not illustrated). Non-SMAD pathways (depicted in blue) involve the activation of different kinases that can affect transcriptional regulation or non-transcriptional functions [183]. BMPs regulate many signaling components involved in EC signaling.

Figure 2. **BMP signaling and hemodynamics forces in the vasculature.** BMPs and flow-induced hemodynamic changes co-regulate the remodeling response of ECs. Blood flow increases ALK1 levels. Laminar shear stress (LSS) and oscillatory shear stress (OSS) affect intracellular SMAD1/5/8 signaling differentially and OSS upregulates ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 in a BMP4-dependent manner. OSS induces synergistic interactions between BMP receptors and integrin ($\alpha\text{v}\beta\text{3}$) to activate SMAD1/5 through the Shc/FAK/ERK pathway, which leads to the activation of the Runx/mTOR/p70S6K pathway to regulate EC cycle. BMP-SMAD signaling induces *Msx1* in arteries during ischemic reperfusion. MSX1 then induces through induction of ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 an inflammatory response and atheriogenic remodeling response. BMP-SMAD signaling and the lack of tethering of β -catenin at the plasma membrane due to absence of the primary cilium cooperatively enhances the β -catenin-mediated induction of *Slug*, which triggers EndMT and mineralization remodeling.

Figure 3. Defects associated with impaired BMP signaling in blood and lymphatic vasculature. The blood vasculature consists of a hierarchical network of arteries and arterioles (red), a capillary network, and venules and veins (blue). Blind-ending lymphatic capillaries (green) drain extravasated fluid and cells from the capillary bed into collecting vessels. The lymph fluid is further transported to lymph nodes and ducts, and back into the blood circulation. Peri-endothelial cells cover the ECs; VSMCs are associated with arteries and veins, whereas the capillaries in the capillary bed are covered only sparsely by pericytes (the difference in coverage is not indicated in the scheme). The collecting lymphatic vessels are covered by few VSMCs and these vessels contain valves that prevent backflow of lymph fluid. When BMP signaling is unbalanced in the vasculature, then this can result in different blood and lymphatic vessel defects. So far two diseases have been linked to impaired BMP signaling in human: pulmonary arterial hypertension (PAH, mutations in *BMPR2*, *ACVRL1*, *SMAD8*) characterized by aberrant vascular remodeling that can lead to obstruction of small arteries and hereditary hemorrhagic telangiectasia (HHT, mutations in *ENG*, *ACVRL1*, *SMAD4*, *GDF2* (BMP9)) characterized by arteriovenous shunts, poor vessel coverage and hemorrhages. Cerebral cavernous malformation (CCM) has been associated to increased BMP6 signaling. Lymphatic defects (hyperproliferation, dilation, lack of valves, poor drainage) have so far only been observed in mouse and zebrafish models with impaired BMP2, BMP9, ALK1 and SMAD5 signaling. BMPs have also been associated with tumor angiogenesis.

Figure 4. Intersections between BMP signaling cascades and other signaling pathways in endothelium. **A.** BMP and Notch signaling synergize and antagonize in ECs. BMP-SMAD signaling induces several genes independently of Notch-mediated signaling, also so-called Notch targets (1), but pSMAD1/5/8 and NICD, the Notch intracellular domain, can interact and can synergistically induce genes (2). HES and HEY are bHLH transcriptional repressors, while ID proteins are HLH factors that can dimerize with bHLH proteins. HES1 autorepresses its own transcription, this repression is released by the interaction between ID and HES1 (3), resulting in HES1 accumulation and HES1 mediated repression of *Dll4* (4) and *Vegfr2*, which is important for stalk cell competence. When protein interactions of IDs shift towards HEY, then IDs is targeted for proteosomal degradation (5), this antagonism results in regained autorepression of HES1. pSMAD1/5/8 induced production of JAG1 dampens Notch signaling in the tip cell (6). Neuropilin 1 (NRP1), a tip cell determinant, has also been reported to be actively repressed by Notch-mediated signaling in the stalk cell. **B.** BMP and WNT signaling

enforce each other in ECs. In brief, the absence of canonical WNT ligand-receptor binding, GSK3 mediates phosphorylation and destabilization of cytoplasmic β -catenin and activated BMP-SMADs. When WNTs bind Frizzled-LRP receptors, then GSK3 activity is blocked resulting in stabilization of activated BMP-SMADs and β -catenin. In zebrafish, *aggfl* is induced by BMP-SMAD signaling in veins, which on its turn enforce β -catenin/Tcf/Lef mediated induction of *Nr2f2/CoupTFII*. CoupTFII is an important regulator of venous and lymphatic identity. Also in the heart BMP signaling enforces WNT signaling because LEF1 becomes enriched in endocardium through BMP-SMAD signaling induced production of TBX20. **C.** YAP and TAZ are Hippo effectors. The BMP9/Endoglin axis triggers nuclear localization of YAP, and co-regulates the YAP target genes *Ccn1/Cyr61*, *Ccn2/Ctgf*, as well as the chemokine *Ccl2/Mcp-1* and subsequent cell matrix remodeling and local inflammatory responses. **D.** BMP signaling and hypoxia synergize in hypoxia sensitive processes. Hypoxia induces via HIF1 α the induction of pro-angiogenic cues like *Vegf* but also of *Bmp2* and *-4*. It is tempting to speculate that these BMPs can enhance angiogenic sprouting and migration in nearby vessels. HIF1 α also induces expression of the BMP receptors *Alk3* and *BmpRII*. Activation of the BMP-SMAD signaling cascade further boosts the HIF1 α -mediated induction of hypoxia sensitive genes through the induction of *Hif1 α* , *Ilk1* and *Ets1* (172-173), but also down-regulates the VEGF signaling pathway.

Fig. 1

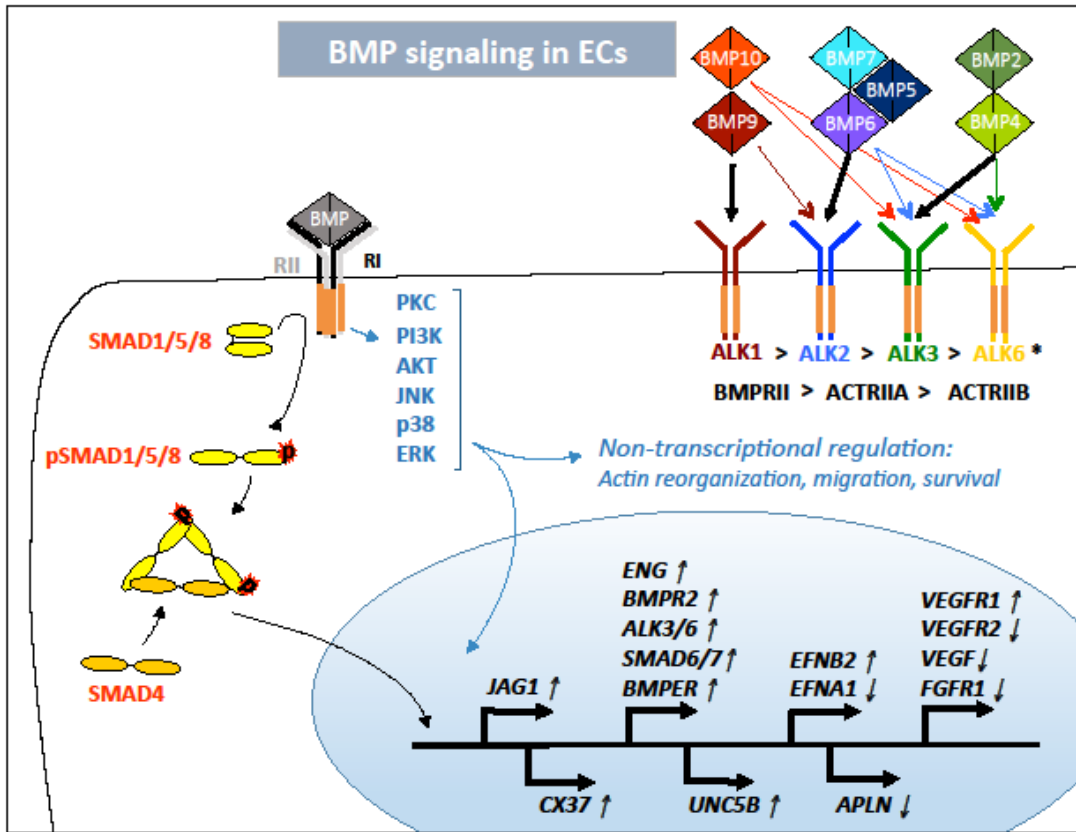
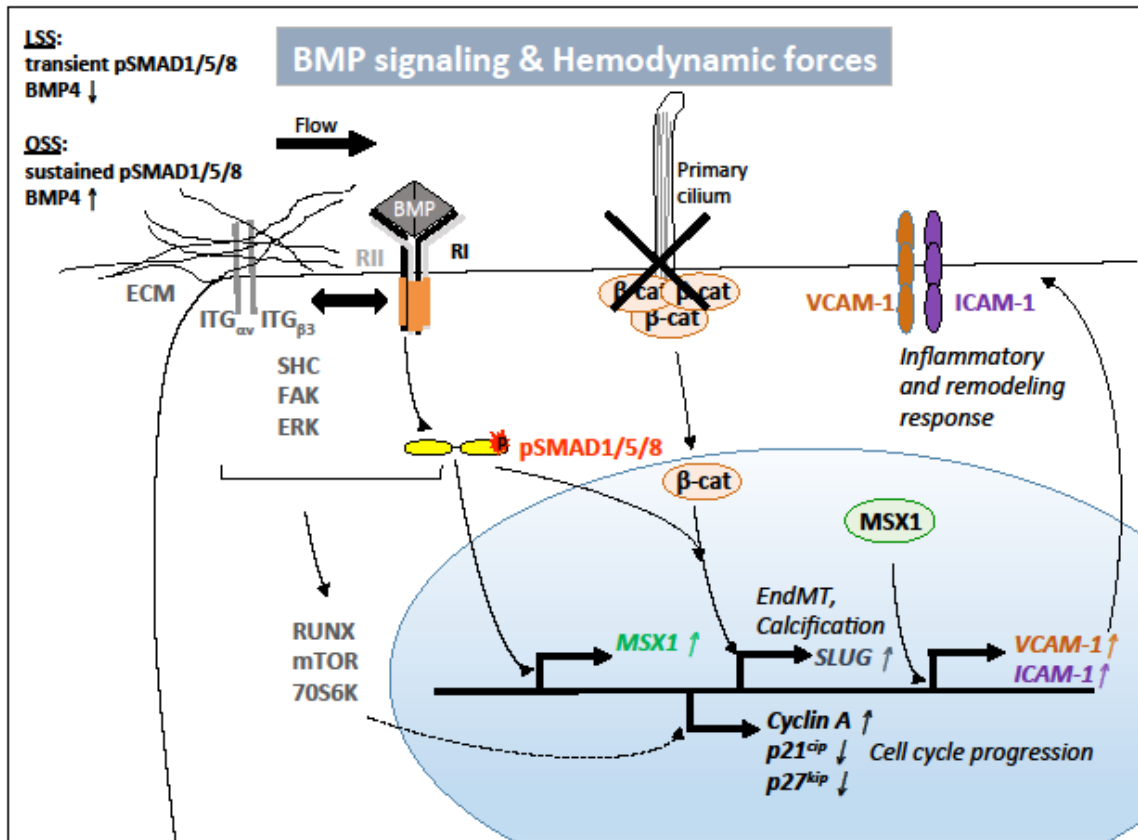


Fig. 2



BMP signaling & vascular defects

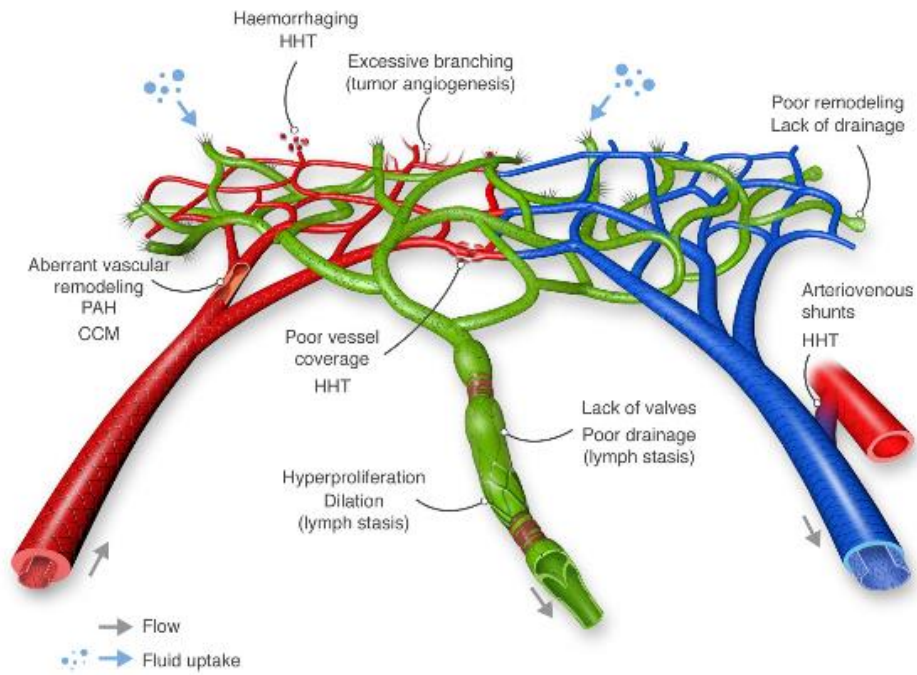


Fig. 4

