J. JOŚKO, *S. HENDRYK, H. JĘDRZEJOWSKA-SZYPUŁKA, *J. SŁOWIŃSKI, B. GWÓŹDŹ, **D. LANGE, **M. ŚNIETURA, K. ŻWIRSKA-KORCZALA, J. JOCHEM

CEREBRAL ANGIOGENESIS AFTER SUBARACHNOID HEMORRHAGE (SAH) AND ENDOTHELIN RECEPTOR BLOCKAGE WITH BQ-123 ANTAGONIST IN RATS

Department of Physiology Silesian University School of Medicine, Zabrze, *Department of Neurosurgery and Neurotraumatology Silesian University School of Medicine, Bytom, **Department of Tumor Pathology Institute of Oncology, Gliwice,

The aim of the study was to determine the effect of chronic vasospasm after SAH on angiogenesis and the effect of endothelin-1, the main causative factor in vasospasm, on this process. Male Wistar rats, 220—250 g, were examined. Seven days after cannulation of the cisterna magna (CM), a 100 μl dose of non-heparinized blood was administered to induce SAH. Sham SAH (aSAH) was induced by intracisternal injection of 100 μl of artificial cerebrospinal fluid. Endothelin receptor antagonist BQ-123 in a dose of 40 nmol in 50 μl of cerebrospinal fluid was given three times: 20 min. before SAH and aSAH, 60 min and 24 hours after SAH and aSAH. The same pattern of BQ-123 administration was used in the nonSAH group. The brains were removed 48 hours later for histological evaluation. Vascular surface density was measured in cerebral hemisphere sections (at the level of the dorsal part of the hippocampus) and brain stem sections (1/2 of the pons). An increase in angiogenesis was observed after SAH, compared to control values. The administration of BQ-123, a specific endothelin receptor blocker inhibits angiogenesis in cerebral hemispheres after SAH.

Keywords: subarachnoid hemorrhage, endothelin-1, antagonist ET_A receptors — BQ-123, angiogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

Subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH) frequently leads to prolonged cerebral vasospasm resulting in vascular pathology due to endothelial cell ischemia and neuronal hypoxia (1). Endothelial damage is manifested by changes such as cellular edema, capillary occlusion and thickening of the muscle layer (2).

As demonstrated in numerous experimental and clinical studies, the spasmogenic activity in SAH is exerted by both the substances released from the thrombus and endothelin-1 (ET_1), a most potent vasoconstrictor produced by hypoxic endothelial cells (3, 4).

Our previous investigations showed a reversal of SAH-induced constriction of the cerebral basilar artery following the administration of BQ-123, a selective ET_A blocker (5). Other authors also reported an increase in ET_1 concentrations in the cerebrospinal fluid and blood of patients after SAH (6, 7). In many cases, plasma ET_1 levels closely correlated with the thrombus size and the magnitude of circulatory disturbances (3).

Both in hypoxia and brain tumor, the affected cells were found to produce increased amounts of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), a major angiogenic factor and enhancer of vascular permeability (8—12).

Angiogenesis has so far been demonstrated in embryogenesis (13), diabetic retinopathy (14, 15), post-infarction myocardium (16), psoriasis (17), lower limb ischemia (18), endometriosis (19, 20), rheumatoid arthritis (21, 22) and, most of all, neoplasms (23, 24). There are no reports in literature concerning angiogenesis after SAH.

The aim of the present study was to determine whether SAH-induced vasospasm and endothelial hypoxia promote angiogenesis in the cerebral hemispheres and brainstem, and whether angiogenesis also occurs after reversing ET₁-induced vasospasm with BQ-123.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Seventy five male Wistar rats weighing 220—250 g were used. The animals were housed 2 per cage under controlled conditions of lighting (light on from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m.), temperature $(20-22^{\circ}C)$ and humidity (50-60%), with free access to water and food (Murigran, Motycz). All experiments were performed between 2 p.m. and 5 p.m. on animals anesthetized with i.p. Ketamine $(100 \text{ mg} \times \text{kg}^{-1})$.

The animals were divided into 5 groups of 10 rats each:

- control no surgical intervention
- nonSAH cannulation only
- 3. aSAH sham SAH by artificial cerebrospinal fluid
- 4. SAH subarachnoid hemorrhage
- SAH + BQ-123

Experiment

The cisterna magna (CM) was cannulated 7 days before SAH or aSAH to allow time for disappearance of any effects of the procedure (25, 26). A technique by Solomon et al., with own modification, was used (27). The procedure was carried out using an operating microscope and a stereotaxic apparatus. A midline parietooccipital and nape incision was made to expose the parietal and occipital bones, the atlas arch and the apicooccipital membrane. A 0.8-mm hole was drilled at the parietooccipital suture level, through which a cannula (Venocath — 18, Abbot) was inserted into the cisterna magna (CM). Proper positioning of the end of the cannula in CM and free outflow of the cerebrospinal fluid through the cannula were checked.

Subarachnoid hemorrhage

The hemorrhage was induced by intracisternal administration of 100 µl nonheparinized blood drawn through a 0.6 mm Neoflon catheter from the axillary artery prepared in the operating microscope. Sham SAH (aSAH) was induced by intracisternal administration of 100 µl artificial CSF.

The BQ-123 antagonist (40 nmol in 50 µl CSF) was administered three times: 20 min before SAH and aSAH, 60 min after SAH and aSAH, and 24 h after SAH and aSAH (28). The same pattern of BQ-123 administration was used in the nonSAH group.

The results given are those from measurements made at 48 h after SAH, aSAH and nonSAH. Upon completion of this phase of experiment, the animals were anesthetized with ketamine (100 mg/kg⁻¹, i.p.) and the brains were removed for histologic examination.

Brain removal

After thoracotomy and heart exposure, a catheter was inserted into the left ventricle and 100 ml phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4, was administered under 120 cm H₂O pressure, followed by 200 ml fixative fluid (1% glutaraldehyde and 4% formaldehyde in PBS). The vessels were thus washed and fixed, and the excess fluid was allowed to escape through an incision in the right atrium. Next, the skin in the cerebrocranial region was incised and the brain was removed and immersed in the fixative for 24 h at 4°C. After that time it was placed in cold PBS and subjected to histologic examination.

Histologic examination

Each brain was fixed in the fixative fluid (4% formaldehyde and 1% glutaraldehyde) for 12 h at 4°C and washed in cold PBS, pH 7.4. The brainstem and cerebellum were then dissected and the former was cut transversly at $^{1}/_{2}$ pons level. The cerebrum was processed through alcohols and xylens to paraffin (Paraplast X-tra, Sigma) in a histoprocessor. Paraffin sections, 5 µm thick, were cut and stained with cresyl violet.

Vascular density measurements were made using a computerized system of microscope image analysis, equipped with Kontron KS 400 software and connected to a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope. A 400 × magnification was used. In each preparation 25 visual fields from the dorsal hippocampal level of the cerebral hemispheres and from $^{1}/_{2}$ the pons level of the brainstem (abdominal part) were evaluated. For procedure of capillary counting a macro, working in KS 400 system was designed. The macro was based on the interactive algorithm, discriminating clear spaces, corresponding to cross sections of capillaries (blood cells were washed out during perfusion fixation), seen on the dark background of stained tissue. Spaces smaller than 2,25 µm were excluded from analysis, as they did not have visible endothelial cell nucleus and thus could be not a capillary lumena.

Surface vascular densities (vessels/mm²), means and standard deviations were calculated.

Statistical analysis

For the statistical analysis nonparametric Wilcoxon test was used. Statistical significance was p < 0.05.

RESULTS

Angiogenesis in cerebral hemispheres

In control animals, mean vascular density was 441.2 ± 177.6 (*Tab. 1*). Example of histological picture of rat cerebral vessels in the control group is presented in the *Fig. 1*_A.

Similar densities were observed in the nonSAH and aSAH groups, the values being 370.0 ± 65.9 (p = 0.4) and 400.4 ± 265.0 (p = 0.7) respectively (Tab. 1). After SAH induction, the density increased in relation to the control value, and was 840.2 ± 233.9 . The increase was statistically significant, p = 0.001 (Tab. 1). Example of histological picture of rat cerebral vessels in the SAH group is presented in the Fig. I_B .

Administration of BQ-123 had significant influence on angiogenesis after SAH. In the nonSAH+BQ-123 group the vascular density was 576.4 ± 191.1 (p = 0.5) (Tab. 2) while in the aSAH+BQ-123 group it was 600.2 ± 279.0 (p = 0.4) (Tab. 2). In the SAH+BQ-123 group the density was 517.0 ± 199.4 , which was statistically significant, p < 0.05 (Tab. 2). Example of histological picture of rat cerebral vessels in the SAH+BQ-123 group is presented in the Fig. I_C .

Table 1. Mean vascular densities (number of vessels/mm2) in cerebral hemispheres after SAH in rats.

| | Control | nonSAH | aSAH | SAH |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|---------------|---------------|
| Number of vessels/mm ² | 441.2 ± 177.6 | 370.0 ± 65.9 | 400.4 ± 265.0 | 840.2 ± 233.9 |
| nonSAH | not statistically significant | | | |
| aSAH | not statistically significant | not statistically significant | | |
| SAH | p<0.001 | p<0.001 | p < 0.001 | |

Table 2. Mean vascular densities (number of vessels/mm²) in cerebral hemispheres after SAH and BO-123 administration in rats.

| Groups | Mean | p | |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|--|
| nonSAH | 370.0 ± 65.9 | not statistically significant | |
| nonSAH + BQ-123 | 576.4 ± 191.1 | | |
| aSAH | 400.4 ± 265.0 | not statistically significant | |
| aSAH + BQ-123 | 600.2 ± 279.0 | | |
| SAH | 840.2 ± .233.9 | p<0.05 | |
| SAH + BQ-123 | 517.0 < 199.4 | | |

The nonSAH, aSAH and SAH groups serve as reference for BQ-123 — administered groups.

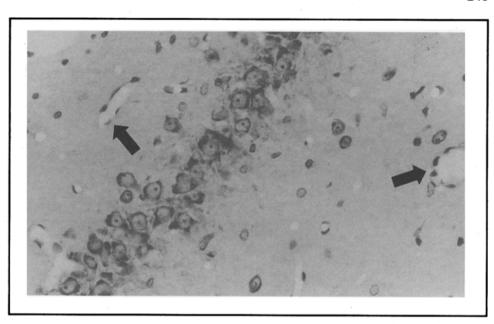


Fig. 1_A. Angiogenesis in cerebral hemispheres — control group. Rat hippocampal cortex. Scarcely distributed capillaries, including larger ones are visible (arrow). The mean vessel density in this specimen was 320 vessels/mm². Cresyl violet stain. Magnification 400 ×.

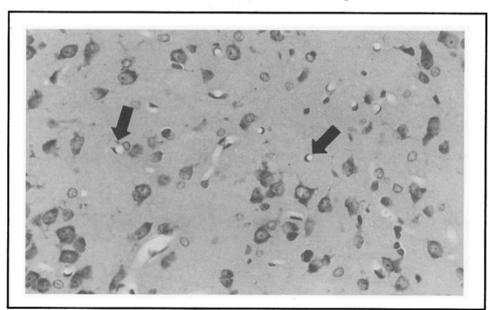


Fig. 1_B. Angiogenesis in cerebral hemispheres — SAH group. Rat hippocampal cortex. Numerous vessels predominantly small capillaries are visible (arrows). The mean vessel density in this specimen was 860 vessels/mm². Note empty vessel lumena, resulting from perfusion fixation. Cresyl violet stain. Magnification 400×.

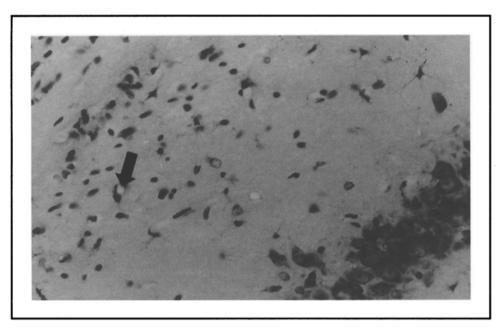


Fig. I_c . Angiogenesis in cerebral hemispheres after SAH and BQ-123 administration. Rat hippocampal cortex. Scarcelly distributed capillaries. The mean vessel density in this specimen was 263 vessels /mm². Cresyl violet stain. Magnification $400 \times$.

Angiogenesis in brainstem

Example of histological picture of rat cerebral vessels in the control group is presented in the $Fig. 2_A$ and in the SAH group is presented in the $Fig. 2_B$.

No statistically significant differences in vascular density were observed between control and experimental groups. The values obtained in particular groups were: control — 443.0 ± 170.4 , nonSAH — 539.5 ± 373.4 (p = 0.4), aSAH — 611.4 ± 141.7 (p = 0.3), and SAH — 624.6 ± 211.8 (p = 0.1) (Tab. 3). After BQ-123 administration, the densities in particular groups did not change significantly and were: nonSAH+BQ-123 — 521.2 ± 179.6 (p = 0.9) (Tab. 4), aSAH+BQ-123 — 471.1 ± 209.9 (p = 0.5) (Tab. 4), SAH+BQ-123 — 503.7 ± 252.2 (p = 0.2) (Tab. 4).

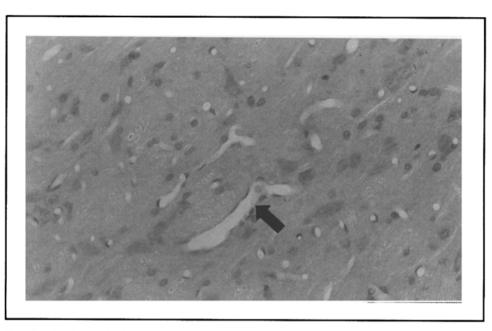


Fig. 2_A. Angiogenesis in brainstem — control group. Ventral surface of the pons. Scarcely distributed capillaries, including larger ones are visible (arrow). The mean vessel density in this specimen was 410 vessels/mm². HE stain. Magnification 400×.

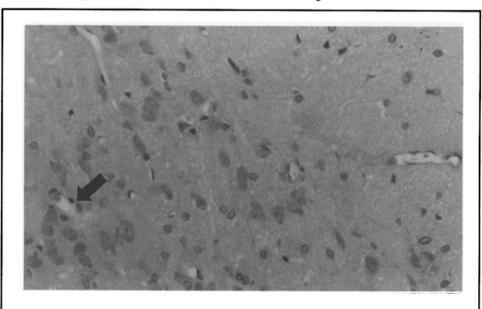


Fig. 2_B . Angiogenesis in brainstem — SAH group. Ventral surface of the pons. Scarcely distributed capillaries. The mean vessel density in this specimen was 350 vessels/mm². HE stain. Magnification $400 \times$.

Table 3. Mean vascular densities (number of vessels/mm²) in brainstem after SAH in rats.

| | Control | nonSAH | aSAH | SAH |
|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------|
| Number of vessels/mm ² | 443.0 ± 170.4 | 539.0 ± 373.4 | 611.4±141.7 | 624.6 ± 211.8 |
| nonSAH | not statistically significant | | | |
| aSAH | not statistically significant | not statistically significant | | |
| SAH | not statistically significant | not statistically significant | not statistically significally | |

Table 4. Mean vascular densities (number of vessels/mm²) in brainstem after SAH and BQ-123 administration in rats.

| Groups | Mean | p | |
|-----------------|----------------|-------------------------------|--|
| nonSAH | 539.5 ± 373.4 | not statistically significant | |
| nonSAH + BQ-123 | 521.2 ± 179.6 | | |
| aSAH | 611.4 ± 141.7 | not statistically significant | |
| aSAH + BQ-123 | 471.1 ± 209.9 | | |
| SAH | 624.2 ± .211.8 | not statistically significant | |
| SAH + BQ-123 | 503.7 ± 252.2 | not statistically significant | |

The nonSAH, aSAH and SAH groups serve as reference for BQ-123 — administered groups.

DISCUSSION

The present study has demonstrated enhancement of angiogenesis in the cerebral hemispheres after SAH. The increase in vascular density at 48 h was nearly twofold. The administration of BQ-123, a specific endothelin ET_A receptor blocker, inhibits angiogenesis after SAH in cerebral hemispheres. No significant increase in the density of brainstem capillaries was observed. Studies by other authors have shown that cerebral circulation adapts to hypoxia which lasts more than 4 months in two ways, through angiogenesis and dilatation of microvessels. The reaction to hypoxia depends on the brain area and is not homogenous. In the cerebral cortex, striatum and hippocampus the number of vessels per 1 mm² tissue rises significantly, whereas in the cerebellum and medulla oblongata there is only a tendency to an increase (29). These differences, regarding reaction to hypoxia could be explained by special features of celebral circulation, namely its spatial distribution. Cerebral blood flow (CBF) is nearly 2-times higher in cortex in comparison with subcortical areas, it is still subjected to redistribution,

depending on actual physiological requirements (30, 31). The cerebral cortex is more susceptible to hypoxia than brainstem. Furthermore, the ratio neuronal cell body/neuronal processes (dendrites and neurites) number is much more higher in cortex than in brainstem, thus explaining its vulnerability during hypoxia (31, 32). In subarachnoid hemorrhage, like in brain or spinal cord injury, acute vasospasm develops within several minutes and late vasospasm within 2 days. Usually after 24 hours 80% of the vessels are involved (33). It should be mentioned that prolonged vasospasm also affects large arteries such as the basilar artery whose diameter becomes 50% smaller (5).

Various factors are involved in the mechanism of chronic vasospasm, from neurogenic to local biochemical. Among them, endothelial factors play a major role, as shown by a long-lasting increase in ET₁ concentration which leads to vascular lumen occlusion and a secondary damage of ischemic endothelial cells. It seems that the products of erythrocyte oxyhemoglobin degradation and neurogenic vasoconstrictors, such as catecholamines and serotonin, do not play a significant role in prolonged vasospasm. Our previous study has clearly shown that the constriction of the cerebral basilar artery can be abolished by ET_A receptor blockade (5) or reduced by inhibition of endothelin converting enzyme (ECE) by phosphoramidone (34).

Occlusion of the vessels leads to vascular injury and ischemia involving endothelial cells as well as neurons, glia and other supporting cells (33). There is growing evidence that microvascular endothelial damage is of ultrastructural character, which may indicate degenerative changes particularly in the mitochondria. The damage is also due to excessive amounts of reactive oxygen forms generated in hypoxia (35). Morphologic examination reveals hypertrophy of the vascular middle layer and accumulation of leukocytes near the vessels (5).

The above findings suggest that endothelial hypoxia is also responsible for disturbed angiogenesis, which is manifested by an increase in the production of VEGF, a potent angiogenic factor, released in abundance from ischemic areas (36, 37). Endothelin-1 is also known to induce production of VEGF in human vessels (38). The expression of VEGF closely correlates with the expression of its receptors in the same hypoxic endothelial cells. Moreover, VEGF modulates the activity of its receptors, particularly Flk-1, which have high binding affinity for VEGF (39). The role of VEGF in cerebral angiogenesis has so far been confirmed mainly in tumors, mostly on the periphery of ischemic tissues, after disruption of the basal membrane and arterial wall, and migration of endothelial cells towards tumor cells (40, 41).

Our study has provided evidence of a markedly enhanced angiogenesis in rat cerebral hemispheres in SAH — induced vasospasm. In the brainstem, only a tendency to angiogenesis was observed, and although this area is anatomically closer to the hemorrhage site, its neurons are less sensitive to hypoxia than the cerebral hemisphere neurons.

Another important finding is that the administration of BQ-123, a selective ET_A blocker, inhibits angiogenesis in the cerebral hemispheres.

Protective role of increased angiogenesis in the compensatory mechanism in vasospasm-induced hypoxia cannot be fully confirmed without examining the behaviour and activity of nerve cells. The increase in the number of capillaries is the result of increased expression of angiogenic factors, VEGF in particular, which in their majority also cause an increase in endothelial permeability, with the resultant nerve cell edema (38). Enhanced angiogenesis after SAH is accompanied by an increase in VEGF expression in small and large cerebral arteries and by VEGF accumulation around endothelial cells (42).

Further investigations are necessary to determine whether cerebral angiogenesis after SAH, like angiogenesis in myocardial infarction, reduces the effects of hypoxia (16, 43), or whether it aggravates the condition by causing cerebral edema (44).

The present study demonstrates that, regardless of possible late effects of cerebral angiogenesis, it is possible to reduce vasospasm by endothelin receptor blockade, thus eliminating hypoxia and but not angiogenesis.

REFERENCES

- Sobey CG, Faraci FM. Subarachnoid haemorrhage: what happens to the cerebral arteries? Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol 1998; 25: 867—876.
- Seifert V, Stolke D, Reale E. Ultrastructural changes of the basilar artery following experimental subarachnoid hemorrhage. Acta Neurochir (Vien) 1989; 100: 164-171.
- Zimmermann M, Seifert V. Endothelin and subarachnoid hemorrhage: An overview. Neurosurgery 1998; 43: 863—873.
- Zimmermann M. Endothelin in cerebral vasospasm. Clinical and experimental results. J Neurosurg Sci 1997; 41: 139—151.
- Jośko J, Hendryk S, Jędrzejowska-Szypułka H, Słowiński J, Gwóźdź B, Lange D, Harabin-Słowińska M. Effect of endothelin-1 receptor antagonist BQ-123 on basilar artery diameter after subarachnoid hemorrhage (SAH) in rats. J Physiol Pharmacol 2000; 51: 241—250.
- Suzuki R, Masaoka H, Hirata Y, Marumo F, Isotani E, Hirakawa K. The role of endothelin-1
 in the origin of cerebral vasospasm in patients with aneurysmal subarachoid hemorrhage.
 J Neurosurg 1992; 77: 96—100.
- Pluta RM, Bovel RJ, Afshar JK, Clouse K, Bacic M, Ehrenreich H, Oldfield EH. Source and cause of endothelin-1 release into cerebrospinal fluid after subarachnoid hemorrhage. J Neurosurg 1997; 87: 287—293.
- 8. Plate KH, Warnke PC. Vascular endothelial growth factor. J Neurooncol 1997; 35: 365-372.
- Fischer S, Clauss M, Wiesnet M, Reuz D, Schaper W, Karliczek GF. Hypoxia induces permeability in brain microvessel endothelial cells via VEGF and NO. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 1999; 276: 45—49.
- Bitzer M, Opitz H, Popp J, Morgalla M, Gruber A, Heiss E, Voigt K, Philippon J. Angiogenesis and brain oedema in intracranial meningiomas: Influence of vascular endothelial growth factor. *Acta Neurochir* 1998; 140: 333—340.
- Neufeld G, Cohen T, Gengrinovitch S, Poltorak Z. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and its receptors. FASEB J 1999; 13: 9—22.

- Brogi E, Schatteman G, Wu T, Kim EA, Vortikovski L, Kayt B, Isuer JM. Hypoxia induced paracrine regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor expression. J Clin Invest 1996; 97: 469—476.
- Peters KG, De Vries C, Williams LT. Vascular endothelial growth factor receptor expression during embriogenesis and tissue repair suggests a role in endothelial differentiation and blood vessel growth. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 1993; 90: 8915—8919.
- Aiello LP, Avery RL, Arrigg PG, Keyt BA, Jampel HD, Shah ST, Pasquale LR, Thieme H, Iwamoto MA, Park JE, Nguyen H, Aiello LM, Ferrara N, King GL. Vascular endothelial growth factor in ocular fluid of patients with diabetic retinopathy and other retinal disorders. N Engl J Med 1994; 331: 1480—1487.
- Adamis AP, Miller JW, Bernal MT, D'Amico DJ, Folkman J, Yeo TK, Yeo KT. Increased vascular endothelial growth levels in the vitreous of eyes with proliferative diabetic retinopathy. Am J Ophtalmol 1994; 118: 445—450.
- Lee SH, Wolf PL, Escudero R, Deutsch R, Jamieson SW, Thistlethwaite PA. Early expression of angiogenesis factors in acute myocardial ischemia and infarction. N Engl J Med 2000; 9: 626—633
- Detmar M, Brown LF, Claffey KP, Yeo KT, Kocher O, Jackman RW, Berse B, Dvorak HF. Overexpression of vascular permeability factor/vascular endothelial growth factor and its receptors in psoriasis. J Exp Med 1994; 180: 1141—1146.
- Takeshita S, Zheng LP, Brogi E, Kearney M, Pu LQ, Bunting S, Ferrara N, Symes JF, Isner JM. Therapeutic angiogenesis. A single intraarterial bolus of vascular endothelial growth factor augments revascularization in a rabbit ischemic hind limb model. J Clin Invest 1994; 93: 662—670.
- McLaren J, Prentice A, Charnock-Jones DS, Smith SK. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) concentrations are elevated in peritoneal fluid of women with endometriosis. Hum Reprod 1996; 11: 220—223.
- 20. Shifren JL, Tseng JF, Zaloudek CJ, Ryan IP, Meng YG, Ferrara N, Jaffe RB, Taylor RN. Ovarian steroid regulation of vascular endothelial growth factor in the human endometrium: implications for angiogenesis during the menstrual cycle and in the pathogenesis of endometriosis. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 1996; 81: 3112—3118.
- Koch AE, Harlow L, Haines GK, Amento EP, Unemori EN, Wong WL, Pope RM, Ferrara N. Vascular endothelial growth factor: a cytokine modulating endothelial function in rheumatoid arthritis. J Immunol 1994; 152: 4149—4156.
- Fava RA, Olsen NJ, Spencer-Green G, Yeo KT, Yeo TK, Berse B, Jackman RW, Senger DR, Dvorak HF, Brown LF. Vascular permeability factor/endothelial growth factor (VPF/VEGF): accumulation and expression in human synovial fluids and rheumatoid synovial tissue. J Exp Med 1994; 180: 341—346.
- Sandstrom M, Johansson M, Sandstrom J, Bergenheim AT, Henriksson R. Expression of the proteolytic factors, tPA and uPA, PAI-1 and VEGF during malignant glioma progression. Int J Dev Neurosci 1999; 17: 473—481.
- Nishikawa R, Cheng SY, Nagashima R, Su Huang HJ, Cavenee WK, Matsutani M. Expression of vascular endothelial growth factor in human brain tumors. Acta Neuropathol 1998; 96: 453—462.
- Joško J, Hendryk S, Jędrzejowska-Szypułka H, Gwóźdź B, Herman ZS, Łatka D, Kopeć N. Atrial natriuretic peptide secretion following subarachnoid hemorrhage in spontaneously hypertensive rats. J Physiol Pharmacol 1996; 47: 641—648.
- 26. Jośko J, Hendryk S, Jędrzejowska-Szypułka H, Gwóźdź B, Herman ZS, Gawlik R. Influence endothelin ET_A receptor antagonist BQ-123 on changes of endothelin-1 level in plasma of rats with acute vasospasm following subarachnoid hemorrhage. J Physiol Pharmacol 1998; 49: 367—375.
- Solomon RA, Antunes JL, Chen RY, Bland L, Chien S. Decrease in cerebral blood flow in rats after experimental subarachnoid hemorrhage: a new animal model. Stroke 1985; 16: 58—64.

- Clozel M, Watanabe H. BQ123, a peptidic endothelin receptor antagonist, prevents the early
 -cerebral vasospasm following subarachnoid hemorrhage after intracisternal but not
 intravenous injection. Life Sci 1993; 52: 825—834.
- Patt S, Sampaolo S, Theallier-Janko A, Tschairkin I, Cervos-Navarro J. Cerebral angiogenesis triggered by severe chronic hypoxia displays regional differences. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 1997; 17: 801—806.
- Bar TH, Wolff JR. On the vascularization of the rats cerebral cortex. 7th Europ. Conf. Microcirculation, Aberdeen (1972), Part I. Bibl. anat., No 11, p. 515—519, Basel: Karger 1973.
- Boutet M, Fuchs U, Gaehtgens P, Gauer OH, Hammersen F, Heene DL, Huttner I, Kirsch K, Lang J, Lash HG, Lubbers DW, Mason RG, Poche R, Rona G, Schmid-Schonbein H, Sharp DE. Handbuch der allgemeinen Pathologie. Microzirculation. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg New York 1997.
- Duvernoy HM. Human brainstem vessels. Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg New York 1978.
 Antes DL, Theriault E, Tator Ch T. Ultrastructural evidence for arterial vasospasm after spinal cord trauma. Neurosurgery 1996; 39: 804—814.
- Joško J, Hendryk S, Jędrzejowska-Szypułka H, Słowiński J, Gwóźdź B, Lange D, Harabin-Słowińska M. Reactivity of cerebral arteries after subarachnoid hemorrhage in rats
- administered phosphoramidon. Med Sci Monit 2000; 5 (in press)

 35. Korzonek-Szlacheta I, Gwóźdź B, Grzybek H, Marniok B. Effect of hemorrhagic shock and endothelin-1 (ET-1) administration (i.v.) on endothelial cells injury and antioxidant enzymes
- activity in rats. J Physiol Pharmacol (Suppl) 1999; 50: 25.

 36. Ladoux A, Frelin C. Hypoxia as a strong inducer of vascular endothelial growth factor mRNA expression in the heart. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1993; 1195: 1005—1010.
- Hashimoto E, Ogita T, Nakaoka T, Matsuoka R, Takao A, Kira Y. Rapid induction of vascular endothelial growth factor expression by transient ischemia in rat heart. Am J Physiol 1994; 267: 1948—1954.
- Okuda Y, Tsurumaru K, Suzuki S, Miyyauchi T, Asano M, Hong Y, Sone H, Fuita R, Mizutani M, Kawakami Y, Nakijima T, Soma M, Matsuo K, Suzuki H, Yamashita K. Hypoxia and endothelin-1 induce VEGF production in human vascular smoth muscle cells. Life Sci 1998; 63: 477—484.
- Millauer B, Wizigmann-Voos S, Schmurch H, Martinez R, Moller NP., Rissau W, Villrich A. High affinity VEGF binding and developmental expression suggest Flk₁ as major regulator of vasculogenesis and angiogenesis. Cell 1993; 72: 835—846.
- Damert A, Ikeda E, Risau W. Activator-protein-1 binding potentiates the hypoxia-inducible factor-1 mediated hypoxia-induced transcriptional activation of vascular endothelial growth factor expression in C6 glioma cells. Biochem J 1997; 327(Pt2): 419—423.
- Nishikawa R, Cheng SY, Nagashima RSu, Huang HJ, Cavenee WK, Matsutani M. Expression of vascular endothelial growth factor in human brain tumors. Acta Neuropathol 1998; 96: 453—462.
- 42. Xu F, Severinghaus JW. Rat brain VEGF expression in alveolar hypoxia: possible role in high-altitude cerebral edema. J Appl Physiol 1998; 85(1): 53-57.
- Gu JW, Adair TH. Hypoxia-induced expression of VEGF is reversible in myocardial vascular smooth muscle cells. Am J Physiol 1997; 273 (2Pt2): H628—633.
- smooth muscle cells. Am J Physiol 1997; 273 (2Pt2): H628—633.

 44. Fischer S, Clauss M, Wiesnet M, Renz D, Schaper W, Karliczek GF. Hypoxia induced permeability in brain microvessel endothelial cells via VEGF and NO. Am J Physiol Cell

Received: October 1, 2000 Accepted: May 22, 2001

Physiol 1999; 276: 45-54.

Author's address: Jadwiga Jośko, Department of Physiology Silesian University School of Medicine, Jordana 19, 41-808 Zabrze, Poland.