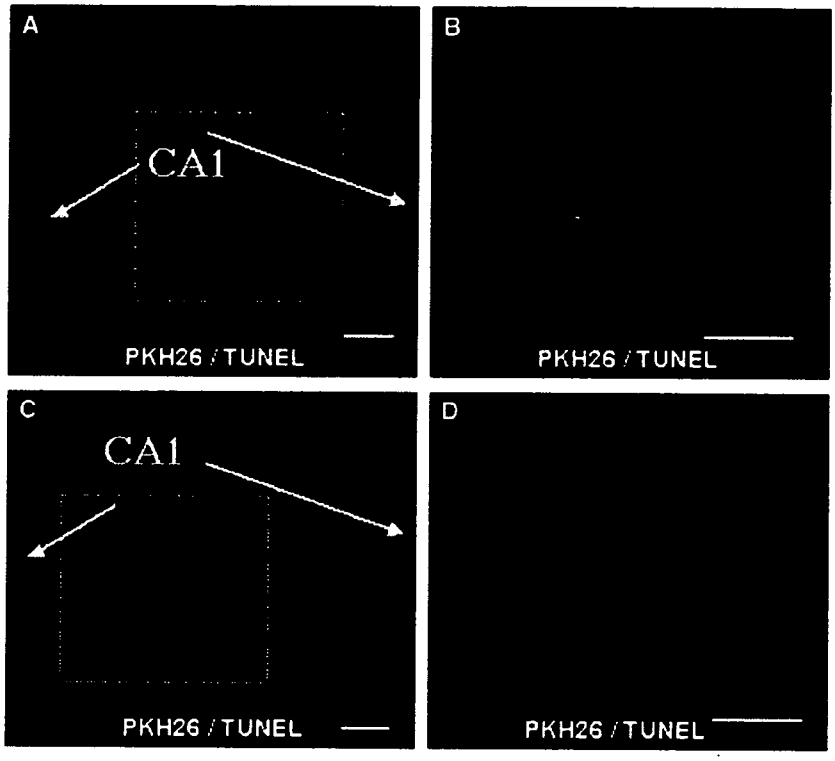

Figure 1 Migration of PKH26-labeled cells to TUNEL-positive CA1 pyramidal neurons after transient global ischemia. The panels show fluorescent staining in hippocampal CA1 sections obtained from ISCH animals injected with PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia 24 h before ischemia. (**A–D**) Double staining with PKH26 and TUNEL (PKH26/TUNEL). (**A**) Small numbers of TUNEL-positive pyramidal neurons (green) appeared in the CA1 field 2 days after ischemia. PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia (red) accumulated around TUNEL-positive pyramidal neurons (green). (**B**) Higher magnification of the boxed area in panel A. (**C**) Many TUNEL-positive pyramidal neurons (green) were present in the CA1 field 5 days after ischemia. Many PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia (red) accumulated in the ischemic CA1 field. (**D**) Higher magnification of the boxed area in panel C. (**A, C**) Arrows indicate the longitudinal extent of the CA1 field of the hippocampus. All scale bars = 10 μm.

Reduction of Ischemic Damage by Microglia Injection

Figure 3B shows the hippocampus from SHAM/VEH, ISCH/VEH, ISCH/Mi, and ISCH/γMi animals 7 days after ischemia. Most of the pyramidal neurons in the CA1 field had degenerated in ISCH/VEH animals. Microglial infusion (ISCH/Mi) increased the number of surviving pyramidal neurons, and IFNγ stimulation (ISCH/γMi) enhanced the microglial neuroprotective effect.

Figure 3C shows the number of surviving pyramidal neurons in the CA1 field 7 days after ischemia in SHAM/VEH, ISCH/VEH, ISCH/Mi, and ISCH/γMi animals. SHAM/VEH animals were used as controls ($n = 10$). There was no effect of injection of nonstimulated microglia or IFNγ-stimulated microglia on the number of surviving CA1 pyramidal neurons in SHAM/VEH animals (data not shown). Ischemia significantly reduced the number of surviving pyramidal neurons. Intraarterial injection of microglia (either PRE or POST) significantly increased the number of surviving neurons ($P < 0.001$). Stimulation of the microglia with IFNγ further enhanced neuron survival ($P < 0.001$). The injection of vehicle, nonstimulated microglia, or IFNγ-stimulated microglia had no effect on postoperative body temperature throughout the survival period (data not shown). The number of surviving CA1 neurons at 14 days after ischemia was not different from that at 7 days after ischemia in each study (data not shown). Injection of microglia 48 h after ischemia had no significant effect on pyramidal neuron death (data not shown). The injection of PKH26-labeled macrophages into ISCH animals had no effect on the number of surviving CA1 pyramidal neurons (data not shown).

Prevention of Ischemia-Induced Learning Impairment by Microglia Injection

The passive avoidance task was used to determine whether exogenous microglia prevent ischemia-induced learning impairment. Figure 4 shows behavioral responses from gerbils 7 days after ischemia. The mean retention latency was shorter

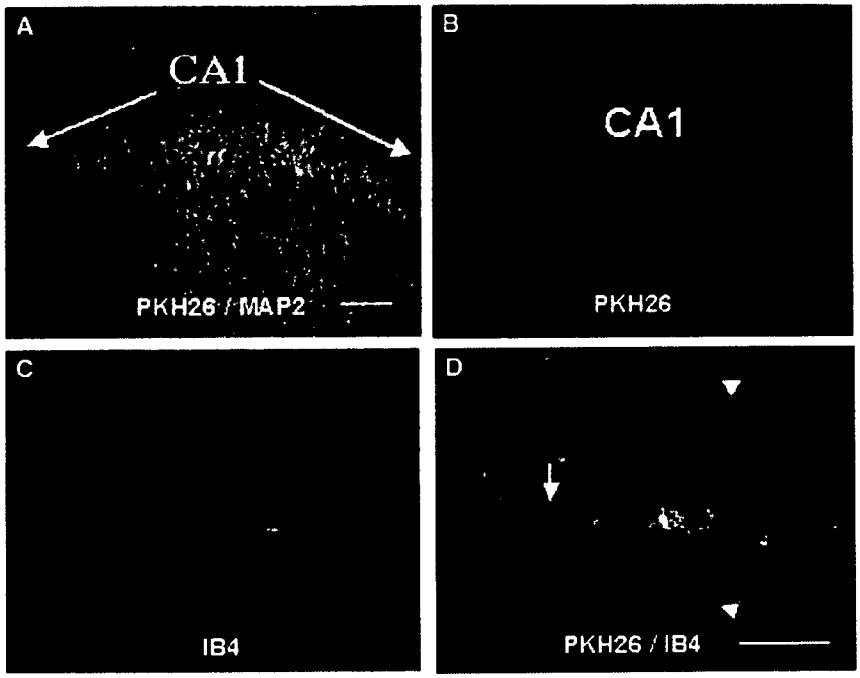

Figure 2 Migration of exogenous microglia to hippocampal CA1 lesions after transient global ischemia. The panels show fluorescent staining in hippocampal CA1 sections obtained from ISCH animals injected with PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia 24 h before ischemia. **(A)** Double staining with PKH26 and an anti-MAP2 antibody (PKH26/MAP2). Many PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia (red) were scattered around MAP2-positive pyramidal neurons (green) 3 days after ischemia. **(B)** PKH26 staining of the adjacent hippocampal section in panel A. **(C)** IB4 staining of the adjacent section. **(D)** Double staining of the adjacent section with PKH26 and IB4 (PKH26/IB4). All of the PKH26-labeled exogenous microglia (red) in the CA1 area expressed IB4 (green). A few IB4-positive and PKH26-negative endogenous microglia (arrow) were observed. Vascular endothelial cells around the hippocampus (arrowheads) also expressed IB4. Arrows in panel A indicate the longitudinal extent of the CA1 field of the hippocampus and the arrow in panel D indicates endogenous microglia. Arrowheads indicate endothelial cells. All scale bars = 10 μm.

for ISCH/VEH animals than for SHAM/VEH animals ($P<0.01$). The mean retention latency of the ISCH/Mi-PRE animals was longer than that of the ISCH/VEH-PRE animals ($P<0.01$), although the mean retention latency of the ISCH/Mi-POST animals was not different from the ISCH/VEH-POST animals. The mean retention latency was significantly longer in the ISCH/γMi-PRE ($P<0.001$) and ISCH/γMi-POST ($P<0.01$) animals (Figure 4) compared with the ISCH/VEH (PRE/POST) animals. The microglia-induced increase in the mean retention latency at 14 days after ischemia was not statistically different from the mean retention latency at 7 days after ischemia in each study (data not shown). The injection of macrophages into ISCH animals had no effect on retention latency (data not shown).

BDNF and GDNF Expression in the ISCH Hippocampus

The time course of hippocampal BDNF and GDNF expression was examined in SHAM and ISCH animals, and the effects of exogenous microglia on the expression of these neurotrophic factors was investigated. The time course of hippocampal BDNF and GDNF expression after ischemia was measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Figure 5). In the hippocampus of ISCH animals, GDNF expression levels decreased significantly 2 h after ischemia and gradually increased during the next 7 days. In contrast, animals that received microglial injections 24 h before ischemia showed no decrease in BDNF or GDNF levels. Expression levels of BDNF remained constant until 3 days after ischemia, at which time they approximately doubled. Expression of GDNF in microglia-injected animals showed a rapid increase 2 h after ischemia and continued to increase during the course of 7 days to approximately 600% of the baseline level. There was no difference in BDNF or GDNF expression levels in animals injected with IFNγ-stimulated microglia, compared with nonstimulated microglia. Injection of microglia 24 h after ischemia induced a similar increase in BDNF and GDNF expression (Figure 5). Microglia-induced increases in neurotrophic factors were not observed except in the hippocampus (data not shown). The injection of macrophages into ISCH animals did not change BDNF or GDNF expression in the hippocampus (data not shown).

To determine which cells expressed BDNF and GDNF in our ischemia model, we examined the hippocampus using immunohistochemical analysis in SHAM/VEH, ISCH/VEH-PRE, and ISCH/Mi-PRE gerbils (Figure 6). In SHAM animals, hippocampal CA1 neurons and endogenous microglia-like cells expressed both GDNF and BDNF (Figures 6A and 6E). Two hours after ischemia, most of the CA1 neuron-like cells did not express BDNF and GDNF, and BDNF-positive endogenous microglia-like cells were scattered throughout CA1 (Figures 6B and 6F). Three days after ischemia, most CA1 neurons weakly expressed BDNF, whereas GDNF levels recovered (Figures 6C and 6G). Seven days after ischemia, BDNF immunoreactivity was detected in the CA1 neuron-like cell bodies, endogenous microglia, and also in some cell bodies and processes of reactive astrocyte-like cells near the ischemic CA1 field (Figure 6D).

At 7 days, damaged CA1 neuron-like cells expressed GDNF and many GDNF-positive, microglia-like cells were observed throughout CA1, whereas GDNF-positive, astrocyte-like cells were not detected (Figure 6H). Most of the CA1 neuron-like cells expressing BDNF or GDNF seemed to undergo degeneration because the cytoplasm was enlarged and the nucleus was not visible. Injection of microglia 24 h before ischemia greatly increased staining of BDNF- and GDNF-like immunoreactivity in CA1 neurons.

Discussion

In this study, we show that systemically injected microglia provide significant neuroprotection to the hippocampus after an ischemic insult. In addition to promoting CA1 cell survival, injection of microglia either before or 24 h after ischemia improved performance in a passive-avoidance learning task. There was also an increase in BDNF and GDNF expression in the hippocampus.

Previous studies indicate that endogenous microglia migrate to the CA1 pyramidal cell layer and protect ischemic neurons after reperfusion neuronal injury (Nitatori *et al*, 1995; Pinteaux *et al*, 2006; Neumann *et al*, 2006). In the present study, exogenous microglia migrated to areas that suffered ischemic damage, indicated by the presence of PKH26-positive cells around TUNEL-positive neurons in the CA1 pyramidal cell layer. Most of the cells were both PKH26-positive and IB4-positive exogenous microglia, although there were also a few

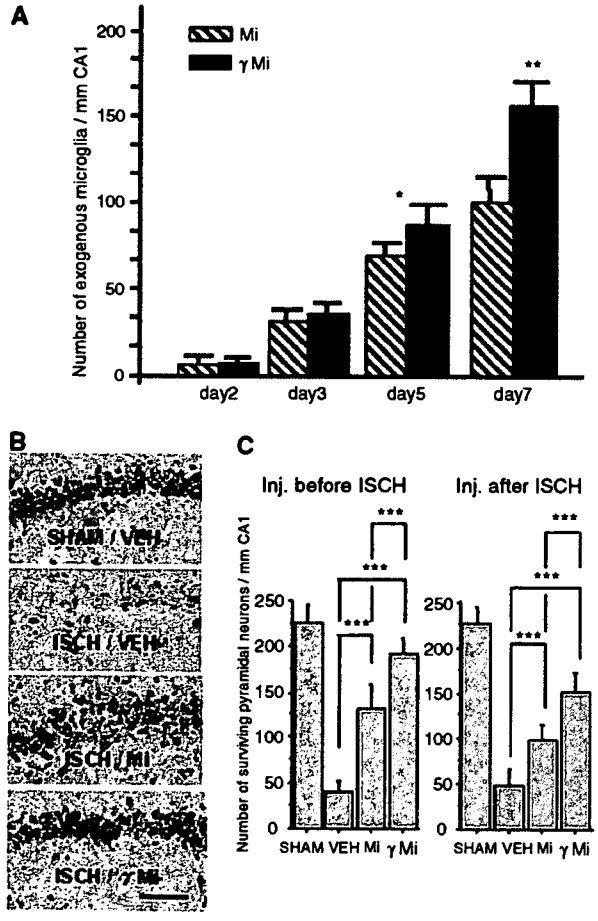

Figure 3 Neuroprotective effects of exogenous microglia. **(A)** Time course of the number of PKH26-labeled microglia migrating to the ischemic CA1 layer. Stimulation with IFNγ resulted in higher numbers of migrating microglia in the ischemic CA1 pyramidal than nonstimulated microglia. Vertical bars in each histogram indicate means ± s.d. ($n = 10$). Hatched columns (Mi) indicate the number of migrating nonstimulated microglia and black columns (γMi) indicate the number of IFNγ-stimulated microglia. $^*P < 0.05$ and $^{**}P < 0.01$, significantly different from the corresponding nonstimulated microglia-infused group (Student's *t*-test). **(B)** Photomicrographs of CA1 hippocampal sections 7 days after ischemic insult. SHAM/VEH: intraarterial injection of culture medium 24 h before sham-ischemia treatment; ISCH/VEH: intraarterial injection of culture medium 24 h before ischemia; ISCH/Mi: intraarterial injection of nonstimulated microglia 24 h before ischemia; ISCH/γMi: intraarterial injection of IFNγ-stimulated microglia 24 h before ischemia. Scale bar = 5 μm and applies to all four panels. **(C)** The number of surviving pyramidal neurons in the hippocampus 7 days after ischemia onset. Injection of microglia resulted in higher numbers of surviving pyramidal neurons after transient global ischemia (relative to ISCH/VEH), even when injections were placed 24 h after ischemia. Stimulation with IFNγ increased microglial neuroprotective effect. Vertical bars represent the mean ± s.d. ($n = 10$). $^{***}P < 0.001$, Analysis of variance with Bonferroni *post hoc* test for multiple pairwise comparisons. Inj. before ISCH: intraarterial injection 24 h before ischemia treatment; Inj. after ISCH: intraarterial injection 24 h after ischemia treatment; SHAM: injection of culture medium into sham-ischemia treated animals; VEH: injection of culture medium into ischemia-treated animals; Mi: injection of nonstimulated microglia into ischemia-treated animals; γMi: injection of IFNγ-stimulated microglia into ischemia-treated animals.

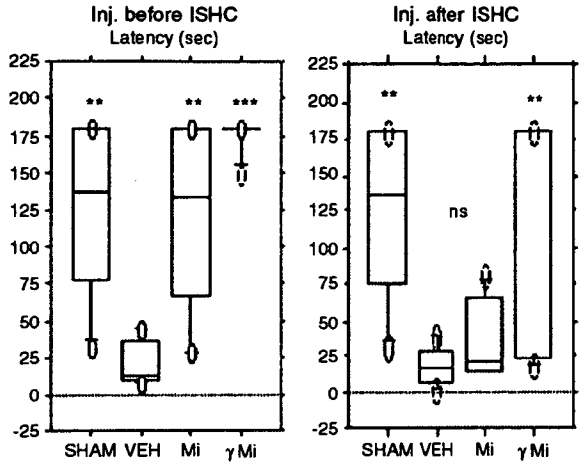

Figure 4 The effects of microglia on the latency of the transient ischemic gerbils in the step-through passive avoidance task. The graphs show the results of passive avoidance task 7 days after ischemia. The mean retention latency of ISCH/Mi-PRE and ISCH/γMi-PRE animals was longer than that of ISCH/VEH-PRE animals. The mean retention latency of ISCH/γMi-POST animals was significantly longer than that of ISCH/VEH-POST animals, whereas that of ISCH/Mi-POST was not significantly longer. $^{**}P < 0.01$, $^{***}P < 0.001$, significantly different from ISCH/VEH with Scheffe's *post hoc* test for multiple pairwise comparisons ($n = 10$). Inj. before ISCH: intraarterial injection 24 h before ischemia treatment; Inj. after ISCH: intraarterial injection 24 h after ischemia treatment; SHAM: injection of culture medium into sham-ischemia treated animals; VEH: injection of culture medium into ischemia-treated animals; Mi: injection of nonstimulated microglia into ischemia-treated animals; γMi: injection of IFNγ-stimulated microglia into ischemia-treated animals.

PKH26-negative, IB4-positive cells. PKH26-negative, IB4-positive cells are either endogenous microglia/macrophage lineage cells or vascular endothelial cells.

Activated microglia share several characteristics with peripheral macrophages *in vitro*, but they display different phenotypes *in vivo* (Ling and Wong, 1993; Sawada *et al*, 1995, 1990, 1992). Several studies suggest a possible contribution of the invasion of blood-borne macrophages to delayed neuronal death after transient global ischemia (Lees, 1993). Our earlier studies showed that macrophages do not enter undamaged brain from the circulation (Imai *et al*, 1997). They might, however, enter the brain from the site of delayed neuronal death, where neovascularization and blood–brain barrier breakdown occur after ischemia (Kataoka *et al*, 2000). In our ischemia model, PKH26-labeled peritoneal macrophages did not enter the brain from the circulation. Therefore, IB4-positive, PKH26-negative cells migrating to the ischemic CA1 layer are likely to be endogenous microglia. Most of the migrating cells in the CA1 area were not endogenous microglia, but rather exogenous microglia. It is possible that isolated microglia from the mixed brain cultures are already activated (Streit, 1993) and so migrate to the ischemic lesion more rapidly than endogenous microglia.

Injection of exogenous microglia increased the number of surviving CA1 neurons after transient global ischemia, even when microglia were injected after the ischemic insult. The microglial neuroprotective effect also prevented an ischemia-induced learning impairment. In this and previous studies, we have shown that microglia isolated from a newborn mixed brain culture express both BDNF and GDNF, and intraarterial injection of microglia increases the presence of these neurotrophic factors in the ischemic hippocampus (Suzuki *et al*, 2001). Beyer *et al* (2000) reported that phagocytosis of Latex beads induced a microglial amoeboid morphology but did not increase immunologically relevant molecules. Microglia that phagocytose PKH26 would have similar properties as those that phagocytose Latex beads. PKH26 phagocytosis labeling did not affect microglial expression of neurotrophic factors and neuroprotection (data not shown). Upregulation of both neurotrophic factors in damaged brain is crucial for protection from neurodegeneration (Ebadi *et al*, 1997). The association between exogenous microglia at the lesion site and decreased cell death, increased neurotrophic factor expression, and improved learning ability after ischemic injury leads us to conclude that microglia have a protective effect rather than a toxic effect, on neurons under ischemic conditions.

We examined the time course of hippocampal BDNF and GDNF expression after transient global ischemia, and investigated the effect of exogenous microglia on the expression of these neurotrophic factors. In normal CA1 neurons, the expression of both neurotrophic factors was preserved; however, their immunoreactivity was reduced 2 h after ischemia and then increased in a time-dependent manner. Seven days after ischemia, the main sources of BDNF were damaged CA1 neurons, endogenous microglia, and reactive astrocytes. Reactive astrocytes were excluded as the source of GDNF because they do not express GDNF in our model. The BDNF results are consistent with previous studies (Kokaia *et al*, 1996; Lee *et al*, 2002), whereas the GDNF results are inconsistent with a study by Miyazaki *et al* (2001). They reported that GDNF expression in the hippocampal CA1 region increased between 3 and 24 h after ischemia, and then declined to baseline levels. In their model, in which rats are subjected to a transient global ischemia induced by four-vessel occlusion, reactive astrocytes express GDNF. The discrepancy in the results between the two studies is possibly because of the use of different animal models of ischemia. In the present study, injection of microglia prevented the decrease in BDNF and GDNF expression in the hippocampus immediately after ischemia, and later increased the expression of these trophic factors. CA1 neurons,

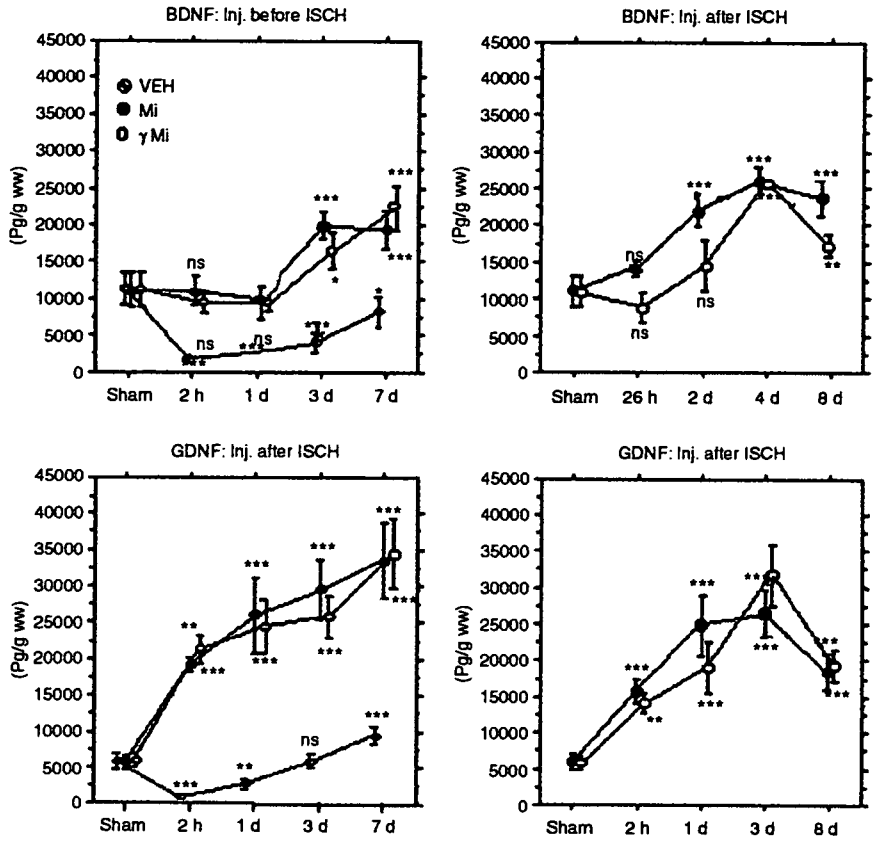

Figure 5 The effects of exogenous microglia on the time course of hippocampal BDNF and GDNF expression after transient global ischemia. Graphs indicate the BDNF and GDNF expression level in the hippocampus detected by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Results are expressed as means of picograms of BDNF or GDNF normalized to gram of wet tissue weight (pg/g ww). As a control, we used SHAM/VEH hippocampus, which was dissected 6 h after the treatment. In SHAM/VEH hippocampus, BDNF and GDNF expression was observed. In ISCH/VEH-PRE animals, however, the levels were less than 20% of the baseline level (SHAM/VEH-PRE level) 2 h after ischemia. Injection of microglia prevented the decrease of both BDNF and GDNF and then induced an increase in both factors above baseline levels. In ISCH/Mi-PRE hippocampus, the neurotrophin levels were measured 2 h, 1 day, 3 days, and 7 days after ischemia. In ISCH/Mi-POST hippocampus, neurotrophin levels were measured 26 h, 2 days, 4 days, and 8 days after ischemia. Vertical bars represent the mean ± s.d. ($n = 6$). $^*P < 0.05$, $^{**}P < 0.01$, $^{***}P < 0.001$, significantly different from SHAM control with Bonferroni *post hoc* test. Abbreviations are as in Figure 2. Hatched circles (VEH) indicate values of BDNF or GDNF expression level in the ischemia-treated hippocampus injected with culture medium, black circles (Mi) indicate those injected with nonstimulated microglia, and open circles (γMi) indicate those injected with IFNγ-stimulated microglia.

rather than microglia or astrocytes, were the main source of the later high expression of BDNF and GDNF in the hippocampus observed 7 days after ischemia. Injections of microglia into SHAM animals did not significantly increase BDNF or GDNF expression in the brain, although a large number of PKH26-labeled microglia enter the brain from the circulation (Imai *et al*, 1997; Sawada *et al*, 1998). Astrocytes expressing these neurotrophic factors were not detected in ischemic hippocampus injected with microglia. The maintenance of BDNF and/or GDNF expression in injured neurons might be one mechanism of neuroprotection in the ischemic hippocampus.

Intraventricular administration of a Sendai virus vector carrying GDNF or nerve growth factor increases the expression of these neurotrophic factors in the hippocampus and prevents delayed neuronal death induced by transient global ischemia in gerbils, even when administered 6 h after ischemia (Shirakura *et al*, 2004). The time course for increased GDNF expression was similar to that in the present experiment, except that it took less time for exogenous microglia to express GDNF than it took for the Sendai virus vector. This might be one reason why we observed neuroprotection even when the microglia were injected 24 h after ischemia. Intrahippocampal administration of BDNF in adult rats improves performance in a spatial memory task (Cirulli *et al*, 2004). Administration of GDNF and BDNF to the site of ischemia might be one of the mechanisms underlying microglial neurotrophic effects on ischemic CA1 neurons.

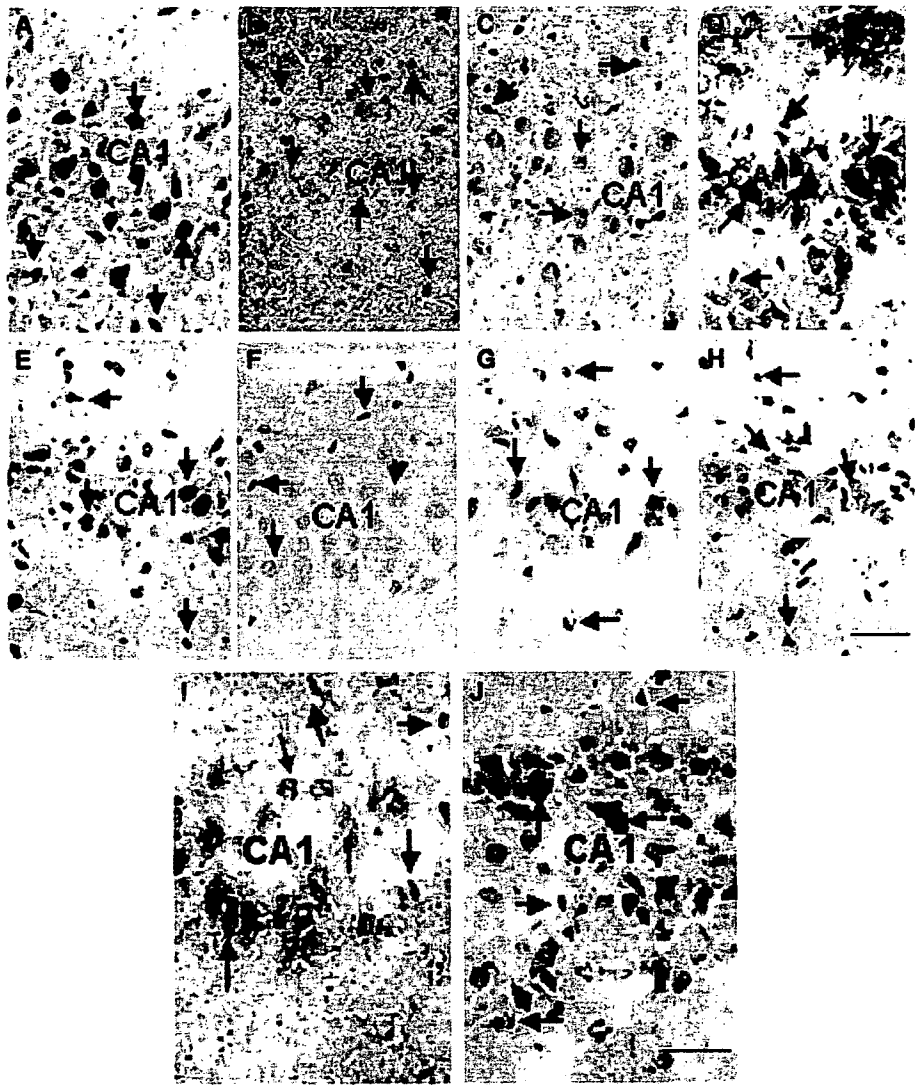

Figure 6 Immunohistochemical staining for BDNF and GDNF after transient global ischemia. (**A–H**) Time course of BDNF and GDNF expression in the hippocampus of SHAM and ischemia-treated animals injected with culture medium. (**A**) Most of the CA1 neurons expressed BDNF in the SHAM hippocampus. (**B**) Two hours after ischemia, there was little, if any, BDNF expression in CA1 neurons. BDNF-expressing endogenous microglia were observed around the CA1 field. (**C**) Three days after ischemia, most of the CA1 neurons weakly expressed BDNF. (**D**) Seven days after ischemia, a large number of damaged CA1 neurons and reactive astrocytes expressed BDNF. (**E**) Most of the CA1 neurons expressed GDNF in the SHAM hippocampus. (**F**) Two hours after ischemia, there was little, if any, GDNF expression in CA1 neurons, whereas there were a few GDNF-expressing endogenous microglia. (**G**) Three days after ischemia, most of the CA1 neurons expressed GDNF. (**H**) Seven days after ischemia, damaged CA1 neurons expressed GDNF and many GDNF-expressing exogenous microglia were scattered around them. (**I** and **J**) BDNF and GDNF expression, respectively, in the hippocampus 2 h after ischemia. Nonstimulated microglia were injected 24 h before ischemia treatment. Injection of microglia [illegible] the loss of both BDNF and GDNF expression in the hippocampus immediately after ischemia. Red arrows: CA1 neurons; black arrows: microglia; green arrows: reactive astrocytes. Scale bars = 5 μm.

Lee *et al* (2002) reported that BDNF mRNA increases 3 h after ischemia and returns to sham-operated level in the CA1 pyramidal neurons 1 day after ischemia, whereas BDNF protein decreases 3 h after ischemia and recovers to some extent at 7 days after ischemia. This expression disparity between neurotrophin mRNA and protein was reported to be because of a translational and/or posttranslational dysfunction of protein synthesis, release, or transport immediately after cerebral injury (Lee *et al*, 2002). In our study, the recovery of BDNF and GDNF expression was observed in degenerated neurons. The expression of neurotrophic factors might not enhance the survival of

ischemic pyramidal neurons, however, because most degenerating cells do not express BDNF or GDNF receptors after ischemic insult (Ferrer *et al*, 1998; Wang *et al*, 2004). Although pretreatment of microglia with IFNγ significantly enhanced microglial neuroprotective effects on ischemic CA1 pyramidal neurons, it did not increase hippocampal BDNF or GDNF expression, compared with nontreated microglia. Nevertheless, pretreatment with IFNγ increased the number of microglia migrating to the ischemic hippocampus. It is possible that microglia pretreated with IFNγ induce expression of neurotrophic factor receptors in ischemic pyramidal neurons, thus providing a neuroprotective effect. We are now investigating the mechanism.

Cytokines secreted by microglia might also affect ischemic CA1 neurons. We did not examine cytokine activity in this study because neurons and microglia interact with each other and produce complicated effects *in vivo*. For example, activated microglia release factors capable of generating oxidative damage, such as superoxide anions (O_2^-) and nitric oxide (Saud *et al*, 2005), whereas transient global ischemia increases transforming growth factor-β1 expression in CA1 pyramidal neurons (Zhu *et al*, 2000), which could eliminate microglial O_2^- and nitric oxide production (Herrera-Molina and von Bernhardi, 2005).

Microglial activation, after neuronal injury, appears to serve a neuroprotective function. A strong inflammatory response, however, could induce microglia to be hyperactive, which allows them to escape endogenous control and become toxic to neurons (Polazzi and Contenstabile, 2002). Interleukin-1β secreted by microglia activates p38 mitogen-associated protein kinase and cyclic adenosine monophosphate-response element binding protein to suppress long-term potentiation, which is thought to be an important underlying mechanism of learning and memory (Srinivasan *et al*, 2004). In our preliminary data, however, systemic injection of exogenous microglia in rabbits subjected to transient global ischemia prevented the ischemia-induced suppression of long-term potentiation (unpublished data). Microglia also produce interleukin-10 (Wu *et al*, 2005; Broderick *et al*, 2000), which reverses lipopolysaccharide-induced increases in signaling in the hippocampus (Lynch *et al*, 2004). Exogenous microglia introduced to the site of ischemia might reverse ischemia-induced disruption of endogenous control by secreting antiinflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-10 (Wu *et al*, 2005; Ooboshi *et al*, 2005; Broderick *et al*, 2000). Further studies are necessary to verify the mechanism of microglial neuroprotective effects on ischemic CA1 neurons.

It is also possible that injection of nonautologous microglia induced an immune reaction that is responsible for the present findings. We believe that this is unlikely because there is no evidence in the literature for a nonspecific immune response to be neuroprotective and/or reverse behavioral deficits. This will be examined in the future.

In conclusion, peripherally injected exogenous microglia exhibit a specific affinity for ischemic brain lesions and protect against neuronal damage in our ischemia model, suggesting that one role of microglia is to protect damaged neurons after transient global ischemic insult. To continue the exploration of the uses of exogenous microglia, we are currently isolating microglia from bone marrow (Ono *et al*, 1999; Tanaka *et al*, 2003). In the future, the administration of microglia might be a potential tool for cell or gene therapy in the treatment of brain disease.

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Original Contribution

Phosphatidylserine and phosphatidylcholine-containing liposomes inhibit amyloid β and interferon-γ-induced microglial activation

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Abstract

There is increasing evidence that microglial activation is one of the major pathogenic factors for Alzheimer's disease (AD) and the inhibition of the inflammatory activation of the microglia thus appears to be neuroprotective and a potentially useful treatment for AD. Phospholipids such as phosphatidylserine (PS) and phosphatidylcholine (PC) have been reported to modulate the immune function of phagocytes. In addition, PS has been reported to be a nootropics that can be used as nonprescription memory or cognitive enhancers. We therefore evaluated the effects of liposomes, which comprise both PS and PC (PS/PC liposomes), on the microglial production of tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), nitric oxide (NO), and superoxide ($^{\cdot}O_2^-$) induced by amyloid β (Aβ) and interferon-γ (IFN-γ). Pretreatment of microglia with PS/PC liposomes considerably inhibited the TNF-α, NO and $^{\cdot}O_2^-$ production induced by Aβ/IFN-γ. These results suggest that PS/PC liposomes have both neuroprotective and antioxidative properties through the inhibition of microglial activation, thus supporting the nootropic and antidementia effect of PS.

Keywords: Alzheimer's disease; Microglia; Phosphatidylserine; Phosphatidylcholine; Nitric oxide; Superoxide; Peroxynitrite; Electron spin resonance

Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is the most common neurodegenerative disease known to cause progressive memory loss and confusion. Recently, much attention has been paid to microglial activation as a major pathogenic factor for AD. Senile plaque is the site of inflammatory processes, as evidenced by the presence of degenerating neurons and numerous reactive microglia and astrocytes associated with such plaques [1]. Microglial activation has been reported to be a relatively early pathogenetic event which precedes the process of neuropil destruction in AD patients [2]. According to in vitro studies, the microglia activated by amyloid β peptides (Aβ) have been well reported to damage or kill neurons by the excessive release of inflammatory and potentially neurotoxic molecules such as proinflammatory cytokines [e.g., tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α), intrleukin-1β], reactive oxygen species (ROS), and reactive nitrogen species

Abbreviations: Aβ, amyloid beta; AD, Alzheimer's disease; DEPMPO, 5-(diethoxyphosphoryl)-5-methyl-1-pyroline-*N*-oxide; ESR, electron spin resonance; IFN-γ, interferon-γ; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; NADPH oxidase, nicotinamide adenine diphosphate reduced form oxidase; NO, nitric oxide; PS, phosphatidylserine; PC, phosphatidylcholine; ROS, reactive oxygen species; SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate; SOD, superoxide dismutase; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor-α.

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[i.e., superoxide radical ($^{\bullet}O_2^-$) and nitric oxide (NO), respectively] [3–6]. Peroxynitrite ($ONOO^-$), the reaction product of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ and NO, is a highly reactive oxidant and has recently been demonstrated to act as a major mediator in the neurotoxicity induced by Aβ-activated microglia in vitro [7]. Indeed, the levels of nitrotyrosine, which is a product of the reaction of $ONOO^-$ with tyrosine residues and considered as a permanent footprint of $ONOO^-$, have been reported to increase in AD brains [8]. Taken together, the inhibition of Aβ-induced microglial production of inflammatory cytokines including TNF-α and free radicals such as NO, $^{\bullet}O_2^-$, and subsequent formation of $ONOO^-$ appears to be neuroprotective and a potentially useful treatment for AD.

Phospholipids such as phosphatidylserine (PS) and phosphatidylcholine (PC) have been shown to modulate the immune functions of phagocytes. PC, a major component of the outer leaflet of plasma membrane, has been demonstrated to reduce the production of ROS in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)/phorbol 12-myristate-13-acetate (PMA)-activated monocytes [9]. On the other hand, abnormal exposure of PS, which is normally sequestered in the inner leaflet of plasma membrane, in the early phase of apoptosis is an essential determinant for the recognition and ingestion of apoptotic cells by phagocytes [10]. After the engulfment of apoptotic cells, macrophages are well known to actively suppress the inflammatory response through the release of anti-inflammatory mediators, thereby decreasing the secretion of various proinflammatory cytokines [11]. Furthermore, PS-containing liposomes have been shown to mimic the effects of apoptotic cells on macrophages [12] and on microglia [13,14] through surface molecules that recognize PS. Intriguingly, PS has also been reported to be one of the nootropics that can be used as nonprescription memory or cognitive enhancers [15]. According to in vivo studies, PS treatment has been demonstrated to ameliorate the impaired functions of learning and memory on a variety of tasks in aged rats [16] and PS-containing liposomes have been shown to protect LPS-induced impairment of long-term potentiation (LTP) in adult rats [17]. In human clinical trials, some studies have shown that the oral administration of bovine brain cortex-derived PS improves the behavior and cognitive performances of patients with senile dementia [18,19].

For the above-noted reasons, we evaluated the effects of liposomes comprising PS and PC on the Aβ and interferon-γ (IFN-γ)-induced microglial production of proinflammatory molecules such as TNF-α, NO, and $^{\bullet}O_2^-$. Especially, $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ is a key molecule in the oxidative stress involved in the pathogenesis of AD because $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ is not only a tally of NO for $ONOO^-$ formation but also a limiting factor for $ONOO^-$ formation [20,21]. Furthermore, $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ is a precursor of other types of ROS such as hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and hydroxyl radical ($^{\bullet}OH$), and ROS has also been reported to mediate proinflammatory signaling in activated microglia, thereby amplifying the TNF-α production [22]. We, therefore, measured the microglial $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ production specifically and directly using electron spin resonance (ESR) with the spin-trap technique. To our knowledge, this is the first report to directly trap $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ associated with Aβ-stimulated microglia.

Materials and methods

Aβ peptides

The Aβ25–35 peptides used in this study were purchased from AnaSpec (San Jose, CA). Purity was certified by high-performance liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry for each of the peptide. The peptides were resuspended in sterile double-deionized water, aliquoted at 5 mg/ml, and kept at −20°C. We preliminarily confirmed that neither PS/PC liposomes (data not shown) nor IFN-γ [4] affected the amyloid fibril structure of the Aβ25–35 peptides using a thioflavine-T fluorometric assay.

Chemicals and reagents

A spin-trap 5-(diethoxyphosphoryl)-5-methyl-1-pyroline-*N*-oxide (DEPMPO), LPS, and diethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA) were purchased from Sigma Chemicals (St. Louis, MO). Superoxide dismutase (SOD; from bovine erythrocytes, 3500 U/mg), catalase (from beef liver, 11500 U/mg), xanthine, and xanthine oxidase were purchased from Wako (Osaka, Japan). The final concentrations of SOD and catalase correspond to the enzyme activities per volume as described in a previous report [23]. Recombinant IFN-γ was purchased from Genzyme (Cambridge, MA). Recombinant mouse granulocyte macrophage colony stimulating factor (GM-CSF) was purchased from R&D systems (Minneapolis, MN). Porcine brain-derived-L-α-PS, egg-derived-L-α-PC, 4-nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazole (NBD)-labeled PS, and NBD-labeled PC were purchased from Avanti Polar Lipids (Alabaster, AL).

Preparation of liposomes

The liposomes were prepared as previously described [24]. In brief, a mixture of 12 mM PS and 33 mM PC in chloroform was placed in a test tube. The liposomes were composed of either a combination of PS and PC at a molar ratio of 3:7 (PS:PC) (PS/PC liposomes) or PC only (PC liposomes). The solvent was removed in a rotary evaporator at 30°C under reduced pressure and then dried by a desiccator for 1 h. The desiccated lipids were dispersed with a vortex mixer in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) (pH 7.4) to obtain a final concentration of 10 mM total lipids. The lipid suspensions were subsequently sonicated (Tomy UR-20P, Tokyo, Japan) for 10 min on ice. The liposome solutions were centrifuged and then the supernatants were used for the assays. Using either NBD-labeled PS or NBD-labeled PC, NBD-labeled PS/PC liposomes and NBD-labeled PC liposomes were prepared by the same methods as described above.

Microglial cell cultures

Primary microglial cells were isolated from mixed cell cultures from the cerebral cortex of 3-day-old Wister rats according to the methods described previously [4,25]. The cerebral cortex was minced and treated with papain (90 U/ml) and DNase (2000 U/ml) at 37°C for 15 min. The mechanically

dissociated cells were gently passed through plastic tips and seeded into plastic flasks at a density of 10^7/300 cm^2 in Eagle's minimal essential medium, 0.3% $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM glutamine, 0.2% glucose, 10 μg/ml insulin, and 10% fetal calf serum, and maintained at 37°C with 10% CO_2, 90% air atmosphere. The subsequent medium replacement was renewed twice per week. After 10–14 days of culture, floating cells and weakly attached cells on the primary cultured cell layer were isolated by gently shaking the flask for 10 min. The resulting cell suspension was transferred to a petri dish (Falcon 1001, Lincoln Park, NJ) and then allowed to adhere at 37°C. The unattached cells were removed after 25 min, and microglial cells were isolated as strongly adhering cells. About 90% of these attached cells were positive for OX42 (Serotec Ltd., Bichester, UK), a marker for macrophage/microglal cell types.

The murine microglial cell line, 6-3, was established from neonatal C57BL/6J(H-2b) mice using a nonenzymatic and non-virus-transformed procedure [26]. The 6-3 cells closely resemble primary cultured microglia [26,27]. The 6-3 cells were cultured in Eagle's minimal essential medium, 0.3% $NaHCO_3$, 2 mM glutamine, 0.2% glucose, 10 μg/ml insulin, and 10% fetal calf serum, and then maintained at 37°C with 10% CO_2, 90% air atmosphere. The amount of 1 ng/ml mouse recombinant GM-CSF was supplemented in the culture medium to maintain the 6-3 cells because these cells stopped proliferating without it [26]. The culture media were renewed twice per week.

Fluorescence microscopy

After the 3-h treatment of NBD-labeled PS/PC liposomes (100 μM) or NBD-labeled PC liposomes (100 μM), primary cultured rat microglia were mounted on coverslips at a density of 1.0×10^4 cells/ml and were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min at room temperature. Afterward, the images were taken at an excitation of 470 nm and an emission of 530 nm using fluorescence microscopy (Leica Microsystems DMRB, Wetzlar, Germany).

TNF-α quantification

Primary cultured rat microglial cells were plated on 96-well tissue culture plates at 6×10^4 per 150 μl per well and then were incubated in the presence or absence of 50 μM Aβ25–35 peptides and/or 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37°C. After 24 h, the collected media were assayed for TNF-α accumulation. TNF-α released into the culture medium was measured using a rat TNF-α enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Biosource International, Camarillo, CA) based on the quantitative "sandwich" enzyme immunosorbent technique. The assay was carried out according to the manufacturer's protocol. The sensitivity of this assay was 4 pg/ml.

RNA isolation and semiquantitative RT-PCR

Primary cultured rat microglial cells were plated on 60-mm dishes at a density of $1.0–1.5 \times 10^6$ cells per dish and then incubated with stimuli for 4 h. Cellular mRNA from microglia was extracted and purified by a QuickPrep micro mRNA purification kit (Amersham, UK) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The mRNA was subsequently reverse-transcribed to single-stranded complimentary DNA (cDNA) by SuperScrip II (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) with the gene-specific primers described below. Aliquots of the cDNAs were then used in separate PCR amplifications using *Taq* polymerase (Invitrogen). To determine the optimal conditions which allowed the signal to be in the liner portion of the amplification curve, experiments were performed under conditions in which the cycle number and template concentrations were altered. A negative control lacking the template RNA or reverse transcriptase was included in each experiment. The cDNA products of the reverse transcription reaction were denatured at 94°C for 2 min and then PCR amplifications were carried out as follows: for TNF-α (primers, sense 5′-CCC AGA CCC TCA CAC TCA GAT-3′; antisense 5′-TTG TCC CTT GAA GAG AAC CTG-3′), 35 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 15 s, annealing at 50°C for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s; for GAPDH (primers, sense 5′-ACC ACA GTC CAT GCC ATC AC-3′; antisense 5′-TCC ACC ACC CTG TTG CTG TA-3′) as an internal standard, 30 cycles of denaturation at 94°C for 30 s, annealing at 55°C for 30 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s. PCR products were separated electrophoretically on 2% agarose gel and stained with 0.1 μg/ml ethidium bromide, and then were subsequently visualized under UV illumination. The results of a scanning densitometric analysis (NIH Image 1.62 and Adobe Photoshop 7.0) are expressed as the relative ratio of TNF-α/GAPDH.

NO quantification

The accumulation of NO_2^-, a stable end product, extensively used as an indicator of NO production by cultured cells, was assayed by the Griess reaction. Primary cultured rat microglial cells were plated on 96-well tissue culture plates at 6×10^4 per 150 μl per well and incubated in the presence or absence of 50 μM Aβ25–35 peptides and 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37 °C. After 72 h, the cell-free supernatants were mixed with equal amounts of Griess reagent (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan). Samples were incubated at room temperature for 15 min and subsequently absorbance was read at 540 nm using a plate reader (Model 550; Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA).

Western blotting for the detection of inducible NO synthase (iNOS)

6-3 microglial cells were plated on 6-well tissue culture plates at a density of $1.0–1.5 \times 10^6$ cells per well and then incubated with stimuli for 12 h. Afterward, cells were washed with PBS (pH 7.4) and lysed with sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)-containing sample buffer. Proteins were separated in a 7.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and transferred onto nitrocellulose membrane. The membrane was incubated with 5% nonfat dry milk to block nonspecific binding. Subsequently, the membrane was incubated with iNOS antibodies (1:2000, Upstate, Lake Placid, NY) and β-actin antibodies (1:1000, Abcam, Cambridge, MA). The expression of iNOS was detected using an enhanced chemiluminescence

system (Amersham). The band intensity was quantified with a densitometric scanner (LAS 1000, Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

ESR spectroscopy

ESR, together with the spin-trapping agent DEPMPO was employed to accurately detect the production of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ by activated microglia. The 6-3 microglial cells were cultured on 12-well tissue culture plates at a density of 2×10^6 cells in 400 μl of culture medium per well. The 6-3 cells were primed by 100 U/ml IFN-γ for 16 h in the presence or absence of the pretreatment with PS/PC or PC liposomes for 1 h at 37°C. Afterward, the 6-3 cells were incubated at 37°C with or without 50 μM Aβ25–35 for 30 min before beginning the detection of ESR spectra. Cell suspensions (i.e., 5×10^6 cells/ml) in the culture medium containing 50 mM DEPMPO were transferred to a standard cell capillary, and the ESR measurements were performed at room temperature right after the incubation. The ESR spectra were obtained using a JES-RE1X ESR spectrometer (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan). The instrument conditions were set as follows: magnetic field = 336.85 ± 7.5 mT, modulation amplitude = 2000, modulation width = 0.1 mT, modulation frequency = 100 kHz, time constant = 0.1 s, microwave power = 10 mW, microwave frequency = 9430 MHz, and sweep time = 2 min.

Spin trapping in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase sysytem

Xanthine oxidase (0.1 U/ml) was incubated with 0.4 mM xanthine in phosphate buffer (PB) containing 2 mM DTPA and 20 mM DEPMPO in the presence or absence of 2 mM PS/PC liposomes or PC liposomes. Xanthine oxidase was added last to the mixture to start the reaction. The ESR spectra were recorded at room temperature on a JES-RE1X ESR spectrometer. The instrument conditions were set as follows: magnetic field = 336.85 ± 7.5 mT, modulation amplitude = 500, modulation width = 0.1 mT, modulation frequency = 100 kHz, time constant = 0.03 s, microwave power = 10 mW, microwave frequency = 9430 MHz, and sweep time = 1 min.

Statistics

Values are expressed as the means ± SE. All parameters were analyzed by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Fisher's PLSD post hoc test for specific comparisons. The significance was established at a level of $P < 0.05$.

Results

Confirmation of microglial phagocytosis of PS/PC liposomes

First, in order to confirm that the prepared liposomes are certainly engulfed by microglia, we treated primary cultured rat microglia with NBD-labeled PS/PC liposomes or NBD-labeled PC liposomes. After 3 h of treatment, the microglia were fixed with 4% PFA and examined by fluorescence microscopy. The fluorescent images were merged with the corresponding phase-contrast images. As shown in Fig. 1A, well-defined microglial cytoplasm was observed to fill with fluorescently labeled PS/PC liposomes (green). In contrast, few PC liposomes labeled with the fluorescence were observed in the microglial cytoplasm (Fig. 1B). These findings indicate that PS/PC liposomes, but not PC liposomes, were phagocytosed by microglia.

Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the TNF-α production by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia

We next investigated the effect of PS/PC liposomes on the TNF-α production by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia. The incubation of primary cultured rat microglia with 50 μM Aβ25–35 combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ for 24 h resulted in significant increases in the accumulation of TNF-α, whereas neither Aβ25–35 alone nor IFN-γ alone were able to activate the microglia to release TNF-α (Fig. 2A). The massive increase was significantly reduced by the pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes for 1 h in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2A).

In line with the results on the protein levels, the suppressive effect of PS/PC liposomes on the expression of mRNA

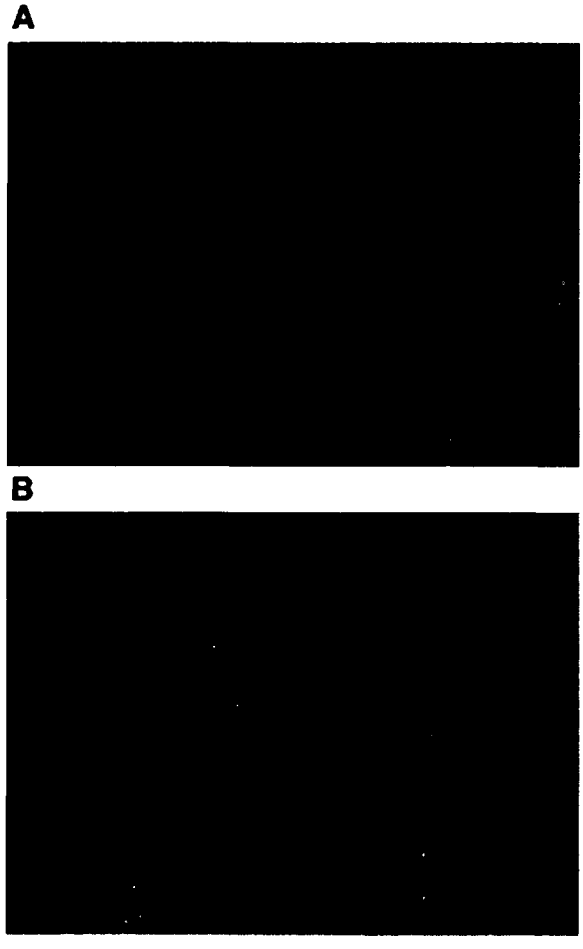

Fig. 1. Microglial phagocytosis of PS/PC liposomes. A typical fluorescence microphotograph showing phagocytosis of NBD-labeled PS/PC liposomes (green) by primary cultured rat microglia. The fluorescent image was merged with the corresponding phase-contrast image.

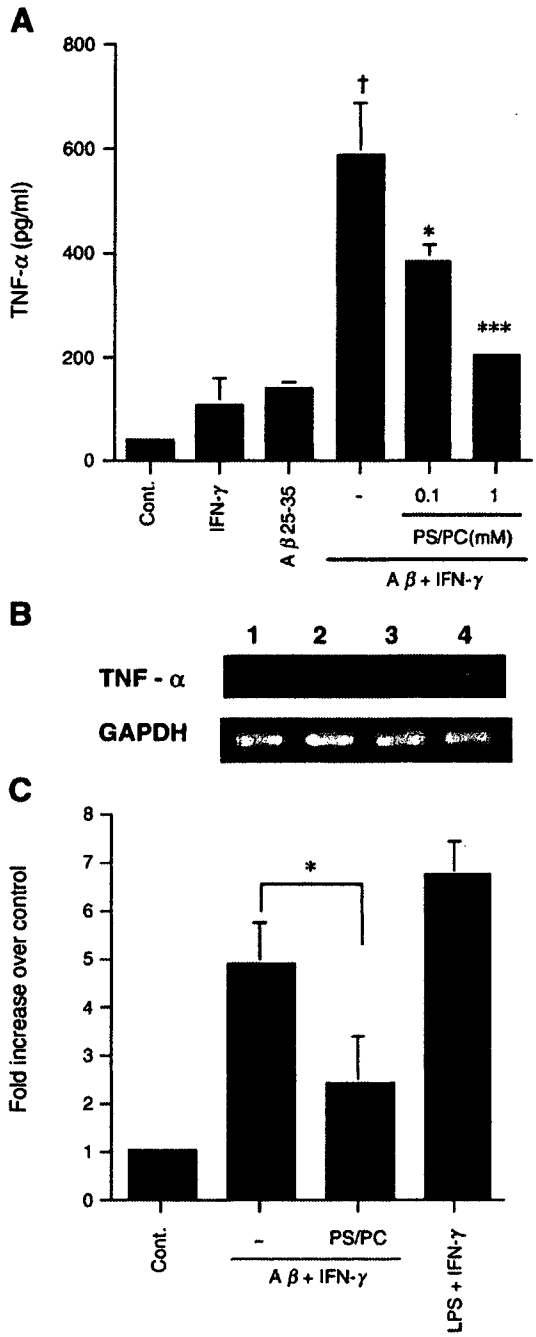

Fig. 2. Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the TNF-α production by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia. (A) Primary cultured rat microglia were incubated with 50 μM Aβ25–35 and/or 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37°C with or without pretreatment of PS/PC liposomes for 1 h. After 24 h, the collected media were assayed for TNF-α accumulation using ELISA. Data are the mean values ± SE (n=3). †P<0.0001, compared with control. *P<0.05, ***P<0.001, compared with Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ. (B) A representative RT-PCR analysis of the expression of mRNA encoding TNF-α in primary cultured rat microglia incubated with stimuli for 4 h with or without pretreatment of 1 mM PS/PC liposomes for 1 h. The administration of 10 ng/ml LPS combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ was conducted as a positive control for the expression of TNF-α mRNA. Lane 1, control (medium); 2, Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ; 3, Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ + PS/PC liposomes; 4, LPS + IFN-γ. (C) Individual TNF-α mRNA levels were normalized to the corresponding levels of the mRNA encoding GAPDH. The results are expressed as the fold increase in the ratio of treated cell groups over the control. Data are the mean values ± SE (n = 3). *P < 0.05.

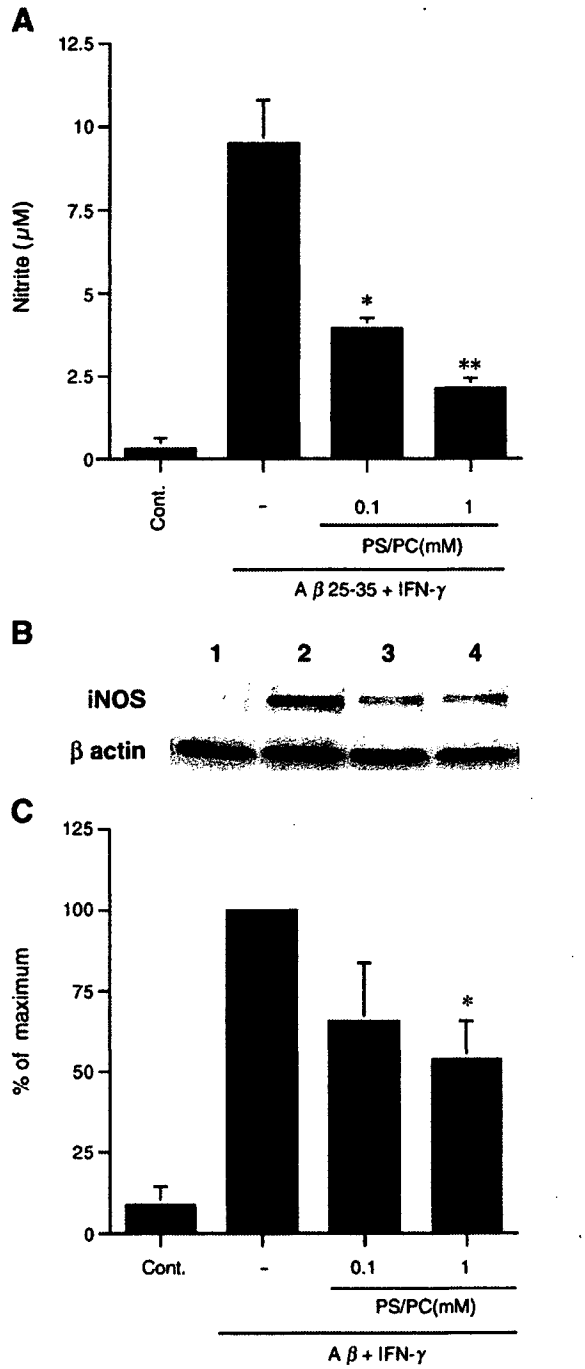

Fig. 3. Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the NO production by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia. (A) Primary cultured rat microglial cells were incubated with 50 μM Aβ25–35 and 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37°C with or without pretreatment of 1 mM PS/PC liposomes for 1 h. After 72 h, the collected media were assayed for NO accumulation using the Griess reaction. Data are the mean values ± SE. (n = 3). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, compared with Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ. (B) Representative Western blotting analysis of the expression of iNOS in 6-3 microglial cells incubated with Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ for 12 h with or without pretreatment of PS/PC liposomes for 1 h. Lane 1, control (medium); 2, Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ, 3, Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ + PS/PC liposomes (0.1 mM); 4, Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ + PS/PC liposomes (1 mM). (C) Individual iNOS expression levels were normalized to the corresponding levels of β-actin. The results are expressed as the percentage of the maximum levels (i.e., Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ). Data are the mean values ± SE. (n = 3). *P < 0.05 compared with Aβ25–35 + IFN-γ.

encoding TNF-α was also demonstrated by semiquantitative RT-PCR analyses. The levels of TNF-α mRNA isolated from primary cultured rat microglia incubated with 50 μM Aβ25–35 and 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37°C for 4 h expressed approximately a fivefold rise over the nonstimulated control (Fig. 2C). The levels of increased TNF-α mRNA expression were significantly inhibited by the pretreatment with 1 mM PS/PC liposomes for 1 h to approximately two-to threefold levels of the control (Fig. 2C). The administration of 10 ng/ml LPS combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ was conducted as a positive control for the expression of TNF-α mRNA.

Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the NO production by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia

Subsequently, employing the Griess reaction assay, we investigated whether PS/PC liposomes also decrease the synthesis of NO, which is a potentially proinflammatory molecule and a tally of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ for $ONOO^-$ formation. The incubation of primary cultured rat microglia with 50 μM Aβ25–35 combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37°C for 72 h resulted in a significant elevation in the accumulation of NO (Fig. 3A). As expected, the Aβ/IFN-γ-induced microglial NO production was significantly inhibited after 1 h of pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 3A).

We also investigated the effect of PS/PC liposomes on the NO-forming iNOS protein levels. 6-3 microglia were pretreated with PS/PC liposomes for 1 h and followed by incubation with 50 μM Aβ25–35 combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ at 37 °C for 12 h. We observed that 1 mM PS/PC liposomes significantly downregulated the Aβ/IFN-γ-induced microglial iNOS expression (Figs. 3B and C). The PS/PC liposomes-mediated reduction of the iNOS expression was elucidated to closely parallel that of the NO levels.

Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the superoxide generation by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia

Furthermore, we investigated whether or not PS/PC liposomes could suppress the generation of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ associated with Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia using the ESR spin-trap

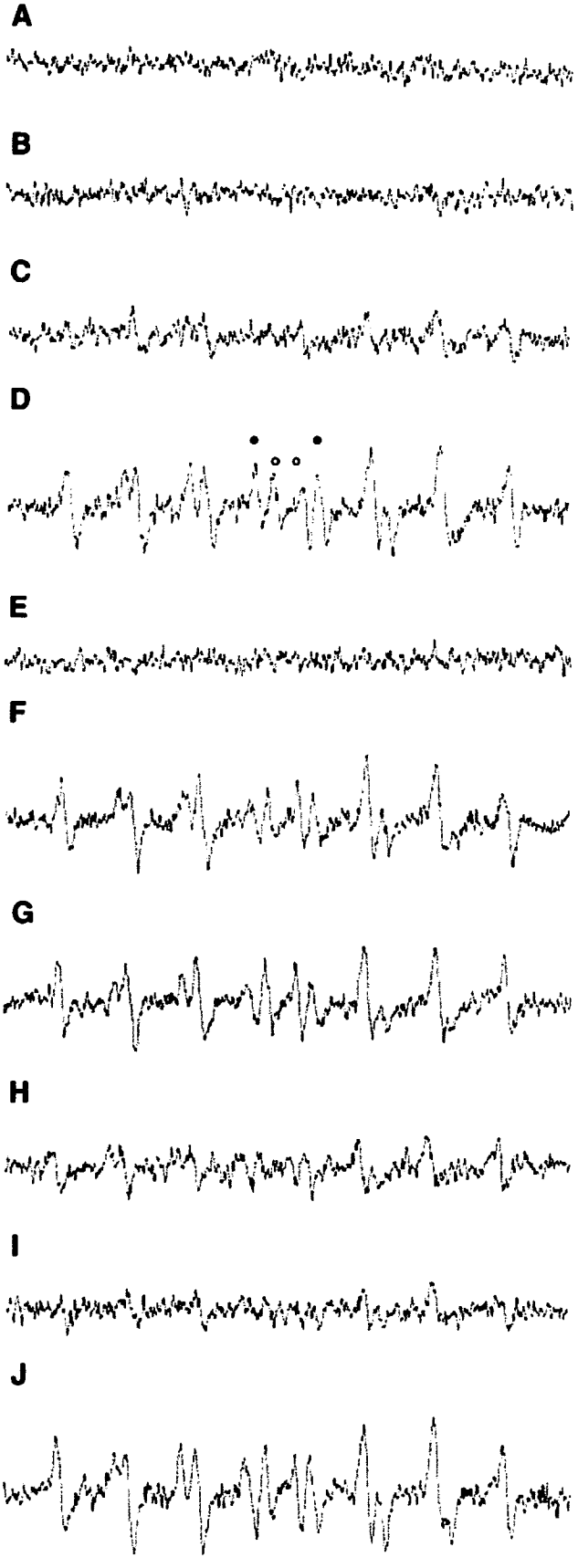

Fig. 4. Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the superoxide generation by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia. 6-3 microglial cells (5×10^6/ml) were incubated with 100 U/ml IFN-γ for 16 h and 50 μM Aβ25–35 for 30 min at 37°C with or without pretreatment of PS/PC or PC liposomes for 1 h. The ESR spectra were then recorded in the presence of 50 mM DEPMPO at room temperature. (A) ESR spectra obtained from 50 μM Aβ25–35 peptide alone (cell free). (B) ESR spectra of DEPMPO adducts obtained from nonstimulated microglia. (C) ESR spectra of DEPMPO adducts obtained from the microglia stimulated by IFN-γ alone. (D) ESR spectra of DEPMPO adducts obtained from Aβ25–35/IFN-γ-activated microglia. Open and closed circles represent the measured signal peaks of DEPMPO-OH and DEPMPO-OOH adducts, respectively. (E) The same as D, but with the addition of SOD (160 μg/ml). (F) The same as D, but with the addition of catalase (280 μg/ml). (G) The same as D, but after pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes (0.5 mM) for 1 h. (H) The same as D, but after pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes (1 mM) for 1 h. (I) The same as D, but after pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes (2 mM) for 1 h. (J) The same as D, but after pretreatment with PC liposomes (2 mM) for 1 h.

technique with DEPMPO. Because several previous studies have reported spontaneously generated free radicals associated with high concentrations of Aβ peptides (i.e., millimolar order) [28,29], we beforehand confirmed that the concentrations of Aβ peptides used in this study (i.e., 50 μM) had no potency to generate $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ by itself (Fig. 4A).

In the preparations of nonstimulated 6-3 microglial cells, no signals were obtained (Fig. 4B). Microglial cells stimulated by 100 U/ml IFN-γ alone in the presence of 50 mM DEPMPO showed the weak signals whose spectra can hardly be clarified (Fig. 4C). Microglial cells stimulated by 50 μM Aβ25–35 combined with 100 U/ml IFN-γ in the presence of 50 mM DEPMPO showed prominent signals whose spectra consisted of a linear combination of a characteristic 12-line spectrum corresponding to $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ spin adduct DEPMPO-OOH and an 8-line spectrum corresponding to $^{\bullet}OH$ spin adduct DEPMPO-OH (Fig. 4D). Computer simulation confirmed DEPMPO-OOH with hyperfine splittings a_N=13.22 G, a^{β}_H=10.962 G, a_p=50.281 G, a^{γ}_H=0.666 G and DEPMPO-OH with hyperfine splittings a_N=12.723 G, a_H=13.124 G, a_p=51.119 G. To further confirm the original species of the spin adduct generated by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia, SOD (160 μg/ml) or catalase (280 μg/ml) was also treated. The ESR signal intensity substantially decreased by SOD (Fig. 4E), not by catalase (Fig. 4F). These results indicate that the spin adducts originated from the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ radical, but not from the $^{\bullet}OH$ radical which is derived from H_2O_2. As well as an inhibitory effect of PS/PC liposomes on the TNF-α and NO production, pretreatment with PS/PC liposomes for 1 h considerably decreased the of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia in a dose-dependent manner (Figs. 4G, H, and I). Because PC has been demonstrated to presumably act as a membrane perturber, thus reducing the production of ROS in LPS/PMA-activated monocytes [9] and in LPS/PMA-activated microglia [30], we also evaluated the effect of PC liposomes on the generation of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ associated with Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia. In contrast to PS/PC liposomes, pretreatment with 2 mM PC liposomes for 1 h did not mimic the inhibitory effect of PS/PC liposomes on $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation of by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia at all (Fig. 4J).

Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase system

To confirm whether or not the liposomes per se scavenge $^{\bullet}O_2^-$, we measured the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ production in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase system in the presence or absence of PS/PC liposomes using ESR monitoring with a spin-trap DEPMPO. Fig. 5A shows the typical ESR spectra consisting of DEPMPO-OOH and DEPMPO-OH in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase system. The formation of these spin adducts via trapping $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ was confirmed by experiments in which SOD (160 μg/ml) was added before xanthine oxidase and ESR signals were completely quenched (data not shown), while catalase (280 μg/ml) was added, in which ESR signals were not quenched at all (data not shown). The ESR spectra in the presence of either 2 mM PS/PC liposomes were found to be essentially the same as those shown in Fig. 5A, thus indicating that PS/PC liposomes have no scavenging effect on $^{\bullet}O_2^-$, but they do have an inhibitory effect on the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generating system in the microglia (Fig. 5B).

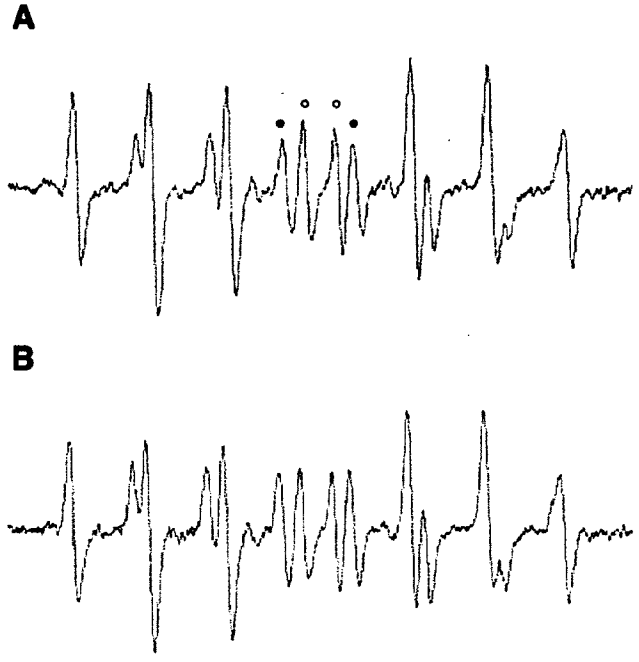

Fig. 5. Effect of PS/PC liposomes on the superoxide generation in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase system. The system contained 0.4 mM xanthine, 2 mM DTPA, and 20 mM DEPMPO in PB in the presence or absence of 2 mM PS/PC liposomes or PC liposomes. Xanthine oxidase (0.1 U/ml) was added last to the mixture in order to start the reaction. (A) ESR spectra of DEPMPO adducts obtained in the xanthine/xanthine oxidase system. Open and closed circles represent the measured signal peaks of the DEPMPO-OH and DEPMPO-OOH adducts, respectively. (B) The same as A, but in the presence of 2 mM PS/PC liposomes.

Discussion

During phagocytosis, an abrupt $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ formation called a respiratory burst occurs through activation of nicotinamide adenine diphosphate reduced form (NADPH) oxidase in phagocytes such as macrophage, neutrophils, and microglia. The $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ radical is a precursor of the microbicidal oxidants and it thus plays a crucial role in the host defense [31]. $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ is also involved in the AD pathophysiology associated with microglia-mediated neuroinflammation and oxidative stress because of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ derivative products such as $^{\bullet}OH$ and $ONOO^-$, both of which are highly reactive and capable of exerting neurotoxicity. Especially, increasing attention has recently been paid to $ONOO^-$ as a major factor for neurotoxicity in AD pathophysiology [7,8]. Shimohama et al. have shown that the activity of NADPH oxidase is elevated in AD brains [32] and several in vitro studies have shown that Aβ activates NADPH oxidase in different cell types, thereby inducing $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ production. Specifically, Aβ25–35 has been shown to activate NADPH oxidase in human monocytes and neutrophils [33] while also inducing $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation in both rat microglia and human monocytes [34], and by rat peritoneal macrophages [35]. All of these studies,

however, indirectly measured the Aβ-induced $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation using the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ dependent SOD-sensitive reduction of cytochrome *c*. Therefore, we directly measured the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation by Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia using ESR with the spin-trap technique to evaluate the effect of PS/PC liposomes on microglial $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ production.

The DEPMPO is an appropriate spin-trapping agent for cell-generated $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ detection because of its stability and capability of differentiating between $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ and $^{\bullet}OH$ [36,37]. Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia gave rise to ESR spectra consisting of a linear combination of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ spin adduct DEPMPO-OOH and spin adduct DEPMPO-OH. The formation of spin adducts was totally quenched by SOD but not by catalase, thus indicating that H_2O_2, which is reduced to $^{\bullet}OH$ by the Fenton reaction in the presence of Fe^{2+} or Zn^{2+}, was not a significant reactant in the formation of the observed radial signals. Moreover, the DEPMPO-OH appears to be generated by a spontaneous reduction of DEPMPO-OOH, not from H_2O_2-derived $^{\bullet}OH$ [37]. Although the noted property of DEPMPO made it possible to detect a sufficient amount of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ to evaluate the effect of PS/PC liposomes on microglial activation in the present study, DEPMPO has recently been shown to trap $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ inefficiently in the presence of NO because the rate of the reaction between NO with $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ is faster than the rate of the reaction between DEPMPO with $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ [38]. Accordingly, the proper amount of microglial $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ generation after 16 h treatment with Aβ/IFN-γ may be larger than that demonstrated by our data under the experimental conditions supposed to induce iNOS in microglial cells.

Our data demonstrated that PS/PC liposomes have an inhibitory effect on the Aβ/IFN-γ-induced microglial production of inflammatory molecules such as TNF-α, NO, and $^{\bullet}O_2^-$, and they thus presumably prevent the subsequent formation of $ONOO^-$. Accordingly, PS/PC liposomes appear to have both neuroprotective and antioxidative properties through the inhibition of microglial activation and to be a potentially useful treatment for microglial activation-mediated neurodegenerative diseases including AD. The exact mechanism of PS/PC liposomes to suppress inflammatory activation of microglia has not yet been elucidated. De Simone et al. have indicated that the inhibitory effect of PS-containing liposomes on microglial activation is not restricted to a specific stimulant-evoked signal (s) [13]. Indeed, we previously have demonstrated that PS/PC liposomes can inhibit LPS/IFN-γ-induced microglial activation [30] as well as Aβ/IFN-γ-induced microglial activation. Consequently, PS/PC liposomes may affect various signal pathways associated with inflammatory responses in activated microglia. Ajmone-Cat et al. have shown that PS/PC-containing liposomes inhibited the phosphorylation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) and delayed that of cAMP responding element binding protein in LPS-activated microglia [39]. Because phosphorylation of p38 MAPK has been shown to mediate the signal pathway reacting for inflammatory stimulants and result in gene induction of TNF-α and NO synthase in microglia [40], the PS/PC liposomes-induced inhibition of p38 MAPK phosphorylation in activated microglia appears to suppress, at least partially, TNF-α and NO generation. Alternatively, it is also possible that the decrease in the TNF-α and NO production is a direct consequence of both decreased $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ derived ROS generation and decreased redox signaling. In support of this, there is increasing evidence that ROS can function as a second messenger to regulate several downstream molecules such as MAPKs and nuclear factor-κB (NF-κB) [41]. Indeed, it has been demonstrated that activation of NF-κB, upon which TNF-α and iNOS expression is at least partially dependent, is redox sensitive [42]. Furthermore, ROS has been reported to mediate proinflammatory signaling in LPS-activated microglia and thus amplify TNF-α production [22]. Accordingly, through directly decreasing $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ derived ROS generation, PS/PC liposomes may act indirectly to limit a wide variety of subsequent inflammatory pathways. Due to the notable role of $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ as an inflammatory enhancer as noted above, a future study investigating the effect of PS/PC liposomes on $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ forming NADPH oxidase in Aβ/IFN-γ-activated microglia is called for to clarify the $^{\bullet}O_2^-$ inhibition mechanism of PS/PC liposomes.

There is increasing evidence that TNF-α can be neuroprotective as well as neurotoxic [43]. Although the precise function of TNF-α in the pathogenesis of AD remains unclear, this cytokine might be a key mediator in modulating the microglial functions in response to Aβ [44]. In addition, a number of infiltrating T cells have been shown to increase in the brain of AD [45] and the immune cells of AD patients have the potency for overproduction of IFN-γ [46]. According to such evidence, our experimental method using IFN-γ thus seems to be consistent with the pathophysiologic microenvironment in the AD brain.

Small et al. suggested that because neuronal loss does not account, by itself, for the properties of the amnesia characteristics of AD, more attention should be paid to the effect of Aβ peptides on the synaptic function rather than on neuronal death [47]. Accordingly, the effect of PS/PC liposomes on the synaptic dysfunction caused by Aβ-induced microglial activation also needs to be confirmed in future in vivo studies, regardless PS-containing liposomes have been reported to prevent the LPS-induced impairment of LTP [17].

The total lipid concentration such as the 1 mM PS/PC liposomes used in this study certainly seems to be high. Borisenko et al., however, have suggested that phagocytes have a sensitivity threshold for PS externalized on the target cell surface which thus allows for the reliable recognition and distinction between normal cells with low amounts of externalized PS and apoptotic cells with remarkably elevated PS levels [48]. They estimated that, using the liposomes containing PS and PC (1:1), the absolute amount of PS required for phagocytosis by 5×10^4 macrophages (the threshold of macrophage sensitivity) was 7 pmol. This value of the PS amount for 10^6 macrophages (i.e., 140 pmol) approximates to the normalized value of the PS amount for 10^6 microglial cells (i.e., 60 pmol), and this value was found to be quite effective in our study. Taken together, these findings suggest that microglial cells also seem to require a relatively high phospholipid concentration to recognize PS/PC liposomes as apoptotic cells. Accordingly, new techniques to ameliorate the stability of PS/PC liposomes and reduce the effective phospholipids concentration are required for future in vivo studies.

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Induction of matrix metalloproteinases (MMP3, MMP12 and MMP13) expression in the microglia by amyloid-β stimulation via the PI3K/Akt pathway

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Abstract

Alzheimer's disease is characterized by the presence of senile plaques in the brain composed primarily of amyloid-β peptide. Microglia have been reported to surround these Aβ plaques, which have opposite roles, provoking a microglia-mediated inflammatory response that contributes to neuronal cell loss or the removal of Aβ and damaged neurons. We herein analyzed the process of expression of Matrix metalloproteinases induced by Aβ stimulation. We found that Aβ1-42 induces a high level of MMP3, MMP12 and MMP13 in the microglia. The signal transduction pathway for the expression of these MMPs mRNA induced by Aβ1-42 depends on PI3K/Akt.

Keywords: Microglia; Alzheimer's disease; Amyloid β; MMP; Akt

1. Introduction

Alzheimer's disease (AD) is characterized by the presence of senile plaques in the brain composed primarily of amyloid-β peptide (Aβ). Microglia have been reported to surround such Aβ plaques (Haga et al., 1989; Itagaki et al., 1989). Microglia stimulated with Aβ may promote the death of neurons by producing free radicals or cytokines (Meda et al., 1995; Ishii et al., 2000; McDonald et al., 1997). On the contrary, microglia may clear Aβ through phagocytosis (Frautschy et al., 1992; Wyss-Coray et al., 2001; Rogers et al., 2002). In previous work we have shown that Aβ induces proliferation of microglia and produces M-CSF (Ito et al., 2005). These results suggest that innate immune responses may work as pathogenesis of AD.

Microglia belongs to the family of tissue macrophages. Monocytes/macrophages are prominent cells at sites of chronic inflammation and have been shown to produce Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), when activated by agents such as LPS, Con A (Wahl and Lampel, 1987; Lu and Wahl, 2005). MMPs have been implicated as being of pathological significance in the extracellular matrix degradation seen in rheumatoid arthritis, osteoarthritis, atherosclerosis, asthma and inflammatory bowel disease (Mahmoodi et al., 2005; Gueders et al., 2005; Naito and Yoshikawa, 2005; Maier et al., 2004). The relationship between MMPs and AD has been suggested. MMPs may prevent disease progression by degradation of Aβ. On the other hand MMPs may engage the disease progression by degrading brain matrix. Here, we investigate the several kinds of MMPs, which are induced by microglia. Further we examined the signaling pathways, which induce the expression of MMPs by Aβ.

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