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Thioredoxin-1 contributes to protection against DON-induced oxidative damage in HepG2 cells

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Abstract Leucocytes are susceptible to the toxic effects of deoxynivalenol (DON), which is a trichothecene mycotoxin produced by a number of fungi including *Fusarium* species. One mechanism of action is mediated by reactive oxygen species (ROS). The liver is an important target for toxicity caused by foreign compounds including mycotoxins. On the other hand, little is known about the influence of the redox state on hepatocytes treated with DON. The present study investigated the effect of DON on the cytosolic redox state and antioxidative system in the human hepatoma cell line HepG2. The cell viability of human monocyte cell line THP-1 or leukemia cell line KU812 treated with 2.5 and 5 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON were significantly reduced. However, HepG2 cells showed no toxic effects under the same conditions and did not exhibit an increased oxidative state. Further experiments showed that thioredoxin-1 (Trx-1) protein levels but not glutathione increased in the cells treated with 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON. In addition, the enhancement of Trx-1 content was repressed by antioxidants. These results suggest

that DON-induced accumulation of Trx-1 in HepG2 cells plays one of the key roles in protection against cytotoxicity caused by DON and that the mechanism may be mediated by the antioxidant properties of Trx-1.

Keywords Deoxynivalenol · Thioredoxin-1 · Cytotoxicity · Redox · HepG2 cells

Introduction

Deoxynivalenol (DON) belongs to the trichothecene group of mycotoxins and is a secondary metabolite produced by several fungi, including *Fusarium*, *Mycothecium*, *Trichoderma*, *Trichothecium*, *Stachybotrys*, *Verticimonosporium*, and *Cephalosporium* species (Rocha et al. 2005). Although milling, boiling and alkaline cooking are effective in reducing DON (Kushiro 2008; Nowicki et al. 1988; Abbas et al. 1998), DON is not degraded by common cooking processes (Marzocco et al. 2009). Consumption of trichothecene mycotoxins including DON can cause vomiting and alimentary hemorrhage, and result in impairment of the immune response (Bennett and Klich 2003; Sugita-Konishi and Pestka 2001). In addition, it is known that trichothecenes inhibit translation by binding to the ribosome and disturb cytokine production. Taken together, leucocytes, which are the main cells in the immune system, are very sensitive to trichothecenes (Pestka 2008). Increased intracellular reactive oxygen species (ROS) level induced by trichothecene mycotoxins might be a key mechanism underlying the cytotoxic effect on some leucocytes (Sugiyama et al. 2011; Krishnaswamy et al. 2010; Braicu et al. 2009).

Many types of cells have developed antioxidant defense systems to reduce the harmful effects of ROS exposure. Glutathione (GSH), which is a tripeptide composed of

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glutamine–cysteine–glycine is considered to be a major component of the cellular antioxidant system (Sugiyama et al. 2000; Fath et al. 2011). ROS can be scavenged by GSH and GSH-related enzymes including GSH peroxidase and GSH *S*-transferase (GST) (Vincenzini et al. 1993), indicating that GSH plays an important role in reducing the effects of oxidative stress. Indeed, a GSH-deficient yeast strain is sensitive to oxidative stress caused by hydrogen peroxide in comparison to the wild-type strain (Grant et al. 1996). In addition to GSH, thioredoxin-1 (Trx-1), a ubiquitous 12-kDa cytosolic protein, is a key ROS-scavenging molecule (Tian et al. 2008; Ohashi et al. 2006). Trx-1 possesses scavenging activity for ROS including singlet oxygen, hydroxyl radicals, and hydrogen peroxide, and maintains cell redox homeostatic (Fath et al. 2011; Ohashi et al. 2006). Therefore, the intracellular content of GSH and Trx-1 lead to increased tolerance to ROS-induced cellular toxicity.

The objective of the present study was to assess the intracellular redox states and the content of endogenous antioxidants (GSH and Trx-1) in HepG2 cells treated with non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON. HepG2 cells are thought to be a model system for examining adaptive responses to xenobiotics. This study will provide promising evidence of the mechanisms needed for tolerance to DON toxicity in hepatocytes in comparison with leucocyte cell line of human monocytic leukemia THP-1 and human basophilic leukemia KU812. In addition, the findings of the present study might seem to provide a strategy for reducing trichothecene-induced toxicity.

Materials and methods

Cell culture and reagent

The human hepatoma cell line HepG2 and the human monocyte-like cell line THP-1 (both obtained from the Human Science Research Resources Bank, Tokyo, Japan) were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; Gibco BRL, Rockville, MD, USA) supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Filtron, Brooklyn, Australia), penicillin (100 U/ml), and streptomycin (100 µg/ml). A human leukemia cell line KU812 (obtained from DS Pharma Biomedical, Osaka, Japan) was grown in RPMI-1640 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Filtron). DON, GSH, dithiothreitol (DTT) and N-acetylcysteine (NAC) were purchased from Wako (Osaka, Japan). Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) was purchased from Dojin (Kumamoto, Japan). 2',7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH-DA) was purchased from Lamba (Rainbach, Austria) and dissolved in DMSO to obtain a 1 mM stock solution. A solution of 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA was purchased

from Gibco Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Anti-rabbit Trx antibody was purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA) and anti-mouse β -actin antibody (AC-15) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. Horseradish peroxidase conjugated anti-rabbit and mouse secondary antibodies were obtained from Jackson ImmunoResearch (West Grove, PA).

MTT assay for cell viability

Cell suspensions containing 1×10^4 cells of HepG2, 2.5×10^4 cells of THP-1 or 5×10^4 cells of KU812 were plated in 96-well plates and stimulated for 24 h on the following day. Cell viability was measured by the MTT assay (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, the MTT labeling reagent was added to each well, and the plate was incubated for 4 h at 37°C. Solubilization buffer was then added to each well and the plate was incubated overnight at 37°C. The absorbance was measured at 550 nm and the reference wavelength was measured at 650 nm.

ROS detection assay

HepG2 cells were plated (5×10^5 cells/well) in 6-well plates, and on the following day were exposed to DON for 24 h. Intracellular ROS formation was measured by using an oxidation sensitive fluorescent probe, DCFH-DA. Ten µl of 1 mmol/l DCFH-DA in DMSO was added to the final concentration of 10 µmol/l and the plate was incubated for 30 min at 37°C. The cells were washed with phosphate buffered saline (PBS), harvested in 500 µl Trypsin-EDTA and 500 µl DMEM and resuspended in 200 µl PBS. The fluorescence of 100 µl of cell suspension in PBS was measured using a microplate reader, Tristar LB 941 (Berthold Tech., Germany) at an excitation wavelength of 485 nm and an emission wavelength of 530 nm.

Measurement of intracellular GSH levels

HepG2 cells (5×10^5 cells/well) plated in 6-well plates were treated with DON for 24 h. Intracellular GSH levels were measured using the total glutathione quantification kit (Dojindo Molecular Technologies, Kumamoto, Japan) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, harvested cells in 20 µl of 5% 5-sulfosalicylic acid was placed on ice for 10 min and centrifuged at 8,000g for 10 min at 4°C. The resulting supernatant was used for the assay. The intracellular GSH levels in the sample were determined using a microplate reader, Tristar LB 941 at 405 nm.

Western blot analysis

HepG2 cells (5×10^5 cells/well) were plated in 6-well plates and treated with DON in the absence or presence of

antioxidants (NAC, DTT, and GSH) for 16 h. Cellular extracts were prepared as described (Sugiyama et al. 2010). The same amount of protein, determined by the Bradford method, was loaded onto each lane of a discontinuous SDS-12% polyacrylamide gel (acrylamide/bisacrylamide ratio, 29:1) and then separated by electrophoresis by the method of Laemmli (1970). Proteins transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Immobilon-P; Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA) were subjected to western blotting with either rabbit anti-Trx (1:1,000) or mouse anti- β -actin (1:2,000,000) as the primary antibodies and subsequently detected with peroxidase conjugated species-specific IgG (1:10,000). The signals were visualized using an enhanced chemiluminescence system (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ, USA).

Statistical analysis

Statistical comparisons between two groups were performed using the unpaired Student's *t* test. The values shown in the figures are expressed as the means \pm SEM.

Results and discussion

HepG2 cells are more resistant to DON than THP-1 and KU812 cells

There are several reports that leucocytes are more sensitive to DON in comparison to the hepatoma HepG2 cells (Nielsen et al. 2009a, b; Schoettler et al. 2006). The cytotoxicity was analyzed by an MTT assay (Sugiyama et al. 2011) to confirm the cytotoxicity of DON on these cells. DON (1.25 to 10 μ mol/l) showed no toxicity in HepG2 cells. In contrast, DON reduced the cell viability of leucocytes (THP-1 and KU812) in a concentration-dependent manner, and significant reductions in cell viability were observed at

concentrations as low as 2.5 μ mol/l (Fig. 1). These results suggest that HepG2 cells had a significantly higher level of resistance to DON-induced cytotoxicity than THP-1 and KU812 cells.

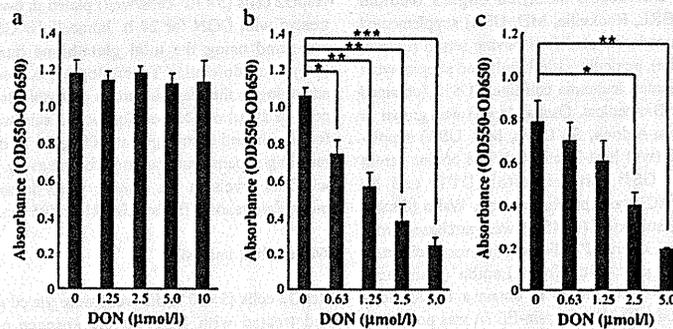
DON does not induce a more oxidative environment within the cytosol of HepG2 cells

It is considered that DON induces ROS-mediated apoptosis in immune component cells (Sugiyama et al. 2011; Krishnaswamy et al. 2010; Braicu et al. 2009; Pestka et al. 2005). Therefore, the effect of DON on the cellular redox status was examined in HepG2 cells, which were treated with DON (1.25–10 μ mol/l), and the cellular oxidation level was subsequently evaluated using an oxidation-sensitive fluorescent probe DCFH-DA. The intensity of DCF fluorescence had a tendency to decrease in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 2). In contrast, 60 μ mol/l DON induces intracellular ROS production in HepG2 cells (Zhang et al. 2009). In addition, the oxidative stress induced by trichothecene mycotoxins including DON has been explained by the ability of these toxins to provoke generation of ROS (Krishnaswamy et al. 2010; Braicu et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2009; Bouaziz et al. 2006, 2008). Together, these findings suggest that non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON might reduce the intracellular redox state in HepG2 cells and not provoke the generation of ROS in HepG2 cells. In fact, it seemed that reducing intracellular redox states were enhanced by DON concentrations which exert no cytotoxic effect on HepG2 cells (Fig. 1).

HepG2 cells treated with non-cytotoxic levels of DON increase Trx-1 but not GSH levels

GSH and Trx-1 play an important role in the retention of a reducing the intracellular redox status (Go et al. 2011; Dröge 2002). GSH is the tripeptide including a cysteine residue

Fig. 1 Effects of DON on cell viability in HepG2, THP-1 and KU812. HepG2 (a), THP-1 (b) or KU812 (c) cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of DON for 24 h. The results are expressed as the mean value of absorbance that subtracted absorbance of 650 nm from absorbance of 550 nm. Results are expressed as the means \pm SEM of three independent measurements. A statistical analysis was performed using unpaired Student's *t* test (**P* < .05; ***P* < .01; ****P* < .001, vs. control)



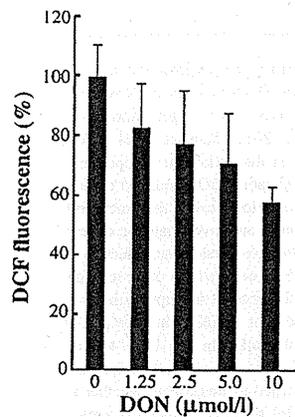


Fig. 2 Effects of DON on cellular oxidation in HepG2. HepG2 cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of DON for 24 h and ROS levels were measured using DCFH-DA. Values are presented as the means \pm SEM from three independent experiments. A statistical analysis was performed using the unpaired Student's *t* test ($*P < .05$, vs. control)

that acts as a reducing agent and thought to be the most abundant intracellular antioxidant (Sugiyama et al. 2000; Fath et al. 2011; Gaubin et al. 2000). The reducing environment of the intracellular redox state is maintained by the content of endogenous GSH (Fath et al. 2011). This study evaluated the intracellular GSH levels of HepG2 in the presence of DON to examine the involvement of intracellular GSH level in the reduced state of HepG2 cells treated with DON. Figure 3a shows that 1.25–5.0 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON had no positive effect on intracellular GSH accumulation. Furthermore, intracellular GSH levels were significantly decreased by approximately 30% in HepG2 treated with 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON in comparison to HepG2 control cells. Therefore, it appeared that the intracellular GSH content was not increased in HepG2 cells treated with non-cytotoxic levels of DON. Trx-1, which is a small ubiquitous protein (12 kDa), plays an important role in regulating cellular redox homeostasis (Tian et al. 2008). Trx-1 has a redox-active disulfide/dithiol bond within a highly conserved active site and shows scavenging activity for various ROS (Tian et al. 2008; Ohashi et al. 2006). The level of expression of Trx-1 in HepG2 cells treated with DON was measured by western blotting to examine the effect of DON on intracellular content of Trx-1. In contrast to GSH, the Trx-1 level in HepG2 cells was induced by DON in a concentration (2.5–10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$)-dependent manner, and DON-induced Trx-1 up-regulation was also observed in the presence of 20 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ of DON (Fig. 3b). These results suggest that non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON maintain

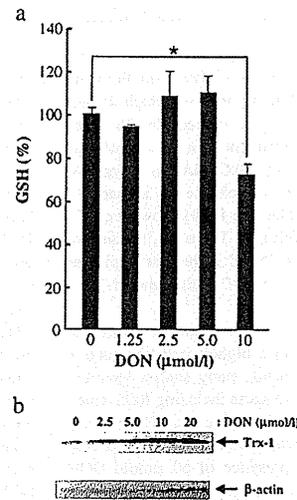


Fig. 3 Effects of DON on levels of GSH and Trx-1. a HepG2 cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of DON for 24 h and levels of GSH were measured. The GSH content in the absence of DON is expressed as 100%. Values are presented as the means \pm SEM from three independent experiments. A statistical analysis was performed using the unpaired Student's *t* test ($*P < .05$, vs. control). b HepG2 cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of DON for 16 h. The cell lysates were prepared and analyzed for Trx-1 and β -actin proteins by western blotting. The results are representative of three independent experiments

the intracellular redox state in HepG2 by up-regulating the Trx-1 expression level.

Up-regulation of Trx-1 by DON in HepG2 cells is suppressed by antioxidant treatment

The expression of Trx-1 in HepG2 cells treated with DON in the presence of antioxidants was evaluated to verify whether

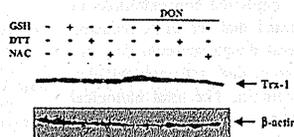


Fig. 4 Effects of antioxidants on the accumulation of Trx-1 in HepG2 treated with DON. HepG2 cells were treated without or with 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON in the absence or presence of 1.0 mmol/l antioxidants (NAC, DTT and GSH) for 16 h. The cell lysates were prepared and analyzed for Trx-1 and β -actin proteins by western blotting. The results are representative of six independent experiments

the intracellular redox state might be associated with the DON-induced enhancement of Trx-1 levels in the cells. Figure 4 shows a western blotting analysis which demonstrated the up-regulation of Trx-1 induced by 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON to be suppressed by treatment with 1.0 mmol/l antioxidants such as GSH, DTT or NAC. NAC is a synthetic precursor of GSH that is used to enhance the intracellular GSH content (Rahman and MacNee 1999). However, DTT cannot be used as a GSH precursor. Therefore, the antioxidant activity of GSH, DTT or NAC is thought to play an important role in the repression of DON-induced Trx-1 upregulation.

The current study found that non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON did not lead to a higher oxidation state in HepG2 cells. On the other hand, many studies have observed DON-induced oxidative stress including ROS generation (Krishnaswamy et al. 2010; Braicu et al. 2009; Zhang et al. 2009; Bouaziz et al. 2006, 2008). Indeed, HepG2 cells also produced ROS in the presence of 60 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON (Zhang et al. 2009). This discrepancy may be due to the use of a range of toxin concentrations. Indeed, DON-induced cell death is accompanied by ROS formation, and the intracellular redox status shifts to more oxidative conditions (Braicu et al. 2009). Conversely, this means that HepG2 cells acquire adaptation mechanisms against oxidative stress induced by DON. HepG2 cells might be able to develop an adaptive response to oxidative stress induced by non-cytotoxic levels of DON. A non-oxidative intracellular environment may be needed for HepG2 cells to survive under these conditions. However, the current study showed that treatment with non-cytotoxic levels of DON did not increase intracellular GSH levels of HepG2 cells. On the contrary, intracellular GSH level was significantly reduced after exposure to 10 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ DON. This suggests that GSH might be consumed by GST-mediated GSH conjugation during the detoxification processes of removing DON (Gouze et al. 2006). The present study observed that Trx-1, which is one of the major intracellular antioxidants in addition to GSH (Ago and Sadoshima 2006), was increased in HepG2 cells treated with nonlethal concentrations of DON. Therefore, it is suggested that the more reducing environment in HepG2 cells treated with non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON appeared to be due to the accumulation of Trx-1 caused by the mycotoxin. The vital biological activities of Trx-1 include acting as a cofactor in various processes (Watson et al. 2004). However, the DON-mediated up-regulation of Trx-1 may play an important role in maintaining or inducing a more reducing environment within the cells via its redox activity. This hypothesis is supported by the findings that the up-regulation of intracellular Trx-1 was suppressed by other antioxidants. In addition, (-)-epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG), the major green tea polyphenol, has protective ability against the cytotoxicity caused by DON in a

macrophage cell line, suggesting that antioxidants can play an important role in reducing DON-induced cytotoxicity in leucocytes, because EGCG possesses stronger antioxidative properties (Sugiyama et al. 2011; Kagaya et al. 2002). Accordingly, it is thought that the antioxidant properties of Trx-1 could participate in regulating DON-induced cytotoxicity. Further studies are required to elucidate the exact mechanism underlying such responses and investigate the effect of DON on the activity of thioredoxin reductase, which is involved in the reduction of oxidized Trx-1, in order to understand the physiological significance of the up-regulation of Trx-1 by nonlethal concentrations of DON in HepG2 cells (Watson et al. 2004). Additionally, though DON-induced cytotoxicity evoked after oxidative stress including ROS production, more research is needed to investigate whether the up-regulation of Trx-1 by DON in HepG2 cells plays a role in protecting HepG2 cells from DON-induced cytotoxicity. Comparisons of antioxidant levels in hepatocytes and leucocytes are also important for further research to clarify the DON-sensitive mechanisms of leucocytes.

In conclusion, non-cytotoxic concentrations of DON, which caused cytotoxicity to THP-1 and KU812, did not induce a shift in the intracellular redox state of HepG2 cells to a more oxidizing environment, which might be caused by the up-regulation of the intracellular Trx-1 level. In addition, the DON-induced up-regulation of Trx-1 was suppressed by antioxidants, suggesting that antioxidative capacity may be closely related to development of resistance to DON-induced cytotoxicity.

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Conflicts of Interest None.

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Hydrocarbon receptor suppresses LPS-induced IL-6 production through inhibition of histamine production in macrophages

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The hydrocarbon receptor (Ahr) is a ligand-activated transcription factor. It is known that Ahr is activated by such ligands as 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin and 3-methylcholanthrene (3MC). We have recently reported that Ahr is involved in immune regulation. In particular, we demonstrated that Ahr forms a complex with Stat1 and NF- κ B in LPS-stimulated macrophages and that it negatively regulates LPS-induced pro-inflammatory cytokine production by inhibiting NF- κ B activity. In this study, we showed that Ahr-Sp1 complex, independent of Stat1, also controls another pathway of IL-6 production via histamine 1 receptor through suppression of histamine secretion in LPS-activated macrophages. We found that Ahr inhibits the expression of LPS-induced histidine decarboxylase which produces histamine, and histamine secretion in macrophages activated by LPS. Ahr combines with activated Sp1 that leads to the attenuation of Sp1 DNA binding activity in HDC promoter through inhibition of Sp1 phosphorylation on Ser

37. It is well known that histamine is a chemical mediator that causes various physiological and pathological reactions, including smooth muscle contraction, gastric acid secretion, neurotransmission in the central nervous system, allergic reactions, and immune regulation. These reactions are induced in various cell types via H1-receptors which are G protein-coupled receptors. In particular, H1R activation enhances various functions in immune cells. We also found that loratadine and chlorpheniramine, H1R antagonists, more critically impair the production of LPS-induced IL-6 than that of other inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α , IL-12, and IL-10, in macrophages. This result suggests that there is a predominant pathway of IL-6 production via H1R in macrophages. Taken together, these results demonstrate that Ahr regulates IL-6 production via H1R signaling through suppression of LPS-induced histamine production in macrophages.

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Lactoferrin counteracts toll-like receptor mediated activation signals in dendritic presenting cells

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Lactoferrin (LF), a key element of mammalian immune system, plays pivotal roles in defence against infection and excessive inflammation. LF exerts direct effects on pathogens but also has indirect activity on host cell components and immune system preventing systemic inflammation. In this study, we show that monocyte-derived dendritic cells (MD-DCs) generated in the presence of bovine LF (bLF) fail to undergo activation by up-modulating CD83, co-stimulatory and major histocompatibility complex molecules, and cytokine/chemokine secretion. Moreover, these cells show an increased expression of molecules with negative regulatory functions (CTLA-4 and PD-L1), IDO, SOCS-3 and phospho-tyr-STAT3. Consistent with an impaired maturation, bLF-MD-DCs primed T lymphocytes exhibit a functional unresponsiveness characterized by reduced expression of CD154 and impaired secretion of gamma interferon and IL-2.

Interestingly, bLF induces IL-6 and CCL1 secretion in monocytes and bLF-MD-DCs exposure of already differentiated MD-DCs completely fails to induce IL-6 and inhibit TLR agonist-induced activation. Cell-specific differences in bLF internalization likely account for the distinct response elicited by bLF in monocytes versus MD-DC, providing a mechanistic base for its multiple effects. The receptors TLR2 and TLR4 are significantly involved in bLF-induced secretion of IL-6 and do not in its internalization into these cells.

These results indicate that bLF exerts a potent anti-inflammatory activity by promoting monocyte differentiation into DCs with impaired capacity to undergo activation to promote Th1 responses. Overall, these bLF-mediated effects may represent a strategy to block excessive DC activation upon TLR-induced inflammation, adding evidence for a critical role of bLF in directing host immune function to protect against microbial insults.

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Trichothecene mycotoxins inhibit MyD88-Independent pathways of Toll-like receptors

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Trichothecene mycotoxins are secondary metabolites produced by several fungi, including *Fusarium*, *Mycotrichum*, *Trichoderma*, *Trichothecium*, *Stachybotrys*, *Verticillium*, and *Cephalosporium* species, and then more than 150 trichothecenes and their derivatives have been identified. The occurrence of trichothecene mycotoxins in food is a potentially serious problem related to food safety. Trichothecene mycotoxins cause immune dysfunction, thus leading to diverse responses to infection. However, mechanisms involved in the immunotoxic effects of these mycotoxins has not been well elucidated. We have evaluated the effect of trichothecene mycotoxins on Toll-like receptor signaling. We found that the type B trichothecenes deoxynivalenol (DON) and nivalenol (NIV) which are the most common trichothecenes in the world inhibited lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced nitric oxide (NO) production by mouse macrophage cell line, RAW264. Moreover, it is appeared that the expression and transcription of inducible NO synthase (iNOS) mRNA were also inhibited. Since IFN- β produced in response to LPS is involved in the expression of iNOS, we examined the effects of DON and NIV on LPS-induced IFN- β promoter reporter activity, and found that the promoter activity was repressed in a concentration-dependent manner. IFN- β expression can be induced by TLR4-mediated MyD88-independent signaling pathway. Therefore, we examined the effect of DON on IFN- β promoter reporter activity induced by TLR3 ligand Poly I:C. We also found that DON inhibited the reporter activities. In addition, T-2 and HT-2 toxin belonging to the group of type A trichothecenes reduced LPS-induced IFN- β promoter reporter activity in a dose dependent manner. These results suggest that trichothecene mycotoxins inhibit MyD88-independent pathways of Toll-like receptors and the inhibition of these factors may be involved in the immunotoxic effects of these mycotoxins.

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Involvement of CD23 overexpression in Inflammatory Bowel Disease Pathogenesis: Immunomodulatory effect of interleukin-10 and retinoic acid
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Background: Inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD) are chronic inflammatory diseases of the gastrointestinal tract, which clinically present as one of two disorders, Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC). CD23 is a multifunctional molecule expressed on various cells. It is known as the low-affinity receptor for the Fc portion of IgE. Its expression at the cell surface of phagocytic cells has been associated with the development of many inflammatory processes. In a previous study, we have shown correlation between NO production and intestinal tissue damages in patients reached by Crohn disease and ulcerative colitis. In this study, we investigate in vitro the induction of nitric oxide production by cross linking of CD23 by monoclonal antibody in the absence or presence of interleukin-10 (IL-10) or retinoic acid in cultures of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) and colonic mucosa from patients (CD and UC). We also evaluated CD23 expression in inflamed colonic mucosa. **Patients and methods:** Twenty Patients with active UC, patients (n=10) with active CD and healthy controls (n=10) were enrolled in this study. Freshly isolated (PBMCs) were resuspended in RPMI 1640 culture medium. Multiple colonic biopsies were taken from patients who underwent colonoscopy. Colonic biopsies were immediately placed in DMEM culture medium. The cultures were stimulated by anti-CD23 in the absence or presence of IL-10 or retinoic acid. Cultures supernatants were harvested after 24h of incubation; NO measurement was performed by modified Griess. CD23 expression was evaluated by standard immunohistochemical procedure. **Results:** Our results show that cross linking of CD23 by monoclonal antibody up regulated NO production by PBMC and colonic mucosa. Retinoic acid and exogenous IL-10 down regulated the CD23 induced NO production in vitro for the two groups of patients. A marked increase CD23 expression was seen in the inflamed colonic mucosa from active UC and CD patients. In particular, CD23 expression markedly increased in samples from active UC patients. **Conclusion:** These results suggest that CD23 play a pivotal role in IBD pathogenesis disease through nitric oxide pathway. Collectively our study suggests that IL-10 seem to be a useful tool for development of therapeutic strategies in IBD.

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