

## Alpha-tocopherol Prevents H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced Tight Junction Occludin Disruption in Blood-Brain Barrier

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Vitamin E is the most important lipid-soluble antioxidant in humans. Although alpha-tocopherol is suggested that it has protective effect from many diseases, little is known about the prevention of occludin alteration in tight junction of blood-brain barrier (BBB) under pathologic insults producing reactive oxygen species (ROSs).

In this study, the effects of alpha-tocopherol on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced tight junction occludin were studied. Primary culture of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells was investigated with confocal microscopy, Western blot, and cell viability assay.

Alpha-tocopherol had no apparent cytotoxicity up to 2.8 mM. The preincubation with alpha-tocopherol suppressed the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cytotoxicity in Alamar Blue assay and phase contrast microscopy. In confocal laser microscopy and Western blot, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced loss of occludin was suppressed by preincubation with alpha-tocopherol.

The present findings provide evidence that alpha-tocopherol may be beneficial for cellular protection from pathologic insults. Since alpha-tocopherol was demonstrated to have far fewer adverse effects, it would become a noteworthy nutrient or drug for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases.

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**Key words** : Alpha-tocopherol, BBB, Tight junction, Occludin, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

### Introduction

The blood-brain barrier (BBB) is a complex biological system that consists of endothelial cells, pericytes and astrocytes, which are involved in the induction

and maintenance of its physiological and ultrastructural characteristics. The BBB plays a primordial role in isolating the cerebral parenchyma as well as in controlling brain homeostasis by its selective permeability to nutrients and other molecules flowing through the cerebral microcapillaries (Copin and Gasche 2003). The endothelial cells forming BBB are highly specialized to allow precise control over the substances that leave or enter the brain. Electron micro-

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scopic studies revealed several major factors that distinguished brain endothelial cells from their peripheral relatives (Audus et al. 1996). First, they contain lower amounts of endocytotic vesicles, and second, the space between adjacent cells is sealed by tight junctions; both factors restrict intercellular flux (Rubin and Staddon 1999).

An elaborate network of complex tight junctions (TJs) between the endothelial cells forms the structural basis of the BBB and restricts the paracellular diffusion of hydrophilic molecules (Engelhardt 2003). Once thought to be static structures, TJs are in fact regulated in both physiological and pathological states (Huber et al. 2001), and changes in TJ protein expression and/or organization have been associated with altered permeability (Fischer et al. 2002, Romero et al. 2003, Lee et al. 2004).

Reactive oxygen species (ROSs) are implicated in the pathophysiology of variety of vascular diseases, ischemia-reperfusion and inflammation. ROSs including superoxide ( $O_2^-$ ) and hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) can alter the function of specific proteins and enzymes (Kevil et al. 2001, Lee et al. 2004). The blood level of ROSs also assumed to play an important role in disease process (Bednarek et al. 2004, Wender-Ozegowska et al. 2004). In most cases, the mechanism by which these agents interact with their molecular targets in BBB is still unknown.

Alpha-tocopherol is the most important lipid-soluble antioxidant in humans. Although alpha-tocopherol is suggested that it has protective effect from many diseases (Meydani 2004, Singh and Jialal 2004), little is known about prevention of occludin alteration under pathologic insults producing ROSs. In this study, the protective effects of alpha-tocopherol on  $H_2O_2$ -induced TJ occludin were studied with primary culture of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells.

## Materials and Methods

### 1. Materials

Cell culture plates were purchased from Corning Costar (Acton, MA, USA). Collagenase/dispase was purchased from Roche Applied Science (Indianapolis, IN, USA). Minimal essential medium (MEM), DMEM/F12, and rat-tail collagen (type I) were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Alpha-tocopherol, all other nutrients, salts, antibiotics, etc. used in culture media were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA). Rabbit polyclonal anti-occludin, goat anti-rabbit IgG-HRP, and goat anti-rabbit IgG-FITC were purchased from Zymed Laboratories (San Francisco, CA, USA).

### 2. Isolation of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells

Rat brain microvessel endothelial cells (RBMECs) were isolated from cerebrums of 4-week old Sprague Dawley rats (Samtaco, Seoul, Korea) by enzymatic digestion as described in other report (Demeuse et al. 2002) with minor modification. In short, twenty brains were placed in ice-cold MEM (pH 7.4) buffered with 50 mM HEPES, containing 100  $\mu$ g/mL penicillin/streptomycin. Brainstem, meninges and large surface vessels were removed from brains. Cerebrums were collected and minced with scalpel blades into approximately 1-mm segments. The minced sample was digested with collagenase/dispase (0.5 mg/mL) for 1 hr at 37°C with shaking. Resulting homogenate was centrifuged at 2,000  $\times$  g for 10 min at room temperature (RT). Following removal of the supernatant, the remainder was resuspended in 13% (w/v) dextran solution and centrifuged at 9,000  $\times$  g for 10 min. The pellets were further incubated with collagenase/diapase (1 mg/mL) for 2 hr at 37°C with shaking. Cells were sedimented at 1,000  $\times$  g for 10 min. The pellets

were resuspended with DMEM (pH 7.4), loaded on a 50% (v/v) Percoll gradient centrifugation (39,200 × g, 1 hr), and centrifuged at 1,700 × g for 10 min. RBMECs in the second band were collected and washed two times to remove Percoll with DMEM (pH 7.4) by centrifugation (1,000 × g, 10 min). Finally, RBMECs were suspended with plating medium (DMEM/F12 containing 20% horse serum, 100 µg/mL penicillin/streptomycin, 45 µg/mL polymyxin B, and 1.25 mg/mL amphotericin B) with DMSO (10%) and stored overnight at -70°C.

### 3. Culture of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells

Cell viability was determined by trypan blue exclusion test. RBMECs were seeded at a density of  $1 \times 10^5$  cells/cm<sup>2</sup> in 96-well, 24-well, 6-well plates, and chamber slides. The culture surfaces were treated with rat-tail collagen (50 µg/mL). RBMECs were cultured in plating media. The cells were grown in a 37°C incubator in 5% CO<sub>2</sub> and 95% room air. After the first 3 days, the culture medium was changed every other day with changing media (DMEM/F12 containing 20% horse serum, 100 µg/mL penicillin/streptomycin, and 100 µg/mL heparin). The growing cells were observed with phase-contrast microscope (CK2, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

### 4. Experimental design

Sub-confluent cells (about 80%) were used on each experiment. Five sets of experiments were performed at standard culture conditions. Alpha-tocopherol was dissolved in ethanol and incubated in serum for 1 hr. The final concentration of ethanol in culture medium was 0.01%.

### 5. Cell viability

Viability of RBMECs was assessed using Alamar

Blue assay (Serotec, Kidlington, Oxford, UK). The absorbance was measured at wavelength of 570 nm using Spectra MAX 340 (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Background absorbance measured at 600 nm was subtracted from the 570 nm absorbance (n=5). Viability was expressed as a percentage of control.

### 6. Confocal laser microscopy

RBMECs grown on chamber slide (Nunc, Roskilde, Denmark) were exposed to alpha-tocopherol and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> as previously described. After the culture medium was removed, monolayer was washed with prewarmed phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 0.01 M). Cells were fixed with 3% paraformaldehyde (in PBS) for 20 min at RT and permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 (in PBS) for 10 min at RT. After fixing and permeabilization, monolayer was blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin (BSA)/PBS for 60 min at RT. Confluent monolayers from each treatment group were incubated with anti-occludin (5 µg/mL) primary antibody for 1 hr at RT. The cells were rinsed with 1% BSA/PBS, followed by incubation with FITC conjugated with secondary antibodies (5 µg/mL) for 1 hr at RT in the dark. The fluorescent-stained cells were rinsed three times with PBS before being mounted with cover glass with 50% glycerol-PBS and sealed. Photographs were taken with a confocal laser microscope (LSM-510 meta, Zeiss, Berlin, Germany).

### 7. Western blot

Cell lysates were prepared from RBMEC monolayers by adding Triton/deoxycholate/SDS buffer (0.2% SDS, 100 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% deoxycholic acid, 2 mM EDTA, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 10 mM NaFl, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 mM benzamidine, 0.2 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride) along with 1 tablet of Complete miniprotease inhibitor (Amersham, Piscataway, NJ, USA). The protein con-

centration of lysate was determined with microBCA assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA). Protein samples were separated on a 10% SDS polyacrylamide gel at 100 V for 90 min. The proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride membrane with 300 mA at 4 °C for 1 hr. The membranes were blocked for 1 hr using 5% nonfat dry milk in TBSTG (20 mM Tris base, 137 mM NaCl, pH 7.2, 0.3% Tween 20, 0.5% gelatin) and incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies (1 : 5,000, in TBSTG). The membranes were washed three times for 10 min each with TBSTG before incubation with the respective HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies (1 : 2,000, in TBSTG) for 1 hr at RT. After three washes, the protein bands were visualized with enhanced chemiluminescence method (ECL plus, Amersham). The membranes were scanned with Intelligent Box II (Fugifilm, Tokyo, Japan) and LAS-1000 Lite image analysis software (Fugifilm). Optical density of the bands was calculated with Image Gauge 4.0 (Fugifilm). The band density were normalized relative to controls and presented as mean  $\pm$  SD. The results were reported as a percent of control (n=5).

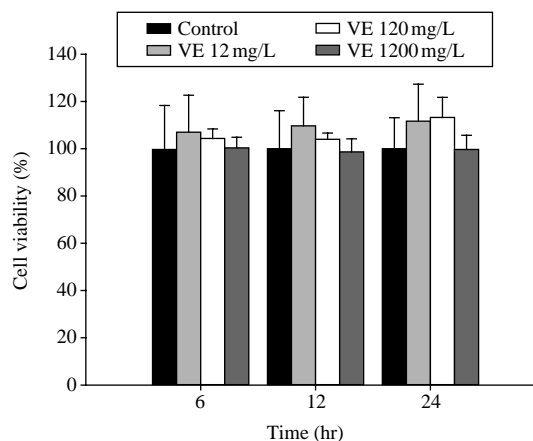
### 8. Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SD for control and treatment groups having five individual monolayers. Differences of mean values for each treatment groups comparing with mean value of control group were tested for the significance using Student *t* test under significance level 0.05 (Ram and Hiebert 2004).

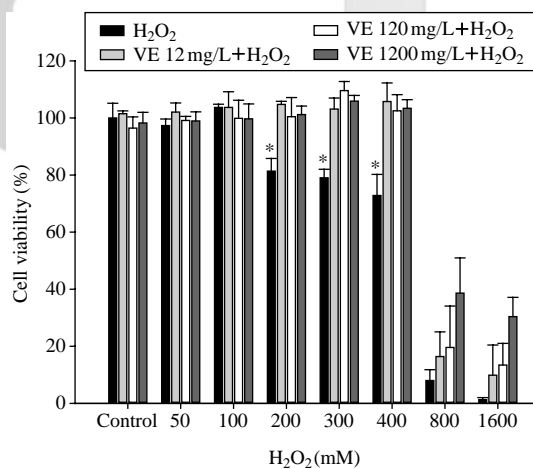
## Results

### 1. Cytotoxicity of alpha-tocopherol

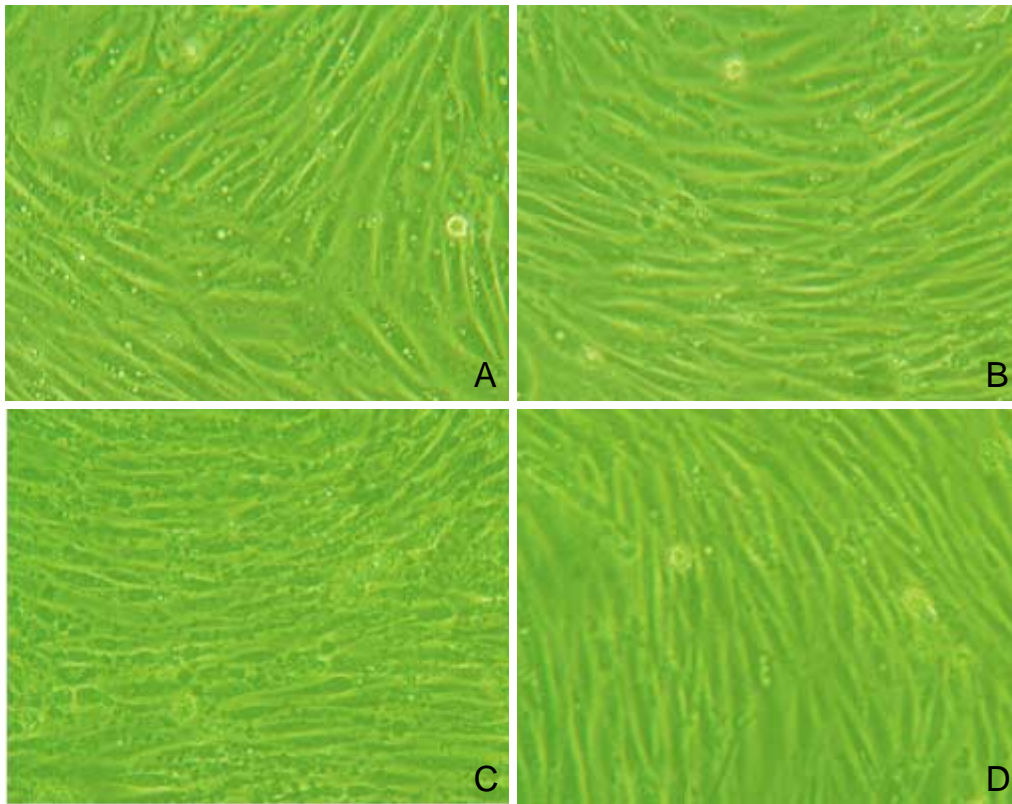
Alamar Blue assay revealed that there was no cytotoxic effect of alpha-tocopherol on cultured endothelial cells. The alpha-tocopherol toxicity was not



**Fig. 1.** Percentage of cell viability of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells after alpha-tocopherol (VE) treatment. The cell viability was assessed using Alamar Blue assay. Treatment of alpha-tocopherol up to 1,200 mg/L shows no significant decrease in viability when compared with control level. Each groups are added with ethanol (final concentration 0.01%). Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD (n=5). ( $P < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 2.** Percentage of cell viability of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells with 24 hr preincubation of alpha-tocopherol (VE) and followed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment for 1 hr. The cell viability was assessed using Alamar Blue assay. Preincubation of alpha-tocopherol of 12 mg/L efficiently suppresses the decrease of cell viability (\*) when compared to control. Data are shown as mean  $\pm$  SD (n=5). (\*:  $P < 0.05$ ).



**Fig. 3.** Phase contrast observations of the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-damaged RBMECs preincubated with or without alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L). A: nontreated control; B: preincubation with alpha-tocopherol for 24 hr; C: 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated for 1 hr; (D) 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treated after preincubation of alpha-tocopherol for 24 hr. × 200.

observed for 24 hr up to 100-fold physiological serum level (Fig. 1).

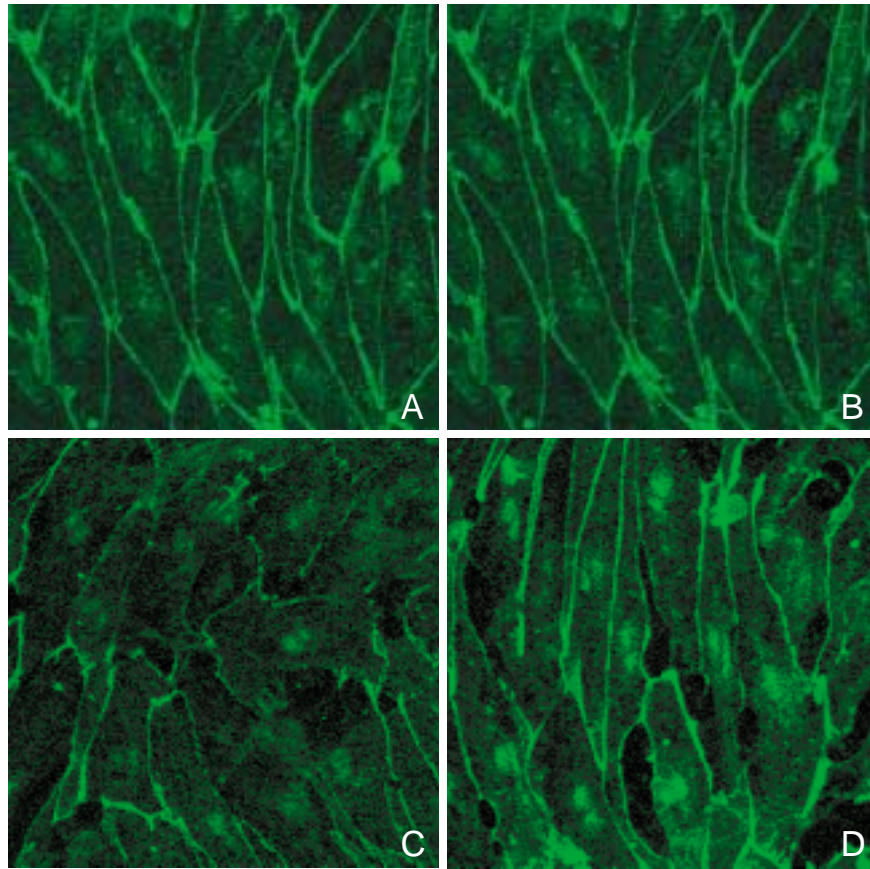
## 2. Effect of alpha-tocopherol pretreatment on cell viability

Cell viability of rat brain microvessel endothelial cells with 24 hr preincubation of alpha-tocopherol (VE) and followed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> treatment for 1 hr was studied (Fig. 2). The preincubation of physiological level (12 mg/L) of alpha-tocopherol prevented decrease of cell viability, which meant efficient suppression of alpha-tocopherol on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cytotoxicity. But with the increase, the preventive effect of alpha-toco-

pherol on cell viability began to decrease with 1 hr treatment of 0.2 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

## 3. Phase contrast microscopy

Incubating RBMECs in the presence of alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) did not cause any observable cellular damage (Fig. 3A and 3B). To evaluate the effect of alpha-tocopherol, RBMECs were preincubated with alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) for 24 hr, and followed by treatment of 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> for 1 hr. 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> resulted in a significant cellular injuries (Fig. 3C), but the alpha-tocopherol suppressed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced injury (Fig. 3D).



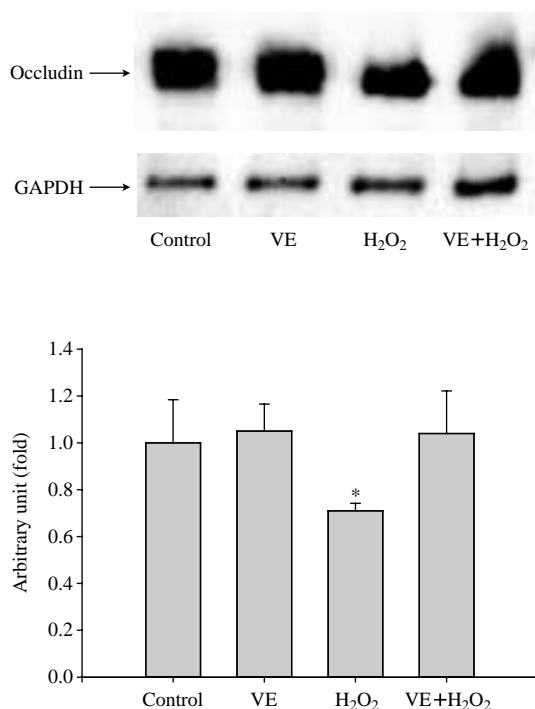
**Fig. 4.** Immunofluorescence staining showing occludin localization in rat brain microvessel endothelial cells. A: shows occludin immunostaining in control. B: shows occludin immunostaining after 24 hr pretreatment of alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L). C: exhibits decreased occludin immunostaining after 1 hr exposure of 0.3 mM  $H_2O_2$ . D: shows occludin immunostaining with 24 hr pretreatment of alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) followed by 1 hr exposure of 0.3 mM  $H_2O_2$ . Note that  $H_2O_2$  causes a loss of occludin at tight junctions in only  $H_2O_2$  treatment group (C).

#### 4. Confocal microscopy of RBMEC monolayer

The level of immunoreaction of TJ occludin in control (Fig. 4A) was not different from alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) treated group (Fig. 4B). Immunoreaction of occludin decreased in tight junction when treated with 0.3 mM  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 4C). Occludin did not decrease by 0.3 mM  $H_2O_2$  in alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) preincubated group (Fig 4D).

#### 5. Western blot analysis of occludin

By immunoblotting, alterations in expression of TJ occludin that form TJs and were examined. Alpha-tocopherol did not change the level of occludin (~65 kD) when compared with control (Fig. 5.)  $H_2O_2$  significantly decreased the level of occludin. But pretreatment of alpha-tocopherol blocked the effect of  $H_2O_2$  (Fig. 5).



**Fig. 5.** Effect of alpha-tocopherol and H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> on occludin levels in rat brain microvessel endothelial cells. Occludin is not changed in control and alpha-tocopherol (VE, 12 mg/L) pretreated group for 24 hr. Occludin decreases after 1 hr exposure of 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Pretreatment of alpha-tocopherol (12 mg/L) for 24 hr sufficiently block the effect of 1 hr exposure of 0.3 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. Data are shown as the mean ± SD. \**P* < 0.05 (n=5).

## Discussion

The tight junctional protein, occludin, plays an important role in maintaining endothelial solute barriers in CNS (Hirase et al. 1997, Tsukita and Furuse 1999). Several studies have shown that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is involved in permeability change of tight junctions in various cells (Meyer et al. 2001, Jepson 2003). There is no known protective effect of alpha-tocopherol on occludin of tight junction in BBB. In the present study, we demonstrated the beneficial effect of alpha-tocopherol on oxidative stress by using primary cul-

tures of RBMECs.

Exposure to alpha-tocopherol alone up to 1.2 g/L (2.8 mM) for 24 hr did not influence cell viability. In the second set of experiments, we examined the protective effect of alpha-tocopherol on H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cytotoxicity by Alamar Blue assay. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentration of 0.1 mM and below did not affect cell viability. Exposure of the RBMECs cultures to H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> (0.2~0.4 mM) for 1hr reduced cell viability in a concentration-dependent manner. Preincubation of RBMECs with alpha-tocopherol (0.028~2.8 mM) for 24 hr suppressed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced cytotoxicity. But alpha-tocopherol did not protect RBMECs from more than 0.8 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>. With these results, the H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> concentrations between 0.2 and 0.4 mM were used in following studies. The cell morphology was studied using phase contrast microscope revealed that preincubation with alpha-tocopherol suppressed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced RBMECs injury.

In confocal laser microscopy, occludin normally has a continuous distributing pattern at cell-to-cell contact boundaries. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> caused decreased immunoreaction and loss of occludin at TJs. The loss of TJ occludin at cell-to-cell contact sites correlate with increased paracellular permeability (Kevil et al. 2000, Mark and Davis 2002). The preincubation of alpha-tocopherol suppressed H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>-induced loss of occludin at TJs. Western blot also revealed that preincubation of alpha-tocopherol prevented the loss of occludin.

ROSs are generated by specialized plasma membrane oxidases or by mitochondria in response to various growth factors or cytokines (Thannickal and Fanburg 2000). ROSs have been traditionally regarded as toxic byproduct of metabolism, and cells develop several antioxidant enzymes to protect themselves from these toxic species. However, recent data suggest that ROSs are also essential participants in signaling (Das et al. 1995, Cordis et al. 1998). Besides the activation of different members of signaling cascades, ROSs may directly regulate the activity of transcrip-

tion factors (Schreck et al. 1992, Okuno et al. 1993, Michiels et al. 2002).

Vitamin E consumption did not alter results on any of the tests of hepatic or renal function, hematologic status, plasma lipid or lipoprotein concentrations, bleeding time, serum autoantibody concentrations, or the ability of neutrophils to kill *Candida albicans* (Meydani et al. 1998). Ingestion of vitamin E at dosages of 100~3,200 IU/day for periods of 4 week to a few months was not associated with any adverse effects (Diplock 1995). Human subjects were given 2,000 IU vitamin E/day for periods up to 36 months in the DATATOP study without adverse effects (The Parkinson Study Group 1996). Mean serum alpha-tocopherol concentration were about 12 mg/L or 28  $\mu$ M (Klapcinska et al. 2000). The recommended dietary allowance for alpha-tocopherol is 15 mg/day. The no observed adverse effect level of vitamin E (a dose which produces no adverse effects) as determined by the U.S. Council for Responsible Nutrition is 800 mg (1,200 IU).

Vitamin E might slow functional deterioration of Alzheimer disease with 2,000 IU/day for 3 years (Grundman 2000). It was proposed that chronic, high dose vitamin E dietary supplementation or parenteral vitamin E administration might serve as a successful therapeutic strategy for the prevention or treatment of Parkinson disease (Fariss and Zhang 2003). Even though the efficacy of vitamin E in the management of cardiovascular disease has been shown (Meydani 2004), the potential role of vitamin E in the treatment of cerebrovascular disease remains essentially unknown.

Although vitamin E has long been considered just as an antioxidant, it has now become clear that vitamin E has functions far exceeding that as an antioxidant. These include regulation of cellular signaling processes and gene expression. Alpha-tocopherol induced cytochrome P450 enzyme (CYP) Cyp3a11, the murine homolog to human CYP3A4. CYPs were induced via the activation of the pregnane-X-receptor

(PXR), a member of the family of nuclear receptors. Vitamin E induced a reporter gene driven by PXR. These findings revealed that vitamin E was able to directly influence gene activity (Brigelius-Flohe 2005).

The present findings provide evidence that alpha-tocopherol may be beneficial for cellular protection from ROS-mediated diseases. Since alpha-tocopherol was demonstrated to have far fewer adverse effects, it would become a noteworthy nutrient or drug for treatment of neurodegenerative diseases. Further studies are needed to elucidate how alpha-tocopherol influences gene activity in response to various stresses. Therapeutic strategies aimed at controlling endothelial cell function by intervening ROS mediated cell responses have wide applicability in vessel involved diseases.

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## 혈액뇌장벽의 치밀이음부에서 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>의 occludin 손상에 대한 알파토코페롤의 억제효과

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**간추림** : 비타민 E는 사람에게서 지용성 항산화제로 가장 중요하다. 그 중  $\alpha$ -tocopherol은 여러 질병에 보호효과가 있는 것으로 알려져 있지만, 활성산소종을 내는 질병 중 혈액뇌장벽의 치밀이음부에서 occludin의 변화를 예방하는지는 알려져 있지 않다.

이 연구에서는 치밀이음부 단백질인 occludin에 대한 H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>의 영향에 대해 알파토코페롤이 보호작용을 나타내는지를 쥐 뇌 미세혈관 내피세포를 일차 배양하여 공초점레이저현미경, Western Blot, cell viability assay로 관찰하였다.

알파토코페롤은 매우 높은 농도(2.8 mM)에서도 세포독성이 나타나지 않았다. AlamaBlue assay와 위상차현미경을 통해 관찰한 결과, 알파토코페롤을 전처리하면, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>에 의한 세포독성이 억제되었다. 공초점현미경과 western blot을 통해 관찰한 결과, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>에 의한 occludin의 소실은 알파토코페롤을 전처리하여 막을 수 있었다.

이와 같은 결과는, 알파토코페롤은 여러 질환으로부터 뇌혈관 내피세포의 보호효과를 나타낼 수 있다는 것을 제시하고 있다. 알파토코페롤은 부작용이 거의 없기 때문에 퇴행성신경질환치료에 사용될 수 있을 것이다.

**찾아보기 낱말** : 알파토코페롤, 뇌혈관장벽, 치밀이음부, occludin, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>