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Anti-fibrillogenic and fibril-destabilizing activity of nicotine in vitro: Implications for the prevention and therapeutics of Lewy body diseases

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Abstract

The aggregation of alpha-synuclein (α S) has been implicated as a critical step in the development of Lewy body diseases (LBD) and multiple system atrophy (MSA). Both retrospective and prospective epidemiological studies have consistently demonstrated an inverse association between cigarette smoking and Parkinson's disease (PD). We used fluorescence spectroscopy with thioflavin S, electron microscopy and atomic force microscopy to examine the effects of nicotine, pyridine, and *N*-methylpyrrolidine on the formation of α S fibrils (f α S) from wild-type α S (α S (WT)) and A53T mutant α S (A53T) and on preformed f α Ss. Nicotine dose-dependently inhibited the f α S formation from both α S (WT) and A53T. Moreover, nicotine dose-dependently destabilized preformed f α Ss. These effects of nicotine were similar to those of *N*-methylpyrrolidine. The anti-fibrillogenic activity of nicotine may be exerted not only by the inhibition of f α S formation but also by the destabilization of preformed f α S. Additionally, this effect may be attributed to *N*-methylpyrrolidine moieties of nicotine. © 2007 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Lewy body diseases; Nicotine; α-Synuclein fibrils; Electron microscopy; Atomic force microscopy

Introduction

There are numerous findings suggesting a seminal role for α -synuclein (α S) in a group of neurodegenerative diseases that include Parkinson's disease (PD), dementia with Lewy bodies (DLB), and multiple system atrophy (MSA) (Paleologou et al., 2005). Firstly, α S is a component of Lewy bodies and neurites in PD and DLB and of glial and neuronal cytoplasmic inclusions in MSA (inclusions present in brain regions that are functionally damaged) (Paleologou et al., 2005). Secondly, three missense α S mutations are linked to rare forms of earlyonset familial PD (Kruger et al., 1998; Polymeropoulos et al., 1997; Zarranz et al., 2004). Thirdly, α S forms toxic oligomers or fibrils (Lashuel et al., 2002; Volles and Lansbury, 2003). Fourthly, raised α S expression in cells promotes mitochondrial deficit and cell death, enhances susceptibility to oxidative stress (Ostrerova et al., 1999; Hsu et al., 2000), and can damage lysosomes (Stefanis et al., 2001) and the Golgi apparatus (Gosavi et al., 2002). Finally, increased human α S

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expression in transgenic flies and mice is accompanied by neuronal dysfunction and loss of synaptic terminals and/or neurons, the formation of lesions similar to those found in PD brain, and the development of motor abnormalities (Feany and Bender, 2000; Kahle et al., 2000). Also, virus-induced overexpression model also revealed the same pathological change of PD (Kirik et al., 2003; Yamada et al., 2004). Taken together, all these studies provide strong evidence for a central role for α S deposition in the pathogenesis of these neurodegenerative disorders.

Cigarette smoking is consistently associated with a reduced risk of PD, having been reported in prospective studies (Hernan et al., 2001), retrospective case-control studies (Hernan et al., 2002), twin studies (Wirdefeldt et al., 2005), and studies of casesibling pairs (Scott et al., 2005). In fact, not only cigarette smoke, but also nicotine gum and nicotine patches can decrease the tremors and bradykinesia of PD (Fagerstrom et al., 1994; Ishikawa and Miyatake, 1993). Nicotine in tobacco provokes health problems in humans, but in its pure form it has the potential to be a valuable pharmaceutical agent (Jarvick, 1991). Some neuroprotective effects of nicotine have been already reported. First, nicotine stimulates striatal dopamine neurons that are selectively damaged in PD (Grady et al., 1992; Zhou et al., 2001). Second, nicotine exposure protects against neuronal insult in experimental models (Quik and Kulak, 2002; O'Neill et al., 2002; Jeyarasasingam et al., 2002). However, few studies on the direct effects of nicotine for α S in vitro have been reported.

Based on a nucleation-dependent polymerization model to explain the mechanism of *β*-amyloid fibrils (fAβ) formation in vitro (Jarrett and Lansbury, 1993; Lomakin et al., 1997; Naiki et al., 1997; Naiki and Gejyo, 1999), we previously reported that nicotine inhibits fAB formation from amyloid Bprotein (AB) and fAB extension dose-dependently in vitro (Ono et al., 2002a). Moreover, we reported that nicotine also destabilizes preformed $fA\beta(1-40)$ and $fA\beta(1-42)$ in a concentration-dependent manner within a few hours at pH 7.5 at 37 °C, based on fluorescence spectroscopic analysis with thioflavin T and electron microscopic studies (Ono et al., 2002a). Our systematic in vitro studies including this study indicated that the overall activity of the antiamyloidogenic molecules may be on the order of nordihydroguaiaretic acid (NDGA) > rifampicin (RIF) = tetracycline > poly(vinylsulfonic acid, sodium salt) = 1,3-propanedisulfonic acid, disodium salt>nicotine (Ono et al., 2002a,b). The time course of αS aggregation also fulfills all the criteria of the nucleationdependent model, characterized by an initial lag phase reflecting nucleation and a subsequent growth phase culminating in a steady state (Wood et al., 1999). Structurally, the in vitro α S aggregates resemble material derived from diseaseaffected brains, i.e., they exhibit an amyloid-like fibrillar morphology (Serpell et al., 2000). The mutated forms, especially the A53T mutated form (A53T) of α S were shown to have higher aggregation rates than wild-type form (WT) (El-Agnaf et al., 1998b; Conway et al., 1998). Recently, we showed that antioxidant compounds such as NDGA and RIF dose-dependently inhibited the formation of αS fibrils (f α S) and destabilized preformed f α S as found in fA β (Ono and Yamada, 2006).

In this study, we used fluorescence spectroscopy with thioflavin S (ThS), electron microscopy (EM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM) to examine the effects of nicotine and two components of nicotine, i.e., pyridine and *N*-methylpyrrolidine (M-pyrro) on the formation and destabilization of preformed $f\alpha$ S at pH 7.5 at 37 °C in vitro.

Materials and methods

Preparation of αS and $f \alpha S$ solutions

Wild-type α S (α S (WT))(lot number 121303AS) and A53T mutant α S (A53T) were purchased from Recombinant Peptide Technologies (LLC, GA, USA). Fresh, non-aggregated f α S was obtained by polymerizing fresh α S just before the destabilization reaction. The reaction mixture contained 140 μ M α S, 20 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.5, and 100 mM NaCl. After incubation at 37 °C for 6 days under agitated conditions, the formation reaction proceeded to equilibrium as measured by the fluorescence of ThS. In the following experiments, the concentration of f α S in the final reaction mixture was regarded as 140 μ M.

Fluorescence spectroscopy

A fluorescence spectroscopic study was performed using a Hitachi F-2500 fluorescence spectrophotometer as described previously (Ono and Yamada, 2006). Optimum fluorescence measurements of f α S were obtained at the excitation and emission wavelengths of 440 and 521 nm, respectively, with containing the reaction mixture 5 μ M ThS (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan) and 50 mM of glycine–NaOH buffer, pH 8.5.

Electron microscopy (EM)

Reaction mixtures were spread on carbon-coated grids, negatively stained with 1% phosphotungstic acid, pH 7.0, and examined under a JEM-1210 electron microscope (JEOL Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) with an acceleration voltage at 75 kV.

Atomic force microscopy (AFM)

 $f\alpha S$ solutions were mixed gently prior to removal of aliquots for AFM analysis. The aliquots (20 µl) were applied to a freshly cleaved muscovite mica substrate and kept at room temperature for 10 min. The mica surface was then rinsed with Milliporefiltered water $(3 \times 50 \ \mu l)$ to remove loosely bound protein and dried under a stream of CO2. The sample was imaged immediately using a Nanoscope IIIa controller (Digital Instruments, Santa Barbara, CA) with a Multimode scanning probe microscope equipped with a JV scanner. All measurements were carried out in the tapping mode under ambient conditions using single-beam silicon cantilever probes. The image size of AFM was usually 512×512 pixels. At least four regions of the mica surface were examined to confirm the homogeneity of the structures throughout the sample. Section analysis was accompanied by drawing a line over the individual species and measuring the distance from the mica surface to the top of the structure. This was done 10 times and an average was obtained only when the fibril structure was confirmed.

Polymerization assay

Polymerization assay was preformed as described elsewhere (Ono and Yamada, 2006). Briefly, the reaction mixture contained 140 μ M α S (WT or A53T); 0, 0.1, 1, 10, 50 or 100 μ M NDGA, RIF, nicotine (Sigma Co., St. Louis, MO), pyridine (Nacalai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) or M-pyrro (Tokyo Kasei Kogyo, Tokyo, Japan); 20 mM Tris buffer, pH 7.5; and 100 mM NaCl.

30 μ L aliquots of the mixture were put into oil-free PCR tubes (size; 0.5 mL, Takara Shuzo Co. Ltd., Otsu, Japan). The reaction tubes were put into an incubator (IK100J, Yamato Co. Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). Starting at 4 °C, the plate temperature was elevated at maximal speed, to 37 °C. After they were stirred with micro-beads for 0–6 days as indicated in each figure, the reaction tube, triplicate 5- μ L aliquots were removed, then subjected to fluorescence spectroscopy and the mean of each

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