

## In vivo altered unfolded protein response and apoptosis in livers from lipopolysaccharide-challenged cirrhotic rats

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**Background/Aims:** Endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-related unfolded protein response (UPR) is mediated by PKR-like ER kinase (PERK), ATF6 and IRE1. PERK phosphorylates eukaryotic translation initiation factor-2 $\alpha$  (eIF2 $\alpha$ ) to attenuate protein synthesis, including in NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent antiapoptotic proteins. We hypothesized that an altered UPR in the liver may sensitize cirrhotic livers to LPS-induced, TNF $\alpha$ -mediated apoptosis. Thus, we examined in vivo UPR and NF- $\kappa$ B activity in livers from cirrhotic and normal LPS-challenged rats.

**Methods:** Livers were harvested in rats that did or did not receive LPS.

**Results:** Under baseline conditions, no UPR was found in normal livers while PERK/eIF2 $\alpha$  and ATF6 pathways were activated in cirrhotic livers. After LPS, in normal livers, the PERK/eIF2 $\alpha$  pathway was transiently activated. ATF6 and IRE1 were activated. In cirrhotic livers, the PERK/eIF2 $\alpha$  pathway remained elevated. ATF6 and IRE1 pathways were altered. LPS-induced, NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent antiapoptotic proteins increased in normal livers whereas their expression was blunted at the posttranscriptional level in cirrhotic livers.

**Conclusions:** Cirrhotic livers exhibit partial UPR activation in the basal state and full UPR, although altered, after LPS challenge. Sustained eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation, a hallmark of cirrhotic liver UPR, is associated with a lack of LPS-induced accumulation of NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent antiapoptotic proteins which may sensitize cirrhotic livers to LPS/TNF $\alpha$ -mediated apoptosis.

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**Keywords:** Endoplasmic reticulum; PERK; ATF6; IRE1; LPS; Cirrhosis; Programmed cell death

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### 1. Introduction

In cells, including hepatocytes, newly synthesized secretory and membrane-associated proteins are correctly folded and assembled in the endoplasmic

reticulum (ER) [1]. Once ER homeostasis is perturbed by various pathological conditions, newly synthesized unfolded proteins accumulate in the ER, resulting in ER stress [1]. To cope with accumulated unfolded ER proteins, mammalian cells trigger a specific adaptive response called the unfolded protein response (UPR) [1]. There are three distinct signaling pathways that are induced by ER stress, mediated by three ER-resident stress sensors, i.e., the double-stranded RNA-activated protein kinase-like ER kinase (PERK) [2], the activating transcription factor 6 (ATF6) [3], and the inositol requiring enzyme (IRE) 1 [3]. PERK is a serine/threonine protein kinase that phosphorylates Ser<sup>21</sup> of the  $\alpha$  subunit of eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 (eIF2 $\alpha$ ) [1]. Phosphorylation of eIF2 $\alpha$  subsequently inhibits protein synthesis to prevent further influx of nascent proteins into an already saturated ER lumen [1,2,4]. Paradoxically, eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation induces translation of a basic-region leucine zipper (bZIP) transcription factor ATF4 [1] and subsequent expression of the ATF4 target genes, *growth arrest and DNA damage-inducible (GADD) 34 (GADD34)* [1,5–8] and *C/EBP homologous protein-10 (CHOP, another bZIP transcription factor also known as GADD153)* [1,6–9]. The second signaling pathway is mediated by the bZIP transcription factor ATF6 [1,3,10], which is activated by a process called regulated intramembrane proteolysis [11]. ATF6 is synthesized as a precursor protein with a molecular mass of 90 kDa (p90ATF6), and anchored to the ER membrane where it is retained by BiP (also known as glucose-related protein (GRP) 78) [1,3]. In response to ER stress, ATF6 is released from BiP and transported to the Golgi complex, where ATF6 undergoes sequential cleavages by two proteases, S1P and S2P [1,10,11]. The processed form of ATF6 (p50ATF6) translocates to the nucleus and activates target genes [1]. The third signaling pathway is composed of IRE1 and XBP1 [1,3,12]. IRE1 contains both serine/threonine kinase and ribonuclease domains. Under normal conditions, only the unspliced form of *XBPI* [*XBPI(U)*] mRNA is translated, but its product is a weak transcriptional activator with a short protein half-life [1]. Upon ER stress, activated IRE1 cuts 26 nucleotides out from *XBPI(U)* mRNA to generate spliced *XBPI* [*XBPI(S)*] mRNA, which encodes the more stable and transcriptionally active XBP1(S) protein [1,3,12], which belongs to the family of bZIP transcription factors [1]. XBP1(S) activates target genes, including BiP [1]. XBP1 is a transcription factor essential for hepatocyte growth and homozygote XBP1-deficient embryos have massive liver apoptosis [13].

The UPR also promotes an adaptive response which involves activation of the transcription factor nuclear factor (NF)- $\kappa$ B [14]. However, when the adaptive responses are not sufficient to relieve the ER

stress, apoptotic pathway(s) are activated [1]. Several mechanisms may contribute to ER stress-induced apoptosis, including the activation of c-Jun NH<sub>2</sub>-terminal kinase (JNK) [15,16], the induction of CHOP [9,16,17], and/or the activation of the ER-associated caspase-12 [18].

Recently, significant increases in the expression of *XBPI(S)*, *ER degradation-enhancing  $\alpha$ -mannosidase-like protein (EDEM)*, *BiP* and *CHOP* mRNAs have been shown in normal mice livers harvested 24 h after the administration of lipopolysaccharide (LPS, a Gram-negative bacteria byproduct) [19]. Unlike *CHOP* mRNA, whose expression can be induced by other stress signals [20], *XBPI* splicing (i.e., IRE1 activation) is specific to the UPR [3,21]. Moreover, *EDEM* and *BiP* mRNAs are XBP1(S) target mRNAs [1,22]. Together, these findings show that the UPR is induced in vivo in the liver 24 h after LPS challenge. The administration of proinflammatory cytokines interleukin (IL) 6 (IL6) or IL1 $\beta$  to normal mice also triggers the hepatic UPR in vivo [19]. The proinflammatory cytokine tumor necrosis factor  $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ) elicits full UPR activation in murine fibrosarcoma L929 cells [23] by activating PERK, ATF6 and IRE1/XBP1. Since LPS administration stimulates the in vivo production of IL6, IL1 $\beta$ , and TNF $\alpha$  [24], these cytokines may mediate, at least in part, the induction of the UPR in the liver from LPS-challenged mice. The finding that TNF $\alpha$  induces the UPR in a reactive oxygen species (ROS)-dependent fashion [23] suggests that TNF $\alpha$ -elicited ROS may play a role in the accumulation of unfolded proteins in the ER [23].

In patients with cirrhosis, the mechanisms that cause Gram-negative bacterial infections to worsen hepatocyte function are unclear [25]. The LPS-induced increase of TNF $\alpha$  levels in plasma is more marked in cirrhosis than under normal conditions [26,27]. There is preliminary evidence that cirrhotic rats are abnormally sensitive to in vivo LPS-induced, TNF $\alpha$ -mediated hepatocyte apoptosis within the first hours after LPS challenge [28]. However, the mechanisms for this are unknown. Isolated cells in which protein synthesis is inhibited by cycloheximide or by eIF2 $\alpha$  phosphorylation in vitro are abnormally sensitive to TNF $\alpha$ -mediated apoptosis [29]. Inhibition of protein synthesis is thought to favor TNF $\alpha$  toxicity, at least in part, by inhibiting de novo synthesis of NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent antiapoptotic proteins [29]. In fact, NF- $\kappa$ B is a major negative regulator of apoptosis [31–37], especially in response to TNF $\alpha$  and in vitro ER stress sensitizes cells to TNF $\alpha$ -induced apoptosis through downregulation of the NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent protein TNF receptor-associated factor 2 (TRAF2) [30]. The present in vivo study aimed to investigate the induction of UPR and NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent expression of antiapoptotic genes in livers from normal and cirrhotic rats with or without LPS.

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