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Original Contribution

Molecular hydrogen stabilizes atherosclerotic plaque in low-density lipoprotein receptor-knockout mice



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ABSTRACT

Hydrogen (H₂) attenuates the development of atherosclerosis in mouse models. We aimed to examine the effects of H₂ on atherosclerotic plaque stability. Low-density lipoprotein receptor-knockout (LDLR^{-/-}) mice fed an atherogenic diet were dosed daily with H₂ and/or simvastatin. In vitro studies were carried out in an oxidized-LDL (ox-LDL)-stimulated macrophage-derived foam cell model treated with or without H₂. H₂ or simvastatin significantly enhanced plaque stability by increasing levels of collagen, as well as reducing macrophage and lipid levels in plaques. The decreased numbers of dendritic cells and increased numbers of regulatory T cells in plaques further supported the stabilizing effect of H₂ or simvastatin. Moreover, H₂ treatment decreased serum ox-LDL level and apoptosis in plaques with concomitant inhibition of endoplasmic reticulum stress (ERS) and reduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) accumulation in the aorta. In vitro, like the ERS inhibitor 4-phenylbutyric acid, H₂ inhibited ox-LDL- or tunicamycin (an ERS inducer)-induced ERS response and cell apoptosis. In addition, like the ROS scavenger *N*-acetylcysteine, H₂ inhibited ox-LDL- or Cu²⁺ (an ROS inducer)-induced reduction in cell viability and increase in cellular ROS. Also, H₂ increased Nrf2 (NF-E2-related factor-2, an important factor in antioxidant signaling) activation and Nrf2 small interfering RNA abolished the protective effect of H₂ on ox-LDL-induced cellular ROS production. The inhibitory effects of H₂ on the apoptosis of macrophage-derived foam cells, which take effect by suppressing the activation of the ERS pathway and by activating the Nrf2 antioxidant pathway, might lead to an improvement in atherosclerotic plaque stability.

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Abbreviations: CHOP, C/EBP homologous protein; MTT, 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide; DC, dendritic cell; PERK, double-stranded RNA-activated protein kinase-like ER kinase; ER, endoplasmic reticulum; eIF2 α , eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 α ; HO-1, heme oxygenase-1; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; LDL-C, low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; LDLR^{-/-}, low-density lipoprotein receptor-knockout; MMP-9, matrix metalloproteinase-9; NAC, *N*-acetylcysteine; Nrf2, NF-E2-related factor-2; ox-LDL, oxidized low-density lipoprotein; PBA, 4-phenylbutyric acid; NQO1, quinone oxidoreductase 1; ROS, reactive oxygen species; Treg, regulatory T cells; TC, total cholesterol; TM, tunicamycin; VSMC, vascular smooth muscle cell

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1. Introduction

Atherosclerotic plaques develop as a consequence of the accumulation of circulating lipid and the subsequent migration of inflammatory cells (macrophages and T lymphocytes) and vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs)² [1]. The plaques consist of a lipid-rich core, a fibrous cap composed of collagen and extracellular matrix, and VSMCs [2,3]. Recent studies have emphasized that acute coronary syndromes are caused by plaque rupture; thus current therapies predominantly focus on stabilization of plaques rather than plaque regression [4]. Macrophage apoptosis occurs throughout all stages of atherosclerosis and plays important roles in plaque regression and plaque instability [5]. In early lesions, macrophage apoptosis is associated with diminished plaque cellularity and decreased lesion progression. In late lesions, however, a number of factors may contribute to defective phagocytic

clearance of apoptotic macrophages, leading to a proinflammatory response, accompanied by the generation of the necrotic core, promoting further inflammation, plaque instability, and thrombosis [6]. Thus, it is believed that inhibition of macrophage apoptosis may be a useful therapeutic strategy directed against plaque instability [6,7].

Hydrogen (dihydrogen; H₂), as the lightest and most abundant chemical element, is considered a novel antioxidant that can reduce oxidative stress [8]. Consequently, hydrogen gas has come to the forefront of therapeutic medical gas research. Accumulated evidence in a variety of biomedical fields using clinical and experimental models for many diseases proves that H₂, administered through either gas inhalation or consumption of an aqueous H₂-containing solution, can act as a feasible therapeutic strategy in different oxidative stress-injured disease models. For example, supplementation with H₂-rich water was demonstrated to have a beneficial role in prevention of type 1 and type 2 diabetes and insulin resistance [9,10], chronic liver inflammation [11], acute liver injury [12], and focal brain ischemia/reperfusion injury [8]. In addition, we have reported that administration of H₂-saturated saline or water decreases plasma total cholesterol (TC) and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) levels in high-fat diet-fed hamsters [13] and patients with potential metabolic syndrome [14]. Also, we [15] and others [16] have found that consumption of H₂-saturated saline or water prevents atherosclerosis in apolipoprotein E-knockout mice. However, the effect of H₂ on atherosclerotic plaque stability still remains elusive. Given the reported antiapoptotic, antioxidative, and anti-inflammatory effects of H₂, we hypothesized that H₂ might stabilize atherosclerotic plaque by suppressing macrophage apoptosis. In the present study, we examined the effects of H₂ on atherosclerotic plaque stability and the underlying mechanisms in low-density lipoprotein receptor-knockout (LDLR^{-/-}) mice and macrophage-derived foam cell models.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. H₂-saturated medium and H₂-saturated saline preparation

The H₂-saturated medium and H₂-saturated saline were prepared as previously described [17]. Briefly, H₂ was dissolved in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) or saline for 2 h under high pressure (0.4 MPa) to the supersaturated level using a self-designed hydrogen-rich-water-producing apparatus. The saturated hydrogen medium or saline was stored under atmospheric pressure at 4 °C in an aluminum bag with all the air removed. Hydrogen-rich medium and saline were prepared fresh every week to ensure a constant hydrogen concentration of more than 0.6 mM as measured by a H₂ sensor (Unisense, Denmark).

2.2. Animals and experimental design

LDLR^{-/-} mice were kindly provided by Professor Jie Pan at Shandong Normal University and bred in the laboratory at TaiShan Medical University. All experiments were approved by the laboratory animal ethics committee of Taishan Medical University and followed national guidelines for the care and use of animals. At 8–9 weeks of age, the 80 male LDLR^{-/-} mice fed a high-fat diet (15.8% fat and 1.25% cholesterol) were randomly divided into five groups (*n* = 14 each group): the control group (vehicle treated), the low-dose (0.5 ml/kg/day) H₂-saturated saline-treated group, the high-dose (5 ml/kg/day) H₂-saturated saline-treated group, the simvastatin (5 mg/kg/day) group, and the combination group of low-dose H₂ and half-dose simvastatin (0.5 ml/kg/day H₂ and 2.5 mg/kg/day Sim). Vehicle (saline) or H₂-saturated saline was

intraperitoneally injected once daily and vehicle (water) or simvastatin was administered intragastrically once daily for 28 weeks.

2.3. Plaque analysis

The proximal aorta attached to the heart was used to prepare cross sections. Cryosections (8 μm) were cut from the site where the aorta valve cups appear at the aortic root and collected on glass slides for the subsequent analyses. Atherosclerotic plaques were investigated at five independent sections, each separated by 80 μm. Oil red O staining and trichrome staining (Sigma, HT15) were performed to determine lipid-rich cores and collagen tissues, respectively. Immunofluorescence staining was done using anti-α-smooth muscle cell (SMC)-actin (Abcam, ab5694) antibody, anti-MOMA-2 (Serotec, MCA519G) antibody, and anti-MMP-9 (Santa Cruz, sc-6840) antibody to mark the areas of SMCs, macrophages, and MMP-9, respectively. Corresponding areas were analyzed and quantified using Image-Pro Plus software. Plaque stability was evaluated by comparing the percentages of the above plaque components in the entire plaque. The histological plaque stability score was calculated as plaque stability score = (SMC area + collagen area)/(macrophage area + lipid area) [18].

For immunofluorescence staining of atherosclerotic lesions, serial aortic root cryosections were blocked with 5% normal donkey serum and incubated with the primary antibodies, including Bip (Santa Cruz), C/EBP homologous protein (CHOP; Santa Cruz), CD83 (Abcam), and FoxP3 (Abcam), overnight at 4 °C, and then the sections were incubated with Alexa Fluor 594-labeled donkey anti-rabbit or Alexa Fluor 488-labeled donkey anti-rat antibodies (Molecular Probes) for 1 h. Slides were mounted with Prolong Gold antifade reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and viewed using a fluorescence microscope (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan).

2.4. In situ detection of apoptotic cells

Apoptotic cells and apoptotic macrophages in plaque cryosections were determined by use of an in situ apoptosis detection kit (Roche, Indianapolis, IN, USA).

2.5. Cell culture

RAW264.7 macrophages purchased from ATCC were cultured in DMEM (Hyclone) supplemented with 10% (v/v) fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco, Grand Island, NY, USA), 2 mM L-glutamine, and antibiotics. For H₂ treatment, cells were cultured in DMEM prepared with H₂ and supplemented with 1% (v/v) FBS and 2 mM L-glutamine. The H₂ medium was changed every 6 h to maintain the H₂ concentration in the medium. For all experiments, cells cultured for 4–10 passages were used.

2.6. Isolation and oxidation of LDL

Human LDL was isolated and oxidized as described recently [19]. In brief, LDL (density 1.019–1.063 g/ml) was isolated from plasma of normolipidemic donors by sequential ultracentrifugation and incubated with 10 mmol/L CuSO₄ for 18 h at 37 °C. After incubation, 0.1 mmol/L ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid was added to prevent further oxidation, and the oxidized LDL was concentrated to 1 mg/ml. The extent of LDL oxidation was assessed based on its increased mobility in an agarose gel (compared with that of native LDL) and also by the presence of increased concentrations of thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) in the sample. Typically, ox-LDL preparations had TBARS of > 30 μmol/g protein and a relative mobility index on agarose gels of 2.0–2.5 compared with native LDL. Lipoproteins were stored at 4 °C in the dark and prepared fresh every 2 weeks.

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