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² **RESEARCH PAPER**

RIP1K Contributes to Neuronal and Astrocytic Cell Death in Ischemic Stroke via Activating Autophagic-lysosomal Pathway

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Abstract—Although the receptor-interacting protein 1 kinase (RIP1K)-regulated necroptosis can be evoked by 18 cerebral ischemia, the effects of RIP1K in mediating neuronal and astrocytic cell death and the underlying mechanisms remain poorly understood. This study evaluates the contribution of RIP1K to ischemic stroke-induced neuronal and astrocytic cell death, and the activation of autophagic-lysosomal pathway. Using an in vitro oxygen and glucose deprivation (OGD) in primary cultured neurons or astrocytes and a permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO) model in rats or mice, we observed the role of RIP1K in the ischemic neuronal and astrocytic cell death and the underlying mechanisms by pharmacological or genetic inhibition of RIP1K. pMCAO or OGD condition led to an increase in RIP1K, RIP3K and RIP1K-RIP3K complex. RIP1K knockdown or necrostatin-1 (Nec-1, a specific inhibitor of RIP1K) treatment reduced infarct volume, improved neurological deficits, increased microtubule-associated protein 2 (MAP2) and glial fibrillary acidic protein (GFAP) levels, and attenuated neuronal or astrocytic necrotic cell death in the ischemic cortex. RIP1K knockdown decreased RIP1K-RIP3K complex formation, light chain 3 II (LC3II) and active cathepsin B levels and lysosomal membrane permeability (LMP). Furthermore, a combination of Nec-1 and an inhibitor of autophagy or cathepsin B produced an enhancement of protective effect on neuronal or astrocytic cell death. RIP1K-mediated necroptosis may play important roles in ischemia-induced neuronal and astrocytic cell death through the activation of autophagic-lysosomal pathway. © 2017 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of IBRO.

Key words: ISCHEMIC stroke, neuroprotection, RIP1K, neuron, astrocyte, autophagic-lysosomal pathway.

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Abbreviations: 3-MA, 3-methyladenine; AO, Acridine Orange; DMEM, Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium; GFAP, glial fibrillary acidic protein; HRP, horseradish peroxidase; LC3 II, light chain 3 II; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; LMP, lysosomal membrane permeability; MAP2, microtubule-associated protein 2; MCA, middle cerebral artery; Nec-1, necrostatin-1; OGD, oxygen and glucose deprivation; pMCAO, permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion; RIP1K, receptorinteracting protein 1 kinase; RIP3K, receptor-interacting protein 3 kinase; scr shRNA, scrambled shRNA; SD, Sprague–Dawley; shRNA, short hairpin RNA; TTC, 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride.

INTRODUCTION

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Ischemic stroke with high morbidity and mortality is the 20 most common type of stroke accounting for more than 21 80% of all stroke cases. Currently, the tissue 22 plasminogen activator is the only thrombolytic agent 23 approved for acute ischemic stroke by the United States 24 Food and Drug Administration. However, only a small 25 proportion of patients received the thrombolytic 26 treatment mainly because of its narrow therapeutic time 27 window (Zaleska et al., 2009). Brain cell death is a com-28 mon feature of pathology in ischemic stroke. Although 29

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inhibition of apoptosis in animal models of ischemic stroke
showed beneficial effects in blocking neuronal and astro cytic cell death, the lack of drug targets in apoptosis path ways has currently prevented the development of
apoptotic inhibitors for the treatment of human ischemic
stroke (Zhou and Yuan, 2014).

In recent year, a highly regulated form of necrosis, 36 37 termed regulated necrosis or necroptosis has been discovered and the discovery of necroptosis elicited 38 significant interest in studying the implication of 39 necroptosis in human diseases including ischemic 40 stroke. Necroptosis can be activated by ligands of death 41 receptors such as TNF α , Fas ligand and TRAIL and by 42 a variety of extracellular and intracellular stimuli that 43 lead to the expression of death receptor ligands under 44 apoptotic deficient conditions (Vandenabeele et al., 45 2010; Zhou and Yuan, 2014). The receptor-interacting 46 protein (RIP) 1 kinase (RIP1K) is a crucial mediator of 47 necroptosis. The activation of RIP1K causes the recruit-48 ment of receptor-interacting protein (RIP) 3 kinase 49 (RIP3K), a key downstream mediator of necroptosis. 50 RIP1K interacts with RIP3K to form RIP1K-RIP3K com-51 plex (necrosomes) in necroptotic cells (Degterev et al., 52 2008). RIP1K has three domains, including N-terminal 53 kinase domain, intermediate domain and C-terminal 54 55 death domain. The N-terminal Ser/Thr kinase domain of 56 RIP1K is required for necroptosis (Holler et al., 2000; Chan et al., 2003; Lin et al., 2004; Degterev et al., 57 2008). Necrostatins are small molecule inhibitors of 58 RIP1K (Degterev et al., 2005) and necrostatin-1 (Nec-1) 59 is the most commonly used RIP1K inhibitor. The specific 60 inhibition of Nec-1 on necroptosis may be associated with 61 allosterically inhibiting the kinase activity of RIP1K by 62 interacting with the T-loop of the N-terminal kinase 63 domain without affecting other functional domains 64 (Degterev et al., 2008). Previous studies showed that 65 66 Nec-1 inhibits necroptosis and exhibits neuroprotection 67 in brain trauma, hypoxia, and ischemia/reperfusion injuries (Xu et al., 2010; Rosenbaum et al., 2010; 68 Northington et al., 2011). 69

Autophagy is a lysosome-dependent intracellular 70 71 degradation process that functions recycling of cytoplasmic proteins and organelles into bioenergetic 72 and biosynthetic material for maintenance of 73 74 homeostasis (Nah et al., 2015). Under various stress con-75 ditions (Kroemer and Levine, 2008), autophagy is generally considered as one of the cell survival mechanisms. 76 On the other hand, deregulated excessive autophagy 77 can disrupt cellular homeostasis and cause various disor-78 ders (Koike et al., 2008: Puval et al., 2009: Nah et al., 79 2015). In the context of cerebral ischemia, accumulating 80 evidence indicates that activation of autophagy is involved 81 in the regulation of neuronal cell death, especially at high 82 83 levels, in different animal models of ischemic brain damage such as hypoxia (Adhami et al., 2006) and global 84 (Wang et al., 2011) and focal ischemia (Wen et al., 85 2008). Recently, we have found that autophagy is acti-86 vated in ischemic astrocytes, associating with ischemic 87 astrocytic cell death (Qin et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2014). 88 The increasing evidence has shown that necroptosis 89 autophagy and exist interaction and interplay 90

(Nikoletopoulou et al., 2013). Nec-1 can inhibit the con-91 version of the microtubule-associated protein LC-3I to 92 LC-3II, a biomarker of autophagy (Degterev et al., 2005, 93 2008; He et al., 2009; Rosenbaum et al., 2010; 94 Vandenabeele et al., 2010; Dong et al., 2014), suggesting 95 that RIP1K may be involved in the regulation of autophagy 96 activation. Nonetheless, in ischemic stroke, it remains 97 unknown whether RIP1K plays a role in the activation of 98 autophagic-lysosomal signaling pathway in ischemia-99 induced neuronal and astrocytic cell necroptosis, espe-100 cially at the lysosomal level. 101

In the present study, we sought to systematically explore the contribution of RIP1K to ischemic strokeinduced neuronal and astrocytic cell necroptosis and its mechanisms associating with the autophagic-lysosomal pathway activation by pharmacological or genetic inhibition of RIP1K in vivo and in vitro.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Animals

Male Sprague-Dawley (SD) rats (280-310 g) or male ICR 110 (Institute of Cancer Research) mice (18-22 g) were 111 acquired from the Center for Laboratory Animals, 112 Soochow University (Production license: XCYK-2002-113 0008). Animal procedures were performed according to 114 a protocol approved by the Institutional Animal Care and 115 Use Committee of Soochow University, Suzhou, China 116 and conformed to the National Institute of Health Guide 117 for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. All efforts 118 were made to minimize animal suffering, to reduce the 119 number of animals used, and to utilize alternatives to 120 in vivo technique, if available. 121

Rats or mouse model of permanent middle cerebral artery occlusion (pMCAO)

pMCAO was performed as described (Qin et al., 2010; Xu 124 et al., 2014). Briefly, following anesthesia with 2.5% 125 isoflurane in 100% O₂, holes were made to place laser 126 Doppler flow (LDF) probes for regional cerebral blood flow 127 monitor. A 4-0 (for rats) or 7-0 (for mice) nylon filament 128 was advanced from the right common carotid artery 129 through the internal carotid to the middle cerebral artery 130 (MCA). Rectal temperature was maintained at 37.0 ± 0 . 131 5 °C with a temperature-regulated heating pad during 132 the whole procedure. Animals were randomly assigned 133 to different treatment groups (n = 10 for each group), 134 and Nec-1 24 nmol (Sigma, N9037, dissolved in DMSO 135 and diluted to be a 3 mM solution with normal saline) or 136 vehicle was administrated intracerebroventricularly. For 137 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) (Sigma) stain-138 ing, brains were sliced into five coronal sections, each 139 3 mm thick. Sections were stained in 2% TTC in saline 140 for 30 min, and then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 141 PBS, pH 7.4. Infarct volume was assessed with direct 142 method using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, 143 Bethesda, MD, USA). 144

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