

Astaxanthin Inhibits Nitric Oxide Production and Inflammatory Gene Expression by Suppressing I κ B Kinase-dependent NF- κ B Activation

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(Received June 4, 2003; Accepted June 18, 2003)

Astaxanthin, a carotenoid without vitamin A activity, has shown anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory activities; however, its molecular action and mechanism have not been elucidated. We examined *in vitro* and *in vivo* regulatory function of astaxanthin on production of nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) as well as expression of inducible NO synthase (iNOS), cyclooxygenase-2, tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β). Astaxanthin inhibited the expression or formation production of these pro-inflammatory mediators and cytokines in both lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated RAW264.7 cells and primary macrophages. Astaxanthin also suppressed the serum levels of NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β in LPS-administrated mice, and inhibited NF- κ B activation as well as iNOS promoter activity in RAW264.7 cells stimulated with LPS. This compound directly inhibited the intracellular accumulation of reactive oxygen species in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells as well as H₂O₂-induced NF- κ B activation and iNOS expression. Moreover, astaxanthin blocked nuclear translocation of NF- κ B p65 subunit and I κ B α degradation, which correlated with its inhibitory effect on I κ B kinase (IKK) activity. These results suggest that astaxanthin, probably due to its antioxidant activity, inhibits the production of inflammatory mediators by blocking NF- κ B activation and as a consequent suppression of IKK activity and I κ B- α degradation.

Keywords: Cytokine; Inflammation; NF- κ B; Nitric Oxide; Reactive Oxygen Species.

Introduction

Inflammation is characterized by the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), and interleukin-6 (IL-6), as well as inflammatory mediators, including nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂), that are synthesized by inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and cyclooxygenase (COX). These inflammatory mediators and cytokines are involved in the causation of many human diseases including rheumatoid arthritis, asthma, atherosclerosis, and endotoxin-induced multiple organ injury (Guslandi, 1998; Ritchlin *et al.*, 2003; Simons *et al.*, 1996). Anti-inflammatory agents reduce the inflammatory response by suppressing the production of inflammatory cytokines and mediators (Leach *et al.*, 1998; Makarov, 2000).

Nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) has a seminal role in immunity, because it activates pro-inflammatory genes encoding

Abbreviations: COX-2, cyclooxygenase-2; DCFH₂-DA, 2', 7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium; IFN γ , interferon-gamma; IKK, I κ B kinase; IL-1 β , interleukin-1beta; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide synthase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; NF- κ B, nuclear factor-kappa B; NO, nitric oxide; NOx, nitrite plus nitrate; PAGE, polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; RT-PCR, reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor-alpha.

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iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α , IL-1 β , and IL-6 (de Vera *et al.*, 1996; Makarov, 2000). It is activated by phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and subsequent proteolytic degradation of the I κ B protein by activated I κ B kinase (IKK) (de Martin *et al.*, 1993). The liberated NF- κ B translocates to the nucleus and binds as a transcription factor to κ B motifs in the promoters of target genes, leading to their transcription. Aberrant NF- κ B activity is associated with various inflammatory diseases, and most anti-inflammatory drugs suppress inflammatory cytokine expression by inhibiting the NF- κ B pathway (Castrillo *et al.*, 2001; Keifer *et al.*, 2001). Thus, an NF- κ B inhibitor has clinical potential in inflammatory diseases.

Antioxidants such as α -tocopheryl succinate (Neuzil *et al.*, 2001) and probucol (Dichtl *et al.*, 1999) inhibit NF- κ B activity and block the expression of pro-inflammatory genes as well as production of NO and PGE₂ (Pahan *et al.*, 1998). Astaxanthin is a non-pro-vitamin A carotenoid, abundant in vegetables and fruits; it is also present in marine animals. Astaxanthin and astaxanthin-like products are commonly indicated as antioxidants (Kurashige *et al.*, 1990) and immune modulators (Bennedson *et al.*, 1999). One effect of astaxanthin is to scavenge reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Mortensen *et al.*, 1997). However, the mechanism of its anti-inflammatory action has not been elucidated.

We hypothesized that astaxanthin regulated the production of NO, PGE₂, and pro-inflammatory cytokines by inhibiting NF- κ B activation. We showed in RAW264.7 cells stimulated with LPS that it inhibited *in vitro* and *in vivo* production of NO and PGE₂ as well as production of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α and IL-1 β . Furthermore, it suppressed NF- κ B activation and iNOS promoter activity by inhibiting IKK activity. These results support the idea that astaxanthin prevents inflammatory processes by blocking the expression of pro-inflammatory genes as a consequence of suppressing NF- κ B activation.

Materials and Methods

Materials Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), penicillin, and streptomycin were from Life Technology Inc. (Rockville, MD). LPS (*Escherichia coli* O111:B4) and astaxanthin were obtained from Sigma (USA). Poly (dI-dC) and NF- κ B-specific oligonucleotide were from Promega (Madison, WI), and monoclonal iNOS antibody was from Transduction Laboratories (Lexington, KY). Polyclonal antibodies for I κ B kinase (IKK), COX-2, TNF- α and IL-1 β were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, USA). 2', 7'-dichlorofluorescein diacetate (DCFH₂-DA) was purchased from Molecular Probes (Eugene, OR). Other chemicals were from Sigma (USA) unless otherwise indicated.

Macrophage isolation and cell culture Cells of the murine macrophage cell line RAW264.7 were cultured in DMEM (2

mM L-glutamine, 100 units/ml penicillin, 100 mg/ml streptomycin) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (HyClone Labs, Logan, UT). Peritoneal macrophages were collected from the peritoneal cavity of 6- to 8-week-old female BALB/c mice (Daihan-Biolink, Korea) and given an intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of 1.5 ml of thioglycollate broth (4%) 7 days before harvest. Cells were cultured in 12-well plates (3×10^6 cells/well) or 6-well culture dishes (5×10^6 cells/well) at 37°C in 5% CO₂/95% air for 8 h. They were treated with LPS (10 μ g/ml) in the presence or absence of various concentrations of astaxanthin.

Animal treatment Mice (6 to 8 week-old female BALB/c mice, Daihan-Biolink, Korea) were injected i.p. with LPS (4 mg/kg) and/or astaxanthin (40 mg/kg). After 12 h, blood was withdrawn by cardiac puncture. Serum was prepared by centrifugation at $12,000 \times g$ for 20 min at 4°C and kept at -20°C until use.

Measurement of nitric oxide metabolites, cytokines, and PGE₂ Nitrite, a stable oxidized product of NO, was measured in culture media using the Griess reagents (Kim *et al.*, 1997). Serum nitrite plus nitrate (NO_x) concentration was determined with a nitrate reductase-based colorimetric assay kit (Alexis San Diego, USA). PGE₂ concentrations were determined by enzyme immunoassay (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, Piscataway, NJ) and levels of TNF- α and IL-1 β in culture media and sera were determined by ELISA (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN).

Western blot analysis Cells were incubated with or without LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin. They were harvested, washed twice with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), resuspended in PBS containing 0.1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), and lysed by three cycles of freezing and thawing (Koo *et al.*, 2002). Cytosolic fractions were obtained as supernatants after centrifugation at $12,000 \times g$ at 4°C for 20 min. Protein content was determined by the BCA method (Pierce, Rockford, IL), and samples (30 μ g of protein) were separated on 8% SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. The membranes were blocked with 5% nonfat milk in PBS containing 0.1% Tween 20 (PBST) for 2 h, and incubated with monoclonal mouse-iNOS or polyclonal COX-2 antibodies in PBST containing 1% nonfat milk for 2 h. After washing three times with PBST, the membranes were hybridized with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies for 1 h. Following five washes with PBST, they were incubated with chemiluminescent solution for 2 min, and protein bands visualized on X-ray film.

Reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) Total RNA was obtained from RAW264.7 using the Trizol reagent kit (Life Technology Inc., USA). Three μ g of mRNA was converted to cDNA by treatment with 200 units of reverse transcriptase and 500 ng of oligo-dT primer in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 75 mM KCl, 3 mM MgCl₂, 10 mM DTT, and 1 mM dNTPs at 42°C for 1 h. The reaction was stopped by heating at 70°C for 15 min and three μ l of the cDNA mixture was used for enzy-

matic amplification. PCR was performed in 50 mM KCl, 10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.2 mM dNTPs, 2.5 units of Taq DNA polymerase, and 0.1 μM each of primers for iNOS, COX-2, TNF-α, and IL-1β. Amplification conditions were: denaturation at 94°C for 5 min for the first cycle and for 45 s starting from the second cycle, annealing of iNOS at 47°C for 45 s, annealing of COX-2, TNF-α, and IL-1β at 51°C for 45 s, and extension at 72°C for 30 s for 35 cycles. Final extension was performed at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.5% agarose gel and stained with ethidium bromide. The primers used were 5'-TTTGGAGCAG-AAGTGCAAAGTCTC-3' (sense) and 5'-GATCAGGAGGGA-TTTCAAAGACCT-3' (antisense) for iNOS, 5'-CCGTGGTG-AATGTATGAGCA-3' (sense) and 5'-CCTCGCTTCTGATCTG-TCTT-3' (antisense) for the COX-2, 5'-ATGAGCACAGAAAG-CATG-3' (sense) and 5'-TCACAGAGCAATGACTCC-3' (antisense) for TNF-α, 5'-ATGGCAACTGTTCTTCTGAAC-3' (sense) and 5'-TTAGGAAGACACGGATTC-3' (antisense) for IL-1β, and 5'-TCCTTCGTTGCCGGTCCACA-3 (sense) and 5'-CGT-CTCCGGAGTCCATCACA-3' (antisense) for β-actin.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay RAW264.7 macrophages were treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 2 h and nuclear extracts prepared as described previously (Kim *et al.*, 1997). A double stranded NF-κB-specific oligonucleotide (5'-AGTTGAGGGGACTTCCCAGGC-3') was labeled with [γ-³²P] ATP by T4 polynucleotide kinase and purified on a G-50 Sephadex column. The nuclear extracts (10 μg of protein) were incubated with ~40,000 cpm (~0.5 ng) of ³²P-labeled oligonucleotide for 20 min at room temperature as described (Kim *et al.*, 1997), and samples separated on a 5% native polyacrylamide gel that was dried and subjected to autoradiography.

Assay of iNOS promoter activity Transient transfection and assay of iNOS promoter activity were carried out as described (Kim *et al.*, 2001). In brief, a murine iNOS promoter-luciferase construct was transfected into RAW264.7 cells by the liposome method. The cells were cultured overnight in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 12 h. Cells were lysed with Reporter lysis buffer (Promega) or buffer containing 1% Triton X-100, 5 mM dithiothreitol, 50% glycerol, 10 mM EDTA, and 125 mM Tris-phosphate (pH 7.8). Luciferase activity was measured by luminometer.

Immunoprecipitation and kinase assays Cells treated with LPS or astaxanthin were harvested and washed with PBS, and the pellets resuspended in 80 μl of immunoprecipitation lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1% Nonidet P-40, 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM DTT, 100 mM NaF, 2 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 2 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 mM PMSE, 10 μg aprotinin, and 10 μg leupeptin per milliliter) and stored on ice for 20 min before centrifugation (14,000 × g, 20 min, 4°C). The IKK complex was immunoprecipitated by

incubation for 1 h at 4°C with polyclonal IKKα antibody bound to protein-A Sepharose. The immunoprecipitates were washed twice with immunoprecipitation buffer and twice with kinase buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4, 20 mM β-glycerophosphate, 20 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM DTT, 0.1 mM sodium orthovanadate). Kinase assays were initiated by the addition of 2 μM GST-IκBα fusion protein as substrate, and 0.5 μCi [γ-³²P]ATP. Reactions were incubated for 30 min at 30°C and stopped by the addition of 2× SDS-PAGE sample buffer. Phosphorylation of the IκBα proteins was measured by SDS-PAGE followed by autoradiography and densitometry.

Measurement of intracellular ROS RAW264.7 cells cultured in a 60 mm-dish at 5 × 10⁵ cells/dish were treated with LPS for 20 min. DCFH₂-DA (5 μM) was added to the cultures and incubated for 30 min. The cells were harvested and washed three times with PBS, and intracellular ROS was quantified by flow cytometry with excitation at 488 nm and emission at 525 nm.

Statistical analysis Data are presented as the means ± SD of at least three separate experiments. Comparisons between groups were analyzed by Student's *t*-test. *P* values of 0.05 or less were considered statistically significant.

Results

Astaxanthin inhibits the production of NO and PGE₂ by suppressing iNOS and COX-2 expression NO and PGE₂ are produced by immune activated macrophages, and at inflammatory sites (Guastadisegni *et al.*, 2002; Mino *et al.*, 1998). We determined if astaxanthin influences the production of NO and PGE₂ by RAW264.7 cells exposed to LPS. The cells accumulated nitrite, as a stable oxidized product of NO, in the culture medium when stimulated with LPS, and astaxanthin inhibited NO production with an IC₅₀ of ~5 μM (Fig. 1A); it did not affect cell viability as measured by the crystal violet staining method (data not shown). To see whether astaxanthin inhibited NO production by suppressing iNOS gene expression, we examined its effect on levels of iNOS protein. Western blot analysis showed that stimulation of iNOS protein levels by LPS was completely inhibited by 50 μM astaxanthin (Fig. 1B). It also inhibited induction of iNOS mRNA (Fig. 1C), and blocked the increase in PGE₂ with an IC₅₀ of ~30 μM (Fig. 1D). In addition, western blot and RT-PCR analyses showed that astaxanthin inhibited expression of COX-2 protein and mRNA, and blocked COX-2 expression at a concentration of 50 μM (Figs. 1E and 1F). These results show that astaxanthin inhibits NO and PGE₂ production by suppressing, respectively, iNOS and COX-2 expression in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 macrophages.

Astaxanthin suppresses production of TNF-α and IL-

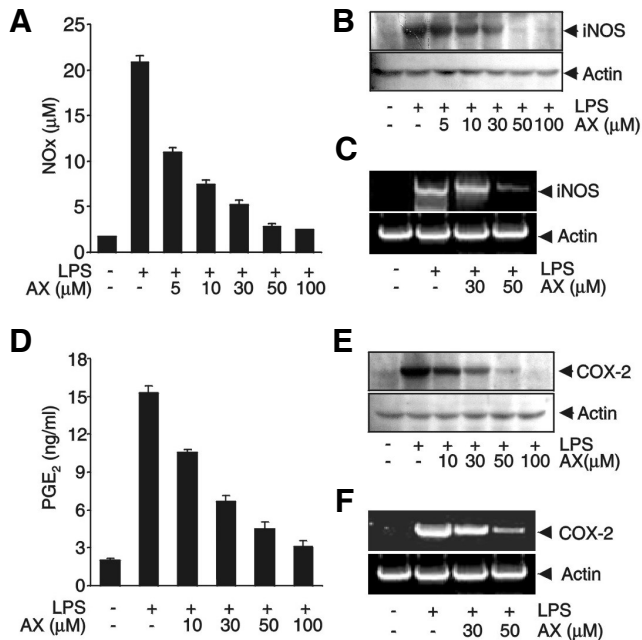


Fig. 1. Astaxanthin (AX) inhibits production NO and PGE₂ as well as expression of iNOS and COX-2. RAW264.7 cells were stimulated with LPS (10 μg/ml) in the presence or absence of different concentrations of astaxanthin. Nitrite (A) and PGE₂ levels (D) were measured after 16 h. Data shown are means \pm SD (n \geq 3). (B) After 16 h, cells were harvested and levels of iNOS (B) and COX-2 (E) were measured by Western blotting. The blot was rehybridized with actin antibody to verify equal loading of protein. Levels of iNOS (C) and COX-2 mRNAs (F) were determined in LPS-stimulated cells after 8 h by RT-PCR. Actin was used as an internal control. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

1 β To examine the effects of astaxanthin on inflammatory cytokine production, levels of TNF- α and IL-1 β were measured in culture media by ELISA. Stimulation of RAW264.7 cells with LPS dramatically increased secreted TNF- α and IL-1 β levels, and these increases were substantially inhibited by astaxanthin (50 μM) (Figs. 2A and 2D). TNF- α and IL-1 β are expressed as inactive pro-forms, cleaved into the active forms by TNF- α -converting enzyme and interleukin-1 β -converting enzyme, and secreted (Black *et al.*, 1997; Thornberry *et al.*, 1992). Western blot analyses showed that astaxanthin treatment reduced intracellular levels of these pro-forms (Figs. 2B and 2E), and also reduced levels of their mRNAs (Figs. 2C and 2F). Thus astaxanthin inhibits expression of TNF- α and IL-1 β , probably at the transcriptional level.

Astaxanthin suppresses NO, TNF- α , and IL-1 β production by peritoneal macrophages We also examined the effect of astaxanthin on NO, TNF- α , and IL-1 β production by primary cultured peritoneal macrophages isolated from female BALB/c mice and cultured in 12-well

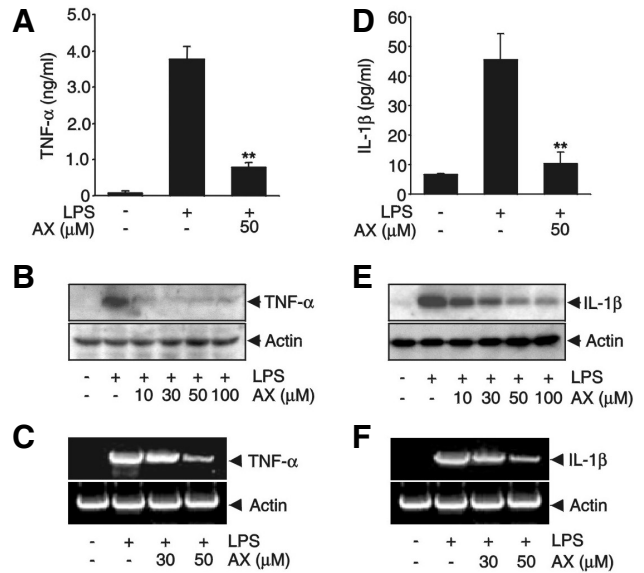


Fig. 2. Astaxanthin inhibits TNF- α and IL-1 β expression in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells. RAW264.7 cells were cultured with LPS (10 μg/ml) in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 12 h, and TNF- α (A) and IL-1 β levels (D) were determined in the culture media by ELISA. ** $p < 0.01$. Intracellular levels of TNF- α (B) and IL-1 β (E) were measured by Western blot analyses and levels of TNF- α (C) and IL-1 β mRNAs (F) were determined in LPS-stimulated cells after 8 h by RT-PCR. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

plates for 8 h. NO production increased upon LPS-stimulation, and this increase was suppressed by 50 μM astaxanthin (Fig. 3A) as was the increase in iNOS (Fig. 3B) and in TNF- α and IL-1 β levels (Figs. 3C and 3D).

Astaxanthin inhibits NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β production *in vivo* NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β are critical mediators of the inflammatory process and of organ injury in endotoxemia and sepsis (Cunha *et al.*, 1994; Simons *et al.*, 1996). To examine the anti-inflammatory effects of astaxanthin in septic animals, we tested whether astaxanthin affects the production of NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β in LPS-treated mice. As expected astaxanthin inhibited the increases in plasma nitrite plus nitrate (NOx) and PGE₂ (Figs. 4A and 4B) as well as those of TNF- α and IL-1 β (Figs. 4C and 4D). Clearly astaxanthin inhibits the production of inflammatory mediators under inflammatory conditions.

Astaxanthin suppresses NF- κ B activation and iNOS promoter activity NF- κ B activation plays a critical role in the expression of the inflammation-associated enzymes, iNOS and COX-2, as well as of the cytokines, TNF- α and IL-1 β (Kiemer *et al.*, 2003) that are involved in the chronic inflammation and pathogenesis of human inflammatory diseases (Guslandi, 1998). We tested whether

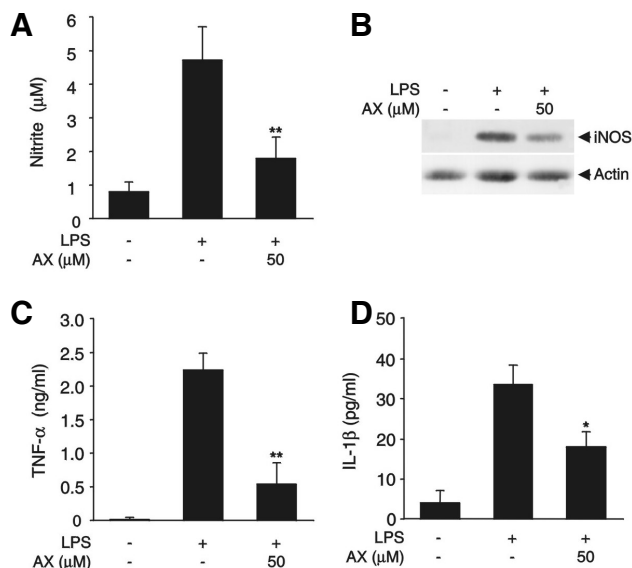


Fig. 3. Effects of astaxanthin on TNF- α and IL-1 β production in mouse peritoneal macrophages. Peritoneal macrophages from female BALB/c mice (6- to 8-week old) were cultured in 6-well culture dishes (5×10^6 cells/well) for 8 h and treated with LPS (10 μ g/ml) in the presence or absence of different concentration of astaxanthin for 24 h. (A) Nitrite levels in the culture medium and (B) intracellular iNOS levels. TNF- α (C) and IL-1 β (D) were measured in the culture medium by ELISA. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

astaxanthin regulates NF- κ B activation in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells and found that the increase in NF- κ B-DNA binding activity in nuclear extracts of LPS-stimulated macrophages was markedly inhibited (Fig. 5A) suggesting that astaxanthin inhibits the expression of iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α , and IL-1 β by blocking NF- κ B activation. Murine and human iNOS promoters contain functional NF- κ B binding sites (de Vera *et al.*, 1996; Xie *et al.*, 1994) and NF- κ B activation plays a key role in the transcriptional activation of the iNOS gene (Yokoseki *et al.*, 2001). We examined whether astaxanthin suppresses iNOS promoter activity by blocking NF- κ B activation. LPS treatment of RAW264.7 cells resulted in a 3.7-fold increase in iNOS promoter activity that was suppressed by the NF- κ B inhibitor pyrrolidine dithiocarbamate (PDTC) as well as by astaxanthin (Fig. 5B).

Astaxanthin inhibits LPS-dependent nuclear translocation of the NF- κ B p65 subunit, degradation of I κ B α , and IKK activation Translocation of NF- κ B to the nucleus is preceded by the phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and proteolytic degradation of I κ B α (Baeuerle and Baichwal, 1997). We measured cytosolic and nuclear NF- κ B p65 subunit levels following treatment with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin by Western blot analysis. LPS treatment decreased cytosolic p65 subunit

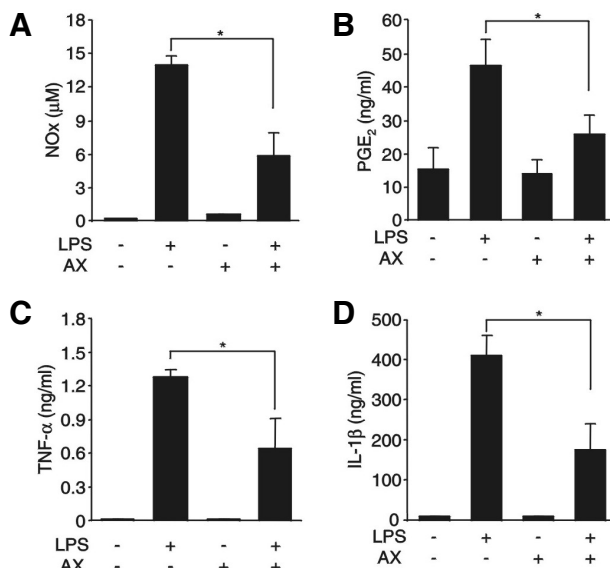


Fig. 4. Astaxanthin decreases plasma levels of NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β production. Mice were injected i.p. with LPS (4 mg/kg) following pretreatment with astaxanthin (40 mg/kg). After 12 h, whole blood samples were withdrawn by cardiac puncture. (A) Plasma levels of nitrite plus nitrate (NOx) measured with a nitrate assay kit, and plasma levels of PGE₂ (B), TNF- α (C), and IL-1 β (D) measured by ELISA. Data are means \pm SD ($n = 6$). * $p < 0.05$. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

and increased nuclear p65 (Fig. 6A) and astaxanthin treatment inhibited this translocation. Since nuclear translocation of NF- κ B is directly linked to I κ B degradation (Butcher *et al.*, 2001), we next examined the effect of astaxanthin on this proteolytic event. Western blot analysis showed that levels of I κ B α declined within 30 min of LPS treatment, and this decrease was blocked by astaxanthin (Fig. 6B). Degradation of I κ B α is largely dependent on its phosphorylation by IKK activation (Pan *et al.*, 2000), and we found that a three-fold increase in I κ B α phosphorylation and IKK activity in response to LPS was suppressed by astaxanthin (Figs. 6C and 6D).

Astaxanthin suppresses the LPS-induced increase in ROS and H₂O₂-induced NF- κ B activation NF- κ B activation by LPS is inhibited by antioxidants (Ma and Kinner, 2002). We measured intracellular levels of ROS by FACS analysis following treatment of cells with PBS in the presence of DCFH₂-DA. LPS induced a marked increase in intracellular ROS, and this increase was strongly inhibited by astaxanthin (Fig. 7A). Astaxanthin pretreatment also suppressed the increase in intracellular ROS in RAW264.7 cells that were subsequently incubated with exogenous H₂O₂ (data not shown). We next examine whether astaxanthin regulates H₂O₂-mediated NF- κ B activation. H₂O₂ treatment activated NF- κ B, and activation

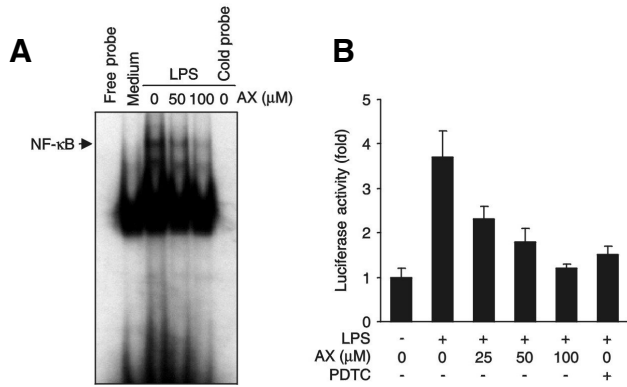


Fig. 5. Effects of astaxanthin on NF- κ B activation and iNOS promoter activity. **A.** RAW264.7 cells were treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 2 h. Nuclear NF- κ B activity was analyzed by EMSA in the presence or absence of excess cold probe. **B.** RAW264.7 cells were transiently transfected by the lipofectamine method with a 1.6 kbp murine iNOS promoter fragment upstream of luciferase. Cells were treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 12 h and luciferase activity in cell extracts was measured with a luminometer. Data shown are means \pm SD ($n = 3$).

was suppressed by astaxanthin (Fig. 7B). We further examined whether astaxanthin regulates H_2O_2 -induced iNOS protein levels and NO production. Interferon- γ (IFN γ) treatment induced iNOS protein expression in peritoneal macrophages, while H_2O_2 had no effect on its own (Fig. 7C). However, IFN γ -induced iNOS expression was significantly increased by simultaneous exposure to H_2O_2 , and this synergistic effect was suppressed by astaxanthin. IFN γ -induced NO production was similarly elevated by treatment with H_2O_2 , and again, this increase was suppressed by astaxanthin (Fig. 7D).

Discussion

The present study was undertaken to elucidate the effects of astaxanthin on the *in vitro* and *in vivo* production of inflammatory cytokines and mediators. We showed that it inhibited the expression of iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α , and IL-1 β as well as production of NO and PGE $_2$ in LPS-stimulated macrophages and LPS-administrated septic animals. It also inhibited NF- κ B activation and iNOS promoter activity, as well as LPS-induced nuclear translocation of cytosolic NF- κ B p65, I κ B α degradation, and IKK activity. Astaxanthin had a strong antioxidant action, inhibiting intracellular ROS accumulation and blocking H_2O_2 -induced NF- κ B activation; this may account for its anti-inflammatory action by suppressing NF- κ B activation. Our results suggest that astaxanthin is a candidate treatment for chronic inflammatory diseases such as sepsis, rheumatoid arthritis, atherosclerosis, and inflamma-

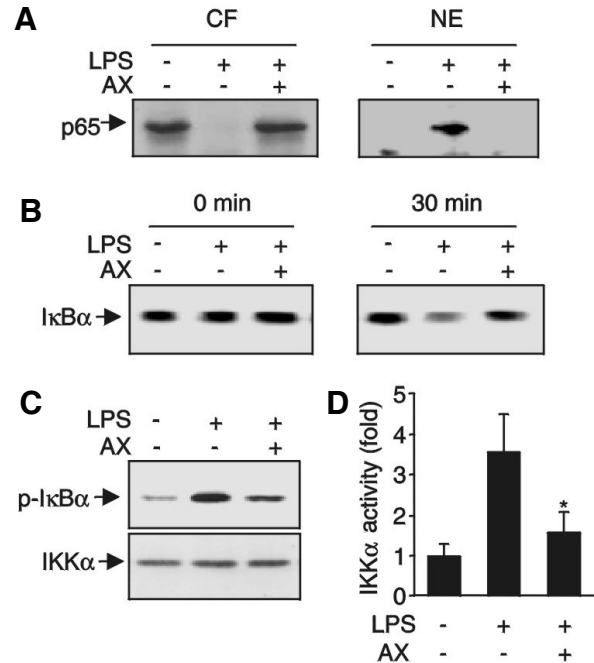


Fig. 6. Astaxanthin inhibits nuclear translocation of NF- κ B p65 subunit, I κ B α degradation, and IKK activation in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells. Cells were incubated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 2 h and cytosolic (CF) and nuclear extracts (NE) prepared. **A.** Samples of 50 μ g protein were separated on SDS-PAGE, and the NF- κ B p65 subunit was visualized by Western blot analysis. **B.** Whole cell lysates from RAW264.7 cells treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 0 and 30 min were separated on SDS-PAGE and I κ B α protein was visualized by Western blot analysis. **C.** The IKK complex was immunoprecipitated with an anti-IKK α antibody and *in vitro* kinase assayed with 2 μ M GST-I κ B α fusion protein and 5 μ Ci [γ - 32 P]ATP. After SDS-PAGE, phosphorylated I κ B α protein was visualized by autoradiography. **D.** IKK α activity measured by densitometry of autoradiographic films. Data shown are means \pm SD ($n = 3$). * $p < 0.05$. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

tory bowel disease.

Activated macrophages produce a large amount of NO and PGE $_2$ via COX-2 and iNOS, as well as the pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α and IL-1 β (Chang *et al.*, 2001). These inflammatory mediators and cytokines activate other immune cells and can cause inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and endotoxemia-induced multiple organ injury (Guslandi, 1998; Ritchlin *et al.*, 2003; Simons *et al.*, 1996). Anti-inflammatory drugs such as dexamethasone, prednisone, sulfasalazine and aspirin prevent the development of human inflammatory diseases by suppressing the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and expression of iNOS and COX-2 (Leach *et al.*, 1998; Makarov, 2000). Moreover inhibition of iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α , and IL-1 β with neutralizing

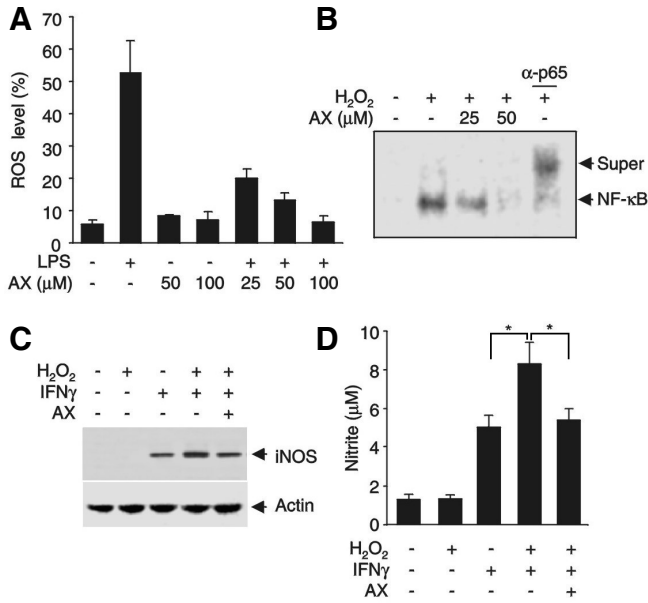


Fig. 7. Effect of astaxanthin on ROS generation, NF- κ B activation, and iNOS expression. **A.** RAW264.7 cells were treated with LPS in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 30 min, incubated with DCFH₂-DA (5 μ M) for an additional 30 min and intracellular levels of ROS analyzed by FACS. **B.** RAW264.7 cells were treated with 1 μ M H₂O₂ in the presence or absence of astaxanthin for 2 h, and nuclear NF- κ B activity was analyzed by EMSA. Supershift was performed with antibody against the NF- κ B p65 subunit (α -p65). **C.** Peritoneal macrophages were treated with H₂O₂ and/or IFN γ (10 units/ml) in the presence or absence of astaxanthin (50 μ M) for 14 h, and levels of iNOS measured by Western blotting. **D.** Nitrite measured in the culture medium after 24 h culture. Data shown are means \pm SD (n = 3). * $p < 0.05$. Further details in **Materials and Methods**.

antibodies, inhibitors, or gene targeting, dramatically decreases local inflammation and the progression of rheumatoid arthritis (Dinarello, 2001; Feldmann *et al.*, 1995; Kagari *et al.*, 2002; Pinheiro and Calixto, 2002; Stefanovic-Racic *et al.*, 1994), and has beneficial effects on septic shock (Mathison *et al.*, 1988). We showed that astaxanthin inhibited expression of iNOS and COX-2, resulting in reduced NO, PGE₂, TNF- α and IL-1 β production in both RAW264.7 and primary macrophage cells stimulated with LPS. In addition, it reduced plasma levels of NO, PGE₂, TNF- α , and IL-1 β , in an animal model of sepsis. These results support our hypothesis that astaxanthin could have a therapeutic effect in chronic inflammatory diseases.

The transcription factor NF- κ B regulates the expression of many inflammatory genes including iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α , and IL-1 β (Li and Verma, 2002), and aberrant activation of NF- κ B is associated with a number of chronic inflammatory diseases. Anti-inflammatory drugs probably suppress the NF- κ B pathway (Berg *et al.*, 1999;

Kiemer *et al.*, 2003) and suppression of NF- κ B activation may be essential to prevent or treat inflammatory diseases. We showed that a relatively low concentration (50 μ M) of astaxanthin blocked NF- κ B activation and inhibited iNOS promoter activity and that it inhibited nuclear translocation of the NF- κ B p65 subunit and I κ B α protein degradation.

The key step in NF- κ B activation is the rapid degradation of I κ B, which requires I κ B phosphorylation by elevated levels of IKK activity. The LPS receptor interacts with the small GTP-binding protein Rac1, and then associates with p47^{phox} and p67^{phox} (two subunits needed for NADPH oxidase p91^{phox} function) at the cell membrane, leading to ROS production (Sanlioglu *et al.*, 2001). Increases in intracellular ROS augment NF- κ B activation by enhancing IKK activity, and the antioxidant enzymes, superoxide dismutase and catalase, and pharmacologic antioxidants like N-acetyl cysteine and PDTC, inhibit NF- κ B-dependent gene expression including expression of TNF- α (Sanlioglu *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, ROS-induced oxidative stress may play an important role in NF- κ B activation and pro-inflammatory cytokine production in LPS-primed macrophages. Taken together the results reported here indicate that the ability of astaxanthin to modulate pro-inflammatory gene expression through suppression of NF- κ B activation may be based on its antioxidant activity.

We showed previously that the antioxidant enzymes catalase, peroxidase, and myeloperoxidase inhibited NF- κ B activation, iNOS expression, and NO production in macrophages stimulated by LPS (Han *et al.*, 2001) and suggested that ROS generated by macrophages is important for NF- κ B-dependent gene expression. We found here that, like LPS, exogenous H₂O₂ activated NF- κ B; however, unlike LPS, H₂O₂ alone was not enough to induce iNOS expression and NO production. This suggests that LPS stimulates other signal pathways activating iNOS gene expression, including other transcription factors such as Oct-1 (Xie, 1997). LPS induces NO production in macrophages and acts in a synergistic manner to increase IFN γ -induced NO production by activating NF- κ B (Kim *et al.*, 2001), suggesting that activation of a single transcription factor may not be enough for maximal NOS production. This is consistent with our observation that exogenous H₂O₂, which activated NF- κ B but did not induce iNOS expression, synergized with IFN γ in inducing iNOS expression and NO production.

In summary, our findings demonstrate that the natural product astaxanthin inhibited signaling cascade of pro-inflammatory gene expression in LPS-stimulated macrophages by suppressing NF- κ B activation, probably as a result of scavenging intracellular ROS. This inhibitory effect has important implications for the development of anti-inflammatory drugs and strategies to limit pathological inflammation.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by a Vascular System Research Center grant (Y.-M.K) and a Basic Research Program grant R01-2000-000-00809-0 (S.-K.L) from Korea Science & Engineering Foundation.

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