Pioglitazone inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide synthase is associated with altered activity of p38 MAP kinase and PI3K/Akt

Bin Xing  
*University of Kentucky*, bxing3@email.uky.edu

Tao Xin  
*University of Kentucky*, txin2@email.uky.edu

Randy Lee Hunter  
*University of Kentucky*, Randy.Hunter@uky.edu

Guoying Bing  
*University of Kentucky*, gbing@uky.edu

Follow this and additional works at: [https://uknowledge.uky.edu/neurobio_facpub](https://uknowledge.uky.edu/neurobio_facpub)

Part of the Anatomy Commons, and the Neuroscience and Neurobiology Commons

Right click to open a feedback form in a new tab to let us know how this document benefits you.

**Repository Citation**

Xing, Bin; Xin, Tao; Hunter, Randy Lee; and Bing, Guoying, "Pioglitazone inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide synthase is associated with altered activity of p38 MAP kinase and PI3K/Akt" (2008). *Neuroscience Faculty Publications*. 26.  
[https://uknowledge.uky.edu/neurobio_facpub/26](https://uknowledge.uky.edu/neurobio_facpub/26)

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Neuroscience at UKnowledge. It has been accepted for inclusion in Neuroscience Faculty Publications by an authorized administrator of UKnowledge. For more information, please contact UKnowledge@lsv.uky.edu.
Pioglitazone inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide synthase is associated with altered activity of p38 MAP kinase and PI3K/Akt

Digital Object Identifier (DOI)
http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/1742-2094-5-4

Notes/Citation Information
Published in Journal of Neuroinflammation, v. 5, 4.

© 2008 Xing et al; licensee BioMed Central Ltd.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

This article is available at UKnowledge: https://uknowledge.uky.edu/neurobio_facpub/26
BioMed Central

Page 1 of 11

Journal of Neuroinflammation

Research

Pioglitazone inhibition of lipopolysaccharide-induced nitric oxide synthase is associated with altered activity of p38 MAP kinase and PI3K/Akt

Bin Xing¹, Tao Xin¹,², Randy Lee Hunter¹ and Guoying Bing*¹,²

Address: ¹Department of Anatomy and Neurobiology, 310 Davis Mills Building, University of Kentucky, Chandler Medical Center, 800 Rose Street, Lexington, KY 40536-0298, USA and ²Department of Neurosurgery, Shandong Provincial Hospital, Shandong University, Jinan, China

Email: Bin Xing - bxing3@email.uky.edu; Tao Xin - txin2@email.uky.edu; Randy Lee Hunter - Randy.Hunter@uky.edu; Guoying Bing* - gbing@uky.edu

* Corresponding author

Abstract

Background: Previous studies have suggested that peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-γ)-mediated neuroprotection involves inhibition of microglial activation and decreased expression and activity of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS); however, the underlying molecular mechanisms have not yet been well established. In the present study we explored: (1) the effect of the PPAR-γ agonist pioglitazone on lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced iNOS activity and nitric oxide (NO) generation by microglia; (2) the differential role of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (p38 MAPK), c-Jun NH(2)-terminal kinase (JNK), and phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) on LPS-induced NO generation; and (3) the regulation of p38 MAPK, JNK, and PI3K by pioglitazone.

Methods: Mesencephalic neuron-microglia mixed cultures, and microglia-enriched cultures were treated with pioglitazone and/or LPS. The protein levels of iNOS, p38 MAPK, JNK, PPAR-γ, PI3K, and protein kinase B (Akt) were measured by western blot. Different specific inhibitors of iNOS, p38MAPK, JNK, PI3K, and Akt were used in our experiment, and NO generation was measured using a nitrite oxide assay kit. Tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)-positive neurons were counted in mesencephalic neuron-microglia mixed cultures.

Results: Our results showed that pioglitazone inhibits LPS-induced iNOS expression and NO generation, and inhibition of iNOS is sufficient to protect dopaminergic neurons against LPS insult. In addition, inhibition of p38 MAPK, but not JNK, prevented LPS-induced NO generation. Further, and of interest, pioglitazone inhibited LPS-induced phosphorylation of p38 MAPK. Wortmannin, a specific PI3K inhibitor, enhanced p38 MAPK phosphorylation upon LPS stimulation of microglia. Elevations of phosphorylated PPAR-γ, PI3K, and Akt levels were observed with pioglitazone treatment, and inhibition of PI3K activity enhanced LPS-induced NO production. Furthermore, wortmannin prevented the inhibitory effect of pioglitazone on the LPS-induced NO increase.

Conclusion: We demonstrate that pioglitazone protects dopaminergic neurons against LPS insult at least via inhibiting iNOS expression and NO generation, which is potentially mediated via inhibition of p38 MAPK activity. In addition, the PI3K pathway actively participates in the negative regulation of LPS-induced NO production. Our findings suggest that PPAR-γ activation may involve differential regulation of p38 MAPK and of the PI3K/Akt pathway in the regulation of the inflammatory process.

Published: 18 January 2008

Journal of Neuroinflammation 2008, 5:4 doi:10.1186/1742-2094-5-4

Received: 10 August 2007
Accepted: 18 January 2008

This article is available from: http://www.jneuroinflammation.com/content/5/1/4

© 2008 Xing et al; licensee BioMed Central Ltd.

This is an Open Access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/2.0), which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.
Background

In the central nervous system microglia play a major role in the inflammatory process, and numerous activated microglia surround dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra (SN) of Parkinson’s disease (PD) brains [1]. Uncontrolled microglial activation may be directly toxic to neurons by releasing various substances such as nitric oxide (NO), prostaglandin E2, superoxide, and proinflammatory cytokines such as interleukin-1β (IL-1β), tumor necrosis factor-alpha, and interleukin-6 [2-5]. These molecules can induce dopaminergic neuron death [6-8], and inhibition of microglial activation can protect dopaminergic neurons [8-10].

Although the mechanisms underlying the pathogenesis of PD are not completely understood, excessive oxidative stress is thought to play a critical role, and much attention has been placed on NO as a key factor. At physiological concentrations, NO is relatively nonreactive and most of its actions are related to neurotransmitter release, neurotransmitter uptake, neurodevelopment, synaptic plasticity, and regulation of gene expression [11]. However, excessive production of NO can lead to neurotoxicity due to its conversion into a number of more reactive derivatives, collectively known as reactive nitrogen species. At high concentrations NO reacts directly with superoxide, with the fastest biochemical rate constant currently known, to produce peroxynitrite, a strong lipid-permeable oxidant that can oxidize proteins, lipids, RNA, and DNA. Peroxynitrite can inhibit mitochondria complex I, complex II, cytochrome oxidase (complex IV), and the ATP synthase [12-14] as well as increase mitochondrial proton permeability [14]. In addition, NO can induce reactive oxygen and reactive nitrogen species production from mitochondria [15], which may also induce mitochondrial permeability transition [16], resulting in cellular injury and ultimately cell death. In the case of PD as well as in PD animal models, it has been demonstrated that activated microglia exhibit a robust expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) [3-5,17], and inhibition of iNOS provides neuroprotection to SN dopaminergic neurons against a variety of toxic insults [5,18-21].

Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), including p38 MAPK, c-Jun NH(2)-terminal kinase (JNK), and extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase (ERK1/2), have been suggested to be involved in oxidative stress and proinflammatory signaling cascades, and evidence demonstrates that activation of p38 MAPK, JNK, and ERK1/2 signal cascades may be involved in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced insults in microglia and cells derived from immortalized cell lines [20,22-25]. Activated microglia-induced neuronal death has been attributed to p38 MAPK and JNK activation [26], and a recent study showed that inhibition of JNK and p38-MAPK rescues dopaminergic neurons from a thrombin-activated microglia insult [27]. Nevertheless, the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (Akt) pathway has been known to regulate cell growth, proliferation, glucose metabolism, transcription, protein synthesis, and cell survival [28]. In addition, PI3K/Akt regulates cellular activation, inflammatory responses, and apoptosis [29]. Recent studies have demonstrated that the PI3K/Akt pathway imposes a braking mechanism to limit the expression of proinflammatory mediators in LPS-treated monocytes by inhibiting the JNK and p38 MAPK pathways [30].

The peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-γ) is a nuclear transcription factor reported in mammals in 1993 as an orphan receptor [31]. While it is mainly expressed in adipose tissue it also occurs in cells of the immune system, where it acts as a negative regulator of macrophage and microglia activation [32-34]. PPAR-γ forms a heterodimer with another nuclear receptor, retinoid X receptor alpha (RXRα). Upon activation of this complex, it binds to specific DNA sequence elements on target genes, termed peroxisome proliferator response elements, leading to responsive gene expression [35]. In addition, several studies have shown anti-inflammatory effects with PPAR-γ agonists. However, most of these effects are mediated via PPAR-γ independent mechanisms, including interference with nuclear factor-kappa B and activator protein-1 [36-42], phosphatase 2A [43], ERK [44], and JNK activity [45] via a process termed transrepression. For a more detailed review of PPAR-γ in inflammation see Daynes and Jones 2002 [46], and in microglia-mediated inflammation see Bernardo and Minghetti 2006 [47].

We previously showed that pioglitazone, a PPAR-γ agonist, provided neuroprotective properties to SN dopaminergic neurons in LPS-induced PD models both in vivo and in vitro [10,48], in which pioglitazone prevented LPS-induced expression of iNOS. In addition, we have demonstrated that pioglitazone may have therapeutic potential for the treatment of PD [10]. However, the potential differential regulation of iNOS expression and activity by PPAR-γ, and JNK, and PI3K/Akt has not yet been explored. In the present study we examined the role of p38 MAPK, JNK, and PI3K/Akt in relation to the ability of pioglitazone to attenuate LPS-induced iNOS expression and NO production.

Methods

Animals

Timed-pregnant Sprague Dawley rats were obtained from Harlan (Indianapolis, IN, USA), and maintained in a pathogen-free environment. Housing, breeding, and experimental use of the animals were performed in strict...
accordance with the National Institutes of Health guidelines and were approved by the Institute's Animal Care and Use Committee at the University of Kentucky.

**Reagents**

Cell culture materials were obtained from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Pioglitazone and Salmonella minnesota LPS was from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA). The selective inhibitors were as follows: 1400W-iNOS inhibitor from Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, MI, USA), Cyto-sine β-D-arabinofuranoside hydrochloride from Sigma-Aldrich, SP600125-JNK inhibitor and SB203580-p38 inhibitor from A.G. scientific (San Diego, CA, USA), and wortmannin-Pi3K inhibitor from Sigma-Aldrich. Antibodies used were: polyclonal anti-tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) antibody from Pel-Freez Biologicals (Rogers, AR, USA), polyclonal anti-PPAR-γ from Vector Laboratories (Burlingame, CA, USA), monoclonal anti-phospho p38 from Cell Signaling (Danvers, MA, USA), monoclonal anti-PI3K p110 and polyclonal anti-Akt (Thr308) from Upstate (Billerica, MA, USA), monoclonal anti-β-actin from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA), and polyclonal anti-iNOS from Millipore (Billerica, MA, USA). Reagents and Use Committee at the University of Kentucky. The cells were rinsed and the color was developed with 3,3'-diaminobenzidine and 0.03% hydrogen peroxide in Tris buffer. Images were acquired using a Zeiss Axio Lab microscope connected to a digital Zeiss Axio camera operated by the AxioVision software. The TH-positive neurons were counted in each 24-well plate, and the percentage of control was reported. TH-immunostained neurons were considered healthy if they had at least two neurites and the length of all the neurites was two times longer than the diameter of the cell body.

**Nitrite oxide assay**

The production of NO was assessed by the accumulation of nitrite in culture supernatants by using the colorimetric reaction of the Griess reagent. Culture supernatants were collected at different time points following LPS stimulation and were mixed with Griess reagent (0.1% N-[1-naphthyl] ethylenediamine dihydrochloride, 1% sulfanilamide, and 2.5% H₃PO₄). The absorbance at 548 nm was measured with a spectramax microplate reader from Molecular Devices (Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

**Western blot**

Cells were collected and lysed for western blot. Protein concentrations were determined with the bicinchoninic acid assay following the manufacturer’s guide. Equal amounts of protein were loaded, separated by PAGE gel.
electrophoresis, and were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes. Membranes were blocked with 5% nonfat milk and were incubated overnight at 4°C with polyclonal anti-iNOS antibody (1:1000), monoclonal anti-p38 (1:2000), monoclonal anti-PPAR-γ (1:250), polyclonal anti-PI3K p110 (1:250), polyclonal anti-Akt (1:250), or monoclonal anti-β-actin (1:4000). Peroxidase-linked anti-rabbit or anti-mouse IgG (1:4000) was used as the secondary antibody and the ECL Plus kit from Amersham Biosciences Inc (Piscataway, NJ, USA) was used for chemiluminescent detection. The optical density was measured using the scion image™ software (Frederick, MD, USA).

Statistical analysis
The data are expressed as the means ± SEM and statistical significance was assessed by ANOVA followed by a Tukey comparisons test using the SYSTAT 10 software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois). A value of $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Results
Pioglitazone inhibits LPS-induced nitric oxide generation in microglia-enriched cultures
To determine the effect of the PPAR-γ agonist pioglitazone on NO generation, two different doses of pioglitazone (1 µM and 10 µM) were administered to microglia-enriched cultures 1 hr before LPS (1 µg/ml) treatment. LPS induced a 4-fold increase in NO generation ($p < 0.001$) after 48 hr, and pretreatment with pioglitazone reduced NO production by about 40% to 60% ($p < 0.001$), respectively (Fig 1). Administration of pioglitazone concurrent with LPS, or 1 hr after LPS, failed to inhibit the LPS-induced NO increase (data not shown). In addition, pioglitazone alone did not alter NO production.

Pioglitazone inhibits LPS-induced iNOS expression, and iNOS inhibition protects dopaminergic neurons from LPS insults in mesencephalic mixed cultures
In this set of experiments, iNOS expression was determined by western blot performed 48 hrs after LPS (1 µg/ml) treatment. As shown in Fig 2A, basal iNOS expression was decreased by pioglitazone ($p < 0.001$). LPS treatment produced significantly enhanced iNOS expression ($p < 0.01$), and pretreatment with pioglitazone (10 µM) significantly reduced this LPS-induced increase in iNOS expression ($p < 0.01$). In addition, we used immunocytochemistry for TH-positive cells to assessed the effect of a specific iNOS inhibitor, 1400 W (1 nM to 10 µM), on the survival of dopaminergic neurons 72 hr after LPS treatment. Fig 2B shows that LPS induces a significant loss (90%) of the TH-positive neurons when the iNOS inhibitor is administered 1 hr before LPS (1 µg/ml). Partial neuroprotection against the LPS insult was seen when using 1400 W at 100 nM ($p < 0.05$) and 1 µM ($p < 0.001$).

Pioglitazone reduces NO levels by inhibition of p38 MAPK activity
In the third part of our experiment, two proinflammatory pathways were examined, in order to demonstrate their involvement in the LPS-induced increase in NO production. Either SB203580 (a selective p38 MAPK inhibitor) or SP600125 (a selective JNK inhibitor) were administered to microglia-enriched cultures 1 hr before LPS (1 µg/ml) exposure. As shown in Fig 3A, LPS significantly increased NO generation ($p < 0.001$) and inhibition of p38 MAPK activity by pretreatment with SB203580 (5 µM) decreased this NO production ($p < 0.05$). Of particular interest, pretreatment with pioglitazone (10 µM) 1 hr before LPS (1 µg/ml) decreased phosphorylation of p38 MAPK (Fig 3B), and pretreatment with wortmannin (1 µM and 10 µM) increased LPS-induced p38 MAPK phosphorylation in a dose-dependent manner (Fig 4A and 4B. $p < 0.05$). An increase in phosphorylation of p38 MAPK was not found when wortmannin was administered alone, without LPS stimuli (Fig 4D). Wortmannin also did not change JNK expression (Fig 4A and 4C).

Inhibition of PI3K activity prevents the inhibitory effect of pioglitazone on LPS-induced NO production
To determine if pioglitazone enhances PI3K/Akt expression and if its inhibition enhances LPS-induced NO generation, the levels of PI3K and Akt were determined. PPAR-γ, PI3K, and Akt phosphorylation were measured...
after LPS (1 µg/ml) exposure. As shown in Fig 5, PPAR-γ activation was observed in pioglitazone-treated cultures within 10 min after DMSO or LPS. PI3K and phosphorylated Akt were increased 60 min after LPS in the pioglitazone-treated cultures (Fig. 5, p < 0.05). Next, wortmannin (1 µM) was added 30 mins before pioglitazone (10 µM) treatment and the NO level was measured 48 h after LPS (1 µg/ml). The results showed that pretreatment with pioglitazone inhibited the LPS-induced NO increase (p < 0.01). However, when wortmannin was given 30 mins before pioglitazone, NO production was increased over LPS exposure (p < 0.05). Interestingly, administration of wortmannin (1 µM) 30 min before pioglitazone followed by LPS 1 hr later did not show the inhibitive effect of pioglitazone on NO level. Wortmannin alone, or together with pioglitazone, did not influence NO generation without LPS stimulation. Thus, pioglitazone prevents LPS-induced NO production, and pretreatment with wortmannin increases NO generation (Fig 6).

Discussion
In our previous study, we reported that LPS injection into rat striatum induces a nigrostriatal inflammatory response, followed by dopaminergic neuronal loss, and that pioglitazone rescues dopaminergic neurons partially by inhibiting iNOS and COX-2 expression [10]. The present in vitro study was designed to investigate signal transduction pathways that may underlie the neuroprotection seen with pioglitazone against LPS exposure. We demonstrate that pioglitazone provides neuroprotective effects partially via reducing iNOS expression and NO generation from LPS-activated microglia. This appears to be associated with inhibition of p38 MAPK. In addition, pioglitazone increases PPAR-γ activation as well as PI3K/Akt activity, which may play a role in the inhibition of LPS-induced NO production.

Pioglitazone inhibits LPS-induced iNOS expression, and iNOS inhibition protects dopaminergic neurons from LPS insults.

Rat mesencephalic mixed cultures were treated with 1 µg/ml LPS for 48 hours. A: LPS treatment upregulated the expression of iNOS, and pretreatment with pioglitazone (10 µM), 1 hr before LPS, prevents its expression. B: Rat mesencephalic mixed cultures were treated with the selective iNOS inhibitor 1400 W, with different doses from 1 ng/ml to 10 µM/ml, 1 hr before a 72 hr LPS exposure. The number of TH-positive neurons was determined by immunocytochemistry. Data presented are representative of three independent experiments (n = 3). (***p < 0.01 vs. control, ****p < 0.001 vs. control, #p < 0.05 vs. LPS, ###p < 0.01 vs. LPS, ####p < 0.001 vs. LPS).
mediated inflammatory pathways might target and interact with common active molecules. There are several potential candidates that can be competitively targeted within these two pathways. The first candidate is LPS-induced MAPK activation. As Camp's study demonstrated using 293T cells, PPAR-γ can be phosphorylated by JNK and by p38 MAPK at its ser82 residue, and an increase in PPAR-γ phosphorylation may reduce its sensitivity to PPAR-γ ligands such as pioglitazone [52,53]. The second candidate is CD14, where LPS-induced microglia activation is mediated by CD14. However, the PPAR-γ agonist 15d-PGJ2 and rosiglitazone negatively regulate CD14 mRNA transcription in primary mouse microglia cultures [54]; although, a caveat to this finding is that 15d-PGJ2 was recently shown not to be a biologically relevant PPAR-γ agonist [38]. A third candidate for competitive targeting by LPS and PPAR-γ is RXR. Recent studies have shown that rosiglitazone inhibits LPS-mediated RXR nuclear export, resulting in increased nuclear binding of RXR in hepatocytes of mice [55], and that the RXR agonist, 9-cis retinoic acid, inhibits NO production by LPS-activated microglia [56]. In addition to the inhibition of LPS-induced NO production by pioglitazone, LPS-induced iNOS protein expression (as measured by immunoblotting) was prevented by pretreatment with pioglitazone (Fig. 2A). We previously demonstrated the ability of pioglitazone to attenuate the LPS-induced increases in iNOS expression [10]. We also observed some basal generation of NO, and almost no iNOS immunoreactivity in pioglitazone-treated cultures, suggesting that pioglitazone alone can inhibit iNOS expression. This basal NO may be generated by neuronal or endothelial NOS; however, we cannot rule out that the function of very limited iNOS is increased in a compensatory way, so that there is a basal generation of NO. Our results also demonstrate that inhibition of iNOS, with its specific inhibitor 1400 W, protects dopaminergic neurons against LPS-induced neurotoxicity. This data is supported by a previous study using iNOS inhibitors to attenuated dopaminergic neuron loss after intranigral LPS treatment [5]. Therefore, we speculate that pioglitazone protects dopaminergic neurons at least via inhibition of iNOS expression and function, which is consistent with other studies [10,21,49,57]. However, 1400 W, at 10 µM, did not protect TH-positive neurons (data not shown). Since 1400 W is a highly selective iNOS inhibitor that operates in a time-, dose-, and NADPH-dependent manner, it may bind iNOS to inhibit its function in the lower dose range [58,59] but, at higher concentrations, 1400 W might detach from iNOS leading to recovery of iNOS function. Another possibility is that iNOS and COX-2 cross talk with each other [60], that and once iNOS is inhibited, the function of COX-2 might be increased as a compensatory mechanism. Further work needs to be performed to determine this relationship.

**P38 MAPK is associated with LPS-induced NO generation and PI3K/AKT mediated p38 MAPK activity upon LPS stimuli**

To further clarify which proinflammatory pathways might be involved in mediating the inhibition of LPS-induced NO by pioglitazone, selective inhibitors for p38 MAPK
SB203580 (5 μM) and for JNK (SP600125 5 μM) were administered before LPS stimulation. It is interesting that inhibition of LPS-induced NO production was only observed with administration of the p38 MAPK inhibitor, but not with the JNK inhibitor, in microglia-enriched cultures. These results suggest that p38 MAPK might be associated with LPS-mediated iNOS regulation, but not with JNK. In addition, our study showed that pretreatment with pioglitazone before LPS (1 μg/ml) reduces phosphorylation of p38 MAPK (Fig 3B), which suggests that pioglitazone inhibits LPS-induced iNOS and NO production via suppression of p38 MAPK phosphorylation. Evidence has shown that inhibition of different MAPK pathways is associated with decreases in LPS-induced NO production [22], where the inhibitory effect of p38 MAPK has been more consistently observed [61,62]. In addition, our results are also consistent with two recent in vivo studies.

**Figure 4**

**Inhibition of PI3K activity increases LPS-induced p38 MAPK activity.** Wortmannin (1 μM and 10 μM) was administered to mesencephalic neuronal-microglia mixed cultures before LPS (1 μg/ml) was added and, after 30 mins, p38 MAPK was immunobloted. As shown in 4A, wortmannin enhances the phosphorylation of p38 MAPK under LPS stimulation in a dose-dependent manner (Fig 4A and 4B, p < 0.05), however, wortmannin did not increase p38 phosphorylation without LPS stimulation (Fig 4D). In contrast, inhibition of PI3K activity by wortmannin did not change JNK expression (Fig 4C). Data presented are representative of three independent experiments (n = 3). (*p < 0.05 vs. wortmannin 1 μM + LPS).
which suggest a role for p38 MAPK, but not JNK, in LPS-induced activation of iNOS [63,64].

Inhibition of PI3K with wortmannin did not enhance JNK phosphorylation upon LPS stimulation (Fig. 4A and 4C). In contrast, wortmannin enhanced p38 MAPK phosphorylation upon LPS stimulation in a dose-dependent manner (p < 0.05, Fig 4A and 4B), suggesting that PI3K/Akt mediated LPS-induced p38 MAPK activity and pioglitazone might inhibit LPS-induced NO generation via regulation of PI3K/Akt activity.

**Pioglitazone may inhibit LPS-induced NO generation via**
**activation of PI3K/Akt pathway**

The western blot study on the relationship of PPAR-γ activation and PI3K/Akt activity upon LPS stimuli showed a great amount of PPAR-γ phosphorylation with pioglitazone alone and with pioglitazone plus LPS, 10 mins after DMSO or LPS exposure, when compared to the control group and LPS group. This was accompanied by the enhanced level of PI3K and Akt phosphorylation in the pioglitazone alone or pioglitazone plus LPS group after a 60 min DMSO or LPS exposure. These results suggest that activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway by pioglitazone might be via PPAR-γ activation. Whether the activation of PI3K/Akt by pioglitazone is PPAR-γ dependent or independent needs to be further clarified.

Our present study shows that inhibition of PI3K activity significantly enhances LPS-induced NO production (Fig. 6). Furthermore, pretreatment with wortmannin (1 µM) prevented the inhibitory effect of pioglitazone on the LPS-induced increase in NO production, suggesting that inhibition of NO by pioglitazone is PI3K-dependent. Although several reports have demonstrated that LPS activates the PI3K pathway in mesangial cells, smooth muscle cells, and cell lines [65,66], studies on macrophages, whose morphology and phenotype are closer to those of microglia, show that inhibition of the PI3K pathway enhances LPS-induced NO production [67]. Conversely, in the intrastriatal 6-OHDA PD model, transduction of neurons with the myristoylated form of Akt (Myr-Akt) has potent anti-apoptotic effects on dopaminergic neurons of the SN, sparing 80% of neuronal apoptosis. A more recent study demonstrated that human iNOS promoter induction by LPS/IFN-γ is suppressed by PI3K/Akt via inhibition of forkhead transcription factor FKHRL1 [68]. In addition, Akt can interact directly with mixed-lineage kinase 3, resulting in diminished JNK activation by mixed-lineage kinase 3. Kim et al demonstrated that Akt by pioglitazone is PPAR-γ dependent or independent needs to be further clarified.
binds to apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1, phosphorylates it at serine 83, and thereby reduces its kinase activity [69]. We did not find that LPS decreased PI3K or Akt levels as assessed by western blot, although there was a trend toward decreased PI3K and Akt phosphorylation in the pioglitazone plus LPS group, when compared to the pioglitazone alone group. This suggests that inhibition of LPS-induced NO generation by pioglitazone might occur independent of the LPS-induced inhibition of PI3K/Akt pathway; however, this needs further investigation. Although we observed that pioglitazone inhibited LPS-induced NO production via increasing PI3K/Akt activity and decreasing p38 MAPK phosphorylation, pioglitazone may also modulate NO production through other mechanisms. For instance, as a synthetic ligand for PPARγ, pioglitazone might inhibit iNOS, at least in part, through the repression of the activator of transcription 1 or nuclear factor-kappa B [70].

Conclusion

Our present study shows that the PPAR-γ agonist, pioglitazone, significantly inhibits LPS-induced microglial increases in iNOS expression and NO production. This might be mediated by activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway, followed by inhibition of p38 MAPK activity, which may contribute to the inhibitory effects of pioglitazone on LPS-induced NO generation; thus, protecting dopaminergic neurons against LPS toxicity.

List of abbreviations

Parkinson's disease (PD), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-γ), inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), lipopolysaccharide (LPS), p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (p38 MAPK), extracellular signal-regulated protein kinase (ERK1/2), c-Jun NH(2)-terminal kinase (JNK), phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K), substantia nigra (SN), nitric oxide (NO), mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), retinoid X receptor α (RXR), tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), Ca++/Mg++ free medium (CMF), Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS).

Competing interests

The author(s) declare that they have no competing interests.

Authors' contributions

Dr. Bing is the primary investigator (PI) in our lab. B Xing conceived the study and its design, performed the experiments, analyzed the data, and drafted the manuscript. T Xin and R Hunter took part in the western blot analysis and assisted in conceptual writing. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank Dr. Mei Liu’s for her help with the western blot and histological techniques. The present work was supported by NIH grant NS044157 (GB).

References

1. McGeer PL, Itagaki S, Boyes BE, McGeer EG: Reactive microglia are positive for HLA-DR in the substantia nigra of Parkinson’s and Alzheimer’s disease brains. Neurology 1988, 38:1285-1291.
2. Mogi M, Harada M, Riederer P, Narabayashi H, Fujita K, Nagatsu T: Tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-alpha) increases both in the brain and in the cerebrospinal fluid from parkinsonian patients. Neurosci Lett 1994, 165:208-210.
3. Knott C, Stern G, Wilkin GP: Inflammatory regulators in Parkinson’s disease: iNOS, lipocortin-1, and cyclooxygenases-1 and -2. Mol Cell Neurosci 2000, 16:724-739.
4. Hunot S, Boissiere F, Faucheux B, Brugg B, Mouatt-Prigent A, Agid Y, Hirsch EC: Nitric oxide synthase and neuronal vulnerability in Parkinson’s disease. Neuroscience 1996, 72:355-363.
5. Arimoto T, Bing G: Up-regulation of inducible nitric oxide synthase in the substantia nigra by lipopolysaccharide causes microglial activation and neurodegeneration. Neurobiol Dis 2003, 12:335-45.
6. Choi SH, Lee DY, Chung ES, Hong YB, Kim SU, Jin BK: Inhibition of thrombin-induced microglial activation and NADPH oxidase by minocycline protects dopaminergic neurons in the substantia nigra in vivo. J Neurochem 2005, 95:1755-1765.
7. Li FQ, Wang T, Pei Z, Liu B, Hong JS: Inhibition of microglial activation by the herbal flavonoid baicalein attenuates inflammation-mediated degeneration of dopaminergic neurons. J Neural Transm 2005, 112:331-347.
8. Liu Y, Qin L, Li G, Zhang W, An L, Liu B, Hong JS: Dextramethorphan protects dopaminergic neurons against inflammation-mediated degeneration through inhibition of microglial activation. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2003, 305:212-218.

9. Li G, Cui G, Tseng NS, Wei SJ, Wang T, Block ML, Hong JS: Femtomolar concentrations of dextramethorphan protect mesencephalic dopaminergic neurons from inflammatory damage. *J Neurochem* 2005, 94:489-496.

10. Hunter RL, Dragicevic N, Seifert K, Choi DY, Liu M, Kim HC, Cass WA, Sullivan PG, Bing G: Inflammation induces mitochondrial dysfunction and dopaminergic neurodegeneration in the nigrostriatal system. *J Neurochem* 2007, 100:1375-1386.

11. Bredt DS: Endogenous nitric oxide synthesis: biological functions and pathophysiology. *Free Radic Res* 1999, 31:577-596.

12. Brown GC: Nitric oxide and mitochondrial respiration. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1999, 1411:351-369.

13. Cassina A, Radi R: Differential inhibitory action of nitric oxide and superoxide on mitochondrial electron transport. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 1996, 328:309-316.

14. Gadelha FR, Thomson L, Faggian MM, Costa AD, Radi R, Vercesi AE: Ca2+-independent permeabilization of the inner mitochondrial membrane by peroxynitrite is mediated by membrane protein that mediates uncoupling and lipid peroxidation. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 1997, 345:243-250.

15. Poderoso J, Carreras MC, Lidsoro C, Ribo N, Schoepfer F, Boveris A: Nitric oxide inhibits electron transfer and increases superoxide radical production in rat heart mitochondria and sub-mitochondrionals. *Arch Biochem Biophys* 1996, 328:85-92.

16. Packer MA, Murphy MP: Peroxynitrite causes calcium efflux from mitochondria which is prevented by Cyclosporin A. *FEBS Lett* 1994, 345:237-240.

17. Liberatore GT, Jackson-Levis V, Yuzkovic S, Mundis AS, Vila M, MCallulfe WG, Dawson VL, Dawson TM, Przedborski S: Inducible nitric oxide synthase stimulates dopaminergic neurodegeneration in the MPTP model of Parkinson disease. *Nat Med* 1999, 5:1403-1409.

18. Katsuki H, Okawara M, Shibata H, Kume T, Akaike A: Nitric oxide-producing microglia mediate thrombin-induced degeneration of dopaminergic neurons in rat midbrain slice culture. *J Neurochem* 2006, 97:1232-1242.

19. Okuno T, Nakatsui Y, Kumanogoh A, Moriya M, Ichinose H, Sumi H, Fushiki H, Kikutani H: Mitochondria-mediated loss of dopaminergic neurons by the induction of inducible nitric oxide synthase and cyclooxygenase-2 via CD40: relevance to Parkinson's disease. *J Neurosci* 2005, 25:8784-8792.

20. Wang MJ, Lin WW, Chen HL, Chang YH, Ou HC, Kuo JS, Hong JS, Jiang KC. Silymarin protects dopaminergic neurons against lipopolysaccharide-induced neurotoxicity by inhibiting microglial activation. *Eur J Neurosci* 2002, 16:2103-2112.

21. Jeon GH, Cooper CL, Wilson B, Chang RC, Jiang KJ, Kim HC, Liu B, Hong JS: p38 MAP kinase is involved in lipopolysaccharide-induced dopaminergic neuronal cell death in rat mesencephalic neuron-glial cultures. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2002, 962:332-346.

22. Bhat NR, Zhang P, Lee JC, Hogan EL: Extracellular signal-regulated kinase and p38 subgroups of mitogen-activated protein kinases regulate inducible nitric oxide synthase and tumor necrosis factor-alpha gene expression in endotoxin-stimulated primary glial cultures. *J Neurosci* 1998, 18:1633-1641.

23. Woo MS, Jang PG, Park JS, Kim WK, Joo TH, Kim HS: Selective modulation of lipopolysaccharide-stimulated cytokine expression and mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways by dibutyryl-cAMP in BV2 microglial cells. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 2003, 113:86-96.

24. Pawate S, Shen Q, Fan F, Bhat NR: Redox regulation of glial inflammatory response to lipopolysaccharide and interferon-gamma. *J Neurosci Res* 2008, 87:S40-S51.

25. Zhou Y, Ling EA, Dheen ST: Dexamethasone suppresses monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 production via mitogen activated protein kinase phosphatase-1 dependent inhibition of Jun N-terminal kinase and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase in activated rat microglia. *J Neurochem* 2007.

26. Xie Z, Smith CJ, Van Eldik LJ: Activated glia induce neuron death via MAP kinase signaling pathways involving JNK and p38. *Glia* 2004, 45:170-179.

27. Lee DY, Oh YJ, Jin BK: Thrombin-activated microglia contribute to death of dopaminergic neurons in rat mesencephalic cultures: dual roles of thrombin-activated protein kinase signaling pathways. *Glia* 2005, 51:98-110.

28. Brazil DF, Hemmings BA: Ten years of protein kinase B signalling: a hard Akt to follow. *Trends Biochem Sci* 2001, 26:657-664.

29. Cantley LC: The phosphoinositol 3-kinase pathway. *Science* 2002, 296:1655-1657.

30. Guha M, Mackman N: The phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-Akt pathway limits lipopolysaccharide activation of signaling pathways and expression of inflammatory mediators in human monocytes. *J Biol Chem* 2002, 277:31214-31212.

31. Zhu Y, Alvaras K, Huang Q, Rao MS, Reddy JK: Cloning of a new member of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gene family from mouse liver. *J Biol Chem* 1993, 268:26817-26820.

32. Park SW, Yi YH, Minarangi G, Saito Sato M, Bowen K, Resnick DK, Veenker R, Thiazioli L, Granger K: Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor (gamma) Agonists Prevents Neuronal Damage, Motor Dysfunction, Myelin Loss, Neuropathic Pain, and Inflammation after Spinal Cord Injury in Adult Rats. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 2007, 320:1002-1012.

33. Becqueredo A, Ajmone-Carassiti M, Jorgensen E, Minghetti L: Nuclear receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma is activated in rat microglial cells by the anti-inflammatory drug HCT a derivative of flurbiprofen. *J Neurochem* 2002, 92:865-903.

34. Rioboo M, Huang J, Faiss S, Li A, Welch J, Najib J, Witztum JL, Awuerr J, Palinski W, Glass CK: Expression of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARgamma) in human atherosclerosis and regulation in macrophages by colony stimulating factors and oxidized low density lipoprotein. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1998, 95:7615-7619.

35. Kliewer SA, Umesono K, Noonan DJ, Heyman RA, Evans RM: Convergence of 9-cis retinoic acid and peroxisome proliferator signalling pathways through heterodimer formation of their receptors. *Nature* 1992, 358:771-774.

36. Musiek ES, Gao L, Milne GL, Han W, Everhart MB, Wang D, Backlund MG, DuBois RN, Zanoni G, Vidari G, et al.: Cyclosporine A in the treatment of chronic skin allograft rejection in rats. *J Am Acad Derma* 1999, 40:1072-1078.

37. Ackerman WEt, Zhang XL, Rovin BH, Kniss DA: The Philadelphia chromosome in adults: Correlation of Karyotype with Clinical Presentation. *Blood* 2000, 95:4592-4596.

38. Straus DS, Pasquale G, Li M, Welch JS, Ricote M, Hnilica KH, Sengchanthang L, Ghosh G, Glass CK: 15-deoxy-delta12,14-prostaglandin J2 (PGJ2) enhances IL-1beta-mediated cell death in rat choroid plexus through a CD40-dependent mechanism. *FASEB J* 2000, 14:874-882.

39. Chen F, Wang M, O'Connor P, He M, Tripathi T, Harrison LE: Phosphorylation of PPARalpha by active ERK1/2 leads to its physical association with p65 and inhibition of NF-kappaB. *J Cell Biochem* 2003, 90:732-744.

40. Zuo Y, Brown WR, Knight JR, Firestone GL: Selective activation of MAP kinases and PI3K by 15-deoxy-delta12,14-prostaglandin J2 in cultured human mesangial cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2000, 276:645-651.

41. Lee DY, Oh YJ, Jin BK: Thrombin-activated microglia contribute to death of dopaminergic neurons in rat mesencephalic cultures: dual roles of thrombin-activated protein kinase signaling pathways. *Glia* 2005, 51:98-110.
44. Eligini S, Banfi C, Brambilla M, Camera M, Barbieri SS, Poma F, Tremoli E, Colli S: 15-deoxy-Delta12,14-Prostaglandin J2 inhibits tissue factor expression in human macrophages and endothelial cells: evidence for ERK1/2 signaling pathway blockade. Thromb Haemost 2002, 88:524-532.

45. Sawano H, Haneda M, Sugimoto T, Inoki K, Koya D, Kikkawa R: 15-Deoxy-Delta12,14-Prostaglandin J2 inhibits IL-1beta-induced cyclooxygenase-2 expression in mesangial cells. Kidney Int 2002, 61:1957-1967.

46. Daynes RA, Jones DC: Emerging roles of PPARs in inflammation and immunity. Nat Rev Immunol 2002, 2:748-759.

47. Bernardo A, Minghetti L: PPAR-gamma agonists as regulators of microglial activation and brain inflammation. Curr Pharm Des 2006, 12:93-109.

48. Xing B, Liu M, Bing G: Neuroprotection with pioglitazone against LPS insult on dopaminergic neurons may be associated with its inhibition of NF-kappaB and JNK activation and induction of COX-2 activity. J Neuroimmunol 2007.

49. Dehmer T, Heneka MT, Sastre M, Dichgans J, Schulz JB: Selective inhibition of inducible nitric oxide synthase by pioglitazone in the MPTP model of Parkinson's disease correlates with IL kappa B alpha induction and block of NF kappa B and iNOS activation. J Neurochem 2004, 88:494-501.

50. Heneka MT, Sharp A, Klockgether T, Gavrilyuk V, Feinstein DL: The heat shock response inhibits NF-kappaB activation, nitric oxide synthase type 2 expression, and macrophage/microglial activation in brain. J Cereb Blood Flow Metab 2000, 20:800-811.

51. Kim YJ, Kwon KJ, Park JY, Lee SH, Moon CH, Baik EJ: Effects of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor agonists on LPS-induced neuronal death in mixed cortical neurons: associated with iNOS and COX-2. Brain Res 2002, 941:1-10.

52. Camp HS, Tafuri SR: Regulation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma activity by mitogen-activated protein kinase. J Biol Chem 1997, 272:10811-10816.

53. Camp HS, Tafuri SR, Leff T: c-Jun N-terminal kinase phosphor-ylates peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma and negatively regulates its transcriptional activity. Endocrinology 1999, 140:392-397.

54. Xu J, Drew PD: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma agonists suppress the production of IL-12 family cytokines by activated glia. J Immunol 2007, 178:1904-1913.

55. Park JY, Kawada T, Inoue IA, Kim BS, Goto T, Takahashi N, Fushiki T, Kurata T, Yu R: Capsaicin inhibits the production of tumor necrosis factor alpha by LPS-stimulated murine macrophages, RAW264.7: a PPARgamma ligand-like action as a novel mechanism. FEBS Lett 2004, 572:266-270.

56. Xu Y, Storer PD, Chavis JA, Racke MK, Drew PD: Agonists for the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha and the retinoid X receptor inhibit inflammatory responses of microglia. J Neurosci Res 2005, 81:403-411.

57. Heneka MT, Klockgether T, Feinstein DL: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma ligands reduce neuronal inducible nitric oxide synthase expression and cell death in vivo. J Neurosci 2000, 20:6862-6867.

58. Parmientier S, Bohme GA, Lerouet D, Damour D, Stutzmann JM, Marguill I, Ploikine M: Selective inhibition of inducible nitric oxide synthase prevents ischaemic brain injury. Br J Pharmacol 1999, 127:546-552.

59. Garvey EP, Oplinger JA, Purline ES, Kiff RJ, Laszlo F, Whittle BJ, Knowles RG: 1400W is a slow, tight binding, and highly selective inhibitor of inducible nitric-oxide synthase in vitro and in vivo. J Biol Chem 1997, 272:4959-4963.

60. Perez-Sala D, Lamas S: Regulation of cyclooxygenase-2 expression by nitric oxide in cells. Antioxid Redox Signal 2001, 3:231-248.

61. Han IO, Kim KW, Ryu JH, Kim WK: p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase mediates lipopolysaccharide, not interferon-gamma, induced inducible nitric oxide synthase expression in mouse BV2 microglial cells. Neurosci Lett 2002, 325:9-12.

62. Chen CC, Wang JK: p38 but not p44/42 mitogen-activated protein kinase is required for nitric oxide synthase induction mediated by lipopolysaccharide in RAW 264.7 macrophages. Mol Pharmacol 1999, 55:481-488.

63. Ruano D, Revilla E, Gavilán MP, Vizuet LS, Pintado C, Vitorica J, Castano A: Role of p38 and inducible nitric oxide synthase in the in vivo dopaminergic cells' degeneration induced by inflammatory processes after lipopolysaccharide injection. Neuroscience 2006, 140:1157-1168.

64. Shibata H, Kasukawa H, Okawara M, Kume T, Akaike A: eN-terinal kinase inhibition and alpha-tocopherol protect midbrain dopaminergic neurons from interferon-gamma/lipopolysaccharide-induced injury without affecting nitric oxide production. J Neurosci Res 2006, 83:102-109.

65. Di Costanzo Y, Hatton S, Kasai K: Lipopolysaccharide activates Akt in vascular smooth muscle cells resulting in induction of inducible nitric oxide synthase through nuclear factor-kappa B activation. Eur J Pharmacol 2003, 481:153-158.

66. Kim YH, Choi KH, Park JW, Kwon TK: LY294002 inhibits LPS-induced NO production through a inhibition of NF-kappaB activation: independent mechanism of phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase. Immuno Lett 2005, 99:45-50.

67. Park YC, Lee CH, Kang HS, Chung HT, Kim HD: Wortmannin, a specific inhibitor of phosphatidylinositol-3-kinase, enhances LPS-induced NO production from murine peritoneal macrophages. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1999, 240:692-696.

68. Kristof A, Fleihaber J, Triantafillopoulos A, Nemoto S, Moss J: Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-dependent suppression of the human inducible nitric-oxide synthase promoter is mediated by FKHRL1. J Biol Chem 2006, 281:23958-23968.

69. Kim AH, Khursigara G, Sun X, Franke TF, Chao MV: Akt phosphorylates and negatively regulates apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1. Mol Cell Biol 2001, 21:893-901.

70. Bernardo A, Levi G, Minghetti L: Role of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-gamma) and its natural ligand 15-deoxy-Delta12,14-prostaglandin J2 in the regulation of microglial functions. Eur J Neurosci 2000, 12:2215-2223.