Research Article

Aβ-Induced Repressor Element 1-Silencing Transcription Factor (REST) Gene Delivery Suppresses Activation of Microglia-Like BV-2 Cells

Tongya Yu,1 Hui Quan,1 Yuzhen Xu,1 Yunxiao Dou,1 Feihong Wang,2 Yingying Lin,1 Xue Qi,1 Yanxin Zhao,1 and Xueyuan Liu1

1Shanghai Tenth People’s Hospital of Tongji University, Tongji University, Middle Yanchang Rd. 301#, Jingan District, Shanghai, China 200072
2Shanghai Tenth People’s Hospital of Tongji University, Nanjing Medical University, Middle Yanchang Rd. 301#, Jingan District, Shanghai, China 200072

Correspondence should be addressed to Yanxin Zhao; zhao_yanxin@tongji.edu.cn and Xueyuan Liu; liuxy@tongji.edu.cn

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Compelling evidence from basic molecular biology has demonstrated the crucial role of microglia in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer’s disease (AD). Microglia were believed to play a dual role in both promoting and inhibiting Alzheimer’s disease progression. It is of great significance to regulate the function of microglia and make them develop in a favorable way. In the present study, we investigated the function of repressor element 1-silencing transcription factor (REST) in Aβ1-42-induced BV-2 cell dysfunction. We concluded that Aβ1-42 could promote type I activation of BV-2 cells and induce cell proliferation, migration, and proinflammation cytokine TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 expression. Meanwhile, REST was upregulated, and nuclear translocalization took place due to Aβ1-42 stimulation. When REST was knocked down by a specific short hairpin RNA (sh-RNA), BV-2 cell proliferation, migration, and proinflammation cytokine expression and secretion induced by Aβ1-42 were increased, demonstrating that REST may act as a repressor of microglia-like BV-2 cell activation.

1. Introduction

Alzheimer’s disease (AD), a chronic and neurodegenerative disease, is currently the most prevalent cause of dementia of aging people. The neuropathological hallmarks of AD include extracellular Aβ deposits, intracellular neurofibrillary tangles, and marked inflammation [1, 2]. As a chronic and degenerative disease, Alzheimer’s disease progress is coupled with continuous activation of microglia [3]. Microglia, the main innate immune cells in the central nervous system, play a pivotal role in the process of AD including secretion of proinflammation cytokines, clearance of amyloid plaques, and synaptic pruning [4–6]. In the pathogenesis of AD, microglia have both advantages and disadvantages. Selective modulation of microglia phenotype function could be a promising strategy in AD.

Repressor element 1-silencing transcription factor (REST), also named neuron-restricted silencing factor (NRSF), is a zinc finger protein which binds to a 21 bp repressor element-1 (RE-1) to keep silence of hundreds of genes, many of which are neurally expressed genes [7, 8]. REST is known to play a key role in neuronal differentiation, including neurogenesis, synaptogenesis, excitability, and synaptic transmission [9, 10]. Importantly, REST dysregulation has been associated with neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer’s disease [11–13]. In an aging neuron, REST is induced strikingly in the nucleus of cortical and hippocampus neurons to repress genes associated with cell death and AD pathology and protects neurons from oxidative stress and amyloid β-protein (Aβ) toxicity, while REST is almost absent from the nucleus in AD leading to neuron damage thus cognitive impairment [12]. Up to now, existing studies
are mainly about functions of REST in neurons or astrocytes; nevertheless, the function of REST protein in microglia remains unknown even though REST also has high expression abundance in microglia [14]. In this study, we evaluated the levels of REST protein in Aβ_{1-42}-treated BV-2 cells and characterized the effect of REST on the function of microglia including proliferation, cell migration, and expression and secretion of proinflammation cytokines.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Cell Culture and Treatment. Mouse microglia-like BV-2 cells were cultured in Dulbecco’s modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37°C in an atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. BV-2 cells were cultured for 24 h or 48 h with different concentrations of Aβ_{1-42} oligomers (ChinaPeptides, Shanghai, China). Synthetic Aβ_{1-42} power was dissolved in 0.4% DMSO water to 100 μM, then incubated at 37°C for 72 h for oligomerization.

2.2. Cell Viability Assay. BV-2 cells were seeded into 96-well plates in 100 μL complete media at a density of 4 × 10⁵ cells/mL and treated with Aβ_{1-42} (0, 1, 2.5, or 5 μM) for 24 or 48 h. Cell viability was evaluated by Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK8, Beyotime, Haimen, China) on the basis of our previous studies [15]. After incubation at 37°C in 5% CO₂ for 24 or 48 h, the 10 μL CCK8 reagent was added to each well under a lightproof condition, and incubation continued for a further 2 h. The cell viability was evaluated by measuring absorbance at 450 nm using a microplate reader. The experiments were carried out at least three times.

2.3. Western Blot. Before harvest, BV-2 cells were washed with cold PBS and then lysed with lysis buffer containing protease inhibitors for 30 min on ice. The samples were centrifuged at 12000 rpm, 4°C for 15 min. Then, the protein concentrations were determined by a BCA protein assay kit (Beyotime Institute of Biotechnology, Haimen, China) as previously described [16]. Proteins were electrophoresed using sodium dodecyl sulfate/polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE, Bio-Rad, CA, USA) and transferred electrophoretically to PVDF membranes. Then, the membranes were blocked with 5% skim milk at room temperature (RT) for 1 h and then incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, membranes were washed and incubated with the appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies at room temperature for 1 h. Finally, membranes were washed and detected with enhanced chemiluminescence. Primary antibodies were as follows: anti-GAPDH (1:2000; Sangon Biotech), anti-β-actin (1:2000; Santa Cruz), anti-REST (1:1000; Abcam), anti-MHC II (1:1000, Abcam), and anti-Arg1 (1:1000; Sigma).

2.4. Real-Time RT-PCR. Total RNA was isolated from the BV-2 cells using the TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. 1 mg of RNA was reverse-transcribed to cDNA using a PrimeScript™ RT reagent kit (TaKaRa Bio Inc., Beijing, China). Quantitative RT-PCR analysis was performed using a SYBR Green PCR Kit (KAPA Biosystems, South Africa) with 1 μL of cDNA template in 20 μL reaction mixture. Results were analyzed using the comparative CT method. Data are expressed throughout the study as 2^{-ΔΔCT} for the experimental gene of interest normalized to β-actin. The gene-specific primer pairs were as follows: mouse REST gene forward 5’-GGCGATGGCCGAGTTATGATG-3’ and reverse 5’-CTTTGAGTGTCGCCAGCTC-3’, actin gene forward 5’-ATCATGTTTGAGACCTTAAA-3’ and reverse 5’-CATCTTTGCTGGAAGTTCGA-3’, TNF-α gene forward 5’-CCTCTCTTAACTAGCCCTCTG-3’ and reverse 5’-GAGGACCCTGGGAGTAGATGAG-3’, IL-1β gene forward 5’-CCAGGGAGATTGAGGAGC-3’ and reverse 5’-TTCAACAGCGAGGAGTACG-3’, and IL-6 gene forward 5’-AAAGCCAGA GCTGTGACATGACTA-3’ and reverse 5’-TGTCCCTGCAGCCACTGT-3’.

2.5. Transwell Assay. BV-2 cells (2 × 10⁴) were seeded in the inserts of transwells (Corning Costar Corp., Cambridge, MA, USA, 8.0 μm pore size), and the insert was transferred into a well with PC12 cells seeded in the lower chamber. PC12 cells were treated with or without Aβ, and the transwell system was incubated for 24 h in 5% CO₂ at 37°C. BV-2 cells that migrated to the lower surface were stained with gentian violet. Images were taken from four random fields at 40x magnification. The number of BV-2 cells on the lower surface of the insert was quantified. The experiments were repeated at least three times.

2.6. Plasmid Transfection. BV-2 cells were replated 24 h before transfection in 2 mL of fresh culture medium in a 6-well plastic plate. Plasmids were transfected when the cell density reached 70-80% by Lipofectamine 3000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Before transfection, DMEM was removed, and Opti-MEM media were used instead. BV-2 cells were transfected with 2500 ng/well of the pcLenR-GPH vector carrying shRNA against REST (bio-link, Shanghai, China). Alternatively, the mock plasmid pcLenR-GPH (bio-link, Shanghai, China) was used as a control instead of the sh-REST plasmid. Six hours after transfection, Opti-MEM media were removed and BV-2 cells were cultured for 48 h in DMEM before collecting for further Western blotting or qPCR. The specific primer pairs were as follows: forward: 5’-GATCCGGTAACCTCTTCTTGAGTGTGTTCC TTCAGAGAGCTTGGTTG-3’ and reverse 5’-AATTCA AAAAGCAACGCTTCTGAAAGGAAACACTGACAGGA AGTGTTCCTTTCAAGGCCTTGGGA-3’.

2.7. Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA). Proinflammation cytokine TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 levels of cellular supernatant were measured with commercial mouse ELISA kits according to the manufacturer’s instructions (eBioscience Inc., CA, USA). The concentration of target proteins was indexed by absorbance measured at 450 nm.

2.8. Statistical Analyses. Results were expressed as the mean ± standard deviations (SD). Student’s t-test was used for
the determination of statistical significance among groups. The level of statistical significance was $P < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ Induced BV-2 Cell Activation. We investigated the effect of synthetic $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ on BV-2 cell proliferation using the CCK8 assay. BV-2 cells were treated with different concentrations of synthetic $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ (0-5 μM) for 24 and 48 hours. When BV-2 cells were treated for 24 h, 1 or 2.5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ did not induce cell proliferation while 5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ promoted cell proliferation significantly ($P < 0.05$). When BV-2 cells were treated with $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ for 48 h, 1 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ did not induce cell proliferation while 2.5 and 5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ both promote cell proliferation significantly ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.05$) (Figure 1(a)).

In addition to cell proliferation, morphological changes were observed in BV-2 cells treated with $\text{A} \beta_1-42$. As shown in Figure 2(b), in the control group, BV-2 cells presented oval or round with short branches. When treated with 1 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$, short branches of BV-2 cells prolonged and the cell body enlarged. When treated with 2.5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$, BV-2 cell branches further extended appearing amebic morphology with extended pseudopodia (Figure 1(b)). When treated with 5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$, amebic cell proportions were increased (Figure 1(c)).

After BV-2 cells were treated with $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ for 24 h, Western blotting was used to analyze the changes of MHC II and Arg1 protein levels which represent different activation phenotypes of microglia. MHC II was upregulated in a concentration-dependent manner while Arg1 was downregulated (Figures 1(d) and 1(e)) indicating that BV-2 cells demonstrated an acute M1-like response to $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ after 24 hours’ treatments.

3.2. $\text{A} \beta$ Induced REST Expression and Nuclear Translocalization. REST expression was analyzed by Western blotting and qPCR after 24 hours of treatment with 0, 1, 2.5, and 5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$. The results showed that compared with the control group, both the REST protein level and mRNA level of the $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ treatment group increased gradually with the increase of $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ concentration (Figures 2(a) and 2(b)). Consistent with the total REST protein level, intranuclear distribution of REST protein increased significantly with the increase of $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ concentration, indicating that $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ could promote REST nuclear translocalization (Figure 2(c)).

3.3. REST Repressed $\text{A} \beta$-Induced BV-2 Cell Proliferation. To study the effect of REST on cell proliferation, a specific short hairpin RNA (sh-RNA) was used to knock down the REST gene in BV-2 cells confirmed by Western blotting and qPCR. As shown in Figures 3(a) and 3(b), REST was downregulated for about 75% compared with the control group. Then, we treated BV-2 cells with $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ for 24 hours and detected the proliferation of BV-2 cells by a CCK8 kit. The results showed that cell proliferation in the control group was similar to that in Figure 1(a) that the cell proliferation increased in a concentration-dependent manner with statistical difference at 5 μM. And compared with the control group, $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ induced a marked increase in cell proliferation in the REST-knockdown group, indicating that REST may repress $\text{A} \beta$-induced BV-2 cell proliferation (Figure 3(c)).

3.4. REST Repressed BV-2 Cell Migration. As the main innate immune cells in the brain, microglia always detect the changes in the surrounding environment through continuous contraction and extension [17]. When there are adverse factors to activate microglia, chemokines in the microenvironment can promote the migration of microglia to lesions [18–20]. The migration ability of glial cells plays a major role in the function of microglia. In order to study the effect of REST on cell migration, BV-2 cell migration was tested by the transwell assay while REST was knocked down by sh-RNA in the experimental group. PC12 cells were inoculated in the lower chamber of the transwell system and treated with 5 μM $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ while BV-2 cells were inoculated in the upper chamber. Results are shown in Figure 3(d) that compared with the control group, migration of BV-2 cells with REST low expression was increased significantly ($P < 0.001$, $P < 0.001$) regardless of whether the PC12 cells in the lower chamber were treated with $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ or not, suggesting that REST may function as a repressor of BV-2 cell migration.

3.5. REST Repressed the Expression and Secretion of Proinflammatory Cytokines. As a chronic and progressive disease, AD is characterized by neuroinflammation throughout the disease. Expression of inflammatory cytokines is a major feature of AD [21]. To evaluate inflammation cytokine gene expression changes induced by $\text{A} \beta_1-42$, qPCR was used to analyze mRNA levels of proinflammatory cytokines in BV-2 cells. Results are shown in Figure 4(a) that $\beta_1-42$ promoted proinflammatory cytokine TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 expression. As shown in Figure 4(a) that with the increase of concentration of $\text{A} \beta_1-42$, the TNF-α mRNA level was induced; upregulation was statistically significant when concentration of $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ reached 5 μM ($P < 0.01$). The mRNA levels of IL-1β in the three $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ treatment groups were significantly higher than those in the control group ($P < 0.01$, $P < 0.001$, and $P < 0.01$). So was IL-6 that the mRNA levels of IL-6 in the three $\text{A} \beta_1-42$ treatment groups were significantly higher than those in the control group ($P < 0.05$, $P < 0.05$, and $P < 0.01$).

When REST gene was knocked down, proinflammatory cytokine TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 mRNA levels were significantly upregulated compared with the control group (Figure 4(b)). And ELISA analysis showed that downexpression of REST gene leads to significant upregulation of proinflammation cytokines TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 secreted to cell supernatant (Figure 4(c)). These observations suggest that REST may repress the expression and secretion of proinflammatory cytokines TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6.

4. Discussion

Alzheimer’s disease is a common neurodegenerative disease and the most common type of senile dementia, whose main symptoms are progressive cognitive decline and memory loss. Extracellular beta-amyloid ($\text{A} \beta$) plaques and
Figure 1: Aβ1-42 induced BV-2 cell activation. (a) Aβ1-42 promotes BV-2 cell proliferation. The proliferation of BV-2 cells increased with the increase of Aβ1-42 treatment time and concentration. Both 24 h and 48 h treatment of Aβ1-42 could induce the proliferation of BV-2 cells. Only 5 μM Aβ1-42 induced BV-2 cell proliferation significantly at the treatment time of 24 h, while both 2.5 μM and 5 μM could promote BV-2 cell proliferation at the treatment time of 48 h. (b) Aβ1-42 induced morphological changes in BV-2 cells. Under the action of Aβ1-42, BV-2 cells presented shortening of the processes and swelling of the soma. (c) Quantitative statistics of the increase of ameba-like cell proportion under treatment of Aβ1-42. (d, e) Under the treatment of Aβ1-42, MHC II protein levels were upregulated while Arg1 was downregulated with the increase of concentration of Aβ1-42. *P < 0.05 vs. control; ***P < 0.001 vs. control.

Figure 2: Aβ induced REST expression and nuclear translocalization. (a, b) Under the treatment of Aβ1-42, both the REST protein level and the mRNA level were upregulated. (c) With the increase of concentration of Aβ1-42, intranuclear distribution of REST protein increased. ***P < 0.001 vs. control.
intracellular neurofibrillary tangles in the brain are two classical pathological features of AD. With the gradual deepening of the understanding of the toxicity of Aβ, Hardy and Higgins put forward the "Aβ theory" of the etiology of AD in the 1990s, which suggests that the central mechanism of AD is the corresponding neurotoxicity caused by abnormal deposition of Aβ in the brain and has a profound impact on the later research [22]. Besides Aβ toxicity, scientists also noticed that there was obvious microglia proliferation in the brain of AD patients and extensive activation of microglia in AD [23, 24]. The proliferation and activation of microglia were found to have important effects on the course of AD [5]. In this study, BV-2 cells treated with synthetic Aβ1-42 presented obvious proliferation and activation. Active BV-2 cells presented shortening of the processes and swelling of the soma, as well as activation phenotype marker alteration. Arginase 1 (Arg1) which has inhibitory effect on microglia activation due to its ability to decompose arginine which was necessary for microglia activation was significantly downregulated by the stimulation of Aβ1-42, suggesting that Aβ1-42 can promote type I activation of microglia but inhibit type II activation.

**Figure 3:** Knockdown of REST by short hairpin RNA increased Aβ1-42-induced BV-2 cell proliferation and migration. (a, b) REST gene was knocked down by short hairpin RNA about 75% at the mRNA level and 50% at the protein level. (c) Knockdown REST gene by short hairpin RNA promoted Aβ1-42-induced cell proliferation. (d, e) When PC12 cells were inoculated in the lower chamber of the transwell system, knockdown REST gene promotes BV-2 cell migration in the upper chamber no matter if PC12 cells were treated with Aβ1-42 or not. *P < 0.05 vs. control, **P < 0.01 vs. control, and ***P < 0.001 vs. control.
Microglia, the innate immune cells in the brain, have been constantly moving to detect the changes of the microenvironment in the brain and play a role as a guardian of the brain tissue. In the course of AD, microglia play an important role in microglia. The function of repressing migration of microglia is of great importance to microglia. In this study, PC12 cells were used as an alternative of neurons to coculture with BV-2 cells, which was observed to play an important role in microglia. Previous studies have revealed that Aβ can promote microglia migration. And in this study, when PC12 cells in the lower chamber were treated with Aβ1-42, BV-2 cells migrate more than the control group, indicating that PC12 cells suffering from Aβ1-42 can promote BV-2 cell migration. That is, both Aβ1-42 and PC12 suffering from Aβ1-42 can promote BV-2 cell migration. In this study, knocking down REST promoted the migration of BV-2 cells no matter if PC12 cells in the lower chamber were treated with Aβ1-42, suggesting that REST has the function of inhibiting migration of BV-2 cells. In AD brains, microglia are often found near Aβ plaques [5, 27]. One explanation might be that microglia and neurons stimulated by Aβ release chemokines to recruit microglia or macrophages in the blood while the REST is upregulated as a result of Aβ neurotoxicity in the recruited microglia or macrophages, which limit the migration of microglia in turn. Thus, microglia stay around the Aβ plate limiting the spread of senile plaque. In addition, chronic monocyte transmigration could also result in subtle damage to the blood-brain barrier (BBB) [28]; the function of repressing migration of microglia has a protective effect on the blood-brain barrier (BBB) to some extent.

As a chronic and progressive disease, chronic neuroinflammatory response exists throughout the course of AD [29–31]. In this study, the expression of TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 increased significantly in Aβ1-42-treated BV-2 cells. Long-term sustained inflammatory factors can damage the brain and strengthen synaptic degeneration and neuronal apoptosis [32]. In this study, knocking down REST can promote the expression and secretion of proinflammatory cytokines TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 suggesting that REST may play a protective role in the course of AD by inhibiting the expression and secretion of inflammatory factors.  

5. Conclusions

Our findings raise the possibility that Aβ-induced REST expression in microglia has a protective effect of repressing microglia activation including cell proliferation, migration, and inflammation cytokine secretion.

Data Availability

The data used to support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
**Authors’ Contributions**

Tongya Yu, Hui Quan, and Yuzhen Xu are co-first authors of the article, and they contributed equally to this work.

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