



kinds of mental ingredients (Gold, Silver and Copper etc.). The clinical effects of RNSP were focused on the components from plants including crocin from saffron and glycyrrhetic acid from *glycyrrhiza uralensis* [15,16]. The possible mechanisms of RNSP are considered by the antioxidant effects of crocin (Figure 1A) [17,18] and anti-inflammatory effects of glycyrrhetic acid (Figure 1B) [19,20]. In previous studies, we have shown that RNSP improves the learning and memory and reduces  $\beta$ -amyloid (A $\beta$ ) protein levels in mouse AD models [21,22]. Furthermore, RNSP was also found to improve the cognitive function and decrease the serum levels of A $\beta$ 42 and pro-inflammatory mediators in mild-to-moderate AD patients, who living at high altitude. These

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findings suggest the utility of RNSP in clinical applications for AD [23]. However, the molecular mechanisms of the effects need to be clarified.

Our current findings concerning the neuroprotective effects of RNSP encouraged us to investigate further targets of RNSP [24]. In this study, we examined the effects of RNSP on microglia and its molecular mechanisms using MG6 microglia under Hypoxia/Reoxygenation (H/R) conditions.

## Materials and Methods

### Reagents

RNSP (Zhunzi Z63020062) was purchased from Qinghai Jinke Tibetan Medicine Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd. (Xining, China). In order to eliminate the interference caused by the methanol solvent, a suitable methanol concentration for cell culture was titrated. Antibodies against mouse anti-phospho-I $\kappa$ B $\alpha$ , rabbit anti-I $\kappa$ B $\beta$ , mouse antiphospho-p65, P65 antibody and 8-oxo-dG antibody were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA, USA).

### Microglia cell culture

The MG6 cell line (Riken Cell Bank, Tsukuba, Japan) was cultured in DMEM supplemented with 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY, USA), 100  $\mu$ mol/L  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol, 4500 mg/L glucose (Invitrogen), 10  $\mu$ g/mL of insulin, and 10% FBS according to previously described methods.

### Assays for cell viability

H 6 h/R 1 h stimulation in presence or absence of RNSP pre-treatment. They were then incubated with mouse anti-p65 (1:500) or mouse anti-8-oxo-dG (1:500) overnight at 4°C. The sections were incubated with donkey anti-mouse Alexa 488 (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch, West Grove, PA, USA) after washing by PBS followed by Hoechst (1:200) and mounted in Vectashield anti-fading medium (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA). Images were obtained using a confocal laser-scanning microscope (CLSM; 2si Confocal Laser Microscope, Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). The line plot profile and fluorescence intensity were analyzed using the Image J software program.

### **Statistical analyses**

Five independent experiments and statistical analysis used (One-way ANOVA with a post hoc Tukey's test and a two-tailed unpaired



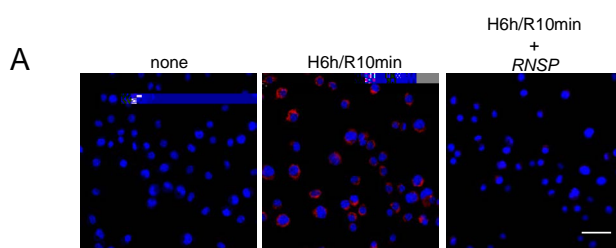
### Effects of RNSP on the H/R-induced oxidative stress in microglia

Our previous study showed that hypoxia-induced mitochondrial oxidant generation was involved in oxidative stress in microglia [14]. These observations prompted us to examine the effects of RNSP on H/R-induced oxidative stress in microglia using two approaches: MitoSOX Red probe was used to examine mitochondria-derived ROS generation [25] and immunofluorescence imaging for 8-oxo-dG was to examine the DNA oxidation [26]. Compared to the untreated MG6 microglia, the immunofluorescence intensity of MitoSOX Red was significantly increased in MG6 microglia at H/R10 min (Figures 5A and 5B), suggesting the ROS under H/R conditions were derived from mitochondria. Pretreatment with RNSP (10  $\mu$ g/mL) significantly inhibited the mean fluorescent intensity of MitoSOX Red in microglia at H/R 10 min (Figures 5A and 5B), thus suggesting the early antioxidant effects of RNSP on microglia. Immunofluorescence imaging showed 8-oxo-dG was significantly increased comparing to the cells without exposure to H/R 1 h (\*\* $p < 0.001$ ). The H/R-induced NO production in microglia was further examined. Compared to the untreated MG6

cells, the mean levels of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were significantly increased from H/R 5 min to H/R 24 h in the culture medium of MG6 cells, and pretreatment with RNSP (10  $\mu$ g/mL) markedly inhibited the mean levels of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> at H/R 24 h in MG6 cells (Figures 5C-5E). These findings confirm that RNSP inhibits the H/R-induced oxidative stress in microglia.

### Effects of RNSP on the H/R-induced NF- $\kappa$ B activation in microglia

Finally, the effects of RNSP on the activation of NF- $\kappa$ B during H/R exposure were examined, as NF- $\kappa$ B regulates most of inflammatory molecules. Compared with the untreated cells, the phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B in MG6 microglia was significantly increased from H/R 15 min to H/R 30 min and gradually recovered to the base levels at H/R 2 h (Figure 6A). Pretreatment with RNSP (10  $\mu$ g/mL) significantly inhibited the H/R-induced phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B in microglia (Figure 6B and 6C). Furthermore, p65 nuclear translocation was induced in MG6 microglia at H/R 60 min, and pretreatment with RNSP (10  $\mu$ g/mL) significantly inhibited the H/R-induced p65 nuclear translocation in



B Inhibitory effect of RNSP on H/R-induced ROS, DNA

C

microglia (Figure 6D). These findings confirm that RNSP suppresses the H/R-induced NF- $\kappa$ B activation in microglia.

## Discussion

The present study indicates that RNSP protects against H/R-induced cytotoxicity and regulates the H/R-induced inflammatory responses in MG6 microglia by reducing the oxidative stress and NF- $\kappa$ B activation (summarized in Figure 6). It is first to describe the principle molecular mechanisms underlying the clinical benefits of RNSP in AD patients. Oxidative stress was proved to damage the cellular components, including DNA, resulting in subsequent cell death [27]. Present observations found the intensity of MitoSOX Red, a marker for mitochondria-derived ROS generation, increased as quickly as at H/R 10 min, which involved 10 min of reoxygenation after hypoxia, and the fluorescent intensity of 8-oxo-dG, a biomarker for oxidative stress-damaged DNA [26] was significantly increased from H/R 1 h, which involved 1 h of reoxygenation after hypoxia in the MG6 microglia. These findings indicated that mitochondria are the origin of ROS generation, thus inducing oxidative stress in microglia. In addition, the increased levels of NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which are metabolic agents for NO production, persisted through H/R 24 h, indicating the continuative ROS overproduction due to oxidative stress in microglia under H/R conditions. Of note, pretreatment with RNSP significantly inhibited the H/R-induced mitochondrial ROS generation, 8-oxo-dG expression and NO production (Figure 5), resulting in the protection against subsequent cell death in microglia (Figure 2). It is indicated that RNSP was able to reduce oxidative stress in microglia (Figure 7).

Therefore, the clinical effects of RNSP on improving the cognitive functions in mild-to-moderate AD patients living at high altitude may be due to a reduction in oxidative stress [23]. NF- $\kappa$ B activation is rapidly and transiently induced by oxidative stress [28]. In the present study,

phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B in MG6 was detected after H/R 15 min, and p65 nuclear translocation was induced at H/R 60 min, which suggests that NF- $\kappa$ B activation is associated with an increased intracellular redox state during H/R 60 min [29]. NF- $\kappa$ B activation polarizes microglia into the neurotoxic phenotype, as NF- $\kappa$ B is a transcription factor that encodes the genes of the pro-inflammatory (neurotoxic) mediators, such as IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and iNOS [30]. In the present study, the increased expression of neurotoxic mediators (IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and iNOS) paralleled the decreased expression of neuroprotective (anti-inflammatory) mediators (arginase-1 and IL-10) at H/R 24 h in MG6 microglia, indicating that microglia are shifted to the neurotoxic phenotype at the later phases under H/R conditions. Indeed, the lasting expression of neurotoxic mediators establishes a feedforward loop for NF- $\kappa$ B activation, as pro-inflammatory mediators such as IL-1 $\beta$  promote NF- $\kappa$ B activation [31]. Pretreatment with RNSP significantly decreases the H/R-induced NF- $\kappa$ B activation and the expression of pro-inflammatory mediators but reverses the H/R-decreased expression of the anti-inflammatory mediator TGF- $\beta$ 1 in microglia (Figures 3-6), suggesting that RNSP may be able to ameliorate the microglia-mediated neuroinflammation and shift activated microglia to neuroprotective phenotypes. The effects of RNSP on ameliorating microglia-mediated neuroinflammation and neuroprotection are further supported by the results of the present study.

requires oxygen, which is largely dependent on the cerebral blood flow [36,37], and the cerebral blood flow is slowed with aging and further decreased in AD patients [38,39]. This low cerebral oxygen availability results in more cognitive defects [40]. Therefore, chronic hypoxia may contribute to the cognitive decline in aging individuals as well as AD patients [40,41]. The microglial proliferation and activation associated with neuronal loss could be histologically observed in human AD brain [9,32]. It is well known that hypoxia activated microglia induce neuronal death by producing IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$  as well as IL-6 [2,6,9]. And hypoxia shifts microglia into neurotoxic phenotype in ROS-dependent [14]. In the present cultured cell study, we give the first evidence that RNSP inhibiting the H/R induced productions of ROS and neurotoxic mediators in microglia, thus demonstrate the anti-inflammation and antioxidant effects of RNSP on microglia. Taking together with the effects on mitigating microglia-related neuroinflammation and the directly neuroprotective effects on neurons [24], RNSP could be used to prevent or treat for delaying pathophysiology of AD and other neurodegenerative diseases. These findings along with the observation of the direct roles of RNSP in neuroprotection and microglia regulation prove the clinical benefits of RNSP in the prevention and management of AD [23].

## Conclusion

The present study provides the first evidence of the potential protective effects of RNSP on the hypoxia-related neuroinflammatory responses in microglia. These effects were dependent on reducing the oxidative stress and NF- $\kappa$ B activation, highlighting a new molecular target for RNSP in the clinical intervention of AD.

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