Dual effect of oxidative stress on NF-κB activation in HeLa cells

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Abbreviations: ROS, reactive oxygen species; IKK, $I\kappa B$ kinase; TNF, tumor necrosis factor; IL-1, interleukin-1; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; HA, hemagglutinin; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; EMSA, electrophoretic mobility shift assay.

Abstract

Reactive oxygen species (ROS) has been implicated as an inducer of NF-kB activity in numbers of cell types where exposure of cells to ROS such as H₂O₂ leads to NF-κB activation. In contrast, exposure to oxidative stress in certain cell types induced reduction of tumor necrosis factor (TNF)induced NF-kB activation. And various thiol-modifying agents including gold compounds and cyclopentenone prostaglandins inhibit NF-κB activation by blocking lkB kinase (IKK). To understand such conflicting effect of oxidative stress on NFκB activation, HeLa cells were incubated with H₂O₂ or diamide and TNF-induced expression of NF-κB reporter gene was measured. NF-κB activation was significantly blocked by these oxidizing agents, and the inhibition was accompanied with reduced nuclear NF-kB and inappropriate cytosolic IkB degradation. H2O2 and diamide also inhibited IKK activation in HeLa and RAW 264.7 cells stimulated with TNF and lipopolysaccharide, respectively, and directly blocked IKK activity in vitro. In cells treated with H2O2 alone, nuclear NF-κB was induced after 2 h without detectible degradation of cytosolic $l\kappa B\alpha$ or activation of IKK. Our results suggest that ROS has a dual effect on NF-κB activation in the same HeLa cells: it inhibits acute IKK-mediated NF-kB activation induced by inflammatory signals, while longer-term exposure to ROS induces NF-κB activity through an IKK-independent pathway.

Keywords: NF-κB, oxidative stress, hydrogen peroxide, diamide, protein kinases, oxidation-reduction

Introduction

Modulation of proteins and enzyme activities by cellular reduction/oxidation (redox) status is one of the major mechanisms that cells employ to overcome oxidative stress. Although intracellular redox balance is tightly controlled in most cell types, it can be altered by reactive oxygen species (ROS) produced by environmental toxins or in pathologic conditions such as chronic inflammatory diseases and ischemia-reperfusion injury (Halliwell and Gutteridge, 1999). Exposure of cells to oxidative stress can induce alterations in various signal transduction cascades that lead to changes in the activity of related transcription factors (Adler *et al.*, 1999; Thannickal and Fanburg, 2000).

The transcription factor NF-κB regulates expression of a wide range of cellular and viral genes and plays important roles in immune and inflammatory responses (Baeuerle and Henkel, 1994). In resting cells, NF-κB proteins are sequestered in the cytosol through interaction with a class of inhibitory proteins called $I\kappa Bs$ ($I\kappa B\alpha$, β , and ϵ). In response to proinflammatory cytokines such as tumor necrosis factor (TNF) and interleukin-1 (IL-1), bacterial lipopolysaccharide (LPS), or viral double-stranded RNA, the IκBs are rapidly phosphorylated at two specific serine residues located at their N-terminal regions. Phosphorylated IkBs then undergo ubiquitination and proteolysis by the 26S proteasome, resulting in release and translocation of NF-κB to the nucleus to induce expression of specific target genes. In the signal pathway for NF-κB activation, phosphorylation of IkBs is likely to be the central point of regulation at which signals from diverse stimuli converge (Barnes and Karin, 1997; May and Ghosh, 1998). Previous studies have identified an IkB kinase (IKK) complex with a molecular mass of 500-900 kDa, which is induced by inflammatory signals and able to phosphorylate the N-terminal serine residues of $I\kappa B\alpha$ and $I\kappa B\beta$ involved in NF- $\!\kappa B$ activation in vivo (Chen et al., 1996; DiDonato et al., 1997). Two subunits of IKK, called IKK α (or IKK1) and IKK β (IKK2), were shown to play a catalytic role in IκB phosphorylation (DiDonato et al., 1997; Mercurio et al., 1997; Regnier et al., 1997; Woronicz et al., 1997; Zandi et al., 1997), whereas another subunit IKKy/ NE MO/IKKAP1 is regulatory and involved in transmission of upstream signals to IKK α and IKK β (Yamaoka et al., 1998; Rothwarf et al., 1998; Mercurio et al., 1999).

It has been suggested that intracellular ROS levels regulate NF-κB activation, in that H₂O₂ can induce NF-κB activation in lymphocytes and monocytes (Schreck et al., 1991; Meyer et al., 1993; Manna et al., 1998). In these cells, NF-κB activation by diverse signals such as TNF, IL-1, LPS, and phorbol esters was inhibited by various structurally unrelated antioxidants (Schreck et al., 1992), and by overexpression of antioxidant enzymes (Schreck et al., 1991; Kretz-Remy et al., 1996; Jin et al, 1997; Manna et al., 1998). Many NF-κB-activating signals also induce increase of intracellular ROS levels, further supporting the involvement of ROS in the pathway for NF-κB activation (Schreck et al., 1992). Although molecular mechanisms involved in ROS-induced NF-kB activation is still largely unknown, recent studies with lymphocytes exposed to oxidative stress suggested that NF-kB is activated through a pathway that involves phosphorylation of Tyr-42 on $I\kappa B\alpha$ instead of IKK-mediated serine phosphorylation (Koong et al., 1994; Imbert et al., 1996; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2000; Schoonbroodt et al., 2000). These results suggest that a shift in the cellular redox equilibrium to an oxidized state accompanies and promotes NF-κB activation through an IKKindependent mode in certain types of cells. However, it was also shown that pre-exposure of various types of cells to H₂O₂ or thiol-oxidizing agents, including phenylarsine oxide, pervanadate, and diamide, suppressed TNF-induced NF-kB activation and blocked phosphorylation and degradation of $l\kappa B\alpha$ (Singh *et al.*, 1996; Lahdenpohja et al., 1998; Zahler et al., 2000). Our previous study showed that thiol-binding metal compounds such as gold, zinc, and copper inhibit NFκB activation in LPS-stimulated macrophages by blocking $I\kappa B\alpha$ degradation and IKK activation (Jeon et al., 2000). In vitro IKK activity was also suppressed by these metal compounds as well as other thiol-reactive agents, and required the presence of reducing agent dithiothreitol in the reaction mixture. Recently other thiol-reactive compounds such as cyclopentenone prostaglandins (prostaglandin A_1 and 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂), arsenite, and lipid peroxidation product, 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal, were also shown to inhibit NFκB and IKK activation in cells stimulated with TNF, IL-1, or phorbol esters (Kapahi et al., 2000; Rossi et al., 2000; Straus et al., 2000; Ji et al., 2001). Experiments with mutant IKK protein showed that cyclopentenone prostaglandins and arsenite block IKK activity by covalently modifying Cys-179 on the activation loop of IKKβ (Kapahi et al., 2000; Rossi et al., 2000). Taken together, these observations suggest that oxidative stress has opposite effects on NF-κB activity depending on the signaling pathway employed for NF-κB activation.

Here we examined the effect of an oxidative stress

elicited by addition of exogenous H2O2 and thiol-oxidizing agent diamide on NF-κB activation in TNFstimulated HeLa cells. Our results show that both agents suppressed TNF-induced NF-κB transcriptional activity, increase of nuclear NF-kB, and degradation of cytosolic IκBα. H₂O₂ and diamide also inhibited IKK activation in TNF-stimulated HeLa cells, and preincubation with these oxidizing agents suppressed IKK activity in vitro. In cells treated with H2O2 alone, nuclear NF-kB was induced after 2 h without detectible degradation of $I\kappa B\alpha$ or IKK activation. Our data imply that oxidative stress suppresses NF-κB activation in TNF-stimulated HeLa cells by blocking IKK activity, while H₂O₂ on its own induces NF-κB activity through an IKK-independent mechanism.

Materials and Methods

Materials

Antibodies to $I\kappa B\alpha$ (C-21), p65/RelA (SC-109), IKK (M-280), IKK (H-4), and hemagglutinin (HA) tag (Y-11) were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). Anti-Flag (M2) and anti-β-actin antibodies were from Stratagene (La Jolla, CA) and Sigma (St. Louis, MO), respectively. H₂O₂ was purchased from Junsei Chemical (Tokyo, Japan) and diluted to a 400 mM stock before use. Diamide was from Sigma and dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at a 1 M stock. Recombinant GST-I κ B α containing N-terminal 54 residues of $I\kappa B\alpha$ and recombinant human TNF were prepared by expression in Escherichia coli as described previously (Jeon et al., 2000). HeLa human epithelial cells and RAW 264.7 murine macrophages were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (ATCC, Manassa, MD). HeLa cells were grown and maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal calf serum, penicillin (100 U/ml) and streptomycin (100 µg/ml). RAW 264.7 cells were grown in the RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 5% fetal calf serum, 20 mM Hepes and gentamicin (50 $\mu g/mI$).

NF-κB reporter gene assay

A reporter plasmid IgκB-Luc containing a κB sequence upstream of a minimal interleukin-8 promoter and a luciferase gene was kindly provided by Dr. T. H. Lee (Yonsei University, Seoul, Korea). HeLa cells grown in a 12-well culture plate $(2 \times 10^5 \text{ cells/well})$ were transfected with 120 ng of IgkB-Luc, together with 200 ng of β -actin promoter-driven β -galactosidase expression plasmid. Transfected cells were incubated in the presence or absence of oxidizing agents and stimulated with TNF (10 ng/ml). After 4 h, the cells were washed with PBS and lysed in reporter lysis buffer (Promega, Madison, WI) by freezing and thawing. Luciferase assays were performed with a luminometer (Turner Designs, Sunnyvale, CA), and activity was normalized to β -galactosidase activity.

Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) and immunoblot analysis

Nuclear and cytoplasmic extracts were prepared from HeLa cells as described previously (Jeong and Jue, 1997). The oligonucleotide containing consensus recognition sequence for NF- κ B or C/EBP were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology, and end-labeled with T4 polynucleotide kinase and [γ - 32 P]ATP. Binding reaction was performed with 5 μ g of nuclear extract as described (Jeong and Jue, 1997) and the reaction products were analyzed by electrophoresis on a 4% polyacrylamide gel in 0.25 \times TBE buffer (22.5 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.5, 22.5 mM borate, 0.5 mM EDTA). Immunoblot analyses of $l\kappa$ Ba and other proteins were performed with corresponding antibodies and visualized by ECL detection kit (Amersham, Buckinghamshire, UK) (Jeong and Jue, 2000).

In vitro IKK assay

HeLa and RAW 264.7 cells grown in 100-mm plates were treated with various agents and washed 3 times with ice-cold PBS containing 1 mM Na₃VO₄, and 5 mM EDTA. The cells were scraped and suspended in lysis buffer (0.75 ml) containing 20 mM Tris-HCl. 0.5 M NaCl, 0.25% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 10 mM β-glycerophosphate, 10 mM NaF, 10 mM 4-nitrophenylphosphate, 300 μM Na₃VO₄, 1 mM benzamidine, 2 µM PMSF, complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany), and 1 mM dithiothreitol (Jeon et al., 2000). After incubation for 20 min on ice, the lysate was cleared by centrifugation at 20,000 g for 15 min. The supernatant fraction was analyzed for protein with bicinchoninic acid reagent (Pierce, Rockford, IL). An aliquot (120 µg protein) of the lysate was immunoprecipitated with anti-IKK α antibody. In vitro kinase assay was performed with immune complexes and bacterially synthesized GST-I κ B α proteins (1 µg) in 15 µl of kinase buffer containing 20 mM Hepes (pH 7.7), 2 mM MgCl₂, 2 mM MnCl₂, 10 μ M ATP, 1-5 μ Ci of $[\gamma^{-32}P]$ ATP, 10 mM β glycerophosphate, 10 mM NaF, 300 µM Na₃VO₄, 1 mM benzamidine, 2 μM PMSF, complete EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail, and 1 mM dithiothreitol at 30°C for 30-60 min. Samples were analyzed by 12.5% SDS-PAGE and autoradiography. Phosphorylation of GST-IκBα was quantitated in a phosphorimage analyzer (BAS-2500, Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan).

Results

Inhibition of TNF-induced NF- κB activation by H_2O_2 and diamide

To determine the effect of oxidative stress on TNFinduced NF-κB activation, we measured expression of NF-κB reporter gene in HeLa cells treated with H₂O₂ and diamide (Figure 1). TNF induced about 6-fold increase of reporter gene expression, whereas incubation of cells with oxidizing agents resulted in a dosedependent suppression of NF-kB activation. The inhibition was observed at 0.1 and 0.3 mM concentrations of H₂O₂ and diamide, respectively. In cells treated with 3 mM H₂O₂ or 1 mM diamide, NF-κB activity was completely suppressed in both TNF-stimulated and unstimulated cells. The inhibitory effect of oxidizing agents was also observed when cells were washed after preincubation with oxidizing agents and then stimulated with TNF (data not shown). The expression level of control β-galactosidase was not significantly different between cells incubated in the presence or absence of oxidizing agents, indicating that the decrease of reporter gene expression in cells exposed to oxidative stress was not caused by general cytotoxicity (Figure 1B).

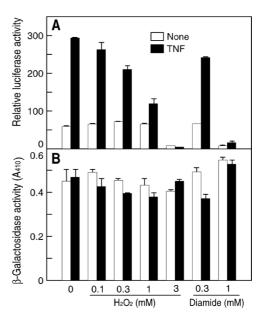


Figure 1. H₂O₂ and diamide inhibit TNF-induced NF-κB reporter gene expression. HeLa cells were cotransfected with NF-κB reporter construct (lgκB-Luc) and control β-galactosidase expression plasmid and incubated for 44 h. The cells were treated with various doses of H₂O₂ or diamide for 10 min, and incubated in the presence (solid bar) or absence (blank bar) of TNF (20 ng/ml) for 4 h before cell lysis. Relative luciferase activity, determined using β-galactosidase activity as a normalizing factor, is shown in (A), and β-galactosidase activity in (B). The data are presented as mean \pm SD of triplicate cultures.

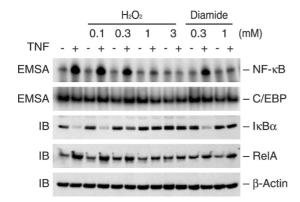


Figure 2. Oxidizing agents block TNF-induced increase in nuclear κB binding activity, while suppressing degradation of cytosolic $I\kappa B\alpha$. HeLa cells were treated with H2O2 or diamide as described in Figure 1, stimulated with TNF for 15 min, and nuclear and cytosolic extracts were prepared. Nuclear extracts were incubated with 32P-labeled NFкВ (first panel) or C/EBP probes (second panel), and analyzed by EMSA. Immunoblotting analysis of p65/RelA in the nuclear extract and $I\kappa B\alpha$ and β -actin in the cytosolic extract was performed with specific antibodies by chemiluminescence reaction. The data represent three experiments.

Since TNF-induced NF-kB activation is known to depend on phosphorylation and degradation of inhibitory IκB proteins and translocation of NF-κB to the nucleus, we tested the effect of oxidizing agents on the level of these proteins in TNF-stimulated HeLa cells. Determination of nuclear kB-binding activity by EMSA showed low level of NF-κB in unstimulated cells, while it was induced remarkably by TNF (Figure 2, first panel). H₂O₂ or diamide suppressed TNF-induced kB-binding activity in a dose-dependent manner. Supershift analysis with specific antibodies demonstrated that the kB-binding protein induced by TNF was heterodimer of p50/NFKB1 and p65/RelA subunits (data not shown). TNF and oxidizing agents did not alter the level of nuclear C/EBP, demonstrating a specific effect of these agents on NF- κB activity (Figure 2, second panel). Immunoblot analysis of nuclear p65/RelA protein also showed suppression of TNF-induced increase of this protein by H₂O₂ or diamide, indicating that the decrease of nuclear kBbinding activity was caused by reduced translocation of NF-κB protein to the nucleus (Figure 2, third panel). The decrease of nuclear NF-κB in cells treated with oxidizing agents was accompanied by reduced degradation of $I\kappa B\alpha$ in the cytosol (Figure 2, fourth panel), while β-actin level remained constant (Figure 2, fifth panel).

Oxidizing agents inhibit signal-induced IKK activation and in vitro IKK activity

Degradation of IκBα protein occurs after signal-induced phosphorylation at specific serine residues by

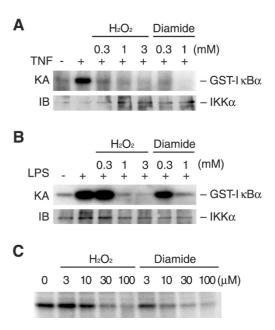


Figure 3. Oxidizing agents inhibit signal-induced IKK activation and in vitro IKK activity. (A) HeLa cells pretreated with various doses of H₂O₂ or diamide for 10 min were incubated in the presence or absence of TNF (20 ng/ml) for 5 min before cell lysis. IKK was immunoprecipitated with anti-IKK α antibody and used in *in vitro* kinase reactions with 1 μ g of GST-I κ B α (aa 1-54) and [γ - 32 P]ATP in a buffer containing 1 mM dithiothreitol. The reaction products were separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred to polyvinylidone fluoride membranes, and subjected to autoradiography. The levels of IKK α in each reaction mixture were determined by immunoblotting analysis with anti-IKK α antibody. (B) RAW 264.7 macrophages were treated with various doses of H₂O₂ or diamide for 10 min and stimulated with LPS (1 µg/ ml) for 15 min. IKK assay and immunoblotting analysis were performed as described in (A). (C) IKK complex was obtained by immunoprecipitation from HeLa cells treated with TNF (20 ng/ml) for 5 min. The immune complex was incubated with various doses of H₂O₂ or diamide for 10 min in kinase buffer without reducing agent. The IKK immune complex was washed once in kinase buffer containing 1 mM dithiothreitol and kinase reactions were conducted. The data represent two experiments.

IKK (Barnes and Karin, 1997; May and Ghosh, 1998). To determine whether H₂O₂ and diamide inhibit signal pathway leading to IKK activation, HeLa cells, with or without pretreatment with oxidizing agents, were stimulated with TNF. The cell lysate was immunoprecipitated with anti-IKK α antibody and incubated with GST-I κ B α and [γ -³²P]ATP to evaluate incorporation of ³²P into the fusion protein. IKK activity was not detected in unstimulated cells, and H2O2 and diamide alone did not induce IKK activation (Figure 3A and data not shown; see also Figure 5). IKK activity was induced in TNF-stimulated cells, and pretreatment of cells with $H_2 O_2$ and diamide inhibited TNF-induced IKK activation. To determine whether these oxidizing agents also block IKK activation induced by other signal in other type of cell, IKK activity was measured in RAW 264.7 macrophages stimulated with LPS.

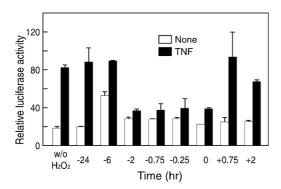


Figure 4. Time-dependent inhibition of TNF-induced NF-κB activation and induction of NF-κB by $H_2O_2.$ HeLa cells were cotransfected with $lg\kappa B$ -Luc and control β -galactosidase expression plasmid and incubated for 48 h. The cells were added with H_2O_2 (1 mM) at the times indicated before or after addition of TNF (20 ng/ml). After incubation in the presence (solid bar) or absence (blank bar) of TNF for 4 h, the cells were lysed and relative luciferase activity was determined using β -galactosidase activity as a normalizing factor. The data shown in the left are obtained from cells incubated in the absence of H_2O_2 (w/o H_2O_2). The data are presented as mean \pm SD of triplicate cultures.

RAW 264.7 cells showed low basal IKK activity even when they were not stimulated, and stimulation of cells with LPS induced significant IKK activity (Figure 3B). Preincubation of cells with H_2O_2 or diamide suppressed LPS-induced IKK activation. Our results demonstrate that oxidizing agents inhibit NF- κ B activation by blocking IKK activation, and their inhibitory effect appears in different signal pathways of IKK activation.

To test whether inhibition of IKK activation by H_2O_2 and diamide occurs through direct inhibition of IKK activity, IKK complex was isolated from TNF-stimulated HeLa cells and incubated with various doses of oxidizing agents for 10 min. The IKK complex was then washed in the kinase buffer containing 1 mM dithiothreitol and kinase activity was measured. Our result shown in Figure 3C revealed that IKK complex isolated from TNF-stimulated HeLa cells was inhibited by both H_2O_2 and diamide in a dose-dependent manner. Inhibitory effect of both oxidizing agents appeared over 3-100 μ M concentration range and higher doses of H_2O_2 and diamide completely blocked IKK activity (data not shown).

H_2O_2 on its own induces NF- κB activation in delayed time

To understand time-dependent effect of oxidative stress on TNF-induced NF- κ B activation, H₂O₂ was added to HeLa cells at different time intervals before or after addition of TNF, and expression of NF- κ B reporter gene was measured 4 h after TNF treatment. Another group of cells was incubated only with H₂O₂

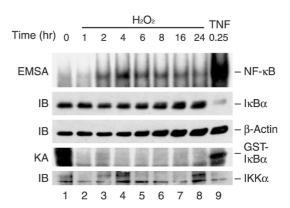


Figure 5. H₂O₂ induces NF-κB activation in the absence of IκBα degradation. HeLa cells were incubated with H₂O₂ (1 mM) (lanes 2-8) or TNF (20 ng/ml) (lane 9) for times indicated and the nuclear and cytosolic extracts were prepared. The nuclear extracts were incubated with ^{32}P -labeled NF-κB probe, and analyzed by EMSA (first panel). The cytosolic extracts were used to measure the levels of IκBα and β-actin by immunoblotting with specific antibodies (second and third panels). IKK was immunoprecipitated with anti-IKKα antibody and used in kinase reactions with GST-IκBα and [γ- ^{32}P] ATP, and phosphorylated GST-IκBα was detected by autoradiography (fourth panel). The levels of IKK in each reaction mixture were determined by immunoblotting analysis with anti-IKKα antibody (fifth panel). The data represent three experiments.

in the absence of TNF stimulation. Suppressive effect of H_2O_2 on TNF-induced NF- κB activation appeared when it was added to the cells simultaneously with TNF or within 2 h before TNF addition (Figure 4). Inhibition of reporter gene expression by H_2O_2 detected was no more detected when the cells were exposed to H_2O_2 for more than 6 h or H_2O_2 was added 45 min after addition of TNF. On the contrary, H_2O_2 on its own induced significant reporter gene expression after 10 h (-6 h in Figure 4), and the level returned to basal level after 28 h (-24 h in Figure 4).

EMSA was performed to determine whether the induction of NF-κB reporter gene in H₂O₂-treated HeLa cells is associated with increase in nuclear κB-binding activity. H₂O₂-induced nuclear κB-binding activity detected after 2 h peaked at 4 h, and then gradually decreased up to 24 h (Figure 5). However, even in cells treated with H_2O_2 for 4 h, the level of NF- κB in the nucleus was far lower than cells induced with TNF for 15 min (compare lane 4 with lane 9 in Figure 5). Immunoblot analysis showed that H₂O₂ did not induce significant degradation of cytosolic $I\kappa B\alpha$, whereas it was degraded almost completely in TNF-treated cells (Figure 5). Control β-actin level was not changed by either H₂O₂ or TNF. IKK activation was also not detected in H₂O₂-treated cells, indicating that H₂O₂induced NF-kB activation is not mediated by IKK activation.

Discussion

In this study, an oxidative stress elicited by addition of H₂O₂ or diamide was found to inhibit NF-κB reporter gene expression in TNF-stimulated HeLa cells. The inhibitory effect of oxidizing agents was associated with suppression of TNF-induced increase in nuclear kB-binding activity and p65/RelA protein, and degradation of cytosolic $I\kappa B\alpha$. At similar concentration ranges, H₂O₂ and diamide also blocked IKK activation in TNF-induced HeLa cells and also in LPS-stimulated macrophages. In previous studies, pre-exposure of Jurkat T cells or endothelial cells to H₂O₂ suppressed TNF-induced activation of NF-κB, and expression of NF-κB-dependent genes by these cells (Lahdenpohja et al., 1998; Zahler et al., 2000). Recently, H2O2 was also shown to inhibit IKK activation in transformed alveolar epithelial cells stimulated with TNF or IL-1β (Korn et al., 2001). These results indicate that oxidizing agents inhibit NF-κB activation by blocking activation of IKK induced by TNF or other inflammatory stimuli. However, when higher doses of H₂O₂ (3 mM) or diamide (1 mM) were added to the cells, basal NF-kB activity in unstimulated cells as well as that induced by TNF was suppressed. The inhibition did not seem to be caused by cytotoxic effect of highdose oxidizing agents, because expression of control β-galactosidase was similar to other cells. Although the underlying mode of suppression of basal NF-κB activity is not clear from our result, it is possible that treatment of cells with excess oxidizing agents leads to inactivation of other mediator of NF-κB-dependent gene expression in addition to IKK. In this regard, it was shown that reduced cysteine residue of p50/ NFKB1 subunit of NF-κB is required for its binding to DNA (Toledano and Leonard, 1991; Matthews et al., 1992; Toledano et al., 1993), and expression of an NF-κB target gene (Hayashi et al., 1993). Oxidation of this cysteine might be responsible for suppression of basal NF-κB activity in cells treated with high doses of H₂O₂ or diamide.

Our result showed that H_2O_2 and diamide inhibit activation of IKK in both TNF-stimulated HeLa cells and LPS-induced RAW 264.7 macrophages, indicating that oxidizing agents target a common step in both signaling pathways for NF-kB activation. When IKK complex purified from TNF-stimulated HeLa cells was incubated with H₂O₂ and diamide, both agents directly blocked enzyme activity. A similar effect of H₂O₂ was shown in a previous study, employing IKK complex isolated from alveolar epithelial cells (Korn et al., 2001). These results suggested that the inhibitory effect of oxidizing agents on IKK induction appears through oxidative inactivation of IKK. In our previous study, in vitro IKK activity was shown to require the presence of reducing agent dithiothreitol in the reac-

tion buffer (Jeon et al., 2000). Moreover, various thiolbinding metal compounds, such as gold, zinc, copper and arsenite, and thiol-modifying agents, including N-ethylmaleimide, p-hydroxymercuribenzoate, cyclopentenone prostaglandins, and 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal, commonly blocked in vitro IKK activity (Jeon et al., 2000; Kapahi et al., 2000; Rossi et al., 2000; Straus et al., 2000; Ji et al., 2001). It is not clear whether all of these thiol-oxidizing and thiol-reactive agents inhibit IKK by modifying the same residue in IKK. However, these results indicate that IKK has a cysteine sulfhydryl group, which is critical for enzyme activity and susceptible to oxidative stress or thiol-reactive agents.

In HeLa cells treated with H₂O₂ alone, nuclear κBbinding activity was induced after 2 h and increased expression of NF-κB reporter gene was detected after 10 h. Several groups have reported that H₂O₂ can induce NF-κB activation in HeLa cells (Meyer et al., 1993; Wang et al., 1998), while it was not confirmed in other study (Li and Karin, 1999), suggesting that other factors such as intracellular redox status is important for H₂O₂-induced NF-κB response. Our result shows that induction of NF-κB occurs at delayed time and the level was much lower compared with that induced by TNF (Figure 5). Moreover, degradation of $I\kappa B\alpha$ and activation of IKK were not detected in H₂O₂-treated cells, while TNF induced both IκBα degradation and IKK activation. In previous studies, H₂O₂induced NF-κB activation in various cell types including endothelial cells and epithelial cells was also shown to occur in the absence of $I\kappa B\alpha$ degradation (Milligan et al., 1998; Canty et al., 1999). These results suggest that oxidative stress in HeLa cells activate NF-κB through an alternative pathway independent of $I\kappa B\alpha$ degradation and IKK activation. In previous studies with Jurkat T cells and U937 cells, NFκB activation after hypoxia-reoxygenation or pervanadate treatment was shown to occur through phosphorylation of IκBα at Tyr-42, instead of phosphorylation at serine residues mediated by IKK (Imbert et al., 1996; Mukhopadhyay et al., 2000). Recently, H₂O₂induced NF-κB activation in murine T lymphocytes was also shown to depend on phosphorylation of Tyr-42, but not on serine residues of $I\kappa B\alpha$ (Schoonbroodt et al., 2000). These results suggest that NF-κB activation in H₂O₂-treated HeLa cells also rely on Tyr-42 phosphorylation of $I\kappa B\alpha$. However, we could not detect increase in IκBα tyrosine phosphorylation in H₂O₂treated HeLa cells, and the signaling pathway for NF-κB activation by oxidizing agents in these cells is not understood (data not shown).

In summary, our results showed a dual effect of oxidative stress on NF-κB activation in HeLa cells. Acute exposure of cells to oxidizing agents inactivates IKK, thus suppressing acute NF-κB activation induced by inflammatory cytokines or bacterial LPS. However, oxidative stress on its own induces NF- κ B activation in delayed time through an IKK-independent mode. These results indicate that ROS produced in various pathologic conditions, such as ischemia-reperfusion and chronic inflammatory diseases, might play a complex role in regulation of NF- κ B-dependent gene expression.

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