

TNF α regulates sugar transporters in the human intestinal epithelial cell line Caco-2

Jaione Barrenetxe¹, Olga Sánchez¹, Ana Barber¹, Sonia Gascón^{2,3}, M^a Jesús Rodríguez-Yoldi^{2,3}, Maria Pilar Lostao¹.

¹Department of Nutrition, Food Science and Physiology. University of Navarra, Pamplona 31008. Spain

²Department of Pharmacology and Physiology. University of Zaragoza, Zaragoza 50013. Spain

³CIBER de Fisiopatología de la Obesidad y Nutrición (CIBERObn), Instituto de Salud Carlos III (ISCIII), Spain.

Address for correspondence: Jaione Barrenetxe, Department of Nutrition, Food Science and Physiology. University of Navarra, Pamplona 31008. Spain. E-mail: jaiobar@unav.es. Telephone: 34- 948 425600. Fax: 34- 948 425740

ABSTRACT

Purpose: During intestinal inflammation TNF α levels are increased and as a consequence malabsorption of nutrients may occur. We have previously demonstrated that TNF α inhibits galactose, fructose and leucine intestinal absorption in animal models. In continuation with our work, the purpose of the present study was to investigate in the human intestinal epithelial cell line Caco-2, the effect of TNF α on sugar transport and to identify the intracellular mechanisms involved.

Methods: Caco-2 cells were grown on culture plates and pre-incubated during different periods with various TNF α concentrations before measuring the apical uptake of galactose, α -methyl-glucoside (MG) or fructose for 15 min. To elucidate the signalling pathway implicated, cells were pre-incubated for 30 min with the PKA inhibitor H-89 or the PKC inhibitor chelerythrine, before measuring the sugar uptake. The expression in the apical membrane of the transporters implicated in the sugars uptake process (SGLT1 and GLUT5) was determined by Western blot.

Results: TNF α inhibited 0.1 mM MG uptake after pre-incubation of the cells for 6-48 h with the cytokine and in the absence of cytokine pre-incubation. In contrast, 5 mM fructose uptake was stimulated by TNF α only after long pre-incubation times (24 and 48 h). These effects were mediated by the binding of the cytokine to its specific receptor TNFR1, present in the apical membrane of the Caco-2 cells. Analysis of the expression of the MG and fructose transporters at the brush border membrane of the cells, after 24 h pre-incubation with the cytokine, revealed decrease on the amount of SGLT1 and increase on the amount of GLUT5 proteins. Short-term inhibition of MG transport by TNF α was not modified by H-89 but was blocked by chelerythrine.

Conclusions: SGLT1 and GLUT5 expression in the plasma membrane is regulated by TNF α in the human epithelial cell line Caco-2 cells, leading to alteration on sugars transport,

suggesting that TNF α could be considered as a physiological local regulator of nutrients absorption in response to an intestinal inflammatory status.

Keywords: Caco-2 cells, GLUT5, PKC, PKA, SGLT1, TNF α .

1. Introduction

The gastrointestinal mucosa constitutes a physical barrier between the external environment and the organism that is permanently exposed to potential antigenic substances. As a result, inflammatory reaction may occur and, if this reaction is not properly controlled by the immune system, chronic inflammation can appear leading to an excess of pro-inflammatory cytokines synthesis, as it happens in inflammatory bowel diseases (IBD), Crohn's disease (CD) and ulcerative colitis (UC) [1]. Among the pro-inflammatory cytokines, TNF α plays a key role in the pathogenesis of IBD [1]. Thus, it has been reported that TNF α concentration can be 400 fold higher in the blood [2] and in the intestine [3] of patients with IBD compared to that of healthy people. TNF α is released in the intestinal mucosa by activated T-cells and macrophages, and is able to act locally and systemically by binding to its receptors, TNFR1 and TNFR2 [4]. As a result, nuclear factor NF- κ B is activated and stimulates the production of other pro-inflammatory cytokines, including TNF α itself, which trigger the immune response [1]. TNF α activates other intracellular signalling pathways which includes the MAPK and c-Jun N-terminal kinases pathways, PKA and PKC [5,6].

IBD patients usually present long malnutrition periods due to a diminished food intake and alterations of the digestion process. In addition, in the intestinal inflammatory state, expression and activity of nutrient and electrolytes transporters may be altered leading to malabsorption and diarrhoea that typically appear in IBD patients [7]. Previous studies from our group performed in rabbits have shown that the i.v. administration of TNF α decreases galactose,

fructose and leucine intestinal transport and the expression of the corresponding transporters in the brush border membrane (BBM) of the enterocytes, with the implication of nitric oxide, PKC, PKA and several MAPKs [5,8,9]. Likewise, in rat everted intestinal rings, TNF α inhibits galactose uptake after short time incubation [10]. Studies performed in Caco-2 cells have also shown that TNF α modifies the transporters implicated in the uptake of serotonin, taurine, iron and peptides [11-14].

The intestinal absorption of glucose and galactose is mainly mediated by the apical sodium-glucose co-transporter SGLT1/SLC5A1 located at the BBM of the enterocytes. Fructose transport occurs through the facilitative transporter GLUT5/SLC2A5 [15]. The three sugars leave the cells via the basolateral transporter GLUT2/SLC2A2, although expression of GLUT5 in the basolateral membrane of human enterocytes has also been documented [16]. After a meal, sugars reach high concentration in the intestinal lumen and in this particular situation, GLUT2 is also transiently expressed in the apical membrane allowing a rapid sugar transport without cell energetic cost [17].

In continuation with our previous studies performed in animal models, the aim of the present work was to study the effect of TNF α on sugar transport in the human intestinal epithelial cell line Caco-2. We have also investigated whether TNF α affects the transporters expression and analyzed the possible implication of PKA and PKC in this effect. The results suggest that TNF α could be considered as a physiological local regulator of sugar absorption in response to intestinal inflammation.

2. Material and Methods

2.1 Chemicals

Human recombinant TNF α (PeproTech Inc. UK) was reconstituted in H₂O at a concentration of 100 mg/ml following the manufacturer's indications. Dulbecco's Modified Eagles medium (DMEM) and supplements were purchased from Gibco BRL (Paisley, UK). [¹⁴C]- α -

methylglucoside (313 mCi/mmol) was from GE Healthcare (LittleChaldfont, UK), [U-¹⁴C]-D-galactose (309 mCi/mmol) and [U-¹⁴C]-D-fructose (299 mCi/mmol) were obtained from GE Healthcare Life Sciences (Madrid, Spain). All unlabeled amino acids and α -methyl-glucoside (MG), chelerythrine chloride (PKC inhibitor) and H-89 (PKA inhibitor) were obtained from Sigma Chemicals Inc (St Louis, MO, USA) and Calbiochem (Nottingham,UK) respectively. Stock solutions of protein kinases inhibitors were prepared in DMSO and freshly diluted into cell culture medium before use. The TNF α receptor 1 (TNFR1) antagonist H3736 was purchased from Bachem (Switzerland).

2.2 Cell culture

Caco-2 cells were maintained in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂-95% at 37°C. Cells (passages 50-70) were grown in DMEM (Gibco Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) supplemented with 10% foetal bovine serum (FBS), 1% non essential amino acids, 1% penicillin (1000 U/ml), 1% streptomycin (1000 μ g/ml) and 1% amphoterycin (250 U/ml). Once the cells reached 80% confluence, they were dissociated with 0.05% trypsin-EDTA and sub-cultured on 25 or 75 cm² plastic flasks at a 25x10⁴ cells/cm² density. For transport studies, the cells were seeded in 24 well culture plates at a density of 6 x 10⁴ cells/cm². Culture medium was replaced every 2 days. Cell confluence was confirmed by microscopic observation. Uptake experiments were performed at 17-21 days post-seeding.

2.3 Uptake experiments

Galactose, α -methyl-glucoside (MG) and fructose uptake experiments were performed in the absence (control condition) or presence of different TNF α concentrations. In some experiments, cells were pre-incubated with TNF α in glucose and FBS-free DMEM for different incubation times. In this medium, used as uptake buffer, 0.1 mM galactose, MG (SGLT1 specific substrate) or 5 mM Fructose (GLUT5 specific substrate) were diluted with traces of its corresponding radiolabeled substrate in the absence or presence of TNF α ,

depending on the experiment. The uptake was stopped with ice cold free-substrate buffer followed by aspiration. Cells were again washed twice with ice-cold buffer to eliminate non-specific radioactivity fixation and were finally solubilized in 500 μ l 1% Triton X-100 in 0.1 N NaOH. Samples (100 μ l) were taken to measure radioactivity by liquid scintillation counting. Protein concentration was determined by the Bradford method (Bio-Rad Protein Assay, Bio-Rad laboratories, Hercules, CA). In those experiments in which the TNFR1 antagonist was used, the cells were incubated for 24 h in the presence of the antagonist (250 ng/ml) or TNF α (10 or 25 ng/ml) before measuring 0.1 mM MG or 5 mM fructose uptake (15 min) in the presence or the absence of TNF α . For the analysis of the implication of PKC and PKA in the actions mediated by TNF α , the PKA inhibitor H-89 and the PKC inhibitor chelerythrin were used. The cells were pre-incubated for 30 min in the presence of the inhibitor at a concentration of 1 μ M or 2 μ M respectively, before the addition of the substrate uptake solution. In both type of experiments, after the uptake period, the cells were processed as previously described.

2.4 Western blot analysis

Cells grown on 75 cm² plastic flasks were incubated for 15 min with 0.1 mM MG in the presence or the absence of TNF α (50 ng/ml). In another set of experiments, the cells were pre-incubated for 24 hours in the presence of 10 or 25 ng/ml TNF α . Fifteen min before the end of the pre-incubation time, 0.1 mM MG or 5 mM fructose were respectively added to the pre-incubation medium containing 10 or 25 ng/ml TNF α , mimicking the conditions of the uptake experiments previously described. After the incubation period (15 min or 24 h), brush-border membrane vesicles (BBMV) were isolated [18] from each flask and from non-treated cells (incubated in DMEM) as control. The protein content of the vesicles was determined by the Bradford method (Bio-Rad Protein Assay, Bio-Rad laboratories, Hercules, CA).

Solubilized proteins (20 µg) were resolved by electrophoresis on 12% SDS-PAGE mini gels. The resolved proteins were transferred to a PVDF membrane (Hybond P, GE Healthcare), blocked in TBS buffer with 3% BSA for three hours at room temperature (RT), and incubated overnight at 4°C with the corresponding primary antibody: anti-rabbit SGLT-1 (1:3000) kindly donated by Ernest M. Wright (UCLA) or anti-goat GLUT-5 (1:500) from Santa Cruz Biotech (G-21; sc-14841). After the incubation, the membranes were washed three times in TBS-Tween 0.15% and incubated for one hour at RT with the corresponding peroxidase conjugated secondary antibody (Santa Cruz Biotech.).

Membranes were stripped and immunoblotted again with a monoclonal β-actin antibody (Santa Cruz Biotech.) used at 1:1000, in order to perform the loading control of the different wells. The immunoreactive bands were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (Super Signal West Dura, Thermo Scientific) and quantified by densitometric analysis (Gel Pro Analyzer 3.2). The results were expressed in % of the control value which was set to 100.

2.5 Statistical analysis

Transport experimental data were expressed as nmol/mg of protein. All data are presented as % compared to controls. Statistical differences were evaluated by the two-way ANOVA test or the one-way ANOVA test followed by the *Dunnnett* post-hoc test or Student *t*-test for parametric analysis and *U Mann-Whitney* test for non-parametric one. Differences were considered as statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. The calculations were performed using the SPSS/WINDOWS VERSION 15.0 statistical package (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

3. Results

3.1 TNFα modulates sugar uptake

The effect of 10 and 25 ng/ml TNFα on 0.1mM galactose uptake (15 min) was measured in Caco-2 cells pre-incubated with the cytokine for 1, 12, 24 or 48 h. The results in Fig. 1A show that both TNFα concentrations inhibited galactose uptake. At each pre-incubation time, the

inhibition was higher with 25 ng/ml (40-60 %) than with 10 ng/ml (20-40 %). These results suggested that SGLT1 was regulated by TNF α since at the concentration of 0.1mM, below its $K_{0,5}$ [19], this is the main mechanism responsible for the sugar uptake. To confirm this hypothesis and to determine the minimum cytokine concentration needed to inhibit the sugar uptake, we studied TNF α effect on the uptake of MG, a specific substrate of SGLT1, using lower concentrations of the cytokine. As shown in Fig. 1B, 10 ng/ml TNF α reduced 0.1mM MG uptake (~20 %) already after 1h pre-incubation, while at 1 ng/ml TNF α , the inhibitory effect of the cytokine was observed only after 24 h pre-incubation. Interestingly, at these conditions TNF α produced the same degree of inhibition as 10ng/ml (~40 %).

In order to investigate whether TNF α was able to exert its effect without pre-incubation of the cells with the cytokine, uptake of MG for 15 and 60 min was determined in the presence of different TNF α concentration. As shown in Fig. 1C, 1ng/ml TNF α did not show significant effect on MG uptake after 15 min incubation, 10ng/ml inhibited the uptake by 20% and 25 and 50ng/ml inhibited by ~40 %. In the experiments performed at 60 min incubation, both 1 and 10 ng/ml TNF α inhibited MG uptake by a 25%.

All these results demonstrated that TNF α inhibited, in a short and long-term manner, galactose and MG uptake by regulating SGLT1.

The effect of 25 ng/ml TNF α on 5 mM D-fructose uptake, a substrate of the facilitative transporter GLUT5, was also investigated. TNF α did not modify fructose transport when cells were not pre-incubated with the cytokine (data not shown) or after pre-incubation of the cells for 6 h (Fig. 2). However, when the cells were pre-incubated with TNF α for 24 or 48 h, the cytokine stimulated fructose uptake by a ~25 %. Therefore, contrary to SGLT1, TNF α increased GLUT5 activity and higher cytokine concentrations and longer incubation times were needed to regulate GLUT5 activity compared with SGLT1.

3.2 TNF α regulation of sugar uptake is mediated by its specific receptor

In order to investigate whether TNF α effect was specific and, therefore, receptor-mediated, the effect of TNF α on 0.1mM galactose and 5mM fructose uptake (15 min) was measured after 24 h pre-incubation of the cells with a TNFR1 antagonist. As previously showed, TNF α reduced galactose uptake (Fig. 3A) and increased fructose uptake (Fig. 3B). The TNFR1 antagonist alone did not modified galactose or fructose uptake but completely prevented the cytokine effect (Fig. 3A and B). The results demonstrated the involvement of TNFR1 in the TNF α regulation of SGLT1 and GLUT5 activities.

3.3 TNF α regulates SGLT1 and GLUT5 expression in the brush border membrane of the enterocytes

To investigate whether TNF α effect on MG and fructose uptake was due to modification on the amount of SGLT1 and GLUT5 proteins in the apical membrane of the enterocytes, the expression of these transporters in BBMVs was analyzed by Western blot, after the cells were treated under the same experimental conditions than those of the functional studies. Expression of SGLT1 (~75 kDa) in the BBMVs was not modified after 15 min incubation of the cells with 50 ng/ml TNF α (Fig. 4A). However, the incubation of the cells for 24h with the cytokine (10 ng/ml), decreased the amount of SGLT1 in the BBM compared with the expression in control conditions (Fig. 4B) explaining the reduction of MG uptake found under these conditions. Likewise, in line with the functional results, GLUT5 (~48 kDa) expression in the BBMVs was increased after 24h incubation of the cells with 25 ng/ml TNF α (Fig 4 C).

3.3 PKA and PKC are implicated in the effect of TNF α on sugar uptake

Since TNF α inhibited MG transport after 15 min incubation of the cells with both the sugar and the cytokine, but this effect was not accompanied by modification on the amount of

SGLT1 in the plasma membrane (Fig. 4A), we decided to investigate whether a PKA or PKC-dependent pathway could be implicated in the short-term inhibitory effect of SGLT1 by TNF α . For that, the cells were pre-exposed to the specific inhibitor of each protein kinase for 30 min before measuring MG uptake for 15 min, as described in the Material and Methods section.

As shown in Fig5, chelerythrine, the PKC inhibitor, decreased MG uptake by ~15 %, but completely blocked the effect of TNF α (25 ng/ml). The PKA inhibitor H-89 alone also reduced 0.1mM MG uptake (~15%), but was not able to prevent the inhibitory effect of TNF α . These results indicated that PKC was involved in the TNF α inhibitory effect on MG after 15 min incubation.

4. Discussion

The intestinal epithelium is responsible for the nutrients absorption from the lumen to the blood circulation. Enterocytes are polarized intestinal epithelial cells which are exposed to a microenvironment that is permanently changing, depending on the physiological or pathological conditions of the organism. The brush border membrane of these cells is a highly specialized membrane that can act as a nutrient digestive and absorptive surface, and as a protective permeability barrier preventing the passage of luminal pathogens to the blood [20]. The enterocytes can thus detect specific changes in the intestinal lumen and activate different signalling pathways, in order to adapt nutrient absorption [21]. In addition, local and endocrine mediators as well as several neurotransmitters from the enteric nervous system are also able to regulate the intestinal absorption. Examples of these molecules are GLP-2 [22], EGF [23], adrenomedullin-derived peptides [24] and leptin [25]. Moreover, inflammatory and infectious diseases that affect the gastrointestinal tract alter the intestinal mucosa, triggering the secretion of diverse cytokines, including TNF α that can lead to nutrient

malabsorption[5,8,9]. TNF α is also expressed and secreted by human colon epithelial cells in response to bacterial infection or after TNF α or IL-1 stimulation [26]. During inflammatory processes, TNF α can induce intestinal barrier dysfunction [27], which would explain how cytokines can reach the apical membrane of the enterocytes and interact with its corresponding receptors, through autocrine and paracrine mechanisms.

In the present work, we show in the human intestinal cell line Caco-2 that TNF α , acting from the apical membrane through the TNFR1 receptor, inhibits the uptake of MG while stimulates the uptake of fructose, in a long-term dependent manner. This effect is accompanied by a decrease and an increase on the abundance of SGLT1 and GLUT5 transporters in the brush border membrane respectively. Uptake of MG is also inhibited by TNF α in a short-term manner being PKC implicated.

Our results are in agreement with those from other authors who have reported that both TNFR1 and TNFR2 are expressed in Caco-2 cells but only TNFR1 is implicated in the apical regulation by TNF α of the taurine transporter TAUT [28].

Interestingly, TNF α shows opposite effect on the activity of SGLT1 and GLUT5. One explanation could be that in metabolic stress situations such as inflammation, TNF α would regulate differently the energy-requiring transporters such as SGLT1 and the passive transporters such as GLUT5. In this sense, Sakar and colleagues have demonstrated that leptin, a cytokine implicated in the regulation of intestinal nutrients absorption [25, 29, 30], also down regulates SGLT1 but up regulates GLUT 5 [31].

After 24 h treatment of the Caco-2 cells with TNF α , we observed a ~50 % reduction in MG uptake accompanied by a ~20 % decrease on the expression of SGLT1 in the BBM. The absence of correspondence between transporter expression and function could be related with an impaired Na⁺ gradient across the intestinal barrier, due to modification of the

Na^+/K^+ ATPase activity or alteration of the paracellular ion permeability by $\text{TNF}\alpha$ [32-35]. Inhibition of sugar uptake by $\text{TNF}\alpha$ could also be related with tight junction dysfunction, which would allow sugar passage through the paracellular pathway. Nevertheless, although increase in transepithelial permeability has been described in Caco-2 cells after 24 h incubation with $\text{TNF}\alpha$, this led to alteration in the charge selectivity of the paracellular conductive pathway but was not associated with a significant increase of the transepithelial mannitol flux [36, 37].

In the case of GLUT5, since it is a Na^+ independent transporter, the absence of correspondence between transporter expression levels and function due to $\text{TNF}\alpha$, could be explained by $\text{TNF}\alpha$ -mediated cytoskeleton disruption [39] that would impair the correct insertion of the transporter in the BBM leading to a reduced activity [40] even though its expression was increased.

Long-term pre-incubation of Caco-2 cells with $\text{TNF}\alpha$ present in the apical or basal medium increases taurine and peptide uptake respectively, by regulating protein expression of the active co-transporters TAUT [12] and PepT1 [14]. On the contrary, as we show for SGLT1, serotonin and iron transport is decreased in Caco-2 cells pre-incubated for 72 h with $\text{TNF}\alpha$, acting from the apical and basolateral membrane respectively, due to a decrease in the expression of the secondary active transporters SERT and DMT1 [41, 42]. Therefore, it is clear that the expression of several intestinal transporters is regulated by $\text{TNF}\alpha$, which may be important in intestinal inflammation.

Similar to the studies in Caco-2 cells, it has been shown in rabbit treated with i.v. $\text{TNF}\alpha$ to induce sepsis, that galactose absorption is inhibited by reduction on the amount of SGLT1 in the apical membrane of the enterocytes but, in contrast to the Caco-2 results, fructose uptake in the jejunum was decreased in part due to a reduction in the number of transporters present

in the brush border membrane [5, 8]. In this regard, it has been demonstrated that the post-transcriptional regulation of GLUT5 can be different between *in vitro* and *in vivo* models [43].

After short-term treatment of the Caco-2 cells with TNF α , the inhibition of SGLT1 activity involves PKC activation, without modification on the amount of SGLT1 in the apical membrane. It is known that TNF α induces activation of PKA and PKC [6], and that these protein kinases induce short-term regulation of SGLT1 through mechanisms that include trafficking from intracellular pools to the plasma membrane and activation or inactivation of the transporters function [44-47]. In line with our results, in COS-7 cells, activation of PKC decreases sugar transport by SGLT1 without any effect on the number of transporters at the cell surface, suggesting that PKC may decrease the turnover rate of the transporter [46], which may also occur in the present work.

In summary, TNF α can modify SGLT1 and GLUT5 activity by mechanisms that include regulation of the expression of the transporters in the brush border membrane and activation of protein kinases, suggesting that this cytokine should be considered as a physiological local regulator of sugar absorption in response to an inflammatory status of the intestine.

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LEGENDS TO FIGURES

Figure 1: Effect of TNF- α on sugar uptake by Caco-2 cells. (A) Cells were pre-incubated with TNF α (10 or 25 ng/ml) for 1, 12, 24 or 48 h before measuring the uptake of 0.1 mM galactose (Gal) for 15 min in the presence of the cytokine (control values ranged from 1.9 to 2.8 nmol/mg of protein). (B) Cells were pre-incubated with TNF α (1 or 10 ng/ml) for 1, 6 or 24 hours before measuring the uptake of 0.1 mM MG for 15 min in the presence of the cytokine. (Control values ranged from 0.2 to 0.35 nmol/mg of protein). (C) MG uptake was measured in Caco-2 cells for 15 and 60 min in the presence of TNF α (1, 10 or 25 ng/ml) (control values ranged from 0.5 to 1 nmol mg⁻¹ of protein). Data (n=8-44) are expressed as % (mean \pm SEM) of control values. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 0.001 vs control.

Figure 2: Effect of TNF α on fructose uptake by Caco-2 cells. Cells were pre-incubated with TNF α (25 ng/ml) for 6, 24 or 48 h before measuring the uptake of 5 mM fructose for 15 min in the presence of the cytokine. Data (n=26-29) are expressed as % (mean \pm SEM) of control values *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01 vs. control. (Control values ranged from 16 to 29 nmol/mg of protein)

Figure 3: TNF- α effect on sugar uptake is mediated by its specific receptor TNFR1. Cells were pre-incubated for 24 h with or without TNF α (25 ng/ml) in the presence and in the absence of TNFR1 antagonist (250ng/ml). Uptake of 1 mMgalactose(A) or 5 mM fructose (B) was measured for 15 min in the presence of the cytokine. Data (n=45-55) are expressed as % (mean \pm SEM) of control values. *p< 0.05 vs. control.

Figure 4:Effect of TNF α on SGLT1and GLUT5 protein expression in BBMV of Caco-2 cells.BBMV were obtained after 15 min incubation of the cells with TNF α (50 ng/ml) and 0.1 mM MG(A) or after 24 h pre-incubation with TNF α (10 ng/ml) followed by 15 min incubation with the sugar(B).The intensity of the ~78 kDimmunoreactive band (transporter/ β -actin) is expressed as % of control (MG; n=4). A representative Western blot image is also represented. *p< 0.05 vsMG. In (C)BBMV were obtained after 24h pre-incubation of the cells with TNF α (25 ng/ml) followed by 15 min incubation with fructose (F). The intensity of the ~48 kDimmunoreactive band (transporter/ β -actin) is expressed as % of control (F; n=4). A representative Western blot image is also represented. ***p< 0.001vs. F.

Figure 5:Effect of TNF α on MG uptake in the presence of the PKA inhibitor (H-89) or the PKC inhibitor (chelerythrine).Cells were pre-incubated with 1 μ M H-89 or 2 μ M chelerythrine for 30 minutes before measuring the uptake of 0.1 mM MG for 15 min, in the absence or the presence of TNF α (25 ng/ml). Data (n=42-18) are expressed as % (mean \pm SEM) of control values*p<0.05,***p< 0.001 vs. control (MG); #### p< 0.001 vs. TNF α .