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Cell growth density affects the structural and functional properties of Caco-2 differentiated monolayer

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Abstract

The human intestinal Caco-2 cell line has been extensively used as a model of the intestinal barrier. However, it is widely reported in literature that culture-related conditions, as well as the different Caco-2 cell lines utilized in different laboratories, often lead to problems of reproducibility making difficult to compare results. We developed a new cell-growth protocol in which Caco-2 cells were subcultured at 50% of confluence (Low Density, LD) instead of 90% of confluence, as usually reported in literature (High Density, HD). Using this new protocol, Caco-2 cells retained a higher proliferation potential resulting in a cell population, which, reaching confluence was able to differentiate almost synchronously, forming a more homogeneous and perfectly polarized cell monolayer, as compared to that obtained with the HD cells. This comparison has been done by analyzing the gene expression and the structural characteristics of the 21-days differentiated monolayers by microarrays hybridization and by confocal microscopy.

We then investigated if these differences could also modify the effects of toxicants on 21-days-differentiated LD and HD cells. We analyzed the 2 hours-acute toxicity of CuCl_2 in terms of actin depolymerization and MT2A (metallothionein 2A) and HSPA1A (heat shock protein 70) genes induction. Copper treatment resulted in different levels of actin depolymerization and gene expression induction in relationship with the culture protocol, the LD cells showing a more homogeneous and stronger response. Our results suggest that cell growth density could influence a number of morphological and physiological properties of differentiated Caco-2 cells and these effects must be taken in account when these cells are used as intestinal model.

Sommario

Le cellule intestinali umani Caco-2 sono largamente utilizzate come modello *in vitro* della barriera intestinale negli studi di farmacocinetica e farmacodinamica; tuttavia in letteratura è riportata l'alta variabilità di questo modello riguardo alle condizioni di coltura cellulare e i cloni di Caco-2 che sono utilizzati. In questo lavoro è stato sviluppato un nuovo protocollo di mantenimento della linea cellulare che prevede la sottocoltura delle cellule quando nella piastra di coltura si raggiunge il 50% di confluenza (Low Density, LD) piuttosto che il consueto 90% (High Density, HD) riportato in letteratura.

Utilizzando questo protocollo (LD) le cellule Caco-2 mantengono un alto potenziale proliferativo che produce un'omogeneità nell'inizio del differenziamento e quindi una strutturazione più omogenea del monostrato cellulare durante e alla fine del differenziamento. Abbiamo quindi condotto uno studio di comparazione delle cellule Caco-2 LD e HD a livello morfologico tramite microscopia confocale e a livello genico tramite la tecnologia microarray.

In seguito abbiamo condotto uno studio fisiologico di risposta tossica andando ad analizzare le differenze tra le cellule HD e LD durante e dopo l'esposizione del monostrato differenziato a concentrazioni crescenti di cloruro di rame. Abbiamo analizzato nelle due ore la depolimerizzazione dell'actina filamentosa tramite microscopia e l'induzione genica di metallotioneina 2A (MT2A) e heat shock protein 70 (HSPA1A). Il trattamento con rame ha evidenziato una differente sensibilità del modello alle concentrazioni utilizzate con una risposta fisiologica più omogenea nelle cellule LD.

In conclusione i nostri risultati suggeriscono una diretta influenza delle procedure di mantenimento della linea cellulare sulle caratteristiche morfologiche e fisiologiche delle cellule Caco-2; queste differenze non possono quindi essere trascurate nel momento in cui questa linea cellulare è utilizzata come modello intestinale umano *in vitro* negli studi di predittività dei farmaci.

To my family

Edoardo and my cats...

Introduction

In the last twenty years animal experimentation has been supplemented and in some cases replaced with *in vitro* models in particular in the branch of pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics. Advances in combinatorial chemistry have revolutionized the field of drug discovery, producing an increasing number of compounds which need to be tested. In this context, the US Food and Drug Administration (FDA) developed a new guideline for bioequivalence studies based on the biopharmaceutical classification system (BCS) in which solubility and permeability are considered fundamental properties to define the rate of absorption of the active ingredient of a drug product (van de Waterbeemd, 1998).

To define these two parameters, many studies on intestine *in vitro* models have been done in the context of the FDA directive and many cell lines are still under investigation to define the best predictive models for biopharmaceutical studies.

The human Caco-2 cell line is one of the most used cell model to study absorption, metabolism and bioavailability of drugs and xenobiotics (Artursson et al., 2001). Notwithstanding it represents a well established and accepted *in vitro* model for the human intestinal epithelium and its use is recognized by the FDA (Kim et al., 2006; van de Waterbeemd, 1998), many papers claim that cell culture conditions, such as the composition of the medium and the culturing system adopted, as well as the passage number, could affect Caco-2 cells differentiation and transport properties (Sambuy et al., 2005; Briske-Anderson et al., 1997). The Caco-2 cell population maintained in culture is characterized by an intraclonal variability revealed by the presence of subpopulations with different morphologies (Vachon and Beaulieu, 1992) and different physiological characteristics (Vachon et al., 1996; Mahraoui et al., 1992). This property of Caco-2 cells led to the existence of different clones maintained in different laboratories. This fact plus the variability of culture protocols often makes the comparison of results obtained in different laboratories particularly difficult.

In the last few years many studies have been focused on the inter-laboratories variability produced by the cell-culture related factors such as the animal serum used, the supplements added to the culture media, the passage number and the source of the clones (Zucco et al., 2005; Briske-Anderson et al., 1997). Although all these studies underlined the importance of the cell-culture related factors for the reproducibility between

laboratories, up to date, there are no studies that focused on the necessity to standardize the protocols used to manage the propagation of this cell line.

Caco-2 cells differentiate spontaneously in culture without supplementation of differentiating factors and, usually, standard protocols recommend to split cell cultures when they have almost reached the confluence. In a cell model in which the start of differentiation is not under the operator control, it is probable that the intraclonal variability could be strongly influenced by the degree of confluence decided in that particular laboratory.

Since the Caco-2 cell line still remains one of the best choices to study the intestinal physiology, the aim of this study is to define how the splitting confluence could influence the capability of this cell line to differentiate correctly in a structurally and functionally mature enterocyte.

The intestine: morphology and functions

The intestine is a highly coiled muscular tube secured to the peritoneum in the abdominal cavity; in humans we can divide the intestine in two portions: small (6-7 meters) and large (1.5 meters). In the small intestine the whole process of nutrient absorption is carried out, while in the large intestine occurs the recovery of water and minerals that serves the digestion.

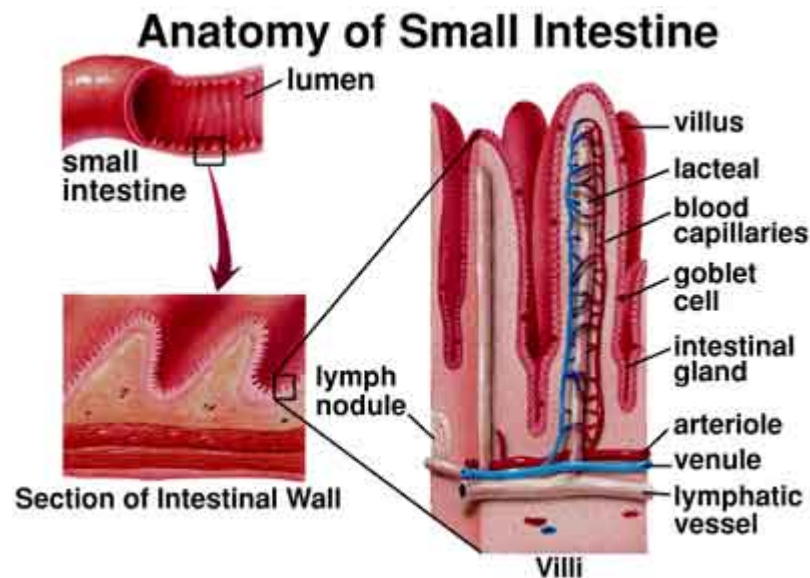


Fig 1 *Anatomy of small intestine*

The small intestine is further divided in three segments according to the functions they perform: *duodenum* (in which are conveyed secretions of liver and pancreas), *jejunum* (in which nutrients are digested to small organic molecules and absorbed into the bloodstream) and *ilium* (where the absorbing processes are completed).

The entire luminal surface of the small intestine has **villi**, small projections of mucosa. The villi are lined with simple columnar epithelial cells, also called **enterocytes**.

The enterocytes are tall cells with middle to basal nuclei and have an apical brush border, also known as microvilli. Both villi and microvilli function to increase the surface area for greater absorption.

Between each villus there are the crypts of Leiberkuhn, also known as intestinal glands, another component of the mucosa. These empty at the base of the villi and extend into the lamina propria. The crypts are lined with the same columnar epithelial cells (enterocytes) and goblet cells as the surface and also house stem cells for the replication of

all intestinal cell types. In the staminal compartment stem cells divide to generate two daughter cells of which the first will continue its staminal life while the latter will differentiate in the constituent cells of the villus.

Concerning the enterocytes they divide, differentiate and migrate up towards the tip of the villus, where they eventually exfoliate.

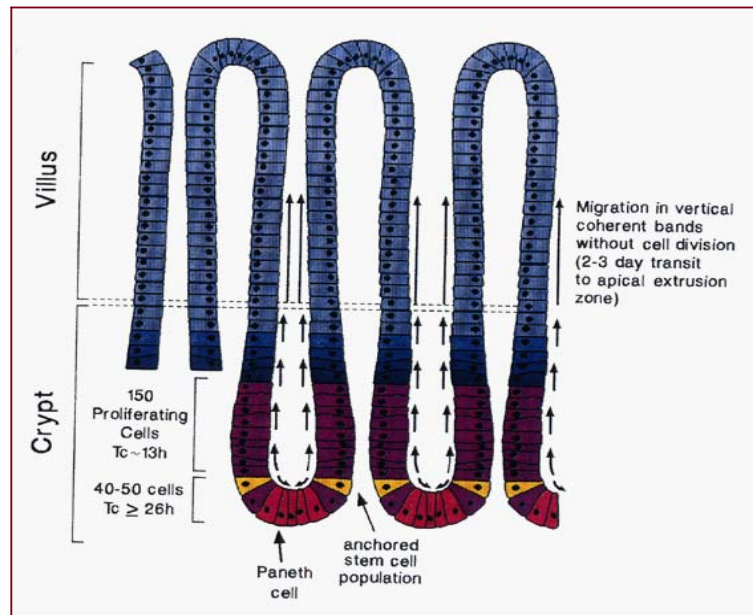


Fig 2 Schematic representation of the migration of the enterocyte along the crypta-villus direction (Gordon 1989)

Enteroendocrine paracrine cells are also located in the crypts. They secrete hormones into the capillaries that run through the lamina propria to locally regulate intestinal activity.

The enterocyte

Enterocytes are polarized prism-like cells with the apical compartment faced toward the lumen of the intestine and the basolateral compartment connected with the bloodstream.

The polarization of these cells is guaranteed by a well organized and structured network of intercellular junctions such as tight junctions, adherens junctions and desmosomes that divide the apical domain from the basolateral domain of the cell.

The nucleus is located at the base of the cell whereas the golgi apparatus and lysosomes are positioned in the supernuclear portion of the enterocyte.

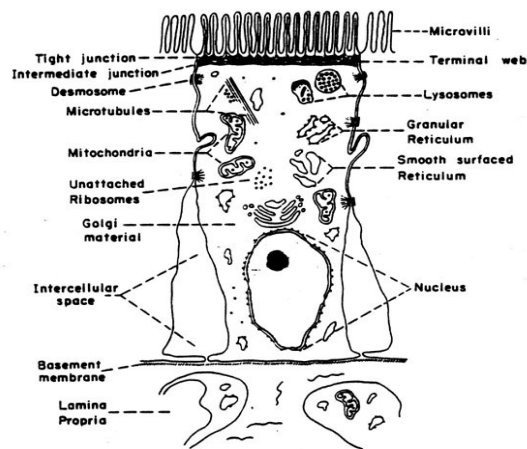


Fig 3 Schematic representation of a mature enterocyte

The apical domain of the enterocyte is distinguished by the presence of microvilli (that constitute the brush-border) and by the presence of the structural connecting tight junctions between cells.

The microvilli are constituted with an internal cytoskeleton of actin that run all over the length of the microvillus. This cytoskeleton is connected with its terminal web of intermediate filaments to a net of microtubules at the base of the microvillus.

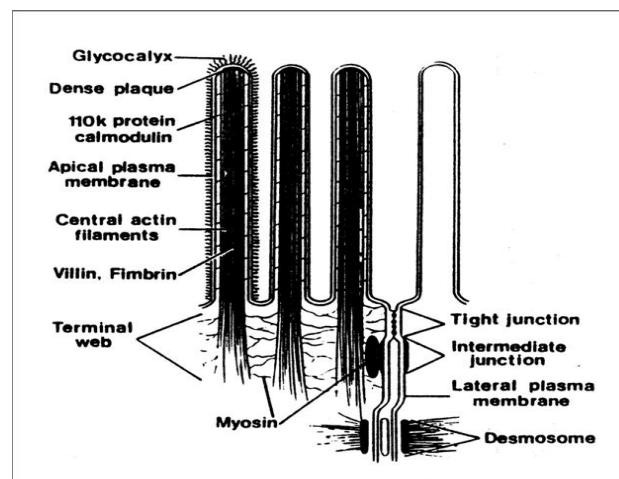


Fig 4 cytoskeleton of the brush border

The terminal web of the intermediate filaments is further connected to the entire enterocyte by proteic bridges between myosin type I and calmodulin (Cheney and

Mooseker, 1992); moreover filaments of actin are also connected to proteins villin and fimbrin (Mooseker, 1985). In particular villin is part of the microtubules and constitutes the internal portion of the microvillus.

The apical membrane of the enterocyte is directly involved in the interactions between cells and intestinal lumen and most of the enzymes and transporters crucial for the intestinal absorption are on the microvilli.

The enzymes can be divided according to their activity as: glycosidases (sucrase-isomaltase, lactase, maltase-glucoamidase, trealase); peptidases (aminopeptidase-N and A, dipeptil-peptidase IV) and the lipases.

The tight junctions

Tight junctions (TJ) form a continuous, circumferential, belt like structure at the luminal end of the intercellular space, where it serves as a gatekeeper of the paracellular pathway.

On the cytoplasmic side of the TJ, the TJ plaque is the site of a growing number of TJ-associated protein complexes. Within the confines of the TJ, the cell membranes of adjacent epithelial cells are brought into intimate focal contact sites in which the intercellular space is obliterated. Freeze-fracture electron microscopy reveals these to be a network of strands within the plane of the plasma membranes of neighboring cells.

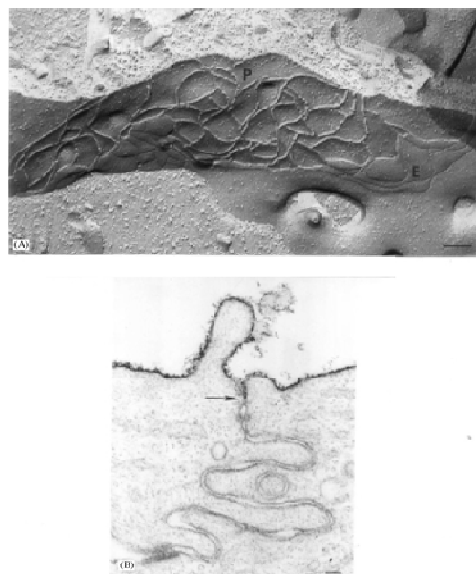


Fig 5 Structure of tight junctions. A) electron microscopy image of tight junctions after freeze-fracture.
B) Tight junction section

The components constituting the multimolecular TJ complex may be divided into three groups: 1) integral TJ proteins that bridge the apical intercellular space and form a regulated permeability barrier; 2) TJ plaque proteins, many of which express PDZ domains (Psd/SAP90, Disc Large, ZO-1) that serve as links between the integral TJ proteins and the actin cytoskeleton and as adapters for the recruitment of cytosolic molecules implicated in cell signaling; 3) a miscellaneous group of cytosolic and nuclear proteins, tumor suppressor, transcriptional and post-transcriptional factors that interact directly or indirectly with TJ plaque proteins to coordinate such diverse functions as the regulation of paracellular solute permeability, cell proliferation, and cell polarity.

Belong to the first group: occludin, the family of claudins and the junctional adhesion molecules (JAM) that are a member of the immunoglobulin superfamily.

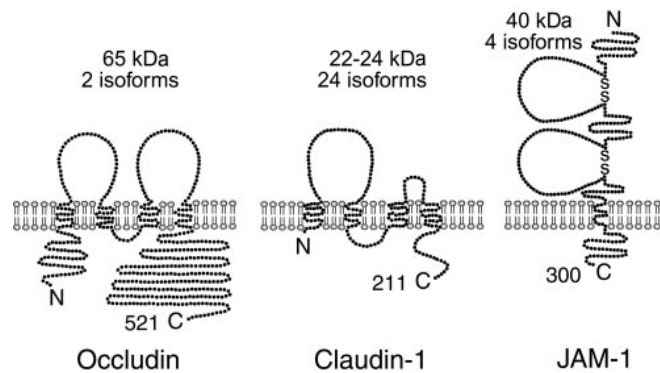


Fig 6 Schematic representation of the molecular structure of trans-membrane domains of the tight junction proteins Occludin, Claudin-1 and JAM-1

The second group consists of a large family of proteins that share in their molecular structure a PDZ domain. Belong to this set of proteins: ZO 1 - 3 (zonula occludens 1 - 3), mDlg (mammalian disc large), MAGI 1 – 3 (membrane associated guanylyl kinase inverted protein), MUPP1 (multi-PDZ domain protein 1), PAR (partitioning-defective protein), PALS (protein associated with Lin-7) and Scribb (Scribble).

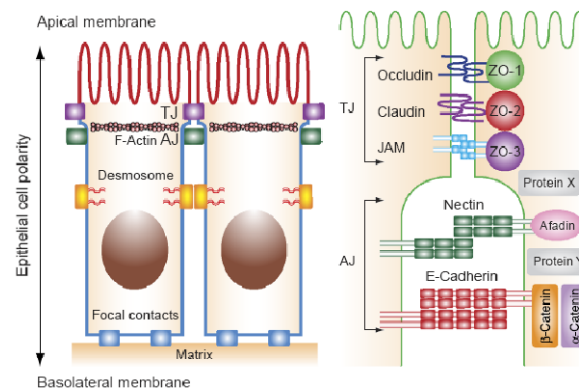


Fig 7 Organization of junctional proteins in epithelial cells

The Caco-2 intestinal cell line

Caco-2 cell line derives from a human colon adenocarcinoma and in standard condition of culture expresses spontaneously several morphological and functional characteristics of the enterocytes of the small intestine (Artursson, 1991).

During the growing phase Caco-2 cells remain undifferentiated and immediately after they reach the status of confluence, cells start the differentiation program that will be finished 18-21 days later.

According to the morphological and functional grade of differentiation that Caco-2 cell have during the 21 days from seeding we can divide the cell population into three subgroups: 1) cells homogeneously undifferentiated (sub confluent population); 2) cells heterogeneously polarized and differentiated (intermediate phase); 3) cells homogeneously polarized and differentiated (>15 days after seeding) (Delie and Rubas, 1997).

To better reproduce the steric conditions existing in the intestine *in vivo*, Caco-2 cells are generally cultured on permeable filter supports that allow free access of ions and nutrients to the two sides of the cell monolayer.

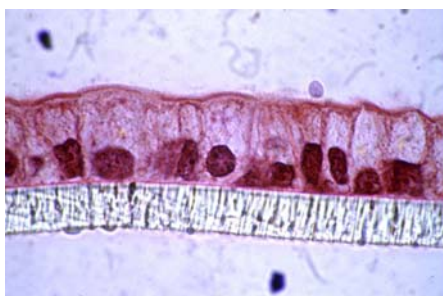


Fig 8 Cross section of Caco-2 cells seeded and differentiated on PET filter supports

Since these conditions led to improved morphological and functional differentiation, they have been proposed, and since then extensively utilized, as a more physiological model for intestinal transports and toxicity studies (Artursson, 1991; Hidalgo et al., 1989; Hilgers et al., 1990; Wilson, 1990).

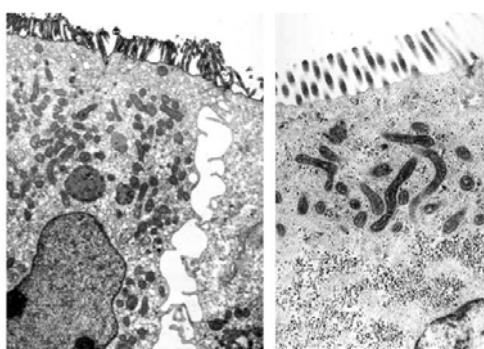


Fig 9 electron microscopy image of Caco-2 brush border

If we look at the morphology of Caco-2 cells, we can see that these cells organize as a polarized monolayer with tight junctions and microvilli, mimicking the *in vivo* enterocyte (Pinto et al., 1983). The functional polarity of the differentiated Caco-2 cells is further indicated, when cells are grown on plastic dishes, by the formation of domes in the monolayer due to the detachment from the plastic surface caused by the unidirectional fluxes of ions and water from the apical to the basolateral compartment..

On the microvilli forming the brush border are located a number of enzymes typical of the mature enterocyte such as: sucrase-isomaltase, lactase, aminopeptidase N, dipeptidylpeptidase IV and alkaline phosphatase. The level of expression of these enzymes

are comparable to the *in vivo* level and also the activity of these enzymes increases with the different stages of differentiation as in the human small intestine (Delie and Rubas, 1997).

Finally, other functions of the enterocyte that are expressed in Caco-2 cells are the polarized membrane receptors for growth factors and a number of transport activities located either on apical or basolateral membrane.

The cell line variability

The Caco-2 population in culture, even in the stationary differentiated phase, is characterized by the presence of subpopulations with different morphologies. The mosaic expression of brush border enzymes in confluent Caco-2 cells has been previously described and cells with different level of sucrase-isomaltase activity has been sub-cloned (Beaulieu and Quaroni, 1991). Transient mosaic patterns of specific functional intestinal markers and lack of coordination between proliferation and differentiation related genes was also reported (Vachon and Beaulieu, 1992; Vachon et al., 1996), suggesting that the morphological and functional differentiation were not coupled in parental Caco-2 cells.

To improve the homogeneity and the stability of the Caco-2 cell population, clonal cell lines has been isolated and characterized by several groups. The existence of Caco-2 cell lines maintained in different laboratories and/or of different clonal origin, in addition to the effects of different culture protocols, often has made the comparison of results particularly difficult.

Since its original isolation (Fogh et al., 1977), the Caco-2 cell line has been propagated in several laboratories around the world, giving origin to cell populations of different “age” or passage number in culture.

The expression of typical differentiation markers of intestinal enterocytes, such as sucrase-isomaltase and the glucose transporter GLUT-5, has been shown to increase from early to late passages (Chantret et al., 1994; Mahraoui et al., 1992). Passage number can also influence metabolic activities: variability of CYP3A4 mRNA expression level has been reported, and it has been explained as an effect of passage number and/or culture conditions (Nakamura et al., 2002). The variations with increasing passage numbers in the expression level of the differentiation markers have been ascribed to the intrinsic heterogeneity of the parental Caco-2 cell population, leading to the selection during repeated culture passages of faster growing cell sub-populations, expressing different sub-

sets of characteristics (Briske-Anderson et al., 1997; Walter and Kissel, 1994; Walter et al., 1995; Yu et al., 1997).

Another parameter that can be responsible of variations in the expression level of transporters is the cell seeding density before starting cell differentiation. In literature a wide range of seeding densities on permeable filters is reported, but several studies demonstrated that this parameter could influence the structure of monolayer producing cell multilayers and inhibiting carrier mediated transport (Behrens and Kissel, 2003). In particular, the expression of the active peptide transporter HPT1 and of the efflux pump ABCB1 (P-gp) were down-regulated when Caco-2 cells were seeded with a cell density higher than 6×10^5 cells/cm².

Materials and Methods

Caco-2 cell line maintenance and differentiation

The human intestinal Caco-2 cell line was originally obtained from Prof. Alan Zweibaum (INSERM, Villejuif, France). To carry out the LD and HD protocols cells were split at 50% and 90% of confluence respectively at least for 10 passages; subsequently a large batch of cells was produced to perform all the experiments and a range of 4 passages after the cells thawing was used to limit passage number inter-variability.

Both LD and HD cells were maintained at 37°C in a 90% air /10% CO₂ atmosphere in DMEM containing 25 mM glucose, 3.7 g/L NaHCO₃ and supplemented with 4 mM L-glutamine, 1% non essential amino acids, 100 U/L penicillin, 100µg/L streptomycin, and 10% heat-inactivated foetal calf serum (Hyclone) (complete medium).

For the differentiation experiments, cells were seeded on polyethylene-terephthalate (PET) filter inserts (0.4 µm pore diameter, 4.71 cm²; Falcon Becton-Dickinson) at a density of 3×10⁵ cell/cm² and maintained for 21 days in complete medium; the medium was changed three times a week.

Plating efficiency assay

One thousand LD or HD Caco-2 cells were seeded on a 35 mm Ø dish in complete medium. After 1 week from seeding cells were washed twice with PBS buffer supplemented with 1 mM CaCl₂ and MgCl₂ respectively (PBS⁺⁺) and fixed for 30 min with a solution of absolute methanol and 0.001% crystal violet. Dishes were then accurately washed with double distilled H₂O and colonies were counted. The number of colonies formed was expressed as percent of colonies with respect of cells seeded. A total of three independent experiments were performed.

Copper toxicity assay

To investigate the effects of copper ions, 21-days differentiated Caco-2 cells were treated for 1 or 2 h at 37°C with increasing concentrations of CuCl₂ in Hanks' balanced salt solution (HBSS, 137 mM NaCl, 5.36 mM KCl, 0.44 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.34 mM Na₂PO₄, 1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, and 5.6 mM glucose) with 20 mM MES, pH 6.0 in the apical (AP) compartment. The basolateral (BL) compartment contained HBSS containing 20 mM HEPES at pH 7.4.

Cell cycle

Cell cycle analysis was performed by pulse-chase bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU, Sigma) incorporation and propidium iodide DNA staining, as previously described (Bucci et al., 2005)

For the BrdU incorporation, 30 min before starting the experiment a pulse of 20 μ M BrdU was given to the cell culture. Afterwards, BrdU-free medium was added to the cell culture and samples were taken every 2 h for further 24 h. Mouse anti-BrdU (Becton-Dickinson) and FITC-conjugated F(Ab') rabbit anti-mouse IgG (DAKO) antibodies were used to detect the BrdU incorporation. Twenty thousand events per sample were acquired by using a FACScan cytofluorimeter. The top region of the cytograms represents BrdUrd-positive cells. The percentages of the cell cycle distribution were estimated on linear PI histograms by using the MODFIT software.

Western Blot analysis

LD and HD Caco-2 cells were seeded on PET filters at the density of $3 \cdot 10^5$ cells/cm² and harvested at different days of differentiation (cycling cells C, 1, 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 21 days after seeding). Cells were then incubated in urea buffer (8 M urea, 100 mM NaH₂PO₄, 10 mM Tris pH 8), for 30 min on ice and then briefly sonicated. Proteins were subjected to SDS–polyacrylamide gels electrophoresis. The resolved proteins were blotted overnight to nitrocellulose membranes, which then were blocked in PBS 1X containing 5% non-fat milk for at least 1 h. Blots were incubated with the following primary anti-human antibodies: anti-cyclin A polyclonal antibody (C-19), anti-p27Kip1 polyclonal antibody (C-19), anti-SI polyclonal antibody (T-17), all from Santa Cruz Biotechnology; anti-pRB monoclonal antibody (clone G3-245; BD-Pharmigen) and anti-ezrin monoclonal antibody (clone 3C12; Zymed). The membranes were then incubated 45 min with the relevant secondary antibody (anti mouse, anti-rabbit or anti-goat IgG (H+L)) conjugated with Alexa fluor 680 (Invitrogen) or IRDye 800 (LI-COR Biosciences) and analyzed with the Licor Odyssey Infrared Image System in the 700 or 800 nm channel.

Total RNA preparation

Total cellular RNA was isolated using standard Trizol (Invitrogen) protocol and subsequently purified and DNase treated on RNeasy Qiagen columns. Alternatively, total cellular RNA was isolated using NucleoSpin RNA II silica columns (Macherey-

Nagel). RNA quantity was determined by absorbance at 260 nm using a NanoDrop UV-VIS spectrophotometer. Each sample was then quality checked using the RNA 6000 Nano kit with a BioAnalyzer 2100 (Agilent): samples with a RIN index lower than 8.0 were discarded (Schroeder et al., 2006)

Real-time RT-PCR analysis

500 ng RNA was retro-transcribed using standard conditions and the cDNA was then subjected to real time PCR analysis with an Applied Biosystems 7900HT thermal cycler, using the SensiMix SYBR Kit (Bioline) and the following specific primers: PPARG (sense [s]: GACCTGAAACTTCAAGAGTACCAA, antisense [as]: TGAGGCTTATTGTAGAGCTGAGTC), CDX2 (s: GAGCTGGAGAAGGAGTTTCACTA, as: GCGTTCTGAAACCAGATTTT), CLDN4 (s: TCCGCCAAGTATTCTGCTG, as: CGTGGCACCTTACACGTAGTT), MYO1A (s: TGGCAGATTTTCATCTACAAGAGC, as: GTTTGTGGATGGCAAATTGTT), ANPEP (s: CATCCATCAGAGATGGCAGAC, as: TGCTGAAGAGATCGTTCTGG), SLC11A2 (s: CACCGTCAGTATCCCAAGGT, as: CCGATGATAGCCAACTCCAC), SI (s: AATCCTTTTGGCATCCAGATT, as: GCAGCCAAGAATCCCAAAT), ALPI (s: CATACTGGCTCTGTCCAAGA, as: GTCTGGAAGTTGGCCTTGAC), CYP3A4 (s: GATGGCTCTCATCCCAGACTT, as: AGTCCATGTGAATGGGTTCC), MT2A (s: CTCTAGCCGCCTCTTCAGC, as: ACTCTTGCATTTGCAGGAAC), HSPA1A (s: AAGGACCGAGCTCTTCTCG, as: GCTCGGCTCTGAGATTGG), PPIA (s: ATGCTGGACCCAACACAAAT, as: TCTTTCACCTTGCCAAACACC) and TBP (s: GAACATCATGGATCAGAACAACA, as: ATAGGGATTCCGGGAGTCAT). Experiments were done in technical quadruplicates. Expression data were normalized using the Ct values of the internal controls PPIA and TBP.

Whole genome expression profiling

The gene expression profiling was performed using the Agilent two-color microarray system

(<http://www.chem.agilent.com/enUS/Products/Instruments/dnamicroarrays/Pages/default.aspx>). Two different experiments have been performed, with a total of 10 samples: the first one (called “Diff/Cycl”) to compare Caco-2 LD cells in the proliferating phase with Caco-2 LD cells at the end of 21-days differentiation period; the second one (called “LD/HD”) to compare Caco-2 LD with Caco-2 HD differentiated cells. In the “Diff/Cycl” experiment

two different pairs of biological replicates (isolated from two different LD cell passages) were analyzed, while in the “LD/HD” experiment only one pair of samples was used. In both experiments, for each pair of sample a technical dye-swap replicate was included (see Supplementary Figure 1 for a scheme of the experiments).

500 ng of total RNA were retrotranscribed using oligo-dT primers linked to the T7-promoter and the resulting cDNA was used as a template for cyanine 3-CTP or cyanine 5-CTP labelled cRNA preparation, using the Agilent Low Input Linear Amplification Kit. The labeled cRNA were purified with Qiagen’s RNeasy mini spin columns. To monitor both the labelling reactions and the microarray performance, Agilent Spike-In Mix was added to the mRNA samples prior to labelling reactions according the RNA Spike-In protocol.

Two-color mixes of labelled cRNA pairs were hybridized either to 44K (“Diff/Cycl” experiment) or 4x44K (“LD/HD” experiment) whole human genome oligonucleotide microarray (Agilent G4112A and G4112F respectively, 41000 unique probes) at 65°C for 17 hours using Agilent’s Gene Expression Hybridization Kit. The hybridized microarrays were disassembled at room temperature in Agilent Gene Expression Wash Buffer 1. After the disassembly, the microarrays were washed in Gene Expression Buffer 1 for one minute at room temperature, followed by washing with Gene Expression Wash Buffer 2 for one minute at 37°C. The microarrays were then treated with acetonitrile for one minute at room temperature.

Post-hybridization image acquisition was accomplished using the Agilent Scanner G2564B, equipped with two lasers (532 nm and 635 nm) and a 48 slide auto-sampler carousel. The “extended range” scanning protocol was used for the 4x44K chip, where the output of two following scanings at 10% and 100% of laser power are numerically combined. Data extraction from the images was accomplished by Agilent Feature Extraction 9.1 software using the standard Agilent two-color gene expression extraction protocol (GE2-v4_91).

Raw data filtering was performed in Microsoft Excel using any of the following criteria to discard spots: spots with more than 5% of saturated pixel in any of the two channels, spots flagged as “not found” by the Feature Extraction software in any of the two channels, spots with a Signal/Noise ratio smaller than 3 in any of the two channels, where $\text{Signal} = (\text{median of the spot} - \text{median spot background level})$ and Noise is the IQR

(interQuantileRange) of the median spot background. Basic data analysis was performed on filtered data using Agilent GeneSpring GX 7.3 and Microsoft Excel. In every array the normalized channel ratio Nr was normalized by the Lowess algorithm within GeneSpring, using 20% of data as smoothing window. In the cluster of Figure 3, the separated Lowess normalized Red (R_norm) and Green (G_norm) channels are obtained by the formulas $\text{Log2(R_norm)} = (\text{Log2(Nr)} + \text{Log2(R*G)})/2$ and $\text{Log2(G_norm)} = (-\text{Log2(Nr)} + \text{Log2(R*G)})/2$, where R and G are the non-normalized channel values. For the “Diff/Cycl” experiment two separate normalization procedures were used, the Lowess and the dye-swap method, that combines and averages two dye-swapped replicates. Differentially expressed genes were identified as those showing an average fold change larger than 1.5 and lower than 1.5 in the “LD/HD” experiment, in the linear scale. In the “Diff/Cycl” experiment differential genes were identified with a more stringent criteria, as those showing an average fold change larger than 2.0 or lower than 1/2.0 in the linear scale but in both sets of normalized data, Lowess and dye-swap, except for Figure 5 where the threshold was 1.5. The analysis of over- and under- represented functional annotations was performed, pooling up- and down- regulated genes, using the DAVID web tool (<http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/>) (Huang et al., 2009), selecting the following categories both for functional clustering (high stringency) and charts: goterm_bp_4, goterm_bp_5, goterm_cc_4, goterm_cc_5, goterm_mf_4, goterm_mf_5, panther_bp_all, panther_mf_all, interpro, pir_superfamily, smart, panther_family, panther_subfamily, kegg_pathway, panther_pathway, chromosome, cytoband, cog_ontology, sp_pir_keywords, up_seq_feature. Gene clustering analysis was done using MeV 4.4 (MultiExperiment Viewer, TM4 suite, <http://www.tm4.org/mev/>) (Saeed et al., 2006).

Fluorescence and immunofluorescence microscopy

Caco-2 cells were seeded on PET inserts in complete medium and cultured for the time indicated in the legend of the figures. For-F-actin localization cells were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde in PBS⁺⁺ containing 2% sucrose for 30 min, washed with PBS⁺⁺, blocked with 5% non-fat dry milk in PBS⁺⁺ and incubated for 30 min with 0.33 mg/ml TRITC-phalloidin (0.25 μ m) in PBS⁺⁺ containing 0.2% BSA; double-labeling of the nuclei was performed with 1 μ g/ml DAPI for 30 sec in PBS. Finally, cells were washed in PBS, briefly rinsed in ddH₂O and glasses were mounted with ProLong Gold anti-Fade Reagent (Molecular Probes).

To study the localization of ZO-1 protein and the colocalization of ZO-1 with Claudin 4 or Villin 1, we used a confocal laser scanning microscope (Leica Confocal Microsystem TCS SP5). ZO-1 was detected using the polyclonal anti-ZO-1 antibody purchased by Zymed while for Claudin4 and Villin 1 the antibodies were from Santa Cruz.

The secondary antibodies were: Alexa Fluor 594 Goat anti-mouse IgG, Alexa Fluor 555 Donkey anti-rabbit IgG and Alexa Fluor 488 Goat antirabbit F(ab')₂ fragment antibodies. In order to avoid any possible cross-talk between secondary antibodies we chose antibodies generated in Donkey, a species known to show negligible cross-reactivity, or F(ab')₂ fragments. Each image represented the maximal projection of 100-frames z-stack; images were processed using Leica Application Suite 6000. Brightness and contrast were adjusted.

Results

The “Low Density” (LD) cell-line maintaining protocol

Caco-2 cells in the growing phase tend to generate islets, showing a core constituted by prismatic epithelial-like more differentiated cells surrounded by large flattened growing cells at the border. When cells approach confluence, the proportion of the prismatic epithelial-like cells increases, up to a point in which these cells represent the large majority of the population. Obviously, each time cells are trypsinized and passed to another plate, the number of growing cells increases, but actually not all the replated cells enter the cell cycle.

We tested a novel cell-line-maintaining protocol, (Low Density protocol or LD protocol) where cells are split when they reach just 50% of confluence with an approximately density of 5×10^4 cells/cm². Using this protocol we avoid heterogeneous cell-growth conditions in which a subpopulation of cells start to differentiate during the line maintenance procedure. In this paper, we used this protocol in comparison with the standard Caco-2 maintenance protocol in which cells are subcultured at 80-90 % of confluence (High Density protocol or HD protocol).

To form the differentiated monolayer, LD and HD cells were both seeded at the same density of 3×10^5 cells/cm² on PET inserts (Falcon) and let to differentiate spontaneously into mature enterocytes over 21 days.

LD cells have a higher cell proliferation rate

To explore differences in proliferation of Caco-2 cells maintained either with LD or HD protocol, we first investigated the cell cycle phase's distribution after propidium iodide staining. In Figure 1A is shown the ratio of cell cycle phases percentages evaluated in growing LD and HD cells. A significant increase in the proliferative compartment was observed in LD vs HD cells (S phase = 60 % and G2/M = 30% increase), indicating that in LD cells a higher number of cells was in the proliferative phases.

To investigate whether the increase in LD cell proliferation was due to a faster cell cycle transition we have performed a pulse-chase BrdU incorporation experiment by flow cytometry. Cells were exposed to BrdU for a pulse of 30 min. In order to calculate the cell-cycle phase length, BrdU incorporation was monitored immediately at the end of the BrdU

pulse and every 2 h during the subsequent 24 h. In Figure 1B are shown the BrdU cytograms in LD and HD cells at 0, 6 and 12 h after the pulse. The calculation of the cell-cycle phase length indicated that both S and G1 phases in LD cells were shorter than in HD cells (S-phase length = 12 vs 17 h; G1 phase length = 4 vs 6.5 h), thus resulting in a reduced total cell cycle duration (LD cells = 19 h vs HD cells = 25 h). It was therefore evident that LD cells entered and completed the cell cycle faster than HD cells. The colony formation assay (Figure 1C, right and left panel) also demonstrated that the LD cells have a higher proliferative potential than the HD ones: cycling LD cells show 60% of colonies formed compared to the 29% of the HD ones (Figure 1C, left panel) and this difference is still maintained after 21-days of differentiation, when LD cells show 45% of colony formed compared to the 15 % of HD cells (Figure 1C, right panel).

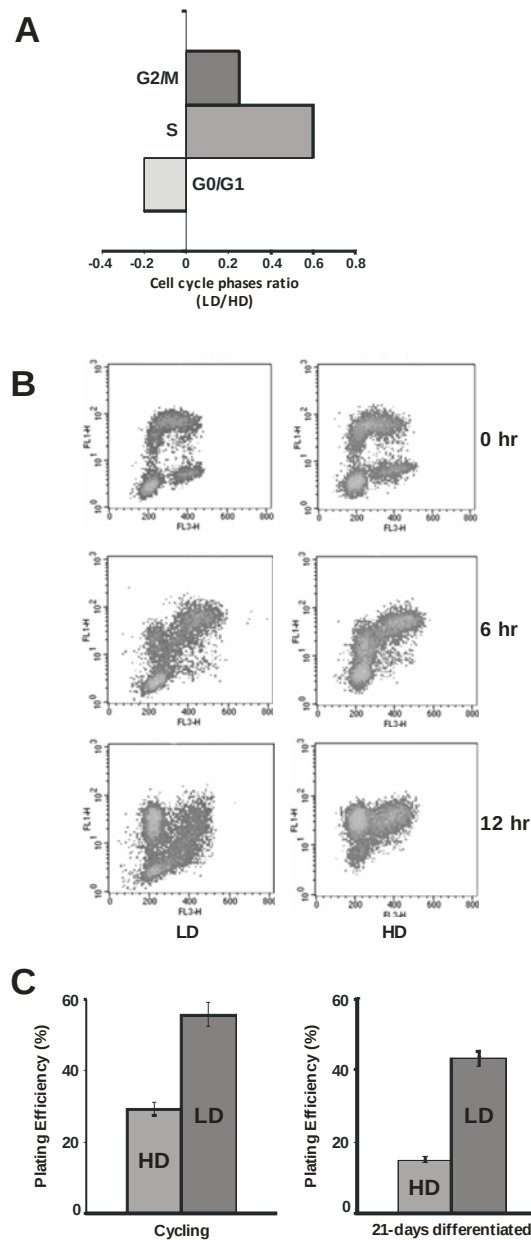


Figure 1. Effects of cell-growth density on cell-cycle length and plating efficiency.

(A) Cell cycle phase ratios of growing LD versus HD cells. (B) Representative cytograms of BrdU pulse-chase experiments. Each cytogram shows the different distribution of LD and HD cells 0, 6 and 12 hours after the BrdU pulse. (C) Plating efficiency of growing (left panel) and differentiated (right panel) LD and HD cells referred as percent of colony formed after plating.

LD cells show a slower exit from cell cycle but express the same level of differentiation markers as compared to the HD cells

To determine if cells with different proliferative potential were equally able to exit from the cell cycle and differentiate spontaneously in mature enterocytes, we followed the expression levels of some cell-cycle regulating proteins and intestine differentiation markers during 21 days of differentiation. Both LD and HD cells were seeded at the density of 3×10^5 cells/cm² on PET inserts and harvested at the indicated days of cell differentiation. As visible in Figure 2A, consistent with a faster exit from the cell cycle, the HD Caco-2 cells showed, earlier than the LD cells, modifications in some cell cycle-related molecules such as dephosphorylation of the retinoblastoma gene product (pRB; day 3 vs day 9 in LD cells), down-regulation of cyclin A (day 6 vs day 9 in LD cells) and accumulation of p27 (day 1 vs day 3 in LD cells). Correspondingly, a significant increase of the differentiation protein marker sucrase-isomaltase was already evident in HD cells at day 9, while LD cells showed an equivalent amount of SI only at day 15. Such differences between LD and HD cells can be explained by hypothesizing that the Caco-2 cells maintained at high density of culture have already entered the differentiation program beforehand cell seeding on the PET inserts.

Differences between the LD and the HD cell were also evident examining the trend of expression during the differentiation process of genes involved in the intestinal development. As shown in Figure 2B, we analyzed during the 21 days of differentiation by qRT-PCR the expression of genes encoding for intestinal enzymes, such as CYP3A4 (cytochrome P450), ALPI (phosphatase alkaline), ANPEP (aminopeptidase N) and SI (sucrase-isomaltase); for brush border transporters, such as SLC11A2 (or DMT1, divalent metal transporter 1); for structural proteins, such as CLDN4 (Claudin 4), MYO1A (Villin1); for transcriptional factor essential in the crypta-villus transition, such as PPARG (peroxisome proliferative activated receptor gamma) and CDX2 (caudal-type homeobox transcription factor 2). The general trend of induction of CDX2 and PPARG genes was almost the same in LD and HD cells whereas the value of fold increase is clearly higher in LD cells. The pattern of expression did not significantly vary also for the structural genes CLDN4 and MYO1A and the transporter SLC11A2. On the contrary the genes coding for brush- border enzymes ANPEP, SI and ALPI showed the largest differences both in trend of expression and fold increase. A significant difference between LD and HD cells was also suggested by the substantial induction of CYP3A4 gene in LD cells.

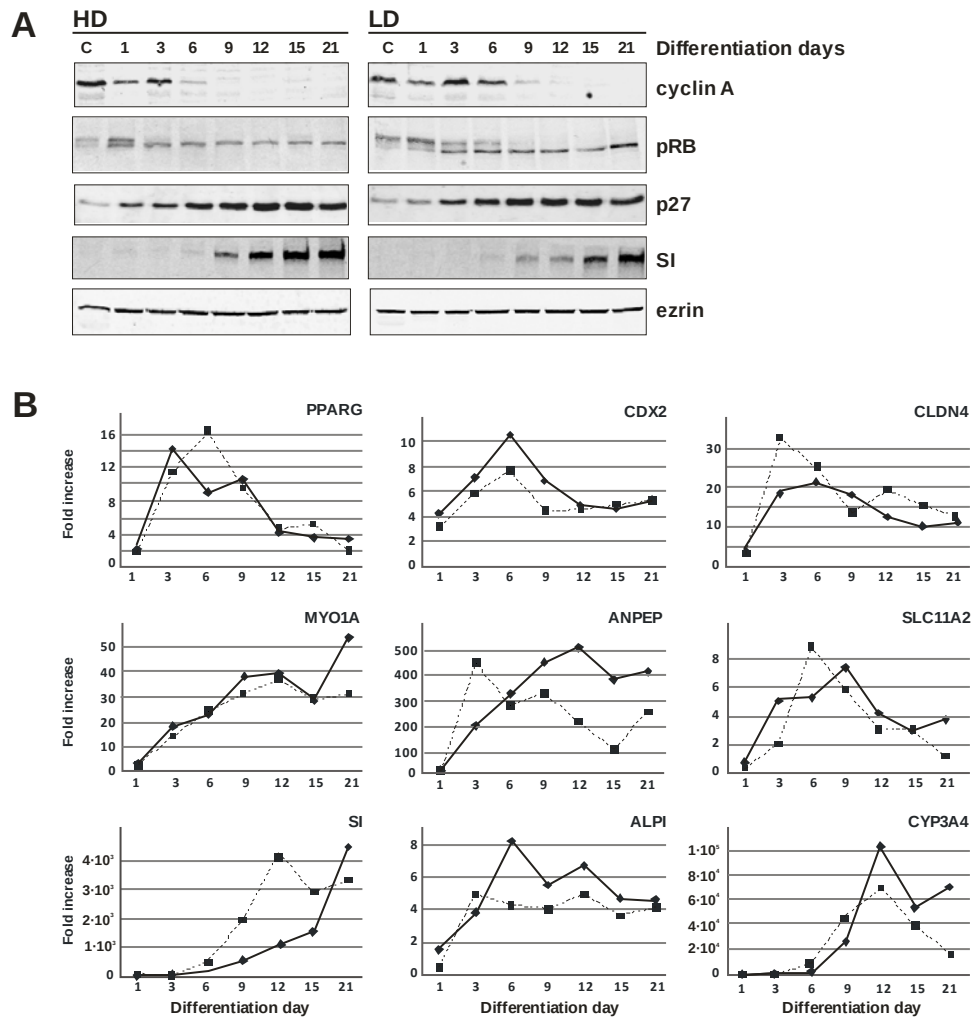


Figure 2. Effects of cell-growth density on the time-courses of the expression of cell cycle regulatory proteins and intestine differentiation key genes during 21 days of LD and HD cell differentiation.

(A) Western blot time course analysis on total cell lysates of some cell-cycle regulatory proteins and differentiation markers of the intestinal maturation of Caco-2 cells. Each lane was loaded with 80 μ g of proteins from cell lysate. Ezrin was used as a loading control. The experiment was repeated three times showing similar results. A representative blot is presented. C: cycling cells (B) Quantitative RT-PCR time-course of genes involved in the enterocyte development. The values are expressed as fold induction respect to cycling LD cells.

The differentiated LD Caco-2 cells possess a well-defined enterocyte-like gene expression profile

To investigate the effects of the alternative line-maintenance protocol on the terminal differentiation of the Caco-2 cells, we used the Agilent microarray technology to compare the whole gene expression profiles of (i) 21-days differentiated LD cells versus LD cycling cells; and (ii) 21-days differentiated LD cells versus 21-days differentiated HD cells. The first experiment, called “Diff/Cycl”, was designed in the two-color dye-swap configuration with biological duplicates of the samples (as schematized in supplementary Figure S1), the data were normalized using the Lowess and the dye-swap methods and differential genes were selected by filtering a combination of both normalized datasets as shown in supplementary Figure S2.

Figure 3 shows the hierarchical cluster of the filtered normalized expression data obtained from the two-color microarray “Diff/Cycl” experiment. The 8 columns correspond to the red and the green separated Lowess-normalized channels (see methods) for each of the four arrays. In this cluster it is possible to discriminate sets of genes that are up or down regulated in terms of absolute values; on the top of the cluster the biological replicates and technical replicates cluster together as expected indicating a good reproducibility between duplicate samples.

Supplementary Figure 3 shows another hierarchical cluster diagram obtained using the same filtered normalized expression data from the “Diff/Cycl” experiment. In red are grouped the genes at least 2 fold up-regulated while in green are grouped the genes at least 2 fold down-regulated in differentiated cells. The four columns correspond to the $\log_2$ ratio differentiated/cycling cells for the 4 arrays (two biological replicates and the corresponding 2 dye-swapped technical replicates). The sample tree on the top of the diagram shows that the technical replicates cluster together as expected.

On the right of the figure there is a list of the statistically significant functional categories ($10^{-2} < p < 10^{-15}$) obtained submitting the 2-fold filtered genes to the DAVID Bioinformatics Database (<http://david.abcc.ncifcrf.gov/>) (Sherman et al., 2007). The black marks below each category indicate the position in the hierarchical cluster on the left of the genes belonging to that category. The median position of genes along the Y-axis of the cluster has been computed for each category and the list of categories has been sorted according to this value, for a better discrimination of categories containing more down-regulated genes from those containing a majority of up-regulated genes.

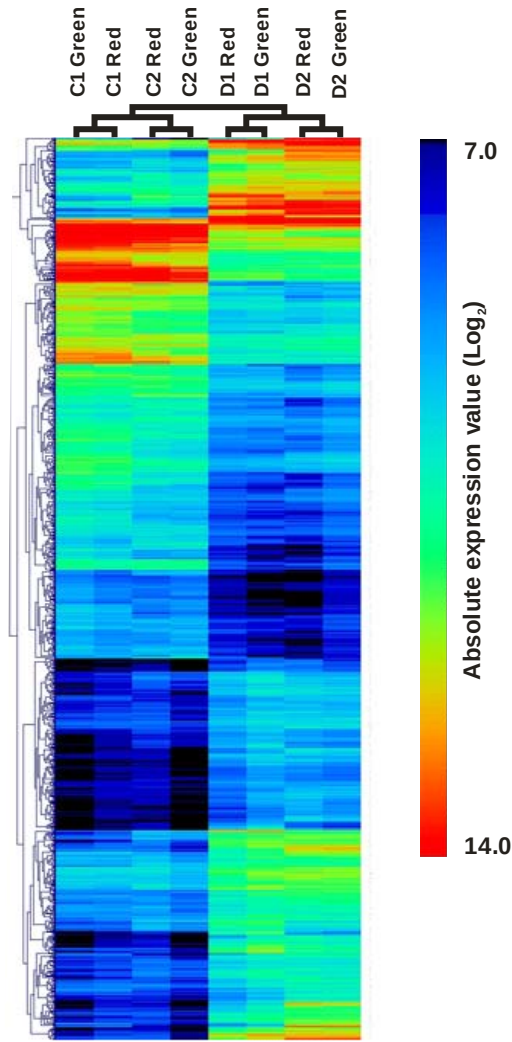


Figure 3. Hierarchical clustering, with Euclidean distance, of filtered normalized expression data obtained from the two-color microarray experiment “Diff/Cycl” where the Caco-2 LD differentiated cells are screened versus the Caco-2 LD cycling cells.

Log₂ of absolute expression values are shown. The set used for clustering is composed by the 1183 genes that show an average ratio Differentiated/Cycling greater than 2.0 or smaller than 1/2.0 (in the linear scale) in normalized data, where the normalization procedure included both the Lowess and dye-swap methods (see Materials and Methods). The 8 columns correspond to the Red and Green separate Lowess normalized channels for each of the 4 arrays; 2+2 biological replicates and the corresponding technical 2+2 dye-swapped replicates (one per sample) are shown. The column headers have the following meaning: C, cycling cells; D, differentiated cells, 1 and 2 refers to the biological replicate samples; Red and Green, refers to the cyanine label (either Red, cyanine 5 or Green, cyanine 3). It is clear from the sample tree on the top of the diagram that the chosen gene set is very effective in discriminating cycling and differentiated cells, since the biological replicates cluster together, cycling samples on the left and differentiated ones on the right, moreover within each of these two groups the technical replicates also cluster together.

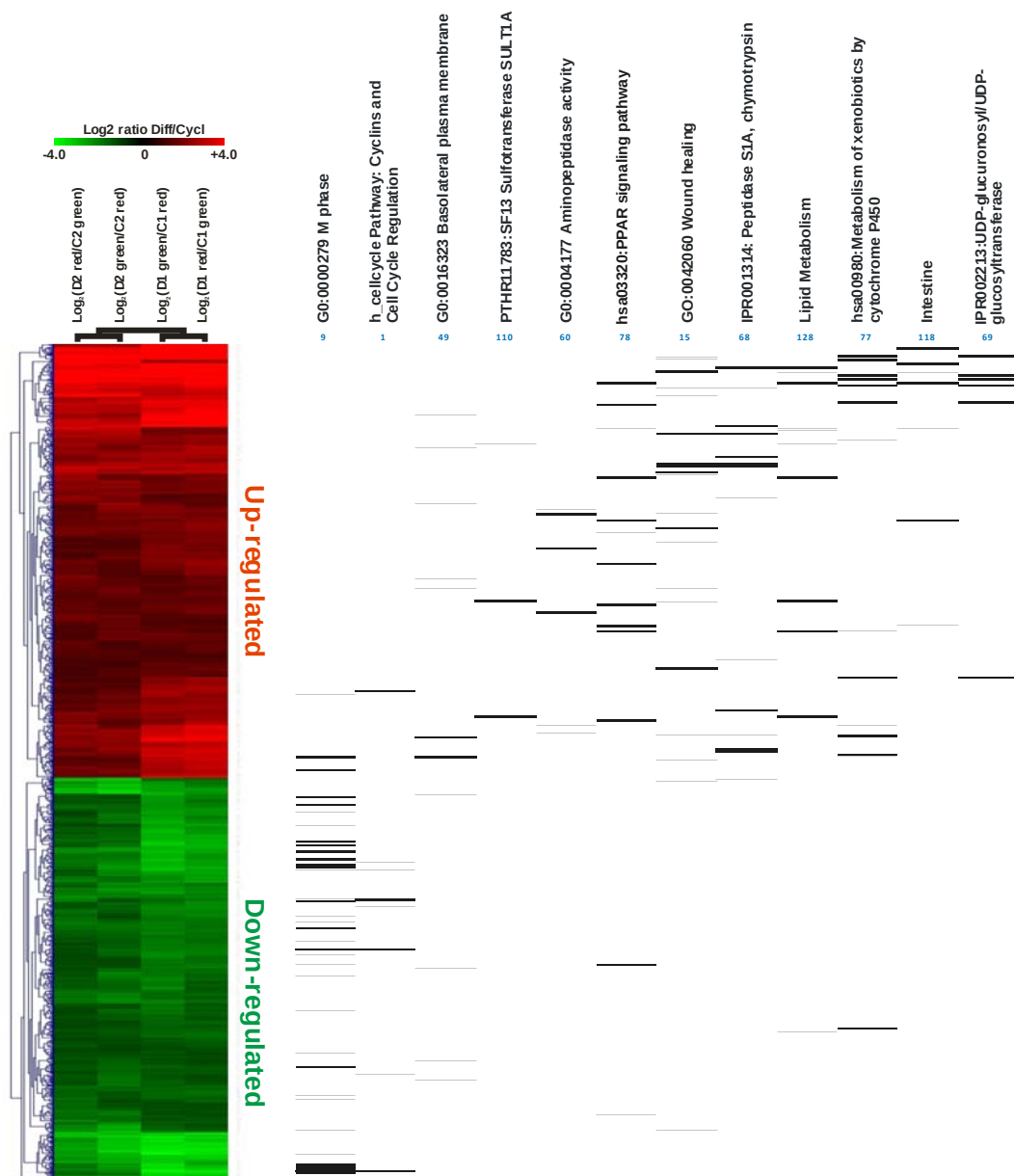


Figure 4. Hierarchical clustering, with Euclidean distance, of filtered normalized expression data obtained from the two-color microarray experiment “Diff/Cycl” where the Caco-2 LD proliferating cells are screened versus the Caco-2 LD cycling cells.

Log₂ of relative expression values are shown. The set used for clustering is composed by the 1183 genes that show an average ratio Differentiated/Cycling greater than 2.0 or smaller than 1/2.0 (in the linear scale) in normalized data, where the normalization procedure included both the Lowess and dye-swap methods (see Materials and Methods). The 4 columns correspond to the Log₂ ratio Differentiated/Cycling for the 4 arrays: 2 couples of biological replicates and the corresponding 2 dye-swapped technical replicates. The column headers have the following meaning: C, cycling cells; D, differentiated cells, 1 and 2 refers to the biological replicate samples; Red and Green, refers to the cyanine label (either Red, cyanine 5 or Green, cyanine 3). The sample tree on the top of the diagram

shows that the technical replicates cluster together as expected. The gene annotation using the DAVID system is shown to the right: on the top are listed the main statistically significant functional categories (under- or over-represented in the gene set), below every black mark indicates that the corresponding gene belongs to the category on the top. The categories definitions and the genes belonging to them are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

A short and sorted list of non biologically redundant categories is reported in Figure 4 together with the hierarchical cluster diagram. Analyzing the genes comprised in the more up-regulated categories, they were typical genes of the intestine differentiation, while the down-regulated categories include cell cycle progression and regulation genes. The up-regulated genes belong to the PPAR-signaling pathway, the intestine, the lipid metabolism, the xenobiotics metabolism by CYP450 and the UDP-glucuronosyl/UDP-glucosyl transferases. The down-regulated genes are represented mainly by those belonging to the pathways controlling cell cycle progression and regulation. In Supplementary Table 1 is reported a list of the categories and the corresponding p-values shown in Figure 4.

Then we compared the whole gene expression profile of 21-days differentiated LD cells versus 21-days differentiated HD cells, obtaining the list of the genes whose level of expression was different between LD and HD cells: we called this the “LD/HD” experiment. Supplementary Table 2 reports the 163 genes of LD cells showing at least 1.5-fold increase or decrease with respect to the HD cells. Among these listed genes, relevant ones are involved in the function of the absorbing enterocyte, such as those coding for transporters (SLCO4A1, SLC12A2, SLC2A14 etc.) and enzymes (GSTM3, GPX7, CP), and others implicated in the cell polarization processes (PBK, DLG7, LAMA1).

Figure 5A shows the intersection of two sets of differential expressed genes obtained from the above described microarray experiments: the set of genes increasing or decreasing at least 1.5 fold in the “Diff/Cycl” experiment and the set of genes increasing or decreasing at least 1.5-fold in the “LD/HD” experiment. It is quite surprising that out of the 163 genes differentially expressed between LD and HD cells, 56 also belong to the set of 2888 genes differentially expressed between differentiated and cycling LD cells. We have thus analyzed the distribution of these genes as shown in Figure 5B plotting the Log₂ ratios of each gene. This scatter plot shows both the extent and direction of gene expression variations. About 50% of the genes in common between the two sets are located into the right quadrants (b and c), representing genes up-regulated at the end of differentiation and

more expressed in LD (b quadrant) or in HD differentiated cells (c quadrant). These genes are reported in Supplementary Table 3. The left quadrants (a and d) of the plot contain the genes that are down-regulated at the end of differentiation. Interestingly, the other 50% of the genes in common between the two sets form a cluster only in the (a) quadrant, and include those that are more expressed in LD cells and down-regulated during differentiation. Among these genes (also reported in Supplementary Table 3) most are related with apoptosis, cell cycle and DNA repair

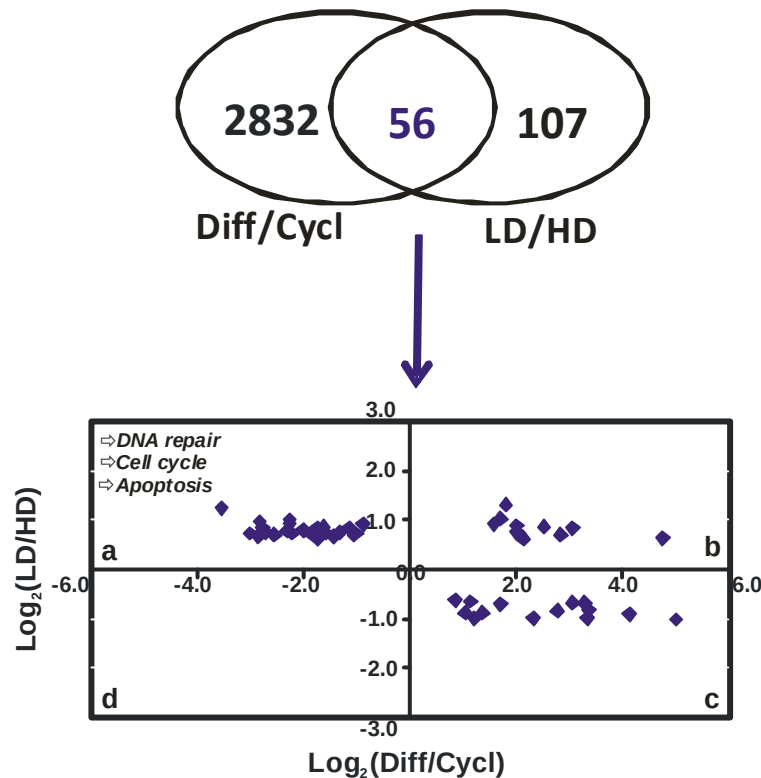


Figure 5. Intersection of the sets of differentially expressed genes obtained from the “Diff/Cycl” experiment and from the “LD/HD” experiment.

From Lowess normalized data a total of 2888 genes (“Diff/Cycl” experiment) and 163 genes (“LD/HD” experiment) were selected, showing an average relative ratio greater than 1.5 or smaller than 1/1.5 in the linear scale. The relative Log₂ ratios of genes belonging to both sets, {Diff/Cycl ∩ LD/HD} in blue in the Venn diagram, are shown in the scatter plot. The three gene sets located in the quadrants (a), (b) and (c) of the plot are listed in the Supplementary Table 3, functionally annotated using the DAVID system. The 163 genes belonging to the LD/HD set, {LD/HD}, were also functionally annotated using the DAVID system and are reported in Supplementary Table 2. The most significant DAVID keywords are shown for the subset in quadrant (a).

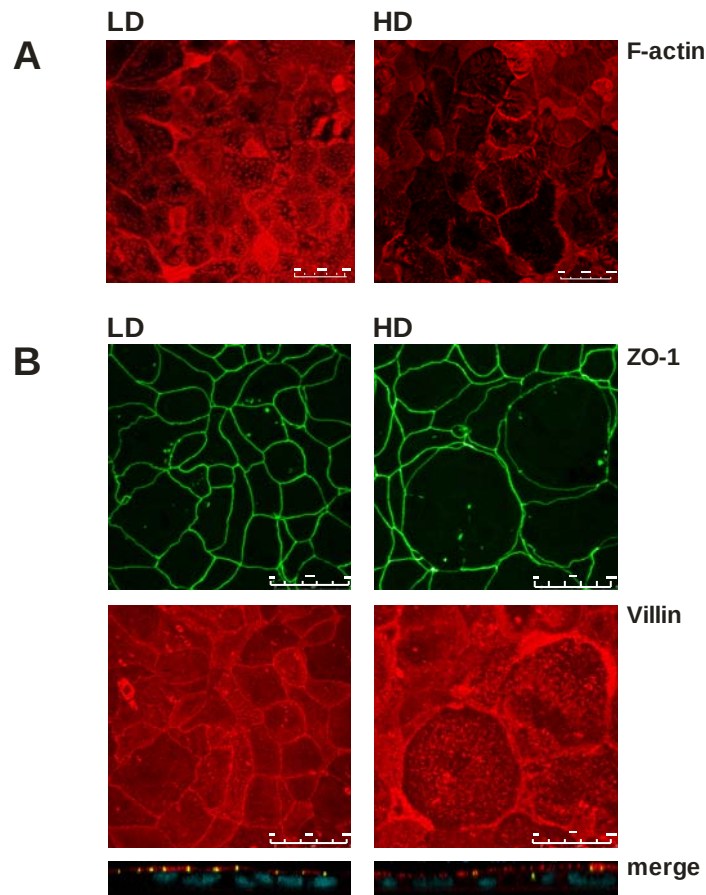


Figure 6. Localization by confocal microscopy of Caco-2 brush border proteins.

(A) Phalloidin-TRITC staining of F-actin of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells. Each image is the orthogonal maximum projection of a 100-frames z-stack. (B) ZO-1 and villin co-immunofluorescence staining of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells. Upper panel: orthogonal maximum projection (100-frames z-stack) of ZO-1 protein; middle panel: orthogonal maximum projection (100-frames z-stack) of villin protein; lower panel: perpendicular projection (100-frames z-stack) of merged ZO-1 (green) and villin (red) proteins with nuclei (cyan). Scale bars: 25 micron.

Cell-growth density deeply influence the architecture of polarized monolayer

We then investigated the effects of the two alternative cell-line culture protocol on the characteristics of differentiated cell monolayer, and in particular on the organization of proteins participating to the tight junction complex (Paris et al., 2008) and the structure of the brush border (Khurana and George, 2008).

Figure 6A shows representative images obtained by confocal microscopy of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells stained with phalloidin-TRITC. This staining is specific for the fraction of actin present in polymerized form (F-actin), which in the intestinal epithelium constitutes the cytoskeleton that runs all over the length of the microvilli, anchoring them to the terminal web located at the base (Friederich et al., 1990). The LD cells show a regular brush border, in which the microvilli are well distributed all over the monolayer surface and clearly defined by their content of F-actin, while the monolayer formed by HD cells was characterized by scarce amount of polymerized actin, showing large unstained regions.

Figure 6B shows the localization of the protein villin, one of the main structural component of the microvilli (Khurana and George, 2008). The co-staining with the tight-junction protein zonula occludens 1 (ZO-1) allowed identifying the apical domain of the cells (Fanning et al., 1998). In this case, the amount of villin was comparable between the two samples and its localization was correct in relation to the ZO-1 position. This result indicates that the morphological difference between the brush-border of the two cell types was mainly due to the different level of actin polymerization.

To further investigate the effects of the cell-line maintenance protocols on the structure and organization of the cell monolayer, we analyzed the localization of the tight junction proteins ZO-1 and claudin 4. These proteins are key components for the assembly and functionality of the tight junction barrier, and normally they possess a well defined localization along the perimeter of the cells. ZO-1 surrounds the upper side of the cell, defining the border of apical domain, while claudin 4 runs all over the lateral domain (Acharya et al., 2004).

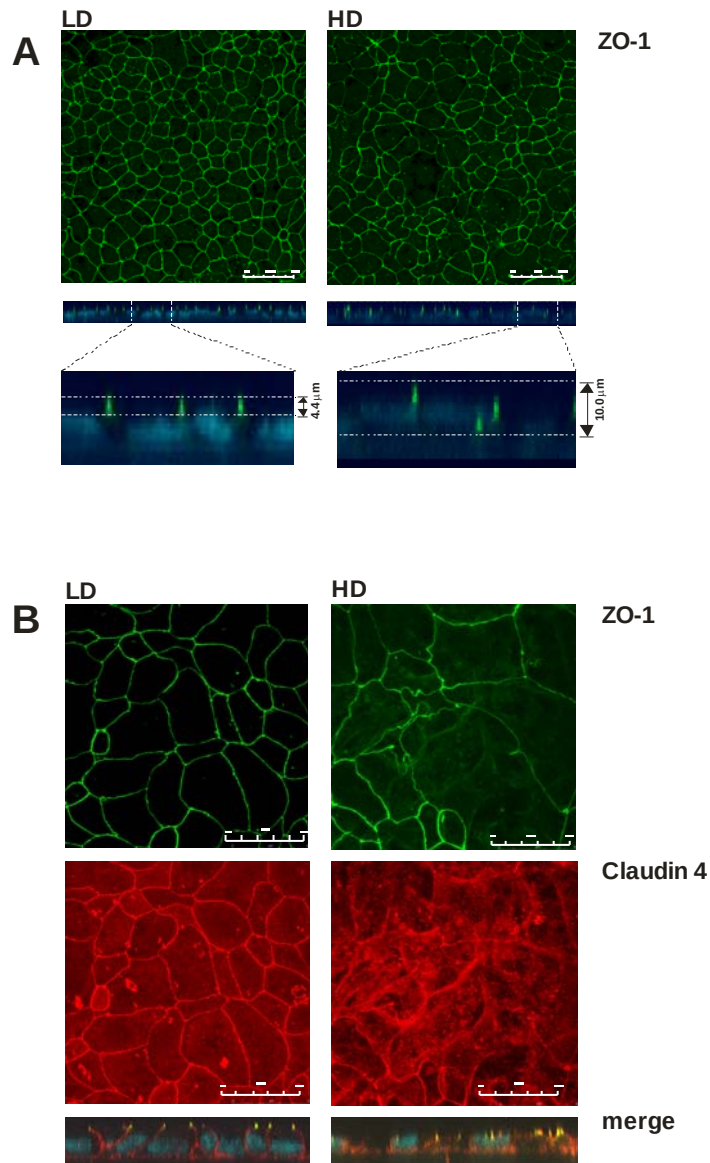


Figure 7. Localization by confocal microscopy of Caco-2 tight junction proteins.

(A) ZO-1 and claudin-4 co-immunofluorescence staining of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells. Each image is the orthogonal maximum projection of a 100-frames z-stack. Upper panel: orthogonal maximum projection of ZO-1 protein; medium panel: orthogonal maximum projection of claudin-4 protein; lower panel: perpendicular projection of merged ZO-1 (green), claudin-4 (red) and nuclei (cyan). Scale bar is 25 micron (B) ZO-1 immunofluorescence staining of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells. Each image is the orthogonal maximum projection of a 50-frames z-stack. Upper panel: orthogonal maximum projection of ZO-1 protein; medium panel: perpendicular projection of merged ZO-1 protein (green) and nuclei (cyan); lower panel: detail of the distribution of ZO-1 protein along the z-axis. Scale bar: 50 micron.

Figure 7A shows the immunostaining of ZO-1 in differentiated LD and HD cells. The ZO-1 localization in the orthogonal projection of the LD monolayer appears very regular, defining an homogeneous pattern of cell boundaries, further confirmed by the perpendicular projection, in which ZO-1 fluorescence is aligned in a narrow (about 4 μm) and well defined region. On the contrary, HD cells form a much more irregular monolayer, both in orthogonal and perpendicular view. The region containing the ZO-1 signals is wider (about 10 μm) and the signals are scattered and not aligned.

Figure 7B shows the consequences of the perturbed ZO-1 distribution on the localization of claudin-4. While in the LD monolayer both proteins are regularly aligned around the boundaries of the cells, in the HD one the correct localization of claudin 4 is completely lost, both in the orthogonal and the perpendicular projection.

Cell-growth density affects the Caco-2 response to toxic injury

On the basis of the above described differences in the structure of the junctional complex and in the aspect of the brush border, we asked whether the changes observed between LD and HD cells could also result in a different cellular response to toxic injury

To address this question, we carried out an acute treatment with increasing concentrations of copper chloride, a compound that enters into the Caco-2 cells mainly by its apical transporter DMT1 (SLC11A2) (Arredondo et al., 2003) and whose effects on the cells structure in terms of polymerization of the actin are well documented in literature (Ferruzza et al., 2002; Ferruzza et al., 1999b; Ferruzza et al., 1999a). In Figure 8A, the effect of 2 hours treatment with 100 and 300 μM CuCl_2 on the actin grade of polymerization is shown. We observed an increasing depolymerization of F-actin both in LD and HD cells, but the dose-effect ratio was not comparable between cell types. In HD cells the treatment with 100 μM CuCl_2 had substantially no effect on the polymerized fraction of actin, while the effect of the same concentration on LD cells were extremely evident, resulting in the actin almost complete depolymerization. Only at 300 μM CuCl_2 actin was completely depolymerized in both cell types and no difference was evident between them.

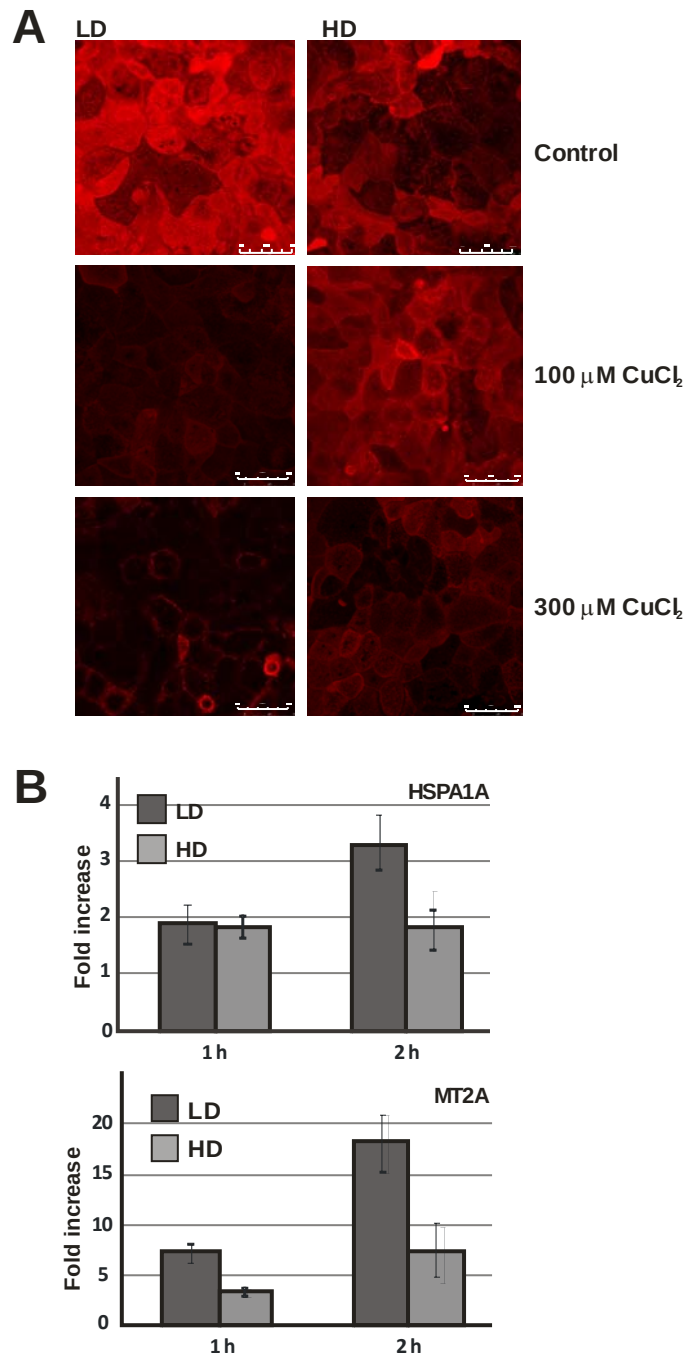


Figure 8. Response of LD and HD Caco-2 cells to copper chloride treatment.

(A) Phalloidin-TRITC staining of F-actin of 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells treated for 2 hours with increasing concentrations of copper chloride. Each image is the orthogonal maximum projection of a 100-frames z-stack. Scale bar: 25 micron. (B) Relative expression by quantitative RT-PCR of two genes involved in the response to copper toxicity, MT2A and HSPA1A, in 21-days differentiated LD and HD cells treated with 100 μ M CuCl₂ for 1 or 2 hours. The values are expressed as fold induction respect to untreated LD or HD differentiated cells.

To see if the different response of the two cell types was also reflected at the gene expression level, we measured by real-time RT-PCR the expression level of two genes involved in copper metabolism and toxicity response: the heat shock protein 70 (HSPA1A) and the metallothionein 2A (MT2A) (Song and Freedman, 2005). Figure 8B shows that after 1 and 2 hours of 100 μ M CuCl₂ treatment, the expression of MT2A was significantly higher in LD compared with HD cells. In the same experimental conditions, the increase of HSPA1A was time-dependent and more pronounced in LD cells, with a strong increase after 2 hours of treatment. Moreover, it is worthwhile to note, that in all these experiments, which have been repeated many times, the response of LD cells were always more reproducible and constant compared to the HD ones.

Discussion

We studied the effects elicited by Caco-2 cell line growth-density on the formation of the differentiated monolayer. To minimize the effects of any other difference, the experiments have been carried out using cells derived from the same source and applying rigorously standardized times of culture and differentiation, type of plastics, quality of animal serum and cell handling. Our results demonstrated how a simple modification of the routine manipulation of this cell line is sufficient to deeply influence the characteristics of the differentiated cells.

The general idea behind the new LD growth-differentiation protocol was to apply the differentiation-inducing conditions to totally undifferentiated actively-growing cells, avoiding as much as possible the intermediate stage of a partially differentiated inhomogeneous cell population. The cell cycle time of LD cells was shorter, suggesting that LD growing cell were more active and in healthier conditions. Moreover, comparing the cell cycle profiles of growing LD and HD cells, we found a higher number of LD cells in the proliferative compartment of the cell cycle, suggesting a more synchronous state of the cell population. The colony formation assay demonstrated how the HD cells have a reduced ability to attach to the plate (almost 50% less than LD ones), probably due to a selective pressure that acts against cells that have already started the differentiation program. On the contrary the LD cells were less subjected to this type of selection, because only a small subpopulation of these cells reached a degree of confluence sufficient to trigger the differentiation process.

The analysis of proteins involved in the exit from the cell cycle during 21 days of differentiation has been very informative. Results about pRB protein dephosphorylation (Tamrakar et al., 2000) showed that the HD cells withdraw from cell cycle at least 3-6 days before LD cells. The same time delay was confirmed analyzing the time-course of the levels of cyclin A and kinase inhibitor p27^{Kip} (Reed, 1997). The early exit from cell cycle showed by the HD cells can be a consequence of the higher degree of confluence in which these cells were maintained and it is consistent with their reduced ability to attach to the plate. Notwithstanding the delay in the onset of sucrase-isomaltase (Beaulieu et al., 1989) accumulation was in accord with the general delay in the exit from cell cycle of LD cells, its value level at plateau confirmed the capability of LD cells to differentiate at the same extent of the HD ones.

Analyzing the RT-qPCR time-course of LD and HD cells, we found that two genes encoding for transcription factors controlling intestinal cells differentiation, PPARG (Huin et al., 2002) and CDX2 (Walters, 2005), display similar trend and timing of transcript accumulation. Our interpretation is that both regulatory genes were induced by the same mechanism and with the same timing after cell seeding, starting the differentiation process. The other genes examined by RT-PCR are structural and functional differentiation markers, presumably controlled directly or indirectly by the two above-mentioned transcription factors. These genes could be grouped into two categories according to the trend and timing of their expression: the genes of the first category (MYO1A, SLC11A2, ALPI and CYP3A4) behaved almost in the same way in LD and HD cells, while the expression of the genes belonging to the second category (SI, ANPEP and CLDN4) increased significantly earlier in HD cells, in some case even before the peak of induction of CDX2 and PPARG. Our explanation of this fact is that HD cells have been subjected to a first round of transcriptional induction before the final seeding on the filters.

Notwithstanding this early induction, the level of SI accumulation in HD cells was lower of that reached at the end of differentiation by the LD cells. Also the induction of CYP3A4 was strong in LD cells both as absolute value and in comparison with the HD cells. It is worthwhile to note that previously in literature a similar variability in the expression of SI and CYP3A4 (this latter often undetectable in Caco-2 clones) was ascribed to interclonal variability and passage numbers (Fogh et al., 1977; Peterson and Mooseker, 1992; Schmiedlin-Ren et al., 1997a; Schmiedlin-Ren et al., 1997b).

The microarray data clearly demonstrated that the LD cell growing protocol was able to produce Caco-2 cells that after 21 days were capable to form a perfectly differentiated monolayer of mature enterocytes. Our data, even if limited to the comparison of growing and differentiated cells, appeared very similar and comparable to those recently published by Brown (Saaf et al., 2007; Halbleib et al., 2007). We found a good clusterization of microarray data with the biological processes involved in differentiation. The annotated gene list obtained using DAVID database tools showed a good correlation between the genes up or down regulated in our model and those expected to be up- or down-regulated in intestinal differentiation.

Analyzing the microarray data obtained comparing the 21-day differentiated LD versus HD cells, we found only a limited number of differences. We found 163 differentially expressed genes, which, since we were comparing two differentiated cultures

obtained from the same original cell clone and differing only for the growth-density conditions, represents a significant number. More interestingly, about one third of these modulated genes correspond to genes that are regulated during the differentiation process. In our opinion, this significant modulation of the gene expression of the differentiated cells supports our hypothesis that the initial growth-density condition of a Caco-2 cell culture affects the quality of the subsequent differentiation process.

Acknowledgements

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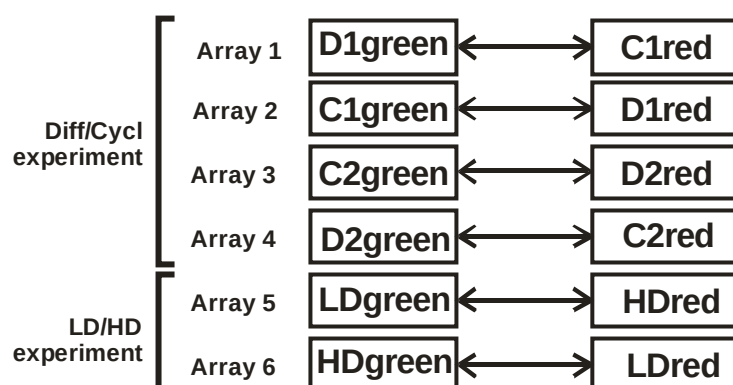
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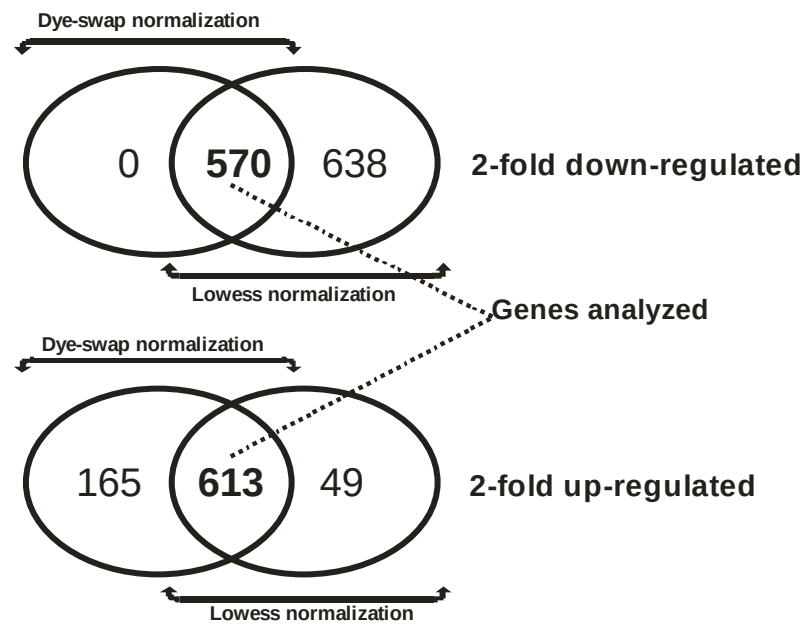
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Appendix I – Supplementary Data



Supplementary Figure S1. Whole genome expression profiling using Agilent two-color microarray platform.

In the figure are schematized the experimental designs of the Diff/Cycl and the LD/HD microarray experiments. Each rectangle represents one labeled cRNA. The headers inside the rectangles have the following meaning: C, cycling cells; D, differentiated cells, 1 and 2 refers to the biological replicate samples; Red and Green, refers to the cyanine label (either Red, cyanine 5 or Green, cyanine 3).



Supplementary Figure S2. Venn diagrams summarizing the results of the normalization and filtering methods applied to the Diff/Cycl row data.

The data from the Diff/Cycl experiment were normalized using both the Lowess and the dye-swap methods and the 2-fold differentially up-regulated and down-regulated genes were selected by filtering a combination of both normalized data sets.

Supplementary Figure S3. Hierarchical clustering, with Euclidean distance, of filtered normalized expression data obtained from the two-color microarray experiment “Diff/Cycl” where the Caco-2 LD proliferating cells are screened versus the Caco-2 LD cycling cells.

Log₂ of relative expression values are shown. The set used for clustering is composed by the 1183 genes that show an average ratio Differentiated/Cycling greater than 2.0 or smaller than 1/2.0 (in the linear scale) in normalized data, where the normalization procedure included both the Lowess and dye-swap methods (see Materials and Methods and Figure S2). The 4 columns correspond to the Log₂ ratio Differentiated/Cycling for the 4 arrays: 2 couples of biological replicates and the corresponding 2 dye-swapped technical replicates. The column headers have the following meaning: C, cycling cells; D, differentiated cells, 1 and 2 refers to the biological replicate samples; Red and Green, refers to the cyanine label (either Red, cyanine 5 or Green, cyanine 3). The sample tree on the top of the diagram shows that the technical replicates cluster together as expected. The gene annotation using the DAVID system is shown to the right: on the top are listed all the statistically significant functional categories (under- or over-represented in the gene set), below every black mark indicates that the corresponding gene belongs to the category on the top. The categories definitions and the genes belonging to them are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

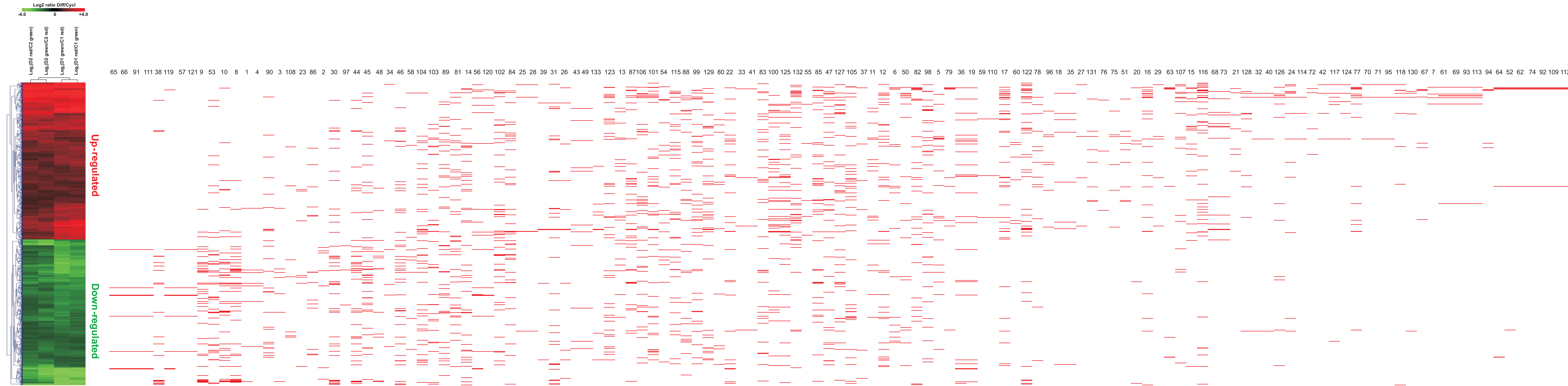


Figure S2

Supplementary Table 1. List of the statistically significant functional categories obtained submitting to the DAVID web tool the 1183 genes that show an average ratio Differentiated/Cycling greater than 2.0 or smaller than 1/2.0.

First column lists functional category numbers that identify the specific category, corresponding to those reported in Figure 4 and in Figure S3. Second column lists DAVID category type as described in Material and Methods. Third column describes the complete definition of the category term. Fourth column indicates the number of genes of the submitted data set that match the corresponding category. In the fifth column is shown the percent of genes found in the data set that match the category. The sixth column shows the significance of the category in the submitted data set in terms of p-value. Finally are named the genes belonging to that category found in the data set.

Supplementary Table 1

[illegible]

Supplementary Table 2. List of the genes of LD cells showing at least 1.5-fold increase or decrease with respect to the HD cells

First column reports the gene symbol, the second the gene description, the third the RefSeq number and the last column reports the values of LD/HD ratio.

Supplementary Table 2			
GeneSymbol	Description	RefSeq	LD/HD
PFKFB3	6-phosphofructo-2-kinase/fructose-2,6-biphosphatase 3	NM_004566	0.12
LOC253012	hypothetical protein LOC253012	NM_198151	0.32
CYBRD1	cytochrome b reductase 1	NM_024843	0.32
A_32_P7974			0.34
ITLN1	intelectin 1 (galactofuranose binding)	NM_017625	0.39
BU561469	Transcribed locus		0.40
GNGL3	guanine nucleotide binding protein (G protein), gamma 13	NM_016541	0.42
PRAP1	proline-rich acidic protein 1	NM_145202	0.46
SIGLEC11	sialic acid binding Ig-like lectin 11	NM_052884	0.48
AK128714	Similar to embigin homolog		0.50
G0S2	G0/G1switch 2	NM_015714	0.50
SERPINA6	serpin peptidase inhibitor, clade A (alpha-1 antiproteinase, antitrypsin), member 6	NM_001756	0.51
SAMD9L	sterile alpha motif domain containing 9-like	NM_152703	0.51
KLHL13	kelch-like 13 (Drosophila)	NM_033495	0.51
APOH	apolipoprotein H (beta-2-glycoprotein I)	NM_000042	0.51
AL049990	Chromosome 4 open reading frame 31		0.52
LOC124220	similar to common salivary protein 1	NM_145252	0.54
SI	sucrase-isomaltase (alpha-glucosidase)	NM_001041	0.54
IF	complement factor I	NM_000204	0.54
FGA	fibrinogen alpha chain	NM_021871	0.54
SPON1	spondin 1, extracellular matrix protein	NM_006108	0.55
MIA2	melanoma inhibitory activity 2	NM_054024	0.55
CPA2	carboxypeptidase A2 (pancreatic)	NM_001869	0.55
FLJ23191	chromosome 4 open reading frame 31	NM_024574	0.55
CR603982	MRNA; cDNA DKFzp313B1017 (from clone DKFZp313B1017)		0.56
IF	complement factor I	NM_000204	0.56
THC2406147	BF476310 naa21a07.x1 NCL_CGAP_Pr28 Homo sapiens cDNA clone IMAGE:3255444		0.56
	3' similar to contains Alu repetitive element;contains element MIR MIR repetitive element ;, mRNA sequence [BF476310]		
	ALU7_HUMAN (P39194) Alu subfamily SQ sequence contamination warning entry, partial (17%) [THC2437430]		
THC2437430			0.56
REN	renin	NM_000537	0.56
ICAM2	intercellular adhesion molecule 2	NM_000873	0.56
ENST00000361681			0.56
ADH4	alcohol dehydrogenase 4 (class II), pi polypeptide	NM_000670	0.57
AFP	alpha-fetoprotein	NM_001134	0.57
C9orf125	chromosome 9 open reading frame 125	NM_032342	0.57
CYBRD1	cytochrome b reductase 1	NM_024843	0.57
BCDO2	beta-carotene dioxygenase 2	NM_031938	0.58
U52054	S6 H-8 mRNA expressed in chromosome 6-suppressed melanoma cells		0.58
PRKACB	protein kinase, cAMP-dependent, catalytic, beta	NM_002731	0.58
FRAS1	Homo sapiens Fraser syndrome 1 (FRAS1), transcript variant 2, mRNA [NM_206841]	NM_206841	0.59
MAN1A1	mannosidase, alpha, class 1A, member 1	NM_005907	0.59
MAN1A1	mannosidase, alpha, class 1A, member 1	NM_005907	0.60
PKIB	protein kinase (cAMP-dependent, catalytic) inhibitor beta	NM_181795	0.61
COL5A2	collagen, type V, alpha 2	NM_000393	0.62
A_24_P508946			0.62
F3	coagulation factor III (thromboplastin, tissue factor)	NM_001993	0.62
AK128714	Similar to embigin homolog		0.63
GALNTL1	UDP-N-acetyl-alpha-D-galactosamine:polypeptide N-	NM_020692	0.63
	acetyl-galactosaminyltransferase-like 1		
TFF2	trefoil factor 2 (spasmolytic protein 1)	NM_005423	0.63
YAP1	Yes-associated protein 1, 65kDa	NM_006106	0.63
ENST00000305820			0.64
C1S	complement component 1, s subcomponent	NM_001734	0.65
LOC339483	Homo sapiens hypothetical protein LOC339483 (LOC339483), mRNA [NM_178546]	NM_178546	0.65
THC2434747	1P3K_A Chain A, Crystallographic Studies Of Nucleosome Core Particles Containing Histone 'sin' Mutants. (Xenopus laevis;), partial (30%) [THC2434747]		1.09
SLCO4A1	solute carrier organic anion transporter family, member 4A1	NM_016354	1.52
AJ293393	MRNA differentially expressed in malignant melanoma, clone MM D3		1.52
ADAM19	ADAM metallopeptidase domain 19 (meltrin beta)	NM_033274	1.53
P8	nuclear protein 1	NM_012385	1.54
CD104030	Transcribed locus		1.55
F2	coagulation factor II (thrombin)	NM_000506	1.55
TOP2A	topoisomerase (DNA) II alpha 170kDa	NM_001067	1.56
ARHGAP22	Rho GTPase activating protein 22	NM_021226	1.57
C20orf55	family with sequence similarity 110, member A	NM_207121	1.57
APOM	apolipoprotein M	NM_019101	1.57
BRCA1	breast cancer 1, early onset	NM_007295	1.57
EGLN3	egl nine homolog 3 (C. elegans)	NM_022073	1.57
LEPREL1	leprecan-like 1	NM_018192	1.58
NNMT	nicotinamide N-methyltransferase	NM_006169	1.58
KIAA1102	hypothetical protein	NM_014988	1.58
ATP1B1	ATPase, Na+/K+ transporting, beta 1 polypeptide	NM_001677	1.58
ITGB3BP	integrin beta 3 binding protein (beta3-endonexin)	NM_014288	1.59
ANXA1	annexin A1	NM_000700	1.59
CEACAM7	carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule 7	NM_006890	1.59
XAGE3	X antigen family, member 3	NM_130776	1.60
CDCA1	NUF2, NDC80 kinetochore complex component, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_145697	1.60
KIAA1181	endoplasmic reticulum-golgi intermediate compartment (ERGIC) 1		1.60
GDPD2	glycerophosphodiester phosphodiesterase domain containing 2	NM_017711	1.60
OXCT1	3-oxoacid CoA transferase 1	NM_000436	1.61
SLC12A2	solute carrier family 12 (sodium/potassium/chloride transporters), member 2	NM_001046	1.61
ANP32A	acidic (leucine-rich) nuclear phosphoprotein 32 family, member A	NM_006305	1.61
CENPH	centromere protein H	NM_022909	1.62
CSF1R	colony stimulating factor 1 receptor, formerly McDonough feline sarcoma viral (-fms) oncogene homolog	NM_005211	1.62
BIRC5	baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 5 (survivin)	NM_001012271	1.62
FLJ39647	chromosome 17 open reading frame 78	NM_173625	1.63
FAM64A	family with sequence similarity 64, member A	NM_019013	1.64
TMEM42	transmembrane protein 42	NM_144638	1.64
SLC2A14	solute carrier family 2 (facilitated glucose transporter), member 14		1.64
PBK	PDZ binding kinase	NM_018492	1.64
DLG7	discs, large homolog 7 (Drosophila)	NM_014750	1.64
KIF15	kinesin family member 15	NM_020242	1.65
GSG2	germ cell associated 2 (haspin)		1.66
MT2A	metallothionein 2A	NM_005953	1.66
CCNB1	cyclin B1	NM_031966	1.66
ASNS	asparagine synthetase	NM_001673	1.67
LAMA1	laminin, alpha 1	NM_005559	1.67
CHMP4B	chromatin modifying protein 4B	NM_176812	1.67
CEACAM6	carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule 6 (non-specific cross reacting antigen)	NM_002483	1.68
AK098511	CDNA FLJ25645 fis, clone SYN00113		1.68
THC2279735			1.69
SLA	Src-like-adaptor	NM_006748	1.69
CD24	CD24 molecule	NM_013230	1.69
BMP7	bone morphogenetic protein 7 (osteogenic protein 1)	NM_001719	1.69
LFNG	Homo sapiens lunatic fringe homolog (Drosophila) (LFNG), mRNA [NM_002304]	NM_002304	1.69
AL581048	Aldehyde dehydrogenase 18 family, member A1		1.69
GAJ	meiotic nuclear divisions 1 homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_032117	1.69
PPP3R1	protein phosphatase 3 (formerly 2B), regulatory subunit B, alpha isoform	NM_000945	1.69
ESRRG	estrogen-related receptor gamma	NM_206594	1.70
LMNB1	lamin B1	NM_005573	1.70
UBE2C	ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2C	NM_181803	1.70
INHBB	inhibin, beta B (activin AB beta polypeptide)	NM_002193	1.71
ZC3H7B	zinc finger CCCH-type containing 7B	NM_017590	1.72
RRM2	ribonucleotide reductase M2 polypeptide	NM_001034	1.72
LAMA1	laminin, alpha 1	NM_005559	1.73
CDC2	cell division cycle 2, G1 to S and G2 to M	NM_001786	1.74
PTTG2	pituitary tumor-transforming 2	NM_006607	1.74
CEACAM7	carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule 7	NM_006890	1.76
CEACAM6	carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule 6 (non-specific cross reacting antigen)		1.76
DPEP1	dipeptidase 1 (renal)	NM_004413	1.76
KRT20	keratin 20	NM_019010	1.76
KNTC2	NDC80 homolog, kinetochore complex component (S. cerevisiae)	NM_006101	1.78
DNAJC15	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily C, member 15	NM_013238	1.78
IGFBP2	insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2, 36kDa	NM_000597	1.78
FKSG14	centromere protein K	NM_022145	1.79
DHRS2	dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR family) member 2	NM_182908	1.79
C3	complement component 3	NM_000064	1.79
MTHFD2	methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase (NADP+ dependent) 2, methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase	NM_006636	1.79
FLJ36031	hypothetical protein FLJ36031	NM_175884	1.79
PLB1	phospholipase B1		1.80
SLC17A4	solute carrier family 17 (sodium phosphate), member 4	NM_005495	1.81
ST6GALNAC1	ST6 (alpha-N-acetyl-neuraminy1-2,3-beta-galactosyl-1,3)-N-acetylgalactosaminide alpha-2,6-sialyltransferase 1	NM_018414	1.82
MLF1IP	MLF1 interacting protein	NM_024629	1.83
TSPAN5	tetraspanin 5	NM_005723	1.83
ALPPL2	alkaline phosphatase, placental-like 2	NM_031313	1.84
CHMP4B	chromatin modifying protein 4B	NM_176812	1.86
PTPRR	protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, R	NM_002849	1.87
GNRH2	gonadotropin-releasing hormone 2	NM_178332	1.88
TRIM55	tripartite motif-containing 55	NM_184086	1.88
DHRS2	dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR family) member 2	NM_182908	1.90
SPBC25	SPC25, NDC80 kinetochore complex component, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_020675	1.91
DPYSL3	dihydropyrimidinase-like 3	NM_001387	1.98
S100P	S100 calcium binding protein P	NM_005980	1.98
PLSCR4	phospholipid scramblase 4	NM_020353	1.99
GPX7	glutathione peroxidase 7	NM_015696	1.99
BCAT1	branched chain aminotransferase 1, cytosolic	NM_005504	2.00
PPP2R2B	protein phosphatase 2 (formerly 2A), regulatory subunit B, beta isoform	NM_004576	2.01
IGFBP1	insulin-like growth factor binding protein 1	NM_000596	2.01
GNRH2	gonadotropin-releasing hormone 2	NM_001501	2.06
CPE	carboxypeptidase E	NM_001873	2.07
SLC39A2	solute carrier family 39 (zinc transporter), member 2	NM_014579	2.08
CP	ceruloplasmin (ferroxidase)	NM_000096	2.08
TSPAN5	tetraspanin 5		2.09
LAMA1	laminin, alpha 1	NM_005559	2.14
IL1B	interleukin 1, beta	NM_000576	2.15
SPARC	secreted protein, acidic, cysteine-rich (osteonectin)	NM_003118	2.22
KRT23	Homo sapiens keratin 23 (histone deacetylase inducible) (KRT23), transcript variant 2, mRNA [NM_173213]	NM_173213	2.24
MMP1	matrix metalloproteinase 1 (interstitial collagenase)	NM_002421	2.25
SOX2	SRY (sex determining region Y)-box 2	NM_003106	2.27
KIAA1102	hypothetical protein	NM_014988	2.37
SOCS2	suppressor of cytokine signaling 2	NM_003877	2.38
SULF2	sulfatase 2	NM_018837	2.50
THC2439829			2.53
GSTM3	glutathione S-transferase M3 (brain)	NM_000849	3.19
PAGE4	P antigen family, member 4 (prostate associated)	NM_007003	3.44
GSTM3	glutathione S-transferase M3 (brain)	NM_000849	3.68

Supplementary Table 3. List of the genes found at the intersection of the sets of differentially expressed genes obtained from the “Diff/Cycl” and the “LD/HD” experiments.

First column reports the gene symbol, the second the gene description, the third the RefSeq number. Fourth and fifth columns report the Log2 Diff/Cycl and Log2 LD/HD ratios, respectively. Last column indicates the quadrant of the scatter plot of Figure 5 in which the gene matches.

Supplementary Table 3

GeneSymbol	Description	RefSeq	Log2 Diff/Cycl	Log2 LD/HD	Quadrant
SOCS2	suppressor of cytokine signaling 2	NM_003877	-3.55	1.25	a
MT2A	metallothionein 2A	NM_005953	-3.01	0.73	a
ANXA1	annexin A1	NM_000700	-2.85	0.67	a
DPYSL3	dihydropyrimidinase-like 3	NM_001387	-2.84	0.98	a
BIRC5	baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 5 (survivin)	NM_001012271	-2.82	0.69	a
CCNB1	cyclin B1	NM_031966	-2.77	0.73	a
MTHFD2	methylenetetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase (NADP+ dependent) 2, methenyltetrahydrofolate cyclohydrolase	NM_006636	-2.77	0.84	a
UBE2C	ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2C	NM_181803	-2.73	0.77	a
SLC2A14	solute carrier family 2 (facilitated glucose transporter), member 14		-2.55	0.71	a
CDC2	cell division cycle 2, G1 to S and G2 to M	NM_001786	-2.30	0.80	a
SPBC25	SPC25, NDC80 kinetochore complex component, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_020675	-2.27	0.93	a
BCAT1	branched chain aminotransferase 1, cytosolic	NM_005504	-2.26	1.00	a
ASNS	asparagine synthetase	NM_001673	-2.22	0.74	a
KNTC2	NDC80 homolog, kinetochore complex component (S. cerevisiae)	NM_006101	-2.01	0.83	a
RRM2	ribonucleotide reductase M2 polypeptide	NM_001034	-1.98	0.78	a
DLG7	discs, large homolog 7 (Drosophila)	NM_014750	-1.83	0.72	a
FAM64A	family with sequence similarity 64, member A	NM_019013	-1.83	0.71	a
BMP7	bone morphogenetic protein 7 (osteogenic protein 1)	NM_001719	-1.82	0.75	a
DNAJC15	DnaJ (Hsp40) homolog, subfamily C, member 15	NM_013238	-1.76	0.83	a
TOP2A	topoisomerase (DNA) II alpha 170kDa	NM_001067	-1.75	0.64	a
PBK	PDZ binding kinase	NM_018492	-1.74	0.71	a
BRCA1	breast cancer 1, early onset	NM_007295	-1.73	0.65	a
PTTG2	pituitary tumor-transforming 2	NM_006607	-1.70	0.80	a
MLF1IP	MLF1 interacting protein	NM_024629	-1.62	0.87	a
GSG2	germ cell associated 2 (haspin)		-1.57	0.73	a
CDA1	NUF2, NDC80 kinetochore complex component, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_145697	-1.44	0.68	a
SLC12A2	solute carrier family 12 (sodium/potassium/chloride transporters), member 2	NM_001046	-1.42	0.69	a
GAJ	meiotic nuclear divisions 1 homolog (S. cerevisiae)	NM_032117	-1.32	0.76	a
FKSG14	centromere protein K	NM_022145	-1.13	0.84	a
KIF15	kinesin family member 15	NM_020242	-1.02	0.73	a
DHRS2	dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR family) member 2	NM_182908	-0.88	0.93	a
G0S2	G0/G1switch 2	NM_015714	4.99	-1.00	c
SERPINA6	serpin peptidase inhibitor, clade A (alpha-1 antiproteinase, antitrypsin), member 6	NM_001756	2.31	-0.98	c
KLHL13	kelch-like 13 (Drosophila)	NM_033495	1.21	-0.97	c
APOH	apolipoprotein H (beta-2-glycoprotein I)	NM_000042	3.33	-0.97	c
SI	sucrase-isomaltase (alpha-glucosidase)	NM_001041	4.12	-0.89	c
FGA	fibrinogen alpha chain	NM_021871	1.05	-0.88	c
SPON1	spondin 1, extracellular matrix protein	NM_006108	1.36	-0.87	c
CR603982	MRNA; cDNA DKFZp313B1017 (from clone DKFZp313B1017)		2.77	-0.85	c
AFP	alpha-fetoprotein	NM_001134	3.36	-0.82	c
PKIB	protein kinase (cAMP-dependent, catalytic) inhibitor beta	NM_181795	1.70	-0.72	c
COL5A2	collagen, type V, alpha 2	NM_000393	1.11	-0.70	c
A_24_P508946			3.29	-0.69	c
TFF2	trefoil factor 2 (spasmodic protein 1)	NM_005423	3.05	-0.67	c
ENST00000305820			1.13	-0.65	c
LOC339483	Homo sapiens hypothetical protein LOC339483 (LOC339483), mRNA [NM_178546]	NM_178546	0.86	-0.62	c
F2	coagulation factor II (thrombin)	NM_000506	2.14	0.63	b
APOM	apolipoprotein M	NM_019101	4.76	0.65	b
FLJ39647	chromosome 17 open reading frame 78	NM_173625	2.82	0.71	b
SLA	Src-like-adaptor	NM_006748	2.01	0.75	b
IGFBP2	insulin-like growth factor binding protein 2, 36kDa	NM_000597	3.07	0.83	b
SLC17A4	solute carrier family 17 (sodium phosphate), member 4	NM_005495	2.52	0.86	b
PTPRR	protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, R	NM_002849	2.02	0.91	b
GNRH2	gonadotropin-releasing hormone 2	NM_178332	1.59	0.91	b
GNRH2	gonadotropin-releasing hormone 2	NM_001501	1.69	1.04	b
SULF2	sulfatase 2	NM_018837	1.79	1.32	b

Appendix II

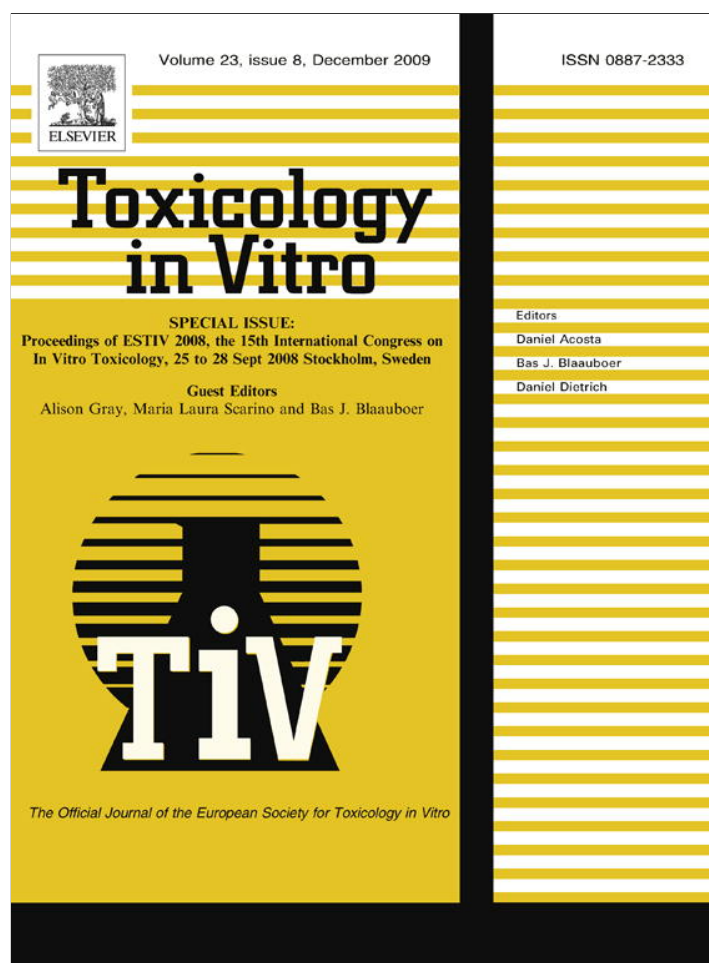
Mechanisms of defence from Fe(II) toxicity in human intestinal Caco-2 cells

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Iron is used to cure iron-deficient anaemia but can also be toxic to the intestine. Fe(II) toxicity was investigated using differentiated human intestinal Caco-2 cells treated with 15 and 50 μ M of Fe(II)/ascorbate for 2 h (acute phase), and followed for 24 h after iron removal and replacement of complete culture medium (late phase). During the acute phase damage to tight junctions occurred as demonstrated by an increase in cell monolayer permeability and by partial delocalization of the tight junction protein claudin 4 from the plasma membrane to an intracellular compartment. At the end of the late phase, cells treated with 15 μ M Fe(II) showed full restoration of claudin 4 localization to the plasma membrane and their tight junction permeability returned to values close to those of control cells. Conversely, cells treated with 50 μ M Fe(II) showed sustained and irreversible damage to the tight junctions, accompanied by apoptosis and necrosis. Activation of NF- κ B occurred at both Fe(II) concentrations after 30 min of Fe(II) treatment, followed, at the end of the acute phase, by a strong induction of mRNA coding for heat shock protein 70 and metallothionein 2A. Our results indicate that intestinal cells respond to iron toxicity by strongly activating two genes involved in cell response to stress, although the outcome in terms of cell survival is different depending on the dose of treatment, namely almost complete restoration of epithelial permeability and cell survival at 15 μ M Fe(II), and progressive and irreversible cytotoxicity leading to apoptosis and necrosis at 50 μ M Fe(II).



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ABSTRACT

Iron is used to cure iron-deficient anaemia but can also be toxic to the intestine. Fe(II) toxicity was investigated using differentiated human intestinal Caco-2 cells treated with 15 and 50 μ M of Fe(II)/ascorbate for 2 h (acute phase), and followed for 24 h after iron removal and replacement of complete culture medium (late phase). During the acute phase damage to tight junctions occurred as demonstrated by an increase in cell monolayer permeability and by partial delocalization of the tight junction protein claudin 4 from the plasma membrane to an intracellular compartment. At the end of the late phase, cells treated with 15 μ M Fe(II) showed full restoration of claudin 4 localization to the plasma membrane and their tight junction permeability returned to values close to those of control cells. Conversely, cells treated with 50 μ M Fe(II) showed sustained and irreversible damage to the tight junctions, accompanied by apoptosis and necrosis. Activation of NF- κ B occurred at both Fe(II) concentrations after 30 min of Fe(II) treatment, followed, at the end of the acute phase, by a strong induction of mRNA coding for heat shock protein 70 and metallothionein 2A. Our results indicate that intestinal cells respond to iron toxicity by strongly activating two genes involved in cell response to stress, although the outcome in terms of cell survival is different depending on the dose of treatment, namely almost complete restoration of epithelial permeability and cell survival at 15 μ M Fe(II), and progressive and irreversible cytotoxicity leading to apoptosis and necrosis at 50 μ M Fe(II).

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1. Introduction

Iron is the most abundant transition metal in the body and it is an essential micronutrient required for many important biological processes, however, when in excess, it can generate oxidative stress due to the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in aqueous solutions (Puntarulo, 2005). Tightly regulated cellular mechanisms have evolved to govern the absorption, utilization and sequestration of iron (Hentze et al., 2004). In mammals, there is no pathway for iron excretion and whole body iron homeostasis is almost exclusively regulated through its absorption at the level of the intestinal mucosa (Sharp and Srai, 2007). However, since iron absorption in humans ranges from 1% to 30% of the whole quantity ingested with the diet and daily iron requirements are relatively high (11–12 mg/day), iron deficiency is still a public health concern worldwide (Tapiero et al., 2001). To fight iron-deficient anaemia, especially in children and in women in the reproductive age, this metal is frequently prescribed as a supplement or it is

Abbreviations: HEPES, N-2-hydroxyethyl piperazine-N-4-butanedisulfonic acid; MES, morpholinoethanesulfonic acid; Papp, apparent permeability; PI, propidium iodide; qRT-PCR, quantitative reverse transcription-PCR; ROS, reactive oxygen species; TEER, trans-epithelial electrical resistance.

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used to fortify food. However, in addition to the well known toxic effects of iron overload (Puntarulo, 2005), even iron supplementation can cause damage and increased permeability of the intestinal mucosa, as demonstrated by a recent follow-up study in African schoolchildren (Nchito et al., 2006).

Using the human intestinal Caco-2 cell line as an *in vitro* model of human absorptive small intestine (Sambuy et al., 2005), we have previously shown that Fe(II) ascorbate can cause a biphasic cytotoxic effect indicated by an early increase in tight junction permeability and disorganization of the perijunctional F-actin cytoskeleton (during iron treatment), followed by a delayed toxicity leading to apoptosis and necrosis (during the 24 h that followed iron treatment), and that this latter phase was mediated by the generation of ROS (Ferruzza et al., 2002, 2003). In the present paper, we therefore aimed at better characterizing the mechanisms underlying the observed iron cytotoxic effects in Caco-2 cells.

Briefly, we have shown that during Fe(II) treatment the increase in tight junction permeability was accompanied by delocalization of the tight junction protein claudin 4 and by activation of the redox-sensitive transcription factor NF- κ B. This led, at both concentration tested, to increased transcription of genes coding for proteins involved in stress response, namely heat shock protein 70 (HSPA1A) and metallothionein 2A, (MT2A). After 24 h from treatment with 15 μ M Fe(II), tight junction permeability returned

to values close to control and claudin 4 localization at the plasma membrane was restored. Conversely, at 50 μM Fe(II) in spite of additional increase in transcription of genes involved in ROS and iron detoxification, namely HSPA1A, MT2A, Mn-superoxide dismutase (SOD2) and ferritin heavy chain (FTH1), apoptosis was activated leading, at the end of the late phase, to irreversible cytotoxic damage and extensive cell death.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cell culture

The human intestinal Caco-2 cell line was originally obtained from Prof. Alan Zweibaum (INSERM, Villejuif, France). Cells were routinely subcultured when they reached 50% density and were maintained at 37 °C in a 90% air/10% CO₂ atmosphere in DMEM containing 25 mM glucose, 3.7 g/L NaHCO₃ and supplemented with 4 mM L-glutamine, 1% non essential amino acids, 100 U/L penicillin, 100 $\mu\text{g/L}$ streptomycin, and 10% heat-inactivated foetal calf serum (Gibco) (complete medium). Immunofluorescence and gene expression experiments were performed on cells seeded on polyethylene-terephthalate filter inserts (0.4 μm pore diameter, 4.71 cm²; Becton-Dickinson), while permeability studies were performed on cells seeded on polycarbonate filter inserts (Transwell, 0.4 μm pore diameter, 1.13 cm²; Corning). Cells were seeded on filters at a density of 3·10⁵ cell/cm² and maintained for 21 days in complete medium; the medium was changed three times a week.

2.2. Iron treatment

Caco-2 cells were treated for 2 h (acute treatment) from the apical side with 15 and 50 μM Fe(II)/ascorbate in Balanced Salt Solution (BSS) (137 mM NaCl, 5.36 mM KCl, 0.44 mM KH₂PO₄, 1 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM MgCl₂, 5.6 mM glucose) containing 20 mM morpholinoetanesulfonic acid (MES) pH 6.0 while the basolateral compartment contained BSS complemented with 20 mM N-2-hydroxyethyl piperazine-N-4-butanesulfonic acid (HEPES), pH 7.4. The Fe(II)/ascorbate complex was freshly prepared as previously described (Ferruzza et al., 2003). During acute treatment, the permeability of the cell monolayer was monitored by measuring the trans-epithelial electrical resistance (TEER) at 37 °C, using a commercial apparatus (Millicell ERS, Millipore). At the end of the experiment, cells were washed with phosphate buffered saline containing 1 mM CaCl₂ and 1 mM MgCl₂ (PBS⁺⁺) and either immediately utilized to measure phenol red permeability, or transferred to complete culture medium in the incubator at 37 °C for 24 h to follow the late phase effects of Fe(II) treatment. Phenol red permeability was also measured at the end of late phase as previously described and expressed as apparent permeability (Papp) in cm/s (Ferruzza et al., 2003).

2.3. Cell imaging

For ZO-1 and claudin 4 localization, cells were processed by standard immunofluorescence techniques as previously described

(Ferruzza et al., 2002). Briefly, ZO-1 and claudin 4 were localized on methanol-fixed cells with commercially available mouse monoclonal antibodies (antibody to ZO-1 clone 1A12 antibody to claudin 4 clone 3E2C1 respectively; Zymed Laboratories). Apoptotic cells were stained by immunofluorescence with a mouse monoclonal antibody against cytokeratine 18 fragments (clone M30, Roche Diagnostics) on methanol-fixed cells as previously described (Ranaldi et al., 2007). The secondary antibody utilized was Alexa Fluor 488 goat anti-mouse IgG (Invitrogen). For propidium iodide staining of necrotic cells, they were washed twice in PBS⁺⁺, treated for 5 min with 0.001% propidium iodide (Sigma–Aldrich) in PBS⁺⁺, washed again and fluorescence immediately viewed without mounting medium.

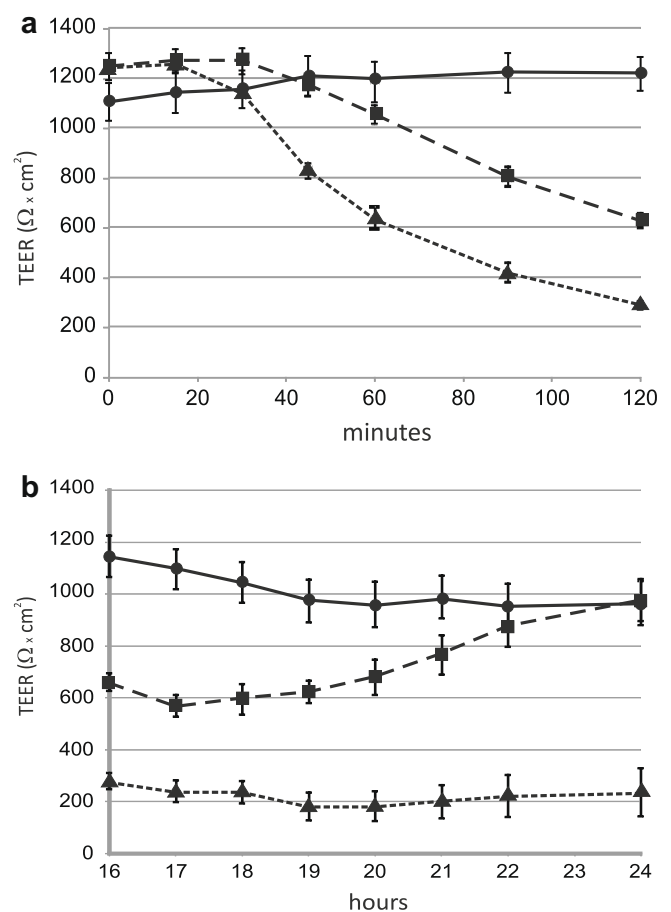


Fig. 1. Effects of Fe(II) exposure on tight junction permeability in Caco-2 cells. (a) Time course of TEER changes in Caco-2 cells treated from the apical side with 0, 15 and 50 μM Fe(II) for 2 h (acute phase). (b) Time course of TEER changes measured from 16 to 24 h after Fe(II) removal and transfer of the cells to complete medium (late phase). Data from a representative experiment performed in triplicate are shown as mean $\pm$ SD.

Table 1

Sequences of the primers and hydrolysis probes used for qRT-PCR of transcripts coding for ferritin heavy chain (FTH1), claudin 4 (CLDN4), heat shock protein 70 (HSPA1A), Mg-superoxide dismutase (SOD2), metallothionein 2A (MT2A) and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate hydrogenase (GAPDH).

Gene symbol	Accession No.	Sense primer	Antisense primer	Hydrolysis probe
FTH1	NM_002032	GCCAGAACTACCACCAGGAC	ACATCATCGCGGTCAAAGTA	CCTGGAGC
CLDN4	NM_005073	TCCGCCAAGTATTCTGCTG	CGTGGCACCTTACACGTAGTT	CTGCTGCC
HSPA1A	NM_005345	AAGACCGAGCTCTTCTCG	GCTCGGCTCTGAGATTGG	TCCAGTGT
SOD2	NM_000636	CTGGACAAACCTCAGCCCTA	TGATGGCTTCCAGCAACTC	TGGTGGAG
MT2A	NM_005953	CTCTAGCCGCTCTTCAGC	ACTCTTTGCAITTCAGGAAC	CTGCTCCT
GAPDH	NM_002046	AGCCACATCGCTCAGACA	GCCCAATACGACCAATCC	TGGGGAAG

2.4. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

Nuclear extracts of control and Fe(II)-treated cells were incubated with a radioactively labelled oligonucleotide probe which contains the specific recognition sequence for NF- κ B (AGTTGAGGGGACTTCCAGG). Specificity of the binding was tested by adding a 10-fold excess of unlabelled cold probe as non-specific competitor DNA in the sample treated with 50 μ M Fe(II) using standard conditions (25 mM Hepes pH 8, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM DTT, 1% Nonidet P-40, 4 mM NaCl, 20% (v/v) glycerol, and 0.2 μ g of poly(dI-dC). Samples were separated on a non-denaturing polyacrylamide gel and bands were detected by autoradiography.

2.5. Gene expression analysis

Total cell RNA was isolated using silica columns (NucleoSpin RNA II, Macherey-Nagel) and its quality checked using a Bioanalyzer 2100 (Agilent Technologies). The RNA was retro-transcribed using standard conditions and the cDNA was then subjected to real time PCR analysis with an Applied Biosystems 7900HT thermal cycler, using the FastStart Universal Probe Master Mix (Roche Diagnostics) and the sequence specific primers and hydrolysis probes

from the Universal Probe Library (Roche Diagnostics), as described in Table 1. The different gene expression data were normalized using the GAPDH expression values.

2.6. Data presentation and statistical analysis

Data presented in Figs. 1 and 2 were analyzed by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test to determine significant differences among the means (STATISTICA for Windows software, StatSoft. Inc.). The significance of expression data (Fig. 5b) were analyzed by a two tailed paired *t*-test on the normalized threshold cycle value (Δ Ct), using the Prism GraphPad software. The standard deviation of Δ Ct were incorporated into the fold-difference of gene expression as indicated in the Applied Biosystems 7900HT Manual cms042380.

3. Results

3.1. Effects of Fe(II) on tight junction permeability

The time course of TEER changes during Fe(II) treatment for 2 h (Fig. 1a) and from 16 to 24 h following Fe(II) removal and transfer of cells to complete medium (Fig. 1b) showed a gradual decrease in TEER during iron treatment that was more pronounced at 50 μ M

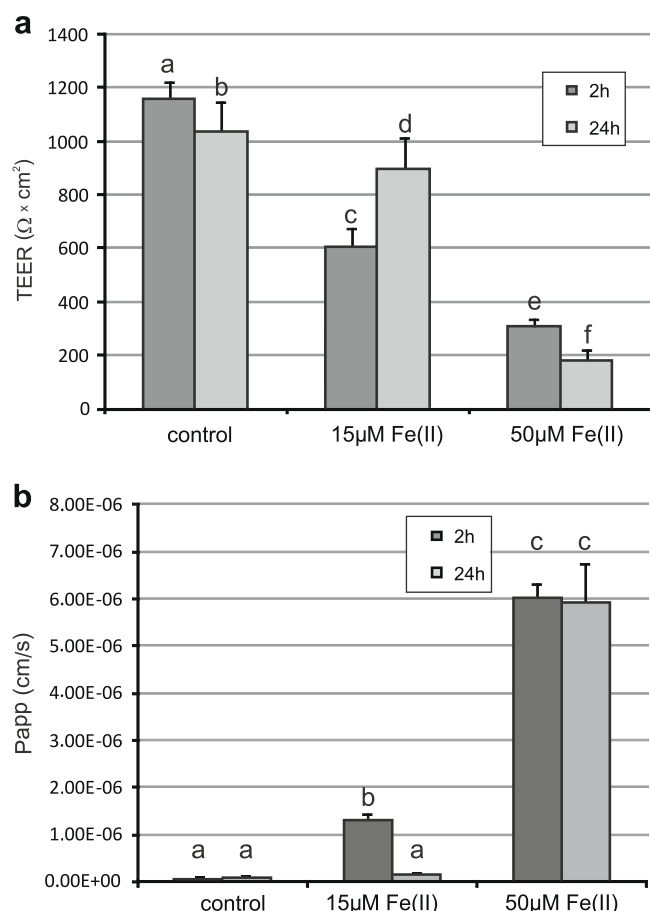


Fig. 2. Permeability of Caco-2 cells treated with Fe(II) measured by TEER (a) and phenol red Papp (b). (a) TEER values of cells treated with 0 (control), 15 and 50 μ M Fe(II) after 2 h of treatment (end of acute phase) and after 24 h from Fe(II) removal and transfer to complete medium (end of late phase). Data are the mean $\pm$ SD of four experiments ($n = 14$). (b) Phenol red Papp of cells treated with 0, 15 and 50 μ M Fe(II) after 2 h of treatment (end of acute phase) and after 24 h from Fe(II) removal and transfer to complete medium (end of late phase). Data are the mean $\pm$ SD of two experiments ($n = 6$). Different letters above error bars indicate significant ($P < 0.01$) differences between groups calculated by one way ANOVA followed by Tukey's post-hoc test.

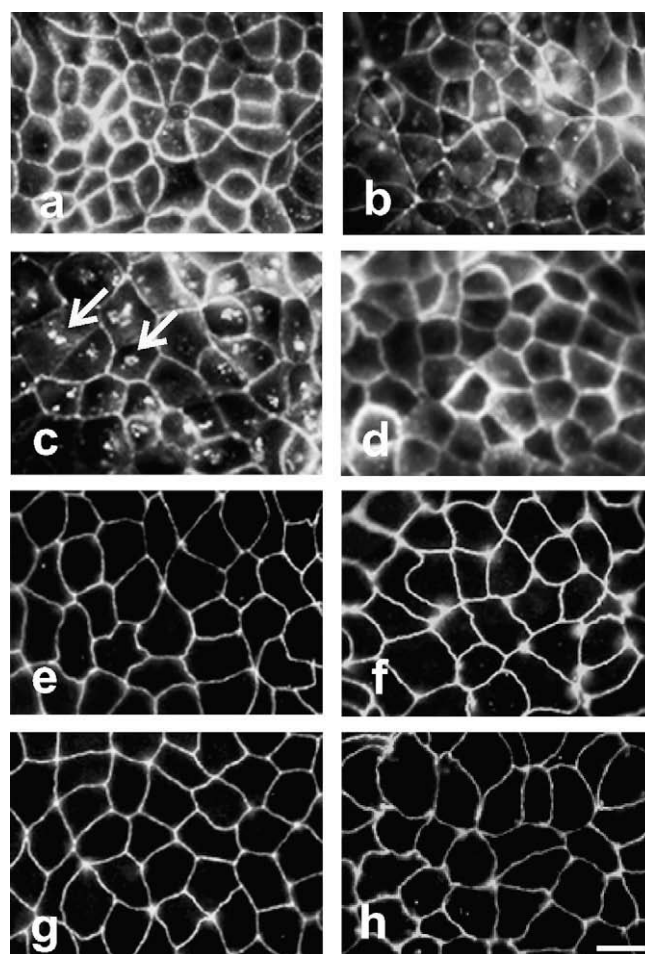


Fig. 3. Claudin 4 and ZO-1 localization in Caco-2 cells exposed to Fe(II). Immunofluorescence of claudin 4 (a–d) in untreated (control) cells (a) and in cells treated with 15 μ M Fe(II) at the end of 2 h of acute treatment (b) and after 3 h (c), and 24 h (d) from Fe(II) removal. Arrows indicate cytoplasmic localization of claudin 4. Immunofluorescence of ZO-1 (e–h) in untreated (control) cells (e) and in cells treated with 15 μ M Fe(II) at the end of acute treatment (f) and after 3 h (g), and 24 h (h) from Fe(II) removal. Scale bar: 20 μ m.

than at 15 μM (Fig. 1a). Upon iron removal and transfer of the cells to complete culture medium for 24 h (late phase) (Fig. 1b), TEER values of cells treated with 15 μM gradually returned to the levels of control cells from 16 to 24 h, while they remained low in cells that had been treated with 50 μM (II). TEER values (Fig. 2a) and phenol red permeability (Fig. 2b) at the end of iron treatment and following transfer to complete medium for 24 h indicated a significant effect on TEER and Papp values after the 2 h of treatment at both iron concentrations, that was almost completely reversed during the 24 h of the late phase, but only in cells treated with 15 μM iron. At the end of the late phase, cells treated with 15 μM showed TEER values similar to control cells, even if still significantly different. Conversely, Papp values at the end of late phase were not statistically different from those measured in control cells. Taken together, all these results demonstrate that cells treated with 15 μM Fe (II) were able to recover during the late phase from the increased tight junction permeability caused by iron treatment during the acute phase. TEER and Papp values of cells treated with 50 μM Fe(II) cells were significantly different from those of control cells, both at the end of acute phase and at the end of the late phase, indicating that the damage occurring during the acute phase of iron treatment was irreversible and led to extensive cytotoxicity, apoptosis and necrosis.

3.2. Morphological effects of Fe(II) treatment

Treatments leading to changes in epithelial monolayer permeability are frequently associated with structural changes at the levels of the tight junctions and of the cytoskeleton. The localization of the tight junction proteins claudin 4 (Fig. 3a–d) and ZO-1 (Fig. 3e–h) was analyzed by immunofluorescence in cells treated with 15 μM Fe(II) at the end of the acute treatment and during the late phase (after 3 and 24 h following iron removal). Claudin 4 localization in control cells was restricted to the cell periphery (Fig. 3a) but it partially delocalized to an intracellular compart-

ment, as shown by dot-like staining in the cytoplasm, after acute treatment with 15 μM Fe(II) (Fig. 3b) and after 3 h of the late phase (Fig. 3c). At the end of the late phase, claudin 4 localization was restored to the plasma membrane (Fig. 3d), similar to that of control cells. At the same time, another tight junction protein, ZO-1 did not change its plasma membrane localization after the treatment with 15 μM Fe(II), nor during the late phase compared to control cells (Fig. 3e–h). In cells treated with 50 μM Fe(II), claudin 4 internalization was also observed at the end of acute phase and this was accompanied by gross alterations to cell morphology as also shown by extensive F-actin disorganization (data not shown).

3.3. Cell death: apoptosis and necrosis after Fe(II) treatment

Only few sparse necrotic and apoptotic cells were detected at the end of the acute phase in cells treated with 15 μM Fe(II) (Fig. 4a and b) and their number remained stable during the late phase, up to 24 h after iron removal (Fig. 4c–h). Conversely, their number increased from the end of the acute phase (Fig. 3i and j) and during the late phase (Fig. 3k–n) in cells treated with 50 μM Fe(II), leading at the end of the 24 h to massive necrosis, as shown by chromatin staining with propidium iodide of non-permeabilized cells (Fig. 3o).

3.4. Gene regulation in Caco-2 cells following Fe(II) treatment

Activation of the transcription factor NF- κB was detected by band shift assay performed using protein from nuclei collected from cells after the first 30 min of the acute phase. Treatment with Fe(II) for 30 min caused activation and migration of NF- κB to the nuclei (Fig. 5a), as shown by the increase in the amount of the protein bands identified as NF- κB in nuclear extracts of cells treated with both iron concentrations as compared to control untreated cells (Fig. 5a). The expression of mRNAs coding for a number of genes involved in response to stress and in iron metabolism was

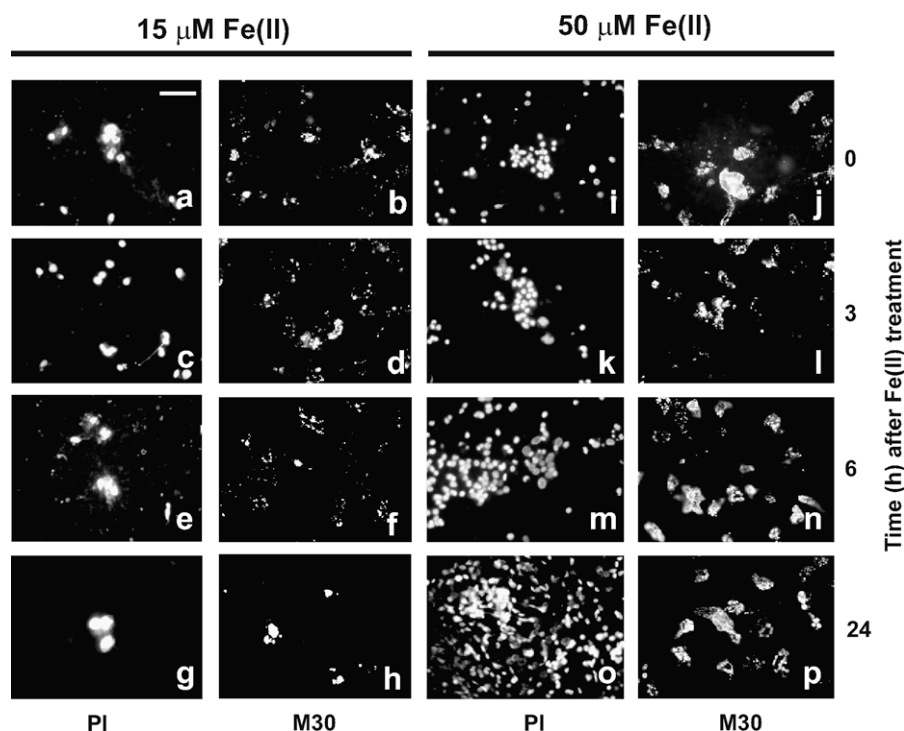


Fig. 4. Apoptosis and necrosis in Caco-2 cells exposed to Fe(II). Propidium iodide (PI) staining indicating necrosis, and cytokeratine 18 fragments (M30) immunofluorescence, indicating apoptosis, of cells treated with 15 μM Fe(II) (a–h) and 50 μM Fe(II) (i–p) at the end of acute treatment (a, b, i, j) and after 3 h (c, d, k, l), 6 h (e, f, m, n) and 24 h (g, h, o, p) from iron removal (late phase). Scale bar: 60 μm .

quantified by RT-PCR technique at the end of acute phase (Fig. 5b). The genes examined were chosen among those involved in cellular response to stress (HSPA1A and MT2A), in ROS detoxification (SOD2), in iron metabolism (FTH1) and in tight junction structure (CLDN4) (Fig. 5b). The expression of MT2A and HSPA1A showed the strongest induction among all the genes tested at both Fe(II) concentrations. FTH1 and SOD2 were also induced, but to a much lesser extent, and only in cells treated with 50 μ M Fe(II). Claudin 4 gene expression did not change at both iron concentrations as compared to controls.

4. Discussion

To investigate the mechanisms involved in iron toxicity in human intestinal Caco-2 cells, two concentrations of Fe(II) were employed, one leading to recovery of tight junction integrity (15 μ M for 2 h) and another leading to irreversible loss of barrier function and to cellular death (50 μ M for 2 h). Both conditions led to an increase in tight junction permeability of Caco-2 cells after the acute phase that was proportional to the dose applied, as shown by two independent assays: TEER (a measure of the paracellular conductance of the cell monolayer) and trans-epithelial passage of phenol red (a measure of paracellular permeability to small extracellular solutes). Changes in epithelial permeability represent an early and sensitive indicator of sub-lethal toxicity and TEER values and phenol red permeability are useful indicators of these changes *in vitro*. In the Caco-2 cell model, recovery of TEER values and restoration of paracellular permeability to control levels after removal of a toxic insult have been reported to depend upon dose and time of treatment for different types of stimuli including the heavy metals copper and iron (Ferruzza et al., 1999, 2003), ethanol (Catalioto et al., 2009), mycotoxins (Ranaldi et al., 2007), polycations (Ranaldi et al., 2002), and heat (Dokladny et al., 2006). Such changes in Caco-2 monolayer permeability have been shown to be accompanied by movement of the tight junction proteins claudins away from the plasma membrane to intracellular compartments as shown for claudin 1 in cells treated with the drug miltefosine (Menez et al., 2006), for claudin 4 in cells exposed to ochratoxin A (Lambert et al., 2007; Ranaldi et al., 2007). Claudin 7 delocalization was also observed in cultured monolayers of alveolar pneumocytes obtained from ethanol-treated rats (Fernandez et al., 2007). Such changes represent an early response to agents altering tight junction permeability and they can be reversed upon removal of the inducing agent. Claudin 4 belongs to a family of trans-membrane proteins responsible for size- and charge-selectivity of epithelial tight junctions (Krause et al., 2008) and, along the intestine, it is predominantly expressed in the upper villi/surface (Holmes et al., 2006). The data presented indicate that claudin 4 movement during iron treatment and its return to the plasma membrane did not require *de novo* transcription of its gene CLDN4 and was concomitant to almost complete restoration of monolayer permeability. On the other hand, the irreversible delocalization of claudin 4 accompanied by extensive F-actin disorganization after treatment with 50 mM Fe(II) is likely to have been due to the occurrence of progressive cytotoxicity during the late phase, as clearly indicated by the large number of apoptotic (M30 staining) and of necrotic (PI staining) cells (Fig. 4).

In addition to the morphological changes accompanying alteration of the permeability of the cell monolayer, a strong induction of MT2A gene upon iron treatment was observed at both concentrations employed. Metallothioneins are small cysteine-rich proteins that can be induced by both heavy metals and oxidative stress (Andrews, 2000) and act by scavenging ROS in a similar way to reduced glutathione (Thornalley and Vasák, 1985), thus playing an important role in the prevention of oxidative damage.

A role for MT2A in anti-oxidative defence is suggested by a study reporting that over-expression of metallothionein 2A isoform in Hela cells treated with rotenone to elicit increased ROS production, improved cell viability, reducing or delaying apoptosis (Reinecke et al., 2006). Another gene that was strongly induced upon iron treatment was HSPA1A, coding for Hsp70, a protein, that responds to heat and oxidative stress (Gebhardt et al., 1999) and to heavy metals like cadmium (Kusakabe et al., 2008). Hsp70 over-expression in MDCK cells was shown to reduce oxidative stress by enhancing the activity of the anti-oxidative enzymes glutathione peroxidase and reductase (Guo et al., 2007). A protective role of

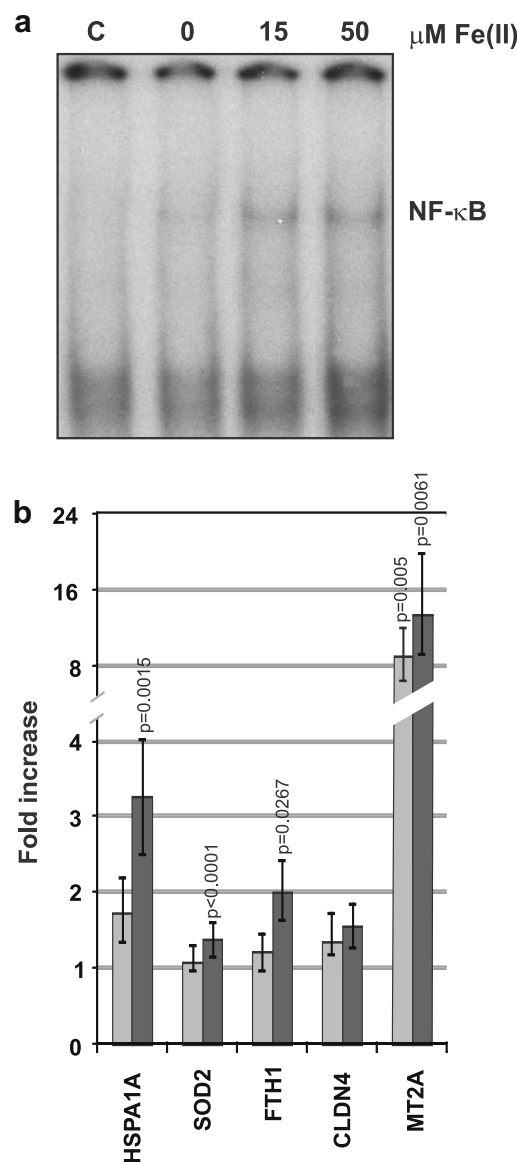


Fig. 5. Gene regulation and expression in Caco-2 cells exposed to Fe(II). (a) Electrophoretic mobility shift assay of the transcriptional factor NF- κ B after 30 min of control (lane 0) 15 μ M (lane 15) and 50 μ M (lane 50) Fe(II) treatment. Lane C shows the 50 μ M Fe(II) nuclear extract with a 10-fold excess of unlabelled probe. (b) Gene expressions measurement by qRT-PCR of heat shock protein 70 (HSPA1A), manganese superoxide dismutase (SOD2), ferritin heavy chain (FTH1), claudin 4 (CLDN4) and metallothionein 2A (MT2A) at the end of 2 h of 15 and 50 μ M Fe(II) treatment. For each gene, grey and dark bars represent, respectively, the gene-expression fold increase of 15 and 50 μ M Fe(II)-treated cells relative to control cells. The data represent the average of four different measurements and the *P*-values above the bars indicate the significance of gene increase versus control and were calculated by a two tailed paired *t*-test using the normalized threshold cycle value (Δ Ct). The error bars were calculated as indicated in Section 2.

heat shock proteins from conditions altering tight junction permeability was also suggested in a study of Caco-2 cells exposed to a moderate increase in temperature (Dokladny et al., 2006). The induction of MT2A and HSPA1A genes may thus have contributed to the ability of Caco-2 cells to recover from the effects of 15 μ M Fe(II) treatment.

After 30 min of the acute phase, the ROS sensitive transcription factor NF- κ B was translocated to the nuclei of cells treated with both iron concentrations. This transcription factor has been reported to trigger two opposite cellular responses to ROS: to survive or to succumb (Papa et al., 2004). In fact, NF- κ B activation can stimulate cell death by apoptosis (Perkins and Gilmore, 2006), enhancing the role of ROS in the induction of cell damage (Haddad, 2004). Activation of NF- κ B in Caco-2 cells has also been implicated in cytoskeletal derangements associated to barrier dysfunction after oxidant-induced iNOS upregulation (Banan et al., 2004) or ethanol treatment (Banan et al., 2007). On the other hand, the pro-survival action of NF- κ B can act through ROS suppression, with a key role played by upregulation of SOD2 and FTH1 (Bubici et al., 2006). However, in our study, upregulation of SOD2 and FTH1, genes that are transcriptionally controlled by NF- κ B, was only observed after treatment with 50 μ M Fe(II), a condition that led to apoptosis and necrosis. It has to be pointed out that the lack of recovery and survival after treatment with 50 μ M Fe(II), despite a strong induction of genes coding for potentially protective proteins, may have been due to the inability of the cells to proceed to protein synthesis and expression of their protective functions given the early onset of apoptosis and necrosis.

In conclusion, the induction of HSPA1A and MT2A could have contributed to the defence from iron-induced oxidative stress, enabling cells to survive to treatment with 15 μ M Fe(II) and re-establish tight junction function. An irreversible temporal checkpoint for redox recovery has previously been suggested in Caco-2 cells beyond which prevention of the progression of apoptosis to its biological end point cannot be stopped (Wang et al., 2000). This would further support the inability to recover after treatment with the higher iron concentration, where the strong induction of genes involved in oxidative defence was unable to stop progression to overt cytotoxicity and cell death.

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