

Modulatory effect of *N*-acetyl-L-cysteine on the HIV-1 multiplication in chronically and acutely infected cell lines

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Summary

N-acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC) is known to antagonize the PMA- or cytokine-stimulated HIV-1 replication in latently and acutely infected monocytic and lymphocytic cell lines, and to reduce the virus multiplication in acutely infected, PHA-stimulated PBMC. We here report on the modulatory effects of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication in both chronically and acutely infected lymphocytes that produce high virus levels independently from cytokine activation. In both cases, NAC doses of 0.12 and 0.25 mM decreased, whereas doses of 0.5–2 mM increased the infectious HIV-1 yield. At these concentrations, the modulatory effect of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication paralleled that on cell proliferation, suggesting a close correlation between the two phenomena; in fact, under conditions where NAC could not modulate the cell growth, the drug also failed to modulate the HIV-1 multiplication. High NAC concentrations (4–16 mM), which were able to increase the proliferative rate of both chronically infected H9/III_B and normal T lymphocytes, increased up to 6-fold the virus multiplication in H9/III_B cells but were inhibitory to HIV-1 in acutely infected cells. This inhibition was due to the fact that, like dextran sulfate, NAC interfered with an early event in the virus growth cycle. The finding that high NAC doses were also capable of preventing syncytium formation in H9/III_B

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Abbreviations: AZT, azidothymidine; GSE, glutathione ester; GSH, glutathione; IL-6, interleukin 6; LTR, long terminal repeat; NAC, *N*-acetyl-L-cysteine; PBMC, peripheral blood mononuclear cells; PHA, phytohemagglutinin; PMA, phorbol myristate acetate; TNF α , tumor necrosis factor.

and C8166 (or MT-4) cocultures further indicated an interference of the drug with receptor-binding-related events.

N-acetyl-L-cysteine; HIV-1; Infected cell lines

Introduction

N-Acetyl-L-cysteine (NAC), is widely used in humans for the treatment of pulmonary disorders (Moldeus et al., 1986; Olsson et al., 1988; Ventresca et al., 1989; Burgunder et al., 1989) and for counteracting the effects of the oxidative stress induced by acetaminophen overdose (Smilkstein et al., 1988). NAC has also been shown effective in blocking the acute toxicity of TNF α in animal models (Zimmerman et al., 1989) and in protecting cells in vitro against oxidative stress (Moldeus et al., 1985; Simon and Suttorp, 1985). All these properties appear to be related to the capability of NAC to directly scavenge oxidants (Auroma et al., 1989) and to increase intracellular GSH levels (Smilkstein et al., 1988; Burgunder et al., 1989).

Recently, other interesting in vitro effects of NAC have been reported (Roederer et al., 1990 and 1991; Kalebic et al., 1991). NAC antagonizes the PMA- and TNF α -induced stimulation of the LTR-directed HIV-1 gene expression in a cell clone; it counteracts both the TNF α - and PMA-induced stimulation of HIV-1 replication in Molt-4 and PBMC, respectively; it appears to have a direct effect on the HIV-1 replication in PHA-stimulated PBMC and, similarly to GSH and GSE, it suppresses the HIV-1 expression induced by TNF α , PMA or IL-6 in latently infected monocytes and T-lymphocytes.

Because of the above effects, and since increases in TNF α (Lahdevirta et al., 1988; Mintz et al., 1989; Folks et al., 1989) and decreases in GSH levels (Eck et al., 1989; Buhl et al., 1989) seem to correlate with the progression of AIDS, NAC has been proposed for the AIDS therapy, alone or in combination with AZT (Roederer et al., 1990; Kalebic et al., 1991).

The purpose of the present work was to investigate in vitro the NAC effects on the HIV-1 multiplication in chronically infected lymphocytes that spontaneously produce high levels of virus, and to define its mode of action in acutely infected T-cell lines.

Materials and Methods

Chemicals

NAC was supplied by Zambon Group. Stock solutions of the drug (640 mM) were prepared in serum-free RPMI 1640 and their pH was adjusted to 7.2 with NaOH; aliquots were made and stored at -20°C . AZT and Dextran sulfate 5000 were purchased from Sigma. Culture media (RPMI 1640, D-MEM) and

foetal calf serum (FCS) were purchased from Gibco. Penicillin G and streptomycin sulphate were purchased from Squibb.

Cells

The following cells were used. H9, a T4 cell line which is permissive to HIV-1 replication but is partially resistant to its cytopathic effect (Popovic et al., 1984); H9/III_B, an H9 cell clone which is persistently infected with HIV-1 (Popovic et al., 1984); C8166, a T4 cell line containing an HTLV-I genome of which only the tat gene is expressed (Sodroski et al., 1984); MT-4, a T4 cell line carrying an HTLV-I genome which is readily susceptible to killing by HIV-1 (Harada et al., 1985); Raji, a human lymphoblast-like cell line from a Burkitt lymphoma (ATCC CCL 86); L1210, lymphocytic mouse leukemic cells (ATCC CCL 219); Vero, african green monkey kidney cells (ATCC CRL 1586); HEp-2, epidermoid carcinoma larynx (ATCC CCL 23).

Lymphoid cells were grown in RPMI-1640, whereas Vero and HEp-2 were propagated in D-MEM. Media were supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS, 100 U/ml penicillin and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (growth medium). The cultures were incubated at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ atmosphere and were mycoplasma-negative, as checked by a MycoTect Kit (Gibco).

Virus

HIV-1 (HTLV/III_B strain) was obtained from supernatants of H9/III_B cells collected at the end of an exponential growth phase; aliquots were made and stored at -70°C. The titre of virus stocks was 2×10^5 cell culture infectious doses fifty (CCID₅₀)/ml. A high titre HIV-1 stock (2.5×10^6 CCID₅₀/ml) was obtained in MT-4 cells which were acutely infected with the above strain at a multiplicity of infection (m.o.i.) of 0.01.

Cytotoxicity and cell proliferation assays

T- and B-cell lines were seeded in flat-bottomed 24-well plates at a density of 0.5 or 1×10^5 cells/ml. The cultures were incubated in growth medium, in the absence or in the presence of various dilutions of test compounds. Cell numbers were determined with a Coulter counter and were corrected for viability, as determined by trypan blue exclusion. Vero and HEp-2 cells were seeded in 6-well plates at a density of 1×10^5 cells/ml in RPMI supplemented with 10% FCS and were allowed to adhere overnight. The cultures were then reincubated in growth medium, in the absence or in the presence of the test compounds. Cell numbers and viability were determined as described above after trypsinization of the monolayers.

Alternatively, the effects of NAC on cell growth were determined by the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-1-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) method (Pauwels et al., 1988) in 96-well microtitre plates seeded at a density of 1×10^5 cells/ml.

Antiviral assays

Persistent infection. H9/III_B cells from an exponentially growing culture were extensively washed to remove the previously produced HIV-1. Unless otherwise stated, the cells were seeded in 24-well plates at a density of 1×10^5 cells/ml and incubated in growth medium in the absence or in the presence of the test drugs. After 3 days, both the infectious HIV-1 titre and the number of viable cells were determined.

Acute infection. C8166 or MT-4 cells from exponentially growing cultures were resuspended at a density of 1×10^6 cells/ml and, unless otherwise stated, were infected with HIV-1 at a m.o.i. of 0.01. After a 1 h incubation at 37°C, the unadsorbed virus was removed by washing three times with RPMI. The cells were seeded in 24-well plates at 1×10^5 cells/ml and were incubated in growth medium in the absence or in the presence of the test drugs. After 3 days, the HIV-1 yield was determined by end point titration of supernatants.

HIV-1 titration

Titration were performed by the standard limiting dilution method (1:2 ratio, 4 replicas per dilution) in C8166 seeded at 1×10^5 cells/ml. After 4 days at 37°C, syncytia were scored under the light-microscope and virus titres were expressed as CCID₅₀/ml according to the Reed and Muench method (Lenette and Schmidt, 1964).

Syncytium assay

Extensively washed H9/III_B (1×10^3 cells) were cocultured with uninfected C8166 or MT-4 (1×10^5 cells) in the absence or in the presence of the test drugs. The number of syncytia was determined under the light microscope after 24 h incubation.

Statistical analysis

The unpaired Student's test was used to determine the statistical significance of the mean values obtained in untreated and drug-treated cultures.

Results

Modulatory effects of NAC on HIV-1 multiplication and cell growth in chronically infected lymphocytes

The effects of single NAC treatments on the HIV-1 multiplication and cell growth in chronically infected H9/III_B cells were evaluated by measuring the infectious virus titre and the viable cell number, respectively. The experimental conditions used allowed untreated cultures to undergo exponential growth for three cell cycles and, thus, to give the maximum virus yield.

The results (Fig. 1) indicated that NAC doses of 0.12 and 0.25 mM decreased, whereas doses comprised between 0.5 and 16 mM stimulated the

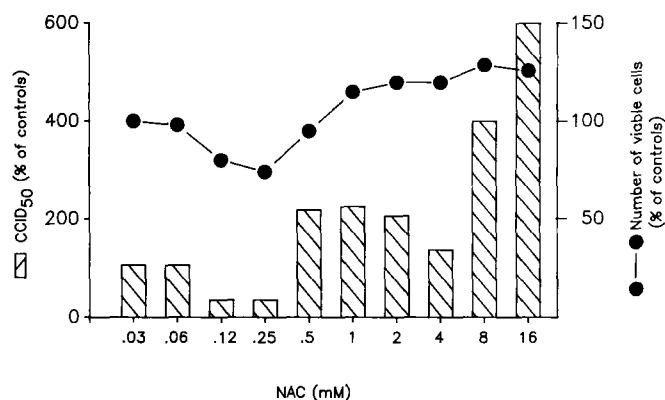


Fig. 1. Effect of NAC on cell growth and HIV-1 multiplication in chronically infected H9/III_B cells. After extensive washing, H9/III_B cells were resuspended at a density of 1×10^5 cells/ml and incubated in the absence or in the presence of serial NAC dilutions. After 72 h, aliquots of the supernatants were collected for virus titration, whereas the rest of the samples was evaluated for viable cell numbers. Virus yield and viable cell numbers in untreated controls were $1.7 \times 10^5 \pm 0.31$ CCID₅₀/ml and $8.4 \times 10^5 \pm 0.16$ cells/ml, respectively. Data represent mean values for three separate experiments. $P < 0.005$ for both CCID₅₀ and cell number values.

HIV-1 multiplication. The enhancement obtained with 8 and 16 mM NAC was particularly impressive since it led to a 4- and 6-fold increase in virus yield, respectively.

Interestingly, NAC also modulated the proliferation of H9/III_B cells, an effect which paralleled that on HIV-1 multiplication, thus raising the possibility of a close correlation between the two phenomena.

Modulatory effects of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication in acutely infected lymphocytes and on the growth of mock-infected cells

The effect of single NAC treatments on HIV-1 multiplication in acutely infected C8166 cells was evaluated under conditions of multiple growth cycles of the virus. The NAC effect on cell growth was evaluated in parallel samples of mock-infected cells.

As shown in Fig. 2, NAC doses of 0.12 and 0.25 mM decreased, whereas doses of 0.5–2 mM increased HIV-1 multiplication. Again, the modulatory effect of NAC on the proliferation of mock-infected cells paralleled that on the HIV-1 multiplication.

Since C8166 cells were infected at a low m.o.i., NAC had the chance to modulate the growth of a large proportion of the cells before they became infected. Therefore, it could be postulated that, also in the acute infection, the modulatory effect of 0.12–2 mM NAC on cell proliferation was related to that on HIV-1 multiplication.

Surprisingly, NAC doses comprised between 4 and 16 mM, that were effective in stimulating the growth of mock-infected cells, were found to inhibit HIV-1 multiplication. These results, which were also obtained in acutely

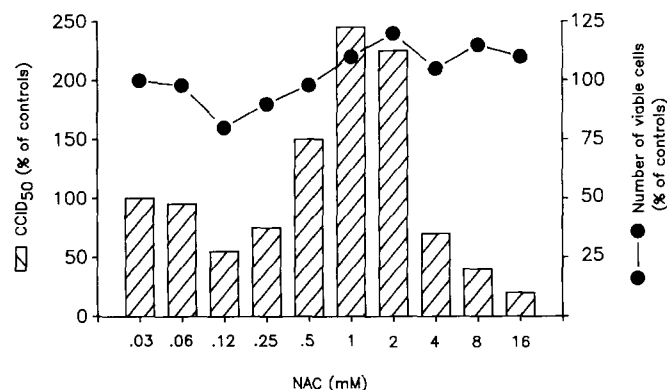


Fig. 2. Effect of NAC on cell growth and HIV-1 multiplication in acutely infected C8166. C8166 cells were infected with HIV-1 at a m.o.i of 0.01 and then resuspended at 1×10^5 cells/ml in the absence or in the presence of serial NAC dilutions. 72 h post-infection, aliquots of the supernatants were collected for virus titration. Duplicate, mock-infected samples of a parallel experiment were evaluated for viable cell numbers. Virus yield and viable cell numbers in untreated controls were $6.2 \times 10^5 \pm 0.25$ CCID₅₀/ml and $8.1 \times 10^5 \pm 0.10$ cells/ml, respectively. Data represent mean values for two separate experiments. *P* values ranged between 0.005 and <0.001 for CCID₅₀ and <0.005 for cell number values.

infected and mock-infected MT-4 cells (data not shown), contrasted with those obtained in H9/III_B and suggested a direct effect of high NAC doses on early events in the virus growth cycle.

TABLE 1

Influence of various treatment periods with NAC, dextran sulfate (DS) or AZT on their anti-HIV-1 activity in MT4 and H9/III_B cells

Treatment period		^b CCID ₅₀ /ml (\pm S.D.)	
^a Adsorption	Incubation	MT-4	H9/III _B
None	None	$8.0 \times 10^5 \pm 0.27$	$5.3 \times 10^3 \pm 0.34$
NAC 16 mM	None	$1.0 \times 10^5 \pm 0.23$	$1.0 \times 10^4 \pm 0.24$
None	NAC 16 mM	$3.0 \times 10^5 \pm 0.18$	$2.5 \times 10^4 \pm 0.30$
DS 50 μ g/ml	None	$8.0 \times 10^3 \pm 0.15$	$4.5 \times 10^3 \pm 0.27$
None	DS 50 μ g/ml	$5.4 \times 10^3 \pm 0.30$	$4.8 \times 10^3 \pm 0.29$
AZT 0.1 μ g/ml	None	$6.1 \times 10^5 \pm 0.29$	$5.5 \times 10^3 \pm 0.20$
None	AZT 0.1 μ g/ml	$<1.0 \times 10^5$	$5.0 \times 10^3 \pm 0.15$

^aMT-4 cells were infected at a m.o.i of 0.01. Adsorption was at 20°C for 2 h. During this period H9/III_B were resuspended at 1×10^6 cells/ml to simulate an infection.

^bCCID₅₀ (Cell culture infectious dose fifty). Data represent mean value (\pm S.D.) for two separate experiments.

Influence of various treatment periods with NAC, Dextran sulfate or AZT on their anti-HIV-1 activity

In order to gain more insights on the mode of action of high NAC doses, the effects of different treatment periods with this drug were comparatively evaluated in acutely and chronically infected cells (Table 1). Dextran sulfate and AZT, two drugs targeted at different steps preceding integration and, thus, effective HIV-1 inhibitors in acutely but not in chronically infected cells (Furman et al., 1986; Mitsuya et al., 1985 and 1988), were used as reference compounds.

In MT-4 cells infected at a m.o.i. of 0.01, 16 mM NAC significantly reduced HIV-1 multiplication when present either during or after the adsorption period. Dextran sulfate showed a similar, although more potent inhibitory pattern, whereas AZT was effective only when present after the adsorption period.

These results suggested that, like dextran sulfate (Baba et al., 1988), high NAC doses were effective in interfering with an early step in the HIV-1 growth cycle (see treatment limited to the adsorption period). Moreover, because of the low multiplicity of infection, both compounds reduced the capability of HIV-1 to go through successive growth cycles even when added after the adsorption period, thus explaining the lack of enhancement of HIV-1 multiplication observed with NAC 4–16 mM in acutely infected cells (see Fig. 2).

As expected, none of the compounds inhibited the HIV-1 multiplication in H9/III_B cells, and NAC was the sole drug capable of inducing a significant increase (up to 5-fold) in the virus yield.

Effect of NAC on cell-fusion

Based on the above results, we evaluated the capability of NAC to prevent the formation of syncytia between chronically infected and normal T lymphocytes (Table 2). A 50% inhibition of syncytium formation was observed at 16 mM NAC in H9/III_B-C8166 cocultures, and at 8 mM NAC

TABLE 2

Effect of NAC, dextran sulfate (DS) and AZT on syncytium formation

Compound	% Syncytia at 24 h ^a	
	H9/III _B -C8166	H9/III _B -MT-4
None	100	100
NAC 2 mM	100	100
NAC 4 mM	100	75
NAC 8 mM	100	50
NAC 16 mM	50	0
DS 50 µg/ml	50	0
AZT 0.5 µg/ml	100	100

^aThe inhibitory effect persisted up to 72 h post-infection.

in H9/III_B-MT-4 cocultures. Lower NAC doses were ineffective. Dextran sulfate was also more effective in inhibiting cell fusion in H9/III_B-MT-4 cocultures, whereas AZT was always ineffective.

Since syncytium formation is mediated by a gp-120-CD4 interaction similar to that leading to HIV-1 adsorption to T4 cells (Mitsuya et al., 1988; Moriya et al., 1991), these results strengthened the hypothesis that high NAC doses interfere with a receptor-binding-related event.

Effect of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication under conditions restrictive for cell growth

In order to substantiate the hypothesis that the modulatory effect of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication depended on that on cell proliferation, we adopted two different experimental conditions, both restrictive for cell growth (Table 3).

When chronically infected H9/III_B cells were seeded at a high density, i.e., under conditions preventing NAC from modulating their growth, the drug also failed to modulate HIV-1 multiplication.

On the other hand, when C8166 cells were infected at a m.o.i. of 1 (i.e. under conditions resulting in rapid (36 h) cell death), and then were resuspended at a low density, NAC was again unable to modulate HIV-1 multiplication.

Vice versa, when C8166 cells were infected at a m.o.i. of 0.01 and then were seeded at a high density (1×10^6 cells/ml), the virus yield in untreated controls was so low ($< 10^2$ CCID₅₀/ml) as to prevent an evaluation of the NAC effects.

Effect of NAC on the growth of lymphoid and non-lymphoid cells

The modulatory effect of NAC on the growth of chronically infected and normal T4 cell lines led us to investigate the effects of the drug on additional lymphoid and non-lymphoid cell lines. To this end, conditions were used allowing untreated controls to undergo exponential growth for three/four cell cycles.

For cytotoxicity evaluation (Table 4), cultures were seeded at 1×10^5 cells/

TABLE 3

Effect of NAC on the HIV-1 multiplication under conditions preventing cell growth

NAC (mM)	^a CCID ₅₀ /ml (± S.D.)	
	^b H9/III _B	^c C8166
None	$1.9 \times 10^4 \pm 0.1$	$2.9 \times 10^5 \pm 0.3$
0.2	$1.8 \times 10^4 \pm 0.3$	$3.1 \times 10^5 \pm 0.2$
2	$2.3 \times 10^4 \pm 0.3$	$2.5 \times 10^5 \pm 0.3$
16	$1.5 \times 10^4 \pm 0.2$	$2.9 \times 10^5 \pm 0.1$

^aCCID₅₀ (Cell culture infectious dose fifty). Data represent mean value (± S.D.) for two separate experiments.

^bH9/III_B were incubated at 1×10^6 cells/ml and were found at the same density 72 h later, irrespective of the treatment.

^cC8166 cells, infected at a m.o.i. of 1 were seeded at a density of 1×10^5 /ml and then incubated in the absence or in the presence of NAC.

TABLE 4

Cytotoxicity of NAC for different cell lines

	NAC (mM)							
	H9/III _B	H9	MT-4	C8166	Raji	L1210	HEp2	Vero
^a MNTD	37	31	25	19	33	25	17	15
^b CC ₅₀	60	65	55	51	60	58	36	30

^aMNTD is the maximum NAC concentration (mM) allowing cell growth at control rates for three-four cell cycles.

^bCC₅₀ is the NAC concentration (mM) required to reduce the number of viable cells by 50%.

Data represent mean value for two separate experiments; variability among duplicate samples was less than 10%.

ml, in the absence or in the presence of NAC. After 48 (L1210), 72 (Raji) or 96 h (Vero, HEp-2 and T cell lines), cell number and viability were determined. The results indicated that NAC was cytotoxic for lymphoid cell lines at concentrations higher than 19 mM and that the drug was slightly less cytotoxic for lymphoid than for Vero and HEp-2 cells.

At concentrations below the MNTD (Fig. 3), NAC showed a modulatory

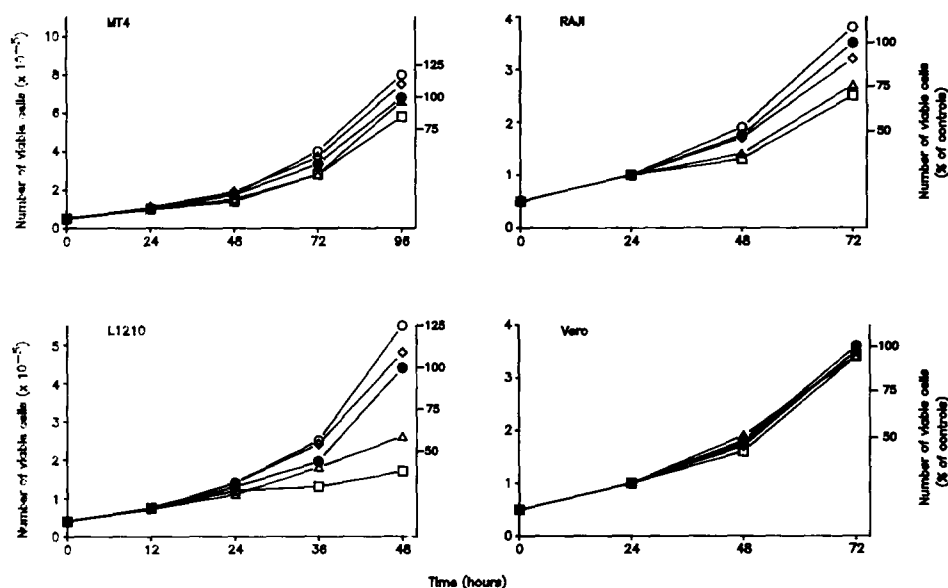


Fig. 3. Modulatory effect of NAC on the growth of lymphoid and non-lymphoid cells. Cultures, seeded at an initial density of 5×10^4 cells/ml, were incubated in the absence or in the presence of serial NAC dilutions. At 24 h intervals (12 h for L1210), the number of viable cells was determined. Untreated controls (closed circles); NAC, 0.12 mM (squares); NAC, 0.25 mM (triangles); NAC, 1.0 mM (rhombs); NAC, 2.0 mM (open circles). Variability among triplicate sample was less than 10%. *P* values ranged between 0.01 (MT-4) and 0.001 (L1210).

effect also on the growth of the other lymphoid cell lines tested while leaving unaltered the proliferative rate of both Vero and HEP-2 (not shown) cells. Overall, NAC doses of 0.12 and 0.25 mM decreased, whereas doses of 1 mM and higher stimulated the growth rate of lymphoid cell lines.

Comparable results for both cytotoxic and modulatory effects of NAC on cell growth were obtained with the MTT method (data not shown).

Discussion

In a variety of latently and acutely infected cell lines, NAC inhibits the HIV-1 replication stimulated by PMA or inflammatory cytokines. The antiviral activity of the drug is exerted through the inhibition of the PMA- or cytokine-mediated activation of NF- κ B (Staal et al., 1990), a cellular transcriptional factor which also increases the promoter activity of the HIV LTR (Nabel & Baltimore, 1987; Duh et al., 1989; Griffin et al., 1989; Osborn et al., 1989).

In the present study, we have investigated the effects of NAC in both chronically and acutely infected cells which produce high levels of virus independently from the activation by chemical or biological inducers. The results indicate that NAC modulates the HIV-1 multiplication through a modulatory effect on cell growth.

In several lymphoid and non-lymphoid cell lines, CC_{50} and MNTD values were in the range 30–60 mM and 15–37 mM, respectively, and the drug was slightly less cytotoxic for lymphoid than for epithelial and fibroblast cells. Over a wide concentration range, NAC was able to selectively modulate the growth of lymphoid cell lines while leaving unaltered that of fibroblast and epithelial cells: low doses (0.12–0.25 mM) decreased, whereas higher doses (1–16 mM) increased the proliferative rate of T and B lymphocytes. The modulatory effect of NAC on cell growth is consistent with its role as a precursor in the biosynthesis of GSH (Smilkstein et al., 1988; Burgunder et al., 1989); with the demonstration that many of the NAC effects are related to its capability to influence intracellular GSH levels, and with the finding that the latter thiol modulates the proliferation of highly purified T-cells, possibly through a regulation of the DNA synthesis (Suthanthiran et al., 1990).

Under experimental conditions allowing NAC to modulate cell growth (i.e., low cell density), we found that low doses decrease, whereas higher doses increase the infectious HIV-1 yield. The modulatory effect on HIV-1 multiplication parallels that on cell proliferation in the range 0.12–16 mM in chronically infected cells, and in the range 0.12–2 mM in C8166 or MT-4 cells acutely infected at a low m.o.i. In the latter model, NAC doses of 4–16 mM, though capable of stimulating cell growth, were inhibitory to HIV-1. This finding, which contrasted with the considerable increase in HIV-1 yield observed in H9/III_B cells, suggested a direct effect of the drug on early events in the HIV-1 multiplication cycle. As a matter of fact, we demonstrated that, at high doses, NAC behaves like dextran sulfate and interferes with an early step

common to both virus adsorption and syncytium formation. Therefore, what appeared to be an inverse correlation between modulation of cell growth and HIV-1 multiplication (Fig. 2) was, on the contrary, the result of the NAC interference with the HIV-1 progression through successive growth cycles because of the low m.o.i. used.

When the NAC effects were evaluated under conditions apt to prevent modulation of cell growth, either because of the high density of the cultures (H9/III_B) or because of the rapid CPE development (C8166 infected at a high m.o.i.), the drug was unable to modulate HIV-1 multiplication. These findings suggest a close correlation between the NAC effects on HIV-1 multiplication and cell proliferation and a common modulatory mechanism.

Overall, these data give a picture of the NAC effects on HIV-1-infected cells which is different from that emerged from previous work. An explanation that could account for this discrepancy may come from the observation that, under the various experimental conditions used, neither PMA nor TNF α were able to enhance the HIV-1 yield (data not shown). This would suggest that our cell lines were expressing high NF-kB levels.

The usefulness of drugs, such as NAC, that interfere with induction of HIV from latency is even more obvious following recent reports indicating the presence of large reservoirs of latently infected lymphocytes and macrophages in secondary lymphoid organs, from early to late stages of the HIV infection (Embreston et al., 1993; Pantaleo et al., 1993).

However, the evidence presented here suggests that, whenever the HIV-1 replication occurs independently from cytokine-induction, the main anti-HIV-1 effect of NAC would be an interference with virus adsorption and syncytium formation. Since this NAC effect, as well as that preventing induction from latency, is neither potent nor very selective, the beneficial effects of NAC in the AIDS therapy should be weighed against the risk of an enhancement of HIV-1 multiplication.

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