

## Research Article

# Ginseng and Its Active Components Ginsenosides Inhibit Adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 Cells by Regulating MMP-2 and MMP-9

Jaeho Oh,<sup>1</sup> Hyunghye Lee,<sup>1</sup> Dongmin Park,<sup>1</sup> Jiwon Ahn,<sup>2</sup>  
Soon Shik Shin,<sup>3</sup> and Michung Yoon<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Life Sciences, Mokwon University, Daejeon 302-729, Republic of Korea

<sup>2</sup>Genome Research Center, KRIBB, Daejeon 305-806, Republic of Korea

<sup>3</sup>Department of Formula Sciences, College of Oriental Medicine, Dong-Eui University, Busan 614-052, Republic of Korea

Correspondence should be addressed to Michung Yoon, yoon60@mokwon.ac.kr

Received 29 July 2012; Revised 27 September 2012; Accepted 4 October 2012

Academic Editor: Chong-Zhi Wang

Copyright © 2012 Jaeho Oh et al. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

The growth and development of adipose tissue are believed to require adipogenesis, angiogenesis, and extracellular matrix remodeling. As our previous study revealed that ginseng reduces adipose tissue mass in part by decreasing matrix metalloproteinase (MMP) activity in obese mice, we hypothesized that adipogenesis can be inhibited by ginseng and its active components ginsenosides (GSs). Treatment of 3T3-L1 adipocytes with Korean red ginseng extract (GE) inhibited lipid accumulation and the expression of adipocyte-specific genes (PPAR $\gamma$ , C/EBP $\alpha$ , aP2, and leptin). GE decreased both the mRNA levels and activity of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in 3T3-L1 cells. These effects were further inhibited by total GSs (TGSs) and individual GSs. TGSs and individual GSs also significantly decreased MMP-2 and MMP-9 reporter gene activities in the presence of phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA), the MMP inducer. Among the GSs, Rb1 most effectively inhibited MMP activity. In addition, PMA treatment attenuated the inhibitory actions of GE and GSs on adipogenesis. Moreover, GE and GSs reduced the expression of NF- $\kappa$ B and AP-1, the transcription factors of MMP-2 and MMP-9. These results demonstrate that ginseng, in particular GSs, effectively inhibits adipogenesis and that this process may be mediated in part through the suppression of MMP-2 and MMP-9. Thus, ginseng and GSs likely have therapeutic potential for controlling adipogenesis.

## 1. Introduction

Obesity is characterized by increased adipose tissue mass that results from both increased fat cell numbers (hyperplasia) and increased fat cell size (hypertrophy) [1]. The development of obesity is associated with extensive modifications in adipose tissue involving adipogenesis and extracellular matrix (ECM) remodeling [2].

Extensive ECM remodeling occurs during adipose tissue growth. Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), such as MMP-2 and MMP-9, have been implicated in tissue remodeling via the degradation of ECM and basement membrane components [3, 4]. The MMP system plays important roles in the development of adipose tissue by modulating ECM [5, 6]. In most cases, MMPs are expressed at very low levels, but their expression is rapidly induced during active tissue remodeling associated with adipogenesis. Several lines of

evidence suggest that endogenous and exogenous MMPs regulate adipogenesis [6–8]. During obesity, MMP expression is modulated in adipose tissue, and MMPs (e.g., MMP-2 and MMP-9) potentially affect adipocyte differentiation [6, 9, 10]. These MMPs are modulated through interactions with tissue inhibitors of MMPs (TIMPs), most of which can inhibit the activities of all known MMPs. Furthermore, studies with synthetic inhibitors confirmed a role for MMPs in *in vitro* preadipocyte differentiation [6, 9–11].

Ginseng is widely used in Asian societies as a valuable medicine. Extensive research indicates that ginseng has many pharmacological effects on the central nervous, endocrine, immune, and cardiovascular systems [12–14]. Ginseng has also been reported to inhibit tumor growth by modulating MMP-2 and MMP-9 [15, 16], which are regarded as markers of tumor invasion and metastasis, and suppression of their expression may inhibit malignant tumor

invasion and metastasis. Ginseng and ginsenosides (GSs), its major active components, exhibit potential as potent cancer chemopreventive agents due in part to their downregulation of MMP expression [15–19]. Based on the well-documented regulation of adipogenesis by MMPs and regulation of MMP expression by ginseng, we hypothesized that ginseng and GSs can inhibit adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 adipocytes.

We treated 3T3-L1 adipocytes with ginseng extract (GE), total GSs (TGSs), and individual GSs. Lipid accumulation and the expression of adipocyte-specific genes were significantly reduced in treated cells compared with the findings in control cells. The mRNA expression levels of MMPs and their inhibitors were modulated by GE and TGSs in 3T3-L1 cells, and they also significantly reduced phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate (PMA)-induced increases in MMP-2 and MMP-9 reporter activities. Moreover, the broad MMP inhibitor galardin prevented triglyceride accumulation in a dose-dependent manner, whereas PMA treatment diminished the inhibitory actions of GE and GSs on adipogenesis. In addition, GE, TGSs, and Rb1 decreased the expression of MMP-2 and MMP-9 transcription factors. These studies suggest that the anti-MMP actions of ginseng may inhibit adipogenesis.

## 2. Materials and Methods

**2.1. Chemicals.** GE powder was commercially prepared from ginseng cultivated with care in well-fertilized fields for 6 years (Korea Ginseng Corp., Daejeon, Korea). TGSs were obtained by extraction from the GE powder [20]. Briefly, GE powder (100 g) was placed into a 1-L flask with a refluxing condenser and extracted twice with 500 mL of water-saturated 1-butanol for 1 h at 80°C. The extracted solution was passed through Whatman filter paper (No. 41) after cooling. The process was repeated twice. The residue and filter paper were washed with 100 mL of water-saturated 1-butanol, and then the filtrate was washed twice with 100 mL of water in a 2-L separating funnel. The butanol layer was then evaporated to dryness. The concentrate was extracted to remove any traces of fat with 100 mL of diethyl ether for 30 min at 36°C in a flask with a refluxing condenser, after which the ether solution was decanted. The residue was dried at 50°C and weighed. Individual GSs (Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Re, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3) were purchased from ChromaDex (Laguna Hills, CA, USA).

**2.2. 3T3-L1 Differentiation and Analysis.** Mouse 3T3-L1 cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% bovine calf serum (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). After cells were maintained at confluence for 2 days, they were incubated in an MDI induction medium (day 0) containing 0.5 mM 1-methyl-3-isobutyl-xanthine, 1  $\mu$ M dexamethasone, and 1  $\mu$ g/mL insulin in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Invitrogen). The cultures were continued for 2 days to induce adipocyte differentiation. Thereafter, cells were cultured in DMEM containing 10% FBS for the remainder of the differentiation process. All other treatments including GE, TGSs, individual GSs, galardin, and PMA were

administered on days 0–2 only, and the medium was changed every other day. Cells were stained on day 8 with Oil Red O and photographed. Briefly, cells were fixed in 10% formalin for 1 h and stained with Oil red O for 2 h. For quantitative analysis, Oil red O was eluted by adding isopropanol and the extracted dye quantified by measuring the absorbance at 520 nm.

**2.3. Zymography.** MMP activity in 3T3-L1 cells was determined by gelatin zymography. Proteins from 3T3-L1 adipocytes were extracted with 10 mM sodium phosphate buffer (pH 7.2) containing 150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.2% NaN<sub>3</sub> (250 mg wet weight tissue per 1 mL of buffer) at 4°C. Cell extracts were mixed with zymography sample buffer (63 mM Tris-HCl, 10% glycerol, 2% SDS, and 0.0025% bromophenol blue, pH 6.8) without heat denaturation. The HT1080 cell culture medium was used as the molecular weight marker for MMP. Electrophoresis was performed at 125 V in 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels containing 0.1% gelatin. After electrophoresis, the gels were incubated in renaturing buffer containing 0.25% Triton X-100 for 30 min at room temperature and equilibrated in developing buffer (50 mM Tris base, 40 mM HCl, 200 mM NaCl, 5 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, and 0.2% Brij-35) for 30 min at room temperature. The gels were then incubated in developing buffer overnight at 37°C. The gels were stained with 0.1% Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250 and destained with 10% acetic acid in 40% methanol. The relative MMP-2 and MMP-9 activities in gels were quantified by using the GeneGenius system (Syngene, Cambridge, UK) and represented in relative intensities.

**2.4. Reverse Transcription-Polymerase Chain Reaction (RT-PCR).** Total cellular RNA from 3T3-L1 cells was prepared using Trizol reagent (Gibco-BRL, Grand Island, NY, USA). After 2  $\mu$ g of total RNA was reverse transcribed using Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (MMLV-RT) and an antisense primer, cDNA was generated. The RNA was denatured for 5 min at 72°C and then immediately placed on ice for 5 min. Denatured RNA was mixed with MMLV-RT, MMLV-RT buffer, and a deoxyribonucleotide triphosphate (dNTP) mixture and incubated for 1 h at 42°C. Synthesized cDNA fragments were amplified by PCR in an MJ Research Thermocycler (Waltham, MA, USA). The cDNA was mixed with PCR primers, *Taq* DNA polymerase (Nanohelix, Daejeon, Korea), and a dNTP mixture. The PCR primers used for gene expression analysis are shown in Table 1. The PCR products were analyzed by electrophoresis in a 1% agarose gel. Relative expression levels are presented as the ratio of target gene cDNA expression to  $\beta$ -actin cDNA expression. PCR products were quantified in agarose gels using the GeneGenius system.

**2.5. Preparation of MMP-2 and MMP-9 Promoter Constructs.** A 209-bp DNA fragment corresponding to the promoter of the mouse MMP-2 gene (GenBank Accession No. AB125668)

TABLE 1: Sequences of primers used for the RT-PCR assays.

Gene	Gene bank	Primer sequence	Size (bp)
MMP-2	U65656	Forward: 5'-atctggtgtctcccttacgg-3' Reverse: 5'-gtgtcggacatcactgcac-3'	704
MMP-9	AK161176	Forward: 5'-tgcgaccacatcgaacttcg-3' Reverse: 5'-ccaagagggtttcttctctctgg-3'	687
TIMP-1	NM_001044384	Forward: 5'-ggcatcctctgttctatcactg-3' Reverse: 5'-gtcatcttgatctcataacgctgg-3'	170
TIMP-2	NM011594	Forward: 5'-gagatcaagcagataaagatg-3' Reverse: 5'-gcctctggatggactggg-3'	320
PPAR $\gamma$	NM_013124	Forward: 5'-attctggcccaccaacttcgg-3' Reverse: 5'-tggaagcctgatccttatccca-3'	338
aP2	K02109	Forward: 5'-caaatgtgtgatgcctttgtg-3' Reverse: 5'-ctctcctttggctcatgcc-3'	415
Leptin	NM_008493	Forward: 5'-cctgctccagcagctgcaag-3' Reverse: 5'-ctatctgcagcacatttggga-3'	342
C/EBP $\alpha$	NM_007678	Forward: 5'-agacatcagcgcctacatcg-3' Reverse: 5'-gaccacatgcacctgca-3'	416
NF- $\kappa$ B (p65)	AK089489	Forward: 5'-ccatcagggcagatctcaaacc-3' Reverse: 5'-gctgctgaaactctgagttgtc-3'	322
Sp1	AB077988	Forward: 5'-agtgcagcagatggttctg-3' Reverse: 5'-taaagttcataattcccatg-3'	440
c-Jun	AK135023	Forward: 5'-aactcggaccttctcagctcg-3' Reverse: 5'-tgctgaggttgccgtagacc-3'	355
c-Fos	NM_010234	Forward: 5'-cgttcagactgagattgcc-3' Reverse: 5'-accggacaggtccacatctg-3'	356
$\beta$ -Actin	J00691	Forward: 5'-tggaatcctgtggcatccatgaaa-3' Reverse: 5'-taaacgcagctcagtaacagtc-3'	350

and a 1287-bp DNA fragment corresponding to the promoter of the mouse MMP-9 gene (GenBank Accession No. AJ010318) were PCR-amplified using *pfu* DNA polymerase (Nanohelix, Daejeon, Korea). Adipose tissue genomic DNA was used as a template. A primer pair containing *Mlu*I and *Bgl*II restriction enzyme sites, MMP-2 upstream (5'-GGACGCGTTTCTGGGTAAGGCAAT-3'; each restriction enzyme site is underlined) and MMP-2 downstream (5'-GGAGATCTCGTTGCGCTCCCGGGC-3'), were used for cloning the MMP-2 promoter into the pGL3-Basic luciferase reporter (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) that was digested with *Mlu*I and *Bgl*II. Another primer pair with the same restriction enzyme sites, MMP-9 upstream (5'-GGACGCGTTAGAGCGATCTCTCCA-3') and MMP-9 downstream (5'-GGAGATCTTGAGGACCGCAGCTTCT-3'), were used for cloning the MMP-9 promoter into the pGL3-Basic luciferase reporter that was digested with *Mlu*I and *Bgl*II. The pGL3-MMP-2 and pGL3-MMP-9 promoter constructs were confirmed by DNA sequencing.

**2.6. Transient Transfection Assay.** 3T3-L1 murine preadipocytes were seeded in 6-well tissue culture plates ( $2 \times 10^4$  cells/well) 24 h prior to transfection. For all transfections, 200 ng of each of the appropriate plasmids were used per well. Transfections were performed using Lipofectamine (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Six hours after transfection, the culture medium was

changed, and different chemicals were added. After incubation for 24 h in the presence of the chemicals, the cells were washed twice with PBS and assayed for luciferase and  $\beta$ -galactosidase activities by using commercial kits according to the manufacturer's instructions (Promega).

**2.7. Statistics.** Unless otherwise indicated, all values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). Statistical analysis was performed by ANOVA followed by either post hoc Turkey's multiple comparison test or Dunnett's test. Statistical significance was defined as a value of  $P < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

**3.1. GE and GSs Inhibit Lipid Accumulation in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes.** We examined the ability of GE, TGSs, and individual GSs, including Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Re, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3, to prevent adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. Differentiated 3T3-L1 cells (control) after treatment with an MDI mixture for 8 days had a much higher number of lipid droplets than nondifferentiated (ND) cells, as shown by the increase in Oil Red O staining (Figure 1). However, incubation of differentiated cells with GE or TGSs at all doses markedly decreased lipid accumulation. All of the individual GSs tested in this study also effectively reduced the number of triglyceride droplets compared with the control findings. Maximal inhibitions were achieved at a dose of 10  $\mu$ g/mL for

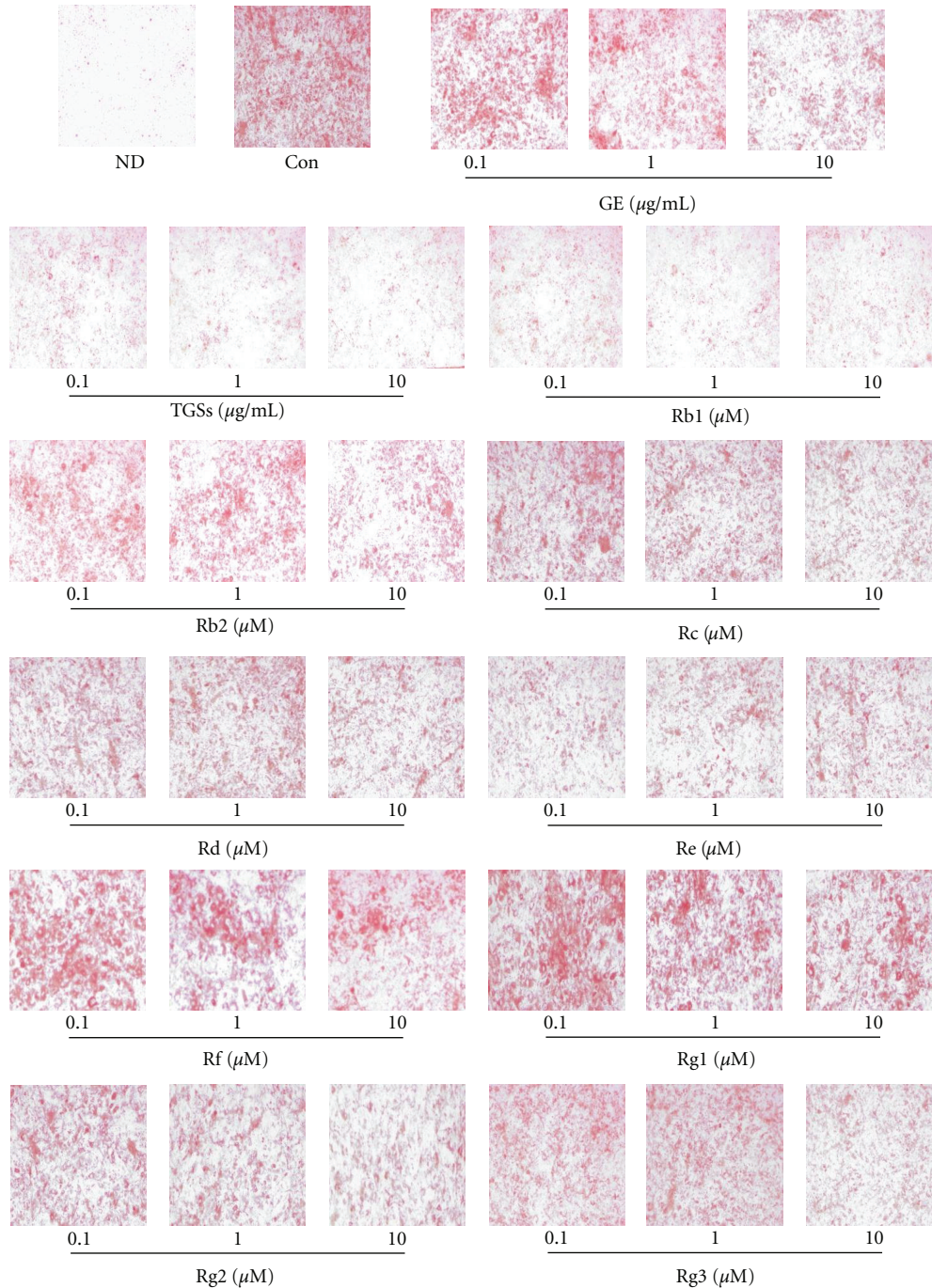
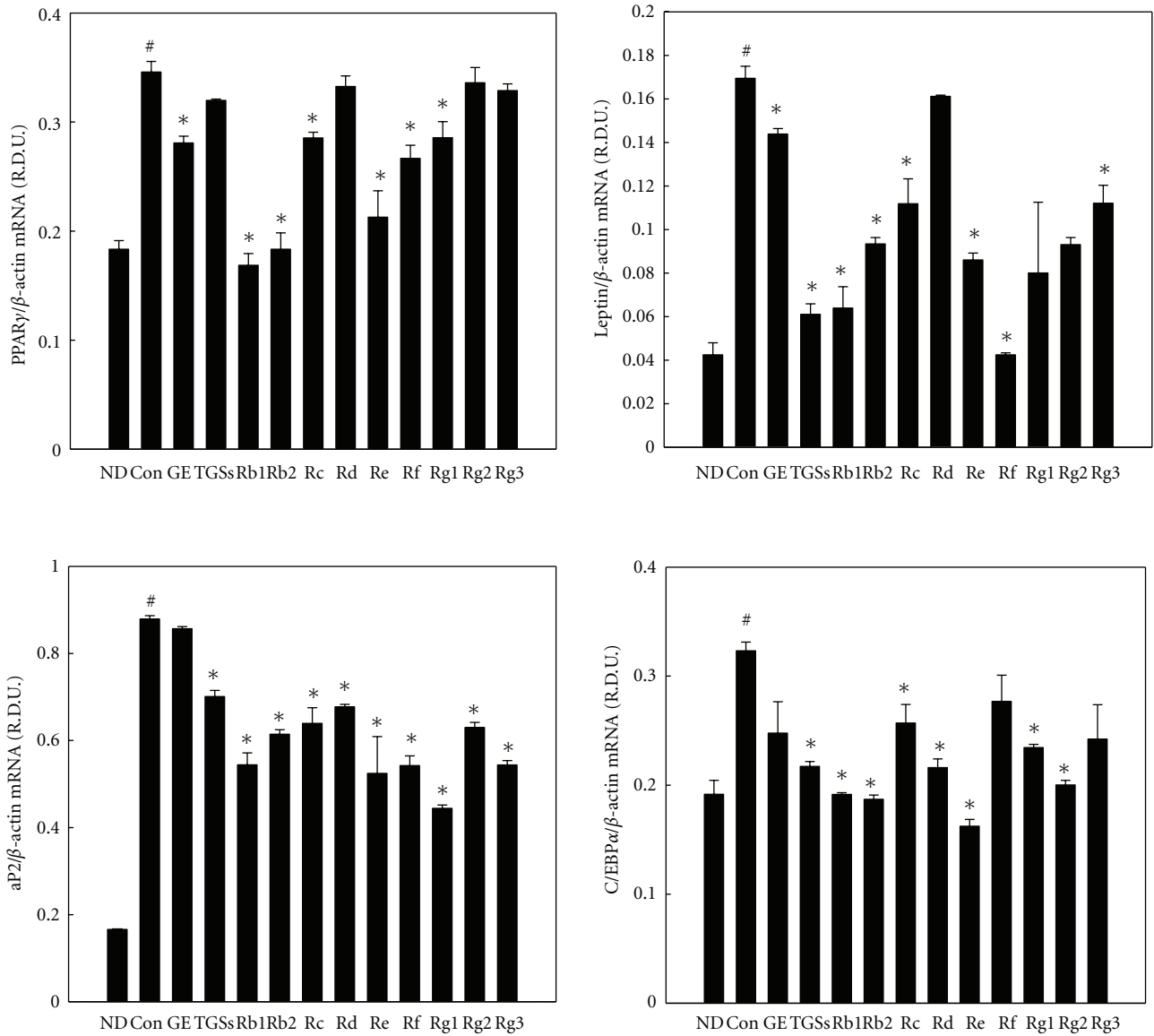


FIGURE 1: Effects of GE and GSs on adipocyte differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were differentiated into mature adipocytes. 3T3-L1 cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE, TGSs, and individual GSs, including Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Re, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3. At day 8 after induction, cells were fixed, and neutral lipids were stained with Oil Red O. ND: nondifferentiated; Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides.

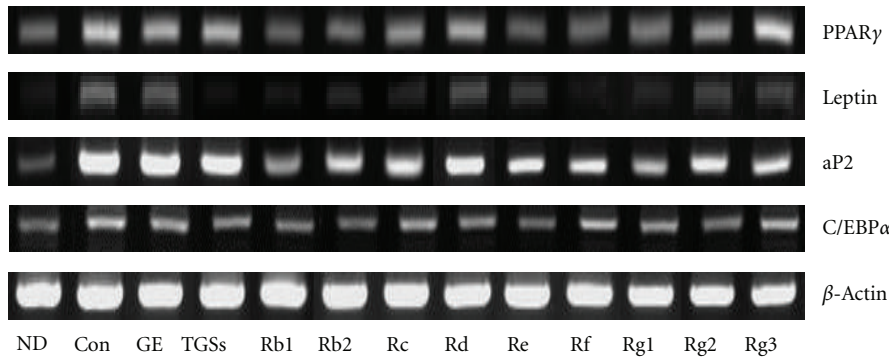
GE and TGSs, 10  $\mu\text{M}$  for Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3, and 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$  for Re. These resulted in a 66% decrease for GE, a 85% decrease for TGSs, and a 87% decrease for Rb1, the most abundant GS in ginseng root.

**3.2. GE and GSs Decrease Adipocyte-Specific Gene Expression in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes.** To quantify changes in adipocyte differentiation induced by GE and GSs, we analyzed adipocyte

marker gene expression. GE (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), TGSs (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), individual GSs, including Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, Rg3 (10  $\mu\text{M}$  each), and Re (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ ) decreased peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$  (PPAR $\gamma$ ), adipocyte fatty acid-binding protein (aP2), leptin, and CCAAT/enhancer binding protein  $\alpha$  (C/EBP $\alpha$ ) mRNA levels compared with the control levels (Figure 2). GE effectively decreased PPAR $\gamma$ , aP2, leptin, and C/EBP $\alpha$  mRNA levels by 19, 3, 15, and 6%,



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 2: Effects of GE and GSs on adipocyte-specific gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells. (a) 3T3-L1 cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE (10  $\mu$ g/mL), TGs (10  $\mu$ g/mL), or individual GSs (i.e., Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, Rg3 (10  $\mu$ M each), and Re (0.1  $\mu$ M)). All values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD of relative density units (R.D.U.) using  $\beta$ -actin as a reference. (b) Representative PCR bands from one of three independent experiments are shown. <sup>#</sup>*P* < 0.05 compared with the ND group, <sup>\*</sup>*P* < 0.05 compared with the Con group. ND: nondifferentiated; Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGs: total ginsenosides.

respectively, and TGS decreased the levels of these same genes by 8, 20, 64, and 14%, respectively. Moreover, Rb1 decreased PPAR $\gamma$ , aP2, leptin, and C/EBP $\alpha$  mRNA levels by 51, 38, 62, and 41%, respectively.

**3.3. GE and GSs Regulate the mRNA Expression of MMPs and Their Inhibitors in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes.** Treatment with GE, TGSs, and individual GSs decreased the mRNA levels of MMP-2 and MMP-9 compared with their expression in untreated adipocytes. GE treatment reduced MMP-2 and MMP-9 mRNA levels by 7 and 12%, respectively, and GS decreased their mRNA levels by 24 and 24%, respectively (Figure 3). By contrast, GE increased the mRNA levels of TIMP-1 and TIMP-2 by 135 and 77%, respectively, and TGSs increased their mRNA levels by 123 and 43%, respectively. In particular, Rb1 also decreased the mRNA levels of MMP-2 and MMP-9 by 46 and 42%, respectively, whereas Rb1 increased TIMP-1 and TIMP-2 mRNA levels by 70 and 79%, respectively.

**3.4. GE and GSs Block MMP Activity in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes.** MMP activity in 3T3-L1 adipocytes was examined using zymography on gelatin-containing gels. Gelatin zymography revealed that the activities of proMMP-9 (92 kDa), proMMP-2 (68 kDa), and active MMP-2 (58 kDa) in untreated differentiated adipocytes were substantially higher than those of untreated ND cells. However, their activities were significantly reduced by treatment with GE, TGSs, and individual GSs. GE decreased proMMP-2 and proMMP-9 activities by 23 and 31%, respectively, and TGSs decreased their activities by 17 and 21%, respectively (Figure 4). Rb1 also decreased proMMP-2 and proMMP-9 activities by 25 and 26%, respectively. Moreover, GE, TGSs, and Rb1 reduced active MMP-2 levels by 13, 31, and 19%, respectively.

**3.5. GE and GSs Reduce PMA-Induced MMP-2 and MMP-9 Reporter Gene Expression in 3T3-L1 Cells.** To further elucidate whether ginseng regulates the MMP-2 and MMP-9 promoters, we cloned 2-kb MMP-2 and 1.2-kb MMP-9 promoter fragments from mouse adipose tissue and fused these fragments to the luciferase gene as a reporter. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were transiently transfected with MMP-2 and MMP-9 luciferase reporter gene constructs. Transfected cells were treated with GE, TGSs, and individual GSs at concentrations that did not exert any cytotoxic effects as measured by trypan blue exclusion. Treatment of transfected cells with PMA increased MMP-2 reporter gene activation by 82% compared with its control activation (Figure 5(a)). However, compared to the effects of PMA alone, both GE and TGSs at all concentrations inhibited PMA-induced MMP-2 luciferase activity. Maximal inhibition of MMP-2 luciferase activity was achieved at a concentration of 10  $\mu$ g/mL, which resulted in a 26% decrease for GE and a 28% decrease for TGSs when compared to the effects of PMA alone. All of the individual GSs tested in this study also decreased PMA-induced MMP-2 luciferase activity (Figure 5(b)). Rb1 also significantly decreased PMA-induced MMP-2 luciferase

activity by 46–49% at concentrations of 0.1–10  $\mu$ M compared with the effects of PMA alone.

Similarly, ginseng inhibited MMP-9 reporter gene expression. GE and TGSs reduced PMA-induced MMP-9 luciferase activity by 46 and 56% at a concentration of 10  $\mu$ g/mL, respectively, compared to the effects of PMA alone (Figure 6(a)). All of the individual GSs tested in this study also decreased PMA-induced MMP-9 reporter activity. Compared to the effects of PMA alone, Rb1 decreased MMP-9 reporter activity by 44–55% at concentrations of 0.1–10  $\mu$ M (Figure 6(b)). These results indicate that ginseng inhibits the PMA-induced activation of the MMP-2 and MMP-9 promoters.

**3.6. MMP Regulators Can Alter Adipogenesis by GE and GSs in 3T3-L1 Cells.** To study whether ginseng regulates adipogenesis by targeting MMP-2 and MMP-9, we treated cells with the MMP inhibitor galardin or the MMP inducer PMA. Galardin is a potent inhibitor of MMP-1, -2, -3, -8, and -9. Incubation with galardin inhibited accumulation of cytoplasmic triglycerides in a concentration-dependent manner (Figure 7(a)). The inhibition was partial at 20  $\mu$ M and complete at 50  $\mu$ M.

We then treated 3T3-L1 cells with PMA. PMA treatment increased lipid accumulation compared with control, but this increase was inhibited by GE, TGSs, and Rb1 (Figure 7(b)). The extent of lipid accumulation in cells treated with both PMA and GE, TGSs, or Rb1 was greater than that in cells treated with GE, TGSs, and Rb1 alone, respectively.

**3.7. GE and GSs Regulate the mRNA Expression of NF- $\kappa$ B, Sp1, and AP-1 in 3T3-L1 Adipocytes.** MMP-2 and MMP-9 expressions are known to be regulated by transcription factors, such as NF- $\kappa$ B, Sp1, and AP-1. We thus examined whether GE, TGSs, and Rb1 downregulate the expression of these transcription factors. Treatment with TGSs decreased the mRNA levels of AP-1 subunits c-Jun and c-Fos by 14 and 67%, respectively, compared with their expression in untreated controls (Figure 8). Rb1 decreased the mRNA levels of NF- $\kappa$ B, c-Jun, and c-Fos by 57, 17, and 41%, respectively. GE also decreased c-Fos mRNA levels by 45% compared with untreated adipocytes. In contrast, Sp1 mRNA levels were not changed by GE and GSs.

## 4. Discussion

The development of fat cells from preadipocytes, or adipogenesis, includes morphological changes, the expression of many lipogenic enzymes, and extensive lipid accumulation [21], which all contribute to the growth and expansion of adipose tissue. Because our previous study suggested that GE reduces adipose tissue mass in part by inhibiting MMP activities in obese mice (not published), this study was undertaken to investigate whether ginseng inhibits adipogenesis and determine the involvement of MMP-2 and MMP-9 in this process. To our knowledge, this is the first study to explore the involvement of MMPs in the regulation of adipogenesis by ginseng.

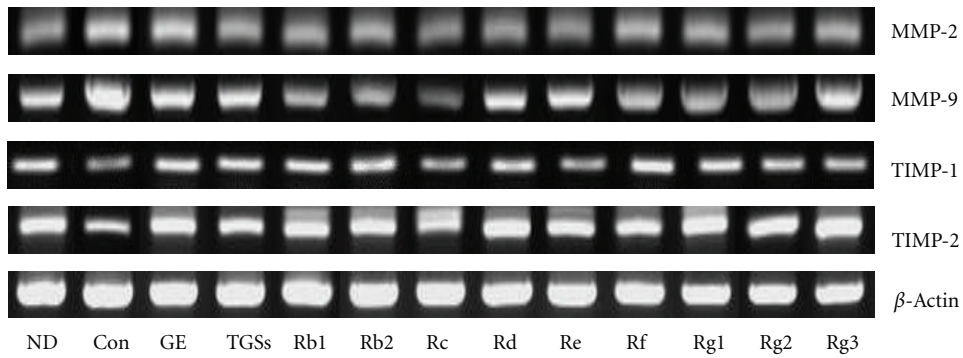
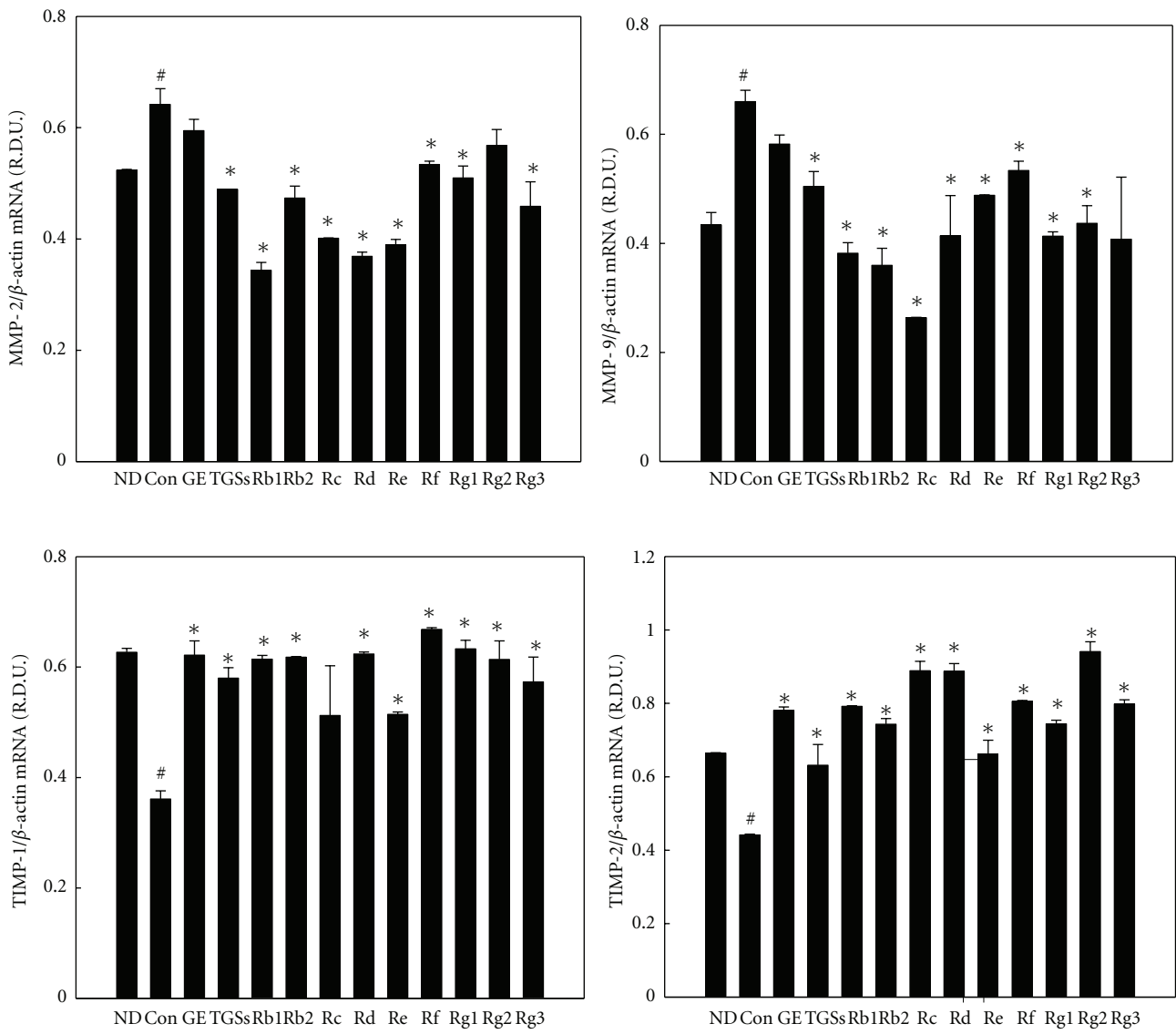


FIGURE 3: Effects of GE and GSs on the mRNA expression of MMPs and their inhibitors in 3T3-L1 cells. (a) 3T3-L1 cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), TGSSs (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), or individual GSs (i.e., Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, Rg3 (10  $\mu\text{M}$  each), and Re (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ )). All values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD of R.D.U. using  $\beta$ -actin as a reference. (b) Representative PCR bands from one of three independent experiments are shown. <sup>#</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the ND group, <sup>\*</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the Con group. ND: nondifferentiated; Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGSSs: total ginsenosides.

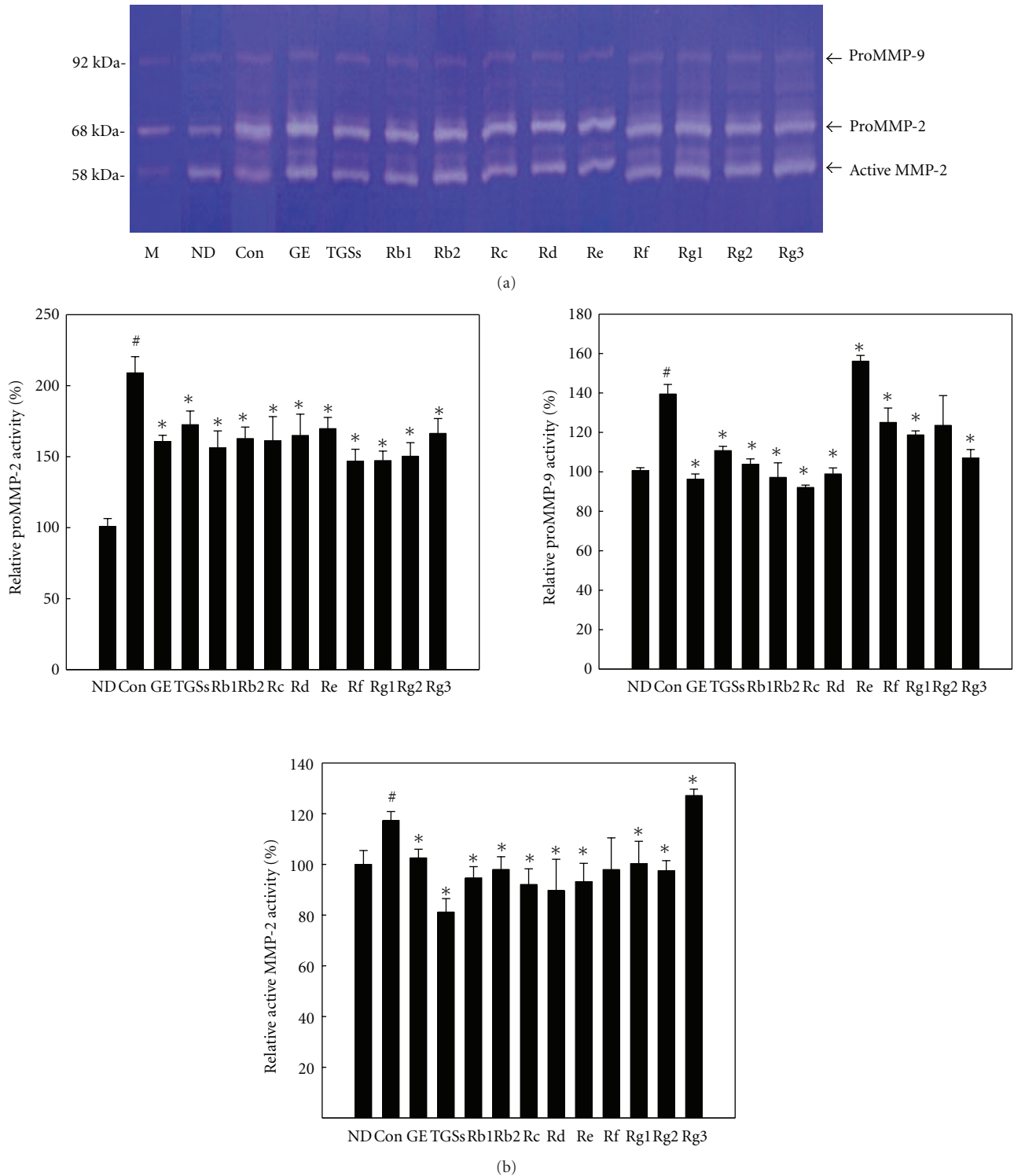


FIGURE 4: Zymographic analysis of 3T3-L1 cells. (a) 3T3-L1 cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), TGSs (10  $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ), or individual GSs (i.e., Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, Rg3 (10  $\mu\text{M}$  each), and Re (0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ )). Protein extracts from 3T3-L1 cells were applied to a gelatin-containing gel. Gelatinolytic activity was measured by zymography. (b) MMP-2 and MMP-9 activities were quantified by densitometric analyses. All values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD. <sup>#</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the ND group, <sup>\*</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the control group. M: protein molecular weight marker; ND: nondifferentiated; Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides.



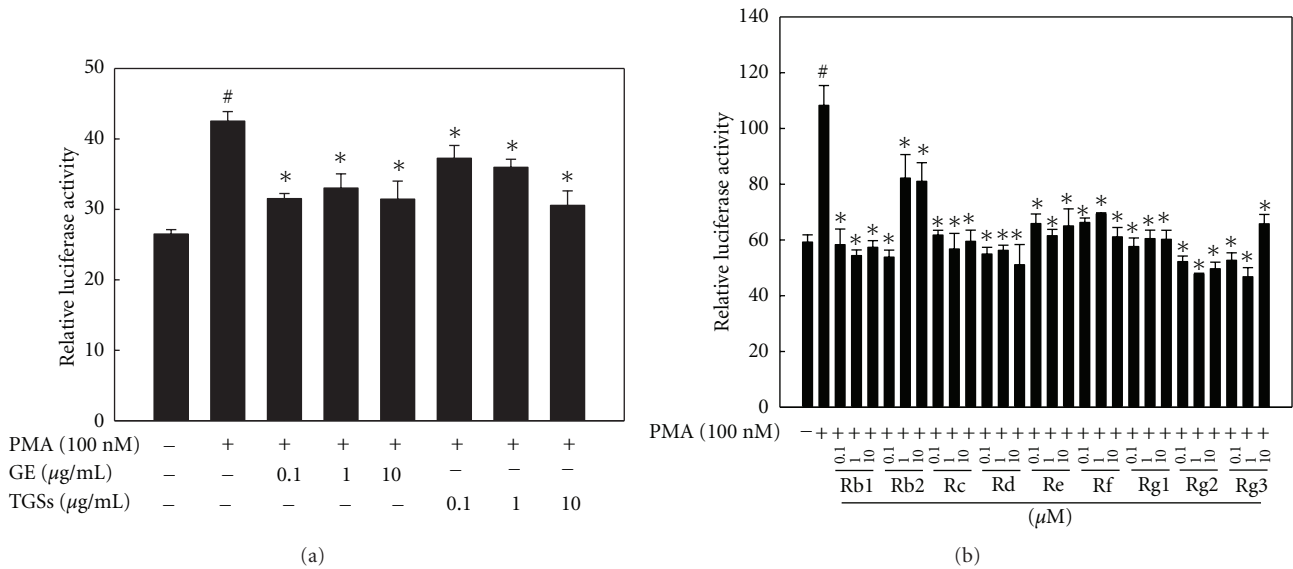


FIGURE 5: Effects of GE and GSs on MMP-2 reporter gene expression. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were transiently transfected with a pGL3-MMP-2 promoter construct. Cells were treated with (a) GE, TGSs, or (b) individual GSs (i.e., Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Re, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3) in the presence of PMA. After incubation for 24 h, cells were harvested, lysed, and subsequently assayed for luciferase and  $\beta$ -galactosidase activities. All values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD of relative luciferase units/ $\beta$ -galactosidase activity. Experiments were performed at least three times. <sup>#</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the vehicle group, <sup>\*</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the PMA group. GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides; PMA: phorbol 12-myristate13-acetate.

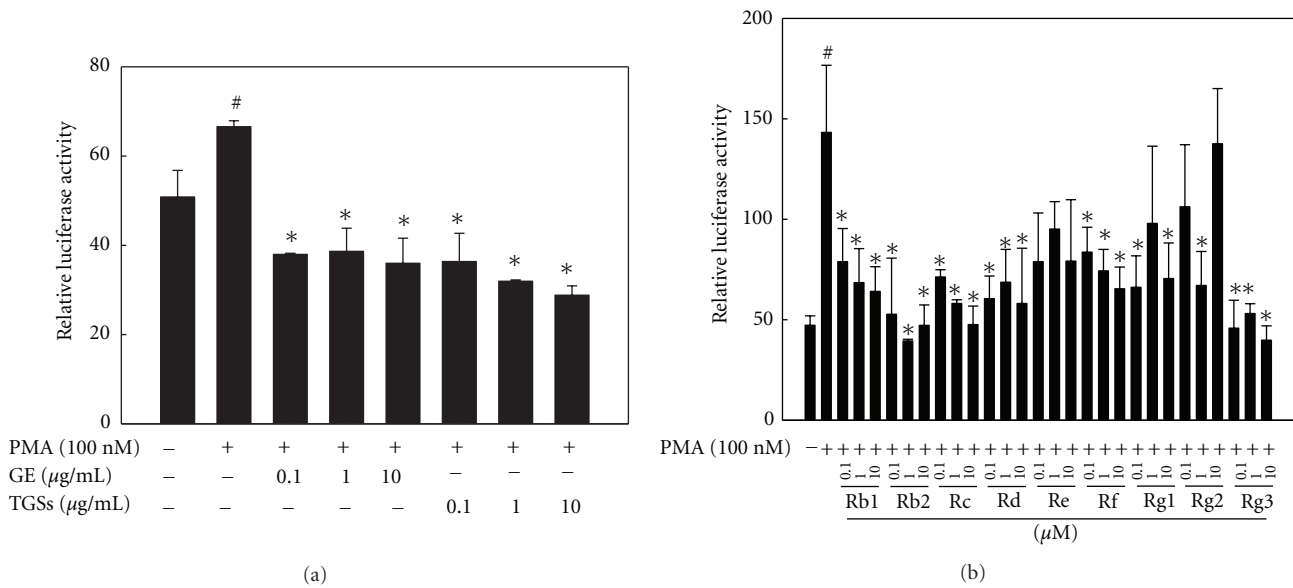


FIGURE 6: Effects of GE and GSs on MMP-9 reporter gene expression. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were transiently transfected with a pGL3-MMP-9 promoter construct. Cells were treated with (a) GE, TGSs, or (b) individual GSs (i.e., Rb1, Rb2, Rc, Rd, Re, Rf, Rg1, Rg2, and Rg3) in the presence of PMA. After incubation for 24 h, cells were harvested, lysed, and subsequently assayed for luciferase and  $\beta$ -galactosidase activities. All values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SD of relative luciferase units/ $\beta$ -galactosidase activity. Experiments were performed at least three times. <sup>#</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the vehicle group, <sup>\*</sup> $P < 0.05$  compared with the PMA group. GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides; PMA: phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate.

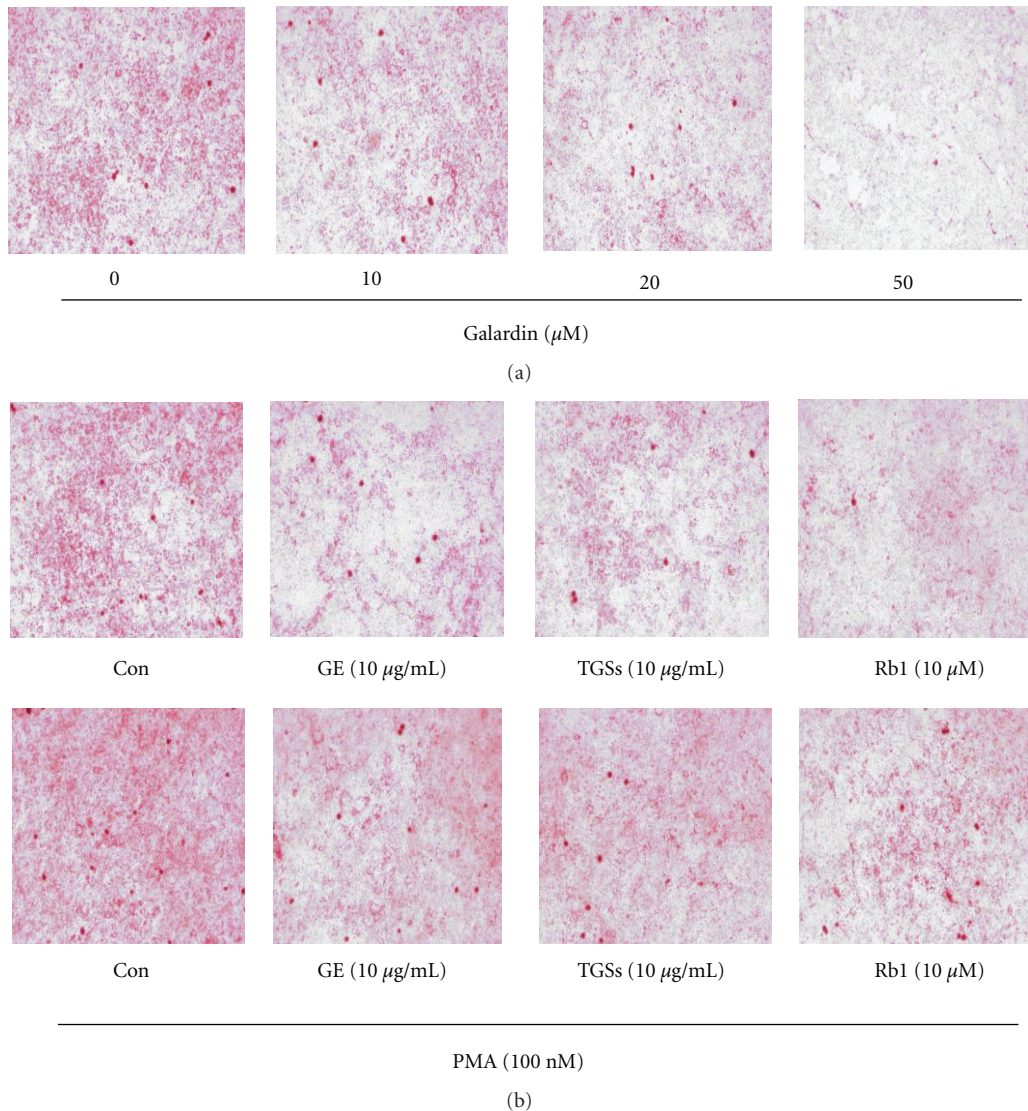


FIGURE 7: Effects of MMP regulators on adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells. (a) Effects of galardin on lipid accumulation. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were differentiated into mature adipocytes. Cells were treated with different concentrations of galardin on days 0–2 only during the differentiation process. (b) Effects of GE and GSs on PMA-induced lipid accumulation in 3T3-L1 cells. Cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE, TGSs, or Rb1 in the absence or presence of PMA on days 0–2 only during the differentiation process. At day 8 after induction, cells were fixed, and neutral lipids were stained with Oil Red O. Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides; PMA: phorbol 12-myristate 13-acetate.

We examined whether adipogenesis is modulated by ginseng, especially GSs, the major metabolites of ginseng. Also referred to as ginseng saponins, these metabolites comprise approximately 3–6% of the components of ginseng and exert most of the pharmacological activity of ginseng [22–25]. We treated 3T3-L1 cells with ginseng (GE, TGSs, and each GS) on days 0–2 after differentiation. Treatment was effective when applied during the early stages of adipocyte conversion, whereas treatment during late stages had few effects (data not shown). As 3T3-L1 cells differentiate, the preadipocytes change into rounded, lipid-filled mature adipocytes. Expectedly, MDI-treated-differentiated control 3T3-L1 cells exhibited an increased accumulation

of triglyceride droplets compared with the findings in ND cells. However, TGSs and all individual GSs tested in this study markedly prevented this MDI-induced lipid accumulation. *C/EBP $\alpha$*  and *PPAR $\gamma$* , two adipogenic transcription factors, play key roles in adipocyte differentiation [21, 26, 27]. Expression of these two factors is elevated during differentiation and maintained for the life of the mature adipocytes. *C/EBP $\alpha$*  and *PPAR $\gamma$*  synergistically transactivate the downstream adipocyte-specific gene expression including *ap2* and *leptin*, which are directly implicated in the lipogenic pathways [26]. *PPAR $\gamma$*  and *C/EBP $\alpha$*  overexpression can induce and accelerate adipocyte differentiation [21]. Consistent with the effects of GSs on lipid accumulation, GSs

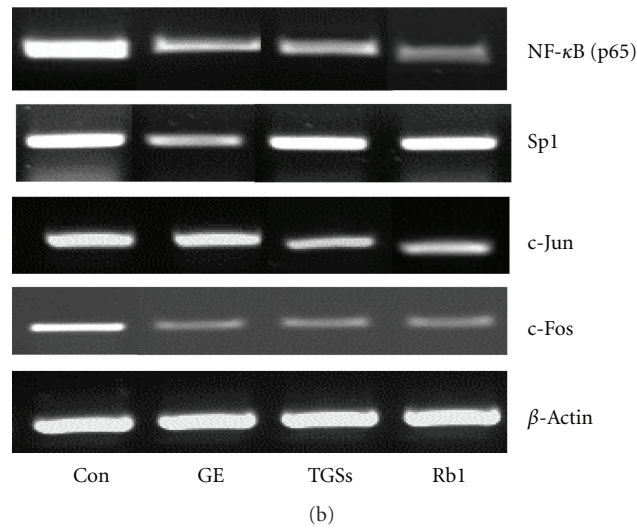
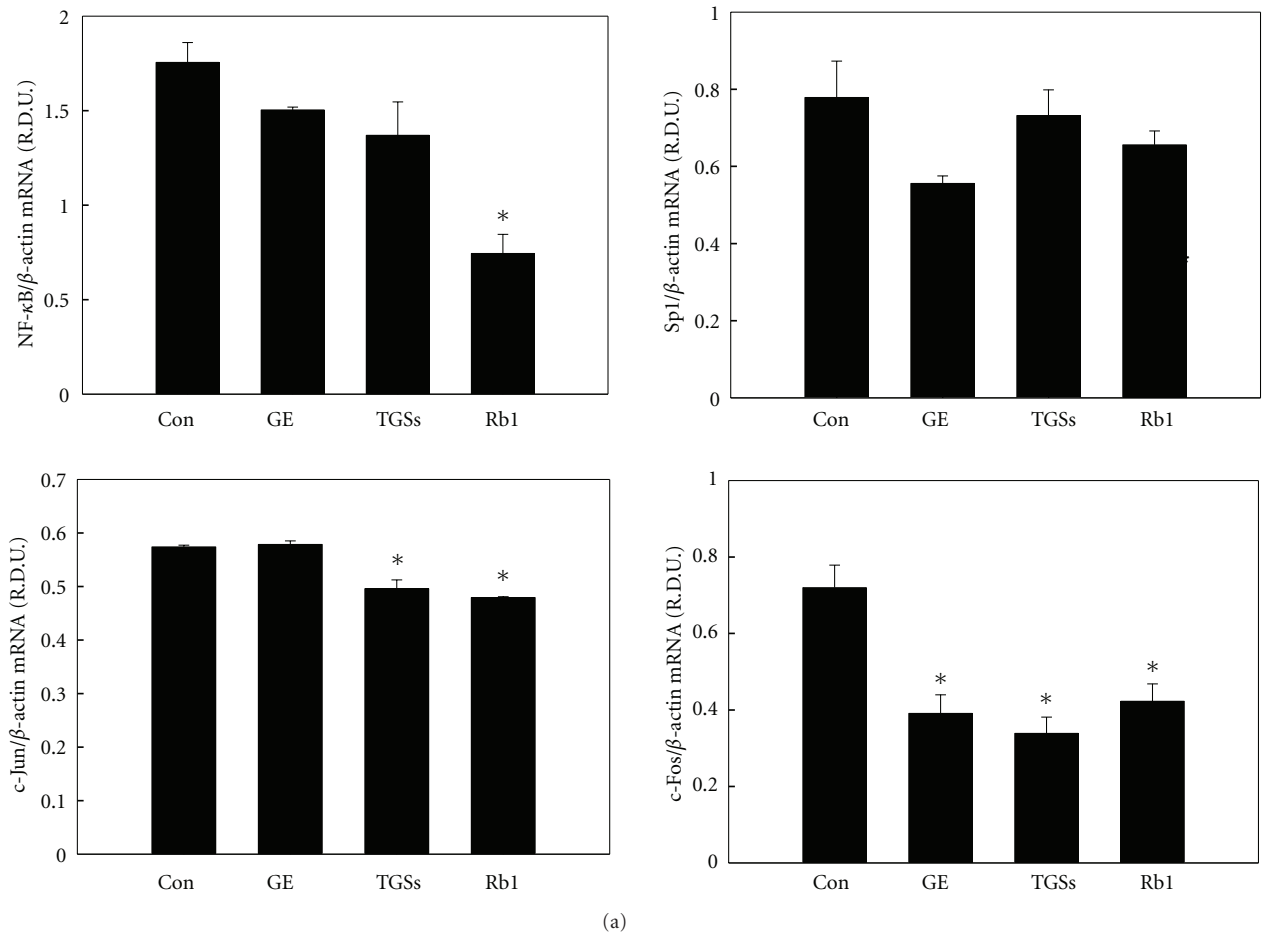


FIGURE 8: Effects of GE and GSs on the mRNA expression of NF-κB, Sp1, and AP-1 in 3T3-L1 cells. (a) 3T3-L1 cells were treated with MDI (control), MDI plus GE, TGSs, or Rb1 on days 0–2 only during the differentiation process. All values are expressed as the mean ± SD of R.D.U. using β-actin as a reference. (b) Representative PCR bands from one of three independent experiments are shown. \**P* < 0.05 compared with the Con group. Con: differentiated control; GE: ginseng extract; TGSs: total ginsenosides.

decreased the expression of PPAR $\gamma$  and the adipose-specific genes aP2 and leptin in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. These results indicate that GSs have an inhibitory effect on adipogenesis.

Morphological changes of 3T3-L1 cells result from alterations of the expression and organization of the ECM, indicating that ECM remodeling is important for adipogenesis. MMPs participate in the tissue remodeling events associated with adipogenesis. Among them, MMP-2 and MMP-9 are of interest because they can remodel the ECMs of murine and human adipogenic cells to facilitate the adipogenic process [6, 11] and regulate the bioavailability of adipocyte growth factors that are either sequestered as inactive molecules in the matrix or blocked by interactions with their binding proteins [28]. MMP-2 and MMP-9 expression is increased during adipocyte differentiation [16], and endogenous and exogenous MMPs induce adipogenesis [10, 16]. Adipocytes also produce the MMP inhibitors TIMPs, which comprise a family of four protease inhibitors: TIMP-1, TIMP-2, TIMP-3, and TIMP-4. Under pathological conditions associated with unbalanced MMP activities, changes of TIMP levels are considered important because most TIMPs can inhibit the activities of all known MMPs [29]. Our RT-PCR analysis revealed that MMP-2 and MMP-9 mRNA levels were significantly increased at day 8 of adipocyte differentiation, whereas TIMP-1 and TIMP-2 mRNA levels were decreased. However, GE, TGSSs, and all of the individual GSs tested in this study decreased MMP-2 and MMP-9 mRNA levels in 3T3-L1 adipocytes, whereas they increased TIMP-1 and TIMP-2 levels. These results suggest that ginseng inhibits adipogenesis in part by downregulating and upregulating the expression of MMP and TIMP genes, respectively.

Zymographic analyses revealed that treatment with GE, TGSSs, and each GS suppressed MMP-2 and MMP-9 activities, as the activities of active MMP-2, proMMP-2, and proMMP-9 were markedly reduced in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. Our results are supported by several lines of evidence indicating that ginseng inhibits MMP-2 and MMP-9 expression and activity; GE suppresses the metastasis of human hepatoma SK-Hep1 cells by inhibiting MMP-2 and MMP-9 [19], and GSs including Rb1, Rb2, Rd, and Rg3 inhibit MMP-2 and MMP-9 protein expression and activity in several types of cells such as SKOV-3 ovarian cancer cells and HepG2 human hepatoma cells [15–18, 30, 31], suggesting that the inhibition of MMP activity is important in terms of preventing cell metastasis. Although many reports indicated that ginseng prevents cell metastasis by inhibiting MMP activity, there is no evidence demonstrating that MMP inhibition by ginseng regulates adipogenesis. Thus, our results revealing that ginseng may inhibit adipogenesis by suppressing MMP activity indicate that the ginseng-mediated inhibition of MMP-2 and MMP-9 is required to inhibit adipogenesis.

We also examined whether ginseng inhibits MMP-2 and MMP-9 promoters. GE, TGSSs, and each GS suppressed MMP-2 and MMP-9 promoter activities induced by PMA, which promotes tumorigenesis by activating protein kinase C. These results indicate that ginseng inhibits the expression of MMP-2 and MMP-9 at the transcriptional level.

To further study whether ginseng regulates adipogenesis by targeting MMP-2 and MMP-9, cells were treated with the

MMP inhibitor galardin or the MMP inducer PMA. Galardin inhibited lipid accumulation in a concentration-dependent manner, suggesting that MMPs are involved in the adipose conversion of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes. In contrast, PMA treatment increased accumulation of triglycerides compared with control, but this increase was inhibited by GE and GSs. Lipid accumulation in cells treated with both PMA and ginseng was greater than that in cells treated with ginseng alone. These results suggest that PMA treatment attenuated the ginseng efficacy to inhibit adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells. Altogether, our results demonstrate that MMP-2 and MMP-9 may be involved in the regulation of adipogenesis by ginseng. Our results are supported by reports showing that that MMP-specific inhibitors and neutralizing antibodies prevented adipocyte differentiation. Treatment of 3T3F442A preadipocytes with MMP inhibitors such as batimastat (BB-94), captopril, and CT1746 markedly decreased triglyceride accumulation [6, 10]. Similar inhibition was observed in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes treated with MMP inhibitors such as ilomastat, batimastat, and MMP-2 inhibitor 1, which reduced the expression of adipocyte marker genes and triglyceride levels [9, 11]. Anti-MMP-2 and anti-MMP-9 antibodies also prevented lipid accumulation in 3T3-L1 cells [11]. By contrast, adipocyte differentiation was enhanced by MMP inhibitors such as GM 6001, TIMP-1, and ABT-518 in 3T3F442A and 3T3-L1 cells [32, 33]. These conflicting data may be due to the differences in the degree of MMP-inhibiting activity, the concentration of inhibitors, the time of inhibitor addition and duration or exposure, and the culture conditions including differentiation medium and serum. In our culture system, GE, TGSSs, and individual GSs effectively inhibit adipogenesis and thus appear to act as MMP inhibitors.

MMP-2 and MMP-9 gene expression is primarily regulated by several transcription factors such as AP-1, NF- $\kappa$ B, and Sp1 [34, 35]. To study the transcriptional regulation of MMP-2 and MMP-9 by ginseng, we examined the effects of ginseng on transcription factors (NF- $\kappa$ B, Sp1, and AP-1) of MMP-2 and MMP-9. We found that GE and GSs decreased the mRNA levels of NF- $\kappa$ B and AP-1 without affecting Sp1. These results suggest that ginseng inhibits adipogenesis through MMP-2 and MMP-9 at the transcriptional level, and NF- $\kappa$ B and AP-1 are involved in this regulation. However, the possibility that ginseng directly inhibits their activities cannot be excluded because no activity studies have been performed.

In addition, we also focused on Rb1, which is the most abundant GS in ginseng root despite different sources and species [36–38]. Our result revealed that Rb1 was the most effective inhibitor of adipogenesis among the GSs. Rb1 markedly reduced triglyceride accumulation and significantly prevented the expression of adipose marker genes. In contrast with our results, Shang et al. reported that Rb1 promoted adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells by enhancing C/EBP $\alpha$  and PPAR $\gamma$ <sub>2</sub> gene expression [39]. They measured triglyceride content in adipocytes at day 8 after induction as performed in our study, but control adipocytes had lower levels of triglycerides in their experiment than in our experiment. We believe that they did not use fully differentiated

adipocytes, as indicated by the lower levels of positive Oil red O staining compared with our findings, which is one of the causes of the different effects of ginseng on adipogenesis reported by the two groups. Furthermore, this difference may be due to differences in serum and the duration of insulin treatment. They used fetal calf serum and 4 days of insulin treatment, whereas we used FBS and 2 days of insulin exposure. Accordingly, Rb1 inhibited MDI-induced adipocyte differentiation in our system in which adipocytes were fully differentiated after 8 days of induction.

## 5. Conclusion

In conclusion, these studies demonstrate that GE and GSs may inhibit adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 adipocytes and that this process may be mediated through the inhibition of MMP-2 and MMP-9. The present study suggests that ginseng, particularly GSs, may be developed into promising agents for the prevention and treatment of human obesity and its related disorders by inhibiting adipogenesis. However, the exact mechanism of its action on adipogenesis remains unclear. Thus, further studies will be necessary to determine the signaling pathways involved in the regulation of adipogenesis by ginseng.

## Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests.

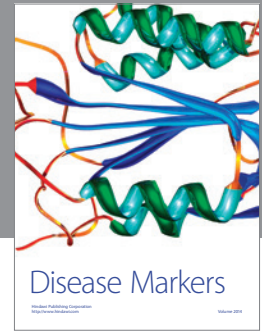
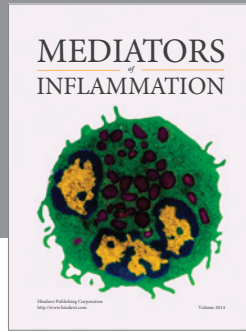
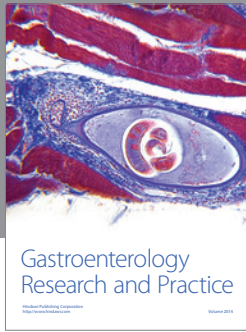
## Acknowledgments

This work is supported by the National Research Foundation of Korea (NRF) Grant funded by the Korea Government (MEST) (NRF-2011-0003703, 2012R1A1A3002100, and 2012R1A2A2A01004508), Korea.

## References

- [1] C. Couillard, P. Mauriège, P. Imbeault et al., "Hyperleptinemia is more closely associated with adipose cell hypertrophy than with adipose tissue hyperplasia," *International Journal of Obesity and Related Metabolic Disorders*, vol. 24, no. 6, pp. 782–788, 2000.
- [2] D. L. Crandall, G. J. Hausman, and J. G. Kral, "A review of the microcirculation of adipose tissue: anatomic, metabolic, and angiogenic perspectives," *Microcirculation*, vol. 4, no. 2, pp. 211–232, 1997.
- [3] R. Visse and H. Nagase, "Matrix metalloproteinases and tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases: structure, function, and biochemistry," *Circulation Research*, vol. 92, no. 8, pp. 827–839, 2003.
- [4] H. R. Lijnen, E. Maquoi, L. B. Hansen, B. Van Hoef, L. Frederix, and D. Collen, "Matrix metalloproteinase inhibition impairs adipose tissue development in mice," *Arteriosclerosis, Thrombosis, and Vascular Biology*, vol. 22, no. 3, pp. 374–379, 2002.
- [5] R. E. Galardy, D. Grobelyny, H. G. Foellmer, and L. A. Fernandez, "Inhibition of angiogenesis by the matrix metalloproteinase inhibitor N-[2R- 2-(hydroxamidocarbonylmethyl)-4-methylpentanoyl]-L-tryptophan methylamide," *Cancer Research*, vol. 54, no. 17, pp. 4715–4718, 1994.
- [6] A. Bouloumié, C. Sengenès, G. Portolan, J. Galitzky, and M. Lafontan, "Adipocyte produces matrix metalloproteinases 2 and 9: involvement in adipose differentiation," *Diabetes*, vol. 50, no. 9, pp. 2080–2086, 2001.
- [7] N. Kawaguchi, K. Toriyama, E. Nicodemou-Lena, K. Inou, S. Torii, and Y. Kitagawa, "De novo adipogenesis in mice at the site of injection of basement membrane and basic fibroblast growth factor," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 95, no. 3, pp. 1062–1066, 1998.
- [8] V. Christiaens and H. R. Lijnen, "Role of the fibrinolytic and matrix metalloproteinase systems in development of adipose tissue," *Archives of Physiology and Biochemistry*, vol. 112, no. 4-5, pp. 254–259, 2006.
- [9] C. Chavey, B. Mari, M. N. Monthouel et al., "Matrix metalloproteinases are differentially expressed in adipose tissue during obesity and modulate adipocyte differentiation," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 278, no. 14, pp. 11888–11896, 2003.
- [10] E. Maquoi, C. Munaut, A. Colige, D. Collen, and H. R. Lijnen, "Modulation of adipose tissue expression of murine matrix metalloproteinases and their tissue inhibitors with obesity," *Diabetes*, vol. 51, no. 4, pp. 1093–1101, 2002.
- [11] G. Croissandeau, M. Chrétien, and M. Mbikay, "Involvement of matrix metalloproteinases in the adipose conversion of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes," *The Biochemical Journal*, vol. 364, no. 4, pp. 739–746, 2002.
- [12] C. N. Gillis, "Panax ginseng pharmacology: a nitric oxide link?" *Biochemical Pharmacology*, vol. 54, no. 1, pp. 1–8, 1997.
- [13] A. S. Attele, J. A. Wu, and C. S. Yuan, "Ginseng pharmacology: multiple constituents and multiple actions," *Biochemical Pharmacology*, vol. 58, no. 11, pp. 1685–1693, 1999.
- [14] J. M. Lü, Q. Yao, and C. Chen, "Ginseng compounds: an update on their molecular mechanisms and medical applications," *Current Vascular Pharmacology*, vol. 7, no. 3, pp. 293–302, 2009.
- [15] P. Y. K. Yue, D. Y. L. Wong, P. K. Wu et al., "The angiosuppressive effects of 20(R)- ginsenoside Rg3," *Biochemical Pharmacology*, vol. 72, no. 4, pp. 437–445, 2006.
- [16] T. M. Xu, M. H. Cui, Y. Xin et al., "Inhibitory effect of ginsenoside Rg3 on ovarian cancer metastasis," *Chinese Medical Journal*, vol. 121, no. 15, pp. 1394–1397, 2008.
- [17] J. Fujimoto, H. Sakaguchi, I. Aoki, H. Toyoki, S. Khatun, and T. Tamaya, "Inhibitory effect of ginsenoside-Rb2 on invasiveness of uterine endometrial cancer cells to the basement membrane," *European Journal of Gynaecological Oncology*, vol. 22, no. 5, pp. 339–341, 2001.
- [18] J. H. Yoon, Y. J. Choi, S. W. Cha, and S. G. Lee, "Anti-metastatic effects of ginsenoside Rd via inactivation of MAPK signaling and induction of focal adhesion formation," *Phytomedicine*, vol. 19, no. 3-4, pp. 284–292, 2012.
- [19] Y. L. Ho, K. C. Li, W. Chao, Y. S. Chang, and G. J. Huang, "Korean red ginseng suppresses metastasis of human hepatoma SK-Hep1 cells by inhibiting matrix metalloproteinase-2/-9 and urokinase plasminogen activator," *Evidence-Based Complementary and Alternative Medicine*, vol. 2012, Article ID 965846, 8 pages, 2012.
- [20] M. Yoon, H. Lee, S. Jeong et al., "Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor is involved in the regulation of lipid metabolism by ginseng," *British Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 138, no. 7, pp. 1295–1302, 2003.

- [21] E. D. Rosen and B. M. Spiegelman, "Molecular regulation of adipogenesis," *Annual Review of Cell and Developmental Biology*, vol. 16, pp. 145–171, 2000.
- [22] K. C. Huang, *The Pharmacology of Chinese Herbs*, CRC Press, Boca Raton, Fla, USA, 1999.
- [23] S. Odashima, T. Ohta, H. Kohno et al., "Control of phenotypic expression of cultured B16 melanoma cells by plant glycosides," *Cancer Research*, vol. 45, no. 6, pp. 2781–2784, 1985.
- [24] D. Tsang, H. W. Yeung, W. W. Tso, and H. Peck, "Ginseng saponins: influence on neurotransmitter uptake in rat brain synaptosomes," *Planta Medica*, vol. 3, pp. 221–224, 1985.
- [25] L. P. Christensen, "Ginsenosides chemistry, biosynthesis, analysis, and potential health effects," *Advances in Food and Nutrition Research*, vol. 55, pp. 1–99, 2008.
- [26] F. M. Gregoire, C. M. Smas, and H. S. Sul, "Understanding adipocyte differentiation," *Physiological Reviews*, vol. 78, no. 3, pp. 783–809, 1998.
- [27] E. D. Rosen, "The transcriptional basis of adipocyte development," *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes and Essential Fatty Acids*, vol. 73, no. 1, pp. 31–34, 2005.
- [28] T. Sadowski, S. Dietrich, F. Koschinsky, and R. Sedlacek, "Matrix metalloproteinase 19 regulates insulin-like growth factor-mediated proliferation, migration, and adhesion in human keratinocytes through proteolysis of insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3," *Molecular Biology of the Cell*, vol. 14, no. 11, pp. 4569–4580, 2003.
- [29] D. E. Gomez, D. F. Alonso, H. Yoshiji, and U. P. Thorgeirsson, "Tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases: structure, regulation and biological functions," *European Journal of Cell Biology*, vol. 74, no. 2, pp. 111–122, 1997.
- [30] Y. T. Lo, Y. H. Tsai, S. J. Wu, J. R. Chen, and J. C. Chao, "Ginsenoside Rb1 inhibits cell activation and liver fibrosis in rat hepatic stellate cells," *Journal of Medicinal Food*, vol. 14, no. 10, pp. 1135–1143, 2011.
- [31] S. Y. Kim, D. H. Kim, S. J. Han, J. W. Hyun, and H. S. Kim, "Repression of matrix metalloproteinase gene expression by ginsenoside Rh2 in human astrogloma cells," *Biochemical Pharmacology*, vol. 74, no. 11, pp. 1642–1651, 2007.
- [32] C. M. Alexander, S. Selvarajan, J. Mudgett, and Z. Werb, "Stromelysin-1 regulates adipogenesis during mammary gland involution," *The Journal of Cell Biology*, vol. 152, no. 4, pp. 693–703, 2001.
- [33] M. Van Hul, D. Bauters, U. Himmelreich et al., "Effect of gelatinase inhibition on adipogenesis and adipose tissue development," *Clinical and Experimental Pharmacology & Physiology*, vol. 39, no. 1, pp. 49–56, 2012.
- [34] H. Qin, Y. Sun, and E. N. Benveniste, "The transcription factors Sp1, Sp3, and AP-2 are required for constitutive matrix metalloproteinase-2 gene expression in astrogloma cells," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 274, no. 41, pp. 29130–29137, 1999.
- [35] J. Yao, S. Xiong, K. Klos et al., "Multiple signaling pathways involved in activation of matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9) by heregulin- $\beta$ 1 in human breast cancer cells," *Oncogene*, vol. 20, no. 56, pp. 8066–8074, 2001.
- [36] A. S. Attele, Y. P. Zhou, J. T. Xie et al., "Antidiabetic effects of Panax ginseng berry extract and the identification of an effective component," *Diabetes*, vol. 51, no. 6, pp. 1851–1858, 2002.
- [37] D. Washida and S. Kitanaka, "Determination of polyacetylenes and ginsenosides in Panax species using high performance liquid chromatography," *Chemical & Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, vol. 51, no. 11, pp. 1314–1317, 2003.
- [38] W. Lim, K. W. Mudge, and F. Vermeylen, "Effects of population, age, and cultivation methods on ginsenoside content of wild American ginseng (*Panax quinquefolium*)," *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, vol. 53, no. 22, pp. 8498–8505, 2005.
- [39] W. Shang, Y. Yang, B. Jiang et al., "Ginsenoside Rb1 promotes adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 cells by enhancing PPAR $\gamma$ 2 and C/EBP $\alpha$  gene expression," *Life Sciences*, vol. 80, no. 7, pp. 618–625, 2007.



**Hindawi**  
Submit your manuscripts at  
<http://www.hindawi.com>

