

Inhibition by Diallyl Trisulfide, a Garlic Component, of Intracellular Ca²⁺ Mobilization without Affecting Inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃) Formation in Activated Platelets

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ABSTRACT. Garlic has been used in herbal medicine for thousands of years. Some reports have shown that garlic has protective effects against atherosclerosis and inhibits platelet function. In this study, we investigated the mechanism by which diallyl trisulfide (DT), a component of garlic, inhibits platelet function. DT inhibited platelet aggregation and Ca^{2+} mobilization in a concentration-dependent manner without increasing intracellular cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP. DT also had no inhibitory effects on thromboxane A_2 (TXA₂) production in cell-free systems. Collagen-related peptide (CRP)-induced Ca^{2+} mobilization is regulated by phospholipase $C-\gamma 2$ (PLC- $\gamma 2$) activation. We evaluated the effect of DT on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC- $\gamma 2$ and the production of inositol-1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃). DT at concentrations that inhibited platelet aggregation and Ca^{2+} mobilization had no effects on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC- $\gamma 2$ or on the formation of IP₃ induced by CRP. Similar results were obtained with thrombin-induced platelet activation. DT inhibited platelet aggregation and Ca^{2+} mobilization induced by thrombin without affecting the production of IP₃. We then evaluated the effect of DT on the binding of IP₃ to its receptor. DT at high concentrations partially blocked the binding of IP₃ to its receptor. Taken together, our findings suggest that the agent suppresses Ca^{2+} mobilization at a step distal to IP₃ formation. DT may provide a good tool for investigating Ca^{2+} mobilization.

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KEY WORDS. diallyl trisulfide; platelet; calcium; IP₃, cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP; thromboxane A₂

Garlic has been used in herbal medicine for thousands of years, and it appears to contain a number of active compounds for medicinal use. Recently, sulfur compounds of garlic have been identified, which include allicin, diallyl sulfide, diallyl disulfide, diallyl trisulfide, trans-ajoene, cisajoene, dimethyl trisulfide, and vinyl dithiins [1]. These sulfur-containing compounds appear to be responsible for the beneficial effects of garlic intake. Garlic has a wide range of therapeutic applications, and some reports have indicated that it has protective activity against atherosclerosis, and more specifically stroke and myocardial infarction [2]. Some investigations have shown that garlic prevents both the development and progression of atherosclerosis [3]. Dietary garlic increases fibrinolytic activity [4]. Garlic extracts can decrease the amount of low-density lipoprotein, serum triglyceride, and cholesterol and can prevent the oxidation of low-density lipoprotein [3, 5]. Furthermore, a recent report showed that atherosclerotic plaque

volume can be reduced by supplying garlic extracts for

several years [6]. With regard to platelet function, an

animal in vivo experiment has shown that rabbits fed with

garlic extracts were well protected against thrombus forma-

tion induced by a lethal dose of collagen or arachidonic acid [7]. Garlic can also inhibit the responses of platelets

and reduce TXB₂§ formation [8–10]. However, most stud-

ies have employed garlic or its extracts, and studies on purified garlic components and on the precise mechanism

of inhibition have been few. A recent study has indicated

that ajoene, an extract of garlic, inhibits the protein

§ Abbreviations: TX, thromboxane; DT, diallyl trisulfide; CRP, collagen-related peptide; EIA, enzyme immunoassay; IP₃, inositol-1,4,5-trisphos-phate; PLC, phospholipase C; PMSF, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride; pAb, polyclonal antibody; mAb, monoclonal antibody; PG, prostaglandin; TCA, trichloroacetic acid; fura 2-AM, fura 2 acetoxymethyl ester; and SNP, sodium nitroprusside.

tyrosine phosphatase activity in human platelets [11]. In this study, we used a component of garlic extracts, DT, which has been employed for the prevention of atherosclerosis in China for several years, and has proven to be useful

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in lowering the occurrence of cerebral infarction. DT is a sulfur-containing material with a MW of 178. In a preliminary study, we found that DT potently suppressed platelet aggregation induced by various agonists. In this study, we sought to explore the mechanism by which DT inhibits platelet functions.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Materials

The following materials were obtained from the indicated suppliers: PGI₂ (Funakoshi); BSA (Sigma Chemical Co.); anti-PLC-γ2 pAb (Santa Cruz Biotechnology); anti-phosphotyrosine mAb (PY20) (Transduction Laboratories); anti-phosphotyrosine mAb (4G10) (Upstate Biotechnology, Inc.); D-myo-IP₃ assay kit, TXB₂ EIA system, cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP EIA systems (Amersham Life Science); and fura 2-AM (Dojin Laboratories). CRP was a gift from Dr. M. Moroi (Department of Protein Biochemistry, Institute of Life Science, Kurume University). DT was obtained from the Institute of Chinese Materia Medica, China Academy of Traditional Chinese Medicine. DT was purified by HPLC, and the final product obtained was 98% pure.

Platelet Separation

Platelets were obtained on the day of the experiment from volunteers who had taken no medication in the previous 2 weeks. The blood was centrifuged at 160 g for 15 min to obtain platelet-rich plasma. The platelet-rich plasma was centrifuged at 600 g for 15 min and resuspended in HEPES–Tyrode's buffer (138 mM NaCl, 3.3 mM NaH₂PO₄, 2.9 mM KCl, 1 mM MgCl₂, 1 mg/mL of glucose, and 20 mM HEPES, pH 7.4).

Platelet Aggregation and Ca²⁺ Measurement

Fura 2-AM at a final concentration of 3 µM was added to platelet-rich plasma, and the mixture was incubated for 30 min. After washing, fura 2-loaded platelets were resuspended in HEPES-Tyrode's buffer at a concentration of 1×10^8 cells/mL. First, we used DT at a concentration of 10 µg/mL and evaluated the effects of DT on platelet aggregation at various time points including 30 sec and 1, 2, 5, and 10 min; there appeared to be no significant difference in its potency. Therefore, we set the incubation time to be 5 min throughout the study. Washed platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min; then, the agonist was added to the suspension for evaluation of Ca²⁺ mobilization or platelet aggregation. Fura 2 fluorescence was measured with a Hitachi F 2000 fluorescence spectrophotometer with an excitation wavelength alternating every 0.5 sec from 340 to 380 nm; the emission wavelength was set at 510 nm. The [Ca²⁺], values were determined from the ratio of fura 2 fluorescence intensity at 340 and 380 nm excitation. Platelet aggregation was

measured with an AA-100 platelet aggregation analyzer (Kowa).

Measurement of Cyclic AMP and Cyclic GMP

Washed platelets were suspended in HEPES–Tyrode's buffer at a concentration of 3×10^8 cells/mL. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then the samples were lysed by adding a lysis reagent, which was obtained from the supplier of the cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP EIA kits. The amount of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP in supernatants was measured with a cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP EIA system.

Measurement of TXB₂

Washed platelets were suspended in HEPES–Tyrode's buffer at a concentration of 2×10^8 cells/mL. The platelets were incubated with DT or an equal volume of PBS as vehicle for 5 min and then activated by 0.1 U/mL of thrombin or 0.5 μ g/mL of CRP. Reactions were terminated after 1 min by adding 10 mM EDTA and 2 mM aspirin, and the samples were diluted 150-fold for TXB₂ measurement. The amount of TXB₂ was determined by using a TXB₂ EIA kit.

To determine the direct effects of DT on arachidonic acid metabolism, the cells were first sonicated to obtain cell lysates. The cell lysates were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 2 μ L of 10 μ M arachidonic acid was added to 0.2 mL of the lysate. The mixture was incubated further for 10 min, and the amount of TXB₂ was determined as described above.

Immunoprecipitation of PLC- γ 2

Washed platelets were adjusted to a concentration of 1 \times 109 cells/mL, and platelets pretreated with various concentrations of DT or with vehicle were stimulated with 0.5 µg/mL of CRP. Reactions were terminated by adding an equal volume of ice-cold lysis buffer [2% Triton X-100, 100 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.2), 2 mM EGTA, 2 mM vanadate, 1 mM PMSF, and 100 μ g/mL of leupeptin]. The lysates were sonicated and centrifuged at 16,000 g for 5 min. The soluble fraction was precleared with protein A-Sepharose beads for 30 min. The supernatant was incubated with a polyclonal anti-PLC-y2 antibody for 1 hr, and the immune complex was precipitated with protein A-Sepharose beads. After the mixture was rotated for 1 hr at 4°, the Sepharose beads were washed three times with lysis buffer and once with 10 mM HEPES buffer. Finally, 50 µL of HEPES buffer and 25 µL of Laemmli buffer were added to the beads, and proteins were eluted by boiling for 3 min. Proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE (8%) under reducing conditions and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane. Tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-y2 was detected by western blotting, using an anti-phosphotyrosine mAb, 4G10.

Measurement of IP₃

Platelets were suspended in HEPES–Tyrode's buffer at a concentration of 3×10^9 cells/mL. After platelets were activated by 2 U/mL of thrombin or 2 μ g/mL of CRP, an equal volume of 15% TCA was added to the platelet suspension to terminate reactions, and the mixtures were kept on ice for 30 min. The mixtures were centrifuged at 2000 g for 15 min at 4°, and the resultant supernatant was treated five times with 5 mL of water-saturated diethyl ether to extract TCA. Residual ether was removed further in vacuo for 1 hr. The samples were neutralized by titration with 0.2 N NaOH, and the amount of IP₃ was measured with an IP₃ assay kit.

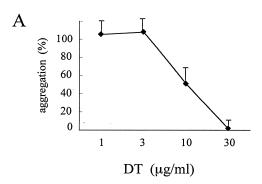
RESULTS

Effects of DT on Platelet Aggregation Induced by Thrombin or CRP

Platelets were activated by thrombin or CRP throughout this study. CRP is known to be a potent activator of GPVI, a receptor for collagen. Washed platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 0.1 U/mL of thrombin or 0.5 µg/mL of CRP was added to a platelet suspension. The magnitude of platelet aggregation was assessed by changes in the optical density of platelet suspensions. DT potently inhibited platelet aggregation induced by thrombin or CRP in a concentration-dependent manner. DT at a concentration of 10 µg/mL completely blocked CRP-induced platelet aggregation (Fig. 1B) and at 30 µg/mL fully suppressed thrombin-induced platelet aggregation (Fig. 1A). The $1C_{50}$ values were 10 μ g/mL for thrombin and 4.3 µg/mL for CRP. Similarly, DT also blocked ADP- or 9,11-dideoxy-9a,11a-methanoepoxy prostaglandin F₂₀ (U46619)-induced platelet aggregation in a concentration-dependent manner (results not shown).

Effects of DT on Cyclic AMP and Cyclic GMP

Cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP are important negative regulators of platelet functions, and many agents exert their inhibitory effects by increasing the intracellular concentration of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP. They appear to suppress the early process of platelet activation [12, 13]. To determine whether DT inhibits platelet activation by increasing the intracellular level of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP, we examined the generation of intracellular cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP in resting platelets treated with DT. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then the production of intracellular cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP was measured by using cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP EIA systems. As the positive controls, we simultaneously evaluated the effect of $0.1~\mu M~PGE_1$ on cyclic AMP generation or that of 100 µM SNP on cyclic GMP generation in resting platelets. There was no significant increase in the level of intracellular cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP in platelets treated with DT up to the concentration



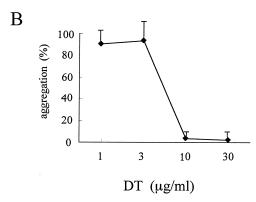
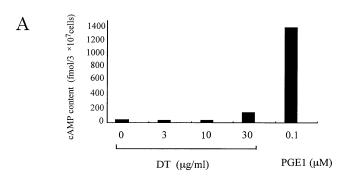


FIG. 1. Effects of DT on platelet aggregation induced by thrombin or CRP. Washed platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 0.1 U/mL of thrombin or 0.5 μ g/mL of CRP was added to the platelet suspensions to activate platelets. (A) Thrombin-induced platelet aggregation. (B) CRP-induced platelet aggregation. The changes in optical density induced by 0.1 U/mL of thrombin were in the range of 62–72%, and with 0.5 μ g/mL of CRP, 71–77%. The data are the means \pm SD of five experiments.

of 10 µg/mL. Although there was a slight increase in the level of cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP induced by 30 µg/mL of DT, it was far below the levels of intracellular cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP induced by PGE₁ or SNP (Fig. 2, A and B). In a preliminary experiment, we evaluated the effects of various concentrations of PGE₁ and SNP on the production of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP in platelets, respectively. The level of cyclic GMP production induced by 30 µg/mL of DT was equal to that induced by 0.1 to 0.3 µM SNP, and the level of cyclic AMP production induced by 30 μ g/mL of DT was equal to that induced by 2 nM PGE₁ At these concentrations, SNP and PGE₁ had no inhibitory effects on platelet aggregation induced by thrombin. These findings suggest that DT inhibits platelet aggregation independently of the production of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP.

Effects of DT on TXA₂ Production Induced by Thrombin

 TXA_2 is a metabolic product of arachidonic acid. It is a potent endogenous agonist for platelet activation, which can induce full platelet aggregation. Inhibition of its production at any step may lead to the impairment of platelet



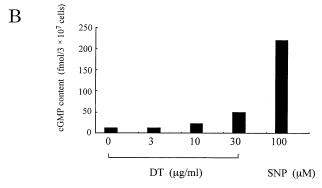


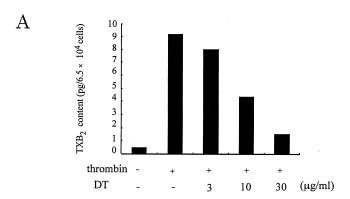
FIG. 2. Effects of DT on the production of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP in resting platelets. Platelets were treated with DT or vehicle for 5 min, and then reactions were terminated by adding lysis reagent. The amount of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP was measured by using a cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP EIA assay kit. (A) Cyclic AMP. (B) Cyclic GMP. The data represent the means of two experiments.

activation. We thus evaluated the effects of DT on TXA2 production. We measured the formation of TXB₂, the final and stable metabolite of TXA2, induced by thrombin or CRP, by using a TXB₂ EIA system. Platelets pretreated with DT or with vehicle were stimulated by 0.1 U/mL of thrombin or 0.5 µg/mL of CRP. Thrombin or CRP induced the TXB₂ production of 9.2 pg/6.5 \times 10⁴ cells, and 30 $pg/6.5 \times 10^4$ cells in platelets, respectively. DT inhibited the formation of TXB2 induced by thrombin or CRP in a concentration-dependent manner. At the concentration of 30 µg/mL, DT almost completely inhibited TXB₂ formation induced by thrombin or CRP. The IC50 values were approximately 10 µg/mL for both thrombin and CRP (Fig. 3, A and B). To determine whether DT has a direct inhibitory effect on TXA2 production (cyclooxygenase or TXA₂ synthase), platelets at a concentration of 2×10^8 cells/mL were first lysed by sonication and incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min. Then, 100 pmol arachidonic acid was added to 0.2 mL of the cell lysate. After 10 min of incubation, the reaction was terminated by adding 10 mM EGTA and 2 mM aspirin (final concentrations); then the samples were diluted 150-fold with HEPES-Tyrode's buffer. TXB₂ production was measured with a TXB2 EIA assay kit. DT up to the concentration of 10 μg/mL had no significant effect on TXB₂ production in this system (Fig. 4). TXB₂ production appeared to be slightly enhanced at 30 µg/mL. However, the difference

was not statistically significant (P = 0.05). These findings taken together suggest that DT exerts its inhibitory effect on TXA₂ production by suppressing the signal transduction pathway leading to TXA₂ formation, but not by directly inhibiting cyclooxygenase or TXA₂ synthetase.

Effects of DT on Ca²⁺ Mobilization Induced by Thrombin or CRP

 ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization is a critical step in various aspects of platelet activation. Thus, we investigated the effects of DT on ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization induced by thrombin or CRP. To exclude the secondary effect of ${\rm TXA_2}$ on ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization, fura 2-loaded platelets were pretreated with 1 mM aspirin for 30 min. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then thrombin or CRP was added to the suspension to induce ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization. ${\rm [Ca^{2^+}]_i}$ measurement was performed in the presence of 200 ${\rm \mu M}$ EGTA or 1 mM ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$, and the peak ${\rm [Ca^{2^+}]_i}$ increase was used for evaluating the effects of DT. In both cases, DT suppressed ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization induced by thrombin or CRP, suggesting that ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization from intracellular ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ stores and ${\rm Ca^{2^+}}$ influx from the extracellular fluid



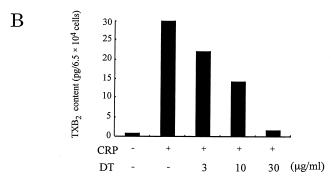


FIG. 3. Effects of DT on the generation of TXB₂ induced by thrombin or CRP. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT or with vehicle for 5 min, and then thrombin or CRP was added to the platelet suspension. Reactions were terminated by adding 10 mM EDTA and 2 mM aspirin. The amount of TXB₂ was measured by using a TXB₂ EIA kit. (A) Thrombin-induced formation of TXB₂. (B) CRP-induced formation of TXB₂. The data represent the means of two experiments.

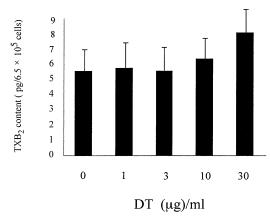


FIG. 4. Effects of DT on TXB_2 production induced by arachidonic acid in a cell-free system. Washed platelets were sonicated three times for 5 sec, and DT was added to the lysates and incubated for 5 min. Then 100 pmol arachidonic acid was added to 0.2 mL of cell suspensions. After the mixture was incubated for 10 min, reactions were terminated by adding 10 mM EGTA and 2 mM aspirin. The samples were diluted 150-fold, and the amount of TXB_2 was measured by using an EIA system. The data represent the means \pm SD of three experiments.

were suppressed. In the absence of extracellular Ca^{2+} , DT at 10 μ g/mL inhibited Ca^{2+} mobilization almost completely (Fig. 5, A and B). The IC_{50} values of DT were 4.5 μ g/mL for thrombin and 3.7 μ g/mL for CRP, which were similar to those required for blocking platelet aggregation (Fig. 6, A and B). To characterize the effects of DT on Ca^{2+} mobilization, we employed thapsigargin, an inhibitor of Ca^{2+} -ATPase of Ca^{2+} stores, which induces Ca^{2+} influx by emptying internal Ca^{2+} stores. DT did not inhibit thapsigargin-induced Ca^{2+} influx (Fig. 5C), implying that DT had no direct effect on Ca^{2+} store-regulated Ca^{2+} entry.

Effects of DT on Tyrosine Phosphorylation of PLC- $\gamma 2$ Induced by CRP

Although DT potently inhibited Ca²⁺ mobilization, the findings hitherto suggest that it does not exert its inhibitory effect by elevating the intracellular level of cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP, or by directly suppressing TXA2 production. We next sought to evaluate the signal transduction pathway leading to Ca²⁺ mobilization. Ca²⁺ mobilization from internal Ca²⁺ stores is mediated by IP₃ which is produced by PLC. PLC-β is activated in thrombin stimulation, and PLC-y2 is activated in CRP-mediated platelet activation. Whereas the activation of PLC-B can be assessed only by the level of IP₃ production, PLC-y2 activation also can be evaluated by the level of its tyrosine phosphorylation. Therefore, we sought to determine whether DT modified PLC-y2 tyrosine phosphorylation induced by CRP. First, we evaluated the time course of tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-y2 induced by CRP. Thirty seconds after stimulation with CRP, PLC-y2 appeared to be tyrosine-phosphorylated, with the maximum level of tyrosine phosphorylation occurring 1 min after platelet activation (Fig. 7A). Thus, the effect of DT on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC- γ 2 was determined 1 min after CRP stimulation. Even at the highest concentration of 30 μ g/mL, which almost completely inhibits Ca²⁺ mobilization or platelet aggregation, DT had no inhibitory effect on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC- γ 2 induced by CRP (Fig. 7B).

Effects of DT on IP_3 Formation Induced by Thrombin or CRP

The results with PLC- γ 2 suggest that DT does not affect PLC- γ 2 activation induced by CRP, whereas it inhibits Ca²⁺ mobilization induced by CRP. We therefore examined the effects of DT on the production of IP₃ induced by CRP and by thrombin. First, we determined the time course of IP₃ production induced by CRP. Fifteen seconds after stimulation with 2 μ g/mL of CRP, IP₃ formation could be detected, with the maximum level of IP₃ generated at 30 sec. After 5 min of stimulation, IP₃ formation decreased by

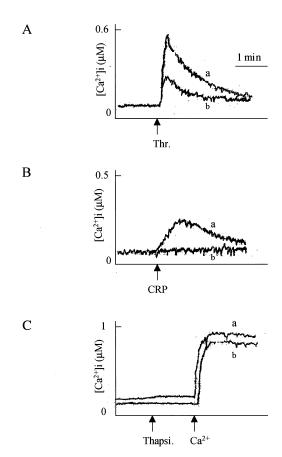
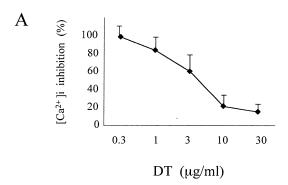


FIG. 5. Differential effects of DT on thrombin-, CRP-, or thapsigargin-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization. Platelets were suspended in a buffer containing 200 μ M EGTA and incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min; then agonists were added to the samples at the time indicated by an arrow. With thapsigargin-induced Ca²⁺ influx, 5 mM Ca²⁺ was added to the platelet suspension 2 min after the addition of 1 μ M thapsigargin for evaluating Ca²⁺ influx. (A) Thrombin-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization. (B) CRP-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization. (C) Thapsigargin-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization. Key: (a) without DT; (b) with 10 μ g/mL of DT.



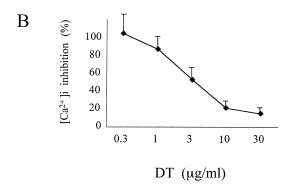


FIG. 6. Effects of DT on Ca^{2+} mobilization induced by thrombin or CRP. Fura 2-loaded platelets treated with aspirin were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min in the presence of 200 μ M EGTA, and then 0.1 U/mL of thrombin or 0.5 μ g/mL of CRP was added to the suspension. (A) Thrombin-induced Ca^{2+} mobilization. (B) CRP-induced Ca^{2+} mobilization. The peak intracellular calcium concentrations induced by 0.1 U/mL of thrombin were in the range of 350–710 nM, and with 0.5 μ g/mL of CRP, 280–460 nM. The data are the means \pm SD of five experiments.

approximately 70% of the peak value (Fig. 8A). Next, we evaluated the effect of DT on IP₃ production induced by CRP. Platelets were pretreated with various concentrations of DT, and then stimulated with 2 µg/mL of CRP for 30 sec. DT up to the concentration of 30 µg/mL had no inhibitory effects on IP₃ formation (Fig. 8B). Similar observations were obtained with thrombin-induced production of IP₃ (Fig. 9). These findings suggest that DT at concentrations that potently block Ca²⁺ mobilization does not affect IP3 formation. Then, we asked whether DT modifies the binding between IP3 and the IP3 receptor. Various concentrations of DT were added to the membrane fractions of rat cerebellum, which contains abundant IP3 receptors (preparations contained in an Amersham IP3 assay kit), and incubated for 15 min; then, the IP₃ binding to the IP₃ receptor was determined, using the IP₃ assay kit. DT at 30 µg/mL inhibited IP₃ binding to its receptor by approximately 57%, whereas Ca²⁺ mobilization was almost completely suppressed at the same concentration of DT. Even at the concentration of 100 µg/mL, DT failed to completely block the association between IP3 and its receptor (Fig. 10).

DISCUSSION

A number of studies have reported on the inhibitory effects of garlic on platelet aggregation, release response, and metabolism of arachidonic acid *in vitro* [14–17]. Although different preparations of garlic have been tested for their anti-platelet effects, there have been few studies using purified components of garlic. In this study, we sought to probe the mechanism by which DT, a component of garlic, inhibits platelet activation. First, we examined the effects of DT on platelet aggregation induced by various agonists. DT potently inhibited platelet aggregation induced by thrombin, CRP, U46619 (a TXA₂ mimetic), ADP, or SFLL (a thrombin receptor agonist peptide). These findings suggest that DT acts at a certain step of the signal transduction pathway common to these agonists.

Cyclic AMP and cyclic GMP are potent endogenous inhibitors of platelet function. A number of reports have

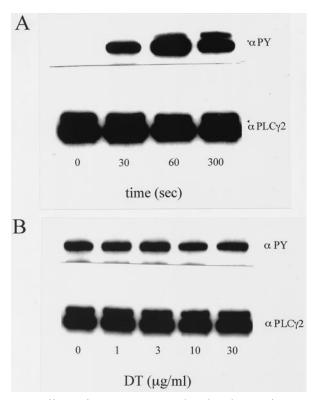


FIG. 7. Effects of DT on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-γ2 induced by CRP. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 0.5 µg/mL of CRP was added to the platelet suspensions. Reactions were terminated by adding lysis buffer. After immunoprecipitation with anti-PLC-y2 pAb, the samples were subjected to western blotting with antiphosphotyrosine mAb or anti-PLC-γ2 pAb. (A) Time course of tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-72 induced by CRP. The upper bands represent western blotting with anti-phosphotyrosine mAb; the lower bands represent western blotting with anti-PLC-γ2 pAb to confirm the recovery of PLC-γ2. (B) Effects of DT on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-γ2 induced by CRP. The upper bands represent western blotting with anti-phosphotyrosine mAb; the lower bands represent western blotting with anti-PLC-y2 pAb to confirm the recovery of PLC- γ 2. The data are representative of three experiments.

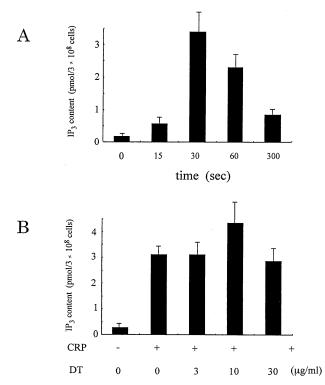


FIG. 8. Effects of DT on IP₃ generation induced by CRP. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 2 μ g/mL of CRP was added to the platelet suspensions. Reactions were terminated by adding an equal volume of ice-cold 15% TCA. IP₃ was measured by using an Amersham IP₃ assay kit. (A) Time course of IP₃ production induced by CRP. (B) Effects of various concentrations of DT on IP₃ production induced by CRP. The data are the means \pm SD of three experiments.

shown that agents that increase the intracellular level of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP suppress platelet aggregation as well as $\mathrm{Ca^{2^+}}$ mobilization [18, 19]. Therefore, we asked whether DT inhibits platelet aggregation or $\mathrm{Ca^{2^+}}$ mobili-

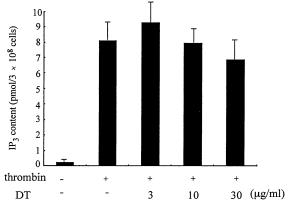


FIG. 9. Effects of DT on IP_3 generation induced by thrombin. Platelets were incubated with various concentrations of DT for 5 min, and then 2 U/mL of thrombin was added to the platelet suspensions. Reactions were terminated 5 sec after stimulation by adding 15% TCA. IP_3 was measured by using an Amersham IP_3 assay kit. The data are the means \pm SD of three experiments.

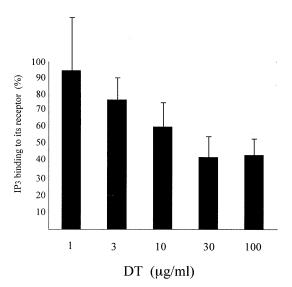


FIG. 10. Effects of DT on IP $_3$ binding to its receptor. Various concentrations of DT were incubated first with membrane fractions of rat cerebellum, and then the IP $_3$ binding to the IP $_3$ receptors was determined. The IP $_3$ binding to its receptor was evaluated by the IP $_3$ tracer and the tubes containing the membrane preparations provided by the supplier of the kit. The tracer bound to the membranes in the test tubes was in the range of 2200–2550 cpm/tube. The data are the means \pm SD of four experiments.

zation by increasing the intracellular level of cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP. In this study, platelets pretreated with various concentrations of DT failed to elevate intracellular cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP to a level that could suppress platelet function. Based on these results, we suggest that DT inhibits platelet aggregation and Ca²⁺ mobilization, independently of the cyclic AMP or cyclic GMP pathway.

TXA2 is an endogenous product of arachidonic acid that potently activates platelets. Many agents are known to inhibit platelet aggregation by blocking the synthesis of TXA2. Since several studies have reported that garlic extracts can block the generation of TXA2 by inhibiting cyclooxygenase or TXA2 synthetase [1, 10, 16], we examined whether DT modifies arachidonic acid metabolism in human platelets. DT effectively inhibited the generation of TXB₂, a stable metabolite of TXA₂, concentration-dependently in platelets activated by thrombin or CRP. However, since DT had no effect on TXB2 generation in a cell-free system, DT appears to have no direct effect on cyclooxygenase or TXA2 synthetase. The inhibitory effect of DT on TXA2 production in activated platelets suggests that DT acts at a certain step of the signal transduction pathway, leading to the release of arachidonic acid.

We then evaluated the effects of DT on Ca^{2+} mobilization induced by thrombin or CRP. Since we found that DT suppresses TXA_2 production, platelets were first incubated with aspirin to exclude the secondary effects of TXA_2 . DT suppressed Ca^{2+} influx as well as Ca^{2+} mobilization from internal Ca^{2+} stores induced by thrombin or CRP. The Ca^{2+} mobilization induced by these agonists requires the production of IP_3 , which is an important second messenger

for Ca²⁺ mobilization. We first checked whether DT might have a direct inhibitory effect on Ca²⁺ influx. Thapsigargin, a Ca²⁺-ATPase inhibitor, induces Ca²⁺ influx by depleting internal Ca²⁺ stores [20–22]. Ca²⁺ mobilization induced by thapsigargin is regulated by store-regulated Ca²⁺ entry, which is distinct from IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ mobilization. Whereas DT inhibited IP₃-mediated Ca²⁺ mobilization, it had no effect on thapsigargin-induced Ca²⁺ entry. These findings suggest that the inhibitory effects of DT on Ca²⁺ mobilization are specific for the IP₃-mediated signal pathway. Thrombin-induced Ca²⁺ release from intracellular Ca^{2+} stores involves PLC β with resultant formation of IP₃ [23–25]. Since we have no suitable method to assay the activity of PLCB except for the measurement of IP₃, we first assessed the production of IP₃ induced by thrombin. We found that DT had no effect on the formation of IP₃, whereas DT potently inhibited Ca²⁺ mobilization in platelets activated by thrombin. To further clarify the site of DT action, we investigated the signal transduction pathways involved in CRP-induced platelet activation. Recent findings suggest that, upon the binding of CRP with the collagen receptor, Syk, a tyrosine kinase, is activated and undergoes tyrosine phosphorylation. Syk lies upstream of PLC-γ2, which catalyzes the production of IP₃ [26–28]. We first checked for Syk tyrosine phosphorylation and found that DT had no effect on tyrosine phosphorylation of Syk (results not shown). We next examined tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-y2 and IP3 production, the indices of PLC-γ2 activation, induced by CRP. DT, even at a high concentration of 30 µg/mL, had no significant effects on tyrosine phosphorylation of PLC-y2 or IP₃ production induced by CRP. Finally, we evaluated the binding of IP3 to the IP3 receptor in the presence or absence of DT by using rat cerebellum membranes, which are rich in IP3 receptors. DT showed a partial inhibition of the binding of IP3 to its receptor, even at a concentration of 30 µg/mL, which almost completely suppressed Ca²⁺ mobilization. Thus, the inhibitory effect of DT on Ca²⁺ mobilization may be partially attributed to the step of IP3 binding to its receptor. However, this incomplete effect points to the presence of an additional mechanism by which DT inhibits Ca²⁺ mobilization in human platelets. We suggest that DT also inhibits Ca²⁺ release at a site distal to IP3 binding to its receptor. Whereas the sulfur-containing structure of DT may react with the IP₃ receptor, the precise biochemical property that renders DT reactive with the IP₃ receptor remains elusive. Our findings taken together suggest that DT is a unique, membranepermeable inhibitor of Ca²⁺ mobilization, which acts on the IP3 receptor. It is of interest that an antibody against the IP₃ receptor also inhibits IP₃-induced Ca²⁺ release, but does not interfere with the binding of IP3 to its receptor [29]. Since this is an antibody, it should be administered to cells whose membranes have been permeabilized by detergents or electroporation. The inhibitory mechanism of DT appears to be similar to those of xestospongin [30, 31] and 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate [32, 33], which are mem-

brane-permeable blockers of IP_3 -induced Ca^{2+} release. They also do not block the binding of IP_3 to the IP_3 receptor. However, it should be noted that xestospongin at high concentrations also inhibits thapsigargin-induced Ca^{2+} release [30]. DT, 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate, and xestospongin constitute a family of membrane-permeable agents that should be useful for investigating IP_3 -induced Ca^{2+} release.

A previous report has suggested that ajoene, a component of garlic, might modify platelet function by inhibiting the activity of tyrosine phosphatases [11]. We found that DT at 30 μ g/mL slightly elevated the level of tyrosine phosphorylation of Syk and PLC- γ 2 in the resting state (data not shown). However, as described in Results, DT even at the highest concentration tested had no effects on PLC- γ 2 tyrosine phosphorylation in the activated platelets. Hence, we assume that the effect of DT is unrelated to the activity of tyrosine phosphatases.

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