Protective effects of exogenous GM-1 ganglioside on acoustic injury of the mouse cochlea

Shuho Tanaka, M.D., Keiji Tabuchi, M.D., Tomofumi Hoshino, M.D., Hidekazu Murashita, M.D., Shigeki Tsuji, M.D. and Akira Hara, M.D.

Department of Otolaryngology, Graduate School of Comprehensive Human Sciences, University of Tsukuba, Tsukuba, Japan

The number of text pages of the whole manuscript: 36

The number of figures and tables: 5

Address correspondence to: Keiji Tabuchi

Department of Otolaryngology Graduate School of Comprehensive Human Sciences University of Tsukuba 1-1-1 Tennodai, Tsukuba 305-8575, Japan TEL: +81-29-853-3147 FAX: +81-29-853-3147

E-mail: ktabuchi@md.tsukuba.ac.jp

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by Grants-in-aid for Scientific Research (C)20591969 and

(C)20591970 from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan.

Keywords: GM-1 ganglioside; Acoustic injury; 4-hydroxynonenal; Lipid peroxidation

Abstract

GM-1 ganglioside (GM-1), a glycosphingolipid, is embedded in the lipid layer of

neuronal membranes and is one of the neuroprotective agents. To the best of our knowledge, the

role of GM-1 has never been examined in hair cell injury. The purpose of this study was therefore

to evaluate the effects of GM-1 on acoustic injury of the cochlea. Mice were exposed to 4-kHz

pure tone of 128 dB SPL (sound pressure level) for 4 hours. GM-1 was intraperitoneally

administered immediately before the onset of acoustic overexposure. The threshold shift of the

auditory brainstem response (ABR) and hair cell loss were then evaluated 2 weeks after acoustic

overexposure. Immunostaining for 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE), indicative of lipid peroxidation,

was also examined in animals subjected to acoustic overexposure. GM-1 treatment significantly

decreased the ABR threshold shifts and hair cell loss after acoustic overexposure. And

immunostaining for 4-HNE was reduced by GM-1 treatment. These findings suggest that GM-1

is involved in the protection of the cochlea against acoustic injury through inhibiting lipid

peroxidation.

GM-1 ganglioside (GM-1), a glycosphingolipid with an attached monosialic acid

moiety, is found in high concentrations embedded in the external lipid layer of neuronal

membranes [29, 31]. GM-1 is known to exist in clusters and form microdomains, known as lipid

rafts [13, 26]. GM-1 is considered to modulate various protein kinase activities [37], Ca²⁺ flux

[11] and neurite outgrowth [21]. In addition, GM-1 and other brain gangliosides possess

antioxidant activity, significantly reducing the accumulation of lipid peroxide products and free

radical production. Because of its neuroprotective and neurorestorative properties, GM-1

ganglioside has been clinically administered such as those with spinal cord injury and

Alzheimer's disease [1, 2, 8, 31].

Exposure to high sound pressure levels causes hearing loss by damaging sensory hair

cells of the cochlea e.g. [33]. Many reports have demonstrated that the progression of acoustic

injury is advanced by oxidative stress [10, 25, 35, 42]. Endogenous antioxidants such as

glutathione [41], superoxide dismutase [16], and alpha-tocopherol [15] protect the inner ear by

reducing the generation of free radicals.

The presence of GM-1 in the cochlea has been demonstrated by Santi et al [23]. We

hypothesized that GM-1 protects the cochlea against acoustic injury by reducing free radicals. In

this study, we examined the effects of GM-1 ganglioside on acoustic injury of the cochlea.

Seventy-six female ddY mice, 8 weeks of age, were purchased from Japan SLC

(Hamamatsu, Japan). The ddY mouse is frequently used as a subject for pharmacological and

toxicological experiments in Japan. The care and use of animals was approved by the Animal

Experiment Committee of the University of Tsukuba.

Mice were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (50

mg/kg body weight). Positive, negative, and ground electrodes were inserted subcutaneously at

the vertex, mastoid, and back, respectively. Bursts of pure tone (rise and fall times; 1 ms,

duration; 10 ms, repetition rate; 20/s in an open field system) were used to evoke the ABR.

Evoked responses were filtered with a band pass of 200 to 3,000 Hz and averaged over 1,000

sweeps using a signal processor (Synax 1200, NEC, Tokyo, Japan). The sound intensity varied in

5-dB steps. The ABR was measured at three frequencies (4, 8, and 16 kHz) before, immediately

after and two weeks after acoustic overexposure. ABR threshold shifts from pre-exposure levels

were then examined two weeks after acoustic overexposure.

The mice were exposed to a 4-kHz pure tone of 128 dB SPL for 4 hours through an

open field system inside a sound-exposure chamber (Type 4212, Brüel & Kjaer, Copenhagen,

Denmark), in which two small cages (4x3x6 cm) were placed [17, 36]. Two mice were subjected

at the same time.

The mice were sacrificed under deep anesthesia two weeks after acoustic overexposure.

Cardiac perfusion was performed with 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline.

Cochleae were quickly removed, immersed in the same fixative at 4°C for 8 hours, and then

decalcified with ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid for one week. After decalcification, cochleae

were dissected as surface preparations, and the nuclei of hair cells were stained with propidium

iodide (PI, 2 µg/ml in PBS, Molecular Probes Inc., OR, U.S.A.) in darkness.

The number of missing hair cells (absence of PI staining) was counted under a laser

confocal microscope (TCS SP2, Leica Microsystems, Wetzlar, Germany) around the 66% region

from the apex of the cochlea. Our previous reports clarified that acoustic overexposure to 128 dB

SPL for 4 hours of mice induced hearing loss and the maximum hair cell loss at the 66% region

from the apex of the cochlea [17, 36].

Immunocytochemical analyses were carried out on cryostat sections. The methods for

the fixation and decalcification of cochleae were the same as those described in the above section.

Cryostat sections were then made parallel to the modiolus to identify the organ of Corti on

microscope slides. The cryostat sections of 6 µm were incubated in 0.5% Triton X-100 and

blocked in calf serum for 10 min at room temperature. The sections were then washed with PBS,

followed by incubation with the primary antibody at a concentration of 1:100 (anti-4HNE)

(Abcam, MA, U.S.A.) at 4°C for 72 hours. The sections were then incubated with the secondary

antibody at a concentration of 1:200 (anti-goat IgG conjugated with FITC) (Abcam, MA, U.S.A.)

and with PI (2 µg/ml in PBS) at room temperature for 30 min in darkness. Immunolabeling was

visualized using a laser microscope (BX51-DP71-SET, OLYMPUS, Tokyo, Japan). The density

level of immunofluorolabeling of outer hair cells (5 samples of each groups) was assessed with

the freely available image analysis software program ImageJ (National Institutes of Health,

Bethesda, MD, U.S.A.).

GM-1 was purchased from Wako (Japan), and dissolved in physiological saline solution.

GM-1 and saline were administered immediately before the onset of acoustic overexposure. Mice

were randomly assigned to one of the following 4 treatment groups:

1) 1 mg/kg GM-1-treated group (n=6)

2) 10 mg/kg GM-1-treated group (n=6)

3) 30 mg/kg GM-1-treated group (n=6)

4) Noise-alone group (n=6)

Immunostaining for 4-HNE before acoustic overexposure without any drugs (n=4) was

examined. And immunostaining for 4-HNE of the Noise-alone group (n=4) and the GM-1 (30

mg/kg) treatment group (n=4) were compared at each following time points: 0 hours, 4 hours, 12

hours, 1 day, 3 days and 7 days after acoustic overexposure.

All data are expressed as the mean \pm S.D. The comparison of ABR threshold shifts or

hair cell loss between each group was performed by one-way and two-way analysis of variance

(ANOVA), and then the Scheffé test and Fisher's PLSD test were used. Comparison of the

densitometry on immunofluorolabeling with 4-HNE was performed using Student's t-test. A

p-value of less than 0.05 was considered significant.

Figures 1 demonstrates ABR threshold shifts 2 weeks after acoustic overexposure,

respectively. The GM-1 (1 mg/kg) and GM-1 (10 mg/kg) groups did not significantly reduce

ABR threshold shifts (two-way ANOVA, Scheffé test and Fisher's PLSD test, p>0.05). On the

other hand, the GM-1 (30 mg/kg) group showed a significantly decreased ABR threshold shift

(two-way ANOVA, Scheffé test and Fisher's PLSD test, p<0.01).

Figure 2 demonstrates representative photographs of hair cell loss at the 66% region

from the apex of the cochlea in the noise-alone and GM-1 (30 mg/kg) groups. The quantitative

analysis of hair cell loss is shown in Figure 3. As expected from the ABR studies, 30 mg/kg

GM-1 significantly ameliorated outer hair cell loss, especially in the first row, as compared with

the noise-alone group (two-way ANOVA; p<0.05, one-way ANOVA; p<0.05 in the first row,

Fig. 3).

4-HNE was broadly stained in the sensory epithelium (organ of Corti) of both groups at all time points [Fig. 4A]. Slight staining was observed even before acoustic overexposure [Fig.

4A]. In the noise-alone group, staining with 4-HNE gradually increased until 12 hours after

acoustic overexposure, and staining was clearly observed at 12 hours to 3 days after. The staining

then became weak at 7 days after [Fig. 4A]. The time course of 4-HNE staining in the GM-1 (30

mg/kg) group was essentially similar to that of the noise-alone group. The highest density was

seen at 12 hours to 3 days after [Fig. 4B]. On the other hand, when comparing the staining at

each time point, there was tendency for staining in the GM-1 (30 mg/kg) group to be weaker than

that of the noise-alone group [Fig. 5]. Figure 5 shows the relative densities of 4-HNE staining in

the outer hair cells subtracted from the pre-exposure level. Staining differences between both

groups reached significance from 4 hours to 3 days (Student's t-test: *p<0.05) [Fig. 5]. However,

the difference in density was not clear at 7 days [Fig. 4A].

GM-1 administered before acoustic overexposure significantly decreased ABR

threshold shifts and hair cell loss at 2 weeks after acoustic overexposure. The present findings

clearly demonstrated that GM-1 ganglioside ameliorated the permanent threshold shifts induced

by acoustic overexposure. To our knowledge, this is the first report that GM-1 ganglioside has

protective effects on hair cells against cochlear injury. Previous studies have shown the

protective effect of GM-1 on the spiral ganglion and cochlear nucleus [20, 38].

It has been demonstrated that acoustic injury damages the cochlea by producing free

radicals. Many reports have demonstrated that antioxidants and free radical scavengers exhibit

protective effects against acoustic injury, e.g., glutathione [41], superoxide dismutase [16],

methylprednisolone [32, 34], vitamin A, C, or E [15], and tempol [17]. Acoustic overexposure

initially damages the outer hair cells, and these agents effectively prevented the injury of outer

hair cells. Our study is consistent with these previous studies.

In this study, we evaluated the staining of 4-HNE in the organ of Corti. 4-HNE is a

toxic aldehyde commonly used as an indicator of lipid peroxidation. Oxidative stress within a

cell generates reactive oxygen species that interact with phospholipids in the cell membrane to

cause their peroxidation [9]. 4-HNE is produced in the cochlea damaged by sound-induced

trauma, and has been shown to cause the apoptosis of auditory neurons in vitro [24, 40].

Triamcinolone acetonide and glutathione were two agents shown to protect hair cells from

hydroxynonenal-induced cell death [9, 22]. GM-1 treatment decreased 4-HNE staining of outer

hair cells in this study. This finding indicated that GM-1 protected outer hair cells through

inhibiting the toxic effects of free radicals and hydroxynonenals.

GM-1 was reported to have the neuroprotective effect on the cytotoxic action of

hydrogen peroxide in PC12 cells which were sensitive to oxidative stress [29, 43]. GM-1

prevented the accumulation of malondialdehyde (MDA), a marker of oxidative stress, and the

inactivation of Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase induced by hydrogen peroxide in PC12 cells. GM-1 prevented

the oxidative inactivation of Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase induced by glutaric acid and pentylenetetrazole [7].

GM-1 was reported to decrease the glutamate-induced activation of free radical reactions in

nerve cells, and also reduced neuronal death in a rat cerebellar granule cell culture [3, 4]. These

studies also revealed the antioxidant properties of ganglioside, and thus supported our present

findings.

GM-1 is abundantly embedded in the lipid layer of neuronal membranes. Recent studies

suggest that GM-1 can function as a primary lipid messenger on the cell membrane responding to

marked stress. GM-1 is inserted into the plasma membrane as the hydrophobic ceramide portion

of the molecule becomes embedded in the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane and its

carbohydrate portion extends into the extracellular space [28]. This ceramide portion forms a

domain receiving many external signals. Many biochemical studies reported that domains

transmitted signals from the extracellular space to cytosol. These lipid rafts are associated with a

variety of signaling molecules, such as GPI-anchored proteins [19], non-receptor and receptor

tyrosine kinases [39], Src-family tyrosine kinases [12], and trimeric GTP-binding proteins [5] on

the inside of the cell membrane. They may control mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK)

activities, S6 kinase activities [37], the phosphorylation of Trk [18], and Ca²⁺ flux [11]. Thus,

GM-1 may be a kind of potentiator or modulator of trophic factors in both the peripheral and

central nervous systems [6, 14, 27, 28, 30]. Further studies are necessary to clarify the

involvement of the protective mechanisms of GM-1 other than its antioxidative property.

In conclusion, we showed herein that GM-1 is able to protect the cochlea against

acoustic injury. The immunocytochemistry of hair cells revealed that the antioxidant property of

GM-1 was important for the protection.

Acknowledgement

This work was supported by Grants-in-aid for Scientific Research (C)20591969 and

(C)20591970 from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology of Japan.

References

[1] M. Alter, GM1 ganglioside for acute ischemic stroke, Trial design issues. Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci.

845 (1998) 391-401.

[2] C. Argentino, M.L. Sacchetti, D. Toni, G. Savoini, E. D'Arcangelo, F. Erminio, F. Federico, F.F.

Milone, V. Gallai, D. Gambi, GM1 ganglioside therapy in acute ischemic stroke. Italian acute

stroke study- hemodilution+drug, Stroke 20 (1989) 1143-1149.

[3] N.F. Avrova, I.V. Victorov, V.A. Tyurin, I.O. Zakharova, T.V. Sokolova, N.A. Andreeva, E.V.

Stelmaschuk, Y.Y. Tyurina, V.S. Gonchar, Inhibition of glutamate-induced intensification of free

radical reactions by gangliosides: possible role in their protective effect in rat cerebellar granule

cells and brain synaptosomes, Neurochem. Res. 23 (1998) 945-952.

[4] N.F. Avrova, K.I. Shestak, I.O. Zakharova, T.V. Sokolova, Y.Y. Tyurina, V.A. Tyurin, The use of

antioxidants to prevent glutamate-induced derangement of calcium ion metabolism in rat cerebral

cortex synaptosomes, Neurosci, Behav. Physiol. 30 (2000) 535-541.

[5] P.L. Cameron, J.W. Ruffin, R. Bollag, H. Rasmussen, R.S. Cameron, Identification of caveolin

and caveolin-related proteins in the brain, J. Neurosci. 17 (1997) 9520-9535.

[6] P. Doherty, J.G. Dickson, T.P. Flanigan, F.S. Walsh, Ganglioside GM1 does not initiate, but

enhances neurite regeneration of nerve growth factor-dependent sensory neurons, J. Neurochem.

44 (1985) 1259-1265.

- [7] M.R. Fighera, L.F. Royes, A.F. Furian, M.S. Oliveira, N.G. Fiorenza, R. Frussa-Filho, J.C. Petry,
 - R.C. Coelho, C.F. Mello, GM1 ganglioside prevents seizures, Na⁺,K⁺-ATPase activity inhibition

and oxidative stress induced by glutaric acid and pentylenetetrazole, Neurobiol, Dis. 22 (2006)

611-623.

[8] F.H. Geisler, F.C. Dorsey, W.P. Coleman, Past and current clinical studies with GM-1 ganglioside

in acute spinal cord injury, Ann. Emerg. Med. 22 (1993) 1041-1047.

[9] J. Guzman, J. Ruiz, A.A. Eshraghi, M. Polak, C. Garnham, T.J. Balkany, T.R. Van De Water,

Triamcinolone acetonide protects auditory hair cells from 4-hydroxy-2,3-nonenal (4-HNE)

ototoxicity in vitro, Acta Oto-Laringol. 126 (2006) 685-690.

[10] A. Hara, F. Serizawa, K. Tabuchi, M. Senarita, J. Kusakari, Hydroxyl radical formation in the

perilymph of asphyxic guinea pig, Hearing Res. 143 (2000) 110-114.

[11] B.S. Hilbush, J.M. Levine, Modulation of a Ca²⁺ signaling pathway by GM1 ganglioside in

PC12 cells, J. Biol. Chem. 267 (1992) 24789-24795.

[12] K. Kasahara, Y. Watanabe, T. Yamamoto, Y. Sanai, Association of Src family tyrosine kinase Lyn

with ganglioside GD3 in rat brain. Possible regulation of Lyn by glycosphingolipid in

caveolae-like domains, J. Biol. Chem. 277 (1997) 29947.

[13] R.W. Ledeen, Ganglioside structures and distribution: Are they localized at the nerve ending? J.

Supramol. Struct. 8 (1978) 1-17.

[14] A. Leon, D. Benvegnu, R. Dal Toso, D. Presti, L. Facci, O. Giorgi, G. Toffano, Dorsal root

ganglia and nerve growth factor: a model for understanding the mechanism of GM1 effects on

neuronal repair, J. Neurosci. Res. 12 (1984) 277-287.

[15] C.G. Le Prell, L.F. Hughes, J.M. Miller, Free radical scavengers vitamins A, C, and E plus

magnesium reduce noise trauma, Free Radic. Biol. Med. 42 (2007) 1454-1463.

[16] S.L. McFadden, K.K. Ohlemiller, D. Ding, M. Shero, R.J. Salvi, The influence of superoxide

dismutase and glutathione peroxidase deficiencies on noise-induced hearing loss in mice, Noise

Health. 3 (2001) 49-64.

[17] H. Murashita, K. Tabudhi, T. Hoshino, S. Tsuji, A. Hara, The effects of tempol,

3-aminobenzamide and nitric oxide synthase inhibitors on acoustic injury of the mouse cochlea,

Hear. Res. 214 (2006) 1-6.

[18] T. Mutoh, A. Tokuda, T. Miyadai, M. Hamaguchi, N. Fujiki, Ganglioside GM1 binds to the Trk

protein and regulates receptor function, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A. 92 (1995) 5087-5091.

[19] S. Olive, C. Dubois, M. Schachner, G. Rougon, The F3 neuronal

glycosylphosphatidylinositol-linked molecule is localized to glycolipid-enriched membrane

subdomains and interacts with L1 and fyn kinase in cerebellum, J. Neurochem. 65 (1995)

2307-2317.

[20] C.W. Parkins, L. Li, D.W. Webster, Comparison of GM1 ganglioside treatment and electrical

stimulation for preventing spiral ganglion cell loss in pharmacologically deafened guinea pig,

Assoc. Res. Otolaringol. Abs. 22 (1999) 167.

[21] F.J. Roisen, H. Bartfeld, R. Nagele, G. Yorke, Ganglioside stimulation of axonal sprouting in

vitro, Science. 214 (1981) 577-578.

[22] J.W. Ruiz, J. Guzman, M. Polak, A.A. Eshraghi, T.J. Balkany, T.R. Van De Water, Glutathione

ester protects against hydroxynonenal-induced loss of auditory hair cells. Otolaryngol, Head.

Neck. Surg. 135 (2006) 792-797.

[23] P.A. Santi, P. Mancini, C. Barnes, Identification and localization of the GM1 ganglioside in the

cochlea using thin-layer chromatography and cholera toxin, J. Histochem. Cytochem. 42 (1994)

705-716.

[24] U. Scarpidis, D. Madnani, C. Shoemaker, C.H. Fletcher, K. Kojima, A.A. Eshraghi Arrest of

apoptosis in auditory neurons: implications for sensorineural preservation in cochlear

implantation, Otol. Neurotol. 24 (2003) 409-417.

[25] M.D. Seidman, B.G. Shivapuja, W.S. Quirk, The protective effects of allopurinol and superoxide

dismutase on noise-induced cochlear damage, Otolaryngol. Head Neck Surg. 109 (1993)

1052-1056.

[26] K. Simons, D. Toomre, Lipid rafts and signal transduction, Nature Rev. Mol. Cell Boil. 1 (2000)

31-39.

[27] S.D. Skaper, R. Katoh-Semba, S. Varon, GM1 ganglioside accelerates neurite outgrowth from

primary peripheral and central neurons under selected culture conditions, Dev. Brain Res. 23

(1985) 19-26.

[28] S.D. Skaper, A. Leon, G. Toffano, Ganglioside function in the development and repair of the

nervous system, Molec. Neurobiol. 3 (1989) 173-199.

[29] T.V. Sokolova, I.O. Zakharova, V.V. Furaev, M.P. Rychkova, N.F. Avrova, Neuroprotective effect

of ganglioside GM1 on the cytotoxic action of hydrogen peroxide and amyloid beta-peptide in

PC12 cells, Neurochem. Res. 32 (2007) 1302-1313.

[30] P.E. Spoerri, F.J. Roisen, Ganglioside potentiation of NGF-independent trophic agents on

sensory ganglia, Neurosci. Lett. 90 (1988) 21-26.

[31] L. Svennerholm, Ganglioside- a new therapeutic agent against stroke and Alzheimer's disease,

Life Sci. 55 (1994) 2125-2134.

[32] K. Tabuchi, H. Murashita, S. Sakai, T. Hoshino, I. Uemaetomari, A. Hara, Therapeutic time

window of methylprednisolone in acoustic injury, Otol. Neurotol. 27 (2006) 1176-1179.

[33] K. Tabuchi, H. Murashita, A. Hara, Acoustic injury of the cochlea: The role of reactive oxygen

species and mechanisms of hair cell death. Recent advances in Auditory neuroscience: Research

Signpost, Kerala, India, 2007, pp. 11-18.

[34] K. Takahashi, J. Kusakari, S. Kimura, T. Wada, A. Hara, The effect of methylprednisolone on

acoustic trauma, Acta Otolaryngol. 116 (1996) 209-212.

[35] T. Takemoto, K. Sugawara, T. Okuda, H. Shimogori, H. Yamashita, The clinical free radical

scavenger, edaravone, protects cochlear hair cells from acoustic trauma, Eur. J. Pharmacol. 487

(2004) 113-116.

[36] I. Uemaetomari, K. Tabuchi, T. Hoshino, A. Hara, Protective effect of calcineurin inhibitors on

acoustic injury of the cochlea, Hear. Res. 209 (2005) 86-90.

[37] J.R. Van Brocklyn, J.R. Vandenheede, R. Fertel, A.J. Yates, A.A. Rampersaud, Ganglioside GM1

activates the mitogen-activated protein kinase Erk2 and p70 S6 kinase in U-1242 MG human

glioma cells, J. Neurochem. 69 (1997) 116.

[38] M.E. Walsh, D.B. Webster, Exogenous GM1 ganglioside effects on conductive and sensorineural

hearing losses, Hear. Nres. 75 (1994) 54-60.

[39] C. Wu, S. Butz, Y. Ying, R.G. Anderson, Tyrosine kinase receptors concentrated in caveolae-like

domains from neuronal plasma membrane, J. Biol. Chem. 272 (1997) 3554-3559.

[40] D. Yamashita, H-Y. Jiang, J. Schacht, J.M. Miller, Delayed production of free radicals following

gnoise exposure, Brain Res. 1019 (2004) 201-209.

[41] T. Yamasoba, A.L. Nuttall, C. Harris, Y. Raphael, J.M. Miller, Role of gluthathione in protection

against noise-induced hearing loss, Brain Res. 784 (1998) 82-90.

[42] T. Yamasoba, J. Schacht, F. Shoji, J. M. Miller, Attenuation of cochlear damage from noise

trauma by an iron chelator, a free radical scavenger and glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor

in vivo, Brain Res. 815 (1999) 317-325.

[43] I.O. Zakharova, T.V. Sokolova, V.V. Furaev, M.P. Rychkova, N.F. Avrova, Effects of oxidative

stress inducers, neurotoxins, and ganglioside GM1 on Na⁺, K⁺-ATPase in PC12 and brain

synaptosomes, Zh Evol Biokhim Fiziol. 43 (2007) 148-154.

Legends

Fig. 1. ABR threshold shifts 2 weeks after acoustic overexposure.

GM-1 ganglioside significantly decreased ABR threshold shifts 2 weeks after acoustic

overexposure at only 30 mg/kg (two-way ANOVA and Scheffé test: *p<0.05).

Fig. 2. A) Representative microscopic fluorescence image of hair cell nuclei in the noise-alone

group 2 weeks after acoustic overexposure. B) Representative image of the 30 mg/kg GM-1

ganglioside group. Arrows indicate hair cell loss.

The 30 mg/kg GM-1 ganglioside group was less hair cell loss than noise-alone group.

Fig. 3. The effect of 30mg/kg GM-1 ganglioside on hair cell loss after acoustic overexposure.

Missing hair cells at the 66% region from the apex were calculated 2 weeks after acoustic

overexposure. Treatment with GM-1 significantly decreased loss of OHCs, especially in the first

row (two-way ANOVA: *p<0.05, one-way ANOVA: * p<0.05 in the first row).

IHC: inner hair cell, OHC1: the first row of outer hair cells,

OHC2: the second row of outer hair cells, OHC3: the third row of outer hair cells

Fig. 4. Representative photographs of 4-HNE immunostaining of the organ of Corti.

A) Photographs of the noise-alone group before and after overexposure.

B) Representative images 3 days after acoustic overexposure of the noise-alone and GM-1 (30

mg/kg) groups.

Fig. 5. Densities of 4-HNE in the outer hair cells.

Relative values subtracted from the pre-exposure level are shown. The time-course of the

immunostaining density in the GM-1 (30 mg/kg) group was similar to that of the noise-alone

group. The highest density was seen at 12 hours to 3 days after overexposure. Each density of

immunostaining in the GM-1 (30 mg/kg) group was significantly weaker than that of the

noise-alone group at the same time points from 4 hours to 3 days (Student's t-test: *p<0.05).