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Exercise induces hippocampal BDNF through a PGC-1 α /FNDC5 pathway

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SUMMARY

Exercise can improve cognitive function and has been linked to the increased expression of brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). However, the underlying molecular mechanisms driving the elevation of this neurotrophin remain unknown. Here we show that FNDC5, a previously identified muscle protein that is induced in exercise and is cleaved and secreted as irisin, is also elevated by endurance exercise in the hippocampus of mice. Neuronal *Fndc5* gene expression is regulated by PGC-1 α and *Pgc1a*^{-/-} mice show reduced *Fndc5* expression in the brain. Forced expression of FNDC5 in primary cortical neurons increases *Bdnf* expression, whereas RNAi-mediated knockdown of FNDC5 reduces *Bdnf*. Importantly, peripheral delivery of FNDC5 to the liver via adenoviral vectors, resulting in elevated blood irisin, induces expression of *Bdnf* and other neuroprotective genes in the hippocampus. Taken together, our findings link endurance exercise and the important metabolic mediators, PGC-1 α and FNDC5, with BDNF expression in the brain.

Keywords

Exercise; FNDC5; *Pgc1a*; *Bdnf*; transcription; hippocampus

INTRODUCTION

Exercise, especially endurance exercise, is known to have beneficial effects on brain health and cognitive function (Cotman et al., 2007; Mattson, 2012a). This improvement in cognitive function with exercise has been most prominently observed in the aging population (Colcombe and Kramer, 2003). Exercise has also been reported to ameliorate outcomes in neurological diseases like depression, epilepsy, stroke, Alzheimer's and

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Parkinson's Disease, (Ahlskog, 2011; Arida et al., 2008; Buchman et al., 2012; Russo-Neustadt et al., 1999; Zhang et al., 2012). The effects of exercise on the brain are most apparent in the hippocampus and its dentate gyrus, a part of the brain involved in learning and memory. Specific beneficial effects of exercise in the brain have been reported to include increases in the size of and blood flow to the hippocampus in humans and morphological changes in dendrites and dendritic spines, increased synapse plasticity and, importantly, *de novo* neurogenesis in the dentate gyrus in various mouse models of exercise (Cotman et al., 2007; Mattson, 2012a). *De novo* neurogenesis in the adult brain occurs is observed in only two areas; the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus is one of them and exercise is one of the few known stimuli of this *de novo* neurogenesis (Kobilo et al., 2011).

One important molecular mediator for these beneficial responses in the brain to exercise is the induction of neurotrophins/growth factors, most notably brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF). In animal models, BDNF is induced in various regions of the brain with exercise, most robustly in the hippocampus (Cotman et al., 2007). BDNF promotes many aspects of brain development including neuronal cell survival, differentiation, migration, dendritic arborization, synaptogenesis and plasticity (Greenberg et al., 2009; Park and Poo, 2013). In addition, BDNF is essential for synaptic plasticity, hippocampal function and learning (Kuipers and Bramham, 2006). Highlighting the relevance of BDNF in human, individuals carrying the Val66Met mutation in the *BDNF* gene, exhibit decreased secretion of BDNF, display a decreased volume of specific brain regions, deficits in episodic memory function as well as increased anxiety and depression (Egan et al., 2003; Hariri et al., 2003). Blocking BDNF signaling with anti-TrkB antibodies attenuates the exercise-induced improvement of in acquisition and retention a spatial learning task, as well as the exercise-induced expression of synaptic proteins (Vaynman et al., 2004; Vaynman et al., 2006). However, the underlying mechanism which induces BDNF in exercise remains to be determined.

PGC-1 α is induced in skeletal muscle with exercise, and is a major mediator of the beneficial effects of exercise in this tissue (Finck and Kelly, 2006). PGC-1 α was initially discovered as a transcriptional co-activator of mitochondrial biogenesis and oxidative metabolism in brown fat (Puigserver et al., 1998; Spiegelman, 2007). Subsequent work has demonstrated an important role of PGC-1 α in the brain. Lack of PGC-1 α in the brain is associated with neurodegeneration (Lin et al., 2004; Ma et al., 2010) as well as GABAergic dysfunction and a deficiency in neuronal parvalbumin expression (Lucas et al., 2010). PGC-1 α has been shown to be neuroprotective in the MPTP mouse model of Parkinson's disease (St-Pierre et al., 2006). It also negatively regulates extrasynaptic NMDA (N-methyl-D-aspartate) receptor activity and thereby reduces excitotoxicity in rat cortical neurons (Puddifoot et al., 2012). In addition, the involvement of PGC-1 α in the formation and maintenance of neuronal dendritic spines has been reported (Cheng et al., 2012). Interestingly, long-term forced treadmill running over 12 weeks increases *Pgcl1* expression in various areas of the brain (Steiner et al., 2011).

Recently, our group identified a PGC-1 α -dependent myokine, FNDC5, that is cleaved and secreted from muscle during exercise and induces some major metabolic benefits of exercise (Bostrom et al., 2012). FNDC5 is a glycosylated type I membrane protein and is released into the circulation after proteolytic cleavage. The secreted form of FNDC5 contains 112 amino acids and has been named irisin. Irisin acts preferentially on the subcutaneous 'beige' fat and causes it to 'brown' by increasing the expression of UCP-1 and other thermogenic genes (Bostrom et al., 2012; Wu et al., 2012). Clinical studies in humans have confirmed this positive correlation between increased FNDC5 expression and circulating irisin with the level of exercise performance (Huh et al., 2012; Lecker et al., 2012).

Interestingly, FNDC5 is also expressed in the brain (Dun et al., 2013; Ferrer-Martinez et al., 2002; Teufel et al., 2002) and in rat pheochromocytoma-derived PC12 cells differentiated into neuron-like cells (Ostadsharif et al., 2011). Knockdown of FNDC5 in neuronal precursors impaired the development into mature neurons, suggesting a developmental role of FNDC5 in neurons (Hashemi et al., 2013). This interesting connection of FNDC5 as an important exercise-related factor in the periphery and its expression in the central nervous system, led us to investigate the effects of exercise on FNDC5 expression and function in the brain. Here we show that FNDC5 is elevated by endurance exercise in the hippocampus of mice and that PGC-1 α and FNDC5 regulate BDNF expression in the brain.

RESULTS

Endurance exercise induces hippocampal *Fndc5* gene expression

FNDC5 is highly expressed in the brain, as well as in skeletal muscle (Ferrer-Martinez et al., 2002; Teufel et al., 2002). Very little is known about the function of FNDC5 in the brain. We have therefore investigated the effects of exercise on FNDC5 expression and function. We used an established endurance exercise regimen: 30 days of voluntary free running-wheel exercise. This regimen is known to induce BDNF expression, neurogenesis, dendritic spines and improved memory function in mice (Eadie et al., 2005; Kobilov et al., 2011). As has previously been established, this training was sufficient to induce muscle *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 1A), as well as the transcriptional regulators *Pgc1a* and *Erra*, known mediators of the exercise-response in skeletal muscle. In addition, other known genes of the exercise gene program were induced, confirming an adaptive endurance exercise response in the muscle (Fig. S1). Interestingly, the same exercise regime led to a significant elevation of *Fndc5* expression in the hippocampus (Fig. 1B) but not in the remainder of the brain (Fig. 1C). The hippocampus is a region of the brain involved in learning and memory and has been identified as a major site where changes induced by exercise occur. Of note, even though genes that are induced by neuronal activity, such as *Arc*, *cFos* and *Zif268*, were upregulated in both the remainder of the brain and the hippocampus, the important exercise-related neurotrophin *Bdnf* was induced *only* in the hippocampus (Fig. 1D and E). However, *Npas4*, an important transcriptional component in hippocampal function and a key regulator of activity-induced *Bdnf* expression (Lin et al., 2008; Ramamoorthi et al., 2011) was not increased in the exercise regimen used here (Fig. 1D and E). These data suggest that the induction of FNDC5 is part of the transcriptional response to exercise in the hippocampus.

Fndc5 gene expression correlates with *Pgc1a* expression levels in various tissues and developmental stages

We previously reported that elevations in *Fndc5* gene expression in exercised muscle was dependent on PGC-1 α (Bostrom et al., 2012). We therefore investigated whether *Fndc5* expression in the brain is also regulated by PGC-1 α . To first assess if there is a correlation between the gene expression of these two proteins, we isolated 13 different tissues from C57/B16 mice, extracted total RNA and measured gene expression for *Fndc5* and *Pgc1a*. Consistent with earlier reports, the highest level of *Fndc5* gene expression was detected in heart, skeletal muscle, brain and spinal cord (Ferrer-Martinez et al., 2002; Teufel et al., 2002). When we grouped the different tissues according to their levels of *Fndc5* expression, it is clear that most tissues with very high *Fndc5* expression also showed relatively high levels of *Pgc1a* gene expression (Fig. 2A). Notably, *Fndc5* and *Pgc1a* expression levels correlated well, even within very distinct muscle beds. *Fndc5* expression was higher in oxidative muscle, such as the soleus muscle, which also contains higher levels of *Pgc1a*, than in glycolytic or mixed muscles, such as gastrocnemius or quadriceps muscle. Exceptions to this tight correlation of *Fndc5* and *Pgc1a* expression are the interscapular brown adipose tissue and the kidney. Both are tissues with extremely high mitochondrial

content, which might explain their requirement for high *Pgc1a* levels without very high expression of *Fndc5*.

To examine whether FNDC5 and PGC-1 α were developmentally regulated in synchrony during maturation of the brain, we perform a time-course experiment of postnatal development. Brains were harvested from pups at postnatal day 0 (P0), P10, P20, P25, and P30 and gene expression was measured by qPCR. These time-points were chosen because they cover an important time period of postnatal brain developmental, up to the mature state at P30. A two-step pattern of increased *Fndc5* gene expression during development was observed, with a first increase between P0 and P10 and second increase between P10 and P20, which then leveled off (Fig. 2B). *Pgc1a* gene expression followed essentially the same pattern. Of note, we also observed this two-step pattern of increased gene expression during brain development for the key neural regulatory protein, *Bdnf*. Next, the gene expression patterns for these factors were assessed during the maturation of primary cortical neurons in culture. We observed again this correlation: *Fndc5* gene expression increased between in vitro days (DIV) 1 and DIV 6, when the expression levels of *Pgc1a* and *Bdnf* were also elevated (Fig. 2C). These data illustrate that, similar to muscle, there is a strong correlation between PGC-1 α and FNDC5 gene expression in the brain.

Neuronal *Fndc5* gene expression is regulated by PGC-1 α

To investigate whether PGC-1 α is a transcriptional regulator of *Fndc5* gene expression in the brain, we turned to dissociated primary cortical neurons in culture. Although more heterogeneous than neurons from the dentate gyrus of the hippocampus, these cultures can be isolated in sufficient quantities for molecular studies and can be readily manipulated. Primary cortical neurons were stimulated with forskolin (10 μ M), a strong inducer of intracellular cAMP, which is known to increase *Pgc1a* gene expression in cell types as diverse as brown adipocytes, hepatocytes and Schwann cells (Cowell et al., 2008; Herzig et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 2001). This increase in *Pgc1a* gene expression was accompanied by a significant increase in *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 3A). On the other hand, treatment of cortical neurons with nifedipine (5 μ M), a selective L-type calcium channel blocker, which leads to decreased intracellular calcium levels and decreased *Pgc1a* gene expression, was accompanied by decreased *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 3B).

Next, genetic gain- and loss-of-function approaches were used to test causality. Forced expression of PGC-1 α by adenoviral delivery in primary cortical neurons resulted in a 4-fold increased *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 3C). Immunoblotting confirmed that the increase in *Fndc5* mRNA translated into elevated FNDC5 protein levels (Fig. S2). Conversely, reducing *Pgc1a* gene expression with lentiviral-mediated shRNA knockdown by more than 40 % significantly decreased *Fndc5* gene expression by 66 % and 31%, respectively (Fig. 3D). As an additional loss-of-function model, the brains of global *Pgc1a* knockout mice (*Pgc1a*^{-/-}) were used. We observed the same requirement of PGC-1 α for *Fndc5* gene expression in brains of these mice, which display a reduction in *Fndc5* gene expression by 32 % (Fig. 3E). Taking together, these results demonstrate that PGC-1 α is a regulator of neuronal *Fndc5* gene expression in neural cultures and in the brain.

ERR α is a key interacting transcription factor with PGC-1 α for regulating *Fndc5* gene expression in neurons

PGC-1 α is a transcriptional co-activator, meaning it does not bind to the DNA itself but interacts with transcription factors to execute its effects on gene expression (Spiegelman, 2007). The orphan nuclear receptor estrogen-related receptor alpha (ERR α ; also known as NR3B1) is a central metabolic regulator (Giguere et al., 1988; Luo et al., 2003) and a very important interactor with PGC-1 α (Laganriere et al., 2004; Mootha et al., 2004; Schreiber et

al., 2004). The interaction of *Erra* with PGC-1 α has been best studied in skeletal muscle, where it is required for mitochondrial biogenesis, induction of angiogenesis, oxidative metabolism, and oxidative muscle fibers (Arany et al., 2008; Mootha et al., 2004; Schreiber et al., 2004).

Interestingly, *Erra* follows the exercise-induced gene expression pattern of *Fndc5* in the brain. *Erra* is up-regulated in the hippocampus upon exercise but not in the rest of the brain (Fig. 1B and C). In addition, there was a correlation between *Fndc5* and *Erra* gene expression in our tissue-panel (Fig. 2A) as well as our developmental time-course (Fig. 2B). PGC-1 α is well-known to often increase the expression of transcription factors that it interacts with, thereby positively regulating its own regulators (Handschin et al., 2003; Mootha et al., 2004). We therefore asked if forced expression of PGC-1 α in primary cortical neurons results in an increase *Erra* mRNA. Indeed, adenoviral expression of PGC-1 α significantly increased *Erra* gene expression, but not *Errb* or *Errg* gene expression (Fig. 4A). However, mRNA for other common binding partners of PGC-1 α , such as *Mef2*, *Ppara*, *Nrf1* or *Gabpa/b* was not induced in these experiments (Fig. S3A).

The murine *Fndc5* gene and 6 kb of its upstream promoter were searched for putative ERR α transcription factor binding sites, (ERRE), with the canonical ‘TGACCTT’ sequence (Charest-Marcotte et al., 2010; Mootha et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012). We identified two putative ERRE's: one around 5.3 kb upstream of the transcriptional start site and one in the fourth intron of the *Fndc5* gene (Fig. 4B). ERR α had been previously reported to also bind to intronic sequences to exert its biological function (Arany et al., 2008). This further suggests that ERR α could be important in FNDC5 gene regulation. Treatment of primary cortical neurons with XCT 790 (1 μ M), a selective ERR α inhibitor (inverse agonist), which disrupts the ERR α /PGC-1 α transcriptional complex (Mootha et al., 2004), significantly reduced *Fndc5* gene expression compared to vehicle treated cells (Fig. 4C). However, stimulation with DY131 (1 μ M), a selective ERR β and ERR γ agonist, had no effect on *Fndc5* gene expression. This suggests certain specificity for the involvement of ERR α compared to other ERR subfamily members. Since the nuclear receptor PPAR α , another common binding partner of PGC-1 α , was slightly induced by forced expression of PGC-1 α , we tested the effect of GW7647, a potent and highly selective PPAR α agonist, and GW0742, a potent and highly selective PPAR δ agonist on *Fndc5* gene expression. However, under the conditions tested, no effect on *Fndc5* gene expression in primary cortical neurons by these compounds was observed (Fig. S3B).

The results from the treatment with ERR α antagonist suggest that interaction of the PGC-1 α with ERR α is required for the PGC-1 α -dependent induction of *Fndc5* gene expression. To test this, we first knocked-down ERR α in primary cortical neurons using lentivirally expressed shRNA hairpins and then three days later transduced with the cells with either the PGC-1 α adenovirus or GFP expressing adenovirus. *Erra* mRNA was efficiently knocked-down by this hairpin (70%) and forced expression of PGC-1 α did not affect the efficiency of the knock-down (Fig. S2C). Knockdown of ERR α significantly reduced *Fndc5* gene expression at base line (Fig. 4D). Furthermore, forced expression of PGC-1 α by adenovirus in the cells with reduced ERR α failed to significantly increase *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 4D). However, this failure to increase *Fndc5* gene expression was not due to a lack over expression of PGC-1 α in the sh α treated neurons (Fig. S3C). Together these data suggest an involvement of ERR α in the induction of FNDC5 by PGC-1 α . The precise role of the individual ERR α binding sites in the *Fndc5* gene remains to be determined.

FNDC5 regulates *Bdnf* gene expression in a cell-autonomous manner and recombinant BDNF decreases *Fndc5* gene expression as part of potential feedback loop

As mentioned earlier, BDNF is a major mediator of certain beneficial effects on the brain. In addition, an increase in the *Bdnf* gene expression in the hippocampus was observed, where *Fndc5* gene expression was also induced (Fig. 1B and D), but not in the rest of the brain, where *Fndc5* was not induced (Fig. 1C and E). We therefore tested whether FNDC5 could be a regulator of *Bdnf* gene expression in a cell culture model. Primary cortical neurons were transfected with either FNDC5 adenovirus or a GFP adenovirus as control. Forced expression of FNDC5 resulted in a clear increase in FNDC5 protein in the whole cell lysate, as well as an increase in the secreted form of FNDC5 (irisin) in the cell culture supernatant (Fig. 5A). After deglycosylation, this protein has the same apparent molecular mass (12kDa) as predicted for irisin (Fig. 5A). In addition, forced expression of FNDC5 significantly upregulated *Bdnf* gene expression by four fold (Fig.5B). Importantly, FNDC5 expression also induced other important activity-induced genes involved in hippocampal function including *Npas4*, *cFos*, and *Arc*; *Zif268* however, was only slightly elevated.

To investigate if FNDC5 is required for *Bdnf* gene expression, lentivirally delivered shRNA was used to knockdown FNDC5 in primary cortical neurons. To address possible off-targets of a single hairpin, we tested a total of five hairpins of which three significantly knocked down *Fndc5* mRNA (Fig. 5C). The same three hairpins also significantly reduced *Bdnf* gene expression. We also assessed the role of PGC-1 α in controlling *Bdnf* gene expression in vivo. To do this, we used the brains of global *Pgc1a* knockout mice (*Pgc1a*^{-/-}). As shown in Fig 3E, *Bdnf* gene expression was significantly reduced in the brains of *Pgc1a*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 3E).

BDNF is well-known for its ability to improve survival of neurons in culture. We therefore assessed the effects of gain- and loss-of-function of FNDC5 on cell viability of cultured neurons using a luminescence/ATP-based assay. Gain-of-function of FNDC5 significantly improved neuron survival in culture (Fig. 5D) while loss-of-function of FNDC5 using shRNA mediated knockdown of FNDC5 with two different hairpins significantly impaired the survival of neurons in culture (Fig. 5E).

To examine how BDNF might, in turn, alter FNDC5 gene expression, primary cortical neurons were stimulated with recombinant BDNF overnight at various concentrations at physiological and pharmacological dosages (0.1-100 ng/ml). BDNF concentrations as low as 1 ng/ml significantly reduced *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 5F) and a dose-response was observed. To ask whether the reduction in *Fndc5* gene expression was specific to BDNF, we treated primary cortical neurons with a variety of central and peripheral neurotrophic factors in addition to BDNF, such as CNTF (ciliary neurotrophic factor), GDNF (glial cell-derived neurotrophic factor), NGF (nerve growth factor), and IGF-1 (insulin-like growth factor 1) at 100ng/ml for overnight. However, only BDNF stimulation significantly reduced *Fndc5* mRNA expression Fig. 5G). This effect was abolished by pre-incubating the cortical neurons with a low dose (50nM) of K252a, well-characterized inhibitor of TrkB, the receptor of BDNF signaling (Gimenez-Cassina et al., 2012; Tapley et al., 1992) (Fig. 5H). In summary, these data suggest a homeostatic FNDC5/BDNF feed-back loop.

Peripheral delivery of FNDC5 by adenoviral vectors increases *Bdnf* expression in the hippocampus

We had previously shown that adenoviral overexpression of FNDC5 in the liver, a major secretory organ, increases circulating levels of irisin, the secreted form of FNDC5 (Boström et al., 2012). This resulted in the activation of a thermogenic gene program in certain fat tissues. To determine if peripheral delivery of FNDC5/irisin could elevate central BDNF

levels, we repeated this experiment and measured *Bdnf* gene expression in the hippocampus seven days later. As previously shown forced expression of FNDC5 in the liver in the induced 'browning' of the inguinal fat depot (Fig. 6A), including increased expression of mRNA for a group of key thermogenic genes, such as *Pgc1a*, *Ucp1* and *Cidea*. In addition, plasma levels of irisin were elevated in mice overexpressing FNDC5 as compared to GFP-overexpressing control mice (Fig. S4A). Interestingly, *Bdnf* expression in the hippocampus was significantly increased, as was expression of *Npas4*, *cFos*, *Arc*, and *Zif268*, all part of the activity-induced immediate early gene (IEG) program as mentioned before. Importantly, this was not caused by any viral mediated expression of *Fndc5* in the brain or hippocampus. (Fig. 6B), strongly suggesting that the secreted form of the peripherally expressed FNDC5 was responsible for this effect. This effect of increased *Bdnf* expression was specific to the hippocampus it was not observed in the forebrain (Fig. 6C) whereas the IEG response was observed in both; this is consistent with our earlier findings of the exercise effects (Fig. 1D and E).

PGC-1 α /FNDC5/BDNF pathway in primary hippocampal neurons

We used cortical neurons in the experiments above because this is the most widely used system of primary CNS cultures and because reasonable numbers of cells can be obtained. However, since some of our observations in vivo were made in the hippocampus, we sought to validate our findings in primary hippocampal neurons. Therefore, a key set of experiments were repeated in primary hippocampal neuron cultures. We confirmed that *Fndc5* gene expression is significantly increased in primary hippocampal neurons cultured in vitro from DIV 1 to DIV6; the expression of *Pgc1a* and *Bdnf* mRNA is similarly increased (Fig. 7A). To test whether PGC-1 α regulates *Fndc5* gene expression in hippocampal neurons, gain- and loss of function studies were performed. Forced expression of PGC-1 α significantly induced *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 7B). Interestingly, stimulation with forskolin (10 μ M) failed to induce *Pgc1a* gene expression, but decreased the expression of *Erta* and *Fndc5* (Fig. S5). Efficient knockdown of *Pgc1a* by lentivirally delivered shRNA significantly reduced *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 7C). Stimulation of primary hippocampal neurons with commercially available recombinant irisin induced a similar gene program (*Arc*, *cFos*, *Npas4*, and *Zif268*) as was found in the in vivo adenoviral experiments (Fig. 7D). However, the increase in *Bdnf* gene expression did not reach statistical significance. Loss-of-function of FNDC5 by shRNA mediated knockdown with three different hairpins against *Fndc5* significantly reduced *Bdnf* gene expression in hippocampal neurons (Fig. 7E). In addition, treatment of hippocampal neurons with recombinant BDNF reduced *Fndc5* gene expression (Fig. 7F). Together, these data demonstrate that the basic observations made in the primary cortical neurons also apply to primary hippocampal neuron cultures.

DISCUSSION

A recent study has reported a positive correlation between human brain size and endurance exercise capacity suggesting a co evolution between human cognition and locomotion (Raichlen and Gordon, 2011). More complex tasks require a more complex brain and foraging in wide and open spaces in the savannas put high demands on spatial orientation, as well as the ability to acquire and retain new information. Therefore individuals with a more complex brain who performed better at these tasks might have had an evolutionary advantage. On the other hand, since endurance exercise clearly increases expression of BDNF in the brain, improvements in the exercise capacity might have positively enforced brain growth (Mattson, 2012b), especially in the hippocampus.

In this study we report a PGC-1 α /FNDC5/BDNF pathway that is activated in the hippocampus by endurance exercise (Fig. 6). In our current model, exercise leads to

increased transcription of *Pgc1a* and *Erra*. It has been observed previously that PGC-1 α often induces the expression of transcription factors to which it binds and co-activates (Handschin et al., 2003; Mootha et al., 2004). Indeed, the ability of PGC-1 α to induce FNDC5 gene expression depends on ERR α availability (Fig. 4D). This PGC-1 α / Err α complex, in turn, may bind to one or more of the canonical ERRE's found in or near the *Fndc5* gene, thus activating *Fndc5* gene expression. As shown in a cell culture model in Fig. 5A, FNDC5 is a positive regulator of BDNF expression. Based on this, it seems likely that the increased *Fndc5* gene expression in exercise will lead to increased BDNF levels. Interestingly, BDNF also can signal to reduce the expression of FNDC5 as part of an apparent homeostatic loop. Both FNDC5-dependent and FNDC5-independent pathways by which exercise induces BDNF expression seem plausible. For example, CREB and NF- κ B are two other transcription factors known to induce BDNF expression in exercise (Mattson, 2012b). These may act upstream or downstream of FNDC5, or in an independent pathway.

The induction of FNDC5 by exercise in the hippocampus is quantitatively comparable to the induction observed in skeletal muscle. Interestingly, it is also in the same quantitative range as the induction of BDNF, a neurotrophic mediator of exercise in the brain, as well as cFos, Arc, and Zif268, important indicators for the activity state of neurons (Hunt et al., 1987; Lyford et al., 1995; Rusak et al., 1990; Saffen et al., 1988). This places FNDC5 induction in a similar range to other known important regulators in the brain.

In our study of 30 days of free-wheel running exercise, *Fndc5* and *Pgc1a* was induced in the hippocampus but not in the rest of the brain (Fig 1B) when taken as one unit. Therefore it is possible that *Fndc5* and *Pgc1a* were induced in relatively small numbers of neurons elsewhere, but that that change was not detectable because it is occurring in the background of little or no change in larger brain structures. Indeed, using a longer and more intense exercise regimen exercise protocol and more detailed dissections, Steiner et al. reported an upregulation of *Pgc1a* expression in various other parts of the brain, in addition to the hippocampus (Steiner et al., 2011).

A central question arising from our study is how does the PGC-1 α /FNDC5/BDNF pathway get initiated in exercise? This question is closely linked to the more central and open question in the field: how is exercise sensed by the brain? One obvious initiator could be increased neuronal activity in areas of the brain that are involved in spatial orientation, learning and memory, since BDNF gene expression is well known to be stimulated by neural activity (West and Greenberg, 2011). Increased sympathetic tone, namely higher norepinephrine levels (Garcia et al., 2003) and increased IGF-1 levels from periphery crossing the blood-brain-barrier have also been discussed as exercise-related inducers of BDNF (Ding et al., 2006). However, because exercise is known to change the metabolic state of the whole body, another important factor could be changes in the energy state or oxygen levels within the brain, both signals to which PGC-1 α gene expression is known to respond in other tissues (Arany et al., 2008; St-Pierre et al., 2006). In our study we linked the activation of a metabolic regulator, PGC-1 α , via FNDC5 to increased BDNF levels in the neurons in response to exercise (Fig. 6). Of note, there are other important metabolic regulators, such as AMPK or PPAR γ , which have not been part of this study.

FNDC5 in the periphery is cleaved and secreted as irisin and secreted irisin can cause the 'browning' of adipose tissues (Bostrom et al., 2012; Shan et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2012). Therefore several important questions arise from our studies. First, is FNDC5 functioning mainly as a membrane-bound molecule in the brain or is it secreted by neurons? Secondly, if FNDC5 is secreted, is it secreted as irisin (amino acids 29-140) or as a different peptide species? Perhaps the most exciting result overall is that peripheral delivery of FNDC5 with adenoviral vectors is sufficient to induce central expression of *Bdnf* and others genes with

potential neuroprotective functions or those involved in learning and memory. This suggests that a secreted, circulating form of FNDC5 has these effects on these neurons and that it crosses the blood brain barrier. Whether this is the full-length irisin protein or a further modified form remains to be determined. The therapeutic implications of this are obvious since it suggests that a polypeptide might be developed as a drug capable of giving neuroprotection in disease states or improved cognition in aging populations.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Reagents

Recombinant human BDNF was purchased from PeproTech, recombinant human GDNF and CNTF and forskolin from Sigma, and recombinant mouse IGF-1 was obtained from R&D Systems. Recombinant mouse NGF and K252a were obtained from EMD Millipore. Nifedipine, XCT 790, DY131, GW7647, and GW0742 were purchased from Tocris. Recombinant irisin (human, rat, mouse, canine) was obtained from Phoenix Pharmaceuticals (Burlingame, CA).

Primers used for qPCR

All primers used are listed with their sequences in Supplemental Table 1.

Animal studies

All animal experiments were performed according to procedures approved by the IACUC of Dana-Farber Cancer Institute and the BIDMC. *Pgc1a*^{-/-} mice have been described previously (Lin et al., 2004). Mice were housed and exercised as previously described (Bostrom et al., 2012).

Cell culture

Primary cortical and hippocampal neurons were isolated as described previously (Bartlett and Banker, 1984).

RNA and protein preparation and analysis

RNA and protein analyses were performed as described previously (Bostrom et al., 2012).

Forced expression and knockdown of target genes

Generation and delivery of the PGC-1 α , GFP, and FNDC5 adenovirus has been described before (Bostrom et al., 2012; Lustig et al., 2011). For knockdown studies, primary cortical neurons were transduced with lentiviral viral supernatants

Cell viability assay

Cell viability of cultured neurons was assessed using CellTiter-Glo® Luminescent Cell Viability Assay (Promega, Madison, WI) according to the manufacturer's instructions

Analysis of the murine *Fndc5* promoter for Erra transcription factor binding sites

The genomic sequence of the murine *Fndc5* gene and 6kb of its upstream promoter was retrieved from the USCS Genome browser (www.genome.ucsc.edu; assembly mm9). This genomic sequence was searched for the canonical Erra transcription factor binding motif: TGACCTT. This motif had been identified and established in previous studies (Charest-Marcotte et al., 2010; Mootha et al., 2004; Wang et al., 2012).

Peripheral delivery of FNDC5 by adenoviral vectors

High titer GFP- or FNDC5-expressing adenoviral particles were obtained by ViraQuest Inc. (North Liberty, IA). Five week old male wild-type BALB/c mice were injected with GFP- or FNDC5-expressing adenoviral particles (10^{11} /animal) intravenously. Animals were sacrificed seven days later and the indicated tissues were harvested for gene expression analyses using qPCR.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

Acknowledgments

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Exercise induces FNDC5 in the hippocampus
- PGC-1 α regulates neuronal *Fndc5* gene expression in vitro and in vivo
- FNDC5 positively regulates the expression of the important neurotrophin BDNF
- Peripheral delivery of FNDC5 via adenoviral vectors induces *Bdnf* in the hippocampus

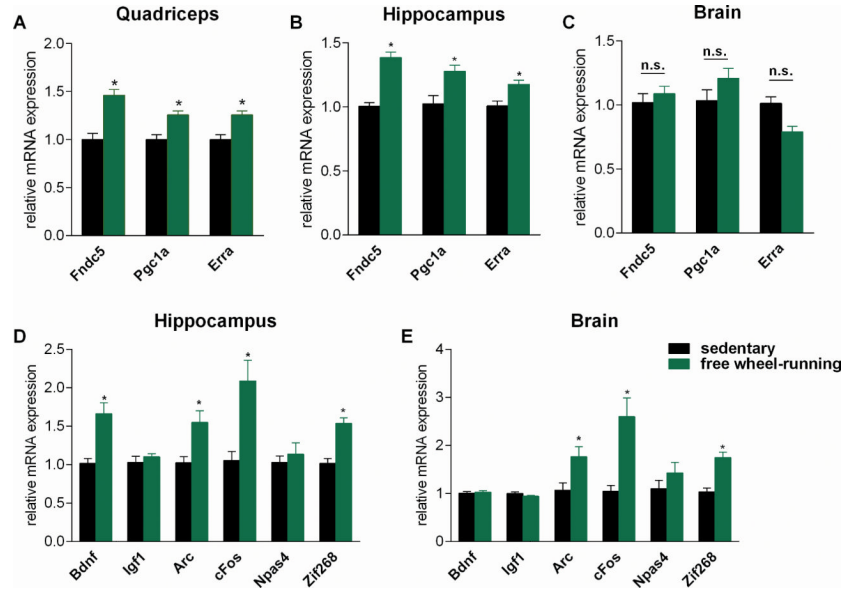


Figure 1. Endurance exercise induces hippocampal *Fndc5* gene expression
 (A-E) Male six week old C57/Bl6 wild type mice were individually housed in cages with access to a running-wheel (free wheel-running) or without (sedentary). Mice were exercised for 30 days and sacrificed approximately 10 h after their last bout of exercise. Data are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean \pm SEM. * $P < 0.05$ compared to sedentary control group. See also Figure S1.

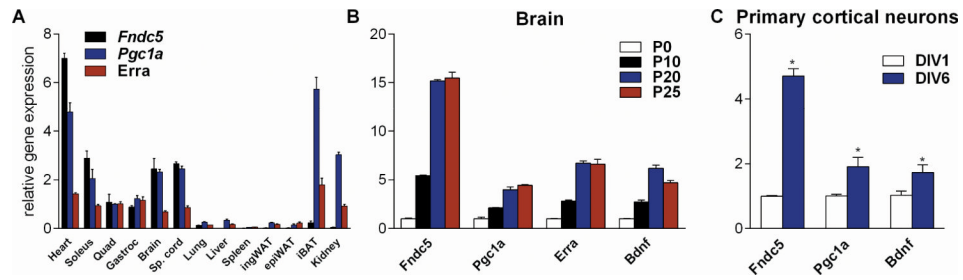


Figure 2. *Fndc5* gene expression correlates with *Pgc1a* expression levels in various tissues and developmental stages

(A) The indicated tissues were harvested from male 13 week old C57/B16 wild type mice.

Quad = quadriceps muscle, Gastroc = gastrocnemius muscle, Sp. Cord = spinal cord, ingWAT = inguinal white adipose tissue, epiWAT = epididymal white adipose tissue, iBAT = interscapular brown adipose tissue.

(B) Brains were harvested from C57/B16 wild type mice at the indicated postnatal (P) time points.

(C) Primary cortical neurons were isolated from C57/B16 wild type E17 embryos and cultured for the indicated days in vitro. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. All data are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean \pm SEM. * $P < 0.05$ compared to control group.

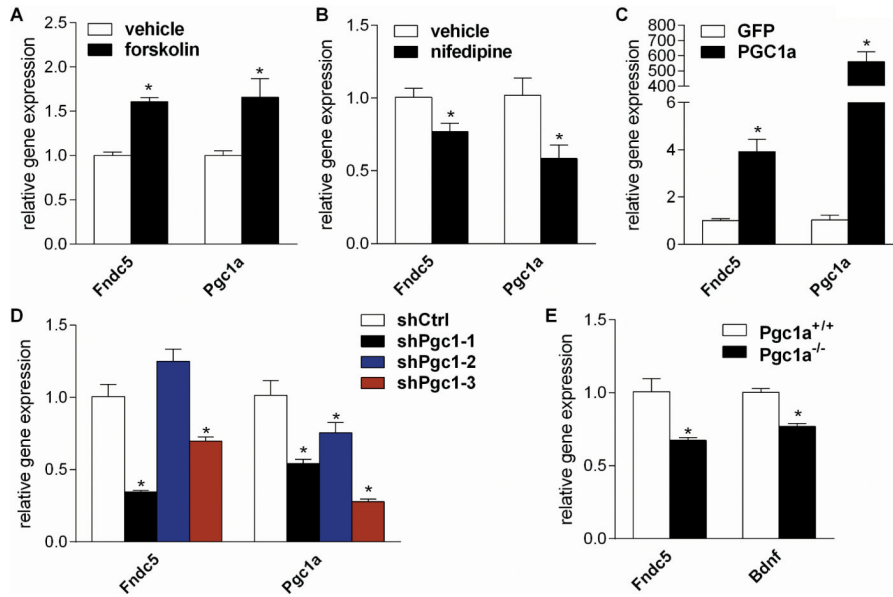


Figure 3. Neuronal *Fndc5* gene expression is regulated by a PGC-1α

(A) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were treated with either forskolin (10 μM), a stimulator intracellular cAMP levels, or vehicle for overnight.
 (B) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were treated with nifedipine (5 μM), a L-type calcium channel blocker, or vehicle for overnight.
 (C) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were transduced with either PGC-1α or GFP adenovirus and harvested 48 hrs later.
 (D) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 5 were transduced with lentivirus carrying the specified shRNA hairpins against *Pgc1a* or luciferase (Luc) as control and were harvested four days later.
 (E) Cortices were harvested from either male five months old *Pgc1a* KO (*Pgc1a*^{-/-}) or wild type mice (*Pgc1a*^{+/+}). mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. All data are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05 compared to corresponding control group. See also Figure S2.

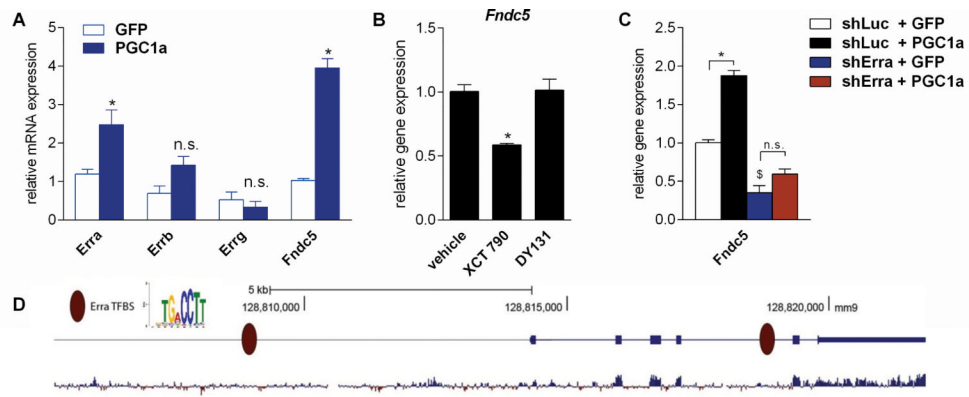


Figure 4. ERR α is a key interacting transcription factor with PGC-1 α for regulating *Fndc5* gene expression in neurons

(A) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were transduced with either PGC-1 α or GFP adenovirus and harvested 48 hrs later. * $P < 0.05$ compared to control group.

(B) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were treated with either XCT 790 (1 μ M), a selective inverse ERR α agonist, DY131 (1 μ M), a selective ERR β and ERR γ agonist, or vehicle for overnight. * $P < 0.05$ compared to vehicle only group.

(C) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 4 were transduced with lentivirus carrying shRNA hairpins against either *Erra* or luciferase (Luc) as control. Three days later were cells were transduced with either PGC-1 α or GFP adenovirus and harvested 48 hrs later. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. Data are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean \pm SEM. * $P < 0.05$ compared to corresponding shLuc expressing control group. \$ $P < 0.05$ compared to corresponding GFP expressing control group. Data (A-C) are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean \pm SEM.

(D) Analysis of the murine *Fndc5* promoter for putative ERREs. The murine *Fndc5* gene and 6 kb of its upstream promoter were searched for the canonical ERRE: TGA CCTT. Genomic coordinates are given according to the assembly mm9 from the UCSC Genome Browser. The bottom diagram indicates the degree of mammalian conservation across the genomic locus. The presented motif was modified from www.factorbook.org (Wang et al., 2012). See also Figure S3.

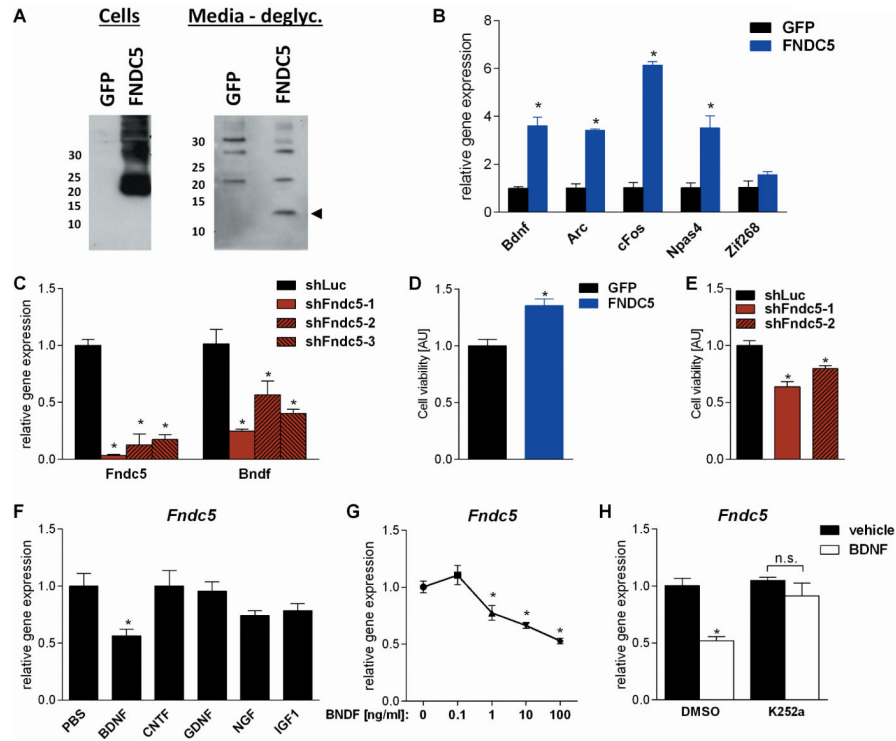


Figure 5. FNDC5 regulates *Bdnf* gene expression in a cell-autonomous manner and recombinant BDNF decreases *Fndc5* gene expression as part of negative feedback loop

(A) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 6 were transduced with either FNDC5 or GFP adenovirus. Whole cell lysates and conditioned media were harvested and analyzed by immunoblotting. Intensity of unspecific bands and Ponceau staining were used to assess equal loading. deglyc. = deglycosylation.

(B) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were transduced with either FNDC5 or GFP adenovirus. Forty-eight hours later mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR.

(C) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 5 were transduced with lentivirus carrying the specified shRNA hairpins against *Fndc5* or luciferase (Luc) as control. Four days later mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR.

(D) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were transduced with either FNDC5 or GFP adenovirus. Cell viability was assessed three days later using the CellTiter-Glo® Luminescent Cell Viability Assay. AU = arbitrary unit.

(E) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 5 were transduced with lentivirus carrying the specified shRNA hairpins against *Fndc5* or luciferase (Luc) as control. Cell viability was assessed three days later using the CellTiter-Glo® Luminescent Cell Viability Assay. AU = arbitrary unit.

(F) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were stimulated with the indicated recombinant neurotrophins and growth factors (100ng/ml) for overnight. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR.

(G) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 7 were stimulated with human recombinant BDNF at the indicated concentrations or vehicle for overnight. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR.

(H) Primary cortical neurons at DIV 6 were treated either with the TrkB inhibitor K252a (50nM) or vehicle. Twenty-four hours later human recombinant BDNF (100ng/ml) or vehicle was added for overnight stimulation. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. Data (B, C and F- H) are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18*

expression. All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. *P < 0.05 compared to corresponding control group.

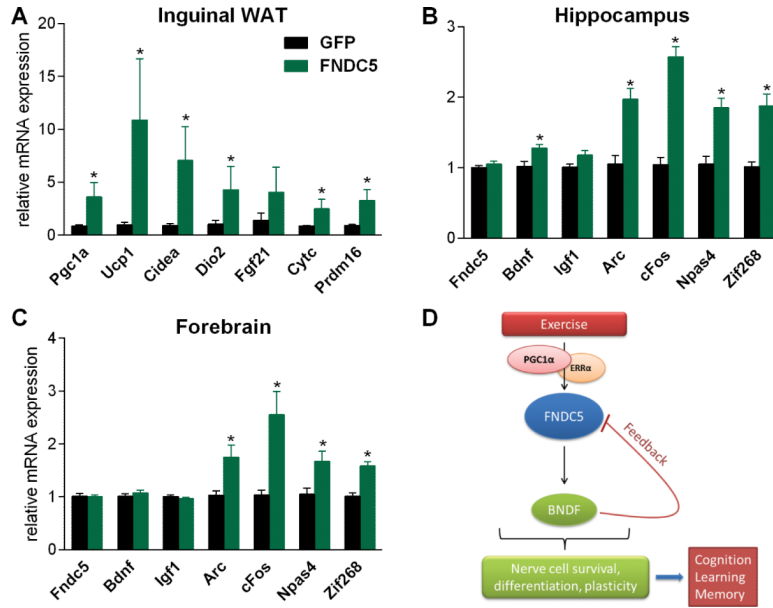


Figure 6. Peripheral delivery of FNDC5 by adenoviral vectors increases Bdnf expression in the hippocampus

(A-C) Five week old male wild-type BALB/c mice were injected with GFP- or FNDC5-expressing adenoviral particles intravenously. Animals were sacrificed seven days later and (A) inguinal/subcutaneous fat pads (WAT=white adipose tissues), (B) hippocampus, and forebrain (C) were collected and mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. Data are shown as mRNA levels relative to Rsp18 expression, expressed as mean ± SEM. *P < 0.05 compared to wild type control group. (D) Model of the hippocampal PGC-1α/FNDC5/BDNF pathway in exercise. Endurance exercise stimulates increases hippocampal *Fndc5* gene expression through a PGC-1α/ERRα transcriptional complex. This elevated *Fndc5* gene expression stimulates in turn *Bdnf* gene expression. BDNF is the master regulator of nerve cell survival, differentiation and plasticity in the brain. This will lead to improved cognitive function, learning and memory, which are known beneficial effects of exercise on the brain. See also Figure S4.

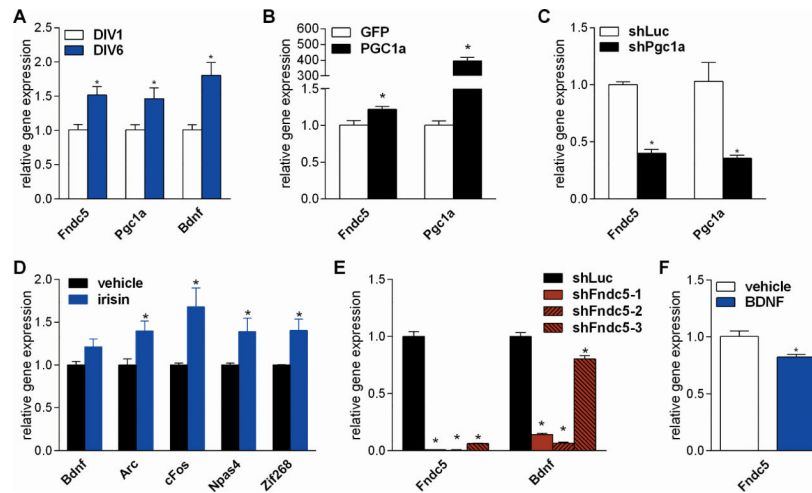


Figure 7. PGC-1 α /FNDC5/BDNF pathway in primary hippocampal neurons

(A) Primary hippocampal neurons were isolated from C57/B16 wild type E17 embryos and cultured for the indicated days in vitro.

(B) Primary hippocampal neurons at DIV 7 were transduced with either PGC-1 α or GFP adenovirus and harvested 48 hrs later.

(C) Primary hippocampal neurons at DIV 5 were transduced with lentivirus carrying the specified shRNA hairpin against *Pgc1a* or luciferase (*Luc*) as control and harvested four days later.

(D) Primary hippocampal neurons were stimulated with recombinant irisin (1 μ g/ml) at DIV 5 and 6 and harvested 24 hrs later

(E) Primary hippocampal neurons at DIV 5 were transduced with lentivirus carrying the specified shRNA hairpins against *Fndc5* or luciferase (*Luc*) as control and harvested four days later.

(F) Primary hippocampal neurons at DIV 7 were stimulated with recombinant BDNF (100ng/ml) for overnight. mRNA was prepared and gene expression was assessed by qPCR. Data are shown as mRNA levels relative to *Rsp18* expression, expressed as mean \pm SEM.

* $P < 0.05$ compared to corresponding control group. See also Figure S5.