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## Signaling Pathways and Promoter Regions that Mediate Pituitary Adenylate Cyclase Activating Polypeptide (PACAP) Self-Regulation in Gonadotrophs

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## Abstract

Pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide (PACAP) is thought to play a role in the development and regulation of gonadotrophs. PACAP levels are very high in the rodent fetal pituitary, and decline substantially and rapidly at birth, followed by a significant rise in FSH $\beta$  and GnRH-R expression. Because there is evidence that PACAP stimulates its own transcription, we propose that this self-regulation is interrupted around the time of birth. To begin to examine the mechanisms for PACAP self-regulation, we used two well-established gonadotroph cell lines,  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells and the more mature L $\beta$ T2 cells which were transfected with a PACAP promoterreporter construct As in vivo, the basal PACAP transcription level is significantly lower in the more mature L $\beta$ T2 cells in which basal cAMP signaling is also much reduced. The PACAP promoter was stimulated by PACAP in both cell lines. Treatment with inhibitors of second messenger pathways implicated PKA, PKC and MAPK in PACAP transcription. Three regions of the PACAP promoter were found to confer inhibition or stimulation of PACAP transcription. By inhibiting cAMP response element binding (CREB) activity and mutating a proximal CREB binding site, we found that CREB is essential for promoter activation. Finally, overexpression of PACAP receptor HOP1 isoform, to increase the level in LBT2 cells to that of aT3-1 cells and simulate the E19 pituitary, increased PACAP- stimulated sensitivity and significantly altered downstream gene transcription. These results provide novel insight into the feed-forward regulation of PACAP expression that may help initiate gonadotroph function at birth.

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Dr. Rongquiang Yang performed the majority of the experiments as part of his Ph.D. dissertation. Dr. Yang wrote the initial draft of the manuscript.

Drs. Moore and Winters were responsible for the design and oversight of the experiments and for final editing of the manuscript. Dr. Moore also performed some of the experiments presented in this manuscript.

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### Keywords

Pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide; receptor; neuropeptide; gonadotrophs; promoter; pathway

## 1. Introduction

Gonadotropin synthesis is regulated by signals originating from the hypothalamus and gonads as well as the pituitary. Pituitary adenylate cyclase activating polypeptide (PACAP) is both a hypophysiotropic and a paracrine regulator of gonadotrophs. PACAP binds to G protein-coupled receptors, and activates calcium mobilization and stimulates the cAMP/ protein kinase A (PKA) second messenger system in gonadotrophs (1–3). PACAP has been demonstrated to modify gonadotroph responsiveness to GnRH (3–8) and to regulate each of the gonadotropin subunit genes directly (9–12). The effect of PACAP to inhibit the synthesis of FSH $\beta$  and decrease GnRH-R is partly by stimulating follistatin transcription in gonadotrophs and folliculostellate cells (4,8,13) which blocks up-regulation by activin (14,15). PACAP and its receptors are expressed within gonadotrophs in the rat pituitary and by immortalized gonadotroph cell lines. Therefore, self-regulation of pituitary PACAP production may play an important role in gonadotroph function.

At the time of birth there is a dramatic rise in GnRH-R and FSH $\beta$  gene expression (15–19). We reported previously that PACAP and follistatin expression levels are high in the embryonic pituitary, and decline significantly and in parallel at birth (15). From those results, we hypothesize that an interruption in PACAP self-regulation from the embryonic to newborn anterior pituitary partly initiates the transition from fetal to newborn gonadotroph function by its effect on follistatin production.

Little is known however, about the mechanisms that regulate pituitary PACAP gene expression. Both GnRH and androgens have been shown to increase PACAP expression in gonadotroph cell lines (20,21). In addition, treatment of adult rats with PACAP increases pituitary PACAP mRNA levels (22) and PACAP mRNA levels in primary pituitary cell cultures decline following treatment with the PACAP6–38 antagonist (23). Furthermore, PACAP mRNA levels are increased in neuroblastoma cells (24) and in PC12 pheochromocytoma cells (25) by forskolin and by exogenous PACAP. These findings suggest a potential cAMP dependent, feed-forward auto-regulatory mechanism for PACAP expression.

The immortalized gonadotroph cell lines,  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2, have been utilized extensively to investigate the influence of PACAP on the regulation of each of the gonadotropins and the GnRH receptor (4,9,10,26,27). The  $\alpha$ T3–1 cell line represents developmentally immature gonadotrophs as it expresses the common gonadotropin  $\alpha$ -subunit (*Cga*) and GnRH receptor (GnRH-R) but does not express LH $\beta$  or FSH $\beta$  subunits (28). The more mature L $\beta$ T2 gonadotroph cells express *cga* and GnRH-R and also express high levels of LH $\beta$  as well as low, but stimulus- responsive levels of FSH $\beta$  (29,30). Both cell lines express the PACAP specific receptor, PAC<sub>1</sub>R, at variable levels. In addition, PACAP mRNA is readily detectable in untreated  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells while detection in L $\beta$ T2 cells requires exogenous stimulation

(7,21,22). Therefore, the combined use of  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells represents an excellent model to evaluate differential expression levels of PACAP in gonadotrophs and mimics its developmental pattern within the perinatal pituitary (15).

In this series of experiments, we used  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells to investigate the mechanisms by which PACAP self-regulation occurs as an initial step toward understanding the sequence of events that leads to the dramatic and rapid perinatal decline in pituitary PACAP expression. Mouse PACAP promoter-reporter constructs (1.2 kb) were transfected into  $\alpha$ T3– 1 and L $\beta$ T2 gonadotroph cells, as models of immature and mature gonadotrophs, respectively (28). We measured basal and stimulated promoter activity in the two cell lines in the absence or presence of PACAP, and demonstrate the involvement of the PKA, PKC and MEKI signaling pathways in the activity of the PACAP promoter. Furthermore, we identified potential promoter regions, which mediate the regulation of PACAP. We also utilized gene-array analysis to determine which signaling pathways are modulated in gonadotrophs following PACAP exposure.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Animals

All experiments were conducted in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals according to a protocol approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Louisville. Timed-pregnant Sprague-Dawley rats were delivered from the supplier (Charles Rivers Laboratories) and housed for one week with free access to rat chow and water. Pregnant females were sacrificed on gestational day 19, and the pituitaries from the fetuses were collected using a stereoscopic microscope. Pituitaries were also collected from male rat pups sacrificed on postnatal days 10 and 30.

### 2.2. Cell Culture

 $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 immortalized mouse pituitary gonadotroph cells were kindly provided by Dr. Pamela Mellon (University of California, San Diego, CA).  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells were grown in Eagle's Minimal Essential Medium (MEM) containing glucose (4.5 g/L), NaHCO3 (2.2 g/L) and HEPES (5.96 g/L), with penicillin, streptomycin, and fluconazole, and supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). L $\beta$ T2 cells were grown in Dulbecco's MEM (DMEM) containing HEPES (22.5 mM), NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (40 mM), 10% charcoal-stripped FBS, penicillin, streptomycin, and fluconazole.

#### 2.3. Mouse PACpro-luc reporter constructs

A PCR generated cDNA fragment, including the promoter (-1218 - + 36) region of mouse PACAP, was cloned into the pSTBlue-1 vector by TA cloning. The cDNA was sequenced, and found to be identical to published sequences. The cDNA was excised with restriction enzymes, and cloned into the pGL3-Basic vector (Promega, Madison, WI). Truncated promoter sequences were produced utilizing the restriction enzyme *Kpn I* paired with one of four other enzymes (-1018 by *Spe I*, -700 by *Bts I*, -541 by *Nde I*, -200 by *Aat II*) followed by re-ligation. A CRE site mutation in the full- length construct was constructed utilizing the restriction enzyme *Aat II*, which disrupts the CRE site sequence.

### 2.4. Expression vectors

A dominant-negative inhibitor protein expression vector of CREB (31), A-CREB, and an empty vector (filler) plasmid, pRc/CMV500 were obtained from Dr. C. Vinson (Department of Neuroscience, The Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD, 21205, USA). A rat PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short expression vector was obtained from Dr. Laurent Journot (National Center of Scientific Research, Montpellier, France). A human PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 expression vector was obtained from Dr. Eve Lutz (Royal College, Glasgow, UK)

## 2.5. Transfections

For transfections,  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells were plated in 6-well plates at 1–2×10<sup>6</sup> cells/well, and used within 1–2 days at 50–80% confluency. Approximately 3 h prior to transfection, the media were replaced with fresh media (MEM+10% dextran-coated-charcoal-stripped FBS). Cells were transfected with Fugene-6 or GeneJammer Transfection Reagent (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) according to the manufacturers' protocols. For each plasmid, phRL-TK vector (Promega, Madison, WI) was co-transfected into the cells (0.2 mM) to use Renilla luciferase expression to monitor transfection efficiency. After 24 h, cells were washed and incubated with fresh media. After 48 h, cells were treated with test substances for six hours; cells were then lysed and assayed for luciferase activity.

### 2.6. RNA extraction and reverse transcription

Total RNA was prepared from cultured  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells and rat pituitaries using the QIAGEN RNAeasy Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) following the instructions of the manufacturer. 1µg total RNA from each sample was reverse- transcribed using Superscript III reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY) primed with *oligo(dT)* following the instructions from Invitrogen. Semi-quantitative PCR analyses were normalized with parallel PCR amplification of mouse GAPDH mRNA utilizing specific PCR primers (forward, 5'-GGCATTGCTCTCAATGACAA-3'; reverse, 5'-TGTGAGGGAGATGCTCAGTG-3'), 19 cycles by denaturing for 30 s at 94 °C, annealing for 30 s at 58 °C, extension for 45 s at 72 °C.

### 2.7. Restriction enzyme analysis of the various PAC<sub>1</sub>R subtypes

PCR is first performed to amplify PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA. To specifically identify the PAC<sub>1</sub>R isoforms, the PCR band corresponding to the insert form (HIP, HOP1 or HOP2) of the receptor is cut from an agarose gel and the products are purified by extraction and precipitation. These products are then digested with one of three cassette-specific restriction enzymes and subsequently rerun on an agarose gel. The restriction enzymes used are *Ava II* (which cuts HIP, but not HOP forms), *Blp I* (which cuts both HOP forms, but not HIP), and *Pvu II* (which cuts HOPI, but not HOP2 nor HIP).

### 2.8. Microarray analysis

Microarray analysis was performed at the University of Louisville Microarray Core Facility according to instructions from Affymetrix (Santa Clara, CA). mRNA was converted into double stranded cDNA using a *T7-oligo (dT)* promoter primer sequence. The double-stranded cDNA was purified and served as a template in the subsequent *in vitro* transcription

reactions which were carried out in the presence of T7 RNA polymerase and a biotinylated nucleotide analog/ribonucleotide mix for cRNA amplification. The biotinylated cRNA was purified, fragmented, and used in the hybridization cocktail containing control oligonucleotide B2 and four controls bacterial and phage cDNA (BioB, BioC, BioD, cre). The labeled cRNA was hybridized to the Mouse Genome 430 2.0 Array (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA), using the protocol provided by Affymetrix. The Mouse Genome 430 2.0 Array is comprised of over 45,000 probe sets representing over 21,000 well-substantiated mouse genes. The sequence clusters were created from the UniGene database (Build 107, June 2002) and then refined by analysis and comparison with the publicly available draft assembly of the mouse genome from the Whitehead Institute for Genome Research (MGSC, April 2002). Alterations in RNA transcript levels were analyzed using Partek Genomics Suite 6.2 (Partek Inc., St. Louis, MO). Data analysis was performed using Partek Genomics Suite 6.2 (Partek Inc., St. Louis, MO). The Affymetrix probe level signal values were summarized using the RMA algorithm. Significantly up- or down-regulated genes were identified by analysis of variance (ANOVA) with FDR-corrected p-values < 0.05. The genes that showed 2-fold induction or 2-fold suppression were transferred to separate up and down lists, respectively. The gene sets with an FDR corrected p-value of less than 0.05 were identified in these lists, and Ingenuity Pathway Analysis software (Ingenuity Systems Inc., Redwood City, CA) was used to interpret the interactive pathway networks between the selected genes from the microarray data.

#### 2.8. Statistical Analyses

All luciferase assays were performed with triplicate samples, and all experiments were repeated at least three times. Values were expressed as mean  $\pm$ SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's test. P<0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## 3. Results

# 3.1. Comparison of PACAP and basal PACAP promoter activity in $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells and PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA expression in $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells and pre and postnatal rat pituitaries.

PACAP is biosynthesized in and secreted by  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells as well as primary pituitary cells (22). However, PACAP mRNA is nearly undetectable in L $\beta$ T2 cells (21) (Fig.1A). Similarly, the PACAP promoter construct is substantially more active under basal culture conditions in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells when compared to L $\beta$ T2 cells (Fig. 1B). Thus, the level of expression in these immature and mature cell lines, respectively, parallels the dramatic decrease in PACAP expression that occurs at or about the time of birth (15). Analysis of PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA confirmed that both cell lines express the long (single cassette) and short (null cassette) forms of PAC<sub>1</sub>R (Fig. 1C). In  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells, the predominant form of PAC<sub>1</sub>R is the long form, and the level is substantially higher than in L $\beta$ T2 cells. Both isoforms are expressed at near equal levels in L $\beta$ T2 cells. Restriction enzyme analysis of the long form in both cell lines revealed a composition that includes a mixture of the HOP1 and HOP2 cassettes and an absence of the HIP cassette (Fig. 1D). The level of PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA expression in pre- and postnatal rats (1E and F) reveals that HOP1 isoform predominates in the fetal pituitary, and

that HOP1 and short isoforms are present in nearly equal levels postnatally, which is recapitulated in the immature and mature cell lines, respectively.

### 3.2. Effects of PACAP on mouse PACAP promoter activity in gonadotroph cells

To examine how PACAP affects activation of the mouse PACAP promoter in gonadotrophs, we utilized a luciferase-reporter construct containing the mouse PACAP promoter (-1218 - +36). Figure 2 shows that PACAP promoter activity is stimulated by PACAP in both  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells but is more sensitive to stimulation by PACAP in L $\beta$ T2 cells possibly because of the difference in basal activity (Fig. 2A and B). In addition, PACAP-stimulated PACAP promoter activity in both cell lines is blocked by pretreatment with a PACAP antagonist (PACAP 6–38, 1  $\mu$ M) while basal PACAP promoter activity is decreased by the PACAP antagonist only in the basally active  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells (Fig 2C and D).

## 3.3. Effects of PACAP on mouse PACAP promoter activity when PAC<sub>1</sub>R receptors are overexpressed in gonadotroph cell lines

The PAC<sub>1</sub>R specific receptor short and Hop1 forms are expressed in the rat pituitary (32) and in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells (2). To study their role in PACAP feed-forward regulation individually, we overexpressed the PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short or -Hop1 in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells (Fig. 3A). When these cell lines were also transfected with the mPACpro-luc reporter construct, 10 nM PACAP significantly increased PACAP- stimulated promoter activation more strongly in PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short and PAC<sub>1</sub>-R-Hop1 transfected cells than in wild-type (WT)  $\alpha$ T3–1 (Fig. 3B) or L $\beta$ T2 cells (Fig. 3C). Compared to WT L $\beta$ T2 cells, PAC<sub>1</sub>R-short overexpression induced a 3-fold increase in PACAP stimulated PACAP promoter activity while PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 overexpression resulted in a 4-fold increase in PACAP activation of the PACAP promoter (Fig. 3C). Based on the level of expression following transfection (Fig. 3A), the Hop1 form appears to be more effective than the short form in increasing PACAP-stimulated PACAP promoter activity in L $\beta$ T2 cells. In  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells, PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 is expressed endogenously at a high level, and therefore only PAC<sub>1</sub>R-short overexpression significantly increased PACAP stimulation of the PACAP promoter. Thus, both the short and the Hop1 PAC<sub>1</sub>R effectively transduce the PACAP signal to the PACAP promoter.

## 3.4. Evaluation of second messenger cascades involved in stimulation of the PACAP promoter

PACAP was named because it increases cAMP production, but it also increases PKC activity and Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization (1,33–35). However, little is known about the signaling pathways by which PACAP stimulates the PACAP promoter. To determine the important pathways that regulate PACAP promoter activity, we used the pharmacological inhibitors BIM (PKC inhibitor), H-89 (PKA inhibitor) and PD98059 (MAPK inhibitor) in cultures of  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells transfected with the mPACpro-luc reporter construct. Basal promoter activity in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells was decreased when the PKA (50%) or MAPK (30%) pathways (Fig. 4A) were inhibited but not when PKC signaling was blocked with BIM at doses previously shown to inhibit forskolin-stimulated follistatin promoter activity (36). In contrast, basal promoter activity was reduced by H89 but was unaffected by PKC or MAPK inhibitors in L $\beta$ T2 cells (Fig. 4B). In  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells stimulated with PACAP, H-89 and PD98059 markedly decreased PACAP promoter activity while BIM was less effective (Fig. 4C). The MAPK inhibitor was

substantially less effective in blocking PACAP-stimulated PACAP promoter activity in L $\beta$ T2 cells. These results demonstrate that the PKC, PKA and MAPK pathways are all involved in PACAP induced PACAP promoter activity and suggest that the PKA and MAPK pathways are more critical mediators of PACAP promoter activity in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells.

## 3.5. Regional analysis of basal and stimulated mouse PACAP promoter activity in $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells

By analysis of previously reported gene sequences, we identified a series of putative binding sites for transcription factors on the PACAP promoter that share at least 80% homology to their consensus sequences, and are present in pituitary (Fig. 5) (37,38). Based on these findings, we constructed five mouse PACAP promoter reporter constructs, each with a sequential truncation of approximately 200 bp, and treated  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells for 6 hours with 10 nM PACAP or control media.

Fig. 5 (A, B) shows changes in basal promoter activity after sequential promoter truncation. We found two regions that may mediate an inhibitory signal to the PACAP promoter. One element is located between position -700 and -541 and is effective both in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells. The second region, between -1218 and -1018, appears to mediate inhibition only in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells. In figure 5C and D, in which cells were treated with PACAP, the most distal region of the mouse PACAP promoter (-1218 to -1018) was essential for maximum PACAP induced activity in  $\alpha$ T3–1 but not in L $\beta$ T2 cells. The promoter region from -541 to -200 contains elements that mediate the effects of PACAP in both cell lines evidenced by a pronounced loss of promoter activation following deletion of this region (Fig. 5C and D). The middle region of the PACAP promoter (-700 to -541) does not influence gonadotroph responsiveness to PACAP induced promoter activation.

#### 3.6. PACAP promoter activity requires CREB activation.

PKA and MAPK signaling mediate PACAP expression in gonadotrophs, and serial deletions of the PACAP promoter identified the -541 to -200 region to be critical for promoter activity. This region of the mouse PACAP promoter contains sequences with homology to the consensus CRE (-205 and -179) element, a well-described mediator of PKA signaling as well as two putative AP-1 sites (-448 and -275). Furthermore, we showed that PACAP induces CRE activities utilizing a luciferase reporter construct with a CRE element in both cell lines (23). To evaluate the role of CREB signaling,  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct along with increasing concentrations of an expression plasmid encoding a dominant negative inhibitor of CREB (A-CREB) and a filler plasmid (31). A-CREB decreased both basal (Fig. 6A and B) and PACAP-induced (Fig. 6C and D) promoter activity dose-dependently to a similar extent in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells.

We also constructed a reporter construct containing a mutation of the -205 CRE sequence in the -1218/+36 mPACpro-luc construct. In both cell lines, -205 CRE site mutation significantly attenuated PACAP- induced promoter activity compared to the WT reporter construct (Fig. 7A and B). Furthermore, neither overexpression of the PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short nor Hop1 PACAP receptor isoforms in L $\beta$ T2 cells rescued the loss of stimulation caused by the

CRE mutation although there were marginally significant increases compared to  $L\beta T2$  cells with native PACAP receptor expression (Fig. 7C).

## 3.7. Gene-array analysis of canonical signaling cascades regulated by PACAP signaling in LβT2 cells

To evaluate novel genes that could be either up- or down-regulated by PACAP signaling, we performed gene chip microarray analysis comparing untreated or 10 nM PACAP- treated L $\beta$ T2 cells and PACAP- treated L $\beta$ T2 cells with PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 overexpression, the major form in aT3-1 cells, and in the E19 mouse pituitary. As depicted in Table 1, PACAP treatment for 6 h of LBT2 cells transfected with control vector resulted in significant (p<0.01, change > 20%) alterations in 223 genes (106 increased, 117 decreased). PACAP treatment of HOP1 transfected LBT2 cells resulted in significant alterations of 393 genes (171 increased, 222 decreased), of which, 113 (44 increased, 69 decreased) were common to PACAP- treated control cells. Ingenuity Systems Pathway Analysis revealed significant changes in gene expression of putative molecules related to specific canonical pathways (Table 1). PACAP treatment of control- and Hop1-transfected LBT2 cells resulted in changes in combinations of molecules that indicate an overall increase in PKA, PI3K/AKT, ERK/ MAPK and NGF signaling. PACAP treatment resulted in significant changes in specific molecules known to regulate gonadotroph function such as increases in the PKA (PRKACB, CREM) and PI3K/AKT (cRAF, Bcl-XL, p21cip1, eNOS) signaling pathways while decreasing molecules in the ERK/MAPK (Myc, PIK3R1, TLN2) and BMP (BMPR2, Runx2) pathways. Overexpression of HOP1 PAC<sub>1</sub>R lead to additional changes in gonadotroph-influencing pathways including significant increases in molecules in the JAK/ STAT (Bcl-XL, p21cip1, RAF1, CDKN1A), TGF-β (INHa, RAF1, HNF [acvr1 and acvrIIa were decreased]) and Interleukin (BAX1, RAF1, GNB3, CDH1, CXCL 10/11, I-TAC) signaling pathways and significant decreases in molecules in the GnRH (EGR1, GnRHr), insulin and IGF-1 (FOX01, SOCS2), EGF (NRAS, PIK3R1, MAP3K), Wnt/β-catenin (βcatenin, ACVR1, ACVR2A, Frizzled family receptor), gonadal hormone (HSP90, SRY) signaling pathways. Many other molecules related to signaling pathways not previously associated with gonadotroph function were also significantly altered.

### 4. Discussion

Pituitary PACAP expression is high in the fetus, and dramatically decreases at or around the time of birth, initiating a series of events that result in sexual maturation (15,39) which we have proposed reflects a feed-forward mechanism for the paracrine regulation of PACAP expression. Because few reports have examined the auto-regulation of PACAP expression, we designed experiments to study PACAP-evoked activation of the mouse PACAP promoter in gonadotrophs. We first examined basal PACAP transcription in two gonadotroph cell lines,  $\alpha T3-1$  and L $\beta T2$  cells.  $\alpha T3-1$  cells were again found to have a much higher level of basal PACAP mRNA (7,21,22) as well as higher PACAP promoter activity when compared to L $\beta T2$  cells, and to also have much higher levels of cAMP signaling (36). L $\beta T2$  cells are viewed as more mature because they express LH $\beta$  and FSH $\beta$  as well as the common a subunit mRNA. Thus, the relative levels of PACAP expression in immature  $\alpha T3-1$  cells and

mature  $L\beta T2$  cells recapitulate the expression levels found in the fetal and postnatal pituitary (15), and provide a model to study gonadotrophs with varying levels of PACAP expression.

The -1218 to +36 region of the mouse PACAP promoter was cloned into a luciferasereporter plasmid. The promoter was constitutively active in both gonadotroph cell lines. Higher PACAP expression in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells was recapitulated by higher basal levels of the PACAP promoter construct, and explain why the PACAP antagonist suppresses basal promoter activity only in the  $\alpha$ T3–1 cell line. PACAP promoter activity was significantly stimulated by PACAP in both cell lines even though the level of expression of PAC<sub>1</sub>R is much lower in L $\beta$ T2 cells. Furthermore, dose- response curves revealed that L $\beta$ T2 cells are more sensitive to PACAP treatment than are  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells. Decreased responsiveness in  $\alpha$ T3– 1 cells could potentially be due to the already high basal cAMP levels (36), higher endogenous PACAP levels, or by receptor desensitization due to the high endogenous PACAP levels.

Alternate splicing of  $PAC_1R$  has been extensively studied but the impact on various signaling pathways in gonadotrophs is not well understood. The short and HOP 1/2 isoforms have been shown to have equal effects on cAMP and IP<sub>3</sub> production (40) and signaling through each is PKA and PLC dependent and can stimulate ERK signaling through a rasindependent mechanism that relies on influx of extracellular calcium (3,41,42). Both the short and the hop-1 receptor isoforms are expressed in normal gonadotrophs (43). Single cell PCR analysis revealed that an individual gonadotroph can express either or both receptor isoforms with no difference in the characteristic calcium response to PACAP stimulation (43). Overexpression of either the PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short or Hop1 forms substantially increased PACAP- stimulated PACAP promoter activity in L $\beta$ T2 cells with much smaller increases in aT3-1 cells. These differences may be due to the much higher level of endogenous PAC<sub>1</sub>R expression in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells (Fig 1C). The higher level of endogenous PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop than  $PAC_1R$  short in  $\alpha T3-1$  cells may explain why over-expression of  $PAC_1-R$ -short more effectively increased PACAP transcription in these cells. The relative level of PAC<sub>1</sub>R expression in the gonadotroph cell lines also mimics the observed changes in rat pituitaries between pre- and postnatal development (Fig 1E) with the Hop1 form predominating on E19 and a substantial increase in the short form postnatally. Moreover, the Hop-1 form was more effective than the Short form as an activator of PACAP transcription in L $\beta$ T2 cells even though the level of receptor expression, both endogenously and with overexpression (Fig. 3A), was similar, implying variable activation of different signaling pathways.

PAC<sub>1</sub>R is known to activate several signaling pathways including the PKA, PKC and MAPK pathways (44–46), and while all isoforms stimulate cAMP production, the Hop1 isoform also stimulates PLD (47). BIM, H-89 and PD98059 were used to disrupt the PKC, PKA, and MAPK pathways, respectively, in un-stimulated and PACAP-stimulated  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells. The results using H-89 imply that the PKA pathway plays a key role in PACAP promoter activity both in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells. Blocking the MAPK pathway also markedly inhibited basal and PACAP -stimulated PACAP expression in Hop-1 rich  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells. On the other hand, MAPK signaling appears to play a lesser role in PACAP selfregulation in the more mature L $\beta$ T2 cell line in which MAPK was demonstrated to have a regulatory role in GnRH-stimulated PACAP expression (21).

In a regional analysis of the mouse PACAP promoter, we found three potential regions which could play a role in gonadotroph PACAP expression. The region between -1218 and -1018 appears to inhibit basal activity in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells whereas -700 to -541 is inhibitory for basal activity in both cell lines. Sequence analysis of -1218 and -1018 revealed a putative PR/GR binding site. The region from -700 to -541 may mediate an inhibitory signal for basal PACAP regulation, especially in L $\beta$ T2 cells, but is without effect when either cell line is stimulated by PACAP. In this region, there is a consensus binding site for SMAD3, a transcription factor which, after its phosphorylated form complexes with the common SMAD4, mediates effects of multiple regulatory proteins in the pituitary including activin, bone morphogenic proteins BMP 6 and 7, growth differentiation factor 9 (GDF9) and GnRH (48,49). SMAD3 was previously shown to be essential for FSH synthesis and FSH $\beta$  transcription (50,51).

Region -541 to -200 of the mouse PACAP promoter was determined to be critical for promoter activity in both cell lines. A similar region was previously found to be essential for GnRH stimulation of the rat PACAP promoter in LBT2 cells (21). Sequence analysis revealed a putative CRE binding site located at -205. Its binding protein, the CREB-family, is dependent on the PKA pathway (52). Over-expression of a CREB dominant-negative expression vector in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells revealed that CRE activation is essential for basal and stimulated PACAP promoter activity. The same result was obtained with a CREsite mutant reporter construct. Furthermore, overexpression of  $PAC_1R$  did not reverse these results. Therefore, stimulation of PACAP promoter requires participation of the CRE-family. These results imply that PKA signaling induces CRE-family transcript factor binding to the PACAP promoter which may be the most important regulatory pathway for PACAP expression. PACAP has also been shown to stimulate the MAPK pathway leading to cFOS induction (12). Both the mouse and rat PACAP promoters contain AP1 binding sequences at -448 and -274, and mutation of these sequences significantly decreases GnRH-stimulation of the rat promoter (21). However, mutation of the -205 CRE alone is sufficient to completely block PACAP- stimulated PACAP transcription in aT3-1 cells (Fig. 7). These results suggest that interruption of cAMP signaling may be the mechanism for the developmental decline in pituitary PACAP expression in vivo (15) and for the lower level of expression in mature L $\beta$ T-2 than in immature  $\alpha$ T3–1 immortalized gonadotroph cells.

Despite nearly undetectable levels of PACAP mRNA with L $\beta$ T2 cells, basal activity of the PACAP reporter construct was observable and suppressed by pharmacological inhibitors and dominant-negative A-CREB expression. However basal expression was not suppressed by removal of the -205 CRE sequence that is essential for PACAP and GnRH stimulation (21) of the PACAP promoter. This suggests that the proximal PACAP promoter, which includes a CRE at -179, is all that is required for basal PACAP transcription in the  $\alpha$ T3-1 and L $\beta$ T2 cell lines. The endogenous factor which permits basal activity of the PACAP promoter is unknown but is likely not specific to PACAP promoter activity. Similar to this investigation of PACAP promoter activity, disruption of the cAMP-PKA-CREB pathway also has been demonstrated to reduce basal promoter activity of reporter constructs for follistatin, *cga*, and CRE-responsive reporters in L $\beta$ T2 cells (36,53–55).

Additional analysis revealed some minor differences between the mouse and rat PACAP promoters regarding responsiveness and promoter sequences. Both the rat and mouse PACAP promoters were initially tested in luciferase reporter constructs in  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells. The mouse PACAP promoter displayed higher basal and forskolin-stimulated activity when compared to the rat promoter (data not shown). For this reason, and the fact that the  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells are immortalized mouse gonadotroph lines, we elected to utilize the mouse PACAP promoter in our further experiments. Analysis of the mouse and rat PACAP promoter sequences revealed an additional AP-1 site at the –948 position of the mouse promoter that is absent in the rat promoter. A potential TATA box, located at position –605 of the mouse promoter is also absent in the rat PACAP promoter as well as a 29 bp sequence between –844 and –815 of the mouse promoter.

Because  $L\beta T2$  cells were found to be more responsive to PACAP exposure, and overexpression of the PAC<sub>1</sub>R-HOP resulted in the highest observed responsiveness, these experimental models were utilized to evaluate downstream targets of PACAP signaling. Global analysis of alterations in gene expression in LBT2 cells in response to PACAP stimulation confirmed known changes in gene expression and revealed changes in molecules not previously associated with PACAP signaling. PACAP receptors are known to stimulate the PKA and PI3K pathways, and molecules associated with these pathways were increased significantly in response to 6h PACAP exposure. Ingenuity Pathway Analysis predicted a net increase in ERK/MAPK signaling (Table 1) in response to PACAP, and MEK1 and MEK2 were both increased by PACAP. Confirmation of the importance of MAPK signaling was demonstrated by a significant decrease in PACAP promoter activity in the presence of a MEK1 inhibitor (Fig 4). The predicted decrease in BMP signaling was strongly influenced by the significant decrease in BMP receptor type II expression. BMPs have been demonstrated to selectively increase synthesis and secretion of FSH while PACAP has the opposite effect (56–59) so that the decreases in BMP receptor expression and signaling may contribute to the selective down regulation of FSH in response to PACAP.

Of particular interest were the changes in gene expression following overexpression of the Hop1 isoform. PAC1R-HOP is present at a high level in the pituitary of E19 rats and in immature  $\alpha$ T3–1 gonadotroph cells that also express high levels of PACAP and cAMP. Increased PACAP signaling through the Hop1 receptor led to increases in molecules related to interleukin signaling including molecules in the JAK/STAT signaling cascade. The interleukins have been shown to inhibit gonadotropin release, and stimulation of various interleukin signaling pathways may have a role in the suppressive effect of PACAP on FSH production (60–64). The predicted decrease in TGF $\beta$  signaling was strongly influenced by the observed decreased expression of the activin receptors I and IIa which may contribute to the low level of expression of FSH in fetal gonadotrophs in which PACAP expression is high. The gene array results also suggest that PACAP may influence EGF, IGF-1, insulin and Wnt/ $\beta$ -catenin as each of these pathways was predicted to be reduced following PACAP exposure of cells with PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 overexpression (65-71). Of particular interest were the effects of PACAP on GnRH signaling. PACAP exposure for 6h significantly decreased GnRH receptor expression and signaling, as well as in EGR1 expression in LBT2 cells with PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 overexpression. A decrease in these molecules was also observed in transgenic mice that overexpress PACAP in the pituitary (72). Pituitary PACAP transgenic mice have

lifelong suppression of gonadotropin secretion due in part to increased follistatin and decreased EGR1 and GnRH receptor expression (72). The global gene expression analysis reveals that PACAP may interact with multiple extracellular and intracellular signaling pathways to regulate its level of transcription and thereby gonadotroph function.

## 5. Conclusions

In summary, we investigated auto-regulation of the PACAP promoter in gonadotrophs. Using several complimentary approaches, we demonstrate that much of the up-regulation of PACAP expression in gonadotroph cells is through the PKA pathway. MAPK signaling is also important in the immature  $\alpha T_3-1$  cell line but much less so in mature L $\beta T_2$ gonadotroph cells. Thus PKA and MAPK signaling contribute to the high level of PACAP expression and cAMP production that typifies immature gonadotrophs. DNA regulatory elements in the proximal region (-541 to -200) of the PACAP promoter are essential for upregulation of PACAP, and one distal region may be important for down-regulation. Furthermore, we found that the -205 CRE-site is the most important in these regions for PACAP auto-regulation. We proposed previously that an increase in hypothalamic dopamine at birth, with subsequent suppression of cAMP signaling in gonadotrophs, may initiate the sequence of events that results in less PACAP and follistatin in neonates (15,72). This is the first report to identify specific regions of the mouse PACAP promoter that contribute to PACAP auto-regulation in gonadotrophs. The results suggest that experiments utilizing immortalized gonadotroph cell lines of varying stages of maturation have the potential to identify factors that regulate gonadotroph PACAP expression during development.

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## Highlights

• PKA and MAPK signaling contribute to PACAP auto-regulation

- A proximal CRE in the PACAP promoter is essential for PACAP autoregulation
- Gonadotroph cell lines mimic PACAP and PAC<sub>1</sub>R expression in the perinatal pituitary
- Suppression of cAMP signaling may initiate the decline in pituitary PACAP in neonates

Short

Gapdh

HOP1/HOP2

HIP/HOP2 HOP1



pvu II BID

Avu II Avu II pvu II BIP 387 = uncut PAC<sub>1</sub>R-long 328 = cut HOP1 specific 292 = cut HOP1 and HOP2

#### Figure 1.

Comparison of PACAP and basal PACAP promoter activity in aT3-1 and LBT2 cells and PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA expression in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells and pre and postnatal rat pituitaries. Semi-quantitative PCR analysis (A) of PACAP mRNA expression levels in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells. (B)  $\alpha$ T3 and L $\beta$ T2 cells were transfected with the pGL3 vector alone or the mPACproluc construct and cultured for six hours. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells. Data are expressed as fold difference normalized to pGL3 vector alone.\* Significantly different than control vector (P<0.05) by ANOVA. (C) Semi-quantitative PCR analysis of PAC<sub>1</sub>R and Gapdh mRNA levels in  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells. (D) Restriction enzyme analysis of HIP (Ava II), HOP 1 (Pvu II), and HOP 1/2 (Blp I) PAC1R isoforms. Semi-quantitative PCR (E) and restriction enzyme analysis (F) of PAC1R and Gapdh mRNA levels in pituitaries from male rats at embryonic day 19 (E19) and postnatal days (PN) 10 and 30. (E)

The PCR products were run through 2.5% agarose to separate the 387 and 384 base pair bands.



#### Figure 2.

 $\alpha$ T3–1 (A) and L $\beta$ T2 (B) cells were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct and treated for six hours with increasing concentrations (0–100 nM) of PACAP. In addition,  $\alpha$ T3–1 (C) and L $\beta$ T2 (D) cells were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct and treated for six hours with medium alone (control) or media containing 10 nM PACAP, 1 mM PACAP antagonist (6–38), or pretreatment with PACAP (6–38) for 30 min followed by 10 nM PACAP. Data are expressed as fold difference normalized to media alone. \* Significantly different than media alone (P<0.05) by ANOVA. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells.





## Figure 3.

PAC<sub>1</sub>R mRNA isoform expression in wild type  $\alpha$ T3–1 and L $\beta$ T2 cells, and cells transfected with PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Short or PAC<sub>1</sub>R-Hop1 expression vector (A).  $\alpha$ T3–1 cells (B) and L $\beta$ T2 (C) were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct (2.5 µg) and PAC<sub>1</sub>R expression vector (50 ng) and treated for six hours with 10 nM PACAP. Data are expressed as fold difference normalized to media alone. \* Significantly different than media alone (P<0.05) by ANOVA. Significantly different than wild-type cells with 10 nM PACAP (P<0.05) by Tukey's test. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells.



### Figure 4.

 $\alpha$ T3–1 (A, C) and L $\beta$ T2 (B, D) cells were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct and treated for six hours with media alone (A, B) or 10 nM PACAP (C, D) with or without the indicated concentrations of the PKC inhibitor, bisndolylmaleimide (BIM), the PKA inhibitor, H89, or the MEK1 inhibitor, PD98059. Data are expressed as fold difference or stimulation normalized to media alone. \* Significantly different than media alone (p<0.05) by ANOVA. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells.



#### Figure 5.

Above is a schematic diagram depicting the regions of the mouse PACAP promoter altered in this investigation. The transcription factors demarked by asterisks are of particular interest as they have been previously demonstrated to be involved in regulation of one or more of the gonadotropin subunit genes.  $\alpha T3-1$  (A, C) and L $\beta T2$  (B, D) cells were transfected with DNA constructs containing various lengths of the mouse PACAP promoter reporter construct (mPACpro-luc) and treated for six hours with media alone (A, B) or media containing 10 nM PACAP (C, D). Data are expressed as fold difference normalized to media alone treatment of mPACpro-luc transfected cells. \* Significantly different than -1218 promoter activity. Results are from three experiments with triplicate wells.



### Figure 6.

 $\alpha$ T3–1 (A, C) and L $\beta$ T2 (B, D) cells were transfected with the mPACpro-luc construct and with the indicated concentrations of expression plasmid coding for the dominant negative inhibitor of CREB (A-CREB), and a filler plasmid (CMV-500) to control for total transfected DNA amount. Transfected cells were treated for six hours with media alone (A, B) or 10 nM PACAP (C, D) and the cell lysates were collected for luciferase activity determination. Data are expressed as fold difference or stimulation normalized to media alone. \* Significantly different than media exposure alone (p<0.05) by ANOVA. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells.



### Figure 7.

 $\alpha$ T3–1 (A) and L $\beta$ T2 (B, C) cells were transfected with the CRE-mutant mPACpro-luc (A, B) construct and with the PAC<sub>1</sub>R expression plasmid. (C) Transfected cells were treated for six hours with media alone and 10 nM PACAP and the cell lysates were collected for luciferase activity determination. Data are expressed as fold difference to media alone. \* Significantly different than media alone with WT construct (P<0.05) by Tukey's test. Results were from three experiments with triplicate wells.

## Table 1.

Canonical pathways in which gene expression is affected significantly by PACAP signaling.  $\star$  = significantly greater in HOP1 transfected cells.

Altered by PACAP in b	oth	Specific to nat	ive receptors	Specific to HOP1 transfected
Up Regulated		Up Regulated		Up Regulated
PKA Signaling ★	Glutamate Metabolism		bolism	Ceremide Signaling
PI3K/AKT Signaling * Down Regulated				Inositol Metabolism
ERK/MAPK Signaling * Mismatch Repair in Eukaryotes				Inositol Phosphate Metabolism
NGF Signaling * Agrin Interactions at NMJ				IL-2 Signaling
Neurotrophin/TRK Signaling RAN Signaling				IL-8 Signaling
DHA Signaling Human Stem Cell Pluripotency				IL-17 Signaling
ALS Signaling ER Stress Pathway				VEGF Signaling
P53 Signaling				EGF Signaling
Down Regulated				Glucocorticoid Anti-inflamatory
EIF2 Signaling *				Insulin Receptor Signaling
ATM Signaling *				IGF-1 Signaling
BMP Signaling *				Apoptosis Signaling
mTOR Signaling				Cyclins and Cell Cycle Regulation
HGF Signaling				JAK/STAT Signaling
Role of CHKs in Cell Cv	cle Control			PTEN Signaling
				Fc Epsilon BI Signaling
Distribution of genes significantly altered > 20%				Down Regulated
				GnBH Signaling
	/			Prolactin Signaling
110 113 280				Androgen Signaling
				TGE-B Signaling
				Estrogen Recentor Signaling
				PDGE Signaling
				G2/M DNA Damage Regulation
				LPS-stimulated MARK Signaling
				CARK/INK Signaling
				SAFR/JINK Signaling
				Ga 12/13 Signaling
				Melatonin Signaling
				AMPK Signaling
Native HOP1 Percenters Transferred				CNTF Signaling
Rec	eptors	Transfected		Wnt/β-catenin
				Sonic Hedgehog Signaling
Alte	ered in Both	Native Only	HOP1 Only	PAK Signaling
Up-Regulated	44	62	127	Cell Cycle Regulation by BTGs