

Modulation of cytosolic phospholipase A₂ by PPAR activators in human preadipocytes

Yan J. Jiang, Grant M. Hatch, David Mymin, Thomas Dembinski, Edwin A. Kroeger, and Patrick C. Choy¹

The Lipid Research Group, Department of Biochemistry and Medical Genetics, Faculty of Medicine, 770 Bannatyne Avenue, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R3E 0W3

Abstract Cytosolic phospholipase A₂ (cPLA₂) is responsible for the release of arachidonic acid, a precursor for eicosanoid biosynthesis, from cellular phospholipids. The objective of this study is to examine the regulation of cPLA₂ by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) activators in preadipocyte SW872 (SW) cells. PPAR belong to the superfamily of nuclear hormone receptors that heterodimerize with the retinoid X receptor. In this study, the presence of both PPAR α and PPAR γ was confirmed in SW cells by positive identification of their mRNA in the cellular homogenate. Clofibrate, a PPAR α activator, caused an enhancement of ionophore A-23187-induced arachidonate release in SW cells. This increase resulted from an enhancement of cPLA₂ activity, which was caused by an increase in enzyme protein. Clofibrate at lower concentrations (10–200 μ M) produced increases in the mRNA levels of cPLA₂ in a dose-response manner. At higher concentrations (>400 μ M), clofibrate treatment resulted in the attenuation of the cPLA₂ mRNA level and protein expression. We postulate that clofibrate, acting through the PPAR α , caused an induction in the transcription of cPLA₂ gene, which led to an increase in the cPLA₂ protein. The observed increase in arachidonate release in SW cells appeared to be a direct result of the enhanced cPLA₂ activity.—Jiang, Y. J., G. M. Hatch, D. Mymin, T. Dembinski, E. A. Kroeger, and P. C. Choy. **Modulation of cytosolic phospholipase A₂ by PPAR activators in human preadipocytes.** *J. Lipid Res.* 2001. 42: 716–724.

Supplementary key words cPLA₂ • PPAR α • clofibrate • preadipocytes • arachidonic acid • SW cells • COX-2 • peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) (EC 3.1.1.4) belongs to a group of enzymes that catalyzes the hydrolysis of the phospholipids at the *sn*-2 position. This group of enzymes plays a central role in a variety of cellular processes, and the products of the reaction are involved in host defense and signal transduction (1, 2). PLA₂ are classified into several major types according to their primary structure, subcellular localization, calcium requirement, and substrate specificity (reviewed in 3–6). In mammalian cells, the 14-kDa secretory PLA₂ (type II) (7) and the 85–110-kDa cytosolic PLA₂ (type IV) (8–10) are the prominent types. The cytosolic PLA₂ (cPLA₂) is different from other PLA₂ types in that it is an intracellular enzyme with high molecular

weight and has a high degree of specificity for the arachidonoyl group. The arachidonic acid released by the action of PLA₂ may be converted into eicosanoids via the cyclooxygenase (COX) pathway, leading to the synthesis of prostaglandins and thromboxanes (11, 12). In view of its importance in lipid homeostasis, the activity of cPLA₂ is regulated via several tiers of control. The post-translational modification is responsible for the rapid activation of cPLA₂ in response to a variety of physiological stimuli, including the calcium-dependent translocation to the membrane fraction via the CaLB domain (13, 14). Alternatively, the enzyme activity is enhanced by phosphorylation, a process mediated by mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase, as well as by the indirect activation by protein kinase C and G-protein-coupled receptors (15). For prolonged responses, the expression of cPLA₂ is regulated at the transcriptional level by mediators such as cytokines and growth factors, including interferon-gamma (16), macrophage colony stimulating factor (17), tumor necrosis factor-alpha (18, 19), epidermal growth factor (20), and glucocorticoid (21). The regulation of cPLA₂ activity by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR), however, has not been fully explored.

PPAR belong to a subgroup of the nuclear receptor superfamily of transcription factors. The functional DNA binding of these factors would require the ligand-induced heterodimerization with retinoid X receptor (22). Three different types of PPAR, α , γ , and δ , have been identified. They are encoded from separate genes, have distinct tissue distribution, and carry out different functions. The PPAR are activated by a variety of fatty acids and arachidonic acid metabolites, as well as by hypolipidemic agents such as clofibrate (23). Although the direct effect of PPAR in phospholipid catabolism has not been demonstrated,

Abbreviations: COX, cyclooxygenase; cPLA₂, cytosolic phospholipase A₂; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; SW cells, human preadipocyte SW872 cells.

¹ To whom correspondence should be addressed.

the activation of PPAR α has been shown to affect lipid metabolism in liver, intestine, and kidney (22, 24). For example, the activation of PPAR α causes an enhancement in lipid oxidation, an alteration in lipoprotein metabolism, and an inhibition of vascular inflammation (22, 24, 25). In addition, the activation of PPAR γ has been implicated as a mediator for the differentiation of preadipocytes into adipocytes and provides a mechanism for thiazolidinedione to exert its effect during in vivo insulin sensitization (26). Recently, PPAR γ has been shown to be associated with the inhibition of human colorectal tumorigenesis mediated by nonsteroid anti-inflammatory drugs (27). Because preadipocytes contain both lipogenesis and lipolysis gene sets, they serve as a good model to study the modulation of cPLA₂ expression on PPAR ligand stimulation.

We reported previously that lysophosphatidylcholine caused an elevation of cellular Ca²⁺ and the activation of protein kinase C, which resulted in an increased release of arachidonate in endothelial cells (28) and in H9c2 cells (29). In the current study, the regulation of cPLA₂ for the release of arachidonic acid by PPAR α was investigated. Clofibrate, an activator of PPAR α , was found to up-regulate the expression of cPLA₂ and COX-2 in preadipocytes.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), Ham's F12 nutrition mixture (F12), phosphate-buffered saline, and clofibrate were obtained from Sigma Chemical Company (St. Louis, MO). Heat-inactivated newborn calf serum, TRIZOL Reagent, Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase, *Taq* DNA polymerase, gentamycin, and trypsin were purchased from Life Technologies, Inc. Ribonuclease inhibitor and deoxynucleotides were obtained from Promega Inc. (Madison, WI). Both the cPLA₂ polyclonal antibody and the cPLA₂ protein standard were generous gifts from the Genetics Institute (Boston, MA). Polyclonal (rabbit) anti-PPAR α antibody was purchased from Affinity BioReagents, Inc. (Golden, CO). 4-[3-(4-Iodophenyl)-2-(4-nitrophenyl)-2H-5-tetrazolol]-1,3-benzene disulfonate (WST-1) was purchased from Roche Inc. (Quebec, Canada). 5-Deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ (PGJ₂) was obtained from Cayman Chemical Co. (Ann Arbor, MI). Calcium ionophore A-23187 was obtained from Biomol Inc. (Plymouth Meeting, PA). [5,6,8,9,11,12,14,15-³H]-arachidonic acid (209.6 Ci/mmol), 1-stearoyl-2-[1-¹⁴C]arachidonoyl-*sn*-glycerol-3-phosphocholine (55 mCi/mmol) were obtained from Amersham Corp. All lipid standards were purchased from Serdary Research Laboratory (Ontario, Canada). Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) plates (silica gel G) were obtained from Fisher Scientific.

Cell culture and radiolabeling

Preadipocyte SW 872 (SW) cells, derived from human liposarcoma, were acquired from American Type Culture Collection. These cells were cultured at 37°C with 5% CO₂ and 95% air in DMEM/F12 nutrition mixture at a ratio of 3:1 and supplemented with 5% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS), 50- μ g/ml gentamycin, and 20 mM HEPES. Cells were allowed to reach 30% confluence in a monolayer and were then incubated in a medium containing either clofibrate, 5-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -PGJ₂, or

vehicle alone (<0.05% dimethyl sulfoxide, <0.05% ethanol) for the prescribed amount of time. The medium was changed every 48 h until the end of the experiment.

Subsequent to ligand treatment, cells were maintained in the DMEM/F12 medium (3:1) for the prescribed period of time. After three washes with HEPES-buffered saline (HBS), cells were incubated for 16 h in a DMEM/F12 medium containing 5% FBS, various concentrations of ligand, and 0.88–1.0 μ Ci/ml [5,6,8,9,11,12,14,15-³H]arachidonic acid (209.6 Ci/mmol) (30). HBS contained 140 mM NaCl, 4 mM KCl, 5.5 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES, 1.5 mM CaCl₂, 1.0 mM MgCl₂, and 0.025% (w/v) bovine serum albumin (BSA), with a final pH of 7.4.

Determination of arachidonate release

The arachidonate released from the cells was determined as described previously (28). At the end of the labeling with [5,6,8,9,11,12,14,15-³H]arachidonic acid, cells were rinsed three times with HBS containing 0.025% BSA to remove any nonspecific binding of arachidonic acid to the cell surface. Cells were then challenged with 10 μ M calcium ionophore A-23187 for 10 min. The labeled arachidonate released into the medium was determined by scintillation counting. The viability of cells under this treatment was examined by Trypan blue exclusion. Our result indicates that agonist stimulation had no deteriorating effect on the viability of these cells. Additional cell viability assays were performed with the WST-1 assay.

Electrophoresis and Western blot analyses

Samples containing 50 μ g of protein were subjected to sodium dodecylsulfate/7.5% polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) with cPLA₂ protein standard (15–20 ng) as a reference. Protein fractions in the gel were transferred to the hybond nitrocellulose membrane. The membrane was incubated with the polyclonal anti-cPLA₂ antibodies (1:1,500–2,000) dissolved in tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane (Tris)-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20 and 2% skim milk overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, the membrane was washed and incubated with the peroxidase-labeled anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (1:3,000) for 30 min at room temperature. Protein bands in the membrane were visualized by enhanced chemiluminescence. The relative intensities of the bands were analyzed by scanning the film and subsequently determined by Scion Image software.

For the detection of PPAR α in SW cells, 30–80 μ g protein samples were used. Following the transfer, the membrane containing protein samples was incubated with polyclonal anti-PPAR α antibodies (1:500–1,000). The membrane was then washed and incubated with the peroxidase-labeled anti-rabbit secondary antibodies (1:2,000) for 30 min at room temperature.

Determination of phospholipase A₂ activity

After clofibrate (10–400 μ M) treatment, SW cells were lysed by sonication in a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 1 mM ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA), 10 μ M leupetin, 10 μ M aprotinin, 20 mM NaF, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, and 1 mM dithiothreitol. The cell lysate was centrifuged at 100,000 *g* for 1 h. The supernatant was designated as the cytosolic fraction, and the pellet was designated as the membrane fraction. PLA₂ activity in the subcellular fractions was determined by the hydrolysis of 1-stearoyl-2-[1-¹⁴C]arachidonoyl-*sn*-glycerol-3-phosphocholine to yield the labeled arachidonate. The assay mixture contained 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 3.0 mM CaCl₂, 0.9 nmol of 1-stearoyl-2-[1-¹⁴C]arachidonoyl-*sn*-glycerol-3-phosphocholine (100,000 dpm/assay), and 10- μ g protein in a final volume of 100 μ l. The mixture was incubated for 30 min at 37°C, and the reaction was terminated by the addition of 1.5 ml of chloroform/methanol (2:1, v/v). Oleic acid was added as a fatty acid carrier. The fatty acid

was extracted and separated by TLC in a solvent system containing hexane/diethyl ether/acetic acid (70:30:1, v/v/v). The fatty acid fraction was visualized by exposure to iodine vapor, and the radioactivity of the arachidonic acid released was determined by liquid scintillation counting.

Isolation of total RNA

Total RNA was isolated using the TRIZOL Reagent according to the manufacturer's instruction. Briefly, cells were lysed with 1 ml of TRIZOL Reagent in each 100-mm dish, extracted with phenol-chloroform, and precipitated with ethanol. The RNA pellet was suspended in autoclaved, double-distilled water (31) and quantified by absorbance at 260 nm, using the 260:280 nm ratio as an index of purity. The integrity of the RNA was confirmed by denaturing agarose gel electrophoresis on the isolated RNA sample.

Polymerase chain reaction primers and reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reactions

The cDNA for cPLA₂, COX-1, COX-2, acyl-CoA oxidase (ACO), PPAR α , or PPAR γ was amplified with a pair of specific primers synthesized by Gibco Life Technology, Inc. The sequence of primers and the length of predicted polymerase chain reaction (PCR) products are listed in **Table 1**.

The first-strand cDNA from 1- μ g total RNA was synthesized by employing 150 U of moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (RT), 25 pmol of random hexamer primer, 20 U of ribonuclease inhibitor, 1 mM dithiothreitol, and 10 pmol each of the four deoxynucleotides, in a total volume of 15 μ l (32). The reaction mixture was incubated at 37°C for 1 h and terminated by boiling the sample at 95°C for 5 min. An aliquot of 1.0–1.2 μ l of the resultant cDNA preparation was used directly for each amplification reaction.

PCR was performed in 20- μ l reaction mixtures containing 8 pmol of each primer, 8 pmol of each dNTP, and 0.4-U *Taq* DNA polymerase. The mixture was overlaid with 30- μ l mineral oil to prevent evaporation and was incubated in a Perkin-Elmer DNA Thermal Cycler under the following conditions. For the PCR of glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), PPAR α or PPAR γ : 25–30 cycles, denaturation, 30 s at 94°C; annealing, 30 s at 55–60°C; extension, 30 s at 72°C. For the PCR of cPLA₂, COX-1 or COX-2: 25–32 cycles, denaturation, 60 s at 94°C; annealing, 60 s at 55–60°C; extension, 2 min at 72°C. The amplified RT-PCR product was analyzed by 1.2–1.8% agarose gels electrophoresis in 1 \times TAE buffer (40 mM Tris acetate, 2 mM sodium

EDTA) and visualized by staining with 0.5- μ g/ml ethidium bromide. The GAPDH band was used as an internal control.

An increase in the level of a specific mRNA is caused by either an increase in its rate of synthesis, a decrease in its rate of degradation, or a combination of these two processes. Hence, mRNA stability assays were conducted using actinomycin D as an inhibitor for RNA synthesis. SW cells were treated with clofibrate (50–200 μ M) for 48 h, and actinomycin D (5 μ g/ml) was added after clofibrate treatment. The mRNA levels for cPLA₂ and GAPDH were determined by RT-PCR at 4-h intervals following the actinomycin D treatment. No apparent changes in mRNA degradation were observed within a 24-h period, indicating that clofibrate did not cause any change in the degradation of cPLA₂ mRNA.

SYBR Green I real-time PCR analysis

Real-time quantitative PCR was performed using a fluorescence temperature cycler (LightCycler; Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany). The primers for amplification of cPLA₂ cDNA were the same as previously described. Amplification was done according to the manufacturer's general guidelines after optimization of the various reaction parameters. The reaction mixture (20 μ l) was placed in a glass capillary and contained 2 μ l of LightCycler-DNA Master SYBR Green I mix (*Taq* DNA polymerase, 10 \times PCR buffer, deoxynucleotide triphosphate mix, and SYBR Green I dye), 3 mM MgCl₂, and 0.4 pmol of each primer. PCR-grade H₂O instead of cDNA was used as a negative control.

The amplification program included the initial denaturation step at 95°C for 30 s. It was followed by 55 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 0 s, annealing at 55°C for 10 s, and extension at 72°C for 20 s. The temperature transition rate was 20°C/s. Fluorescence was determined at the end of each extension step. After amplification, a melting curve was acquired by heating the product at 20°C/s to 95°C, cooling it at 20°C/s to 60°C, keeping it at 60°C for 30 s, and then slowly heating it at 0.2°C/s to 97°C. Fluorescence was determined throughout the slow heating phase. Melting curves were used to determine the specific PCR products, which were further confirmed using conventional gel electrophoresis. Absolute copy numbers of the target transcripts per ng of transcribed total RNA were determined with cloned plasmid DNA for cPLA₂.

Sequence analysis of cDNA

The identity of each PCR product generated from RT-PCR was verified and confirmed by direct DNA sequencing. The gel

TABLE 1. Polymerase chain reaction primers

Name	Sequence	Start Site	Product Length (base pairs)
GAPDH (U)	5'-ACC CAC TCC ACC TTTG-3'		176
GAPDH (L)	5'-CTC TTG TGC TCT TGC TGG G-3'		
cPLA ₂ (U)	5'-AAA GAA CAC TAT AGG GAG AG-3'	609'–628'	502
cPLA ₂ (L)	5'-AAA GAG GTA AAG GGC ATT GT-3'	1072'–1091'	
COX-1 (U)	5'-TGC CCA GCT CCT GGC CCG CCG CTT-3'	174'–198'	306
COX-1 (L)	5'-GTG CAT CAA CAC AGG CGC CTC TTC-3'	456'–480'	
COX-2 (U)	5'-TTC AAA TGA GAT TGT GGG AAA ATT GCT-3'	2613'–2640'	307
COX-2 (L)	5'-AGA TCA TCT CTG CCT GAG TAT CTT-3'	3746'–3770'	
PPAR α (U)	5'-AAG TGC CTT TCT GTC GGG ATG-3'	601'–622'	433
PPAR α (L)	5'-CGT TCA GGT CCA AGT TTG CG-3'	1014'–1034'	
PPAR γ (U)	5'-CAG AAA TGC CTT GCA GTG GG-3'	276'–286'	289
PPAR γ (L)	5'-GGG GGT GAT GTG TTT GAA CTT G-3'	581'–602'	
ACO (U)	5'-TTA CAC ACA TCC TGG ACG GCA G-3'	108'–130'	762
ACO (L)	5'-GCT TGT TAC TCA GCG GTT TCA CG-3'	874'–897'	

Abbreviation: ACO, acyl-CoA oxidase.

fraction containing the target DNA, including COX-1, COX-2, cPLA₂, PPAR α , or PPAR γ , was excised and submitted for sequencing analysis. The sequence analysis was performed using the Perkin-Elmer Applied Biosystems ABI 310 Genetic Analyzer (Institute of Cell Biology, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Canada). The sequences obtained were used for homologous search by the Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST; NIH, Bethesda, MD). The purified cPLA₂ fragment was subcloned into One Shot TOPO10 competent cells (Invitrogen Corp., Carlsbad, CA), and the cPLA₂ plasmid was used to generate a standard curve for real-time PCR analysis.

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed with a two-tailed independent Student's *t*-test. In all cases, the level of significance was defined as *P* < 0.05. Results are presented as the mean \pm standard deviation.

RESULTS

The effect of clofibrate on A-23187-induced arachidonic acid release in SW cells

SW cells were cultured in DMEM/F12 (3:1) medium containing 5% FBS and 50–200 μ M clofibrate for either 8 or 32 h. [³H]arachidonate (0.88 μ Ci/ml) was added to the incubating mixture, and the cells were incubated for another 16 h. Under such experimental conditions, SW cells were exposed to clofibrate for a total of 24 or 48 h. Initial experiments revealed that incubation with arachidonate for more than 16 h would cause the breakdown of the labeled arachidonic acid and/or result in chain elongation of arachidonate into adrenate (33) and that the formation of adrenate would inhibit the agonist-induced release of arachidonate from phospholipids (33). Under the current experimental conditions, about 33% of the labeled arachidonic acid was taken up by the cells, and the majority of the label was associated with phosphatidylcholine. No morphological change in the shape or size of cells was apparent during the course of treatment. In a control study, the preincubation of clofibrate for 0, 8, or 32 h did not significantly alter the total arachidonic acid uptake. Subsequent to labeling, the cells were challenged with calcium ionophore A-23187 (10 μ M) (34) for 10 min, and the arachidonate released into the medium was determined. An increase in arachidonate release (40%) was observed at 24 h of incubation with 200 μ M clofibrate, whereas a higher increase (50%) was obtained at 48 h of incubation. In a dose-response study, a 34% increase in arachidonate release was observed when cells were treated with 50 μ M of clofibrate for 48 h. Maximum increase in arachidonate release (50%) was obtained when the cells were treated with 200 μ M of clofibrate under the same conditions (Table 2). Our results indicate that clofibrate treatment caused the enhancement of arachidonic acid release in human preadipocytes.

The effect of clofibrate on cPLA₂ activity

Because clofibrate caused an increase in arachidonic acid release, it would be of interest to examine whether the increase was associated with a change in cPLA₂ activity. Hence, the activity of the enzyme was determined after 24

TABLE 2. The effect of clofibrate on A-23187-induced arachidonic acid release in SW 872 preadipocytes

Clofibrate Treatment	Arachidonate Release
μ M	dpm/dish $\times 10^{-4}$
0	7.22 \pm 0.392
50	9.64 \pm 0.941 ^a
200	10.8 \pm 0.413 ^a

Cells were incubated with clofibrate for 32 h prior to the labeling with 0.88- μ Ci/ml [³H]arachidonic acid for another 16 h. Subsequent to labeling, cells were rinsed and challenged with 10 μ M A-23187 for 10 min. The amount of labeled arachidonate released into the medium was determined. Results are expressed as the mean \pm standard deviation from three independent sets of experiments, each carried out in triplicate. ^a *P* < 0.05 when compared with control.

and 48 h of clofibrate (200 μ M) treatment. The cPLA₂ activity was found to increase in the cell homogenate after cells were treated with clofibrate for 24 h (110%) and reached a maximum (240%) at 48 h of incubation. The activity of the phospholipase A₂ was not significantly changed when assayed in the presence of 1 mM of dithiothreitol, suggesting that there was not a significant amount of secretory phospholipase A₂ in the homogenate. Despite the increase in cPLA₂ activity induced by clofibrate, the ratio of enzyme activity remained constant between the cytosolic and membrane fractions, suggesting that no significant translocation of enzyme occurred during clofibrate treatment. In a dose-response study, cells were incubated with 50–400 μ M of clofibrate for 48 h (Fig. 1). Maximum activation of the cPLA₂ activity was obtained at 200 μ M clofibrate, but the enzyme activity was attenuated from its maximal value when cells were incubated with 400 μ M clofibrate.

The effect of clofibrate on the protein level of cPLA₂

The enhancement of the cPLA₂ activity might be caused by an increase in the enzyme protein level. Hence, the level of cPLA₂ protein in SW cells after clofibrate treatment was determined by Western blot analysis. The change

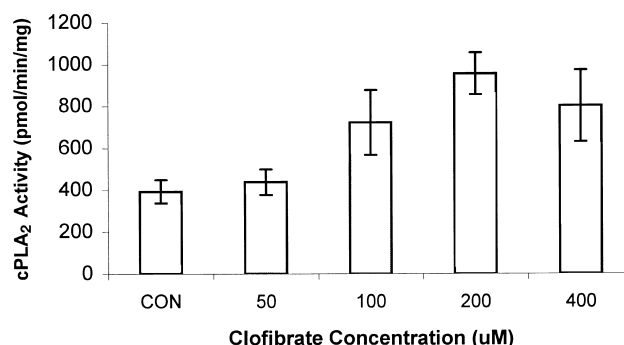


Fig. 1. The effect of clofibrate on cPLA₂ activity in human preadipocytes. SW cells were incubated in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium/Ham's F12 nutrition mixture (DMEM/F12) (3:1) containing 5% fetal bovine serum with increasing concentrations of clofibrate for 48 h. Cells were lysed, and cPLA₂ activity was assayed in the total homogenate. Results are means \pm standard deviation of three separate sets of experiments. * *P* < 0.05. CON: vehicle control.

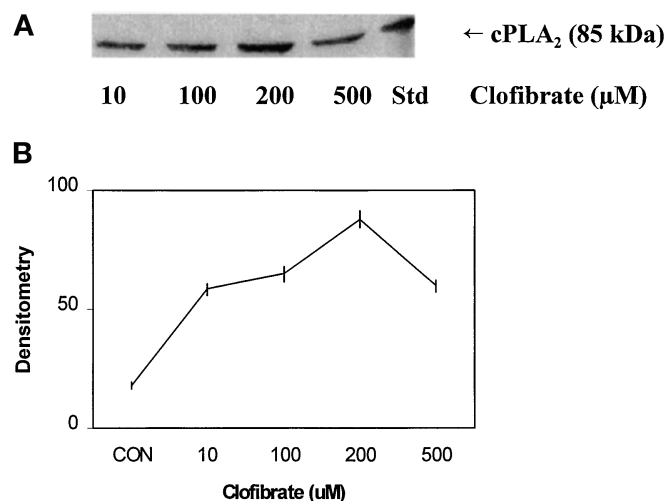


Fig. 2. The effect of clofibrate on the protein level of cPLA₂. SW cells were incubated in DMEM/F12 (3:1) with increasing concentrations of clofibrate as described in Fig. 1. Western blot analyses of cPLA₂ protein were performed using a rabbit polyclonal cPLA₂ antibodies. A: A representative blot is depicted. Std: cPLA₂ standard. B: Densitometry plot of A.

in enzyme protein corresponded to the change in enzyme activity at 24 and 48 h of clofibrate treatment. Incubation of cells with increasing concentrations of clofibrate (up to 200 μM) for 48 h resulted in progressive increases in cPLA₂ protein levels (Fig. 2). Similar to the enzyme activity study, the enzyme protein level was attenuated from its maximal value when cells were incubated with 500 μM clofibrate.

Up-regulation of cPLA₂ and COX-2 mRNA by clofibrate

The role of clofibrate in the expression of cPLA₂ mRNA was examined. Cells were treated with 200 μM clofibrate for 0–72 h, the mRNA for cPLA₂ and GAPDH were amplified by RT-PCR, and the PCR products were analyzed by agarose gel electrophoresis. The relative intensity of each band in the agarose gel was quantified by scanning and then normalized by the intensity of GAPDH band. As depicted in Fig. 3, the maximum cPLA₂ mRNA level was observed at 48 h of incubation. In a dose-response study, cells were incubated with 0–1000 μM clofibrate for 48 h, and the cPLA₂ mRNA level was determined. The cPLA₂ mRNA level was elevated by a broad range of clofibrate concentrations (100–1000 μM), with the maximal effect obtained at 200 μM (Fig. 4). The cPLA₂ mRNA level was attenuated from its maximal value when the cells were incubated with 500 or 1,000 μM clofibrate.

To analyze the increase of cPLA₂ mRNA level by clofibrate treatment in a more quantitative manner, the SYBR Green I real-time PCR was performed. The cPLA₂ plasmid was serially diluted, and real-time data were plotted with template copy numbers versus threshold cycle values. The linear relationship was obtained when the amplification was plotted against the initial template concentration, and all samples tested were located within the linear range. The results obtained from the real-time

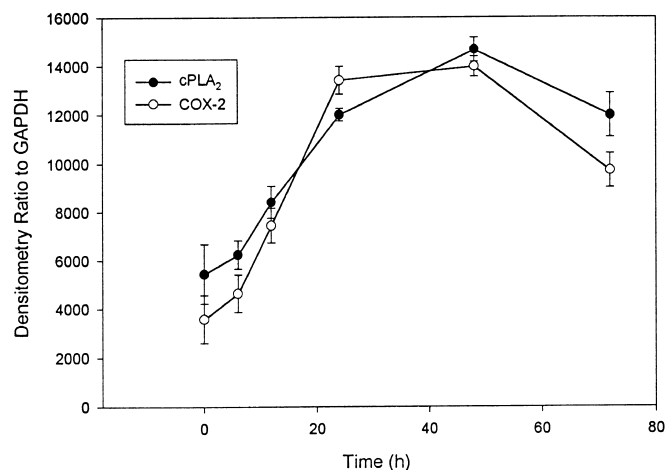


Fig. 3. Induction of cPLA₂ and COX-2 mRNA by clofibrate over time. Preconfluent SW cells were incubated up to 72 h in DMEM/F12 medium containing 200 μM clofibrate. The total RNA was isolated, and reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) on the cPLA₂ and COX-2 mRNA was performed. Results are means ± standard deviation of three separate experiments.

PCR study for cPLA₂ expression were similar to those obtained from the PCR study described in the preceding section (data not shown).

To confirm that the action of clofibrate was mediated via PPARα, the mRNA level of a known PPARα target gene, ACO, was also studied. As predicted, clofibrate (10–500 μM) caused the increase in the gene expression of ACO in SW cells (Fig. 4D). The effect of clofibrate on ACO, however, was less prominent than that obtained from cPLA₂ or COX-2. The effect of other PPARα ligands, such as WY14643 on the cPLA₂ mRNA level, was also studied. As depicted in Fig. 5, the cPLA₂ mRNA level was elevated when cells were incubated with 10 μM of WY14643 for 48 h.

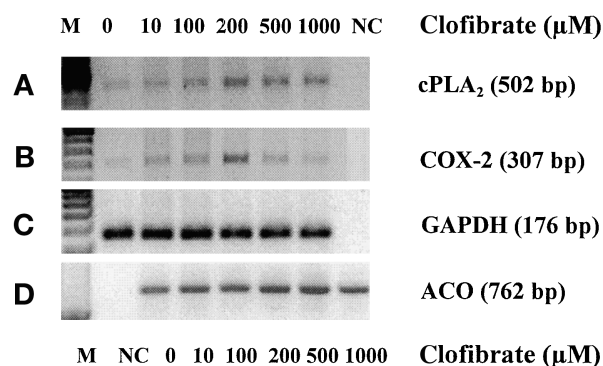


Fig. 4. The effect of clofibrate on cPLA₂, COX-2, and acyl-CoA oxidase (ACO) mRNA levels. SW cells were incubated in DMEM/F12 with increasing concentrations of clofibrate (10–1,000 μM) for 48 h. Total RNA was isolated, and RT-PCR on cPLA₂, COX-2, and ACO mRNA was performed. Results are means ± standard deviation of three separate experiments. A typical gel analysis is depicted. M: molecular marker. NC: negative control.

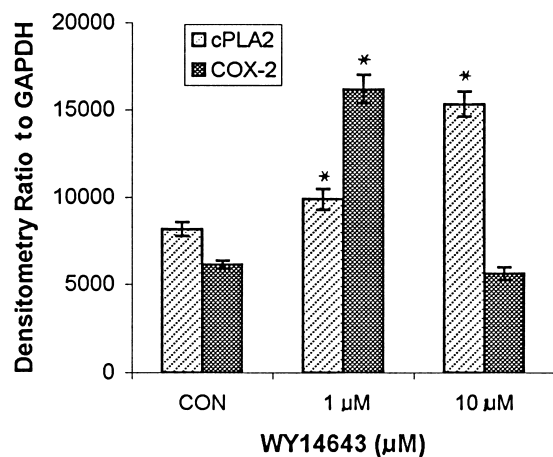


Fig. 5. The effect of WY14643 on the cPLA₂ and COX-2 mRNA levels. Preconfluent SW cells were incubated for 48 h in DMEM/F12 medium containing 1–10 μM WY14643. RT-PCR was performed as described in Materials and Methods. Results are means ± standard deviation of three independent experiments. * $P < 0.05$.

COX-1 and -2 are integral membrane proteins. COX-1 is responsible mainly for the biosynthesis of prostaglandins for homeostatic or “housekeeping” regulation (35), whereas COX-2 produces prostaglandins that act through nucleoplasmic targets in association with cell differentiation and replication through the nuclear receptor. Fibrates have been shown to regulate the gene expression of COX-2 via its interaction with PPAR (36). A functional coupling and differential regulation of cPLA₂ and COX-2 in inflammation has recently been demonstrated (36). In addition, cPLA₂ is functionally coupled with COX-2 to involve in both the immediate and delayed PG-biosynthetic responses (37, 38). Hence, the effect of clofibrate on the COX gene expression in SW cells was also examined. As predicted, clofibrate exhibited an effect on COX-2 similar to that observed in cPLA₂. Specifically, clofibrate elicited a ~2.0- to 3.8-fold increase in the COX-2 mRNA level when compared with the control (Fig. 4). The effect of clofibrate on COX-2 was found to be concentration dependent, and the maximum effect was obtained at 200 μM. The enhancement of the COX-2 mRNA was also found to be attenuated from the maximal level when 500 μM of clofibrate was used. WY14643, another PPARα ligand, showed a similar effect on COX-2 gene expression when treating cells at the 1–10 μM range (Fig. 5). Taken together, these results demonstrate that clofibrate has the ability to up-regulate mRNA levels of both COX-2 and cPLA₂, suggesting that there is a coordinated regulation of both enzymes upon stimulation in SW cells. No change in COX-1 mRNA level was observed in SW cells treated with clofibrate (data not shown), which is consistent with the postulation that COX-1 functions as a housekeeping enzyme.

In another set of experiments, cells were treated with PGJ₂, which is a known PPARγ ligand. Cells were incubated with PGJ₂ (1–10 μM) for 48 h, and the cPLA₂ activity, enzyme protein, and cPLA₂ mRNA level were determined. The treatment of cells with 1–3 μM PGJ₂ did not elicit any

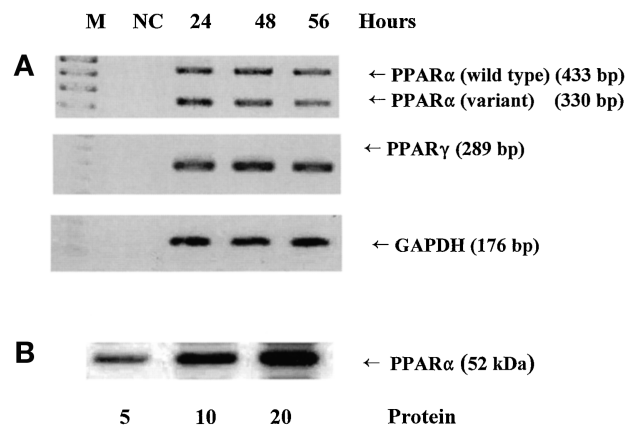


Fig. 6. Expression of mRNA and protein for PPAR in cultured human preadipocytes. A: The total RNA was isolated from cultured SW cells, and the mRNAs for PPARα and PPARγ were analyzed by RT-PCR. A typical gel analysis is depicted. The expression of PPARα mRNA with a wild-type fragment (433 bp), a variant fragment (330 bp), and that of PPARγ mRNA with a 289-bp fragment are shown. M: molecular marker. NC: negative control. B: Western blot analysis of PPARα expression. SW cells were grown in DME/F12 containing 5% FBS. The expression of PPARα in the whole cell lysate was examined by using polyclonal anti-PPARα antibodies (1:500 dilution).

significant effect on cPLA₂ activity, changes in enzyme protein, or mRNA level (data not shown). When cells were treated with 5 μM of PGJ₂ under the same conditions, only 50% of the cells survived after the incubated period. Incubation with 10 μM of PGJ₂ caused the complete death of all cells within 24 h.

The expression of PPARα and PPARγ in cultured SW cells

The action of fibrates on the regulation of transcription of lipid metabolic enzymes is mediated via the PPAR. Specifically, the interaction between clofibrate and PPARα has been shown to regulate the transcription of a variety of lipid metabolic enzymes including ACO, lipoprotein lipase, and HMG-CoA synthetase. To show that PPARα is a participant in the control of transcription of cPLA₂ in SW cells, the total RNA was isolated from the cells, and the mRNA for PPARα, PPARγ, and GAPDH was amplified by RT-PCR. As depicted in **Fig. 6A**, mRNA for both PPARα and PPARγ were identified in SW cells. Interestingly, both the wild-type fragment of PPARα (433 bp) and its naturally occurring variant fragment (330 bp) were detected. The existence of PPARα was confirmed by Western blot analysis using specific polyclonal anti-PPARα antibodies (Fig. 6B).

Sequencing of PCR products

To verify the identity of the PCR products in this study, the double-stranded DNA obtained from RT-PCR was subjected to sequence analysis. Each DNA fragment obtained, including cPLA₂, COX-1, COX-2, PPARα, or PPARγ, was separated, extracted, purified, and sequenced. The results from the sequence analysis were compared with published sequences for cPLA₂, COX-1, COX-2, PPARγ, and PPARα

TABLE 3. Sequence comparison and homology

Name	Gene Bank Accession Number	Identity %	Reference
cPLA ₂	M68874	97	Sharp et al., 1991 (8)
	M72393	97	Clark et al., 1991 (13)
COX-2	NM 000963.1	95	Jones et al., 1993 (58)
	M90100	95	Hla et al., 1992 (59)
COX-1	M59979	100	Funk et al., 1991 (60)
	S36219	100	Diaz et al., 1992 (61)
PPAR α	S74349	98	Mukherjee et al., 1994 (62)
(330 bp variant)	Z79997	98	Whiteley, 1998 ^a
PPAR γ	U79012	99	Mukherjee et al., 1997 (63)
	(HSU63415)		
	U63415	99	Elbrecht et al., 1996 (64)
	(HSU 79012)		

^a This sequence was submitted directly to the GeneBank.

variant. The amplified cDNA fragments from SW cells were found to have a high degree of identity (>95%) with the published sequences (**Table 3** and related references). Unfortunately, the sequence of the DNA sample for the PPAR α wild type (433 bp) could not be obtained. This failure might be caused by a small amount of the variant form presented as contamination in the wild-type fragment after agarose gel separation.

DISCUSSION

Arachidonic acid is an important precursor for eicosanoid synthesis. Eicosanoids, which include prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and thromboxanes, have been implicated in biological processes as diverse as signal transduction (39, 40), the regulation of cell growth, and the maintenance of vascular integrity (41, and references therein). Under normal physiological conditions, the vast majority of the arachidonic acid is stored in esterified form in phospholipids and can be released by the action of PLA₂. Ionophores are widely used to stimulate PLA₂ for the release of arachidonate in experimental studies (42) because the use of other adrenergic agents may produce many effects innate to the physiological properties of these agents. Among the different types of PLA₂ found in the mammalian cell, cPLA₂ is the intracellular enzyme that directs the release of arachidonic acid under stimulation (43). The activation of cPLA₂ can be regulated by many mechanisms at both the transcriptional and post-translational levels. The enzyme is regulated at the transcriptional level by cytokines and growth factors (17, 20), which is regarded as a prolonged process for the activation of the enzyme during tissue development and differentiation (16, 19). Alternatively, the post-translational regulation would provide the cell with a rapid process for the activation of cPLA₂. Several mechanisms for the post-translational regulation of the enzyme have been identified, including the Ca²⁺-dependent translocation of the enzyme-to-membrane and phosphorylation-dependent activation of the enzyme mediated by MAP kinase and protein kinase C (44). An additional mechanism involved in


cPLA₂ activation is mediated via the G-proteins, which regulate the MAP kinase cascade (14). We have reported previously that lyso-PC is a potent activator of the cPLA₂ activity in both human endothelial cells and rat cardiac myoblastic H9c2 cells (28, 29). In these studies, we have shown that the lyso-PC exerted its effect through mechanisms of post-transcriptional regulation. These observations led us to explore the regulation of this enzyme at the transcriptional level.

The nuclear hormone receptor PPAR α is a member of the thyroid/vitamin D/retinoid superfamily of transcription factors that require heterodimerization with the retinoid X receptor for optimal DNA binding (45). Whereas the activation of cPLA₂ by PPAR α activators has not been previously reported, the ligand/activator of other hormone receptors in this superfamily, such as the analog or precursor of vitamin D, have been shown to activate cPLA₂ or COX-2 (46, 47). Clofibrate is a classical peroxisome proliferator and PPAR α activator (22, 23), and it has been shown to stimulate the transcription of the lipoprotein lipase gene via peroxisome proliferator response element in the cultured murine 3T3 preadipocytes (24). As the first generation of lipid-lowering drugs, clofibrate has been approved for therapeutic use in the USA for the last three decades. Treatment with clofibrate results in a substantial decrease in plasma triglyceride-rich lipoproteins and an increase in the high density lipoprotein (HDL) (48, 49). These alterations are correlated with decreased levels of apolipoprotein-B (apoB), apoC-III, and apoE in triglyceride-rich lipoproteins and increased levels of apoA-I and apoA-II in HDL. The effect of fibrate on human apoA-I has been shown to be mediated by the transcription factor PPAR α , which interacts with a positive PPAR-response element at its promoter region (50).

The human liposarcoma cell line SW872 has been shown to express and secrete high levels of cholesteryl ester transfer protein and therefore has been effectively used for studies on lipid metabolism (51, 52). We have shown that this cell line has the ability to express high levels of PPAR α mRNA and protein and therefore is subjected to modulation by PPAR α ligands. In view of the key importance of cPLA₂ in the release of arachidonate, it is of inter-

est to elucidate the modulation of cPLA₂ expression at the transcriptional level upon PPAR ligand stimulation in these cells.

Long-term stimulation of SW cells by insulin (1 μ M) caused the transformation of these cells into adipocytic phenotypes (53). Prolonged stimulation of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes with fibrates (5–7 days) caused the conversion into adipocytes via the activation of PPAR (54, 55). In this study, treatment of SW cells with clofibrate or PGJ₂ was limited to 48 h to avoid any cell transformation. Transformation into adipocytes would be detected by the presence of fat globules, which would be verified by red oil O staining (53, 54). No adipocyte formation was observed throughout the course of clofibrate treatment (data not shown). It is interesting that PGJ₂ at low concentrations did not produce any effect on the gene expression of cPLA₂ or COX-2. The potency of PGJ₂ to SW cells, however, was clearly demonstrated because treatment with 10 μ M PGJ₂ caused 100% cell death within 24 h.

Although the direct involvement of the PPAR pathway in the activation of cPLA₂ has not been demonstrated in this study, there is ample evidence that the action of clofibrates is mediated via the PPAR α (22, 23). Clofibrates have been shown to regulate the gene expression of COX-2 via its interaction with PPAR (37), and a functional coupling and differential regulation of cPLA₂ and COX-2 in inflammation has recently been demonstrated (38). Although PPAR α ligands have the ability to induce the ACO gene in rodents, their ability to induce the ACO gene in human cells has not been established (56). The relatively weak induction of ACO mRNA in SW cells by clofibrate treatment is in agreement with this notion. Nevertheless, the presence of PPAR in SW cells has been firmly established because these cells have the ability to express both the mRNA encoding PPAR α and the receptor protein itself. Interestingly, both PPAR α and PPAR γ are expressed in the SW cells. This is not surprising, because this cell line is derived from the human liposarcoma and contains specific gene sets, which are responsible for lipogenesis and lipolysis upon stimulation. The presence of the wild-type fragment and the naturally occurring variant of PPAR α mRNA indicate that the SW cell has the ability to synthesize the full length PPAR α receptor as well as the truncated PPAR α receptor (57). The function of the PPAR α variant in preadipocytes, however, remains undefined. 

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