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Unflammation Research

Phosphorothioate antisense oligodeoxynucleotides against histidine decarboxylase: a study in mouse mammary epithelial cell cultures

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Introduction

Physiological changes in expression of histidine decarboxylase (HDC) and presence of histamine in mouse mammary epithelial cells have been described recently [6]. Glandular histamine in normal mammary cells and in mammary carcinomas is regarded as an important auto- and paracrine growth factor acting through H₁ and H₂ histaminergic receptors [2, 6, 7]. Coexistence of histamine producing epithelial cells and mastocytes, plus distribution of H₁, H₂ and H₃ receptors in mammary tissue emphasizes its importance in mammary development and function. In this study, we have developed potent phosphorothioate antisense oligodeoxynucleotides against HDC to confirm the physiological relevance of histamine synthesis in mammary gland.

Materials and methods

Antisense phosphorothioate oligodeoxynucleotides ([S]ODNs) were designed to target mouse HDC mRNA (Accession X57437): HDC0062 (cDNA: nt 62-90), HDC0097 (cDNA: nt 97-115), HDC0578 (cDNA: nt 578-596), HDC1085 (cDNA: nt 1085-1102), HDC1253 (cDNA: nt 1253-1268) and HDC1940 (cDNA: nt 1940-1959). All [S]ODNs, except for HDC1253 [4] were our own design. The computational simulation using mfold 3.1 software (by Zuker and Turner) [8] was applied. HDC0062S and HDC1253S (sense oligonucleotides) and HDC1085 sequence in random order (HDC1085RD) were used as specificity controls.

In vitro [S]ODNs exposure

Primary mammary epithelial cell cultures were prepared and cultured as described [6]. Epithelial organoids (300-400/well) were seeded on 24-well plates and incubated for 24 h prior to start of experiment. Antisense, sense or scrambled [S]ODNs (0.5-10 µM) were applied to 24 h and 72 h cultures with fresh medium change.

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HDC and histamine assays

48 h after second [S]ODNs treatment, cells and medium were harvested. HDC activity was estimated using method of Taguchi et al. [5] except, newly synthesised histamine was measured by radioenzymatic assay [3]. Postculture medium harvested 48 h after each [S]ODNs treatment was deproteinized and total histamine content was measured [3].

Immunocytochemistry

For HDC immunostaining [1] primary cell culture growing on 8-chamber glass slides were used. [S]ODNs treatments were as described above

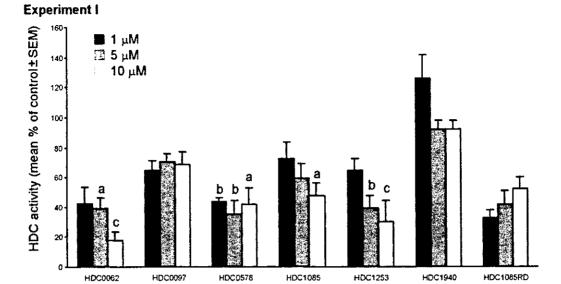
Data analysis

Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. Comparisons between groups were carried out using analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Newman-Keuls post hoc test.

Results and discussion

Out of six antisense [S]ODNs initially tested at 1, 5 and 10 µM only HDC0062, HDC1253 and HDC1085 exerted dose-response significant antisense effects as compared to control [S]ODNs untreated group (Fig. 1, Experiment I). There was some unexpected HDC inhibition by HDC1085RD and it was associated with 96 h/48 h histamine index variation (80%, 126% and 88% of untreated group for 1, 5 and 10 µM, respectively; data not shown).

The most efficient HDC0062 and HDC1253 were further tested at concentrations of $0.5-10~\mu M$. HDC0062 was found to inhibit HDC specifically at concentrations of 0.5 and $5-10~\mu M$ (Fig. 1, Experiment II). Some nonspecific action of sense [S]ODNs was seen at 1 and $2.5~\mu M$. Thus slight decrease of histamine medium content was found at 0.5, 1, $2.5~and~5~\mu M$ and calculated 96 h/48 h histamine index were 95%, 53%, 64% and 90%, respectively compared to respective sense [S]ODNs (data not shown). Immunocytochemical evidence indicated down-regulation of HDC expression by



antisense / scrambled oligodeoxynucleotides

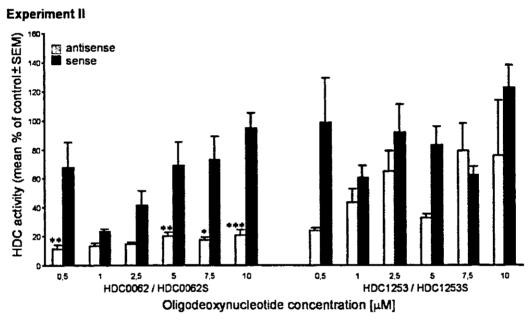


Fig. 1. HDC activity levels following treatment with different doses of antisense, sense and scrambled [S]ODNs. Values represent the mean $\% \pm \text{SEM}$ (n = 3-5), relative to that obtained in control cultures not exposed to any [S]ODNs.Experiment 1-first experiment, Experiment II-second experiment. *p < 0.05, *p < 0.01, *p < 0.001 vs control; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, *respective sense [S]ODNs (Newman-Keuls test).

HDC0062, even at concentrations of 0.1 and 0.5 μ M (Fig. 2). Evidence for HDC inhibition by HDC1253 was less clear. Although, immunocytochemical study showed inhibition of cell HDC expression by HDC1253 at 1, 5 and 10 μ M (data not shown), decrease in enzyme activity could be seen mostly at 0.5 and 5 μ M (Fig. 1, Experiment II).

Experiments reported here demonstrated the successful decrement of HDC expression by application of thioated

antisense oligodeoxynucleotides for HDC in mammary epithelial primary cell culture. Efficient targeting of HDC translation in vitro by HDC0062 oligonucleotide suggests phosphorothioate-modified antisense ODNs are good tools for studying histamine's function in mammary gland. Future work will look at use of HDC oligonucleotides in vivo.

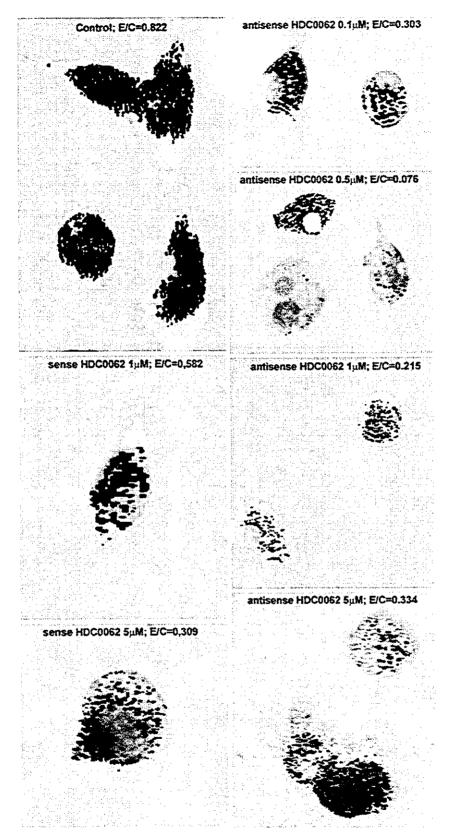


Fig. 2. Effects of HDC0062/HDC0062S on HDC expression of mammary epithelial cells. E/C index is the enzyme expression area (black)/cyto-plasmic area (gray).

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Microarray evaluation of EP4 receptor-mediated prostaglandin E₂ suppression of 3T3-L1 adipocyte differentiation

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Abstract

Prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) has been shown to negatively regulate adipogenesis. To explore to what extent PGE₂ inhibits the differentiation of cells to adipocytes and to examine whether its effect could be due to EP4 receptor signaling, we used microarrays to analyze the gene expression profiles of 3T3-L1 cells exposed to a differentiation cocktail supplemented with PGE₂, AE1-329 (an EP4 agonist), or vehicle. The differentiation-associated responses in genes such as adipocytokines and enzymes related to lipid metabolism were largely weakened upon PGE₂ treatment. In particular, the expression of peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-γ and CCAAT/enhancer binding protein-α, genes playing a central role in adipogenesis, was greatly suppressed. PGE₂ appears to be ineffective to a subclass of insulin target genes such as hexokinase 2 and phosphofructokinase. Similar responses were produced in the differentiation-associated genes upon AE1-329 treatment. These results suggest that PGE₂ inhibits a crucial step of the adipocyte differentiation process by acting on the EP4 receptor in 3T3-L1 cells.

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Keywords: Prostanoid; Receptor subtype; Fat cell; Aspirin-like drugs; Gene expression profile

Adipogenesis is a crucial aspect in controlling body fat mass [1,2]. Acquisition of the mature adipocyte phenotype is a highly regulated process in which preadipocytes undergo differentiation resulting in both increased size and number of mature adipocytes in the adipose tissue. It has been shown that cyclooxygenase (COX) products such as prostaglandin (PG) E_2 and $PGF_{2\alpha}$ inhibit adipocyte development [3–7]. A recent study suggested that COX-2 might be involved in body fat regulation [8]. Mice heterozygous for the COX-2 gene showed increased body weight by about 30%, with fat pads enlarged 2- to 3-fold compared with those of

pocyte differentiation. The actions of PGE₂ are mediated by four EP subtypes with different signaling pathways [9,10]. However, there has been no literature addressing which EP receptor is involved in the negative regulation of adipocyte differentiation [11]. We recently found that EP4 is the predominant EP receptor expressed in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes, and PGE₂ significantly decreases triglyceride content in cells subjected to a differentiation program, and this inhibition was completely reversed by the addition of an EP4 antago-

nist [27]. In this study, we used oligonucleotide micro-

arrays to test to what extent PGE2 inhibits adipocyte

wild-type animals. PGE₂ production in adipose tissue

from COX-2 null mice was only 20% of that of wild-

type mice. These results suggested that COX-2 as well

as PGE₂ participates in the negative regulation of adi-

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differentiation and whether EP4 is responsible for its inhibitory action. PGE₂ and an EP4-specific agonist elicited much the same response in 3T3-L1 cells subjected to the differentiation program, and most of these responses were mimicked by treatment with a cAMP analogue. These results suggest that PGE₂ suppresses adipocyte differentiation via EP4 receptor activation and cAMP-dependent signaling.

Materials and methods

Reagents. Dibutyryl cyclic AMP (dbcAMP) was purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). PGE₂ was purchased from Funakoshi (Tokyo, Japan). AE1-329 (an EP4 agonist) was a generous gift from ONO Pharmaceuticals (Osaka, Japan) [12,13]. All other chemicals were commercial products of reagent grade.

Cell culture, RNA isolation, and oligonucleotide microarray. 3T3-L1 preadipocytes were grown to confluence in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 4 mM glutamine. Differentiation was initiated by addition of the differentiation medium which contained 10% FBS, 4 mM glutamine, 0.5 mM isobutylmethylxanthine (IBMX), 0.25 μM dexamethasone, and 5 μg/ml insulin. After 2 days, the culture medium was changed to adipocyte growth medium containing 10% FBS, 4 mM glutamine, and 5 μg/ml insulin and re-fed every 2 days for an additional 6 days. Vehicle (0.01% ethanol only), PGE₂ (1 μM in 0.01% ethanol), an EP4 agonist, AE1-329 (1 μM in 0.01% ethanol), or dibutyryl cyclic AMP (10 mM in 0.01% ethanol) was added to both the differentiation medium and adipocyte growth medium. Total RNA at each time point

was isolated by a combination of the acid guanidinium thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction method [14] and RNeasy column chromatography (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). The obtained RNA was labeled and prepared for hybridization to GenChip Murine Genome U74v.2 oligonucleotide arrays (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA) using standard methods.

Microarray data analysis. We used the robust multi-array analysis (RMA) [15] expression measure that represents the log transform of (background corrected and normalized) intensities of the GeneChips. The RMA measures were computed using the R package program, which is freely available on the web site (http://www.bioconductor.org). We then removed all genes whose maximum minus minimum values were less than 2 (2-fold change), and selected 2268 genes, which were differentially expressed across all samples. Using the k-means clustering algorithm, these genes were classified into nine clusters on the basis of similarity of their expression profiles. Since we considered that chronic treatment of the cells with dbcAMP might elicit an excess response in 3T3-L1 cells, the dbcAMP data were used only for consideration of cAMP contribution in the effects of PGE₂ or the EP4 agonist. Microarray analysis was independently repeated at least two times and similar results were obtained.

Results and discussion

We used oligonucleotide microarrays to test to what extent PGE₂ inhibits adipocyte differentiation and whether EP4 is responsible for its inhibitory action. A preadipocyte cell line, 3T3-L1 cells were primed with insulin, dexamethasone, and IBMX for 2 days followed

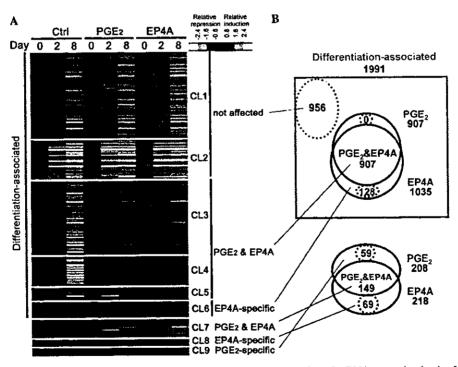


Fig. 1. Differentiation-regulated gene expression in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes. (A) Representation of mRNA expression levels of 3T3-L1 cells on day 2 and 8 of the differentiation program compared with untreated cells (day 0). 3T3-L1 cells grown to confluency were exposed to a differentiation cocktail supplemented with PGE₂ (PGE₂), AE1-329 (EP4A), or vehicle (Ctrl). Each gene is represented by a single row. Colored bars represent the ratio of hybridization measurements between corresponding time points and day 0 profiles, according to the scale shown. (B) Genes are placed in groups corresponding to pairwise overlaps shown in the accompanying Venn diagrams.

by treatment with insulin for an additional 6 days. We isolated total RNA from untreated cells (day 0), the cells on day 2, and day 8 of the differentiation program in the presence or absence of the agonist, and the obtained RNA was labeled and hybridized to microarrays. Of the ~12,000 genes represented on the oligonucleotide array, the genes whose maximum minus minimum values were greater than 2 (2-fold change) were selected, and regarded as differentially expressed genes (2268 genes). Using the k-means clustering algorithm, these genes were classified into nine clusters on the basis of similarity of the expression profiles of the day 8 samples treated with PGE2, AE1-329, and vehicle (control) (Fig. 1). Among them, a total of 1991 genes changed their expression significantly upon standard differentiation treatment (clusters 1-6); 1581 genes were up-regulated (clusters 1, 3, 4, and 6) and 410 genes were down-regulated (clusters 2 and 5). Of such differentiation-associated genes, 956 genes (48%, clusters 1 and 2) were unaffected upon both PGE2 and AE1-329 treatment (Fig. 1). Since these clusters include a number of genes regulated by insulin such as phosphofructokinase, hexokinase, and glucose transporter 1 (Table 1), an input of EP4 signaling may be ineffective to such a subclass of

insulin target genes. On the other hand, differentiationassociated expression changes were inhibited upon treatment with PGE2 and an EP4 agonist in 907 genes (45.6% of differentiation-associated genes, clusters 3-5), and 231 genes in particular which were drastically induced upon differentiation treatment were completely suppressed by both reagents (cluster 4). It should be noted in cluster 4 that the expression of two key factors which play a central role in adipocyte differentiation, peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-y (PPARy), and CCAAT/ enhancer binding protein a (C/EBPa), was completely abolished [16,17] (Table 2). PPARy and C/EBPa were induced by 10.6- and 4.0-fold upon control treatment but PGE_2 inhibited their expression by -7.0- and -4.0-fold, and an EP4 agonist inhibited their expression by -5.3- and -5.0-fold, respectively. Such suppression by both reagents was already observed on day 2 (data not shown). Accordingly, the expression levels of the genes known as differentiation markers were generally lowered upon both agonist treatments; suppression was apparent in the genes encoding adipocytokines (growth hormone releasing hormone, adipsin, resistin, and adiponectin) and enzymes related to lipid metabolism (fatty acid-coenzyme A ligase, diacylglycerol

Table 1 Differentiation-regulated genes insensitive to PGE₂, AE1-329, and dbcAMP

Gene symbol	Gene title	d8ctrl vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8PGE ₂ vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8EP4A vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8cAMP vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	GenBank Accession No.
Cluster 1				<u> </u>		
Pfkp	Phosphofructokinase platelet	2.9	2.7	3.0	3.2	AI853802
Hk2	Hexokinase 2	2.8	2.3	2.6	2.6	Y11666
Slc2al	Solute carrier family 2 (glucose transporter 1)	2.7	2.8	3.0	2.3	M22998
Pla2g12	Phospholipase A2 group XII	2.3	1.7	2.2	1.2	AI845798
Gpi1	Glucose phosphate isomerase 1	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.1	M14220
Pfkl	Phosphofructokinase liver B-type	2.0	1.9	1.9	2.0	J03928
HmoxI	Heme oxygenase 1	2.0	1.6	1.9	1.0	X56824
Facl4	Fatty acid-coenzyme A ligase long chain 4	1.7	2.0	2.3	1.9	AB033887
Adm	Adrenomedullin	1.6	2.2	1.8	1.9	U77630
Pgk1	Phosphoglycerate kinase 1	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.6	M15668
Aldol	Aldolase 1 A	1.6	1.3	1.4	1.3	AV102160
Cluster 2						
Rpl32	Ribosomal protein L32	-3.7	-3.8	-3.4	-3.4	AV216394
Adam3	A disintegrin and metalloprotease domain 3 (ADAM3)	-3.1	-3.2	-3.5	-3.1	X64227
Coxvib2	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit Vib	-3.0	-2.9	-2.9	-2.8	A1893329
Prphl	Peripherin 1	-2.8	-3.0	-2.7	-2.8	X15475
Ogn	Osteoglycin	-2.5	-1.7	-2.1	-2.4	AA647799
Ncami	Neural cell adhesion molecule 1	-2.3	-2.0	-2.1	-1.8	AV324706
Flnb	Filamin β	-2.2	-2.3	-1.9	-2.1	AV271299
Csflr	Colony stimulating factor 1 receptor	-2.1	-2.0	-1.6	-1.5	AV028184
Cdh15	Cadherin 15	-2.0	-1.9	-1.9	-1.9	AV232449
Fmod	Fibromodulin	-1.9	-1.8	-1.7	-1.7	AV240231

The list represents differentiation-induced (cluster 1) or differentiation-decreased genes (cluster 2) whose expression levels were unaffected upon PGE₂, AE1-329, and dbcAMP treatment. The change in expression level during the differentiation program for 8 days in the presence of vehicle (d8ctrl), PGE₂ (d8PGE₂), AE1-329 (d8EP4A), and dbcAMP (d8cAMP) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of untreated cells (d0). Representative genes with the largest changes are shown.

Table 2
Differentiation-regulated genes sensitive to PGE₂, AE1-329, and dbcAMP

Gene symbol	Gene title	d8ctrl vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8PGE ₂ vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8EP4A vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8cAMP vs d8ctrl log2(fold)	GenBank Accession No.
Cluster 4						
Fsp27	Fat-specific gene 27	5.6	-4.4	-4.1	-4.0	M61737
Ghrh	Growth hormone releasing hormone	3.2	-3.4	2.7	-2.7	M31658
Facl2	Fatty acid-coenzyme A ligase long chain 2	4.6	2.7	-3.3	-2.5	U15977
Adn	Adipsin	5.4	-3.7	-2.2	-3.0	X04673
Pparg	Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor-y	3.4	-2.8	-2.4	-2.4	U10374
Retn	Resistin	3.0	-2.6	-2.8	-2.9	AA718169
Lipe	Lipase hormone sensitive	3.1	-2.5	-2.5	-1.9	U69543
Acrp30	Adiponectin	5.6	-2.5	-2.2	-2.9	U49915
Cebpa	CCAAT/enhancer binding protein (C/EBP) a	2.0	-2.0	-2.2	-1.7	M62362
Pcx	Pyruvate carboxylase	2.5	-2.0	-2.2	-1.6	M97957
LpinI	Lipin 1	2.7	-2.0	-1.8	-2.3	AI846934
Lic4s	Leukotriene C4 synthase	2.7	-2.0	-2.0	-1.1	U27195
Dgat1	Diacylglycerol O-acyltransferase 1	3.3	-1.9	-2.0	-1.9	AF078752
Gpd1	Glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 1	1.8	-1.9	1.8	-1.8	M25558
Itga6	Integrin a 6	2.8	-1.8	-2.7	-2.3	X69902
Hadhb	Hydroxyacyl-coenzyme A dehydrogenase	2.5	-1.6	-1.8	-1.6	AW122615
Acadm	Acetyl-coenzyme A dehydrogenase medium chain	2.1	-1.5	-1.8	-1.9	U07159
Cat	Catalase	2.5	-1.5	-1.6	-1.3	M29394
Cox7al	Cytochrome c oxidase subunit VIIa 1	1.0	-1.5	-1.4	-1.3	AF037370
Slc25a10	Solute carrier family 25 (dicarboxylate transporter)	1.5	-1.5	-1.3	-1.3	AA683883
Cluster 5						
G1p2	Interferon a-inducible protein	-2.4	2.0	1.6	0.8	AV152244
Ifit3	Interferon-induced protein tetratricopeptide repeats 3	-2.6	1.5	1.2	0.9	U43086
Ifi203	Interferon activated gene 203	-1.2	1.4	0.9	0.7	AF022371
Ifi47	Interferon γ inducible protein	-1.9	1.4	0.9	0.5	M63630
Lox	Lysyl oxidase	-1.0	1.3	1.0	1.0	D10837
Thosi	Thrombospondin 1	-1.4	1.1	0.8	1.7	M62470
Ifi202b	Interferon activated gene 202B	-0.9	1.1	0.7	0.6	AV229143
Ĭfi1	Interferon inducible protein 1	-1.1	1.1	0.6	0.4	U19119
Fbln1	Fibulin 1	-1.3	1.0	0.9	1.0	X70853
Timp2	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 2	-0.7	1.0	0.6	1.0	X62622

The list represents genes of the differentiation-induced (cluster 4) or differentiation-decreased group (cluster 5) whose changes in expression levels were suppressed upon PGE₂, AE1-329, and dbcAMP treatment (bold values). The change in expression level during control treatment for 8 days (d8ctrl) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of untreated cells (d0), and the effect of PGE₂ (d8PGE₂), AE1-329 (d8EP4A), and dbcAMP (d8cAMP) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of the day 8 control (d8ctrl). Representative genes with the largest changes are shown.

acyltransferase, and hormone sensitive lipase). Moreover, both PGE2 and an EP4 agonist suppressed responses of the genes negatively regulated upon differentiation treatment (cluster 5); both reagents reversed differentiation-dependent decreases in the expression levels of a number of interferon-y target genes such as Ifit3 and Ifi203. Since PPARy has been shown to down-regulate interferon-y-induced genes in leukocytes [18], an increase in the expression levels of interferon-y-induced genes was thought to be a result of PGE2-elicited suppression of PPARγ-dependent signaling. Thus, PGE2 and an EP4 agonist shared a broad range of suppressive responses especially in differentiation-associated genes, indicating that PGE2 and an EP4 agonist are equivalent in their inhibitory effect on adipocyte differentiation. Suppression of the differentiation-associated response was also observed in each gene upon treatment with dbcAMP (Table 2). These results indicated that PGE2 suppresses some crucial step of the adipocyte differentiation process via EP4 receptor activation, presumably in a cAMP-dependent manner. Interestingly, there were a small number of genes that were suppressed by AE1-329 more effectively than by PGE₂ (cluster 6; 128 genes, 6% of the genes with altered expression upon differentiation) (Table 3). It is currently unknown why AE1-329 might affect such genes more effectively than PGE2, but there may be an induction of EP subtypes subsequently inhibiting EP4 signaling. Indeed, we found that expression of the EP1 receptor gene was induced during the differentiation program [27]. If EP1-induced Ca2+ signaling could antagonize EP4-elicited actions, some of the EP4-selective actions could be dismissed in PGE2 treatment. However, we could not entirely exclude the

Table 3
Differentiation-induced genes preferentially sensitive to an EP4 agonist

Gene symbol	Gene title	d8ctrl vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8PGE ₂ vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8EP4A vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8cAMP vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	GenBank Accession No
Cluster 6						
Col6a2	Procollagen type VI α 2	0.9	-0.2	-1.6	-0.7	Z18272
Kitl	Kit ligand	1.7	-0.1	-1.6	-2.3	M57647
Ccnl2	Cyclin L2	1.7	0.01	-1.6	-1.7	U37351
Ier2	Immediate early response 2	0.7	0.04	-1.1	-1.1	M59821
Ier5	Immediate early response 5	0.5	0.3	-1.0	-0.7	AF079528
Cyp51	Cytochrome P450 51	0.7	-0.2	-1.0	-1.1	AW122260
Prken	Protein kinase C v	1.1	0.06	-0.9	-0.7	AW124627
Ptges	Prostaglandin E synthase	0.5	0.1	-0.8	0.2	AI060798
Ube3a	Ubiquitin protein ligase E3A	0.8	-0.1	-0.8	-0.8	U82122
Col4a2	Procollagen type IV α 2	0.9	-0.1	-0.8	-0.8	X04647
Col3a1	Procollagen type III α I	0.5	0.1	-0.8	-0.4	AA655199

The list represents differentiation-induced genes whose expression levels were decreased more efficiently by AE1-329 than by PGE₂ (cluster 6, bold values). The change in expression level during the control treatment for 8 days (d8ctrl) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of untreated cells (d0), and the effect of PGE₂ (d8PGE₂), AE1-329 (d8EP4A), and dbcAMP (d8cAMP) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of the day 8 control (d8ctrl). The representative genes with the largest changes are shown.

Table 4
PGE₂- and AE1-329-induced genes not altered upon differentiation treatment

Gene symbol	Gene title	d8ctrl vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8PGE ₂ vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8EP4A vs d8ctrl log2(fold)	d8cAMP vs d8ctrl log2(fold)	GenBank Accession No.
Cluster 7						
Cmkor I	Chemokine orphan receptor 1	0.2	1.8	1.5	3.3	AF000236
Aqp1	Aquaporin 1	-0.2	1.3	1.3	1.0	L02914
Gja1	Gap junction membrane channel protein α 1	0.3	1.2	1.7	3.0	M63801
Ptgs1	Prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase 1 (COX-1)	-0.04	1.1	0.8	1.1	M34141
Gla	Galactosidase α	-0.3	1.0	1.6	1.4	L46651
Procr	Protein C receptor endothelial	-0.3	1.0	1.5	0.9	L39017
Psmb8	Proteosome subunit β type 8	-0.09	0.8	1.2	0.8	U22033
Fkbpl1	FK506 binding protein 11	-0.3	0.8	1.1	0.6	AW122851
Ptgs2	Prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase 2 (COX-2)	0.2	0.8	1.0	1.4	M88242
Pla2g7	Phospholipase A2 VII (PAF acetylhydrolase)	-0.1	0.8	0.8	0.5	U34277
Timp1	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 1	-0.3	0.7	0.5	1.7	V00755
Pla2g4a	Phospholipase A2 group IVA (cPLA2)	-0.1	0.6	0.6	0.3	M72394

The list represents differentiation-independent genes whose expression levels were increased both by AE1-329 and PGE₂ (cluster 7, bold values). The change in expression level during control treatment for 8 days (d8ctrl) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of untreated cells (d0), and the effect of PGE₂ (d8PGE₂), AE1-329 (d8EP4A), and dbcAMP (d8cAMP) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of the day 8 control (d8ctrl). Representative genes with the largest changes are shown.

possibility that the non-agonistic nature of AE1-329 may alter the expression levels of the genes in cluster 6.

On the other hand, either agonist treatment also affected expression levels in a group of genes not altered upon differentiation treatment. For example, both PGE₂ and AE1-329 increased the expression levels of a class of genes (cluster 7; 149 genes) (Table 4). This group includes rate-limiting enzymes of PG synthesis; prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase 1 (COX-1), COX-2, and cytosolic phospholipase A₂. Since such genes were also up-regulated upon dbcAMP treatment, PGE₂ may stimulate endogenous PG synthesis by EP4 receptor activation and the resultant increase in intracellular cAMP. Such positive-feedback regulation in PGE₂ actions, which has been described in other systems

[19,20], may contribute to the inhibitory actions of PGE₂ on differentiation. Moreover, a group of genes were down-regulated by AE1-329 more efficiently than by PGE₂ (cluster 8; 59 genes) (Table 5). In contrast, a small group of genes was up-regulated by PGE₂ more efficiently than AE1-329 (cluster 9; 69 genes). The existence of genes showing different responses to an EP4 agonist and to PGE₂ may be due to a non-agonistic or toxic effect of AE1-329, because the effect of the agonist was not always mimicked by dbcAMP in these genes.

PGs have long been thought to contribute to fat cell development, but the role of PGs in the regulation of adipocyte differentiation is complex and remains unclear [11]. One of the reasons of its complexity is that different classes of PGs exert opposing effects on differentiation.

Table 5
PGE₂-induced or AE1-329-decreased genes not associated with differentiation

Gene symbol	Gene title	d8ctrl vs d0 log ₂ (fold)	d8PGE ₂ vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	d8EP4A vs d8ctrl log₂(fold)	d8cAMP vs d8ctrl log ₂ (fold)	GenBank Accession No
Cluster 8			•			
CyplbI	Cytochrome P450 family 1 subfamily b 1	0.2	-0.1	-1.3	-0.7	X78445
Pftk1	PFTAIRE protein kinase 1	0.2	0.1	-1.1	-0.7	AF033655
Fgfr2	Fibroblast growth factor receptor 2	0.2	-0.1	-0.9	-0.7	M23362
Rin2	Ras and Rab interactor 2	0.1	1.0	-0.9	-0.1	A1835968
Il1r1	Interleukin 1 receptor type I	0.2	0.3	-0.9	-0.2	M20658
Agpt	Angiopoietin	0.1	0.4	-0.9	-0.2	U83509
Nfib	Nuclear factor I/B	0.2	0.2	-0.7	-1.2	Y07686
Čxcl12	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 12	-0.2	0.4	0.6	-0.7	L12029
Skd3	Suppressor of K ⁺ transport defect 3	0.1	0.4	-0.6	-0.2	A1837887
Cluster 9						
Timp3	Tissue inhibitor of metalloproteinase 3	0.2	1.6	0.3	1.1	U26437
Rbp1	Retinol binding protein 1 cellular	-0.2	1.4	0.4	2.3	X60367
Cdh2	Cadherin 2	-0.1	0.9	0	0.5	M31131
Col1a1	Procollagen type I α 1	0.1	0.8	-0.1	0.2	U03419
Hgf	Hepatocyte growth factor	0.2	0.7	0.1	1.6	X72307
Vdr	Vitamin D receptor	-0.1	0.6	0.1	1.6	AW061016
Pip	Prolactin induced protein	-0.1	0.6	0.1	1.3	AB017918
Angptl2	Angiopoietin-like 2	0	0.5	0	1.2	AI840158
Ereg	Epiregulin	0.2	0.5	0	0.8	D30782

The list represents differentiation-independent genes whose expression levels were decreased only by AE1-329 (cluster 8, bold values) or induced only by PGE₂ (cluster 9, bold values). The change in expression level during control treatment for 8 days (d8ctrl) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of untreated cells (d0), and the effect of PGE₂ (d8PGE₂), AE1-329 (d8EP4A), and dbcAMP (d8cAMP) is indicated as a logarithm of the fold-change vs the expression level of the day 8 control (d8ctrl). Representative genes with the largest changes are shown.

For example, both PGI₂ and PGE₂, the two PGs predominantly synthesized by fat cells, appear to have opposing effects on early adipogenesis [21,22]; PGI₂ promotes adipocyte differentiation, whereas PGE2 inhibits differentiation. We hypothesized that the complex role of PGs in adipogenesis may be explained by the expression of multiple prostanoid receptors in preadipocytes. Indeed, we [27] as well as another group have found the expression of multiple PG receptor genes in 3T3-L1 cells [23]. The current results indicate that PGE2 and an EP4-specific agonist share much the same response in 3T3-L1 cells with differentiation-reversed profiles, suggesting that PGE2 suppresses adipocyte differentiation via EP4 receptor activation and cAMP-dependent signaling. Indeed, requirement of a cAMP-dependent pathway in arachidonic acid-dependent inhibition of adipocyte differentiation has been pointed out [24]. Recently, Yokota et al. [25] demonstrated that adiponectin, one of the adipocytokines secreted from fat cells, exerts an inhibitory effect on adipocyte differentiation as a negative-feedback loop. Interestingly, they suggested that this effect of adiponectin is mediated by an endogenous COX-2- and PGE2-dependent pathway. Moreover, Yan et al. [26] reported that both a COX-1- and COX-2-inhibitor enhances differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells, indicating that both COX isozymes participate in the negative regulation of adipogenesis. Involvement of EP4 signaling in these systems is an interesting issue to be examined in the future.

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A Cluster of Aromatic Amino Acids in the i2 Loop Plays a Key Role for G_s Coupling in Prostaglandin EP2 and EP3 Receptors*

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To assess the structural requirements for G, coupling by prostaglandin E receptors (EPs), the G_s-coupled EP2 and G.-coupled EP3B receptors were used to generate hybrid receptors. Interchanging of the whole i2 loop and its N-terminal half (i2N) had no effect on the binding of both receptors expressed in HEK293 cells. Agonist-induced cAMP formation was observed in wild type EP2 but not in the i2 loop- or i2N-substituted EP2. Wild type EP38 left cAMP levels unaffected, whereas i2 loop- and i2N-substituted EP3 gained agonist-induced adenylyl cyclase stimulation. In EP2, the ability to stimulate cAMP formation was lost by mutation of Tyr143 into Ala but retained by mutations into Phe, Trp, and Leu. Consistent with this observation, substitution of the equivalent His140 enabled EP3β to stimulate cAMP formation with the rank order of Phe > Tyr > Trp > Leu. The point mutation of His140 into Phe was effective in another EP3 variant in which its C-terminal tail is different or lacking. Simultaneous mutation of the adjacent Trp¹⁴¹ to Ala but not at the following Tyr¹⁴² weakened the acquired ability to stimulate cAMP levels in the EP3 mutant. Mutation of EP2 at adjacent Phe¹⁴⁴ to Ala but not at Tyr¹⁴⁵ reduced the efficiency of agonist-induced cAMP formation. In Chinese hamster ovary cells stably expressing G_s-acquired EP3 mutant, an agonist-dependent cAMP formation was observed, and pertussis toxin markedly augmented cAMP formation. These results suggest that a cluster of hydrophobic aromatic amino acids in the i2 loop plays a key role for Ga coupling.

Individual members of the superfamily of G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs)¹ efficiently interact only with a subset of the many structurally similar G protein heterotrimers (1-3). The spectrum of cellular responses triggered by activation of a

specific GPCR is determined by the type of G proteins recognized by the activated receptor. It is therefore very important to elucidate the molecular basis governing the selectivity of receptor/G protein interaction for understanding cellular signal transduction.

Accumulating evidence indicates that multiple receptor regions of GPCRs are involved in G protein coupling and determining the selectivity of G protein recognition. Numerous studies have shown that the second intracellular loop (i2 loop), the membrane-proximal portions of the third intracellular loop (i3 loop), and the N-terminal segment of the cytoplasmic tail all contain amino acids predicted to play roles in regulating selectivity of receptor/G protein interactions (4, 5). Traditional mutagenesis approaches, including the use of hybrid receptors and alanine-scanning mutagenesis techniques, have led to important insights into the structural basis underlying the selectivity of receptor/G protein interactions (6). For example, intracellular loop 1 (i1 loop) is less important in determination of G protein selectivity but may indirectly contribute to G protein recognition. The i2 loop and i3 loop are of critical importance in determining the selectivity of receptor/G protein coupling and the efficiency of G-protein activation. The C-terminal tail plays a role in constraining basal activity, by preventing access of the G-protein to the receptor surface. Despite such information, it still remains controversial which receptor elements are critical for G protein selectivity and activation, and thus it is still difficult to predict whether a particular receptor can couple to a G protein.

Prostaglandin E2 (PGE2), one of the best known arachidonate metabolites, exhibits a broad range of biological actions in diverse tissues through their binding to specific receptors on the plasma membrane (7). We and other groups have revealed the primary structures of eight types of prostanoid receptors, including four subtypes of PGE receptors (EP1, EP2, EP3, and EP4), and demonstrated that they belong to the subfamily of rhodopsin-type (class I) GPCRs (8, 9). Prostanoid receptors thus have several unique features specific to prostanoid receptors in addition to those in common with other rhodopsin-type receptors; for example, they contain fewer basic or acidic amino acids throughout their putative transmembrane domains (10). To assess the roles of such unique structural features, we have investigated the properties of receptors with mutations within such unique regions and demonstrated that the arginine residue within the putative seventh transmembrane domain conserved in all prostanoid receptors is important not only for interaction with the carboxylic acid group of agonists but also for particular signal activation (11-14). Furthermore, we found that the aspartate residue within the seventh transmembrane domain of the EP3 receptor plays a key role in governing G protein association and activation (15). On the other hand,

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¹ The abbreviations used are: GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor;
PGE₂, prostaglandin E₂; PT, pertussis toxin; i1-i3, the three intracellular domains of G protein-coupled receptors; TM I-VII, first to seventh transmembrane domains; Mes, 4-morpholineethanesulfonic acid; CHO, Chinese hamster ovary.

multiple EP3 receptor isoforms exist, which are different only in their C-terminal structures (16, 17). We found that these isoforms are different in their constitutive G_i activities and thus concluded that the C-terminal tail plays a role in constraining the basal activity, by preventing access of the G_i to the receptor surface (18–21). Thus, structurally close members of the GPCR subfamily such as the prostanoid receptors are useful not only for understanding prostanoid receptor-specific events but also for elucidating the general molecular basis of the structure and function relationship of GPCRs, including G protein selectivity.

To gain new insight into the mechanisms governing receptor/G protein coupling selectivity, here we designed a series of experiments using two members of the prostanoid receptors, aiming to identify structural requirements for selective G_s coupling. We first constructed G_s -coupled EP2 and G_i -coupled EP3 hybrid receptors with the i1, i2, or i3 loops interchanged and examined possible functional interchanges in G_s coupling in these mutant receptors. Second, we searched for the functional amino acids critical for G_s coupling.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Materials—Sulprostone and butaprost were generous gifts from Dr. M. P. L. Caton of Rhone-Poulenc Ltd. [5,6,8,11,12,14,15-3H]PGE₂ (185 Ci/mmol) and a ¹²⁵I-labeled cAMP assay system were obtained from Amersham Biosciences. Forskolin was from Sigma, and pertussis toxin was from Seikagaku (Tokyo, Japan). All other chemicals were of reagent grade.

Construction of cDNAs for the mEP2, mEP3\u03b3, EP2-based, and EP3based Mutant Receptors-The functional cDNAs for mouse EP2 (mEP2), EP3β (mEP3β), EP3γ, and T335 were previously cloned or generated in our laboratory (16, 22). The construction of pcDNA3-based expression plasmids (Invitrogen) encoding for wild-type mEP2 and mEP3β has been described previously (23). Various EP2/EP3 chimeric receptors and various mutant EP2 and EP3 receptors were prepared by standard PCR-based mutagenesis techniques (QuikChangeTM site-directed mutagenesis kit; Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). For EP2-based chimeras, the following mEP2 receptor sequences were replaced with the corresponding mEP3\beta receptor segments: EP2-i1, mEP2 47-67 mEP3 β 50–64; EP2-i2, mEP2 136–151 \rightarrow mEP3 β 133–148; EP2-i3, mEP2 222-262 \rightarrow mEP3β 231-256; EP2-i2N, mEP2 136-143 mEP3 β 133-140; EP2-i2C, mEP2 144-151 \rightarrow mEP3 β 141-148. For EP3-based chimeras, the following mEP3 β receptor sequences were replaced with the corresponding mEP2 receptor segments; EP3-i1, mEP3 β 50-64 α mEP2 47-67; EP3-i2, mEP3 β 133-148 \rightarrow mEP2 136-151; EP3-i3, mEP3 β 231-256 \rightarrow mEP2 222-262; EP3-i2N, mEP3 β 133-140 → mEP2 136-143; EP3-i2C, mEP3 β 141-148 → mEP2 144-151. Single amino acid substitutions in mEP2, mEP3β, EP3γ, and T335 were introduced in a similar manner. All PCR-derived sequences were verified by dideoxy sequencing of the mutant plasmids.

Cell Culture, Transient Expression, and Surface Expression of EP2-based or EP3-based Mutant Receptors in HEK293 Cells—HEK293 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum under humidified air containing 5% CO2 at 37 °C. For transfection using the LipofectAMINE 2000 reagent (Invitrogen), cells in 60-mm tissue culture dishes were incubated at 37 °C for 4 h with a transfection mixture composed of 3 ml of Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium, containing 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum, 1 μ g of DNA, and 15 μ l of LipofectAMINE 2000 reagent. For the cAMP assay, HEK293 cells were then trypsinized, and aliquots of recovered cells were transferred to 24-well tissue culture plates. Surface expression of receptor proteins on HEK cell membranes was confirmed by an immunofluorescence assay using antibodies against the N-terminal region of the mouse EP2 and EP3 receptors under nonpermeabilized conditions.

 PGE_2 -binding Assay—The harvested HEK293 cells expressing each receptor were homogenized using a Potter-Elvehjem homogenizer in 20 mm Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), containing 10 mm MgCl₂, 1 mm EDTA, 20 μm indomethacin, and 0.1 mm phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride. After centrifugation at 250,000 × g for 20 min, the pellet was washed, suspended in 20 mm Mes-NaOH (pH 6.0) containing 10 mm MgCl₂ and 1 mm EDTA, and was used for the [3 H]PGE₂-binding assay. The membranes (50 μg) were incubated with various concentrations of [3 H]PGE₂ at 30 $^{\circ}$ C for 1 h, and [3 H]PGE₂ binding to the membranes was determined by adding

a 1000-fold excess of unlabeled ${\rm PGE}_2$ into the incubation mixture. The specific binding was calculated by subtracting the nonspecific binding from the total binding.

Measurement of cAMP Formation—Cyclic AMP levels in HEK293 cells were determined as reported previously (24). The receptor-expressing HEK293 cells cultured in 24-well plates (2 \times 10 5 cells/well) were washed with HEPES-buffered saline containing 140 mm NaCl, 4.7 mm KCl, 2.2 mm CaCl $_2$, 1.2 mm MgCl $_2$, 1.2 mm KH $_2$ PO $_4$, 11 mm glucose, 10 $\mu\rm M$ indomethacine, and 15 mm HEPES, pH 7.4, and preincubated for 10 min. Reactions were started by the addition of test reagents along with 100 $\mu\rm M$ Ro-20–1724. After incubation for 10 min at 37 °C, reactions were terminated by the addition of 10% trichloroacetic acid. The content of cAMP in the cells was measured by radioimmunoassay with a cAMP assay system (Amersham Biosciences).

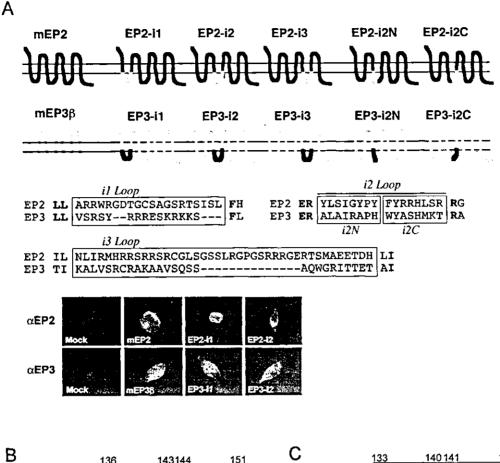
Stable Expression of mEP3 β , EP3-H140F, mEP2, and EP2-Y143A in the Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) Cells—cDNAs for mEP3 β , EP3-H140F, mEP2, and EP2-Y143A were transfected into CHO cells using the LipofectAMINE PLUS system according to the manufacturer's instructions, and stable transformants were cloned as described previously (16). CHO cells expressing each receptor (5 \times 10⁵ cells) were pretreated with or without PT (20 ng/ml) for 7 h before the addition of the agonist. The cells expressing EP3 receptors were incubated at 37 °C for 10 min with or without sulprostone in the absence or presence of 10 μ M forskolin. The cells expressing EP2 receptors were incubated at 37 °C for 10 min with or without butaprost. The cAMP contents were determined as described above.

Statistical Analysis—All data shown are expressed as means \pm S.E. of three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was carried out by Student's t test. p values of <0.005 were considered to indicate a significant difference.

RESULTS

Agonist Binding Properties in Hybrid EP2-EP3 Receptors-Wild type and mutant EP receptors analyzed in this study were transiently expressed in HEK293 cells and assayed for their ability to mediate agonist-dependent stimulation of adenylyl cyclase (mediated by G_s). Consistent with its reported profile, the wild-type EP2 receptor (mouse, mEP2) caused a pronounced increase in intracellular cAMP levels upon stimulation with butaprost, an EP2 agonist. On the other hand, sulprostone stimulation of the wild type EP3\$\beta\$ receptor (mouse, mEP3β) left cAMP levels unaffected. To explore the structural basis underlying G_s coupling, a series of hybrid EP2/EP3 receptors were created in which the intracellular domains were systematically exchanged between the two wild type receptors (Fig. 1A), EP2-i1 and EP3-i1 represent EP2 and EP3 β with interchanged il loops, respectively. Moreover, we created hybrid receptors in which the N-terminal (i2N) or C-terminal halves of the i2 loops (i2C) were individually exchanged between the wild type receptors as described below. For every mutant receptor used in this study, the expression of receptor proteins in HEK293 cells was examined by immunofluorescent analysis using antibodies against the N-terminal region of the mouse EP2 and EP3 receptors under nonpermeabilized conditions, and membrane surface expression and the expression levels of each mutant receptor were found to be comparable with those of wild-type receptors (Fig. 1A and data not shown).

Saturation binding studies showed that among the EP2-based hybrid receptors, EP2-i2, EP2-i2N, and EP2-i2C retained the ability to bind to the agonist [³H]PGE2 with high affinity, but EP2-i1 and EP2-i3 failed to bind to the agonist (Table I). The EP2-i2, EP2-i2N, and EP2-i2C hybrid receptors exhibited K_d values close to that obtained for the wild type EP2 receptor (Table I). [³H]PGE2 binding to these mutants was displaced by the addition of butaprost with K_i values similar to that of the wild type EP2 receptor (K_i for butaprost, 1.7–3.0 μ M). These three hybrid receptors were expressed at levels similar to that found for the wild-type EP2 receptor ($R_{\rm max} = 803-1110$ fmol/mg; Table I). On the other hand, all EP3-based hybrid receptors except for EP3-i1 retained the ability to bind to [³H]PGE2. These hybrid receptors exhibited K_d values close to that ob-



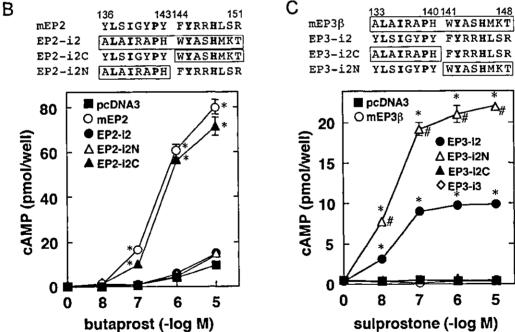


Fig. 1. Structures and agonist-dependent G_s activities of EP2/EP3 hybrid receptors. A, diagrams showing structures of mEP2, mEP3β, and the 10 mutant receptors used in this study and immunocytochemistry showing surface expression of the wild-type receptors and their chimeras. The part of the receptors derived from mEP2 is shown in black, and that from mEP3β is shown in gray. The amino acid sequences of the i1-i3 loops of EP2 and EP3 are shown below the diagrams, and the region interchanged between the two receptors is boxed. Extracellular N-terminal sequences were detected using corresponding antibodies on nonpermeabilized transfected HEK293 cells. The surface expression was visualized using secondary antibodies labeled by fluorescence. Background was compared using cells transfected with empty vector, pcDNA3 (Mock). B and C, agonist-dependent cAMP formation in HEK293 cells expressing mEP2 and EP2-based mutant receptors (B) and in HEK 293 cells expressing mEP3β and EP3-based mutant receptors (C). HEK293 cells expressing each receptor or pcDNA3-transfected HEK293 cells were seeded and cultured for 24 h before the assay (2 × 10⁵ cells/well). For the mEP2 and EP2-based mutant receptors, the cells were stimulated for 10 min by adding media with the indicated concentrations of butaprost, an EP2-selective agonist (B). For the mEP3-selective agonist (C). Amino acid

Table I
Summary of binding properties in mEP2, mEP3\beta, and their mutant receptors

The binding activities for [3 H]PGE $_2$ of mEP2, mEP3 β and the mutant receptors expressed in HEK293 cells were assessed by Scatchard plot analysis, and the K_d and B_{max} values are shown. NP, not performed; ND, not detected (for the EP2-based and EP3-based mutant receptors).

Receptor	K_d	B _{max}	K_i for selective agonist lpha
	пм	fmol/mg protein	µм or nм
mEP2	19.2 ± 2.1	934 ± 97	1.8 ± 0.09
EP2-i1	ND	ND	NP
EP2-i2	23.3 ± 1.1	1110 ± 83	2.2 ± 0.11
EP2-i3	ND	ND	NP
EP2-i2N	16.2 ± 1.4	1040 ± 96	1.7 ± 0.15
EP2-i2C	12.2 ± 1.8	803 ± 71	3.0 ± 0.12
EP2-Y143A	32.0 ± 2.9	709 ± 82	3.3 ± 0.29
EP2-Y143F	19.4 ± 2.2	638 ± 65	2.3 ± 0.18
EP2-Y143W	21.1 ± 1.7	749 ± 38	2.0 ± 0.51
EP2-YAA	12.8 ± 2.0	110 ± 14	NP
mEP3β	2.24 ± 0.33	1680 ± 123	4.3 ± 0.18
EP3-i1	ND	ND	. NP
EP3-i2	1.53 ± 0.21	1520 ± 142	1.5 ± 0.09
EP3-i3	1.43 ± 0.18	1503 ± 64	1.1 ± 0.10
EP3-i2N	2.89 ± 0.32	1610 ± 105	2.3 ± 0.15
EP3-i2C	1.99 ± 0.13	1920 ± 99	3.1 ± 0.24
EP3-H140Y	3.14 ± 0.26	1010 ± 118	4.0 ± 0.39
EP3-H140F	2.68 ± 0.26	1092 ± 95	3.6 ± 0.78
EP3-H140A	3.23 ± 0.35	1170 ± 87	2.9 ± 0.49
EP3-YAA	1.86 ± 0.22	1840 ± 124	NP

 $^{^{}a}$ K_{i} values for butaprost (μ M) and for sulprostone (nM) are indicated, respectively.

tained for the wild type EP3 receptor (Table I). [3 H]PGE₂ binding to EP3-i2, EP3-i3, EP3-i2N, and EP3-i2C was displaced by the addition of sulprostone with K_i values similar to that of the wild type EP3 receptor (K_i for sulprostone, 1.1–4.3 nm). These four EP3 hybrids were expressed at levels similar to that found for the wild-type EP3 receptor ($B_{\rm max}=1503-1920$ fmol/mg; Table I). Consistent with the previous reports (16, 25), wild type EP3 β showed an ~10-fold higher affinity to [3 H]PGE₂ than wild type EP2. In this transient expression system in HEK293 cells, the expression levels of wild type EP3 were also about 1.5-fold higher than wild type EP2.

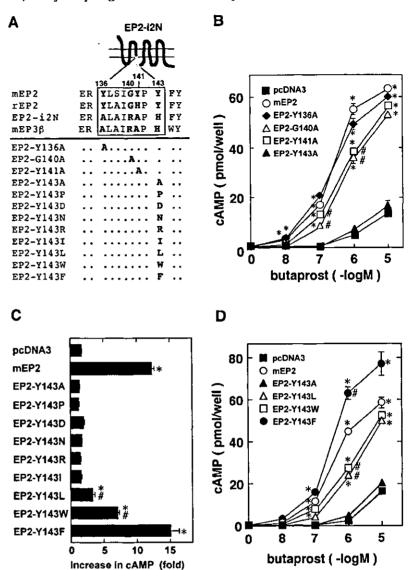
Agonist-dependent Stimulation of Adenylyl Cyclase by Hybrid EP2-EP3 Receptors-The hybrid receptors showing considerable binding affinities for PGE2 (EP2-i2, EP2-i2N, EP2i2C, EP3-i2, EP3-i2N, EP3-i2C, and EP3-i3) were then subjected to cAMP formation analysis. Wild-type mEP2 mediated a butaprost-dependent increase in cAMP. In contrast, the mutant EP2 receptor (EP2-i2) containing the EP3 receptor sequence in the i2 loop almost completely lost the ability to mediate agonist-dependent stimulation of adenylyl cyclase; but a prost failed to elicit a significant increase in cAMP production over the background level (Fig. 1B). These results suggested that the i2 loop of EP2 might be essential for Gs coupling. On the other hand, substitution of the i3 loop of the EP3 receptor with the EP2 receptor resulted in a mutant receptor (EP3-i3) that was similar to the wild type EP3 β receptor and lacked the ability to mediate stimulation of adelylyl cyclase. However, the mutant EP3 receptor (EP3-i2) in which the i2 loop was replaced with the corresponding EP2 receptor sequence gained the ability to stimulate cAMP production with high efficacy (9.8 ± 0.91 pmol/well) and high sulprostone potency (EC₅₀ = 21 ± 1.9 nm) (Fig. 1C). Furthermore, a mutant EP2 receptor (EP2-i2C) in which the C-terminal half region of the i2 loop was replaced with the corresponding EP3 receptor sequence was able to stimulate cAMP formation in a fashion similar to the wild-type EP2 receptor. In contrast, a mutant EP2 receptor (EP2-i2N) containing the EP3 receptor sequence

in the N-terminal half of the i2 loop again lost the ability to mediate agonist-dependent stimulation of cAMP accumulation. Consistent with these results, substitution of the C-terminal half region of the i2 loop of the EP3 receptor with the EP2 sequence resulted in a mutant receptor (EP3-i3C) that lacked the ability to mediate stimulation of adenylyl cyclase. However, a mutant EP3 receptor (EP3-i3N) in which the i2N region was replaced with the homologous EP2 receptor sequence gained the ability to stimulate cAMP production with high sulprostone potency (EC₅₀ = 23 ± 2.1 nm) and high efficacy (22.3 ± 1.9 pmol of cAMP/well). It should be noted that the maximal response by EP3-i2N was significantly higher than EP3-i2. These results suggested that the N-terminal half of the i2 loop in the EP2 receptor (8 amino acids shown in Fig. 1C) is required for G_s coupling, and/or the corresponding region of the EP3 inhibits G, coupling. From these results, we speculated that the i2N region of the EP2 receptor may contain a key amino acid residue required for selective G_s coupling.

Effects of Point Mutations at Tyr 143 on G, Coupling of the EP2 Receptor-Among the 8 amino acids in the i2N region, 3 amino acids were identical between mEP2 and mEP3\beta, which were candidates for key amino acids (Fig. 2A). In addition, the rat EP2 receptor contains an Ala residue at position 138 instead of Ser, indicating that Ser 138 is less important for Ga coupling. We therefore constructed four mutant receptors with Ala mutations at each of the four candidate positions (EP2-Y136A, EP2-G140A, EP2-Y141A, and EP2-Y143A). Among these mutants, EP2-Y136A showed cAMP formation in an agonist dose-dependent manner similar to wild type EP2, whereas EP2-G140A and EP2-Y141A showed high efficacies of cAMP production similar to that of the wild type receptor, although they showed rightward shifted butaprost dose-response curves. In contrast, EP2-Y143A failed to increase cAMP formation above background levels (Fig. 2B). The binding properties of EP2-Y143A was similar to those of the wild-type receptor (Table I), suggesting that loss of cAMP producing activity is due to a loss of G_s coupling and that Tyr¹⁴³ in EP2

sequences within the i2 loop of mEP2 and its hybrid receptors (B) and those of mEP3 β and its hybrid receptors (C) are shown above the graphs. The EP3-derived sequences are boxed, and amino acids common in mEP2 and mEP3 β receptors are presented in boldface letters. The cAMP contents were determined as described under "Experimental Procedures." The results shown are the means \pm S.E. of triplicate determinations. *, p < 0.005 versus pcDNA3; #, p < 0.005 versus EP3-i2 (EP3-i2N).

Fig. 2. Effects of point mutations in the i2 loop on agonist-dependent cAMP formation of mEP2 receptors. A, structures of single amino acid-mutated EP2 receptors. B, butaprost dosedependent cAMP accumulation. HEK293 cells $(2 \times 10^5 \text{ cells/well})$ were treated with different concentrations of butaprost, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP2 and EP2 with point mutations at different positions. C, effects of substitutions of Tyr¹⁴³ with various kinds of amino acids in the mEP2 receptor on butaprost-induced cAMP formation. HEK293 cells (2 × 10⁵ cells/well) were treated with 0.1 µm butaprost, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP2 and EP2 point mutants at Tyr¹⁴³. The resulting increases in cAMP levels (-fold increase above basal) were determined. D, butaprost dose-dependent cAMP accumulation in EP2 with point mutations at Tyr¹⁴³. The cAMP contents were determined as described under "Experimental Procedures." The results shown are the means \pm S.E. of triplicate determinations, *, p < 0.005 versus pcDNA3; #, p < 0.005 versus mEP2.

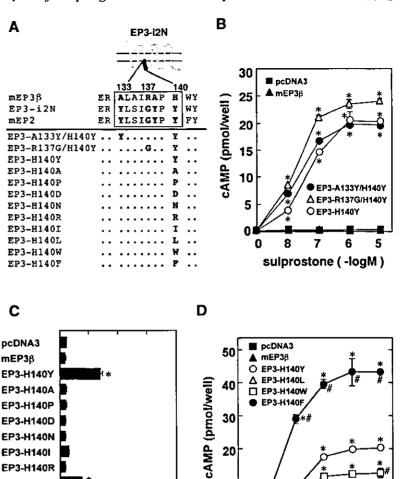


plays a critical role for G_s coupling. We further examined the effects of various amino acid substitutions of Tyr143 of EP2 on agonist-induced cAMP accumulation. All mutant EP2 receptors with single amino acid substitutions showed binding properties similar to the wild-type EP2 receptor (Table I and data not shown). Substitution of Tyr¹⁴³ with Phe (EP2-Y143F) resulted in a receptor stimulating cAMP production with an efficiency higher than that of the wild-type EP2 receptor (Fig. 2D). Agonistdependent cAMP accumulation was observed in EP2-Y143W and EP2-Y143L, but their agonist dose dependence was lower than that of the wild type EP2 receptor. Substitution with other residues resulted in a great loss in the ability to stimulate the cAMP response (Fig. 2C). The potency order of mutants in butaprost-induced cAMP producing ability was as follows: EP2- $Y143F > wild type > EP2-Y143W, EP2-Y143L \gg EP2-Y143N,$ EP2-Y143D, EP2-Y143R, EP2-Y143P, EP2-Y143I, EP2-Y143A = 0. These results suggested that the aromatic ring nature of tyrosine at this position in the EP2 receptor appears to be required for G_s coupling with high efficiency.

Substitution of His 140 with an Uncharged Aromatic Residue Is Sufficient to Confer G_s Coupling on the EP3 Receptor—In order to explore whether a single or a few amino acid mutations can confer G_s coupling on mEP3 β , we constructed three mutant EP3 receptors, EP3-H140Y, EP3-R137G/H140Y, and EP3-

A133Y/H140Y, all of which include conversion of His140 into Tyr (Fig. 3A). Surprisingly, all three mutant EP3 receptors exerted sulprostone-dependent cAMP formation in a fashion similar to that of the mutant EP3-i2N receptor (Fig. 3B). This finding indicated that the single amino acid substitution of His 140 into Tyr is sufficient to confer G_s coupling on EP3 β . We further constructed mutant EP3 receptors with His^{140} replaced with various amino acids (Fig. 3A). All mutant EP3 receptors with single amino acid substitutions showed [3H]PGE2 binding properties similar to the wild-type EP3 receptor (Table I and data not shown). Substitution of His 140 with Phe resulted in a mutant EP3 receptor (EP3-H140F) with the most potent ability to stimulate cAMP production; its maximal cAMP production was 2-fold that of the EP3-H140Y receptor (Fig. 3D). Moreover, the mutant receptors with His140 replaced with Trp and Leu (EP3-H140W and EP3-H140L) exerted moderate and slight increases in cAMP accumulation upon sulprostone stimulation, respectively. The EC50 values for sulprostone of these four mutant receptors were similar (~8.5-20 nm). In contrast, the mutant EP3 receptors with substitution of His140 into other amino acids elicited no significant increase in cAMP levels (Fig. 3C). The potency order of mutants for sulprostone-induced cAMP-producing activity was as follows; EP3-H140F > EP3- $H140Y > EP3-H140W > EP3-H140L \gg EP3-H140D$, EP3-

Fig. 3. Effects of mutations in the i2 loop on agonist-induced cAMP production of mEP3\$\beta\$ receptors. A, structures of single or double amino acid-mutated EP3 receptors. B, sulprostone doseresponse of cAMP accumulation, HEK293 cells (2 \times 10⁵ cells/well) were treated with the indicated concentrations of sulprostone, and cAMP production was measured in mEP3\$ and mutant EP3 receptors. C, effects of substitutions of His 140 with various kinds of amino acids in the mEP38 receptor on sulprostone-induced cAMP formation. HEK293 cells (2 \times 10⁵ cells/ well) were treated with 10 nm sulprostone, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP38 and mutant EP3 receptors. The resulting increases in cAMP levels (-fold increase above basal) were determined. D, sulprostone dose-dependent cAMP formation in EP3 with point mutations at His140. HEK293 cells were treated with the indicated concentrations of sulprostone, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP3 β and mutant EP3 receptors. The cAMP contents were determined as described under "Experimental Procedures." The results shown are the means ± S.E. of triplicate determinations. *, p < 0.005 versus pcDNA3; #, p <0.005 versus EP3-H140Y.



H140N, EP3-H140R, EP3-H140A, EP3-H140P, EP3-H140I, wild-type mEP3 $\beta=0$. The binding affinities of EP3 mutants for PGE2 and sulprostone were similar to that of the wild-type receptor (Table I and data not shown), suggesting that the difference in the cAMP response was not caused by an altered binding affinity for the agonist. These results indicate that substitution of His¹⁴⁰ into a noncharged aromatic residue is sufficient to confer $G_{\rm s}$ coupling on the EP3 receptor. Moreover, the preference of aromatic residues in the efficiency of $G_{\rm s}$ coupling at the equivalent positions in both EP3 and EP2 receptors suggested that this amino acid contributes to $G_{\rm s}$ coupling in similar mechanisms for both EP2 and EP3 receptors.

A Cluster of Aromatic Residues at the Center of the i2 Loop Is Required for Efficient G_s Coupling—The present study suggested that the bulky aromatic amino acid at the center of the i2 loop may be one of determinants for G_s coupling in prostanoid receptors. However, when we examined the sequences of the i2 loop of the prostanoid receptors, we found that the EP2 receptor has two more aromatic amino acids, Phe¹⁴⁴ and Tyr¹⁴⁵, just after Tyr¹⁴³. The existence of three aromatic amino acids at this position is conserved among all members of G_s-coupled prostanoid receptors. Interestingly, the EP3 receptors of various species also contain the latter two aromatic residues, Trp¹⁴¹ and Tyr¹⁴², just after the key position, His¹⁴⁰ (Fig. 4). As shown above (Fig. 1, B and C), interchanging the i2C regions

had little effect on the ability of the EP2 and EP3 receptors to stimulate adenylyl cyclase activity, suggesting less importance of the i2C region for G_s coupling. However, this interchange did not alter the existence of the latter two aromatic residues in the cluster. We therefore hypothesized that the latter two residues in the cluster may have potential roles in G_s coupling in the prostanoid receptors, and we examined the effects of mutations at both or either aromatic residues in the EP2 and G_s couplingacquired EP3 receptors (Fig. 5). In the EP2 receptor, simultaneous alanine mutations of Phe 144 and Tyr 145 (EP2-YAA) led to a great reduction in the efficiency of agonist-induced cAMP production. A single alanine mutation at Phe¹⁴⁴ (EP2-YAY) resulted in a significant reduction of the butaprost-dependent cAMP response, whereas mutation of Tyr¹⁴⁵ to Ala (EP2-YFA) led to a slight increase in the efficiency of the agonist-induced cAMP response. The rank order of cAMP-producing activity (at 10^{-6} M) of these mutants was as follows: EP2-YFA > mEP2 $(YFY) > EP2-YAY \gg EP2-YAA > EP2-Y143A (AFY) = 0.$ These results suggest that Tyr^{143} is the most critical for $G_{\rm s}$ coupling, but Phe144 is also required for highly efficient coupling, and Tyr145 contributes to Gs coupling only when an aromatic residue is not present at position 144. We investigated whether a similar tendency could be observed in the G_s-acquired EP3 mutant. As discussed above, EP3-H140Y (YWY), which has a cluster of three aromatic residues at the center of the i2 loop, exhibited agonist-dependent adenylyl

10

n

0

9

7

sulprostone (-logM)

8

6

5

EP3-H140L

EP3-H140W EP3-H140F

10

Increase in cAMP (fold)

15

20

Fig. 4. Amino acid sequence alignment of the i2 loop of prostanoid receptors and other GPCRs. The class of G protein to which each receptor can couple is indicated to the right. Note that His 140 is conserved among the EP3 receptors from various species. The amino acids equivalent to Tyr 143 of EP2 are boxed. Among the prostanoid receptors, EP3 and G -coupled receptors have bulky hydrophobic residues at the boxed positions (boxed). Uncharged aromatic and leucine residues (Phe, Tyr, Trp, and Leu) are indicated in boldface type.

		Prostanoid r	ece	epto	rs	
					IZC	
EP2	mouse	ERYLSIGYP	¥	F¥	RRHLSRR	Gs
	rat	ERYLAIGHP	Y	FY	RRRVSRR	
	rabbit	ERYLSIGHP	¥	PT	QCRITER	
	dog	ERYLSIGRP	Ŧ	PY	QRHVTRR	
	human	ERYLSIGHP	Y	FY	QRRVSAS	
EP4	mouse	ERTLAINHA	Y	FY	SHYVDKR	Gs
	rat	ERTLAINHA	Y	FY	SHYVDKR	
	rabbit	ERYLAINHA	¥	FY	SHTVDKR	
	dog	ERYLAINHA	Y	FY	SHYVDKR	
	human	ERTLAINHA	Y	FT	SHYVDKR	
DP	mouse	ECWLSLGHP	F	PY	QRHVTLR	Gs
	rat	ECWLSLGHP	F	PY	QRHITAR	
	human	ECWLSLGHP	P	FY	RRHITLR	
IP	mouse	ERCLALSHP	¥	LY	AQLDGPR	Gs Gq
	rat	ERCLALSHP	¥	LY	AQLDGPR	
	human	ERCLALSHP	¥	LY	AQLDGPR	
EP3	mouse	ERALAIRAP				Gi
	rat	ERALAIRAP	1	MĀ		
	rabbit	eralairap		MY		
	pig	ERALAIRAP		MX		
	bovine	ERALATRAP		MX		
	human	ERALAIRAP	H	HY	ASHMKTR	
			ا۔ا	l	l	_
EP1	mouse	ERCVGVTQP	I – I			Gq
	rat	ERCVGVTQP			AARVSVA	
	human	ERCVGVTRP		LH		_
FP	mouse	ERCIGVIND	-1	FH		Gq
	rat	ERCIGVTNP		PH		
	ovine	ERCIGVTKP		FH		
	bovine	ERCIGVTKP		PH		
	human	ERCIGVTKP		FH		
TP	mouse	ERFVGITRP		SR	1	Gq,Gi
	human	ERYLGITRP	F	SR	PAVASQR	

	i2N			i2C	
hβ2-AR	DRYFAITSP	F	KT	QSLLT	Gs
hD1-R	DRYWAISSP	F	RY	ERKMT	Gs
hH2-R	DRYCAVMDP	L	R₹	PVLVT	Gs
hM2-R	DR YF CVTKP	L	TY	PVKRT	Gi
hD2-R	DRYTAVAMP	м	LY	NTRYT	Gi
hAl-R	DR YL RVK I P	L	₽¥	KMVVT	Gi
hM1-R	DRYFSVTRP	L	S¥	RAKRT	Gq
hH3-R	DRYFSITRP	L	TŦ	RAKRT	Gq
hSP-R	DRYMAIIHP	L	QP	RLSAT	Gq
hRhod	er y vvvckp	M	SN	FRFGE	Gt
GPCRs	with a non-hydr	op	hobi	c amino a	ocid
hEDG2	ERYITMLKM	ĸ	LН	NGSNN	Gi
hEDG3	ERHLTMIKM	R	P¥	DANKR	Gi,Gq,
hCXCR4	DRYLAIVHA	т	NS	QRPRK	Gi
hCXCR6	DRFIVVVKA	T	KA	ANQQA	Gi

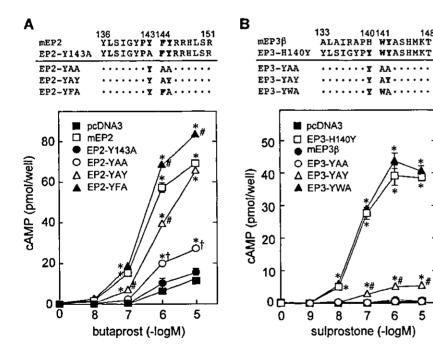
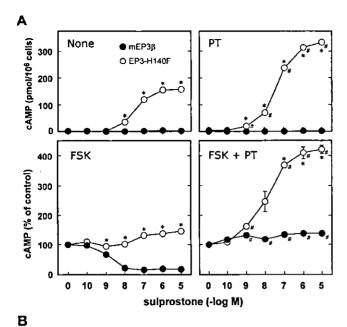


Fig. 5. Effects of mutations at the amino acids following Tyr¹⁴³ (mEP2) or Tyr¹⁴⁰ (EP3-H140Y) in the i2 loop on agonist-induced G, activity of mEP2 and EP3-H140Y receptors. A, butaprost dose response of cAMP accumulation in cells expressing wild type and mutant EP2 receptors. HEK293 cells (2 imes105 cells/well) were treated with the indicated concentrations of butaprost, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP2 and mutant EP2 receptors. B, sulprostone dose-response of cAMP accumulation in cells expressing wild type and mutant EP3 receptors. HEK293 cells $(2 \times 10^5 \text{ cells/well})$ were treated with the indicated concentrations of sulprostone, and cAMP production was measured in cells expressing mEP3β and mutant EP3 receptors. Amino acid sequences within the i2 loop of the wild type and mutant EP2 receptors (A), and those of the wild type and mutant EP3 receptors (B) are shown above the graphs. The cAMP contents were determined as described under "Experimental Procedures." The results shown are the means ± S.E. of triplicate determinations. *, p < 0.005 versus pcDNA3; #, p <0.005 versus mEP2 (EP2-YFA and EP2-YAY) or EP3-H140Y (EP3-YAY); \dagger , p0.005 versus EP2-YAY (EP2-YAA).

cyclase activity, whereas wild type $\text{EP3}\beta$ (HWY) showed no response upon sulprostone treatment. Simultaneous introduction of Ala residues at positions Trp141 and Tyr142 led to a complete loss of the ability to stimulate cAMP formation (EP3-YAA). A single alanine mutation at Trp¹⁴¹ (EP3-YAY) resulted in a receptor almost unable to stimulate cAMP production, whereas mutation of Tyr¹⁴² to Ala left agonist-dependent cAMP levels unaffected (EP3-YWA). The rank order of these mutants in cAMP-producing activity was as follows: EP3-YWA = EP3-H140Y (YWY) \gg EP3-YAY > EP3-YAA, mEP3 β (HWY) = 0. Thus, similar results were obtained for the EP3 point mutants, indicating that the existence of a hydrophobic aromatic residue at position 140 is the most critical, but Trp141 and Tyr142 also contribute significantly and little to Gs coupling, respectively. These results suggest that a cluster of aromatic residues at the center of the i2 loop plays a key role in high efficiency G_s coupling of the prostanoid receptors.

5

A Gain-of-function Mutation Does Not Alter Intrinsic G, Activity of the EP3 Receptor-In this study, we used the mEP3 \$\beta\$ receptor as a prostanoid receptor that does not couple to stimulation of adenylyl cyclase and found that the point mutation at ${
m His}^{140}$ is sufficient to confer ${
m G_s}$ coupling on the EP3 receptor.



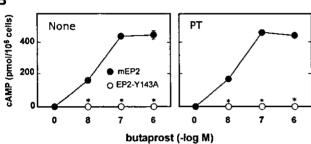


Fig. 6. Pertussis toxin treatment augmented agonist-induced cAMP accumulation in CHO cells expressing the EP3-H140F but not in CHO cells expressing EP2-Y143A receptor. A, CHO cells expressing mEP3 ρ or EP3-H140F (4 \times 10 5 cells) were pretreated with or without pertussis toxin (PT; 20 ng/ml) for 7 h. The cells were then incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min with the indicated concentrations of sulprostone in the absence or presence of 10 μ m forskolin (FSK). B, CHO cells expressing mEP2 or EP2-Y143A (4 \times 10 5 cells) were pretreated with or without pertussis toxin and incubated at 37 $^{\circ}$ C for 10 min with the indicated concentrations of butaprost. The cAMP contents were determined as described under "Experimental Procedures." The results shown are the means \pm S.E. of triplicate determinations. *, p < 0.005 versus wild-type EP3 or EP2 receptor; #, p < 0.005 versus none (PT) or forskolin only (FSK + PT).

Since the bulky hydrophobic amino acid equivalent to His¹⁴⁰ of EP3 was proposed to be important in the general interaction with G proteins, we examined whether this point mutation affects intrinsic Gi activity. We established CHO cells stably expressing the Gs coupling-acquired mutant EP3 receptor (CHO-EP3H140F) and compared its functional properties with those of CHO cells expressing wild-type EP3β (CHO-EP3β). As observed in HEK293 cells, the two EP3 receptors showed similar binding affinities (EP3 β , K_d = 2.84 nm; EP3H140F, K_d = 3.17 nm), but the expression level of EP3H140F was lower than that of EP3 β cells (CHO-EP3 β , $B_{\rm max}$ = 1240 fmol/mg; CHO-H140F, $B_{\text{max}} = 367$ fmol/mg). In CHO-EP3 β cells, sulprostone did not elicit cAMP formation but inhibited forskolin-induced cAMP formation in a dose-dependent manner with an EC50 of 3.1 nm (Fig. 6A). This inhibition by sulprostone was completely abolished by pretreatment of the cells with pertussis toxin. In contrast, in CHO-EP3H140F cells, sulprostone dose-dependently stimulated cAMP formation with an EC₅₀ of 22 nm, and the compound exhibited no more inhibition against forskolininduced cAMP production. However, once the cells were pretreated with pertussis toxin, sulprostone-induced cAMP formation was significantly potentiated even in the presence of forskolin. It should be noted that the potentiating effects of pertussis toxin were significantly observed even at 10⁻⁹ M, suggesting that this mutant receptor is capable of Gi coupling with high efficiency. These results indicate that the EP3-H140F receptor still has an intrinsic G, activity. Thus, we conclude that the H140F point mutation is sufficient to confer Gs coupling with high efficiency on the EP3\$\beta\$ receptor without affecting intrinsic G, coupling. We further established CHO cells stably expressing the wild-type EP2 (CHO-EP2) and EP2-Y143A receptor (CHO-EP2Y143A) and examined the effects of pertussis toxin on cAMP formation. The two cell lines exhibited same order of PGE₂ binding sites, but the CHO-EP2Y143A cells did not show any cAMP responses upon butaprost treatment (Fig. 6B). Moreover, pertussis toxin failed to restore butaprost-induced cAMP response, indicating that loss of agonist-induced cAMP-producing activity in EP2-Y143A is not a result of gain of G; activity.

A Gain of Function Is Independent of the C-terminal Structure of the EP3 Receptor—We previously reported that mouse EP3 isoforms with different C-terminal tails (EP3 α , EP3 β , and EP3y) and C-terminal truncated form (T335) differ in their agonist-dependent G. activity (21). Since these isoforms are different only in C-terminal structure, we previously demonstrated that the C-terminal tail could play a role in G, coupling of EP3 receptor. Based on this notion, the effects of i2 loop mutations can be explained by modification of the C-terminal function in Gs coupling. To explore this possibility, we examined the effects of H140F mutation on cAMP-producing activity in other EP3 isoforms (Fig. 7). We employed EP3 y and Cterminally truncated T335, both of which increased cAMP levels in an agonist-dependent manner when expressed in CHO cells (21). In our previous report, the G, activity elicited by EP3y observed in CHO cells requires more than 10⁻⁶ M of agonist, and its maximal response is not as high as EP2 or EP4 receptors, and thus the Gs coupling is considered to be less efficient. Indeed, the increase in cAMP formation by wild-type EP3 γ or T335 was hard to detect even in the presence of 10^{-6} M of agonist in the current expression system. On the other hand, introduction of H140F mutation into EP3y or T335 resulted in a receptor showing agonist-dependent cAMP-producing activity with similar EC₅₀ values around 10⁻⁸ M. Moreover, a significant increase in basal cAMP levels in the absence of agonist was observed in both EP37-H140F and T335-H140F but not in EP3β-H140F. The increase in basal cAMP levels by the T335-H140F was significantly higher than that by the EP3γ-H140F. Instead, the agonist-dependent increase in cAMP levels in the mutant T335 appeared lower than that in the mutant EP3 γ . However, in the current system, we could hardly detect cAMP increases with any significant difference in wildtype EP3 γ and T335 even in the presence of 10^{-5} M agonist. These results suggested that the effects of i2 loop mutation on G_s coupling of EP3 are independent of C-terminal structure, which is likely to govern the balance of constitutive and agonist-induced G protein activation as observed in the G, activity of the EP3 isoforms.

DISCUSSION

One of the most important findings in this study is the "gain of function" of G_s activity of the EP3 receptor by a point mutation; conversion of the amino acid His^{140} at the center of the i2 loop into an uncharged aromatic residue is sufficient to confer G_s coupling with high efficiency on the EP3 receptor (Fig. 3). The importance of the aromatic moiety of the equivalent amino acid was also demonstrated in G_s coupling of the EP2 receptor (Fig. 2). Previously, the importance of bulky hydrophobic amino