PPAR-γ Activation Restores Pancreatic Islet SERCA2 Levels and Prevents β-Cell Dysfunction under Conditions of Hyperglycemic and Cytokine Stress

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The maintenance of intracellular Ca²⁺ homeostasis in the pancreatic β-cell is closely regulated by activity of the sarco-endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺ ATPase (SERCA) pump. Our data demonstrate a loss of β-cell SERCA2b expression in several models of type 2 diabetes including islets from db/db mice and cadaveric diabetic human islets. Treatment of 832/13 rat INS-1-derived cells with 25 mM glucose and the proinflammatory cytokine IL-1β led to a similar loss of SERCA2b expression, which was prevented by treatment with the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)-γ agonist, pioglitazone. Pioglitazone was able to also protect against hyperglycemia and cytokine-induced elevations in cytosolic Ca²⁺ levels, insulin-secretory defects, and cell death. To determine whether PPAR-γ was a direct transcriptional regulator of the SERCA2 gene, luciferase assays were performed and showed that a ~259 bp region is sufficient to confer PPAR-γ transactivation; EMSA and chromatin immunoprecipitation experiments confirmed that PPAR-γ directly binds a PPAR response element in this proximal region. We next sought to characterize the mechanisms by which SERCA2b was down-regulated. INS-1 cells were exposed to high glucose and IL-1β in time course experiments. Within 2 h of exposure, activation of cyclin-dependent kinase 5 (CDK5) was observed and correlated with increased serine-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-γ and loss of SERCA2 protein expression, findings that were prevented by pioglitazone and roscovitine, a pharmacological inhibitor of CDK5. We conclude that pioglitazone modulates SERCA2b expression through direct transcriptional regulation of the gene and indirectly through prevention of CDK5-induced phosphorylation of PPAR-γ. (Molecular Endocrinology 26: 257–271, 2012)

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a disease that is growing in epidemic proportions. Currently, nearly 26 million Americans have diabetes (1), and worldwide the number affected approaches 220 million. Given escalating rates of obesity and the global adoption of a Western lifestyle, this number is expected to double by 2030 (2). Recent emphasis has been placed on the pancreatic β-cell in the comprehensive pathophysiology of T2DM (3, 4). Clinical and autopsy studies suggest that T2DM is characterized by a progressive loss of both β-cell function and mass (5–7). The diabetic milieu is enriched with high levels of glucose, pro-inflammatory cytokines,
SERCA activity is required to return basal cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels to prestimulation values (25).

Under normal conditions, the precise regulation of calcium (Ca\(^{2+}\)) homeostasis in the β-cell plays a key role in proinsulin processing, insulin-secretory function, and cellular survival (12). Glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (GSIS) from the pancreatic β-cell occurs through a Ca\(^{2+}\)-dependent mechanism that couples cellular depolarization with cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) influx from voltage-gated Ca\(^{2+}\) channels and insulin granule exocytosis (13–15). In addition to this central role in the secretory response, Ca\(^{2+}\) homeostasis is important in ER function, including protein folding and maturation (16, 17). A steep calcium concentration gradient is maintained across the cytosol to maintain the ER lumen, where free Ca\(^{2+}\) is estimated to be at least 3 orders of magnitude higher than cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels (18–20). Alterations in ER Ca\(^{2+}\) levels directly impact chaperone activity and lead to activation of the unfolded protein response or UPR, a protective cascade aimed at limiting the delivery of new proteins to the ER (21). The UPR activates pathways that serve to slow global transcription and increase ER-folding capacity through enhanced transcription of molecular chaperones. If these protective maneuvers fail, however, continued activation of the UPR results in a state of ER stress and induction of an apoptotic program (8).

The sarco-ER Ca\(^{2+}\)-ATPase (SERCA) pump is positioned at the intersection of β-cell insulin production and secretion and ER health. The SERCA pump is a P-type ATPase that hydrolyzes one ATP molecule to move two Ca\(^{2+}\) molecules across the sarco- or ER membrane. The SERCA pumps are 110- to 115-kDa proteins consisting of 10–11 transmembrane helices, three cytoplasmic domains, an A or anchor domain, a P or phosphorylation domain, and an N domain where ATP binds (22). SERCA protein is encoded by one of three highly conserved genes: SERCA 1, 2, and 3. Alternative splicing at the carboxy terminus leads to a number of different SERCA isoforms, with 11 isoforms presently identified (23). The SERCA pump serves as an integral gatekeeper of ER function where its activity is responsible for maintaining high levels of Ca\(^{2+}\) within the ER lumen (24). Furthermore, after acute glucose stimulation and insulin granule exocytosis, SERCA activity is required to return basal cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels to prestimulation values (25).

Several groups have demonstrated that β-cell SERCA2 isoform b (SERCA2b) expression is decreased in selected models of diabetes (26–28). In addition, our group has previously shown that in vivo loss of SERCA2b mRNA in islets from C57BLKS/J-db/db mice, a strain lacking a functional leptin receptor, can be restored through systemic administration of a pharmacological agonist of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR-γ) (26). To date, however, the underlying mechanisms and functional consequences of SERCA2b dysregulation have not been fully defined in pancreatic β-cells.

Here, we validate the observation that pancreatic islet SERCA2b expression is diminished in diabetes. Importantly, we show that SERCA2b expression is decreased in human islets isolated from cadaveric donors with T2DM. We further demonstrate that SERCA2b loss leads to alterations in insulin secretion and β-cell survival and show that PPAR-γ is a direct transcriptional regulator of the SERCA2 gene, acting via a novel PPAR-responsive element (PPRE) in a key regulatory region −249 bp upstream of the transcriptional start site. Our data also demonstrate that alterations in SERCA2 expression under inflammatory and hyperglycemic conditions are closely linked with activation of the serine/threonine kinase, cyclin-dependent kinase 5 (CDK5), and posttranslational modification of PPAR-γ, findings that can be reversed either through pharmacologic inhibition of CDK5 or pharmacological activation of PPAR-γ.

**Results**

**SERCA2 expression is down-regulated in models of T2DM**

Previously, we have shown that advanced diabetes is associated with profound changes in β-cell Ca\(^{2+}\) homeostasis and insulin-secretory function. These changes correlate with altered expression of SERCA2a, SERCA2b, and SERCA3 mRNA expression within the pancreatic islet (26). To study the mechanisms underlying this observation, we first sought to determine the most prevalent SERCA isoform within the pancreatic islet. Using equally efficient primers (Fig. 1A), quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed using RNA isolated from C57BL6/J mouse islets, and results show that SERCA2b was the most prevalent mRNA species. The expression of the next most abundant isoform, SERCA3, was about 50% of the level observed for SERCA2b. SERCA2a was expressed at extremely low levels (Fig. 1B). SERCA1 gene expression was not detected (data not shown).

Given these results, the remainder of our studies focused on the SERCA2b isoform. To characterize changes in SERCA2b mRNA and protein expression patterns in rodent models of T2DM, RNA was first isolated from 9-wk-old C57BLKS/J-db/db mice (hereafter referred to as db/db mice), and SERCA2b mRNA expression was com-
SERCA2b expression is increased by pioglitazone

In our previous study, daily oral treatment of db/db mice with the PPAR-γ agonist, pioglitazone, for 6 wk markedly improved islet SERCA2b mRNA expression (26). We therefore reasoned the SERCA2 gene might be a direct transcriptional target of the nuclear receptor PPAR-γ. To test this hypothesis, we first incubated INS-1 cells and mouse and human and islets with 10 μM pioglitazone for 24 h. In all three model systems, incubation with pioglitazone significantly increased expression of SERCA2b mRNA (Fig. 3, A–C). Immunofluorescence was performed on pancreatic sections from 14-wk-old C57BLKS/J and db/db mice that had been treated either with saline or pioglitazone by daily oral gavage for 6 wk as described previously (26). Results show diminished SERCA2 protein expression in db/db mice compared with normoglycemic controls. Systemic pioglitazone treatment restored SERCA2 staining intensity (Fig. 3D).

PPAR-γ is a direct transcriptional regulator of the SERCA2 gene

To determine whether the observed transcriptional effects were direct, we then scanned the human SERCA2 promoter for PPREs. We identified five putative PPRE-like elements. Although none had direct homology to previously published PPRE sequences, several similarities with known PPREs were noted (30–36) (Fig. 4A). We next performed reporter gene assays using fragments of the human SERCA2 promoter as depicted in Fig. 4B. Constructs were transfected into INS-1 cells, which were then treated with 10 μM pioglitazone for 72 h. Pioglitazone treatment increased luciferase expression nearly 1.5- to 3-fold in all of the constructs tested. Both basal and pioglitazone-stimulated luciferase expression was blocked by deletion of the region of the promoter between −259 and −25 bp upstream of the transcriptional start site (Fig. 4B), suggesting that the PPRE closest to the transcriptional start site might serve as the key regulatory region for PPAR-γ-mediated transcriptional regulation of the SERCA2 gene. Figure 4C shows the close homology of this PPRE between several species including human, mouse, rat, and rabbit. The PPAR-γ and retinoid X receptor binding sequences are noted in Fig. 4C. The variant base among species occupies

compared with levels observed in islets isolated from lean normoglycemic C57BLKS/J controls. SERCA2b expression levels were significantly lower in db/db mice compared with those observed in the background strain (Fig. 2A).

Immunoblot was next performed, and SERCA2 protein expression was similarly decreased in islets from diabetic 20 wk-old db/db mice compared with normoglycemic db/+ littermate controls (Fig. 2B). It should be noted that the antibody used did not distinguish between SERCA2 isoforms. Consequently, when referring to the measurement of protein, the term SERCA2 is used preferentially. Blood glucose levels were significantly higher in db/db mice compared with both the C57BLKS/J and db/+ mice, suggesting that islet SERCA2b expression patterns are inversely correlated with glucose homeostasis and directly correlatively with diabetes severity (Fig. 2C).

To ensure that this observation was not limited to models with impairments in leptin signaling, we treated C57BL6/J mice with multiple low doses of the DNA alkylating agent streptozotocin (STZ). STZ administered in this manner reliably results in hyperglycemia and inflammatory insulitis (29). Islets were isolated from STZ- and saline-treated mice, and islet SERCA2b mRNA levels were measured by qRT-PCR. Mice treated with STZ were hyperglycemic compared with controls and showed significantly lower levels of SERCA2b mRNA (Fig. 2, D and E). To confirm our findings in human T2DM, RNA was isolated from cadaveric donor islets. SERCA2b mRNA levels were decreased in islets isolated from T2DM donors compared with islets isolated from nondiabetic controls (Fig. 2F).

![FIG. 1. SERCA2b is the most prevalent isofrom expressed in the mouse islet. RNA was isolated from 8-wk-old C57BL6/J mice. A, Quantitative real-time PCR threshold cycles demonstrating linearity of amplification for primer sets from serial 10-fold dilutions of mouse islet reversed-transcribed RNA. B, Reverse-transcribed RNA was subjected to qRT-PCR quantitation of SERCA2a, SERCA2b, and SERCA3 transcript levels using equally efficient primers from panel A. *, Significantly different (P < 0.05) compared with SERCA2a transcript levels. #, Significantly different (P < 0.05) compared with SERCA2b transcript levels. n = 3 samples for each experiment, and results are displayed as the means ± SEM.](mendendojournals.org)
the spacing position of this direct repeat 1 PPRE, which contains a typical 6-N-6 configuration.

As confirmation of our findings, luciferase assays were performed following site-directed mutagenesis of the /H11002 259 bp construct. Three bases pairs in the proximal PPRE were changed according to the schematic shown in Fig. 4D. Results showed a significant decrease in both basal and pioglitazone-stimulated luciferase expression. Furthermore, transfection of a dominant-negative PPAR-/H9253 expression construct was able to block luciferase expression under basal and pioglitazone-stimulated conditions (Fig. 4E).

EMSA were next performed using INS-1 cell nuclear extract and a probe containing the /H11002 55 to /H11002 24 fragment of the human SERCA2 promoter. The addition of nuclear extract in Fig. 5A demonstrates that PPAR-/H9253 does, in fact, bind this region of the human SERCA2 promoter (lane 2). Loss of the shifted complex is observed after competition assays, which were performed by adding excess nonlabeled probe to the reaction mixture (lane 3). Furthermore, mutation of the PPRE in the cold probe prevented the loss of this complex (lane 4). The shifted complex (indicated by the arrow) contained two bands with a more prominent lower band. The competition assay resulted in loss of the prominent lower band with some decrease in the upper band as well, suggesting that PPAR-/H9253 binds as part of a complex that may include other cofactors.
For *in vivo* confirmation, chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) experiments were performed using whole-cell extract isolated from INS-1 cells. Results showed a 4-fold increase in recovery of the proximal SERCA2 promoter after immunoprecipitation with anti-PPAR-γ antibody compared with immunoprecipitation with normal rabbit serum (Fig. 5B). As a second negative control, PCR was performed to amplify β-actin genomic DNA, and percent recovery of the β-actin promoter was similar to results obtained with normal rabbit serum. Taken together, results from the luciferase, EMSA, and ChIP experiments suggest that PPAR-γ is a direct transcriptional regulator of the SERCA2 gene.

Loss of SERCA2 results in alterations in β-cell calcium homeostasis, secretory function, and survival, parameters that are partially restored by PPAR-γ activation

To recapitulate our *in vivo* findings and study further the functional relevance of SERCA2b down-regulation in the pancreatic β-cell, we next sought to create a cell-based system that would mimic the metabolic milieu of T2DM. Given an evolving appreciation of both systemic and locally derived cytokines and activation of the innate immune system in the pathogenesis of T2DM (37–41), INS-1 832/13 cells were treated with 5 ng/ml of the proinflammatory cytokine IL-1β and 25 mM glucose (1L-
1β+high glucose (HG)) for 6 and 24 h. We observed a progressive decline in SERCA2b mRNA levels over time (Fig. 6A). Similar to our in vivo observations (26), pioglitazone was able to restore SERCA2b mRNA levels under diabetic conditions (Fig. 6B). Treatment with IL-1β and high glucose resulted in decreased insulin release after glucose stimulation. This effect was partially restored with pioglitazone treatment (Fig. 6C). Consistent with a decrease in SERCA2 expression and activity, IL-1β and high glucose resulted in increased basal cytosolic calcium

![FIG. 4. Localization of the PPRE in the human SERCA2 promoter. A, Five putative PPREs were identified in the human SERCA2 promoter. B, Deletion constructs were generated and transfected into INS-1 cells, which were cultured in the presence or absence of pioglitazone (Pio) or DMSO (Cont) for 72 h. C, Schematic showing sequence of proximal putative PPAR-γ binding site in the –259-bp construct and conservation among species. The PPAR-γ- and retinoid X receptor-binding sites within the PPRE are denoted and indicate that the variant base among species occupies the spacing position of this direct repeat 1. D, Schematic illustrating site-directed mutagenesis strategy. E, Mutation analysis of putative binding site in the –259-bp SERCA2 promoter construct. Wild-type and mutated constructs were transfected into INS-1 cells and cultured in the presence or absence of pioglitazone or DMSO control. Wild-type constructs were also cotransfected with PPAR-γ dominant negative construct (PPARG-DN). In all cases, cells were harvested after a 72-h treatment, and reporter activity was measured and normalized to total protein content. Results are the means ± SEM for three independent experiments performed in triplicate. *, Significantly different (P < 0.05) compared with DMSO (Cont) treatment in wild-type construct.](image-url)
levels. Again in the context of high glucose and cytokine stress, pioglitazone was able to partially rescue basal cytosolic calcium levels in both INS-1 cells (Fig. 6D) and human islets (Fig. 6E) treated with IL-1β and 25 mM glucose. Treatment with IL-1β and 25 mM glucose led to increased cell death as assessed by activation of caspase-3, a finding that was significantly decreased by pioglitazone (Fig. 6F).

**SERCA2b overexpression partially protects against cytokine- and high glucose-induced secretory dysfunction**

To directly show that the effects of pioglitazone on insulin secretion were mediated through alterations in SERCA2b expression levels, INS-1 cells were transfected with a human flag-tagged SERCA2b expression construct and treated accordingly with IL-1β + HG. Figure 7A confirms that SERCA2b was overexpressed in our in vitro system. As indicated in Fig. 7B, under conditions of high glucose and cytokine stress with IL-1β, SERCA2b overexpression was able to also partially restore insulin secretion. The magnitude of this rescue was similar to results obtained with pioglitazone. Interestingly, overexpression of SERCA2b under basal conditions also led to a significant increase in GSIS.

**CDK5 activation disturbs SERCA2 protein expression through Ser-273 phosphorylation of PPARγ**

We next sought to understand the mechanisms underlying the observed loss of SERCA2b expression in the diabetic β-cell. A recent article by Choi et al. (42) suggests that serine-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-γ by activated CDK5 under inflammatory conditions leads to a loss of PPAR-γ transcriptional activity in adipocytes. To test this pathway in the β-cell, INS-1 cells were treated with IL-1β and 25 mM glucose in time course experiments. The results are shown in Fig. 8A. Within 2 h, tyrosine-15 phosphorylation of CDK5, a modification associated with activation of the kinase (43), was observed. Similarly, increased ser-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-γ was noted at 2 h, with no significant changes in total PPAR-γ levels. These changes preceded translation of significant levels of inducible nitric oxide synthase protein in response to cytokine signaling. In the context of CDK5 activation and phosphorylation of PPAR-γ, SERCA2b protein levels also began to decrease within 2 h and decreased further in a time-dependent manner. Increased tyrosine-15 phosphorylation of CDK5 was noted through 24 h of high glucose and cytokine treatment, but levels decreased by 48 h, corresponding to a decrease in total CDK5 levels (Fig. 8A). Activation of CDK5 requires association of a regulatory protein and depending on the context this regulatory protein can be either p35, p39, or p25 (44). We next measured expression of CDK5’s usual binding partner, p35; however, no change in p35 expression levels was observed in INS-1 cells treated with high glucose and IL-1β.

Interestingly, pharmacological inhibition of CDK5 with roscovitine was able to prevent down-regulation of
SERCA2 protein levels and inhibit phosphorylation of PPAR-γ. The same effects were seen with pioglitazone treatment (Fig. 8, A and B). Taken together, these results suggest that CDK5 activation in response to high glucose and inflammatory cytokines in the β-cell leads to Ser-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-γ and loss of SERCA2 expression.

In support of this model, protein was isolated from cadaveric human islets from normoglycemic and T2DM donors. Islets from diabetic donors showed decreased total SERCA2 expression as well as increased CDK5 activation and increased levels of Ser-273 phosphorylated PPAR-γ. Interestingly, and in contrast to INS-1 cells, increased expression of p35 was observed in diabetic human islets (Fig. 9).

**Discussion**

The divalent cation, Ca\(^{2+}\), plays an important role in several aspects of normal β-cell health. In particular, the maintenance of a robust pool of Ca\(^{2+}\) in the ER plays a key role in several aspects of β-cell function including insulin production and secretion and the maintenance of ER health (8, 12, 21, 25). The SERCA pump resides in the ER membrane and hydrolyzes one ATP molecule to move two Ca\(^{2+}\) molecules across the sarco- or ER membrane. The major goal of our study was to define functional consequences and underlying mechanisms of β-cell SERCA2b dysregulation in the context of T2DM.

Here, we have identified SERCA2b as the predominant SERCA isoform expressed in the pancreatic islet. Transcriptional profiling revealed that SERCA2b is expressed at about twice the level of SERCA3, whereas SERCA2a was expressed at very low levels within the pancreatic islet. We detected no expression of SERCA1. SERCA2a is expressed in the sarcoplasmic reticulum of the heart, slow-twitch skeletal muscle, and smooth muscle, whereas SERCA2b is ubiquitously expressed. SERCA3 is found in a variety of tissues; however, its expression is more limited compared with 2b (24). Although a number of different SERCA isoforms have been identified, structural analysis and developmental studies suggest distinct roles for many of these isoforms. Of the 11 isoforms, SERCA2b has the highest calcium affinity and therefore the lowest catalytic turnover, functional properties that have been recently explained in an elegant structural analysis of the SERCA2b molecule (45). SERCA2b contains a C-terminal extension of 49 residues called the 2b-tail. This region provides an elevation in protein stability and maintenance of SERCA2b expression as well as increased CDK5 activation and increased levels of Ser-273 phosphorylated PPAR-γ. Interestingly, and in contrast to INS-1 cells, increased expression of p35 was observed in diabetic human islets (Fig. 9).
Deficiency of SERCA3 did not lead to increased basal cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) levels (46, 47), as was observed in the present study as well as our previous analysis of Ca\(^{2+}\) homeostasis in db/db islets (26). Interestingly, loss of SERCA3 is associated with alterations in cytosolic Ca\(^{2+}\) oscillations (46). Similarly, in db/db islets, in which both SERCA2b and SERCA3 are down-regulated, marked diminution in oscillations were similarly observed (26). Under both normal and stressed conditions in our study, transient overexpression of SERCA2b significantly increased insulin secretion. These results suggest that in contrast to SERCA3, SERCA2b likely plays a larger role in regulated insulin secretion.

We and others have shown that SERCA2b is down-regulated in the rodent diabetic islet (26–28). Here we show that SERCA2b expression is also significantly decreased in human islets isolated from cadaveric T2DM diabetic donors. *In vitro* experiments demonstrate that SERCA2b is specifically down-regulated in the presence of high glucose (25 mM) and inflammatory cytokines. Numerous clinical and preclinical studies clearly demonstrate that thiazolidinediones, which act as agonists of PPAR-\(\gamma\), have direct effects to improve pancreatic \(\beta\)-cell function and survival in T2DM (11). Our data indicate that SERCA2b is directly regulated by the orphan nuclear receptor PPAR-\(\gamma\). Further, we identify what we believe is a novel PPRE (CG-GCGA A AGGGGA) in the proximal human SERCA2 promoter that has high similarity to rat, mouse, and rabbit promoter sequences (Fig. 4D).

Although we hypothesize a direct effect on the SERCA2 promoter, our data do not exclude the possibility that PPAR-\(\gamma\) might also modulate maladaptive chromatin architecture responsible for SERCA2 transcriptional down-regulation in diabetes. In fact, an integrated computational genomics approach was recently used to produce a genome-wide library of high confidence PPAR target genes. Results from this analysis predict that PPAR-\(\gamma\) might regulate a number of chromatin-modifying genes (34). In support of this, our previous work has shown that systemic treatment of db/db mice with pioglitazone improved euchromatin architecture at key \(\beta\)-cell loci including the insulin and GLUT2 promoters (26). Although we have identified this most proximal element to be a functional PPRE, one limitation of our study is that the design of our reporter constructs does not allow us to detect cooperativity between the five putative PPREs.

In addition to this direct transcriptional effect, we also show that pioglitazone preserves SERCA2b expression through modulation of CDK5 activity and PPAR-\(\gamma\) phosphorylation. Recently, Choi et al. (42) showed in adipocytes that CDK5 phosphorylated PPAR-\(\gamma\) at the serine-273 residue, leading to transcriptional inefficiency of the nuclear receptor. PPAR-\(\gamma\) phosphorylation was increased after high-fat diet feeding and reversed by small interfering RNA-mediated and pharmacological inhibition of CDK5. Interestingly in this study, rosiglitazone, a CDK5 inhibitor, was also able to block serine-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-\(\gamma\) and restore transcription of key target genes like adiponectin. To explain this finding, hydrogen/deuterium exchange mass spectrometry was performed and showed that ligand binding led to a conformational change in PPAR-\(\gamma\), which prevented CDK5-mediated Ser-273 phosphorylation (42).

To determine whether a similar paradigm could be applied in the \(\beta\)-cell, we measured Ser-273 phosphorylation of PPAR-\(\gamma\) and activation of CDK5 in INS-1 cells after exposure to high glucose and cytokine stress. Interestingly, we observed a reciprocal relationship between PPAR-\(\gamma\) phosphorylation and SERCA2 expression. Both PPAR-\(\gamma\) phosphorylation and SERCA2 loss were blocked...
by pharmacological inhibition of CDK5 with roscovitine or treatment with the PPAR-γ agonist pioglitazone. Although loss of SERCA2 correlated strongly with activation of CDK5, one potential weakness of our data is that roscovitine in not a specific CDK5 inhibitor and has activity against other cyclin-dependent kinases (48).

Although our data would suggest a maladaptive role for CDK5 in the β-cell under hyperglycemia and cytokine stress, previous literature indicates a mixed role for CDK5 in islet physiology. Genome-wide association studies have identified polymorphisms in CDK5-regulatory subunit-associated protein1-like 1 (CDKAL1) that predispose to T2DM (49–51). CDKAL1 binds to p35 and inhibits CDK5 activity (52).

The function of CDK5 has been best studied in the neuronal system, where it is associated with both pro-survival and pro-apoptotic effects. The role of CDK5 in the regulated insulin-secretory pathway is unclear, with studies showing both positive and negative results (53–57). In the context of glucose toxicity, inhibition of CDK5 with roscovitine prevented hyperglycemia-induced loss of insulin and pdx1 gene expression (58). Of note, the pdx1 gene is known to be a direct target of PPAR-γ in the β-cell (31). A second study showed that overexpression of p35 in mouse insulinoma cells led to apoptosis (59).

Many of the pro-apoptotic functions of CDK5 occur within the context of hyperactivation of the kinase, which follows cleavage of p35 to p25 by the calcium-activated protease, calpain. Hyperactivation of CDK5 in the central nervous system is linked to the pathophysiology of Alzheimer’s disease (44, 60–62). Given similarities between the pathophysiology of Alzheimer’s disease and T2DM, Daval et al. (63) recently pursued the hypothesis that CDK5 might mediate β-cell death induced by islet-amyloid polypeptide. Surprisingly, they describe a protective role for CDK5 in rat islets that overexpress human islet amyloid polypeptide. They further showed that in a normal, unstressed environment, loss of CDK5 in rat islets and INS-1 cells led to increased apoptosis through loss of focal adhesion kinase activity.

Clearly, the existing literature and our study point to a deep complexity regarding the physiology of CDK5 in the β-cell under both normal and diabetic conditions. We propose the hypothesis that the role of CDK5, as in the neuronal system, is context dependent and may favor either survival or death depending on the conditions studied and whether the regulatory subunit is p39, p35, or p25. Model Fig. 10 provides an overall summary of our experimental findings. Taken together, our data indicate that dysregulation of SERCA2b plays a prominent role in the progressive β-cell death and dysfunction observed in T2DM. Our data also suggest that pharmacological activation of PPAR-γ has dual effects to preserve SERCA2b expression. First, PPAR-γ acts as a direct transcriptional regulator, and pharmacological activation with PPAR-γ ligands is expected to increase gene transcription. In ad-
dation, treatment with pioglitazone inhibits CDK5-mediated PPAR-γ phosphorylation and prevents transcriptional inefficiency of the nuclear receptor. Restoration of SERCA2b expression, either through targeted pharmacological activation of PPAR-γ or inhibition of CDK5 may be viable therapeutic approaches to improve β-cell function and survival in the context of the hyperglycemic and cytokine stress that typifies T2DM.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture and primary human islet preparations
INS-1 cells (832/13) were cultured in RPMI-1640 containing 11.1 mM glucose supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 µg/ml streptomycin, 10 mM HEPES, 2 mM L-glutamine, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, and 50 µM β-mercaptoethanol. Human islets isolated from cadaveric nondiabetic and diabetic donors were obtained from Beta-Pro, LLC, the National Disease Research Interchange, or the Integrated Islet Distribution Program. On arrival, islets were immediately placed in DMEM containing 5.5 mM glucose, 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and incubated overnight at 37°C with 5% CO₂. Our analysis included islets from seven nondiabetic donors and six donors with T2DM. The average age of nondiabetic donors was 52.4 yr (SEM). The average body mass index (BMI) was 25.1 ± 1.8 kg/m². The mean age of diabetic donors was 48.9 yr (SEM). The average body mass index (BMI) was 33.1 ± 1.6 kg/m². There was no statistical difference in age (P = 0.38) or BMI (P = 0.63) between the two groups.

Animals and islet isolation

Male C57BL/6/j mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME) at 8 wk of age. Selected mice were treated with ip streptozotocin to induce hyperglycemia at a dose of 55 mg/kg/d for 5 consecutive days. Male C57BLKS/J, C57BLKS/J-db/db mice, and littermate heterozygous controls (db/+ ) were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory at 8 wk of age and either allowed to age or treated with daily oral gavage of saline or pioglitazone (Takeda Pharmaceuticals, Deerfield, IL) at a dose of 20 mg/kg/d for 6 wk as previously described (26). Animals were maintained under protocols approved by the Indiana University School of Medicine Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee using Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care guidelines. Mice were kept in a standard light-dark cycle with regular access to a chow diet and water ad libitum. At the time of euthanasia, blood was sampled from the tail and blood glucose concentrations were determined using an AlphaTRAK glucometer (Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL). At designated time points, pancreatic islets were isolated by collagenase digestion as described previously (64). Isolated islets were hand picked and cultured in phenol-red free low-glucose DMEM overnight before use. For in vitro incubations with pioglitazone, islets were allowed to recover overnight and then incubated with pioglitazone dissolved in 0.1% dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) to achieve a final concentration of 10 µM.

Quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR)
INS-1 cells (832/13) and islets were washed and processed for total RNA using Qiagen’s RNeasy kit (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA), according to the manufacturer’s instructions. For qRT-PCR experiments, total RNA (5 µg) was reverse-transcribed at 37°C for 1 h using 15 µg random hexamers, 0.5 mM deoxynucleotide triphosphate, 5× first-strand buffer, 0.01 mM dithiothreitol, and 200 U of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen) in a final reaction volume of 20 µl. qRT-PCR was performed as described previously (65). Relative RNA levels were established against the invariant β-actin mRNA species, using the comparative Ct method, as described previously (66). Primer sequences are provided in Supplemental Table 1 published on The Endocrine Society’s Journals Online web site at http://mend.endojournals.org.

Immunoblot analysis
Supplemental Table 2 contains a complete list of the antibodies and antibody dilutions used in this report. For immunoblot analysis, approximately 1.5 × 10⁴ INS-1 cells or 100–125 human or mouse islets were preincubated in RPMI 1640 medium with 2.5 mM glucose for 24 h in the presence or absence of 10 µM pioglitazone or 10 µM roscovitine and then treated with or without a combination of 5 ng/µl of IL-1β and 25 mM glucose for designated time points. Total protein (20 µg) was separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred to a polyvinylidene fluoride membrane, and incubated at 4°C overnight with primary antibodies as summarized in Supplemental Table 2. Bound primary antibodies were detected with antimouse donkey antibody (1:1,000 dilution), antigoat donkey antibody (1:10,000 dilution), or antirabbit donkey antibody (1:10,000 dilution). Immunoreactivity was visualized using fluorometric scanning on an Odyssey imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE).

Immunofluorescence
After euthanasia and intracardiac administration of 4% paraformaldehyde, pancreata were rapidly dissected, paraffin
embedded, and sectioned at 5-μm intervals. Immunofluorescent analysis of insulin and SERCA2 was performed as previously described (26). Images were obtained using a Zeiss Z1 inverted microscope equipped with an Orca ER charge-coupled device camera (Hamamatsu Photonics, Hamamatsu City, Japan). Secondary antibodies were goat antirabbit IgG conjugated to Alexa Fluor 555 (1:200 dilution) and donkey antimouse conjugated to Alexa Fluor 488 (1:50 dilution) (Invitrogen).

Reporter assays
Deletion constructs of the human SERCA2 promoter region were obtained as previously described and subcloned upstream of the luciferase coding sequence in the pGL3-basic plasmid (67). Mutagenesis of these constructs was performed using the Stratagene QuickChange Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. All sequences were confirmed by automated DNA sequencing. INS-1 cells were seeded in six-well plates 24 h before transfection. Plasmid (2 μg) diluted into 0.1 ml PBS was mixed with 6 μl of Metafectene Pro (Biotex, Munich, Germany) and incubated at room temperature for 15 min. The transfection mixture was added to each well of a six-well plate along with 2 ml of medium without antibiotics. At 6 h after transfection, the medium was replaced with fresh medium plus antibiotics with or without 10 μM pioglitazone. At 72 h after transfection, cells were harvested, and a luciferase assay was performed utilizing a commercially available luminometric kit (Promega Corp., Madison, WI). Luciferase activity was normalized to protein concentration as measured using the Bio-Rad Protein Assay reagent (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, CA) according to manufacturer’s instructions. The dominant negative PPAR-γ construct in pcDNA3 was a kind gift of Dr. V. K. Chatterjee (Department of Medicine, University of Cambridge, Addenbrooke’s Hospital, Cambridge CB2 2QQ, UK). Briefly, the construct was made by mutating the conserved hydrophobic and charged residues (Leu66 and Glu477) in the putative AF-2 domain to alanine. The mutant receptor retains ligand and DNA binding but exhibits markedly reduced transactivation due to impaired coactivator recruitment (68).

ChIP assay
Approximately 2.5 × 10^7 INS-1 cells (from three confluent 10-cm dishes) were fixed in 1% formaldehyde for 15 min, sonicated to shear DNA fragments in the range of 800-2000 bp, and subjected to ChIP as detailed previously (66). Samples were quantitated in triplicate by SYBR Green I-based real-time PCR using forward and reverse primer sequences for the rat SERCA2 promoter with the following sequences:

**Forward:** 5'-CGCCTTTGCGTGTGGAAGG-3'

**Reverse:** 5'-TGCGTTCTTGGTGGTGCCTC-3'.

Immunoprecipitation with normal rabbit serum was performed as a negative control. As an additional negative control, PCR was performed to amplify β-actin genomic DNA using the ChIP-IT Control Kit for Rat (Active-Motif, Carlsbad, CA).

EMSA
EMSA was performed using the −55 to −24 fragment of the human SERCA2 promoter containing the following sequence: 5'-GGCGCGCCGGCCGAAAGGGAGGCCAGCCGCGCA-3'. A mutated probe was constructed with the following sequence: 5'-
CGGCGGCTTCTGAATTGGAGGACGCGCGCA-3’. Short oligonucleotide probes were generated by 5’ end-labeling single-stranded oligonucleotides with IRDye 232800 (Li-Cor Biosciences). Labeled oligonucleotides were then annealed to an excess of 5’ end-labeled complementary strand. DNA-binding reactions (in 20 μl volumes) proceeded at room temperature as described previously (69) and consisted of 1 μg of INS-1 nuclear extract in a reaction buffer consisting of 10 mM Hepes (pH 7.9), 75 mM KCl, 2.5 mM MgCl2, 0.1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol, 3% Ficoll, and 50 ng/μl polydeoxyinosinoc acid. Reactions were subjected to electrophoresis on a 5% polyacrylamide gel. IRDye intensity was detected on the Odyssey infrared imaging system.

Overexpression experiments

A human SERCA2b expression vector containing a C-terminus Myc-DDK (FLAG) tag (Origene Technologies, Rockville, MD) was transfected into INS-1 832/13 cells using Lipofectamine 2000 reagent (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, logarithmically growing cells were transfected with 500 ng of plasmid and 2 μl of Lipofectamine 2000. At 72 h after transfection, GSIS assays were performed, and protein lysate was collected for immunoblotting.

GSIS

INS-1 cells were seeded in 12-well plates and allowed to reach 80–90% confluence. Cells were treated with 10 μM pioglitazone or DMSO for 16 h or transfected as described above. Cells were cultured an additional 6 h in the presence or absence of 5 ng/μl of IL-1β and 25 mM glucose, and GSIS was performed as previously described (70). In brief, cells were preincubated in Hank’s balanced salt solution (HBSS) (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, logarithmically growing cells were transfected with 500 ng of plasmid and 2 μl of Lipofectamine 2000. At 72 h after transfection, GSIS assays were performed, and protein lysate was collected for immunoblotting.

Intracellular Ca2+ measurements

Semiconfluent INS-1 cells cultured in a 96-well plate were pretreated with or without pioglitazone for 16 h followed by combined treatment with IL-1β and 25 mM glucose for 24 h. Cells were then incubated in HBSS containing 2.5 mM glucose and 5 μM fura-2/AM (Invitrogen) for 30 min at 37 °C in a CO2 incubator. After rinsing, intracellular Ca2+-dependent fluorescence was recorded using a SpectraMax M5 fluorescence imaging plate reader (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA). Fura-2 fluorescence was measured with excitation at 340 nm and 380 nm, and emission was measured at 510 nm. Human islets were cultured in a glass bottom dish (MatTek Corp., Ashland, MA), and incubation with fura-2/AM was performed in the same manner. The detection of intracellular Ca2+-dependent fluorescence was performed as previously described (26) using a D1-fluorescent microscope (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

Statistical analysis

Differences between groups were examined for significance with either the two-tailed Student’s t test or one-way ANOVA followed by the Tukey-Kramer posttest using GraphPad Prism statistics software (GraphPad Software, Inc., San Diego, CA). A P value < 0.05 was taken to indicate the presence of a significant difference.

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