

Polyunsaturated Fatty Acid Suppression of Hepatic Fatty Acid Synthase and S14 Gene Expression Does Not Require Peroxisome Proliferator-activated Receptor α *

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Bing Ren[‡], Annette P. Thelen[‡], Jeffrey M. Peters[§], Frank J. Gonzalez[§], and Donald B. Jump^{‡¶}

From the [‡]Departments of Biochemistry and Physiology, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824 and [§]Laboratory of Metabolism NCI, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, Maryland 20892

Dietary polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) induce hepatic peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation and suppress lipogenic gene expression. The peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α) has been implicated as a mediator of fatty acid effects on gene transcription. This report uses the PPAR α -deficient mouse to examine the role of PPAR α in the PUFA regulation of mRNAs encoding hepatic lipogenic (fatty acid synthase (FAS) and the S14 protein (S14)), microsomal (cytochrome P450 4A2 (CYP4A2)), and peroxisomal (acyl-CoA oxidase (AOX)) enzymes. PUFA ingestion induced mRNA_{AOX} (2.3-fold) and mRNA_{CYP4A2} (8-fold) and suppressed mRNA_{FAS} and mRNA_{S14} by $\geq 80\%$ in wild type mice. In PPAR α -deficient mice, PUFA did not induce mRNA_{AOX} or mRNA_{CYP4A2}, indicating a requirement for PPAR α in the PUFA-mediated induction of these enzymes. However, PUFA still suppressed mRNA_{FAS} and mRNA_{S14} in the PPAR α -deficient mice. Studies in rats provided additional support for the differential regulation of lipogenic and peroxisomal enzymes by PUFA. These studies provide evidence for two distinct pathways for PUFA control of hepatic lipid metabolism. One requires PPAR α and is involved in regulating peroxisomal and microsomal enzymes. The other pathway does not require PPAR α and is involved in the PUFA-mediated suppression of lipogenic gene expression.

Dietary polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs),¹ in particular highly unsaturated *n*-3 fatty acids, suppress hepatic lipogenesis and triglyceride synthesis/secretion while inducing peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation (1–12). These effects on lipid metabolism are due to changes in gene expression leading to induction or suppression of mRNAs encoding key metabolic enzymes (4, 13–19). PUFA administration *in vivo* or to cultured rat hepatocytes rapidly inhibits the transcription of genes encoding fatty acid synthase, stearyl-CoA desaturase, the S14 protein, and L-type pyruvate kinase (15–19). While the molecular mediators for PUFA regulation of these genes have not been defined, studies on the regulation of peroxisomal

enzymes suggest that fatty acids activate a nuclear receptor to control gene transcription (20–24).

Peroxisome proliferators encompass a wide variety of compounds including hypolipidemic drugs (WY14,643, gemfibrozil, and clofibrate), plasticizers (di-(2-ethylhexyl)phthalate), steroids (dehydroepiandrosterone and dehydroepiandrosterone-sulfate), and dietary fatty acids (25–27). Collectively, peroxisome proliferator-induced changes in gene expression are mediated by activating a nuclear receptor, the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR). PPARs are members of the steroid/thyroid superfamily of nuclear receptors (20–28). Activation of PPAR-mediated transcription is achieved through PPAR-RXR heterodimers which bind DNA motifs called peroxisome proliferator response elements (PPRE) located in promoters of target genes (20–33). PPARs also have inhibitory effects on gene transcription. For example, apolipoprotein CIII and transferrin gene expression is inhibited by PPAR-RXR competition for an HNF-4 binding site within the promoters of these genes (34, 35). PPAR α has also been shown to interfere with thyroid hormone action by sequestering RXR α , a factor required for thyroid hormone receptor binding to DNA (36–38).

The fact that PPARs are activated by fatty acids in conjunction with the known effects of PUFA on peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation suggest that PUFA regulation of these pathways might utilize a common transcriptional mediator, *i.e.* PPAR. While several PPAR subtypes (α , β (also known as δ , Nucl1, FAAR), γ 1, and γ 2) have been identified in rodents, PPAR α is the predominant form in rodent liver (22–24, 28, 31, 39). Recent gene targeting studies clearly demonstrate that PPAR α is required for the pleiotropic response to peroxisome proliferators including an increase in hepatic mRNAs encoding peroxisomal and microsomal enzymes (40).

This report examines the role of PPAR α in PUFA-regulation of mRNAs encoding hepatic lipogenic, microsomal and peroxisomal enzymes. In this work, we assessed PUFA regulation of the S14 gene and fatty acid synthase, models for lipogenic gene expression, and acyl-CoA oxidase (AOX) and cytochrome P450A2 (CYP4A2), enzymes involved in peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation, respectively. The recently developed PPAR α -null mouse (40) was used to determine whether PPAR α mediates PUFA regulation of hepatic AOX, CYP4A2, S14, and FAS gene expression. This work shows that while PPAR α is required for the PUFA-mediated induction of both AOX and CYP4A2 gene expression, it is not required for the PUFA-mediated inhibition of either S14 or FAS gene expression. These and other studies indicate that PUFA regulation of hepatic gene transcription involves at least two distinct pathways, a PPAR α -dependent and a PPAR α -independent pathway.

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¶ To whom all correspondence should be addressed. Tel.: 517-355-6475 (ext. 1246); Fax: 517-355-5125; E-mail: Jump@pilot.msu.edu.

¹ The abbreviations used are: PUFA, polyunsaturated fatty acids; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; AOX, acyl-CoA oxidase; RXR, retinoid X receptor; FAS, fatty acid synthase; CYP4A2, cytochrome P450 4A2; PPRE, peroxisome proliferator response element; TK, thymidine kinase; CAT, chloramphenicol acetyltransferase; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals and Diets—Male Sprague-Dawley rats (125–150 g) were obtained from Charles River Breeding Laboratories (Kalamazoo, MI). Male C57BL/6N × Sv/129 mice (25–35 g), F₆ homozygote wild-type (+/+) or knockout (-/-) were used for one of the feeding studies (40). Rats and mice were maintained on Teklad chow diet. In all feeding studies, rats and mice were meal-trained to a high carbohydrate diet as described previously (16, 17). The test diets consisted of a high carbohydrate (58% glucose) diet (ICN, Cleveland, OH) supplemented with either 10% (w/w) of complex fats (triolein, olive oil, fish (menhaden)), fatty acid ethyl esters (eicosapentaenoic acid or docosahexaenoic acid (Southeast Fisheries Science Center, Charleston, SC)), or 0.2% gemfibrozil (Sigma). All diets were supplemented with 0.1% butylated hydroxytoluene (17).

RNA Analysis—Total RNA from rat or mouse livers or from cultured rat primary hepatocytes was isolated using the guanidinium isothiocyanate procedure. The following cDNA probes were used to measure specific mRNAs: S14, pExoPEI16 (16); acyl-CoA oxidase, pTZ18R obtained from T. Osumi, Himeji Institute, Japan (41); fatty acid synthase, pFAS1 obtained from H. S. Sul, University of California-Berkeley (42), and β -actin, pRBA-1, obtained from L. Kedes, Stanford University, Palo Alto, CA.

The cDNA for *CYP4A2* was cloned by differential display screening (43) of rat liver RNA. First strand cDNA was prepared (Delta RNA Fingerprinting Kit, K1801-1, CLONTECH) from rat liver RNA of rats fed olive oil and fish oil for 5 days. PCR was performed using a Perkin-Elmer DNA thermal cycler 9600 as follows: one cycle of 94 °C, 10 s; 40 °C, 5 min; 68 °C, 5 min; two cycles of 94 °C, 5 s; 40 °C, 5 min, 68 °C, 5 min; 25 cycles of 94 °C 5 s; 60 °C, 1 min; and 68 °C, 2 min for 30 cycles of 95 °C/min; 60 °C/min; 72 °C/min. ³⁵S-Labeled PCR products were separated by denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis and visualized by autoradiography. A band present in the fish oil derived cDNA and diminished in the olive oil derived cDNA was excised from the gel, reamplified by PCR, and cloned into pGEM-T (Promega). The insert was sequenced by dideoxynucleotide sequencing (44). Computer assisted analysis (GCG, University of Wisconsin) of the cloned sequence with the GenBank™ data base indicated that the cloned sequence was identical to a region of the rat cytochrome P450 4A2 sequence (accession no. 57719) at nucleotides 12624–12728 for the rat gene. This sequence was in the noncoding 3'-untranslated region. To obtain the sequence unique to *CYP4A2* and containing the translated sequence, two PCR primers (5'-primer, 5'-atatatgaattc⁷³⁷⁰CACATGGGACCACCTGG; 3'-primer, 5'-atatatatcgat¹²⁶⁵⁰GCTGGGAAGGTG TCTGGAGT (underlined sequence represents *Eco*RI and *Cla*I cloning sites, respectively; the superscripted numbers represent the position of the nucleotide in the rat *CYP4A2* gene)) were used to generate a cDNA from liver RNA of fish oil-fed rats by reverse transcriptase-PCR. The identity of the clone (pCYP4A2-2) was verified by DNA sequencing and used to measure *CYP4A2* mRNA.

mRNA levels were measured by dot and Northern blot analyses (17) and the level of hybridization was quantified using a Molecular Dynamics PhosphorImager (Sunnyvale, CA) or by videodensitometry using an Agfa-2 scanner linked to a Macintosh computer with NIH Image software.

Plasmid Construction and Primary Hepatocytes—The construction of the reporter gene with the rat AOX PPPE fused upstream from the thymidine kinase promoter (TKCAT223) was described previously (38).

Primary hepatocytes were obtained from rat liver by the collagenase perfusion method and transfected with specific DNAs in the presence of Lipofectin (16). Hepatocytes were treated with triiodothyronine along with specific fatty acids or peroxisome proliferators (WY14,643 or gemfibrozil dissolved in Me₂SO) (16, 38). After 48 h of treatment, hepatocytes were analyzed for protein and CAT activity (38). CAT activity is defined as CAT units = counts/min of ¹⁴C-butylated chloramphenicol/h/100 μ g of protein.

Statistical Analysis—All data are presented as the mean \pm S.E. Statistical comparisons were made by a single-factor factorial analysis of variance using Microsoft Excel version 7.

RESULTS

The Effects of Olive and Fish Oil on Hepatic Gene Expression in Wild-type (+/+) and PPAR α Null (-/-) Mice—PPAR α is the predominant PPAR subtype in rodent liver and has a central role in regulating the transcription of genes encoding hepatic peroxisomal and microsomal enzymes (24, 28, 40). To

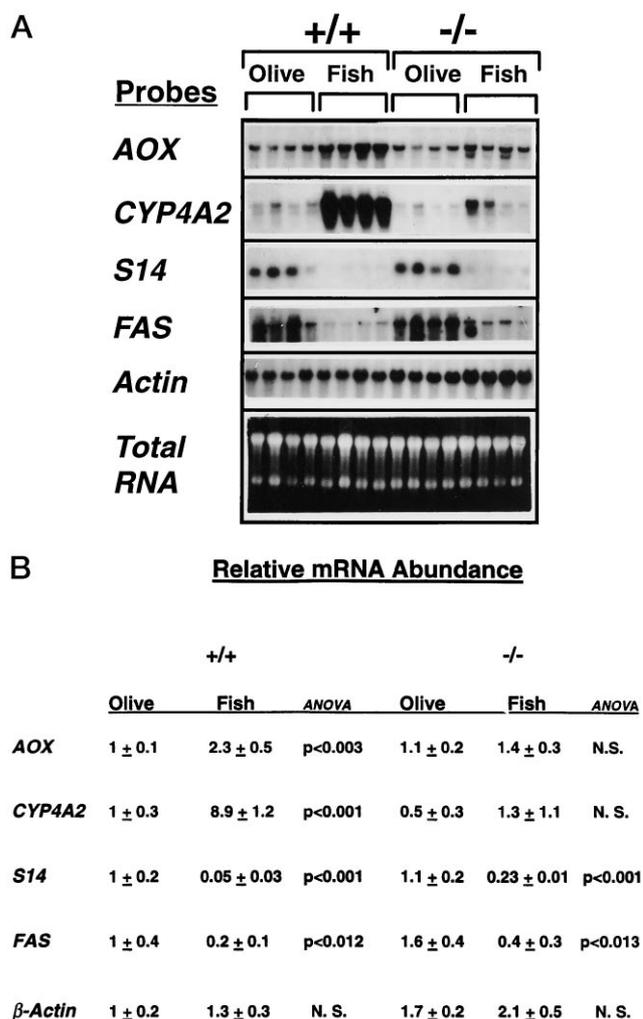


FIG. 1. The effects of olive and fish oil feeding on levels of mRNA_{AOX}, mRNA_{CYP4A2}, mRNA_{S14}, and mRNA_{FAS} from both wild-type (+/+) and PPAR α null (-/-) mice. Eight mice of each genotype were meal-fed with diets supplemented with 10% olive oil for 10 days. Four of each genotype were switched to a diet supplemented with 10% fish oil for 5 days. Total RNA was prepared from mouse livers and measured for mRNAs encoding AOX, CYP4A2, S14, FAS, and β -actin by Northern analysis. Ethidium bromide staining of the RNA on a typical agarose gel indicates that the RNA was evenly loaded. The results of the hybridization are displayed (A) and quantified (B). A, The AOX, CYP4A2, S14, and FAS and β -actin blots were exposed to x-ray film for 36, 18, 24, 24, and 18 h, respectively. B, the level of hybridization was quantified by a PhosphorImager and normalized against the level of expression of the corresponding mRNAs in olive oil-fed mouse liver; n = 4. The statistical comparison (analysis of variance, ANOVA) was for olive oil versus fish oil-fed mice. N.S., not significant.

determine whether PPAR α mediates PUFA regulation of hepatic gene expression wild type (+/+) and PPAR α null (-/-) mice were fed an olive oil or fish oil diet for 5 days. Northern analyses show that feeding (+/+) mice fish oil for 5 days resulted in a ~2-fold (p < 0.003) and ~9-fold (p < 0.001) increase in hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2}, respectively (Fig. 1, A and B). In contrast, fish oil did not significantly induce mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} in the PPAR α null (-/-) mice. These results indicate that PPAR α is required for the PUFA-mediated induction of AOX and CYP4A2 mRNAs. While hepatic β -actin mRNA was elevated in the (-/-) mice when compared with the (+/+) mice, it was not affected by dietary manipulation.

Analysis of mRNAs encoding S14 and FAS shows both mRNAs were suppressed (\geq 70%) in both the wild type (+/+) and PPAR α null (-/-) mice following fish oil feeding. Since

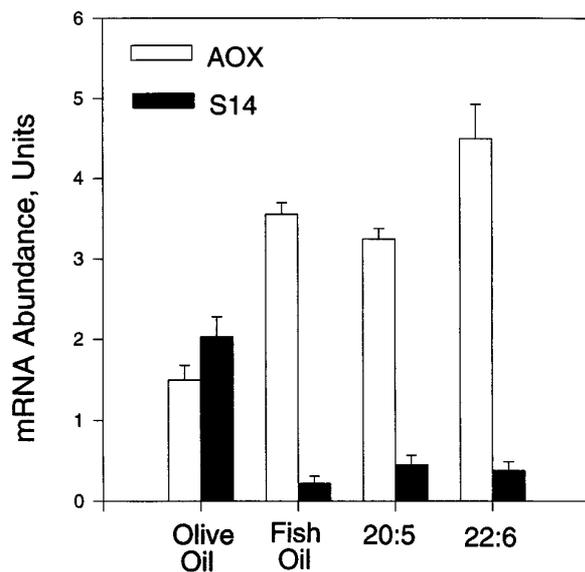


FIG. 2. A comparison of the effect of olive oil and fish oil on hepatic *S14* and *AOX* gene expression *in vivo*. Rats were meal-fed with diets supplemented with 10% (w/w) olive oil, menhaden (fish) oil, eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5), or docosahexaenoic acid (22:6) for 5 days. Total hepatic RNA was prepared and examined by dot-blot analysis for the effect of feeding on mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{S14} levels. The results were quantified and normalized against the level of hepatic mRNA expressed in chow-fed rats, *i.e.* 1 unit. Analysis of variance for both mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{S14} levels for menhaden oil-, 20:5-, and 22:6-fed *versus* olive oil-fed, $p < 0.002$. These results are representative of two separate studies; $n = 4$.

PUFA rapidly inhibits the transcription of both the *S14* and the *FAS* gene (16, 17), these observations indicate that PPAR α is not required for the PUFA-mediated suppression of transcription of these genes.

The Effects of Olive Oil and Fish Oil on Hepatic AOX and S14 Gene Expression—Previous studies have shown that *S14* and *FAS* are regulated by PUFA and peroxisomal proliferators in rat liver or primary hepatocytes (17, 45). The studies described below compare the PUFA and peroxisome proliferator regulation of *S14* and *AOX* in rat liver and primary hepatocytes. These *in vivo* and *in vitro* (rat primary hepatocytes) studies were performed to gain additional support for the idea that PUFA regulation of lipogenic gene expression is a result of a different pathway than PUFA regulation of *AOX* gene expression.

Rats were meal-fed diets supplemented with 10% olive oil, fish oil, eicosapentaenoic acid (20:5), or docosahexaenoic acid (22:6) for 5 days. When compared with chow-fed rats, hepatic mRNA_{AOX} is elevated ~40% in olive oil-fed rats and ~3-fold in fish oil-, 20:5-, and 22:6-fed rats (Fig. 2). mRNA_{CYP4A2} was induced >10-fold under similar conditions.² While mRNA_{S14} is induced ~2-fold by the olive oil feeding, fish oil, 20:5, and 22:6 suppressed mRNA_{S14} by $\geq 78\%$. Hepatic mRNA_{FAS} is also suppressed in fish oil-fed rats (17). Feeding mice (Fig. 1) or rats (Fig. 2) fish oil or their highly unsaturated fatty acid constituents (20:5 ($n=3$) or 22:6 ($n=3$)) leads to a pronounced induction of mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} while inhibiting expression of mRNA_{S14} and mRNA_{FAS}.

Time Course of Fish Oil and Gemfibrozil Effects on Hepatic S14 and AOX Gene Expression in Vivo—The rapidity of fish oil action on hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{S14} was examined in rats fed fish oil for 1 to 5 days (Fig. 3A). Rats were meal-fed a high carbohydrate diet supplemented with 10% triolein oil for 10 days. Subsequently, half of the rats were maintained on this

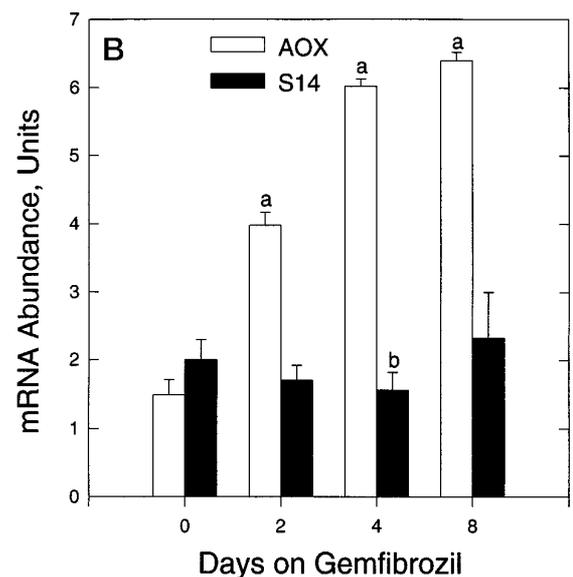
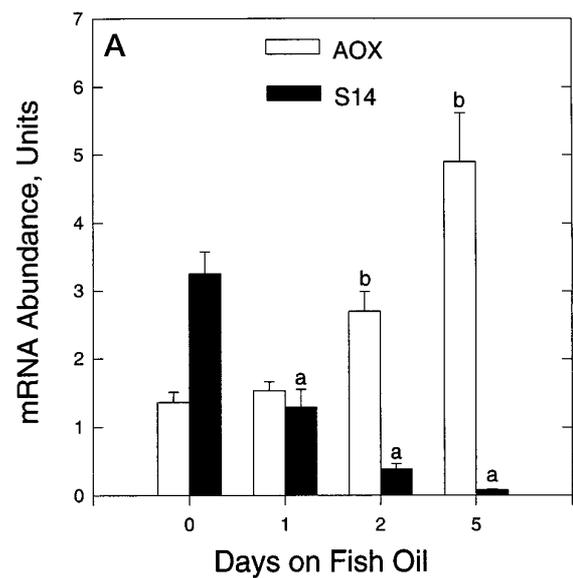


FIG. 3. Time course of fish oil and gemfibrozil effects on rat hepatic *S14* and *AOX* gene expression. A, rats were meal-fed diets supplemented with 10% (w/w) triolein oil for 10 days. Half of the rats were maintained on triolein oil, while the other half were switched to the fish oil diet. Both triolein- and fish oil-fed rats were killed after 1, 2, and 5 days. Total liver RNA was prepared and examined by dot-blot analysis for mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{S14} levels; $n = 4-10$ per time point. These results are representative of two separate studies. The results were quantified and normalized against the level of hepatic mRNA expressed in chow-fed rats, *i.e.* 1 unit. Analysis of variance: a, 1-, 2-, and 5-day fish oil feeding on mRNA_{S14} *versus* triolein oil fed mRNA_{S14}, $p < 0.001$; b, 2- and 5-day fish oil feeding on mRNA_{AOX} *versus* triolein oil fed mRNA_{AOX}, $p < 0.001$. B, after meal-training rats to a high carbohydrate fat-free diet, half of the rats were maintained on the high carbohydrate, fat-free diet, while the other half was switched to a diet supplemented with 0.2% (w/w) gemfibrozil for 2, 4, and 8 days. Dot-blot analysis was used to measure the mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{S14} levels. The results were quantified and normalized against the level of hepatic mRNA expressed in chow-fed rats, *i.e.* 1 unit; $n = 3-4$ per time point. These results are representative of two separate studies. Analysis of variance: a, 2, 4, and 8 days, gemfibrozil *versus* control diet fed, mRNA_{AOX}, $p < 0.004$; b, 4-day gemfibrozil fed *versus* control diet fed, mRNA_{S14}, $p = 0.002$.

diet and half were switched to a high carbohydrate diet supplemented with 10% fish oil. Fish oil feeding induced a rapid suppression of mRNA_{S14}; a 60% suppression was observed within 1 day of switching the diet from triolein to fish oil. Similar effects on mRNAs encoding *FAS* and *L-pyruvate kinase*

² B. Ren, A. Thelen, and D. B. Jump, unpublished results.

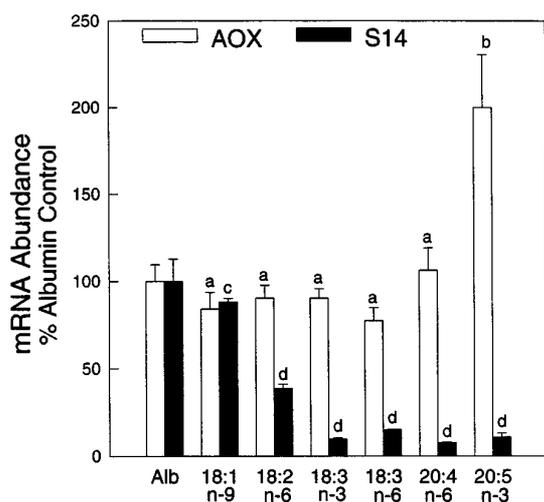


FIG. 4. A comparison of various fatty acids on *S14* and *AOX* gene expression in primary rat hepatocytes. Primary rat hepatocytes prepared by the collagenase perfusion were plated into 100-mm Primaria tissue culture plates in the presence of 1 μ M triiodothyronine, 1 μ M insulin, and 50 μ M albumin. The cells were maintained in medium containing different fatty acids (250 μ M) for 48 h (17). Total RNA was prepared from the hepatocytes and analyzed by dot blot analysis for mRNA coding for *AOX* and *S14*. The results were quantified and normalized against the level of *AOX* or *S14* mRNA expressed in hepatocytes receiving no fatty acid treatment (*albumin control*). Analysis of variance: a, 18:1 (*n*-9)-, 18:2 (*n*-6)-, 18:3 (*n*-3)-, 18:3 (*n*-6)-, or 20:4 (*n*-6)-treated mRNA_{AOX} versus albumin-treated mRNA_{AOX}, $p \geq 0.07$; b, 20:5 (*n*-3)-treated mRNA_{AOX} versus albumin-treated mRNA_{AOX}, $p = 0.006$; c, 18:1-treated mRNA_{S14} versus albumin-treated mRNA_{S14}, $p = 0.01$; d, 18:2 (*n*-6)-, 18:3 (*n*-3)-, 18:3 (*n*-6)-, 20:4 (*n*-6)-, or 20:5 (*n*-3)-treated mRNA_{S14} versus albumin-treated mRNA_{S14}, $p \leq 0.0004$. These results are representative of two separate studies; $n = 4$.

have been reported previously (17). In contrast, mRNA_{AOX} remained unaffected after 1 day on the fish oil diet, yet was induced 2- and 3.5-fold after 2 and 5 days, respectively. Such studies indicate that changes in *S14* mRNA precede changes in *AOX* mRNA following initiation of fish oil feeding, but they do not argue against PPAR α as a common mediator for the PUFA-regulation of *AOX* and *S14*.

In an effort to separate the induction of *AOX* from the suppression of *S14*, the peroxisome proliferator, gemfibrozil was fed to rats at 0.2% (w/w) for up to 8 days (Fig. 3B). mRNA_{AOX} was induced ~4-fold after 4 days on gemfibrozil, a level comparable to the level of mRNA_{AOX} after 5 days on fish oil. In contrast, gemfibrozil did not significantly suppress mRNA_{S14} (Fig. 3B) or mRNA_{FAS} (not shown). Only a modest 22% inhibition of mRNA_{S14} was seen after 4 days of gemfibrozil feeding. These results show that mRNAs encoding both *S14* and *AOX* are affected by PUFA within 2 days of initiating fish oil feeding. However, the absence of a significant inhibition of mRNA_{S14} following 8 days of gemfibrozil feeding argues against PPAR α as a common mediator for PUFA regulation of both *AOX* and *S14* gene expression.

Effect of Fatty Acids on *AOX* and *S14* Gene Expression in Primary Hepatocytes—Primary hepatocytes provide a method to assess the direct effects of PUFA on hepatic gene expression (16, 17). To examine the effects of fatty acids on *S14* and *AOX* mRNAs, primary rat hepatocytes were treated with albumin alone or albumin plus various fatty acids (Fig. 4). Treatment of primary hepatocytes with 18:1, 18:2, 18:3 (both *n*-3 and *n*-6), and 20:4 did not induce mRNA_{AOX}. Only 20:5 treatment induced mRNA_{AOX} (~2-fold). This finding is consistent with the effects of highly unsaturated fatty acids on *AOX* gene expression *in vivo* (Figs. 1 and 2). Oleic acid (18:1) did not affect *S14* gene expression when compared with controls. However, 18:2

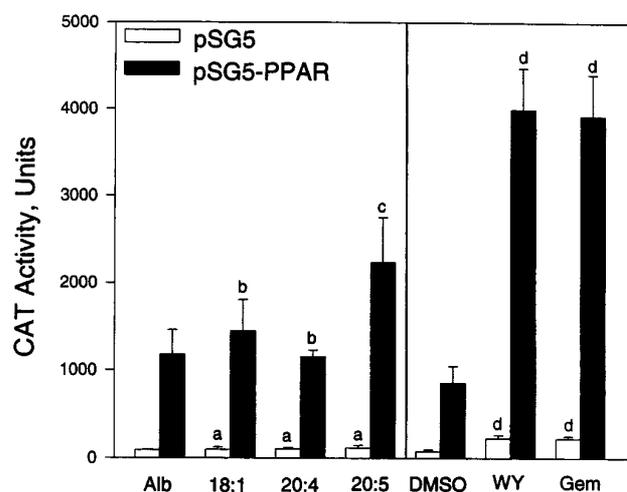


FIG. 5. Activation of PPAR α by fatty acids and peroxisome proliferators. Primary hepatocytes co-transfected with TKCAT223 (1 μ g) in the presence of 0.5 μ g of pSG5 (open bars) or pSG5-PPAR α (closed bars). The cells were treated with different fatty acids at the concentration of 250 μ M in the presence of 50 μ M albumin. A second group of cells were treated with either 100 μ M WY14,643 or 100 μ M gemfibrozil. Medium was replaced after 24 h, and cells were harvested after 48 h of treatment and assayed for protein levels and CAT activity. Analysis of variance: a, without PPAR α , 18:1, 20:4, or 20:5 versus albumin, $p \geq 0.3$; b, with PPAR α , 18:1, or 20:4 versus albumin, $p \geq 0.1$; c, with PPAR α , 20:5 versus albumin, $p = 0.04$; d, with or without PPAR α , $p \leq 0.007$. These results are representative of at least two separate studies; $n = 3$ /study.

(*n*-6) resulted in ~50% decline and 18:3 (both *n*-3 and *n*-6), 20:4 (*n*-6) and 20:5 (*n*-3) treatment resulted in >80% suppression of hepatocyte mRNA_{S14} levels. These findings demonstrate that a broader spectrum of fatty acids affect *S14* gene expression than *AOX* gene expression in primary rat hepatocytes.

Fatty Acid Effects on Reporter Gene Activity in Primary Hepatocytes—To determine if fatty acids activate PPAR α in liver, primary hepatocytes were transfected with a reporter gene containing the *AOX* PPRE fused to the thymidine kinase promoter, *i.e.* TKCAT223 (38). Primary hepatocytes were co-transfected with pSG5 (empty vector) or pSG5-mPPAR α , a PPAR α expression vector (Fig. 5). In the absence of co-transfected PPAR α , TKCAT223 CAT activity was expressed at low levels (<150 CAT units) and this activity was marginally affected by fatty acid or peroxisome proliferator (WY14,643, gemfibrozil) treatment. Co-transfection with pSG5-PPAR α led to at least a 10-fold stimulation of the TKCAT223 activity. Treatment of PPAR α -transfected hepatocytes with 18:1 and 20:4 had no effect on CAT activity, while 20:5 treatment induced CAT activity by ~2-fold. This pattern of fatty acid regulation of PPAR α is consistent with the effects of these fatty acids on mRNA_{AOX} (Fig. 4). By comparison, both WY14,643 and gemfibrozil induced CAT activity by 4-fold. These studies show that long chain unsaturated fatty acids such as 18:1, 18:2, 18:3 (*n*-3 and *n*-6), and 20:4 do not activate PPAR α in primary hepatocytes. Only the highly unsaturated fatty acid, 20:5, *n*-3 activates PPAR α , albeit to a level less than WY14,643 or gemfibrozil. This pattern of control contrasts with the known effects of fatty acids on mRNA_{S14} (16, 17) (Fig. 4) and *S14*CAT activity³ in primary hepatocytes where 18:2 (*n*-6), 18:3 (*n*-3 and *n*-6), 20:4 (*n*-6), and 20:5 (*n*-3) inhibit *S14* gene expression 50–80%.

DISCUSSION

PPAR α is the predominant PPAR subtype expressed in rat liver and it plays a central role in the induction of hepatic

³ D. B. Jump, A. Thelen and M. Badin, manuscript in preparation.

peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation (24, 40). Since several peroxisomal, microsomal and lipogenic enzymes are regulated by PUFA at the pretranslational level, we tested the hypothesis that dietary PUFA regulate hepatic fatty acid oxidation and *de novo* lipogenesis through a common mediator, *i.e.* PPAR α . Interestingly, all studies reporting on fatty acid regulation of PPAR α have been carried out by over expressing receptors in established cell lines. No studies have directly examined the role PPAR α may have in fatty acid-regulated hepatic gene transcription. The PPAR α -null mouse allows such an analysis. Coupling this genetic approach with other studies has allowed us to show for the first time that 1) PPAR α is required for PUFA-mediated induction of hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} (Fig. 1); 2) PPAR α is not required for PUFA-mediated suppression of mRNA_{S14} or mRNA_{FAS} (Fig. 1); 3) while 18:2 (*n*-6), 18:3 (*n*-6 and *n*-3), 20:4 (*n*-6) and 20:5 (*n*-3) suppress mRNA_{S14} and mRNA_{FAS}, only 20:5 (*n*-3) induces mRNA_{AOX} in primary hepatocytes (Fig. 4); 4) while gemfibrozil induces hepatic mRNA_{AOX}, it has little or no effect on mRNA_{S14} or mRNA_{FAS} (Fig. 3). Taken together, these studies indicate that PUFA control of peroxisome/microsomal fatty acid oxidation and *de novo* lipogenesis in rat liver does not involve PPAR α as a common mediator. The differential effect of specific fatty acids, *i.e.* 18:2, 18:3 (*n*-3 and *n*-6), 20:4 (*n*-6), *versus* gemfibrozil underscores the lack of coordinate regulation of these pathways in rat liver. Such studies indicate that PUFA regulates at least two pathways in liver, one involves PPAR α and controls expression of genes encoding proteins involved in peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation. The other mechanism is PPAR α -independent and is involved in the PUFA-mediated suppression of lipogenic gene expression.

PUFA suppress hepatic mRNA_{S14} and mRNA_{FAS} levels by inhibiting gene transcription (15–17). From the data reported above, this inhibitory mechanism does not require PPAR α . Although the mechanism of PUFA induction of hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} has not been established, the following studies implicate transcription as the principal mode of PUFA regulation of AOX and CYP4A: 1) peroxisomal proliferators rapidly induce transcription of genes encoding AOX, the bifunctional enzyme, thiolase and CYP4A subtypes 1–3 (26, 40); 2) PPAR α is required for the induction of these genes (40); 3) PPAR α binds PPREs as PPAR/RXR heterodimers in the promoters of these genes and stimulates transcription of cis-linked reporter genes (20–33, 38); 4) fatty acids activate PPAR α and stimulate transcription of cis-linked reporter genes (20–33) (Fig. 5); and 5) PPAR α is required for the PUFA induction of hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} (Fig. 1).

Previous efforts to examine the involvement of PPAR α in PUFA regulation of lipogenic gene expression showed that the cis-regulatory targets for PUFA and PPAR in the *S14* promoter (38, 45) did not converge. Analysis of stearoyl-CoA desaturase 1 gene expression indicated that peroxisome proliferators/PPAR induced by PUFA-suppressed transcription (46). Such studies argued against PPAR as a mediator of PUFA effects on lipogenic gene transcription. However, the over expression of receptors does not necessarily reflect physiologically relevant processes. The use of the PPAR α -null mouse allows us to directly evaluate the role PPAR α plays in PUFA regulation of hepatic gene expression. In contrast to (+/+) mice, hepatic mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2} was not significantly induced in PPAR α (-/-) mice by the PUFA diet indicating a requirement for PPAR α in the PUFA-mediated induction of these enzymes. The fact that hepatic mRNA_{S14} and mRNA_{FAS} was suppressed in both (+/+) and (-/-) mice provides strong evidence against a requirement for PPAR α for PUFA-mediated suppression of *S14* and *FAS* gene transcription. While these studies confirm

our earlier suggestion that PPAR did not mediate PUFA suppression of *S14* gene transcription, they provide new information on the requirement for PPAR α in the PUFA-induction of AOX and CYP4A2 and the lack of involvement of PPAR α in PUFA-mediated suppression of *FAS* gene transcription or L-pyruvate kinase gene expression.² While other PPAR subtypes (PPAR γ and PPAR δ) (24, 39) are expressed in liver, Northern analyses suggests PPAR γ and δ are minor subtypes in rodent liver. However, their role in PUFA control of hepatic gene expression cannot be excluded.

An important outcome of these studies is the finding that of all the PUFA tested, only 20:5 (*n*-3) activates PPAR α in liver. Several groups have reported on fatty acid activation of PPARs in established cells lines like CV-1 and HeLa (20–24). Recently three groups reported that specific fatty acids, *i.e.* 18:2 (*n*-6), 18:3 (*n*-3 and *n*-6), and 20:4 (*n*-6) are ligands for PPAR α (47–49). These same ligands do not activate PPAR α or induce mRNA_{AOX} in primary hepatocytes (Figs. 4 and 5). Feeding animals soybean or corn oil, oils containing 18:2 and 18:3 fatty acids, does not induce peroxisomal enzymes (4). This apparent conflict can be reconciled by the fact that primary hepatocytes have a high capacity for fatty acid oxidation, triglyceride synthesis and very low density lipoprotein secretion (7). We speculate that these pathways prevent intracellular fatty acids from accumulating to levels that activate PPAR α . Interestingly, 20:5 (*n*-3) was the only PUFA tested here that activated PPAR α . 20:5 (*n*-3) is reported to be poorly oxidized in mitochondria and poorly incorporated into complex lipids, such as triglycerides (7). Thus, 20:5 (*n*-3) might accumulate in the cell and mimic a state of fatty acid overload in the liver. Fatty acid overload resulting from high fat feeding (>50% calories as fat), uncompensated diabetes and liver disease have all been reported to increase peroxisomal β -oxidation (26, 50, 51). Alternatively, 20:5 (*n*-3) might be metabolized to an active ligand. Recent studies have suggested that the leukotriene, LTB₄, is a ligand for PPAR α (52). Indeed, LTB₄ is derived from 20:4 (*n*-6) by the action of 5-lipoxygenase and LTA₄ hydrolase. If this pathway were operative, we would expect 20:4 (*n*-6) treatment of hepatocytes to activate PPAR α and induce mRNA_{AOX}. The lack of a 20:4 (*n*-6) effect on mRNA_{AOX} and PPAR α along with the low LTA₄ hydrolase activity associated with liver cells (53) suggest that LTB₄ is not the operative ligand for 20:5 (*n*-3) activation of PPAR α . However, the *in vitro* model used in this work may lack factors present in the *in vivo* system.

In summary, PUFA induce peroxisomal and microsomal fatty acid oxidation and suppress *de novo* lipogenesis (2–15). This apparent coordinate regulation of lipid metabolism does not involve PPAR α as a common mediator. While highly unsaturated *n*-3 fatty acids, such as 20:5, can activate PPAR α resulting in increased mRNA_{AOX} and mRNA_{CYP4A2}, PPAR α does not mediate the suppressive effects of 18:2, 18:3 (*n*-3 and *n*-6), 20:4 (*n*-6), or 20:5 (*n*-3) on lipogenic gene expression. Thus, PUFA suppression of *S14* and *FAS* gene transcription is mediated by a pathway that is independent of PPAR α . The underlying mechanism of this alternative pathway is currently under investigation.

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Bing Ren, Annette P. Thelen, Jeffrey M. Peters, Frank J. Gonzalez and Donald B. Jump

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