

Genomic profiling of cortical neurons following exposure to β -amyloid

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Abstract

In vitro and in vivo studies have shown that β -amyloid peptide induces neuronal cell death. To explore the molecular basis underlying β -amyloid-induced toxicity, we analyzed gene expression profiles of cultured rat cortical neurons treated for 24 and 48 h with synthetic β -amyloid peptide. From the 8740 genes interrogated by oligonucleotide microarray analysis, 241 genes were found to be differentially expressed and segregated into distinct clusters. Functional clustering based on gene ontologies showed coordinated expression of genes with common biological functions and metabolic pathways. The comparison with genes differentially expressed in cerebellar granule neurons following serum and potassium deprivation indicates the existence of common regulatory mechanisms underlying neuronal cell death. Our results offer a genomic view of the changes that accompany β -amyloid-induced neurodegeneration.

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During normal nervous system development, physiologically appropriate neuronal loss contributes to a sculpting process that removes approximately one-half of all neurons born during neurogenesis [1]. Neuronal loss subsequent to this developmental window is physiologically inappropriate for most systems and can contribute to neurological deficits, e.g., neurodegenerative diseases such as Alzheimer disease (AD). Elucidating the molecular mechanisms underlying neuronal death hence will contribute to our understanding of basic developmental biology and human neuropathology.

Changes in the generation or degradation of the β -amyloid peptide ($A\beta$) are considered the triggering molecular events in the pathogenic cascade that leads to neuronal loss in AD. $A\beta$, in particular, has been shown to induce neuronal cell death in many in vitro and in vivo studies [2–12]. Because $A\beta$ -induced neuronal cell death may be facilitated by altered gene expression and because genes induced by $A\beta$ may be integral

to neuropathological changes observed in AD brain, elucidating patterns of gene expression during neuronal death may be critical to our understanding of $A\beta$ -induced neurotoxicity. Although previous studies implicated individual genes or genetic pathways following exposure to $A\beta$, their collective behavior is mostly unknown.

In view of the broad variety of genes and the cross talk of genetic pathways, gene expression profiles by microarray technology today offer a new dynamic and functional dimension to the exploration of neurodegeneration. In a previous study we used genome-scale screening by oligonucleotide microarrays to characterize the multigenic program underlying degeneration of cerebellar granule neurons following serum and potassium deprivation [13]. In the present study we used a similar approach to investigate gene expression profiles of cultured cortical neurons exposed to $A\beta$.

Results

To study the neurotoxic effect of $A\beta$ we used enriched neuronal cultures containing less than 5% astrocytes (Fig. 1A).

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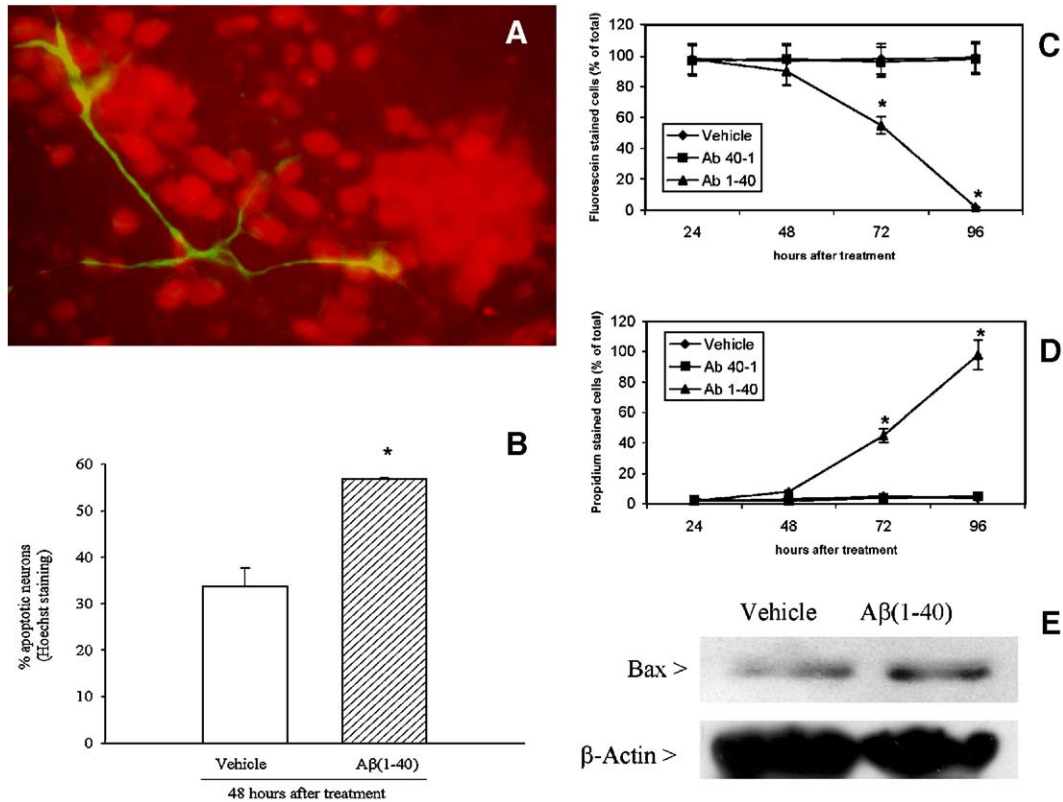


Fig. 1. Primary cultures of rat cortical neurons used to study the neurotoxic effect of A β . (A) Double labeling for NeuN and GFAP. To determine the purity of primary cultures of cortical neurons, cells were double labeled for neuron-specific NeuN (Texas red, red signal) and astrocyte-specific GFAP (fluorescein, green signal). (B) Neurons showing typical morphological features of apoptotic degeneration following A β 1–40 treatment were analyzed with the nuclear dye Hoechst 33258. (C and D). Viability of neurons assessed by fluorescein/propidium staining. Neurons exposed to 20 μ M A β 1–40 were not able to sequester fluorescein but showed staining with propidium iodide, an effect consistent with cell degeneration. Exposure of neurons to the reversed A β peptide (A β 40–1) did not cause any significant degenerative change. In total, 400 cells were counted for each treatment. Data are means \pm SE. * p < 0.05 vs control (vehicle and A β 40–1-treated neurons). (E) Induction of the apoptosis-related Bax. Western blot analysis was used to assess the expression of the proapoptotic Bax and the structural protein β -actin in neurons treated with A β 1–40 for 40 h. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

Some neurons exposed to 20 μ M A β 1–40 showed typical features of apoptotic degeneration, including chromatin condensation and fragmentation, when analyzed by fluorescence microscopy with the nuclear dye Hoechst 33258 (Fig. 1B). A significant reduction in their ability to sequester fluorescein and an increased staining with propidium iodide, two effects that are consistent with cell death, were also evident after A β 1–40 treatment (Figs. 1C and D). Exposure of neurons to vehicle or the reversed peptide (A β 40–1) did not cause any significant degenerative change (Figs. 1C and D). Finally, another cell-death-related effect was the induction of the proapoptotic Bax 40 h after A β 1–40 treatment (Fig. 1E).

By using oligonucleotide microarrays we monitored mRNA expression profiles in cortical neurons exposed for 24 or 48 h to vehicle, 20 μ M A β 1–40, or 20 μ M A β 40–1. Among the 8740 genes interrogated by the microarrays, 241 genes showed significant changes following A β 1–40 but not A β 40–1 treatment. Among these, 71 were down-regulated and 34 up-regulated at 24 h, whereas 80 genes were down-regulated and 59 were up-regulated at 48 h.

Although our data represented the average gene expression from three separate microarray analyses, we confirmed the reliability of the array data by quantitatively validating the differential

expression of five genes under each of the six experimental conditions using real-time quantitative reverse transcription–polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) (Table 1). Remarkably, the pattern of gene expression from sample to sample observed by microarrays closely paralleled the pattern observed using real-time RT-PCR. The mean \pm STD of the correlation coefficients between the two profiles is 0.97 ± 0.01 (Table 1).

A hierarchical clustering method was used to group genes differentially expressed after exposure to A β on the basis of similarity in their expression patterns (Fig. 2). Genes segregating into four major branches of the dendrogram were assigned to four clusters. Clusters 1 and 2 represent those genes that were up-regulated, whereas clusters 3 and 4 differentiate those genes that were down-regulated after exposure to A β .

Among the 241 genes differentially expressed in cortical neurons after exposure to A β , 190 were assigned to functional categories and subcategories (Fig. 3) and to subcellular compartments (Fig. 4) based on their translated products.

Discussion

Some of the genes implicated in the present study have been previously associated with neuronal cell death, whereas others

Table 1
Validation of microarray data by real-time quantitative PCR

Name	GenBank	Control 24 h	β AP 40–1 24 h	β AP 1–40 24 h	Control 48 h	β AP 40–1 48 h	β AP 1–40 48 h	Corr. Coeff.	Forward primer	Reverse primer
Gastric inhibitory polypeptide receptor	L19660	563±34	134±21	280±27	1210±131	891±76	320±25	0.99	AGCTGAGGACTCGACAGATG	CACCTGTTCTCTGAAGGCTGAG
Glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide	M92916	1.22±0.09	0.37±0.03	0.50±0.05	2.44±0.15	1.83±0.20	0.78±0.06	0.97	CCACAGAATCCAAACAGGAAG	AGAGTGAGGAGCCAGGAGAC
EST	AA892259	0.91±0.08	1.00±0.14	1.03±0.09	1.00±0.07	1.20±0.06	0.32±0.04	0.95	GTACTCTGTGAGGCAGGTGG	GGCTCAGTGCAGTTAGAGGA
EST	AI639525	1.21±0.07	0.46±0.03	0.93±0.05	1.16±0.06	1.08±0.90	0.21±0.01	0.97	ACCAGTCAAGACATTGCTCC	CAGATACACGGTACAGGCAC
Olif-1/EBF-associated Zn-finger protein Roaz	U92564	1.32±0.07	1.16±0.17	0.49±0.03	2.70±0.15	0.84±0.06	0.84±0.08	0.95	TCTGTCTCTGCTACACCTC	CTCTGTGGTCTTCTCGGTGA

Quantitative-PCR, mean copies/100 pg RT-RNA±STD; microarray data, mean normalized values±STD.

provide a significant number of unique and novel entry points. In many cases, genes with common biological functions or in the same metabolic pathway showed coordinated expression. For this reason, in the following paragraphs we will discuss some of the genes implicated by microarray analysis, giving more emphasis to functional clusters of coregulated genes and pathways.

Apoptosis regulators

Among those genes that are conventionally designated as apoptosis regulators, we observed the differential expression of Bcl-2 and BTB (POZ) domain-containing 14B, two genes involved in triggering apoptosis [14]; annexin A5, which binds to cells undergoing programmed cell death [15]; and death-associated protein [16].

Cell-to-cell contact

A large number of genes encoding extracellular matrix proteins were differentially expressed in apoptotic cortical neurons and may reflect an extensive morphological remodeling that neurons undergo when exposed to β -amyloid. Some of the up-regulated genes (biglycan, tenascin-C, and lysyl oxidase) have been previously linked to neuronal survival, repair processes, and peripheral nerve regeneration [17,18], whereas those down-regulated (syndecan-4, neogenin, chondroitin sulfate proteoglycan 2, collagen type V α 1, and integrin β 4) were previously involved in apoptosis [19,20], neurological diseases, and plasticity [21,22].

Cellular cycle

The increase in growth arrest-specific 5 and growth arrest and DNA-damage-inducible 45 α (gadd45) is consistent with the role of these gene families (gas and gadd) in the regulation of the cell death program and DNA repair [23,24]. The up-regulation of gadd45 has been previously reported in neurons exposed to A β [25] and in brain tissue obtained from patients suffering from Alzheimer disease [24]. Additionally, cell lines overexpressing this protein confer resistance to apoptosis [24]. Taken together, therefore, these data substantiate a role for gadd45 in the response (damage/recovery) to A β neurotoxicity.

Metabolism

Glutathione metabolism

Differential expression of genes involved in glutathione metabolism (glutathione reductase, glutamate-cysteine ligase, and 5-oxoprolinase) is concordant with the hypothesis of an altered glutathione-dependent antioxidant capacity during apoptosis and neurodegeneration [26–28].

Heme metabolism

Altered expression of two genes, heme oxygenase-1 and hydroxymethylbilane synthase, in cortical neurons exposed to A β confirms previous findings showing a relationship between heme turnover and neurodegeneration [29–31]. Increase in

heme oxygenase-1, in particular, has been also found in Alzheimer disease [32].

Fatty acid and lipid metabolism

The increased expression of carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1b, an enzyme involved in β -oxidation of fatty acid, may reflect an increased demand for energy production and parallels similar changes we have previously observed in cerebellar granule cells undergoing apoptosis following serum and potassium deprivation [13].

In neurons exposed to $A\beta$ we also observed the increased expression of three genes involved in lipid metabolism (phospholipid scramblase 3, sialyltransferase 4B, and apolipoprotein L3) that have been previously linked to neurodegeneration and Alzheimer disease [33–35]. Conversely, down-regulation of carboxyl ester lipase and carboxylesterase 1 is concordant with their protecting role [36,37].

Metal binding

Increased expression of metallothionein 1a is consistent with its ability to protect neurons in CNS injury and repair [38].

Protein folding

Heat shock proteins act as molecular chaperones by assisting other proteins in folding, transport, and assembly into complexes. Differential expression of heat shock proteins constitutes a fundamental protective mechanism that allow cells to escape the otherwise inevitable engagement of cell death [39]. Consistent with this hypothesis, we observed altered expression of crystallin β A4, crystallin γ E, α -crystallin-related B6, and DnaJ homolog, which are known to regulate apoptosis and underlie the pathogenesis of degenerative diseases [40,41].

Sterol biosynthesis

Altered expression of genes involved in sterol biosynthesis, such as mevalonate kinase, may reflect alteration of cholesterol homeostasis that has been related to the pathogenesis of Alzheimer disease [42].

Thyroid hormone

Intracellular concentrations of the thyroid hormones T4 and T3 are influenced by the activity of thyroxine deiodinases (TD). TD-III, in particular, catalyzes the degradation of both T4 and T3 to inactive derivatives. The observed increase in TD-III in cortical neurons exposed to $A\beta$ may facilitate cell death by influencing the intracellular rates of T4-to-T3 conversion and confirms our previous findings in apoptotic cerebellar granule cells [13,43].

Signal transduction

G-protein-coupled receptors

Differential expression of several genes encoding G-protein-coupled receptors was observed in cortical neurons following $A\beta$ treatment. Among these are the adrenergic receptor α 2c and five different olfactory receptors that have been previously associated with programmed cell death [44,13].

Intracellular signaling

Decreased expression of inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptor 1 has been reported in several neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer disease, Huntington chorea, and ischemia [45–47], all conditions in which neuronal loss occurs.

Differential expression of various kinases that are known to modulate cellular growth and cell death was observed in neurons exposed to $A\beta$. Reduced expression of PKC- γ , for example, confirms its protective role against cell death [48]. Increased expression of MAP kinase-activated protein kinase 2 has been previously reported following $A\beta$ overproduction [49]. Decreased expression of GTP cyclohydrolase I has been previously linked to Alzheimer and Parkinson disease [50,51].

Reduced expression of afamin is in agreement with its protective role against $A\beta$ -induced cell death of cortical neurons [52].

Ion homeostasis and ligand-gated ion channels

We observed the differential expression of a number of genes encoding proteins involved with potassium (Kctd13, Kcnj4), sodium (Scn11a), calcium (Cacnb1, Cacnb3, Chrna9, P2rx3), and chloride (Glr2, Clcn5) transport. As previously indicated, alterations in the transmembrane gradients of these ions may influence programmed cell death [53].

Secreted peptides and their receptors

Four genes (leukemia-inhibitory factor, secreted phosphoprotein 1, transforming growth factor- β receptor 3, and noggin) encoding key proteins implicated in the transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) signaling pathway were differentially expressed in neurons exposed to $A\beta$. Activity of these proteins [54–59] and the TGF- β signaling pathway [60–64] is known to exert neuroprotective effects and prevent cell death.

Decreased expression of somatostatin has been previously related to Alzheimer disease [65]. Reduced expression of neurotrophin-5 and neurotrophic tyrosine kinase receptor type 3 is consistent with their neuroprotective role [66,54].

Increased expression of lipocalin 2 is in agreement with other studies showing its proapoptotic effect [67–69].

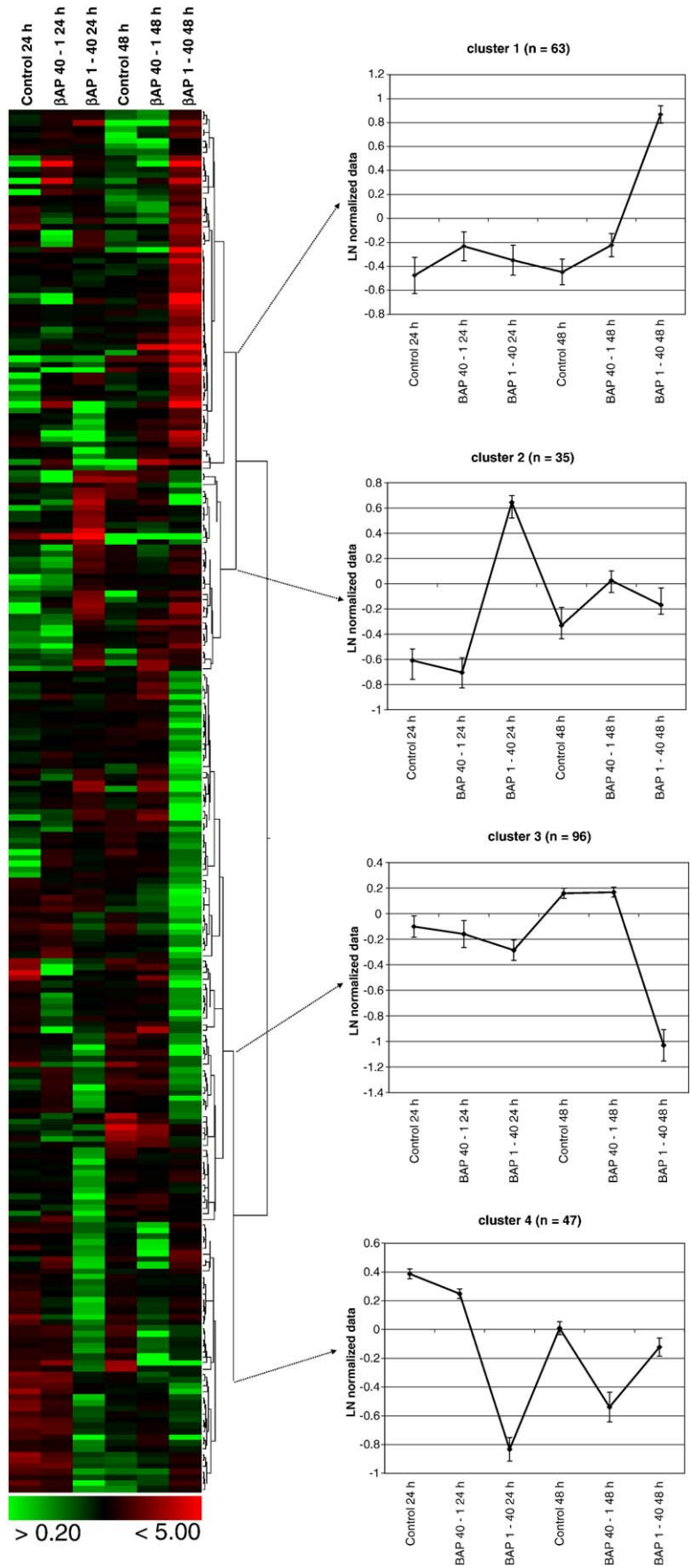
The coordinated reduction of glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide (GIP) and its receptor mRNAs was observed in cortical neurons 48 h after $A\beta$ treatment. Although mitogenic and antiapoptotic signaling of GIP has been demonstrated only in pancreatic β cells [70], their wide expression in brain [71,72] may support a neuroprotective role.

Transcription or translation regulation

Among transcription factors we observed the altered expression of USF1 [73], Max [74], Cioa1 [75], Mdm2 [76], and Nr3c2 [77], which have been previously involved in apoptotic cell death in the nervous system.

Conclusions

While demonstrating the utility of a cDNA-microarray system as a means of dissecting the multigenic program



underlying A β -induced cell death, the data presented represent just a glimpse of this complex phenomenon. It should be emphasized that the microarray provides estimates of changes in mRNA levels that cannot be correlated with the amount and function of the gene products. Translation and posttranslational modifications of many gene products and protein turnover have dramatic effects on function, and these cannot be inferred from expression analysis alone.

Most of the gene expression changes observed in the present study, having a larger or smaller specific weight, may contribute to the development of life or death. The exact role and functional relationships of the genes implicated are presumably those we cannot yet recognize. Gene expression profiles unlock virtually unexplored frontiers and we will learn as we explore them. Systematic characterization of expression patterns associated with neuronal cell death under different pathophysiological conditions and in distinct temporal domains will provide a framework for interpreting the biological significance of the expression patterns observed in the present study. We have just begun such a challenging task by characterizing gene expression profiles in cerebellar granule cells following serum and potassium deprivation [13]. Among the genes implicated in this model of neuronal cell death, 33 were in common with those differentially expressed in cortical neurons following A β exposure (shown in bold in Fig. 3 and in Supplementary, Table 1). Although preliminary, these data suggest the existence of both common and diverse mechanisms responsible for neuronal cell death. Knowledge of the mechanisms and pathways that are associated with neuronal cell death and are aberrant in pathological conditions will pave the way to new and effective therapeutic approaches.

Materials and methods

Materials

All the substances were obtained from Sigma unless otherwise specified. A β 1–40 and A β 40–1 were obtained from Bachem (Bachem, Torrance, CA, USA). Peptides were dissolved in water at a 1 mM concentration; 3 days before the experiment they were diluted with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at 500 mM and kept at 37°C until added to the cultures.

Animals

Pregnant Wistar rats (Charles River, Lecco, Italy) were sacrificed by exposure to CO₂. Experiments were approved in advance by the Animal Care and Use Committee and are consistent with the European Communities Council Directive of November 24, 1986 (86/609/EEC).

Neuronal cultures

Neurons were prepared from 17-day-old fetuses, according to a previously published protocol [78]. In brief, the fetuses were decapitated, and the brains

were dissected and placed in PBS containing 4.5 g/L glucose. Hemispheres were separated, and meninges were carefully removed. Cortical tissues were freed from subcortical structures and cut into small fragments. Tissues were incubated with papain activated with cysteine for 10 min at 37°C. Papain was neutralized with a solution of ovomucoid and bovine serum albumin. Finally, tissues were mechanically dissociated until a single-cell suspension was obtained. Cells were plated in poly-D-lysine-coated 3.5-cm-diameter petri dishes, 48-multiwell plates, or tissue culture flasks. After 48 h, 1 μ M cytosine arabinoside was added to the cells to inhibit glial cell growth.

Purity of cultures

To determine the purity of neuronal culture, we performed indirect immunofluorescence for a neuron-specific marker (neuron-specific nuclear protein, NeuN) and an astrocyte-specific marker (glial fibrillary acidic protein, GFAP) using a method previously described [79]. Primary antibodies against NeuN (1:250; Chemicon International, Temecula, CA, USA) were raised in mouse and diluted 1:250, whereas primary antibodies against GFAP (1:500; Chemicon International) were raised in rabbit. Secondary antibodies used were Texas red-conjugated anti-mouse (1:200; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Heidelberg, Germany) and FITC-conjugated anti-rabbit (1:200; Chemicon International).

Viability assessment

Viability of cortical neurons was assessed with a propidium iodide exclusion test and fluorescein diacetate incorporation assessment, according to a previously published protocol [80]. Rat cortical neurons seeded on 3.5-cm-diameter dishes were treated, washed with PBS, and incubated with a PBS solution containing 36 μ M fluorescein diacetate and 7 μ M propidium iodide for 3 min at room temperature. Cell viability was assessed by counting 100 cells per microscope field (using a 20 \times lens) for the number of fluorescein-labeled neurons versus propidium-positive cells. Experiments were conducted in duplicate and repeated at least three times. Statistical validity was assessed by ANOVA followed by a post hoc test.

Analysis of apoptotic neuronal death

The typical morphological features of apoptotic degeneration were analyzed by fluorescence microscopy with the nuclear dye Hoechst 33258 as previously described [81]. Forty-eight hours after A β 1–40 exposure, neuronal cultures were washed once in PBS and then fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde. Apoptotic death was quantified after staining the cultures with the fluorescent chromatin dye Hoechst 33258 (0.4 μ g/ml). Both normal and apoptotic neurons were scored from three random fields per dish in three individual dishes under an Olympus fluorescence microscope with a 60 \times magnification objective. Normal neurons exhibited a regularly dispersed chromatin, whereas apoptotic neurons were recognized by nuclear condensation and/or fragmented chromatin. To examine apoptosis-related effects we measured the expression of the proapoptotic Bax [82] by Western blot analysis as previously described [83].

Microarray analysis

Total RNA extracted from three biological replicates for each experimental condition (control 24 h, A β 40–1 24 h, A β 1–40 24 h, control 48 h, A β 40–1 48 h, A β 1–40 48 h) was reverse transcribed, biotinylated, and hybridized to Affymetrix GeneChip Rat Genome U34A arrays with the protocol outlined in the GeneChip Expression Analysis Technical Manual (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The arrays were washed and stained by using a fluidics system with streptavidin–

Fig. 2. Genes differentially expressed in cortical neurons after A β treatment. A hierarchical clustering algorithm (Pearson correlation) was used to order 241 genes differentially expressed 24 and/or 48 h after A β treatment. Genes were arranged in a dendrogram in which the pattern and length of the branches reflect the relatedness of the expression levels under four different experimental conditions. Data are presented in a matrix format: each row represents a single gene and each column an experimental condition. The averaged normalized intensity from two replicates is represented by the color of the corresponding cell in the matrix. Green, black, and red cells, respectively, represent transcript levels below, equal to, or above the median abundance across all conditions. Color intensity reflects the magnitude of the deviation from the median (see scale at the bottom). The graphs on the right of the dendrogram represent the averaged natural log of normalized data \pm SEM of the genes in four major clusters. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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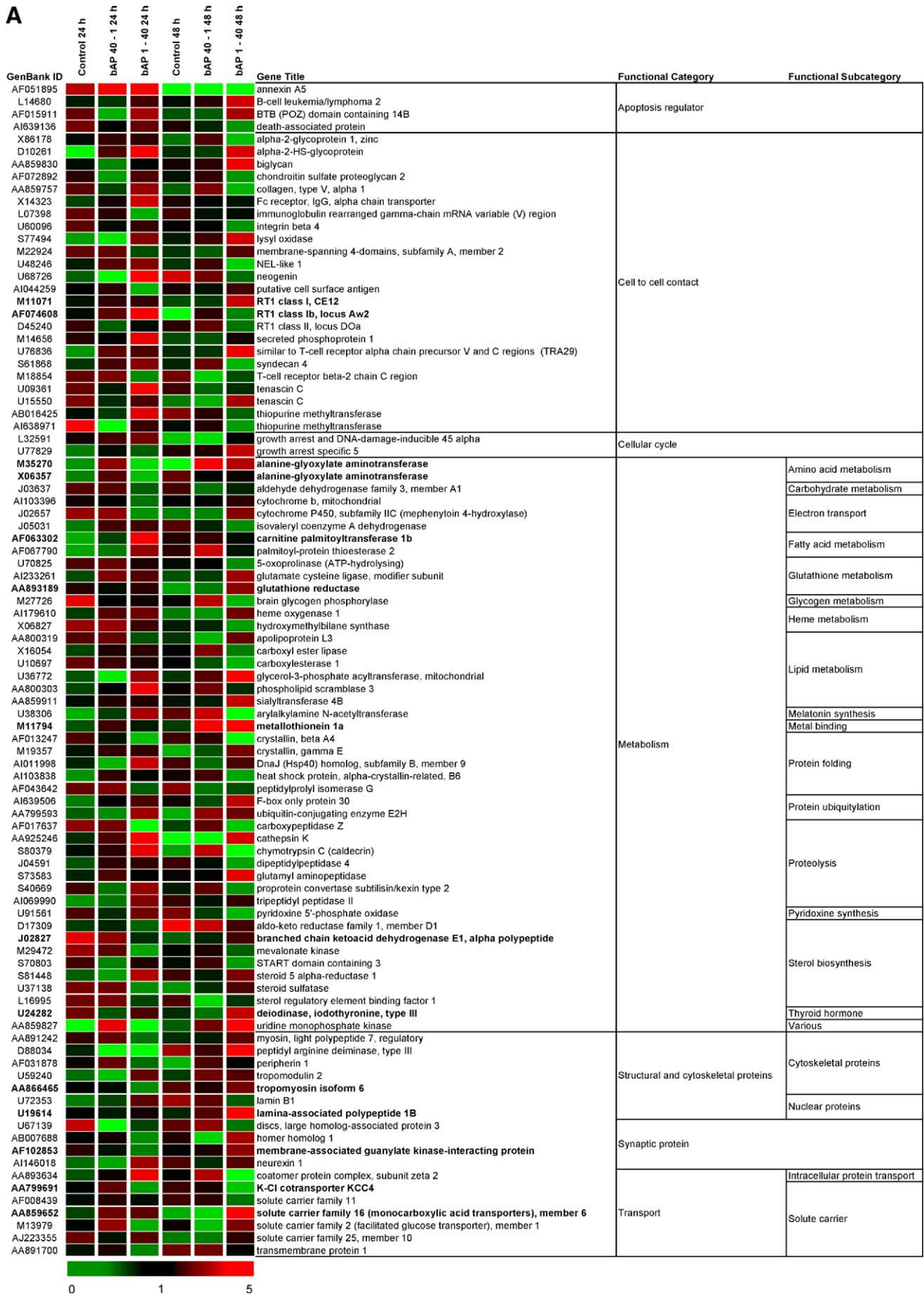




Fig. 3. Functional clustering of genes differentially expressed in cortical neurons after Aβ treatment. Genes whose translated products have a recognized function were clustered into different functional categories and subcategories. Shown in bold are those genes that are also differentially expressed in apoptotic cerebellar granule neurons following serum and potassium deprivation [13].

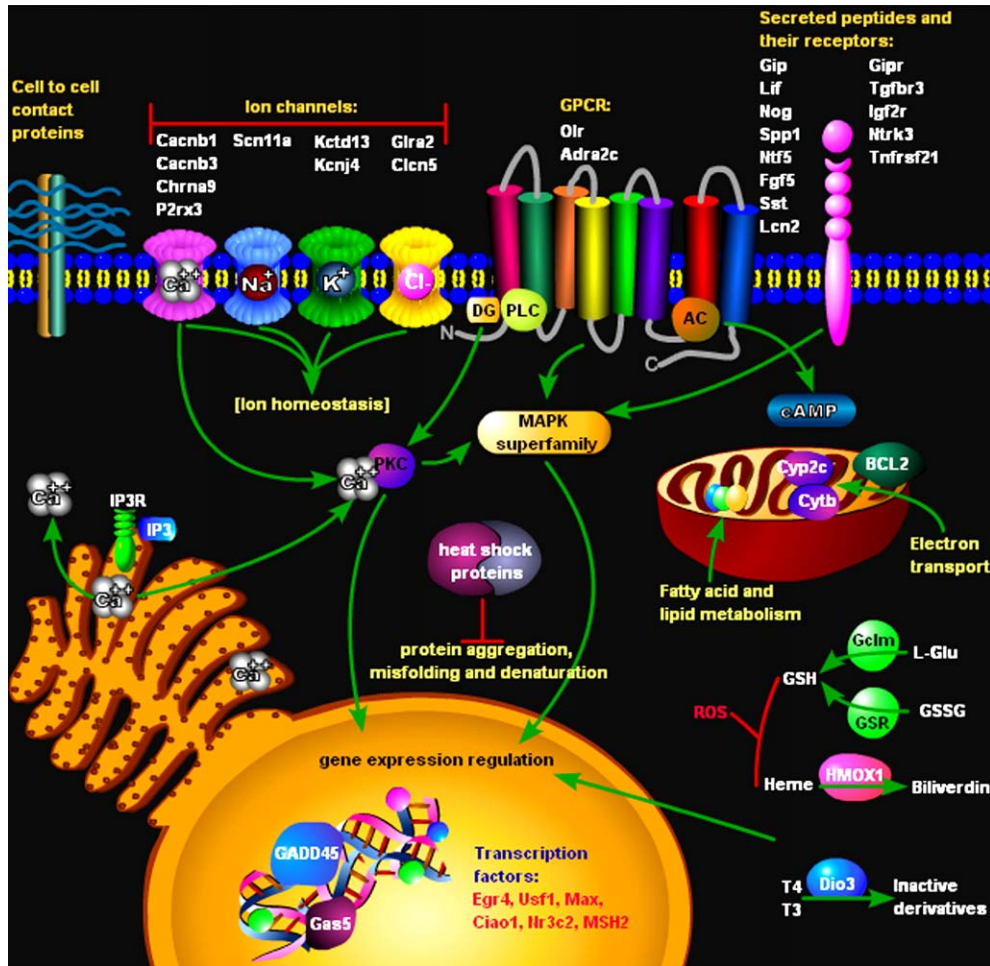


Fig. 4. Subcellular localization of proteins encoded by genes differentially expressed in cortical neurons after A β treatment. Some of the genes whose translated products have a recognized function and subcellular localization are represented in different functional groups and subcellular compartments. In the *plasma membrane* are cell-to-cell contact proteins; ion channels Cacnb1 (calcium channel, voltage-dependent, β 1 subunit), Cacnb3 (calcium channel, voltage-dependent, β 3 subunit), Chrna9 (cholinergic receptor, nicotinic, α polypeptide 9), Clcn5 (chloride channel 5), Glra2 (glycine receptor, α 2 subunit), Kcnj4 (potassium inwardly rectifying channel, subfamily J, member 4), Kctd13 (potassium channel tetramerization domain-containing 13), P2rx3 (purinergic receptor P2X, ligand-gated ion channel, 3), Scn11a (sodium channel, voltage-gated, type 11, α polypeptide); G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCR) Adra2c (adrenergic receptor, α 2c), Olr (olfactory receptors 1346, 1346, 1504, 1530, 1696, 837); secreted peptides and their receptors Fgf5 (fibroblast growth factor 5), Gip (glucose-dependent insulinotropic peptide), Gipr (gastric inhibitory polypeptide receptor), Igf2r (insulin-like growth factor 2 receptor), Lcn2 (lipocalin 2), Lif (leukemia-inhibitory factor), Nog (nogglin), Ntf5 (neurotrophin 5), Ntrk3 (neurotrophic tyrosine kinase, receptor, type 3), Sst (somatostatin), Tgfr3 (transforming growth factor, β receptor 3), Trnrsf21 (TNFR-related death receptor 6); DG (diacylglycerol); PLC (phospholipase-C); and AC (adenylyl cyclase). In the *endoplasmic reticulum* is IP3 (inositol 1,4,5-triphosphate receptor 1). In the *cytosol* are PKC (protein kinase C γ); heat shock proteins (crystallin β A4; crystallin γ E; DnaJ, Hsp40, homolog, subfamily B, member 9; heat shock protein α -crystallin-related B6; peptidylprolyl isomerase G); MAPK superfamily (MAP kinase-activated protein kinase 2, mitogen-activated protein kinase 7); ROS (reactive oxygen species); glutathione metabolism proteins Gclm (glutamate cysteine ligase, modifier subunit), GSH (reduced glutathione), GSSG (oxidized glutathione), Gsr (glutathione reductase) L-Glu (L-glutamate); Hmo1 (heme oxygenase 1); thyroid hormone metabolism proteins Dio3 (deiodinase, iodothyronine, type III), T4 (thyroxine), and T3 (triiodothyronine). In the *mitochondria* are fatty acid metabolism proteins carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1b, palmitoyl-protein thioesterase 2; lipid metabolism proteins apolipoprotein L3 carboxyl ester lipase, carboxylesterase 1, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (mitochondrial), phospholipid scramblase 3, sialyltransferase 4B; electron transport proteins Cytb (cytochrome b, mitochondrial), Cyp2c (cytochrome P450, subfamily IIC); and Bcl2 (B-cell leukemia/lymphoma 2). In the *nucleus* are cell cycle proteins Gadd45a (growth arrest and DNA-damage-inducible 45 α), Gas5 (growth arrest-specific 5); transcription factors Egr4 (early growth response 4), Cia1 (WD40 protein Cia1), Max, Msh2 (mutS homolog 2), Nr3c2 (nuclear receptor subfamily 3, group C, member 2), and Usf1 (upstream transcription factor 1).

phycoerythrin (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA), amplified with biotinylated anti-streptavidin antibody (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA), and then scanned with a GeneArray Scanner (Affymetrix). To determine the quality of labeled targets prior to analysis on GeneChip Rat Genome U34A arrays, each sample was hybridized to one GeneChip Test3 array. The image data were analyzed by the MicroArray Suite 4.0 gene expression analysis program (Affymetrix). Normalization, filtering, and cluster analysis of the data were performed with the GeneSpring 7.2 software (Silicon Genetics, Redwood City, CA, USA). Each gene was normalized to itself by making a synthetic positive control for that gene and dividing all measurements for that gene by this positive control. This synthetic

control was the median of the gene's expression values over all the samples. Average difference values of less than 0 represent probe sets for which the intensity of the mismatched probe was on average greater than that of the perfect matched probe and, thus, the probe set was performing poorly. For this reason, normalized values below 0 were set to 0.01. To test for statistically significant changes in signal intensity, genes with an average change greater than twofold were screened by the Mann-Whitney *U* test (p value <0.05) using the Benjamini and Hochberg False Discovery Rate procedure to adjust for multiple comparisons. A complete list of differentially expressed genes is available online as Supplementary Table 2 and at http://web.tiscali.it/sebastiano_cavallaro.

Real-time quantitative RT-PCR

Following extraction, total RNA samples (three/experimental condition) were reverse transcribed with oligo(dT)_{12–18} and SuperScript II RNase H⁻ reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Aliquots of cDNA (0.1 and 0.2 μg) and known amounts of external standard (purified PCR product, 10² to 10⁸ copies) were amplified in parallel reactions using primers indicated in Table 1. To control for the integrity of RNA and for differences attributable to errors in experimental manipulation, mRNA levels of mouse ribosomal S18 and phosphoglycerate kinase 1 were measured in similar reactions. Each PCR (final volume 20 μl) contained 0.5 μM primers, 2.5 mM Mg²⁺, and 1× DNA SYBR green master mix (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Mannheim, Germany). PCR amplifications were performed with a Light-Cycler (Roche Molecular Biochemicals) using the following cycle program: (i) denaturation of cDNA (1 cycle, 95°C for 1 min), (ii) amplification (40 cycles, 95°C for 0 s, 57°C for 5 s, 72°C for 10 s), (iii) melting curve analysis (1 cycle, 95°C for 0 s, 67°C for 10 s, 95°C for 0 s), (iv) cooling (1 cycle, 40°C for 3 min). Temperature transition rate was 20°C/s except for the third segment of the melting curve analysis, for which it was 0.2°C/s. Fluorimeter gain value was 7. Real-time detection of fluorimetric intensity of SYBR Green I, indicating the amount of PCR product formed, was measured at the end of each elongation phase. Quantification was performed by comparing the fluorescence of PCR products of unknown concentration with the fluorescence of the external standards. For this analysis, fluorescence values measured in the log-linear phase of amplification were considered using the second derivative maximum method of the Light-Cycler data analysis software (Roche Molecular Biochemicals). Specificity of PCR products obtained was characterized by melting curve analysis followed by gel electrophoresis and DNA sequencing.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.ygeno.2006.06.007.

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