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73	Abstract	<p>Human immunodeficiency virus type-1 (HIV) infection of the central nervous system promotes neuronal injury and apoptosis that culminate in HIV-associated neurocognitive disorders (HAND). Viral proteins, such as transactivator of transcription (Tat), have emerged as leading candidates to explain HIV-mediated neurotoxicity, though the mechanism remains unclear. To determine the effects of Tat, rat cortical neurons were exposed to nanomolar concentrations of Tat for various time points. Within a few hours, Tat induced the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and other indices of mitochondrial destabilization. In addition, we observed a significant induction of DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) by Tat. We next investigated the neuroprotective activity of the pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide 27 (PACAP27) against these cardinal features of Tat-induced neurodegeneration. PACAP27 (100 nM) inhibited all Tat-mediated toxic effects including DNA DSBs. Importantly, PACAP27 prevented the induction of neuronal loss induced by Tat. The neuroprotective effect of PACAP27 is correlated with its ability to release the anti-apoptotic chemokine CCL5. Our data support a mechanism of Tat neurotoxicity in which Tat induces mitochondrial destabilization, thus increasing the release of ROS, which causes DNA DSBs leading to cell death. PACAP27, through CCL5, mitigates the effects of Tat-induced neuronal dysfunction, suggesting that PACAP27 could be a new strategy for an adjunct therapy against HIV-associated neurocognitive disorders.</p>	
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PACAP27 is Protective Against Tat-Induced Neurotoxicity

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13 **Abstract** Human immunodeficiency virus type-1 (HIV) infection of the central nervous system promotes neuronal injury and apoptosis that culminate in HIV-associated neurocognitive disorders (HAND). Viral proteins, such as transactivator of transcription (Tat), have emerged as leading candidates to explain HIV-mediated neurotoxicity, though the mechanism remains unclear. To determine the effects of Tat, rat cortical neurons were exposed to nanomolar concentrations of Tat for various time points. Within a few hours, Tat induced the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS), and other indices of mitochondrial destabilization. In addition, we observed a significant induction of DNA double-strand breaks (DSBs) by Tat. We next investigated the neuroprotective activity of the pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating

polypeptide 27 (PACAP27) against these cardinal features of Tat-induced neurodegeneration. PACAP27 (100 nM) inhibited all Tat-mediated toxic effects including DNA DSBs. Importantly, PACAP27 prevented the induction of neuronal loss induced by Tat. The neuroprotective effect of PACAP27 is correlated with its ability to release the anti-apoptotic chemokine CCL5. Our data support a mechanism of Tat neurotoxicity in which Tat induces mitochondrial destabilization, thus increasing the release of ROS, which causes DNA DSBs leading to cell death. PACAP27, through CCL5, mitigates the effects of Tat-induced neuronal dysfunction, suggesting that PACAP27 could be a new strategy for an adjunct therapy against HIV-associated neurocognitive disorders.

Keywords DNA damage · Oxidative stress · Mitochondria · CCL5 · HIV · gp120

Introduction

Human immunodeficiency virus type-1 (HIV) causes HIV-associated neurocognitive disorders (HAND) in nearly one third of individuals (Heaton et al. 2011). Postmortem brains from subjects with the most severe form of HAND, HIV-associated dementia (HAD), exhibit neuronal loss accompanied by synaptic simplification, dendritic pruning, loss of spines, degradation of synaptic proteins (Crews et al. 2009) and neuronal apoptosis (James et al. 1999; Garden et al. 2002). These neurotoxic properties of HIV have been attributed to the combined effect of host cell-derived factors, including cytokines and glutamate, and other neurotoxins produced by activated microglia/macrophages (Kaul et al. 2001). Moreover, different viral proteins have been shown to directly cause this type of neuronal degeneration including transactivator of transcription (Tat) a 101 amino acid protein

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59 that regulates transcription from the HIV promoter (Chen et al.
60 1997; Haughey et al. 2001; Bruce-Keller et al. 2003). In
61 infected individuals, Tat is actively secreted from infected
62 astrocytes, microglia, and macrophages and can be rapidly
63 internalized by a variety of cell types, including neurons (Liu
64 et al. 2000). This internalization has been reported to promote
65 trimming of neurites, mitochondrial dysfunction, and cell
66 death in neurons (reviewed in Pocernich et al. 2005), all of
67 which correlate with the neurological and cognitive decline
68 more highly than cell death or viral load (Ances and Ellis
69 2007). At present, there are no therapies that target Tat.

70 Tat-induced synaptic loss has been observed to differ both
71 temporally and mechanistically from neuronal cell death (Kim
72 et al. 2008); thus, synapse loss is not necessarily a step on the
73 path to apoptosis. Additionally, Tat-induced synaptic loss has
74 been observed to be reversible in vitro (Kim et al. 2008),
75 suggesting the amelioration of Tat-induced toxicity may be a
76 target for adjunct therapies and the reduction of cognitive
77 deficits. Significant neurological improvement accompanies
78 initiation of highly active antiretroviral therapy in patients
79 with HAD (Bellizzi et al. 2006), consistent with the idea that
80 cognitive impairment is due at least in part to reversible
81 actions of the virus. Determining the specific mechanisms
82 leading to neuronal dysfunction will enable the identification
83 of an effective mechanism for prevention of the neurocognitive
84 decline observed in most cases of HIV. Thus, a protective agent
85 acting upstream of the neurotoxic Tat pathway, before synaptic
86 loss and cell death events are activated, is necessary in order
87 to improve both neuronal survival and connectivity. Previous
88 explorations of compounds to protect against Tat toxicity have
89 failed as viable options in part due to their widespread
90 antagonistic properties (Pocernich et al. 2005). Thus, a new
91 compound lacking broad adverse effects is necessary for
92 adjunct therapeutic potential.

93 Pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating peptide (PACAP) is a
94 member of the secretin/glucagon/vasoactive intestinal peptide
95 (VIP) superfamily. PACAP is an endogenous peptide synthe-
96 sized by all tissues in the body including the central nervous
97 system and is expressed in two bioactive isoforms, the pitui-
98 tary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptides PACAP27 and
99 PACAP38, differing only in amino acid length (reviewed in
100 Vaudry et al. 2009). PACAPs signal through two G protein-
101 coupled receptor subtypes, the low-affinity VPAC receptors
102 (VPAC1 and VPAC2), which they share with VIP, and the
103 high-affinity PACAP-specific receptor, PAC1R (May et al.
104 2010). Binding of the peptide to PAC1R initiates signaling
105 through adenylyl cyclase and cAMP as well as, to a lesser
106 extent, phosphatidylinositol 4,5-bisphosphate. Additionally,
107 PACAP is able to cross the plasma membrane in a receptor-
108 independent manner, initiating signaling in this fashion (Doan
109 et al. 2012). Through these signaling cascades, PACAP sup-
110 ports a number of neuroprotective roles, protecting against
111 excitotoxicity, stabilizing mitochondrial membrane potential,

and reducing reactive oxygen species (ROS) production 112
(Reglodi et al. 2011) and even preventing cortical neuron 113
death through anti-inflammatory properties (Sanchez et al. 114
2009b). In the present study, we have investigated the protec- 115
tive effects of PACAP on Tat-induced neurotoxicity. We dem- 116
onstrated that PACAP27 is able to mitigate the toxic effects of 117
Tat that are believed to contribute to neuronal loss. 118

119 Materials and Methods

120 Reagents

121 The preparation of recombinant Tat 1-72 protein has been 121
described previously (Ma and Nath 1997). Tat was also pur- 122
chased from Immunodiagnosics (Woburn, MA). PACAP27 123
and PACAP38 were synthesized in the Department of Medical 124
Chemistry, Szeged University, Hungary according to previous 125
descriptions (Jozsa et al. 2005) or were purchased from R&D 126
(Minneapolis, MN). 127

128 Cell Cultures

129 Cortical neuronal cultures were prepared from the cortex of 129
embryonic (E17–18) Sprague–Dawley rats (Charles River, 130
Gaithersburg, MD) following an established protocol 131
(Avdoshina et al. 2010). Cells were seeded onto poly-L-lysine 132
precoated plates in neurobasal medium (NBM) containing 133
2 % B27 supplement, 25 nM glutamate, 0.5 mL-glutamine, 134
and 1 % antibiotic–antimycotic solution (Invitrogen, 135
Carlsbad, CA). Cultures were grown at 37 °C in 5 % CO₂/ 136
95 % air for 7–8 days. Cultures contained ~10 % of non- 137
neuronal cells. 138

139 Astrocytes were prepared from the cerebral cortex of 1- to 139
2-day-old Sprague–Dawley rats according to an established 140
protocol (Avdoshina et al. 2010). Cells were seeded on poly-L- 141
lysine precoated tissue culture flasks in Dulbecco's modified 142
eagle medium (DMEM, Invitrogen) containing 10 % fetal 143
bovine serum, 2 % antibiotic–antimycotic and grown at 144
37 °C in 5 % CO₂/95 % relative atmosphere. 145

146 Cells were exposed to control medium (heat-inactivated 146
Tat in 0.1 % bovine serum albumin, BSA), 10, 100, or 147
1,000 nM Tat (in 0.1 % BSA) and 100 nM PACAPs (in 148
0.1 % BSA) for various time points. 149

150 ROS Levels

151 Intracellular accumulation of ROS was determined with 151
H2DCF-DA (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). This nonfluo- 152
rescent compound accumulates within cells upon 153
deacetylation. H2DCF then reacts with ROS to form fluo- 154
rescent dichlorofluorescein (DCF). Following exposure to Tat 155
and other compounds for 15 min alone or in combination, 156

157 cells were loaded with H2DCF-DA (5 µg/ml) at 37 °C for
 158 45 min in a humidified 5 % CO₂/95 % air incubator. The free
 159 dye was washed away by several medium changes and fluo-
 160 rescence was measured with an excitation wavelength of
 161 488 nm and emission wavelength of 525 nm (Synergy H4
 162 hybrid reader, Biotek, Winooski, VT).

163 **MTT Assay**

164 The activity of mitochondrial dehydrogenases [3(4,5-dimeth-
 165 ylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide] (MTT as-
 166 say) was used to determine mitochondria viability. This assay
 167 was carried out according to the manufacturer's specifications
 168 (MTT Cell Grow Assay Kit, Millipore, Temecula, CA) as
 169 described previously (Bachis et al. 2003; Avdoshina et al.
 170 2010).

171 **Neutral Comet Assay**

172 The CometAssay® kit (Trevigen, Gaithersburg, MD) was
 173 used with some modifications. Cells in 12-well plates were
 174 rinsed with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, Ca²⁺/
 175 Mg²⁺-free), gently scraped and transferred to a centrifuge tube
 176 where they were pelleted. Pellets were then washed in ice-cold
 177 PBS and cells were resuspended at 1 × 10⁵ cells/ml in ice-cold
 178 PBS. Cells were combined with molten low melting-point
 179 agarose at 37 °C (LMAgarose, Trevigen) at a ratio of 1:10
 180 (v/v), and 50 µl of the cells/LMAgarose mixture was spread
 181 onto CometSlides (Trevigen). After cooling at 4 °C for 10 min
 182 to allow LMAgarose to solidify, slides were placed in lysis
 183 buffer overnight. Following lysis, slides were washed with 1 ×
 184 TBE buffer (Cellgro Mediatech, Manassas, VA) and subjected
 185 to electrophoresis in TBE buffer. Electrophoresis was con-
 186 ducted at 1 V/cm for 30 min at 4 °C. The slides were washed
 187 twice with ddH₂O for 10 min and dehydrated with 70 % EtOH
 188 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 5 min. Slides were placed in a dry oven at
 189 45 °C until dry (~15 min). Subsequently, cells were stained
 190 with SYBR Green (Trevigen) for 10 min, air-dried and stored
 191 in the dark with desiccating material until imaging. Images
 192 taken with Nikon eclipse Ni microscope were analyzed using
 193 ImageJ (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). Tail
 194 moment, the length from the center of the head of the comet to
 195 the end of the tail, was quantified as a measure of DNA
 196 double-strand breaks (DSBs).

197 **Hoechst 33258/Propidium Iodide**

198 The viability of primary cortical neurons was estimated by
 199 Hoechst 33258 and propidium iodide (Hoechst/PI; Sigma-
 200 Aldrich) co-staining and visualized using a fluorescence mi-
 201 croscope. Briefly, cultures were incubated simultaneously
 202 with Hoechst 33258 and PI (both 5 µg/ml) for 30 min at
 203 37 °C. Neurons were imaged in four microscopic fields in

each well (three wells/treatment). Reaction was visualized
 with an Olympus IX71 (Tokyo, Japan) inverted fluorescence
 microscope. Hoechst/PI-positive cells were then counted
 using ImageJ and expressed as a percentage of the total
 number of neurons.

Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay

Levels of CCL5 were determined in the culture medium using
 the DuoSet enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)
 Development System Kits (R&D, Minneapolis, MN), accord-
 ing to the manufacturer's instructions and as described previ-
 ously (Avdoshina et al. 2010).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using ANOVA and
 Bonferroni's test for multiple comparisons (GraphPad Prism
 5, La Jolla, CA).

Results

PACAP27 Prevents Tat-Induced Mitochondrial Destabilization

The neurotoxic effect of Tat and the potential neuroprotection
 of PACAP were first analyzed by the MTT colorimetric assay
 in rat cortical neurons. As shown in Fig. 1, Tat (100 nM)
 significantly decreased MTT when compared to control (me-
 dium containing heat-inactivated Tat in 0.1 % BSA), suggest-
 ing that Tat promotes mitochondrial damage. The neurotoxic
 effect of Tat was not seen using a lower concentration

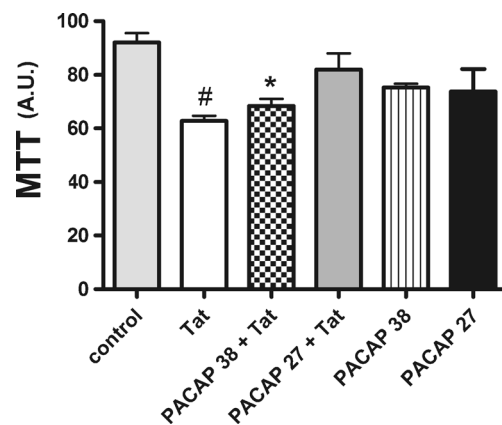


Fig. 1 Tat-induced mitochondrial impairment is attenuated by PACAP27. Neurons were exposed to control medium (heat-inactivated Tat in 0.1 % BSA) or medium containing Tat (100 nM), PACAP27 (100 nM) or PACAP38 (100 nM) alone or in combination. Cell viability was determined 24 h later by MTT assay. Data, expressed as arbitrary units (A.U.) are the mean ± SEM of three independent experiments (n = 24). *p < 0.01 vs. control; #p < 0.05 vs. control

229 (10 nM), whereas a higher concentration (1 μM) elicited a
 230 quantitative effect similar to that obtained with 100 nM con-
 231 centration (data not shown). Both PACAP38 (100 nM) and
 232 PACAP27 (100 nM) alone did not significantly change MTT
 233 (Fig. 1). However, PACAP27 pretreatment was able to pre-
 234 vent Tat toxicity (Fig. 1). PACAP38 was significantly less
 235 potent than PACAP27 (Fig. 1). Therefore, for the continuation
 236 of this study, we used PACAP27.

237 Mitochondrial damage leads to the increased production
 238 and release of reactive oxygen species (ROS) into the cyto-
 239 plasm and extracellular space. To further assess the toxic
 240 effects of Tat and the neuroprotective effect of PACAP27,
 241 we quantified ROS accumulation in neuronal cultures.
 242 Congruent with the results observed in the mitochondrial
 243 viability assay, ROS levels were significantly increased in
 244 neurons following a 15-min exposure to Tat (Fig. 2).
 245 PACAP27 pretreatment attenuated this increase in ROS accu-
 246 mulation (Fig. 2), confirming the ability of this neuropeptide
 247 to prevent mitochondrial destabilization.

248 Tat, PACAP27, and DNA Damage

249 The overproduction of free radicals can induce oxidation of
 250 DNA bases, and consequently, DNA damage including DNA
 251 double-strand breaks (DSBs), the most severe type of DNA
 252 damage. If not repaired properly, DSB damage can lead to
 253 long-term neuronal injury. DSBs can be quantified using
 254 single-cell gel electrophoresis (Neutral Comet Assay).
 255 Neurons exposed to Tat for varying time points exhibited a
 256 greater number of DNA fragments migrating out of the nuclei
 257 to form the “comet tail” than control (heat-inactivated Tat in
 258 0.1 % BSA) neurons, indicating a significantly greater number
 259 of DNA DSBs (data not shown). This effect was seen as early
 260 as 15 min after Tat exposure (Fig. 3). PACAP27 prevented
 261 Tat-induced DNA DSBs. In fact, cultures exposed to
 262 PACAP27 15 min prior to Tat exhibited significantly less

263 DNA DSBs than Tat alone (Fig. 3), suggesting that
 264 PACAP27 may either prevent DNA DSB damage or facilitate
 265 the DSB repair process.

266 Astrocytes are more resistant than neurons to Tat-induced
 267 toxicity (Pocernich et al. 2004; Eugenin et al. 2007). To
 268 determine whether DNA DSBs underlie Tat neurotoxicity,
 269 we assessed DNA DSBs in cultured astrocytes following
 270 exposure to Tat. This viral protein did not cause a significant
 271 change in DNA DSBs in astrocytes (Fig. 4), indicating that
 272 this mechanism of Tat-induced damage may be neuron-
 273 specific.

274 PACAP27 Inhibits Tat-Induced Neuronal Cell Death

275 Mitochondrial health and DNA damage are acceptable prox-
 276 ies for neuronal health and viability; nevertheless, our data so
 277 far has failed to demonstrate the causal relationship between
 278 mitochondrial alteration and neuronal death. Thus, we
 279 assessed cell death at time points beyond the observed mitoch-
 280 ndrial impairment and DNA DSB accumulation by using
 281 Hoechst/PI. Neurons were exposed to Tat for several time
 282 points up to 72 h. Control cells were exposed to heat-
 283 inactivated Tat in 0.1 % BSA for the same time points.
 284 While cell death was not significantly different from control
 285 at 24 and 48 h after Tat exposure, there was a significant
 286 increase in cell death 72 h after exposure (Fig. 5). Cultures
 287 exposed to PACAP27 before Tat had a similar proportion of
 288 cell death, as compared to those treated with PACAP27 alone
 289 and untreated controls (Fig. 5), indicating PACAP27 is effec-
 290 tive in protecting neurons from Tat-induced death.

291 Potential Mechanisms of Neuroprotection

292 PACAP has been shown to activate a number of neuroprotec-
 293 tive pathways (Reglodi et al. 2011). Relevant for Tat toxicity
 294 is the fact that PACAP38 and related neuropeptide VIP can
 295 also induce the release of CCL5 from astrocytes (Brenneman
 296 et al. 2002). Released CCL5, in turn, is neuroprotective
 297 against neurotoxins (Sanchez et al. 2009a) including the
 298 HIV viral protein gp120 (Brenneman et al. 1988; Avdoshina
 299 et al. 2010). Therefore, we tested whether PACAP27 releases
 300 CCL5 in our neuronal cultures. We observed that PACAP27
 301 promotes the release of CCL5 from our cultures that contain
 302 ~10 % of astrocytes (data not shown). However, the effect of
 303 PACAP on CCL5 release was significantly more robust in
 304 primary cultures of astrocytes (Fig. 6). Thus, we confirm
 305 previous data that PACAP enhances the release of CCL5
 306 mainly from astrocytes (Brenneman et al. 2002).

307 To establish whether CCL5 prevents Tat toxicity in our
 308 experimental system, cultures were then exposed to CCL5
 309 (20 nM) 15 min prior to Tat. MTT assay revealed that CCL5
 310 inhibits the mitochondrial impairment induced by Tat (Fig. 7).

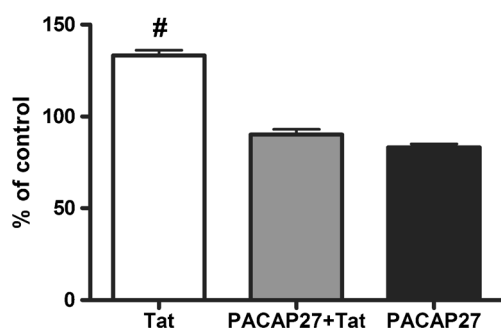


Fig. 2 Tat-induced ROS release is attenuated by PACAP27. Cortical neurons were exposed to control medium, Tat (100 nM) or PACAP27 (100 nM) alone or in combination for 15 min. ROS production was determined by H2DCF-dA fluorescence as described in “Materials and Methods” section. Data, expressed as percent of control, are the mean ± SEM from three independent experiments (n=2 each experiment). [#]p<0.05 vs. control

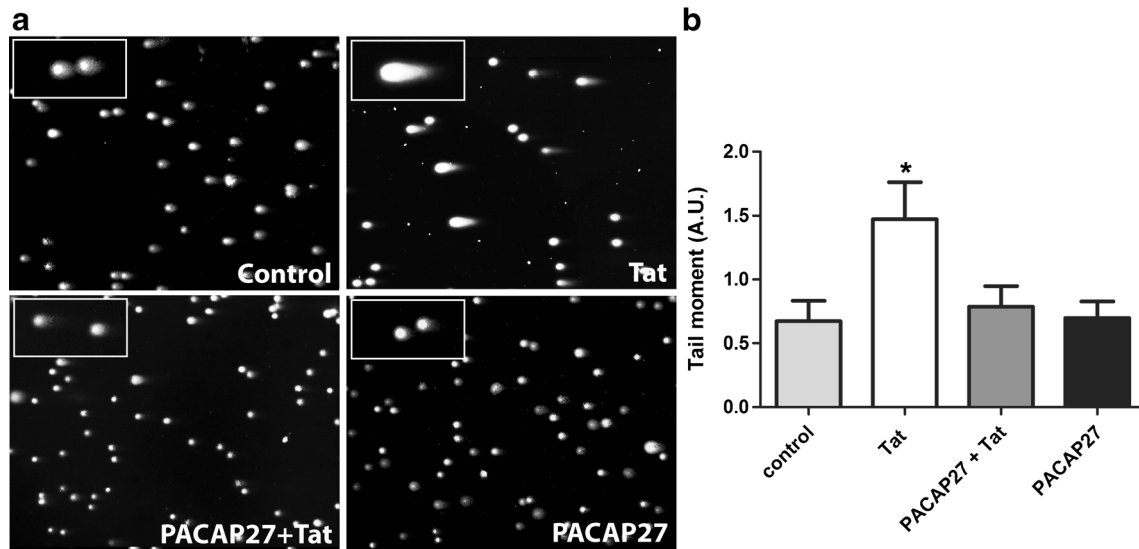


Fig. 3 PACAP27 pretreatment protects against Tat-induced DNA DSBs in neurons. **a** Representative images of neurons exposed to control medium (heat-inactivated Tat in 0.1 % BSA), Tat (100 nM), PACAP27 (100 nM) alone or in combination for 15 min showing tail moment. *Insets*

are enlargements to show “tails.” **b** Quantification of tail moment representing DNA DSBs. Data, expressed as arbitrary units, are the mean of 100 cells/treatment randomly selected from four fields. The experiment was repeated four times. * $p < 0.01$ vs. control

311 Thus, it appears that CCL5 prevents the toxic effect of not
312 only gp120 but also Tat.

313 **Discussion**

314 The ability of Tat to induce neuronal damage and dysfunction
315 in vitro and in vivo has been established (reviewed in Li et al.
316 2009). Several mechanisms have been suggested to underlie
317 the neurotoxic effect of Tat. These include activation of
318 NMDA receptors (Haughey et al. 2001; Eugenin et al. 2007;

Li et al. 2008), impairment of mitochondria physiology (Chen 319
et al. 2002; Norman et al. 2007), and production of reactive 320
oxygen species (Kruman et al. 1998) which ultimately may 321
result in apoptosis. Our study showed that Tat, in addition to 322
the destabilization of mitochondria and production of ROS 323
previously described (Hui et al. 2012), promotes accumulation 324Q2
of DNA DSBs, which can be lethal to cells. These events start 325
as early as 15 min after Tat exposure and they occur at least 326
a couple of days before neuronal cell death. Additionally, Tat 327
caused a significant increase in the number of DNA DSBs in 328
neurons, but not astrocytes, which are “resistant” to the toxic 329

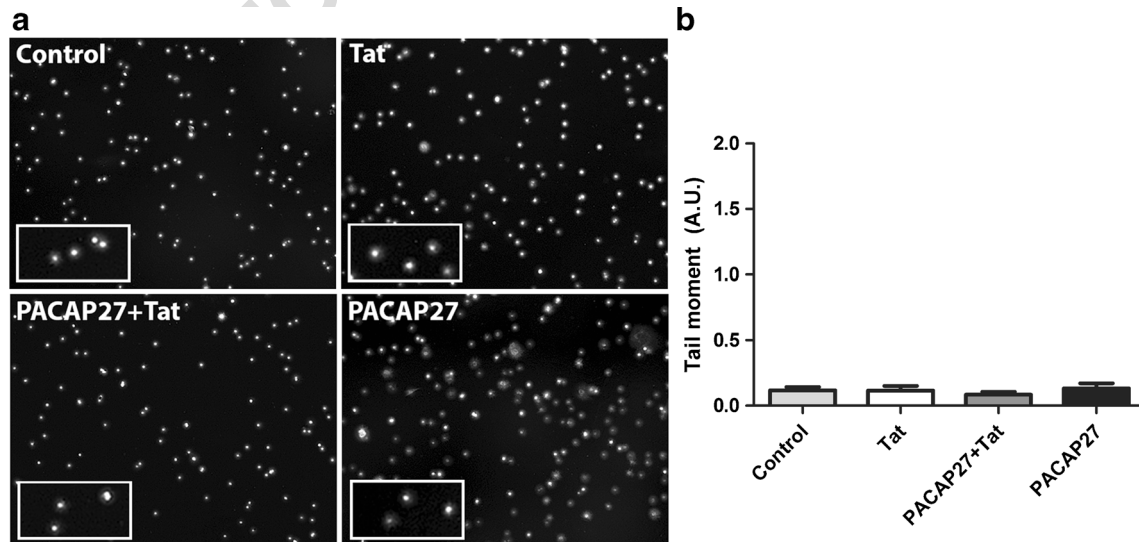


Fig. 4 Tat does not induce DNA DSBs in astrocytes. Cortical astrocytes were prepared as described in “Materials and Methods” section. **a** Representative images of astrocytes exposed to Tat (100 nM), PACAP27 (100 nM) alone or in combination for 15 min showing tail moment. Tail moment was

quantified as described in “Materials and Methods” section. *Insets* are enlargements to show “tails.” **b** Quantification of tail moment representing DNA DSBs. Data, expressed as arbitrary units, are the mean±SEM of 100 cells/treatment from four fields (from two independent experiments)

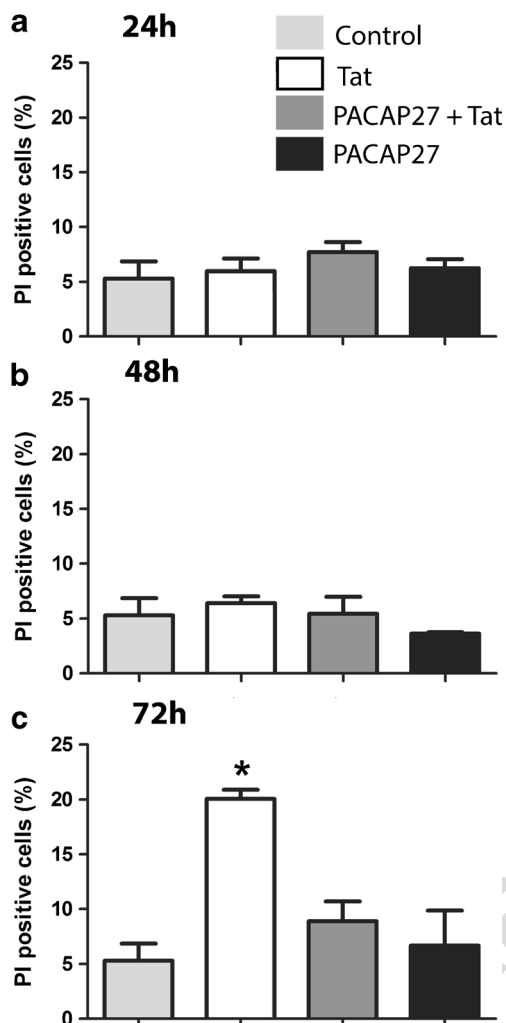


Fig. 5 Tat-induced cell death is prevented by PACAP27. Neurons were exposed to control medium or Tat (100 nM) for the indicated time points. PACAP27 (100 nM) was added 15 min prior to Tat. Quantification of cell death was done using Hoechst and PI, as described in “Materials and Methods” section. Data are the mean±SEM from a total of 500 neurons from 12 randomly selected fields/treatment from two independent experiments. * $p < 0.01$ vs. control

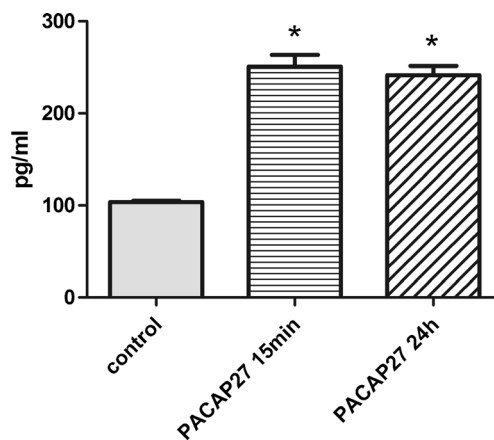


Fig. 6 PACAP27 induces the release of CCL5 from astrocytes. Rat primary astrocytes were exposed to control medium, or medium containing PACAP27 (100 nM) for 15 min and 24 h. The medium was collected and an aliquot was used to determine CCL5 levels by ELISA. CCL5 levels in control cells at 24 h were 104 ± 5 picograms per milliliter. Data are the mean±SEM of three independent samples at each time point. * $p < 0.05$ vs. control

mitochondrial motility are highly positively correlated processes (Sun et al. 2013). Neuronal mitochondria are distributed to regions of high metabolic demand, including synapses, nodes of Ranvier, and myelination/demyelination interfaces. Thus, mitochondrial health is intimately tied with the functional status of neurons. Recently impairments to mitochondrial dynamics have been implicated in a causal role of neurodegenerative diseases including Parkinson’s, Alzheimer’s, and Huntington’s diseases (Eckmann et al. 2013; Itoh et al. 2013). The prevalence of neuronal diseases associated with general mitochondrial impairment underscores the important functional relationship between neurons and mitochondria.

In this study, we observed a significant increase in ROS production in neurons exposed to Tat concomitantly to DNA DSBs. ROS can interact with a variety of cellular macromolecules, resulting in oxidative DNA damage, among other ill

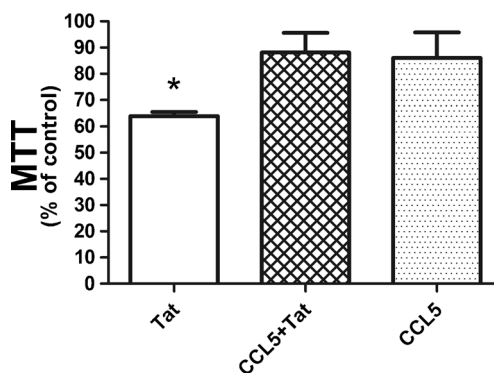


Fig. 7 CCL5 prevents Tat-induced mitochondrial destabilization. Cortical cultures were exposed to control medium, Tat alone or in combination with CCL5 (20 nM). CCL5 was added 15 min prior to Tat. Cell viability was determined 24 h after Tat exposure by MTT assay. Data, expressed as percent of control, are the mean±SEM of four independent samples. * $p < 0.05$ vs. control

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330 effect of Tat. Importantly, all of these neurotoxic effects of Tat
331 were lessened by a 15-min pretreatment with PACAP27.

332 Tat induces ROS production, rapid loss of mitochondrial
333 membrane potential and increases mitochondrial uptake of
334 intracellular calcium (Mattson et al. 2005). Tat injections into
335 the frontal cortex of young adult mice lead to irregularly
336 shaped and enlarged mitochondria (Norman et al. 2008).
337 This aberrant morphology mirrors the mitochondrial irregularities
338 observed in the cortex of patients with HIV encephalitis (Zhang et al. 2012), indicating the relevance of mitochondrial impairment to disease progression. Mitochondria are vital for cell function, wherein they supply up to 95 % of the required ATP and regulate intracellular calcium homeostasis.
343 In neurons, mitochondria must travel extreme distances (e.g.,
344 axons) and maintain energy homeostasis in these highly metabo-
345 lically active cells. In fact, synaptic activity and

362 effects. As postmitotic cells, neurons are particularly vulnera- 415
363 ble to DNA DSBs. However, DNA damage even within 416
364 neurons does not immediately induce apoptosis. The accumu- 417
365 lation of DNA damage that is not repaired or is incorrectly 418
366 repaired will lead to errors in protein translation, resulting in 419
367 misfolded proteins and eventual cellular dysfunction and cell 420
368 death (Brasnjevic et al. 2008; Jeppesen et al. 2011). The 421
369 precise load of DNA damage any neuron can withstand re- 422
370 mains unclear. Nevertheless, DNA damage has increasingly 423
371 been observed in neurodegenerative diseases (Fishel et al. 424
372 2007) including HAND, where a significant accumulation of 425
373 DNA damage has been observed in the post-mortem brain 426
374 tissue of HIV patients with cognitive deficits (Zhang et al. 427
375 2012). Indeed, patients with HAND had an average of 45 % 8- 428
376 oxoG positive cells, compared to only 30 % in HIV patients 429
377 without HAND and 4 % in controls (Zhang et al. 2012). These 430
378 results suggest that nuclear DNA damage exists at least in part 431
379 due to the high levels of ROS, likely contributing to neuronal 432
380 injury and cell death. The present study is the first implicating 433
381 Tat in the development of DNA damage in neurons, preceding 434
382 cell death. 435

383 Both PACAPs protect neurons from diverse insults such as 436
384 excitotoxicity, oxidative stress, and ischemia (Vaudry et al. 437
385 2002; Ohtaki et al. 2010). Most of these injuries result in the 438
386 production of ROS; though it is not clear how PACAPs 439
387 regulate this oxidative stress. Some reports have raised the 440
388 possibility of PACAPs' involvement in the production of 441
389 antioxidants (Fabian et al. 2012). Our findings demonstrate 442
390 for the first time that PACAP27 prevents Tat-induced neuro- 443
391 toxicity. The neuroprotective activity of PACAP27 on viral 444
392 proteins is not surprising because previous studies have shown 445
393 that both PACAP27 and PACAP38 attenuate neuronal death 446
394 induced by the HIV envelope protein gp120 (Brenneman et al. 447
395 2002). Surprisingly, PACAP38 was unable to counteract the 448
396 toxic effect of Tat. This appears to be a contradictory result 449
397 because both PACAPs bind to same receptors and share a 450
398 similar pharmacological profile. On the other hand, previous 451
399 studies have shown that PACAP38 and PACAP27 have an 452
400 opposite profile on the secretion of luteinizing hormone, most 453
401 likely through a vasoactive intestinal peptide receptor, VPAC1 454
402 (Kantora et al. 2000). Thus, different receptors may mediate 455
403 the neuroprotective effect against Tat. On the other hand, 456
404 PACAPs can also be neuroprotective by the activation of 457
405 anti-apoptotic chemokines such as CCL5. CCL5 exerts neu- 458
406 roprotective activity against other viral proteins such as gp120 459
407 (Kaul et al. 2007; Avdoshina et al. 2010). Indeed, both 460
408 PACAP38 (Brenneman et al. 2002) and PACAP27 promote 461
409 the release of CCL5 from astrocytes. Intriguingly, Brenneman 462
410 et al. (2002) have shown that the ability of PACAP38 to 463
411 induce the release of CCL5 from astrocytes is biphasic and 464
412 concentration-dependent, with the maximal activity on the 465
413 release of CCL5 in the low picomolar range. Thus, we may 466
414 have used a concentration of PACAP38 that does not release

sufficient amount of CCL5 to prevent Tat toxicity. Further 415
studies are needed to confirm this hypothesis. Hence, while 416
we cannot point at a specific mechanism of PACAP27 neuro- 417
protection we cannot exclude the hypothesis that PACAP27 418
may be neuroprotective against Tat because of its antioxidant 419
property combined with its ability to release CCL5. Future 420
studies, using CCL5 knock-out animals or a CCL5 blocking 421
antibody, will prove or disprove this hypothesis. 422

Whereas CCL5 is one mechanism by which PACAP27 can 423
be neuroprotective, other mechanisms may also be implicated 424
including the activation of cAMP-protein kinase A pathway 425
which then activates cAMP-response element binding 426
protein-mediated gene expression (Baxter et al. 2011). 427
PACAPs have also been previously observed to provide 428
neurotrophin-like protection to different populations of neu- 429
rons (Reglodi et al. 2011). For instance, PACAP exhibits 430
properties similar to nerve growth factor (NGF) in peripheral 431
neurons (Lioudyno et al. 1998), and both PACAP forms 432
activate TrkA and TrkB, the tyrosine kinase receptors for 433
NGF and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF), respec- 434
tively (Lee et al. 2002). TrkA is mostly localized in the basal 435
forebrain; thus, TrkA most likely does not account for the 436
neuroprotective effect of PACAP against Tat. Nevertheless, 437
activation of TrkB could participate in fast-acting protection 438
that we have observed in vitro. Indeed, BDNF is particularly 439
potent as neuroprotective compound against Tat (Ramirez 440
et al. 2001) and gp120 (Bachis et al. 2003). This would be 441
in line with a recent study (Nath et al. 2012) showing that 442
flavonoids, alkaloids present in many plants, prevent Tat- 443
mediated mitochondrial dysfunction and neuritic damage by 444
up-regulating the expression of BDNF. Thus, the ability of 445
PACAP to activate TrkB signaling pathways could provide an 446
additional neurotrophic effect against Tat. Our results do not 447
exclude that CCL5 works in concert with BDNF or other 448
trophic factors. In conclusion, our findings implicate 449
PACAP27 as a potent neuroprotective peptide against Tat; 450
however, more experiments are needed to further examine 451
mechanisms underlying its neuroprotective effect. Such 452
mechanisms may yield novel targets for preventing Tat- 453
mediated neuronal injury and delay HAND. 454

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