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VITAMIN D REGULATES TYROSINE HYDROXYLASE EXPRESSION: N-CADHERIN A POSSIBLE MEDIATOR

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Abstract—Vitamin D is a neuroactive steroid. Its genomic actions are mediated via the active form of vitamin D, 1,25(OH)₂D₃, binding to the vitamin D receptor (VDR). The VDR emerges in the rat mesencephalon at embryonic day 12, representing the peak period of dopaminergic cell birth. Our prior studies reveal that developmental vitamin D (DVD)-deficiency alters the ontogeny of dopaminergic neurons in the developing mesencephalon. There is also consistent evidence from others that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ promotes the survival of dopaminergic neurons in models of dopaminergic toxicity. In both developmental and toxicological studies it has been proposed that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ may modulate the differentiation and maturation of dopaminergic neurons; however, to date there is lack of direct evidence. The aim of the current study is to investigate this both *in vitro* using a human SH-SY5Y cell line transfected with rodent VDR and *in vivo* using a DVD-deficient model. Here we show that in VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ significantly increased production of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), the rate-limiting enzyme in dopamine synthesis. This effect was dose- and time-dependent, but was not due to an increase in TH-positive cell number, nor was it due to the production of trophic survival factors for dopamine neurons such as glial-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF). In accordance with 1,25(OH)₂D₃'s anti-proliferative actions in the brain, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ reduced the percentage of dividing cells from approximately 15–10%. Given the recently reported role of N-cadherin in the direct differentiation of dopaminergic neurons, we examined here whether it may be elevated by 1,25(OH)₂D₃. We confirmed this *in vitro* and more importantly, we showed DVD-deficiency decreases N-cadherin expression in the embryonic mesencephalon. In summary, in our *in vitro* model we have shown 1,25(OH)₂D₃ increases TH expression, decreases proliferation and elevates N-cadherin, a potential factor that mediates these processes.

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Abbreviations: BSA, bovine serum albumin; DOPAC, dihydroxyphenylacetic acid; DVD, developmental vitamin D; GAPDH, glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase; GDNF, glial-derived neurotrophic factor; HPLC, high-pressure liquid chromatography; HVA, homovanillic acid; PBS, phosphate-buffered saline; PVDF, polyvinylidene fluoride; RA, retinoid acid; RXR, retinoid X receptor; SN, substantia nigra; TH, tyrosine hydroxylase; VDR, vitamin D receptor; VDRE, vitamin D responsive element.

Accordingly all of these findings are reversed in the developing brain in our DVD-deficiency model. Remarkably our findings in the DVD-deficiency model phenocopy those found in a recent model where N-cadherin was regionally ablated from the mesencephalon. This study has, for the first time, shown that vitamin D directly modulates TH expression and strongly suggests N-cadherin may be a plausible mediator of this process both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. Our findings may help to explain epidemiological data linking DVD deficiency with schizophrenia. © 2015 Published by Elsevier Ltd. on behalf of IBRO.

Key words: 1,25(OH)₂D₃, tyrosine hydroxylase, dopamine, development, developmental vitamin D (DVD)-deficiency, proliferation, N-cadherin, vitamin D receptor.

INTRODUCTION

Vitamin D is a steroid hormone and exerts diverse physiological functions that extend beyond its classical role in calcium and bone homeostasis (Jones et al., 1998). Several lines of evidence indicate vitamin D is important for both developing and adult brains (Eyles et al., 2009, 2010, 2013). In particular, our recent findings reveal the role that vitamin D may play in developing dopaminergic neurons (Cui et al., 2010, 2013; Eyles et al., 2014). Based on epidemiological findings, prenatal vitamin D deficiency has been identified as a risk factor for disorders associated with abnormalities in dopamine signaling. A Danish case-control study has shown that neonatal vitamin D status was significantly associated with the subsequent risk of schizophrenia (McGrath et al., 2010). The latest meta-analysis of all published observational studies that have measured vitamin D levels in schizophrenic patients confirms a strong association between vitamin D deficiency and schizophrenia (Valipour et al., 2014). Low levels of vitamin D have also been detected in patients with Parkinson's disease (Newmark and Newmark, 2007; Evatt et al., 2008, 2011; Knekt et al., 2010). Outcomes from a randomized clinical trial of vitamin D supplementation in patients with Parkinson disease is eagerly awaited (Suzuki et al., 2013).

A model of depleting female Sprague-Dawley rats of vitamin D before conception until birth has proved useful for investigating the neurobiological effects of vitamin D deficiency during brain development. One consistent finding from this developmental vitamin D (DVD)-deficient

model is an alteration in dopamine signaling. Although vitamin D levels return to normal by the 2nd post-natal week, the adult offspring display enhanced sensitivity to the locomotor inducing effects of the dopamine releasing agent, amphetamine (Kesby et al., 2010), and also to the dopamine receptor antagonist, haloperidol (Kesby et al., 2006). When the neonatal brains from this model are examined, DVD-deficient offspring have reduced expression of the dopamine-degradation enzyme catechol-O-methyl transferase (COMT) which converts the dopamine metabolite dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (DOPAC) to homovanillic acid (HVA). Accordingly the ratio of DOPAC/HVA is reduced indicating dopamine turnover is abnormal in the neonatal forebrain (Kesby et al., 2009). At earlier developmental stages, DVD-deficient embryos display a reduced expression of the crucial dopamine specification factors, Nurr1 and p57kip2, in mesencephalon (Cui et al., 2010). Finally DVD-deficiency has also very recently been shown to down-regulate TH gene and protein expression in the embryonic brains of female mice (Hawes et al., 2015). In summary, these findings strongly suggest that vitamin D modulates the orderly early development of dopaminergic systems.

In the adult brain, vitamin D has been recognized as a neuroprotective agent for dopaminergic neurons. Multiple studies have shown that treatment with the active form of vitamin D, 1,25(OH)₂D₃, protects against the adverse effects of the well-known dopaminergic toxin, 6-hydroxydopamine (6-OHDA) (Wang et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2006; Cass et al., 2012, 2014). Cass et al. showed that long-term 1,25(OH)₂D₃ treatment increases the level of glial-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) in the damaged striatum. In addition to its well-known trophic actions on dopaminergic neurons, GDNF has also been found to be able to restore evoked dopamine levels after 6-OHDA-induced striatal damage (Cass and Manning, 1999). It was postulated that GDNF at least partially contributed to the protective effect of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in these animal models (Smith et al., 2006; Cass et al., 2014). Interestingly, although it has been suggested that tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), a rate limiting enzyme for dopamine synthesis, might be directly modulated by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ this was never established. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ treatment before or after local cerebral 6-OHDA administration partially restores TH protein and TH-immunoreactive fibers in the striatum and substantia nigra (SN) as well as increases GDNF protein (Sanchez et al., 2009). 1,25(OH)₂D₃ has also been shown to increase TH-positive cell number in the SN of 6-OHDA-lesioned mice (Kim et al., 2006). Although the authors of these last two studies stated that 1,25(OH)₂D₃-induced alterations in GDNF or microglia were responsible for its neuroprotective effects on dopaminergic neurons, they also could not rule out a more direct effect on TH expression. To date only one study has shown that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ can directly increase the expression of TH mRNA but this was in adrenal medullary cells (Puchacz et al., 1996).

1,25(OH)₂D₃ exerts its genomic functions via the vitamin D receptor (VDR). The VDR is a member of a larger nuclear steroid receptor family, well-known for their actions in the developing brain. The VDR is

expressed as early as embryonic day (E) 12 in developing rat mesencephalon (Veenstra et al., 1998). We confirm this and have shown punctate VDR staining in the nucleus of dopaminergic neurons at this age (Cui et al., 2013). The time window from E12 to E15 represents the critical period for the birth of dopaminergic neurons in Sprague–Dawley rats (Gates et al., 2006). DVD-deficiency during this period leads to a reduction in mesencephalic expression of both early dopaminergic specification factors, Nurr1 and p57kip, and more mature dopaminergic neuronal markers such as TH (Cui et al., 2010). It would therefore appear that vitamin D signaling is strategically positioned to affect the ontogeny of developing dopaminergic neurons.

1,25(OH)₂D₃ inhibits cell proliferation and promotes differentiation by multiple mechanisms. In cancer cells that express the VDR this has been frequently linked to the expression of E-cadherin (Palmer et al., 2001; Ordonez-Moran et al., 2008; Lopes et al., 2012). E-cadherin is only transiently expressed in developing diencephalon and mesencephalon between E9.5 and E15 (Shimamura and Takeichi, 1992) and we could not detect it in developing mesencephalon by western blot (data not shown). However the classical cadherin family includes E-, N-, P-, and R-cadherin members. N-cadherin is a neural adhesion molecule that plays important role in neurogenesis and of particular interest to our group, dopamine neuron development (Sakane and Miyamoto, 2013). Therefore we have investigated the expression of N-cadherin both in our *in vitro* and *in vivo* models.

Although evidence from adult and developing brain indicates that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ modulates TH expression either in developing or adult dopamine neurons subjected to neurotoxin exposure there is no evidence that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ can directly modulate TH expression or promote dopamine neuron differentiation. In addition, the underlying mechanisms behind this process remain opaque. We therefore have generated an *in vitro* model where the rat VDR is expressed in SH-SY5Y cells to examine this question. SH-SY5Y cells have been widely used to study dopamine neuronal differentiation and dopamine neuron survival in cell-based models of Parkinson's disease (Xie et al., 2010). Next, we have also used mesencephalon from our DVD-deficient rat embryos to see if the developmental absence of vitamin D reverses these processes in the developing brain. We aimed to clarify whether: (1) 1,25(OH)₂D₃ directly regulates TH expression; (2) 1,25(OH)₂D₃ regulates the differentiation and maturation of dopamine neurons, and (3) suggest potential mechanisms involved in these processes.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Cell line

Human SH-SY5Y cells were purchased from Sigma–Aldrich (MO, USA). Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium (DMEM)/F12 supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (Invitrogen Life technology Australia, Victoria, Australia), L-glutamax (Invitrogen), 100 U/ml penicillin and 0.1 mg/ml streptomycin (Sigma).

161 After stable transfection, the VDR-transfected cells were
162 cultured in the presence of geneticin (Invitrogen) at a
163 concentration of 500 µg/ml.

164 Cloning of VDR

165 Total RNA from adult rat kidney was prepared using
166 RNeasy Plus mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and
167 cDNA synthesized using SuperScript[®] III First-Strand
168 Synthesis System (Invitrogen) according to the
169 manufacturer's protocol. 0.2 µM of full-length rat VDR
170 primers (Forward: 5' CTACTCACCTGCTCCTTCAG 3',
171 Reverse: 5' GTCAGGAGATCTCATTGCCG 3') and 1U
172 Phusion Hot Star II DNA Polymerase (Thermo Scientific,
173 IL, USA) were employed for PCR. The PCR products
174 were sequenced and the full-length VDR inserted into
175 pTarget vector (Promega Corporation, MI, USA).

176 Transfections

177 The pTarget-VDR construct was transfected into human
178 SH-SY5Y cells using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen) in
179 serum free Opti-MEM (Invitrogen) in 6-well plates. 18 h
180 after transfection, the serum-free medium was replaced
181 with normal growth medium. 48 h later cells were
182 passaged at a 1:10 dilution into fresh growth medium in
183 the presence of 2 mg/ml geneticin. The medium was
184 changed every 3 days. Three weeks later, geneticin-
185 resistant single-cell colonies were selected and
186 expanded. VDR over-expression was confirmed by
187 western blot (Data not shown). Long-term maintenance
188 of stable transfectants was performed in the presence of
189 0.5 mg/ml geneticin. All experiments with transfected
190 cells were conducted within 10 passages.

191 1,25(OH)₂D₃ treatment

192 VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells were seeded into 24-well
193 plates at a concentration of 6 × 10⁴ cells per well. Cells
194 were allowed to settle for 2 days and then induced to
195 differentiate in DMEM/F12 with 1% FCS in the presence
196 of 10 µM retinoic acid (RA)(Sigma) for 7 days. Then
197 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (Calcitriol, Calbiochem, Life Technology),
198 was applied at varying concentrations in serum-free
199 medium with B27 supplement (Invitrogen) and cells
200 cultured for another 7 days. The medium containing
201 these factors was changed every 3–4 days. This
202 treatment regime is depicted in Fig. 2.

203 DVD-deficient rat model

204 Briefly, female Sprague–Dawley rats were fed with a diet
205 depleted of cholecalciferol but with normal calcium and
206 phosphorous. The rats were housed under a 12-h
207 light/dark cycle using incandescent lighting free of
208 ultraviolet radiation in the vitamin D action spectrum
209 (290–315 nm). After 6 weeks, serum vitamin D depletion
210 was confirmed prior to mating (25(OH)D₃ < 0.34 ng/ml)
211 (Eyles et al., 2011). The resulting dams were housed
212 under these conditions until the birth of pups. Control ani-
213 mals were kept under standard lighting conditions and
214 supplied with standard rat chow containing vitamin D.
215 Both vitamin D deplete dams and offspring remained

normocalcemic. This model has been described in detail
elsewhere (Eyles et al., 2009). The embryonic (E18)
brains were dissected and frozen on dry ice for western
blot. All experiments were conducted with the ethical
approval of the University of Queensland.

Western blot

VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells were collected in lysis
buffer (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM HEPES, 2 mM EDTA,
pH7.4) containing protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche
Diagnostics Australia, castle Hill, NSW, Australia).
Protein concentrations were determined using a micro
BCA assay (Peirce, Bonn, Germany) and 5 µg of total
protein per lane was loaded. Proteins were resolved by
SDS–PAGE using 4–12% NUPAGE Bis-Tris gels
(Invitrogen) before being transferred to polyvinylidene
fluoride (PVDF) membranes at 400 mA for two hours.
The PVDF membranes were blocked in 5% non-fat milk
and then probed with primary antibodies, anti-VDR
antibody (D-6, 0.2 µg/ml) (Santa Cruz, TX, USA), anti-
TH (0.1 µg/ml) (Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany), or anti-
N-cadherin (1:2500, Millipore) at 4 °C overnight and
then incubated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-
labeled goat anti-mouse secondary antibody (1:5000,
Cell Signalling Technology, MA, USA) for one hour.
Transferred protein bands were visualized using
standard chemiluminescence techniques (Thermo
Scientific Pierce). Membranes were then washed and
reprobed with anti-glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate
dehydrogenase (GAPDH) antibody (1:50,000, Millipore)
as a loading control. The films were scanned and the
intensity of the bands assessed using Quantity One
software (Bio-Rad Laboratories Pty., Ltd. Life Science,
Australia).

Real time PCR

Cells were collected and RNA was isolated and cDNA
synthesis was performed as described above. The
following primers were used: TH (Forward, 5'-GCAGTT
CTCGCAGGACATTG-3' and reverse, 5'-TGGATGCGT
GAGGCATAGC-3'), GDNF (Forward, 5'-CTGGGCTATG
AAACCAAGGA-3' and reverse, 5'-GACAGGTCATCATC
AAAGGC-3') and GAPDH (Forward, 5'-TTTACATGTTT
CCAATATGATTCCAC-3' and reverse, 5'-TTGTCATAC
TTCTCATGGTTCACAC-3'). Real time PCR was per-
formed on LightCycler 480 system (Roche Diagnostics,
Castle Hill, Australia). The PCR conditions were as
follows: a denaturation step at 95 °C for 10 min followed
by amplification for 40 cycles (95 °C for 10 s, and 60 °C
for 1 min). The relative expression of genes of interest
was normalized to GAPDH as a housekeeping gene
using the comparative threshold method.

Stereological cell counting

Cells were grown on coverslips. On day 7 of 1,25(OH)₂D₃
treatment, cell culture medium was replaced with serum
free medium containing 20 µM of 5-ethynyl-2'-
deoxyuridine (EdU), and 3 h later, EdU incorporation
was detected using Click-iT EdU Imaging kit (Invitrogen)

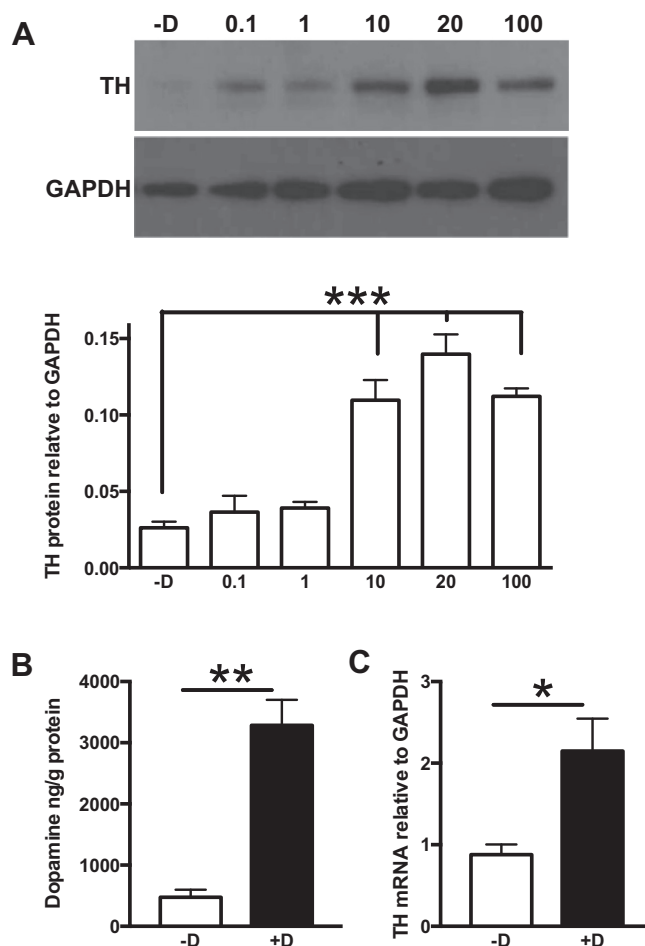


Fig. 1. TH expression is modulated by $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$. VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells were treated with retinoid acid (RA) ($10 \mu\text{M}$) for 7 days and then $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ for 7 days. $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ increases (A) TH protein in a dose-dependent manner [$0.1\text{--}100 \text{ nM}$; $F(5,18) = 27.82$, $p < 0.001$, $n = 4$] relative to vehicle ($-D$ 0.04% ethanol); (B) dopamine synthesis ($t = 6.448$, $n = 3$, $**p < 0.01$) and (C) TH mRNA ($t = 3.056$, $n = 4$, $*p < 0.05$). Data = mean \pm SEM.

272 according to manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, cells
273 were fixed and rinsed twice with phosphate-buffered
274 saline (PBS) containing 3% bovine serum albumin
275 (BSA, Sigma) and incubated with 150 μL EdU-Click
276 reaction-mix for 30 min at room temperature, and then
277 rinsed with 3% BSA/PBS. Hoechst 33342 was used to
278 stain the nuclei to count all cells. The coverslips were
279 mounted on glass slides with fluorescence mounting
280 medium (DAKO, Glostrup, Denmark). EdU and Hoechst
281 33342-positive cells were counted using
282 stereoinvestigator software and unbiased stereological
283 methods.

284 Flow cytometry to determine TH-positive cell number

285 Cells were collected before differentiation
286 (Undifferentiated cells), 3 and 7 days after RA treatment,
287 and then 1, 3 and 7 days after $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ (20 nM)
288 (Fig. 2A). Ethanol (0.04%) was used as vehicle. Cells
289 were directly collected in lysis buffer for western blot or
290 digested by 0.05% trypsin (Invitrogen) and fixed as
291 above. After fixation, cells were blocked with 3% BSA
292 and incubated with a rabbit monoclonal anti-TH antibody
293 (1:4000) (Abcam) for 30 min. After being washed with

PBS, cells were incubated with Alexa 488 anti-Rabbit 294
antibody (Invitrogen) for 20 min. All incubations were 295
done on ice. The cells were then stained with Hoechst 296
33342 and then subjected to flow cytometry. 297

298 Measuring dopamine levels

299 VDR-expressing cells were seeded in a 24-well plate and
300 treated with RA for 7 days and then $1,25(\text{OH})_2\text{D}_3$ for
301 7 days. Cells in each well were collected in 100 μL of
302 lysis buffer containing 0.1 M perchloric acid and
303 50 ng/ml deoxyepinephrine (DE) used as an internal
304 standard. 50 μL of cell lysate was centrifuged at
305 13,000 rpm for 10 min and 35 μL of supernatant were
306 filtered by a 0.45 μm polypropylene syringe filter (Agilent
307 Technologies, Inc., CA, USA) and injected directly into a
308 high-pressure liquid chromatography system consisting
309 of an autosampler, an isocratic HPLC pump (Model
310 1100, Agilent Technologies, Inc.), a Sunfire C18
311 column, 4.6 mm \times 150 mm, 5 μm ; (Waters Corporation,
312 MA, USA) and a Coulochem III (ESA Laboratories, Inc.,
313 MA, USA) electrochemical detector. The mobile phase
314 consisted of a 10% acetonitrile/75 mM potassium
315 dihydrogen phosphate buffer containing 25 μM EDTA

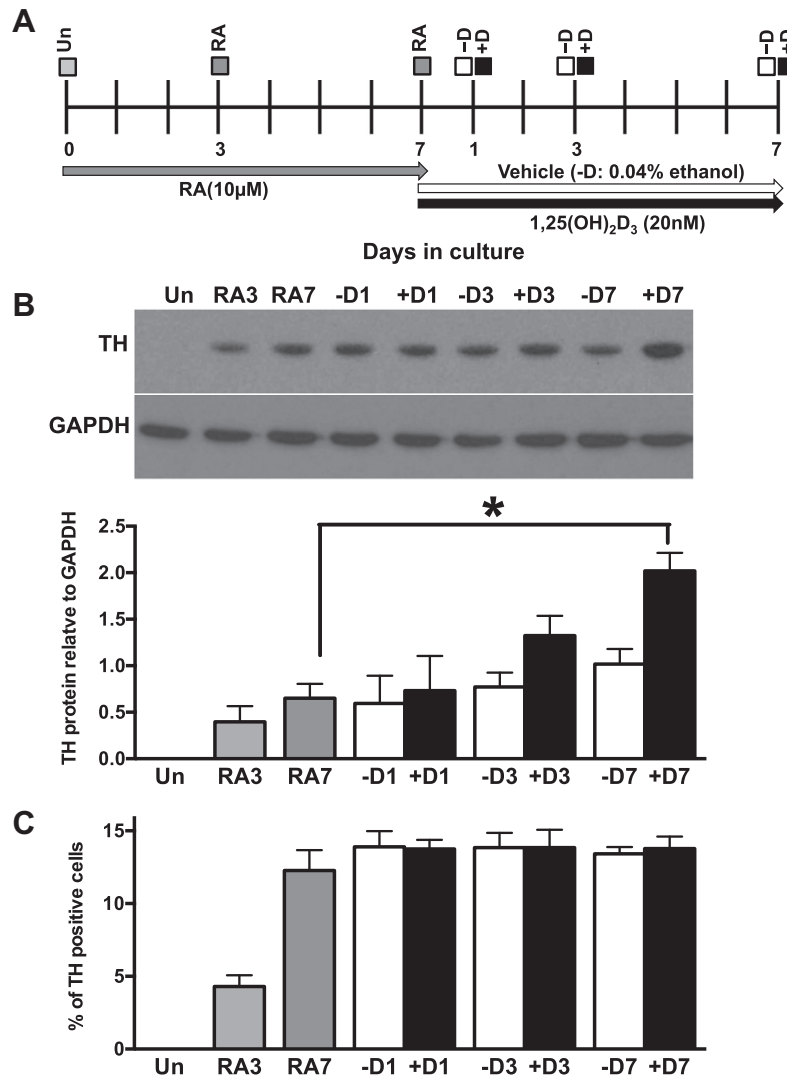


Fig. 2. TH expression is modulated by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in a time-dependent manner. (A) VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y and wild type SH-SY5Y cells were harvested at 3 and 7 days after RA (10 μM) treatment (RA3 and RA7) or at 1, 3 and 7 days after 20 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (+D1, +D3, +D7) or after vehicle treatment (–D1, –D3, –D7). (B) In VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells 1,25(OH)₂D₃ treatment for 7 days significantly increases TH expression compared to levels after 7 days of RA treatment ($F(8,18) = 7.29, n = 3, *p < 0.05$). (C) 1,25(OH)₂D₃ did not change the percentage of TH-positive cells ($n = 4$). Data = mean ± SEM.

316 and 1.7 mM octane sulfonic acid adjusted to pH 3 with
 317 phosphoric acid delivered at 1 mL/min. Detector settings
 318 were as follows: conditioning cell (Model 5020, ESA
 319 Laboratories, Inc., MA) +350 mV; analytical cell (Model
 320 5014B, ESA Laboratories, Inc., MA) with the first and
 321 second electrodes maintained at –150 and +250 mV
 322 respectively. Data were quantified by calculating peak-
 323 height ratios for each specific analyte relative to an
 324 internal standard, DE. Data were processed with
 325 Chemstation software (Rev B.01.03, Agilent
 326 Technologies, Inc.). Samples were corrected for dilution
 327 and expressed as nanogram per gram (ng/g) protein.

Statistical analysis

328 Unpaired *t*-tests were used to analyze the effects of
 329 1,25(OH)₂D₃ on dopamine production; TH mRNA
 330 expression; GDNF expression; dividing or total cell
 331

number and N-Cadherin expression. For the effects of
 1,25(OH)₂D₃ concentration or the effects of 1,25(OH)₂D₃
 over time on TH protein production, statistical analyses
 were performed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA)
 followed by post hoc tukey’s tests. Significance level
 was set at $p < 0.05$.

RESULTS

Effect of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ on TH expression and activity *in vitro*

1,25(OH)₂D₃ significantly increased TH protein in VDR-
 expressing SH-SY5Y cells in a dose-dependent manner
 (Fig. 1A, $F(5,18) = 27.82, p < 0.001, n = 4$).
 The optimal 1,25(OH)₂D₃ dose proved to be 20 nM. This
 dose was used in all further cell-based experiments.
 Dopamine, the product of TH, was also increased
 10-fold in cell lysates (Fig. 1B, $t = 6.448, p < 0.01$,

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348 $n = 3$). TH mRNA was also significantly enhanced by
349 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (Fig. 1C, $t = 3.056$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 4$).

350 Next we examined the time-dependent nature of TH
351 protein expression in VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells.
352 Cells were treated with RA for 7 days and 1,25(OH)₂D₃
353 at 20 nM for 7 days with media changed on days 3 and
354 6. The cells were collected at 3 and 7 days after RA
355 treatment and then 1, 3 and 7 days after vitamin D
356 treatment (Fig. 2A). In undifferentiated cells, no TH
357 protein was observed. TH protein increased with RA
358 treatment. In VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y, the addition of
359 1,25(OH)₂D₃ progressively further increased TH
360 expression which became significant after 7 days of
361 treatment compared to the last day of RA treatment
362 (Fig. 2B, $F(8,18) = 7.29$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 3$; RA7 vs.
363 +D7, $p < 0.05$). By contrast, the ethanol vehicle
364 produced no further increase in TH. To investigate
365 whether this 1,25(OH)₂D₃ – induced increase in TH
366 expression in VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y was due to an
367 increase in TH production per se or TH-expressing cell
368 number the percentage of cells expressing TH was
369 determined using flow cytometry. We clearly showed
370 that the use of RA increased TH-positive cell number;
371 however 1,25(OH)₂D₃ had no further effect (Fig. 2C).
372 This suggests the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ – mediated increase in
373 TH levels reflects an increase in expression, rather than
374 an increase in TH-positive cells.

375 1,25(OH)₂D₃ does not alter GDNF expression *in vitro*

376 GDNF is a neurotrophic factor for dopaminergic neurons
377 and multiple lines of evidence have indicated that
378 1,25(OH)₂D₃ may directly modulate GDNF expression
379 (Naveilhan et al., 1996; Sanchez et al., 2002). In our dif-
380 ferentiated cells the GDNF transcript was thus examined
381 in the presence of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ but no alteration was
382 observed (Fig. 3, $t = 0.2843$, $p = 0.7857$, $n = 4$).

383 1,25(OH)₂D₃ reduces cell proliferation *in vitro*

384 We have previously shown that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ has potent
385 anti-proliferative effects on primary hippocampal
386 neurons (Brown et al., 2003). In line with our previous

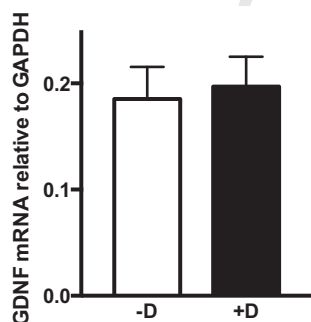


Fig. 3. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ does not alter the expression of GDNF mRNA. VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells were induced to differentiate by addition of 10 μM RA for 7 days and then 20 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (+D) or vehicle (–D: 0.04% ethanol) for 7 days. RNA was isolated and GDNF expression was examined by real-time PCR ($t = 0.2843$, $p = 0.7857$, $n = 4$).

finding, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ significantly reduced the number of
387 dividing cells in culture by 30 per cent (Fig. 4A,
388 $t = 5.195$, $p < 0.01$, $n = 4$). It is reasonable to expect
389 that total number might therefore also be decreased; how-
390 ever, the total number of cells was not altered as
391 assessed by unbiased stereological cell counting tech-
392 niques (Fig. 4B).
393

1,25(OH)₂D₃ increases N-cadherin expression

394 N-cadherin is a neural adhesion molecule that plays
395 important role in the neurogenesis of dopamine neurons
396 (Sakane and Miyamoto, 2013). In our current study,
397 1,25(OH)₂D₃ increased N-cadherin protein in VDR-
398 expressing SH-SY5Y cells (Fig. 5A, $t = 2.476$,
399 $p < 0.05$, $n = 4$). When we examined N-cadherin protein
400 in the mesencephalon from DVD-deficient embryonic
401 brains, accordingly, it was significantly reduced (Fig. 5B,
402 $t = 3.304$, $p < 0.05$, $n = 3$).
403

DISCUSSION

404 There are several novel and important findings in this
405 study. First, we provide unambiguous evidence that
406 1,25(OH)₂D₃ promotes an increase in TH expression
407 and dopamine in neuroblastoma cells transfected with
408 the rodent VDR. This regulation is dose and time-
409 dependent and does not reflect any change in TH cell
410 number. Second, this increase in TH expression is not
411 associated with increased trophic effects of GDNF at
412 least in this culture system. Third, we show that
413 1,25(OH)₂D₃ inhibits the proliferation of VDR-expressing
414 SHSY-5Y cells. Fourth, we find that 1,25(OH)₂D₃
415 enhances that expression of N-cadherin, a neural
416 adhesion molecule important in dopaminergic neuron
417 differentiation and maturation. Finally when these factors
418 were investigated *in vivo* in developing neurons from our
419 DVD-deficiency model, accordingly, we observe the
420 reverse findings. A comparison of these findings from
421 our *in vitro* model of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ administration
422 compared with current and previously published findings
423 from our *in vivo* model of DVD-deficiency is presented in
424 Table 1.
425

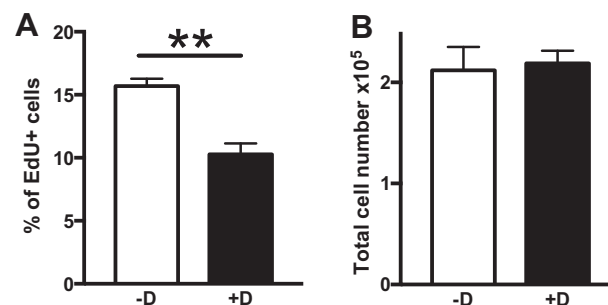


Fig. 4. The effect of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ on proliferation. VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells were treated with RA (10 μM) for 7 days and then 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (20 nM) (+D) or vehicle (–D: 0.04% ethanol) for 7 days. EdU was applied on day 7 of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ treatment. 1, 25(OH)₂D₃ (A) reduces EdU incorporation ($t = 5.195$, $n = 4$, $**p < 0.01$), but (B) does not alter total cell number ($t = 0.2781$, $n = 4$, $p = 0.7841$). Data = mean ± SEM.

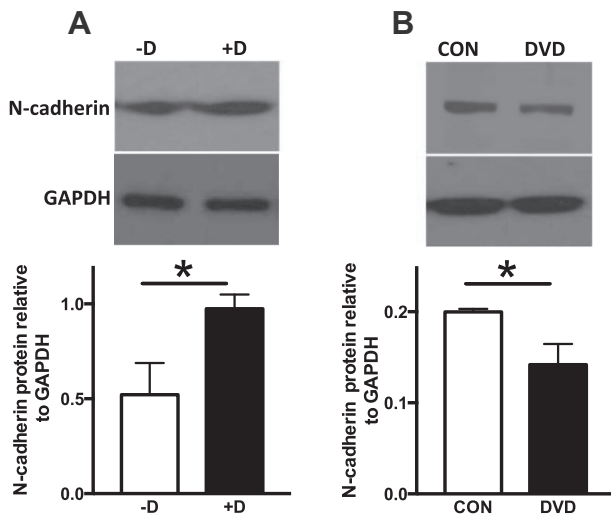


Fig. 5. N-cadherin is modulated by 1,25(OH)₂D₃. (A) VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y were differentiated in the presence of RA (10 μM) for 7 days and then 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (20 nM) (+D) or vehicle (–D: 0.04% ethanol) for 24 h. Cells were collected and subjected to western blot. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ increases N-cadherin protein in VDR-expressing SH-SY5Y cells *in vitro* ($t = 2.476$, $n = 4$, $*p < 0.05$) (B) DVD-deficiency reduces N-cadherin protein *in vivo* ($t = 3.304$, $n = 3$, $*p < 0.05$). Data = mean ± SEM.

1,25(OH)₂D₃ directly modulates TH expression in neuronal cells

In our *in vitro* model, SH-SY5Y cells were first pre-treated with RA. This promoted approximately 12% of these cells to differentiate and produce the dopaminergic marker TH. Subsequent treatment with 1,25(OH)₂D₃ did not further increase the overall percentage of TH-positive cells in culture. However it clearly increased the production of not only the TH protein and its transcript but also its product dopamine, indicating this increase in TH is functional. The optimal 1,25(OH)₂D₃ dose was 20 nM. The response relationship is best described as an “inverted U” dose response. This dose and this dose-relationship is entirely consistent with numerous previous studies examining the effects of this steroid *in vitro* (Kelly et al., 1985; Ryhanen et al., 1998; Toell et al., 2000; Chattopadhyay et al., 2003; Wu et al., 2007).

Consistent with 1,25(OH)₂D₃ having no effect on TH-positive cell number were the findings from unbiased cell counting indicating that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ also had no

effect on total cell number in culture. This further suggests that the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ mediated increase in TH and dopamine results from 1,25(OH)₂D₃ acting as a differentiation agent on TH-positive neurons to increase neuronal maturation and subsequent dopamine production rather than increasing TH cell number or survival (see below). The idea that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ could promote aspects of neuronal maturation such as neurite outgrowth in primary neuronal cultures (Brown et al., 2003) as well as in neuroblastomas (Agholme et al., 2010) has been made previously. Only one previous study has reported that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ may directly increase TH expression but this was in adrenal medullary cells (Puchacz et al., 1996). Unfortunately only TH mRNA levels were examined in that study, with neither TH protein nor TH-positive cell number examined.

A number of studies have shown that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ can act as a neuroprotective agent for dopaminergic neurons (Wang et al., 2001; Cass et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2006; Sanchez et al., 2009; Cass et al., 2012, 2014). These data and the epidemiological findings linking low levels of vitamin D with increased risk of Parkinson’s disease (PD) (Newmark and Newmark, 2007; Evatt et al., 2008, 2011; Knekt et al., 2010; Peterson et al., 2013) have led to a clinical trials of vitamin D in this disease. The initial findings are very encouraging; the patients on placebo continued to have a steady worsening on neurological outcomes whereas those who took vitamin D (1200IU/day) had no further progression in PD symptoms (Suzuki et al., 2013). These results strongly suggest that vitamin D status influences disease progression. Progression of PD symptoms is associated with the degeneration of dopaminergic neurons. As previously outlined, preclinical studies in neurotoxicity animal models of this disease confirm that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ can restore dopamine levels in striatum and ameliorate dopamine neuron death induced by intra-cerebral administration of 6-OHDA (Wang et al., 2001; Smith et al., 2006; Sanchez et al., 2009; Cass et al., 2012, 2014). Cass et al. and Sanchez et al. have showed that vitamin D increases GDNF in the lesioned striatum indicating this trophic agent may be the mediating factor for vitamin D’s neuroprotective actions on dopamine neurons. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ has also been shown to reduce dopaminergic neuronal death induced by 6-OHDA in primary mesencephalic cultures by increasing GDNF expression (Orme et al., 2013). Therefore the evidence that GDNF acts as a trophic factor for DA neurons in the presence of toxic agents would appear strong. For these

Table 1. Vitamin D mediates alterations in N-cadherin, proliferation and TH expression: comparison between findings presented here where 1,25(OH)₂D₃ is present *in vitro* with findings in the developing brain where vitamin D is removed from the maternal diet and compared with findings in which N-cadherin is regionally knocked out

	<i>In vitro</i> (1,25(OH) ₂ D ₃)	<i>In vivo</i> (DVD-deficiency)	Regional N-cadherin knock-out (Sakane and Miyamoto, 2013)
N-cadherin	↑	↓	↓
Cell proliferation	↓	↑ (Eyles et al., 2003; Ko et al., 2004; Cui et al., 2007)	↑ (Dopaminergic progenitors)
TH	↑	↓ (Cui et al., 2010)	↓

495 reasons we also examined whether GDNF expression
496 may be a mediating factor in our *in vitro* model. The clear
497 absence of any effect on GDNF expression in our *in vitro*
498 system suggests this factor may be more relevant to
499 1,25(OH)₂D₃'s actions in dopaminergic systems in the
500 presence of active toxicity.

501 1,25(OH)₂D₃ regulates the transcription of a variety of
502 genes via its receptor, the VDR. After ligand binding, the
503 VDR forms a heterodimer with the retinoid X receptor
504 (RXR). This complex binds to a vitamin D response
505 element (VDRE) in the regulatory region of the target
506 gene (Haussler et al., 1998). Our results suggesting a
507 direct effect on TH expression may possibly be mediated
508 through this classical genomic function. Using the multi-
509 genome analysis of positions and patterns of elements
510 of regulation (MAPPER) search engine, we identified multiple
511 putative VDREs within 10 kb from the 5'upstream
512 DNA sequence for the TH promoter (Marinescu et al.,
513 2005). Further investigations are warranted to explore
514 whether the VDREs on the promoter of TH are functional
515 via a technique such as chromatin immunoprecipitation
516 (ChIP). Indeed, other members of the same nuclear steroid
517 family as 1,25(OH)₂D₃ such as RA and estrogen have
518 been reported to modulate TH expression through their
519 respective response elements, the retinoic acid responsive
520 element (RARE) or the estrogen responsive element
521 (ERE) within the RXR complex binding to the promoter of
522 TH (Maharjan et al., 2005; Jeong et al., 2006). It is thus
523 plausible that some similar mechanisms may be operating
524 for 1,25(OH)₂D₃.

525 1,25(OH)₂D₃ and cell proliferation

526 The finding that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ acts as a differentiation
527 agent for neurons is no longer surprising (McGrath
528 et al., 2001). Our results here indicating that
529 1,25(OH)₂D₃ decreases the number of dividing neuro-
530 blastomas is consistent with our previous findings showing
531 that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ reduces BrdU incorporation in hip-
532 pocampal progenitors (Brown et al., 2003). Further sup-
533 porting evidence comes from the study of neurospheres
534 which are formed when embryonic brain is dispersed
535 and cultured under the appropriate conditions. This neu-
536 rosphere number is directly proportional to number of
537 dividing cells (Reynolds and Rietze, 2005) and we have
538 shown that the addition of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ to neurospheres
539 in culture reduces neurosphere number (Cui et al.,
540 2007). Furthermore, previous evidence from our DVD-
541 deficient rat model is also consistent with these findings.
542 In the developmental absence of vitamin D, DVD-
543 deficient embryos have increased mitotic cells throughout
544 the embryonic brain (Eyles et al., 2003; Ko et al., 2004)
545 and increased neurosphere number (Cui et al., 2007).
546 DVD-deficiency also alters the corresponding expression
547 profile of genes regulating mitosis in the brain (Ko et al.,
548 2004). In this later study results from pathway specific
549 arrays showed that 48% of genes related to mitosis were
550 up-regulated in the DVD-deficient developing brain. In
551 addition, key cell-cycle modulators such as cyclins C
552 and B, as well as the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor

P21 cip1 are down-regulated in the DVD-deficient devel-
oping rat (Ko et al., 2004). These cyclins and cyclin-
dependent kinase inhibitors play a key role on modulating
cell cycle progression. These factors have also been
shown to be altered by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in this cell line.
Gumireddy et al. showed that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ and its ana-
logs regulate P21cip1 and reduce BrdU incorporation by
25–50% in SH-SY5Y cells (Gumireddy et al., 2003a,b).
1,25(OH)₂D₃ and its analogs have also been found to inhi-
bit the proliferation of human SH-SY5Y cells (Celli et al.,
1999; Stio et al., 2001).

A reduction in cell division as shown here in our *in vitro*
model may also be expected to produce a reduction in cell
number. However using unbiased cell counting techniques
the total cell number appeared to be normal. It is plausible
that once cells have undergone substantial differentiation
due to the exposure to both RA and 1,25(OH)₂D₃ for
7 days each, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ may act as a survival-
promoting factor. This finding is alluded to by the data of
Brewer et al., who showed that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ protects
hippocampal neuron against the toxicity of N-methyl-D-
aspartate (NMDA) or glutamate toxicity (Brewer et al.,
2001). Alternately it is also possible that vitamin D reduces
the programmed elimination of cells in our model. This seems
unlikely however as vitamin D is pro-apoptotic (Krishnan
and Feldman, 2011). After 14 days in culture the percent-
age of dividing cells is only 15% in vehicle treated cells
(Fig. 4). Given the variance in the estimation of total cell
numbers it is unlikely a 5% reduction in cell number due
to less dividing cells in vitamin D treated cultures would lead
to a significant reduction in total cell numbers.

549 1,25(OH)₂D₃ – induced differentiation of 550 dopaminergic neurons is possibly mediated by 551 N-cadherin

552 Cadherins are cell adhesion molecules that are important
553 in the formation and maintenance of diverse tissue. The
554 classical cadherins E, P and N are expressed in distinct
555 tissue types and display separate functions during
556 development. For instance, E-cadherin is expressed in
557 all epithelial tissue and contributes to the orientation of
558 cell polarity in epithelium. N-cadherin is mainly
559 expressed in neural tissue and muscles (Halbleib and
560 Nelson, 2006). Vitamin D modulates the expression of
561 cadherins in a tissue-dependent manor. 1,25(OH)₂D₃
562 increases E-cadherin levels in colon carcinoma cells
563 (Palmer et al., 2001) and in contrast, down-regulates N
564 and P-cadherin in breast cancer cells (Pendas-Franco
565 et al., 2007). Our result showed that 1,25(OH)₂D₃
566 increased N-cadherin in neuroblastomas and DVD-
567 deficiency reduced its level in embryonic mesencephalon.

568 N-cadherin is known not only to contribute to the
569 maintenance of tissue structure but also to cortical
570 neurogenesis (Zhang et al., 2010) and, of greater impor-
571 tance here, dopamine neuron differentiation. Regional
572 specific loss of N-cadherin in mouse mesencephalon
573 results in a significant expansion of dopamine progenitors
574 due to a reduction in their exit from the cell cycle (Sakane
575 and Miyamoto, 2013). Therefore less dopamine

progenitors differentiate into dopaminergic neurons resulting in a marked reduction in the number of dopamine neurons in N-cadherin knockout mice. Our finding of increased N-cadherin expression by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ *in vitro* is therefore consistent with the potential role this agent plays in differentiating dopamine neurons. This proposal is strengthened by our additional finding of a decrease in N-cadherin protein in developing mesencephalon from DVD-deficient embryos. In fact it would appear that DVD-deficiency phenocopies N-cadherin knockout animals in that there is reduced N-cadherin, increased proliferation and reduced TH (Table 1). One caveat to this proposal, however, is that we do not know whether N-cadherin is reduced specifically in developing dopaminergic neurons.

CONCLUSION

In this study we clearly demonstrate that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ enhances TH expression in a VDR-expressing neuroblastoma cells and importantly this effect is reversed when vitamin D is removed from the developing brain. These findings strongly suggest that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ is a direct differentiation agent for dopaminergic neurons. Schizophrenia is regarded as a neurodevelopmental disease and alterations in the early ontogeny of dopamine systems have been proposed to be a central etiological feature of the disease (Eyles et al., 2012). The direct modulation of TH by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ as demonstrated here might help us to better understand the etiology for the epidemiological link between DVD-deficiency and schizophrenia.

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