Background: Ischemic stroke is a dominant contributor to disability and mortality worldwide and is recognized as an important health concern. As a transcription factor triggered via stress, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma (PPAR-γ) has a crucial impact on differentiation, cell death, and cell growth. However, the role of PPAR-γ and its precise mechanism in cerebral ischemia injury (CII) remain unclear.

Material/Methods: The male C57Bl/6 mice (12 weeks old, n=52) were subjected to middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO). Infarct volume was evaluated by 2, 3, 5-Triphenyltetrazolium chloride staining. Cell apoptosis was measured by terminal dUTP nick-end labeling (TUNEL) staining. The expression of apoptotic-related protein was examined by Western blotting. Neuron2A cells were transfected with PPAR-γ-specific siRNA and then were subjected to oxygen-glucose exhaustion and reoxygenation.

Results: It was observed that PPAR-γ-deficient mice displayed extended infarct trigon in the MCAO stroke model. Neuronal deficiency was more severe in PPAR-γ-deficient models. Additionally, expression of cell death-promoting Bcl-2 associated X and active caspase-3 was reinforced, while that of cell death-counteracting Bcl-2 was repressed in PPAR-γ-deficient mice. This was characterized by reinforced endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress reactions in vivo brain specimens as well as in vitro neurons in ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury.

Conclusions: This research proved that PPAR-γ protected the brain from cerebral I/R injury by repressing ER stress and indicated that PPAR-γ is a potential target in the treatment of ischemia.

MeSH Keywords: Apoptosis Inducing Factor • Apoptosis Regulatory Proteins • MAP Kinase Kinase Kinase 5

Full-text PDF: https://www.medscimonit.com/abstract/index/idArt/915914
Background

Stroke has been the dominant contributor to paralysis as well as mortality worldwide. Nevertheless, developments in its treatment have been limited [1]. Although several compounds proved effective in animal models, none of them demonstrated efficiency in humans, except for thrombolitics [2]. Brain injury subsequent to stroke arises from complicated interaction of various mechanisms [3–5]. Progress in innovative therapy demands a more thorough understanding of the complicated etiology of ischemic brain injury.

PPAR-γ is a transcription factor belonging to the nuclear hormone receptor super-family, encoded by human chromosome 3 [6–8]. Its agonists demonstrated impairment of cerebral injury by repressing oxidative stress (OS) [9,10], but PPAR-γ exhaustion resulted in a larger infarct [11]. PPAR-γ speeds up elimination of additional superoxide by reinforcing the transcription of superoxide dismutase (SOD) and inhibiting superoxide production through the repression of nitrogen oxide (NOX) concentration. For example, as a synthetic agonist of PPAR-γ, pioglitazone upregulated SOD-1 and downregulated NOX in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs) [12], and repressed the thickening of the middle cerebral artery (MCA) in spontaneously hypertensive rats-stroke prone (SHRs-SP) [13]. Another synthetic agonist of PPAR-γ, rosiglitazone, inhibited the NOX function of hyperglycemic HUVECs by activating adenosine monophosphate-stimulated protein kinase [14] and promoting cardiovascular pathophysiologic characteristics of SHRs by downregulating aortic p22 phox [15]. The role of PPAR-γ as well as its precise mechanism in ischemic neuronal cells remain unclear.

In this study, we subjected both PPAR-γ deficient mice and wild type mice to cerebral ischemia/reperfusion injury with middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) model and to investigate the impacts and precise mechanism of PPAR-γ on ischemic stroke. We found that PPAR-γ protected the brain from cerebral I/R injury by repressing ER stress.

Material and Methods

Experimental animals

The cortex of mice was injected with PPAR-γ siRNA (si-PPAR-γ from GenePharma, Shanghai, P. R. China) using 2 microliters of Hamilton microsyringe (Switzerland) in the stereotaxic coordinates below. The cortex was also injected with another similar vehicle (scramble RNA, si-Con from GenePharma, Shanghai, P.R. China). The C57BL/6 mice were maintained in the Animal Resource Centre of the Faculty of Medicine, Tianjing Medical University, with food and water available under the following conditions: temperatures of 22±2°C and a light/dark cycle of 12/12 hours. All animal procedures were performed in strict accordance with the guideline of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of Jingzhou Second People’s Hospital.

Middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO) model

Male mice aged between 12 and 14 weeks (22±0.5 g) were anesthetized with an intraperitoneal injection of chloral hydrate (3.5 mg/kg). After transfection of PPAR-γ siRNA for 24 h, the mice were subjected to MCAO. The modified monofilament intraluminal MCAO procedure was used in our experiments. The rectal temperature was maintained at 37±0.2°C using a heating pad and a heating lamp throughout the entire procedure. 6-0 silicone-coated nylon monofilament (6023PK, Doccol Corp, CA, USA) was delivered to the right internal carotid artery via the external carotid artery, and temporary ligation of the right common carotid. Laser-Doppler flowmetry (Moor VSM-LDF, Wilmington, DE, USA) was used to monitor regional cerebral blood flow (CBF) in the MCA territory during the procedure. After the occlusion period of 1 h, the monofilament suture was removed, followed by 24 h of reperfusion periods. The sham-operated mice were all treated similarly, except for MCAO. The whole operational procedure was conducted under the operating microscope. Mice were then placed into a temperature-controlled incubator for 4 hours before returning to their home cages. All animals were allowed ad libitum access to water and food after surgery. Animals with brain hemorrhage, and those that did not show a reduction in CBF >80% during MCAO and recovery of CBF >70% after 5 minutes reperfusion, were excluded. The mice were randomly divided into 4 groups with 13 mice in each group: sham-si-control, sham-si-PPAR-γ, MCAO- si-control, MCAO- si-PPAR-γ.

2,3,5-Triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) staining and infarct size evaluation

The infarct size was evaluated by TTC staining (R&D Systems Ltd, Europe). After 24-hour reperfusion, the brains were immediately excised and frozen under conditions of −20°C for 10 min. These specimens were cut into one-millimeter slices in coronal direction and were subjected to five-minute staining with 1% 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) under dark conditions at 37 °C prior to overnight fixing with 4% paraformaldehyde. The unstained regions were considered as infarction areas, while normal regions were stained red. The ratio of the infarct volume was assessed and quantified. The brain region on the unaffected side (A), ipsilateral brain areas without infarction (B), and the infarct regions (C) on both sides were assessed. The infarct volume ratio was calculated using the following formula: A–B/A×100%.
**Immunohistochemistry**

Paraformaldehyde 4% was applied to perfusion subsequent to 24-hour reperfusion. The samples were incubated overnight in PBS saline with 20% sucrose and in 30% sucrose until the specimen settled at the bottom of the tube. A vibrating microtome (Leica CM1950, Nussloch, Germany) was utilized to cut the cortex of brain specimen into slices (30 μm), which were incubated overnight with primary antibodies counteracting NeuN (1: 800, Millipore, USA), followed by a one-hour incubation with secondary antibodies. Immunoreactivity was observed using substrate-chromogen solution. NeuN-positive neuronal cells were quantified using an optical fractionator with the Microbrightfield Stereo Investigator (Stereo Investigator software; Microbrightfield).

**Terminal dUTP nick-end labeling (TUNEL) staining**

Fluorescein and an in-situ cell death detection kit (R&D Systems Ltd., Europe) were used for the TUNEL staining of paraffin-embedded tissue sections. Slices from every group were subjected to a 10-minute incubation in proteinase K at 37 °C, followed by five-minute PBS washing (0.1 M, pH 7.4), and subsequent fluorescence observation. Slices were incubated for one hour in the TUNEL reaction admixture at 37 °C, prior to five-minute DAPI staining at room temperature. TUNEL-positive cells were quantified and expressed as a ratio of TUNEL-positive cells/field. Nikon C2 Plus system (Japan) was used to record the images.

**Cell culture and transfection**

Neuron2A cells were purchased from Tumor Cell Bank of the Chinese Academy of Medical Science (Beijing, P.R. China). The cells were cultured in the RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (HyClone, Logan, Utah, USA) and 1% penicillin/streptomycin at 37 °C and under 5% CO₂. PPAR-γ siRNA (si-PPAR-γ) along with scramble RNA (si-Con) was purchased from GenePharma (Shanghai, P.R. China). Twenty-four-well plates were used to seed Neuron2A cells (2×10⁴ cells/well) that were incubated for 24 hours prior to transfection with PPAR-γ siRNA or scramble RNA (100 nM) utilizing Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) in media without serum.

**Oxygen-glucose exhaustion and reoxygenation (OGD/R) models**

Oxygen-glucose exhaustion and reoxygenation (OGD/R) was carried out to generate I/R models in vitro. Culture medium was replaced with deoxygenated custom DMEM (GIBCO, CA, USA) without glucose under OGD conditions. A hypoxic chamber (provided by Thermo scientific, Waltham, USA) was used to preserve the cells for 4 hours in the presence of a premixed gas (5% CO₂, 94% N₂, and 1% O₂). Reoxygenation was done by supplementing cells treated with OGD with DMEM with glucose under normoxic conditions (95% air and 5% CO₂) for 24 hours. Neuron2A cells were preserved in complete DMEM for 28 hours under normoxic conditions for the non-OGD/R group.

**Cell survival test**

The 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) test (R&D Systems Ltd., Europe) was used to assess cell survival as instructed by the manufacturer. The cells were seeded in 96-well plates for 24 hours. The culture media was treated with 0.5 mg/mL MTT subsequent to OGD/R for four-hour. MTT solution was subsequently eliminated while dimethylsulfoxide (200 μl/well) was supplemented. A microplate spectrophotometer was used to determine absorbance at 490 nm. The absorbance was normalized to that of control, which represented 100% survival, where % survival=average of the sample absorbance/average of the control absorbance×100.

**Western blotting (WB)**

A lysis buffer (Beyotime, China) was applied for homogenization of tissues and lysates, while the protein was quantified using the Bradford test (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). Proteins were subjected to standard SDS-PAGE. Primary antibodies adopted in our research were as follows: anti-Bip (1: 1000, CST, 3183, USA), anti-β-actin (1: 10000, CST, 3700, USA), anti-β-catenin (1: 1000, CST, 2772S, USA), anti-CHOP (1: 1000, CST, 2895, USA), anti-caspase-12 (1: 800, CST, 2202, USA), anti-caspase-3 (1: 1000, CST, 9662, USA), anti-Bcl2 (1: 1000, CST, 2876, USA), and anti-Bcl-x (1: 1000, CST, 2876, USA), anti-Bax (1: 1000, CST, 2772S, USA), anti-CHOP (1: 1000, CST, 2895, USA), anti-caspase-12 (1: 800, CST, 2202, USA), anti-Bcl2 (1: 1000, CST, 2876, USA), and anti-caspase 3 (CST, 9662, USA; 1: 1000) antibodies.

**Statistical analysis**

Results were expressed as means ±SEM. Differences among various treatments and genotypes were assessed using the two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) before applying the Tukey’s post hoc test. Differences between groups were evaluated with Student’s t-test, and the level of significance was set at p<0.05.

**Results**

PPAR-γ deletion enlarged infarct size subsequent to transient MCAO

Murine MCAO models were constructed by injecting the control siRNA and PPAR-γ-specific siRNA in order to determine the role of PPAR-γ in brain I/R injury. As shown in Figure 1A, the expression of PPAR-γ was significantly reduced by injection of PPAR-γ-specific siRNA. A consecutive series of coronal brain
Figure 1. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma knockdown (PPAR-γ KD) increases murine infarct volume. (A) Expression of PPAR-γ was measured in cortex of mice receiving PPAR-γ siRNA (si-PPAR-γ) or scramble RNA (si-Con) by Western blot. (B) 2,3,5-Triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) staining of cerebral sections from mice receiving PPAR-γ siRNA (si-PPAR-γ) or scramble RNA (si-Con) injection subsequent to middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO); (C) Infarct volume assessed using ImageJ analysis software (n=6). Results are expressed as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) (** p<0.01 versus si-Con mice).

Figure 2. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma knockdown (PPAR-γ KD) aggravates neuronal death subsequent to cerebral ischemic damage. (A) Neurons from infarcted cerebral regions observed using NeuN immunostaining in mice injected with PPAR-γ siRNA (si-PPAR-γ) or scramble RNA (si-Con) 24 hours subsequent to middle cerebral artery occlusion (MCAO); (B) NeuN-positive cells were quantified in (A); (C, D) Results revealed dead cells examined via TUNEL staining in every group. Nuclei were subjected to counterstaining with DAPI. TUNEL and DAPI images were merged (scale bar=10 µm). Results are expressed as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) (n=4, * p<0.05 vs. si-Con mice).
sections stained by TTC were displayed from cranial side to caudal side (Figure 1B). White brain region represented specimens with infarction. Mice lacking PPAR-γ displayed enlarged infarct area as compared to the control group (Figure 1C). The above findings suggested that PPAR-γ deletion aggravated the I/R injury in murine brains.

**PPAR-γ deletion aggravated neuron apoptosis subsequent to brain I/R Injury**

Neuronal viability was assessed using immunostaining with neuronal markers following MCAO, in order to evaluate the role of PPAR-γ in the mechanism of ischemic stroke. Mice lacking PPAR-γ displayed noticeably fewer NeuN-positive neuronal cells and more TUNEL-positive cells (green) than the control mice (Figure 2A–D). Thus, the findings indicated that PPAR-γ knockdown promoted death of neurons subsequent to brain I/R Injury.

**Upregulation of cell-death-linked proteins in cerebral I/R with PPAR-γ deletion**

WB of MCAO brain specimens revealed that the cell death-promoting Bax was remarkably upregulated in mice lacking PPAR-γ as compared to the control mice (Figure 3A, 3B); however, cell death-counteracting Bcl2 was remarkably downregulated (Figure 3A, 3C). Moreover, levels of cleaved caspase-3, which is a specific effector of cell death, were noticeably upregulated in mice lacking PPAR-γ as compared to control mice (Figure 3A, 3D).

**PPAR-γ deletion increased endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress in cerebral I/R**

In order to evaluate the role of PPAR-γ in ER stress modulation in brain I/R, expression of ER stress biomarkers, Bip, and ER stress-linked cell death markers, cleaved caspase-12 and CHOP, was assessed in the mice lacking PPAR-γ and control mice. Bip, cleaved caspase-12, and CHOP were noticeably upregulated in mice lacking PPAR-γ than in the control mice (Figure 4).
Therefore, the above findings suggested that PPAR-γ deletion prolonged ER stress reaction in brain I/R.

**PPAR-γ deletion triggered neuronal death in OGD/R**

Neuron2A cells that were transfected with siRNA specific to PPAR-γ were subjected to OGD/R prior to MTT test, in order to verify the role of PPAR-γ in neuronal cell death. MTT test revealed that PPAR-γ knockdown (KD) remarkably inhibited neuronal survival following OGD/R supplement (Figure 5A). Furthermore, PPAR-γ KD remarkably upregulated Bax and downregulated Bcl2 in neuron2A cells, subsequent to OGD/R supplement (Figure 5B–5D). These findings suggested that PPAR-γ KD aggravated OGD/R-triggered neuronal cell death.

**PPAR-γ deletion elevated ER stress in OGD/R**

Expression of Bip, CHOP, and cleaved caspase-12 was evaluated in neuron2A cells under normal and OGD/R treatment conditions, in order to explore the role of ER stress in OGD/R-triggered cell death. The results suggested that PPAR-γ KD remarkably upregulated Bip, cleaved caspase-12, and CHOP in neuron2A cells that underwent OGD/R, as compared to the control group (Figure 6A–6D). These results proved that PPAR-γ KD aggravated ER stress reaction of neuron2A cells subjected to OGD/R.

**Discussion**

In the present, we found that PPAR-γ deletion enlarged infarct size and promoted neuron apoptosis *in vivo* and *in vitro*. We also showed that PPAR-γ deletion aggravated the ER stress in mice and in cells. Collectively, our findings suggested that PPAR-γ protected the brain from cerebral I/R injury by repressing ER stress.

Prior studies have revealed that PPAR-γ stimulation may have a neuroprotective effect in the central nervous system, affect intake and expenditure of energy, and regulate reproductive cycles [18–21]. Counteracting PPAR-γ inhibited oxygen species in order to promote neuron apoptosis in ischemia by upregulation
of reactive oxygen species (ROS) scavenging genes [22]. Our research proved that PPAR-\(\gamma\) inhibited death of neurons and cerebral injury by reducing ER stress.

ER stress crucially contributes to development of cerebral I/R damage [17,23]. Several triggers including hypoxia, hypertension, and ischemia could stimulate aggregation of unfolded proteins to ER lumen, leading to the unfolded protein response (UPR), which correlated to ER membrane extension, promoted degeneration of unfolded proteins, protein generation prohibition, and reinforcement of folding chaperone transcription [24]. UPR is firstly a defensive reaction in order to rebuild ER activities mainly via promotion of GRP78 expression, and ER-related degeneration of unfolded proteins. UPR can lead to acceleration of cell death-promoting pathways regulated via CHOP, c-Jun N-terminal kinase, and caspase-12 under conditions of severe or prolonged stress [25]. The timing of events in ER stress modulation is potentially crucial to balance survival and death. Although ER stress plays a role in re-establishing homeostasis, prolonged ER stress is harmful [26,27].

ER stress regulation exerts protective effects on the ischemic brain and can be used as a basis for innovative strategies to treat stroke [24,28]. We discovered in our research that PPAR-\(\gamma\) KD repressed susceptibility to damage by I/R and accelerated astrocyte death. Furthermore, our research findings proved that PPAR-\(\gamma\) KD remarkably upregulated CHOP, cleaved caspase-12, and Bip in the region surrounding the infarct subsequent to I/R as well as in neuron2A cells in OGD/R. These results indicated that PPAR-\(\gamma\) KD contributed to cerebral I/R damage through extended ER stress. PPAR-\(\gamma\) could serve as a crucial contributor to ER stress regulation of neurons, consequently causing cerebral I/R damage.

Numerous studies have indicated that apart from necrosis, apoptosis plays a role in cell death following I/R of the brain [29]. It has been recently revealed that ER stress plays a crucial role in cell death-promoting pathway and in sensing the cerebral damage subsequent to I/R [30,31]. UPR stimulation played a role in re-establishing homeostasis and normalizing ER activities and led to apoptosis in case of additional damage [32]. ER stress stimulates caspase-12, which belongs to the interleukin-1\(\beta\) converting enzyme caspase family, and

**Figure 5.** Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma knockdown (PPAR-\(\gamma\) KD) triggers neuronal death in oxygen-glucose exhaustion and reoxygenation (OGD/R). (A) Cell survival assessed using 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide test (MTT) test. Neuron2A cells were transfected with negative control (si-Con) or specific PPAR-\(\gamma\) siRNA (si-PPAR-\(\gamma\)) for 24 hours, which were then preserved under normal conditions (Con) or exposed to OGD for 4 hours and reoxygenation; (B) Immunoblots revealing aggravated ER stress in neuron2A cells; (C, D) Quantification of Bax (C) and Bcl2 (D) as displayed in (B). Results are expressed as mean ± standard error of mean (SEM) from 3 independent experiments (\(^{**}\)p<0.01 vs. corresponding control group; \(^{\#}\)p<0.05 vs. si-Con OGD group).
was discovered in ER with moderate cerebral expression [33]. The stimulated caspase-12 subsequently stimulated caspase-9 as well as caspase-3, triggered fragmentation of DNA, and terminally caused cell death [34]. Furthermore, CHOP served as a transcription factor upregulated by ER stress, which contributed to ER-modulated cell death. CHOP upregulated Bax while inhibiting Bcl-2 [35]. Our research revealed that PPAR-γ KD upregulated Bax and caspase-3, while downregulating Bcl2 not only in vitro but also in vivo. These findings indicate that PPAR-γ exerts a major impact on ER stress-related cell death under I/R conditions. The imitation of the present study is that we have not observed the effects of ER stress inhibitor on neuron apoptosis induced by PPAR-γ deletion in vivo and in vitro. Further study is needed to investigate this effect.

Conclusions

In conclusion, this research proves that PPAR-γ protects the brain against I/R damage by repressing prolonged ER stress. This indicates that PPAR-γ could serve as a potential target in treating ischemic stroke.

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