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# IGF-I and amino acids effects through TOR signaling on proliferation and differentiation of gilthead sea bream cultured myocytes

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#### ABSTRACT

Skeletal muscle growth and development is controlled by nutritional (amino acids, AA) as well as hormonal factors (insulin-like growth factor, IGF-I); however, how its interaction modulates muscle mass in fish is not clearly elucidated. The purpose of this study was to analyze the development of gilthead sea bream cultured myocytes to describe the effects of AA and IGF-I on proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and myogenic regulatory factors (MRFs) expression, as well as on the transduction pathways involved in its signaling (TOR/AKT). Our results showed that AA and IGF-I separately increased the number of PCNA-positive cells and, together produced a synergistic effect. Furthermore, AA and IGF-I, combined or separately, increased significantly Myogenin protein expression, whereas MyoD was not affected. These results indicate a role for these factors in myocyte proliferation and differentiation. At the mRNA level, AA significantly enhanced PCNA expression, but no effects were observed on the expression of the MRFs or AKT2 and FOXO3 upon treatment. Nonetheless, we demonstrated for the first time in gilthead sea bream that AA significantly increased the gene expression of TOR and its downstream effectors 4EBP1 and 70S6K, with IGF-I having a supporting role on 4EBP1 up-regulation. Moreover, AA and IGF-I also activated TOR and AKT by phosphorylation, respectively, being this activation decreased by specific inhibitors. In summary, the present study demonstrates the importance of TOR signaling on the stimulatory role of AA and IGF-I in gilthead sea bream myogenesis and contributes to better understand the potential regulation of muscle growth and development in fish.

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## 46 **1. Introduction**

The gilthead sea bream (*Sparus aurata* L.) has become one of the
most important species for Mediterranean aquaculture over the
last 30 years, overcoming the capture fisheries production (FAO,
2012). However, despite its commercial interest, more research is
needed to better understand its growth and development.

The growth pattern in fish differs from other vertebrates, since most fish can grow in length and weight until they die (Johnston et al., 2011; Talbot, 1993). The majority of this growth is due to accretion of muscle tissue, mostly the white skeletal muscle (Johnston, 2006; Mommsen, 2001). Contrary to most vertebrates, this muscle growth implies not only muscle hypertrophy (increase in fiber size), but also hyperplasia (new muscle fibers formation),

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ygcen.2014.05.024 0016-6480/© 2014 Published by Elsevier Inc. which is mediated by muscle satellite cells (Stoiber and Sänger, 1996). During skeletal muscle development, precursor cells become myoblasts, which undergo proliferation, cell cycle exit, differentiation and then, fusion to form multinucleated myofibers (Chargé and Rudnicki, 2004; Johnston, 2006).

Myogenesis in fish is regulated by several growth and transcription factors expressed in a sequential manner (García de la serrana et al., 2014; Johnston, 2006). Some of these myogenic regulatory factors (MRFs) are essential for muscle lineage determination and cell proliferation (Myf5 and MyoD) while others contribute to the initiation and maintenance of the differentiation program, which turns myoblasts into myotubes (MRF4 and Myogenin). In addition to MRFs, growth is hormonally regulated mainly by the hypothalamic-pituitary axis through the growth hormone (GH) and the insulin-like growth factors (IGFs) system (Fuentes et al., 2013; Le Roith et al., 2001; Montserrat et al., 2007a; Reindl and Sheridan, 2012; Reinecke et al., 2005; Wood et al., 2005). Interestingly, it has been demonstrated that IGFs (IGF-I and IGF-II) stimulate *in vitro* nutrients uptake and protein synthesis (Castillo et al., 2004; Codina et al., 2008; Montserrat et al., 2012), as well as

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myoblast proliferation, which has been observed in gilthead sea bream myocytes using a proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) immunocytochemical technique (Rius-Francino et al., 2011) and in rainbow trout myocytes by BrdU labeling (Gabillard et al., 2010). In addition to the endocrine factors, fish growth is a multifactor

83 In addition to the endocrine factors, fish growth is a multifacto-84 rial process influenced by nutritional, genetic and environmental 85 factors (Garcia de la serrana et al., 2012). Amino acids (AA) are 86 important precursors that stimulate protein synthesis mainly acti-87 vating the target of rapamycin (TOR) nutrient-sensitive signaling pathway (Kim, 2009; Meijer, 2003). Insulin and growth factors 88 (e.g. IGFs) also activate the TOR signaling pathway through its abil-89 90 ity to induce the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)/AKT signaling pathway (Glass, 2010), resulting in an increase in protein synthesis 91 via indirect activation of TOR (Vander Haar et al., 2007). In verte-92 93 brates, it is commonly known that TOR integrates signals from 94 nutrients, energy status and growth factors, and that is an essential 95 regulator of cell growth by controlling cell cycle, gene transcrip-96 tion, cytoskeleton organization and protein synthesis among other 97 functions (Destefano and Jacinto, 2013; Dowling et al., 2010; Edinger and Thompson, 2002; Gough, 2012; van Dam et al., 98 99 2011; Yang et al., 2008). TOR is present in two distinct multi-pro-100 tein complexes: TORC1 (Raptor) that is rapamycin and nutrientsensitive, and TORC2 (Rictor), which is rapamycin and nutrient-101 102 insensitive. TORC1 promotes cellular growth, proliferation and 103 metabolism by stimulating protein synthesis through 4EBP1 and 104 70S6K either in fish as in mammals (Sarbassov et al., 2005; Seiliez et al., 2008). Moreover, TORC2 controls various metabolic 105 106 processes and promotes cell proliferation and survival by facilitat-107 ing the phosphorylation of the active loop of AKT by the phospho-108 inositide-dependent kinase-1 (PDK1), which is necessary for AKT 109 activation (Destefano and Jacinto, 2013; Foster and Fingar, 2010; Liao et al., 2008; Manning and Cantley, 2007; Sarbassov et al., 110 2005). Hence, AKT also regulates cell metabolism, growth and sur-111 112 vival by inhibiting the forkhead family of transcription factors, 113 FOXO (Calnan and Brunet, 2008; Héron-Milhavet et al., 2006; 114 Manning and Cantley, 2007; Vadlakonda et al., 2013). Neverthe-115 less, studies exploring the role of AA on fish myogenesis as well 116 as the signaling pathways involved are very scarce. Seiliez et al. 117 (2008) showed in rainbow trout in vivo and in vitro the importance 118 of nutritional factors on the activation of TOR and its downstream 119 effectors. Moreover, a study in Atlantic salmon using cultured myocytes has demonstrated the effects of AA alone or combined 120 with IGF-I up-regulating the expression of different members of 121 122 the IGF system (Bower and Johnston, 2010); thus supporting a 123 nutritional stimulatory role on muscle growth.

124 In this framework, the main aim of the present study was to 125 investigate the role of AA and growth factors in muscle growth 126 and development in gilthead sea bream in vitro using a primary cell 127 culture system. Thus, we analyzed the effects of IGF-I and AA on 128 protein expression of PCNA and the myogenic factors, MyoD and 129 Myogenin, as well as the gene expression of PCNA and MRFs (MyoD1, MyoD2, Myf5, Myogenin). Furthermore, we investigated 130 the action of these molecules on the mRNA expression of TOR, 131 AKT2 and its downstream effectors (4EBP1, 70S6K and FOXO3, 132 133 respectively), as well as the activation by phosphorylation of these signaling pathways. 134

#### 135 2. Materials and methods

#### 136 2.1. Animals

Fish were obtained from a commercial fishery located in the north of Spain and maintained at the facilities of the School of Biology at the University of Barcelona (Spain) in  $0.4 \text{ m}^3$  tanks with a temperature-controlled seawater recirculation system ( $21 \pm 1 \text{ °C}$ ) and 12L:12D photoperiod. Fish were fed ad libitum twice daily with141a commercial diet (Skretting, Burgos, Spain) and fasted for 24 h142previously to the isolation of muscle cells. All animal handling pro-143cedures were conducted with the Ethics and Animal Care Commit-144tee of the University of Barcelona approval, following the EU,145Spanish and Catalan Government-established norms and146procedures.147

#### 2.2. Myocyte cell culture

For the different studies a total of twenty independent primary 149 cultures of muscle satellite cells were performed as described by 150 Montserrat et al. (2007b). We used approximately 40 gilthead 151 sea bream (S. aurata L.) juveniles from 4 to 24 g body mass per cul-152 ture. Cells were cultured in 6 well-plates (9.6 cm<sup>2</sup>/well) for 153 Western blot and quantitative real-time PCR (gPCR) studies and 154 in 12 well-plates containing glass cover slips (2.55 cm<sup>2</sup>) for immu-155 nofluorescence and immunocytochemistry analyses. Cells were 156 counted, diluted and plated to a final density of 0.2-0.25 10<sup>6</sup> 157 cells/cm<sup>2</sup> for both types of plates. The cultures were maintained 158 at 23 °C in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) supple-159 mented with 0.11% NaCl, 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1% 160 antibiotic/antimycotic solution (A/A). The development of the cells 161 was first analyzed throughout the culture (days 2, 4, 8 and 12) in 162 order to describe the proliferation and differentiation patterns 163 using immunocytochemical and immunofluorescence assays as 164 described below. 165

#### 2.3. Experimental treatments

For the different studies, myocytes at day 4 were used. This day 167 of culture development was chosen because at this point, the cells 168 retain the ability to proliferate and have also the capacity to start 169 fusing and differentiating (Montserrat et al., 2007b). The cells were 170 held for 12 h with DMEM containing 0.02% FBS and 1% A/A, then 171 starved for 5 h with medium B (without amino acids, AA) contain-172 ing 10% Earle's Balanced Salt Solution (EBSS, E7510) + 1% MEM 173 vitamins (M6895) + 0.9% NaCl + 0.13% BSA. Subsequently, the cells 174 were maintained in medium B alone (Control) or were treated with 175 human IGF-I at 100 nM and/or an AA cocktail, which contained the 176 concentration of AA of a standard cell culture medium, previously 177 reported by Lansard et al. (2010) (1% MEM Amino Acids Solution 178 (M5550) + 1% MEM Non-essentials Amino Acids Solution 179 (M7145)). The incubations lasted for 3 h in the case of Western blot 180 experiments and for 6 h for the rest of analyses. When using for 181 Western blot studies the specific inhibitors of TOR, rapamycin 182 (R8781) at 100 nM, and AKT, wortmannin (W3144) at 1  $\mu$ M, these 183 were added for the last 30 min of starvation and during subsequent 184 incubation with the different treatments. Once the incubation time 185 passed, wells were washed twice with cold phosphate buffered sal-186 ine (PBS) and the samples were recovered accordingly depending 187 on the assay type to be performed. All reagents were obtained from 188 Sigma-Aldrich (Tres Cantos, Spain) except human IGF-I that was 189 from Bachem (Weil am Rhein, Germany) and all plastic ware and 190 glass cover slips were from Nunc (LabClinics, Barcelona, Spain). 191

#### 2.4. Immunocytochemistry

Cell proliferation was analyzed by immunostaining using a 193 commercial PCNA staining kit (Cat. No. 93-1143. Life Technologies, 194 Alcobendas, Spain). After washing, cells were fixed at room tem-195 perature in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA, Sigma-Aldrich, Spain) for 196 15 min, washed, and postfixed for 5 min in 50% and 70% ethanol. 197 Briefly, coverslips were incubated in PCNA staining reagents 198 following the suggested manufacturer's protocol. Coverslips were 199 incubated in a blocking solution to prevent non-specific binding 200

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