

Rat Preputial Sebocyte Differentiation Involves Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptors¹

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The hallmark of sebaceous epithelial cell (sebocyte) differentiation is the accumulation of fused neutral fat droplets. Very little sebocyte differentiation occurs, however, in primary or organ culture, even upon incubating with androgens, which are required for maturation *in vivo*. We hypothesized that sebocyte cell culture systems lack activators of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors that are involved in adipocyte differentiation. We here report that activation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ and α by their respective specific ligands, a thiazolidinedione and a fibrate, induced lipid droplet formation in sebocytes but not epidermal cells. Linoleic acid and carbaprostacyclin, both peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ and α ligand-activators, were more effective but less specific, stimulating lipid formation in both types of cells. Either was more effective than the combination of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ and α activation, suggesting that peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ is involved in this lipid formation. Linoleic acid 0.1 mM stimulated signi-

ficantly more advanced sebocyte maturation than any other treatment, including carbaprostacyclin, which suggests a distinct role of long chain fatty acids in sebocyte differentiation. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ 1 mRNA was demonstrated in sebocytes, but not in epidermal cells; it was more strongly expressed in freshly dispersed than in cultured sebocytes. In contrast, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ mRNA was expressed to a similarly high extent before and after culture in both sebocytes and epidermal cells. These findings are compatible with the concepts that peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ 1 gene expression plays a unique role in the differentiation of sebocytes, while peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor δ activation and long chain fatty acids finalize sebocyte maturation and are capable of stimulating epidermal lipid formation. These findings have implications for the development of new modalities of treatment for acne vulgaris. **Keywords:** androgen/epidermis/fatty acids/thiazolidinediones. *J Invest Dermatol* 112:226-232, 1999

Sebaceous cells (sebocytes) are specialized epithelial cells which terminally differentiate by accumulating neutral fat droplets until they burst, giving rise to the lipid-rich holocrine secretion, sebum (Wheatley, 1986). The *in vivo* growth and development of sebaceous glands, including the rat preputial gland, is absolutely dependent on the action of androgens like dihydrotestosterone (DHT) (Sherins and Bardin, 1971; Ebling *et al*, 1975; Mesquita-Guimaraes and Coimbra, 1981; Yarbrough *et al*, 1990). Preputial sebocytes form submicroscopic lipid droplets (Rosenfield and Deplewski, 1995) and express androgen receptors when grown in monolayer culture (Miyake *et al*, 1994); however, androgens have not had a clear effect on sebocyte

differentiation in a variety of *in vitro* culture systems (Akamatsu *et al* 1992; Rosenfield *et al*, 1993; Zouboulis *et al*, 1994; Guy *et al* 1996). Therefore, the role of androgen in promoting lipogenesis has been questioned (Guy *et al*, 1996). These considerations led us to suspect that a downstream signal transduction pathway involved in the regulation of lipid metabolism was not being expressed in cultured sebocytes.

We hypothesized that mechanisms involved in lipogenesis during adipocyte differentiation may be similarly utilized in sebocyte differentiation. The role of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR) was of particular interest as they have been shown to be important in the regulation of lipid metabolism in fat and liver cells (Green, 1995; Schoonjans *et al*, 1996). Recently, it was demonstrated that expression and activation of a PPAR is necessary and sufficient to induce preadipocyte cell lines to form fat and thus undergo terminal differentiation into adipocytes (Tontonoz *et al*, 1994b). The most potent subtype is PPAR γ , specifically the γ 2 isoform. PPAR α is less adipogenic (Tontonoz *et al*, 1994a). PPAR δ , also termed FAAR (Amri *et al*, 1995) and highly homologous to hNUC-1 and less so to xPPAR β (Kliwer *et al*, 1994; Xing *et al*, 1995), does not activate adipogenesis (Brun *et al*, 1996).

PPAR were discovered as a subfamily of "orphan receptors" within the nonsteroid receptor family of nuclear hormone receptors (Mangelsdorf and Evans, 1995). The specific ligands which activate mammalian PPAR have recently been elucidated by means of gene

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Abbreviations: DHT, dihydrotestosterone; LIN, linoleic acid; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor.

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reporter systems. The natural ligand-activator of PPAR γ is a prostaglandin J₂ metabolite (Forman *et al*, 1995; Kliewer *et al*, 1995). The thiazolidinedione BRL-49653 (BRL) is a specific PPAR γ ligand up to 10⁻⁵ M (Kliewer *et al*, 1995; Lehmann *et al*, 1995; Brun *et al*, 1996; Forman *et al* 1997). WY-14643 (WY) is a clofibrate analog, which is a specific PPAR α ligand-activator up to 10⁻⁵ M (Brun *et al*, 1996; Forman *et al*, 1995). The prostacyclin analog carbaprostacyclin and the C18:2 essential fatty acid linoleic acid (LIN) are among the most potent ligand-activators of PPAR δ . Carbaprostacyclin and LIN activate PPAR δ and PPAR α to a comparable extent and several-fold more than PPAR γ (Kliewer *et al*, 1994; Brun *et al*, 1996; Forman *et al* 1997). Other agents such as LY-171883 (LY), a leukotriene antagonist which activates PPAR γ and PPAR α , seem to do so indirectly (Kliewer *et al*, 1994).

PPAR regulate multiple lipid metabolic genes in peroxisomes, microsomes, and mitochondria by acting on PPAR response elements (Schoonjans *et al* 1996). All of these organelles are prominent in sebocytes (Goldenberg *et al*, 1975; Mednieks *et al*, 1991). Some PPAR subtypes have been detected in rat sebaceous glands and epidermis (Braissant *et al*, 1996), but *in vivo* studies have not shown the PPAR activators clofibric acid (Venencie, 1995) or eicosatetraenoic acid (Strauss *et al* 1967) to stimulate sebum formation. In spite of these inconclusive data, we have found in a preliminary study that the PPAR γ activator BRL induced preputial sebocytes to differentiate as lipid-forming colonies in culture (Rosenfield *et al*, 1998). Furthermore, when serum was omitted from the culture medium, the BRL effect was enhanced and an effect of DHT, WY, and LIN became apparent.

In this study we present PPAR activator dose-response studies and PPAR gene expression data on cultured sebaceous and epidermal cells in serum-free medium. These studies demonstrate that PPAR γ is specifically involved in sebocyte maturation and indicate that PPAR δ activation affects both types of cells. Our results point to important and distinct roles of PPAR γ 1, PPAR δ , and long chain fatty acids in sebocyte maturation. They also suggest that PPAR δ activators and long chain fatty acids have the potential to stimulate the formation of epidermal lipids.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture Preputial and epidermal epithelial cells were obtained from adult male Sprague-Dawley rats, and single-cell suspensions were plated on 35 mm polystyrene dishes which contained a feeder layer of 3T3-J2 fibroblasts that had been pretreated with mitomycin C (Laurent *et al* 1992). They were initially grown for 3 d in Dulbecco's modified Eagles medium with 10% fetal bovine serum supplemented with 10⁻¹⁰ M cholera toxin, 10⁻⁶ M hydrocortisone, and antibiotics (Laurent *et al* 1992). Cellgro Complete (Mediatech, VA), a serum-free chemically defined cell culture medium containing bovine serum albumin and a proprietary nonanimal protein source, and 10⁻⁶ M insulin were substituted for Dulbecco's modified Eagles medium/fetal bovine serum on day 3, and the various treatments were added in triplicate in ethanol or dimethylsulfoxide concentrations ($\leq 0.1\%$ by volume) that did not affect lipid formation. Cultures were stopped after 6 + d, prior to confluence among colonies. At this time there were ≈ 150 colonies per well, each averaging about 4500 cells. BRL, LY, WY, and carbaprostacyclin were obtained from Biomol (Plymouth Meeting, PA); troglitazone from Parke-Davis (Morris Plains, NJ); and other chemicals from Sigma (St Louis, MO), except as otherwise noted.

Analysis of lipid droplet formation Cultured cells were fixed and stained with Oil Red O (Rosenfield, 1989). Lipid accumulation in epithelial cell colonies was quantitated by light microscopy at 25–40 \times in four groups according to the number of stained cells per colony: 0, 1–5, 6–50, and >50. A lipid-forming colony was defined as a colony containing over five cells positive for Oil Red O staining (cells equivalent to at least mid-differentiation of sebocytes, see below), in order to distinguish clearly specific cytoplasmic staining from the amorphous staining of deteriorating cells. Colonies containing one to five lipid-stained cells averaged <10% of colonies on any treatment.

Lipid accumulation was also quantitated after culture by differential counts and fluorescence-activated cell scanning of single cell suspensions. After removing 3T3 cells by a brief incubation with 0.02% ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid, cultured cells were dispersed by incubation with 0.25% trypsin and 0.02% ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid for 10 min, and then

washed in phosphate-buffered saline. For differential counts, cell smears were fixed on poly L-lysine coated slides, stained with Oil Red O, and counterstained with Gill's hematoxylin. A modification of the method of Tosti was used to determine the percentage of cells at each successive stage of differentiation (Rosenfield, 1989), undifferentiated (UN), early (perinuclear lipid droplets), mid (fused lipid droplets), late (large droplets) and mature (nucleus distorted by large cytoplasmic lipid droplets). For fluorescence-activated cell scan, dispersed cells were stained for 20 min with 0.1 μ g per ml Nile Red in 0.01% methanol, washed, and resuspended in phosphate-buffered saline. Fluorescence-activated cell scan excitation wavelength was 488 nm, and emission was monitored through band-pass filters at 585 \pm 15 nm (FL2), and ≥ 630 nm (FL3) (Greenspan *et al* 1985; Smyth and Wharton, 1992). The FL1 (525 \pm 15 nm) region was gated out after preliminary studies with propidium iodide showed a negligible proportion of nonviable cells. The detector voltage gain settings were calibrated to minimize the autofluorescence signal of unstained cells, and the compensation settings were adjusted to minimize the overlapping Nile Red emission spectrum in the FL2 and FL3 regions. Analysis was performed using Lysis 2.0 software (Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA).

Riboprobes and RNase protection assay A 275 bp cDNA fragment of rat PPAR γ , comprising the 90 bp region specific to PPAR γ 2 and extending into the A/B domain of cDNA common to both PPAR γ 1 and γ 2, was obtained by reverse transcription coupled to polymerase chain reaction using primers homologous to the mouse PPAR γ 2 cDNA sequence (Tontonoz *et al*, 1994a). The cDNA strand was synthesized from 5 μ g of total RNA from rat epididymal fat pad using the SUPERScript II RNase H⁻ Reverse Transcriptase (Gibco BRL, Gaithersburg, MD). The primers consisted of γ -up 5'-AGTCATGGAAACACGGACAGG-3', and γ -down 5'-CTCCATGTTGAGGCTGCCAC-3'. The rat cDNA fragment was then sequenced by the dideoxy termination method (Sambrook *et al* 1989a) for determination of homologies to mPPAR γ . This area of the cDNA allowed differentiation between the γ 1 and γ 2 isoforms using a single riboprobe, as the signal for γ 2 is at 275 bp and that for γ 1 is 90 bp less, at 185 bp. The 275 bp riboprobe was made by linearizing the plasmid with the restriction enzyme *Hind*III and then transcribing using T3 RNA polymerase in the presence of α (³²P)-UTP and three other nucleotide triphosphates (Sambrook *et al* 1989b). A 109 bp internal control probe was created by transcribing linearized pT7 18S rRNA (Ambion, Austin, TX) similarly with T7 RNA polymerase (Sambrook *et al* 1989b).

PPAR δ was a gift from Dr. S. Liao (University of Chicago, Chicago, IL). It consisted of a 1 kb cDNA fragment inserted into the *Eco*R1 site of the polylinker of pBluescript SK. A 230 bp riboprobe, corresponding to base pairs 1166–1396 within the ligand binding domain (Xing *et al*, 1995), was made by linearizing the plasmid with *M*spI and then transcribing with T7 RNA polymerase as above.

RNase protection assay was performed by hybridizing total RNA (10 μ g) to the riboprobes, digesting unprotected RNA with RNase A and T1, and separating the protected RNA hybrids on a 5% polyacrylamide/8 M urea gel, which was then autoradiographed (Miyake *et al*, 1994).

Statistical analysis One-way analysis of variance followed by Fisher's protected least differences *post hoc* testing was used to compare the various treatments, after square root or logarithmic transformation as necessary to normalize variances among treatments. Statistical analyses were performed using Statview or Stata 4.0 statistical software. *p* values are two-tailed.

RESULTS

Thiazolidinediones are potent inducers of sebocyte differentiation The PPAR γ ligand BRL induced lipid-forming colonies, in a broad, dose-response manner commencing at 10⁻¹⁰ M, with BRL 10⁻⁶ M yielding a maximum response (Fig 1a) (*p* < 0.01). BRL 10⁻⁴ M had a cytotoxic effect. In 26 successive experiments, BRL 10⁻⁶ M induced 60.4% \pm 3.8% (SEM) of colonies to differentiate as lipid-forming colonies, as compared with 5.2% \pm 0.7% of untreated controls. The thiazolidinedione troglitazone had a similar dose-response effect, but was approximately one-tenth as potent as BRL, inducing 60% \pm 10% lipid-forming colonies at the maximally tolerated dose of 10⁻⁵ M (*n* = 4).

Androgen and thiazolidinedione effects are additive DHT 10⁻⁶ M had a small but significant effect on lipid-forming colony development (Fig 1a). Larger DHT doses or administration of the more potent, nonmetabolizable androgen mibolerone led to no greater effect (not shown). DHT 10⁻⁶ M was additive to the effect

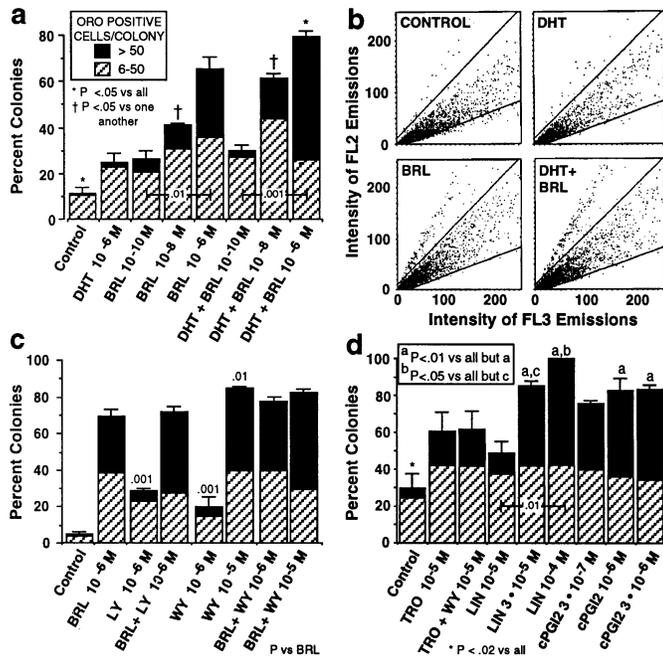


Figure 1. Differentiation of preputial sebocytes in primary culture after various treatments administered in triplicate in serum free medium from day 3 to day 9. Mean \pm SEM of lipid-forming colonies are shown. ORO, Oil Red O. (a) Response to DHT and/or BRL ($n = 5$). DHT 10^{-6} M has a small but significant effect ($p < 0.05$). BRL has a dose-response effect over a broad range commencing at 10^{-10} M ($p < 0.01$ versus control, with 10^{-8} M BRL differing from the higher and lower doses at the p level shown). DHT is additive in its effect with BRL $\geq 10^{-8}$ M, and the effect of DHT + BRL 10^{-6} M is the greatest of all. * $p < 0.05$ versus other treatments. (b) Quantitation of neutral lipid in cultured preputial cells by fluorescence-activated flow cytometry. Results of a representative experiment are shown in which cultured preputial cells were dispersed, incubated with Nile Red, and fluorescence emission was evaluated for the yellow-gold band characteristic of neutral lipids (FL2) and for the red band characteristic of amphipathic lipids (FL3). The neutral lipid fluorescence of cells seen above the upper gate averaged 0.26%, 0.36%, 1.8%, and 2.5% of cells for control, DHT, BRL, and DHT plus BRL treatments, respectively, each 10^{-6} M. (c) Response to WY or LY, at maximally tolerated doses, with or without BRL ($n = 5$). Both WY and LY stimulate sebum formation, but are less potent than BRL. Nevertheless, WY 10^{-5} M stimulates lipid-forming colonies slightly but significantly more than BRL 10^{-6} M. Neither WY nor LY is additive with BRL (or DHT, not shown). (d) Effect of PPAR ligand-activators on lipid colony formation ($n = 4$). LIN and carbaprostacyclin (cPGI2) were effective over a relatively narrow range of doses; cPGI2 had minimal effect at 10^{-7} M (not shown). High doses of LIN and cPGI2 were more effective than maximal activation of PPAR γ and PPAR α by treatment with the combination of troglitazone (TRO) and WY. LIN 10^{-4} M consistently stimulated over 95% of sebocyte colonies to differentiate as lipid-forming colonies.

of BRL. In 26 successive experiments, DHT caused $14.8\% \pm 1.3\%$ of colonies to develop as lipid-forming colonies ($p < 0.01$ versus controls) and DHT plus BRL (each 10^{-6} M) brought about $70.3\% \pm 3.1\%$ lipid-forming colonies ($p < 0.001$ versus BRL alone). Most strikingly, the percentage of highly differentiated colonies (those containing over 50 lipid-positive cells per colony) was $1.7\% \pm 0.5\%$ with DHT alone, $30\% \pm 3.2\%$ with BRL alone, and $54\% \pm 3.3\%$ with DHT + BRL, all significantly different ($p < 0.001$).

The formation of neutral lipids by DHT and BRL was also evaluated by fluorescence-activated cell scan of the Nile Red fluorescence spectrum. **Figure 1(b)** shows the results of one of five experiments. Relative to controls, DHT brought about a 1.4 ± 0.1 -fold increase in neutral fats ($p < 0.05$); BRL caused a 7.0 ± 0.3 -fold increase and DHT plus BRL a 9.4 ± 0.3 -fold increase ($p < 0.001$ versus all others).

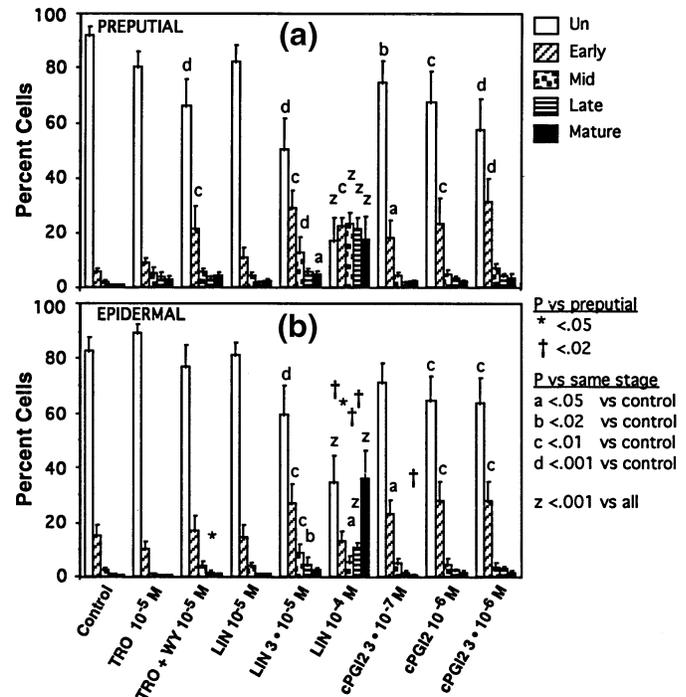


Figure 2. Effect of PPAR ligand-activators on lipid accumulation by cultured epithelial cells. Cells were classified according to the successive stages of sebocyte maturation, from undifferentiated (UN) to mature ($n = 6$). (a) Preputial cells. LIN is the most effective inducer of sebocyte differentiation, inducing formation of a significantly higher percentage of late and mature sebocytes than any other PPAR activator, including carbaprostacyclin (cPGI2). Carbaprostacyclin, which like LIN activates PPAR δ , induced a significant increase in early differentiated sebocytes. This experiment did not have the statistical power to demonstrate the effect of the thiazolidinedione troglitazone that is readily apparent when the results of the initial subset of the same experiments were analyzed in terms of lipid-forming colonies (**Fig 1d**). (b) Epidermal cells. Only LIN and carbaprostacyclin induce lipid droplet formation in epidermal cells like that in sebaceous epithelial cells, but significantly less in some regards, as indicated (*, †).

PPAR α activators induce sebocyte differentiation If thiazolidinediones induce sebocyte differentiation via a PPAR-mediated pathway, one might expect other PPAR activators to be effective. Furthermore, the pharmacologic profile would be expected to be informative of the PPAR subtypes specifically involved in sebocyte differentiation. Therefore, we compared BRL to WY, a PPAR α ligand. WY 10^{-6} M stimulated $19.8\% \pm 5.1\%$ lipid-forming colonies, and WY 10^{-5} M stimulated significantly more ($83\% \pm 1.1\%$) (**Fig 1c**). WY 10^{-4} M had a toxic effect. We also tested a maximally tolerated dose of LY, an activator of both PPAR α and PPAR γ . **Fig 1(c)** shows that 10^{-6} M LY stimulated lipogenesis ($28.3\% \pm 1.3\%$ lipid-forming colonies, $p < 0.01$ versus control). Neither thiazolidinediones nor DHT (not shown) had an additive effect with WY or LY on lipid-forming colonies; however, differential counts showed a tendency of PPAR γ plus PPAR α stimulation to induce more early differentiated sebocytes than PPAR γ stimulation alone: troglitazone plus WY (both 10^{-5} M) induced $22\% \pm 8.6\%$ and troglitazone alone $9.0\% \pm 2.1\%$ ($p < 0.05$) (**Fig 2**), yet the stimulation of early differentiation by WY alone ($17\% \pm 7.0\%$, $p < 0.05$ versus control, not shown) was not significantly different from either of these treatments.

PPAR δ activators induce the most sebocyte differentiation LIN was then tested to activate PPAR δ in addition to PPAR α . LIN yielded a steep dose-response effect on lipid-forming colonies ($p < 0.001$); no effect was discerned at 10^{-6} M, a slight effect occurred at 10^{-5} M, ED 50 was 3×10^{-5} M, and the maximal response was found at 10^{-4} M, at which dose it consistently

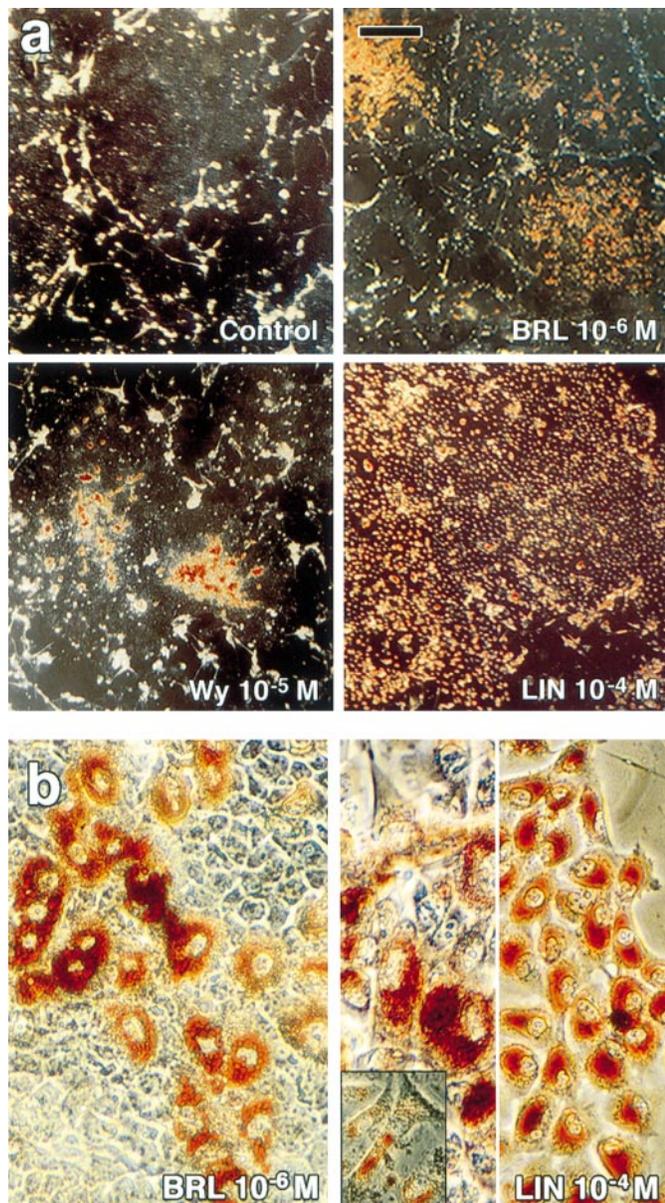


Figure 3. Effect of PPAR activators on preputial cell morphology in monolayer culture. Oil Red O stain. (a) Scanning power view of sebocyte colonies in response to PPAR activators. BRL and WY treatments cause lipids (reddish gold stain) to accumulate in the center of colonies, but LIN causes lipid staining throughout colonies (as does carbaprostacyclin, not shown) and the colony morphology is less compact. Scale bar: 400 μm . (b) High power view of preputial cells after treatment with BRL (left) and LIN (right). BRL treatment (like WY, not shown) leads to lipid accumulation in only a small fraction of sebocytes. In contrast, most sebocytes differentiate upon treatment with LIN, the spectrum ranging from perinuclear lipid droplets in healthy cells to disintegrating mature sebocytes. Only LIN was capable of inducing extensive late differentiation of the cells proliferating at colony edges (right panel). LIN also induced lipid formation in the 3T3-cell feeder layer (inset). Scale bar: 50 μm .

induced over 95% lipid-forming colonies ($n = 9$) (Fig 1d). Carbaprostacyclin, which has a PPAR binding and activity profile similar to LIN, also had a steep dose-response effect ($p < 0.01$): 10^{-7} M had a marginal effect (not shown), ED50 was 2×10^{-7} M (interpolated), and 10^{-6} M yielded a maximal response only slightly less than LIN ($n = 4$) (Fig 1d). LIN was toxic to cells at 10^{-3} M, carbaprostacyclin at 10^{-4} M.

Over 80% of individual preputial cells differentiated in response to LIN 10^{-4} M, 2-fold or more than in response to any other PPAR activator, including carbaprostacyclin or the combination of

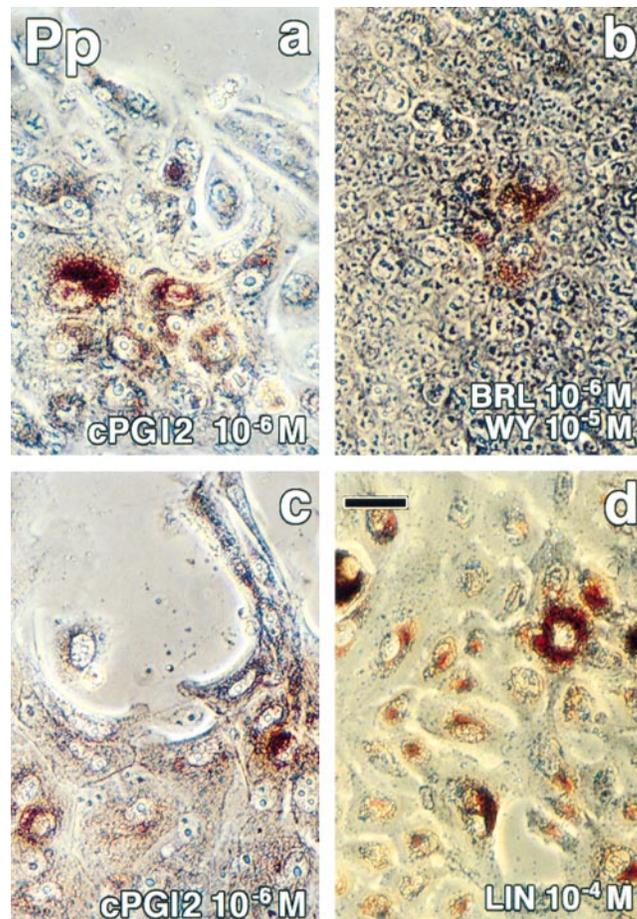


Figure 4. Effect of PPAR activators on the morphology of preputial cells (a) in comparison to epidermal cells (b-d) in monolayer culture. Oil Red O stain. Scale bar: 50 μm . (a, b) High power view of cultured preputial cells (Pp) (a) after treatment with carbaprostacyclin (cPGI2) 10^{-6} M and epidermal cells after treatment with BRL + WY (b). Note that cPGI2 causes lipid droplet accumulation in many cells out to the edge of colonies in both cell types, a property shared by LIN (Fig 3b). On BRL plus WY, however, only an occasional epidermal cell contains an amorphous accumulation of lipid, as shown here. (c, d) High power view of cultured epidermal cells after treatment with cPGI2 (c) or LIN (d). Both stimulate widespread lipid droplet accumulation in cultured epidermal cells, in contrast to the lack of an effect of BRL plus WY (b).

WY with BRL (not shown) or troglitazone ($p < 0.001$) (Fig 2). Fully mature cells averaged $17\% \pm 8.5\%$ of the total, and late differentiated cells averaged $21\% \pm 4.1\%$ on this dose of LIN. Mid-differentiation of sebocytes increased significantly in response to LIN, commencing at 3×10^{-5} M. Carbaprostacyclin was less effective than LIN, but it was more effective at 3×10^{-6} M in stimulating early sebocyte differentiation than troglitazone or WY 10^{-5} M ($p < 0.05$). No interaction of LIN or carbaprostacyclin with DHT, BRL, or WY was seen at maximal doses (not shown).

BRL and WY caused advanced differentiation only in the central zone of colonies where the older cells reside (Fig 3a); however, LIN (Fig 3b) and carbaprostacyclin (Fig 4a) caused a high degree of differentiation of cells throughout colonies, including the outer zone of colonies where immature cells proliferate. Only LIN caused a loss of intercellular cohesiveness that led to a loosening of colony morphology (Fig 3a).

PPAR activation specificity for sebaceous epithelium The fused lipid droplet formation characteristic of sebocyte mid-differentiation was rarely discerned upon treatment of epidermal cells with the PPAR γ or PPAR α activators BRL, troglitazone, WY, LY, or

| | | |
|-------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| mPPARgamma2 | CCCAATGGT ATTACAGCAA ATCTCTGTTT TATGCTGTTA TGGGTGAAC TCTGGGAGAT TCTCCTGTTG ACCCA | 75 |
| rPPARgamma2 | ----- TA TGGGTGAAC TCTGGGAGAT TCTCCTGTTG ACCCA | 37 |
| mPPARgamma2 | GAGCATGGTG CCTTCGCTGA TGCACCTGCT ATGAGCACTT CACAAGAAAT TACCATGGTT GACACAGAGA TGCCA | 150 |
| rPPARgamma2 | GAGCATGGTG CCTTCGCTGA TGCACCTGCT ATGAGCACTT CACAAGAAAT TACCATGGTT GACACAGAGA TGCCA | 112 |
| mPPARgamma2 | TTCTGGCCCA CCAACTTCGG AATCAGCTCT GTGGACCTCT CTTGATGGA TGACACTCTC CATTCTTTT GACAT | 224 |
| rPPARgamma2 | TTCTGGCCCA CCAACTTCGG AATCAGCTCT GTGGACCTCT CTTGATGGA TGACACTCTC CATTCTTTT GACAT | 187 |
| mPPARgamma2 | CATCCCTTT ACCAC GTTG ATTCTCCA CATTCTGCT CCACACTATG AAGACATGCC ATTACARAAGA GCTG | 298 |
| rPPARgamma2 | AATCCCTTT ACCAC GTTG ATTCTCCA CATTCTGCT CCACACTATG AAGACATGCC ATTACARAAGA GCTG | 260 |
| mPPARgamma2 | ACCCAATGGT TGCTGATAC AAATATGACC TGAAGTCCA AGAATACCAA AGTGCATCA AAGTAGAACC TGCAAT | 373 |
| rPPARgamma2 | ACCCAATGGT TGCTGAT----- | 277 |

Figure 5. Homology between rat and mouse PPAR γ in the A/B domain.

There is 95% homology (boxed) between the mouse and rat cDNAs in this area of DNA. The start codon for $\gamma 2$ is at bp39 and for $\gamma 1$ is at bp129 of the mouse PPAR.

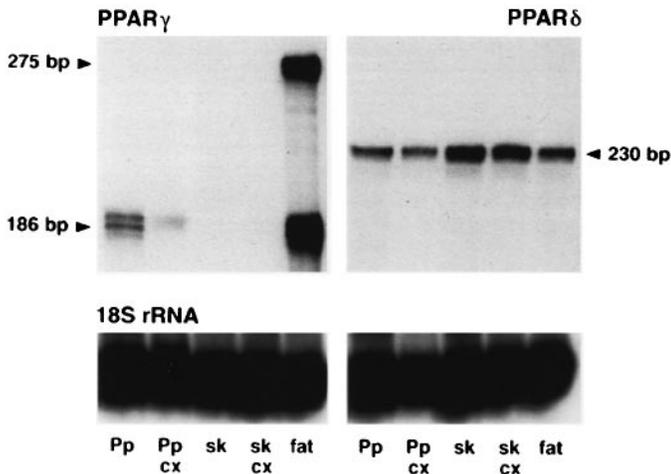


Figure 6. PPAR γ and PPAR δ expression in rat tissues according to RNase protection assay. PPAR γ is expressed in both freshly dispersed and cultured rat preputial sebocytes (Pp). Sebocytes express only the $\gamma 1$ isoform (186 bp), in contrast to fat homogenates in which $\gamma 2$ (275 bp) is also expressed. PPAR γ is not found in dispersed epidermal cells (sk). PPAR δ (230 bp) was expressed in all tissues, and more so in cultured (cx) Pp than PPAR $\gamma 1$, which can only faintly be seen. 18S rRNA used as internal control.

combinations thereof (Figs 2, 4b). LIN and carbaprostacyclin, however, stimulated lipid formation by both types of cells (Figs 2, 4c, d), and LIN was more effective than carbaprostacyclin on each. There was a tendency of epidermal cells to be less responsive than sebocytes to each of these treatments (Fig 2). LIN had the additional effect of inducing lipid droplet formation in the 3T3-J2 cells of the feeder layer (Fig 3b).

Demonstration of PPAR gene expression As the activation of sebocyte lipogenesis by a thiazolidinedione suggested a prime role of PPAR γ , which had not been detectable in sebocytes previously, we sought its expression in sebocytes by RNase protection assay (RPA). PPAR δ gene expression was studied as a control. A 275 bp cDNA fragment for rat PPAR $\gamma 1$ and $\gamma 2$ was prepared using primers homologous to the A/B domain of mouse PPAR γ (Tontonoz *et al*, 1994a). Sequencing of this segment showed 95% homology of rat to mouse PPAR γ (Fig 5).

We then demonstrated PPAR γ and PPAR δ in freshly dispersed sebocytes, using rat PPAR riboprobes. Figure 6 confirms our previous finding of PPAR $\gamma 1$ mRNA expression in the sebaceous gland (Rosenfield *et al*, 1998), and it also shows that sebaceous cells do not express the $\gamma 2$ isoform found in fat cells. PPAR $\gamma 1$ was detectable in cultured sebocytes at a lower level of abundance than in freshly dispersed sebocytes. This study also demonstrated that PPAR δ mRNA was similarly expressed in sebocytes and epidermal cells, whether freshly dispersed or cultured, and was more prominent in cultured sebocytes than is PPAR γ (Fig 6).

DISCUSSION

All PPAR activators reproducibly induced sebocyte lipogenesis at concentrations that have been shown to activate specific PPAR-

reporter gene constructs (Kliwer *et al*, 1994; Yu *et al*, 1995; Forman *et al* 1997). PPAR γ gene expression has not previously been detected in the sebaceous gland (Braissant *et al*, 1996), probably because the methodology was not as sensitive as that used here. Our studies, however, suggest that expression of PPAR $\gamma 1$ is involved in the unique ability of sebocytes to undergo the transition from an early differentiated stage, at which they resemble epidermal cells and form perinuclear lipid droplets, to the mid-differentiated stage at which fused lipid droplets are formed. This concept arises from the following observations. Thiazolidinediones, specific PPAR γ ligands, activated lipogenesis only in sebocytes, and only in the central zone of these colonies where the oldest cells reside. Furthermore, PPAR $\gamma 1$ mRNA was detectable at only a low level in cultured sebocytes, which are predominantly immature (Rosenfield and Deplewski, 1995), but was expressed in abundance in freshly dispersed sebocytes, which are predominantly well-differentiated. In contrast, PPAR $\gamma 1$ gene expression was undetectable in epidermal epithelial cells. The modest *in vitro* differentiative effect of androgen on sebocytes was additive with that of BRL at maximum dose, but not with activators of other PPAR. This suggests that androgen influences an early step in sebocyte differentiation, which is related to but distinct from that influenced by PPAR $\gamma 1$.

Activation of PPAR α by WY led to a similar pattern of lipogenesis in sebocytes as PPAR γ activation, characterized by central zonation. We could not detect a significant additive effect of maximal PPAR γ and PPAR α activation. This is compatible with PPAR α activation amplifying the same early lipid biosynthetic pathways in sebocytes as PPAR γ . PPAR α activator treatment did not induce lipid-forming colonies in epidermal cells; however, PPAR α gene expression has previously been detected in similarly modest amounts in both epidermis and sebaceous glands (Braissant *et al*, 1996). A recent report indicates that the PPAR α activators clofibrate and LIN, but not PPAR γ activators, accelerate the development of the epidermal water barrier in fetal skin explants, and electron microscopy demonstrated an accompanying development of mature lipid lamellar units in the interstitial spaces (Hanley *et al*, 1997). Our studies do not rule out the possibility of such a submicroscopic effect of PPAR α activation on the discrete pathways involved in initiating the biosynthesis of lamellar lipids in adult rat epidermal cells.

PPAR δ appears to be important in the late stages of sebocyte maturation. This contrasts to the lack of an effect of PPAR δ activation on fat cell differentiation (Brun *et al*, 1996), which has led to the physiologic relevance of PPAR δ being questioned. Carbaprostacyclin, a ligand-activator of both PPAR δ and PPAR α , was not only more potent than the PPAR α activator WY and the PPAR γ -activating thiazolidinediones, alone or together, but it brought a significantly higher proportion of sebocytes to the late differentiated phase. Carbaprostacyclin and LIN, which has a similar PPAR activation profile, also brought about a distinctly different pattern of lipogenesis in sebocyte colonies than the selective PPAR α and PPAR γ activators. They induced lipogenesis promiscuously, throughout colonies, even at the periphery of colonies where the youngest cells are proliferating. Thus, one can deduce that PPAR δ mediates this effect. In addition, this zonation pattern suggests that PPAR δ is expressed earlier in sebocyte differentiation than the

other PPAR subtypes. Consistent with this conclusion, PPAR δ mRNA appears to be constitutively expressed, as it was found in similar amounts in both freshly dispersed and cultured sebocytes and epidermal cells, unlike PPAR γ .

Our data also suggest that fatty acid effects are to some extent PPAR independent. Although LIN was inactive at the micromolar concentration at which BRL and carbaprostacyclin were maximally effective, 100 μ M LIN was the most effective treatment for the induction of sebocyte differentiation. This LIN concentration appears to be within the physiologic range for fatty acids in the sebaceous gland (Wheatley, 1986) and brought about more complete sebocyte differentiation than any other PPAR activator and more than reported to spontaneously occur in a human sebocyte secondary cell culture system (Zouboulis *et al*, 1994). LIN also was unique in its property of inducing a loss of intercellular cohesiveness, a change that seems to indicate the development of apoptosis, which occurs at the most mature stage of sebocyte maturation (Tamada *et al*, 1994). The different effects of LIN and carbaprostacyclin, both ligand-activators of PPAR δ and PPAR α , suggest a distinct role of LIN or a LIN metabolite in the final, mature stage of sebocyte terminal differentiation at which these cells burst and extrude lipid. LIN differs from other PPAR activators in being an essential fatty acid, necessary for the synthesis of ω -6 long chain fatty acids and a component of more complex sebum lipids.

Lipid droplet formation by epidermal cells in response to carbaprostacyclin and LIN was initially unexpected, because PPAR α activation did not induce lipid-forming colonies and because PPAR δ had not previously been detected in skin (Braissant *et al*, 1996). Our study, however, indicates considerable expression of PPAR δ mRNA in skin keratinocytes. Although the unnatural accumulation of lipid droplets in cultured epidermal cells in response to LIN would seem explicable by the unphysiologic nature of the high concentration of free fatty acid in the milieu of these cells, these findings may be relevant to known effects of LIN on epidermal differentiation. LIN is required for formation of the epidermal water barrier (Swarzendruber *et al*, 1989; Schurer and Elias, 1991), discussed above. In addition, the high concentration of fatty acids in sebum have been proposed to play a part in evoking hyperkeratosis of the follicular duct epithelium (Kligman *et al* 1970).

These findings have implications for the therapy of acne vulgaris, the most common skin disorder of adolescents (Phillips and Dover, 1992). Increased sebum secretion is an important element in the pathogenesis of acne (Kligman, 1974; Downing *et al*, 1986). PPAR appear to mediate the accumulation of cytoplasmic fat droplets that characterizes sebocyte differentiation. Our working hypothesis is that PPAR α plays a part in the initial stage of lipogenesis common to sebaceous and epidermal cells; PPAR γ mediates the transition of sebocytes to the mid-differentiated stage at which they form fused lipid droplets, a process augmented by androgen; PPAR δ amplifies the lipogenic process in response to activation by the accumulating fatty acids; and the subsequent high intracellular free fatty acid levels successively activate sebocyte apoptosis and cause reactive changes in the sebaceous ducts and follicles, which contribute to comedogenesis. As PPAR regulate the terminal pathways of lipid biosynthesis that are necessary for these processes, it would seem worthwhile to develop PPAR antagonists to reduce sebum formation. By using a PPAR γ 1 or PPAR δ antagonist, it would theoretically seem possible to interfere selectively with sebum production without invoking the side-effects of currently available treatment modalities, which include suppression of androgen levels, use of antiandrogens, or use of retinoic acid analogs, all of which have major drawbacks that limit their usefulness.

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