

Glucocorticoid treatment is associated with decreased expression of processed AVP but not of proAVP, neurophysin or oxytocin in the human hypothalamus: *Are PC1 and PC2 involved?*

Z.A. Erkut,¹ B.A.Th.F. Gabreëls,² J. Eikelenboom,¹ F.W. van Leeuwen¹ & D.F. Swaab¹

1. Netherlands Institute for Brain Research, Meibergdreef 33 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
2. Academical Medical Center, University of Amsterdam, Department of Internal Medicine, Meibergdreef 9 1105 AZ Amsterdam, The Netherlands.

Correspondence to: Prof. Dr. D.F. Swaab
Professor of Neurobiology, Netherlands Institute for Brain Research,
Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
TEL +31-20 5665500 FAX +31-20 6961006
E-MAIL t.eikelboom@nih.knaw.nl

Submitted: December 20, 2001

Accepted: January 7, 2002

Key words: **vasopressin; glucocorticoids; prohormone convertases (PC1; PC2); human hypothalamus; enzymatic processing; posttranslational; suppression**

Neuroendocrinology Letters 2002; 23:33-44 pii: NEL230102A02 Copyright © Neuroendocrinology Letters 2002

Abstract

OBJECTIVES: We reported earlier that vasopressin (AVP) peptide expression is significantly decreased in the postmortem hypothalamus of glucocorticoid (GC) treated patients, while such a decrease was not observed in AVP prohormone (proAVP) expression. This indicated a GC-induced suppression of AVP synthesis at the posttranslational level. Here, we investigated in detail whether this decreased levels of AVP expression in GC treated patients might be due to the down regulation of the prohormone convertases PC-1 and PC-2, and the molecular chaperone 7B2, as was reported previously in some AVP-related disorders. **MATERIALS & METHODS:** An immunocytochemical study was performed on post-mortem hypothalami of GC exposed patients and controls, in which quantification of proAVP, AVP, neurophysin (NP) and oxytocin (OXT) expression were done along with the quantification of PC1, PC2 and 7B2 expression in the paraventricular nucleus, by using a computerized image analysis system. **RESULTS:** Expression of processed AVP in GC exposed patients was significantly decreased ($p=0.021$), while the amount of proAVP expression was unchanged. Despite the strong correlation between AVP and NP (the other cleavage product of proAVP) expression in the GC group ($r=0.917$, $p=0.004$), the mean NP immunoreactivity did not show a significant decrease in this group. Also the OXT expression was similar in both groups. Although in most of the GC treated patients, the expression intensities of PC1 and PC2 were decreased parallel to the decrease in AVP, the mean expression levels of neither of PC1 and PC2, nor of 7B2 were statistically different between the groups ($p=0.20-0.80$). **CONCLUSION:** We conclude that the suppression of AVP expression by GCs is not mediated solely by the down regulation of PC1, PC2 or 7B2. Other mechanisms, which may contribute to the GC-induced posttranslational suppression of AVP, are discussed.

Abbreviations and Units

| | |
|-----|---|
| AVP | Vasopressin (arginine vasopressin) |
| CRH | Corticotropin Releasing Hormone |
| GC | Glucocorticoid |
| NP | Neurophysin |
| NPY | Neuropeptide Y |
| OXT | Oxytocin |
| PC | Prohormone Convertase |
| PVN | Paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus |
| TRH | Thyrotropin Releasing Hormone |

Introduction

The classical mechanism of steroid action takes place at the genomic level, regulating gene transcription [1, 2]. However, some recent studies show that glucocorticoids (GCs) may also have non-genomic effects, regulating posttranscriptional and posttranslational processes [3–7].

The posttranscriptional steps of hormone synthesis are regulated by processing enzymes and numerous regulatory factors. In the last ten years the prohormone convertase (PC) family of processing enzymes has been discovered and studied extensively in mammals. Today, this family consists of furin (SPC1, PACE), PACE4, PC1 (PC3, SPC3), PC2 (SPC2), PC4 (SPC4), PC5 (PC6, SPC6) and PC7 (SPC7, LPC, PC8) [8–11]. In neuroendocrine cells of the hypothalamus, the convertases PC1 and PC2 colocalize with and cleave the precursors of corticotrophin releasing hormone (CRH), vasopressin (AVP), neurophysin (NP), oxytocin (OXT), thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH), neuropeptide Y (NPY) and neurotensin [12–17]. In addition, it has been shown that the neuroendocrine polypeptide 7B2 can act as a molecular chaperone for PC2, preventing premature activation of the proenzyme in the secretory pathway and assisting it during the processing of the prohormones [18–21].

Our group has previously shown that PC1 and PC2 are predominantly expressed in the AVP cells of the paraventricular (PVN) and supraoptic nucleus (SON) of the human hypothalamus. We also reported a PC2- and 7B2-associated processing defect of AVP in the hypothalamus of Wolfram syndrome and some Prader-Willi patients [15, 22, 23]. These studies showed that, along with the significant decrease in processed AVP, both PC2 and 7B2 were also diminished in the hypothalamus of these patients, whereas the amount of AVP precursor (proAVP) was not different from control levels. These results indicated that reduced expression of PC2 and 7B2 could be responsible for reduced processing of proAVP in Wolfram and a group of Prader-Willi Syndrome patients.

In a separate study, we have shown that GC treatment was associated with a significant decrease in the expression levels of processed AVP in the human

hypothalamus, which could be at the posttranscriptional level [24]. In the light of previous studies indicating an association of a defective PC1 and PC2 production with AVP processing disturbance [15, 16, 23], and the recent evidence showing that production of prohormone convertases can be differentially regulated by GCs [13], we reasoned that the suppression of AVP synthesis by GCs can be mediated through the suppression of PC1, PC2 or 7B2 production. In the present study, therefore, we have investigated the expression levels of PC1, PC2 and the molecular chaperone 7B2, in relation to proAVP, the processed AVP, NP and OXT in hypothalamic PVN neurons of GC-treated patients and controls.

Materials and Methods

Post-mortem hypothalami of 17 subjects were studied immunocytochemically (ICC). Eight patients without reported exposure to steroids during the last 3 months formed the control group and 7 patients with GC exposure until death formed the GC group. Mean age, postmortem delay (pmd) and fixation period (fxp) were statistically not different between the two groups. In addition, pmd and fxp of the subjects were found not to influence the results of ICC staining [24]. Two subjects, who were exposed to GCs until 2 weeks and 2 months before death, were evaluated separately. The formalin fixed (4%) and paraffin embedded hypothalami were cut in 6 μ m thick serial sections. The ICC staining protocol was applied to serial sections at 600 μ m intervals through the hypothalamus in order to detect the immunoreactivity for vasopressin precursor (proAVP), processed vasopressin (AVP), neurophysin (NP), oxytocin (OXT), prohormone convertase (PC)-1, PC-2, and its chaperone 7B2. It must be noted that III-D-7 is an highly specific antibody against processed AVP, unlike Truus, which was used in our previous experiments recognizing both processed AVP and proAVP. The clinicopathological data of patients and the information on the antibodies are summarized in table 1 and table 2, respectively.

Following deparaffinization in xylene and rehydration through graded ethanol, the previously described ICC protocol was applied and the staining was revealed by 3, 3'-diaminobenzidine (DAB) [15, 24]. DAB-nickel was not used as it might influence the immunoreactivity to amount of peptide ratio, which would destruct the optical analysis by the computerized image analysis system (IBAS). In each ICC session, hypothalamic sections from all subjects were immunocytochemically stained for one peptide or protein. Sections from one separate subject was included in each ICC session to serve as a positive control. Following the ICC staining, sections were analyzed by IBAS. On each section, the paraventricular nucleus

Table 1. Clinicopathological data of the subjects

| Patient | sex | age | ctd | pmd | fxp | brw | Diagnosis, clinicopathological information, summary |
|---|-----|--------------|-------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---|
| CONTROLS | | | | | | | |
| 1 (90-901) | m | 30 | 18:00 | 4h50 | 46 | 1325 | Fallot's tetralogy, bacterial endocarditis |
| 2 (87-260) | m | 37 | 09:25 | 36h | 46 | 1510 | Alcohol and benzodiazepine intoxication, cerebral edema |
| 3 (86-403) | f | 53 | 14:00 | 24h | 17 | 1410 | Chronic myeloid leukemia with dura mater metastasis |
| 4 (92-046) | f | 54 | nd | 13h | nd | 1080 | Traffic accident |
| 5 (92-047) | m | 54 | nd | 14h | 31 | 1410 | Bronchogenic carcinoma |
| 6 (90-060) | m | 68 | 15:30 | 7h | 47 | 1365 | Coronary by-pass, myocardial infarction |
| 7 (94-191) | m | 78 | 12:15 | 8h25 | 24 | 1442 | Metastatic prostate carcinoma, renal insufficiency, death due to cardiac arrhythmia |
| 8 (93-019) | m | 78 | 12:10 | 52h50 | 70 | 1340 | Bronchopneumonia, cardiopulmonary insufficiency |
| MEAN | | 56.5 | | 20h10 | 40.1 | 1360.3 | |
| ± SEM | | 6.2 | | 5h55 | 6.7 | 45.2 | |
| CORTICOSTEROID GROUP | | | | | | | |
| 9 (83-173) | f | 46 | 06:10 | 5h50 | 33 | 1360 | Metastatic adrenal carcinoma causing high levels of adrenal steroids (Urine 17-Ketosteroid= 4164 µmol/24h (normal=21-52); 17-OH-corticosteroid= 381 µmol/24h (normal=10-52); Plasma cortisol= 0.69 µmol/L at 10:00 am and 0.77 µmol/L at 3:00 pm (normal=0.14-0.55)). Perioperative corticosteroid supplement |
| 10 (95-026) | m | 62 | 10:15 | 6h35 | 35 | 1350 | Metastatic adenocarcinoma. Prednisone 30 mg/day for last 18 days |
| 11 (93-133) | m | 64 | 06:00 | 8h10 | 30 | 1450 | Chronic myeloid leukemia. Prednisone 60-80 mg/day for last 5 months |
| 12 (95-120) | m | 65 | 01:15 | 4h45 | 28 | 1500 | Basal cell carcinoma, asthma bronchial. Chronic low-dose beclomethason inhalation, and 200 µg/day for last 7 days |
| 13 (93-094) | f | 67 | nd | <17h | 79 | 1340 | Lung carcinoma with metastasis and thrombocytopenia. Prednisone 60 mg/day for last 7 days |
| 14 (93-095) | m | 75 | 12:00 | 53h | 618 | 1280 | Metastatic prostate carcinoma with pneumonia, lung edema and heart failure. Prednisone 30 mg/day last 2 days |
| 15 (92-156) | f | 76 | 09:25 | <8h | 269 | 1225 | Ovarium adenocarcinoma with metastasis. Prednisone minimal 60 mg/day for last 8 days |
| MEAN | | 65.0 | | 14h45 | 156.0 | 1357.9 | |
| ± SEM | | 3.8 | | 6h40 | 221.4 | 35.5 | |
| <i>p</i> = | | 0.488 | | 0.298 | 0.406 | 0.685 | |
| SUBJECTS LATELY EXPOSED TO CORTICOSTEROIDS | | | | | | | |
| 16 (86-354) | f | 33 | nd | 18-41h | 20 | 1035 | Metastatic lung carcinoma. Dexamethasone up to 9 mg/day, mostly 0.5-1.5mg/day for >1 month, gradually stopped 14 days before death |
| 17 (95-132) | f | 72 | 13:50 | 9h10 | 34 | 1075 | Cardiac failure with respirator insufficiency, cachexia, dehydration. Chronic prednisone use of 5 mg/day, doses of 5-30 mg/day last 4 months, stopped 2 months before death |

The variables age, pmd, fxt and brw were tested between the control and corticosteroid exposed group, and the *p* values are given according to the Mann-Whitney U test.

Abbreviations; brw=brain weight in grams; ctd=clock-time of death; f=female; fxp=fixation period in days; m=male; nd=not determined; pmd=postmortem delay of abduction in hours; SEM=standard error of mean.

Table 2. Information on the antibodies.

| Ab code | species | Detects | Reference |
|--------------|----------------|---|-----------|
| VP-III-D-7 | monocl. mouse | processed AVP , binding Phe in position 3 | 48 |
| Boris | polycl. rabbit | predominantly AVP precursor , against human glycoprotein 22-39 | 45 |
| C-term VP-NP | polycl. rabbit | predominantly processed NP , against synthetic human NP 80-91 | 49 |
| A-I-28 | monocl. mouse | OXT , against positions 3 (Ile), 7 (Pro) and 8 (Leu) | 50 |
| PC1 | polycl. rabbit | PC1 , against human PC1 43-628 | 15 |
| PC2 | polycl. rabbit | PC2 , against human PC2 122-637 | 15 |
| MON-102 | monocl. mouse | 7B2 , against human 7B2 128-143 | 51 |

Ab=antibody; AVP=vasopressin, NP=neurophysin, OXT=oxytocin, PC=prohormone convertase

(PVN) was encircled manually as the area of interest, after which the image analysis system measured 1) the number of cell profiles expressing immunoreactivity 2) the total area of immunoreactivity and 3) the mean intensity of immunoreactivity (the average signal in pixels, after subtracting the background signal). For the statistical analysis, the mean intensity of immunoreactivity in whole PVN was used in this study, which is a reliable measure of peptide expression for quantitative comparison [24]. The mean intensity of immunoreactivity for each peptide, which was expressed as arbitrary units, was compared between the groups by Mann-Whitney's non-parametric U test (2-tailed). Correlations between the data were tested by Pearson's test. A value of $p < 0.05$ was considered to be significant.

Results

A good immunocytochemical staining was obtained for all studied peptides and proteins in the PVN and SON of all subjects. Immunoreactivity for OXT was limited to its typical neuronal distribution pattern in central and lateral parts of the PVN, dorsal part of the SON and the accessory neurons [25], whereas the other peptides and proteins studied were distributed throughout the PVN and SON, without obvious compartmentalization. Representative micrographs of the expression of these compounds in adjacent hypothalamic sections are shown in figures 1 and 2.

Immunoreactivity for AVP, confirming our earlier observations, showed a significant 40% decrease in the PVN of GC exposed patients (mean \pm SEM = 0.204 ± 0.013 vs 0.126 ± 0.024 ; $p = 0.021$) while none of the other compounds showed a significant difference between the groups ($p > 0.2$). The mean intensities of the ICC staining for the peptides and proteins studied are summarized in figure 3 and the correlations between the staining intensities of the peptides are summarized in figure 4. Except for the tendency for a correlation between AVP and NP ($r = 0.677$, $p = 0.065$), there were further no significant correlations between the staining intensities of the other compounds were observed in the control group (figure 4). However, a number of significant correlations are observed between the intensities of peptide/protein expressions in the GC exposed patients. In this group, AVP showed a strong correlation with NP ($r = 0.92$, $p = 0.004$), but not with the processing enzymes PC1 and PC2 ($p > 0.2$). ProAVP, on the other hand, showed strong correlations with PC1 and PC2 ($r = 0.84$, $p = 0.017$ and $r = 0.81$, $p = 0.027$, respectively). There were also correlations between PC1 and OXT ($r = 0.90$, $p = 0.006$), and between PC1 and PC2 ($r = 0.85$, $p = 0.016$) in the GC group. No correlation was observed between PC2 and 7B2 in both groups ($p > 0.7$).

The subject who stopped GC treatment two weeks prior to death (patient #16) showed a very strong immunoreactivity for processed AVP and proAVP, due to either a rebound effect after stopping the GC treatment, or a unique effect of dexamethasone. This patient also showed the strongest immunoreactivity for PC1, PC2 and 7B2 when compared to the rest of the subjects studied (figure 1). For patient # 17, who stopped GC treatment 2 months before death, expression intensities of the compounds studied were within the limits of control subjects.

Discussion

The possible suppressive effects of GCs on the expression levels of prohormone convertases PC1 and PC2, and the chaperone 7B2 were investigated in relation to the expression of the neurohypophysial hormones AVP, NP and OXT in the human hypothalamus. The present results, extending our earlier observations [24], showed a strong suppressive effect of GCs on the expression level of processed AVP, whereas the expression of the precursor of AVP (proAVP) was not decreased. The expression intensity of OXT was unaffected by GCs in these patients. Intensity of NP immunoreactivity showed a strong correlation with that of AVP, but the mean intensity of NP expression did not show a significant decrease by GCs as observed for AVP.

Animal studies point to a decrease in circulating AVP upon GC administration, whereas GC deficient states are associated with elevated plasma levels of AVP [26–28]. Also in humans, increase in AVP levels in GC deficient patients, such as patients with Addison's disease, and the suppression of AVP upon administration of GC is known for a long time [29–33].

Direct introduction of GC into the supraoptic nucleus was associated with diminished urinary AVP excretion in monkeys, indicating that GCs have a suppressing effect on AVP release at the hypothalamic level [34]. Besides, AVP immunoreactivity in the PVN and AVP levels in the portal circulation of different rat strains are increased after adrenalectomy, which is reversed by GC replacement [35–38].

It is important to note that while the vasopressinergic activity of parvocellular cells of PVN are regulated by GCs, the magnocellular neurons do not respond to GCs in rats [39]. Also there is no report on downregulation of magnocellular AVP cells of SON in experimental animals. In humans, however, there is no compartmentalization of parvo- and magnocellular neurons in the hypothalamic PVN. It is, therefore, impossible to differentially study the effects of GCs on these two types of vasopressinergic neurons of PVN in humans. However, as it is clear from figure 1, there is no selective preservation of

the vasopressinergic activity of magnocellular cells, and both parvocellular and magnocellular cells show similar expression intensities for AVP in GC treated patients. Also, as reported in our previous study [24], the neurons of the supraoptic nucleus (SON), which are dominantly magnocellular, were also suppressed by GCs. This indicates that there is a species difference in response of magnocellular AVP cells to GCs. Nevertheless, it is reported not only for humans, but also for experimental animals, that the peripheral AVP levels are diminished by GCs, supporting our observation that the magnocellular cells of PVN and the SON are also subject to suppression by GCs.

Despite the clear demonstrations of a suppressed AVP peptide production in the hypothalamus by GCs, there is a lack of enough evidence to show that this suppression of AVP occurs solely through direct actions of GCs on AVP gene transcription. Most of the studies are restricted to demonstration of that GCs can suppress the elevated AVP mRNA and hnRNA levels only back to the basal levels [37–43]. However, none of these studies provide evidence for a down regulation of basal AVP transcription by GCs. We could not study the effects of GCs on the mRNA levels of AVP, because a quantitative analysis of AVP mRNA was not possible on the patient group of the current study, as the variance in fixation period and storage times were too large for an reliable in-situ hybridization study [44]. The effects of GCs on AVP transcription are, therefore, subject to future studies.

In the current study, the mean expression level of proAVP was the same in control and GC groups, whereas there was some 40% decrease in the processed AVP expression after GC treatment ($p=0.021$). The antibody used against processed AVP in this study is highly specific, and gives a better estimation for the levels of processed AVP than was reported previously by using a less specific antibody (Truus). NP, the other neuropeptide cleaved from proAVP, also showed a 15% decrease, although not significantly different from control values. The most logical explanation for this discrepancy between expression levels of AVP and NP in the hypothalamic neurons after GC treatment is the fact that antibody for NP (C-terminal NP), although recognizing predominantly the processed NP, binds also to the NP-precursor. There is possibly a differential processing of proAVP to produce AVP and NP, as shown previously in some Prader-Willi patients [22]. The high correlation between intensities of AVP and NP immunoreactivities, on the other hand, ($r=0.917$, $p=0.004$ in GC group and $r=0.677$, $p=0.065$ in the control group; figure 4), strongly indicates that the major source of NP in the PVN is proAVP.

Posttranslational processing of prohormones is a long and complicated chain of modifications, includ-

ing glycosylation, phosphorylation, sulphation, endoproteolytic cleavage, exoproteolytic cleavage, acetylation and amidation, which are essential for functional maturation. In different systems and tissues, the production of many biological products are suppressed by steroids during posttranslational processing [4, 7, 46]. It is not known, however, which of the posttranslational modification steps are affected by GCs to cause this suppression. Suppression of production or functioning of prohormone convertases is a possible mechanism for posttranslational suppression of neuropeptides and hormones by GCs. Our group has shown that some human diseases that are accompanied by defective AVP production, such as Wolfram's syndrome and Prader-Willi syndrome, are associated with a defective expression of the processing enzyme PC2 in the hypothalamus. An association between changes in the processing enzyme production and the suppression of AVP production by GCs can be expected on the basis of the results of Dong *et al* [13], who reported a suppression of PC1 mRNA by GC. However, in the present study no evidence was obtained for a significant GC induced suppression of PC1, PC2 or 7B2 levels, which leads us to alternative explanations for the observed posttranslational suppression of AVP production;

1. In order to be functional, the processing enzymes themselves have also to be processed into active forms from their precursors. At present, we do not know whether the antibodies to PC1, PC2 and 7B2 recognize only the active forms or the precursors of these peptides or both forms. It is possible that GCs suppress the maturation of the processing enzymes into the active forms, and therefore the expression levels detected in our study may not reflect their functionality.
2. Coates and Birch [16] showed that different isoforms of prohormone convertase PC1 are responsible for processing of proAVP into active hormones, and different production rates of AVP can be achieved by altering the activity of PC1 isoforms within the same tissue. Should some of these isoforms be GC sensitive, this would result in a fine tuning of hormone synthesis without a change in the transcription. However, antibodies to detect specifically the different isoforms of PCs on paraffin embedded postmortem human tissue are not available, and therefore we can not conclude on the basis of the present ICC study whether one or more isoforms of the processing enzymes are differentially affected by GC.
3. The complex processing of proAVP into its end-products involves a balanced co-action of several proenzyme convertases and other factors. Other processing enzymes can be taking place in the pro-

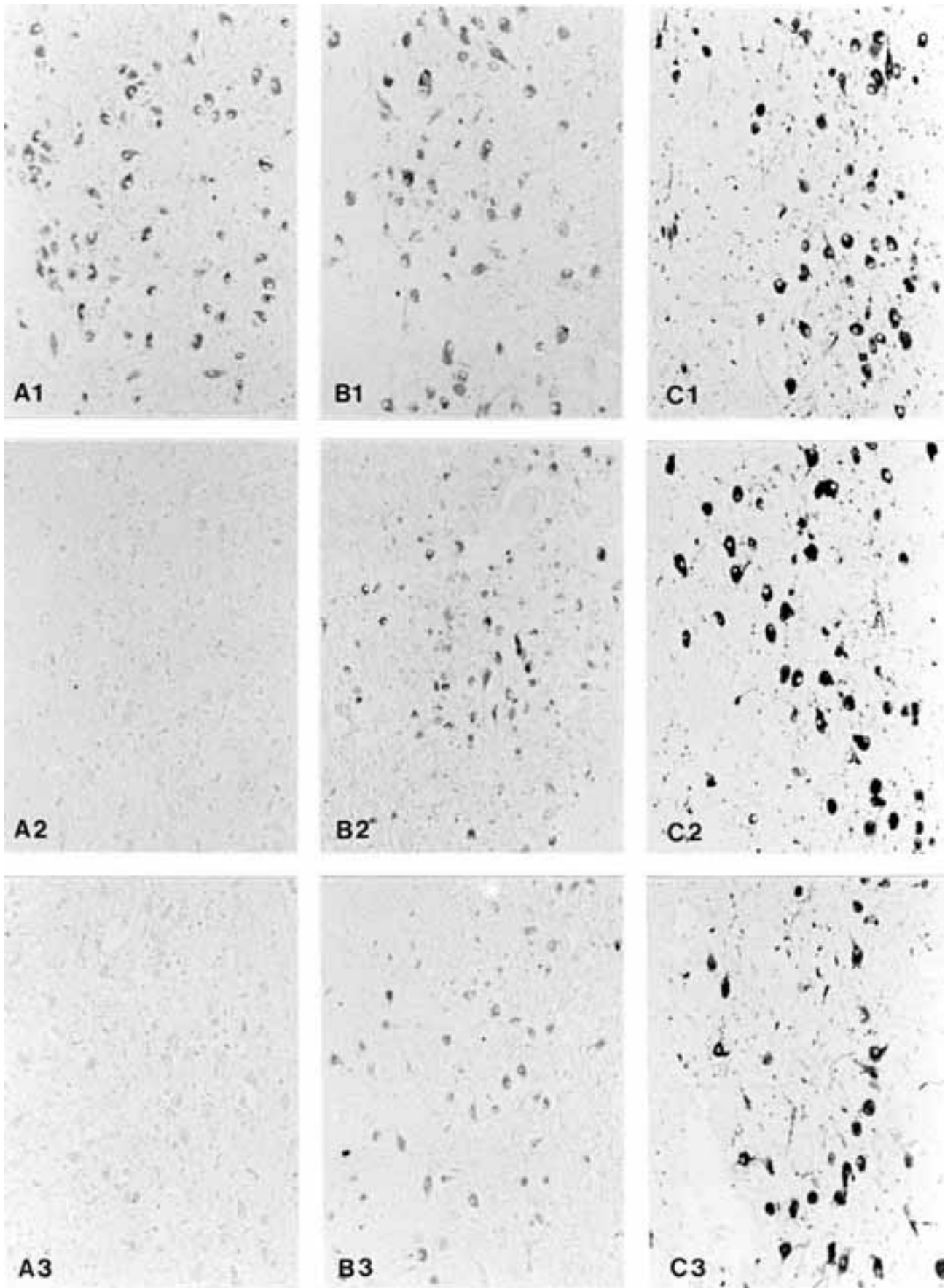
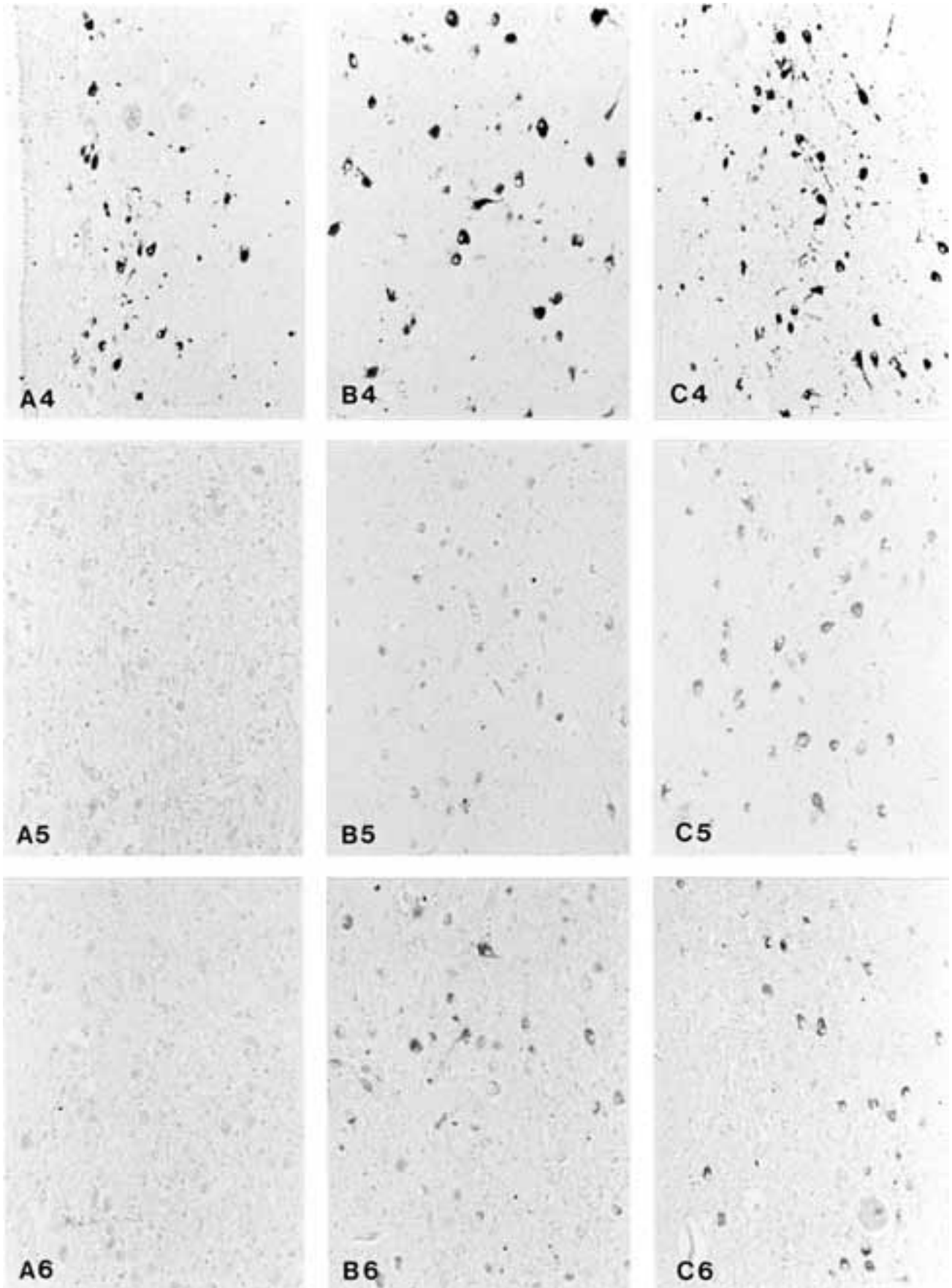


Figure 1. Serial sections from the PVN of 2 representative subjects, # 93–94 (column A) from GC treated group and # 92–47 (column B) from control group. The third column (C) shows sections from subject # 86–354, who shows the strongest immunoreactivity for all of the compounds studied. Horizontally, immunoreactivity for proAVP (row 1), AVP (row 2), NP (row 3), OXT (row 4), PC1 (row 4) and PC2 (row 5) are presented. Note that NP, as well as PC1 and PC2 show faint immunocytochemical staining parallel to the decreased AVP



immunoreactivity in GC treated patient, although the mean expression levels are not significantly different from those in the control group. Also note that strong immunocytochemical expression of proAVP and processed AVP associated with strong expression for

PC1 and PC2, and of 7B2 (not in the figure) in patient C. OXT immunoreactivity on the other hand, does not show a difference between the groups. 100 x magnification.

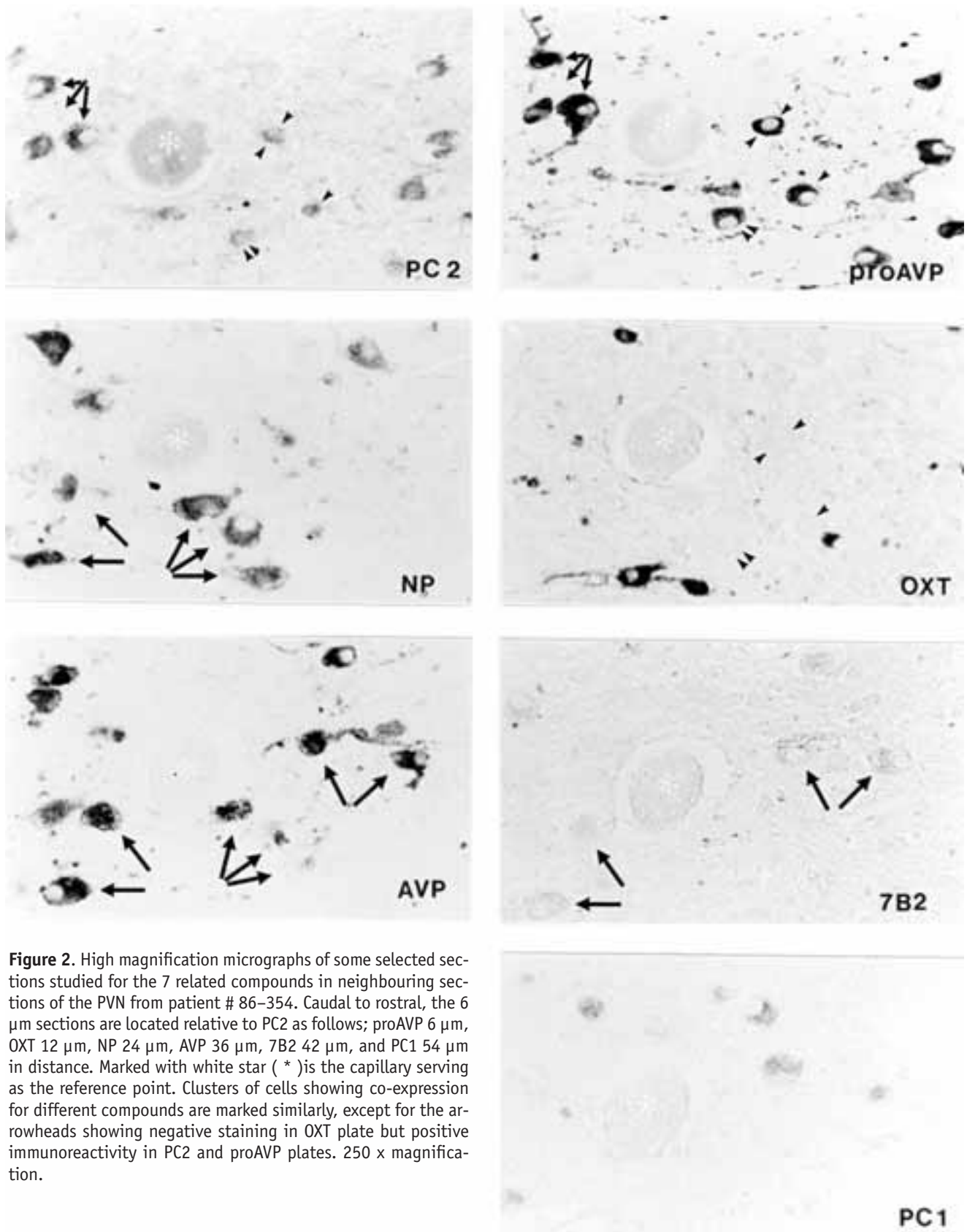


Figure 2. High magnification micrographs of some selected sections studied for the 7 related compounds in neighbouring sections of the PVN from patient # 86–354. Caudal to rostral, the 6 μ m sections are located relative to PC2 as follows; proAVP 6 μ m, OXT 12 μ m, NP 24 μ m, AVP 36 μ m, 7B2 42 μ m, and PC1 54 μ m in distance. Marked with white star (*) is the capillary serving as the reference point. Clusters of cells showing co-expression for different compounds are marked similarly, except for the arrowheads showing negative staining in OXT plate but positive immunoreactivity in PC2 and proAVP plates. 250 x magnification.

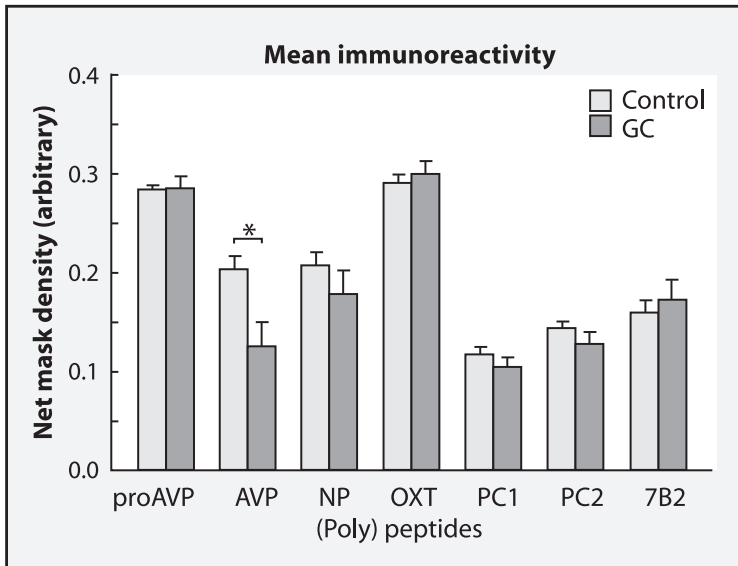


Figure 3. Mean immunocytochemical expression intensities in the PVN for the compounds studied in control and glucocorticoid treated (GC) groups. Only AVP immunostaining showed a significant difference between the groups according to the Mann-Whitney test ($p=0.021$).

duction process of AVP from proAVP. Furin and PC5, for example, were detected in the neurons of PVN and SON of the rat, indicating their role in processing of the neuropeptides produced in these regions. Unfortunately, there are no antibodies available that can be used for a comparative quantitative study on paraffin embedded human brain tissue. There are also other enzymes involved in the posttranslational modification of polypeptides, which can indeed be affected by GCs. Peptidyl-glycine α -amidating monooxygenase (PAM) for example is a posttranslational processing enzyme which catalyzes the formation of biologically active alpha-amidated peptides, including AVP. This enzyme was also shown to be affected by adrenalectomy along with the changes in AVP, returning to basal levels upon GC replacement [47].

Although the expression intensities of PC1 and PC2 showed a similar decrease as observed for processed AVP in GC-treated patients in comparison to that of controls (figure 1), this reduction was not statistically significant. Our groups were not large enough to perform a multiple regression analysis to see whether such small suppressions in PC1 and PC2 levels can altogether be responsible for the 40% reduction in expression of processed AVP. However, there was no significant correlation between AVP and PC1 or PC2 in either group in the current study as analyzed by IBAS, pleading in favor of additional factors other than PC1 and PC2 to play role in the processing of proAVP to AVP. Also, the strong correlation between PC1 and PC2, as well as between proAVP and both PCs in the GC group indicates the presence of other factors regulating proAVP processing of proAVP, and balancing the levels of these peptides and proteins in equilibrium in the synthesis pathways.

It is not clear whether an increase in proAVP transcription leads to an increase in PCs involved in its processing, or the stimulation to produce more AVP affects the production of all components of AVP transcription and posttranslational processing simultaneously. We observed a remark-

ably strong immunoreactivity not only for AVP and proAVP, but also for NP, PC1, PC2, 7B2 and OXT in patient # 16, who had stopped GC treatment 2 weeks prior to death (figures 1 and 2). These high levels of protein expression may be either the effect of dexamethasone or a rebound effect of GC withdrawal. Whether the high PC1 and PC2 levels in this patient are the consequence of increased proAVP levels, altogether leading to the increased AVP production, or an increase in PC1 and PC2 results in an excessive production of AVP, remains to be investigated.

Even though we do not fully understand the mechanism(s) by which GCs affect the post-translational steps of AVP production, it is clear from our present study that the suppression of AVP expression by GC follows a more complex mechanism than the processing disturbance of AVP observed in Prader-Willi and Wolfram syndrome patients [15, 23]. Further studies on the factors and steps affected by GCs in the processing pathway of proAVP and related hormones are needed, to solve the mystery of non-genomic effects of GCs on AVP processing.

Acknowledgments

This study was made possible by the post-mortem material kindly supplied by Netherlands Brain Bank (coordinator Dr. R. Ravid). Thanks to Drs. N.G. Seidah (PC1, PC2), W. v.d. Ven (7B2), W.G. North (Boris), A. Hou-Yu (oxytocin) and M.M. Roberts (NP) for the antibodies that they kindly supplied. The authors thank to B. Fisser, J. J. van Heerikhuijze and H. Stoffels for technical assistance and artwork. Special thanks to Dr. G.J.M. Martens and Dr. I. Huitinga for critical reading of the manuscript. This study was supported by Stichting Vrienden MS Research (The Netherlands) grant 94-188 and TUBITAK (Turkey).

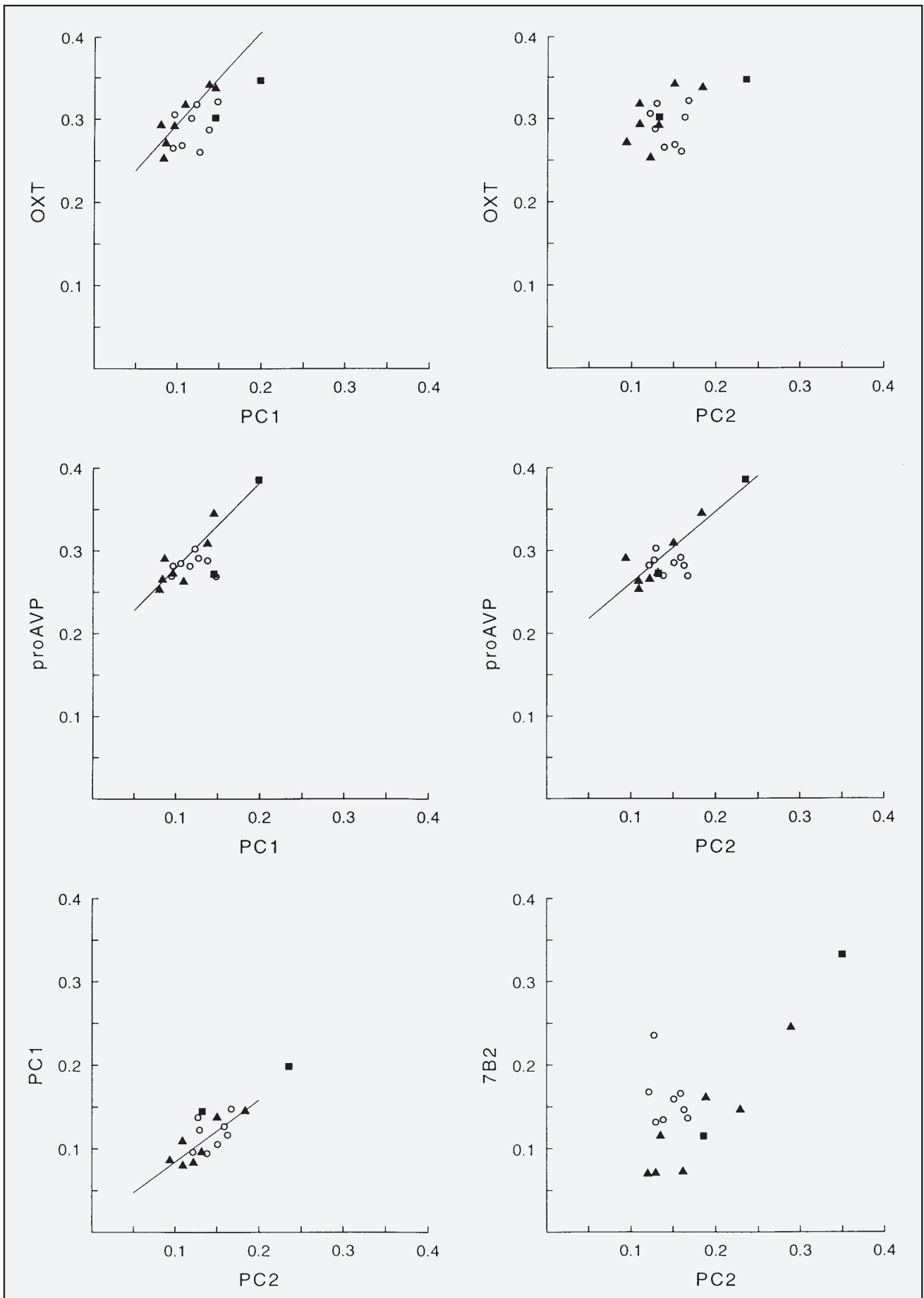
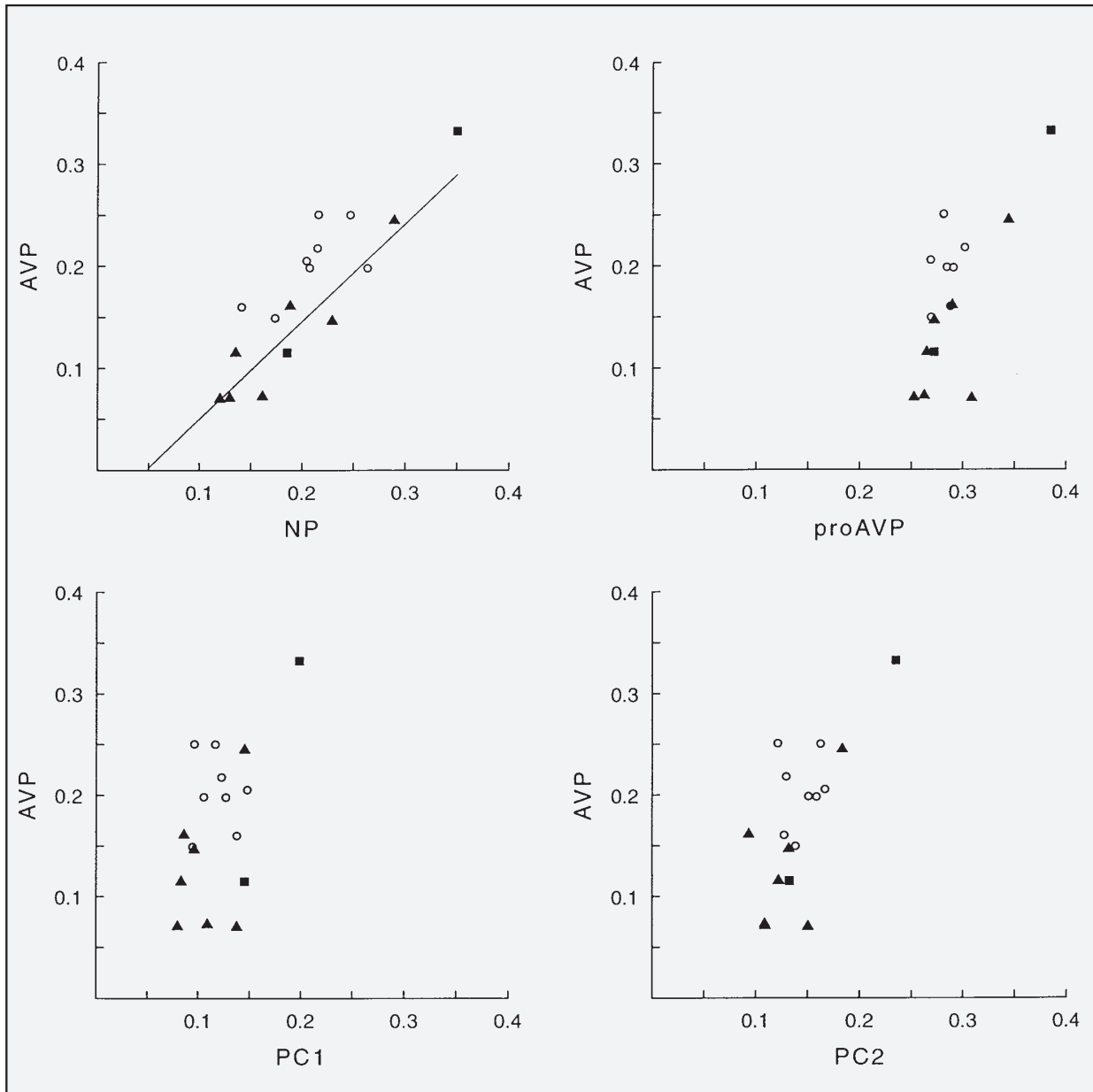


Figure 4. Spotplots showing correlations between the immunocytochemical stainings of the compounds studied. (○) for controls, (▲) for glucocorticoid treated patients (GC), (■) for patients # 16 and 17. The lines represent significant linear correlations for the GC group.



REFERENCES

- 1 Cato ACB, Wade E. Molecular mechanisms of anti-inflammatory actions of glucocorticoids. *BioEssays* 1996; **18**:371–378.
- 2 Hendry LB, Bransome Jr. ED, Mahesh VB. The ligand Insertion hypothesis in the genomic action of steroid hormones. *J Steroid Biochem Molec Biol* 1998; **65**:75–89.
- 3 Goppelt-Struebe. Molecular mechanisms involved in the regulation of prostaglandin biosynthesis by glucocorticoids. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1997; **53**:1389–1395.
- 4 Brank M, Zajc-Kreft K, Kreft S, Komel R, Grubi Z. Biogenesis of acetylcholinesterase is impaired, although its mRNA level remains normal, in the glucocorticoid-treated rat skeletal muscle. *Eur J Biochem* 1998; **251**:374–381.
- 5 Bruhn TO, Huang SS, Vaslet C, Nillni EA. Glucocorticoids modulate the biosynthesis and processing of prothyrotropin releasing hormone (proTRH). *Endocrine* 1998; **9**:143–152.
- 6 Buttgereit F, Wehling M, Burmester GR. A new hypothesis of modular glucocorticoid actions. *Arthritis & Rheumatism* 1998; **41**:761–767.
- 7 Newton R, Seybold J, Kuitert LME, Bergmann M, Barnes PJ. Repression of cyclooxygenase-2 and Prostaglandin E2 release by dexamethasone occurs by transcriptional and post-transcriptional mechanisms involving loss of polyadenylated mRNA. *J Biol Chem* 1998; **273**:32312–32321.
- 8 Rouille Y, Duguay SJ, Lund K, Furuta M, Gong Q, Lipkind G, Oliva Jr. AA, Chan SJ, Steiner DF. Proteolytic processing mechanisms in the biosynthesis of neuroendocrine peptides: the subtilisin-like proprotein convertases. *Front Neuroendocrinol* 1995; **16**:322–361.
- 9 Steiner DF. The proprotein convertases. *Curr Opin Chem Biol* 1998; **2**:31–39.
- 10 Seidah NG, Chrétien M. Proprotein and prohormone convertases of the subtilisin family. Recent developments and future perspectives. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 1992; **3**:133–140.
- 11 Winsky-Sommerer R, Benjannet S, Rovere C, Barbero P, Seidah NG, Epalbaum J, Dournaud P. Regional and cellular localization of the neuroendocrine prohormone convertases PC1 and PC2 in the rat central nervous system. *J Comp Neurol* 2000; **424**:439–460.
- 12 Halban PA, Irminger JC. Sorting and processing of secretory proteins. *Biochem J* 1994; **299**:1–48.
- 13 Dong W, Seidel B, Marcinkiewicz M, Chrétien M, Seidah NG, Day R. Cellular localization of the prohormone convertases in the hypothalamic paraventricular and supraoptic nuclei: selective regulation of PC1 in CRH parvocellular neurons mediated by glucocorticoids. *J Neuroscience* 1997; **17**:563–575.
- 14 Sánchez E, Charli J-L, Morales C, Corkidi G, Seidah NG, Joseph-Bravo P, Uribe RM. Expression of the proprotein convertases

- PC1 and PC2 mRNAs in thyrotropin releasing hormone neurons of the rat paraventricular nucleus of hypothalamus. *Br Res* 1997; **761**:77–86.
- 15 Gabreëls B.A.Th.F. et al, 1998. Attenuation of the polypeptide 7B2, prohormone convertase PC2 and AVP in the hypothalamus of some Prader-Willi syndrome patients: indications for a processing defect. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **83**:591–599.
 - 16 Coates LC, Birch NP. Differential cleavage of provasopressin by the major molecular forms of SPC3. *J Neurochem* 1998; **70**:1670–1678.
 - 17 Seidah NG, Day R, Marcinkiewicz M, Chretien M. Precursor convertases: an evolutionary ancient, cell-specific, combinatorial mechanism yielding diverse bioactive peptides and proteins. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 1998; **839**:9–24.
 - 18 Braks JAM, Martens GJM. The neuroendocrine chaperone 7B2 can enhance in vitro POMC cleavage by prohormone convertase PC2. *FEBS Letters* 1995; **371**:154–158.
 - 19 Zhu X, Lindberg I. 7B2 facilitates the maturation of proPC2 in neuroendocrine cells and is required for the expression of enzymatic activity. *J Cell Biol* 1995; **129**:1641–1650.
 - 20 Jeannotte R, Paquin J, Petit-Turcotte C, Day R. Convertase PC2 and the neuroendocrine polypeptide 7B2 are co-induced and processed during neuronal differentiation of P19 embryonal carcinoma cells. *DNA Cell Biol* 1997; **16**:1175–1187.
 - 21 Westphal CH, Muller L, Zhou A, Zhu X, Bonner-Weir S, Schambelan M, Steiner DF, Lindberg I, Leder P. The neuroendocrine protein 7B2 is required for peptide hormone processing in vivo and provides a novel mechanism for pituitary Cushing's Disease. *Cell* 1999; **96**:689–700.
 - 22 Gabreëls BATHF, Swaab DF, Seidah NG, Van Duijnhoven HLP, Martens GJM, Van Leeuwen FW. Differential expression of the neuroendocrine polypeptide 7B2 in hypothalami of Prader-(Labhart)-Willi syndrome patients. *Brain Res* 1994; **657**:281–293.
 - 23 Gabreëls B.A.Th.F. et al. The AVP precursor is not processed in the hypothalamus of Wolfram syndrome patients with diabetes insipidus: evidence for the involvement of PC2 and 7B2. *J. Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1998; **83**:4026–4033.
 - 24 Erkut ZA, Pool C, Swaab DF. Glucocorticoids suppress corticotropin-releasing hormone and vasopressin expression in human hypothalamic neurons. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1998; **83**:2066–2073.
 - 25 Evans DAP, Burbach JPH, Swaab DF, VanLeeuwen FW. Mutant vasopressin precursors in the human hypothalamus: evidence for neuronal somatic mutations in man. *Neuroscience* 1996; **71**:1025–1030.
 - 26 Boykin J, deTorrenté A, Erickson A, Robertson G, Schrier RW. Role of plasma vasopressin in impaired water excretion of glucocorticoid deficiency. *J Clin Invest* 1978; **62**:738–744.
 - 27 Linas SL., Berl T., Robertson GL., Aisenbrey GA., Schrier RW., Anderson RJ. Role of vasopressin in the impaired water excretion of GC deficiency. *Kidney Int* 1980; **18**:58–67.
 - 28 Papanek PE, Raff H. Physiological increases in cortisol inhibit basal vasopressin release in conscious dogs. *Am J Physiol* 266 (Regulatory Integrative Comp Physiol) 1994; **35**:R1744–R1751.
 - 29 Raisz LG, McNeely WF, Saxon L, Rosenbaum JD. The effects of cortisone and hydrocortisone on water diuresis and renal function in man. *J Clin Invest* 1957; **36**:767–779.
 - 30 Dingman JF, Despointes RH. Adrenal steroid inhibition of vasopressin release from the neurohypophysis of normal subjects and patients with Addison's disease. *J Clin Invest* 1960; **39**:1851–1863.
 - 31 Lindeman RD, vanBuren HC, Raisz LG. Effects of steroids on water diuresis and vasopressin sensitivity. *J Clin Invest* 1961; **40**:152–158.
 - 32 Ahmed ABJ, George BC, Gonzales-Auvert C, Dingman JF. Increased plasma arginine vasopressin in clinical adrenocortical deficiency and its inhibition by glucosteroids. *J Clin Invest* 1967; **46**:111–123.
 - 33 Schrier RW, Bichet DG. Osmotic and nonosmotic control of vasopressin release and the pathogenesis of impaired water excretion in adrenal, thyroid, and edematous disorders. *J Lab Clin Med* 1981; **98**:1–15.
 - 34 Streeten DHP, Souma M, Ross GS, Miller M. Action of cortisol introduced into the supraoptic nucleus, on AVP release and antidiuresis during hypertonic saline infusion in conscious rhesus monkeys. *Acta Endocrinologica* 1981; **98**:195–204.
 - 35 Fink G, Robinson ICAF, Tannahill A. Effects of adrenalectomy and glucocorticoids on the peptides CRF-41, AVP and oxytocin in rat hypophysial portal blood. *J Physiol* 1988; **401**:329–345.
 - 36 Eckland DJA, Todd K, Lightman SL. Immunoreactive vasopressin and oxytocin in hypothalamo-hypophysial portal blood of the Brattleboro and Long-Evans rat: effect of adrenalectomy and dexamethasone. *J Endocrinol* 1988; **117**:27–34.
 - 37 Sawchenko PE. Adrenalectomy-induced enhancement of CRF and vasopressin immunoreactivity in parvocellular neurosecretory neurons: anatomic, peptide, and steroid specificity. *J Neurosci* 1987; **7**:1093–1106.
 - 38 Sawchenko PE. Evidence for a local site of action for glucocorticoids in inhibiting CRF and vasopressin expression in the paraventricular nucleus. *Brain Res* 1987; **403**:213–224.
 - 39 Hu S-B, Tannahill LA, Biswas S, Lightman SL. Release of corticotrophin-releasing factor-41, arginine vasopressin and oxytocin from rat hypothalamic cells in culture: response to activation of intracellular second messengers and to corticosteroids. *J Endocrinol* 1992; **132**:57–65.
 - 40 Hu S-B, Tannahill LA, Lightman SL. Regulation of arginine vasopressin mRNA in rat fetal hypothalamic cell culture. Role of protein kinases and glucocorticoids. *J Mol Endocrinol* 1993; **10**:51–57.
 - 41 Kovács KJ, Földers A, Sawchenko PE. Glucocorticoid negative feedback selectively targets vasopressin transcription in parvocellular neurosecretory neurons. *J Neurosci* 2000; **20**:3843–3852.
 - 42 Albeck DS, Hastings NB, McEwen BS. Effects of adrenalectomy and type I or type II glucocorticoid receptor activation on AVP and CRH mRNA in the rat hypothalamus. *Mol Br Res* 1994; **26**:129–134.
 - 43 Liu X, Wang C-A, Chen Y-Z. Nongenomic effect of glucocorticoid on the release of arginine vasopressin from hypothalamic slices in rats. *Neuroendocrinol* 1995; **62**:628–633.
 - 44 Lucassen PJ, Goudsmit E, Pool CW, Mengod G, Palacios JM, Raadsheer FC, Guldenaar SE, Swaab DF. In-situ hybridization for vasopressin mRNA in the human SON and PVN; quantitative aspects of formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded tissue sections as compared to cryostat sections. *J Neurosci Methods* 1995; **57**:221–230.
 - 45 North WG, Pai S, Friedman A, Yu X, Fay M, Memoli V. Vasopressin gene related products are markers of human breast cancer. *Breast Cancer Res Treatm* 1995; **34**:229–235.
 - 46 Mozo L, Gayo A, Suárez A, Rivas D, Zamorano J, Gutiérrez C. Glucocorticoids inhibit IL-4 and mitogen-induced IL-4R α chain expression by different posttranscriptional mechanisms. *J Allergy Clin Immunol* 1998; **102**:968–976.
 - 47 Grino M, Guillaume V, Boudouresque F, Conte-Devolx B, Maltese JV, Oliver C. Glucocorticoids regulate peptidyl-glycine α -amidating monooxygenase gene expression in rat hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus. *Mol Endocrinol* 1990; **4**:1613–1619.
 - 48 Hou-Yu A, Ehrlich PH, Valiquette G, Engelhardt DL, Sawyer WH, Nilaver G, Zimmerman EA. A monoclonal antibody to vasopressin: preparation, characterization, and application in immunocytochemistry. *J Histochem Cytochem* 1982; **30**:1249–1260.
 - 49 Roberts MM, Robinson AG, Fitzsimmons MD, Grant F, Lee W-S, Hoffman GE. c-Fos expression in vasopressin and oxytocin neurons reveals functional heterogeneity within magnocellular neurons. *Neuroendocrinol* 1993; **57**:388–400.
 - 50 Hou-Yu A, Lamme AT, Zimmerman EA, Silverman A-J. Comparative distribution of vasopressin and oxytocin neurons in the rat brain using a double-label procedure. *Neuroendocrinol* 1986; **44**:235–246.
 - 51 Van Duynhoven HLP, Verschuren MCM, Timmer ADJ, Vissers PMAM, Groeneveld A, Ayoubi TAY, Van den Ouweland AMW, Van de Ven JM. Application of recombinant DNA technology in epitope mapping and targeting. *J Immunol Meth* 1991; **142**:187–198.