

Signaling pathways leading to prostaglandin E₂ production by rat cerebral frontal cortex[☆]

B. Orman^a, S. Reina^a, L. Sterin-Borda^{a,b}, E. Borda^{a,b,*}

^aPharmacology Unit, School of Dentistry, University of Buenos Aires, Argentina

^bArgentine National Research Council (CONICET), Buenos Aires, Argentina

Received 1 July 2005; received in revised form 27 December 2005; accepted 29 January 2006

Abstract

In this paper, we have determined the effect of both muscarinic acetylcholine receptor (mAChR) and exogenous prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) on PGE₂ production and cyclooxygenases (COX) mRNA gene expression on rat cerebral frontal cortex. Carbachol and PGE₂ increase endogenous PGE₂ production and the COX-1 mRNA levels by activation of PLA₂s. The COX-1 and COX-2 activity participated in the production of PGE₂ triggered by exogenous PGE₂. While in carbachol-PGE₂ only COX-1 activity is affected. The specific inhibition of PGE₂ receptor was able to impair the increase of endogenous PGE₂ production triggered by both carbachol and exogenous PGE₂. These results suggest that carbachol-activation mAChR increased PGE₂ production that in turn interacting with its own receptor triggers an additional production of PGE₂. Both mechanisms appear to occur by using PLA₂ signaling system. This data should be able to contribute to understand the involvement of PGE₂ in normal brain function and its participation in neuroinflammatory processes.

© 2006 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) from mammalian tissues play a role in physiological functions such as defense mechanisms and the production of bioactive lipids [1–3]. In the last years, purification and molecular cloning of PLA₂ has allowed the characterization of several enzymes displaying significant differences in both structural and functional properties. There is significant confusion in the field of PLA₂ because many of the identified PLA₂s were not associated with the specific cellular activities and function [4]. There is an older classification system that still remains based on whether

the PLA₂ is secreted from the cell (sPLA₂), calcium-dependent and cytosolic (cPLA₂) or calcium-independent (iPLA₂) [5]. These isoforms have been partially purified and characterized from brain tissue [6,7]. The sPLA₂ isoform require millimolar amounts of calcium for activity and behaves as an acute phase protein whose production is induced in a variety of immunoinflammatory conditions [8,9], although its causal role in these conditions has not been ascertained, and there is no clear evidence about its involvement in the release of arachidonic acid (AA) elicited by agonists. Recent studies have shown the ability of sPLA₂ to promote mitogenesis by acting on a cell surface receptor [10,11]. It is known that sPLA₂ interact with two types of surface receptors, namely the *N* type identified in neurons and the *M* type identified in skeletal muscle [12].

The cPLA₂ isoform require micromolar amounts of calcium for translocation to membrane and plays a central role in the release of AA triggered by neurotransmitters [13,14]. The iPLA₂ are located in both cytosol [15,16] and membrane fractions [17]. It should

[☆]This research has been supported by grants UBACYT (OD 14) from Buenos Aires University, PIP (2532) from CONICET and PICT (8250) from Argentine National Research & Technology Agency, Argentina.

*Corresponding author. Pharmacology Unit, School of Dentistry, University of Buenos Aires, M.T. de Alvear 2142–4° “B”, 1122AAH-Buenos Aires, Argentina. Fax: + 54 11 4963 2767.

E-mail address: enri@farmaco.odon.uba.ar (E. Borda).

be mentioned that cross-talk between sPLA₂ and cPLA₂ has been suggested in signal transduction events in leucocytes and macrophages [18,19] and Kolko et al. [20] observed in neural cells a complex interplay between neurotransmitter-activated cPLA₂ and sPLA₂.

COX-1 is distributed in neurons throughout the brain, but it is most prevalent in forebrain, where prostaglandins (PGs) may be involved in complex integrative functions, such as modulation of the autonomic nervous system [21,22]. COX-2 is the predominant isoform in the brains of neonate pigs [23] and in the spinal cord of the rat [24], while human brain tissues contain equal amounts of mRNA for COX-1 and COX-2 [25].

Carbachol-triggered PLA₂-catalyzed AA release with subsequent increase in cyclooxygenase (COX) activity with increased prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) production has been shown to be coupled to calcium mobilization playing a central role in the release of AA triggered by neurotransmitters [26,27]. This AA can be used by COX enzyme and exert physiological functions on its own. Carbachol is also able to activate selected population of mAChRs, increasing PGE₂ production in cat [28] and rat [29] brain. Previously, we have demonstrated that the muscarinic acetylcholine receptor (mAChR) activation acts on rat cerebral frontal cortex as an early positive regulator of COX-1 mRNA gene expression, closely correlating with phospholipase C activation using common enzymatic pathways associated with the activation of M₃ mAChR [29].

Release of AA in response to mAChR agonist has been reported in astrocytoma cells that possess M₃ mAChR subtypes [30] and in cells transfected with cDNAs that code for human M₁, M₃ and M₅ mAChRs [31]. Although responses to agonist that engage G-protein-coupled receptor show some overlap, there are several distinct responses for each agonist, attributable to efficient coupling of G-protein α subunits to receptors [32] or to triggering of additional signaling pathways [33].

The aim of this work was to determine whether carbachol, mAChR agonist and exogenous PGE₂ are able to induce an increment in PGE₂ production via their own receptors. The participation of phospholipases and cyclooxygenases isoforms signal transduction underlying carbachol and exogenous PGE₂-induced PGE₂ production was studied.

In the present work, we show that the activation of rat cerebral frontal cortex mAChR by carbachol, leads to augmented production of PGE₂ preceded by an activation of PLA₂ and COX-1. This event is associated with the selective activation of PGE₂ receptor that in turn triggers an additional production of PGE₂. Also, exogenous PGE₂ through the activation of its own receptor increased the PGE₂ production employing common signaling pathways that those used by the muscarinic cholinergic agonist.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Rat cerebral frontal cortex preparations

Male Wistar rats (obtained from the Pharmacology Unit, School of Dentistry, University of Buenos Aires) were housed in our colony in small groups and kept in automatically controlled lighting (lights on 08:00–19:00) and uniform temperature (25 °C) conditions. All animals were used at 3–4 months of age and were cared for in accordance with the principles and guidelines of the National Institutes of Health (NIH No. 8023, revised 1978). Efforts were made to minimize animal suffering such as: killing under anesthesia and reducing the number of animals, as well as using the same animal for all enzymatic assays.

2.2. PGE₂ assay

Rat cerebral frontal cortex slices (10 mg) were incubated for 60 min in 0.50 ml of Krebs Ringer bicarbonate (KRB) gassed with 5% CO₂ in oxygen at 37 °C. Carbachol or exogenous PGE₂ were added 30 min before the end of incubation period and blockers 30 min before the addition of different carbachol or exogenous PGE₂ concentrations. Tissues were then homogenized into a 1.5 ml polypropylene microcentrifuge tube. Thereafter, all procedures employed were those indicated in the protocol of Prostaglandin E₂ Biotrak Enzyme Immuno Assay (ELISA) System (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ, USA). The PGE₂ results were expressed as picogram/milligram of tissue wet weight (pg/mg tissue wet wt).

2.3. mRNA isolation and cDNA synthesis

Total RNA was extracted from rat cerebral frontal cortex slices by homogenization using guanidinium isothiocyanate method [34]. A 20 μ l reaction mixture contained 2 ng of mRNA, 20 units of RNase inhibitor, 1 mM dNTP and 50 units of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse transcriptase (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). First strand cDNA was synthesized by incubating rat cerebral frontal cortex in KRB gassed with 5% CO₂ in O₂ pH 7.4 at 37 °C for 60 min. In a selected tube, the reverse transcriptase was omitted to control for amplification from contaminating cDNA or genomic DNA.

2.4. Quantitative PCR

Quantitation of COX isoforms (COX-1, COX-2) mRNA levels was performed by a method that involves simultaneous co-amplification of both the target cDNA and a reference template (MIMIC) with a single set of primers. MIMIC for COX-1 and COX-2 and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH) were

constructed using a PCR MIMIC construction kit (Clontech Laboratories, Palo Alto, CA). Each PCR MIMIC consists of a heterologous DNA fragment with 5' and 3'-end sequences that was recognized by a pair of gene-specific primers. The sizes of PCR MIMIC were distinct from those of the native targets. The sequences of oligonucleotide primer pairs used for construction of MIMIC and amplification of COX isoforms and G3PDH mRNAs are listed in Table 1. Aliquots were taken from pooled first-strand cDNA from the same group and constituted one sample for PCR. A series of 10-fold dilutions of known concentrations of the MIMIC were added to PCR amplification reactions containing the first-strand cDNA. PCR MIMIC amplification was performed in 100 μ l of a solution containing 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.4 μ M primer, dNTPs, 2.5U Taq DNA polymerase and 0.056 μ M Taq Start antibody (Clontech Laboratories). After initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min, the cycle condition was 30 s of denaturation at 94 °C, 35 s of extension at 58 °C and 35 s for enzymatic primer extension at 72 °C for 45 cycles for COX isoforms. The internal control was the mRNA of the housekeeping gene glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH). PCR amplification was performed with initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min followed by 30 cycles of amplification. Each cycle consisted of 35 s at 94 °C, 35 s at 58 °C and 45 s at 72 °C. Samples were incubated for an additional 8 min at 72 °C before completion. PCR products were subjected to electrophoresis on ethidium bromide-stained gels. Band intensity was quantitated by densitometry using NIH Image software. COX mRNA levels were normalized with the levels of G3PDH mRNA present in each sample, which served to check for variations in RNA purification and cDNA synthesis. The relative mRNA expression of COX was compared with those from the respective control group.

2.5. Drugs

Carbachol, atropine, trifluoperazine (TFP) and N^G-monomethyl-L-arginine (L-NMMA) were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company, Saint Louis, MO, USA; U-73122, [1,2,4]oxadiazol[4,3-a]quinoxalin-1 one (ODQ), 4-(4-octadecylphenyl)-4-oxobutenoic acid

(OBAA), arachidonyl trifluoromethyl ketone (AA-COCF₃), 1-[4,5-bis(4-methoxyphenyl)-2thiazolyl]carbonyl-4-methylpiperazine hydrochloride (FR 122047) and 5-bromo-2-(4-fluorophenyl)-3-[4-(methylsulfonyl)phenyl]tiophene (DuP 697) were from Tocris Cookson Inc., Baldwin, MO, USA.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Student's *t*-test for unpaired values was used to determine significance levels. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post hoc test (Dunnett's Method and Student–Newman–Keuls test) were employed when a pairwise multiple comparison procedure was necessary. Differences between means were considered significant if $P < 0.05$.

3. Results

Fig. 1 shows the ability of carbachol to trigger PGE₂ production in a concentration-dependent manner with 1×10^{-7} M proving the maximal response and decreasing thereafter, raising values significantly higher than basal ones. Atropine (1×10^{-7} M) specifically blocked the stimulatory action of carbachol upon PGE₂ production. Histogram of Fig. 1 shows a reduction in carbachol-induced PGE₂ production in the presence of OBAA (5×10^{-6} M) and FR 122047 (5×10^{-8} M). The AACOCF₃ (5×10^{-6} M) attenuated the production of PGE₂ while DuP 697 (5×10^{-8} M) was without effect. The stimulatory effect of carbachol on PGE₂ production was inhibited about 35% and 58% with OBAA at 1×10^{-6} and 2.5×10^{-6} M, respectively; while AACOCF₃ at 1×10^{-6} and 2.5×10^{-6} M inhibited it about 28% and 49%, respectively.

Of particular interest is the result showed in Fig. 2, in which, a reduction in carbachol-induced PGE₂ production was observed in the presence of PGE₂ receptor blocker (SC 19220, 5×10^{-7} M). In order to discern if exogenous PGE₂ is able to trigger endogenous PGE₂ production, dose–response curves of exogenous PGE₂ were constructed in absence or in presence of the specific PGE₂ receptor antagonist.

Fig. 3 shows the ability of exogenous PGE₂ to increase endogenous PGE₂ production in a concentration-dependent manner, with 1×10^{-9} M proving the maximal

Table 1
Oligonucleotides of primers for PCR

| Gene product | Sense | Antisense | Predicted size, bp |
|--------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------|
| COX-1 | 5' TAAGT ACCAG TGCTG GATGG 3' | 5' AGATC GTCGA GAAGA GCATCA 3' | 160 |
| COX-2 | 5' TCCAA TCGCT GTACA AGCAG 3' | 5' TCCCC AAAGA TAGCA TCTGG 3' | 242 |
| G3PDH | 5' ACCAC AGTCCA TGCCAT CAC 3' | 5' TCCAC CACCC TGTTG CTGTA 3' | 452 |

Cyclo-oxygenase 1 (COX-1), cyclo-oxygenase 2 (COX-2) and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (G3PDH).

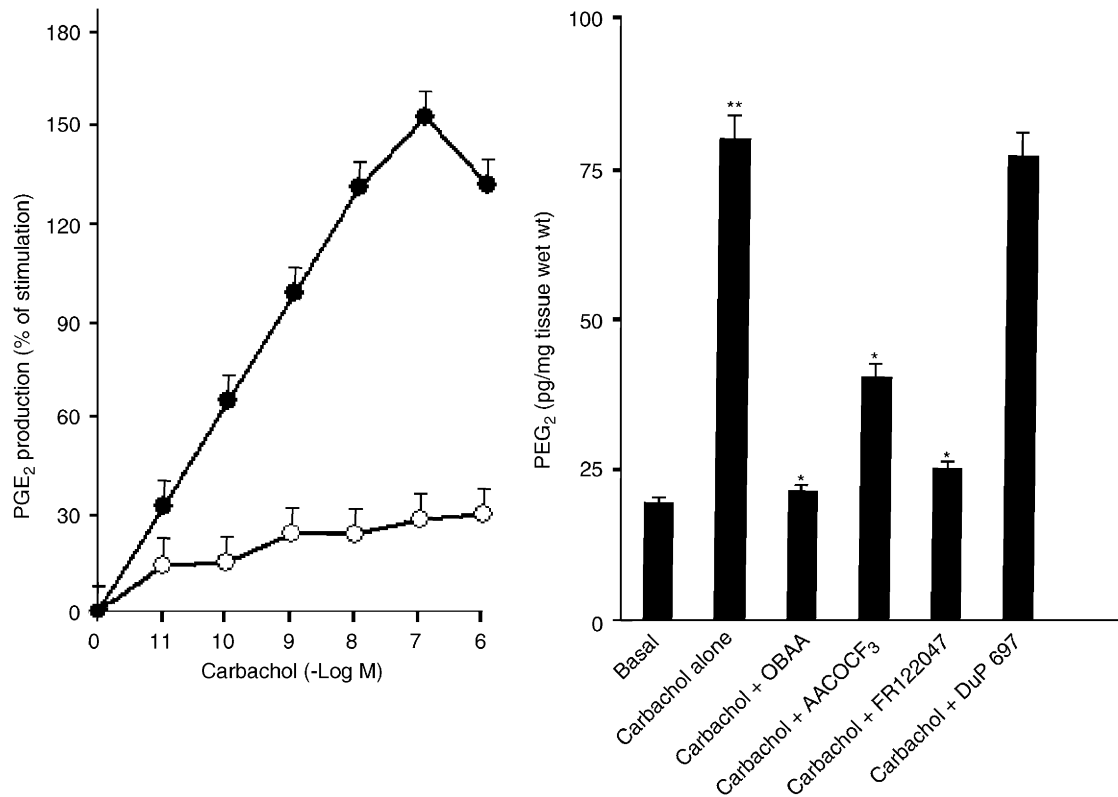


Fig. 1. Concentration–response curves of carbachol in the absence (●) or in the presence of 1×10^{-7} M atropine (○) upon rat cerebral frontal cortex preparations. Results are means \pm s.e. mean of seven experiments performed by duplicate. Histogram shows basal, carbachol alone and carbachol in the presence of phospholipases and cyclooxygenases inhibitors. * Differ significantly from basal with $P < 0.001$. ** Differ significantly from carbachol alone with $P < 0.001$.

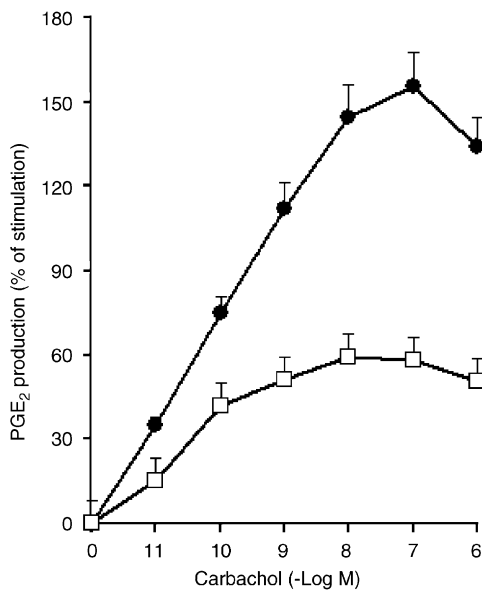


Fig. 2. Concentration–response curves of carbachol in the absence (●) or in the presence of 5×10^{-7} M SC 19220 (□) upon rat cerebral frontal cortex preparations. Results are means \pm s.e. mean of eight experiments performed by duplicate.

response and decrease thereafter. An inhibition in exogenous PGE₂-induced endogenous PGE₂ production was observed in the presence of 5×10^{-7} M SC 19220 (a PGE₂ receptor blocker), indicating the specificity of the reaction. Moreover, histogram of Fig. 3 shows a reduction in PGE₂-induced PGE₂ production in the presence of OBAA and AACOCF₃ at different concentrations.

As can be seen in Table 2, PGE₂-induced PGE₂ production was inhibited by the presence of COX-1 and COX-2 inhibitors. Moreover, to determine whether the activation of enzymatic pathways commonly associated to PGE₂ production is depending on calcium mobilization, the action of calcium blocker agent (verapamil, 5×10^{-6} M) was studied. Table 2 also shows that verapamil inhibited PGE₂-dependent PGE₂ increase production and the ionophore (A 23187, 5×10^{-6} M) mimicked exogenous PGE₂ action.

With the use of specific oligonucleotide primers for COX-1 and COX-2 mRNA gene expression, RT-PCR amplified products showed single clear bands of the predicted size (Fig. 4). Semi-quantitative reversed transcription polymerase chain-reaction analysis demonstrated that stimulation with carbachol (1×10^{-7} M) or

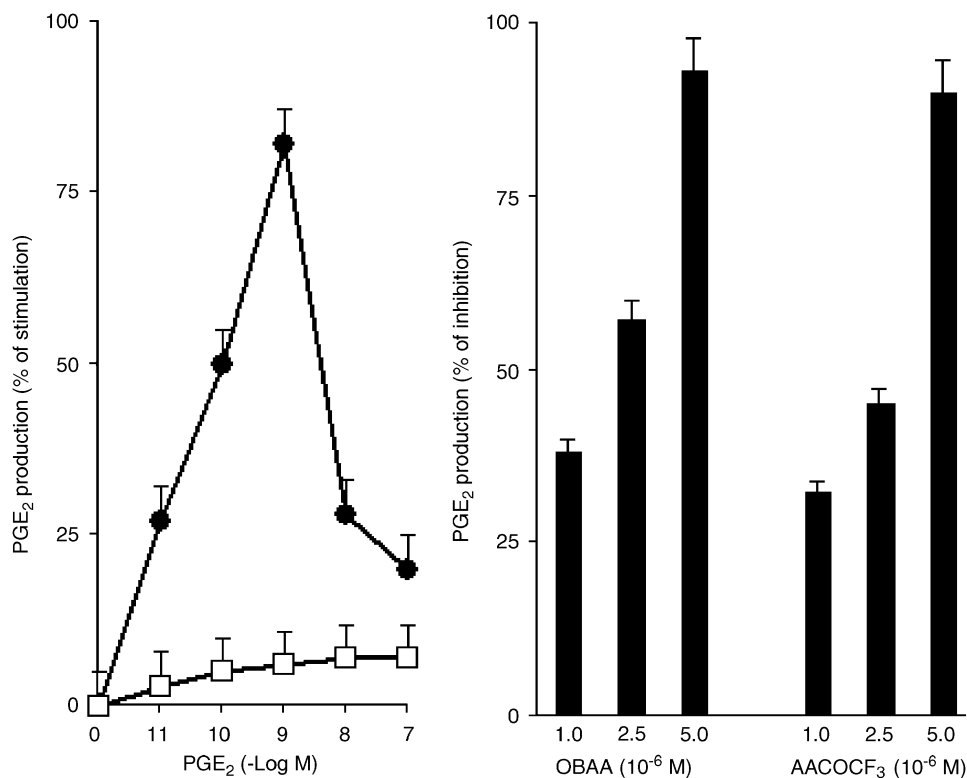


Fig. 3. Concentration–response curves of exogenous PGE₂ in the absence (●) or in the presence of 5×10^{-7} M SC 19220 (□) upon rat cerebral frontal cortex preparations. Results are means \pm s.e. mean of seven experiments performed by duplicate. Histogram shows the percentage (%) of inhibition of PGE₂-induced PGE₂ production by different concentrations of OBAA and AACOCF₃.

Table 2
Influence of different drugs on endogenous PGE₂ production by exogenous PGE₂

| Additions | PGE ₂ production (pg/mg tissue wet wt) | n |
|---|---|---|
| Basal | 20 \pm 1.6 | 7 |
| PGE ₂ (1×10^{-10} M) | 42 \pm 3.8 | 7 |
| PGE ₂ (1×10^{-10} M) + FR 122047 (5×10^{-8} M) | 18 \pm 1.8 | 5 |
| PGE ₂ (1×10^{-10} M) + DuP 697 (5×10^{-8} M) | 21 \pm 1.9 | 5 |
| PGE ₂ (1×10^{-10} M) + Verapamil (5×10^{-6} M) | 25 \pm 1.6 | 4 |
| A 23187 (5×10^{-6} M) | 58 \pm 3.6 | 4 |

Values are the means \pm s.e. mean. n = number of experiments.

exogenous PGE₂ (1×10^{-9} M) triggered increase in COX-1 mRNA levels (Fig. 4 upper and lower panels). A reduction in carbachol or PGE₂-induced elevation of COX-1 mRNA levels was observed in the presence of OBAA (5×10^{-6} M) and AACOCF₃ (5×10^{-6} M).

4. Discussion

In this study, we show that activation of mAChR of rat cerebral frontal cortex preparations triggers in-

creased production of PGE₂ and this is preceded by PLA₂s activation, which in turn catalyzes PLA₂-AA release and induces immediate early COX-1 mRNA gene expression without affecting COX-2 mRNA levels.

Positive PGE₂ regulation by carbachol has been described in different tissues [35–39] including rat cerebral frontal cortex tissues [40]. We observed that such stimulation was due to PLA₂s and COX-1 through mAChR activation; as it was prevented by specific blockade of these enzymes and by cholinergic antagonist agent. Thus, FR 122047 known to selectively inhibit COX-1 [41], OBAA and AACOCF₃ known to selectively inhibit PLA₂s [42], have proven to be effective in preventing carbachol-stimulated PGE₂ production, suggesting that this carbachol action is under control of COX-1 and PLA₂s. The lack of the COX-2 specific inhibitor confirmed this statement. However, the rat frontal cortex expressed constitutively both COX-1 and COX-2 enzymes as shown in this paper and reported by others [21,22]. In most cells, COX-1 mediates physiological responses such as modulation of the autonomic nervous system, whereas COX-2 mainly plays a role in inflammation, infection and cellular proliferation [43]. Such functional dichotomy helps to explain the preferential COX-1-carbachol effect.

Recent advances in molecular and cellular biology of PLA₂ have led to the identification of more than 14

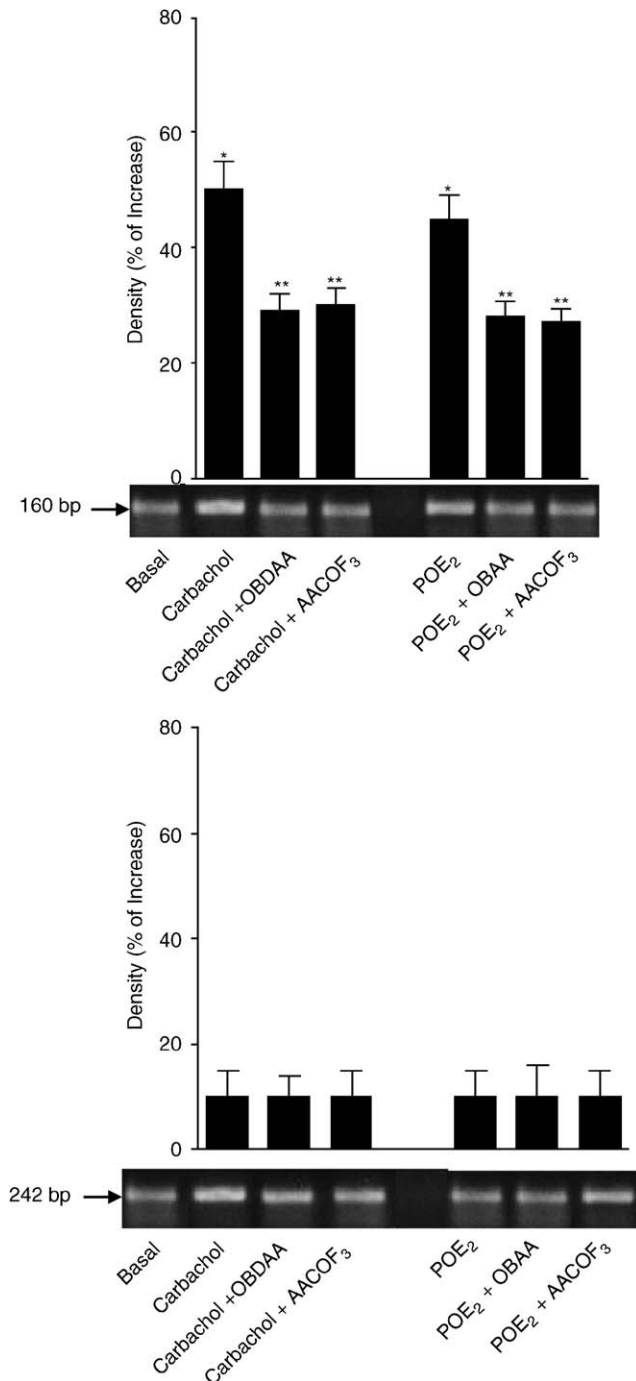


Fig. 4. Effect of carbachol and exogenous PGE₂ on COX-1 mRNA (upper panel) and COX-2 mRNA (lower panel) levels on rat cerebral frontal cortex. Tissue were incubated for 1 h with 1×10^{-9} M carbachol or exogenous PGE₂ in absence or in presence of 5×10^{-6} M OBAA or AACOCF₃. Values are means \pm s.e. mean of five experiments in each group. RT-PCR products obtained from this analysis are shown. * $P < 0.001$ between basal; ** $P < 0.001$ between carbachol or exogenous PGE₂ alone.

isoforms with PLA₂ activity. These isoforms include sPLA₂ and cPLA₂. Both isoforms have been shown to be present in cerebral frontal cortex of rat brain and in astrocytes and have not only neurochemical importance,

but also, are regulatory element in brain tissue function [7,43,44]. In this context, neural cells has shown that neurotransmitter-activated cPLA₂ and sPLA₂ [20]. Moreover, sPLA₂ is released from rat brain synaptosomes or neuronally differentiated PC12 cells upon stimulation via acetylcholine receptor [44].

On the other hand, exogenous PGE₂ itself has a capacity to stimulate endogenous PGE₂ production. Also, PGE₂ acted as an inducer's of early COX-1 mRNA levels. Both effects appear to be preceded by PLA₂s activation as the inhibitors of PLA₂s prevented these effects. The PGE₂ stimuli was able to activate PGE₂ receptor, since a receptor antagonist agent, inhibited the capacity of exogenous PGE₂ to generated endogenous PGE₂.

Carbachol-receptor-triggered PLA₂ catalyzed AA release with COX-1 activation, has been shown to be related to increasing the concentration of intracellular calcium leading to raised cerebral PGE₂ production [21]. As regards calcium mobilization, PGE₂ induces calcium release from intracellular calcium stores, producing an early intracellular calcium peak which is responsible for the sustained plateau of intracellular calcium increase. This seems to be mediated by COX-1, COX-2 and PLA₂s activations as they were blocked by verapamil and mimicked by A23187, an ionophore agent. This mechanism was described for some of the physiological actions of PGE₂ induced by carbachol, i.e. production of platelet-activating factor and AA release in human polymorphonuclear leucocytes [44] and may be required for exogenous PGE₂-release endogenous PGE₂. It is possible that phospholipases and cyclooxygenases activated by PGE₂ with the increase amount of endogenous PGE₂, maintain the chronic state of inflammatory processes.

This pharmacological study describes the involvement of PLA₂s in carbachol and exogenous PGE₂-induced PGE₂ production is the result of their ability to mobilize AA from phospholipids with subsequent activation of COX-1 and COX-2. However, since the enzymatic inhibitory agents used, may be involved in the regulation of other enzymes [1,2,8], the mechanism described here, perhaps quite complex.

In conclusion, this data show the triggering via the PGE₂ of a signal-transduction pathway that includes activation of PLA₂s, COX-1 and COX-2. This work provides the precursors of PGE₂ involved in normal brain function and neuroinflammatory pathophysiological processes. PGE₂ not only acts as inflammatory lipids but also directly modulate neural cell function mAChR activation in rat cerebral frontal cortex.

Acknowledgements

We thank Mrs. Elvita Vannucchi and Fabiana Solari for their outstanding technical assistance.

References

- [1] E.A. Dennis, S.G. Rhee, M.M. Billah, Y.A. Hannun, Role of phospholipase in generating lipid second messengers in signal transduction, *FASEB J.* 5 (1991) 2068–2077.
- [2] R.J. Mayer, L.A. Mashall, New insights on mammalian phospholipase A₂(s); comparison of arachidonoyl-selective and nonselective enzymes, *FASEB J.* 7 (1993) 339–348.
- [3] C.N. Serhan, J.Z. Haeggstrom, C.C. Leslie, Lipid mediator networks in cell signaling: update and impact of cytokines, *FASEB J.* 10 (1996) 1147–1158.
- [4] B.S. Cummings, J. McHowat, R.G. Shanellmann, Phospholipase A₂s in cell injury and death, *J. Pharmacol. Exp. Ther.* 294 (2000) 793–799.
- [5] L. Fuentes, R. Pérez, M.L. Nieto, J. Balsinde, M.A. Balboa, Bromoenol lactone promotes cell death by a mechanism involving phosphatidate phosphohydrolase-1 rather than calcium-independent phospholipase A₂, *J. Biol. Chem.* 278 (2003) 44683–44690.
- [6] H.C. Yang, M. Mosior, B. Ni, E.A. Dennis, Regional distribution, ontogeny, purification and characterization of the calcium-independent phospholipase A₂ from rat brain, *J. Neurochem.* 72 (1999) 1278–1287.
- [7] M.A. Balboa, I. Varela-Nieto, K.K. Lucas, E.A. Dennis, Expression and function of phospholipase A₂ in brain, *FEBS Lett.* 531 (2002) 12–17.
- [8] F. Chilton, Would the real role(s) for secretory PLA₂s please stand up, *J. Clin. Invest.* 97 (1996) 2161–2162.
- [9] C.E. Hack, G.J. Wolbink, C. Schalwijk, H. Speijer, W.T. Hermens, H. van den Bosch, A role for secretory phospholipase A₂ and C-reactive protein in the removal of injured cells, *Immunol. Today* 18 (1997) 111–115.
- [10] H. Arita, K. Hanasaki, T. Hanako, S. Oda, H. Teraoka, K. Matsumoto, Novel proliferative effect of phospholipase A₂ in Swiss 3T3 cells via specific binding site, *J. Biol. Chem.* 266 (1991) 19139–19141.
- [11] G. Lambeau, P. Ancian, J. Barhanin, M. Lazdunski, Cloning and expression of a membrane receptor for secretory phospholipases A₂, *J. Biol. Chem.* 269 (1994) 1575–1578.
- [12] K. Hanasaki, H. Arita, Phospholipase A₂ receptor: a regulator of biological functions of secretory phospholipase A₂, *Prostaglandins Other Lipid Mediat.* 68–69 (2002) 71–82.
- [13] J.D. Clark, L. Lin, R.W. Kriz, C.S. Ramesha, L.A. Sultzman, A.Y. Lin, N. Milona, J.L. Knopf, A novel arachidonic acid-selective cytosolic PLA₂ contains a Ca²⁺-dependent translocation domain with homology to PKC and GAP, *Cell* 65 (1991) 1043–1051.
- [14] J.D. Sharp, D.L. White, X.G. Chiou, T. Goodson, et al., Molecular cloning and expression of human Ca²⁺-sensitive cytosolic phospholipase A₂, *J. Biol. Chem.* 266 (1991) 14850–14853.
- [15] J. Balsinde, E.A. Dennis, Bromoenol lactone inhibits magnesium-dependent phosphatidate phosphohydrolase and blocks triacylglycerol biosynthesis in mouse P388D1 macrophages, *J. Biol. Chem.* 271 (1996) 31937–31941.
- [16] J. McHowat, M.H. Creer, Calcium-independent phospholipase A₂ in isolated rabbit ventricular myocytes, *Lipids* 33 (1998) 1203–1212.
- [17] J. Wijkander, J.T. O'Flaherty, A.B. Nixon, R.L. Wikle, 5-Lipoxygenase products modulate the activity of the 85-kDa phospholipase A₂ in human neutrophils, *J. Biol. Chem.* 270 (1995) 26543–26549.
- [18] J. Balsinde, E.A. Dennis, Distinct roles in signal transduction for each of the phospholipase A₂ enzymes present in P388D1 macrophages, *J. Biol. Chem.* 271 (1996) 6758–6765.
- [19] M. Kolko, M.A. DeCoster, E.B. Rodriguez de Turco, N.G. Bazan, Synergy by secretory phospholipase A₂ and glutamate on inducing cell death and sustained arachidonic acid metabolic changes in primary cortical neuronal cultures, *J. Biol. Chem.* 271 (1996) 32722–32728.
- [20] K. Yamagata, K.I. Andreasson, W.E. Kaufman, C.A. Barnes, P.F. Worley, Expression of a mitogen-inducible cyclooxygenase in brain neurons; regulation by synaptic activity and glucocorticoids, *Neuron* 11 (1993) 371–386.
- [21] C.D. Breder, D. Dewitt, R.P. Kraig, Characterization of inducible cyclooxygenase in rat brain, *J. Comp. Neurol.* 355 (1995) 296–315.
- [22] C.D. Breder, C.B. Saper, Expression of inducible cyclooxygenase mRNA in the mouse brain after systemic administration of bacterial lipopolysaccharide, *Brain Res.* 713 (1996) 64–69.
- [23] F. Beiche, S. Scheuerer, K. Brune, G. Geisslinger, M. Goppelt-Strube, Up-regulation of cyclooxygenase 2 mRNA in the rat spinal cord following peripheral inflammation, *FEBS Lett.* 390 (1996) 165–169.
- [24] G.P. O'Neill, A.W. Fort-Hutchinson, Expression of mRNA for cyclooxygenase 1 and cyclooxygenase 2 in human tissues, *FEBS Lett.* 330 (1993) 156–160.
- [25] T.J. Shuttleworth, J.L. Thompson, Muscarinic receptor activation of arachidonate-mediated Ca²⁺ entry in HEK293 cells is independent of phospholipase C, *J. Biol. Chem.* 273 (1998) 32636–32643.
- [26] Y. Bayon, M. Hernández, A. Alonso, L. Nuñez, J. García Sancho, C. Leslie, M. Sánchez Crespo, M.L. Nieto, Cytosolic phospholipase A₂ is coupled to muscarinic receptors in the human astrocytoma cell line 1321N1: characterization of the transducing mechanism, *Biochem. J.* 323 (1997) 281–287.
- [27] E. Navarro, S.D. Romero, T.L. Yaksh, Release of prostaglandin E₂ from brain of cat: II. *In vivo* studies on the effects of adrenergic, cholinergic, and dopaminergic agonists and antagonists, *Neuropharmacology* 27 (1998) 1067–1072.
- [28] B. Orman, S. Reina, E. Borda, L. Sterin-Borda, Signal transduction underlying carbachol-induced PGE₂ production and COX-1 mRNA expression of rat brain, *Neuropharmacology* 48 (2005) 757–765.
- [29] S.J. Wall, R.P. Yasuda, M. Li, B.B. Wolfe, Development of an antiserum against M₃ muscarinic receptors: distribution of M₃ receptors in rat tissues and clonal cell lines, *Mol. Pharmacol.* 40 (1991) 783–789.
- [30] C.C. Felder, R.Y. Kanterman, A.L. Ma, J. Axelrod, A transfected m1 muscarinic acetylcholine receptor stimulates adenylate cyclase via phosphatidylinositol hydrolysis, *J. Biol. Chem.* 264 (1989) 20356–20362.
- [31] G.R. Post, L.R. Collins, E.D. Kennedy, S.A. Moskowitz, A.M. Aragay, D. Goldstein, J.H. Brown, Coupling of the thrombin receptor to G12 may account for the selective effects of thrombin on gene expression and DNA synthesis in 1321N1 cells, *Mol. Biol. Cell.* 7 (1996) 1679–1690.
- [32] L.R. Collins, W.A. Ricketts, J.M. Olefsky, J.H. Brown, Gz12 coupled thrombin receptor stimulates mitogenesis through the Shc SH2 domain, *Oncogene* 15 (1997) 595–600.
- [33] P. Chomczynski, N. Sacchi, Single step method of RNA isolation by acid guanidium thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction, *Ann. Biochem.* 162 (1987) 156–159.
- [34] C. Yokoyama, T. Takai, T. Tanabe, Primary structure of sheep prostaglandin endoperoxide synthase deduced from cDNA sequence, *FEBS Lett.* 231 (1988) 347–351.
- [35] H.R. Herschman, Prostaglandin synthase 2, *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* 129 (1996) 125–140.
- [36] D. Schlondorff, S. DeCandido, J.A. Sartriano, Angiotensin II stimulates phospholipases C and A₂ in cultured rat mesangial cells, *Am. J. Physiol.* 253 (1997) C113–C120.
- [37] E.A. Martinson, D. Goldstein, J. Heller Brown, Muscarinic receptor activation of phosphatidylcholine hydrolysis. Relationship

- to phosphoinositide hydrolysis and diacylglycerol metabolism, *J. Biol. Chem.* 264 (1989) 14748–14754.
- [38] J.A. Trejo, J. S  ller Brown, c-fos and c-jun are induced by muscarinic receptor activation of protein kinase C but are differentially regulated by intracellular calcium, *J. Biol. Chem.* 266 (1991) 7876–7882.
- [39] J.R. Vane, Y.S. Bakhle, R.M. Botting, Cyclooxygenases 1 and 2, *Annu. Rev. Pharmacol. Toxicol.* 38 (1998) 97–120.
- [40] T. Ochi, T. Goto, Differential effect of FR 122047, a selective cyclooxygenase 1 inhibitor in rat chronic models of arthritis, *Br. J. Pharmacol.* 135 (2002) 782–788.
- [41] J.Y. Houzeau, B. Terlain, A. Abid, E. Nedelec, T. Netter, Cyclooxygenase isoenzymes. How recent findings affect thinking about nonsteroidal anti-inflammatory drugs, *Drugs* 53 (1997) 563–582.
- [42] M.C. Garc  a Rodiguez, M. Montero, J. Alvarez, J. Garc  a Sancho, M. S  nchez Crespo, Dissociation of platelet-activating factor production and arachidonate release by the endomembrane Ca^{2+} -ATPase inhibitor thapsigargin. Evidence for the involvement of a Ca^{2+} -dependent route of priming in the production of lipid mediators by human polymorphonuclear leukocytes, *J. Biol. Chem.* 268 (1993) 24751–24757.
- [43] A.A. Farooqui, L.A. Horrocks, Brain phospholipases A_2 : a perspective on the history, *Prostaglandins Leukot. Essent. Fatty Acids* 71 (2004) 161–169.
- [44] A. Matsuzawa, M. Murakami, G. Atsumi, K. Imai, P. Prados, K. Inoue, I. Kudo, Release of secretory phospholipase A_2 from rat neuronal cells and its possible function in the regulation of catecholamine secretion, *Biochem. J.* 318 (1996) 701–709.