

Wright State University

CORE Scholar

[Browse all Theses and Dissertations](#)

[Theses and Dissertations](#)

2011

Targeted knockdown of AMP-activated protein kinase alpha 1 and alpha 2 catalytic subunits

Larissa J. Tangeman
Wright State University

Follow this and additional works at: https://corescholar.libraries.wright.edu/etd_all



Part of the [Immunology and Infectious Disease Commons](#), and the [Microbiology Commons](#)

Repository Citation

Tangeman, Larissa J., "Targeted knockdown of AMP-activated protein kinase alpha 1 and alpha 2 catalytic subunits" (2011). *Browse all Theses and Dissertations*. 523.
https://corescholar.libraries.wright.edu/etd_all/523

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Theses and Dissertations at CORE Scholar. It has been accepted for inclusion in Browse all Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of CORE Scholar. For more information, please contact library-corescholar@wright.edu.

TARGETED KNOCKDOWN OF AMP-ACTIVATED PROTEIN
KINASE ALPHA 1 AND ALPHA 2
CATALYTIC SUBUNITS

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

By

LARISSA JORDAN TANGEMAN
B.S., Wright State University, 2009

2011
Wright State University

WRIGHT STATE UNIVERSITY

GRADUATE SCHOOL

December 8, 2011

I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED
UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY Larissa Jordan Tangeman
ENTITLED TARGETED KNOCKDOWN OF AMP-ACTIVATED
PROTEIN KINASE ALPHA 1 AND ALPHA 2 CATALYTIC
SUBUNITS BE ACCEPTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF Master of Science

Thomas L. Brown, Ph.D.
Thesis Director

Barbara Hull, Ph.D.
Program Director

Committee on
Final Examination

Thomas L. Brown, Ph.D.

Christopher Wyatt, Ph.D.

Courtney Sulentic, Ph.D.

Andrew Hsu, Ph.D.
Dean, Graduate School

ABSTRACT

Tangeman, Larissa Jordan. M.S., Microbiology and Immunology Program, Wright State University, 2011. Targeted Knockdown of AMP-activated Protein Kinase Alpha 1 and Alpha 2 Catalytic Subunits.

AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) regulates cellular metabolism and promotes ATP production when energy is depleted. Evidence suggests that AMPK may be involved in oxygen sensing by carotid body cells, which are responsible for regulating the breathing rate to maintain proper blood oxygen levels. There are two isoforms of the catalytic α subunit, AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2, which could be involved in oxygen sensing. Here, the production of a short hairpin RNA (shRNA) targeting both catalytic isoforms of AMPK in human, mouse, and rat is described. The shRNA causes significant knockdown of both isoforms of AMPK α in mouse and human cells and a significant reduction in AMPK activity, measured as phosphorylation of a direct target. This shRNA will be used to generate a rat model with tissue-specific knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2 using a Cre-Lox recombination system to determine the role of AMPK in oxygen sensing by the carotid body.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
AMP-activated protein kinase	1
Carotid body	2
Studying AMPK activity	3
RNA interference	3
Cre-Lox system	7
Tissue-specific knockdown	10
Summary	13
II. MATERIALS AND METHODS	16
Cloning and cell culture	16

siRNA and shRNA design.	21
Transfection and infection	22
Western blotting	23
Data analysis	24
III. RESULTS	25
siRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha	25
shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha	30
Knockdown of AMPK alpha in mouse and human cells	35
Functional knockdown of AMPK alpha	40
Expression of TH promoter-driven constructs.	40
Cre recombinase-driven recombination.	45

IV. DISCUSSION	48
AMPK alpha 1 and 2 knockdown	48
Tissue-specific constructs	49
Disrupted U6 promoter	50
Future work	51
V. APPENDIX	54
VI. REFERENCES	55

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1. Diagram of RNAi pathway	5
Figure 2. Diagram of Cre recombinase-mediated recombination	8
Figure 3. Structures of shRNA constructs	11
Figure 4. Structure of virus producing tissue-specific silencing	14
Figure 5. siRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in NIH3T3 cells	28
Figure 6. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in NIH3T3 cells with different loop sequences	33
Figure 7. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in mouse and human cells	36
Figure 8. Transfection efficiency of NIH3T3 and HEK293 cells	38
Figure 9. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha activity in HEK293 cells	41

Figure 10. Expression of TH promoter-driven constructs	43
Figure 11. <i>In vitro</i> recombination of disrupted U6 promoter construct with Cre recombinase	46

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Base plasmids used to create constructs	19
Table 2. Cloned constructs	20
Table 3. Identification of a globally conserved sequence in AMPK alpha 1 and 2	26
Table 4. Identification of a conserved sequence in AMPK alpha 2	27
Table 5. Design of shRNA loop sequences and sequences of shRNA oligos	31
Table 6. Design of global AMPK alpha 1 and 2 shRNA and corresponding control shRNA	32

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge and thank the large number of people without whom this work would not have been possible. First, I would like to thank Dr. Thomas Brown for giving me the opportunity to work in his lab and for his continual assistance and support. This experience shaped my future career goals into what they are today. I would also like to thank my committee, Dr. Brown, Dr. Christopher Wyatt, and Dr. Courtney Sulentic, for their guidance throughout my project.

I would like to thank the members of the Brown Lab for their help and company for the past two years: Chanel Keoni, Renee Albers, Erica Baker, Rebecca Bricker, Deanne Jacobs, Christina Fung, Susan Robinson, Prakash Arumagum, Elizabeth Ludvigson, and Samantha Venkatesh. I would especially like to thank Renee and Erica for their excellent technical assistance and Chanel for helping me get my bearings when I first started. I would also like to thank the members of the Wyatt Lab, especially Dr. Wyatt, Barbara Barr, and Heidi Jordan, and Dr. R. Putnam for helping to create a very friendly and cooperative work environment.

I would like to thank Dr. James Lessard from Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center for his gift of the anti-actin C4 antibody. I would like to thank Dr. C. Sulentic, Dr. C. Wyatt, Dr. T. Bubulya, Dr. M. Leffak, Dr. D. Cool, and Dr. J. Cambronero for allowing me to use their equipment, without which I could not have completed my project. I am very grateful to Dr. Michael Leffak for his cloning advice, which enabled me to complete a cloning step that had plagued me for almost a year.

I would like to thank the Microbiology and Immunology Program for providing me with financial support in the form of a teaching assistantship. This assistantship allowed me to afford graduate school, but it also gave me the opportunity to teach students and to recruit one of those students, Renee, to the Brown lab. I would also like to thank Dr. T. Bubulya and Meredith Rodgers for making my teaching experience enjoyable.

Finally, I would like to thank my family, especially my daughter Gabby, for their love and support, and Gabby would like to thank Dr. Brown for giving her Skittles every time she came to visit the lab.

I. INTRODUCTION

AMP-activated protein kinase

Regulating energy levels is an essential process that occurs in all living organisms. AMPK (5'-adenosine monophosphate-activated protein kinase), also known as protein kinase, AMP-activated (PRKAA), is an enzyme that is conserved from yeast to humans and has important roles in sensing the energy status of the cell to maintain homeostasis [1-5]. AMPK has been linked to numerous disease states, including metabolic disorders and cancer, although its role is still not clear and appears to be context-dependent [6]. Functional AMPK is a heterotrimer that acts to regulate metabolism and is composed of three subunits, the catalytic alpha subunit and the regulatory beta and gamma subunits [3,7]. There are two isoforms of the AMPK alpha subunit, AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2, and each isoform has been shown to have overlapping as well as distinct functions depending on the cell type [3,8-11].

AMPK acts as a metabolic master switch regulating several intracellular systems including glucose uptake and β -oxidation of fatty acids. AMPK inhibits fatty acid synthesis by phosphorylating acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) at Ser79 [12]. The energy-sensing capability of AMPK can be attributed to its ability to detect and react to

fluctuations in the AMP: ATP ratio. Stressors, such as muscle contraction or ischemia, that deplete ATP in the cell result in an elevated AMP: ATP ratio, triggering AMPK activation. AMPK is phosphorylated at Thr172 of the alpha subunit by LKB1, a known tumor suppressor [13], and calmodulin-dependent protein kinase kinase β (CaMKK β) [14], and this phosphorylation is required for activation. AMP activates AMPK by inhibiting the dephosphorylation of Thr172 by protein phosphatase-2C [5,8]. AMPK is also allosterically activated by AMP binding to the γ subunit [8]. Activated AMPK promotes ATP production and inhibits anabolic pathways that utilize ATP.

Carotid body

In addition to its other roles, AMPK may be involved in oxygen sensing. The carotid body is a small paired sensory organ which is responsible for sensing oxygen levels in the carotid artery and signaling through the carotid sinus nerve to regulate the breathing rate in order to maintain oxygen homeostasis [15]. The carotid body is composed of two types of cells; type I cells sense oxygen through an unknown mechanism, and type II cells appear to provide support [16]. AMPK has been reported to couple hypoxic inhibition of mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation to excitation of isolated rat carotid body type I cells [17]. To determine if AMPK is necessary for oxygen sensing by carotid body type I cells, we decided to generate an AMPK-deficient rat model to study the ability of the animals to respond to hypoxia. Rats were chosen because the carotid body has been studied extensively in the rat [16]. It is not known which isoform of AMPK α may be involved in oxygen sensing or if they can both perform the same function in the carotid body. For this reason, we wanted to inhibit both

isoforms. These rats will be used to determine if AMPK is required *in vivo* for the carotid body to upregulate the breathing rate in response to hypoxia.

Studying AMPK activity

Multiple strategies to manipulate AMPK activity have been developed. Drugs targeting AMPK, such as the activating drug AICAR (5-aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide ribonucleoside) and inhibitor Compound C, have been identified, but these pharmacological agents have been shown to alter other processes in the cell as well [18-19]. For example, AICAR is metabolized in the cell into an AMP analogue that is able to bind AMP-binding sites on other proteins and is also able to inhibit oxidative phosphorylation independent of its effect on AMPK [18]. Compound C has been shown to inhibit over 10 kinases, not just AMPK [19]. Therefore, these drugs do not specifically target AMPK, and alternate methods should be used to alter AMPK activity more precisely. The generation of AMPK α 1 (α 1 $^{-/-}$) and α 2 (α 2 $^{-/-}$) knockout mice have established critical roles for AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 in the regulation of energy metabolism and oxygen sensing [3,9,20]. Double knockout of the AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 isoforms, simultaneously, results in lethality at embryonic day 10.5 [3], so this model system is not available to study functions that can be performed by both isoforms of AMPK α . An alternative method to inhibit AMPK α 1 and 2 is needed.

RNA interference

Another way to study the activity of AMPK is to block its expression using RNA interference. RNA interference (RNAi) is a process by which double-stranded RNA

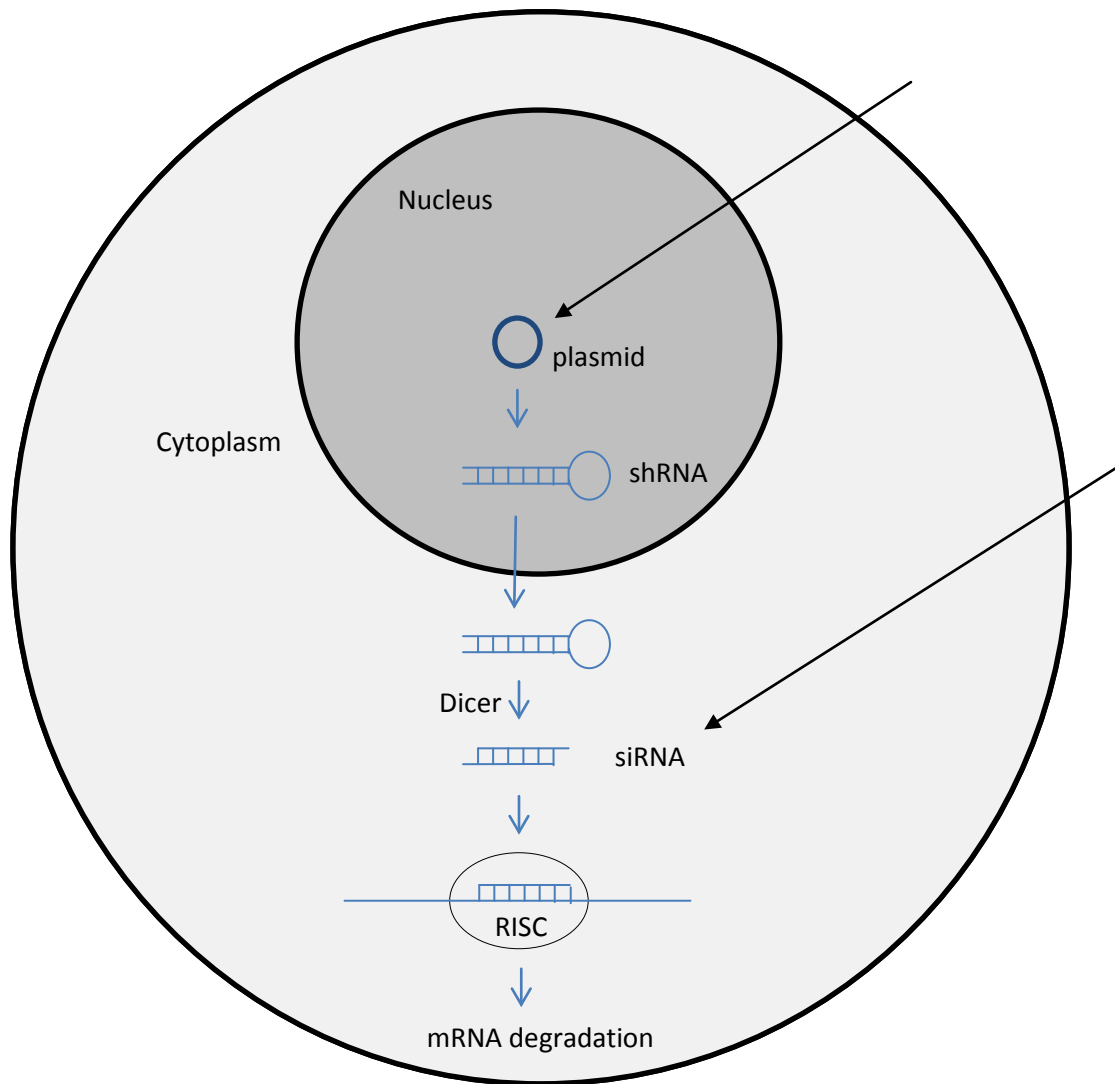
(dsRNA) molecules can regulate gene expression. Small interfering RNAs (siRNAs), are synthetic, 21-nucleotide dsRNA molecules that are complementary to a mRNA transcript [21]. As shown in Figure 1, when siRNA is introduced into a cell, one strand is incorporated into the RNA-induced silencing complex (RISC) and binds the complementary mRNA [22]. This results in destruction of the mRNA transcript by a member of the Argonaute family of proteins [23], thus preventing translation into protein [24-25]. The effects of siRNA are transient because the siRNA molecules get diluted as the cells divide [26]. Therefore, this strategy is not useful for long-term studies.

Short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) are synthetic RNA molecules that have been modified to include a stem-loop-stem structure resembling the structure of naturally-occurring microRNAs (miRNAs). As shown in Figure 1, the hairpin structure of shRNAs is cleaved by the enzyme Dicer in the cytoplasm into siRNA molecules [27]. shRNAs are transcribed from DNA templates such as plasmids, and this allows their expression to be stable and heritable in cell culture [28-31]. The RNA polymerase III promoters U6 and H1, which are the promoters for the U6 small nuclear RNA and histone H1 respectively, are commonly used to drive expression of shRNAs [32]. In addition, shRNAs can be used to generate transgenic animal models with knockdown of target proteins as an alternative to classic transgenic animal knockout models. A number of silencing RNAs against AMPK have been generated [2,10,33-34], but there is no

Figure 1. Diagram of RNAi pathway

Diagram of the siRNA and shRNA pathways after transcription of an shRNA from a DNA template in the nucleus or introduction of synthetic siRNA molecules directly into the cytoplasm of the cell. Arrows indicate molecules that must be introduced into the cell through transfection or another method to generate knockdown: DNA template such as a plasmid or virus (shRNA) or dsRNA molecules (siRNA).

Figure 1



reported sequence that is able to knock down both catalytic isoforms of AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 in multiple species. For this reason, we designed an shRNA that is complementary to a sequence conserved between both catalytic isoforms in human, mouse, and rat and can be used in any of these three model systems.

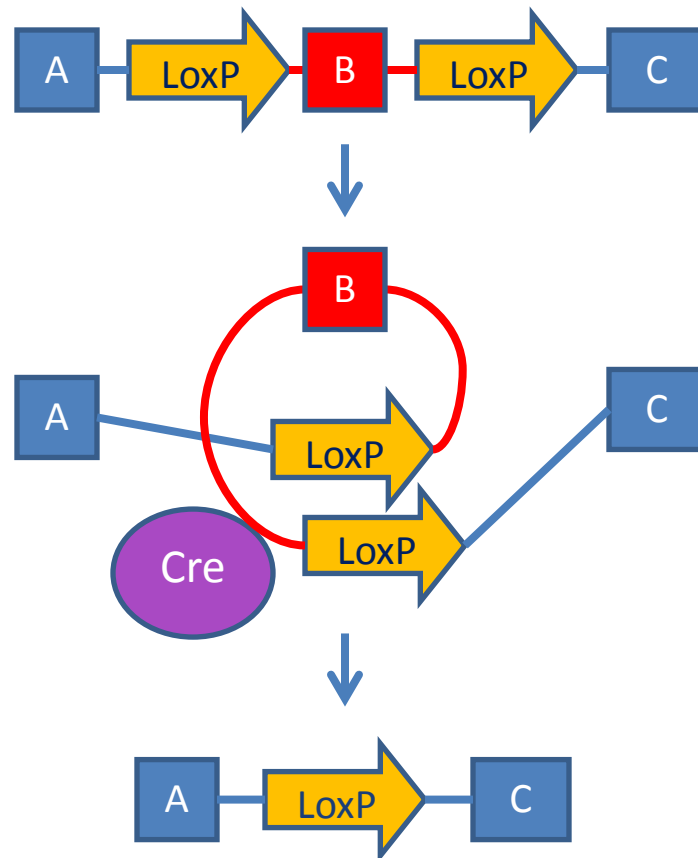
Cre-Lox system

We will use Cre recombinase to direct the tissue-specific expression of an shRNA against AMPK α 1 and 2. Cre recombinase is an enzyme that catalyzes site-specific DNA recombination at sequences called LoxP sites [35]. LoxP sites are 34-basepair stretches of DNA containing two 13-basepair palindromes separated by an 8-basepair spacer, which confers directionality to the site; the region of DNA flanked by two LoxP sites is said to be “floxed” [36]. The Cre enzyme binds to LoxP sites in the DNA and aligns two sites in the same orientation. It then catalyzes a recombination reaction in which the floxed DNA sequence and one of the two LoxP sites are excised from the DNA (Figure 2). This technique is used to delete genes or other stretches of DNA. Cre recombinase has been used to create animal models with tissue-specific knockout of genes by mating mice with floxed genes to mice with tissue-specific expression of the Cre recombinase enzyme [originally described in 37]. The offspring resulting from the mating have knockout of the floxed gene only in tissues where Cre recombinase is expressed. This powerful technique has been used numerous times to create animal models, especially when the total body knockout causes embryonic lethality.

Figure 2. Diagram of Cre recombinase-mediated recombination

DNA recombination catalyzed by Cre recombinase at LoxP sites located between DNA regions A and B and regions B and C. Region B is the floxed DNA that is removed following binding of Cre recombinase at LoxP sites, looping of the DNA, aligning of the LoxP sites, and recombination.

Figure 2



Tissue-specific knockdown

Tissue-specific knockdown will be accomplished by disrupting the U6 promoter, which controls the expression of the shRNA, with a floxed sequence of DNA containing an RNA polymerase III stop sequence. The promoter will not be active, and the shRNA will not be transcribed, unless the extra DNA is removed. Figure 3 shows a diagram of a standard shRNA under control of the U6 promoter, an shRNA with a disrupted U6 promoter, and a schematic of the recombination that would occur following the expression of Cre recombinase. Tissue-specific expression of Cre recombinase will allow the promoter to be restored, and the shRNA will only be made in tissues that express Cre recombinase.

The tissue-specific promoter that was chosen to direct the expression of Cre recombinase is the tyrosine hydroxylase (TH) promoter. Tyrosine hydroxylase is an enzyme that catalyzes the conversion of L-tyrosine to DOPA, the rate-limiting step of catecholamine synthesis [38], and it is only expressed in carotid body type I cells [39] and in the brain and adrenal glands [40]. The shRNA will only be made in cells that express tyrosine hydroxylase. The TH promoter was chosen because TH is known to be highly expressed in carotid body type I cells, and TH is frequently used as a marker for type I cells [39]. It is possible that there could be off-target effects on breathing regulation due to knockdown of AMPK α in other tissues.

Both of the components necessary to generate tissue-specific knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2 will be cloned into one construct that can be used to make a lentivirus.

Figure 3. Structures of shRNA constructs

(A) Structure of the shRNA under control of the U6 promoter. (B) Structure of the shRNA with disrupted U6 promoter. (C) Diagram of recombination that would occur following expression of Cre recombinase with the construct shown in B.

Figure 3

A



B



C

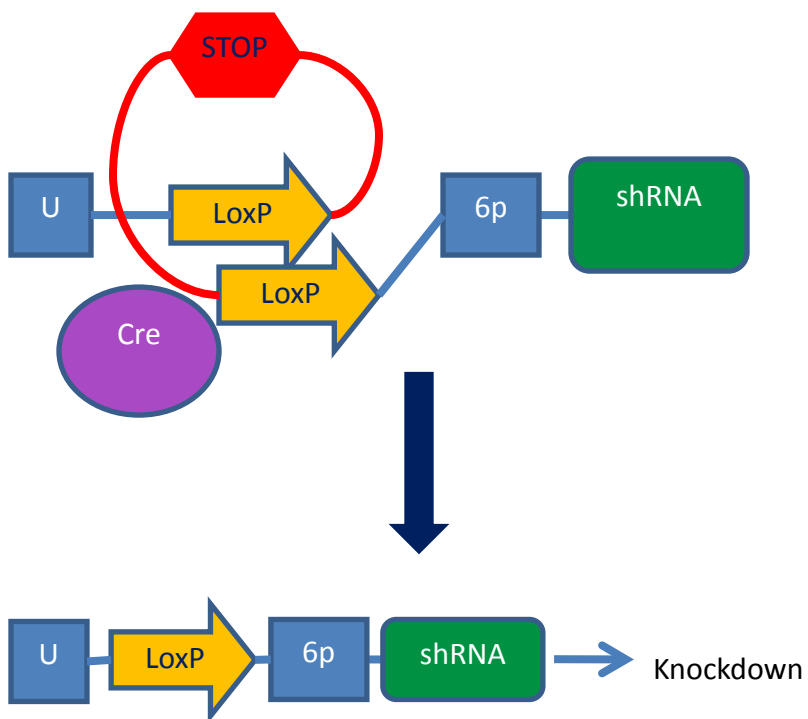


Figure 4 shows a diagram of this final construct. The virus will contain both the shRNA with a disrupted U6 promoter and the Cre recombinase gene under control of the TH promoter. Also shown in Figure 4 is a diagram of the recombination that would occur in tissues that activate the TH promoter and, therefore, express Cre recombinase. This construct will be made into a lentivirus because the virus can be used to infect embryos in order to generate a transgenic rat strain with tissue-specific knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2.

Summary

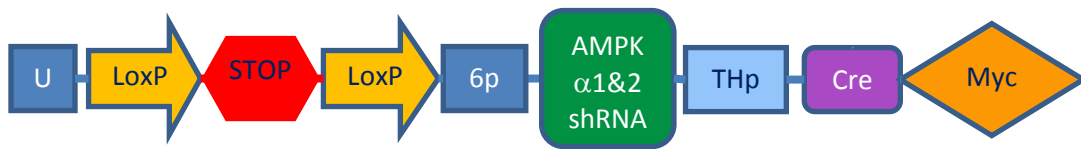
In this study, we demonstrate the production of a novel shRNA that simultaneously targets both AMPK α 1 and α 2 isoforms. This shRNA is 100% complementary to a nucleotide sequence conserved in the human, mouse, and rat forms of the AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 mRNA and causes a significant reduction in AMPK α 1 and 2 protein levels. Knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2 also reduces phosphorylation of ACC, a direct target of AMPK. This new shRNA will be useful for analyzing the numerous functional roles of AMPK α 1 and 2, and it will later be used to generate a transgenic rat strain with tissue-specific silencing of AMPK α 1 and 2. These rats will be studied to determine if AMPK is involved in the oxygen-sensing capabilities of carotid body type I cells.

Figure 4. Structure of virus producing tissue-specific silencing

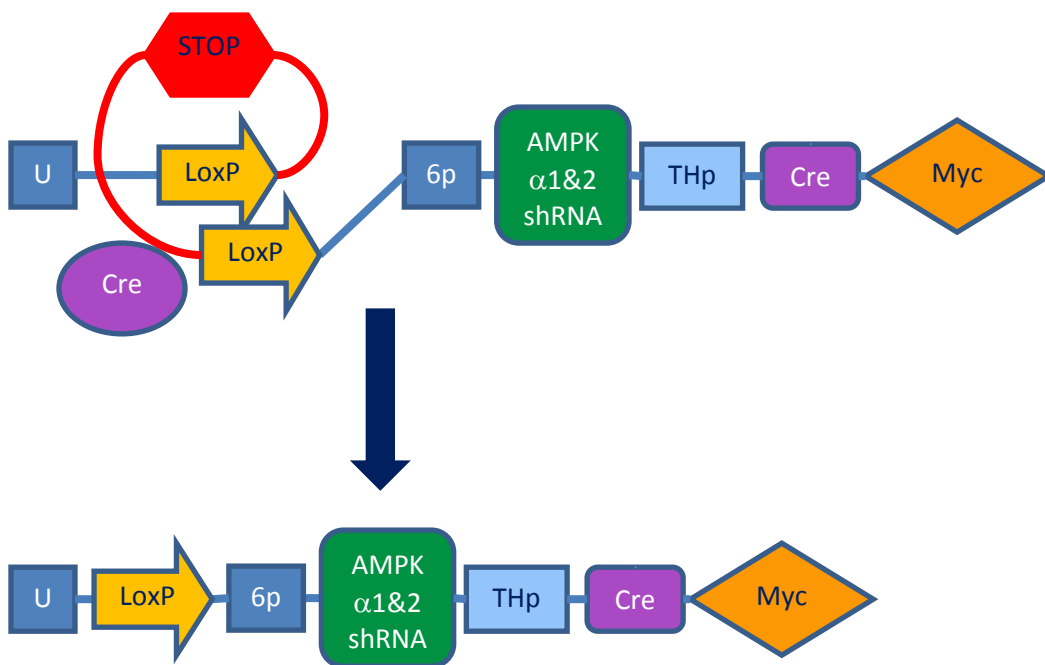
(A) Structure of the virus. (B) Diagram of recombination that would occur in tissues that activate the TH promoter and express Cre recombinase.

Figure 4

A



B



II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cloning and cell culture

Restriction enzymes and buffers used in ligation experiments were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA) and used according to the manufacturer's specifications. Digested vector DNA was dephosphorylated using Antarctic Phosphatase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, M0289S) prior to ligation. Digested DNA was separated using agarose gel electrophoresis, and DNA fragments for ligation were isolated using an E.Z.N.A. Gel Extraction Kit (Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, GA, D2501-01) according to the manufacturer's specifications. All ligations were performed using a rapid ligation kit (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, 11635379001) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Lentiviral plasmids were transformed into One Shot Stbl3 Chemically Competent Cells (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, C7373-03) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Plasmid DNA was isolated from bacterial cultures using E.Z. Nucleic Acid Plasmid Mini (D6942-02) or Maxi (D6922-02) Kits from Omega Bio-Tek (Norcross, GA) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Sequences were verified by DNA sequencing (AGCT, Inc., Wheeling, IL). Table 1 contains a summary of base plasmids used as starting materials for cloning. Table 2 contains a summary of all cloned plasmid constructs.

A multiple cloning site, or MCS, (ClaI-XbaI-NdeI-HindIII-EcoRV-EcoRI-PstI-SmaI-SalI-XbaI-BamHI) was purchased as DNA oligonucleotides from IDT, Inc. (Coralville, IA), annealed, and ligated into pLenti6/V5 D-TOPOTM (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, K4955-01) containing an enhanced green fluorescent protein (GFP) gene using ClaI and BamHI to create pLv-MCS-GFP.

The rat tyrosine hydroxylase promoter was isolated from 4.5ThpAL+ (provided by Dr. Karen O'Malley, Washington University School of Medicine) using EcoRV and EcoRI and cloned into the MCS to create pLv-MCS-THp-GFP. This construct was used to generate a stable pool of HEK293 cells expressing GFP under control of the TH promoter.

The GFP gene was removed from pLv-MCS-GFP using BamHI and ApaI, and the sticky ends were removed by blunting with a Quick Blunting Kit (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, E1202L) according to the manufacturer's specifications. The blunt ends were ligated together to create pLv-MCS-ΔGFP. The TH promoter was cloned into this construct using EcoRV and EcoRI to create pLv-MCS-THp-ΔGFP.

The Cre recombinase gene with a Myc tag was isolated from pCAG-CreMyc (purchased from Addgene, Inc., Cambridge, MA) using polymerase chain reaction (PCR) (Platinum Taq DNA Polymerase High Fidelity, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, 11304-011) according to the manufacturer's specifications. Primers were purchased from IDT, Inc. (Coralville, IA). The PCR reaction added EcoRI sites to both ends of CreMyc, and a

HindIII site was added to the 3' end inside the EcoRI site. EcoRI was used to clone the CreMyc PCR product into pLv-MCS-THp-ΔGFP to create pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc. This construct was used to generate a stable pool of HEK293 cells expressing CreMyc under control of the TH promoter.

RNA oligonucleotides for siRNA experiments and DNA oligonucleotides for shRNA experiments were synthesized by ACGT, Inc. (Wheeling, IL). DNA oligos were annealed and ligated into pENTRTM/U6 using the BLOCK-iTTM U6 RNAi entry vector kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, K4944-00) according to the manufacturer's instructions to create the plasmid shRNAs (pENTR-U6-AMPK α 1&2shRNA Loops 2-4) and control shRNA (pENTR-U6-control shRNA loop 3). pENTR plasmids were transformed in One Shot TOP10 Chemically Competent E. coli cells (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, C4040-10) according to the manufacturer's specifications.

An RNA polymerase III stop site flanked by two LoxP sites (LoxP-Stop-ClaI-XhoI-LoxP) was purchased as DNA oligonucleotides with 5' phosphorylated overhangs complementary to NdeI sticky ends from IDT, Inc. (Coralville, IA) and annealed. The annealed oligo contained overhangs that could be directly ligated into the pENTR-U6-AMPK α 1&2shRNA-Loop3 plasmid digested with NdeI to create pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK α 1&2shRNA-Loop3. Successful ligation of the oligo into the NdeI site of the vector removed the NdeI site, and the ligated DNA was digested with NdeI prior to transformation to remove religated vector DNA. To test the recombination, pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK α 1&2shRNA-Loop3 DNA was recombined with Cre recombinase (New

Table 1. Base plasmids used to create constructs

Plasmid name:	Use:
pLv-CMV-GFP	Base plasmid for TH promoter-driven constructs
4.5ThpAL+	Source of rat TH promoter to drive expression of GFP and CreMyc
pCAG-CreMyc	Source of CreMyc DNA to be cloned into TH promoter-driven construct, ubiquitously expressed CreMyc for control in transfection
pEGFP	Ubiquitously expressed CMV promoter-driven GFP for control in transfections

Table 2. Cloned constructs

Plasmid name:	Backbone:	Cloning strategy:	Use:	Status:
pLv-MCS-GFP	pLenti6	CMV in pLv-CMV-GFP replaced with MCS	Base plasmid for TH promoter-driven GFP and CreMyc constructs	Completed
pLv-MCS-THp-GFP	pLenti6	TH promoter cloned in front of GFP in pLv-MCS-GFP	Used to make TH promoter-driven GFP virus for infection and as TH promoter-driven GFP for transfection in cells	Completed
pLv-MCS-ΔGFP	pLenti6	GFP gene removed from pLv-MCS-GFP	Base plasmid for TH promoter-driven CreMyc	Completed
pLv-MCS-THp-ΔGFP	pLenti6	TH promoter cloned into pLv-MCS-ΔGFP	Base plasmid for TH promoter-driven CreMyc	Completed
pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc	pLenti6	CreMyc PCR product from pCAG-CreMyc cloned after TH promoter	TH promoter-driven CreMyc for transfection in cells	Completed
pENTR-U6-AMPKshRNA	pENTR/U6	shRNA oligos ligated into backbone	Expression of shRNA for transfection in cells	Completed
pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK shRNA loop 3	pENTR/U6	LoxP oligo ligated into NdeI site in U6 promoter	Disrupted shRNA, tested with recombinant Cre	Completed
pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK shRNA loop 3-MCS	pENTR/U6	MCS cloned after shRNA	Base plasmid for final construct	Not completed
pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK shRNA loop 3-THp-CreMyc	pENTR/U6	THp-CreMyc from pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc cloned after shRNA	Base plasmid for final construct	Not completed
pLv-BlockiT-DEST- U6-LoxP-AMPK shRNA loop 3-THp-CreMyc	pLenti6/BLOCK-iT-DEST	U6-LoxP-AMPK shRNA-THp-CreMyc cassette from pENTR construct cloned into lentiviral backbone	Lentiviral plasmid to make final lentivirus	Not completed

England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, M0298S) according to the manufacturer's specifications, digested with XhoI and PvuII, and electrophoresed on a 1% agarose gel.

NIH3T3, HEK293, and PC12 cells were purchased from ATCC, Inc. (Manassas, VA), and maintained at 37°C supplemented with 5% CO₂ in HyClone DMEM/High glucose (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, SH30022.01) with 10% FBS (Biowest, Nuaille, France, S01520) and 1% HyClone antibiotic/antimycotic solution (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, SV30079.01). Cells were passaged at 90% confluency.

siRNA and shRNA design

cDNA sequences of human, mouse, and rat AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 were aligned using MacVector software. The sequence ATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTT was identified in the NCBI database (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/index.html>) and determined to be 100% identical in all cDNAs and corresponded to the following nucleotide regions: hAMPK α 1 (gene accession number Q96E92) 553-573, mAMPK α 1 498-518, rAMPK α 1 487-507, hAMPK α 2 558-578 (gene accession number P54646.2), mAMPK α 2 596-616, rAMPK α 2 494-514). The global siRNA and shRNA were designed to target this region. A second sequence, AATGGAATATGTGTCTGGAGG, was 100% conserved in the cDNA sequences of human, mouse, and rat AMPK α 2. This region contains two base pair mismatches with the mouse and rat AMPK α 1 sequences and three base pair mismatches with the human AMPK α 1 sequence. A control shRNA was designed to be identical to the AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA with the exception of 5 base pair mismatches. The sequence of the control shRNA

(ACGACGTCAGCTGGTGCATGT) did not contain significant homology to known genes in the human, mouse, or rat genomes as determined by analysis in the NCBI/BLAST program. shRNA stem loop design was based upon previous studies [TLB unpublished data, 27].

Transfection and infection

HEK293 cells were seeded on 60 mm plates at 1.2×10^6 cells/plate and transfected with a 3:1 ratio of Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, 11668019) to DNA according to the manufacturer's specifications. NIH3T3 cells were simultaneously seeded on 60 mm plates at 8×10^5 cells/plate and transfected with a 5:1 ratio of Metafectene (Biontex, San Diego, CA, T020-1.0) to DNA according to the manufacturer's specifications. Transfection efficiency was determined by replicate transfection with ubiquitously expressed GFP (pEGFP). Cells were lysed 24, 48, or 72 hours post- siRNA transfection and 72 hours post-shRNA (pENTR-U6-AMPK α 1&2 shRNA Loops 2-4) transfection for analysis. Stable pools were generated by treating transfected HEK293 cells (transfected with pLv-MCS-THp-GFP or pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc) with 10 μ g/ml Blasticidin (InvivoGen, San Diego, ant-bl-1). PC12 cells were seeded on 60 mm plates at 5×10^4 cells/plate and infected by adding 2 ml of lentiviral THp-GFP (made from pLv-MCS-THp-GFP plasmid) for 24 hrs. Cells were maintained under standard culture conditions and examined for GFP expression after 72 hours.

Western blotting

Whole cell lysates were collected with Cell Lysis Buffer (Cell Signaling, Beverly, MA, 9803) supplemented with Complete Protease Inhibitor Tablets (Roche, Basel, Switzerland, #11836153001). Lysates were briefly sonicated on ice, and protein concentrations were determined by the Bradford method [41-42]. Lysates were boiled in Laemmli reducing buffer, and 50 µg of total protein from each sample was electrophoresed on 10% SDS polyacrylamide gels for AMPK isolation or 8% SDS polyacrylamide gels for ACC isolation. Proteins were transferred to an Immobilon PVDF Membrane (Millipore, Billerica, MA, IPVH08100) and blocked in Tris-buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20 and 5% nonfat, dry milk. Antibodies purchased from Cell Signaling (Beverly, MA, anti-AMPK α 1 #2795; anti-AMPK α #2603; anti-phospho-ACC #3661; anti-ACC #3676) were used overnight at a dilution of 1:1000 in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 and 5% bovine serum albumin. Antibodies purchased from GeneTex (San Antonio, TX, anti-AMPK α 2, GTX111373) were used overnight at a dilution of 1:2000 in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween-20 and 5% nonfat, dry milk. Anti-actin C4 monoclonal antibody (Seven Hills Bioreagents, Cincinnati, OH) was used at a 1/10,000 dilution for 1 hr at room temperature. Anti-Myc antibody (clone 9E10) was purchased from Millipore, Inc. (Billerica, MA). Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies were purchased from Promega (Madison, WI, anti-rabbit IgG, HRP conjugate #W401B; and anti-mouse IgG, HRP-conjugate #W402B) and used at a dilution of 1:25,000 for one hour. Blots were developed using SuperSignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate kit (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA, 34080), exposed to x-ray film, and visualized by chemiluminescence.

Data analysis

Western blot data was analyzed with NIH ImageJ software (rsbweb.nih.gov/ij/) to quantitate protein levels. For shRNA experiments, three to six independent experiments were performed for each blot, and the results were averaged. Statistical significance was determined using one-way ANOVA.

III. RESULTS

siRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha

AMPK α was first knocked down using siRNA in order to identify viable sequences that can be targeted with an shRNA to generate stable knockdown. To generate a global AMPK α 1 and 2 gene knockdown, we aligned the cDNA sequences of human, mouse, and rat AMPK α 1 and 2 and identified a single 21 bp sequence conserved in each (Table 3). We generated an siRNA targeting this sequence to determine if it could knock down AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 simultaneously. We also made an siRNA against a region of AMPK α 2 that is conserved in human, mouse, and rat (Table 4). The siRNAs were transfected in mouse fibroblast cells, NIH3T3s, at two different concentrations, and the cells were lysed 24, 48, and 72 hours post-transfection and run on a western blot (Figure 5). The lower concentration, 20 nm, was used to ensure there were few off-target effects. The higher concentration, 100 nm, was used to ensure the greatest knockdown of the target protein. The global siRNA knocked down AMPK α 1 and 2 protein levels at both concentrations at all three time points compared to mock-transfected control. The AMPK α 2 siRNA caused a moderate knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2. Surprisingly, it caused a greater knockdown of AMPK α 1 than AMPK α 2 though the siRNA was not a perfect match for AMPK α 1. The transient nature of siRNA-

Table 3. Identification of a globally conserved sequence in AMPK alpha 1 and 2

AMPK α 1	Human	AAC C ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT T TA
	Mouse	AAC C ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT T TA
	Rat	AAC C ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT T TA
AMPK α 2	Human	AAT T ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT C T G
	Mouse	AAT T ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT C TA
	Rat	AAT T ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT C TA
AMPK α 1&2 global siRNA		ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT

cDNA sequences for human, mouse, and rat AMPK α 1 and α 2 were aligned using the MacVector software program. Mismatches are shown in bold.

Table 4. Identification of a conserved sequence in AMPK alpha 2

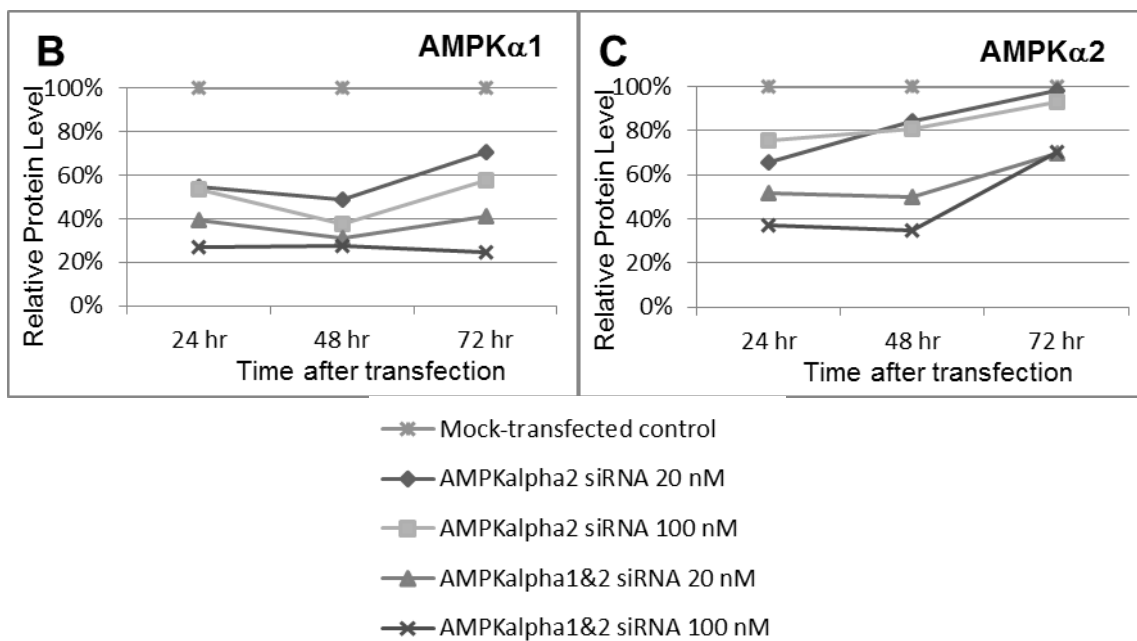
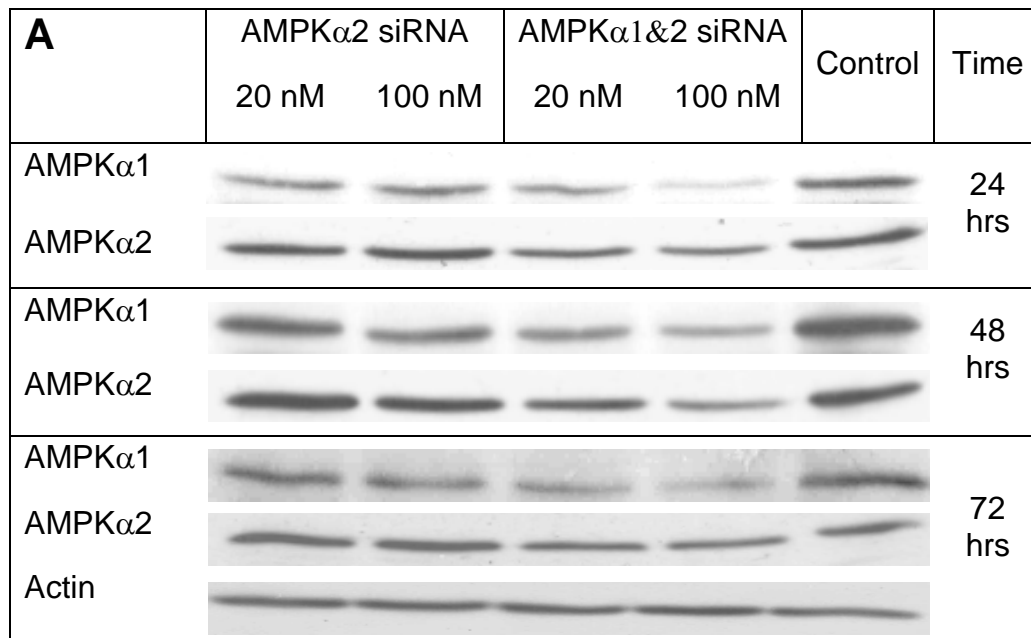
AMPK α 1	Human	GGT G AT GGA ATA TGT C TC A GG AGG A GA
	Mouse	GGT G AT GGA ATA TGT C TC TGG AGG A GA
	Rat	GGT G AT GGA ATA TGT C TC TGG AGG A GA
AMPK α 2	Human	GGT AAT GGA ATA TGT GTC TGG AGG TGA
	Mouse	GGT AAT GGA ATA TGT GTC TGG AGG TGA
	Rat	GGT AAT GGA ATA TGT GTC TGG AGG TGA
AMPK α 2 specific siRNA		AAT GGA ATA TGT GTC TGG AGG

cDNA sequences for human, mouse, and rat AMPK α 1 and α 2 were aligned using the MacVector software program. Mismatches are shown in bold.

Figure 5. siRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in NIH3T3 cells

(A) Western blots of NIH3T3 cells transfected with AMPK α 2 or AMPK α 1&2 siRNA at 20 nM or 100 nM. Cells were lysed after 24 hrs, 48 hrs, or 72 hrs and separated with SDS-PAGE. Blots were probed with anti-AMPK α 1, anti-AMPK α 2, and anti-actin. Representative actin blot shown in A. (B-C) Relative AMPK α 1 (B) and AMPK α 2 (C) protein levels in siRNA-transfected NIH3T3 cells compared to mock-transfected control cells 24, 48, and 72 hours post-transfection after normalizing to actin loading control. Data was analyzed with NIH ImageJ software.

Figure 5



mediated knockdown is evident in Figure 5 as a less efficient knockdown 72 hrs after transfection. These results prompted us to select the sequence of the global AMPK α 1 and 2 siRNA to generate an shRNA that can be used to stably knock down AMPK α 1 and 2.

shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha

To generate stable knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2, we used the AMPK α 1 and 2 siRNA sequence to generate an shRNA. Though the loop structure of the shRNA is cleaved prior to binding of the RNA to the target mRNA, the sequence of the loop has a significant impact on the activity of the shRNA [43]. We will refer to the most commonly used shRNA loop sequence (TTCAAGAGA) as the Brummelkamp loop [29]. However, this particular loop begins with two thymidine residues. RNA polymerase III, which drives shRNA production from the U6 promoter in the pENTRTM vector, recognizes a stretch of four or more thymidine residues as a stop site [44]. Therefore, this loop cannot be used if the stem sequence of the shRNA ends in two or more thymidine residues, as is the case for the AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA. For this reason, we needed to identify different loop sequences that did not begin with thymidine (Table 5). We tested three loops, referred to as loops 2-4, in NIH3T3 cells (Figure 6). A fourth loop, loop 1 was not tested because the plasmid was found to contain a mutation after sequencing. Two of the loops, loops 3 and 4, significantly knocked down protein levels of both isoforms of AMPK α . Loops 3 and 4 were the complement and the reverse, respectively, of the Brummelkamp loop. We found that the complement of the Brummelkamp loop,

Table 5. Design of shRNA loop sequences and sequences of shRNA oligos

Brummelkamp loop	TTCAAGAGA
Loop 2	CCACACC
Loop 3	AAGTTCTCT
Loop 4	AGAGAACTT
Loop 2 top oligo	CACCGATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTCC ACACCAAATTCACCATCTGACATCAT
Loop 2 bottom oligo	AAAAATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTGGT GTGGAAATTCACCATCTGACATCATC
Loop 3 top oligo	CACCGATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTAA GTTCTCTAAATTCACCATCTGACATCAT
Loop 3 bottom oligo	AAAAATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTAGA GAACTTAAATTCACCATCTGGACATCATC
Loop 4 top oligo	CACCGATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTAG AGAACTTAAATTCACCATCTGACATCAT
Loop 4 bottom oligo	AAAAATGATGTCAGATGGTGAATTTAAGT TCTCTAAATTCACCATCTGACATCATC

Loop sequences and sequences of DNA oligos ordered from ACGT, Inc., and ligated into pENTRTM to create plasmid shRNAs.

Table 6. Design of global AMPK alpha 1 and 2 shRNA and corresponding control shRNA

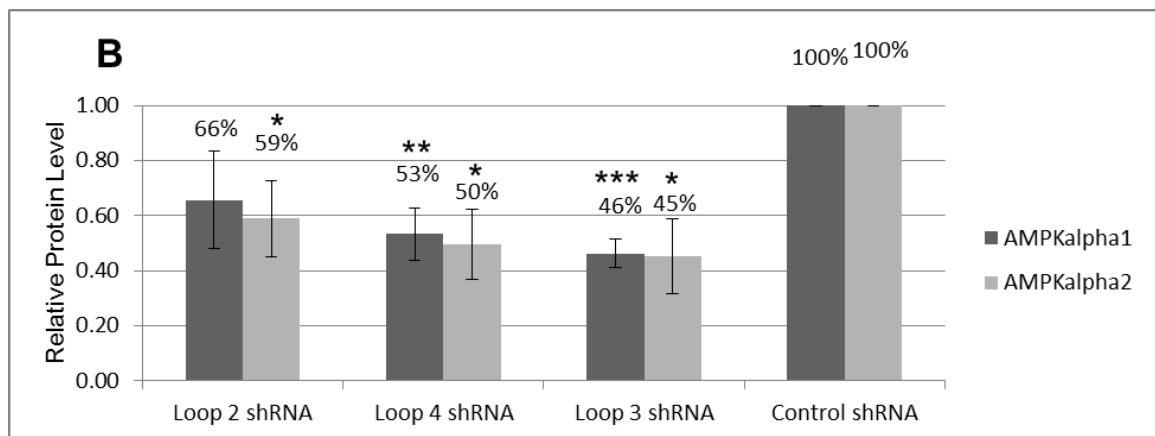
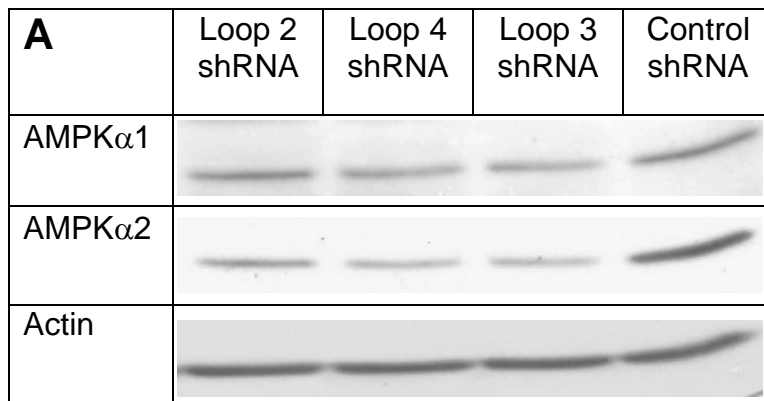
AMPKα1&2 Loop 3 shRNA sequence	
ATG ATG TCA GAT GGT GAA TTT	AAGTCTCTCT
TAC TAC AGT CTA CCA TCC AAA	
Control shRNA sequence	
ACG ACG TCA GCT GGT GCA TGT	AAGTCTCTCT
TGC TGC AGT CGA CCA CGT ACA	

Base pair mismatches in the control shRNA are shown in bold.

Figure 6. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in NIH3T3 cells with different loop sequences

(A) Representative western blot of NIH3T3 cells transfected with AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA with loops 2-4 and control shRNA. Cells were lysed after 72 hrs. Lysates were electrophoresed with SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with anti-AMPK α 1, anti-AMPK α 2, and anti-actin. (B) Relative AMPK α 1 and 2 protein levels in shRNA-transfected NIH3T3 cells compared to control shRNA-transfected NIH3T3 cells after normalizing to actin loading control. Relative protein levels are listed as percentages of control. Results are representative of 3 independent experiments. Data was analyzed with NIH ImageJ software. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. (*) $P < 0.05$. (**) $P < 0.01$. (***) $P < 0.001$.

Figure 6



loop 3, resulted in the greatest knockdown, 54% knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 55% knockdown of AMPK α 2, and this shRNA was chosen for further study. We created a control shRNA containing five base-pair mismatches from the target 21 nt siRNA sequence using the loop 3 sequence (Table 6). AMPK α 1 and 2 protein levels in cells transfected with the control shRNA were equivalent to mock-transfected controls (data not shown). This control shRNA was used for all shRNA experiments.

Knockdown of AMPK alpha in mouse and human cells

We transfected the shRNA into mouse NIH3T3 cells and human embryonic kidney HEK293 cells to demonstrate its ability to knock down AMPK α 1 and 2 in multiple species (Figure 7). The shRNA significantly knocked down protein levels of both isoforms of AMPK α in both species. In mouse NIH3T3 cells, AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 protein levels were knocked down 49% and 44%, respectively, compared to the control shRNA. In human HEK293 cells, AMPK α 1 and AMPK α 2 protein levels were knocked down 63% and 72%, respectively, compared to the control shRNA. The shRNA was likely more effective in human cells than in mouse cells due to the increased transfection efficiency in HEK293 cells, as determined by replicate transfections with GFP. Representative fluorescence micrographs of NIH3T3 and HEK293 cells transfected with GFP are shown in Figure 8 to demonstrate the difference in transfection efficiency between the cell types. Both transfections were performed as controls during shRNA experiments simultaneously and under the same conditions as the shRNA transfections. Transfection with GFP was more efficient in HEK293 cells than in NIH3T3 cells.

Figure 7. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha 1 and 2 in mouse and human cells

(A) Representative western blot of NIH3T3 and HEK293 cells transfected with AMPK α 1 and 2 loop 3 shRNA and control shRNA. Cells were lysed after 72 hrs. Lysates were electrophoresed with SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with anti-AMPK α 1, anti-AMPK α 2, and anti-actin. (B-C) Relative AMPK α 1 and 2 protein levels in shRNA-transfected NIH3T3 cells (B) and HEK293 cells (C) compared to control shRNA-transfected cells after normalizing to actin loading control. Relative protein levels are listed as percentages of control. Results are representative of 3-6 independent experiments. Data was analyzed with NIH ImageJ software. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. (***) $P < 0.001$.

Figure 7

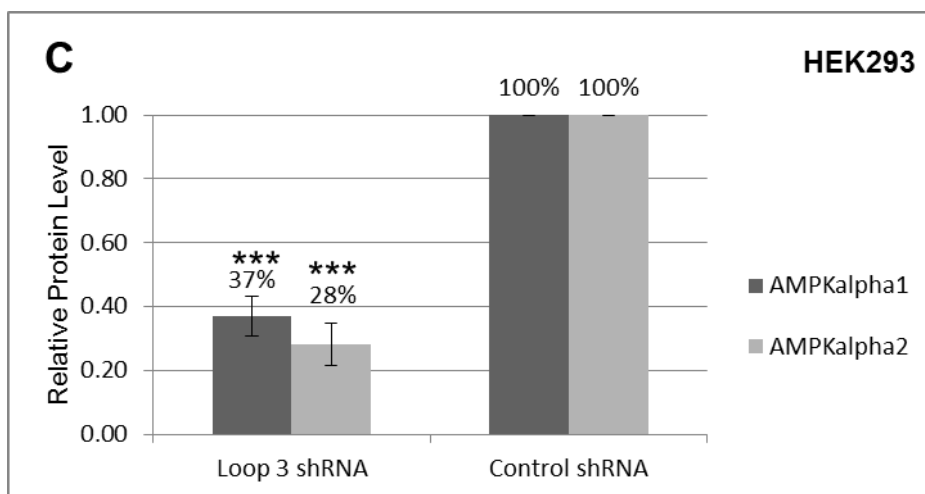
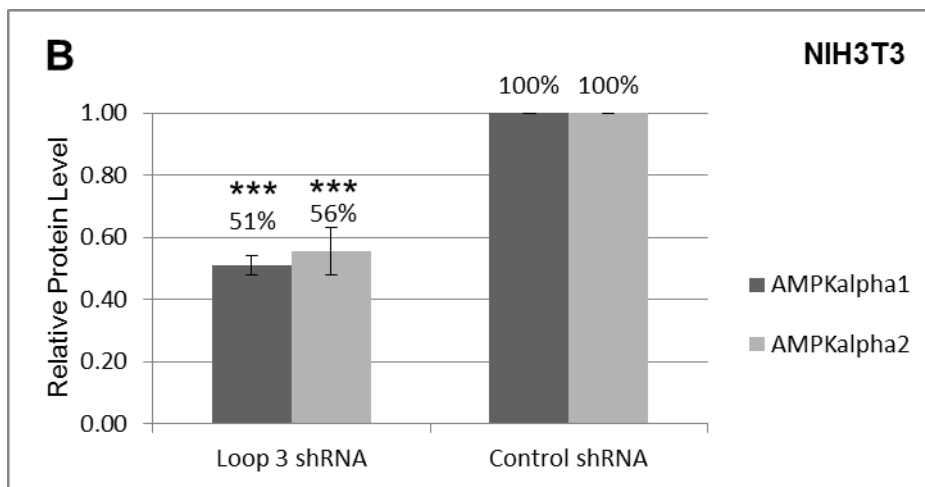
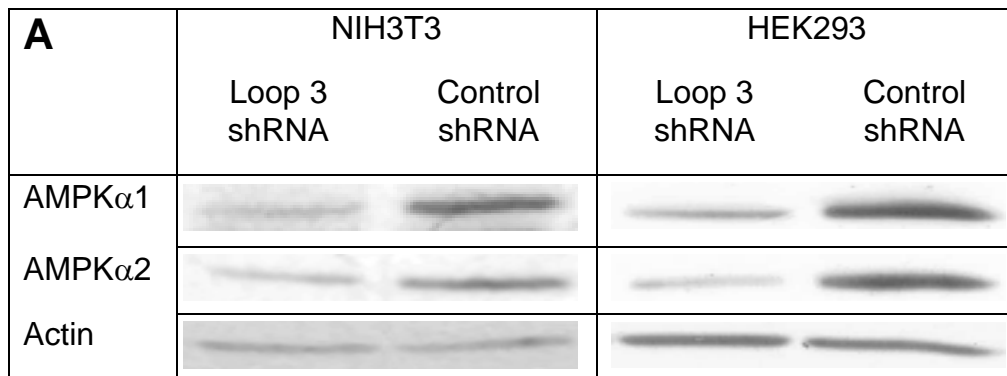
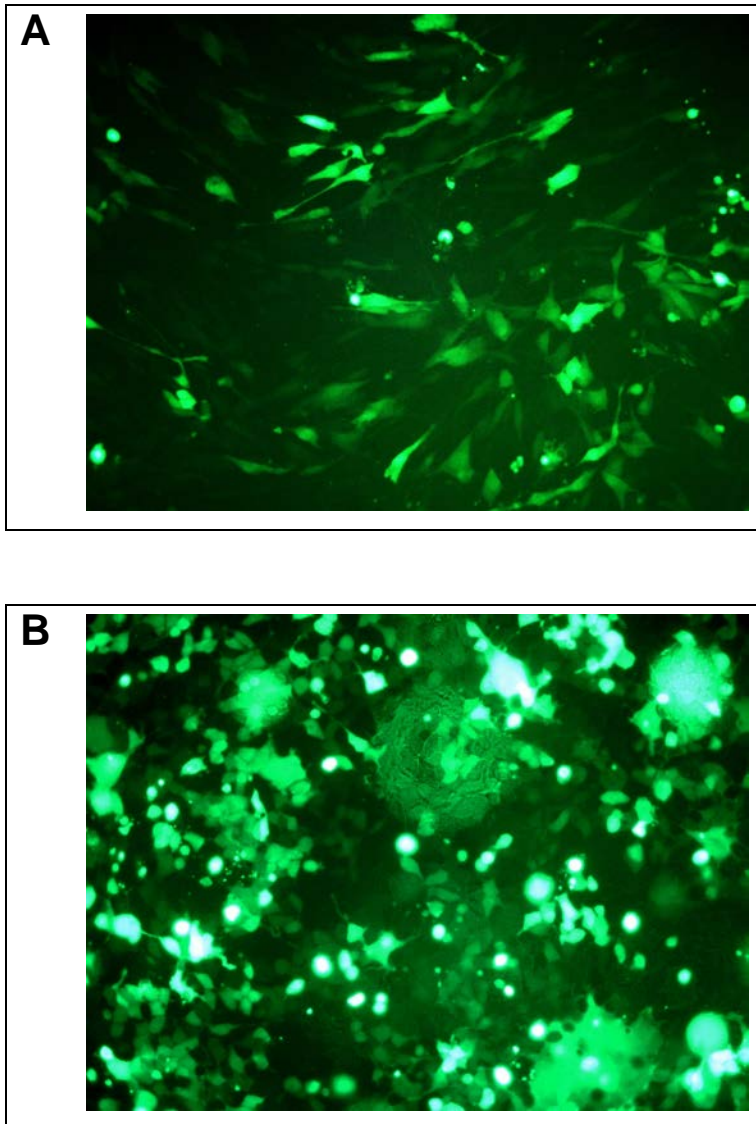


Figure 8. Transfection efficiency of NIH3T3 and HEK293 cells

(A-B) Representative fluorescence micrographs of NIH3T3 cells (A) and HEK293 cells (B) transfected with ubiquitously expressed CMV promoter-driven GFP (pEGFP) as replicate controls for shRNA transfection experiments. Fluorescence was checked after 72 hrs.

Figure 8



Functional knockdown of AMPK alpha

To show functional knockdown of AMPK by the loop 3 shRNA, we looked for reduced phosphorylation of a direct target, acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC). Transfection of HEK293 cells with the loop 3 AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA did not alter total ACC protein levels; however, it did cause a significant reduction in the phosphorylated form of ACC (phospho-ACC, Figure 9). The protein level of phosphorylated ACC was knocked down 41% by the AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA compared to the control shRNA. The total ACC protein levels in the AMPK α 1 and 2 shRNA-treated cells compared to the control shRNA-treated cells were nearly identical and unaffected by transfection.

Expression of TH promoter-driven constructs

To test the expression of the tyrosine hydroxylase promoter-driven GFP plasmid (pLv-MCS-THp-GFP), we transfected HEK293 cells and selected with blasticidin to generate a stable pool of transfected cells. The cells expressed GFP (Figure 10 A), indicating the construct is functional. HEK293 cells express TH [45], even though they were isolated from kidney cells, because they have been found to more closely resemble neuronal cells than kidney cells [46]. The TH promoter-driven GFP was also expressed in PC12 cells (Figure 10 B), which are rat pheochromocytoma cells that express TH [47]. HEK293 cells were transfected with the TH-driven CreMyc plasmid (pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc) and selected with blasticidin to generate a stable pool of cells. The extracts from these cells were run on a western blot along with positive control lysates of HEK293 cells transiently transfected with the ubiquitously expressed CreMyc plasmid (pCAG-CreMyc) (Figure 10 C). Both transfected cell populations expressed CreMy

Figure 9. shRNA-mediated knockdown of AMPK alpha activity in HEK293 cells

(A) Representative western blot of HEK293 cells transfected with AMPK α 1 and 2 loop 3 shRNA and control shRNA. Cells were lysed after 72 hrs. Lysates were electrophoresed on an 8% SDS-PAGE gel and immunoblotted with anti-phospho-ACC, anti-ACC, and anti-actin. Lysates from one experiment were also electrophoresed on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel and immunoblotted with anti-AMPK α and anti-actin. (B) Phospho-ACC protein levels in shRNA-transfected HEK293 cells compared to control shRNA-transfected cells as a percentage of total ACC levels after normalizing to actin loading control. Relative protein levels are listed as percentages of control. Results are representative of 3 independent experiments. Data was analyzed with NIH ImageJ software. Error bars represent the standard error of the mean. (**) $P < 0.01$.

Figure 9

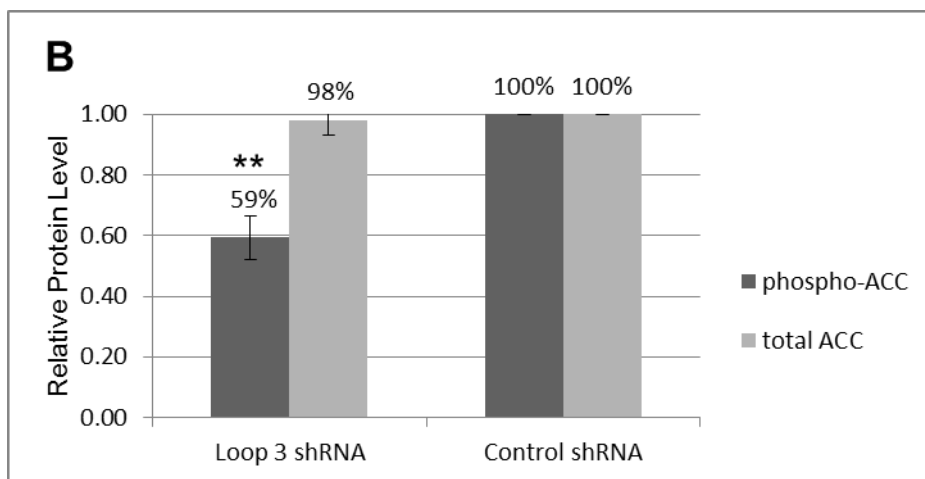
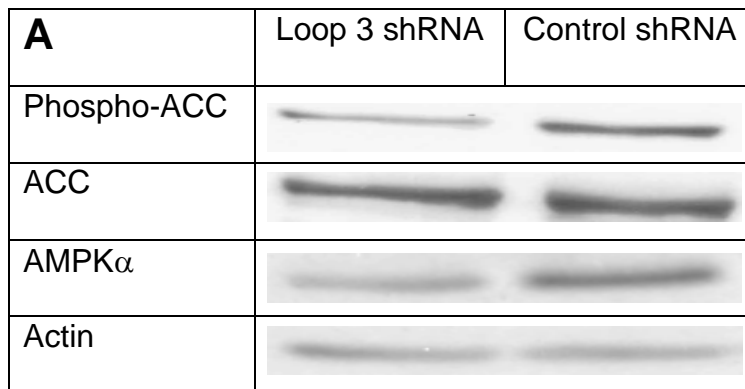
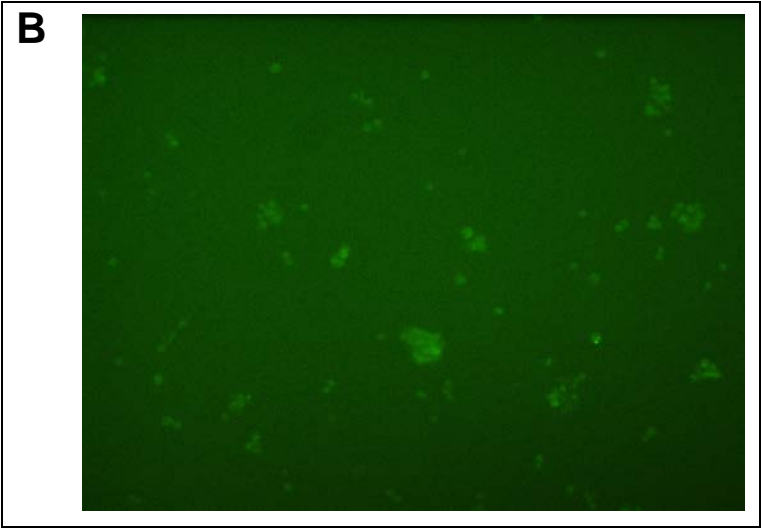
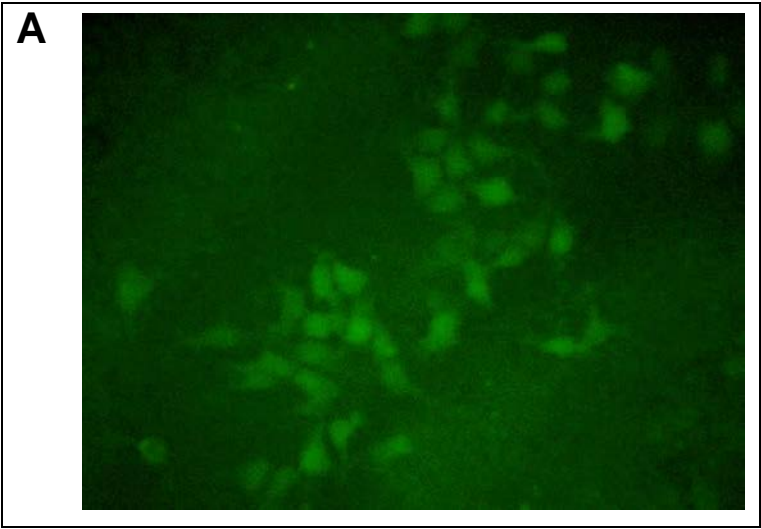


Figure 10. Expression of TH promoter-driven constructs

(A) Fluorescence micrograph of HEK293 cells transfected with TH promoter-driven GFP plasmid (pLv-MCS-THp-GFP). Transiently transfected cells were selected with 10 μ g/ml Blasticidin to generate a stable pool of transfected cells. (B) Fluorescence micrograph of PC12 cells infected with TH promoter-driven GFP lentivirus. (C) Western blot of HEK293 cells transfected with TH promoter-driven CreMyc plasmid (pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc) and ubiquitously expressed CreMyc plasmid (pCAG-CreMyc). Cells were lysed after 72 hrs. Lysates were electrophoresed on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel and immunoblotted with anti-Myc.

Figure 10



C	Untransfected	TH-Cre-Myc	pCAG-Cre-Myc
Myc			

(38 kDa), and all HEK293 cell populations did not express endogenous Myc (49 kDa) as expected [48].

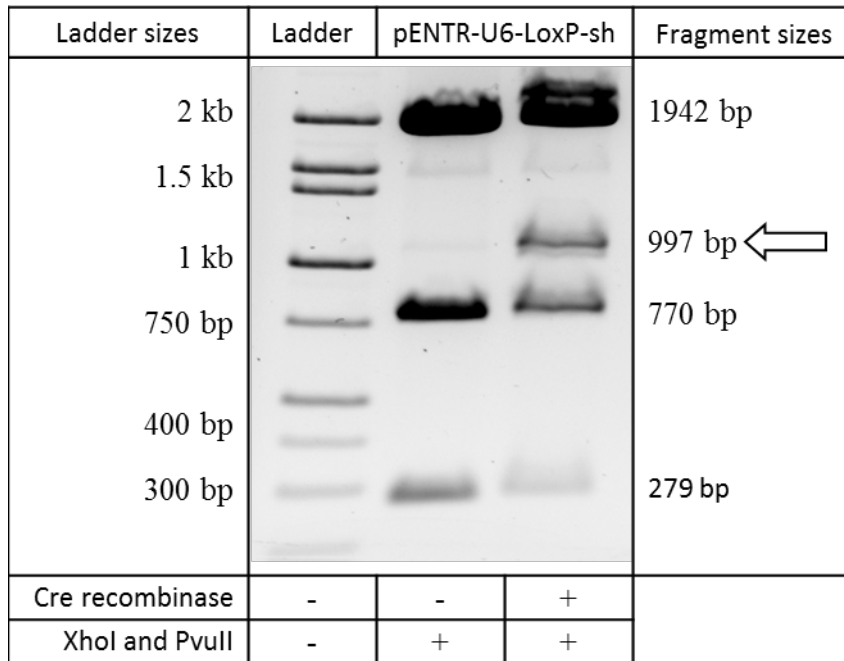
Cre recombinase-driven recombination

The U6 promoter was disrupted with two LoxP sites flanking an RNA polymerase III stop site. The DNA was tested with recombinant Cre to ensure the floxed sequence was removed. The recombined DNA was digested with XhoI and PvuII and electrophoresed on an agarose gel to determine the size of the resulting fragments (Figure 11). The recombination removed 52 bp, including the XhoI site, from the DNA. This can be seen in the gel as a decrease in the amount of 770 and 279 bp fragments and the appearance of a 997 bp fragment (indicated with an arrow). The reaction is reversible, so the reaction proceeds to equilibrium. The banding pattern indicates the recombination occurred as expected.

Figure 11. *In vitro* recombination of disrupted U6 promoter construct with Cre recombinase

Agarose gel of pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK α 1&2shRNA Loop 3 construct recombined with Cre recombinase. Lane 1 contains a ladder. Lanes 2 and 3 contain pENTR-U6-LoxP-AMPK α 1&2shRNA DNA digested with XhoI and PvuII. Lane 3 was recombined with Cre recombinase prior to digestion.

Figure 11



IV. DISCUSSION

AMPK alpha 1 and 2 knockdown

AMPK is a key regulator of cellular metabolism, and it exerts its function through the catalytic alpha subunit. Knocking down both isoforms of the catalytic subunit is a way to study the function of AMPK; however, previous knockdowns of AMPK α were only designed to be effective in one model system. We originally tested an shRNA against AMPK α 1 and 2 that had been previously published [34], but the target sequence was not conserved between multiple species. Therefore, we were unable to test the knockdown in a convenient system. This led us to develop an siRNA that can target both catalytic α 1 and α 2 isoforms of AMPK in human, mouse, and rat cells. This new siRNA could be used in any number of systems because the sequence is conserved. Because siRNA only causes a transient knockdown in protein levels, we converted the siRNA into an shRNA. The shRNA caused a significant reduction in AMPK α protein levels in both human and mouse cells. We hypothesize the shRNA will also be effective in rat cells because the sequence is 100% conserved.

When designing an shRNA, the loop that is used can have a significant impact on the knockdown of the target protein [43]. We chose to test three different loops to

determine which is the most effective. The complement of the most commonly reported loop (loop 3) was found to be the most effective. This loop can be used for shRNAs that end in thymidine residues as an alternative to the most common loop to prevent the formation of an RNA polymerase III stop site.

The shRNA was cloned into the pENTRTM/U6 Entry vector from Invitrogen. From this plasmid, the shRNA can be transferred into other expression systems such as the lentiviral Block-iTTM Dest vector from Invitrogen, which can be used to make a lentivirus containing the shRNA. Lentiviral infection with the shRNA should cause greater knockdown due to a higher efficiency of transduction.

Knockdown of protein levels does not necessarily correspond to a reduction in activity of the target protein. For this reason, we wanted to ensure AMPK α activity was also reduced by the shRNA. ACC is phosphorylated at Ser79 by AMPK α [49]. ACC catalyzes the production of malonyl-CoA from acetyl-CoA, thus providing the starting material for fatty acid synthesis. When ATP is depleted from the cell, ACC is inactivated by AMPK, and acetyl-CoA is used for energy production in the citric acid cycle. The reduction in phospho-ACC levels indicates that AMPK activity, not just protein levels, was reduced by the shRNA.

Tissue-specific constructs

The tyrosine hydroxylase promoter will be used to generate tissue-specific expression of the shRNA. A plasmid containing TH promoter-driven GFP was generated

to visualize where the TH promoter was expressed. GFP was expressed in HEK293 and PC12 cells, which are TH positive, so the promoter is functional. Also, the PC12 cells were infected with a lentivirus containing TH promoter-driven GFP. This lentivirus was over 12 kb in size. The generally accepted size limit for a lentivirus to be efficiently packaged into viral particles is about 10 kb. The expression of GFP in these cells indicates that a larger virus is still capable of being effectively packaged and infecting cells. This is important because the final virus will be about 12 kb, so we would expect the final virus to be functional from this result.

A plasmid containing TH promoter-driven Cre recombinase with a Myc tag (pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc) was generated to direct tissue-specific expression of Cre recombinase. Cre, when used with the shRNA with a disrupted promoter, will restore the promoter and allow the shRNA to be made in TH positive cells only. The Myc tag was detected in lysates of a stable pool of HEK293 cells transfected with pLv-MCS-THp-CreMyc, indicating the plasmid is functional.

Disrupted U6 promoter

The U6 promoter of the shRNA was disrupted by a floxed sequence of DNA containing an RNA polymerase III stop site. The cloning to create this construct was challenging because the floxed sequence of DNA was ordered as small, approximately 90 bp, DNA oligos that were annealed and digested before ligation into the NdeI site of the vector. The small size of the insert and the lack of directional cloning made the reaction very unfavorable. To overcome this issue, we designed oligos that would have overhangs

following annealing that are complementary to the NdeI site in the vector. The oligos were synthesized with phosphorylated 5' ends, which are required by DNA ligase, to allow them to be ligated directly into the digested vector following annealing. Ligation of this oligo into the vector would remove the NdeI site in the vector, so we were able to digest the ligated DNA with NdeI before transformation to get rid of any vector DNA that religated with itself. This strategy selected for successful ligations and removed the large amount of background vector religation. The floxed sequence of DNA was removed from the promoter *in vitro* following treatment with Cre recombinase. This indicates the floxed sequence is able to be removed as expected, and the promoter should be restored following expression of Cre recombinase.

Future work

In the future, the HEK293 cells stably expressing TH promoter-driven CreMyc will be transfected with the shRNA with a disrupted promoter to test the recombination mediated by Cre to determine if the U6 promoter function is restored following excision of the floxed sequence. The TH-driven plasmids must also be tested to ensure they are truly tissue specific and are not expressed in TH negative cells. In order to make the final virus, the cassette containing the TH promoter-driven Cre recombinase will be transferred to the same vector as the shRNA with the disrupted promoter.

The construct with the disrupted promoter must still be tested to determine if the shRNA is no longer expressed. If the floxed sequence of DNA is not sufficient to disrupt the U6 promoter, and there is still some expression of the shRNA, a GFP reporter gene

can be cloned into the sequence. This reporter gene is very large and will effectively prevent transcription from the promoter. The construct with the disrupted promoter must also be tested to determine if the shRNA is expressed after recombination with Cre recombinase. Following recombination with Cre, one 34 basepair LoxP site remains in the DNA. The distance between crucial elements of the U6 promoter is critical to its proper function, but the sequence of DNA between the elements is not [50]. If the extra DNA from the LoxP site prevents efficient binding of RNA polymerase III to the restored U6 promoter, an alternate strategy is to remove part of the U6 promoter so the LoxP site remaining after recombination replaces it. This should ensure the promoter will be functional following recombination.

In future studies, the tissue-specific shRNA will be used to generate a rat transgenic strain with knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2 only in cells that express TH. A lentivirus containing both the shRNA with the disrupted U6 promoter and the TH promoter-driven Cre recombinase will be used to infect fertilized rat embryos. A technique called embryo transfer will be used to transplant the infected embryos into pseudopregnant mothers [51-52]. The pups will have the transgene integrated into every cell, but the shRNA will only be made in cells that express TH. Therefore, the rats will have tissue-specific knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2. We expect the knockdown should not result in embryonic lethality because it is not a complete knockout, so some AMPK α protein is still made, and it is only knocked down in some tissues. Previously, a mouse strain with total body knockout of AMPK α 1 and liver-specific knockout of AMPK α 2 was generated [3,18]. The mice were viable, so this indicates that tissue-specific double

knockout models are possible, although it is currently not known which tissues require expression of AMPK α 1 and 2 for survival of the animals. It is also important to remember that the rats will have knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2, not knockout. It is possible that minimal expression of AMPK α 1 and 2 could allow the animals to survive. If the animals are not viable, an alternative is to use a conditional expression system, such as a Tet-On system [53], to control the temporal expression of Cre recombinase. Using this system, Cre recombinase would not be expressed in TH-positive tissues until the animals are treated with the antibiotic tetracycline or a derivative, doxycycline. In this way, knockdown of AMPK would not occur until after the animals are already born, so defects in development would be avoided. The rats will be used in future studies to determine if breathing regulation by carotid body type I cells is impaired by knockdown of AMPK. If AMPK is necessary for carotid body type I cells to respond to hypoxia, the rats will not be able to upregulate their breathing rate in response to hypoxia. These studies will help elucidate the role of AMPK in oxygen sensing by the carotid body.

In conclusion, we have generated a new shRNA that can significantly knock down protein levels and activity of AMPK α 1 and 2 in multiple species. This shRNA will later be used to generate a transgenic rat strain with tissue-specific knockdown of AMPK α 1 and 2.

V. APPENDIX

Abbreviations

AMPK- 5'-Adenosine Monophosphate-Activated Protein Kinase

PRKAA- Protein-Kinase, AMP-activated

ACC- Acetyl-CoA Carboxylase

CaMKK β - Calmodulin-Dependent Protein Kinase Kinase β

AICAR- 5-Aminoimidazole-4-Carboxamide Ribonucleoside

RNAi- RNA Interference

dsRNA- Double-Stranded RNA

siRNA- Small Interfering RNA

RISC- RNA-Induced Silencing Complex

shRNA- Short Hairpin RNA

miRNA- Micro RNA

TH- Tyrosine Hydroxylase

MCS- Multiple Cloning Site

GFP- Green Fluorescent Protein

PCR- Polymerase Chain Reaction

VI. REFERENCES

- [1] S. Dale, W.A. Wilson, A.M. Edelman, D.G. Hardie, Similar substrate recognition motifs for mammalian AMP-activated protein kinase, higher plant HMG-CoA reductase kinase-A, yeast SNF1, and mammalian calmodulin-dependent protein kinase I, *FEBS Lett.* 361 (1995) 191-195.
- [2] J. Zhou, W. Huang, R. Tao, S. Ibaragi, F. Lan, Y. Ido, X. Wu, Y.O. Alekseyev, M.E. Lenburg, G.F. Hu, Z. Luo, Inactivation of AMPK alters gene expression and promotes growth of prostate cancer cells, *Oncogene* 28 (2009) 1993-2002.
- [3] B. Viollet, Y. Ateha, R. Mounier, B. Guigas, E. Zarrinpashneh, S. Horman, L. Lantier, S. Hebrard, J. Devin-Leclerc, C. Beauloye, M. Foretz, F. Andreelli, R. Ventura-Clapier, L. Bertrand, AMPK: Lessons from transgenic and knockout animals, *Front. Biosci.* 14 (2009) 19-44.
- [4] S. Horman, G. Browne, U. Krause, J. Patel, D. Vertommen, L. Bertrand, A. Lavoinne, L. Hue, C. Proud, M. Rider, Activation of AMP-activated protein kinase leads to the phosphorylation of elongation factor 2 and an inhibition of protein synthesis, *Curr. Biol.* 12 (2002) 1419-1423.
- [5] D.G. Hardie, AMP-activated protein kinase: a cellular energy sensor with a key role in metabolic disorders and in cancer, *Biochem. Soc. Trans.* 39 (2011) 1-13.
- [6] G.R. Steinberg, B.E. Kemp, AMPK in Health and Disease, *Physiol. Rev.* 89 (2009) 1025-1078.
- [7] D. Carling, AMP-activated protein kinase: balancing the scales, *Biochimie* 87 (2005) 87-91.

- [8] D.G. Hardie, AMP-activated/SNF1 protein kinases: conserved guardians of cellular energy, *Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol.* 8 (2007) 774-785.
- [9] B. Viollet, F. Andreelli, S.B. Jørgensen, C. Perrin, D. Flamez, J. Mu, J.F. Wojtaszewski, F.C. Schuit, M. Birnbaum, E. Richter, R. Burcelin, S. Vaulont, Physiological role of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK): insights from knockout mouse models, *Biochem. Soc. Trans.* 31 (2003) 216-219.
- [10] K.M. Neurath, M.P. Keough, T. Mikkelsen, K.P. Claffey, AMP-dependent protein kinase alpha 2 isoform promotes hypoxia-induced VEGF expression in human glioblastoma, *Glia* 53 (2006) 733-743.
- [11] S.A. Hawley, F.A. Ross, C. Chevtzoff, K.A. Green, A. Evans, S. Fogarty, M.C. Towler, L.J. Brown, O.A. Ogunbayo, A.M. Evans, D.G. Hardie, Use of cells expressing gamma subunit variants to identify diverse mechanisms of AMPK activation, *Cell Metab.* 11 (2010) 554-565.
- [12] S.H. Park, S.R. Gammon, J.D. Knippers, S.R. Paulsen, D.S. Rubink, W.W. Winder, Phosphorylation-activity relationships of AMPK and acetyl-CoA carboxylase in muscle, *J. Appl. Physiol.* 92 (2002) 2475-2482.
- [13] Emerling BM, Weinberg F, Snyder C, Burgess Z, Mutlu GM, Viollet B, Budinger GR, Chandel NS, Hypoxic activation of AMPK is dependent on mitochondrial ROS but independent of an increase in AMP/ATP ratio, *Free Radic. Biol. Med.* 46 (2009) 1386-1391.
- [14] M. Suter, U. Riek, R. Tuerk, U. Schlattner, T. Wallimann, D. Neumann, Dissecting the role of 5'-AMP for allosteric stimulation, activation, and deactivation of AMP-activated protein kinase, *J. Biol. Chem.* 281 (2006) 32207-32216.
- [15] C. Peers, C.N. Wyatt, A.M. Evans, Mechanisms for acute oxygen sensing in the carotid body, *Respir. Physiol. Neurobiol.* 174 (2010) 292-298.

[16] C. Gonzalez, L. Almaraz, A. Obeso, R. Rigual, Carotid body chemoreceptors: from natural stimuli to sensory discharges, *Physiol. Rev.* 74 (1994) 829-898.

[17] A.M. Evans, K.J. Mustard, C.N. Wyatt, C. Peers, M. Dipp, P. Kumar, N.P. Kinnear, D.G. Hardie, Does AMP-activated protein kinase couple inhibition of mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation by hypoxia to calcium signaling in O₂-sensing cells?, *J. Biol. Chem.* 280 (2005) 41504-41511.

[18] B. Guigas, N. Taleux, M. Foretz, D. Demaille, F. Andreelli, B. Viollet, L. Hue, AMP-activated protein kinase-independent inhibition of hepatic mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation by AICA riboside, *Biochem. J.* 404 (2007) 499-507.

[19] J. Bain, L. Plater, M. Elliott, N. Shpiro, C.J. Hastie, H. McLauchlan, I. Klevernic, J.S. Arthur, D.R. Alessi, P. Cohen, The selectivity of protein kinase inhibitors: a further update, *Biochem. J.* 408 (2007) 297-315.

[20] S.B. Jørgensen, J.F. Wojtaszewski, B. Viollet, F. Andreelli, J.B. Birk, Y. Hellsten, P. Schjerling, S. Vaulont, P.D. Neuffer, E.A. Richter, H. Pilegaard, Effects of alpha-AMPK knockout on exercise-induced gene activation in mouse skeletal muscle, *FASEB J.* 19 (2005) 1146-1148.

[21] A. Fire, S. Xu, M.K. Montgomery, S.A. Kostas, S.E. Driver, C.C. Mello, Potent and specific genetic interference by double-stranded RNA in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Nature* 391 (1998) 806-811.

[22] S.M. Hammond, E. Bernstein, D. Beach, G.J. Hannon, An RNA-directed nuclease mediates post-transcriptional gene silencing in *Drosophila* cells, *Nature* 404 (2000) 293-296.

[23] S.M. Hammond, S. Boettcher, A.A. Caudy, R. Kobayashi, G.J. Hannon, Argonaute2, a link between genetic and biochemical analysis of RNAi, *Science* 293 (2001) 1146-1150.

- [24] M. Scherr, M.A. Morgan, M. Eder, Gene silencing mediated by small interfering RNAs in mammalian cells, *Curr. Med. Chem.* 10 (2003) 245-256.
- [25] N. Doi, S. Zenno, R. Ueda, H. Ohki-Hamazaki, K. Ui-Tei, K. Saigo, Short-interfering-RNA-mediated gene silencing in mammalian cells requires Dicer and eIF2C translation initiation factors, *Curr. Biol.* 13 (2003) 41-46.
- [26] D.D. Rao, J.S. Vorhies, N. Senzer, J. Nemunaitis, siRNA vs. shRNA: similarities and differences, *Adv. Drug Deliv. Rev.* 61 (2009) 746-759.
- [27] E. Bernstein, A.A. Caudy, S.M. Hammond, G.J. Hannon, Role for a bidentate ribonuclease in the initiation step of RNA interference, *Nature* 409 (2001) 363-366.
- [28] T.R. Brummelkamp, R. Bernards, R. Agami, Stable suppression of tumorigenicity by virus-mediated RNA interference, *Cancer Cell* 2 (2002) 243-247.
- [29] T.R. Brummelkamp, R. Bernards, R. Agami, A system for stable expression of short interfering RNAs in mammalian cells, *Science* 296 (2002) 550-553.
- [30] J. Harborth, S.M. Elbashir, K. Vandeburgh, H. Manninga, S.A. Scaringe, K. Weber, T. Tuschl, Sequence, chemical, and structural variation of small interfering RNAs and short hairpin RNAs and the effect on mammalian gene silencing, *Antisense Nucleic Acid Drug Dev.* 13 (2003) 83-105.
- [31] S.M. Elbashir, J. Harbouth, W. Lendeckel, A. Yalcin, K. Weber, T. Tuschl, Duplexes of 21-nucleotide RNAs mediate RNA interference in cultured mammalian cells, *Nature* 411 (2001) 494-498.
- [32] P.J. Paddison, A.A. Caudy, E. Bernstein, G.J. Hannon, D.S. Conklin, Short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs) induce sequence-specific silencing in mammalian cells, *Genes Dev.* 16 (2002) 948-958.
- [33] L. Vucicevic, M. Misirkic, K. Janjetovic, L. Harhaji-Trajkovic, M. Prica, D.

Stevanovic, E. Isenovic, E. Sudar, M. Sumarac-Dumanovic, D. Micic, V. Trajkovic, AMP-activated protein kinase-dependent and –independent mechanisms underlying in vitro antiglioma action of compound C, *Biochem. Pharmacol.* 77 (2009) 1684-1693.

[34] V. Aguilar, S. Alliouachene, A. Sotiropoulos, A. Sobering, Y. Athea, F. Djouadi, S. Miraux, E. Thiaudière, M. Foretz, B. Viollet, P. Diolez, J. Bastin, P. Benit, P. Rustin, D. Carling, M. Sandri, R. Ventura-Clapier, M. Pende, S6 kinase depletion suppresses muscle growth adaptations to nutrient availability by activating AMP kinase, *Cell Metab.* 5 (2007) 476-487.

[35] D.L. Hamilton, K. Abremski, Site-specific recombination by the bacteriophage P1 lox-Cre system: Cre-mediated synapsis of two lox sites, *J. Mol. Biol.* 178 (1984) 481-486.

[36] M. Lewandoski, K.M. Wassarman, G.R. Martin, Zp3-cre, a transgenic mouse line for the activation or inactivation of loxP-flanked target genes specifically in the female germ line, *Curr. Biol.* 7 (1997) 148-151.

[37] H. Gu, J.D. Marth, P.C. Orban, H. Mossmann, K. Rajewsky, Deletion of a DNA polymerase beta gene segment in T cells using cell type-specific gene targeting, *Science* 265 (1994) 103-106.

[38] P.B. Molinoff, J. Axelrod, Biochemistry of catecholamines, *Ann. Rev. Biochem.* 40 (1971) 465-500.

[39] P. Ortega-Sáenz, A. Pascual, R. Gómez-Díaz, J. López-Barneo, Acute oxygen sensing in heme oxygenase-2 null mice, *J. Gen. Physiol.* 128 (2006) 405-411.

[40] J. Lindeberg, D. Usoskin, H. Bengtsson, A. Gustafsson, A. Kylberg, S. Söderström, T. Ebendal, Transgenic expression of cre recombinase from the tyrosine hydroxylase locus, *Genesis* 40 (2004) 67-73.

- [41] A.D. Gultice, K. Kulkarni-Datar, T.L. Brown, Hypoxia-inducible factor 1alpha (HIF1A) mediates distinct steps of rat trophoblast differentiation in gradient oxygen, *Biol. Reprod.* 80 (2009) 184-193.
- [42] M.M. Bradford, A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding, *Anal. Biochem.* 72 (1976) 248-254.
- [43] N.C. Schopman, Y.P. Liu, P. Konstantinova, O. ter Brake, B. Berkhout, Optimization of shRNA inhibitors by variation of the terminal loop sequence, *Antiviral Res.* 86 (2010) 204-211.
- [44] E.P. Geiduscheck, G.P. Tocchini-Valentini, Transcription by RNA polymerase III, *Ann. Rev. Biochem.* 57 (1988) 873-914.
- [45] M. Orth, S.J. Tabrizi, C. Tomlinson, K. Messmer, L.V. Korlipara, A.H. Schapira, J.M. Cooper, G209A mutant alpha synuclein expression specifically enhances dopamine induced oxidative damage, *Neurochem. Int.* 45 (2004) 669-676.
- [46] G. Shaw, S. Morse, M. Ararat, F.L. Graham, Preferential transformation of human neuronal cells by human adenoviruses and the origin of HEK 293 cells, *FASEB J.* 16 (2002) 869-871.
- [47] W.R. Paulding, P.O. Schnell, A.L. Bauer, J.B. Striet, J.A. Nash, A.V. Kuznetsova, M.F. Czyzyk-Krzeska, Regulation of gene expression for neurotransmitters during adaptation to hypoxia in oxygen-sensitive neuroendocrine cells, *Microsc. Res. Tech.* 59 (2002) 178-187.
- [48] C. Wellerdieck, M. Oles, L. Pott, S. Korsching, G. Gisselmann, H. Hatt, Functional expression of odorant receptors of the zebrafish *Danio rerio* and of the nematode *C. elegans* in HEK293 cells, *Chem. Senses* 22 (1997) 467-476.
- [49] J. Ha, S. Daniel, S.S. Broyles, K.H. Kim, Critical phosphorylation sites for acetyl-CoA carboxylase activity, *J. Biol. Chem.* 269 (1994) 22162-22168.

[50] M.R. Paule, R.J. White, Transcription by RNA polymerases I and III, *Nucleic Acids Res.* 28 (2000) 1283-1298.

[51] C. Sjöblom, C.T. Roberts, M. Wikland, S.A. Robertson, Granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor alleviates adverse consequences of embryo culture on fetal growth trajectory and placental morphogenesis, *Endocrinology* 146 (2005) 2142-2153.

[52] C. Lois, E.J. Hong, S. Pease, E.J. Brown, D. Baltimore, Germline transmission and tissue-specific expression of transgenes delivered by lentiviral vectors, *Science* 295 (2002) 868-872.

[53] M. Gossen, J. Bujard, Tight control of gene expression in mammalian cells by tetracycline-responsive promoters, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 89 (1992) 5547-5551.