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# Thrombopoietic Effect of VPAC1 Inhibition during Megakaryopoiesis

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**Running Title**: stimulation of platelet production by VPAC1 inhibition

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# Summary

Megakaryocytes and platelets express the stimulatory G protein (Gs)-coupled VPAC1 receptor, for which the pituitary adenylyl cyclase-activating peptide (PACAP) and vasoactive intestinal peptide (VIP) are agonists. We found that the neuropeptide PACAP and VPAC1 negatively regulate megakaryopoiesis. We demonstrated that inhibition of their physiological pathway has a thrombopoietic effect, in conditions where megakaryopoiesis and thrombopoiesis are impaired, such as chemotherapy-induced thrombocytopenia and congenital thrombocytopenia. In the present study, we explore the thrombopoietic effect of VPAC1 inhibition in a murine model of syngeneic bone marrow (BM) transplantation and in passive immune thrombocytopenia. We demonstrate that the treatment of donor mice with a neutralizing anti-VPAC1 antibody (Ab) stimulates the initial, most critical recovery of the platelets in irradiated mice. In the passive immune thrombocytopenia model, we observe a thrombopoietic effect, resulting in a less severe platelet drop after induction of their removal in the spleen by an anti-platelet Ab. We conclude that inhibition of the physiological PACAP/VPAC1 pathway can stimulate in vivo megakaryopoiesis. This inhibition can be applied to attenuate thrombocytopenia in conditions, in which platelets are destroyed as the major pathogenetic mechanism, e.g. immune thrombocytopenia purpura (ITP) or need to be produced de novo, e.g. after irradiation and BM transplantation.

## Keywords

VPAC1, thrombocytopenia, megakaryopoiesis, platelet, mouse

# Introduction

Megakaryopoiesis and thrombopoiesis are complex processes that involve many thrombopoietic cytokines, including interleukin-3 (IL-3), stem cell factor (SCF), IL-6, IL-11, Fms-related tyrosine kinase 3 ligand (FLT-3 ligand), thrombopoietin (THPO) and many others (Broudy, et al 1995, Kaushansky 1995, Kaushansky 2005, Peeters, et al 2008, Schulze and Shivdasani 2005, Weich, et al 2000). In the 1990s, significant advances were made in understanding the transcriptional basis of hematopoietic cell differentiation (Shivdasani and Orkin 1996). The particular importance of erythromegakaryocyte transcriptional regulators, for example GATA1 and FOG1, in certain stages of megakaryocyte and platelet differentiation, has been described (Chang, et al 2002, Orkin, et al 1998, Vyas, et al 1999). Other transcription factors which play a role during megakaryopoiesis include Fli1, NF-E2, Ets1, Tel and Runx1 (Szalai, et al 2006). Defects in regulators of megakaryopoiesis, for example GATA1 and MPL, the receptor for THPO, result in congenital thrombocytopenia. Patients with nonsense or missense mutations that severely reduce, or obliterate the activity of MPL suffer from congenital amegakaryocytic thrombocytopenia (Ballmaier, et al 2001). The D218Y mutation in GATA1 results in a severe congenital macrothrombocytopenia (Freson, et al 2002). Acquired forms of thrombocytopenia include chemotherapy-induced thrombocytopenia and ITP.

Recently, new strategies were discovered to treat thrombocytopenia in a less obvious way, not by stimulating **THPO** signaling, but by neutralizing physiological inhibitors of megakaryopoiesis, for example platelet factor 4 (Lambert, *et al* 2007) and PACAP (**ADCYAP1**) and VPAC1 (**VIPR1**) (Freson, *et al* 2008). The Gs-coupled VPAC1 receptor is expressed on megakaryocytes and platelets and has 2 agonists: PACAP and VIP, which belong to the glucagon hormone superfamily. Effects of these pleiotropic neuropeptides have been described in many tissues, such as the digestive tract, cardiovascular system, airways, immune system, brain, reproductive system and endocrine glands (Vaudry, *et al* 2009). We previously found an important role for PACAP and its receptor VPAC1 in megakaryopoiesis and platelet function (Freson, *et al* 2004). Upon binding to its Gs-coupled receptor, PACAP increases intracellular cyclic adenosine monophosphate levels and inhibits platelet function and megakaryopoiesis. By

using a VPAC1-neutralizing Ab we were able to achieve the reverse effect, i.e. the stimulation of megakaryopoiesis (Freson, *et al* 2008). We demonstrated such an effect in myelosuppressed mice and rabbits and in a mouse model of GATA1 deficiency characterized by congenital thrombocytopenia (Freson, *et al* 2002, Orkin, *et al* 1998, Vyas, *et al* 1999). These models of thrombocytopenia represent impaired megakaryopoiesis and thrombopoiesis.

In this study we have further explored the thrombopoietic effect of VPAC1 inhibition, which we previously described (Freson, *et al* 2008), in other thrombocytopenia models. To this end, the thrombopoietic activity of anti-VPAC1 treatment was studied in mice, after total body irradiation (TBI), followed by syngeneic bone marrow (BM) transplantation. Platelets are the last blood cells to arise in the peripheral blood (PB), after TBI and BM transplantation, resulting in serious bleeding risks, e.g. in leukemia patients. In addition a murine model of passive immune thrombocytopenia was applied and platelet production was monitored in anti-VPAC1 treated mice.

#### **Material and Methods**

#### Antibodies

The monoclonal IgG1 Ab (clone 23A11) (Freson, *et al* 2008) was obtained in our laboratory from BALB/c mice, immunized with human recombinant VPAC1, coupled tot glutathione S-transferase (GST). This recombinant fusion protein was expressed in *Escherichia coli* and purified by affinity chromatography on immobilized glutathione (Amersham Biosciences, Freiburg, Germany). The primary Ab was purified on protein A Sepharose beads (Amersham Biosciences) and controlled for their reactivity toward VPAC1 by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA). We will refer to this anti-VPAC1 antibody as 23A11. We used an isotype-matched control mouse IgG1 (clone 1C8) (Fischer, *et al* 2007) to which we will refer as 1C8.

# In vitro differentiation of CD34+ into megakaryocytes

Human CD34+ hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs) were isolated from buffy coat bags from peripheral blood (PB) from healthy volunteers by magnetic cell sorting (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA). Isolated CD34+ cells were cultured in StemSpan SFEM medium (Stem cell technologies, Vancouver, Canada), which was supplemented with 20 ng/ml THPO, 10 ng/ml SCF, 10 ng/ml IL-6 and 10 ng/ml FLT-3 (all from Peprotech, London, United Kingdom). On day 6 of culture, cytokines were again added, i.e. 10 ng/ml THPO, 10 ng/ml IL-6 and 10 ng/ml IL-1 $\beta$ . To determine megakaryocyte ploidy, in vitro differentiated megakaryocytes (day 13) were costained with FITC-conjugated CD61 (VI-PL2) (BD Biosciences Pharmingen, Heidelberg, Germany) and propidium iodide (Sigma-Aldrich), and the DNA content was determined by 2-color flow cytometry (Mathur, *et al* 2004). We used Cell Quest software for 2-color immunofluorescence acquisition on a FACSCalibur flow cytometer (both from BD Biosciences Pharmingen) and for data analysis.

Anti-VPAC1 Ab (23A11) (Freson, *et al* 2008) or control Ab (1C8) (Fischer, *et al* 2007) (100 µg/ml) was added on day 0, 6 and 10.

# Electron microscopy (EM) of megakaryocytes

Differentiated megakaryocytes were fixed in 2.5% glutaraldehyde and 0.1 M phospate buffer at 4°C overnight. At 1 hour after fixation in 1% osmium tetroxide and 0.1 M phosphate buffer at 4°C, samples were dehydrated in graded series of alcohol and embedded in epoxy resins. Ultrathin sections were cut, stained with uranyl acetate-lead citrate, and examined using a Zeiss electron microscope (Jena, Germany).

# Hematological investigations

Peripheral citrate-anticoagulated blood samples were obtained from the retro-orbital sinus from mice. A diluted aliquot of whole blood was analyzed on an automated blood cell counter (Cell-Dyn 1300; Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL) to determine leukocyte, erythrocyte and platelet counts, hematocrit and hemoglobin levels.

#### Thpo measurement in plasma

**Thpo** levels were determined in mouse citrated plasma according to the manufacturer's guidelines (*Thpo* Elisa kit, R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN).

Syngeneic BM transplantation after TBI

Female C57/Bl6 mice were given 9 Gy TBI on day -1 and were transplanted via the tail vein with 250,000 whole BM cells derived from female C57/Bl6 mice on day 0. BM was harvested by flushing femur and tibia with D-PBS supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Mice from whom BM was collected (donor mice, D mice) received either 1 mg/kg 23A11 (D+) subcutaneously or vehicle (D-), 3 times a week for 2 weeks. Recipient mice (R) respectively received 1 mg/kg 23A11 (R+) subcutaneously or vehicle (R-), 3 times a week, starting 2 weeks prior to TBI for the entire length of the experiment. As such, 4 groups of animals (D-R-, D+R-, D-R+, D+R+) (n=7 for each group) were created. PB was taken on days -15, -1, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27 and 32.

# Induction of passive immune thrombocytopenia

ITP was induced in female Balb/c mice (15 animals per group) using the anti-platelet Ab MWReg30 (rat anti-mouse integrin  $\alpha_{IIb}$  monoclonal Ab, anti-GPIIB, IgG1, BD Pharmingen), adapted from (Deng and Balthasar 2007). Briefly, MWReg30 was continuously administered using an osmotic pump (Alzet micro osmotic pump, model 1007D; Alzet, Palo Alto, CA) implanted subcutaneously dorsally in the animal. The osmotic pumps were filled with 100 µl MWReg30 (82.5 µg/ml) and human serum albumin (1.5 mg/ml) to prevent absorption of proteins to the device, in sterile saline and then surgically subcutaneously inserted in the mice. Following insertion, the pumps released the MWReg30 solution at a rate of 0.5 µl/h for a duration of 7 days. Mice received 1 mg/kg anti-VPAC1 Ab (n=15 for anti-VPAC1) or control Ab 1C8 (n=15 for control Ab) subcutaneously, 3x/week, starting from day -15 onwards until day 12.

# **Statistics**

We used GraphPad Prism4 software for statistical analysis. Continuous variables with little to mild skewness were summarized as means plus minus SEM and compared by means of the 1-way anova of variance (ANOVA) test, complemented with the Bonferroni multiple comparison t test to identify statistically differences at each individual time point. Data were considered significant in all cases when the P value was less than .05.

# Results

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# Stimulating in vitro megakaryopoiesis by inhibiting VPAC1 signaling

Human CD34+ HSCs, isolated from buffy coat bags of PB were differentiated into megakaryocytes. From day 10 onwards, proplatelet extrusions were visible under a light microscope (see figure 1A). On day 13, formation of fully mature megakaryocytes and platelets was confirmed by EM (see figure 1B and 1C).

To demonstrate the in vitro thrombopoietic effect of inhibiting VPAC1 signaling during megakaryopoiesis, cells were cultured in the presence of control Ab 1C8 and the VPAC1 inhibiting Ab 23A11. By adding the anti-VPAC1 Ab, the autocrine inhibitory effect of PACAP and VIP (Nam, *et al* 2009), the VPAC1 agonists, is blocked. The early stage as well as the late stage of megakaryopoiesis were stimulated by inhibiting VPAC1 signaling since more CD61+ megakaryocytes were generated that showed a higher degree of maturation, i.e. more ploid nuclei. More CD61+ (77.7±3.0% for incubation with 23A11 vs.  $60.3\pm3.3\%$  for incubation with control Ab 1C8, P<0.05) positive cells were generated by inhibiting VPAC1 (see figure 1D for a representative plot). In addition, these cells showed a further stage of maturation since they have higher polyploidy nuclei (see figure 1E for a representative plot). Highly polyploid megakaryocytes responsible for the release of platelets (Mattia, *et al* 2002), i.e. 8N, 16N and 32N megakaryocytes were more abundantly present in cultures where the neutralizing anti-VPAC1 Ab was added vs. control Ab 1C8 (see figure 1F).

# Anti-VPAC1 stimulates megakaryopoiesis in a model of syngeneic BM transplantation

We questioned whether a thrombopoietic effect would be discernible in vivo, for the anti-VPAC1 treatment during the platelet recovery phase following TBI and BM transplantation. Platelets are the last blood cells to recover in these settings, resulting in a serious bleeding risk. A previous study showed that besides megakaryocytes and platelets (Park, *et al* 1996), also HSCs (Kawakami, *et al* 2004) express the VPAC1 receptor. VIP was also found to inhibit the proliferation of BM progenitors through VPAC1 (Rameshwar, *et al* 2002). We previously showed that more megakaryocyte colonies are generated from murine BM-derived Sca1+ cells when 23A11 is added versus a control Ab (Freson, *et al* 2008). Mice were irradiated with 9 Gy TBI and consequently transplanted with whole BM derived from D+ or D- donor mice, i.e. the donor mice being treated or not with the neutralizing anti-VPAC1 Ab. The same applies to the recipient mice who were either R+ or R-, i.e. treated or not by 23A11.

From our data, we can deduce that the platelet recovery after syngeneic BM transplantation is enhanced, if the BM that was given to the irradiated mouse was derived from an anti-VPAC1 treated animal (see figure 2). Administration of the anti-VPAC1 Ab (23A11) to the recipient mice themselves didn't have any additional effect regarding the platelet recovery. More precisely, the platelet nadir at day 11 post transplantation was attenuated in D-R+ vs. D+R+ mice (18±2 vs. 30±11 10<sup>9</sup> platelets/L, P<0.05) and D-Rvs. D+R+ (18 $\pm$ 3 vs. 30 $\pm$ 11 10<sup>9</sup> platelets/L, P<0.05) mice (see figure 2B). The initial, most critical platelet recovery at day 15 however was enhanced in all D+ mice, that is D-R- vs. D+R- (58 $\pm$ 5 vs. 135 $\pm$ 28 10<sup>9</sup> platelets/L, P<0.05), D-R+ vs. D+R+ (79 $\pm$ 13 vs. 179±31 10<sup>9</sup> platelets/L, P<0.05) and D-R- vs. D+R+ mice (58±5 vs. 179±31 10<sup>9</sup> platelets/L, P<0.01) (see figure 2C). This suggests that the megakaryopoiesis of the transplanted donor BM cells, engrafting in the irradiated recipient mice, needs to be stimulated in order to have an effect on the platelet recovery in the R mice. This finding is comparable to Thpo: only when D mice are treated, an effect can be observed in the platelet recovery (Fibbe, et al 1995, Schuster, et al 2002, Wolff, et al 2001). Red and white blood cell recovery did not differ between the groups (figure 2D and 2E).

# Anti-VPAC1 stimulates megakaryopoiesis in a murine model of ITP

Currently, **THPO** mimetics are approved for the treatment of chronic ITP in humans (Bussel, *et al* 2007, Bussel, *et al* 2006, Kuter, *et al* 2008). We already demonstrated an effect of VPAC1 inhibition on platelet recovery after myelosuppressive and myeloablative therapy. We next choose to verify this effect in a totally different mechanism of thrombocytopenia, i.e. ITP where the main cause is an increased destruction of platelets and not mainly from a defective megakaryocyte and platelet formation. To induce ITP in mice, we used the MWReg30 anti-platelet Ab. As previously described (Teeling, *et al* 2001), the platelets reach about 25% of their initial level after 3 to 4 days, using this protocol. When megakaryopoiesis is stimulated by giving the anti-VPAC1 23A11 vs. control Ab to the animals, the platelet drop is less severe, indicative of a thrombopoietic effect (see figure 3). At day 3, platelet counts were  $131\pm10 \ 10^9/L$  for

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control Ab vs.  $197\pm22 \ 10^9$ /L for 23A11 (P<0.05) and at day 4 they were  $170\pm17 \ 10^9$ /L for control Ab vs.  $250\pm25 \ 10^9$ /L for 23A11 (P<0.05). The thrombopoietic effect remained noticeable when platelet counts had already been stabilized to normal levels: on day 8, platelet counts were  $888\pm71 \ 10^9$ /L for control Ab vs.  $1167\pm73 \ 10^9$ /L for 23A11 (P<0.05). On day 10 was this respectively  $1013\pm76 \ 10^9$ /L and  $1293\pm50 \ 10^9$ /L for 23A11 (P<0.01). Animals treated with 23A11 vs. vehicle showed no differences in plasma Thpo levels (283 ± 11 pg/ml for vehicle vs.  $307 \pm 20 \ pg/ml$  for 23A11 on day 6) and 23A11 does not affect binding of MWReg30 to murine platelets (data not shown).

# Discussion

We found that inhibiting VPAC1 signaling using a neutralizing Ab stimulates normal megakaryopoiesis, in vitro, via increased megakaryocyte generation and production of megakaryocytes with a higher polyploidy.

As such, we demonstrate that the early stage of megakaryopoiesis, i.e. the generation and proliferation of megakaryocytes, as well as the late stage of megakaryopoiesis, i.e. the maturation of megakaryocytes can be stimulated by inhibiting VPAC1 signaling. We believe that this is the reason why the anti-VPAC1 treatment could be effective in different pathologies of thrombocytopenia.

The main regulator of thrombopoiesis is THPO. The use of THPO mimetics is well established in ITP. THPO mimetics, peptide (Nplate®, Amgen) (Wang, *et al* 2004) or non-peptide (Promacta®, GSK) (Bussel, *et al* 2007) have quite recently been approved by the FDA, for the treatment of chronic ITP. We, therefore, also questioned whether it is possible to treat ITP by interfering with a less pronounced and negative player of megakaryopoiesis, i.e. the PACAP/VPAC1 pathway, for which we had shown its efficacy in other models of platelet formation (Freson, *et al* 2008). In our previous studies we have ruled out non specific effects of using 23A11 since we also showed the thrombopoietic effect by using an anti-PACAP Abs (Freson, *et al* 2008).

In the present study, we have used 2 different murine models of thrombocytopenia to investigate the thrombopoietic effect of inhibiting VPAC1 signaling during megakaryopoiesis. In the past, we already demonstrated the therapeutic potential of interfering with this physiological pathway in chemotherapy-induced thrombocytopenia

and in GATA1 deficiency, a congenital form of thrombocytopenia (Freson, et al 2008). Both models of thrombocytopenia represent impaired megakaryopoiesis: platelets are not formed in normal quantities. We continued exploring the thrombopoietic effect of this strategy in another model of thrombocytopenia as a result of a totally different mechanism; i.e. with a proper platelet formation, but undergoing an increased destruction after release in the PB. To achieve this goal, we used a murine model of passive immune thrombocytopenia. The mouse model of ITP used in this study is a passive model of sustained thrombocytopenia, adapted from (Deng and Balthasar 2007), where MWReg30, a rat monoclonal Ab directed against murine GPIIb/IIIa is administered via a constantrate, continuous subcutaneous infusion. We observed an attenuated drop of platelet levels at the time points were the platelets were the lowest, that is at day 3 & 4 after starting the MWReg30 administration. The thrombopoietic effects were still obvious, even when platelet levels had risen again to normal levels. As such, we show that by targeting the PACAP/VPAC1 pathway, a physiological inhibitor of megakaryopoiesis, a thrombopoietic effect can be established in settings in which THPO, the main key regulator of thrombopoiesis, is effective as well.

We subsequently validated this thrombopoietic effect of anti-VPAC1 in mice receiving BM after TBI. The time to achieve platelets' complete reconstitution imposes a serious problem in leukemia patients who receive TBI prior to a BM transplant. Platelets are the last blood cells to recover, thereby causing real bleeding episodes. We questioned whether we could ameliorate the platelet recovery in a mouse model, mimicking this condition, i.e. in mice receiving TBI and a whole BM transplant. In summary, we can state that BM derived from anti-VPAC1 treated mice gives rise to an enhanced initial platelet recovery in irradiated recipient mice. VPAC1 is expressed on HSCs (Kawakami, *et al* 2004) and VIP was found to inhibit the proliferation of BM progenitors through VPAC1 (Rameshwar, *et al* 2002). We previously found that by adding 23A11 to in vitro cultures, more megakaryocyte colonies are being generated from Sca1+ (Freson, *et al* 2008), similar to the generation of more CD61+ megakaryocytes in human cultures, suggesting the stimulatory effect of VPAC1 inhibition on stem cells and the early stage of megakaryopoiesis. We hypothesize that it is for this reason that in the murine BM transplantation model, we see an effect only when the donor BM is treated. Although the

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effect seems discrete, the initial recovery from low platelet numbers is most critical and a small improvement can indeed make a difference with regard to the bleeding risk. The finding that in this mouse model, the donor mice needed to be treated in order to see an effect on the platelets counts in the recipient mice is in concordance with similar observations made for **Thpo** in a mouse model (Fibbe, *et al* 1995). The PACAP/VPAC1 axis acts independently from **THPO**; whether their thrombopoietic effects, by inhibition and stimulation respectively, are additive remains elusive.

In summary, our results demonstrate that by inhibiting the VPAC1 signaling, megakaryopoiesis can be stimulated. This effect can prevent immune thrombocytopenia in mice and increases the initial platelet recovery in mice receiving BM from treated donor mice. There is no association between anti-VPAC1 treatment and stimulation of the Thpo pathway (Freson, et al 2008). Inhibition of VPAC1 interferes with the generation and proliferation of megakaryocytes, i.e. the early stage of megakaryopoiesis as well as the maturation and differentiation, i.e. the later stage of megakaryopoiesis, while THPO preferentially stimulates the megakaryocyte proliferation. As such, the anti-VPAC1 treatment and THPO may be complementary to each other. We here show that anti-VPAC1 treatment is effective in models of thrombocytopenia where THPO is effective as well, such as ITP and chemotherapy induced thrombocytopenia (Freson, et al 2008, Kuter and Begley 2002). In addition, anti-VPAC1-treatment is effective in models of thrombocytopenia where THPO is not clinically effective, i.e. myeloablation induced thrombocytopenia (Freson, et al 2008, Kuter and Begley 2002) and GATA1 deficiency, a congenital thrombocytopenia. Thus, we show that anti-VPAC1 treatment results in broad spectrum thrombopoietic effects, broader than those by THPO.

As such, this work illustrates the potential for a less obvious player of megakaryopoiesis to be targeted in the prevention of thrombocytopenia of different causes and this even in pathologies in which THPO is unsuccessful as treatment.

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# **Figure legends**

# Figure 1: In vitro thrombopoietic effect of VPAC1 signaling inhibition.

Human buffy coat PB derived CD34+ were cultured in StemSpan liquid medium supplemented with cytokines. From day 10 onwards large proplatelet extrusion were visible using a light microscope. (A) Light microscopy on day 13 shows the presence of large proplatelet extrusions arising from the megakaryocytes. This confirms the complete maturation of the CD34+ cells into the megakaryocytic lineage. Magnification: 200x. (B) EM analysis of the cultures reveals fully maturated megakaryocytes. Demarcation membranes are fully developed as shown by arrows in this picture. Alpha- and dense granules are indicated by triangles. (C) Release of platelets from these megakaryocytes was confirmed by EM.

Inhibiting VPAC1 signaling during megakaryopoiesis shows a thrombopoietic effect since more megakaryocytes were generated which also show a higher degree of maturation. (D) After 13 days of culture, more CD61+ megakaryocytes were formed in the presence of 23A11 vs. 1C8. Panel D shows a representative FACS plot. (E) In addition, CD61+ megakaryocytes showed more polyploid nuclei when the anti-VPAC1 Ab was added to the culture as seen in this representative FACS histogram. (F) After 13 days of culture, more highly polyploid CD61+ megakaryocytes were generated in the presence of the neutralizing anti-VPAC1 Ab 23A11 (black) vs. a control Ab 1C8 (white). This effect is here shown as the expansion factor of each n-ploid megakaryocyte population normalized to the initial amount of CD34+ HSCs. Abs were added (100  $\mu$ g/ml) on days 0, 6 and 10 of the CD34+ cultures. Each point represents the mean expansion factor of CD61+ megakaryocytes of each ploidy level plus or minus SEM of 3 experiments. \*\*P<0.01, \*\*\*P<0.001.

# Figure 2: Anti-VPAC1 stimulates megakaryopoiesis in a model of syngeneic BM transplantation.

(A) Panel A shows the overall platelet recovery of all animals, i.e. D-R-, D+R-, D-R+ and D+R+ mice (n=7 for each group). Mice from whom BM was collected (donor mice, D mice) received either 23A11 (D+) or vehicle (D-) prior to collection. Recipient mice (R) respectively received 23A11 (R+) or vehicle (R-), starting 2 weeks prior to TBI for

the entire length of the experiment. (B) platelet nadir at day 11 post transplantation. D+R+ mice show an attenuated platelet nadir compared to D-R+ and D-R- mice. (C) Initial platelet recovery at day 15 post transplantation. When donor mice are treated with the anti-VPAC1 Ab, they show an increased platelet recovery. \*: P<0.05; \*\*: P<0.01. (D) Red blood cell recovery, shown as hematocrit (HCT), as well as white blood cell recovery (E) were unaffected by the anti-VPAC1 treatment.

# Figure 3: Anti-VPAC1 stimulates megakaryopoiesis in a murine model of ITP.

Time represents hours after insertion of the osmotic pump filled with the anti-platelet Ab. Full line represents platelet numbers of mice injected with the control Ab, dashed line represents anti-VPAC1 Ab (n=15 for each group). Mice receiving the anti-VPAC1 treatment showed a less severe drop in platelets at day 3 and 4 and significant higher platelet counts at day 8 and 10, when platelets count were already back to normal. \*: P<0.05; \*\*: P<0.01.









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