

Different functions for the thyroid hormone receptors TR α and TR β in the control of thyroid hormone production and post-natal development

Karine Gauthier, Olivier Chassande¹,
Michela Plateroti, Jean-Paul Roux²,
Claude Legrand, Bertrand Pain,
Bernard Rousset³, Roy Weiss⁴,
Jacqueline Trouillas³ and Jacques Samarut

CNRS UMR 49-INRA LA 913, Ecole Normale Supérieure, 46 allée d'Italie, 69364 Lyon cedex, ²INSERM U403, Hôpital Edouard Herriot, Lyon, ³INSERM U369, Faculté de Médecine, RTH Laennec, Lyon, France and ⁴Thyroid Unit, MC 3090, University of Chicago, Chicago IL 60637, USA

¹Corresponding author
e-mail: ochassan@ens-lyon.fr

K.Gauthier and O.Chassande contributed equally to this work

The biological activities of thyroid hormones are thought to be mediated by receptors generated by the TR α and TR β loci. The existence of several receptor isoforms suggests that different functions are mediated by specific isoforms and raises the possibility of functional redundancies. We have inactivated both TR α and TR β genes by homologous recombination in the mouse and compared the phenotypes of wild-type, and single and double mutant mice. We show by this method that the TR β receptors are the most potent regulators of the production of thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH). However, in the absence of TR β , the products of the TR α gene can fulfill this function as, in the absence of any receptors, TSH and thyroid hormone concentrations reach very high levels. We also show that TR β , in contrast to TR α , is dispensable for the normal development of bone and intestine. In bone, the disruption of both TR α and TR β genes does not modify the maturation delay observed in TR α ^{-/-} mice. In the ileum, the absence of any receptor results in a much more severe impairment than that observed in TR α ^{-/-} animals. We conclude that each of the two families of proteins mediate specific functions of triiodothyronine (T3), and that redundancy is only partial and concerns a limited number of functions.

Keywords: bone/intestine/knockout/thyroid hormone receptor/TSH

Introduction

Thyroid hormones are known to induce metamorphosis in amphibians by mediating remodelling of specific tissues and organs (for review see Tata, 1993; Kaltenbach, 1996). Triiodothyronine (T3) is essential for post-natal development of mammals, as hypothyroidism leads to growth retardation and impaired neurogenesis (Legrand, 1986). T3 is also involved in many aspects of adult life. In humans, hypothyroidism affects the function of many

organs and results in alterations of thermogenesis and behaviour (Legrand, 1986).

The functions of T3 are mediated by three nuclear thyroid receptors, TR α 1, TR β 1 and TR β 2, encoded by two genes, TR α and TR β , respectively (Sap *et al.*, 1986; Weinberger *et al.*, 1986). The TR β locus generates the β 1 and β 2 receptors by using two different promoters and alternative splicing. The TR α locus generates the α 1 receptor and three non-T3 binding proteins: TR α 2, which results from alternative splicing of the TR α primary transcript (Koenig *et al.*, 1989; Lazar *et al.*, 1989); and TR $\Delta\alpha$ 1 and TR $\Delta\alpha$ 2 transcripts, which are generated from an internal promoter located in intron 7 of the TR α locus (Chassande *et al.*, 1997). The thyroid hormone receptors belong to the family of nuclear receptors which includes retinoic acid receptors, 9-*cis* retinoic acid receptors, vitamin D3 receptors and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (Laudet *et al.*, 1992). All these receptors contain a DNA-binding domain and a ligand-binding domain; they mediate ligand-dependent transcriptional control of target genes (Mangelsdorf *et al.*, 1995). The β 1 and β 2 receptors only differ in their N-terminal region. The α and β receptors display remarkably conserved sequences in their DNA-binding, ligand-binding and ligand-dependent trans-activation domains, but their sequences differ completely in the N-terminal region. The consequences of these structural homologies is that all three receptors bind the same ligand and the same motifs on DNA. Despite these similarities, recent *in vivo* investigations of the respective functions of these receptors have suggested that each of them is likely to mediate a limited number of the physiological activities of T3.

The TRs not only mediate the action of T3 but also play a role in maintaining the concentration of ligand at a constant level. This is achieved by feedback regulation involving pituitary thyroid stimulating hormone (TSH). T3 negatively controls the synthesis and secretion of TSH and thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH) at the level of pituitary and hypothalamus, respectively, through a negative feedback loop (Lezoualc'h *et al.*, 1992; Scanlon and Toft, 1996). The disruption of the TR β gene leads to hyperthyroxinemia (Forrest *et al.*, 1996; Weiss *et al.*, 1998). In contrast, mice with targeted disruption of the TR α 1 and TR $\Delta\alpha$ 1 genes (TR α 1^{-/-}) exhibit a moderate hypothyroxinemia and mild hypothyroidism (Wikstrom *et al.*, 1998), and mice lacking both TR α 1 and TR α 2 display hypothyroxinemia which increases upon aging and severe hypothyroidism (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). These data suggest that the products of both the α and β genes are involved, although in different ways, in the control of TSH production.

Other physiological functions are differentially affected by the deletion of either of the receptors. The inactivation of the TR β gene results in impairment of the auditory

function, but no alteration in development, metabolism or neurological functions has been described in these animals (Forrest *et al.*, 1996). *TR α 1*^{-/-} mice show an abnormal heart rate and lower body temperature (Wikstrom *et al.*, 1998). Mice which lack both the *TR α 1* and the *TR α 2* isoforms (*TR α* ^{-/-}) exhibit growth retardation, a lower body temperature, a delayed maturation of bone and intestine and they die shortly after weaning (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). From these studies, it is clear that α and β receptors are differentially involved in the control of developmental, endocrine and metabolic processes.

The difference in the pattern of expression of the three receptors may partly account for these functional differences. The pleiotropic effect of the mutation in *TR α* is consistent with the wide distribution of *TR α* transcripts, whereas the more limited alterations generated by the ablation of the *TR β* gene are in agreement with the more restricted pattern of expression observed for *TR β* transcripts. A few organisms and tissues such as early chick embryos (Forrest *et al.*, 1991; Flamant and Samarut, 1998) and rat cerebellum (Bradley *et al.*, 1989) express only α isoforms but most tissues express several isoforms with varying ratios. Redundancy may occur in tissues where both α and β receptors are expressed.

To investigate the respective roles of the *TR α* and *TR β* genes, we have generated mice with a targeted disruption of the *TR β* gene and, using the previously described *TR α* ^{-/-} mice, produced double mutant mice. We have compared the phenotypes of wild-type, *TR α* ^{-/-}, *TR β* ^{-/-} and *TR α* ^{-/-}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice, and investigated the pituitary and thyroid functions of these mice in order to analyse the respective parts played by the α and β receptors in the control of the production of thyroid hormones. We have also compared the effects of the single and double mutations on the maturation of bone and intestine, in order to analyse potential functional redundancies between α and β receptors in these organs.

Results

Production of mice with inactivated *TR β*

To inactivate the *TR β* gene, a recombination cassette containing both a *lacZ* coding sequence and a *Neo*^R gene driven by the β -actin promoter was introduced downstream of exon 3 (Figure 1A). The presence of two polyadenylation sites downstream of the *lacZ* and *Neo*^R genes, respectively, was designed to prevent further transcription of both *TR β 1* and *TR β 2* mRNAs. Moreover, the region of the gene which encodes the DNA-binding domain of the receptors was removed in the replacement vector, to prevent the production of a chimeric protein that could potentially compete with other receptors for the binding to DNA. Two independent clones of recombinant embryonic stem (ES) cell clones were isolated and injected into blastocysts. Heterozygous mice were derived in an inbred 129SV background. Homozygous animals were obtained by intercrossing heterozygous animals (Figure 1B). As previously described (Forrest *et al.*, 1996), homozygous animals were fertile and displayed hyperthyroxinemia.

Production of mice with both inactivated *TR α* and *TR β*

TR α ^{+/+}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice were first crossed with *TR α* ^{+/-}*TR β* ^{+/+} mice to generate double heterozygous animals, which

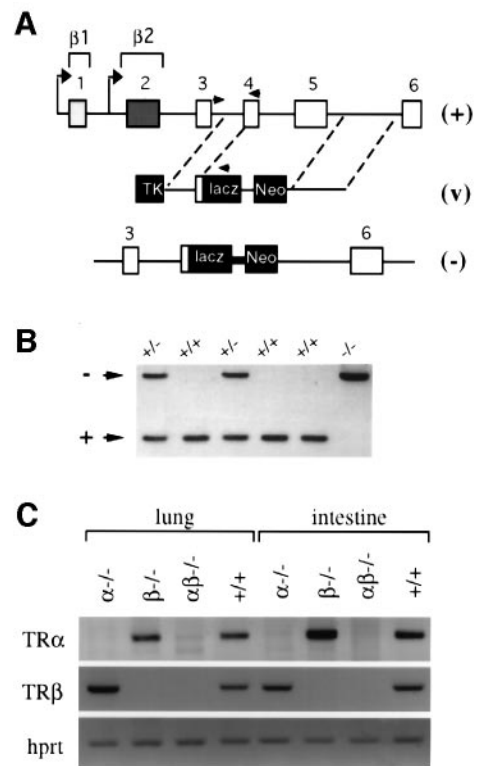


Fig. 1. Disruption of the *TR β* gene by homologous recombination. (A) Diagram of the *TR β* gene. Large arrows represent the two alternative transcriptional initiation sites used to generate the β 1 and β 2 transcripts. Arrowheads represent the position of the oligonucleotides used to identify the wild-type and mutant alleles by PCR. (B) Genotypes of the progenies of the *TR β* ^{+/-} intercrosses. The upper band ('-') is the mutant 1.2 kb fragment amplified with oligonucleotides β i3 and lacZAS. The lower band ('+') is the wild-type 210 bp fragment amplified using the β e5 and β e5A primers. (C) Expression of the *TR α* and *TR β* transcripts in wild-type and mutant mice. The *TR α* and *TR β* transcripts (lines) were amplified in lung and intestine from *TR α* ^{+/-}, *TR β* ^{-/-}, double mutant and wild-type mice (columns).

were fertile and intercrossed to yield viable and fertile *TR α* ^{+/-}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice. These latter mice were further intercrossed to generate double homozygous animals. *TR α* ^{-/-}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice were born alive with no obvious morphological or physiological alterations. Among 148 *TR β* ^{-/-} pups, 45 (30.4%), 69 (46.6%) and 34 (23%) were *TR α* ^{+/+}, *TR α* ^{+/-} and *TR α* ^{-/-}, respectively. The newborn mice were able to move and suckle normally, compared with *TR β* ^{-/-} or wild-type mice. These data show that the absence of both *TR α* and *TR β* receptors does not impair the embryonic development of the mouse.

RT-PCR experiments were designed to monitor the expression of the transcripts produced from the *TR α* and *TR β* loci. Figure 1C shows that no transcript containing sequences downstream of the *lacZNeo*^R cassette was detected in intestine or lung from *TR β* ^{-/-} or *TR α* ^{-/-}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice.

Altered growth rate and post-natal death in *TR α* ^{-/-}*TR β* ^{-/-} mice

There was no obvious difference in the growth rates of wild-type and *TR β* ^{-/-} animals, respectively (data not shown), in agreement with previous observations (Forrest *et al.*, 1996). As previously described for the *TR α* ^{-/-} mice,

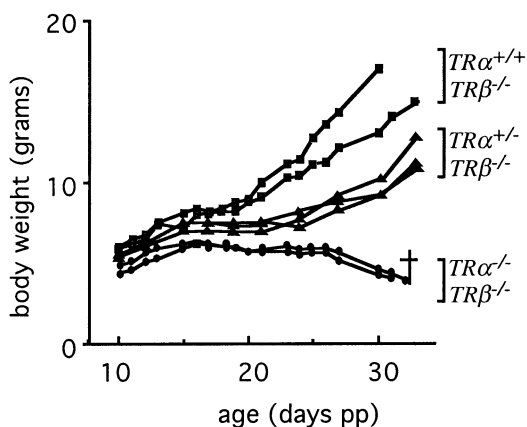


Fig. 2. Growth curves of the seven pups' progeny resulting from a $TR\alpha^{+/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice intercross. Squares, $TR\beta^{-/-}$ animals; triangles, $TR\beta^{-/-}TR\alpha^{+/-}$ animals; circles, $TR\beta^{-/-}TR\alpha^{-/-}$ animals.

the newborn double mutant animals exhibited an altered growth rate. Until the age of 15 days, the difference in body weight between $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and double mutant mice was moderate (Figure 2). From this age on, the growth of double mutants was stopped and after 3 weeks a decrease in body weight was observed, leading to death by the age of 5 weeks. Growth of the $TR\alpha^{+/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice was slower than that of $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice.

As for the $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice, morphological examination of skeleton, liver, heart, lung and kidneys of 3-week-old $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice showed that these organs did not reveal overt abnormalities despite a significant reduction in size compared with wild-type or $TR\beta^{-/-}$ animals (data not shown).

Hyperproduction of TSH and thyroid hormones in $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice

We showed previously that from the age of 3 weeks $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were progressively becoming hypothyroid. By the age of 5 weeks, plasma thyroid hormone concentrations reached values representing ~30% of hormone levels in normal mice (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). On the contrary, elevated plasma concentrations of TSH, T3 and thyroxin (T4) have been reported for $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (Forrest *et al.*, 1996). We measured the plasma concentrations of these hormones in 3-week-old wild-type, $TR\alpha^{-/-}$, $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 3). In these experiments, comparison of the concentrations of TSH and thyroid hormones in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice versus wild-type mice did not have any statistical significance, as assessed by an unpaired *t*-test ($p > 0.37$ for the three parameters). This was due to the large variance and the low number of animals tested. Comparisons of all parameters in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ versus wild-type on the one hand, $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ and $TR\beta^{-/-}$ versus $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ on the other, were meaningful as assessed by *p* values < 0.001 (see Figure 3). Comparison of $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ versus $TR\beta^{-/-}$ was valid for T3 and T4 but not for TSH. In agreement with the observations from others (Forrest *et al.*, 1996; Weiss *et al.*, 1998), TSH, T4 and T3 concentrations in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice were increased 3- to 6-fold compared with normal controls (Figure 3). In double mutant mice, both TSH and thyroid hormone concentration were surprisingly high. Plasma T4 and T3 levels were ~10-fold higher than those of normal mice, whereas

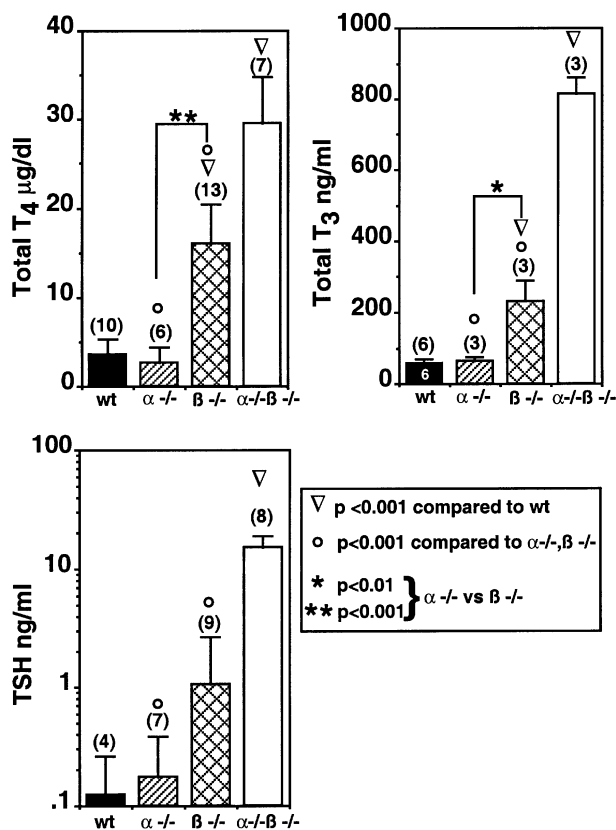


Fig. 3. T3, T4 and TSH are markedly increased in mice lacking $TR\beta$ receptors. Thyroid hormones (total T4, total T3) and TSH concentrations in serum from 3-week-old wild-type (wt; black bars), $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ (hatched bars), $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (cross-hatched bars) or double mutant mice (white bars). The number of animals used for each measurement is indicated in parentheses on the top of each bar. Statistical analysis was performed using an unpaired *t*-test to assess the significance of the differences observed between the values obtained in the different genotypes.

plasma TSH concentration was increased by >100-fold (Figure 3).

Histological features of the thyroid in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$, $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and double mutants

At the autopsy of 3-week-old mice, gross examination revealed an enlargement of the thyroid gland in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice compared with wild-type mice, whereas in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice the thyroid gland was much smaller and could not be distinguished from the muscular and the adipose surrounding tissues. Histological comparison of the largest sections of the tracheal block confirmed the diffuse hyperplasia of the thyroid gland in the $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (Figure 4, compare C1 with A1) and in the $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (compare D1 with A1 in Figure 4), in contrast to the hypoplasia observed in the thyroid gland of the $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 4, compare B1 with A1). On the high magnification, the follicles in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice were small and disorganized (Figure 4, compare B2 with A2). $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and double mutants exhibited an increase in the number of follicles but the thyroid glands of these animals differed in size and content of the follicles, aspects of colloid and development of vascularization (Figure 4, compare C2 and D2 with A2). In agreement with the observations of Forrest *et al.* (1996), Figure 4C2 clearly shows an increase in size of the follicles in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ compared with wild-type

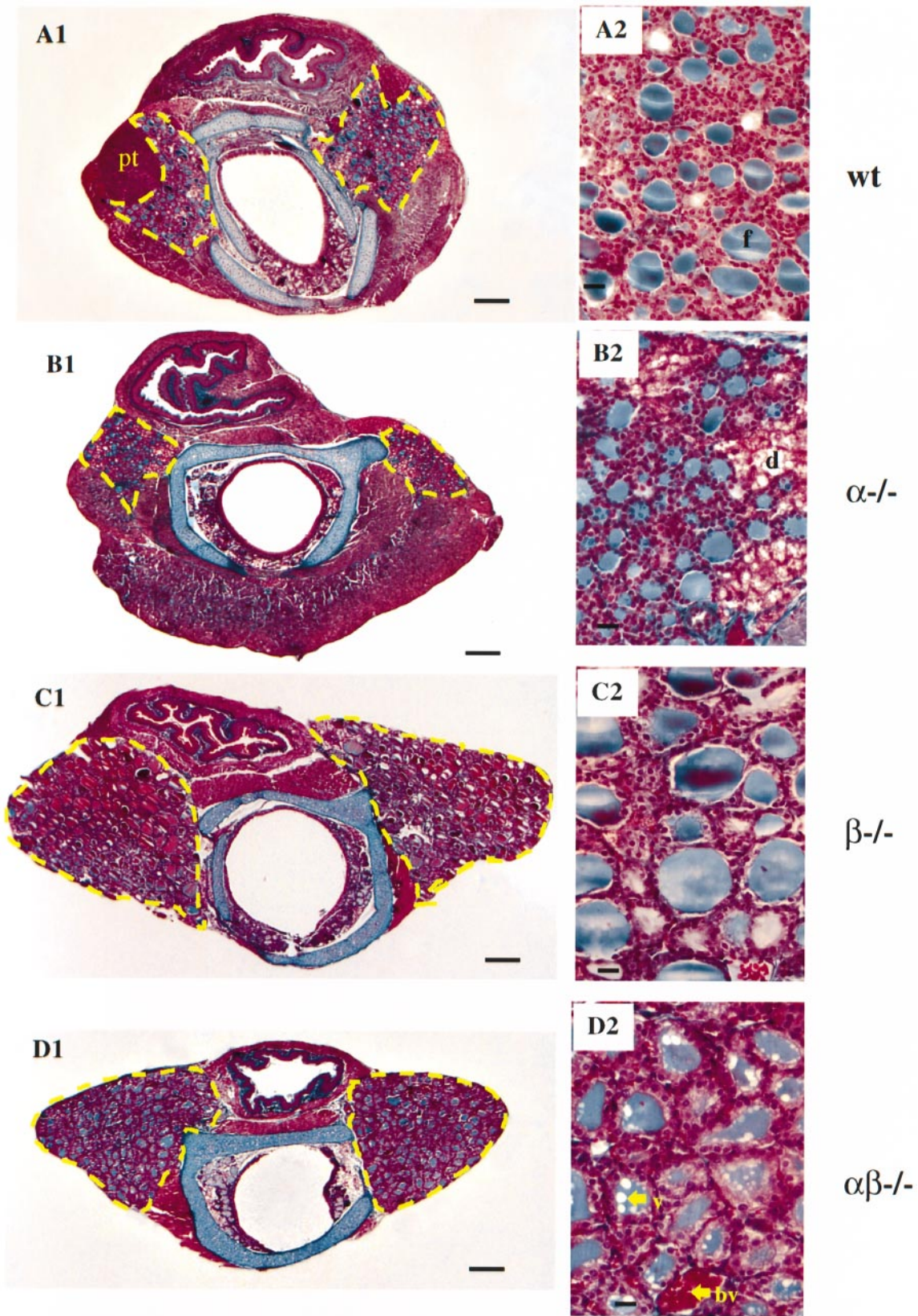


Fig. 4. Histology of the thyroid gland in TR mutants. Transverse sections through the thyroid trachea block of a 3-week-old control mouse (A), and $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ (B), $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (C) and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ (D) mutant mice. The $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (C1) and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ (D1) exhibited a bilateral thyroid enlargement and the $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ (B1) exhibited a moderate but clear hypoplasia, compared with controls (A1). Scale bars in A1–D1, 200 μ m. pt: parathyroid gland. Higher magnification showed that enlargement was due to increased number and size of follicles (f) in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (C2), compared with controls (A2). In $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mutants (D2), small follicles exhibited signs of hyperactivity: colloid vacuoles (v), cuboid epithelium and hypervascularization (bv). Scale bars in A2–D2, 20 μ m.

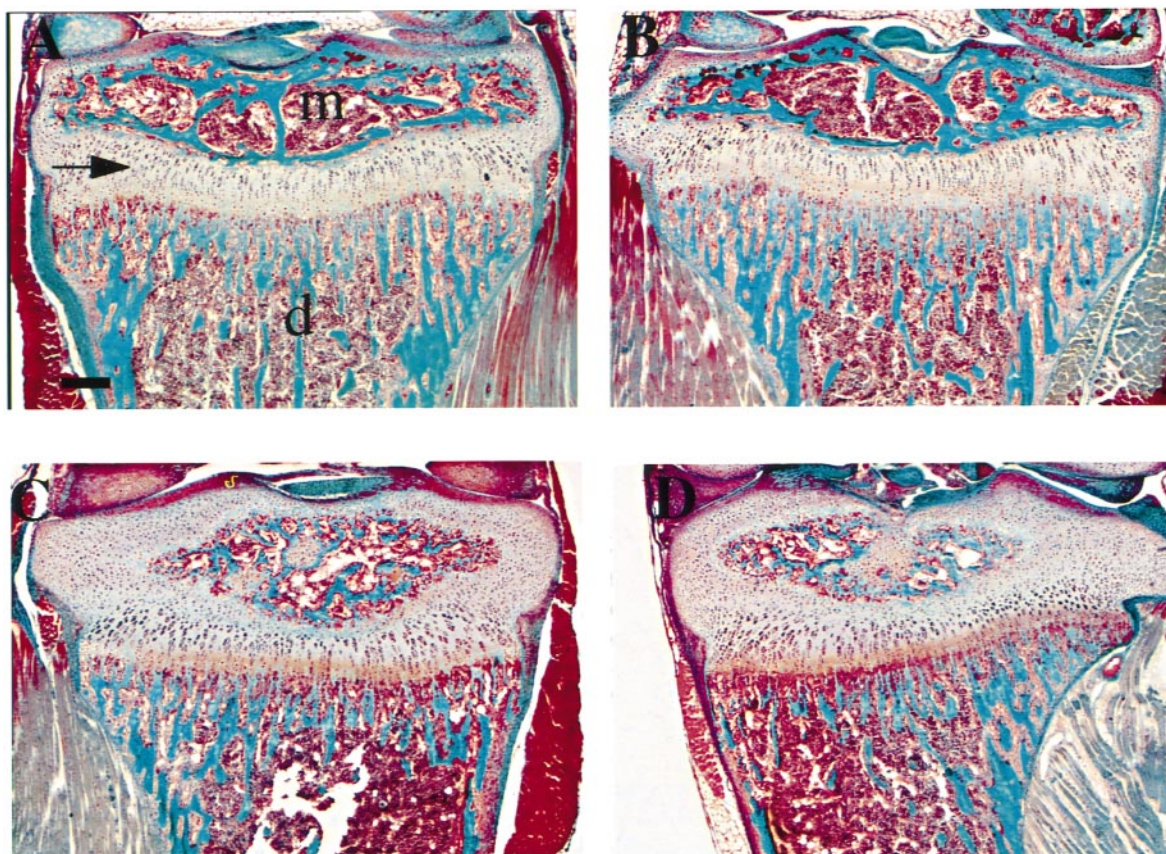


Fig. 5. Bone development is impaired in double mutant as in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Longitudinal bone sections (7 μm) of wild-type (A), $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (B), $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ (C) and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ (D) mice. Bar, 200 μm . m, metaphysis; d, diaphysis. The horizontal arrow indicates the growth plate.

mice (Figure 4A2). In $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 4D2), the follicles were smaller and contained a less abundant colloid with vacuoles near the epithelium. The capillaries filled with red cells seemed more numerous in $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ than in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice. Active colloid resorption and increased vascularity observed in the thyroid gland of double mutant animals are consistent with hyperactivity.

Delayed maturation of bone and intestine in $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice

The overall morphology of the skeleton was not disturbed in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ or in double mutant animals. Histological examination of the tibia of $TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice did not reveal any difference compared with the wild-type animals (Figure 5A and B). In contrast, the tibia of $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ mice exhibited impaired development of epiphyseal bone centres characterized by a hypertrophied cartilage associated with a low ossification (Figure 5D). This phenotype is identical to the one observed in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 5C; Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). This study was carried out with 2-week-old animals. At this age, $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ and wild-type animals have similar thyroid hormone plasma concentrations (data not shown), avoiding any interference of hypothyroidism with the phenotype.

Morphological appearance of the small intestine in the four groups of 2-week-old animals was also studied. As previously described, $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ animals showed reduced length of the intestine as well as a greater fragility

compared with the wild-types. This was also observed in the double mutant mice. On the contrary, we did not observe any difference between wild-type and $TR\beta^{-/-}$ animals. Histological analysis was then conducted at the proximal and distal levels of the small intestine and in the proximal colon. In accordance with previous observations, the colon was not affected by the receptor deficiency. Here we show histological staining at the distal ileum level (Figure 6). The intestinal size and the length of the crypt-villus unit was reduced in the $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ compared with wild-type mice (Figure 6, C and D versus A and B). On the contrary, $TR\beta^{-/-}$ animals did not show such intestinal alterations (Figure 6E and F). The intestines of the double knockout mice displayed a histological impairment similar to $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice at the proximal jejunum level (data not shown; Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). Strikingly, a much more dramatic alteration was observed in the distal ileum of double mutant mice compared with $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice (Figure 6G–I). This severe phenotype was characterized by very few and short villi-lined, flat epithelial cells (Figure 6I). The thickness of the external muscle coats in double mutants was similar to $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ DI (Figure 6H versus D).

Discussion

Unliganded $TR\beta$ is not responsible for the phenotype resulting from the disruption of the $TR\alpha$ gene

We have previously described a severe phenotype in mice lacking the $TR\alpha 1$ and $TR\alpha 2$ proteins (Fraichard *et al.*,

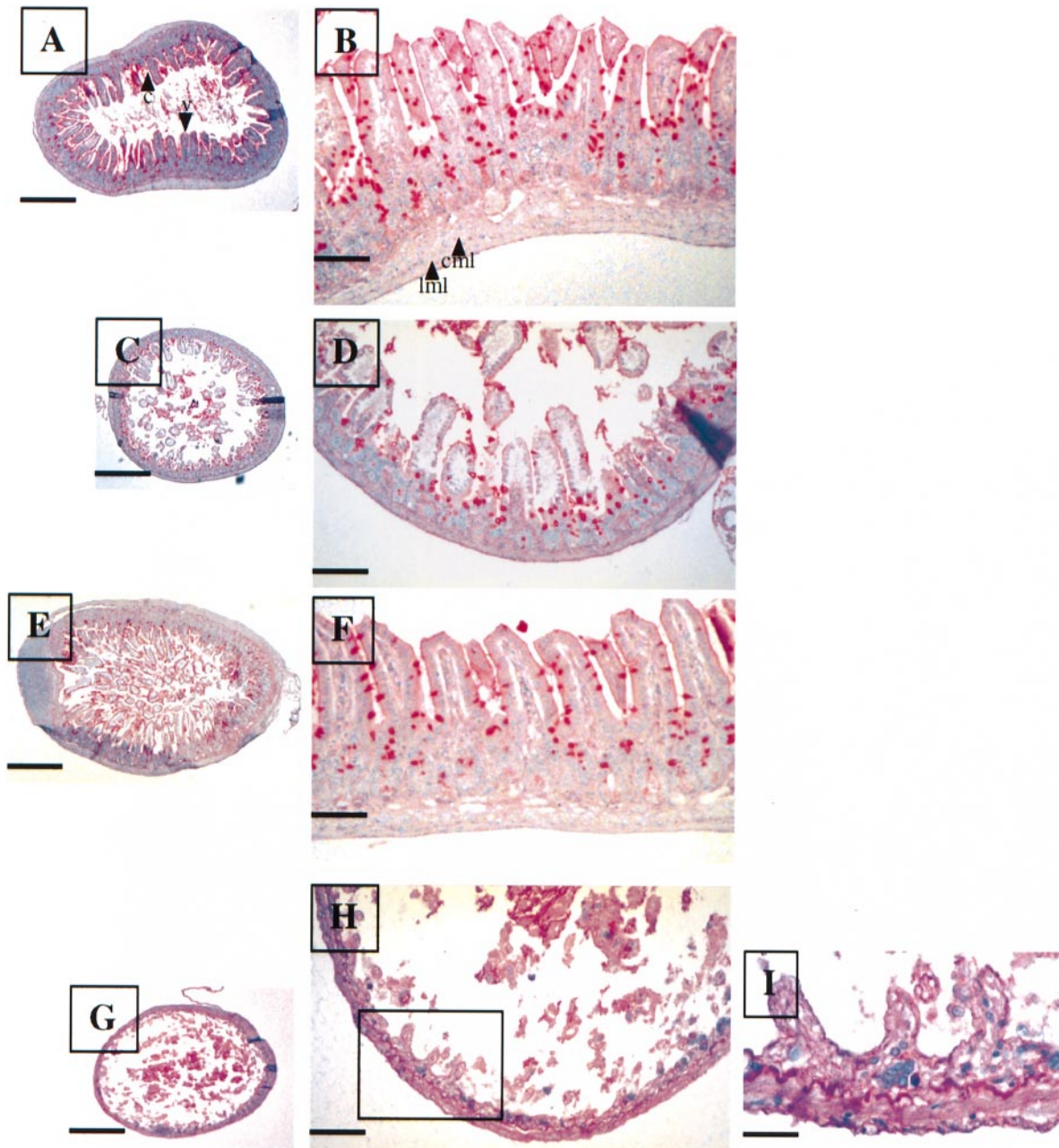


Fig. 6. Small intestinal phenotypic maturation is more severely impaired in double mutant than in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice. Periodic acid–Schiff (PAS) staining of transverse section of wild-type (A and B), $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ (C and D), $TR\beta^{-/-}$ (E and F) and $TR\alpha^{-/-}TR\beta^{-/-}$ (G and H) ileum. At low magnification (A, C, E and G), bar = 250 μm . v, villi; c, crypt. At higher magnification (B, D, F and H), bar = 100 μm . cml, circular muscle layer; lml, longitudinal muscle layer. At very high magnification (I), bar = 40 μm .

1997). $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ animals displayed progressive hypothyroidism together with multiple disorders leading to death shortly after the weaning period. We postulated that this phenotype could be the result of hypothyroidism reinforced by the dominant negative activity of unliganded $TR\beta$ in these mice. The ablation of the $TR\beta$ gene does not correct the severe phenotype observed in $TR\alpha^{-/-}$ animals, showing that the phenotype generated by the disruption of $TR\alpha$ is not the result of a dominant-negative activity of the $TR\beta$ aporeceptor.

TR α and TR β cooperate to repress TSH production

The hyperthyroxinemia observed in $TR\beta^{-/-}$ animals (our data; Forrest *et al.*, 1996) indicates that, in normal mice,

liganded $TR\beta$ receptors repress TSH synthesis, and this very probably mainly results from direct interaction of $TR\beta$ with negative response elements present in the *TSH β* gene promoter (Wondisford *et al.*, 1989; Wood *et al.*, 1989), although TRH dysregulation may also occur (Feng *et al.*, 1994; Yamada *et al.*, 1997). These data suggest that $TR\alpha$ alone is not able to fully control *TSH β* expression. However, the comparison between $TR\beta^{-/-}$ and $TR\beta^{-/-}TR\alpha^{-/-}$ mice presenting extremely high circulating TSH levels, shows that $TR\alpha$ is also capable of repressing *TSH β* expression. This confirms recent observations suggesting that $TR\alpha 1$ could regulate the production of TSH and thyroid hormones in the absence of $TR\beta$ receptors (Weiss *et al.*, 1997). We propose that in normal mice, $TR\beta$ and

TR α cooperate to repress TSH β transcription, TR β being a more potent repressor.

In apparent contradiction with this model, we have previously shown that the absence of TR α receptors in wild-type mice leads to hypothyroxinemia (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997), and others have described limited hypothyroxinemia in TR α 1^{-/-} mice (Wikstrom *et al.*, 1998). These data suggested that the TR α proteins might balance the action of TR β receptors and positively control the production of thyroid hormones. This contradiction is easily resolved if we assume that the absence of the weak repressor, TR α , eliminates the competition between the two types of receptors and enables the stronger repressor, TR β , to fully exert its repression potential. This assumption is supported by data showing that TR β proteins are more efficient than TR α 1 in binding the negative thyroid hormone response element of the TSH promoter and repressing its activity (McCabe *et al.*, 1998).

The TR α and TR β proteins have redundant functions in some but not all tissues

The extended pattern of expression of the TR α gene may account for the pleiotropic phenotype of TR α 1^{-/-} mice. In contrast, TR β 1^{-/-} mice display a mild and tissue-restricted phenotype (Forrest *et al.*, 1996; our data), consistent with their more restricted pattern of expression. In some tissues, however, the TR α and TR β genes are coexpressed (Bradley *et al.*, 1989, 1992; Forrest *et al.*, 1990, 1991; Macchia *et al.*, 1990; Strait *et al.*, 1990, 1991). This raises the possibility of a functional redundancy between TR α and TR β proteins. Our data show that this assumption is verified in some, but not all tissues.

As bones from young TR α 1^{-/-} and TR α 1^{-/-}TR β 1^{-/-} mice look identical, and are normal in TR β 1^{-/-} animals, it seems unlikely that TR β plays any function in long bone formation although it is expressed in chondrocytes (Abu *et al.*, 1997). We conclude that TR α , but not TR β , is essential for the normal post-natal maturation of bone, and that TR β cannot substitute for TR α in this process.

In contrast, histological analysis reveals clear differences between TR α 1^{-/-}TR β 1^{-/-} and TR α 1^{-/-} in the distal ileum, but not in the jejunum or in the colon. In the ileum, both TR α and TR β are coexpressed in the epithelium (Plateroti, M., Chassande, O., Fraichard, A., Gauthier, K., Freund, J.-N., Samarut, J. and Kedinger, M., submitted). Our data suggest that these genes are redundant in distal ileum, although TR β is not able to fully compensate for the absence of TR α . They also suggest that TR β is responsible for the partial recovery of the intestinal phenotype after treatment of TR α 1^{-/-} mice by T3 injections (Plateroti, M., Chassande, O., Fraichard, A., Gauthier, K., Freund, J.-N., Samarut, J. and Kedinger, M., submitted). We assume that redundancy occurs for other functions and enables the rescue of TR α 1^{-/-} mice by T3 (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997).

The thyrocytes express TR β and TR α isoforms (Selmi-Ruby and Rousset, 1996), but the functions of these proteins in the thyroid gland remain poorly understood. TSH exerts a tight control on the development and metabolism of the thyroid, as an increase in TSH concentration triggers hypertrophy and hyperplasia of the thyroid gland and results in enhanced secretion of thyroid hormones. Therefore, it is likely that the morphological and histological features of the thyroid gland in the TR β 1^{-/-} mice is the consequence of the increase of TSH concentration. Further increase in

TSH concentration would be expected to result in enhanced hypertrophy, as it is observed in pathological or experimental hypothyroidism or in TR β 1^{-/-}TR α 1^{-/-} mice (D. Forrest, personal communication). However, in our double mutant animals, which display a very high concentration of TSH, the hypertrophy of the gland is blunted. Since the disruption of the TR α gene in TR α 1^{-/-} animals leads to hypothyroidism of the thyroid gland, it is possible that their absence in double mutant mice prevents a larger hypertrophy in response to TSH. From these data we assume that TR α plays an important role in the development of the thyroid gland. In conclusion, this work shows that the currently known T3 receptors are dispensable for the embryonic development of the mouse and that the products of the TR α and TR β genes display tissue-specific functions with limited redundancy.

Further investigations using targeted disruption of the TR α and TR β genes should unravel the respective contribution of each receptor isoform to peripheral functions, and the molecular basis of the tissue-specific functions.

Materials and methods

ES cell selection and generation of mutant mice

The TR β targeting vector was constructed using pGNA β as starting plasmid (gift from Dr P.Brulet). The 3' arm homologous to TR β was cloned from a λ EMBL4 library (gift from Dr J.P.Magaud). The 5' arm was amplified by PCR from mouse 129 DNA. The thymidine kinase gene was inserted as previously described (Fraichard *et al.*, 1997). The targeting vector was digested with *Spe*I. 'ENS' ES cells were established from 129sv blastocysts in our laboratory by B.Pain and D.Aubert according to the technique described previously (Robertson, 1987). These cells were karyotyped as male and were proven to contribute with a very high efficiency to the germline when injected into blastocysts. We routinely maintain 'ENS' cells on MEF feeders in Glasgow minimal essential medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 1000 U/ml LIF. 'ENS' ES cells were electroporated with 40 μ g linearized plasmid, then selected with G418 (Gibco-BRL) and Gancyclovir and, after 10 days, clones were picked for screening. Positive clones were subsequently tested for correct karyotype and absence of mycoplasma and subsequently injected into blastocysts from C57Bl6 recipient mice. The genotype of the progenies of the mice carrying a TR β mutation was analysed using a PCR-based screening procedure. DNA (20–100 ng) extracted from tails was subjected to amplification using a mixture of four oligonucleotides: β i3 (GGAGTCTCACT-AGAGTCACC) and lacZAS (CCTCTTCGCTATTACGCCAGCTGG) allowed the amplification of the mutant allele. β e5 (TGGTGCTGGATGACAGCAAG) and β e5A (CAGGAATTTCCGCTTCTGCTT) allowed the amplification of the fragment from the wild-type allele. The amplification was carried out on a thermocycler (Perkin Elmer) using the following procedure: 94°C, 2 min, then (94°C, 15 s, 70°C, 15 s, 72°C, 60 s) for 10 cycles then (94°C, 15 s, 60°C, 15 s, 72°C, 60 s) for 30 cycles.

RNA analysis by RT-PCR

Oligonucleotides were from MWG ScienceTech (France). Reverse transcription was performed as follows: 1 μ g of total RNA and 0.5 μ g of random primers were mixed in 10 μ l of water, heated to 68°C for 5 min and cooled to 37°C. Then, 10 μ l of polymerization mix [100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.3, 150 mM KCl, 20 mM dithiothreitol, 6 mM MgCl₂, 0.5 mM each dNTP, 200 U reverse transcriptase (Promega)] were added and the mixture was incubated at 37°C for 30 min. PCR was performed using 0.8 units EurobioTaq thermostable DNA polymerase (Eurobio, France) in a 50 μ l reaction mix. One microlitre of reverse transcription mix was used in each reaction. The detection of TR β transcripts was carried out using oligonucleotides E6 (GGTGCTGGATGACAGCAAGA) and E7A (GCATTCACGATGGGTGCTTGT) were used as primers. Oligonucleotides VIS (GGAGATGATTTCGCTACTGCAG) and 15A (CAGCCTGCAGCAGAGCCACTTCCGT) were used as primers to detect TR α transcripts. The amplification was performed using the following parameters: 94°C, 2 min, (94°C, 15 s, 58°C, 15 s, 72°C, 60 s) for 35 cycles.

Intestine and bone analysis

Intestine analysis. Jejunum and ileum were dissected from 2-week-old pups, fixed in Bouin Holland's reagent and embedded in paraffin for serial sections and morphological observations. Sections of 5 μ m were stained according to the standard PAS protocol (Segal and Petras, 1992).

Bone analysis. Leg tibia were dissected out from 2-week-old pups, fixed in 70% alcohol and embedded. Undecalcified sections (7 μ m) were obtained and stained with Goldner's trichrome, according to the bone histomorphometric protocol (Meunier, 1983). Longitudinal medial sections were analysed with a true colour image-processing workstation Visi-olab 1000 (Biocom, France).

Hormone assays and thyroid gland histology

Three-week-old mice were anaesthetized with ketamine (Panpharma, France) + Hypnovel (Roche, France) and bled intracardially. Sampling for all experiments was performed from 12 a.m. to 3 p.m. to minimize day-night variations. Serum concentrations of total T3 and total T4 were determined by specific radioimmunoassay, using sodium anilino-naphthalene sulfonate and acidic buffer, as binding inhibitors of serum proteins (Rousset et al., 1984). TSH was measured by specific radioimmunoassay, as described previously (Weiss et al., 1997). Tracheal blocks of mice were dissected out, immediately fixed in Bouin Holland, embedded in paraffin and cut in totality by serial sections of 5 μ m. Sections were stained according to the standard Masson's Trichrome protocol. Thyroid areas were compared on the largest sections.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Dr F.Flamant for advice, helpful criticism and repeated encouragement. We would like to warmly thank Dr Denise Aubert who manages the transgenic facility at ENS de Lyon. We thank D.Belgarbi and C.Morin for animal breeding. We are grateful to Pascale Chevalier for the histology of the thyroid gland, to Dr H.Bornet for the measurements of the thyroid hormones in plasma, to Christiane Arnold for the histological analysis of the intestine and to Sandrine Mouradian for technical assistance in the construction of homologous recombination vectors. We thank Luc Malaval, Patrick Delmas and Michele Kedinger for their contribution to this work. This work was supported by grants of the Association pour la Recherche contre le Cancer and Region Rhone Alpes.

References

- Abu,E.O., Bord,S., Horner,A., Chatterjee,V.K.K. and Compston,J.E. (1997) The expression of thyroid hormone receptors in human bone. *Bone*, **21**, 137–142.
- Bradley,D.J.T., Young,W.D. and Weinberger,C. (1989) Differential expression of α and β thyroid hormone receptor genes in rat brain and pituitary. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **86**, 7250–7254.
- Bradley,D.J.T., Howard,C. and Scott Young,W.,III (1992) Spatial and temporal expression of α - and β -thyroid hormone receptor mRNAs, including the β 2 subtype, in the developing mammalian nervous system. *J. Neurosci.*, **12**, 2288–2302.
- Chassande,O., Fraichard,A., Gauthier,K., Flamant,F., Legrand,C., Savatier, P., Laudet,V. and Samarut,J. (1997) Identification of transcripts initiated from an internal promoter in the c-erbA α locus that encode inhibitors of retinoic acid receptor- α and triiodothyronine receptor activities. *Mol. Endocrinol.*, **11**, 1278–1290.
- Feng,P., Li,Q.L., Satoh,T. and Wilber,J.F. (1994) Ligand (T3) dependent and independent effects of thyroid hormone receptors upon human TRH gene transcription in neuroblastoma cells. *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, **200**, 171–177.
- Flamant,F. and Samarut,J. (1998) Involvement of thyroid hormone and its α receptor in avian neurulation. *Dev. Biol.*, **197**, 1–11.
- Forrest,D.H., Sjöberg,M. and Vennström,B. (1990) Contrasting developmental and tissue-specific expression of α and β thyroid hormone receptor genes. *EMBO J.*, **9**, 1519–1528.
- Forrest,D.H., Hallböök,F., Persson,H. and Vennström,B. (1991) Distinct functions for thyroid hormone receptors α and β in brain development indicated by differential expression of receptor genes. *EMBO J.*, **10**, 269–275.
- Forrest,D., Hanebuth,E., Smeyne,R.J., Everds,N., Stewart,C.L., Wehner,J.M. and Curran,T. (1996) Recessive resistance to thyroid hormone in mice lacking thyroid hormone receptor β : evidence for tissue-specific modulation of receptor function. *EMBO J.*, **15**, 3006–3015.
- Fraichard,A. et al. (1997) The TR α gene encoding a thyroid hormone

- receptor is essential for post-natal development and thyroid hormone production. *EMBO J.*, **16**, 4412–4420.
- Kaltenbach,J.C. (1996) In Gilbert,L.I., Tate,J.B. and Atkinson,B.G. (eds), *Endocrinology of Amphibian Metamorphosis*. Academic Press, New York, NY, pp. 403–431.
- Koenig,R.J., Lazar,A.A., Hodin,R.A., Brent,G.A., Larsen,P.R., Chin,W.W. and Moore,D.D. (1989) Inhibition of thyroid hormone action by a non-hormone binding c-erbA protein generated by alternative mRNA splicing. *Nature*, **337**, 659–661.
- Laudet,V., Hänni,C., Coll,J., Catzeflis,F. and Stehelin,D. (1992) Evolution of the nuclear receptor gene superfamily. *EMBO J.*, **11**, 1003–1013.
- Lazar,M.A., Hodin,R.A. and Chin,W.W. (1989) Human carboxyl-terminal variant of α -type c-erbA inhibits trans-activation by thyroid hormone receptors without binding thyroid hormone. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **86**, 7771–7774.
- Legrand,J. (1986) In Hennemann,G. (ed.), *Thyroid Hormone Effects on Growth and Development*. Marcel Dekker, Rotterdam, The Netherlands, Vol. 78, pp. 503–534.
- Lezoualc'h,F., Hassan,A.H., Giraud,P., Loeffler,J.P., Lee,S.L. and Demeneix,B.A. (1992) Assignment of the β -thyroid hormone receptor to 3,5,3'-triiodothyronine-dependent inhibition of transcription from the thyrotropin-releasing hormone promoter in chick hypothalamic neurons. *Mol. Endocrinol.*, **6**, 1797–1804.
- Macchia,E. et al. (1990) Characterization of site-specific polyclonal antibodies to c-erbA peptides recognizing human thyroid hormone receptors α 1, α 2 and β and native, 3, 5, 3'-triiodothyronine receptor and study of tissue distribution of the antigen. *Endocrinology*, **126**, 3232–3239.
- Mangelsdorf,D.J. et al. (1995) The nuclear receptor superfamily: the second decade. *Cell*, **83**, 835–839.
- McCabe,C.J., Yarwood,N.J., Gurr,J.A., Gittoes,N.J., Sheppard,M.C. and Franklyn,J.A. (1998) Differential regulation of the human thyrotropin α -subunit promoter by thyroid hormone receptors α 1 and β 1. *Thyroid*, **8**, 601–608.
- Meunier,P.J. (1983) *A Yearly Survey of Developments in the Field of Bone and Mineral Metabolism*. W.A.Peck, Amsterdam, The Netherlands.
- Robertson,E.J. (1987) Embryo-derived stem cell lines. In Robertson,E.J. (ed.), *Teratocarcinomas and Embryonic Stem Cells. A Practical Approach*. IRL Press, Oxford, pp. 84–96.
- Rousset,B., Cure,M., Jordan,D., Kervran,A., Bornet,H. and Mornex,R. (1984) Metabolic alterations induced by chronic heat exposure in the rat: involvement of thyroid function. *Eur. J. Physiol.*, **401**, 64–70.
- Sap,J., Munoz,A., Damm,K., Goldberg,Y., Ghysdael,J., Leutz,A., Beug,H. and Vennström,B. (1986) The c-erbA protein is a high-affinity receptor for thyroid hormone. *Nature*, **324**, 635–640.
- Scanlon,M.F. and Toft,A.D. (1996) In Braverman,L.E. and Utiger,R.D. (eds), *Regulation of Thyrotropin Secretion*. Lippincott-Raven, New York, NY, pp. 220–240.
- Segal,G.H. and Petras,R.E. (1992) *Histology for Pathologists*. Raven Press, New York, NY.
- Selmi-Ruby,S. and Rousset,B. (1996) Analysis of the functional state of T3 nuclear receptors expressed in thyroid cells. *Mol. Cell. Endocrinol.*, **119**, 95–104.
- Strait,K.A.S., Harold,L., Perez-Castillo,A. and Oppenheimer,J.H. (1990) Relationship of c-erbA mRNA content to tissue triiodothyronine nuclear binding capacity and function in developing and adult rats. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **265**, 10514–10521.
- Strait,K.A.S., Harold,L., Seybold,V.S., Ling N.C. and Oppenheimer,J.H. (1991) Immunofluorescence localization of thyroid hormone receptor protein β 1 and variant α 2 in selected tissues: cerebellar Purkinje cells as a model for β 1 receptor-mediated developmental effects of thyroid hormone in brain. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **88**, 3887–3891.
- Tata,J.R. (1993) Gene expression during metamorphosis: an ideal model for post-embryonic development. *BioEssays*, **15**, 239–248.
- Weinberger,C., Thompson,C.C., Ong,E.S., Lebo,R., Gruol,D.J. and Evans,R.M. (1986) The c-erbA gene encodes a thyroid hormone receptor. *Nature*, **324**, 641–646.
- Weiss,R.E., Forrest,D., Pohlenz,J., Cua,K., Curran,T. and Refetoff,S. (1997) Thyrotropin regulation by thyroid hormone in thyroid hormone receptor beta-deficient mice. *Endocrinology*, **138**, 3624–3629.
- Weiss,R.E., Murata,Y., Cua,K., Hayashi,Y., Seo,H. and Refetoff,S. (1998) Thyroid hormone action on liver, heart and energy expenditure in thyroid hormone receptor β deficient mice. *Endocrinology*, **139**, 4945–4952.
- Wikstrom,L., Johansson,C., Salto,C., Barlow,C., Campos Barros,A., Baas,F., Forrest,D., Thoren,P. and Vennström,B. (1998) Abnormal heart rate and body temperature in mice lacking thyroid hormone receptor α 1. *EMBO J.*, **17**, 455–461.

- Wondisford, F.E., Farr, E.A., Radovick, S., Steinfelder, H.J., Moates, J.M., McClaskey, J.H. and Weintraub, B.D. (1989) Thyroid hormone inhibition of human thyrotropin β -subunit gene expression is mediated by a *cis*-acting element located in the first exon. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **264**, 14601–14604.
- Wood, W.M., Kao, M.Y., Gordon, D.F. and Ridgway, E.C. (1989) Thyroid hormone regulates the mouse thyrotropin β -subunit gene promoter in transfected primary thyrotropes. *J. Biol. Chem.*, **264**, 14840–14847.
- Yamada, M. *et al.* (1997) Tertiary hypothyroidism and hyperglycemia in mice with targeted disruption of the thyrotropin-releasing hormone gene. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA*, **94**, 10862–10867.

Received October 26, 1998; accepted November 25, 1998