

# Thyroid hormone exerts negative feedback on hypothalamic type 4 melanocortin receptor expression

Stéphanie Decherf<sup>1</sup>, Isabelle Seugnet<sup>1</sup>, Soumaya Kouidhi, Alejandra Lopez-Juarez, Marie-Stéphanie Clerget-Froidevaux<sup>2</sup>, and Barbara A. Demeneix<sup>2</sup>

Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique Unité Mixte de Recherche 7221, Evolution des Régulations Endocriniennes, Département Régulations, Développement et Diversité Moléculaire, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France

Edited by Richard H. Goodman, Vollum Institute, Portland, OR, and approved January 14, 2010 (received for review May 12, 2009)

**The type 4 melanocortin receptor MC4R, a key relay in leptin signaling, links central energy control to peripheral reserve status. MC4R activation in different brain areas reduces food intake and increases energy expenditure. Mice lacking *Mc4r* are obese. *Mc4r* is expressed by hypothalamic paraventricular Thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) neurons and increases energy usage through activation of *Trh* and production of the thyroid hormone tri-iodothyronine (T<sub>3</sub>). These facts led us to test the hypothesis that energy homeostasis should require negative feedback by T<sub>3</sub> on *Mc4r* expression. Quantitative PCR and in situ hybridization showed hyperthyroidism reduces *Mc4r* mRNA levels in the paraventricular nucleus. Comparative *in silico* analysis of *Mc4r* regulatory regions revealed two evolutionarily conserved potential negative thyroid hormone-response elements (nTREs). In vivo ChIP assays on mouse hypothalamus demonstrated association of thyroid hormone receptors (TRs) with a region spanning one nTRE. Further, in vivo gene reporter assays revealed dose-dependent T<sub>3</sub> repression of transcription from the *Mc4r* promoter in mouse hypothalamus, in parallel with T<sub>3</sub>-dependent *Trh* repression. Mutagenesis of the nTREs in the *Mc4r* promoter demonstrated direct regulation by T<sub>3</sub>, consolidating the ChIP results. In vivo shRNA knockdown, TR over-expression approaches and use of mutant mice lacking specific TRs showed that both TR $\alpha$  and TR $\beta$  contribute to *Mc4r* regulation. T<sub>3</sub> repression of *Mc4r* transcription ensures that the energy-saving effects of T<sub>3</sub> feedback on *Trh* are not overridden by MC4R activation of *Trh*. Thus parallel repression by T<sub>3</sub> on hypothalamic *Mc4r* and *Trh* contributes to energy homeostasis.**

energy homeostasis | gene transcription | leptin pathway | ligand-dependent repression | thyrotropin-releasing hormone

**R**eversing the increasing incidence of obesity requires knowledge of physiological regulations controlling energy homeostasis. Understanding how central genes involved in endocrine and metabolic axes are regulated is crucial to these problems.

Thyroid hormones (THs) regulate metabolism and appetite (1, 2). THs, particularly the biologically active form tri-iodothyronine, T<sub>3</sub>, stimulate the basal metabolic rate. Hyperthyroidism leads to increased catabolism and weight loss; hypothyroidism causes weight gain (3). TH levels are kept within physiological ranges through hypothalamo-pituitary neuroendocrine feedback loops. Increased T<sub>3</sub> represses transcription of hypothalamic *Thyrotropin-releasing hormone*, *Trh* (4), the master regulator of the hypothalamo-pituitary-thyroid (HPT) axis (5). In turn, decreased T<sub>3</sub> output reduces metabolism and energy usage (6).

Hypothalamic TRH neurons integrate numerous metabolic, endocrine, and neuronal signals (7). T<sub>3</sub>-responsive TRH neurons in the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) express all the functional TH nuclear receptors (TRs) and a key membrane receptor involved in energy homeostasis, namely the type 4 melanocortin receptor (MC4R). In situ hybridization studies show that nearly all TRH neurons in the caudal-medial parvocellular PVN express MC4R (8).

MC4R, a membrane  $\alpha$ -melanocyte stimulating hormone ( $\alpha$ MSH) receptor, is integral to central leptin/melanocortin sig-

naling (9). Leptin, a major satiety hormone, regulates energy homeostasis through food intake, energy partition, and thermogenesis (9). Centrally, leptin signaling is relayed mainly through the hypothalamic melanocortin system and MC4R-expressing neurons. *Mc4r* expression is widespread in the brain (10, 11), with high levels in the hypothalamus and brainstem, areas involved in energy homeostasis (12). The hypothalamus governs metabolism through complex neuroendocrine regulations. The brainstem also integrates metabolic signaling, notably regulating thermogenesis via the autonomic nervous system (13).

In the PVN, leptin stimulates TRH production by coordinating pathways that culminate in MC4R activation and increased intracellular cAMP levels. A cAMP response binding (CREB)-responsive element in the *Trh* promoter (8) drives *Trh* transcription, stimulating T<sub>3</sub> production and energy expenditure. Further, hypothalamic T<sub>3</sub> stimulates orexigenic pathways (14, 15) and dampens anorexigenic signals (16, 17). Despite these roles, no studies have addressed how brain TH levels contribute to central metabolic control through *Mc4r* expression.

Because MC4R activation stimulates the HPT axis, we examined whether homeostasis involved negative feedback regulation by T<sub>3</sub> on *Mc4r* expression. We found that thyroid status modulated endogenous *Mc4r* mRNA levels in brain areas relevant to metabolism. *In silico* examination of human and mouse *Mc4r* proximal regulatory regions showed two conserved potential negative thyroid hormone responsive element (nTREs). To assess if TRs were associated with nTREs, we used TR antibodies for ChIP on regulatory regions from *Mc4r* and *Trh*. Differential patterns of TR binding to hypothalamic *Mc4r* and *Trh* nTREs were found as a function of thyroid status. Three different in vivo gene transfer (iGT) approaches in wild-type and TR-mutant mice were used to analyze further T<sub>3</sub> regulation of *Mc4r* transcription and to define the roles of different TRs. iGT was used first for reporter studies with control and mutated *Mc4r* promoter constructs in wild-type and TR $\alpha^{\text{KO}}$  and TR $\beta^{-/-}$  mice (18, 19), then to introduce shRNA against TR isoforms, and finally, to overexpress TRs. The results confirmed that T<sub>3</sub> exerts direct regulation on *Mc4r* and that different TR isoforms have distinct transcriptional regulatory roles.

The data provide insight into ligand-dependent repression mechanisms and reveal an integrative function of the hypothal-

Author contributions: S.D., M.-S.C.-F., and B.A.D. designed research; S.D., I.S., S.K., A.L.-J., and M.-S.C.-F. performed research; S.D., M.-S.C.-F., and B.A.D. analyzed data; and S.D., M.-S.C.-F., and B.A.D. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

This article is a PNAS Direct Submission.

Freely available online through the PNAS open access option.

<sup>1</sup>S.D. and I.S. contributed equally to this work.

<sup>2</sup>To whom correspondence may be addressed. E-mail: demeneix@mnhn.fr or clerget@mnhn.fr.

This article contains supporting information online at [www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0905190107/DCSupplemental](http://www.pnas.org/cgi/content/full/0905190107/DCSupplemental).

amus in metabolic homeostasis through coordinated, T<sub>3</sub>-dependent feedback on hypothalamic *Mc4r* gene, together with that of *Trh*.

## Results

**Thyroid Status Regulates Endogenous *Mc4r* Gene Expression.** MC4R activates PVN *Trh* transcription (8). Thus we hypothesized that, as for *Trh* in the PVN, *Mc4r* could undergo feedback by T<sub>3</sub>. To test this possibility, hypo- and hyperthyroidism were induced in 2-month-old mice by 6-*n*-propyl-2-thiouracil (PTU) and thyroxine (T<sub>4</sub>) treatment, respectively (Fig. S1A). The physiological consequences of modified thyroid status during this late growth phase were confirmed by the differential weight gain of treated mice (Fig. S1B). Thyroid effects on endogenous *Mc4r* and *Trh* mRNA expression were assessed by quantitative PCR (qPCR) and normalized with *Gapdh* mRNA (SI Materials and Methods). Levels were analyzed in the PVN, where *Mc4r* is expressed in hypophysiotropic TRH neurons (8), and in the arcuate nucleus (ARC) and the brainstem, areas also involved in metabolism. The frontal cortex served as a control because it expresses *Mc4r* but is not linked to energy homeostasis.

In the PVN, hypothyroidism significantly increased both *Mc4r* ( $P < 0.01$ ) and *Trh* ( $P < 0.001$ ) mRNA levels versus levels in euthyroid controls (Fig. 1A). However, hyperthyroidism modified neither *Trh* ( $P = 0.07$ ) nor *Mc4r* expression in the PVN within the time frame used (13 days). In situ hybridization confirmed that PTU-induced hypothyroidism strongly increased *Mc4r* mRNA expression in the PVN compared with T<sub>4</sub>-treated animals (Fig. 1B). In the ARC, hypothyroidism increased *Mc4r* ( $P < 0.05$ ) but, as expected (20), did not modify *Trh* (Fig. S2A). Conversely, hyperthyroidism decreased *Mc4r* expression in the ARC ( $P < 0.05$ ), whereas, somewhat surprisingly, it increased *Trh* levels ( $P < 0.05$ ) (Fig. S2A). As predicted (17), thyroid status modified *Neuropeptide Y* (*Npy*) and *Pro-opiomelanocortin* (*Pomc*) expression in the ARC (Fig. S2D). In the brainstem, hypothyroidism slightly, but significantly, reduced *Mc4r* mRNA, and hyperthyroidism induced a dramatic, almost 10-fold, decrease ( $P < 0.001$ ) (Fig. S2B). In the cortex, *Mc4r* was not altered (Fig.

S2C). As expected (21), neither in brainstem nor in cortex was *Trh* transcription affected by thyroid status (Fig. S2B and C).

**T<sub>3</sub>-Dependent *Mc4r* and *Trh* Repression Requires Gene-Specific TR/ DNA Interactions.** To determine if TH-induced regulatory responses involve direct interactions of TR, ChIP assays were used. Human and mouse *Mc4r* proximal regulatory regions share two putative monomeric TRE half-sites (Fig. S3A): TRE1 and TRE2. TRE1, at -92 bp before the transcription start site (TSS) in hMC4R, is conserved in mouse, rat, pig, and human (22). TRE2, at +374 bp after the TSS, resembles the nTRE conserved in mouse and human *Trh* (23).

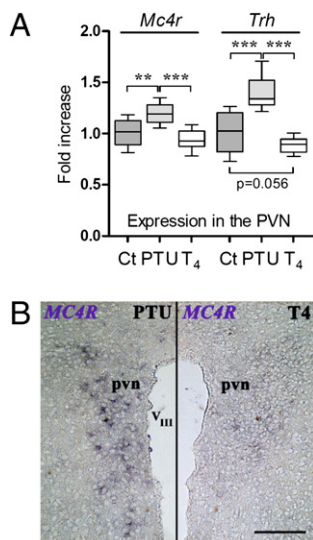
TR binding was analyzed on the most conserved nTREs identified in *Mc4r* (TRE1) and *Trh* (site 4) regulatory regions. ChIP using anti-TRβ antibodies (Upstate Biotechnologies) was carried out on hypothalami from hypothyroid newborn mice. In these conditions, TRβ was absent from the *Mc4r* TRE1 (Fig. 2A), whereas TRβ was present on the *Trh* TRE site 4 (Fig. 2B). Following T<sub>3</sub> treatment, TRβ was recruited to the *Mc4r* TRE1 region (Fig. 2A), but it decreased significantly on the *Trh* regulatory region (Fig. 2B). In no case, with or without T<sub>3</sub>, was any binding found on the irrelevant control regions of *Trh* or *Mc4r* promoters (Fig. 2A Right and B Right). A second set of anti-TRβ antibodies (provided by R. Denver, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI) gave similar TR/DNA binding patterns for both genes (Fig. S4A and B).

Given the association of TRs with the nTREs shown by in vivo ChIP assays, the functionality of the putative nTREs in mediating T<sub>3</sub> signaling was tested in a physiological context using iGT (24). Transcription from *Mc4r* reporter plasmids bearing the nTREs driving *Firefly* (f.) or *Renilla* (r.) luciferase (luc) expression (Fig. S2 E-G) was followed in hypothalami of euthyroid or hypothyroid pups. Hypothyroidism increased T<sub>3</sub>-independent MC4R-luc transcription 2-fold versus euthyroid mice (Fig. S2E). T<sub>3</sub> treatment of hypothyroid pups reduced MC4R-luc transcription dose dependently (Fig. 2C), with repression reaching more than 65% at the maximal T<sub>3</sub> dose used ( $P < 0.001$ ) or 50% with 3,5,3-triiodothyroacetic acid, a T<sub>3</sub> analogue (Fig. S2F). The T<sub>3</sub> repression of MC4R-luc paralleled that of TRH-luc (Fig. S2G).

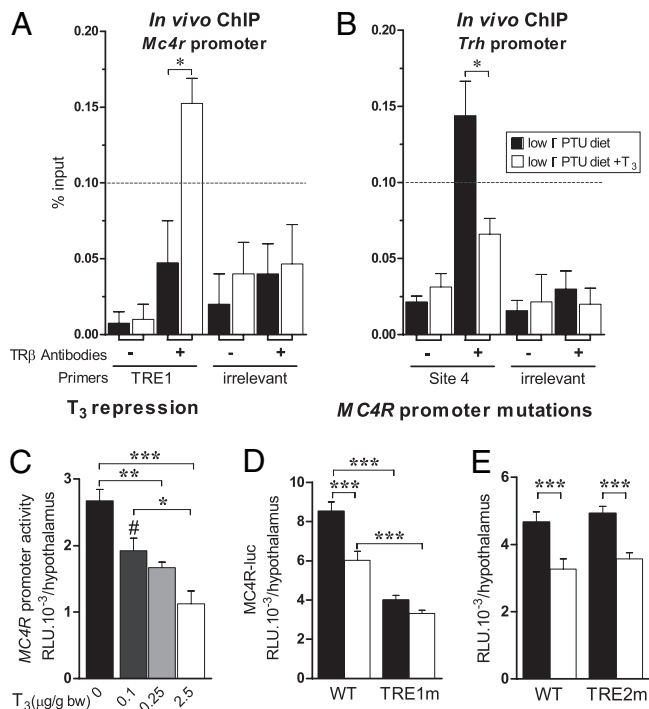
When either the MC4R-luc or TRH-luc was cotransfected with an appropriate control (cytomegalovirus-luciferase, CMV-luc), only the physiologically relevant promoters, and not the CMV promoter, were repressed (Fig. S5A and B). Given the parallel regulation of *Mc4r* and *Trh* transcription, we used a cotransfection approach, mixing an *Mc4r* reporter construct coupled to the *Renilla* luciferase sequence (MC4R-r.luc) with TRH-f.luc. In this cotransfection paradigm, T<sub>3</sub> repressed transcription by 30% and 52% for *Mc4r* and *Trh* reporter plasmids, respectively (Fig. S5C).

To test the roles of the putative *Mc4r* TREs, site-directed mutations of either or both of the *Mc4r* promoter nTREs was done, producing three constructs (Fig. S3). Mutation of TRE1 (TRE1m) decreased T<sub>3</sub>-independent expression ( $P < 0.001$ ) and abolished T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression of *Mc4r* transcription (Fig. 2D). In contrast, mutating TRE2 (TRE2m) had no effect (Fig. 2E). When both TREs were mutated (DBm), a similar profile to the TRE1m construct was observed (Fig. S4C). In all these experiments, the non-mutated *Trh* construct was cotransfected as a positive control for T<sub>3</sub>-dependent regulation (Fig. S4C).

**TRs Exhibit Isoform-Specific Contributions to *Mc4r* Expression.** Given that site-directed mutagenesis of *Mc4r* promoter and ChIP analyses argued for direct regulation of *Mc4r* by T<sub>3</sub> and TRs, the roles of TR isoforms were tested using expression vectors encoding TRα1 (Fig. 3A), TRβ1 (Fig. 3B), or TRβ2 (Fig. 3C). TRα1 reduced T<sub>3</sub>-independent transcription by 30% ( $P < 0.05$ ). The TRβ isoforms did not modify T<sub>3</sub>-independent transcription. However, overexpression of TRβ1 or TRβ2 enhanced the repressive effects of T<sub>3</sub> on *Mc4r* transcription. T<sub>3</sub> repressed *Mc4r-r.luc* transcription by 20% ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the presence of a control empty vector,



**Fig. 1.** Thyroid status alters *Mc4r* expression in the hypothalamic PVN. (A) Real-time PCR quantification of *Mc4r* and *Trh* mRNA from PVN of adult male mice treated for 13 days by PTU (hypothyroid) or T<sub>4</sub> (hyperthyroid), or euthyroid controls (Ct). Gene expression was normalized with *Gapdh*. Shown are pooled results of two independent experiments ( $n = 7$  or  $8$  per group). Nonparametric ANOVA followed by permutation test was used to assess statistical significance. \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ . (B) In situ hybridization shows a decrease in *Mc4r* mRNA expression in the PVN following T<sub>4</sub> treatment, compared with PTU-treated mice. pvn, paraventricular nuclei; V<sub>III</sub>, third ventricle. (Scale bar, 1 mm.)

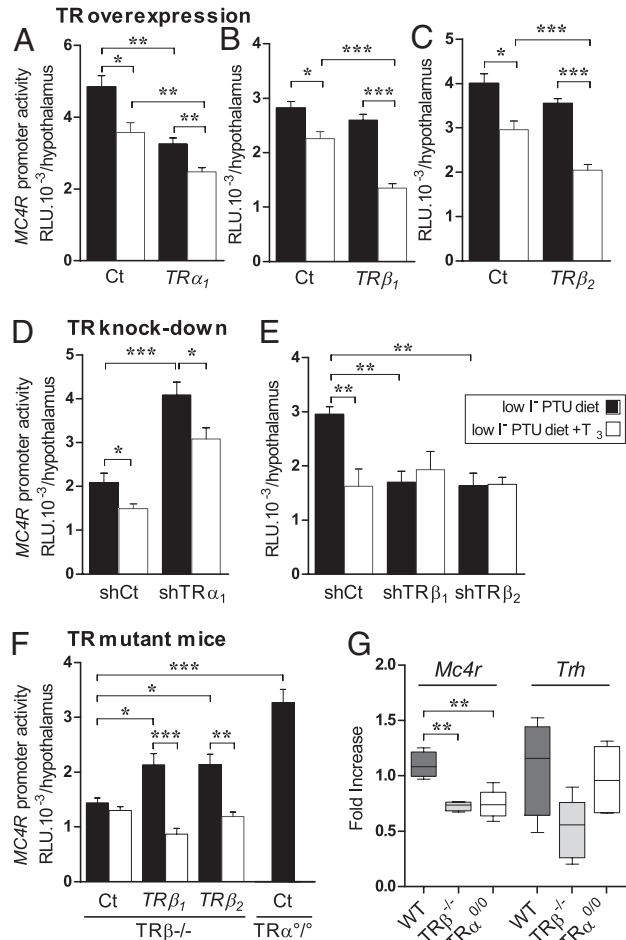


**Fig. 2.** T<sub>3</sub> directly regulates *Mc4r* expression. (A and B) PCR quantification of ChIP assays carried out on hypothalami from hypothyroid newborn mice treated with T<sub>3</sub> (2.5 μg/g bw) 20 h before sacrifice. Samples were immunoprecipitated with TR $\beta$ -specific antibodies and amplified with either *Mc4r*-TRE1 or TRH site 4 primers or their respective irrelevant control primers. For negative controls, samples were processed through immunoprecipitation without antibody (-, background). Results represent the occupancy of TR $\beta$  isoforms at the TRE1 site in the *Mc4r* promoter and at the TRE-site 4 in the *Trh* promoter. Data are presented as percentage of input (starting sonicated DNA used for ChIP). The threshold value for a positive signal was set at 0.1% of input (dashed line). Graphs represent means of four independent experiments. Student's *t* test assessed difference between the groups. (A) TR $\beta$  isoforms are present at the TRE1 site in *Mc4r* promoter only after T<sub>3</sub> treatment. (B) TR $\beta$  isoforms are present at the TRE site 4 in the *Trh* promoter in hypothyroid animals but are absent after T<sub>3</sub> treatment. Negative controls included primers spanning irrelevant sequences in both gene sequences (right half of each graph). (C) Dose-dependent repression of *Mc4r* promoter activity by T<sub>3</sub> in hypothyroid mice. (D) Mutation of the putative TRE1 half-site abrogates T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* promoter activity and its T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression. (E) Mutation of the TRE2 putative half site is without effect. One-day-old pups were transfected in the hypothalamus with 2 μL of a 250 ng/μL solution of PEI-complexed *Mc4r*-f.luc and then were injected s.c. with T<sub>3</sub> [2.5, 0.25, or 0.1 μg/g body weight (bw)] or vehicle (NaCl 0.9%). Luciferase was measured 24 h later. RLU, relative light units. Means ± SEM are shown. One-way ANOVA statistical analysis was followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons to assess statistical differences. In T<sub>3</sub> treatment at 2.5 μg/g bw, \*, *P* < 0.05; \*\*, *P* < 0.01; \*\*\*, *P* < 0.001; #, *P* < 0.05 for control group vs. group treated with T<sub>3</sub> at 0.1 μg/g bw.

whereas repression reached 48% with TR $\beta$ 1 (*P* < 0.001) and 42% with TR $\beta$ 2 (*P* < 0.001) (Fig. 3B and C).

To examine TR-specific effects further, knockdown with plasmids containing the hybrid cytomegalovirus-polymerase III histone H1-RNA promoter (pCMV-H1) expressing shRNAs was applied. Because neither the pCMV-H1 empty vector nor the pCMV-H1 vectors coding for irrelevant shRNA sequences (shGFP) or a scrambled sequence (shSCR) affected TRH-, *Mc4r*- or control CMV-driven transgenes (Figs. S6 and S7), pCMV-H1 was used as a control. Two shRNAs against each TR isoform (shTRs, see Table S2) were designed from published TR $\beta$ 1 and TR $\beta$ 2 siRNAs (25).

The shRNA method was validated against the well-documented (24, 26, 27) specificity of TR $\alpha$ 1, TR $\beta$ 1, and TR $\beta$ 2 isoforms on



**Fig. 3.** TRs display isoform-specific roles on *Mc4r* promoter. (A) TR $\alpha$ 1 overexpression diminishes T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* promoter activity. (B and C) TR $\beta$ 1 or TR $\beta$ 2 overexpression reinforces T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression of *Mc4r*-promoter activity. Pups were transfected in the hypothalamic region of the brain with 2 μL of a 250 ng/μL solution of *Mc4r*-f.luc with pSG5-TR $\alpha$ 1, pSG5-TR $\beta$ 1, pSG5-TR $\beta$ 2, or empty pSG5 vector (25 ng/μL). (D) shTR $\alpha$ 1 activates T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r*-f.luc expression and abrogates T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression. (E) shTR $\beta$ 1 or shTR $\beta$ 2 represses T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* promoter activity and abrogates T<sub>3</sub>-induced repression. Hypothalamic transfections used *Mc4r*-f.luc (250 ng/μL) and either pCMV-H1-shTR $\alpha$ 1, pCMV-H1-shTR $\beta$ 1, pCMV-H1-shTR $\beta$ 2, or the empty vector pCMV-H1 (400 ng/pup). (F) TR $\alpha$ <sup>0/0</sup> and TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup> animals were transfected with *Mc4r*-f.luc with or without TR $\beta$ 1- or TR $\beta$ 2-expressing plasmid. T<sub>3</sub> treatment, 2.5 μg/g bw. (G) *Mc4r* and *Trh* mRNA expression levels in adult TR $\beta$  (TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup>) and TR $\alpha$  (TR $\alpha$ <sup>0/0</sup>) knockout mice. Real-time PCR quantification of *Mc4r* and *Trh* mRNA from the PVN of adult male wild-type (WT), TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup>, or TR $\alpha$ <sup>0/0</sup> mice. Gene expression was normalized with *Gapdh*. Results are pooled from two independent experiments (*n* = 7 or 8 per group). One-way ANOVA statistical analysis was performed, followed by Bonferroni's multiple comparisons to assess statistical differences.

hypothalamic *Trh* regulation (Fig. S6) and then was applied to the *Mc4r* promoter. ShTR $\alpha$ 1 significantly (55%) increased T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* transcription in hypothyroid newborn mice and maintained T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression (Fig. 3D). Conversely, expression of shRNA against TR $\beta$ 1 or TR $\beta$ 2 significantly decreased T<sub>3</sub>-independent transcription (by 42% and 44%, respectively) (Fig. 3E) and abolished T<sub>3</sub> repression. Knockdown of TR $\beta$ 1 and TR $\beta$ 2 thus confirmed the lack of differential effect between these two isoforms on *Mc4r* promoter activity seen with overexpression. These results were reproduced using another set of TR $\beta$ 1 or TR $\beta$ 2 shRNA (Fig. S7B and C).

TR-specific contributions to *Mc4r* regulation also were investigated in mice lacking TR $\beta$  or TR $\alpha$  gene products (TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup> or



TR $\alpha$ <sup>0/0</sup> mice). In TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup> mice, MC4R-luc was insensitive to T<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 3F, *Left*). Overexpression of TR $\beta$ 1 or TR $\beta$ 2 restored T<sub>3</sub>-dependent *Mc4r* promoter repression and increased T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* promoter expression ( $P < 0.001$  in each case), confirming the roles of both TR $\beta$  isoforms seen with overexpression or shTR experiments. Moreover, T<sub>3</sub>-independent MC4R-luc expression was increased significantly in TR $\alpha$ <sup>0/0</sup> pups ( $P < 0.001$ ) compared with TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup> pups (Fig. 3F), confirming the repressive role of TR $\alpha$  in T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* transcription. Analysis of endogenous *Mc4r* levels using qPCR on mutant mice showed that loss of either TR significantly modified *Mc4r* expression in the PVN (Fig. 3G) but not in the ARC (Fig. S7D).

## Discussion

Metabolic homeostasis requires coordination of activity in specific hypothalamic nuclei, notably those governing food intake and energy expenditure. One key actor in these energy-regulating networks is the  $\alpha$ MSH receptor MC4R (18). *MC4R* mutations in humans are associated with obesity and  $\approx 5\%$  rate of associated morbidity (28). Mice lacking the *Mc4r* gene are severely obese, and heterozygous mice show intermediate phenotypes, demonstrating a gene-dosage effect for *Mc4r* in energy balance (29). Another key player is T<sub>3</sub>, which determines metabolic rate (3). Here, using multiple in vivo approaches, we show that these two signaling pathways are linked centrally by T<sub>3</sub> repression of *Mc4r*.

**Thyroid Status Modifies *Mc4r* Expression in Brain Areas Relevant to Metabolic Regulation.** *Mc4r* is widely expressed in the brain, with high levels in brainstem and hypothalamus, notably the PVN where *Mc4r* is found in *Trh* neurons (10, 11). qPCR and in situ hybridization showed hypothyroidism to increase endogenous *Mc4r* expression in the PVN. This increase parallels the well-known rise in PVN *Trh* mRNA seen in hypothyroidism (21, 30). The increase in *Mc4r* mRNA was modest, but small changes in regulatory genes can significantly impact targets in terms of physiology, development, and evolution (31). Hypothyroidism also substantially raised, and hyperthyroidism repressed, *Mc4r* expression in the ARC. In the brainstem, also targeted by the melanocortin pathway, *Mc4r* again was repressed by hyperthyroidism, but to a much larger extent. As expected, neither in brainstem nor in cortex was *Trh* expression affected by thyroid status. *Mc4r* expression also was unchanged in the cortex. Thus thyroid status specifically alters *Mc4r* expression in brain areas relevant to metabolic regulation.

**Evidence for Direct T<sub>3</sub>-Dependent Regulation of *Mc4r* Expression.** The putative nTRE, TRE1, identified in the *Mc4r* 5' region, provides a molecular basis for T<sub>3</sub> action on *Mc4r* expression. TRE1 mutation dramatically decreases *Mc4r* promoter activity and leads to loss of T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression. TRE1, a nonclassical sequence conserved in mammals, is thought to bind monomeric nuclear receptors. TRE1 is situated in the core-promoter region and next to a CAAT box (22), suggesting a role for TRs in transcriptional machinery recruitment and direct transcriptional regulation of *Mc4r* by T<sub>3</sub>. This hypothesis is supported by the in vivo ChIP results showing TR $\beta$  recruitment on the putative TRE1 sequence of *Mc4r* promoter and on site 4 in the *Trh* promoter. Data from many in vitro studies on positively regulated genes suggest a model wherein TRs bind to TREs with or without ligand, T<sub>3</sub> (32). In vivo, the TREs studied from the *Mc4r* and *Trh* promoters showed distinct TR $\beta$  recruitment patterns as a function of T<sub>3</sub> presence or absence. *Mc4r* TRE1 recruited only low levels of TR $\beta$  in the absence of T<sub>3</sub>, and T<sub>3</sub> induced a large increase in TR $\beta$  binding. In contrast, TR $\beta$  was found on *Trh* TRE site 4 without hormone, as previously shown (33), and T<sub>3</sub> dissociated TR $\beta$  from *Trh* TRE site 4. These differences may contribute to the different sensitivities of the two genes to T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression. Indeed, *Mc4r* TRE1 and *Trh* site 4 display very different sequences (Fig. S8B and C), and the neighboring chromatin contexts differ for each TRE. The *Mc4r* TRE1 sequence could bind nuclear receptors as

monomers (22), allowing TR to exert its own distinct transcriptional properties. The *Trh* site 4, on the contrary, preferentially binds TR/retinoid X receptor heterodimers (23). This TRE also overlaps with a canonical CREB-response element (8) that mediates rapid responses to cAMP/protein kinase A pathways. Thus *Trh* site 4 could recruit different sets of transcriptional coregulators and induce T<sub>3</sub> response kinetics different from that of the *Mc4r* TRE1.

The data thus provide in vivo data on the molecular mechanisms of T<sub>3</sub>-dependent gene repression by TR $\beta$  in a physiological context. It should be borne in mind, however, that other TR response elements also could participate in the regulations studied, and that the contribution of TR $\alpha$  remains to be clarified.

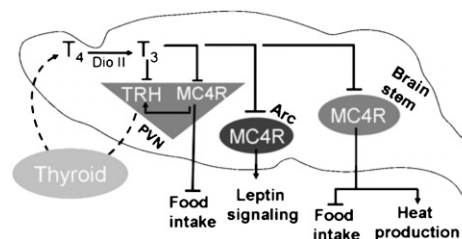
## Specific Contributions of TR $\alpha$ and TR $\beta$ Isoforms to *Mc4r* Regulation.

To analyze further the transcriptional regulations induced by TH, we used an iGT paradigm in the newborn mouse hypothalamus. With iGT, hypothalamic neurons are transfected with plasmid DNA complexed with polyethylenimine (PEI). PEI is one of the most exploited nonviral gene transfer agents and can be used in the same manner as its viral counterparts (e.g., adeno-associated virus or lentivirus). Previous results using this technique established that it provides region- and neuron-specific regulations (24). Somatic iGT transgenesis in pups confirmed that hypothyroidism upregulates transcription from the *Mc4r* promoter, whereas T<sub>3</sub> represses hypothalamic MC4R-luc. These changes are synchronous with T<sub>3</sub> effects on *Trh* transcription (Fig. 4).

Functional TRs (TR $\alpha$ 1, TR $\beta$ 1, and TR $\beta$ 2) colocalize in many hypothalamic nuclei (5, 21). Each isoform exerts specific transcriptional activities on the *Trh* promoter (4, 24, 26, 27), differences which are caused by variations in N-terminal sequence (34). Overexpression and knockdown studies in newborn mice revealed TR isoform-specific and age-dependent effects on *Mc4r* transcription. For TR $\alpha$ , transient, hypothalamic knockdown of TR $\alpha$  activated *Mc4r* transcription in the newborn, but its long-term, generalized knockout resulted in repression in the adult. These stage-dependent differences could result from developmental compensatory effects in the mutant mouse. For TR $\beta$ , similar effects on T<sub>3</sub>-dependent regulation of *Mc4r* were seen in newborn and adult mice. Comparing the roles of each TR $\beta$  isoform in *Mc4r* and *Trh* transcription, that of TR $\beta$ 1 appears common to *Mc4r* and *Trh* promoters, and that of TR $\beta$ 2 seems to be gene specific. TR $\beta$ 2 activates T<sub>3</sub>-independent *Mc4r* basal expression, but for *Trh* regulation, it mediates T<sub>3</sub>-dependent repression (26). As discussed earlier, the mechanisms underlying such gene-specific regulations might be related to differences in the TRE sequences seen in *Mc4r* and *Trh* promoters, leading to gene-specific recruitment of transcription factors.

## Physiological Relevance of T<sub>3</sub>-Dependent Repression of *Mc4r* Expression.

The leptin/melanocortin pathway impinges on the HPT axis, adapting energy expenditure to metabolic reserves (8). Our results reveal a feedback loop targeting the melanocortin relay, with T<sub>3</sub> repressing



**Fig. 4.** Schema of T<sub>3</sub> repression of *Mc4r* expression in brain. The physiological consequences of modified thyroid status on *Trh* and *Mc4r* gene regulation and metabolic output are played out through modulation of *Mc4r* expression in key brain areas affecting metabolism, in parallel with *Trh* repression. Coordinated T<sub>3</sub> repression of *Mc4r* has energy-saving consequences. See Discussion for commentary.

*Mc4r* expression not only via hypothalamic *Trh* but also in other key energy-related brain regions. TH-dependent repression of *Mc4r* will have multiple physiological consequences. A first short-term consequence is orexigenia and increased weight gain, as seen in the  $T_4$ -treated mice (Fig. S1B). Indeed, hypothalamic  $T_3$ -dependent repression of *Mc4r* expression should reduce the sensitivity of TRH neurons to leptin/melanocortin inputs. Moreover, increased  $T_3$  also would reduce hypothalamic sensitivity to Agouti-related protein (AgRP) signaling and other MC4R ligands. More than 50% of hypophysiotropic TRH neurons receive AgRP fibers, and  $\alpha$ MSH fibers represent 38% of the innervation to PVN TRH neurons. Thus  $T_3$ -dependent repression of *Mc4r* would dampen brain global responsiveness to melanocortin anorectic signaling while stimulating orexigenic pathways through NPY signaling. Again, our findings are consistent with this prediction.  $T_3$  modulated the leptin-sensitive neuropeptides *Pomc* and *Npy* in the ARC, downregulating the *Pomc* precursor for  $\alpha$ MSH and increasing *Npy* mRNA, in line with published data (15, 17). In contrast, because hypothyroidism increases *Mc4r* expression in the PVN and ARC, low  $T_3$  would sensitize TRH neurons and their ARC counterparts to MC4R ligands (35), enhancing central metabolic responses (Fig. S8A). Future work should address whether the effects of TH on *Mc4r* expression are uniform across different hypothalamic cell populations or are limited to given neuronal categories. For instance, corticotropin-releasing hormone neurons, as well as TRH neurons, express MC4R (36). Thus  $T_3$  regulation of *Mc4r* could affect other neuroendocrine circuits. The largest repressive effect of  $T_3$  on *Mc4r* expression was in brainstem, which controls thermogenesis and meal size (37–39). Here,  $T_3$  repression of *Mc4r* could modulate autonomic outputs governing peripheral energy homeostasis and food intake.

The fact that *Mc4r* is regulated by thyroid status in different brain areas having distinct effects on metabolism has major physiological significance. Overall increased MC4R signaling will decrease food intake, increase thermogenesis, and restrict meal size. Each of these effects will reduce energy reserves and will, in parallel, be amplified by high  $T_3$ . To avoid excess catabolism,  $T_3$  feeds back on *Trh* (thereby reducing  $T_3$  production), providing a first line of defense against energy dissipation. However, if this process occurs without putting a brake on MC4R signaling, the energy-saving effects of  $T_3$  feedback on *Trh* would be neutralized or overridden: MC4R stimulates *Trh* transcription through cAMP and CREB (8), potentially overriding  $T_3$  feedback on *Trh*. Thus, coordination of leptin/melanocortin signaling and HPT axis pathways is achieved by a double  $T_3$ -dependent feedback loop, reinforcing maintenance of metabolic homeostasis (Fig. 4 and Fig. S8A).

During evolution, the selection of a syn-repression control by  $T_3$  on these two central genes could have provided a selective advantage through optimal regulation of energy conservation and homeostasis. The presence of the nTRE we identified in all mammals examined (mouse, rat, human, and pig) is a strong argument for the significance of this endocrine regulation in homeotherms.

In conclusion, this study demonstrates that thyroid status regulates *Mc4r* expression in major brain areas relevant to metabolic homeostasis.  $T_3$  directly mediates the regulation of *Mc4r* expression. Taken together, the data reinforce the concept that  $T_3$  has a major role in integrating endocrine and metabolic signaling at the central level.

## Materials and Methods

**Animals.** Animal care and experimentation were in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee, Veterinary Services Direction, Paris, France. Swiss wild-type mice were from Janvier. Mice lacking all TR $\beta$  or all TR $\alpha$  gene products [TR $\beta$ <sup>-/-</sup> (19) or TR $\alpha$ <sup>-/-</sup> (18)] were provided by J. Samarut (Ecole Normale Supérieure, Lyon,

France). For investigations of hypothyroidism, 8-week-old male mice were given iodine-deficient food containing 0.15% PTU (Harlan) and drinking water with 0.5 g/L PTU (Sigma-Aldrich) for 13 days before they were killed. To induce fetal and neonatal hypothyroidism, dams were given the iodine-deficient PTU diet from day 14 of gestation through lactation. For investigations of hyperthyroidism, adult mice were treated with 1.2  $\mu$ g/mL of  $T_4$  in drinking water for 13 days before they were killed.

**Assessment of  $T_4$  Levels.** Total  $T_4$  blood concentrations were quantified using ELISA kits (AbCys, Paris, France).

**In Situ Hybridization.** In situ hybridization protocol was adapted from (40) (see *SI Materials and Methods*).

**Plasmids.** TRH-f.luc and TR $\alpha$ 1, TR $\beta$ 1, and TR $\beta$ 2 plasmids were as described (27). MC4R-f.luc plasmid, provided by H. Krude (Charité Medical University, Berlin, Germany), contains -653 to +448 bp of the MC4R promoter cloned upstream of the Firefly luciferase-coding sequence of the pGL3 basic Luciferase reporter vector (Promega, Charbonnières les Bains, France). MC4R-Renilla luciferase (MC4R-r.luc) was designed in the laboratory (see *SI Materials and Methods*).

Two putative TREs in the hMC4R promoter region were mutated using the QuikChange II XL Site-directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) per the manufacturer's protocol. Primers for mutagenesis (Table S1) were from Invitrogen. Three MC4R-r.luc transgenes were generated and sequenced: TRE1m, TRE2m, and DBm (mutations in both TRE1 and TRE2).

The plasmid encoding shRNA against TR $\alpha$ 1 (shTR $\alpha$ 1) has been published (41). The two sets of shRNA against TR $\beta$  isoforms (25), shGFP and shSCR, bear the same backbone as shTR $\alpha$ 1. Design (Table S2 and S3) and cloning are described in *SI Materials and Methods*.

**In Vivo Transfection and Luciferase Assays.** DNA/PEI complexes and iGT were adapted from (24). For single and cotransfection iGT protocols and  $T_3$  treatments see *SI Materials and Methods*.

**In Vivo Chromatin Immunoprecipitation.** Pups were treated with  $T_3$  or vehicle and killed 20 h later. Dorsal hypothalamic regions including the PVN were dissected. Samples were fixed in 1% formaldehyde solution and sonicated. Control and  $T_3$ -treated samples were used for ChIP with a mix of anti-TR $\beta$ 1 and anti-TR $\beta$ 2 antibodies (Millipore) or without antibody (negative control). Precipitated DNA fragments were purified. Primers spanning the TRE sequences in *Mc4r* and *Trh* promoter were used in qPCR to measure enrichment of DNA samples. Negative controls comprised primers spanning irrelevant sequences in both gene sequences. The detailed ChIP protocol is provided in *SI Materials and Methods*.

**qPCR.** qPCR procedures used for *Mc4r*, *Trh*, *Pomc*, and *Npy* mRNA detection are described in *SI Materials and Methods*. Primers for specific TR mRNA detection were as described (21).

**Statistical Analysis.** qPCR results: boxes represent the fifth to ninety-fifth percentiles around the median with whiskers for minimum and maximum values. Statistical analysis for qPCR data compared the means of fold increase values  $\pm$  SD, using nonparametric ANOVA, followed by a permutation test (Cytel Studio software, Cambridge, MA) to compare the control and treated groups. Independent experiments ( $5 \leq n \leq 8$ ) were repeated three times, providing similar results and data were pooled.

iGT results are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM per group. ANOVA was used to compare groups followed by multiple-comparisons Bonferroni's post-test. Each experiment was carried out with  $n \geq 10$  and was repeated at least three times providing the same results. In all cases, typical experiments are shown, differences were considered significant at  $P < 0.05$  with \*,  $P < 0.05$ ; \*\*,  $P < 0.01$ ; \*\*\*,  $P < 0.001$ .

**ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.** We thank J. Elmquist (Southwestern University) for providing the plasmid for mouse *Mc4r* probes; Z. Hassani, P. Bilesimo, L. Sachs (UMR 7221, Paris), and C. Fekete (Hungarian Academy of Science, Budapest) for advice on experimental techniques; and G. Levi and G. Morvan (UMR 7221, Paris) for insightful comments. S. Sosinsky and P. Durand provided excellent animal care. This work was supported by European Union PIONEER and CRESCENDO contracts. S.D. received fellowships from Nestlé Nutrition and the Fondation pour la Recherche Médicale. A.L.-J. received a PhD grant from PolyPlus Transfection.

1. Barker SB (1951) Mechanism of action of the thyroid hormone. *Physiol Rev* 31: 205–243.

2. Blair T, Forbes JM (1974) Changes in voluntary food intake, body-weight and metabolic rate with thyroxine treatment in sheep. *Proc Nutr Soc* 33:78A.

3. Silva JE (1995) Thyroid hormone control of thermogenesis and energy balance. *Thyroid* 5:481–492.
4. Lezoualc'h F, et al. (1992) Assignment of the beta-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.
5. Lechan RM, Fekete C (2004) Feedback regulation of thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH): Mechanisms for the non-thyroidal illness syndrome. *J Endocrinol Invest* 27 (6, Suppl):105–119.
6. Krotkiewski M (2002) Thyroid hormones in the pathogenesis and treatment of obesity. *Eur J Pharmacol* 440:85–98.
7. Hollenberg AN (2008) The role of the thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH) neuron as a metabolic sensor. *Thyroid* 18:131–139.
8. Harris M, et al. (2001) Transcriptional regulation of the thyrotropin-releasing hormone gene by leptin and melanocortin signaling. *J Clin Invest* 107:111–120.
9. Wikberg JE, Mutulis F (2008) Targeting melanocortin receptors: An approach to treat weight disorders and sexual dysfunction. *Nat Rev Drug Discov* 7:307–323.
10. Mountjoy KG, Mortrud MT, Low MJ, Simerly RB, Cone RD (1994) Localization of the melanocortin-4 receptor (MC4-R) in neuroendocrine and autonomic control circuits in the brain. *Mol Endocrinol* 8:1298–1308.
11. Balthasar N, et al. (2005) Divergence of melanocortin pathways in the control of food intake and energy expenditure. *Cell* 123:493–505.
12. Garza JC, Kim CS, Liu J, Zhang W, Lu XY (2008) Adeno-associated virus-mediated knockdown of melanocortin-4 receptor in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus promotes high-fat diet-induced hyperphagia and obesity. *J Endocrinol* 197:471–482.
13. Gao Q, Horvath TL (2008) Neuronal control of energy homeostasis. *FEBS Lett* 582: 132–141.
14. Kong WM, et al. (2004) Triiodothyronine stimulates food intake via the hypothalamic ventromedial nucleus independent of changes in energy expenditure. *Endocrinology* 145:5252–5258.
15. Coppola A, et al. (2007) A central thermogenic-like mechanism in feeding regulation: An interplay between arcuate nucleus T3 and UCP2. *Cell Metab* 5:21–33.
16. Perello M, et al. (2006) Thyroid hormones selectively regulate the posttranslational processing of prothyrotropin-releasing hormone in the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus. *Endocrinology* 147:2705–2716.
17. Ishii S, et al. (2003) Hypothalamic neuropeptide Y/Y1 receptor pathway activated by a reduction in circulating leptin, but not by an increase in circulating ghrelin, contributes to hyperphagia associated with triiodothyronine-induced thyrotoxicosis. *Neuroendocrinology* 78:321–330.
18. Gauthier K, et al. (2001) Genetic analysis reveals different functions for the products of the thyroid hormone receptor alpha locus. *Mol Cell Biol* 21:4748–4760.
19. Gauthier K, et al. (1999) Different functions for the thyroid hormone receptors TRalpha and TRbeta in the control of thyroid hormone production and post-natal development. *EMBO J* 18:623–631.
20. Dyess EM, et al. (1988) Triiodothyronine exerts direct cell-specific regulation of thyrotropin-releasing hormone gene expression in the hypothalamic paraventricular nucleus. *Endocrinology* 123:2291–2297.
21. Clerget-Froidevaux MS, Seugnet I, Demeneix BA (2004) Thyroid status co-regulates thyroid hormone receptor and co-modulator genes specifically in the hypothalamus. *FEBS Lett* 569:341–345.
22. Lubrano-Berthelier C, et al. (2003) The human MC4R promoter: Characterization and role in obesity. *Diabetes* 52:2996–3000.
23. Hollenberg AN, et al. (1995) The human thyrotropin-releasing hormone gene is regulated by thyroid hormone through two distinct classes of negative thyroid hormone response elements. *Mol Endocrinol* 9:540–550.
24. Guissouma H, Ghorbel MT, Seugnet I, Ouatas T, Demeneix BA (1998) Physiological regulation of hypothalamic TRH transcription in vivo is T3 receptor isoform specific. *FASEB J* 12:1755–1764.
25. Guissouma H, Froidevaux MS, Hassani Z, Demeneix BA (2006) In vivo siRNA delivery to the mouse hypothalamus confirms distinct roles of TR beta isoforms in regulating TRH transcription. *Neurosci Lett* 406:240–243.
26. Abel ED, Ahima RS, Boers ME, Elmquist JK, Wondisford FE (2001) Critical role for thyroid hormone receptor beta2 in the regulation of paraventricular thyrotropin-releasing hormone neurons. *J Clin Invest* 107:1017–1023.
27. Dupré SM, et al. (2004) Both thyroid hormone receptor (TR)beta 1 and TR beta 2 isoforms contribute to the regulation of hypothalamic thyrotropin-releasing hormone. *Endocrinology* 145:2337–2345.
28. Vaisse C, et al. (2000) Melanocortin-4 receptor mutations are a frequent and heterogeneous cause of morbid obesity. *J Clin Invest* 106:253–262.
29. Huszar D, et al. (1997) Targeted disruption of the melanocortin-4 receptor results in obesity in mice. *Cell* 88:131–141.
30. Koller KJ, Wolff RS, Warden MK, Zoeller RT (1987) Thyroid hormones regulate levels of thyrotropin-releasing-hormone mRNA in the paraventricular nucleus. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 84:7329–7333.
31. Levine M, Tjian R (2003) Transcription regulation and animal diversity. *Nature* 424: 147–151.
32. Shibusawa N, Hollenberg AN, Wondisford FE (2003) Thyroid hormone receptor DNA binding is required for both positive and negative gene regulation. *J Biol Chem* 278: 732–738.
33. Froidevaux MS, et al. (2006) The co-chaperone XAP2 is required for activation of hypothalamic thyrotropin-releasing hormone transcription in vivo. *EMBO Rep* 7: 1035–1039.
34. Guissouma H, et al. (2002) Feedback on hypothalamic TRH transcription is dependent on thyroid hormone receptor N terminus. *Mol Endocrinol* 16:1652–1666.
35. Smith MA, et al. (2007) Melanocortins and agouti-related protein modulate the excitability of two arcuate nucleus neuron populations by alteration of resting potassium conductances. *J Physiol* 578:425–438.
36. Lu XY, Barsh GS, Akil H, Watson SJ (2003) Interaction between alpha-melanocyte-stimulating hormone and corticotropin-releasing hormone in the regulation of feeding and hypothalamo-pituitary-adrenal responses. *J Neurosci* 23:7863–7872.
37. Fan W, Morrison SF, Cao WH, Yu P (2007) Thermogenesis activated by central melanocortin signaling is dependent on neurons in the rostral raphe pallidus (rRPa) area. *Brain Res* 1179:61–69.
38. Skibicka KP, Grill HJ (2008) Energetic responses are triggered by caudal brainstem melanocortin receptor stimulation and mediated by local sympathetic effector circuits. *Endocrinology* 149:3605–3616.
39. Zheng H, Patterson LM, Phifer CB, Berthoud HR (2005) Brain stem melanocortinergic modulation of meal size and identification of hypothalamic POMC projections. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 289:R247–R258.
40. Becker N, Seugnet I, Guissouma H, Dupre SM, Demeneix BA (2001) Nuclear corepressor and silencing mediator of retinoic and thyroid hormone receptors corepressor expression is incompatible with T(3)-dependent TRH regulation. *Endocrinology* 142: 5321–5331.
41. Hassani Z, et al. (2007) A hybrid CMV-H1 construct improves efficiency of PEI-delivered shRNA in the mouse brain. *Nucleic Acids Res* 35:e65.