Identification of a Novel Isoform of the Retinoic Acid Receptor γ Expressed in the Mouse Embryo

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Retinoic acid is known to have profound effects on developmental processes. It has been implicated as a putative morphogen in the developing chick limb bud and regenerating amphibian limb blastema and has been demonstrated to have powerful teratogenic effects in mammals, including humans. Recently, three specific retinoic acid receptors (RARs), RAR α , - β , and - γ , were identified and shown to be members of the steroid receptor superfamily. We report the identification of a novel $RAR\gamma$ isoform, mRAR γB , which differs from the previously described mouse RARy at its amino terminus. In addition, we show that both RARy isoforms are expressed maximally at midgestation in structures known to be affected adversely by retinoic acid administration to pregnant mice. Multiple RAR isoforms, each of which may play ^a unique or combinatorial role as a regulator of mammalian development, are thus expressed in the mouse embryo.

Retinoic acid, an active metabolite of vitamin A, has profound effects on vertebrate development. Teratogenic manipulations have demonstrated that local application of retinoic acid at the anterior margin of the developing chick limb bud induces a mirror-symmetrical digit pattern duplication (9, 26, 30, 31). Striking effects of retinoic acid have also been observed in the regenerating amphibian limb, where retinoic acid causes duplication along the proximodistal axis (19, 21). Retinoic acid is also known as a powerful teratogen whose effects are characterized by severe limb and cranial defects, including cleft secondary palate, midfacial malformations, abnormalities of the external and middle ear, and neural tube deformities both in mice (24) and humans (18).

The identification of a retinoic acid receptor (RAR) (13, 22) which belongs to the superfamily of steroid-thyroid hormone receptors provided a potential model for the molecular mechanism of action of retinoic acid. This family of nuclear receptors controls cell functions by directly regulating gene expression, and by analogy it has been proposed that the interaction between retinoic acid and its receptor induces a cascade of regulatory events that results from the activation of specific gene networks by the ligand-receptor complex (13). Since the initial discovery of the RAR, three different forms have been identified on the basis of their predicted amino acid sequences and designated RARa (13, 22), $-\beta$ (2, 3), and $-\gamma$ (16, 34). The three receptors are remarkably similar to one another except for their amino and carboxy termini. However, the different RARs can be distinguished by their affinities to retinoic acid (3; V. Giguère and R. M. Evans, Methods Enzymol., in press) and the distinct spatial pattern of expression of their mRNAs in adult mouse and human tissues (2, 6, 13, 34). These findings suggest that each receptor subtype may perform a specific biological function.

We now report the isolation of ^a cDNA encoding ^a novel isoform of mouse RAR_{γ} . The protein, designated mRAR $_{\gamma}B$, differs from the previously characterized mRARy (here

referred to as $RARyA$ in its amino-terminal region. Both RAR_yA and -B transcripts are transiently expressed during mouse embryogenesis, with the highest level of expression detected in structures known to be adversely affected by retinoic acid administration to pregnant females. The abundant expression of RAR_{γ} in the developing mouse embryo suggests that the physiological and teratogenic activities of the retinoids might be mediated through these nuclear receptors.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Isolation and sequencing of mouse RAR cDNA clones. The clone λ mE7.1 (mRAR γ B) was isolated from a 7.5-day-old mouse embryo λ gtlO cDNA library, and clone λ mE13.20 $(mRARyA)$ was obtained from a 12.5-day-old mouse embryo λ gt10 cDNA library with hybridization probes derived from the cDNA encoding the human $RAR\alpha$ (13). The hybridization mixture contained 35% formamide, $1 \times$ Denhardt solution, $5 \times$ SSPE ($1 \times$ SSPE is 0.15 M NaCl, 10 mM sodium phosphate, and ¹ mM EDTA [pH 7.7]), 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 100 μ g of denaturated salmon sperm DNA ml⁻¹, and 10⁶ cpm of ³²P-labeled DNA probes $(>10^8$ cpm μ g⁻¹) ml^{-1} . Duplicate nitrocellulose filters were hybridized at $42^{\circ}C$ for 16 h, washed three times for 20 min per wash in $2 \times SSC$ $(1 \times SSC$ is 0.15 M NaCl plus 0.015 M sodium citrate)–0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate at 55°C and autoradiographed at -70° C with an intensifying screen. Clones λ mE7.1 and λ mE13.20 were subcloned into the EcoRI site of pGEM4 (Promega Biotec), resulting in the creation of pGmRARyA and pGmRARyB, and the inserts were digested with a number of restriction enzymes. The resulting fragments were subcloned in both orientations into the M13 sequencing vectors mpl8 and mpl9 and sequenced by the dideoxy procedure (25) with modified T7 polymerase (27) and dITP (20) to eliminate compression when required.

Recombinant plasmids. Plasmids pRSmRARyB and $pRSmRAR_YA$, which direct the synthesis of the two isoforms of $mRAR_{\gamma}$ in COS-1 cells, were constructed as follows. To obtain $pRSmRAR_{\gamma}B$, the human glucocorticoid

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receptor cDNA contained in the parent expression vector pRShGR (11) was excised by digestion with Asp 718 and BamHI, and the plasmid DNA was blunted by end-filling with Klenow polymerase to yield the pRS vector. A fragment of the mRARyB cDNA containing the entire open reading frame was obtained by digestion with NruI and XbaI followed by end-filling and ligation to the blunt pRS vector. To generate pRSmRAR γ A, the parent vector pRShGRN (12) was digested with BamHI, end filled to generate a blunt end, and then digested by *NcoI* to remove the human glucocorticoid receptor cDNA insert. The sequence encoding the $mRARyA$ was excised from the cDNA clone by digestion with XbaI, end-filling, and digestion by NcoI and was then inserted into NcoI-BamHI (blunt)-digested pRShGRN to yield $pRSmRARyA$. To generate the expression vector pRShRARB, an insert from the human RARB cDNA (2) was excised by partial digestion with MaeI and ligated to the blunt pRS vector. Construction of reporter plasmid AMTVpTRE-LUC, which contains the luciferase reporter gene linked to the mouse mammary tumor virus-long terminal repeat in which glucocorticoid-responsive elements have been deleted and replaced by a palindromic thyroid hormone responsive element (pTRE), was described elsewhere (33).

Transfection and luciferase and β -galactosidase assays. The recombinant RAR expression vectors and luciferase and β -galactosidase reporter genes were introduced into COS-1 cells by calcium phosphate coprecipitation as described previously (11, 15). Two micrograms of each RAR expression and luciferase reporter plasmid together with 500 ng of the β -galactosidase reporter vector were used per 6-cmdiameter dish. The following day, transfected cells were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline and fed with Dulbecco modified Eagle medium supplemented with 5% (vol/vol) fetal calf serum containing the indicated concentration of retinoic acid or ethanol as control. As described elsewhere, luciferase (7) and β -galactosidase (14) assays were performed 24 h after induction of the cells with retinoic acid.

RNA analysis. Total RNA was isolated from whole mouse embryos or embryonic tissues by using guanidine thiocyanate (5), and the integrity of the RNA samples was confirmed by agarose gel electrophoresis and visualization of the rRNAs after ethidium bromide staining. For Northern (RNA) blot analysis, approximately 10 μ g of total RNA obtained from mouse embryos sacrificed at different stages of development was fractionated in a formaldehyde-agarose gel, blotted to N-Hybond (Amersham Corp.), hybridized to $32P$ -labeled DNA fragments, and washed as described previously (13). After exposure to the X-ray film, the filter was dehybridized by a 5-min treatment in a solution of 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate at 90°C, allowed to cool to room temperature, and rehybridized with the next probe. The three probes used in this study were obtained as follows. The probe common to both mRARyA and -B was excised from the RAR_YB cDNA clone with PstI and encompassed a 1,282-base-pair (bp) region containing part of the carboxyterminal coding region and ³' untranslated sequence; the probes specific for $mRAR\gamma A$ and -B were obtained by digesting their respective cDNA clones with EcoRI and Asp 718, giving fragments of 476 and 262 bp, respectively, that contain the ⁵' untranslated sequence and coding region specific to each receptor subtype.

For the RNase protection assay, $20 \mu g$ of total RNA obtained from various mouse embryonic tissues was precipitated; suspended in hybridization buffer containing 80% formamide, ⁴⁰ mM PIPES [piperazine-N,N'-bis(2-ethanesulfonic acid); pH 6.7], 0.4 M NaCI, and ¹ mM EDTA; and hybridized overnight with antisense probes specific for RAR γ A or RAR γ B in 80% formamide at 50°C. The hybrids were digested with 40 μ g of RNase A and 700 U of RNase T₁ per ml and then treated with proteinase K, phenol extracted, and precipitated. The hybrids were electrophoresed on a 6% sequencing gel with M13 sequence reactions as size markers. The antisense probes were derived from subclones of RAR γ A and RAR γ B consisting of the 5' EcoRI-KpnI fragments of each isoform subcloned into pGEM3 and pGEM7z, respectively. The RARyA subclone was digested to completion with NcoI and transcribed with SP6 RNA polymerase in the presence of [32P]CTP to generate a 270-nucleotide probe. The $RAR\gamma B$ subclone was digested to completion with EcoRI and transcribed with SP6 polymerase as well, which produced a 322-nucleotide probe.

RESULTS

Cloning of mouse RAR cDNAs. To explore the possible role of RAR(s) during mouse embryogenesis, we wished to isolate cDNAs encoding mouse homologs to the previously described human RAR α and RAR β . Two λ gtl0 cDNA libraries made with $poly(A)^+$ RNA obtained from 7.5- and 13.5-day-old mouse embryos were screened under reduced stringency conditions with hybridization probes derived from the human $RAR\alpha$ cDNAs (13). Several positive clones were isolated and characterized by restriction enzyme and sequence analyses. As expected, two groups of cDNA clones were shown to encode the mouse homologs to human $RAR\alpha$ and $RAR\beta$ (sequence data not shown). However, two other distinct clones, designated λ mE7.1 and λ m13.20, were determined to be identical to each other except for their respective ⁵' ends (Fig. 1). Amino acid sequence analysis revealed discrete presumptive initiator methionine codons located at nucleotides 67 to 69 of clone XmE7.1 and 253 to 255 of clone λ mE13.20 followed by open reading frames of 447 and 458 amino acid residues, respectively. After the terminator codon is a 1,088-nucleotide ³' untranslated region with ^a consensus polyadenylation signal (AATAAA) found 20 nucleotides upstream of a polyadenylated tract. The protein encoded by clone Xml3.20 was revealed to be identical to the recently described RAR_{γ} (34) and is here referred to as RAR_YA. Therefore, the gene product of λ mE7.1, designated RAR γ B, constitutes a novel RAR γ isoform with ^a different amino-terminal domain. DNA sequence analysis (Fig. 1) reveals that the point of divergence between RARyA and RARyB, nucleotides ¹ to ⁴³⁵ and ¹ to 216, respectively, corresponds to a splice junction between exons 1 and 2 of the human $RAR\alpha$ gene (V. Giguere, unpublished data), suggesting that the two clones are generated by usage of two distinct promoters. Studies of the genomic organization of the mouse $RAR\gamma$ gene are in progress, and preliminary results indicate that the specific DNA sequences encoding the amino-terminal regions of RAR_yA and $-B$ are closely linked, since a genomic clone which hybridizes with both ⁵' probes (J. Rossant and R. Zirngibl, unpublished data) has been isolated.

Sequence comparison. As depicted schematically in Fig. 2, the mRAR γ B and mRAR γ A proteins show no amino acid sequence similarity at their amino termini, which is consistent with the observation of a hypervariable sequence in this region of different members of the steroid-thyroid hormone receptor superfamily (10). Interestingly, further amino acid comparisons of mRAR γ B and mRAR γ A with mRAR α and $mRARB$ show 28% amino acid identity between the amino

RARYB

181 GAGTCTTTTGCCTGGGCACAGCCTGCCAGTCTACAA

RARYA

COMMON

2686

FIG. 1. Nucleotide and deduced amino acid sequences of two mouse RAR isoforms. The sequence encoding the two proteins is divided AND THE SERVICE CONTROLLED IN SUCHER, THE SERVICE IN EXPLORER INTO THE SULTER IN SULFUL AND PROTEINS IS AN ARA
AmE13.20, respectively. The location of the polyadenylated tract is identical in the two cDNA clones. Nucleotid

FIG. 2. Schematic amino acid comparisons among the four mouse RAR isoforms. Amino acid sequences have been aligned schematically according to the functional structure domain of the steroid-thyroid hormone receptor and RAR superfamilies. The percentage of amino acid identity between each receptor and mRARyB is indicated within the clear boxes, and identity with the specific N-terminal regions of RARyA is shown inside the crosshatched boxes. The amino acid positions of domain boundaries are shown for each receptor.

termini of mRAR γ A and mRAR α and 31% similarity between $mRAR_{\gamma}B$ and $mRAR_{\beta}$ in the same region. Additional amino acid sequence analysis reveals high degrees of conservation both in the DNA- and retinoic acid-binding domains between the mRAR γ s and mRAR α (97 and 85%, respectively) and between the mRAR γ s and mRAR β (95 and 90%, respectively).

Expression of functional RARyB. To demonstrate the functional identity of the novel gene product as an RAR, expression vectors containing the cDNAs encoding either mRARyB or -A under the transcriptional control of the Rous sarcoma virus long terminal repeat were constructed and cotransfected in the mammalian cell line COS-1 together with the reporter plasmid ΔMTV -pTRE-LUC that has been shown to be responsive to both thyroid hormone receptors and RARs (29, 33). Transfection with the RAR γ B expression vector $pRSmRAR\gamma B$ resulted in a two- to fourfold stimulation of luciferase activity in the absence of retinoic acid (data not shown). This constitutive activity was also observed when pRSmRAR γ A was introduced in COS-1 cells. Whether this constitutive activity is an intrinsic property of the RAR_Y s or observed only in the context of this cotransfection assay remains to be investigated. However, increasing concentrations of retinoic acid led to a 20-fold stimulation of luciferase activity by mRARyB with ^a 50% effective dose of \sim 0.5 nM (Fig. 3). A similar dose-response curve was observed when mRARyA was substituted for mRARyB (data not shown). The response properties of mRARyB were also compared with those of human $RAR\beta$. In our assay, the 80-fold human RARß activation of luciferase activity by retinoic acid was observed with a 50% effective dose of 2 nM. It has been previously demonstrated that human $RAR\alpha$ mediates activation of transcription at concentrations of retinoic acid 10-fold higher than those for human RAR β (3; Giguere and Evans, in press). Thus, all three RARs respond to different concentrations of their ligand in this transcriptional assay. Whether these results are the reflection of different affinities of each RAR for retinoic acid remains to be investigated.

Expression of \mathbf{RAR}_{γ} isoforms in the mouse embryo. To examine the temporal pattern of expression of the RARys in the mouse embryo, we performed Northern blot analysis with RNA extracted from whole mouse embryos at different

FIG. 3. Retinoic acid-dependent transcriptional activation by mouse $RAR\gamma B$ and human $RAR\beta$. Luciferase activity was measured by using COS-1 cell extracts obtained after cotransfection of the reporter plasmid AMTV-pTRE-LUC, the expression vector carrying mouse RAR γ B (\bullet) or human RAR β (O) and the plasmid RSV-BGAL as internal control. Because of significant differences in their potential to stimulate transcription in this assay, mouse $RAR\gamma B$ and human $RAR\beta$ responses to increasing doses of retinoic acid are shown on different scales (left and right, respectively) in arbitrary units of luciferase enzyme activity normalized for transfection efficiency, with β -galactosidase activity as an internal control.

stages of development. When a 1,282-bp PstI fragment common to both mRAR γ A and mRAR γ B cDNAs was used as ^a probe, two RNA species of 2.9 and 2.7 kilobases were detected as early as day 9.5. Levels of these mRNA species peaked around day 12.5 and declined substantially at day 16.5 (Fig. 4). Using probes specific to $mRAR_{\gamma}A$ and

FIG. 4. Northern blot analysis of RAR_{γ} mRNAs in mouse embryos at different stages of development. The nylon filter was first hybridized with a DNA probe common to both mRAR γ transcripts (A), washed, and exposed to an X-ray film for 4 days. The filter was then dehybridized and rehybridized with ^a DNA probe specific for $mRAR\gamma B$ (B), washed, and exposed for 6 days. The procedure was repeated once more with an RARyA-specific DNA probe (C). Arrows indicate the position of each specific transcript. The size markers were the 28S (4,712 bp) and 18S (1,869 bp) rRNAs.

FIG. 5. RNase protection analysis of RARyB and -A transcripts in 13.5-day-old mouse embryo. Total RNA (20 μ g) from various mouse embryo tissues was hybridized to either RARyB (lanes B)- or $RARyA$ (lanes A)-specific antisense riboprobe overnight at 50°C. After digestion with RNases A and T_1 to remove nonhybridized probe, the resulting protected hybrids were electrophoresed on ^a 6% sequencing gel. The RAR_YA 270-base antisense probe was protected by embryo RNA to yield ^a 225-base protected fragment, while 257 bases of the 322-base RAR_YB antisense probe were protected. The leftmost two experiments show control hybridizations performed with sense RNA generated from Clal and Kpnl digests of the RAR γ B and RAR γ A subclones, respectively, using T7 RNA polymerase in each case. The RARyB subclone contained an extra piece of polylinker which prohibited the use of KpnI in this experiment, and consequently the sense RNA contained an extra ¹⁴ bases of polylinker which lengthened the protected fragment relative to that generated by embryo RNA. Lanes: 1, undigested probes; ² and 3, probe hybridized, respectively, with or without sense transcripts and digested with RNases. Note that, as evidenced by its presence in the experimental lanes, RARyA probe was somewhat resistant to RNase.

 $mRARyB$ derived from the 5' ends of the respective cDNAs, we could determine that the 2.9-kilobase mRNA encodes RAR γ A and the 2.7-kilobase mRNA encodes RAR γ B (Fig. 4). The sizes of the mRNAs indicate that we had isolated nearly full-length cDNAs for each $RAR\gamma$ isoform.

This result prompted us to investigate in more detail the spatial pattern of expression of each specific transcript in the 13.5-day-old embryo, when transcripts are most abundant (Fig. 4). When various tissues from 13.5-day-old embryos were analyzed by RNase protection assay, expression of both RARys appeared to be concentrated in limbs, jaw, and carcass (which contains skeleton and skin) and to a lesser extent in lung and viscera, while it was not detected appreciably in brain or liver (Fig. 5). Northern blot analysis (Fig. 4) had suggested that RARyB was expressed to ^a lesser extent than $RARyA$. However, this may have been because of a lower specific labeling of the $RAR\gamma B$ probe, a consistent observation. RNase protection analysis revealed roughly equal levels of both transcripts in those tissues in which the gene was strongly expressed.

DISCUSSION

The identification of two mouse $RAR\gamma$ isoforms, which differ solely in their amino termini, suggests that the two RAR_Y transcripts are derived from a single gene and therefore indicates a complex genomic organization for this particular member of the steroid hormone-thyroid hormone receptor superfamily. The most likely explanation at this time is differential promoter usage, as the 5' untranslated sequences are distinct, although alterative splicing or other posttranscriptional events cannot be ruled out as explanations for the generation of these two transcripts. The dissimilarity of the amino termini of the putative $RAR_{\gamma}A$ and RAR_vB proteins is consistent with the observation that members of the steroid-thyroid hormone receptor superfamily contain a hypervariable region at their amino termini (10). However, amino acid sequence comparisons revealed significant identity between mRAR γ A and mRAR α (28%) and between mRAR ν B and mRAR β (31%) in the hypervariable region. This is the first observation of amino acid identity between different members of the steroid-thyroid hormone and retinoic acid receptor superfamily in this region of the protein. Functional analyses of steroid hormone receptors have shown that the requirement for the N-terminal region of the receptors is target gene specific (17, 32). This suggests that mRAR ν A and mRAR ν B may possess different transcriptional properties and therefore regulate specific subsets of target genes. However, the demonstration of cell- and/or promoter-specific transactivation functions for each receptor subtype must await the identification and molecular characterization of a number of retinoic acid responsive genes.

The recent demonstration in the chick embryo of a gradient of endogenous retinoic acid across the limb anlage (28), coupled with the previous observation of concentrationdependent changes in digit identity following exposure of the limb bud to ectopic retinoic acid (26, 30), lead to the suggestion that retinoic acid is a natural morphogen that specifies pattern formation. Additional support for a morphogenetic role of retinoic acid in vertebrate development comes from studies in amphibians. Xenopus embryos treated with retinoic acid show dramatic anterior-to-posterior transition in the central nervous system (8), while retinoids can alter pattern formation in the regenerating limbs of urodele amphibians (for a review, see reference 4). Although the precise mechanisms through which retinoic acid may specify pattern formation are not known, the demonstration of transcriptional activation by RARs (13, 22, 33, 34; this work) indicates that retinoic acid may have an effect as a transcriptional activator through interaction with the RARs. One prediction of this model is that one or more RAR subtypes must be expressed in the developing tissue. The recent localization by in situ hybridization of high and uniform levels of RAR_B mRNA in the mesenchymal regenerating blastema cells of the amputated limb of the adult newt (12) as well as the detection of RNA transcripts for the newt $RAR\alpha$ and $-\delta$ in forelimb and tail blastemas (23) supports the idea that retinoic acid establishes positional information through differential receptor activation of gene expression (12).

Evidence that retinoic acid may also direct pattern formation in mammals was provided by the observation that retinoic acid is a powerful teratogen in both mice (24) and humans (18). Retinoic acid causes three general types of abnormalities, affecting limb, craniofacial, and neural-tube development, as well as various lesser deformities. These have been termed retinoic acid embryopathy, but the mechanism through which retinoic acid causes retinoic acid embryopathy remains to be elucidated. However, the specificity of the defects caused by systemic elevation of the putative morphogen suggests that the ability to respond may be limited to particular cell types and therefore argues against the possibility that the deleterious effects observed with large doses of retinoic acid are solely the result of generalized toxicity. The different patterns of expression of RARs, as evidenced from the distribution of transcripts in adult tissues (2, 6, 13, 34) and in embryonic tissues (this work) certainly support the idea of cell autonomous responsiveness. The high levels of expression of the $RAR\gamma$ isoforms in limb and facial structures but not in neural tissue indicate that the effect of retinoic acid on the development of nonneural structures may be mediated by a different receptor combination than is the effect on the developing neural tube.

Finally, the recent demonstration that overexpression of a homeotic gene (Hox-1.1) in transgenic mice results in defects similar to retinoic acid embryopathy (1) is consistent with the idea that retinoic acid, through its interaction with an RAR, influences embryogenesis by regulating gene expression. Whether homeobox-containing or other regulatory genes are targets of the retinoic acid-RAR complex remains to be demonstrated. However, the presence of $RAR\gamma A$ and -B in the developing mouse embryo in structures known to be affected by administration of retinoids provides strong evidence that the physiological and teratogenic effects of retinoic acid on mammalian development result from receptor activation of developmental control genes.

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