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A Comparative Analysis of C57BL/6J and 6N Substrains; Chemokine/Cytokine Expression and Susceptibility to Laser-Induced Choroidal Neovascularization

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Abstract

Age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the most prevalent cause of blindness in the elderly. To study potential underlying mechanisms of AMD, animal models are utilized, focusing mostly on mice. Recently, genomic and phenotypic differences between the so-called control substrains, C57BL/6J and C57BL/6N, have been described in models of ocular and non-ocular diseases. In particular, the rd8 mutation of the Crb1 gene present in the C57BL/6N has been shown to impact certain ocular phenotypes and appears to augment phenotypes generally associated with inflammation. Here, we investigated angiogenic factor and cytokine expression using pathway arrays as well as the susceptibility to laser-induced choroidal neovascularization (CNV), a model of wet AMD, in the two substrains. Age-matched 3-month-old C57BL/6J and C57BL/6N animals differed in gene expression levels for angiogenic factors and cytokines, with 6N animals expressing higher levels of inflammatory markers than 6Js. Yet laser-induced CNV was comparable in size between the two substrains. This lack of difference in CNV size was correlated with a gene expression profile that was comparable between the two substrains, due to the fact that the degree of change in gene expression of inflammatory markers after CNV was blunted in 6N mice. In summary, significant gene expression differences exist between C57BL/6J and C57BL/6N animals, reinforcing the notion that appropriate litter-mate controls or genetic background controls need to be used. Contrary to our expectation, CNV was not augmented in 6N animals, suggesting that low chronic inflammation in the RPE might provide a level of preconditioning and protection against stress.

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Keywords

rd8 mutation; choroidal neovascularization; age-related macular degeneration; para-inflammation; pre-conditioning

> The most commonly used animal species to study models of age-related macular degeneration (AMD) is the mouse. Models include structural perturbations through laser photocoagulation (Rohrer et al., 2009) or subretinal PEG-8 injections (Lyzogubov et al., 2011) as well as a large number of genetically-altered animals (Pennesi et al., 2012). For all these models, genetically-homogenous inbred mice are used to reduce variability within experiments, improve reproducibility of experiments between different laboratories, and enable genetic mapping of effects of variance in strains. However, mutations and consequent genetic drift do occur. The original inbred C57BL/6J mouse strain was established at the Jackson Laboratory from the parental strain C57BL in 1948. In 1951, the F32 generation was moved to the National Institutes of Health, which resulted in the development of the C57BL/6N line. This genetic separation of the two substrains C57BL/6J and C57BL/6N by \sim 220 generations (Mekada et al., 2009) resulted in the presence of a couple of thousand single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs)(Yalcin et al., 2012), producing 34 SNPs and 2 indels in coding sequences that differ between the two strains, in addition to 15 structural variants that overlap a gene (Simon et al., 2013). These genetic variations are associated with changes in phenotypes, including ocular phenotypes (Luhmann et al., 2012), differences in rates of obesity (Heiker et al., 2014), susceptibility to cocaine (Kumar et al., 2013), and most likely others. Finally, despite the fact that AMD is an aging disease, the typical age group for CNV studies for pharmacology and pathway analyses is ~3 months of age. At that age, the eye has reached its final adult size and shape, which allows for consistent placement of the CNV lesions.

> Two of the main differences between the two strains are in the *Nnt* and the *Crb1* genes (Mekada et al., 2009). The Nnt gene encodes the nicotinamide nucleotide transhydrogenase protein, located on the inner mitochondrial membrane. This enzyme is responsible for reducing NADP+ and NAD+ to NADPH and NADH. In doing this, it helps regulate cellular redox homeostasis, apoptotic events, and energy use (Yin et al., 2012). A naturally occurring mutation arose in the C57BL/6J line between 1976 and 1984, in which exons 7-11 of Nnt were deleted. This deletion causes the NNT protein to be absent; this mutation has been associated with impaired glucose homeostasis control and reduced insulin secretion. In addition, NADPH acts as a cofactor to glutathione reductase, which regenerates the antioxidant glutathione. Without this pathway to regenerate the antioxidant, oxidative stress might be higher in these animals. The RD8 mutation on the other hand is in the $Crb1$ gene, encoding for a protein that is important for external limiting membrane integrity and photoreceptor development. This is an autosomal recessive, single nucleotide deletion that gives rise to a retinal degeneration phenotype (Mattapallil et al., 2012); and Crb variants in humans have been demonstrated in retinal diseases such as retinitis pigmentosa and Leber congenital amaurosis (Mehalow et al., 2003), and may contribute to AMD pathogenesis.

AMD occurs in two forms: wet and dry. Dry AMD leads to the slow degeneration and atrophy of the photoreceptors in the macula by mechanisms not fully understood; wet AMD is associated with choroidal neovascularization (CNV) in the area of the macula and leakage of these new vessels. AMD has age as a risk factor; however, other environmental and epidemiologic factors appear to play a role in the disease process. In particular smoking, light damage, body mass index, and race have been reported to be associated with disease risk (Chakravarthy et al., 2010). It is now accepted that an overactive complement system is tied to the incidence of AMD, based on histological, biochemical and genetic data (Zipfel et al., 2010). Other inflammatory or angiogenic factors that contribute to AMD include the proangiogenic factor vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), hepatocyte growth factor/ scatter factor (HGF/SF), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), acidic and basic fibroblast growth factor (aFGF and bFGF) as well as tumor necrosis factor-α (TNF-α) and the antiangiogenic factor pigment epithelium-derived factor (PEDF) (de Oliveira Dias et al., 2011; Tatar et al., 2006). In addition, inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin (IL)-1β and IL-18 (Campbell and Doyle, 2013), IL-17 (Liu et al., 2011), chemokines such as CCL2 and CX3CL1 (Raoul et al., 2010), and others may contribute to disease progression. Despite this inflammatory profile, patients with AMD do exhibit overt ocular inflammation, but rather demonstrate sterile inflammation in the diseased eyes (Whitcup et al., 2013).

Here we wished to identify the significance of genotypic differences of the two C57BL/6 substrains, 6J and 6N at 3-months-of age as they pertain to CNV and sterile inflammation.

For these studies, all experiments were performed in accordance with the ARVO Statement for the Use of Animals in Ophthalmic and Vision Research and were approved by the University Animal Care and Use Committee. Female and male mice from the two substrains, C57BL/6J (Jackson Laboratories, Indianapolis, IN) and C57BL/6N (Taconic, Hudson, NY) were utilized. Each mouse was genotyped prior to the study to confirm the presence and/or absence of the Nnt or Crb1 variant, using primers designed to distinguish between the Nnt (Nicholson et al., 2010) or Crb1 (Mattapallil et al., 2012) variants. Genotyping confirmed that the C57BL/6J mice have the Nnt exon 7-11 deletion, but are wild type for the rd8 locus; whereas the C57BL/6N mice are wild type for the Nnt and mutant for the rd8 locus (**Fig. 1A**).

A priori, based on the presence or absence of the Nnt and the Crb1 genes, differences in cellular homeostasis are predicted. Without the *Nnt* gene, the gene product which helps regulate cellular redox homeostasis, apoptotic events, and energy use, tissues might experience higher levels of oxidative stress. Likewise, the rd8 variant might exacerbate conditions of inflammation and contribute to AMD pathogenesis (Luhmann et al., 2012; Mattapallil et al., 2012; Tuo et al., 2004). To determine the effects of the two genotypes on their chemokine/cytokine profiles, the Mouse Inflammatory Response and Autoimmunity RT² Profiler PCR array (Cat # PAMM-077Z; SABiosciences, Frederick, MD) were utilized according to the manufacturer's instructions. RPE-choroid fractions were isolated from control and CNV eyes 6 days following laser-induced photocoagulation of Bruch's membrane. Tissues from 4-6 animals were pooled for each strain from each experimental condition, RNA extracted and cDNA generated for hybridization. Fold change in gene expression was calculated using the web-based module provided by the array manufacturer.

Results were returned as relative gene expression level [2^(−avg Ct)] with genes of interest normalized to the arithmetic mean of the five housekeeping genes provided, Actb (beta actin), B2m (beta-2 microglobulin), Gapdh (glyceraldehyde-3-3phosphate dehydrogenase), Gus (glucoronidase, beta) and Hsp90ab1 (heat shock protein 90 alpha, class B member 1). The arithmetic mean of the house keeping genes among the four groups and six comparisons did not differ significantly (ANOVA; treatment effect: $P=0.28$; with individual P-values ranging from 0.09-0.87). At 3-months-of-age, the C56BL/6N substrain with the rd8 mutation was found to have higher expression levels of chemokines and cytokines when compared to the 6J animals (**Table IA**). Of the 80 genes present on the array, 35 of the genes were differentially expressed ($P < 0.05$ and 2-fold change), 28 of which can be classified as pro-inflammatory, 7 of which are anti-inflammatory or contribute to homeostasis. On average, the pro-inflammatory genes were increased in expression (5.63 \pm 1.59; Z test, P <0.001), whereas the anti-inflammatory and homeostasic components were no different from zero (1.93 \pm 3.92; Z test, P=0.3) indicative of an inflammatory phenotype. Increased expression is noted in particular for complement component $3 (C3)$, the complement component 3a receptor 1 (C3ar1), the chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 2 (Ccr2) and interleukin 17A $(II-17a)$, gene products thought to be associated with AMD.

Since the 6N mice appear to have an inflammatory phenotype when compared to the 6J strain, it was of interest whether the 6N strain would exhibit greater susceptibility to CNV development. CNV lesions were induced in four spots per eye surrounding the optic nerve as described by us previously, using argon-laser photocoagulation (532 nm, 100 μm spot size, 0.1 s duration, 100 mW) (Rohrer et al., 2009). CNV lesions were assessed using optical coherence tomography (OCT) on day 5 after laser-photocoagulation of Bruch's membrane (**Fig. 1B**) using a SD-OCT Bioptigen® Spectral Domain Ophthalmic Imaging System (Bioptigen Inc., Durham, NC). Rectangular volume scans set at 1.6×1.6 mm, consisting of 100 B-scans (1000 A-scans per B-scan) were performed. Cross-sectional area of the lesions was determined using methods described by Giani et al. in which and the en-face fundus reconstruction tool was used to determine the center of the lesion by identifying the midline passing through the area of the RPEBruch's membrane rupture with the axial interval positioned at the level of the RPE/choroid complex (Giani et al., 2011). Using vertical calipers at the site of each lesion, the area of the hyporeflective spot produced in the fundus image was calculated with the aid of ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD). The mean CNV lesion area was determined by averaging lesion spot sizes from each eye for 6J and 6N animals, indicating that the two genotypes were equally susceptible to CNV (**Fig. 1C**) (CNV size measured in pixel density; 6J: $3,323 \pm 203$; 6N: $3,322 \pm 212$; t test, $P=1.0$).

The lack of greater susceptibility to a chemokine/cytokine-dependent disease process in the 6N mice suggests that the constant exposure of the ocular tissues to a pro-inflammatory condition, presumably from birth, might precondition the eye to be less prone to inflammation. PCR arrays were compared within each genotype as well as between the two genotypes for changes in gene expression in response to CNV. Of the 80 genes present on the array, 19 of the genes were differentially expressed in the RPE-choroid samples from 6N mice (16/3 pro- versus anti-inflammatory) (**Table IB**); 31 genes were altered in the 6J

samples (26/5 pro- versus anti-inflammatory) (**Table IC**) ($P < 0.05$ and 2-fold change). In the 6N samples, the differences were centered on a median of -2.62 (-19.7 to 5.5) when including all genes, or -2.77 (-6.8 to 5.5) when excluding the anti-inflammatory or homeostatic genes, which in both cases, did not differ from zero (Z test, $P=0.98$). In the 6J samples, the Z test indicated a pro-inflammatory state when analyzing all genes together (median of 2.53; range of -3.8 to 19.8; Z test, $P \le 0.002$), or when excluding the antiinflammatory or homeostatic genes (median of 3.01; range of -3.8 to 19.8; Z test, P <0.0004). Of the genes that were differentially expressed in the two genotypes, 11 were found to overlap, (pro-inflammatory genes: *Ccl12, Ccl2, Ccl5, Ccl7, Ccr3, Cxcl10, Cxcl5*, II/a and $IIIrn$; and anti-inflammatory or homeostatic genes: Cebpd and $II23a$); and of those pro-inflammatory genes, with the exception of Il1a, Il1rn which were upregulated in both substrains, all the cytokines/chemokine genes were elevated in the 6J strain in CNV when compared to the 6J control and downregulated in the 6N strain in CNV when compared to its substrain control. Finally, the comparison of the gene expression response to CNV between the two genotypes revealed that only 8 genes were found to differ (**Table 1D**) (median of -2.59; range of -4.7 to 5.1), with all 8 genes belonging to the pro-inflammatory category. Overall, the inflammatory state of the two substrains induced by CNV was comparable $(Z$ test, $P < 0.8$). The main results of the current study are: 1) Genetic profiling for cytokines and chemokines indicated an elevated pro-inflammatory state in the unperturbed 6N mouse retina which are wild type for the *Nnt* gene but carry a mutation for the rd8 locus when compared to those isolated from C57BL/6J mice which carry a mutation in the *Nnt* gene, but are wild type for the rd8 locus. 2) Laser-induced CNV was, however, comparable in size between the 6J and 6N mice. 3) CNV resulted in a large increase in expression of inflammatory markers in 6J mice, whereas this response was significant blunted in 6N mice. 4) Interestingly, however, when comparing the gene expression differences between 6J and 6N strain in the presence of CNV, the differences were minor. This reduction in apparent inflammation in 6N mice during the disease state together with comparable CNV development between the two substrains, suggests that compensatory mechanisms reminiscent of pre-conditioning against stress such as para-inflammation, might be present in the 6N eyes; however further experiments, beyond the scope of this report, are required to support this hypothesis

The experiments described here were designed to determine whether the Crb1 variant plays a role in choroidal neovascularization and inflammation. Based on the known role for the Crb1 gene product in external limiting membrane integrity and photoreceptor development, the observed confounding effects of the rd8 variant on the phenotype of the $Ccl2/Cx3cr1^{-/-}$ mice (Luhmann et al., 2013), and the protective role for anti-inflammatory tumor necrosis factor-inducible-gene 6 (TSG-6) in the rd8-positive $\frac{Ccl2}{Cx3cr1}$ mice, augmentation of CNV was predicted in the 6N mice. The Mouse Inflammatory Response and Autoimmunity $RT²$ Profiler PCR arrays confirmed an inflammatory phenotype in the 6N substrain retinas when compared to the 6J animals at baseline (**Table IA**). Despite this elevated levels of angiogenic factors and pro-inflammatory cytokines in the 6N retinas prior to laser photocoagulation, CNV lesion sizes were comparable between the two substrains (**Figure 1B**). In addition, the inflammatory response triggered by the CNV lesions was significantly suppressed in the 6N animals (**Table IB**), resulting in gene expression changes in response

to CNV that were statistically indistinguishable between the two substrains (**Table 1D**). It is unclear whether the inflammatory response in the 6J mouse retina is entirely due to the CNV lesions or whether the lack of Nnt might also contribute to the observed response. It has been noted by Ronchi and coworker (Ronchi et al., 2013) that Nnt loss of function results in mitochondrial redox abnormalities, leading to a reduction in NADP and glutathione in their reduced states. Since CNV results in increased oxidative stress [e.g., (Dong et al., 2009)], a loss of reducing agents might augment the inflammatory response exhibited by the 6J mice. On the flip side, the reduced inflammatory response in the 6N mice in response to CNV might represent a compensatory mechanism akin to pre-conditioning. Similar to our results obtained in the eye demonstrating a larger inflammatory response in the RPE-choroid from 6J mice, Simon and colleagues reported that 6J mice showed enhanced dinitrofluorobenzene-induced contact hypersensitivity when compared to 6N mice, that was correlated with a greater responsiveness of natural killer cells to IL-12 or IL-12/IL-2 costimulation (Simon et al., 2013).

An elevated level of low-grade inflammation in the presence of an up-regulation of antiinflammatory molecules might represent "para-inflammation", a term fist coined by Medzhitov to describe an inflammatory response in between healthy homeostasis and chronic inflammation (Medzhitov, 2008). This mechanism appears to allow adaptation of cells and tissues to a stressful environment while maintaining adequate functionality. However, if the stressor is not removed, para-inflammation gives way chronic inflammation, and pathology may develop (Whitcup et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2009). In the 6N animals in the absence of a stressor, the changes in gene expression in RPE-choroid when compared to those in the 6J mice represent a mix of pro- and anti-inflammatory cytokines and homeostatic and inflammatory chemokines (**Table IA**). Observed elevated mRNA of antiinflammatory or homeostatic genes included II -10 and $Cell$ 9, and elevated proinflammatory molecules included *II-18*, *II-1a*, *Ccl11*, *Cxcl4*, *Ccl5*, *Ccl8* and *Ccr3*. It will be of great interest to further explore the protective and damaging effects of para-inflammation in the context of AMD models and human disease. Likewise, it would be of great interest to explore the effect of aging on cytokine and chemokine expression in these strains. In addition, differences in susceptibility to treatment should be explored. Do the altered levels of cytokines and chemokines present in the different substrains change the mice's response profile to treatments such as anti-VEGF or compounds that target the complement system? Or in other words, could different baseline levels of cytokines and chemokines prior to disease determine whether a patient is a responder or non-responder using particular treatment regiments – a question the field of pharmacogenetics explores (Schwartz and Brantley, 2011). We will attempt to answer some of these questions in future studies.

While it has been appreciated that mouse strain-related phenotypic differences exist, such as those differences between DBA/1, Swiss, C57BL/6, and BALB/c, SV129 and others, only recently have substrain-related phenotypic differences such as those between C57BL/6J and 6N been reported (Heiker et al., 2014; Kumar et al., 2013; Luhmann et al., 2012). A recent analysis using Next-Generation sequencing, identified a total of 56.7 million single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) sites between the 17 mouse strain analyzed. As expected, the number of SNPs varied based on genetic distance between the strains, being the smallest

(couple of thousand) for the C57BL/6J versus 6N comparison (Yalcin et al., 2012). Similarly, the NCBI SNP database (dbSNP Build 141) lists ~72.4 million SNPs for humans. And according to the International Society of Genetic Genealogy (ISOGG), the number of shared SNPs varies between 73-74.6% for unrelated people of European descent; or in other words, two unrelated people differ by 18.4-19.6 million SNPs. However, the number of SNPs that have phenotypic consequence are still unknown. From a patient perspective, these SNP numbers together with our data on substrain-specific gene-expression differences reinforce the importance of recognizing inter-patient genetic variability both when designing and when choosing medications for a particular patient and disease. From a research perspective, it is important to keep in mind the potential relationship between the genomic variants and phenotypes examined. This is particularly important if knockout or transgenic mice are used. While for many SNPs there may be little or no phenotype effect, pathology might be caused by combining the effects of SNPs with altering genes by genetic manipulations (e.g., (Luhmann et al., 2013) or by interactions between SNPs and the environment. Finally, it needs to be recognized that a single mouse strain might be more representative of a single individual, and hence to more closely examine human responses many different mouse strains might have to be examined, a strategy typically not feasible in research.

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FIGURE 1. CNV development in C57BL/6J and 6N mice

(A) PCR genotyping of C57BL/6J and 6N strains. Tail DNA was used in separate PCR reactions, using primers designed to distinguish between the Nnt (NntA-COM, NntD-WT and NntC-MUT; abbreviated in Figure as A, D and C respectively) or $Crb1$ (mF1, mF2 and mR; abbreviated in Figure as F1, F2 and R respectively) variants. Nnt Δ -COM and Nnt Δ -WT amplify the *Nnt* wild type (579 bp), NntA-COM and NntC-MUT the *Nnt* mutant gene (743 bp); mF1 and mR amplify the *Crb1* wild type (220 bp), and mF2 and mR the mutant allele (244 bp). Amplified DNA samples were run with an aliquot of a 100 bp ladder for molecular weight detection. Due to the similarity in amplicon size for the Crb1 wild type and knockout allele, the wild type and mutant primer set reactions were carried out separately for each DNA template; and to compensate for the larger mF2 primer, the primer amounts for the smaller two primers mF1 and mR were doubled in the amplification reactions. Hence the 6J stain is *Nnt* mutant, and *Crb1* wild type; the 6N strain is *Nnt* wild type, and *Crb1* mutant.

CNV development was assessed in C57BL/6J and 6N mice. CNV lesions were induced in cohorts of age-matched C57BL/6J and C57BL/6N mice using laser photocoagulation. (**B**) The size of the lesions was assessed using optical coherence tomography (OCT) and representative images are presented. (**C**) CNV size was quantified by image analyses and presented as numbers of pixels. No strain-specific differences were observed. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n =12-14 animals per genotype).

TABLE I

Cytokine and chemokine mRNA levels in RPE-choroid fractions in C57BL/6J and 6N mice, comparing gene expression at baseline and after CNV induction.

cDNA was analyzed in triplicates using the Mouse Inflammatory Response and Autoimmunity RT^2 Profiler PCR array as described in Material and Methods. Differentially expressed genes ($P < 0.05$ and 2-fold change) are presented, listing gene symbol, sequence ID, fold change in gene expression and the corresponding P value, as well as their role in inflammation (I – inflammatory, A – antiinflammatory, or H –homeostatic). See text for interpretation of the data. (**A**) 35/80 of the genes were differentially expressed between the two strains at baseline; (**B**) 19/80 of the genes were differentially expressed in C57BL/6N mice between the CNV and control condition; (**C**) 31/80 of the genes were differentially expressed in C57BL/6J mice between the CNV and control condition; and (**D**) 8/80 of the genes were significantly different between the two substrains in response to CNV. For each gene, gene symbol, sequence ID, fold change in gene expression, and the corresponding P value as well as their role in inflammation (I – inflammatory, A – antiinflammatory, or H –homeostatic) are listed. See text for interpretation of the data.