

NECESSARY REDUNDANCY: REGULATION AND ROLE OF TYPE I INTERFERON SYSTEM DURING EMBRYOGENESIS

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ABSTRACT

Type I interferon (IFN) system is involved in the defense of the organism against viral infections and plays an important role in the control of cell growth and differentiation. How this system is regulated during embryogenesis and its role during this critical process are questions addressed in this manuscript. The redundancy, apparently existing in type I IFN system could be the result of a very specialized machinery needed to control the complex process of cell growth and differentiation during development.

Key words: interferon, IRF, transgenic, mice, embryo

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RESUMEN

El sistema interferón (IFN) tipo I participa en la defensa del organismo contra las infecciones virales y juega un papel importante en el control del crecimiento y la diferenciación celular. Cómo está regulado este sistema durante la embriogénesis y cuál es su papel durante este crítico proceso son preguntas que se tratan en este manuscrito. La aparente redundancia que existe en el sistema IFN tipo I pudiera ser el resultado de una maquinaria altamente especializada necesaria para controlar los complejos procesos involucrados en el crecimiento y la diferenciación celular durante el desarrollo.

Palabras claves: interferón, IRF, transgénico, ratón, embrión

Introduction

Interferons

Much of the development of Genetic Engineering and modern Biotechnology in Cuba, and especially at the Center for Genetic Engineering and Biotechnology (CIGB), has been related to interferons (IFNs). Promised as magic bullets when they were first discovered in 1957 (1) and cloned in 1979-1980 (2, 3), type I IFNs (IFN- α and IFN- β) were useful in the treatment of only certain diseases (4), but constituted a starting point for molecular biologists and biotechnologists and a challenging model for the study of gene regulation.

Type I IFNs are inducible, pleiotropic cytokines that are characterized by their ability to induce an antiviral state against a variety of viruses, they have been shown to have antiproliferative and antitumoral properties and to play a role in cell growth and differentiation (5, 6). In humans and rodents, type I IFNs are encoded by a superfamily of genes consisting of the IFN- α gene family and the IFN- β gene which exists in a single copy.

The IFN- α group has recently been subdivided into subfamilies: IFN- α_1 , IFN- α_n or IFN- ω and IFN- τ to which ruminant trophoblastic IFNs belong (7). Type I IFNs are intronless genes, tightly regulated by regulatory factors that interact with the 5' flanking region, although for the IFN- β gene, sequences located in the 3' untranslated region may

contribute to the regulation of the levels of the cognate protein by modulating mRNA turnover.

Gene regulation

The human IFN- β promoter is regulated by at least 4 sequence elements contained within a 125 bp segment preceding the cap site (8, 9, Figure 1). The positive regulatory domain (PRD) II is a binding site for the activating factor NF- κ B and for the high mobility group (HMG) Y/I protein which interacts with the minor groove of the DNA. Both factors are necessary for the viral induction of the IFN- β promoter. PRDI and PRDIII bind the activating IFN regulatory factor 1 (IRF-1). PRDIV binds a protein of the cAMP response element binding protein (ATF/CREB) family of transcription factors (ATF-2), which is also required for full activation of the IFN- β promoter. PRDI also binds negative regulatory factors IRF-2, the zinc-finger protein PRD-binding factor 1 (PRD-BF1) and others. PRDII and two negative regulatory domains (NRDI and NRDI I) are also believed to bind negative regulatory factors. IFN- β gene transcription activation by a virus is achieved by derepression as well as by the activation of preexisting NF- κ B and by the *de novo* synthesis and activity enhancement of IRF-1 (Figure 2). However, although IRF-1 is efficiently induced by virus, IFNs- γ and - α and other cytokines, the expression of the IFN- β gene is highly inducible only

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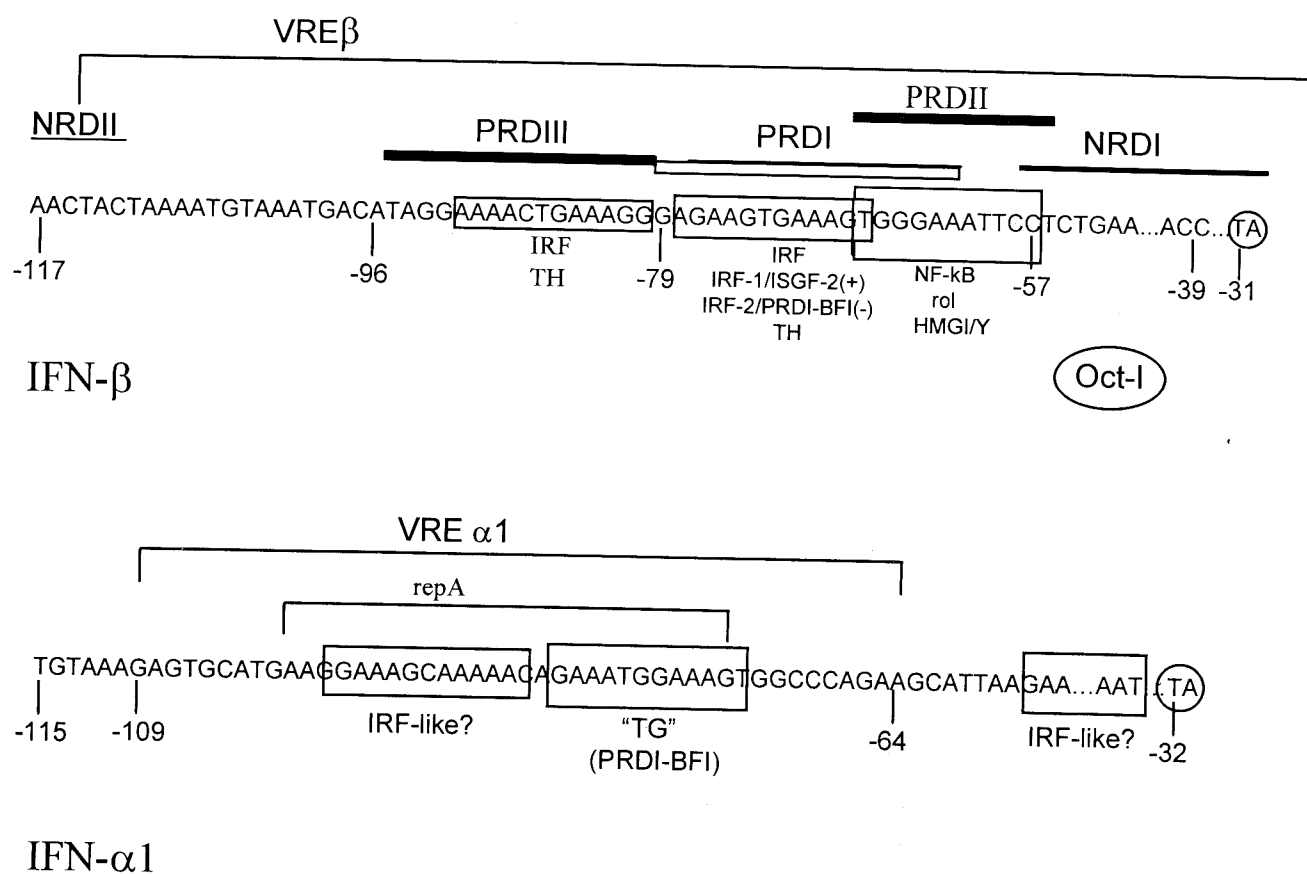


Figure 1. Binding sites for regulatory factors in the human IFN-β and -α1 promoters. Factors not described in the text are: TH (HeLa-derived), Oct-1 (octamer binding).

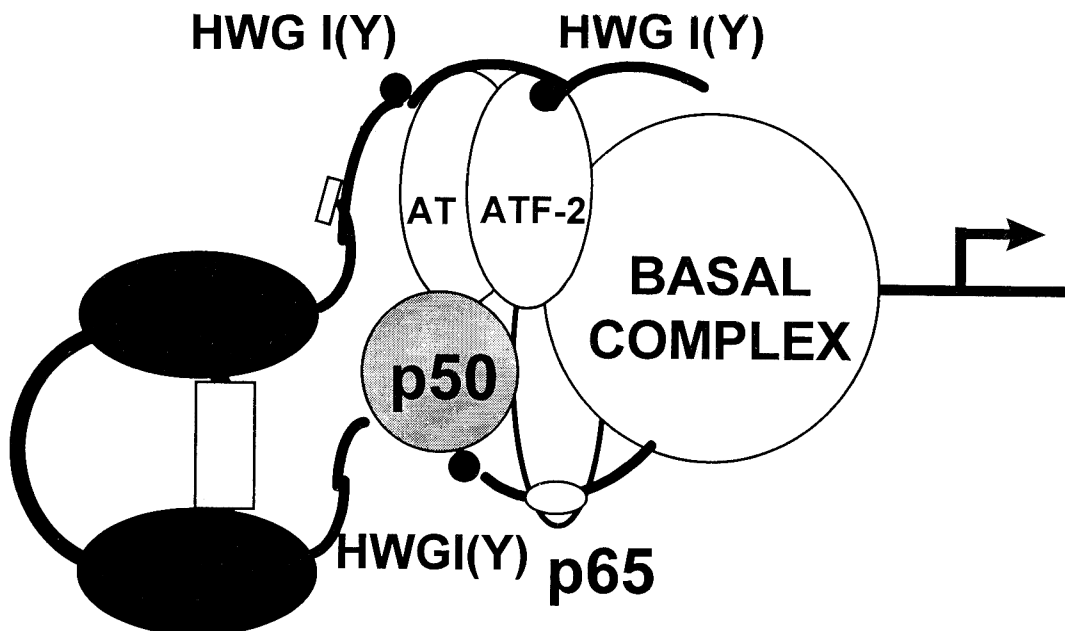


Figure 2. Model of the IFN-β promoter after viral induction.

by virus. Mice devoid of functional IRF-1 show unimpaired type I IFN induction and response of type I IFN inducible genes *in vivo* by a virus or dsRNA (10, 11). These facts indicate that IRF-1 is not enough for IFN- β induction and is dispensable for type I IFN induction *in vivo*.

Regulation of IRF genes has been studied and partially characterized within the regulatory framework of type I IFN system (12, Figure 3). Additionally, IRF-1 and IRF-2 function as regulators of cell growth or as a tumor suppressor and oncogene, respectively (13-15). Alterations in the ratio of IRF-1/IRF-2 has been shown to result in perturbations in cell growth control (15).

The human IFN- α 1 gene is regulated by different mechanisms (16, Figure 1). The promoter lacks NF- κ B binding sites and binds IRF-1 at least one order of magnitude less tightly than that of the IFN- β promoter. Furthermore, it contains a domain designated as a TG element (GAAATG) that, when linked to an SV40 enhancer in a reporter construct, mediates virus inducibility but shows little response to IRF-1 (16). Nevertheless, it has been reported that the overexpression of IRF-1 can induce IFN- α genes, at least under special circumstances (17).

IFNs are usually not detectable in normally growing tissue cultures or animals until appropriate stimuli trigger the induction of the IFN system. However, constitutive IFN expression has been reported in organs from normal individuals (18-20), peripheral blood leukocytes (PBL), where IFN- α could act in an autocrine fashion (21), preimplantation mouse embryos and embryonal carcinoma (EC) P19 cells (22), 13 day *post coitum* (dpc) mouse embryos (23), mouse blastocysts (24, 25) and in ruminant trophoblasts (7). Recently, a mouse IFN- α 11 gene has been identified with a Newcastle Disease Virus (NDV)-uninducible expression pattern (26).

Expression of type I interferon system during embryogenesis

Employing the reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) method, the presence of mRNAs has been shown for TGF- α , - β 1, PDGF-A, IL-1-7, TNF- α , IRF-1 and IFN- γ and IFN- α in preimplantation mouse embryos (22, 27), for IRF-1 and IRF-2 and IFN- α in undifferentiated (D⁻) and differentiated (D⁺) EC P19 cells, equivalent to the epiblast cells of the early postimplantation blastocyst (4.5 dpc) (22).

Furthermore, preimplantation embryos possess the basic apparatus required to respond to polypeptide growth factors that could serve to regulate their growth in an autocrine fashion (28).

It has been shown that the type I IFN system is developmentally regulated in EC cells as well as in normal embryonic cells (17, 23). The IFN genes are refractory to viral induction in their undifferentiated stages and Harada *et al.* (17) have shown that this ef-

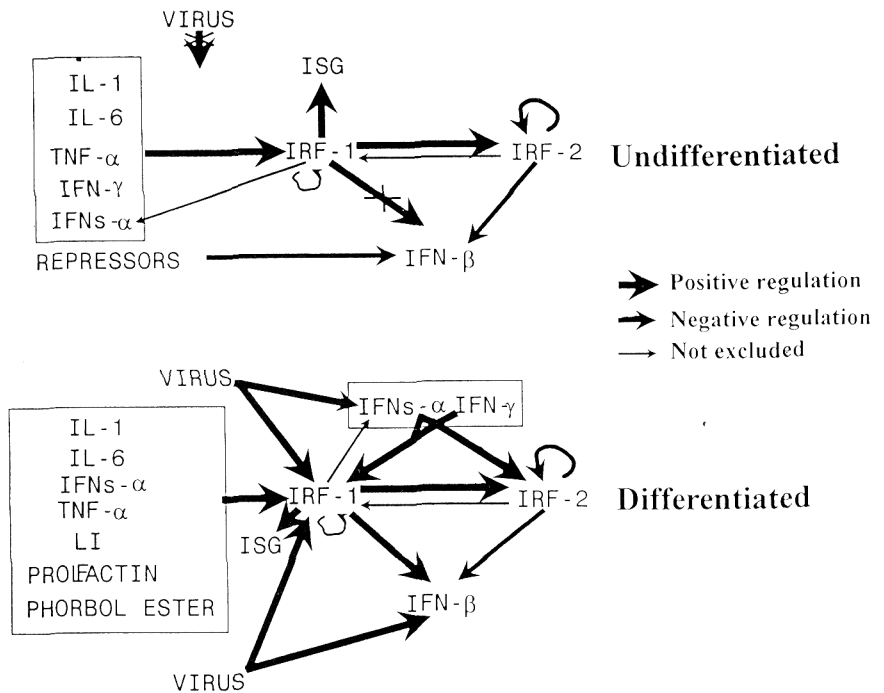


Figure 3. Generalized postulated scheme for the regulation of type I IFN system during embryogenesis in mice (see details in the text).

fect could be due, at least in part, to the developmental regulation of the transcription factors IRF-1 and IRF-2. In IRF-1^{+/+} and IRF-1^{0/0} murine embryonic stem (ES) D3 cells, Ruffner *et al.* (29) found that the viral induction of the IFN- α genes is not dependent on differentiation, while IFN- β transcripts were barely detectable in (D⁻) ES cells and increased about 10 fold after 8 days of differentiation. In EC P19 cells we (22) and others (30) have found that IFN- β transcripts appear only after 24 h of differentiation with retinoic acid. The complete silencing of the IFN- β gene in (D⁻) cells might be due to a more efficient association of repressors to the 5' regulatory sequences and/or to the presence in these cells of other repressor molecules interacting with the upstream sequences in the IFN- β promoter (31). Alternatively, the absence of some positive regulatory factors could also be implicated in silencing the IFN- β gene in these cells. The analysis of the IFN- α genes constitutively expressed in (D⁺) EC P19 cells resulted in the cloning of MuIFN- α A and a new MuIFN- α gene (MuIFN- α 12) (22, Figure 4). The IFN- α A virus responsive element (VRE) in the promoter region showed the presence of nucleotides that differ from those present in mouse virus-inducible (- α 4) and uninducible (- α 11) IFN genes and in the Hu IFN- α 1 (Figure 5). Further characterization of IFN- α A will permit the study of the regulation of its constitutive expression in early mouse embryos.

Nevertheless, from the present knowledge, we can propose a model for type I IFN system regulation

			aminoacid														
			15														
			Leu	Asn	Ser	Leu	Ala	Gln	Met	Arg	Arg	Leu	Ser	Pro	Leu	Ser	Cys
MuIFN- α 12	--TTG	AAC	TCT	CTG	GCA	CAA	ATG	AGG	AGA	CTC	TCC	CCT	CTC	TCC	TGC		
MuIfn- α A	--***	*C*	CTC	***	*T*	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
			Thr	Leu	Val												
Leu	Lys	Asp	Arg	Lys	Asn	Phe	Arg	Phe	Pro	Gln	Glu	Lys	Val	Asp	Ala	Gln	Gln
CTG	AAG	GAC	AGA	AAG	AAC	TTT	AGA	TTC	CCC	CAG	GAG	AAG	GTG	GAT	GCC	CAG	CAG
***	***	***	***	***	G**	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
			Asp														
Ile	Lys	Lys	Ala	Gln	Val	Ile	Pro	Val	Leu	Ser	Glu	Leu	Thr	Gln	Gln	Ile	Leu
ATC	AAG	AAG	GCT	CAA	GTC	ATC	CCT	GTC	CTG	AGT	GAG	CTG	ACC	CAG	CAG	ATC	CTG
***	C**	**T	***	***	*C*	***	***	***	**A	CAA	***	***	***	***	***	G**	***
			Gln	Asn	Ala					Gln						Val	
Thr	Leu	Phe	Thr	Ser	Lys	Asp	Ser	Ser	Ala	Gly	Asp	tca	Ser	Ala	Ala	Trp	Tyr
ACC	CTC	TTC	ACA	TCA	AAG	GAC	TCA	TCT	GCT	caa	gac	tct	Ser	gct	gca	ttg	tac
A	A**	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	---	---	G*T	*GG	*A*	***	*CC	---
Asn	Ile											Ala	Trp	Asp		Ser	
Thr	Leu	Leu	Asp	Ser	Phe	Cys	Asn	Asp	Leu	His	Gln	Gln	Leu	Asn	Asp	Gln	Gly
acc	CTC	CTA	GAC	TCA	TTC	TGC	AAT	GAC	CTC	CAT	CAG	CAG	CTC	AAT	GAC	CTG	CAA
---	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	**C	A**
			Leu Lys														
Ala	Cys	Leu	Met	Gln	Gln	Val	Gly	Val	Gln	Glu	Pro	Pro	Leu	Thr	Gln	Glu	Asp
GGC	TGT	CTG	ATG	CAG	CAG	GTG	GGG	GTG	CAG	GAG	CCT	CCC	CTG	ACC	CAG	GAA	GAC
C	***	G**	***	***	C**	***	***	***	***	**A	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
			Val Glu														
Ser	Leu	Leu	Thr	Val	Arg	Lys	Tyr	Phe	His	Arg	Ile	Thr	Val	Tyr	Lys	Arg	Glu
TCC	CTG	CTA	ACT	GTG	AGG	AAA	TAC	TTC	CAC	AGG	ATC	ACT	GTG	TAC	CTG	AGA	GAG
A	***	*G	G**	***	***	*C*	***	***	***	***	***	G**	***	***	*C*	***	***
Tyr			Ala			Thr									Leu		
			149														
Lys	Lys	His	Ser	Pro	Cys	Ala	Trp	Glu	Val	Val	Arg	Ser	Glu	Val	Trp		
AAG	AAA	CAC	AGC	CCC	TGT	GCC	TGG	GAG	GTG	GTC	AGA	TCA	GAA	GTC	TGG		
***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	G**	***	***	***		
			Ala														

Figure 4. Sequence of the fragments cloned for Mu IFN- α A and - α 12. Aminoacid numbers correspond to Mu IFN- α A (31).

during embryogenesis (Figure 3). Different regulatory pathways may lead to the constitutive expression of particular IFN- α and cytokine genes in (D') cells, that result in the induction of IRFs, other regulatory factors and IFN-stimulated genes (ISG). The IFN- β gene remains repressed in these cells. After differentiation, the virus-inducible machinery becomes active and other IFN genes become inducible.

Role of type I interferon system during embryogenesis

The presence of uninduced mRNAs for IRF-1 and IRF-2, IFN- α and other cytokines in early mouse embryos suggest a role for type I IFN system during embryogenesis (22).

Although we do not know the biological role of these constitutively expressed MuIFN- α A and - α 12 genes, we could speculate on their role in the process of embryogenesis because of the known effects of IFNs in the development of the cytoskeleton and extracellular matrix and its capacity to decrease cell growth (6).

These constitutive IFNs might also be involved in the protection of embryos against viral infections and

the immune reaction of the host, thus playing a role in immune tolerance. It has been reported that mice devoid of the IFN- α/β receptor have no evident problems during embryonic development (32). Although this result may contradict the possible role for IFN- α in the process of embryogenesis, it is not the first time that in γ mutant mice we see no obvious phenotype, suggesting that alternative pathways may exist. In some cases, the role of specific genes could be partially understood by overexpressing this gene, keeping in mind that it does not reflect physiological situations.

The overexpression of MulFN- α 1 in transgenic mice testes resulted in the degeneration of spermatogenic cells and sterility (33). For IRFs, they have been implicated in the regulation of cell growth and proliferation. As we have found (22), the expression of IRF-1 after the first cell cleavage could contribute to the control of cell growth in the developing embryo. As stated earlier, restrained cell growth depends on a balance between IRF-1 and IRF-2, that is also present during early stages of development (22). Again, for IRF genes, only a slightly deviating phenotype has been reported in IRF-deficient mice (10-11).

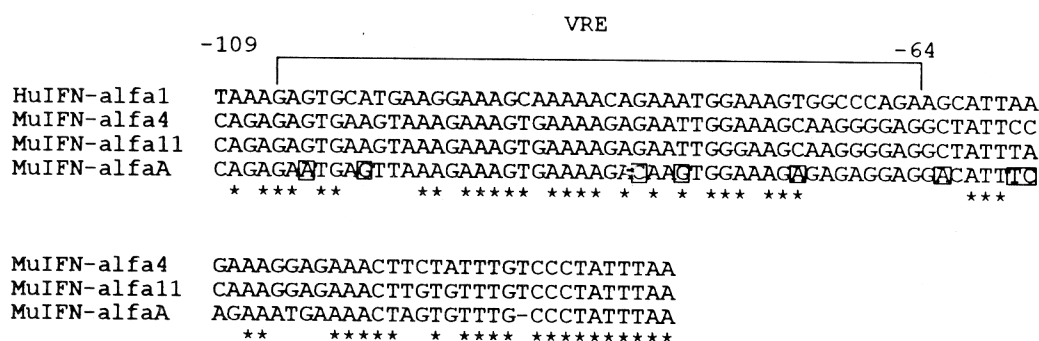


Figure 5. Comparison of the nucleotide sequence of the VRE α A with other VRE in virus-inducible and not-inducible IFN genes.

We have generated transgenic mice with chimeric genes containing the human IRF-1 or IRF-2 cDNAs under the control of strong constitutive chicken β -actin (pbActneoIRF-1 and pbActneoIRF-2) or human cytomegalovirus (pCMVIRF-1) promoters (34). These constructs were shown to direct the synthesis of IRF-1 or IRF-2 mRNAs in human and/or mouse cell lines. Preliminary results indicated that the efficiency for the generation of IRF-1 transgenic individuals was lower ($p < 0.05$) than that for IRF-2 transgenic individuals and for a control group including 37 transgenic mice generated with different transgenes (35, Table 1). Because of the antiproliferative properties of IRF-1 in its role in the control of cell growth, we speculate that the high level ubiquitous constitutive expression of IRF-1 could be deleterious for the developing mouse embryo. Current experiments are directed to further characterize these transgenic mice.

Conclusion

Necessary redundancy

The fact that IFN- α consists of a clustered multigene family and that individual genes are differentially expressed in a cell type-specific manner through probably different induction pathways, lead to the possibility that there is a differential expression of the IFN genes which is related to a given function in a given specific tissue, for a precise time, and at a particular moment of the cell physiology and devel-

opmental stage (Figure 6). This study could possibly contribute to the understanding of the highly conserved structure and function of the IFN- α gene family.

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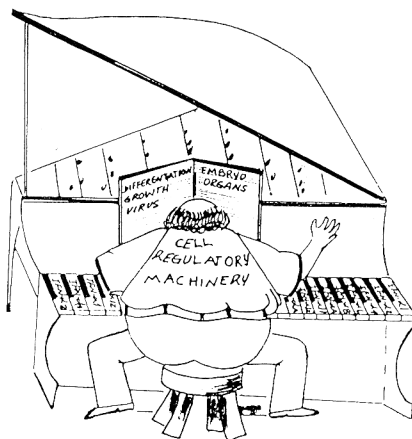


Figure 6. Differential expression of type I IFN genes may occur in response to different physiological conditions, for a precise time and at a particular moment of the cell physiology and developmental stage.

Table 1. Efficiency of the generation of IRF-1, IRF-2 and non-related transgenic individuals (control).

Index ^a	Transgenic individuals		
	IRF-1	IRF-2	Control
Transgenic individuals/microinjected embryos	0.0026*	0.0217	0.045
Transgenic individuals/transferred embryos	0.0059*	0.0598	0.098
Transgenic individuals/born pups	0.0206*	0.3030	0.230

*: The number of microinjected and transferred embryos and of pups born were similar in the three groups; *: different ($p < 0.05$) by a Student T test for non-paired samples with Levene's test for equality of variances supported by SPSS5.01 for Windows (SPSS Inc, USA).

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