

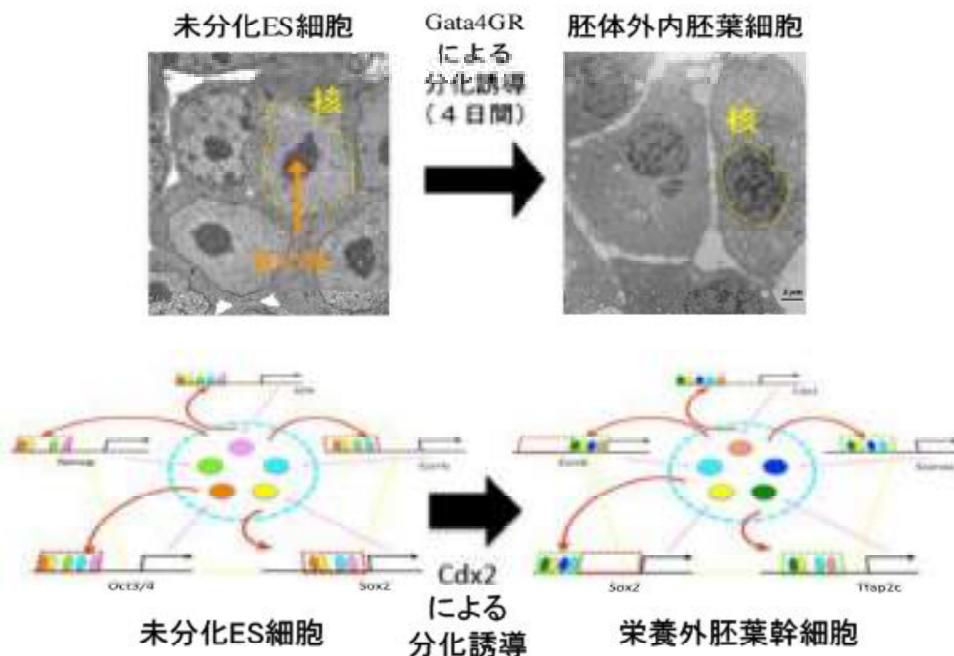
多能性幹細胞分野

Department of Pluripotent Stem Cell Biology

胚性幹細胞などが持つ分化多能性は、胚を構成する全ての種類の終末分化細胞へと分化できる能力として定義される。当分野では、この多能性を規定する分子機構の解明を目指して研究を進めている。より具体的には、(1) 多能性を維持する転写因子ネットワークとエピジェネティック制御機構の解析、(2) 分化に伴う多能性維持プログラムの遷移メカニズムの解析、(3) 多能性を維持する実行的分子機構の解析、などのテーマで基礎研究を進めている。このような研究を通じて、細胞分化に伴う遺伝子発現プログラム制御機構の基本原理を解明することを、究極的目標としている。

Pluripotency is defined as an ability of a cell to differentiate all types of terminally-differentiated cells in an organism. We are studying about the molecular mechanisms determining cellular pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells. The projects are divided into 3 subjects: (1) Analysis of the functions of transcription factor network and epigenetic mechanisms to maintain pluripotency, (2) Analysis of the mechanisms governing the transition of transcription factor network during differentiation, and (3) Analysis of the molecular mechanisms that direct the maintenance of pluripotency. We aim to reveal the general principles governing the regulation of gene expression program in cellular differentiation.

ES細胞の自己複製と分化から転写制御とエピジェネティック制御の協調ルールを炙り出す



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研究概略 Projects

多能性幹細胞は、着床前の胚に由来し、胚を構成する全ての種類の終末分化細胞に分化する能力（多能性）と、細胞分裂を経てその能力を娘細胞に継承する能力（自己複製能）を併せ持つ。マウス胚性幹細胞(embryonic stem cells: ES 細胞)は、至適化された培養条件下でほぼ無限に自己複製を続けることができる。通常の分化細胞とは異なり、ES 細胞の多能性という性質は細胞形態上の性質としては殆ど捉えられず、それはむしろ、細胞種特異的な遺伝子発現を規定するゲノムプログラム上の特性といえる。ゲノムプログラムは、遺伝子発現を制御する転写因子と、その標的遺伝子のクロマチン状態を規定するエピジェネティック制御因子により制御され、細胞種特異的な遺伝子発現パターンを規定している。ES 細胞では、転写因子群が構成する極めて自律性の高いネットワークが、エピジェネティック制御因子による転写抑制がほぼ解除されたゲノムの遺伝子発現を安定に維持するという他に例を見ない状態が、外部シグナル依存的に維持されている。そして、このような状態は、分化に伴い、転写制御とエピジェネティック制御が協調して遺伝子発現制御を行う通常のゲノムプログラム制御パターンへと速やかに遷移する。このようなダイナミックなゲノムプログラムの変化が、シャーレ内の数日の分化過程で観察できる実験系は他ではなく、マウス ES 細胞分化誘導系はこの点において極めてユニークな実験系と言える。そこで、我々は、この実験系の特性を生かして、(1) 多能性を維持する転写因子ネットワークとエピジェネティック制御機構の解析、ならびに (2) 分化に伴う多能性維持プログラムの遷移メカニズムの解析、を進めている。一方で、ES 細胞が持つ細胞生物学的特性が、どのようにして転写因子ネットワークにより制御されているのかも興味深い点である。とりわけ、発生過程に存在する多能性幹細胞は一過性にしか自己複製しないのに対し、樹立された ES 細胞は、無限に近い自己複製能を獲得している。この過程の解明などを含めて、(3) 多能性を維持する実行的分子機構の解析、にも取り組んでいる。

1. 多能性を維持する転写因子ネットワークとエピジェネティック制御機構の解析

ES 細胞の多能性は、複数の転写因子が構成するネットワークにより規定されていると考えられている(Niwa *Development* 2018)。転写因子ネットワークの維持は外部シグナル入力に依存し、その変化に伴い安定状態は破綻して、次の安定状態へと遷移することが、細胞分化を規定する。マウス ES 細胞においては、LIF シグナルと Wnt シグナルが、多能性維持に働くシグナルとして知られている。*Esrrb* は、これら両方のシグナル入力の標的として機能し、とりわけ Wnt シグナル入力については、その多能性維持シグナル入力に必須であることを証明した(Martello et al *Cell Stem Cell* 2012) (Fig. 1)。

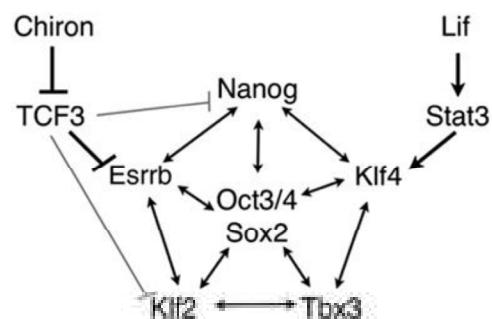


Fig. 1 マウスES細胞における転写因子Esrrbの機能
(Martello et al *Cell Stem Cell* 2012より)

また、LIF シグナル入力は、Jak-Stat3 経路の活性化により多能性維持に働くと同時に、MAPK 経路の活性化により、分化誘導シグナルも活性化する。これら 2 つのシグナル入力のバランスは、マウスの遺伝的背景により大きく異なり、129 系統では LIF は Jak-Stat3 経路を優位に活性化することにより多能性維持に働くが、NOD 系統では MAPK 経路を優位に活性化してしまい、LIF のみでは多能性を維持できないことを見出した(Ohtsuka and Niwa *Development* 2015)。また、これまでの報告で多能性維持への関与が示唆された転写因子ならびに転写補助因子 *Trp53*, *Xpc*, *Zscan10*についてノックアウト ES 細胞を作成し、これらの機能が多能性維持には必要でないことを証明した(Shigeta et al *Sci Rep* 2013; Ito et al *FEBS Lett* 2014; Yamane et al *BBRC* 2015)。

DNA メチル化は、遺伝子発現を抑制するエピジェネティック制御機構として機能するが、ES 細胞の自己複製には必須ではない。DNA メチル化の分化能制御への関与を検討するために、分化誘導 4 日目の ES 細胞の、転写因子 Gata4 の人為的活性化への応答能を、野生型 ES 細胞と、*Dnmt3a/3b* 欠損 ES 細胞で比較した。その結果、前者は Gata4 活性化に応答しなかったが、後者は一部が未分化 ES 細胞の場合と同様に、原始内胚葉へと分化した。これは、DNA メチル化が、転写因子の応答性の制御を介して分化能を規定するバリアーとして働きうることを機能的に示した最初の例である (Oda et al *PLoS Genet* 2013)。

2. 分化に伴う多能性維持プログラムの遷移メカニズムの解析

マウス ES 細胞は、転写因子 *Oct3/4* の発現抑制により、栄養外胚葉幹細胞 (trophoblast stem cells: TS 細胞) へと分化する。この過程で、多能性維持に必須な転写因子の一つである Sox2 の発現は、減少はするものの機能的レベルに維持される。我々は、この過程における Sox2 の機能を解析し、Sox2 が TS 細胞においては FGF シグナル伝達に関与し、その自己複製に必須であることを見出した。また、ChIP-seq 法を用いた解析から、Sox2 は ES 細胞と TS 細胞で異なるパ

ートナー分子と協調し、異なる標的遺伝子群に結合してその発現を制御していることを明らかにした (Adachi et al *Mol Cell* 2013) (Fig. 2)。これらの発見は、分化に伴う転写因子ネットワークの遷移について、新たな知見を与えるものである (Niwa *Development* 2018)。

Sox2 の機能ドメインを検討するために、誘導型 *Sox2* ノックアウト ES 細胞を用いた機能相補実験系を用いて、Sox family 転写因子ならびにそれらの変異体の自己複製維持能を検討した。その結果、Sox2 の機能は DNA 結合ドメイン保存された数個のアミノ酸に依存し、ショウジョウバエ由来の Sox family 転写因子であっても、これらが保存されてさえいれば、内在性 *Sox2* を置換して多能性を維持できることを証明した (Niwa et al *BMC Evol Biol* 2016)。

3. 多能性を維持する実行的分子機構の解析

マウス ES 細胞が持続的に自己複製し多能性

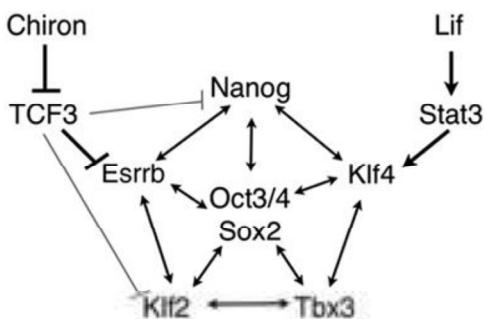


Fig. 1 マウスES細胞における転写因子Esrrbの機能
(Martello et al *Cell Stem Cell* 2012より)

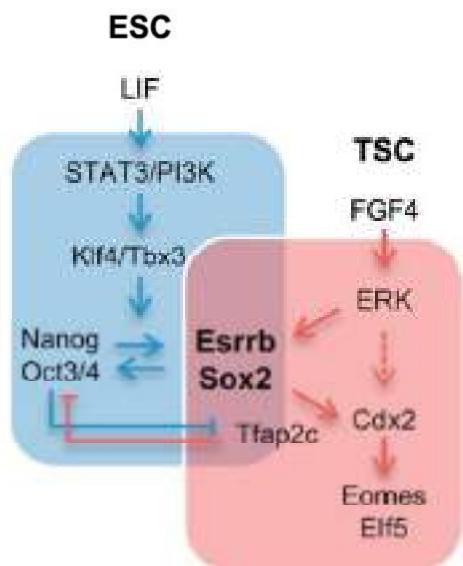


Fig. 2 ES細胞からTS細胞への移行に伴う転写因子ネットワークの再構成 (Adachi et al *Mol Cell* 2013より)

Nr0b1 は核受容体ファミリーに属する転写因子で、ES 細胞では未分化状態特異的に高発現している。そこで、*Nr0b1* の誘導型ノックアウト ES 細胞を作成して、その機能を検討した。その結果、*Nr0b1* 欠損は、多能性維持には影響を与えたものの、ES 細胞集団の増殖速度を顕著に抑制した。遺伝子発現解析から、これらの *Nr0b1* 欠損 ES 細胞では *Zscan4* 発現細胞が増加していた。これより、*Nr0b1* は *Zscan4* の発現を抑制する転写因子であると考えられた (Fujii et al *Sci Rep* 2015)。

Zscan4 の発現制御をさらに詳細に解析するために、*Zscan4* promoter で制御される蛍光タンパク遺伝子を ES 細胞に導入し、その発現をタ

イムラプラス顕微鏡で継続的に観察することにより、発現と相関する生物学的パラメーターの検討を行った。その結果、ES 細胞の分裂周期の長さが、*Zscan4* 活性化と強く相関することを見出した。ES 細胞は平均 12 時間で分裂を繰り返すが、その分裂周期は分裂ごとに長くなる傾向を示した。そして、その分裂周期が 20 時間に達すると、*Zscan4* が活性化される頻度が有意に高くなつた。このことは、細胞分裂を繰り返すことによるテロメアの短縮が *Zscan4* 活性化シグナルとして機能し、テロメア伸長を誘導することにより、ES 細胞集団の自己複製が維持されていることを示唆している (Futatsugi-Nakai and Niwa *Stem Cell Rep* 2016) (Fig. 3)。

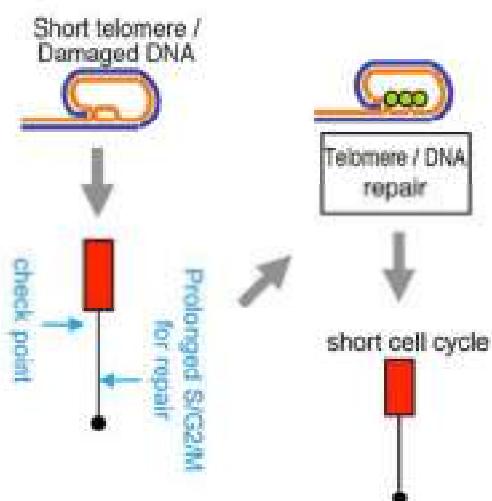


Fig. 3. ES細胞における*Zscan4*の発現タイミングの制御
(Futatsugi-Nakai and Niwa *Stem Cell Rep* 2016より)

Pluripotent stem cells are derived from pre-implantation embryos. They possess abilities to differentiate all terminally-differentiated cells in an organism (pluripotency) and to self-renew. Mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells continue self-renewal in an optimized culture condition *in vitro*. Pluripotency is not a character that is morphologically obvious but quite unique in the character of genome programming. Genome programming is achieved by the combination of the transcriptional regulation by the transcription factors and the epigenetic regulation of the genome, and defines

cell-type-specific gene expression pattern. In ES cells, the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network with strong autonomous regulation governs gene expression of the genome with very limited epigenetic regulation in the extracellular signal-dependent manner. The pluripotency-specific genome program undergoes transition toward the differentiation-coupled (somatic) genome program that is regulated by the transcription factor network coupled with epigenetic regulation. Such dynamic change is observed within few days in the ES cell system *in vitro*, providing unique opportunity to analyze the molecular events in detail. We take this advantage of the ES cell system and perform 3 subjects of the basic research: (1) Analysis of the functions of transcription factor network and epigenetic mechanisms to maintain pluripotency, (2) Analysis of the mechanisms governing the transition of transcription factor network during differentiation, and (3) Analysis of the molecular mechanisms that direct the maintenance of pluripotency.

(1) Analysis of the functions of transcription factor network and epigenetic mechanisms to maintain pluripotency

Pluripotency is determined by the activity of the transcription factor network (Niwa *Development* 2018). The maintenance of the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network depends on the external signals, and the change of the signals triggers its transition for differentiation. It is known that the LIF and Wnt signals involve in the maintenance of self-renewal of mouse ES cells. *Esrrb* involves in the transduction of both signals. Especially, its function is essential to mediate the Wnt signal to maintain pluripotency (Martello et al *Cell Stem Cell* 2012). The LIF signal activates multiple intracellular signal transduction pathways. Among them, the Jak-Stat3 signal mediates the signal to maintain pluripotency whereas the MAPK signal induces differentiation. The quantitative balance of these two signals is varied among the different genetic backgrounds. The Jak-Stat3 signal is predominantly activated in 129 strain whereas the MAPK signal is over-stimulated in NOD strain, resulting the different action of LIF to sustain pluripotency (Ohtsuka and Niwa *Development* 2015). In addition, we have revealed that *Trp53*, *Xpc* and *Zscan10* are dispensable for the maintenance of pluripotency of mouse ES cells although the previous reports suggested their involvement (Shigeta et al *Sci Rep* 2013; Ito et al *FEBS Lett* 2014; Yamane et al *BBRC* 2015).

DNA methylation is one of the major epigenetic

mechanisms to repress gene expression although it is dispensable for self-renewal of ES cells. To address the role of DNA methylation on the regulation of differentiation ability of ES cells, we assessed the response of wild-type and *Dnmt3a/3b*-null ES cells to the artificial activation of Gata4 after induction of differentiation. As the result, we found that the wild-type ES cell-derived cells do not respond to the Gata4 activation, but a subset of the *Dnmt3a/3b*-null differentiated cells respond to it and undergo differentiation toward primitive endoderm lineage as in the case of undifferentiated ES cells. We believe that this is the first demonstration of the functional significance of DNA methylation to determine the restriction of differentiation competency (Oda et al *PLoS Genet* 2013).

(2) Analysis of the mechanisms governing the transition of transcription factor network during differentiation

Mouse ES cells undergo differentiation toward trophoblast stem cells by repression of *Oct3/4*. During this transition, the expression of *Sox2*, one of the essential transcription factors for ES self-renewal, is maintained at functional level. We analyzed the function of *Sox2* in transition of ES cells to TS cells and found that *Sox2* is essential for self-renewal of TS cells by mediating the FGF signal. ChIP-seq analyses of *Sox2* during transition revealed that *Sox2* targets distinct sets of the genes by cooperating with different transcription factors in ES and TS cells (Adachi et al *Mol Cell* 2013). These findings contribute to the hypothetical transcription factor network model involving in the transition of cell state (Niwa *Development* 2018).

The functional domain of *Sox2* is assessed by the complementation assay of inducible *Sox2*-null ES cells. When various *Sox* family members form different species as well as artificial mutants were examined, we found that few conserved amino acids in the HMG-box are important to define the specific function in ES cells. We confirmed that the *Drosophila SoxB* can replace the endogenous *Sox2* with keeping proper pluripotency that is assessed by chimera formation assay (Niwa et al *BMC Evol Biol* 2016).

(3) Analysis of the molecular mechanisms that direct the maintenance of pluripotency.

To maintain continuous self-renewal, ES cells should keep genome integrity during multiple rounds of replication with maintenance of telomere length. It was reported that ES cells predominantly

use atypical telomere elongation system based on the homologous recombination with *Zscan4* rather than the canonical telomerase-dependent system. *Zscan4* is transiently expressed in 5% of ES cell population, but the molecular mechanism governing this interest regulation pattern is largely unknown.

Nr0b1 encodes nuclear receptor family transcription factor and expresses at high level in ES cells. We addressed the function of *Nr0b1* using inducible knockout system and revealed that it is dispensable for maintenance of pluripotency but essential for rapid proliferation. We found dramatic increase of *Zscan4*-positive population in *Nr0b1*-null ES cells, suggesting the role of *Nr0b1* as a transcriptional repressor of *Zscan4* (Fujii et al *Sci Rep* 2015).

For further analysis of the regulatory mechanism of *Zscan4* expression, the fluorescent reporter under the regulation of *Zscan4* promoter was introduced into ES cells for time-lapse imaging of *Zscan4* expression. As the result, we found that the cell-cycle length has strong correlation to the activation of *Zscan4*. The cell-cycle length of ES cells is 12 hours in average but varied among the cells in population. During the proliferation, the cell-cycle length tend to elongate, and *Zscan4* is preferentially activated when the length reach to 20 hours. We hypothesize that it happens by the shortening of telomere length and *Zscan4* works to elongate shortened telomere to rejuvenate the cells (Futatsugi-Nakai and Niwa *Stem Cell Rep* 2016).

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The principles that govern transcription factor network functions in stem cells

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ABSTRACT

Tissue-specific transcription factors primarily act to define the phenotype of the cell. The power of a single transcription factor to alter cell fate is often minimal, as seen in gain-of-function analyses, but when multiple transcription factors cooperate synergistically it potentiates their ability to induce changes in cell fate. By contrast, more commonly, specific combinations of TFs are required to instruct cell fate, most famously during the reprogramming of differentiated somatic cells to pluripotent stem cells, which requires a combination of four TFs (Takahashi and Yamanaka, 2006). Other combinations of TFs have also been used to induce direct lineage reprogramming, whereby a cell transitions from one cell type to another without returning to a pluripotent state (Morris, 2016).

KEY WORDS: Embryonic stem cells, Differentiation, Reprogramming, Transcription factor

2007; Morris, 2016). The discovery of *MyoD* (*Mfod*), for example, was a key finding in this field as it demonstrated the power of a single TF to define cell phenotype (Davis et al., 1987). This example might be somewhat of a rarity, however, since in general the potential of a single cell-type-specific TF to instruct fate is limited, and it often only regulates differentiation in a particular context. More commonly, specific combinations of TFs are required to induce changes in cell fate. By contrast, this phenomenon, commonly known as redundancy, occurs here. I discuss the role that transcription factor networks play in collaboratively regulating stem cell fate and differentiation by providing multiple explanations for their functional redundancy.

Introduction During mouse development, a single, totipotent cell divides repeatedly to give rise to a few billion cells, which differentiate into a few hundred different cell types. Differentiation is the process by which a cell changes phenotype and becomes increasingly specialized. Cell phenotype is defined by particular combinations of genes expressed in a cell type-dependent manner (Armit et al., 2017). The selection of these combinations is mainly driven by cell type-specific transcription factors (TFs), which in turn are regulated by other TFs that integrate and respond to extracellular signals in order to maintain cell phenotype (Davidson, 1993). Thus, TFs form a network in which each TF is reciprocally regulated to maintain its balanced expression.

A TF network often forms part of a gene regulatory network (Box 1, Glossary). Gene regulatory networks are divided into functional subcircuits (Davidson, 2010) and consist of multiple layers of regulatory mechanisms at the epigenetic, topological and transcriptional level. The epigenetic regulation of chromatin accessibility is thought to be important for maintaining the irreversibility of a cell's differentiated status under normal physiological conditions (Pernio and Venstra, 2016). The topological regulation of chromatin is also believed to control global gene expression patterns in organisms (Arenz et al., 2017); however, the degree to which these regulatory mechanisms actively determine specific cell types is unclear. By contrast, TF networks have been shown to play a pivotal role in defining cell types, which is reflected in the ability of certain TFs to instruct changes in cell phenotype when ectopically expressed in various contexts (Niwa,

2007; Niwa, 2016). These findings raised a key question: why are multiple TFs required to artificially change a cellular phenotype? To answer this question, we need to know how TFs function in a cell to define a phenotype. During differentiation, multiple TFs are known to cooperate with each other to activate transcription of their target genes (Whyre et al., 2013). To stably maintain a certain cell type, multiple TFs form a network that maintains their own expression, as well as that of cell type-specific genes as a downstream subcircuit (Davidson, 2010). While these broad principles have been established for a number of years, specific issues, such as what determines the exact number of TFs required to form a cell type-specific TF network, and how TF networks are sequentially replaced during differentiation, remain unanswered. A simple model system with synchronous differentiation would provide an ideal platform to address these issues. The *in vitro* differentiation system of mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) (Box 1, Glossary; Box 2) provides one such model (Niwa, 2010). In this Review, I focus on studies that analyze the role of TFs in regulating mESC self-renewal and differentiation, and summarize the mechanisms involved in the functioning and transitioning of TF networks.

Modes of interaction between TFs and their target sites

To elucidate the structure of the TF network, we first need to know how each TF regulates its target genes. TFs are categorized into two classes: general TFs and tissue-specific TFs (Levine et al., 2014). General TFs bind to a promoter element to recruit RNA polymerase II, and initiate transcription. Tissue-specific TFs bind to either a proximal element of a promoter or a distal regulatory element, designated as an enhancer, to promote the recruitment of general TFs to a promoter. Tissue-specific TFs quantitatively regulate the frequency of transcriptional bursting (Box 1, Glossary) by influencing the binding affinity of TFs to each other and of transacting co-factors to their target sites, as well as the stability of transcriptional complexes (Bartman et al., 2016; Fukaya et al., 2016). Here, focus on the mechanisms that mediate the synergistic action of multiple tissue-specific TFs.

Reduced Dnmt3a increases Gdf5 expression with suppressed satellite cell differentiation and impaired skeletal muscle regeneration

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ABSTRACT: DNA methylation is an epigenetic mechanism regulating gene expression. In this study, we observed that DNA methyltransferase 3a (Dnmt3a) expression is decreased after muscle atrophy. We made skeletal muscle-specific Dnmt3a knockout mice (Dnmt3a-KO mice). The regeneration capacity after muscle injury was markedly decreased in Dnmt3a-KO mice. Diminished mRNA and protein expression of Dnmt3a were observed in skeletal muscles as well as in satellite cells, which are important for muscle regeneration, in Dnmt3a-KO mice. Dnmt3a-KO satellite cell showed smaller in size (length/area), suggesting suppressed myotube differentiation. Microarray analysis of satellite cells showed that expression of growth differentiation factor 5 (Gdf5) mRNA was markedly increased in Dnmt3a-KO mice. The DNA methylation level of the *Gdf5* promoter was markedly decreased in Dnmt3a-KO satellite cells. In addition, DNA methylation inhibitor 5-azacytidine treatment increased *Gdf5* expression in wild-type satellite cells, suggesting *Gdf5* expression is regulated by DNA methylation. Also, we observed increased inhibitor of differentiation 1 (Gdf5) mRNA expression in Dnmt3a-KO satellite cells. Thus, Dnmt3a appears to regulate satellite cell differentiation via DNA methylation. This mechanism may play a role in the decreased regeneration capacity during atrophy such as aged sarcopenia.—Hatazawa, Y., Ono, Y., Hirose, Y., Kanai, S., Fujii, N. I., Machida, S., Nishino, I., Shinizu, T., Okano, M., Kanai, Y., Ogawa, Y. Reduced Dnmt3a increases *Gdf5* expression with suppressed satellite cell differentiation and impaired skeletal muscle regeneration. *FASEB J.* 32, 000–000 (2018). www.fasebj.org

KEY WORDS: DNA methylation · epigenetics · atrophy · knockout mouse

Epigenetic events contribute to skeletal muscle remodeling in a variety of physiologic and pathophysiological conditions (1). DNA methylation occurs as 5-methylcytosines mainly at cytosine-guanine dinucleotides, so-called CpG sites, and such methylation is a well-studied epigenetic mechanism for transcriptional regulation (2,3). Generally DNA methylation of the gene promoter is correlated with transcriptional repression (2,3). Genomic DNA methylation patterns are established by the actions of the *de novo* methyltransferases DNA methyltransferase 3a (Dnmt3a) and Dnmt3b, and are maintained by the methyltransferase Dnmt1 (4). DNA methylation has long been known to be involved in muscle formation. Treatment of fibroblasts with the DNA methylation inhibitor 5-azacytidine caused

ABBREVIATIONS: Bmp, bone morphogenic protein; CTX, cardiofibrous Dnmt3a, DNA methyltransferase 3a; Dnmt3a-KO, mice; skeletal muscle-specific Dnmt3a-KO mice; EDL, extensor digitorum longus; EdU, 5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine; FGFR4, fibroblast growth factor receptor 4; Gdf, growth differentiation factor; HE, hematoxylin and eosin; iAP, intraskeletal A particle; REGG, Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes; KO, knockout; MyHC, myosin heavy chain; qPCR, quantitative PCR; WT, wild type; YFP, yellow fluorescent protein

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Co-precipitation molecules hemopexin and transferrin may be key molecules for fibrillogenesis in TTR V30M amyloidogenesis

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Abstract The disease model of familial amyloidotic polyneuropathy—7.2-hMet30 mice—manifests amyloid deposition that consists of a human amyloidogenic mutant transthyretin (TTR) (TTR V30M). Our previous study found amyloid deposits in 14 of 27 7.2-hMet30 mice at 21–24 months of age. In addition, non-fibrillar TTR deposits were found in amyloid-negative 7.2-hMet30 mice. These results suggested that TTR amyloidogenesis is required not only mutant TTR but also an additional factor (or factors) as an etiologic molecule. To determine the differences in serum proteome in amyloid-positive and amyloid-negative mice in the 7.2-hMet30 model, we used proteomic analyses and studied serum samples obtained from these mice. Hemopexin (HPX) and transferrin (Tf) were detected in the serum samples from amyloid-positive mice and were also found in amyloid deposits via immunohistochemistry, but serum samples from amyloid-negative mice did not contain HPX and Tf. These two proteins were also not detected in non-fibrillar TTR deposits. In addition, *in silico* analyses suggested that HPX and Tf facilitate destabilization of TTR secondary structures and misfolding of TTR. These results suggest that HPX and Tf may be associated with TTR amyloidogenesis after fibrillogenesis *in vivo*.

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Selective de-repression of germ cell-specific genes in mouse embryonic fibroblasts in a permissive epigenetic environment

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Epigenetic modifications play crucial roles on establishment of tissue-specific transcription profiles and cellular characteristics. Direct conversions of fibroblasts into differentiated tissue cells by over-expression of critical transcription factors have been reported, but the epigenetic mechanisms underlying these conversions are still not fully understood. In addition, conversion of somatic cells into germ cells has not yet been achieved. To understand epigenetic mechanisms that underlie germ cell characteristics, we attempted to use defined epigenetic factors to directly convert mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) into germ cells. Here, we successfully induced germ cell-specific genes by inhibiting repressive epigenetic modifications via RNA or small-molecule compounds. Under these conditions, some tissue-specific genes and stimulus-inducible genes were also induced. Meanwhile, the treatments did not result in genome-wide transcriptional activation. These results suggested that a permissive epigenetic environment resulted in selective de-repression of stimuli- and differentiation-inducible genes including germ cell-specific genes in MEFs.

The early precursors of germ cells, designated primordial germ cells (PGCs), become established at around embryonic day (E)7.25 in the extraembryonic mesoderm¹. PGCs then migrate into the indifferent embryonal gonads (genital ridges), and subsequently start to differentiate into sperms or eggs. Developing PGCs express several germ cell-specific genes at specific stages. For example, nascent PGCs express *Blimp1* (also known as *Pdln1*) PR domain containing 1, with ZNF domain, which is necessary for induction of PGCs². *Stella* (also known as *Dppa3*; developmental pluripotency-associated 3), which is important to embryonic development after fertilization³, and *Nanos3* (nanos homolog 3), which is necessary for survival of PGCs⁴. Then, during migration into the genital ridges (E10.5–E13.5), PGCs express *Vasa* (also known as *Ddx4*; DEAD box polypeptide 4), which is important for development of male germ cells⁵, and PGCs also begin to express meiosis-related genes such as *Dazl* (deleted in azoospermia-like 1)^{6,7} and *Sra8* (stimulated by retinoic acid gene 8) during migration^{1,8,9}. Along with those PGC-specific genes, PGC also express pluripotency-associated gene including *Otx2* (also known as *Pou5f1*; POU domain, class 5, transcription factor 1), *Sox2* (SRY-box 2), and *Nanog* (Nanog homeobox); these genes products contribute to survival and/or differentiation of PGCs^{1,4,7}.

During their development, PGC undergo characteristic epigenetic reprogramming. During migration, repetitive epigenetic modifications, such as histone H3 lysine 9 di-methylation (H3K9me2) and DNA methylation, are globally reduced^{10,11}, simultaneously, histone H3 lysine 27 tri-methylation (H3K27me3), another repressive histone modification, is elevated¹². Meanwhile, H3K27 becomes locally hypo-methylated in regulatory regions of germ cell-specific genes prior to their PGC-specific upregulation^{2,13}; these coordinated changes suggest that these epigenetic modifications play important roles in the temporal regulation of germ cell-specific gene expression in

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The evolutionarily-conserved function of group B1 Sox family members confers the unique role of Sox2 in mouse ES cells

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Abstract

Background: In mouse ES cells, the function of Sox2 is essential for the maintenance of pluripotency. Since the Sox-family of transcription factors are well conserved in the animal kingdom, addressing the evolutionary origin of Sox2 function in pluripotent stem cells is intriguing from the perspective of understanding the origin of pluripotency.

Results: Here we approach this question using a functional complementation assay in inducible Sox2-null ES cells. Assaying mouse Sox proteins from different Groups, we found that only Group B1 and Group G proteins were able to support pluripotency. Interestingly, invertebrate homologs of mammalian Group B1 Sox proteins were able to replace the pluripotency-associated function of mouse Sox2. Moreover, the mouse ES cells rescued by the *Drosophila* SoxNeuro protein are able to contribute to chimeric embryos.

Conclusions: These data indicate that the function of mouse Sox2 supporting pluripotency is based on an evolutionarily conserved activity of the Group B1 Sox family. Since pluripotent stem cell population in developmental process could be regarded as the evolutionary novelty in vertebrates, it could be regarded as a co-optional use of their evolutionarily conserved function.

Keywords: Pluripotent stem cell, Sox2, Evolution, Co-option

Background

Pluripotency is a unique feature of the cells found in early vertebrate embryos. Pluripotent stem cells give rise to all cell types of the organism, including germ cells, but, unlike zygotes, they do not have the ability to give rise organisms autonomously [1]. The pluripotent phenotype is primarily determined by the expression of a set of pluripotency-associated transcription factors, as demonstrated by the induction of pluripotency in somatic cells transfected with four transcription factors to give rise to induced pluripotent stem (iPS) cells [2]. Of

these four transcription factors, Oct3/4 (encoded by *Pou5f1*) and Sox2 are known to be essential for maintaining pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells [3,4]. In contrast, the functions of Klf4 and Myc are dispensable for pluripotency, but primarily support self-renewal in the absence of the cytokine leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) [5–8].

Pluripotent stem cell populations have been definitively identified in mammalian embryos, but their presence in other vertebrate embryos remains unclear, with no pluripotent stem cell lines yet isolated from other taxa. Frog animal cap cells behave similarly to pluripotent cells, but have never been shown to yield stem cells capable of propagating in vitro [9]. The absence of pluripotent stem cells is evident in ascidian embryos, since blastomeres exhibit mosaic behavior upon artificial separation [10]. Likewise there is no evidence of pluripotent stem cells in well studied invertebrates,

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Zscan4 Is Activated after Telomere Shortening in Mouse Embryonic Stem Cells

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SUMMARY

ZSCAN4 is a DNA-binding protein that functions for telomere elongation and genomic stability. *In vivo*, it is specifically expressed at the two-cell stage during mouse development. *In vitro*, it is transiently expressed in mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs), only in 5% of the population at one time. Here we attempted to elucidate when, under what circumstances, *Zscan4* is activated in ESCs. Using live imaging, we monitored the activity of *Zscan4* together with the pluripotency marker *Rex1*. The lengths of the cell cycles in ESCs were diverse. Longer cell cycles were accompanied by shorter telomeres and higher activation of *Zscan4*. Since activation of *Zscan4* is involved in telomere elongation, we speculate that the extended cell cycles accompanied by shorter telomeres and higher activation of *Zscan4* reflect the time for telomere recovery. *Rex1* and *Zscan4* did not show any correlation. Taken together, we propose that *Zscan4* is activated to recover shortened telomeres during extended cell cycles, irrespective of the pluripotent status.

INTRODUCTION

Zinc finger and SCAN domain containing 4 (ZSCAN4) is a DNA-binding protein that is specifically expressed in two-cell stage embryos during mouse development (Falcon et al., 2007). *In vitro*, interestingly, *Zscan4* is transiently expressed in a minor population of embryonic stem cells (ESCs) at one time (Carter et al., 2008) but is eventually expressed in all (Zalzman et al., 2010). It functions for telomere elongation and genomic stability (Zalzman et al., 2010) and thus is considered as a rejuvenation factor. ESCs are a heterogeneous population. If cultured in conventional serum-containing medium supplemented with leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF), they remain undifferentiated at close cell level. To elucidate whether the expression pattern of *Zscan4* has any correlation with ESC proliferation, we monitored *Zscan4* and the promoter activity of *Rex1* simultaneously with the fluctuating wave of ESC pluripotency (figure 5A). We monitored *Zscan4* and the pluripotency indicator *Rex1* simultaneously under live cell imaging. Unexpectedly, we did not see any correlation between the two factors. Instead, we found *Zscan4* is activated when the cell-cycle lengths become long, irrespective of the pluripotent status, presumably sensing shortened telomeres.

To elucidate whether the expression pattern of *Zscan4* has any correlation with ESC proliferation, we monitored *Zscan4* activity at single cell level. Also to see whether the rejuvenation factor *Zscan4* corelates with the fluctuating wave of ESC pluripotency (figure 5B), we monitored *Zscan4* and the pluripotency indicator *Rex1* simultaneously under live cell imaging. Unexpectedly, we did not see any correlation between the two factors. Instead, we found *Zscan4* is activated when the cell-cycle lengths become long, irrespective of the pluripotent status, presumably sensing shortened telomeres.

First we analyzed the proliferation profile of ESCs at the single-cell level. ESCs were stably transfected with Fucci vector

Par-aPKC-dependent and -independent mechanisms cooperatively control cell polarity, Hippo signaling, and cell positioning in 16-cell stage mouse embryos

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In preimplantation mouse embryos, the Hippo signalling pathway plays a central role in regulating the fates of the trophectoderm (TE) and the inner cell mass (ICM). In early blastocysts with more than 32 cells, the Par-aPKC system controls polarization of the outer cells along the epicrabial axis, and cell polarity suppresses Hippo signaling. Inactivation of Hippo signaling promotes nuclear accumulation of a coactivator protein, Yap, leading to induction of TE-specific genes. However, whether similar mechanisms operate at earlier stages is not known. Here, we show that slightly different mechanisms operate in 16-cell stage embryos. Similar to 32-cell stage embryos, disruption of the Par-aPKC system activated Hippo signaling and suppressed nuclear Yap and Cok2 expression in the outer cells. However, unlike 32-cell stage embryos, 16-cell stage embryos with a disrupted Par-aPKC system maintained apical polarization of phosphorylated Ezrin/Radixin/Moesin (p-ERM), and the effects on Yap and Cok2 were weak. Furthermore, normal 16-cell stage embryos often contained apolar cells in the outer position. In these cells, the Hippo pathway was strongly activated and Yap was excluded from the nuclei, thus resembling inner cells. Dissociated blastomeres at the 16-cell stage form polar-apolar couples, which exhibit different levels of nuclear Yap, and the polar cell engulfed the apolar cell. These results suggest that cell polarization at the 16-cell stage is regulated by both Par-aPKC-dependent and -independent mechanisms. Asymmetric cell division is involved in cell polarity control, and cell polarity regulates cell positioning and most likely controls Hippo signaling.

Key words: asymmetric cell division, cell polarity, Hippo signaling, Par-aPKC, preimplantation embryo.

Introduction

Before implantation in the uterus, mouse embryos undergo several rounds of cell division and form a cyst-like structure called the blastocyst (Namaraka et al. 2006; Sasaki 2010, 2015). The early blastocyst contains two types of cells, the trophectoderm (TE) and the inner cell mass (ICM). The TE is an outer epithelial structure required for implantation that later gives rise to placental tissues, whereas the ICM is a mass of pluripotent cells surrounded by the TE that later forms the embryo proper and some extraembryonic tissues.

Formation of the TE and ICM is the first cell fate specification in mouse development, and it has been

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REVIEW

LIF signal in mouse embryonic stem cells

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Since the establishment of mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) in the 1980s, a number of important notions on the self-renewal of pluripotent stem cells *in vitro* have been found. In serum containing conventional culture, an exogenous cytokine, leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF), is absolutely essential for the maintenance of pluripotency. In contrast, in serum-free culture with simultaneous inhibition of Map-kinase and Gsk3 (so called 2i-culture), LIF is no longer required. However, recent findings also suggest that LIF may have a role not covered by the 2i for the maintenance of naïve pluripotency. These suggest that LIF functions for the maintenance of naïve pluripotency in a context dependent manner. We summarize how LIF-signaling pathway is converged to maintain the naïve state of pluripotency.

KEYWORDS: Embryonic stem cell (ESC), Lekemia inhibitory factor (LIF) signal, Stat3, MAP kinase, PI3K-Akt, Genetic background, naïve state of pluripotency, Epigenetics

INTRODUCTION

mESCs are derived from the inner cell mass (ICM) of the blastocyst, and self-renew indefinitely *in vitro*.^{1,2} In earlier period, mESCs

were maintained in fetal calf serum (FCS)-containing medium with mouse embryonic fibroblast (MEF)-feeder cells. It was technically

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Zscan10 is dispensable for maintenance of pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem cells

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ABSTRACT

Zscan10, also known as Zfp206, encodes a transcription factor that has been reported to be involved in the maintenance of pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells. Here we generated inducible knockout ES cells for Zscan10 using the Cre-loxP system and analyzed its function. We succeeded in establishing Zscan10-null ES cells and confirmed their pluripotency by the generation of chimeric embryos. Our results clearly indicate that Zscan10 is dispensable for the ability of self-renewal and differentiation in ES cells.

In spontaneous differentiation [4,5], suggesting its functional involvement in the maintenance of pluripotency. In addition, it was also reported that Zscan10 might act as a transcriptional activator of the 2-cell-stage specific transcripts, such as Zscan4 and Tscr1, because their expression levels are decreased in Zscan10 knocked-down ES cells [5]. In contrast, it was recently reported that Zscan10 knockout mice can develop to adult organisms although they have some defects such as weight reduce or eye defect [9], suggesting that its function for the maintenance of pluripotent cell population in early developmental process is either dispensable or masked by the maternal transcripts. In the previous reports that applied shRNA-mediated knock-down strategy for the loss of function experiments, 10–20% of total Zscan10 transcripts still remained [4,5]. Thus, even though they indicated that Zscan10 supports pluripotency in ES cells, it is still unclear whether the function of Zscan10 is necessary for the maintenance of pluripotency in ES cells. To settle the argument, especially whether Zscan10 is the key regulator of 2-cell-stage specific genes and pluripotency-associated genes, we established Zscan10 inducible-knockout ES cell lines using the Cre-loxP system. By this strategy, we found that Zscan10-null ES cells continue self-renewal while keeping the expression of pluripotency-associated transcription factors. We also confirmed the pluripotency of the Zscan10-null ES cells by the generation of chimeric embryos. These results suggest that the function of Zscan10 is

1. Introduction

Embryonic stem (ES) cells are pluripotent stem cells derived from pre-implantation embryos [1,2]. ES cells possess a specific transcriptional factor network downstream of the integrated external signals, and the activity of this network enables to maintain their pluripotency and self-renewability [5]. Zinc finger and SCAN domain-containing 10 (Zscan10, also known as Zfp206) encodes a transcription factor and is regarded as an important member of the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network. Zscan10 is highly expressed in ES cells and downregulated upon differentiation [4,5]. The expression of Zscan10 is directly regulated by the key pluripotency-associated transcription factors Oct3/4 and Sox2 [6], and Zscan10 binds to the enhancer region of Oct3/4 and Sox2 [7], suggesting its tight integration to the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network. Single cell analysis suggested that Zscan10 is a component of the feedback regulation of Oct3/4 [8]. Moreover, the overexpression of Zscan10 stabilizes self-renewal and prevents differentiation whereas its knock-down by shRNA causes increase



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RESEARCH ARTICLE



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Sox7 is dispensable for primitive endoderm differentiation from mouse ES cells

Masaki Kinoshita¹, Daisuke Shimomoto¹, Mariko Yamane¹ and Hitoshi Niwa^{1,2,3*}

Abstract

Background: Primitive endoderm is a cell lineage segregated from the epiblast in the blastocyst and gives rise to parietal and visceral endoderm. Sox7 is a member of the SoxF gene family that is specifically expressed in primitive endoderm in the late blastocyst, although its function in this cell lineage remains unclear.

Results: Here we characterize the function of Sox7 in primitive endoderm differentiation using mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells as a model system. We show that ectopic expression of Sox7 in ES cells has a marginal effect on triggering differentiation into primitive endoderm-like cells. We also show that targeted disruption of Sox7 in ES cells does not affect differentiation into primitive endoderm in embryoid body formation as well as by forced expression of Gata6.

Conclusions: These data indicate that Sox7 function is supplementary and not essential for this differentiation from ES cells.

Keywords: ES cells, XEN cells, primitive endoderm, Sox7

Background

Mouse blastocysts at E4.5 consist of three cell types: epiblast, primitive endoderm and trophectoderm. The epiblast is composed of pluripotent cells that give rise to all embryonic lineages in later developmental stages [1]. In contrast, both primitive endoderm and trophectoderm form extra-embryonic parts such as the yolk sac and placenta, respectively. Primitive endoderm differentiates into two types of endoderm after implantation. One is the parietal endoderm (PE) that migrates along the mural trophoblast and covers its inner surface to form the Reichert membrane. The other is the visceral endoderm (VE) that covers the outer surface of epiblast and extraembryonic ectoderm derived from trophectoderm. PE cells show mesenchymal cell-like characteristics such as stellate morphology, weak cell adhesion and rapid migration ability. In contrast, VE cells show typical epithelial morphology with tight cell adhesion.

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Nr0b1 is a negative regulator of Zscan4c in mouse embryonic stem cells

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Nuclear receptor subfamily 0, group B, member 1 (Nr0b1, also known as Dax1) is regarded as an important component of the transcription factor network that governs pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells. Here we generated inducible knockout ES cells for Nr0b1 using the Cre-loxP system and analyzed its precise function. We succeeded in establishing the Nr0b1-null ES cells and confirmed their pluripotency by showing their contribution to chimeric embryos. However, they proliferated slowly with over-expression of ES cells. We specified transcripts including Zscan4c, which is known to be involved in telomere elongation at G2 phase followed by cell death and that Nr0b1 directly represses the Zscan4c promoter. These data indicated that Nr0b1 is not essential to maintain pluripotency but is involved in the proper activation of 2-cell specific transcripts for self-renewal.

Nr0b1 (also known as *Dax-1/Dax1*) is a unique member of the nuclear family because it lacks the DNA binding domain and works to modulate the function of other nuclear receptors. It has been well analyzed that Nr0b1 interacts with Nr5a2 to regulate the development of germ cell colony formation (Fig. 1a). Interestingly, while the biochemical analyses suggested that Nr0b1 interacts with Nr5a2 to suppress its function^{1,2}, it was also demonstrated that Nr0b1 cooperates with Nr5a2 and Steroid receptor RNA activator 1 (Sra1) to activate the Oct3/4 promoter³. What happens if Nr0b1 function is eliminated in ES cells? Niakan *et al* reported that either knock-down of Nr0b1 by siRNA or knock-out of Nr0b1 by the Cre-lox system induces differentiation of ES cells⁴. This is consistent with the second report by Khalafallah *et al* showing that siRNA-mediated knock-down of Nr0b1 causes multi-lineage differentiation⁵. However, in both cases, the primary effect of the withdrawal of Nr0b1 on the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network was not well analyzed. Here we generated an inducible knockout ES cell line of Nr0b1 with the Cre-lox system to examine its precise role to regulate the transcription factor network. Our data indicated that Nr0b1 is dispensable for maintaining pluripotency but is involved in the transcriptional regulation of 2-cell specific genes in ES cells.

Results

Establishment of inducible knockout ES cell lines for Nr0b1. The Nr0b1 gene consists of 2 exons (Fig. 1a). It has been reported that the deletion of exon 2 results in functional ablation. We made a knockout vector in which two loxP sites were inserted in intron 1 and the 3' of exon 2, with a PGKpacAkt α cassette flanked by *Frt* sites inserted adjacent to the 5' end of the 3' loxP site (Fig. 1a). The linearized knockout vector was introduced into male ES cells by electroporation followed by the selection with puromycin. As a result we obtained multiple clones with correct homologous recombination event confirmed by combinations of long-range genomic PCR (Fig. 1b), designated as Nr0b $^{fl/fl}$ ES cells. Then the expression vector of the FLP recombinase (ELP β) was transiently transfected by infection followed by the selection with gancyclavlor, resulting in the generation of ES cells in which the PGKpacAkt α cassette was excised, designated as Nr0b $^{fl/+}$ ES cells. Then the piggybac vectors for

The differential activation of intracellular signaling pathways confers the permissiveness of embryonic stem cell derivation from different mouse strains

Satoshi Ohtsuka¹ and Hitoshi Niwa^{1,2,3,*}

ABSTRACT

The requirement of leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) for the establishment and maintenance of mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) depends on the genetic background of the ESCs origin. To reveal the molecular basis of the strain-dependent function of LIF, we compared the activation of the intracellular signaling pathways downstream of LIF in ESCs with different genetic backgrounds. We found that the Jak3-Stat3 pathway was dominantly activated in ESCs derived from 'permissive' mouse strains (I29Sv and C57BL/6), whereas the MAP kinase pathway was hyperactivated in ESCs from non-permissive strains (NOD, CBA and FVB). Artificial activation of Stat3 supported stable self-renewal of ESCs from non-permissive strains. These data suggest that the difference in the balance between the two intracellular signaling pathways underlies the differential response to LIF.

KEY WORDS: LIF signaling, MAP kinase, Stat3, Embryonic stem cell, Signal responsiveness

INTRODUCTION

Mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) were first established in fetal calf serum (FCS)-containing medium with mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) feeder cells (Evans and Kaufman, 1981; Martin, 1981). The cytokine leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) was identified as the activator to support stem cell self-renewal (Smith *et al.*, 1988). Supplementation of LIF into FCS-containing medium (FCS-LIF) allowed stable self-renewal of ESCs derived from I29Sv or C57BL/6 without MEF (Nichols *et al.*, 1990). Combination of MEF with FCS-LIF supported ESCs with other genetic backgrounds than C57BL/6 formed stem-cell colonies at a much higher rate than ESCs derived from the other strains (Fig. 1G). Addition of either CHIR or PD0322 to FCS-LIF was insufficient to support stem cell colony formation of FVB-, CBA- and NOD-ESCs, although BALB/c-ESCs formed small, compact colonies. Addition of a higher dose of LIF (10^4 units/ml) to FCS-LIF also failed to support stem cell colony formation in NOD-ESCs (supplementary material Fig. S2). These data indicate that FCS-LIF is insufficient to support self-renewal of BALB/c-, FVB-, CBA- and NOD-ESCs. BALB/c-ESCs have been previously referred as non-permissive for derivation of ESCs in FCS-LIF with MEF (Babar and Matthaei, 2004); however, their characteristics were similar to those of non-permissive strains previously categorized (FVB, CBA and NOD) in FCS-LIF without MEF, even though the phenotypes with single inhibitors in FCS-LIF were intermediate (Fig. 1B,E). Therefore, here we categorized I29Sv and C57BL/6 as permissive, FVB, CBA and NOD as non-permissive strains, and BALB/c as intermediate strain.

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strains. Here, we demonstrate how ESCs from various genetic backgrounds respond to the LIF signal by assessing the quantitative balance in the activation of the intracellular signaling pathways.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Comparison of the self-renewing abilities of ESCs derived from different strains
Previous reports indicated that there are two types of mouse strains: strains permissive for establishment of ESCs in FCS-LIF or FCS-LIF (MEF (I29Sv, C57BL/6 and BALB/c), and non-permissive strains (NOD, CBA and FVB)) (Kawase *et al.*, 1994; Brook *et al.*, 2003; Nagaiishi *et al.*, 1999; Cimelli *et al.*, 2008). We established three male ESCs of each type from these six strains using 2LIF with MEF. These ESCs continued self-renewal, with maintaining expression of pluripotency-associated genes at comparable levels (Fig. 1A) and compact colony morphologies (Fig. 1C) in 2LIF. The ability to produce germline chimeras was confirmed in ESCs derived from I29Sv and NOD (supplementary material Fig. S1).

We then tested their characteristics in other culture conditions. ESCs were seeded in 2LIF, followed by incubation for 24 h. Then, the medium was changed to either 2LIF or FCS-LIF (or MAPK or both). After culturing for 4 days, primary colony formation was evaluated by counting colony numbers (CHIR for GSK3, PD0322 for MAPK or both). After culturing for 16 days, primary colony formation was evaluated by counting colony numbers (Fig. 1B) and by assessing colony morphologies (Fig. 1C-G). The efficiency of primary colony formation was significantly reduced upon removal of one of the inhibitors (Fig. 1B). In the presence of 2LIF, all ESCs formed stem cell colonies, even in FCS-LIF (Fig. 1C,D). However, in FCS-LIF, ESCs derived from I29Sv and C57BL/6 formed stem-cell colonies at a much higher rate than ESCs derived from the other strains (Fig. 1G). Addition of either CHIR or PD0322 to FCS-LIF was insufficient to support stem cell colony formation of FVB-, CBA- and NOD-ESCs, although BALB/c-ESCs formed small, compact colonies. Addition of a higher dose of LIF (10^4 units/ml) to FCS-LIF also failed to support stem cell colony formation in NOD-ESCs (supplementary material Fig. S2). These data indicate that FCS-LIF is insufficient to support self-renewal of BALB/c-, FVB-, CBA- and NOD-ESCs. BALB/c-ESCs have been previously referred as non-permissive for derivation of ESCs in FCS-LIF with MEF (Babar and Matthaei, 2004); however, their characteristics were similar to those of non-permissive strains previously categorized (FVB, CBA and NOD) in FCS-LIF without MEF, even though the phenotypes with single inhibitors in FCS-LIF were intermediate (Fig. 1B,E). Therefore, here we categorized I29Sv and C57BL/6 as permissive, FVB, CBA and NOD as non-permissive strains, and BALB/c as intermediate strain.

Differential activation of intracellular signaling pathways by LIF in strain-dependent manner
We then tested the effect of the LIF signal on activation of the Jak3 and MAPK pathways, the positive and negative signals to

SPOTLIGHT

The POU-er of gene nomenclature

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ABSTRACT

The pluripotency factor POU5F1 (OCT4) is well known as a key regulator of stem cell fate. Homologues of POU5F1 exist throughout vertebrates, but the evolutionary and functional relationships between the various family members have been unclear. The level to which the evolution of early embryonic potency here we seek to clarify the relationship between POU5F1 homologues in the vertebrate lineage, both phylogenetically and functionally. We resolve the confusion over the identity of the zebrafish gene, which was originally named *pou2*, then changed to *pou5f1* and again, more recently, to *pou5f3*. We argue that the use of correct nomenclature is crucial when discussing the degree to which the networks regulating early embryonic differentiation are conserved.

Class V POU (POU) transcription factors are important regulators of potency, differentiation and early development in vertebrates. They constitute one of five classes of POU domain-containing proteins defined by similarity within both the homeodomain and the POU-specific domain (Rosenthal, 1991). Mouse POU5F1 (also called OCT3 or OCT4) was the first class V member identified (Lenardo et al., 1989; Okamoto et al., 1990; Rosner et al., 1990; Schöler et al., 1989, 1990). It is a central regulator of embryonic stem cell (ESC) pluripotency (Nichols et al., 1998; Niwa et al., 2000; Yuan et al., 1995) and the most essential of the four factors originally identified as being able to induce reprogramming of somatic cells to induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) (Takahashi and Yamanaka, 2006; Yu et al., 2007). Since the initial characterisation of POU5F1 homologues have been identified in many vertebrates, including frog, chicken, axolotl, teleost fishes and sturgeon.

As more POU genes were identified, it became apparent that the POU family has a complex evolutionary history. Some eutherian mammals possess a second, single-exon POU gene, *POU5F2* (previously called *SPPR/M-1*), which has a role in spermatogenesis (Andersen et al., 1993; Pearce et al., 1997) and presumably arose in

an ancestral eutherian by retroviral insertion of a copy of *POU5F1*. Marsupial and monotreme genomes contain two POU genes: *POU5F1* and another homologue now called *POU5F3*. Both the marsupial POU genes (*POU5F1* and *POU5F3*) are expressed in early development in domains similar to those described for *Pou5f1* in the mouse (Frankenberg et al., 2010, 2013). Notably, some vertebrate lineages have orthologues of both *POU5F1* and *POU5F3*, whereas others (including eutherian mammals) have only *POU5F1* and others only *POU5F3* (Fig. 1). The basis for this pattern of evolution is unclear, but is possibly due to distinct roles for each paralogue that became redundant in a taxon-specific manner.

In zebrafish, a POU gene was identified and originally, albeit confusingly, named *pou2* (Takada et al., 1994). With the availability of the complete sequence, it became clear that *pou2* encodes a class V POU protein (Burgess et al., 2002) and, based on an assumption of orthology with mammalian *POU5F1* (Lundt et al., 2004), zebrafish *pou2* was subsequently renamed *pou5f1*. However, the zebrafish gene is not a true orthologue of mammalian *POU5F1* but is instead more closely related to mammalian *POU5F3*, as indicated by conservation of both syntax and sequence (Frankenberg et al., 2010; Frankenberger and Renfree, 2013; Niwa et al., 2008; Tapia et al., 2012). Moreover, a recent study (Frankenberg and Renfree, 2013) has now demonstrated unequivocally that the gene duplication event giving rise to *POU5F1* and *POU5F3* occurred before the divergence of extant cartilaginous and bony fishes, showing conclusively that the zebrafish gene is a true *POU5F3* orthologue. On the weight of this evidence, the Zebrafish Nomenclature Committee re-named the zebrafish gene *pou5f3*, reflecting its proper place in the POUV family. We now support the application of this nomenclature to all vertebrate orthologues of *POU5F3* (see Table 1).

The degree to which the function of the POUV proteins is conserved in evolution is variable. This has been tested by the capacity of different POU proteins to rescue the loss of endogenous POU1 activity in ESC self-renewal (Hannachi et al., 2012; Morrison and Brickman, 2006) or in the generation of iPSCs together with three other mammalian factors (Tapia et al., 2012). Based on these assays, orthologues of *POU5F1* and *POU5F3* show varying degrees of functional conservation in inducing pluripotency and supporting self-renewal. In particular, *Xenopus*, which has three *POU5F3* genes (*pou5f3.1*, *pou5f3.2* and *pou5f3.3*) that presumably arose by tandem duplication, has diversified expression pattern and activity of these genes have diversified such that only one of them – *pou5f3.1* – is expressed in primordial germ cells and has ‘OCT4-like’ activity in both reprogramming and ESC self-renewal (Livigni et al., 2013; Venkatarama et al., 2010; Tapia et al., 2012). Other *POU5F3* genes, including the two other *Xenopus* genes, have varying degrees of OCT4-like activity in such assays, but it is notable that zebrafish *pou5f3* has little activity in either reprogramming or the support of *Pou5f1* mutant ESCs (Lavial et al., 2007; Morrison and Brickman, 2006; Niwa et al., 2007; Moroni et al., 2007; Sundström et al., 2007).

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

Small molecule-directed specification of sclerotome-like chondroprogenitors and induction of a somitic chondrogenesis program from embryonic stem cells

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ABSTRACT

Pluripotent embryonic stem cells (ESCs) generate rostral paraxial mesoderm-like progeny in 5–6 days of differentiation induced by Wnt3a and Noggin (Nog). We report that canonical Wnt signaling introduced either by forced expression of activated β-catenin or the small-MW inhibitor of Gsk3, CHIR9021, inhibited the need for Wnt3a signaling, and that the small-molecule inhibitor of BMP type I receptors, LDN193189, was able to replace Nog. Mesodermal progeny generated using such small molecules were chondrogenic *in vitro*. For human embryonic cells, pluripotent stem cells (PSCs) i.e. embryonic stem cells (ESCs) or induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) are thus far the only practical source. PSC culture is biominimetic scaffolds appears to be a promising therapeutic approach, as MSCs from bone marrow or fat tissue can be both osteogenic and chondrogenic under certain conditions *in vitro* and *in vivo*. However, the difficulty of the approach lies in controlling the clinical outcome. As bone and cartilage are naturally formed during embryogenesis, we hypothesize that one way to alleviate the difficulty is to use embryonic osteochondro-progenitors instead of adult cells.

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such that large numbers of a particular type of embryonic cell can be obtained under the appropriate conditions of differentiation to emanating from developmental biology studies is expected to aid in the discovery and refinement of such conditions. However, although ESCs have been shown to generate mesenchymal progeny capable of developing cartilage *in vitro* (Nakayama and Umeda, 2011), the resulting chondrogenic activities were generally poor, and with the exception of ours and a few others (Craft et al., 2013; Oldershaw et al., 2010; Tanaka et al., 2009; Umeda et al., 2012), most reports did not define the mesenchymal progeny capable of developing cartilage *in vitro*. Noggin (a hedgehog receptor agonist) and LDN193189 then Sox9 expression was induced, leading to cartilaginous nodules and particles in the presence of BMP, indicative of chondrogenesis via sclerotome specification. By contrast, treatment with TGFβ also supported chondrogenesis and stimulated Sox9 expression, but failed to induce the expression of Pax1 and Bapx1. On ectopic transplantation to immunocompromised mice, the cartilage particles developed under either condition became similarly mineralized and formed pieces of bone with marrow, thus the use of small molecules led to the effective generation from ESCs of paraxial mesodermal progeny, and to their further differentiation *in vitro* through sclerotome specification into growth plate-like chondrocytes, a mechanism resembling *in vivo* somitic chondrogenesis that is not recapitulated with TGFβ.

KEY WORDS: Pluripotent stem cells, Paraxial mesoderm, Sclerotome, Chondrogenesis, Mouse

INTRODUCTION

Repair of large bone defects and damaged cartilage remain a significant clinical challenge. The combination of therapy with mesenchymal stromal cells (MSCs) and the use of biodegradable

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STEM CELLS AND REGENERATION

DEVELOPMENT

Small molecule-directed specification of sclerotome-like chondroprogenitors and induction of a somitic chondrogenesis program from embryonic stem cells

Jiangang Zhao^{1,*}, Songhui Li^{2,†}, Suprita Trilo¹, Makoto Tanaka^{2,||}, Vanta Jokubaitis-Jameson^{2,§}, Bei Wang^{2,‡}, Hitoshi Niwa³ and Naoki Nakayama^{1,2,4,***}

ABSTRACT

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The pluripotency transcription factor network at work in reprogramming

Hitoshi Niwa

^{1,2}

The C-terminal region of Xpc is dispensable for the transcriptional activity of Oct3/4 in mouse embryonic stem cells

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The transcription factor Oct3/4 is essential to maintain pluripotency in mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells. It was reported that the Xpc DNA repair complex is involved in this process. Here we examined the role of Xpc on the transcriptional activity of the target genes by Oct3/4 using the inducible knockout strategy. We found that the removal of the C-terminal region of Xpc, including the interaction sites with Rad23b and Cen2, showed faint impact on the gene expression profile of ES cells and the functional Xpc-ΔC terminus proper gene expression profile as well as pluripotency to contribute chimeric embryos. These data indicated that the C-terminal region of Xpc is dispensable for the transcriptional activity of Oct3/4 in mouse ES cells.

For the activation of the target genes, Oct3/4 mainly cooperates with the Sry-related HMG-box transcription factor Sox2 [7]. Oct3/4 directly interacts with Sox2, and these Ts in the heterodimer recognize the specific sequences adjoining each other without space or with a space of a few base pairs on the target DNA [8]. Mediator works to transduce the binding of Oct3/4-Sox2 complex to the distal binding site for the recruitment of p300 at the promoter [9]. The requirement of Mediator to keep the Oct3/4-dependent gene expression pattern was demonstrated by the knock-down of the component of Mediator [9]. It was reported that the DNA repair complex containing Xpc also act as a co-activator of Oct3/4 [10]. The Xpc complex consists of Xpc, Rad23B and Cen2 and mediates the nucleotide excision repair [11]. In mouse ES cells, the complex directly interacts with Oct3/4 to mediate the transcriptional activation of the target genes such as Nanog [10]. It was demonstrated that the simultaneous knock-down of Xpc, Rad23B and Cen2 compromised self-renewal of ES cells with down-regulation of the target genes of Oct3/4 [10]. However, it was also demonstrated that the Xpc knockout mice develop to term [12] and the Xpc-null ES cells can be established from the Xpc-null blastocysts [13], which sounds controversial to the function of the Xpc complex proposed in ES cells.

It has sometimes been observed that the knock-down of a specific gene expression by siRNA or shRNA gives different effects from the knock-out of the same gene by the gene-targeting via homologous recombination. For example, several reports demonstrated that the knock-down of *Rex1* (encoded by *Zfp42*)

Pluripotency-associated transcription factors possess a pivotal role to maintain pluripotency in pluripotent stem cells as well as to induce pluripotency in somatic cells. They direct specific pattern of gene expression from the genome by co-operating with the genetic and epigenetic mechanisms. Recent findings revealed that these mechanisms possess unique features in pluripotent stem cells, which is different from that in somatic cells either qualitatively and quantitatively. To reprogram somatic cells, pluripotency-associated transcription factors should modulate the co-operating machineries to establish the optimal environment for their function to maintain pluripotency-associated transcription factor network.

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transcription factor network is finally established to maintain the pluripotent state induced by reprogramming. Here the recent findings were reviewed to understand the reprogramming event from the point of view of the transcription factor network transition.

Transcription factor network in pluripotent stem cells

Mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells continue self-renewal in the presence of leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF). LIF signal integrates into ES cells and activates three different intracellular signal transduction pathways, which target the expressions and activities of multiple pluripotency-associated transcription factors such as *Klf4*, *Tcf3* and *Tcf21* [3,4]. Wnt signal cooperates with LIF signal to promote the maintenance of pluripotency via transcriptional activation of the transcription factor *Esr2* [5]. These transcription factors form a network in which they regulate each other and process the signal integration to direct self-renewal (or to block differentiation which is a default) by maintaining the expressions of the core transcription factors that consist of *Otx3/4* and *Sox2* (Figure 1). The core transcription factors compose auto-regulatory loops to maintain in their own expressions and regulate the components of the pluripotency-associated transcription factor network in a signal integration-dependent manner [6]. Moreover, transcription factor network possesses a positive feedback to amplify LIF signal integration via transcriptional repression of *Sox3*, a negative regulation of *Stat3* activation, by Nanog [7]. The essence of the function of the transcription factor network is the maintenance of pluripotency.

Transcriptional activation by transcription factors

Mediating the functions of pluripotency-associated transcription factors involves many parameters that define their abilities to activate or repress the target gene expression. This includes the interactions among the transcription factors, transcriptional co-factors and general transcription factors.

Interaction of the transcription factors

It has been reported that Oct3/4 and Sox2 form a heterodimer to activate the transcription of the target genes including their own. The direct interactions of transcription factors define their specific functions [6]. For example, Sox2 is expressed in a variety of cell types during development including trophoblast stem (TS) cells [8]. In TS cells, Sox2 functions to mediate the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) signal to maintain self-renewal

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Zscan4 Is Regulated by PI3-Kinase and DNA-Damaging Agents and Directly Interacts with the Transcriptional Repressors LSD1 and CtBP2 in Mouse Embryonic Stem Cells

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Abstract

The Zscan4 family of genes, encoding SCAN-domain and zinc finger-containing proteins, has been implicated in the control of early mammalian embryogenesis as well as the regulation of pluripotency and maintenance of genome integrity in mouse embryonic stem cells. However, many features of this enigmatic family of genes is poorly understood. Here we show that undifferentiated mouse embryonic stem cell (ESCI) lines simultaneously express multiple members of the Zscan4 gene family, with Zscan4c, Zscan4t and Zscan4-p52 consistently being the most abundant. Despite this, between only 0.1 and 0.7% of undifferentiated mouse pluripotent stem cells express Zscan4 protein at a given time, consistent with a very restricted pattern of Zscan4 transcripts reported previously. Herein we demonstrate that Zscan4 expression is regulated by the p110 catalytic isoform of phosphoinositide 3-kinases and is induced following exposure to a sub-class of DNA-damaging agents, including Zeocin and Cisplatin. Furthermore, we observe that Zscan4 protein expression peaks during the G2 phase of the cell cycle, suggesting that it may play a critical role at this checkpoint. Studies with GAL4-fusion proteins suggest a role for Zscan4 in transcriptional regulation, further supported by the fact that protein interaction analyses demonstrate that Zscan4 interacts with both LSD1 and CtBP2 in ESC nuclei. This study advances and extends our understanding of Zscan4 expression, regulation and mechanism of action. Based on our data we propose that Zscan4 may regulate gene transcription in mouse ES cells through interaction with LSD1 and CtBP2.

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Introduction

Embryonic stem cells (ESCs) self-renew and are pluripotent, meaning they can differentiate into all cells comprising an adult organism [1]. These properties have made ESCs an attractive source of differentiated cell types for use in both drug discovery and regenerative medicine. While the potential of ESCs has been widely recognized, it is imperative that the mechanisms regulating their self-renewal, pluripotency and stability are better understood, to ensure their efficacy and safety.

The extrinsic factors, signaling pathways and transcription factor networks that contribute to maintenance of mouse ESC self-renewal and pluripotency, referred to as the 'ESC state', have been extensively studied [1,2,3,4]. Leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) and Bone morphogenic protein 4 (BMP4) are the key cytokines required for maintenance of ESC self-renewal in culture, acting

via the Jak-Stat3 and Smad-Id pathways respectively [5,6,7]. Inhibition of glycogen synthase kinase 3 (Gsk-3), which mimics both activation of the Wnt pathway and growth factor-induced PI3K signaling, can enhance mouse ESC self-renewal [8,9] and assist in maintaining the 'ground-state' of mouse ESC pluripotency [10,11,12]. Inhibition of MAPK signaling, in addition to Gsk-3 inhibition (referred to as '2i' conditions) is sufficient to maintain self-renewal of mouse ESCs, in the absence of additional exogenous factors [10]. Phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) signaling has also been implicated in the maintenance of both mouse [13,14,15] and human ESC [16] pluripotency.

Oct4, Sox2, and Nanog are amongst the most important transcription factors that contribute to regulation of ESC pluripotency, often referred to as the 'core transcription factors' or 'master regulators' [1,17]. Other transcription factors work in concert with these core factors and include Zfx [18], Kit 2 & 4

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Oct4 is required for lineage priming in the developing inner cell mass of the mouse blastocyst

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INTRODUCTION

A prerequisite for the viviparous development of the mouse embryo is the capacity to generate enveloping tissues to facilitate implantation in the mother, while preserving the potential to produce a fetus. The first extra-embryonic lineage, the trophoblast, forms the outer layer of the blastocyst. The internal population of cells, termed the inner cell mass (ICM), is protected from differentiation by the expression of the POU domain transcription factor Oct4 (also known as Oct3, Oct3/4 and Pou5f1). Following zygotic cleavage and activation of Nanog expression, Nanog protein is significantly elevated in the presumptive inner cell mass of Oct4 null embryos, suggesting an unexpected role for Oct4 in attenuating the level of Nanog, which might be significant for priming differentiation during epiblast maturation. Induced deletion of Oct4 during the cell transition disrupts the ability of inner cell mass monolayers to adopt lineage-specific identity and acquire the molecular profile characteristic of either epiblast or primitive endoderm. Sox17, a marker of primitive endoderm, is not detected following prolonged culture of such embryos, but can be rescued by provision of exogenous FGF4. Interestingly, functional primitive endoderm can be rescued in Oct4-deficient embryos in embryonic stem cell complementation assays, but only if the host embryos are at the pre-blastocyst stage. We conclude that fate decisions within the inner cell mass are dependent upon Oct4 and that Oct4 is not cell-autonomously, as long as an appropriate developmental environment is established.

KEY WORDS: Blastocyst, Chimaera, Nanog, Oct4 (Pou5f1), Primitive endoderm, Sox17

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INTRODUCTION

The transcription factor Oct4 is required *in vitro* for establishment and maintenance of embryonic stem cells and for reprogramming somatic cells to pluripotency. *In vivo*, it prevents the ectopic differentiation of early embryos into trophoblast. Here, we further explore the role of Oct4 in blastocyst formation and specification of epiblast versus primitive endoderm lineages using conditional genetic deletion. Experiments involving mouse embryos deficient for both maternal and zygotic Oct4 suggest that it is dispensable for zygote formation, early cleavage and activation of Nanog expression. Nanog protein is significantly elevated in the presumptive inner cell mass of Oct4 null embryos, suggesting an unexpected role for Oct4 in attenuating the level of Nanog, which might be significant for priming differentiation during epiblast maturation. Induced deletion of Oct4 during the cell transition disrupts the ability of inner cell mass monolayers to adopt lineage-specific identity and acquire the molecular profile characteristic of either epiblast or primitive endoderm. Sox17, a marker of primitive endoderm, is not detected following prolonged culture of such embryos, but can be rescued by provision of exogenous FGF4. Interestingly, functional primitive endoderm can be rescued in Oct4-deficient embryos in embryonic stem cell complementation assays, but only if the host embryos are at the pre-blastocyst stage. We conclude that fate decisions within the inner cell mass are dependent upon Oct4 and that Oct4 is not cell-autonomously, as long as an appropriate developmental environment is established.

KEY WORDS: Blastocyst, Chimaera, Nanog, Oct4 (Pou5f1), Primitive endoderm, Sox17

Development



Genetic Exploration of the Exit from Self-Renewal Using Haploid Embryonic Stem Cells

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SUMMARY

Self-renewal circuitry in embryonic stem cells (ESCs) is increasingly defined. How the robust pluripotency program is dissolved to enable fate transition is less appreciated. Here we develop a forward genetic approach using haploid ESCs. We created libraries of transposon integrations and screened for persistent self-renewal in differentiation-permissive culture. This yielded multiple mutants in the *Gfz/Erk* and *GSK3/Tcf3* modules known to drive differentiation and in epigenetic modifiers implicated in lineage commitment. We also identified and validated factors not previously considered. These include the conserved small zinc finger protein *Zfp706* and the RNA binding protein *Pum1*. *Pum1* targets several mRNAs for naïve pluripotency transcription factors and accelerates their downregulation at the onset of differentiation. These findings indicate that the dismantling of pluripotent circuitry proceeds at multiple levels. More broadly they exemplify the power of haploid ESCs for genetic interrogation of developmental processes.

Suppression of differentiation is sufficient to allow ESC self-renewal. This can be achieved by application of two small molecules (2i) that block the inductive stimulus of fibroblast growth factor 4 (*Fgf4*)/mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK) signaling and partially inhibit glycogen synthase kinase-3 (GSK3) (Ring et al., 2008). 2i may capture ESCs in a “ground state” of self-renewal by insulating the core pluripotency transcription factor circuit (Nichols and Smith, 2012). Consistent with this idea, deficiency in components that promote collapse of the pluripotency network liberates self-renewal from a requirement for 2i (Betschinger et al., 2013; Wray et al., 2011).

Importantly, capacity for proliferation in 2i is rather specific for undifferentiated ESCs, and is lost early in differentiation (Betschinger et al., 2013). Thus, the ability to self-renew in 2i after a period of permissive culture provides a powerful means to identify and quantify delayed exit from the ground state. Here we combine this functional assay together with haploid ESC mutagenesis in a genetic screen for differentiation inducers.

INTRODUCTION

Rodent ESCs exhibit the identity and pluripotency of naïve pre-implantation epiblast cells with the additional attribute of extended self-renewal (Nichols and Smith, 2012). The molecular machinery and underlying genetic circuitry that sustain ESC character during self-renewal have been extensively characterized (Young, 2011). Less studied is the process by which ESCs exit the naïve state to embark upon differentiation. In contrast to the ordered program of germ layer segregation that unfolds deterministically in the embryo and is obeyed by ESCs in chimeras, differentiation *in vitro* is asynchronous and disorganized (Lowell et al., 2006). Identifying factors and pathways that direct developmental progression from self-renewal to lineage commitment is a challenge. A timely opportunity for application of forward genetics to dissect this complex developmental transition arises from the recent derivation of haploid mouse ESCs (Elling et al., 2011; Leeb and Wutz, 2011).

Haploid ESCs can be derived from parthenogenetic embryos generated following chemical activation of unfertilized eggs (Masui et al., 2008) and iRex1/GFP reporter ESCs lacking Rex1 protein contribute extensively to chimeras (Leeb et al., 2012). After withdrawal of 2i/LIF, GFP is substantially downregulated by 48 hr and <1% of cells remain positive by

Developmental Epigenetic Modification Regulates Stochastic Expression of Clustered *Protocadherin* Genes, Generating Single Neuron Diversity

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MII oocytes. Based on molecular marker analysis and gene expression profiles, haploid ESCs cannot be distinguished from their diploid counterparts. Notably, they retain full developmental potential and give rise to germline-competent chimeras (Leeb et al., 2012). Haploid ESCs are prone to diploidization in culture but can be maintained by periodic flow cytometric purification. Mutagenesis of the haploid genome allows recessive phenotypes to be directly unmasked. Proof of principle has been shown by screens to identify mutations that confer resistance to toxic compounds (Elling et al., 2011; Leeb and Wutz, 2011). Therefore haploid ESCs could provide a powerful system for elucidating the genetic circuitry of mammalian developmental processes.

Suppression of differentiation is sufficient to allow ESC self-renewal. This can be achieved by application of two small molecules (2i) that block the inductive stimulus of fibroblast growth factor 4 (*Fgf4*)/mitogen activated protein kinase (MAPK)

signaling and partially inhibit glycogen synthase kinase-3 (GSK3) (Ring et al., 2008). 2i may capture ESCs in a “ground state” of self-renewal by insulating the core pluripotency transcription factor circuit (Nichols and Smith, 2012). Consistent with this idea, deficiency in components that promote collapse of the pluripotency network liberates self-renewal from a requirement for 2i (Betschinger et al., 2013; Wray et al., 2011).

Importantly, capacity for proliferation in 2i is rather specific for undifferentiated ESCs, and is lost early in differentiation (Betschinger et al., 2013). Thus, the ability to self-renew in 2i after a period of permissive culture provides a powerful means to identify and quantify delayed exit from the ground state. Here we combine this functional assay together with haploid ESC mutagenesis in a genetic screen for differentiation inducers.

RESULTS

A Haploid ESC Screen to Identify Genes that Promote Exit from Ground State Self-Renewal

To isolate and analyze mutant ESCs impeded in progression from self-renewal, we used a haploid reporter cell line (iRex1/GFP-d2) in which a destabilized version of *Gfp-d2* is expressed from the endogenous *Rex1* (*Zfp42*) locus (Wray et al., 2011). *Rex1* expression is tightly linked to naïve pluripotency and is rapidly lost at the onset of differentiation. Importantly, lack of *Rex1* is inconsequential for ESCs (Masui et al., 2008) and iRex1/GFP-d2 reporters ESCs lacking Rex1 protein contribute extensively to chimeras (Leeb et al., 2012). After withdrawal of 2i/LIF, GFP is substantially downregulated by 48 hr and <1% of cells remain positive by

suppression of diversified cell-surface proteins is important for specifying individual neuronal identity (Yagi, 2013). In mice, each olfactory sensory neuron expresses only one of more than 1,000 odorant receptor genes, which is selected by common enhancer elements and allelic exclusion and permits the precise recognition of their axonal targets (Buck and Axel, 1991; Chess et al., 1994; Senzawa et al., 2003). In *Drosophila*, a subset of cell-surface proteins, are stochastically expressed by alternative promoter choice and affect dendrite arborization in individual neurons. Here we found that the *Pcdh* promoters are differentially methylated by the de novo DNA methyltransferase *Dnmt3b* during early embryogenesis. To determine this methylation’s role in neurons, we produced chimeric mice from *Dnmt3b*-deficient induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs). Single-cell expression analysis revealed that individual *Dnmt3b*-deficient Purkinje cells expressed increased numbers of *Pcdh* isoforms; *in vivo*, they exhibited abnormal dendrite arborization. These results indicate that DNA methylation by *Dnmt3b* at early embryonic stages regulates the probability of expression for the stochastically expressed *Pcdh* isoforms. They also suggest a mechanism for a rare human recessive disease, the ICF (Immunodeficiency, Centromere instability, and Facial anomalies) syndrome, which is caused by *Dnmt3b* mutations.

INTRODUCTION

The mammalian brain contains enormous numbers of neurons that have distinct circuit specificities, and the stochastic expression of

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

PRDM14 promotes active DNA demethylation through the Ten-eleven translocation (TET)-mediated base excision repair pathway in embryonic stem cells

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ABSTRACT

Ten-eleven translocation (TET) proteins oxidize 5-methylcytosine (5mC) to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), 5fC and 5caC can be excised and repaired by the base excision repair (BER) pathway, implicating 5mC oxidation in active DNA demethylation. Genome-wide DNA methylation is erased in the transition from metastable states to the ground state of embryonic stem cells (ESCs) and in migrating primordial germ cells (PGCs), although some resistant regions become demethylated only in gonadal PGCs. Understanding the mechanisms underlying global hypomethylation in naïve ESCs and developing PGCs will be useful for realizing cellular pluripotency and totipotency. In this study, we found that PRDM14, the PR domain-containing transcriptional regulator, accelerates the TET1-BER cycle, resulting in the promotion of active DNA demethylation in ESCs, by reduction of 5hmC at pluripotency-associated genes, germline-specific genes and imprinted loci, but not across the entire genome, which resembles the second wave of DNA demethylation observed in gonadal PGCs. PRDM14 physically interacts with TET1 and TET2 at target loci. Knockdown of TET1 and TET2 impaired transcriptional regulation and DNA demethylation by PRDM14. The repression of the BER pathway by administration of pharmacological inhibitors of APE1 and PARP1 and the knockdown of thymine DNA glycosylase (TDG) also impaired DNA demethylation by PRDM14. Furthermore, DNA demethylation induced by PRDM14 takes place normally in the presence of apidoicin, which is an inhibitor of G1/S progression. Together, our analysis provides mechanistic insight into DNA demethylation in naïve pluripotent stem cells and developing PGCs.

KEY WORDS: DNA demethylation, Ten-eleven translocation (TET), Embryonic stem cells, Base excision repair (BER), Mouse

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OPEN

Maintenance of pluripotency in mouse ES cells without *Tsp53*

SUBJECT AREAS:

DIFFERENTIATION
SELF-RENEWAL
PLURIPOTENCY
EMBRYONIC STEM CELLS

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Tumor suppressor *Tsp53* works as a guardian of the genome in somatic cells. In mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells, it was reported that *Tsp53* represses pluripotency-associated transcription factor *Nanog* to induce differentiation. However, since *Tsp53* is dispensable for both the maintenance and differentiation of the pluripotent stem cell population *in vitro*, suggesting the differential functions of *Tsp53* in ES cells and embryos. To reveal the basis of this discrepancy, here we established a new line of *Tsp53*-null ES cells by sequential gene targeting and evaluated their ability to differentiate *in vitro* and *in vivo*. We found that *Tsp53*-null ES cells had defects in differentiation *in vitro* as reported previously, whereas they were able to contribute to normal development in chimeric embryos. These data indicated that the requirement of *Tsp53* for maintaining and executing the ES pluripotency is not absolute.

Maintenance of the genome integrity in cells is important for keeping homeostasis of multi-cellular organisms. Tumor suppressor *Tsp53* is one of the most important components to protect the genome from the oncogenic mutations. It controls cell-cycle arrest, apoptosis and stem cell differentiation by activating and repressing its downstream targets^{1,2}. *Tsp53* mainly acts as a transcription factor to activate and repress the target gene expressions. It is expressed ubiquitously in somatic cells and normally, its protein product *Tsp53* is in rapid turnover by active degradation mediated by the 26S ubiquitin ligase *Mdm2* or *Mdmx*. Induction of the DNA damage induces inactivation of *Mdm2* that results in accumulation of *Tsp53* and its nuclear localization. Nuclear localized *Tsp53* causes arrest of cell-cycle progression and apoptosis to eliminate the cells with damaged genome from the organisms³.

Mouse embryonic stem (ES) cells are pluripotent stem cells derived from the inner cell mass of the blastocyst-stage embryo^{4,5}. They continue self-renewal in the optimal culture condition *in vitro*, which commonly contain the cytokine leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) as a repressor of differentiation⁶. Even after a prolonged culture, their pluripotency is maintained as confirmed by injection of these ES cells into blastocyst that give rise to chimeric embryos in which ES cell-derived cells contribute to all germ layers including germ cells. It was reported that *Tsp53* functions in a unique mode in mouse ES cells⁷. *Tsp53* is expressed in mouse ES cells, localized in cytoplasm and degraded in a *Mdm2/Mdmx*-dependent manner as found in other somatic cell types^{8,9}. Induction of differentiation activates *Tsp53*, which represses the pluripotency-associated transcription factor *Nanog*, suggesting its function to drive differentiation program properly¹⁰. This process could be regulated by a *Tsp53* deacetylase Sir1 by controlling *Tsp53* subcellular localization¹¹ as well as by the expression of a specific isoform of *Tsp53*, delta40p53, in ES cells¹². Recently, Aurora kinase A was identified as a repressor of *Tsp53* by phosphorylating it directly, which could also be one of the mechanisms to maintain self-renewal by repressing the differentiation program induced by *Tsp53*¹³.

In contrast to these suggested functions of *Tsp53* in mouse ES cells, it was known that although *Tsp53* is activated by DNA damage in mouse ES cells, it has no ability to activate *Tsp53*-mediated DNA damage response such as cell-cycle arrest, apoptosis or senescence as found in somatic cells¹⁴. This might be due to the unique cell-cycle regulation in mouse ES cells lacking the check point in transition from G1 to S phase¹⁵. Moreover, *Tsp53*-null mice develop normally although they showed high incidence of tumor formation, indicating that the function of *Tsp53* is dispensable for self-renewal and differentiation of pluripotent stem cells transiently appeared in the developmental process¹⁶. Why does the requirement of *Tsp53* in differentiation of pluripotent stem cells look different between embryos and ES cells? The distinct role of the LIF signaling in ES cells and embryo has been well

Development

Context-Dependent Wiring of Sox2 Regulatory Networks for Self-Renewal of Embryonic and Trophoblast Stem Cells

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SUMMARY

Sox2 is a transcription factor required for the maintenance of pluripotency. It also plays an essential role in different types of multipotent stem cells, raising the possibility that Sox2 governs the common stemness phenotype. Here we show that Sox2 is a critical downstream target of fibroblast growth factor (FGF) signaling, which mediates self-renewal of trophoblast stem cells (TSCs). Sustained expression of Sox2 together with Esrrb or Tfa2c can replace FGF dependency. By comparing genome-wide bind-sites of Sox2 in embryonic stem cells (ESCs) and TSCs combined with inducible knockout systems, we found that, despite the common role in safeguarding the stem cell state, Sox2 regulates distinct sets of genes with unique functions in these two different yet developmentally related types of stem cells. Our findings provide insights into the functional versatility of transcription factors during embryogenesis, during which they can be recursively utilized in a variable manner within discrete network structures.

INTRODUCTION

The transcriptional output of a given cell type is controlled by unique combinations of transcription factors under the control

of extrinsic signals that can modulate the expression and activity of transcription factors, forming a gene regulatory network that dictates a specific cellular phenotype. Tissue-specific transcription factors play deterministic roles in cell-type specification, which is manifested as lineage reprogramming by forced expression of such transcription factors (Graf and Enver, 2009; Zhou and Melton, 2008). Sox2 is one such transcription factor required for the maintenance of pluripotent stem cells *in vivo* (Avilion et al., 2003) and *in vitro* (Masui et al., 2007) and for the induction of pluripotency (Takahashi and Yamamoto, 2006). However, it is also preferentially expressed in neural, retinal and trophoblast stem cells (TSCs) (Kwilton et al., 2003; Penny and Nicolis, 2010), suggesting a possible role for Sox2 in governing a common stemness phenotype.

In embryonic stem cells (ESCs), Sox2 forms a heterodimer with Oct3/4 (also known as Pou5f1) on DNA with the OCT-SOX composite motifs, and these factors cooperatively activate pluripotency-related target genes such as Nanog, Fgf4, Utf, Lefty1, and Foxo15, as well as their own expression (Nakatake et al., 2006, and references therein). Oct3/4-knockout ESCs are differentiated along the trophoblast lineage in a highly homogeneous manner (Niwa et al., 2000). In contrast, the loss of Sox2 causes differentiation of ESCs accompanied by upregulation of markers for trophoblast and embryonic germ layers, although artificial maintenance of Oct3/4 from the transgene can sustain self-renewal and pluripotency of Sox2-null ESCs (Masui et al., 2007), suggesting that the unique function of Sox2 may be to maintain Oct3/4 expression. These two core transcription factors, along with Nanog, form an interconnected and hierarchical network downstream of the leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF)-Stat3 and LIF-phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) signaling

METHODOLOGY ARTICLE

Open Access

Kinetics of drug selection systems in mouse embryonic stem cells

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Abstract

Background: Stable expression of transgenes is an important technique to analyze gene function. Various drug resistance genes, such as neo, β lac, hprt, zeo, bsd, and hisD, have been equally used as selection markers to isolate a transfectant without considering their dose-dependent characters.

Results: We quantitatively measured the variation of transgene expression levels in mouse embryonic stem (mES) cells, using a series of bi-cistronic expression cassette linked to each drug resistant gene via IRES with titration of the selective drugs, and found that the transgene expression levels achieved in each system with this vector design are in order, in which pac and zeo show sharp selection of transfectants with homogenously high expression levels. We also showed the importance of the choice of the drug selection system in gene-trap or gene targeting according to this order.

Conclusions: The results of the present study clearly demonstrated that an appropriate choice of the drug resistance gene(s) is critical for a proper design of the experimental strategy.

Keywords: Transgene, Expression, Marker, Gene targeting, Vector

Background

The introduction of exogenous transgene cassettes into culture cells to direct their expression is an important strategy in molecular biology to analyze the functions of the genes. However, a simple introduction of the DNA fragment into cells by either electroporation or lipofection results in its stable integration into the genome of the host cells only at a low frequency. Therefore, it is always required to select the cells carrying the integrated copies of the transgenes by using dominant selection markers. The markers that reflect the introduction of the transgenes into mammalian cells. Transfection of drug resistance genes together with transgenes, each in separate expression cassette, to obtain stable transfectants has been a commonly used method. However, in this strategy, the drug resistance does not always appropriately reflect the expression level of the transgene because generally the stable expression levels of exogenous expression cassettes are highly sensitive to their sites of integration, as a result of the local chromatin environment when the transgenes are randomly integrated into the host genome [7], which affect the expression levels of the drug resistance gene cassette and the transgene cassette separately.

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DNA Methylation Restricts Lineage-specific Functions of Transcription Factor Gata4 during Embryonic Stem Cell Differentiation

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Abstract

DNA methylation changes dynamically during development and is essential for embryogenesis in mammals. However, how DNA methylation affects developmental gene expression and cell differentiation remains elusive. During embryogenesis, many key transcription factors are used repeatedly, triggering different outcomes depending on the cell type and developmental stage. Here, we report that DNA methylation modulates transcription-factor output in the context of cell differentiation. Using a drug-inducible Gata4 system and a mouse embryonic stem (ES) cell model of mesoderm differentiation, we examined the cellular response to Gata4 in ES and mesoderm cells. The activation of Gata4 in ES cells is known to drive their differentiation to endoderm. We show that the differentiation of wild-type ES cells into mesoderm requires their Gata4-induced endoderm cells derived from ES cells that are deficient in the DNA methyltransferases Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b can retain their response to Gata4, allowing lineage conversion from mesoderm cells to endoderm. Transcriptome analysis of the cells' response to Gata4 over time revealed groups of endoderm and mesoderm developmental genes whose expression was induced by Gata4 only when DNA methylation was lost, suggesting that DNA methylation restricts the ability of these genes to respond to Gata4, rather than controlling their transcription per se. Gata4-binding-site profiles and DNA methylation analyses suggested that DNA methylation modulates functions as a heritable safeguard to prevent transcription factors from activating inappropriate downstream genes, thereby contributing to the restriction of the differentiation potential of somatic cells.

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Introduction

Development is based on a series of cell fate decisions and commitments. Transcription factors and epigenetic mechanisms coordinate regulate these processes [1,2]. Transcription factors play dominant roles in instructing lineage determination and cell reprogramming [3,4]. Transcription factor and co-factor networks regulate cell-specific gene programs, allowing a given transcription factor to be used repeatedly in different cellular and developmental contexts [5]. In addition, epigenetic mechanisms, which establish and maintain cell-specific chromatin states (or epigenomes) during differentiation and development [6], modulate the functions of transcription factors in cell-type-dependent manners [7,8]. Alterations of chromatin states can increase the efficiency of transcription factor-induced cell reprogramming [9,10]. However, how epigenetic mechanisms

and transcription factor networks coordinately regulate cell differentiation remains elusive.

DNA methylation at cytosine-guanine (CpG) sites is a heritable genome-marking mechanism for epigenetic regulation, modulating gene expression through chromatin regulation [13]. Genome-wide DNA methylation profiles have revealed that the methylated CpG in the mammalian genome is specifically distributed in a cell-type-dependent manner [14–16], and the methylated CpG sites are dynamically reprogrammed during embryogenesis and gastrulation [17–19]. The DNA methylation profile is established and maintained by three DNA methyltransferases (DNMTs), DNMT1, DNMT3a, and DNMT3b [20], together with DNA demethylating mechanisms [21]. DNMT is required for the maintenance of DNA methylation profiles, whereas Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b are required to establish them. The inactivation of Dnmt3a or both Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b in mice leads to early embryonic lethality, showing that

Transcription Factor Network in Embryonic Stem Cells: Heterogeneity under the Stringency

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Leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) signaling regulates transcription factors to maintain the self-renewability and pluripotency of embryonic stem (ES) cells. Recently, we have proposed a network model that consists of transcription factors such as Klf4, Sox2, Tbx3, Nanog, and Oct3/4, which form a parallel pathway downstream from LIF signaling (*Nature*, 460, 2009, Niwa *et al.*). In this parallel pathway, the transcription factors maintain the pluripotency of ES cells through mutual balance with some degree of redundancy and compensation. While self-renewability and pluripotency are maintained well under such seemingly stringent regulation, studies of single cells revealed heterogeneity among individual ES cells. This heterogeneity may underlie the mechanism that allows ES cells to exit self-renewal and enter into differentiation to exert pluripotency. Here we focus on recent studies on the heterogeneity of ES cells and discuss their inherent metastability.

Key words embryonic stem cell; transcription factor network; metastability

1. INTRODUCTION

During mouse development, pluripotency is established in the inner cell mass (ICM) of the blastocyst around embryonic day 3.0 (E3.0) (Fig. 1). Pluripotency is the capacity of an individual cell to give rise to all other cell types of the body and the germ line, which is an emergent property realized in the ICM. Pluripotency persists until the ICM develops into the primitive ectoderm (PeE) by E5.5 (Fig. 1). Embryonic stem (ES) cells are the cells captured from the ICM during this short time period (24 h *in vivo*), which continue to multiply while remaining pluripotent indefinitely under certain culture conditions.¹ The factor that maintains the cells in this “totipotency” state was identified² and determined to be identical to the cytokine, leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF).^{3,4,5} LIF signaling is mediated via the signaling molecule Stat3⁶ and regulates the pluripotency transcription factor Oct3/4 at a certain level, which apparently makes the population ‘homogeneous’ with indefinite self-renewability and pluripotency. Then

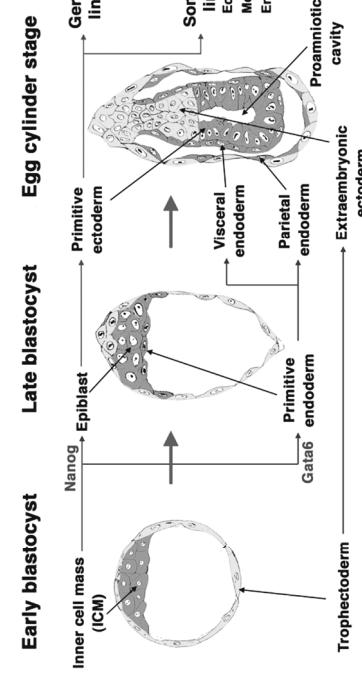


Fig. 1. Pluripotent Lineages in the Mouse Embryo. Modified from Niwa H. *Development*, 134, 635–646 (2007).

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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Molecular Signatures of the Three Stem Cell Lineages in *Hydra* and the Emergence of Stem Cell Function at the Base of Multicellularity

3926 RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Abstract

How distinct stem cell populations originate and whether there is a clear stem cell “genetic signature” remain poorly understood. Understanding the evolution of stem cells requires molecular profiling of stem cells in an animal at a basal phylogenetic position. In this study, using transgenic *Hydra* polyps, we reveal for each of the three stem cell populations a specific signature set of transcription factors and of genes playing key roles in cell type-specific function and interlineage communication. Our data show that principal functions of stem cell genes, such as maintenance of stemness and control of stem cell self-renewal and differentiation, arose very early in metazoan evolution. They are corroborating the view that stem cell types shared common, multifunctional ancestors, which achieved complexity through a stepwise segregation of function in daughter cells.

Key words: aging, adult stem cell, self-renewal, differentiation, evolution.

Introduction

The evolution of multicellular animals most likely started from a number of multifunctional cell types that existed in the metazoan ancestor (Arendt 2008; Arendt et al. 2009). To maintain tissue homeostasis and repair function, these ancestral cell types, which simultaneously carry out a number of different functions, must have had properties known from adult multipotent stem cells. The evolutionary origin of stem cells is unknown. Stem cells might have originated from flagellated cells at the surface of the body of the ur-metazoan (King 2004). Proliferative cells in sponges also have features that justify referring them as unipotent stem cells (Funayama 2010). Yet, the origins and mechanisms for establishing stem cell populations have been completely understood and a transgene technology is developed to a level that fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) of individually labeled cell lineages is possible. There is some evidence that cnidarians differ in their stem cell differentiation pathways (Hemmrich et al. 2007) but also possess most of the gene families found in bilaterians (Putman et al. 2007; Dunn et al. 2008; Philippe et al. 2009; Schierwater et al. 2009). They have retained many ancestral genes that have been lost in

Drosophila and *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Kortschak et al. 2003; Kusserow et al. 2005; Miller et al. 2005; Technau et al. 2005; Chapman et al. 2010). The genome of *Hydra magnipillata* has been sequenced and analyzed and is a major resource for understanding the molecular “toolbox” of the earliest common ancestors of metazoans (Chapman et al. 2010). Several cnidarians are used as model organisms in developmental biology, including *Nematostella* (Anthozoa), *Clyta* (Hydrozoa), *Hydractinia* (Hydrozoa), *Acropora* (Anthozoa), and *Hydra* (Hydrozoa). All of them have their own benefits and are informative for an understanding of bilaterian evolution and development (Technau and Steele 2011). *Hydra* is the only cnidarian where the cell lineages and the differentiation pathways have been completely understood and a transgene technology is developed to a level that fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) of individually labeled cell lineages is possible. There is some evidence that cnidarians are not only among the earliest-known phyletic lineages known to contain stem cells (fig. 1A) (Hemmrich et al. 2007) but also possess most of the gene families found in bilaterians (Putman et al. 2007; Dunn et al. 2008; Philippe et al. 2009; Schierwater et al. 2009). They have

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DEVELOPMENT AND STEM CELLS

Transcriptional regulatory networks in epiblast cells and during anterior neural plate development as modeled in epiblast stem cells

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SUMMARY

Somatic development initiates from the epiblast in post-implantation mammalian embryos. Recent establishment of epiblast stem cell (EpSC) lines has opened up new avenues of investigation of the mechanisms that regulate the epiblast state and initiate lineage-specific somatic development. Here, we investigated the role of cell-intrinsic core transcriptional regulation in the epiblast and during derivation of the anterior neural plate (ANP) using a mouse EpSC model. Cells that developed from EpSCs in one day in the absence of extrinsic signals were found to represent the ANP of \sim E7.5 embryos. We focused on transcription factors that are uniformly expressed in the E6.5 epiblast but in a localized fashion on or external to the ANP at E7.5, as these are likely to regulate the epiblast state and ANP development depending on their balance. Analyses of the effects of knockdown and overexpression of these factors in EpSCs on the levels of downstream transcription factors identified the following regulatory functions: cross-regulation among Zic, Otx2, Sox2 and Pou factors stabilizes the epiblastic state, Zic, Otx2 and Pou factors in combination repress mesodermal development, Zic and Sox2 factors repress endoderm development, and Otx2 represses posterior neural plate development. All of these factors variably activate genes responsible for neural plate development. The direct interaction of these factors with enhances of Otx2, Hes1 and Sox2 genes was demonstrated. Thus, a combination of regulatory processes that suppresses non-ANP lineages and promotes neural plate development determines the ANP.

KEY WORDS: Epiblast stem cells, Anterior neural plate, Zic factors, Pou factors, Otx2, Sox2

INTRODUCTION

The epiblast serves as the primordium of all somatic lineages in amniotes, where the earliest derivative is the anterior neural plate (ANP). Despite profound interest in the process by which somatic lineages are generated, cell-intrinsic and transcription factor-dependent regulatory mechanisms remain poorly understood, primarily because of the difficulty in accessing the epiblast in post-implantation mammalian embryos. The cell-extrinsic mechanisms that regulate the fate of the epiblast are better understood. It has been shown, for example, that Nodal antagonists secreted from the anterior visceral endoderm disrupt Nodal signaling, which otherwise stabilizes the epiblast state and elicits ANP development (Camus et al. 2006; Prea-Gonçalves et al. 2002).

The ANP and the posterior neural plate (PNP) are generated via different mechanisms. The ANP is derived directly from the epiblast (Iwafuchi-Doi et al. 2011), whereas the development of the PNP from the epiblast passes through an intermediate state of axial stem cells, which are common precursors for the PNP and

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E-Cadherin Promotes Incorporation of Mouse Epiblast Stem Cells into Normal Development

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Abstract

Mouse epiblast stem cells (mEpSCs) are pluripotent stem cells derived from epiblasts of postimplantation mouse embryos. Their pluripotency is distinct from that of mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) in several cell biological criteria. One of the distinctions is that mEpSCs contribute either not at all or at much lower efficiency to chimeric embryos after blastocyst injection compared to mESCs. However, here we showed that mEpSCs can be incorporated into normal development after blastocyst injection by forced expression of the E-cadherin gene for 2 days in culture. Using this strategy, mEpSCs gave rise to live-born chimeras from 5% of the manipulated blastocysts. There were no obvious signs of reprogramming of mEpSCs toward the mESC-like state during the 2 days after induction of the E-cadherin transgene, suggesting that mEpSCs possess latent ability to integrate into the normal developmental process as its original epiblasts.

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different affinities for ICM attachment rather than their biological potential. Orthotopic transplantation of mEpSCs would be an ideal way to evaluate their ability to contribute to normal development, but it is technically difficult due to the small size of the embryos *in utero* that makes them inaccessible for manipulation. An alternative is artificial enhancement of mEpSCs integration into the ICM after blastocyst injection. E-cadherin encoded by *Cadherin 1 (Cdfl)* is responsible for mediating homophilic adhesion of mESCs [8] and its level of expression is higher in mESCs than in mEpSCs [4,5]. Therefore, artificial upregulation of E-cadherin in mEpSCs may accelerate their attachment to the ICM after blastocyst injection and result in efficient generation of chimeric mice. Here, we tested this possibility and succeeded in generating mEpSC-derived chimeras in a reproducible manner.

Results

Establishment of mEpSCs with Inducible E-cadherin Transgene

To establish EpSCs in which E-cadherin can be overexpressed in an inducible manner, we introduced a tetracycline-inducible *E-cadherin* expression cassette and tetracycline-dependent activation expression vector into two different EpSC lines using the piggyBac transposon system [3]. We chose two parental EpSC lines—female mEpSCs reported by Tesar *et al.* [4], which is a standard and was designated as P1'mEpSCs in this manuscript, and female mEpSCs established in our laboratory from 129-Tgter/SyJ, designated hereafter as S0'mEpSCs. Use of female EpSCs allowed us to monitor the X-inactivation status, which is one of the markers for distinguishing between naïve and primed states [4,5].

Esrrb Is a Pivotal Target of the Gsk3/Tcf3 Axis Regulating Embryonic Stem Cell Self-Renewal

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SUMMARY

Inhibition of glycogen synthase kinase-3 (Gsk3) supports mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) by modulating Tcf3, but the critical targets downstream of Tcf3 are unclear. We analyzed the intersection between genome localization and transcriptome data sets to identify genes repressed by Tcf3. Among these, manipulations of Esrrb gave distinctive phenotypes in functional assays. Knockdown and knockout eliminated response to Gsk3 inhibition, causing extinction of pluripotency markers and loss of colony forming capability. Conversely, forced expression phenocopied Gsk3 inhibition or Tcf3 deletion by suppressing differentiation and sustaining self-renewal. Thus the nuclear receptor Esrrb is necessary and sufficient to mediate self-renewal downstream of Gsk3 inhibition. Leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF) regulates ESCs through Stat3, independently of Gsk3 inhibition. Consistent with parallel operation, ESCs in LIF accommodated Esrrb deletion and remained pluripotent. These findings highlight a key role for Esrrb in regulating the naïve pluripotent state and illustrate compensation among the core pluripotency factors.

INTRODUCTION

Pluripotent stem cells (PSCs) are defined by their ability to differentiate into the cell types of all three germ layers, *i.e.*, the ectoderm, mesoderm, and endoderm. To date, various types of PSCs, from different origin with distinct characters have been reported. It has been proposed that PSCs can be categorized into two major types, naïve and primed PSCs [1]. The naïve category includes mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) [2,3] and mouse embryonic germ cells, whereas the latter includes mouse epiblast stem cells (mEpSCs) [4,5] and human embryonic stem cells [6]. There are several criteria that distinguish naïve and primed PSCs. From the cell biological viewpoint, the most remarkable difference is the ability to contribute to chimeric embryos after blastocyst injection, which is only observed in naïve PSCs. mESCs can contribute to chimeric embryos and form embryos consisting of ES cells when injected into tetraploid blastocysts [7]. In contrast, mEpSCs barely contribute to chimeric embryos when injected into blastocysts, as Bruns *et al.* reported that only 2 chimeras were obtained from 385 injected blastocysts and no germline transmission was observed [5]. However, as mEpSCs are derived from epiblasts of the postimplantation embryos, they may retain the latent ability to contribute to embryonic development as they originally do *in vivo*. The blastocyst is the orthotopic location for mESCs, but an ectopic location for mEpSCs, which may explain why mEpSCs were unable to contribute to normal development by blastocyst injection. Indeed, Tesar *et al.* showed that mEpSCs formed a segregated clump in the blastocyst cavity after injection although mEpSCs attached to the inner cell mass (ICM) under the same conditions [4]. Therefore, the differences in ability of mESCs and mEpSCs to contribute to chimeras may be due to the

conditions (Ying *et al.*, 2008). When cultured using the two inhibitors (2i), ESCs display rather uniform marker expression (Wray *et al.*, 2010) and exhibit distinctive gene expression and epigenetic features (Marks *et al.*, 2012). A practical consequence is that it has become facile to establish ESCs from different strains of mice and also rats (Barlat *et al.*, 2011). It is noteworthy that while the triple combination of 2i/LIF appears optimal, mouse ESCs can be propagated by providing any two of these three components (Wray *et al.*, 2011; Wray *et al.*, 2010), implying complementary inputs to a flexible gene regulatory circuit. However, understanding how intracellular signaling pathways engage with the core transcription factor circuitry to maintain or extinguish pluripotency remains fragmentary (Chen *et al.*, 2008; Jaenisch and Young, 2008; Nichols and Smith, 2012; Niwa *et al.*, 2009).

Gsk3 is a negative regulator of many different proteins [10] (Doble and Woodgett, 2003), including transcription factors such as cMyo (Singh and Dalton, 2009). Nonetheless, the effect of Gsk3 inhibition ESC self-renewal is mediated primarily via β -catenin because ESCs lacking Gsk3 do not respond productively to Gsk3 inhibitors (Lyashenko *et al.*, 2011; Wray *et al.*, 2011). Consistent with action through intracellular β -catenin, mutation of Apc or expression of stabilized β -catenin variants can reduce ESC differentiation (Kleiman *et al.*, 2002; Saito *et al.*, 2004). Furthermore, Wnt1a can partially substitute for Gsk3 inhibition and support ESC propagation in conjunction with LIF (ten Berge *et al.*, 2011; Hao *et al.*, 2006; Ogawa *et al.*, 2006; Yi *et al.*, 2011). It has been suggested that β -catenin might interact directly with Oct4 to promote pluripotent gene expression (Kelly *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, genetic evidence is incontrovertible that a definitive β -catenin partner, Tcf3 (also known as Tcf7l1), is a major negative regulator of ESC self-renewal (Guo *et al.*, 2011; Pereira *et al.*, 2006). Indeed, ablation of Tcf3 phenocopies deletion or inhibition of Gsk3 (Wray *et al.*, 2011). Genome location analyses indicate that Tcf3 binds in proximity to many core pluripotency genes (Cole *et al.*, 2008; Marson *et al.*, 2008; Tam *et al.*, 2008). Although it has been proposed that β -catenin is recruited to stimulate transcription at these sites (Cole *et al.*, 2008), this model seems inconsistent with the Tcf3 loss of function phenotype. Furthermore, available evidence indicates that further addition of an inhibitor of glycogen synthase kinase-3 (Gsk3) has enabled robust ESC propagation in well-defined

Role of DNA Methylation in the Regulation of Lipogenic Glycerol-3-Phosphate Acyltransferase 1 Gene Expression in the Mouse Neonatal Liver

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Abstract DNA cytosine methylation (5mC) is indispensable for a number of cellular processes, including retrotransposon silencing, genomic imprinting, and X chromosome inactivation in mammalian development. Recent studies have focused on 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), a new epigenetic mark or intermediate in the DNA demethylation pathway. However, 5hmC itself has no role in pluripotency maintenance in mouse embryonic stem cells (ESCs) lacking *Dnmt1*, *3a*, and *3b*. Here, we demonstrated that 5hmC accumulated on euchromatic chromosomal bands that were marked with di- and trimethylated histone H3 at lysine 4 (H3K4me2/3) in mouse ESCs. By contrast, heterochromatin enriched with H3K9me3, including mouse chromosomal G-bands, pericentric repeats, human satellite 2 and 3, and inactive X chromosomes, was not enriched with 5hmC. Therefore, enzymes that hydroxylate the methyl group of 5mC belonging to the Tet family might be excluded from inactive chromatin, which may restrict 5mC to 5hmC conversion in euchromatin to prevent nonselective de novo DNA methylation.

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Keywords DNA methylation · Embryonic stem cells · Tet enzymes · 5-Hydroxymethylation

Abbreviations

- 5hmC 5-Hydroxymethylcytosine
5mC DNA cytosine methylation
Dnmt DNA methyltransferase
ESCs Embryonic stem cells
iPSCs Induced pluripotent stem cells
MBD Methyl-binding domain
PGCs Primordial germ cells
PN Pronucleus
Tet Tet (Tene-eleven translocation)
methylcytosine dioxygenase

The liver is a major organ of lipid metabolism, which is markedly changed in response to physiological nutritional demand; however, the regulation of hepatic lipogenic gene expression in early life is largely unknown. In this study, we show that expression of glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase 1 (*Gpat1*; *Gpat*), a rate-limiting enzyme of triglyceride biosynthesis, is regulated in the mouse liver by DNA methylation, an epigenetic modification involved in the regulation of a diverse range of biological processes in mammals. In the neonatal liver, DNA methylation of the *Gpat* promoter, which is likely to be induced by Dnmt3b, inhibited recruitment of the lipogenic transcription factor sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1c (SREBP-1c), which is a transcription factor and master regulator of lipogenesis. Indeed, other promoter regions contain the SREBP-1c responsive elements (SREBs) (6–8). Aberrant lipogenic gene regulation can contribute to fatty liver, which is associated with obesity, type 2 diabetes, and insulin resistance (9). However, the molecular mechanism involved in the regulation of lipogenic genes during early life remains largely unclear.

The methylation of cytosine residues in DNA is a major epigenetic modification, and its role is well studied in organism development and cell differentiation (10–12). In most instances, DNA methylation of the promoter regions causes suppression of gene expression (13). In mammals, three CpG DNA methyltransferases (Dnmt1, Dnmt3a, and Dnmt3b)—coordinately regulate DNA methylation in the genome. Dnmt1 promotes DNA methylation after DNA replication and plays a major role in the maintenance of DNA methylation (14). Dnmt3a and Dnmt3b are required for the initiation of de novo DNA methylation (10).

DNA methylation may be affected by environmental factors, thereby regulating a variety of metabolic processes and diseases (15–18). Although the fetal and neonatal periods, which are highly plastic to environmental changes, should be under the epigenetic control, the role of DNA methylation in early life has not fully been addressed. This study is the first demonstration that the *Gpat* promoter and its mRNA expression are inversely correlated during mouse liver maturation. This study highlights the role of DNA methylation in the regulation of lipogenic genes, thereby providing new insight into the molecular mechanism underlying epigenetic regulation of metabolic diseases.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Animals and the experiment with high-fat/high-sucrose diet-fed dams. Pregnant female C57BL/6 mice were obtained from Japan SLC (Hamamatsu, Japan). The mice were fed ad libitum a standard rodent chow, CRF1 (Charles River, Japan, Tokyo, Japan). Offspring at the indicated ages were used for tissue analysis.

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Chromosome-wide regulation of euchromatin-specific 5mC to 5hmC conversion in mouse ES cells and female human somatic cells