

# Genetic Control of Hypothalamo-Pituitary Axis Development and Function in Mice

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*For my parents,*

*Jan and Dorota Szarek*

“Glands rarely become ill, but when they do,  
they give their disease to the rest of the body”

Hippocrates, *Glands*, circa 500 B.C.

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# A NOTE ON NOMENCLATURE

Relevant nomenclature guidelines were taken into account when referring to genes and gene products throughout this thesis. To unambiguously refer to mouse (*Mus musculus*) genes and gene products, and to distinguish these from mammalian nomenclature, the following conventions were adhered to. Mouse gene names are italicized and in lower case, whereas gene products are non-italicized and the first letter is capitalized. Human gene names are italicized and all capitalized, whereas proteins are non-italicized and all capitalized. In addition, reference may be given to *Drosophila* genes and gene products. To differentiate these from mouse and/or human genes and gene products *Drosophila* genes are italicized and the protein are non-italicized and in lower case. Additionally, when referring to both the gene and protein, the protein name is given.

Species	Gene (abbreviation)	Protein (abbreviation)
Mouse	<i>Sox3</i>	Sox3 or mSox3
Human	SOX3	SOX3 or hSOX3
<i>Drosophila</i>	<i>sox3</i>	sox3

With reference to the Sox3 knock-out, transgenic and reporter mice, these will be referred within this thesis as follows:

Mouse Line	Nomenclature within thesis
<i>Sox3</i> -null	<i>Sox3</i> -null
Sox3-transgenic ( <i>Sox3</i> <sup>iRES-eGFP</sup> )	Extra-Sox3
Sox3-GFP reporter	Green-Sox3

With reference to the novel dwarf mouse line described herein, we have given this mouse line the name Tukkuburko. The name is the Kurna Aboriginal word referring to “small mouse”. The Kurna Indigenous people are the custodians of the greater Adelaide region and their cultural and heritage beliefs are still important to the living Kurna people today.

# ABSTRACT

Congenital dysfunction of the hypothalamic-pituitary (HP) axis occurs in approximately one birth per 2,200 and is associated with a broad range of common disease states including impaired growth (short stature), infertility, hypogonadism poor responses to stress and slow metabolism (Pescovitz and Eugster, 2004). Although, a number of genes have been linked to diseases of the HP axis, the genetic cause in many patients remains unknown.

This thesis examines two aspects of HP axis development and function. The first aim was to identify *Sox3* targets by examining gene expression differences between three mouse lines: *Sox3*-null (mice lacking *Sox3*; loss of function), Extra-*Sox3* (mice over-expressing *Sox3*; gain of function) and wild-type, by genome wide profiling using the Illumina BeadChip microarray platform. The second aim was to characterize the downstream effects relative to HP development in a novel recessive dwarf mouse model with pituitary hypoplasia and growth hormone (GH) deficiency, generated by N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU) mutagenesis that produces a point mutation in the gene for the enzyme tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (WARS).

The first project (*project 1*) examined *Sox3*, the causative gene associated with X-linked hypopituitarism (XH), in wild-type and transgenic mice. SOX3 is a member of the SOX (SRY-related HMG box) gene family of transcription factors that is expressed in progenitor cells of the mouse embryonic central nervous system (CNS) including the developing and postnatal hypothalamus (Rizzoti et al., 2004). It is the only member of the SOXB1 subfamily positioned on the X chromosome (Collignon et al., 1996; Stevanovic, 2003). Appropriate dose- and time-dependent expression of *Sox3* in the developing hypothalamus is required for normal neuroendocrine function, particularly related to growth and growth hormone (GH). Changes associated with a loss-of-function and/or gain-of-function of *Sox3* may contribute to a better understanding of other important genes, currently not known, involved in XH and/or X-linked mental retardation. At this point, however, the mechanisms linking SOX3 to its direct targets and their interplay within other downstream signaling cascades regulating HP axis development remain unknown. In order to identify *Sox3*-dependent genes, in mice, I performed microarray analysis of RNA extracted from embryonic mouse heads at 10.5 days post coitum (dpc) and compared RNA from wild-type, loss-of-function (*Sox3*-null) and gain-of-function (Extra-*Sox3*) mice. Several emergent candidate genes were further tested by quantitative mRNA expression analysis (qPCR). One of these was Neurogenin-3 (Ngn3), which showed a 2.5-

fold decrease ( $P < 0.001$ ) in expression by microarray in *Sox3*-null ( $n=6$ ), compared with wild-type (WT;  $n=6$ ) mice and 1.8-fold decrease ( $P < 0.001$ ) by qPCR between *Sox3*-null ( $n=6$ ) and WT ( $n=6$ ) mice. To evaluate the relationship between Ngn3 and Sox3 at a cellular level immunohistochemistry was performed on 10.5 dpc and 12.5 dpc brains. In WT mice at 10.5 dpc and 12.5 dpc Ngn3 and Sox3 expression overlapped in a subset of cells across the ventral-midline of the developing hypothalamus. In addition and in contrast to WT mice, in *Sox3*-null mice, there were few Ngn3 positive cells, localized to the arcuate hypothalamic nucleus. Neurogenin-3 (Ngn3) is a member of the Neurogenin gene family of proneural basic helix-loop-helix proteins. Although previous data show the importance of Ngn3 during pancreatic development, there is no information on the mechanisms and actions of Ngn3 or a relationship between NGN3 action and SOX3 during hypothalamic development. These results suggest Ngn3 is a downstream target of *Sox3* that is contributing to appropriate development of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis.

The second study (*project 2*) aimed to characterize and further examine a novel recessive ENU mouse mutant, called Tukku<sup>1</sup>, exhibiting HP axis dysfunction resulting in dwarfism, pituitary hypoplasia and GH deficiency. Adult Tukku mice are 30-40% smaller than their WT littermates. The primary focus was to characterize the dwarfism phenotype in relation to the somatotrophic axis and to identify the causative gene. The mutation was identified as a leucine to proline substitution in tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (WARS), a member of the aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (AARS) enzyme family that link amino acids to their specific tRNAs. For proper function of this enzyme the specific recognition of substrates is critical for the fidelity of protein synthesis. The *Wars* mutation is contained within the N-terminal WHEP domain, from residue 16-69, and likely causes the disruption of the alpha helical structure. The N-terminal WHEP domain has only been found in eukaryote Wars enzyme. Importantly, AARS have been linked to regulating the noncanonical activity of angiogenesis (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi, 2010; Wakasugi and Schimmel, 1999; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). Along with pituitary hypoplasia, Tukku mice show a significant reduction in pituitary GH and serum levels of IGF-1, suggesting the defect leading to pituitary hypoplasia involves brain regions implicated in growth of the anterior pituitary. The reduction in pituitary GH levels may also involve delivery of GH-releasing hormone (GHRH) to GH-secreting cells since preliminary data also indicate that WARS is expressed within blood vessels of the pituitary and hypothalamus. To assess this, quantitative mRNA expression analysis (qPCR) of GHRH and somatostatin (*Sst*) was

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<sup>1</sup> *Tukku*, meaning 'small' in Kurna Aboriginal language.

performed. qPCR revealed a decrease in both GHRH and Sst (fold change >2) indicating that the defect is likely to be within the hypothalamic hypophysial vasculature that extends and makes a connection with the pituitary. To evaluate the relationship between Wars and pituitary vasculature, immunohistochemistry was performed on pituitaries at 8-weeks postnatal. Pituitary sections were co-stained with antibodies against platelet endothelial cell adhesion molecule (PECAM) + Wars or vascular-endothelial cadherin (VE-Cadherin; an endothelial specific, transmembrane protein, which clusters at adheren junctions where it promotes homotypic cell-cell adhesion) + Wars. Wars immunostaining was expressed within the endothelial cells of the pituitary vasculature, both in the anterior and posterior pituitary. Both PECAM and Wars appeared co-expressed within the vascular wall. VE-Cadherin was expressed in vessels together with Wars.

Overall, the data gathered from these projects highlight important insights into the identification of *Ngn3* as a likely *Sox3* target gene (*project 1*) and have identified a novel dwarf mouse model with a genetic determinant of HP axis function (*project 2*). These results have application to the study of HP axis development, to the study of vascular development during embryology and postnatally, and to possible avenues of genetic screen testing and development of new treatments related to GH deficiencies.



# STATEMENT OF CONTRIBUTION BY OTHERS TO THIS WORK

Ms Sandra Piltz contributed to routine technical assistance in the maintenance of mouse colonies as well as purification of genomic DNA and genotyping by PCR.

Mr Dale McAninch contributed to the validation of genes identified by microarray (Chapter 3. Identification of *Sox3* Target Genes, p.105). This work formed part of his honors thesis in 2008.

Dr Stuart Reed, Dr Chris Goodnow and the team from The Australian Phenomics Centre (Canberra, ACT, Australia) the dwarf mouse line generated and identified the mutated gene by sequencing used in Project 2 (Chapter 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis, p.151).

Ms Carlie Delaine, Ms Siti Hadzir and Dr Briony Forbes contributed to the analysis of pituitary growth hormone and serum IGF-1 levels (Figure 4-5, p.162).

Ms Nadia Gagliardi performed paraffin embedding of tissues, sectioning and histological staining of mouse ovaries and testis (Figure 4-17, p.188) and brains (using Cresyl violet stain; Figure 4-3, p.158).

Ms Chin Ng contributed to the analysis of the dwarf mouse line by generating murine Wars constructs for analysis of angiostatic activity in cell culture (Figure 4-14, p.181). Ms Chin Ng also performed western blotting of mouse brain, pituitary and kidney samples (Figure 4-12, p.178). This work formed part of her honors thesis in 2010 (Ng, 2010).

A/Prof Paul Thomas and Prof Jeffrey Schwartz provided critical reading and proofing of the thesis manuscript.

Eva Szarek was responsible for the remainder of the work.

# DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

This work contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other tertiary institution to Eva Szarek and, to the best of my knowledge and belief, contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference has been made in the text.

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\* Szarek, E., Cheah, P. S., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P., 2010. Molecular genetics of the developing neuroendocrine hypothalamus. *Mol Cell Endocrinol.* 323, 115-23

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# ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

3'UTR	3' untranslated region	FCS	fetal calf serum
ACTH	Adrenocorticotropic hormone	FSC	forward scatter
ADH	antidiuretic hormone (same as AVP)	FSH	Follicle Stimulating Hormone
AGRF	Australian Genome Research Facility	G1	First Generation
AH	anterior hypothalamus	gDNA	genomic DNA
ARC	arcuate nucleus	GFP	green fluorescent protein
AVP	arginine vasopressin (same as ADH)	GFP+	GFP-positive
BAC	Bacterial Artificial Chromosome	GH	Growth hormone
BCIP	5-Bromo-4-Chloro-3-Indolyl phosphate	GHRH	Growth-hormone-releasing hormone
BM	basement membrane	GHRHR	growth hormone-releasing hormone receptor
BMP	bone morphogenic protein	h	hour
bp	base pair	H <sub>2</sub> O	water
BSA	bovine serum albumin	HEPES	N-[2-hydroxyethyl]-piperazin-N'-[2-ethansulfonic acid]
C-terminal	carboxyterminal	HISS	heat-inactivated horse serum
cAMP	cyclic adenosine mono phosphate	HMG	high mobility group
cDNA	complimentary deoxyribonucleic acid	HP	hypothalamo-pituitary
CH	congenital hypopituitarism	IGF	insulin-like growth factor
ChIP	chromatin immunoprecipitation	IGHD	isolated growth hormone deficiency
CNS	Central nervous system	IP	immunoprecipitation
CoIP	co-immunoprecipitation	IPTG	isopropylthiogalactosid
DEPC	diethylpyrocarbonate	IRES	internal ribosome entry site
DIG	digoxigenin	kb	kilobase pair = 1000bp
DMEM	Dubelcco's Modified Eagle Medium	kDa	Kilo Dalton
DMN	dorsal-medial nucleus	KO	Knockout
DMSO	dimethylsulfoxide	LH	Luteinizing hormone
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid	M	Molar
dpc	days post coitum	m	mouse
E	Embryonic day	MAPK	mitogen-activated protein kinase
E. coli	Escherichia coli	ME	median eminence
ECM	extracellular matrix	min	minute
EDTA	ethylene diaminetetra acetic acid	ml	millilitre
EGF	epidermal growth factor	mM	millimolar
eGFP	enhanced green fluorescent protein	MQ-H <sub>2</sub> O	milliQ H <sub>2</sub> O
EGTA	ethyleneglycolbis-(2-aminoethyl)-tetraacetic acid	mRNA	messenger ribonucleic acid
ENU	N-ethyl-N-nitrosurea	mRNA	messenger RNA
FACS	fluorescence activated cell sorting		

NBT	4-nitroblue tetrazolium chloride	SSC	Salt Sodium Citrate
N-terminal	aminoterminal	Sst	somatostatin
ng	nanograms	TE	Tris-EDTA
NGN/Ngn	neurogenin	tg	transgenic
NGN3/Ngn3	neurogenin-3	TGF $\beta$	transforming growth factor-beta
nM	nanomolar	TRH	Thyrotropin-releasing hormone
ORF	Open reading frame	TRIS	Tris-(hydroxymethyl)-aminomethan
OT	oxytocin	TrpRS	tryptophan-tRNA synthetase (see also WARS)
P	postnatal day	TSH	Thyroid-stimulating hormone
PAGE	polyacrylamide-gel electrophoresis	U	units
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline	UTR	untranslated region
PCR	Polymerase Chain Reaction	VEGF	vascular endothelial growth factor
PDGF	platelet-derived growth factor	VMN	Ventro-medial nucleus;
PFA	paraformaldehyde	WARS	see also TrpRS
PI	propidium Iodide	WT	wild-type
PKA	protein kinase A	XH	X-linked hypopituitarism
PKC	protein kinase C	zf	zebrafish
POA	preoptic area;	$\mu$ g	microgram
POMC	Pro-opiomelanocortin	$\mu$ M	micromolar
PVN	paraventricular nucleus;		
qPCR	quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction		
qRT-PCR	quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction		
r	rat		
RE	restriction enzyme		
RIN	RNA integrity number		
RNA	ribonucleic acid		
rpm	revolutions per minute		
rRNA	ribosomal RNA		
RT	reverse transcription		
rt	room temperature		
RT-PCR	reverse transcriptase-polymerase chain reaction		
SCN	supra-chiasmatic nucleus;		
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulfate		
SHH	sonic hedgehog		
SOCM	Sox consensus motif		
SON	supra-optic nucleus;		
SOX	Sry-related HMG box containing		

## PUBLICATIONS

First author publications arising from the work presented within this thesis. A copy of this publication can be found in the Publications section of this thesis.

**Szarek, E.,** Cheah, P. S., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P., 2010. Molecular genetics of the developing neuroendocrine hypothalamus. *Mol Cell Endocrinol.* 323, 115-23.

## CONFERENCE PRECEEDINGS

The results described in this thesis have been presented as seminar communications at the following conferences:

**Szarek, E.,** Read, S., Forbes, B., Delaine, C., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P. A novel ENU mutation, WARS, causes dwarfism in mice. *Gold Coast Health and Medical Research Conference, Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia.* December 2<sup>nd</sup>-3<sup>rd</sup> 2010

**Szarek, E.,** Read, S., Forbes, B., Delaine, C., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P. A Novel ENU mutation, WARS, causes dwarfism in mice. *Program in Developmental Endocrinology and Genetics (PDEGEN) Research Conference, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA.* July 9<sup>th</sup> 2010.

**Szarek, E.,** Read, S., Forbes, B., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P. Identification of the sequence responsible for and further phenotypic characterization of a novel dwarf mouse produced by ENU-induced mutagenesis. *Gold Coast Health and Medical Research Conference, Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia.* December 3<sup>rd</sup> – 4<sup>th</sup> 2009.

**Szarek, E.,** Lovell-Badge, R., Schwartz, J., Thomas, P.Q. Expression of NGN3 in the developing hypothalamus: dependence on and co-localization with SOX3 in the mouse model of altered pituitary function. *ENDO2009, Washington DC, USA.* June 10<sup>th</sup> – 13<sup>th</sup> 2009.

# 1 Introduction

## I. MOLECULAR GENETICS OF THE HYPOTHALAMIC-PITUITARY AXIS

The developmental programs that guide the formation of the mammalian endocrine and neuroendocrine organs involve complex regulatory networks, resulting in highly specialized cells capable of secreting a diverse set of peptide hormones. Cell-specific peptide hormone expression has proven to be an essential molecular tool in delineating temporal as well as spatial gene regulatory pathways that govern the development of the hypothalamic-pituitary (HP) axis.

This chapter focuses on providing an introduction to the molecular regulation of mammalian pituitary and hypothalamic development and function. Specifically, focusing on the importance of the transcription factors Sox3 during HP axis development, hypothalamic control of growth hormone secretion and angiogenesis. It is important to note that, although the development of the hypothalamus and pituitary is a highly interdependent process, the pituitary develops *in tandem* with the specific hypothalamic nuclei that ultimately regulate homeostatic responses in the mature organism.

### A. Vertebrate Hypothalamic Development

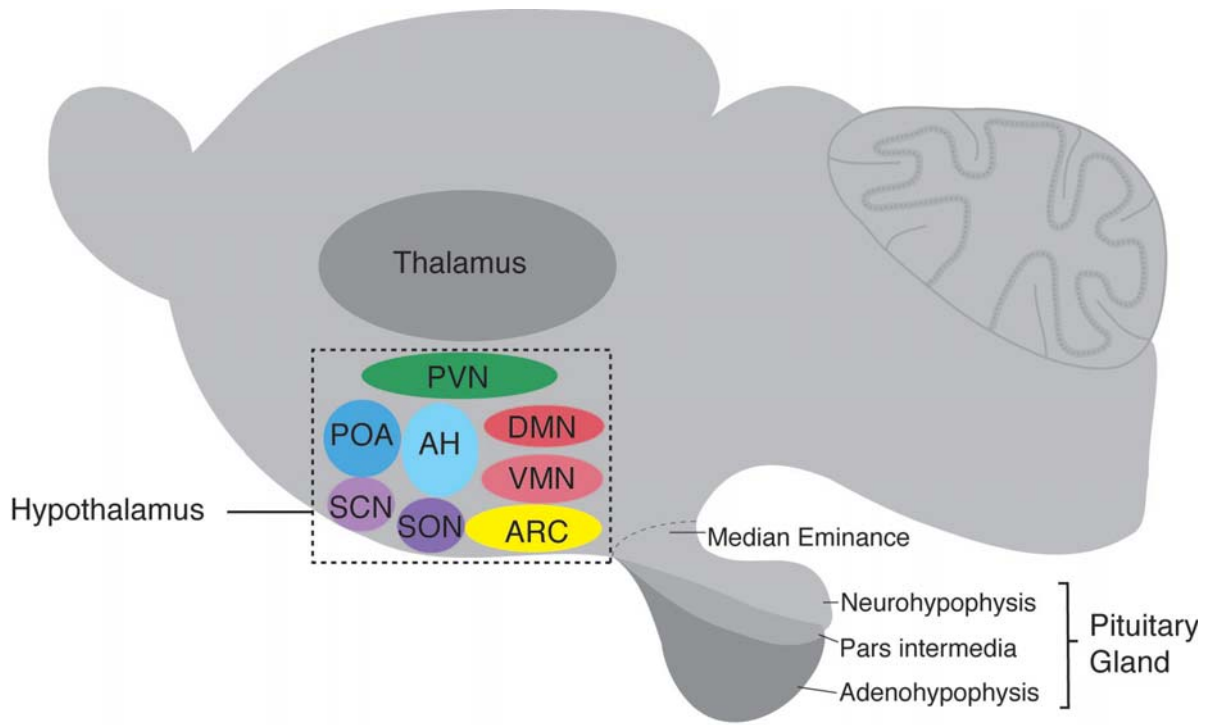
The following sections provide a brief overview of the structure, function and the development of the hypothalamus and formed the introduction of a published review

article (Szarek et al., 2010); a copy of the review article may be found in the Publications section of this thesis.

### 1. *Structure and function of the hypothalamus*

The vertebrate hypothalamus is located ventral to the thalamus and dorsal to the pituitary gland at the mediobasal region of the central nervous system (CNS). It extends from the optic chiasm (located anteriorly) to the mammillary body (located posteriorly) and is organized into four distinct rostral-to-caudal regions: preoptic, anterior, tuberal, and mammillary. It is also divided into three medial-to-lateral areas: periventricular, medial and lateral. The periventricular hypothalamus contains four distinct cell clusters: the paraventricular nucleus (PVN), arcuate nucleus (ARC), suprachiasmatic nucleus (SCN), and the periventricular nucleus (PeVN; Figure 1-1, p.25). The medial hypothalamic zone is comprised of the medial preoptic nucleus, the anterior hypothalamus (AH), the dorsomedial nucleus, the ventromedial nucleus (VMN) and the mammillary nuclei. The lateral hypothalamus consists of the preoptic area (POA) and hypothalamic area. Throughout the hypothalamus are hypothalamic neurosecretory cells divided into two populations: the parvicellular and magnocellular neurosecretory systems. The former consists of neurons controlling the release of specific anterior pituitary neurohormones into the hypophysial system: thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH; located within the medial part of the medial parvicellular subdivision of the PVN), corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH; located within the lateral part of the medial parvicellular subdivision of the PVN), growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH; located within the lateral part of the ARC), somatostatin (Sst; located within the PeVN), gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH; located within the medial POA), dopamine (DA; located within the medial part of the ARC and detected by the enzymatic activity of tyrosine hydroxylase (TH)) and, the recently discovered gonadotropin-inhibiting hormone (GnIH; located within the dorsomedial nuclei in rodents; Figure 1-1, p.25). The magnocellular neurosecretory system consists of neuronal cells secreting the hormones, vasopressin (AVP) and oxytocin (OT) from axons that project directly into the posterior pituitary (neurohypophysis) and release the peptides systemically in response to various homeostatic cues (osmotic, cardiovascular and reproductive). For in-depth information and discussion on the magnocellular neurosecretory system please refer to (Caqueret et al., 2006).





**Figure 1-1 Illustration of the organization of the hypothalamic nuclei in the mouse brain**

Lateral view of the organization of the hypothalamic nuclei. The hypothalamus is organized into distinct zones containing tight clusters of cell bodies. B. Representation of the neuroendocrine hypophysiotropic factors and their neuronal projections through the median eminence (ME) and into the adenohypophysis (anterior pituitary). PVN: paraventricular nucleus; POA: preoptic area; AH: anterior hypothalamus; SCN: supra-chiasmatic nucleus; SON: supra-optic nucleus; DMN: dorsal-medial nucleus; VMN: Ventro-medial nucleus; ARC: arcuate nucleus. Figure adapted from and appears in (Szarek et al., 2010).

## 2. Development of the hypothalamus

The hypothalamus develops from the ventral region of the diencephalon (Figdor and Stern, 1993) and, in the mouse, its primordium is morphologically evident from approximately 9.5 days post coitum (dpc; where 0.5 dpc is defined as noon of the day on which a copulation plug is present). Developmental studies performed in mice, chick and zebrafish indicate that sonic hedgehog (SHH) signaling plays an important role in the induction and early patterning of the hypothalamus (Manning et al., 2006; Mathieu et al., 2002; Szabo et al., 2009). Secretion of SHH from the murine axial mesendoderm, from 7.5 dpc, is essential for correct patterning of the anterior midline neuroaxis. In humans as well as in mice, mutations in the SHH/Shh gene (and several other components of this pathway) exhibit holoprosencephaly due to a failure of hypothalamic anlagen induction and optic field separation (Chiang et al., 1996; Schell-Apacik et al., 2003). Increased SHH activity leads to ectopic expression of hypothalamic markers in zebrafish, suggesting that SHH signaling has an instructive, rather than a permissive, role in shaping the

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hypothalamus (Barth and Wilson, 1995; Hauptmann and Gerster, 1996; Rohr et al., 2001). Studies in chick embryos have shown that once the hypothalamic primordium is established, down-regulation of Shh is critical for the progression of ventral cells into proliferating hypothalamic progenitors, at least within the ventral tubero-mammillary (Manning et al., 2006). In addition, Shh down-regulation is mediated, to some extent, by local production of Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMPs), which belong to the transforming growth factor-beta (TGF $\beta$ ) super-family of signaling proteins (Manning et al., 2006). This antagonism between SHH (ventral gradient morphogen) and BMP (dorsal gradient morphogen) in the hypothalamus is reminiscent of their opposing actions in dorsal-ventral patterning of the neural tube. However, this incorporates a temporal aspect (SHH early - BMP late) that appears necessary for establishing region-specific transcriptional profiles (Ohyama et al., 2008; Patten and Placzek, 2002). Although axial secretion of another member of the TGF $\beta$  super-family, NODAL, is also necessary for hypothalamic induction, the early lethality of Nodal mutants has precluded detailed assessment of its role in hypothalamic development in mice (Brennan et al., 2001; Conlon et al., 1994; Varlet et al., 1997). Genetic studies in zebrafish have shown that the Wnt signaling pathway is required for specification of the hypothalamic anlagen, its regionalization and neurogenesis (Kapsimali et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2006). Together, these studies have shown that hypothalamic induction and pattern formation depends on the activities of major protein signaling pathways involved in patterning, regional identity and cell fate determination.

For an in-depth and comprehensive review of the development of the hypothalamus and the important signaling and transcription factors please refer to the review located in the Publications section of this thesis (Szarek et al., 2010).

### **B. Vertebrate Pituitary Development**

The pituitary gland (or hypophysis) is a central endocrine organ that regulates basic physiological functions, including growth, stress response, reproduction, metabolic homeostasis, and lactation. Distinct hormone-producing cells located within the anterior pituitary (or adenohypophysis) arise by extrinsic and intrinsic mechanisms from a common ectodermal primordium during development. Pituitary gland development has been studied extensively in the mouse. Although relatively little is known about human pituitary development, it seems that it mirrors that in rodents (Sheng et al., 1997). The purpose of this section is to provide an introduction to the integrated signaling and transcriptional events that affect precursor proliferation, cell lineage commitment, terminal differentiation and physiological regulation by hypothalamic tropic and pituitary factors.

1. *Structure and function of the pituitary*

The pituitary gland, located beneath the hypothalamus in the sella turcica, is composed of two anatomically and functionally distinct entities: (1) the adenohypophysis, derived from the oral ectoderm, and consists of the anterior lobe (or pars distalis), the intermediate lobe (or pars intermedia), and the pars tuberalis, a structure associated with the pituitary stalk; and (2) the neurohypophysis (or posterior lobe), of neural origin and is embryologically and anatomically continuous with the hypothalamus, consists of the posterior lobe (or pars nervosa) (Figure 1-2 A, p.28). As the primary site of endocrine action, the anterior pituitary contains at least five distinct cell types characterized by the six different hormones produced and secreted (Figure 1-2 B, p.28). Corticotropes, secrete adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), a proteolytic product of pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC), which regulates metabolic function and the stress response through stimulation of glucocorticoid synthesis by inducing adrenal gland growth and activity. Thyrotropes, secrete thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) which regulate metabolism. Somatotropes, secrete growth hormone (GH) which regulate growth. Lactotropes, secrete prolactin (PRL) which regulate lactation. Gonadotropes secrete luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) which regulate sexual development and function. Intermediate lobe melanotropes, release  $\alpha$ -melanocyte-stimulating hormone ( $\alpha$ MSH), a product of the POMC gene. The adult human pituitary cell population, as determined by immunohistochemical techniques, consists of 50% of somatotropes, 10–25% lactotropes, 15–20% corticotropes, 10–15% gonadotropes, and 3–5% thyrotropes (Table 1-1, p.30) (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001). The anterior and intermediate lobes of the pituitary also contain non-hormone-secreting glial-like folliculostellate cells that act as functional units of a dynamically active cell network wiring the entire pituitary gland (Fauquier et al., 2002). In humans, the intermediate lobe is rudimentary and greatly reduced in structure and function. Both GH and PRL are composed of a single polypeptide, whereas TSH, LH and FSH are heterodimeric glycoprotein hormones, composed of a common  $\alpha$ -subunit ( $\alpha$ GSU) and distinct hormone-specific  $\beta$ -subunit (TSH $\beta$ , LH $\beta$ , FSH $\beta$ ) that confers specificity and bioactivity. The production and secretion of these respective hormones is under the control of hypothalamic stimuli. A vascular link, consisting of long portal vessels, allows for efficient transport of hypothalamic neurosecretory hormones from the median eminence (located at the base of the hypothalamus) to the anterior/intermediate pituitary gland. In contrast, the posterior lobe *does not* contain endocrine cells, but axons of the magnocellular neurons, from the hypothalamus project directly here and approximately 100,000 axons form the hypophysial nerve tract (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001). These axons *release* (in response to electrical excitation) two major peptide hormones, AVP and OT. AVP and OT

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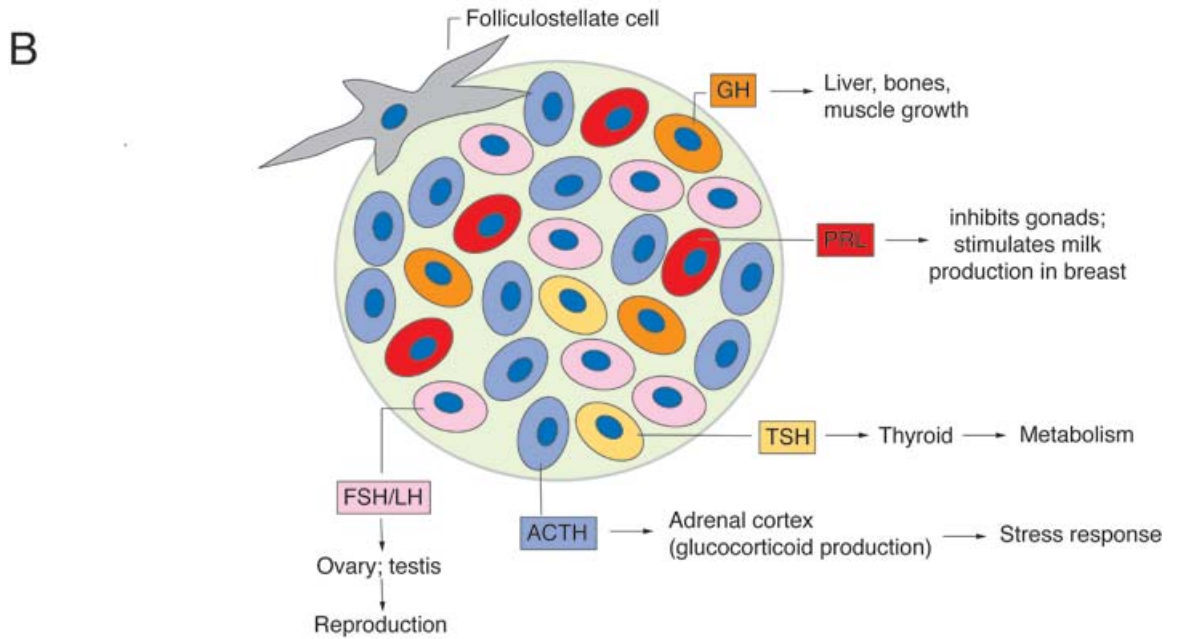
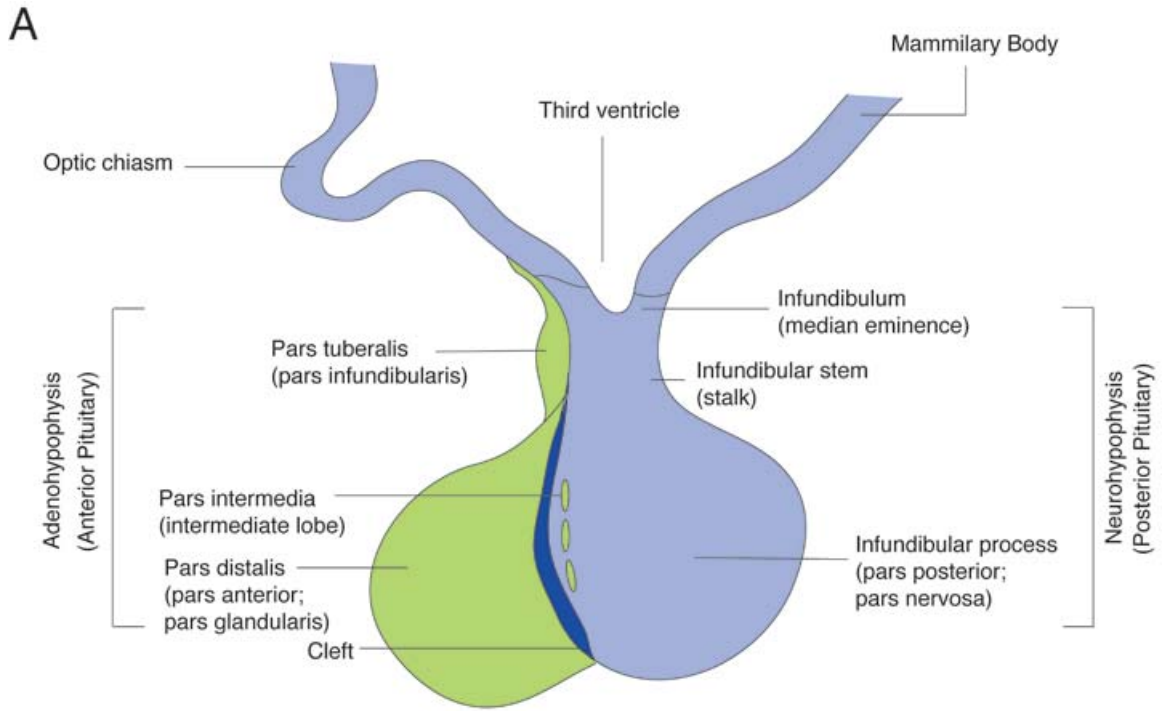
regulate blood volume homeostasis and reproductive function, respectively. Surrounding the nerve terminals are modified astrocyte cells known as pituicytes, that appear to have an important role in the local control of hormone release (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001).

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### Figure 1-2 Schematic representation of the structure of the pituitary

(A) The normal pituitary is bean-shaped and has multiple components. (1) The neurohypophysis (posterior lobe) is an extension of the hypothalamus that descends into the sella turcica (saddle-shaped depression in the sphenoid bone at the base of the skull). Nerve terminals located here secrete hormones that are produced in the cell bodies of hypothalamic ganglion cells of the infundibulum and are supported by pituicytes (glial cells). (2) The adenohypophysis (anterior pituitary), derived from the oral ectoderm and ascends as Rathke's pouch during development, is composed of hormone-secreting epithelial cells, known as adenohypophysial cells. These cells lose contact with the oral ectoderm where the bone of the sella forms; this region is known as the anterior lobe (*pars distalis*). (3) The intermediate lobe (*pars intermedia*) is composed of epithelial cells from the posterior limb of Rathke's pouch and is well developed in most mammals, but only rudimentary in humans. The cell population here is melanotropes. (4) The *pars tuberalis*, a small rim of the adenohypophysis around the pituitary stalk, contains mostly gonadotropes. (B) The adenohypophysis is composed of six cell types each making hormones supported in acini by folliculostellate cells. Corticotropes (blue) make adrenocorticotropin (also known as adrenal corticotropic hormone (ACTH)), which stimulates the production of glucocorticoid by the adrenal cortex of the adrenal gland (located on top of the kidney). Somatotropes (orange) synthesize growth hormone (GH), which regulates bone and muscle growth and helps maintain lean body mass in adults. Lactotropes (red) produce prolactin (PRL), which acts to inhibit gonadal function and stimulates the production of breast milk during and after pregnancy. Mammosomatotrope (not shown), bihormonal cells that synthesize GH and PRL, represent a fluid cell population that differentiates into somatotropes and into lactotropes during growth phases and pregnancy, respectively. Thyrotropes (yellow) synthesize thyrotropin (or thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH)), which stimulates production of thyroid hormone from the thyroid gland. Gonadotropes (light pink) produce follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH) and luteinizing hormone (LH), which regulate germ-cell development and sex steroid hormone production in the gonads (ovary in the female; testis in the male).

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**Table 1-1 Hormone secretions of the anterior lobe of the pituitary gland and their control**

TSH, thyroid stimulating hormone; ACTH, adrenocorticotropin hormone; LH, luteinizing hormone; FSH, follicle stimulating hormone; GH, growth hormone. <sup>1</sup>Basophils - stain with basic dyes; <sup>2</sup>Acidophils - stain with acidic dyes; (+), stimulatory; (-), inhibitory. Adapted from (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001)

Pituitary Cell type	Hormone	% Pituitary cell population	Hypothalamic hormone	Predominant hypothalamic nucleus of synthesis
Thyrotrope <sup>1</sup>	TSH	3-5%	TRH (+) Somatostatin (-)	Paraventricular, anterior periventricular
Corticotrope <sup>1</sup>	ACTH	15-20%	CRH (+)	Paraventricular, supraoptic
Gonadotrope <sup>1</sup>	LH FSH	10-15%	GnRH (+)	Arcuate
Somatotrope <sup>2</sup>	GH	40-50%	GHRH (+) Somatostatin (-)	Arcuate, anterior periventricular
Lactotrope <sup>2</sup>	Prolactin	10-25%	Dopamine (-) TRH (+)	Arcuate, paraventricular, unknown

## 2. Development of the pituitary

The development of the pituitary gland, a composite organ of dual origin in vertebrates, is a complex process involving the coordinated spatial and temporal expression of transcription factors and signaling molecules. Given the fact that all distinct hormone-producing pituitary cells arise from a common ectodermal primordium, the patterning, architecture and plasticity is remarkable. During organogenesis the anterior/intermediate and posterior lobes have distinct embryologic origins. However, in the mature organ these structures are fused together despite performing different functions independently of each other. The posterior lobe, of neuroectoderm origin, originates from the base of the diencephalon as an extension of the infundibulum (Figure 1-3, p.32) (Kaufman, 1992). The anterior and intermediate lobes arise from an invagination of the roof of the primitive oral cavity known as Rathke's pouch (Kaufman, 1992). In humans, Rathke's pouch is observed as a distinct structure by the fourth week of gestation (approximately embryonic day (E) 9 and E11 in mouse and rat development, respectively) (Dubois et al., 1997; Dubois and Elamraoui, 1995; Ikeda et al., 1988). Through intense differentiation and proliferation (refer to Section 11.B.3 Early patterning of the pituitary, p.31), Rathke's pouch gives rise to the anterior pituitary and the five phenotypically distinct pituitary cells (Asa et al., 1988). Experiments examining the fate mapping of the origin of the anterior pituitary cells in mice have demonstrated that the hypophysial or pituitary placode, one of the six cranial placodes that develops transiently as localized ectodermal thickenings in the prospective head of the developing embryo, appears at 8.0 dpc. The pituitary placode is located ventrally in the midline of the anterior neural ridge

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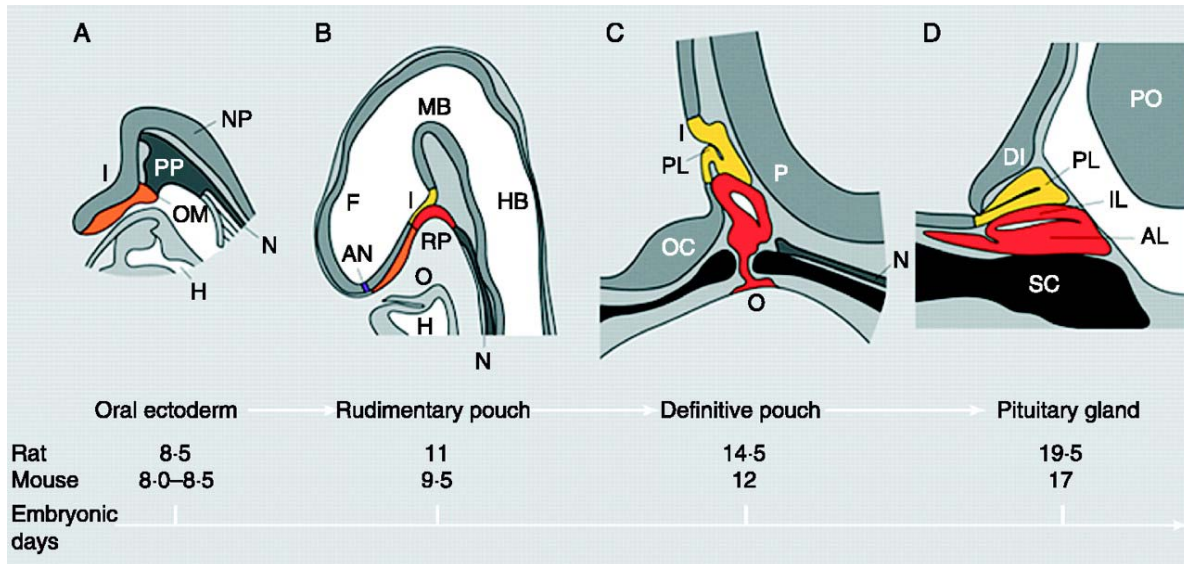
and is continuous with the future hypothalamo-infundibular region, located posteriorly in the rostral region of the neural plate. By 8.5 dpc the neural tube has curved at the cephalic end and the placode appears as a thickening of the roof of the primitive oral cavity. From 9.0 dpc the placode invaginates dorsally to form a rudimentary Rathke's pouch, from which the anterior and intermediate lobes of the pituitary are derived. Development of Rathke's pouch begins with the formation of the 'rudimentary' pouch (Figure 1-3 A and B, p.32). The rudimentary pouch moves in the caudal direction where it becomes encased by proliferating mesodermal tissue, thus providing a clear separation of the 'definitive' pouch from the oral membrane (Figure 1-3 C). The definitive pouch pinches off from the stomodeum at 10.5 dpc. In humans this occurs at seven weeks gestation whereby at 13 weeks gestation the pituitary is morphologically distinct (Ikeda et al., 1988). The evagination of the neural ectoderm at the base of the developing diencephalon will give rise to the posterior pituitary. The dorsal side of Rathke's pouch becomes the intermediate lobe, whereas the anterior lobe results from the proliferation and differentiation of cells located on the ventral side (Figure 1-3 D). Between 10.5-12.0 dpc the pouch epithelium continues to proliferate as it closes and separates from the underlying oral ectoderm at 12.5 dpc. Subsequently, the progenitors of the hormone-secreting cell types proliferate ventrally from the pouch between 12.5-15.5 dpc to populate what will form the anterior pituitary lobe. The remnants of the dorsal portion of the pouch will form the intermediate lobe, whilst the lumen of the pouch remains as the pituitary cleft, separating the intermediate from the anterior lobe (Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2005; Scully and Rosenfeld, 2002). Within the developing anterior pituitary, gonadotropes form in the ventral region, thyrotropes within the central region, whereas somatotropes and lactotropes, both derived from a common precursor, are found populating the dorsal region (Dasen and Rosenfeld, 1999; Kioussi et al., 1999). Corticotropes, located on the dorsal anterior lobe side, are also found loosely scattered within the anterior lobe rostral tip (Dasen et al., 1999; Kioussi et al., 1999). In mice, an early and transient thyrotrope population is located in the rostral region of the developing anterior lobe (Lin et al., 1994). The order in which differentiating anterior pituitary cell types arise during pituitary organogenesis is similar in most mammals (Dasen and Rosenfeld, 2001; Lin et al., 1994; Rhodes et al., 1994).

### 3. *Early patterning of the pituitary*

A brief summary of the signaling molecules and transcription factors implicated in mammalian pituitary development and their interactions in orchestrating the differentiation of Rathke's pouch into various cell types of the anterior and intermediate pituitary lobes follows. The ontogeny of signaling molecules and selected transcriptional

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factors during mouse pituitary organogenesis are shown in Figure 1-4 (p.35). The signaling pathways and transcription factors critical for pituitary and hypothalamic development and function are listed in Table 1-2 (p.36). For an extensive review on the early steps in pituitary development please refer to the excellent review by Sheng and Westphal (Sheng and Westphal, 1999) and Zhu et al (Zhu et al., 2007b).



**Figure 1-3 Schematic representation of the stages of pituitary development in rat and mice**

Midsagittal or parasagittal section drawings of the rat embryos illustrating pituitary development. The corresponding stages in mouse and rat development are indicated. (A) The growth of the preinfundibular portion of the neural plate and the establishment of the presumptive Rathke's pouch area. (B) The formation of a rudimentary pouch. Note the absence of mesoderm between the pouch and the floor of the diencephalon. (C) The formation of a definitive pouch and the posterior lobe. Note the invasion of neural crest and mesenchymal tissue, and the separation of the brain and oral cavities. (D) A nascent pituitary gland. Abbreviations: I, infundibulum; NP, neural plate; N, notochord; PP, pituitary placode; OM, oral membrane; H, heart; F, forebrain; MB, midbrain; HB, hindbrain; RP, Rathke's pouch; AN, anterior neural pore; O, oral cavity; PL, posterior lobe; OC, optic chiasm; P, pontine flexure; PO, pons; IL, intermediate lobe; AL, anterior lobe; DI, diencephalon; SC, sphenoid cartilage. Adapted from (Schwind, 1928; Sheng and Westphal, 1999).

### a. Signaling molecules

The patterning of the anterior pituitary primordium is directed by complex signals emanating both from the ventral diencephalon/infundibulum and from Rathke's pouch. The essential signals for Rathke's pouch development and for the timely and spatially organized process of pituitary cell type appearance are the same factors involved in patterning many other organs, namely, members of the growth factor/morphogens including Shh, FGF, BMP, Notch, and the Wnt families (Dasen and Rosenfeld, 1999). The role of epidermal growth factor (EGF) signaling in pituitary development, while important in somatotrope and lactotrope cell lineage development, is much less documented (Zhu et al., 2007b). Although the expression of the various signaling molecules varies, the essential



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signaling molecules are expressed within the infundibulum, whereas others are located in the mesenchyme surrounding the pituitary, such as *Tgfb1* (or Transforming growth factor, beta-induced) which stimulates vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) production by folliculostellate pituitary cells (Renner et al., 2002) and some in the pouch itself (Brinkmeier et al., 2009). Thus, the regulation of pituitary development by signaling molecules is complex.

The maintenance of a balance of signaling pathways is necessary for normal pituitary growth and morphology. The most critical signaling molecules for pituitary development are NOGGIN (Davis and Camper, 2007), which is an antagonist of BMP signaling, transcription factor 7-like 2 (TCF7L2; T-cell specific, HMG-box) (Brinkmeier et al., 2003), a protein acting as a transcription factor that influences canonical<sup>2</sup> WNT signaling; and WNT5A, typically acting in the non-canonical pathway (Cha et al., 2004; Potok et al., 2008). Mutations in any of these signaling molecules can alter the development of Rathke's pouch and subsequently affect downstream signals involved in pituitary development. For example, an excess of BMP signaling in *noggin* mutant mice is associated with a reduction in the expression of fibroblast growth factor-10 (*Fgf10*), alteration in the SHH signaling domain, and results in Rathke's pouch containing multiple invaginations (Davis and Camper, 2007). Mice deficient in the *Tcf7l2* exhibit expansion of the *Fgf10* and *Bmp* signaling domains, and exhibit an abnormally large Rathke's pouch and oversized anterior lobe (Brinkmeier et al., 2007). Additionally, mice deficient in *Wnt5a* show expanded *Fgf* and *Bmp* signaling domains, with a dysmorphic Rathke's pouch but not markedly oversized (Potok et al., 2008). These examples highlight the disruption that can occur to one signaling pathway and signify the pleiotropic effects on other signaling pathways. This is a common theme of pituitary development.

Signaling molecules play an important role in the influence of spatial patterns of pituitary transcription factor expression, which subsequently leads to the emergence of the specialized hormone-producing pituitary cells. There is compelling evidence suggesting that alterations in signaling pathways affects the morphology and size of the organ more so than cell specification (Brinkmeier et al., 2007; Cha et al., 2004; Davis and Camper, 2007). For example, mouse mutants of *noggin*, *Wnt5a*, and *Tcf7l2* are each able to generate the 5 major hormone-producing cells of the anterior lobe despite variations in size and shape of the organ. The effects of various genetic lesions on pituitary growth and shape has been reviewed by (Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2005).

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<sup>2</sup> In general the term canonical conform to orthodox or recognized rules whereas non-canonical does not behave according to the rules.

## 1. Introduction

The development of the hypothalamus and pituitary is a highly independent process. However, signaling events between them generate transcriptional cascades that provide distinct hormone-secreting profiles of differentiated pituitary cell types.

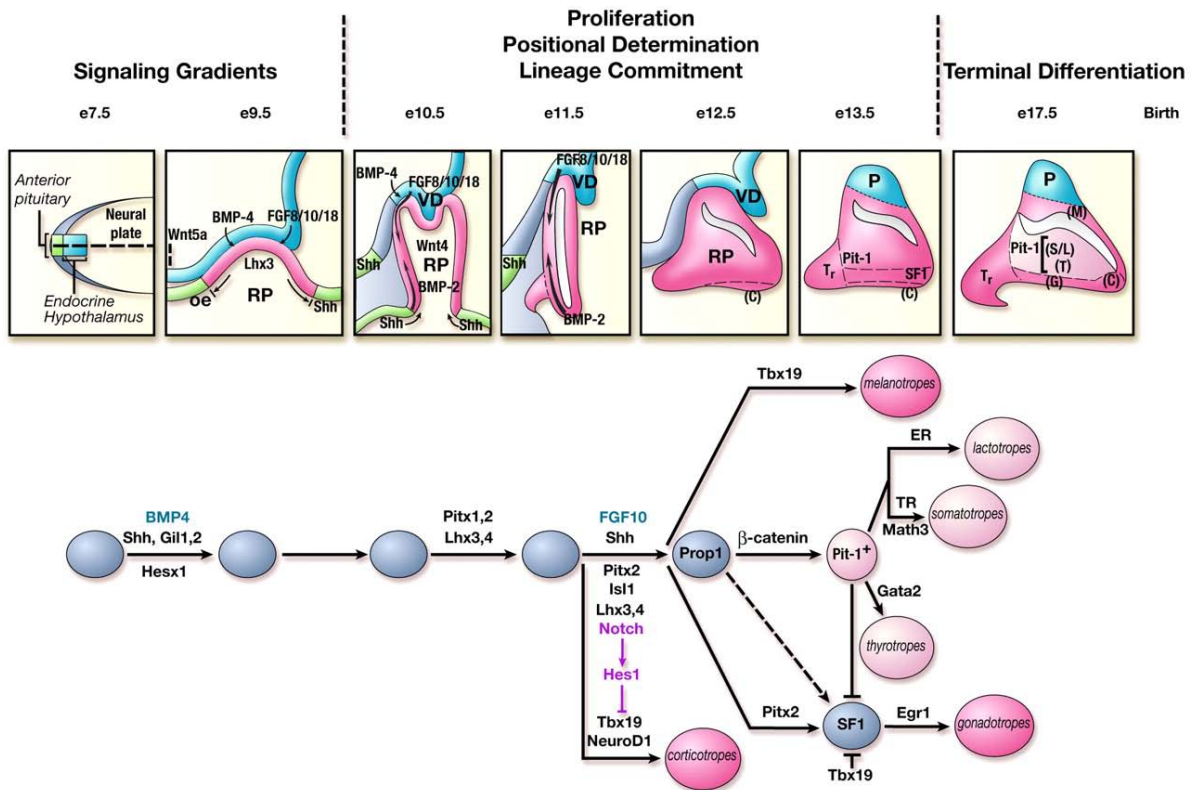
### *b. Transcription factors*

Numerous transcription factors play important roles during pituitary development and hormone production. Early-acting genes are not pituitary specific, and mutations in these genes cause defects in craniofacial development or other structures. For example, some of the homeobox genes have overlapping functions and multiple roles during ontogeny and include *Pitx1* and *Pitx2*, *Lhx3* and *Lhx4* (Charles et al., 2005; Ellsworth et al., 2008; Gage et al., 1999; Sheng et al., 1997). Mutations in some of these genes result in apoptosis and/or reduced cell proliferation, ultimately resulting in pituitary hypoplasia (Charles et al., 2008; Charles et al., 2005; Suh et al., 2002). Furthermore, genes downstream of some of the above-mentioned genes, such as *Nr5a1*, *Pitx2*, and *Gata2* (all downstream of *Pitx2*) are able to result in tissue-specific disruption in mice (Zhao et al., 2001a, b). Specifically, *GATA2*, which is expressed in the pituitary during development and in adult gonadotropes and thyrotropes, plays an important role during gonadotrope and thyrotrope cell fate and TSH production (Charles et al., 2006). Mice with a pituitary-specific knockout of *Gata2* have reduced secretion of gonadotropins basally and compromised thyrotrope function (Charles et al., 2006).

Homeodomain transcription factors are another important class that play critical roles during pituitary development. Specifically, *Prophet of Pit1* (or *Prop1*) and *Pou1f1* (also known as *Pit1*) are examples. *Prop1* is important for thyrotrope, somatotrope, lactotrope and gonadotrope development. Whereas, *Pou1f1* is required for thyrotrope, somatotrope, and lactotrope development. Mutations in the human ortholog of *Prop1* are the most common known causes of multiple pituitary hormone deficiency in humans (Cogan et al., 1998; Kelberman and Dattani, 2009; Mody et al., 2002; Wu et al., 1998). In mice, mutations of *Prop1* and *Pou1f1* show dramatic differences on fetal and neonatal pituitary development. *Prop1* mutants have poor pituitary vascularization and dysmorphology likely resulting, in part, from the failure of progenitors to migrate away from the proliferative zone and undergo differentiation (Ward et al., 2005). *Prop1* is required for normal N-Cadherin (*Cdh2*) expression, and changes in expression have been typically associated with epithelial to mesenchymal transition. Thus, the defect seen in *Prop1* mutants may result from failure to undergo epithelial to mesenchymal transition (Kikuchi et al., 2006; Kikuchi et al., 2007). On the contrary, mutations in mouse *Pou1f1* do not reveal

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any obvious defects in pituitary vascularization or morphology, although the gland in hypoplastic.



**Figure 1-4 Ontogeny of signaling molecules and selected transcriptional factors during mouse pituitary organogenesis**

The most anterior neural ridge gives rise to primordium of the anterior and intermediate lobes of the pituitary. The adjacent neural plate develops into endocrine hypothalamus and the posterior lobe of the pituitary gland. Ventral diencephalon, which expresses BMP4, FGF8/10/18, and Wnt5, makes direct contact with oral ectoderm and induces the formation of Rathke's pouch. Shh is expressed throughout the oral ectoderm except in the Rathke's pouch, creating a boundary between two ectodermal domains of Shh-expressing and -non-expressing cells. The opposing dorsal BMP4/FGF and ventral BMP2/Shh gradients convey proliferative and positional cues by regulating combinatorial patterns of transcription factor gene expression. *Pit1* is induced at e13.5 in the caudomedial region of the pituitary gland, which ultimately gives rise to somatotropes (S), lactotropes (L), and thyrotropes (T). Rostral tip thyrotropes (Tr) are *Pit1* independent. Corticotropes (C) and gonadotropes (G) are differentiated in the most ventral part of the gland. The dorsal region of the Rathke's pouch becomes the intermediate lobe, containing melanotropes (M). The infundibulum grows downward and eventually becomes the posterior lobe (P). A number of transcription factors and cofactors regulating the lineage commitment and terminal differentiation of distinct cell types are illustrated in a genetic pathway. Adapted from (Scully and Rosenfeld, 2002; Zhu et al., 2007a).

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**Table 1-2 Signal pathways and transcription factors critical for pituitary and hypothalamic development and function**

Hyp, hypothalamus; VD, ventral diencephalon; RP, Rathke's pouch; Tg, transgenic; KO, knockout; DKO, double knockout. Adapted from (Zhu et al., 2007a). For references to the individual genes please refer to (Zhu et al., 2007a).

NOTE:

This table is included on pages 36-37 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

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## C. The Hypothalamo-Pituitary Axis

### 1. *Anatomical and functional connections*

The pituitary gland (composed of the anterior and posterior lobes) is positioned below the brain in a midline pocket, or fossa, of the sphenoid bone, known as the sella turcica (Figure 1-5, p.39). The pituitary, whilst located outside the blood-brain barrier, maintains the anatomical and functional connections with the brain. The posterior lobe is embryologically and anatomically continuous with the hypothalamus, located in the basal part of the forebrain surrounding the third ventricle. Anatomically, the vertebrate hypothalamus is situated directly above the pituitary and consists of two distinct neuronal populations: the magnocellular and parvocellular neurons (Figure 1-6, p.40). The neuronal populations were described in Section 1I Molecular Genetics of the Hypothalamic-Pituitary Axis (p.23).

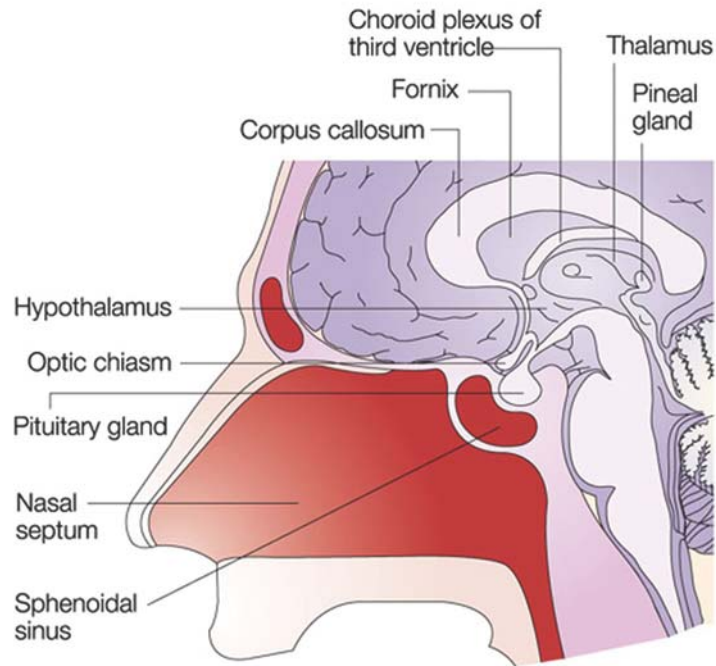
It is important to note that the HP axis consists of numerous vessels that help to define the relationship between these two structures. The blood supply of the hypothalamus and pituitary is discussed in the preceding section (refer to Section 1I.C.2 Blood supply of the hypothalamo-pituitary axis, p.38).

### 2. *Blood supply of the hypothalamo-pituitary axis*

The blood supply to the HP axis is complex but defines the functional relationship between the hypothalamus and anterior pituitary. Any interruption to the blood supply will impair hypothalamic control of anterior pituitary secretions. The hypothalamus receives its blood supply from the Circle of Willis (a circle of arteries supplying blood to the brain) whilst the anterior and posterior pituitary lobes receive arterial blood from the inferior and superior hypophysial arteries, respectively (Figure 1-7, p.41 and in Appendices Figure A 1, p.230). The capillary plexus of the inferior hypophysial artery drains into the dural sinus although some of these capillaries in the neural stalk form 'short' portal veins that drain into the anterior pituitary gland (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001). This constitutes only a small fraction of the circulation of the anterior lobe, which is one of the most extensively vascularized mammalian tissues. The major portion of the circulation arises from the 'long' portal veins that are formed from the capillary network of the superior hypophysial arteries; these provide blood to the nerve endings of the neurosecretory cells in the median eminence. Thus, hypothalamic releasing and inhibiting hormones are released into these hypophysial portal veins, through which they are transported to the endocrine cells of the anterior pituitary. It is here that these portal veins form a secondary capillary network into which anterior pituitary hormones are secreted. The capillaries in

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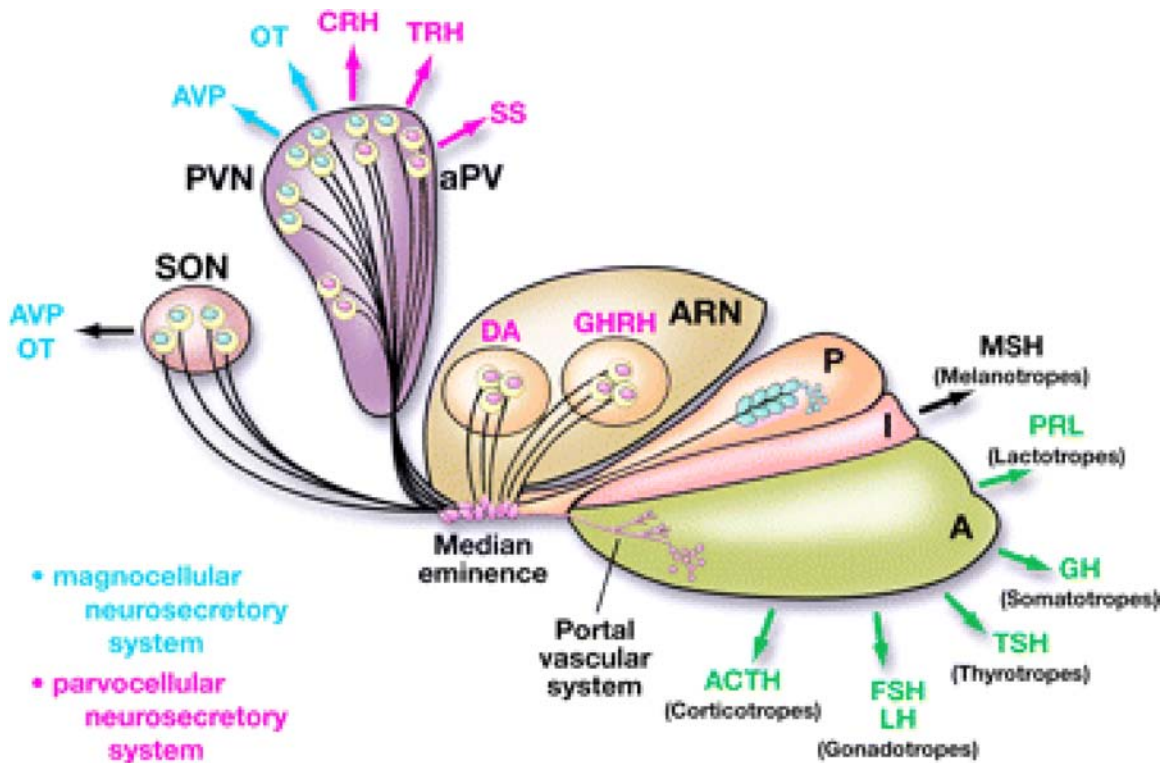
the hypophysial portal system are fenestrated and thereby improve hormone delivery to the adenohypophysial cells. The venous channels from the anterior pituitary gland drain into the cavernous sinuses whereby they turn into the superior and inferior petrosal sinuses and into the jugular vein (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001).



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### Figure 1-5 Anatomical location of the hypothalamus and pituitary in humans

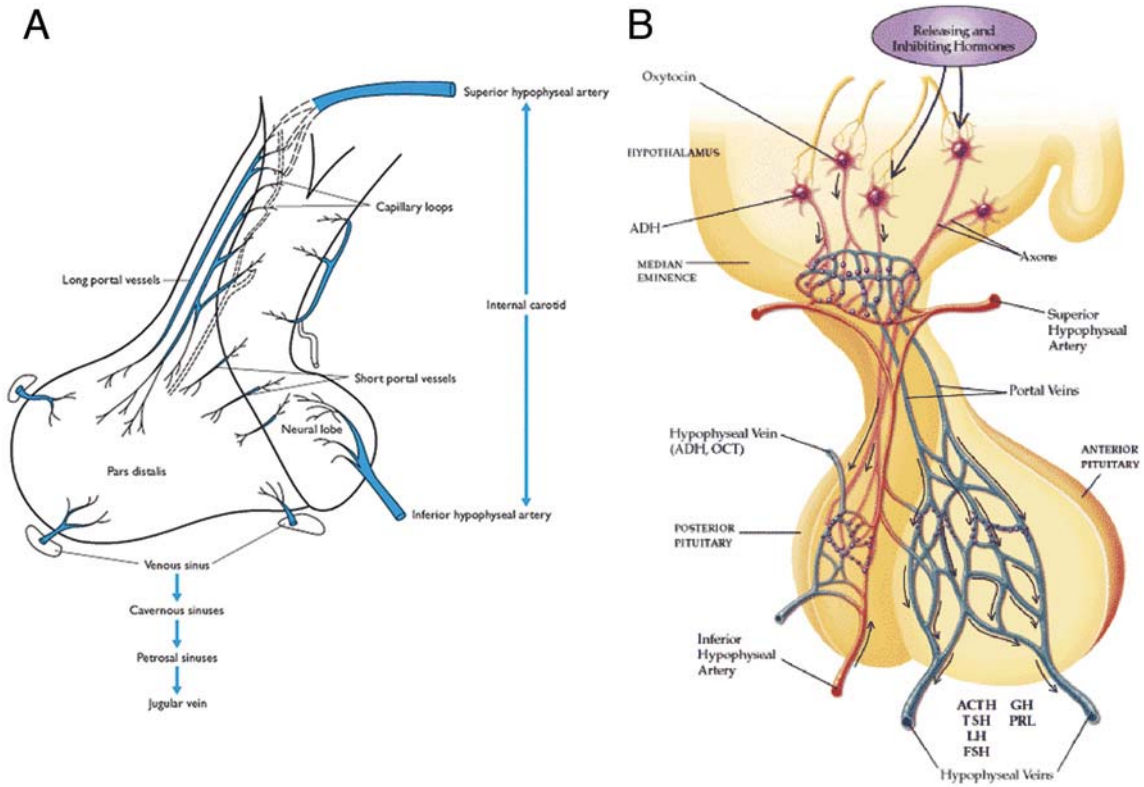
Sagittal section through the midline showing the pituitary gland within the diaphragma sella (a fold that encases the pituitary), situated immediately posterior to the sphenoid sinus. The pituitary gland is the 'master' hormonal gland – comprising an anterior and posterior lobe<sup>1</sup> – and is located at the base of the hypothalamus in the brain. A horizontal cross-section reveals three distinct anatomical areas – the central mucoid wedge and two lateral wings – within the anterior pituitary, and each hormone-secreting cell population is differentially distributed throughout the anterior pituitary. Adapted from (Heaney and Melmed, 2004).



**Figure 1-6 The hypothalamic-pituitary axis**

Hormone synthesis and secretion from the pituitary gland are regulated by a series of peptide hormones released from hypothalamic neurons. The magnocellular neurosecretory system includes neurons in paraventricular hypothalamus (PVN) and supraoptic nucleus (SON) that synthesize oxytocin (OT) and arginine vasopressin (AVP) and release them from axonal terminals in the posterior lobe (P). Hormone synthesis and secretion in the anterior lobe of pituitary (A) are regulated by releasing factors produced by the parvocellular neurons and released into the portal vascular system. Corticotropin releasing hormone (CRH) and thyrotropin releasing hormone (TRH) are synthesized by neurons in the PVN. Growth hormone releasing hormone (GHRH) is synthesized by neurons of the arcuate nucleus (ARN) and the adjacent ventromedial nucleus. Somatostatin (SS) is mainly synthesized by neurons in anterior periventricular nucleus (aPV). The parvocellular neurons project to the median eminence where they release hormones that are transported to the anterior pituitary by the portal vascular system. Adapted from (Zhu et al., 2007a).





**Figure 1-7 Diagrammatic representation of the blood supply and venous drainage of the hypothalamo-pituitary axis**

(A) The anterior and posterior pituitary lobes receive blood from the inferior and superior hypophysial arteries. (B) Vasculature connection between the hypothalamus and pituitary. Abbreviations: ACTH, adrenocorticotropin; TSH, thyroid stimulating hormone; LH, luteinizing hormone, FSH, follicular stimulating hormone; GH, growth hormone; PRL, prolactin; ADH, antidiuretic hormone; OCT, oxytocin. Figure A adapted from (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001) and B from (Melmed, 2010).

### 3. Angiogenesis

The vascular system plays an important role ensuring that a sufficient supply of nutrients and oxygen is supplied from circulating blood to cells. There are two different mechanisms of vessel formation (Figure 1-8, p.42): vasculogenesis (or *de-novo* vessel formation), which involves differentiation of precursor stem cells to endothelial cells, and angiogenesis, the formation of new vessels that arise from preexisting capillaries (Risau, 1997). Vasculogenesis results in the formation of a primitive vascular network that undergoes expansion and remodeling via angiogenesis into a more mature vasculature. This vasculature comprises of large branching vessels and smaller capillaries. During embryonic development vessels initially form via vasculogenesis and later via angiogenesis, whereas new vessels in the adult predominantly arise via angiogenesis. The regulation of vasculogenesis and angiogenesis involves a delicate balance of pro- and anti-angiogenic factors (Hanahan and Folkman, 1996).

NOTE:

This figure is included on page 42 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure 1-8 Vasculogenesis and angiogenesis**

Vasculogenesis involves the formation of hemangioblastic blood islands and the construction of capillary networks from them. Angiogenesis involves the formation of new blood vessels by remodeling and building on older ones. Angiogenesis finishes the circulatory connections begun by vasculogenesis and builds arteries and veins from the capillaries. In this diagram, the major paracrine factors involved in each step are shown boxed, and their receptors (on the vessel-forming cells) are shown beneath them. Adapted from (Gilbert, 2000).

Firstly, vasculogenesis occurs with the involvement of three growth factors (as shown in Figure 1-8). The first important protein is the basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) FGF2. FGF2 is required for the generation of hemangioblasts (a multipotent cell, common precursor to hematopoietic and endothelial cells) from the splanchnic mesoderm (Gilbert, 2000). The second significant protein is vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF). VEGF enables the differentiation of angioblasts, which are formed from hemangioblasts, and their multiplication to form endothelial tubes. The role of VEGF is discussed in greater detail below (see Section 4 Importance of VEGF and VE-Cadherin, p.43). The third protein is angiopoietin-1 (Ang1) which mediates the interaction between the endothelial cells and the pericytes—smooth muscle-like cells they recruit to cover them (Gilbert, 2000). Mutations of either Ang1 or its receptor, in mice, have resulted in the malformation of blood vessels and deficiency in the smooth muscles that usually surround them (Davis and Reed, 1996; Vikkula et al., 1996). Secondly, angiogenesis is also induced by the growth factors VEGF and bFGF, as well as platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF; which is necessary for the recruitment of pericyte cells that contribute to the flexibility of the capillary) (Lindahl et al., 1997), chemokines and others factors (as shown in Figure 1-8, p.42). VEGF acts on newly formed capillaries and causes loosening and degradation of the

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extracellular matrix at certain points. This region contains exposed endothelial cells that are able to proliferate and sprout, ultimately forming a new vessel (Figure 1-9, p.44). FGF's play an important role whereby they alter the adhesiveness of the extracellular matrix (ECM) regulating endothelial-cell growth and differentiation during vessel formation. The loosening of the ECM may also allow capillary fusion that leads to formation of wider vessels, such as arteries and veins. Finally, the developed capillary network forms and is stabilized by TGF- $\beta$ ; which strengthens the ECM) and PDGF. The entire blood vessel formation process typically lasts several days or weeks and is tightly regulated by a variety of circulating and sequestered inhibitors that can suppress vascular endothelial proliferation (Adair et al., 1990) .

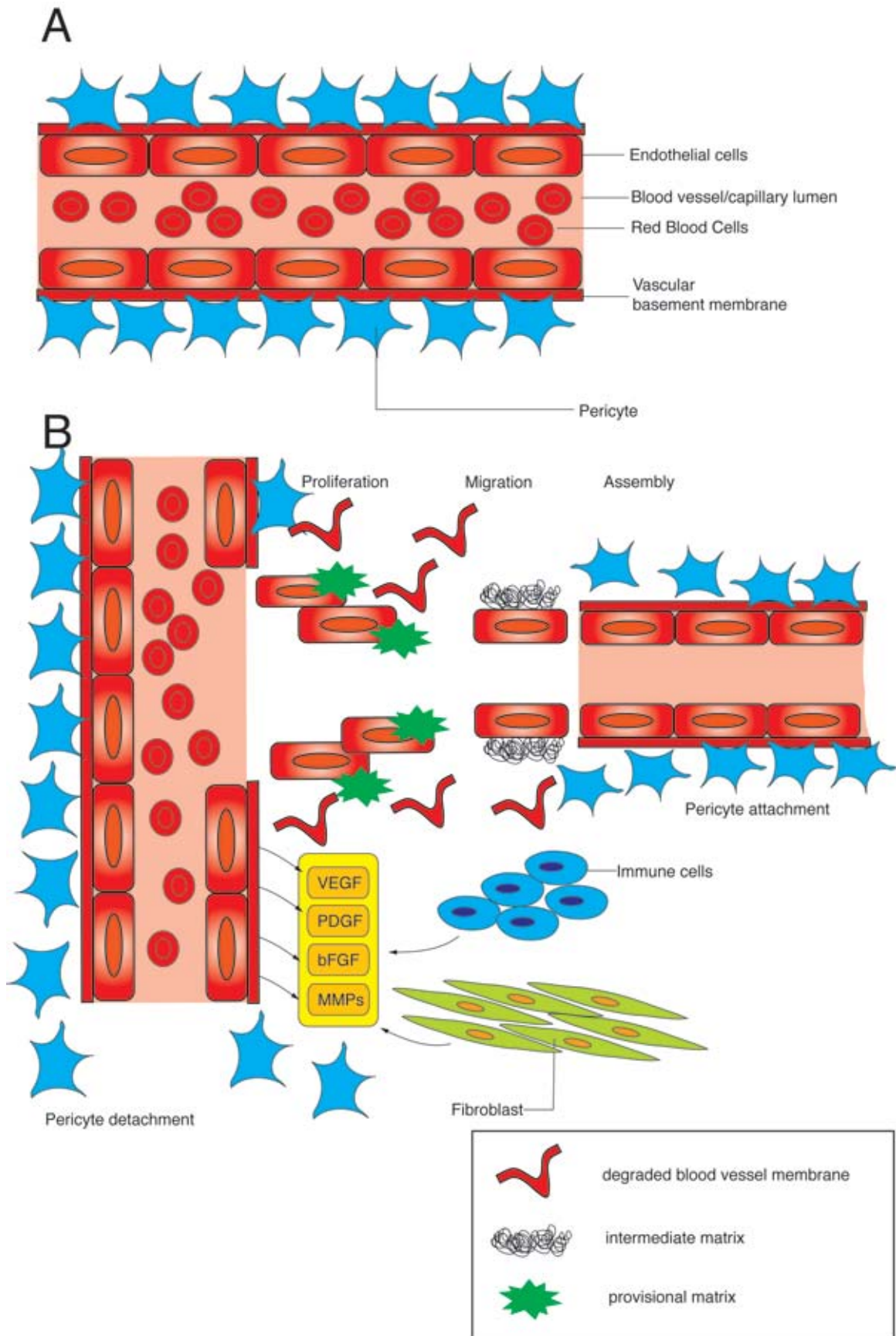
### 4. *Importance of VEGF and VE-Cadherin in vascular development*

VEGF is an angiogenic factor that plays an important role during blood vessel formation. A summary of the role and functions of VEGF are shown in Table 1-3 (p.46). Furthermore, the expression of VEGF and its receptors has been shown to be restricted to the vasculature during embryogenesis, indicating that these molecules play an important function during vascular development (Breier et al., 1995). In contrast, in adult tissue the gene expression of VEGF is quite minimal, except for in the adult kidney, where it is likely helping to maintain vasculature (Dvorak et al., 1995; Ferrara and Keyt, 1997). The expression of VEGF can be induced in various cell types such as during tumorigenesis (Baritaki et al., 2007; Oka et al., 2007; Plate and Risau, 1995; Soufla et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2005; Waldner et al., 2010) and wound healing (Ferraro et al., 2009; Ferte et al., 2009; Frank et al., 1995) implicating the VEGF-VEGF receptor gene family in pathological neovascularization (the formation of new blood vessels, i.e. capillary in-growth and endothelial proliferation in unusual sites, a finding typical of so-called 'angiogenic diseases', which include angiogenesis in tumor growth, diabetic retinopathy, hemangiomas, arthritis, psoriasis (Segen, 2006)).

**Figure 1-9 Angiogenesis**

(A) Schematic representation of the basement membrane (BM) in blood vessels. In the vasculature, the vascular BM interacts directly with the pericytes, which are on the outside, and the endothelial cells, which line the inside of the vessel. (B) Angiogenesis is associated with degradation and reformation of the vascular basement membrane (VBM). In response to growth factors and matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), the VMB undergoes degradative and structural changes. This transition from mature VBM to provisional matrix promotes the proliferation and migration of vascular endothelial cells. Growth factors, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), are released from the BM, and are also produced by fibroblasts and immune cells. This induces formation of an intermediate, and then a new (mature) VBM. Together with the vascular endothelial cells and pericytes, the VBM mediates formation of a new blood vessel. The degraded VBM during this process has a crucial role in regulating angiogenesis.

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**Table 1-3 Important role and functions of VEGF during blood vessel formation**

Information extracted and tabulated from (Carmeliet, 2000b).

NOTE:

This table is included on page 46 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

Targeted inactivation of one VEGF allele results in haploinsufficiency and associated embryonic lethality, at around E9 in mice, due to abnormality in blood vessel development (Carmeliet et al., 1996). In contrast, conditional inactivation of the VEGF gene results in postnatal vascular impairment during development and endothelial survival that leads to an increase in death, stunted body growth, and impaired organ development (Gerber et al., 1999).

Vascular endothelial-cadherin (VE-Cadherin) belongs to the cadherin family of major cell adhesion molecules (CAMs) responsible for Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent cell-cell adhesion in vertebrate tissues (Alberts et al., 2002; Hynes, 1992). VE-Cadherin is the only member of the cadherin family to be found at endothelial junctions (Lampugnani et al., 1992) and its interactions are made via its cytoplasmic tail (containing three proteins of the armadillo family called  $\beta$ -catenin and plakoglobin, which both act to anchor cadherins to the cortical actin cytoskeleton (Gumbiner, 1996)). VE-Cadherin is activated when VEGF binds to its cognate receptor (Figure 1-10, p.49). Importantly, VE-Cadherin may play an essential role in implicating cell differentiation, growth, as well as migration (Dejana, 1996, 1997). In the mouse, the expression of VE-Cadherin has been localized to hemangioblasts from E7.5 onwards (Breier et al., 1996) and, thereafter, constitutively in all endothelial cells. Mice lacking a functional VE-Cadherin gene, or containing a mutant VE-Cadherin gene that lacks the  $\beta$ -catenin-binding cytoplasmic tail, or that does not express detectable VE-Cadherin levels, did not survive beyond E9.5 due to vascular insufficiency (Carmeliet et al.,

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1999). A closer examination of wild-type and mutant mice has revealed that angioblasts were able to differentiate into endothelial cells and assemble into primitive vessels in the embryo and yolk sac, between E8.25–8.5. Accordingly, these results suggested that vasculogenesis was able to occur without VE-Cadherin. However, a closer look at E8.5 embryos revealed that certain vessels had few or even no lumen whilst others were dilated. Interestingly, in mutant embryo yolk sac endothelial cells, channels were seen disconnecting from their vascular branches. These vascular disconnection defects were more severe in mutant VE-Cadherin embryos between E8.75–E9.0 (a point when the wild-type primitive vascular is sprouting via angiogenesis and is remodeled into a vasculature network). Hence, normal functioning of VE-Cadherin essential for vasculogenesis, however it does play an important role in angiogenesis (i.e. the expansion, maturation, branching, and remodeling of vasculature).

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This figure is included on page 48 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.



**Figure 1-10 The VEGF:VE-Cadherin Pathway**

VEGFR-2 associates with VE-Cadherin, and when activated by VEGF, this receptor dimerizes causing the sequential activation of Vav2, Rac and PAK, through Src. This results in the serine phosphorylation of a conserved motif in the cytoplasmic tail of VE-Cadherin (SVR 665-667) by PAK, which is likely coordinated with the tyrosine phosphorylation of the VE-Cadherin-catenin complexes (dashed arrow) by Src. Serine-phosphorylated VE-Cadherin recruits  $\beta$ -arrestin, which promotes the consequent internalization of VE-Cadherin into clathrin-coated pits. Interestingly, the SVR motif is adjacent to the p120-binding region, which is conserved among all classical cadherins, thus raising the possibility that the association/dissociation of p120 with VE-Cadherin may regulate the status of phosphorylation of the SVR motif within the VE-Cadherin ICD and/or its interaction with  $\beta$ -arrestin. Tyrosine phosphorylation of VE-Cadherin and its associated molecules may be coordinated with the Src-dependent activation of Vav2 and Rac to regulate the dynamic disassembly and reassembly of adherens junctions. This process leads to the disassembly of endothelial-cell junctions, resulting in the enhanced permeability of the blood-vessel wall. Endosomal VE-Cadherin may be recycled to the cell surface, thus participating in the dynamic reorganization of adherens junctions during vessel remodeling. Furthermore, transactivation of VEGFR2 causes activation of two signaling cascades that are important for movement and vascular remodeling: first, activation of Src-family tyrosine kinases, the adaptor protein CrkII and CAS (Crk-associated substrate); and second, activation of PI3K-Alpha (Phosphatidylinositol 3-Kinase-Alpha), Akt Pathway and eNOS (endothelial Nitric Oxide Synthase), and the formation of NO (Nitric Oxide). In endothelial cells the predominant VEGFR2 that mediates eNOS phosphorylation is Flk1/KDR (Fetal Liver Kinase-1/Kinase-insert Domain-containing Receptor) leading to phosphorylation and stimulation of the PI3K-Akt1-eNOS pathway. VEGF receptor Flk1/KDR localizes to caveolae, while EDG1 receptor exists in both non-caveolae and caveolae membranes. After stimulation EDG1 translocates and concentrates in caveolae. Upon G-AlphaI protein-mediated activation of PLC (Phospholipase-C), intracellular  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  levels increase and  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  complexes with Calm (Calmodulin). The  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ /Calm complex then activates eNOS. Simultaneously,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and Src family kinase-dependent transactivation of Flk1/KDR occurs, which stimulates Src family kinase and PI3K causing Akt1 and eNOS to be phosphorylated and activated. Schematic is a composite from two figures adapted from (Gavard and Gutkind, 2006) and Qiagen GeneGlobe Pathways ([www.qiagen.com/geneglobe/pathwayview.aspx?pathwayID=199](http://www.qiagen.com/geneglobe/pathwayview.aspx?pathwayID=199)).

## II. SOX FAMILY OF TRANSCRIPTION FACTORS

### A. The SOX Family

The male sex determination gene Sry (sex-determining region of Y chromosome) was the first Sox (SRY-related HMG box) gene family member identified (Sinclair et al., 1990). Sox proteins contain a 79-amino acid HMG box domain that is responsible for sequence-specific DNA binding (Gubbay et al., 1990; Wright et al., 1993). Approximately 30 Sox genes have been identified, including 20 that are present in both the mouse and the human genome (Kiefer, 2007). Sox proteins have greater than 50% identity with the founding member Sry and are divided into eight subgroups (A-H) (Table 1-4, p.51 and Figure 1-12, p.52), based on phylogenetic analysis of HMG box regions. All Sox proteins are expressed during embryogenesis, and are involved in cellular differentiation, germ layer formation as well as organ development (Pevny and Lovell-Badge, 1997; Wegner, 1999). Members within each subgroup show highly restricted tissue specificity, with at least 12 members being expressed in the nervous system (Wegner, 1999). The B group is further divided into two subgroups: SoxB1 proteins (Sox1, 2, 3) containing transcriptional activation domains and SoxB2 proteins (Sox14, 21) containing repressor domains (Bowles et al., 2000). SoxB1 subfamily transcription factors are predominantly expressed within the early developing embryo, developing testis, and nervous system, and are vital for cell fate determination and cell differentiation during mouse development (Table 1-5, p.54), as shown by dominant negative and knockout mouse studies (Pevny and Lovell-Badge, 1997; Wegner, 1999).

### B. The SOXB1 Subgroup

Sox1, Sox2 and Sox3 are assigned to the SoxB1 subgroup and share >95% HMG sequence homology (Figure 1-11, p.52). They are predominantly co-expressed in proliferating neural progenitors and stem cells of the embryonic CNS and function as transcriptional activators (Bylund et al., 2003). Members of the SoxB1 subgroup show considerable overlap in their expression patterns, and appear to be functionally redundant (Figure 1-12, p.55).

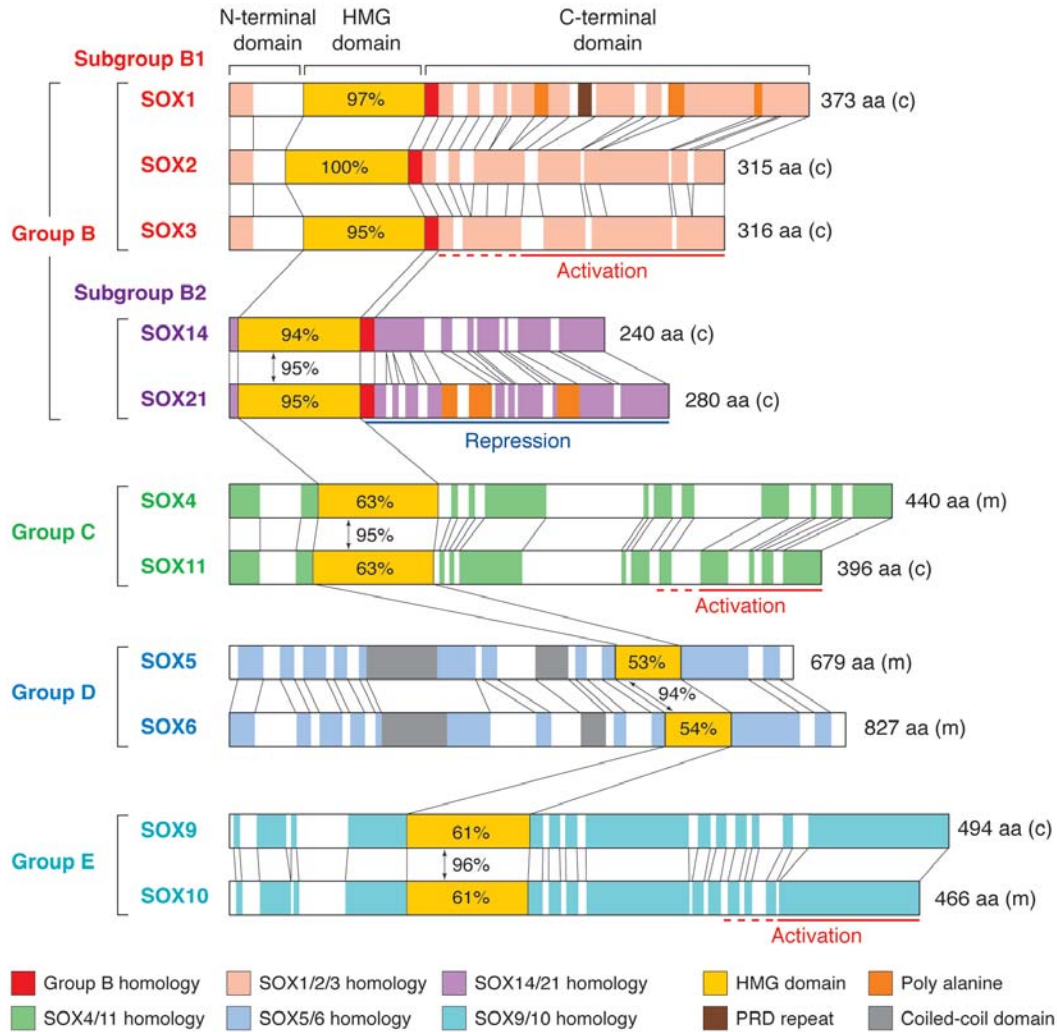
## 1. Introduction

**Table 1-4 SOX family of proteins**

Abbreviations: CNS - central nervous system, ICM - Inner Cell Mass, PNS - Peripheral Nervous system. (Lefebvre et al., 2007; Pevny and Lovell-Badge, 1997)

Group	Gene	Chromosome	Expressed domain	Functions
A	<i>Sry</i>	Y	Genital ridge and testis	Male sex determination
B1	<i>Sox1</i>	8	Embryonic CNS, lens	Forebrain development, chromatin architecture, neuron migration
	<i>Sox2</i>	3	ICM, primitive ectoderm, CNS, PNS, embryonic gut, endoderm	CNS development, neuron fate commitment, embryonic organ development
	<i>Sox3</i>	X	Embryonic CNS, gonads	Specify stem cell identity, gonadogenesis, CNS development
B2	<i>Sox14</i>	9	Midbrain, Skeletal muscle	Neurogenesis - counteracts Sox1-3 activity to promote neuron differentiation
	<i>Sox21</i>	14	embryonic CNS	Neurogenesis - counteracts Sox1-3 activity to promote neuron differentiation
C	<i>Sox4</i>	13	Embryonic heart and spinal cord, adult pre-B and pre-T cells	-
	<i>Sox11</i>	12	Embryonic CNS, post-mitotic neurons	Organ development - lung, stomach, pancreas, spleen, eye and skeleton
	<i>Sox12</i>	2	Fetal Testis	-
D	<i>Sox5</i>	6	Adult testis	Skeletogenesis, neural crest development, gliogenesis
	<i>Sox6</i>	7	Embryonic CNS, adult testis	Cardiac conduction, skeletogenesis, gliogenesis, erythropoiesis
	<i>Sox13</i>	1	Kidney, Ovary, Pancreas	Lymphopoiesis
E	<i>Sox8</i>	17	Gliogenesis, Testis development, osteogenesis, neural crest	Cell fate commitment and maturation, CNS development, formation of neural crest and upkeep
	<i>Sox9</i>	11	Chondrocyte, genital ridge and adult testis, CNS, notochord	Male gonad development, cartilage condensation, apoptosis regulation
	<i>Sox10</i>	15	PNS, CNS	Neural crest, inner ear formation
F	<i>Sox7</i>	14	CNS, heart	Cardio genesis
	<i>Sox17</i>	1	Endoderm, testis	Endoderm formation, angiogenesis
	<i>Sox18</i>	2	Heart, lung, spleen, skeletal muscle, liver and brain of adult	Angiogenesis, vasculogenesis
G	<i>Sox15</i>	11	Pancreas	Skeletal Muscle regeneration
H	<i>Sox30</i>	11	Heart, brain, lung, testis, mesonephros	-

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**Figure 1-11 SOX family of proteins showing homology relationship**

Representative SOX proteins of Groups B-E are shown schematically. Similarity scores of the high-mobility-group (HMG) domain amino acid sequences relative to that of SOX2, and between the group members, are indicated. Within each Group, amino acid sequences are highly conserved throughout the length, except Subgroups B1 and B2 of Group B. Group B is subdivided into Subgroups B1 (activators) and Subgroup B2 (repressors). Between Subgroups B1 and B2, the sequence similarity is found in 'Group B homology' domain, in addition to the HMG domain. Between different Groups, similarity of the amino acid sequence is recognized only in the HMG domain. Protein sizes are shown in amino acid number, with species of protein origin (c, chicken; m, mouse). SOX5 and SOX6 are drawn in half scale. Activation and repression domains are shown by red and blue lines, respectively. PRD-repeat: His-Pro repeat originally found in *Drosophila* Paired protein; aa, amino acids. Figure and description obtained from (Kamachi et al., 2000).

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Sox1, initially expressed at E8, is confined to neural precursors following neural induction (Pevny et al., 1998). By E9.5 Sox1 is detected throughout the entire length of neural tube and by E12.5 expression restricted to the ventricular and sub ventricular zones as well as the lens (Aubert et al., 2003). In mice, an absence of Sox1 results in a failure of differentiation in postmitotic neurons and is associated with seizures and lens defects (an area where Sox1 is uniquely expressed) (Economou et al., 2005; Malas et al., 2003).

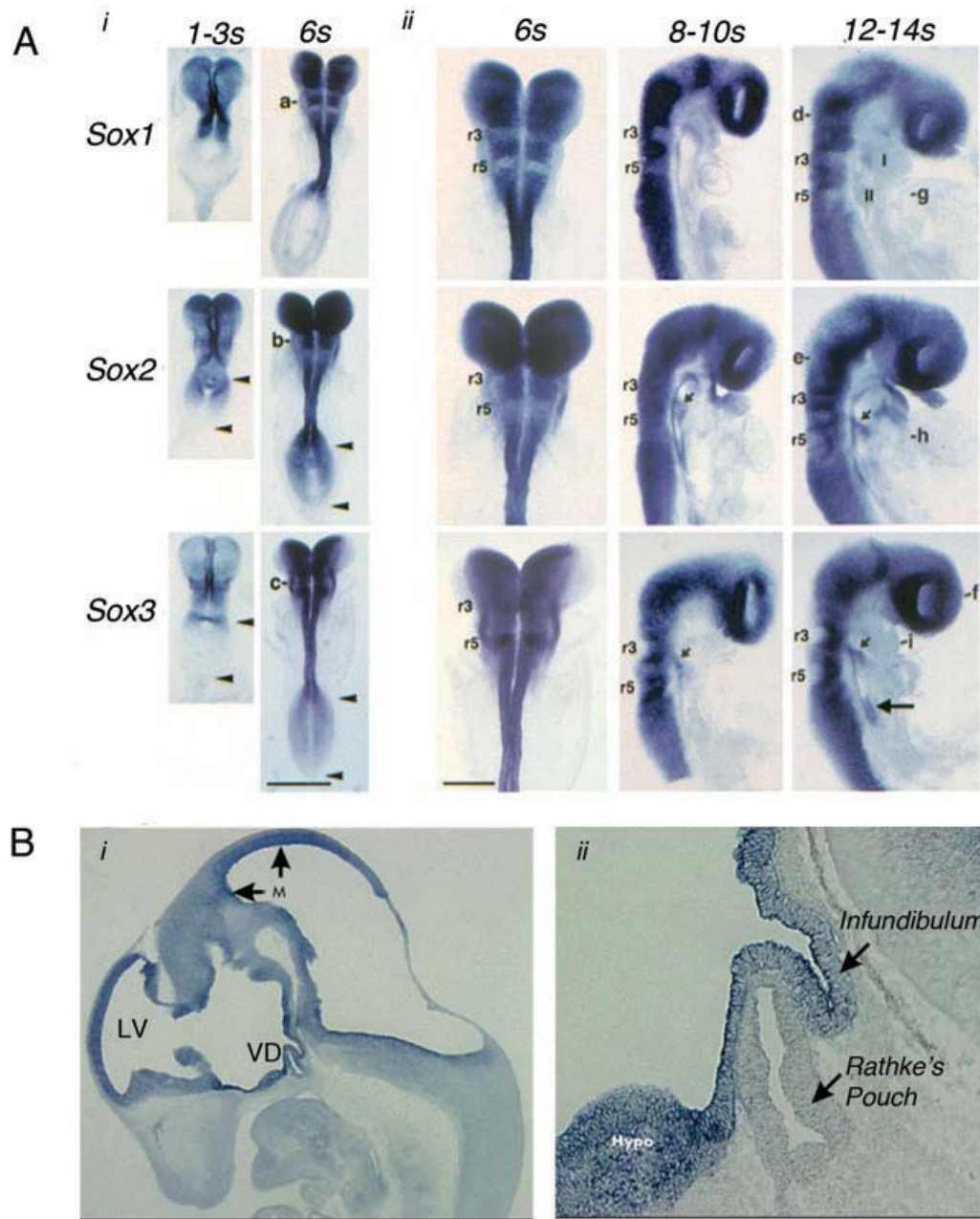
Sox2, the earliest transcription factor to be expressed in ectodermal cells, is largely restricted to the presumptive neuroectoderm following gastrulation. By E9.5 Sox2 is expressed throughout the brain, neural tube, sensory placodes, branchial arches and gut endoderm (Wood and Episkopou, 1999; Zappone et al., 2000). By E7.5 the expression of Sox2 is centered within the anterior neuroectoderm, but not within the posterior ectoderm (Zappone et al., 2000). By E9.5, Sox2 is expressed in neural stem cells of the developing neural tube throughout embryogenesis and well into adulthood (Avilion et al., 2003). Although, Sox2 cells within adulthood are restricted to the ventricular zone (Zappone et al., 2000). A recent study in mice (Kelberman et al., 2006) showed that heterozygous loss-of-function of *Sox2* results in abnormal anterior pituitary development, in particular a reduction in GH, LH and TSH (Kelberman et al., 2006). Homozygous deletion of Sox2 results in peri-implantation lethality preventing further studies because it is the only SoxB1 member expressed in the inner cell mass (Kelberman et al., 2006).

Sox3 is expressed in the developing CNS, including the developing and postnatal hypothalamus (Figure 1-12 B, p.55) (Rizzoti et al., 2004). It is the only member of the SoxB1 subfamily located on the X chromosome (Collignon et al., 1996; Stevanovic et al., 1993). Loss-of-function studies in mice have shown that *Sox3*, like Sox2, is required for the formation of the hypothalamo-pituitary axis (Rizzoti et al., 2004). However, as Sox3 is not expressed in Rathke's pouch, the defects in HP axis function in *Sox3*-null mice appear to have a hypothalamic origin (Rizzoti et al., 2004). SOX3 has been shown to bind the Sox Consensus Motif (SOCM) AACAAAT, via its HMG box DNA binding domain (Bergstrom et al., 2000). Furthermore, SOX3 has been implicated as a transcriptional activator by means of reporter assays whereby increasing *Sox3* dosage leads to increased expression of a luciferase reporter construct containing either the SOCM or *Hesx1* proximal promoter, identified as containing Sox binding regions (Wong et al., 2007; Woods et al., 2005).

**Table 1-5 Expression and biological function of SoxB1 members**

Modified and adapted from (Miyagi et al., 2009).

Gene	Chromosome	Expression domain	Functions
Sox1	8	Embryonic nerve system (CNS), lens, urogenital ridge	Lens development (induction and maintenance of gamma-crystallin gene expression) (Nishiguchi et al., 1998)
			Deletion in KO mice leads to microphthalmia, cataracts, and spontaneous seizures (Malas et al., 2003; Nishiguchi et al., 1998)
Sox2	3	Inner cell mass, primitive ectoderm, trophoblast stem cells, embryonic nerve system (CNS), lens, neurogenic regions in adult brain	Deletion in KO mice is embryonic lethal at implantation stage (involved in gene expression in FGF4 (Ambrosetti et al., 1997; Ambrosetti et al., 2000), Oct4 (Chew et al., 2005; Niwa et al., 2005), Nanog (Kuroda et al., 2005), UTF1 (Nishimoto et al., 1999), together with Oct-3/4)
			Induction of gamma- and delta-crystallin gene expression (Kamachi et al., 2001; Kondoh et al., 2004)
			Induction of Nestin gene expression in neural stem/progenitor cells (Josephson et al., 1998; Tanaka et al., 2004)
			Involved in its own expression in ES cells and neural stem cells (Miyagi et al., 2006; Miyagi et al., 2004; Tomioka et al., 2002; Uchikawa et al., 2003)
Sox3	X	Epiblast, embryonic CNS, lens, urogenital ridge	Required for maintaining neural stem cell state and neurogenic potential (Bani-Yaghoub et al., 2006; Ferri et al., 2004; Miyagi et al., 2008; Overton et al., 2002; Taranova et al., 2006)
			Required for early embryogenesis, gonadal function, and hypothalamo-pituitary axis formation (Rizzoti et al., 2004; Weiss et al., 2003)
			Ectopic expression leads to XX male sex reversal (Sutton et al., 2011)
			Candidate gene for human X-linked mental retardation syndromes (Laumonnier et al., 2002)



**Figure 1-12 Expression of *Sox1*, *Sox2*, and *Sox3* in the developing mouse pituitary and central nervous system**

(A) Whole mount *in situ* hybridization using *Sox1*, *Sox2* and *Sox3* antisense riboprobes on mouse embryos between 8.0 and 9.0 dpc (1-14 somites). Panel *i* shows 1-3 and 6-somite embryos flattened out and photographed from the dorsal aspect. Arrowheads demarcate the primitive streak. Panel *ii* shows detail of gene expression in the hindbrain. The 8-10 and 12-14 somite embryos were sagittally halved. Small arrows indicate expression of *Sox2* and *Sox3* in the ectoderm overlying the second branchial arch; large arrow indicates expression of *Sox3* in the posterior region of the foregut. Key: s, somite; r, rhombomere; I, first branchial arch; II, second branchial arch. (B) Panel *i* represents a sagittal section from a mouse embryo 12.0 dpc showing strong *Sox3* expression in the infundibulum, the dorsal aspect of the lateral ventricle (LV), the ventral diencephalon (VD), and the roof and wall of the midbrain (M). Panel *ii* represents a sagittal section from a mouse embryo 11.5 days after conception, showing strong expression in the infundibulum and presumptive hypothalamus (Hypo). No signal was detected in the Rathke's pouch. Figure A adapted from (Wood and Episkopou, 1999) and B from (Solomon et al., 2004).

## C. The Role of Sox3 in Hypothalamo-Pituitary Axis Development

### 1. *Sox3 is expressed throughout early embryonic development*

During commitment and specification of the forebrain primordium (E7.5-9.5 in the mouse), Sox3 is expressed throughout the neuroepithelium at high levels (Collignon et al., 1996; Wood and Episkopou, 1999). Patterning of the telencephalic vesicles by internal and external signaling centers establishes overlapping zones of transcription factor expression that ultimately control the emergence of the distinct forebrain derivatives. The progenitors of the hippocampus, the corpus callosum and the cortical projection neurons reside within the dorsal telencephalon and begin to differentiate at approximately E11.5. Sox3 expression in this region is maintained from E11.5 until at least postnatal day (P) 1 and is restricted to the self-renewing cell population in the ventricular zone. The ventral telencephalon, which gives rise to the cortical interneurons, also expresses Sox3 in the ventricular zone until at least E14.5. In the diencephalon, which gives rise to the hypothalamus, thalamus and optic nerves/retina, Sox3 is expressed at high levels in the infundibular recess, a midline evagination that is essential for posterior pituitary development as well as in the developing and postnatal hypothalamus (as shown in Figure 1-12 B, p.55). However, Sox3 is not expressed in Rathke's pouch (Collignon et al., 1996; Solomon et al., 2004).

### 2. *Sox3 plays an important role during brain development*

The role of Sox3 in the developing CNS has been examined in mice with Sox3-null mutations. Sox3-null mice have been generated using homologous recombination, whereby the Sox3 open reading frame (ORF) is replaced with the enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) ORF. Mice lacking functional Sox3 exhibit variable phenotypes consistent with abnormalities in the HP axis including variable pituitary hormone deficiencies, dwarfism, and hypogonadism (Table 1-6, p.57) (Rizzoti et al., 2004; Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2007; Weiss et al., 2003). Additionally, these mice exhibit CNS abnormalities including dysgenesis of the corpus callosum (Figure 1-13 A, p.58). Importantly, the ventral diencephalon appears expanded, relative to the normal V-shape seen in wild-type embryos and there is notable bifurcation and expansion of the dorsal side of Rathke's pouch (Figure 1-13 B, p.58). The later changes are most obvious from E11.5 through E14.5 (Rizzoti et al., 2004). Furthermore, the neuroepithelium precursor cells in this presumptive hypothalamic region have significant reduction in cellular proliferation (Rizzoti et al., 2004). Thus, Sox3 undoubtedly contributes to correct morphogenesis of the hypothalamic primordium and for HP axis formation and research to date indicates the importance of Sox3 expression



during the early stages of development. Additionally, mice lacking *Sox3* have altered BMP/FGF8 expression in the ventral diencephalon that plays important roles in controlling differentiating cell types (Rizzoti et al., 2004).

**Table 1-6 Phenotypes of *Sox3* transgenic mouse models**

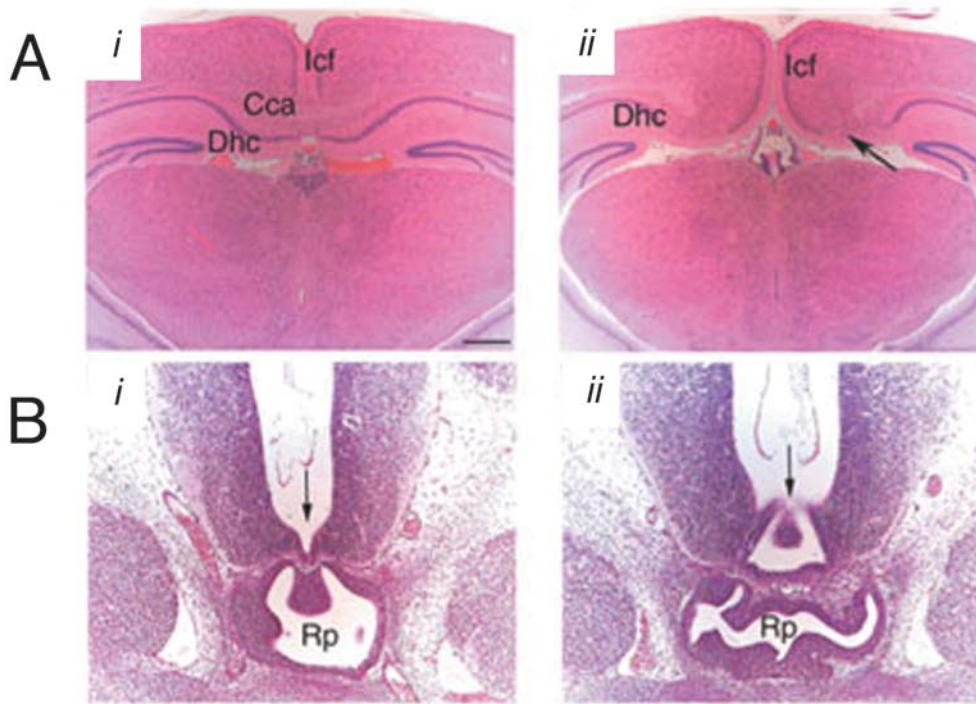
Adapted from (Alatzoglou et al., 2008)

NOTE:

This table is included on page 57 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**3. Importance of genetic background**

The laboratory mouse is one of the primary animal models for understanding the genetic and molecular basis of human biology and disease (Rosenthal and Brown, 2007). In the study out-lined in Chapter 3 (Identification of *Sox3* Target Genes, p.105 - *project 1*) *Sox3*-null mice were used. The importance of genetic background of *Sox3*-null mice is well established (Rizzoti et al., 2004; Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2005, 2007). The *Sox3*-null mice in other studies were maintained on the C57/BL6 background, which suppressed the brain defect and enhanced the spermatogenesis defect. Whereas, the *Sox3*-null mice in *project 1* were maintained on a mixed background, and, although they had lost the dwarfism phenotype, they presented with abnormal morphogenesis of the hypothalamus, pituitary and midline CNS structures.



**Figure 1-13 Abnormal morphogenesis of the hypothalamus, pituitary and midline CNS in *Sox3*-null mice**

Transverse sections of 3-week-old (A) WT (i) and *Sox3*-null (ii) littermates, showing dysgenesis of the corpus callosum, and failure of the dorsal hippocampal commissure to cross the midline (arrow). (B) Coronal sections of E12.5 mouse embryos wild-type (i) and *Sox3*-null (ii) showing abnormal ventral hypothalamus and infundibulum (arrow), as well as a bifurcated Rathke's pouch. Abbreviations: Icf, intercerebral fissure; Cca, corpus callosum; Dhc, dorsal hippocampal commissure; Rp, Rathke's pouch. Adapted from (Rizzoti et al., 2004).

### III. CONSEQUENCES OF MUTATIONS IN TRANSCRIPTION FACTORS: CONGENITAL HYPOPITUITARISM

Congenital Hypopituitarism (CH) is a clinical syndrome of deficiency in pituitary hormone production. Congenital defects may result from disorders involving the pituitary gland or hypothalamus and can result in morbidity, particularly when diagnosis is delayed (Mehta and Dattani, 2008).

A deficiency in GH is closely associated with CH (Lindsay et al., 1994; Mehta and Dattani, 2008; Mehta et al., 2009). GH deficiency is often accompanied by deficiencies in other anterior pituitary hormones or, in severe cases, deficiencies in all anterior pituitary hormones or panhypopituitarism, often arising during early childhood development (Alatzoglou and Dattani, 2009). Panhypopituitarism refers to involvement of all pituitary hormones; however, only one or more pituitary hormones are often involved, resulting in partial hypopituitarism. Untreated panhypopituitarism can be lethal.

CH has a significant genetic component that has been described in familial forms of the disorder. These familial forms often display autosomal recessive, autosomal dominant as well as X-linked recessive inheritance patterns (Procter et al., 1998; Thomas et al., 2001). Several genes have been identified involved in autosomal forms of CH, these include SOX3, SOX2, POU1F1, PROP1, HESX1, T-PIT and LHX3/4 (Table 1-7) (Agarwal et al., 2000; Kelberman and Dattani, 2006; Kelberman et al., 2006; Metherell et al., 2004; Rizzoti et al., 2004; Thomas et al., 2001; Thomas et al., 1995). A great majority of these genes were originally identified in mice as major players in pituitary development and were consequently associated with CH in humans. Comparatively, examination of the phenotypes observed in mouse mutants and patients with mutations in orthologous genes emphasize the conservation in the genetic program controlling mammalian HP development. This has undoubtedly emphasized the importance of mouse mutagenesis studies to further enhancing our understanding of CH in humans.

## **IV. THE GROWTH HORMONE AXIS**

### **A. Growth-Hormone and Growth Hormone-Releasing Factor**

GH plays an integral part in post-natal growth, development and contributes to important metabolic functions. As an anabolic hormone, GH provides widespread actions, many of which are mediated by insulin-like growth factors (IGFs), insulin growth factor-1 (IGF-1) and -2 (IGF-2), which are synthesized by the liver and in target tissues (Liu et al., 1993; Zhou et al., 1997). GH exerts its most profound effect on linear growth by stimulating proliferation of cartilage in the epiphyseal plates of long bones before they fuse. Furthermore, GH also increases total bone mass and mineral content by increasing the activity and the number of bone modeling units (Nussey and Whitehead, 2001). GH increases lean body mass, reduces adiposity by its lipolytic effects, and increases organ size and function, the latter effect being mediated by IGFs (Figure 1-14, p.61). Normal concentrations of GH are necessary to maintain normal pancreatic islet function. Thus, in GH deficiency, insulin secretion declines whilst an excess of GH reduces insulin-dependent glucose uptake causing a rise in insulin secretion to compensate for the GH-induced resistance.

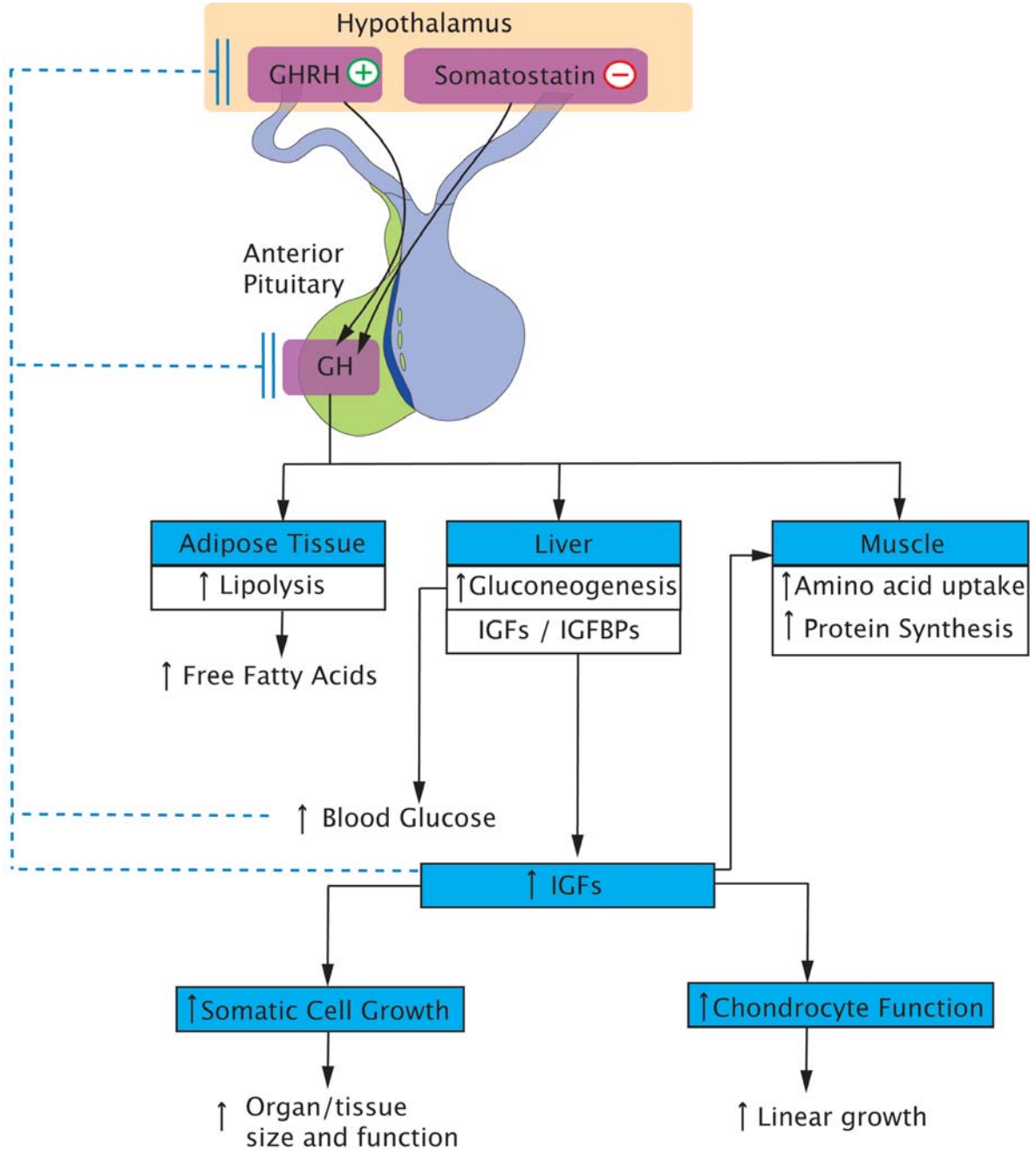
**Table 1-7 Transcription factors that affect pituitary function and are associated with autosomal forms of congenital hypopituitarism**

Adapted from (Davis et al., 2010).

Gene	DNA binding Motif	Clinical features, Mouse phenotypes
<i>Syndromic: affecting pituitary development and other head structure</i>		
<i>PITX</i>	Paired/bicoid homeo	Rieger syndrome: eyes, teeth, umbilical defects Rarely, isolated GH deficiency, haploinsufficient in humans but not obvious in mice
<i>OTX2</i>	POU homeo	Anophthalmia, microphthalmia, hypopituitarism
<i>LHX3</i>	LIM homeo	GH, TSH, PRL, LH, FSH, ACTH, variable including rigid cervical spine, sensorineural deafness
<i>LHX4</i>	LIM homeo	GH, TSH, PRL, LH, FSH, ACTH, cerebellar and skull defects
<i>SOX2</i>	HMG box	Hypogonadotropic hypogonadism, rare isolated GH deficiency
<i>SOX3</i>	HMG box	Multiple Pituitary Hormone Deficiency, mental retardation
<i>HESX1</i>	Paired homeo	Variable induced septo-optic dysplasia and severe or mild pituitary hypoplasia or aplasia; GH, TSH, PRL, LH, FSH, ACTH, or Isolated Growth Hormone Deficiency
<i>GLI2</i>	Kruppel family	Holoprosencephaly, cleft lip, central incisor, hypopituitarism
<i>Non-syndromic: affecting pituitary development and other peripheral organs</i>		
<i>PROP1</i>	Paired homeo	Progressive Hypopituitarism, GH, TSH, PRL, LH, FSH, ACTH
<i>POU1F1</i>	POU homeo	GH, TSH, PRL
<i>TPIT</i>	T box	No human mutations described, mice have delayed growth, puberty
<i>OTX1</i>	POU homeo	No human mutations described, mice have delayed growth, puberty
<i>Syndromic: affecting pituitary development and other peripheral organs</i>		
<i>NR5A1</i>	Nuclear receptor	LH, FSH, 46,XY disorder of sexual development, hypogonadism, premature ovarian failure, adrenal failure

GHRH, a hypothalamic-releasing factor synthesized by neurons in the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus, stimulates somatotrope proliferation. Axons of GHRH neurons project to the median eminence and terminate on the capillaries of the pituitary portal system to stimulate GH release (Lin-Su and Wajnrajch, 2002). Somatotrope proliferation, and secretion of GH, is initiated by binding GHRH to the GHRH receptor (GHRHR), triggering a signaling cascade involving cAMP (Figure 1-15, p.62). Interestingly, during GHRH signaling cAMP does not exert its usual anti-proliferative effects, rather, in the somatotrope it mediates the *proliferative* actions of GHRH (Figure 1-16, p.63). Furthermore, GHRH is also involved in stimulating, although to a lesser extent, protein kinase C (PKC) (French et al., 1991) and mitogen-activated protein kinase signaling., which

is at least partially independent of both Protein Kinase A and Protein Kinase C signaling (Pombo et al., 2000). As a consequence, GHRH is able to activate multiple signaling mechanisms that are likely to be used to mediate the proliferative effects of GH.



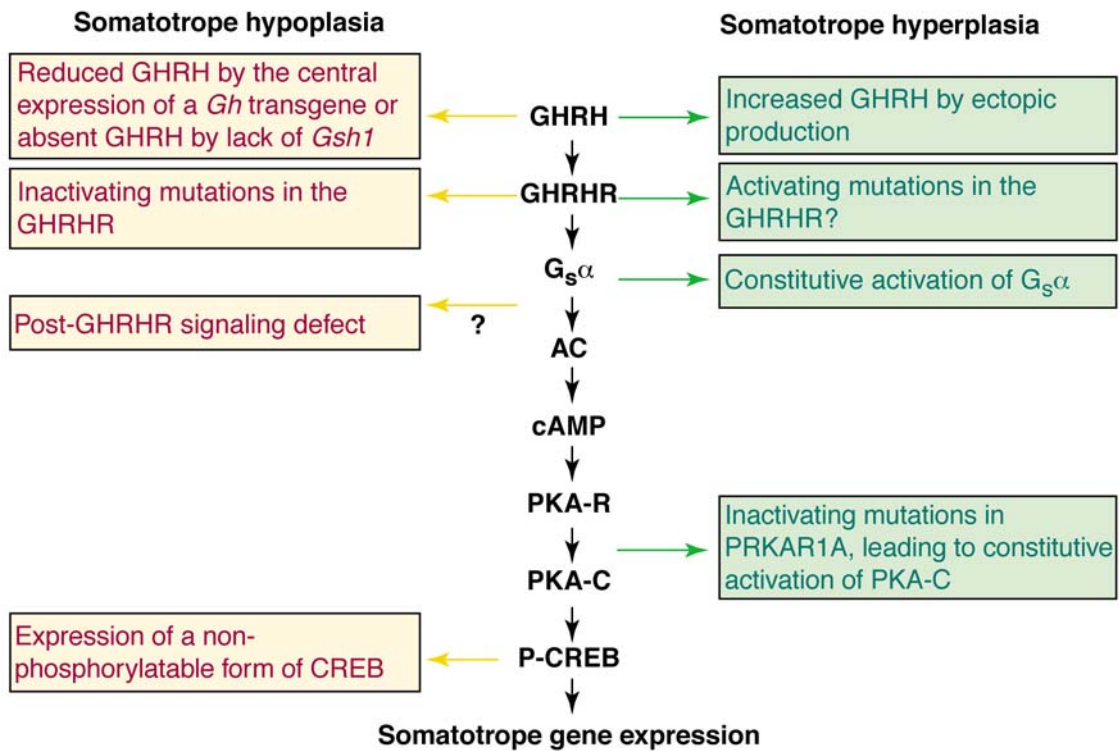
**Figure 1-14 Major actions of growth hormone**

GH has direct actions on adipose tissue, liver as well as muscle. However, many of the actions of GH are mediated by increasing the synthesis and release of insulin-like growth factors (IGFs), which stimulate DNA, RNA and protein synthesis in various organs and tissues thereby increasing both their size and function. GH also stimulates the synthesis and release of IGF binding proteins (IGFBPs), and these bind circulating IGFs. Their binding provides a reservoir of circulating IGFs. Dashed lines indicate the negative feedback resulting from the action of GH on peripheral tissues.

NOTE:  
This figure is included on page 62 of the print copy of  
the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure 1-15 GHRH signaling pathway**

Binding of GHRH to its receptor activates the  $\alpha$ -subunit of the receptor-associated G-protein complex the ( $G_{s\alpha}$ ) of the closely associated G-Protein complex, thus stimulating membrane-bound AC (Adenylyl Cyclase) and increasing intracellular cAMP (cyclic Adenosine Monophosphate) concentrations. cAMP binds to and activates the regulatory subunits of PKA (Protein Kinase-A), which in turn release catalytic subunits that translocate to the nucleus and phosphorylate the transcription factor CREB (cAMP Response Element Binding protein). Phosphorylated CREB, together with its coactivators, p300 and CBP (CREB Binding Protein) enhances the transcription of various genes by binding to specific DNA elements within gene promoter regions, referred to as CREs (cAMP-Response Elements). The genes activated by GHRH and cAMP contain CREs in their promoter regions. CREB, via direct and indirect mechanisms, stimulates GH production via transcription of the GH gene as well as increasing transcription of the GHRHR gene as part of a short positive feedback loop. Adapted from Qiagen GeneGlobe Pathways ([www.qiagen.com/geneglobe/pathwayview.aspx?pathwayID=199](http://www.qiagen.com/geneglobe/pathwayview.aspx?pathwayID=199)).



**Figure 1-16 Spontaneous and experimental alterations in the GHRH signaling pathway that result in either somatotrope hypoplasia or hyperplasia**

Abbreviations: AC, adenylyl cyclase; cAMP, cyclic adenosine monophosphate; GHRH, growth hormone-releasing hormone; GHRHR, GHRH receptor; G<sub>s</sub>α, α-subunit of the receptor-associated G-protein complex; gsh1, genetic-screen-homeobox protein 1; P-CREB, phosphorylated cAMP-response element-binding protein; PKA-C, catalytic subunits of protein kinaseA; PKA-R, regulatory subunits of protein kinase A; PRKAR1A, protein kinase cAMP-dependent regulatory type 1a(a specific PKA-R). Adapted from (Frohman and Kineman, 2002a).

## B. Growth Hormone Deficiency

Abnormal structure of the GH molecule or gene deletion as well as mutations in GHRH or GHRHR can lead to conditions such as isolated growth hormone deficiency (IGHD)(Alatzoglou and Dattani, 2010; Illig et al., 1971; Molina et al., 2003; Phillips et al., 1981) or GHR mutations lead to primary GH insensitivity (such as Laron Syndrome, a severe growth hormone-resistant short stature condition transmitted as an autosomal recessive trait) (Laron et al., 1966).

IGHD is the most common pituitary hormone deficiency resulting from congenital or acquired causes. The reported incidence of congenital IGHD is approximately 1 in 4,000–10,000 live births (Mullis, 2005). The known genes that are involved in the genetic etiology of IGHD include those encoding for GH (specifically *GH1*, the gene encoding GH), GHRHR, and transcription factor SOX3 (Laumonnier et al., 2002) and HESX1 (Thomas et al., 2001). There are four types of familial IGHD (Table 1-8, p.65): autosomal recessive (type

## 1. Introduction

IA and IB), autosomal dominant (type II) and X-linked recessive (type III) (Procter et al., 1998). Mutations in *GHI* result from autosomal recessive (type 1A or type 1B) or dominant inheritance (type II). Mutations in *GHRHR*, resulting from autosomal recessive inheritance (type II), were first implicated in the etiology of IGHD in the spontaneous dwarf mouse model, known as the '*little mouse*'. The phenotype stems from a homozygous missense mutation (Asp60Gly) in the extracellular domain of the receptor gene (Gaylinn et al., 1999). Anterior pituitary development is not affected in the '*little mouse*', however the pituitary is hypoplastic and contains fewer than 10% of the expected number of somatotropes as well as other pituitary cells. The examination of this mouse model led to the finding that signaling via *GHRHR* is essential for the proliferation of the somatotrope lineage. Approximately 10% of patients with familial IGHD have mutations within the *GHRHR* (Salvatori et al., 2001). Children with *GHRHR* mutations often present with severe GH deficiency and short stature. However, they rarely present with neonatal hypoglycemia and micropallus, as seen in patients with *GHI* mutations. The reasons for this discrepancy remain undetermined, although it may likely reflect the degree of GH deficiency seen in these patients.

## V. GENERATION OF NOVEL MICE BY ENU MUTAGENESIS

Traditional methods of generating animal mutants have involved the use of controlled exposure to mutagenic chemicals, notably ethyl nitrosurea (ENU), ethyl methylsulfonate or high doses of X-rays as well as more specific gene targeting (Strachan and Read, 1999). Recently, there have been numerous large-scale mutagenesis screens on mice (Aigner et al., 2008; Bokryeon et al., 2009; Boles et al., 2009; Bradeen et al., 2006; Hagge-Greenberg et al., 2001; Kermany et al., 2006; Pawlak et al., 2008; Rathkolb et al., 2000; Reijmers et al., 2006; Rolinski et al., 2000; Soewarto et al., 2000). It is no surprise that mice have been the most widely used animal models of human disease. Mice can be maintained in breeding colonies at reasonable costs. They have a relatively short lifespan (~2-3 years) and generation time (~3 months; the average female mouse can produce four to eight litters of six to eight pups). Due to their ease of breeding, complex-breeding programs, such as those involving large-scale mutagenesis screens, can be organized for the production of recombinant inbred strains and congenic strains. Thus, the genetics of the laboratory mouse has been extensively studied for decades, and, not surprisingly, the phenotype of many mutants has been documented. The identification of these phenotypes has been made possible with the use of backcross methods and the availability of numerous polymorphic markers. Importantly, many of the mutations in mice show conservation with humans and have been well documented. This information has proven



## 1. Introduction

to be extremely useful in identifying genuinely homologous single gene disorders in mouse and human.

Chapter 4 of this work examines a novel recessive dwarf mouse generated by ENU mutagenesis. The generation of these mice is detailed in Materials and Methods Chapter 2II.B.2 Dwarf Mouse Line Generated by ENU Mutagenesis, p.74.

### **Table 1-8 Isolated growth hormone deficiencies associated with severe short stature**

hGH, human growth hormone; IGHD, isolated growth hormone deficiency; MRI, magnetic resonance imaging. Modified and adapted from (Pescovitz and Eugster, 2004)

**NOTE:**

This table is included on page 65 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

## VI. HYPOTHESIS, AIMS AND SIGNIFICANCE

### A. *Project 1: Identification of Sox3 Target Genes*

While the role of Sox3 during brain development has been extensively studied, the target genes of Sox3 remain unidentified. Hence, the first goal of this project was to identify potential direct/indirect target genes, and to focus in on the HP axis. It was hypothesized that comparisons between the three mouse lines would provide one, if not many, potential direct/indirect target genes identified by whether their expression was up- or down-regulated in the initial microarray investigation and subsequent validation experiments. Thus, the aim of the study was to examine the gene expression profiles associated with Sox3-deletion and Sox3-overexpression using cDNA microarray. Genes differentially expressed were predicted to have biological activity influencing differentiation, survival and proliferation. Furthermore, changes associated with a loss-of-function and gain-of-function of Sox3 may contribute to a better understanding of other important genes, currently not known, involved in X-linked hypopituitarism and/or X-linked mental retardation.

### B. *Project 2: Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis*

Growth-retarded mice present an invaluable model to elucidate the molecular mechanisms involved in regulating growth, body size, and the genetic influences thereon. There have been many growth-retarded mouse models generated from spontaneous genetic dwarfism mutations. These mutant models have provided a useful system with which to elucidate the mechanisms of GH regulation and transcription factor interplay. However, dwarfism is not limited to disorders affecting genes of the pituitary gland (e.g. *GH1*) and hypothalamus (*GHRHR*). This study identified and further examined a novel recessive ENU mouse mutant, called *Tukku*, exhibiting HP axis dysfunction resulting in dwarfism, pituitary hypoplasia and GH as well as GHRH deficiency. The mutation was identified as a leucine to proline substitution (L30P) in tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (*Wars*), a member of the aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase enzyme family that link amino acids to their specific tRNAs. The overall aim of this study was to characterize the primary pathology of the dwarfism phenotype, focusing specifically on the somatic-growth axis, to understand the function of the mutation in regulating the HP axis (*Aim 1*); confirm the mutation by sequencing (*Aim 2*); and examine the expression of the mutant protein, specifically focusing on the HP axis (*Aim 3*)

## 2 Materials and Methods

### I. BUFFERS AND SOLUTIONS

#### A. Commercially Obtained

##### 1. *Compounds, buffers and solutions*

**Table 2-1 Compounds, buffers and solutions**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Supplier</b>
Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA)	Sigma Aldrich
DEPC H <sub>2</sub> O	Invitrogen
Agarose (DNA Grade)	Progen Biosciences
Chloroform	Sigma Aldrich
Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl alcohol	Sigma Aldrich
Trizol	Invitrogen
Formaldehyde Solution (40%)	AnalaR (MERCK Pty Ltd)
Tween 20 Solution (10%)	Bio-Rad Laboratories (Hercules, CA)

##### 2. *Histology*

The following solutions were prepared by Nadia Gagliardi, Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia: Haematoxylin, Eosin, Cresyl, and Masson Trichome.

## 3. Indicators, antibodies and enzymes

**Table 2-2 Indicators and antibodies**

Name	Supplier
5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate, BCIP	Roche
Digoxenin-11-UTP	Roche
4-nitroblue tetrazolium chloride, NBT	Roche
Anti-digoxigenin-AP, Fab fragments	Roche

**Table 2-3 Antibodies used in the detection of proteins by immunofluorescence analysis**

Name	Type	Source	Dilution	Reference
GFP	Goat polyclonal	Rockland	1:400	(Sutton et al., 2011)
Ngn3	Mouse monoclonal	Dr. Michael German, Diabetes Center, University of California, San Francisco, USA.	1:1000	(Lee et al., 2001)
PECAM (CD-31)	Rat polyclonal	Santa Cruz	1:100	(Sutton et al., 2011)
Sox3	Goat polyclonal	R&D	1:100	(Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2007; Sutton et al., 2011)
Wars	Mouse monoclonal; raised against the human N-terminus of residues 50-150	Abcam	1:1000	-
VE-Cadherin (CD-144)	Goat polyclonal	R&D	1:500	(Huber et al., 2002)

**Table 2-4 Secondary fluorescence antibodies used in the detection of proteins by immunofluorescence.**

When more than one type is listed, this indicates that, depending on the combinations of primary antibodies used, species-appropriate combinations of secondary sera were used.

Name	Type	Source	Dilution
Alexa-488	Donkey anti-Goat	Invitrogen	1:400
Cyanine-3	Donkey anti-Rabbit, -Mouse and -Goat	JacksonImmunoResearch	1:400
Cyanine-5	Donkey anti-Rabbit, -Mouse and -Goat	JacksonImmunoResearch	1:400
Prolong Gold Antifade Mounting Medium with DAPI	-	Invitrogen	-

**Table 2-5 Enzymes**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Supplier</b>
Proteinase K	Sigma Aldrich
Restriction endonucleases	New England Biolabs
SP6 RNA Polymerase	Roche
T4 Polynucleotide Kinase, 3' phosphatase free	Roche
T4 DNA Ligase	Roche
T4 DNA Polymerase	New England Biolabs
T7 RNA Polymerase	Roche
Taq DNA Polymerase, Recombinant	Invitrogen
ABI Prism™ Dye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Ready Reaction Mix	Perkin-Elmer

#### 4. *Specialty kits*

**Table 2-6 Specialty kits**

<b>Name</b>	<b>Supplier</b>
Applied Biosystems RNA to cDNA	Applied Biosystems
BCA Protein Assay	Pierce
FAST SYBR	Applied Biosystems
High Pure PCR Preparation Kit	Roche
MasterAmp™ PCR Optimization Kit (without ammonium sulfate)	Epicentre Biotechnologies
pGem®-T Vector System I	Promega
QIAquick PCR Purification Kit	QIAGEN
QIAGEN® Plasmid Midi Kit	QIAGEN
QIAshredder™	QIAGEN
Rat/Mouse Growth Hormone ELISA Kit (Cat. EZRMGH-45K)	Millipore
RNeasy® Mini Kit	QIAGEN
RNeasy® Plus Mini Kit	QIAGEN
Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Extraction Kit	Zymo Research

#### 5. *Preparation of DNA oligonucleotides*

DNA oligonucleotides were synthesized and purified by Geneworks Pty Ltd (Thebarton, South Australia, Australia). Oligonucleotides were designed using Primer3 (<http://frodo.wi.mite.edu/primer3/>) (Rozen and Skaletsky, 2000) and were analyzed using NetPrimer (<http://www.premiersoft.com/netprimer/>). NetPrimer, a free web tool, allows for the analysis of oligonucleotide secondary structures including hairpins, self-dimers, and cross-dimers, ensuring the availability of the oligonucleotide for the reaction as well as minimizing primer-dimer formation. Gene-specific primer pairs used in qPCR experiments were designed to cross intron-exon boundaries.

## 2. Materials and Methods

**Table 2-7 PCR primers for genotyping *Sox3*-null mice**

Sequence is in the 5' → 3' direction. Abbreviations: m, mouse; F, forward primer; R, reverse primer. In parenthesis is the primer reference number for the lab.

Primer Name	Sequence
mSryF1 F (288)	CAC TGG CCT TTT CTC CTA CC
mSryR1 R (289)	CAT GGC ATG CTG TAT TGA CC
EGFP F (238)	ATG GTG AGC AAG GGC GAG GAG CTG TT
EGFP R (239)	CTG GGT GCT CAG GTA GTG GTT GTC
<i>Gapdh</i> F (234)	CTT GCT CAG TGT CCT TGC TG
<i>Gapdh</i> R (235)	ACC CAG AAG ACT GTG GAT GG

**Table 2-8 PCR primers for genotyping *Sox3* transgenic and GFP reporter mice**

Sequence is in the 5' → 3' direction. Abbreviations: m, mouse; F, forward primer; R, reverse primer. In parenthesis is the primer reference number for the lab.

Primer Name	Sequence
mTgSox3 F Primer (342)	CTG GGT TAG AGA GCA GCA TCC
mTgSox3 R Primer (343)	GAG TGT TGG AGG GGG TTG AG
NSXRch10WT R Primer (347)	GTC CTA CTC CCT CAA CAC CTG TC
mSryF1 F (288)	CAC TGG CCT TTT CTC CTA CC
mSryR1 R (289)	CAT GGC ATG CTG TAT TGA CC

**Table 2-9 PCR primers for genotyping the dwarf mouse line**

Sequence is in the 5' → 3' direction. F, forward primer; R, reverse primer. In parenthesis is the primer reference number.

Primer Name	Sequence 5' → 3'
D12Mit7_F (632)	CCG GGG ATC TAA AAC TAC AT
D12Mit7_R (633)	TCT AAT CTC AGC CCA ATG GT
D12Mit79_F (634)	GAG GGA TGG ATG CAA TAG TCA
D12Mit79_R (635)	AAT CCA GCA TCT GAT TAA ACT CC

**Table 2-10 qPCR primers used for the validation of microarray results (Project 1)**

Sequence is in the 5' → 3' direction. F, forward primer; R, reverse primer.

Gene	Forward Primer (F) and Reverse Primer (R) in the 5' → 3' direction
<i>Nenf</i>	F: GGA TCC AGC AGA CCT CAC TC R: TGG CTT TGT ACA CCT TGC TG
<i>GAPDH</i>	F: ATG CCA GTG AGC TTC CCG TTC AGC R: ACC CAG AAG ACT GTG GAT GG
<i>Ngn3</i>	F: CCC CAG AGA CAC AAC AAC CT R: AGT CAC CCA CTT CTG CTT CG
<i>Sox3</i>	F: GAA CGC ATC AGG TGA GAG AAG R: GTC GGA GTG GTG CTC AGG
<i>Sfrp1</i>	F: AGT TGA AGT CAG AGG CCA TCA R: CCA GCT TCA AGG GTT TCT TCT
<i>Nfya</i>	F: ACA CAA CCA GCA GTG GAC AA R: CCA TCA TGA CCA TTC CTC CT

**Table 2-11 qPCR primers used for analyzing *Ghrh* and *Sst* in dwarf mouse hypothalamic extracts (Project 2)**

Sequence is in the 5' → 3' direction. F, forward primer; R, reverse primer.

Gene	Forward Primer (F) and Reverse Primer (R) in the 5' → 3' direction
<i>Ghrh</i>	F: CTGTATGCCCCGAAAGTGAT R: AAGGCTTCATCCTTGGGAAT
<i>Sst</i>	F:CCCCAGACTCCGTCAGTTT R: CCTCATCTCGTCCTGCTCA

**B. Laboratory Prepared Buffers and Solutions****Table 2-12 Laboratory prepared general buffers and solutions**

Name	Ingredients	Use
1xGlycine-Tris-HCl-SDS	192mM Glycine, 25mM Tris-HCl, 0.1% SDS	western blots
Agarose gel loading dye (6X)	30% glycerol, 0.2% (w/v) bromophenol blue, 0.2%(w/v) xylene cyanol	PCR
Coomassie Blue	8% ammonium sulphate, 1.6% phosphoric acid, 0.08% CBB G-250 and 20% methanol	SDS-PAGE
Embryo Lysis Buffer	50mM KCl, 10mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.3), 2mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , 0.1mg/mL Gelatin, 0.45% Nonident P40, 0.045% Tween 20	protein extraction
Formaldehyde (4%)	4% formaldehyde (diluted from 40%) in 1× PBS	Tissue fixative
Gel drying solution	35% ethanol, 5% glycerol	SDS-PAGE
Gel fixative solution	40% ethanol, 10% acetic acid	SDS-PAGE
Hybridization buffer	50% formamide (deionised), 5× SSC, 2% Blocking Reagent (Boehringer Mannheim), 0.1% Tween-20, 0.5%	<i>in situ</i> hybridization
lysis buffer (embryonic yolk-sac/tail)	1M Tris; 0.5M EDTA; 5M Extra-Sox3; 10% SDS	Phenol:Chloroform extraction
No-EDTA whole-extract cell lysis buffer	420mM NaCl, 25% glycerol, 0.5% NP-40, 1.5mM MgCl, 20mM Hepes (pH7.5)	protein expression
PBST	1× PBS, 0.1% Tween 20	various
Phosphate Buffered Saline (PBS)	30mM NaCl, 2.5mM KCl, 10mM Na <sub>2</sub> HPO <sub>4</sub> , 30mM NaH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , HCl to pH 7.4	various
SDS loading buffer (2x)	62.5mM Tris-HCl pH 7.0, 4% SDS, 15% Glycerol, 0.02% Bromophenol Blue	SDS-PAGE
Sodium Citrate Buffer	0.1% (w/v) sodium citrate, 0.1% Triton X-100, 1× PBS	various
TBE (20X)	1.8 M Tris, 1.8 M boric acid, 0.05 M EDTA, pH 8.3	various
Western blot transfer buffer	192mM Glycine, 25mM Tris-HCl, 15% Methanol	western blots

## II. MOUSE BREEDING AND LINES

### A. Maintenance and Breeding

#### 1. General maintenance

All mice used in this study were bred at the University of Adelaide Laboratory Animal Services. All procedures were approved by the University of Adelaide Animal Ethics Committee and conformed to *Australian Code of Practice for the Care and Use of Animals for Scientific Purposes* guidelines (National Health and Medical Research Council, 2004). Mice were housed in groups of two to six, with autoclaved, white pine shavings as bedding, under 12-hour light/12-hour dark photoperiods (lights on at 0600 h), with *ad libitum* access to water and food. The University of Adelaide Laboratory Animal Services performed general maintenance of the colonies in addition to obtaining tail snip samples for genotyping.

#### 2. Timed matings

Females (one and/or two; no more than two) were housed with the designated male in one cage overnight for approximately 16-h. The presence of a vaginal copulation plug was taken as evidence of mating, and noon of the day of discovery was defined as 0.5 days post coitum (dpc) was defined as noon of the day of discovery. The University of Adelaide Laboratory Animal Services performed checking of copulation plugs.

### B. Mouse Lines

#### 1. *Sox3* transgenic lines

To gain insight into the development of the HP axis in XH, three mouse models, previously generated, were used: (1) lacking *Sox3* (*Sox3*-null) (Rizzoti et al., 2004), (2) over expressing *Sox3* (Extra-*Sox3*) (Sutton et al., 2011) and (3) normal levels of *Sox3* (Green-*Sox3*) (unpublished mouse line, P. Thomas). Each line was generated using enhanced-green fluorescent (eGFP) protein or an internal ribosome entry site-enhanced-GFP (IRES-eGFP) reporter cassette (described below). The use of GFP in mouse molecular genetics and generation of transgenic mouse models has become an extremely versatile tool for tracking and quantifying biological entities as well as in high-throughput screening and gene discovery. GFPs have been identified in a wide range of coelenterates, and, while recently the number of cloned GFPs has expanded, to date the best-characterized proteins are those from the jellyfish *Aequorea victoria* and the anthozoan *Renilla reniformis*.



## 2. Materials and Methods

### *a. Sox3-null*

The *Sox3*-null mouse line was generated using homologous recombination in embryonic stem cells (Rizzoti et al., 2004). Briefly, the *Sox3* ORF was replaced with a marker gene encoding enhanced eGFP protein downstream. This allowed the expression of eGFP to be driven by *Sox3* regulatory sequences. *Sox3*-null mice exhibit a range of phenotypes, as described in Chapter 1.II.C The Role of *Sox3* in Hypothalamo-Pituitary Axis Development (p.56).

### *b. Extra-Sox3*

The Extra-*Sox3* mouse line was generated using BAC-recombineering. Briefly, these mice were generated by pronuclear injection, using a modified 36kb *Sox3* genomic fragment containing all of the known regulatory elements required for *Sox3* expression (Brunelli et al., 2003). To enable detection of the transgene, an IRES-eGFP reporter cassette was inserted into the 3' untranslated region (3'UTR) of *Sox3* using homologous recombination. The transgene construct was derived from a modified BAC clone (RP23-174O19) containing IRES-eGFP reporter cassette. Interestingly, one mouse phenotype, with XX male sex-reversal was identified (Sutton et al., 2011). Only mice that *did not* show XX male sex-reversal were used in this body of work. Extra-*Sox3* mice exhibit specific developmental defects in forebrain structures that resemble XH patients. Extra-*Sox3* embryos exhibit live-GFP signal in the CNS in a *Sox3* pattern. However, it is not yet clear how much *Sox3* is generated in these embryos.

### *c. Sox3-GFP reporter (Green-Sox3)*

A *Sox3*-eGFP reporter transgenic mouse line expressing normal levels of *Sox3* (Green-*Sox3*) were generated (by A/Prof Paul Thomas) from a modified BAC in which the *Sox3* ORF was replaced with the eGFP coding sequence. A 36kb fragment, which contains identical regulatory sequences that were used to generate the Extra-*Sox3* mice, was microinjected to generate transgenic founders. These mice express normal levels of *Sox3* in eGFP cells and were generated to serve as a wild-type controls for gene profiling (by microarray) and related experiments.

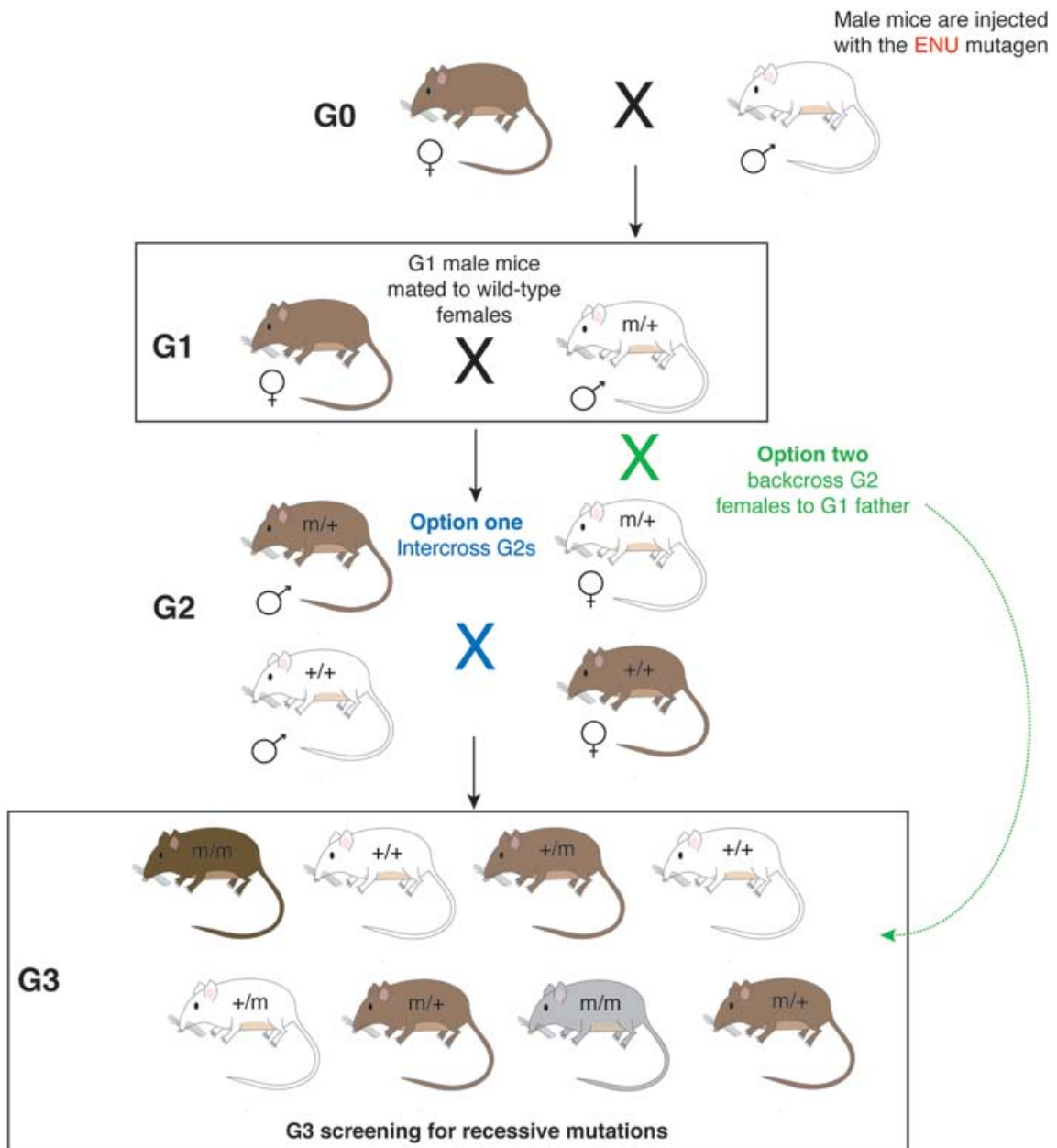
In all mice the insertion of the eGFP reporter enables detection of transgene expression by epifluorescence microscopy and in a pattern consistent with that of *Sox3*. Schematic representation of the *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and *Sox3*-GFP (Green-*Sox3* reporter) constructs is shown in Figure 3-1 (p.106) of Chapter 3 Identification of *Sox3* Target Genes.

**2. Dwarf Mouse Line Generated by ENU Mutagenesis**

Dwarf mice were generated at The Australian Phenomics Centre (APC, Australian National University, Canberra, Australia) using N-ethyl-N-nitrosurea (ENU) mutagenesis. It is worth noting that the breeding schemes used in generating ENU mutations vary according to the allelic characteristics required (that is, whether screening for dominant or recessive mutations) and the strains required for subsequent gene mapping (Acevedo-Arozena et al., 2008). For dominant mutations, ENU-treated males (G0) are crossed with wild-type females to produce G1 individuals that are then assayed for the dominant mutation (Acevedo-Arozena et al., 2008). For recessive mutations, pedigrees are bred by intercrossing the offspring of a G1 individual (G2) or crossing them back to the original G1, thus making homozygous mutations in a proportion of G3 offspring (Figure 2-1, p.75).

Briefly, the generation of dwarf mice involved, a single 250-mg/kg dose of ENU (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) that was injected intravenously into 8-week-old male C57BL/6 mice. Mice were returned to their cages, for approximately 4 weeks to recover and then crossed to untreated C57BL/6 females. G1 mice were screened for obvious external abnormalities. Animals with a phenotype of interest, in this case, animals that were dwarf, were mated to wild-type C57BL/6 mice.

## 2. Materials and Methods



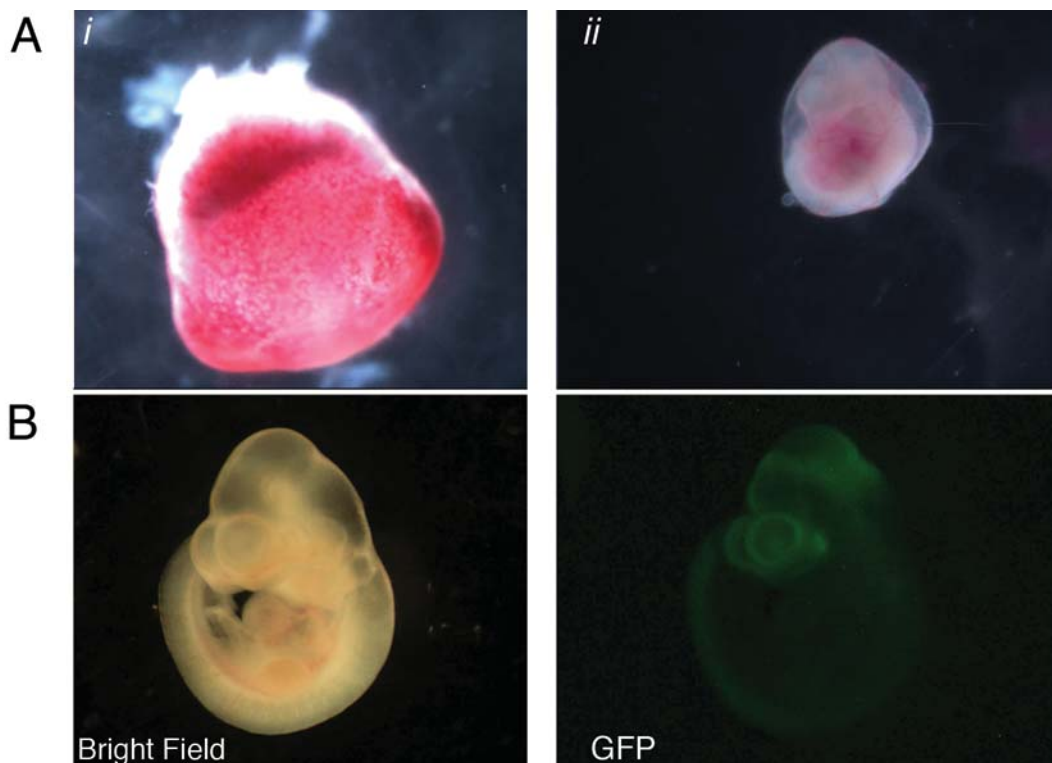
**Figure 2-1 Strategy of ENU breeding for screening recessive pedigrees**

Male mice are treated with N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU) and after a period of sterility are mated to wild-type (+/+) females. G1 male mice, heterozygous for N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU)-induced mutations (m/+), are mated to wild-type females. Their offspring (G2) are then either intercrossed or mated back to the original G1. Recessive (+/m) and dominant (m/+) mutations can then be detected in the resultant G3 progeny. Coat colors are shown as different to emphasize what the mutagenized strain and the wild-type females should be from different inbred strains so that G3 mice can be used for mapping purposes.

### III. EMBRYO AND TISSUE COLLECTION

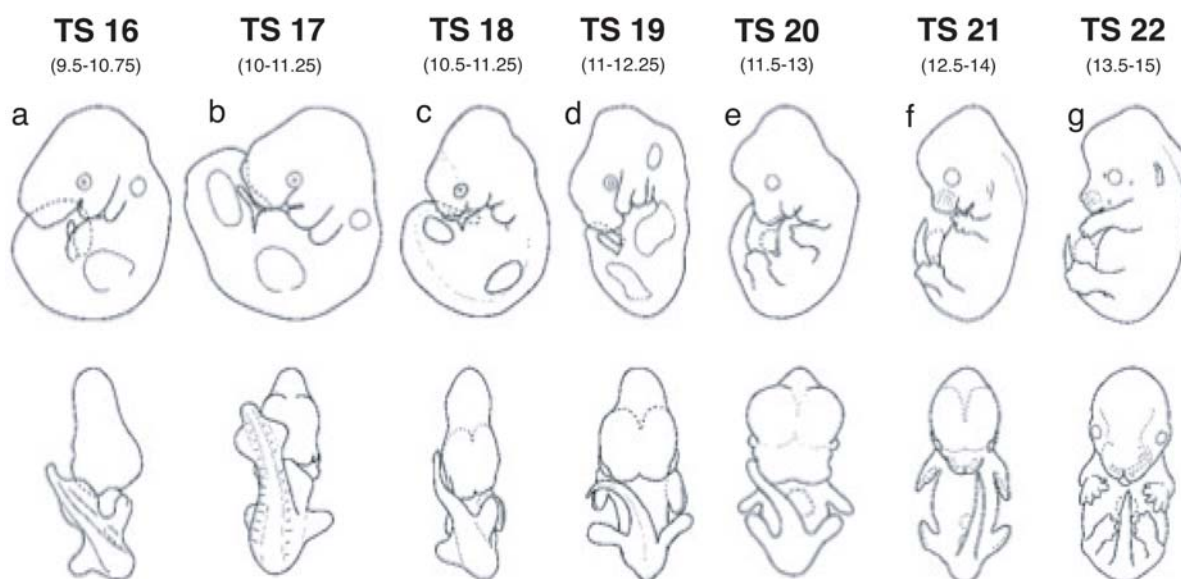
#### A. Embryo Collection

Pregnant females were dissected at various developmental time points (as discussed in results of each chapter). Embryos were dissected free of maternal decidual tissue and studied under a dissection microscope (Nikon SMZ1000 GFP Dissection Microscope, Nikon, Japan) attached to an Olympus DP70 Camera (Olympus, Japan) with a short-wave U, which excites eGFP at 485/20 nm. For embryos collected from the Sox3 mouse lines, one application of eGFP fluorescence was to determine the extent of expression; this was in addition to confirmation of genotype by PCR. Embryos were photographed for documentation under both the bright light exposure and eGFP fluorescence (Figure 2-2, below). Mouse embryos were staged according to somite numbers (Figure 2-3, p. 77), although some variation was observed in developmental stage both between and within litters at the given embryonic ages.



**Figure 2-2 Embryo dissection at 10.5 dpc showing live GFP in Sox3-null embryos**

(A) Representative image of a dissected embryonic pod (i) at 10.5 dpc and the yolk sac, containing a mouse embryo (ii), dissected from the pod shown in (i). (B) Bright field and live-GFP images of the Sox3-null embryo dissected and shown in A.



**Figure 2-3 Theiler staging of mouse embryos between 9 – 15 dpc**

(a) Posterior neuropore closes, Formation of hind limb & tail buds, lens plate, Rathke's pouch; the indented nasal processes start to form 30-34 somites. Absent thin & long tail. (b) Deep lens indentation, advanced development of brain tube, tail elongates and thins, umbilical hernia starts to form 35-39 somites. Absent nasal pits. (c) Closure of lens vesicle, nasal pits, cervical somites no longer visible 40-44 somites. Absent auditory hillocks, anterior footplate. (d) Lens vesicle completely separated from the surface epithelium. Anterior, but no posterior, footplate. Auditory hillocks first visible 45-47 somites. Absent retinal pigmentation and sign of fingers (e) Earliest sign of fingers (splayed-out), posterior footplate apparent, retina pigmentation apparent, tongue well-defined, brain vesicles clear 48-51 somites. Absent 5 rows of whiskers, indented anterior footplate. (f) Anterior footplate indented, elbow and wrist identifiable, 5 rows of whiskers, umbilical hernia now clearly apparent 52-55 somites. Absent hair follicles, fingers separate distally. (g) Fingers separate distally, only indentations between digits of the posterior footplate, long bones of limbs present, hair follicles in pectoral, pelvic and trunk region 56-~60 somites. Absent open eyelids, hair follicles in cephalic region. For full descriptions of Theiler staging and mouse anatomy visit <http://genex.hgu.mrc.ac.uk/Atlas/intro.html>

## B. Tissue Collection and Processing

### 1. RNA processing of mouse embryonic 10.5 dpc mouse heads used in microarray analysis

Pregnant female mice were culled by cervical dislocation at 10.5 dpc. Embryos were dissected free from decidual tissue in cold RNAase-free PBS. Heads dissected at the 2<sup>nd</sup> branchial arch and immediately placed into RNeasy Solution (Qiagen, CA, USA) and stored at -80C until ready to extract RNA. A small section of the embryonic tail tip was removed from each embryo for genotyping.

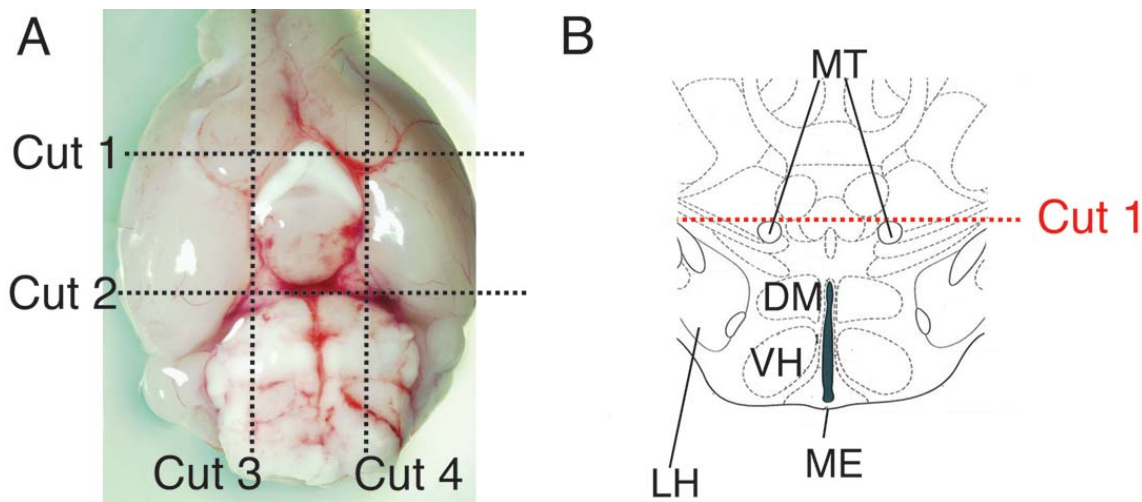
Total RNA was isolated using the RNeasy Protect Cell Mini Kit (Qiagen, CA, USA) following manufacturer instructions. Whole heads were briefly disrupted using sonication (5 seconds, 50kHz) in order to produce suspensions without aggregates, and then homogenized using QIAshredder columns (Qiagen, CA, USA) to reduce viscosity

## 2. Materials and Methods

caused by high-molecular-weight cellular components and cell debris. Purified total RNA was resuspended in 50µL of RNAase-free water. A maximum of 12 extractions were done at any one time to minimize loss of RNA quality. Determination of RNA integrity and concentration are described in Section XIV.B Analysis of RNA Quality, p.93.

### 2. RNA processing of hypothalamic sections used in mRNA expression analysis by qPCR

Hypothalamic regions were dissected (as shown in Figure 2-4) and explants were processed using Trizol™ (Invitrogen, CA, USA) as per manufacturer's instructions. The Trizol™ method of RNA extraction is better suited for extracting RNA from large tissue samples, such as brain.



**Figure 2-4 Schematic representation of hypothalamic dissection in 8-week old mice**

(A) Ventral view of a wild-type mouse brain, showing the hypothalamic (Hyp) region and the optic chiasm (OCh). Dotted lines indicate the dissection path. (B) Coronal view through the region cut in A by Cut 1. To completely isolate the hypothalamic region a further three cuts were made (indicated by red dotted lines). Abbreviations: MT, mammillothalamic tract; DM, dorsomedial hypothalamic nuclei; VH, ventromedial hypothalamic nuclei; LH, lateral hypothalamic nuclei.

Briefly, once RNA was extracted, 50ng of each sample was reverse transcribed using the High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA kit (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA). qPCR was performed using Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA) and run on an ABI 7500 StepOnePlus System (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA).

### 3. Isolation of protein from whole pituitaries for GH analysis

Whole pituitaries were dissected from dwarf and wild-type animals, placed in microfuge tubes and snap frozen in dry ice (dry ice slurry made with isopentane and dry ice in a metal container). Samples were stored at -80C until ready for processing.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Protein extraction commenced with the addition of 100µl lysis buffer (No-EDTA whole-extract cell lysis buffer: 420mM NaCl; 25% Glycerol; 0.5% NP-40; 1.5mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 20mM Hepes pH 7.5; H<sub>2</sub>O) containing 15µl protease inhibitor cocktail (Protease Cocktail Inhibitors, Mini Protease Inhibitor Cocktail, Roche, CA, USA; Roche Cat No. 11 836 153 001). Pituitaries were sonicated in lysis buffer for 30 seconds then incubate on ice for 30 minutes. Pituitaries were then incubated at 4C on a nutator mixer<sup>3</sup> for 2 hours and then centrifuged (4C max speed) for 15 minutes. The supernatant was collected and protein concentration was determined using BCA™ Protein Assay (Pierce, Rockford, IL, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol and using bovine serum albumin as the standard.

### 4. Fixation and Tissue Preparation

#### a. Frozen Sections

Embryonic tissues (embryos from the *Sox3* transgenic and null mouse lines as well as pituitaries from dwarf and wild-type animals) were collected at the indicated stages and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 0.1M) at 4C overnight (for sectioning). Following overnight incubation tissue samples were washed 3 times for 10 minutes each in PBS (0.1M) to remove residual 4% PFA and then cryoprotected in 30% sucrose (made in 0.1M PBS) at 4C. Tissue samples were embedded in OCT (Tissue-Tek, Sakura Finetek, The Netherlands) and snap frozen in isopentane (Prolabo, Barcelona, Spain) cooled by dry ice. Embedded embryos were cut in serial sections (10-12µm; sagittal and/or coronal) using a Leica CM1900 Cryostat (Leica, Germany). Sections were mounted onto Superfrost Plus Slides (Menzel-Glaser, Braunschweig, Germany).

#### b. Paraffin Sections

Brain, ovary and testis tissue from dwarf and wild-type mice were processed into paraffin according to standard processing procedures (Bancroft and Gamble, 2007) by Nadia Gagliardi, Histology Services, School of Medical Science, University of Adelaide. Sections were mounted onto Superfrost Plus Slides (Menzel-Glaser, Braunschweig, Germany).

### C. Preparation of Tail Tip Genomic DNA for PCR Genotyping

Genomic DNA (gDNA) from embryonic and adult mouse was isolated from tail tips (approximately 2mm; obtained at time of weaning or at embryo dissection) using the traditional phenol/chloroform method (Sambrook and Russell, 2001) or using the High

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<sup>3</sup> a gentle three dimensional rotating, rocking mixer which is at a constant 20° angle @ 24rpms.

## 2. Materials and Methods

Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany). The High Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit provided a less toxic and laborious method for the extraction of gDNA from adult mouse and embryonic tail tip. The protocol followed manufacturer specifications.

The traditional phenol/chloroform method used digested mouse-tail samples overnight (approximately 16-h at 55C) in lysis buffer (1M Tris; 0.5M EDTA; 5M Extra-Sox3; 10% SDS) and Proteinase K (5mg/ml). The following day the digest mix was centrifuged (14,000rpm; 5 minutes) to spin down undigested mouse tail-hair and other debris. The supernatant was transferred into a new microfuge tube to which Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl alcohol (1:1:1 ratio; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) was added. The digest mix was vortexed and spun (14,000rpm; 2 minutes). The top layer was transferred to a new tube and an equal volume of chloroform (approximately 180µl) was added. Again, the mix was vortexed and centrifuged (14,000rpm; 2 minutes). The top layer was transferred to a new tube and an equal volume of 100% isopropanol was added. Entire mix was vortexed and centrifuged (4C; 14,000rpm; 20 minutes). The supernatant was removed and 150µL 70% ethanol was added, followed by another vortexing and centrifugation at 4C 14,000rpm for 10 minutes). The final step involved removing the supernatant and air-drying the DNA pellet for 5-10 minutes. DNA was resuspended in 200µL of deionised H<sub>2</sub>O.

## IV. PCR GENOTYPING

PCR genotyping was carried out using the s1000 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA).

### A. *Sox3* Transgenic Lines

The genotyping of *Sox3* transgenic mouse lines involved a multiplex PCR assay using 2 X MasterAmp Premix buffer (Epicentre® Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) and Taq DNA Polymerase, Recombinant (Invitrogen, CA, USA). Standard reaction conditions were 50ng each primer, 2U Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen, CA, USA) and up to 10ng template DNA in a 20µl reaction. The 2 X MasterAmp Premix buffers (Epicentre® Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) were Buffer J (Epicentre® Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) for use in PCR assays for *Sox3*-null, and D, Extra-*Sox3* and Green-*Sox3* reporter mice lines. DNA fragments were analyzed by electrophoresis on an ethidium bromide stained agarose gel (1-1.5%). Primer sets used for genotyping are shown



## 2. Materials and Methods

in Table 2-7 (p.70) and Table 2-8 (p.70). Cycling conditions are shown on the next page in Table 2-13.

**Table 2-13 PCR analysis cycling conditions for *Sox3* transgenic and null mouse lines**

Mouse Line	Cycle	Time
<i>Sox3-null</i>		
	Denaturation	30 seconds at 95°C
	Elongation/35 cycles	30 seconds at 95°C 1 minute at 60 °C 2 min at 72 °C
	Extension period	5 min at 72°C
	Hold	22°C
<i>Sox3-transgenic</i>		
	Denaturation	30 seconds at 95°C,
	Elongation/35 cycles	30 seconds at 95°C 1 minute at 60 °C 40 seconds at 72 °C
	Extension period	5 min at 72°C
	Hold	22°C
<i>Sox3-GFP Reporter</i>		
	Denaturation	30 seconds at 95°C,
	Elongation/35 cycles	30 seconds at 95°C 1 minute at 60 °C 40 seconds at 72 °C
	Extension period	5 min at 72°C
	Hold	22°C

### B. ENU Generated Dwarf Mice

The genotyping of the dwarf mouse line involved a multiplex PCR assay using 2 X MasterAmp Premix buffer (Epicentre® Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) and Taq DNA Polymerase, Recombinant (Invitrogen, CA, USA). Standard reaction conditions were 50ng each primer, 2U Taq DNA Polymerase (Invitrogen, CA, USA) and up to 10ng template DNA in a 20µl reaction. The 2 X MasterAmp Premix Buffer K (Epicentre® Biotechnologies, Madison, Wisconsin, USA) was used. Genotyping of the dwarf mice was done using microsatellite markers. Microsatellite marker primer pairs for the genome scan were designed by the Australian Phenomics Facility (APF; Canberra, ACT, Australia) and were purchased from GeneWorks Pty Ltd (Thebarton, South Australia, Australia).

Primer sets used for genotyping dwarf mice are shown in Table 2-9 (p.70). Cycling conditions are shown in the table below (Table 2-14).

**Table 2-14 PCR analysis cycling conditions for dwarf mouse lines.**

Step/Cycle Number	Time/Temperature
Denaturation	20 seconds at 94°C,
Elongation/35 cycles	20 seconds at 55°C 20 seconds at 72 °C
Extension period	3 min at 72°C
Hold	10°C

## V. MOUSE PHYSIOLOGICAL STUDIES

### A. Growth Analysis of Dwarf Mice

#### 1. Weight over time

##### a. Post-weaning

Mice from the dwarf colony (wild-type, homozygous and heterozygous) were weighed at weaning, between 21-29 days, by Laboratory Animal Services (The University of Adelaide, South Australia, Australia). Each mouse was then weighed again at postnatal day (P) 30 and every 10 days thereafter, until mice reached P130. A total of 5 mating pairs were set-up. These produced a sufficient number of mice per sex and genotype (Table 2-15).

**Table 2-15 Mouse numbers used in growth analysis over time**

Abbreviations: P, postnatal day; +/dw, heterozygous dwarf; dw/dw, homozygous dwarf.

Sex	Genotype	Total Numbers Started	Numbers of Mice (per date and used in statistical analysis)	Comments
Female	wild-type	4	4 mice per date	No deaths recorded
	+/dw	8	P30-P40, n=8 P50, n=7 P60 > n=6	1 death recorded after P50 and 1 death recorded after P40. This reduced the number for all proceeding dates.
	dw/dw	5	P30-P50, n=5 P60 > n=4	1 death recorded after P50 This reduced the number for all proceeding dates.
Male	wild-type	6	P30-120, n=6 P130, n=4	2 deaths recorded after P130 This reduced the number for all proceeding dates.
	+/dw	7	P30-P50, n=7 P60>, n=6	1 death recorded after P60 This reduced the number for all proceeding dates.
	dw/dw	7	P30-120, n=7 P130, n=6	1 death recorded after P130 This reduced the number for only this time point.

##### b. Pre-Weaning

To further examine the extent of dwarfism, mice were examined at P1, P7 and P14. For each time point 3 breeding pairs were set up and pups were collected on the specified days (Table 2-16, p.69). Pups were sacrificed by CO<sub>2</sub> inhalation and then photo-documented against a ruler (showing cm; to show relative growth). Tail tips were taken for genotyping.

**Table 2-16 Mouse numbers used in growth analysis at P1, P7 and P14**

Abbreviations: P, postnatal day; F, female; M, male; +/-dw, heterozygous dwarf; dw/dw, homozygous dwarf.

Genotype	Total Numbers		
	P1	P7	P14
wild-type	F: n=4 M: n=4	F: n=4 M: n=4	F: n=3 M: n=1
+/-dw	F: n=3 M: n=1	F: n=5 M: n=4	F: n=2 M: n=4
dw/dw	F: n=4 M: n=3	F: n=2 M: n=2	F: n=3 M: n=1

## 2. Body Length

Body length, the distance between the tip of the nose and the base of the tail, was measured (centimeters) in 8-week old wild-type (n=6) and homozygous dwarf (n=6) mice.

### B. Pituitary Growth Hormone Levels

To determine pituitary hormone level of GH, whole pituitaries were dissected, and processed for protein as described in Section III.B.3 Isolation of protein from whole pituitaries for GH analysis (p. 78). Pituitary GH levels were measured by the Rat/Mouse Growth Hormone ELISA Kit (Cat. EZRMGH-45K; Millipore, St. Charles, MO, USA) according to manufacturer protocol. This Rat/Mouse Growth Hormone ELISA kit is used for the non-radioactive quantification of GH in rat or mouse serum, plasma, tissue extracts or cell culture media samples. One kit is sufficient to measure 39 unknown samples in duplicate. Whole extract pituitary protein was measured for wild-type (male and female, n=4/sex), heterozygous (male and female, n=4/sex), and homozygous (male and female, n=4/sex) 8-week old mice. The ELISA assay was performed by Carlie DeLaine and Siti Hadzir (The University of Adelaide, Australia). Results were analyzed and graphed by Eva Szarek.

### C. Blood Biochemistry: Examining IGF-1 levels

Blood was collected from 8-week old wild-type, heterozygous and homozygous dwarf mice by cardiac puncture following cervical dislocation. These samples were from mice whose whole pituitaries were processed for protein used in the GH ELISA (described above). Due to IGF-1 kit limitation, samples from wild-type and homozygous dwarf males and females (n=3 per group) were analyzed.

Blood (approximately 100-300µl/cardiac puncture per mouse) was collected into microfuge tubes and stored on ice. Blood samples were centrifuged and the serum was

## 2. Materials and Methods

collected into new microfuge tubes and stored at -80C until processing. IGF-1 assay (performed by Siti Hadzir and Carlie Delaine (The University of Adelaide, Australia)) was performed using the mouse IGF-1 kit (Catalogue Number DY791; R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA) as per manufacturer's instructions.

### D. Expression of Hypothalamic GHRH and Sst by qPCR

To quantitate hypothalamic levels of *Ghrh* and *Sst*, hypothalami were surgically removed (as shown in Figure 2-4, p.78). *Ghrh* and *Sst* levels were measured in hypothalamic extracts by qPCR. The qPCR method is described in Section XVI (p.102).

### E. Statistical Analysis

Data were expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM, unless otherwise stated, for the indicated number of observations. Statistical significance of difference between groups was determined by using 2-tailed Student's t test or one-way ANOVA followed by appropriate post hoc tests.

## VI. PURIFICATION OF DNA FOR SEQUENCING

### A. Purification of DNA from Agarose Gels

DNA bands excised from agarose gels were purified using the Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA), according to the manufacturer's protocol.

### B. Sequencing

DNA was sequenced using the ABI PRISM® BigDye™ v3.1 Terminator Ready Reaction Cycle Sequencing Kit with AmpliTaq™ DNA polymerase, FS (Applied BioSystems). Typically a sequencing reaction contained 1 $\mu$ L of purified double-stranded template DNA, 50 ng/ $\mu$ l of primer, 1.5 $\mu$ L of BigDye v3.1 Terminator mix, 5 $\mu$ L Better Buffer and Milli-Q water up to a 20  $\mu$ L volume. Reactions were performed using the s1000 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA), with the following conditions: 35 cycles of 96C for 3 minutes, 96C for 10 seconds, 50C for 10 seconds, and 60C for 4 minutes. Afterwards, the samples were purified as follows. Products were precipitated for 15 minutes at room temperature (~22C), following the addition of 60 $\mu$ L of 100% isopropanol and 20 $\mu$ L MQ-H<sub>2</sub>O to each 20 $\mu$ L sequencing reaction. Precipitated DNA was pelleted by centrifugation for 5 minutes at 14,000 rpm and the supernatant was carefully removed by

pipetting. The pellet was washed by briefly vortexing in 200 $\mu$ L of 75% isopropanol. After 5 minutes of centrifugation at 14,000 rpm the supernatant was carefully removed, and the pellet was air-dried. Running of Dye Terminator gels was conducted by the Sequencing Centre at the Institute of Medical and Veterinary Science (Adelaide, Australia), and the output was returned as a Macintosh<sup>®</sup>-compatible chromatogram file that was then analyzed using freely available 4Peaks Software (Mek&Tosj, Amsterdam, The Netherlands) on the Mac OSX platform (<http://mekentosj.com/science/4peaks/>).

## VII. BACTERIAL TECHNIQUES

### A. Media and Solutions

All bacterial cell culture media (Table 2-17) as well as glassware was autoclaved (121C) prior to use and aseptic techniques were implemented to prevent contamination. Bacterial culture medium was prepared with distilled and deionised water. Where indicated, ampicillin was added from a sterile stock solution to the media after autoclaving. Bacteria were cultured in Luria Broth (LB) medium, supplemented with ampicillin (50 $\mu$ g/ml; D-(-)- $\alpha$ -Aminobenzylpenicillin sodium salt; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) to select for transformed populations. Bacterial cultivation was carried out at 37C overnight with constant agitation (225 rpm). Bacterial colonies were grown on Luria agar (L-agar) plates supplemented with ampicillin (50 $\mu$ g/ml).

**Table 2-17 Bacterial growth media composition**

Name	Composition
Luria broth (LB)	1% (w/v) bactotryptone; 0.5% yeast extract; 1% Extra-Sox3; pH 7.0; supplemented with ampicillin (100 $\mu$ g/mL)
Luria agar (L-agar) plates	LB; 1.5% (w/v) bactoagar supplemented with ampicillin (100 $\mu$ g/mL)
Super Optimal broth with Catabolite repression (SOC)	2% bactotryptone; 0.5% yeast extract; 10 mM Extra-Sox3; 2.5 mM KCl; 10 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> ; 10 mM MgSO <sub>4</sub> ; 20 mM glucose.

### B. Preparation of Chemically Competent *E.coli*

*Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) strain DH5 $\alpha$ <sup>®</sup> (Invitrogen Corp., CA, USA) cells were made chemically competent by the calcium chloride protocol, originally described by Cohen and colleagues (Cohen et al., 1972), and later modified by Sambrook and colleagues (Sambrook and Russell, 2001).

### C. Bacterial Transformation by Heat Shock

In general, transformation of *E. coli* with plasmid DNA was performed by heat shock, using chemically competent DH5 $\alpha$ <sup>®</sup> cells. DH5 $\alpha$ <sup>®</sup> chemically competent cells were

## 2. Materials and Methods

prepared as follows. All cells were stored in 50  $\mu$ l aliquots at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Transformation was carried out using chemically competent *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ \* cells (Invitrogen, CA, USA) by performing heat shock. Briefly, chemically competent *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ \* cells (Invitrogen, CA, USA) were thawed on ice (from  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). Plasmid DNA ( $\sim 50\text{ng}$ ) was directly added to 100 $\mu$ l of competent *E. coli* DH5 $\alpha$ \* (Invitrogen, CA, USA) cells and incubated on ice for 30 minutes. Bacteria were subsequently 'heat shocked' in a water bath at  $42^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 30 seconds, and then returned to ice for 2 minutes. Pre-warmed SOC medium (250 $\mu$ l) was added to the bacteria, which were incubated at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 1 hour with constant agitation (225 rpm). Aliquots of the transformed bacteria were plated (20-200 $\mu$ l) onto L-agar plates supplemented with ampicillin (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ ) (Boehringer Mannheim, Australia), to select for bacteria expressing the appropriate antibiotic marker. L-agar plates were incubated at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  overnight.

A single colony was selected from the L-agar plate and inoculated into 25ml of LB medium supplemented with ampicillin (50 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ ) (Boehringer Mannheim, Australia) and incubated at  $37^{\circ}\text{C}$  overnight with vigorous shaking (300 rpm). Bacterial cell cultures were grown to a cell density of approximately  $3\text{--}4 \times 10^9$  cells per ml. The bacteria cultured overnight were pelleted and used for purification of plasmid DNA, as outlined below.

### D. Purification of Plasmid DNA

The purification of plasmid DNA was carried out using the QIAfilter Plasmid Midi Kit (Qiagen, CA, USA). This method was used for the purification of DNA used for generating in situ hybridization probes. The procedure followed manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, overnight bacterial cultures were pelleted by centrifugation at  $6000\times g$  for 15 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  and re-suspended in 4ml of Buffer P1 (Qiagen, CA, USA). 4 ml of Buffer P2 (Qiagen, CA, USA) was added and mixed thoroughly by vigorously inverting the sealed tube 4-6 times. The reaction was incubated at room temperature ( $15\text{--}25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for 5 minute. Following the 5-minute incubation 4 ml of chilled ( $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) Buffer P3 (Qiagen, CA, USA) was added and the solution was mixed immediately and thoroughly by vigorously inverting the tube 4-6 times. The lysate was transferred immediately into the barrel of the QIAfilter Cartridge and incubated at room temperature ( $15\text{--}25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for 10 minutes. The lysate was filtered into a QIAGEN-tip 100 (Qiagen, CA, USA), previously equilibrated with 4ml of QBT Buffer (Qiagen, CA, USA), and allowed to enter the resin by gravity flow. The QIAGEN-tip 100 was washed in  $2 \times 10\text{ml}$  Buffer QC (Qiagen, CA, USA). DNA was eluted in 5ml Buffer QF (Qiagen, CA, USA). DNA was precipitated in 3.5ml room-temperature isopropanol and centrifuged at  $15,000\times g$  for 30 minutes at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The DNA pellet was washed in 2ml of 70% ethanol at room temperature and centrifuged at  $15,000\times g$  for 10 minutes at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The pellet

was air-dried for 10 minutes and re-suspended in 10mM tris-EDTA (TE) Buffer (pH 8.0) [10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 1 mM EDTA]. To quantify nucleic acid purity, concentration and yield of DNA obtained from this plasmid purification process, spectrophotometric analysis on individual samples was conducted using a spectrophotometer. In addition, the success of the plasmid purification procedure was confirmed on an analytical gel. Small aliquots were removed during the purification procedure from the following four steps: 1. The cleared lysate; 2. flow-through; 3. combined Buffer QC (Qiagen, CA, USA) wash fractions, and 4. Buffer QF (Qiagen, CA, USA) eluate. 2 $\mu$ l of each sample was run on a 2% agarose gel for analysis of fractions at each stage.

## VIII. FLUORESCENCE IMMUNOHISTOCHEMISTRY

The preparation of sections for immunohistochemistry is outline in Section 4 Fixation and Tissue Preparation (p.79).

Cryosections were washed in PBS + 0.1% Tween-20 (PBS-T), pre-blocked in 10% heat-inactivated sheep serum (HISS) in PBS-T and incubated overnight at 4C with primary antibody solutions made in 10% HISS in PBST in a humidified chamber. Following incubation, sections were washed in PBS, followed by incubation in a humidified chamber (air tight container containing wet paper towel) with secondary antibodies for 5-8 h at room temperature. Sections were mounted and examined using microscope. Refer to Table 2-3 (p.68) for a list of primary antibodies and Table 2-4 (p.68) for a list of secondary fluorescence antibodies used in the detections of proteins by immunofluorescence (immunostaining).

## IX. *IN SITU* HYBRIDIZATION

### A. Purification of Plasmid DNA by Restriction Enzymes

cDNA inserts were isolated from plasmid DNA by restriction enzymes (RE; New England Biolabs) in the appropriate buffers (New England Biolabs), as specified by the manufacturer. Plasmid DNA (4 $\mu$ g) was digested for 1 hour at 37C using the appropriate RE in a final solution of a 1x reaction buffer in 50 $\mu$ l. 100-200 ng of uncut and cut digest was separated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel using a 1x Tris Borate Electrophoresis buffer (TBE; pH 8.0). To the remaining ligation 50 $\mu$ l Milli-Q H<sub>2</sub>O was added followed by addition of 100 $\mu$ l Phenol:Chloroform:Isoamyl alcohol (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) vortexing and centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 2 min. The aqueous layer (top layer) was removed into a new microfuge tube and ethanol precipitated using 1/10 sodium acetate

(1/10 of the volume obtained from aqueous layer) plus 2 volumes ethanol (100%) (2 x volume of aqueous layer). The precipitate was frozen at -20C for 30 mins followed by centrifugation at 14,000 rpm for 15 min. The supernatant was removed and discarded. The remaining pellet was washed in 500µl 70% ethanol by centrifugation at 14,000 for 10 mins and resuspended in 10µl of MQ-H<sub>2</sub>O. The digest was run on a 1% agarose gel to visually confirm the digest had been successful.

## **B. Transcription Reaction and Generation of In Situ Hybridization Probes**

Digoxigenin (DIG)-labeled RNA probes were generated using T3, T7, or SP6 RNA polymerases and a DIG-RNA labeling mix (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany).

## **C. In Situ Hybridization**

Embryos were harvested (as described in which Section III.A Embryo Collection, p.76). Embryonic tissue sections were processed, sectioned and hybridized using DIG-labeled antisense RNA probes and detected with anti-DIG antibodies coupled to alkaline-phosphatase-conjugated antibody against DIG according to published protocols. For color development, 4-nitroblue tetrazolium chloride (NBT) and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl phosphate (BCIP) were used as substrates. Labeled preparations were imaged using a Zeiss AxioPlan2 (Carl Zeiss, Germany) with an attached Fujix DS-515 color camera (FujiFilm, Australia) and attached monitor.

# **X. MORPHOLOGY STAIN**

## **A. Hematoxylin and Eosin**

Frozen sections were air dried for several minutes, to remove moisture, then stained with 0.1% Mayer's Hematoxylin (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia) for 20 seconds followed by a 5 min rinse, in cool running water, and removed once water was clear. Sections were then immersed in 0.5% Eosin (1.5g dissolved in 300ml of 95% ethanol), dipped approximately 12 times, followed by quick dip in water, until the eosin stopped streaking (about 4-6 dips). Dehydrated in 50% ethanol (10 seconds), 70% ethanol (10 seconds), 95% ethanol for (30 seconds) and 100% ethanol (1 minute). The final step was to immerse sections into Histolene (2 times for 2 minutes each; Fronine, New South Wales, Australia). Sections were mounted and a coverslip affixed with DEPEX mounting medium (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia).



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Paraffin sections were run through a series of deparaffinizing solutions prior to following the procedure.

### **B. Cresyl Staining**

The Cresyl staining method is used for the detection of Nissl bodies in the cytoplasm of neurons on formalin-fixed, paraffin embedded tissue sections. The Nissl body will stain a purple-blue color. This stain is commonly used for identifying the basic neuronal structure in brain and spinal cord tissue.

Paraffin brain sections were processed for Cresyl Staining by Nadia Gagliardi (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia). Brain sections were cut at 10µm onto Superfrost Plus Slides (Menzel-Glaser, Braunschweig, Germany). The Cresyl staining procedure is as follows: sections are deparaffinized in 95% (15 minutes), 75% (1 minute), and 50% (1 minute) ethanol, rinse sections in distilled H<sub>2</sub>O 2 minutes and then into fresh distilled H<sub>2</sub>O for 1 minute. They are stained with 0.1% cresyl violet for 5 minutes and rinsed the section in distilled water for 3 minutes. The sections are then dehydrated in 95% alcohol for 10 dips followed by 100% alcohol for 10 dips. Sections are cleared in Histolene (Fronine, New South Wales, Australia) and cover slips are mounted with DEPEX mounting medium (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia).

### **C. Masson Trichome**

The Masson Trichome stain is used for the detection of collagen fibers in tissues that have been formalin-fixed or paraffin-embedded sections, and may be used on frozen sections. Collagen fibers will stain blue and the nuclei will stain black. Background will stain red.

Paraffin testis sections were processed for Masson Trichome staining by Nadia Gagliardi (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia). Sections underwent the following procedure: Deparaffinize and rehydrate through 100% alcohol, 95% alcohol 70% alcohol. Wash in distilled water. Followed by staining in Weigert's iron hematoxylin working solution for 10 minutes. Sections were rinsed in running tap water for 10 minutes. Then counterstained in Biebrich scarlet-acid fuchsin solution (Biebrich scarlet, 1% aqueous, Acid fuchsin, 1% aqueous, Acetic acid, glacial 1%) for 10-15 minutes. This was followed by washing in distilled water and differentiated in phosphomolybdic-phosphotungstic acid solution (5% Phosphomolybdic acid, 5% Phosphotungstic acid) for 10-15 minutes or until collagen was not red. The sections were transferred directly (without rinse) to aniline blue solution and stained for 5-10 minutes. Rinse briefly in distilled water

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and differentiate in 1% acetic acid solution (Aniline blue 2.5 g, Acetic acid, glacial 2 ml, Distilled water 100 ml) for 2-5 minutes. Wash in distilled water. Dehydrate very quickly through 95% ethyl alcohol, absolute ethyl alcohol (these step will wipe off Biebrich scarlet-acid fuchsin staining) and clear in xylene. Cover slips were mounted with DEPEX mounting medium (Anatomical Sciences, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, Australia).

## **XI. PROTEIN IMMUNBLOT**

The western blotting protocol was used by Chin Ng (2010) during her Honors work and contributed to Figure 4-12 (p.178). The following method is adapted from her work (Chin Ng, 2010).

### **A. Tissue Collection**

Tissue for western blotting was obtained from wild-type and homozygous dwarf adult 5-month old mouse brain, pituitary and kidney.

### **B. Whole Cell Extract**

Whole cell extraction was performed on ice to prevent protein denaturation. A minimal amount of Whole Cell Extract Lysis Buffer (420mM NaCl, 25% glycerol, 0.5% NP-40, 1.5mM MgCl, 20mM Hepes (pH7.5)) and fresh Protease Cocktail Inhibitors (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) were added to each tissue sample (7 ml for brain sample, 5 ml for kidney and 50  $\mu$ l for pituitary). Tissue homogenization was performed in lysis buffer using a blade and grinder followed by incubation at 4C on a nutator for 30 minutes. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 15 minutes at 4C. The supernatant was collected and stored at -80C until ready for processing. The supernatant was collected and protein concentration was determined using Bradford Protein Assay (described below) using bovine serum albumin as the standard.

### **C. Determining Protein Concentration Using Bradford Protein Assay**

Protein concentrations were determined using Bradford Protein Assay. A bovine serum albumin (BSA) standard curve was generated by using serial dilution of bovine serum albumin with MQ-H<sub>2</sub>O (0 $\mu$ g/ml to 2,000 $\mu$ g/ml). Protein samples from brain, kidney and pituitary were diluted 1:10 and 1:100 in MQ-H<sub>2</sub>O. Both bovine serum albumin standards and protein samples were repeated in duplicate. Bio-Rad Protein Assay Dye Reagent Concentrate (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) was diluted 1:4 and 200 $\mu$ l of the diluted Bio-Rad Protein Assay Dye Reagent (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA) was combined

into each well containing 10 $\mu$ l of the protein. Absorbance was measured at 600nm and concentration determined from the standard curve generated from the bovine serum albumin standards.

#### **D. Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis**

20ng of protein was loaded into each well in a 1:1 ratio of protein samples to 2x sodium dodecyl sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) loading buffer and were denatured by heating at 95C for 5 minutes. Samples were centrifuged at 13,000 rpm for 1 minute before loading into well of SDS-PAGE gels. All samples were loaded on discontinuous SDS-PAGE gels comprising of 4% stacking gel and 10% resolving gel. Gels were run at 100V in 1xGlycine-Tris-HCl-SDS buffer (192mM Glycine, 25mM Tris-HCl, 0.1% SDS) until the dye front had run off the bottom of the gel. Proteins were visualized with Coomassie Blue gel staining (procedure is not outline as data is not shown within this body of work; please refer to the work by Chin Ng (Ng, 2010)).

#### **E. Protein Immunblot (Western Blot Preparation)**

Following SDS-PAGE gels were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes using wet transfer. Gels were sandwiched into a cassette with nitrocellulose membrane and transferred in Western Blot Transfer Buffer at 250mA for 1.5 hour at room temperature. Post-transfer, nitrocellulose membrane was blocked in 5% skim milk/PBST at room temperature for 1-2 hours. Nitrocellulose membranes were washed in PBST (x3 10 minutes) then incubated overnight at 4C with primary antibody: anti-WARS (ab58054, mouse monoclonal; Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA; 1:1,000 in PBST) and anti-GAPDH (mouse monoclonal, clone GAPDH-71.1; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA; 1:5,000 in PBST). The following day, the nitrocellulose membrane was washed 3 x 10 minutes with PBST and incubated with HRP-conjugated donkey-anti-mouse secondary antibody (Rockland, Gilbertsville, PA, USA) diluted into 1:5,000 in 1% skim milk/PBST for 1 hour at room temperature with gentle agitation. Nitrocellulose membranes were washed a final time (3 x 10 minutes) and developed in Western Lightening Plus ECL luminol reagents (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) for 5 minutes and exposed to X-ray film.

## **XII. CELL DISSOCIATION**

Two methods of cell dissociation were preformed to determine optimal collection and sorting of GFP-positive (GFP<sup>+</sup>) cells, with the aim of using these in microarray analysis. These are described below.

**A. *Method 1: Cell Dissociation using Trypsin***

Embryonic heads, at 10.5 dpc, were dissociated using trypsin, as described in (Bouchard et al., 2005). Briefly, embryonic heads were dissociated into a single cell suspension using a 24-gauge needle followed by incubation at 37C for 45 minutes in 6 well plates containing 500µl of 1% trypsin (Invitrogen, CA, USA) in PBS. The reaction was stopped by transferring the single-cell suspension into 4ml of cold Gibco® Dubelcco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM; Invitrogen, CA, USA) containing 10% FCS. Cells were centrifuged for 2 min at 4C at 1,000rpm. The cell pellet was resuspended in phenol-red free DMEM (Invitrogen, CA, USA) containing 1% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS; Invitrogen, CA, USA) and 1µg/ml propidium iodide (PI; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). Cells were sorted according to fluorescence levels of GFP<sup>+</sup> and PI<sup>-</sup> using the BD FACS Vantage SE with FACSDiVa Option (BD Bioscience, MD, USA), detailed in Section XIII Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting (p. 92).

**B. *Method 2: Cell Dissociation using Dispase II and Collagenase B***

The cell dissociation method using dispase II and collagenase B is described in (Beverdam and Koopman, 2006). Briefly, 10.5 dpc whole embryo heads were dissected in ice-cold 1xPBS and then enzymatically dissociated in dissociation medium composed of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) containing 1 mg/ml collagenase B (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany), 1.2 U/ml Dispase II (Roche Applied Science, Mannheim, Germany) and 5 U/ml DNase1 (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA) for 50-60 minutes at 37C while shaking. Cells were further dissociated mechanically using a P1000 Gilson pipette and a 23-gauge syringe. Finally, cells were passed through 40µm cell strainers (Falcon BD Biosciences), rinsed with ice-cold 1xPBS, spun down and resuspended in 1ml of phenol-red free DMEM supplemented with 1% FCS containing 1µg/ml PI. Cells were sorted according to GFP<sup>+</sup> and PI<sup>-</sup> fluorescence as detailed below (see Section XIII Fluorescence Activated Cell Sorting).

**XIII. FLUORESCENCE ACTIVATED CELL SORTING**

GFP<sup>+</sup> cells were sorted on the BD FACS Vantage SE with FACSDiVa Option (BD Bioscience, MD, USA), with technical assistance provided by Sandy McIntyre, The Institute of Medical and Veterinary Science, Adelaide, South Australia. The apparatus was run at 28psi using a 90µm nozzle. GFP fluorochromes were excited with a 488 nm argon laser and 530 nm collection filters were used to detect GFP and regulate deflection. GFP<sup>+</sup> cells were

collected into RNeasy Protect Reagent (Qiagen, CA, USA) or phenol-red free DMEM containing 1% Fetal Calf Serum (FCS) for further analysis.

Cells were first gated on a histogram; GFP<sup>+</sup> expressing cells were visualized on a forward/side scatter plot. Cells were 'back-gated' on the forward/side scatter plot to eliminate debris prior to analysis; this also eliminated auto-fluorescence of the sample. An analysis plot was generated with FITC fluorescence on the X-axis and PI on the Y-axis. Ten thousand GFP-expressing cells were gated, and the number of these cells expressing GFP analyzed. Data were expressed as GFP<sup>+</sup> cells per 10,000 total events.

## **XIV. MICROARRAY USING THE ILLUMINA BEADCHIP**

### **A. RNA Preparation**

The preparation of RNA for use in microarray is outlined in Section III.B.1 RNA processing of mouse embryonic 10.5 dpc mouse heads used in microarray analysis (p.77).

### **B. Analysis of RNA Quality**

A variety of procedures are in common use for analysis and quantification of RNA (Fleige and Pfaffl, 2006). Recent analysis comparing the various methods (Ribogreen, Agilent Bioanalyzer, spectrophotometer, Nanodrop and more recently the Bio-Rad Experion) for quantification of the same RNA samples clearly demonstrate that no two methods produce the same data and that it is inadvisable to compare quantification data obtained using the different methods (Bustin, 2005). Therefore, throughout this work RNA analysis and quantification was consistently determined using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) together with the RNA 6000 Nano LabChip (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA).

RNA samples were stored at -80C until ready to be sent off for microarray analysis. The Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer, which uses microfluidics to size-separate and quantitate RNA, measures the amount of 28S and 18S ribosomal RNA; high-integrity RNA has a 28S:18S ratio of ~2.0. Additionally, it also calculates an RNA Integrity Number (RIN), which considers the full size distribution of RNA, not just the 28S and 18S rRNA, and is considered a more accurate assessment of overall integrity (Schroeder et al., 2006). Figure 2-5 shows representative electropherograms used to train the RIN software and shows the varying levels of RNA intactness (Mueller et al., 2004).

All samples used for microarray analysis demonstrated ratios >1.6 and <1.9. High-integrity RNA with a RIN value greater than 7.5 were selected for further analysis. RNA

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extracted from embryo heads with the highest possible RIN were used as individual samples for microarray hybridization. All purified products were stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

NOTE:  
This figure is included on page 95 of the print copy of  
the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure 2-5 Electropherograms used in the analysis of RNA quality using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer**  
(A) Sample electropherograms used to train the RNA Integrity Number (RIN) software. Samples range from intact (RIN 10), to degraded (RIN 2). (B) Electropherogram detailing the regions that are indicative of RNA quality. (C) Electropherogram showing the varying levels of intactness. Adapted from (Mueller et al., 2004).

### C. The Illumina® BeadChip Technology

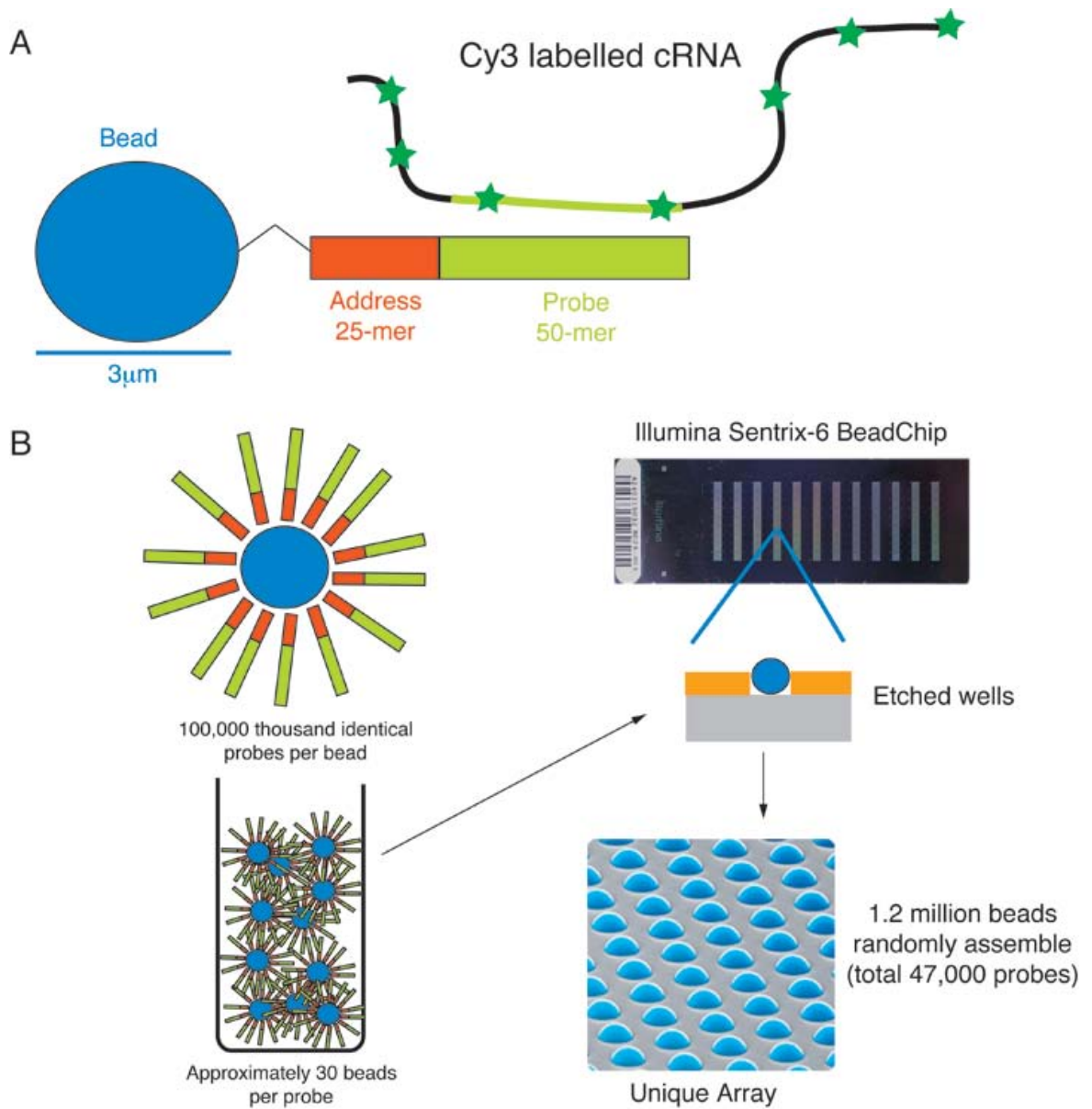
Microarray analysis was performed using the Illumina® Whole-Genome Expression BeadChip MouseWG6v1.1 Sentrix-6, containing approximately 47,000 probes that cover more than 19,000 genes from the mouse genome assembled from the NCBI database (Illumina Inc, 2010). Each Illumina® BeadChip Sentrix-6 BeadChip allows the interrogation of six RNA samples in parallel and produces data that can be treated as coming from six independent microarrays. Physically, each Illumina® BeadChip Sentrix-6 BeadChip consists of twelve equally spaced strips of beads (Figure 2-6, below). Each pair of adjacent strips comprises a single microarray and is hybridized with a single RNA sample. The BeadChip contains 3µm beads that have been tagged with hundreds of thousands of copies of a unique 25-mer address oligonucleotide followed by a gene-specific 50-mer oligonucleotide, that are randomly assembled onto each array. Each array is made up of approximately 1.6 million beads and provides an approximate 30-fold redundancy per oligonucleotide (Illumina Inc, 2010). The unique address oligonucleotide enables the location of each bead to be identified (Figure 2-7, p.97).

NOTE:  
This figure is included on page 96 of the print copy of  
the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure 2-6 Physical layout of twelve equally spaced strips in a Illumina® Sentrix-6 BeadChip**

Each array is made up of a pair of strips, one-below the other (Illumina Inc, 2010).





**Figure 2-7 Schematic view of an Illumina® bead coupled with an oligonucleotide, consisting of the address code and a 50 base gene-specific sequence**

(A) Schematic representation of a single 3µm bead with a single oligonucleotide attached. Each oligonucleotide features a unique 25-mer address sequence to help locate the beads' position on the assembled array and a 50-mer probe sequence which is specific to the gene of interest. (B) Each 3µm bead has hundreds of thousands of copies of a single oligonucleotide attached. Approximately 30 beads of the 47,000 different probes are assembled randomly into etched wells on a chip producing a unique array.

## D. Microarray Processing

All microarray processing (from RNA amplification to hybridization) was carried out at the Australian Genome Research Facility (AGRF; Melbourne, Australia) using the Illumina® Sentrix Mouse-6 v1.1 Expression BeadChip (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA). These high-density oligonucleotide arrays comprise over 47,000 probes to query expression profiles of the mouse genome. Content is based on the RefSeq, RIKEN FANTOM2 databases and other data sources.

### 1. RNA amplification

Fragmented aRNA (2µg) was hybridized to the Illumina® BeadChip in duplicate and hybridized for 16-h at 45C.

RNA was linearly amplified in two consecutive rounds using the Illumina® RNA Amplification Kit (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA) following the manufacturer's instructions. The procedure was conducted at AGRF. For information purposes the amplification procedure consists of reverse transcription with an oligo-(dT) primer bearing a T7 promoter using ArrayScript™, a reverse transcriptase (RT) engineered to produce higher yields of first strand cDNA than wild-type enzymes. ArrayScript™ catalyzes the synthesis of virtually full-length cDNA, which is the best way to ensure production of reproducible microarray samples. The cDNA then undergoes second strand synthesis and clean-up to become a template for in vitro transcription with T7 RNA Polymerase. To maximize cRNA yield, Ambion's proprietary MEGAscript® in vitro transcription (IVT) technology is used in the kit to generate hundreds to thousands of anti-sense RNA copies of each mRNA in a sample. The labeled aRNA produced with the kit was then used for hybridization with the Illumina Sentrix Mouse-6 v1.1 array (Illumina Inc, San Diego, CA).

### 2. Hybridization to the Illumina® BeadChip

Hybridization to Illumina® Mouse-6 Version 1.1 BeadChips was conducted at the AGRF (Melbourne, Australia) using standard Illumina® protocols (as per manufacturer instructions). There were two biological replicates of the entire experiment, making a total of eighteen arrays on three BeadChips.

The Illumina® BeadChip analyzes whole-genome gene expression using a direct hybridization approach. Each sample is biotin-labeled, then amplified RNA (aRNA) is generated, via a cDNA intermediate, and this produces thousands of antisense copies of each original mRNA molecule (refer to Figure 2-7, p.97). The labeled aRNA from one sample is hybridized in duplicate onto two individual arrays (to provide technical

replicates). Illumina® BeadChip uses single fluorescence, Cy3 conjugated streptavidin, for the detection of gene expression, allowing the quantitative detection of RNA at each bead location via fluorescence excitation and detection. The average fluorescent intensity is then determined by averaging the fluorescent intensity for each bead and for each probe (this is repeated for each array). The generation of aRNA, aRNA labeling, array hybridization, fluorescence detection, and data retrieval were performed by the Australian Genome Research Facility (AGRF; Melbourne, Victoria, Australia).

### 3. Array design

Please refer to Chapter 3III.C Microarray Analysis for a description of the microarray experimental design. This is represented in Figure 3-4 (p.115) and outlines the array design of the three chips used.

## E. Data Collection and Analysis

Microarray data was sent to me on DVD and contained three folders. One folder contained the Illumina® BeadChip images of each slide. Images were included so as to be visually assessed for quality (uniform hybridization and the absence of large artifacts). The two remaining folders contained normalized (or background-subtracted) data, and non-normalized (or non-background subtracted) data. The normalized data was used in downstream statistical analysis.

### 1. Statistical programming environment for analyzing microarray data

Data was analyzed using the R statistical environment (<http://www.r-project.org/>) (Ihaka and Gentleman, 1996) and IlluminaGUI packages (<http://illuminaui.dnsalias.org/>) (Schultze and Eggle, 2007) on the MacOSX.

### 2. Normalizing data

The purpose of normalization is to remove non-biological sources of variation. In a microarray experiment, there are many sources of variation. These include dye biases from the efficiency of dye incorporation, experimental variability in the hybridization and processing steps and differences between experimental conditions for replicate slides.

IlluminaGUI provides the option to choose from three different normalization techniques that are based on different assumptions concerning the nature of the raw data (Schultze and Eggle, 2007): quantiles-method (Bolstad et al., 2003), the variance stabilization and normalization (vsn)-method (Huber et al., 2002) and the QSpline-method (Workman et al., 2002). Quantile normalization is based on transforming each of the array

## 2. Materials and Methods

specific distributions of intensities so that they have the same values of quantiles (Deshmukh and Purohit, 2007). The vsn-method builds upon the fact that the variance of microarray data depends on the signal intensity and that a transformation can be found after which the variance is approximately constant (Huber et al., 2002). It is like the logarithm at the upper end of the intensity scale, approximately linear at the lower end, and smoothly interpolates in between. The vsn-method assumes that less than half of the genes on the arrays are differentially transcribed across the experiment. An advantage of vsn-transformation over log-transformation is that vsn works also on values that are negative after background subtraction. The QSpline normalization method uses quantiles from array signals and target signals to fit smoothing B-splines. The splines are then used as signal-dependent normalization functions on the signals of  $x$ . The target signals can be from another array or could be means calculated from multiple arrays (Workman et al., 2002).

For the experiment outlined herein quantile normalization was employed. Quantile normalization is useful for normalizing across a series of conditions where it is believed that a small but intermediate number of genes may be differentially expressed – as is hypothesized (refer to Chapter 3II Aims , p.107).

### 3. *Statistical analysis to determine differentially expressed genes*

Three statistical approaches were used to identify differentially expressed genes:

- Linear model of microarray data analysis (LIMMA)  
*fits linear models to each gene in order to identify differentially expressed genes. LIMMA identifies candidates based on the  $p$ -value, the probability that the values obtained can be achieved randomly, and a  $B$  value, the log of the odds that the gene is differentially expressed. Genes with low  $p$ -values and high  $B$  values are the most likely candidates for differential expression.*
- Significance Analysis of Microarrays (SAM)  
*identifies genes with significantly differing expression levels between sets of samples, as long as an  $a$ -priori hypothesis is present that some genes will have significantly different mean expression levels between different sets of samples (Ideker et al., 2000);*
- t-test  
*helps to determine the data's signal to noise ratio for each gene and identifies the statistical chance that the gene is differentially expressed.*

#### 4. Data collation

To collate the data a PERL script was written to easily manage and combine the data. The PERL script is provided in the Appendices - PERL script used in the collation of microarray statistical data (p.203).

The complete comparison of all the data obtained from the microarray experiment is located in the Appendices - Microarray DATA showing differentially expressed genes (p.210).

#### F. Criteria for the Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes

Microarray data, having been analyzed using three independent statistical methods (LIMMA, SAM, and t-test), identified 226 differentially expressed genes that were detected by all three tests (Appendices - Microarray DATA showing differentially expressed genes, p.210). I focused my initial efforts on examining genes involved in hypothalamic/pituitary development, therefore I selected genes based on the following criteria:

- Low p-value  
*A low p-value (p) indicates statistical significance to the degree of differential expression. A  $P < 0.05$  is accepted as statistically significant.*
- High fold change  
*A high fold change increases the likelihood of reproducibility by qPCR.*
- Expression within the developing brain, in particular within the HP axis.  
*Determining whether the gene is expressed in the developing brain involved searching GeneBank and literature search (PubMed search).*

## **XV. cDNA GENERATION**

RNA obtained from embryonic tissue (refer to Section III.B.1 RNA processing of mouse embryonic 10.5 dpc mouse heads used in microarray analysis, p.77) and from adult brains (refer to Section III.B.2 RNA processing of hypothalamic sections used in mRNA expression analysis by qPCR, p.78) was reverse transcribed using the Applied BioSystems High Capacity RNA-to-cDNA kit (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA) as per manufacturer's instructions. 500ng of each sample of starting RNA was reverse transcribed used and concentration determined by spectrophotometer reading. A final volume of 20 $\mu$ L of cDNA was generated. cDNA was diluted 1:10 with Milli-Q water and stored at -20C in 10 $\mu$ L aliquots.

## **XVI. QPCR**

Real time PCR, also called quantitative real time PCR (qPCR/qrt-PCR/qRT-PCR) is the technique of choice to amplify and simultaneously quantify a targeted DNA molecule. qPCR is highly sensitive and allows quantification of rare transcripts and small changes in gene expression. The simplest detection technique for newly synthesized PCR products in qPCR uses the SYBR Green I fluorescence dye that binds specifically to the minor groove double-stranded DNA (Morrison et al., 1998).

qPCR was performed using Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA) according to manufacturer's protocol and run on an ABI 7500 StepOnePlus thermo-cycler (Applied BioSystems, CA, USA) with the following parameters: 95C for 20secs, 39 cycles of 95C for 3secs, 60C for 30secs. Followed by generating a dissociation curve, done by increasing the sample temperature in 0.5C increments and measuring fluorescence levels after each increment. Each reaction was performed in triplicate, unless otherwise noted.

## XVII. SOFTWARE PROGRAMS

The following software packages were used in the generation/analysis and/or presentation of data and/or results throughout this work. All packages were run on the Mac Operating System (Mac OSX Leopard), unless otherwise noted.

- Word and Excel 2008 (Microsoft, California, USA)  
*Word-processing package in which this work was written in.*
- Endnote X2 (Thomson Reuters, USA)  
*Bibliographical database program.*
- 4Peaks v1.7 (Mek&Tosj, Amsterdam, The Netherlands)  
*Visualize and edit DNA sequences.*
- R Project (University of Auckland, New Zealand)<sup>4</sup>  
*Software environment for statistical computing and graphics.*
- Adobe Photoshop CS4 (Adobe System Incorporated, USA)  
*Photo editing and construction of compiled figures/graphs.*
- Adobe Illustrator (Adobe System Incorporated, USA)  
*Diagram and figure line-vector drawing package.*
- ConceptDraw Pro (Odessa Corporation, USA)  
*Diagramming platform for generation of flow charts.*
- SPSS 19 (IBM Corporation, NY, USA) used on Windows XP (Microsoft, USA)  
*Statistical package.*
- SigmaPlot (Systat Software Inc, USA) used on Windows XP (Microsoft, USA)  
*Graph drawing package.*
- Chimera<sup>5</sup>  
*Visualization and analysis of molecular structures and related data.*

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<sup>4</sup> Initially written by Robert Gentleman and Ross Ihaka, University of Auckland, New Zealand. <http://www.r-project.org/>

<sup>5</sup> The package is freely available for Windows and Mac computers from the following link <http://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/>

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# 3 Identification of *Sox3* Target Genes

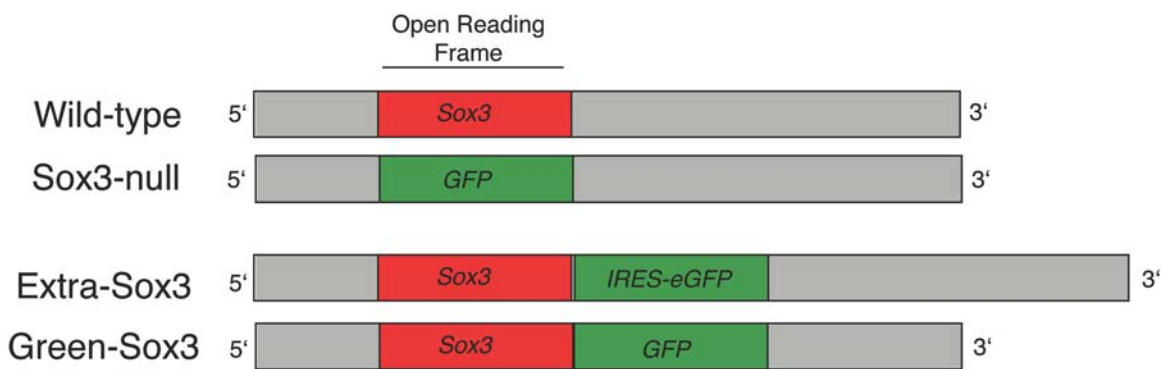
## I. INTRODUCTION

*Sox3*, a member of the high mobility group (HMG) family of transcription factors, is expressed in neural progenitor cells (Brunelli et al., 2003; Stevanovic, 2003) and in the gonads (Raverot et al., 2005; Sutton et al., 2011). The correct dosage of *SOX3/Sox3*, a transcription factor member of the *SOXB1* family, is essential for brain, specifically hypothalamic and pituitary development (Rizzoti et al., 2004). Critically, the target genes regulated by *Sox3* have not been identified. The identification of *Sox3* target genes is crucial for better understanding *Sox3* function. In the mouse embryo, *Sox3* is highly expressed within the developing brain at 10.5 dpc (Chapter III.C The Role of *Sox3* in Hypothalamo-Pituitary Axis Development, p.56). Given its robust expression at 10.5 dpc it is speculated that *Sox3* target genes are activated at this stage. This includes both direct targets, whereby *SOX3* binds to the promoter/regulatory region of these target genes thereby activating gene expression, as well as indirect target genes. Indirect target genes are not directly bound by *Sox3* but are regulated via transcription regulators, which are targets of *Sox3*, and are likely to be affected by *Sox3* loss. The *SOXB1* family members (*Sox1-3*) are

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

transcriptional activators (Bylund et al., 2003). Using transgenic mice that lack *Sox3*, direct targets are likely to be identified (by being down-regulated), although indirect targets may also be identified (by either being up- or down-regulated).

The aim of the work described in this chapter was to identify potential *Sox3* target genes using three mouse lines, *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and Green-*Sox3* (Figure 3-1, below), by large-scale gene profiling using microarray technology (also see Chapter 2II.B.1 *Sox3* transgenic lines, p.72). The three mouse lines chosen for this study have a *Sox3*-GFP reporter cassette inserted, thereby enabling GFP-positive (GFP<sup>+</sup>) cells to be sorted and used in downstream microarray applications. This chapter describes the use of the Illumina BeadChip, a novel microarray, for the identification of *Sox3* target genes. Moreover, I describe here the identification of a potential *Sox3* target gene, *Neurogenin-3* (*Ngn3*). *Ngn3* is a member of the basic helix-loop-helix transcriptional factor family that play important roles in vertebrate neurogenesis and are expressed in neural and endocrine precursor cells, in particular the endocrine cell types in the pancreas (Gradwohl et al., 2000; Sommer et al., 1996). Notably, *Ngn3* has been shown to co-localize with *Sox3* in proliferating germ cells during spermatogonial differentiation, and is decreased in the absence of *Sox3* (Raverot et al., 2005). Thus, suggesting a potential functional link between *Sox3* and *Ngn3*.



**Figure 3-1 Schematic representation of the wild-type, *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and Green-*Sox3* (GFP-reporter) mice.**

*Sox3*-null mice was generated using homologous recombination whereby the SOX3 open-reading frame (ORF) was replaced with the marker gene encoding GFP protein downstream. This permitted the expression of GFP driven by the *Sox3* regulatory sequences. Extra-*Sox3* mice were generated using BAC-recombineering using an IRES-eGFP reporter cassette that was inserted into the 3'UTR of *Sox3* using homologous recombination. Green-*Sox3* (GFP-reporter) mice, containing identical regulatory sequences that were used to generate the Extra-*Sox3* mice, were generated from a modified BAC in which the *Sox3* ORF was replaced with the eGFP coding sequence. These mice express normal levels of *Sox3* in eGFP-expressing cells.

## II. AIMS

The overall aim of this project was to identify *Sox3* target genes, using microarray analysis to compare gene expression in wild-type, *Sox3*-null and Extra-*Sox3* mice embryonic heads at 10.5 dpc.

My specific aims were to:

- Identify potential *Sox3* target genes by microarray analysis (*Aim 1*);
- Verify microarray results using qPCR (*Aim 2*);
- Examine the expression of *Sox3* and the potential *Sox3* target gene(s) that are up- and/or down-regulated as a consequence of a loss of *Sox3* (*Aim 3*).

### III. RESULTS

#### AIM 1: IDENTIFY POTENTIAL SOX3 TARGET GENES BY MICROARRAY ANALYSIS

As *Sox3* is an essential regulator of HP axis development, to further investigate the function of *Sox3* in HP axis formation I set out to identify novel target genes by microarray analysis. This approach was based on the premise that gene expression differences in the brain region of wild-type, *Sox3*-null and Extra-*Sox3* embryos would be detected by gene expression profiling. This approach required several technical difficulties to be addressed. Initially, the aim was to collect GFP-positive (GFP<sup>+</sup>)<sup>6</sup> cells by FACS and extract RNA from these cells in preparation for microarray processing.

##### A. Cell Dissociation and FACS sorting of GFP-positive cells for use in Microarray Analysis

The overall aim was to identify target genes of *Sox3*. The first step was to isolate and collect GFP<sup>+</sup> cells from the three transgenic mouse lines: Green-*Sox3*, Extra-*Sox3* and *Sox3*-null. Once isolated, the GFP<sup>+</sup> cells would be used for microarray analysis using the Illumina MouseRef-6 BeadChip. 50ng total RNA would be required from each transgenic mouse line.

Using FACS, I attempted to isolate 5,000-10,000 live GFP<sup>+</sup> cells from the CNS of individual *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and wild-type embryos. These numbers are based on a similar study (Bouchard et al., 2005) whereby 5,000 GFP<sup>+</sup> cells yielded 5-10ng RNA (or 30-80µg after two rounds of amplification). Two methods of cell dissociation, using trypsin (*method 1*) and using a combination of dispase II and collagenase B (*method 2*), were trialed to determine which method generated the most viable GFP<sup>+</sup> cells per embryo. All samples were collected at 10.5 dpc following the protocols described in Materials and Methods (Chapter 2XII Cell Dissociation, p.91).

Sorting profiles of cells obtained using trypsin as the dissociation medium (*method 1*) are shown in Figure 3-2 A (p.112), and profiles of cells obtained using a combination of dispase II and collagenase B in the dissociation medium (*method 2*) are shown in Figure 3-2 B (p.112). In each experiment three controls were used based on the presence or absence of

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<sup>6</sup> a '+' indicates positive for GFP and '-' indicates negative for GFP. These superscripts are used to indicate presence of GFP as well as propidium iodide (PI) in FACS.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

GFP and propidium iodide (PI; membrane impermeant nucleic acid stain that is generally excluded from viable cells. Thus, it is commonly used for identifying dead cells).

The controls, used to set the 'gate' during FACS, were as follows:

- GFP-PI<sup>-</sup>  
*Cells identified as GFP-negative (GFP<sup>-</sup>) and PI-negative (PI<sup>-</sup>) collected from wild-type embryos that did not express GFP and were not selectively stained for dead cells. PI<sup>-</sup> cells are viable. This is the negative control and we would not expect to see sorting of either GFP<sup>+</sup> and/or PI<sup>+</sup> cells.*
- GFP-PI<sup>+</sup>  
*Cells identified as GFP-negative and PI-positive collected from wild-type embryos that did not express GFP but were selectively stained for dead cells. This control helps to set the PI sorting gate. We would expect to see FACS of PI<sup>+</sup> cells only.*
- GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup>  
*Cells identified as GFP-positive and PI-negative collected from embryos expressing GFP and were not selectively stained for dead cells. This control helps to set the GFP sorting gate. We would expect to see FACS of GFP<sup>+</sup> cells only.*

Samples, used in the sorting of GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells, were obtained from individual GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos from litters from the three mouse lines. Each GFP<sup>+</sup> sample was stained with PI to eliminate, by sorting, any cell debris and dead cells (as I was only interested in collecting viable GFP<sup>+</sup> cells).

The results from one cell sorting experiment comparing cell dissociation methods (*method 1* and *method 2*) are shown in Figure 3-2 A and B. Results are from two independent Sox3-null 10.5 dpc litters. The controls GFP-PI<sup>-</sup> (*i*), GFP-PI<sup>+</sup> (*ii*), GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> (*iii*) and one cell sorting result (*iv*) are shown. The scatter plot (showing side scatter (SSC) and forward scatter (FSC)) used in gating the cells is shown (inset). Using trypsin-containing medium (*method 1*) yielded very few GFP<sup>+</sup> cells per embryo (572 GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells; Figure 3-2 A *iv*). In contrast, using a combination of dispase II and collagenase B (*method 2*), yielded 1,017 GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells (Figure 3-2 B *iv*). Similar results were shown in repeat experiments (data not shown).

The use of trypsin-containing medium did not provide reliable yields of positive cells (GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup>) per embryo. This method resulted in a high yield of cell debris (as shown by the scatter plots in Figure 3-2 A *i - iv*). The distribution of the dots in the scatter plot can distinguish one type of cell from another. This enables the creation of a gate around one particular cell population for further analysis. The larger cells (or cell debris) are represented as higher values along the y-axis (SSC), while the more granular cells (those

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

containing more objects inside the cell enabling laser refraction) are represented as higher values along the x-axis (FSC). In Figure 3-2 A and B the cells of interest are gated (measured along FSC x-axis; blue selection) and form a tight population. Whereas, cell debris (measured along SSC y-axis; black dots) does not form a tight population, rather they are more dispersed.

The use of the more gentle cell dissociation method, using a combination of collagenase B and dispase, as previously described elsewhere (Beverdam and Koopman, 2006) provided a higher yield of GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells per embryo, than seen with trypsin-containing medium. This method utilized collagenase B, from *C. histolyticum*, which is a protease with specificity for the X-Gly bond in the sequence Pro-X-Gly-Pro, where X is most frequently a neutral amino acid. Such sequences are found in high frequency in collagen, but only rarely in other proteins. Dispase II, a metalloenzyme produced by *Bacillus polymyxa*, has been classified as an amino-endo peptidase suitable for tissue disaggregation and subcultivation procedures since it does not damage cell membranes (Stenn et al., 1989). Thus, unlike trypsin, which has the ability to damage the cell membrane under prolonged or excessive trypsin concentrations, the combination of collagenase and dispase provide a more gentler dissociation medium. The use of this method proves to be more effective in collecting a higher yield of GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells.

Although the use of a combination of dispase II and collagenase B provided a higher yield this would not provide the required number of GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells to generate 50ng RNA. In a similar study (mentioned above), 5,000-10,000 GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells were collected by FACS per embryo (Bouchard et al., 2005). For each embryo, the total RNA from a minimum of 5,000 cells was reverse-transcribed followed by two rounds of amplification (as total RNA isolated per embryo was low; 5-10 ng), and yielded 30-80 µg of aRNA (Bouchard et al., 2005). My data showed, using the combination of collagenase and dispase cell dissociation method, an average yield of 1,000 GFP<sup>+</sup>PI<sup>-</sup> cells per embryo. Based on Bouchard *et al* data as an estimate of required yield, 5,000 GFP<sup>+</sup> cells per embryo would generate 5 ng. Obtaining the minimum of 50ng total RNA per embryo would not be achievable. Approximately 50,000 GFP<sup>+</sup> cells would need to be collected from 10 embryos that would need to be pooled into one sample, and in triplicate for per mouse line (Green-Sox3, Extra-Sox3 and Sox3-null). Thereby requiring at least 30 GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos per mouse line. Given that, on average, 25% of each litter (or 2 pups from an average litter size of 8) would produce homozygous pups carrying GFP, 10 GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos would be pooled from, at least five matings. This method would prove extremely time consuming, and would require the use of sizeable numbers of embryos. Therefore, an alternative approach was

derived that involved isolating the entire embryonic head at 10.5 dpc from which total RNA was extracted and analyzed by microarray.

### **B. Extraction of RNA from Whole Mouse Embryonic Heads for use in Microarray Analysis - RNA Quality Analysis**

Total cellular RNA was isolated from the 10.5 dpc embryonic heads from *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and wild-type mouse lines (see Materials and Methods Chapter 2III.B.1 RNA processing of mouse embryonic 10.5 dpc mouse heads used in microarray analysis, p.77). RNA size and quality was assessed via the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer.

Figure 3-3 (p.114) shows the RNA quality analysis of the samples used in microarray analysis. All RNA samples were of the highest quality based on their RNA integrity number (RIN) (refer to Materials and Methods Chapter 2XIV.B Analysis of RNA Quality, p.93). RNA used as individual samples for each mouse line sample and pooled RNA samples from wild-type and *Sox3*-null mouse lines had a RIN of 8-10. Only in the Extra-*Sox3* pooled samples were there two samples with RIN of 7.9 and 7.8. The other two samples had RIN in the range of 8-10.

### **C. Microarray Analysis**

Microarray analysis was performed, as outlined in Material and Methods (see Chapter 2XIV.D.2 Hybridization to the Illumina® BeadChip, p.98 and Chapter 2XIV.D.3 Array design, p.99).

Figure 3-4 (p.115) shows the microarray outline and experimental design. For each experimental group: *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and wild-type RNA samples were collected. From each experimental group two RNA samples were collected from individual embryonic heads. The third group contained a pooling of RNA obtained from 4 embryonic heads. Each sample was hybridized in duplicate across three Illumina BeadChip slides. Hybridizing in duplicate was a strategy employed to eliminate/reduce errors between/within slides.

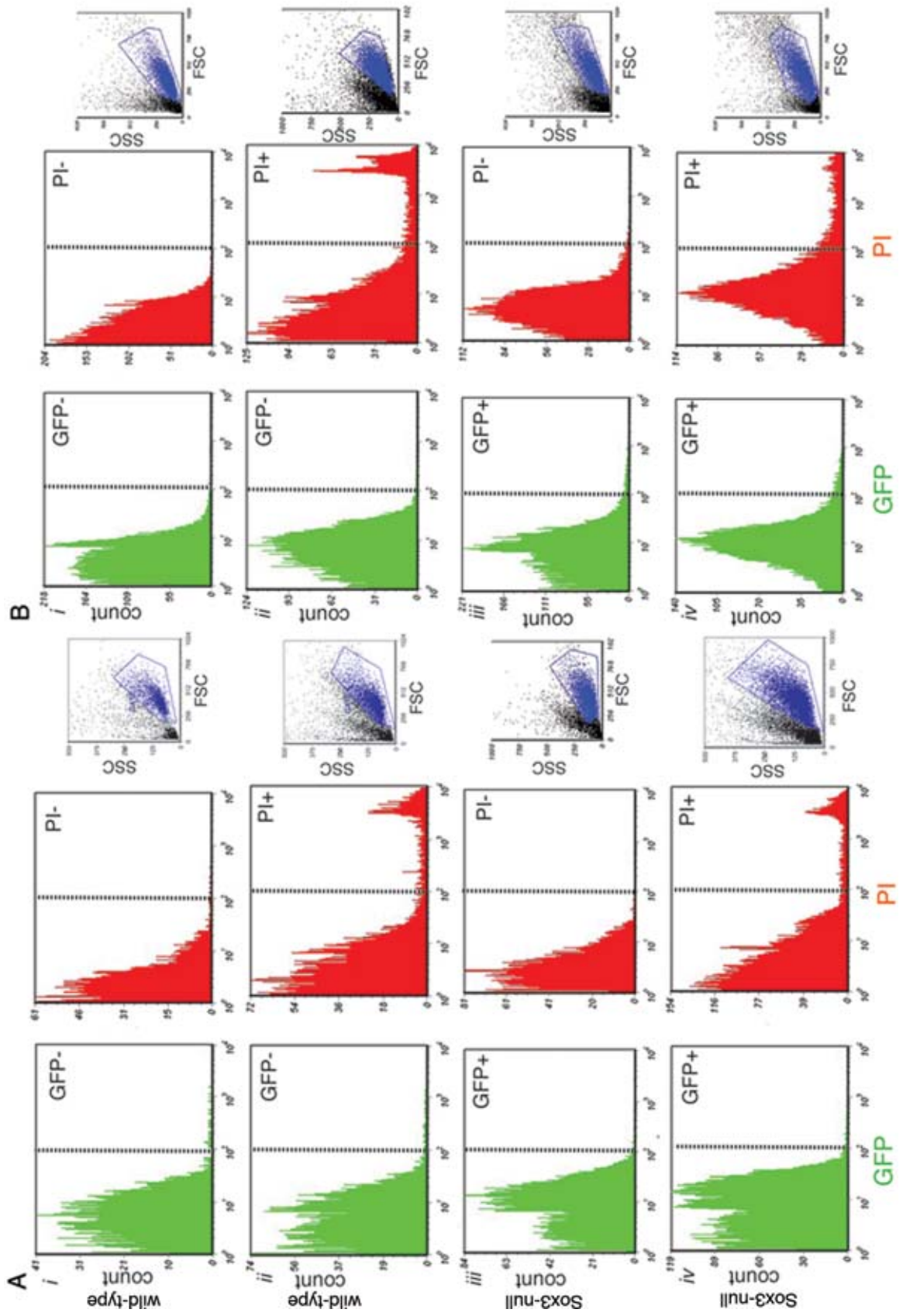
### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

**Figure 3-2 Fluorescence activated cell sorting of GFP<sup>+</sup> mouse 10.5 dpc embryonic heads comparing two cell dissociation methods: trypsin (*method 1*) and a combination of dispase II and collagenase B (*method 2*)**

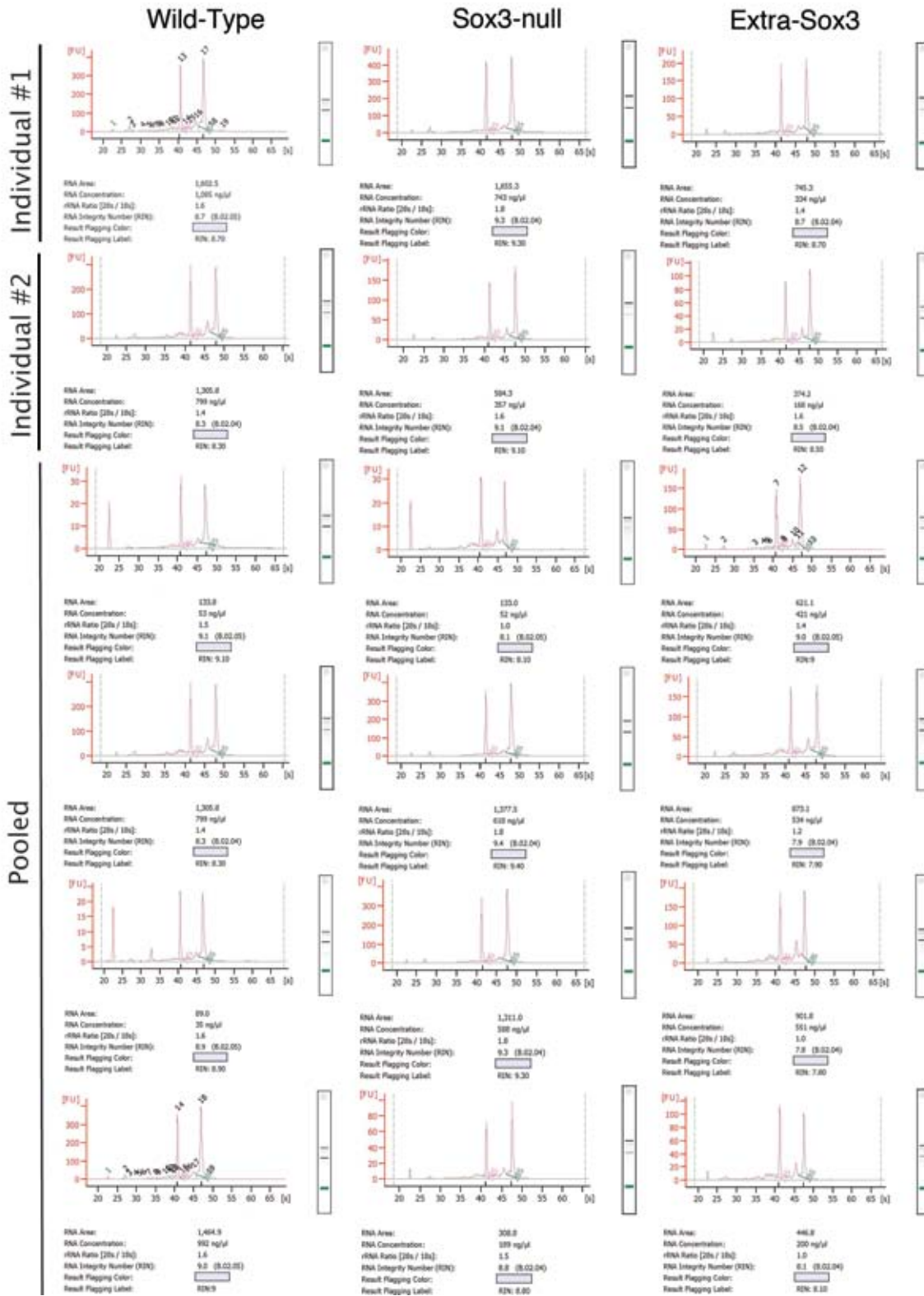
(A) Trypsin method used for cell dissociation and FACS. (B) Dispase II and Collagenase B method used for cell dissociation and FACS. In each experiment, performed on independent days, *Sox3*-null litters were used. Three controls were used: GFP-PI<sup>-</sup> (collected from wild-type embryos; shown in *i*), GFP-PI<sup>+</sup> (collected from wild-type embryos shown in *ii*), and GFP+PI<sup>-</sup> (collected from GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos, shown in *iii*). The remaining GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos in the litter were sorted for GFP<sup>+</sup> cells and stained with PI, to identify any cell debris and dead cells (*iv*). The genotype (wild-type or *Sox3*-null) of each embryo is shown. The corresponding scatter plot used in gating the cells is also shown. FACS graphs were generated using FCSExpress V3.0 (DeNovo Software, Los Angeles, California, USA)



### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

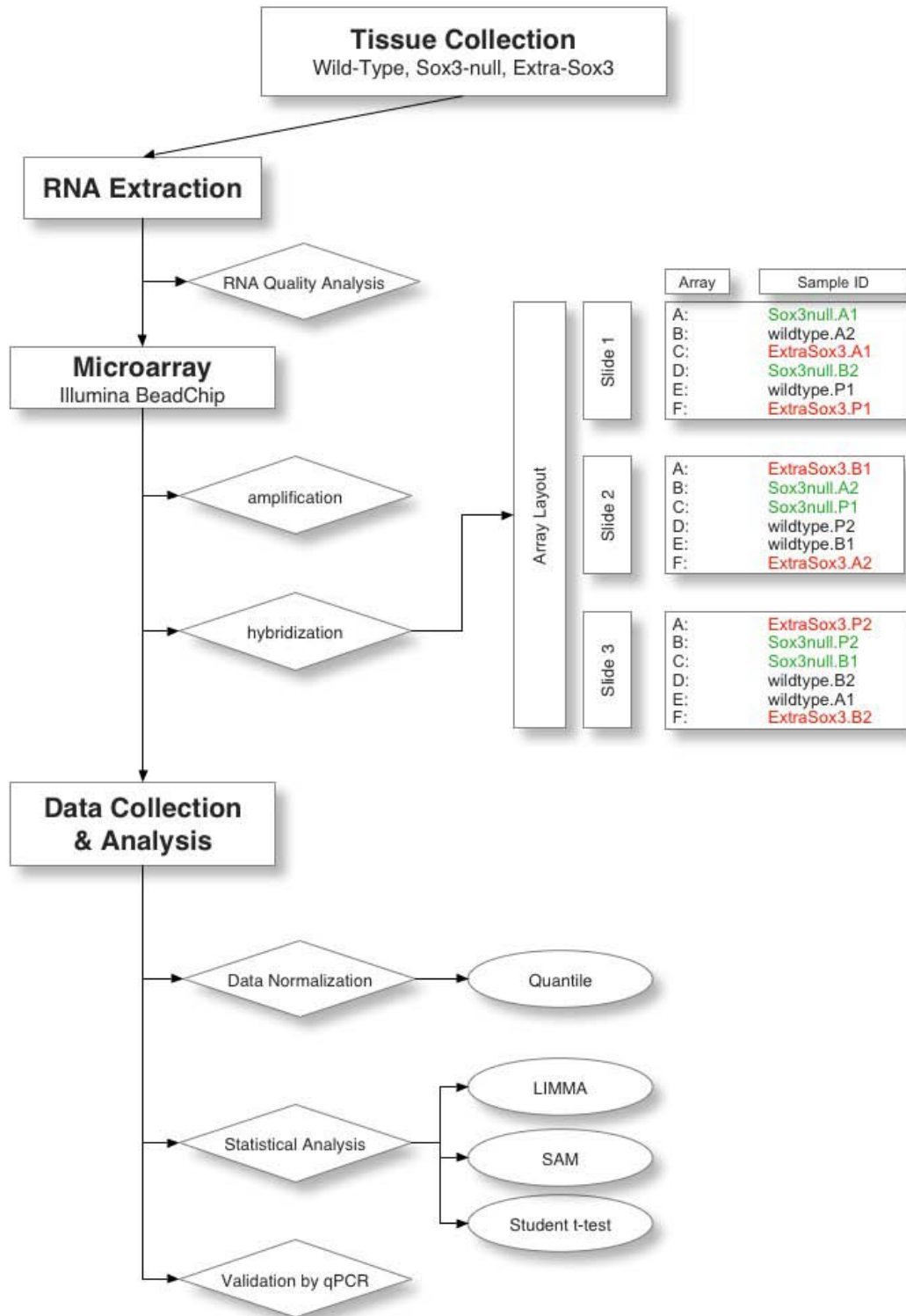


### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-3 RNA quality from whole mouse embryo heads used in microarray analysis**  
 RNA quality analysis, as determined by Agilent Bioanalyzer, of all samples used in microarray analysis.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-4 Microarray experimental outline and design**

Schematic overview of the microarray process, from tissue collection to data analysis and the final step of validation by qPCR, showing the Illumina BeadChip array organization. For each experimental group: Sox3-null (green text), Extra-Sox3 (red text) and wild-type (black text) three samples of RNA were collected. From each experimental group two RNA samples (A and B) were collected from individual embryonic heads and hybridized in duplicate (A1, A2 and B1, B2). The third group contained a pooling of RNA obtained from 4 embryonic heads, and was also hybridized in duplicate (P1 and P2).

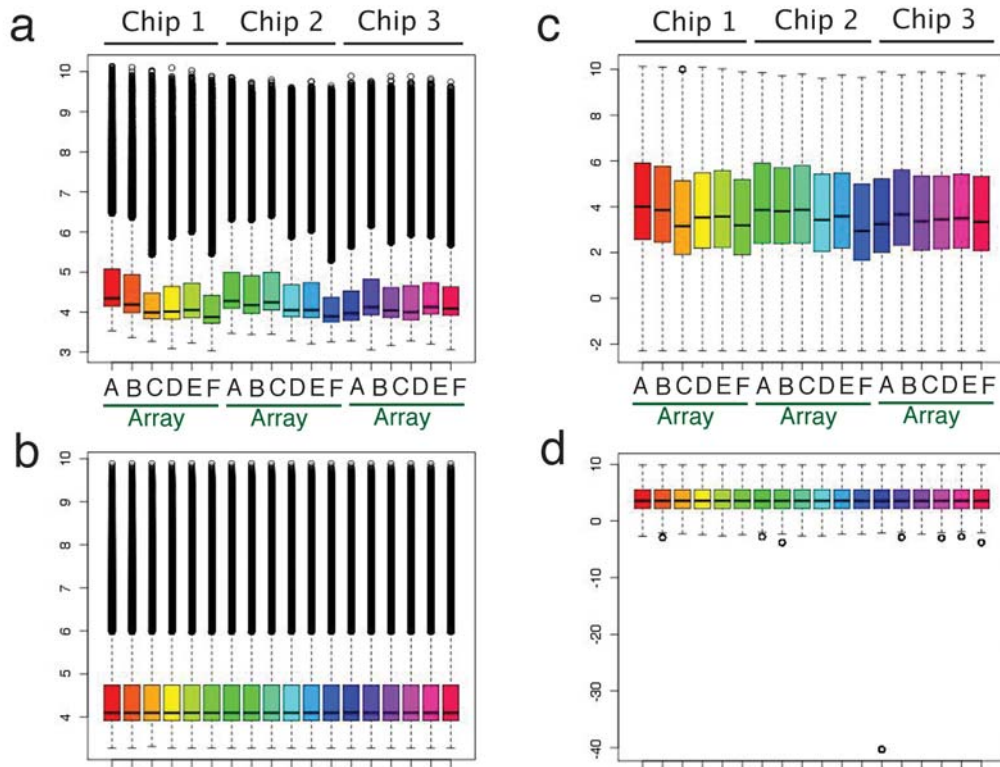
#### D. Normalizing Microarray Data

Data was first normalized by two methods: quantiles-method (Bolstad et al., 2003) and the vsn-method (Huber et al., 2002). Data is represented by box-plots and is shown normalized using the quantile-method (Figure 3-5, p.117):

- Non-background subtracted microarray data sets that have *not been normalized (Figure 3-5 a)*  
*been quantile normalized (Figure 3-5 b)*
- Background subtracted microarray data set that *not been normalized (Figure 3-5 c)*  
*been quantile normalized (Figure 3-5 d)*

Background subtraction removes the non-specific background intensities of the scanner images and then undergoes quantile-normalization. These box plots reveal that the non-background subtracted data has a greater degree of variation between and within arrays prior to normalization and is likely to contain more variation when determining which genes are differentially expressed. Hence, non-background subtracted data is not suitable for downstream analysis. Thus, for the analysis of differentially expressed genes the background-subtracted data normalized using the quantile-normalization method was employed in downstream data analysis.

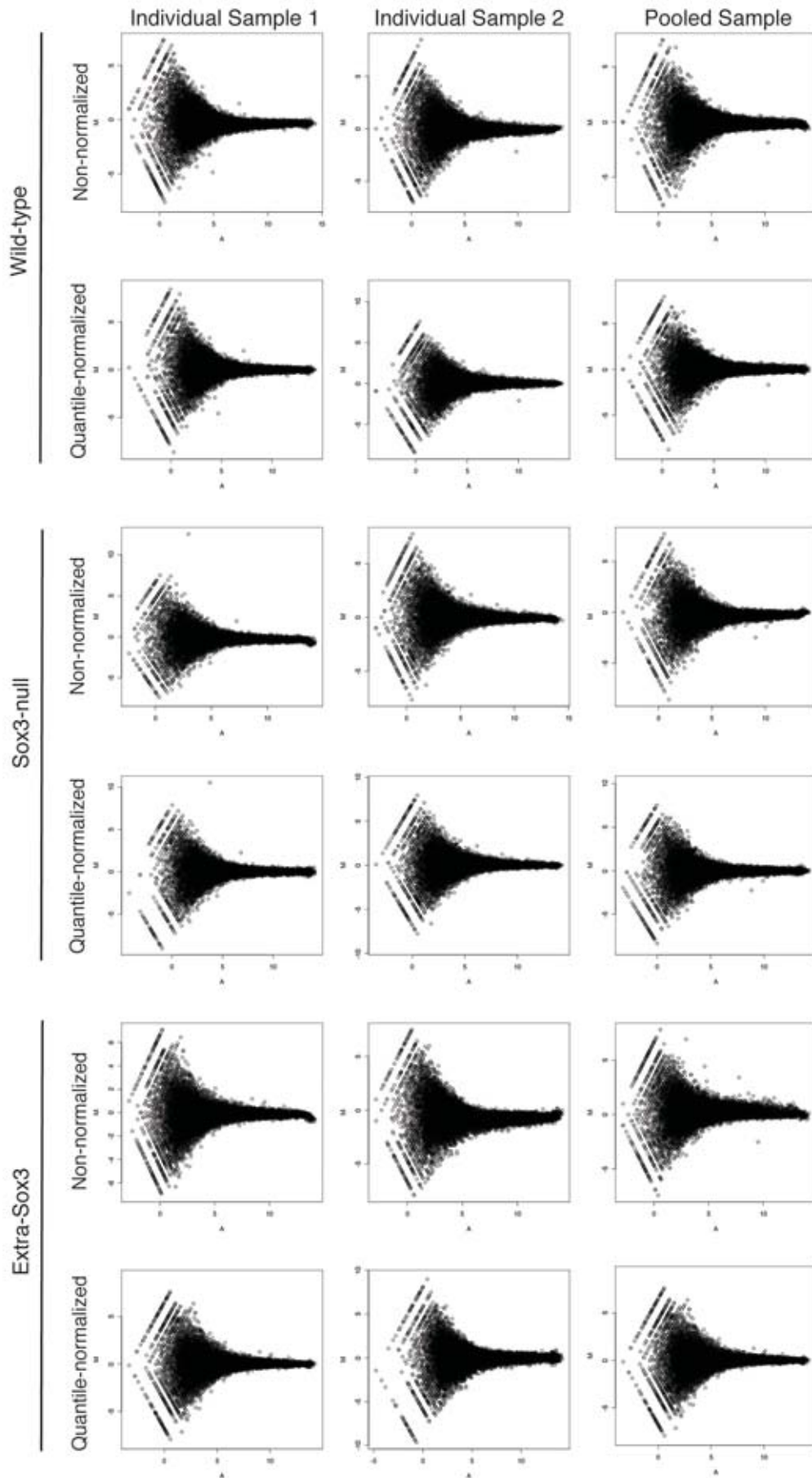
To further analyze the differences between arrays the data was plotted using M versus A plots to show the log-intensity ratio ( $M = \log_2(G1/G2)$ ) versus the mean log intensity ( $A = \log_2 \sqrt{(G1 \times G2)}$ ) for all the genes present on the array (Figure 3-6, p.119). MA-plots for single channel microarray platforms are computed from the means and differences of log-expression values from two microarrays. Such plots were introduced and used by Bolstad et al (Bolstad et al., 2003). Determining the MA plot gives a quick overview of data distribution. In many microarray experiments the general assumption is that the expression levels of most of the genes would not be changed and so the majority of the points on the M plot (y axis) would be located at 0 (since  $\log_2(1)$  is 0). If the majority of points are not located at 0, then a normalization method such as LOESS regression should be applied to the data before statistical analysis (Causton et al., 2003). The MA plots shown in Figure 3-6 (p.119) compare the MA plots for non-normalized (background subtracted) data versus quantile-normalized (using background subtracted) data. Both the non-normalized and quantile-normalized MA plots indicate that all points on the M plot are located at 0. Therefore, the data did not need to undergo further normalization methods before statistical analysis.



**Figure 3-5 Box-plots showing intensity distributions before and after normalization of non-background subtracted and background subtracted data sets**

Box plots are used to determine the distribution of intensity signals across an array, thereby verifying the comparability of all arrays within an experiment. Non-background subtracted data shown prior to normalization (a) and then after quantile-normalization (b). Background subtracted data shown prior to normalization (c) and then after quantile-normalization (d). Box plots were generated using IlluminaGUI in the R programming environment. (a) and (c) show reference to the chips (chip 1-3) and the arrays within each chip (A-F).

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



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#### **Figure 3-6 M versus A plots prior and after quantile normalization of background subtracted arrays**

Plots show between-array symmetry around a horizontal line through zero. Each duplicate array for the groups was located on a different slide, providing more control over possible variations. Plotting this data on MA plots shows that there is little variation between arrays of the sample, both before normalization (non-normalized data) and after (quantil-normalized data). No non-linearity was seen in either non-normalized or quantile normalized data therefore further normalization, such as using LOESS regression was not required to have been applied to the data before statistical analysis.

## E. Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes

Differentially expressed genes were identified by statistical methods as described in Materials and Methods Chapter 2XIV.E Data Collection and Analysis (p.99) and Chapter 2XIV.F Criteria for the Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes (p.101).

The initial focus for identifying differentially expressed genes was on *Sox3*-null versus wild-type because this enables the identification of down-regulated genes (as determined by having a negative fold change) in the *Sox3*-null mice relative to wild-type.

To identify genes that were differentially expressed, three statistical methods were employed: LIMMA, SAM, and t-test. These methods are described in detail in Materials and Methods Chapter 2XIV.E.3 Statistical analysis to determine differentially expressed genes (p.100). By using three methods I was able to deduce which genes were down-regulated in each test. I focused my initial efforts on examining genes involved in hypothalamic/pituitary development, and therefore I selected genes based on the following criteria:

- Low p-value

*A low p-value (P) indicates statistical significance to the degree of differential expression. A  $p < 0.05$  is generally accepted as statistically significant.*

- High fold change (as indicated by a negative value)

*A high fold change increases the likelihood of reproducibility by qPCR.*

- Expression within the developing brain, in particular within the HP axis.

*Determining whether the gene is expressed in the developing brain involved searching GeneBank and literature search (PubMed search).*

During the statistical analysis process an Honors student in the lab, Dale McAninch, as part of his honors work, contributed in the validation of differentially expressed genes. Dale selected genes based on their connections to brain development or expression within progenitor cells. These genes were selected from the microarray list generated from t-test statistical data; 122 genes were identified as being differentially expressed with a fold change greater than 2 in *Sox3*-null relative to wild-type (Table 3-1, p.123). I examined genes that were detected by all three statistical methods, detailed below. Initially choosing six genes best fitting the selection criteria: genes that were down-regulated - *Clcn7*, *Enpp5*, *Gpr125*, and genes that were up-regulated - *Pdrg1*, *Rpo1-4* and *Tomm22* (data not shown). These genes were chosen based on their large differences in gene expression which could be reproduced and seen by qPCR, and potentially indicate



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accuracy of microarray statistical data analysis. When these genes were analyzed by qPCR there was no correlation when compared to the microarray statistical analysis (data not shown). These results indicate that either the samples tested by qPCR analysis were not similar in their expression profiles (the microarray samples and qPCR samples came from different litters and were collected at individual times) to those used in the microarray or that these genes have been detected as false-positive by microarray and subsequently there is no change seen by qPCR validation (McAninch, 2008). To further analyze the microarray data, Dale selected 50 differentially expressed genes identified by microarray, and validated these by qPCR. The results are tabulated and located in the Appendices - Microarray Validation by qPCR (p.232) (McAninch, 2008). In summary, none of the genes tested by qPCR agreed with the microarray data.

To further examine the reason for such a large false-positive discovery rate, Dale examined the gene expressions of positive control genes (known to be expressed): *Sox3*, *GFP* and *Xist* (X-inactivated specific transcript; an RNA gene located on the X chromosome of placental mammal acting as a major effector of the X inactivation process whereby its RNA is responsible for the random silencing of one of the X chromosomes in somatic cells of XX individuals), and is not expressed within XY somatic cells. As described previously, the *Sox3* ORF has been replaced with the GFP ORF in *Sox3*-null mice, thus GFP, the second positive control, is expressed in cells that would normally express *Sox3*. Therefore, *Sox3* should only be detectable in wild-type samples and GFP only in *Sox3*-null samples. Microarray data found *Sox3* expressed in wild-type samples but not in *Sox3*-null samples, however GFP was not detected in either the wild-type or the *Sox3*-null samples. The probe on the microarray detects enhanced GFP (eGFP) that has approximately 30% silent base substitutions compared with GFP. This is the likely reason why the microarray did not detect the GFP in the *Sox3*-null samples. Nevertheless, using qPCR primers for GFP Dale was able to detect both eGFP and GFP indicating expression in *Sox3*-null but not wild-type samples. Furthermore, *Xist* was only expressed in female, but not male, samples. These results are shown in Appendices - Table A 2 Average intensity values for *Xist*, *Sox3*,  $\beta$ -*Actin* and *GFP* (p.233). Additionally, microarray data revealed that *Sox3* was down-regulated in *Sox3*-null mice and up-regulated in Extra-*Sox3* mice, as expected. Further supporting that, although there is a high false-positive discovery rate, the microarray was able to identify positive control genes.

My analysis of differentially expressed genes was based on statistical detection by all three tests (LIMMA, SAM and t-test) comparing *Sox3*-null samples relative to wild-type. A total of 45 genes were identified as down-regulated (negative fold change) by all three

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statistical tests (Table 3-2, p.126). All of these genes had a fold change greater than 2 using t-test and SAM statistical methods. Only 18 genes were identified as down-regulated in *Sox3*-null mice using the LIMMA statistical method, again each gene had a fold change greater than 2 relative to wild-type.

#### F. Genes Chosen for qPCR Validation

Four differentially expressed genes were selected that were expressed in the developing hypothalamus at 10.5 dpc and that also showed a low p value and a high fold change (as per selection criteria detailed above). A literature search was also conducted and the most biologically relevant gene from this list was *Ngn3* (Raverot et al., 2005). As shown in the Table 3-4 (p.127), *NfyA*, *Ngn3*, *Sfrp1*, and *Nenf* were down-regulated, as indicated by the fold change, in *Sox3*-null mice. In Extra-*Sox3* mice, only *Sfrp1* was also down-regulated and *Nenf* was up-regulated. *Sfrp1* and *Nenf* were the only genes from this list that were detected by the three statistical methods. Due to the initial focus for identifying differentially expressed genes on *Sox3*-null relative to wild-type and the high false-positive discovery rate, specific genes detected by the Extra-*Sox3* microarray data are referred to as needed. As shown by Dale, *Pdrg1*, *Rpo1-4* and *Tomm22*, which were all highly up-regulated in Extra-*Sox3* samples, relative to wild-type, did not show this same trend by qPCR. Therefore, I focused on the results obtained from *Sox3*-null relative to wild-type in addition to literature searches to focus in on genes likely to be targets of *Sox3* and are expressed in the developing hypothalamus, at 10.5 dpc.

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**Table 3-1 Down-regulated genes identified by microarray analysis and t-test statistical analysis in Sox3-null 10.5 dpc embryonic heads**

Data is sorted by fold change (FC). For comparison the FC and p-value for results obtained by LIMMA and SAM statistical methods are shown.

Gene/Symbol	LIMMA		SAM		t-test	
	FC	P-value	FC	P-value	FC	P-value
<i>Fcer1g</i>					-92.12	0.00E+00
<i>5730538E15Rik</i>	-5.13	2.13E-09	-10.63	1.00E-04	-53.27	0.00E+00
<i>Ndufb10</i>	-3.27	6.82E-05			-51.77	0.00E+00
<i>Sox3</i>	-5.94	1.86E-09	-44.09	0.00E+00	-44.09	0.00E+00
<i>Xist</i>	-4.57	1.45E-04	-30.09	0.00E+00	-30.09	1.00E-04
<i>5430404G13Rik</i>	-4.32	2.72E-07	-19.40	0.00E+00	-19.40	0.00E+00
<i>1110060M21Rik</i>	-4.00	2.94E-11	-16.55	0.00E+00	-16.55	0.00E+00
<i>Mll5</i>					-12.10	8.10E-03
<i>Gpr125</i>	-3.51	6.19E-10	-10.77	0.00E+00	-10.77	0.00E+00
<i>AB041568</i>			-10.17	0.00E+00	-10.17	0.00E+00
<i>9430077D24Rik</i>	-3.22	2.30E-06	-8.75	0.00E+00	-8.75	0.00E+00
<i>2610511O17Rik</i>					-7.90	0.00E+00
<i>Olig1</i>					-7.82	0.00E+00
<i>matrix-remodelling associated 7</i>			-7.21	0.00E+00	-7.21	0.00E+00
<i>A630076G18Rik</i>					-7.06	1.00E-04
<i>Cln7</i>	-2.72	5.01E-09	-6.49	0.00E+00	-6.49	0.00E+00
<i>Drctnnb1a</i>			-5.96	3.50E-03	-5.96	2.90E-03
<i>Uap1</i>	-2.63	2.20E-08	-5.70	0.00E+00	-5.70	0.00E+00
<i>2410146L05Rik</i>	-2.49	9.98E-10	-5.65	0.00E+00	-5.65	0.00E+00
<i>Elovl4</i>	-2.45	9.18E-11	-5.44	0.00E+00	-5.44	0.00E+00
<i>Ddr1</i>	-2.43	6.71E-10	-5.34	0.00E+00	-5.34	0.00E+00
<i>A430106J12Rik</i>	-1.17	2.23E-04			-5.30	0.00E+00
<i>Ppan</i>	-2.47	4.90E-09	-5.25	0.00E+00	-5.25	0.00E+00
<i>2310038D14Rik</i>	-2.74	3.29E-05	-4.61	1.00E-03	-4.61	0.00E+00
<i>Nrxn3</i>					-4.53	1.00E-04
<i>Mrps10</i>	-2.90	1.16E-04	-4.33	2.90E-03	-4.33	0.00E+00
<i>Plod2</i>	-2.17	9.28E-06	-4.28	0.00E+00	-4.28	0.00E+00
<i>Atf7ip</i>	-2.06	1.30E-09	-4.15	0.00E+00	-4.15	0.00E+00
<i>9630038C08Rik</i>					-4.05	1.50E-03
<i>Kif3a</i>	-2.38	2.52E-05	-3.95	1.00E-03	-3.95	0.00E+00
<i>2410112O06Rik</i>	-2.42	4.62E-05	-3.90	1.60E-03	-3.90	0.00E+00
<i>F830002E14Rik</i>			-3.82	4.10E-03	-3.82	1.00E-04
<i>B3galt6</i>					-3.74	0.00E+00
<i>A930009K04Rik</i>	-1.89	4.52E-05	-3.66	0.00E+00	-3.66	0.00E+00
<i>Sfrp1</i>			-3.58	3.00E-04	-3.58	0.00E+00
<i>Rps13</i>	-2.28	1.03E-04	-3.58	2.00E-03	-3.58	0.00E+00
<i>Bbs4</i>	-2.03	3.55E-04	-3.53	6.00E-04	-3.53	0.00E+00
<i>Robo3</i>			-3.52	2.40E-03	-3.52	0.00E+00
<i>Srd5a2l</i>	-1.77	2.00E-06	-3.50	0.00E+00	-3.50	0.00E+00

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3100003M19Rik	-1.80	7.46E-08	-3.50	0.00E+00	-3.50	0.00E+00
Slit2			-3.46	2.90E-03	-3.46	1.50E-03
Trim11					-3.44	5.00E-04
6330527O06Rik	-1.92	5.97E-05	-3.44	3.00E-04	-3.44	0.00E+00
Hmgn3	-1.79	7.92E-09	-3.41	0.00E+00	-3.41	0.00E+00
Lhx1			-3.34	2.50E-03	-3.34	0.00E+00
E230012J19Rik			-3.31	1.00E-04	-3.31	0.00E+00
Cox7a2l					-3.27	2.78E-02
Mpg	-2.32	2.76E-04			-3.26	0.00E+00
6330414G21Rik			-3.22	2.70E-03	-3.22	0.00E+00
Cops5	-1.66	3.54E-04	-3.21	1.30E-03	-3.21	1.10E-03
A730085F06Rik					-3.01	3.10E-03
LOC235497	-1.58	2.88E-08	-2.98	0.00E+00	-2.98	0.00E+00
Srp9					-2.94	5.40E-03
1200013A08Rik	-1.76	2.52E-05	-2.94	1.00E-03	-2.94	0.00E+00
Fbxo44	-1.57	8.66E-05	-2.94	0.00E+00	-2.94	0.00E+00
8430408J09Rik	-1.60	6.40E-05	-2.90	4.00E-04	-2.90	0.00E+00
LOC381820	-1.52	3.80E-06	-2.88	0.00E+00	-2.88	0.00E+00
2610109H07Rik			-2.85	0.00E+00	-2.85	0.00E+00
Cobl	-1.61	1.20E-05	-2.84	4.00E-04	-2.84	0.00E+00
G630034H08Rik	-1.64	1.30E-04	-2.83	1.80E-03	-2.83	0.00E+00
2810406K13Rik	-1.82	3.16E-04	-2.82	3.50E-03	-2.82	0.00E+00
Lhx1			-2.77	4.20E-03	-2.77	0.00E+00
9430091F09Rik	-1.63	1.73E-04	-2.75	2.10E-03	-2.75	0.00E+00
2900009C24Rik	-1.49	1.49E-04	-2.71	3.00E-04	-2.71	0.00E+00
Asrij	-1.40	3.62E-06	-2.67	1.00E-04	-2.67	0.00E+00
0610034P02Rik			-2.66	0.00E+00	-2.66	0.00E+00
MGC67181			-2.66	4.00E-04	-2.66	0.00E+00
C030034J23Rik					-2.65	1.82E-02
Nfya	-1.52	3.63E-05	-2.63	7.00E-04	-2.63	0.00E+00
Ephb2	-1.32	2.18E-04	-2.62	3.00E-04	-2.62	0.00E+00
A330055K22Rik			-2.57	7.00E-04	-2.57	0.00E+00
Dner	-1.65	2.12E-04	-2.56	4.10E-03	-2.56	0.00E+00
Grb10			-2.54	1.10E-03	-2.54	3.00E-04
Kcnq2					-2.53	2.00E-04
6330415B21Rik	-1.27	2.37E-04	-2.53	2.00E-04	-2.53	0.00E+00
E130216C05Rik			-2.52	3.00E-04	-2.52	0.00E+00
9330161A03Rik					-2.48	1.00E-04
1810006K23Rik	-1.33	2.01E-06	-2.44	1.00E-04	-2.44	0.00E+00
Sncg					-2.43	1.00E-04
Viaat					-2.41	7.70E-03
LOC380983			-2.40	4.30E-03	-2.40	1.00E-04
C430002D13Rik	-1.27	1.69E-05	-2.39	0.00E+00	-2.39	0.00E+00
Neurog2					-2.37	4.00E-04
1200003M09Rik	-1.22	2.38E-05	-2.34	0.00E+00	-2.34	0.00E+00
Cspg3	-1.44	1.68E-04	-2.34	4.10E-03	-2.34	0.00E+00
Zfp330	-1.29	2.18E-04	-2.33	8.00E-04	-2.33	0.00E+00
AW121567					-2.33	8.00E-04
Hspcb					-2.33	7.00E-04

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<i>Gria2</i>					-2.33	1.90E-03
<i>Kptn</i>	-1.22	3.38E-07	-2.31	1.00E-04	-2.31	0.00E+00
<i>Dpysl2</i>					-2.31	0.00E+00
<i>Tce1</i>	-1.20	1.43E-06	-2.26	1.00E-04	-2.26	0.00E+00
<i>Fgfr1op2</i>			-2.26	6.00E-04	-2.26	0.00E+00
<i>Phip</i>	-1.17	3.84E-08	-2.25	0.00E+00	-2.25	0.00E+00
<i>LOC381795</i>	-1.15	5.27E-06	-2.25	0.00E+00	-2.25	0.00E+00
<i>Rab6</i>	-1.23	3.81E-05	-2.24	1.20E-03	-2.24	0.00E+00
<i>9630023C09Rik</i>					-2.24	7.60E-03
<i>Anapc13</i>	-1.23	5.77E-06	-2.23	6.00E-04	-2.23	0.00E+00
<i>LOC277193</i>			-2.22	4.00E-04	-2.22	0.00E+00
<i>Slc15a2</i>					-2.22	1.11E-02
<i>4930441L02Rik</i>	-1.14	3.38E-06	-2.21	1.00E-04	-2.21	0.00E+00
<i>9030607L20Rik</i>	-1.16	1.98E-04	-2.20	1.00E-04	-2.20	0.00E+00
<i>1700008D07Rik</i>	-1.13	1.44E-04	-2.19	0.00E+00	-2.19	0.00E+00
<i>Zfp288</i>					-2.14	2.50E-03
<i>Myt1</i>	-1.18	6.90E-05	-2.14	1.20E-03	-2.14	0.00E+00
<i>LOC434147</i>	-1.15	5.99E-05	-2.13	5.00E-04	-2.13	0.00E+00
<i>9130023D20Rik</i>	-1.10	5.27E-05	-2.10	4.00E-04	-2.10	0.00E+00
<i>Dcx</i>	-1.24	2.71E-04			-2.10	0.00E+00
<i>Twsig1</i>	-1.06	1.46E-05	-2.08	1.00E-04	-2.08	0.00E+00
<i>3110035E14Rik</i>					-2.08	9.00E-04
<i>Rab3d</i>	-1.05	4.36E-07	-2.08	0.00E+00	-2.08	0.00E+00
<i>2310004H21Rik</i>	-1.07	1.63E-05	-2.08	1.00E-04	-2.08	0.00E+00
<i>5830420C15Rik</i>	-1.02	1.13E-04	-2.06	5.00E-04	-2.06	0.00E+00
<i>4930427A07Rik</i>					-2.05	1.79E-02
<i>2900063K03Rik</i>			-2.05	3.20E-03	-2.05	1.00E-04
<i>5730406F04Rik</i>			-2.05	1.70E-03	-2.05	2.00E-04
<i>Caskin1</i>			-2.05	0.00E+00	-2.05	0.00E+00
<i>1110029I05Rik</i>	-1.03	1.35E-07	-2.03	1.00E-04	-2.03	0.00E+00
<i>4930524J08Rik</i>					-2.03	7.00E-03
<i>A230057G18Rik</i>					-2.02	3.00E-04
<i>Dncl2b</i>			-2.02	3.30E-03	-2.02	0.00E+00
<i>Snap25</i>					-2.01	7.00E-04

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**Table 3-2 Down-regulated genes identified by microarray analysis using three statistical analyses (LIMMA, SAM, and t-test) in Sox3-null 10.5 dpc embryonic heads**

Data is sorted by fold change (FC); from highest to lowest in t-test.

Gene/Symbol	LIMMA		SAM		t-test	
	FC	p value	FC	p value	FC	p value
<i>5730538E15Rik</i>	-5.1277	2.13E-09	-10.6268	1.00E-04	-53.2700	0.00E+00
<i>Sox3</i>	-5.9436	1.86E-09	-44.0923	0.00E+00	-44.0900	0.00E+00
<i>Xist</i>	-4.5653	1.45E-04	-30.0888	0.00E+00	-30.0900	1.00E-04
<i>1110060M21Rik</i>	-4.0015	2.94E-11	-16.5538	0.00E+00	-16.5500	0.00E+00
<i>Gpr125</i>	-3.5126	6.19E-10	-10.7668	0.00E+00	-10.7700	0.00E+00
<i>9430077D24Rik</i>	-3.2237	2.30E-06	-8.7502	0.00E+00	-8.7500	0.00E+00
<i>Clcn7</i>	-2.7239	5.01E-09	-6.4869	0.00E+00	-6.4900	0.00E+00
<i>Uap1</i>	-2.6270	2.20E-08	-5.6980	0.00E+00	-5.7000	0.00E+00
<i>2410146L05Rik</i>	-2.4916	9.98E-10	-5.6477	0.00E+00	-5.6500	0.00E+00
<i>Elovl4</i>	-2.4503	9.18E-11	-5.4367	0.00E+00	-5.4400	0.00E+00
<i>Ddr1</i>	-2.4344	6.71E-10	-5.3356	0.00E+00	-5.3400	0.00E+00
<i>Ppan</i>	-2.4674	4.90E-09	-5.2533	0.00E+00	-5.2500	0.00E+00
<i>Mrps10</i>	-2.9045	1.16E-04	-4.3344	2.90E-03	-4.3300	0.00E+00
<i>Plod2</i>	-2.1671	9.28E-06	-4.2751	0.00E+00	-4.2800	0.00E+00
<i>Atf7ip</i>	-2.0578	1.30E-09	-4.1455	0.00E+00	-4.1500	0.00E+00
<i>Kif3a</i>	-2.3807	2.52E-05	-3.9492	1.00E-03	-3.9500	0.00E+00
<i>2410112O06Rik</i>	-2.4229	4.62E-05	-3.9019	1.60E-03	-3.9000	0.00E+00
<i>Rps13</i>	-2.2836	1.03E-04	-3.5838	2.00E-03	-3.5800	0.00E+00
<i>Bbs4</i>	-2.0322	3.55E-04	-3.5259	6.00E-04	-3.5300	0.00E+00
<i>Srd5a2l</i>	-1.7693	2.00E-06	-3.5049	0.00E+00	-3.5000	0.00E+00
<i>Hmgn3</i>	-1.7852	7.92E-09	-3.4079	0.00E+00	-3.4100	0.00E+00
<i>Cops5</i>	-1.6609	3.54E-04	-3.2102	1.30E-03	-3.2100	1.10E-03
<i>1200013A08Rik</i>	-1.7594	2.52E-05	-2.9408	1.00E-03	-2.9400	0.00E+00
<i>Fbxo44</i>	-1.5650	8.66E-05	-2.9410	0.00E+00	-2.9400	0.00E+00
<i>Cobl</i>	-1.6142	1.20E-05	-2.8374	4.00E-04	-2.8400	0.00E+00
<i>G630034H08Rik</i>	-1.6440	1.30E-04	-2.8348	1.80E-03	-2.8300	0.00E+00
<i>9430091F09Rik</i>	-1.6267	1.73E-04	-2.7513	2.10E-03	-2.7500	0.00E+00
<i>Asrij</i>	-1.3992	3.62E-06	-2.6724	1.00E-04	-2.6700	0.00E+00
<i>Nfya</i>	-1.5250	3.63E-05	-2.6300	7.00E-04	-2.6300	0.00E+00
<i>Ephb2</i>	-1.3213	2.18E-04	-2.6180	3.00E-04	-2.6200	0.00E+00
<i>Dner</i>	-1.6453	2.12E-04	-2.5586	4.10E-03	-2.5600	0.00E+00
<i>C430002D13Rik</i>	-1.2678	1.69E-05	-2.3871	0.00E+00	-2.3900	0.00E+00
<i>1200003M09Rik</i>	-1.2216	2.38E-05	-2.3381	0.00E+00	-2.3400	0.00E+00
<i>Cspg3</i>	-1.4418	1.68E-04	-2.3408	4.10E-03	-2.3400	0.00E+00
<i>Zfp330</i>	-1.2933	2.18E-04	-2.3318	8.00E-04	-2.3300	0.00E+00
<i>Kptn</i>	-1.2239	3.38E-07	-2.3100	1.00E-04	-2.3100	0.00E+00
<i>Tce1</i>	-1.1950	1.43E-06	-2.2587	1.00E-04	-2.2600	0.00E+00
<i>Phip</i>	-1.1685	3.84E-08	-2.2526	0.00E+00	-2.2500	0.00E+00
<i>Rab6</i>	-1.2319	3.81E-05	-2.2424	1.20E-03	-2.2400	0.00E+00
<i>Anapc13</i>	-1.2317	5.77E-06	-2.2333	6.00E-04	-2.2300	0.00E+00

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

<i>Myt1</i>	-1.1812	6.90E-05	-2.1431	1.20E-03	-2.1400	0.00E+00
<i>2310004H21Rik</i>	-1.0735	1.63E-05	-2.0798	1.00E-04	-2.0800	0.00E+00
<i>Rab3d</i>	-1.0548	4.36E-07	-2.0800	0.00E+00	-2.0800	0.00E+00
<i>Twsg1</i>	-1.0638	1.46E-05	-2.0762	1.00E-04	-2.0800	0.00E+00
<i>5830420C15Rik</i>	-1.0229	1.13E-04	-2.0556	5.00E-04	-2.0600	0.00E+00

**Table 3-3 List of four differentially expressed genes chosen for validation by qPCR showing the fold change as determined by the three statistical tests. Expression location of these genes is also shown**

*Sox3* is also shown for comparison. Abbreviations: PPHyp, Prependuncular hypothalamus; H, hindbrain; PedHyp, peduncular (caudal) hypothalamus; RSP, rostral secondary prosencephalon; M, midbrain; T, telencephalic vesicle; NA, no data available, FC, fold change; nd, not determined. P<0.05 unless otherwise indicated. <sup>1</sup> Expression location was found using Allen Brain Atlas (<http://developingmouse.brain-map.org/>). <sup>2</sup> (Wang et al., 2006a).

Gene	Gene Name	ExtraSox3 vs Wild-Type			Sox3-null vs Wild-Type			Expression Location at 11.5 dpc <sup>1</sup>
		LIMMA FC	SAM FC	t-test FC	LIMMA FC	SAM FC	t-test FC	
<i>Nfya</i>	nuclear transcription factor-Y alpha	nd	nd	nd	-1.52	-2.63	-2.63	PedHyp, RSP
<i>Ngn3</i>	neurogenin 3	nd	nd	nd	nd	-2.53	nd	PedHyp, RSP
<i>Sfrp1</i>	secreted frizzled-related protein 1	nd	nd	-2.45	nd	-3.58	-3.58	PPHyp, H
<i>Nenf</i>	neuron derived neurotrophic factor	nd	20.88	nd	-4.00	-16.55	-16.55	NA, neurons <sup>2</sup>
<i>Sox3</i>	SRY-related HMG box-3	nd	36.00	nd	-5.94	-44.09	-44.09	RSP, PedHyp, M, T

## AIM 2: CONFIRM MICROARRAY IDENTIFIED POTENTIAL SOX3 TARGET GENES BY QPCR

### G. Validation of Microarray Data by qPCR

qPCR was performed to validate the expression levels of four identified differentially expressed gene (refer to Table 3-3, p.127).

The genes chosen for validation by qPCR were selected based on exhibiting large degrees of change, which were of biological interest due to their response to a change in condition (in this case deletion of *Sox3*). Given that it was not practical to confirm by qPCR the many thousands of microarray-identified genes, the initial focus was to examine genes of interest that were based on their biological significance (refer to Materials and Methods Chapter 2XIV.F Criteria for the Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes, p.101).

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

In tandem, Dale's honors work (McAninch, 2008) focused on performing an extensive validation of differentially expressed genes that were identified by microarray (as outlined above). Briefly, all of genes examined demonstrated no change in expression between wild-type and *Sox3*-null 10.5 dpc embryos. Dale examined the two genes that had the highest predicted fold changes from the microarray (*Gpr125* at -9.36 and *Tomm22* at +18.68) by Northern blot analysis (data not shown; refer to McAninch, 2008). There was no change in gene expression for either gene between wild-type and *Sox3*-null samples by Northern blot. This data supported the lack of correlation observed between microarray and qPCR data (McAninch, 2008).

I performed validation by qPCR of the four genes: *Nfya*, *Ngn3*, *Sfrp1*, and *Nenf* in addition *Sox3*, which was used as a control. These genes were chosen as they were expressed in the developing hypothalamus at 10.5 dpc. All genes were normalized to *Gapdh* because it showed consistent readings for all samples. The relative expression levels were compared between the *Sox3*-null and wild-type mice (Figure 3-7, p.130). Only two cDNA series were analyzed twice each. Analysis was conducted on *Sox3*-null versus wild-type animals because it is easier to determine the accuracy of the microarray with qPCR data if in fact the gene identified is a target of *Sox3*; loss of *Sox3* would result in a loss of *Sox3* target gene. Relative expression of *Nfya*, *Ngn3*, *Sfrp1*, and *Nenf* was analyzed using RNA collected from embryos that were not used in the initially microarray analysis, as these RNA samples were precious with limited quantity and were stored for use to confirm expression of the identified gene. *Nenf*, and *Sfrp1* showed no significant change in gene expression by qPCR when comparing wild-type (n=3) and *Sox3*-null (n=3). However, *Nfya* had a modest decrease in expression and *Ngn3* expression was markedly decreased. Data was normalized to *Gapdh* and expression relative to wild-type. NFYA is a subunit of NFY which is a ubiquitous transcription factor (composed of NFYA, NFYB and NFYC) necessary for DNA binding (Krstic et al., 2007). Generally, NF-Y promotes and/or stabilizes the binding of transcription factors to nearby DNA-binding elements, attracts co-activators and, consequently, enhances transcription (Bellorini et al., 1997; Frontini et al., 2002; Ronchi et al., 1995). Furthermore, it NFY has been shown to be involved in the regulation of the *SOX3* promoter (Krstic et al., 2007). Thus, was not chosen for further analysis.

To confirm the decrease in *Ngn3*, I repeated the experiment in Extra-*Sox3* as well as wild-type samples to determine whether there would be any change in *Sox3* and *Ngn3* expression in Extra-*Sox3* samples (Figure 3-8, p.130). Both *Ngn3* and *Sox3* genes were normalized to *Gapdh*. *Sox3* expression was significantly decreased in *Sox3*-null samples, and was increased in Extra-*Sox3* samples, but this result was not significant. *Ngn3*



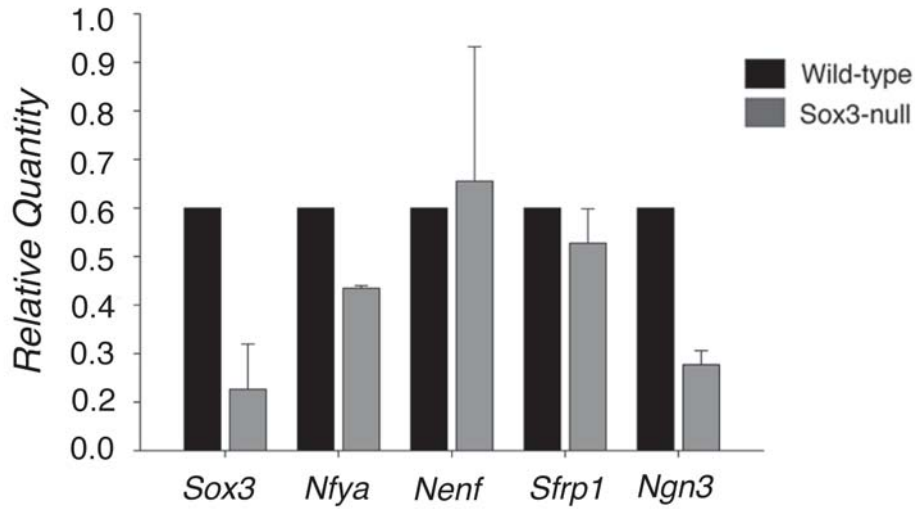
### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

expression was significantly decreased in *Sox3*-null samples, and was increased in Extra-*Sox3* samples. The large error bars in this sample may be attributed to the different embryos that were collected from different litters. The transgene itself does not contain all the regulatory elements necessary and as such the integration of the *Sox3*<sup>IRES-GFP</sup> transgene is random whereby some *Sox3*-positive cells will express this (unpublished data, personal communication A/Prof Paul Thomas); some cells will express endogenous and exogenous levels. It must be noted that microarray analysis did not detect up-regulation of *Ngn3* (refer to Table 3-4, p.127).

To further verify that the decreased expression of *Ngn3* seen in independently collected embryonic heads from *Sox3*-null mice was an accurate representation, I proceeded to repeat the qPCR experiment using RNA samples that were obtained from wild-type and *Sox3*-null (n=6 per group) samples used in microarray analysis (Figure 3-9, p.131). *Sox3* and *Ngn3* expression was significantly decreased in *Sox3*-null samples. Due to the very limited amount of RNA used in microarray analysis there was only enough to perform this experiment once (in addition to my colleague's experiments (as outlined in McAninch, 2008)).

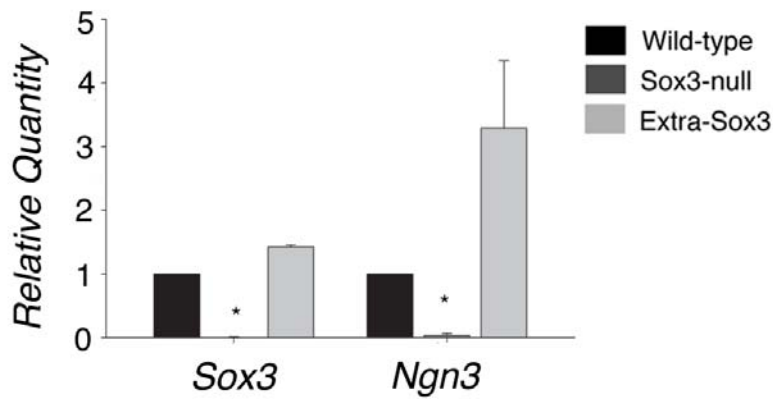
All the genes listed (as shown in Table 3-4, p.127), except *Ngn3*, did not show differential expression by qPCR. Expression levels of *Sox3* and *Ngn3* were consistent with the microarray data; *Sox3* and *Ngn3* were down-regulated. These data suggest that microarray data accurately established differences in gene expression between the wild-type and *Sox3*-null whole embryonic head, at least for this particular gene and the positive controls (detailed above). Given the promising result of *Ngn3*, and the previous published result indicating that *Sox3* is co-expressed with *Ngn3* in spermatogonial cells (Raverot et al., 2005), I decided to focus on this gene and compare it's expression with *Sox3* in the developing hypothalamus.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-7 qPCR analysis showing relative quantitation of 10.5 dpc embryonic heads showing the expression profile of four microarray identified genes *Sox3*, *Nfya*, *Nenf*, *Sfrp1* and *Ngn3* in wild-type and *Sox3*-null mice**

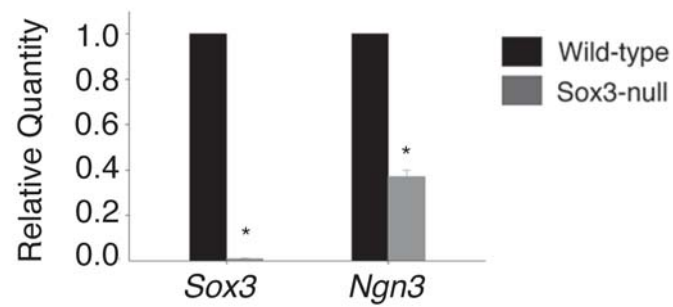
Normalized expression levels of each gene are shown relative to *Gapdh*. Two cDNA series were analyzed twice each. Error bars represent Standard Deviation of the two series.



**Figure 3-8 qPCR analysis showing relative quantitation of 10.5 dpc embryonic heads showing the expression profile of *Ngn3* and *Sox3* in wild-type, *Sox3*-null and Extra-*Sox3* mice**

Normalized expression levels of each gene are shown relative to GAPDH. Three cDNA series were analyzed thrice each. Error bars represent SEM of the three series. \* p<0.05.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-9 qPCR analysis showing relative quantitation of 10.5 dpc embryonic heads used in microarray analysis showing the expression profile of *Ngn3* and *Sox3* in wild-type and *Sox3*-null mice**

Normalized expression levels of each gene are shown relative to GAPDH. Three cDNA series were analyzed thrice each. Error bars represent SEM of the three series. \*  $p < 0.05$ .

### AIM3: EXPRESSION OF SOX3 AND SOX3 TARGET GENE(S)

#### H. *Ngn3* is Expressed in the Developing Hypothalamus

The expression of *Ngn3* in the hypothalamus has not been previously characterized in mice, but has been studied in the developing zebrafish hypothalamus (Wang et al., 2001). Indeed, little is known about its role during HP axis development. Briefly, *Ngn3*, a bHLH transcription factor and member of the neurogenin family, plays a critical role in the specification of endocrine cells in pancreatic Islets of Langerhans cells (Gradwohl et al., 2000). In the pancreas, *Ngn3*-expressing cells have been identified to be progenitor cells fated to become islet endocrine cells (Gradwohl et al., 2000).

Given that *Ngn3* was decreased in *Sox3*-null, relative to wild-type, by both microarray and qPCR, together with the previous published result indicating that *Sox3* is co-expressed with *Ngn3* in spermatogonial cells (Raverot et al., 2005), I focused my efforts on examining the expression of *Ngn3* together with *Sox3* in the developing hypothalamus, between 10.5 dpc and 14.5 dpc.

Firstly, I examined mRNA expression of *Ngn3* by *in situ* hybridization. The *Ngn3* probe was kindly donated from DJ Anderson, Howard Hughes Medical Institute, California Institute of Technology (Pasadena, CA, USA). The generation of the plasmid used is described by (Sommer et al., 1996). *Ngn3* was expressed within the developing hypothalamus (Figure 3-10, p.135). *Ngn3* expressing cells appeared located more dorsal in *Sox3*-null sections. Although there was a slight difference in the section-plane between wild-type and *Sox3*-null, the region of *Ngn3* expression was decreased in the *Sox3*-null hypothalamus. Within the median eminence of the *Sox3*-null sections *Ngn3* expressing cells were absent. *Ngn3* was not detected in progenitor cells, as it is not on in the ventricular layer and does not appear to be expressed there. However, this may be attributed to the slight variation in location of the regions and the slight angle-variation when sections were cut.

#### I. *Ngn3* is Co-expressed with *Sox3* in the Developing Hypothalamus

To further examine the expression of *Ngn3* and *Sox3* during hypothalamic development I asked two questions. Firstly, does the expression of *Ngn3* overlap with *Sox3*. Secondly, is the expression of *Ngn3* decreased in *Sox3*-null mice, compared to age matched wild-type littermates. To answer these questions I used immunostaining as this technique enables one to examine overlapping expression. Furthermore, I examined

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

several developmental time-points (10.5-15.5 dpc) to gain a better understanding of expression during hypothalamic development.

The initial time point I examined was 10.5 dpc; the same time point used in microarray analysis. Coronal sections through the embryonic brain were obtained. As shown in Figure 3-11 A (p.136) Ngn3 is expressed in ventral hypothalamic cells and within the median eminence in wild-type sections. In *Sox3*-null mice there is an absence of Ngn3-positive (Ngn3<sup>+</sup>) cells within the ventral hypothalamic region. A closer examination, by higher power magnification, revealed that not all Sox3-positive (Sox3<sup>+</sup>) cells co-express Ngn3 (Figure 3-11 B, p.136). There is overlapping expression; we see Ngn3<sup>+</sup>Sox3<sup>-</sup> cells, Ngn3<sup>-</sup>Sox3<sup>+</sup> and Ngn3<sup>+</sup>Sox3<sup>+</sup>. This overlapping expression is restricted to the lateral (ventral hypothalamic) cells. Expression is consistent with the data presented by *in situ* (providing confidence that the Ngn3 antibody is specific).

The next time point I examined was 12.5 dpc to determine whether there was a loss of Ngn3 in any region of the hypothalamus and examine whether there was overlapping expression with Sox3. Embryos from wild-type and *Sox3*-null mice were collected at 12.5 dpc and sectioned in the coronal (Figure 3-12, p.137) and sagittal plane (Figure 3-13, p.138). Immunostaining of 12.5 dpc in coronal sections did not reveal any gross loss of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells in the hypothalamic region or within the median eminence of *Sox3*-null mice compared to wild-type. Ngn3<sup>+</sup>Sox3<sup>+</sup> cells were not identified nor were there GFP<sup>+</sup>Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells in *Sox3*-null sections; GFP cells represent cells that would normally be expressing Sox3. Therefore, to examine further the possibility of a loss of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> expressing cells, sagittal sections were obtained, as these are able to show a greater region through the developing hypothalamus and Rathke's pouch. In sections from wild-type embryos Sox3<sup>+</sup> cells were expressed throughout the developing neuroepithelium (infundibulum and presumptive hypothalamus), whereas Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells were localized to cells within the posterior infundibulum and presumptive hypothalamus. In sections from *Sox3*-null embryos there was an absence of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells within the posterior infundibulum (Figure 3-13 B *vi*), median eminence, dorsal to the Rathke's pouch, and the presumptive hypothalamus.

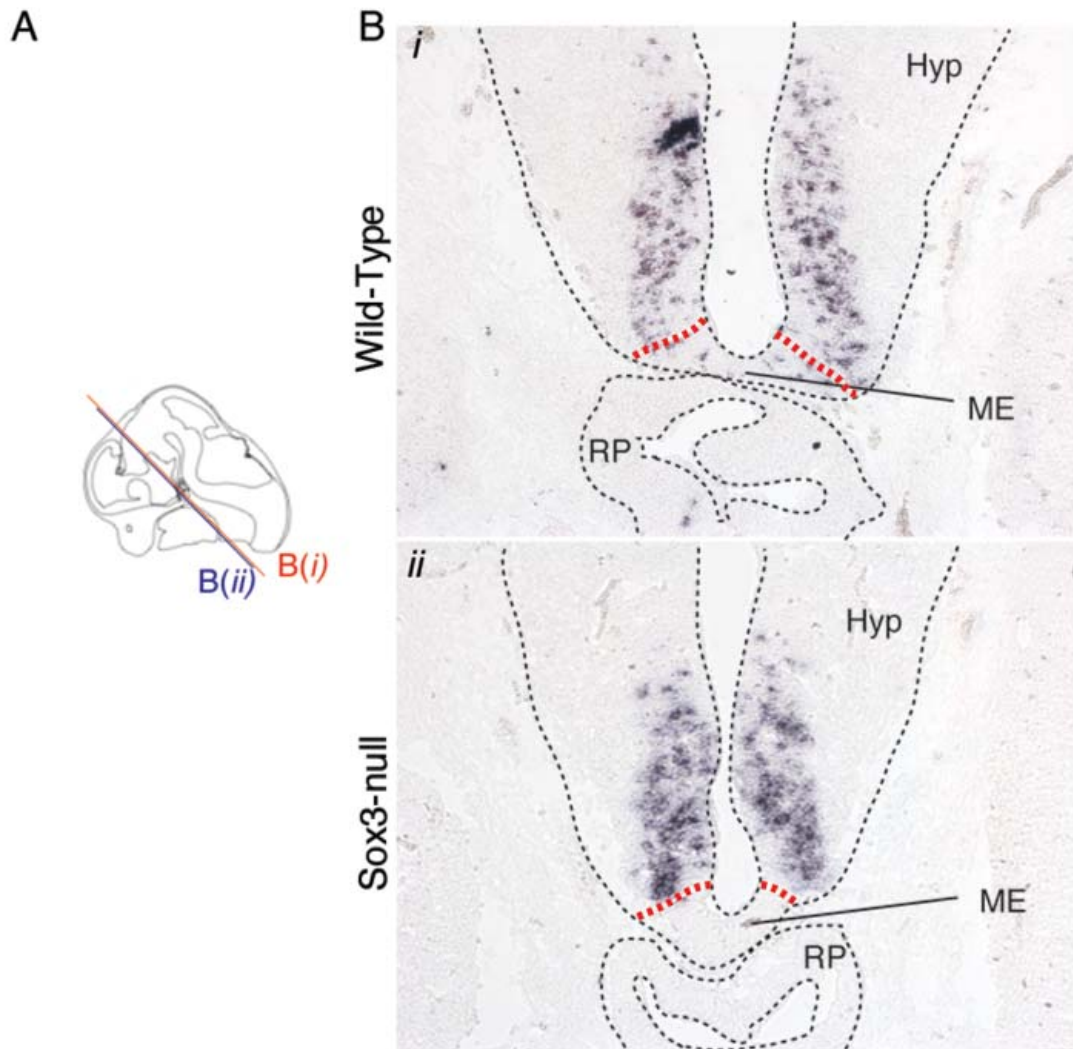
The next time point I examined was 14.5 dpc to further examine the expression of Ngn3 and Sox3 and determine whether Ngn3 'switches-off' during later development. Embryos from wild-type and *Sox3*-null mice were collected at 14.5 dpc and sectioned in the coronal plane (Figure 3-14, p.139). Immunostaining of 14.5 dpc in coronal sections did not reveal any gross loss of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells in the hypothalamic region or within the median eminence of *Sox3*-null mice compared to wild-type. However, Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells were very scarce

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

in both wild-type and *Sox3*-null in the hypothalamic region. In wild-type *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells were located within the ventral hypothalamic region, whereas in *Sox3*-null *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells were located within the arcuate nucleus (on left region only in Figure 3-14). This variation in location of *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells may be attributed to the slight difference in section processing between wild-type and *Sox3*-null embryos.

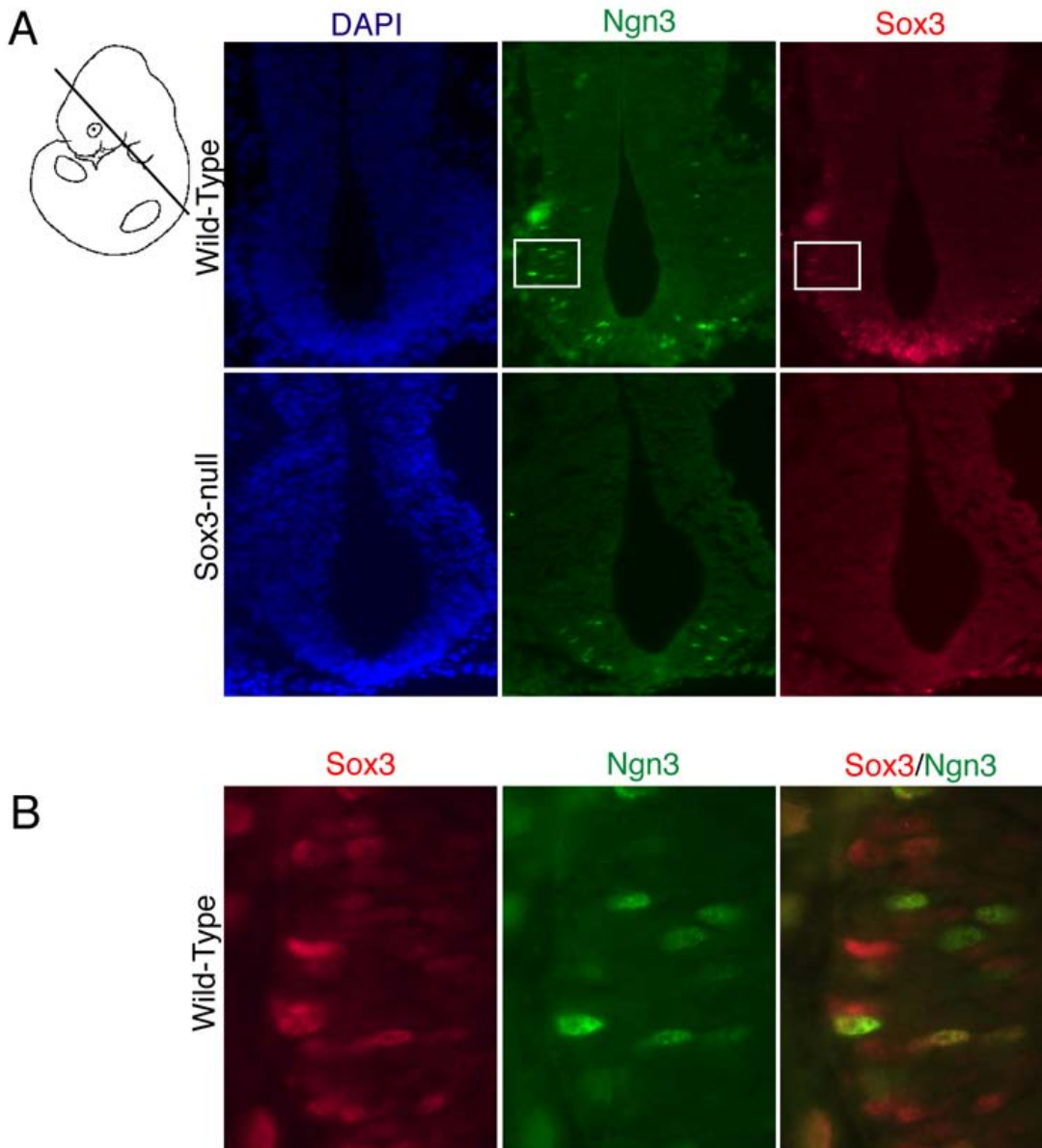
15.5 dpc embryos were also collected and immunostained for *Ngn3* and *Sox3*, however no *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells were observed (data not shown). This suggests that there is a small developmental window (at least between 10.5-14.5 dpc) during which *Ngn3* cells are expressed within the developing hypothalamus and co-express with some *Sox3*-expressing cells.

In summary, at 10.5 dpc in the wild-type *Ngn3* expression overlapped with *Sox3* in cells located in the ventral hypothalamus and median eminence. In *Sox3*-null, *Ngn3* was absent in the ventral hypothalamus. At 12.5 dpc, in coronal sections, there no gross loss of *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells in the hypothalamic region or within the median eminence of *Sox3*-null mice compared to wild-type. Examination of sagittal sections from wild-type and *Sox3*-null embryos revealed that there was an absence of *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells within the posterior infundibulum, median eminence (dorsal to the Rathke's pouch) and the presumptive hypothalamus of *Sox3*-null embryos. At 14.5 dpc, in coronal sections, there was no gross loss of *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells in the hypothalamic region or within the median eminence of *Sox3*-null mice compared to wild-type. At 15.5 dpc no *Ngn3*<sup>+</sup> cells were detected. These data suggest that *Ngn3* may be indirectly regulated by *Sox3* (Figure 3-15, p.140).



**Figure 3-10 Expression of *ngn3* in the developing hypothalamus of wild-type and *Sox3*-null 12.5 dpc coronal sections by in situ hybridization.**

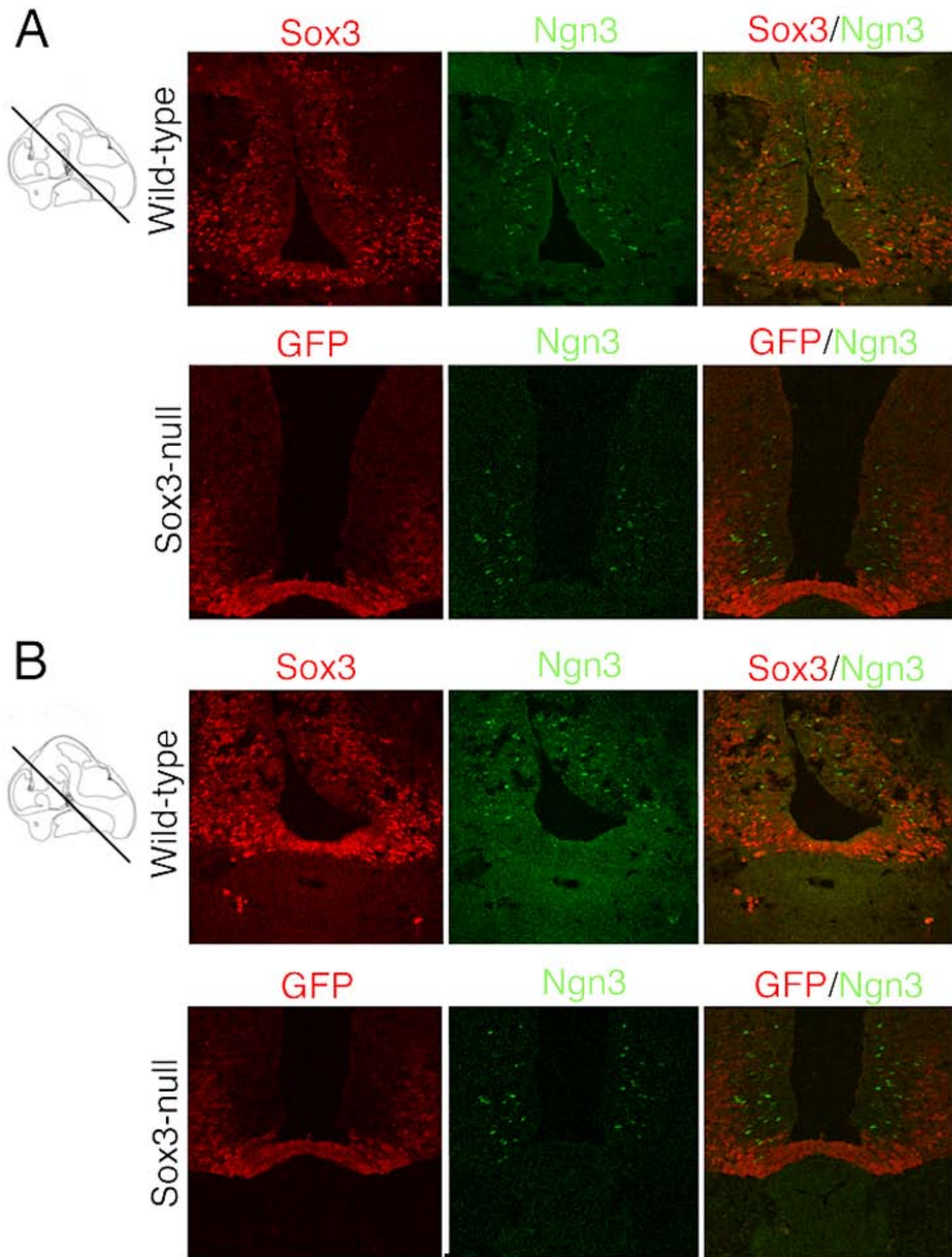
(A) Schematic representation of a sagittally sectioned 12.5 dpc mouse embryo. Lines indicate the corresponding sections shown in B. Red dashed lines indicated the region of the median eminence. Black dashed lines represent the outline of the hypothalamus and Rathke's Pouch (RP). (B) Expression of *ngn3* in the 12.5 dpc developing hypothalamus. Shown are adjacent coronal sections from wild-type (i) and *Sox3*-null (ii). *ngn3* transcript is detectable in the hypothalamic region. Abbreviations: Hyp, hypothalamus; ME, median eminence; RP, Rathke's Pouch.



**Figure 3-11 Ngn3 is co-expressed with Sox3 in the developing hypothalamus at 10.5 dpc wild-type and Sox3-null mice – coronal orientation.**

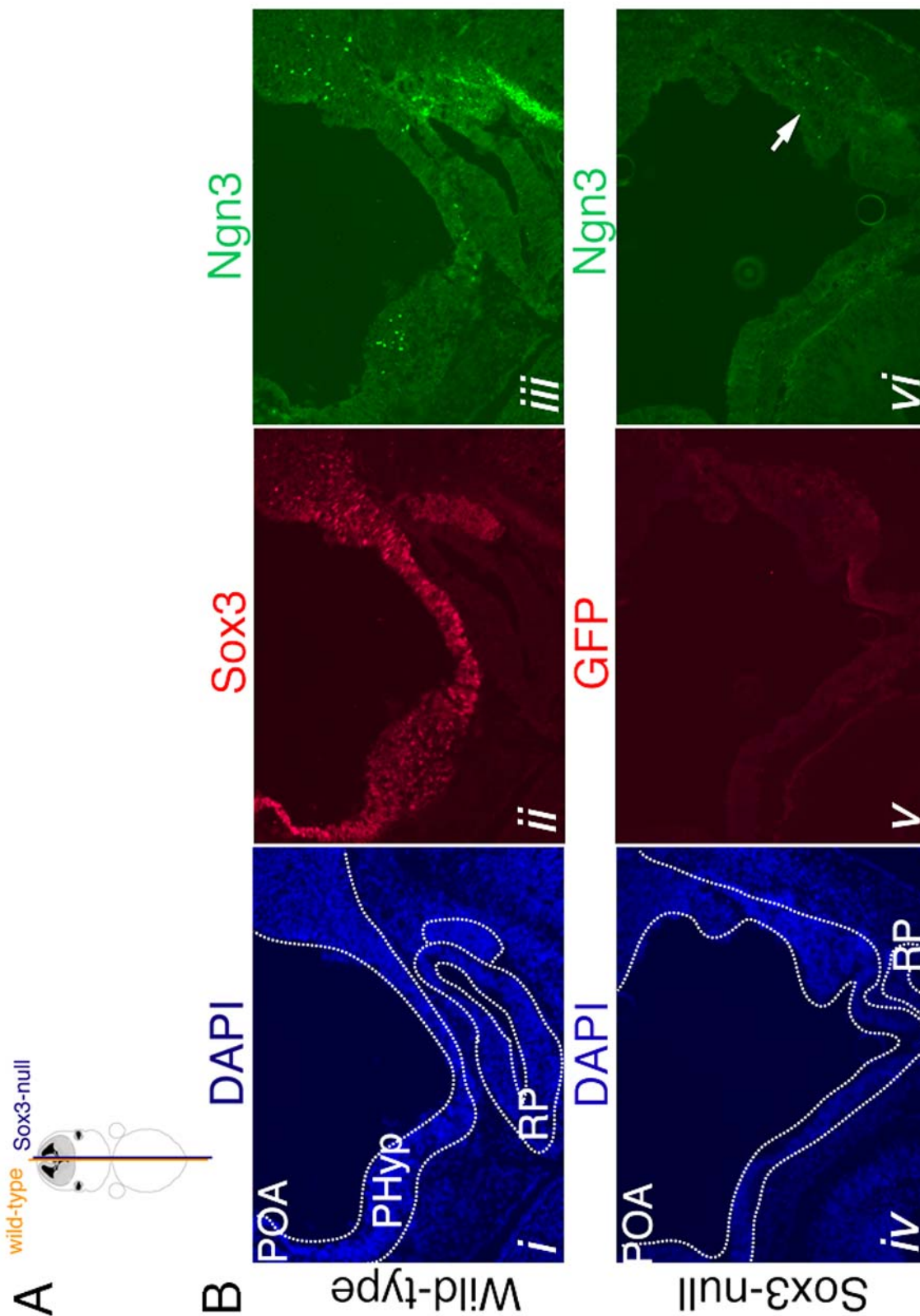
(A) Coronal sections through the embryonic brain (region shown in mouse embryo schematic). Sections are slightly more posterior to the median eminence. Sox3-null mice show an absence in the ventral hypothalamic region. (B) High magnification images of wild-type region (as shown by box in A). Not all Sox3<sup>+</sup> cells co-express Ngn3. Co-expression (as shown in the merged image by yellow immunostaining) of Ngn3<sup>+</sup>Sox3<sup>+</sup> is seen in few cells. Images were captured using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope and AxioCam MRm with Axiovision software. Magnification 10x in (A) and 100x (oil) in (B).





**Figure 3-12 Expression of Ngn3 and Sox3 in the developing hypothalamus at 12.5 dpc wild-type and Sox3-null mice – coronal orientation**

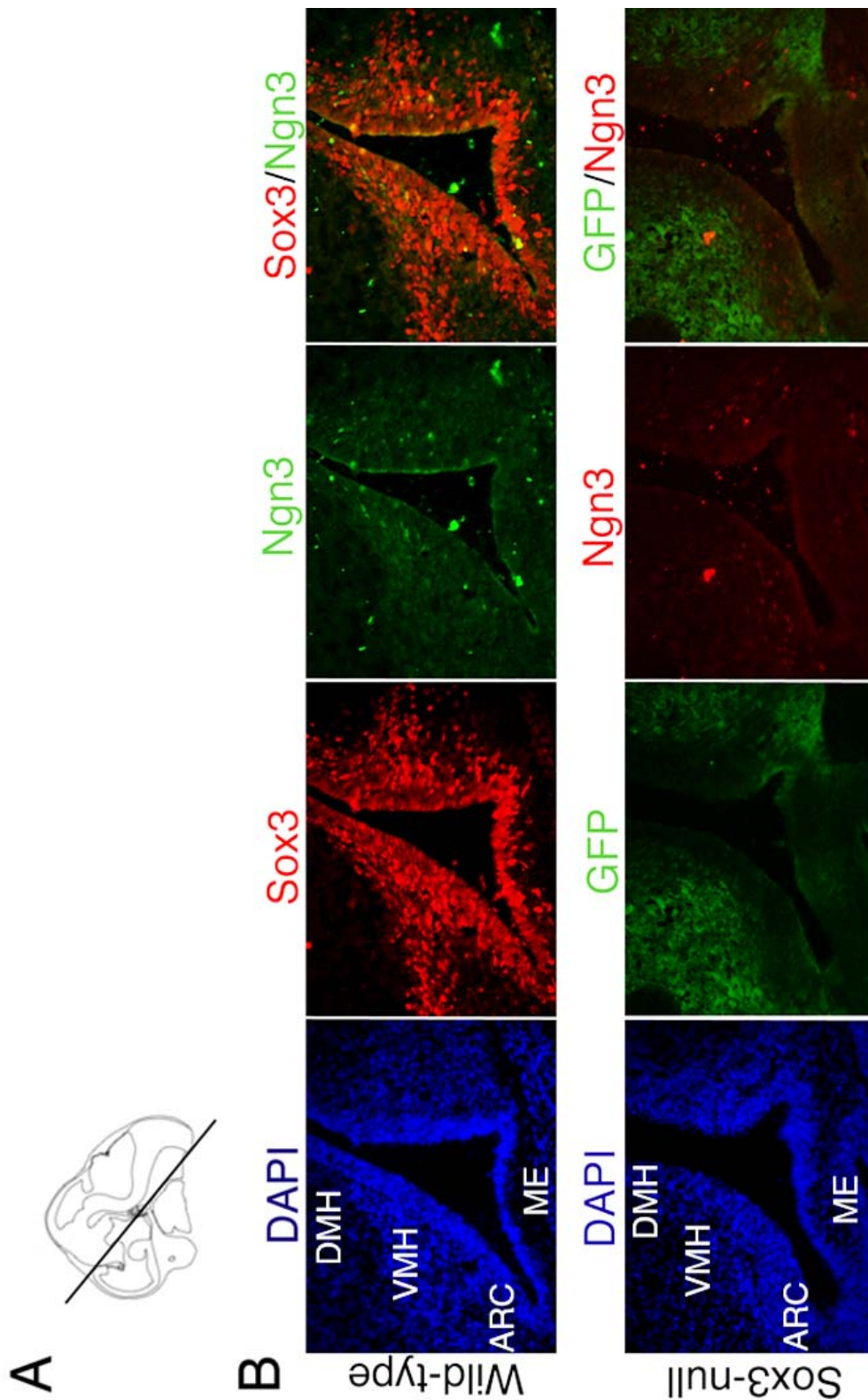
Coronal sections through the embryonic brain (region shown in mouse embryo schematic). (A) Sections are slightly posterior to the median eminence. There were no Sox3<sup>+</sup>Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells in either wild-type or Sox3-null sections. (B) Sections are slightly more anterior (to those in A). There was no distinct difference in expression of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells. Images were captured using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope and AxioCam MRm with Axiovision software. Magnification 20x.



**Figure 3-13 Expression of Ngn3 and Sox3 in the developing hypothalamus at 12.5 dpc in wild-type and Sox3-null mice – sagittal orientation**

(A) Schematic representation of the embryonic brain. Lines indicate corresponding sections in B. (B) Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells are absent in the median eminence (arrow in panel *vi*), dorsal to the Rathke's pouch (RP). Images were captured using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope and AxioCam MRM with Axiovision software. Magnification 20x. Abbreviations: POA, pre-optic area; PHyp, presumptive hypothalamus.

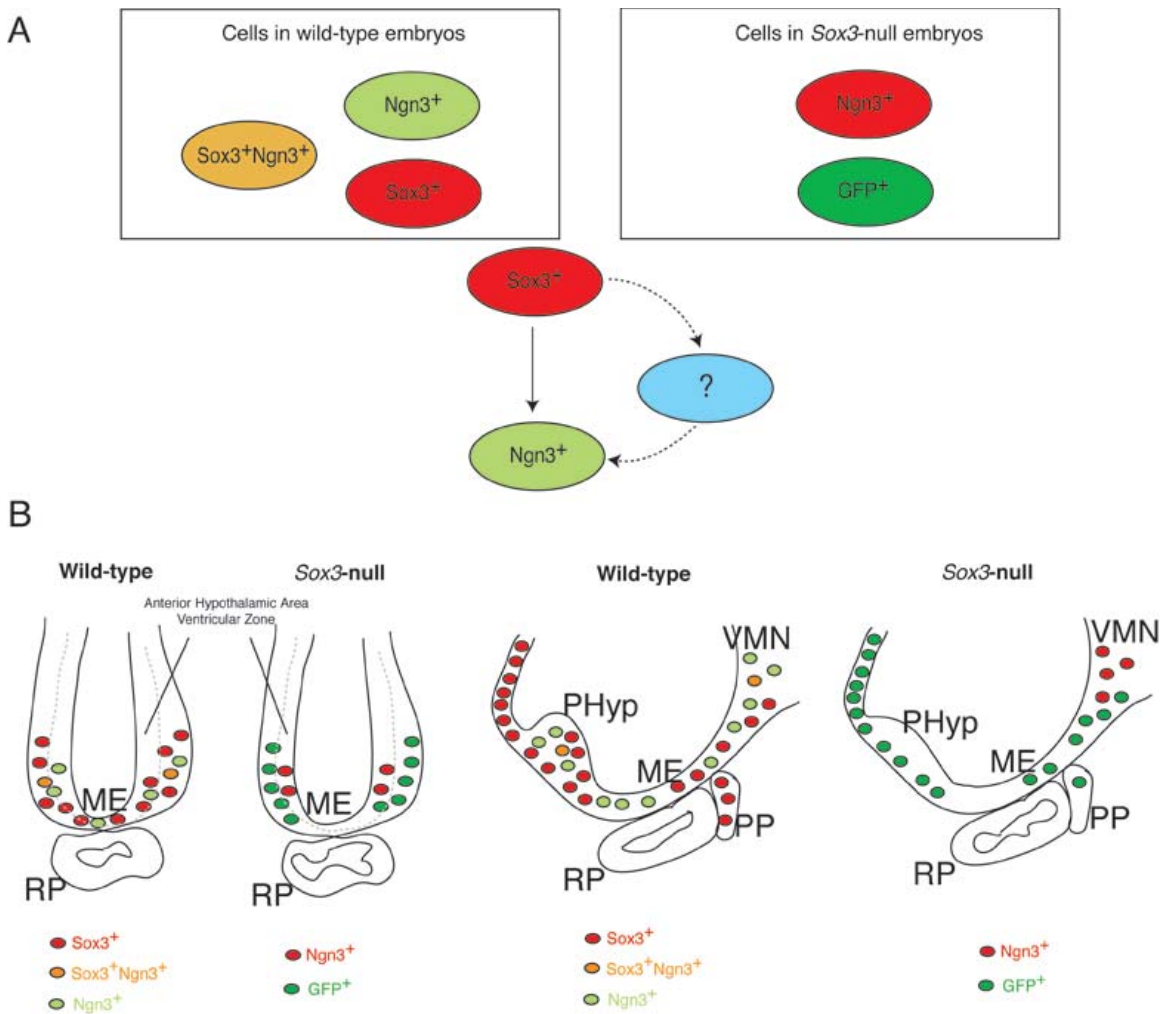
3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-14 Expression of Ngn3 and Sox3 in the developing mouse hypothalamus at 14.5 dpc – coronal orientation.**

(A) Schematic representation of coronal section through the embryonic brain. (B) *Sox3*-null mice show Ngn3<sup>+</sup> (red) cells in the ventral hypothalamic area. In wild-type mice, Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells (green) are located ventral. Images were captured using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope and AxioCam MRm with Axiovision software. Magnification 20x. Abbreviations: DMH, dorsal medial hypothalamus; VMH, ventromedial hypothalamus; ARC, arcuate nucleus; ME, median eminence.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes



**Figure 3-15 Model of Ngn3 and Sox3 cells during mouse HP axis development between 10.5 – 12.5 dpc.**

(A) Schematic representation of the Ngn3<sup>+</sup>, Sox3<sup>+</sup>, GFP<sup>+</sup>, and Sox3<sup>+</sup>Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells detected in the developing hypothalamus at 10.5 dpc. (B) Schematic representation of the regions expressing Ngn3<sup>+</sup>, Sox3<sup>+</sup>, GFP<sup>+</sup>, and Sox3<sup>+</sup>Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells in wild-type and Sox3-null embryos at 10.5 dpc in the coronal plane and 12.5 dpc in the sagittal plane. Abbreviations: RP, Rathke's pouch; ME, median eminence PHyp, presumptive hypothalamus; VMN, ventromedial nucleus, PP, posterior hypothalamus.

## IV. DISCUSSION

The function and expression of *Sox3* in brain development has been well studied in mice and humans and its disruption/deletion has been linked to XH (Alatzoglou et al., 2008; Bergstrom et al., 2000; Brunelli et al., 2003; Bylund et al., 2003; Laumonier et al., 2002; Neves et al., 2007; Nikcevic et al., 2008; Rizzoti et al., 2004; Rizzoti and Lovell-Badge, 2007; Stevanovic et al., 1993; Wang et al., 2006b; Woods et al., 2005). However, we do not know the target gene(s) of *Sox3/SOX3*, either direct or indirect. By setting out to identify *Sox3* target genes we are likely to gain a greater understanding of the mechanisms involved in brain development. To tackle this gap in our knowledge microarray analysis was chosen as a tool to examine change in gene expression at 10.5 dpc in wild-type, *Sox3*-null and Extra-*Sox3* mouse embryos, with the aim to identify potential *Sox3* target genes. As microarrays act as a tool, it is important to validate the data generated with an independent approach, in this case qPCR. Genes that are detected as being differentially expressed are validated by qPCR and subsequently these identified and confirmed differentially expressed gene(s) can be further analyzed for expression by *in situ* hybridization and immunohistochemistry.

### A. FACS Does Not Yield Enough GFP<sup>+</sup> Cells from *Sox3*-null 10.5 dpc Mouse Embryonic Heads

In order to examine the gene expression differences between the *Sox3*-null, Extra-*Sox3* and wild-type mice a microarray gene profiling approach was utilized. In this study, Illumina BeadChip glass microarrays were chosen over the previously used Affymetrix membrane arrays, as they offered a number of benefits including their ability to simultaneously analyze six different samples at once, improved image acquisition and analysis, and increased number of genes per array. The originally intended source of RNA was sorted GFP<sup>+</sup> cells from embryonic 10.5 dpc heads from the three *Sox3* transgenic strains using FACS. A similar study examined *Pax2*-regulated genes in mid-hindbrain patterning from E10.5 wild-type and *Pax2*<sup>-/-</sup> embryos carrying a *Pax2*<sup>GFP</sup> BAC transgene (Bouchard et al., 2005). The authors successfully identified genes, using cDNA microarray technology that depends on *Pax2* function for their expression in the mid-hindbrain boundary region (Bouchard et al., 2005). However, adapting this method to the *Sox3* gene proved to be an insurmountable challenge to collect enough GFP<sup>+</sup> cells per embryo to extract enough RNA for microarray analysis. The required RNA minimum was 50ng for microarray hybridization.

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

As described in Chapter 1 III Sox Family of Transcription Factors (p.50), Sox3 is expressed within the developing CNS. In the transgenic mouse models of altered Sox3 expression, GFP has been inserted in place of Sox3 in Sox3-null mice. Using live GFP imaging I was able to determine which mice carry the transgene. However, live-GFP in these mice is not very intense. As reported by (Corish and Tyler-Smith, 1999) it is still debatable as to how accurately GFP fluorescence intensity is a reliable indicator of GFP levels in the cell. Corish and Tyler-Smith (1999) suggest that two factors may significantly affect the fluorescent properties of GFP, namely the requirement for post-translational oxidative fluorophore formation and the sensitivity to cellular pH. These could result in fluorescence intensities being lower than actual GFP concentration (Corish and Tyler-Smith, 1999). Analysis by western blot analysis has shown that a good correlation exists between fluorescence intensity and protein concentration (Li et al., 1998). It is likely that the low GFP fluorescence of these cells is contributing to the low numbers being collected through FACS.

I examined two methods of cell dissociation, one using trypsin and another using a combination of collagenase B and dispase II in Hank's Balanced Salt Solution. Both methods were trialed thrice and in all cases results showed that less than 0.1% of all cells per embryo head were sorted as GFP-positive cells. For the microarray, a minimum of 50ng RNA is required per group. To be able to collect enough cells to generate enough RNA to be collected, an extremely large number of embryos, and subsequently matings, would need to be set-up according to a schedule that would provide sufficient 10.5 dpc embryos on a single day for dissociating and sorting sufficient Sox3 cells (refer to 3III.A, p.108). In a similar study, Bouchard et al, 2005 found that 5,000 cells produced approximately 5ng RNA (Bouchard et al., 2005). Extrapolating this result to my RNA needs in order to obtain the required minimum 50ng RNA would require approximately 30 GFP<sup>+</sup> embryos per mouse line. As an alternative to sorting GFP<sup>+</sup> cells a different approach was taken. Briefly, I set about collecting 10.5 dpc embryonic heads (cut below the second branchial arch) from which total RNA was extracted and analyzed for integrity using the Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer (Adelaide Microarray Facility, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia, Australia). RNA samples were chosen based on their RNA integrity number (RIN), which assigns a numerical value (based on the amount of RNA degradation) for the quality of RNA. RNA was determined to be of high quality with RINs between the ranges of 7.5-10. For each transgenic Sox3 mouse line a total of three samples were analyzed: two RNA samples from independent mouse embryos from two different litters and one pooled sample from four independent mouse embryos. The pooled and individual mouse embryo samples of RNA were used to help reduce individual variation, increase the emphasis on

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

specific variation caused by the loss of *Sox3* and increase the reproducibility of the experiment during statistical analysis. A similar experimental design approach has previously been utilized for the identification of *Rfx4v3* target genes involved in brain development in the mouse (Zhang et al., 2006). These authors successfully isolated RNA from 10.5 dpc wild-type and *Rfx4vs*-null embryonic mouse heads and identified differentially expressed genes between samples (Zhang et al., 2006). A similar study, examining differentially expressed genes in the developing hypothalamic region of E12.5 *SIM1*-null and wild-type mice, successfully identified both up- and down-regulated genes, using an oligonucleotide-based microarray (Caqueret et al., 2006). In this study, the anterior hypothalamus (AH) was isolated from embryos by first splitting the head on the midline and from the two halves the AH was bisected. Although this method collected and used a precise area, it has some disadvantages. Isolating the same precise region from each embryo is difficult, and is likely to include surrounding tissue that includes genes specific to that area. In turn, these will be detected in the microarray and could result in a higher false-positive identification. Nonetheless, the authors were able to focus in on known genes that act downstream of *Sim1* in the embryonic hypothalamus.

#### B. Microarray Analysis Validation

A comparison of all the statistical tests, SAM and t-test, revealed that a total of 45 genes were identified as down-regulated in *Sox3*-null mice. In contrast, only 18 genes were identified as down-regulated in *Sox3*-null mice using the LIMMA statistical method. The various statistical approaches resulted in some genes being detected as differentially expressed and others not. Here, RNA was extracted from whole embryonic mouse heads, rather than from the GFP<sup>+</sup> cells. Therefore, it is expected that there will be a higher false-positive discovery rate. It is evident that the genes known to be down-regulated are confirmed. As part of the validation process, my colleague Dale McAninch performed extensive validation on some of the known genes using both independent and microarray RNA samples. Briefly, he chose control genes *Sox3*, *GFP*, and *Xist* to examine by qPCR. He demonstrated that *Sox3* and *GFP* are only expressed in wild-type and *Sox3*-null samples, respectively, and *Xist* is only present in female samples; the expected outcomes (McAninch, 2008). Furthermore, the GFP ORF, which replaces the *Sox3* ORF is another positive control. In wild-type samples *Sox3* should only be detectable whereas in *Sox3*-null samples only *GFP*. The microarray data detected *Sox3* in wild-type samples but not in *Sox3*-null samples, however *GFP* was not detected in either wild-type or *Sox3*-null samples. The microarray *GFP* probe detects enhanced *GFP* (eGFP) that has approximately 30% silent base substitutions compared with *GFP*. Thus, this is the likely explanation for why the

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microarray was unable to detect GFP in the *Sox3*-null samples. By using qPCR primers for GFP Dale was able to detect GFP in *Sox3*-null samples thereby demonstrating expression in *Sox3*-null but not wild-type samples. These results confirmed that some of the genes identified by microarray analysis were correct, as validated by qPCR. However, many of the genes identified by microarray and chosen by my colleague, Dale McAninch, for validation by qPCR were not confirmed.

While it remains unclear why there were such a high number of false positive genes within the microarray, there are a number of possibilities pertaining to the microarray process. These include the quality of RNA, array hybridization, data analysis and data validation (Morey et al., 2006).

RNA was extracted from the 10.5 dpc mouse embryonic heads and analyzed using the Agilent Bioanalyzer (Adelaide Microarray Facility, The University of Adelaide). The higher the quality of RNA, based on RIN higher than 8, is better suited for microarray and qPCR analysis (refer to Figure 3-3, p.114 and Chapter 2XIV.B Analysis of RNA Quality, p.93). All RNA samples used in the microarray were of the highest quality and are unlikely to have resulted in the variability seen. My colleague, Dale McAninch, analyzed a number of the microarray RNA samples by qPCR and the results showed identical gene expression to independent RNA and cDNA preparations (McAninch, 2008).

Microarray hybridization involves the incubation of each aRNA sample with one array, allowing binding to its corresponding probe. Bound RNA probes are washed and incubated with Cy3 conjugated streptavidin that is then followed by image acquisition using a fibre optic scanner that measures the fluorescence intensity (measures the absolute abundance of a transcript) of each bead. Array hybridization and data collection were performed by the AUSTRALIAN GENOME RESEARCH FACILITY (AGRF) and the quality of data was assessed by standard proprietary quality control measures; all passed. It is unlikely that an error here affected the identification of differentially expressed genes, given that all positive control genes were confirmed by qPCR (as detailed above).

One of the core goals of microarray data analysis is to identify the genes which were being differentially expressed. The major important goal is to select a statistic that will rank the genes in order of evidence for differential expression, from strongest to weakest. The primary importance of ranking genes arises from the fact that only a limited number of genes can be tested. By using the criteria outlined in Chapter 2XIV.F Criteria for the Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes (p.101) I was able to use this together with the three statistical methods (LIMMA, SAM, and t-test) to identify differentially expressed genes (refer to results section 3III.E Identification of Differentially Expressed



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Genes, 120). As discussed above, the positive control genes, *Sox3*, *GFP* and *Xist* were identified correctly by the microarray and confirmed by qPCR. However, my colleague, Dale McAninch, was unable to confirm the gene set he had chosen. However, from those I selected (*Nfya*, *Ngn3*, *Sfrp1*, and *Nenf*) only *Ngn3* was confirmed down-regulated by qPCR (Figure 3-9, p.131) (discussed below). It appears that many of the genes identified as being differentially expressed appear to have some evidence of expression within the developing brain. Perhaps the false positive data represents inaccuracies in the measurement of absolute levels of these genes. It is therefore probable that real changes in gene expression due to the loss of *Sox3* are present. Nevertheless, to detect them would require the analysis of all genes identified by the microarray, technically possible but expensive and time consuming.

#### C. Microarray Analysis and qPCR Validation Reveal *Ngn3* as a Likely Target Gene of *Sox3*

Of the genes I selected (*Nfya*, *Ngn3*, *Sfrp1*, and *Nenf*) from the microarray results, that were expressed within the developing hypothalamus, for validation by qPCR, only *Ngn3* was down-regulated in *Sox3*-null mice (Figure 3-8 and Figure 3-9, p.131). In Extra-*Sox3* 10.5 dpc mice *Ngn3* was not significantly up-regulated, this may be due to *Ngn3* requiring a cofactor at higher levels. This was not examined further but requires validation (Figure 3-8, p.130).

*Ngn3*, a bHLH transcription factor and a member of the neurogenin family (of which there are two additional members, *Ngn1* and *Ngn2*), plays a critical role in the specification of endocrine cells in the pancreatic Islets of Langerhans (Gradwohl et al., 2000) and is expressed in the developing hypothalamus of zebrafish (Wang et al., 2001). Specifically, *Ngn3*-expressing cells in the pancreas have been shown to be progenitor cells that are fated to give rise to islet endocrine cells (Gradwohl et al., 2000). However, little is known about *Ngn3*/*Ngn3* expression and function in the hypothalamus. Furthermore, previous reports have only described *Ngn3* expression at various stages in the pancreas (Burlison et al., 2008; Gradwohl et al., 2000; Murtaugh, 2007; Schwitzgebel et al., 2000) with limited detail pertaining to its characterization in the hypothalamus (Wang et al., 2001).

Here, I identified expression of the *Ngn3* RNA transcripts at 10.5 dpc and protein during hypothalamic development in mice between 10.5-14.5 dpc (discussed below). Interestingly, this is the first study to have identified *Ngn3* as a potential target gene of *Sox3* in the developing hypothalamus, in mice. I define a dramatic and previously unnoticed gap in developmental *Ngn3* expression in the hypothalamus; limited studies

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

have examined the role of Ngn3 in the developing hypothalamus, in mice (Raverot et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2001). The results presented within this body of work shows that both Ngn3 and *Sox3* transcript and protein expression occur during early development at 10.5 dpc, and that Ngn3 expression is not detected at 15.5 dpc (data not shown). It is tempting to speculate that Ngn3 expression within the hypothalamus plays a critical role in the specification of hypothalamic endocrine cells.

From previous studies in the pancreas we know that Ngn3 commits the fates of pancreatic progenitors to endocrine cell types (Baeyens et al., 2006; Gasa et al., 2004; Gradwohl et al., 2000; Huang et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2001; Mellitzer et al., 2006; Petri et al., 2006; Villasenor et al., 2008). Targeted inactivation of *Ngn3* leads to complete absence of all four differentiated endocrine cell types, in the pancreas (Gradwohl et al., 2000). Mice homozygous for the Ngn3 null mutation develop diabetes and die 1-3 days after birth (Gradwohl et al., 2000); the hypothalamus of these mice has not been examined. Ngn3-positive (Ngn3<sup>+</sup>) cells are present in all embryonic stages between E9 and E18.5 in the developing mouse pancreas (Apelqvist et al., 1999; Jensen et al., 2000a; Jorgensen et al., 2007; Schwitzgebel et al., 2000). Hitherto each pancreatic cell only transiently expresses Ngn3 in a shorter-than-48-hour time frame (Gu et al., 2002; Schwitzgebel et al., 2000). Thus, there are three distinct aspects of Ngn3 expression that require tight regulation. Firstly, the number of Ngn3<sup>+</sup> cells needs to be controlled to ensure that there is a balance between islet cell differentiation and progenitor cell proliferation (Apelqvist et al., 1999; Jensen et al., 2000b). Second, the expression of Ngn3 must reach a threshold level to activate endocrine differentiation (Wilson et al., 2002). Third, Ngn3 expression must be down-regulated for endocrine differentiation to become switched on.

The known target genes of *Ngn3*, detected in pancreatic tissue, are NEUROD1, NKX2.2, PAX4, insulinoma-associated 1 (IA1) and myelin transcription factor 1 (Myt1) (Huang et al., 2000; Mellitzer et al., 2006; Smith et al., 2003). Only Myt1 was detected as down-regulated in *Sox3*-null embryonic heads, by all three statistical tests with a fold change greater than 2, in the microarray study (refer to Appendices - Microarray DATA showing differentially expressed genes, p.210). *Neurod1*, although not detected by microarray, is expressed within the developing hypothalamus. Recently, a study identified, by chromatin immunoprecipitation, a zinc-finger transcription factor, OVO homologue-like 1 (OVOL1) as a direct target of Ngn3 (Vetere et al., 2010). OVOL1 belongs to a family of evolutionarily conserved genes found in *C. elegans*, *Drosophila*, mice and humans, and regulates the development of epithelial tissues and germ cells (Dai et al., 1998; Oliver et al., 1987). In mice, *Ovol1* expression is limited in its cellular distribution to skin, testis and

kidneys (Dai et al., 1998; Li et al., 2005; Nair et al., 2006). *Ovol1* was not detected by microarray.

#### **D. Expression Studies by Immunohistochemistry Reveal that Sox3 and Ngn3 are Co-expressed in the Developing Hypothalamus**

Immunostaining and *in situ* hybridization (compare Figure 3-10, p.135 and Figure 3-12, p.137, respectively) was not conducted on consecutive sections from the same embryo, therefore I am unable to determine accurately whether *Ngn3* transcript is more wide-spread throughout the hypothalamic region than the protein, which was clearly restricted to individual scattered cells; in some of which the expression of *Ngn3* overlapped that of *Sox3*. It is possible that *in situ* hybridization is more sensitive and therefore better at detecting low levels of *Ngn3*, than immunostaining. Moreover, these observations could be suggesting that post-transcriptional regulation may be important during endocrine differentiation. Certainly, this has been the case when examining *Ngn3* transcript and protein expression in the developing pancreas, in mice (Villasenor et al., 2008).

It was also observed that *Ngn3*-expressing cells contained variable levels of protein (Figure 3-11, p.136), as determined by immunostaining. It is likely possible that this high versus low expression correlates with the initial differentiation of hypothalamic endocrine cells. This transient expression has been shown to occur in pancreatic cells (Gu et al., 2002; Schwitzgebel et al., 2000; Villasenor et al., 2008). Interestingly, cells expressing high levels of *Sox3* also express high levels of *Ngn3*, and are located in the mid-dorsal hypothalamic region. We know that the hypothalamic cells differentiate outside-in (lateral - medial), with the cells located more lateral being more differentiated (refer to the review by (Szarek et al., 2010)). Thereby, it is likely that those cells expressing high levels of both *Ngn3* and *Sox3* that are found more lateral are undergoing differentiation, whereas those found more medial are likely to have been differentiated. The exact fate of these cells remains unknown and warrants further investigation. Although we do not know for certain whether *Ngn3* is a direct target of *Sox3*, it is likely to be an important downstream gene that shapes hypothalamic endocrine development and neurodifferentiation, an area poorly understood. In the examination of *Ngn3* during neurodifferentiation in zebrafish, (Wang et al., 2001) found a region harboring *ngn3* expression in the anterior hypothalamus (for a review please see (Rubenstein et al., 1998)). Interestingly, at 48-hour post fertilization, cells expressing *ngn3* were juxtaposed to a domain of expression of SF-1-related *ff1b* (NR5A4). In zebrafish *Ff1b*, a member of the Ftz-F1 subfamily of orphan nuclear receptors,

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has been established as the homolog of SF-1 (Mazilu et al., 2010; Quek and Chan, 2009). Ff1b has been proposed to alter hypothalamic and hypophysial function (Chai and Chan, 2000). In mice that lack SF-1 there is an almost complete ablation of the ventromedial hypothalamic nucleus. This region has been implicated in the regulation of GnRH neurons (Dellovade et al., 2000). In mice and rats, GnRH neurons, all born in the olfactory placode at E9.5, are found scattered in the medial septum, preoptic area and anterior hypothalamus (Jasoni et al., 2009). It remains a mystery as to how and why GnRH neurons end up in these forebrain regions. These results further suggest a potential role of Ngn3 in hypothalamic neuroendocrine cell differentiation, at least in mice and zebrafish. It remains unclear the function of Ngn3 in the developing neuroendocrine hypothalamus.

#### E. Conclusion and Future Directions

In conclusion, the experiments outlined were designed to further knowledge in the role Sox3 plays during brain development, with the hope of identifying key target genes. This study provides the first detailed analysis of gene expression in *Sox3*-null and Extra-*Sox3* 10.5 dpc mouse embryonic heads by microarray. This study demonstrated that the majority of genes determined to be down-regulated by microarray could not be confirmed by either qPCR or Northern blot analysis (McAninch, 2008) and accordingly the data may have contained many false-positive results. However, only one gene, *Ngn3*, was found to be down-regulated by both microarray and qPCR methods. Thus, these data provide a foundation for further studies, specifically in examining in more detail *Ngn3*, a potential downstream target gene in Sox3 signaling during brain development.

Another practicable path to successfully identify target genes of *Sox3* by microarray would be to use neurospheres generated from Sox3 expressing tissues (recently generated in the lab, Nick Rogers) or knockdown cell cultures or those over-expressing Sox3. Neurospheres and cell cultures would provide a more homogenous source material, however it is uncertain as to how the information obtained would reflect endogenous *Sox3* targets.

A different approach would be to perform Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP), a cost effective and technically accessible procedure. In brief, ChIP utilizes cells of interest that are cross-linked and would thereby bind protein and DNA. For this procedure, cells need to be fragmented by sonication, followed by sonication of the DNA into fragments that are suitable for PCR. With the use of a specific antibody, in this case SOX3, DNA/protein complexes are precipitated from solution. The DNA retrieved is then analyzed by one of several methods currently available. For example, ChIP sequencing,

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which allows sequencing of all DNA present in the sample, provides a robust catalogue of SOX3-bound DNA regions. This catalogue of sequences provides regulatory regions to which *Sox3* binds, thereby providing direct target gene identification. However, ChIP sequencing is not able to provide information on indirect targets because these are not directly bound. Cells for the use in ChIP can be obtained from two sources. Ideally, cells would be collected from 10.5 dpc mouse embryonic heads. Cells that express *Sox3* would be obtained from age-matched wild-type embryos, whereas for negative control cells from age-matched *Sox3*-null embryos. In addition, *Sox3*-expressing neurospheres could also be utilized. For ChIP to be successful a specific antibody for *Sox3* is required. There are currently two *Sox3* specific antibodies commercially available, both have been successfully trialed in immunohistochemistry: one produced by R&D (this antibody was used in the immunostaining experiments within this body of work) and the second by GenWayBio (Catalog Number: 18-003-43230; CA, USA). Note: Even though an antibody may be successful in detecting the protein in sections by immunostaining, this does not necessarily indicate success for ChIP.

Aside from further experiments, a bioinformatics approach can be applied to identify differentially expressed genes, given that we know that *Sox3* binds to the Sox Consensus Motif (AAC AAT). Many bioinformatics approaches and tools have been developed for comparative genomics analysis. Using these approaches one is able to find orthologous relationships of genes by analyzing their protein sequences as well as looking for transcription factor binding sites with these tools. Furthermore, by using known functional information about the gene of interest, one can use statistical models to discover novel targets. These include using motif-finding algorithms, such as MEME (Bailey and Elkan, 1995) and Gibbs Sampler (Lawrence et al., 1993), and promoter and gene finders, such as Twinscan (Korf et al., 2001). Together with microarray analysis and ChIP data, the use of statistical methods will significantly increase the analyzing power in discovering differentially expressed genes.

Given that *Ngn3* was identified as down-regulated, by both microarray and qPCR, and has been previously detected to be co-expressed in *Sox3* expressing cells, at least in spermatogonial cells (Raverot et al., 2005), it would be advantageous to examine this connection further. For example, taking advantage of the available transgenic mouse line expressing the *Cre*-recombinase gene under the control of the mouse *Ngn3* gene promoter to characterize the activity of *Ngn3* and tracing *Ngn3* progeny during hypothalamic development (Yoshida et al., 2004)

### 3. Identification of Sox3 Target Genes

We do know that Ngn3 is expressed from E9.5, in mice (Villasenor et al., 2008) and, from the results shown here, Ngn3 is not detected at 15.5 dpc (data not shown). Furthermore, I detected that Ngn3 is co-expressed in some, but not all, Sox3-expressing cells. This raises the question whether the expression is region specific and also whether there is an effect on timing. As shown at 10.5 dpc, there were more Sox3-expressing/Ngn3-expressing cells than when comparing to 14.5 dpc. Moreover, which neuroendocrine cells require Ngn3 for differentiation? To examine this further we can generate Nestin-*Cre* CNS-specific *Ngn3*-null mice and look for hypothalamic defects.

Overall, the results from this project provide important insights into the identification of *Sox3* target genes. Identification of a decreased expression of Ngn3 in the developing brain of *Sox3*-null mice is intriguing, but further work is required to determine its exact role and function during hypothalamic development. Further research into hypothalamic development is likely to have a considerable importance for human health. Genetic defects in the development of specific cell subtypes in the hypothalamus may directly lead to disorders of metabolism (already reported for congenital obesity (Holder et al., 2000)) and homeostasis.

# 4 Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis

## I. INTRODUCTION

Dysfunction of the hypothalamic-pituitary axis (HP) axis occurs in approximately 1 in 2,200 live births (Pescovitz and Eugster, 2004) and is associated with a range of common disease states including short stature, infertility, hypogonadism, poor stress management and slow metabolism. While several genes involved in common disease states have been identified the genetic cause in many patients remains unknown.

Growth-deficient mice provide an invaluable model with which to elucidate the molecular mechanisms involved in the physiological regulation of growth and the genetic influence. Various growth-retarded mouse models have been generated from spontaneous gene mutations that have resulted in dwarfism and have provided an extremely useful system with which to elucidate the mechanisms of GH regulation and transcription factor interplay. However, dwarfism is not limited to disorders that affect the pituitary gland (e.g. GH1) and/or hypothalamus (GHRHR) (refer to Chapter 1IV.A Growth-Hormone and Growth Hormone-Releasing Factor, p.59). In this study I identified and further examined a

#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis

novel recessive mouse mutant, *Tukku*<sup>7</sup>, exhibiting dwarfism. The mouse was generated by N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU) mutagenesis at The Australian Phenomics Centre (APC, Canberra, ACT, Australia). The mutation was identified to be a point mutation of leucine to proline, at residue 30 in the ORF, in the *Wars* gene (*Wars*<sup>L30P</sup>). Although the identification of the mutation was not made apparent until further into the characterization of the dwarfism phenotype, I would like to provide a very brief introduction to this gene.

*Wars*, or tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase, belongs to a large family of enzymes, the aminoacyl-tRNA synthetase (AARS) family of enzymes. AARSs are large enzymes that have evolved from two different active sites, gradually incorporating additional domains (Ribas de Pouplana and Geslain, 2008). There are 20 cytoplasmic AARSs in vertebrates, each specific for one amino acid. AARS enzyme are named after their single letter amino acid code and followed by 'ARS'. For example, the ARS for tryptophan (amino acid code W) is known as WARS (also known as TrpRS, whereby Trp is for tryptophan). AARSs have a broad repertoire of functions beyond translation, including transcriptional and translational regulation as well as cell signaling (Martinis et al., 1999). AARSs also have canonical functions, which is the specific aminoacylation of tRNAs with their cognate amino acids. Aminoacylated tRNAs are then used by the ribosome for transmission of codon information into protein sequence (Figure 4-1, p.153). Importantly, AARS have been linked to regulating the noncanonical activity of angiogenesis (the formation of new capillaries from preexisting vasculature by migration and proliferation of endothelial cells) (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi, 2010; Wakasugi and Schimmel, 1999; Wakasugi et al., 2002b).

## II. AIMS

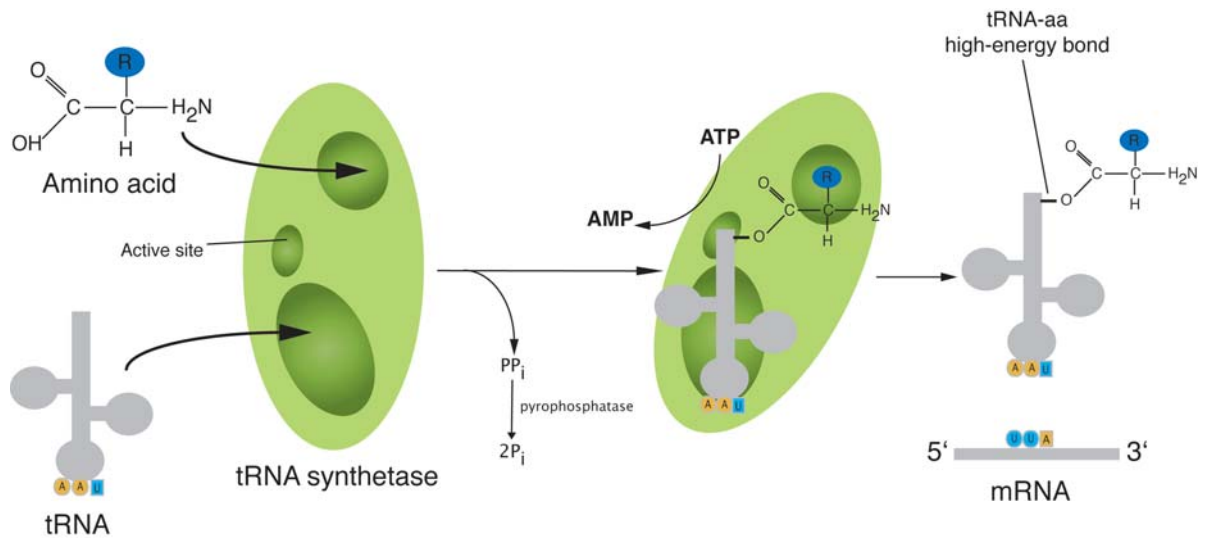
The overall aims of this study were to:

- Characterize the primary pathology of the dwarfism phenotype that links the function of the mutation to dwarfism by focusing on altered regulation of the GH axis (*Aim 1*);
- Confirm the mutation by sequencing (*Aim 2*);
- Examine the expression of the mutant protein, specifically focusing on the HP axis (*Aim 3*).

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<sup>7</sup> *Tukku*, meaning 'small' in Kurna Aboriginal language. For simplicity the homozygous *Tukku* mouse with the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation will be referred to as 'dwarf' or '*Wars*<sup>L30P</sup>' dwarf throughout this work.





**Figure 4-1 Aminoacylation of tRNA**

Amino acids are covalently linked to tRNAs by aminoacyl-tRNA synthetases (AARS). Each AARS recognizes one kind of amino acid (aa) and all the cognate tRNAs that recognize codons for that aa. The process occurs in two steps. Firstly, AARS forms an aminoacyl-AMP complex using energy from the hydrolysis of ATP. The equilibrium of the reaction favors the synthetase complexed with the aminoacyl-AMP because the pyrophosphate (PP<sub>i</sub>) is converted to inorganic phosphate (2P<sub>i</sub>) by a pyrophosphatase. Secondly, the aminoacyl moiety is transferred to the 3' terminal adenosine of the cognate tRNA; tRNA-aa high-energy bond.

### III. RESULTS

#### **AIM 1: CHARACTERIZE THE PRIMARY PATHOLOGY OF THE DWARFISM PHENOTYPE THAT LINKS THE FUNCTION OF THE MUTATION TO DWARFISM BY FOCUSING ON ALTERED REGULATION OF THE GH AXIS**

##### **A. Dwarf Mice Show a Reduced and Sustained Decrease in Weight and Growth**

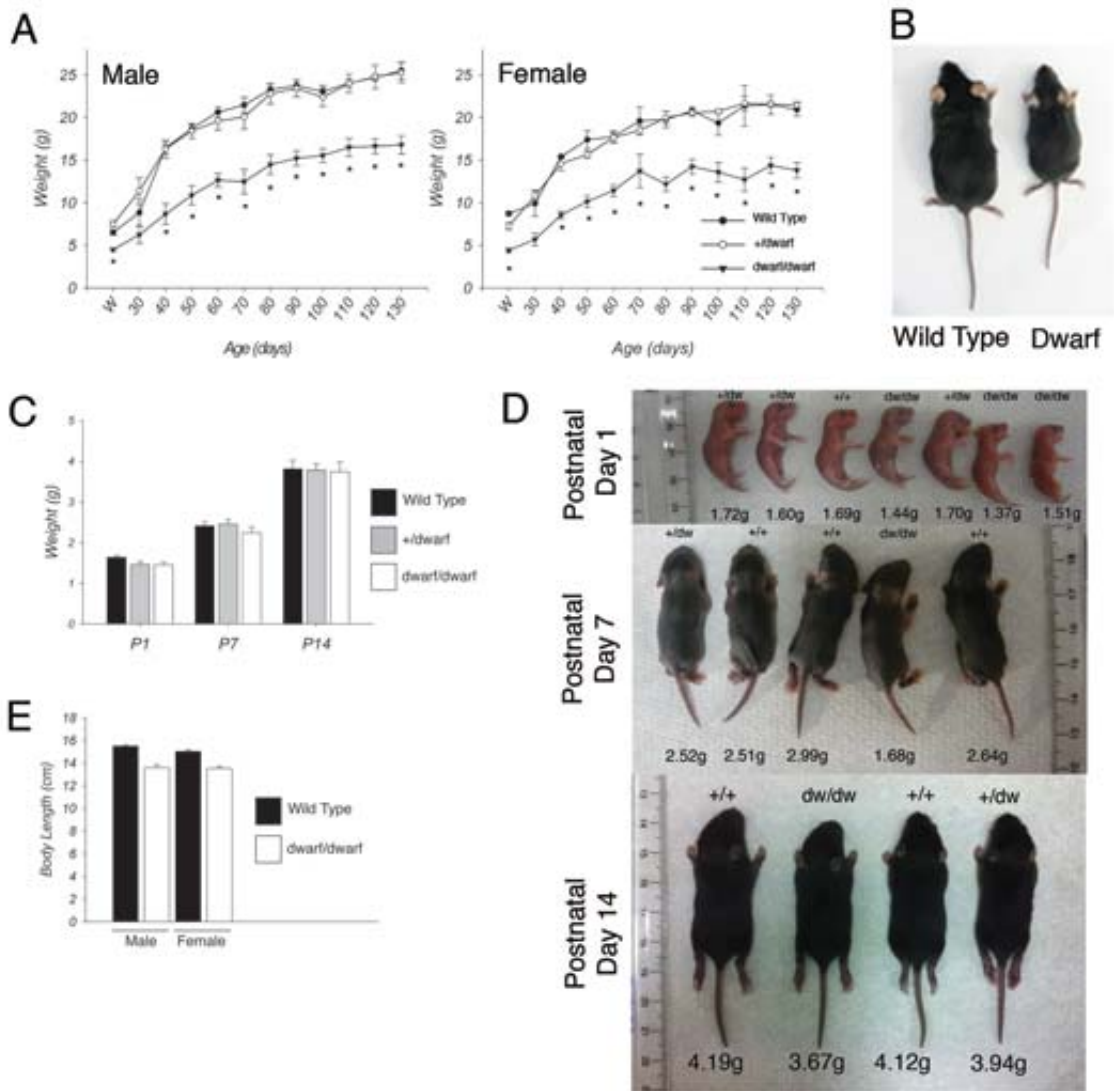
To characterize the growth phenotype of dwarf mice, body weight was measured over a 4-month period (at 10 day intervals, post-weaning), and at pre-weaning (postnatal days (P) 1, 7 and 14). Body length was measured in 8-week old mice (male and female).

Strikingly, growth curves showed that dwarf mice weighed considerably less than their corresponding wild-type littermates by the time of weaning (Figure 4-2 A and B; p.155). There was no difference between wild-type and heterozygous mice. Consequently, the remaining analysis was performed on wild-type and homozygous dwarf mice<sup>8</sup>. The difference in body weight was not obvious during the first 3 postnatal weeks (P1, P7, and P14; Figure 4-2 C and D) but became significant when mice reached weaning age (P21-29). On average, adult dwarf mice weighed 30-40% less than their wild-type littermates. Dwarf mice exhibited reduced longitudinal growth, displaying a dwarf-like appearance (Figure 4-2 B). Specifically, adult dwarf mice were 10% shorter than their control littermates (Figure 4-2 E).

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<sup>8</sup> Herein, for simplicity, when referring to homozygous dwarf mice the term dwarf will be used, unless otherwise stated.

#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis



**Figure 4-2 Body weight and length of dwarf and control littermates**

(A) Growth curves of dwarf (homozygous dwarf (dwarf/dwarf; solid triangle), heterozygous mice (+/dwarf; open square) and their wild-type littermates (solid circle). Pups were weighted at weaning (W) (21-29 days postnatal), again at day 30, and every 10 days thereafter. Homozygous dwarf mice weighed significantly less than their control littermates. Wild-type (female: n=4; male: n=6), heterozygous (female: n=8; male: n=7), and homozygous dwarf (female: n=5; male: n=7) mice. (B) Physical appearance of a representative dwarf and control mouse (Female littermates, 8-weeks). (C) Bar graph showing the weights of homozygous dwarf (dwarf/dwarf) heterozygous (+/dwarf) mice and their wild-type littermates (male and female) from 3 litters per time point, postnatal day 1 (P1), 7 (P7) and 14 (P14). Number of pups/genotype/sex are as follows-P1: wild-type female (n=4), male (n=4); +/dwarf female (n=3), male (n=1); dwarf/dwarf female (n=4), male (n=3). P7: wild-type female (n=4), male (n=4); +/dwarf female (n=5), male (n=4); dwarf/dwarf female (n=2), male (n=2). P14: wild-type female (n=3), male (n=1); +/dwarf female (n=2), male (n=4); dwarf/dwarf female (n=3), male (n=1). Due to low number per sex results were pooled and bar graph represents data from both female and male/genotype. No significant differences were noted at each time point. (D) Physical appearance of representative postnatal pups from one of the three litters at P1, P7 and P14 showing weights (g) and genotype. (E) Body length of wild-type and dwarf mice (8-week; male and female). No significant differences were noted. Measurements show the distance from the tip of the nose to the base of the tail. Data are given as mean±SEM. \*, P < 0.05, as compared with the corresponding wild-type group.

### **B. Dwarf Mice Show Decreased Pituitary GH and Serum IGF-1 Levels**

To explore the mechanisms underlying the dwarf phenotype displayed I measured the level of GH in whole pituitary extracts and the serum levels of the key hormone involved in somatic growth, IGF-1. Pituitary GH levels were significantly reduced in dwarf mice compared to wild-type littermates (Figure 4-5 A, p.162). GH is released into the blood stream from the anterior pituitary and binds to specific receptors in the liver, where it triggers the secretion of IGF-1. Circulating IGF-1 is considered the major factor that mediates the stimulatory effects of GH on longitudinal growth (Nilsson et al., 2005; Yakar et al., 2002). Consistent with the whole pituitary GH levels observed, dwarf mice showed a striking reduction in the serum levels of IGF-1 (Figure 4-5 B). It is therefore likely that the observed decreases in GH levels and serum IGF-1 in dwarf mice are responsible for the observed growth deficit.

### **C. Dwarf Mice Show a Pronounced Hypoplasia of the Anterior Pituitary Gland**

The morphology of the pituitary gland, where GH and several other important hormones are synthesized and stored, was examined for anatomical alterations. The pituitary gland of dwarf mice was significantly smaller than that of their wild-type littermates (Figure 4-5 C). The anterior pituitary of dwarf mice was disproportionately smaller than in wild-type. Figure 4-5 D shows that the pituitary glands from dwarf mice weighed 30-40% less than those of wild-type mice. In contrast, brains from wild-type and dwarf mice were not noticeably different in size at 8-weeks (Figure 4-5 E). However, the total brain weight was significantly lower in dwarf mice (Figure 4-5 F). Figure 4-5 G indicates that the pituitary hypoplasia displayed by dwarf mice was primarily caused by a dramatic decrease in the size of the anterior pituitary (the size of posterior pituitary appeared essentially unchanged). Besides the pituitary hypoplasia displayed by the dwarf mice, there was no noticeable differences in overall brain morphology between the dwarf and wild-type mice (Figure 4-5 E and also refer to Section D, p.157).

To examine the morphology of pituitary glands from dwarf mutant mice and wild-type littermates in greater detail, pituitary gland sections were prepared and stained with an antibody directed against GH (Figure 4-5 G). The size of the posterior pituitary, which stores and releases only two major hormones, AVP and OT, was similar in dwarf and wild-type mice (compare also Figure 4-5 C). In striking contrast, the size of the anterior pituitary gland/area of GH staining was greatly reduced in the dwarf mice compared with

wild-type littermates (Figure 4-5 G). Note that 40-50% of anterior pituitary cells are GH-secreting somatotropes (refer Table 1-1, p.30) (Lin et al., 1993).

#### D. Histopathology of the Dwarf Mouse Brain

Analysis of adult (8-week) dwarf pituitaries revealed marked hypoplasia (Figure 4-5, p.162) of the anterior lobe (which contains GH-secreting somatotropes). This phenotype is typical of mice with GH deficiency due to a hypothalamic-pituitary GH axis dysfunction (Alba and Salvatori, 2004). Together with the detection of significantly lower serum IGF-I levels (Figure 4-5, p.162), results indicate that the dwarf *Wars<sup>L30P</sup>* mutation compromises the hypothalamic-pituitary-somatotrope axis. This defect may perhaps arise from abnormal development of the hypothalamus, the anterior pituitary or the portal vasculature that conveys hypothalamic peptides (such as GHRH) to their pituitary target cells (e.g. somatotropes). In wild-type mice, the number of hypothalamic neurons in the ARC producing GHRH, and the total GHRH mRNA and protein levels, steadily increases during postnatal development and plateaus once adulthood is reached (Bartke, 1965; Garcia-Tornadu et al., 2006; Sinha et al., 1975). Conversely, mice with congenital GH deficiency, due to a primary defect in GH-secreting cells of the anterior pituitary, have a deficiency in GH-mediated negative feedback, which results in overstimulation of the hypothalamus. Subsequently leading to excessive numbers of GHRH neurons, producing abnormally high *Ghrh* mRNA levels (McGuinness et al., 2003; Phelps and Hurley, 1999). In contrast, the GH inhibitory peptide *Sst* is abnormally low in the hypothalamus of mice with a defect in pituitary GH. Pituitary hypoplasia/GH deficiency that results from the defective development of the hypothalamus has the opposite phenotype (i.e. decrease(↓) GHRH:increase(↑) *Sst* levels). Thus, guided by this information I firstly performed histological analysis (using H&E staining) of the hypothalamus at 8-weeks in male and female wild-type and dwarf mice. Sagittal and coronal sections were carefully inspected for structural abnormalities focusing primarily on areas implicated in growth regulation (ARC and ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH)). Secondly, I examined mRNA levels of *Ghrh* and *Sst*. These results are presented in the proceeding section (Section E, p.160).

Brain sections were stained with H&E in the sagittal (Figure 4-3 A and B, p.158) and the coronal (Figure 4-3 C and D) orientation of wild-type and dwarf 8-week old mice (male and female). Only male sections are shown (Figure 4-14), as there was no observable difference between the males and females. Figure 4-3 A shows the representative photomicrographs of the brain, sectioned in the sagittal plane. Figure 4-3 B shows higher power representative photomicrographs of the ARC and lateral hypothalamus (LH). There

#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis

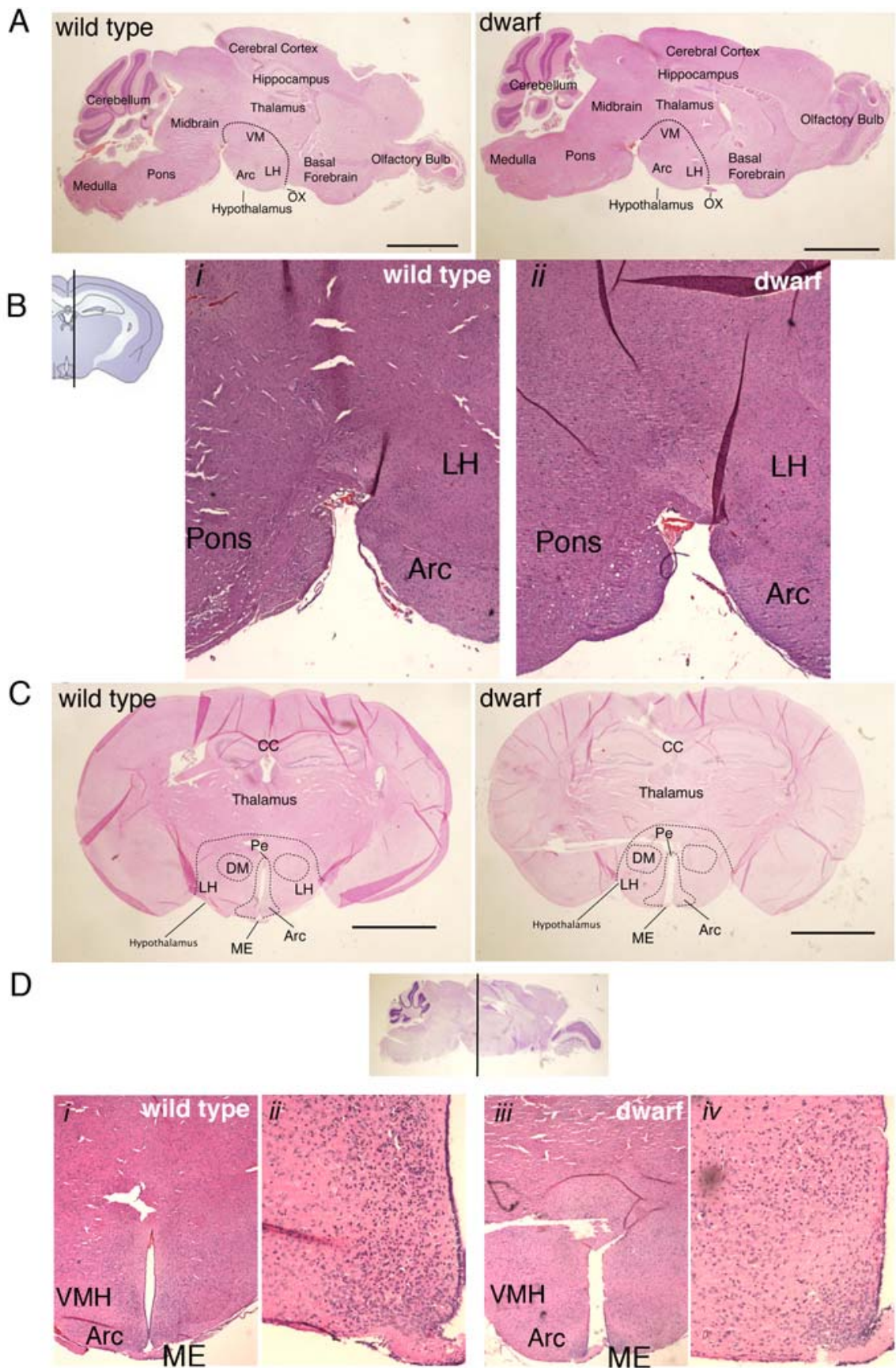
was no distinct pathological difference between wild-type and dwarf mice. Figure 4-3 C shows the representative photomicrographs of the brain, sectioned in the coronal plane. Figure 4-3 D shows the representative photomicrographs of ARC, VMH and median eminence. Panels from wild-type and dwarf are from regions as closely matching as possible. There was an observed variation in cell density within the VMH in dwarf (when comparing nuclei staining; dark purple/blue) compared to wild-type mice. Additionally, there appears a decrease in cell density within the ARC in dwarf compared to wild-type mice. Altogether, sections from 4 wild-type and 4 dwarf mice were examined. All sections examined showed the same phenotype; there was no difference between males and female mice. Importantly, the ARC houses GHRH neurons (Suhr et al., 1989).

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#### Figure 4-3 Gross brain morphology of dwarf and wild-type littermates

(A) Representative sagittal brain sections (H&E stained) from a wild-type (Left) and a dwarf mouse (Right). Sections are from 8-week-old males. Altogether, sections from 4 wild-type and 4 dwarf mice were examined. (B) Higher magnification of H&E stained sections from wild-type (*i*) and dwarf (*ii*) mice. No obvious differences in brain morphology or in the HP axis were observed. (C) Representative coronal brain sections (H&E stained) from a wild-type (Left) and a dwarf mouse (Right). Sections are from 8-week-old males. Altogether, sections from 4 wild-type and 4 dwarf mice were examined. (D) Higher magnification of H&E stained sections from wild-type (*i* at x2.5 magnification; *ii* at x10 magnification) and dwarf (*iii* at x2.5 magnification; *iv* at x10 magnification) mice. No obvious differences in hypothalamic morphology were observed. Note: panels from wild-type and dwarf are from regions as closely matching as possible. Variation is observed when trying to match regions between sections. In *iv* cell density appears less than that of *ii*. Abbreviations: VM, ventromedial hypothalamus; LH, lateral hypothalamus; OX, optic chiasm; Pe, periventricular hypothalamic nuclei; CC, corpus callosum; DM, dorsomedial hypothalamic nuclei; ME, median eminence; Arc, arcuate nucleus; VMH, ventromedial hypothalamus.

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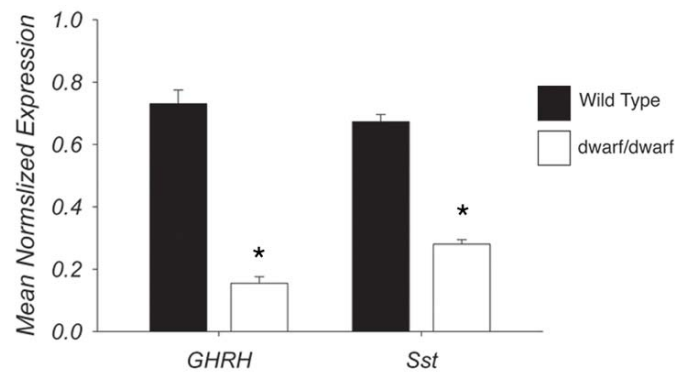
### E. Hypothalamic GHRH and Somatostatin Levels Are Significantly Reduced in Dwarf Mice

The anterior pituitary, which is not of neuronal origin, is derived from the oral ectoderm, as detailed in the introduction (Chapter 11.B Vertebrate Pituitary Development, p.26) (Cohen and Radovick, 2002). As a result of the GH and IGF-1 assay results, as well as the histological evidence suggesting that there is a low density of neurons within the arcuate nucleus (region where GHRH nuclei are found (Suhr et al., 1989)) (refer to previous histological data in the above section (D Histopathology of the Dwarf Mouse Brain, p.157), it is tempting to speculate that the defect leading to the hypoplasia of the anterior pituitary in dwarf-mice may not reside in the pituitary itself but involve other brain regions, namely the hypothalamus. The hypothalamus synthesizes several hormones that are known to stimulate the proliferation of specific cell types of the anterior pituitary. Studies with mice lacking hypothalamic GHRH neurons or that have been subjected to manipulations impairing the function of these neurons shows that GHRH stimulates the proliferation of GH-expressing cells (somatotropes) of the anterior pituitary (Frohman and Kineman, 2002b; Le Tissier et al., 2005). Since dwarf mice showed a reduction in pituitary GH levels, it is possible that the activity of hypothalamic GHRH neurons is compromised. In the mouse hypothalamus, GHRH is primarily expressed by specialized cells of the arcuate nucleus (Suhr et al., 1989).

To examine whether the GHRH-containing cells of the hypothalamus (contained within the ARC) were affected or altered, analysis of mRNA expression of *Ghrh* was undertaken by quantitative PCR (qPCR). In addition to examining the levels of *Ghrh*, I examined levels of *Sst*, produced by neurons in the periventricular nucleus (Giustina and Veldhuis, 1998). GHRH and GH release is regulated by the inhibitory actions of *Sst* that exerts its inhibitory effects on longitudinal growth (via the inhibition of GH release) (refer to Figure 1-14, p.61). If there is a *deficiency* in circulating GH then we expect to see an increase in GHRH; if there is an *increase* in circulating GH then we expect to see an increase in *Sst* as it is required to inhibit the secretion of more GH. Results, in Figure 4-4 (p.161), showed that both *Ghrh* and *Sst* were significantly decreased (greater than 60% reduction;  $p < 0.05$ ) in dwarf littermates compared with wild-type mice. Thus, it is possible that the decrease in hypothalamic *Sst* levels in dwarf mice is a compensatory mechanism that is activated by the reduction in peripheral GH and IGF-1 levels already shown in these mice.



#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis



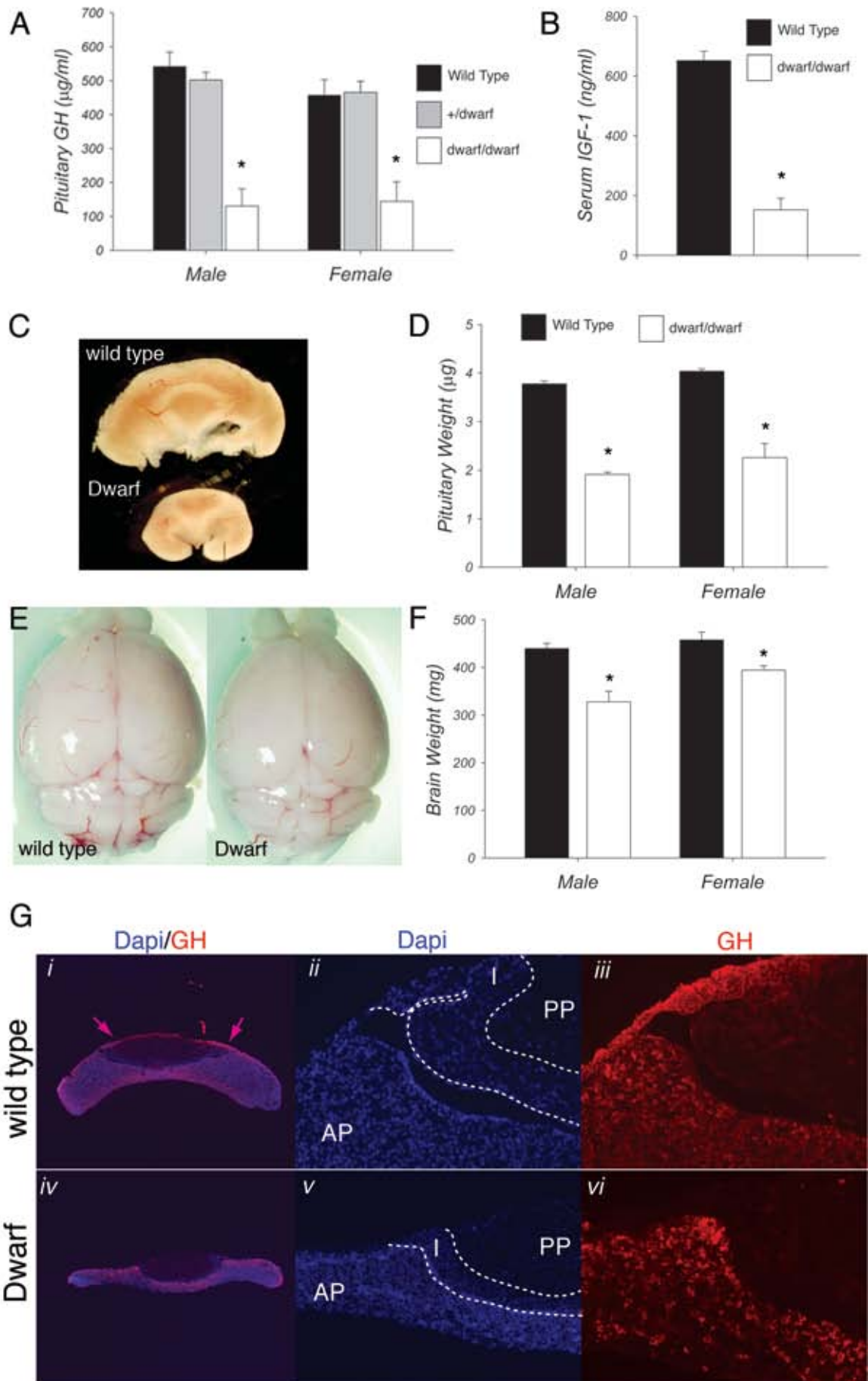
**Figure 4-4 mRNA expression of *Ghrh* and *Sst* in wild-type and dwarf hypothalamic extracts**

Mean normalized expression levels of *Ghrh* and *Sst* were compared between wild-type and homozygous dwarf mouse hypothalamic extracts at 8-weeks (male and female pooled, n=3). Transcripts were measured by quantitative-PCR using appropriate primers and normalized to  $\beta$ -actin mRNA levels. Values are expressed as the mean $\pm$ SEM and are expressed as mean normalized expression based on fold change. \* p<0.05.

**Figure 4-5 Whole-pituitary GH and serum IGF-1 levels including pituitary gland weight and expression of GH in wild-type and dwarf littermates**

(A) GH levels from whole pituitary extracts (8-week-old males and females; n=3 per group). (B) Serum IGF-1 levels. Hormone levels were measured by ELISA (in 8-week-old males and females; n=3 per group). (C) Gross morphology of pituitary glands. Representative glands from adult male dwarf and wild-type mice (there was no size difference between males and females). (D) Total weight of pituitary glands (8-week-old males and females; n=10 per group). (E) Gross morphology of brains. Representative brains from adult male dwarf and wild-type mice are shown. (F) Total brain weights (8-week-old males and females; n=10 per group). (G) GH immunostaining of pituitary sections shown in (C). Pituitary glands from dwarf and wild-type littermates (8-week-old males) were sectioned and incubated with the mouse GH antibody as described in Materials and Methods. Pink arrow in *i* point to auto-fluorescence that is likely attributed by over staining with secondary antibody or by over-fixation in 4% PFA during tissue processing. Note the pronounced hypoplasia of the anterior pituitary of dwarf mice (*ii*), compared to wild-type (*i*). AP, anterior pituitary; I, intermediate lobe; PP, posterior pituitary. Data are given as mean±SEM. \* P<0.05 as compared with the corresponding wild-type group. Immunofluorescent images shown in G were colored using AxioVision software when taking images. Magnification x2.5 in G *i* and *iv*, and x20 in G *ii*, *iii*, *v* and *vi*.

4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis



## AIM 2: CONFIRM THE MUTATION BY SEQUENCING

### F. The Dwarf Mutation is a Non-Conservative Substitution of Leucine to Proline in the Gene Tryptophanyl-tRNA Synthetase

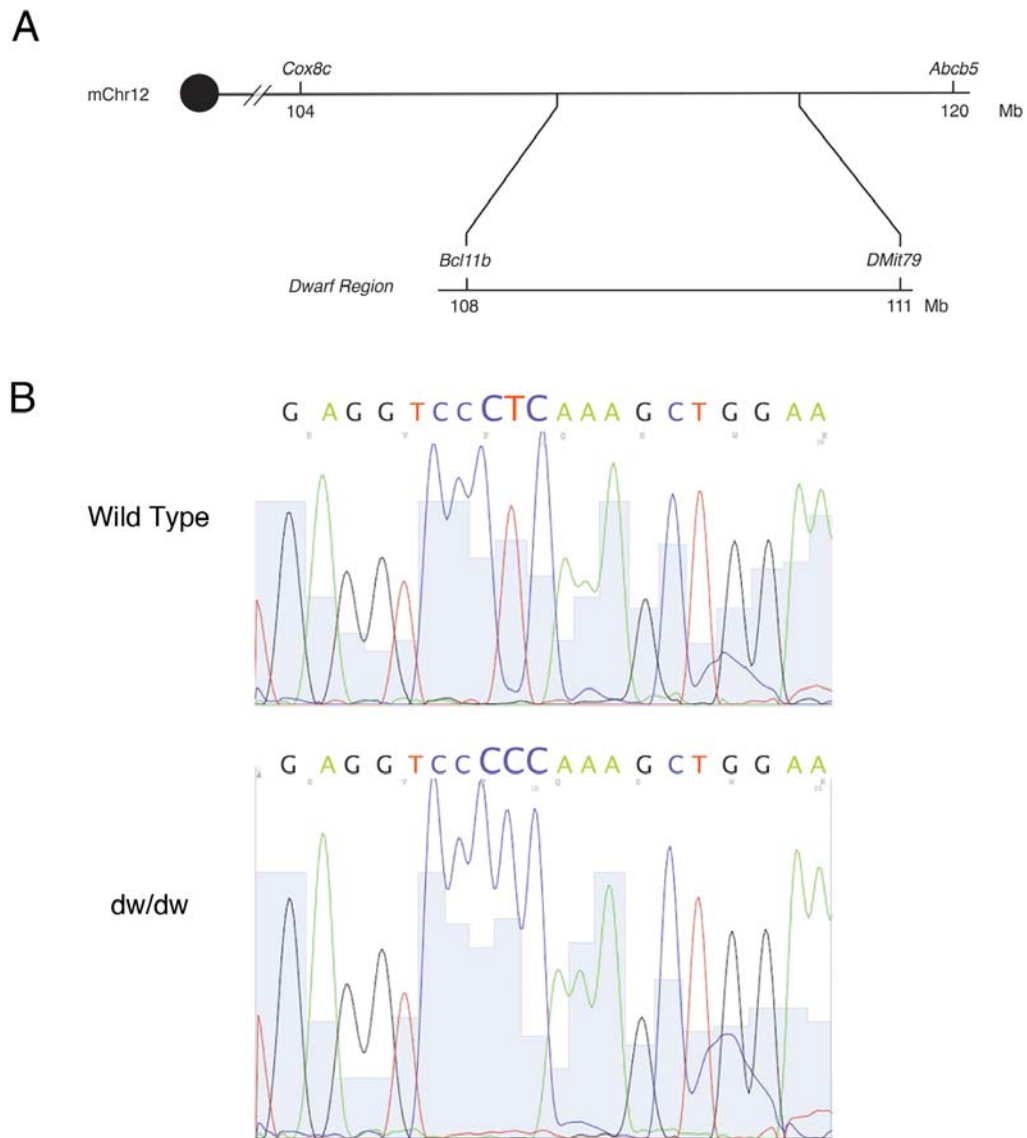
The dwarf mutation was generated, by ENU mutagenesis, on a C57Bl/6 genetic background at the APC (Canberra, ACT, Australia); the generation of these mice is detailed in Materials and Methods, Chapter 2II.B.2 Dwarf Mouse Line Generated by ENU Mutagenesis (p.74).

The dwarf mutation was mapped to a 7Mb region on mouse chromosome 12 (mChr12). Markers D12Mit7 and D12Mit79 flanked this 7Mb region, which was refined through mapping with SNP markers to a 2.5Mb interval between rs3663596 and D12Mit79 containing 85 genes (Figure 4-6 A, p.165). The identification of the specific gene causing dwarfism was performed by the APC (Canberra, ACT, Australia) in parallel to the physiological studies of the dwarf mouse (outlined in the preceding sections). 85 genes were identified within the dwarf critical region, mChr12:107606131-110275931 (Table 4-1, p166). Re-sequencing analysis, performed by APC (Canberra, ACT, Australia), of these genes revealed one mutation identified to be the dwarf mutation in the tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (*Wars*) gene (ENSMUSG00000021266). There was no other coding or splice site mutation identified in any other gene within the 2.5Mb region. Thus, confirming that the mutation in *Wars* was causing the dwarfism phenotype in these mice.

The *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation was independently sequenced and confirmed by myself from mice in the Adelaide colony. As shown in Figure 4-6 B (p.165) the mutation in *Wars* is located in exon 2 (ENSMUSE00000116158 of transcript ENSMUST00000078788) and is a thymidine (T) to cytosine (C) substitution of bp220, resulting in a change of amino acid (aa) 30 from CTC (leucine, Leu) to CCC (proline, Pro). The mutation results in a non-conservative substitution of Leu for a Pro, in the ORF.

The Leu at residue 30 is highly conserved across species (Figure 4-7 A, p.168) and is located in the first alpha helix (Figure 4-7 B (i)). WARS proteins are conserved in the chordate lineage and in the WHEP domains of all mammalian AARs. The WHEP domain is present in five AARs: WARS, HARS, and EPARS (for which the domain is named) and also in GARS and MARS, but not in any non-AARs proteins (Park et al., 2008). This is shown in Figure 4-7 C. The substitution of Leu to Pro, in the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> dwarf mutant, is likely to result in disruption of the alpha helical structure due to Proline's unique cyclic (imino acidic) structure (Figure 4-7 D).

#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis



**Figure 4-6 The dwarf region showing sequence confirmation**

(A) Map of the region of mouse chromosome 12. The dwarf-critical region is indicated. Note that the first gene, RIKEN cDNA 3110018I06 gene [Source: MarkerSymbol;Acc:MGI:1920410] at 107Mb, in the dwarf region is not marked. (B) Sequencing of the *Wars* gene in a dwarf and wild-type littermate. Sequence identification of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation. Direct sequence of exon 2 PCR products in (A) a wild-type littermate and (B) dwarf (homozygous; dw/dw), showing substitution of T (leucine, CTC) to C (proline, CCC) at nucleotide position 220.

#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis

**Table 4-1 Candidate genes in the dwarf critical region**

85 genes are shown and are located between mChr12: 107606131-110275931. The corresponding human gene is also given, where applicable.

Name	Mouse			Human		
	Ensembl Gene ID	Description	Chr	Chr Start	Chr End	
-	ENSMUSG00000059313	-	8	97150365	97151085	
3110018106Rik	ENSMUSG00000060375	RIKEN cDNA 3110018106 gene				
Bcl11b	ENSMUSG00000048251	B-cell leukemia/lymphoma 11B	14	98705377	98807575	
A130014H13Rik	ENSMUSG00000072842	RIKEN cDNA A130014H13 gene				
Setd3	ENSMUSG00000056770	SET domain containing 3	14	98933857	99016979	
Ccnk	ENSMUSG00000021258	cyclin K	14	99017492	99047604	
Q3UEX2_MOUSE	ENSMUSG00000072840	Adult retina cDNA, hypothetical protein, full insert sequence				
668158	ENSMUSG00000071162	-	14	99051336	99140049	
1600002004Rik	ENSMUSG00000021260	RIKEN cDNA 1600002004 gene	14	99181233	99215466	
Cyp46a1	ENSMUSG00000021259	cytochrome P450, family 46, subfamily a, polypeptide 1	14	99220407	99263390	
	ENSMUSG00000058070	-	14	99329498	99478146	
Evl	ENSMUSG00000021262	Ena-vasodilator stimulated phosphoprotein	14	99601504	99680325	
mmu-mir-342	ENSMUSG00000065436	mmu-mir-342				
Degs2	ENSMUSG00000021263	degenerative spermatocyte homolog 2 (Drosophila), lipid desaturase	14	99682512	99695712	
Yy1	ENSMUSG00000021264	YY1 transcription factor	14	99774855	99814557	
Slc25a29	ENSMUSG00000021265	solute carrier family 25	14	99827213	99842613	
mmu-mir-345	ENSMUSG00000065429	mmu-mir-345				
A1132487	ENSMUSG00000048856	epatocellular carcinoma down-regulated mitochondrial carrier homolog	14	99859428	99866467	
Wars	ENSMUSG00000021266	tryptophanyl-RNA synthetase	14	99869878	99912433	
	ENSMUSG00000072839	WD repeat domain 25	14	99912563	100066361	
Wdr25	ENSMUSG00000040877	WD repeat domain 25	14	99912563	100066361	
BM948371	ENSMUSG00000040867	expressed sequence BM948371	14	100073243	100105884	
Dkl1	ENSMUSG00000040856	delta-like 1 homolog (Drosophila)	14	100262917	100270986	
Gtl2	ENSMUSG00000021268	GTL2, imprinted maternally expressed untranslated mRNA				
mmu-mir-770	ENSMUSG00000076451	mmu-mir-770 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004203]				
mmu-mir-673	ENSMUSG00000076316	mmu-mir-673 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004601]				
mmu-mir-337	ENSMUSG00000065526	mmu-mir-337 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000615]				
mmu-mir-540	ENSMUSG00000072900	mmu-mir-540 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003518]				
mmu-mir-665	ENSMUSG00000076313	mmu-mir-665 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004171]				
Rtl1	ENSMUSG00000006551	retrotransposon-like 1 [Source:MarkerSymbol;Acc:MGI:2656842]				
mmu-mir-431	ENSMUSG00000070080	mmu-mir-431 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001524]				
mmu-mir-433	ENSMUSG00000070072	mmu-mir-433 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001525]				
mmu-mir-127	ENSMUSG00000070076	mmu-mir-127 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000154]				
mmu-mir-434	ENSMUSG00000070133	mmu-mir-434 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001526]				
mmu-mir-136	ENSMUSG00000070129	mmu-mir-136 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000162]				
mmu-mir-341	ENSMUSG00000070101	mmu-mir-341 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000625]				
mmu-mir-370	ENSMUSG00000065433	mmu-mir-370 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001165]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064452	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000065039	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064496	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000065013	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064621	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064417	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064679	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000065757	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000065749	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064487	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000065022	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064545	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064720	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
sno_14q_1_II	ENSMUSG00000064726	NOVEL [Source:RFAM;Acc:RF00181]				
mmu-mir-379	ENSMUSG00000065498	mmu-mir-379 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000796]				
mmu-mir-411	ENSMUSG00000065477	mmu-mir-411 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001163]				
mmu-mir-299	ENSMUSG00000065550	mmu-mir-299 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000399]				
mmu-mir-380	ENSMUSG00000065595	mmu-mir-380 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000797]				
mmu-mir-323	ENSMUSG00000065617	mmu-mir-323 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000592]				
mmu-mir-758	ENSMUSG00000076459	mmu-mir-758 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004129]				
mmu-mir-329	ENSMUSG00000065577	mmu-mir-329 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000605]				
mmu-mir-494	ENSMUSG00000070141	mmu-mir-494 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003532]				
mmu-mir-679	ENSMUSG00000076145	mmu-mir-679 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004638]				
mmu-mir-666	ENSMUSG00000076272	mmu-mir-666 [Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004553]				

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mmu-mir-543	ENSMUSG00000076241	mmu-mir-543	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003519]
mmu-mir-495	ENSMUSG00000070105	mmu-mir-495	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004639]
mmu-mir-667	ENSMUSG00000076396	mmu-mir-667	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004196]
mmu-mir-376c	ENSMUSG00000076215	mmu-mir-376c	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003533]
mmu-mir-376b	ENSMUSG00000076006	mmu-mir-376b	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001162]
mmu-mir-376a	ENSMUSG00000076043	mmu-mir-376a	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000793]
mmu-mir-300	ENSMUSG00000065419	mmu-mir-300	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000400]
mmu-mir-381	ENSMUSG00000065566	mmu-mir-381	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000798]
mmu-mir-487b	ENSMUSG00000076219	mmu-mir-487b	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003534]
mmu-mir-539	ENSMUSG00000076063	mmu-mir-539	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003520]
mmu-mir-382	ENSMUSG00000065428	mmu-mir-382	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000799]
mmu-mir-134	ENSMUSG00000065426	mmu-mir-134	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000160]
mmu-mir-668	ENSMUSG00000076350	mmu-mir-668	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004134]
mmu-mir-485	ENSMUSG00000070128	mmu-mir-485	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003492]
mmu-mir-154	ENSMUSG00000065448	mmu-mir-154	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000176]
mmu-mir-496	ENSMUSG00000070136	mmu-mir-496	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0004589]
mmu-mir-377	ENSMUSG00000065438	mmu-mir-377	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0000794]
mmu-mir-541	ENSMUSG00000076052	mmu-mir-541	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003521]
mmu-mir-409	ENSMUSG00000065478	mmu-mir-409	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001160]
mmu-mir-412	ENSMUSG00000065570	mmu-mir-412	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001164]
mmu-mir-369	ENSMUSG00000065561	mmu-mir-369	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0003535]
mmu-mir-410	ENSMUSG00000065497	mmu-mir-410	[Source:miRBase 9.0;Acc:MI0001161]
-	ENSMUSG0000005178	-	-

**Figure 4-7 The WARS protein**

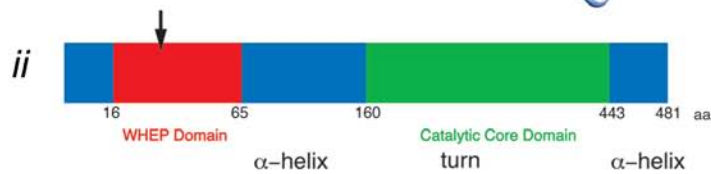
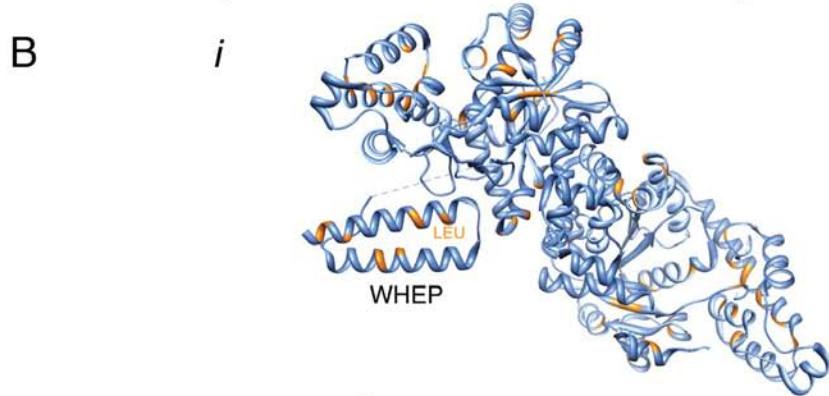
(A) The mutated residue in dwarf mice is highly conserved. (B) (i) 3D schematic representation of the human WARS protein showing the WHEP domain and location of leucine residues (orange). The location of leucine at residue 26 is labeled with LEU (orange). (ii) Schematic representation of the 481 amino acid murine WARS protein showing N- terminal WHEP domain, catalytic core domain and position of mutation (*arrow*). (C) Dwarf mutation is located in the WHEP domain. BLAST alignments of mouse WARS WHEP domain protein sequence with other species WHEP containing ARS family members in human and mouse. The highly conserved residues in the domain are highlighted in red. The leucine at residue 30 (highlighted in blue) located in the WHEP domain is highly conserved across different species and also in other ARS enzyme that contain WHEP domain, EPRS, GARS, HARS and MARS. (D) Structure of leucine and proline. NB: 3D structure of the wars protein was obtained from RSC Protein Data Bank (1R6T) (Yang et al., 2003) and was produced using the UCSF Chimera package from the Resource for Biocomputing, Visualization, and Informatics at the University of California, San Francisco (supported by NIH P41 RR001081).



#### 4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis

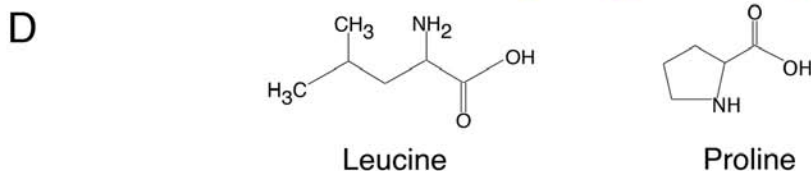
**A**

<i>Dwarf L30P mouse</i>	-QGELVRS <b>P</b> KAGNAPKDEIDSAVKMLL-----
<i>Mus musculus</i>	-QGELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNAPKDEIDSAVKMLL-----
<i>Macaca mulata</i>	-QGELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNASKDEIDSAVKMLL-----
<i>Rattus norvegicus</i>	--GELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNAPKDEIESAVKMLLS-----
<i>Gorilla gorilla</i>	--GELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNASKDEIDSAVKMLVS-----
<i>Homo sapien</i>	-QGELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNASKDEIDSAVKMLVSLKM-----
<i>Gallus gallus</i>	EQGEKVR <b>A</b> LKAGKAPKDEIDAAVRL-----
<i>Takifugu rubripes</i>	-QGDQVR <b>A</b> LKTAKSDKAEIDAAVQLL-----
<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	SQRRCIQARSFLPGLASRTAGTTPSAT-----
<i>Danio rerio</i>	-QGETVRS <b>I</b> KAKKGSKV---SAVQVLLQMK-----
<i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i>	-----GGGVQ <b>E</b> DEEDRVTPEV-----TTTKATGID--
<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	-----KEQVVT <b>P</b> WDVEGGVDEQGRAQ <b>N</b> IDYD



**C**

WARS_MOUSE/12-68	SPLELFNSIATQ <b>G</b> ELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNAPKDEIDSAVKMLLS <b>L</b> SLKMSYKAAMGEEYKAGCPP
WARS_HUMAN/8-64	S <b>L</b> LLELFNSIATQ <b>G</b> ELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNASKDEIDSAVKMLVSLKMSYKAAAGEDYKADCPP
WARS_ORANGUTAN/9-65	SPLELFNSIATQ <b>G</b> ELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNASKDEIDSAVKMLLSL <b>L</b> KMSYKAAMGEDYKANCPP
WARS_RABBIT/12-68	SPQELFSSIAAQ <b>G</b> ELVKS <b>L</b> KARKAPKEEIDSAVKMLLSL <b>L</b> KTSYKEAMGEDYKADCPP
WARS_RAT/12-68	SPLELFNSIAAQ <b>G</b> ELVRS <b>L</b> KAGNAPKDEIESAVKMLLSL <b>L</b> KMNYKTAMGEEYKAGCPP
EPRS_HUMAN/749-805	DSLVLVNRVAVQ <b>G</b> DVVRELKAKKAPKEDVDAAVKQLLSL <b>L</b> KAQYKEKTGQYKPGNPP
EPRS_HUMAN/822-878	ESKSLYDEVA <b>A</b> Q <b>G</b> EVVRKLKAEKSPKAKINEAVEC <b>L</b> LSLKAQYKEKTGKEYIPGQPP
EPRS_HUMAN/900-956	EAKVLFDKVASQ <b>G</b> EVVRKLKTEKAPKDQVDIAVQ <b>E</b> LLQLKAQYKSLIGVEYKPV <b>S</b> AT
EPRS_MOUSE/749-805	DSSVLYSRVAVQ <b>G</b> DVVRELKAKKAPKEDIDAAVKQLLTL <b>L</b> KAQYKEKTGQYKPGNPS
EPRS_MOUSE/822-878	ESTSLYNKVAAQ <b>G</b> EVVRKLKAEKAPKAKVTEAVEC <b>L</b> LSLKAQYKEKTGKDYVPGQPP
EPRS_MOUSE/900-956	EAKVLFDRVACQ <b>G</b> EVVRKLKAEKASKDQVDSAVQ <b>E</b> LLQLKAQYKSLTGIEYKPV <b>S</b> AT
GARS_HUMAN/63-119	VLAPLRLAVRQ <b>G</b> DLVRKLKEDKAPQVDVDKAVAE <b>L</b> KARKRVLEAKELALQPKDDIV
GARS_MOUSE/53-109	LLAPLRLAVRQ <b>G</b> DFVRKLKEDKAPQVDVDRAVAE <b>L</b> KARKRVLEAKELALQPKDDIV
HARS_HUMAN/3-59	ERAAL <b>E</b> LVKLQGERVRLKQKASAE <b>L</b> IEE <b>V</b> TKLLK <b>L</b> KAQLG <b>P</b> DESKQK <b>F</b> VLKTP
HARS_MOUSE/3-59	DRAAL <b>E</b> LVRLQGAHVRGLKEQKASAE <b>L</b> IEE <b>V</b> TKLLK <b>L</b> KAQLG <b>Q</b> DEGKQK <b>F</b> VLKTP
MARS_HUMAN/841-897	QIQALMDEV <b>T</b> KQGN <b>I</b> VRELK <b>A</b> QKADKNEVAE <b>V</b> AK <b>L</b> LDL <b>K</b> QLAV <b>A</b> EGK <b>P</b> PEAPK <b>G</b> K
MARS_MOUSE/843-899	HIQTLTDEV <b>T</b> KQGN <b>V</b> RELK <b>A</b> QKADKNQVAE <b>V</b> AK <b>L</b> LDL <b>K</b> QLAL <b>A</b> EGK <b>P</b> IE <b>T</b> PK <b>G</b> K



### AIM 3: EXAMINE THE EXPRESSION OF THE MUTANT PROTEIN

Given that the mutation has been identified, I next set out to examine the expression of the protein in the pituitary. Wars, a member of the aminoacyl tRNA family of enzymes (AARS,) has been known to play a noncanonical role in angiogenesis, in zebrafish and in endothelial cell cultures (Fukui et al., 2009; Herzog et al., 2009; Ray and Fox, 2007; Wakasugi et al., 2002a; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). As the pituitary is a highly vascularized organ, I examined the pituitary of dwarf and wild-type littermates firstly to determine whether Wars was expressed in the pituitary vasculature, and secondly to determine whether there was a decrease in expression of the Wars protein. Although previous data (refer to Sections 4III.A - 4III.E, p.154-160) revealed that the primary defect might be hypothalamic, current data does not definitively show this. We know that the mutation is in *Wars*, it's protein is ubiquitously expressed and, importantly, has been linked to angiogenesis. With the pituitary being extensively vascularized examining Wars protein expression by immunostaining may provide useful information with respect to pituitary vasculature. The following sections examine the expression of Wars in pituitary vasculature and it's co-expression with vascular markers, platelet endothelial cell adhesion molecule (PECAM or CD31; an endothelial cell marker) and VE-Cadherin (or CD144), an endothelial specific, transmembrane protein, which clusters at adheren junctions where it promotes homotypic cell-cell adhesion (Carmeliet and Collen, 2000).

#### G. Wars is Expressed in Pituitary Vasculature

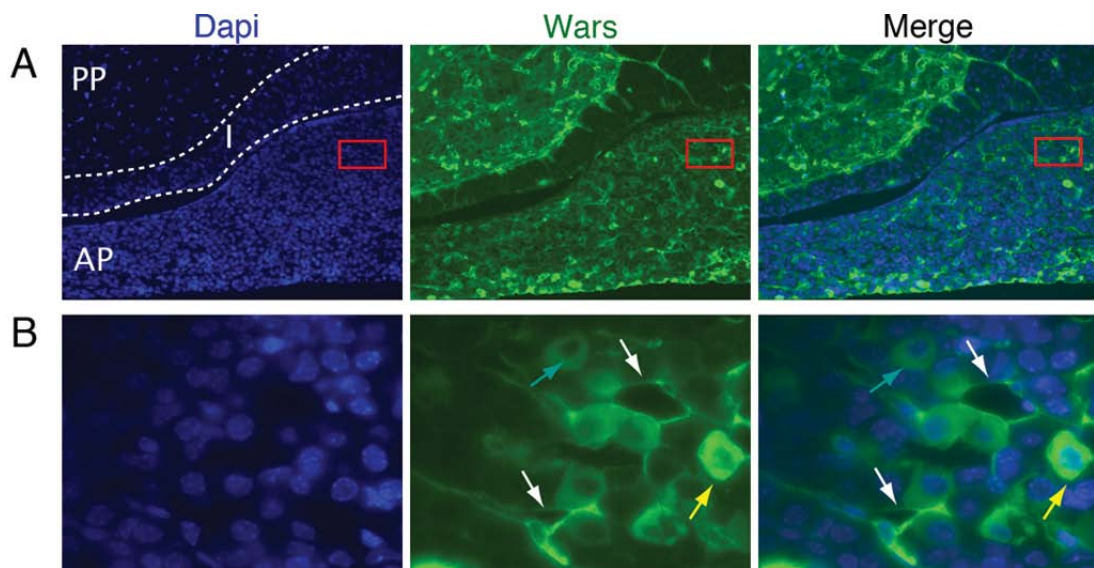
Figure 4-8 (p.171) shows the expression of Wars within the pituitary (anterior and posterior pituitary), in wild-type mice at 8-weeks. Specifically, Wars is expressed within all cells (it's canonical function is required for protein synthesis) but has higher expression within endothelial cells (detailed below) of the pituitary vasculature, both in the anterior and posterior lobes.

##### 1. Wars is co-expressed with PECAM in pituitary vasculature

To examine further and confirm whether Wars is expressed in pituitary vasculature, immunostaining for PECAM was performed on wild-type and dwarf littermates, at 8-weeks (Figure 4-9, p.172). The normal anterior pituitary lobe has a dense vascular network, whereas cells in the intermediate lobe remain poorly vascularized. There was no marked decrease in vascular density in dwarf pituitaries, compared to wild-type littermates, nor was there a marked difference in the co-expression of PECAM and Wars. Both PECAM and Wars appeared co-expressed within the vascular wall. The expression of

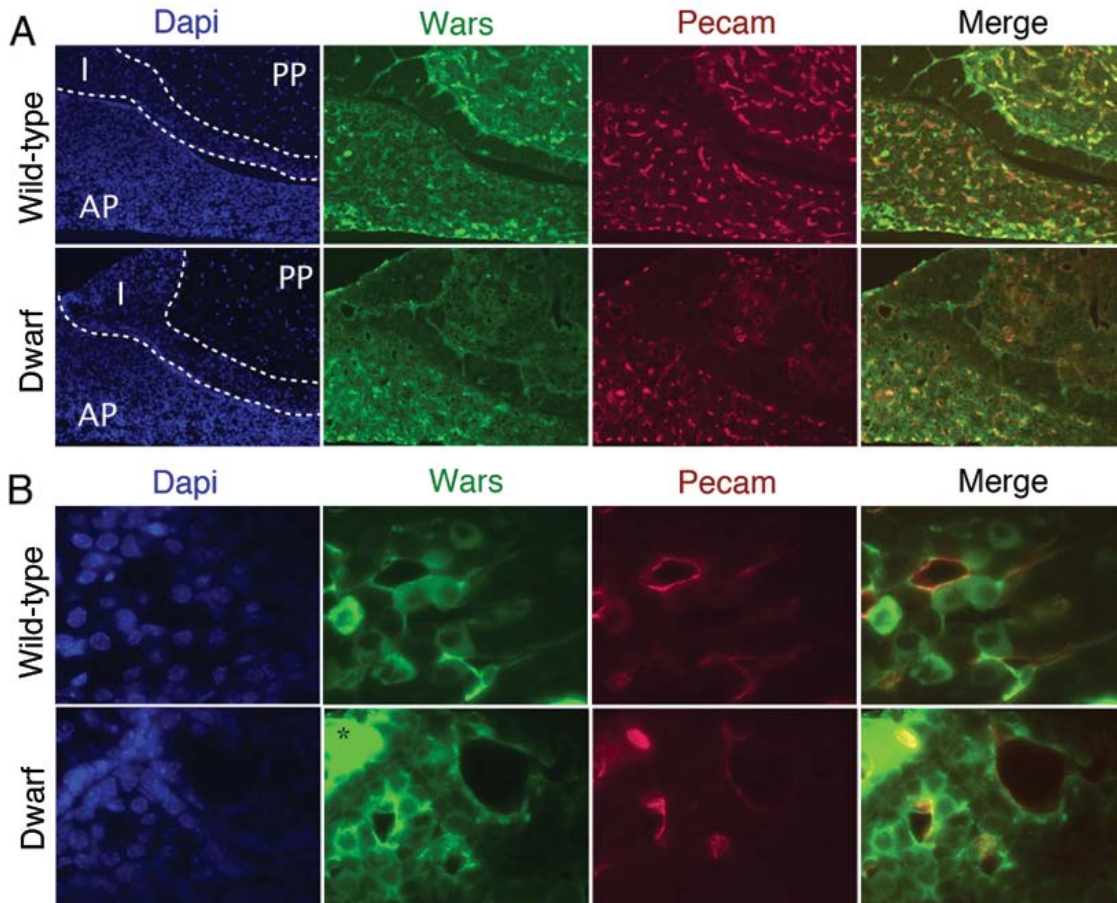
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Wars can also be seen expressed in some adjacent cells in the anterior and posterior pituitary, this is because it is a ubiquitously expressed protein.



**Figure 4-8 Expression of WARS in the mouse pituitary at 8-weeks**

Low (A) and higher (B) magnification of pituitary region from a female mouse [showing the anterior pituitary (AP), intermediate lobe (I), and posterior pituitary (PP)] showing DAPI (nuclear chromosomal) and Wars immunostaining and merged (DAPI + Wars) images, as described in Materials and Methods. White arrows point to Wars expression in the vasculature. Wars is also seen expressed in some adjacent cells in anterior pituitary (yellow, high intensity; blue, low intensity), this is because it is a ubiquitously expressed protein. Images were colored using AxioVision software used when taking images. Low magnification: x10; high magnification: x20.



**Figure 4-9 Expression of WARS and PECAM (CD-31) in female wild-type and dwarf mouse pituitary at 8 weeks**

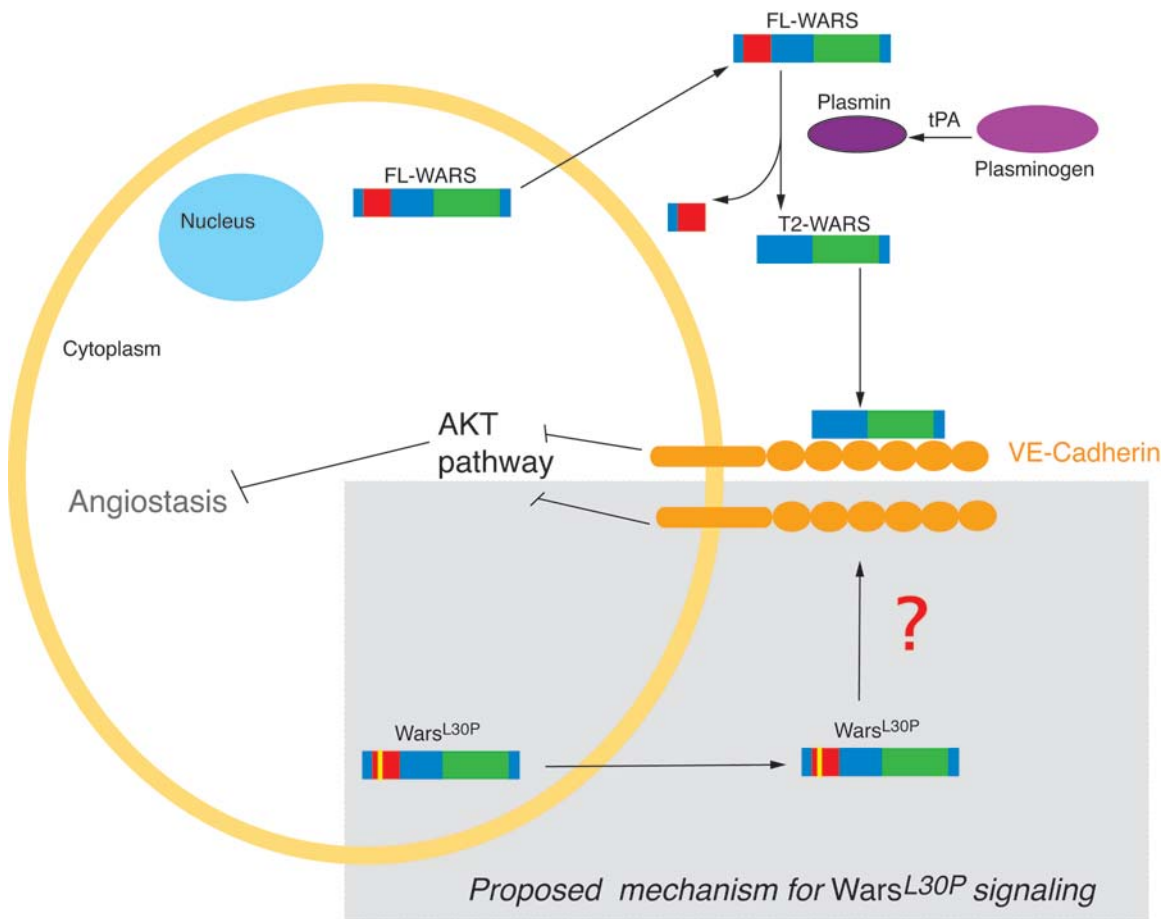
(A) Immunostaining of Wars and PECAM cells and merge (Wars + PECAM). Images were colored using AxioVision software used when taking images. (B) Unrelated high-resolution ( $\times 100$ ) region from the same sections (region not shown) as in A. PECAM staining is present within the anterior and posterior lobe in both the wild-type and dwarf pituitaries; the intermediate lobe is devoid of it. P, posterior lobe; I, intermediate lobe; A, anterior lobe. \* indicates overexposure. Magnification  $\times 20$  in A, and  $\times 100$  (oil) in B. The wild-type sections (also shown in Figure 4-8) were vertically flipped to align with the dwarf sections seen here.

2. *VE-Cadherin and Wars are expressed in pituitary vasculature*

In order to analyze in more detail the organization of the vascular system and the expression of Wars in pituitary vasculature, pituitary sections from 8-week old wild-type and dwarf mice were immunostained with Wars and VE-Cadherin. VE-Cadherin plays an important role during the angiogenesis pathway (refer to the VEGF:VE-Cadherin pathway Figure 1-10, p.49). Furthermore, WARS, in its truncated form, has been shown to interact with VE-Cadherin to inhibit angiogenesis (angiostasis) (Kapoor et al., 2008). Given that dwarf mice have a substitution mutation (*Wars<sup>L30P</sup>*) it is tempting to speculate that the *Wars<sup>L30P</sup>* mutation may be affecting its interaction with VE-Cadherin. We know that full length WARS is cleaved by a protease to release the WHEP domain forming a truncated WARS (T2-WARS) (Kapoor et al., 2008). This truncated WARS is able to bind with VE-Cadherin and inhibits angiogenesis (Figure 4-10, p.175). Perhaps the *Wars<sup>L30P</sup>* mutation is affecting the helical structure of the WHEP domain, thereby the truncated version is not formed and subsequently is preventing angiogenesis (Figure 4-10, p.175)(Zhou et al., 2010).

Figure 4-11 (p.177) shows the expression of Wars and VE-Cadherin in pituitary sections of 8-week old male wild-type and dwarf mice (there was no detectable difference between male and female pituitaries) as detected by immunostaining. VE-Cadherin was not detected at low (x10) and medium (x20) magnifications. However, at high magnification (x100 oil) the expression of VE-Cadherin can be seen located in vasculature, together with Wars. Wars protein is also seen expressed within the cytoplasm of select cells. It is unknown what these cells are; likely to be hormone-secreting cells.

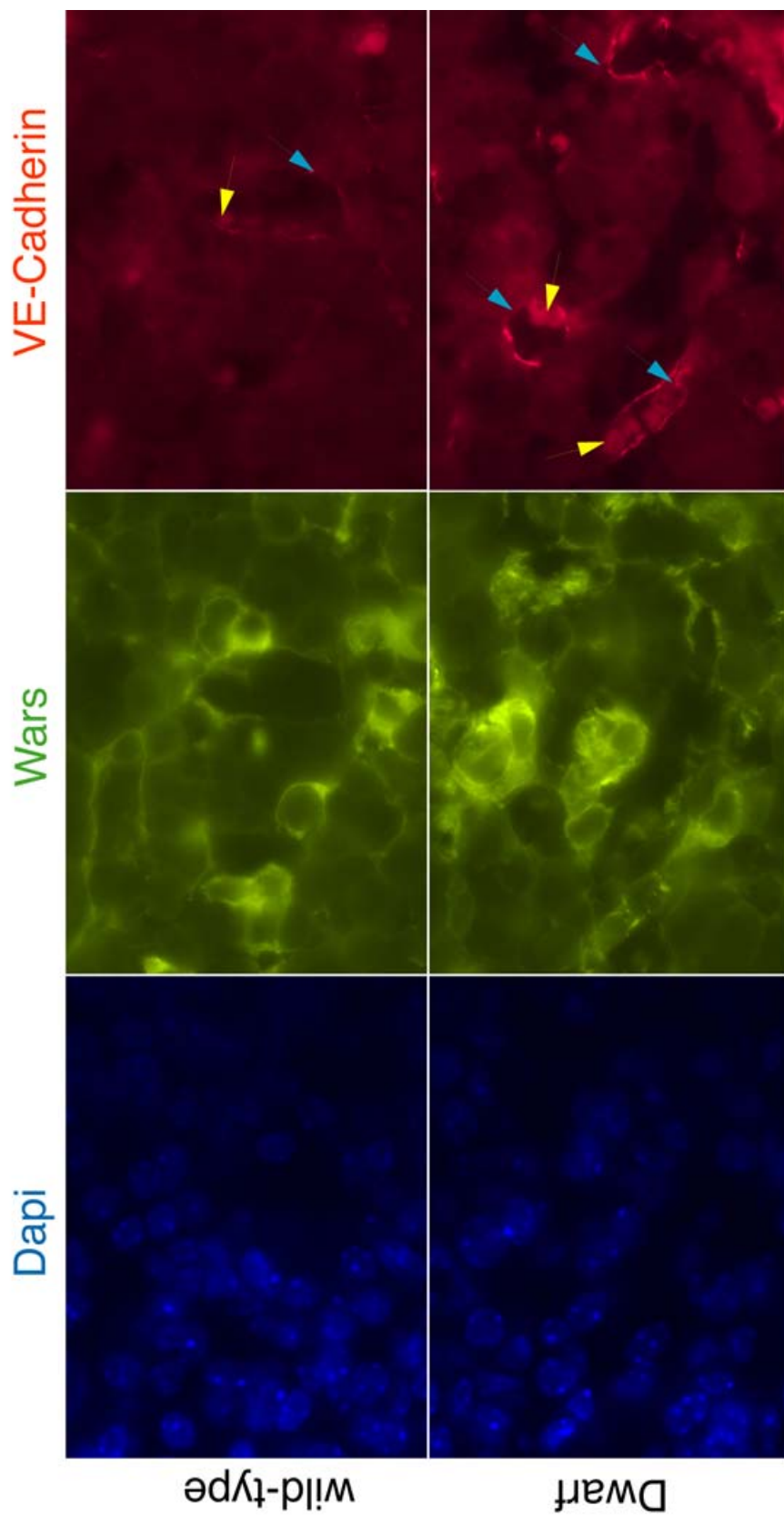
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**Figure 4-10 Action of WARS on VE-Cadherin and proposed role of the Wars<sup>L30P</sup> mutation during angiogenesis**

Full length WARS (FL-WARS) is cleaved by protease to release the WHEP domain (red box region) and truncated WARS (T2-WARS) is generated. T2-WARS interacts with VE-Cadherin to inhibit angiogenesis (angiostasis). The Wars<sup>L30P</sup> mutation (proposed signaling highlighted in grey) is likely to affect the helical structure of WHEP domain by relieving steric hindrance of the WHEP domain that normally prevents binding of FL-WARS to VE-Cadherin. This may potentially result in a decrease in blood vessel formation. Clearly, from immunostaining studies, vasculature is present within the pituitary, however the extent of this remains undetermined.

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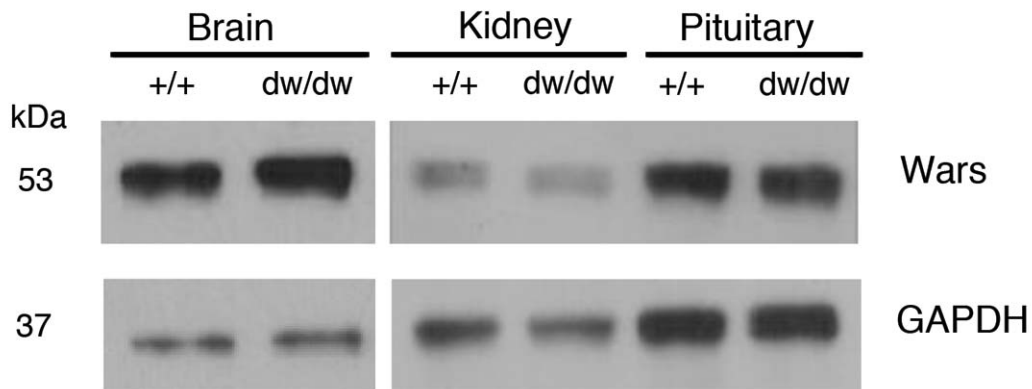


**Figure 4-11 Expression of VE-Cadherin and Wars in wild-type and dwarf mouse pituitary at 8 weeks.** Sections of the pituitary (male at 8 weeks) at high (x100 oil) magnification showing immunostaining of nuclei (DAPI), Wars, and VE-Cadherin. VE-Cadherin is detected lining blood vessels (blue arrows). Within blood vessels can be seen red blood cells (yellow arrow). There was no detectable difference between male and female pituitaries.

3. Steady state level of Wars protein is not altered in the pituitary

Wars is expressed in both wild-type and dwarf pituitaries, as determined by immunostaining, however, this technique was unable to determine whether there was a significant change in Wars protein level. Thus, to determine whether Wars protein was decreased in dwarf compared to wild-type pituitaries western-blot analysis, using SDS-PAGE gel electrophoresis, was performed. This experiment was performed by Chin T. Ng as part of her Honors thesis (Ng, 2010).

Western blot analysis used extracts of pituitary, brain and kidney tissues from wild-type and dwarf 5-month mice littermates (n=2 per organ/group) (Figure 4-12, below). These results indicate that Wars is strongly recognized at the expected molecular weights (53kDa) in pituitary, brain and kidney. There was no detectable difference in Wars protein levels between wild-type and dwarf in the pituitary, kidney or brain (data confirmation based on four repeats of this experiment). Wars protein expression was decreased in the kidney, in both wild-type and dwarf. Data suggests that the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation does not affect the stability of the Wars protein, although additional experiments that directly measure protein stability (e.g. pulse chase or immunoprecipitation analysis) should be performed for confirmation. These results also indicate that Wars protein has higher expression in the pituitary and brain compared to the kidney.



**Figure 4-12 Western blot analysis of Wars expression in pituitaries, brains and kidney in wild-type and dwarf mice**

Molecular weight standards indicated. GAPDH used to analyze ample load. Data collected by Chin Ng (Ng, 2010), figure re-constructed for the purpose of representation in this work. Abbreviations: +/+, wild-type; dw/dw, homozygous dwarf.

## ADDITIONAL AND PRELIMINARY DATA

### H. *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> Mutation Affects Angiogenesis

The following results summarize the findings presented by Chin T. Ng as part of her Honors thesis (Ng, 2010).

As mentioned briefly in the introduction to this chapter, AARS have been linked to regulating the noncanonical activity of angiogenesis (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi, 2010; Wakasugi and Schimmel, 1999; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). In humans, cells contain two distinct WARS isoforms, the full length WARS (FL-WARS; 471 aa) and mini-WARS (424 aa), the later arising by alternative mRNA splicing, naturally (Wakasugi, 2010). Furthermore, there exist two alternative mRNA spliced forms of WARS: T1-WARS and T2-WARS (refer to Figure 4-18, p.197). These have been implicated in the inhibition of angiogenesis (Tzima and Schimmel, 2006).

The angiostatic activity of human mini-WARS is well characterized, however truncated versions of the mouse protein (which is 89% identical across the entire ORF) have not been tested. Therefore, the aim of Chin's work was to perform angiogenesis assays using human mini-WARS (as the positive control), full-length human WARS (as the negative control), mouse mini-WARS (a likely positive control), full-length mouse WARS (a likely negative control) isoforms and comparing these with the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation.

#### 1. *Generation of Wars Isoforms*

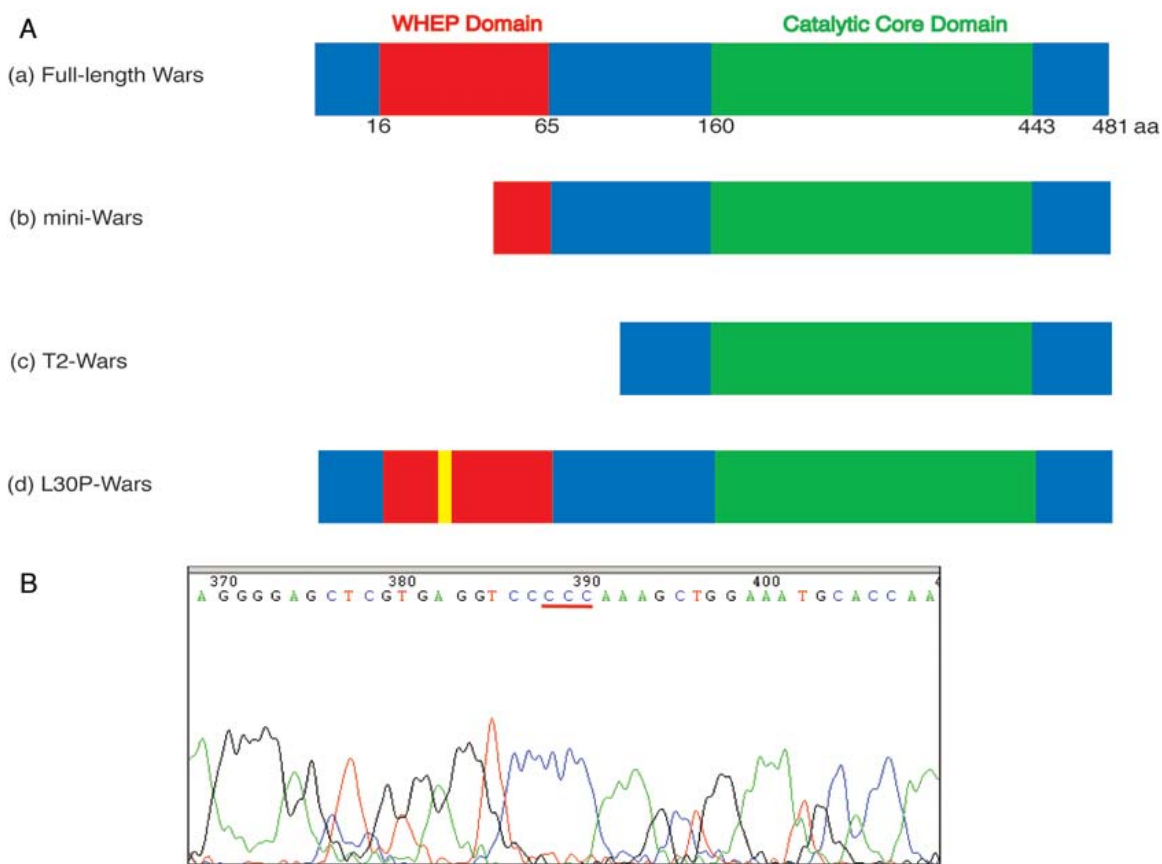
Three different Wars isoforms were cloned: full-length (FL-Wars), mini (mini-Wars) and T2-Wars, using the pET32a-TEV-Kpn1 expression vector. FL-Wars was used as template for the synthesis of *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> by site-directed mutagenesis. The construction and relationship of Wars and its variants are shown Figure 4-13 A (p.180). Successful cloning of the Wars isoforms was confirmed by sequence analysis (Figure 4-13, p.180; and refer to Ng, 2010). The cloning strategy employed for generating mouse Wars isoforms is described Appendices - Figure A 3 (p.234).

#### 2. *Angiostatic activity of WARS isoforms*

3B11 cells were cultured (4-h) with murine FL-Wars, mini-Wars, T2-Wars and *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> in suramin (a blocker of growth factors that prevents binding to receptors), buffer alone, and VEGF. Tube formation was measured using rhodamine phalloidin staining. Treatment with suramin significantly impaired angiogenesis (Figure 4-14 a, p.188), consistent with previous results in human FL-Wars (Otani et al., 2002), whereas treatment

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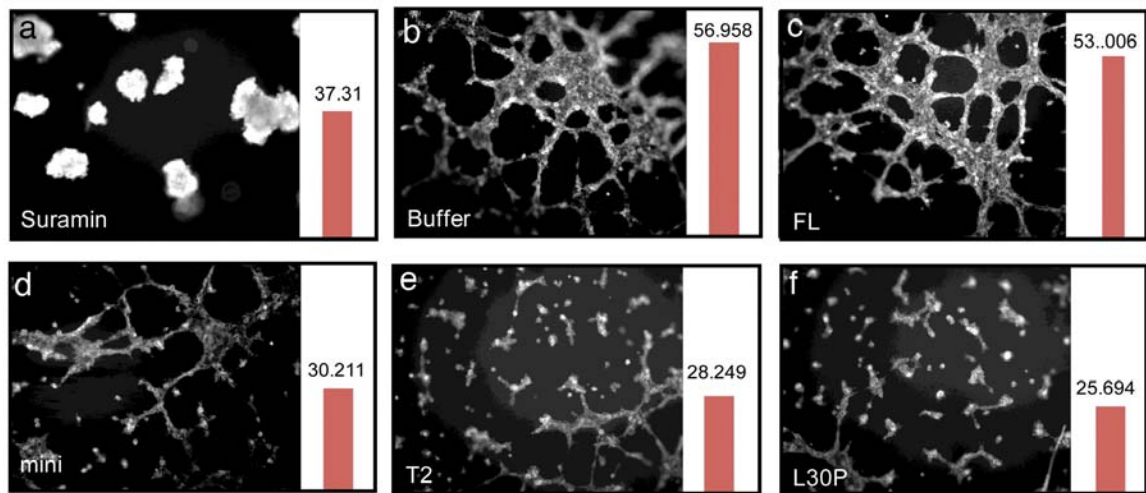
with buffer-only resulted in angiogenesis (Figure 4-14 b). Similarly, mouse FL-Wars showed comparable angiogenesis (Figure 4-14 c) to the buffer-only treatment. However, both mouse mini-Wars and T2-Wars slowed angiogenesis (Figure 4-14 d and e, respectively). Strikingly, *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup>, like mini-Wars and T2-Wars, slowed angiogenesis (Figure 4-14 f). These results illustrate that the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation impairs angiogenesis (or has an angiostatic consequence), in 3B11 cells. In agreement with previous data (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi et al., 2002b), these preliminary results show that *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation plays an influential role on vasculature development.



**Figure 4-13 Schematic representation of the mouse tryptophanyl-tRNA (*Wars*) synthetase isoforms used in the tube-formation assay**

(A) Full-length Wars (FL-Wars) (a), mini-Wars (b), T2-Wars (c) and L30P-Wars (d) isoforms are shown. L30P-Wars was generated using QuickChange Site-directed mutagenesis to generate a point mutation 220T>C (shown as yellow bar) using pET32a FL-Wars as a template. (B) DNA sequencing confirmed the success of mutagenesis 220T>C in the *Wars* gene. The mutated codon, CCC (encoding a Proline residue at position 30) is underlined in red. Isoforms and sequencing confirmation was performed by Chin Ng as part of her Honors thesis (Ng, 2010) and re-drawn by me for the purpose of this thesis.

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**Figure 4-14 Preliminary data of tube-formation assay showing that the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation has angiostatic properties**

3B11 cells were cultured (4-h) with murine FL-Wars, mini-Wars, T2-Wars and L30P-Wars in suramin (a; a blocker of growth factors; prevents binding to receptors), buffer alone (b), and VEGF (c-f). For each image the total area that was covered by vasculature in each image was calculated as the average number ( $\mu\text{m}^2$ ) and is shown for each group, along with a representative image (n=1). Data was prepared and collected by Chin Ng (Ng, 2010).

## I. Vascularity in the Mouse Brain and Pituitary

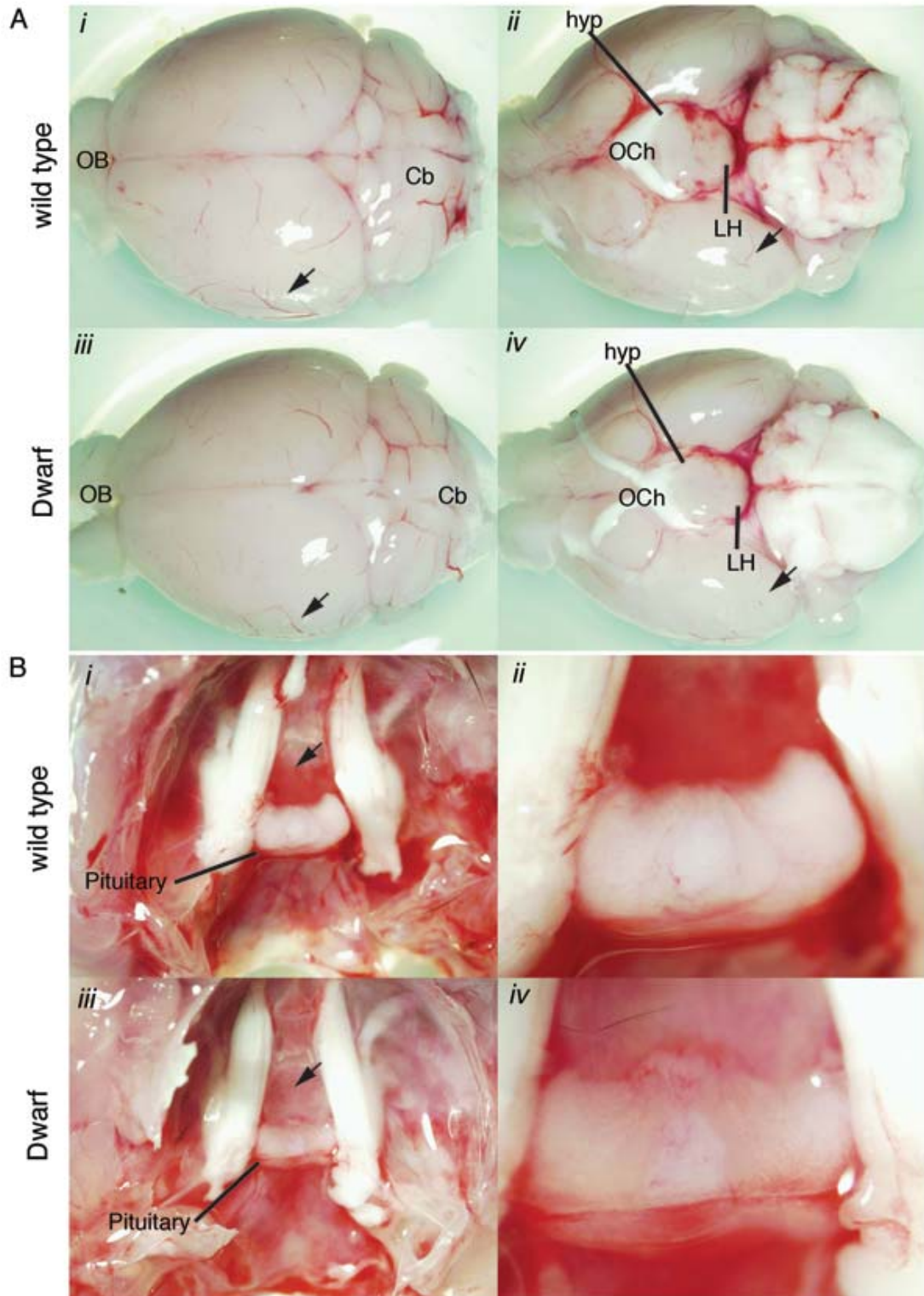
As outlined above, the dwarf phenotype may arise from abnormal development of the portal vasculature. To examine this possibility of the mutation affecting the vascular pattern, the mouse cerebral cortex surface, lateral hypothalamic region and pituitary anatomical localization was examined in 8-week old mice (male and female, n=4 per group) during routine dissection of the pituitaries and brains that were collected for other experiments. Only brains from male mice are shown in Figure 4-15 (p.182). The brains of wild-type animals exhibited branched vessels crossing and gathering radially to the surface (Figure 4-15 A *i*). All these vessels arborized to form a continuous network of small blood vessels. In contrast, the brains from dwarf animals exhibited a few deranged microvessels (Figure 4-15 A *iii*). There were fewer prominent vessel branch points on the cerebral cortical surface in dwarf mice compared to wild-type. Several discontinued vascular structures were observed and the radial patterns were lost (compare Figure 4-15 A *i* and *iii*, as indicated by arrows). Fewer prominent vessel branch points were seen on the ventral surface compared to wild-type (compare Figure 4-15 A *ii* and *iv* indicated by arrows). By contrast, the dwarf pituitary was surrounded by fewer vessels, as indicated by the pooling of blood within the pituitary/sphenoid bone region (Figure 4-15 B *i* and *iii*; *ii* and *iv*).

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### **Figure 4-15 Vascular pattern in the cerebral cortical surface, lateral hypothalamus and pituitary from wild-type and dwarf brains and pituitary at 8-weeks**

Representative brains (A) and corresponding pituitaries (B) from adult dwarf (homozygous) and wild-type male mice at 8-weeks. (A) The dwarf mouse brain had fewer prominent vessel branch points on the cerebral cortical surface compared to wild-type. Several discontinued vascular structures were observed and the radial patterns were lost (compare *i* and *iii*, as indicated by arrows). Fewer prominent vessel branch points were seen on the ventral surface compared to wild-type (compare *ii* and *iv* indicated by arrows). (B) The dwarf pituitary was surrounded by fewer vessels, as indicated by the pooling of blood within the pituitary/sphenoid bone region (arrow). Abbreviations: OB, olfactory bulb; Cb, cerebellum; OCh, optic chiasm; hyp, hypothalamus, LH, lateral hypothalamus.

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## **J. Comparison of the Major Organs Reveals Proportionate Decrease in Size**

Given that the pituitary and brains of dwarf mice were smaller (Figure 4-5, p.162) I extended my observation to the major organs (heart, kidney, adrenal, spleen, liver, ovary, testis) (Figure 4-16, p.186). Here I compared the size of these organs in 8-week old wild-type to dwarf mice (male and female, n=1 per group). Only data from females is shown; there was no difference in size between males and females (data not shown). Size comparison showed that dwarf mice exhibit proportionate dwarfing of all major organs: heart, kidney, adrenal, spleen, liver, ovary, testis, and brain (ovary and testis are shown later and in more detail in Figure 4-17, p.188); and disproportional dwarfing of the pituitary (as shown previously in Figure 4-5, p.162). The comparison between heart, kidney, adrenal, spleen, liver and brain is shown in Figure 4-16 (p.186). Weights of these organs were not obtained, as the primary focus of this project was the characterization of the dwarfism phenotype with respect to the somatotropic axis.

## **K. Dwarf Mice Show Delayed Gonadal Development and are Sub-fertile**

The APC (Canberra, ACT, Australia), where the mice were created, observed that dwarf homozygous males and females did not produce offspring. This posed the question whether dwarf homozygous mice were infertile. Analysis of the gross morphology of the female (ovary) and male (testis) reproductive organs (Figure 4-17 A and C (p.188), respectively) revealed a decrease in size; the most striking decrease in size was between the wild-type and dwarf ovary. Histological examination (using H&E staining) of sections from the female 8-week ovary revealed an absence of the corpus lutea, compared with wild-type littermates. The absence of corpus lutea indicates that female dwarf mice, at 8-weeks (mice are fertile from 5- to 8-weeks (Fox, 2007)), are not ovulating like their wild-type littermates, suggesting that they have not yet developed reproductive fitness at this age. Histological examination (using the H&E morphology stain) of cross-sections of the 8-week old male testis did not reveal any gross abnormality (Figure 4-17 D), aside from the testis being proportionally smaller than the wild-type littermate. Using a masson trichome stain (nuclei stain black; collagen and mucus membrane stain blue; cytoplasm, keratin and muscle stain red) on adjacent sections for better visualization of the nuclear and cytomorphologic detail in the testis, again there was no gross abnormality. Given that there was no gross morphological abnormality in testis, spermatozoa morphology was examined to determine whether there was any defect, which may be preventing fertilization (Figure



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4-17 E). Morphologically abnormal spermatozoa are less able to pass through the cervix (Hanson and Overstreet, 1981; Mortimer et al., 1982), the uterotuberal junction (de Boer et al., 1976; Krzanowska, 1974) and the oocyte vestments (Krzanowska and Lorenc, 1983). Comparison of wild-type and dwarf spermatozoa did not reveal any gross morphological defect, however, the tail of spermatozoa from dwarf mice showed the presence of a cytoplasmic droplet (Figure 4-17 E) indicating that these spermatozoa were undergoing maturation. Cytoplasmic droplets are a normal component of the mammalian spermatozoa maturation (Cooper et al., 2004). These results suggest that the compromised fertility of dwarf mice is not due to any gross morphological abnormality, but indicates that these mice are developing at a much slower rate than their wild-type littermates.

Given that dwarf mice are developing at a much slower rate I decided to examine their reproductive fitness. Specifically, I wanted to determine whether homozygous dwarf mice were able to reproduce and at what age they produce their first litter. To answer these questions I set up several combinations of breeder pairs; mated from the age of reproductive fitness (8-weeks). The breeders were as follows: (1) homozygous wild-type female x homozygous wild-type male (n=3); (2) heterozygous wild-type female x heterozygous wild-type male (n=3); (3) homozygous dwarf female x homozygous dwarf male (n=2); (4) homozygous dwarf female x homozygous wild-type male (n=1); and (5) homozygous wild-type female x homozygous dwarf male (n=1). The homozygous dwarf x wild-type matings were set up to ascertain whether the homozygous dwarf female or male were sub-fertile. The results are shown in Table 4-2 (below).

**Table 4-2 Reproductive fitness of dwarf mice**

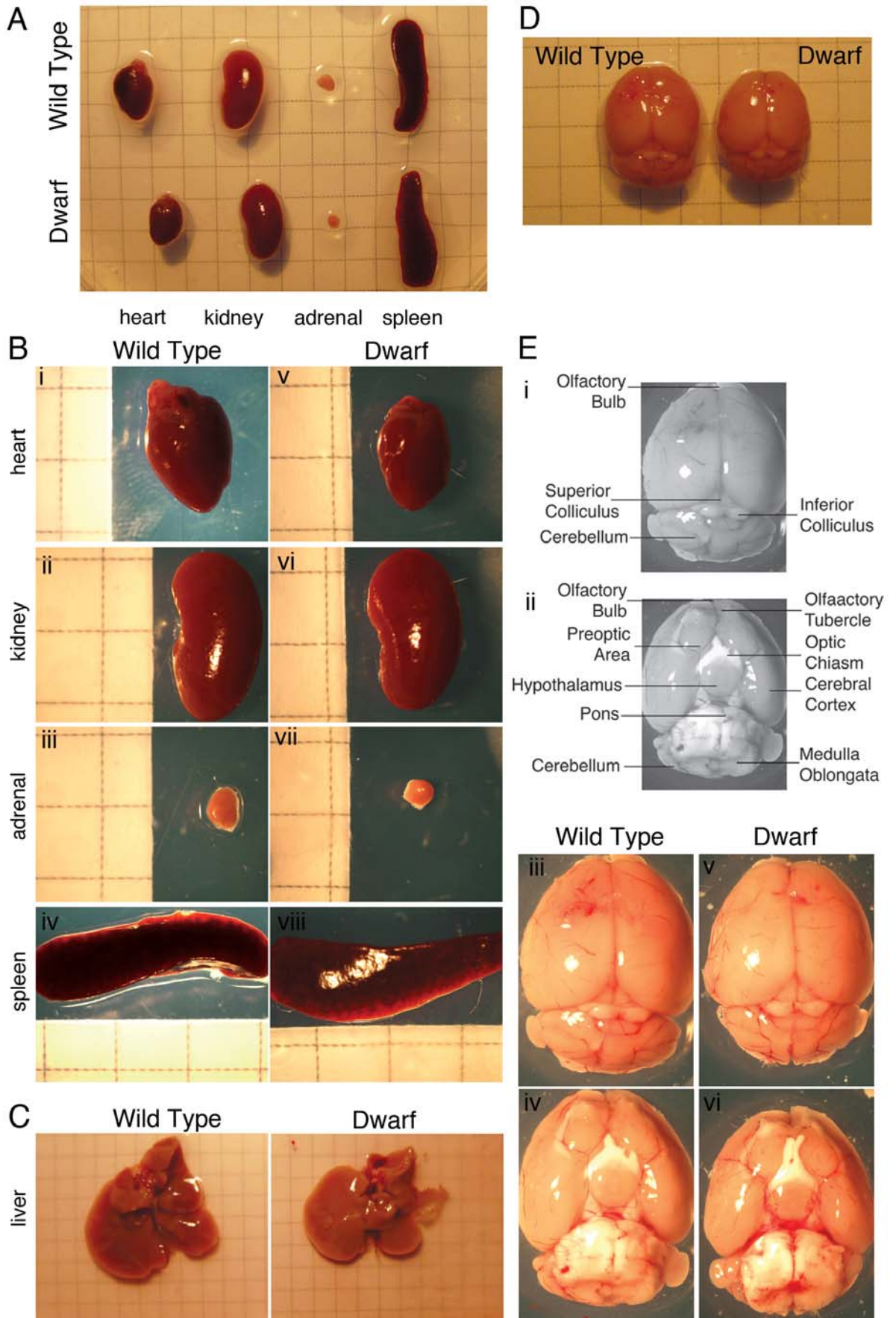
Preliminary data for breeding methods set up between wild-type (+/+), heterozygous (+/dw) and dwarf homozygous (dw/dw) males and females. Males and females were placed together at 8-weeks (42 days) and allowed to breed normally. Breeders were separated when they reached 9 months of age. Breeder females and males were age matched from different litters, making sure the female was 8-weeks old.

Breeders		Number of breeders pairs	Female Age at First Litter (days)	Number of Litters per breeder pair	Average Pups per Litter
Female	Male				
+/+	+/+	3	68	6	8
+/dw	+/dw	3	69	6	8
dw/dw	dw/dw	2	165	4	5
dw/dw	+/+	1	No births recorded	-	-
+/+	dw/dw	1	No births recorded	-	-

**Figure 4-16 Gross morphology of organs of 8-week old age matched wild-type and dwarf littermates**

Images of organs from 8-week old female (n=1) wild-type and dwarf littermates. (A) Comparison of organ (heart, kidney, adrenal, spleen) sizes between wild-type and dwarf littermates. (B) Higher magnification images of heart (*i* and *v*), kidney (*ii* and *vi*), adrenal (*iii* and *vii*) and spleen (*iv* and *viii*), shown in A. All organs in the dwarf mouse are smaller than their wild-type littermates. However, there is a more profound decrease in size of the adrenal. (C) Comparison of liver sizes of wild-type and dwarf littermates. (D) Comparison of brain sizes of wild-type and dwarf littermates. (E) Higher magnification images of wild-type and dwarf brains. Outline of the structures of the brain in dorsal (*i*) and ventral (*ii*) view in the wild-type brain. The dorsal (*iii* and *iv*) and ventral (*v* and *vi*) view of the wild-type and dwarf mouse brain.

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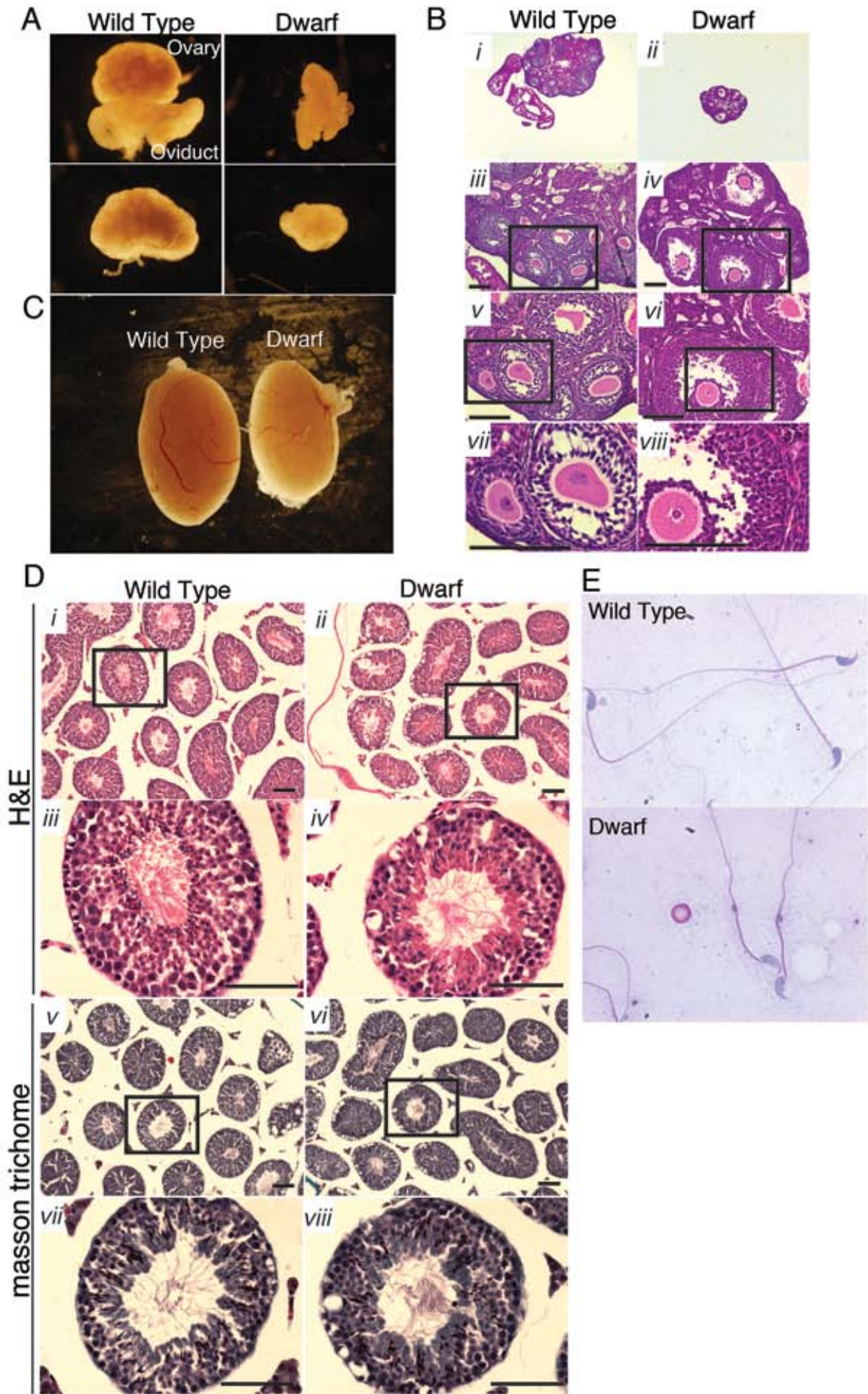
Homozygous wild-type male and females, and heterozygous male and females, had their first litter when the female was 68 and 69 days old (12 - 13 days after being placed in a breeder pair), respectively and produced 6 litters over 9 months. In contrast, homozygous dwarf male and females had their first litter when the female was 165 days old (109 days, or 5 months, after being placed in a breeder pair) and produced 4 litters over 9 months. No litters were recorded for the homozygous dwarf x wild-type matings. It is unclear why no litters were produced, given that the homozygous dwarf female and male mating produced 4 litters over the 9-month period. Together, these preliminary results suggest that homozygous dwarf mice have slower reproductive maturation than wild-type littermates. A more extensive analysis would be needed to accurately assess the reproductive fitness and reproductive maturation, including a detailed examination of the female reproductive cycle. Furthermore, a greater number of homozygous dwarf x wild-type matings should be set-up.

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#### **Figure 4-17 Gross morphology and histology of reproductive organs from wild-type and dwarf mice**

(A) Gross morphology of ovaries, showing the ovary and oviduct. Representative glands from adult dwarf and control mice (8-week-old females). (B) Sections through corresponding ovaries. Ovarian paraffin sections (5µm) were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E); CL, Corpus Luteum; scale bar 50µm. Higher magnification of as shown by box. \*, atretic follicles were observed in dwarf, but not wild-type, ovaries. (C) Gross morphology of testis. Representative glands from adult dwarf and wild-type mice (8-week-old males). (D) Sections through corresponding testis. Testis paraffin sections (5µm) were stained with H&E (a-d) and masson trichome (e-h). (a) and (b) show low magnification of seminiferous tubules lined by germline epithelium and enclosed by tunica propria. In the interstices are blood vessels and clumps of leydig (interstitial) cells. (c) and (d) show higher magnification of a single seminiferous tubule. (e) and (f) show low magnification of seminiferous tubules stained with masson trichome. (g) and (h) show a higher magnification of a single seminiferous tubule. Seminiferous tubules of dwarf mice (h) show a decrease sperm, as shown by density of sperm tails within the lumen, compared with wild-type littermates (g). Scale bar 0.1mm. (E) Sperm morphology. Sperm sample was obtained, during testis dissection, from the vas deferens emerging from the tail of the epididymis to examine sperm morphology (using H&E staining), from wild-type and dwarf mice. Dwarf mice showed no abnormal morphology, however, the presence of a cytoplasmic droplet on the tail region indicates immature development. Together results suggest that a slower maturation of both the male and reproductive tract takes place in dwarf mice. Scale bar in B and D = 50µm.

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## IV. DISCUSSION

In the present study, a novel dwarfism mutation was identified in the *Wars* gene. Dwarf mice displayed dramatic hypoplasia of the anterior pituitary gland, associated with greatly reduced pituitary GH. Moreover, serum GH and IGF-1 levels, the major endocrine regulators of postnatal growth in mammals, were significantly decreased in these mutant mice, leading to greatly reduced longitudinal growth. The anterior pituitary, in contrast to the posterior pituitary, is not of neuronal origin but is derived from the oral ectoderm. However, *Wars* expression was shown in both the anterior and posterior lobes, specifically within cells lining the vessels. Furthermore, both GHRH and Sst were decreased in the hypothalamus. It is well established that GHRH, which is released from specific hypothalamic neurons, plays a key role in stimulating the proliferation of pituitary somatotrope cells (Frohman and Kineman, 2002b; Giustina and Veldhuis, 1998). It is therefore likely that the defect leading to anterior pituitary hypoplasia and the subsequent dwarfism phenotype is a result of a hypothalamic defect, most likely to be affecting hypothalamic neuron development (Figure 4-3, p.158 and Figure 4-15, p.182) and their connections with the hypophysial portal vasculature, the most important network of vessels and capillaries connecting hypothalamic neurons to the pituitary. *Wars*, and other members of the AARS family, has been known to play a role in angiogenesis, in zebrafish and in endothelial cell cultures (Fukui et al., 2009; Herzog et al., 2009; Ray and Fox, 2007; Wakasugi et al., 2002a; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). Although the other AARSs, YARS, WARS and EPRS, can regulate angiogenesis in cell culture, it is not fully understood whether AARSs contribute to the establishment of vascular patterning in vertebrates, including mice. In fact, the only known AARS mutations in mice are in GARS and YARS, and have been associated with dominant types of Charcot-Marie-Tooth (CMT) disease (a group of peripheral neuropathies characterized by sensory loss and poor motor function) in patients (Antonellis et al., 2003; Jordanova et al., 2006). Note, these two AARSs have *not* been shown to play a role in angiogenesis. Thus, it is tempting to speculate that a mutation in *Wars*, in mice, plays an important role during angiogenesis, and this is specifically important during development of the vascular connection between the hypothalamus and pituitary.

It was hypothesized that this novel *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation in mice results from a hypothalamic defect, most likely in GHRH and/or Sst and that this is contributing to the dwarfism phenotype. GHRH neurons, located within the ARC, gradually increase during postnatal development and plateau when adulthood is reached. Mice with congenital GH deficiency, due to a deficiency in GH-secreting somatotropes, lack GH-mediated negative feedback, subsequently leading GHRH overstimulation and excessive GHRH neuron

number. In turn, the increase in GHRH neurons promotes an increase in the production of GHRH (McGuinness et al., 2003; Phelps and Hurley, 1999). However, given that the mutation has been identified in an AARS whereby other AARSs have been linked to noncanonical activities in vascular development, it is likely that the substitution mutation effects vasculature structure and/or communication between endothelial cells.

#### **A. *Wars<sup>L30P</sup>* Dwarf Mice are Proportionally Smaller with Pituitary Hypoplasia**

One of the primary effects of the mutation is dwarfism. The aim of the work presented in this chapter was to investigate the cause of this dwarfism, in order to gain insight into the mechanism that underpins this phenotype. Characterization of the dwarfism phenotype revealed that homozygous dwarf mice are 30-40% smaller than both heterozygous and wild-type littermates, and this observation is seen throughout postnatal development and into adulthood (Figure 4-2, p.155). Longitudinal growth was also reduced in dwarf mice (Figure 4-2, p.155). Mice harboring mutations in other genes that result in dwarfism have similar phenotype characteristics (Alba et al., 2005; Bokryeon et al., 2009; Cheng et al., 1983; Lin et al., 1994; Schaiber and Gowen, 1961; Sinha et al., 1975; Snell, 1929). During these experiments the mutation had not yet been identified and I speculated that the dwarfism mutation could be a result of either a pituitary or hypothalamic defect. In both cases the secretion of GH from somatotropes would be decreased and subsequent downstream signaling in the somatotropic-axis would be compromised. Additionally, the size of littermates at birth would not differ. Examination of postnatal pups, at P1, 7 and 14, did not reveal any significant difference between weights, indicating that the growth defect becomes prominent later than P14, but is definitely observed between P21-29.

To further determine the extent of dwarfism, I next examined the pituitary, the key regulator of GH and other pituitary hormone secretion, and the brain, specifically the hypothalamus, for any abnormalities. Firstly, pituitaries were examined. Dwarf mice revealed pituitary hypoplasia, which was primarily caused by a dramatic decrease in the size of the anterior pituitary (the size of posterior pituitary appeared essentially unchanged). The anterior pituitary, in contrast to the posterior pituitary, is not of neuronal origin but is derived from the oral ectoderm. Therefore, it is likely that the mutation has an affect on the anterior, rather than posterior, pituitary. Secondly, the brain was examined and the hypothalamus examined for anatomical abnormalities. Besides the pituitary hypoplasia displayed in dwarf mice, there was no significant difference in overall brain morphology between the dwarf and wild-type. This suggests that the mutation is having a

profound affect on pituitary size, and likely resulting in a decrease in somatotropes, which in turn are not producing the correct concentration of GH essential for growth and development.

### **B. Pituitary GH and Serum IGF-1 are Reduced in *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> Dwarf Mice**

To explore the mechanisms underlying the dwarf phenotype, I next examined whole pituitary extract levels of GH as well as serum levels of the key hormone IGF-1 that is involved in somatic growth. The serum levels of other important hormones (e.g. ghrelin, a hormone that stimulates pituitary GH release via activation of central GH secretagogue receptors (Osterstock et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2004)) were not examined because the main focus point of this project was to analyze the somatotrophic axis of the novel dwarf mouse line. Strikingly, dwarf mice showed a significant reduction in GH levels as well as IGF-1. GH is released into the blood from the anterior pituitary where it then binds to specific receptors in the liver, triggering the secretion of IGF-1. In turn, circulating IGF-1, considered the major factor that mediates the stimulatory effects of GH on longitudinal growth (Yakar et al., 2002), has an inhibitory (negative feedback) action on GHRH neurons located with the hypothalamus. Consistent with the observed decrease in GH levels, dwarf mice reveal a striking reduction in serum IGF-1. It is therefore likely that the observed decreases in both GH and serum IGF-1 levels in dwarf mice are responsible for the observed growth deficit.

### **C. Hypothalamic *Ghrh* and *Sst* Expression Levels are Reduced in *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> Dwarf Mice**

Hypothalamic *Ghrh* as well as *Sst* levels were significantly reduced in dwarf mice. GHRH and GH release is controlled by the inhibitory control of *Sst* whereby *Sst* exerts its inhibitory effects on longitudinal growth by inhibiting the secretion of GH from pituitary somatotropes. It is pertinent to know that a subset of GHRH neurons located in the ARC expresses *Sst* receptors, and that expression and release of GHRH are inhibited by *Sst* (for review see (Bertherat et al., 1995). Conversely, *Sst* neurons of the periventricular area of the anterior hypothalamus are also stimulated by GHRH (Aguila and McCann, 1987). Thus, GH deficiency normally results in an overstimulation of GHRH and inhibition of *Sst* (Alba and Salvatori, 2004; Alba et al., 2005). Additionally, the observed decreased in *Sst* has also been observed in mice deficient in GH (Bartke, 2000; Hurley et al., 1997; Phelps et al., 1996). An absence of GH production has a marked negative effect on the differentiation and levels of the peptide expression in hypophysiotropic *Sst* neurons (Phelps et al., 1996), as well as *Sst* mRNA levels (Hurley et al., 1997). Importantly, an informative study that



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examined *Sst* expression over time in the Ames dwarf and wild-type mice, found that a reduction of *Sst* in dwarf mice at 7 days of age suggests that GH production during embryonic or very early postnatal development is important for activating *Sst* transcription (Hurley et al., 1997). Mice with congenital GH deficiency, due to a primary defect in somatotropes, lack GH-mediated negative feedback thereby resulting in overstimulation of hypothalamic GHRH neurons (i.e.  $\uparrow$ GHRH: $\downarrow$ Sst) (Hurley et al., 1997; McGuinness et al., 2003). Whereas abnormally low *Sst* in the hypothalamus of mice with a *pituitary* GH defect. Therefore, pituitary hypoplasia and associated GH deficiency are due to a hypothalamic defect and have the opposite phenotype (i.e.  $\uparrow$ Sst: $\downarrow$ GHRH). Then how can the observed decrease in *both* GHRH and *Sst*, in these dwarf mice (i.e.  $\downarrow$ GHRH: $\downarrow$ Sst), be explained? A study in sheep examined GHRH and *Sst* secretion into hypophysial portal blood and relationship to GH secretion in peripheral blood (Bluet-Pajot et al., 1998). As expected, the majority of GH peaks were associated with an increased portal GHRH and a fall in *Sst* concentrations. Interestingly, a simultaneous increase in GHRH and *Sst* levels was observed in 18.5% of GH peaks while 12.9% of GH peaks occurred with a fall in *Sst* and no modification in GHRH concentrations. This data, although in sheep, indicate that the GHRH/*Sst* interplay is complex. Perhaps, in the dwarf mouse, we are seeing a decrease in *Sst* relative to *Ghrh*. Although *Sst* mRNA levels were decreased in dwarf mice, *Ghrh* was significantly more reduced. These results agree with previous dwarf data that the observed decrease in hypothalamic *Sst* is due to feedback inhibition triggered by low GH and IGF-1 levels (Giustina and Veldhuis, 1998).

#### D. Dwarf Mice Show Delayed Reproductive Development

Dwarf mice show delayed reproductive organ development and sub-fertility (Figure 4-17, p.188 and Table 4-2, p.185, respectively). Infertility has been observed in other dwarf phenotypes, for example, the Snell dwarf mouse show gonadal dysfunction arising from a lack of neuroendocrine axis activation (Bartke, 2000; Bartke and Lloyd, 1970). It is known that diminished GH levels lead directly to diminished circulating insulin and IGF-1, both of which are necessary for normal body size and aging in dwarfism mouse models, such as the Snell and Ames mice (Bartke, 2000). Therefore a decrease in these important hormones significantly reduces reproductive ability, and this is seen in most dwarf mouse models (Brown-Borg, 2009). Anatomical observation of the female and male reproductive organs revealed a decrease in size; the most striking decrease in size was between the wild-type and dwarf ovary. Histological examination (using the H&E staining) of sections from the female 8-week ovary revealed an absence of the corpus lutea, indicating that female dwarf mice were not fertile at 8-weeks (the normal reproductive age in mice is between 5-8

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weeks (Fox, 2007)). Histological examination (using the H&E morphology stain and masson trichome stain) of the male testis of dwarf and wild-type littermates did not reveal any gross abnormality, aside from the testis being proportionally smaller in dwarf mice. Given that there was no gross morphological abnormality in testis, morphology of spermatozoa was examined to determine extent of defect, which may be preventing fertilization. Morphologically abnormal spermatozoa are less able to pass through the cervix (Hanson and Overstreet, 1981; Mortimer et al., 1982), the uterotuberal junction (de Boer et al., 1976; Krzanowska, 1974), and the oocyte vestments (Krzanowska and Lorenc, 1983). There was no gross morphological defect in spermatozoa, however, the tail of spermatozoa from dwarf mice contained a cytoplasmic droplet (a normal component of the mammalian spermatozoa) maturation (Cooper et al., 2004). These results suggest that the compromised fertility of dwarf mice does not stem from any gross morphological abnormality within the reproductive organs or within the spermatozoa. Simply dwarf mice have delayed reproductive development. As a preliminary study, wild-type and homozygous dwarf mice were mated from the age of reproductive fitness (8-weeks). The first birth of pups to homozygous dwarf parents was at 5-months of age. Although preliminary, these data support the anatomical data that dwarf mice had slower reproductive maturation. A more extensive analysis, using a larger sample size, would be needed to accurately assess the reproductive fitness and reproductive maturation, including a detailed examination of the female reproductive cycle.

Table 4-3 summarizes the phenotype of several dwarf mouse models including the novel *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mouse mutant characterized within this work.

#### **E. Wars is Expressed Within Blood Vessels of the Pituitary**

The mutation was identified in the tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (*Wars*) gene (Figure 4-6, p.165). This enzyme has never been previously associated with a growth defect, nor has there existed a mouse model of this mutation, until now. Therefore, the generation of this novel *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutant mouse is an invaluable resource that will ultimately provide an insight into the mechanism of HP axis vascular development resulting from a single substitution mutation in this ubiquitously expressed AARS.

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**Table 4-3 Phenotypic characteristics comparing GH/IGF-1 long-living mutant mice with the L30P dwarf mouse**

Adapted from (Brown-Borg, 2009). <sup>1</sup> Homozygous dwarf and wild-type mice were maintained for 2 years, after which time they were culled. There were no recorded deaths in either groups. It is likely these mice will have extended longevity; this test should be performed in the future. ND, not determined.

Phenotype	Mouse Models							
	Ames (Prop1)	Snell (Pit1)	GHR/BP KO	IGF- 1R +/-	LID (liver IGF1 mutant)	Little (GHRH R mutant)	Klotho	Tukkuburko (Wars <sup>L30P</sup> dwarf)
GH/IGF1/Insulin signalling	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Body Size	↓	↓	↓	↓	↔	↓	↔	↓
Reproduction	↓	↓	↓	↔	↔	↓	↓	↓
Longevity	49-68% ↑	42% ↑	21-40% ↑	33% femal es ↑	↔	23-25% ↑	18-30% ↑	ND <sup>1</sup>

AARSs are large enzymes that have evolved from two different active sites, gradually incorporating additional domains (Ribas de Pouplana and Geslain, 2008). Their Noncanonical functions have been of considerable interest recently as they have been implicated in various disease states. Fragments of YARS stimulate angiogenesis, whereas those of WARS inhibit angiogenesis (Tzima and Schimmel, 2006). Notably, several additional AARSs have been involved in angiogenesis in different contexts (Table 4-4, p.196). Human AARSs have been involved in cell-signaling activity throughout evolution, arising through individual sequence adaptations and domain acquisitions. In the mammalian YARS there is an embedded tripeptide Glu-Leu-Arg motif essential for cell signaling (Wakasugi and Schimmel, 1999). This was conferred by introducing Glu-Leu-Arg motif into yeast YARS (Liu et al., 2002). The YARS-appended domain is able to stimulate mononuclear phagocyte chemotaxis and tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  production in a behavior

similar to that of the cytokine endothelial and monocyte-activating polypeptide II (Wakasugi and Schimmel, 1999). Thus, linking translation and cell signaling.

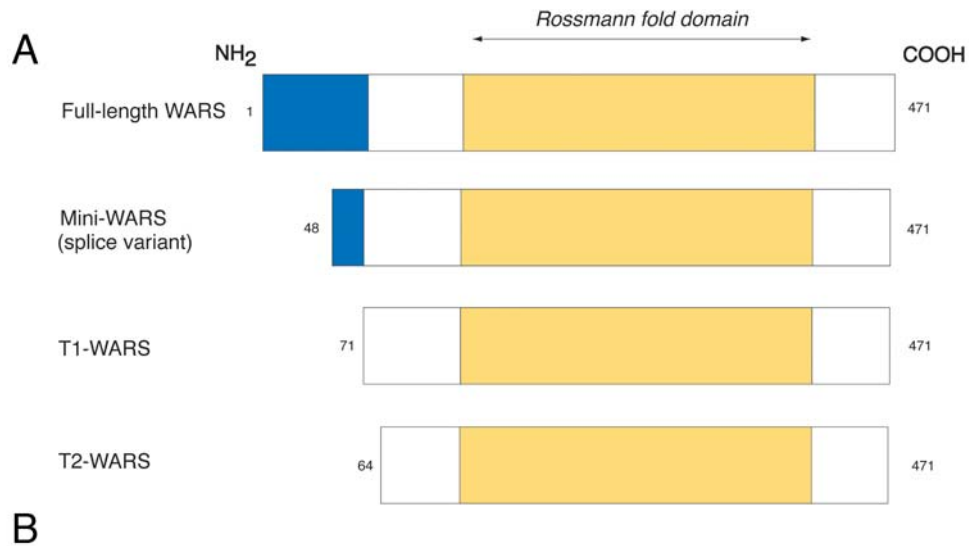
Human WARS, a close homologue of YARS, also participates in cell-signaling pathways (Wakasugi et al., 2002b) and catalyzes the aminoacylation of tRNA. In humans, cells contain two distinct WARS isoforms, the full length WARS (FL-WARS; 471 aa) and mini-WARS (424 aa) in which most of the N-terminal extension is absent, the later arising by alternative mRNA splicing, naturally (Wakasugi, 2010). There exist also two other isoforms of WARS: T1-WARS and T2-WARS (Figure 4-18, p.197) alternative mRNA spliced forms of WARS and are implicated in the inhibition of angiogenesis (Tzima and Schimmel, 2006). Expression of WARS and mini-WARS is robustly induced by interferon-gamma (IFN- $\gamma$ ), an antiproliferative cytokine (Fleckner et al., 1995; Liu et al., 2002; Tolstrup et al., 1995). While both the alternative splicing and IFN- $\gamma$  induction has been known for several years, the importance was not well understood until it was confirmed that mini-WARS had antiangiogenic (or angiostatic) activities in assays (both *in vitro* and *in vivo*). For instance, mini-WARS can block VEGF-induced migration of human umbilical vein endothelial cells (Wakasugi et al., 2002b). Furthermore, mini-WARS and a closely related proteolytic variant, T2-WARS (Figure 4-18, p.197) both block VEGF-stimulated angiogenesis in chick cell adhesion molecule and mouse matrigel assays *in vivo* (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). However, FL-WARS does not have this effect (Otani et al., 2002; Wakasugi et al., 2002b). T2-WARS has also been shown to be a potent inhibitor of retinal angiogenesis in the neonatal mouse, where it was localized to retinal blood vessels. Together, this data suggest that blood vessel endothelial cells are likely a direct target of WARS.

**Table 4-4 Noncanonical activities of AARSs in vascular development**

Adapted from (Kawahara and Stainier, 2009)

AARS	Functions	Reference
Sars	Disruption of Sars leads to dilatation of the aortic arch vessels and aberrant branching of cranial and intersegmental vessels in zebrafish	(Fukui et al., 2009; Herzog et al., 2009)
YARS	N-terminal fragment of YARS functions as an angiogenic factor for endothelial cells in culture	(Wakasugi et al., 2002a)
WARS	N-terminal truncated form of WARS functions as an angiostatic factor for endothelial cells in culture	(Wakasugi et al., 2002b)
EPRS	EPRS is involved in the IFN- $\gamma$ -mediated translational silencing of VEGF-A in culture	(Ray and Fox, 2007)

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**NOTE:**

This figure is included on page 197 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure 4-18 Schematic representation of the human full length and truncated WARS**

(A) Schematic representation of human WARS, and variant constructs. Numbers on the left and right correspond to the NH<sub>2</sub>- and COOH-terminal residues relative to the human full-length enzymes, respectively. Rossmann fold catalytic domain is shaded yellow and the N-terminal is shaded blue. (B) Structure of the dimeric human WARS. Corresponding Rossmann fold catalytic domain is shaded yellow and the N-terminal is shaded blue. Figure A modified and adapted from (Wakasugi, 2010); B modified and adapted from (Yang et al., 2003)

Endothelial cells of vessels are constantly subjected to mechanical forces that are a direct result of the hemodynamic forces of blood flow and include shear stress and pressure. These hemodynamic forces have profound effects on endothelial cell biology thereby playing a major role in vascular homeostasis and pathophysiology. Fluid shear stress plays an integral part of the mechanical stimulus experience by endothelial cells, whereby it helps to regulate migration, proliferation, and survival—key mechanisms involved in angiogenesis. Most importantly, fluid shear stress aids in the production of vasoactive mediators and expression of adhesion molecules, essential for regulating vasculature (Olsson et al., 2006). Angiogenesis plays a fundamental role in growth, survival, and function of normal and pathological tissues (Carmeliet, 2000a; Nicosia and

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Villaschi, 1999). The process of angiogenesis requires intercellular junctions to loosen followed by extracellular matrix degradation by endothelial cells, migration of endothelial cells toward the angiogenic stimulus, sprout formation, lumen formation, and the joining of sprouts to form a capillary bed (refer to Introduction Chapter 1I.C.3 Angiogenesis, p.41, for a detailed description) (Carmeliet, 2000a; Carmeliet and Collen, 2000; Nicosia and Villaschi, 1999)

Wars, as mentioned above, has reported noncanonical functions in angiogenesis. To examine further the function of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation I used immunostaining to localize the expression of Wars within the pituitary. Wars expression was localized to blood vessels of both the anterior and posterior pituitaries (Figure 4-7, p.171). Additionally, Wars was expressed within the cytoplasm of several cells. This is not unexpected, because Wars is a ubiquitously expressed protein; a result never previously shown. No significant difference in Wars protein expression was determined by immunostaining of pituitary sections from wild-type compared to dwarf mice at 8-weeks (Figure 4-9, p.172). To further determine whether there was a decrease or change in Wars expression in dwarf mouse pituitaries, a western blot was performed by my colleague Chin Ng (Chin Ng, 2010) on pituitary, brain and kidney extracts (Figure 4-12, p.178). There was no detectable difference in Wars steady state protein levels in pituitary, brain nor kidney. Thus, the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation does not result in a simple loss of protein. Similarly, this was also seen in GARS protein levels in *Gars*<sup>G240R/+</sup> heterozygous patients and *Gars*<sup>C201R/+</sup> heterozygous mouse brain homogenates (Achilli et al., 2009). However, the investigation of Wars protein expression was performed on pituitaries, brains and kidneys from 5-month old littermates. Given that we know that Wars plays a role in angiogenesis, it is likely that we will not see a difference in Wars protein expression at this age. The formation of blood vessels, in particular within the HP axis, occurs during development and early postnatally (as shown by the growth chart in Figure 4-2, p.155). At 5-months of age there may be compensatory up-regulation of Wars expression. Therefore, expression levels of Wars should be examined during embryogenesis, particularly during the crucial phase of pituitary development, between 10.5-17.5 dpc, the later time point being when pituitary cells have differentiated (refer Figure 1-4, p.35) and also during the first three weeks of postnatal development, a time when growth is rapid.

To confirm that Wars is expressed in pituitary blood vessels, immunostaining of important vessel proteins, PECAM and VE-Cadherin was performed. Wars was found to be expressed in pituitary vasculature, as shown by co-expression analysis with PECAM and VE-Cadherin, confirming that Wars is expressed within pituitary vasculature (Figure

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4-9, p.172 and Figure 4-11, p.177). However, immunostaining was unable to determine whether VE-Cadherin was compromised. It has been hypothesized that T2-WARS binds to VE-Cadherin (refer to Figure 4-10, p.175) (Zhou et al., 2010) thus regulating angiogenesis. The question to ask here is whether the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation on the full length Wars protein is acting like the angiogenic T2-WARS or whether the point mutation has an alternate affect, possibly having an anti-angiogenic affect. Immunostaining of the blood vessels within the HP axis was not performed, primarily because immunostaining of the hypophysial portal vasculature is a difficult region to locate on corresponding sections. In particular, given that Wars is likely to have its affects during HP axis development and early postnatal growth, examination of vessels would be best completed utilizing recent novel technologies, as described in (Walls et al., 2008). Key vasculogenic and angiogenic events occur in the mouse embryo between E8.0 and E10.0, during which time the vasculature develops from a simple circulatory loop into a complex, fine structured, three-dimensional organ (see example in Appendices Figure A 2, p.231). Interpretation of vascular phenotypes exhibited by signaling pathway mutants has historically been hindered by an inability to comprehensively image the normal sequence of events that shape the basic architecture of the early mouse vascular system. To get around this hurdle, Walls et al (Walls et al., 2008) employed Optical Projection Tomography using frequency distance relationship-based deconvolution to image embryos immunostained with the endothelial specific marker PECAM to create a high resolution, three-dimensional atlas of mouse vascular development between E8.0 and E10.0 (5 to 30 somites). Analysis of the atlas has provided significant new information regarding normal development of intersomitic vessels, the perineural vascular plexus, the cephalic plexus and vessels connecting the embryonic and extraembryonic circulation. Although the authors did not look at vascular development postnatally, this technique has the potential to be applied at these stages; a potential avenue for examining vascular development in the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> dwarf mouse. This atlas is freely available at [http://www.mouseimaging.ca/research/mouse\\_atlas.html](http://www.mouseimaging.ca/research/mouse_atlas.html) (Walls et al., 2008).

#### **F. *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> Mutation Inhibits the Formation of New Vessels in Cell Culture**

This is the first study to examine and document the expression of Wars and the novel *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation, in mouse. Preliminary data have demonstrated that the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation, inhibits angiogenesis, in 3B11 cells (Chin Ng, 2010). This is supported by the preliminary anatomical data of the mouse cerebral cortex surface, lateral hypothalamic region and pituitary in 8-week old dwarf mice. (Figure 4-15, p.182). Here I showed that

brains from dwarf animals exhibited deranged microvessels with fewer prominent vessel branch points on the cerebral cortical surface and the dwarf pituitary was surrounded by fewer vessels. Although both these results are preliminary and require confirmation, they agree with other studies (outlined above), specifically those that have examined truncated WARS isoforms in cell culture; the extent of vascularization in brains *in vivo* remains unknown. Human FL-WARS has been shown to be inactive in angiostatic activity due to the steric hindrance of the WHEP domain blocking the interaction of WARS and VE-Cadherin (Wakasugi et al., 2002b; Zhou et al., 2010). Interestingly, analysis of *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> in endothelial cell tube formation assays demonstrated anti-angiogenic activity. The *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation is most likely disrupting the helical structure of the WHEP domain in the Wars protein, thereby compromising its ability to block the interaction between Wars and VE-Cadherin, and resulting in a substantial decrease in endothelial cell tube formation. To confirm this the interaction between *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> and VE-Cadherin need to be examined. This can be accomplished by testing the binding of *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> to VE-Cadherin, using co-immunoprecipitation.

## G. Conclusion and Future Directions

This study is the first to have identified a novel mouse strain, by ENU mutagenesis, with a point mutation (leucine to proline substitution) in the enzyme tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase (*Wars*) that results in dwarfism, pituitary hypoplasia as well as GH and IGF-1 deficiency, indicating a defect in the HP axis. Preliminary data have also shown that the point mutation prevents the formation of new vessels (anti-angiogenic).

To further understand the function of Wars in regulating HP axis development and determine the impact of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation on WARS activity the following key points need to be examined:

- Examine extent of hypothalamic dysfunction  
*Perform qPCR to examine mRNA expression of all hypothalamic neurons, initially at 8-weeks. In addition, validate this data by section in situ hybridization and immunostaining using available probes/antibodies.*
- Understand the developmental progression and functional impact of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> dwarf phenotype  
*This can be examined using GHRH-EGFP (Balthasar et al., 2003) and/or GH-EGFP transgenic reporter mice (Magoulas et al., 2000), generated by Prof. Iain Robinson at the National Institute for Medical Research (London). In GHRH-EGFP mice, EGFP is targeted to the secretory vesicles of the GHRH neurons in the ARC and enables GHRH neurons to be identified for*



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*developmental and electrophysiological studies. Generating homozygous dwarf GHRH-EGFP transgenic mice would allow the number, morphology, directionality and terminal structure of GHRH neuron axonal projections to be traced and identified across postnatal development (Balthasar et al., 2003). Furthermore, this model would allow patch clamp time-lapse as well as live imaging analysis of GHRH neurons. This would ultimately provide information regarding the impact of the Wars mutation on the electrophysiological properties as well as time-lapse analysis of GHRH neurons, respectively.*

- Confirm the angiostatic assays

*In addition to confirming the angiostatic assay, perform an in vivo assay measuring the impact of the mutation on the development of mouse retinal vasculature. This can be done by injecting recombinant Wars protein into P8 retinas in vivo and harvesting them at p12. This method will allow for the scoring of vascular development via visual inspection.*

- Assessment of vasculature

*To gain an insight into the structure of vasculature of dwarf mice, quantitative assessment of total vascular volume, tube length and diameter can be performed using reconstruction of optical sections (z-series) acquired using confocal microscopy. Furthermore, analysis of endothelial cell/vasculature ultrastructure in dwarf and wild-type tissue may also be performed with the use of transmission electron microscopy.*

- Determine whether WARS mutations cause GH deficiencies in humans

*Many of the genes that have been associated with HP axis dysfunction in humans were originally identified as causative genes in mouse model of dwarfism (Dattani and Robinson, 2000). This gene has never been implicated in pituitary function thereby providing a strong case for further investigating its role in mice and examining its significance in human HP axis dysfunction. This can be done by sequencing the WARS gene in patient DNA, prioritizing the screen for patients with GH deficiency.*

Overall, the results from this project have identified a novel dwarf mouse with a genetic determinant of HP axis function and provide novel insights into the role and function of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation *in vivo*. Identification of this enzyme and its importance during angiogenesis provides an exciting opportunity to further this work by determining its exact role and function during vascular development, during embryogenesis and postnatally. Dysfunction of the HP axis is a significant clinical problem and, despite the significant contributions been made to this genetic etiology, the responsible gene(s) in many patients remain unknown. Further research is likely to have a considerable importance for human health and will contribute to understanding the key insights into the molecular pathology of HP axis dysfunction and the role of Wars in GH regulation. It is highly probable that ongoing research on newly discovered gene will open the possibility

#### *4. Novel Dwarf Mouse Generated by ENU Mutagenesis*

for novel genetic screening tests and potential new treatments; early diagnosis of GH deficiencies are linked to a lower risk of adverse effects of the disease.

## APPENDICES

### PERL SCRIPT USED IN THE COLLATION OF MICROARRAY STATISTICAL DATA

The following PERL script was used to collate the microarray statistical results into one excel file for easy comparison between the three statistical methods used. Genes were sorted and compared using the ProbeID.

The script takes four input files: (1) limma, (2) sam, and (3) ttest, list of known genes. Each file contains a ProbeID, which is used to determine common genes between the three files (limma, sam & ttest). The ProbeID is used to determine whether the gene appears in all three tests, just two of the tests or is unique to an individual test. The 'FC' and 'pval' for each test is included in the output comparing the three tests. The list of known genes is to provide additional detail (accession, all-symbol and transcript).

## Appendices

```
#!/usr/bin/perl

my $lineSep = "\n";
my $result = 0;

if ($#ARGV == 5) {
    $result = main(@ARGV);
} else {
    print "Invalid arguments to $0$lineSep";
    print "Arguments$lineSep";
    print "1. limma file$lineSep";
    print "2. sam file$lineSep";
    print "3. ttest file$lineSep";
    print "4. probe details file$lineSep";
    print "5. file containing commonalities$lineSep";
    print "6. error file$lineSep";
}

exit $result;

# Read in three files to be compared ie. limma, sam & ttest.
# A fourth file read in provides additional details for the probe ids
# in the first three files. The output is written to a fifth file
# that lists the probe ids in the limma, sam & ttest files showing
# which are common between all three, common in two or unique.
#
# A sixth file details errors encountered while processing the input
# files.
sub main {
    my $infile1 = shift;
    my $infile2 = shift;
    my $infile3 = shift;
    my $infile4 = shift;
    my $outcommon = shift;
    my $errorFile = shift;
    my %lines1;
    my %lines2;
    my %lines3;
    my %lines4;
    my $tmp1;
    my $tmp2;
    my $tmp3;
    my $fh;
    my $fhe;
    my $error;

    open($fhe, ">", $errorFile) or
        die "Could not open file: $errorFile$lineSep";

    # Read in the four files - limma, sam, ttest & probe details
    ($error, $tmp1) = suckFile($infile1, \&getLimma, $fhe);
    %lines1 = %{ $tmp1 };
    if ($error == 0) {
        ($error, $tmp1) = suckFile($infile2, \&getSam, $fhe);
        %lines2 = %{ $tmp1 };
    }
    if ($error == 0) {
        ($error, $tmp1) = suckFile($infile3, \&getTtest, $fhe);
        %lines3 = %{ $tmp1 };
    }
}
```





## Appendices

```
# $2 = gene name
# $3 = fc & pval
$line =~ /^(^[\t]*)\t[^\\t]*\t([\\t]*\t)[^\\t]*\t([\\t]*\t[^\\t]*)$/;
$error = ($1 eq "" || $2 eq "" || $3 eq "");

return ($error, $1, $2.$3);
}

sub getTtest {
    my $line = shift;
    my $error = 0;

    # $1 = probe id
    # $2 = gene name
    # $3 = fc & pval
    $line
/^(^[\t]*)\t[^\\t]*\t([\\t]*\t)|([\\t]*\t[^\\t]*)\t[^\\t]*$/;
$error = ($1 eq "" || $2 eq "" || $3 eq "");

return ($error, $1, $2.$3);
}

sub getDetail {
    my $line = shift;
    my $error = 0;

    # $1 = probe id
    # $3 = accession & all-symbol
    # $2 = transcript
    $line
/^(^[\t]*)\t[^\\t]*\t([\\t]*\t)\t[^\\t]*\t([\\t]*\t)\t([\\t]*\t[^\\t]*)\t$/;
$error = ($1 eq "" || $2 eq "" || $3 eq "");

return ($error, $1, $3.$2);
}

# Determine which files contain common points.
# When a common point is found delete the points from the hashes.
sub common {
    my $fh = shift;
    my %linesA = %{ shift @_ };
    my %linesB = %{ shift @_ };
    my %linesC = %{ shift @_ };
    my $round = shift;
    my %lines4 = %{ shift @_ };
    my @arr = keys %linesA;
    my $geneName;
    my $fcA;
    my $fcB;
    my $fcC;
    my $pvalA;
    my $pvalB;
    my $pvalC;
    my $extraDetail;

    foreach my $key (@arr) {
        ($geneName, $fcA, $pvalA) = deconstructLine(\%linesA, $key);
        ($geneName, $fcB, $pvalB) = deconstructLine(\%linesB, $key);
        ($geneName, $fcC, $pvalC) = deconstructLine(\%linesC, $key);
        $extraDetail = $lines4{$key};
    }
}
```





## *Appendices*

```
    $fc = $2;  
    $pval = $3;  
  }  
  return ($geneName, $fc, $pval);  
}
```

## **MICROARRAY DATA SHOWING DIFFERENTIALLY EXPRESSED GENES**

The list below shows all the genes from the microarray from the *Sox3*-null samples. *Sox3*-null microarray data was compared to wild-type data. LIMMA, SAM and t-test statistics were conducted and the fold change (FC) is shown for each together with the p-value. Values in red indicate a negative value and indicate that gene expression is down-regulated; values in black indicate a positive value and indicate gene expression is up-regulated.

Appendices

Accession	alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
AK018243		U1633566F14[P00044029] AK018243   1273					10670736			ZNF202 homolog (Drosophila)	1.63	1.735E-04	9.90	8.00E-04		
AK018242		U1633566F14[P00044029] AK018242   1273					10670736			centromere/kinetochore protein	1.63	1.735E-04	9.90	8.00E-04		
AK018241		U1633566F14[P00044029] AK018241   1273					10670736			zinc finger, C2H2 type 6	1.63	1.735E-04	9.90	8.00E-04		
NM_1251263	Zcfc4c3	U8067917.2_176		105130184	105130184	105130184	4782078			zinc finger, C2H2 domain containing 3	1.54	2.00E-03	1.54	2.00E-03	2.75	0.000E+00
NM_1251263	Zcfc4c3	U8067917.1_135		105130184	105130184	105130184	4782078			zinc finger, C2H2 domain containing 3	1.54	2.00E-03	1.54	2.00E-03	2.75	0.000E+00
AK018966		U121160380171 [AK018966]   1357					100780332			zinc finger protein 87	1.67	1.90E-03	1.67	1.90E-03		
NM_1829962	AK018966	U121160380171 [AK018966]   1357					100780332			zinc finger protein 87	1.67	1.90E-03	1.67	1.90E-03		
NM_1287342		U0030140280k					5340000			zinc finger protein 692	1.41	2.60E-03	1.41	2.60E-03		
NM_020589	Zp467	U1340544_1_0					4150528			zinc finger protein 473	1.94	1.20E-03	1.94	1.20E-03		
NM_173364	Zp445	U1340544_1_1					100110161			zinc finger protein 467	0.85	9.321E-05	1.75	2.00E-03		
AK03096		U1803046509 [PK001001P]   AK03096   1330					102230079			zinc finger protein 445	2.08	5.00E-04	2.08	5.00E-04		
NM_0274771	Zp398	U1803046509 [PK001001P]   AK03096   1330		5380546	5380546	5380546	102230079			zinc finger protein 410	3.88	2.392E-04	3.88	2.392E-04		
NM_178364.3	Zp369	U1803046509 [PK001001P]   AK03096   1330					4670458			zinc finger protein 398	1.26	2.678E-04	2.38	1.20E-03		
AK07216		U15310412A19 [PK00643G15]   AK07216   1745		520066	520066	520066	106200390			zinc finger protein 369	2.44	1.40E-03	2.44	1.40E-03		
NM_199304.1	Zp341	U15310412A19 [PK00643G15]   AK07216   1745		520066	520066	520066	106200390			zinc finger protein 365	3.27	2.70E-03	3.27	2.70E-03		
NM_145600.1	Zp130	U15310412A19 [PK00643G15]   AK07216   1745		520066	520066	520066	106200390			zinc finger protein 341	1.84	2.00E-07	3.63	0.00E+00	3.63	0.000E+00
AK04606		U18230333C16 [PK0166018]   AK04606   2494		1990504	1990504	1990504	102230390			zinc finger protein 330	1.29	2.183E-04	2.33	8.00E-04	2.33	0.000E+00
NM_028245.1	Zp131	U18230333C16 [PK0166018]   AK04606   2494					106410013			zinc finger protein 337	4.10	4.604E-04	4.10	4.604E-04		
AK04258	Zp726	U1A210076017 [PK0015121]   AK04258   1225					510427			zinc finger protein (C2H2 type) 276	1.30	2.30E-03	1.30	2.30E-03		
NM_018793.2	Zp41b	U1A210076017 [PK0015121]   AK04258   1225					104560358			zinc finger E box binding homeobox 2	1.75	1.00E-04	1.75	1.00E-04		
AK03831		U1A210076017 [PK0015121]   AK03831   3080					104560300			zinc finger and E1B domain containing 20	2.30	8.00E-04	2.30	8.00E-04		
AK03574	Zp288	U19430069401 [PK01018G05]   AK03574   1503					107050402			zinc finger and E1B domain containing 20	1.75	1.70E-03	1.75	1.70E-03		
AK079300		U19530095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					2600047			WW domain containing (E cell)	1.83	1.00E-04	1.83	1.00E-04		
NM_009526.2	Vnt3a	U19530095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					102230390			WW domain binding protein 2	2.07	2.50E-03	2.07	2.50E-03		
NM_009522.1	Vnt3a	U19530095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					6150348			winged-helix domain containing protein 2	1.30	2.30E-03	1.30	2.30E-03		
NM_135109		U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					104560358			winged-helix domain containing protein 2	1.75	1.00E-04	1.75	1.00E-04		
NM_134139.1		U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					104560300			Wnt1 tumor 4-associated protein	3.22	2.304E-05	8.75	0.00E+00	8.75	0.000E+00
NM_021322.1	Vnt4	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					1850368			WD repeat domain containing 82	1.44	1.00E-03	1.44	1.00E-03		
NM_128578.2	Vnt4v1	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					3140315			WD repeat domain containing 82	1.67	1.00E-04	1.67	1.00E-04		
NM_134222.1	Vnt5	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					1850368			WD repeat domain 4	3.04	2.138E-05	9.05	1.00E-04	9.05	2.20E-03
NM_001284	Kat2	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					3940369			WDR35, FY, KL, and NTR containing protein 1	2.05	5.016E-04	2.05	5.016E-04		
NM_153786.1	Vnt2	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					6150348			vertebral 31 receptor (5)	1.19	2.537E-08	2.28	0.00E+00	2.28	0.000E+00
NM_153786.1	Vnt2	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					6150348			vertebral 31 receptor (5)	1.19	2.537E-08	2.28	0.00E+00	2.28	0.000E+00
NM_016794.2	Vnt6b	U19430095401 [PK00544M15]   AK079300   940					3940148			vertebral like 2 homolog (Drosophila)	1.32	2.086E-04	2.63	2.00E-03	2.63	2.00E-03
AK03294		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					10620386			vertebral like 2 homolog (Drosophila)	2.99	2.60E-03	2.99	2.60E-03		
NM_018121	Vnt2	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					5130377			vesicle-associated membrane protein 8	1.55	3.205E-09	2.92	0.00E+00	2.92	0.000E+00
NM_175137.3	Vnt2	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					103840579			vesicle-associated membrane protein 8	1.55	3.205E-09	2.92	0.00E+00	2.92	0.000E+00
NM_175137.3	Vnt2	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					103840579			vesicle-associated membrane protein 8	1.55	3.205E-09	2.92	0.00E+00	2.92	0.000E+00
NM_173443		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					103840579			vertebral anterior homeobox containing gene 2	5.13	2.128E-09	10.63	1.00E-04	10.63	0.000E+00
NM_147153.2	Vnt3	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					50332			valosin containing protein (p97/Jad7) complex interacting protein 1	2.41	9.00E-04	2.41	9.00E-04		
NM_00724.1	AK07889	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					5420048			valosin containing protein (p97/Jad7) complex interacting protein 1	1.40	1.80E-03	1.40	1.80E-03		
NM_009477.1	Upp1	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					107100448			uridine cytosine kinase 2	0.60	1.639E-04	1.50	1.20E-03	1.50	1.20E-03
BC011039	Ung	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					4210148			uridine cytosine kinase 2	2.19	2.50E-03	2.19	2.50E-03		
NM_009464.2	Ucp3	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					10340584			uracil DNA glycosylase	3.64	1.30E-03	3.64	1.30E-03		
AK07777		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					10340584			uracil DNA glycosylase	3.64	1.30E-03	3.64	1.30E-03		
NM_133806.2	Ucp1	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					50195			uracil-N-acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase 1	2.61	2.197E-08	5.70	0.00E+00	5.70	0.000E+00
NM_080465.2	Bjap16	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					50195			uracil-N-acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase 1	2.61	2.197E-08	5.70	0.00E+00	5.70	0.000E+00
NM_016174.2	Ucp2	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					3701226			uracil-N-acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase 1	2.09	2.80E-03	2.09	2.80E-03		
AK049469		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					104850301			uracil-N-acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase 1	2.08	1.00E-04	2.08	1.00E-04		
NM_016170.1	Ucp1	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					104850301			uracil-N-acetylglucosamine pyrophosphorylase 1	0.56	7.035E-05	1.48	1.00E-04	1.48	1.00E-04
NM_023053.1	Twe1	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					4570736			ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal lysine 11	1.06	1.457E-05	2.08	1.00E-04	2.08	0.000E+00
NM_178589	Tp6421	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					104810504			tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 21	2.10	1.864E-05	4.14	0.00E+00	4.14	0.000E+00
NM_009451.3	Tubb4	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					5130681			tubulin, beta 4	1.44	2.40E-03	1.44	2.40E-03		
NM_026481.2		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					2470148			tubulin polymerization-promoting protein family member 3	1.51	3.60E-03	1.51	3.60E-03		
AK079510		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					10480347			tubulin polymerization-promoting protein family member 3	1.57	1.60E-03	1.57	1.60E-03		
AK049383		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					10480347			tubulin polymerization-promoting protein family member 3	1.57	1.60E-03	1.57	1.60E-03		
NM_016712	Tropo4	U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					2360021			Tropomyosin 4	1.27	1.693E-05	2.39	0.00E+00	2.39	0.000E+00
		U167264530121 [PK00590C05]   AK03294   4226					2360021			tropomodulin 4	3.27	0.00E+00	3.27	0.00E+00		

Appendices

Accession	altSymbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma & sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
NM_016712.1	Tmem4	sc000207.1_49						655272		hypoxanthin phosphoribosyl transferase 4			2.54	1.00E-04		
NM_016712.1	Tmem4	sc21896.10_1_51						5919520		hypoxanthin phosphoribosyl transferase 4 (cytosolic)			2.10	5.00E-04		
NM_199033.1	Au07695	sc0181860.12_9		1942004						RNA-binding motif-containing 2 homolog (SIRT_5)	0.76		1.584E-04	1.70	6.00E-04	
NM_128102	BC014621Rik	sc24927.7_348			476451					RNA-binding motif-containing 62			3.22	2.70E-03	3.22	0.000E+00
NM_203773.1	Tmem56	sc0184108.1_171		1580528						RNA-binding motif-containing 56	1.86		4.097E-05	3.64	1.00E-04	
NM_033167.1	Tmem9	sc0084990.1_135						6456887		RNA-binding motif-containing 9			2.65	2.60E-03		
NM_033168.1	Tmem11	sc0944691.6_116							2570162	RNA-binding motif protein 11					3.44	5.00E-04
NM_041552.1	loc1	sc0021453.2_208		2680086						Fraser-Collins-Fraser-Collins syndrome 1, fibroblast	0.86		3.051E-04	1.82	5.00E-04	
NM_148805.1	BC014020Rik	sc018522.144_1						5520286		transmembrane protein 40			1.90	4.40E-03		
NM_173486.1	AW12167	sc01118.5_474							7100519	transmembrane protein 26			1.31	3.60E-03	2.33	8.00E-04
AK081890	BC038503Rik	sc133085015Rik	sc133085015	PK0666608	AK081890	2974		10946444		transmembrane protein 164			1.98	3.00E-03		
NM_188311.1	B930076A02	sc23933.15_1_222						6202348		transmembrane protein 145			4.49	7.00E-04		
NM_027992	2110036D2Rik	sc03078.11_478						104810195		transmembrane protein 1068			1.38	7.00E-04		
NM_172476.2	Tmem7	sc00209760.1_40						5292553		transmembrane channel-like gene family 7			1.89	2.30E-03		
AK015668	4931043C06Rik	sc14931043006	PK0023922	AK015668	1185			104952068		transmembrane and coiled-coil domains 1			1.45	1.00E-03		
NM_138599	Tomm70a	sc048022.13_219						103930369		translocase of outer mitochondrial membrane 70 homolog A (yeast)						
NM_172659.2	Tomm22	sc00213696.2_2	1240142	1240142	1240142					translocase of outer mitochondrial membrane 22 homolog (yeast)	6.95	4.367E-13	111.62	0.00E+00	111.62	0.00E+00
NM_013899.1	Timm13a	sc020689.4_1_4						245601		translocase of inner mitochondrial membrane 10 homolog (yeast)			1.50	1.60E-03		
AK07331	5310423N1Rik	sc15310423N1	PK0064348	AK07331	1561					transmembrane protein 110	3.23	1.555E-05	8.83	0.00E+00		
AK05144	Trop1	sc11500060404	ZK00442E15	AK05144	1064			10170181		transmembrane protein 1			1.47	3.50E-03		
AK037910	A13062D16Rik	sc1110062016	PK0012308	AK037910	1944			10313565		transforming, acidic coiled-coil containing protein 1			1.86	1.00E-04		
AK087814	Trip53	sc133026213	PK00679H12	AK087814	1201			103120537		transducin (beta) like 1, X-linked			2.51	2.40E-03		
NM_020601	Tbx4	sc054819.15_251						104545452	60484	trans-acting transcription factor 6			1.59	2.00E-04		
NM_031183.1	Sop6	sc011960.1_1_83							510452	trans-acting transcription factor 6					2.21	4.80E-03
NM_026708.1	Scd10007A15Rik	sc0268185.4_14								TLC domain containing 1			1.38	1.40E-03	3.60	1.45E-02
NM_059426.1	Tbn	sc028676.3_567						6840438		TLC domain containing 1, interacting					2.36	3.89E-02
NM_010241.1	Fts	sc0014439.2_163		635075						thymocyte nuclear protein 1	1.10	2.91E-06	2.14	0.00E+00		
AK021335	D73004ZP09Rik	sc1071004ZP09	PK00091015	AK021335	1776					thymocyte nuclear protein 1	1.35	1.24E-04	2.61	2.00E-04		
NM_172444.1	B23014P055Rik	sc03747.13_1_171		102970280					6040037	thrombospondin type 1 domain containing 4					2.11	0.00E+00
NM_032719	Trop4	sc02856.2_28						101640017		thrombospondin interacting protein			1.69	3.40E-03		
NM_039200	Trop4	sc016458.7_1_38						7403181		TMAP domain containing 4			5.16	6.00E-04		
NM_152817.2	Scd1051O17Rik	sc050495.21_1_43							1050289	tetraacopeptide repeat domain 27			1.33	3.10E-03	7.90	0.00E+00
NM_183106.1	Tbc17	sc0745601.282						2470440		tetraacopeptide repeat domain 17			2.22	1.40E-03	2.22	0.00E+00
AK031605	B93049P06Rik	sc160349P06	PK00357109	AK031605	1290					tetraacopeptide repeat domain 14			1.80	2.30E-03		
NM_025978.2	Tbc14	sc0067720.1_59			104070717			6200114		TLL2, telomere maintenance 2, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	1.22	2.381E-05	2.34	0.00E+00	2.34	0.00E+00
NM_079801	1200003M09Rik	sc05188.17_10_1		4850047	4850047					tetraspanin alpha	1.31	1.049E-04	2.35	1.00E-03		
NM_009347.1	Tecta	sc035982.24_1_47		2570172					2470551	TGA domain family member 1			2.32	1.50E-03		
NM_009346.1	Tead1	sc032176.16_1_3								TGA domain family member 1, AT796a, H+	0.65	1.152E-04	1.58	2.00E-04		
NM_016921.2	Tefp1	sc053448.18_1_9		6900619					106840364	transferrin receptor-like protein A3			2.63	1.50E-03		
NM_011537	Tbc5	sc027300.10_1_99		87010						T-box 5	0.75	3.024E-04	1.68	4.00E-04		
NM_146252.1	Tbc1d13	sc021096.14_260							100770184	TBC1 domain family member 13			2.58	1.20E-03		
AK080913	B41029M15Rik	sc11843029M15	PK00071K10	AK080913	1314					tanferrin, TNF1-interacting cytokine-related ADP-ribosyl transferase					2.43	1.00E-04
NM_014480.1	Sng	sc045723.11_48_33							3120725	synuclein, gamma			1.30	4.20E-03		
AK040413	Sng2	sc114400205	PK00138P21	AK040413	1157			106830112		synaptobrevin 2	0.50	2.115E-04	1.41	1.30E-03		
NM_018804.2	Sh11	sc021963.5_3		610433					103190138	synaptosomal-associated protein 25			0.62	5.322E-05	1.55	2.00E-03
NM_014428	Sng25	sc020331.9_372								synaptotagmin 2	0.62	5.322E-05	1.55	2.00E-03	2.01	7.00E-04
NM_009304.1	Sng2	sc0000979.1_244		610348				3060193		synaptotagmin 2, cytosolic isoform, matrix associated, actin dependent regulator of chromatin, subfamily c, member 2	0.61	2.340E-04	1.50	4.10E-03		
NM_031842	SncardL	sc0002509.1_27								suprabasin			1.37	3.90E-03		
NM_108160.1	5931045G4Rik	sc064895.2_112		130368						suppressor of cytokine signaling 4			1.66	1.30E-03		
NM_172205	Shn	sc0071733.1_331						6900239		superoxide dismutase 1, soluble			1.54	2.20E-03		
NM_060843	Soc4	sc046465.2_247						101850064								
AK086878	ED10007H10Rik	sc11030007H10	PK00204L24I	AK086878	1152			101800706								

Appendices

Accession	alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sam FC	sam p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
NM_028151	2610528A15Rik	s043496.27_1_1								superoxide dismutase 2-like 2 (S. cerevisiae)			1.39	3.70E-03		
AK073489	A130031022Rik	r1A130031022[PX00121018]AK073489[2703]								substate 1			2.89	2.50E-03		
NM_082754	5m	s055948.2_144								statelin			1.56	1.20E-03		
NM_092591	5m	s056890.21_31								stimulated by retinoic acid gene 5			1.56	1.90E-03		
NM_092931	5m	s00306651_329								sternid sulfate			2.91	2.00E-03		
NM_028111	5m	s02796.00_114		670403	670403	670403				steroid alpha-reductase 2-like	1.77	2.00E-06	3.50	0.00E+00	3.50	0.00E+00
NM_172711	E13906A17Rik	s03216.3_181								sterile alpha motif domain containing 5			2.11	5.00E-03		
NM_172725	AB200409Rik	s047200.3_618								sterile alpha motif domain containing 12			2.43	1.90E-03		
NM_091133	5m	s002052.2_8		269092						stathmin-like 3	0.99	1.75E-04	1.87	4.00E-03		
AK043202	Scp10	r1A710069C18[PX00151108]AK043202[1414]								stathmin-like 2			1.50	1.80E-03		
NM_139018	5m	s00336920.7_41		178047						START domain containing 8	0.83	1.90E-04	1.78	2.00E-03		
AK087634	E230029F23Rik	r1E230029F23[PX00679P17]AK087634[1118]								stabilin 1	1.41	3.30E-03	5.54	1.00E-03		
NM_091172	5m	s0009442.2_266								ST3 beta-galactoside alpha-2,3-sialyltransferase 1			2.12	1.00E-03	2.12	2.00E-04
NM_011447	5m	s050179.2_171								SRY-box containing gene 8			2.12	1.00E-03	2.12	2.00E-04
NM_092371	5m	s054200.1_203_1		4570537	4570537	4570537	580026			SRY-box containing gene 3	5.94	1.85E-09	44.09	0.00E+00	44.09	0.00E+00
NM_245219	5m	GI_38090018								SRY-box containing gene 14			1.77	8.00E-04		
NM_035332	5m	s00114716.1_17		540195						growth-related EVH1 domain containing 2	1.69	2.80E-04	3.19	8.00E-04		
AK051703	D13006618Rik	r1011004618[PX0018915]AK051703[1637]								retinoid factor 3a, subunit 1			2.12	1.00E-03	2.12	5.00E-04
NM_027411	Tet1	s05999.756_7_7		1740239	1740239	1740239	100130082			retinoid factor 3b, subunit 1			1.20	1.43E-06	2.26	1.00E-04
NM_172287	5m	s03206.163_107								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 1			0.73	3.87E-05	1.64	5.00E-04
NM_028035	5m	s030048.11_144		380035						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 2			0.55	1.43E-04	1.47	1.50E-03
NM_148933	5m	s019788.13_0		109076						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 3			0.62	2.47E-04	1.54	7.00E-04
NM_177870	5c	s026744.20_888_4								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 4			1.47	2.30E-03		
NM_033248	5c	s054686.15_590								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 5			1.75	6.00E-04		
NM_173774	5c	GI_7570921								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 6			2.28	4.50E-03		
NM_134135	5c	s01089471_49								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 7			1.35	4.30E-03		
NM_148808	5c	s00213063_19								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 8			2.48	2.00E-03		
AK03884	5c	r1A732478E01[PX00052A23]AK03884[1345]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 9			2.90	4.30E-03		
NM_131193	5c	s041540.14_101_30								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 10			2.00	5.95E-06	3.93	1.00E-04
NM_028766	5c	s0074102.2_20		5080242						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 11			1.04	2.53E-04	2.02	1.00E-03
NM_095568	Vmat	s019993.2_312		4480546						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 12					2.41	7.70E-03
NM_011773	5c	s022784.1_270								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 13			1.90	2.00E-03		
NM_026232	5c	s0067554.2_226								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 14			1.50	2.50E-03		
NM_021551	5c	s000354.1_6								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 15			3.22	1.70E-03		
NM_011801	5c	s026438.14_163		1990377						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 16			0.81	2.14E-04	1.78	1.60E-03
NM_021544	5c	s03220.27_481								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 17			1.36	2.40E-03		
NM_010831	5m	s050075.14_101		6110403	6110403	6110403				retinoid factor 3c, subunit 18	1.89	1.55E-05	3.59	0.00E+00	3.59	0.00E+00
NM_178719	AK51372	s047731.8_425		105550487	105550487	105550487				retinoid factor 3c, subunit 19	3.54	9.24E-12	11.36	0.00E+00	11.36	0.00E+00
AK078494	B2M41GH3Rik	r16820416H03[PX00649120]AK078494[1897]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 20						
NM_144838	5hb	s044443.11_211		460170						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 21			1.46	1.77E-04	2.90	5.00E-04
NM_172718	Rubc12	s02157.25_374								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 22			1.63	5.00E-04		
AK051262	D1E00604Rik	r1D11006008[PX0018324]AK051262[1483]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 23			5.01	2.20E-03		
AK035727	SH3	r1P533098R2[PX0115001]AK035727[2203]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 24			1.76	1.30E-03		
AK084022	SH2	r1D110076104[PX00186003]AK084022[3209]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 25			3.46	2.90E-03	3.46	1.50E-03
AK051145	SH2	r1E030015M03[PX00210400]AK051145[13015]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 26			2.93	3.90E-03		
NM_0113771	5m	s048846.11.1_43								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 27			1.70	1.60E-03		
NM_092752	5ppd	s0208138.5_51								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 28			0.73	6.90E-06	1.65	1.00E-04
NM_012058	5ppd	s0208138.3_76		1500138						retinoid factor 3c, subunit 29					2.34	5.40E-03
AK088947	E430013807Rik	r1E430013807[PX00100018]AK088947[1082]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 30			2.37	1.00E-04		
AK035372	Post-poning	r1P533028H17[PX00111816]AK035372[1665]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 31			1.61	1.00E-03		
AK029392	4833429C11Rik	r14833429C11[PX00028N11]AK029392[2557]								retinoid factor 3c, subunit 32			1.53	9.00E-04		





## Appendices

Accession	alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma & sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p-value	sum FC	sum p-value	ttest FC	ttest p-value
NM_024287.2	Rab6	sc00072.1_32	4780731	4780731	4780731	4780731	100400711			RAB6, member RAS oncogene family	1.23	3.812E-05	2.24	1.200E-03	2.14	0.000E+00
AK010924	2500004H219K	nc1250000401[200052046]AK010924[11761]	4210253	4210253	4210253	4210253	102570280			RAB30, member RAS oncogene family	1.05	4.346E-07	2.08	0.000E+00	2.08	0.000E+00
NM_018194.3	Rab36	sc0001660.L_10	4210253	4210253	4210253	4210253				RAB11, family interacting protein 3 (class II)	1.39	2.231E-07	2.63	0.000E+00		
AK02775.1		sc0001660.L_10								quinoline phosphate booyltransferase	1.39	2.231E-07	2.63	0.000E+00		
NM_018986.1	Qprt	sc03062.5_1_110	67020	67020	67020	1340162				quercetin 3-O-methyltransferase 1	2.71	4.234E-04				
NM_028221.2	Qrn1	sc0068263.L_19	610086	610086	610086	610086				pyruvate dehydrogenase (liponamide) beta	1.88	4.954E-05	3.59	0.000E+00	3.59	0.000E+00
NM_028217.2	Pfcp1	sc066522.1_109	2650739	2650739	2650739					pregnenolone 17 $\alpha$ -oxidase 1	0.61	7.650E-05	1.52	2.890E-03		
NM_033993.1	2310D0SA118K	sc038607.15_418				3800301				PWPI, homolog (S. cerevisiae)	5.89	5.234E-04				
AK044686	Pfcp2	nc109300166[131]	105860440	105860440	105860440	105860440				PP1F, interacting protein, binding protein 1 (liprin beta 1)	3.91	5.962E-06	3.51	9.000E-04	77.65	0.000E+00
NM_018785	Fndp3	sc4489.1.1_30	102900619	102900619	102900619	102900619				PHF40, pre-mRNA processing factor 40, homolog A (yeast)	2.73	6.154E-06	6.52	0.000E+00	6.52	0.000E+00
NM_175485.2	A230098A129K	sc00235472.2_7	4540403	4540403	4540403	4540403				proteoglycan homolog (Gallus gallus)	2.49	2.633E-04	5.85	3.000E-04	5.85	5.600E-03
NM_175485	A230098A129K	sc03731.20_445	4540403	4540403	4540403	100840609				proteoglycan homolog (Gallus gallus)	2.78	2.300E-03	2.78	9.700E-03		
NM_033128.1	Proh3	sc52072.1_195_54					450725			proctoderm beta 3	2.59	4.300E-03				
NM_012105.1	Proh2	sc019276.23_1					2450110			protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, N		2.01	2.900E-03			
AK053271	Proh	nc1E13003[92][P000207504]AK053271[1596]	103170377	103170377	103170377					polyomids 2	1.97	1.879E-05	3.74	0.000E+00		
NM_013643.1	Proh5	sc031333.17.1_37					2350161			protein tyrosine phosphatase, non-receptor type 5	1.51	5.000E-04				
NM_179190	4930428168K	sc53270.6_364	304010538	304010538	304010538					protein tyrosine phosphatase, non-receptor type 5	1.97	2.169E-05	4.18	4.000E-04		
NM_036447	2810430199K	sc067905.1_18					5720779			protein phosphatase 1H		1.53	2.000E-03			
NM_029882.1	Pfp2c	sc22768.2.1_26	5340193	5340193	5340193		105555577			protein phosphatase 1J	0.70	1.821E-04	1.60	8.000E-04		
AK070943	Pfcp pending	nc14930568A[1]PK00314603[AK070943]1189								protein inhibitor of activated STAT 4	1.14	2.057E-04	2.18	6.000E-04		
NM_013364.1	Pfcp1	nc1281040816[200060704]AK013364[1814]	104250138	104250138	104250138		4282025			protection of telomeres 1B	1.14	2.057E-04	2.18	6.000E-04		
NM_133949.1	Pfcp1	sc094113.2_17					3120044			prostate tumor over expressed gene 1	1.45	6.389E-05	2.21	3.000E-04		
NM_133949.1	Pfcp1	sc094113.2_17					100770333			proteoglycan core protein 2	1.49	3.657E-05	2.63	1.000E-04		
NM_133949.1	Pfcp1	sc094113.2_17					100860538			proteoglycan core protein 2	1.42	1.200E-03				
NM_041439	Pfcp1	nc131103788[95][200071715]AK041439[1148]	30870601	30870601	30870601					proteoglycan core protein 2	1.42	1.200E-03				
NM_068865.2	Ch2	sc44966.6_170_12	2260463	2260463	2260463					proteoglycan core protein 2	1.42	1.200E-03				
NM_068829	17000198168K	sc018311.5_391								proteoglycan core protein 2	1.42	1.200E-03				
NM_011961	Pfcp2	sc03646.19_249	3360427	3360427	3360427	3360427				proteoglycan core protein 2	1.42	1.200E-03				
NM_172832.1	CE00098M13	sc01357.6_1_32					4810692			pericytine oxidase 1 like	2.17	9.281E-06	4.28	0.000E+00	4.28	0.000E+00
NM_025823	Pfcp1	sc028753.6_75					10720575			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_036131	953003088K	nc1953003808[P000116010]AK036131[3133]					103870239			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_045810	B239131P14K	nc1823931P14[P00159K15]AK045810[1203]					101940286			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_031399	D130046C19K	nc1D130046C19[P000164009]AK031399[1407]	300630442	300630442	300630442					pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK081107	Gh41	nc1B930088F07[P000164009]AK081107[2893]	301240601	301240601	301240601					pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_079848	A430092C216K	nc1A430092C21[P000139C19]AK079848[1098]					102360068			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_046228	B230354C119K	nc1B230354C11[P000146101]AK046228[3253]					100770333			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK055882	D430034L19K	nc1D430034L19[P000159F12]AK055882[3853]	300130139	300130139	300130139		102810044			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK007723	1810037088K	nc1181003708[P000051807]AK007723[1534]								pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_068783.1	Pfcp1	sc0018514.2_78	6660301	6660301	6660301	6660301				pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_001003825	Kma2	sc18216.17.1_43					106670300			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK015907	Krn9	nc14930526A[1]PK00044C10[AK015907]1557					104070619			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_199251.1	Krn412	sc0216741.1_194					4070072			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_030229.2	Poly2h	sc078295.1_104	1980389	1980389	1980389					pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_009632.2	Asprt2	sc000341.1_0	6510097	6510097	6510097	6510097				pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_013807.1	Pf3	sc023942.14.1_32					2645592			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK038943	A23007106K	nc1A2300710[P000129018]AK038943[1086]					103120162			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_009484	Ph6a2	sc030454.4_1_68					4810594			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK013857	Php	nc1AE130042[0051]	105570292	105570292	105570292	105570292				pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK021118	C23009C229K	nc1C23009C22[P000669K]AK021118[1548]					106801156			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_068972	Pf4	sc039993.13_71					6860128			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_026163.1	Pfcp2	sc049390.8_3_12					1995068			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK079680	Ph62	nc1AE130018[P000133010]AK079680[1428]	100510073	100510073	100510073					pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_172285.1	Pfcp2	sc03269.35.1_230								pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
AK007777	1810044046K	nc1181004404[P00004812]AK007777[1541]					105110735			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				
NM_025951.1	Ph42h	sc0004021.1_968					2480215			pericytine oxidase 1 like	1.41	3.100E-03				



Appendices

Accession	Alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	limma FC	limma p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
AK050333	C73038ED5HK	r1C73038ED5HK	AK050333 (4745)	30485070									1.39	3.17E-04	2.60	2.00E-04		
NM_008819.2	Pwnt	r1C60350.13.1_57										phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase, regulatory subunit, alpha class 4, p150	1.79	2.60E-03	1.79	2.60E-03		
NM_024274.1	Fav1	r644903.11.3_96		5340575								phosphatidylethanolamine N-methyltransferase	0.68	5.40E-05	1.61	1.00E-04		
NM_026237.1	Phe5a	r564609.4_12										phenylalanine tRNA synthetase 2 (mitochondrial)	1.41	4.00E-04	1.41	4.00E-04		
NM_172933.3	Phn17	r490019271.1_47		540398								PHD finger protein 5A	8.26	9.00E-04	8.26	9.00E-04		
NM_149530	Plain	r537238.1_20		540398	540398	540398						PHD finger protein 17	2.47	4.93E-09	5.25	0.000E+00	5.15	0.000E+00
NM_023889.2	Pst1	r490064934.1_269										pterin pan-homolog (Drosophila)	1.62	1.90E-03	1.62	1.90E-03		
NM_023041.2	Pw19	r4819198.8_30		3140037								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 19 (deafblind)	0.71	7.91E-05	1.66	0.00E+00		
AK050565	S330432N08HK	r15336432N08HK	AK050565 (2751)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	3.30	1.77E-05	1.53	3.00E-04	2.59	0.000E+00
NM_02275.2	Z81042B04HK	r528877.24.1_4		5860632	5860632	5860632						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	3.30	1.77E-05	1.53	3.00E-04	2.59	0.000E+00
NM_050602	Pez2	r56390.1.1_398										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.72	1.00E-04	1.72	1.00E-04		
NM_050608	Aden	r547673.9_482										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.49	6.00E-04	2.49	6.00E-04		
AK031487	G330439I24HK	r16330439I24HK	AK031487 (2358)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.95	2.40E-03	1.95	2.40E-03		
NM_018869	Pf1a	r521240.2_1_45										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.41	2.60E-04	2.41	2.60E-04		
AK052579	Pmw2b	r105330181021PK00089K241	AK052579 (1177)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.06	3.54E-06	3.99	0.000E+00	0.01	0.000E+00
NM_008780.1	Pw1	r4918503.6_182		336253								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.55	8.00E-04	1.55	8.00E-04		
NM_178939.1	Pfgr1	r49048559.1_22										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.92	3.22E-08	3.74	0.000E+00		
NM_145525	Oblp6	r4999831.19_30		306660603								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.63	4.10E-03	1.63	4.10E-03		
AK040881	Ovr1	r1A53300337131PK00140N10	AK040881 (2763)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.15	3.64E-05	2.18	7.00E-04		
AK037488	Oh2	r1A1100180081PK00111009	AK037488 (1550)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.15	3.64E-05	2.18	7.00E-04		
NM_010953.1	O-C90	r547131.15.1_20		1740392								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.15	3.64E-05	2.18	7.00E-04		
NM_008753	Oat1	r5018245.5_1										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.49	9.82E-10	5.65	0.000E+00	5.65	0.000E+00
NM_026480.1	2410146I04HK	r503573.3.1_319		2630333	2630333	2630333						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.49	9.82E-10	5.65	0.000E+00	5.65	0.000E+00
NM_008262.2	Ovecut11	r490015379.2_124										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	3.64	9.00E-04	3.64	9.00E-04		
NM_016968.2	Ove1	r494883.1.21_254										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.71	1.00E-03	1.71	1.00E-03		
NM_146596	Oh703	r532321.1.1_235										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	3.40	7.00E-04	3.40	7.00E-04		
NM_146536	Oh913	r54514.1.1_135										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.57	2.70E-03	1.57	2.70E-03		
NM_173777.2	AG0309A06HK	r56161.8.1_55										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	0.93	3.95E-05	1.90	0.000E+00		
AK078102	G33044G18HK	r16330444G18HK	AK078102 (1345)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.40	3.61E-06	2.67	1.00E-04	2.67	0.000E+00
NM_023429.2	Avr1	r52772.12.1_0		2940132	2940132	2940132						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	0.93	3.95E-05	1.90	0.000E+00		
AK089359	G43008M128HK	r16433008M128HK	AK089359 (1270)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.44	1.41E-05	2.22	1.00E-04		
NM_133561.1	Nu26	r522226.8.1_81		265000								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.44	1.41E-05	2.22	1.00E-04		
NM_029385.1	Z310D4LH08HK	r533414.1_2										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.36	1.30E-03	1.36	1.30E-03		
NM_008723.1	Nom3	r529834.1.5_202		361080								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	0.85	4.25E-05	1.81	0.00E+00		
NM_010880.2	Nrl	r4916520.16_184										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.42	0.00E+00	1.42	0.00E+00		
NM_133800.2	C78541	r49005158.1_14		603324								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	0.91	9.68E-07	1.88	1.00E-04		
AK054118	E2300D03I7HK	r1E2300D03I7HK	AK054118 (2764)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.52	3.62E-05	2.63	7.00E-04	2.63	0.000E+00
NM_010913	Nrya	r49028.11_159		10345017	10345017	10345017						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.55	2.20E-03	2.55	2.20E-03		
NM_010264.2	Nrc61	r501950.14_370										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.47	1.00E-03	1.47	1.00E-03		
NM_010881.1	Nrc01	r50017977.2_208										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.73	2.20E-03	1.73	2.20E-03		
NM_144847.1	Nrc011468	r50223648.1_255										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.42	1.90E-03	2.42	1.90E-03		
NM_010868.3	Nrb1b	r531572.8.1_327										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.39	3.00E-03	1.39	3.00E-03		
AK052726	Nrb1	r1061003618161PK00157N10	AK052726 (1253)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	4.22	6.00E-04	4.22	6.00E-04		
AK011168	Nrb1-pending	r12600060071260006003	AK011168 (1653)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.65	1.26E-04	6.04	0.000E+00	6.04	0.000E+00
NM_175263.2	5730593N15HK	r540626.1.1_394										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.32	2.74E-04	3.35	0.000E+00	3.35	0.000E+00
NM_013864	M6f2	r4945598.20_218		450403	450403	450403						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	2.58	5.69E-07	5.72	0.000E+00	5.72	0.000E+00
NM_010822.2	M6f6	r541278.5_44		276021								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.38	1.60E-03	1.38	1.60E-03		
NM_133787	C87860	r523088.16_137		103940707	103940707	103940707						peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.46	6.00E-04	1.46	6.00E-04		
NM_144955.1	Nov6.1	r526314.4.1_382										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	3.04	1.00E-03	3.04	1.00E-03		
NM_011848.1	Nok3	r535027.16.1_347										peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.64	3.40E-03	1.64	3.40E-03		
NM_011607.2	Nccin	r5000666.1_19		94501								peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	0.97	3.37E-05	1.93	4.00E-04	1.93	4.00E-04
AK030158	Nep	r15336401210PK00051A17	AK030158 (1575)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.89	3.70E-03	1.89	3.70E-03		
AK045259	B13002F17HK	r10133002F17HK	AK045259 (2394)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.99	2.70E-03	1.99	2.70E-03		
AK077465	Nout	r157304140021PK00164118	AK077465 (1774)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.99	2.70E-03	1.99	2.70E-03		
AK050957	Np03	r110310044151PK00180H61	AK050957 (2983)									peroxisomal biogenesis factor 6	1.99	2.70E-03	1.99	2.70E-03		

Appendices

Accession	all-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
			Probe id	Probe id	Probe id	Probe id	Probe id	Probe id	Probe id							
XM_025424.1	111005041218k	cd15766.6.1_27		4210731	4210731	4210731	4210731			neuroxin 3	4.00	2.937E-11	16.55	0.000E+00	16.55	0.000E+00
XM_089749.4	Neurog3	cd38863.2.1_337					6989451			neuroxin 3			2.54	0.000E+00	2.17	4.000E-04
NM_007789.2	Chg3	cd21840.2_1		3870239	3870239	3870239				neuroxin 3	1.44	1.688E-04	2.34	4.100E-03	2.14	0.000E+00
NM_172544.1	Neos3	cd002402.1.1_34								neuroxin 3						
NM_005947.2	Neos3	cd002402.1.1_37		5270593						neuroxin 3	0.51	4.057E-05	1.43	2.000E-04		
NM_008721	Neog3	cd09533.8.1_27		4280301						neuroxin 3	0.73	2.052E-04	1.63	3.000E-03		
NM_016743.1	Neog2	cd805408.1.1_30		6200048						neuroxin 3	0.91	7.200E-08	1.87	0.000E+00		
NM_005383	11100051978k	cd14602.11_383								heparin						
NM_022565	Hsd14	cd864586.1_9								heparin						
NM_194959.1	Nros3	cd824455.2_35		3440176						neuroxin 3	5.61	1.175E-04				
NM_172529.1	Au067748	cd80214505.2_7		3440176						neuroxin 3	0.52	1.745E-01	1.44	1.600E-03	2.46	0.000E+00
XM_203322.2	0610034928k	cd60731.11.1_291								gamma subunit						
11100944106k	cd20611.1.1_291									gamma subunit						
1110094505k	cd36592.1.563_			10570433	10570433	10570433				gamma subunit	1.03	1.33E-07	2.03	1.000E-04	2.03	0.000E+00
1110038128k	cd30677.2_0			503480176						gamma subunit	0.87	4.368E-05	1.85	2.000E-04		
11900027158k	cd6381822.1_19									gamma subunit						
1190004739k	cd7831.1.1_90									gamma subunit						
13000964199k	cd25791.15_62									gamma subunit						
15000950228k	cd93533.3_240			1046900132						gamma subunit						
15000950548k	cd12507085									gamma subunit						
1500105048k	cd6454.71_119									gamma subunit						
1700080079k	cd30956.5.1_51			103120026	103120026	103120026				gamma subunit	1.90	4.617E-07	3.63	0.000E+00		
1700071488k	cd23864.14.1_204			3400394						gamma subunit						
1700071488k	cd78612.10_1									gamma subunit						
17000724119k	cd50195.1.16_11			102010600						gamma subunit						
1810096423k	cd66425.1_113			303390746	303390746	303390746				gamma subunit	3.22	6.243E-06	6.92	4.000E-04		
1810051511k	cd0069102.1_328									gamma subunit	1.33	2.014E-06	2.44	1.000E-04	2.44	0.000E+00
1810018712k	cd674170.1_145									gamma subunit						
1810044029k	cd40700.5_36			4070872						gamma subunit	0.97	8.121E-05	1.93	2.000E-03		
1810057751k	cd32931.6_426			104670142						gamma subunit	0.81	3.185E-04	1.77	4.000E-04		
2010010468k	cd806656.1_59			102650487						gamma subunit	1.00	1.041E-04	2.03	1.000E-04		
2210011248k	cd14573.4.1_45			3710551						gamma subunit	4.04	1.508E-04	5.41	1.500E-03		
2210410268k	cd30466.1.1_4			106520398	106520398	106520398				gamma subunit	2.86	7.458E-06	6.07	0.000E+00	6.07	0.000E+00
2300094138k	cd38694.13.1_20			3450138						gamma subunit	0.73	1.117E-05	1.66	3.000E-04		
2300094048k	cd609477.2_5									gamma subunit						
2310005021k	cd27316.1.34_21									gamma subunit						
2310005122k	cd24876.1.45_30			305910273						gamma subunit	0.74	1.894E-04	1.64	1.000E-03		
2310028011k	cd2326.6_138									gamma subunit						
2310038014k	cd678495.2_180									gamma subunit						
2310050920k	cd16845.1.1_2			100950672	100950672	100950672				gamma subunit	2.74	3.299E-05	4.61	1.000E-03	4.61	0.000E+00
2310061022k	cd4670.1.1_55									gamma subunit						
2410088164k	cd17681.2.1_40			10710014						gamma subunit						
2410137148k	cd676794.1_1									gamma subunit						
2510022224k	cd26342.1.2316_58									gamma subunit						
2510042702k	cd66657.4_14			3980338						gamma subunit	1.63	1.149E-04				
2510047108k	cd19113.1.2271_33									gamma subunit						
2510047108k	cd368526			104540408						gamma subunit	1.34	3.308E-05	2.60	2.000E-04		
260009903k	cd66657.1.9									gamma subunit						
2610078078k	cd54879.1.1_117									gamma subunit						
2610077113k	cd7880.1.1_99									gamma subunit						
2610010940k	cd23524.7_137			101096619						gamma subunit	0.71	2.041E-04	1.65	3.000E-04	2.85	0.000E+00
2610291222k	cd872481.2_13			107040706						gamma subunit	0.96	2.113E-05	1.91	2.000E-04		
2700024104k	cd8016813.1_324			100770176						gamma subunit	0.87	1.398E-04	1.83	1.000E-04		
2700023816k	cd872602.2_41			103140091						gamma subunit	1.10	1.146E-05	2.12	2.000E-04		
2700078413k	cd8078336.1_28			104460538						gamma subunit	0.83	3.395E-04	1.77	2.000E-04		
2810017028k	cd805967.2_48			105360030						gamma subunit						
2810410249k	cd9338.1.1_28			101100795						gamma subunit						







Appendices

Accession	alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
AK013620	Hsb-b1	c023246.12_306	118350542000 P00113903 AK036620 1219				1580039	NA	NA	1.63	4.300E-03	2.71	1.000E-03			
XM_1316232	Hvnp3	c023646.33_488					356278	NA	NA	3.03	5.000E-04					
XM_1450952	Rfcb	c024855.11_97					595321	NA	NA	2.40	9.000E-04					
	lnt8						10140373	NA	NA	10.81	3.000E-04					
XM_1398451	LOC207695	GI_20899653					101170725	NA	NA	2.03	1.300E-03					
XM_1469541	LOC208949	GI_20891200					10557286	NA	NA	2.59	7.817E-05					
XM_1422222	LOC209203	GI_38066810					104200717	NA	NA	5.43	1.000E-04					
XM_1401862	LOC210245	GI_38082365					104010070	104010070	104010070	1.95	8.767E-08	3.84	0.000E+00	3.84	0.000E+00	
XM_1480886	LOC224137	GI_38079936					106420056	106420056	106420056	0.55	1.546E-04	1.46	0.000E+00	1.46	0.000E+00	
XM_1394764	LOC228770	GI_38075147					103130451	103130451	103130451	1.28	9.235E-08	2.42	0.000E+00	2.42	0.000E+00	
XM_1411732	LOC229810	GI_38077071					106400037	106400037	106400037	4.04	7.000E-04					
XM_1447091	LOC230805	GI_20846743					104120364	104120364	104120364	10.03	2.000E-04	2.16	9.000E-03			
XM_1442672	LOC231118	GI_38079663					107100301	107100301	107100301	2.98	3.000E-04					
XM_1248262	LOC232606	GI_38083743					108660044	108660044	108660044	1.58	2.879E-08	2.98	0.000E+00	2.98	0.000E+00	
XM_1343692	LOC233038	GI_38086184					105670433	105670433	105670433	9.06	6.000E-04					
XM_1342731	LOC234413	GI_38086936					108800288	108800288	108800288	6.07	3.025E-12	6.07	0.000E+00	6.07	0.000E+00	
XM_1391775	LOC235497	GI_38089906					106730132	106730132	106730132	1.53	1.300E-03	2.24	9.600E-03			
XM_1425472	LOC235979	GI_38090853					101806112	101806112	101806112	1.83	8.000E-04	6.07	0.000E+00	6.07	0.000E+00	
XM_1389302	LOC238949	GI_38073578					106100465	106100465	106100465	3.66	1.200E-03					
XM_1960273	LOC268393	GI_38091589					101860711	101860711	101860711	5.61	1.557E-04					
XM_1924623	LOC269351	GI_38074596					102470168	102470168	102470168	1.43	1.800E-03					
XM_1541402	LOC269533	GI_38078308					100200056	100200056	100200056	4.61	1.700E-03					
XM_2036632	LOC277193	GI_38080876					102220373	102220373	102220373	1.88	2.000E-03					
XM_2622911	LOC279032	GI_28511257					101950487	101950487	101950487	2.40	4.300E-03	2.40	1.000E-04			
XM_1496443	LOC280617	GI_38081863					101390110	101390110	101390110	1.51	4.200E-03					
XM_3384571	LOC280895	GI_38076058					102060041	102060041	102060041	2.03	8.000E-04					
XM_3548941	LOC280981	GI_38076347					104590619	104590619	104590619	1.39	1.029E-08	2.62	0.000E+00	2.62	0.000E+00	
XM_3548991	LOC280988	GI_38077463					106400041	106400041	106400041	6.05	1.534E-04					
XM_3569211	LOC281125	GI_38083266					101220438	101220438	101220438	1.95	6.817E-05	3.48	2.000E-04			
XM_3550551	LOC281127	GI_38083300					104560131	104560131	104560131	1.15	5.265E-05	2.75	0.000E+00	2.75	0.000E+00	
XM_3520111	LOC281259	GI_38049517					103440402	103440402	103440402	1.52	3.796E-05	2.88	0.000E+00	2.88	0.000E+00	
XM_3521311	LOC281270	GI_38049568					106650079	106650079	106650079	0.88	3.666E-05	1.85	0.000E+00			
XM_3523311	LOC281292	GI_38073326					102900796	102900796	102900796	1.28	5.718E-05	2.36	7.000E-04			
XM_3531171	LOC281332	GI_38074568					106850647	106850647	106850647	1.51	3.900E-03					
XM_3385961	LOC281483	GI_38077274					109200988	109200988	109200988	2.13	2.900E-03					
XM_3386431	LOC281697	GI_38081745					10720010	10720010	10720010	4.81	2.538E-04					
XM_3357531	LOC281758	GI_38083938					104850086	104850086	104850086	1.70	1.200E-03					
XM_3357971	LOC281795	GI_38084949					104850086	104850086	104850086	1.38	2.321E-05	2.71	5.000E-04			
XM_3358222	LOC281820	GI_38085360					104850086	104850086	104850086	1.45	1.289E-05	2.68	1.000E-04			
XM_3386781	LOC281822	GI_38087419					106500148	106500148	106500148	4.63	1.700E-03					
XM_3387061	LOC281922	GI_38090020					3292706	3292706	3292706	1.52	1.700E-03					
XM_3362851	LOC282182	GI_38064076					104400685	104400685	104400685	1.46	2.100E-03					
XM_3367811	LOC282972	GI_38078992					6650520	6650520	6650520	2.66	4.000E-04	2.66	0.000E+00			
XM_3710111	LOC283514	GI_38049950					10540338	10540338	10540338	1.94	3.000E-03					
XM_3744211	LOC284129	GI_38079355					4010692	4010692	4010692	3.27	6.828E-05	1.31	3.700E-03	13.10	8.100E-03	
XM_3759311	LOC284313	GI_38082401					104850086	104850086	104850086	2.46	3.316E-04	5.13	1.000E-04	51.77	0.000E+00	
XM_3755411	LOC284315	GI_38082430														
XM_3774011	LOC284607	GI_38086640														
XM_3789611	LOC284842	GI_38089332														
XM_3799511	LOC285019	GI_38088704														
XM_3906611	LOC286091	GI_38081137														
XM_1330882	Lyp2	c015172.21_467														
XM_133597	Met2a	c031226.15_487														
XM_1886101	MGC07181	c00075615.1_61														
XM_1886101	MGC07181	c00024212.1_237														
XM_485370	Mt5	c0066588.1_366														
XM_1389444	Ndu6l0	c01108.33_137														
XM_3551711	Ndu6l5	c01108.33_137														
AK07830	Nes1	n1593405604 P000646E07 AK07830 2792														







Appendices

Accession	aliasymbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma & ttest	only in sam	only in limma	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
NM_133871	A43006A009K	sc001967.1_19								interferon-induced protein 44	2.83	1.60E-03	2.83	3.80E-03		
NM_088942	hgfb8	sc000904.1_6								interferon regulatory factor 9	2.83	3.80E-03	2.83	3.80E-03		
NM_018738	lfg0	sc001405.5_111								interferon gamma induced GTPase	1.54	1.40E-03	1.54	1.40E-03		
NM_010091	icam2	sc03947.71_219								intercellular adhesion molecule 2	1.41	1.80E-03	1.41	1.80E-03		
NM_172471	rhb5	sc01298.12_88_101								inter-alpha (g1(gu)) inhibitor H5	2.21	7.00E-04	2.21	7.00E-04		
NM_013565	lfgp3	sc039694.29_139								inter-alpha (g1(gu)) inhibitor H5	0.82	2.16E-04	0.82	2.16E-04		
NM_035769	953000P13nk	ri1933000P13 PK00114015 AK085769 377								integrator complex subunit 3	1.55	1.00E-03	1.55	1.00E-03		
AK040147	A43007A022nk	ri1A43007A022 PK00138021 AK040147 2230								integrator complex subunit 3	1.37	3.20E-03	1.37	3.20E-03		
NM_018741	lfgfp11	sc024366.5_218								insulin like growth factor binding protein-like 1	1.67	2.70E-03	1.67	2.70E-03		
AK030096	lfgfbp3	ri1493144109 PK00019321 AK030096 4154								insulin like growth factor 2 mRNA binding protein	1.37	2.00E-04	1.37	2.00E-04		
NM_173027	D81007D07nk	sc001319.6_1_395								inostol hexaphosphate kinase 3	2.64	1.70E-03	2.64	1.70E-03		
NM_032611	lmpa2	sc00114663.2_25								inostol (lmpa) 1(or 4)-monophosphate 2	1.40	9.00E-04	1.40	9.00E-04		
NM_030841	S81042C015nk	ri1583942C015 f	107050025	107050025	107050025					inner membrane protein, mitochondrial	1.02	1.13E-04	2.06	5.00E-04	2.06	0.00E+00
NM_133345	lfg4	sc0286203.8_216								inhibitor of growth family, member 4	1.33	3.40E-03	1.33	3.40E-03		
NM_029349	Tenc	sc028971.3_6	2320020	2320020	2320020					indolethylamine N-methyltransferase	1.74	5.84E-05	3.54	3.00E-04	3.54	1.70E-03
NM_001463	Xist	sc00213742.1_1	104280446	104280446	104280446					inactive X specific transcripts	4.57	1.44E-04	30.09	0.00E+00	30.09	1.00E-04
NM_02043	lfr	sc0296963.1_121								immunoglobulin superfamily, containing, leucine-rich repeat	1.54	9.00E-04	1.54	9.00E-04		
NM_03262	Dhts8	sc0114664.1_62								hydroxysteroid (17-beta) dehydrogenase 11	1.55	1.40E-03	1.55	1.40E-03		
NM_133943	H63b7	sc030633.2.1_192								hydroxy-sens-3-stereoisomerase, 3 beta-ene steroid	2.09	6.00E-04	2.09	6.00E-04		
NM_026897	H69b1	sc050175.2_2489_38								hydroxyisoflavanone hydroxylase like	1.43	3.00E-03	1.43	3.00E-03		
AK05896	D030016118k	ri1001001611 PK00179305 AK05896 1070								hydroxyisovalerylcysteine	1.31	4.40E-03	1.31	4.40E-03		
NM_018986	H69p4	sc069541.13_2	84087							hydroxyisovalerylcysteine	1.78	1.57E-05	3.71	2.00E-04	3.71	2.00E-04
NM_088362	Hu1	sc013574.1_13	440025							hyaluronic acid binding protein 4	2.17	4.00E-04	2.17	4.00E-04		
NM_029722	Phx25	sc028808.5_1_108								Hu1 homolog (S. pombe)	0.67	1.16E-04	1.60	3.00E-04	1.60	3.00E-04
NM_029722	Phx25	sc0001172.1_1_55								Hu1 sense peptide 2	1.57	3.00E-04	1.57	3.00E-04		
AK00784	H110018K1nk	ri1110018K1 f	103850021	103850021	103850021					HOP homolog	5.69	1.41E-06	40.52	0.00E+00	40.52	0.00E+00
NM_010468	H0e3	sc0115424.2_98	6450154							hormone box D3	3.37	2.07E-04	8.04	1.00E-04	8.04	1.00E-04
NM_134032	H0e2	sc0103889.1_6_7	6450592							hormone box B2	0.83	5.49E-05	1.79	2.00E-04	1.79	2.00E-04
NM_010451	H0e2	sc029088.2.1_47								hormone box A2	1.46	5.00E-04	1.46	5.00E-04		
NM_178992	Bat5	sc029792.22.1_75								HLA B associated transcript 5	1.40	3.50E-03	1.40	3.50E-03		
NM_144919	Hdnc11	sc029747.11_233								histone deacetylase 11	1.40	3.30E-03	1.40	3.30E-03		
NM_179567	H613Hm	sc00019161.1_8								histone cluster 1, Hm	2.56	1.07E-04	8.15	1.80E-03	8.15	4.40E-02
NM_179566	H613H4	sc04225.1.12_219								histone cluster 1, H4c	0.57	2.28E-04	1.48	2.60E-03	1.48	2.60E-03
NM_179563	H613Hc	sc0115807.1.1_324								histone cluster 1, H4c	0.61	2.14E-04	1.54	6.00E-04	1.54	6.00E-04
NM_010399	H2-19	sc00015051.1_246								histone cluster 1, H2c	3.81	3.25E-06	3.81	3.25E-06		
NM_023124	H2-08	sc0115019.3_96								histone cluster 1, H2c	6.44	7.07E-07	58.17	0.00E+00	58.17	0.00E+00
NM_088199	H2-04	sc0014663.1_90								high mobility group nucleosomal binding domain 1	1.79	7.91E-09	3.41	0.00E+00	3.41	0.00E+00
NM_175074	Hmgp3	sc033543.6_17								high mobility group nucleosomal binding domain 3	1.01	7.67E-05	1.97	1.00E-03	1.97	1.00E-03
AK002971	Hmgp3	sc0003556.1_11								high mobility group nucleosomal binding domain 3	3.09	1.76E-05	6.65	1.90E-04	6.65	1.90E-04
BC04076.1	Hmgp3	sc0015365.1_6								HMG domain family, member 1B	1.49	1.90E-03	1.49	1.90E-03		
NM_080846	2310056K19nk	sc04852.4.1_7								Hermansky-Pudlak syndrome 1 homolog (human)	1.36	3.60E-03	1.36	3.60E-03		
NM_019424	Hpa1	sc02449.21_1_7								hemoglobin, beta adult major chain	5.62	1.60E-03	5.62	2.00E-02	5.62	2.00E-02
AK011016	Hpb-b1	ri251002808 Z00060020 AK011016 628								hemoglobin, beta adult major chain	5.62	1.60E-03	5.62	2.00E-02	5.62	2.00E-02
AK011053	Hpb-b1	ri251003809 Z00059615 AK011053 630								hemoglobin, beta adult major chain	5.62	1.60E-03	5.62	2.00E-02	5.62	2.00E-02
AK011067	Hpb-b1	ri251004007 Z00066620 AK011067 632								hemoglobin, beta adult major chain	5.62	1.60E-03	5.62	2.00E-02	5.62	2.00E-02
NM_133984	Hpa11	sc053377.11.1_104								HemK methyltransferase family member 1	0.67	9.50E-05	1.59	1.00E-04	1.59	1.00E-04
NM_013546	Hsp91	sc028293.6_1_86								HemK methyltransferase family member 1	1.37	8.66E-06	2.57	1.00E-04	2.57	0.00E+00
AK044226	H93002706nk	ri1A93002706 PK00065051 AK044226 3749								helix with zinc finger domain	1.60	4.00E-04	1.60	4.00E-04		
NM_088302	Hspc	sc0015516.2_1_44								helix with zinc finger domain	1.60	4.00E-04	1.60	4.00E-04		
AK032066	Ox48	ri1633658016 PK00335021 AK032066 1997								member 1	1.48	1.20E-03	1.48	1.20E-03		
NM_175189	Hpa12a	sc03332.22_483								heat shock protein 4 like	1.46	2.20E-03	1.46	2.20E-03		
NM_010472	Hspd1	sc015510.1_74								heat shock protein 12A	1.44	1.40E-03	1.44	1.40E-03		
NM_026812	111003309nk	sc0068095.1_200								heat shock protein 1 (chaperonin)	1.44	1.40E-03	1.44	1.40E-03		
NM_021429	151b03	sc0058240.2_223								heat shock protein 1 (chaperonin)	1.44	1.40E-03	1.44	1.40E-03		
AK020478	943006D08nk	ri19430060806 PK00109912 AK020478 1151								HCLS1 binding protein 3	0.77	2.70E-04	1.70	2.20E-03	1.70	2.20E-03
NM_016750	H2Ht	sc0051788.1_27								H2A histone, family 2B	1.87	2.70E-03	1.87	2.70E-03		
AK033579	Ohr	ri1E130111P21 PK0009118 AK033579 1795								H2A histone, family 2	3.43	5.15E-06	10.70	0.00E+00	10.70	0.00E+00
NM_023040	Ohr	sc050203.3_209								growth factor, erv1 (S. cerevisiae)-like [augmentor of liver regeneration]	1.59	1.30E-03	1.59	1.30E-03		
NM_023040	Ohr	sc050203.3_209								growth factor, erv1 (S. cerevisiae)-like [augmentor of liver regeneration]	0.81	9.64E-05	1.75	3.00E-04	1.75	3.00E-04

Appendices

Accession	altSymbol	Transcript	Probe Id	limma_sam & ttest	limma & sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
AK012646	Gra10	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK012646)S30					104560736				growth factor receptor bound protein 10	2.54	1.00E-03	2.54	8.00E-04	2.54	3.00E-04
AK037997	Gra10	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK037997)T219									GRP1 associated protein 1	1.66	8.00E-04	1.66	8.00E-04	1.66	8.00E-04
NM_0118341	Gra11	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK037997)T219									grain 1	2.88	4.00E-04	2.88	4.00E-04	2.88	4.00E-04
AK089806	Gra11	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757					106765687				grain 1 associated protein 1	10.17	0.00E+00	10.17	0.00E+00	10.17	0.00E+00
NM_0118321	Gra12	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									grain 2	4.90	8.00E-04	4.90	8.00E-04	4.90	8.00E-04
NM_045454	Gra12	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									grain 2 associated protein 1	1.70	7.00E-04	1.70	7.00E-04	1.70	7.00E-04
NM_0256381	Gra12	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									grain 2 associated protein 2	1.38	4.30E-03	1.38	4.30E-03	1.38	4.30E-03
AK034435	Gra12	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									grain 2 associated protein 3	1.93	1.70E-03	1.93	1.70E-03	1.93	1.70E-03
NM_008168	Gra12	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									grain 2 associated protein 4	1.63	2.00E-03	1.63	2.00E-03	1.63	2.00E-03
NM_013540.1	Gra2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	2.18	5.00E-03	2.18	5.00E-03	2.18	5.00E-03
NM_008165.2	Gra1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA1 (alpha 1)	1.45	2.30E-03	1.45	2.30E-03	1.45	2.30E-03
NM_000619.2	Gra1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA1 (alpha 1)	1.83	4.00E-04	1.83	4.00E-04	1.83	4.00E-04
NM_031184	Gra2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA1 (alpha 1)	1.56	3.00E-04	1.56	3.00E-04	1.56	3.00E-04
NM_010279.2	Gra1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA1 (alpha 1)	0.64	3.21E-04	0.64	3.21E-04	0.64	3.21E-04
NM_175335.1	Gra21	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	2.67	2.00E-03	2.67	2.00E-03	2.67	2.00E-03
NM_00100950	Gra87	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	0.97	1.33E-04	0.97	1.33E-04	0.97	1.33E-04
NM_140697.1	LOC245139	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	1.99	6.00E-04	1.99	6.00E-04	1.99	6.00E-04
NM_337972.1	LOC384885	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	3.13	2.00E-03	3.13	2.00E-03	3.13	2.00E-03
NM_139304.1	C430014D17Rk	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA2 (alpha 2)	1.62	2.50E-03	1.62	2.50E-03	1.62	2.50E-03
NM_019439	Gabrb7	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor, subunit beta 3	1.96	1.30E-03	1.96	1.30E-03	1.96	1.30E-03
NM_008071	Gabrb3	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor, subunit beta 3	0.77	9.15E-05	0.77	9.15E-05	0.77	9.15E-05
NM_008065.2	Gabpa	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) receptor, subunit beta 3	2.45	1.30E-03	2.45	1.30E-03	2.45	1.30E-03
AK019886.1	Gpr156	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	5.47	9.00E-04	5.47	9.00E-04	5.47	9.00E-04
NM_133394.2	Gpr156	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.08	1.66E-04	1.08	1.66E-04	1.08	1.66E-04
NM_132089.2	Gpr125	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	3.51	6.14E-10	3.51	6.14E-10	3.51	6.14E-10
NM_015988.2	Gpr125	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.07	1.62E-05	1.07	1.62E-05	1.07	1.62E-05
AK09138	Z310004H21Rk	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	2.85	1.31E-04	2.85	1.31E-04	2.85	1.31E-04
NM_010244.2	Fcrl1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.84	1.55E-05	0.84	1.55E-05	0.84	1.55E-05
AK080886	Fmr1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	2.29	1.15E-04	2.29	1.15E-04	2.29	1.15E-04
AF14382	Flg3	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	3.14	2.90E-06	3.14	2.90E-06	3.14	2.90E-06
NM_010213.1	Flg3	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	2.67	6.51E-04	2.67	6.51E-04	2.67	6.51E-04
NM_010230.1	Fmr2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.62	8.68E-05	0.62	8.68E-05	0.62	8.68E-05
AK03329	D030041G07Rk	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.71	1.69E-05	0.71	1.69E-05	0.71	1.69E-05
NM_008767.1	Foxp4	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.30	3.40E-03	1.30	3.40E-03	1.30	3.40E-03
NM_008046.1	Foxp4	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	2.28	1.00E-03	2.28	1.00E-03	2.28	1.00E-03
NM_029798.1	Foxp2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.56	7.00E-04	1.56	7.00E-04	1.56	7.00E-04
NM_183178.1	Foxl1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.30	3.40E-03	1.30	3.40E-03	1.30	3.40E-03
NM_006248.1	Fgf10g2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	2.26	6.00E-04	2.26	6.00E-04	2.26	6.00E-04
NM_145583.1	Frag1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.73	1.08E-04	1.73	1.08E-04	1.73	1.08E-04
NM_145583.1	Frag1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.90	1.18E-05	0.90	1.18E-05	0.90	1.18E-05
NM_009146	Sfr2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.95	6.09E-10	1.95	6.09E-10	1.95	6.09E-10
AK051779	D131078K04Rk	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.56	7.00E-04	1.56	7.00E-04	1.56	7.00E-04
NM_010185.2	Fcrl2	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.57	8.64E-05	1.57	8.64E-05	1.57	8.64E-05
NM_173401.1	Foxs4	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.76	6.00E-04	1.76	6.00E-04	1.76	6.00E-04
NM_010236.1	Foxs14	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.57	8.00E-04	1.57	8.00E-04	1.57	8.00E-04
AK07621	Foxs14	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.91	2.30E-03	1.91	2.30E-03	1.91	2.30E-03
AK032079	Foxh	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.56	3.40E-03	1.56	3.40E-03	1.56	3.40E-03
AK046305	Fox	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.83	0.00E+00	1.83	0.00E+00	1.83	0.00E+00
NM_134469	Fgfs	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.72	1.74E-04	0.72	1.74E-04	0.72	1.74E-04
AK054488	Fancx	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	0.69	1.19E-04	0.69	1.19E-04	0.69	1.19E-04
NM_007985.1	Fancx	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.43	5.00E-03	1.43	5.00E-03	1.43	5.00E-03
NM_148860.1	AH46023	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	1.32	1.07E-04	1.32	1.07E-04	1.32	1.07E-04
NM_01033210	AH47122	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	4.03	1.18E-07	4.03	1.18E-07	4.03	1.18E-07
NM_038042.1	Cosl1	U128100.3M107.Z00053111(AK089806)S614757									general transcription factor II A, 1	3.58	8.00E-04	3.58	8.00E-04	3.58	8.00E-04

Appendices

Accession	alt-symbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in sam	only in limma	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sam FC	sam p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
AK015693		4930523M17R8	PK00033016 AK015693 2820				10145168		elav-like 1	1.31	2.18E-04	1.39	2.50E-03	2.62	0.002E+00
NM_133916.1	Ef39	sc27050.15.6_2					295068		elav-like 1	1.80	3.05E-08	3.52	0.002E+00	3.52	0.002E+00
NM_036290	Ef52	sc18467.9_28	2810487	2810487	2810487	2810487	2810487		elav-like 1	0.53	2.89E-04	6.39	2.10E-03		
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NM_145565.2	Ef64.115	sc14379.22.1_6	5902000	5902000	5902000	5902000	5902000		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_035466.2	Ef64.116	sc13115.21.1_6	103190381	103190381	103190381	103190381	103190381		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
AK079301		9530069P18R8	PK0055AM17 AK079301 2730				606440		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_010104.3	Ef6f4	sc44852.5.1_6	1720047	1720047	1720047	1720047	1720047		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_010380.1	Ef6f6	sc0137219_219	610270	610270	610270	610270	610270		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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AK048572		C13007809R8	PK00121801 AK048572 1660				10060189		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_032003.1	Enp5	sc05098.5_378					1780138		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_140740.3	LOC246672	sc13918.5.1_209					1170593		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_010025.2	Dca	sc0013191.1_96					7050673		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_198618.1	Dncp3	sc024667.10_106					4640113		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_007584.1	Dncf1	sc49983.12_274	5220180	5220180	5220180	5220180	5220180		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
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NM_145247.2	Dncs1	sc020866.1_329					2640270		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_009955	Dncp2	sc45397.1_353					10470069		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
AK028513		4632413C10 AK028513 1196					10260373		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_010022	Dnc	sc024692.12_240	106180717	106180717	106180717	106180717	106180717		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_019670.1	Dncp3	sc0056449.2_241	430692	430692	430692	430692	430692		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_010466.2	Dncp1	sc44704.10.1_8	103240377	103240377	103240377	103240377	103240377		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
AK001639	Dncp4	sc1110012K08 AK001639 760					3610170		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02
NM_133915.1	Dncr	sc16535.14_269	3610170	3610170	3610170	3610170	3610170		elav-like 1	1.91	2.91E-04	2.03	1.90E-03	2.04	1.51E-02

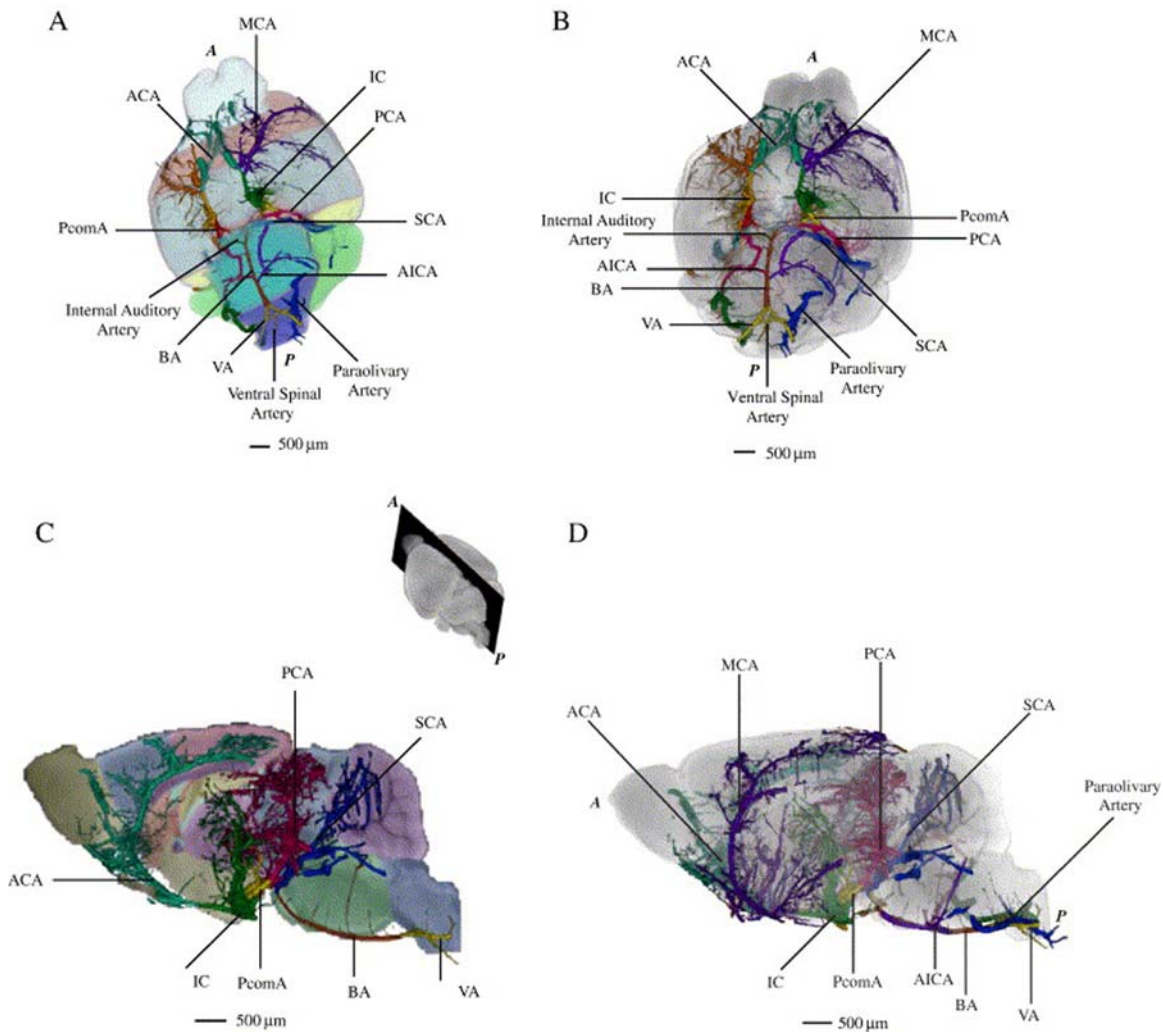
Appendices

Accession	aliasymbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma & ttest	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	limma_sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest
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NM_007621.1	Ceb1	cc34490.14.1_30											
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NM_007598.2	Cep1	cc401231.2_166		2650278	2650278	2650278							
NM_033160.1	CenH	cc32759.2_148											
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AK086081.1		ss800202.1_278											
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NM_026988.2	Cab3R1	cc46231.15_279											
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NM_080437.1	Ceh3	cc107934.22_249											
NM_076661	Ceh3	cc47372.13.1_8		4730541	4730541	4730541							
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NM_185344	Bta6	cc8022866.1_125											
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NM_02845.1	Bta6	cc807460.2_109		2080711									
NM_029755.2	Bta6	cc800731.1_361		38594									
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AK082487	Z63005K2L1Rik	r1C23005K21P000176A15	AK082487 1881										
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NM_009727	App41	cc26522.39_597		301340369									
NM_05983.2	App5e	cc18252.2_52											
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NM_012055.1	App1	cc29284.14.1_194		710587									
NM_17820.2	App1	cc109689.7_23		268035									
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Appendices

Accession	AliSymbol	Transcript	limma_sam & ttest	limma_sam	limma & ttest	sam & ttest	only in limma	only in sam	only in ttest	Gene name	limma FC	limma p value	sum FC	sum p value	ttest FC	ttest p value
NM_178010.1	Ashv2	ctc0217473.2_274						786500		zinc finger and FYF1 domain containing 2	1.78	1.80E-03	1.78	1.80E-03	2.13	0.002E+00
NM_183364.1	Atspc13	ctc0696102_119		3800446	3800446	3800446	3800446			zinc finger protein 113	1.23	5.77E-05	2.33	6.00E-04	2.13	0.002E+00
AK034959	EL1321605fRk	ctc13021605fRk	PK00032064 AK037459 1156	3800446	3800446	3800446	3800446			amylase beta (AM) precursor-like protein 2	2.33	3.00E-04	2.33	3.00E-04	2.13	0.002E+00
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NM_172935	57949771fRk	ctc05218.10_128_2		6860338					3800435	myosin VIIb, non-erythrocyte	0.66	2.84E-04	1.58	1.00E-03	2.14	1.39E-02
NM_034566.2	Amnerc1	ctc0054068.2_195								myosin VIIb, non-erythrocyte	1.59	1.00E-03	1.59	1.00E-03		
NM_181569.1	Mare	ctc0017168.2_280								alpha globin regulatory element containing gene	1.56	4.40E-03	3.19	2.30E-03	3.19	8.70E-03
AK043230	Aph1A3	ctc1A831008C10	PK00153E12 AK043530 1201			105700182				aldolase B dehydrogenase family 1, subfamily A3	3.19	2.30E-03	3.19	2.30E-03		
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AK045987	Atbp2	ctc1B23031G24	PK00160117 AK045987 2925	306550154						aldolase B dehydrogenase family 1, subfamily A3	1.01	5.37E-05	1.99	3.00E-04		
AK045838	Atbp2	ctc1B23031G05	PK00159117 AK045838 2923	302450048						aldolase B dehydrogenase family 1, subfamily A3	0.88	7.60E-05	1.84	1.00E-04		
NM_013460.1	Atp21d	ctc4115.1_51								ATP binding protein 2	1.51	1.70E-03	1.51	1.70E-03		
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NM_182994.1	Atm1	ctc181041P22fRk	ctc0075423.2_59						1410446	adenylyl kinase, beta 2	1.65	3.80E-03	1.65	3.80E-03		
NM_019718.2	Atf3	ctc57400.3_8_20								ADP-ribosylation factor-like 5A	1.66	1.00E-03	1.66	1.00E-03	0.07	0.002E+00
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AK052885	D93008G08fRk	ctc1D93008G08	PK00200E12 AK052885 1245							ADP-ribosylation factor 9	1.36	4.50E-03	1.36	4.50E-03		
NM_081211.1	Atspgk	ctc072145.1_1		4200164						ADP-ribosylation factor 9	1.36	4.50E-03	1.36	4.50E-03		
NM_025748.2	Doudc1	ctc039343.6_1_8		3830367						ADP-dependent glucokinase	0.69	2.63E-04	1.51	1.70E-03		
NM_007456	Adp1m1	ctc031678.12_1_84		2480705						adenosine deaminase, RNA specific 2, TAQ2 homolog (S. cerevisiae)	0.59	2.15E-04	1.52	1.80E-03		
AK088080	E43005G1fRk	ctc1E43005G1fRk	PK000959H08 AK088080 1227							adaptor-related protein complex AP-1, mis subunit	0.68	6.34E-05	1.60	1.00E-04		
NM_019406.2	Atf7ip	ctc054433.15_6		2690176	2690176	2690176	2690176			Adaptor protein, proapoptosome interaction, rat domain and	3.93	4.95E-04	4.15	0.002E+00	4.15	0.002E+00
NM_009510.1	Actg2	ctc28794.10_1_200		1740195	1740195	1740195	1740195			activating transcription factor 4	5.81	9.79E-07	5.64	8.00E-04	0.02	0.002E+00
NM_085553.2	Actl1	ctc07854.3_4								actin, gamma 2, smooth muscle, enteric	1.69	4.50E-03	1.69	4.50E-03		
NM_029531	181001380fRk	ctc09510.4_431								actin filament associated protein 1	1.39	1.40E-03	1.39	1.40E-03		
AK044708	D33034WQ1fRk	ctc1D33034WQ1	PK00192W02 AK044708 3849							actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
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NM_005648.1	Alup1	ctc0011640.2_184								actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
AK035797	963005R22fRk	ctc1963005R22fRk	PK00144P06 AK035797 1399							actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
NM_172126.2	Adam1a	ctc24694.1_1040_51								actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
AK035283	201001L1fRk	ctc1953000920	PK00112C23 AK035283 2209							actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
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NM_175173.3	Boh1	ctc0071913.2_148								actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
NM_019193.1	Dcer2	ctc0001610.1_0		6520280						actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
AK037259	Bogm	ctc1AJ03002188	PK00061H17 AK037259 1862							actin filament associated protein 1	1.41	4.30E-03	1.41	4.30E-03		
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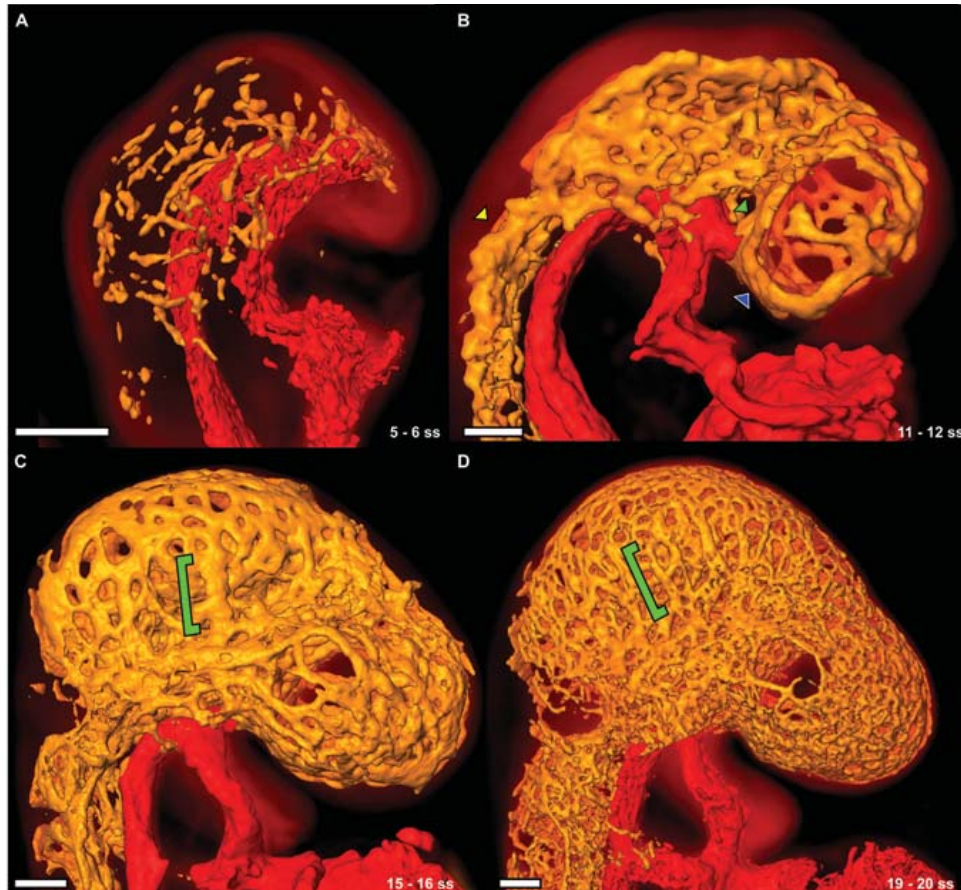
**THREE-DIMENSIONAL CEREBRAL VASCATURE OF THE CBA MOUSE  
BRAIN: CIRCLE OF WILLIS**



**Figure A 1 Circle of Willis on mouse brain surface and all arteries on brain surface and a slice plane**

(A) Circle of Willis on mouse brain surface with lobar regions depicted. The brain is shown from the inferior view at a small angle, enabling the best view possible of all arteries involved in the Circle of Willis. (B) Circle of Willis on semi-transparent mouse surface, also viewed inferiorly from an angle. (C) Arteries superimposed on a sagittal slice, midline. Insert represents the level at which the slice was taken. The MCA is excluded to allow better viewing of the internal arteries. (D) All major cerebral arteries with a semi-transparent mouse brain surface, left view. Refer to Dorr et al for a description of procedures and also abbreviations for the terms shown in this figure. Adapted from (Dorr et al., 2007).

### THREE-DIMENSIONAL ANALYSIS OF VASCULAR DEVELOPMENT IN THE MOUSE EMBRYO



#### Figure A 2 Development of the cephalic plexus between the 5 and 20 somite in the mouse embryo

(A) The vasculature in the 5-somite mouse embryo is a series of disconnected clusters of PECAM-1-expressing cells. The DA and the heart are surface rendered red, PECAM-1 expression throughout the cephalic mesenchyme is surface rendered orange, and the autofluorescence of the mouse embryo is volume rendered with a hot metal colourmap. (B) By 11 somites, the cells have aggregated into a rudimentary vascular plexus. Larger vessels such as the PHV (blue arrowhead), the PMA (yellow arrowhead) and the ICA (green arrowhead) are visible (see also Supplemental Video S1). The PHV at this stage is a single large vessel that runs in an anterior-posterior direction starting from the cephalic flexure down to the first intersegmental vessel. (C) The cephalic plexus has remodeled into a more stereotypic pattern by 15 somites. The cephalic veins are easily distinguishable (green bracket). (D) At 19 somites the cephalic plexus has become more refined into recognizable structures. The cephalic veins are still visible at this stage (green bracket). All scale bars represent 100 microns. Figure and description from Walls et al, 2008.

## MICROARRAY VALIDATION BY QPCR

### **Table A 1 Genes used in the validation of microarray data**

*Nestin*, *Notch1*, *Pax6* and *Sox2* were not detected by microarray but were used as positive controls. This table summarizes the results presented by Dale McAninch (McAninch, 2008). WT, wild-type; NA, not applicable.

NOTE:

This table is included on page 232 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.



**Table A 2 Average intensity values for *Xist*, *Sox3*,  $\beta$ -*Actin* and *Gapdh***

Samples represented by number 1, 2 or 3. Background value of approximately 30. All *Sox3*-null (KO) samples were male, thus no expression of *Xist* was detected; whereas wild-type (WT) samples 1 and 3 were female and showed high intensity values, WT sample 2 is the pooled sample containing 3 males and 1 female giving a low intensity reading. *Sox3* shows no expression in KO samples and expression in WT samples. Both  $\beta$ -*Actin* and *Gapdh* show consistent readings for all samples (McAninch, 2008).

Gene	KO				WT							
	1	2	3	4	Mean	1	2	3	4	5	6	mean
<i>Xist</i>	23.82	30.86	22.55	20.2	24.35							
<i>Sox3</i>	39.21	5.85	17.97	15.45	19.62							
Beta Actin	24252.18	24953.72	17289.38	18489.24	21246.13	940.08	924.29	167.15	204.43	793.34	934.86	660.69
<i>Gapdh</i>	23912.19	26501.04	18702.12	23964.81	23270.04	882.67	831.22	894.2	844.26	504.6	650.42	767.9
						19394.9	24051.75	22999.13	22470.25	17838.74	17426.17	20696.82
						20751.11	25356.47	26182.25	23038.77	20015.15	24658.99	23333.79

## GENERATION OF MOUSE WARS ISOFORMS

The following method outline of the generation of Wars isoforms is extracted from Chin Ng's Honors thesis (Ng, 2010). Please refer to this body of work for detailed information.

The cloning strategy is outlined in the Figure A 3. First, the expression vector, pET32a-TEV-Kpn1 and pGEM-T Easy vector containing the inserts (either FL-Wars, mini-Wars, or T2-Wars) were digested with *Kpn1* and *EcoR1* enzymes. This isolated the inserts which were then ligated into pET32a-TEV-Kpn1 vector. Digestion of pET32a vectors with *Kpn1* and *EcoR1* confirmed the ligation of *Wars* inserts. All the constructs were sequenced and confirmed that the pET32a vector contained the relevant *Wars* isoforms; in frame with the N-terminal His6 tag with no PCR-induced errors.

In order to investigate the effect of the *Wars*<sup>L30P</sup> mutation on WARS protein activity, the *Wars* coding region, containing the 220T>C mutation, was generated by site-directed mutagenesis (QuickChange™ Site-directed Mutagenesis). Site directed mutagenesis was performed using the pET32a-FL Wars as plasmid template. Sequencing results confirmed successful mutagenesis where the codon CTC encoding Leucine at residue 30 was substituted with CCC encoding a Proline. The sequencing results did not show any random mutations that may have been introduced during PCR.

NOTE:

This figure is included on page 235 of the print copy of the thesis held in the University of Adelaide Library.

**Figure A 3 Cloning strategy used for generating mouse *Wars* isoforms**

Cloning of different *Wars* isoforms insert (full length, mini and T2- *Wars*) into pET32a-TEV-Kpn1 expression vector that is restricted by Kpn1 and EcoR1. Successful cloning of the *Wars* isoforms was confirmed by sequencing. The full length *Wars* was then used as template for the synthesis of L30P *Wars* in the site-directed mutagenesis (Ng, 2010).

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Review

Molecular genetics of the developing neuroendocrine hypothalamus

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ABSTRACT

Formation of the mammalian endocrine system and neuroendocrine organs involves complex regulatory networks resulting in a highly specialized cell system able to secrete a diverse array of peptide hormones. The hypothalamus is located in the mediobasal region of the brain and acts as a gateway between the endocrine and nervous systems. From an endocrinology perspective, the parvicellular neurons of the hypothalamus are of particular interest as they function as a control centre for several critical physiological processes including growth, metabolism and reproduction by regulating hormonal signaling from target cognate cell types in the anterior pituitary. Delineating the genetic program that controls hypothalamic development is essential for complete understanding of parvicellular neuronal function and the etiology of congenital disorders that result from hypothalamic–pituitary axis dysfunction. In recent years, studies have shed light on the interactions between signaling molecules and activation of transcription factors that regulate hypothalamic cell fate commitment and terminal differentiation. The aim of this review is to summarize the recent molecular and genetic findings that have advanced our understanding of the emergence of the known important hypophysiotropic signaling molecules in the hypothalamus. We have focused on reviewing the literature that provides evidence of the dependence on expression of specific genes for the normal development and function of the cells that secrete these neuroendocrine factors, as well as studies of the elaboration of the spatial or temporal patterns of changes in gene expression that drive this development.

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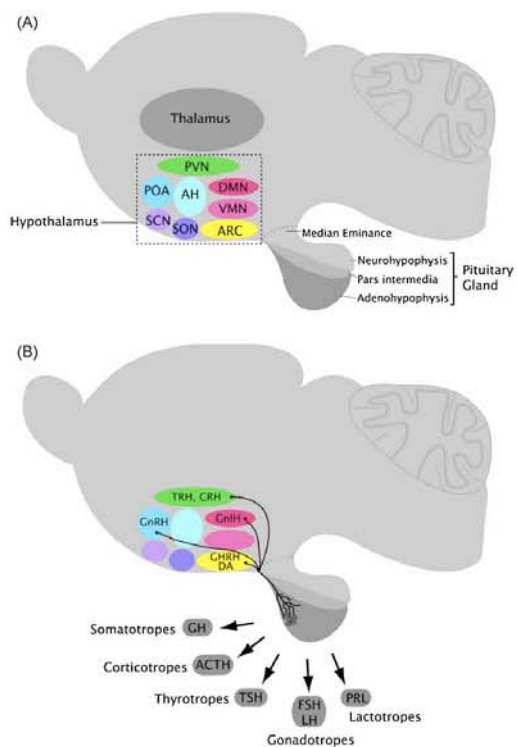
**1. Introduction**

The hypothalamus influences a broad spectrum of physiological functions, including pituitary hormone synthesis and secretion, autonomic nervous system activity, energy intake and expenditure, body temperature, reproduction and behavior. Despite its physiological importance, we are only beginning to understand the molecular mechanisms underlying neural differentiation and development within the hypothalamus and the ontogeny of its connections with the pituitary. The hypothalamic parvocellular neurosecretory neurons are of particular interest due to their role in controlling anterior pituitary (AP) hormone secretion. For this reason, many studies have focused on the signaling molecules and transcription factors that control hypothalamic morphogenesis and the emergence of the seven known parvocellular neurosecretory neuronal subtypes (described in detail below). While much of the early research into hypothalamic development and function has been conducted in rats, recent advances in murine transgenesis and mutagenesis techniques have established mice as the principal model for the analysis of the central nervous system (CNS) development. Therefore, in this review we have focused primarily on rodent hypothalamic development but have also included key findings from other developmental models, such as chick and zebrafish, which have contributed to our understanding of this field.

**2. Functional anatomy of the neuroendocrine hypothalamus**

The vertebrate hypothalamus is located ventral to the thalamus and dorsal to the pituitary gland, at the mediobasal region of the CNS. It extends from the optic chiasm (located anteriorly) to the mammillary body (located posteriorly) and is organized into four distinct rostral-to-caudal regions: preoptic, anterior, tuberal, and mammillary. It is also divided into three medial-to-lateral areas: periventricular, medial and lateral. The periventricular hypothalamus contains four distinct cell clusters: the paraventricular nucleus (PVN), arcuate nucleus (ARC), supra-chiasmatic nucleus (SCN), and the periventricular nucleus (PeVN; Fig. 1A). The medial hypothalamic zone is comprised of the medial preoptic nucleus, the anterior hypothalamus (AH), the dorsomedial nucleus, the ventromedial nucleus (VMN) and the mammillary nuclei. The lateral hypothalamus consists of the preoptic area (POA) and hypothalamic area. Located throughout hypothalamus are hypothalamic neurosecretory cells that are divided into two populations: the parvocellular and magnocellular neurosecretory systems. The former consists of neurons controlling the release of specific AP neurohormones: thyrotropin-releasing hormone (TRH; located within the medial part of the medial parvocellular subdivision of the PVN), corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH; located within the lateral part of the medial parvocellular subdivision of the PVN), growth hormone-releasing hormone (GHRH; located within the lateral part of the ARC), somatostatin (SS; located within the PeVN), gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH; located within the medial POA), dopamine (DA; located within the medial part of the ARC and detected by the enzymatic activity of tyrosine hydroxylase) and, the recently discovered gonadotropin-inhibiting

hormone (GnIH; located within the dorsomedial nuclei in rodents; Fig. 1B). The magnocellular neurosecretory system consists of neuronal cells secreting two neurohormones, vasopressin (AVP) and oxytocin (OT), whose axons project directly into the posterior pituitary (neurohypophysis) and release peptides systemically in response to various homeostatic cues (osmotic, cardiovascular and reproductive). The primary focus of this review is the development and function of the parvocellular neurons. For in-depth information and discussion on the magnocellular neurosecre-



**Fig. 1.** Illustration of the organization of hypothalamic nuclei, in the murine brain. (A) A lateral view of the organization of the hypothalamic nuclei. The hypothalamus is organized into distinct zones containing tight clusters of cell bodies. (B) Representation of the neuroendocrine hypophysiotropic factors and their neuronal projections through the median eminence (ME) and into the adenohypophysis (anterior pituitary). PVN: paraventricular nucleus; POA: preoptic area; AH: anterior hypothalamus; SCN: supra-chiasmatic nucleus; SON: supra-optic nucleus; DMN: dorsal-medial nucleus; VMN: Ventro-medial nucleus; ARC: arcuate nucleus; GH: growth hormone; ACTH: adrenocorticotropin hormone; TSH: thyroid stimulating hormone; FSH: follicle-stimulating hormone; LH: luteinizing hormone; PRL: prolactin. GnRH: gonadotropin-releasing hormone; GHRH: GH-releasing hormone; GnIH: gonadotropin-inhibiting hormone; DA: dopamine.

tory system we refer the reader to the paper by Caqueret et al. (2006).

### 3. Hypothalamic induction and the role of signaling pathways

The hypothalamus develops from the ventral region of the diencephalon (Figdor and Stern, 1993) and, in the mouse, its primordium is morphologically evident from approximately 9.5 days post-coitum (dpc; where 0.5 dpc is defined as noon of the day on which a copulation plug is present). Developmental studies performed in mice, chick and zebrafish indicate that sonic hedgehog (SHH) signaling plays an important role in the induction and early patterning of the hypothalamus (Manning et al., 2006; Mathieu et al., 2002; Szabo et al., 2009). Secretion of SHH from the murine axial mesendoderm, from 7.5 dpc, is essential for correct patterning of the anterior midline. In humans as well as in mice, mutations in the *SHH/Shh* gene (and several other components of this pathway) result in holoprosencephaly due to a failure of hypothalamic anlagen induction and optic field separation (Chiang et al., 1996; Schell-Apacik et al., 2003). Increased SHH activity leads to ectopic expression of hypothalamic markers in zebrafish, suggesting that SHH signaling has an instructive rather than a permissive role in shaping the hypothalamus (Barth and Wilson, 1995; Hauptmann and Gerster, 1996; Rohr et al., 2001). Studies in chick have shown that once the hypothalamic primordium is established, down-regulation of *Shh* is critical for the progression of ventral cells into proliferating hypothalamic progenitors, at least within the ventral tubero-mammillary region (Manning et al., 2006). In addition, *Shh* down-regulation is mediated, to some extent, by local production of Bone Morphogenetic Proteins (BMPs), which belong to the transforming growth factor-beta (TGF $\beta$ ) super-family of signaling proteins (Manning et al., 2006). This antagonism between SHH (ventral gradient morphogen) and BMP (dorsal gradient morphogen) in the hypothalamus is reminiscent of their opposing actions in dorsal-ventral patterning of the neural tube. However, in the developing hypothalamus this incorporates a temporal aspect (SHH early-BMP late) that appears necessary for establishing region-specific transcriptional profiles (Ohyaama et al., 2008; Patten and Placzek, 2002). Although axial secretion of another member of the TGF $\beta$  super-family, NODAL, is also necessary for hypothalamic induction, the early lethality of *Nodal* mutants has precluded detailed assessment of its role in hypothalamic development in mice (Brennan et al., 2001; Conlon et al., 1994; Varlet et al., 1997). Genetic studies in zebrafish have shown that the Wnt signaling pathway is required for specification of the hypothalamic anlagen, its regionalization and neurogenesis (Kapsimali et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2006). Together, these studies have shown that hypothalamic induction and pattern formation depends on the activities of major protein signaling pathways involved in patterning, regional identity and cell fate determination.

### 4. Patterning the hypothalamic primordium

Embryonic neurogenesis in vertebrates follows a stereotypical progression that begins with the generation of the neural tube, which is composed of a pseudostratified columnar epithelium of cycling stem cells. As a general rule, these neuronal precursors acquire distinct positional identities, commit to a neuronal fate, exit mitosis, migrate away from the periluminal progenitor zone and terminally differentiate. A large body of evidence, gained principally from mouse and chick embryos, has established that transcription factors belonging to the homeodomain and basic Helix-Loop Helix (bHLH) families play a major role in neurogenesis (reviewed in Guillemot, 2007). Regionally restricted expression of these factors is induced in response to local signaling cues

(see above), establishing a transcription factor "code" that directs the generation of distinct neuronal cell types at each neuroaxial level. Mouse mutagenesis has identified several transcription factor pathways critical for the development of the parvicellular neurons in the POA, PVN, PeVN, VMN and ARC, which together provide the foundation for a rudimentary "hypothalamic transcription factor code" and are outlined below.

#### 4.1. *Sim1/Arnt2-Brn2* pathway

The bHLH-PAS transcription factor SIM1 is expressed in the incipient PVN, supra-optic nucleus (SON), and anterior PeVN (aPeVN) from 10.5 dpc and is maintained in these regions into post-natal development (Caqueret et al., 2006; Michaud et al., 1998). Homozygous *Sim1* mutants die shortly after birth and exhibit significant hypoplasia of the anterior hypothalamus. Histological and molecular marker analysis has revealed that these mutants lack virtually all neurons of the SON and PVN, including those expressing TRH and CRH. SS neurons in the aPeVN and other populations of TRH neurons in the lateral hypothalamus and in the POA region are also missing. Interestingly, mutant mice lacking the *Sim1* dimerisation partner ARNT2 have a strikingly similar phenotype, indicating that these proteins function cooperatively in the AH (Hosoya et al., 2001; Keith et al., 2001). A key downstream target of SIM1/ARNT2 is *Brn2*, which encodes a POU domain transcription factor and is required for the differentiation of CRH (as well as OT and AVP) neurons of the PVN/SON. *Brn2* expression in the prospective PVN/SON region is absent in *Sim1* and *Arnt2* mutants, indicating that *Brn2* is regulated by SIM1/ARNT2, although it is not currently known if this is a direct or indirect interaction.

#### 4.2. *Otp*

The homeobox gene *Orthopedia* (*Otp*) is expressed in neurons giving rise to the PVN, SON, aPeVN and ARC throughout their development. *Otp* mutants die as neonates and fail to generate the parvicellular and magnocellular neurons of the anterior PeVN, PVN, SON, and ARC (Acampora et al., 1999; Wang and Lufkin, 2000). These defects are associated with reduced cell proliferation, abnormal cell migration, and failure of terminal differentiation. Like the *Sim1* and *Arnt2* mutants, *Otp* null embryos fail to maintain *Brn2* expression. However, *Otp* does not appear to directly interact with SIM1 or ARNT2 (Caqueret et al., 2006) and SIM1 and *Otp* do not regulate each other's expression (Acampora et al., 1999), suggesting that *Otp* and SIM1/ARNT2 operate in parallel or convergent pathways.

#### 4.3. *Nkx2.1*

During early CNS development, signals produced from the anterior axial mesendoderm induce expression of the homeodomain transcription factor gene *Nkx2.1* (also known as *Tebp*) in the overlying presumptive hypothalamus (Ericson et al., 1998; Kimura et al., 1996). *Nkx2.1* mutant mice die at birth and, in addition to lung and thyroid defects, exhibit profound abnormalities in the ventral hypothalamus, including agenesis of the ARC and VMN. Interestingly, null mutants also fail to generate the Rathke's pouch (which does not express *Nkx2.1*), confirming the ventral diencephalon/infundibular recess is essential for induction of the AP (Kimura et al., 1996; Takuma et al., 1998).

#### 4.4. *Sf1*

The *Sf1* gene encodes an orphan nuclear hormone receptor that is required for normal development of the gonads and adrenals and function of pituitary gonadotropes (Ingraham et al., 1994; Shinoda

et al., 1995). Within the CNS, *Sf1* is specifically expressed within the VMN and is required for multiple phases of VMN development. Analysis of *Sf1* null embryos indicates that this transcription factor is initially involved in the survival and migration of VMN precursors from the ventricular zone and at later stages is required for aggregation and condensation of the VMN nucleus and terminal differentiation.

#### 4.5. *Hmx2/Hmx3*

Two closely related homeobox genes, *Hmx2* and *Hmx3*, are expressed in overlapping domains of the ventral hypothalamus from 10.5 dpc (Wang et al., 2004). While single gene mutants do not have any discernable hypothalamic phenotype (although it bears noting that ear development is affected), *Hmx2:Hmx3* null mice exhibit postnatal dwarfism and a severe deficiency of GHRH neurons in the ARC, but not the VMN (Wang et al., 2004). Expression of the homeobox gene *Gsh1*, which overlaps with *Hmx2* and *Hmx3* and is required for *Ghrh* expression, is also absent in *Hmx2:Hmx3* null embryos. Neuronal cell numbers in the ARC are not significantly different in double mutants indicating that, despite their widespread expression, *Hmx2* and *Hmx3* are not required for early determination of neuroprogenitors in this region of the hypothalamus.

#### 4.6. *Mash1*

MASH1 is a proneural protein that belongs to the bHLH family of transcription factors and is required for neurogenesis and subtype specification in many regions of the CNS (Parras et al., 2002). *Mash1* is expressed throughout the ventral retrochiasmatic neuroepithelium from 10.5 to 12.5 dpc. *Mash1* null embryos exhibit hypoplasia of the ARC and VMN nuclei due to neurogenic failure and increased apoptosis (McNay et al., 2006). Using a knock-in strategy, McNay et al. (2006) elegantly showed that this phenotype could be rescued by ectopic expression of *Ngn2*, which is also a member of the bHLH proneural gene family. *Mash1* also appears to have a role in subtype specification (that cannot be rescued by *Ngn2*), and is absolutely required for expression of *Gsh1* and the subsequent generation of *Ghrh*-expressing neurons.

#### 4.7. *Sox3*

*Sox3* is a member of the SOX (Sry-related HMG box) family of transcription factor genes and is located on the X chromosome (Lefebvre et al., 2007). This gene was initially implicated in hypothalamic development from clinical and genetic studies of families with the male-specific congenital disorder X-linked Hypopituitarism (XH). XH males have GH deficiency and, in some cases, additional pituitary hormone deficiencies as well as intellectual disability (Solomon et al., 2002). Magnetic resonance imaging analysis of affected males has revealed abnormalities of the hypothalamic region including ectopic posterior pituitary and thin pituitary stalk, indicating that XH results primarily from a hypothalamic defect (Woods et al., 2005). Interestingly, XH is associated with duplications and mutations in *SOX3*, suggesting that over-expression and loss-of-function mutations result in a similar developmental defect (Solomon et al., 2002; Woods et al., 2005). Although the mechanism by which altered *SOX3* dosage causes XH is not fully understood, genetic studies in mice have provided some clues. *Sox3* null animals exhibit multiple pituitary hormone deficiency, variable dwarfism and CNS abnormalities, indicating that *SOX3* function is broadly conserved in mice and humans (Rizzoti et al., 2004; Weiss et al., 2003). Importantly, *Sox3* is expressed in the developing hypothalamus (see below) but has minimal expression in the AP, suggesting that hypothalamic (and not AP) dysfunction is the primary cause of pituitary hormone deficiency in *Sox3* mutants.

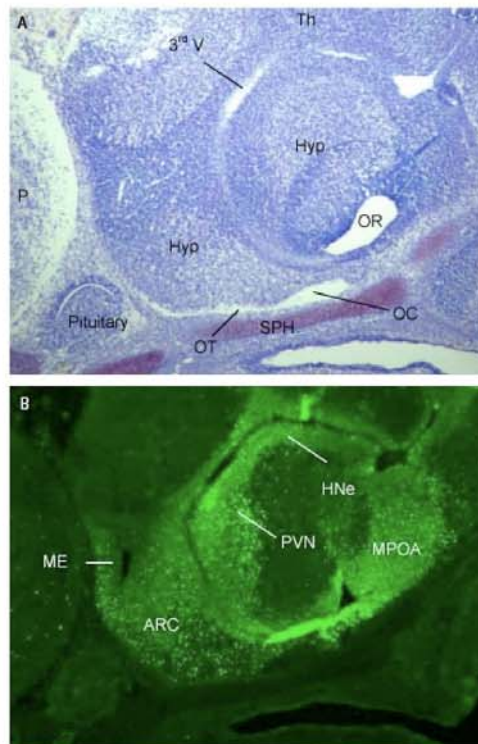


Fig. 2. SOX3 is expressed in the developing murine hypothalamus. (A) Nissl stain of the hypothalamus (Hyp) in the sagittal orientation. (B) Neighboring section showing SOX3 expression (green) throughout the hypothalamic neuroepithelium (HNe), medial preoptic area (MPOA), median eminence (ME), arcuate nucleus (ARC) and paraventricular nucleus (PVN). 3rd V: third ventricle, OC: optic chiasm, OR: optic recess, OT: optic tract, P: pons, SPH: sphenoid cartilage, Th: thalamus.

Studies from our laboratory have shown that *Sox3* is expressed in the hypothalamus from inception to maturity suggesting that it may have multiple roles in hypothalamic development and function (Fig. 2 and data not shown). Analysis of *Sox3* mutants has indicated that early expression in the ventral diencephalon/infundibular recess (at 10.5 dpc) is required for normal induction and morphogenesis of the AP, but, remarkably, not AP function (Rizzoti et al., 2004). From approximately 12.5 dpc, *Sox3* expression is restricted to multiple hypothalamic regions/nuclei including the hypothalamic neuroepithelium, median eminence, ARC, PVN, medial POA and VMN (unpublished data). Interestingly, all of these nuclei contain parvicellular neuronal subtypes. It is therefore possible that the multiple pituitary hormone deficiencies in *Sox3* null mice (and some XH patients) may reflect a specific requirement for *SOX3* in the generation and/or maintenance of some, if not all, parvicellular neuronal subtypes. Alternatively, or in addition, defective development of the median eminence, which also expresses *Sox3* (Rizzoti et al., 2004 and our unpublished data), may compromise the functional connection to the portal vasculature, resulting in altered regulation of AP hormone synthesis and secretion by parvicellular neuronal factors.

5. Birthdate analysis of hypothalamic nuclei

Detailed birth-dating studies of hypothalamic nuclei have been performed in rats, and to a lesser extent, in mice (Markakis, 2002; Markakis and Swanson, 1997). For extensive discussion of these reports we refer the reader to the excellent review by Markakis (2002). The general conclusion arising from birth-dating analyses is that the hypothalamus matures “from outside to inside” such that the lateral nuclei are generated before those located at more medial positions. This developmental sequence is opposite to that occurring in the cerebral cortex, where nascent neurons migrate past older neurons as they move radially towards the pial surface (from “inside to outside”) (Misson et al., 1991). The order in which hypothalamic nuclei are generated may reflect, to some extent, a passive process by which the third ventricle is progressively reduced in volume due to accumulation of nascent neurons in a lateral to medial sequence. This is supported by gene expression analysis of the developing anterior hypothalamus, whereby it has been revealed that laminar patterns of gene expression may correspond to distinct waves of neurogenesis (Caqueret et al., 2006). However, birth-dating studies of the six parvicellular neural subtypes suggest that this model is an oversimplification as peak generation of parvicellular neurons occurs before the peak generation of their cognate nuclei (Markakis and Swanson, 1997). These observations imply that nascent parvicellular neurons exhibit a delayed migratory phase. Apart from the exceptional case of GnRH neurons, which undergo extensive migration from their source in the olfactory placode (Verney et al., 1996), this area is poorly understood. Perturbation of this migratory pathway could contribute to the altered distribution of anterior hypothalamic neurons in *Sim1* mutant embryos (see above) (Caqueret et al., 2006) although further studies are required to determine the precise mechanism. A second intriguing finding from parvicellular birth-dating studies is that there is no obvious correlation between the time at which the neurons are born and the neuronal subtype (in rats the peak parvicellular neuron generation occurs at 12.5–13.5 dpc, regardless of cell type). It therefore appears that, apart from GnRH, the parvicellular neurons are generated concurrently from the ventricular neuroepithelium that spans the hypothalamic region. Almost nothing is known about the coordination of progenitor cell selection and lineage commitment in the hypothalamus but it seems possible that similar genetic mechanisms to those employed in other CNS regions (e.g. Notch signaling) may be utilized.

6. Generation and function of parvicellular hypophysiotropic factors

Hypothalamic control of the AP became an accepted principle and the entire field took a major step forward with the discovery that (pyro)Glu-His-Pro(amide), synthesized in the hypothalamus, acted as a releasing factor for TSH (Guillemin et al., 1963). Along with the discovery of additional hypophysiotropic factors, subsequent research has focused on better understanding of the expression of these factors in the hypothalamus and the mechanisms by which they exert physiological activity at the pituitary. The developmental sequence of expression of the known hypothalamic hypophysiotropic factors has been investigated in numerous species including rat, mouse, human and chicken (Table 1).

7. Origin and birthdate of neuroendocrine hypophysiotropic factors

The availability of genetically engineered mouse models has added a new dimension to studies of the ontogeny of parvicellular neuronal subtypes. In recent years, a clearer picture has emerged of the precise steps in development and the factors involved in the

Table 1 Differentiation of hypothalamic parvicellular neurons in rat, mouse, human and chicken. MPON: medial preoptic nucleus; DMN: dorsal medial nucleus; ARC: arcuate nucleus; PVN: paraventricular nucleus; PeVN: periventricular nucleus; g.w.: gestation week; e: embryonic day; N.D.: not determined.

Hypothalamic factor	Location of neuronal model	Action on pituitary cell(s)	Rat	Mouse	Human	Chicken
GnRH	MPON	Stimulates gonadotropes	e11 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997)	e10.5 (Wray et al., 1989)	5.5 g.w. (Verney et al., 1996) 6 g.w. (Schwanzel-Pikuda et al., 1996) N.D.	e4.5 (Sullivan and Silverman, 1993)
GnIH	DMN (in rodent species)	Inhibits gonadotropes	Adult stage <sup>a</sup> (Kriegsfeld et al., 2006)	Adult stage <sup>a</sup> (Kriegsfeld et al., 2006)	N.D.	Adult stage <sup>a</sup> (Dockray et al., 1983)
DA	ARC	Inhibits lactotropes	e11 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997) e12 (Balan et al., 1996)	e10.5 (Son et al., 1996)	4.5 g.w. (Verney et al., 1993; Verney et al., 1996; Zecvic and Verney, 1995)	e5 (Ohyama et al., 2005)
GHRH	ARC	Stimulates somatotropes	e11.5 (Daikoku et al., 1986) e11 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997)	N.D.	29 g.w. (Bloch et al., 1984)	N.D.
SS	PeVN	Inhibits somatotropes	e12.5 (Daikoku et al., 1983) e12 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997)	e17 <sup>b</sup> (Gross and Longer, 1979)	10 g.w. (Aubert et al., 1977)	e14 <sup>b</sup> (Genis et al., 1988)
CRH	PVN	Stimulates corticotropes	e12 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997)	e13.5 (Keegan et al., 1994)	16 g.w. (Bugnon et al., 1994)	e15 (Iossa et al., 1986)
TRH	PVN	Stimulates thyrotropes	e12 (Markakis and Swanson, 1997)	e12 (Favre-Bauman et al., 1978)	8 g.w. <sup>b</sup> (Winters et al., 1974)	e5.5 (Thommes et al., 1985)

<sup>a</sup> Birth-dating studies have not been examined.  
<sup>b</sup> Hypothalamic neurons may arise earlier during development; no known earlier stages have been investigated.

differentiation of and acquisition of function by cells that secrete hypothalamic releasing factors. Below we outline some of the key advances in this field.

### 7.1. GnRH

A total of 14 forms of GnRH have been described (for review see Wray, 2002), with the physiologically most important form being GnRH-1 (referred to here as GnRH). GnRH is a central regulator in the hypothalamic–pituitary–gonadal axis and is produced by neurosecretory cells located throughout the basal hypothalamus including the preoptic nucleus and AH. The release of GnRH triggers the synthesis and release of the gonadotropins, luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), which regulate gonadal steroidogenesis and gametogenesis (for review see Lee et al., 2008).

Unlike all other parvocellular neurons that arise from within the hypothalamic anlagen, GnRH neurons originate in the olfactory placode (Wray, 2002) and migrate through the ventral forebrain. In mice, GnRH neuron migration terminates in the medial septum, POA and anterior hypothalamic regions (Wray, 2001). Recent evidence indicates that the initial population of GnRH neurons (9.5–10.5 dpc) is generally located rostral to later-born (11.5–12.5 dpc) GnRH neurons and that the GnRH neurons located at different rostral–caudal positions may be functionally distinct (Jasani et al., 2009). Several extracellular cues that direct the emergence and migration of nascent GnRH neurons have been identified which include Fibroblast Growth Factor 8 (Chung et al., 2008), hepatocyte growth factor (Giacobini et al., 2007) and secreted-class 3 semaphorins (Cariboni et al., 2007). Of particular interest is semaphorin-4D (Sema4D) which belongs to the semaphorin protein family group of axon/cell guidance proteins and is expressed along GnRH migratory route (Tran et al., 2007). The Sema4D receptor, PlexB1, is expressed in migratory cells that are exiting the olfactory placode (Giacobini et al., 2004). *PlexB1* deficient mice exhibit aberrant migration of the principal GnRH fibers that project to the ME (Giacobini et al., 2008) confirming the importance of Sema4D/PlexB1 interaction during GnRH cell migration.

A number of transcription factors have been implicated in GnRH differentiation such as GATA-4 and Activator Protein-2 $\alpha$  (AP-2 $\alpha$ ). GATA-4, a member of the GATA family of zinc finger-domain transcription factors, binds to the GnRH enhancer and regulates GnRH gene transcription (Lawson et al., 1996). In the 13.5 dpc mouse brain, GnRH neurons express GATA-4 along their migration from the olfactory placode into the brain (Lawson and Mellon, 1998). The Activator Protein transcription factors are critical regulators of gene expression during embryogenesis. AP-2 $\alpha$  has been detected in olfactory placode epithelium (Mitchell et al., 1991). It has been reported that GnRH neurons express AP-2 $\alpha$  as they migrate into the forebrain (Kramer et al., 2000).

### 7.2. GnIH

GnIH was recently discovered in the Japanese quail and acts directly on the pituitary to inhibit gonadotropin release (Tsutsui et al., 2007; Tsutsui and Ukena, 2006). The identification of GnIH arose when neurons immunopositive for the molluscan cardioexcitatory neuropeptide Phe-Met-Arg-Phe-NH<sub>2</sub> (FMRamide, Price and Greenberg, 1977) were found in the vertebrate nervous system to contain an unknown, but similar, neuropeptide (Raffa, 1988). In the amphibian brain, some of these neurons were seen to project to the hypothalamic region close to the pituitary (Raffa, 1988; Rastogi et al., 2001). In turn, in the Japanese quail brain, clusters of these distinct neurons were seen localized in the PVN in the hypothalamus, with wide distribution in the diencephalic and mesencephalic regions and the most prominent fibers within the ME (Tsutsui et al.,

2007). Recent studies have confirmed the effects of GnIH in rodents and sheep (Ducret et al., 2009; Johnson et al., 2007; Kriegsfeld et al., 2006; Murakami et al., 2008). Birth-dating and neuronal migration, however, have yet to be examined.

### 7.3. DA

DA is a catecholamine neurotransmitter, which in the pituitary is primarily involved in the inhibition of prolactin (PRL) release. In order to detect DA and the cells that produce it, tyrosine hydroxylase (the rate-limiting enzyme in synthesis of dopamine) expression is used as a surrogate marker. Secretion of PRL is regulated by three populations of hypothalamic dopaminergic neurons, originally identified in rats (DeMaria et al., 1999): (1) the tuberoinfundibular (TIDA) dopaminergic neurons, arising from the dorsomedial ARC and project to the external zone of the median eminence (Bjorklund et al., 1973); (2) tuberohypophysial (THDA) dopaminergic neurons, arising from the rostral ARC and project into the hypothalamic–hypophysial tract and into the intermediate and neural lobes of the pituitary gland (Fuxe, 1964); and (3) the periventricular hypophysial (PHDA) dopaminergic neurons, arising from the more rostral PeVN and their axons terminate within the intermediate region of the pituitary gland (Goudreau et al., 1992). The PHDA neuronal populations control basal regulation of PRL secretion. Early immunohistochemical detection shows the first appearance of dopaminergic neurons at 11.5 dpc in the rat (Daikoku et al., 1984).

Insight into the role of specific transcription factors in the development and differentiation of dopamine neurons, specifically the THDA and PHDA subtypes is limited. The LIM-homeodomain transcription factor *Lmx1a* has been shown to play critical roles in the determination of midbrain dopaminergic neurons during brain development (Failli et al., 2002). More recently, it was identified that *Lmx1a* is expressed at high levels within the posterior hypothalamic area, ventral pre-mammillary nucleus, sub-thalamic nucleus, ventral tegmental area, compact part of the substantia nigra and parabrachial nucleus from birth to adulthood (Zou et al., 2009). However, the exact role of *Lmx1a* in the dopaminergic neurons that regulate secretion of prolactin is yet to be determined. *Otp* has also been found to be a key determinant of hypothalamic differentiation, including the DA neurons (Blechman et al., 2007). Recent studies have begun to uncover the factors that regulate OTP expression and function. In zebrafish, Blechman et al. (2007) have shown that *Otp* is transcriptionally regulated by the zinc finger-containing transcription factor *Fez1*. Furthermore, epistasis and cell culture experiments indicate that signaling via the G-protein-coupled receptor PAC1 increases the level of OTP protein by promoting OTP synthesis. Further research into the role of transcription factors, such as *Lmx1a* and *Otp*, on postnatal maturation, survival and/or function of midbrain dopaminergic neurons will help to provide a better understanding of the complexity of PRL inhibition and its regulation of secretion.

### 7.4. GHRH

GHRH stimulates the release of growth hormone (GH) from the pituitary. GHRH is expressed during the later stages of development and is essential for the expansion of somatotropes. Hypophysiotropic GHRH neurons are confined to the ventrolateral part of the ARC (Niimi et al., 1990; Sawchenko et al., 1985) and first appear at 11.5 dpc in rat (Markakis and Swanson, 1997).

The development and transcriptional control of GHRH neurons has been studied in mouse models using both gene disruption and transgenic approaches. One example of GHRH reduction has been identified using targeted disruption of *Gsh1*, a homeobox gene identified as a direct transcriptional activator of *Ghrh* (Mutsuga et al.,



2001). Targeted disruption of *Gsh1* leads to the complete absence of *Ghrh* expression resulting in severe attenuation of growth and an associated decrease in overall pituitary size (Li et al., 1996). The haematopoietic transcription factor Ikaros is also expressed in GHRH neurons and is required for *Ghrh* expression (Ezzat et al., 2006). In contrast, GHRH over-expression in a mouse model harboring the human GHRH gene coupled to the murine metallothionein I promoter (Hammer et al., 1985) results in massive pituitary hyperplasia and an overabundance of somatotropes (Kineman et al., 2001; Mayo et al., 1988). These transgenic mice also exhibit pituitary tumors, albeit with incomplete penetrance, indicating that sustained elevated GHRH exposure predisposes somatotropes to neoplastic transformation.

#### 7.5. SS

SS acts as an inhibitor of GH and TSH secretion. The inhibition of GH by SS appears to be independent of GHRH, although the precise mechanism remains unknown. GH secretion stimulates somatostatinergic neurons in the PeVN to secrete SS from the nerve terminals located at the ME into the hypothalamo-hypophysial portal circulation for delivery to the AP (Chihara et al., 1981). SS neurons that project into the ME are located within the rostral PeVN and the PVN. They first appear at 12.5 dpc in the rat (Markakis and Swanson, 1997). To date, transcription factors that specifically regulate the differentiation of hypothalamic SS neurons have not been identified, although it is possible that similar pathways to those that control SS neuron differentiation in other parts of the brain (e.g. the cerebral cortex) may be employed (Du et al., 2008).

#### 7.6. TRH

TRH-synthesizing neurons exert multiple, species-dependent hypophysiotropic activities. However, for the purpose of this review, we will focus on the effects of TRH on TSH. Anatomically, the TRH neuroendocrine cells are situated in the hypothalamic PVN. TRH stimulates the secretion of TSH from the anterior pituitary thereby initiating thyroid hormone synthesis and release from the thyroid gland (Engel and Gershengorn, 2007; Nikrodhanond et al., 2006). TRH, identified by mRNA expression of the biosynthetic precursor pre-pro-TRH, was initially localized within the rat lateral hypothalamus at 13.5 dpc, and in the presumptive PVN at 15.5 dpc (Burgunder and Taylor, 1989). Immunohistochemical analysis of the TRH peptide revealed the first TRH-immunoreactive perikarya at 16.5 dpc as well as 17.5 dpc within the presumptive PVN (Okamura et al., 1991). There are four populations of TRH neurons (appearing at different developmental stages in the rat): (1) lateral hypothalamus (14.5 dpc); (2) VMN (15.5 dpc); (3) PVN (16.5 dpc); and (4) the POA (17.5 dpc). Thus, the differentiation and development of these neuronal populations will differ. Additionally, the identity and origin of the cues that direct TRH neuronal differentiation are poorly understood. However, it has been shown that brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) effects TRH neuronal differentiation by tropomyosin-related kinase B receptors during early development (Huang and Reichardt, 2001). BDNF also regulates the expression of pre-pro-TRH throughout development and into postnatal life in the rat (Ubieta et al., 2007).

#### 7.7. CRH

CRH-synthesizing neurons are the principal hypothalamic regulators of the glucocorticoid axis and, like the TRH-synthesizing neurons, are closely situated in the hypothalamic PVN. Immunohistochemical analysis in rat embryos shows CRH expression as early as 15.5 dpc, with immunopositive fibers seen at 16.5 dpc in the ME (Daikoku et al., 1984). *Crh* mRNA expression studies have

also identified CRH expressing cells from 16.5 dpc (Grino et al., 1989). Given that most CRH neurons are born at around 13.5 dpc (Markakis and Swanson, 1997), it appears that approximately 3 days is required for CRH neuron differentiation. While this process is poorly understood, one protein that has been shown to be required for generating CRH neurons is the homeodomain transcription factor OTP (Acampora et al., 1999). As discussed above, *Otp* is expressed in the developing PVN, SON, aPeVN and ARC and mutants lack CRH, as well as TRH and SS neurons (Acampora et al., 1999).

#### 7.8. Other hypothalamic releasing hormones

In addition to the well-characterized hypothalamic releasing/inhibiting hormones, described above, there are several other hypothalamic specific factors that play a role during hypothalamic neuron differentiation and development and impact on pituitary function. For simplicity, we will not examine the other hypothalamic releasing/inhibiting hormones in this review because our purpose is to provide an in-depth review that covers hypophysiotropic factors that have a direct impact in AP function. However, of the well-characterized hypothalamic releasing/inhibiting hormones it is worth briefly mentioning kisspeptins. Kisspeptins, a family of peptides that activate G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCR), are strongly implicated in puberty onset as well as in the regulation of the hypothalamo-pituitary gonadal axis in mammals (Mikkelsen and Simonneaux, 2008). By directly stimulating GnRH release and subsequent LH release (Messenger et al., 2005), achieved through a GPCR (KISS1R), kisspeptins prepare entry into puberty and the pre-ovulatory LH surge. Kisspeptin neurons located in discrete regions of the hypothalamus make close appositions with GnRH. However, the distribution of neurons varies between species.

#### 8. Summary and future perspectives

The past decade has witnessed significant progress in the identification of genetic determinants that control hypothalamic development. Although the full cast of characters is yet to be identified, it is clear that distinct sets of transcription factors play a role in the differentiation of hypothalamic progenitor cells into neurons and the commitment of subsets of neurons into cells that secrete hypophysiotropic factors. These factors provide an important framework for further functional studies that may lead to the generation of a transcriptional code for hypothalamic development. This process will likely be informed by parallel studies of other brain regions where knowledge of neuronal subtype specification and differentiation is further advanced. While parallel studies will provide useful intellectual synergy, it will also be necessary to focus on the discovery of novel hypophysiotropic cell molecules and pathways. This will be facilitated by recent advances in molecular and cellular biology including the identification of hypothalamic transcription factor gene targets using ChIP sequencing analysis, directed differentiation of ES cells into hypothalamic neuronal fates (Wataya et al., 2008) and characterization of novel mouse models using N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea (ENU) mutagenesis. Together, these approaches will help address critical issues such as the role of morphogens in establishing regional identity in the hypothalamic primordium, the timing and mechanism of parvicellular neuronal subtype specification, and the composition of the genetic program controlling terminal differentiation. As the role of new hypothalamic genes is deciphered it may become possible to detect patterns that will lead to a clearer understanding of brain development and evolution of the neuroendocrine system. This information will also advance our understanding of the molecular pathogenesis of hypothalamic dysfunction in humans and, perhaps, lead to improved therapies for related disorders.

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