

Oscillating signaling pathways during embryonic development

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Oscillatory signaling pathway activity during embryonic development was first identified in the process of vertebrate somite formation. In mouse, this process is thought to be largely controlled by a cyclic signaling network involving the Notch, FGF, and Wnt pathways. Surprisingly, several recent genetic studies reveal that the core oscillation pacemaker is unlikely to involve periodic activation by these pathways. The mechanism(s) responsible for the production of oscillatory gene activity during somite formation remains, therefore, to be discovered. Oscillatory signaling activity has recently been identified in developmental processes distinct from somite formation. Both the processes of limb development in chick embryos and the maintenance of neural progenitors in mouse embryos involve oscillatory gene activity related to the Notch pathway. These discoveries indicate that oscillatory signaling activities during embryonic development might serve a more general function than previously thought.

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Introduction

Embryonic development is intrinsically dynamic. After fertilization, the embryo relentlessly changes its shape and new patterns emerge constantly, while countless developmental programs are activated simultaneously. It is breathtaking to observe the precision and beauty of development and to consider the underlying complexity of signals that regulate this process. This complexity is not only derived from the large number of involved gene products and their numerous and multifaceted interactions, but also from their precise spatial and temporal control during embryogenesis. In this review, we will discuss the recent findings that address the phenomenon of oscillating gene regulation in three distinct develop-

mental processes: somitogenesis, limb development, and neural progenitor maintenance.

Oscillating gene regulation during somitogenesis

Somitogenesis — the periodic formation of the vertebrae precursors — is a striking example of a dynamic embryonic process that relies on precise spatial and temporal control of gene expression. In 1997, the oscillatory expression of *c-hairy 1*, a homolog of the drosophila pair-rule gene *hairy*, was identified in the paraxial presomitic mesoderm (PSM) of chick embryos [1]. Strikingly, the period of oscillatory gene expression matches the period of somite formation. Therefore, these transcriptional oscillations were proposed to reveal the activity of an underlying clock, called the segmentation clock. While the role of the segmentation clock during the process of somitogenesis has not as yet been conclusively established, it is believed that the clock generates a rhythmic signal which controls the periodic production of somites from the PSM. Since this initial discovery, it has been shown that target genes of the Notch-signaling and Wnt-signaling pathways undergo oscillatory expression in the PSM of mouse embryos [2]. In addition, periodic fibroblast growth factor (Fgf) signaling has been recently observed in the PSM [3[•],4^{••},5^{••}]. Thus, several interconnected signaling pathways appear to constitute a complex, oscillating signaling network involved in somitogenesis [6]. The scale of this network was analyzed in a genome-wide search for cyclic genes in the PSM of mouse embryos [4^{••}]. Approximately 50 genes, whose transcripts show an oscillatory expression in the PSM with a periodicity that correlates with somite production, have been identified through this approach. With the identification of more oscillating players and pathways, the current challenge is to understand how these multiple pathways interact. A key question in this field, however, is to understand how oscillations are generated in the first place, or in other words, what mechanism underlies the core oscillator? On the basis of experimental [4^{••},5^{••},7–9] and theoretical evidence [10,11], three distinct circuits have been proposed to act as the clock pacemaker in mouse: first, Notch/hairy and enhancer of split 7 (Hes7)/Lunatic fringe (Lfng), second, Wnt/ β -catenin, and third, Fgf/dual specificity phosphatase [Dusp]. Here, we will discuss the recent results which challenge the role of these three circuits within the core oscillator.

Notch signaling does not appear to be part of the core oscillator mechanism

Strikingly, all the oscillating pathways identified thus far — Notch, Wnt, and Fgf — generate various negative

feedback loops that, in theory, could generate oscillations of their activity. In fact, several downstream targets with oscillatory expression are known inhibitors of the pathways that induce their expression. Such simple feedback mechanisms can generate oscillations, provided the inclusion of a delay in the process [10], and for the Notch pathway, experimental evidence exists that supports this proposal [12–14]. For instance, in mouse embryos, the cyclic Notch target gene *Hes7* acts as a repressor of its own transcription [15]. Its inactivation in mutant mice results in an arrest of *Lfng* oscillations (which act downstream of Notch signaling) and in an upregulation of the *Hes7* promoter because of the lack of the *Hes7* repressive activity [8]. Furthermore, stabilization of *Hes7* protein *in vivo* disrupts Notch-signaling oscillations as predicted by a mathematical model based on delayed feedback [16]. However, in the absence of RBP-Jk, which results in blocking Notch signaling, *Hes7* oscillations are still observed in the posterior PSM [5•]. Thus, while a *Hes7*-based feedback mechanism is in place in the PSM, Notch signaling does not appear to be required to activate this circuit. Furthermore, the *Hes7*-feedback mechanism is not essential to generate oscillations of Wnt signaling. Thus, mice mutant for *Hes7* show clear evidence of ongoing *Axin2* oscillations, a *bona fide* cyclic Wnt target in the PSM [16]. In conclusion, it appears that the *Hes7*-dependent feedback loop does not act as the pacemaker of the core oscillator in mouse embryos.

A second Notch-based mechanism involving a negative feedback loop based on the glycosyl-transferase *Lfng* has been proposed based on the gain-of-function experiments in chick embryo [7]. In mouse and chick embryos, *Lfng* is a downstream target of the Notch pathway and its overexpression in the chick embryo by *in ovo* electroporation results in an inhibition of Notch signaling. This led to the suggestion that *Lfng* is involved in a negative feedback loop controlling Notch periodic activation in the PSM. These data were further supported by genetic evidence which indicates that Notch1 intracellular domain (NICD) expression loses its oscillatory pattern and becomes steadily expressed throughout the PSM when *Lfng* is mutated in mice [17], a condition that was previously shown to cause defects in somite formation [18,19]. Additionally, by selectively deleting an enhancer domain shown to control *Lfng* oscillatory expression [20,21], Shifley *et al.* generated mutant mouse embryos in which only the oscillatory domain of *Lfng* expression was absent, while the anterior stripes remained unaffected [22•]. As observed in the *Lfng*-null embryos [17], this mutation abolished NICD oscillations in the PSM [22•], supporting the existence of a negative feedback mechanism in the PSM. However, this selective deletion of only the oscillatory expression resulted in a very mild defect in somite formation compared to the null mutation [18,19] and was limited to the cervical and thoracic axial regions [22•]. In addition, both the loss of *Lfng* [5•], and the overexpression

of *Lfng* in transgenic mice using a PSM-specific promoter fail to inhibit *Hes7* cyclic transcription [23]. Together, these results indicate that the *Lfng*-based negative feedback loop is not required to drive segmentation clock oscillations.

A recent report reveals that in mouse embryos, even the constitutive activation of Notch signaling does not prevent Wnt-signaling oscillations [24•]. In these experiments, NICD, which mediates Notch-signaling activity [25] and which shows oscillatory protein levels in the PSM of wild-type embryos [17,26], was constitutively expressed under the control of a PSM-specific promoter in transgenic mice. This led to a steady expression of the Notch targets *Lfng* and *Hes7*, but under these conditions the Wnt target *Axin2* still showed dynamic expression [24•].

Together, these data argue that Notch signaling is not part of the segmentation clock pacemaker. This view is also supported by recent data obtained in zebrafish embryos, which argue against a role for Notch signaling in the generation of the segmentation clock oscillations [27–29]. These data indicate that a key function of Notch signaling is to synchronize oscillations among PSM cells (reviewed in [30]), as suggested previously [31].

A β -catenin-based feedback circuit is not essential for oscillator activity in the PSM

Wnt-signaling pathway oscillations are maintained in Notch mouse mutants indicating that they are not dependent on Notch signaling. Furthermore, Wnt signaling has been shown to act upstream of Notch oscillations [9,32,33] since, for instance, both Notch and Wnt oscillations are disrupted in the *Wnt3a* mutant *vestigial tail (vt)* [9]. What role does Wnt signaling play in the core oscillator? As proposed for the Notch-signaling pathway, it has been hypothesized that a negative feedback mechanism underlies the oscillatory output of the Wnt pathway [9,11]. Several Wnt inhibitors with oscillating expression have been identified in the PSM. Some of these, including *Axin2*, *dickkopf* homolog 1 (*Dkk1*), or *dapper* homolog 1 (*Dact1*), function upstream of β -catenin, the key mediator of canonical Wnt signaling [34]. Thus, the cyclic expression of these inhibitors should result in the periodic destabilization of β -catenin. However, no evidence of such oscillations in β -catenin protein levels in the PSM could be obtained. In contrast, β -catenin is expressed as a clear posterior-to-anterior protein gradient in the PSM during all phases of the segmentation clock cycle [35•]. A dynamic output of Wnt signaling is still observed even when a stabilized form of β -catenin is conditionally expressed in the PSM [35•]. Most strikingly, under these experimental conditions, ongoing oscillations of the Notch pathway are clearly observed [35•,36•]. Real-time imaging experiments using a fluorescent reporter system demonstrate the occurrence of

transcriptional oscillations controlled by the *Lfng* promoter in mutant mouse embryos with constitutive expression of β -catenin [35**]. Therefore, this argues against a role of a β -catenin-based negative feedback loop in the pacemaker of the segmentation clock.

A Fgf-based feedback mechanism is unlikely to be the core oscillator mechanism

Finally, what is the status of knowledge about Fgf signaling in this context? The observation that several Fgf inhibitors, such as Sprouty2 or Dusp6 and Dusp4, are expressed in an oscillatory fashion in phase with Notch cyclic genes led to the suggestion that FGF signaling is periodically regulated in the PSM. In addition, FGF signaling has been shown to be required in order for segmentation clock activity to occur, since all oscillatory activities of Fgf, Wnt, and Notch pathways cease when Fgf signaling is abolished in the PSM [5**,37**]. In this respect, FGF behaves similarly to Wnt signaling, which has also been shown to be absolutely required for segmentation clock activity [9,32,36**]. Genetic evidence in mice, however, suggests that the absence of Fgf signaling can be compensated by elevated canonical Wnt signaling. Accordingly, while in mice mutant for Fgfr1 oscillations of *Lfng* are absent [5**,37**], dynamic expression of *Lfng* appears to be restored if stabilized β -catenin is over-expressed in Fgfr1 mutants [35**].

A feedback mechanism involving the Dusp4 or Dusp6 inhibitors of extracellular-regulated kinase (ERK) activity [38,39] has been proposed to generate FGF-signaling oscillations in the PSM [4**,5**]. In *Hes7* mutants, the constitutive expression of Dusp4 is observed [5**]; yet, Wnt signaling still oscillates in these mutants [16], indicating that a Dusp4-based feedback mechanism is unlikely to be part of the core oscillator, as well. Recent cell culture experiments have led to propose yet another potential mechanism for the generation of periodic FGF signaling, involving negative feedback via ERK-dependent son of sevenless homolog 1 (SOS1) inactivation [40]. It will be important to evaluate the physiological role of this feedback *in vivo*.

In summary, the results of these genetic experiments indicate that Notch, Wnt/ β -catenin, or Fgf negative feedback mechanisms are unlikely to constitute the core pacemaker of the segmentation clock. Whether the identified network of cyclic genes is actually entrained by a yet unknown pacemaker remains to be investigated.

Oscillatory gene activity during development is not restricted to the paraxial mesoderm

Autopod limb outgrowth

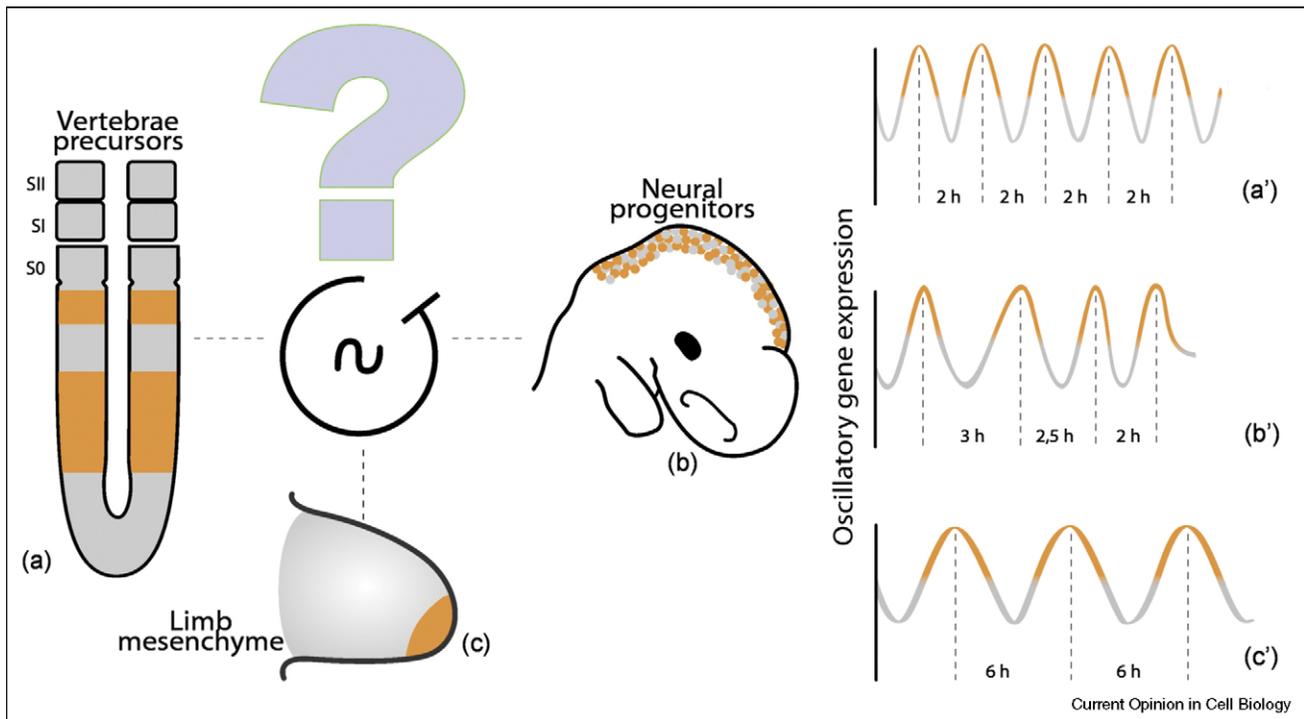
Clear oscillatory gene expression during development was first identified within the PSM and associated with the process of embryonic segmentation. Other segmented structures are found in the embryo, but whether similar

oscillatory processes are involved in their patterning has been only recently addressed. For example, the vertebrate limb has often been considered a segmented structure along the proximo-distal axis because it is composed of repeated elements including the stylopod, the zeugopod, and periodic elements in the autopod (e.g. the phalanges). In chick embryos, Pascoal *et al.* have identified the periodic expression of *hairy 2* during limb outgrowth [41**]. The period of these transcriptional oscillations has been determined to be 6 hours, while a new autopod limb element is formed every 12 hours. Accordingly, the authors postulate that a new limb element forms every two oscillations [41**]. Thus, as in somitogenesis, the observed oscillations relate to the production of limb elements, although the correlation cycle is not as clear as that observed during somitogenesis. The role of this limb clock in the periodic production of limb elements remains to be established.

Hes1 oscillations in neural progenitors in the mouse brain

The observation of oscillations of the Hairy and enhancer of split homolog 1 (*Hes1*) in cultured fibroblasts [42] subjected to a serum shock led to the realization that such transcriptional oscillations might occur more frequently *in vivo* than initially thought. A recent report which reveals oscillatory mRNA and protein expression of *Hes1* in neural progenitor cells located in the telencephalon of mouse embryos further argues in this direction [43**]. In contrast to oscillations during somitogenesis and limb outgrowth, oscillations of *Hes1* in neural progenitors are not synchronized between cells and show variable periods (Figure 1). Thus, these oscillations remained undetected by classical methods (e.g. *in situ* hybridization). Shimojo and colleagues discovered these oscillations with the help of real-time imaging technology, allowing them to track *Hes1* promoter activity using a bioluminescent approach in transgenic embryos [43,44*]. Interestingly, while *Hes1* expression is required to maintain the neural progenitor population and prevent differentiation, the presence of *Hes1* also inhibits progression through the cell cycle. Thus, the authors propose that the function of *Hes1* oscillatory expression is to provide enough *Hes1* to prevent neuronal differentiation, while simultaneously, to periodically downregulate *Hes1* in cells that are in the G1-phase, hereby allowing these cells to progress through the cell cycle. The authors demonstrate that *Hes1* expression depends on the Jak-Stat pathway, which, in turn, has been proposed previously to be involved in neural progenitor maintenance [45]. Interestingly, the Jak-Stat pathway has been shown *in vitro* to activate *Hes1* oscillations in cultured fibroblasts involving a feedback mechanism [46]. Again, it will be exciting to test *in vivo* the significance of this feedback.

Figure 1



Schematic representation of oscillatory gene expression during embryonic development. Currently, the processes shown to involve oscillatory expression include somite formation (a, a'), neural progenitor maintenance in mouse embryo brain (b, b'), and limb development (c, c'). The core oscillator(s) which generates cyclic gene activity has yet to be identified. Oscillations in gene activity are regular and are synchronized between neighboring cells during somite formation (a', period approximately two hours) and limb development (c', period six hours). In contrast, oscillations in neural progenitors in the mouse embryo brain are not synchronized between neighboring cells and show varying periodicities (b', average period approximately three hours).

Conclusion

Ten years after the discovery of oscillatory gene activity during somitogenesis, the underlying core oscillator has yet to be identified. In addition, a future challenge is to comprehensively characterize the network of oscillating signaling pathways and to precisely characterize the role of this network during somite formation. The discovery of oscillatory gene activity during several developmental processes — somitogenesis, limb outgrowth, and neural progenitor maintenance — suggests that oscillatory gene expression might be more widespread during embryonic development than initially thought. Since this oscillatory activity does not necessarily need to be synchronized within a cell population, it is a challenge to identify these phenomena using traditional visualization techniques. Thus, the technical advance in revealing gene activity in real-time will be instrumental in approaching these dynamic phenomena during embryonic development.

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