FGF-8 stimulates neuronal differentiation through FGFR-4a and interferes with mesoderm induction in *Xenopus* embryos

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The role of fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) in neural induction is controversial [1,2]. Although FGF signalling has been implicated in early neural induction [3-5], a late role for FGFs in neural development is not well established. Indeed, it is thought that FGFs induce a precursor cell fate but are not able to induce neuronal differentiation or late neural markers [6-8]. It is also not known whether the same or distinct FGFs and FGF receptors (FGFRs) mediate the effects on mesoderm and neural development. We report that Xenopus embryos expressing ectopic FGF-8 develop an abundance of ectopic neurons that extend to the ventral, non-neural, ectoderm, but show no ectopic or enhanced notochord or somitic markers. FGF-8 inhibited the expression of an early mesoderm marker, Xbra, in contrast to eFGF, which induced ectopic Xbra robustly and neuronal differentiation weakly. The effect of FGF-8 on neurogenesis was blocked by dominant-negative FGFR-4a (Δ XFGFR-4a). Endogenous neurogenesis was also blocked by $\Delta XFGFR-4a$ and less efficiently by dominant-negative FGFR-1 (XFD), suggesting that it depends preferentially on signalling through FGFR-4a. The results suggest that FGF-8 and FGFR-4a signalling promotes neurogenesis and, unlike other FGFs, FGF-8 interferes with mesoderm induction. Thus, different FGFs show specificity for mesoderm induction versus neurogenesis and this may be mediated, at least in part, by the use of distinct receptors.

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Received: 18 August 2000 Revised: 19 September 2000 Accepted: 4 October 2000

Published: 17 November 2000

Current Biology 2000, 10:1511-1514

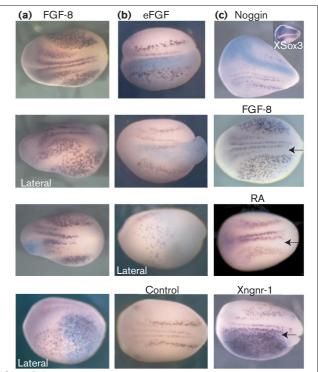
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Results and discussion

We injected *FGF-8* RNA (90–270 pg) into one cell of the two-cell stage embryo and assayed for the expression of an early neuronal marker, *N-tubulin* (Figure 1a). Embryos gastrulated normally and the gross morphology of the neurula stage was normal. At the high dose range, there was a narrowing of the anterior neural plate and an enlargement of the proctodeum (Figure 1a), reported previously for

FGF-8 [9] and *eFGF* overexpression [10], respectively. Despite the near normal overall morphology, embryos injected with *FGF-8* RNA showed abundant ectopic *N-tubulin* (Figure 1a; 90%, n = 89). The ectopic *N-tubulin* was always more widespread than the coinjected cell-autonomous lineage tracer *lacZ*, as would be predicted if FGF-8 could diffuse from the site of injection (Figure 1a). Indeed, subsequent experiments showed that the cell non-autonomous signal is likely to be FGF-8 itself (see below). In *FGF-8*-injected embryos, ectopic *N-tubulin* spread well into the ventral epidermis but did not enter the anterior or extreme posterior end of the embryo even

Figure 1



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(a) Embryos injected with FGF-8/LacZ RNA show abundant ectopic neurogenesis. (b) Compared with FGF-8, eFGF RNA had a very weak effect on neurogenesis. Although some ectopic N-tubulin formed, the percentage of the affected embryos was lower (see text) and the phenotype less severe. The posterior elongation seen in the second eFGF panel was observed in approximately 50% of the high dose eFGF RNA injected embryos (n = 25) and was not seen in FGF-8 RNA-injected embryos. (c) Comparison of FGF-8 activity to that of noggin, RA, and X-ngnr1 (see text). Black arrows point to the interstripe region. All panels show expression of N-tubulin with the exception of the inset (XSox3). In all panels anterior is to the left and most panels show dorsal views, lateral views are indicated.

when *FGF-8* RNA was localised there (Figure 1a and data not shown).

We next determined whether any other early neural inducer would have a similar effect in neurogenesis. Noggin is a bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) antagonist, with dorsalising and neuralising activities in the frog and neural-maintaining properties in the chick (reviewed in [2]). As expected, noggin RNA-injected embryos showed ectopic neural tissue formation expressing XSox3, a marker of neural precursor cells (Figure 1c, inset). This was either continuous with the host neural tissue or associated with a secondary axis, depending on whether the noggin RNA was targeted to the dorsal or ventral side of the embryo, respectively. However, in either case, there was no increased N-tubulin associated with the increased neural tissue, in contrast to the FGF-8-injected embryos (compare Figure 1c with Figure 1a). We suggest that FGF-8 has an additional role over that of other, BMP-antagonising, neural inducers, which initiate neural induction but do not promote subsequent neuronal differentiation. Our findings do not exclude an early role for FGF-8 in neural induction that may involve BMP inhibition.

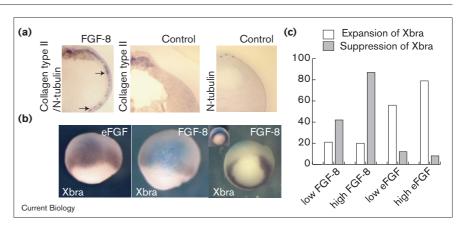
FGF-8 shares, with retinoic acid (RA), the ability to posteriorise the embryo and, with neuronal determination factors, such as *neurogenin* (*X-ngnr-1*), the ability to promote ectopic neurogenesis. However, the neuronalinducing activity of *FGF-8* differs from both of these molecules. In the neural plate stage embryo, *N-tubulin* expression appears in a stereotypical pattern of three stripes on either side of the axial midline of the posterior neural plate and is excluded from the anterior neural plate (Figure 1b, control). Unlike *FGF-8*, RA treatment results in ectopic *N-tubulin* in the anterior end of the embryo but not in the ventral epidermis (Figure 1c and [11]). Unlike FGF-8, X-ngnr-1 induces N-tubulin in the region between the normal stripes of N-tubulin expression, as well as in the anterior neural plate (Figure 1c and [12]). Thus, the role of FGF-8 signalling may be limited to promoting N-tubulin expression to the dorsal, as opposed to the lateral and ventral sides of the embryo. The FGF-8 phenotype is very similar to that obtained with overexpression of a neuronal inducing and patterning factor, XBF-1 [13]. However, no ectopic XBF-1 was induced by FGF-8 in the posterior neural plate (data not shown).

Neuronal differentiation is promoted by a signal from the axial and/or paraxial mesoderm [14,15]. Several members of the FGF family are potent mesoderm inducers; therefore, any effects on neurogenesis could represent an indirect effect through re-specification of the mesoderm. To test this, we performed animal pole injections of eFGF RNA, a potent mesoderm inducer most related to FGF4 and 6 [10,16]. We found that eFGF was much less potent than FGF-8 in inducing ectopic N-tubulin (Figure 1b). For example, at 90 pg injected RNA, FGF-8 expanded and induced ectopic neurogenesis in 90% of the embryos (n = 40) whereas *eFGF* had a similar effect in only 51% of the embryos (n = 54). Importantly, this percentage was not significantly affected by a threefold increase in the quantity of *eFGF* RNA (45%, n = 26). Although more difficult to quantitate, eFGF was also less effective when judged by the range of its action as well as by the number of ectopic N-tubulin cells formed (for example, compare Figure 1a with Figure 1b).

To exclude further an indirect effect of FGF-8 on neurogenesis through expansion of the inducing mesoderm, we examined the expression of *collagen type II*, a marker of

Figure 2

(a) FGF-8 induces ectopic N-tubulin without inducing ectopic collagen type II. Control and FGF-8 RNA-injected embryos were hybridised with probes to collagen type II and N-tubulin (doubly or singly, as indicated) and sectioned. In all embryos, ectopic N-tubulin (black arrow) was not underlain by ectopic collagen type II. (b) Qualitatively different effect of eFGF and FGF-8 on Xbra expression. Injection of eFGF/lacZ RNA expanded Xbra whereas injection of FGF-8/lacZ RNA suppressed Xbra. Control lacZ injections had no effect on Xbra (inset). (c) Suppression of Xbra by FGF-8 and induction of Xbra by eFGF is dose dependent. A representative experiment is shown. The concentration difference between the low and high dose was threefold for both FGF-8 and eFGF. Expansion of Xbra in response to FGF-8 differed from that obtained with eFGF in that it was weaker in intensity



and did not extend to the animal pole. In some *FGF-8* RNA-injected embryos, both suppression and expansion of *Xbra* was

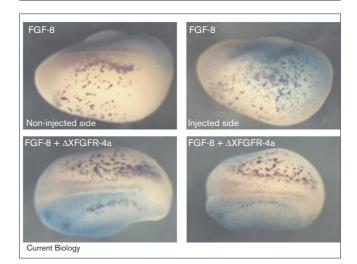
observed in the same embryo. Low FGF-8, n = 14; high FGF-8, n = 15; low eFGF, n = 16; high eFGF, n = 24.

notochord and somites, in *FGF-8*-injected embryos. Double staining with *collagen type II* and *N-tubulin* showed that ectopic *N-tubulin* (73%, n = 11) did not correlate with ectopic axial or paraxial mesoderm (0%, n = 11). Instead, the expression of *collagen type II* was normal both in its spatial distribution and level of expression in the majority of the embryos (74%, n = 11; Figure 2a). To exclude an earlier expansion of prospective mesoderm, we examined the expression of the early mesodermal marker *Xbra* in the gastrula. Injection of *FGF-8* RNA caused a very weak expansion of *Xbra* in a minority of cases (see Figure 2c). This is consistent with findings in other assays where FGF-8 has been shown to induce mesoderm very weakly (for example, in animal caps [9]) or not at all (for example, in chick epiblast [8]).

In some FGF-8-injected embryos, expression of collagen type II was reduced on the injected side (26%, n = 11). In addition, at the high end of the dose range, there was a significant incidence of spina bifida (41%, n = 65), characteristic of interference with posterior mesoderm development [17]. Consistent with the effect of FGF-8 on collagen type II, injection of FGF-8 suppressed Xbra expression in gastrula embryos (Figure 2b) in a dose-dependent manner (48%, *n* = 44 at 90 pg; 93%, *n* = 45 at 270 pg). In contrast, there was no significant suppression of Xbra with eFGF at either low or high concentration (a representative experiment is shown in Figure 2c). Instead, eFGF was very efficient in inducing enhanced and ectopic Xbra, as expected (Figure 2b,c; [16]). Thus, not only is FGF-8 a poor mesoderm inducer but it appears to interfere with the normal process of mesoderm induction. This finding was surprising as all FGFs tested so far have had a positive role on mesoderm induction (reviewed in [18]). Taken together, these results demonstrate that the observed effect of increased and ectopic neurogenesis appears to be independent of an expansion of the inducing mesoderm and, therefore, likely to reflect a direct effect on the ectoderm. Our results also reveal a qualitative difference between the actions of FGF-8 and eFGF, with FGF-8 acting as a potent neuronal inducer but a poor mesodermal inducer whereas eFGF acts as a poor neuronal inducer but a potent mesodermal inducer.

Several types of FGFRs have been identified in vertebrates but the specificity of their biological effects is not well understood (reviewed in [19]). Because these receptors act as dimers, deleting the intracellular signaling domain has been an efficient way to create dominantnegative versions [17]. FGF-8 was found to have a high affinity for FGFR-4 in a cell culture mitogenic assay [20]. Therefore, we determined whether Δ XFGFR-4a would block the effects of FGF-8 on neurogenesis; Δ XFGFR-4a RNA was coinjected with FGF-8, and *lacZ* RNA as a lineage tracer. The effect of FGF-8 on neurogenesis could be efficiently blocked by Δ XFGFR-4a (75% in a

Figure 3

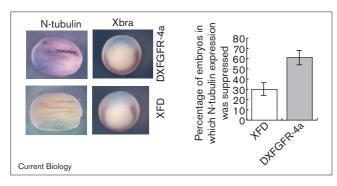


Blocking signalling through FGFR-4a with Δ XFGFR-4a rescues the effect of FGF-8 on neurogenesis. Embryos were injected unilaterally at the two-cell stage with *FGF-8* or *FGF-8* plus Δ XFGFR-4a RNA. All were coinjected with *lacZ* and hybridised with *N-tubulin*. Top panels show side views of the same embryo; lower panels show a dorsal view of two embryos. When *FGF-8* was coinjected with Δ XFGFR-4a, ectopic *N-tubulin* was abolished and endogenous *N-tubulin* was reduced. Note that abundant ectopic neurogenesis was still observed on the uninjected side, suggesting that it responds directly to FGF-8.

1:4 FGF-8: ΔX FGFR-4a ratio, n = 16; 86% in a 1:6 ratio, n = 78). The rescue was cell autonomous as would be predicted because ΔX FGFR-4a contains the membranespanning domain of the receptor (Figure 3). Interestingly, areas of the ectoderm that had not inherited ΔX FGFR-4a RNA (shown as non-*lacZ*-stained areas) continued to show increased *N*-tubulin expression, demonstrating that they responded to FGF-8 rather than a secondary signal produced by the FGF-8-expressing cells (Figure 3).

Recently, $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a has been shown to work better than dominant-negative FGFR-1 (XFD) in blocking the expression of pan-neural and regionalised neural markers specifically in the anterior neural plate [5]. However, the effect of $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a on neuronal differentiation in the posterior neural plate has not been examined. We found that $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a was very effective in blocking endogenous *N-tubulin* (Figure 4, n = 136). XFD was, on average, half as effective in blocking the expression of endogenous *N-tubulin* (Figure 4, n = 193). This could be explained if FGF-8 signals preferentially through FGFR-4a and to a lesser extent through FGFR-1, consistent with the results in a mitogenic assay [20]. In contrast, XFD was very effective in blocking the expression of Xbra, as previously reported (100%, n = 51) [21]. We found that $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a was also very efficient in blocking Xbra expression (100%, n = 41; Figure 4).

Figure 4



Both $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a (90 pg) and XFD (140 pg) were very effective in blocking Xbra expression (100%, n = 51 for XFD; n = 41 for $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a). Using the same concentrations, $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a was more effective in blocking N-tubulin expression. Measurements of N-tubulin suppression represent the average percentage of seven experiments. XFD, n = 193; $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a, n = 136.

In conclusion, our results suggest a novel role of FGF-8 in regulating a late step of neural induction in Xenopus, such as neuronal differentiation. An indication that FGFs may have a role in neuronal differentiation during development in other species also comes from the recent observation that, in zebrafish FGF-8 mutants (Ace), certain forebrain neuronal clusters are missing [22], and from data in the mouse [23]. Our results show that FGF-8 and eFGF exert a positive inductive effect preferentially on neurogenesis and mesoderm formation, respectively. Our results also suggest that the specificity is due, at least in part, to the use of different types of FGF receptor, with FGFR-4a preferentially mediating the effects of FGF(s) on neuronal differentiation. FGF-8 is expressed in the early neurula in two domains located in the anterior and posterior ends of the embryo [9]. In our experiments, FGF-8 has been able to exert a long-range effect, which our results suggest are mediated by FGF-8 itself. The Xenopus FGFR-4a was recently shown to be expressed widely in the early nervous system [5]. Therefore, both receptor and ligand are in the right place at the right time to affect neuronal differentiation in the developing embryo.

Materials and methods

XFD is described in [17] and Δ XFGFR-4a in [5]. XeFGF was cloned in pSP64T by E. Amaya. The FGF-8 used here is described in [9] and corresponds to 'variant 1', the same as the FGF-8b isoform of mammalian FGF-8.

Supplementary material

Supplementary material including additional methodological detail is available at http://current-biology.com/supmat/supmatin.htm.

Acknowledgements

We thank our colleagues for being generous with reagents, in particular B. Christen and J. Slack for FGF-8, H. Okamoto for $\Delta XFGFR$ -4a, E. Amaya and S. Nutt for XFD and 64T-XeFGF. We apologise to all colleagues whose references we could not cite due to space limitations. We thank E. Amaya and S. Nutt for discussions. N.P. and Z.H. are supported by the Wellcome Trust

and A.D.C. by an MRC postdoctoral fellowship. The work was supported by the Wellcome Trust and by an equipment grant by the Royal Society.

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