



Increased production of intestinal immunoglobulins in Syntenin-1-deficient mice



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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 19 September 2014

Accepted 8 December 2014

Available online 17 December 2014

Keywords:

Antibodies

B cells

Knockout mice

Mucosal immunity

Syntenin-1

ABSTRACT

Syntenin-1 is an intracellular PDZ protein that binds multiple proteins and regulates protein trafficking, cancer metastasis, exosome production, synaptic formation, and IL-5 signaling. However, the functions of Syntenin-1 have not yet been clearly characterized in detail, especially *in vivo*. In this study, we generated a *Syntenin-1* knock out (KO) mouse strain and analyzed the role(s) of Syntenin-1 in IL-5 signaling, because the direct interaction of Syntenin-1 with the cytoplasmic domain of the IL-5 receptor α subunit and the regulation of IL-5 signaling by Syntenin-1 have been reported. Unexpectedly, the number of IL-5-responding cells was normal and the levels of fecal immunoglobulins were rather higher in the *Syntenin-1* KO mice. We also found that IgA and IgM production of splenic B cells stimulated *in vitro* was increased in *Syntenin-1* KO mice. In addition, we showed that a distribution of intestinal microbial flora was influenced in *Syntenin-1* KO mice. Our data indicate that Syntenin-1 negatively regulates the intestinal immunoglobulin production and has a function to maintain the intestinal homeostasis *in vivo*. The analysis of *Syntenin-1* KO mice may provide novel information on not only mucosal immunity but also other functions of Syntenin-1 such as cancer metastasis and neural development.

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Introduction

Syntenin-1 (Syndecan-binding protein, Sdcbp) was first identified as an intracellular scaffold protein interacting with the transmembrane heparan sulfate syndecans (Grootjans et al., 1997).

It was also termed melanoma differentiation-associated gene-9 (MDA-9), which promoted cancer metastasis by regulating cell adhesion (Boukerche et al., 2005, 2007, 2008; Lin et al., 1998). Subsequently, Syntenin-1 has been reported to act as a multifunctional intracellular adapter protein and to regulate protein trafficking and recycling (Zimmermann et al., 2005), Notch signaling (Estrach et al., 2007), IL-5 signaling (Beekman et al., 2009; Geijssen et al., 2001), T cell chemotaxis (Sala-Valdes et al., 2012), HIV infection (Gordon-Alonso et al., 2012), exosome production (Baietti et al., 2012), and synaptic formation in CNS (Hirbec et al., 2005; Jannatipour et al., 2001; Ohno et al., 2004). Additionally, we previously found that extracellular Syntenin-1 in human colostrum could preferentially induce IgA production from cord blood naive B cells (Sira et al., 2009).

IL-5/IL-5R signaling, one of the pathways interacting with Syntenin-1, was reported to maintain mouse B-1 B cells and promote secretion of mucosal IgA (Moon et al., 2004). IL-5 also promotes eosinophil differentiation in humans and mice (Hiroi et al., 1999; Kopf et al., 1996; Moon et al., 2004; Yoshida et al., 1996). Structurally, IL-5R consists of two distinct subunits, an

Abbreviations: BAC, bacterial artificial chromosome; bp, base pair; CNS, central nervous system; ES, embryonic stem; IL-5R α , interleukin-5 receptor α subunit; KO, knock out; L-LP, large intestinal lamina propria; LP, lamina propria; PC, peritoneal cavity; PDZ, PSD-95/Discs large/zO-1; PEC, peritoneal exudate cells; PP, Peyer's patch; rRNA, ribosomal RNA; slgA, surface-IgA; S-LP, small intestinal lamina propria; WT, wild type.

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IL-5R-specific α subunit (IL-5R α) and a common β subunit for the GM-CSF receptor family (Mita et al., 1989). Syntenin-1 was reported to associate with the cytoplasmic tail of IL-5R α through the PDZ (PSD-95/Discs large/zO-1) domain and to interact directly with the transcription factor Sox4 (Beekman et al., 2009, 2012; Geijssen et al., 2001). Interestingly, Sox4 promotes B cell development, as determined by analysis of Sox4 KO mice (Schilham et al., 1996; Sun et al., 2013).

Although these various functions of Syntenin-1 *in vitro* have been well reported including the relationship with IL-5R, little is known about the distribution and role of this protein *in vivo*. To clarify the physiological role(s) of Syntenin-1 *in vivo*, we generated a Syntenin-1 KO mouse strain by gene targeting in this study. We found that Syntenin-1 KO mice showed no obvious signs of diseases under specific pathogen-free conditions and the Syntenin-1 was widely expressed, particularly in immunologically related organs and CNS. In addition, we focused on the relationship between Syntenin-1 and IL-5 signaling in gut-associated tissues and found that Syntenin-1 was not essential for the maintenance of IL-5-responding cells, and rather negatively regulated immunoglobulin production in the intestine.

Materials and methods

Generation of Syntenin-1 KO mice

Animal care and experimental protocols were approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of the University of Toyama (Authorization No. A2012-MED-35) and were carried out in accordance with the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animal of the University of Toyama.

A bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) genomic clone (RP24-301N) originating from the DNA of C57BL/6 mice and containing Syntenin-1 was obtained from BACPAC Resource Center CHORI (Oakland, CA). A counter-selection BAC modification kit (Gene Bridges, Dresden, Germany) and a MultiSite Gateway Three-Fragment Vector Construction kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) were modified for the targeting vector construction. The nucleotide sequence of the mouse genome was obtained from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI Map Viewer, *Mus musculus* Build 37.1) and the initiation site of translation in Syntenin-1 (the A of ATG) refers to position +1 and the proceeding residues are indicated by negative numbers in this report. The 5' arm of ~5 kbp (base pair) (Nos. -4769 to -334) and 3' arm of ~5 kbp (Nos. +322 to +4947) were subcloned into the pDONR P4-P1R and pDONER P2R-P3 vectors, respectively, using the counter-selection BAC modification kit. The 655-bp Syntenin-1 (Nos. -333 to +321) gene fragment containing exon 2, part of intron 1, and part of intron 2 was amplified by PCR and subcloned between two loxP sequences of a modified pDONR 221 vector containing a pgk-Neo cassette flanked by two FRT sites. To construct the targeting vector, these three plasmids were directionally subcloned into pDEST R4-R3 containing the diphtheria toxin gene (MC1-DTA) by MultiSite Gateway LR recombination reaction. The targeting vector linearized with *NotI* was electroporated into the embryonic stem (ES) cell line RENKA derived from the C57BL/6N strain (Fukaya et al., 2006) as previously described (Miya et al., 2008). After the selection with G418, recombinant ES clone was identified by Southern blot analysis using the 5' probe (Nos. -5412 to -4923) on *SpeI*-digested genomic DNA, the 3' probe (+6740 to +7093) on *Apal*-digested genomic DNA, and the Neo probe (Miya et al., 2008) on *Apal*-digested genomic DNA. The obtained recombinant ES clone was transfected with the pCre-Pac plasmid (Taniguchi et al., 1998) and pCAGGS-FLP plasmid (Gene Bridges, Dresden, Germany)

by electroporation to delete exon 2 and the pgk-Neo cassette, respectively. The PCR amplified fragments were verified using the DNA sequencer ABI PRISM 3100 (Perkin-Elmer, Foster City, CA).

The obtained clone was injected into eight-cell stage embryos of the mouse strain ICR. The embryos were cultured to the blastocyst stage and transferred to the pseudopregnant ICR mouse uterus. The resulting male chimeric mice were crossed with female C57BL/6 mice to establish the mutant mouse line. The Syntenin-1 KO mice were further genotyped by PCR using the following primers: 5' forward, 5'-TGACCCTGGTTAGCTGAGGA-3'; 5' reverse, 5'-TCTGTTCCCACAGCTACCCAA-3'; and 3' reverse, 5'-GCTCACAAACCGTCTAACTCCAAC-3' (Fig. 1A).

Western blotting

At the age of 6 weeks, wild type (WT) and Syntenin-1 KO mice were deeply anesthetized with pentobarbital sodium (100 mg/kg body weight, intraperitoneal injection) and then perfused transcardially with ice-cold PBS. Tissues were quickly removed and homogenized in Mammalian Tissue Extraction Reagent (Pierce, Rockford, IL) with Protease Inhibitor (Nacalai, Kyoto, Japan). The homogenate was centrifuged at 14,500 rpm for 15 min to remove large debris. The protein concentration was determined using a BCA Protein Assay kit (Pierce) and the protein samples were diluted at 1:1 in a sample buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.2, 2% SDS, 10% glycerol, 6% 2-mercaptoethanol, and 0.01% bromophenol blue). After denaturation by heating at 95 °C for 5 min, 30 µg of proteins were subjected to SDS-PAGE and transferred onto a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Perkin-Elmer). After blocking with 5% skim milk in Tris buffered saline containing 0.1% Tween-20 for 1 h, the membranes were incubated with rabbit polyclonal anti-Syntenin-1 antibody (1:1000, Abcam, Cambridge, UK) or mouse monoclonal anti-β-actin antibody (1:10,000, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) overnight at 4 °C, then with HRP-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG (1:25,000, Bio-Rad, Richmond, CA) or goat anti-mouse IgG (1:25,000, Bio-Rad) for 1 h. Protein bands were detected using the ECL chemiluminescence detection system (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK).

Antibodies and reagents for flow cytometry

Antibodies used for flow cytometry were anti-mouse B220 (RA3-6B2), CD3e (145-2C11), CD5 (53-7.3), CD19 (1D3), CD23 (B3B4), and CD45 (30-F11) antibodies purchased from eBioscience (San Jose, CA) and anti-mouse CD21/35 (7G6), surface-IgA (sIgA) (C10-3), and Siglec-F (E50-2440) antibodies purchased from BD Biosciences (San Diego, CA). Fc γ Rs were blocked with anti-mouse Fc γ R (2.4G2). Flow cytometry was performed using a FACSCanto II (BD Biosciences). Dead cells were gated out by 7-aminoactinomycin D staining (BD Biosciences). FlowJo (Tree Star, Ashland, OR) was used for analysis.

Preparation of lamina propria cells

To obtain lamina propria (LP) cells, the small and large intestines were harvested, and Peyer's patches (PPs) and cecal patches were removed. The intestines were then opened longitudinally, washed twice with 40 ml of Ca $^{2+}$ - and Mg $^{2+}$ -free HBSS (Sigma-Aldrich) supplemented with 5% FCS, 1 mM DTT, and 5 mM EDTA and then incubated at 37 °C for 40 min with shaking at 150 rpm. Tissues were minced and incubated with RPMI 1640 (Invitrogen) supplemented with 5% FCS. To the small intestine tissues, 1 mg/ml collagenase type I

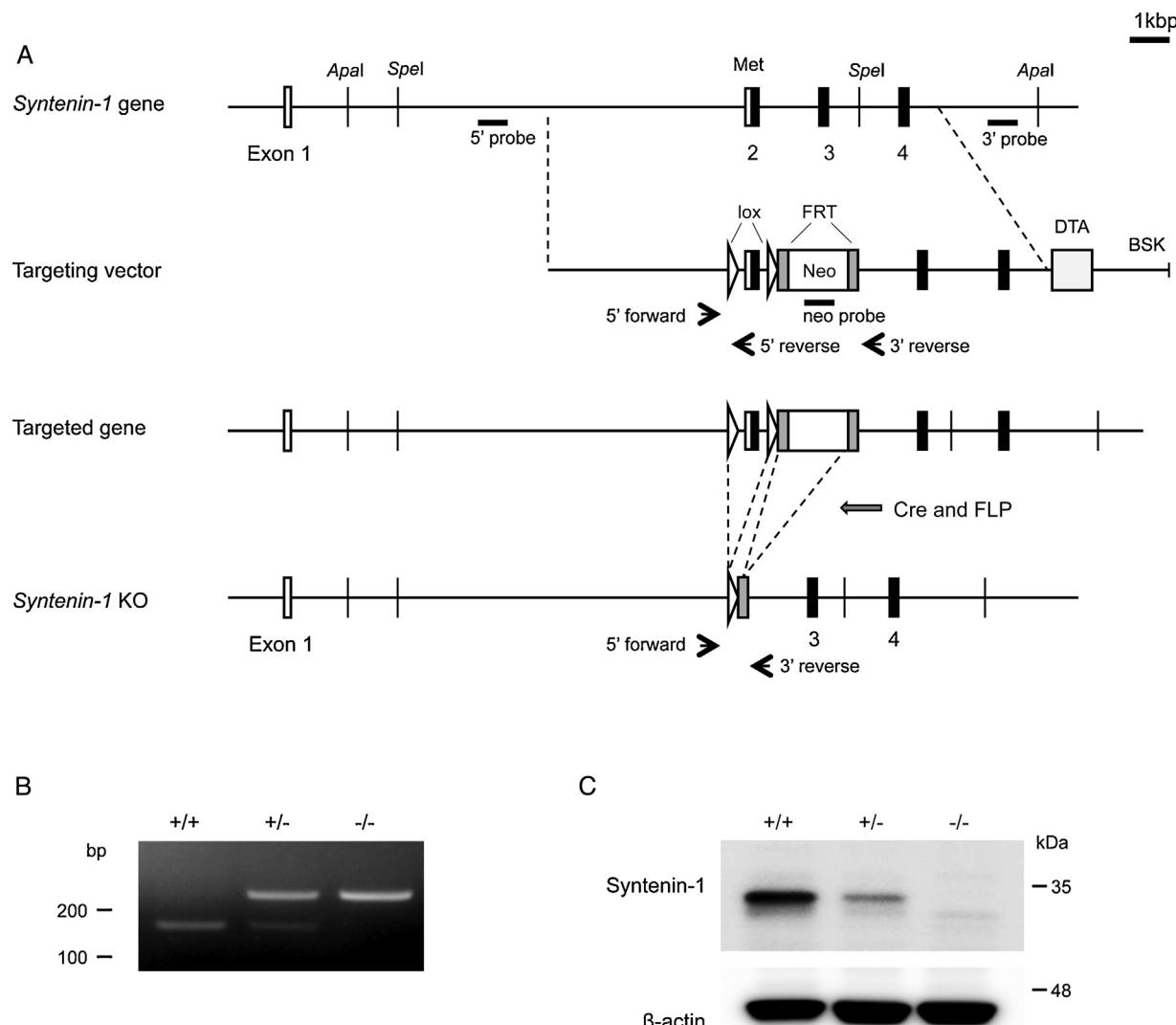


Fig. 1. Generation of *Syntenin-1* KO mice with C57BL/6 genetic background. (A) Schematic representations of *Syntenin-1* gene, targeting vector, targeted gene, and *Syntenin-1* KO gene. The coding and noncoding regions of *Syntenin-1* exons are indicated by closed and open boxes, respectively. Met in exon 2 is the initiation site of translation in *Syntenin-1*. Inserted lox, FRT, and neomycin resistance gene (Neo) are shown. The relevant restriction enzyme sites (Apal and Spel), the location of probes used (5'probe, neo probe, and 3'probe), and the PCR primers (5'forward, 5'reverse, and 3'reverse) are indicated. DTA, diphtheria toxin fragment A; BSK, pBluescript. (B) PCR analysis of genomic DNA from *Syntenin-1*^{+/+} (+/+, *Syntenin-1*^{+/-} (+/-), and *Syntenin-1*^{-/-} (-/-) mice. The 5'forward, 5'reverse, and 3'reverse primers were mixed at a molar ratio of 2:1:1. The positions of DNA size markers are indicated on the left side. (C) Expression of syntenin-1 protein in spleen. Spleen homogenates from *Syntenin-1*^{+/+} (+/+, *Syntenin-1*^{+/-} (+/-), and *Syntenin-1*^{-/-} (-/-) mice were separated by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotted with anti-Syntenin-1 antibody (upper) and anti-β-actin antibody (lower). The positions of protein size markers are indicated on the right side.

(Sigma-Aldrich) was added, and 2 mg/ml collagenase was added to the large intestine tissues. The tissues were then incubated with 100 ng/ml DNase I (Roche Diagnostics, Indianapolis, IN) at 37 °C for 40 min with stirring. Collected cells were placed on the boundary between 40/75% concentrations of Percoll (GE Healthcare, Piscataway, NJ) solution and centrifuged at 1800 rpm at 20 °C for 20 min. After centrifugation, the collected cells were washed and used as LP lymphocytes.

ELISA

Freshly collected fecal samples were weighed, dissolved in PBS (0.1 g/ml), and centrifuged at 15,000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatants were used as fecal extract. The levels of each immunoglobulin isotype in fecal extract and serum were determined by sandwich ELISA using antibodies specific for each murine immunoglobulin isotype (Southern Biotech, Birmingham, AL) according to a protocol.

Splenic B cell purification and cell culture

For collection of resting B cells, single cell suspensions prepared from the spleen isolated from WT and *Syntenin-1* KO mice were purified by magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS) negative selection using biotin-conjugated anti-mouse CD43 antibody (S7, BD Bioscience) and streptavidin MicroBeads (Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA). The purified resting B cells were cultured at a concentration of 2×10^5 cells/well in RPMI 1640 with 10% FCS, 50 μM 2-mercaptoethanol, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 μg/ml streptomycin. 1 μg/ml LPS (Sigma-Aldrich), 1 ng/ml TGF-β (R and D Systems, Minneapolis, MN), and/or 5 ng/ml IL-5 (R and D Systems) were added to the culture to induce IgA production. 0.1 or 1 μg/ml LPS (Sigma-Aldrich) were used to induce IgM production. 1 μg/ml anti-CD40 antibody (R and D Systems) and 50 ng/ml IL-4 (R and D Systems) were added to induce IgG1 production. The concentration of IgA, IgM and IgG1 in the supernatants was measured by ELISA on day 7, day 5 and day 5, respectively.

DNA extraction from fecal samples and real-time PCR

Fecal samples were collected for 24 h from individually housed *Syntenin-1* KO and WT littermates (6 weeks of age) and stored at -20°C until analysis. DNA extraction was performed on the fecal samples using DNA stool mini kit (Qiagen, Venlo, The Netherlands). Quantitative real-time PCR assays of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene were performed by Cosmobio Co. (Sapporo, Japan) using the method of Matsuki et al. (2002, 2004). Three targets were analyzed: all bacteria, phylum *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes*. The relative ratio of each phylum to all bacteria was measured.

Statistical analysis

All values are represented as mean \pm SD. The statistical significance of difference between WT and *Syntenin-1* KO mice was determined by two-tailed Student's t test. Values of $p < 0.05$ indicate a statistically significant difference.

Results

Generation of *Syntenin-1* KO mouse strain

To disrupt the *Syntenin-1* locus in ES cells derived from the C57BL/6 mouse strain, we constructed a targeting vector to introduce the loxP sequence into intron 1 and another loxP and the Neo cassette flanked with FRT sequences into intron 2 (Fig. 1A). We obtained an ES cell clone in which the expected homologous recombination occurred at the *Syntenin-1* locus, as detected by Southern blot analysis. The ES cells were treated with Cre and FLP recombinases transiently to delete exon 2 containing the initiation site of translation of *Syntenin-1* and the Neo cassette, respectively. Chimeric mice derived from this clone were mated with C57BL/6 mice to establish the mutant mouse line. The gene deletion in the mutant mice was confirmed by Southern blot (data not shown) and PCR analyses (Fig. 1B). *Syntenin-1* protein expression was examined using the homogenate of spleen by Western blot analysis. The rabbit anti-*Syntenin-1* antibody recognized a protein detected as a band of 32 kDa corresponding to *Syntenin-1* in the WT mice, whereas the band showed decreased intensity in the case of heterozygous mutant mice, and not detected in homozygous mutant mice (Fig. 1C). These findings indicate that *Syntenin-1* was successfully disrupted in the mutant mice.

Mice lacking *Syntenin-1* were born at the expected Mendelian ratio (Supplementary Table 1). The *Syntenin-1* KO mice thrived and reproduced as well as their WT littermates and showed no obvious signs of diseases under specific-pathogen free conditions during the first 1 year of life.

Syntenin-1 protein was widely expressed, especially in immunologically related organs and CNS

To evaluate the detailed expression pattern of the *Syntenin-1* protein *in vivo*, equal amounts of the protein from various organs of WT mice were examined by Western blotting (Fig. 2). The *Syntenin-1* protein was widely expressed in mouse tissues, and relatively high expression levels were detected in the spleen, thymus, and brain. The *Syntenin-1* expression levels in the liver and kidney were lower than those in the other tissues. We used lysates of human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293 cells transfected with a human *Syntenin-1* expression plasmid as a positive control. The *Syntenin-1* protein was not detected in any organs of *Syntenin-1* KO mice (Fig. 2 and data not shown), suggesting the specificity of the primary antibody used against *Syntenin-1*.

The number of IL-5-responding cells was not affected in *Syntenin-1*-deficient mice

IL-5 signaling is a key regulator for the maintenance of B-1 B cells, IgA production, and eosinophils in mice (Hiroi et al., 1999; Moon et al., 2004; Tominaga et al., 1991). To clarify whether *Syntenin-1* is involved in the development and maintenance of the IL-5-responding cells, we examined the number of lymphocytes and eosinophils in the peritoneal cavity (PC), mesenteric lymph node (MLN), PP, and small and large intestinal lamina propria (S-LP and L-LP, respectively). The proportions of B220 $^{+}$ sIgA $^{-}$, B220 $^{+}$ sIgA $^{+}$, and B220 $^{-}$ sIgA $^{+}$ B cells in the S-LP and L-LP and B220 $^{+}$ sIgA $^{-}$ and B220 $^{+}$ sIgA $^{+}$ B cells in PP and MLN, as well as CD3 ε^{+} T cells, were normal in *Syntenin-1* KO mice (Supplementary Fig. 1A). Siglec-F $^{+}$ eosinophils in the S-LP and L-LP of *Syntenin-1* KO mice also normally developed (Supplementary Fig. 1B). B-1a and B-1b cells (characterized as CD19 $^{+}$ CD21 $^{-}$ CD23 $^{-}$ CD5 $^{+}$ and CD19 $^{+}$ CD21 $^{-}$ CD23 $^{-}$ CD5 $^{-}$, respectively) and conventional B-2 cells in PC seemed to be not affected by *Syntenin-1* deficiency (Supplementary Fig. 1C). The number of the analyzed immune cells showed no significant differences between *Syntenin-1* KO and WT mice (Table 1). These results suggest that *Syntenin-1* little affected on the development of lymphocytes and eosinophils in the steady state.

Production of fecal immunoglobulins were increased in *Syntenin-1*-deficient mice

Given that IL-5 is a key cytokine for IgA production, isotype-specific ELISA was performed to determine levels of IgA together with those of IgG1 and IgM in the fecal extract and serum in *Syntenin-1* KO and WT mice. Although the levels of immunoglobulins in the serum did not change, IgA, IgG1 and IgM levels in the fecal extract increased significantly in *Syntenin-1* KO mice (Fig. 3A and B). These results showed that *Syntenin-1* negatively regulates immunoglobulin production in the intestine.

In vitro analysis of immunoglobulins production

As intestinal immunoglobulin production was increased in *Syntenin-1* KO mice, we next examined the ability of B cells to secrete immunoglobulins in WT and *Syntenin-1* KO mice *in vitro*. We purified splenic resting B cells by magnetic cell isolation and cultured them in the presence of LPS, TGF- β , and IL-5 to induce IgA secretion; LPS to induce IgM secretion; IL-4 and anti-CD40 antibody to induce IgG1 secretion. IgA production was significantly higher in B cells derived from *Syntenin-1*-deficient mice than in B cells derived from WT mice (Fig. 4A). IgM production of *Syntenin-1* KO B cells stimulated with only LPS was also increased (Fig. 4B). IgG1 production had no significant difference between these mouse strains (Fig. 4C). These results support the idea that *Syntenin-1* negatively regulates immunoglobulin production in the intestine and suggest that such an enhanced immunoglobulin production occurs in a B cell-intrinsic manner.

Distribution of intestinal microbiota was influenced in *Syntenin-1*-deficient mice

Mucosal immunity including intestinal secretory immunoglobulins is closely related to microbiota to maintain intestinal homeostasis (Strugnell and Wijburg, 2010). The obtained results in *Syntenin-1* KO mice raise a question whether a distribution of intestinal microbial flora could be influenced. We next examined the percentages of total 16S rRNA gene of the phylum *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes*, which consist mostly of mouse intestinal microbiota. The percentage of *Firmicutes* in the stool of *Syntenin-1* KO

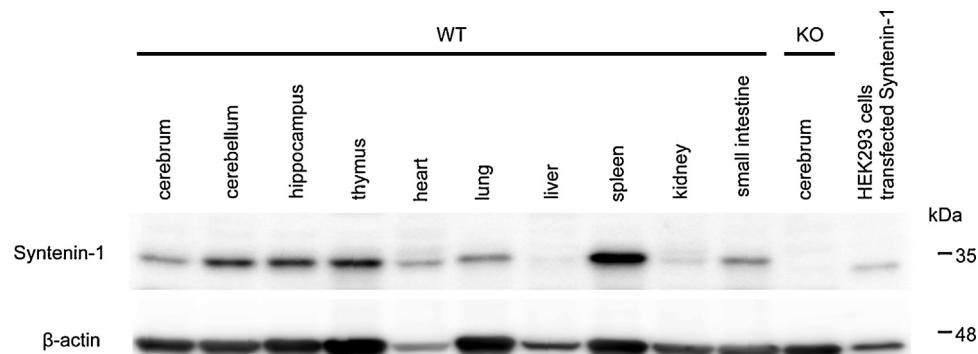


Fig. 2. Expression pattern of syntenin-1 protein. Western blot analysis of protein extracts from cerebrum, cerebellum, hippocampus, thymus, heart, lung, liver, spleen, kidney, and small intestine in WT mice and cerebrum in *Syntenin-1* KO mice using anti-Syntenin-1 antibody (upper panels) and anti-β-actin antibody (lower panels). Equal amounts (30 µg) of protein measured by BCA protein assay were loaded to all lanes. Lysate of human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293 cells (5 µg) transfected with the human *Syntenin-1* expression plasmid was used as a positive control. The positions of protein size markers are indicated on the right side. Data are representative of at least three independent experiments.

mice was significantly higher than WT mice, although the percentage of *Bacteroidetes* and the ratio of *Firmicutes* to *Bacteroidetes* were not significantly different (Fig. 5).

Discussion

We have generated a *Syntenin-1* KO mouse strain to clarify the function(s) of Syntenin-1 *in vivo*. Although Syntenin-1 was widely expressed in mouse organs, homozygous *Syntenin-1*-deficient mice showed no obvious signs of diseases. We found that the levels of fecal immunoglobulins in *Syntenin-1* KO mice were higher than those in WT mice. We also showed that the levels of IgA and IgM secretion from LPS-stimulated splenic B cells were significantly higher in *Syntenin-1* KO mice, therefore the mechanism underlying enhanced fecal immunoglobulins production in *Syntenin-1* KO mice is likely B cell-intrinsic. Additionally, we indicated a possibility that the intestinal microbiota was influenced in *Syntenin-1* KO mice. Taken together, our results imply that Syntenin-1 has a function to maintain the intestinal homeostasis *in vivo*.

Structurally, Syntenin-1 is a 32-kDa protein with two PDZ domains (Das et al., 2012). The PDZ domains can bind to short amino acid sequences at the C-terminal end of the transmembrane or intracellular proteins (Chimura et al., 2011). Through the PDZ domains, Syntenin-1 is capable to bind to various proteins, such as syndecans, the tyrosin kinase Src, IL-5R α , CD63, Delta1, and

adhesion molecules, for synaptic formation in the CNS (Boukerche et al., 2008; Estrach et al., 2007; Geijssen et al., 2001; Grootjans et al., 1997; Hirbec et al., 2005; Jannatipour et al., 2001; Ohno et al., 2004; Pols and Klumperman, 2009). In general, several PDZ proteins are reported to act as a negative regulator of various signals and transcription factors (Alewine et al., 2006; Gupta et al., 2012; Stephenson et al., 2007). In fact, Chen et al. reported that Syntenin specifically interacted with TNF receptor associated factor 6 (TRAF6) and played inhibitory role in TLR4-mediated NF-κB activation signaling pathway (Chen et al., 2008). Therefore, Syntenin-1 could potentially inhibit the signaling pathway of immunoglobulin production.

Although the interacting partners of Syntenin-1 were well reported, little has been known about the distribution of the Syntenin-1 protein *in vivo*. Jeon et al. analyzed the expression pattern of the Syntenin protein in mouse embryos by immunohistochemistry (Jeon et al., 2013). They reported that the Syntenin protein was detected temporally during an early developmental period, and that Syntenin may play a prominent role in cell proliferation and differentiation in normal mouse development. However, in this study we found that the Syntenin-1 protein was widely expressed in adult mouse organs, especially in the spleen, thymus, and brain. Our expression data are consistent with various reports which describe the functions of Syntenin-1 in the immune system and CNS (Gordon-Alonso et al., 2012; Jannatipour et al., 2001; Koroll

Table 1

Numbers of sIgA $^+$ cells, T cells, eosinophils, and B-1a, B-1b, and B-2 cells in gut-associated lymphoid tissues and peritoneal cavity.

<i>Syntenin-1</i>	S-LP	L-LP	MLN	PP	PC
-/-	B220 $^+$ sIgA $^-$	1.4 ± 0.3	3.0 ± 0.9	11.1 ± 3.2	8.3 ± 2.0
	B220 $^-$ sIgA $^+$	19.6 ± 8.2	1.1 ± 0.4		
	B220 $^+$ sIgA $^+$	0.1 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.1	1.0 ± 0.3	1.0 ± 0.4
	CD3e $^+$ T cell	5.4 ± 3.3	1.3 ± 0.6	22.4 ± 9.5	2.3 ± 0.5
	Eosinophil	2.0 ± 1.8	0.2 ± 0.1		
	B-1a				2.9 ± 1.5
+/+	B-1b				0.5 ± 0.2
	B-2				5.8 ± 1.1
	B220 $^+$ sIgA $^-$	1.7 ± 1.1	2.6 ± 1.0	11.1 ± 7.1	10.5 ± 3.3
	B220 $^-$ sIgA $^+$	19.6 ± 10.3	1.1 ± 0.4		
	B220 $^+$ sIgA $^+$	0.1 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.0	1.1 ± 0.4	1.3 ± 0.5
	CD3e $^+$ T cell	5.2 ± 1.7	1.4 ± 0.7	20.7 ± 13.2	2.7 ± 1.2
B-1a	Eosinophil	1.8 ± 1.3	0.3 ± 0.2		
	B-1b				4.7 ± 1.5
	B-2				0.9 ± 0.4
					6.0 ± 3.0

The results indicate the mean cell numbers ± SD ($\times 10^5$) calculated on the basis of Supplementary Fig. 1 ($n=5$ for each group). There were not significantly different between *Syntenin-1* KO mice and WT mice. S-LP, small intestinal lamina propria; L-LP, large intestinal lamina propria; MLN, mesenteric lymph node; PP, Peyer's patch; PC, peritoneal cavity; sIgA, surface-IgA.

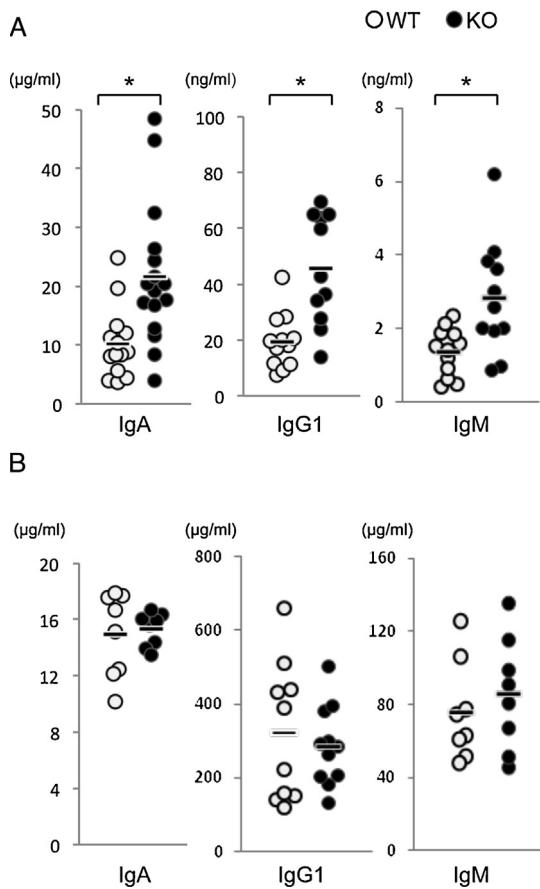


Fig. 3. Immunoglobulin levels in the fecal extract and serum of *Syntenin-1* KO mice. The concentrations of IgA, IgG1, and IgM in fecal extracts (A) and serum (B) in WT (○) and *Syntenin-1* KO (●) mice were determined by isotype-specific ELISA. Each spot represents an individual mouse (6–8 weeks old). The mean levels of immunoglobulins are presented as bars. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences (* $p < 0.05$), as calculated by two-tailed Student's *t* test.

et al., 2001; Sala-Valdes et al., 2012) and imply that *Syntenin-1* may play important roles in these organs.

Despite the broad expression of the *Syntenin-1* protein in all the organs analyzed, the homozygous deletion of *Syntenin-1* was not lethal, and the *Syntenin-1* KO mice showed no obvious signs of diseases under specific pathogen-free conditions. It is possible that some redundant proteins may provide compensatory signals to maintain the homeostasis *in vivo*. In mice and humans, *Syntenin* has two isoforms, *Syntenin-1* and *Syntenin-2*. *Syntenin-2* shares 61% identity in amino acid sequence with *Syntenin-1* in mice. Although little is known about the functions of *Syntenin-2*, it is possible that the presence of *Syntenin-2* could compensate for the functions of *Syntenin-1* in *Syntenin-1* KO mice. Dual deletion of those *Syntenin* genes might reveal their roles in immunity.

In this study, we focused on the relationship between *Syntenin-1* and IL-5 signaling. IL-5 is one of the key regulators in mucosal immunity in mice, especially the development of B-1 B cells and IgA-producing cells and the production of intestinal IgA (Hiroi et al., 1999; Moon et al., 2004; Tominaga et al., 1991). Because *Syntenin-1* is reported to interact with IL-5R α *in vitro* and may affect IL-5 signaling (Geijzen et al., 2001), we investigated the role(s) of *Syntenin-1* in gut-associated lymphoid organs. However, the lymphocyte populations in gut-associated lymphoid tissues were not significantly different between *Syntenin-1* KO mice and WT mice, and we found that the levels of immunoglobulins in fecal extract were higher in *Syntenin-1* KO mice. These results suggest that *Syntenin-1* plays only minor roles in the IL-5/IL-5R pathway.

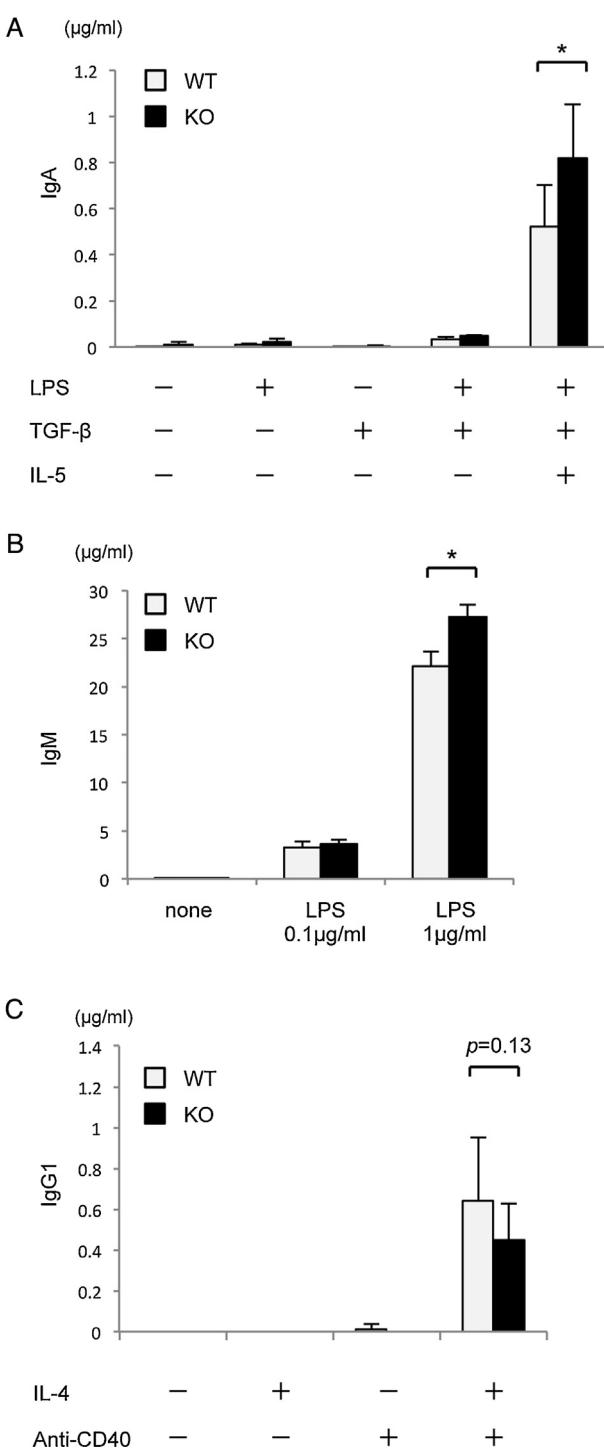


Fig. 4. Increased levels of IgA and IgM secretion from B cells obtained from *Syntenin-1* KO mice *in vitro*. Purified splenic resting B cells from WT (□) and *Syntenin-1* KO (■) mice were cultured with LPS, TGF-β and/or IL-5 for 7 days to induce IgA secretion (A), LPS for 5 days to induce IgM secretion (B), and IL-4 and anti-CD40 antibody for 5 days to induce IgG1 secretion (C). The levels of immunoglobulins in the supernatants were measured by ELISA. Data are shown as mean \pm SD and are representative of two or three independent experiments performed in triplicate. Asterisks indicate statistically significant difference (* $p < 0.05$), as calculated by two-tailed Student's *t* test.

in the mucosal immune system and rather negatively regulates immunoglobulin production in the intestine.

We showed that the IgA and IgM production from stimulated spleen B cells increased in *Syntenin-1* KO B cells. Under physiological conditions, intestinal B cells differentiate into plasma cells via

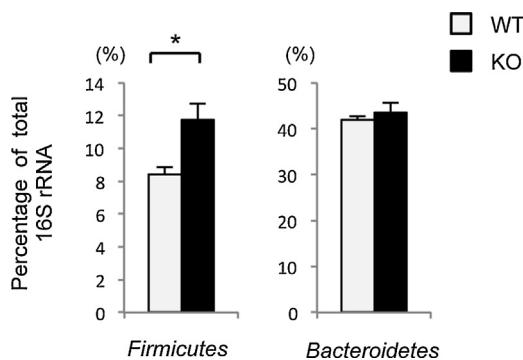


Fig. 5. Percentage of total 16S rRNA gene of phylum *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes* in stool from individually housed *Syntenin-1* KO (■) and WT (□) littermate mice ($n=5$). Quantitative real-time PCR assays of 16S ribosomal RNA (rRNA) gene were performed by using total bacterial primers and phylum-specific primers. The relative ratio of each phylum to total bacteria was measured. Data are shown as mean \pm SD and an asterisk indicates statistically significant differences ($*p < 0.05$), as calculated by two-tailed Student's *t* test.

T cell-dependent and T cell-independent pathways, and secreted immunoglobulins at LP are then transported to the lumen by immunoglobulin receptors (Strugnell and Wijburg, 2010; Horton and Vidarsson, 2013). We showed the lymphocyte populations including intestinal B cells and B220⁻IgA⁺ cells (which represent plasma cells) were not significantly different and IgA secreting cells in LP were not also different by using ELISPOT assays (data not shown). Although the precise mechanisms were not delineated in this study, our *in vitro* results indicate that such an enhanced immunoglobulin production in the intestine is caused by excessive immunoglobulin production of individual *Syntenin-1*-deficient plasma cells.

Mucosal IgA plays crucial roles in host defense and maintenance of normal gut microbiota (Fagarasan et al., 2002; Horton and Vidarsson, 2013; Strugnell and Wijburg, 2010; Suzuki et al., 2004). Additionally, recent studies have shown that mucosal IgM and IgG can also provide humoral protection from various pathogens (Horton and Vidarsson, 2013; Saeland et al., 2003; Stapleton et al., 2011). On the other hand, mucosal IgG or IgM production is excessively increased in patients with an inflammatory bowel disease such as ulcerative colitis and Crohn's disease (Helgeland et al., 1992; Macpherson et al., 1996; Thoree et al., 2002). In this manner, the relationship between host immunity and intestinal microbiota is essential to maintain homeostatic balance in the gut. In this study, we showed that a distribution of intestinal microbiota in *Syntenin-1* KO mice could be influenced at the phylum level. Although the detailed analysis at the genus level was not examined in this study, it is possible that *Syntenin-1* is involved in the maintenance of normal intestinal microbiota and mucosal immune balance by regulating immunoglobulin production.

Previously, we demonstrated that *Syntenin-1* exists in the human colostrum and could induce IgA production from naive B cells (Sira et al., 2009). In the present study, we found the negative regulation of *Syntenin-1* in IgA production. These incompatible functions of *Syntenin-1* may be due to differences among species or effector sites. As our present data might be influenced by the function of extracellular *Syntenin-1* in milk, we analyzed littermate offspring from heterozygous breeding pairs to exclude such differences in components of milk in this study. Further studies are necessary to clarify the role and mechanisms of actions of *Syntenin-1* in the colostrum *in vivo*.

In summary, in this article we described the generation of *Syntenin-1* KO mice and provided new evidence that *Syntenin-1* negatively regulates immunoglobulin production in the intestine. Although *Syntenin-1* has been reported to have various functions

in vitro, additional studies are needed to clarify the mechanisms in detail, especially *in vivo*. Through future studies of *Syntenin-1* KO mice, it will be possible to provide novel evidence of the involvement and functions of *Syntenin-1* not only mucosal immunity but also cancer metastasis, protein recycling, exosome formation, and neural network formation.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a Grant-in Aid for Scientific Research from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan (Grant number 221S0003). We thank the members of the Departments of Molecular Neuroscience, Immunobiology and Pharmacological Genetics, and Pediatrics of the University of Toyama for their cooperation and for their constructive comments on this study. We also thank Kanako Konno for technical assistance.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.imbio.2014.12.003>.

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