Journal of Neurochemistry

JOURNAL OF NEUROCHEMISTRY | 2009 | 108 | 91–101



Retinoic acid receptor-related orphan receptor α regulates a subset of cone genes during mouse retinal development

Hiroki Fujieda,* Rod Bremner,† Alan J. Mears‡ and Hiroshi Sasaki*

*Department of Anatomy, School of Medicine, Tokyo Women's Medical University, Tokyo, Japan †Genetics and Development Division, Toronto Western Research Institute, University Health Network, Department of Ophthalmology and Visual Sciences and Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathobiology, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ontario, Canada ‡University of Ottawa Eye Institute and Ottawa Health Research Institute, Ottawa, Ontario, Canada

Abstract

Color vision is supported by retinal cone photoreceptors that, in most mammals, express two photopigments sensitive to short (S-opsin) or middle (M-opsin) wavelengths. Expression of the *Opn1sw* and *Opn1mw* genes, encoding S-opsin and M-opsin, respectively, is under the control of nuclear receptors, including thyroid hormone receptor $\beta 2$ (TR $\beta 2$), retinoid X receptor γ (RXR γ), and ROR β , a member of the retinoic acid receptor-related orphan receptor (ROR) family. We now demonstrate that ROR α , another member of the ROR family, regulates *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, as well as *Arr3* (cone arrestin) in the mouse retina. ROR α expression is detected in cones by postnatal day 3 and maintained through adulthood. The retinas of *staggerer* mice, carrying a null mutation of ROR α , show significant down-regulation of *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3*. ROR α acts in synergy with cone-rod homeobox transcription factor (Crx), to activate the *Opn1sw* promoter *in vitro*. Chromatin immunoprecipitation assays reveal that ROR α directly binds to the *Opn1sw* promoter, *Opn1mw* locus control region, and the *Arr3* promoter *in vivo*. Our data suggest that ROR α plays a crucial role in cone development by directly regulating multiple cone genes.

Keywords: arrestin, cone photoreceptor, opsin, retina, RORα, *staggerer*.

J. Neurochem. (2009) 108, 91–101.

The vertebrate retina contains two types of photoreceptors: rods that function in dim light and cones that mediate color vision in bright light. Most mammals have dichromatic color vision, supported by cones expressing two opsin photopigments sensitive to short (S-opsin) or middle (M-opsin) wavelengths (Ebrey and Koutalos 2001). Humans and other primates have an additional cone photopigment sensitive to long wavelengths (L-opsin), and thus have trichromatic color vision. Mutations affecting the cone opsin genes, as well as other genes involved in cone phototransduction, are responsible for color vision defects of varying degrees of severity (Deeb 2004).

The expression of the cone opsin genes is under distinct spatial and developmental controls. In mice, S-opsin expression starts at the late embryonic stage (Ng *et al.* 2001; Applebury *et al.* 2007), while M-opsin expression is induced during the second postnatal week (Fei 2003). The majority of cones in the mature mouse retina co-express both S- and M-opsins (Applebury *et al.* 2000). However, S-opsin expression is more concentrated in ventral cones, whereas M-opsin

is expressed predominantly in dorsal cones (Szél et al. 1992; Applebury et al. 2000).

Several transcription factors have been identified that regulate the spatial and temporal patterning of cone opsin expression. Thyroid hormone receptor $\beta 2$ (TR $\beta 2$) and retinoid X receptor γ (RXR γ) act in concert to repress S-opsin expression during the embryonic period and in the dorsal region of the mature retina (Ng *et al.* 2001; Roberts *et al.* 2005). It has been suggested that the postnatal down-regulation of both TR $\beta 2$ and RXR γ promotes the onset of S-opsin

Received July 22, 2008; revised manuscript received October 8, 2008; accepted October 10, 2008.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to H. Fujieda, Department of Anatomy, School of Medicine, Tokyo Women's Medical University, 8-1 Kawada-cho, Shinjuku-ku, Tokyo 162-8666, Japan. E-mail: hfujieda@research.twmu.ac.jp

Abbreviations used: ChIP, chromatin immunoprecipitation; LCR, locus control region; PNA, peanut agglutinin; ROR, retinoic acid receptor-related orphan receptor; RORE, ROR response element; RXR, retinoid X receptor; TR, thyroid hormone receptor.

expression (Ng *et al.* 2001; Roberts *et al.* 2005). TR β 2 is also required to induce M-opsin expression (Ng *et al.* 2001). As TR β 2 is uniformly expressed in developing cones, the dorsal– ventral gradient of M-opsin expression has been attributed to the graded concentration of thyroid hormone within the retina (Roberts *et al.* 2006). Recently, ROR β , a member of the retinoic acid receptor-related orphan receptor (ROR) family, has emerged as a transcriptional activator of S-opsin (Srinivas *et al.* 2006). Thus, the orchestrated action of nuclear receptors seems to control the timing and spatial arrangement of opsin expression in developing cones.

ROR α , another member of the ROR family, has been implicated in the differentiation of cerebellar Purkinje neurons (Hamilton *et al.* 1996; Steinmayr *et al.* 1998; Gold *et al.* 2003) and the maintenance of circadian rhythms in the suprachiasmatic nuclei of the hypothalamus (Sato *et al.* 2004; Akashi and Takumi 2005). In the adult retina, ROR α has been localized to the ganglion cell layer and inner nuclear layer (Steinmayr *et al.* 1998; Ino 2004). However, the precise adult cell types expressing ROR α is unclear, nothing is known about its developmental pattern of expression in the retina, and its function in this tissue is also unexplored. We now demonstrate that ROR α is expressed in postnatal cones and that it plays a critical role in cone development by regulating a subset of cone genes, including S-opsin and M-opsin.

Materials and methods

Mice

Heterozygous *Staggerer* mice (B6.Cg-Rorasg/J) obtained from the Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA) were bred, and the progeny were genotyped using a 3-primer PCR assay, as previously described (Gold *et al.* 2003). Animals were maintained under a 12 : 12 h light/dark photoperiod and killed by decapitation or cervical dislocation in the middle of the light phase at various developmental stages. *Nrl*–/– mice are described by Mears *et al.* (2001). C57BL/6J mice were obtained from Charles River Laboratories Japan (Yokohama, Japan). All procedures were approved by the local animal care committees.

Immunohistochemistry

Goat polyclonal antibody to ROR α (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), rabbit (Chemicon International, Temecula, CA, USA) and goat (Santa Cruz) polyclonal antibodies to S-opsin, and rabbit polyclonal antibody to M-opsin (Chemicon) were used as primary antibodies. Alexa Fluor 568 donkey anti-goat IgG and Alexa Fluor 488 donkey anti-rabbit IgG (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA) were used as secondary antibodies. Fluorescein peanut agglutinin (PNA) (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA) was used to label all cones. Immunohistochemistry was performed as described elsewhere (Fujieda and Sasaki 2008). Immunohistochemical controls were performed by using primary antibody preabsorbed with an excess amount of immunogen peptide (for ROR α , sc-6062P; Santa Cruz) or by omission of primary antibody. Dilutions of primary antibodies were as follows: ROR α 1 : 600, S-opsin (rabbit) 1 : 2000, S-opsin (goat) 1 : 500, and M-opsin 1 : 2000. All secondary antibodies were diluted 1 : 1000. Fluorescence signals were examined by confocal laser scanning microscope (LSM510 META; Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany).

Quantitative (real-time) RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from the retina using the RNAqueous-4PCR kit (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA). First strand cDNA was synthesized using the SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis System for RT-PCR (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). cDNA templates were subjected to quantitative PCR by using an Applied Biosystems 7500 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The PCR contained 1 µL each of cDNA sample or serially diluted standard cDNA, 1× SYBR Green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems), and 300 nM of each primer (see supporting information Table S1 for the list of primers) in a final volume of 25 µl. Amplification involved a two-step PCR with denaturation at 95°C for 15 s and annealing and extension at 60°C for 1 min for 40 cycles. Control reactions were performed by using the PCR mixture without cDNA template or using RNA samples without RT. Gapdh expression, which was not affected by the staggerer mutation, served as an internal control for data normalization.

Luciferase assays

Human embryonic kidney cells were co-transfected with plasmid DNA [2 μ g of the reporter vector pGL4.10 (containing the mouse *Opn1sw* promoter (-507 to +54)), 400 ng of expression plasmid(s) (*Crx, Rora* or empty control) and 20 ng of the *Renilla* luciferase control vector (pGL4.74)] using Express-In transfection reagent (Open Biosystems, Huntsville, AL, USA). Deletion and site-directed mutants of the reporter constructs were kind gifts from Dr. D. Forrest, National Institutes of Health/NIDDK, Bethesda, MD, USA (Srinivas *et al.* 2006). 48-h post-transfection luciferase activities were measured using the dual luciferase reporter assay system (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) with a 20/20 luminometer (Turner Biosystems, Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Normalized luciferase activities were then calculated and averaged across 3-wells per condition tested. Experiments were repeated in triplicate and *t*-tests performed on the resulting data.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP)

ChIP was performed as previously described (Dorval et al. 2006), with partial modification. Retinas cross-linked with 4% formaldehyde in phosphate-buffered saline were sonicated to an average DNA size of 1 kb. 20 µL of each chromatin sample was removed and DNA purified to prepare the input DNA as a reference. Chromatin samples equivalent to 3 whole retinas were incubated for 1 h with 1 µg of anti-RORa antibody or normal goat IgG, followed by an incubation with protein G-Sepharose (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) for an additional 1 h. After extensive washes, samples were eluted, cross-links reversed, and DNA fragments purified by High Pure PCR Product Purification Kit (Roche, Mannheim, Germany) with a final elution product of 100 µL. Real-time PCR (Applied Biosystems) was used to amplify 2 µL of the final ChIP product, as well as the input, and the copy number was quantified by comparison to a standard curve for each primer set generated with serially diluted genomic DNA. All primers used are shown in supporting information Table S1.

Results

RORa is expressed in cones

As an initial step in analyzing RORa function in the retina, we performed immunohistochemical localization of RORa in the 3-week-old mouse retina. Intense nuclear staining for RORa was observed in the ganglion cell layer and inner nuclear layer (Fig. 1a and b), in agreement with the previous report (Ino 2004). In addition, we observed an immunoreactive cell population scattered along the outer margin of the outer nuclear layer (arrowheads in Fig. 1b). The low cell density and position within the outer nuclear layer suggested that these cells may be cone photoreceptors. The entire thickness of the outer nuclear layer was also marginally stained. Control sections reacted with primary antibody preabsorbed with antigen peptide exhibited no immunoreactivity (data not shown). To further confirm the specificity of primary antibody, we performed RORa immunohistochemistry in the retina of 3-week-old staggerer mice, containing a loss-of-function mutation in *Rora*, the gene encoding ROR α . As previously reported for ROR α -null mutant mice (Steinmayr *et al.* 1998), no apparent morphological alterations were observed in the retina of *staggerer* mutants (Fig. 1c). No specific immunoreactivity for ROR α was observed in the mutant retina, supporting the specificity of immunoreaction obtained in the wild-type mice (Fig. 1d).

To determine whether cone photoreceptors express ROR α , double immunolabeling was performed using antibodies to cone-specific opsins in combination with anti-ROR α antibody. ROR α was co-localized with both S-opsin and M-opsin, indicating that ROR α is indeed expressed in cones (Fig. 1e–j). Virtually all cones seemed to express ROR α , and no gradient of ROR α expression was observed along the dorsal–ventral axis of the retina.

Developmental expression of RORa in the mouse retina

ROR α expression in the mouse retina was further examined during embryonic and postnatal development. No ROR α

Fig. 1 Immunohistochemical localization of RORa in the retina of wild-type (a, b, e-j) and staggerer (c and d) mice. (a) Differential interference contrast (DIC) image of the wild-type (+/+) retina. GCL: ganglion cell layer; IPL: inner plexiform layer; INL: inner nuclear layer; OPL: outer plexiform layer; ONL: outer nuclear layer. (b) RORa immunoreactivity in the wild type retina. Arrowheads depict presumptive cones exhibiting RORa immunoreactivity. (c) DIC image of the staggerer mutant retina (sg/sg). (d) RORa immunoreactivity is absent in the staggerer retina. Scale bar (a-d) = 20 µm. (e-g) Co-localization of RORa and S-opsin indicating RORa expression in cones. (h-j) ROR α is also co-localized with M-opsin. Scale bar $(e-j) = 10 \mu m$.





Fig. 2 Immunohistochemical localization of RORa in the developing retina. The ganglion cell layer becomes positive for RORa by E17 (a). RORa immunoreactivity is detected in presumptive amacrine cells by P3 (arrowheads in b) and presumptive bipolar cells by P9 (arrowheads in c). ROR α expression exhibits the adult pattern by P12 (d). Scale bar $(a-d) = 20 \mu m$. Double immunolabeling shows developing cones immunoreactive for both S-opsin and RORa at P3 (arrowheads in e-g) and P6 (arrowheads in h-j). Scale bar $(e-j) = 20 \mu m$. GCL: ganglion cell layer; NBL: neuroblastic layer; IPL: inner plexiform layer; INL: inner nuclear layer; OPL: outer plexiform layer; ONL: outer nuclear layer.

immunoreactivity was observed in the E14 mouse retina (data not shown). At E17, cells in the developing ganglion cell layer were immunolabeled for RORa while the neuroblastic layer, composed mostly of mitotic progenitor cells and early-born neurons such as cones and horizontal cells, was free of immunoreactivity (Fig. 2a). The cellular pattern of RORa expression did not change significantly until P3, when faint immunoreactivity was first observed at the inner border of the neuroblastic layer (composed of developing amacrine cells) (Fig. 2b), along with the outer border of the same layer (presumptive cones) (Fig. 2e). Immunoreactivity in presumptive cones was increased in intensity by P6 (Fig. 2h) and maintained during subsequent development. The neuroblastic layer splits into the inner and outer nuclear layers by P6. The outer half of the inner nuclear layer, composed mostly of developing bipolar cells, became faintly immunoreactive by P9 (Fig. 2c). The adult pattern of RORa expression was established by P12 (Fig. 2d).

To unambiguously determine whether RORα-positive cells observed in the outer retina during postnatal development are developing cones, double immunolabeling was conducted using ROR α and S-opsin antibodies at P3 and P6. At both stages, virtually all ROR α -positive cells located near the outer margin of the retina co-localized with S-opsin (arrowheads in Fig. 2e–j), indicating that developing cones start to express ROR α by P3.

The expression of certain cone genes, including S-opsin, M-opsin, and cone arrestin, has been shown to be graded across the dorsal-ventral axis of the mouse retina (Szél et al. 1992; Applebury et al. 2000; Corbo et al. 2007). To confirm that ROR α is symmetrically expressed across the retina, we performed quantitative RT-PCR to analyze the transcript levels of Rora, as well as other cone-related genes, in the dorsal and ventral halves of the mouse retina during postnatal development (Supporting information Fig. S1). No dorsal-ventral differences in Rora and Rorb (encoding ROR β) expression were observed throughout postnatal development. By contrast, the transcript levels of *Thrb2* (encoding TR β 2) were significantly higher in the dorsal retina compared to the ventral retina at all ages examined except for P0. The graded expression of Opn1sw (S-opsin), with higher levels in the ventral retina was

observed throughout postnatal development, in agreement with previous reports (Roberts *et al.* 2005; Applebury *et al.* 2007). No *Opn1mw* (M-opsin) gradient of expression was observed at P0 or P6, but higher expression in the dorsal retina was observed at P12 and P21. A similar pattern was observed for *Arr3* (cone arrestin). No dorsal–ventral differences in *Gnat2*, *Pde6h*, and *Gngt2* were observed throughout postnatal development.

ROR_a mutation affects cone gene expression

Expression of cone opsin genes is regulated by nuclear receptors, such as TR β 2 (Ng *et al.* 2001) and ROR β (Srinivas *et al.* 2006). Prompted by our observations that ROR α is expressed in cones, we hypothesized that ROR α may also be involved in cone development by regulating the transcription of cone genes. To test this hypothesis, we first quantitated the cone cell density in the wild-type and *staggerer* retinas at P21 using PNA labeling (Fig. 3a–c). There were no significant differences in the density of PNA-labeled cones between genotypes. Similar results were observed at P35 (data not shown), indicating that the ROR α mutation does not affect the generation or survival of cones during this period of development.

Next, P21 wild-type and staggerer retinas were subjected to double immunolabeling for S- and M-opsins to examine the effects of staggerer mutation on cone opsin expression. Most cones exhibited both S- and M-opsin immunoreactivity in the wild-type mouse retina, as reported previously (Applebury et al. 2000). S-opsin immunoreactivity was more concentrated in ventral cones compared to dorsal cones, whereas M-opsin immunoreactivity was more intense in dorsal cones compared with ventral cones (Fig. 3d-i). In the staggerer retina, immunoreactivity for both opsins was notably reduced throughout the retina. (Fig. 3j-o). S-opsin immunoreactivity was detected at reduced levels in ventral cones and was undetectable in most dorsal cones. M-opsin immunoreactivity, on the other hand, was detected at reduced levels in dorsal cones while only few cones in the ventral retina displayed M-opsin immunoreactivity.

We next performed quantitative RT-PCR to analyze the expression of a series of cone genes in the retinas of wild-type, heterozygous *staggerer* and homozygous *staggerer* mutants at P21 (Fig. 3, lower panel). The transcript levels of *Opn1sw, Opn1mw* and *Arr3* were significantly reduced in the *staggerer* retina when compared with wild-type littermates. By contrast, other cone genes examined (*Gnat2, Pde6c, Pde6h, Gngt2, Cngb3*) did not show significant genotype effects. Expression of the rod-specific gene *Rho* (encoding rhodopsin) was also unaffected (data not shown). To examine the effects of ROR α mutation on the expression of nuclear receptors known to regulate cone genes, the transcript levels of *Thrb2, Rxrg* (encoding RXR γ), *Rorb*, as well as *Rora*, were also analyzed by quantitative RT-PCR. *Thrb2* was marginally up-regulated in

the *staggerer* retina, whereas no significant differences were found in *Rxrg* and *Rorb* expression between genotypes. The mutant *Rora* transcripts were expressed at reduced levels in the *staggerer* retina. *Shh* (encoding sonic hedgehog) and *Pcp2* (encoding Purkinje cell protein 2) are significantly down-regulated in the *staggerer* cerebellum (Gold *et al.* 2003), but these genes were unaffected by the mutation in the retina (data not shown). Taken together, these findings suggest that ROR α is required for the full expression of a subset of cone genes, including *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3*.

Developmental profile of the effects of RORa mutation

Next, we examined cone gene expression in the wild-type and staggerer retinas during postnatal development by quantitative RT-PCR (Fig. 4). Opn1sw, Opn1mw, Arr3, and Thrb2 were selected for analysis, because these genes were shown to be RORa-dependent when examined at P21 (Fig. 3). Opn1sw transcript levels in the staggerer retinas were significantly lower than those in the wild-type retinas at all ages examined except P0 (Student's *t*-test, p < 0.01). The effects of RORa mutation on Opn1mw expression were significant at P6 (wild-type 0.0064 vs. staggerer 0.0015; p < 0.01) and the later postnatal ages (p < 0.01). Interestingly, fold reduction of Opn1mw transcripts in the staggerer retina was greatest during the period between P6 and P12 (4.3, 5.0 and 4.0-fold reduction at P6, P9, and P12, respectively), when Opn1mw expression is dramatically induced in the wild-type retina (approximately 2000-fold increase from P3 to P12). Arr3 expression in the staggerer retinas was significantly reduced compared with the wildtype retinas at all ages examined except P0 (P3: wild-type 0.021 vs. staggerer 0.0069 (p < 0.05), P9: wild-type 0.17 vs. staggerer 0.14 (p < 0.05), p < 0.01 at P6, P12, P21 and P35). Thrb2 was the only cone gene found to be upregulated in the staggerer retina. However, temporal analysis demonstrated that the up-regulation of Thrb2 was significant only in the mature retina (P21 and P35). Taken together, RORa is required for proper Opn1sw, Opn1mw, and Arr3 expression at P3 and later postnatal ages, consistent with the timing of RORa expression in wildtype cones (Fig. 2).

ROR α activates the *Opn1sw* promoter in synergy with Crx Our data described above raise the possibility that *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3* are ROR α target genes in the mouse retina. The *Opn1sw* promoter contains two consensus motifs for the ROR family, RORE1 and RORE2 (-305 and -210 relative to the start codon) (Srinivas *et al.* 2006), and thus we employed transient transfection assays to test whether ROR α can regulate the transcription of this gene. Co-transfection of ROR α together with the *Opn1sw* promoter (-507 to +54)/ luciferase reporter constructs led to a dose-dependent induction of luciferase activity in human embryonic kidney cells



Fig. 3 Upper panel (a–o): Effects of ROR α mutation on cone cell density and cone opsin immunoreactivity. Vertical sections (confocal z-stack images at 1 µm interval) of the wild-type (a) and *staggerer* (b) retinas stained with peanut lectin (PNA). Scale bar (a and b) = 20 µm. The density of PNA-labeled cones was calculated in the central part of the retina (c). Bars represent the mean ± SEM (*n* = 3). Vertical sections (confocal z-stack images at 1 µm interval) of the wild-type (d–i) and *staggerer* (j–o) retinas double-immunolabeled for S- and M-opsins. Immunoreactivity in both dorsal and ventral cones is shown

for comparison. Scale bar (d–o) = 10 μ m. Lower panel: Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of cone-related genes in the retinas of wild-type (+/+), heterozygous *staggerer* (*sg*/+) and homozygous *staggerer* mutants (*sg*/*sg*) at postnatal day 21. The transcript levels of each gene are expressed relative to wild-type controls (=1) after normalization to *Gapdh* levels. Each bar represents the mean ± SEM (*n* = 5). Asterisks denote statistically significant expression differences between wild-type and *staggerer* genotypes (*sg*/+ or *sg*/*sg*) (Student's *t*-test; **p* < 0.01).



Fig. 4 Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of cone genes in the wild-type (+/+) and *staggerer* (*sg/sg*) retinas during postnatal development. The transcript levels of each gene are shown relative to wild-type levels at P21 (=1) after normalization to *Gapdh* levels. Each plot represents the mean \pm SEM (*n* = 3).

(Fig. 5, left). The *Opn1sw* promoter was activated by both ROR α (two-fold) and Crx (10-fold), and a synergistic response (44-fold) was observed in the presence of both expression vectors (Fig. 5, right). This synergy was significantly impaired by site-directed mutagenesis of both RORE1 and RORE2, and by deletion to position -200 removing both ROREs. These results suggest that ROR α activates *Opn1sw* transcription in cooperation with Crx and that the ROREs in the *Opn1sw* promoter are required for this activation.

ROR α binds to the regulatory regions of cone genes *in vivo*. To determine whether *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3* are direct targets of ROR α *in vivo*, we next performed ChIP assays using anti-ROR α antibody. Primers were designed for the promoter regions of *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw* and *Arr3*, as well as the locus control region (LCR) of *Opn1mw*. The promoters of *Hbb* (encoding hemoglobin beta) and *Shh* were also examined as negative controls. The first analysis using C57BL/6 mouse retinas failed to detect ROR α at the given genomic regions (Fig. 6c), but this may reflect the paucity of cones in the wild-type mouse retina, which represent only 3% of the photoreceptor layer and 2% of the total retina. To overcome this difficulty, we performed ChIP assays on *Nrl*–/– retina, in which all rods are transformed to functional cones (Mears *et al.* 2001; Daniele *et al.* 2005). In the *Nrl*–/– retina, the whole thickness of the outer nuclear layer exhibited intense ROR α immunoreactivity, providing



Fig. 5 Co-transfection assays demonstrate the activation of the *Opn1sw* promoter by ROR α . The *Opn1sw* promoter (-507 to +54)/ luciferase reporter is activated by ROR α in a dose-dependent manner (left, 0–400 ng). The presence of both ROR α and Crx leads to a synergistic activation (right, –507), which is impaired by site-directed

mutations (RE1,2-mu) or deletion to -200 (-200). Data are shown as fold activation over basal activity and represent the mean \pm SEM (*n* = 3). Asterisks denote statistically significant differences compared to basal activity (Student's *t*-test; **p* < 0.05, ***p* < 0.01).



Fig. 6 *In vivo* ChIP assays using cone-rich *NrI*-/- retina reveal ROR α binding to the regulatory regions of cone genes. (a) Differential interference contrast (DIC) image of the *NrI*-/- retina. GCL: ganglion cell layer; IPL: inner plexiform layer; INL: inner nuclear layer; OPL: outer plexiform layer; ONL: outer nuclear layer; RPE: retinal pigment epithelium. (b) ROR α immunoreactivity in the *NrI*-/- retina. The whole thickness of the ONL containing cones is immunoreactive. Scale bar (a

additional evidence that ROR α is present in cones (Fig. 6a and b). Strikingly, ChIP assays using the cone-enriched *Nrl*-/- retina detected significant levels of ROR α at the *Opn1sw* promoter, LCR of *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3* promoter, but not *Opn1mw* promoter (Fig. 6c). ROR α was absent from the *Hbb* and *Shh* promoters which, together with the negligible signal obtained with IgG at all sites, proved specificity. These results strongly suggest that ROR α binds to the regulatory regions of *Opn1sw*, *Opn1mw*, and *Arr3* and thus that the down-regulation of these genes in the *staggerer* mouse is a direct result of its absence at these cone gene regulatory elements.

Discussion

RORa as a novel regulator of cone genes

This study is the first, to our knowledge, to address the role of ROR α in the retina, and we herein demonstrate that ROR α is involved in cone photoreceptor development by regulating a subset of cone genes. This is supported by our findings that (i) ROR α is expressed in cones, (ii) the expression of S-opsin, M-opsin and cone arrestin is significantly impaired in the absence of ROR α , (iii) ROR α mutation affects cone gene expression from P3 onward, temporally corresponding with the timing of ROR α expression in wild-type cones, (iv) ROR α activates the Sopsin gene promoter in cooperation with Crx *in vitro*, and (v) ROR α binds to the regulatory regions of the S-opsin, M-opsin and cone arrestin genes *in vivo*. While ROR β and TR β 2 selectively activate S- and M-opsins, respectively



and b) = 20 μ m. (c) ChIP assays using the *Nrl*-/- retinas demonstrate ROR α binding to the *Opn1sw* promoter (*Opn1sw* pro), *Opn1mw* locus control region (*Opn1mw* LCR), and *Arr3* promoter (*Arr3* pro), but not *Opn1mw* promoter (*Opn1mw* pro). DNA fragments bound to immunoprecipitated ROR α were quantitated by real-time PCR. Data are expressed relative to the IgG control (*Opn1sw* pro, *Nrl*-/- retinas), which is assigned a value 1. Each bar represents the mean ± SEM (*n* = 3).

(Ng *et al.* 2001; Srinivas *et al.* 2006), ROR α is required to activate both cone opsins, as well as cone arrestin. Thus, in contrast to ROR β and TR β 2, which play key roles in the determination of opsin identity in cones, ROR α may be involved in the terminal differentiation of cones by promoting expression of specific genes in all cones. Although ROR α targets several core components of the cone phototransduction pathway, it is probably not required for the survival of cones, because no apparent degeneration or loss of cones was observed in the ROR α mutant retina during the first 5 weeks of postnatal life. The longer term effects of mutation could not be evaluated due to increased lethality of mutant animals.

Regulation of S-opsin expression

Srinivas et al. (2006) have recently reported that $ROR\beta$ transactivates mouse Opn1sw by binding to two ROR response elements (ROREs) located in the promoter region. Although ROR β occupies the ROREs during the late embryonic period, these authors suggested the presence of other factors that bind these ROREs at later developmental stages. ROREs are composed of a half-site core motif PuGGTCA preceded by a short AT-rich sequence, and RORa as well as ROR^β activates transcription by binding to these elements (Giguère et al. 1994). Indeed, our reporter assays demonstrated that these elements are required for the promoter activation by RORa, and ChIP assays using the pure-cone retinas of the Nrl-/- mice detected ROR α at this promoter region in vivo, suggesting that RORa may also transactivate Opn1sw by binding to the ROREs in this region. The promoter activity was only modestly activated by

ROR α alone but was strikingly enhanced by cooperation with Crx. Interestingly, a similar synergistic response has been reported between Crx and ROR β , and such cooperation between homeodomain factors and orphan nuclear receptors has been proposed to enhance their target gene specificity (Srinivas *et al.* 2006). How ROR α and ROR β , which seem to share the same binding sites in the *Opn1sw* promoter, cooperate to regulate transcription is a matter of great interest and warrants further investigation.

Regulation of M-opsin expression

Our quantitative RT-PCR analysis has demonstrated a dramatic activation of M-opsin expression in the wild-type mouse retina from P3 to P12 (Fig. 4). Although M-opsin expression requires TRB2 and its ligand thyroid hormone (Ng et al. 2001; Roberts et al. 2006), the mechanism of M-opsin activation by TRB2 remains poorly understood. Mouse retinal explants are capable of expressing M-opsin only when harvested from P3 or older pups, indicating that the commitment of cones to an M-opsin identity occurs around P3 (Söderpalm et al. 1994; Wikler et al. 1996). TRβ2 transcript levels peak during the embryonic period and are down-regulated after birth (Ng et al. 2001; Applebury et al. 2007), showing no apparent temporal correlation with M-opsin induction. However, a detailed immunohistochemical analysis showed that TRB2 protein is transiently downregulated between E19 and P2, followed by re-expression in cones by P5 (Roberts et al. 2005). This re-expression of TR β 2 temporally coincides with the commitment of cones to M-opsin expression. Interestingly, our data show that RORa is expressed in cones from P3, again coinciding with the timing of the commitment to M-opsin expression. These findings lead to a hypothesis that the up-regulation of $TR\beta 2$ and RORa around P3 commits postnatal cones to express M-opsin, resulting in the subsequent dramatic activation of M-opsin (Fig. 7).

Although the lack of ROR α results in four to five-fold reductions in M-opsin transcript levels at P6-P12, a much smaller reduction (1.3-fold) was observed at P21. This suggests that the reduction in M-opsin expression may be partially compensated by P21. TR β 2 is most likely involved in this process, because TR β 2 transcripts become significantly up-regulated in the ROR α mutant retina by P21, possibly by a feedback mechanism triggered by the impaired activation of M-opsin.

Our ChIP assays using the *Nrl*-/- retina have demonstrated that ROR α binds to the LCR of *Opn1mw*, but not to the promoter region. The LCR, located between 3.1 and 3.7 kb upstream of the human L/M-opsin gene array, is an enhancer region that plays an essential role in both L and M-opsin transcription (Wang *et al.* 1992; Smallwood *et al.* 2002). In mouse, transcription factors known to regulate photoreceptor genes, such as Crx and Otx2, have been shown to bind this region *in vivo* to regulate M-opsin expression (Peng and Chen



Fig. 7 Three stages of cone development defined by the expression of nuclear receptors regulating the cone opsin genes. In stage I, TR β 2 and its heterodimeric partner RXR γ repress S-opsin expression. In stage II, transient down-regulation of TR β 2 and RXR γ and up-regulation of ROR β lead to S-opsin induction. In stage III, the re-expression of TR β 2 and up-regulation of ROR α cooperatively induce M-opsin expression. ROR α also acts to amplify S-opsin expression.

2005; Peng *et al.* 2005). The present evidence that ROR α regulates M-opsin transcription through a direct interaction with the LCR further supports the notion that the LCR is a critical regulatory region for M-opsin expression.

The present study is the first to show the dorsal-ventral difference in TR β 2 expression in the retina. Because previous immunohistochemical and in situ hybridization studies have failed to identify a graded pattern of $TR\beta 2$ expression (Ng et al. 2001; Roberts et al. 2005, 2006), establishment of the M-opsin gradient has been attributed to a gradient in TRB2 ligand, thyroid hormone. However, our observation that TR β 2 expression is higher in the dorsal retina raises the possibility that not only the thyroid hormone gradient, but also the gradient of TR β 2 expression may contribute to shaping the M-opsin gradient. Although we observed higher TR β 2 expression in the dorsal retina as early as P6, M-opsin expression was not graded at this stage. This implies that the TR β 2 gradient alone may not be sufficient to form an M-opsin gradient at least at this stage.

Regulation of cone arrestin expression

Despite the recent progress in our understanding of the transcriptional regulation of cone opsin genes, regulatory factors for the expression of other cone genes are largely unknown. Cone arrestin plays an important role in cone phototransduction by binding to light-activated, phosphorylated cone opsins (Zhu *et al.* 2003). Our data provide the first evidence that ROR α regulates cone arrestin expression through a direct interaction with the cone arrestin promoter. The levels of cone arrestin transcripts are extremely low at birth, but increase during the postnatal

period to reach adult levels by P21. This postnatal induction of cone arrestin is significantly impaired by the ROR α mutation, indicating that ROR α is required for the maximal expression of cone arrestin. However, a gradual increase in cone arrestin transcripts was still observed in the absence of ROR α , suggesting that other factor or factors may be involved to induce cone arrestin expression in cooperation with ROR α . Indeed, previous studies using human retinoblastoma cell lines showed that cone arrestin expression is up-regulated by retinoic acid or thyroid hormone treatment, suggesting the possible involvement of nuclear receptors, such as RXR γ and TR β 2, in the transcriptional control of cone arrestin gene (Li *et al.* 2002; Liu *et al.* 2007).

Developmental sequence of cone opsin regulation

On the basis of our findings and those previously reported, we propose a model in which cone development is divided into at least three stages defined by the expression of nuclear receptors regulating the cone opsin genes (Fig. 7). Cones at stage I are characterized by the expression of TR β 2 and RXR γ and repression of cone opsin genes. Both TR β 2 and RXR γ are expressed in newly generated cones from E14.5 and act cooperatively to repress S-opsin expression (Ng et al. 2001; Roberts et al. 2005). The factor that represses M-opsin until the appropriate developmental stage has not been discovered. At stage II, both TRB2 and RXR γ are transiently down-regulated, leading to the derepression of S-opsin beginning around E18 (Roberts et al. 2005). RORB probably acts to induce S-opsin at this stage although the temporal expression pattern of ROR β in cones remains to be determined. M-opsin expression is still repressed, and thus cones in stage II express only S-opsin. Stage III is initiated by the re-expression of TRB2 and upregulation of RORa. TRB2 and RORa now cooperate to induce M-opsin. RORa also acts to amplify S-opsin expression. The role of ROR β in S-opsin induction at this stage is unclear as RORB in photoreceptors is downregulated during the postnatal period (Chow et al. 1998; Srinivas et al. 2006).

Unlike TR β 2 and ROR β , which are significantly downregulated during postnatal development, ROR α expression persists in mature cones, implying that ROR α may be involved not only in the developmental induction but also the maintenance of cone opsin genes. ROR α has been implicated in the circadian clock function within the suprachiasmatic nucleus (Sato *et al.* 2004; Akashi and Takumi 2005). It has been reported that ROR α expression in the retina exhibits a circadian oscillation (Kamphuis *et al.* 2005; Tosini *et al.* 2007) and that the transcription of S-opsin in the mouse retina is also under circadian control (von Schantz *et al.* 1999). It will be interesting to test the hypothesis that ROR α may control the circadian expression of its target genes, including cone opsins, in the mature retina.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank Douglas Forrest for plasmids and Keqin Yan for technical assistance. This work was partly supported by Grantin-Aid for Scientific Research, No. 17500239 (to H.S.) and No. 18591936 (to H.F.), from Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

Supporting information

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:

Fig. S1 Quantitative RT-PCR analysis of ROR α and other conerelated gene expression in the dorsal and ventral halves of the wildtype retinas during development.

Table S1 PCR primers used in RT-PCR or ChIP assays.

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