

# Reverse Genetics Applied to Immunobiology of Tumor Necrosis Factor, a Multifunctional Cytokine

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**Abstract**—Tumor necrosis factor (TNF) is one of many cytokines – protein molecules responsible for communication between the cells of immune system. TNF was discovered and given its grand name because of its striking antitumor effects in experimental systems, but its main physiological functions in the context of whole organism turned out to be completely unrelated to protection against tumors. This short review discusses “man-made” mouse models generated by early genome-editing technologies, which enabled us to establish true functions of TNF in health and certain diseases as well as to unravel potential strategies for improving therapy of TNF-dependent diseases.

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## INTRODUCTION

Almost 50 years ago, Lloyd J. Old and his colleagues reported an interesting experiment performed to study the antitumor effect of bacterial endotoxin and other substances, which later would be known as activators of innate immune receptors [1]. As it was shown, combination of the infection with BCG (Tb vaccine mycobacterial strain) and subsequent injection of lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Escherichia coli* leads to the appearance in blood serum of an unknown “factor” with marked antitumor activity, which was referred to as Tumor Necrosis Factor (TNF) [2]. This discovery was perceived as further development of the ideas of William B. Coley, who pointed out the

possibility of using live bacteria or bacterial lysates in the therapy for some tumors as early as at the beginning of the 20th century [3]. Further studies showed that TNF had a protein nature and could be produced by the cells of immune system in response to various stimuli, e.g., by myeloid cells in response to LPS. Molecular cloning and heterologous expression of the human and mouse *Tnf* genes made it possible to relate antitumor activity to a single protein that could be defined as a “cytokine”, i.e., the rapidly increasing superfamily of protein mediators of cell communications. Administration of the recombinant TNF produced in *E. coli* to mice fully reproduced antitumor activity of the native TNF [4], and its high doses resulted in manifestation of toxicity associated with an acute inflam-

**Abbreviations:** ESCs, embryonic stem cells; LT, lymphotoxin; TNF, tumor necrosis factor; UTR, untranslated region.

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matory response in mice (toxicity was not observed in the L. Old's experiments [2], probably because it was impossible to achieve the same high concentrations as in the experiments with recombinant TNF).

TNF has a molecular weight of 17 kDa; however, in order to perform its physiological (including anti-tumor) functions, it has to form a homotrimer, which is a high-affinity ligand of two different receptors: TNFR1 (p55) and TNFR2 (p75) [5]. These receptors differ both in the type of transmitted intracellular signal and in the patterns of tissue-specific expression.

Following the molecular description of TNF and its receptors in the 1980s, other members of the large families of TNF-like cytokines (most of which are membrane-bound molecules) and TNFR-like receptors were soon discovered; they are able to transmit several types of intracellular signals, thereby determining biological activity of the ligands of this family [6]. There were hundreds of papers describing TNF activity in different situations *in vitro* and *in vivo*; however, physiological function of TNF in the context of a whole organism was established in 1990s mainly through two strategies of reverse genetics: creating mice with the *Tnf* gene knockout and generating transgenic mice with its overexpression. Moreover, several interesting mouse lines were isolated by the methods of direct genetics. Below we will discuss numerous mouse models that have been independently created and characterized in various laboratories, as well as the so-called "reporter" mice, which represent additional tools for studying immunobiology and physiology of this interesting cytokine.

#### MICE WITH COMPLETE, PARTIAL OR REGULATED GENETIC DEFICIENCY OF TNF

The knockout techniques that appeared before the era of genomic nucleases and became widespread in the 1980s were based on targeting the genes in mouse embryonic stem cell lines (ESCs) (for other animals, such lines were created much later). Due to the low efficiency of this procedure in the mouse ESCs it became necessary to introduce antibiotic resistance markers to select knockout clones (usually neomycin-resistance); as a result, the expression cassette containing the resistance gene (the so-called "neo-cassette") remained forever in the structure of the targeted locus and could influence the activity of the nearby genes. Noteworthy, it took 10 years from the cloning of the mouse *Tnf* gene to the creation of the first *Tnf* knockout mice. At least four laboratories obtained such mice almost simultaneously and independently (Table 1), but the palm of victory obviously went to the laboratory of G. Kollias in Greece. When creating the *Tnf* knockout mice, one had to take into consideration two significant peculiar-

ities of this gene. Firstly, the *Tnf* gene is located very close to the related lymphotoxin genes *Lta* and *Ltβ* [7]; therefore, combined *Tnf/Lt* knockouts cannot be obtained by crossbreeding of mice with single knockouts. Secondly, the *Tnf/Lt* locus is within the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) [7]; hence, it is very difficult to obtain congenic mouse lines with modifications of the *Tnf* gene and the required alleles of the MHC genes, so that the knockout mice should be designed with particular reference to the genetic basis of ESCs and mouse lines used for subsequent backcrossing.

Pasparakis et al. [8] described new TNF functions associated with its role in the structural and functional organization of lymphoid tissues, about which the discoverers of TNF had no idea. It should be noted that the related cytokine, LT $\alpha$ , was considered for 10 years to be a functional analog of TNF, produced by lymphoid rather than by myeloid cells. This view on lymphotoxin was supported by the fact that the recombinant protein demonstrated an antitumor activity similar to that of TNF in the model of transplantable sarcoma in mice, as well as in cell cultures sensitive to cytotoxic effects of TNF [20]. These results indicated potential redundancy in TNF and LT $\alpha$  functions, inspiring creation of a double knockout of both genes. Table 1 presents some mouse lines with such double knockouts. Note that earlier the lymphotoxin gene knockout produced a sensational phenotype [21]: in mice peripheral lymphoid organs were completely absent, with the exception of spleen. Further comparison of the phenotypes in the knockout mice made it possible to differentiate between the functions of TNF and lymphotoxin, e.g., in the case of organogenesis of Peyer's patches [22], which may be explained by signal transduction from the membrane lymphotoxin complex LT $\alpha_1$ /LT $\beta_2$  [23] through LT $\beta$ R [24], while a minor overlap in functions is due to the fact that the soluble lymphotoxin (LT $\alpha_3$ ) is able to trigger the signaling cascade *in vivo* through TNFR1 and TNFR2 [17].

The technique of conditional (tissue-specific or inducible) genetic recombination developed in the early 1990s in mammalian cell culture [25] and then in the cells of transgenic [26, 27] and knockout [28-30] mice was based on LoxP/Cre recombination system of bacteriophage P1, has truly revolutionized biological studies. It became possible, firstly, to circumvent the problem of embryonic lethality typical for a great number of genes, even those with unknown non-redundant functions in embryogenesis, and, secondly, to relate particular functions of the genes and their products to particular types of producer cells. This strategy proved to be especially fruitful for studying the genes whose products manifested pleiotropic functions, which is typical for cytokines and other regulatory molecules.

Development of a panel of conditional mouse lines for the *Tnf* gene began almost 20 years ago [14],

**Table 1.** Mouse models with TNF deficiency

Genotype of the <i>Tnf/Lt</i> locus	Description	References
Mice with the complete TNF gene knockout generated by reverse genetics		
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup>	complete knockout created by targeting in ESCs of the EK.CCE line of mice of the 129/Sv lineage, with one backcrossing at C57BL/6	[8]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup>	complete knockout created by targeting in ESCs of the W9.5 line from mice of the 129/Sv line, with one backcrossing at C57BL/6	[9]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup>	complete knockout created by targeting in ESCs from the hybrid of the first generation of C57BL/6 and CBA mice, with selection of the <i>Tnf</i> gene knockout in the C57BL/6 haplotype and 5 rounds of backcrossing at C57BL/6	[10, 11]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup>	complete knockout created by targeting in ESCs from the BL/6-III line on the genetic basis of C57BL/6	[12]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup>	derived from the mouse line created for conditional targeting of TNF on the genetic basis of 129/Sv, with multiple backcrossing at C57BL/6; the targeted locus does not contain neo-cassettes	[13, 14]
Mouse models with combined TNF/LT knockout		
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Lta</i> <sup>-/-</sup> (TNF/LTα double KO)	complete knockout of the <i>Lta</i> and <i>Tnf</i> genes created by targeting in ESCs of the BL/6-III line on the genetic basis of C57BL/6	[12]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Lta</i> <sup>-/-</sup> (TNF/LTα double KO)	complete knockout of the <i>Lta</i> and <i>Tnf</i> genes created by targeting in ESCs from the mouse 129/Sv line, with one backcrossing at C57BL/6	[15]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Lta</i> <sup>-/-</sup> (TNF/LTα double KO)	complete knockout of the <i>Lta</i> and <i>Tnf</i> genes created by targeting in ESCs from the mouse 129/Sv line, with one backcrossing at C57BL/6	[16]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Ltb</i> <sup>-/-</sup> (TNF/LTβ double KO)	complete knockout of the <i>Ltb</i> and <i>Tnf</i> genes created by targeting in ESCs from the mouse 129/Sv line, with multiple backcrossing at C57BL/6	[17]
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Lta</i> <sup>-/-</sup> <i>Ltb</i> <sup>-/-</sup> (TNF/LTα/LTβ triple KO)	complete knockout of the <i>Lta</i> , <i>Tn</i> , and <i>Ltb</i> genes created by targeting in ESCs from the mouse 129/Sv line, with multiple backcrossing at C57BL/6	[18]
Hypomorphic allele of the <i>Tnf</i> gene selected with the help of direct genetics		
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>PanR1/PanR1</sup> , <i>Tnf</i> <sup>PanR1/+</sup>	in the random mutagenesis experiment using N-ethyl-N-nitrosourea, a dominant-negative mutant with the P138T amino acid substitution in the mature TNF protein was found; the mutation prevents TNF binding to the receptor TNFR1	[19]
Basic “platform” for generating conditional deletions of the <i>Tnf</i> gene in mice		
<i>Tnf</i> <sup>flox/flox</sup>	using genetic knockout in ESCs from the mouse 129/Sv line, with multiple backcrossing at C57BL/6, the <i>Tnf</i> gene is framed by LoxP sites (“floxed”); the modification does not affect activity of the gene but allows for its subsequent elimination by Cre recombinase in particular types of cells and/or in inducible fashion	[14]

first for the major populations of immunocytes: myeloid cells and lymphocytes. Using these mouse models, it was shown that the particular homeostatic or pathogenic functions of TNF are associated with the

particular type of cells producing this cytokine. For example, myeloid cells (primarily macrophages and neutrophils) are necessary for protection against intracellular infections and formation of granulomas but,

at the same time, proved to be the major sources of systemic TNF in different pathological states, e.g., LPS-induced toxicity [14]. On the other hand, TNF produced by T and B cells performs homeostatic functions, including organization of lymphoid tissue [31]. Later, mice with the constitutive or induced deletion of the *Tnf* gene in dendritic cells, monocytes, lymphocytes [32-34], basophiles, microglia, mast cells [35], epithelial cells [36, 37], smooth muscle cells [38, 39], etc., were created. Interestingly, in all cases there were unique phenotypic traits associated with the TNF production by a particular cellular source.

#### MOUSE MODELS BASED ON TNF OVEREXPRESSION AND/OR "HUMANIZATION"

The first and the best-known transgenic mouse system utilized the mechanism of posttranscriptional regulation of the *Tnf* gene [40], confirmed the hypothesis of a relationship between the overexpression of TNF and the development of arthritis [41] and became a widespread preclinical model for studying TNF blockers. It was created in the Kollias's laboratory [42] in 1991. This model was an important addition to the

clinical results obtained by Maini et al. [43] and Feldmann et al. [44] and made it possible to substantiate anti-TNF therapy as an innovative strategy for treating rheumatoid arthritis. In the original work of Kollias's team [42], the number of transgene insertions in mice was several dozens, which resulted in manifestation of the TNF-dependent polyarthritis in all mice at the age of several months. Therefore, the drawbacks of this model included the early development of only one type of the TNF-dependent diseases, preventing modeling of other autoimmune diseases. Later, the same genetic construct was used to create transgenic mice with a smaller number of transgenic insertions, making it possible to ameliorate the pathogenic phenotype and to extend the range of applications of this preclinical model [45] (Table 2).

Note that in the works by Keffer et al. [42] and Hayward et al. [45] the human *Tnf* gene was overexpressed in mice; at the same time, the mouse *Tnf* gene was not deleted and could be expressed, while both TNF receptors remained murine. In essence, these were partially "humanized" preclinical models allowing treatment of the experimental TNF-mediated pathologies with involvement of the human TNF blockers, most of them (with the exception of etanercept) being species-specific and not working against mouse TNF.

**Table 2.** Mice with TNF overexpression

Mouse model	Description	References
Tgl278	transgenic line with the human <i>Tnf</i> gene under control of a strong promoter, with modification of 3'-untranslated region (UTR), which resulted in high expression of human TNF and caused severe polyarthritis in mice; preclinical model for studying the effects of TNF blockers <i>in vivo</i>	[42]
B6.Cg-Tg(TNF)#Xen	the same but with moderate levels of human TNF expression; improved preclinical model	[45]
BPSM1	the line with spontaneous insertion of retrotransposon in the mouse 3'-UTR <i>Tnf</i> , impairing the previously unknown mechanism of posttranscriptional regulation; TNF overexpression in this mouse line leads not only to severe polyarthritis but also to heart valve disease	[46]
TNF <sup>del4</sup> , TNF <sup>del5</sup> , TNF <sup>del6</sup> and their combinations	the panel of mouse lines with impairment of three regions in the 3'-UTR of the mouse <i>Tnf</i> gene regulating mRNA stability; it has been shown that impairment of this system may result in the extremely high TNF production causing death of some embryos	[47]
TNF <sup>ΔARE</sup>	mice with deletion of the AT-rich region in 3'-UTR of the mouse <i>Tnf</i> gene by the LoxP/Cre technique; phenotypically similar to the Tgl278 and BPSM1 line but, in addition to arthritis, developed inflammation in the ileum of the small intestine	[48]
Transgenic mice with the entire human <i>Tnf/lta/ltβ</i> -locus	all three genes are under control of the intrinsic promoters/enhancers; there was a moderate overexpression of genes of the human <i>Tnf/lta/ltβ</i> locus; cortical atrophy of the thymus	[49]

**Table 3.** Reporter mice for visualization of TNF expression

Genetic name of mouse model	Description	References
TNF-2A-Kat (B6.FRFPK+)	bicistronic expression of TNF and fluorescent protein Katushka using the viral 2A peptide sequence	[58, 59]
hTNF.LucBAC	recombination with the human TNF BAC clone, which resulted in substitution of the luciferase gene for exon 1 of the <i>Tnf</i> gene	[60]
FVB/N-Tg(CAG-EGFP,-Tnf)1Kul/J	mice with the “floxed” <i>eGFP</i> cassette, which prevents transcription of the mouse <i>Tnf</i> cDNA; TNF is expressed only after Cre-mediated recombination	[61]

The more advanced “humanized” model included mice with the human *Tnf* gene inserted precisely at the site of the mouse *Tnf* gene (genetic “knock-in”) and with conservation of all regulatory elements [50]. These mice did not demonstrate any abnormalities in the development of lymphoid tissue microarchitecture; at the same time, the human TNF performed protective function in the case of intracellular infections, which was indicative of normal *in vivo* signaling through the mouse TNFR1 receptor. On the other hand, the human TNF is unable to effectively activate the mouse TNFR2 [51], which was a disadvantage of this humanized model. For quite a number of experimental pathologies (arthritis, acute hepatotoxicity, etc.) such limitation of the model is not a problem, because most of the biological effects of TNF are mediated by TNFR1. Nevertheless, in some cases, TNFR2 may play a significant role; therefore, the mice with “humanization” of both TNF and the extracellular domain of TNFR2 with the possibility of conditional activation of TNFR2 were developed to eliminate this limitation and to specify the role of TNFR2 [52]. Transgenic mice expressing Cre recombinase in FoxP3-positive cells were used to demonstrate that signal transduction via TNFR2 in the T-regulatory cells contributes to protection of the central nervous system in the model of autoimmune pathology [52]. One more interesting line contained the modified *Tnf* gene, the product of which had certain amino acid variations and, as a result, almost no soluble TNF was formed [53]. The experiments with this mouse line have demonstrated for the first time that many TNF functions *in vivo* are mediated by the membrane-bound but not soluble form.

Several mouse models with overexpression of the endogenous mouse TNF due to impaired 3'-UTR regions of the *Tnf* gene, which are responsible for mRNA stability, were described (Table 2). In the BPSM1 mice, there was spontaneous integration of retrotransposon in the 3'-UTR [46] leading to the development of severe polyarthritis, as well as heart valve disease. The panel of mouse lines with combinatorial damage to several regions of 3'-UTR involved in the control of mRNA sta-

bility demonstrates not only polyarthritis and heart diseases but, in some cases, also embryonic lethality as a result of extremely high TNF production [47]. All these regions are affected by the Cre/LoxP-mediated deletion in the TNF<sup>AARE</sup> line developed in the Kollias's laboratory [48] 25 years ago; therefore, with regard to arthritis this model is equivalent to the BPSM1 line and resembles the Tg1278 line, but with more pronounced symptoms of systemic inflammation.

Taking into consideration complexities in regulation of the genes encoding TNF and lymphotoxins, detailed elucidation of the mechanism of accelerated atrophy of the thymus in the mice carrying the entire human locus *Tnf/Lt* as a transgene insertion (Table 2) might need further investigation [49].

#### “REPORTER” MICE ARE AN IMPORTANT TOOL FOR STUDYING TNF FUNCTIONS

Genetic constructs encoding different luminescent or fluorescent proteins considerably expanded the possibilities of detection and visualization of gene activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* [54]. Transgenic mice, with expression of the protein under study being accompanied by expression of the reporter protein, have become a widespread tool for such studies [55]. In most cases, transgenesis utilized bicistronic constructs that control constitutive or conditional expression of the studied protein and the fluorescent reporter protein. However, it is also possible to design more complex constructs that allow monitoring cells of a particular lineage of cellular differentiation, with the fluorescence of one protein switching to the fluorescence of another protein in the course of differentiation [56].

Several variants of the reporter mice for TNF studies are known (Table 3). Luciferase, green fluorescent protein GFP, and far-red fluorescent protein Katushka were used as reporter proteins [57]. Detection of reporter proteins is possible not only by flow cytometry and histological identification of TNF-producing cells, but also by *in vivo* visualization.

## CONCLUSIONS

TNF proved to be a surprisingly complex cytokine with numerous functions both in homeostasis of the immune system and in some nonimmune organs as well as in different pathologies. Mouse models have made it possible to link the protective and homeostatic functions of TNF and its proinflammatory effects (which may facilitate the development of certain pathologies), to the particular types of the TNF-producing cells. One conclusion that can be drawn from a large number of studies discussed in this review is that the systemic TNF blockade *in vivo* will inevitably demonstrate side effects due to neutralization of homeostatic and protective functions of TNF. Consequently, elucidating how to neutralize TNF only from a “pathogenic” cellular source [62], may allow us to apply improved therapeutic strategies to a variety of TNF-dependent diseases.

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