more than 5×10^8 cpm/µg by random priming [A. D. Feinberg and B. Vogelstein, *Anal. Biochem.* 137, 266 (1984)], and unincorporated nucleotides were removed by centrifugation through a Sephadex G-50 column (Boehringer Mannheim). Probes were used at 1×10^6 cpm per milliliter of hybridization solution. Comparisons of the autoradiographs were facilitated by color coding [D. D. Dunigan, T. E. Smart, M. Zaitlin, *BioTechniques* 5, 32 (1987)].

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Dual Role of the Drosophila Pattern Gene tailless in Embryonic Termini

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One of the first zygotically active genes required for formation of the terminal domains of the *Drosophila* embryo is *tailless* (*tll*). Expression of the *tll* gene is activated ectopically in gain-of-function mutants of the maternal terminal gene *torso* (*tor*); this suggests that *tor* normally activates the *tll* gene in the termini. Ectopic expression of *tll* under the control of an inducible promoter results in differentiation of ectopic terminal-specific structures, the Filzkörper, and leads to the activation of at least one gene, *hunchback*, that is required to form these structures. Ectopic expression of the *tll* gene also represses segmentation by repressing the gap genes *Krüppel* and *knirps* and probably also pair rule genes.

BAREAU STABLISHMENT OF THE TERMINAL domains of the Drosophila embryo requires activity of the maternal terminal genes, including tor, trunk (trk), torsolike (tsl), and l(1)polehole [l(1)ph] (1). The

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key role of the tll gene in the terminal hierarchy is demonstrated by the almost complete overlap between the phenotype of loss-of-function mutants in maternal terminal genes and tll; both produce embryos that lack terminal structures, including parts of the brain and cephalopharyngeal skeleton in the anterior and the eighth abdominal segment (A8), posterior spiracles (including Filzkörper), anal pads, and hindgut in the posterior (2-6) (Fig. 1). Genetic and molecular data suggest that the termini of the Drosophila embryo are established by a pathway in which a uniformly distributed tyrosine kinase receptor (the product of the tor gene) is activated at the poles of the embryo by a ligand controlled by the tsl gene; the activated tor receptor in turn activates the D-raf protein (the Drosophila Raf-1 homolog, encoded by the l(1)ph gene), and this leads to localized activation of tll transcription at the termini (4, 7, 8). The tll gene product, a steroid receptor–like protein (4), likely regulates gene activity required for formation of the structures missing from the termini of both maternal-terminal and tll mutants.

To test whether the tll gene product is sufficient to activate programs leading to differentiation of terminal-specific structures, we prepared a construct in which tll is under the control of the heat-inducible hsp70promoter; lines carrying this construct are referred to as HS-tll lines. We examined the effect on cuticular differentiation of ectopic expression of tll in embryos from tor trkdouble mutant mothers; these embryos express little or no tll RNA in the posterior and do not make Filzkörper (5, 9) (example in Fig. 1C). Heat shock of HS-tll embryos from tor trk mothers leads to the formation of Filzkörper (example in Fig. 1D), indicating

Fig. 1. Ectopic expression of the *tll* gene induces terminal structures. Dark-field photographs of cuticle preparations. (**A**) Wild-type (OreR), (**B**) tll^{149}/tll^{19ex} , (**C**) embryo from a *tor*^{WK} *trk*^{RA} mother, and (**D**) embryo from a cross of *tor*^{WK} *trk*^{RA} females to HST3.1 males, heat-shocked for 20 min (29). Segment A8 and Filzkörper [indicated by arrow and arrowhead in the wild-type embryo in (A), respectively] are missing from the *tll* in (B) and *tor*^{WK} *trk*^{RA} in (C) embryos. Among 70 heat-shocked (10 to 20 min) HST3.1 embryos from *tor*^{WK} *trk*^{RA} mothers, 27 had Filzkörper, which ranged in appearance from the diffuse Filzkörper (arrowheads) shown in (D) to the well-organized Filzkörper seen in (A). In this experiment, more than two Filzkörper per embryos up to eight Filzkörper per embryo were seen (Fig. 3B shows four Flizkörper). Among 184 heat-shocked (10 to 20 min) embryos from *tor*^{WK} *trk*^{RA} mothers, only four had a partial Filzkörper. The formation of partial Filzkörper in this situation is perhaps due to the fact that both *tor* and *trk* mutants display weaker phenotypes at higher temperatures (5).



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that in the absence of the maternal terminal system and of the endogenous *tll* activity in the posterior, the ectopically expressed *tll* gene is sufficient to activate a pathway leading to differentiation of a terminal-specific structure. The appearance of ectopic Filzkörper in heat-shocked HS-*tll* embryos could be explained if *tll* activates the expression of specific genes required for Filzkörper formation. Altered expression of at least one such gene, *hunchback (hb)*, can be observed immediately following heat shock. The posterior stripe of *hb* expression depends on *tll* activity (10) and is required for the formation of posterior structures, including part of the Filzkörper (11). After 30 min of ectopic *tll* expression in a wild-type background, the posterior stripe of expression of the 3.2-kb *hb* transcript expands anteriorly but not posteriorly (Fig. 2); this supports the proposition that in the posterior *tll* activates *hb* expression, whereas *huckebein* represses it (10).

Another likely function for the *tll* gene product is the repression of segmentation genes. In *tll* mutants, the central segmented domain expands toward the termini (2-4,

Fig. 2. Expression of segmentation genes in heat-shocked HS-tll embryos. The RNAs for hb, Kr, kni, and en were detected by in situ hybridization to whole embryos (30, 31). (A through D) Wild-type embryos (OreR). (**É** through **H**) Èmbryos from a cross of HST3.1 males to OreR females were heat shocked for 30 min. Embryos hybridized with a probe specific for the 3.2-kb hb transcript (A and E), a Kr probe (B and F), and a kni probe (C and G) were 1.5 to 2.5 hours old at time of initiation of heat shock and were fixed for hybridization 30 min after the heat shock. The embryos shown are at the blastoderm stage. Only the central expression domains of Kr and kni are repressed by ectopic *tll* expression. The repression of Kr by ectopic tll explains the posterior-



ward expansion of the anterior hb domain seen in (E) because this domain expands in Kr mutants (32). Embryos hybridized with the *en* probe (D and H) were 3.0 to 3.5 hours old at the time of initiation of heat shock and were fixed 30 min after the heat shock. Ectopic expression of *tll* in *tor* gain-of-function mutants or in HS-*tll* embryos heat shocked starting at 1.5 to 3.0 hours results in elimination of all *en* stripes.

Fig. 3. Ectopic expression of the *tll* gene represses segmentation. The *tll* gene was expressed ectopically in embryos at different stages and for varying lengths of time during development as described in Fig. 1. (A through C) Cuticles of HS-tll embryos (from a cross of HST3.1 males to OreR females) aged 1.5 to 2.5 hours [nuclear cycles 9 through 13 (33) or embryonic stages 3 through 5 (34)] were heat-shocked for 15 min (A), 20 min (B), and 60 min (C). (D through F) Cuticular phenotypes of HS-tll embryos aged 2.5 to 3.0 hours [stages 5 to 6 (34)] (D) and 3.0 to 3.5 hours stages 7 to 8 (34)] (E and F) at time of initiation of 20-min heat shock. Filzkörper, both ectopic and those occurring in a normal position, are indicated by arrowheads. (G) We determined the time of maximal sensitivity to ectopic expression of tll by crossing HST3.1 males to w^{1118} females lacking the HS-tll construct, collecting embryos for 30-min intervals, aging the embryos to the indicated stages, and then heat shocking for 20 min. The fraction of unhatched embryos after this treatment was determined, and cuticles were prepared and analyzed from all unhatched embryos. The tor gain-offunction phenotype (white boxes) is any of the phenotypes falling in the range of those shown in (A) to (C), the lawn phenotype (shaded boxes) is that shown in (D), and the pair rule phenotype (black boxes) is that shown in (È) and (F). For each time point, an additional 3 to 8% of the total embryos failed to hatch and had either no apparent defects or a variety of unrelated defects, such as failures in head involution or cuticular differentiation. A similar proportion (3 to 5%) of the embryos from the control cross of ηy^{506} males to w^{1118} females failed to hatch and showed similar wild-type or defective cuticles upon heat shock; none showed the segmentation defects seen in the HS-tll cross. For each time point, at least 100 embryos were heat shocked. No lethality (failure to hatch) above background was observed when the HS-tll embryos were heat shocked after 3.5 hours.

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12-14), and in tor gain-of-function mutants, the deletion of contiguous groups of segments from the central segmented domain depends on the presence of a wild-type copy of the *tll* gene (15). To test whether the *tll* gene product is sufficient to suppress segmentation, we expressed tll ectopically by heat shocking 1.5- to 2.5-hour-old HS-till embryos. After 20 min of heat shock, virtually all embryos carrying the HS-tll construct showed a tor gain-of-function phenotype (Fig. 3G). With increasing duration of heat shock, the embryos showed an increasing repression of segmentation (Fig. 3, A through C) similar to that seen in embryos from mothers carrying the temperature-sensitive tor^{RL3} gain-of-function mutation (15). The observed repression of segmentation spreads from a central position at approximately 40% egg length in both HS-tll and tor^{RL3} (15) embryos, suggesting that segmented domains in the center of the embryo are more sensitive to suppression by tll than those closer to the termini. Because the maternal terminal system is not active in the central segmented domains of the embryo





Fig. 4. Ectopic expression of tll in tor gain-offunction and HS-til embryos. The tll RNA was detected by in situ hybridization to whole embryos (30). All embryos shown are at the blastoderm stage [nuclear cycle 14 (33) or embryonic stage 5 (34)]. (A) Wild-type embryo (OreR). (B) Em-bryo from a tor^{RL3} homozygous mother at 25°C. (C) Embryo from a tor^{D4021} heterozygous mother at 25°C. The strong staining throughout the embryo [except for the anterior tip because of a



repressive effect of the bicoid gene (9)] suggests that the *tll* RNA is expressed in the ectopic location at an amount similar to that normally found in the termini. (D) Embryo from a cross of OreR females with HS-tll males, heat-shocked for 30 min as described in (29); after the heat shock, we allowed the embryo to continue development for 30 min before fixation.

(16) and a similar repression of segmentation is induced by the ectopic expression of *tll* in embryos from tor trk mothers (Fig. 1D), we conclude that *tll* is capable of repressing segmentation independently of other genes activated by the maternal terminal pathway.

The repression of segmentation that results from ectopic expression of tll (Fig. 3A through C) could occur if tll represses gap genes, which function at the top of the segmentation hierarchy. When 1.5- to 2.5hour-old HS-tll embryos are heat-shocked for 30 min, expression of Krüppel (Kr) and knirps (kni) in the central segmented domain is repressed (Fig. 2, F and G). The terminal domains of Kr and the anterior domain of kni, which appear later than their respective central domains, are not repressed by ectopic tll, presumably because different constellations of transcription factors are present at these times and positions. Repression of Kr and kni, which together are required to establish segments T1 through A7 (17), is thus sufficient to explain the loss of contiguous groups of segments seen in HS-tll and tor gain-of-function embryos (Fig. 3, A through C and G). From these data, we infer that an important function of *tll* in the termini is to repress gap genes and thus to define the limits of the central segmented domain.

The phenotypes of HS-tll embryos heat shocked at slightly later times, however, suggest that ectopically expressed tll may also suppress other segmentation genes. When 2.5- to 3.0-hour-old embryos are heat shocked, most of the lethal embryos form cuticles with a continuous field of nonpolar denticles (the lawn phenotype) (Fig. 3, D and G). This could be explained by an effect of ectopic tll on either gap or pair rule gene expression (18, 19). Heat shock at 3.0 to 3.5 hours results in embryos in which T3 is fused to A1, A2 to A3, and so on (Fig. 3, E through G). This phenotype is by definition a pair rule phenotype (17, 20) and is not easily explained by the effect of *tll* on gap gene expression. Because the alternating odd and even stripes of engrailed (en) gene expression are activated by different combinations of pair rule genes (21), we used the en transcription pattern as an indicator of pair rule gene activity. When *tll* is expressed ectopically starting at 2.5 to 3.5 hours, the even-numbered en stripes, corresponding to the domains missing from the cuticles (Fig. 3, E and F), are missing (Fig. 2H). These results suggest that, when expressed ectopically in the central segmental domain, tll represses pair rule genes as well as gap genes.

The repression of the gap genes Kr and kni and the expansion of the late blastoderm stage hb domains seen after ectopic expression of tll closely mimic the effects of the tor gain-offunction alleles (10, 13, 15). The basis for the tor gain-of-function phenotypic series is revealed by the altered *tll* expression pattern in these mutants; in embryos from tor^{RL3} (a weak allele) mothers, the terminal domains of tll RNA expression are expanded, whereas in embryos from tor^{D4021} (a strong allele) mothers, the expanded domains frequently meet in the center of the embryo, resulting in high and almost uniform expression of tll (Fig. 4). These results support the notion that the *tll* gene is the crucial zygotic gene activated by the maternal terminal hierarchy.

The effects observed after ectopic expression of the *tll* gene indicate that it functions both as a repressor of segmentation genes and as an activator of genes required to establish the unique characteristics of the termini. This dual role could be explained if the product of the *tll* gene were a transcription factor capable of functioning as both an activator and a repressor. The coexistence of both functions in one protein is consistent with the sequence similarity between the tll protein and steroid receptors (4), some of which have been shown to act as both repressors and activators of transcription (22).

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Autocrine or Paracrine Inflammatory Actions of **Corticotropin-Releasing Hormone in Vivo**

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Corticotropin-releasing hormone (CRH) functions as a regulator of the hypothalamicpituitary-adrenal axis and coordinator of the stress response. CRH receptors exist in peripheral sites of the immune system, and CRH promotes several immune functions in vitro. The effect of systemic immunoneutralization of CRH was tested in an experimental model of chemically induced aseptic inflammation in rats. Intraperitoneal administration of rabbit antiserum to CRH caused suppression of both inflammatory exudate volume and cell concentration by approximately 50 to 60 percent. CRH was detected in the inflamed area but not in the systemic circulation. Immunoreactive CRH is therefore produced in peripheral inflammatory sites where, in contrast to its systemic indirect immunosuppressive effects, it acts as an autocrine or paracrine inflammatory cytokine.

RH WAS ORIGINALLY ISOLATED from the hypothalamus and identified by and named for its property to stimulate anterior pituitary secretion of adrenocorticotropic hormone (ACTH), the systemic hormone that regulates production of glucocorticoids by the adrenal cortex (1). CRH and its receptors are widely distributed in many extrahypothalamic sites of the central nervous system (2), and this peptide functions as a coordinator of the stress response (3). By activating glucocorticoid and catecholamine secretion, central nervous system CRH participates in the suppressive effects of stress on the immune or inflammatory system (4). CRH directly stimulates leukocytes to produce immunoregulatory pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC)-related peptides (β -endorphin, ACTH, and α -melanocyte-stimulating hormone) (5, 6) and to secrete interleukin 1 (IL-1) and IL-2 (6, 7). CRH also stimulates lymphocyte prolifera-

tion, enhances the proliferative response of leukocytes to lectins, and increases the expression of the IL-2 receptor on T lymphocytes (8). In addition, CRH-binding sites exist in various subpopulations of leukocytes (9), and CRH immunoreactivity and mRNA have been detected in resting subpopulations of human white blood cells (10). These data suggest that CRH might have local direct effects on immune or inflammatory processes. We have tested the effect of systemic immunoneutralization of CRH on the size of a quantifiable inflamma-

Fig. 1. (A) Effect of rabbit anti-CRH or anti-TNFa on the inflammatory response of Sprague-Dawley rats to subcutaneous administration of carrageenin (11, 12). The mean (± SEM) volume of the inflammatory exudate and concentration of extravasated leukocytes are shown for each treatment group. Rats were injected intraperitoneally with 1 ml of anti-CRH, anti-TNFa, or nonimmune rabbit serum (control) 1 hour before injection of carrageenin. (B) Effects of immunoneutralization of CRH and TNFa alone or in combination or treatment with anti-TSH, expressed as a percentage of control values. Data shown are one representative of three separate experiments (n = 9 to 10 animals per)group per experiment) in (A) or combined results of three experi-

tory response. Carrageenin, a seaweed polysaccharide, is known to elicit a chemical inflammatory response in rats (11, 12), which can be quantified in terms of exudate volume and cell concentration in the inflammatory exudate and is sensitive to dose-dependent suppression by glucocorticoids (12).

Male Sprague-Dawley rats were injected intraperitoneally with neutralizing rabbit antiserum to CRH (anti-CRH) 1 hour before they were subcutaneously injected with carrageenin (13). Both exudate volume and cell concentrations in the treated area were suppressed by approximately 50 to 60%, when compared with the responses in control rats treated first with normal saline, normal rabbit serum, or rabbit antiserum (anti-TSH) to thyroid-stimulating hormone (TSH) (Fig. 1). The specific suppression of the inflammatory response observed after immunoneutralization of CRH had an opposite effect to that expected from neutralization of CRH in the hypothalamic-hypophyseal portal system. The latter should have resulted in hypoglucocorticoidism, which enhances the inflammatory response (12, 14). Instead, the results are compatible with local inflammatory effects of CRH. Direct local administration of anti-CRH into the air pouch simultaneously with carrageenin suppressed the inflammatory response to carrageenin to the same extent as systemic administration of this antiserum (15). Neutralizing antiserum (anti-TNF α) to TNF α (tumor necrosis factor- α) also suppressed inflammation (Fig. 1). TNF α is a major autocrine or paracrine inflammatory cytokine, which stimulates inflammation directly and by inducing the secretion of IL-1 and IL-6 (16). The effects of anti-CRH and anti-TNFa were not additive, indicating that the two antisera might interfere with a



ments in (B). Asterisks indicate significant differences from control (nonimmune rabbit serum) (P < 0.05), determined by analysis of variance.

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