Invited Review

Skeletal muscle development in the mouse embryo

B. Kablar and M.A. Rudnicki
Institute for Molecular Biology and Biotechnology, McMaster University, Hamilton, Ontario, Canada

Summary. In this review we discuss the recent findings concerning the mechanisms that restrict somitic cells to the skeletal muscle fate, the myogenic regulatory factors controlling skeletal muscle differentiation and specification of myogenic cell lineages, the nature of inductive signals and the role of secreted proteins in embryonic patterning of the myotome. More specifically, we review data which strongly support the hypothesis that Myf-5 plays a unique role in development of epaxial muscle, that MyoD plays a unique role in development of hypaxial muscles derived from migratory myogenic precursor cells, and that both genes are responsible for development of intercostal and abdominal muscles (hypaxial muscles that develop from the dermatomal epithelia). In addition, while discussing upstream and post-translational regulation of myogenic regulatory factors (MRFs), we suggest that correct formation of the myotome requires a complex cooperation of DNA binding proteins and cofactors, as well as inhibitory function of non-muscle cells of the forming somite, whose proteins would sequester and suppress the transcription of MRFs. Moreover, in the third part of our review, we discuss embryonic structures, secreted proteins and myogenic induction. However, although different signaling molecules with activity in the process of somite patterning have been identified, not many of them are found to be necessary during in vivo embryonic development. To understand their functions, generation of multiple mutants or conditional/tissue-specific mutants will be necessary.

Key words: Myogenesis, Patterning, Induction, Cell lineage, Mouse embryo

Introduction

In all vertebrates, the development of skeletal muscle occurs in a nearly related pattern (reviewed in Ordahl and LeDouarin, 1992; Wachtler and Christ, 1992; Kaehn et al., 1988; Denetclaw et al., 1997; Kahane et al., 1998). The myogenic regulatory factors (MRFs), a group of basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factors consisting of MyoD, myogenin, Myf-5, and MRF4, play essential regulatory functions in the skeletal-muscle developmental program. The introduction of null mutations in Myf-5, MyoD, myogenin, and MRF4 into the germline of mice has revealed the hierarchical relationships existing among the MRFs, and established that functional redundancy is a feature of the MRF regulatory network (reviewed in Megeyn and Rudnicki, 1995; Rudnicki and Jaenisch, 1995). Importantly, the entire embryonic lineage that gives rise to skeletal muscle never forms in compound-mutant animals lacking both Myf-5 and MyoD, as evidenced by the absence of myoblasts and myofibers throughout development (Rudnicki et al., 1993; Kablar and M.A. Rudnicki, unpublished).

Lineage tracing experiments in avian embryos indicate that epaxial (originating in the dorsal-medial half of the somite, e.g. back muscles) and hypaxial (originating in the ventral-lateral half of the somite, e.g. limb and body wall muscles) musculature at the limb level have distinct origin (reviewed in Chevallier et al., 1977; Christ et al., 1983; Ordahl and LeDouarin 1992; Christ and Ordahl 1995; Denetclaw et al., 1997). Recent reports provide the first definitive evidence for unique roles of MyoD and Myf-5 in the emergence of myogenic lineages within the developing somite (Kablar et al.,...

In this review we summarize recent findings that provide a link between MRF regulatory network and signals secreted from embryonic structures that regulate skeletal muscle fate and differentiation. For example, a number of studies have concerned the products of the Wnt, Hedgehog (Hh) and Bone morphogenetic protein (Bmp) gene families the key myogenic regulators, controlling initiation of myogenesis and fate of myoblasts. We primarily focus on the cell autonomous factors controlling skeletal muscle differentiation, on the identification of structures and molecules that induce compartmentalization of the somite into myotome and on the molecular biology of the distinct cell lineage formation within the somite.

**MRFs and myogenic cell lineages**

Since the discovery of MyoD in 1987, and thereafter other MRFs, such as: myogenin, Myf-5 and MRF4, there has been remarkable progress toward resolving the molecular mechanisms controlling skeletal muscle development. Through clarification of the functions of the myogenic bHLH transcription factors, skeletal muscle development has become a paradigm for reasoning about the mechanisms of genetic redundancy, cell differentiation and cell fate specification.

The role of the four MRFs during myogenesis has been elucidated by gene targeting in mice. Null mutations in myogenin cause a substantial reduction in skeletal muscle tissues (Hasty et al., 1993; Nabeshima et al., 1993), probably because of a failure in differentiation of already specified cells (Ordahl and Williams, 1998). Mutation in the other three genes results in essentially normal patterning and amount of skeletal muscle tissue (Braun et al., 1992; Rudnicki et al., 1992; Zhang et al., 1995). However, mice carrying null mutations in both MyoD and Myf-5 genes completely lack differentiated muscle and myoblasts (Rudnicki et al., 1993; Kablar and Rudnicki, unpublished). Taken together, these data led to the proposal that Myf-5 and MyoD (primary MRFs) are required for the determination of skeletal myoblasts, while myogenin and MRF4 (secondary MRFs) act later as differentiation factors (reviewed by Megeney and Rudnicki, 1995; Rudnicki and Jaenisch, 1995). In addition, when the Myf-5 coding region is replaced by myogenin, transgenic mice appear normal (Wang et al., 1996), but in the MyoD null background Myf-5<sup>myg<sup>-ki</sup></sup>/MyoD<sup>-ki</sup> mice fail to fully rescue the muscle deficit observed in Myf-5<sup>-/-</sup>/MyoD<sup>-/-</sup> embryos, suggesting that myogenin has a reduced ability to substitute for Myf-5 (Wang and Jaenish, 1997). However, what is less clear is the role of individual genes in control of the formation of distinct cell fates or lineages within the myotome.

The examination of the expression patterns of two MyoD-lacZ transgenes and immunohistochemistry against MRFs and skeletal muscle proteins, reveals that the MD6.0-lacZ transgene (-5 kb enhancer of MyoD promoter) is expressed in determined myoblasts in skeletal muscle precursor cells (e.g. back, intercostal and abdominal; migratory: branchial arches, tongue, limbs, diaphragm), and normal epaxial muscle (blue). Myf-5 null embryos have 2 day delay in translocation of all mpc for epithelia-derived musculature (e.g. back, intercostal and abdominal; pink in E14.5) and normal development of musculature deriving from migratory mpc (red). B. Summarized data on myogenic cell lineage dependence on Myf-5 and MyoD.

**Fig. 1. Myogenic cell lineages.** A. Examination of the expression pattern of two MyoD-lacZ transgenes and immunohistochemistry against MRFs and skeletal muscle proteins. Reveals that the MD6.0-lacZ transgene (-5 kb enhancer of MyoD promoter) is expressed in differentiated myocytes, while the 258/-2.5lacZ transgene (-20 kb enhancer of MyoD promoter) is expressed in determined mpc following translocation. MyoD null embryos have 2 day delay in differentiation of all hypaxial musculature (violet in E14.5), regardless of the origin of the mpc (e.g. epithelial: intercostal and abdominal; migratory: branchial arches, tongue, limbs, diaphragm), and normal epaxial muscle. Myf-5 null embryos have 2 day delay in translocation of all mpc for epithelia-derived musculature (e.g. back, intercostal and abdominal; pink in E14.5) and normal development of musculature deriving from migratory mpc (red). B. Summarized data on myogenic cell lineage dependence on Myf-5 and MyoD.
intercostal and abdominal wall musculature development in Myf-5<sup>-/-</sup> embryos. Tajbakhsh et al. (1996) and Kablar et al. (1999) have also shown that mpc migrate abnormally in Myf-5<sup>5lacZ</sup> knock-in mice and in 258/-2.5lacZ transgenic mice, respectively. The mpc expressing lacZ are found to coexpress cartilage and dermal markers in the absence of Myf-5 or Myf-5 and MyoD, suggesting that mpc remain multipotent. Therefore, together with the data on the targeted inactivation and the protein expression patterns, these recent observations strongly support the hypothesis that Myf-5 plays a unique role in development of epaxial muscle, while MyoD plays a unique role in the development of hypaxial muscles derived from migratory mpc (Fig. 1). In addition, the development of intercostal and abdominal muscles (hypaxial muscles that develop from the dermatomal epithelia; Ordahl and Williams, 1998) appears to be dependent on both genes and, therefore, these muscles may originate from two myogenic lineages.

**Upstream and post-translational regulation of MRFs in somites and limb buds**

Several members of the Pax family of homeobox genes are expressed in distinct regions of the developing somite. Pax-3 and Pax-7 are expressed in the paraxial mesoderm and, then, in the dorsal half of somites, prior to the formation of medial and lateral domains of the dermamyotome (Goulding et al., 1991; Jostes et al., 1991). Neither of them is expressed in the myotome, but Pax-3 is expressed in the population of migratory mpc. The first indication of a role for Pax-3 in skeletal muscle development came from sploch mice, that lack Pax-3 and limb muscles (Bober et al., 1994).

The induction of myogenesis is thought to be an exclusive property of MRFs. However, new evidences have emphasized the role of Pax-3 as an upstream regulator of MyoD in the mouse developing somite (Maroto et al., 1997; Tajbakhsh et al., 1997). By the analysis of sploch:Myf-5<sup>5lacZ</sup> mice (Tajbakhsh et al., 1997), it has been shown that Pax-3 is necessary and sufficient for the induction of myogenesis. The body proper of sploch/Myf-5<sup>5lacZ</sup> embryos entirely lacks skeletal muscles and MyoD is not activated in the myotome. In addition, Pax-3 transfected non-muscle cells activate MyoD and differentiate into myoblasts (Maroto et al., 1997). Taken together, these findings suggest that either Myf-5 or Pax-3 activity is required for the initiation of MyoD transcription and a consequent onset of myogenesis (Fig. 2). Indeed, the myotomal expression of MyoD in sploch mice indicates the existence of Pax-3-independent pathway of MyoD activation and necessity for Myf-5-dependent regulatory pathway of MyoD expression. To better understand how direct is the relationship between Pax-3 and MyoD, examination of sploch:MyoD<sup>5lacZ</sup> embryos would elucidate whether Myf-5-dependent myogenesis is completely independent of Pax3 and MyoD.

The sploch phenotype in the limb buds is similar to that of mice lacking tyrosine kinase receptor c-met, which binds scatter factor, the migratory peptide growth factor (Bladt et al., 1995). The sploch mice lack the expression of c-met, suggesting for c-met to be a target of Pax-3 and a reason for inability of sploch migratory mpc to arrive into the limbs (Yang et al., 1996). To further our understanding about the role of Pax-3 in specification and migration of mpc a Myf-5<sup>-/-</sup>:c-met<sup>1-/-</sup> phenotype should be compared to the sploch:Myf-5<sup>-/-</sup> phenotype.

Limb bud mpc migrate during early embryogenesis from somites to limb buds where migration stops and differentiation occurs (Fig. 2). In addition to Pax-3 and c-met, that mark these migratory mesenchymal mpc, there is a third population of mpc, intercalated between the epaxial and hypaxial somitic bud, that can be specifically marked by Engrailed-1 (En-1) and Drosophila single minded (Sim-1) homologue (Loomis et al., 1996; Tajbakhsh and Sporle, 1998). Analysis of sploch embryos have demonstrated that Pax-3 is not necessary for specification of these cells (Tajbakhsh and Sporle, 1998), but the proliferation of mpc in the limb is linked to Pax-3 expression (Amthor et al., 1998). Drosophila ladybird (lbx-1) homologue (Mennerich et al., 1998) and a transcription factor Sp-1-related gene 26M15 (Tajbakhsh and Sprole, 1998) are two new
markers for limb bud mpc. lbx-1 is present in the trunk of c-met null embryos, but absent in sploch mice (Tajbakhsh and Sprole, 1998). Limb buds of sploch embryos are also devoid of lbx-1 transcripts, while a low level of c-met is still detectable (Mennenerich et al., 1998). The presence of c-met-expressing cells in sploch limb buds suggests that Pax-3 is not the only molecule controlling migration of mpc into the limb. It is postulated that Pax-3 is necessary for lbx-1 expression to occur in somites, but in limb buds, some additional and unknown signals would be needed to initiate lbx-1 expression in mpc (Mennenerich et al., 1998).

Recent biochemical and genetic analysis have demonstrated that members of the myocyte enhancer factor-2 (MEF-2) family of MADS (MCMI, agamous, deficiens, serum response factor)-box transcription factors play multiple roles in skeletal, cardiac and smooth myogenesis and morphogenesis (reviewed by Olson et al., 1995; Black and Olson, 1998). MEF-2 proteins act in a combinatorial pattern through protein-protein interactions with other transcription factors to control specific sets of target genes. They are also found to act in conjunction with the bHLH transcription factors to direct muscle-specific gene expression (Kaushal et al., 1994; Molkentin et al., 1995, 1996), although the precise character of the action of these genes in provoking myogenesis remains controversial (reviewed by Ludolph and Konieczny, 1995). Transfection experiments have indicated that MEF-2 proteins bind cooperatively MyoD to synergistically activate E-box and MEF-2-site containing promoters. During somitogenesis, MEF-2 gene expression follows myogenin expression. Moreover, MEF-2D is expressed in C2 myoblasts, while other three MEF-2 proteins (MEF-2A, B and C) are not expressed until after differentiation. Taken together, it appears that MEF-2 proteins act as differentiation factors during skeletal myogenesis. In addition, the ubiquitous E proteins, that also contain a bHLH domain, are found to interact with MRFs, as well. They are thought to be the cofactors of the myogenic transcription factors, probably in order to correctly initiate transcription of muscletype-specific genes.

Another class of bHLH proteins, not expressed in the myotome, but found to regulate the correct activation of myogenesis in the somite, consists of: Id, Twist and I-mf proteins. They are expressed at a high level in the cells of sclerotome. In cultured muscle cells, they are found to inhibit myogenesis. Id protein has been shown to inhibit MyoD function by competing with MyoD for dimerisation with its bHLH cofactors, the E proteins, preventing creation of the active bHLH-E protein heterodimers (Jen et al., 1992). Twist has been shown to in vitro inhibit myogenesis by both its ability to sequester E proteins and by its ability to directly prevent transactivation via MEF-2 (Hebrook et al., 1994; Spicer et al., 1996). Twist sclerotomal localization in the embryo and its in vitro functions suggest that Twist inhibits inappropriate myogenesis in the sclerotomal compartment of the developing somite. I-mf is known to operate by binding the MRFs and anchoring them in the cytoplasm, therefore, masking their nuclear signalling. I-mf can also directly interfere with the process of binding the nuclear targets of the MRFs (Chen et al., 1996). Taken together, it appears that correct formation of the myotome requires a complex cooperation of DNA binding proteins and cofactors, as well as inhibitory function of non-muscle cells of the forming somite, whose proteins would sequester and suppress the transcription of MRFs.

Embryonic structures, secreted proteins and myogenic induction

As a consequence of morphogenetic movements during gastrulation, the anterior-most portion of the unsegmented paraxial mesoderm is formed. The environment for somitogenesis to take place is now established and, over several days, paraxial mesoderm segments to transient epithelial spheres or somites. There is very little information on the molecular mechanism controlling segmentation and boundary formation in vertebrates. For instance, a zebrafish homologue of the Drosophila pair-rule gene hairy (her-1) is suggested to play a role in the segmentation of paraxial mesoderm, because of its appropriate expression pattern (Muller et al., 1996). Moreover, gene targeting has established a role in segmentation and somite epithelialization for a mouse homologue of a Drosophila gene Delta (Delta-like-1 or Dll-1) (Hrabe de Angelis et al., 1997), whereas Notch-1 (Delta-1 is a ligand of Notch) null embryos have a less severe phenotype (Conlon et al., 1995). Both, the analysis of Dll-1 embryos (Hrabe de Angelis et al., 1997) and the analysis of embryos mutant in the bHLH transcription factor paraxis (Burgess et al., 1996), suggest that the epithelialization of somites is not required for specification of the dermamyotome and sclerotome (reviewed in Yamaguchi, 1997).

Therefore, the patterning of the somite anterior-posterior axis differs from the patterning of its dorsal-ventral and medial-lateral axes, where the later two appear to be also dependent on the environmental signals from the adjacent embryonic tissues (reviewed by Tajbakhsh and Cossu, 1997; Yamaguchi, 1997; Currie and Ingham, 1998; Tajbakhsh and Sporle, 1998). It is now accepted that presomatic and somitic cells are multipotent and that their fates are determined by association of signals from axial (e.g. neural tube and notochord) and lateral (e.g. surface ectoderm and lateral mesoderm) structures that act along dorsal-ventral and medial-lateral axes.

The nature and source of different environmental influences is the subject of intensive investigations (Tajbakhsh and Sporle, 1998). It is proposed that axial structures stimulate the process of epaxial (back) skeletal muscle differentiation and not the differentiation of hypaxial (e.g. limb) muscles (Teillet and De Douarin, 1983; Rong et al., 1992). Lateral somitic lineage specification results from signals emanating from lateral
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plate mesoderm (Pourquie et al., 1995, 1996; Cossu et al., 1996) and dorsal ectoderm (Kenny-Mobbs and Thorogod, 1987; Fan and Tesier-Lavigne, 1994; Cossu et al., 1996). However, a number of recent in vitro studies have generated contrary results concerning the precise source of the signal(s) (Buffinger and Stockdale, 1994, 1995; Munsterberg and Lassar, 1995; Stern and Hauschka, 1995; Pownall et al., 1996).

The current view (Fig. 3) suggests that the dorsal neural tube and the overlying non-neural ectoderm are sources of signaling molecules belonging to the family of Wnt secreted proteins, whereas the notochord and the ventral neural tube are sources of the family of Hedgehog secreted proteins (Johnson et al., 1994; reviewed by Bumcrot and McMahon, 1995; Munsterberg et al., 1995; reviewed by Currie and Ingham, 1998). They apparently positively regulate the onset of myogenesis and the induction of the myotome. For instance, when the dorsal neural tube is infected with a retrovirus containing Sonic Hedgehog (Shh), somitic tissues express some myogenic molecular markers (Johnson et al., 1994). Shh null mouse embryos (Chiang et al., 1996) have reduced expression of Myf-5 (medial myotome) and unaffected expression of MyoD (lateral myotome), suggesting that there is no absolute requirement for Shh in the induction of myogenesis. These results also reinforce the notion that axial signals (Shh) specify medial, but not lateral myotomal fates. It has also been shown that several members of the Wnt family of secreted proteins associate with Shh to induce myogenesis in somitic explants (Munsterberg et al., 1995). Lassar and Munsterberg (1996) explain that presegmental plate mesoderm requires both Shh and Wnt signals to activate MyoD expression, while more mature somites require only Wnt signaling, suggesting that both the dorsal neural tube and the notochord are required for high level MRF activation (Pownall et al., 1996). Moreover, the action of the neural tube in activating Myf-5 can be replaced by cells expressing Wnt-1, while MyoD activation by dorsal ectoderm can be replaced by cells expressing Wnt-7a (Tajbakhsh et al., 1998). Taken together, these results suggest that activation of myogenesis by different Wnt molecules is executed through different pathways that regulate spatiotemporal commitment of mpc, as supported by recent findings that Myf-5 and MyoD null embryos have epaxial and hypaxial muscle deficits, respectively (Kablar et al., 1997).

By contrast, the lateral plate mesoderm produces a diffusible signal, most likely BMP-4 (a member of the transforming growth factor family, TGF), that negatively regulates muscle terminal differentiation in the lateral part of the myotome (Pourquie et al., 1996; Tonegawa et al., 1997) and possibly controls the specification of hypaxial somitic lineage (reviewed by Currie and Ingham, 1998; Dietrich et al., 1998). In addition, low concentrations of BMP-2, BMP-4 and BMP-7 maintain proliferative capacity of Pax-3-expressing population of mpc in the limb bud, while high BMP concentrations induce cell death (Amthor et al., 1998). Moreover, Shh upregulates some BMPs and delay muscle differentiation, suggesting that skeletal muscle development requires skeletal muscle differentiation to be delayed (Amthor et al., 1998). The maintenance of committed (and Pax-3-expressing) mpc in an undifferentiated state allows migration to the limb or body wall, having as a consequence a delayed muscle differentiation in the limbs compared to the trunk (Buckingham, 1992).

The existence of gradients of secreted factors across the dermamyotome in order to specify cell fates is proposed, but the fact that BMP-4 is also expressed in the dorsal neural tube, compromise the model. Alternatively, response to the BMP-4 signal may be mediated by its binding proteins noggin and follistatin. Noggin, a BMP antagonist, is expressed within the paraxial mesoderm and neural tube, followed by a restriction of its expression only to dorsomedial lip of the dermamyotome (Connolly et al., 1997; Hirsinger et al., 1997; Reshef et al., 1998). Noggin is found to upregulate molecular markers of medial and hypaxial muscles.
downregulate markers of lateral somite differentiation, possibly counteracting with BMP-4 and Wnt-1 (lateralizing signals) in the dorsal neural tube. BMPs and noggin control the timing and pattern of MRF expression, since it is found that BMP inhibits the expression of primary MRFs in Pax-3-expressing cells, Wnt-1 induces noggin expression in the medial somite and the ectopic noggin expression induces formation of a lateral myotome (Reshef et al., 1998).

Another molecule that is suggested to have a role in mediating BMP activity is follistatin. follistatin null embryos do not have early patterning defects, but later in development their skeletal muscle mass is reduced, suggesting that follistatin have a role in morphogenesis of the myotome (Matsuk et al., 1995). The expression patterns of follistatin and follistatin related genes have led to a proposal that follistatin antagonizes BMP-4-dependent muscle fate repression (Amthor et al., 1996). It is tempting to speculate that follistatin regulate BMP-4 activity, providing a balance between proliferative and differentiating states of mpc.

Taken together, various signaling molecules with activity in the process of somite patterning have been identified, but not many of them are found to be necessary during in vivo embryonic development. To understand their functions, generation of multiple mutants in case of early lethality, or conditional/tissue-specific mutants in case of early lethality, will be necessary.

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