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# Bmp-Signaling Regulates A Common Transcriptional Program To Control Facial Form And Skeletal Morphogenesis

Margarita Bonilla-Claudio

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# **BMP-SIGNALING REGULATES A COMMON TRANSCRIPTIONAL PROGRAM TO CONTROL FACIAL FORM AND SKELETAL MORPHOGENESIS**

by

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# **BMP-SIGNALING REGULATES A COMMON TRANSCRIPTIONAL PROGRAM TO CONTROL FACIAL FORM AND SKELETAL MORPHOGENESIS**

**A** 

## **DISSERTATION**

Presented to the Faculty of

The University of Texas

Health Science Center at Houston

and

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M. D. Anderson Cancer Center

Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences

in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements

for the Degree of

## **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

by

Margarita Bonilla-Claudio, B.S.

Houston, Texas

December, 2011

## **Dedication**

I dedicate this thesis to my husband, for his love, emotional support, and encouragement to pursue new adventures, but most importantly, for giving me the opportunity to become the mother of our wonderful son, Guillermo Emmanuel. This is for both of you… my loves. Additionally, I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents and brothers that with their love and support made this journey even more pleasant. I would like to thank my grandparents for their love and understanding. Finally, I dedicate this work to my beloved pet-companions, Fluffy, Canelo, Mia and Lady Carolina.

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#### **Abstract**

# **BMP-SIGNALING REGULATES A COMMON TRANSCRIPTIONAL PROGRAM TO CONTROL FACIAL FORM AND SKELETAL MORPHOGENESIS**

Publication No.

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Much of the craniofacial skeleton, such as the skull vault, mandible and midface, develops through direct, intramembranous ossification of the cranial neural crest (CNC) derived progenitor cells. Bmp-signaling plays critical roles in normal craniofacial development, and Bmp4 deficiency results in craniofacial abnormalities, such as cleft lip and palate. We performed an in depth analysis of *Bmp4*, a critical regulator of development, disease, and evolution, in the CNC. Conditional Bmp4 overexpression, using a tetracycline regulated Bmp4 gain of function allele, resulted in facial form changes that were most dramatic after an E10.5 Bmp4 induction. Expression profiling uncovered a signature of Bmp4 induced genes (BIG) composed predominantly of transcriptional regulators controlling self-renewal, osteoblast differentiation, and negative Bmp autoregulation. The complimentary experiment, CNC inactivation of Bmp2, Bmp4, and Bmp7, resulted in complete or partial loss of multiple CNC derived skeletal elements revealing a critical requirement for Bmp-signaling in membranous bone and cartilage development.

Importantly, the BIG signature was reduced in Bmp loss of function mutants indicating similar Bmp-regulated target genes underlying facial form modulation and normal skeletal morphogenesis. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) revealed a subset of the BIG signature, including Satb2, Smad6, Hand1, Gadd45y and Gata3 that was bound by Smad1/5 in the developing mandible revealing direct, Smadmediated regulation. These data indicate that Bmp-signaling regulates craniofacial skeletal development and facial form by balancing self-renewal and differentiation pathways in CNC progenitors.



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**Introduction**

The cranial neural crest (CNC) cells are a migratory cell population that originates from the dorsal neural tube during neurulation (Fig. 1 A). CNC diversifies into multiple cell types including cartilage, bone, smooth muscles, neurons, glia, and connective tissues of the blood vessels. Migration of the CNC occurs in three recognized streams, trigeminal, hyoid, and post-octic (Fig. 1 B). Each stream has been traced from their origin to their final fate. CNC arising from rhombomers 1 and 2, forms the trigeminal ganglion neurons and craniofacial components, including the mandible. Meanwhile, CNC originating from rhombomere 4 give rise to neurons of the proximal facial ganglion and hyoid skeleton. Lastly, CNC originating from rhombomere 6 and 7 forms neurons of the proximal jugular ganglia and pharyngeal arches skeletal components (Graham et al., 2004).

Much of the craniofacial skeleton components, including the skull vault or calvarium, mandible, and midface develops through direct, intramembranous ossification of CNC-derived progenitor cells (Fig. 2) (Chai and Maxson, 2006). For example, in the skull, osteogenesis occurs at discrete areas within the cranial mesenchyme resulting in the flat bones of the skull forming between the central nervous system (CNS) and overlying ectoderm (Jiang et al., 2002). The mandible and most midfacial bones develop by direct ossification of CNC-derived branchial arch mesenchyme (Nie et al., 2006).

The complexity of neural crest cell formation involves a number of key signaling regulators, such as those mediated by the Wnt, Fibroblast growth factor

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## **Figure 1. Formation and migration of the CNC.**

(A) CNC is induced at the neural plate border. After neurulation, delamination of cells between the ectoderm and the dorsal neural tube give rise to CNC (Knecht and Bronner-Fraser, 2002). (B) Migration of the CNC occurs in three recognized streams, trigeminal (red), hyoid (green), and post-octic (purple) (Graham et al., 2004).



## **Figure 2. Origin of the skeletal elements of the skull.**

Adult mouse skull showing the CNC- and mesoderm- derived bones (Noden and Trainor, 2005).

 (Fgf) and Bone morphogenic protein (Bmp) pathways (Knecht and Bronner-Fraser, 2002). For example, studies have shown the importance of Bmp-signaling in the specification of the neural plate and neural crest cells (Tribulo et al., 2003). Furthermore, migration of the CNC cells to the facial primordia also involves the participation of Bmp-mediated signaling. Inhibition of Bmp2 and Bmp4 in the CNC results in hypomorphic branchieal arches, while neural and skeletal derivates did not develop (Kanzler et al., 2000).

Bmp-signaling plays a critical role in normal craniofacial development. Several studies have elegantly demonstrated that Bmp4 deficiency results in craniofacial anomalies, such as cleft lip and palate, in mouse and humans (Liu et al., 2005b; Suzuki et al., 2009). In the mandible, Bmp4 has been shown to regulate proximo-distal patterning and timing of bone differentiation in mandibular mesenchyme (Liu et al., 2005a; Merrill et al., 2008). There is strong evidence that Bmp-signaling regulates craniofacial morphologic change during evolution. Both gain of function studies and comparative expression data revealed *Bmp4* to be a critical regulator of beak shape in Darwin's finches, a classic model of evolutionary diversification (Abzhanov et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2004). Other experiments in Cichlid fish also support the notion that Bmp4 is a major regulator of craniofacial cartilage shape and morphologic adaptive radiation (Albertson et al., 2005). In summary, while the role of Bmp-signaling in craniofacial development has been well studied, the downstream genes regulated in response to Bmp-signaling remain poorly understood.

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Recent molecular insights into Bmp-signaling indicate that the downstream effector mechanisms for Bmp-signaling are complex and require further study (Wang et al., 2011). The canonical Bmp pathway involves nucleo-cytoplasmic shuttling of Smad effectors in response to Bmp-signaling. Bmp, as members of the TGF family, are dimeric ligands that bind to a pair of membrane BMP receptor type I and type II (BMPRI and BMPRII). These serine/threonine kinase receptors form a hetero-tetramer receptor complex, while type II receptors can phosphorylate type I receptors at the cytoplasmic region. Upon phosphorylation, a docking site is created that enables receptor-regulated Smad proteins (Smad1, Smad5 and Smad8) binding and further activation (Massague et al., 2005). Phosphorylated receptor-regulated Smad protein can then associate with Smad4 and form a heterodimer complex capable of regulating gene expression (Nohe et al., 2004).

In addition, several studies have shown that Smad-independent mechanisms mediated through MAPK pathways, can play an important role in tooth development (Xu et al., 2008). More recent work, uncovered a third Bmp effector mechanism, revealing that Smad1/5 can directly bind to the Drosha complex to promote microRNA (miR) processing (Davis et al., 2008). Furthermore, our group has shown that Bmp-signaling can induce miR transcription through a canonical Smad regulated mechanism (Wang et al., 2010). Despite the central importance of Bmp signaling for craniofacial development, congenital defects, and evolution, the mechanisms underlying Bmp action in CNC remains poorly understood.

In this study, we investigated Bmp signaling in CNC development using both gain and loss of function approaches. Inactivation of Bmp2, Bmp4, and Bmp7 in

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CNC indicate that Bmp2 and Bmp4 are the major Bmp ligands required for development of CNC-derived bone and cartilage. Moreover, gain of function studies indicate that elevated *Bmp4* in CNC results in dramatic changes in facial shape. Expression profiling and quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) studies uncovered a common set of Bmp-regulated target genes in both gain and loss of function embryos. Subsets of Bmp-regulated targets were directly bound by Smad 1/5 indicating direct regulation. Our data suggest a role for Bmp-regulated genes to modulate self-renewal, osteoblast differentiation, and negative feedback regulation. Moreover, we suggest that Bmp signaling is a key player in skeletal morphogenesis and facial shape by controlling the balance between self-renewing progenitors and differentiating lineage restricted cells. Negative feedback regulation, a mechanism used to finely modulate Bmp-signaling levels, is likely a general output of Bmpsignaling in multiple contexts.

**Materials and Methods**

#### **Mouse alleles and transgenic lines.**

The generation and characterization of *Bmp2* and *Bmp4* conditional null mice and Wnt1Cre transgene mice have been previously described (Liu et al., 2004; Ma and Martin, 2005 and Chai, 2000). The conditional Bmp7 null allele will be described elsewhere (Bai Y and Martin JF, unpublished) (Appendix 1).

To generate the  $Bmp4<sup>TeiO</sup>$  allele we constructed a targeting vector that resulted in a 665 bp deletion upstream of and including the Bmp4 basal promoter and Bmp4 exon 1. We modified the TetO plasmid that was a kind gift from Raymond MacDonald laboratory at The University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center. The plasmid contains the tetracycline operator (TetO7), CMV promoter, IRES-lacZ and a poly-adenylation sequence. Bmp4 genomic DNA was isolated from the 129/S BAC library. A 9-kb EcoRI fragment of Bmp4 genomic DNA was subcloned into pBluescript (Stratagene). We inserted Bmp4 cDNA into Notl and KasI sites downstream of the TetO7 and CMV promoter. The *phosphoglycerol* kinase neomycin-resistance cassette (pgk-neo) with two flanking Frt sites was blunt cloned into the AscI site downstream of the IRES-LacZ. The 3 kb 3' homology arm was amplified by PCR using the primers (5'-3') tgagcagggcaacctggagaggg and tccgaatggcactacggaatggct and blunt end ligated into Swal site downstream of pgkneo. The  $Bmp4<sup>TeiO</sup>$  5' arm, 1.7 kb EcoRI-ApaLI fragment, was cut from  $Bmp4$ genomic DNA and blunt end cloned into XhoI site upstream of the tetO7. The targeting construct was linearized with PmeI and electroporated into AK7 embryonic stem cells, selected in G418, and screened by Southern blot. The cells were

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digested with EcoRV and *Bmp4* Exon 4 was used as the 3' flanking probe. Wild type allele gives a 22 kb EcoRV fragment and the targeted allele give a 16kb EcoRV fragment. The targeting frequency for the TetO allele is 4.2% (7/167). We also used a Spe1 digest to confirm correct targeting: the wild type band was 6.4 kb, the cDNA band was 11.7 kb, and the mutant allele was 8.0 kb. We used the Rosa 26 rtTA allele (Belteki et al., 2005) to express the reverse tetracycline activator (Teton) under the control of the  $Wnt1^{\text{cre}}$  allele. This will drive  $Bmp4^{\text{Te}tO}$  allele expression on the neural crest cells in the presence of doxycycline.

#### **Doxycycline administration in mice.**

Pregnant females were given doxycycline (Sigma) in the drinking water (2mg/ml) and in the food (Bio-Serv; 200mg/kg), for a 24 hour period unless otherwise specified.

#### **Skeletal analysis.**

Dissected embryos were placed overnight in water and scalded in hot water for 30 seconds. The skin and internal organs were removed and the samples were fixed overnight in 95% ethanol. The cartilage was stained with 0.15mg/ml Alcian Blue (Sigma) in a 1:4 mixture of glacial acetic acid and 95% ethanol. After staining overnight, the samples were rinsed twice in 95% ethanol and incubated for 24 hrs in 95% ethanol. In preparation for bone staining, samples were placed in 2% KOH for 1 hr. Bones were stained using 0.05mg/ml of Alizarin red (Sigma) diluted in 2% KOH for 2-4 hrs and then cleared with glycerol.

#### **Alkaline Phosphatase staining.**

E14.5 embryos were dissected, decapitated and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 1 hour. Heads were bisected mid-sagittally and the brain and dura mater removed, washed three times in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and Alkaline phosphatase buffer (100mM NaCl; 100mM TrisHCl pH 9.5; 50mM MgCl2; 0.1% Tween-20; 2mM Levimasole). A combination of nitro-blue tetrazolium chloride and 5-bromo-4-chloro-3'-indolyphosphate p-toluidine salt (NBT/BCIP) (Roche) substrate in Alkaline phosphatase buffer was added until bone staining was observed. Samples were then washed in PBS, and post-fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde.

#### **Western Blot**

Cell lysates were prepared by dissecting E11.5 mandibles in PBS. Tissue was then homogenized in lysis buffer (50 mmol/L Tris, 150 mmol/L NaCl, 1% Triton X-100 (Bio-Rad), 0.5% deoxycholate (Sigma) plus protease inhibitors cocktail (Roche), EDTA, and sodium vanadate (Sigma). Sample protein concentration was determined by the Protein Assay Reagent kit (Pierce). Whole cell lysates were separated by 12% SDS-PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose. Blots were blocked with 5% nonfat milk at room temperature for 1 hour. Blots were incubated with the

p-Smad1/5/8 polyclonal antibody (1:1,000 dilution; Cell Signaling) and Smad 1/5/8/ polyclonal antibody (1:1,000 dilution; Santa Cruz) at room temperature with agitation for 1 hour, followed by incubation with anti-rabbit IgG horseradish peroxidase–conjugated antibody (1:2,000; GE Healthcare). Blots were developed using an enhanced chemiluminescence detection kit (ECL; Pierce). To confirm equal loading we used anti–β-actin antibody (1:5,000; Sigma). Western Blots were quantified by densitometry analysis using Image J software (NIH).

#### **Whole mount in situ hybridization.**

We thank James Douglas Engel, Richard Maas, Robert E. Maxson Jr, Sylvia Evans and Stephen E. Harris for providing Gata3, Msx1, Msx2, Tbx20 and Bmp4 in situ probes. Plasmids for in situ probes have been previously described: Dlx6 (Charite et al., 2001), Gata3 (Ruest et al., 2004b), Hand1 (McFadden et al., 2005), Smad6 (Ma et al., 2005), Msx1 (Ishii et al., 2005), Msx2 (Ishii et al., 2003), and Tbx20 (Shen et al., 2011). Full-length cDNA for mouse BMP4 was provided by Dr. Stephen Harris and was linearized with SpeI and transcribe with T7. Exon 3 and 4, including 3'UTR of  $Gadd45\gamma$  were amplified and subcloned into T-easy vector. Plasmid was linearized with EcoRV and transcribe with T7 RNA polymerase. Cux2 (exon 23) and Satb2 (exon10) were amplified and subcloned into T-easy vector. Plasmid was linearized with SacI and transcribe with T7 RNA polymerase.

Whole mount *in situ* hybridization were performed as follows: embryos were fixed overnight in 10% formalin then dehydrated in 100% methanol overnight until genotype were confirmed. Embryos were re-hydrated in a graded series of methanol/PBS-Tween and treated with 10µl/ml of proteinase K for 15 minutes followed by 10 minute treatment with 2mg/ml glycine. Before overnight probe hybridization at 70°C, embryos were fixed for 20 minutes with 4% paraformaldehyde. Embryos were washed and pre-blocked with 10% sheep serum before overnight incubation with anti-Digoxigening-AP (Roche) at 4°C. Additional washes were performed with TBST before detection with NBT/BCIP (Roche). For all experiments, at least three mutants and three controls embryos were analyzed for each probe.

#### **Quantitative Real Time PCR and Microarray.**

E11.5 mandibles were dissected in cold PBS and placed in RNAlater (Ambion) for RNA stabilization. mRNA was then extracted using the RNeasy Micro Kit (Qiagen). First strand cDNA synthesis was then performed utilizing the SuperScript™ II Reverse Transcriptase kit (Invitrogen) with 500ng of mRNA. Quantitative Real-Time PCR was performed using SYBR Green QPCR Master Mix (Invitrogen) in triplicate reactions and ran on Mx3000P thermal cycler (Stratagene). Primers used in this study are listed in Appendix 2. For all qRT-PCR experiments, at least three mutants and three control embryos were analyzed. DNA microarray analysis, including gene ontology analysis, was performed using the OneArray™ Mouse Whole Genome Array (Phalanx Biotech Group). Mandibular processes were pooled to collect a minimally required RNA amount: seven Bmp4 OE and five controls embryos were used. Gene ontology results were confirmed using DAVID Bioinformatics Resources 6.7 National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (NIAID), NIH.

### **Chromatin immunoprecipitation.**

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) analysis was performed as previously described (Wang et al., 2010). We used E11.5 wild type mice mandibles and the mouse osteoblastic cell line MC3T3-E1 (ATCC). Cells were maintained and propagated following ATCC protocols. Experiments were performed with 90% confluent cultures and Bmp4 (R&D System) was added to the media for a final concentration of 25pg/µl for 12hrs. Primer sequences used for amplification of the Bmp/Smad regulatory elements are found in Apendix 2.

### **Sequence analysis**

For sequence analysis and multiple sequence alignment, Ensembl genome database and MAFFT (http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/) were used.

**Results**

# **Bmp2, Bmp4, and Bmp7 deletion in cranial neural crest results severe loss of cranial bone.**

We used the *Wnt1cre* driver and a  $Bmp4$  conditional null allele,  $Bmp4$ <sup>floxneo</sup> to inactivate Bmp4 in CNC (Chai et al., 2000; Liu et al., 2004). Intercrosses between Wnt1cre;  $Bmp4$   $f/0xne0/+$  with  $Bmp4$  $f/0xne0$  homozygous mice generated Wnt1cre; Bmp4<sup> floxneo;floxneo (f/f)</sup> mutant embryos, hereafter called Bmp4 CKO. Evaluation of skull preparations indicated that Bmp4 CKO mutant newborn skulls had enlarged frontal fontanelle and subtle mandibular defects (Fig. 4 A-B). Examination of  $Msx1$ and Msx2 expression, markers of preosteogenic head mesenchyme, revealed that these markers were reduced, but still present, in the Bmp4 CKO embryos (Fig. 3 A-D). Alkaline phosphatase, a marker of both preosteoblasts and mature osteoblasts, was also reduced in the frontal bone of Bmp4 CKO embryos, indicating a defect in the transition from pre-osteoblast to osteoblast in the  $Bmp4$  CKO (Fig. 3 E-F). Persistent gene expression of downstream targets of the Bmp-signaling such as Msx gene in Bmp4 CKO embryos suggested that other Bmp ligands likely had overlapping functions with Bmp4 in CNC.

To test this idea, we generated compound conditional loss of function mutants for Bmp2, Bmp4, and Bmp7 using the Wnt1cre driver. Analysis of Bmp4 and Bmp7 compound mutants indicated that Bmp7 failed to have a significant influence on *Bmp4* CKO mutant phenotype (Fig. 4 A-E and 5 A). In contrast, *Bmp2* deletion in the Bmp4 CKO background resulted in significant worsening of frontal and mandibular bone phenotypes. The Bmp2/4 CKO mutant had a drastic reduction in most CNC-derivates bones, such as the frontal and mandible (Fig. 4 F-I and 5 B).



### **Figure 3. Defects in osteoblast maturation in the absence of Bmp4.**

Msx1 (A-B) and Msx2 (C-D) expression pattern in controls and Bmp4 CKO embryos. Arrow denotes the expression of these genes in the frontal bone primordium at E12.5. The Bmp4 CKO mutant has reduced expression of Msx1 (B) and Msx2 (D) in the frontal bone primordium compared to control. (E-F) Alkaline phosphatase staining of mature osteoblasts in control and Bmp4 CKO mutant at E14.5. The *Bmp4* CKO mutant frontal bone (arrow) is extremely reduced, though the parietal bone (arrowhead) is normal when compare to control. f, frontal bone; p, parietal bone.



### **Figure 4. Increased severity of craniofacial defects in Bmp compounds mutants.**

Alcian blue/alizarin red stains of E18.5 embryo showing defects in the frontal and mandible bone. Arrow indicated the distance between the frontal bones use to measure the frontal fontanelle for each genotype. a, angular process; av, alveolar bone; c, coronoid process; co, condylar process; f, frontal bone; ff, frontal fontanelle; n, nasal bone; p, parietal bone. \* indicates a p-value < 0.05, error bars represent SEM.



## **Figure 5. Bmp4 and Bmp2 are the major ligands in frontal bone development.**

Bmp compounds mutants have an increase in the frontal fontanelle size when compare to littermate wildtype.

Additionally, *Bmp2* had a unique role in coronoid process development (Fig. 4 G, K, N). Analysis of triple mutant combinations further supported the conclusion that Bmp4 and Bmp2 were the major ligands in frontal and mandibular bone development. Comparison between embryos that were *Bmp2; Bmp4* compound homozygous and were either  $Bmp7^{+/+}$ ,  $Bmp7^{flox/+}$  or  $Bmp7^{flox/flox}$  indicated that  $Bmp7$ has a minor role in frontal bone formation (Fig. 4 I, P and Q). In addition to the frontal and mandibular bone defects, others CNC derivative bones were affected in Bmp compound mutants (Table 1). This genetic analysis indicated that while Bmp4 was the major functional Bmp ligand in CNC-derived bone development Bmp2 also had important functions.

#### **Inducible over-expression of Bmp4 in the CNC**

A bacterial based, tetracycline inducible system was used to control the expression of Bmp4 in the cranial mesenchymal cells that give rise to the mandible and most midfacial bones (Chai and Maxson, 2006). It has been shown that with this system the induction of tetracycline, or its analog doxycycline has low basal activity, high levels of inducibility and low toxicity. In addition, multiple studies have demonstrate that tetracycline and doxycycline cross the placenta, making this system valuable for developmental studies (Gossen et al., 1995; Shin et al., 1999).

The tetracycline inducible system is a two-component system based on the E. Coli tet repressor. Two versions of this system exist, the original tTA and a modified

## **Table 1. Bmp compounds mutant defects in the skeletal elements of the skull.**

Bone defects severity was scored as follows: 0, no change; 1, size reduction; 2, missing pieces and 3, missing bone.

CP: cleft palate.



reverse Tet repressor, rtTA. In both systems, the tTA or rtTA fusion proteins are expressed in the cell type of interest by a tissue specific regulatory element (Gossen et al., 1995). We used a conditional reverse tetracycline transcriptional activator allele generated at Dr. Andras Nagy laboratory (Mount Sinai Hospital, Canada). The allele has an rtTA coding sequence incorporated into the Rosa 26 locus (Fig. 6 C). This allele is similar to the Rosa 26 reporter in that the rtTA is expressed only after removal of the LoxP flanked cassette that is dependent on cre recombinase activity (Belteki et al., 2005). In this system, rtTA protein binds to the tetracycline operator in the presence of the tetracycline analog, doxycycline (Fig. 6 C). Upon binding to the tetracycline operator (TetO), the rtTA activates transcription of the tetracycline responder transgene. This binding is not permanent and in the absence of doxyclycline the transcription of the TetO responder gene stops.

To investigate the role of elevated Bmp4-signaling in CNC, we developed a tetracycline-regulated  $Bmp4$  allele ( $Bmp4<sup>Te<sub>1</sub>O</sup>$ ) by replacing the first non-coding exon and basal promoter region of Bmp4 with a tet operator Bmp4 cDNA fusion gene (Figure 6 A-B). We used a cre-recombinase inducible  $rtTA$  (Tet-on) allele,  $R26R^{tTANagy}$  allele, and the  $Wnt1^{cre}$  allele to induce rtTA in the CNC lineage. Bmp4 was overexpressed by inducing  $Wnt1^{cre}$ ;  $Bmp4^{Teto}$ ;  $R26R^{tTANagy}$  ( $Bmp4$  OE) embryos with doxycycline (dox).

Next, we determined whether the  $Bmp4^{TetO}$  allele directed significant levels of Bmp4 expression in the CNC lineage. We treat the pregnant females with different concentration of dox in the drinking water for 24 hours. We used mandible tissue of Bmp4 OE embryos and compared them to littermate embryos that possessed two

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## **Figure 6. A tetracycline regulated Bmp4 gain of function allele.**

(A) Targeting vector of  $Bmp4<sup>tetO</sup>$  allele, which contains the tetracycline operator (tetO7), CMV basal promoter, Bmp4 cDNA, IRES-lacZ and PGK-neo resistance cassette with two flanking Frt sites, targeted in Bmp4 basal promoter and Bmp4 exon1. (B) Clones were screened by Southern blot, showing correct targeting by a Spe1 digestion: the wild type band was 6.4 kb, the cDNA band was 11.7 kb, and the mutant allele was 8.0 kb. (C) Schematic illustrating the strategy to regulate spatial and temporal expression of Bmp4 using the R26RrtTANagy allele (Belteki et al., 2005).

wild type copies of the Bmp4 allele (*Wnt1cre; R26R<sup>rtTANagy*) as the control tissue.</sup> qRT-PCR analysis indicated that Bmp4 OE embryos had approximately 30-fold inducible Bmp4 upregulation. Furthermore, Bmp4 levels were increased with higher levels of dox (Figure 7 A). We select the higher inducible dose of 2 mg/ml of dox for further experiments. Next, we want to determine how quickly our system can induce transcription of  $Bmp4<sup>Teto</sup>$  allele. Bmp4 induction could be detected by qRT-PCR 3 hours after dox induction and remained elevated through 24 hours of induction (Figure 7 B). Elevated Bmp4 was also detectable in CNC by whole mount in situ in E10.5 embryos after 24 hours of induction (Figure 7 C). Western blot indicated that the elevated Bmp4 mRNA expression resulted in about a 2.5-fold increase in p-Smad1/5/8 activity in the mandibular process revealing that negative regulatory mechanisms have a large impact on Bmp-signaling output (Figure 7 D). Therefore, we have been able to show that with this system we can control the spatial and temporal over-expression of Bmp4.

#### **Facial form is dramatically altered by elevated Bmp4 in CNC.**

We tested the phenotypic effects of elevated *Bmp4* expression in the CNC by analyzing E16.5 Bmp4 OE embryos that had been induced at different embryonic stages. Bmp4 inductions starting at E13.5 caused a defect in the mandible development. Mandibles were more pointed in appearance (Fig. 8 A-D), while this phenotype was intensified in the early induction (Fig. 8 D, H and L). In addition to the size reduction of the mandible, when induction started at E11.5, Bmp4 OE
embryos showed open eyelids defects and a reduction in size of the whisker pad region (Fig. 8 E-F). The most drastic change in facial appearance was observed in Bmp4 OE induced at E10.5. Besides the open eyelid phenotype, there was a shortening and pointed appearance in both the mandible and maxilla. These embryos show undifferentiated epithelium in which the whisker pad is not recognizable (Fig. 8 I-J). The overall shape of the head was more rounded as compared to control mouse embryo. Moreover, the orientation of the eyes was more anterior as compared to the control (Fig. 8 D, H and L). Induction at early time points resulted in open neural tube defects (data not shown). These findings indicate that increasing Bmp4 levels regulated facial form in a stage-dependent fashion.

Skeletal preparations at E16.5 indicated that Bmp4 induction starting at E10.5, resulted in strong reduction of rostral bony elements, such as nasal bones, with a drastically shortened face (Fig. 9 G, H). Overall bone quality was defective as revealed by multiple translucent areas in the skull bones. Bmp4 induction at E12.5 had a less dramatic morphologic change, but the size of the nasal cartilages was expanded while nasal and frontal bones were absent or reduced (Fig. 9 E, F) and the mandible was shorter. Induction at E13.5 revealed reduction in nasal bones and coronoid process of the mandible (Fig. 9 C, D)



## **Figure 7. Overexpression of Bmp4 using doxycycline regulated system.**

(A) qRT-PCR of E11.5 mandibles showing the response of the  $Bmp4<sup>tetO</sup>$  allete to different concentration of doxycycline. (B) qRT-PCR of E11.5 mandibles showing the response of the Bmp4<sup>tetO</sup> allele to doxycycline at different periods of time. (C) In situ hybridization showing total levels of Bmp4 transcript after 24 hrs of doxycycline (2mg/ml). (D) Western blot and densitometry (n=3) analysis of E11.5 mandibles after 24 hrs of doxycycline (2mg/ml), 10ug protein/lane. \*\* indicates a p-value < 0.01, \*\*\* indicates a p-value < 0.001, error bars represent SEM.



## **Figure 8. Morphological changes in the craniofacial region after Bmp4 overexpression.**

Frontal and lateral views of control and Bmp4 OE embryos after the indicated induction period. Arrows point at the morphologies changes in the mandible.



### **Figure 9. Defective cranial bone ossification in the Bmp4 OE embryos.**

Lateral **(**A,C,E,G) and top (B,D,F,H) view of E16.5 control (A-B) and Bmp4 OE embryos (C-H) after skeletal analysis. Bmp4 induction started at different time points: E13.5 (C-D), E12.5 (E-F), and E10.5 (G-H). a, angular process; c, coronoid process; co, condylar process; f, frontal bone; ip, interparietal bone; m, mandible; mx, maxillary; n, nasal bone; p, parietal bone.



## **Figure 10. Bmp4 OE embryos exhibit an expansion of the facial cartilage.**

H&E staining of E16.5 control (A-D) and Bmp4 OE embryos induced at E14.5 (E-H) and E12.5 (I-L). Meckel's cartilage is expanded in the Bmp4 OE embryos. B, F and J are magnified view of dashed box in A, E and I, respectively. The nasal cartilage is also expanded in the Bmp4 OE embryos. D, H and J are magnified view of dashed box in C, G and K, respectively. E, eye; I, incisor; MC, Meckel's cartilage; T, tongue. \* indicate the cleft palate phenotype.

Histologic analysis indicated that *Bmp4* E12.5 induction resulted in a large increase in both nasal and Meckel's cartilage indicating that Bmp4 modulates facial form by controlling both cartilage and bone development (Fig. 10 A-D, I-L). These Bmp4 E12.5 induced embryos also had cleft palate (Fig. 10 K). Embryos induced at E14.5 show milder phenotypes indicating that *Bmp4* induced facial changes are stage dependent (Fig. 10 E-H). These findings indicate that increasing *Bmp4* levels regulated facial form in a stage-dependent fashion.

# **Expression profiling uncovers transcriptional regulators that are upregulated in the mandible of Bmp4 gain of function embryos.**

To comprehensively investigate genes regulated by Bmp-signaling in the mandibular process, we performed a microarray analysis. For this experiments, we used RNA extracted from mandibles of  $Bmp4OE$  and  $Wnt1^{cre}$ ;  $R26R^{rt}$ <sup>TANagy</sup> control embryos that were induced with dox for 24 hours, starting at E10.5. Using a 2-fold change (p< 0.05) as threshold, we identified 144 down-regulated and 120 upregulated genes (Fig. 11 A and Appendix 3). Gene ontology analysis for all genes revealed several gene clusters involved in various cellular processes, such as nucleic acid metabolism, cellular biosynthesis, regulation of gene expression and transcription activity (Fig. 11 B). Strikingly, among genes that were up-regulated after Bmp4 induction, gene ontology indicated that transcriptional regulation was the main cellular process influenced by upregulated Bmp-signaling (Fig. 11 C and 12 A).



## **Figure 11. Differentially expressed genes in Bmp4OE mandibles.**

(A) Heat map showing 264 genes that were differentially expressed (>2-fold) in the Bmp4OE mandibles; 120 were up-regulated (pink), while 144 were down-regulated (blue). (B) Gene Ontology analysis of 264 differentially expressed genes. (C) Gene Ontology analysis of up-regulated genes.



## **Figure 12. Bmp4 gain of function in the neural crest cells leads to upregulation of different transcriptional regulators.**

(A) Heat map representing 16 transcriptional regulators that were upregulated in Bmp4 OE mandibles (B) qRT-PCR validation of microarray results. Other genes from the same family were also included. \* indicates a p-value < 0.05, \*\* indicates a p-value < 0.01, \*\*\* indicates a p-value < 0.001, error bars represent SEM.

In order to confirm the microarray results, we used independently generated RNA from control and Bmp4 OE mandibles, and subjected them to qRT-PCR analysis. Included in the Bmp4 induced genes (BIG) signature after qRT-PCR validation were multiple transcription factor families, including Gata genes, Hand genes, Satb genes and Klf genes (Fig. 12 B). Other upregulated transcriptional regulators include Atf3, Cux2, and Isl1. Gata2, Hand2 and Satb2 are transcription factors that play important roles in craniofacial development (Barbosa et al., 2007; Dobreva et al., 2006; Ruest et al., 2004b). Importantly, many of these genes (such as Isl1 and Id1) have been shown to be targets of Smad-mediated signaling in other developmental processes and many have known roles in craniofacial development (Korchynskyi and ten Dijke, 2002; Mitsiadis et al., 2003). Interestingly, known negative regulators of Bmp-Smad signaling, Gadd45 and Smad6, and Noggin, were also strongly upregulated in the Bmp4 OE mandibles uncovering a negative feedback pathway in the mandible (Nohe et al., 2004; Suzuki et al., 2009).

We further validated the microarray experiments by in situ hybridization analysis of the RNA transcripts. In situ hybridization demonstrated an expanded expression pattern of the BIG signature after *Bmp4* induction (Fig. 13 and 14). Interestingly, there were distinct upregulated gene expression patterns. Some genes, such as Hand1 and Smad6 were broadly expanded throughout the CNC whereas other genes, such as  $Gadd45\gamma$  and  $Satb2$ , were expanded in a more restricted region of the mandible (Fig. 13).



## **Figure 13. Expanded expression pattern of the BIG signature after Bmp4 induction.**

In situ hybridization on E11.5 embryos showing the change in the expression pattern of the indicated genes in the Bmp4 OE.



# **Figure 14. Expression patterns of up-regulated genes in Bmp4OE embryos.**

In situ hybridization on E11.5 controls and Bmp4OE embryos, showing the change in the expression pattern of the indicated genes.



**Figure 15. Bmp deficiency results in reduced mandibular expression of Bmpregulated genes.** (A) qRT-PCR of E11.5 control and Nkx2.5<sup>cre</sup>;Bmp4 CKO mandibles. (B) In situ hybridization on E11.5 embryos showing the change in the expression pattern of the indicated genes in the  $Nxx2.5<sup>cre</sup>; Bmp4 CKO.$  \* indicates a p-value < 0.05, \*\* indicates a p-value < 0.01, \*\*\* indicates a p-value < 0.001, error bars represent SEM.

**Common target genes that are expanded in the Bmp4 OE embryos are also downregulated in Bmp loss of function embryos.** 

To determine whether the same sets of genes that are upregulated in the Bmp4 OE embryos were also reduced in the Bmp loss of function embryos, we evaluated the expression of the candidate genes in response to decreased Bmp-

Smad activity. Because the *Wnt1<sup>cre</sup>; Bmp2/4/7* triple mutants are recovered at low frequencies, we supplemented our experiments with the  $Nkx2.5^{cre}$ ;  $Bmp4^{n/f}$  embryos that have greatly reduced Bmp-signaling in the mandibular ectoderm and mesenchyme (Liu et al., 2005a). qRT-PCR analysis of the mandibular tissue showed significant reduction in the expression levels of genes that were upregulated in the Bmp4 OE tissue (Fig. 15 A). Moreover, whole mount in situ analysis for a subset of these genes revealed loss of mandibular expression in Bmp4 mutant embryos (Fig. 15 B).

#### **Subsets of transcriptional regulators are direct Bmp4 targets.**

The up-regulation of Gadd45γ, Gata3, Hand1, Satb2 and Smad6 transcripts in a cell environment rich in Bmp4 signaling, as well as, their down-regulation in the absence of Bmp4 (Fig. 13 and Fig. 15 B), give rise to the possibility that these genes are direct targets of Bmp4 signaling. To determine whether these BIG signature genes were directly regulated by Smad-mediated transcription, we undertook a bioinformatic approach to identify conserved Smad recognition elements within a 5Kb region located in the 5' flanking region of these genes. For

Gadd45<sub>*γ*</sub>, Gata3, Hand1, Satb2 and Smad6, we uncovered phylogenetically conserved Smad recognition elements (Fig. 16 A). We tested the ability of Smad1/5 to bind to these sequences in vivo by ChIP assays in wild-type mandibles and in the mouse osteoblastic cell line, MC3T3-E1. Our data indicate that in the developing mandible, Smad1/5 binds directly to the chromatin of these five genes (Fig. 16 B). Moreover, in MC3T3-E1 cells that were cultured in the presence of Bmp4, we found an increased enrichment in Smad1/5 chromatin binding after Bmp treatment (Fig. 16 C).





## **Figure 16. Direct, Smad-mediated regulation of a subset of Bmp-induced genes.**

(A) Sequence alignment showing the conservation among species of the putative Smad1 binding site. ChIP assay using (B) E11.5 wild-type mandibles and (C) MC3T3-E1 cells culture for 12 hrs in the absent or presence of 25pg/ul of Bmp4. (D) Bmp regulates craniofacial skeletal development by balancing self-renewal and differentiation in the CNC progenitors

**Discussion**

We performed a comprehensive analysis of Bmp function in CNC using genetics, gene expression profiling, and ChIP. Our profiling and qRT-PCR validation data from the Bmp4 OE embryos indicate that the BIG signature contains twentyone genes. Moreover, we validated seventeen of the twenty-one genes in the Bmp loss of function model revealing that Bmp is necessary and sufficient for expression of those seventeen genes.

Our data reveal that Bmp controls bone morphogenesis and facial form via common target genes. The BIG signature was upregulated in Bmp4 OE embryos with facial form changes and reduced in Bmp deficient embryos with severe bone morphogenesis phenotypes. Within the BIG signature are transcriptional regulators important for osteoblast differentiation and progenitor cell self-renewal. Bmpsignaling also induces a negative regulatory pathway that likely functions as a buffering mechanism to maintain precise Bmp-signaling levels. We show that six genes, Gata3, Gadd45γ, Hand1, Satb2, and Smad6, are directly bound by Smad 1/5. Our findings indicate that a balance between self-renewal and progenitor differentiation in CNC underlies Bmp-regulated facial form control and bone morphogenesis (Figure 16 D).

**Direct Bmp target genes regulate cranial neural crest progenitor selfrenewal**.

Our data show that Bmp-signaling in CNC progenitors regulates genes that are directly implicated in self-renewal such as Id and Klf genes. Klf2 and Klf5, as

well as *Id1* and *Id4* are regulated by Bmp-signaling in CNC progenitors. KIf genes, regulators of ES cell self-renewal by controlling Nanog expression and cellular reprogramming, have not been shown to be regulated by Bmp-signaling (Zhang et al., 2010). Our findings suggest that Bmp-signaling in CNC promotes limited selfrenewal of CNC cells that allow progenitor cells to persist for a short time as craniofacial development progresses.

In other in vivo model systems, such as the Drosophila ovary, Bmp signaling promotes self-renewal and proliferation of somatic stem cells and prolongs progenitor lifespan (Kirilly et al., 2005). In CNC progenitors, it is conceivable that Bmp-signaling increases the number of self-renewing progenitor cells in addition to activating expression of the CNC self-renewal program.

In addition to inducing *Id1* expression in embryonic stem cells, Bmp-signaling directly promotes self-renewal in collaboration with leukemia inhibitory factor through a direct interaction between Smad1 and the core self-renewal factors Nanog, Oct4 and Sox2 (Chen et al., 2008; Fei et al., 2010; Ying et al., 2003). As defined by ChIP seq, Smad1 commonly occupies Nanog-Oct4-Sox2 bound loci revealing that Bmp-signaling directly interacts with the core pluripotency machinery to enhance pluripotency and self-renewal. Moreover, the Smad1-containing complexes in ES cells recruit the HAT p300 to activate gene transcription (Chen et al., 2008). Our findings support a model in which Bmp-signaling enhances CNC progenitor self-renewal by activating the self-renewal gene program. Future ChIP seq experiments will be required to determine if Smad1 directly interacts with a pluripotency program in CNC progenitors.

#### **Bmp promotes osteoblast differentiation from CNC progenitors.**

Bmp-signaling also regulates lineage-restricted genes such as Satb2 that enhance osteoblast lineage development. Satb2 is a DNA binding and architectural factor that has a positive role in osteoblast development. Satb2 deficiency results in phenotypes that are similar to mild Bmp loss of function phenotypes such as cleft palate and calvarial defects with shortened mandible. Importantly, Satb2 controls osteoblast differentiation through regulation of Runx2 and Atf4 expression (Dobreva et al., 2006). Notably, similar to Bmp4, Satb2 deficiency causes orofacial clefting in humans as well as mice (Britanova et al., 2006). Our data shows that Satb2 is a direct Smad1/5 target indicating that a major pathway for Bmp-regulated bone development and facial form regulation is through Satb2 function.

Similar to *Bmp4* loss of function mutants, Gata3 mutants have a medial mandibular deficiency (Liu et al., 2005a; Ruest et al., 2004a). There is evidence that Gata3 directly regulates N-myc in the branchial arches suggesting that one cellular mechanism in the Gata3 mutant mandible is reduced proliferation (Potvin et al., 2010). Other data also indicate that Gata3 promotes osteoblast and neuron survival suggesting that in addition to proliferation, apoptosis may also be enhanced in Gata3 mutants as it is in Bmp4 loss of function embryos (Chen et al., 2010; Liu et al., 2005a; Tsarovina et al., 2010).

Hand1 and Hand2 have overlapping function in medial mandible development, and promote progenitor cell proliferation and inhibit differentiation (Barbosa et al., 2007; Funato et al., 2009). In the heart, Hand1 overexpression

increases cell proliferation indicating that the Hand mandibular defect may result from reduced progenitor cell proliferation. It is interesting to note that both Hand1 and *Gata3* have been implicated in trophoblast development indicating that these two genes may have interrelated functions in multiple cellular contexts (Ralston et al., 2010).

In addition to Bmp-signaling, the Endothelin (Edn) signaling pathway regulates Hand gene expression and also is critically important in facial form regulation. Edn deficient embryos display mandibular to maxillary transformations that are restricted to the Hox negative CNC (Gitton et al., 2010). Moreover, gain of function experiments indicate that expanded Edn and Hand2 in maxillary process results in transformation to a mandibular phenotype. Our data indicate that Bmp and Edn-signaling converge on Hand gene function to regulate facial form.

The *Dlx 5/6* genes, targets for Edn-signaling and direct regulators of Hand2, are also critically important in facial form development (Depew et al., 2002). Only modest Dlx6 expansion in Bmp4 OE embryos indicate that Bmp induced regulation of Hand genes primarily goes directly through Smad 1/5 (Fig. 14).

#### **Bmp-regulated negative feedback loops are critical for mandible development**

Negative auto-regulation is a mechanism to confer robustness to the developing embryo by buffering the system from elevated Bmp levels and is critical for normal craniofacial and heart development (Paulsen et al., 2011; Prall et al., 2007). *Bmp4* induced expression of genes that are negative regulators of Bmpsignaling such as Smad6, Noggin, and Gadd45. The importance of finely tuned Bmp-signaling levels in mice and humans is apparent from Noggin loss of function studies in mice as well as human genetics studies. Noggin deficiency results in cleft palate, defective mandibular development, as well as limb and heart defects (Brunet et al., 1998; Choi et al., 2007; Gong et al., 1999; He et al., 2010). The negative auto-regulatory pathway includes two genes,  $Gadd45\gamma$  and  $Smad6$  that are Smadregulated direct Bmp targets. Moreover, the negative auto-regulatory pathway modulates the pathway by multiple mechanisms. Smad6 inhibits R-Smad activity by both competing for Smad4 and also inhibiting R-Smad phosphorylation. Gadd45 $\gamma$ promotes ubiquitin ligase interaction with the Smad linker region to destabilize R-Smad, while Noggin is a competitive inhibitor of the Bmp ligand-receptor interaction (Sheng et al., 2010).

# **Bmp-signaling controls expression of multiple families of transcriptional regulators**

Cux2 has not been previously connected to Bmp-signaling or bone morphogenesis. The closely related gene, Cux1, is regulated by Tgf-β and represses collagen expression. Cux2 is regulated by Notch in the spinal cord where it controls cell cycle progression and promotes interneuron fate. Cux2 also has been shown to regulate dendrite morphology in post-natal brain (Iulianella et al., 2009; Iulianella et al., 2003).

Among the other Bmp-regulated genes that we identified, are genes that were previously shown to be Bmp-regulated. Previous experiments uncovered a Bmp-Msx genetic pathway in multiple contexts within the developing craniofacial apparatus including skull, palate and teeth (Chai and Maxson, 2006). Our data also indicate that Isl1 is regulated by Bmp-signaling during mandibular development. There is evidence that Bmp and *Isl1* function in a positive feedback loop in the mandible (Mitsiadis et al., 2003). Our data support these earlier findings and substantially extend previous understanding of Bmp targets in craniofacial development.

#### **Future direction**

Our *in situ* data indicate that in the *Bmp4* OE embryos one gene group including Gata3, Hand1, and Smad6 was broadly expressed throughout the cranial neural crest in response to Bmp4 overexpression. In contrast, genes such as Satb2 and  $Gadd45\gamma$  were more resistant to  $Bmp4$  overexpression and were upregulated in a more discrete spatial pattern. This observation exposes the possibility of other regulatory mechanisms capable of fine-tune the expression of Satb2 and Gadd45γ.

miRNA are small non-coding RNAs that post transcriptionally regulate gene expression by enhancing mRNA degradation or by inhibiting translation (Bartel, 2009). Recently studies show the participation of Bmp induced Smad signaling activity during the transcription of microRNA (miRNA). It has been revealed capability of Smad1/5 to directly bind to the Drosha complex to promote microRNA (miR) processing (Davis et al., 2008). Furthermore, our group has shown that Bmpsignaling can induce miR transcription through a canonical Smad regulated mechanism (Wang et al., 2010).

To test the possible involving of miRNA in the Bmp4 OE embryos phenotypes, we can simultaneous induce heterozygosity of *Dicer* in the *Bmp4* OE embryos (Wnt1cre; Bmp4<sup>teto</sup>; R26Nagy<sup>+/-</sup>; Dicer<sup>f/+</sup>). If the elevated levels of Bmp4 observed in the Bmp4 OE embryos are triggering a miRNA activation pathway, heterozygosity of Dicer should suppress some of the phenotype observed in the Bmp4 OE embryos.

One idea is that other signaling pathways, such as Wnts, may regulate miR expression that then degrades target mRNAs in certain domains of the branchial arches. Alternatively, the distinct responses to Bmp4 signaling may be regulated at the level of chromatin regulation such that Smad mediated activation is offset by negative regulatory mechanisms that cannot be overcome by high levels of Bmpsignaling.

**Appendix**

**Appendix 1. Bmp2, Bmp4, and Bmp7 conditional null alleles.**



# **Appendix 2. Primers sequence for qRT-PCR and ChIP experiments.**



### **Appendix 3. List of statistically significant genes that were differentially expressed in the mandible after Bmp4 over-expression.**



















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## **Vita**

Margarita Bonilla-Claudio was born in Caguas, Puerto Rico on August 14, 1981. She is the third of four sons of Porfirio Bonilla-Santa and Nancy M. Claudio-Ramos. After completing her studies at Dra. Conchita Cuevas High School, Gurabo, Puerto Rico in 1999, she entered the University of Puerto Rico at Cayey in Cayey, Puerto Rico, where she received the degree of Bachelor of Science Magna Cum Laude in May, 2004, with a major in Biology. In September of 2004, she entered The University of Texas Health Science Center Graduate School of Biomedical Sciences at Houston. After completing research tutorials, she joined the laboratory of Dr. James F. Martin and the Genes and Development Program in June, 2005.