Induction of Transcription Factor Interferon Regulatory Factor-1 by Interferon- γ (IFN γ) and Tumor Necrosis Factor- α (TNF α) in FRTL-5 Cells

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Abstract While it is well known that interferon- γ (IFN γ) and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) play a role in the regulation of thyroid growth and differentiated functions, the cellular and molecular mechanisms involved in mediating the effects of IFN γ and TNF α on thyroid function are unknown. In the present study, we used FRTL-5 rat thyroid cells to examine the effects of IFN γ and TNF α on gene expression of transcription factor interferon regulatory factor-1 (IRF-1), which is involved in mediating the effects of these cytokines in a number of cell types. Northern blot analysis of FRTL-5 mRNA showed a single IRF-1 mRNA at 2.2 Kb. In quiescent FRTL-5 cells, IRF-1 mRNA levels were low but detectable by Northern analysis. Incubation of FRTL-5 cells with IFN γ or TNF α resulted in a dose- and time-dependent increase in IRF-1 mRNA levels. We have shown that TNF- α and IFN- γ act synergistically to block the TSH-induced increase in type I 5'-deiodinase (5'D-I) activity and 5'D-I gene expression in FRTL-5 rat thyroid cells. Incubation of FRTL-5 cells with IFN γ and TNF α in combination, however, did not synergistically increase IRF-1 mRNA levels. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) revealed that IFN_Y induced the formation of a single complex to a IFN_Y activation site (GAS) probe in a dose dependent manner. Several lines of evidence suggest that TNFa activates transcription factor nuclear factor-KB (NFκB) through activation of protein kinase C (PKC) or the hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide in a number of cell types. Here we demonstrate that hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide by sphingomyelinase (SMase), but not activation of PKC by 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate (TPA), was involved in the activation of NFkB in FRTL-5 cells. Similarly, hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not activation of PKC, resulted in an increased in IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. The present data demonstrate that IFNγ and TNFα increase IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells through activation of GAS and NFkB binding proteins, respectively. Thus, our results suggest that upregulation of IRF-1 may play a role in mediating the effects of IFN γ and TNF α on thyroid function. Our results also suggest that the induction of IRF-1 mRNA by IFN_{γ} and TNF_{α} is not the cellular mechanism involved in the synergistic effect of these cytokines on thyroid function. J. Cell. Biochem. 74:211–219, 1999. © 1999 Wiley-Liss, Inc.

Key words: interferon- γ ; tumor necrosis factor- α ; thyroid

Interferon regulatory factor-1 (IRF-1) is a transcriptional activator originally shown to regulate interferon (IFN) inducible genes. Several lines of evidence, however, suggest that IRF-1 regulates of immune responses and apoptosis, and acts as an anti-oncogenic factor

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[Taniguchi et al., 1997]. Thus, activation of IRF-1 results in enhanced expression of inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), class II transactivator (CIITA), and MHC class I and II antigens [Flodstrom and Eizirik, 1997; Gobin et al., 1997; Hobart et al., 1997]. Further, targeted disruption of the IRF-1 gene in mice results in reduced incidence and severity of antigeninduced autoimmune diseases [Tada et al., 1997] and a dominant negative mutant of IRF-1 prevents the expression of IFN γ inducible genes [Thornton et al., 1996]. Taken together, IRF-1 may play an important role in the pathogenesis and maintenance of autoimmune diseases including autoimmune thyroid disease (AITD).

IFN γ and tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF α) are pleiotropic cytokines involved in the regulation of thyroid growth and differentiated functions,

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and may contribute to the pathogenesis of AITD. Administration of $TNF\alpha$ to human or rodents results in decreased serum thyroid hormone concentrations, iodide uptake and TSH-induced T3 and T4 release [Ozawa et al., 1988; Pang et al., 1989; van der Poll et al., 1990]. In human thyroid cells, IFN γ blocks TSH-induced increases in TSH receptor (TSHR) content and mRNA levels, thyroid peroxidase (TPO), and thyroglobulin (Tg) [Nishikawa et al., 1993; Asakawa et al., 1992; Kung and Lau, 1990]. Further, IFN γ and TNF α decrease TSH-induced iodide uptake and release of T3 and T4 into the medium by human thyrocytes [Sato et al., 1990]. In FRTL-5 rat thyroid cells, IFN γ and TNF α decrease TSH-induced type I 5'- deiodinase (5'D-I) activity and gene expression of TPO, Tg, and 5'D-I [Ongphiphadhanakul et al., 1994; Pekary et al., 1994; Tang et al., 1995]. Further, studies show a synergistic effect of IFN γ and TNF α on the inhibition of thyroid cell growth, TPO, Tg, and 5'D-I gene expression [Tang et al., 1995; Zakarija and McKenzie, 1989; Weetman and Rees, 1988], and enhancement of class II major histocompatibility complex (MHC) antigens [Weetman and Rees, 1988; Zakarija et al., 1988].

IFN γ activation sites (GAS) and NF κ B binding sites are present in the promotor region of the IRF-1 gene [Taniguchi et al., 1997; Harada et al., 1994], and IFN γ and TNF α increased IRF-1 mRNA levels [Geller et al., 1993]. In the present study, we examined the effect of IFN γ and TNF α on IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 rat thyroid cells. We found that $IFN\gamma$ and $TNF\alpha$ increased IRF-1 mRNA levels in a time and dose dependent manner. Analysis of nuclear extracts in IFN or TNF-stimulated FRTL-5 cells revealed protein-DNA complexes to GAS and NFkB, respectively. Further, we found that TNFα-induced NFκB binding required hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not the activation of protein kinase C. Thus, the presence of IRF-1 binding motifs in cytokine-responsive promoters suggests that IRF-1 activation may play a role in mediating the effects of $TNF\alpha$ and $INF\gamma$ on thyroid function and in the pathogenesis of AITD.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Materials

Recombinant rat $IFN\gamma$ and recombinant mouse $TNF\alpha$ were obtained from the Genzyme Corporation (Cambridge, MA). Rat IRF-1 complementary DNA (cDNA), a 1.0 kilobase pair (kbp) fragment inserted in pBluescript SK-, was kindly provided by Dr. Li-Yuan Yu-Lee [Yu-Lee et al., 1990]. The oligonucleotide probe for rat glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) was obtained from Oncogene Science (Uniondale, NY). Other materials were purchased from the following sources: bacterial sphingomyelinase (SMase; Staphylococcus aureus), D,L-dithiothreitol (DTT), Coon's modified Ham's F-12, human transferrin, bovine insulin, hydrocortisone, somatostatin, glysyl-L-histidyl-L-lysine, bovine TSH, SDS, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF), aprotinin, leupeptin, sodium orthovanadate, nonidet p-40 (NP-40), and fraction V of BSA from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO); 12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate (TPA) from Fluka (Ronkonkoma, NY); calf serum from Gibco BRL (Grand Island, NY); $[^{32}P]\alpha$ -dATP from New England Nuclear Corporation (Boston, MA); and poly (dI dC) poly (dI dC) from Pharmacia (Piscataway, NJ). All other chemicals and reagents were obtained from commercial sources and were of reagent or molecular biology grade.

Cell Culture

FRTL-5 cells were cultured in Coon's modified Ham's F-12 medium supplemented with 5% calf serum containing bovine TSH (l mU/ ml), bovine insulin (10 µg/ml), glycyl-L-histidyl-L-lysine (2 ng/ml), somatostatin (10 ng/ml), and hydrocortisone (0.36 ng/ml; 6H) as previously described [Mori et al., 1996]. Cells were maintained throughout at 37°C in an atmosphere saturated with water and containing 95% air and 5% CO². After cells approached confluence, cells were made quiescent by incubation for 7 days in media devoid of TSH (5H). Culture medium was changed twice a week. On the day of experiment, cells were incubated with test reagents for indicated hours and harvested for experiments.

Isolation of Total Cellular RNA and Northern Blot Analysis

Cells were washed twice with ice cold PBS and total cellular RNA was isolated by the acid guanidium-thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform extraction method of Chomczynski and Sacchi [1987], using materials obtained from Cinna/ Biotex Lab, Inc. (Houston, TX). Total cellular RNA concentration was quantified by UV absorption at 260 nm. For Northern blot analysis, equal amounts of RNA were fractionated by electrophoresis in 1.2% agarose gel containing 2.2 M formaldehyde and blotted on Duralon-UV filters (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA). Filters were cross-linked by UV and baked. After prehybridization for 6 h at 42°C in a solution containing 10% dextran sulfate, 50% deionized formamide, 1% SDS, 200 mg/ml denatured salmon sperm DNA, and 1 M NaCl, the filters were hybridized to a ³²P-labeled IRF-1 cDNA probe (kindly provided by Dr. Yu-Lee, Baylor College of Medicine, Houston, TX) overnight at 42°C. Blots were washed in $2 \times SSC$ ($1 \times SSC = 0.15$ M NaCl, 15 mM sodium citrate), 0.1% SDS three times at room temperature for 15 min and then in $0.5 \times SSC$, 0.1% SDS, for 30 min at $65^{\circ}C$. Filters were exposed to Fuji RX film (Fuji Photo Film Co., Tokyo, Japan) at -70°C using double fluorescent-intensifying screens.

Extraction of Soluble Nuclear Proteins

Soluble nuclear proteins were obtained as described by van Wijnen et al. [1992]. In brief, FRTL-5 cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS, and harvested in 1 ml hypotonic buffer containing 10 mM N-(2-hydroxyethyl) piperazine-N'-(2-ethanesulfonic acid; HEPES)-KOH, pH 7.9, 10 mM KC1, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1 mM EGTA, 1 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 10 ug/ml aprotinin, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, and 1 mM sodium orthovanadate. After incubation on ice for 15 min, cells were vortexed for 10 sec in hypotonic buffer containing 0.1% NP-40, followed by incubation on ice for 10 min. Nuclei were pelleted by centrifugation, washed twice with hypotonic buffer, and then the nuclear pellets were incubated at 4°C for 30 min in hypertonic buffer containing 20 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.9, 400mM KCI, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM DTT, 1 mM PMSF, 10 µg/ml aprotinin, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, and 20% glycerol. Supernatants were collected after centrifugation and stored at -80°C until use. Protein concentrations were measured by the Bradford method [Bradford, 1976].

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA)

The synthetic oligonucleotide probes used in EMSA were as follows; for the GAS element of IRF-1 promoter 5'-GATCCATTTCCCCGAAA-TGA-3' and for NF κ B 5'-CAACGGCAGGGGA-ATCTCCCTCTCTT-3'. The double-stranded probes were end-labeled using the Klenow-DNA polymerase and [32 P] α -dATP. Nuclear pro-

teins (5 µg) were incubated in a final volume of 20 µl with 40 fmol [32P]-labeled probe at 22°C for 30 min in buffer containing 10 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.9, 100 mM KC1, 0.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF, 10% glycerol, 0.05% NP-40 and 2 µg poly (dIodC). The nucleoprotein complexes were resolved by nondenaturing electrophoresis in a 5% polyacrylamide gel for 3 h at 4°C in buffer containing 45 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 45 mM boric acid, and 1 mM EDTA. Gels were dried and exposed to Fuji RX film at -80°C. For competition experiments, a 100-fold molar excess of the unlabeled oligonucleotides was added 15 min before incubation of nuclear extracts with radiolabeled probes.

Immunoprecipitation and Immunoblotting

Cells were solubilized on ice in 1 ml of lysis buffer containing 10 mM Tris-HCL, pH 7.6, 5 mM EDTA, 50 mM NaCl, 50 mM sodium pyrophosphate, 50 mM sodium fluoride, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1% Triton X-100, 1 mM PMSF, 10 ug/ml aprotinin, and 10 ug/ml leupeptin. Insoluble material was pelleted at 10,000g for 30 min at 4°C. Clarified lysates were incubated for 24 h with anti-STAT1 at 4°C. Antibodies were captured by incubation for 60 min with protein A-Sepharose beads, washed, and subjected to SDS PAGE and transferred to nitrocellulose as previously described [DeVito et al., 1995]. Blots were blocked, probed with antiphosphotyrosine antibodies, and tyrosine phosphorylated proteins were detected by enhanced chemiluminescence as previously described [DeVito et al., 1995].

RESULTS

To determine if IFN γ or TNF α increases IRF-1 gene expression in FRTL-5 cells, total RNA was isolated for Northern blot analysis. In quiescent FRTL-5 cells low or no expression of IRF-1 mRNA was detected (Fig. 1). In IFN γ and TNF α stimulated cells, however, a single IRF-1 mRNA at 2.2 Kb was easily detected. Incubation of FRTL-5 cells with low concentrations of IFN γ (6.25 U/ml) or TNF α (6.25 ng/ml) resulted in a rapid and marked increase in IRF-1 mRNA. IRF-1 mRNA levels peaked 1 to 2 h after stimulation with IFN γ or TNF α and remained elevated for at least 24 h. Reprobing of blots with a GAPDH probe verified that equal amounts of RNA had been loaded. As illustrated in Figure 2, incubation of FRTL-5 cells for 1 h with IFN γ



Fig. 1. Effect of IFN γ (12.5 U/ml) or TNF α (6.25 ng/ml) on IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with IFN γ or TNF α for indicated hours. Blots were hybridized with ³²P-labeled IRF-1 probe, then stripped and rehybridized with ³²P-labeled GAPDH probe The data presented are representative of three separate experiments.



Fig. 2. Effect of IFN_Y TNF_α or IFN_Y and TNF_α in combination on IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with IFN_Y (6.25 or 12.5 U/ml) or TNF_α (6.25 or 12.5 ng/ml) for 60–120 min. Blots were hybridized with ³²P-labeled IRF-1 probe, then stripped and rehybridized with ³²P-labeled GAPDH probe. The data presented are representative of three separate experiments.

or TNF α resulted in a dose-dependent increase in IRF-1 mRNA levels. It is well known that IFN γ and TNF α act synergistically to modulate thyroid function [Tang et al., 1995]. When FRTL-5 cells were incubated with IFN γ and $TNF\alpha$ in combination, however, no synergistic increase in IRF-1 mRNA levels was found (Fig. 2). EMSAs were used to determine if IFN γ or $TNF\alpha$ activated nuclear protein binding to GAS or NFkB specific probes in FRTL-5 cells. In quiescent FRTL-5 cells, no GAS binding activity was detected (Fig. 3). Incubation of FRTL-5 cells with IFN γ , but not TNF α , resulted in a dose dependent formation of a single GAS complex. Addition of a 100-fold excess of unlabeled oligonucleotide to the binding reaction abolished the formation of IFN_γ-induced nucleoprotein complex with radiolabeled probes (data not shown). Whereas NF_KB binding elements are present in the promotor region of the IRF-1 gene, TNF α did not potentiate IFN γ -induced activation of GAS binding in FRTL-5 cells (data not shown). IFN γ regulates cell function through the tyrosine phosphorylation of signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) Stat1 α , the subsequent formation of Statl α homodimers and translocation into the nucleus, where they bind to specific DNA response elements in IFN_y responsive genes [Darnell et al., 1994]. Consistent with observations in nonthyroidal cells, we found that $IFN\gamma$ induced the rapid tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT1 α in FRTL-5 cells (Fig. 4).

The hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide and/or activation of PKC may be involved in



Fig. 3. Effect of IFN γ or TNF α on GAS binding activity analyzed by EMSA in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with IFN γ (12.5 or 25 U/ml) or TNF α (12.5 or 25 ng/ml) for 30 min. Nuclear proteins were extracted and then incubated with ³²P-labeled double stranded oligonucleotide containing GAS. Nucleoprotein complexes were resolved by non denaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The data presented are representative of three separate experiments.

mediating the effects of $TNF\alpha$ in a variety of cell types, including FRTL-5 cells [Wiegmann et al., 1992; Mori et al., 1996]. Accordingly, EMSA was used to determine if hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide or the activation of PKC induces nuclear NF_KB binding in FRTL-5 cells. In quiescent FRTL-5 cells, low levels of NFkB binding activity were detected as two bands (Fig. 5). In cells incubated with SMase (0.1 U/ml), hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide resulted in a marked increase in NFkB binding activity 30 min after stimulation. In contrast, activation of PKC by TPA (10 nM) failed to induce NFkB binding. Addition of a 100-fold excess of unlabeled oligonucleotides to the binding reaction completely decreased both bands in SMase-stimulated FRTL-5 cells. These results suggested that hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not activation of PKC, is involved in mediating the effects of $TNF\alpha$ on IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. To test this hypothesis, we determined whether IRF-1 mRNA levels were increased in response to activation of PKC or hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide in FRTL-5 cells. As shown in Figure 6, hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not activation of PKC, resulted in a marked increase in IRF-1 mRNA levels. Further, TPA did not potentiate the SMase-induced increase in IRF-1 mRNA levels.

DISCUSSION

Transcription factor IRF-1 plays an important role in the regulation of IFN γ - and TNF α induced cellular effects in a variety of tissues. A number of studies in non-thyroidal tissues demonstrate that IRF-1 is involved in the modulation of cellular responses to IFN γ , cell growth, susceptibility to oncogenic transformation, apoptosis, and development of the T cell immune response [Taniguchi et al., 1997]. Further, several lines of evidence indicate that IRF-1 is involved in expression of iNOS [Flodstrom and Eizirik, 1997], CIITA, and class I and II MHC antigens [Gobin et al., 1997; Hobart et al., 1997]. In addition, the incidence and severity of type II collagen-induced arthritis are significantly reduced in mice lacking IRF-1 gene [Tada et al., 1997]. Thus, IRF-1 seems to be a key molecule in the pathogenesis of autoimmune diseases and may play a role in AITD.

In spite of well known actions of IFN γ and $TNF\alpha$ on thyroid function, the cellular and molecular events activated by these cytokines remain poorly understood in the thyroid. Studies in a variety of cell types, however, indicate that TNF α binds to two cell surface receptors, TNF-R1 and -R2 [Heller and Kronke, 1994]. Further, most of $TNF\alpha$ -induced responses are mediated by the activation of TNF-R1 [Wiegmann et al., 1992] and involves interactions among a number of signal transduction systems. Two of the best understood systems include TNF-R1-induced activation of protein kinase C (PKC) and hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide catalyzed by sphingomyelinase (SMase) [Wiegmann et al., 1992] resulting in the activation of NF κ B [Yang et al., 1993; Schutze et al., 1992]. Consistent with studies in other tissues, $TNF\alpha$ induces the activation of NFkB in a human papillary thyroid carcinoma cell line [Pang et al., 1992]. Further, we have recently shown that activation of the ceramide pathway is involved in the regulation of 5'D-I in FRTL-5 cells [Mori et al., 1996]. We have now clearly shown that IFN γ and TNF α induced a rapid and marked increase in IRF-1 mRNA Mori et al.

H5

H6

0 5 15 30

0 5 15 30





Fig. 4. Effect of INF γ on tyrosine phosphorylation of STAT1 α in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H or 6H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with IFN (6.25 U/ml) for 10 min. Cell extracts were immunoprecipitated with anti-STAT1 α and Western blot analysis was performed using an anti-phophotyrosine.

levels, peaking 1 to 2 h after stimulation, and remaining elevated for at least 24 h. Consistent with our results, a similar time course of IFN γ or TNF α -induced increases in IRF-1 mRNA levels was observed in rat hepatocytes [Geller et al., 1993] and in retinoic acid stimulated NB4 cells, a human promyelocytic leukemia cell line [Matikainen et al., 1996]. In contrast, in Nb2 rat T cell lymphoma cells, prolactin induces two peaks of IRF-1 mRNA levels, a rapid and transient peak at 1 h and a second sustained peak 12 h after stimulation [Schwarz et al., 1992].

We recently have shown that hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide is involved in mediating the effects of TNF α in FRTL-5 cells [Mori et al., 1996]. Here we show that hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not activation of PKC, is involved in the activation of NF κ B and an elevation of IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. Thus, hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide may play a role in the induction of IRF-1 gene expression by TNF α in the thyroid. Consistent with the present findings, studies in HL-60 cells and the human leukemic cell lines, K62 and Jurket, demonstrate that the hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide, but not activation of PKC, is a critical cellular event involved in TNF α -induced activation of NF κ B [Meichle et al., 1990; Yang et al., 1993]. In contrast, studies in human FS-4 and murine L929 cell lines have shown that activation of PKC by TPA increases IRF-1 mRNA levels [Fujita et al., 1989]. Taken together, these studies suggest that the cellular mechanisms involved in regulation of IRF-1 gene expression by IFN γ and TNF α may be tissue and/or growth factor specific.

A variety of cytokines and hormones use cytoplasmic signal transducers and activators of transcription (STAT) to regulate expressions of specific genes. IFN γ binding to the cell surface receptor leads to tyrosine phosphorylation of two protein kinases which are members of the Janus kinase (Jak) family, JAK-1 and JAK-2 [Darnell et al, 1994]. Tyrosine phosphorylation of Jak-1 and -2 then results in the tyrosine phosphorylation of Stat1 α , and the subsequent formation of Stat1 α homodimers and their translocation into the nucleus, where they bind specific DNA response elements on IFN γ responsive genes [Darnell et al., 1994]. In the present study, we demonstrated that IFN γ increases



Fig. 5. Effect of TPA or SMase on NF κ B binding activity analyzed by EMSA in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with TPA (10 nM) or SMase (01 U/ml) for 30 min. Nuclear proteins were extracted and then incubated with ³²P-labeled double stranded oligonucleotide containing NF κ B binding consensus. Nucleoprotein complexes were resolved by nondenaturing polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. The data presented are representative of three separate experiments.

tyrosine phosphoralation of STAT1, GAS binding, and IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells.

IFN γ and TNF α act synergistically to block TSH-induced increases in 5'D-I, Tg, and TPO mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells [Tang, 1995]. Further, we have reported that IFN γ did not potentiate the inhibitory effect of activation of PKC or the hydrolysis of sphingomyelin to ceramide on TSH-induced 5'D-I activity or mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells [Mori et al., 1996]. In the present study, incubation of FRTL-5 cells with $TNF\alpha$ and IFN γ together did not synergistically increase IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. In contrast, IFN γ and TNF α synergistically increased IRF-1 mRNA levels in mouse fibroblasts, and the synergy depended, in part, on cooperation between Stat1a and NFkB [Ohmori et al., 1997]. Several lines of evidence, however, suggest that a variety of transcription factors may be involved in the synergy between $IFN\gamma$ and TNF α . In the THP-1 human monocytic cell line, synergistic induction of IL-6 gene by IFN γ and $TNF\alpha$ involves cooperation between IRF-1 and NF_KB p65 homodimers with concomitant changes in Sp1 activity [Sanceau et al., 1995]. Thus, the cellular mechanisms which mediate



Fig. 6. Effect of TPA or SMase on IRF-1 mRNA levels in FRTL-5 cells. Cells were maintained in 5H medium plus 5% calf serum for 7 days and then stimulated with TPA (10 nM) or SMase (01 U/ml) for 120 min. Blots were hybridized with ³²P-labeled IRF-1 probe, then stripped and rehybridized with ³²P-labeled GAPDH probe. The data presented are representative of three separate experiments.

the synergistic interaction of $IFN\gamma$ and $TNF\alpha$ may be tissue specific and remain unknown in the thyroid.

In summary, our results clearly demonstrate that IFN γ increases IRF-1 mRNA levels through activation of Stat1 α in FRTL-5 cells. On the other hand, ceramide production followed by the activation of NF κ B is involved in the TNF α -induced increase in IRF-1 mRNA in these cells. Thus, these findings suggest that IRF-1 may play a role in mediating the effects of IFN γ and TNF α on thyroid function, and possibly in the pathogenesis of AITD. Further, the synergistic effects of TNF α and IFN γ on thyroid function is not the result of an enhanced IRF-1 gene expression in the thyroid.

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