Developmental Cell

Exosomal MicroRNA Transport from Salivary Mesenchyme Regulates Epithelial Progenitor Expansion during Organogenesis

Graphical Abstract



Highlights

- Exosomal miRNAs are transported from mesenchyme to epithelium during organogenesis
- Exosomal mesenchymal miR-133b-3p is delivered to the epithelium but not transcribed
- miR-133b-3p targets DIP2B, which is involved in DNA methylation in KIT⁺ progenitors
- Exosomal miRNA epigenetically regulates genes controlling KIT⁺ progenitor expansion

Authors

Toru Hayashi, Isabelle M.A. Lombaert, Belinda R. Hauser, Vaishali N. Patel, Matthew P. Hoffman

Correspondence

mhoffman@mail.nih.gov

In Brief

Epithelial-mesenchymal interactions are critical for salivary gland development. Hayashi et al. show that miRNAcontaining exosomes produced by mesenchyme are transported to the epithelium, where they regulate KIT⁺ progenitor cell proliferation. A specific mesenchymal miRNA (miR-133b-3p) targets DIP2B, which is involved in DNA methylation, thus regulating progenitor cell expansion during organogenesis.

Accession Numbers GSE89896





Exosomal MicroRNA Transport from Salivary Mesenchyme Regulates Epithelial Progenitor Expansion during Organogenesis

Toru Hayashi,^{1,2} Isabelle M.A. Lombaert,^{1,3,4} Belinda R. Hauser,¹ Vaishali N. Patel,¹ and Matthew P. Hoffman^{1,5,*} ¹Matrix and Morphogenesis Section, National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20892, USA

²Present address: Department of Pharmacology, Asahi University School of Dentistry, 1851 Hozumi, Mizuho, Gifu 501-0296, Japan ³Present address: Biologic & Materials Sciences, School of Dentistry, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

⁴Present address: Biointerfaces Institute, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109, USA

⁵Lead Contact

*Correspondence: mhoffman@mail.nih.gov http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2016.12.001

SUMMARY

Epithelial-mesenchymal interactions involve fundamental communication between tissues during organogenesis and are primarily regulated by growth factors and extracellular matrix. It is unclear whether RNA-containing exosomes are mobile genetic signals regulating epithelial-mesenchymal interactions. Here we identify that exosomes loaded with mesenchyme-specific mature microRNA contribute mobile genetic signals from mesenchyme to epithelium. The mature mesenchymal miR-133b-3p, loaded into exosomes, was transported from mesenchyme to the salivary epithelium, which did not express primary miR-133b-3p. Knockdown of miR-133b-3p in culture decreased endbud morphogenesis, reduced proliferation of epithelial KIT⁺ progenitors, and increased expression of a target gene, Disco-interacting protein 2 homolog B (Dip2b). DIP2B, which is involved in DNA methylation, was localized with 5-methylcytosine in the prophase nucleus of a subset of KIT⁺ progenitors during mitosis. In summary, exosomal transport of miR-133b-3p from mesenchyme to epithelium decreases DIP2B, which may function as an epigenetic regulator of genes responsible for KIT⁺ progenitor expansion during organogenesis.

INTRODUCTION

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs that regulate gene expression and influence many diverse cellular functions (Leonardo et al., 2012; Bushati and Cohen, 2007; Bartel, 2004). Mature miRNAs are processed from primary transcripts (primiRNAs) through sequential steps that occur in the nucleus and cytoplasm (Ameres and Zamore, 2013; Carthew and Sontheimer, 2009; Kim et al., 2009; Siomi and Siomi, 2009). Although miRNA can function within the cell that produces it, there is increasing evidence that miRNAs are used as mobile genetic signals for intercellular communication or via the systemic circulation within



an organism (Mittelbrunn and Sanchez-Madrid, 2012). Cells can communicate using miRNAs within extracellular vesicles (Desrochers et al., 2016) including exosomes (Yanez-Mo et al., 2015; Valadi et al., 2007), which are produced by most cells (Edgar, 2016) and found in many body fluids, such as serum and saliva. Many studies have been carried out to investigate exosome function using in vitro 2D cell-culture models or systemic circulating exosomes in vivo (Yanez-Mo et al., 2015; Mittelbrunn and Sanchez-Madrid, 2012; Kosaka and Ochiya, 2011). However, it is unclear whether specific miRNAs are transported across 3D cellular tissue boundaries, such as between epithelium and mesenchyme, during normal fetal organogenesis.

We predicted that exosomal miRNAs released from the mesenchyme are mobile genetic signals important for epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during organogenesis. We used fetal mouse submandibular glands (SMG) to isolate exosomes and to study exosomal miRNA transport between tissue types, as this model has been classically used to study epithelialmesenchymal interactions (Patel et al., 2006; Grobstein, 1953a, 1953b). The mesenchyme and epithelium can be separated, cell membranes fluorescently labeled, and the tissue recombined in ex vivo culture to study, for example, exosomal transport during SMG organogenesis. Classic mesenchyme/ epithelium recombination experiments using different organs showed that the mesenchyme is inductive to the epithelium, inducing cell proliferation, differentiation, and ultimately its morphogenesis (Kusakabe et al., 1985; Sakakura et al., 1976; Grobstein, 1953a, 1953b). These mobile inductive signals from the mesenchyme have been mainly attributed to secreted signals, such as growth factors and extracellular matrix. However, we previously identified that epithelial miRNAs in the SMG regulate epithelial morphogenesis (Rebustini et al., 2012; Hayashi et al., 2011), and thus we hypothesized that exosomal miRNAs transported between mesenchyme and epithelium could be inductive signals during organogenesis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We first determined whether SMGs produce exosomes during fetal organogenesis at a stage of development when epithelialmesenchymal interactions are critical. We collected conditioned medium from embryonic day 13 (E13) SMGs cultured for 48 hr



on filters, and subjected the medium to sequential centrifugation to enrich for exosomes in the final pellet (Figure 1A). We confirmed that exosomes were present using a number of methods. First, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis of the pellet revealed the presence of exosome-like vesicles of the expected size (Yanez-Mo et al., 2015; Mittelbrunn and Sanchez-Madrid, 2012; Gibbings et al., 2009) (Figure 1A). Second, western blot analysis on the exosome pellet confirmed the presence of the exosome markers TSG101 and Alix, and the absence of intracellular cytoskeletal actin (Lotvall et al., 2014) (Figure 1A). Third, RNA electrophoresis showed that the exosome pellet contained small RNAs but not 18S- and 28S-rRNA (Figures 1B and S1). The yield of exosomal RNA from 50 SMGs was ~2 ng and we confirmed that this was resistant to RNase A treatment, in contrast to total SMG RNA, as would be expected if the RNA were protected in exosomes (Figure 1B). Taken together, our results show that E13 mouse SMGs produce exosomes containing small RNAs.

To investigate whether the transfer of exosomes occurs between epithelium and mesenchyme, or vice versa, we used

Figure 1. Exosomes Containing Small RNAs Are Secreted into the Medium of Fetal SMGs Cultured Ex Vivo

(A) Exosomes (Exo) isolated by sequential centrifugation were analyzed by transmission electron microscopy (TEM; scale bar, 50 nm) and western blot for the exosome markers Alix and TSG101. Intact SMG and NIH3T3 cell lysates are positive controls.

(B) Bioanalyzer analysis shows that small RNAs in exosomes were resistant to RNase A degradation. Arrows indicate the peak of small RNA before and after RNase A treatment. FU, fluorescence units. N = 3; graph is a representative experiment.

E13 SMGs in tissue recombination experiments. The cell membranes of either epithelium or mesenchyme were labeled with a fluorescent BODIPY-ceramide dye, which labels cell membranes as well as exosome membranes (Kosaka et al., 2012; Trajkovic et al., 2008) (Figure 2A). We first confirmed that BODIPYceramide also labeled exosomes isolated from SMGs, by repeating the exosome preparation as described above but using labeled SMGs and measuring the emission spectrum of the isolated exosome fraction to confirm that it contained BOPIDY-ceramide, i.e., 540-680 nm light emission (data not shown). Furthermore. when labeled mesenchyme was recombined with unlabeled epithelium and cultured for 12 hr, ceramide-labeled vesicles were detected in the unlabeled epithelium (Figure 2A, upper panel). That the vesicles were detected by confocal microscopy suggests that they are accumulations of labeled exosomes or include other labeled vesicles, as the size of an in-

dividual exosome would not be resolved at this magnification. In the converse recombination experiment, ceramide-labeled vesicles from labeled epithelium were not detected in the unlabeled mesenchyme by confocal analysis (Figure 2A, lower panel), although we cannot rule out the possibility that low levels of epithelial exosomes are present. However, we focused on the abundant labeled vesicles, which included exosomes, that were transported from the mesenchyme to the epithelium. In addition, we observed labeled vesicle uptake in isolated SMG epithelium physically separated from labeled mesenchyme by a laminin extracellular matrix (ECM). The labeled mesenchyme was placed \sim 100 μ m away on top of the ECM (Figure 2B). After 8 hr of incubation, ceramide-labeled vesicles were observed in the epithelial endbuds (Figure 2B). To confirm that ceramidelabeled vesicles released by the mesenchyme contained exosomes, we co-stained the mesenchyme sitting on top of the ECM with antibodies to TSG101, an exosome marker (Figure S2). The TSG101 staining was punctate and often associated with larger ceramide-labeled vesicles. We also confirmed that the



Figure 2. Fluorescently Labeled Exosomes Are Transported from the SMG Mesenchyme to the Epithelium

(A) SMG epithelium (Epi) separated from mesenchyme (Mes) were both labeled with fluorescent ceramide and recombined with unlabeled epithelium or mesenchyme. After 12 hr of recombination they were analyzed by confocal microscopy. The ceramide label was transported from the mesenchyme to the epithelium but not the other way round. Dashed line outlines the epithelium. Scale bars, 10 µm.

(B) Isolated epithelium in 3D laminin extracellular matrix was cultured with labeled mesenchyme. White box in the left panel outlines the area shown in the right upper panel and the box in the upper panel outlines the area shown in the lower panel. Labeled vesicles were detected in the epithelium after 8 hr (white arrows). Scale bars represent 200 µm (left), 50 µm (right upper), and 5 µm (right lower).

(C) Monensin (1 μ M) increases ceramide-labeled vesicles in the epithelium, whereas brefeldin A (1 μ g/mL) decreases the number of vesicles in the epithelium. Error bars show SD. *p < 0.05, Student's t test. Scale bars, 10 μ m.

ceramide label released from the mesenchyme was in vesicles produced by the labeled cells by both increasing and reducing vesicle release with the ionophore monensin, which increases exosome release (Savina et al., 2003), and brefeldin A, which decreases exosome release (Mittelbrunn et al., 2011). We treated ceramide-labeled mesenchyme recombined with non-labeled epithelium with each chemical for 6 hr. With monensin we observed an increase in the ceramide-labeled vesicles in the epithelium of \sim 1.5-fold (Figure 2C). With brefeldin A treatment there was \sim 65% reduction in the number of ceramide-labeled vesicles in the epithelium (Figure 2C). Taken together, these data provide evidence that fluorescently labeled vesicles,

including TSG101-labeled exosomes, are released from the mesenchyme and that they can diffuse through an ECM to the epithelium.

Next, we identified which miRNAs were present in exosomes isolated from SMG-conditioned medium using real-time PCR (qPCR) miRNA arrays and compared these with miRNAs isolated directly from intact SMGs. We detected 81 exosomal miRNAs, which were a subset of the 153 miRNAs identified in intact SMGs (Figure 3A and Table S1). Three of the exosomal miRNAs have sequence motifs previously identified as being important for miRNA loading into exosomes (CCCU) (Villarroya-Beltri et al., 2013). These three miRNAs were significantly enriched in the exosome pellet isolated from the culture medium compared with the RNA isolated from intact SMGs in culture, miR-133a-3p (14.8-fold), miR-133b-3p (6.6-fold), and miR-409-3p (2.7-fold) (Figure 3B). On the other hand, miR-200c-3p, an miRNA previously reported to be abundant in SMG epithelium (Rebustini et al., 2012), was less abundant in exosomes (0.07-fold) than in intact SMGs. These data suggest that exosomes contain a subset of miRNAs produced by the SMG, and that some of these may be selectively packaged in exosomes.

Next, we measured the tissue distribution of the primary and mature forms of the exosomal-enriched miRNA using TaqMan qPCR. We predicted that the mature miRNAs would be detected in both epithelium and mesenchyme due to exosomal transport. However, if the primary miRNA were detected only in mesenchyme but not epithelium, this would suggest that the miRNA was transcribed in the mesenchyme, processed into its mature form, and then transported to the epithelium in exosomes. We measured the primary and mature forms of the exosome-enriched miR-133a-3p, miR-133b-3p, and miR-409-3p in E13 SMG epithelium and mesenchyme. We also used the epithelial-enriched miR-200c-3p as a control, since both its primary and mature forms were detected in E13 epithelium (Figure 3C). Likewise, both primary and mature forms of miR-409-3p were detected in both mesenchyme and epithelium. Similarly, mature miR-133a-3p and its two different primary forms, primary miR-133a-1 and primary miR-133a-2, were detected in both mesenchyme and epithelium (Figure 3C). In contrast, the primary form of miR-133b-3p was detected in the mesenchyme but not in the epithelium, although the mature form miR-133b-3p was detected in both tissues (Figures 3D and S3). To confirm this expression pattern, we also separated epithelium from mesenchyme at two other early stages of SMG development, E12 (single epithelial endbud) and E13.5 (5-8 endbuds), and found that primary miR-133b-3p was only detectable in the mesenchyme, whereas the mature form was detected in both epithelium and mesenchyme (Figure 3D). We also cultured isolated E13.5 epithelium and mesenchyme separately for 24 hr and measured both primary and mature miR-133b-3p and miR-200c with culture (Figure 3E). We could not detect primary miR-133b-3p in cultured epithelia and the level of mature miR-133b-3p decreased with culture, as expected because it was not being made by the epithelium. In contrast, both primary and mature miR-200c increased during epithelial culture (Figure 3E). Also, as expected both primary and mature forms of miR-133b-3p increased in mesenchymal culture. Finally, we treated intact SMGs with brefeldin A for 6 hr and then isolated the epithelium from the mesenchyme. Brefeldin A reduced exosome release,

resulting in less mature miR-133b-3p being detected in the epithelium compared with control treatment (Figure 3F). Taken together with the previous experiments with fluorescently labeled mesenchyme, these data suggest that miR-133b-3p is transcribed in the mesenchyme, processed to its mature form, and transported to the epithelium in exosomes during SMG organogenesis. In contrast, the mature forms of other exosomal miRNAs are expressed in both epithelium and mesenchyme.

To identify potential direct targets of miR-133b-3p, we combined results from microarray analysis with bioinformatics prediction. We treated isolated epithelium with an antagomir to miR-133b-3p (Anta-133b-3p) for 20 hr, a time during which no change in morphogenesis was apparent. In this loss-of-function assay, we identified 88 upregulated mRNAs by microarray analysis. Based on three bioinformatics miRNA target prediction programs (Table S2), we focused on eight candidate mRNAs that were potential direct targets of miR-133b-3p and upregulated in the microarray by the antagomir. Using qPCR analysis we confirmed that one of these, the disco-interacting protein 2 homolog b (Dip2b), was significantly increased in epithelia after 20 hr of Anta-133b-3p treatment (Figure S4A). One possible explanation for the apparent modest changes in gene expression was that only a subpopulation of cells was being targeted. Dip2b is known to contain a binding site for the transcriptional regulator DNA methyltransferase 1-associated protein 1 (DMAP1), and is involved in DNA methylation to epigenetically regulate cell proliferation and differentiation (Winnepenninckx et al., 2007). In humans, DIP2B has also been identified as a potential susceptibility gene associated with colorectal cancer (Closa et al., 2014). Interestingly, DNA methylation has also been associated with aberrant miR-133b expression in colorectal cancer (Lv et al., 2015).

To first confirm that miR-133b-3p directly targets Dip2b in a sequence-dependent manner, we performed luciferase reporter assays with NIH3T3 cells using plasmids with the Dip2b 3' UTR containing an miR-133b-3p binding site (*Dip2b*-wt) (Figure S4B). An RNAHybrid program predicted a secondary structure between miR-133b-3p and the potential binding site of Dip2b 3' UTR, suggesting that they can create an RNA/RNA duplex with a minimum free energy of -29.5 kcal/mol (Rehmsmeier et al., 2004). We mutated the target site sequence by substituting three nucleotides of the base-pairing seed region in miR-133b-3p (Dip2b-mutation). A miR-133b-3p mimic (Mimic-133b-3p) reduced luciferase levels in the Dip2b wild-type but not with the Dip2b mutation, indicating that miR-133b-3p targets Dip2b in a "seed region-dependent" manner. As expected, treating SMG epithelium with Mimic-133b-3p downregulated Dip2b expression (Figure S4C). Taken together, these results suggest that miR-133b-3p directly targets Dip2b in a sequence-dependent manner to downregulate its mRNA.

Next, we treated isolated SMG epithelium with Anta-133b-3p for 45 hr to measure changes in epithelial morphogenesis and mature miR-133b-3p gene expression (Figure 4A). Treatment with Anta-133b-3p not only reduced expression of miR-133b-3p but also epithelial morphogenesis, as measured by a morphogenic index. We confirmed that these changes were associated with an increase in *Dip2b* expression (Figure 4B), and ~2-fold increase in DIP2B staining in the epithelium (Figures 4C and 4D), which was more highly expressed in certain individual cells



Figure 3. miR-133b-3p Is Enriched in Exosomes, but Its Primary Transcript Is Only Expressed in the Mesenchyme, while the Mature miRNA Is Detected in Both Epithelium and Mesenchyme

(A) Exosomal miRNAs are a subset of SMG miRNAs. N = 3.

(B) miR-133a-3p, miR-133b-3p, and miR-409-3p were relatively more abundant in the RNA isolated from the exosome fraction than SMGs. miR-200c-3p is an epithelial-related miRNA. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, Student's t test. N = 3.

(C) TaqMan qPCR of the primary and mature forms of exosomal miRNAs (miR-133a-3p, miR-409-3p) and epithelial-expressed miR-200c-3p shows that primary and mature transcripts were detected in both epithelium and mesenchyme. N = 3.

(D) Expression analysis by TaqMan qPCR of primary and mature forms of miR-133b-3p in isolated epithelium and mesenchyme. Images are epithelium and mesenchyme at embryonic days 12, 13, and 13.5. The primary transcript of miR-133b-3p was not detected (ND) in epithelium, although the mature form was found in both epithelium and mesenchyme. Scale bar, 100 μm.

(E) Primary miR-133b-3p is not detected in cultured epithelium but its mesenchymal expression increases. Analysis of primary and mature miRNA expression, normalized to time 0, in isolated epithelium and mesenchyme cultured separately for 24 h. Scale bar, 200 µm.

(F) Brefeldin A (1 ng/mL) treatment of SMGs for 6 hr, which reduces exosome secretion, decreases mature miR-133b-3p expression in the epithelium by \sim 80%. Error bars show SD. *p < 0.05, Student's t test. N = 3.



Figure 4. Knockdown of miR-133b-3p Reduces Epithelial Morphogenesis and Endbud Proliferation by Increasing DIP2B in the Nucleus of a KIT⁺ Epithelial Progenitor Subpopulation

(A) miR-133b-3p loss of function with an antagomir (Anta-133b-3p) decreases epithelial morphogenesis and mature miR-133b-3p expression. Morphogenic index = (number of endbuds) × (width of endbuds) × (length of ducts) in a.u., normalized to epithelia treated with control antagomir (Anta-control). Error bars show SEM. *p < 0.05, Student's t test. N = 3. Scale bar, 200 μ m.

(B) Anta-133b-3p increased expression of Dip2b, a predicted target gene, as well as Krt5, Krt14, Krt19, and Fgfr2b and decreased expression of Kit. Expression was normalized to Rps29 and compared with epithelia treated with Anta-control. Error bars show SEM. *p < 0.05, Student's t test. N = 3.

(C) Anta-133b-3p treatment increased DIP2B staining. **p < 0.01, Student's t test. N = 3. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(D) Anta-133b-3p treatment increased nuclear localization of DIP2B protein (arrowheads) in certain KIT⁺ epithelial (Ecad⁺) endbud cells. N = 3. Scale bar, 10 μm. (E) Anta-133b-3p treatment reduced endbud proliferation and the number of CCND1⁺ cells in the endbuds decreased. ***p < 0.001, Student's t test. N = 3. Scale bar, 50 μm.

that appeared to be proliferating, based on their nuclear morphology. In control epithelia, DIP2B was also apparent in the nuclei of a subpopulation of endbud cells, but with less staining intensity than Anta-133b-3p-treated epithelium (Figure 4D, arrowheads). In addition, there was also a striking reduction of SMG endbud expansion with antagomir treatment. Therefore, we measured the expression of the endbud progenitor marker Kit, which we previously identified as a marker of proliferative endbud progenitors in SMG epithelium (Lombaert et al., 2013). Knockdown of miR-133b-3p significantly reduced Kit expression (Figure 4B), and there was a relative increase in expression of the ductal marker Krt19 as well as Krt5 and Krt14, which label both endbud and ductal cells. Fgfr2b, which is essential for SMG epithelial proliferation, was also upregulated (Figure 4B). While combined KIT and FGFR2b signaling regulates endbud expansion (Lombaert et al., 2013), Fgfr2b is also expressed throughout the duct (Patel et al., 2006). The increased Fgfr2b is likely due to the proportional increase in the remaining ductal cells. We then measured proliferation by immunostaining antagomir-treated epithelium for CCND1 (Figure 4E) and counting the number of proliferating cells in the endbud epithelium. There was \sim 76% reduction in the number of CCND1⁺ cells in Anta-133b-3ptreated epithelium compared with control. Together, these data suggest that miR-133b-3p specifically targets proliferating KIT-expressing (KIT⁺) endbud progenitors and consequently reduces endbud morphogenesis. To define whether miR-133b-3p regulates KIT⁺ progenitor cell expansion via the epigenetic modulator DIP2B, we evaluated the expression of DIP2B in SMG KIT⁺ cells. Our previous microarray analysis of SMG development shows that Dip2b is expressed from ontogenesis until adulthood, and is present in both E13 epithelium and mesenchyme (sgmap.nidcr.nih.gov). Immunostaining confirmed broad cytoplasmic staining for DIP2B in both epithelium and mesenchyme. However, there was a subpopulation of individual cells within the SMG endbud that showed nuclear localization of DIP2B, and the protein expression further increased after Anta-133b-3p treatment (Figure 4C). These cells also expressed KIT and E-cadherin (Ecad). Further analysis of DIP2B protein in the SMG endbud revealed that during epithelial mitosis DIP2B condensed in the prophase nucleus in a discrete cell population (Figures 4D, 4F, S4D, and S4E). Moreover, co-staining with anti-5-methylcytosine (5mC) to label methylated DNA, an epigenetic modification due to DNA methyltransferase activity, suggested an association of DIP2B with 5mC in heterochromatin (Figures 4F and S4F). However, at other stages of mitosis DIP2B staining was dissociated from mitotic chromatin (Figure S4D). 5mC is an important repressor of gene expression in the genome, and DNA methylation is maintained through mitosis until the formation of daughter cells. However, certain transcription factors and chromatin binding proteins are excluded from chromatin during certain stages of mitosis (Ma et al., 2015; Zaret, 2014; Egli et al., 2008). Taken together, these data suggest that in a subset of KIT⁺ endbud progenitors miR-133b-3p suppresses DIP2B expression, and we speculate that this may be associated with DNA methylation during prophase mitosis.

To identify the subset of KIT⁺ progenitors expressing DIP2B, we isolated four epithelial Ecad⁺ cell populations by fluorescenceactivated cell sorting (FACS) from E14 SMGs based on KIT and KRT5-Venus expression (Lombaert et al., 2013; Knox et al., 2010): KIT+K5+, KIT+K5-, KIT-K5+, and KIT-K5- (NEG in Figure 4G). RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) analysis showed that DIP2B transcripts were present in all cell types but significantly enriched in KIT⁺K5⁻, K5⁺KIT⁻, and KIT⁺K5⁺ cells when compared with KIT-K5- cells (Figure 4H; GEO: GSE89896). In addition, Ccnd1 expression was also significantly enriched in the KIT⁺K5⁻ and KIT⁺K5⁺ cells, suggesting that they are proliferating (Figure 4H). This was also supported by CCND1 staining as shown in Figure 4E. The RNA-seq data also show Dip2b expression in K5⁺KIT⁻ cells, which are not proliferating, and these may include the basal cells showing cytoplasmic staining of DIP2B (Figure 4C). The function of cytoplasmic DIP2B in non-proliferating cells remains to be determined. Together, these data suggest that miR-133b-3p downregulates DIP2B in a subset of proliferating KIT⁺ progenitors, i.e., the KIT⁺K5⁻ cells, to allow their expansion.

In summary, it is well established that the mesenchyme provides soluble external signals to instruct epithelial development during organogenesis. While the most widely studied soluble cues are growth factors, we propose that exosomal transport of miRNAs is a distinct mechanism to regulate epithelial-mesenchymal interactions during organogenesis. Although an ECM-rich basement membrane separates the epithelium from mesenchyme, it was shown that microperforations in the basement membrane occur in multiple embryonic organs including lung, kidney, and SMG (Harunaga et al., 2014). The reported holes (1.6 μ m² in average size) are potentially large enough for exosomes (20–100 nm in diameter) or cellular processes that secrete exosomes to pass through.

We propose that miR-133b-3p downregulates DIP2B, which participates in epigenetic repression of genes responsible for expansion of a subset of KIT⁺K5⁻ progenitors. Specific exosome transport of miR-133b-3p from the mesenchyme to the epithelium reduces *Dip2b* expression to allow expansion of specific KIT⁺K5⁻ progenitors, potentially by reducing DNA methylation. This is feasible, as DIP2B has a binding domain to DMAP1 (Winnepenninckx et al., 2007) and is associated with methyl-cytosine in heterochromatin. The DMAP1 binding domain is highly conserved throughout eukaryotes, suggesting that it has an important function. DMAP1 is a member of the TIP60-p400 histone acetyltransferase complex, which contributes to self-renewal and differentiation of embryonic stem cells (Chen et al., 2013; Koizumi et al., 2010; Fazzio et al., 2008; Sapountzi et al., 2006).

(H) *Dip2b* and *Ccnd1* were detected by RNA-seq (N = 3) in epithelial Ecad⁺ cells that express KIT with or without K5. Error bars show SD, ANOVA. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001.

⁽F) DIP2B associates with methylated cytosine (5mc) in mitotic epithelial cells during prophase. DIP2B staining condenses in the nucleus of epithelial cells in prophase and was disassociated from mitotic chromatin in other phases. DIP2B partially co-localizes with 5mc in heterochromatin. Images are 1-µm optical sections. Scale bar, 5 µm.

⁽G) E14 SMG progenitors were sorted by FACS using K5-Venus and KIT expression. Percentage values are means ± SEM of each cell population; graph is a representative experiment.

In conclusion, miRNA transport in exosomes is a mechanism to mobilize genetic signals from mesenchyme to epithelium and specifically influence progenitor cell expansion during organogenesis. It remains to be determined whether exosomes are somehow specifically targeted to epithelial KIT⁺K5⁻ progenitors, whether all epithelial cells ultimately take up exosomes and/or the uptake of exosomes in KIT⁺K5⁻ cells is enhanced due to their high proliferative status, and whether only a subset of progenitors respond to specific miRNAs. In the future miRNA-mediated mechanisms may become useful as targets for inducing proliferative regeneration of damaged adult organs.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

SMG Culture

Fetal SMG explants and isolated SMG epithelium were cultured as previously described (Rebustini et al., 2009).

Mouse Lines

Embryos were obtained from ICR timed pregnant females (Harlan). K5-Venus mice were produced as previously described (Knox et al., 2010). All experiments were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee at NIDCR, NIH.

Exosome Preparation

Exosomes were prepared from conditioned medium of E13 SMG after 48 hr of culture and processed for TEM. Conditioned medium was centrifuged to remove cells and cellular debris. The supernatant was ultracentrifuged to obtain an exosome pellet.

Ceramide Labeling

SMG cell membranes were labeled with BODIPY-TR-ceramide (Molecular Probes). Labeled tissue was then recombined with unlabeled tissue in culture or placed on top of 3D laminin-111 (Trevigen) to observe ceramide transfer to unlabeled epithelium.

Analysis of microRNA and mRNA

RNA was prepared using mirVana miRNA isolation and analyzed using the Megaplex Pools protocol and reagents (Applied Biosystems) to detect miRNAs as previously described (Rebustini et al., 2012). For mature miRNA PCR analysis, TaqMan miRNA assays were performed (Applied Biosystems). qPCR of mRNAs were performed as previously described (Rebustini et al., 2012).

Transfection Assays

E13 epithelia were transfected with antagomirs (Exiqon) or mimics (Ambion) using RNAiFect (Qiagen) reagents as previously described (Rebustini et al., 2012).

Immunofluorescence and FACS

Immunofluorescence (Rebustini et al., 2009) and FACS analysis (Knox et al., 2010) was performed as previously described.

ACCESSION NUMBERS

The RNA-seq data are available in the GEO database (GEO: GSE89896).

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes Supplemental Experimental Procedures, four figures, and two tables and can be found with this article online at http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.devcel.2016.12.001.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.H. and M.P.H. designed the experiments. T.H., I.M.A.L., B.R.H., and V.N.P. performed the experiments and analyzed data. T.H., V.N.P., and M.P.H. wrote the paper.

The authors would like to thank the NIDCR Combined Technical Research Core for FACS analysis, Daniel Martin for bioinformatics analysis, Kelly Ten Hagen for critical reading of the manuscript, and Masanori Kashimata at Asahi University for technical support. This research was supported by the Intramural Research Program of the National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research at the NIH and by JSPS KAKENHI grants JP15K11060 and JP15K20370, and by a grant for Basic Science Research Projects from The Sumitomo Foundation.

Received: June 28, 2016 Revised: October 23, 2016 Accepted: December 1, 2016 Published: December 29, 2016

REFERENCES

Ameres, S.L., and Zamore, P.D. (2013). Diversifying microRNA sequence and function. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *14*, 475–488.

Bartel, D.P. (2004). MicroRNAs: genomics, biogenesis, mechanism, and function. Cell *116*, 281–297.

Bushati, N., and Cohen, S.M. (2007). microRNA functions. Annu. Rev. Cell Dev. Biol. 23, 175–205.

Carthew, R.W., and Sontheimer, E.J. (2009). Origins and Mechanisms of miRNAs and siRNAs. Cell 136, 642–655.

Chen, P.B., Hung, J.H., Hickman, T.L., Coles, A.H., Carey, J.F., Weng, Z., Chu, F., and Fazzio, T.G. (2013). Hdac6 regulates Tip60-p400 function in stem cells. Elife 2, e01557.

Closa, A., Cordero, D., Sanz-Pamplona, R., Sole, X., Crous-Bou, M., Pare-Brunet, L., Berenguer, A., Guino, E., Lopez-Doriga, A., Guardiola, J., et al. (2014). Identification of candidate susceptibility genes for colorectal cancer through eQTL analysis. Carcinogenesis *35*, 2039–2046.

Desrochers, L.M., Antonyak, M.A., and Cerione, R.A. (2016). Extracellular vesicles: satellites of information transfer in cancer and stem cell biology. Dev. Cell *37*, 301–309.

Edgar, J.R. (2016). Q&A: what are exosomes, exactly? BMC Biol. 14, 46.

Egli, D., Birkhoff, G., and Eggan, K. (2008). Mediators of reprogramming: transcription factors and transitions through mitosis. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 9, 505–516.

Fazzio, T.G., Huff, J.T., and Panning, B. (2008). An RNAi screen of chromatin proteins identifies Tip60-p400 as a regulator of embryonic stem cell identity. Cell *134*, 162–174.

Gibbings, D.J., Ciaudo, C., Erhardt, M., and Voinnet, O. (2009). Multivesicular bodies associate with components of miRNA effector complexes and modulate miRNA activity. Nat. Cell Biol. *11*, 1143–1149.

Grobstein, C. (1953a). Inductive epitheliomesenchymal interaction in cultured organ rudiments of the mouse. Science *118*, 52–55.

Grobstein, C. (1953b). Morphogenetic interaction between embryonic mouse tissues separated by a membrane filter. Nature *172*, 869–870.

Harunaga, J.S., Doyle, A.D., and Yamada, K.M. (2014). Local and global dynamics of the basement membrane during branching morphogenesis require protease activity and actomyosin contractility. Dev. Biol. *394*, 197–205.

Hayashi, T., Koyama, N., Azuma, Y., and Kashimata, M. (2011). Mesenchymal miR-21 regulates branching morphogenesis in murine submandibular gland in vitro. Dev. Biol. *352*, 299–307.

Kim, V.N., Han, J., and Siomi, M.C. (2009). Biogenesis of small RNAs in animals. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *10*, 126–139.

Knox, S.M., Lombaert, I.M., Reed, X., Vitale-Cross, L., Gutkind, J.S., and Hoffman, M.P. (2010). Parasympathetic innervation maintains epithelial progenitor cells during salivary organogenesis. Science *329*, 1645–1647.

Koizumi, T., Negishi, M., Nakamura, S., Oguro, H., Satoh, K., Ichinose, M., and Iwama, A. (2010). Depletion of Dnmt1-associated protein 1 triggers DNA damage and compromises the proliferative capacity of hematopoietic stem cells. Int. J. Hematol. *91*, 611–619.

Kosaka, N., and Ochiya, T. (2011). Unraveling the mystery of cancer by secretory microRNA: horizontal microRNA transfer between living cells. Front Genet. 2, 97.

Kosaka, N., Iguchi, H., Yoshioka, Y., Hagiwara, K., Takeshita, F., and Ochiya, T. (2012). Competitive interactions of cancer cells and normal cells via secretory microRNAs. J. Biol. Chem. 287, 1397–1405.

Kusakabe, M., Sakakura, T., Sano, M., and Nishizuka, Y. (1985). A pituitarysalivary mixed gland induced by tissue recombination of embryonic pituitary epithelium and embryonic submandibular gland mesenchyme in mice. Dev. Biol. *110*, 382–391.

Leonardo, T.R., Schultheisz, H.L., Loring, J.F., and Laurent, L.C. (2012). The functions of microRNAs in pluripotency and reprogramming. Nat. Cell Biol. *14*, 1114–1121.

Lombaert, I.M., Abrams, S.R., Li, L., Eswarakumar, V.P., Sethi, A.J., Witt, R.L., and Hoffman, M.P. (2013). Combined Kit and Fgfr2b signaling regulates epithelial progenitor expansion during organogenesis. Stem Cell Rep. *1*, 1–16.

Lotvall, J., Hill, A.F., Hochberg, F., Buzas, E.I., Di Vizio, D., Gardiner, C., Gho, Y.S., Kurochkin, I.V., Mathivanan, S., Quesenberry, P., et al. (2014). Minimal experimental requirements for definition of extracellular vesicles and their functions: a position statement from the International Society for Extracellular Vesicles. J. Extracell Vesicles *3*, 26913.

Lv, L.V., Zhou, J., Lin, C., Hu, G., Yi, L.U., Du, J., Gao, K., and Li, X. (2015). DNA methylation is involved in the aberrant expression of miR-133b in colorectal cancer cells. Oncol. Lett. *10*, 907–912.

Ma, Y., Kanakousaki, K., and Buttitta, L. (2015). How the cell cycle impacts chromatin architecture and influences cell fate. Front Genet. *6*, 19.

Mittelbrunn, M., and Sanchez-Madrid, F. (2012). Intercellular communication: diverse structures for exchange of genetic information. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. *13*, 328–335.

Mittelbrunn, M., Gutierrez-Vazquez, C., Villarroya-Beltri, C., Gonzalez, S., Sanchez-Cabo, F., Gonzalez, M.A., Bernad, A., and Sanchez-Madrid, F. (2011). Unidirectional transfer of microRNA-loaded exosomes from T cells to antigen-presenting cells. Nat. Commun. *2*, 282.

Patel, V.N., Rebustini, I.T., and Hoffman, M.P. (2006). Salivary gland branching morphogenesis. Differentiation 74, 349–364.

Rebustini, I.T., Myers, C., Lassiter, K.S., Surmak, A., Szabova, L., Holmbeck, K., Pedchenko, V., Hudson, B.G., and Hoffman, M.P. (2009). MT2-MMP-dependent release of collagen IV NC1 domains regulates submandibular gland branching morphogenesis. Dev. Cell *17*, 482–493.

Rebustini, I.T., Hayashi, T., Reynolds, A.D., Dillard, M.L., Carpenter, E.M., and Hoffman, M.P. (2012). miR-200c regulates FGFR-dependent epithelial proliferation via Vldlr during submandibular gland branching morphogenesis. Development *139*, 191–202.

Rehmsmeier, M., Steffen, P., Hochsmann, M., and Giegerich, R. (2004). Fast and effective prediction of microRNA/target duplexes. RNA *10*, 1507–1517.

Sakakura, T., Nishizuka, Y., and Dawe, C.J. (1976). Mesenchyme-dependent morphogenesis and epithelium-specific cytodifferentiation in mouse mammary gland. Science *194*, 1439–1441.

Sapountzi, V., Logan, I.R., and Robson, C.N. (2006). Cellular functions of TIP60. Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol. 38, 1496–1509.

Savina, A., Furlan, M., Vidal, M., and Colombo, M.I. (2003). Exosome release is regulated by a calcium-dependent mechanism in K562 cells. J. Biol. Chem. *278*, 20083–20090.

Siomi, H., and Siomi, M.C. (2009). On the road to reading the RNA-interference code. Nature 457, 396–404.

Trajkovic, K., Hsu, C., Chiantia, S., Rajendran, L., Wenzel, D., Wieland, F., Schwille, P., Brugger, B., and Simons, M. (2008). Ceramide triggers budding of exosome vesicles into multivesicular endosomes. Science *319*, 1244–1247.

Valadi, H., Ekstrom, K., Bossios, A., Sjostrand, M., Lee, J.J., and Lotvall, J.O. (2007). Exosome-mediated transfer of mRNAs and microRNAs is a novel mechanism of genetic exchange between cells. Nat. Cell Biol. *9*, 654–659.

Villarroya-Beltri, C., Gutierrez-Vazquez, C., Sanchez-Cabo, F., Perez-Hernandez, D., Vazquez, J., Martin-Cofreces, N., Martinez-Herrera, D.J., Pascual-Montano, A., Mittelbrunn, M., and Sanchez-Madrid, F. (2013). Sumoylated hnRNPA2B1 controls the sorting of miRNAs into exosomes through binding to specific motifs. Nat. Commun. *4*, 2980.

Winnepenninckx, B., Debacker, K., Ramsay, J., Smeets, D., Smits, A., FitzPatrick, D.R., and Kooy, R.F. (2007). CGG-repeat expansion in the DIP2B gene is associated with the fragile site FRA12A on chromosome 12q13.1. Am. J. Hum. Genet. *80*, 221–231.

Yanez-Mo, M., Siljander, P.R., Andreu, Z., Zavec, A.B., Borras, F.E., Buzas, E.I., Buzas, K., Casal, E., Cappello, F., Carvalho, J., et al. (2015). Biological properties of extracellular vesicles and their physiological functions. J. Extracell Vesicles *4*, 27066.

Zaret, K.S. (2014). Genome reactivation after the silence in mitosis: recapitulating mechanisms of development? Dev. Cell *29*, 132–134.