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## 13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 Words)
Mutations in BRCA2 are responsible for about 35% of familial breast cancers and also a proportion of familial ovarian cancers. Both BRCA2 and BRCA1 proteins were shown to have transcriptional activation domains and also shown to be associated with RNA polymerase suggesting that these proteins may function as transcriptional factors and have a role in the regulation of transcription. Recent studies on enzymes responsible for histone acetylation and deacetylation revealed that some of the transcriptional factors function as histone acetyl transferases. Since BRCA2 showed transcriptional activation properties, we tested whether BRCA2 is associated with histone acetyltransferase. Our results suggested that BRCA2 is associated with histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activity. We propose to test whether HAT activity plays a role in tumor suppressor activity of BRCA2. We plan to identify the factors that associate with BRCA2 and study the role of these protein-protein interactions in the biochemical and biological properties of BRCA2. We intend test whether transcriptional activation function has any role in the tumor suppressor activity of BRCA2. We intend to identify the BRCA2 target genes and study (in future) their role in the tumor suppressor activity of BRCA2.

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INTRODUCTION:

Alterations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 tumor suppressor genes have been shown to account up to 90% of familial breast cancers and also a proportion of familial ovarian cancers. Since loss of wild type BRCA2 allele in heterozygous carriers results in breast and ovarian cancers, BRCA2 is regarded as a tumor suppressor gene. Interestingly, both BRCA2 and BRCA1 are expressed coordinately and also in a cell cycle-dependent manner. Two potential functions of BRCA2 were proposed which includes a role in DNA repair and in the regulation of transcription.

Interestingly, BRCA1 proteins were shown to have transcriptional activation function and also shown to be associated with RNA polymerase. These results suggest that both BRCA2 and BRCA1 proteins may function as transcriptional factors and have a role in the regulation of transcription. Recent studies on enzymes responsible for histone acetylation revealed that some of the transcriptional factors function as histone acetyl transferases. Since BRCA2 showed transcriptional activation properties, we tested whether BRCA2 functions as a histone acetyltransferase. Our recent results suggested that BRCA2 is associated with histone acetyltransferase (HAT) (1). As mentioned above, it is possible that BRCA2 also recruit other transcriptional factors which themselves function as HAT proteins. Identification of these recruitment partners will provide in sights into the molecular mechanism of growth and tumor suppressor function of BRCA2. Taking into consideration of the presence of transcriptional activation domain in BRCA2 and also having intrinsic HAT activity, it is not unreasonable to suggest that BRCA2 is a transcriptional factor. This proposal is aimed to strengthen this notion of BRCA2. Our recent finding that BRCA2 interacts with CBP supports this conclusion. It is possible that BRCA2 and CBP/p300 and other factors acetylate histones bound at specific promoters through cooperative acetylation and this could be a mechanism by which BRCA2 activates genes responsible for growth inhibition and differentiation. Therefore, identification of target genes of BRCA2 and its associating factors may provide a clue to the tumor suppressor function of BRCA2. Because of its large size, it is possible that BRCA2 has multicellular functions which include DNA repair, transactivation, HAT activity etc. which may play a role in tumor suppressor function.

BODY:

Several transcriptional factors (CREB, ACTR, SRC-1, P/CAF, TAF 250, nuclear hormone receptors etc.) have been demonstrated to interact with CBP (2). Some of these transcriptional factors (ACTR, SRC-1, P/CAF, TAF 250 etc.) were found to have intrinsic HAT activity and recruit other transcriptional factors (such as CBP/p300 etc) which have intrinsic HAT activity to provide a cooperative regulatory effect on gene expression (3). Since BRCA2 is a transcriptional factor, we hypothesized that BRCA2 may interact with CBP and other factors and acetylate histones bound at specific promoters through cooperative acetylation and this could be a mechanism by which BRCA2 activates genes responsible for growth inhibition and differentiation. To test this hypothesis, we have studied the interaction of BRCA2 and CBP by GST pull-down assay. Briefly, we have cloned BRCA2 cDNA fragment into pcDNA-3 vector and linearized the vector with appropriate restriction enzyme. We have used this linearized expression vector carrying BRCA2 cDNA as a template and carried out in vitro transcription and translation in the presence of $^{35}$S-methionine. This radiolabelled BRCA2 protein was incubated with beads containing GST-CBP-1, GST-CBP-2 and GST respectively. CBP-1 (a 451-662) and
CBP-2 (1680-1891) represent amino and carboxy-terminal domains that were shown to interact with a variety of transcriptional factors. CBP-1 was shown to interact with CREB, Sap-1a, c-Myb and c-Jun etc where as CBP-2 is shown to interact with E1A, P/CAF, c-Fos, MyoD etc. In vitro translated [S]^{35}\text{-Methionine labeled BRCA2 (a 1-500) was bound to GST-CBP-2 but not to GST-CBP-1 and GST itself. These preliminary results suggested that BRCA2 interacts with CBP in vitro. We proposed to confirm these results. As per the proposal we repeated these experiments twice and confirmed that BRCA2 interacts with CBP. Our recent results suggest that BRCA2 appears to be an unstable enzyme that lose irreversibly HAT activity with storage. Such rapid and irreversible loss of HAT activity was also observed in the case of other HAT enzymes namely GCN5, PCAF etc. We have also observed such loss of HAT activity with CBP on storage.

Our preliminary results suggested that BRCA2 and BRCA2a interacts with p53. We repeated these experiments using GST pull down assay and confirmed that indeed p53 directly interacts with the BRCA2 and BRCA2a. We repeated GST pull down assays and confirmed that p53 interacts with aminoterminal region of BRCA2 (aa 189-500).

In order to determine the BRCA2 domain responsible for interaction with p53, we have made carboxy-terminal deletion of BRCA2 and BRCA2a and expressed in bacteria and purified by affinity column. We repeated our preliminary results and confirmed that p53 showed very weak binding to carboxyl-truncated BRCA2 and BRCA2a suggesting that amino acid 189-500 is essential for interaction with p53.

Since BRCA2 physically interacts with p53, we tested what effect BRCA2 will have on the transcriptional activation properties of p53. pcDNA-BRCA2 or pcDNA BRCA2a either alone or together with p53 was cotransfected into Saos-2 cells (p53 null Osteosarcoma cells) together with p53 reporter plasmid (pG13-CAT). Our results suggest that the expression of BRCA2 and BRCA2a had no effect on the expression of p53-specific reporter in the absence of exogenous wild type p53. As expected, expression of wild type p53 resulted in transcriptional activation of p53 reporter plasmid (pG13-CAT) (a gift from Dr. Vogelstein). However, co-transfection of BRCA2 (or BRCA2a) and p53 resulted in a dramatic increase in CAT activity of pG13-CAT suggesting that BRCA2 and BRCA2a cooperates with p53 in the transcriptional activation of p53 reporter plasmid. Therefore, our preliminary results suggest that BRCA2 and BRCA2a function as transcriptional co-factor of p53. We proposed to confirm these results. As per the proposal, we have repeated these experiments three times and confirmed that BRCA2 co-operates with p53 in trans activation function. These results may shed new clues in understanding the function of BRCA2.

Interestingly, both BRCA2 and BRCA1 proteins were shown to have transcriptional activation domains and also shown to be associated with RNA polymerase suggesting that these proteins may function as transcriptional factors and have a role in the regulation of transcription. The expression pattern, common protein-protein interactions and the common breast cancer phenotype observed in the patients that carry mutations in these genes suggest that BRCA1 and BRCA2 may function in a similar, if not, same pathway. We have identified several common key proteins that interact with BRCA2 and BRCA1 and at present we are assessing their role in the biological function of BRCA2. We have also identified a new molecular target of action of breast cancer (4) (In collaboration with Dr. Veena Rao). Our results demonstrate that BRCA1 targets Elk-1 (previously discovered by us) to show growth suppressor properties (4). These results
show for the first time a link between the growth suppressive function of BRCA1 and signal transduction pathway involving Elk-1. It will be interesting to see whether Elk-1 plays a similar role in growth suppressive function of BRCA2.

KEY RESEARCH ACCOMPLISHMENTS:

BRCA2 and BRCA2a interact with CBP carboxyterminal region. BRCA2 and BRCA2a also interact with p53 in vitro. We have confirmed that p53 interacts with the aminoterminal region of BRCA2 (aa 189-500). Our results show that BRCA2 cooperates with tumor suppressor p53 in the transcriptional activation function. Our results also demonstrate that there may be a link between the growth suppressive function of BRCA1/BRCA2 and signal transduction pathway involving Elk-1.

REPORTABLE OUTCOMES:

Chai, Y.L., Cui, J., Chipitsyna, G., Liao, B., Liu, S., Yezdani, M., Reddy, E.S.P. and Rao, V.N. c-Fos oncogene regulator Elk-1 interacts with BRCA1 splice variants BRCA1a/1b and enhances BRCA1a/1b mediated growth suppression in breast cancer cells. Oncogene, 20, 1357-1367, 2001

CONCLUSIONS:

Our research on this project suggests that BRCA2 and BRCA2a interact with CBP carboxyterminal region suggesting that BRCA2 and BRCA2a may undergo posttranslational modification. These posttranslational modifications may have profound effect on the function of BRCA2 and BRCA2a. Therefore, identifying what type of translation modification takes place as a result of protein-protein interaction of BRCA2/BRCA2a and CBP is important for future work. Understanding the effect protein-protein interaction of p53 and BRCA2/BRCA2a on p53-mediated transcriptional activity may provide new clues to the role of BRCA2 in tumor growth suppressor function.

REFERENCES:

APPENDICES:


The BRCA2 is a histone acetyltransferase

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Patients carrying mutations in BRCA1 or BRCA2 tumor suppressor genes have shown to have high risk in developing breast and ovarian cancers. Two potential functions of BRCA2 were proposed which includes role in the regulation of transcription and also in DNA repair. Forty-five-amino acid region encoded by exon 3 of BRCA2 was shown to have transcriptional activation function. Recent studies of the several enzymes involved in acetylation and deacetylation of histone residues have revealed a possible relationship between gene transcriptional activation and histone acetylation. Since BRCA2 appear to function as a transcriptional factor, we have tested for Histone acetyl transferase (HAT) activity of BRCA2. Here, we present evidence that BRCA2 has intrinsic HAT activity, which maps to the aminoterminal region of BRCA2. Our results demonstrate that BRCA2 proteins acetylate primarily H3 and H4 of free histones. These observations suggest that HAT activity of BRCA2 may play an important role in the regulation of transcription and tumor suppressor function.

Keywords: BRCA2; histone acetyl transferase; protein-protein interaction; tumor suppressor

Alterations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 tumor suppressor genes have been shown to be involved in 90% of familial breast cancers (Newman et al., 1988; Miki et al., 1994; Easton et al., 1993; Wooster et al., 1994; Wooster and Stratton, 1995). Recent studies revealed that both BRCA1 and BRCA2 are involved in ovarian and prostate cancers. Interestingly, BRCA2 was found to be more associated with male breast cancer compared to BRCA1 (Wooster et al., 1994). Patients with BRCA2 mutations were also found to be at a higher risk with a variety of other cancers including carcinomas of pancreas, prostate and colon (Thorlacius et al., 1996; Phelan et al., 1996; Gudmundsson et al., 1995; Tonin et al., 1995). The BRCA2 gene is composed of 27 exons and encodes a protein of 3418 amino-acids with no significant homology to any known protein (Wooster et al., 1995; Bork et al., 1996). BRCA2 and BRCA1 proteins have been shown to interact with Rad 51 which suggests that they play a role in DNA repair (Scully et al., 1997; Sharan et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 1998). BRCA1 was also shown to induce apoptosis suggesting that BRCA proteins may play a role in the regulation of apoptosis of cells (Shao et al., 1996; Rao et al., 1996). It remains to be seen whether BRCA2 plays a similar role in apoptosis.

Interestingly, both BRCA1 and BRCA2 gene products are regulated in a cell cycle-dependent manner and have a potential transactivation function (Rajan et al., 1996; Vaughn et al., 1996; Chapman and Verma, 1996; Monteriro et al., 1996; Milner et al., 1997; Wang et al., 1997; Cui et al., 1998a). Recently, we have shown that BRCA1 proteins interact with transcriptional coactivator CBP suggesting that BRCA1 has a role in the regulation of transcription (Cui et al., 1998b). Exon 3 of BRCA2 was found to have weak homology with transcriptional factor e-jun and also shown to activate transcription in mammalian cells (Milner et al., 1997). These results suggest that BRCA2 has a role in the regulation of gene expression.

Recent studies of the several enzymes involved in acetylation and deacetylation of histone residues have revealed a possible relationship between gene transcriptional activation and histone acetylation (Brownell et al., 1996; Parthun et al., 1996; Yang et al., 1996; Orzyzko et al., 1996; Mizzen et al., 1996; Roth and Allis, 1996; Wade and Wolfe, 1997; Pazin and Kadonaga, 1997; Wolfe, 1997). This view is supported by the identification of Histone acetyl transferase (HAT) activity associated with several transcription factors including p300/CPB, GCN5-related factors, p/CAP, SRC-1 and TAF1 c 230. These results suggest that some transcriptional activators operate by disrupting the nucleosomal structure through acetylation of histones leading to the activation of gene expression.

Here, we report for the first time that the aminoterminal region of BRCA2 has intrinsic HAT activity from which it may be inferred that BRCA2 joins the above list of transcriptional activators/factors that possess HAT activity. This intrinsic BRCA2-HAT activity may play a key role in the tumor suppressor function of BRCA2.

Recently, we have cloned an alternatively spliced isoform, BRCA2a. This variant BRCA2a lacks a transcriptional activation domain (exon 3) as a result of alternative splicing (our unpublished results). In order to test the HAT activity of BRCA2, we have expressed the amino-terminal region of BRCA2 (aa 1–500) and its isoform BRCA2a (aa 1–18)-(105–500) as GST-fusion proteins in bacteria by cloning appropriate BRCA2 cDNA fragments into a GST expression vector (Our unpublished results). Purified recombinant proteins of BRCA2 and BRCA2a were assayed for histone acetyl transferase activity. Amino-terminal domains of both BRCA2 and BRCA2a clearly demonstrated histone acetyl transferase activity (Figure 1). Control samples where BRCA2 or BRCA2a was replaced with bovine serum albumin (BSA) showed no

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significant HAT activity. Similar control experiments where histones were replaced by BSA (lysine rich nonhistone protein) also failed to show significant acetyl transferase activity. This suggests that BRCA2 proteins show specific acetyl transferase activity to histones (Figure 1). Therefore, we conclude that BRCA2 per se is a histone acetyl transferase. Since the amino-terminal region of BRCA2 and BRCA2a show HAT activity, we conclude that the exon 3 (aa 18–105) responsible for the transactivation function of BRCA2 is not needed for HAT activity function. These results suggest that the transactivation and HAT functional domains of BRCA2 do not overlap with each other (Figure 2).

In order to determine which histones are acetylated by BRCA2 proteins, we have carried out HAT assay with free core histones and analysed the resulting products by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis followed by fluorography. Our results demonstrate that BRCA2 proteins acetylated primarily H3 and H4 of free histones (Figure 3). We have also confirmed these results using individual free histones (data not shown).

In order to determine the HAT activity associated with BRCA2 in vivo, we have carried out immunoprecipitation HAT assay. Immunoprecipitation of BRCA2 from whole cell extracts was tested for acetyl transferase activity. Our results demonstrate that immunoprecipitated BRCA2 carries acetylase activity specific for histones (Figure 4). These in vitro and in vivo results support the conclusion that BRCA2 has intrinsic HAT activity. It is conceivable that as in the case of CBP/p300 (which shows intrinsic HAT activity), transcriptional activators recruit BRCA2 and utilize its intrinsic HAT activity for their transcriptional activation properties. It is also possible that BRCA2 also in turn recruits other factors (like p/CAF, p300/CBP) that possess distinct HAT activity and thereby disrupt the nucleosomal structure through their cooperative HAT activity. This results in the activation of gene expression interacts with CBP both in vitro and in vivo. Therefore, it is tempting to speculate that the target genes of BRCA2 play key roles in growth inhibition, differentiation and apoptosis. Identification of these genes may provide clues to the role of BRCA2 in neoplasia. Because of its large size, it is conceivable that BRCA2 has multi-cellular functions which include DNA repair, transcriptional activation, HAT etc. It is possible that BRCA2/Rad 51 Complex may use HAT activity to disrupt the nucleosomal structure to recognize

Figure 1 BRCA2 has intrinsic HAT activity. The amino-terminal region of BRCA2 (aa 1–500) and BRCA2a (1–18)-(105–500) were expressed as GST fusion proteins in bacteria and subsequently purified. HAT assays were carried out as described but with slight modification (Bannister and Kouzarides, 1996; Herrera et al., 1997). Approximately 50–100 ng of GST-fusion proteins of BRCA2 and BRCA2a were used to acetylate 15 μg of core histones (Boehringer Mannheim) in the presence of [3H]acetyl CoA.

Figure 2 Schematic representation of the functional domains of BRCA2.

Figure 3 Acetylation profile and Substrate specificity of BRCA2 and BRCA2a. Recombinant BRCA2a (aa 1–500) (lane 1) and BRCA2 (1–18)-(105–500) (lane 2) were incubated with core histones as described above. [3H]acetylated histones were separated on SDS–PAGE and detected by autoradiography.

Figure 4 BRCA2 antibodies immunoprecipitate HAT activity. Immunoprecipitations (IP) were performed from NIH3T3 whole cell extract with either anti-BRCA2 (Santa Cruz) antibody or pre-immune serum. These IPs were tested for their ability to precipitate free histones as described above. Pre-immune serum served as negative control.
damaged DNA for DNA repair. Patients with mutations in HAT and/or transactivation domains of BRCA2 may show a loss of gene expression which are critical for growth inhibition and differentiation and result in a subset of familial breast and prostate cancers. One can use BRCA2-HAT assay for screening patients with BRCA2 mutations.

References

Structure and expression of variant BRCA2a lacking the transactivation domain

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Abstract. BRCA1 and BRCA2 are tumor suppressor genes shown to be involved in 90% of familial breast cancers and also known to be involved in ovarian and prostate cancers. Both BRCA1 and BRCA2 gene products are regulated in a cell cycle-dependent manner and have potential transactivation function. Here, we show that BRCA2 undergoes differential splicing giving rise to a novel variant protein BRCA2a, lacking putative transcriptional activation domain. Both BRCA2a and BRCA2 are expressed at high levels in thymus and testis but moderate levels in mammary gland and prostate suggesting that BRCA2a and BRCA2 may have a role in the development and differentiation of these tissues.

Introduction

Germ-line mutations in autosomal dominant susceptibility genes are responsible for up to 10% of all breast cancers (1,2). Mutations in breast cancer susceptibility genes, BRCA1 and BRCA2, could account for up to 90% of familial breast cancers (3-5). Recently BRCA1 and BRCA2 have also been shown to be associated with ovarian and prostate cancers. Interestingly, unlike BRCA1, BRCA2 is associated with male breast cancer (4). The BRCA2 gene is composed of 27 exons and encodes a protein of 3418 amino-acids with no significant homology to any known protein (6,7). Expression of both BRCA1 and BRCA2 was shown to be cell cycle regulated and expressed at high levels in late G1 and S-phase (8,9). Recently exon 3 of BRCA2 was shown to function as a transcriptional activation domain suggesting that BRCA2 may have a functional role in the regulation of transcription (10). Similar transcriptional activation function was also shown to be present in BRCA1 (11-13). Previously we have shown that BRCA1 is trans-ported into the nucleus in the absence of serum and interacts with transcriptional factor E2F, cyclins and cdks suggesting a role for BRCA1 in cell cycle regulation (14). BRCA2 and BRCA1 proteins were shown to interact with Rad 51 suggesting that they may play a role in DNA repair (15-18).

Recently we have shown that both BRCA1 and BRCA2 interact with CBP in vivo and in vitro suggesting that both these proteins may regulate transcription through CBP (19,20). Because of coordinated expression of BRCA1 and BRCA2 genes and association of these genes in the common breast cancer phenotype, it appears that BRCA1 and BRCA2 may function in a similar pathway. Recently, we have shown that BRCA1 induces apoptosis suggesting a novel function in the regulation of apoptosis of cells (21,22). It remains to be seen whether BRCA2 plays a similar role in apoptosis. Both BRCA1 and BRCA2 proteins may have multicellular functions such as transcriptional activation, DNA repair and regulation of apoptosis.

In this study, we have cloned alternatively spliced BRCA2 cDNA and characterized them by nucleotide sequence analysis. We demonstrate that this differentially spliced BRCA2a transcript has lost transcriptional activation domain as a result of alternative splicing giving rise to BRCA2a with potential dominant negative pathophysiology. Interestingly, BRCA1 was also shown to encode multiple products as a result of alternative splicing (13,14,21,23-25).

Materials and methods

Molecular cloning of BRCA2 and BRCA2a cDNAs. cDNAs were obtained by the reverse transcription of total RNA from BT-474 cells using cDNA kit (Takara). BRCA2 cDNAs were amplified by PCR using appropriate 5' and 3' primers and cloned into a pcDNA3 vector. These cDNAs were characterized by restriction mapping and nucleotide sequence analysis.

RNase protection assay. RNase protection assay was carried using Ribonuclease Protection assay kit (Ambion Inc., Austin TX) as described by the manufacturer. Briefly, the templates were subcloned, linearized and transcribed in 20 μl of in vitro transcription mixture containing 5 μl of α-32P-pUTP to obtain radiolabelled probes. These radiolabelled RNA probes were purified by gel electrophoresis. Approximately 5x10^6 cpm of the probe was mixed with 20 μg of human breast, prostate, testis and thymus RNA (Clontec, Palo Alto, CA) and the
volume of the reaction mixture was adjusted to 30 µl by 1X hybridization buffer. The hybridization mixture was heated to 95°C for 5 min and then incubated at 45°C overnight. RNase digestion was performed for 1 hr at 37°C and the reaction was stopped by the addition of RNase inactivation buffer (kit). The protected fragments were extracted by centrifugation. The pellets were suspended in gel loading buffer, heated to 90°C for 3 min. The reaction products were analyzed by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis using 5% polyacrylamide/8M urea gels. The gel was dried and subjected to autoradiography.

**Results and Discussion**

In order to understand the function of BRCA2, we have cloned several cDNAs by RT-PCR and characterized these cDNAs by nucleotide sequence and restriction map analysis. Our results demonstrate that one of the cDNAs (BRCA2a) showed alternative splicing resulting in the deletion of exon 3 (Fig. 1). Previously this exon was shown to contain a potential transcriptional activation domain, which suggested that BRCA2 may function as a transcriptional factor (10). Similar potential for transcriptional activation was attributed to BRCA1 proteins (11-13). Since BRCA2 has lost transcriptional activation domain, it might compete with native BRCA2 in terms of DNA binding or interaction with other transcriptional factors resulting in dominant negative effect on transcription activation function of BRCA2. Such dominant negative variants are also seen in other transcriptional activators (26). Therefore, BRCA2a may represent a potential dominant negative variant which may regulate the putative transcriptional activation properties of BRCA2 proteins. Alternatively, BRCA2a may have other functions which do not need transactivation function.

We performed RNase protection analysis to study the expression of BRCA2 and BRCA2a in different types of tissues. For this, we have used the 459 nucleotide probe (Fig. 2a). The predicted 313 nucleotide fragment (corresponding to BRCA2a) and the 255 and 58 nucleotide fragments corresponding to BRCA2 were observed in thymus and testis (Fig. 2, lanes 3 and 4). However, moderate to low level of expression was observed in the case of mammary gland and prostate (Fig. 2, lanes 5 and 6). It appears both BRCA2 and BRCA2a are expressed at similar levels in the tissues tested suggesting both forms of BRCA2 may have a functional role in cell growth and differentiation of testis, mammary gland, prostate and thymus.

In summary, we have presented the results supporting that BRCA2 is alternatively spliced, giving rise to a variant BRCA2a protein which lacks transactivation domain. To our knowledge this is the first report demonstrating the presence of variant BRCA2 protein. Since BRCA2a variant lacks transcriptional activation domain, it can potentially interfere with transcriptional activation properties of BRCA2 by competing with BRCA2 for protein-protein interactions and/or DNA binding. Such variant proteins were also seen in the case of other transcriptional factors. It is possible that BRCA2a may regulate the functional properties of BRCA2. Therefore, it becomes important to study the patient DNA samples for mutations outside the coding region (introns, promoters etc.) as they may alter differential splicing pattern of BRCA2 leading to overexpression of BRCA2a. This overexpression of BRCA2a may interfere with normal BRCA2 function and result in cellular transformation. In support of this hypothesis, large deletions that disrupt exon 3 of BRCA2 were observed in patients of breast and ovarian cancers (27).

Our recent results have shown that both BRCA2 and BRCA2a have histone acetyltransferase activity (HAT) (20). These results suggest that domains responsible for HAT activity and the transcriptional activation function of BRCA2 do not overlap (Fig. 1). Since BRCA2 and BRCA2a are HAT proteins, it is possible both BRCA2 and BRCA2a function as transcriptional co-factors. BRCA1 was shown to function as a transcriptional co-factor of p53 (28,29). Recently, we have observed that BRCA2 binds to CBP and function as transcriptional co-factors of p53 (Siddique and Reddy, unpublished results). It is possible that some transcriptional
functions. Rad 51-BRCA2a (which lacks transactivation domain) complex may play a role in DNA repair whereas BRCA2 may play a role in the regulation of transcription. It remains to be seen whether both isoforms of BRCA2 play a role in this DNA repair phenomenon. Alternatively, BRCA2 proteins may participate in DNA repair and tumor suppression through BRCA2 target genes.

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References

c-Fos oncogene regulator Elk-1 interacts with BRCA1 splice variants BRCA1a/1b and enhances BRCA1a/1b-mediated growth suppression in breast cancer cells

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Elk-1, a c-Fos protooncogene regulator, which belongs to the ETS-domain family of transcriptional factors, plays an important role in the induction of immediate early gene expression in response to a variety of extracellular signals. In this study, we demonstrate for the first time the in vitro and in vivo interaction of Elk-1 with BRCA1 splice variants BRCA1a and BRCA1b using GST-pull down assays, co-immunoprecipitations/Western blot analysis of cell extracts from breast cancer cells and mammalian two-hybrid assays. We have localized the BRCA1 interaction domain of Elk-1 protein to the conserved ETS domain, a motif involved in DNA binding and protein–protein interactions. We also observed binding of BRCA1 proteins to other ETS-domain transcription factors SAP1, ETS-1, ERG-2 and Fli-1 but not to Elk-1 splice variant ΔElk-1 and c-Fos protooncogene. Both BRCA1a and BRCA1b splice variants function as growth suppressors of human breast cancer cells. Interestingly, our studies reveal that although both Elk-1 and SAP-1 are highly homologous members of a subfamily of ETS domain proteins called ternary complex factors, it is only Elk-1 but not SAP-1 that can augment the growth suppressive function of BRCA1a/1b proteins in breast cancer cells. Thus Elk-1 could be a potential downstream target of BRCA1 in its growth control pathway. Furthermore, we have observed inhibition of c-Fos promoter activity in BRCA1a transfected stable breast cancer cells and over expression of BRCA1a/1b attenuates MEK-induced SRE activation in vivo. These results demonstrate for the first time a link between the growth suppressive function of BRCA1a/1b proteins and signal transduction pathway involving Elk-1 protein. All these results taken together suggest that one of the mechanisms by which BRCA1a/1b proteins function as growth/tumor suppressors is through inhibition of the expression of Elk-1 target genes like c-Fos. Oncogene (2001) 20, 1357–1367.

Keywords: c-Fos; BRCA1/BRCA1a/1b; Elk-1; growth suppression; breast cancer; protein–protein interaction

Introduction

BRCA1, a familial breast and ovarian cancer susceptibility gene is mutated in approximately 45% of the families with inherited breast cancers and 80–90% of families with inherited breast and ovarian cancers (Couch and Weber, 1996; Easton et al., 1995; Ford et al., 1995; Miki et al., 1994; Struwing et al., 1997). Recently, loss of heterozygosity (33%) at the BRCA1 locus and reduced expression of BRCA1 mRNA was also observed in sporadic breast cancers (Katsama et al., 2000; Ozcelik et al., 1998). The BRCA1 gene spans approximately 100 kb on chromosome 17q21.3, is composed of 22 coding exons and encodes a protein of 1863 amino acids (Miki et al., 1994). We have recently isolated and characterized two new naturally occurring variants of BRCA1, BRCA1a/p110 and BRCA1b/p100 (Wang et al., 1997) which are abundantly expressed in both non-malignant and tumor-derived breast cells (Lu et al., 1996), Rao et al., unpublished results. Other groups have independently identified these isoforms and have designated BRCA1a as BRCA1-D11b (Wilson et al., 1997), BRCA1a (Lu et al., 1996) and BRCA1b as BRCA1s-9, 10 (Lu et al., 1996). Wild-type BRCA1 and splice variants BRCA1a/1b proteins bind to a number of cellular proteins. The unique amino-terminal RING finger domain interacts with BARD1 (Wu et al., 1996), BAF1 (Jensen et al., 1998), BIP (Wang et al., 1997), E2F transcriptional factors, cyclins and cyclin-dependent kinases (Wang et al., 1997). Two 'BRCT' (BRCA1 carboxyl terminus) repeats present at the carboxy-terminal region of BRCA1 proteins (Bork et al., 1997; Callebaut and Mornon, 1997; Koomin et al., 1996) are involved in transcription activation, growth inhibition and tumor suppression (Chapman and Verma, 1996; Humphrey et al., 1997; Monteiro et al., 1996; Rao et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 1995). The BRCT domains of BRCA1 are targets for cancer associated mutations (Couch and Weber, 1996). Recently, we and others have shown the N- and C-terminal regions of BRCA1,
BRCA1α and BRCA1β proteins to activate transcription when fused to GAL4 DNA binding domain (Chapman and Verma, 1996; Cui et al., 1998b; Monteiro et al., 1996) and associate with RNA polymerase II holoenzyme (Scully et al., 1997a) and CBP/P-300 co-activator (Cui et al., 1998a), suggesting a role for BRCT domains in the regulation of transcription. The BRCT domain also binds to RNA helicase A (Anderson et al., 1998), CBP interacting protein (Yu et al., 1998), tumor suppressor p53 protein (Chai et al., 1999; Somasundaram et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 1998) and BRCA2 protein (Chen et al., 1998). BRCA1 has also been shown to interact with DNA repair protein Rad51 (Scully et al., 1997b) and c-myc oncprotein (Wang et al., 1998). Thus, the association with these proteins mediate the involvement of BRCA1 proteins in growth/tumor suppression (Holt et al., 1996; Humphrey et al., 1997; Rao et al., 1996; Thompson et al., 1995), induction of apoptosis (Shao et al., 1996), cell cycle control, transcriptional transactivation (Chai et al., 1999; Chapman and Verma, 1996; Monteiro et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 1998), DNA repair and the maintenance of genomic stability (Brugarolas and Jacks, 1997; Lane et al., 1995; Marquis et al., 1995; Scully et al., 1997b).

The Elk-1 gene is a member of a subfamily of ETS domain proteins called ternary complex factors (TCFs), i.e. Elk-1, SAP-1 and NET/ERP/SAP2/Elk-3 (Dalton and Treisman, 1992; Giovane et al., 1994; Hipshkind et al., 1991; Lopez et al., 1994; Nozaki et al., 1996; Price et al., 1995; Rao et al., 1989) that associate with the serum response factor (SRF) to regulate the transcription of c-Fos protooncogene (Dalton and Treisman, 1992; Hipshkind et al., 1991). The Elk-1 gene codes for two splice variants Elk-1 (Rao et al., 1989) and ΔElk-1 (Rao and Reddy, 1993) which function as sequence specific transcriptional activators (Bhattacharya et al., 1993; Rao and Reddy, 1992), are substrates for MAP kinases (Hill et al., 1993; Marais et al., 1993; Rao and Reddy, 1993) and JNK protein kinases (Gupta et al., 1996; Whitmarsh et al., 1995), and induce apoptosis (Shao et al., 1998). Elk-1 is an efficient substrate for all three classes of MAPK, unlike SAP-1 which is activated only by ERK and p38 MAPK, and Net is activated by expression of oncogenic Raf (Wasylyk et al., 1998). Despite the high degree of sequence similarity within the ETS domain (∼80%) both Elk-1 and SAP1 proteins show different DNA binding specificities (Shore and Sharrocks, 1995). In this study, we have found ternary complex factor Elk-1 to interact with BRCA1 splice variants BRCA1α and BRCA1β proteins. We demonstrate in vitro and in vivo interactions between Elk-1 and BRCA1 proteins by using GST pull-down assays, co-immunoprecipitations/Western blot analysis and mammalian two-hybrid assays. BRCA1 proteins bind to the ETS DNA-binding domain of Elk-1. Interestingly, although both Elk-1 and SAP-1 bind to BRCA1 proteins, it is only Elk-1 but not SAP-1 that can enhance the growth suppressive function of BRCA1α/β proteins in breast cancer cells. Furthermore, overexpression of BRCA1α and BRCA1β inhibits MEK-induced c-Fos SRE promoter activation in vivo. These findings suggest that BRCA1 proteins may function as growth/tumor suppressors by regulating the expression of c-Fos.

Results and Discussion

BRCA1 inhibits c-Fos promoter activity in breast cancer cells

One of the specific changes brought about by numerous oncogenes is the constitutive elevation of c-Fos proto-oncogene expression which may represent a causal event in the transformation process. Similarly, the c-Fos basal promoter was shown to be suppressed by wild type p53 tumor suppressor. We therefore determined the activity of the c-Fos SRE (a DNA promoter element whose activity is regulated by a variety of growth promoting events) by using a SRE-TK-CAT reporter in NIH3T3 or MCF-7 cells that have been transfected with either antisense RNA to BRCA1α (Rao et al., 1996) or BRCA1α (Shao et al., 1996). We observed high levels of CAT activity in BRCA1 antisense transfected NIH3T3 cells (Figure 1a). Similarly transfection of SRE-TK-CAT reporter plasmid in BRCA1α transfected MCF-7 cells showed ~98% reduction in the levels of CAT activity compared to parental pcDNA3 transfected MCF-7 cells, unlike PSV2CAT transfected cells (data not given). These results suggested that this effect may be unique to SRE-dependent reporters (Figure 1b). In fact, SRE activity is dependent upon the activation by phosphorylation of ternary complex factor Elk-1. The results also suggest that BRCA1 could directly or indirectly regulate the function of Elk-1 target genes like c-Fos, or Elk-1 could be a potential downstream target of BRCA1 proteins in the apoptotic or tumor suppressive pathway. These observations lead us to investigate whether Elk-1 associates with BRCA1 proteins.

BRCA1 interacts with Elk-1 and SAP-1 but not ΔElk-1 and c-Fos in vitro

To investigate whether BRCA1α/β proteins associate directly with Elk-1, in vitro binding was performed with in vitro translated Elk-1 and GST-BRCA1α or GST-BRCA1β proteins using a GST fusion protein pull-down assay as described previously (Cui et al., 1998a; Wang et al., 1997). The in vitro translated 35S-methionine-labeled Elk-1 protein was passed through GST-BRCA1α, GST-BRCA1β, and a GST control column. Elk-1 was found to bind specifically to GST-BRCA1α and GST-BRCA1β proteins but not to GST (Figure 2a). Similarly, we also studied the in vitro binding of another Elk-1 related protein SAP1α, ΔElk-1 and c-Fos to BRCA1α/β proteins. In vitro translated full-length SAP1α (Figure 2b) unlike ΔElk-1 and c-Fos proteins bind to BRCA1α/β proteins (Figure 2c and d). All these results suggest in vitro association of...
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proteins with endogenous Elk-1 protein in vivo, we incubated cell lysates obtained from a human breast cancer cell line CAL-51 with GST-immobilized on GSH beads and BRCA1a fusion protein conjugated GSH beads. The beads were washed and the bound proteins were subjected to Western blot analysis using Elk-1 specific polyclonal antibody as described previously (Shao et al., 1998). An ~62 kD band corresponding to the size of Elk-1 protein was detected in the lysates of GST-BRCA1a beads but not control GST beads (Figure 3b). These results suggest the association of BRCA1 proteins with endogenous Elk-1.

Localization of the BRCA1 binding domain of Elk-1

To map the region of Elk-1 which binds to BRCA1a/1b proteins, a series of carboxy- and amino-terminal Elk-1 deletion mutants expressed and purified as GST fusion proteins (Rao and Reddy, 1992) were incubated with in vitro translated full-length BRCA1b protein and subjected to GST pull-down assay. Our results suggested the binding of BRCA1b protein to the aminoterminal ETS domain (amino acids 1–89) of Elk-1 protein (Figure 4a). This winged-helix–turn-helix (WHH) ETS domain of Elk-1, which is highly conserved among all ETS proteins, mediates both DNA binding (Rao and Reddy, 1992) and protein–protein interactions with itself (Drewett et al., 2000) or other proteins (Yates et al., 1999). If this ETS domain is sufficient for interaction with BRCA1 proteins, then one should expect all the other ETS related proteins to bind to BRCA1. We, therefore, studied the binding of GST-BRCA1a/1b proteins to in vitro translated full-length ETS-1, ERG-2, and Fli-1 using a GST pull-down assay. Our results suggest weak binding of ETS-1, ERG-2 and Fli-1 to BRCA1 proteins (Figure 4b, c,d).

BRCA1 Elk-1 interaction in vivo in mammalian cells

To investigate whether Elk-1 and BRCA1 could associate in mammalian cells, we performed a co-immunoprecipitation followed by Western blot analysis in co-transfected COS-7 cells. We co-transfected COS-7 cells with GAL4 Elk-1 (residues 1–205) and FLAG-epitope tagged full-length BRCA1a. Forty-eight hours post transfection, cell lysates were prepared and subjected to immunoprecipitation with FLAG antibody. This immuno-precipitated complex was subjected to SDS–PAGE followed by Western blotting with GAL4 (DBD) antibody. As shown in Figure 5a, Elk-1 was co-precipitated with the full-length FLAG BRCA1a (lane 3) using a FLAG antibody but not using an IgG antibody (lane 1). Taken together these results suggest that Elk-1 and BRCA1 proteins associate in vivo. To further document the in vivo binding of Elk-1 and BRCA1 proteins, we next showed that endogenous Elk-1 associates with endogenous BRCA1 proteins in CAL51 cells. Cell lysates from CAL51 cells were immunoprecipitated with Elk-1 antibody and the immunocomplexes were subjected to
Western blot analysis using BRCA1 antibodies. As shown in Figure 5b, lane 2, both BRCA1a and BRCA1b proteins were co-precipitated with the Elk-1 antibody but not with a control IgG antibody (Figure 5b, lane 1). Having established that the ETS domain of Elk-1 can directly associate with full-length BRCA1a and BRCA1b proteins in vitro, we next studied the interaction in vivo using the mammalian two-hybrid system. We have subcloned the full-length BRCA1a and BRCA1b cDNA’s in frame with the GAL-4 DNA binding domain vector. The ETS domain of Elk-1 has been cloned in frame with the VP16 activation domain VP16-Elk-1 (1–89). COS-7 cells were co-transfected with VP16-Elk-1 and GAL4 BRCA1a or GAL4 BRCA1b and pG5ElbCAT as a reporter. Figure 5c shows that using the two-hybrid assay, the VP16-Elk-1
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The Elk-1 protein stimulates GAL4 BRCA1α and GAL4 BRCA1β activity consistent with the *in vitro* binding results (Figure 3a). As expected from our previous work (Cui et al., 1998a), this activation is not seen with the pSGVP16 vector alone or with both full-length GAL4 BRCA1α and GAL BRCA1β (Figure 5c). These results further confirm the *in vivo* interactions of BRCA1 and Elk-1 proteins.

**Elk-1 but not ΔElk-1 and SAP1a enhances the growth suppressive activity of BRCA1α/β in human breast cancer cells**

We and others have shown the BRCA1, BRCA1α and BRCA1β proteins to function as growth/tumor suppressors and induce apoptosis of human breast, ovarian and prostate cancer cells (Fan et al., 1998; Holt et al., 1996; Rao et al., 1996; Shao et al., 1996; Zhang et al., 1998; and Rao, unpublished results). We therefore studied whether Elk-1 may change BRCA1α/β mediated growth suppression of human breast cancer cells. We co-transfected BRCA1α or BRCA1β and Elk-1 cDNA’s into MCF-7 breast cancer cells and analysed their effect on G418 colony formation. We have used MCF-7 cells lines because this cell line lacks one copy of a 2 Mb region which contains the BRCA1 gene, the growth of these cells is inhibited by the over-expression of BRCA1 (Holt et al., 1996), BRCA1α/β proteins (Figure 6, Rao, unpublished results), this cell line contains wild type p53 and expresses Elk-1 protein. The expression of BRCA1α alone (pcDNA BRCA1α), BRCA1β alone (pcDNA BRCA1β) or Elk-1 alone (pcDNA Elk-1) resulted in reduction in the number of colonies formed when compared to pcDNA3 vector (Figure 6), unlike ΔElk-1 (pcDNA ΔElk-1) or SAP1a alone (pcDNA SAP1a). The co-expression of BRCA1α/β and Elk-1 (Figure 6a,b) but not ΔElk-1 (Figure 6a,b) or SAP1a (Figure 6c) significantly decreased the number of colonies. These results suggest that Elk-1 augments the growth suppressive function of BRCA1α/β proteins in human breast cancer cells and demonstrates for the first time that BRCA1α/β proteins like BRCA1 can function as growth suppressors of human breast cancer cells. Similar enhancement in growth suppression of BRCA1 was previously observed for another protein BAP1 (Jensen et al., 1998). Alternatively, it could be possible that the results that we have obtained using Elk-1 and BRCA1 may represent an additive effect rather than an interactive effect. Future studies should resolve these issues. Thus, the majority of exon 11 sequences that are deleted in BRCA1α/β isoforms (residues 263–1365) are not necessary for the growth suppression function of BRCA1 proteins. Our results also show that altering Elk-1 activity by elevated levels of expression of Elk-1 in human breast cancer cells can result in growth suppression of human breast cancer cells. These studies also reveal how highly homologous ETS proteins like Elk-1 and SAP1a can exhibit distinct biological properties.
Figure 4  BRCA1a/1b proteins bind to the ETS domain of Elk-1, ETS-1, ERG-2 and Fli-1 proteins. (a) GST, GST-Elk-1 (amino acids 1–428), GST Elk-1 (amino acids 1–899) and GST Elk-1 (amino acids 305–428) proteins were expressed, purified on beads and incubated with in vitro translated ^35^S-methionine labeled BRCA1b and subjected to GST pull-down assay as described (Wang et al., 1997). GST, GST-BRCA1a, GST-BRCA1b proteins were purified on beads and incubated with in vitro translated ^35^S-methionine labeled ETS-1 (b) or ERG-2 (c) or Fli-1 (d) and subjected to GST pull-down assay as described (Wang et al., 1997). In lane 1 (a), lane 1 (b), lane 1 (c) and lane 1 (d), 1/10th of the in vitro protein used for binding was loaded directly.
Figure 5. *In vivo* interaction of Elk-1 with BRCA1 proteins. (a) COS-7 cells were co-transfected with GAL4-Elk-1 and FLAG epitope tagged BRCA1a plasmids. After 48 h of transfection, cell lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation using an IgG antibody (lane 1) or GAL4 (DBD) antibody (lane 2) or an anti-FLAG antibody (lane 3). The immunocomplex was then separated on an SDS–PAGE and subjected to Western blot analysis using an anti-GAL4 (DBD) antibody. Elk-1 was co-precipitated with FLAG-BRCA1a by the anti-FLAG antibody. (b) CAL-51 cells were used to study the endogenous interaction between BRCA1a/b and Elk-1. CAL-51 cell lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation using an IgG antibody (lane 1) or Elk-1 antibody (lane 2). The immunocomplex was then separated on an 8% SDS–PAGE and subjected to Western blot analysis using BRCA1 (D-20) antibody. BRCA1a/b proteins are indicated by arrows. (c) Full-length BRCA1a and BRCA1b interact with the ETS domain of Elk-1 in a mammalian two-hybrid system. COS-7 cells were co-transfected with 6 μg of 17 MucCAT reporter plasmid 1 μg of VP16 expression plasmids and 1 μg of GAL4 expression plasmids as described (Cui *et al.*, 1998a). The CAT activity shown represents fold activation compared with the VP16 vector alone.
BRCA1 inhibits ERK-1 mediated induction of the c-Fos promoter via the SRE

Elk-1 plays a key role in c-Fos induction following stimulation with growth factors and mitogens. Our results suggest that BRCA1 proteins inhibit c-Fos promoter activity in breast cancer cells that have been stably transfected with BRCA1a. We therefore studied the effect of over expression of BRCA1a/1b proteins on the activity of an SRE-driven reporter in NIH3T3 cells. A constitutively active MEK protein was co-transfected to stimulate the c-Fos reporter via the extracellular signal-related kinase (ERK) pathway. Co-transfection of increasing amounts of BRCA1a/1b caused a dose-dependent reduction in the activity of the reporter in response to MEK induction (Figure 7). These results demonstrate that the BRCA1 proteins may function by inhibiting MEK-inducible c-Fos promoter activation. We can speculate that this inhibition can occur either via the Elk-1 SRE-SRF ternary complex on the c-Fos promoter, or via competing for a common factor(s).

Physiological relevance of Elk-1-BRCA1 interaction to c-Fos activity

Full-length Elk-1 binds to BRCA1a/1b proteins in vitro and in vivo and enhances the growth suppression properties of BRCA1a/1b proteins in colony formation assays. These results demonstrate for the first time a key link between the growth suppressive function of BRCA1a/1b proteins and signal transduction pathway involving Elk-1 proteins. Indeed, over expression of BRCA1a/1b proteins in human breast cancer cells and NIH3T3 cells causes inhibition of the activity of the c-Fos promoter, indicating that Elk-1 could be a target for BRCA1a/1b mediated inhibition of c-Fos promoter activity. Currently, the mechanism
of tumor suppression by BRCA1 is not well understood. Previous studies have suggested that one mechanism by which BRCA1 protein may contribute to cell cycle arrest and growth/tumor suppression is through the induction of p21WAF1/CIP1 (Chai et al., 1999; Somasundaram et al., 1997). It may be possible that BRCA1 functions are either regulated or mediated through interactions with cellular proteins like Elk-1, and disruption of this protein–protein association by germ-line mutations in BRCA1 could be one important step in tumorigenesis. Alternately, wild type BRCA1 could cooperate with Elk-1 in growth inhibition unlike the mutant form. Future work will be directed towards studying whether Elk-1/BRCA1 interaction can be disrupted by BRCA1 mutations that segregate with breast cancer and studying the mechanism of down regulation of c-Fos transcriptional activity mediated by BRCA1. This would provide substantial evidence for the physiological relevance of this interaction in human breast/ovarian and prostate cancers.

Materials and methods

GST pull-down assay

GST-BRCA1a and GST-BRCA1b were expressed and purified from E. coli as reported previously (Wang et al., 1997). For in vitro binding assay, 35S-methionine labeled in vitro translated full-length Elk-1 (Rao et al., 1989), SAP1a (Dalton and Teisman, 1992), AElk-1 (Rao and Reddy, 1993), c-Fos (Abate et al., 1991), ETS-1 (Reddy and Rao, 1990), ERG-2 (Rao et al., 1987) and Fli-1 (Rao et al., 1993) proteins were diluted in TNN buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% IGEPAL CA-630) containing 1 mm PMSF, 10 μg/ml leupeptin, 3% aprotinin and 1 μM sodium orthovanadate. The solutions were preheated with GSH beads for 1 h and then incubated with GST or GST-BRCA1a or GST-BRCA1b beads for 2 h at 4°C. The beads were then washed six times in TNN buffer and heated in SDS sample buffer and loaded on a 10% SDS–PAGE. Similarly, GST-Elk-1 (residues 1–428), GST-Elk-1 (residues 1–89) and GST-Elk-1 (residues 305–428) were expressed and purified as described previously (Rao and Reddy, 1992). For in vitro binding experiments, full-length in vitro translated BRCA1b was tested for binding to the different deletion mutants of Elk-1 as described above for GST pull-down assay. The gels were fixed, treated with enhance, dried and exposed to X-ray films or exposed and scanned using a Fuji Biolimaging analyser.

Co-immunoprecipitation and Western blot analysis

COS-7 cells were maintained in Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle’s medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS). These cells were transfected with GAL4-Elk-1 (residues 1–205) or GAL4-Elk-1 (residues 1–205) and FLAG-BRCA1a to a total of 20 μg DNA using the calcium phosphate/ mammalian transfection system (Invitrogen). Forty-eight hours after transfection, cells were lysed in lysis buffer and the supernatant was subjected to immunoprecipitation with either normal IgG or GAL4 (DBD) antibody or FLAG antibody as described previously (Wang et al., 1997). SDS–PAGE and Western blotting using GAL4 (DBD) polyclonal antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) was carried out subsequently as described previously (Cui et al., 1998a). Similarly, CAL-51 cells were used to study the endogenous interaction of Elk-1 with BRCA1 proteins. CAL-51 cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with either normal IgG or polyclonal anti-Elk-1 antibody (New England Biolabs) and the complexes were run on 8% SDS–PAGE gel and subjected to Western blot analysis using D-20 polyclonal anti BRCA1 antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology).

In vitro co-immunoprecipitation

In vitro translation of full-length Elk-1 (pcDNA-Elk-1) and full-length BRCA1a (pcDNA-BRCA1a) was done with the TNT quick-coupled transcription/translation system (Promega). In vitro co-immunoprecipitation was performed by mixing 40 μl of rabbit reticulocyte lysate containing radiolabelled full-length Elk-1 with 40 μl of reticulocyte lysate containing radiolabeled full-length BRCA1a or with 40 μl of an uncharged reticulocyte lysate. Equal aliquots of samples were diluted in buffer and immunoprecipitated at 4°C for 2 h with 1 μl of either Elk-1 antibody (#9182, NEB) or BRCA1 polyclonal antibody (SC-641, Santa Cruz) or normal IgG. Protein A Sepharose beads were added and the incubation was continued for 16 h. The beads were then pelleted by brief centrifugation and washed three times in RIPA buffer, boiled for 2 min in SDS loading buffer and pelleted by centrifugation. The supernatant was then loaded on a SDS 10% polyacrylamide gel.

Cell culture, transfection and reporter gene assays

NIH3T3, NIH3T3-BRCA1a cells, MCF-7, MCF-7-pcDNA, MCF-7-BRCA1a #4, MCF-7-BRCA1a #5, and COS-7 cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and 200 μg/ml G418 as required. For reporter gene assays, c-Fos SRE-driven reporter (SRE-TK CAT 6 μg) were cotransfected with CH110 (5 μg) using the calcium phosphate method (Promega) as described previously (Rao and Reddy, 1993). DNA concentrations were normalized with Gem-3 vector. Similarly NIH3T3 cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Triplicate transfections were carried out in 100 mm petri dishes using SRE x 2-Luc reporter (5 μg) vector and pCMVMEK-1 either in the absence or presence of 0.5, 1.0, 3.0, 6.0 μg of pcDNA BRCA1a/1b, respectively. Luciferase assays were carried out as described by the manufacturer (Promega). All values and standard errors were calculated from averages of triplicate samples and are representative of three independent experiments. For two-hybrid analysis in mammalian cells, full-length BRCA1a and BRCA1b cDNAs were subcloned in frame with the GAL4 DNA binding domain vector obtained from P Chambron (Cui et al., 1998a). ETS domain of Elk-1 (residues 1–89) was subcloned in frame with the VP16 transactivation domain vector pSGVP16 (Rao and Reddy, 1993). G5E1bCAT reporter plasmid was a gift from T Kouzarides. COS-7 cells were co-transfected with pSGVP16 Elk-1 alone (1 μg) or in the presence of GAL4-BRCA1a or GAL4-BRCA1b and G5E1bCAT reporter plasmid (6 μg) as described (Cui et al., 1998a). After 48 h post transfection, cell extracts were prepared and subjected to β-galactosidase and CAT assays as described (Cui et al., 1998a). The CAT assays were quantitated with a Fuji Phospholmager. The experiments were repeated several times.
Colony suppression assay

MCF-7 cells, at 1.5 × 10^5 cells/10 cm dish were transfected with 20 μg of plasmid DNAs (pcDNA3, pcDNA-BRCA1a/1b, pcDNA-Erk-1, pCDNA8Elk-1, pcDNA-SAP1a, etc.) using the calcium phosphate mammalian transfection system from Promega. The next day, cells were washed twice in 1 × PBS and re-fed with fresh medium (DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS). Twenty-four hours later, the cells were trypsinized and plated into six 10 cm petri dishes containing complete medium and 600 μg/ml G418. Cells were fed with medium containing G418 every 3–4 days. Cells were fixed approximately 18–21 days after transfection in methanol-acetic acid (3:1) for 1 h at −20°C and stained for colonies with crystal violet.

Preparation of total cell extract, protein binding and Western blot analysis

CAL-51 cells were washed in ice-cold PBS and scraped into 1 ml of TNN buffer (Wang et al., 1997) and lysed by rotating for 30 min. The lysates were centrifuged at 14,000 g for 30 min and subjected to GST pull-down assay. For protein binding assay, cell extracts were precleared overnight with GSH beads and then incubated with either GSH protein conjugated GSH beads or GST-BRCA1a. Proteins were incubated with GSH beads for 2 h at 4°C. The beads were washed in TNN buffer and boiled in SDS sample buffer and loaded on a 10% PAGE. After electrophoresis onto PVDF membrane, it was probed with antibodies specific to Elk-1 as described previously (Wang et al., 1997).

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