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## Title and Subtitle

FoxP3 as a missing link between inflammation and breast cancer

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## Abstract

This is the third annual report. The major achievement is establishment of a new mechanism by which Foxp3 activates gene expression. Both H4K16 acetylation and H3K4 tri-methylation are required for gene activation. However, it is still largely unclear how these modifications are orchestrated by transcriptional factors. Here we analyzed the mechanism of the transcriptional activation by FOXP3, an X-linked suppressor of autoimmune diseases and cancers. FOXP3 binds near transcriptional start sites of its target genes. By recruiting MOF and displacing histone H3K4 demethylase PLU-1, FOXP3 increases both H4K16 acetylation and H3K4 tri-methylation at the FOXP3-associated chromatin of multiple FOXP3-activated genes. RNAi-mediated silencing of MOF reduced both gene activation and tumor suppression by FOXP3, while both somatic mutations in clinical cancer samples and targeted mutation of FOXP3 in mouse prostate epithelial disrupted nuclear localization of MOF. Our data demonstrate a pull-push model in which a single transcription factor orchestrates two epigenetic alterations necessary for gene activation and provide a mechanism for somatic inactivation of the FOXP3 protein function in cancer cells.

## Subject Terms

Inflammation, FoxP3, breast cancer risk
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(4) Introduction

We have received approval to revise the Tasks (SOW) of the award. The new tasks as approved are as follows.

In task 1, we will use systemic approach to define the cytokines genes regulated by Foxp3 expression in normal and malignant breast epithelial cells.

In task 2, we propose to study the significance of FOXP3-induced cytokines in innate and adaptive immunity to breast cancer.

In task 3, we will determine Foxp3-repressed cytokines.

In the last report, we have reported progress on part of task 1. In the last funding period, we have completed task 1, and produced a manuscript that is published in Molecular Cell. Another related manuscript has been published in Cancer Research. We have also initiated studies in tasks 2 and 3. However, due to slow approval of animal studies, we were not able to carry out in vivo studies. Therefore, we have decided to request a no cost extension for one more year.
(5) Body of Annual Report

Statement of work

In task 1, we will use systemic approach to define the cytokines genes regulated by Foxp3 expression in normal and malignant breast epithelial cells.

In the previous funding period, we have reported our effort in global analysis of Foxp3-mediated expression of cytokines. Therefore, we devoted a major effort to understand at the global level how FOXP3 regulates its target genes.

Acetyl-H4 is an important histone mark for gene activation, and a previous study reported that FOXP3 directly or indirectly mediates acetylation of pan-histone H4 in T cells (1). Histone H4 has various lysine residues which can be substrates for acetylation and, among them, H4K16ac is a founder event of the H4 acetylation (2). In order to investigate whether or not the H4K16ac is correlated with FOXP3-mediated gene activation in MCF7 cells, we compared H4K16ac levels at FOXP3 binding sites before and after FOXP3 induction. Surprisingly, ChIP-qPCR at FOXP3 binding sites of randomly chosen 4 activated (including the previously reported p21 gene) and 3 repressed promoters demonstrated broad inductions of H4K16ac by FOXP3 regardless of whether the genes were activated or repressed (Fig. 1A). To substantiate the broad correlation between FOXP3 binding and H4K16ac, we performed a confocal imaging analysis. As shown in Fig. 1B and 1C, FOXP3 and H4K16ac exhibited an almost complete overlap throughout the nuclei of the MCF7 cells.
Figure 1. H4K16ac is induced by FOXP3-binding. (A) H4K16ac levels at FOXP3 binding sites were examined by ChIP-qPCR before and after FOXP3 induction in the FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cell. Y-axis represents enrichments of the H4K16ac (% of input DNA). Error bars represent +1SD of triplicate qPCR. *: p<0.05 (t-test). n.s.: not significant. (B) A representative confocal image of FOXP3 (red) and H4K16ac (green) in the MCF7 cell transfected with FOXP3. White bars represent 5μm. Similar pattern was observed in 10/10 cells analyzed. (C) A representative signal intensity profile in the confocal image (Fig. 2B) is shown. Red, green and blue graphs indicate signal intensities of FOXP3, H4K16ac and DAPI, respectively.

In order to investigate whether MOF is required for FOXP3-dependent gene activation, we treated FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells with RNAi duplexes targeting endogenous MOF or control RNAi duplex (Fig. 4A). In this model, induced FOXP3 expression was identical between control RNAi and MOF-RNAi treated cells both in protein and mRNA levels. Global mRNA expression analysis revealed that endogenous MOF knockdown impaired FOXP3-dependent gene activation in most, if not all, of the direct target genes (Fig. 2A). Approximately 41.0% of target genes showed more than 30% impairment of FOXP3-mediated gene activation by MOF-RNAi as compared to control-RNAi. In contrast, in FOXP3-mediated gene repression, the affected gene numbers and magnitudes of impairments by the MOF knockdown seemed to be considerably smaller (Fig. 2B). Thus, at global level, MOF plays a more important role in FOXP3-mediated gene activation than in gene repression.
Fig. 2. Global mRNA expression analysis of direct target genes of FOXP3 with and without MOF knockdown. RNAi #2 was used in this analysis as the knockdown is more efficient. A. The heat map represents ratios of mRNA expressions before and after FOXP3 induction in control-RNAi and MOF-RNAi treated MCF7 cells (expression values in cells without FOXP3 induction were normalized to 1.0). Color scale of the heat map is indicated at the bottom of the figure. B. Bar graph represents log-scaled ratio of the relative mRNA expression between control-RNAi and MOF-RNAi groups. Dashed lines (red and green) represent log (ratio) = +0.5 (ratio=1.41) and = -0.5 (ratio=0.71). The “direct target genes” were defined as (1) direct binding of FOXP3 between -2 kbp and +2 kbp from TSS of genes revealed by ChIP-seq, and (2) mRNA expression values were increased to more than 1.5 times or decreased to less than 2/3 after FOXP3 induction in the control-RNAi treated MCF7 cells. Ctrl: control.
In order to explain how FOXP3 induces H3K4me3 at its activating binding sites, we carried out a motif scanning of the FOXP3-bound regions and searched for any enriched DNA motifs among activating and repressing binding sites. Apart from the FOXP3-binding motif (forkhead motif), the most enriched motif in the activated binding sites was a PLU-1-binding motif (Fig. 3A). Interestingly, PLU-1 is a H3K4me3 demethylase and a putative oncogene for breast cancer (3). Importantly, the enrichment of the PLU-1 motif was specific in FOXP3’s activating binding sites (Fig. 3A). PLU-1 has a known DNA-binding motif (Fig. 3B) (4). Strikingly, DNA binding motifs of FOXP3 and PLU-1 were enriched at essentially overlapping regions (Fig. 3C). This close proximity suggested a model in which FOXP3 binding would competitively displace PLU-1 from FOXP3-associated chromatin.

![A](image)

**Figure 3.** Bioinformatic analysis suggest that FOXP3 facilitates H3K4me3 presumably by replacing histone demethylase(s) from its binding sites: a hypothetical model. (A) Transcription factor binding motifs which were significantly enriched among FOXP3-binding sites at either activated or repressed gene promoters are listed. TOP-10 ranked motifs as sorted by overrepresentation scores were included. Statistical significances were evaluated by Z-score according to the database [www.genomatix.de](http://www.genomatix.de). (B) A known DNA binding motif of PLU-1. (C) Genomic regions around the FOXP3-ChIP-seq peaks were partitioned into 150 bp windows, and enrichments of the Fork Head (FOXP3) and PLU-1 motifs among each of these 150 bp partitions are evaluated by the
overrepresentation scores as in Fig. 3A. The YY1 motif was used as an unrelated negative control. *: Fork Head motifs were not identified in these regions.

To test this model, we evaluated whether FOXP3 binding reduced enrichments of PLU-1 at FOXP3 binding sites. Fifteen activated and 11 repressed genes were chosen according to the following criteria: (1) genes whose expression were strongly affected by FOXP3 (more than twice or less than half compared to FOXP3(-) cells) and (2) both of the FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs were identified around ChIP-seq peaks (within 500 bp of the ChIP-seq peaks). As shown in Figure 7D, induction of FOXP3 significantly reduced the binding of PLU-1 at 9 out of 15 activated promoters. FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs were essentially overlapped at p21, YPEL2 and ITGB8 promoters and located closely at other promoters. Interestingly, the distance between FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs is likely a major contributor for the competitive displacements of PLU-1 by FOXP3, as all 9 genes that showed significant displacements of PLU-1 had FOXP3 motifs within 100 bp from the PLU-1 motif. However, proximity of the binding sites is not sufficient since displacements were not observed in 2 genes with the distance less than 100 bp. Importantly, no displacements of PLU-1 were observed among repressed genes (Fig. 4). Since JARID1 family members may not always bind to chromatin in a DNA sequence-specific fashion, it is possible that, at the repressed promoters, PLU-1 binds to other chromatin-associated proteins and is not competitively displaced by FOXP3.

Taken together, based on ChIP seq data and analysis of epigenetic alterations of FOXP3 targets, we established a novel mechanism on how FOXP3 regulate gene expression. We showed that, By recruiting MOF and displacing histone H3K4 demethylase PLU-1, FOXP3 increases both H4K16 acetylation and H3K4 tri-methylation at the FOXP3-associated chromatin of multiple FOXP3-activated genes. RNAi-mediated silencing of MOF reduced both gene activation and tumor suppression by FOXP3, while both somatic mutations in clinical cancer samples and targeted mutation of FOXP3 in mouse prostate epithelial disrupted nuclear localization of MOF. Our data demonstrate a pull-push model in which a single transcription factor orchestrates two epigenetic alterations necessary for gene activation and provide a mechanism for somatic inactivation of the FOXP3 protein function in cancer cells, as shown in Fig. 5.
Fig. 5. A proposed model by which FOXP3 activates multiple gene expression by pulling MOF and causing displacement of H3K4me demethylase(s). The data supporting the model has been accepted for publication in Molecular Cell.

(6) Key Research Accomplishments
We have completed a major analysis on global mechanism of FOXP3-mediated gene regulation. The data may provide a new paradigm on how a transcription factor controls local histone modifications and thus recruiting chromatin-remodeling complexes. This mechanism will be applied to our analysis on how foxp3 regulates inflammation as many of the Foxp3 targets are inflammatory cytokines.

(7) Reportable Outcomes:

Manuscripts:
2. Hiroto Katoh, Zhaohui S. Qin, Runhua Liu, Lizhong Wang, Weiquan Li, Xiangzhi Li, Lipeng Wu, Robert Lyons, Chang-Gong Liu, Xiuping Liu, Yali Dou, Pan Zheng, Yang Liu FOXP3 Orchestrates H4K16 Acetylation and H3K4 Tri-Methylation for

(8) Conclusions and future plan:
Our global analysis of FOXP3 targets not only reveal their identity but also raised fundamental questions on how FOXP3 can regulate a large array of targets directly. The mechanism identified will have direct relevance on how FOXP3 in cancer cell regulate inflammation. We plan to complete the new tasks 2 and 3 in the coming year.

(9) References:
Identification of a Tumor Suppressor Relay between the FOXP3 and the Hippo Pathways in Breast and Prostate Cancers

Weiquan Li¹, Lizhong Wang¹, Hiroto Katoh¹, Runhua Liu¹, Pan Zheng¹,², and Yang Liu¹,³

Abstract

Defective expression of LATS2, a negative regulator of YAP oncoprotein, has been reported in cancer of prostate, breast, liver, brain, and blood origins. However, no transcriptional regulators for the LATS2 gene have been identified. Here we report that spontaneous mutation of the transcription factor FOXP3 reduces expression of the LATS2 gene in mammary epithelial cells. shRNA-mediated silencing of FOXP3 in normal or malignant mammary epithelial cells of mouse and human origin repressed LATS2 expression and increased YAP protein levels. LATS2 induction required binding of FOXP3 to a specific sequence in the LATS2 promoter, and this interaction contributed to FOXP3-mediated growth inhibition of tumor cells. In support of these results, reduced expression and somatic mutations of FOXP3 correlated strongly with defective LATS2 expression in microdissected prostate cancer tissues. Thus, defective expression of LATS2 is attributable to FOXP3 defects and may be a major independent determinant of YAP protein elevation in cancer. Our findings identify a novel mechanism of LATS2 downregulation in cancer and reveal an important tumor suppressor relay between the FOXP3 and HIPPO pathways which are widely implicated in human cancer. Cancer Res; 71(6); 2162–71. ©2011 AACR.

Introduction

Genetic studies in Drosophila have established an important role for the Hippo pathway in regulation of cell proliferation and apoptosis (1–3). Components of the Hippo pathway, including Yap, Lats1/2, and Mst1/2 (Drosophila Yki, Hpo, and Wts homologs, respectively) are highly conserved between Drosophila and human, as the human YAP, LATS2, and MST2 are capable of rescuing the corresponding Drosophila mutants (1, 3). The functional conservation raised the possibility that the Lats1 and Lats2, the mammalian Wts homologs may function as tumor suppressors. In support of this notion, targeted mutation of Lats1 caused soft-tissue tumor in the mice (4). Although Lats2 deletion is embryonic lethal, analysis of the Lats2−/− murine embryonic fibroblast suggests a critical role of Lats2 in genome stability and growth inhibition (5). Recent studies have revealed that LATS2 regulates cellular localization (6, 7) and degradation (8) of YAP protein. Transgenic expression of an active YAP mutant lacking a Lats2 phosphorylate site caused liver cancer (6). The significance of LATS2 in human cancer is supported by widespread downregulation of LATS2 in cancers in breast (9), prostate (10), brain (11), and blood (12). However, genetic lesions that disrupt the LATS2 expression have not yet been identified.

FOXP3 is a newly identified X-linked tumor suppressor gene for both prostate and breast cancers (13, 14). Our recent studies have shown that, as a transcriptional factor, Foxp3 inhibits tumor cell growth by both repressing oncopogenes, Erbb2 (14), cMyc (13), and Skp2 (15) and inducing tumor suppressor p21 (16). Here we report that Foxp3 is a direct transcriptional activator for Lats2 in both normal and malignant breast and prostate cells from mouse and human. Mutation or downregulation of Foxp3 decreased Lats2 expression. These data show a functional relay between 2 newly identified tumor suppressor genes.

Materials and Methods

Mice

Rag2−/−Foxp3+/+ and Rag2−/−Foxp3−/− female and male Rag2−/−Foxp3+/+ and Rag2−/−Foxp3−/− male BALB/c mice have been described previously (17). Four-month-old virgin mice were used to analyze the effect of Foxp3 mutation on Lats2 expression and hyperplasia of mammary epithelia. All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with accepted standards of animal care and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of University of Michigan.
Cell culture

Breast cancer cell line MCF-7 was purchased from the American Type Culture Collection and immortalized mammary epithelial cell line MCF-10A was obtained from Dr. Ben Margolis (University of Michigan). A Tet-off FOXP3 expression system in the MCF-7 cells has been established previously (14). Cell banks were created after cells were received. Early passages of cells were used for the study. No reauthentification of cells has been done since receipt.

FOXP3 silencing

The human FOXP3 silencing vectors were described previously (16). The mouse Foxp3 shRNA and control lentiviral vectors pLKO.1 were purchased from Open Biosystems.

Western blot

The anti-FOXP3 (hFOXY; eBioscience; 1:100), anti-Lats2 (Cell Signaling; 1:1,000), anti-Yap, anti-p-Yap(Cell Signaling) and anti-β-actin (Sigma, 1:3,000) were used as primary antibodies. Anti-rabbit or mouse immunoglobulin G (IgG) horseradish peroxidase–linked secondary antibody at 1:5,000 to 1:5,000 dilutions (Cell Signaling) was used.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) was carried out according to the published procedure (16). Briefly, the FOXP3-transfected Tet-off cells were sonicated and fixed with 1% paraformaldehyde. The anti-FOX3, and anti-IgG (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) antibodies were used to pull down chromatin associated with FOXP3. The amounts of the specific DNA fragment were quantitated by real-time PCR and normalized against the genomic DNA preparation from the same cells. The ChIP real-time PCR primers are listed in Supplementary Table S1.

Quantitative real-time PCR

Relative quantities of mRNA expression were analyzed by real-time PCR (ABI Prism 7500 Sequence Detection System; Applied Biosystems). The SYBR (Applied Biosystems) green fluorescence dye was used in this study. The primer sequences are listed in the Supplementary Table S1.

Tumorigenicity assay

TSA cells (10^5 per inoculation) were injected into mammary fat pads of syngeneic BALB/c mice. The tumor volumes are defined as 0.75r^3, where r is radius. The tumor diameters

Figure 1. Foxp3 induced Lats2 expression in normal and malignant mammary epithelial cells in the mice. A, mouse mammary (top) and prostate (bottom) epithelial cells were isolated from Rag2^{-/-} Foxp3^{+/+} and Rag2^{-/-} Foxp3^{+/+} mammary glands or Rag2^{-/-} Foxp3^{-/-} and Rag2^{-/-} Foxp3^{-/-} prostate. Lats1, Lats2, and Foxp3 mRNA levels were determined by real-time RT-PCR. Data shown were mean ± SD of mRNA levels presented as %GAPDH and have been repeated 3 times. B, Foxp3 regulates Lats2, Yap protein levels, and Yap phosphorylation (Yap-pS127), as shown by Western blot. The results have been repeated 3 times. C, immunohistochemical analysis for Lats2 protein expression in benign mammary tissue from WT and Foxp3 mutant mice, as well as a mammary tumor of Rag2^{-/-} Foxp3^{+/+} origin. D, Foxp3 regulates expression of the Lats2 gene in mouse mammary tumor cell line. Lats2 mRNA in murine mammary tumor cell line TSA transfected with either scrambled or Foxp3 siRNA. Transfected cells were selected by puromycin for 2 weeks after transfection. The results have been repeated 3 times.
were derived from the average of largest diameters in two dimensions.

Site-directed mutagenesis
All mutants were generated by using mutagenesis kit from Stratagene (catalog no. 210518). The deleted sequence LATS2 promoter mutants were ATAACAT for B6M, CAGTTGT for B7M, and TGTTTAT for B8M.

Immunohistochemistry
Immunohistochemistry was done by the avidin–biotin complex method. Expression of FOXP3 in human breast cancer or normal tissue samples was determined by immunohistochemistry, as described (13). The rabbit anti-Lats2 monoclonal antibody (Cell Signaling; 1:200), and biotinylated goat anti-mouse IgG were obtained from Santa Cruz and used at 1:200. FOXP3 and Lats2 staining of tissue microarray (TMA) samples (US Biomax, Inc.) were scored double blind.

DNA sequencing for human YAP gene in prostate cancer samples
To test whether human YAP is somatically mutated in primary prostate cancer samples to gain resistance to regulation by LATS, we sequenced exons 2 and 6 of human YAP, which encodes amino acid sequence encompassing S127 and S347 (S381) sites, respectively. DNA were prepared from microdissected normal and cancerous prostate tissues from the same patients. The genomic DNA were amplified by PCR by using a forward primer (AACCTGTGTTCTCAGTGTGC) and a reverse primer (ACCCGGCCAATCCATGATAT) for exon 6. The PCR products were sequenced. When ambiguous results were obtained, the DNA will be cloned and sequenced. At least 5 clones were analyzed per sample.

Statistical analysis
Data are shown as mean ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed with Student’s t test. ANOVA tests were used to analyze data with more than 2 groups. Chi-square test was used to determine statistical significance of relationship between the expression of FOXP3 and LATS2.

Results
Requirement for Foxp3 in the expression of Lats2 in both normal and malignant breast epithelia
Our gene array analysis showed that induction of FOXP3 in breast cancer cell line MCF7 leads to increased LATS2 expression (16). To determine whether endogenous Foxp3 regulates Lats2 in murine mammary epithelial cells, we used the Scurfy (sf) mice with a spontaneous mutation of the X-linked Foxp3 gene (a dinucleotide insertion, Foxp3sf) to determine the impact of Foxp3 inactivation on the expression of Lats2. Because the homozygous mutation caused lethal autoimmune diseases in the immune competent mice, we crossed the mutation into Rag2−/− mice that lack T and B cells. We isolated mammary epithelial cells from Rag2−/− Foxp3+/y and Rag2−/− Foxp3sf/y mice and compared the level of Lats1 and Lats2 transcripts by real-time PCR. As shown in Figure 1A (top), epithelial preparation from the Foxp3sf/y mice showed a

Figure 2. FOXP3 is necessary and sufficient for expression of LATS2 gene in normal and malignant human mammary epithelial cells. A, silencing FOXP3 in MCF10A cells reduces LATS2 expression. The levels of FOXP3 (top) and LATS2 (bottom) in 2 scrambled or 2 FOXP3 siRNA-transfected cells as determined by real-time RT-PCR. Data shown are mean ± SD of 3 independent experiments. B, induction of LATS2 mRNA by FOXP3 in MCF7 Tet-off system. MCF7 cells with Tet-off expression of either GFP control or GFP in conjunction with FOXP3 were cultured for 48 or 72 hours in the absence of doxycyclin. The LATS2 mRNA was quantified by real-time PCR. The induction of FOXP3 mRNA is shown at the bottom. Data shown are mean ± SD of 3 independent experiments.
significant reduction in both Lats1 and Lats2 mRNA. Similar reductions were observed in the mutant prostate tissue (Fig. 1A, bottom). Because the Scurfy mutation cause frameshift and nonsense-mediated decay of mRNA, a significant reduction of Foxp3 transcript was also observed in the Scurfy mice. Furthermore, because the level of Lats1 mRNA was 10-fold less than that of Lats2, we have focused on regulation of Lats2 transcription by Foxp3.

When the lysates were compared for Lats2 and Yap proteins, it is clear that the Lats2 protein level was substantially reduced in the Foxp3-deficient epithelial cells from mammary and prostate glands (Fig. 1B). Correspondingly, a selective reduction in phosphorylated Yap was observed (Fig. 1B). We also carried out immunohistochemical analysis of both benign and cancerous tissue from the Rag2<sup>−/−</sup> and Rag2<sup>−/−</sup> Foxp3<sup>3/4</sup> mice. As shown in Figure 1C, Lats2 protein was barely detective in the epithelial cells from the Foxp3<sup>3/4</sup> mice and completely absent from Foxp3<sup>3/4</sup> tumors. Consistent with tumor suppressor activity, the spontaneous mammary tumors were observed in the Rag2<sup>−/−</sup> Foxp3<sup>3/4</sup> but not in the Rag2<sup>−/−</sup> Foxp3<sup>3/4</sup> mice (data not shown). Consistent with a role for Foxp3 in Lats2 expression, Foxp3 knockdown in murine mammary tumor cell line TSA (18) leads to reduction of lats2 transcripts and protein (Fig. 1D).

To study the role for FOXP3 in LATS2 expression in human cells, we tested the effect of FOXP3 silencing on immortalized human epithelial cell line MCF10A (19). As shown in Figure 2A, shRNA silencing of FOXP3 caused a major reduction of LATS2
transcript (Fig. 2A). As a complementary approach, we used a Tet-off system to test the effect of inducible expression of FOXP3 on LAT32 transcripts in the human breast cancer cell line MCF7. As shown in Figure 2B, induction of FOXP3 progressively increased LAT32 transcripts. The increase reached more than 10-fold at day 3 in the MCF-7 cells.

To determine whether FOXP3 contribute to LAT32 expression in the primary tumor samples, we used immunohistochemistry to test whether LAT32 expression correlates with that of nuclear FOXP3. As shown in Supplementary Table S2, 71% of nuclear FOXP3+ tumor samples expressed detectable LAT32, whereas only 46% of FOXP3− samples expressed detectable LAT32. Chi-square analysis indicated a statistically significant correlation between LAT32 and nuclear FOXP3 expression.

FOXP3 binding to the LAT32 promoter is essential for LAT32 transcription

We searched the 5′ sequence of the LAT32 gene for FOXP3 recognition motifs (Forkhead binding motif 5′-RYMAAYA or 3′-YRKTTTR; R = A, G; Y = C, T; M = A, C; K = G, T). The potential binding motifs in LAT32 promoter were diagramed in Figure 3A (top). We used real-time PCR to determine the amounts of specific DNA sequence in chromatin immunoprecipitates of anti-FOXP3 mAb. The MCF7 tumor cells with induced FOXP3 expression were used as source of chromatin. As shown in Figure 3A, of the 8 regions analyzed, all but one (B3) showed specific binding to FOXP3. To identify a functional element for FOXP3-mediated regulation of LAT32, we generated luciferase reporters consisting of 4 overlapping DNA fragments that cover all of the forkhead binding motifs and tested the effect of FOXP3 on the reporters. As shown in Figure 3B, FOXP3 cDNA strongly stimulated all 4 regions of the LAT32 promoter. Although the stimulation of P4 seemed less robust in this experiment, multiple experiments did not support the reduced promoter activity of this region. Therefore, P4 likely contained all necessary FOXP3 responsive cis element. To identify the FOXP3 responsive element in the P4, we deleted 3 FOXP3 binding sites in the region, one at a time, and tested their response to FOXP3 cDNA. As shown in Figure 3C, whereas mutation of B6 and B7 had no effect on response to FOXP3, that of B8 eliminated FOXP3 response of the LAT32 promoter. Therefore, B8 is the essential FOXP3 response element in the LAT32 promoter.

Figure 4. FOXP3 regulates phosphorylation (A) and transcriptional coactivator function of YAP (B): requirement for DNA binding and dimerization of FOXP3 and endogenous LAT5. A, mutational analyses suggest the requirement for FOXP3-mediated transcription of LAT5 in FOXP3-induced YAP phosphorylation. Left, the impact of FOXP3 mutations; right, the effect of dominant negative LAT5. 293T cells were transfected with either WT or mutant FOXP3 cDNA in conjunction with either vector alone or dominant negative mutant of LAT5. At 48 hours after transfection, the transfectants were starved for 8 hours and then lysed for Western blots with antibodies specific for YAP, p-YAP, V5-tag, or Myc-tag. B, FOXP3 inhibited YAP activity. TEAD4 luciferase reporter assay was used to measure coactivation by TEAD4 and YAP. WT or mutant FOXP3 were transfected in conjunction with YAP and Gal4-TEAD4 and 5X UAS-luciferase reporter into 293 T cells. TEAD4 luciferase activity was measured and normalized to renila activity. Data shown are mean ± SD from 3 independent experiments.

FOXP3 activation of the Hippo pathway in normal mouse and human mammary epithelial cells

YAP is the effector molecule repressed by the Hippo pathway and is a coactivator in gene transcription. Although LAT5-phosphorylated YAP will be degraded (7), unphosphorylated YAP will translocate into nuclear to form complex with TEAD1-4 to activate gene transcription (20). To test regulation of YAP phosphorylation by FOXP3, we transfected wild-type (WT) or mutant FOXP3 cDNA in conjunction with YAP into 293T cells. Two days after transfection, YAP phosphorylation was determined by immunoblot. As shown in Figure 4A, FOXP3 increased YAP phosphorylation as revealed by antibody specific for phosphor-S127 and by electrophoresis mobility (Figure 4A, right). Mutations that either prevent FOXP3 dimerization (delta252E; ref. 21) or DNA binding (A341F342; ref. 22) abrogated this effect. These data suggest that FOXP3 regulates YAP phosphorylation through its role in gene regulation. Further, the impact of FOXP3 is achieved through LAT5 as the LAT5 kinase dead mutant (LAT5/K/R), which was known as a dominant negative inhibitor of LAT5 (7), abrogated YAP phosphorylation. We used a reporter system consisting of a 5X UAS-luciferase reporter and a Gal4 DNA binding domain fused to
Tead4 (Gal4-Tead4) to test the effect of FOXP3 on coactivator activity of YAP. As showed in Figure 4B, without YAP cDNA, Gal4-Tead4 showed very low basal activity. With YAP coexpression, Gal4-Tead4 reporter was strongly activated. Transfection of FOXP3 reduced reporter activity. Again, the inhibition of the YAP activity is likely mediated by LATS as the LATS2 kinase dead mutant (LATS2-K/R) abrogated FOXP3 function.

CyclinE and Diaph2 are two well known YAP targets (20). To determine whether Foxp3 regulates Yap function in vivo, we isolated mammary epithelial cells from Rag2−/− Foxp3+/− and Rag2−/− Foxp3+/+ mice by real-time PCR. A and B, right, expression of CYCLINE1 and DIAPH2 mRNA in MCF10A cells transfected with either scrambled or FOXP3 shRNA. Transfectants were selected by puromycin for 2 weeks. Stable clones were cultured for RNA analysis. Data shown in A and B are mean ± SD from 3 independent experiments. C, impact of FOXP3 silencing on acinar formation in MCF10A. MCF10A cell lines transduced with lentiviral vectors control or shRNA were cultured in matrigel medium. Low-power (×10) images of acinar sizes (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, DAPI) and expression of FOXP3 (green) and LATS2. High-power (×60) images of acinar structure and FOXP3 and LATS2 expression were shown in right corner of each picture. D, measurement of acinar size. The sizes were shown by relative area, measured at 14 days after culture. Data shown are mean ± SD of relative sizes. The mean sizes of the scrambled samples were artificially defined as 1.0.

Figure 5. FOXP3 regulates YAP target gene CYCLINE1 and DIAPH2 in normal mammary epithelial cells of mouse and human origin and inhibits the growth of human mammary epithelial cells in 3-D culture. A and B, left, quantitation of Diaph2 and Cyclin E2 transcripts of ex vivo mammary epithelial cells isolated from Rag2−/− Foxp3+/− and Rag2−/− Foxp3+/+ mice by real-time PCR. A and B, right, expression of CYCLINE1 and DIAPH2 mRNA in MCF10A cells transfected with either scrambled or FOXP3 shRNA. Transfectants were selected by puromycin for 2 weeks. Stable clones were cultured for RNA analysis. Data shown in A and B are mean ± SD from 3 independent experiments. C, impact of FOXP3 silencing on acinar formation in MCF10A. MCF10A cell lines transduced with lentiviral vectors control or shRNA were cultured in matrigel medium. Low-power (×10) images of acinar sizes (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole, DAPI) and expression of FOXP3 (green) and LATS2. High-power (×60) images of acinar structure and FOXP3 and LATS2 expression were shown in right corner of each picture. D, measurement of acinar size. The sizes were shown by relative area, measured at 14 days after culture. Data shown are mean ± SD of relative sizes. The mean sizes of the scrambled samples were artificially defined as 1.0.
kinase dead mutant of the Lats2 substantially diminished tumor suppressor function of Foxp3.

The growth inhibition pattern was largely recapitulated when the tumor cells were inoculated into the mammary fat pad. A typical example is presented in Figure 6B and the growth kinetics of TSA transfected with vector alone, Foxp3 or Foxp3 + Lats2-K/R mutant is shown in Figure 6C. These data show that growth inhibitory function of FOXP3 is attenuated by Lats2-K/R. To test whether FOXP3 inhibits cell growth in prostate cancer cells, a prostate cancer cell line LNCAP was transfected with FOXP3 alone or FOXP3 plus LATS2 kinase dead mutant LATS2-K/R. The results showed that LATS2-K/R mutant reversed the inhibition of FOXP3 on LNCAP cell growth, thus implying LATS2 as a downstream target for FOXP3-mediated growth inhibition.

**FOXP3 defects contribute to Hippo inactivation in human prostate cancer**

We have recently reported overexpression of YAP protein (7) and downregulation of nuclear FOXP3 proteins (13) in prostate cancer samples. To determine whether FOXP3 downregulation contributes to defective Hippo pathway in prostate cancer, we analyzed expression of LATS2, YAP, and FOXP3 mRNA in microdissected samples. Much like FOXP3 transcripts, LATS2 is downregulated in overwhelming majority of microdissected cancer cells, in comparison with normal prostate epithelial from the same patients (Fig. 7A, top). Moreover, we have recently uncovered 4 of 20 samples that harbor somatic FOXP3 missense mutations (13). As shown in Figure 7A (bottom), in each of the 4 cases, the tumor samples show greatly reduced LATS2 levels. Interestingly, downregulation of LATS2 strongly correlates with that of FOXP3 (Fig. 7B, top). In contrast, the levels of YAP transcripts show no correlation to that of FOXP3 ($r^2 < 0.5$; Fig. 7B, bottom). Therefore, FOXP3 defects are likely a major determinant of LATS2 levels in prostate cancer. Because either overexpression of YAP or downregulation of LATS2 can lead to activation of the hippo pathway, we plotted the mRNA levels of YAP and Lats of the 20 microdissected tumor samples. As shown in Figure 7C, the two genes seemed to be independently regulated.

A major indication of Hippo activation is accumulation of YAP protein in the nuclei. Although the cohort is too small to compare the relative importance of the two events, we were interested in whether downregulation of LATS2 could lead to nuclear accumulation of YAP in samples that showed no or little upregulation of YAP mRNA. We tested 3 cases of prostate cancer samples in which YAP expression is not significantly

![Figure 6. Foxp3-mediated growth inhibition of TSA is at least partially dependent on its regulation of Lats2. A, in vitro colony formation assay. TSA cells were transfected with indicated plasmid DNA. After drug selection for 10 days, cells were stained with coomassie blue solution and then cell colonies were counted. Representative images are shown at the top, whereas the mean ± SD of colony numbers is shown in the bottom. Data shown are triplicate samples and have been repeated 3 times. B and C, Foxp3–Lats2 interaction contributes to tumor suppression. TSA cell lines with stable transfection of vector control, Foxp3, or Foxp3 in conjunction with dominant negative mutant of Lats2 were transplanted into the mammary fat pad of syngeneic BALB/c mice. The tumor sizes were monitored over a 3-week period. B, photograph of a representative tumor from each group, at 25 days after transplantation. C, kinetics of tumor growth. Data shown are mean ± SD and have been repeated 3 times. D, in vitro colony formation assay in prostate cancer cell line. Prostate cancer cell line LNCAP was transfected with indicated plasmid DNA. After drug selection for approximately 2 weeks. Cells were stained with coomassie blue solution and then cell colonies were counted. The mean ± SD of colony numbers is presented.](https://cancerres.aacrjournals.org/content/canres/71/6/2168)
elevated (red, green, and purple dots in Fig. 7C). In all 3 cases, clear accumulation of nuclear YAP was observed (see Fig. 7D for an example).

It is possible that the increase of nuclear YAP is caused by mutation of the LATS2 phosphorylation sites (S127 and S347). To address this possibility, we carried out sequence analysis of exons 2 and 6 (which encodes part of YAP that contains S127 and S347, respectively) of the YAP gene in microdissected samples. Our data revealed that none of the 20 cancer samples tested had mutation in the 2 exons. Because FOX3 defects correlated with decreased LATS2 expression, and because LATS2 downregulation correlated with increased YAP protein in the absence of either activating YAP mutation or overexpression, it is likely that FOX3 defects is a cause of YAP activation in the prostate cancer.

### Discussion

**FOX3** is an X-linked tumor suppressor gene for breast and prostate cancers (13, 14, 23). As a transcription factor, **FOX3** has been shown to both downregulate oncogenes, including **ERBB2** (14), **SKP2** (15), and **c-MYC** (13) and upregulate tumor suppressors such as **p21** (16). Here we showed a tumor suppressor relay between the **FOX3** and **Hippo** pathways.

Our data show that FOX3 directly interacts with the LATS2 promoter region to enhance the expression of LATS2 gene. The induction of LATS2 caused increased phosphorylation and reduction of total levels of oncoprotein YAP. Using a dominant-negative LATS2 mutant, we showed a critical role for the FOX3–LATS2 regulation in tumor suppressor function of FOX3. The cross-regulation has been shown in both normal and malignant cells in mouse and human. These data not only
further elucidate the mechanism of FOXP3-mediated tumor suppression but also broaden the impact of FOXP3 in pathogenesis of both breast and prostate cancer.

The FOXP3–LATS2 connection may contribute to the frequent loss of LATS2 transcripts and protein in breast (9) and prostate (10) cancers as high frequency of cancer sampled show mutation, deletion, and/or abnormal expression of FOXP3 (13–15, 24). The strong correlation between down-regulation (or mutations) of FOXP3 and LATS2 expression, as shown here with microdissected prostate cancer samples, indicate that, at least for prostate cancer, defects in FOXP3 are likely a major mechanism for LATS2 loss. Our data from breast cancer and prostate cancer samples also show a significant correlation between loss of nuclear FOXP3 protein and LATS2 protein in cancer cells. However, the correlation is less striking than the prostate cancer samples. This variance in degree of correlations in the 2 cancers may be caused by the higher sensitivity and accuracy of real-time PCR analysis of microdissected samples than immunohistochemistry of TMA samples. Alternatively, it is also possible that the relative importance of FOXP3 defects in LATS2 downregulation differs in the 2 cancer types.

It is well documented that YAP protein is frequently upregulated in human cancer, including prostate (7), breast (25), colon (25), ovary (25), lung (25, 26), and liver (7, 27) cancers. At least 3 mechanisms can be involved in the elevation of the YAP protein. First, YAP gene resides in 11q22, which is amplified in at least 30% of breast (25), ovary (25), lung (25, 26), and liver (7, 27) cancers. This amplification of the YAP protein upregulation in prostate cancer. Therefore, YAP mutation is unlikely a major cause of YAP protein upregulation in prostate cancer.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

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References


FOXP3 Orchestrates H4K16 Acetylation and H3K4 Trimethylation for Activation of Multiple Genes by Recruiting MOF and Causing Displacement of PLU-1

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SUMMARY

Both H4K16 acetylation and H3K4 trimethylation are required for gene activation. However, it is still largely unclear how these modifications are orchestrated by transcriptional factors. Here, we analyzed the mechanism of the transcriptional activation by FOXP3, an X-linked suppressor of autoimmune diseases and cancers. FOXP3 binds near transcriptional start sites of its target genes. By recruiting MOF and displacing histone H3K4 demethylase PLU-1, FOXP3 increases both H4K16 acetylation and H3K4 trimethylation at the FOXP3-associated chromatin of multiple FOXP3-activated genes. RNAi-mediated silencing of MOF reduced both gene activation and tumor suppression by FOXP3, while both somatic mutations in clinical cancer samples and targeted mutation of FOXP3 in mouse prostate epithelial cells disrupted nuclear localization of MOF. Our data demonstrate a pull-push model in which a single transcriptional regulator orchestrates two epigenetic alterations necessary for gene activation and provide a mechanism for somatic inactivation of the FOXP3 protein function in cancer cells.

INTRODUCTION

FOXP3 was initially identified by severe autoimmune diseases associated with its mutations in mouse and human (Bennett et al., 2001; Brunkow et al., 2001; Chatila et al., 2000; Hori et al., 2003; Wildin et al., 2001), and has emerged as a key transcriptional regulator for the development and function of regulatory T cells (Treg) (Fontenot et al., 2003; Hori et al., 2003). Recently FOXP3 has emerged as an important X-linked tumor suppressor for breast and prostate cancers, as it is somatically inactivated in both prostate and breast cancer samples (Liu et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2009a; Zuo et al., 2007b). A spontaneous germline mutation of Foxp3 in female mice resulted in significantly increased incidences of mammary carcinoma (Zuo et al., 2007b), while prostate-specific deletion of Foxp3 caused prostatic hyperplasia and prostatic intraepithelial neoplasm (Wang et al., 2009a). As a transcription factor, FOXP3 directly regulates transcription of important cancer-related genes such as ERBB2 (Her2/neu) (Zuo et al., 2007b), c-MYC (Wang et al., 2009a), SKP2 (Zuo et al., 2007a), and p21 (Liu et al., 2009). However, how FOXP3 regulates gene expression is largely unclear.

Dynamic histone modifications play a pivotal role in the regulation of gene transcription (Strahl and Allis, 2000). A subset of specific histone modification results in chromatin condensation (inactive state for transcription), while other subsets of histone modifications facilitate chromatin decondensation (active state for transcription). Within the eukaryotic genome, actively transcribed euchromatin is marked with acetyl-H3 and acetyl-H4 and trimethylation of H3K4 (H3K4me3), while transcriptionally inactive heterochromatin exhibits hypoacetylation of H3 and H4 and trimethylation of H3K27 (H3K27me3) and K9 (H3K9me3) and H4K20 (H4K20me3) (Lee and Workman, 2007; Martin and Zhang, 2005). Among lysine residues on histone H4, acetylation of H4K16 (H4K16ac) is thought to be a founder event of H4 acetylation and plays an important role in active transcription, presumably by facilitating chromatin decondensation (Dion et al., 2005; Robinson et al., 2008; Shogren-Knaak et al., 2006). H3K4me3, occurring at transcription start sites (TSS), is also correlated with active transcription (Martin and Zhang, 2005).
Figure 1. FOXP3-ChIP-Seq Analysis Identified Direct Target Genes of FOXP3 in MCF7 Cells

(A) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(B) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(C) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(D) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(E) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(F) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

(G) Distribution of FOXP3-binding sites revealed by ChIP-seq in relation to TSS of genes. The x axis represents the distance between ChIP-peaks and TSSs of genes; the y axis indicates the number of binding sites.

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These histone modifications are regulated by a variety of enzymes. MOF is a MYST family histone acetyltransferase and specifically acetylates histone H4K16 (Dou et al., 2005; Smith et al., 2005; Taipale et al., 2005). Likewise, methylation of H3K4 is positively regulated by SET domain-containing histone methyltransferases, such as MLL/SET1 family members (MLL1-4 and hSET1), and negatively regulated by histone demethylases, such as JARID family members (e.g., PLU-1) and as yet unidentified enzymes (Martin and Zhang, 2005; Mosammaparast and Shi, 2010; Shi and Whetstine, 2007). MOF and MLL1 work in concert to activate the HOX gene by facilitating both H4K16ac and H3K4me3 at the promoter (Dou et al., 2005). However, how these two enzymes are recruited to specific loci by transcription factors is largely unknown.

Dysregulations of histone modifications are important hallmarks of cancer cells (Chi et al., 2010). Significant downregulations of H4K16ac and H4K20me3 in the global genome were observed in various cancers (Fraga et al., 2005). Multiple histone modification enzymes, such as JARID1C, PLU-1, LSD1, SETD2, UTX, EZH2, and MOF, are aberrantly expressed or somatically mutated in cancers (Dalglish et al., 2010; Duns et al., 2010; Kleer et al., 2003; Lu et al., 2010; Pfister et al., 2008; Yamane et al., 2007). Moreover, HDAC inhibitors have shown promising effects in cancer therapy (Minucic and Pelicic, 2006). These data suggest that improper histone modifications play an important role in the molecular pathogenesis of cancers.

Since FOXP3 changes various histone modifications, including H3K27me3, H3K4me3, and acetylation of H3 and H4 at binding loci (Pan et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2007), it is plausible that FOXP3 works in concert with histone modification enzymes to exert its function as a transcription factor. Supporting this hypothesis, recent studies revealed that FOXP3 interacts with histone acetyltransferase TIP60, HDACs, and histone modifying complex EOs/CtBP1 on chromatin to repress its target genes (Li et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2009). While Fopx3 appears to increase H3K4me3 levels at its binding sites in T cells (Zheng et al., 2007), a general mechanism of FOXP3-mediated gene activation remains elusive. In breast cancer cells, FOXP3 increases H3 acetylation by removing HDAC2 and HDAC4 from its binding site at the p21 locus (Liu et al., 2009).

We carried out chromatin-immunoprecipitation followed by next-generation sequencing (Chi-seq) to identify FOXP3-binding sites in breast cancer cells. In combination with microarray analysis, we identified at least 845 direct targets. FOXP3-mediated gene activation correlated with both H4K16ac and H3K4me3. For multiple FOXP3 target genes, these crucial epigenetic modifications are simultaneously achieved by recruiting MOF and by displacing an H3K4 demethylase PLU-1. Our data suggest a pull-push model for gene activation by transcription factors.

RESULTS

Characterization of FOXP3-Binding Sites in Breast Cancer Cells

As a source of chromatin for ChiP-Seq, we induced FOXP3 in MCF7 human breast cancer cells with a FOXP3-tet-off system (Zuo et al., 2007b). The DNA precipitated by control-IgG was used as a control. Remarkably, FOXP3 binding was highly focused to regions less than 100 bp of TSS (Figure 1A). We combined the ChiP-seq result with our previous gene expression analysis of FOXP3-induced MCF7 cells (MIAExpress; E-MTAB-73) (Liu et al., 2009). As analyzed in Figure S1, FOXP3-binding sites of putative direct targets were most frequently located within 1 kb of TSS and, when the accumulating events were considered, most of the FOXP3-binding sites reside within 2 kb of TSS. Therefore, we defined direct target genes according to the following criteria: (1) genes with FOXP3 binding within 2 kb of their TSS, and (2) genes whose mRNA expressions in FOXP3-induced cells were >150% or <66% of those in control cells (Liu et al., 2009). Among a total of 4,067 genes that have FOXP3-binding sites within 2 kb of their TSS (Figure 1B), we identified 845 direct target genes, in which 270 and 575 genes were repressed and activated by FOXP3, respectively (Figure 1B and Tables S1 and S2). Importantly, FOXP3-binding sites of these direct targets were also highly enriched around their TSS, although the distribution is slightly broader than the total pool of FOXP3-bound genes (Figure 1C). A known forkhead DNA motif was significantly enriched among the FOXP3-binding sites (Figure 1D and Table S3), which indicated the robustness of our ChiP-seq analysis. The specific interactions of FOXP3 and the effects on gene expression were validated by ChiP-qPCR and RT-qPCR (Figures 1E and 1F), respectively. Gene ontology analysis revealed that FOXP3’s direct targets were significantly enriched for genes related to cancer biology, cell cycles, cell death, and cellular development (Figure 1G). Since normal epithelial cells expressed less FOXP3 than what was used for
the study, we tested whether, at levels found in normal epithelial cells, FOXP3 also induced a similar spectrum of gene activation. As shown in Figure S2, inducing FOXP3 at levels found in normal breast/prostate epithelial cells also caused broad activation of most of the genes identified when higher levels of FOXP3 were induced, although the magnitude of gene activation is less pronounced. Moreover H4K16ac- and H3K4me3-ChIP on the LYPD1 promoter clearly showed that these histone modifications were also affected by the physiological expression of FOXP3 (Figure S2D). Furthermore, we evaluated the effects of shRNA silencing of FOXP3 by profiling mRNA expression of putative FOXP3 targets in MCF10A, an immortalized but nontumorigenic breast epithelial cell line. As shown in Figure S2E, 41%–46% of the activated FOXP3 targets in MCF7 cells were significantly downregulated by the FOXP3-knockdown in MCF10A cells. This is significantly higher than either unaffected or upregulated genes (p < 0.05). Thus, high proportions of FOXP3 targets identified by our FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 system are physiologically relevant.

Other groups have performed global FOXP3-ChIP analyses using human or mouse Treg cells (Birzele et al., 2011; Marson et al., 2007; Sadlon et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2007). We compared our ChIP-seq results with those from others (Figure S3). When compared to human FOXP3-ChIP databases, 58.5% (494/845) of the FOXP3 targets genes in MCF7 cells overlapped with either or both of previous databases (Figure S3A). This overlap is considerably greater than other pairwise comparisons. When compared to mouse Foxp3-ChIP databases, only 13.4% (113/845 genes) of our genes were overlapped with previous databases (Figure S3B). However, human Treg FOXP3-ChIP and mouse Treg Foxp3-ChIP also showed only small overlaps (Figure S3C). Likewise, <10% overlaps were observed in two reports of mouse FOXP3 targets (Figure S3C).

**FOXP3 Induces H4K16ac on Both Activated and Repressed Target Genes by Recruiting MOF**

In Tregs, a subset of histone modifications such as H3K27me3 and acetyl-H3 are known to be correlated with the FOXP3 binding (Pan et al., 2009; Zheng et al., 2007). We confirmed that these histone modifications were also affected by FOXP3 in MCF7 cells (Figure S4). Acetyl-H4 is an important histone mark for gene activation, and a previous study reported that FOXP3 directly or indirectly mediates acetylation of pan-histone H4 in T cells (Pan et al., 2009). Histone H4 has various lysine residues which can be substrates for acetylation and, among them, H4K16ac is a founder event of the H4 acetylation (Dion et al., 2005). In order to investigate whether or not the H4K16ac is correlated with FOXP3-mediated gene activation in MCF7 cells, we compared H4K16ac levels at FOXP3 binding sites before and after FOXP3 induction. Surprisingly, ChIP-qPCR at FOXP3 binding sites of randomly chosen four activated and three repressed promoters demonstrated broad inductions of H4K16ac by FOXP3, regardless of whether the genes were activated or repressed (Figure 2A). To substantiate the broad correlation between FOXP3 binding and H4K16ac, we performed a confocal imaging analysis. As shown in Figures 2B and 2C, FOXP3 and H4K16ac exhibited an almost complete overlap throughout the nuclei of the MCF7 cells (Specificity controls are provided in Figure S5). The complete overlap was observed in all cells analyzed (10/10, data not shown).

Since the histone acetyltransferase MOF is both necessary and sufficient for a great majority of H4K16ac in mammals (Li and Dou, 2010), the broad correlation between FOXP3 binding and H4K16ac suggested that FOXP3 may recruit MOF to its binding sites. To test this hypothesis, we performed anti-FLAG-ChIP before and after FOXP3 induction using FLAG-MOF-transfected FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells. As shown in Figure 3A, FOXP3 specifically recruited MOF onto FOXP3-binding sites. Confocal microscope analyses revealed virtual overlaps...
Figure 3. FOXP3 Interacts with MOF at the Chromatin of FOXP3 Target Genes
(A) FLAG-MOF was expressed in FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells, and ChIP-qPCR was performed using an anti-FLAG antibody. White and colored (red, green, and black) bars represent percentage of input DNA before and after FOXP3 induction, respectively. Error bars represent +1 SD of triplicate qPCR. *: p < 0.05 (t test). n.s.: not significant. Western blots of FOXP3 and MOF are shown in the bottom right panel. DOX: doxycycline.
(B) A representative confocal image of the MCF7 cell transfected with FOXP3 and MOF. FOXP3 (red) and MOF (green) were stained by anti-FOXP3 and anti-MOF antibodies, respectively. Similar patterns were observed in all ten cells analyzed.
(C) A signal intensity profile of the FOXP3 and MOF in the MCF7 cell in Figure 3B is shown. Red, green, and blue graphs indicate signal intensities of FOXP3, MOF, and DAPI, respectively.
(D) Colocalization of MOF, H4K16ac, and FOXP3 on chromatin as revealed by immunofluorescence after in situ subcellular fractionation. Controls are shown in Figure S6. Signal intensity profile of the confocal image is shown in the bottom panel. Red, green, and blue graphs indicate signal intensities of FOXP3, H4K16ac, and DAPI, respectively. Similar patterns were observed in all ten cells analyzed.
between FOXP3 and MOF throughout the nuclei in both MCF7 (Figures 3B and 3C) and 293T cells (data not shown). In order to confirm that the interaction between FOXP3 and MOF occurs on the chromatin, we performed immunofluorescent staining after in situ fractionation of the transfected cells. The procedure removed most of the cytoplasm, nuclear envelope, and nucleoplasm, as judged by disappearance of γ-tubulin and Lamin B1, while retained chromatin based on the H3 staining (Figure S6). As shown in Figure 3D, both MOF and H4K16ac overlapped with FOXP3, which confirmed the FOXP3-MOF interaction on the chromatin. We performed coimmunoprecipitation (coIP) to determine if MOF and overexpressed FOXP3 associate with each other. As shown in Figure 3E, an anti-MOF antibody targeting endogenous MOF brought down FOXP3 induced in the FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells. Furthermore, reciprocal coIP, using 293T cells where FOXP3 and MOF were exogenously expressed, unequivocally demonstrated that Myc-tagged FOXP3 and FLAG-tagged MOF physically interacted with each other (Figure 3F).

We took two approaches to rule out the possibility that their interaction was due to their association with DNA. First, we tested if the interaction could be disrupted by either ethidium bromide or pretreatment with DNase I. As shown in Figure 3G, neither treatment affected MOF-FOXP3 complex. Second, we evaluated if deletion of the forhead DNA-binding domain prevented the FOXP3-MOF interaction. As shown in Figure 3H, the deletion mutant coprecipitated with the MOF.

Since the above studies involve FOXP3-transfected cells, we sought to confirm that the endogenous FOXP3 interact with endogenous MOF by both confocal microscopy and coIP. As shown in Figure 3I, essentially all FOXP3 (green dots) colocalized with endogenous MOF (red dots) in U2OS sarcoma cells. Perhaps because of an excess of MOF, not all MOF was found to be associated with endogenous FOXP3 in tumor cells. Given the important function of FOXP3 in Treg, we used coIP to determine if endogenous FOXP3 interact with MOF in Treg. As shown in Figure 3J, anti-MOF precipitated FOXP3. We have not been able to use anti-FOXP3 mAb to coprecipitate MOF. However, it is notable that even in the overexpression system, anti-FOXP3 mAb failed to coprecipitate MOF (data not shown). We suspect that the mAb we used blocked the FOXP3-MOF interaction, as the anti-Myc mAb precipitated both Myc-tagged FOXP3 and FLAG-tagged MOF from the same lysates (Figures 3F and 3H).

A Major Role of MOF in FOXP3-Mediated Global Gene Expression and Tumor Suppressive Function

In order to investigate whether MOF is required for FOXP3-dependent gene activation, we treated FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells with RNAi duplexes targeting endogenous MOF or control RNAI duplex (Figure 4A). In this model, induced FOXP3 expression was identical between control RNAI and MOF-RNAI-treated cells both in protein and mRNA levels (Figures 4A and 4C). Global mRNA expression analysis revealed that endogenous MOF knockdown impaired FOXP3-dependent gene activation in most, if not all, of the direct target genes (Figure 4B). Approximately 41.0% of target genes showed more than 30% impairment of FOXP3-mediated gene activation by MOF-RNAI as compared to control RNAI. In contrast, in FOXP3-mediated gene repression, the affected gene numbers and magnitude of impairments by the MOF knockdown seemed to be considerably smaller (Figure 4C). Thus, at the global level, MOF plays a more important role in FOXP3-mediated gene activation than in gene repression. Using real-time PCR, we confirmed the impacts of MOF knockdown on the FOXP3-dependent transcriptional activations of six randomly chosen activated target genes (Figure 4D).

Next, we sought to investigate whether MOF is also important for FOXP3-mediated biological consequences in epithelial cells, as well as for FOXP3-mediated gene regulation. Since FOXP3 in cancer cells showed significant cell growth suppression (Liu et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2009a; Zuo et al., 2007b), we tested if MOF knockdown would attenuate the growth suppressive function of FOXP3 in cancer cells. Interestingly, in this assay, only MOF knockdown without FOXP3 induction showed significant suppression of cell growth in MCF7 cells (Figure 4E), which is consistent with a recent report showing that Mof knockout significantly suppressed cell growth in mouse cells (Li et al., 2010). Despite such a progrowth function of MOF, the growth suppression induced by FOXP3 was significantly impaired by the MOF knockdown (Figures 4E and 4F), showing an important role of MOF in the tumor suppressive function of FOXP3.

Somatic Mutations of FOXP3 Disrupt FOXP3-MOF Colocalization in the Nuclei and Attenuate Acetylation of H4K16

In order to further investigate how FOXP3 and MOF interact with each other, we generated deletion and point mutants of FOXP3 (Figures 3B and 3C) and 293T cells (data not shown). In order to confirm that the interaction between FOXP3 and MOF occurs on the chromatin, we performed immunofluorescent staining after in situ fractionation of the transfected cells. The procedure removed most of the cytoplasm, nuclear envelope, and nucleoplasm, as judged by disappearance of γ-tubulin and Lamin B1, while retained chromatin based on the H3 staining (Figure S6). As shown in Figure 3D, both MOF and H4K16ac overlapped with FOXP3, which confirmed the FOXP3-MOF interaction on the chromatin. We performed coimmunoprecipitation (coIP) to determine if MOF and overexpressed FOXP3 associate with each other. As shown in Figure 3E, an anti-MOF antibody targeting endogenous MOF brought down FOXP3 induced in the FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells. Furthermore, reciprocal coIP, using 293T cells where FOXP3 and MOF were exogenously expressed, unequivocally demonstrated that Myc-tagged FOXP3 and FLAG-tagged MOF physically interacted with each other (Figure 3F).

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Since the above studies involve FOXP3-transfected cells, we sought to confirm that the endogenous FOXP3 interact with endogenous MOF by both confocal microscopy and coIP. As shown in Figure 3I, essentially all FOXP3 (green dots) colocalized with MOF (red dots) in U2OS sarcoma cells. Perhaps because of an excess of MOF, not all MOF was found to be associated with endogenous FOXP3 in tumor cells. Given the important function of FOXP3 in Treg, we used coIP to determine if endogenous FOXP3 interact with MOF in Treg. As shown in Figure 3J, anti-MOF precipitated FOXP3. We have not been able to use anti-FOXP3 mAb to coprecipitate MOF. However, it is notable that even in the overexpression system, anti-FOXP3 mAb failed to coprecipitate MOF (data not shown). We suspect that the mAb we used blocked the FOXP3-MOF interaction, as the anti-Myc mAb precipitated both Myc-tagged FOXP3 and FLAG-tagged MOF from the same lysates (Figures 3F and 3H).
Figure 4. MOF Plays an Important Role in the FOXP3-Mediated Gene Activation and in the FOXP3-Dependent Cell Growth Repression

(A) RNAi-mediated knockdown of endogenous MOF was performed in the FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells together with FOXP3 induction. Protein expression levels of MOF and FOXP3 were examined by western blots with anti-MOF and anti-FOXP3 antibodies.

(B and C) Global mRNA expression analysis of direct target genes of FOXP3 with and without MOF knockdown. RNAi #2 was used in this analysis, as the knockdown is more efficient. (B) The heat map represents ratios of mRNA expressions before and after FOXP3 induction in control-RNAi and MOF-RNAi-treated MCF7 cells (expression values in cells without FOXP3 induction were normalized to 1.0). Color scale of the heat map is indicated at the bottom of the figure. (C) Bar graph represents log-scaled ratio of the relative mRNA expression between control-RNAi and MOF-RNAi groups. Dashed lines (red and green) represent log
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For Performing Immunohisto-(D) qRT-PCR was performed to examine mRNA levels of FOXP3’s target genes with and without MOF knockdown. The control-RNAi-treated MCF7 cells. Ctrl: control. genes was revealed by ChIP-seq, and (2) mRNA expression values were increased to more than 1.5 times or decreased to less than 2/3 after FOXP3 induction in 2009a). As shown in Figure 5I, in the prostate epithelial cells, (ratio) = +0.5 (ratio = 1.41) and = −0.5 (ratio = 0.71). The “direct target genes” were defined as (1) direct binding of FOXP3 between −2 kbp and +2 kbp from TSS of genes was revealed by ChIP-seq, and (2) mRNA expression values were increased to more than 1.5 times or decreased to less than 2/3 after FOXP3 induction in the control-RNAi-treated MCF7 cells. Ctrl: control. (D) qRT-PCR was performed to examine mRNA levels of FOXP3’s target genes with and without MOF knockdown. (E and F) MOF contributes to FOXP3-mediated growth inhibition of cancer cells. (E) We plated 1.0 × 10^5 FOXP3-tet-off MCF7 cells into 6-well plates and treated them with either control- or MOF-RNAi. After 6 days of FOXP3 induction, cell numbers were counted. Microscopic pictures of the cells on day 6 are shown in the lower panel. White bars represent 20 μm. (F) Cell-growth repression rates—comparisons of cell numbers between FOXP3(-) and FOXP3(+) cells—in control- RNAi and MOF-RNAi-treated groups were calculated from the data in Figure 4E. Error bars in (E) and (F) represent +1 SD. p values were calculated by t test. *: p < 0.05; **: p < 0.005; ***: p < 0.0005. n.s.: not significant.

Both H4K16ac and H3K4me3 Are Required for FOXP3-Mediated Gene Activation

Since H4K16ac levels were significantly increased at FOXP3 binding sites regardless of whether the genes were activated or repressed, additional modifications should be required to determine the fate of FOXP3 targets. Apart from H4K16ac, H3K4me3 is an important mark of actively transcribed loci (Martin and Zhang, 2005). Moreover, it is known that MOF and MLL1 work in concert to simultaneously modify H4K16ac and H3K4me3 at promoters (Dou et al., 2005). Therefore we tested whether H3K4me3 correlated with FOXP3-dependent gene activation in MCF7 cells by an anti-H3K4me3-ChIP-qPCR. As shown in Figure 6A, FOXP3 increased H3K4me3 levels at activated binding sites, while no such impacts were observed at repressed binding sites. Consistent with the ChIP-qPCR, a confocal image showed that FOXP3 only partially overlapped with H3K4me3 (Figure 6B).

MOF (H4K16ac) and MLL1 complex (H3K4me3) work in concert to activate transcription (Dou et al., 2005). Therefore, we tested whether FOXP3 also recruits the MLL1 complex (i.e., MLL1, Rbbp5, and WDR5) to its activated binding sites. As shown in Figure 6C, ChIP-qPCR indicated that the MLL1-complex proteins were detected at FOXP3-associated chromatin regardless of the FOXP3 induction. In order to explain how FOXP3 induces H3K4me3 at its activating binding sites, we carried out a motif scanning of the FOXP3-bound regions and searched for any enriched DNA motifs among activating and repressing binding sites. Apart from the FOXP3-binding motif, the most enriched motif in the activated binding sites was a PLU-1-binding motif (Figure 7A). Interestingly, PLU-1 is a H3K4me3 demethylase and a putative onco-gene for breast cancer (Yamane et al., 2007). Importantly, the enrichment of the PLU-1 motif was specific in FOXP3’s activating binding sites (Figure 7A).

PLU-1 has a known DNA-binding motif (Figure 7B) (Scibetta et al., 2007). Strikingly, DNA-binding motifs of FOXP3 and PLU-1 were enriched at essentially overlapping regions (Figure 7C). This close proximity suggested a model in which FOXP3 binding may competitively displace PLU-1 from FOXP3-associated chromatin. To test this model, we evaluated whether FOXP3 binding reduced enrichments of PLU-1 at nuclear localization of MOF in vivo, we performed immunohisto-(D) qRT-PCR was performed to examine mRNA levels of FOXP3 and N-terminal-deleted (∆N) FOXP3 colocalized with MOF and, correspondingly, with H4K16ac in nucleus. Therefore, the N-terminal portion of FOXP3 does not regulate MOF-FOXP3 colocalization. Despite the subtle differences in the relative amounts of cytoplasmic-nuclear FOXP3, deletion mutants of either zinc finger (ZF) or leucine zipper (LZ) domains of FOXP3 (∆ZF or ∆LZ) accumulated in both cytoplasm and nuclei. In addition, these deletions had two significant effects. First, translocation of MOF to the central nuclear region was significantly reduced, with significant amounts of MOF protein accumulating in the peripheral nuclear region and the cytoplasm. Second, although substantial portions of ∆ZF-FOXP3 and ∆LZ-FOXP3 did reach the central nuclear regions, much did not colocalize with MOF or H4K16ac. As expected, deletion of the C-terminal portion (∆C) resulted in predominant cytoplasmic accumulation of FOXP3. Nevertheless, the cytoplasmic portion did not associate with MOF.

Since the ZF and LZ domains of FOXP3 are hot spots of somatic mutation in breast and prostate cancers (Wang et al., 2009a; Zuo et al., 2007b), we tested whether the somatic mutations in ZF or LZ domains affect the MOF-FOXP3 association. As shown in Figure 5C, mutations in the ZF domain, P202 > L (breast cancer) and G203 > R (prostate cancer), exhibited similar phenotypes to the ∆ZF-FOXP3. Likewise, a mutation in the LZ domain, V239 > I (breast cancer), partially phenocopied the ∆LZ-FOXP3.

To further confirm the confocal microscope analysis, we performed an anti-H4K16ac-Chip-qPCR. As shown in Figure 5D, in cells expressing ∆ZF- or ∆LZ-FOXP3s, induction of H4K16ac at FOXP3-associated chromatin were significantly reduced as compared to those in cells expressing FL-FOXP3. Correspondingly, these FOXP3 mutants were largely inactive in both growth inhibition (Figure 5E) and induction of prostates from Foxp3fl/y PB-Cre+ and Foxp3+/y PB-Cre+ mice (Wang et al., 2009b; PB-Cre+ cells, while the majority of Mof was accumulated in the nucleus in WT counterparts. Taken together, our data presented in this section demonstrated that FOXP3 directly interacts with MOF and regulates nuclear localization of MOF in both normal and cancer cells.

In order to investigate whether FOXP3 is important for the nuclear localization of MOF in vivo, we performed immunohistochemical staining of Mof using Foxp3^{+/+} or Foxp3^{−/−}prostates from the Foxp3^{+/+}PB-Cre^{+} and Foxp3^{−/−}PB-Cre^{+} mice (Wang et al., 2009a). As shown in Figure 5I, in the prostate epithelial cells, significant amounts of Mof were detected in cytoplasm of the Foxp3^{+/+}PB-Cre^{+} cells, while the majority of Mof was accumulated in the nucleus in WT counterparts. Taken together, our data presented in this section demonstrated that FOXP3 directly interacts with MOF and regulates nuclear localization of MOF in both normal and cancer cells.

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Figure 5. FOXP3 Mutations Abrogate the Proper Formation and Function of the FOXP3/MOF Complex

(A) A schematic view of the FOXP3 mutants used in this study. ZF, LZ, and FKHD represent zinc finger, leucine zipper, and forkhead domains, respectively. aa: amino acid positions. The red and blue dashed lines represent deleted regions in ΔZF- and ΔLZ-FOXP3, respectively. P202L and V239I were found in human breast cancers, and G203R was found in human prostate cancer. GST-fusion proteins used in this study are also indicated at the bottom.

(B and C) Representative confocal images. Deletion (B) and somatic mutation (C) series of FOXP3-myc/His together with FLAG-MOF were expressed in MCF7 cells, and cells were stained using anti-myc, anti-FLAG and anti-acetyl-H4K16 antibodies, as indicated. MCF7 cells transfected only with FLAG-MOF are also shown. White bars represent scale of objects. Similar patterns were observed in all five cells analyzed.

(D–F) (D) Full-length (FL) or deletion mutant FOXP3s were transfected into MCF7 cells. After 1 week of drug selection, ChIP-qPCR was performed using an anti-acetyl-H4K16 antibody. Enrichments of H4K16ac in the vector control cell were normalized to 1.0. (E) MCF7 cells were transfected with either vector, full-length FOXP3 or deletion/mutant-FOXP3, as indicated. After 2 weeks of blasticidin selection, cells were visualized by crystal violet dye, and colony numbers were counted. (F) MCF7 cells were transfected with either vector, WT-FOXP3 or mutant-FOXP3, as indicated. After 1 week of drug selection, RT-PCRs were performed. The y axis represents percentage of GAPDH expression. Error bars in (D)–(F) represent ±1 SD. p values were calculated by t test. *: p < 0.05.
FOXP3-binding sites. Fifteen activated and 11 repressed genes were chosen according to the following criteria: (1) genes whose expression was strongly affected by FOXP3—more than twice or less than half, compared to FOXP3(-) cells, and (2) both of the FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs were identified around ChIP-seq peaks (within 500 bp of the ChIP-seq peaks). As shown in Figure 7D, (G) GST pull-down assay was performed using GST-FOXP3 domains and His-MOF proteins as indicated. (H) Left panel: Beads conjugated with either GST, LZ-GST, or mutLZ(V239I)-GST were incubated with FLAG-MOF transfected 293T cell lysate. Precipitates were subjected to an immunoblot using anti-FLAG antibody. Right panel: GST pull-down assay using LZ-GST-conjugated beads was performed, incubating with and without a blocking peptide corresponding to amino acids 232–246 of FOXP3 (CLLQREMVQSEQLQ).

Figure 6. H3K4me3 Is Also Associated with the FOXP3-Mediated Gene Activation

(A) H3K4me3 levels at FOXP3-binding sites were examined by ChIP-qPCR before and after FOXP3 induction in the MCF7 cell. Error bars represent +1 SD of triplicate qPCR. *: p < 0.05 (t test). n.s.: not significant.

(B) A representative confocal image of FOXP3 (red) and H3K4me3 (green) in the MCF7 cell transfected with FOXP3. White bars represent 5 μm. Signal intensity profile of the confocal image is shown in the bottom panel. Red, green, and blue graphs indicate signal intensities of FOXP3, H3K4me3, and DAPI, respectively. A similar pattern was observed in 10/10 cells analyzed.

(C) ChIP-qPCRs targeting endogenous MLL1, endogenous RbBP5, and exogenously expressed FLAG-WDR5 were performed using anti-MLL1, anti-RbBP5, and anti-FLAG antibodies, respectively. White and colored (red, green, and black) bars represent percentage of input DNA before and after FOXP3 induction, respectively. GAPDH or 5'IG2 were used as negative controls. Error bars represent +1 SD of triplicate qPCR. n.s.: not significant (p > 0.05, t test).

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Figure 7. FOXP3 Facilitates H3K4me3 Presumably by Replacing Histone Demethylase(s) from Its Binding Sites: A Hypothetical Model

(A) Transcription-factor-binding motifs that were significantly enriched among FOXP3-binding sites at either activated or repressed gene promoters are listed. Top ten ranked motifs as sorted by overrepresentation scores were included. Statistical significances were evaluated by Z score according to the database http://www.genomatix.de.

(B) A known DNA-binding motif of PLU-1.

(C) Genomic regions around the FOXP3-ChIP-seq peaks were partitioned into 150 bp windows, and enrichments of the forkhead (FOXP3) and PLU-1 motifs among each of these 150 bp partitions are evaluated by the overrepresentation scores as in Figure 7A. The YY1 motif was used as an unrelated negative control. *: forkhead motifs were not identified in these regions.
induction of FOXP3 significantly reduced the binding of PLU-1 at 9 out of 15 activated promoters. FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs were essentially overlapped at p21, YPEL2, and ITGB8 promoters and located closely at other promoters (Figure S7). Interestingly, the distance between FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs is likely a major contributor to the displacements of PLU-1 caused by FOXP3, as all nine genes that showed significant displacements of PLU-1 had FOXP3 motifs within 100 bp from the PLU-1 motif (Figure S8). However, proximity of the binding sites is not sufficient, since displacements were not observed in two genes with a distance of <100 bp (Figure S8). Importantly, no displacements of PLU-1 were observed among repressed genes (Figure 7D). Since JARID1 family members may not always bind to chromatin in a DNA sequence-specific fashion, it is possible that, at the repressed promoters, PLU-1 binds to other chromatin-associated proteins and is not displaced when FOXP3 binds to the loci.

**DISCUSSION**

Our integrated analysis of FOXP3-binding sites and gene regulation presented herein identified 845 direct targets in a cancer cell. The most remarkable feature of the FOXP3-binding sites is their proximity to TSS. Such proximity strongly suggests a direct involvement of FOXP3 in the regulation of transcription. The precise identification of FOXP3-binding sites also allows us to define how FOXP3 coordinates local histone modifications (Jenuwein and Allis, 2001; Lee et al., 2010). We have demonstrated a broad requirement of MOF in FOXP3-mediated gene activation, while the impact of MOF knockdown on FOXP3-dependent gene repression was negligible. Surprisingly, FOXP3 induces local H4K16ac regardless of whether the genes are activated or repressed. The strong association between FOXP3 and H4K16ac is due to a direct interaction between FOXP3 and MOF. These data raise two intriguing issues. First, how can the H4K16ac be recognized as a part of repressive histone codes in FOXP3-mediated gene repression? While a definitive answer remains to be elucidated, it is of note that in embryonic stem cells, H3K4me3 and H3K27me3 can frequently be observed at the same loci in transcriptionally silenced genes (Mikkelsen et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2007; Vastenhouw et al., 2010). The authors proposed a bivalent histone code in which a mixture of activating (H3K4me3) and repressive (H3K27me3) histone codes could be read as a repressive code. Since repressed targets of FOXP3 exhibit significantly increased H3K27me3 levels, it is likely that H3K27me3 (repressive code) somehow overrides the H4K16ac (activating code) to cause gene silencing at FOXP3-associated chromatin. Second, what other histone modifications cooperate with H4K16ac to constitute activating histone codes for the activated target genes? Considering a previous report demonstrating that MLL1 complex cooperates with MOF in Hox gene activation (Dou et al., 2005), we tested whether FOXP3 also recruits MLL1 complex to activate target genes. In this case, although MLL1 complexes were found at FOXP3 target sites, their recruitments are FOXP3-independent. Of note, since FOXP3 recruited neither RbBP5 nor WDR5 to its binding sites, it is unlikely that other MLL/SET1 family methyltransferases are recruited by FOXP3. Steady state levels of H3K4me3 can be maintained by both H3K4 methyltransferases and H3K4 demethylases (Shi et al., 2004; Shi and Whetstine, 2007; Yamane et al., 2007). Since our ChiP-qPCR revealed that FOXP3-binding sites are basically decorated with MLL1 even before FOXP3 inductions, it is intriguing that displacements of H3K4 demethylase(s) may explain how the H3K4me3 is induced by FOXP3. We identified closely located enrichments of FOXP3 and PLU-1 motifs specifically among activated targets. This selectivity prompted us to test and confirm a hypothesis that FOXP3 causes displacement of PLU-1 from at least a major subset of activated FOXP3-binding regions. We demonstrated that FOXP3 significantly displaced PLU-1 at 9 out of 15 (60.0%) activated targets tested. It would be of interest to determine whether displacement of other H3K4me3 demethylases is responsible for activation of FOXP3 targets.

H3K4me3 recruits various downstream effectors to activate transcription of the loci (Chi et al., 2010; Levy and Gozani, 2010; Ruthenburg et al., 2007). For example, chromatin remodeling NURF complex and PHD finger-containing ING family and human SAGA complexes can specifically recognize H3K4me3 (Chi et al., 2010; Levy and Gozani, 2010; Vermeulen et al., 2010). Among them, BPTF in NURF complex is of particular interest, since BPTF can recognize both H3K4me3 and H4K16ac by its PHD and bromo domains, respectively (Kwon et al., 2009; Wysocka et al., 2006). A more recent study demonstrated that the H3K4me3 and H4K16ac combination is selectively recognized by BPTF if they are present in the same mononucleosome (Ruthenburg et al., 2011). It is plausible that BPTF may be selectively recruited to the FOXP3-bound chromatin to initiate chromatin remodeling necessary for transcriptional activation.

Based on these considerations, we hereby propose a model by which FOXP3 activates multiple, although not necessarily all, target genes (Figure 7E). In essence, FOXP3 pulls MOF to its binding sites, where the MOF induces H4K16ac. Perhaps by competitive DNA binding or other unknown mechanisms, FOXP3 causes displacement of H3K4 demethylase(s) from FOXP3-binding sites and thereby increases H3K4me3. FOXP3 may thus create a histone code (H4K16ac/H3K4me3) locally, perhaps within a nucleosome, which leads to active transcription, as recently reported by Ruthenburg et al. (2011).

Our data provided here also explain a mechanism for functional inactivation of FOXP3 protein in cancer cells. We presented direct evidence that MOF is required not only for FOXP3-mediated gene activation but also for FOXP3-dependent cell-growth suppression in cancer cells. Therefore, it is not surprising that this interaction is targeted during tumorigenesis,
as demonstrated herein. Our data is consistent with previous reports that MOF expression is frequently downregulated in tumors (Pfister et al., 2008) and that global H4K16ac levels are significantly reduced in breast cancer cells (Fraga et al., 2005). Paradoxically, it was recently reported that MOF promotes the survival of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (Li et al., 2010). Likewise, our data also showed that, in the absence of FOXP3, silencing of MOF retarded the growth of MCF7 cells. Therefore, the function of MOF in growth likely depends on the activity of other tumor suppressors. Since our data showed that aberrant expression of FOXP3 affects nuclear localization of MOF, it is of interest to determine whether the documented defects of FOXP3 nuclear localization (Kato et al., 2010; Ladoire et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2010) explain defective H4K16ac in clinical breast cancer samples (Fraga et al., 2005).

**EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES**

**Cell Lines, Plasmids, Bacterial Expression Vectors, and Oligonucleotides**

An MCF7 human breast cancer cell line with a FOXP3-tet-off system was described previously (Zuo et al., 2007b). 293T and MCF7 cells were cultured with DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and P/S. FOXP3-myc/His, 3×FLAG-MOF -mO and -WD repeat were cloned into pCDNA6 (Invitrogen, CA) and p3×FLAG-CMV-7.1 (Sigma Aldrich, MO) vectors, respectively. Deletion constructs of FOXP3 and mutant FOXP3s were cloned using GeneTailor Site-Directed Mutagenesis System (Invitrogen), using pcDNA6-FOXP3-myc/His as a template according to the manufacturer's protocol. Leucine zipper and zinc finger domains of FOXP3 were cloned into pGEX-KG vector (ATCC, VA). DNA and RNAi oligonucleotides used in this study are listed in Table S4.

**Antibodies**

Commercial antibodies used in this study were as follows: mouse anti-FOXP3 (eBiomed, CA), rabbit anti-MOF (A300–392A, Bethyl Laboratories, TX), mouse anti-actin (ab3280, Abcam, MA), rabbit anti-acetyl-H4 at K16 (#07-329, Millipore, MA), rabbit anti-trimethyl-H3 at K4 (#9727, Cell Signaling, MA), rabbit anti-acetyl-H3 (#9677, Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-trimethyl-H3 at K27 (#07-449, Millipore), rabbit anti-RbBP5 (A300–109A, Bethyl Laboratories), rabbit anti-PLU-1 (ab50958, Abcam), mouse anti-FLAG (clone M2, Sigma Aldrich), mouse anti-myc (9E10, Covance, NJ), mouse anti-6×His (34860, QIAGEN, MA), goat anti-mouse IgG Alexa Fluor 568-conjugated (A11031, Invitrogen), and goat anti-rabbit IgG Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated (A11034, Invitrogen). For immunofluorescent staining of U2OS cells, rabbit anti-FOXP3 (ab10563, Abcam) and mouse anti-PLU-1 (ab34275, Abcam) were used. Rabbit anti-MLL1c antibody was raised as described previously (Dou et al., 2005). Blocking peptide for the MOF antibody (BP300-992) was used for immunohistochemistry.

**ChIP-Sequence and Data Analysis**

ChIP DNA libraries were modified for sequencing using ChIP-Seq Sample Prep Kit (Illumina, CA) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. ChIP-seq was performed using Illumina Genome Analyzer (Illumina) as described previously (Yu et al., 2010). Briefly, raw sequence data were processed by Illumina analysis pipeline, aligned onto unmasked human genome (NCBI build 36, hg18) using ELAND software (Illumina). Hpeak, a Hidden Markov Model (HMM)-based peak-identifying algorithm (Qin et al., 2010), was used. Assuming the average size of ChIP-DNA fragments was 200 bp (range: 175–225 bp), we extended each of the 36 bp sequencing read to make a 200 bp hypothetical genomic DNA fragment (HDF). Under the null hypothesis of no enrichment in the FOXP3-ChIP treated sample versus IgG-ChIP control sample, the numbers of HDFs from the two libraries were assumed to follow the same distribution. The entire genome was partitioned into 25 bp windows and HDF was applied to define where FOXP3-enriched regions start and end. Assignments of ChIP-seq peaks with coding genes were defined as follows: (1) if a binding site locates in introns or exons of a gene, it was assigned to this gene; (2) if a site is between genes, it was assigned to the nearest downstream gene. Searching for transcription factor binding motifs was performed using MatInspector (Cartharius et al., 2005), as part of the Genomatix software suite (Genomatix Software GmbH, Munich, Germany) (www.genomatix.de). Over-representations of motifs in the FOXP3 ChIP-enriched peaks were evaluated against length-matched control sequences that were randomly selected from human promoter genomic sequences.

**Immunofluorescence after In Situ Subcellular Fractionation**

FOXP3-myc/His and FLAG-MOF were transfected into MCF7 cells. Before proceeding to fixations for immunofluorescent stainings, in situ subcellular fractionation was performed as described (Sawadscihai et al., 2010) with some modifications. Briefly: (1) the cytoplasmic fraction of the cells was removed by incubating culture slides on ice for 1 min in a buffer containing 10 mM PIPES, 300 mM sucrose, 100 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 1 mM EGTA, and 0.1% Triton-X; (2) the culture slides were washed twice by PBS; (3) the nuclear fraction of the cells was removed by incubating the culture slides on ice for 20 min in a buffer containing 10 mM PIPES, 300 mM sucrose, 100 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 1 mM EGTA, and 0.5% Triton-X; (4) the culture slides were washed three times by PBS; (5) Immunofluorescent stainings were then performed.

**SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION**

Supplemental Information includes eight figures, four tables, and Supplemental References and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2011.10.012.

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