

Residues K128, 132, and 134 in the Thyroid Hormone Receptor- α Are Essential for Receptor Acetylation and Activity

Aurora Sánchez-Pacheco, Olaia Martínez-Iglesias, Marinela Méndez-Pertuz, and Ana Aranda

Departamento de Bioquímica (A.S.-P., O.M.-I., A.A.), Instituto de Investigaciones Biomédicas Alberto Sols, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas-Universidad Autónoma de Madrid; and Centro de Investigaciones Oncológicas (M.M.-P.), 28029 Madrid, Spain

The thyroid hormone receptor (TR)- α is a nuclear receptor that mediates both transrepression and ligand-dependent transactivation. Here we show that TR α is posttranslationally modified by acetylation in response to its own ligand (T₃). Acetylation increases binding to DNA. Using mutagenesis, we identified three conserved lysine residues in the carboxi-terminal extension (CTE) of the DNA binding domain that are targets of the cAMP-response element-binding protein acetyltransferase. Substitution of these lysines by arginines in TR α decreased ligand binding affinity and precluded ligand-dependent release of corepressors and recruitment of coactivators. The acetylation TR α mutant lost the ability to transactivate even at high T₃ concentrations and acts as a dominant-negative inhibitor of wild-type TR activity. In addition, whereas native TR α interferes with AP-1 function, the mutant is unable to mediate transrepression. Finally, TR α suppresses NIH-3T3 fibroblast transformation by the Ras oncogene both in a ligand-dependent and -independent manner, but the CTE mutant is unable to mediate ligand-dependent repression of transformation. These results reveal a key role for the CTE region on acetylation, ligand affinity, transactivation, transrepression, and antitransforming properties of TR α . (*Endocrinology* 150: 5143–5152, 2009)

The gene regulatory actions of the thyroid hormone T₃ are mediated through the binding to nuclear thyroid receptors, termed thyroid hormone receptor (TR)- α and TR β , which are encoded by genes located on human chromosomes 17 and 3, respectively. Transcripts of each of these genes undergo alternative splicing generating the TR α 1 and - α 2 and TR β 1 and - β 2 receptor isoforms (1). The nuclear receptors have a modular structure with several regions (A/B, C, D, and E). The C region contains the DNA binding domain (DBD), composed of two zinc fingers and a α -helical C-terminal extension (CTE) that makes auxiliary contacts with DNA. Transcriptional regulation by the receptors is achieved through autonomous

activation functions (AFs): a constitutive N terminal AF-1 in the A/B region and a ligand-dependent AF-2 located in the C-terminal E region of the ligand binding domain (LBD) (1, 2). TRs can regulate gene expression by binding, preferentially as heterodimers with the retinoid X receptors (RXRs), to specific DNA sequences [thyroid hormone response elements (TREs)] located in regulatory regions of target genes (3) and by positive or negative interference with the activity of other transcription factors such as activator protein-1 (AP-1), cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB) or nuclear factor- κ B, a mechanism referred to as transcriptional cross talk (4–10). When bound to TREs the unliganded TR recruits corepressors and re-

ISSN Print 0013-7227 ISSN Online 1945-7170

Printed in U.S.A.

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doi: 10.1210/en.2009-0117 Received January 29, 2009. Accepted August 12, 2009.

First Published Online October 9, 2009

Abbreviations: ACTR, Activator of thyroid and retinoic acid receptor; AF, activation function; AP-1, activator protein-1; AR, androgen receptor; CAT, chloramphenicol acetyl transferase; CBP, cAMP-response element-binding protein acetyltransferase; CREB, cAMP response element-binding protein; CTE, C-terminal extension; DBD, DNA binding domain; ER, estrogen receptor; GST, glutathione-S-transferase; HAT, histone acetylase activity; HDAC, histone deacetylase; LBD, ligand binding domain; RXR, retinoid X receptor; SAHA, suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid; SMRT, silencing mediator of retinoid and thyroid receptors; TR, thyroid hormone receptor; TRE, thyroid hormone response element.

presses transcription, whereas ligand binding induces a conformational change in the receptor C-terminal α -helix (helix 12) that leads to the release of corepressors and the recruitment of coactivators (11, 12). Some nuclear receptor coactivators such as cAMP-response element-binding protein acetyltransferase (CBP)/p300 and the p160 proteins possess histone acetylase activity (HAT) that cause chromatin decompaction. CBP/p300 proteins acetylate histones but also p160 coactivators (13) and multiple transcription factors such as p53 (14), cellular transcription factor involved in adenovirus early region 1A (E1A) (E2F1; Ref. 15), p65 nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B; Ref. 16), or some nuclear receptors (17–23). Acetylation can regulate transcription factor activity by modulating DNA binding, protein-protein interactions, protein stability or subnuclear localization (24). The finding that the sirtuins deacetylase nuclear receptors provides a new level of complexity in the control of nuclear receptor activity (25, 26).

To date, three nuclear receptors have been shown to be CBP targets: the androgen receptor (AR) (20), the estrogen receptor (ER)- α (22, 23), and TR β (27). AR acetylation occurs in the DBD CTE in a KLKK motif corresponding to K630/K632/K633 residues, and mutation on these sites decreases corepressor binding, augments association with coactivators, and increases ligand-dependent transactivation (19). ER α acetylation that occurs in K266 and K268 sites corresponding to K632 and K633 in the AR, enhances DNA binding activity, and correlates with an increase in transcriptional activity (22). ER α contains additional sites of acetylation by p300 in K299/K302/K303 residues, and the mutant K302/K303 shows an increased estradiol-dependent activation, suggesting a role of ER α acetylation in ligand sensitivity (28).

TRs contain a KRV/LAKRK sequence equivalent to the KLKK motif in AR corresponding to K184/K188/K190 in TR β and K128/K132/K134 in TR α , but in contrast to AR and ER α , little is known about the functional consequences of TR α or TR β acetylation. There is one report describing thyroid hormone-dependent TR β acetylation, but residues responsible for acetylation have not been identified (27).

Here we show that the CTE region of the TR α DBD is also a target for acetylation by CBP and that TR α acetylation increases binding to DNA. A mutant in the acetylation region shows loss of ligand-dependent transactivation and transrepression capacity and acts as a dominant-negative on positive TREs. In addition, in contrast with the native receptor (29), the CTE mutant has lost the ability to show increased inhibition of fibroblast transformation by oncogenic Ras in the presence of hormone. Collectively, our results suggest an important role for CTE region of TR α in the transcriptional and the antioncogenic actions of this receptor.

Materials and Methods

Plasmids

pSG5-CTE, pSG5K128R, and pSG5K132/134R were generated from chicken TR α by site-directed mutagenesis with the Pfu Turbo DNA polymerase (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) by using the double stranded oligonucleotides: 5'-GACGACTCGAGGCGC-GTAGCCAGGCGGAGGCTGATCGAG-3', 5'-GACGACTC-GAGGCG CGTAGCCAAGCGGAAGCTGATCGAG-3', and 5'-GACGACTCGAAGCGCGTAGCCAGG CGGAGGCTGATCGAG-3', respectively. PCR products were digested with *DpnI*. The mutations were confirmed by sequencing. pSG5-K232I was previously described in (29).

Transient transfection assays

HeLa or HEK 293T cells were grown in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum. Cells were transfected with calcium phosphate. One microgram of the mouse mammary tumor virus luciferase reporter plasmid containing a thyroid-responsive element (MMTV-TREpal-LUC), DR4-tk-LUC (30), -39/+12 GH-CAT that contains a fragment of the rat GH gene (-39/+12) fused to chloramphenicol acetyl transferase (CAT) (31), or -73col-luc together with 0.6 μ g pRL-TK (renilla) were transfected with 0.5 μ g of expression vectors (pSG5-0, pSG5-TR α , pSG5-CTE, pSG5-K128R, or pSG5-K132/134R). Twelve hours after transfection, the cells were preincubated in DMEM supplemented with 10% AG1-X8 resin and charcoal-stripped newborn calf serum and then treated with T₃ for 36 h. Luciferase and renilla activity were assayed with a dual-luciferase assay system (Promega, Madison, WI). CAT activity was determined as previously described (31).

Synthesis and purification of recombinant proteins

Glutathione-S-transferase (GST)-fusion proteins were purified from *Escherichia coli* on glutathione-Sepharose and analyzed by SDS-PAGE. Alternatively, ³⁵S-labeled proteins were *in vitro* generated with the TNT-T7 Quick kit (Promega).

In vitro acetylation assays

GST-fusion proteins or *in vitro*-translated proteins were incubated with the HAT domain of CBP (1098-1877 fragment) fused to GST in the presence of [³H]acetyl-CoA in HAT buffer (15). The reactions were incubated at 30 C for 60 min and were analyzed in 10% SDS-PAGE. Gels were exposed with X-OMAT films (Kodak, Rochester, NY) for 2 d. Acetylation reactions with unlabeled acetyl-CoA were carried out under similar reaction conditions.

In vivo acetylation assays

GH4C1 cells that express endogenous TR α and TR β were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal serum. Twelve hours prior to T₃ and suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA) treatment, cells were incubated with DMEM containing 10% AG1-X8 resin and charcoal-stripped newborn calf serum. Cells were treated for 24 h with 5 nM T₃ and 2 μ M SAHA and then lysed in lysis buffer [50 mM HEPES (pH 8), 600 mM KCl, 0.5% Nonidet P-40, 1 mM Na₃VO₄, 1 mM dithiothreitol, protease inhibitors]. Two milligrams of whole-cell lysates were precleared and incubated overnight with 2 μ g of rabbit IgG or antiacetyl lysine-

specific antibody. The immunoprecipitated proteins were detected by Western blotting.

Western blot assays

For Western blot assays, cell extracts were prepared in lysis buffer [50 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 0.5% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 30 mM sodium pyrophosphate (PPi), 0.5M NaF, protease inhibitors], and 5–10 μ g were loaded into 12% sodium dodecyl sulfate gels. Membranes were probed with the following antibodies: anti-TR α (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), anti-H3 (Millipore, Temecula, CA), and antiacetylated lysine (α -LysAc; Cell Signaling, Beverly, MA).

In vitro pull-down assays

³⁵S-labeled proteins were used in pull-down assays with 1 μ g of GST or GST-fused proteins as described previously (9).

Band-shift assays

In vitro-translated TR α was either unmodified or acetylated with CBP. One microliter of *in vitro*-translated RXR together with 1 μ g of GST-silencing mediator of retinoid and thyroid receptors (SMRT) or GST-activator of thyroid and retinoic acid receptor (ACTR) was added to TR on ice for 15 min before incubation with a [³²P]-end-labeled double-stranded oligonucleotide (5'-AGCTCAGGTCACAGGAGGTCAG-3') containing a consensus TRE sequence for 30 min at room temperature in the presence or absence of 1 μ M T₃. Similar assays were performed in the absence of RXR. The samples were analyzed on nondenaturing 5% polyacrylamide gels run in 0.5 \times Tris-borate EDTA. Alternatively, 0.5 μ g GST-TR α or GST-CTE with GST-RXR were used.

Protease resistance assay

In vitro-translated TR α or CTE mutant were incubated in absence or presence of 5 nM of T₃ with 0.02, 0.01, and 0.5 U trypsin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO).

Foci formation assays

NIH-3T3 fibroblasts were transfected with calcium phosphate and 500 ng of pCEFL-Ha-Ras^{val12} and 4 μ g of expression vectors for TR α or with the same amount of empty vector (32). Cultures were fed with fresh medium containing 10% T₃-stripped donor calf serum every 2 d in the presence or absence of 5 nM T₃. At 14 d after transfection, the foci were stained with Giemsa and scored visually.

¹²⁵I-T₃ binding assays

Binding assays were essentially performed as described (33, 34).

Statistical analysis

All data are expressed as means \pm SD. Student's *t* test was performed using the SSC-Stat software (version 2.18; University of Reading, Reading, UK).

Results

TR is acetylated by CBP in the CTE region

A previous report has shown that TR β can be acetylated (27). To examine whether TR α is also a target for

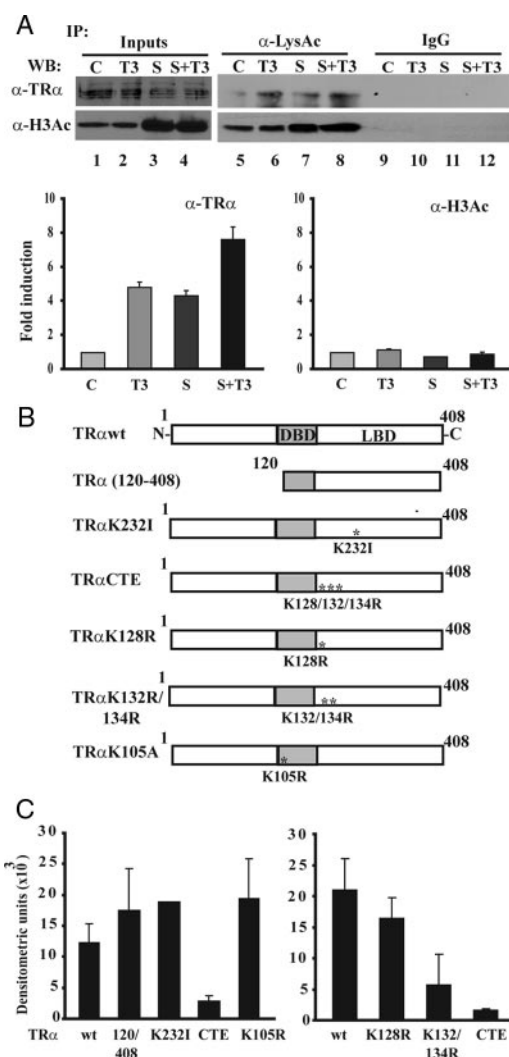


FIG. 1. TR α is acetylated *in vivo* and *in vitro*. A, Acetylated proteins were immunoprecipitates (IP) from GH4C1 cells previously treated in the presence or absence (C) of 5 nM T₃, 1 μ M SAHA (s), and SAHA plus T₃ for 24 h. Western blot (WB) assays were developed with TR α and acetylated H3 antibodies. The input amount is the 10% of the total extract protein. Quantifications of acetylated TR α and H3 (H₃Ac) levels are represented on the graphic. B, Schematic representation of the location of TR α mutations (indicated by asterisks) used in this study. The DBD and LBD are indicated. C, Quantifications of acetylation assays with the point and deletion mutants shown in B. GST-TRwt and mutants were incubated with GST-CBP in the presence of [³H]acetyl-CoA and CBP. The reactions were analyzed by SDS-PAGE with subsequent fluorography. wt, Wild type.

acetylation, GH4C1 cells were treated for 24 h with 5 nM T₃ alone or in combination with the histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor SAHA (2 μ M). Acetylated proteins were immunoprecipitated from nuclear extracts with an antibody for acetylated lysines, and the acetylated receptor was detected with a TR α -specific antibody. Figure 1A shows that T₃, and to a lesser extent SAHA, increased acetylated TR α (lanes 6–7), whereas acetylated histone H3 was increased only in the presence of SAHA or SAHA plus T₃ (lanes 7–8). To examine the acetylation sites of TR α , we generated three lysine mutants, one in the DBD

(K105A mutant) equivalent to K128A mutant that is acetylated in TR β , other in the consensus motif KLKK described for AR and ER α in the C-terminal extension of the receptor DBD (K128/132/134R or CTE mutant), and other in the conserved K232 residue (K232I) in the LBD (Fig. 1B). We examined by *in vitro* acetylation assays the acetylation of TR α wt, these mutants, and one additional TR α mutant corresponding to a deletion of the AF-1 domain and the DBD (120-408TR α). Quantification of the results (Fig. 1C) shows that TR α wt was acetylated *in vitro* by CBP and that the deletion of the N'-terminal domain that contains the AF-1 domain; the mutation K232I in helix 3 or the mutation of the K105 residue did not prevent TR α acetylation by CBP. However, triple substitution of lysines 128, 132, and 134 by arginines abolished TR α acetylation. To determine whether one or two residues in the CTE were essential for acetylation, we generated two additional mutants, TR α K128R and TR α K132/134R. Both mutants show a decrease in acetylation with respect to TR α wt, although this decrease was only significant for the TR α K132/134R mutant. However, total abrogation of TR α acetylation was achieved only with the CTE mutant. These data demonstrate that TR α acetylation by CBP occurs in the CTE, in accordance with previous reports for ER α and AR (20, 28).

Acetylation of TR α increases DNA binding

Given that the acetylated residues are adjacent to the DBD, we next tested by band-shift assays whether acetylation affected the ability of TR α to bind DNA. In these experiments, *in vitro*-translated TR α was acetylated in the presence of CBP and nonradiative acetyl-CoA in the absence or presence of T $_3$. Each reaction was used in band-shift assays with a 32 P-labeled double-stranded oligonucleotide containing a consensus TRE sequence (DR4). In the absence of hormone, TR α binds to the DR4 as a heterodimer with RXR with the same affinity independently of its acetylation state (Fig. 2A, lanes 1 and 4). However, in the presence of T $_3$ (1 μ M) and at low receptor concentrations, the acetylated receptor binds to the TRE with a higher affinity than the nonacetylated TR α (lanes 2 vs. 5). Also GST-TR α , in the presence of T $_3$, binds to the DNA with higher affinity after incubation with acetyl-CoA, but with T $_3$ and without acetyl-CoA, the binding of TR to DNA was not increased (Fig. 2B). Next, we performed band-shift assays with the wild-type receptor and the acetylation mutant. Again, acetylation increased DNA binding of the TR α wt in a T $_3$ -dependent manner, whereas the hormone did not increase binding affinity of the receptor that contains a triple mutation in the acetylation region (CTE) (Fig. 2C), confirming that TR α acetylation enhances binding of the heterodimer to a con-

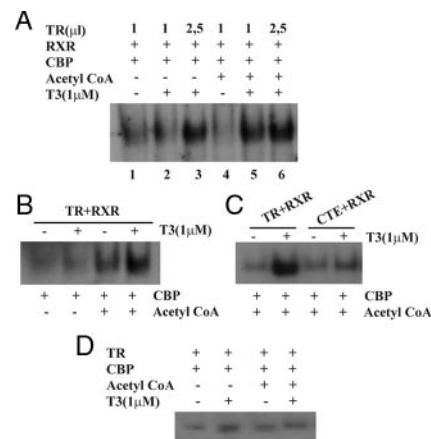


FIG. 2. Acetylated TR α shows increased DNA binding activity in the presence of T $_3$. **A**, One and 2.5 μ l of TR α nonacetylated or acetylated *in vitro* with CBP and acetyl-CoA were used in band-shift assays together with 1 μ l of *in vitro*-translated RXR in the absence or presence of T $_3$. **B**, TR α binding was analyzed after incubation with CBP, and the presence or absence of acetyl-CoA. **C**, GST-TR α or GST-CTE was acetylated *in vitro* and the binding to the TRE as heterodimers with RXR was analyzed in the absence and the presence of T $_3$. **D**, TR α (2 μ l), nonacetylated or acetylated, was incubated with or without T $_3$ in the absence of RXR and used in band-shift assays.

sensus TRE. Because TR α can also bind as a homodimer to this element, we performed the assay under similar conditions but in the absence of RXR. Binding of homodimers to the TRE was not modified after TR α acetylation (Fig. 2D).

The CTE of TR α is important for the interaction with coactivators and corepressors

In the absence of ligand, TR is bound to corepressor proteins [SMRT or nuclear receptor corepressor (NCoR)] associated with HDACs (35, 36), repressing gene transcription. Receptor occupancy by T $_3$ results in dissociation of corepressors and derepression, followed by recruitment of coactivators and associated cofactors, some of which exhibit HAT activity, leading to transcriptional activation. We next examined the ability of TR-RXR and CTE-RXR heterodimers to recruit coactivators when bound to the consensus direct repeat TRE (Fig. 3A). Wild-type TR α -RXR complexes recruited a GST-fusion protein containing the receptor-interacting domain of the p160 coactivator ACTR (GST-ACTR, residues 621-821) in a T $_3$ -dependent manner (lane 4). In this assays the amount of ACTR used was sufficient to observe binding of ACTR to the wild-type heterodimer, even in the absence of hormone (lane 3). In contrast to TR α wt-RXR, recruitment of GST-ACTR by the CTE-RXR heterodimer was not detected either in the absence or presence of hormone (lanes 9 and 10). These results were also analyzed in pull-down assays with S 35 -methionine *in vitro*-translated receptors (Fig. 3B). TR α bound detectably ACTR in the absence of hormone and this interaction increased after T $_3$ treatment,

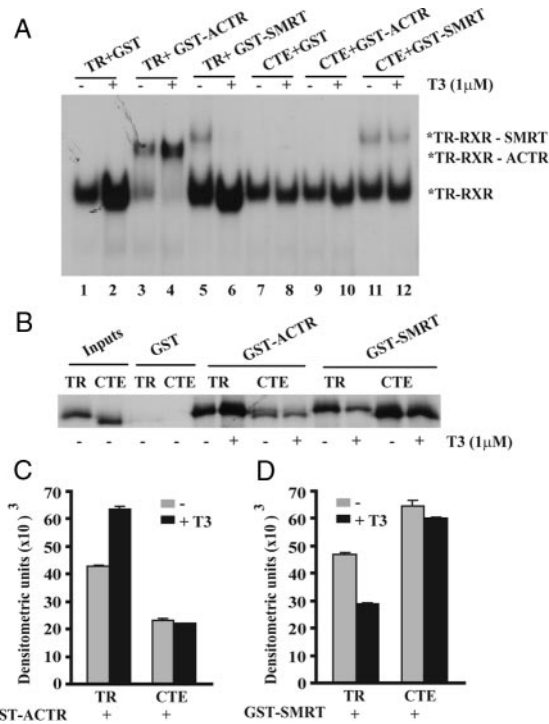


FIG. 3. Altered coactivator interaction and impaired release of corepressors by the CTE mutant. A, A labeled oligonucleotide spanning the DR4 element was incubated with *in vitro*-translated and acetylated TRwt/RXR or CTE/RXR heterodimers in the presence of GST-0, GST-ACTR, or GST-SMRT. When indicated, the binding reactions were carried out in the presence of 1 μ M T₃. The mobility of TR/RXR, TR/RXR/ACTR, and TR/RXR/SMRT complexes is indicated. B, GST-0, GST-ACTR, and GST-SMRT were incubated with ³⁵S-labeled TRwt or CTE mutant. C and D, Pull-down quantification corresponding to the TR/ACTR, TR/SMRT, CTE/ACTR, and CTE/SMRT complexes in the presence of 1 μ M T₃. Data were corrected with the corresponding inputs and are expressed relative to the values obtained with the unliganded wild-type receptor. Data (means \pm sd) are the result of three different experiments.

whereas the CTE mutant showed less interaction with coactivators than the wild-type receptor, and this interaction did not increase in the presence of hormone. Pull-down quantification (Fig. 3C) showed again the reduced binding of coactivators by the unliganded mutant receptor as well as the lack of response to T₃. The low interaction between the CTE mutant and ACTR was not sufficient for detection as a supershift in the band shift.

We also compared the binding of wild-type and CTE mutant receptors to corepressors. We observed that in the absence of T₃, the CTE mutant and the wild-type receptor bound the corepressor SMRT with similar affinity (Fig. 3A, lanes 5 and 11). However, whereas TR α wt was able to release SMRT very efficiently after T₃ incubation, the CTE mutant remained bound to SMRT, even in the presence of 1 μ M T₃ (lanes 6 and 12). In pull-down assays, the CTE mutant bound the corepressor with even higher affinity than the native TR α but in coincidence with the results obtained in band-shift assays was not able to release SMRT in the presence of hormone (Fig. 3, B–D).

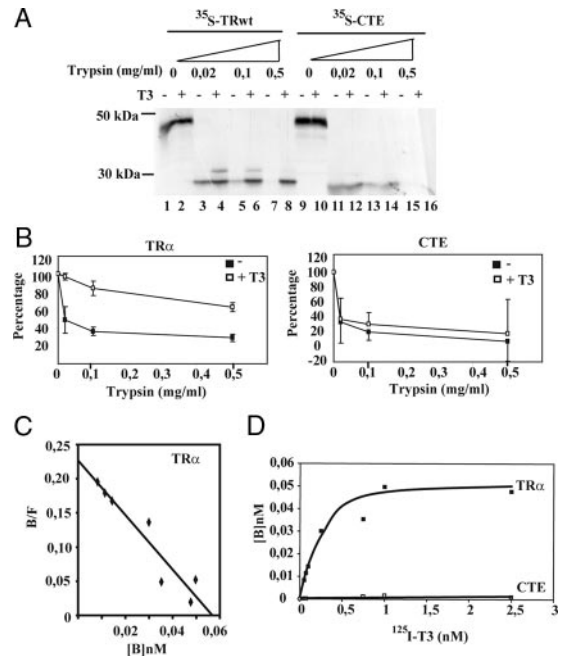


FIG. 4. The CTE mutant shows reduced T₃ binding. A, T₃ binding by wild-type (wt) and CTE mutant receptors was determined using hormone-mediated protease resistance assays. B, The percentage of input TR remaining after digestion with increased amounts of trypsin at 1 μ M T₃ concentration was quantified. The data are the mean values corresponding to three different experiments. C, Scatchard plot of [¹²⁵I]T₃ binding to TR α wt protein synthesized *in vitro*. Aliquots of the lysates were incubated overnight at 4 C with different concentrations of [¹²⁵I]T₃. Nonspecific binding was measured in the presence of a 500-fold excess of T₃. The ratio between the amount of [¹²⁵I]T₃ bound (B) and free (F) is represented in y-axis (B/F). D, Kinetic curves of TR α wt and CTE mutant.

Protease and binding assays

Although the CTE mutations are outside the LBD, the fact that in the presence of hormone, the CTE mutant did not show increased coactivator recruitment and was not able to release corepressors suggested that the primary defect of this mutant might be in hormone binding affinity. To check that possibility, we used two experimental approaches, a protease protection assay in which T₃ binding is measured through its ability to generate a protease-resistant conformation in the receptor (Fig. 4, A and B) and binding assays with I¹²⁵-T₃ to determine receptor affinity (Fig. 4, C and D). *In vitro*-translated TR α wt or CTE mutant were digested in the presence of increasing amounts of trypsin. In the absence of T₃, both wild-type and mutant TR α were efficiently degraded by protease digestion. Incubation of TR α wt with T₃ resulted in formation of a protease-resistant polypeptide that progressively disappeared in function of increasing amounts of trypsin. However, the CTE mutant in the presence of hormone was totally digested, even at the lowest amount of protease used. Figure 4B shows the quantification of three experiments. To confirm the results obtained in the protease assays, the capacities of both receptors to bind thyroid

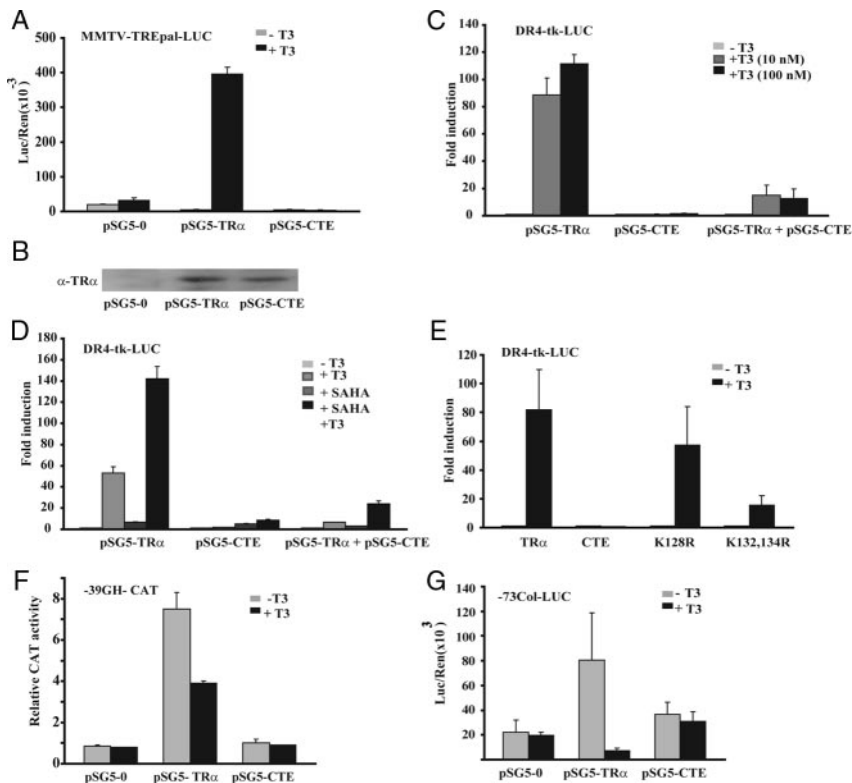


FIG. 5. TR α acetylation mutant exhibits altered transcriptional activation and repression and acts as a dominant negative. **A**, An empty pSG5-0 vector, pSG5-expressing wild-type TR α , or pSG5-expressing CTE mutant was transfected in HeLa cells together with a MMTV-TREpal-LUC construct. After transfection the cells were treated with medium alone or 100 nM T₃ (black bars) and after 36 h were harvested for luciferase assay. All experiments were repeated at least three times in duplicate, and all data are presented as the mean \pm SD. **B**, After transfection, the expression of TR wild-type or CTE mutant levels was analyzed by Western blot. **C**, DR4tk-LUC was cotransfected with equal amounts of pSG5-TRwt or pSG5-CTE mutant in HEK 293T cells. After transfection cells were treated with 10 and 100 nM T₃. Data are represented as fold of induction with respect to basal levels in untreated cells. **D**, HEK293T cells were cotransfected with the reporter construct and expression vectors for TRwt or the CTE mutant, and luciferase activity was determined in cells incubated with 10 nM T₃ and/or 1 μ M SAHA, as indicated. **E**, HEK293T cells were transfected with DR4tk-LUC and expression vectors for TRwt or the CTE, K128R, and K132,134R mutants. **F**, HeLa cells were transfected with the reporter plasmid containing 39 bp 5' from the start of transcription of the GH promoter (-39GH-CAT). The plasmid was cotransfected with an expression vector for TR α or for the CTE mutant and CAT activity determined in control cells and in cells treated with 100 nM T₃. **G**, Luciferase activity was determined in HeLa cells transiently transfected with a collagenase-3-LUC reporter together with TRwt or the CTE mutant in absence or presence of 100 nM T₃. Luciferase activity was always corrected by renilla activity.

hormone were assessed. The same amounts of *in vitro*-translated receptors, as determined by Met-S³⁵ incorporation, were tested for their ability to bind hormone by incubation with increasing concentrations of ¹²⁵I-T₃ in the presence and absence of a 500-fold molar excess of unlabeled hormone. To determine accurately the effect of the mutations on hormone binding, we performed Scatchard and kinetic analyses (Fig. 4, C and D). The dissociation constant obtained for TR α was 0.25 nM, whereas the CTE mutant exhibited no detectable binding activity. These results indicate that the same residues in the CTE of TR α that are the target of acetylation by CBP appear to be also important for ligand binding.

The TR α acetylation sites regulate TR transactivation and transrepression

Because the acetylation of TR α increases DNA binding activity and the CTE mutant does not recruit coactivators in a DNA element, we investigated the effect of mutation of the acetylation residues on transactivation. HeLa cells that do not express endogenous TRs were transiently transfected with a luciferase reporter plasmid that contains a palindromic TRE (MMTV-TREpal-LUC) together with expression vectors for TR α wt or the CTE mutant (Fig. 5A). As expected, TR α induced reporter activity in the presence of T₃. Conversely, the CTE mutant was not able to mediate T₃-dependent transactivation, showing that K128/132/134 residues play an important role in regulating the transcriptional activity of TR α . Interestingly, the native and mutant receptors were equally able to repress basal reporter activity in the absence of T₃, in agreement with the finding that the CTE mutant binds corepressors constitutively. Western blot analysis showed that wild-type and mutant TR α were expressed at similar levels after transfection (Fig. 5B). Collectively our results demonstrate a good correlation between the decreased DNA binding and coactivator recruitment with transactivation activities of the CTE mutant when compared with wild-type TR α . Because promoter-selective effects have been observed for the AR acetylation site mutants (17), HEK293T cells that do not express endogenous TR were transiently transfected with both receptor

expression plasmids in the presence of a different TR receptor target, the DR4tk-LUC construct (Fig. 5C). The results were similar to those observed in HeLa cells with the MMTV-TREpal-LUC reporter gene, showing that the lack of CTE transactivation activity was not dependent on cell or promoter type as has been previously shown for AR acetylation mutants. Trying to compensate for reduced binding affinity of the CTE mutant, we treated cells with a higher amount of T₃ (Fig. 5C). Even after incubation with 100 nM T₃, the CTE mutant was unable to mediate ligand-dependent transactivation. In addition, when cotransfected with equimolar amounts of TR α wt, the

acetylation mutant acted as a dominant negative, even at high hormone concentrations. HEK293T cells were also treated with 1 μ M SAHA in the presence or absence of T_3 after transient transfection with the DR4-tk-luc construct (Fig. 5D). SAHA significantly induced transcriptional activation of the reporter gene by T_3 in cells expressing TR α wt, whereas it had no effect in cells expressing the CTE mutant. Additionally, we compare transactivation by TRwt and the three mutant receptors in the CTE region (Fig. 5E). Whereas activity of the DR4-tk LUC reporter gene was strongly increased in the presence of hormone after expression of TRwt or the K128R mutant, the TRK132/134R mutant exhibited a significantly decreased reporter activity in response to T_3 , and this response was completely suppressed with the CTE mutant.

TRs can repress transcription through binding to negative TREs present in the promoter region of T_3 -regulated genes, or through transcriptional interference with other transcription factors such as AP-1. To assess the effect of the CTE mutant on repression, we used a CAT reporter construct comprising the $-39/+12$ sequence of the GH promoter that contains a negative TRE element (31, 37). A common finding is that on negative TREs the unoccupied receptor increases transcription and the ligand reverses this stimulation (38, 39). As shown in Fig. 5F, TR α cotransfection induced basal activity that was reverted by hormone treatment. In contrast, the CTE mutant did not induce the basal activity and was unable to respond to T_3 . Given the important role of AP-1 complexes in the control of cell proliferation, we also checked the transrepression properties of the CTE mutant on activity of the AP-1 containing collagenase promoter (Fig. 5G). TR α wt is known to enhance AP-1 activity in the absence of hormone and repress in the presence of T_3 (7, 40, 41). As expected, expression of native TR α induced basal activity of the collagenase promoter that was reverted in the presence of hormone. In contrast, the CTE mutant displayed a very modest induction of basal transcription and T_3 treatment had not a significant effect. Thus, the CTE mutant is defective both in the ability to enhance AP-1 function in the absence of hormone and to suppress in the presence of hormone.

The CTE mutant does not mediate ligand-dependent inhibition of *ras*-mediated fibroblast transformation

We previously described that TRs can inhibit Ras-mediated cellular transformation (32). Therefore, we checked whether TR α acetylation is also important in this process. For this purpose, we performed foci formation assays with NIH-3T3 fibroblasts transfected with H-ras^{val12} alone or in combination with TR α or the CTE mutant (Fig. 6). As

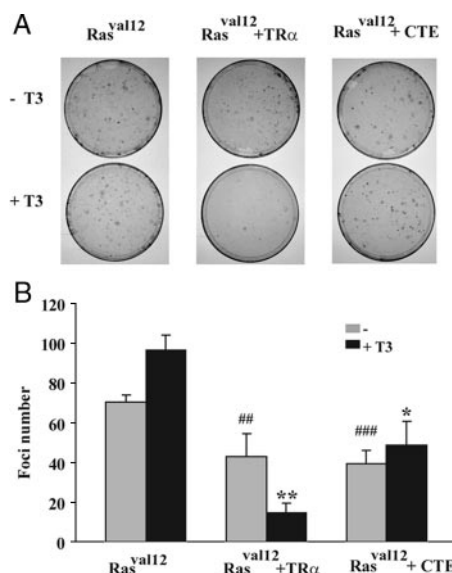


FIG. 6. TRwt but not the CTE mutant is able to reduce foci formation in the presence of T_3 . A, Foci formation by NIH-3T3 cells transfected with val¹²H-ras and pSG5-TR α or pSG5-CTE expression vectors. Cells were treated for 15 d with 5 nM T_3 . B, Quantitation of foci number. Ras^{val12}, Valine 12 rat sarcoma. The statistical significance of difference between untreated cells groups was expressed by #, and that of the difference between T_3 -treated cells groups was shown by * (#, *, 0.01 < P < 0.05; ##, **, 0.001 < P < 0.01; ###, ***, P > 0.01).

expected, the transforming ability of the *ras* oncogene was greatly reduced in cells coexpressing the native receptor. TR α reduced formation of transformation foci in the absence of exogenously added T_3 , and this reduction was stronger in T_3 -treated cells. In contrast, although in the absence of hormone the CTE mutant also caused reduction of foci formation, T_3 was unable to induce a further inhibition.

Discussion

Our results show that TR α is acetylated *in vitro* by CBP at residues Lys128, 132, and 134 (Fig. 1). The acetylation residues are part of a KRV/LAKRK motif in the CTE of the DBD also present in several members of the steroid receptors family. In fact, it is described that both AR α and ER α are acetylated in the same region (19, 22). *In vivo* the acetylation of the TR α receptor is induced by its own ligand (T_3). It is known that this nuclear receptor recruits coactivators in a ligand-dependent manner. Thus, after T_3 treatment the recruitment of CBP or other coactivators with HAT activity could induce TR α acetylation. In coincidence with TR β , the K105A mutant in TR α , equivalent to K128A mutant in TR β that is acetylated *in vivo* (27), was also efficiently acetylated *in vitro* by CBP. TR β acetylation sites have not been defined, and we cannot rule out that TR β could be acetylated in different regions as has been demonstrated for ER α (22, 28). In contrast from TR β

that is transiently acetylated in response to thyroid hormones (27), we observed induction of TR α acetylation, even after 36 h incubation with T₃. In general, our results reinforce the idea that specific ligands seem to induce acetylation of their cognate nuclear hormone receptor.

The acetylation of proteins such as cellular transcription factor involved in adenovirus early region 1A (E1A) (E2F1; Ref. 15), MyoD, or ER α augments DNA binding (15, 22, 42), although other proteins such as yin yang (YY1) and Forkhead box O (FOXO) show a decreased binding when acetylated by CBP (43, 44). In accordance with the results described for ER α , in the presence of ligand, the heterodimeric binding of TR α to DNA increases when the receptor is acetylated (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, homodimeric binding does not appear to be affected by acetylation. In some receptors the CTE of the DBD contributes to DNA binding and dimer stabilization (45). However, in the ternary complex of TR α with RXR and DNA, the CTE region of TR does not participate in the dimer interface and makes nonspecific contacts with the DNA backbone (46). Our results show that in the absence of hormone, the mutation of the acetylation residues K128/132/134R in the CTE does not alter affinity of heterodimeric binding to a consensus DNA element compared with TR α wt. However, binding of the mutant receptor is not increased by T₃ in the presence of CBP and acetyl-CoA, suggesting again that modification by acetylation could enhance TR α binding to DNA and transactivation at a target promoter. Alternatively, the CTE mutant could exhibit altered ligand binding properties.

An unexpected finding in this work was that the CTE mutant, which mimics unacetylated TR α , shows a highly reduced T₃ binding affinity and sensitivity. In the case of ER α and AR, the mutation at the same acetylation region, which is outside the LBD, does not appreciably affect ligand binding affinity. However, a recent report (47) shows that deletion of the 629-RKLKGLGN-636 region in AR, which contains the acetylation residues, enhances the intramolecular interaction between the amino-terminal domain and the LBD increasing ligand sensitivity of the mutant with respect to the wild-type receptor. In this sense, our data show that the CTE domain of the TR α receptor is also crucial for ligand recognition. Additionally, it has been previously shown that residues 120-199 in TR α are required for ligand binding (48) and that the D domain adjacent to the CTE has an important role in stabilizing the overall structure of the LBD (49). It is then plausible that an altered receptor conformation that precludes hormone binding to the LBD could be acquired by mutation of the CTE acetylation residues. Although crystallographic analysis would be necessary to demonstrate this hypothesis, the finding that, as observed in Fig. 3B, the

CTE mutant shows a different mobility with respect to TR α wt appears to support this possibility. An important change in receptor conformation by mutation of the lysine residues in the CTE is also indicated by the altered binding of coactivators of the mutant receptor. In *in vitro* assays, the acetylation mutant showed a highly reduced affinity by the ACTR coactivator with respect to wild-type TR α , even in the absence of T₃, and in a DNA element, the CTE mutant is completely unable to recruit ACTR. Probably, as a consequence of the decreased hormone affinity, the mutant receptor CTE also shows a defect in corepressor release. TR α recruits corepressors in the absence of hormone, and after ligand binding the corepressors are released favoring the coactivator binding. The TR α acetylation mutant shows a constitutive binding to corepressors, even in the presence of hormone. A similar behavior has been also observed in other receptors such as AR, in which the acetylation mutant shows enhanced recruitment of nuclear receptor corepressor (NCoR)/phosphorylated mothers against decapentaplegic (Smad)/HDAC-1 complexes and reduced p300 binding compared with the wild-type AR (19).

The AR acetylation site is required for androgen-mediated gene activation (19, 50). The mutant TR α in the CTE lysine residues is also unable to transactivate a TRE-containing reporter gene in a T₃-dependent manner. The decrease in ligand affinity of the TR α acetylation mutant is coincident with the behavior of some naturally occurring mutants detected in human hepatocellular carcinoma cells (51). These mutants also show decreased ligand affinity and failure to transactivate a TRE-containing target gene and act as dominant negatives on TR-mediated transcription. Interestingly, the CTE mutant is not able to transactivate and also acts as a dominant negative of TR α wt mediated transcription. The CTE mutant shows a strong dominant-negative activity despite the finding that acetylation increases DNA binding *in vitro*. Because DNA binding appears to be required for dominant-negative activity, the possibility that TR α acetylation does not enhance DNA binding in the living cell or that little of DNA-bound TR α is acetylated, even in the presence of T₃, cannot be dismissed. On the other hand, due to the inability of the CTE mutant to bind hormone and exchange corepressors by coactivators is not possible to affirm that, as in the case of other nuclear receptors, acetylation is required for ligand-dependent transactivation.

Another interesting property of the CTE mutant is that, unlike the wild-type receptor, the unliganded acetylation mutant does not stimulate the core GH promoter containing a negative TRE and that it has lost the ability of enhancing basal AP-1 activity. The molecular mechanisms underlying the transcriptional effects of the unliganded

receptors are not well understood. There is the possibility that receptor acetylation could be required *in vivo* for this ligand-independent effect, but the finding that the acetylation residues were also required *in vitro* to observe interaction with coactivators again suggests that it could be secondary to the important role of these residues on overall receptor structure and stability.

Besides lacking ligand-independent activation on negative elements or AP-1 motifs, the CTE mutant does not mediate ligand-dependent transrepression. It is well known that AP-1 complexes play a central role in the control of normal cell proliferation, survival, and oncogenesis. Wild-type TRs enhance c-Jun/AP-1 activity in the absence of T₃ but inhibit this activity in the presence of T₃ (5, 7, 52). We have demonstrated that the acetylation mutant has a strongly reduced ability to stimulate AP-1 activity in the absence of hormone and has completely lost the ability to suppress AP-1 function in the presence of T₃. Therefore, this mutant that acts as a dominant-negative receptor of the wild-type TR in transactivation could also interfere with the antiproliferative effects of the liganded TRs and may allow genes involved in cell proliferation and survival to be expressed under T₃ conditions that would normally be growth suppressive. The CTE mutant not only does not inhibit AP-1 activity but also is not able to inhibit fibroblast transformation in the presence of physiological doses of T₃, showing that the lysine residues are also required for ligand-dependent antitransforming effects of TR α , although the mutant receptor maintains the ability to reduce transformation in the absence of ligand.

In summary, our results show that TR α can be acetylated in the CTE and that ligand binding stimulates receptor acetylation and increases heterodimeric binding to its cognate element. Because mutation of the residues that are targets for acetylation also alters ligand binding and association with coactivators and corepressors, a direct functional role of acetylation on ligand-dependent transcriptional activation or repression cannot be unambiguously established in the case of this receptor. More significantly, our results reveal the important and unexpected role of the CTE region on receptor conformation that affects ligand affinity, transactivation, transrepression, and antitransforming properties of TR α .

Acknowledgments

Address all correspondence and requests for reprints to: Aurora Sánchez-Pacheco and Ana Aranda, Instituto de Investigaciones Biomédicas A. Sols, C/Arturo Duperier, 4 28029 Madrid, Spain. E-mail: asanchez@iib.uam.es.

This work was supported by Grant BFU2006-13497/2007-62402 from the Ministerio de Educación y Ciencia and from the

Fundación Médica Mutua Madrileña, Red Temática de Investigación Cooperativa en Cáncer from Fondo de Investigaciones Sanitarias, and Consortium for Research into Nuclear Development and Aging from the European Union.

Disclosure Summary: The authors have nothing to disclose.

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