

UDC 577.29

Effect of Prothymosin α and Its Mutants on the Activity of the p53 Tumor Suppressor

N. I. Zakharova, V. V. Sokolov, V. V. Roudko, S. V. Melnikov,
A. B. Vartapetian, and A. G. Evstafieva

Belozersky Institute of Physicochemical Biology, Moscow State University, Moscow, 119992 Russia;
e-mail: evstaf@genebee.msu.ru

Received January 21, 2008

Accepted for publication February 29, 2008

Abstract—The nuclear oncoprotein prothymosin α (ProT α) was tested for the ability to regulate the p53 activity with the use of a reporter gene controlled by a p53-responsive promoter. Overexpression of the ProT α gene stimulated the p53 activity, while downregulation of the endogenous ProT α level via RNA interference suppressed transcription of the reporter gene. An increase in ProT α activated p53-dependent transcription and increased the intracellular p53 content in human HeLa, but not HCT116, cells. N-terminal deletions had almost no effect on the ability of ProT α to activate p53-dependent transcription, while deletions from the central region and C-terminal mutations distorting the active transport of ProT α into the cell nucleus prevented its transactivating effect. Mutations affecting Keap1 binding did not impair the ProT α ability to activate the p53-responsive reporter gene. Based on the results, stimulation of p53-dependent transcription was ascribed to the central acidic region of ProT α . The conclusion was supported by the fact that parathymosin, another protein containing an extended acidic region, was also capable of activating p53.

DOI: 10.1134/S002689330804016X

Key words: prothymosin α , Keap1, parathymosin, p53 tumor suppressor, reporter gene expression, deletion and point mutagenesis

INTRODUCTION

Human prothymosin α (ProT α) is a small, highly acidic multicopy nuclear protein of 109 amino acid residues. ProT α is almost completely devoid of secondary structure elements and occurs as a random coil under physiological conditions [1, 2]. Relatively simple as it is, ProT α is a multifunctional protein that is involved in various processes sustaining cell life and death.

One of the most important ProT α functions is associated with cell proliferation [2, 3]. Upregulation of the ProT α gene has been observed in tumors originating from various organs and tissues [1–3]. Overproduction of ProT α increases the proliferation rate, allows cells to grow at a lower serum content in the medium, impairs contact inhibition, and results in substrate-independent cell growth [4]. These findings have made it possible to consider ProT α to be an oncoprotein.

We have previously shown that ProT α is hydrolyzed by caspase 3 in apoptotic cells, which inactivates its nuclear localization signal (NLS) [5, 6]. A high level of ProT α protects human cells from apoptosis [6, 7]. Antiapoptotic activity of ProT α agrees with its oncoprotein functions, since a block of pro-

grammed cell death is an essential prerequisite to tumor progression.

ProT α interacts with histones and induces structural rearrangements of chromatin [1, 2]. Several other proteins have also been identified as interaction partners of ProT α , including the transcriptional coactivator CBP [8] and histone acetyltransferase p300 [9]. We have found that ProT α is involved in regulating the cell response to oxidative stress [10]. ProT α displaces the Nrf2 transcription factor from its complex with the Keap1 repressor, thus activating Keap1 and allowing its transport into the nucleus to induce transcription of the genes for antioxidant proteins. ProT α directly (without any third protein) and specifically interacts with Keap1.

The p53–Mdm2 transcription system is similar to the Nf2–Keap1 system. The p53 tumor suppressor is activated in response to genotoxic stress, arresting the cell cycle or triggering apoptosis [11, 12]. Acting as a transcription factor, p53 binds to specific nucleotide sequences in the promoter regions of target genes and activates or suppresses transcription. The key role in stabilizing p53 and enhancing its transcriptional activity is played by distortion of its interaction with inhibitory proteins, such as Mdm2 [13].

The p53–Mdm2 and Nrf2–Keap1 systems share several major features. Both of the inhibitors (Mdm2 and Keap1) continuously migrate between the nucleus and cytoplasm and, in stress-free conditions, ensure the export of the corresponding transcription factor (p53 and Nrf2) from the nucleus. Both of the inhibitors are components of the E3–ubiquitin ligase complex, which promotes proteasomal degradation of transcription factors. Stress weakens the inhibitor–transcription factor interaction, and the factor is consequently stabilized, is redistributed to the nucleus, and interacts with DNA.

We assumed that ProT α regulates p53 activity, as a similar effect is known for the Nrf2–Keap1 system, involved in the cell response to oxidative stress. To check this assumption, we studied the effect of changes in ProT α concentration on the transcriptional activity of p53 in human cells.

We found that ectopic expression of the ProT α gene stimulated transcription of a p53-responsive reporter gene, while downregulation of ProT α via RNA interference suppressed its transcription. An elevated ProT α level increased, not only the expression of p53-dependent genes, but also the intracellular p53 content in HeLa human cervical carcinoma cells (but not in HCT116 human colorectal carcinoma cells). HeLa cells are defective in p53 regulation because of the expression of the *E6* oncogene of human papillomavirus type 18 (HPV18) [14]; consequently, the p53 level in HeLa cells is decreased and is independent of Mdm2.

In addition, we studied the effect of point and deletion mutants of ProT α on transcription of the p53-responsive reporter gene and identified the ProT α structural elements essential for activation of p53-dependent gene expression.

EXPERIMENTAL

Plasmids. To construct the p53RE-luc reporter plasmid, the regulatory cassette containing eight p53-binding sites and the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter was obtained as a *XhoI*–*HindIII* fragment of the lentiviral vector pLC5 [15] and inserted into the *XhoI*–*HindIII* sites in pGL3-Promoter (Promega) in place of the SV40 minimal promoter upstream of the luciferase gene (*luc*). The pLC5 and pCMV-p53 plasmids were kindly provided by P.M. Chumakov. As another reporter plasmid, we used pHM-LacZ (pcDNA4/HisMax/LacZ, Invitrogen).

Ectopic expression of ProT α and its several mutants was achieved with pHM-ProT α (pcDNA4-enh-ProT α) wt, (1–99), K87E [6], and E44.50G [10] as described previously. To obtain pHM-ProT α (32–109), the *EcoRI*–*KpnI* fragment of pYeGFP-ProT α V [16] was cloned in pcDNA4/HisMax/C (Invitrogen). To obtain pHM-ProT α Δ (33–81), the *BamHI*–*EcoRI* frag-

ment of pUC-VIII [16] was cloned in pcDNA4/HisMaxA (Invitrogen).

To construct pHM-ProT α Δ (33–43), we ligated three DNA fragments: pcDNA4/HisMaxA digested with *HindIII* and *EcoRI*; the *HindIII*–*AcyI* fragment of pHM-ProT α wt, which contained a translational enhancer and the Pro(T α 1–32)-coding sequence; and the fragment coding for ProT α (44–109), which was amplified from pHT15A [5] with primers 5'-AAG ACG CCG AGC AGG AGG CTG AC-3' and M13 reverse and digested with *AcyI* and *EcoRI*.

To construct pHM-ProT α Δ (44–51), we ligated three DNA fragments: pcDNA4/HisMaxA digested with *HindIII* and *EcoRI*; the *AccI*–*EcoRI* fragment (180 bp) of pHT15A [5], which coded for ProT α (52–109); and the 300-bp fragment obtained via partial hydrolysis of pUC-enh-ProT α (1–43) with *HindIII* and *AccI*. To obtain pUC-enh-ProT α (1–43), a fragment containing the translational enhancer and the ProT α (1–43)-coding sequence was PCR-amplified from pUC-enh-ProT α (1–99) [6] with primers 5'-TT GTC TAC CCC ATT TTC CTC ATT AG-3' and M13 reverse and ligated with pUC19 digested with *SmaI*–*HindIII*.

To construct pHM-ProT α Δ (53–67), we ligated three DNA fragments: pcDNA4/HisMaxA digested with *HindIII* and *EcoRI*; the 340-bp fragment that was obtained via partial hydrolysis of pHM-ProT α wt with *HindIII* and *AccI* and contained the translational enhancer and the ProT α (1–52)-coding sequence; and the 140-bp *AccI*–*EcoRI* fragment of pBluescript SK⁺/ProT α (68–109). To obtain the last plasmid, a fragment of pHT15A [5] was PCR-amplified with primers 5'-AA GTA GAC GGT GAT GGT GAG GAA G-3' and M13 forward and ligated with pBluescript II SK⁺ digested with *SmaI*.

To construct pHM-parathymosin, the *EcoRI*–*SalI* fragment of pBluescript II KS⁻/parathymosin [17] was inserted in pcDNA4/HisMax/C.

To construct pHM-TNLS-ProT α (1–99) and pHM-TNLS-ProT α , the 75-bp fragment coding for the SV40 NLS was obtained from pGAD424 (Clontech) with *KpnI* + *HindIII*/Klenow and inserted in pUC-enh-6 [6] treated with *KpnI* + *NcoI*/Klenow. The *HindIII*–*KpnI* fragment containing the translational enhancer and the SV40 NLS-coding sequence was excised from the resulting plasmid and cloned in pcDNA4/HisMax/C carrying the ProT α (1–99) or wild-type ProT α cDNA, which was preliminarily inserted into the *BamHI*–*PstI* sites.

The structures of all mutants were verified by sequencing.

To construct pLS-siRNA_{33–53}, which coded for the ProT α -specific siRNA (fragment 33–53), the oligonucleotides 5'-GATCCCCCTCACCACCA AGGACTTA-AATCAAGAGATTAAAGTCCTTGGTGGTGATT-

TTTGGAAA-3' and 5'-AGCTTTTCCAAAAATCA-CCACCAAGGACTTAAATCTCTTGAATTAGTCC-TTGGTGGTG AGGG-3' (3 μ g of each oligonucleotide) were dissolved in 50 μ l of an annealing buffer (100 mM CH₃COOK, 30 mM HEPES-KOH (pH 7.4), 2 mM Mg(CH₃COO)₂). The mixture was incubated at 95°C for 4 min and at 70°C for 10 min and slowly chilled at room temperature. The annealing product was phosphorylated with T4 polynucleotide kinase. The resulting minigene was cloned in pUC19 (New England Biolabs) digested with *Bam*HI and *Hind*III, sequenced, and cloned in the lentiviral vector pLS-Lpw [15]. The plasmids for the lentiviral system were kindly provided by Chumakov.

Cell cultures, transfection, and infection. HeLa-B, HEK293, HCT116, and HCT116 p53^{-/-} cells were grown in DMEM containing 10% fetal bovine serum (HyClone) at 37°C in an atmosphere containing 5% CO₂. Transfection was carried out with Lipofectamine 2000 or ExGen 500 as recommended by Invitrogen or Fermentas, respectively. The transfection mixture contained the p53RE-luc and pHM-lacZ reporter plasmids (10% each) and other plasmids (the amounts are indicated in the figures). As a control vector, we used pcDNA4/HisMax/B (Invitrogen, pHM-B). Lentivirus particles were obtained and used to infect HeLa cells according to a published protocol [15]. Cells infected with pLS-siRNA₃₃₋₅₃ were selected in the presence of 1 μ g/ml puromycin for 7 days.

Tests for β -galactosidase and luciferase activities. Cells were grown for 40–48 h after transfection and lysed in a reporter lysis buffer (RLB, Promega). A cell lysate (50 μ l) was combined with an equal volume of 1.33 mg/ml o-nitrophenyl- β -D-galactopyranoside (Sigma) in 200 mM Na-phosphate (pH 7.3), 2 mM MgSO₄, 100 mM β -mercaptoethanol. The mixture was incubated at 37°C until an intense yellow color developed, and the reaction was terminated by adding 0.5 ml of 1 M Na₂CO₃. The optical density was measured at 420 nm. The luciferase activity of a cell lysate (15 μ l) was measured with a 20/20^a luminometer (Turner BioSystems) and the substrate of a luciferase assay system (Promega) as recommended by the manufacturer. Luciferase activity was normalized by the β -galactosidase activity of the same lysate.

ProT α was isolated from mammalian cells as described previously [6] and analyzed by PAGE in 8% gel containing 7 M urea. Gels were stained with 0.2% Methylene Blue in 0.04 M ammonium-acetate (pH 5.0) for 5 min and washed with water.

Immunoblotting. A cell lysate (30 μ g of total protein) was separated by SDS-PAGE in 12% gel, and proteins were transferred onto a Protran BA83 membrane (Schleicher & Schuell) according to a standard protocol. Antibodies DO-1 against p53 and C-2 against β -actin (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) were used. Proteins were detected via enhanced lumines-

cence with an ECL kit (Amersham Pharmacia) by a standard method.

To analyze the ProT α mutants, a cell lysate (50 μ g of total protein) was separated by SDS-PAGE in 18% gel. After blotting, the membrane was treated with 0.5% glutaraldehyde [17] for covalent fixation of low-molecular-weight proteins. The mutants were detected with monoclonal antibody 2F11, specific for the N-terminal region of ProT α [17].

RESULTS

Expression of a p53-Responsive Reporter Gene Is Stimulated by Overproduction of ProT α and Inhibited by ProT α -Specific RNA Interference

The effect of the intracellular ProT α level on the expression of p53-dependent genes was studied using p53RE-luc, carrying the firefly luciferase gene (*luc*) under the control of a p53-responsive promoter (Fig. 1a). To construct p53RE-luc, a regulatory cassette containing a minimal CMV promoter under the control of eight p53-responsive elements (six elements from the promoter region of the cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor p21, the ConA consensus sequence, and the p53-responsive element of the ribosomal gene cluster [15]) was inserted in pGL3-Promoter (Promega) upstream of *luc*.

To check whether the reporter construct was functional, HeLa cells were transfected with increasing amounts of pCMV-p53, coding for p53. Immunoblotting revealed a proportional increase in p53 as compared with the endogenous p53 level (Fig. 1b, lower panel). Ectopic expression of the p53 gene increased the luciferase activity in a gene dosage-dependent manner (Fig. 1b, upper panel).

The endogenous p53 level was increased by treating HeLa cells with doxorubicin (Dox), which is known to stabilize p53 and to increase its pool in the cell (Fig. 1c, lower panel). Dox substantially increased the *luc* activity (Fig. 1c, upper panel). Thus, p53RE-luc adequately responded to an increase in ectopic or endogenous p53 in HeLa cells.

To study the effect of the intracellular ProT α level on the transactivating activity of p53, human ProT α was produced in HeLa, HEK293, and HCT116 cells. The intracellular concentration of ProT α was estimated, taking advantage of the fact that ProT α remains in the aqueous phase upon phenol extraction [18]. Partly purified ProT α preparations obtained from transfected cells were analyzed electrophoretically (Fig. 2a). The amount of cell tRNA copurified with ProT α served as an internal control for the cell number. The ProT α level in transfected cells was substantially higher than the level of the endogenous protein (Fig. 2a, 1 and 5).

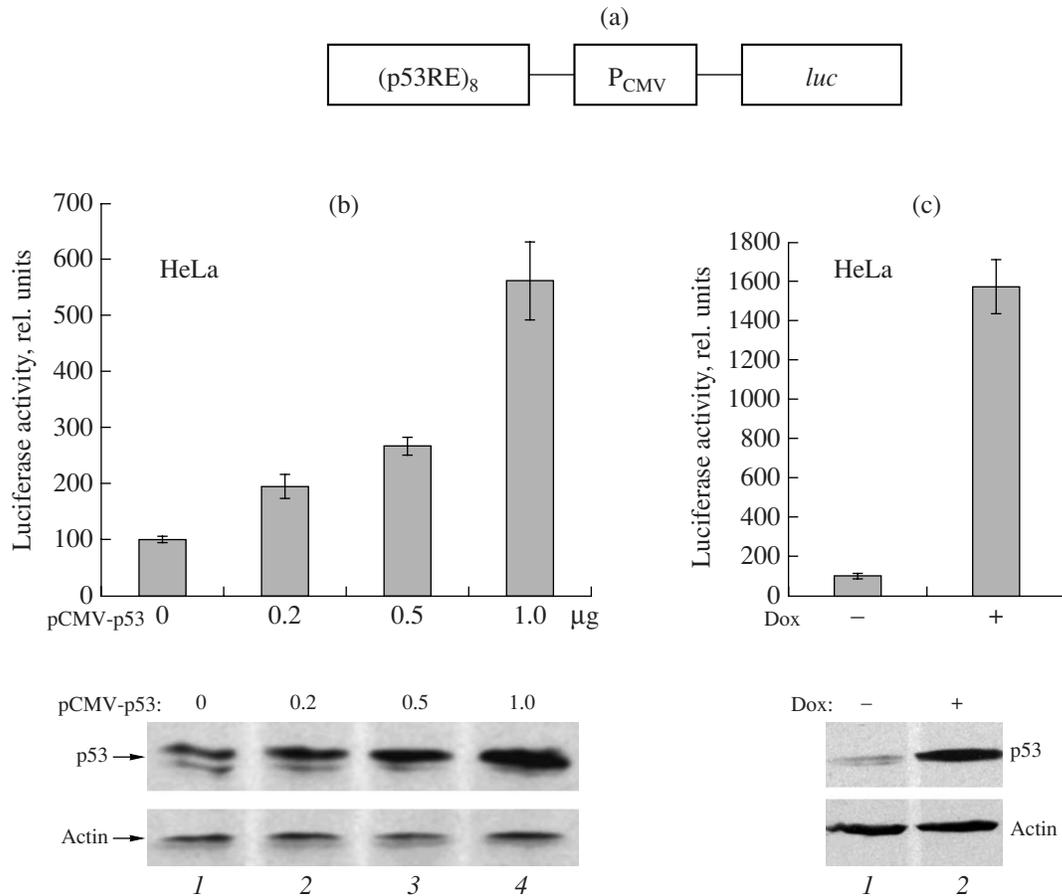


Fig. 1. (a) Scheme of the p53-responsive reporter gene and (b, c) its functional testing. (a) P_{CMV}, cytomegalovirus promoter; *luc*, firefly luciferase gene; p53RE, p53-binding site. (b) Luciferase activity of HeLa cell lysates 40 h after transfection with a mixture of the reporter plasmids (p53RE-luc and pHM-lacZ) and pCMV-p53 and/or the control vector (upper panel). Here and in Figs. 2, 4, and 5, the luciferase activity was normalized by the β -galactosidase activity. Cell lysates were examined by immunoblotting with antibodies against p53 and actin (lower panel). (c) Luciferase activity of HeLa cell lysates 40 h after transfection with a mixture of p53RE-luc and pHM-lacZ. A part of cells were treated with 2 μ g/ml Dox 20 h after transfection. Cell lysates were examined by immunoblotting with antibodies against p53 and actin (lower panel).

Overproduction of ProT α in HeLa cells stimulated the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 2b). The expression of the control *lacZ* reporter gene, controlled by the constitutive CMV promoter, remained unchanged. ProT α similarly stimulated the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene in HEK293 cells, while this effect was not observed in HCT116 cells (data not shown).

To decrease the intracellular level of ProT α , HeLa cells were infected by the lentiviral vector coding for a ProT α -specific siRNA. Partly purified ProT α preparations obtained from infected cells were analyzed by electrophoresis. The ProT α level in infected cells was lower than in control cells (Fig. 3a). The expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene decreased as well (Fig. 3b). The effect was relatively weak but statistically significant.

Thus, the experiments with ProT α overproduction and RNA interference showed that the expression of

the p53-responsive reporter gene depended on the intracellular ProT α level in HeLa cells.

The C-Terminal Nuclear Localization Signal of ProT α Is Essential for Stimulation of p53-Dependent Gene Expression

To map the ProT α region responsible for stimulation of p53-dependent transcription, deletion and point ProT α mutants were produced in HeLa cells (Figs. 4a, 5a). Deletion of the ten C-terminal residues (ProT α (1-99)) substantially reduced the activation of p53-dependent transcription (Fig. 4b). Note that ProT α (1-99) was synthesized as efficiently as the wild-type ProT α (Fig. 4c). Since the deletion eliminated the C-terminal fragment containing KKQK¹⁰⁴, a component of the bipartite NLS [5, 6], the observed effect was probably explained by a distorted active transport of ProT α into the cell nucleus.

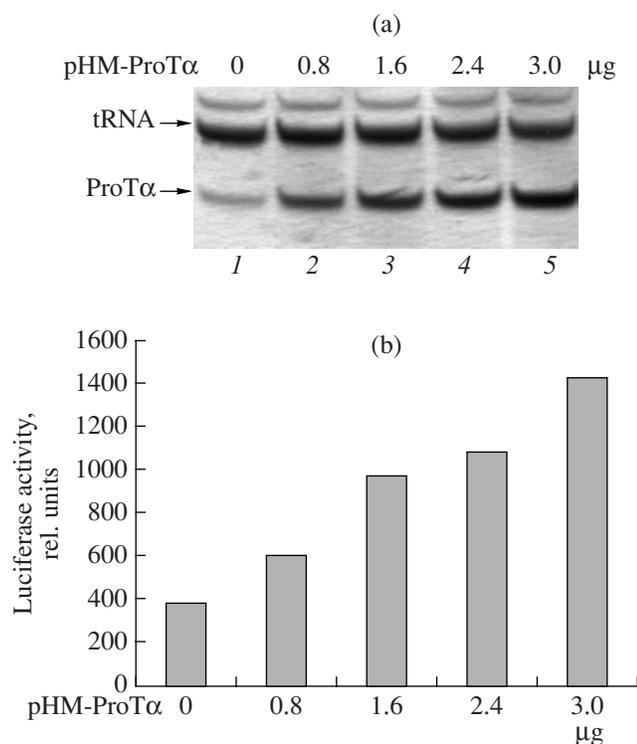


Fig. 2. Overproduction of ProT α stimulates the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene. HeLa cells were transfected with 4 μ g of a mixture containing p53RE-luc (0.4 μ g), pHM-lacZ (0.6 μ g), empty pHM-B, and pHM-ProT α (as indicated). ProT α was partly purified 40 h after transfection and analyzed by denaturing PAGE in 8% gel. (a) Gel staining with Methylene Blue. The positions of cell tRNA and ProT α are indicated with arrows. (b) Luciferase activity of cell lysates.

Two experiments confirmed this assumption. First, HeLa cells were used to produce the ProT α K87E mutant, which had a mutation affecting K⁸⁷R, the other component of the bipartite NLS. The active transport of the K87E mutant into the nucleus is distorted [6], while its C-terminal peptide (100–109) is the same as in the wild-type ProT α . The K87E mutation reduced the ability of ProT α to activate p53-dependent transcription (Fig. 4b), although the mutant was synthesized as efficiently as the wild-type ProT α (Fig. 4c). Thus, the C-terminal region of ProT α harbors a determinant that is essential for stimulating the p53-dependent gene expression, and this determinant is the NLS.

Second, we produced ProT α (1–99) N-fused with the NLS of the SV40 T antigen. The chimeric protein activated p53-responsive reporter gene almost as efficiently as the control full-size ProT α N-fused with the SV40 T-antigen NLS (Fig. 4b). This finding indicates that the C end of ProT α harbors only one determinant important for the activation of p53-dependent transcription, namely, the NLS.

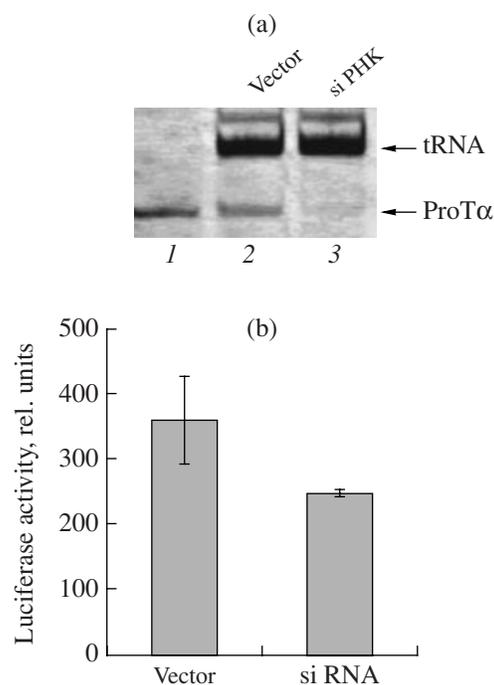


Fig. 3. ProT α -specific RNA interference inhibits the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene. (a) Electrophoresis of ProT α partly purified from HeLa cells infected with (2) the empty lentiviral vector pLS-Lpw or (3) pLS-siRNA_{33–53}. Lane 1, recombinant ProT α (0.5 μ g). Proteins were separated by PAGE in 8% gel containing 7 M urea and stained with Methylene Blue. (b) HeLa cells infected with pLS-Lpw (Vector) or pLS-siRNA_{33–53} (siRNA) were transfected with the reporter plasmids p53RE-luc and pHM-LacZ. The luciferase activity of cell lysates was measured 40 h after transfection.

Interaction of ProT α with Keap1 Is Not Essential for p53-Dependent Transcription

As shown recently, expression of a siRNA specific for the Keap1 mRNA activates p53-dependent transcription in HeLa cells [15]. Hence, it is possible to assume that Keap1 acts as a p53 inhibitor, for instance, owing to its ability to target proteins for proteasomal degradation. Since Keap1 interacts with ProT α , an increase in ProT α can be expected to reduce the free Keap1 pool and, consequently, to activate p53. To check whether this mechanism underlies the observed stimulatory effect of ProT α on the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene, the ProT α E44,50G double mutant was produced in HeLa cells. As we have found previously, ProT α containing Gly in place of Glu44 and Glu50 is incapable of interacting with Keap1 [10]. It was observed, however, that the E44,50G mutations did not impair the ProT α ability to stimulate the p53-responsive reporter gene expression (Fig. 4b). Thus, the interaction of ProT α with Keap1 was insignificant for the observed stimulation of p53-dependent transcription.

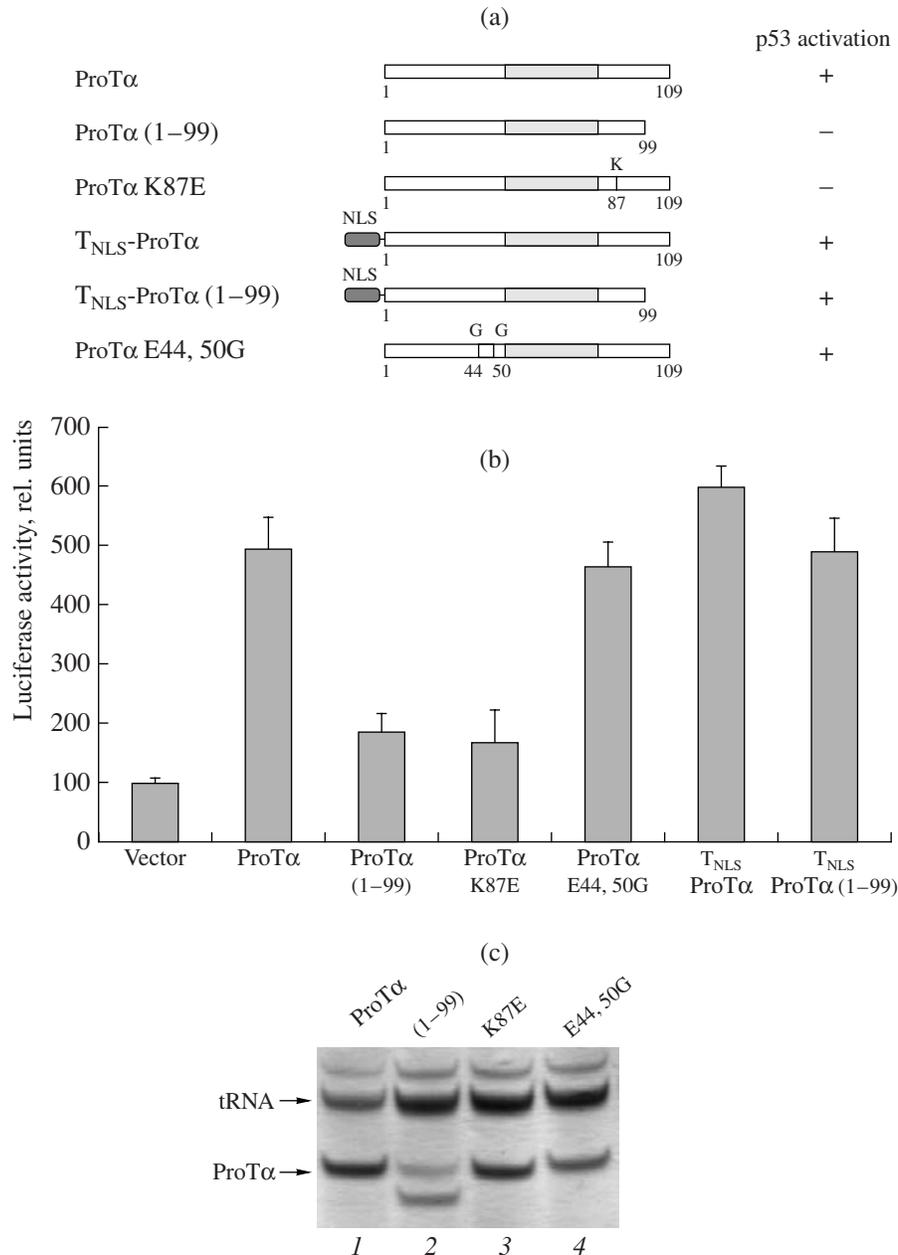


Fig. 4. Effect of C-terminal deletions and point mutations on the ability of ProT α to activate the p53-responsive reporter gene. (a) Schemes of the ProT α mutants. Gray bar, the ProT α region enriched in acidic residues; NLS, the NLS of the SV40 large T antigen. The extent of p53 activation was (+) more than 75% or (–) less than 25% of that determined by the full-size ProT α . (b) Luciferase activity of cell lysates 40 h after transfection of HeLa cells with a mixture of p53RE-luc (0.15 μ g), pHM-lacZ (0.25 μ g), and a plasmid coding for a ProT α mutant (1.6 μ g). Empty pHM-B (Vector) was used as a negative control. (c) Electrophoretic analysis of the production of some proteins.

Deletion of the N-Terminal Half Does Not Affect the Ability of ProT α to Activate p53-Dependent Transcription

To study the contribution of the N-terminal half into the stimulatory effect of ProT α on p53-dependent transcription, ProT α mutants with N-terminal and internal deletions were produced in HeLa cells (Fig. 5a). In contrast to C-terminal deletions, deletion

of the N-terminal region did not prevent ProT α from activating p53-dependent transcription. For instance, ProT α (32–109), devoid of the 31 N-terminal residues, remained capable of activating the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene (Fig. 5b). This mutant had a hexahistidine tag and the vector-encoded X-press epitope in place of the N-terminal peptide. Hence, the effect of ectopic expression on the reporter

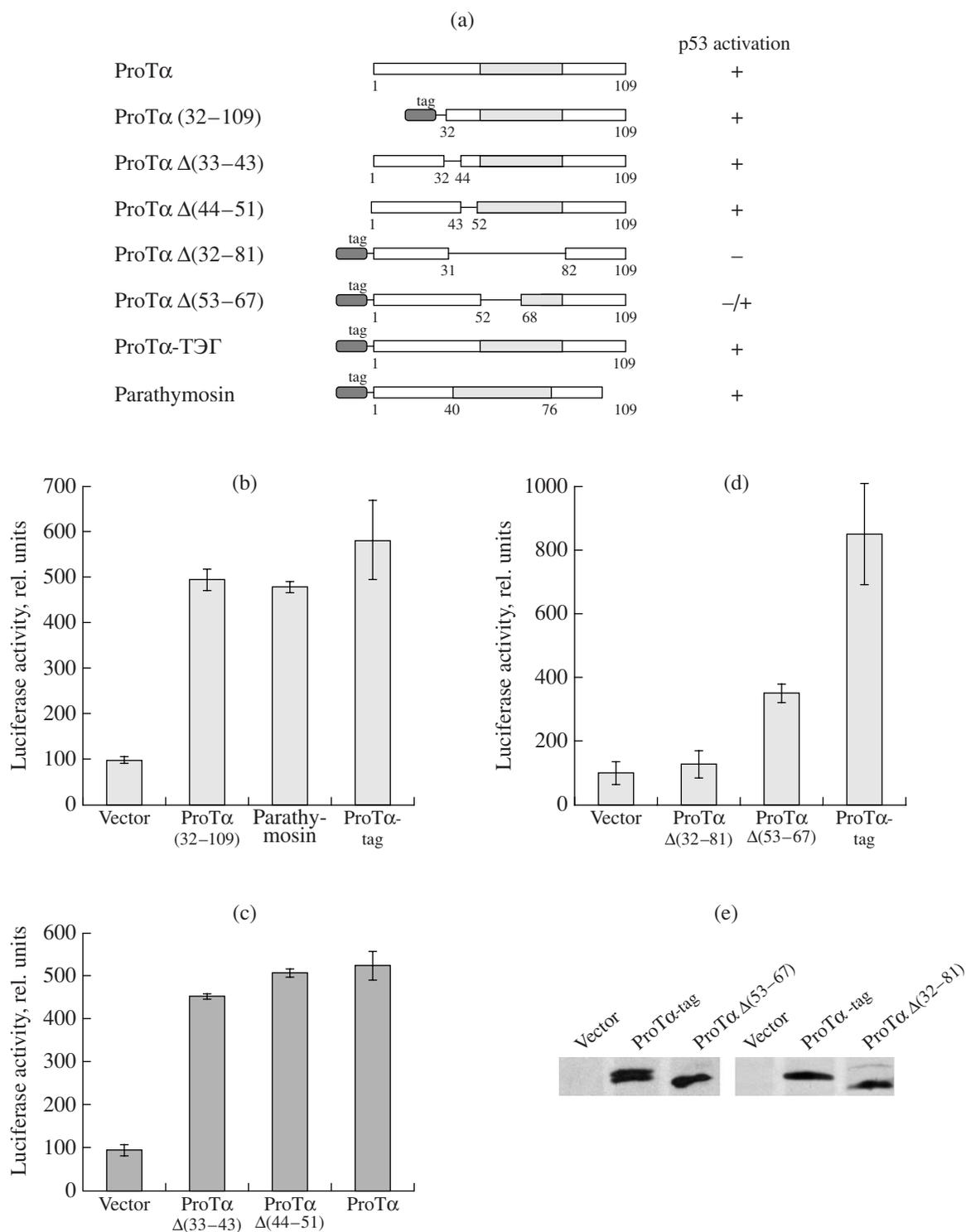


Fig. 5. Effect of deletions from the N-terminal and central region on the ability of ProTα to activate the p53-responsive reporter gene. (a) Schemes of the ProTα mutants. Gray bar, the ProTα and parathymsin regions enriched in acidic residues; black bar, the hexahistidine tag and the X-press epitope, encoded by the vector. The extent of p53 activation was (+) more than 75%, (-) less than 25%, or (+/-) 25–75% of that determined by the full-size ProTα. (b–d) Luciferase activity of cell lysates 40 after transfection of HeLa cells with a mixture of p53RE-luc (0.15 μg), pHM-lacZ (0.25 μg), and a plasmid coding for the protein indicated (1.6 μg). Empty pHM-B (Vector) was used as a negative control. (e) Immunoblotting of the lysates of HeLa cells producing ProTα Δ(53–67), ProTα Δ(32–81), and ProTα-tag (positive control) with antibody 2F11, specific for the N-terminal region of ProTα.

gene was compared for ProT α (32–109) and the full-size ProT α N-tagged with the same additional sequences (ProT α -tag).

We failed to produce detectable amounts of ProT α mutants with larger deletions in HeLa cells, possibly, because such mutants were unstable. The role of ProT α region 32–51 in activating p53 was studied with two mutants having short internal deletions from this region, ProT α Δ (33–43) and ProT α Δ (44–51). The mutants did not have an additional peptide or tag, and their effects on reporter gene expression was compared with that of the full-size ProT α . The two mutants retained the capability of activating the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene (Fig. 5c). Thus, deletions from the N-terminal half did not affect the ProT α ability to activate p53-dependent transcription.

The Central Region of ProT α Is Responsible for Stimulation of p53-Dependent Transcription

A deletion of 15 central amino acid residues (Δ (53–67)) partly reduced the stimulatory effect of ProT α on the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene, and a deletion of the entire central acidic region (Δ (32–81)) completely abolished the stimulatory effect (Fig. 5d). The intracellular levels of ProT α Δ (53–67) and ProT α Δ (32–81) were comparable with that of the full-size ProT α (Fig. 5e).

It is possible to assume on the basis of these findings that the central region, along with the C-terminal bipartite NLS, is responsible for the ProT α ability to stimulate p53-dependent transcription. The central region of ProT α harbors large clusters of negatively charged Glu and Asp residues (region 52–82). To check whether p53 transcription can be activated by clusters of acidic residues, HeLa cells were used to produce parathymosin, which contains similar acidic clusters and a bipartite NLS. Parathymosin activated the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene to the same extent as ProT α (Fig. 5b). The results demonstrate that the central acidic region and C-terminal NLS are responsible for the ability of ProT α to stimulate p53-dependent transcription.

Overproduction of ProT α Increases the Intracellular Level of p53 in HeLa Cells

The effect of ProT α on the intracellular level of p53 was studied by immunoblotting with a monoclonal antibody against p53 (Fig. 6). Ectopic expression of ProT α proved to increase the p53 level in HeLa cells, as compared with the level observed in control cells (Fig. 6a). Thus, an increase in ProT α stabilizes p53, rather than merely stimulating its transcriptional activity. It should be noted, however, that the increase in p53 level upon ProT α production was

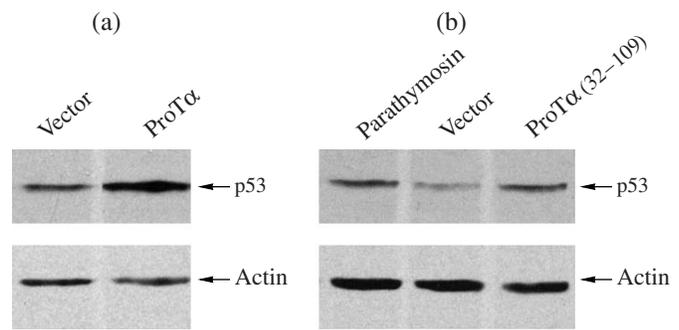


Fig. 6. Overproduction of (a) ProT α , (b) ProT α (32–109), and parathymosin increases the intracellular level of p53 in HeLa cells. The lysates of HeLa cells transfected as described in Figs. 4 and 5 were analyzed by immunoblotting with antibodies against p53 (upper panel) and actin (lower panel).

lower than in the case of genotoxic stress caused by Dox (Figs. 1c, 6a). Ectopic expression of the genes for parathymosin and the ProT α mutant with an N-terminal deletion similarly increased the p53 level (Fig. 6b).

The effect of ProT α on the intracellular level of p53 was not observed in HCT116 and HEK293 cells. We think that the difference is probably associated with specifics of p53 regulation in HeLa cells.

DISCUSSION

We found that ProT α stimulates the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene in HeLa cells in a dose-dependent manner. To study the mechanism of this effect, we mapped the ProT α region responsible for stimulation. Deletions of residues 1–31, 33–43, and 44–51 from the N-terminal half did not prevent ProT α from stimulating p53-dependent transcription. The N-terminal region harbors the 28 residues that belong to thymosin α 1, an immunostimulating peptide isolated from the thymus [1, 2]. In addition, this region contains the LKEKK cluster of positively charged residues, which is presumably responsible for the competition of ProT α and interferon α for the interaction with surface receptors of fibroblasts [19], and Thr7 and Thr12/13, which can be phosphorylated in ProT α [20]. These functional domains of ProT α and the region of ProT α interaction with Keap1 [10] proved to be inessential for stimulation of p53-dependent transcription.

In total, the N-terminal half (residues 1–51) of ProT α has a 31% content of acidic amino acid residues and a 10% content of positively charged residues, thus being far less acidic than the central region (52–82), which consists of acidic residues to the extent of 80%. According to our deletion analysis, it is the acidic region that is responsible for the ProT α ability to stimulate p53-dependent transcription. This

conclusion is supported by the fact that parathymosin, a small acidic protein that is similar in properties to ProT α , activates the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene as well as ProT α does. Parathymosin has several regions of high homology to ProT α [21]. Two peptides, ¹⁴KDLKEKKE²¹ and ¹⁹KKEVVEE²⁵, common for the two proteins and located in the N-terminal region of ProT α , are inessential for stimulation of p53-dependent transcription. The other regions of high homology to ProT α are in the extended acidic region (39–76) of parathymosin (compare with acidic region 52–82 of ProT α): the parathymosin region is EE⁴⁰ EEQGAE⁵⁰ ETAEDGEEED⁶⁰ EGEEEDDEEE⁷⁰ EEEDDE⁷⁶, and the ProT α region is DEEEEGGE⁶⁰ EEEEEEGDG⁷⁰ EEEDGDEDEE⁸⁰ AE⁸².

We think that the large clusters of acidic residues are responsible for the ability of the two proteins to stimulate p53-dependent transcription. Deletion of E⁵³EEEEEGGE EEEEEEE⁶⁷ from the acidic region substantially reduced the stimulating effect of ProT α on the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene, and deletion of the entire central region (Δ (33–81)) completely abolished this effect.

In addition, activation of p53 required an intact NLS, which consists of two clusters of positively charged residues, K⁸⁷R and KKQK¹⁰⁴, in ProT α . The K87E mutation, affecting the first cluster, or deletion of the KKQK¹⁰⁴ cluster substantially impaired the ability of ProT α to activate p53-dependent transcription. In the case of the KKQK¹⁰⁴ deletion, fusion with the heterologous NLS of the SV40 large T antigen restored the ability of ProT α (1–99) to activate the expression of the p53-responsive reporter gene. This indicates that the C-terminal peptide of ProT α lacks any determinant important for p53 activation apart from the NLS. It should be noted that the C-terminal region of parathymosin also harbors a bipartite NLS (K⁸⁰R.....KRNK⁹⁵) [21].

The central acidic region of ProT α is responsible for its interactions with histones and histone acetyltransferases. It is through that ProT α modulates the chromatin structure by interacting with histone H1 [1]. Polyglutamic acid, an analog of the central acidic domain of ProT α , abolishes this interaction, suggesting its electrostatic nature [22]. Gene expression is regulated at the level of chromatin structure via histone acetylation by histone acetyltransferases. ProT α interacts with homologous histone acetyltransferases p300 and CBP and enhances their stimulating effect on transcription from several promoters [8, 9]. The ProT α region interacting with CBP has been mapped to central domain 52–69, which consists almost completely of acidic residues [8].

Therefore, our finding that the acidic region of ProT α plays a key role in stimulating p53-dependent transcription in HeLa cells suggests that the mechanism of this effect involves a recruitment of histone

acetyltransferases to the target promoters with consequent histone acetylation and chromatin decondensation. Similar data have been reported for parathymosin [23]. Parathymosin stimulates the hormone-dependent transcriptional activity of the glucocorticoid receptor, and its central acidic domain and NLS are essential for this effect. Hormone-dependent coimmunoprecipitation with parathymosin has been observed for the glucocorticoid receptor, p300, and CBP, suggesting that parathymosin is a component of a coactivation complex containing these proteins [23]. However, both parathymosin and ProT α activate transcription by recruiting p300 and/or CBP on some, rather than all, promoters. For instance, parathymosin increases the transcriptional activity of the glucocorticoid, but not estrogen, receptor [23]. ProT α affects p53-dependent transcription and exerts no effect on E2F- or Myc-dependent transcription [24]. The mechanism sustaining the selective effect of ProT α remains unclear.

Our results agree with published data that ectopic expression of the ProT α gene stimulates p53-dependent transcription in several cell lines: H1299, Saos-2, HepG2, A549, HEK293, and U2OS [24]. Ectopic expression of the ProT α gene has been found to stimulate p53 acetylation at Lys373, Lys382, and Lys320 [24], which seems to mediate the increase in transcription of p53-dependent genes. Stimulation of p53-dependent transcription has not been observed in HCT116 cells, which agrees with our results. HeLa cells have not been examined in [24].

Overproduction of ProT α in HeLa cells increased, not only the transactivating activity, but also the intracellular level of p53, which has not been observed in other cell lines [24]. We think that ProT α utilizes an additional mechanism to stabilize and activate p53 in HeLa cells and, possibly, other HPV-positive cervical carcinoma cells.

A distinctive feature of HeLa cells is that p53 regulation is distorted as a result of the expression of the HPV18 E6 oncogene. It is thought that E6 acts in complex with cell ubiquitin ligase E6-AP (E6-associated protein) to promote p53 degradation by the ubiquitin-dependent proteolytic system [25]. Consequently, the p53 level in HeLa cells is substantially reduced and is independent of Mdm2. To explain the stabilization of p53 upon ProT α overproduction, it is possible to assume that ProT α interacts with E6 or E6-AP, which regulate the p53 level in HeLa cells, rather than with Mdm2, as we believed earlier.

Similar systems are known. For instance, Pitx2a binds with E6 and this binding inhibits E6/E6-AP-dependent degradation of p53 and stimulates its transactivating activity in HeLa cells but not in HPV-negative HCT116 cells [26].

Is there any contradiction in the fact that ProT α , acting as an oncoprotein, stimulates transcription of the target genes of p53, a tumor suppressor? Such dual properties are known for several oncoproteins and tumor suppressors. For instance, the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21 suppresses apoptosis (oncogenic activity) or arrests the cell cycle (antioncogenic activity) in different systems [27, 28]. The well-known oncoproteins Myc and E2F-1 promote apoptosis (anti-oncogenic activity) or stimulate cell proliferation (oncogenic activity) in different systems [29]. Hence, it is not surprising that ProT α , an oncoprotein, stimulates cell proliferation in some systems and, in some others, activates p53-responsive genes, which may lead to a cell cycle arrest. ProT α -dependent transcriptional activation of p53-responsive genes is possibly a cell response to an inadequate proliferation stimulus and is similar to p53 activation in response to an increase in the intracellular pool of other known oncoproteins [28].

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We are grateful to P.M. Chumakov for the plasmids and protocols of experiments with the lentiviral system and to B.P. Koptin for the HCT116 wt and p53 $^{-/-}$ cell lines.

This work was supported by the Russian Foundation for Basic Research (project nos. 06-04-49126, 05-04-48491, and 05-04-90587-NNS).

REFERENCES

- Pineiro A., Cordero O., Nogueira M. 2000. Fifteen years of prothymosin α : Contradictory past and new horizons. *Peptides*. **21**, 1433.
- Vartapetian A.B., Uversky V.N. 2003. Prothymosin α : A simple yet mysterious protein. In: *Protein Structures: Kaleidoscope of Structural Properties and Functions*. Trivandrum, India: Research Signpost.
- Letsas K.P., Frangou-Lazaridis M. 2006. Surfing on prothymosin α proliferation and anti-apoptotic properties. *Neoplasma*. **53**, 92–96, 92–96.
- Orre R.S., Cotter M.A., Subramanian C., Robertson E.S. 2000. Prothymosin α functions as a cellular oncoprotein by inducing transformation of rodent fibroblasts *in vitro*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **17**, 1794–1799.
- Evstafieva A.G., Belov G.A., Kalkum M., Chichkova N.V., Bogdanov A.A., Agol V.I., Vartapetian A.B. 2000. Prothymosin α fragmentation in apoptosis. *FEBS Lett.* **467**, 150–154.
- Evstafieva A.G., Belov G.A., Rubtsov Y.P., Kalkum M., Joseph B., Chichkova N.V., Sukhacheva E.A., Bogdanov A.A., Pettersson R.F., Agol V.I., Vartapetian A.B. 2003. Apoptosis-related fragmentation, translocation, and properties of human prothymosin α . *Exp. Cell Res.* **284**, 211–223.
- Jiang X., Kim H.E., Shu H., Zhao Y., Zhang H., Kofron J., Donnelly J., Burns D., Ng S.C., Rosenberg S., Wang X. 2003. Distinctive roles of PHAP proteins and prothymosin- α in a death regulatory pathway. *Science*. **299**, 223–226.
- Karetsou Z., Kretsovali A., Murphy C., Tsolas O., Papamarcaki T. 2002. Prothymosin α interacts with the CREB-binding protein and potentiates transcription. *EMBO Rep.* **3**, 361–366.
- Subramanian C., Hasan S., Rowe M., Hottiger M., Orre R., Robertson E.S. 2002. Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 3C and prothymosin α interact with the p300 transcriptional coactivator at the CH1 and CH3/HAT domains and cooperate in regulation of transcription and histone acetylation. *J. Virol.* **76**, 4699–4708.
- Karapetian R.N., Evstafieva A.G., Abaeva I.S., Chichkova N.V., Filonov G.S., Rubtsov Y.P., Sukhacheva E.A., Melnikov S.V., Schneider U, Wanker E.E., Vartapetian A.B. 2005. Nuclear oncoprotein prothymosin α is a partner of Keap1: Implications for expression of oxidative stress-protecting genes. *Mol. Cell Biol.* **25**, 1089–1099.
- Harris S.L., Levine A.J. 2005. The p53 pathway: Positive and negative feedback loops. *Oncogene*. **24**, 2899–2908.
- Chumakov P.M. 2000. Function of p53 gene: A life-or-death choice. *Biokhimiya*. **65**, 34–47.
- Inoue T., Wu L., Stuart J., Maki C.G. 2005. Control of p53 nuclear accumulation in stressed cells. *FEBS Lett.* **579**, 4978–4984.
- Scheffner M., Huibregtse J.M., Vierstra R.D., Howley P.M. 1993. The HPV-16 E6 and E6-AP complex functions as a ubiquitin–protein ligase in the ubiquitination of p53. *Cell*. **75**, 495–505.
- Guryanova O.A., Makhanov M., Chenchik A.A., Chumakov P.M. 2006. Optimization of a genome-wide disordered lentivector-based short hairpin RNA library. *Mol. Biol.* **40**, 448–459.
- Shakulov V.R., Vorobjov I.A., Rubtsov Yu.P., Chichkova N.V., Vartapetian A.B. 2000. Interaction of yeast importin with the NLS of prothymosin α is insufficient to trigger nuclear uptake of cargoes. *Biochim. Biophys. Res. Commun.* **274**, 548–552.
- Sukhacheva E.A., Evstafieva A.G., Fateeva T.V., Shakulov V.R., Efimova N.A., Karapetian R.N., Rubtsov Y.P., Vartapetian A.B. 2002. Sensing prothymosin α origin, mutations and conformation with monoclonal antibodies. *J. Immunol. Meth.* **266**, 185–196.
- Evstafieva A.G., Chichkova N.V., Makarova T.N., Vartapetian A.B., Vasilenko A.V., Abramov V.M., Bogdanov A.A. 1995. Overproduction in *Escherichia coli*, purification, and properties of human prothymosin α . *Eur. J. Biochem.* **231**, 639–643.
- Zav'yalov V.P., Navolotskaya E.V., Vasilenko R.N., Abramov V.M., Volodina E.Y., Roslovtseva O.A., Prusakov A.N., Kaurov O.A. 1995. The sequence 130–137 of human interferon- α 2 is involved in the competition of interferon, prothymosin α and cholera toxin B subunit for common receptors on human fibroblasts. *Mol. Immunol.* **32**, 425–431.
- Barcia M.G., Castro J.M., Jullien C.D., Freire M. 1993. Prothymosin α is phosphorylated in proliferating stimulated cells. *J. Biol. Chem.* **268**, 4704–4708.

21. Trompeter H.I., Soling H.D. 1992. Cloning and characterization of a gene encoding the 11.5-kDa zinc-binding protein (parathymosin- α). *FEBS Lett.* **298**, 245–248.
22. Papamarcaki T., Tsolas O. 1994. Prothymosin α binds to histone H1 *in vitro*. *FEBS Lett.* **345**, 71–75.
23. Okamoto K., Isohashi F. 2005. Macromolecular translocation inhibitor II (Zn(2+)-binding protein, parathymosin) interacts with the glucocorticoid receptor and enhances transcription *in vivo*. *J. Biol. Chem.* **280**, 36986–36993.
24. Kobayashi T., Wang T., Maezawa M., Kobayashi M., Ohnishi S., Hatanaka K., Hige S., Shimizu Y., Kato M., Asaka M., Tanaka J., Imamura M., Hasegawa K., Tanaka Y., Brachmann R.K. 2006. Overexpression of the oncoprotein prothymosin α triggers a p53 response that involves p53 acetylation. *Cancer Res.* **66**, 3137–3144.
25. Doorbar J. 2006. Molecular biology of human papillomavirus infection and cervical cancer. *Clin. Sci. (London)*. **110**, 525–541.
26. Wei Q. 2005. Pitx2a binds to human papillomavirus type 18 E6 protein and inhibits E6-mediated p53 degradation in HeLa cells. *Biol. Chem.* **280**, 37790–37797.
27. Gartel A.L., Tyner A.L. 2002. The role of the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p21 in apoptosis. *Mol. Cancer Ther.* **1**, 639–649.
28. Roninson I.B. 2002. Oncogenic functions of tumor suppressor p21(Waf1/Cip1/Sdi1): Association with cell senescence and tumor-promoting activities of stromal fibroblasts. *Cancer Lett.* **179**, 1–14.
29. Oren M. 2003. Decision making by p53: Life, death, and cancer. *Cell Death Differ.* **10**, 431–442.