

Surfing on prothymosin α proliferation and anti-apoptotic properties

Minireview

K.P. LETSAS¹, M. FRANGOULAZARIDIS²

¹Second Department of Cardiology, e-mail: k.letsas@mail.gr, Evangelismos General Hospital of Athens, 10676 Athens, Greece; ²Laboratory of Biological Chemistry, Medical School of Ioannina, 45110 Ioannina, Greece

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Prothymosin α is an extremely abundant nuclear oncoprotein-transcription factor essential for cell cycle progression and proliferation that has been recently suggested as an anti-apoptotic factor. Similarly to other oncoproteins, prothymosin α is overexpressed in a variety of cancer tissues and cell lines. The present review highlights on the proliferation and anti-apoptotic properties of prothymosin α and its possible role in cancer development.

Key words: prothymosin α , transcription factor, proliferation, apoptosis, cancer

Prothymosin α (ProT α) is a 12.5 kDa acidic nuclear protein, first isolated from rat thymus as the putative precursor of thymosin α 1, and initially considered as a thymic immunoregulatory hormone [1, 2, 3]. In humans, ProT α is encoded by a gene family of six members. One of them contains introns, exons and classic regulatory signals, while the remaining five are intronless [4]. ProT α gene is upregulated by c-myc [5–8], E2F-1 [8] and human papilloma virus type 16 E6 oncogene [9], and downregulated by p53 tumor suppressor protein [10]. The wide distribution among mammalian tissues as well as the high conservation during evolution indicate an essential biological role of the protein [11, 12]. Previous studies performed during the last two decades have demonstrated a plethora of intracellular and extracellular functions of ProT α [13]. Today is widely accepted that the fundamental effects of the protein are closely related to cell proliferation and cell death (apoptosis). The present review highlights on the proliferation and anti-apoptotic properties of ProT α and its possible involvement in cancer development.

Prothymosin α and proliferation

Previous studies have demonstrated the crucial intracellular role of ProT α in cell cycle progression, proliferation and differentiation. ProT α is considered a chromatin-remodeling protein that modulates the interaction of histone H1

with chromatin [14]. The association of ProT α with the oncoprotein SET has been implicated in chromatin decondensation [15]. In the interphase nucleus the protein exhibits a punctuated nuclear distribution associated with transcription sites (PML and CstF64 proteins), while during mitosis ProT α is colocalized with alpha-tubulin in the mitotic spindle [16, 17]. ProT α mRNA expression is induced at the end of S and G2/M phases of cell cycle, in parallel with cyclin B levels [3]. ProT α transcripts are induced by growth stimulation of resting lymphocytes, NIH3T3 fibroblasts [4], thymocytes, and hepatocytes during liver regeneration [18]. ProT α mRNA expression is increased during the early post-implantation stages of mouse embryogenesis. ProT α gene is expressed exclusively in ectodermal and mesodermal structures, but not in endodermal regions [19]. Overexpression of ProT α has been shown to accelerate proliferation and retard differentiation in HL-60 cells [20]. Knockdown of ProT α synthesis by antisense oligonucleotides leads to cell division arrest [21].

ProT α has been linked to various transcriptional activation events that mediate critical stages of cell proliferation. The protein interacts with the CREB-binding protein, a versatile transcription co-activator, and stimulates AP1- and NF- κ B-dependent transcription [22]. NF- κ B activation is a well known transcription factor that mediates cellular transformation and induces tumorigenesis [23]. Epstein-Barr virus nuclear antigen 3C and ProT α interact with the p300

transcriptional coactivator and cooperate in the regulation of transcription [24]. ProT α selectively enhances estrogen receptor (ER) transcriptional activity and increases cell proliferation, while is itself upregulated by the estrogen-ER complex [25–27]. Furthermore, ProT α transcriptional activation by estradiol E2 has been implicated in the differentiation of human neuroblastoma SK-ER3 cells [28]. The tyrosine-phosphorylated signal transducer and activator of transcription-3 (STAT3) has been implicated in the induction of cell cycle progression and cellular transformation and prevention of apoptosis [29, 30]. ProT α interacts with STAT3 leading to STAT-3 translocation from the cytoplasm to the nucleus [10]. The phosphorylated STAT3 enter the nucleus and working coordinately with other transcriptional co-activators or transcription factors lead to increased transcriptional initiation. Activation of STAT3 signalling is accompanied by upregulation of target genes implicated in cell proliferation (cyclin D1, c-myc) [8, 30, 31].

ProT α has been suggested as an oncoprotein inducing transformation in rodent fibroblasts [32]. Similarly to other oncoproteins-transcription factors, ProT α is overexpressed in a variety of cancer tissues and cell lines, including colon [12, 33], hepatocellular [34], breast [35, 36], lung [33], ovarian [37], and thyroid cancer [38], as well as in human neuroblastoma [39] suggesting an essential role in tumorigenesis. Downregulation of ProT α gene with coincidental overexpression of connective tissue growth factor attenuates cell growth in human oral squamous cell carcinoma [40]. The inhibition of progression of prostatic intra-epithelial neoplasia to carcinoma by isoflavones has been attributed among the others to downregulation of ProT α expression [41]. Estradiol E2 upregulates ProT α mRNA and protein expression. Inhibition of nuclear ProT α expression in breast cancer cells using antisense methodology resulted in the inhibition of estradiol E2-induced breast cancer cell proliferation [42].

Prothymosin α and apoptosis

The most important transcription factors that are related to apoptosis can be divided into the following groups: (a) transcription factors that induce apoptosis such as E2F-1 [43], c-myc [44], p53 [45], c-Jun [46], and AFX [47]; (b) transcription factors that prevent apoptosis such as STAT3 [48], STAT5 [49], and ProT α [50]. NF- κ B can be either pro-apoptotic or anti-apoptotic, depending on the timing of the modulating NF- κ B activity relative to the death stimulus [51, 52].

ProT α has been recently associated with programmed cell death. Inhibition of ProT α synthesis and expression by antisense oligonucleotides and RNA interference, respectively, sensitizes cells to apoptosis [50, 53]. Ectopic production of human ProT α and its mutants with nuclear or nuclear-cytoplasmic localization confers increased resistance of HeLa cells toward the tumor necrosis factor-induced

apoptosis [54]. WANG et al have shown that ProT α gene is upregulated in the early stages of retinoic acid-induced apoptosis in T-cell lymphoma cells [55].

The protein has been suggested as an anti-apoptotic factor that negatively regulates caspase-9 activation by inhibition of apoptosome formation (Apaf-1/cytochrome c complex) [50]. The mitochondrial pathway is thought to be the principal target of survival signaling pathways, which act by stabilizing mitochondrial function and integrity and suppressing release of cytochrome c. Once cytochrome c has been released from the mitochondrion, it orchestrates assembly of an intracellular apoptosome complex that recruits caspase 9 via the adaptor protein Apaf-1 [56]. Apaf-1 is the molecular core of the apoptosome, a multiproteic complex mediating the so-called mitochondrial pathway of cell death. Apaf-1 is considered an essential downstream molecule of p53 to induce apoptosis, functioning as a tumor suppressor. Apaf-1 deficient, c-myc expressing cells are resistant to p53-dependent apoptosis, indicating the interrelationship between Apaf-1 and p53 [57]. p53-induced apoptosis is mediated mainly through the Bcl-2/Bax pathway via activation of bax gene [58]. ProT α expression is downregulated by p53 [59], a fact possibly critical in the p53-dependent pathway of apoptosis. Bcl-2 survival factor negatively modulates the formation of the apoptosome by blocking the release of cytochrome c from mitochondria [60]. We have recently showed a direct correlation between ProT α and Bcl-2 immunoeexpression patterns in thyroid carcinomas, and thus ProT α may promote cell survival through the Bcl-2 anti-apoptotic pathway [38]. An alternative anti-apoptotic program involving ProT α has been recently reported to be mediated by the RNA-binding protein HuR, a critical regulator of the post-transcriptional fate of target transcripts. In HeLa cells, treatment with the apoptotic stimulus triggered the mobilization of ProT α mRNA to the cytoplasm and onto heavier polysomes, where its association with the RNA-binding protein HuR increased dramatically. The anti-apoptotic action of HuR was shown to be vitally dependent on ProT α expression, since use of oligomers that blocked ProT α translation abrogated the protective effect of HuR [61].

Different activation pathways of NF- κ B may cause the expression of proteins that induce apoptosis (Fas, c-myc, p53) or inhibit apoptosis (TRAF2, IAP proteins, Bcl-2-like proteins) [62]. ProT α through the CREB-binding protein stimulates the NF- κ B-dependent transcription [22], and therefore may participate in the NF- κ B anti-apoptotic pathway. In addition, the association of ProT α with the anti-apoptotic protein STAT3 may be involved in a different anti-apoptotic program implicating the transcriptional activation of the Bcl-x1 protein [10, 29].

In apoptotic HeLa cells, caspase-3 cleaves ProT α at one major carboxyl terminal [DDVD (99)] and several suboptimal sites. The major caspase cleavage disrupts the nuclear localization signal of ProT α leading to a profound alteration in subcellular localization of the truncated protein

which becomes deficient in phosphate [54, 63, 64]. During apoptosis the negatively charged truncated ProT α interact with the positively charged cytochrome c. In the complexes formed, ProT α inhibits cytochrome c oxidation and abolishes its operation as electron carrier between the outer and inner mitochondrial membranes [65]. These data suggest that disabling of ProT α is a significant part of apoptosis.

ProT α has been considered as one of the molecules mediating the physiological switch between apoptosis and autophagic cell death in terminally differentiated cells such as neurons. Overexpression of ProT α with or without other caspase inhibitors has been reported to induce autophagic cell death possibly in association with cytochrome c release secondary to endogenous stress [66]. Additionally, ProT α has been recently demonstrated to exhibit a protecting role against oxidative stress by releasing the Nrj2 transcription factor from the Nrf2-Keap1 inhibitory complex [67].

Conclusion

ProT α seems to exhibit a strategic role in continuous cell growth and cancer development. The available evidence clearly indicates that ProT α acts pleiotropically in various transcriptional activation events that mediate critical stages of cell proliferation and apoptosis (Fig. 1). However, many questions remain to be answered: (a) a full picture of ProT α -target genes; (b) a better understanding of ProT α -dependent pathways that lead to cellular transformation and tumorigenesis; (c) the mechanisms of how ProT α through association with other factors increase transcriptional initiation; and (d) a more comprehensive definition of pathways leading to cell survival by inhibiting apoptosis.

Further studies are necessary to establish ProT α as a molecular marker for early detection of certain types of cancers as well as a prognostic index for determining tumor aggressiveness and the response to various treatments. The essential participation of ProT α in the proliferation and apoptotic processes is opening up new prospects regarding the detection of new molecular targets for the development of future cancer therapy.

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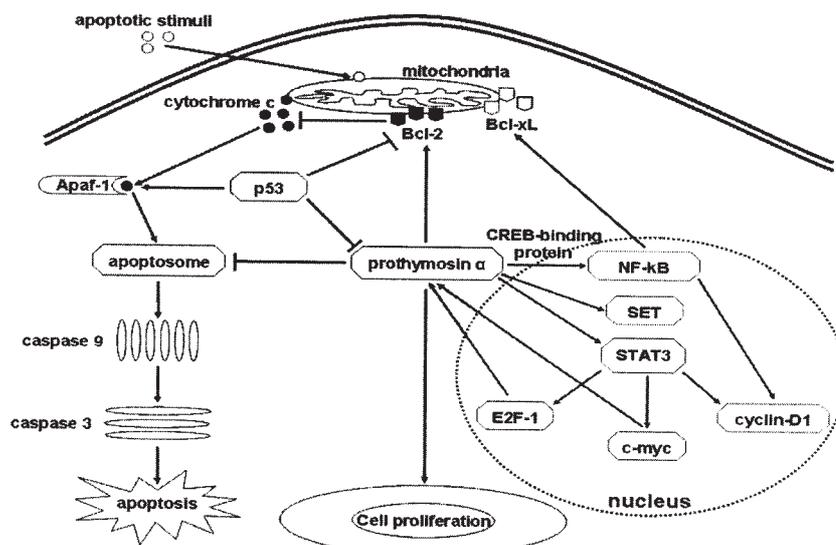


Figure 1. Selective model for prothymosin α target genes implicated in cell death and survival pathways.

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