



Distinct ligand-dependent and independent modes of thyroid hormone receptor (TR)/PGC-1 α interaction

Chaoshen Yuan^{b,1}, Phuong Nguyen^{b,2}, John D. Baxter^{a,b,*,3}, Paul Webb^{a,*}

^a The Methodist Hospital Research Institute, Genomic Medicine Program, Houston, TX 77030, United States

^b University of California Medical Center, Diabetes Center, San Francisco, CA 94122, United States

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ABSTRACT

Thyroid hormone receptor (TR)/peroxisome proliferator activated receptor coactivator (PGC-1 α) interactions are required for T₃-dependent transcriptional responses involved in adaptive thermogenesis and liver. Thus, it is important to define TR/PGC-1 α contact modes and to understand their significance in gene expression. Previous studies have shown that TR β 1 recruits PGC-1 α to target promoters *via* contacts between the hormone-dependent TR β 1 activation function 2 (AF-2) in the C-terminal ligand binding domain (LBD) and a major PGC-1 α nuclear receptor (NR) interaction box (consensus LxxLL) at amino acids 142–146. While our studies verify the existence and importance of this interaction, we present evidence that TR β 1 also binds PGC-1 α in a second ligand and LxxLL motif independent mode and show that this interaction requires the TR β 1 N-terminal domain (NTD) and the PGC-1 α N-terminal activation domain (AD) at amino acids 1–130. Transfection assays suggest that optimal PGC-1 α coactivation requires the TR β 1 NTD and that these contacts are needed for utilization of the PGC-1 α C-terminal AD, which does not bind TR and is implicated in basal transcription machinery contacts. We propose that TR AF-1/PGC-1 α contacts are needed for transition between activities of PGC-1 α N- and C-terminal ADs in gene expression. Our findings provide insights into possible roles for TR and NR AF-1 in gene expression.

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1. Introduction

Thyroid hormone receptors (TRs) are members of the nuclear hormone receptor (NR) family of transcription factors [1,2]. TRs bind thyroid hormone response elements (TREs) located near thyroid hormone responsive target genes, usually as heterodimers with retinoid X receptors (RXRs). Hormone (triiodothyronine, T₃) triggers changes in the conformation of the TR C-terminal ligand binding domain (LBD) that result in changes in gene expression [3]. Specifically, T₃ binding repositions C-terminal helix (H) 12, occluding a hydrophobic surface that binds NR corepressors and completing a coactivator binding surface (activation function 2, AF-2), which is comprised of residues from H3, H5 and H12 and acts as

a docking site for short α -helical coactivator peptides (consensus Leu-X-X-Leu-Leu, LxxLL) [4–6].

NRs harbor other cofactor binding sites in addition to AF-2 [5,7,8]. Many of these surfaces map to the N-terminal domain (NTD) and comprise a second activation function (AF-1), although the central DNA binding domain (DBD), the region that bridges the DBD and LBD, often called the hinge, and other LBD surfaces have also been implicated in NR/cofactor contact. While TR AF-1 activities have been documented [9,10], its mechanism of action is not clear. TR AF-2 recognizes several families of general NR coregulators [2], including steroid receptor coactivators (SRCs), and one report suggests that the AF-1 function of the pituitary-specific TR β 2 subtype makes auxiliary contacts with the SRC C-terminal domain [11]; a pro/glu rich region that binds NTDs of other NRs and lacks LxxLL motifs [12,13]. Presently, however, the partners of TR β 1 AF-1 and the range of cofactor binding sites within the TR are not well understood.

Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR) coactivators (PGCs) are TR interacting proteins [14–16]. PGC-1 α was discovered as a cold-inducible NR coactivator required for PPAR γ and TR induction of uncoupling protein 1 (UCP1) in brown fat [17]. Subsequently, PGCs have been linked to a stimuli that signal requirements for increased mitochondrial activity and altered metabolic responses [14,15]. For example, PGC-1 α is induced by fasting in liver and coordinates induction of genes involved in gluconeogenesis and

* Corresponding author at: The Methodist Hospital Research Institute, Genomic Medicine Program, Department of Medicine, 6565 Fannin Street F8-045, Houston TX 77030, United States. Tel.: +1 713 441 2516; fax: +1 713 793 7162.

** Corresponding author.

E-mail address: pwebb@tmhs.org (P. Webb).

¹ Current address: Department of Nutritional Science and Toxicology, University of California, Berkeley, United States.

² Current address: Department of Biochemistry and Biophysics, University of California Medical Center, San Francisco, United States.

³ Deceased.

fatty acid β -oxidation [18] and TR β /PGC-1 α contacts are important in T₃-induction of several liver genes, including carnitine palmitoyl transferase 1 α (CPT-1 α) and pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase (PDK4) [19–21].

NRs utilize a mix of conventional LxxLL-dependent and unusual LxxLL-independent contact modes in PGC-1 α recruitment [14,22]. PPAR γ , TRs and other NRs bind to a variant LxxLL at PGC-1 α amino acids 142–146 [14,23]; here, the LxxLL hydrophobic triad is conserved but there are differences in flanking amino acids that result in subtle differences in requirements for specific AF-2 surface amino acids relative to those needed for binding to SRC LxxLL motifs [24–26]. There is also evidence for a second non consensus NR box at amino acids 210–214 (LLxxL) in NR/PGC-1 α contacts [27–30]. In addition, there are NR/PGC-1 α contact modes that appear completely independent of the LxxLL motif. The PPAR γ hinge binds an auto-inhibitory region (AIR) of approximately 200 amino acids, C-terminal of the major LxxLL motif [28,31]. This enhances activity of the PGC-1 α N-terminal activation domain (AD) at amino acids 1–130, which binds coregulators with histone modification activities, SRC1 and the associated histone acetyl transferases CBP and p300 [31]. Estrogen receptors (ERs) and hepatocyte nuclear factor 4 α (HNF-4 α) also participate in non-LxxLL dependent PGC-1 α contact modes [29,32,33].

TRs interactions with the major PGC-1 α LxxLL motif initiate dynamic three-way interactions between TR, PGC-1 α and the mediator complex, which is part of the basal transcription machinery and binds to a PGC-1 α C-terminal AD that is implicated in RNA polymerase II recruitment [34]. The C-terminal AD is not required for PGC-1 α recruitment to TR regulated genes [35] and analysis of TR interactions with PGC-1 α in cultured cells and *in vitro* suggests that TR recruits PGC-1 α to target promoters such as UCP1 via LxxLL contacts, mediator complex then binds PGC-1 α and the mediator TRAP220 subunit LxxLL motif displaces the PGC-1 α LxxLL motif from TR AF-2, leading to altered cofactor presentation and a transition between PGC-1 α associated chromatin remodeling and transcriptional initiation activities [34]. The existence and roles of alternate non-LxxLL dependent modes of TR/PGC-1 α remain open questions.

In this study, we reinvestigated the basis of TR β /PGC-1 α interactions and show that TR β utilizes LxxLL dependent and independent modes to bind PGC-1 α . We suggest that the LxxLL independent mode is related to requirements for the C-terminal AD in optimal PGC-1 α coactivation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Plasmids

TR β mutations were generated in the context of a human TR β cDNA cloned into the pCMX expression vector [2]. TR β LBD cDNA was generated by PCR amplification of corresponding sequences in full length TR β . GAL-TR LBD (amino acid residues 202–460) and GST-TR expression vectors were generated by cloning PCR fragments into pM (Clontech) and pGEX-5X vector (Amersham Pharmacia) [4]. PGC-1 α expression vector was a gift of Dr. Bruce Spiegelmann (Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA) [17]. PGC-1mut (LxxAA) was generated by PCR-based mutagenesis using QuickChange™ Site-Directed Mutagenesis kit (Stratagene). Full length PGC-1 α was cloned into PM vector to create Gal4-PGC-1 α . GST-PGC-1 α LxxLL peptide and mutant peptide expression vectors were created by cloning synthetic oligonucleotides corresponding to amino acids 130–160 into pGEX-5X vector. PGC-1 α N- and C-terminal deletions were generated by PCR-amplification and cloned into pCMV-Tag 2B vector (Stratagene). For western blot and immunoprecipitation, PGC-1 α cDNA was cloned into

pCMV-Myc-tag vector (Clontech) and TR β cDNA was cloned into pCMV-Tag 2B to generate flag tagged TR β .

2.2. Cell culture

U2-OS, HeLa and CV-1 cells were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Hyclone Laboratories) at 37 °C and 5% CO₂. For transfection, cells were seeded in 12-well plates at density of 1×10^5 cells/well in 10% FBS-DMEM overnight. Transfections used TransFectin™ Lipid Reagent (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) using manufacturer's suggested protocol. T₃ or other ligands were added to the culture media 4 h after the plasmid-TransFectin mixture.

2.3. Luciferase assays

Transfected cells were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and harvested with cell lysis buffer containing 0.1 M Tris (pH 7.8) and 1% Triton100. Luciferase Activity was measured in a TopCount NXT luminescent counter (PerkinElmer). In some experiments, electroporation was used as previously described [4,36]. The plasmid pJ3 LacZ containing the β -galactosidase (β -Gal) gene was cotransfected in all assays as an internal control and β -Gal activity was measured by standard methods.

2.4. Co-immunoprecipitation (co-IP) and western blot

U2OS cells were seeded in 10 mm dishes at density of 3×10^6 (cells) and cotransfected with plasmid DNA including Flag-TR β , Myc-PGC-1 α and Myc-PGC-1 α mutant. After incubation with plasmid DNA-Transfectin (1:3 ratio) mixture overnight, cells were treated with T₃ (10^{-7} M) for 4 h. The monolayer was washed with PBS and lysed with buffer containing 1% Triton-100, 1 M Tris, PMF and proteinase inhibitor cocktail. Cell lysates were sonicated for 10 s three times on ice and then centrifuged at maximum speed for 15 min. The protein concentration of the supernatants was measured and 500 μ g of cell lysate was taken for immunoprecipitation. Cell lysates were pre-cleaned with normal rabbit IgG (approximately 4 μ g) at 4 °C for at least 1 h. Non-specific protein-IgG complexes were precipitated with protein G-sepharose (50 μ l) followed by centrifugation. Pre-cleaned cell lysates were then incubated with 4 μ g rabbit anti-Flag antibody (Rockland) and shaken at 4 °C overnight. To precipitate IgG-TR-PGC-1 α complex, 50 μ l of pre-washed protein G-sepharose beads (GE Health Care) was added to the cell lysates and continuously shaken at 4 °C for another 2–4 h followed by centrifugation (Eppendorf centrifuge) at max speed for 30 s. After removing supernatant, the precipitate was washed with lysis buffer for at least 5 times. After the last wash, all supernatant was removed and bound IgG-TR β -PGC-1 α complex was eluted from the beads by boiling in SDS loading buffer. The sample was heated and spun down at max speed for 1 min. Approximately 15–20 μ l of supernatant was subjected to SDS-PAGE (7.5% polyacrylamide). For western, 15–20 μ l of starting material was used. After electrophoresis, the proteins were transferred to a PVDF membrane. The membrane was then soaked in block buffer containing 5% milk in TTBS for 45 min and probed by mouse anti-Myc antibody and HRP conjugated goat anti mouse-IgG. The proteins were visualized with ECL system.

2.5. Pull-downs

Fusions of glutathione-S-transferase (GST) to TR β and TR β domains or PGC-1 α and GRIP1 fragments were prepared by bacterial expression and linked to solid supports using standard methods [37]. Bait proteins were synthesized and labeled with

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