

WNT11 Expression Is Induced by Estrogen-Related Receptor α and β -Catenin and Acts in an Autocrine Manner to Increase Cancer Cell Migration

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Abstract

Elevated expression of the orphan nuclear receptor estrogen-related receptor α (ERR α) has been associated with a negative outcome in several cancers, although the mechanism(s) by which this receptor influences the pathophysiology of this disease and how its activity is regulated remain unknown. Using a chemical biology approach, it was determined that compounds, previously shown to inhibit canonical Wnt signaling, also inhibited the transcriptional activity of ERR α . The significance of this association was revealed in a series of biochemical and genetic experiments that show that (a) ERR α , β -catenin (β -cat), and lymphoid enhancer-binding factor-1 form macromolecular complexes in cells, (b) ERR α transcriptional activity is enhanced by β -cat expression and vice versa, and (c) there is a high level of overlap among genes previously shown to be regulated by ERR α or β -cat. Furthermore, silencing of ERR α and β -cat expression individually or together dramatically reduced the migratory capacity of breast, prostate, and colon cancer cells *in vitro*. This increased migration could be attributed to the ERR α / β -cat-dependent induction of WNT11. Specifically, using (a) conditioned medium from cells overexpressing recombinant WNT11 or (b) WNT11 neutralizing antibodies, we were able to show that this protein was the key mediator of the promigratory activities of ERR α / β -cat. Together, these data provide evidence for an autocrine regulatory loop involving transcriptional upregulation of WNT11 by ERR α and β -cat that influences the migratory capacity of cancer cells. *Cancer Res*; 70(22); 9298–308. ©2010 AACR.

Introduction

The estrogen-related receptor α (ERR α ; NR3B1) is an orphan member of the nuclear receptor (NR) superfamily of transcription factors whose expression tracks with a negative outcome in breast and ovarian cancers (1–3). It is unclear whether this ubiquitously expressed receptor requires a canonical small molecule ligand. However, under conditions of metabolic stress, such as fasting, exercise, or cold, its expression is rapidly induced in tissues such as the heart, muscle, and liver (4, 5). In these tissues, it directs a gene expression program that results in increased mitochondrial number and increased expression of key enzymes required for the tricarboxylic acid cycle and β -oxidation of fatty acids (6–8). Thus, within the confines of normal physiology, ERR α seems to function primarily as a regulator of metabolic function under conditions of high-energy demand (9, 10). The extent to which its role as a

metabolic regulator is involved in the pathophysiology of cancer, however, remains to be determined (1–3).

In addition to its important role in oxidative metabolism, ERR α can modulate the activity of the estrogen receptor (ER) at some target genes (11). Indeed, the amino acid homology between ERR α and the classic ERs (ER α and ER β), particularly in their respective DNA-binding domains, initially suggested that the primary effect of ERR α in hormone-dependent cancers would be to modulate or interface with estrogen signaling pathways in cells. However, we and others have recently determined that only a relatively small percentage of ER target genes are coregulated by ERR α (12, 13). Although the significance of this cross talk remains to be established, the observation that ERR α knockdown dramatically affected the *in vivo* growth and *in vitro* migration of ER-negative MDA-MB 231 cells highlighted an independent role for this receptor in breast cancer (13).

Crystallographic analysis of the structure of several members of the NR superfamily has indicated that the hormone-binding domain of these proteins is configured in such a way as to create a cavity of between 360 and 1,400 Å³ that serves to dock small molecule agonists or antagonists (14). In the case of ERR α , however, it has been shown that its potential ligand binding cleft is occupied by the bulky side chains of four phenylalanines and that the remaining space (100 Å³) available in the pocket is likely to be too small to accommodate a regulatory ligand (15). Furthermore, by comparison with the structures of other agonist-activated NRs, the apoERR α

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protein seems to be in the “active” conformation (15, 16). This finding has raised the question as to how the transcriptional activity of this receptor is regulated and whether the processes and pathways that impinge on and activate ERR α can be manipulated for therapeutic advantage. Cofactor availability and activity are likely to be the primary mechanisms by which ERR α activity is regulated (5, 17–18). It has been shown, for instance, that the generally low basal activity of ERR α in cells can be dramatically upregulated by increasing the expression of either peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ coactivator-1 (PGC-1) isoform PGC-1 α or PGC-1 β . Indeed, the expression level and activity of these coactivators are regulated by the physiologic stresses that have been shown to activate ERR α transcriptional activity (19, 20). However, the extent to which these proteins regulate ERR α activity in breast cancer remains to be determined. Furthermore, it is unclear what pathologic signals regulate the activity/expression of these cofactors and whether or not there are cofactor-independent pathways that modulate ERR α activity. The goal of this study, therefore, was to identify pathways and processes upstream and downstream of ERR α that effect tumor pathophysiology and may be amenable to therapeutic manipulation.

Materials and Methods

Plasmids

The 3X-ERE-tata-luciferase reporter and pcDNA3-PGC-1 α 2X9 were previously described (21). pCMV- β -gal (Clontech), pcDNA (Invitrogen), and pBlueScriptII (Statagene) were purchased. pCMX- Δ N89 and TOP-Flash were gifts (Dr. B. Hogan, Duke University). The pMSCV-GFP-hWNT11 plasmid was generated by subcloning *WNT11* cDNA (MGC:141946) into pENTR3c (Invitrogen) and recombining into pMSCV-IRES-GFP.

Cell culture

Cell lines were obtained from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC; 2007–2009), expanded for two passages, and cryopreserved. All experiments were performed with cells of passage of <25. These cell lines were authenticated by morphologic inspection, short tandem repeat profiling, and *Mycoplasma* testing by ATCC and cultured in RPMI [Invitrogen; MDA-MB 436 (HTB-130), SKBR3 (HTB-30), PC-3 (CRL-1435), and HCT-116 (CCL-247)] or DMEM (Invitrogen; MDA-MB 231 (HTB-26)] supplemented with 8.5% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Sigma), 0.1 mmol/L nonessential amino acids, and 1 mmol/L sodium pyruvate (Invitrogen). Transient transfections were performed as described previously (22). Luciferase and β -galactosidase (β -gal) activities were measured using a Perkin-Elmer Fusion Instrument (22).

Coimmunoprecipitation

Whole-cell extracts were prepared using nondenaturing lysis buffer [20 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 8), 137 mmol/L NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1% Nonidet P-40, 2 mmol/L EDTA, and protease inhibitors (Sigma)]. Proteins were immunoprecipitated using antibodies to ERR α (21), β -catenin (β -cat; BD Biosciences), lymphoid enhancer-binding factor-1 (LEF-1; Santa Cruz Bio-

technology), and mouse IgG (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; 5 μ g antibody/500 μ g whole-cell extract, 16 hours, 4°C) and protein-A/G PLUS-Agarose beads (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; 4 hours, 4°C), washed using lysis buffer three times, and heat eluted in 2 \times sample buffer. Proteins were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE, transferred to nitrocellulose, and detected by Western blotting [ERR α (21), β -cat (EMD Biosciences), LEF-1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), and a light chain-specific secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch)].

Immunoblotting

Whole-cell extracts prepared using radioimmunoprecipitation assay buffer [50 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mmol/L NaCl, 1% Nonidet P-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.05% SDS, 1 mmol/L EDTA, protease inhibitors (Sigma)] were separated by 10% SDS-PAGE, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes, and detected using the following antibodies: ERR α (21), β -cat (BD Biosciences), WNT11 (Abcam), autophagy protein 5 (ATG5; Cell Signaling), lamin A (Santa Cruz Biotechnology), or glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH; Santa Cruz Biotechnology).

Adenoviral transduction

Adenoviruses expressing β -gal, PGC-1 α , PGC-1 α 2 \times 9, or PGC-1 α L2L3M were generated as described previously (21). MDA-MB 231 cells were infected at multiplicity of infection of 30 for 48 hours.

Gene silencing

Chemical small interfering RNAs (siRNA; Invitrogen, Qiagen) were used to silence *ERR α* (si*ERR α* A, HSS103381; si*ERR α* B, HSS103382), *β -cat* (si *β -cat* A, HSS102460; si *β -cat* B, HSS102461), *WNT11* (si*WNT11* A, SI00763378; si*WNT11* B, SI03148719), serum glucocorticoid kinase 1 (*SGKI*; si*SGKI* A, HSS109684; si*SGKI* B, HSS109685), or *ATG5* (si*ATG5* A, HSS114103; si*ATG5* B, HSS114104). Control siRNA sequences are listed in Supplementary Table S2. MDA-MB 231 cells were seeded (250,000 per six-well plate), and siRNAs were transfected using Dharmafect1 (Dharmacon; 100 nmol/L, 48 hours).

RNA preparation and analysis

Total RNA was isolated using the Bio-Rad Aurum RNA purification kit. cDNA was synthesized from 1 μ g total RNA using iScript (Bio-Rad). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) was performed [0.25 μ L cDNA, 0.3 μ mol/L primers (Supplementary Table S1) with iQ SYBRGreen supermix (Bio-Rad)], and results were calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation assays

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assays were performed as described previously (additional details in Supplementary Materials and Methods) using primer sequences listed in Supplementary Table S3.

WNT11 retroviral overexpression

pMSCV-IRES-GFP-hWNT11 and pMSCV-IRES-GFP-Gal4-DBD (control) were cotransfected (FuGene, Roche Applied Science) with the pCL10A1 packaging vector (Imigenex) into

293TS cells. These viral supernatants were clarified, polybrene supplemented (8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$), and used to infect MDA-MB 231 cells for two serial 24-hour infections. Positive cells were selected by three rounds of cell sorting for GFP expression, yielding the MDA-MB 231/Control (C) and MDA-MB 231/WNT11 cell lines.

Migration and viability assays

For migration assays, cells were serum starved [18 hours, DMEM (MDA-MB 231) or RPMI (MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116) with 0.1% bovine serum albumin and 10 mmol/L HEPES], and 2×10^4 cells (MDA-MB 231, MDA-MB 436, and PC-3) or 7.5×10^4 cells (HCT-116) in 100 μL were plated (BD Biocoat Control Inserts 8.0 micron, BD Biosciences), collagen coated (HCT-116), and migrated toward 8% FBS for 4 hours (MDA-MB 231, MDA-MB 436, and PC-3) or 16 hours (HCT-116). The membrane was stained (5% crystal violet in 20% methanol), and cells that migrated were counted. Duplicate transwells were used, and three high-powered fields (200 \times) were counted per membrane. Cell viability assays were performed in parallel with the migration studies using the Cell Titer Blue Assay (data not shown; Promega). Cells (2×10^4 in 100 μL) were seeded in triplicate on a 96-well plate for 4 hours followed by the addition of Cell Titer Blue dye (20 μL) for 12 hours. Resultant fluorescence at (535 nm_{Exc}, 620 nm_{Em}) was measured using a Perkin-Elmer Fusion Instrument. The fluorescence was calculated as the triplicate average (\pm SEM) followed by subtraction of background fluorescence from the medium. For *ERR α* , *β -cat*, and *WNT11* silencing, cells were transfected with siRNAs as described (Gene Silencing) 48 hours before the migration assay. For *WNT11* overexpression, migration assays were performed using the stable MDA-MB 231 cell lines, control, and *WNT11*. For conditioned medium (CM) studies, MDA-MB 231 cells migrated toward CM from the MDA-MB 231/C or MDA-MB 231/WNT11 cells.

Immunodepletion of WNT11

CM from MDA-MB 231/C and MDA-MB 231/WNT11 was harvested at 80% confluence and was depleted of *WNT11* protein by incubation with *WNT11* antibody (Abcam) or rabbit IgG (Santa Cruz Biotechnology; 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$, 4°C for 16 hours).

Statistical analyses

Transfection, qPCR, and migration data are represented as mean \pm SEM for three biological replicates. Significance was evaluated by ANOVA and the Neumann-Keul's post hoc test for migration studies (GraphPad).

Results

Cross talk between *ERR α* and Wnt signaling pathways

A chemical biology approach was used to define how *ERR α* is engaged in the regulation of pathways and processes of pathologic importance in cancer. Specifically, a high-throughput cell-based assay was used to identify compounds that modulate the transcriptional activity of the PGC-1 α /*ERR α* complex in MDA-MB 436 cells (*ERR α* negative). Among the most interesting compounds identified in this manner were the carbolines

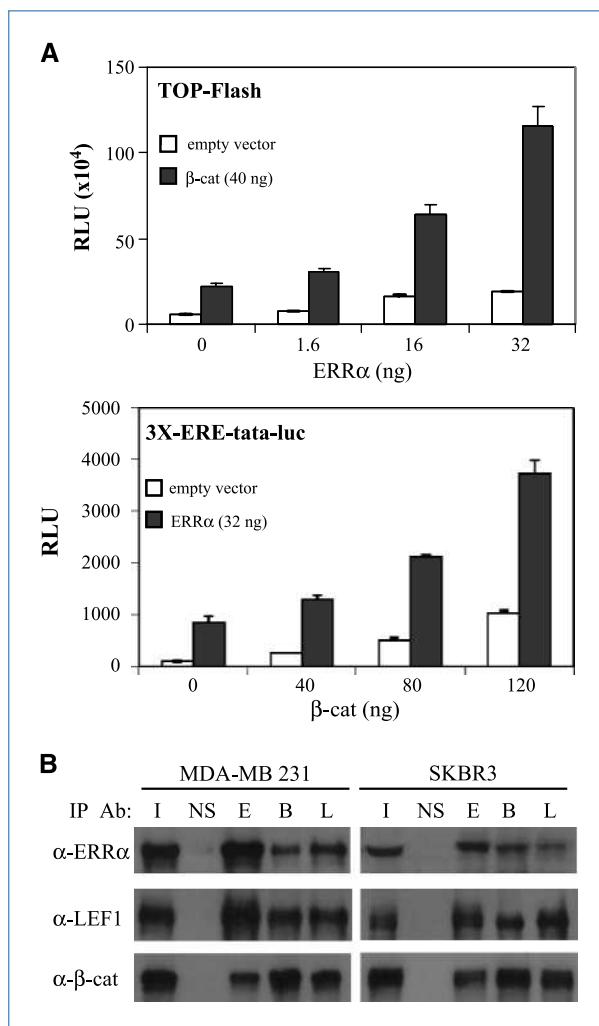


Figure 1. Cross talk of *ERR α* and Wnt signaling pathways. A, *ERR α* and β -cat potentiate each other's transcriptional activity when assessed in SKBR3 cells using the TOP-FLASH and 3X-ERE-tata-luc reporters to measure β -cat and *ERR α* activity, respectively. Similar transcriptional activation was observed in MDA-MB 436 cells. B, coimmunoprecipitation of endogenous *ERR α* , β -cat, and Lef-1 from SKBR3 and MDA-MB 231 whole-cell extracts was followed by Western blot analysis for the indicated proteins. IP Ab: I, input; NS, IgG; E, *ERR α* ; B, β -cat; L, Lef-1.

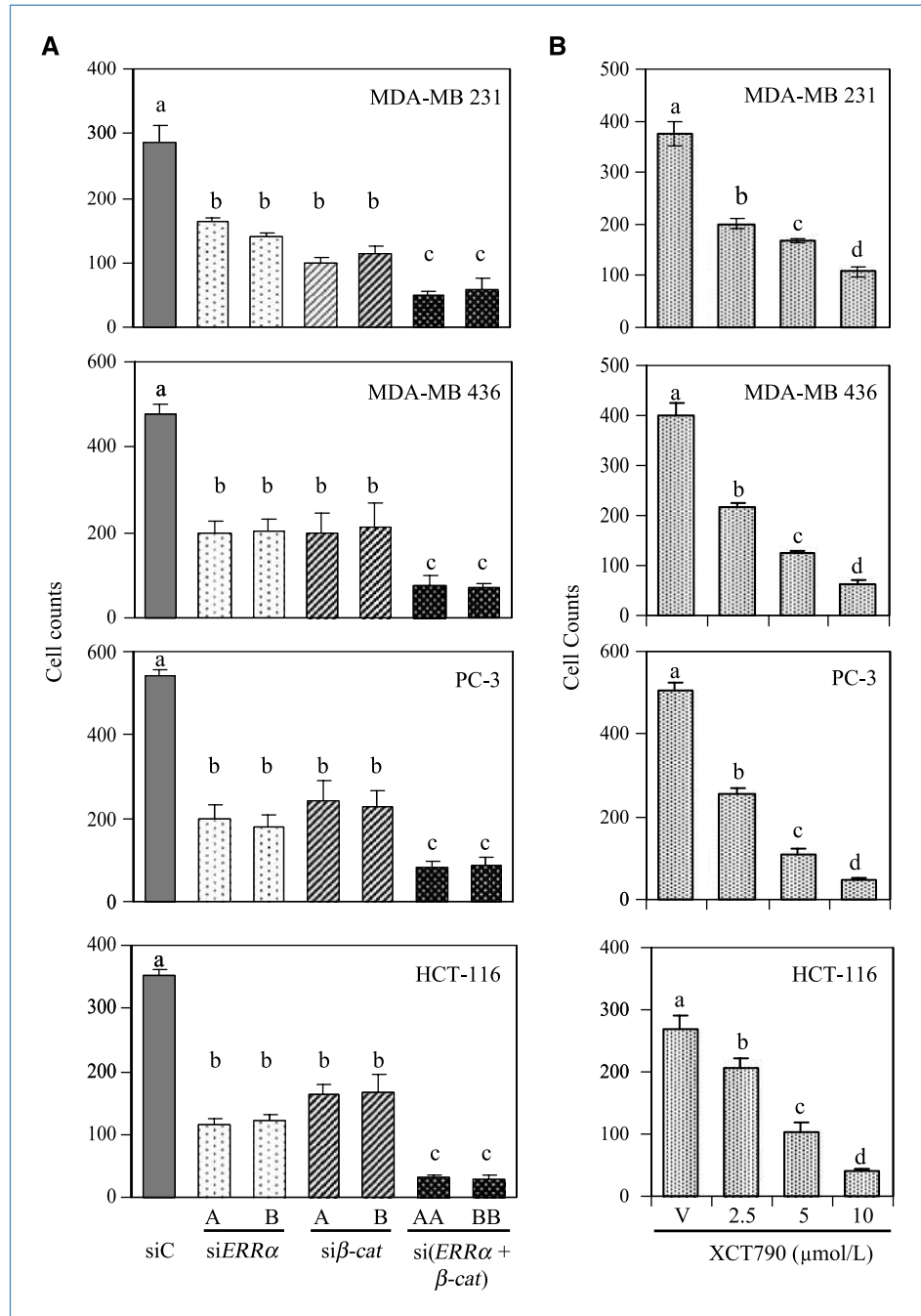
(harmol, harmine, harmene, and 6-methoxyharmalan), all of which inhibited *ERR α* transcriptional activity when assayed on a simple reporter (Supplementary Fig. S1). Previously, it has been shown that these carbolines could inhibit the canonical Wnt signaling pathway and, in doing so, enhance peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ) activity in adipogenesis assays *in vitro* (23). Given these data and the established role(s) of Wnt signaling in cell migration and invasion (24, 25), together with our previously published data, which implicates *ERR α* in this biological process (13), it seemed likely that both effectors were components of the same pathway.

As an initial step in our analysis, we evaluated the effect of *ERR α* expression on the transcriptional activity of a

constitutively active β -cat mutant when assayed on the TOP-Flash [T-cell factor (TCF)/LEF] luc-reporter. As shown in Fig. 1A, ERR α expression had a minimal effect on the basal expression of the reporter. However, a robust enhancement of β -cat-dependent transcriptional activity was observed on ERR α expression. Similarly, expression of β -cat significantly enhanced the activity of ERR α when assayed on the 3X-ERE-tata-luc reporter (Fig. 1A). As expected, β -cat increased the basal activity of this reporter by enhancing the transcriptional

activity of the endogenous ERR α levels expressed in SKBR3 cells. The pathway cross talk revealed in these transcriptional assays was further reinforced in a series of biochemical studies, which indicated that ERR α , β -cat, and LEF-1 physically interact (Fig. 1C). Specifically, we were able to show by coimmunoprecipitation studies performed with endogenously expressed proteins from SKBR3, MDA-MB 231, or MDA-MB 436 (data not shown) breast cancer cells that ERR α interacted with both β -cat and LEF-1. We confirmed the direct nature

Figure 2. ERR α and β -cat promote cancer cell migration. A, silencing of ERR α and/or β -cat reduced MDA-MB 231, MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116 migration. Cells were transfected with two different sequences of siRNAs (A and B) for ERR α , β -cat, scramble (siC), and serum starved for 18 h followed by assessment of migratory capacity and viability (data not shown). Mock (transfection reagent), si β -lactamase, and siATG5-treated cells exhibited similar migration to siC-treated cells (Supplementary Fig. S7). B, ERR α degradation by XCT790 impedes MDA-MB 231, MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116 migration. Cells were treated with XCT790 (0, 2.5, 5, and 10 μ mol/L) for 30 h and then serum starved for another 18 h. Migration and cell viability (data not shown) were performed as in A. Different letters denote significance ($P < 0.05$).



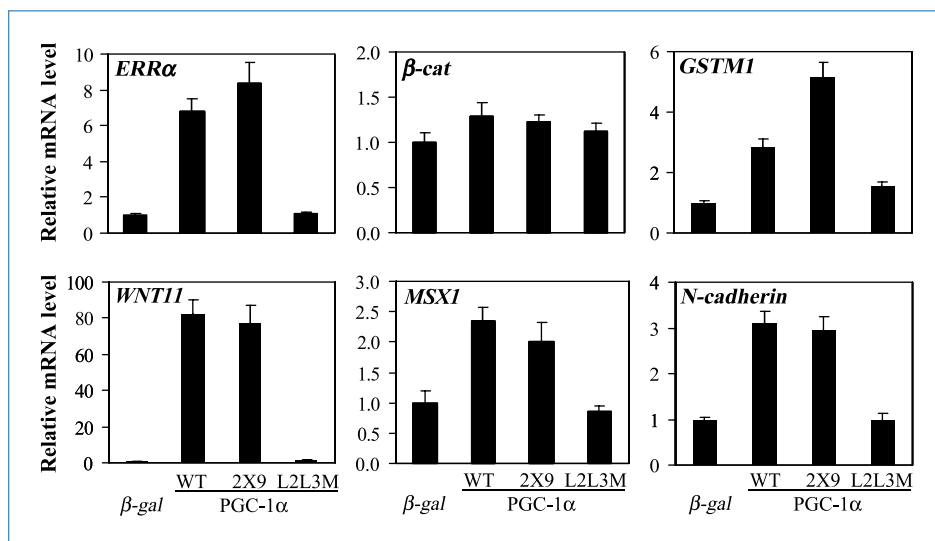


Figure 3. Novel $ERR\alpha$ target genes involved in migration. $ERR\alpha$ activation by PGC-1 α and PGC-1 α 2X9 induces the expression of *WNT11*, *MSX1*, and *N-cadherin* mRNAs in MDA-MB 231 cells. Cells were infected with adenoviruses expressing β -gal, PGC-1 α , PGC-1 α 2X9, or PGC-1 α L2L3M, followed by qPCR analysis of mRNA levels normalized to *36B4* expression and relative to β -gal.

of these interactions using glutathione *S*-transferase pull-down assays (Supplementary Fig. S2). Thus, using both chemical and biochemical approaches, we determined that the Wnt/ β -cat and $ERR\alpha$ signaling pathways converge, a finding of likely importance in cancer pathogenesis.

Both $ERR\alpha$ - and β -cat-regulated signaling pathways influence the migratory capacity of cancer cells

$ERR\alpha$ and β -cat have both been shown in independent studies to function as regulators of cancer cell migration (13, 25). Thus, given that these proteins physically interact and exhibit functional cross talk at the level of transcription, it seemed likely that they may also cooperate in the regulation of pathways that regulate cell migration. Thus, we evaluated the effect of siRNA-mediated knockdown of $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat, individually or combined, on the migratory capacity of multiple cancer cell lines including breast (MDA-MB 231 and MDA-MB 436), prostate (PC-3), and colon (HCT-116) cells using a Boyden chamber migration assay. Decreased cell migration was observed after silencing of $ERR\alpha$ or β -cat expression by either of two distinct siRNAs directed against each target, and this activity was further reduced when the expression of both proteins was knocked down simultaneously (Fig. 2A). Additionally, migration of MDA-MB 231 and PC-3 cells was not significantly affected by silencing of SGK1 or ATG5, a key component of autophagy with no known function in migration (Supplementary Fig. S3). No significant differences in cell viability were observed in cells treated with the selected siRNAs (data not shown) under the conditions used for the migration assays. The efficacy of each of the siRNAs in reducing the expression of their respective targets was confirmed by Western immunoblot analysis (Supplementary Fig. S4A). Furthermore, treatment with the inverse agonist XCT790 resulted in a dose-dependent degradation of $ERR\alpha$ and an inhibition of MDA-MB 231, MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116 cell migration (Fig. 2B; Supplementary Fig. S4B) with no significant changes in cell viability (data not shown). Taken together, these data indicate

that both $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat can promote the migratory capacity of several types of cancer cells.

$ERR\alpha$ regulates the expression of target genes encoding proteins with promigratory activities

In light of the cross talk between the $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat signaling pathways observed, we next asked whether these proteins cooperated in the regulation of genes involved in the migratory response. In previously published work, we used classic microarray analysis to identify $ERR\alpha$ target genes that were expressed in HepG2 and MCF-7 cells (6, 13, 26). Likewise, there are published studies that describe the β -cat transcriptome in 293T cells (26). With these data sets in hand, we were able to perform a comparative analysis and identify genes that (a) were regulated in both data sets and (b) were important for cell migration as shown in previous studies (26–31). In this manner, *WNT11*, *MSX1*, and *N-cadherin* were identified as genes that are likely to be coregulated by $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat.

The expression of *WNT11*, *MSX1*, and *N-cadherin* was next evaluated in MDA-MB 231 cells following the activation of $ERR\alpha$. Whereas the transcriptional activity of $ERR\alpha$ is regulated by the relative expression and/or activity of cofactors such as PGC-1 α and PGC-1 β (19, 20), other NRs, including PPAR γ and HNF-4, can also be coactivated by PGC-1 α , which makes it difficult to study the $ERR\alpha$ signaling axis in isolation using this cofactor as an activator (19, 32). To circumvent this problem, we developed a variant of PGC-1 α (PGC-1 α 2 \times 9) that interacts in a highly selective manner with $ERR\alpha$ and thus can be used to specifically regulate the activity of this receptor (6). In addition, when analyzing $ERR\alpha$ target gene expression using PGC-1 α as an activator, we also evaluated the effect of an inactive variant of PGC-1 α (PGC-1 α L2L3M) in parallel.

MDA-MB 231 cells were transfected with adenoviruses expressing β -gal, PGC-1 α , PGC-1 α 2 \times 9, or PGC-1 α L2L3M, and quantitative PCR was used to assess the resulting changes in mRNA expression of target genes (Fig. 3). It was determined that $ERR\alpha$ mRNA levels are increased on overexpression of

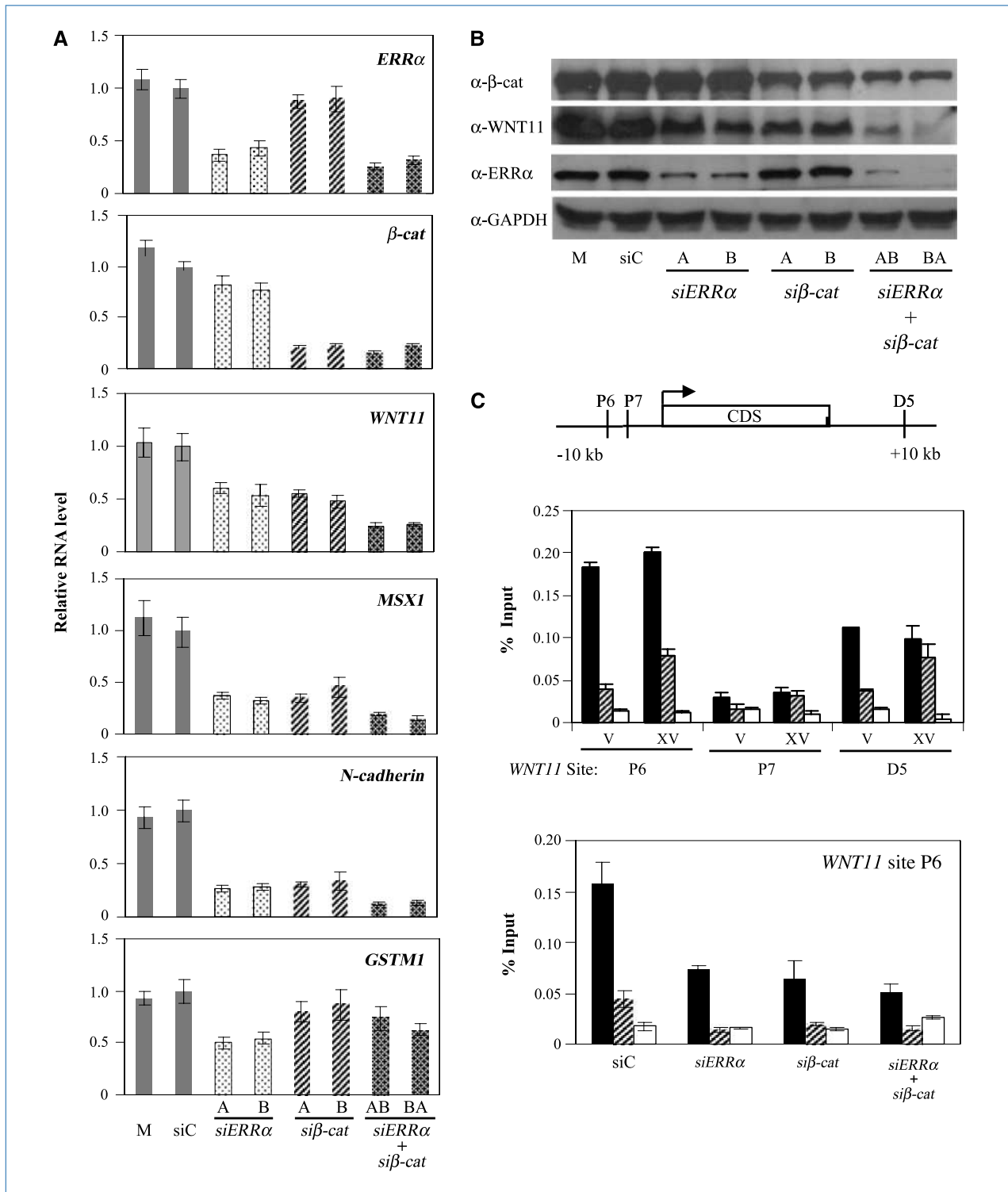


Figure 4. ERR α and β -cat regulate genes involved in cell migration. A, ERR α and β -cat were silenced individually or in combination using siRNA in MDA-MB 231 cells. Expression of the indicated genes was measured by qPCR and normalized to *36B4* expression and relative to siC. Mock (transfection reagent alone) and two siRNA sequences for ERR α and β -cat were used. B, Western blot analysis of siRNA-treated MDA-MB 231 whole-cell extract for ERR α , β -cat, and WNT11 to confirm knockdown with GAPDH as loading control. C, ChIP of ERR α and β -cat to WNT11 genomic sequence in MDA-MB 231 cells. Diagram of putative TCF-4 REs and ERR REs in WNT11 genomic sequence. ERR α and β -cat recruitment was tested by qPCR. Inhibition of GSK-3 β kinase by XV increased β -cat levels and enhanced recruitment of β -cat to both the WNT11 P6 and D5. Downregulation of ERR α and/or β -cat reduces recruitment to the putative ERR α and TCF-4 P6 site. Black columns, ERR α antibody; striped columns, β -cat antibody; white columns, IgG.

PGC-1 α (wild-type or 2 \times 9), consistent with it being an auto-regulated gene (33). Similarly, GSTM1, an ERR α target gene (12), was also regulated by PGC-1 α , whereas β -cat levels were not significantly affected (Fig. 3). Interestingly, WNT11, MSX1, and N-cadherin were all significantly induced by the expression of PGC-1 α in MDA-MB 231 cells (Fig. 3). Similar results were observed in MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116 cells (Supplementary Fig. S5).

Coregulation of WNT11, MSX1, and N-cadherin by ERR α and β -cat

The relative importance of ERR α and β -cat in the regulation of WNT11, MSX1, and N-cadherin was next evaluated.

Specifically, the expression of each mRNA and appropriate controls were measured in cells following the introduction of siRNAs directed against ERR α or β -cat. Using two different siRNAs against each target, we observed that silencing of either ERR α or β -cat led to a significant diminution of WNT11, MSX1, and N-cadherin mRNA expression. Simultaneous knockdown of both mRNAs in MDA-MB 231 cells resulted in a further decrease in the expression level of these mRNAs (Fig. 4A). Importantly, silencing of β -cat expression did not affect the mRNA level of GSTM1 (Fig. 4A), suggesting that not all ERR α target genes are regulated by β -cat (see Discussion). Notably, ERR α and β -cat downregulation, either singly or in combination, resulted in a reduction of WNT11

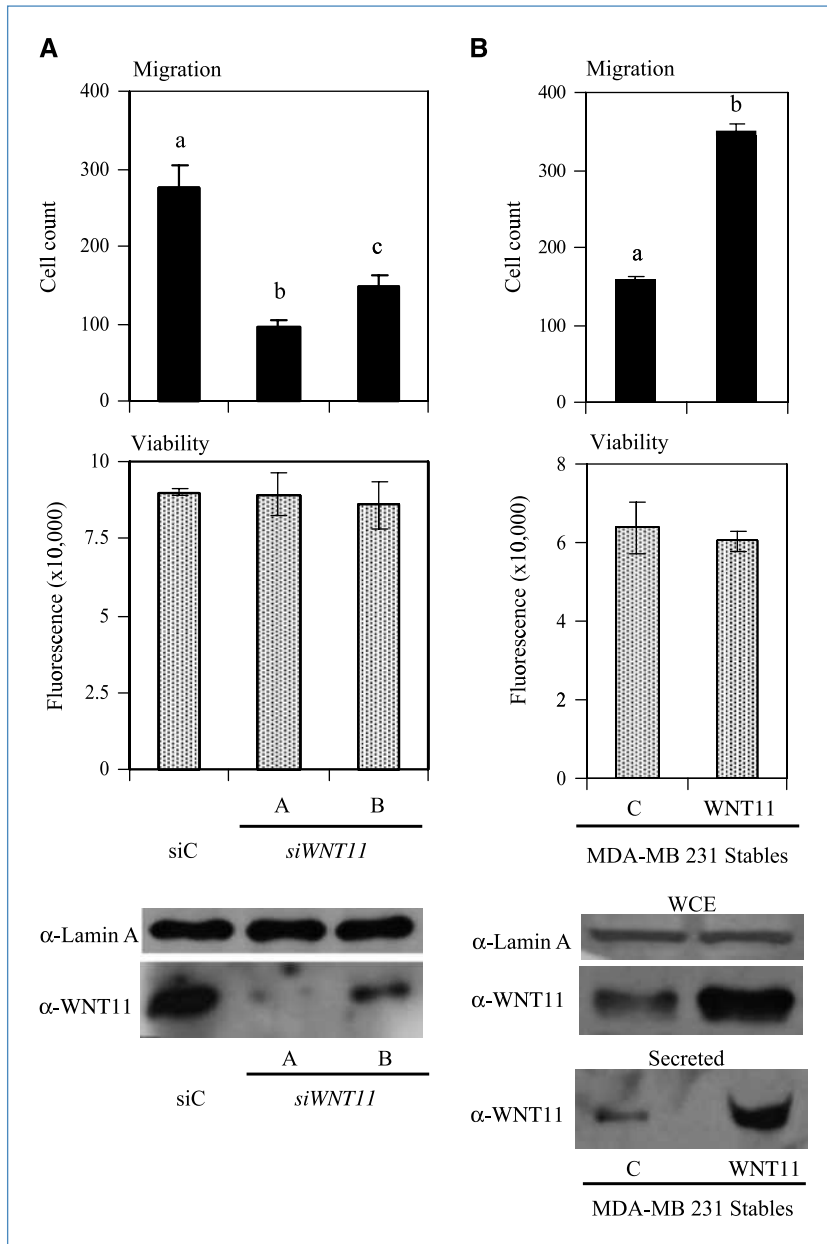


Figure 5. WNT11 promotes MDA-MB 231 migration. A, *WNT11* downregulation reduces MDA-MB 231 migration. *WNT11* or control (siC) siRNA transfections and migration assays were performed as in Fig. 2. B, *WNT11* overexpression enhances MDA-MB 231 migration. Stable populations of MDA-MB 231 cells overexpressing *WNT11* or empty vector (C) were generated and characterized for migration, viability, and protein expression as previously described. Enhanced secretion of *WNT11* was observed by Western blot analysis from MDA-MB 231 cells overexpressing *WNT11*. Different letters denote significance ($P < 0.05$).

protein levels (Fig. 4B). Given the extremely robust regulation of WNT11 mRNA expression by ERR α and β -cat and its previously described activity as a promigratory factor (28–30), we focused the remainder of the studies on defining the mechanism by which this gene is regulated and how it affects cancer cell biology.

The next step in these studies was to define the mechanism(s) by which ERR α and β -cat regulate WNT11 expression. To this end, we scanned the genomic sequence surrounding the WNT11 gene using Consite for putative TCF and ERR α response elements (Supplementary Fig. S6A). ChIP assays in MDA-MB 231 cells were then used to confirm the functionality of the putative ERR α and/or TCF binding sites. In this manner, significant binding of both ERR α and β -cat was detected at the following two sites: P6 (-3042) and D5 (+27794; Fig. 4C; Supplementary Fig. S6B). Importantly, siRNA-mediated knockdown of ERR α expression significantly reduced β -cat binding at the P6 site, and knockdown of β -cat reduced ERR α binding (Fig. 4C). These ChIP data provide a molecular explanation for the observed cross talk that occurs between ERR α and β -cat on the WNT11 gene.

WNT11 acts in an autocrine manner to promote cancer cell migration

Previous studies have highlighted the promigratory activity of WNT11 in biological contexts, including migration of intestinal epithelial cells, neural crest cells, and gastrulation (28–30); however, little has been done to define the role of WNT11 in cellular models of cancer. To address this issue, we used siRNAs to knock down WNT11 expression in MDA-MB 231 cells and used transwell migration assays to define the effect of this manipulation on cell migration. As shown in Fig. 5A, using either of two different siRNAs, we were able to achieve a quantitative knockdown of WNT11 protein expression, a manipulation that resulted in an ~60% reduction in cell migration. We did not observe any effect of WNT11 knockdown on total cell number and/or cell viability under the same experimental conditions (Fig. 5A). This effect was not restricted to MDA-231 cells, as we observed that silencing of WNT11 expression also decreased migration of MDA-MB 436, PC-3, and HCT-116 cells when assayed in the same manner (Supplementary Fig. S7). These overexpression data provide a strong support that WNT11 is promoting migration, as this could not be a survival effect. To complement these experiments, we created WNT11-overexpressing derivatives of MDA-MB 231 cells and determined that the increased production in both total and secreted WNT11 protein correlated with a significant increase in cell migration (Fig. 5B). Together, these experiments suggest that the ERR α / β -cat-dependent target WNT11 acts in an autocrine manner to increase the migration of cancer cells.

Given that WNT11 is a secreted protein that functions by binding to the extracellular frizzled receptor 7 (30), we also tested whether exogenously added WNT11 could restore the reduced migratory phenotype resulting from the silencing of ERR α and β -cat in the MDA-MB 231 parent cell line. For these experiments, we isolated the CM from MDA-MB 231 cells (containing vector alone) or from cells that were engineered to

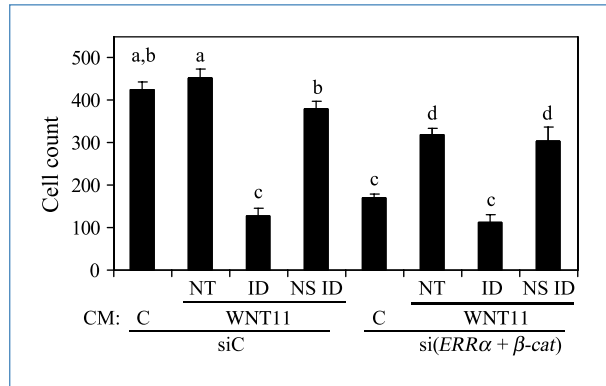


Figure 6. WNT11 partially restores reduced MDA-MB 231 migration by silencing of *ERR α* and *β -cat*. MDA-MB 231 cells were transfected with siC or si*ERR α* and *β -cat* and serum starved as previously described. Migration assays were then performed with CM from the MDA-MB 231 derivative cell lines overexpressing WNT11 or empty vector. Immunodepletion of WNT11 from CM reduced migration compared with mock immunodepletion with rabbit IgG. Different letters denote significance ($P < 0.05$). NT, no treatment; ID, WNT11 immunodepleted; NSID, nonspecific immunodepleted.

overexpress WNT11. Subsequently, CM was added to the lower chamber of a transwell plate and MDA-MB 231 cells treated with control siRNA (siC) or si*ERR α* and si *β -cat* were added to the upper chamber. In cells treated with siC, addition of CM from WNT11-overexpressing cells did not significantly increase cell migration, probably due to the sufficiently high concentration of WNT11 already in the medium in control cells. However, immunodepletion of WNT11 from WNT11-overexpressing CM significantly reduced the migration of these cells, indicating that WNT11 is a promigratory factor (Fig. 6). Importantly, CM from WNT11-overexpressing cells partially reversed the decreased migration resulting from knockdown of ERR α and β -cat. Furthermore, immunodepletion of WNT11 from this CM using a specific antibody, but not with an irrelevant antibody, blocked this restorative capacity. Similar results were obtained using WNT11 and empty vector CM from mouse L-cell fibroblasts (Supplementary Fig. S8). Together, these data provide compelling evidence for a regulatory loop involving ERR α , β -cat, and WNT11 that influences the migratory capacity in this model of breast cancer.

Discussion

Cross talk between NRs and the Wnt/ β -cat signaling pathway has been shown previously (34). In the realm of metabolism, it has been shown that cross talk between PPAR γ and Wnt/ β -cat signaling enables precise control of adipogenesis resulting from a reciprocal inhibition of each other's transcriptional activities (35). It has been shown that β -cat serves as an androgen receptor (AR) coactivator when assessed on endogenous AR target genes such as PSA (36). Cross talk between the Wnt pathway and ER α , LRH-1, retinoid X receptor, and several other NRs has also been shown to occur in a

variety of cell-based assays (34, 37). In this study, we provide compelling evidence that $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat are involved in the regulation of WNT11, MSX1, and N-cadherin expression, genes implicated previously in processes that regulate cell migration. Given the wealth of literature linking WNT11 to cell migration, we focused on evaluating the functional consequences of $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat-mediated regulation of WNT11 (28–30). In this manner, we were able to determine that WNT11 is important for migration in breast cancer cells, and its expression is influenced by both $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat.

Wnt signaling occurs via a canonical or a noncanonical pathway, both of which may interface with $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat (38, 39). In the canonical pathway, Wnt activation of Fzd results in dishevel-mediated degradation of axin and GSK-3 β inhibition. Inhibition of this destruction complex leads to an increase in the intracellular pool of β -cat. The stabilized β -cat has two nonexclusive fates within the cell. Firstly, the protein can translocate to the nucleus, where it regulates target gene expression through its interaction with the TCF/LEF family of transcription factors. Alternatively, β -cat can interact with E-cadherin in adherens junctions and stabilize cell-cell interactions. Furthermore, β -cat expression promotes epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition, a process that is frequently associated with the loss of E-cadherin. Importantly, it has been shown that inhibition of E-cadherin expression increases nuclear β -cat, resulting in the increased expression of promigratory genes (40). Thus, depending on the relative partitioning of β -cat, it can have either a positive or a negative effect on cell migration. We have established that the $ERR\alpha$, a karyophilic protein, associates directly with β -cat; thus, it is possible that, in addition to cooperating with β -cat in the transcriptional regulation of promigratory genes, $ERR\alpha$ may affect migration by regulating the cellular partitioning of β -cat. In many breast cancer cells, including the MDA-MB 231 cells studied herein, E-cadherin expression is extremely low, and thus, it is likely that the effects we have observed on migration are a direct consequence of the nuclear action of the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat complex (41). Defining the processes that impinge on and regulate the nuclear versus cytoplasmic actions of the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat is a focus of our continued efforts in this area.

In this study, we have performed a comprehensive analysis of the mechanisms underlying the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat-dependent regulation of WNT11. Whereas we can show that both of these proteins interact in cells and can bind to the same region in the WNT11 gene, we do not know if they bind to adjacent sites or if a tethering mechanism is involved. Given that other NRs use both mechanisms to engage target genes, it is likely that both types of interaction, direct and tethering, are used. To address this issue, we have performed a preliminary examination of available ChIP-ChIP and ChIP-seq data sets to evaluate the extent to which the binding sites described for $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat converge. In this manner, we found a small but significant overlap in target genes that were found to be enriched for $ERR\alpha$ binding in MCF-7 or SKBR3 breast cancer cells by ChIP-ChIP analysis and those that were found to be enriched for β -cat binding in HCT116 colon cancer cells by ChIP-seq analysis (Supplementary Fig. S9A; refs. 12, 42). Furthermore, out of the 547 unique $ERR\alpha$ -regulated genes

detected in our previously published MCF-7 microarray study, 39 of these genes were found to contain at least one β -cat-enriched region in the HCT116 ChIP-seq experiment (Supplementary Fig. S9B; refs. 13, 42). Finally, bioinformatic analyses using Patser revealed that of the 988 β -cat target genes identified in the HCT116 ChIP-seq experiment, ~17% of the genes also contain at least one putative ERR binding site within the same 600-bp region of DNA that is enriched for β -cat binding (Supplementary Fig. S9C; refs. 42–44). The significance and functionality of the convergent sites identified in this manner are currently under investigation.

The identification of WNT11 as a direct transcriptional target of the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat complex was of particular interest to us as (a) the expression of this protein has previously been associated with increased cell migration (28–30, 45); (b) WNT11 is upregulated in several cancers, including colorectal, prostate, and breast cancer (46, 47); and (c) WNT11 induces transformation of mammary epithelial cells (48). WNT11, initially identified as a noncanonical Wnt, can activate the noncanonical Wnt/ Ca^{2+} pathway, resulting in G protein-dependent increases in intracellular calcium and subsequent activation of calcium/calmodulin-dependent protein kinase II (CAMKII) and protein kinase C (PKC; ref. 28). This activity has been shown to increase intestinal epithelial cellular migration (28–30, 46, 48). Interestingly, both CAMKII and PKC facilitate actin cytoskeleton rearrangements that are critical for cellular migration (49). Furthermore, WNT11 has been shown to also activate the canonical Wnt pathway (50). The fact that noncanonical pathway activation of PKC can result in decreased E-cadherin function further underscores the significance of the cross talk between canonical and noncanonical Wnt signaling and the likely importance of the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat complex in this process.

Taken together, our findings provide evidence for an auto-regulatory loop involving transcriptional upregulation of WNT11 by $ERR\alpha$ and β -cat, an activity that influences the migratory capacity of cancer cells. Furthermore, these data provide a strong rationale for the development of compounds that inhibit $ERR\alpha$ or the activity of the $ERR\alpha/\beta$ -cat complex as cancer therapeutics.

Disclosure of Potential Conflicts of Interest

No potential conflicts of interest were disclosed.

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