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SPECIALTY SECTION
This article was submitted to
Pharmacology of Anti-Cancer Drugs,
a section of the journal
Frontiers in Oncology

RECEIVED 03 February 2022
ACCEPTED 05 September 2022
PUBLISHED 23 September 2022

CITATION
Zhang X, Yang Y, Li D, Wu Z,
Liu H, Zhao Z, Zhu H, Xie F and
Li X (2022) MOF negatively regulates
estrogen receptor α signaling via
CUL4B-mediated protein
degradation in breast cancer.
Front. Oncol. 12:868866.
doi: 10.3389/fonc.2022.868866

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MOF negatively regulates estrogen receptor α signaling via CUL4B-mediated protein degradation in breast cancer

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Estrogen receptor α (ER α) is the dominant tumorigenesis driver in breast cancer (BC), and ER α -positive BC (ER α + BC) accounts for more than two-thirds of BC cases. MOF (males absent on the first) is a highly conserved histone acetyltransferase that acetylates lysine 16 of histone H4 (H4K16) and several non-histone proteins. Unbalanced expression of MOF has been identified, and high MOF expression predicted a favorable prognosis in BC. However, the association of MOF with ER α and the regulatory mechanisms of MOF in ER α signaling remain elusive. Our study revealed that the expression of MOF is negatively correlated with that of ER α in BC. In ER α + BC cells, MOF overexpression downregulated the protein abundance of ER α in both cytoplasm and nucleus, thus attenuating ER α -mediated transactivation as well as cellular proliferation and *in vivo* tumorigenicity of BC cells. MOF promoted ER α protein degradation through CUL4B-mediated ubiquitin–proteasome pathway and induced HSP90 hyperacetylation that led to the loss of chaperone protection of HSP90 to ER α . We also revealed that suppression of MOF restored ER α expression and increased the sensitivity of ER α -negative BC cells to tamoxifen treatment. These results provide a new insight into the tumor-suppressive role of MOF in BC via negatively regulating ER α action, suggesting that MOF might be a potential therapeutic target for BC.

KEYWORDS

MOF, ER α , breast cancer, protein degradation, CUL4B, tumor suppression

Introduction

As the most common malignancy for women, breast cancer (BC) represents around 30% of female cancers and becomes the second leading cause of cancer-related mortality in women worldwide (1, 2). BC is a highly heterogeneous cancer with differential expression of tumorigenic marker genes like estrogen receptor α (ER α , or simply ER) or

human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2) (3). Among them, ER α -expressing tumors, namely, ER α -positive BC (ER α + BC), arise in 60%–80% of BC cases (4). As a steroid hormone nuclear receptor, ER α can be bound and activated by estrogen 17 β -estradiol (E2) and serves as a transcription factor for the transactivation of oncogenes, like c-Myc and cyclin D1, thereby promoting cell proliferation and tumor progression of BC (5–7). In the absence of E2 stimulation, inactive ER α interacts with molecule chaperone heat shock protein 90 (HSP90) and can be maintained in a stable conformation for ligand binding (8). After binding with E2, ER α undergoes dissociation from HSP90 and translocates into the nucleus for the transcriptional activation/repression of target genes that encourage BC cell survival and growth (8, 9).

Therefore, as the major tumorigenesis driver in BC, modulation of ER α expression and function plays indispensable roles in the progression and treatment of BC (10). For instance, hypermethylation of ER α promoter leads to ER α deficiency, whereas treatment with DNA demethylating reagents plus inhibitors for histone deacetylases (HDACs) would restore ER α expression and tamoxifen (TAM) sensitivity in ER α -negative BC (ER α - BC) cells (11–13). ER α co-activators CBP/p300, functioning as histone acetyltransferases (HATs), enhance H3K27ac for facilitating ER α -mediated transcriptional activity, whereas pharmacological inhibition of CBP/p300 by A-485 and GNE-049 could downregulate ER α to suppress oncogenic c-Myc and cyclin D1 expression and the proliferation of ER α + BC cells (4, 14, 15).

MOF (males absent on the first), also known as lysine acetyltransferase (KAT) 8 or histone acetyltransferase 1 (MYST1), is a highly conserved histone acetyltransferase (HAT) that specifically acetylates lysine 16 of histone H4 (H4K16) as well as non-histone proteins such as protein 53 kDa (P53), interferon regulatory factor 3 (IRF3), and lysine-specific demethylase 1 (LSD1) (16–19). MOF vigorously involves in diverse biological processes, such as transcriptional regulation, DNA damage repair, cell growth and differentiation, stem cell development, and tumorigenesis (20–22). Unbalanced expression of MOF is frequently observed in various tumors, such as colorectal carcinoma, gastric cancer, renal cell carcinoma, ovarian cancer, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), medulloblastoma, and primary breast carcinoma (20, 21). In particular, MOF was identified to suppress epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) *via* the acetylation of histone demethylase LSD1 in lung cancer and BC, and higher expression of MOF is correlated with favorable prognosis in these two cancers (19, 23, 24).

Because of the inhibitory effect of MOF in BC tumor invasion and the essential role of ER α in tumor promotion, we are interested in the association of MOF with ER α as well as the modulatory effects of MOF on ER α expression and function to exert its carcinostasis potential in BC. We herein reported that MOF is negatively correlated with ER α expression in BC. In ER α + BC, MOF negatively regulated the expression and nuclear localization of ER α to inhibit ER-mediated transactivation as

well as the growth and tumorigenicity of ER α + BC cells. MOF overexpression promotes ER α protein degradation *via* Cullin 4b (CUL4B)-mediated ubiquitin-proteasome pathway and HSP90 hyperacetylation that disrupts the chaperone binding of HSP90 with ER α . On the other hand, inhibited MOF by knockdown or inhibitor MG149 restored ER α expression and enhanced TAM sensitivity in ER α - BC cells. Our study provide new insights into the prohibitory function of MOF on ER α action in BC, suggesting that MOF might be a potential therapeutic target for BC.

Material and methods

Cell culture and cell transfection

MCF7, T47D, MDA-MB-231, and HCC1937 cells were obtained from the American Type Culture Collection. Cells were cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) or Roswell Park Memorial Institute-1640 (RPMI-1640) (Macgene, Beijing, China) with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) (LONSA SCIENCE, Shanghai, China) and maintained in a humidified atmosphere containing 5% CO₂ at 37°C. Cells were transfected with specific plasmid by JetPRIME (Polyplus, Strasbourg, France) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The BC tissue chip was purchased from Guge Biotechnology Company (Wuhan, China).

Antibodies and reagents

Anti-MOF (sc-81765) and breast-cancer susceptibility gene 1 (BRCA1) (Santa Cruz, sc-6954) were obtained from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. Antibodies including CUL4A (14851-1), CUL4B (12916-1), glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (60004-1-Ig), and Flag (66008-2) were purchased from Proteintech (Wuhan, China). Other antibodies were listed as follows: H4K16ac (Epitomics, EPR1004), ER α (Cell Signaling Technology, Inc (CST), #8644), Ki67 (Abcam, ab16667), murine double minute 2 (MDM2) (Wanleibio, WL01906), HSP90 (Sangon Biotech, D120009), HSP90 K294ac (Rockland, 600-401-981), and acetylated lysine (CST, #9441). Inhibitors including MG149, cycloheximide (CHX), and MG132 were purchased from MedChemExpress (MCE, Princeton, NJ, USA). TAM was purchased from Sigma. CHX, MG149, MG132, and TAM were dissolved in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO).

Immunohistochemistry staining

Immunohistochemistry (IHC) staining was performed to detect the expression of MOF and ER α in BC tissue chips. Following deparaffinization and quenching of endogenous peroxidase, the tissue section was treated by deparaffinization and quenching of endogenous peroxidase and then subjected to

antigen retrieval with sodium citrate buffer. Then, the section was incubated with 5% FBS and then incubated with ER α (1:100) and MOF (1:100) antibodies overnight at 4°C. After incubation with secondary antibody at 37°C, the section was subjected to staining by the DAB Detection Kit (Polymer) (GeneTech, Shanghai, China) and counterstaining with hematoxylin (Solarbio, Beijing, China) for the observation with a light microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). All slides were scored in an open discussion by two experienced pathologists, who were blinded to the outcome. Immunostaining was scored on the basis of the intensity score and quantity of positive cell score. Intensity score: negative, 0; weak, 1; moderate, 2; and intense, 3. Quantity of positive cell score: <5%, 0; 5%–25%, 1; 26%–50%, 2; 51%–75%, 3; and >75%, 4. The product of intensity score and quantity of positive cell score was used as the total score.

Immunofluorescence staining

Cells were seeded onto coverslips in 24-well plate for growth to 70% cell confluence. Cells were fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde and blocked by 5% FBS and then subjected to incubation with the primary antibody for MOF or ER α (1:100) overnight at 4°C. After incubation with corresponding secondary antibody, cells were mounted with DAPI (4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole) (C0060, Solarbio), and images were taken from a DP74 color fluorescence camera (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan)

RNA extraction and qRT-PCR

Total RNA was isolated using RNAiso Plus (TaKaRa, Kyoto, Japan). RNA was reverse-transcribed by the RevertAid First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Quantitative reverse transcriptase PCR (qRT-PCR) was performed using the SYBR qPCR Mix (TOYOBO). GAPDH was used as an internal control. Primers for qRT-PCR were listed in [Supplementary Table 1](#). Then, relative quantitation of gene expression was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ method.

Western blotting

Total protein was extracted using the sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) lysis buffer (1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 5% glycerol, 1 mM ethylenediamine tetraacetic acid (EDTA), 25 mM Tris, 150 mM NaCl, and 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF)). Protein samples were separated by SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (PAGE) and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA, USA). After blocking with 5% non-fat milk powder and incubation with specific antibody at 4°C overnight, membranes were subjected to corresponding secondary antibody and then visualized by an ECL detection kit (Wanleibio, Dalian, China).

Immunoprecipitation

Proteins were extracted from cells using BC-200 lysis buffer (20 mM 2-[4-(2-hydroxyethyl)piperazin-1-yl]ethanesulfonic acid (HEPES), 200 mM KCl, 10 mM β -mercaptoethanol, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, and 0.1% NP-40) containing protease inhibitor cocktail (APExBIO, Houston, TX, USA). Extracted proteins were immunoprecipitated by incubation with 1 μ g of antibody and followed by binding with Protein A/G magnetic beads (Bimake, Shanghai, China). After washing with lysis buffer, proteins were extracted by SDS sample buffer and detected by Western blotting.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation assay

Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay was conducted using the SimpleChIP Plus Sonication Chromatin IP Kit (Cell Signaling Technology). Cells were cross-linked by 1% formaldehyde followed by sonication. The immunoprecipitated DNA was analyzed by qPCR with specific primers listed in [Supplementary Table 2](#).

Cell proliferation and colony formation

For cell proliferation assay, cells were seeded into 96-well plate and then treated with 10 μ l of CCK8 (Biosharp) per 100 μ l of culture medium at specific time points. After incubation at 37°C for 4 h, the absorbance value was determined at 450 nm by a SPECTROstar Nano instrument for calculating cell proliferation curves. In the colony formation assay, cells were seeded in 6-cm culture dish (200 cells per dish) and culture in 37°C incubator for 10–14 days. After termination of culture, cells were fixed with methanol and stained by crystal violet. The colonies with more than 50 cells per colony were counted.

Xenograft tumor growth

Female NSG mice aged 6–8 weeks were prepared. MCF7 cells (5×10^7 cells) with stable MOF transfection or control vector were subcutaneously injected into one flank of each mouse, respectively. The tumor growth was observed every 2 days. After 3 weeks, mice were sacrificed, and tumors were taken out for size measurement. Tumors were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and followed by IHC staining. Animal experiments were performed with the approval from the Animal Research Ethical Inspection Form of Shandong University School of Life Sciences (SYDWLL-2018-19).

Statistical analysis

Data were statistically analyzed using GraphPad Prism software (San Diego, CA, USA) and were shown as means \pm

S.D. in three independent experiments. A Chi-square test was applied for analyzing pathological data. One-way ANOVA analysis was performed for time-course studies, and Student's *t*-test was applied for comparisons of two groups. $P < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Results

The expression of MOF is negatively correlated with that of ER α in BC tissues and cells

MOF is reported as a critical suppressor in BC by inhibiting EMT and tumor invasion, suggesting a favorable prognosis (19); whereas ER α functions as the crucial oncogenic driver for the progression of BC (4). However, the relationship between the expression of MOF and ER α still remains elusive. To evaluate the correlation between MOF and ER α , we examined the protein expression level of MOF and ER in BC tissues from 78 patients. The immunohistochemical staining (IHC) results demonstrated the staining of MOF/ER α defined as either low/negative (weak or none) or high/positive (strong or moderate) based on the relative intensity of staining (Figure 1A). Statistical analysis of IHC results showed that around 64.5% of BC tumors with low MOF expression exhibited ER α -positive staining, whereas the majority (68.8%) of tumors with high MOF expression displayed ER α -negative staining, indicating that there is a negative correlation between MOF and ER α expression in BC tissues (Table 1, Figure 1B). Moreover, we examined the MOF and ER α expression in multiple BC cell lines. Western blot analyses revealed that the protein abundance of MOF with histone H4K16 acetylation exhibited a remarkably attenuated expression in ER α + BC cells (MCF7 and T47D) compared with that in ER α - BC cells (MDA-MB-231 and HCC1937), and histone H4K16 acetylation also showed a similar pattern with MOF expression (Figure 1C). Taken together, these results suggested that MOF functions as a tumor suppressor in BC tumors and that the expression of MOF was negatively associated with that of ER α in BC tissues and cells.

MOF negatively regulates ER α protein level in ER α + BC cells

To investigate whether and how MOF plays roles in the expression of ER α , plasmids of Flag-HA-MOF (for MOF overexpression) and pGPU6-shMOF (for MOF knockdown) were transfected into ER α + BC cell lines (MCF7 and T47D), respectively. qRT-PCR analysis showed that the mRNA level of MOF was significantly upregulated or reduced in these cell lines, whereas the mRNA level of ER α had indistinguishable change (Figures 2A, C), suggesting that the expression of MOF did not regulate ER α expression at the transcriptional level. However,

the protein abundance of ER α was obviously influenced by MOF overexpression or knockdown in a negatively regulatory manner (Figures 2B, D). Namely, both MCF7 and T47D cells transfected with Flag-HA-MOF plasmid (MOF overexpression) showed an increased amount of MOF and a decreased level of ER α protein (Figure 2B). Conversely, in the pGPU6-shMOF-transfected cells (MOF knockdown), the protein abundance of ER α was elevated (Figure 2D). In addition, when increased doses of Flag-HA-MOF plasmid were transfected into MCF7 cells, the ER α protein levels showed the corresponding downward trend with the gradually advanced expressions of MOF and H4K16ac (Figure 2E).

As a steroid hormone nuclear receptor, ER could be activated by estrogen 17 β -estradiol (E2) (25). After binding with E2, homodimerized ER would translocate into the nucleus and functions as a transcription factor to regulate target gene transcription (25). Hence, we explored whether MOF-mediated regulation of ER α expression would be affected by E2 stimulation. After transfection with Flag-HA-MOF plasmid or empty vector as control for 48 h, cells were treated with E2 for 3 h. As depicted in Figure 2F, MOF overexpression could induce a significant reduction of ER α protein in the presence or absence of E2, suggesting that MOF downregulates the ER α protein level in an estrogen-independent manner. In addition, nuclear and cytoplasmic separation assay demonstrated that protein abundance of ER α in both cytoplasm and nucleus obviously decreased after MOF overexpression regardless of the presence of E2 (Figure 2G). Similar results were also observed by immunofluorescence staining that the distribution of ER in cytoplasm/nucleus was reduced in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells with or without E2 treatment (Figure 2H). These results suggest that MOF overexpression inhibited ER α protein levels in both cytoplasm and nucleus with or without E2 treatment.

MOF prohibits the transactivation activity of ER α and cellular proliferation induced by estrogen and *in vivo* tumorigenicity

We next determined the effect of MOF on ER α -mediated transactivation upon E2 stimulation. MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells were treated with E2 for specified incubation time, and the results showed that the mRNA expression of the three endogenous target genes (TFF1, CCND1, and GREB1) of ER α were significantly upregulated by E2 after 3 h of incubation in the control group cells. Whereas MOF overexpression abrogated this expression raise of ER α target genes by E2 (Figure 3A), suggesting that the transactivation abilities of ER α on target genes upon E2 treatment was prohibited by MOF overexpression. ChIP analysis further demonstrated that under the stimulation of E2, the recruitment of ER α at the promoters of TFF1, CCND1, and GREB1 was inhibited by ectopic expression of MOF (Figure 3B).

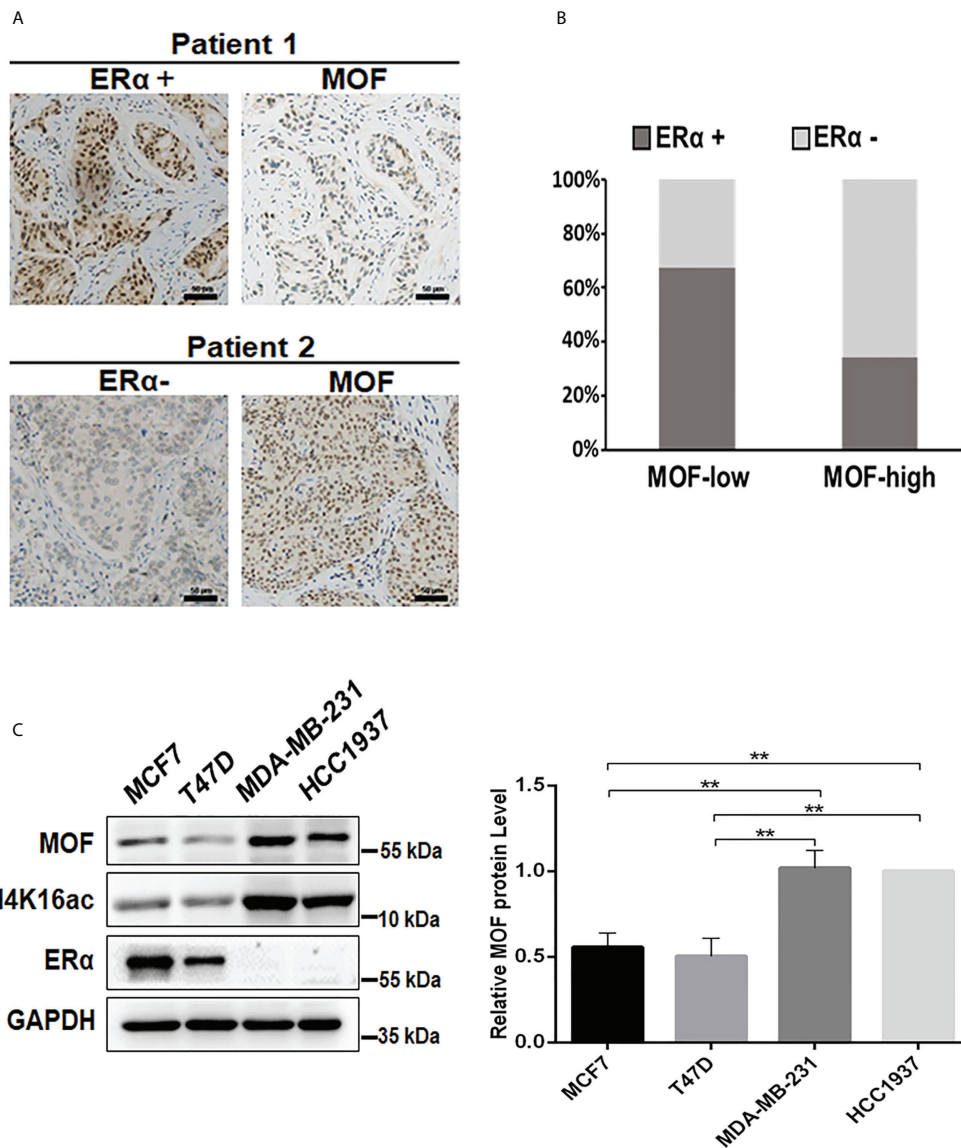


FIGURE 1 Analysis of the expression correlation of MOF and ERα in BC tissues and cells. (A) The protein abundance of MOF and ERα in BC tissue chip was determined by IHC staining, and the representative images were shown as high/positive and low/negative levels of MOF and ERα. Bar = 50 μm. (B) The staining results were quantified to demonstrate the correlation between MOF and ERα expression in BC tissues (n = 78). The staining was defined as high/positive (strong or moderate) and low/negative (weak or none) levels of expression. (C) The protein levels of MOF and ERα was analyzed by Western blot in BC cells, including ERα+ BC cells (MCF7 and T47D) and ERα- BC cells (MDA-MB-231). **P < 0.01 vs. control group.

TABLE 1 IHC analysis of MOF and ERα in BC tissues.

	ERα-positive	ERα-negative	Total
MOF-low	40 (64.5%)	22 (35.5%)	62
MOF-high	5 (31.2%)	11 (68.8%)	16
Total	45	33	78

Two-sided Pearson's Chi-square test was conducted. P = 0.0163. P < 0.05 was considered as statistical significance.

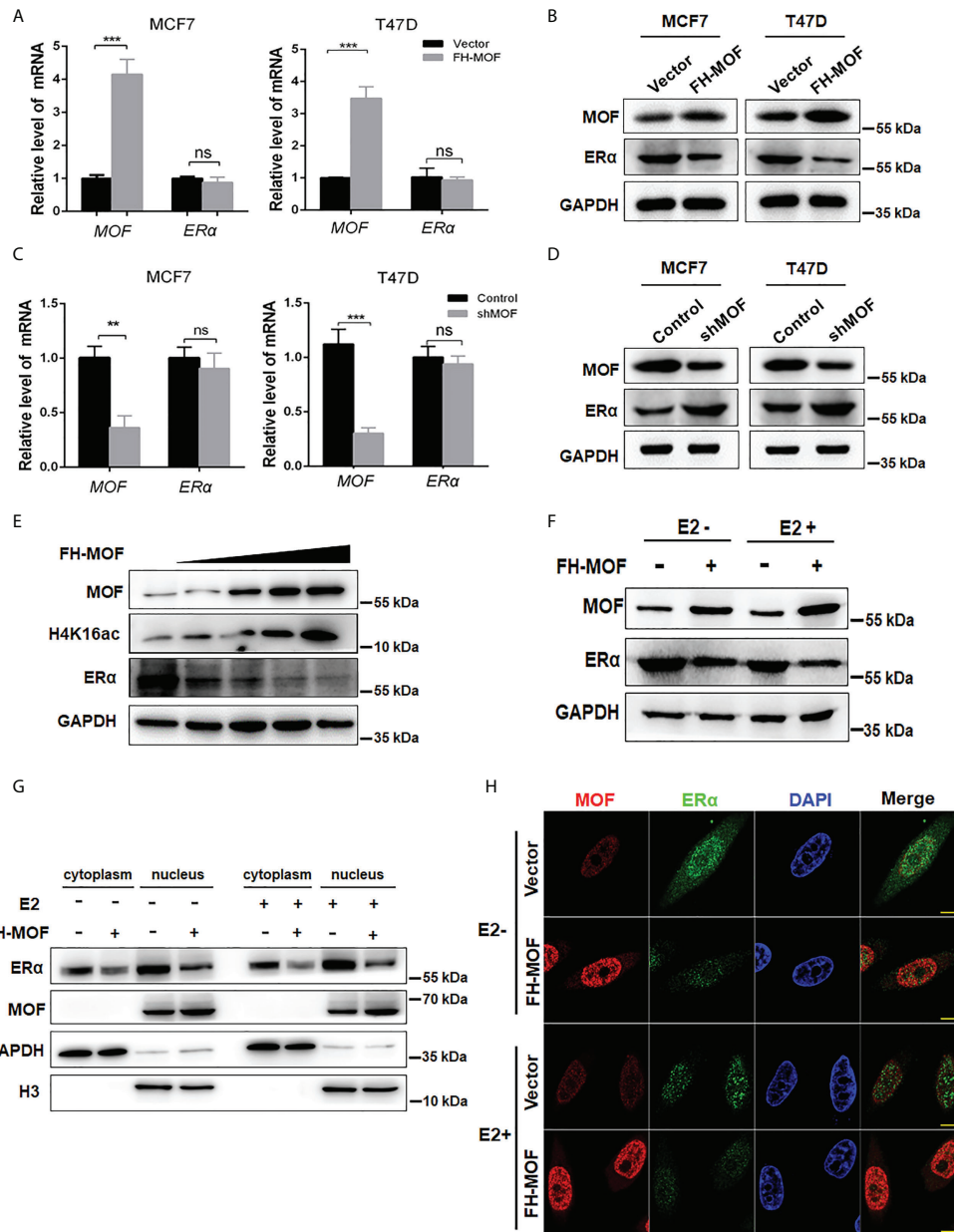


FIGURE 2

Effects of MOF overexpression on the expression of ER α in BC cells. (A, B) Effects of MOF overexpression on the steady-state mRNA levels and protein abundance of ER α in MCF7 and T47D cells were examined by qRT-PCR and Western blot assays. (C, D) MOF knockdown was performed by shMOF plasmid transfection to determine the expression of ER α at the mRNA and protein levels. (E) Increased doses of Flag-HA-MOF plasmid were transfected into MCF7 cells to examine the alteration trend of ER α protein levels. (F) Examination of the ER α protein level by MOF overexpression in the absence or presence of E2 treatment. After transfection with Flag-HA-MOF plasmid or empty vector as control for 48 h, MCF7 cells were treated with 10 nM E2 for 3 h. (G) The protein expression of ER α by MOF in both cytoplasm and nucleus was determined by nuclear and cytoplasmic separation assay regardless of the presence of E2 in MCF7 cells. (H) Immunofluorescence staining assay was conducted to detect the expression of ER α in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells. Bar = 10 μ m. ***P < 0.001 and **P < 0.01 vs. control group. ns, not significant vs. control.

We further investigate the biological function of MOF in ER α + BC cells. Moreover, stable cell lines with MOF overexpression were established by lentivirus infection of MCF7 cells, and CCK8 assay was performed to determine the

functional role of MOF in BC cell proliferation. As shown Figure 3C, E2 stimulation significantly promoted cell proliferation of ER α + BC MCF7 cells in the control group, whereas in MOF-overexpressed cells, this E2-stimulated raise

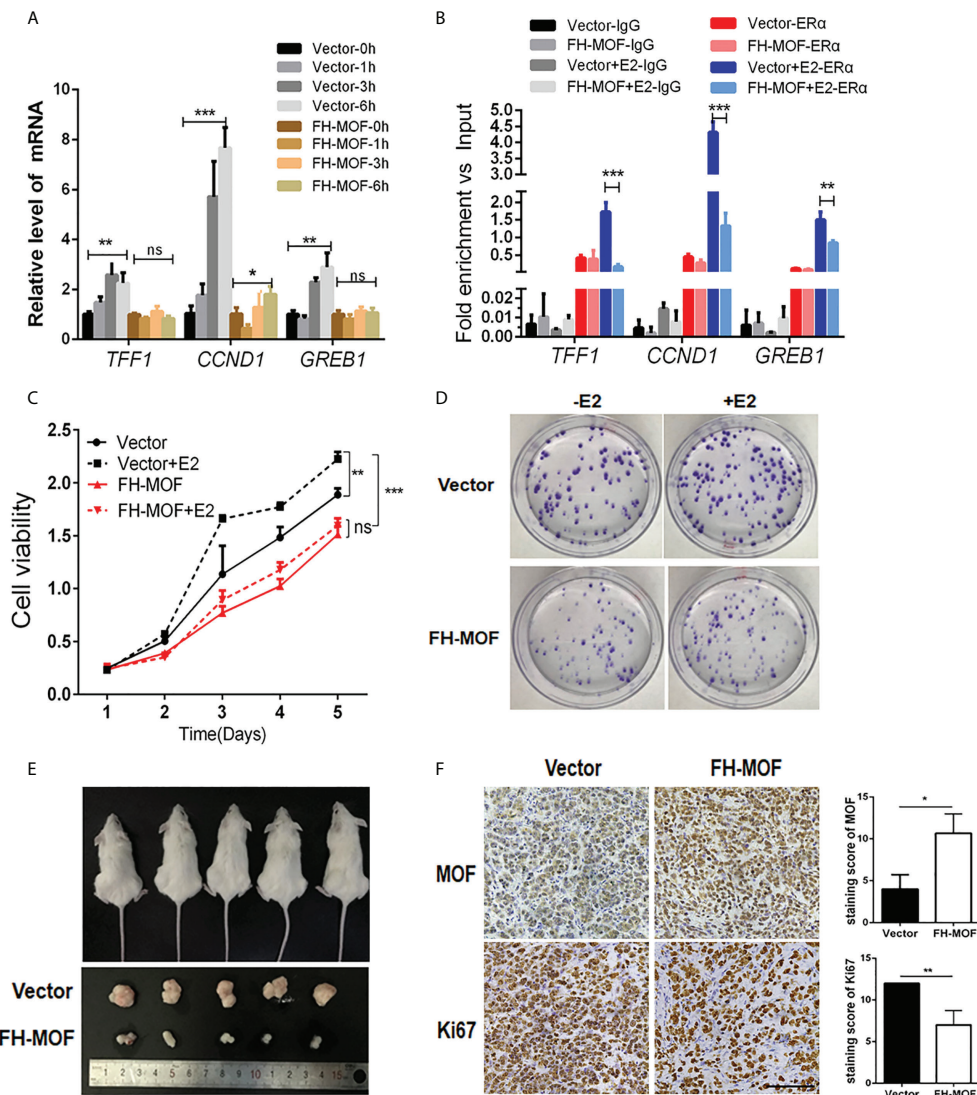


FIGURE 3
 The inhibitory roles of MOF in ER α signaling, cellular proliferation, and tumorigenicity of BC cells. **(A)** The effects of MOF overexpression on ER α -mediated transcription activity of target genes (TFF1, CCND1, and GREB1) by qRT-PCR assay in E2-treated MCF7 cells. **(B)** The recruitment of ER α on the promoters of TFF1, CCND1, and GREB1 was analyzed by ChIP assay in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells under E2 stimulation. **(C)** Cell proliferation of MCF7 was prohibited by ectopic expression of MOF in CCK8 assay. **(D)** MOF restrained the colony formation ability of MCF7 cells whatever E2 is present. **(E)** Xenograft tumor-forming assay was conducted to determine the effect of MOF on *in vivo* tumorigenicity of MCF7 cells. MCF7 cells with stable MOF transfection or control were subcutaneously injected into one flank of each mice. Tumors were dissected from mice after 3 weeks of injection. **(F)** IHC staining (left) and staining score (right) showed the reduced expression of proliferation marker Ki67 in xenograft tumor tissue with MOF overexpression. Bar = 100 μ m. ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01, and *P < 0.05 vs. control group. ns, not significant vs. control. MOF restrained the colony formation ability of MCF7 cells, whatever E2 is present.

was abolished, suggesting that MOF overexpression inhibited E2-induced proliferation of BC cells. In addition, the inhibitory effect of MOF on MCF7 cell proliferation occurred regardless of the presence or absence of E2 (Figure 3C), indicating that MOF prohibits cell proliferation of ER α + BC cells in an E2-independent manner. In addition, MCF7 cells with shMOF transfection showed that MOF knockdown led to increased cell proliferation (Figure S1A). Colony formation assay further

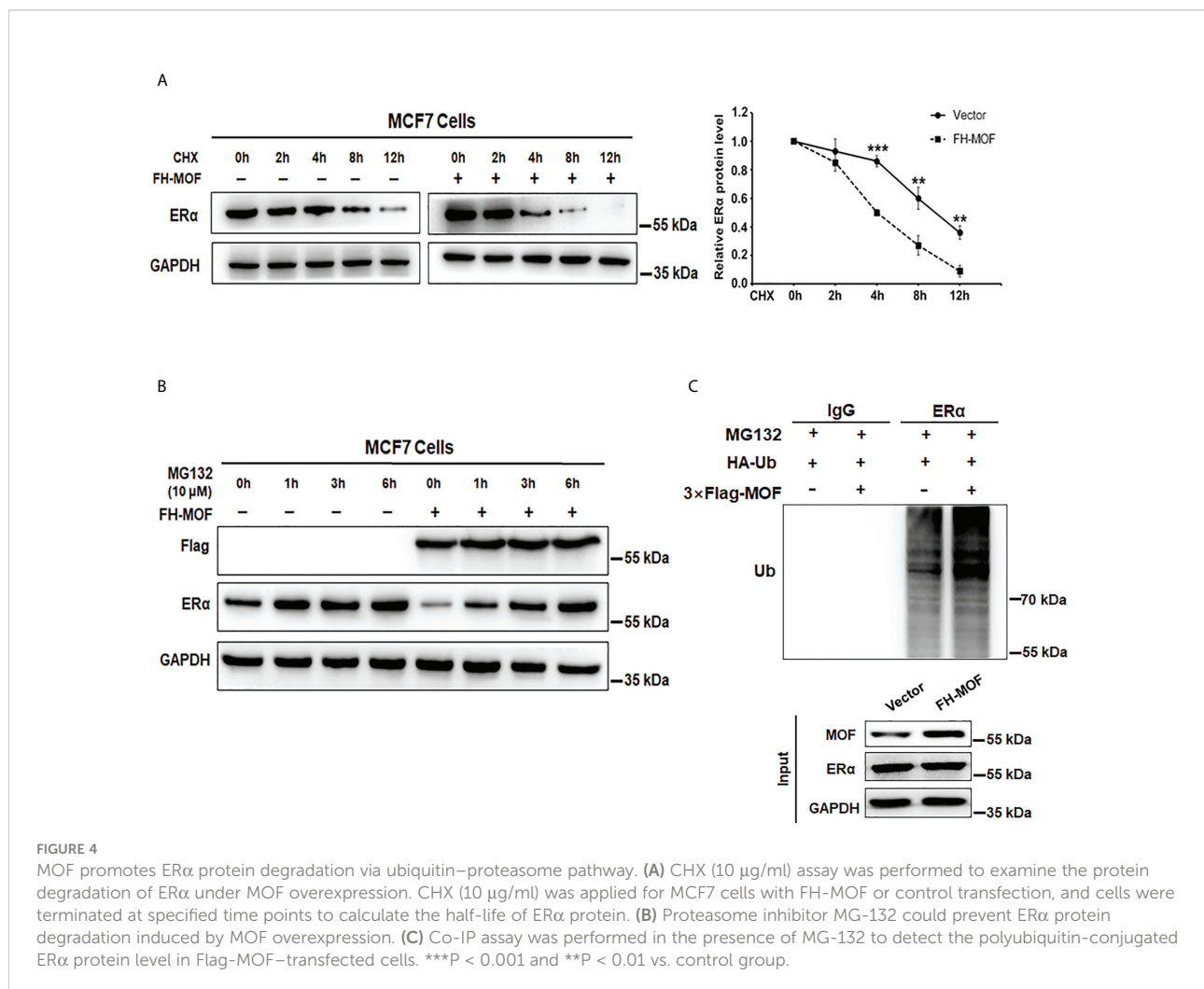
showed that MOF overexpression restrained the colony formation ability of MCF7 cells whenever E2 is present (Figure 3D). *In vivo* tumor formation experiments revealed that the size of tumor formed by MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells was obviously smaller than that of control group cells (Figure 3E), indicating that MOF overexpression significantly impeded the growth of subcutaneous tumors formed by ER α + BC cells in mice. In addition, IHC staining showed that,

compared with the control tumor, reduced expression of proliferation marker Ki67 was observed in the tumor tissue with MOF overexpression (Figure 3F). Taken together, these results demonstrated that MOF overexpression prevented cell proliferation and tumorigenicity of ER α + BC cells through the inhibition on ER α function.

MOF promotes ER α protein turnover through ubiquitin–proteasome pathway

MOF downregulates ER α protein abundance in MCF7 cells. We speculated that the protein stability of ER α might be affected by MOF for the negative effect on ER α expression. By using CHX, an inhibitor of protein translation, to block *de novo* protein synthesis, we found that ER α protein stability was attenuated by MOF overexpression (Figure 4A). Under CHX treatment, the degradation of ER α protein was overtly

accelerated by MOF overexpression compared with the control group. The half-life of ER α was reduced down to around 4 h in the MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells compared with that to around 9 h in the control group (Figure 4A). Conversely, we found that the application of MG132 (an inhibitor of proteasome function) could strikingly prevent ER α protein degradation induced by MOF. With the time extension of MG132 treatment, ER α protein expression increased gradually in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells and reached a similar level as the control group at 6 h (Figure 4B), suggesting that MOF-induced ER α protein degradation occurred by the proteasome pathway. Furthermore, polyubiquitination of ER α protein by MOF was observed in co-immunoprecipitation (Co-IP) assay. MOF overexpression strengthened the polyubiquitination of ER α , as shown by more intense ladder band of polyubiquitin-conjugated ER α protein in Flag-MOF-transfected cells (Figure 4C). In addition, MOF knockdown resulted in the abrogation of ER α polyubiquitination to promote ER α protein



stability (Figure S1C). These results indicated that MOF promoted ER α protein degradation through ubiquitin-proteasome pathway.

CUL4B is the functional E3 ligase involved in MOF-mediated ER α protein destabilization

We further explored the E3 ubiquitin ligase responsible for the MOF-induced ER α ubiquitination and degradation. Several E3 ligases like MDM2, CHIP, RNF31, and BRCA1 have been reported to trigger polyubiquitination of ER α for ubiquitin/proteasome-mediated proteolysis (26–29). Our RNA-seq raw data suggested a possible upregulation of CUL4A, which belongs to the Culling-Ring E3 ligase subfamily, in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells. After investigating the expression of several E3 ligase candidates in MCF7 cells harboring overexpression or knockdown of MOF, it was found that CUL4A and CUL4B can be positively modulated by MOF in a qRT-PCR assay (Figure 5A). In addition, the protein abundance of CUL4A and CUL4B could be upregulated by MOF overexpression (Figure 5B). To further confirm the involvement of CUL4A or CUL4B in MOF-mediated ER α degradation, cells were co-transfected with FH-MOF plasmids and CUL4A or CUL4B small interfering RNA (siRNA). It was demonstrated that blockage of CUL4B but not CUL4A could abrogate MOF-induced ER α protein degradation (Figure 5C). Moreover, Co-IP assay revealed that CUL4B and ER α proteins could physically interact with each other (Figure 5D). In addition, CUL4B knockdown abolished MOF-encouraged ubiquitination of ER α as revealed by the reduced amount of polyubiquitin-conjugated ER in CUL4B siRNA-transfected cells (Figure 5E). These results indicated that MOF promoted the ubiquitination and protein degradation of ER α via upregulated CUL4B functioning as an E3 ligase.

MOF promotes HSP90 hyperacetylation to inhibit its chaperon association with ER α

Molecular chaperone HSP90 binds with ER α to maintain the conformational stability of ER for ligand binding and to protect ER α from protein degradation, whereas hyperacetylation of HSP90 inhibits its chaperone function for ER α (9). By Co-IP assay, it was shown that the acetylation level of HSP90 was overtly raised in MOF-overexpressed MCF7 cells, whereas the acetylation level of ER α was not obviously affected (Figure 6A). In addition, MOF knockdown also did not overtly affect the acetylation level of ER α but markedly decreased that of HSP90 (Figure S1B). It was further confirmed that MOF-induced hyperacetylation of HSP90 occurred through the K294 acetylation site (Figure 6B), which was reported to be determinant for the chaperone binding of HSP90 with its client proteins (30). Co-IP assay further revealed that when MOF

was overexpressed in MCF7 cell, the interaction between HSP90 and ER was undermined, whereas more association of ER with CUL4B was observed instead (Figure 6C). Taken together, it is suggested that MOF enhanced the acetylation level of HSP90 at K294 site to attenuate the chaperone association of HSP90 with ER α , thereby liberating ER α to more interact with CUL4B for ubiquitin-mediated proteasomal degradation of ER α .

Inhibition of MOF restores ER α protein abundance and increases TAM sensitivity in ER α - BC cells

In addition to the negative regulation of MOF overexpression on ER α protein stability in ER α + BC cells, we also examined the effect of MOF inhibition on ER α - BC cells. As shown in Figure 7A, knockdown of MOF in ER α -negative HCC1937 cells resulted in a recovery of ER α protein expression. As an HAT inhibitor, MG149 could inhibit MOF within a certain concentration range ($47 \pm 14 \mu\text{M}$) because higher concentration would work on other histone acetylases (like $74 \pm 20 \mu\text{M}$ for Tip60) (31, 32). First, the inhibitory effect of MG149 was verified in ER α + MCF7 cells, where increased doses of MG149 could result in the raised abundance of ER α protein and reduced H4K16ac (Figure 7B). Then, treatment of $35 \mu\text{M}$ MG149 in ER- HCC1937 cells could obviously restore ER α protein expression similar as the effect of MOF knockdown (Figure 7C). Because reactivation of ER α expression could restore endocrine therapy sensitivity in patients with ER α - BC (12, 13), we further investigated the effect of MG149 on the sensitivity of ER- BC cells to TAM. Compared with the inhibition concentration IC₅₀ of TAM at $41.06 \mu\text{M}$ in HCC1937 treated with TAM alone for 24 h, IC₅₀ was reduced to $21.26 \mu\text{M}$ with a combinatory treatment of TAM and MG149 for 24 h (Figure 7D), suggesting that MOF inhibitor MG149 could effectively improve the response of ER α - BC cells to TAM treatment by the restoration of ER α protein abundance.

Discussion

ER α , encoded by the gene of estrogen receptor 1 (ESR1), is one of the major tumorigenic drivers in BC and uterine cancer (10, 33). ER α -expressing BC, also called luminal BC, accounts for more than two-thirds of patients with BC (10). Because of the full weight of ER functioning in fueling tumor behavior, post-translational modifications of ER α protein and/or epigenetic regulation of ESR1 gene have drawn much attention for their roles in the expression and activity of ER α for controlling the growth and tumorigenicity of cancer cells (34–36). MOF, functioning as a lysine acetyltransferase for the acetylation of H4K16ac as well as multiple non-histone proteins, is currently identified for its aberrant expression and playing regulatory roles in diverse cancers (37–39). For instance, MOF overexpression

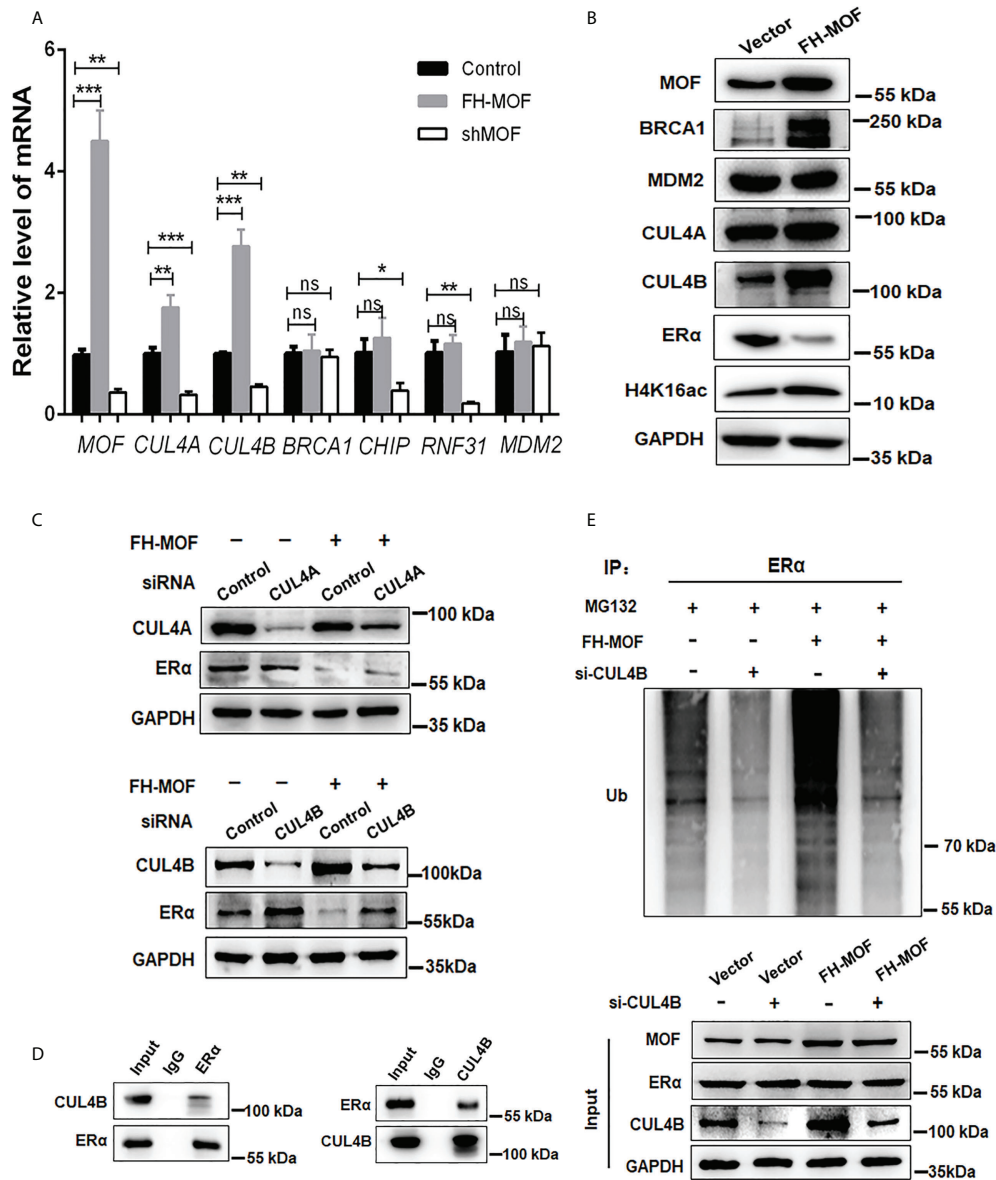


FIGURE 5
 CUL4B is required for MOF-induced ERα protein degradation. (A, B) The mRNA and protein levels of candidate E3 ligases were determined by qRT-PCR and Western blotting in MCF7 cells with MOF overexpression. (C) Knockdown of CUL4B but not CUL4A could abrogate MOF-induced ERα protein degradation by WB assay. (D) Co-IP was performed to detect the physical interaction between MOF and ERα by using specific antibodies against the two proteins. (E) The levels of polyubiquitin-conjugated ERα was determined by Co-IP to examine the involvement of CUL4B in the ubiquitination and protein degradation of ERα. ***P < 0.001, **P < 0.01, and *P < 0.05 vs. control group. ns, not significant vs. control.

promoted the cell proliferation, migration, and drug resistance of lung non-small cell lung cancer cells (39), whereas the lack of MOF resulted in the hypoxia tolerance and multidrug resistance of HCC cells through upregulated hypoxia-inducible factor-1α (HIF-1α) (40). It was reported that in large cohort of patients with BC or lung cancer, high MOF expression showed a favorable prognosis (19, 23, 24), which is consistent with the

demonstration in the present study that the expression of MOF is negatively correlated with that of ERα in BC tissues and cells. We unraveled that MOF overexpression downregulated ERα expression to inhibit the transactivation potential of ERα as well as the proliferation and tumorigenicity of ERα+ BC cells.

The reduced ERα expression by MOF overexpression occurred at the post-translational level *via* promoting ER

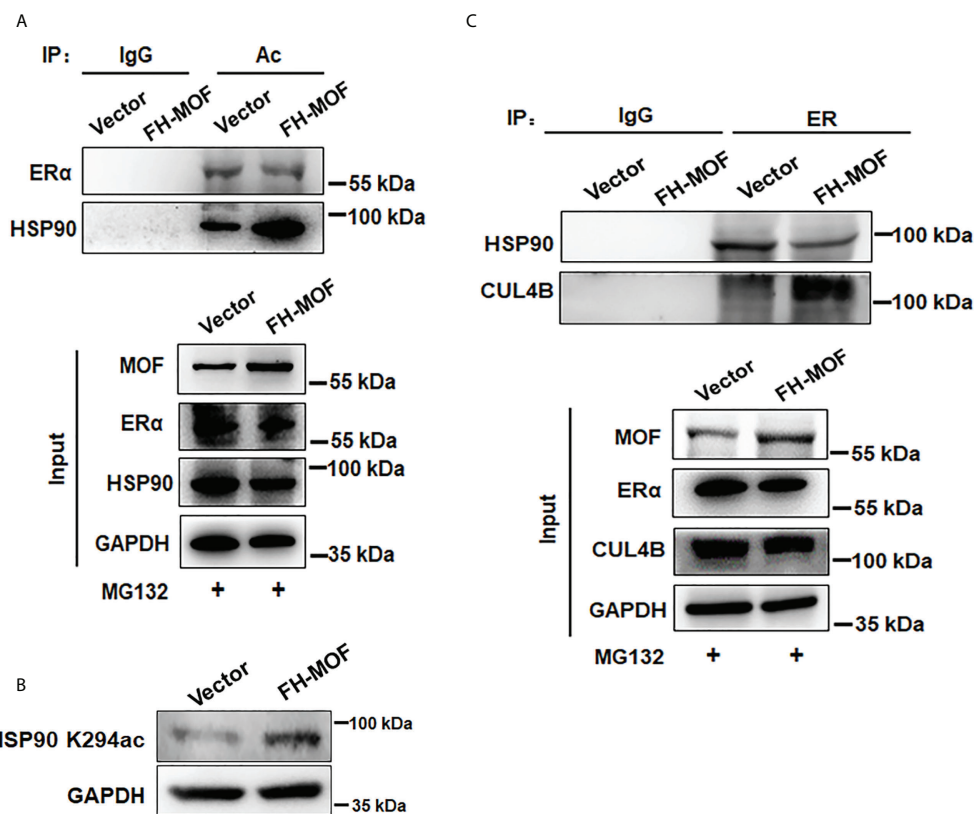


FIGURE 6

MOF promotes HSP90 hyperacetylation to inhibit its chaperon association with ER α . (A) The acetylation level of ER α and HSP90 was investigated by Co-IP using acetylated lysine antibody for IP and antibodies against ER α and HSP90 for Western blotting in FH-MOF-transfected MCF7 cells. (B) HSP90 K294 acetylation site was identified to be functioning in MOF-induced hyperacetylation of HSP90 by Western blotting assay using specific HSP90 K294ac antibody. (C) MOF overexpression enhanced the protein interaction between ER α and CUL4B but undermined the chaperon association of HSP90 with ER α in Co-IP assay.

protein degradation but not at the mRNA level. MOF-mediated ER α degradation requires the activation of CUL4B to speed up ER α protein turnover by the proteasome machinery. CUL4B belongs to the Cullin-Ring E3 ubiquitin ligase subfamily whose members were reported to participate in the proteolysis *via* catalyzing polyubiquitination of various substrates for proteasomal degradation and are implicated in the regulation of some pathological processes (41). For instance, CUL5 is responsible for IFN-gamma-induced proteasomal degradation of HER2 in BC, resulting in diminished cell growth and tumor senescence (42). In addition, CUL4B is responsible for long noncoding RNA Nron-mediated ER α protein stability in osteoporosis (43). Similar with these findings, our data showed that CUL4B destabilized ER α when MOF was overexpressed in BC cells because MOF promoted more expression and interaction of CUL4B with ER α for its polyubiquitination and degradation. As for the two Cullin 4 genes (CUL4A and CUL4B), they shared high identity of protein sequence (44) and possessed overlapping functions in certain scenario (45, 46), like in DNA damage response and polyubiquitination of p53 for

degradation (47, 48). However, distinct roles for these two Cul4 proteins have also been revealed recently (49, 50). Accordingly, in our study, both CUL4A and CUL4B were positively regulated by MOF; nevertheless, only the knockdown of CUL4B could abrogate MOF-induced ER α protein degradation.

Apart from the role of CUL4B in MOF-induced ER α protein destabilization, our data also showed that the acetylation of HSP90 might be associated with the effect of MOF on ER α expression. As a molecular chaperone HSP90 interacts with ER α to maintain a stable conformation of ER α for ligand binding and being protected from degradation (8, 9). Previous studies have revealed that hyperacetylation of HSP90 induced by HDAC6 depletion or HDAC inhibitors would restrain the chaperone function of HSP90, thereby promoting the polyubiquitination and proteasomal degradation of client proteins, like c-Raf, Akt, cyclin D1, and ER α , to evoke growth arrest and apoptosis of cancer cells (9, 51). Similarly, our data showed that MOF overexpression heightened the acetylation of HSP90 and thereby hampered the interaction between HSP90 and ER α , implying the contribution of MOF-induced hyperacetylation of

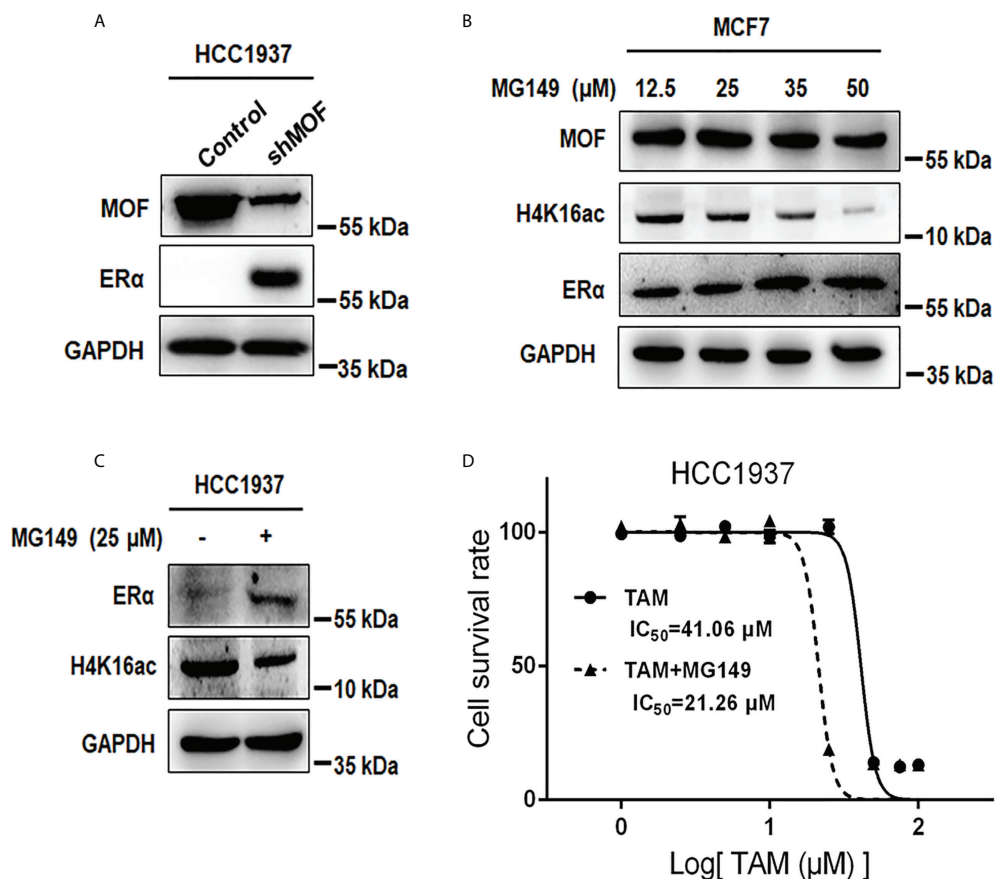


FIGURE 7

Effects of MOF inhibition on ER α protein expression and cell viability in ER α - HCC1937 cells. (A) MOF knockdown restored ER α protein abundance in ER α - HCC1937 cells transfected with pGPU6-shMOF plasmid as determined by Western blotting. (B) Different concentration of MOF inhibitor MG-149 was applied to examine its enhanced effect on ER α protein expression in MCF7 cells. (C) ER α protein expression was reactivated by 35 μ M MG149 in ER α - HCC1937 cells. (D) Cell viability assay was performed to investigate the effect of MG149 on the sensitivity of ER α - HCC1937 cells to tamoxifen (TAM) treatment. IC₅₀ was calculated to compare the combinatory effect of TAM and MG149 with TAM alone treatment for 24 h.

HSP90 in the promotion of ER α degradation. Moreover, the acetylation of HSP90 K294 site was known to be essential for weakening the chaperone association of HSP90 with diverse client proteins such as ErbB2, mutant p53, HIF-1, and androgen receptor (30). In our study, HSP90 K294 site can be specifically acetylated by MOF overexpression, implicating that HSP90 K294ac might play a functional role in MOF-elicited dissociation of ER from HSP90 that results in ER protein instability. Taken together, MOF promoted the hyperacetylation of HSP90 to liberate ER α from the chaperone binding, and subsequently, more CUL4B was recruited to ER α for inducing ER polyubiquitination and proteasomal degradation. A similar scenario was demonstrated where inhibited HSP90 function would destroy the chaperone binding of HSP90 with mutant p53, thereby triggering the protein degradation of released mutant p53 *via* E3 ligases MDM2 and CHIP-mediated ubiquitin-proteasome pathway (52).

On the basis of its role in histone H4K16 acetylation, MOF serves as co-activator of nuclear factor- κ B and androgen receptor for upregulating their transactivation capacity in prostate cancer (53, 54). Dimethylation of ER α by G9a could be recognized by MOF complex to induce transcriptional activation of ER α target genes (55). In addition, MOF-mediated acetylation of non-histone proteins plays essential roles in distinct cancer cells. For instance, MOF acetylates the histone demethylase LSD1 to impede its binding with epithelia genes for their transactivation, thus suppressing EMT and tumor progression in lung cancer and BC (19). MOF-mediated acetylation of HIF-1 α causes the ubiquitination and degradation of HIF-1 α to affect hypoxia susceptibility and drug resistance in HCC (40). On the contrary, MOF acetylates ER α to maintain ER α stability *via* reduced polyubiquitination, thus promoting ER signaling and inhibiting HCC progression (56). This discrepancy in ER α protein stability elicited by the same acetylase activity of MOF on non-histone

proteins could be due to different functional characteristics of ER α caused by distinct cellular environment in diverse cancer types and various acetylation targets that MOF acts on.

At present, hormonal therapies have been extensively applied for the treatment of ER α + BC, like aromatase inhibitors for suppressing estrogen synthesis and antiestrogens competing with estrogens for the interaction with ER α to hinder ER α signaling pathway, which are the most common cure strategies (57, 58). However, for congenital ER α -negative tumors and relapsed tumors losing ER expression after endocrine treatment, they would exhibit intrinsic or acquired resistance to hormonal therapies due to lack of ER α expression (3, 59). Hence, restored expression of lost ER α will be an effective strategy for the sensitivity recovery to endocrine treatment. On account of the negative correlation between MOF and ER α in BC, we further identified that inhibition of MOF by knockdown or inhibitor MG149 could enhance ER expression in BC cells. In particular, in ER-negative HCC1937 cells, recovered abundance of ER protein by MG149 would partially restore the sensitivity of BC cells to TAM treatment. Hypermethylation of ER α gene was reported to be an important cause of suppressed ER α expression (9, 11), and the combination of DNA demethylating agents with HDAC inhibitors would restore ER α expression and TAM sensitivity in ER α - BC cells (12, 13). However, on the other hand, other studies reported that pan-HDAC inhibitors induce HSP90 hyperacetylation to inhibit its binding to ER α and promote ER α degradation (9, 60, 61). Consequently, we provided that the functional role of MOF in ER expression is prone to be similar with the action of HDAC inhibitors through HSP90 acetylation. A high level of MOF in ER α - BC cells resulted in the instability of ER protein due to HSP90 hyperacetylation and loss of chaperone function, whereas MOF inhibition would abrogate the foregoing effects to restore ER α abundance and partial sensitivity to endocrine therapy.

In summary, we unraveled the inverse correlation between MOF and ER α in BC tissues and cells, and MOF overexpression promoted ER α protein degradation *via* CUL4B-mediated ubiquitin-proteasome pathway and HSP90 hyperacetylation that lead to the loss of chaperone binding of HSP90 with ER α , thus inhibiting transcriptional activation and cellular proliferation induced by estrogen and *in vivo* tumorigenicity of ER α + BC cells. In addition, suppression of MOF restored ER α expression and increased the sensitivity of ER α - BC cells to TAM treatment. These findings highlight an essential role of MOF in modulating ER signaling in BC and rationalize MOF as a potential therapeutic target, like developing specific MOF activator for anti-ER treatment in ER α + BC or combination therapy of MG149 with TAM for resistance amelioration in ER α - BC.

Data availability statement

The original contributions presented in the study are included in the article/Supplementary Material. Further inquiries can be directed to the corresponding author.

Ethics statement

The animal study was reviewed and approved by Animal Research Ethical Inspection Form of Shandong University School of Life Sciences.

Author contributions

XL designed this work. XZ, YY, DL, ZW, HL, ZZ, HZ, and FX performed the experiments. XZ and YY analyzed the data. XZ, YY, and XL wrote this manuscript. All authors have reviewed and approved the manuscript.

Funding

This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2016YFE0129200) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Nos. 31571321, 31171428, 71974113 and 81601337).

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

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Supplementary material

The Supplementary Material for this article can be found online at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fonc.2022.868866/full#supplementary-material>

SUPPLEMENTARY FIGURE 1

MOF knockdown increased cellular proliferation of MCF7 cells and abrogated polyubiquitination but not acetylation of ER α . (A) CCK8 assay showed that cell proliferation was increased in MOF knockdown MCF7 cells. (B) Co-IP assay was performed in the presence of MG-132 to detect polyubiquitin-conjugated ER α protein level in pGPU6-shMOF-transfected cells. (C) The acetylation level of ER α and HSP90 was investigated by Co-IP using acetylated lysine antibody in pGPU6-shMOF-transfected MCF7 cells. ** P < 0.01 vs. control group.

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