

Differential regulation of ARE-mediated TNF α and IL-1 β mRNA stability by lipopolysaccharide in RAW264.7 cells

Yu-Ling Chen ^{a,1}, Ya-Lin Huang ^{a,1}, Nien-Yi Lin ^b, Hui-Chen Chen ^c,
Wan-Chih Chiu ^a, Ching-Jin Chang ^{a,c,*}

^a Graduate Institute of Biochemical Sciences, College of Life Science, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan

^b Department and Graduate Institute of Veterinary Medicine, College of Bio-resources and Agriculture, National Taiwan University, Taipei, Taiwan

^c Institute of Biological Chemistry, Academia Sinica, Taipei, Taiwan

Received 3 May 2006

Available online 24 May 2006

Abstract

Messenger RNA degradation is a mechanism by which eukaryotic cells regulate gene expression and influence cell growth and differentiation. Many protooncogene, cytokine, and growth factor RNAs contain AU-rich element (AREs) in the 3'untranslated regions which enable them to be targeted for rapid degradation. To investigate the mechanism of ARE-mediated RNA stability, we demonstrate the expression and regulation of TNF α and IL-1 β mRNAs in LPS-stimulated macrophages. TNF α mRNA was rapidly induced by LPS and showed short half-life at 2-h induction, whereas IL-1 β mRNA was induced slowly and had longer half-life. Electrophoretic mobility shift assays showed that the LPS-induced destabilization factor tristetraprolin (TTP) could bind to TNF α ARE with higher affinity than to IL-1 β ARE. HuR was identified to interact with TNF α ARE to exert RNA stabilization activity. The expression and phosphorylation of TTP could be activated by p38 MAPK pathway during LPS stimulation. Moreover, ectopic expression with TTP and kinases in p38 pathway followed by biochemical assays showed that the activation of p38 pathway resulted in the phosphorylation of TTP and a decrease in its RNA-binding activity. The ARE-containing reporter assay presented that the p38 signal could reverse the inhibitory activity of TTP on IL-1 β ARE but not on TNF α ARE. The present results indicate that the heterogeneity of AREs from TNF α and IL-1 β could reflect distinct ARE-binding proteins to modulate their RNA expression.

© 2006 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

Keywords: Lipopolysaccharide; TNF α ; IL-1 β ; Tristetraprolin; HuR

The mRNAs of many regulatory proteins of the inflammatory response are potentially unstable. The stability of mRNA is determined in many cases by interactions between specific RNA-binding proteins and *cis*-acting sequences located in the 3'untranslated region (3'-UTR) [1]. One of the best characterized *cis*-acting sequences is the adenylate/uridylylate-rich elements (AREs) [2]. AREs can range in size and generally contain one or more copies of the pentameric sequence AUUUA and separate into class I, II, and III [3]. The number of the overlapping pentamer AUUUA may contribute to the mRNA half-life.

The mRNA half-life analysis of endotoxin-stimulated monocytes showed that the half-lives in the class II category were significantly shorter than those of class I [4]. Studies using mRNAs with defined ARE sequence have demonstrated sequence-specific functional heterogeneity [5].

At least 14 apparently distinct proteins have been identified to interact with ARE in cell extracts by UV-crosslinking and gel-shift assays [2,6]. To date, three ARE-binding proteins have been shown to be involved in regulating rapid mRNA decay in vivo: the ARE- and poly(U)-binding and degradation factor AUF1/hnRNP D [7], tristetraprolin (TTP) [8] and HuR [9]. HuR is a ubiquitous member of the embryonic lethal abnormal vision (ELAV) family of RNA-binding proteins [10]. It is predominantly nuclear

* Corresponding author. Fax: +886 2 23635038.

E-mail address: chingjin@gate.sinica.edu.tw (C.-J. Chang).

¹ These authors contributed equally to this work.

and shuttles between nucleus and cytoplasm by means of a sequence HNS [11]. Overexpression of HuR in transiently transfected mammalian cells can stabilize short-lived ARE-containing mRNAs [12]. HuR can respond to certain extracellular stimuli to mediate specific mRNAs stabilization [13–15]. For example, HuR regulates the stabilization of TNF α mRNA upon stimulation with LPS [16]. In contrast, tristetraprolin (TTP) is important for the destabilization of tumor necrosis factor and GM-CSF mRNAs, as shown in knockout mice [8,17] and in tissue culture by ectopic-overexpression studies [18]. TTP binds AREs of target mRNAs and induces deadenylation [19,20] or directs them to the exosome [21,22] or associates with RISC–microRNA complexes [23] for rapid degradation of target mRNAs. TTP was observed as an immediate-early gene that was induced in response to several kinds of stimuli, such as insulin and other growth factors and stimulators of innate immunity like LPS [24,25]. Phosphorylation of TTP by components of the p38 MAPK pathway may alter its ARE-binding activity [26–29] and, or subcellular distribution [28–31] to alter its mediated activity on degradation of ARE-containing transcripts.

TNF α and IL-1 β are both important primary inflammatory mediators produced in macrophages. Their expression can be induced by LPS transcriptionally and post-transcriptionally [32,33]. HuR and TTP could bind to TNF α ARE to exert opposite effects on its RNA stability [16,18,27,34]. There was little investigation on the ARE-mediated IL-1 β gene expression so far. Both TNF α and IL-1 β are taken as targets to study the regulation between ARE binding proteins and different AREs in LPS-stimulated macrophages. Our results showed that TNF α and IL-1 β mRNAs could be induced by LPS, however, their expression showed a differential kinetics and regulation.

Materials and methods

Plasmid constructs. The cDNAs of HuR and TTP were PCR synthesized by using primers 5'-ATGTCTAATGGTTATGAAGAC-3' and 5'-ATGAGCGAGTTATTTGTGGG-3' for HuR and 5'-CTCAGAGACA GAGATACGATTG-3' and 5'-ATGGATCTCGCCATCTAC-3' for TTP and the 2 h LPS-treated RAW264.7 cDNA as template. The PCR fragments were ligated into pGEM-Teasy vector (Promega). After DNA sequence confirmation, the *EcoRI* fragment was further cloned into both bacterial expression vector pGEX (Amersham–Pharmacia) and mammalian cell expression vector pCMV-Tag2 (Stratagene). The 3' AREs of TNF α and IL-1 β were PCR cloned by using primers 5'-TGAGGTGCAATGCACAGC-3' and 5'-CCGCGCTTCCAAATAA TAC-3' for TNF α as well as 5'-AGGGTCACAAGAAACCATGG-3' and 5'-AGGCTATGACCAATTCATCC-3' for IL-1 β . The PCR fragments were cloned into pGEM-Teasy vector (Promega) to prepare riboprobe for EMSA. For heterologous 3'-UTR assay, these ARE fragments were inserted into 3' end of CMV-driven luciferase gene (Stratagene). The pRSV-Flag-MKK3(Ala), pRSV-Flag-MKK3(Glu), pCMV5-Flag-p38, and pCMV-Flag-p38(AGF) were kindly provided by Prof. Roger J. Davis.

Cell culture. Mouse macrophage RAW264.7 and HEK293T cells were grown at 37 °C and 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM, Gibco-BRL) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U ml⁻¹ penicillin, and 100 mg ml⁻¹ streptomycin.

Recombinant protein preparation and antibody generation. The recombinant GST, GST–HuR, and GST–TTP proteins were produced from

Escherichia coli and purified by glutathione–Sepharose column (Amersham–Pharmacia). The GST–TTP protein was boosted into rabbits to generate polyclonal antibodies. The antibody used in EMSA supershift assay was purified by protein A column.

RNA isolation and RT-PCR. Total RNA was extracted from the cultures using Blue extract reagent (LTK, Inc., Taiwan) following the procedures recommended by the manufacturer. Five microgram of total RNA extracted from RAW264.7 treated with LPS for different time intervals was reverse-transcribed to produce cDNA using reverse transcriptase and oligo(dT) (Promega, Madison, WI) as a primer. The specific cDNA was amplified using 5% of the RT reaction in 20 μ l containing 10 pmol of forward primer, 10 pmol of reverse primer, and lyophilized *Taq* DNA polymerase, buffer, and dNTPs (LTK, Inc., Taiwan). The sequences of the primers used for IL-1 β , TNF α , GAPDH, and actin are: 5'-TTGACG GACCCCAAAAAGATG-3' and 5'-AGAAGGTGCTCATGTCCTCA-3' for IL-1 β ; 5'-ATGAGCACAGAAAGCATGATC-3' and 5'-CAGAGCA ATGACTCCAAAG-3' for TNF α ; 5'-ACCCCAATGTGTCCGTCGT-3' and 5'-TACTCCTTGAGGCCATGTA-3' for GAPDH; 5'-TCCTTC CTGGCATGGAGTC-3' and 5'-ACTCATCATACTCCTGCTTG-3' for actin. The expected size of the PCR product is 204 bp for IL-1 β , 707 bp for TNF α , 299 bp for GAPDH, and 300 bp for actin. The PCR was performed in a Robocycler gradient 96 PCR thermal machine (Stratagene) using the following conditions: 94 °C (3 min) for one cycle, 94 °C (40 s), 55 °C (40 s), 72 °C (depending on the product length, 1 min/1 kb) for 20–25 cycles, and a final incubation at 72 °C for 3 min. The PCR products were separated in agarose gel and quantitated by UVP LabWork 4.5 software.

Real-time PCR. Real-time PCR was performed with the Applied Biosystems 7300 Real-Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) in a total volume of 25 μ l. Expression of TNF α , IL-1 β , and actin was analyzed using SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems) containing 50 ng cDNA and 160 nM of each primer: 5'-GACCC TCACACTCAGATCATCTTCT-3' and 5'-CCTCCACTTGGTGGTTT GCT-3' for TNF α ; 5'-TCGTGCTGTCGGACCCATAT-3' and 5'-GTCGTTGCTTGGTTCTCCTTGT-3' for IL-1 β ; the primers for actin were identical as used in semi-quantitative RT-PCR. The real-time PCR amplification conditions were 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 1 min. The real-time PCR data were analyzed using the 2^{- Δ ACT} relative quantitation method, according to the manufacturer's directions.

Preparation of cytoplasmic and nuclear extracts and Western blotting assay. To prepare cell extract, 5 \times 10⁶ cells were resuspended in 400 μ l buffer A (10 mM Hepes, pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM DTT, 1 μ g/ml leupeptin, 1 μ g/ml pepstatin A, 100 μ g/ml PMSF, and phosphatase inhibitors). The cell suspension was on ice for 15 min, and then 25 μ l of 10% NP-40 was added followed by vortexing for 10 s. After centrifugation at 10,000g for 30 s, the supernatant was collected as cytoplasmic extract. The nuclear pellets were resuspended in 100 μ l of buffer C (20 mM Hepes, pH 7.9, 400 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM DTT, 1 μ g/ml leupeptin, 1 μ g/ml pepstatin A, 100 μ g/ml PMSF, and phosphatase inhibitors) and rocked on ice for 20 min. After centrifugation at top speed for 10 min, the supernatant was collected as nuclear extract. Then the samples were aliquoted and stored at -80 °C for further assays. The proteins separated by SDS–PAGE were transferred to PVDF membranes (Millipore) and Western blotting was done using anti-HuR (Santa Cruz), anti-TTP and anti- α -tubulin antibody.

RNA electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA). TNF α and IL-1 β ARE probes were in vitro transcribed by T7 RNA polymerase in the absence or presence of [α -³²P]UTP. 2 \times 10⁵ cpm of probe was incubated with 10 μ g of cytoplasmic extract or 100 ng of recombinant proteins at room temperature for 40 min in a final volume of 10 μ l containing 15 mM Hepes (pH 7.9), 10 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl₂, 10% glycerol, 0.2 mM DTT, 30 μ g heparin sulfate, and 5 μ g of yeast total RNA. Unbound RNAs were digested by 20 U RNase T1 at 37 °C for 20 min. Gel mobility supershift analysis was performed by the addition of 1 μ g of antibody and then incubated at 37 °C for another 20 min. In competition assay, the indicated molar ratio of cold TNF α or IL-1 β ARE was added to the reaction mixture. Binding mixtures were then loaded onto native 5% polyacrylamide gel (acryl:bis = 40:1) containing 2.5% glycerol in 0.25 \times

Tris–borate–EDTA buffer. After electrophoresis at 15 V/cm for 80 min, the gel was dried and exposed to Kodak XAR film at -70°C for appropriate time.

Transfection, luciferase, and β -galactosidase assay. The HEK293T cells (2×10^5) were seeded in each well of a 6-well plastic culture plate. Cells were transfected using Lipofectamine 2000 transfection reagent (Invitrogen) with 1 μg of indicated luciferase constructs, 1 μg of SV40- β -galactosidase plasmid (Promega), and other expression vector. After 24 h, cells were harvested and the cell lysates were assayed for luciferase and β -galactosidase activity. Luciferase activity was determined in a luminometer (Packard) with Promega luciferin as substrate. β -Galactosidase activity was determined by a standard colorimetric assay using *o*-nitrophenyl β -galactopyranoside as substrate. The luciferase assay results were normalized with β -galactosidase activity to correct for variations in transfection efficiency. Each treatment group contained duplicate cultures and each experiment was repeated three to four times. Relative luciferase activity defined as luciferase light units/ β -galactosidase activity is presented as means \pm SE.

Results

Differential *IL-1 β* and *TNF α* mRNA stability in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7

To study the regulation of ARE-mediated mRNA expression, the LPS-stimulated expression profiles of *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* mRNAs were monitored in mouse macrophage cell line RAW264.7. The steady state mRNA amounts of *TNF α* increased rapidly at 30-min induction and then decreased gradually, whereas that of *IL-1 β* was accumulated at 2–4 h post-induction and nearly disappeared at 8-h stimulation (Fig. 1A). In the presence of actinomycin D to stop RNA synthesis, we found that the turnover rate of *TNF α* mRNA was slower at 30-min induction than that at 1- and 2-h induction (Fig. 1B). *IL-1 β* mRNA was more stable than *TNF α* 's at 2-h induction (Fig. 1C). The *IL-1 β* mRNA was too rare to be well analyzed at 30 min- and 1-h induction. This assortment of observations document that, although both *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* mRNA contain ARE elements, they presented differential responses to LPS treatment. The *TNF α* transcript was rapidly induced following LPS stimulation and exhibited short half-life, while *IL-1 β* mRNA transcript was increased slowly and showed higher stability.

ARE-binding of HuR and TTP

To understand the biochemical basis of the distinct responses to LPS on *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* mRNA expression, the AREs of *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* were synthesized and their RNA-binding proteins were analyzed. The ARE sequence of *TNF α* is a typical class II ARE that contain multiple overlapping copies of AUUUA motif, but the ARE of *IL-1 β* only contains two overlapping copies of AUUUA motif and other two scattered motifs (Fig. 2A). Gel shift assay showed that three RNA–protein complexes formed on *TNF α* ARE, labeled with A, B, and C (Fig. 2B). The complex C could be recognized by anti-HuR antibody, and the complex A and LPS-induced complex B could be

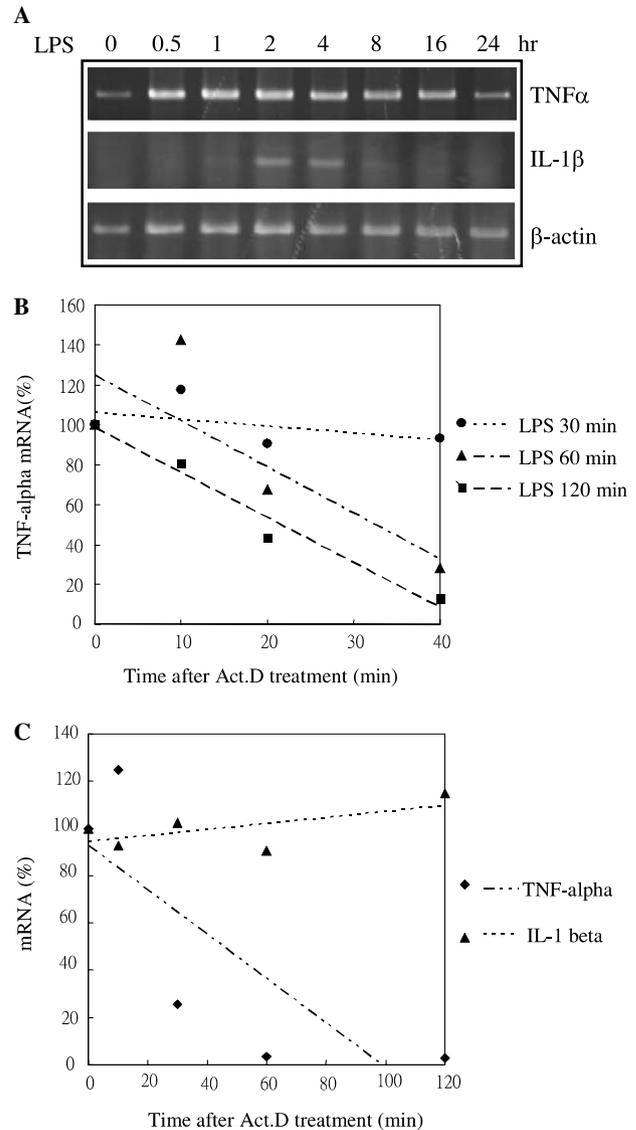


Fig. 1. The mRNA expression profiling of *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* by LPS in RAW264.7 cells. (A) RAW264.7 macrophages were treated with 100 ng/ml LPS for the indicated time and total RNAs were isolated. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was performed using specific primers for *TNF α* , *IL-1 β* , and actin, respectively. (B,C) RAW264.7 cells were treated for LPS for 30 min, 1 h or 2 h. Transcription was then stopped by adding 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$ of actinomycin D (Act. D) for 5, 10, 20, and 40 min. All samples were analyzed by real-time PCR with specific primers for *TNF α* , *IL-1 β* , and actin. Levels of *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* RNA were normalized to those of β -actin in each sample.

supershifted by anti-TTP antibody. On the other hand, only a weak LPS-induced ARE-protein complex formed on *IL-1 β* ARE and it also could be supershifted by anti-TTP antibody (Fig. 2C). The anti-HuR antibody could not recognize the complex on *IL-1 β* ARE (data not shown). The recombinant GST-TTP could interact with *TNF α* and *IL-1 β* AREs (Fig. 3A). When increasing amount of GST-TTP was incubated with ARE probes, the RNA–protein complexes became larger gradually (Fig. 3A). Unlabeled *TNF α* ARE could compete TTP binding more efficiently than unlabeled *IL-1 β* ARE

(Fig. 3B). It implies that TTP has higher binding affinity to TNF α ARE. The variety of ARE sequences might reflect the differential protein binding properties.

Expression of HuR and TTP in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7

To explore how the HuR and TTP regulate the mRNA expression of cytokines, their protein expression level and subcellular localization were determined in RAW264.7 during LPS stimulation. The cytoplasmic and nuclear extracts from control and LPS-stimulated cells were isolated for Western blotting assay. During LPS treatment, the expression levels of HuR were almost consistent in the cytoplasmic fraction. The expression of TTP was significantly induced by LPS in cytoplasmic extract and produced smear multiple forms (Fig. 4). After alkaline phosphatase treatment, the higher bands could be returned to lower position indicating that the multiple bands were due to protein phosphorylation (data not shown). Another ARE-binding protein, AUF1, predominantly located in nuclear extract of RAW264.7 cells (data not shown). When RAW264.7 cells were treated with SB203580 to block p38 MAPK, both phosphorylation and expression of TTP proteins were inhibited, and the expression of HuR was not affected by this p38 inhibitor (Fig. 4). Our results showed that HuR is a constitutive factor, whereas TTP is an inducible and p38 signal-sensitive proteins in LPS-stimulated RAW264.7 cells.

Functional characterization of HuR and TTP on gene expression

To dissect the functional role of HuR and TTP on ARE-mediated gene expression, cotransfection and reporter assays were performed. In Fig. 5A, 293T cells were cotransfected with increasing amounts of HuR or TTP expression plasmids and a reporter gene encoding luciferase fused to TNF α or IL-1 β AREs. The result showed that HuR could enhance the TNF α ARE-containing luciferase activity but the effect was not prominent on IL-1 β ARE. This correlates with HuR binding assay. On the contrary, TTP diminished the ARE-containing reporter activity in a dose-dependent

manner. However, the dosage effect of TTP on TNF α and IL-1 β ARE was different. Higher dose of TTP could gradually restore the TNF α ARE-containing luciferase activity, but it caused greater reduction of IL-1 β ARE-containing luciferase activity. In the presence of 1 or 2 μ g HuR, we observed that the very little amounts of TTP (0.1 μ g) could highly suppress the HuR activated TNF α ARE-containing luciferase activity (Fig. 5B and C). The TTP-mediated suppression of IL-1 β ARE-containing luciferase activity seemed not to be affected by the presence of HuR (Fig. 5B and C). The results suggest that on TNF α or IL-1 β AREs, HuR or TTP displays their functions in different ways.

p38 signaling pathway and HuR- and TTP-regulated gene expression

p38 MAPK signaling pathway has been reported to be involved in regulation of TTP activity [28,29]. We further checked whether p38 signaling pathway could affect TNF α and IL-1 β mRNA stability through TTP or HuR. Activation of p38 was via the activation of upstream MAP kinase kinase (MKK) 3 and MKK6 [35,36]. The dominant negative mutants of MKK3(Ala) or the constitutively activated MKK3(Glu) were used to inhibit or activate p38 activity, respectively. They were cotransfected with TTP and pLuc-TNF α (ARE) or pLuc-IL-1 β (ARE) into 293T cells. Western blotting assay demonstrated that the presence of MKK3(Glu) resulted in the production of higher molecular weight of TTP (Fig. 6A) compared to the presence of MKK3(Ala). It indicates that TTP could be phosphorylated by the p38 pathway. Gel shift assay showed that p38 pathway-phosphorylated TTP has lower ARE-binding activity than unphosphorylated TTP, and the presence of HuR did not affect the TTP-binding (Fig. 6B). Interestingly, the luciferase assays presented the fact that the activation of p38 MAPK could restore the TTP-mediated suppression of IL-1 β ARE-containing gene expression to the original level, but showed a very weak effect on the TNF α ARE-containing luciferase activity (Fig. 6C). The HuR activity was not affected by the p38 signal (Fig. 6D).

Discussion

In this study, we provide evidence to present the differential regulation in ARE-containing transcripts during LPS treatment. LPS could induce TNF α mRNA expression rapidly and change its mRNA stability in different time intervals, while the expression of IL-1 β mRNA was induced slowly by LPS and its mRNA had longer half-life than TNF α 's. Distinct combination and regulation of ARE-binding proteins on TNF α and IL-1 β mRNAs were observed to modulate their mRNA expression.

The RNA–protein interaction assays showed the involvement of TTP in the binding of TNF α and IL-1 β AREs. TTP seems to have higher binding affinity to TNF α ARE. In a previous report, immobilized TTP protein was

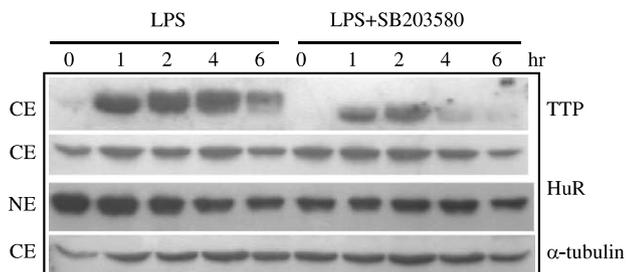


Fig. 4. The protein expression profiling of TTP and HuR in LPS-stimulated macrophages. RAW264.7 cells were treated with LPS alone or pre-treated with 10 μ M SB203580 for 30 min followed by LPS treatment for 0, 1, 2, 4, and 6 h. The cytosolic (CE) and nuclear extracts (NE) were harvested for Western blotting assay by using anti-TTP, anti-HuR, and control anti- α -tubulin antibodies separately.

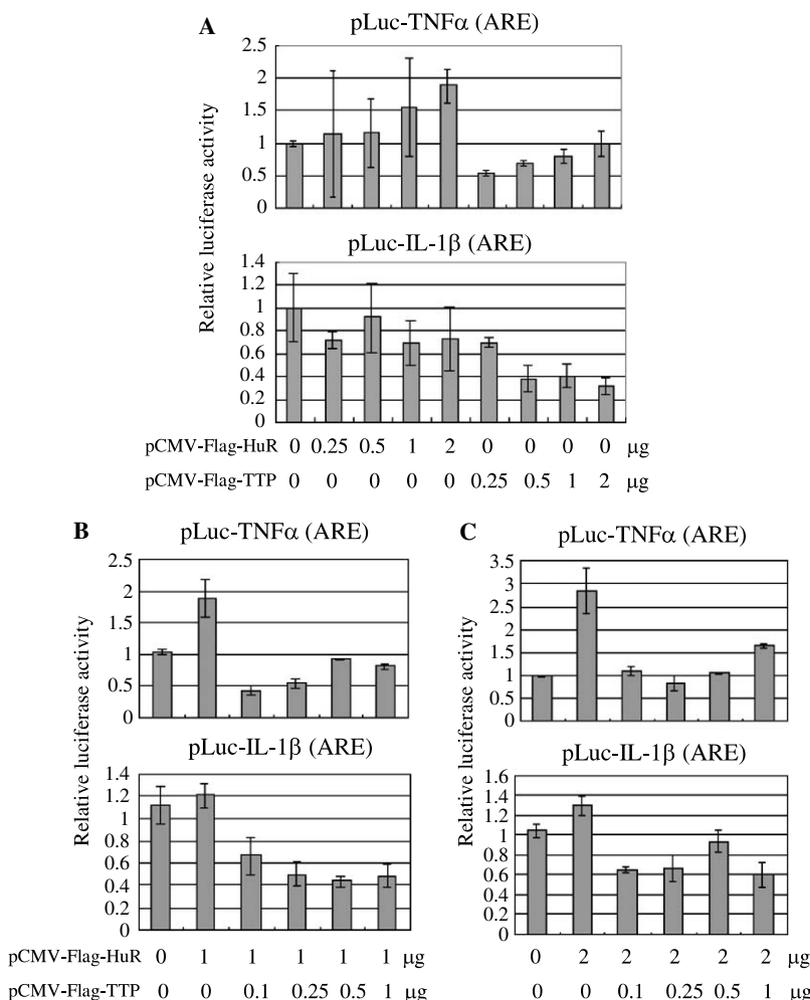


Fig. 5. Functional characterization of HuR and TTP mediated ARE-containing mRNA expression. (A) 293T cells were cotransfected with 0, 0.25, 0.5, 1, and 2 μ g pCMV-Flag-HuR or pCMV-Flag-TTP together with 1 μ g of reporter pLuc-TNF α (ARE) or pLuc-IL-1 β (ARE). 293T cells were cotransfected with 1 μ g pCMV-Flag-HuR (B) or 2 μ g pCMV-Flag-HuR (C) and increasing amounts of pCMV-Flag-TTP as indicated together with 1 μ g of reporter pLuc or pLuc-TNF α (ARE) or pLuc-IL-1 β (ARE).

used to select its optimal binding site by RNA SELEX and revealed a strong preference for the extended sequence UUAUUUAUU, rather than UAUUUUAU and a simple AUUUA motif [37]. Comparing the AREs of TNF α and IL-1 β , we find that TNF α ARE contains three overlapping UUAUUUAUU motifs, while IL-1 β ARE has only three UAUUUUAU and one AUUUA sequences. Moreover, the LPS-induced phosphorylation and expression of TTP could be blocked by the p38 inhibitor in RAW264.7 cells (Fig. 4 and [27]). Using ectopic expression experiment in the culture cells, it has been confirmed that p38 signal could phosphorylate TTP and cause a decrease in its RNA-binding activity [26]. The functional analysis by using ARE-containing reporter gene showed that suppression activity of TTP could be reversed by p38 signal especially on IL-1 β ARE-containing reporter. However, this reversal was unobvious to TNF α ARE containing reporter. A recent report showed the similar result that p38 kinase phosphorylated TTP did not alter its function on TNF α ARE [38]. This result was correlated with Fig. 1C's observation that TTP may be almost phosphorylated under 2 h

LPS-stimulation and lost its suppression effect on IL-1 β mRNA stability but not on TNF α 's. Our explanation is that TTP has differential binding affinity on TNF α and IL-1 β AREs, and therefore less amount of TTP could bind to TNF α ARE to trigger the RNA destabilization. Consequently, TNF α ARE has little response to TTP phosphorylation. Our data imply that the negative RNA stability regulator TTP is able to respond to p38 signal to control its target ARE-containing mRNA expression differentially.

EMSA showed that cytoplasmic HuR could bind to TNF α ARE to promote ARE-mediated gene expression. Its activity was not affected by MKK3 pathway. This was consistent with the previous study that activation of p38 by the expression of MKK6 active mutant with HuR did not result in any alteration in HuR activity [16]. The interaction between IL-1 β ARE and HuR was only observed upon using the recombinant HuR (data not shown). It may be too low for the affinity of HuR for IL-1 β ARE to be detected in cytoplasmic extracts. However, TNF α ARE was the target of both TTP and HuR that were proteins with different functions. It might possibly explain the

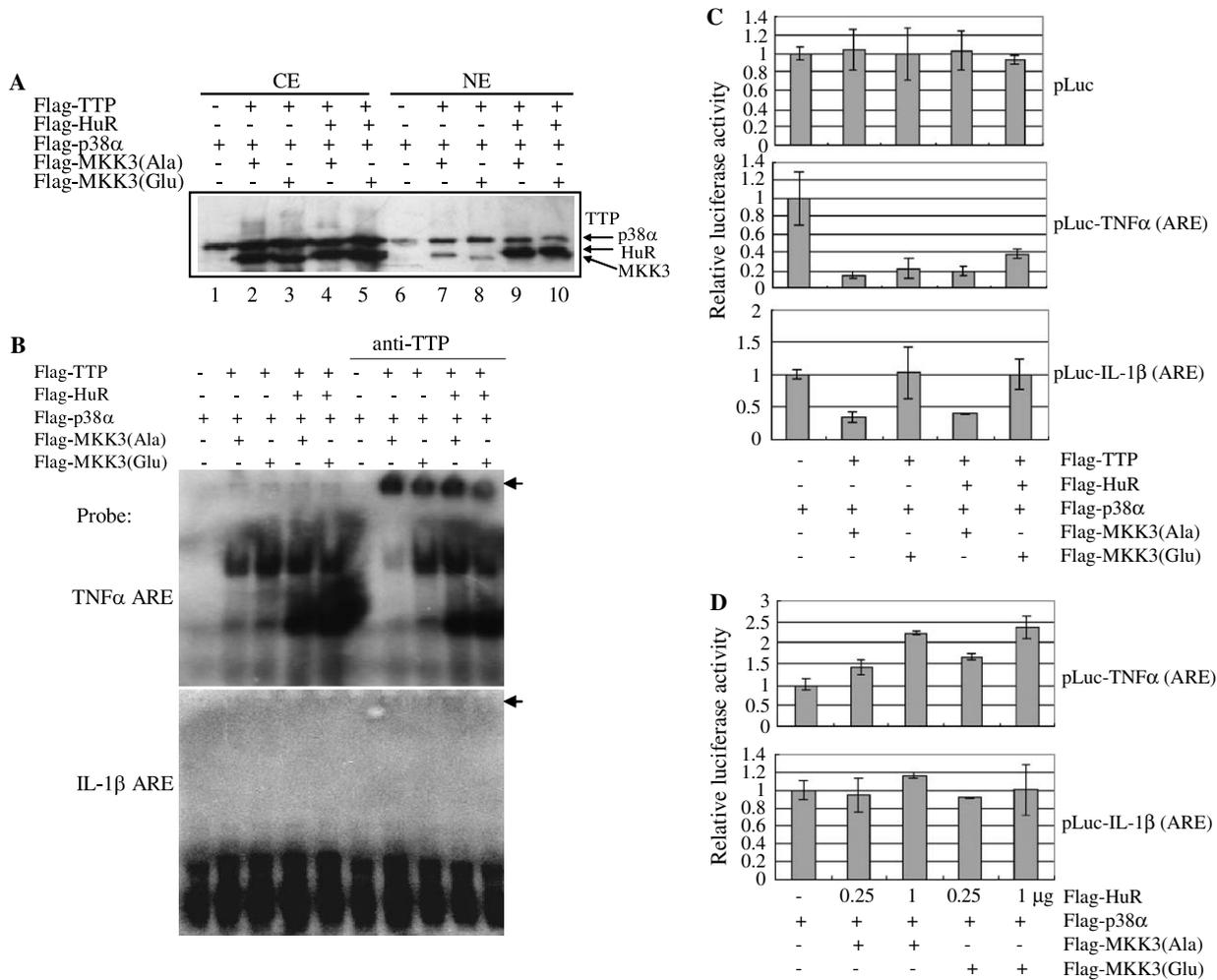


Fig. 6. p38 signaling in HuR and TTP mediated ARE-containing mRNA expression. 293T cells were cotransfected with 0.5 μg of either pRSV-Flag-MKK3(Ala) or pRSV-Flag-MKK3(Glu) and 0.5 μg pCMV-Flag-TTP, 1 μg pCMV-Flag-HuR and 0.5 μg pCMV5-p38α as indicated. Cytosolic and nuclear extracts were isolated for Western blotting with anti-Flag antibody (A). Moreover, the cytoplasmic extracts were incubated with radiolabeled TNFα and IL-1β ARE for gel shift assay and anti-TTP antibody was added in the supershift assay (B). The above experiments combined cotransfection with control pLuc, pLuc-TNFα (ARE) or pLuc-IL-1β (ARE) for luciferase assay (C). (D) pLuc-TNFα (ARE) or pLuc-IL-1β (ARE) was cotransfected with 0.25 or 1 μg pCMV-Flag-HuR together with 0.5 μg pRSV-Flag-MKK3(Ala) or pRSV-Flag-Mkk3(Glu).

difference of expression profiling of both TNFα and IL-1β during LPS stimulation: when the TNFα transcripts were induced, HuR could stabilize them and cause rapid mRNAs accumulation, however, IL-1β mRNAs had less protection from HuR. The previous report presented that distinct ARE domains of GM-CSF mRNA could respond to HuR and p38/MAPKAPK-2 individually [39]. HuR and the other mRNA destabilization factor AUF1 could bind to distinct sites of the p21 and cyclin D1 mRNAs to regulate the mRNA fate by protein abundance, stress condition, and subcellular localization [40]. The results indicated that HuR and other ARE-binding proteins could concurrently bind to common target mRNAs. The functional competition between HuR and TTP was observed in the experiment on IL-3 ARE [41]. Our cotransfection assay also showed that TTP could almost overcome the HuR effect in TNFα ARE even when the amount of TTP was lower than HuR. The detailed functional interaction

between HuR and TTP on TNFα ARE will be further investigated.

We also observed that the low dose of TTP had higher suppression activity than high dose on TNFα ARE as reported in a previous study [18]. Our protein binding assay provides an explanation that the high dose of TTP could form large protein complex with TNFα ARE, which may block the TTP interaction of other mRNA decay enzymes. The other possibility is that the high amount of TTP could override the mRNA decay enzymes. A recent study suggests that the TTP protein family functions as a molecular link between ARE-containing mRNAs and the mRNA decay machinery by the recruitment of mRNA decay enzymes including deadenylation, decapping, and exonucleolytic decay [42]. Moreover, as a negative factor for cytokines production, the expression of TTP seemed to be controlled delicately. The autoregulation of feedback inhibition was observed [43,44].

The ARE-dependent RNA stability is the target of several different signaling mechanisms, and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway is one of them [4,43–48]. Several ARE-binding proteins including TTP, hnRNP A1, and hnRNP A0 have been reported that could respond to p38 signal to modulate the target mRNA stability or translation [28,29,49,50]. Thus, it is a very complicated signaling pathway to control the ARE-mediated gene expression. Our result showed that TNF α mRNA has longer half-life after exposure to LPS for 30 min (Fig. 1B). We also found p38 MAPK inhibitor SB203580 could decrease TNF α mRNA half-life at this time interval (data not shown). It seemed that LPS could stabilize TNF α mRNA and there is a p38-sensitive protein involved in this regulation. The detailed molecular linkage of p38 pathway and ARE-mediated cytokines expression is to be investigated.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Academia Sinica and National Science Council (Grant NSC 93-2311-B-001-073). We are very grateful to Dr. Roger J. Davis for the p38 pathway kinase plasmids. We also thank Dr. Yeou-Guang Tsay for a careful review of the manuscript.

References

- [1] J. Guhaniyogi, G. Brewer, Regulation of mRNA stability in mammalian cells, *Gene* 265 (2001) 11–23.
- [2] A. Bevilacqua, M.C. Ceriani, S. Capaccioli, A. Nicolini, Post-transcriptional regulation of gene expression by degradation of messenger RNAs, *J. Cell. Phys.* 195 (2003) 356–372.
- [3] C.Y. Chen, A.B. Shyu, AU-rich elements: characterization and importance in mRNA degradation, *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 20 (1995) 465–470.
- [4] M.A. Frevel, T. Bakheet, A.M. Silva, J.G. Hissong, K.S.A. Khabar, B.R.G. Williams, p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase-dependent and-independent signaling of mRNA stability of AU-rich element-containing transcripts, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 23 (2003) 425–436.
- [5] J. Tebo, S. Der, M. Frevel, K.S.A. Khabar, B.R.G. Williams, T.A. Hamilton, Heterogeneity in control of mRNA stability by AU-rich elements, *J. Biol. Chem.* 278 (2003) 12085–12093.
- [6] C.M. Brennan, J.A. Steitz, HuR and mRNA stability, *Cell. Mol. Life Sci.* 58 (2001) 266–277.
- [7] W. Zhang, B.J. Wagner, K. Ehrenman, A.W. Schaefer, C.T. DeMaria, D. Crater, K. DeHaven, L. Long, G. Brewer, Purification characterization and cDNA cloning of an AU-rich element RNA-binding protein, AUF1, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 13 (1993) 7652–7665.
- [8] E. Carballo, W.S. Lai, P.J. Blackshear, Evidence that tristetraprolin is a physiological regulator of granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor messenger RNA deadenylation and stability, *Blood* 95 (2000) 1891–1899.
- [9] W.J. Ma, S. Cheng, C. Campbell, A. Wright, H. Furneaux, Cloning and characterization of HuR, a ubiquitously expressed Elav-like protein, *J. Biol. Chem.* 271 (1996) 8144–8151.
- [10] J.D. Keene, Why is Hu where? Shuttling of early-response-gene messenger RNA subsets, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA* 96 (1999) 5–7.
- [11] X.C. Fan, J.A. Steitz, Overexpression of HuR, a nuclear-cytoplasmic shuttling protein, increases the in vivo stability of ARE-containing mRNAs, *EMBO J.* 17 (1998) 3448–3460.
- [12] S.S. Peng, C.Y. Chen, N. Xu, A.B. Shyu, RNA stabilization by the AU-rich element binding protein, HuR, an ELAV protein, *EMBO J.* 17 (1998) 3461–3470.
- [13] N.S. Levy, S. Chung, H. Furneaux, A.P. Levy, Hypoxic stabilization of vascular endothelial growth factor mRNA by the RNA-binding protein HuR, *J. Biol. Chem.* 273 (1998) 6417–6423.
- [14] F. Rodriguez-Pascual, M. Hausding, I. Ihrig-Biedert, H. Fumeaux, A.P. Levy, U. Forstermann, H. Kleinert, Complex contribution of the 3'-untranslated region to the expressional regulation of the human inducible nitric-oxide synthase gene. Involvement of the RNA-binding proteins HuR, *J. Biol. Chem.* 275 (2000) 26040–26049.
- [15] W. Wang, H. Furneaux, H. Cheng, M.C. Caldwell, D. Hutter, Y. Liu, N. Holbrook, M. Gorospe, HuR regulates p21 mRNA stabilization by UV light, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 20 (2000) 760–769.
- [16] J.L. Dean, R. Wait, K.R. Mahtani, G. Sully, A.R. Clark, J. Saklatvala, The 3' untranslated region of tumor necrosis factor alpha mRNA is a target of the mRNA-stabilizing factor HuR, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 21 (2001) 721–730.
- [17] G.A. Taylor, E. Carballo, D.M. Lee, W.S. Lai, M.J. Thompson, D.D. Patel, D.I. Schenkman, G.S. Gilkeson, H.E. Broxmeyer, B.F. Haynes, P.J. Blackshear, A pathogenic role for TNF alpha in the syndrome of cachexia, arthritis, and autoimmunity resulting from tristetraprolin (TTP) deficiency, *Immunity* 4 (1996) 445–454.
- [18] W.S. Lai, E. Carballo, J.R. Strum, E.A. Kennington, R.S. Philips, P.J. Blackshear, Evidence that tristetraprolin binds to AU-rich elements and promotes the deadenylation and destabilization of tumor necrosis factor alpha mRNA, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 19 (1999) 4311–4323.
- [19] W.S. Lai, P.J. Blackshear, Interactions of CCCH zinc finger protein with mRNA: tristetraprolin-mediated AU-rich element-dependent mRNA degradation can occur in the absence of a poly(A) tail, *J. Biol. Chem.* 276 (2001) 23144–23154.
- [20] W.S. Lai, E.A. Kennington, P.J. Blackshear, Interaction of CCCH zinc finger proteins with mRNA: non-binding tristetraprolin mutants exert an inhibitory effect on degradation of AU-rich element-containing mRNAs, *J. Biol. Chem.* 277 (2002) 9606–9613.
- [21] C.Y. Chen, R. Gherzi, S.E. Ong, E.L. Chan, R. Rajimakers, G.J.M. Pruijn, G. Stoecklin, C. Moroni, M. Mann, M. Karin, AU binding proteins recruit the exosome to degrade ARE-containing mRNAs, *Cell* 107 (2001) 451–464.
- [22] D. Mukherjee, M. Gao, J.P. O'Connor, R. Rajimakers, G. Pruijn, C.S. Lutz, J. Wilusz, The mammalian exosome mediates the efficient degradation of mRNAs that contain AU-rich elements, *EMBO J.* 21 (2002) 165–174.
- [23] Q. Jing, S. Huang, S. Guth, T. Zarubin, a. Motoyama, J. Chen, F.D. Padiva, S.-C. Lin, H. Gram, J. Han, Involvement of microRNA in AU-rich element-mediated mRNA instability, *Cell* 120 (2005) 623–634.
- [24] W.S. Lai, D.J. Stumpo, P.J. Blackshear, Rapid insulin-stimulated accumulation of an mRNA encoding a proline-rich protein, *J. Biol. Chem.* 265 (1990) 16556–16563.
- [25] E. Carballo, W.S. Lai, P.J. Blackshear, Feedback inhibition of macrophage tumor necrosis factor- α production by tristetraprolin, *Science* 281 (1998) 1001–1005.
- [26] E. Carballo, H. Cao, W.S. Lai, E.A. Kennington, D. Campbell, P.J. Blackshear, Decreased sensitivity of tristetraprolin-deficient cells to p38 inhibitors suggests the involvement of tristetraprolin in the p38 signaling pathway, *J. Biol. Chem.* 276 (2001) 42580–42587.
- [27] K.R. Mahtani, M. Brook, J.L. Dean, G. Sully, J. Saklatvala, A.R. Clark, Mitogen-activated protein kinase p38 controls the expression and posttranslational modification of tristetraprolin, a regulator of tumor necrosis factor alpha mRNA stability, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 21 (2001) 6461–6479.
- [28] M. Brook, C.R. Tchen, T. Santalucia, J. McIlrath, J.S. Arthur, J. Saklatvala, A.R. Clark, Posttranslational regulation of tristetraprolin subcellular localization and protein stability by p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase and extracellular signal-regulated kinase pathways, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 26 (2006) 2408–2418.
- [29] E. Hitti, T. Iakovleva, M. Brook, S. Deppenmeier, A.D. Gruber, D. Radzioch, A.R. Clark, P.J. Blackshear, A. Kotlyarov, M. Gaestel, Mitogen-activated protein kinase-activated protein kinase 2 regulates

- tumor necrosis factor mRNA stability and translation mainly by altering tristetraprolin expression, stability, and binding to adenine/uridine-rich element, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 26 (2006) 2399–2407.
- [30] B.A. Johnson, J.R. Stehn, M.B. Yaffe, T.K. Blackwell, Cytoplasmic localization of tristetraprolin involves 14-3-3-dependent and independent mechanisms, *J. Biol. Chem.* 277 (2002) 18029–18036.
- [31] G. Stoecklin, T. Stubbs, N. Kedersha, S. Wax, W. FC Rigby, T.K. Blackwell, P. Anderson, MK2-induced tristetraprolin:14-3-3 complexes prevent stress granule association and ARE-mRNA decay, *EMBO J.* 23 (2004) 1313–1324.
- [32] M. Kracht, J. Saklatvala, Transcriptional and post-transcriptional control of gene expression in inflammation, *Cytokine* 20 (2002) 91–106.
- [33] M. Triantafyllou, K. Triantafyllou, Lipopolysaccharide recognition: CD14, TLRs and the LPS-activation cluster, *Trends Immunol.* 23 (2002) 301–304.
- [34] K. Sakai, Y. Kitagawa, G. Hirose, Binding of neuronal ELAV-like proteins to the uridine-rich sequence in the 3'-untranslated region of tumor necrosis factor- α messenger RNA, *FEBS Lett.* 446 (1999) 157–162.
- [35] B. Su, M. Karin, Mitogen-activated protein kinase cascades and regulation of gene expression, *Curr. Biol.* 8 (1996) 402–411.
- [36] J. Saklatvala, The p38 MAP kinase pathway as a therapeutic target in inflammatory disease, *Curr. Opin. Pharmacol.* 4 (2004) 372–377.
- [37] M.T. Worthington, J.W. Pelo, M.A. Sachedina, J.L. Applegate, K.O. Arseneau, T.T. Pizarro, RNA binding properties of the AU-rich element-binding recombinant Nup475/TIS11/tristetraprolin protein, *J. Biol. Chem.* 277 (2002) 48558–48564.
- [38] W.F.C. Rigby, K. Roy, J. Collins, S. Rigby, J.E. Connolly, D.B. Bloch, S.A. Brooks, Structure/function analysis of tristetraprolin (TTP): p38 stress-activated protein kinase and lipopolysaccharide stimulation do not alter TTP function, *J. Immunol.* 174 (2005) 7883–7893.
- [39] R. Winzen, G. Gowrishankar, F. Bollog, N. Redich, K. Resch, H. Holtmann, Distinct domains of AU-rich elements exert different functions in mRNA destabilization and stabilization by p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase or HuR, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 24 (2004) 4835–4847.
- [40] A. Lal, K. Mazan-Mamczarz, T. Kawai, X. Yang, J.L. Martindale, M. Gorospe, Concurrent versus individual binding of HuR and AUF1 to common labile target mRNAs, *EMBO J.* 23 (2004) 3092–3102.
- [41] X.F. Ming, G. Stoecklin, M. Lu, R. Looser, C. Moroni, Parallel and independent regulation of interleukin-3 mRNA turnover by phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, *Mol. Cell. Biol.* 21 (2001) 5778–5789.
- [42] J. Lykke-Andersen, E. Wagner, Recruitment and activation of mRNA decay enzymes by two ARE-mediated decay activation domains in the proteins TTP and BRF-1, *Genes Dev.* 19 (2005) 351–361.
- [43] S.A. Brooks, J.E. Connolly, W.F. Rigby, The role of mRNA turnover in the regulation of tristetraprolin expression: evidence for an extracellular signal-regulated kinase-specific, AU-rich element-dependent autoregulatory pathway, *J. Immunol.* 172 (2004) 7264–7271.
- [44] C.R. Tchen, M. Brook, J. Saklatvala, A.R. Clark, The stability of tristetraprolin mRNA is regulated by mitogen-activated protein kinase p38 by tristetraprolin itself, *J. Biol. Chem.* 279 (2004) 32393–32400.
- [45] J.L. Dean, M. Brook, A.R. Clark, J. Saklatvala, p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase regulates cyclooxygenase-2 mRNA stability and transcription in lipopolysaccharide-treated human monocytes, *J. Biol. Chem.* 274 (1999) 264–269.
- [46] K. Miyazawa, A. Mori, H. Miyata, M. Akahane, Y. Ajijsawa, H. Okudaira, Regulation of interleukin-1 beta-induced interleukin-6 gene expression in human fibroblast-like synoviocytes by p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, *J. Biol. Chem.* 273 (1998) 24832–24838.
- [47] S.H. Ridley, J.L. Dean, S.J. Sarsfield, M. Brook, A.R. Clark, J. Saklatvala, A p38 MAP kinase inhibitor regulates stability of interkin-1-induced cyclooxygenase-2 mRNA, *FEBS Lett.* 439 (1998) 75–80.
- [48] S.W. Wang, J. Pawlowski, S.T. Wathen, S.D. Kinney, H.S. Lichtenstein, C.L. Manthey, Cytokine mRNA decay is accelerated by an inhibitor of p38-mitogen-activated protein kinase, *Inflamm. Res.* 48 (1999) 533–538.
- [49] M. Buxade, J.L. Parra, S. Rousseau, N. Shpiro, S. Marquez, N. Morrice, J. Bain, E. Espel, C.G. Proud, The Mnks are novel components in the control of TNF α biosynthesis and phosphorylate and regulate hnRNP A1, *Immunity* 23 (2006) 177–189.
- [50] S. Rousseau, N. Morrice, M. Peggie, G. Campbell, M. Gaestel, P. Cohen, Inhibition of SAPK2a/p38 prevents hnRNP A0 phosphorylation by MAPKAP-K2 and its interaction with cytokine mRNAs, *EMBO J.* 21 (2002) 6505–6514.