

Mammary differentiation induces expression of Tristetraprolin, a tumor suppressor AU-rich mRNA-binding protein

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Received: 25 July 2012 / Accepted: 13 August 2012 / Published online: 29 August 2012
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Abstract Tristetraprolin (TTP) is a RNA-binding protein that inhibits the expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines and invasiveness-associated genes. TTP levels are decreased in many different cancer types and it has been proposed that this protein could be used as a prognostic factor in breast cancer. Here, using publicly available DNA microarray datasets, “serial analysis of gene expression” libraries and qRT-PCR analysis, we determined that *TTP* mRNA is present in normal breast cells and its levels are significantly decreased in all breast cancer subtypes. In addition, by immunostaining, we found that TTP expression is higher in normal breast tissue and benign lesions than in infiltrating carcinomas. Among these, lower grade tumors showed increased TTP expression compared to

higher grade cancers. Therefore, these data indicate that TTP protein levels would provide a better negative correlation with breast cancer invasiveness than TTP transcript levels. In mice, we found that *TTP* mRNA and protein expression is also diminished in mammary tumors. Interestingly, a strong positive association of TTP expression and mammary differentiation was identified in normal and tumor cells. In fact, TTP expression is highly increased during lactation, showing good correlation with various mammary differentiation factors. *TTP* expression was also induced in mammary HC11 cells treated with lactogenic hormones, mainly by prolactin, through Stat5A activation. The effect of this hormone was highly dependent on mammary differentiation status, as prolactin was unable to elicit a similar response in proliferating or neoplastic mammary cells. In summary, these studies show that TTP expression is strongly linked to the mammary differentiation program in human and mice, suggesting that this protein might play specific and relevant roles in the normal physiology of the gland.

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Keywords Tristetraprolin · Breast cancer · Mammary gland · Lactation · Prolactin

Introduction

It has been demonstrated that the stability of many mRNAs encoding oncoproteins, cytokines, and inflammatory mediators is controlled by AU-rich elements (AREs), sequences located within the 3'UTR of many transcripts [1, 2]. ARE-directed control of mRNA decay is mediated, in part, through interactions with specific ARE-binding proteins (AUBPs). One such protein is tristetraprolin (TTP), which accelerates the decay of targeted transcripts

[3]. It has been demonstrated that TTP reduces the expression of inflammatory cytokines and participates in glucocorticoid-mediated anti-inflammatory activity [4–6]. In addition, several reports indicate that TTP participates in the inhibition of tumor progression. *TTP* mRNA levels are significantly decreased in many tumor types, including breast cancer [7]. Furthermore, in human breast cell lines, TTP inhibits the expression of cancer-related genes [8, 9]. However, to date, factors or conditions that modulate TTP expression in the mammary gland have not been reported.

Mammary gland development is a complex, multistep process. From pregnancy to lactation, lobulo-alveolar growth is followed by the complete differentiation of mammary epithelium, which allows the production and secretion of milk proteins. During lactation, the transcription factor Stat5A and the glucocorticoid receptor (GR) synergize to induce milk protein expression [10]. At weaning, a rapid switch from survival to death signaling occurs, leading to involution, which involves extensive remodeling [11] and an innate immune response in the tissue [12]. Interestingly, involution-associated factors may be responsible for the poor prognosis of pregnancy-associated breast cancers [13].

When modeling mammary differentiation in culture, a correct microenvironment must be provided for the cells to respond optimally to lactogenic hormones. Co-cultivation of epithelial cells with fibroblasts or adipocytes, or cultivation of epithelial cells in the presence of extracellular matrix proteins is necessary [14, 15]. Mouse mammary HC11 cells are different, since they require neither co-cultivation nor addition of exogenous substrates (extracellular matrix proteins) to respond to the lactogenic hormones. HC11 cells display a normal phenotype [16] and can produce beta-casein when lactogenic hormones are added to confluent cells because they are able to produce their own extracellular matrix, which is important for their differentiation [17].

The present study was undertaken to characterize the TTP expression pattern in normal and tumor mammary cells, in culture and in vivo. We demonstrate that this protein appears important in mammary differentiation, suggesting that loss of TTP expression in breast cancer development might be associated to the impairment of the mammary cell fate program.

Materials and methods

Gene expression profiling in DNA microarray and SAGE databases

We analyzed publicly available breast cancer microarray data derived from diverse tumor types [18]. The gene expression matrix and the associated clinical data were obtained from the

Rosetta Inpharmatics website (<http://www.rii.com/publications/2002/nejm.html>). Tumor classification, according to the five genomic intrinsic subtypes, was established based on reported data [19]. *TTP* expression was determined, and comparisons among subtypes were established by ANOVA.

Twenty nine SAGE (*serial analysis of gene expression*) libraries, described in [20], were combined with 17 SAGE libraries generated at the Polyak Laboratory, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, MA, USA, which were downloaded from the Cancer Genome Anatomy Project, SAGE Genie database (<http://cgap.nci.nih.gov/SAGE/>). A total of 46 breast SAGE libraries were analyzed: 4 normal breast epithelium, 7 ductal carcinoma in situ, and 35 invasive ductal carcinomas. SAGE data management and tag-to-gene matching for *TTP* (ATGGTGGGGG) were performed with a suite of web-based SAGE library annotation tools that we have developed.

For in silico analysis of *TTP*, *PRL*, *PRLR*, *GR*, *STAT5*, and *STAT3* expression profiles, a mouse mammary gland study available at the gene expression omnibus database (GSE8191) [21] was used. This dataset includes 40 microarray samples from a FVB mouse mammary gland development series.

Morphological and immunohistochemical studies

Breast tissue samples were obtained from Dr Leónidas Lucero Hospital (Bahía Blanca, Buenos Aires, Argentina) after approval by the institutional review board.

Human and mouse tissues were formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded, and sectioned. Antigen retrieval was performed with 10 mM Citrate buffer pH 6.0. TTP antibody (sc-14030) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) was used at dilutions ranging between 1:200 and 1:250. Immunodetection was performed with either the DakoCytomation LSAB + System-HRP (Dako) or the Vectastain Elite ABC immunoperoxidase system (Vector Laboratories). Sections were counter-stained with hematoxylin. For human breast cancer samples, staining intensity was graded as negative (–), weak (+), moderate (++), or strong (+++). The number of optical fields in a specimen that were positively stained was expressed as a percentage of the total number of optical fields in the slide. A sample was considered positive when more than 5 % of the breast epithelial cells were stained.

Mouse mammary models

Balb/c mice were maintained in a pathogen-free, temperature-controlled environment on a 12/12 h light/dark cycle and given sterilized laboratory chow and water ad libitum. All animal studies were conducted in accordance with the NIH Guide for the Care and the Use of Laboratory

Animals. Mouse mammary tumors were obtained from FBN/V-TgN (MMTVPyVT) 634Mu1 (PymT) mice (The Jackson Laboratory) [22], from MMTV(LA) infected BALB/c mice [23] and from BALB/c mice inoculated with 4T1 cells, which are derived from MMTV(C3H) infected BALB/c mice [24]. To analyze TTP expression in vivo, mice were euthanized and #4 mammary glands and/or tumors were removed.

Cell culture

HC11 cells were grown in RPMI 1640 (GIBCO) supplemented with 10 % fetal calf serum (FCS) and 5 µg/ml insulin (Sigma). Confluent HC11 cells were maintained in RPMI with 2 % FCS and 5 µg/ml insulin for 3 days after which 5 µg/ml ovine PRL (Sigma) and 10^{-7} M Dex (Sigma) were added. T47D cells were grown in DMEM (GIBCO) with 10 % FCS. Cells were left in serum-free media overnight before PRL (3 µg/ml) treatment. 4T1 cells were cultured in DMEM (Sigma) supplemented with 10 % FCS.

Mouse TTP promoter plasmid

The reporter plasmid mTTP-LUC was constructed in two steps. A fragment of the mouse *TTP* gene from -1619 upstream of the transcription start site to the last base before the stop codon was amplified by PCR using genomic DNA isolated from Hepa1-6 cells using the following primers: 5'ATCacgcgtGAGACTGGAGGATCGCAAGTTC3' and 5'AGTTgatatcCTATTTTTCGAACTGCGGGTGCTCCACTCAGAGACAGAGATACGATTG3'. The underlined sequence was designed to encode a C-terminal, 8 amino acid strep-tag, and a stop codon. The PCR product was digested with MluI and EcoRV (restriction site sequences were engineered into the primers and are shown in lower case). The plasmid pcDNA3.1(-) (Invitrogen) was digested with the same enzymes to remove the existing CMV promoter, 5'UTR, and a portion of the multiple cloning site. This fragment was then ligated to the PCR product to create pTTP-Gene-Flawed1. A fragment containing 1,561 bp of the *TTP* promoter and 31 bp of the *TTP* 5'UTR was excised from pTTP-Gene-Flawed1 using BglII and NcoI. pGL3-Basic was digested with the same enzymes and ligated to the TTP promoter fragment to create mTTP-LUC. Construction of pStat5A-WT and pStat5A-DN has been previously described [25, 26].

Transfections

Using PEI reagent (Polysciences), HC11 cells were transfected with 1 µg mTTP-LUC, or pGL3-Basic, and 1 µg of the β -galactosidase-expressing plasmid pCMV-LacZ, as a

control for transfection efficiency. Competent cells were treated with PRL (5 µg/ml) and Dex (10^{-7} M) for 24 h in serum-free media. To study Stat5A, cells were co-transfected with 1 µg mTTP-LUC or pGL3-Basic, 1 µg pStat5A-WT or pStat5A-DN, and pCMV-LacZ.

Real-time quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) and western blot analyses

RNA was isolated using Trizol (Invitrogen) and reverse transcribed using a superscriptTM II reverse transcriptase kit (Invitrogen). Real-time PCR reactions were performed in a Stratagene MX30005P thermal cycler (Agilent) using PerfeCta SYBR Green SuperMix (Quanta Biosciences). Primers used were: human TTP: 5'CATGGCCAACCGTTACACC3' and 5'ACTCAGTCCCTCCATGGTCG3', mouse TTP: 5'CGGAAGTCTGCCACAAG3' and 5'GGCGAAAAGGAACAAGA3', mouse beta casein: 5'TCCCACA AAACATCCAGCC3' and 5'ACGGAATGTT-GTGGAGTGG3', mouse beta actin: 5'-CGGTTGGCCTTAGGGTTCA GGGGGG-3' and 5'-GTGGGCCGCTCTAGGCACCA-3' and human beta actin: CGGTTG-GCCTTAGGGTTCAGG GGGG-3' and 5'-GTGGGCCGCTCTAGGCAC-3'. Samples were run in triplicate and normalized to beta-actin. Values were calculated by the efficiency-corrected comparative $\Delta\Delta C_t$ method. Means and standard errors from at least 3 experiments were calculated and expressed as fold changes relative to controls.

Western blotting was performed as described [27]. Blots were probed for TTP and beta-actin with antibodies from Santa Cruz Biotechnology.

Statistical analysis

Graphical data points are shown as the mean \pm standard error. Statistical analysis was performed by means of STATISTICA 6.0 (StatSoft). Differences were regarded as significant at $p < 0.05$.

Results

TTP expression analysis in human breast samples

To explore the *TTP* mRNA expression pattern in breast cancer, we analyzed DNA microarray datasets of 295 primary invasive breast carcinomas classified according to the five genomic intrinsic subtypes [18]. Figure 1a shows that *Normal-like* primary breast carcinomas expressed higher *TTP* mRNA levels than the other breast cancer subtypes while no significant differences were found among the *Luminal-A*, *HER2+/ER-*, and *Basal-like* tumors. In contrast, quantitative RT-PCR analysis showed higher *TTP*

mRNA expression in the luminal tumor-derived cell lines MCF7, T47D, and ZR75-1 (poorly invasive and epithelioid) compared to the basal-like MDA-MB-231 cell line (highly invasive and fibroblastoid) (Fig. 1b).

To extend our analysis to non-tumorigenic breast samples, we evaluated a dataset containing 46 normal and breast cancer SAGE libraries [20]. Figure 1c shows that *TTP* mRNA is highly expressed in normal breast epithelium compared to carcinomas ($p < 0.0001$). However, no differences were found between in situ and invasive tumors. These observations were further validated in an independent set of human breast tissue samples by qRT-PCR. In agreement with our SAGE analysis, we found that normal mammary glands displayed higher expression than invasive carcinomas ($p = 0.017$). Interestingly, *TTP* expression was also lower in normal epithelium adjacent to tumors (Fig. 1d).

TTP protein expression was analyzed in 64 breast tissue sections by immunohistochemistry (IHC). Left panels of Fig. 2 show that normal breast tissue (A, B) and benign lesions (atypical hyperplasia, C), displayed positive staining in epithelial cells, while most undifferentiated invasive carcinomas did not have detectable *TTP* expression (D; 10 \times). Samples were divided into two groups according to their histopathologic diagnosis: normal breast epithelium and benign lesions ($n = 17$) and infiltrating ductal carcinomas ($n = 47$), which were also subdivided according to the histologic tumor grade (Fig. 2 right panels, E&F). *TTP* protein expression was detected in 82 % (14 out of 17) of the normal/benign samples analyzed, most of which (12 out of 17) showed moderate to strong intensity of staining. A statistically significant decrease in staining intensity was observed when the number of normal-benign lesions with moderate to strong *TTP* staining was compared to

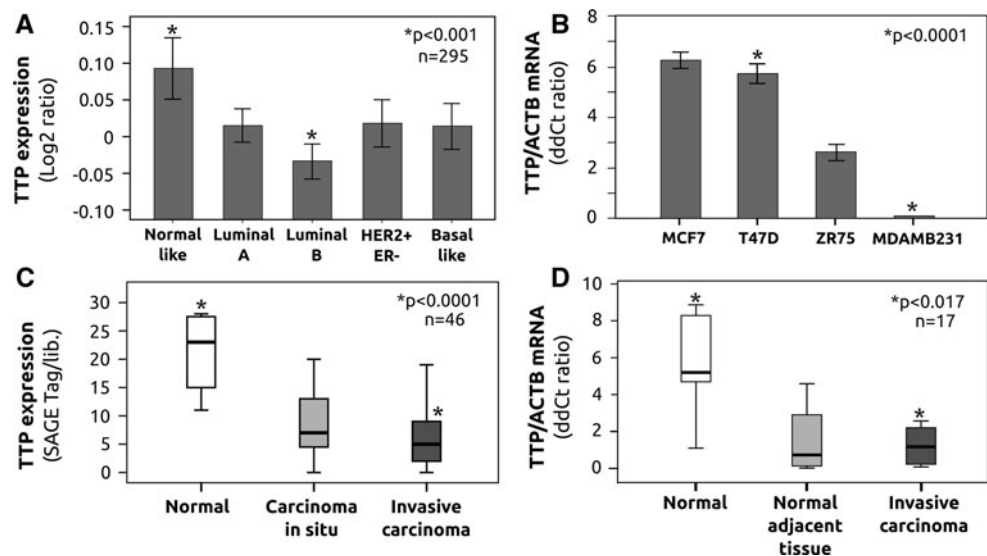
the proportion of infiltrating carcinomas demonstrating the same level of staining ($p = 0.02$). In contrast, 63 % (31 out of 47) of the invasive ductal carcinomas showed negative or weak *TTP* expression. In these samples, decreased *TTP* expression correlated with tumor grade ($p = 0.01$, Fig. 2f). The well-differentiated carcinomas showed moderate to strong *TTP* expression, while the undifferentiated carcinomas were mostly negative for *TTP* protein expression. Interestingly, no statistically significant association ($p > 0.05$) was detected between *TTP* expression and the ER-alpha status determined by IHC in these samples (data not shown).

TTP regulation in mouse mammary cells

In mouse tissue, IHC analysis also revealed that undifferentiated mammary tumors derived from either PymT (Fig. 3a), 4T1 cells or MMTV infection, showed very weak *TTP* staining compared to more differentiated carcinomas (MMTV-induced, Fig. 3b) or non-neoplastic mammary tissue (Fig. 3c). Interestingly, in the mammary glands of healthy BALB/c mice, we found that lactating females showed stronger epithelial expression than either virgin or involuting glands (Figs 3d–f).

In agreement with the pattern observed by IHC, qRT-PCR analysis also showed that *TTP* mRNA expression was much higher in differentiated non-neoplastic mammary cells (prolactin-treated HC11) than in mammary tumor cells (Fig. 4a). In addition, we determined that *TTP* mRNA is strongly induced during lactation in BALB/c female mice (Fig. 4b). A publicly available mouse mammary gland gene expression dataset from FVB mice also showed that *TTP* mRNA peaks at the 9th day of lactation (Fig. 4c) and co-expression analysis demonstrated significant

Fig. 1 *TTP* mRNA expression in human breast. *TTP* expression profile obtained from publicly available DNA microarray datasets classified according to the genomic intrinsic subtypes (a); *TTP* expression in MCF7, T47D, ZR75-1, and MDA-MB 231 breast cancer cell lines (b); serial analysis of gene expression of *TTP* tag in breast SAGE libraries (c); *TTP* mRNA expression normalized to beta-actin as determined by qRT-PCR in breast samples (d)



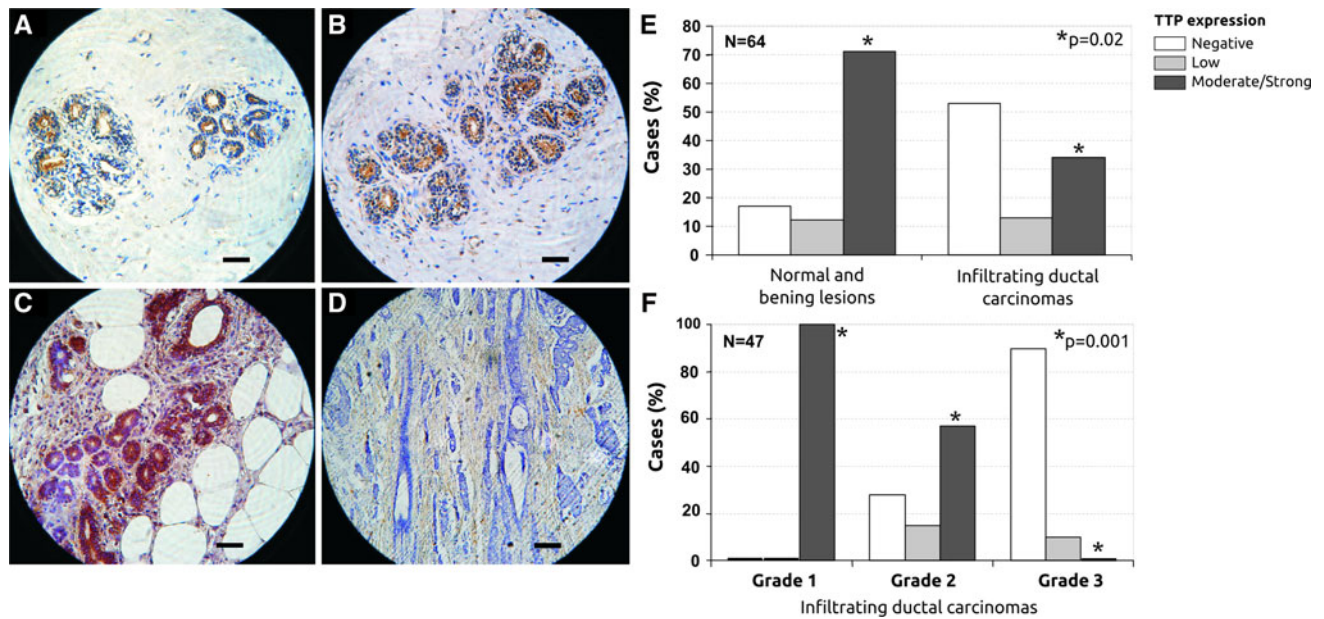


Fig. 2 TTP protein expression in human breast samples. Immunohistochemical (IHC) staining for TTP protein in normal breast tissue (**a**, **b**; 40 \times), benign lesion (atypical hyperplasia) (**c**; 40 \times), and undifferentiated invasive carcinoma (**d**; 10 \times). Strong expression of TTP with a predominant cytoplasmic staining is observed in the normal and hyperplastic tissues. Scale bars represent 10 μ m in **a**, **b**, **c**,

and 40 μ m in **d**. Distribution of total cases ($n = 64$) divided into normal and benign lesions ($n = 17$) and tumor samples (Infiltrating ductal carcinomas, $n = 47$) according to TTP expression levels (**e**). Distribution of the Infiltrating ductal carcinomas according to TTP expression levels and histologic tumor grade (**f**)

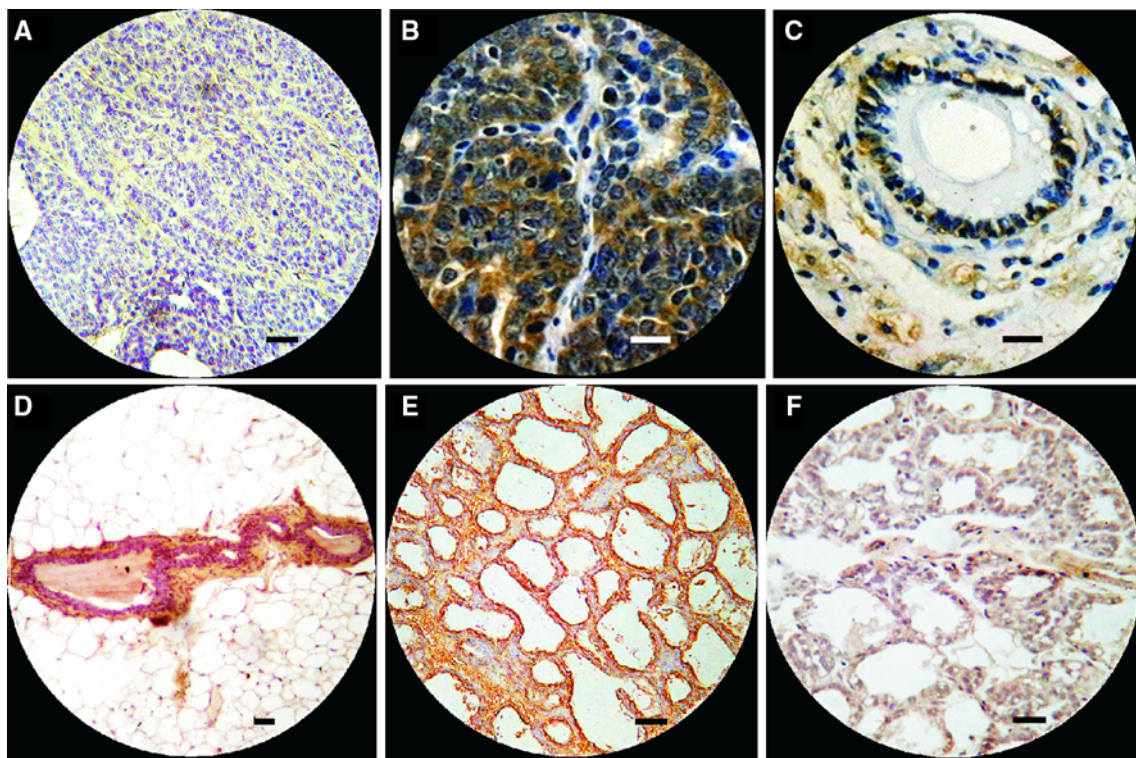
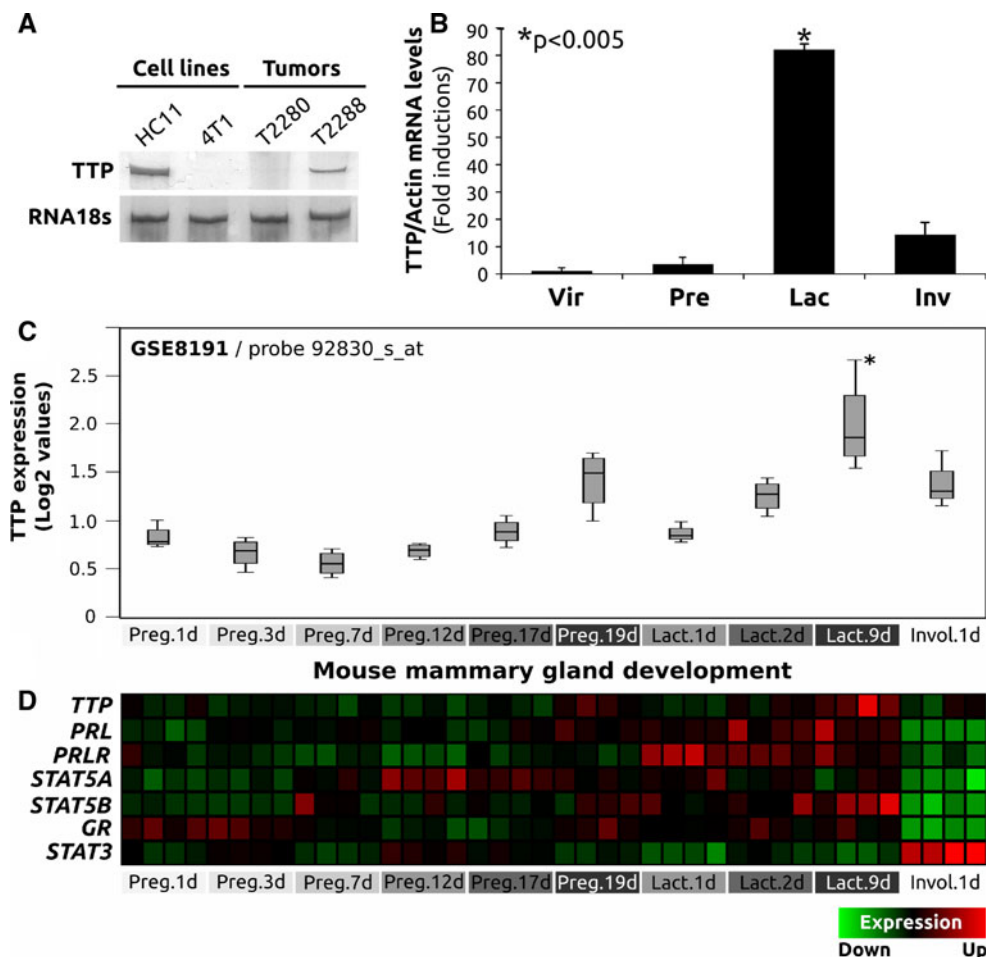


Fig. 3 TTP protein expression in mouse mammary gland samples. IHC analysis in undifferentiated mammary tumor (**a**; 40 \times), a section of tissue derived from a differentiated tumor (**b**; 60 \times), normal mammary gland (**c**; 40 \times), mouse mammary gland from a virgin

female (**d**; 10 \times), lactating gland (**e**; 40 \times) and 48 h involuting mammary tissue (**f**; 40 \times). Strong expression of TTP with cytoplasmic staining is observed in the normal and the differentiated mammary tumor. Scale bars represent 10 μ m in **a**, **b**, **c**, **e**, **f**, and 40 μ m in **d**

Fig. 4 *TTP* mRNA expression during mouse mammary gland development and tumor samples. RT-PCR analysis of *TTP* expression in normal and cancer mammary cell lines (HC11 and 4T1, respectively), undifferentiated (T2280), and well-differentiated (T2288) mouse mammary tumors (a). *TTP* mRNA expression in virgin (Vir), pregnant (Pre), lactating (Lac) and 24 h post-weaning (Inv) BALB/C mice, * $p < 0.00005$ (b). Box plots of *TTP* expression levels (Affymetrix probe ID 92830_s_at) during pregnancy, lactation, and involution of FVB mouse mammary glands based on a publicly available gene expression dataset (GSE8191) (c). Analysis of *TTP* co-expression with *PRL*, *PRLR*, *GR*, *STAT5*, and *STAT3* mRNAs. Each one of the 10 time points was analyzed by performing four biologic replicates (40 microarray samples) (d)



positive correlations with mRNAs encoding proteins that play relevant roles in mammary differentiation such as prolactin (*PRL*, $r = 0.614$; $p < 0.0001$), prolactin-receptor (*PRLR*, $r = 0.683$; $p < 0.0001$), and *STAT5B* ($r = 0.697$; $p < 0.0001$) (Fig. 4d).

To further define the association between mammary differentiation and *TTP* expression, the non-tumorigenic HC11 mouse mammary cell line was used. In order to respond to lactogenic hormones (i.e., to become “competent”), these cells must remain 100 % confluent for at least 2 days [17]. Our results show that *TTP* expression was induced in competent HC11 cells and its mRNA levels were further increased by the addition of PRL and dexamethasone (Dex) (Fig. 5a). Treating with PRL alone for 6 h also induced *TTP* expression although to a lesser extent than both hormones together (Fig. 5b). Alternatively, Dex treatment alone induced *TTP* expression although the response was different depending on whether the hormone was added to proliferating or competent cells. Proliferating cells responded in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 5c), while in competent cells the effect was milder and the greatest response was observed at 10 nM, which corresponds to the concentration used to induce milk protein expression (Fig. 5d).

To determine whether the effect of lactogenic hormones on competent HC11 cells was mediated by promoter activation, subconfluent cells were transfected with the mTTP-LUC plasmid. After reaching competency, cells were treated with hormones for 24 h. We found that PRL induced luciferase activity with or without Dex, while the glucocorticoid alone did not exert any effect. Importantly, co-transfection with a Stat5A dominant-negative mutant (Stat5A-DN) completely blocked the induction of TTP-driven luciferase activity by PRL (Fig. 6a). The relevance of stable, lactogenesis-associated, Stat5A activation for *TTP* induction in mammary cells was also indicated by the lack of response to PRL treatment in proliferating HC11 cells (data not shown). Interestingly, PRL treatment in competent HC11 cells required a minimum of 6 h to induce a significant *TTP* mRNA increase (Fig. 6b), while, in T47D cells, the effects were observed starting at 15 min, reaching a peak at 1 h and declining rapidly to return to control levels by 2 h (Fig. 6c). However, PRL-driven *TTP* induction in T47D cells was not blocked by AG490 co-treatment (data not shown), suggesting that JAK2/Stat5A pathway activation was not mediating short-term *TTP* induction in breast cancer cells. Figure 6d shows that, upon PRL

Fig. 5 *TTP* mRNA expression in HC11 mouse mammary cells. *TTP* expression in HC11 cells that are: subconfluent (30–70 %), confluent (100 %), competent (Comp 72 h), and differentiated (Diff) (a). *TTP* expression in competent HC11 cells treated with PRL or Dex and PRL (Dex/PRL) for 6 h (b). Effect of Dex at different doses, for 8 h, on *TTP* levels in proliferating (c) and competent (d) HC11 cells

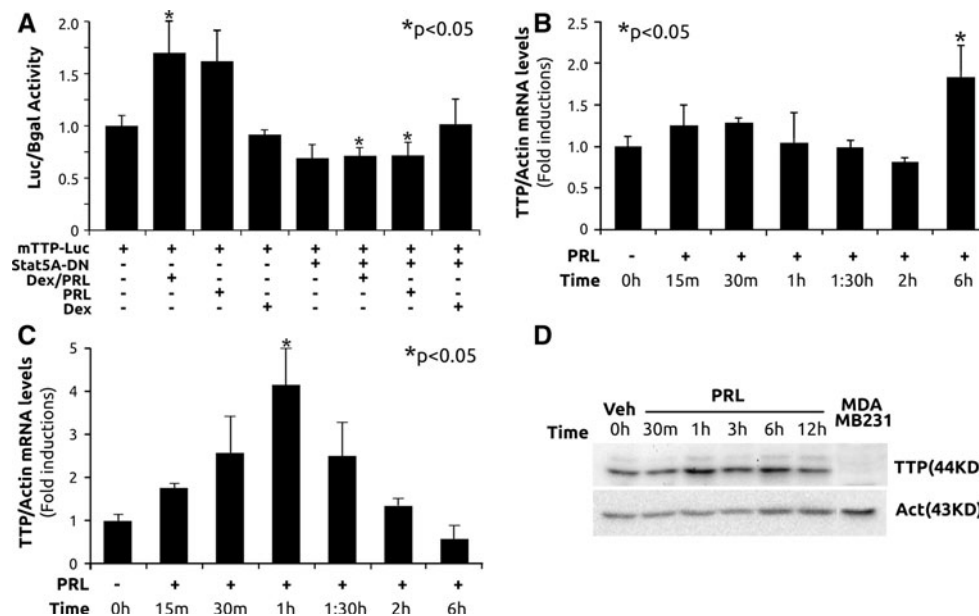
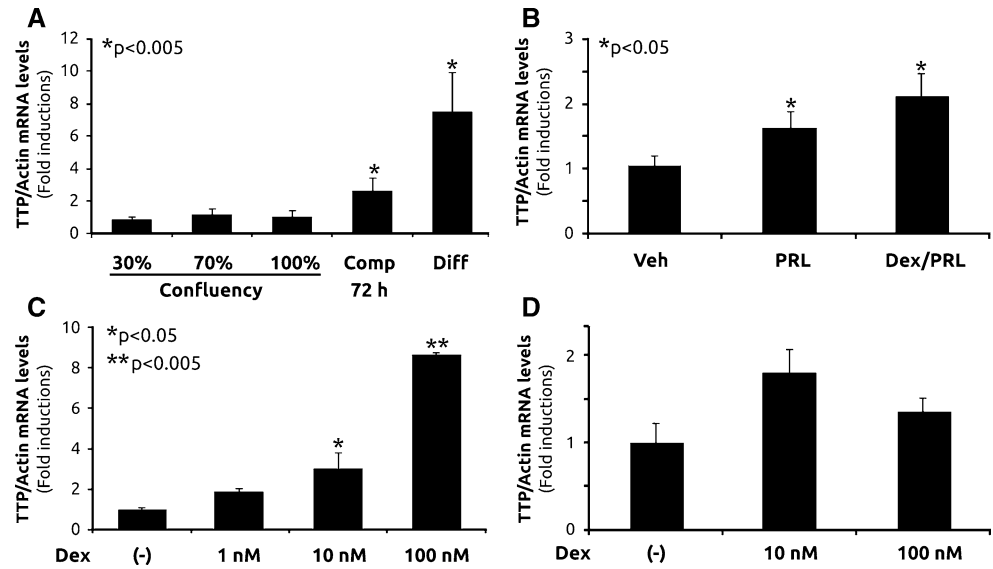


Fig. 6 Effect of lactogenic hormones on *TTP* expression. Subconfluent HC11 cells were transfected with the mTTP-LUC construct with or without Stat5A-DN plasmid. After cells became competent, luciferase activity was measured upon treatment with prolactin (PRL), Dexamethasone (Dex), both hormones (Dex/PRL) or vehicle (Veh) for 24 h in serum-free media (a). *TTP* mRNA expression in

competent HC11 (b) and subconfluent T47D cells (c) treated with prolactin (PRL) for different times. Representative western blot assay showing *TTP* protein expression in T47D cells treated with PRL for different times; last lane shows untreated MDA-MB231 cells used as negative control for *TTP* expression (d)

treatment, *TTP* protein expression was also rapidly augmented and declined by 12 h in these breast cancer cells.

Discussion

Several recent reports have shown that decreased *TTP* expression is a strong indicator of poor prognosis for breast cancer patients. However, the significance of evaluating

TTP mRNA is under debate since Griseri et al. [8] have indicated that the level of *TTP* protein, but not *TTP* mRNA, is a key factor to predict tumor aggressive behavior. Our results appear to support this concept. The analysis of a microarray dataset derived from tumors classified according to five genomic intrinsic subtypes shows that high *TTP* mRNA expression is most highly associated with *Normal-like* breast carcinomas. This cancer subtype is characterized by relatively high expression of many genes expressed

in normal breast epithelium; however, survival times and relapse-free survival are shorter in this category when compared to *Luminal A*. In addition, *Luminal A* and *Basal* tumors showed similar *TTP* mRNA levels although the prognosis of these cancer subtypes are dramatically different [28, 29].

Analysis of SAGE libraries, which included normal breast samples, showed a negative correlation between *TTP* mRNA levels and cancer phenotype. However, once again, there were no differences between in situ and invasive carcinomas. In addition, qRT-PCR analysis of samples from normal mammary tissue adjacent to carcinoma showed inhibition of *TTP* expression, suggesting that lower *TTP* mRNA levels are associated with cancer development but not necessarily with cancer invasiveness. Nevertheless, Brennan et al. [7] showed a significantly negative correlation between *Tumor grade* and *TTP* mRNA levels. Since *Tumor grading* only classifies invasive carcinomas, while other types of breast lesions are not included in these categorizations [30], it is possible that, among invasive carcinomas, less aggressive *Grade 1* tumors express higher *TTP* mRNA levels than the more aggressive *Grade 3* lesions. Similarly, using the *Intrinsic phenotype* classification, we found that *Luminal B* tumors, (which show worse outcomes than those classified as *Luminal A* [28]), expressed lower amounts of *TTP* mRNA. Therefore, we conclude that the normal breast gene expression profile would include higher *TTP* mRNA levels than any tumor subtype. In addition, more aggressive breast cancer subtypes may have reduced *TTP* translation efficiency, as previously reported for certain *TTP* allelic variants [8]. Therefore, in those cases, protein expression would be lower at similar mRNA levels. Finally, in specific tumor subtypes, with similar translation efficiency, aggressiveness may negatively correlate with individual *TTP* mRNA levels.

The results of our IHC analysis confirm that *TTP* protein levels represent useful elements of breast cancer diagnosis and analysis. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report that shows a negative correlation between *TTP* expression and tumor invasiveness by this technique, which is the most commonly employed in breast cancer diagnosis. Therefore, our results increase the potential utility of using *TTP* protein as a prognostic factor for this disease.

The conspicuous presence of *TTP* protein and mRNA in the normal breast epithelium and its inhibition in breast cancer cells suggested to us that expression of this protein might be modulated by mammary-specific factors. To test this hypothesis, we analyzed mouse mammary glands at different developmental stages and we found that *TTP* is induced during lactogenesis.

Glucocorticoids and PRL induced lactogenic differentiation, and glucocorticoids are recognized to increase *TTP* expression in lung epithelial cells [5]. Interestingly, we

found that Dex produced a similar effect in proliferating HC11 cells; however, when mammary cells were allowed to develop the lactogenic program, PRL became more important than glucocorticoids for stable *TTP* induction.

PRL induces terminal differentiation of mammary epithelial cells and synthesis of milk components during lactation through the Jak2-Stat5 pathway [31, 32]. We found that PRL, with or without Dex, induced mouse promoter activation in competent HC11 cells, and LUC activity was completely blocked by the addition of a Stat5A dominant-negative mutant. Therefore, at least part of PRL effect on endogenous *TTP* expression in differentiated mouse mammary cells is likely due to the interaction of Stat5A with mouse *TTP* promoter sequences. Curiously, in mast cells, Stat5 mediates *TTP* repression [33], which contrasts the ability of Stat6 and Stat3 to induce its expression [34, 35]. Therefore, Stat factors might recruit either transcriptional repressors or activators to the *TTP* promoter, depending on the cell type and/or physiologic status, which would allow the generation of the appropriate cell responses to specific tissue conditions.

The capacity of PRL to induce stable, long-term *TTP* expression in mammary cells seems to be essentially associated with lactogenic differentiation. PRL did not induce *TTP* transcription in proliferating HC11 cells; in T47D, it occurred only transiently and independent of the JAK2-Stat5A pathway. The rapid induction observed in this cancer cell line is consistent with previous reports that described *TTP* as the product of an immediate-early response gene (*ZFP-36*) that is rapidly induced in various cell types by a number of different stimuli, each reflecting a transient, immediate-early response after which *TTP* mRNA returns to basal or near-basal levels [36–39]. Therefore, we conclude that in the normal mammary epithelium, *TTP* expression is specifically and differentially regulated.

In summary, our results indicate that *TTP* is highly expressed in the normal mammary epithelium, while its downregulation frequently accompanies tumorigenesis. We also observed that, at least in the mouse gland, lactogenesis enhances *TTP* expression, probably through Stat5A activation. We believe that these studies reveal a new potential biologic role for this tumor suppressor protein in mammary epithelium, since *TTP* might protect the tissue from inflammatory and/or remodeling activities that would trigger involution of the gland. In our laboratory, experiments are underway to explore this possibility.

Acknowledgments This work was supported by the grants and fellowships awarded by the National Council of Science and Technology (CONICET), the National Agency of Scientific and Technological Promotion (ANPCyT) and Fundación Roemmers, Argentina and NSERC (Canada). We thank Dr. Nancy Hynes (Friedrich Miescher Institute for Biomedical Research, Basel, Switzerland) for

kindly providing us the HC11 cell line and the Stat5A constructs. We also thank Julián Naipauer, Omar Coso, and Adali Pecci for their help and advice.

Ethical standards All the experiments described herein comply with the current laws of Argentina, where they were performed and conform to the guidelines of the Canadian Council on Animal Care.

Conflict of interests The authors declare no conflict of interest for the studies described.

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