

Deciphering the role of nuclear and cytoplasmic IKK α in skin cancer

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SUMMARY

Nonmelanoma skin cancers (NMSC) are the most common human malignancies. IKK α is an essential protein for skin development and is also involved in the genesis and progression of NMSC, through mechanisms not fully understood. While different studies show that IKK α protects against skin cancer, others indicate that it promotes NMSC. To resolve this controversy we have generated two models of transgenic mice expressing the IKK α protein in the nucleus (N-IKK α mice) or the cytoplasm (C-IKK α mice) of keratinocytes. Chemical skin carcinogenesis experiments show that tumors developed by both types of transgenic mice exhibit histological and molecular characteristics that make them more prone to progression and invasion than those developed by Control mice. However, the mechanisms through which IKK α promotes skin tumors are different depending on its subcellular localization; while IKK α of cytoplasmic localization increases EGFR, MMP-9 and VEGF-A activities in tumors, nuclear IKK α causes tumor progression through regulation of c-Myc, Maspin and Integrin- α 6 expression. Additionally, we have found that N-IKK α skin tumors mimic the characteristics associated to aggressive human skin tumors with high risk to metastasize. Our results show that IKK α has different non-overlapping roles in the nucleus or cytoplasm of keratinocytes, and provide new targets for intervention in human NMSC progression.

INTRODUCTION

The epidermis is a stratified squamous epithelium composed mainly of keratinocytes. Basal keratinocytes proliferate and give rise to differentiated cells, which, upon full maturation, generate the squamous cornified cell layer. Alterations in the normal physiology of the skin lead to numerous pathologies such as cancer. Keratinocyte derived non-melanoma skin cancer (NMSC) comprises two different entities: basal cell carcinoma (BCC) and cutaneous squamous cell carcinoma (SCC). NMSC is the

most common form of cancer in the Caucasian population, representing 90% of skin cancers [1]. Nearly 5% of SCCs metastasize; therefore due to its high incidence, the mortality concomitant to aggressive cutaneous SCCs is reaching important numbers [2, 3].

IKK α is a member of the IKK complex, which is composed of two kinase subunits, IKK α and IKK β , and a regulatory subunit, IKK γ /NEMO. While IKK β is essential for NF- κ B activation in the canonical pathway, regulating immunity and inflammation [4], IKK α is not required for these functions. The analysis of IKK α

deficient mice showed that the main function of IKK α is the regulation of epidermal morphogenesis, as IKK $\alpha^{-/-}$ newborn mice exhibited a marked hyperplastic epidermis and lacked a terminally differentiated cornified layer [5–8]. Moreover, the kinase activity of IKK α activating the canonic pathway of NF- κ B is not required for its function in skin development, as kinase-dead IKK α mutants are able to rescue the skin phenotype of IKK $\alpha^{-/-}$ mice [9]. IKK α plays, however, other relevant functions in the cytoplasm of cells, i.e., it is essential for signaling through the alternative NF- κ B pathway, which activates the RelB/p52 heterodimer. This pathway is important for lymphoid organogenesis, B-cell survival and maturation, and adaptive immunity [10]. IKK α is also relevant for mammary epithelial proliferation signaling via cyclin D1 [11]. More recently it has been observed that IKK α translocates into the nucleus where, by targeting a growing list of substrates it acts on different biological functions including apoptosis, immune functions, cell proliferation, tumor suppression or progression, and chromatin remodeling [12–14]. For instance, it has been reported that in the cell nucleus IKK α regulates gene transcription: IKK α phosphorylates specific nuclear substrates such as histone H3, SMRT and N-CoR, thus regulating NF- κ B dependent and independent transcription [12, 15, 16]. It also acts in the nucleus of epidermal cells as a cofactor for Smad2/3 in a Smad4-independent pathway that inhibits keratinocyte proliferation [17, 18].

There are numerous evidences indicating that IKK α functions in tumor progression in colorectal [15, 19], breast [20, 21], pancreatic [22], gastric [23], and prostatic [24, 25] cancers, as well as in hepatocarcinomas [26] and osteosarcomas [27]. Regarding the role that IKK α plays in the development and progression of NMSC, as mice expressing lower levels of IKK α develop more and larger skin tumors than control mice, it has been proposed that IKK α acts as a suppressor of skin carcinomas [28, 29]. However, we have found that IKK α has a pro-oncogenic role in skin cancer, as overexpression of IKK α in tumor epidermal cells (PDVC57) or in keratinocytes of transgenic mice increases the malignancy of cutaneous tumors [30, 31]; in addition, augmented levels of IKK α have been observed in some human cutaneous SCCs [31, 32]. In an attempt to explain this apparent controversy, it has been suggested that in skin tumors overexpressing IKK α most of it is in the cytoplasm, and that the loss of nuclear IKK α is likely the cause of the malignant conversion of keratinocytes [33–35]. Hence, to discern the relevance of the nuclear or cytoplasmic localization of IKK α for skin cancer development and progression, we have generated two new models of transgenic mice expressing human IKK α under the control of the bovine keratin *K5* promoter. By altering the nuclear localization signals, we have directed the exogenous IKK α protein towards the nucleus (N-IKK α mice) or the cytoplasm (C-IKK α mice) of keratinocytes in the basal, proliferative

layer of the epidermis and in the outer root sheath of hair follicles. We here show that regardless of its subcellular localization, IKK α plays a protumoral role in skin cancer development and progression, although the mechanisms by which IKK α exerts its prooncogenic function are different depending on whether it acts in the nucleus or the cytoplasm of keratinocytes. Our results will help in understanding the progression of human NMSC; also offer new targets for intervention in such common cancer in humans. In addition, our C-and-N-IKK α transgenic mice provide an excellent model for dissecting the role of nuclear or cytoplasmic localization of IKK α in the physiology of the skin and other stratified epithelia.

RESULTS

Transgenic IKK α is expressed in the cytoplasm or in the nucleus of keratinocytes of C-and N-IKK α mice respectively

We have generated transgenic mice expressing an exogenous human IKK α protein in the cytoplasmic or nuclear compartment of keratinocytes (C-IKK α and N-IKK α mice respectively) under the control of the keratin 5 (*K5*) promoter (Figure 1A). The *K5* derived sequences included in this construct drive transgene expression to the basal cells of the epidermis and the outer root sheath of hair follicles [36]. N- and C-IKK α mice develop normally, although the latter have a characteristic phenotype of sparse and short hair. This atypical hair was comparable to that of heterozygous IKK $\alpha^{+/-}$ mice obtained in a similar FVB background and to a lesser extent to that of IKK α -siRNA transgenic mice [37] and data not shown.

Western blot analysis revealed increased expression of IKK α in the skin of both C-and-N-IKK α mice (Figure 1B). Systematically, the level of IKK α transgene was higher in N-IKK α than in C-IKK α mice. Immunohistochemical staining showed that the transgenic protein was expressed in both C-and-N-IKK α mice following the *K5* expression pattern (Figure 1C–1E). As it was expected, C-IKK α mice express the transgene in the cytoplasm of keratinocytes (Figure 1D), while N-IKK α mice express the exogenous IKK α in the nucleus (Figure 1E). For transgenic human IKK α analysis we have used two different antibodies that detect transgenic IKK α in immunohistochemistry (NB100-56704 and H00001147-M04 antibodies, see Materials and Methods) and they both have yielded similar results. These antibodies do not recognize endogenous IKK α as noticed by the absence of signal in the epidermis of Control (non-transgenic) mice (Figure 1F). In line with the lowest levels of transgene expression detected by western blot analysis in the C-IKK α mice, immunohistochemical assays showed a weaker staining and a lower number of cells expressing the transgene in the interfollicular epidermis of C-IKK α mice compared to that in N-IKK α mice (Figure 1D,

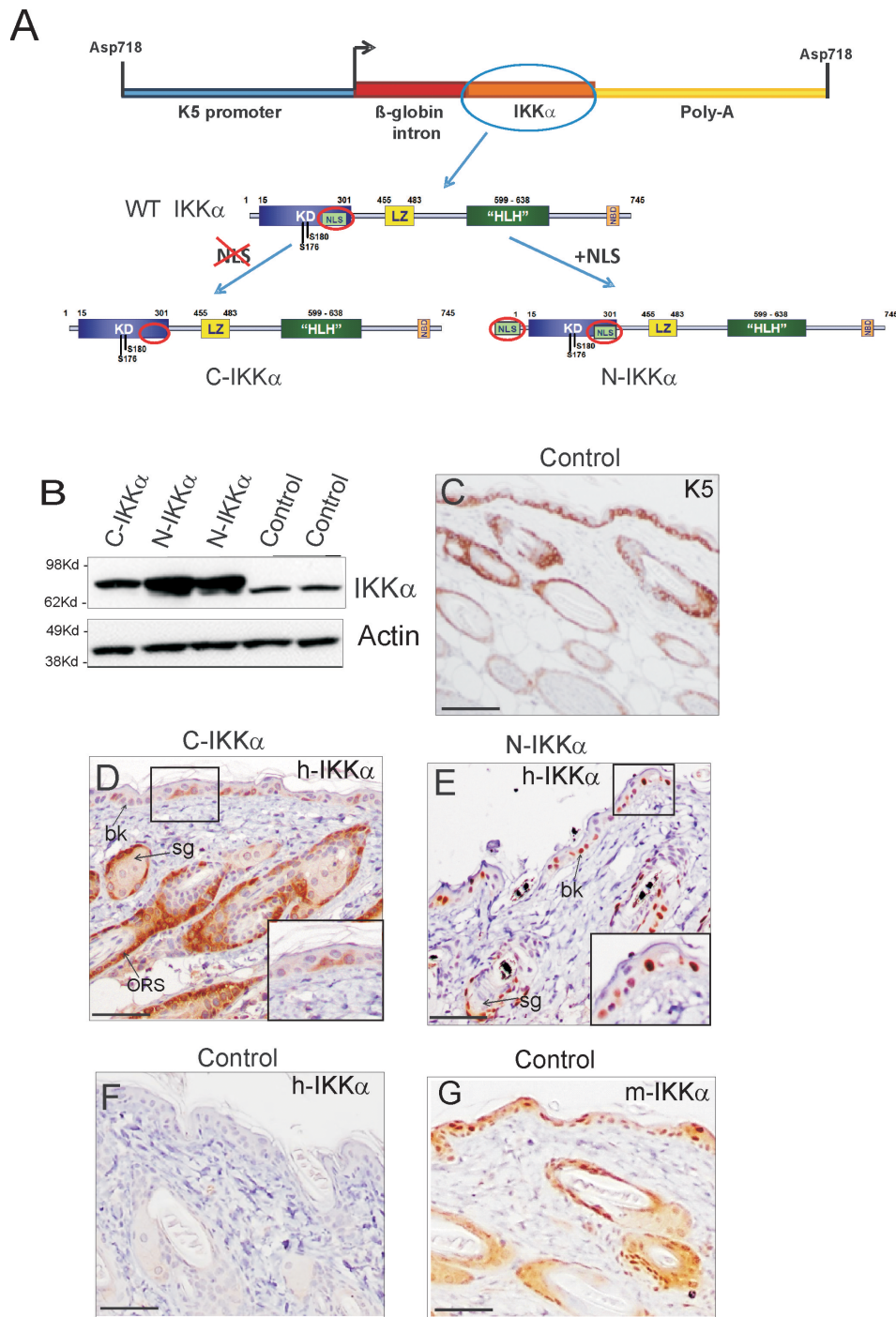


Figure 1: Expression of the transgenic IKK α protein in skin of C-IKK α and N-IKK α mice. **A.** Recombinant DNA constructs employed to generate both transgenic mice lines. For C-IKK α mice generation, the nuclear localization signal (NLS) was removed from the sequence of the human IKK α cDNA employed. In the construct used for generation of the N-IKK α mice an extra NLS signal was added. WT IKK α ; wild type IKK α . **B.** Western blot of total protein extracts showing IKK α expression in back skin of Control and C- and N-IKK α mice. Actin was used as a loading control. **C.** Representative example of the K5 staining in back skin section of Control mice. **D-E.** Expression of exogenous IKK α protein in back skin of 1-month-old mice. Immunostaining with the NB100-56704 anti-IKK α antibody is showed; similar results were obtained with the H00001147-M04 IKK α antibody (not shown). Note the cytoplasmic expression of the transgene in the C-IKK α mice (D). By contrast, it is located in the nuclei of cells in the N-IKK α mice (E). In both types of transgenic mice the exogenous IKK α is expressed in basal keratinocytes (bk), in the outer root sheath of hair follicles (ORS) and in cells surrounding the sebaceous glands (sb). **F.** Back skin section of Control mice. The NB100-56704 antibody used does not recognize the endogenous IKK α in immunohistochemical assays. **G.** Endogenous IKK α expression in control mice using the IKK α (sc-7182) antibody. Scale bar: (C) 70 μ m; (D-G) 60 μ m.

1E). Endogenous IKK α expression was detected both in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus of suprabasal and basal epidermal keratinocytes, as well as in hair follicle keratinocytes (Figure 1G).

C-IKK α /TgAC mice develop higher number of skin tumors of lower latency period

To evaluate the effect of nuclear or cytoplasmic overexpression of IKK α on skin tumor development, we bred the three types of mice (Control, C-IKK α and N-IKK α mice) with TgAC animals. TgAC mice carry an activated Ha-*ras* transgene that triggers the classic skin tumor initiation event [38]. In this setting, double transgenic (C-IKK α /TgAC and N-IKK α /TgAC) and Control/TgAC, mice were treated with TPA (12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate) which promotes the expansion of *ras*-activated cells. C-IKK α /TgAc mice developed tumors earlier than the two other groups of mice; i.e. by 5-weeks of TPA treatment the percentage of mice which had developed tumors was higher (80%) in the C-IKK α /TgAC than in the N-IKK α /TgAC (33%) and Control/TgAC (16%) mice (Figure 2A). N-IKK α /TgAC mice also developed tumors a little bit earlier than Control/TgAC mice. This result indicates the lower latency period of tumor development in both types of hIKK α /TgAc mice. However, from nine weeks of TPA treatment onwards the percentage of animals that developed tumors was similar in the three groups of mice (Figure 2A). Tumors were collected at weeks 9, 14 and 19 of TPA treatment, and we found that tumor multiplicity (number of tumors/mice) was higher in C-IKK α /TgAC mice at these analyzed time points (Figure 2B). Even though we observed more tumors larger than 150 mm³ in C-IKK α /TgAC mice, no significant differences were found in the average tumor size in the three groups of mice (Figure 2C). Accordingly, the analysis of tumor cell proliferation, measured as BrdU incorporation, did not show significant differences

between tumors of the three genotypes (data not shown). We also found no differences in apoptosis (measured as cleaved-Caspase 3 immunostaining, data not shown).

Western blot analysis showed that the exogenous IKK α was expressed in both N- and C-IKK α tumors, although as in the case of normal skin, the transgene was more intensely expressed in the N-IKK α tumors (Figure 3A). Immunohistochemical analysis of the transgenic IKK α protein in tumors and in the adjacent skin showed a widespread expression of the transgene in the interfollicular epidermis and hair follicles of N-IKK α /TgAC mice, similarly to the staining observed in the skin of N-IKK α mice (Figure 3B, 1E). In agreement with the high expression of the transgenic IKK α in the skin, 100% of the N-IKK α tumors analyzed (35 tumors) strongly expressed the transgenic protein at similar levels (Figure 3B, 3D, 3F, 3G). By contrast, the analysis of the skin of C-IKK α /TgAC mice showed that only some keratinocytes of the interfollicular epidermis and hair follicles expressed the transgene (Figure 3C). This result suggests that there is a negative selective pressure for survival of keratinocytes overexpressing IKK α in the cytoplasm or a tendency to silence the transgene. Surprisingly, despite the small number of keratinocytes expressing the transgene in the skin of C-IKK α /TgAC mice, almost 80% of the C-IKK α tumors tested (33/41) expressed the transgenic protein, although high heterogeneity in the levels of expression was observed (evaluated by the intensity and extent of transgenic IKK α signal) (compare Figure 3E, 3H, 3I). These results suggest that the overexpression of IKK α in the cytoplasm of keratinocytes greatly favors keratinocyte transformation and skin tumor development.

We next analyzed the presence of phosphorylated (activated) IKK α in the nucleus of tumors. A few scattered positive cells were found in the C- IKK α tumors (Figure 4A). More abundant phosphorylated IKK α was detected in Control-tumors (Figure 4D), being the N-IKK α neoplasias those presenting more frequently activated IKK α (Figure

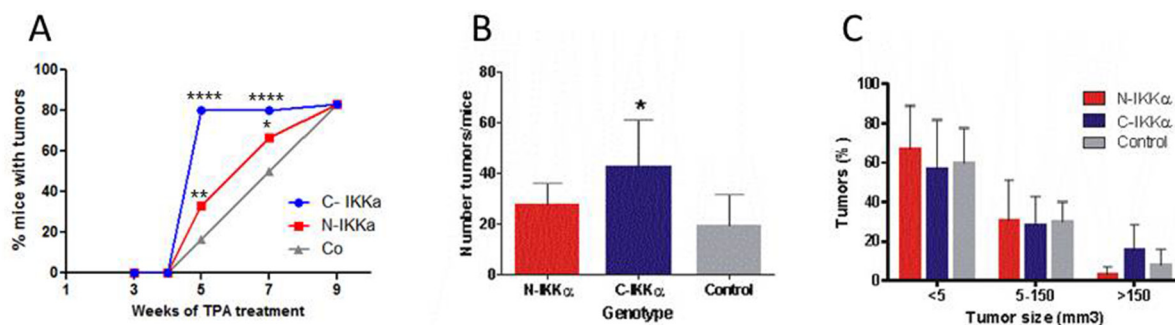


Figure 2: Tumors developed in C- and N-IKK α /TgAC and Control/TgAC mice. A. Tumors emerge earlier in C-IKK α /TgAC mice than in mice of the two other genotypes. Fisher's exact test was used to determine p values (* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$; **** $p < 0.0001$). B. Tumor multiplicity in Control/TgAC, C-IKK α /TgAC and N-IKK α /TgAC mice. Statistical significance was determined using Student's t test (* $p < 0.05$). C. Representation of the percentage of tumors of the indicated size in each group of mice. Statistical analysis was determined using Bonferroni multiple comparison test. (B-C) Panels represent data obtained from the analysis of tumors harvested at 9, 14 and 19 weeks of TPA treatment.

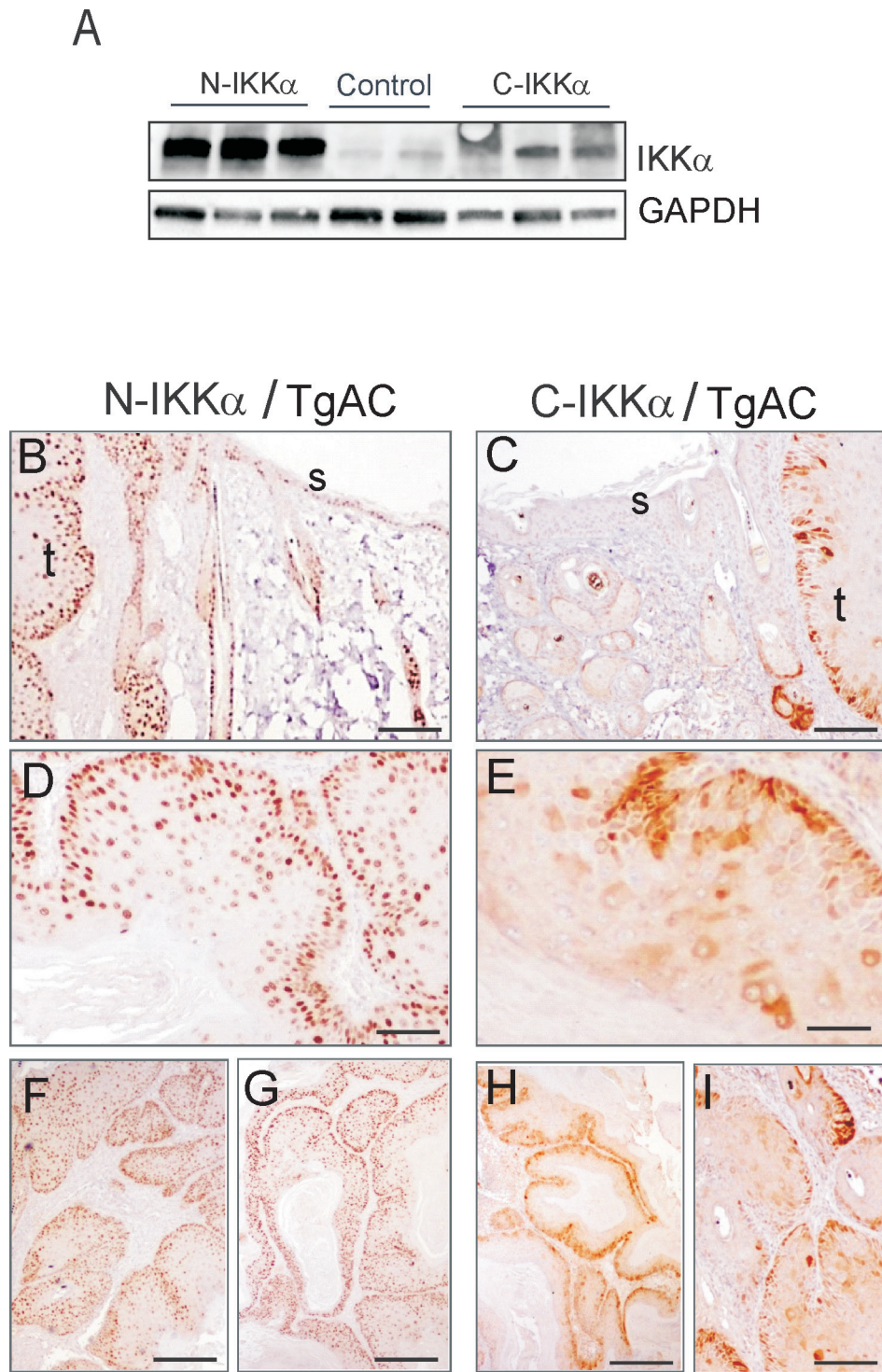


Figure 3: Analysis of the expression of the transgene in C-IKK α and N-IKK α tumors by biochemical and immunohistochemical approaches. **A.** Western blot showing the increased expression of IKK α in transgenic mice. **B-I.** Immunohistochemistry showing the expression of the transgenic protein in N-IKK α and C-IKK α tumors. Staining with NB100-56704 antibody is shown. (B, C) Representative images showing the expression of transgenic IKK α in tumors and adjacent skin of N-IKK α /TgAC mice (B), and C-IKK α /TgAC animals (C). (D, E) Detail showing the nuclear (D) or cytoplasmic (E) localization of the transgenic IKK α in tumors. (F, G) Similar levels of expression of the transgenic IKK α in different N-IKK α tumors. By contrast variable levels of expression of the transgene are observed between different C-IKK α tumors (H, I). t: tumor; s: non-tumoral skin. Scale bar: (B, C) 100 μ m; (D, E) 80 μ m; (F-I) 200 μ m.

4G). Although we used an antibody that recognized both, activated IKK α and IKK β proteins, however, IKK β is almost not detected in the nucleus of tumors of the three genotypes (data not shown), indicating that the staining observed in Figure 4 (A, D, G) corresponds to P-IKK α protein.

Tumors developed in both N-and-C-IKK α /TgAC mice show increased progression than those developed in control/TgAC mice

Histopathological examination of tumors collected by 9, 14 and 19 weeks of TPA treatment was performed. Although by these times tumors were mainly papillomas, however, those arisen in both N and C-IKK α /TgAC mice exhibited a carcinomatous-like pattern of growth,

forming networks of epidermal ridges growing towards the dermis (Figure 5A, 5B; Table 1). These structures were also observed in the C-IKK α tumors (Figure 5J) although they were smaller than the epidermal ridges of the N- IKK α tumors; they were not detected in the Control tumors (Figure 5M). Furthermore, in some N-IKK α /TgAC tumors infiltration foci were observed even at very early times of TPA promotion (9-weeks) (Figure 5C, 5D; Table 1). Anisokaryosis and anisocytosis (signals of tumor promotion) were found in N-IKK α tumors and, to a lesser extent, in C-IKK α tumors (Figure 5E, 5K). No significant anisokaryosis or anisocytosis was found in Control tumors (Figure 5M–5O). An important basal hyperplasia was also detected in the N-IKK α tumors (Figure 5B, 5F) and, in a minor degree, in the C-IKK α tumors, although in this case dyskeratotic cells were

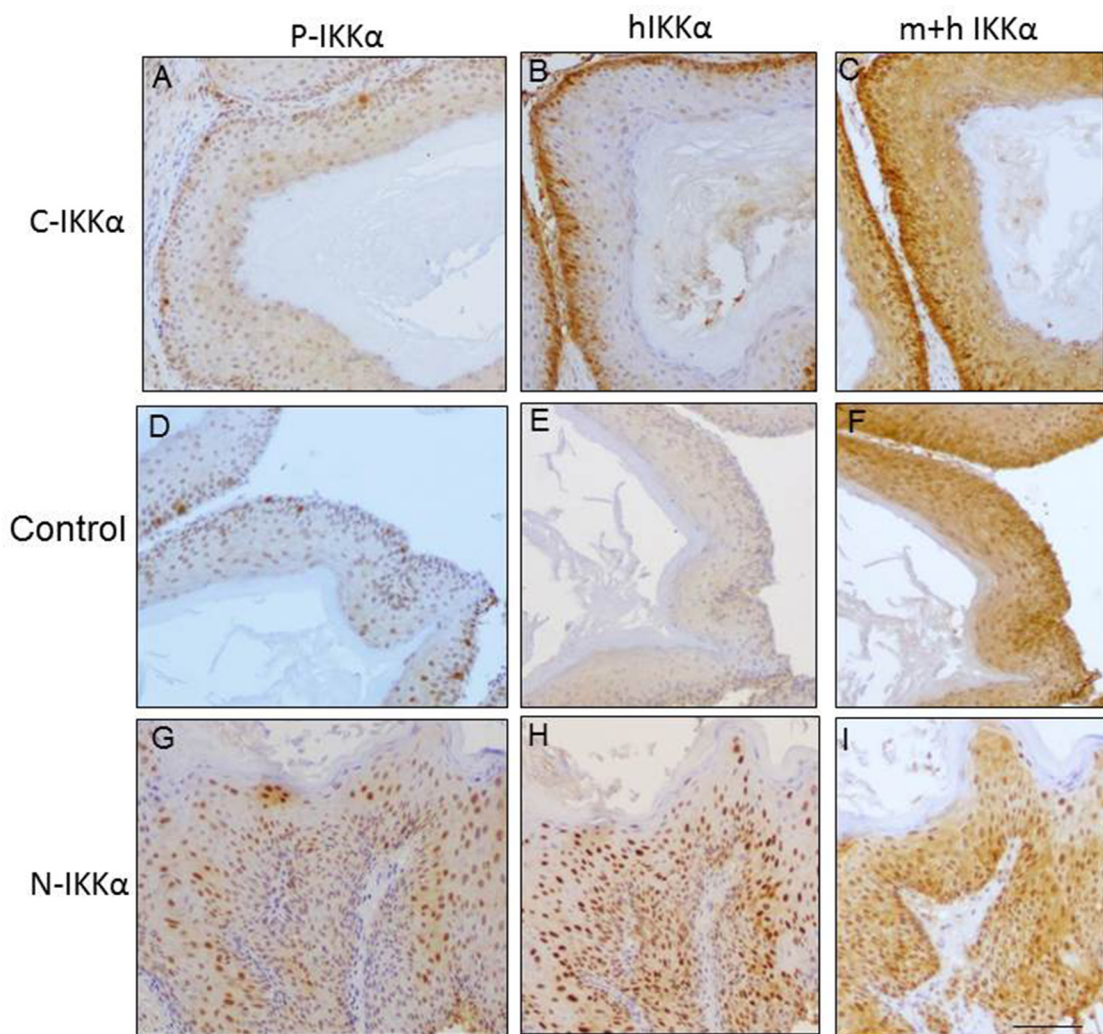


Figure 4: Analysis of phosphorylated P-IKK α , and human and mouse IKK α in tumors of the three groups. A, D, G. P-IKK α expression. P-IKK α / β (Ser 180/Ser 181) antibody is used. **B, E, H.** Specific staining of human IKK α -using the NB100-56704 antibody. **C, F, I.** Staining with the sc-7182 antibody that recognizes both human and mouse IKK α . Observe that as expected, in the N-IKK α tumors the signal of this antibody is detected both in cytoplasmic and nuclear localization; by contrast, in the Control tumors the endogenous IKK α is mainly observed in the cytosolic compartment, although some nuclear staining is also observed. In the C-IKK α tumors little nuclear staining is observed. Scale bar: 70 μ m.

appreciated (Figure 5I). No relevant hyperplasia was observed in Control tumors (Figure 5N, 5O; Table 1). In the N-IKK α tumors the stratum granulosum appears discontinuous and areas exist in which the characteristic granules of this layer were not observed (indicating an altered maturation and differentiation of the keratinocytes) (Figure 5F; Table 1). Continuous stratum granulosum was observed in the C-IKK α and Control tumors (Figure 5J, 5O). Keratin pearls, characteristics of well-differentiated carcinomas, were found in N- and C-IKK α tumors (Figure 5G, 5L; Table 1). The analysis of the growth pattern of tumors showed that both, N- and C-IKK α /TgAC mice developed higher number of endoexophytic tumors than those originated in Control/TgAC mice (Table 1; 5H, 5P). This type of growth is associated to tumors prone to fast-malignization.

Altogether these histological results suggest that tumors developed in both N- and C-IKK α /TgAC mice have more malignant features than those arisen in Control/TgAC mice. In addition, among them, the N-IKK α tumors seem more aggressive than the C-IKK α ones. To test whether the activation of the classical NF- κ B pathway causes the increased malignancy of the N- and C-IKK α tumors, activation of p53 and total p53 levels were assessed. No differences between the three types of tumors were found (Figure 6A, 6B, 6G; Supp Figure 1A, B). As IKK α is a central protein of the alternative NF- κ B pathway, the balance p100/p52 was also analyzed and no evident differences were found between tumors of the three groups (Figure 6C, 6G). Moreover, immunostaining with p52 and p53 antibodies did not reveal a significant difference in the level of expression or subcellular

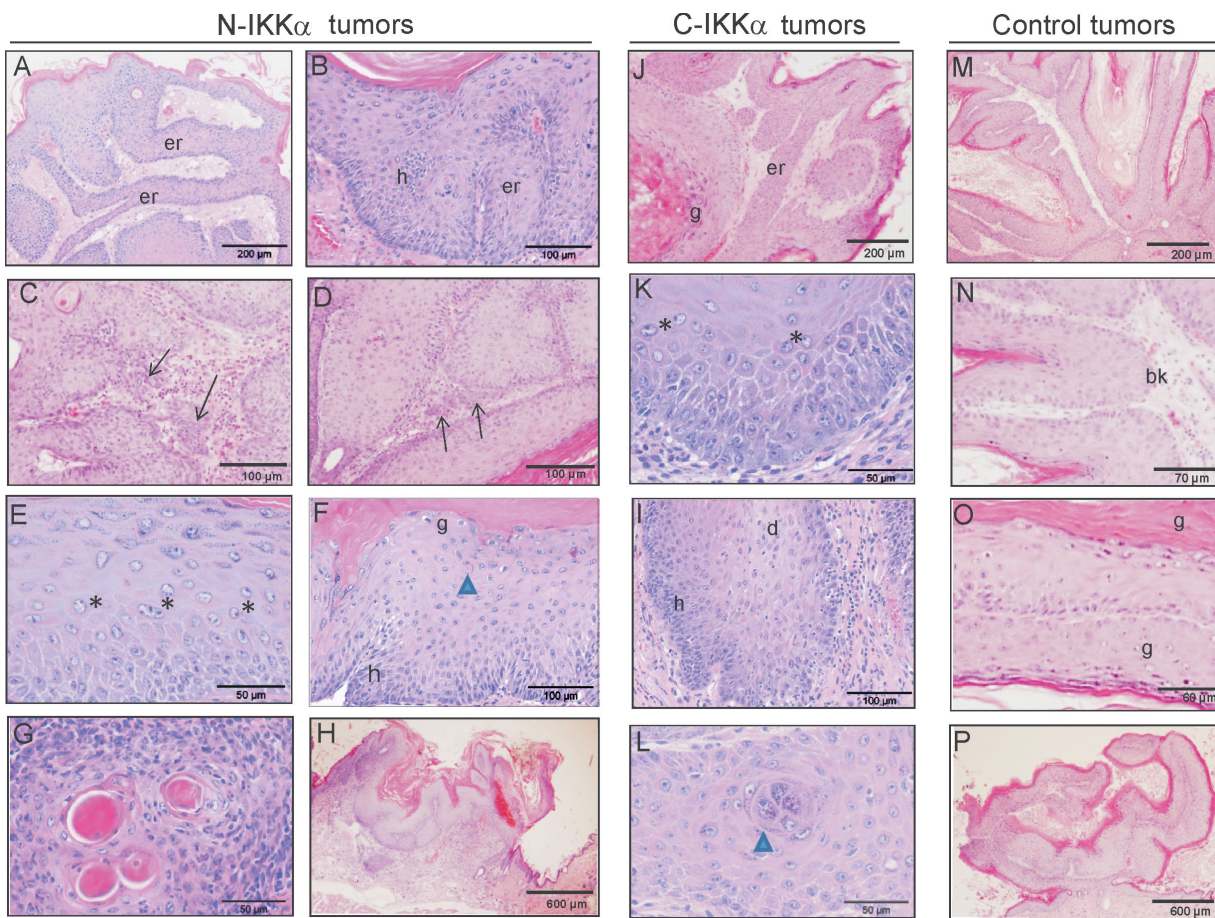


Figure 5: Histological pattern of tumors developed by double N-IKK α - and C-IKK α /TgAc, and Control/TgAC mice. A-H. Hematoxylin/eosin staining of N-IKK α tumors. (A, B) Characteristic growth pattern showing networks of epidermal ridges and basal hyperplasia (B). (C, D) Foci of infiltration. (E, F) Representative image showing anisocaryosis: nuclei of very different size are observed per field. (G) Keratin pearls. (H) Example of endoexophytic pattern of tumor growth. J-L. Hematoxylin/eosin staining of C-IKK α tumors. (J) Representative example of epidermal ridges in the C-IKK α tumors. (K) Anisocaryosis in C-IKK α tumor cells. I. Basal hyperplasia and dyskeratotic cells in C-IKK α tumors. (L) Attempted keratin pearl formation. M-P. Hematoxylin/eosin staining of Control tumors. (M) Representative pattern of growth of control tumors. (N-O) Note the absence of basal hyperplasia and the presence of stratum granulosum in Control tumors. (P) Example of exophytic pattern of tumor growth. er: epidermal ridges; h: hyperplasia; g: stratum granulosum; bk: basal keratinocytes; *: example of anisocaryosis; arrows: infiltrative focus; arrow head: formation of a keratin pearl; d: dyskeratotic cells. Tumors of 9 weeks of TPA treatment: C, D, J, N, O; Tumors of 14 weeks of TPA treatment: A, B, E, F, G, H, I, K, L, M, P.

Table 1: Histological characteristics of C-IKK α , N-IKK α and Control tumors

Genotype/Tumor	C-IKK α	N-IKK α	Control	P value C-IKK α / Control	P value N-IKK α / Control
Epidermal ridges	10/23	22/25	0/23	0,0006	< 0,0001
Infiltration foci	0/23	5/25	1/23	ns	ns
Basal hyperplasia	6/23	10/25	2/23	ns	0,019
Stratum granulosum discontinuous	1/23	7/25	1/23	ns	0,049
Keratin pearls	5/23	7/25	0/23	0,049	0,01
Endoexophytic growth	30/75	40/68	17/62	ns	0.0004

Table shows the number of tumors analyzed and the number of tumors positive for each characteristic. Statistical analysis is showed. Fisher's exact test was used to determine p values.

localization of these proteins among tumors of the three genotypes (Figure 7).

Increased EGFR activation and enhanced VEGF-A and MMP-9 expression in C-IKK α tumors

Other markers of tumor progression were analyzed, such as the expression of E-cadherin, being those tumors expressing low levels of E-Cadherin considered of worse prognosis. The immunohistochemical staining showed a faint signal for E-Cadherin in tumors originated in both types of IKK α /TgAC mice, mainly in the C-IKK α ones (Figure 7). Western blot analysis also indicated a decrease in the expression of E-Cadherin in both types of hIKK α tumors (Figure 6D, 6E, 6G; Supp Figure 1C). A robust tumor angiogenesis is another indicator of tumor malignancy. The analysis of CD31 and Sma immunostaining showed that C-IKK α tumors exhibited a network of large and lacunar, dilated blood vessels; by contrast, Control and N-IKK α tumors showed a blood vessels pattern characterized predominantly by narrow and small capillaries, although sporadically vessels of intermediate lumen diameter were observed in N-IKK α tumors (Figure 7). In addition, the staining of blood vessels with these antibodies showed a weak and discontinuous signal in C-IKK α tumors indicating the immature and leaky nature of their blood vessels. On the contrary, the vessels of the N-IKK α and Control tumors were more strongly stained, especially those in N-IKK α tumors (Figure 7, and data not shown). One of the most important pro-angiogenic factors is VEGF-A (vascular endothelial growth factor-A). As it has been described that IKK α represses VEGF-A expression in the skin [33], we analyzed the levels of VEGF-A expression in the skin of the three groups of mice. Whereas similar levels of VEGF-A mRNA in both Control- and N-IKK α mice were found, we observed a significant induction of VEGF-A expression in the skin of C-IKK α mice (Figure 6H). This

result contrasts with a report from another group [33], but it is in agreement with the expanded network of blood vessels detected in the C-IKK α tumors. Searching for a possible cause of this increase, we analyzed the expression of two positive regulators of VEGF-A expression in tumors, i.e. EGFR (Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor) [39–41], and MMP-9 (metalloproteinase 9) [42]. We found no significant differences in the levels of EGFR expression between tumors developed by mice of the three genotypes; however, EGFR activation (P-EGFR) was augmented in the C-IKK α tumors (Figure 6A, 6G; Supp. Figure 1D). Enhanced MMP-9 expression was also observed in tumors arisen in C-IKK α /TgAC mice (Figure 6A, 6G; Supp. Figure 1G), indicating that upregulation of these two factors could cause the observed increase in VEGF-A.

Interestingly, increased levels of VEGF-A expression and augmented angiogenesis was also found in tumors developed in mice expressing reduced levels of IKK α [29]. Furthermore, induction of EGFR appears to be responsible for the skin tumor development in IKK α ^{F/F}/K15.Cre mice lacking IKK α in keratinocytes [28]. Upregulation of MMP-9 gene has also been found in IKK α ^{F/F}/K5.Cre keratinocytes, and has been associated to keratinocyte transformation [28]. Thus, our results suggest that C-IKK α mice overexpressing IKK α in the cytoplasm of keratinocytes, and transgenic mice expressing reduced levels of IKK α promote the development and progression of NMSC by similar mechanisms.

Induction of c-Myc, downregulation of Maspin levels and delocalized expression of Integrin- α 6 in N-IKK α tumors

In a previous work we described that WT IKK α overexpression in both nucleus and cytoplasm of keratinocytes of K5-IKK α transgenic mice increased the malignant potential of skin tumors [30]. We identified the downregulation of the tumor suppressor and repressor of metastasis Maspin, and the induction of delocalized

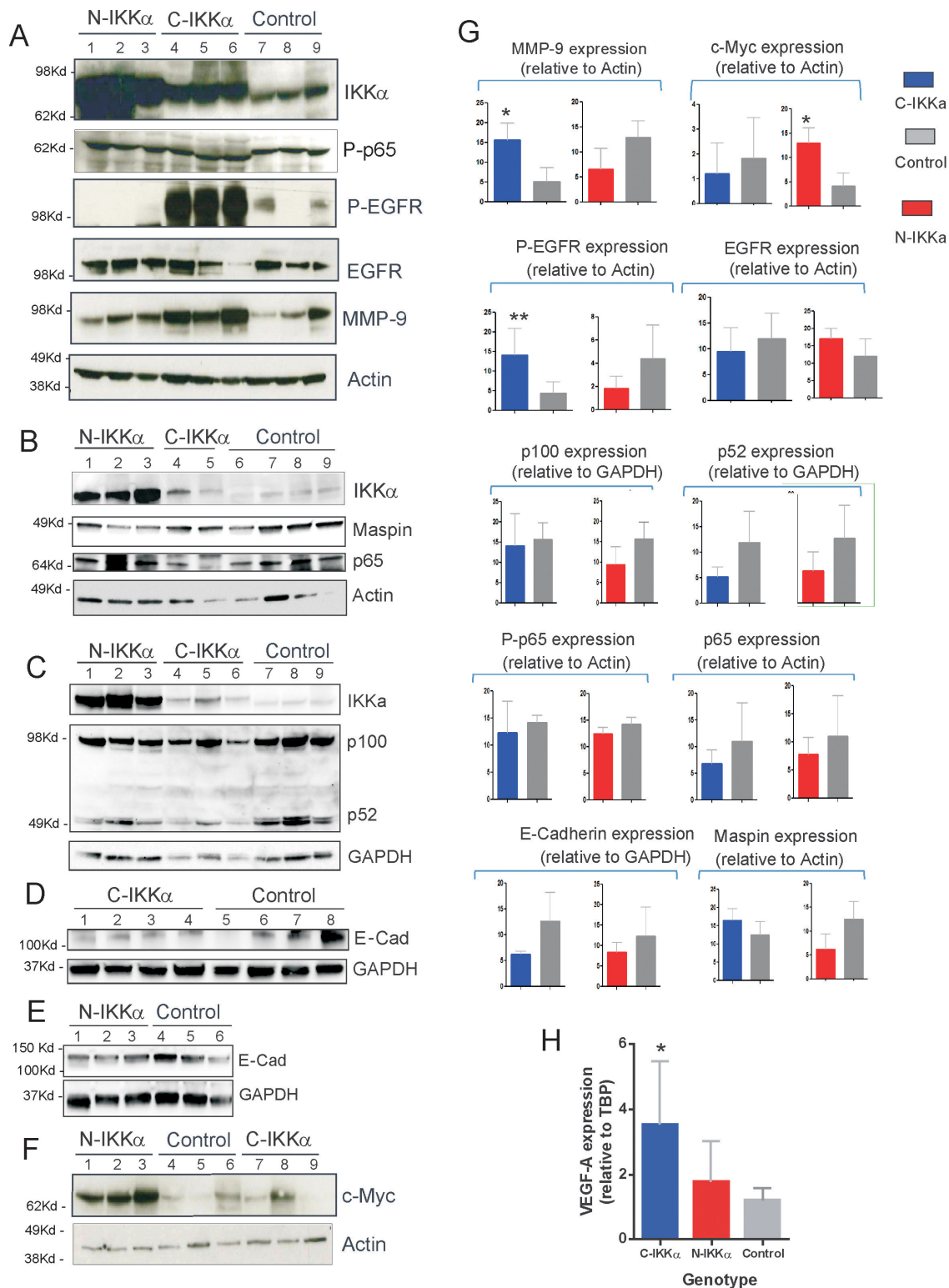


Figure 6: Biochemical characterization of Control, C-IKK α and N-IKK α tumors. A-F. Representative Western blots analysis of IKK α , P-p65, p65, EGFR, P-EGFR, p100/52, Maspin, c-Myc, E-cadherin and MMP-9 expression in Control, C-IKK α and N-IKK α tumors. Actin and GAPDH were used as loading controls. Western blot of protein extracts from 5 to 8 tumors derived from 4 to 6 different mice of each genotype were performed. The identification of each tumor and mouse corresponding to every lane is provided in Supp. data **G**. Bands of the different immunoblots were quantified by Quantity One software and Image Lab software and normalized with respect to Actin or GAPDH expression. P values were determined by Student's *t*-test and p values <0.05 (*) were considered significant; **p<0.01. **H**. Determination of VEGF-A mRNA relative levels in skin of Control, C-IKK α and N-IKK α transgenic mice by qRT-PCR analyses (*P*<0,05).

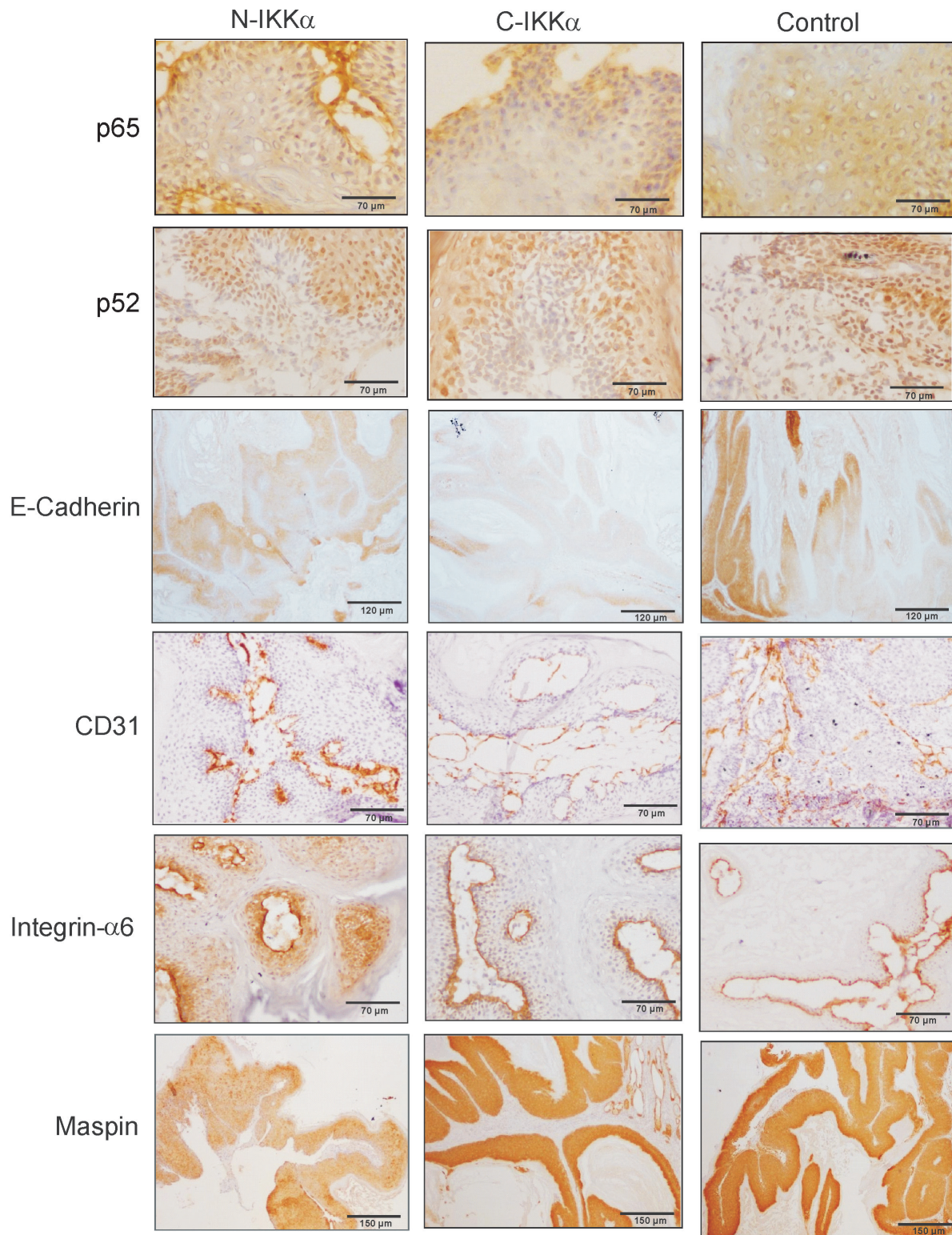


Figure 7: Analysis of tumor markers in Control, C-IKK α and N-IKK α tumors. Downregulation of E-cadherin expression in N-IKK α - and C-IKK α tumors. The CD31 staining (marker of endothelial cells) shows the presence of dilated and leaky blood vessels in the C-IKK α tumors, while those of Control and N-IKK α tumors are narrow and mature. Strong and delocalized suprabasal integrin- α 6 staining is detected in N-IKK α tumors, while Control and C-IKK α tumors show Integrin- α 6 basal expression. Reduced staining of Maspin in N-IKK α tumors. No difference in p52 and p65 expression was noticed between tumors of the three genotypes.

suprabasal expression of Integrin- $\alpha 6$, as the mechanisms through which IKK α exerted its protumoral function. Now we have analyzed the expression of these proteins in tumors of the three groups of mice. While in benign NMSC Integrin- $\alpha 6$ is expressed in keratinocytes of the basal layer; however, in malignant skin tumors it is also expressed in suprabasal layers [43]. We observed that Control and C-IKK α tumors had basal staining of Integrin- $\alpha 6$ (Figure 7) while tumors from N-IKK α /TgAC mice exhibited basal as well as delocalized suprabasal expression of Integrin- $\alpha 6$ (Figure 7). The suppressor of metastasis Maspin was expressed at lower levels in the N-IKK α tumors compared with Control- and C-IKK α tumors (Figure 7). A decrease in Maspin levels was also found by Western blot analysis (Figure 6B, 6G; Sup Figure 1F, G). Therefore these data support the more aggressive feature of the tumors developed in N-IKK α /TgAC mice and that tumors arisen in N-IKK α /TgAC mice share molecular characteristics with those developed in the K5-IKK α /TgAC mice [30].

One important molecule for keratinocyte transformation and tumor progression that is regulated by IKK α is the proto-oncogene c-Myc [44–46]. Analysis by Western blot has shown that c-Myc expression is induced in the N-IKK α tumors (Figure 6F, 6G; Sup Figure 1F). This data reinforces the above results suggesting the increased malignancy of tumors developed by the N-IKK α /TgAC mice, and is in agreement with data showing the gain of c-Myc copy number gene found in moderately to poorly differentiated SCCs when compared with well-differentiated SCCs [47]. Therefore, the immunohistochemical and biochemical studies confirm the histopathological results, indicating that N-IKK α /TgAC mice develop tumors of increased aggressiveness than Control/TgAC mice.

To confirm that the differences in the c-Myc, P-EGFR and MMP-9 expression found in N-and-C-IKK α tumors were due to the expression of the N-IKK α and C-IKK α transgenes, we transfected the HaCaT cell line of human keratinocytes with the C-IKK α and N-IKK α constructs under the control of the β -Actin promoter. Pooled stable transfectants clones from 15-30 different colonies were used to minimize any potential effect of clonal selection. A total of 6 pooled HaCaT-C-IKK α clones, 3 pooled HaCaT-N-IKK α clones and 3 pooled HaCaT-Control clones were analyzed. The correct expression of the transgene in the nucleus of HaCaT-N-IKK α and in the cytoplasm of the HaCaT-C-IKK α was determined by immunofluorescence analysis (Figure 8A–8C). Western blot analysis confirmed the increased expression of IKK α in the transfected cells (Figure 8D). Similarly to N-IKK α tumors obtained in transgenic mice, we observed that HaCaT-N-IKK α cells expressed increased levels of c-Myc; additionally we detected augmented EGFR activation and enhanced expression of MMP-9 in HaCaT-C-IKK α cells (Figure 8D, 8E; Supp.

Figure 2), similarly to the results found in the C-IKK α tumors. Therefore, these results suggest that the increase in the expression of c-Myc in the N-IKK α tumors and in the HaCaT-N-IKK α keratinocytes is likely due to augmented IKK α expression of nuclear localization in keratinocytes. In addition they also suggest that the increase in MMP-9 levels and P-EGFR activation found in the C-IKK α tumors and in the HaCaT-C-IKK α cells is mainly originated by the cytoplasmic localization of IKK α in keratinocytes.

In summary, our results show that tumors developed in both C-IKK α and N-IKK α /TgAc mice overexpressing IKK α in the cytoplasm or the nucleus of keratinocytes respectively are more prone to tumor development and have more aggressive features than those developed in Control/TgAC mice. Indeed, at the time of submitting this manuscript, we have started to observe spontaneous development of skin tumors in aged C-and-N-IKK α mice, strongly reinforcing the role of IKK α as a tumor promoter of NMSC in either, cytoplasmic or nuclear localization (work in progress). Importantly, our molecular studies, *in vitro* and *in vivo*, suggest that IKK α exerts very different and defined functions in each subcellular compartment of keratinocytes.

DISCUSSION

Our models of transgenic mice expressing an exogenous IKK α protein in the cytoplasm or in the nucleus of keratinocytes provide an excellent model for discerning the function that IKK α develops in NMSC. Our results show that regardless of its subcellular localization, IKK α plays a protumoral role in skin cancer development and progression, although the mechanisms through which IKK α promotes NMSC are different depending on its nuclear or cytoplasm localization.

Interestingly, we have found that in spite of the low number of keratinocytes that express the transgenic IKK α protein, C-IKK α /TgAC mice developed larger number of skin tumors with lower latency than Control/TgAC mice. This result suggests a very high predisposition for malignant transformation of keratinocytes expressing cytoplasmic IKK α . Additionally, this data proposes that the low expression of transgene expression in the epidermis of C-IKK α mice may be the result of a negative selection against keratinocytes expressing the transgenic IKK α , favoring the expansion of those in which the transgene is silenced. We have found that the increased levels of VEGF-A, along with the associated increased angiogenesis, the decreased expression of E-Cadherin and the enhanced expression of MMP-9 in the C-IKK α tumors are the likely mechanisms that may lead to the further progression found in C-IKK α tumors. In this respect, the induction of MMP-9 expression through a PI3K/Akt/IKK α pathway has been previously described [48]. In addition, an association between reduced expression of E-Cadherin and increased MMP-9 levels has been reported in mouse

SCCs with invasive phenotype [49]. These features are also common in human NMSC, where increased MMP-9 expression has been observed in SCCs with respect to benign lesions in BCCs and actinic keratosis [50].

Another feature that distinguishes C-*IKK α* tumors from Control and N-*IKK α* tumors is the increased activation of EGFR. *IKK α* has been shown to be integrated into the EGFR/Ras/Erk pathway during mitosis and differentiation as well as in skin cancer development [51]. EGFR activation has been associated

with tumor progression in different types of cancer in humans and mice, including NMSC, and usually correlates with a worse prognosis [39]. Moreover, increased MMP-9 and EGFR activation could be enhancing tumor angiogenesis in the C-*IKK α* tumors as both molecules are involved in processes required for tumor invasion of tissues and metastasis, such as angiogenesis [52, 53]; they are also positive regulators of VEGF-A expression [41, 42], that predisposes murine epidermis to NMSC development [54, 55] and favor the

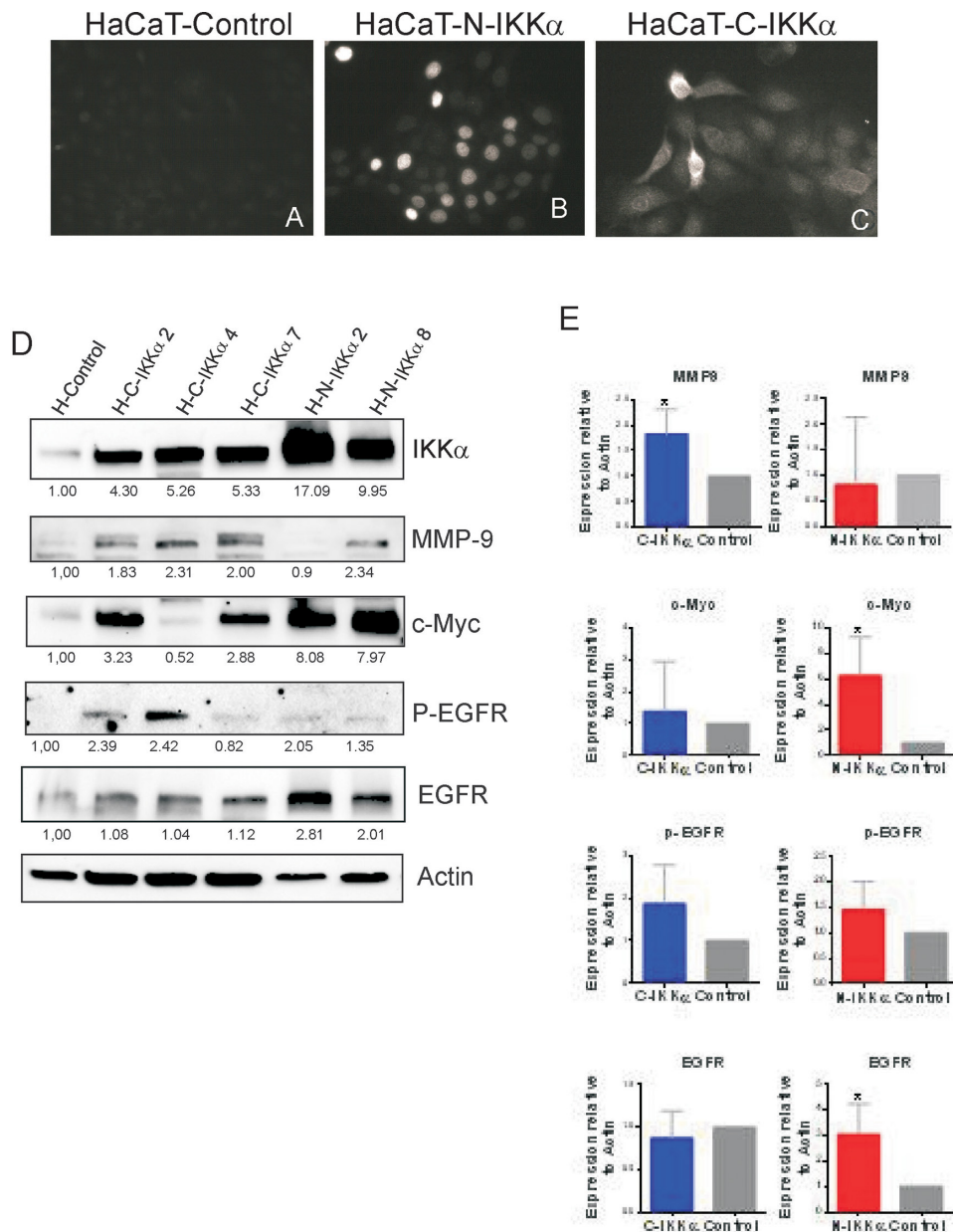


Figure 8: Characterization of the HaCaT-N-*IKK α* and HaCaT-C-*IKK α* cells. A-C. Immunofluorescence with a Flag specific antibody showing the expression of the transgene in the nucleus of the HaCaT-N-*IKK α* cells (B) and in the cytoplasm of the HaCaT-C-*IKK α* cells (C). D. Representative western blot analysis showing increased levels of *IKK α* in different pools of transfected HaCaT clones. Observe the increased MMP-9 and EGFR activation in the HaCaT-C-*IKK α* cells and the enhanced expression of c-Myc in the HaCaT-N-*IKK α* cells. E. Graphic representation of the densitometric analysis of western blots corresponding to 6 pooled clones of HaCaT-C-*IKK α* cells, 3 pooled clones of HaCaT-N-*IKK α* cells and 3 pooled clones of HaCaT-Control cells. Student's t test was used for statistical analysis. (* $p < 0.05$; **** $p < 0.0001$).

growth of large and lacunar blood vessels (a prominent feature of skin tumor progression) [56].

It is striking that the features that distinguish skin tumors developed by C-IKK α /TgAC mice, i.e., MMP-9 and VEGF-A upregulation and increased EGFR activation are the same that characterize the skin tumors arisen in mice lacking IKK α or expressing diminished levels of this protein [28, 29]. It is also remarkable that our C-IKK α mice express increased levels of VEGF-A, since it has been shown that IKK α binds in the nucleus of keratinocytes to the distal VEGF-A promoter repressing its expression [33]. These results suggest that overexpression of IKK α in the cytoplasm of keratinocytes may impair certain nuclear IKK α functions (such as VEGF-A regulation), resulting in a similar behaviour of C-IKK α tumors and those developed in IKK α null mice (that consequently are deficient in the nuclear IKK α function). This possibility will be analyzed in detail in future work.

Our results show that tumors developed in N-IKK α /TgAC mice also present a more aggressive phenotype than those of Control/TgAC mice. As a possible mechanism for this increased tumor progression, we have found the induction of c-Myc expression. In support of this hypothesis, a mechanistic connection between IKK α and c-Myc has been found in breast cancer, where IKK α increases c-Myc protein levels by prolonging protein stability, and this consequently promotes the tumorigenic and invasive activity of breast cancer cells [57]. In the case of NMSC, increased c-Myc expression is found in SCC of poor prognosis [47]. In addition, the expression of this proto-oncogene in epidermis is a risk factor for tumor development, i.e., K5-cMyc transgenic mice develop spontaneous tumors in skin and oral cavity [44, 58]. c-Myc amplification or deregulated expression can also play a causal role in the genesis and tumorigenic promotion of diverse human tumors, including cutaneous SCC, lung and breast carcinomas [47, 59–62]. Actually, c-Myc amplification has been found in 50% of tumors from transplants recipients who develop skin SCC [63], being the incidence of cutaneous SCC development highly augmented in these patients [64].

Another event that may account for the increased tumor progression of N-IKK α tumors is the decreased expression of the tumor suppressor Maspin. Maspin acts as an inhibitor of metastasis in prostate, liver and breast cancers, in which it has been proven that nuclear IKK α , by directly binding to the Maspin promoter, represses its transcription, thereby encouraging metastasis [24, 26, 65]. Previous findings of our group showed that Maspin also has a tumor suppressor role in NMSC development and progression, and furthermore we found that the increased malignancy of tumors developed in K5-IKK α /TgAC mice could be due to the diminished expression of Maspin in skin [30, 66]. Hence, the results that we here show confirm our previous data and extend our findings, as we have specified the role of nuclear IKK α as a regulator of Maspin expression in skin tumors developed by N-IKK α /TgAC mice.

Recently, it has been published that the nuclear localization of IKK α is a hallmark of aggressive human cutaneous SCC with high risk to metastasize [67]. These authors have found that nuclear IKK α is coupled with the metastatic capacity of cutaneous SCC, likely through Maspin attenuation. These results agree with the increased aggressiveness of skin tumors overexpressing nuclear IKK α expression in comparison to Control tumors described here, and confirm the importance of reduced levels of Maspin for the enhanced aggressiveness of these tumors. In addition, we have found other mechanisms that are likely contributing to the high malignancy of skin tumors with increased nuclear IKK α , such as induction of c-Myc expression and deregulation of Integrin- α 6 (a common feature found in squamous tumors at high risk of malignant progression [43]). Therefore, our results show that N-IKK α tumors recapitulate some of the features that make human and mouse skin tumors more aggressive and with high risk to metastasize.

In summary, our models of transgenic mice show that regardless of its subcellular localization in keratinocytes, IKK α plays a protumoral role in skin cancer development and progression, although by different mechanisms. We have also found interesting similarities between the features of tumors developed in C-IKK α mice and those of tumors arising in IKK α ^{-/-} mice. And importantly, we have found that N-IKK α skin tumors mimic the characteristics associated to aggressive human skin tumors with high risk to metastasize such as predominance of nuclear IKK α expression and attenuation of Maspin expression, besides the induction of c-Myc and Integrin- α 6 expression. Our results may help in understanding the progression of human NMSC and also offer new targets for intervention in such common cancer in humans.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Generation of transgenic mice

The human IKK α cDNA sequence was amplified from human keratinocyte RNA and cloned in pCRII-TOPO using Topo-Cloning (ThermoFisher, MA, USA) using specific primers that also included restriction sites (HindIII in 5' and NotI in 3'). For N-IKK α cloning, the primer also included an NLS (nuclear localization signal) (atggatccaagaagaagaggagggtg) in 5'. For C-IKK α , the internal NLS site was removed by directed mutagenesis using QuikChange II (Stratagene). All constructs were checked by sequencing. N-IKK α and C-IKK α constructs were then subcloned in the pK5 vector containing 5.2 Kb of the bovine K5 promoter and a rabbit β -globin intron (Figure 1A) [36].

C-IKK α and N-IKK α mice were generated in FVB/N and B6D2F2 hybrid background respectively. N-IKK α mice were then crossed with FVB/N mice and used in the 6th generation onwards. Mice were genotyped

by PCR analysis of tail genomic DNA using primers specific for the rabbit β -globin intron.

Carcinogenesis assays

Female hemizygous *v-Ha-ras* transgenic Tg.AC mice (Taconic Farm Inc. USA) were mated with C- and N-IKK α , and Control males. Double transgenic C- and N-IKK α /Tg.AC and Control/Tg.AC 9-week-old mice (6 animals per group) were shaved and topically treated twice weekly with 5 μ g of TPA (Sigma) in 200 μ l of acetone for 9 weeks according to standard protocols [30]. Tumors were measured with an external caliper, and volume was calculated as $(4/3) \pi (\text{width}/2)^2 (\text{length}/2)$.

Cell culture and transfection assays

Human HaCaT keratinocytes were grown in DMEM and 10%FCS. Cells were transfected using the calcium phosphate method. N-IKK α and C-IKK α constructs (containing a Flag-tag) were then subcloned in a vector containing the β -Actin promoter [31, 68, 69]. The corresponding empty vector was used as control. Resistant colonies were selected using G418 (0.5 mg/ml). As a result of different transfection assays distinct clones of HaCaT cells were obtained expressing the N-IKK α or C-IKK α transgenes, designated HaCaT- N-IKK α and HaCaT-C-IKK α . Each clone was derived from a pool of 15-30 different colonies. HaCaT colonies transfected with the empty vector were selected, pooled, and used as control (HaCaT-Control cells).

Histology and immunohistochemistry

Skin and tumors were fixed in 10% buffered formalin and embedded in paraffin. Sections were stained with H&E and histopathological evaluation was performed by two experimented observers: MJFA, specialized in human pathology and RAGF, a veterinarian expert in animal pathology.

Immunostaining was performed using antibodies against IKK α (NB100-56704) IKK β (Novus Biologicals, Cambridge UK); IKK α (H00001147-M04) (Abnova, Taiwan); IKK α (sc-7182), P-IKK α / β (Ser 180/Ser 181)-R (sc-23470-R), Maspin, p65 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. Heidelberg, Germany); CD31, E- Cadherin, Integrin- α 6 (BD Bioscience, NJ, USA); p52 (Abcam, Cambridge, UK). Sections were incubated with a biotinylated secondary antibody, and then with streptavidin conjugated to horseradish peroxidase (DAKO A/S, Glostrup, Denmark). Antibody localization was determined using 3,3-diaminobenzidine (DAB) (Vector Laboratories; Burlingame, CA, USA).

A pressure cooker with DAKO target retrieval solution ph9.0 (DAKO) was employed for Maspin, mouse IKK α , human IKK α , P-IKK α / β , IKK β and E- Cadherin detection. Staining with p52, p65, Integrin- α 6 and CD31 antibodies was performed in cryosections of tumors.

Immunofluorescence

Indirect immunofluorescence was used to detect the transgene in HaCaT cell cultures. The Flag antibody was used (F3040; SIGMA, Missouri, USA). Alexa Fluor-594 goat antimouse IgG(H + L) was used as fluorochrome.

Ethics statement

All animal experimental procedures were performed according to European and Spanish laws and regulations (2007/526/CE) and approved by our institution's ethics committee.

Western blot analysis

Protein extracts were obtained from pieces of tumors or from HaCaT cells. Total protein extracts (30 μ g) were subjected to SDS/PAGE. The separated proteins were transferred to nitrocellulose membranes (Amersham, Arlington Heights, IL; BioRad, France) and probed with antibodies against IKK α (NB100-56704 Novus Biologicals); c-Myc (Biolegend, CA, USA); Maspin, Actin, EGFR, P-EGFR (Tyr1176), p65, GAPDH (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. Europe); α -Tubulin (Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA); E-Cadherin (BD Bioscience, NJ, USA). p100/p52 (Cell Signaling Technology, USA) and MMP-9 (Merck Millipore, Darmstadt, Germany). In all cases samples were subjected to luminography with the Supersignal West Pico Chemiluminescent Substrate (Pierce Biotechnology, Inc., Illinois, USA).

RNA isolation and real-time PCR

Total RNA was isolated using miRNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions and residual DNA was eliminated using Rnase-Free Dnase Set (Qiagen). Reverse transcription was performed using the Omniscript RT Kit (Qiagen) and oligo dT primer, using 1 μ g of total RNA. Quantitative PCR was performed in a 7500 Fast Real Time PCR System (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) using Go Taq PCR master mix (Promega) and 1 μ l of cDNA as a template. Melting curves were performed to verify specificity and absence of primer dimerization. Reaction efficiency was calculated for each primer combination, and TBP gene was used as reference gene for normalization. The F- and R-sequences of the specific oligonucleotides for VEGF-A were 5'-CAGGCTGCTGTAACGATGAA-3' and 5'-CTCCTATGTGCTGGCTTTGG-3' and for TBP were 5'-AGTGAAGAACAGTCCAGACTG-3' and 5'-CCAGGAAATAACTCTGGCTCAT-3'.

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CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

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