Residues 240–250 in the C-Terminus of the Pirh2 Protein Complement the Function of the RING Domain in Self-Ubiquitination of the Pirh2 Protein

Rami Abou Zeinab, Hong Wu, Consolo Sergi, Roger P. Leng*
Heritage Medical Research Center, Department of Laboratory Medicine and Pathology, University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada

Abstract
Pirh2 is a p53 inducible gene that encodes a RING-H2 domain and is proposed to be a main regulator of p53 protein, thus fine tuning the DNA damage response. Pirh2 interacts physically with p53 and promotes its MDM2-independent ubiquitination and subsequent degradation as well as participates in an auto-regulatory feedback loop that controls p53 function. Pirh2 also self-ubiquitinates. Interestingly, Pirh2 is overexpressed in a wide range of human tumors. In this study, we investigated the domains and residues essential for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. Deletions were made in each of the three major domains of Pirh2: the N-terminal domain (NTD), Ring domain (RING), and C-terminal domain (CTD). The effects of these deletions on Pirh2 self-ubiquitination were then assessed using in vitro ubiquitination assays. Our results demonstrate that the RING domain is essential, but not sufficient, for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination and that residues 240–250 of the C-terminal domain are also essential. Our results demonstrate that Pirh2 mediated p53 polyubiquitination occurs mainly through the K48 residue of ubiquitin in vitro. Our data further our understanding of the mechanism of Pirh2 self-ubiquitination and may help identify valuable therapeutic targets that play roles in reducing the effects of the overexpression of Pirh2, thus maximizing p53’s response to DNA damage.

Introduction
The function of the p53 tumor suppressor gene in maintaining genomic integrity [1] through its effects on cellular processes such as DNA repair, cell cycle arrest, and programmed cell death [2–4] is well known. Thus, it is not surprising that 50% of human cancers are due to mutations in p53. Clearly, p53 is a tumor suppressor gene in maintaining genomic integrity through its effects on cellular processes such as DNA repair, cell cycle arrest, and programmed cell death. In response to cellular stress, Pirh2 is self-ubiquitinated, and that the other 50% carry a wild type p53 allele but lack a functional p53 protein [5]. Clearly, tight regulation of the p53 protein is important. Although the precise mechanisms of p53 regulation are not fully understood, the involvement of many different proteins [6,7] and many different processes, including sumoylation [8–10], neddylation [11–13], and acetylation or other post-translational modifications [14–16], has been proposed. Despite the apparent involvement of numerous proteins and processes, ubiquitination has been identified as the master regulatory mechanism [17]. Three major enzymes are involved in the ubiquitination process: E1 (ubiquitin activating enzyme), E2 (ubiquitin conjugating enzyme), and E3 (ubiquitin ligating enzyme) [18]. Poly-ubiquitination results in the addition of several ubiquitin molecules to p53, which, in turn, promotes proteosomal degradation of p53 by 26 S proteasomes [3,19].

Many E3 ligases, including MDM2 [20,21], Pirh2 [22], and COP1 [23], are tightly associated with the ubiquitination processes regulating p53 expression and activity. UBE4B was recently identified as an E3 and E4 ligases to promote p53 ubiquitination and degradation [24]. Interestingly, of all the E3 ligases associated with p53, Pirh2 is the only one that is overexpressed in a wide range of human tumors, including primary breast cancer, hepatocellular carcinoma, head and neck cancer, prostate cancer, and lung cancer [25–30]. In normal, unstressed cells, p53 is poly-ubiquitinated by Pirh2 and then degraded by 26 S proteasomes. However, in response to cellular stress, Pirh2 is self-ubiquitinates, leading to its degradation, which results in high levels of p53 [22]. This phenomenon is important in cancer patients because constant Pirh2 expression leads to continuous p53 degradation, even in cases of cellular stress when the function of p53 is needed. We note that phosphorylation, a post translational modification of p53 that normally inhibits the binding of p33 to E3 ligases, such as MDM2, does not affect the binding of p53 to Pirh2, which has the ability to bind phosphorylated or non-phosphorylated p53 protein [31].

For these reasons, our main objective was to investigate Pirh2 self-ubiquitination by mapping each of the three main domains of Pirh2 and by identifying residues essential for its ubiquitination function. Domain mapping was accompanied by an analysis of ubiquitination conditions, such as the presence of E2 enzymes, ubiquitin mutations, and other factors that could affect self-ubiquitination. Our investigations help explain the effects of Pirh2 overexpression, which can be associated either with a dysfunctional self-ubiquitination process or, in some cases, with a...
successful ubiquitination process that fails to lead to substrate degradation and thus results in altered pathway end products [32]. Studying the self-ubiquitination process of Pirh2 at the molecular level opens a new gateway to therapeutic techniques that can focus on counteracting the effects of Pirh2 expression in cancer patients by restoring self-ubiquitination activity and thus releasing p53 continuous inhibition.

Results

Pirh2 in vitro self-ubiquitination optimal conditions

In previous studies, Pirh2 was shown to self-ubiquitinate [22,33]. Based on these studies, and because the self-ubiquitination process seems to be critical to Pirh2 expression and function as an E3 ligase, we designed three experiments to test the optimal conditions for Pirh2 E3 ligase activity. As shown in Figure 1a, Pirh2 self-ubiquitination was detected in 60 minutes. We found that there were no differences in Pirh2 self-ubiquitination after 60, 90, and 120 minutes. Furthermore, we observed that 600 ng of Pirh2 is sufficient for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination (Figure 1b). As shown in Figure 1c, four different E2 enzymes were tested; they were selected because they are among the 37 E2 human enzymes that are highly correlated with RING-H2 E3 ligases [34,35]. We observed that H5B, H5A, and H5C, but not Cdc34, result in Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. As shown in Figure 1d, ubiquitination was not detected in the absence of E3, E2, E1, or ubiquitin, indicating that Pirh2-mediated ubiquitination is dependent on the presence of E1 and E2. Additionally, we found that proteins lose a portion of their enzymatic activity with time, despite being stored at −80°C with 10% glycerol. This is clear in lanes 5 and 6, in which Pirh2 wild-type (WT) a, which was purified two months earlier and stored at −80°C, showed significantly lower ubiquitination function than Pirh2 WT b, which was purified just two days prior to the performance of the ubiquitination reactions (Figure 1d).

Mapping Pirh2 domains for self-ubiquitination in vitro

To reveal which residues in Pirh2 protein are essential for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination in vitro, we mapped the three main domains of the Pirh2 protein (NTD, RING, and CTD). We designed three constructs that have residues deleted from the N-terminal domain, as indicated. We also designed one construct that lacked the Ring domain (145–186). The remaining three constructs were designed to test the function of the C-terminal domain (Figure 2a). We also added two extra constructs that had internal deletions. A120–137 had residues 120–137 deleted. The reason we added this construct is because these residues were previously shown to be involved in binding to p53 [22]. Additionally, recent studies have related E3 ligase activity to the PhD domain that is present in some E3 ligases [36]. Pirh2 protein has a PhD domain from residues 39–108 in its N-terminal domain. Therefore, we added a ΔPhD mutant construct. Proteins were expressed and purified and run on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel to confirm their purity (Figure 2b). In vitro ubiquitination assays were performed using E1, E2 (H5B), and Myc tagged ubiquitin to test the potential E3 activity of Pirh2 wild type (WT) and mutant constructs. As shown in Figure 2c, the NTD deletions had no effect on Pirh2 self-ubiquitination activity; rather, each of the three constructs N40, N80, and N120 showed successful ubiquitination despite lacking residues in their N-terminal domains. Additionally, Δ120–137 and ΔPhD, which have internal deletions in the N-terminal domain, showed positive ubiquitination, indicating that binding of Pirh2 to p53 is distinct from self-ubiquitination and that the PhD domain does not affect Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. We detected no ubiquitination with the ΔRing construct, indicating that the Ring domain is involved in Pirh2 self-ubiquitination [39]. Interestingly, constructs C60, C137 and C195, which have deletions in the CTD (from residue 189 to 261), also showed no ubiquitination, indicating a role for the CTD in Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. We particularly note that construct C195, which contains the whole RING domain but is missing residues 196 to 261 in the CTD, showed no ubiquitination activity. This surprising result indicates that residues within the CTD after the 195th residue are required for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. Ubiquitination was further evaluated by measuring the integrated density of the ubiquitin smear detected on the original films (Figure 2d). All the deletions in the CTD clearly decreased ubiquitination, including the deletion in the C195 construct bearing the Ring domain. This result explains our interest in mapping the end of the C-terminal domain to investigate the role of residues in the Ring domain in Pirh2 self-ubiquitination activity.

Residues 240–250 in the C-terminal domain are essential for Pirh2 self-ubiquitination

We designed a new set of mutant constructs (Pirh2A, B, C, D, and E) from Pirh2 WT (Figure 3a). Pirh2A and B were used as a negative and positive control, respectively. Pirh2A lacks the NTD and was used to confirm that it is not required for self-ubiquitination, and Pirh2B was used as a positive control to confirm that the Ring domain by itself, without any residues from the CTD, is not sufficient for self-ubiquitination. Pirh2 C, D, and E were designed on a 10 residue shift interval starting with the end terminal of the C domain. All proteins were expressed in GST vectors and purified using a GST purification protocol prior to performance of the ubiquitination reactions (Figure 3b). As expected, Pirh2A showed normal ubiquitination and Pirh2B showed no ubiquitination, consistent with our previous findings (Figure 3c). Interestingly, we were able to show that when residues 240–250 were deleted from the protein, Pirh2 self-ubiquitination activity was absent, despite the presence of the Ring domain (Figure 3c, lane 6 and 7). Our results were further analyzed by ubiquitination quantification (Figure 3d), which confirmed that ubiquitination was totally abolished after the deletion of residues 240–250.

Pirh2 preferentially utilizes Lys-48 of Ub to mediate p53 ubiquitination in vitro

To confirm previous findings regarding in vitro ubiquitination, in vivo ubiquitination assays were performed. p53-negative H1299 cells were transfected with plasmids expressing Pirh2 WT, various Pirh2 mutants, or vector pcDNA3, along with HA tagged ubiquitin. Proteins were analyzed by western blots with anti-HA antibodies to detect WT Pirh2 or Pirh2 mutants (lower image) or with anti-GST antibodies to detect ubiquitinated species (upper image) or with anti-GST antibodies to detect WT Pirh2 or Pirh2 mutants (lower image). Consistently, ubiquitinated Pirh2 was detected in assays performed with Pirh2 WT and all the N-terminal domain mutants but not in assays performed with C-terminal domain mutants (Figure 4a).

Because mouse and human p53 have commonly been used to study p53 regulation, we tested the ubiquitination of both human and mouse p53 by human and mouse Pirh2 proteins. We observed that Pirh2 successfully ubiquitinates p53 and that antibody Do-1 was more efficient in detecting human p53 ubiquitination (Figure 4b), while antibody P122 was more efficient at detecting mouse p53 ubiquitination (Figure 4c). Additionally, as indicated in Figure 4c, different concentrations of Pirh2 proteins were used. The level of p53 ubiquitination increased slightly with higher Pirh2 concentrations.
In the ubiquitination system, proteins are covalently tagged with a ubiquitin chain in which the terminal residue of one ubiquitin molecule is linked through an isopeptide bond to a lysine residue within another [37]. Seven lysine residues are used for chain formation, and each may have a distinct effect on substrate fate. For example, K48 is known to cause substrate degradation, whereas K63 cannot [37,38]. Much less is known about the functions of chains with other topologies, which explains our interest in investigating the role of different lysine residues in the ubiquitination process.

GST-Pirh2 and His-p53 were purified from Escherichia coli, and reactions were carried out in the presence of wild-type ubiquitin (Ub-WT) or one of three ubiquitin mutants: Ub-KO, in which seven lysine residues — K6, K11, K27, K29, K33, K48, and K63 — were replaced by arginine; Ub-K48R, in which only lysine K48 was replaced by arginine; or Ub-K63R, in which only lysine K63 was replaced by arginine [32]. We tested Pirh2 self-ubiquitination activity in the presence or absence of p53 in vitro. As presented in Figure 4d, the self-ubiquitination of Ub-K63R and Ub-K48R were similar to the self-ubiquitination of Ub-WT; however, the self-ubiquitination of Ub-KO was decreased. Interestingly, we found that the presence or absence of p53 protein did not affect Pirh2 self-ubiquitination.
compared to lanes 6–9). Our results were further analyzed by ubiquitination quantification (Figure 4e). We further examined whether Pirh2 promotes p53 ubiquitination in vitro in the presence of Ub-WT, Ub-K48R, or Ub-K63R. As shown in Figure 4f, the presence of Ub-K48R significantly reduced the Pirh2-mediated ubiquitination of p53 compared to the presence of Ub-K63R or Ub-WT, suggesting that Pirh2 mediated p53 ubiquitination occurs through the K48 of ubiquitin in vitro. Together, these data demonstrate that Pirh2 preferentially utilizes ubiquitin K48 to ubiquitinate p53 in vitro.

Figure 2. Mapping Pirh2 domain for in vitro self-ubiquitination. (a) Schematic representation of Pirh2 mutant constructs for the N-terminal domain, Ring domain, and C-terminal domain. (b) GST purified proteins run on a 10% SDS gel and stained with Coomassie blue. (c) In vitro ubiquitination assays of Pirh2 and Pirh2 mutant constructs. Reactions were performed in the presence of E1, E2 (H5B), and Myc-Ub. Following ubiquitination reactions (90 min), reactions were stopped by the addition of SDS loading dye and resolved on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel. Data were collected after immunoblotting with anti-Myc antibody to reveal ubiquitinated proteins and with anti-His antibody to reveal E1 and E2 proteins. (d) The ubiquitin integrated density of the original films was evaluated using Photoshop density quantification to analyze the ubiquitination intensity of each band.

doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0082803.g002
Discussion

Because Pirh2 is an E3 ligase that regulates the p53 and p73 tumor suppressors [22,32], Pirh2 ubiquitination has always been a focus of attention among researchers investigating the p53 system. Pirh2 has been shown to be involved in the ubiquitination of both proteins, independently of Mdm2 E3 ligases [31], as well as to be involved in negative feedback loops with them [22,24,32]. However, after Pirh2 was shown to be overexpressed in several human tumors, more attention was paid to its self-ubiquitinating activity, especially as it had been previously confirmed that Pirh2 levels are not affected by WT p53 in cancer cells but are elevated in p53 mutant (-/-) cells after DNA damage [39]. Pirh2 is a Ring E3 ligase, and its Ring domain has always been a target of functional studies of Pirh2 proteins [40]. The constructs shown in Figure 2a were first presented in a study by Leng et al. [22], and since then, have been used in many additional studies analyzing the activity of Pirh2 proteins. Our study, however, is the first that analyzes the C-terminal domain of Pirh2. The loss of self-ubiquitination that we observed in a C195 mutant that lacks most of the C terminus and yet contains the Ring domain is the first indication that residues outside of the Ring domain are involved in self-ubiquitination. We specifically found that the absence of residues 240–250 inhibits Pirh2 self-ubiquitination despite the
Figure 4. Pirh2 mediated p53 ubiquitination mainly through the K48 chain of ubiquitin in vitro. (a) In vivo self-ubiquitination reactions were performed in H1299 cells. Cells were transfected with plasmids expressing WT Pirh2 or the mutant constructs illustrated in Figure 2 and analyzed by Western blotting using anti-HA antibodies to reveal ubiquitinated proteins (top) and using anti-GST antibodies to detect Pirh2 WT or mutant proteins (bottom). Actin expression was used as a loading control. (b) and (c) Pirh2-p53 in-vitro ubiquitination using human (b) and mouse (c) derived proteins. Ubiquitination reactions were performed in the presence of GST-Pirh2, His purified p53, E1, E2 (H5B), and Ub-Wt. Pirh2 human and mouse derived proteins were used in three different concentrations (300, 600, and 900 ng). Following ubiquitination reactions (90 min), reactions were stopped by the addition of SDS loading dye and resolved on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel, and then, immunoblotting was performed using anti-p53 antibodies to reveal ubiquitinated p53 proteins. DO-1 was the most efficient in detecting human p53 ubiquitination (b). P122 was highly efficient in detecting mouse p53 ubiquitination (c). Anti-GST antibodies were used for Pirh2 detection as indicated. (d) Pirh2 ubiquitination using WT-Ub, Ub-K63R, Ub-K48R, or Ub-KO in the presence or absence of p53. Following ubiquitination reactions (90 min), reactions were stopped by the addition of SDS loading dye and resolved on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel. Data were collected after immunoblotting with anti-ubiquitin antibodies to reveal ubiquitinated proteins, with DO-1 anti-p53 antibody to reveal p53, with anti-His antibody to reveal E1 and E2, and with anti-GST antibody to detect Pirh2 (anti-GST).
Presence of the Ring domain. We note that this role of the C-terminus in self-ubiquitination was first demonstrated in experiments using construct Pirh2C, which demonstrated a change in self-ubiquitination due to the lack of the last 10 residues (Figure 3a). These results were verified by ubiquitin integrated density quantification.

In parallel to the experiments above, and because defects in ubiquitination end products might be due to the ubiquitin moieties involved in the process of ubiquitination, we investigated the role of lysine residues in the ubiquitination process. In other words, overexpression of Pirh2 might not be only due to the absence of self-ubiquitination but could also be due to a lack of end product degradation resulting from lysine interference, despite successful ubiquitination. At this point, we focused our attention on specific lysine residues that had previously been shown to affect proteosomal degradation [32]. Initially, the biological importance of K48-linked poly-Ub chains was demonstrated by the lethality of the Ub-K48R mutation in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae [41]. In contrast, in yeast Ub-K63R mutants, short-lived and abnormal proteins, the canonical substrates of the Ub-proteasome system, are still degraded at a normal rate [42]. In our study, neither the Ub-K63R nor Ub-K48R mutant had a decreased level of Pirh2 self-ubiquitination, eliminating the possibility that either mutation might affect ubiquitination and/or degradation of Pirh2 in cancer patients. Interestingly, the mutations had different effects on p53 ubiquitination, with the Ub-K48R mutant unable to ubiquitinate p53. These data support a negative feedback loop between Pirh2 and p53 and highlight the role of lysine residues in a substrate’s fate. In brief, our study confirmed the role of Pirh2 self-ubiquitination but could also be due to a lack of end product degradation resulting from lysine interference, despite successful ubiquitination. At this point, we focused our attention on specific lysine residues that had previously been shown to affect proteosomal degradation [32]. Initially, the biological importance of K48-linked poly-Ub chains was demonstrated by the lethality of the Ub-K48R mutation in the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae [41]. In contrast, in yeast Ub-K63R mutants, short-lived and abnormal proteins, the canonical substrates of the Ub-proteasome system, are still degraded at a normal rate [42]. In our study, neither the Ub-K63R nor Ub-K48R mutant had a decreased level of Pirh2 self-ubiquitination, eliminating the possibility that either mutation might affect ubiquitination and/or degradation of Pirh2 in cancer patients. Interestingly, the mutations had different effects on p53 ubiquitination, with the Ub-K48R mutant unable to ubiquitinate p53. These data support a negative feedback loop between Pirh2 and p53 and highlight the role of lysine residues in a substrate’s fate. In brief, our study confirmed the role of Pirh2 in promoting the cancer independently of p53 and provided additional insights into the process of self-regulation that might play a key role in the disruption of the Pirh2-p53 family system.

**Materials and Methods**

**Plasmids and antibodies**

pcDNA3.1 served as the backbone mammalian expression vector for the p53 and Pirh2 used in the in vivo studies. WT and mutant Pirh2 constructs were generated by PCR-amplification and subcloned into pGEX-5X-1. All PCR products were confirmed by sequencing. Pirh2 fusion proteins were detected using GST antibodies (Bi-14, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), whereas mouse Pirh2 was detected using anti-Pirh2 antibodies. Mouse p53 was detected using the antibodies P242, P1620, P122 and P248, whereas human p53 was detected using the antibodies DO-1, 1801, 1802, P421 and FL-393 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Ubiquitin was detected using either anti-Myc (9E10, Roche, when Myc-Ub was used), anti HA (12CA5, Roche, when HA-Ub was used), or anti-Ubiquitin (BD) antibodies for the ubiquitin lysine mutant constructs. Anti-actin (Sigma) was also used as a loading control according to the manufacturer’s description.

**Cell culture and DNA transfection**

H1299 cells were maintained in α-minimal essential medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. Calcium phosphate transfection methods were carried out for all in vivo ubiquitination reactions.

**Expression and recombinant protein preparation**

All GST- or His-tagged recombinant proteins were expressed in the E. coli strain BL21 (DE3, Novagen) that was treated with isopropyl-β-D-thiogalactoside (IPTG, 1 mM) for 4 hours at 30°C with shaking to induce fusion protein expression. Samples were centrifuged at 6000 rpm. Proteins were purified using glutathione Sepharose 4B (Amersham) for GST-fusion proteins or using Ni2+-NTA agarose (Qiagen) for His-fusion proteins. All proteins were tested for purity prior to performance of ubiquitination reactions by separation on 10% SDS-PAGE gels, stained with Coomassie blue overnight and destained for 8 hours the following day.

**In vitro self-ubiquitination assay**

In vitro self-ubiquitination assays were performed using purified GST-Pirh2 proteins. A total of 300, 600, or 900 ng of Pirh2 WT (wild-type) or mutant constructs was combined with E1 enzyme (40 ng, Calbiochem), E2 enzyme (Ubc-H5B WT, 100 ng, Calbiochem, or other E2 variant), Myc-tagged ubiquitin WT or lysine mutant constructs (5 μg, Sigma), ubiquitination buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 2 mM ATP, 5 mM MgCl2, and 2 mM DTT) and distilled water to a final volume of 40 μl. Reactions were incubated for 90 minutes in a 30°C water bath. The reactions were then stopped using SDS loading dye and heated at 95°C for 6 minutes. Proteins were separated on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel, transferred to PVDF membranes, and analyzed by Western blotting. Self-ubiquitination was visualized by immunoblotting with anti-ubiquitin antibodies. For p53 ubiquitination, purified His-p53 proteins (300 ng) were added to GST-Pirh2 WT. After the addition of all the ubiquitination factors mentioned above, reactions were also performed for 90 minutes in a 30°C water bath and then stopped using SDS loading dye and heated at 95°C for 6 minutes. Proteins were separated on a 10% SDS-PAGE gel, transferred to PVDF membranes, and analyzed by Western blotting. p53 ubiquitination was visualized using anti-p53 specific antibodies to exclude Pirh2 self-ubiquitination. In parallel, Pirh2 self-ubiquitination was tested using anti-ubiquitin antibodies to confirm the E3 activity of the Pirh2 proteins tested in the assay.

**In vivo self-ubiquitination assay**

H1299 cells were transfected with expression plasmids encoding Pirh2 (20 μg) and HA-tagged ubiquitin (5 μg). Cells were collected 30 hours post transfection and lysed in lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 1 mM EDTA, 150 mM NaCl, 1% NP40, 0.025% SDS, and 1 mM PMSF). Lysates were then sonicated and clarified by spinning at 4°C for 15 minutes to remove cell debris. After boiling with SDS loading dye, 50 μg of total proteins was loaded and separated on 10% SDS-PAGE gels. After transferring to PVDF membranes, proteins were visualized using Western blotting. HA antibody was used to detect in vivo self-ubiquitination.
Ubiquitination integrated density

Ubiquitination levels were quantified using Adobe Photoshop CS4 to evaluate integrated band intensities. Tiff files of original films were uploaded, and inverted images were analyzed using measurement tools. Using the rectangular marque tool, a rectangle with an adjusted fixed size that included all ubiquitination smears was saved and applied to all the sample lanes, including the negative controls. All recorded integrated densities were compared to those of empty lanes or to the background of the original film. Data were saved as TXT files and analyzed.

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: RPL, RAZ. Performed the experiments: RAZ. Analyzed the data: RAZ HW RHL. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: HW CS. Wrote the paper: RAZ RPL.