

A Role for Interleukin-1 Alpha in the 1,25 Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ Response in Mammary Epithelial Cells

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Abstract

Breast cancer is the most common non-cutaneous malignancy in American women, and better preventative strategies are needed. Epidemiological and laboratory studies point to vitamin D₃ as a promising chemopreventative agent for breast cancer. Vitamin D₃ metabolites induce anti-proliferative effects in breast cancer cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*, but few studies have investigated their effects in normal mammary epithelial cells. We hypothesized that 1,25(OH)₂D₃, the metabolically active form of vitamin D₃, is growth suppressive in normal mouse mammary epithelial cells. In addition, we have previously established a role for the cytokine interleukin-1 alpha (IL1α) in the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in normal prostate cells, and so we hypothesized that IL1α is involved in the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ response in mammary cells. Evaluation of cell viability, clonogenicity, senescence, and induction of cell cycle regulators p21 and p27 supported an anti-proliferative role for 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in mammary epithelial cells. Furthermore, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ increased the intracellular expression of IL1α, which was necessary for the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in mammary cells. Together, these findings support the chemopreventative potential of vitamin D₃ in the mammary gland and present a role for IL1α in regulation of mammary cell proliferation by 1,25(OH)₂D₃.

Citation: Maund SL, Shi L, Cramer SD (2013) A Role for Interleukin-1 Alpha in the 1,25 Dihydroxyvitamin D₃ Response in Mammary Epithelial Cells. PLoS ONE 8(11): e81367. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0081367

Editor: Andrzej T Slominski, University of Tennessee, United States of America

Received: July 15, 2013; **Accepted:** October 11, 2013; **Published:** November 7, 2013

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Funding: T32CA079448, RO1CA10102, RO1CA150105; www.grants.nih.gov. The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.

Competing interests: The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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Introduction

Epidemiological and laboratory studies point to vitamin D₃ as a promising chemopreventative agent for breast cancer [1-7]. Rigorous clinical studies are lacking, but increasing evidence highlights the importance of vitamin D₃ in maintaining breast health [8-11]. Low serum 25(OH)D₃ concentrations are correlated with an increased risk for breast cancer [3], and suboptimal serum 25(OH)D₃ levels are associated with more aggressive breast tumors, worse prognostic markers, and a higher risk for breast cancer recurrence [12]. These findings support reports of increased breast cancer risk and decreased survival in patients deficient in vitamin D₃, and they warrant further investigations into the specific contributions of vitamin D₃ to breast health.

Mammary epithelial cells endogenously express 1 alpha-hydroxylase (1α-OHase, encoded by CYP27B1) and can therefore generate 1,25 dihydroxyvitamin D₃ (1,25(OH)₂D₃), the

biologically active form of vitamin D₃, from 25(OH)D₃ in autocrine and paracrine manners [13], which supports a role for 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in mammary gland function and homeostasis [14]. The vitamin D receptor (VDR) is expressed in all cells of the mammary tissue and it is actively regulated during puberty and pregnancy; its levels increase 100-fold throughout lactation [15]. VDR-knockout mice exhibit excessive mammary epithelial proliferation and impaired apoptosis [15,16], and breast tumors with higher VDR expression are correlated with better patient prognosis [17]. Furthermore, CYP27B1 (which encodes the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ activating enzyme 1α-OHase) expression is slightly lower in invasive breast tumors, while CYP24A1 (which encodes the 1,25(OH)₂D₃ inactivating enzyme 24-hydroxylase) levels are increased in tumors compared to benign lesions [18]. These studies suggest that breast cancer is associated with deregulation of vitamin D₃ signaling. These and other *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies support the protective effects of 1,25

(OH)₂D₃ against breast cancer development and progression [1,19,20].

We previously reported a novel role for interleukin-1 alpha (IL1 α) in the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in the prostate progenitor/stem cell (PrP/SC) [21]. IL1 α is a multi-functional cytokine that is classically characterized as pro-inflammatory, but it has more recently been reported to regulate cell proliferation, differentiation, and senescence in a cell-type-dependent manner [22-38]. Furthermore, while secreted IL1 α and membrane-bound IL1 α contribute to inflammation and immune responses, intracellular IL1 α is hypothesized to exert anti-proliferative and pro-differentiation effects [39]. IL1 α is one of only two interleukins that contain a nuclear localization sequence [40]. The precise nuclear role(s) of IL1 α is still unclear, but studies suggest that it can impact transcription through interaction with RNA processing machinery, histone acetyltransferases, and transcription factors [41-44].

IL1 α expression or activity has not previously been studied in benign mammary cells, neither alone nor in response to 1,25(OH)₂D₃. The effects of IL1 α and 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in mammary cells is relevant to the study of vitamin D₃ in the chemopreventative setting. Here, we report that 1,25(OH)₂D₃ induces IL1 α expression in normal mouse mammary epithelial cells (MMECs), and that IL1 α contributes to the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ in these cells.

Materials and Methods

Ethics statement

This study was approved by the Wake Forest University School of Medicine Animal Care and Use Committee. The method of sacrifice was carbon dioxide inhalation followed by cervical dislocation.

Isolation and culture of mouse mammary epithelial cells

Normal MMECs were isolated from C57BL/6; 129/SVEV mice as described in detail in [45]. The isolated cells were primarily basal epithelial cells, and vitamin D receptor expression was confirmed by reverse-transcriptase PCR (data not shown). Cells were cultured in complete DMEM/F12 as described in [46], and experiments were performed between passages 20-30.

Antibodies and reagents

Antibodies: p21 and p27, Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA, USA); IL1 α and IL1RI, Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc. (Santa Cruz, CA, USA); β -actin, Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA); AlexaFluor 488 anti-Rabbit, Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Reagents: 1,25(OH)₂D₃, BIOMOL international (Plymouth Meeting, PA, USA). When BIOMOL was integrated into Enzo Life Sciences, 1,25(OH)₂D₃ was purchased from Sigma Aldrich.

Immunoblotting

Procedures for immunoblotting protein lysates from cells grown in monolayer is described in detail elsewhere [46]. Immunoblot experiments were repeated at least once and densitometry was performed using ImageJ software.

Growth assays

Trypan blue exclusion assays were performed as described in [47]. Briefly, cells were plated at 1 x 10⁴ cells per 35 mm culture dish (n = 3, 4, or 5 replicate preparations). The medium was replaced with experimental media 24 hrs after plating. When control cells reached 90% confluency, cells were collected, trypan blue was administered, and total and non-viable cells were counted. The mean number of viable cells per dish and percentages of viable cells were calculated and statistical significance was verified using ANOVA (critical value = 0.05) with post-hoc analysis by Fisher's LSD test using the statistical software package NCSS 6.0.22.

Clonogenic assays

Clonogenic assays were performed as described in Barclay et al. [48]. Briefly, cells were plated at 250 cells per 60 mm culture dish (n = 3 replicate preparations) in experimental or control medium. Cells were fixed and stained with 0.1% crystal violet in 95% ethanol after 9 days. Colonies (defined as >50 cells) were counted and the total areas were calculated in pixels using Adobe Photoshop Elements. Statistical determinations were calculated by ANOVA with post-hoc analysis by Fisher's LSD test using the statistical software package NCSS 6.0.22.

Quantitative real-time PCR analysis (qPCR)

RNA was isolated from MMECs treated in triplicate with vehicle (0.1% ethanol) or 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ for 24 hrs, quantified and converted to cDNA using reverse transcriptase, and diluted 1:10 in H₂O. qPCR was performed using Bio-Rad iQ SYBR green super-mix (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). The results were analyzed using delta-delta Ct calculations, normalized to Gapdh expression levels, and further normalized to the gene expression levels under vehicle control-treated conditions (error bars show standard deviations). Statistical significance was determined by T-test (critical value = 0.05), n = 3 replicate preparations. IL1 α qPCR primers were from SABiosciences (Frederick, MD, USA). Additional qPCR primer sequences are as follows:

Cdkn1a	f-
GACAAGAGGCCAGTACTTCC,	r-
CAGACACCAGAGTGCAAGAC;	Cdkn1b
GGACTTGGAGAAGCACTGC,	r-
CACCTCCTGCCACTCGTATC;	Cyp24a1
GAAGATGTGAGGAATATGCCCTATTT,	r-
CCGAGTTGTGAATGGCACACT;	Gapdh
TGCGACTTCAACAGCAACTC,	r-
GCCTCTCTTGCTCAGTGTCC.	

shRNA targeting

shRNA vectors were generated as described in Sui and Shi [49]. The IL1 α target site was

GGTAGTGAGACCGACCTCATT. After infection with ecotropic virus, single cell clones were isolated using cloning cylinders, and IL1 α protein expression was evaluated by Western blot after 24 hr treatments with 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ or 0.1% ethanol. Viral infection efficiency was validated by a positive GFP signal encoded by the virus.

Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence was performed as described in [50]. Fluorescent signal images were captured using a Nikon DXM1200F digital camera on a Nikon Eclipse 50i microscope with an EXFO X-Cite 120 Fluorescence Illumination System.

Senescence-associated beta-galactosidase (SA- β -gal) assay

SA- β -gal activity was evaluated as described in Axanova et al.[51].

Results

1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ inhibits mammary cell growth and induces p21 and p27

1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ has been shown to inhibit growth of benign and malignant breast epithelial cells [20,52,53]. We previously isolated normal MMECs from B1/6; 129/SVEV mice. A trypan blue exclusion assay revealed that 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ elicited dose-dependent growth inhibition of MMECs at 48 hrs (Figure 1A). 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ also inhibited clonogenic growth of MMECs (Figure 1B and C). These results verify the growth-suppressive effects of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in normal MMECs. p21 and p27, encoded respectively by Cdkn1a and Cdkn1b, are common downstream targets of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ that contribute to cell cycle arrest in breast cancer cells [53,54]. qPCR showed a non-significant trend toward induction of Cdkn1a and significant induction of Cdkn1b mRNA after 48 hrs of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in MMECs (Figure 2A). However, protein levels of p27 increased by 6 and 24 hours of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$, while p21 protein induction was minimal (Figure 2B, Figure 1). These results were consistent in three experimental replicates; we speculate that the p21 expression is low in these cells, giving a generally weak signal by immunoblot which made quantification difficult. p21 and p27 can be regulated post-transcriptionally and post-translationally, so the disconnect between mRNA and protein expression patterns is likely due to unknown secondary regulation that may occur at earlier (6-24 hrs) versus later (48 hrs) time points [55-58]. Regardless, 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ induced significant growth inhibition of MMECs that was consistent with p27 protein induction.

1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ induces senescence in mammary epithelial cells

We previously reported that 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ induces senescence in prostate cancer cell lines as well as in normal PrP/SC in dose-dependent manners [21,51]. We hypothesized that 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ can induce senescence in mammary epithelial cells as well. We performed a senescence-associated beta galactosidase (SA- β -gal) assay in MMECs treated with

vehicle control (0.1% ethanol) or increasing doses of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ every 48 hours for 96 hours. Senescent cells are characterized by an enlarged, flattened morphology and SA- β -gal expression. We found that 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ significantly induced MMEC senescence (Figure 3), indicating that induction of senescence by 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ is not a prostate-specific effect. Induction of senescence may be considered one mode of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ -mediated growth inhibition in both mammary and prostate cells.

1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ induces IL1 α in mammary epithelial cells

We previously identified IL1 α as a novel, prominent downstream signaling target of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in mouse PrP/SC. To test whether IL1 α is a target of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in mammary cells as well, we investigated its regulation in MMECs in response to 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$. qPCR data showed a 6-fold increase in IL1 α mRNA by 24 hrs of exposure to 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$, which was sustained at 48 hr (Figure 4A). Immunoblot analysis revealed induction of IL1 α protein at 6 hrs and more robust induction at 24 and 48 hrs. (Figure 4B, Figure 2). IL1 α protein was virtually undetectable in the absence of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$. We previously identified a putative vitamin D response element (VDRE) in the promoter region of IL1 α that aligns with established VDREs in other targets of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ [21], so it is possible that IL1 α is a direct transcriptional target of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$. Together with our previous report we identify IL1 α as a downstream target of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in both mammary and prostate epithelial cells [21].

Cellular localization of IL1 α and IL1R1 in mammary epithelial cells

IL1 α is rarely secreted from epithelial cells [21,59], but it can be tethered to the cell membrane or shuttled to the nucleus via its nuclear localization sequence. This distinction is important because the cellular localization of IL1 α likely determines its downstream effects [39]. We used immunofluorescence to visualize the cellular localization of IL1 α in MMECs treated with 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ or vehicle control (0.1% ethanol) for 24 and 48 hrs. IL1 α was localized to the nuclear and cytoplasmic compartments of MMECs treated with 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ for both 24 and 48 hours (Figure 5A, arrows). As expected, IL1 α signal was not detected in the ethanol control-treated cells, nor was it detected under negative control conditions (no primary antibody, Figure 5A). The localization of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ -induced IL1 α mirrors that in the prostate stem cell [21] and suggests an intracrine function for IL1 α in response to 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$.

Previous reports have demonstrated cellular uptake and intracellular interaction of IL1R1 with IL1 α [60,61]. In control-treated MMECs, we observed IL1R1 signal at the edges of the cell membranes at both 24 and 48 hours (Figure 5B, arrows). Interestingly, in MMECs treated with 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$, IL1R1 appeared to be localized both at the edges of the membrane and in the cytoplasmic compartment, especially at 48 hours (Figure 5B, arrows). A similar pattern was observed in the prostate stem cell [21], which contributes to speculation that IL1 α may interact with IL1R1 and promote intracellular translocation. Further studies will be necessary to investigate a possible intracellular role of the IL1R1/ IL1 α complex. To our

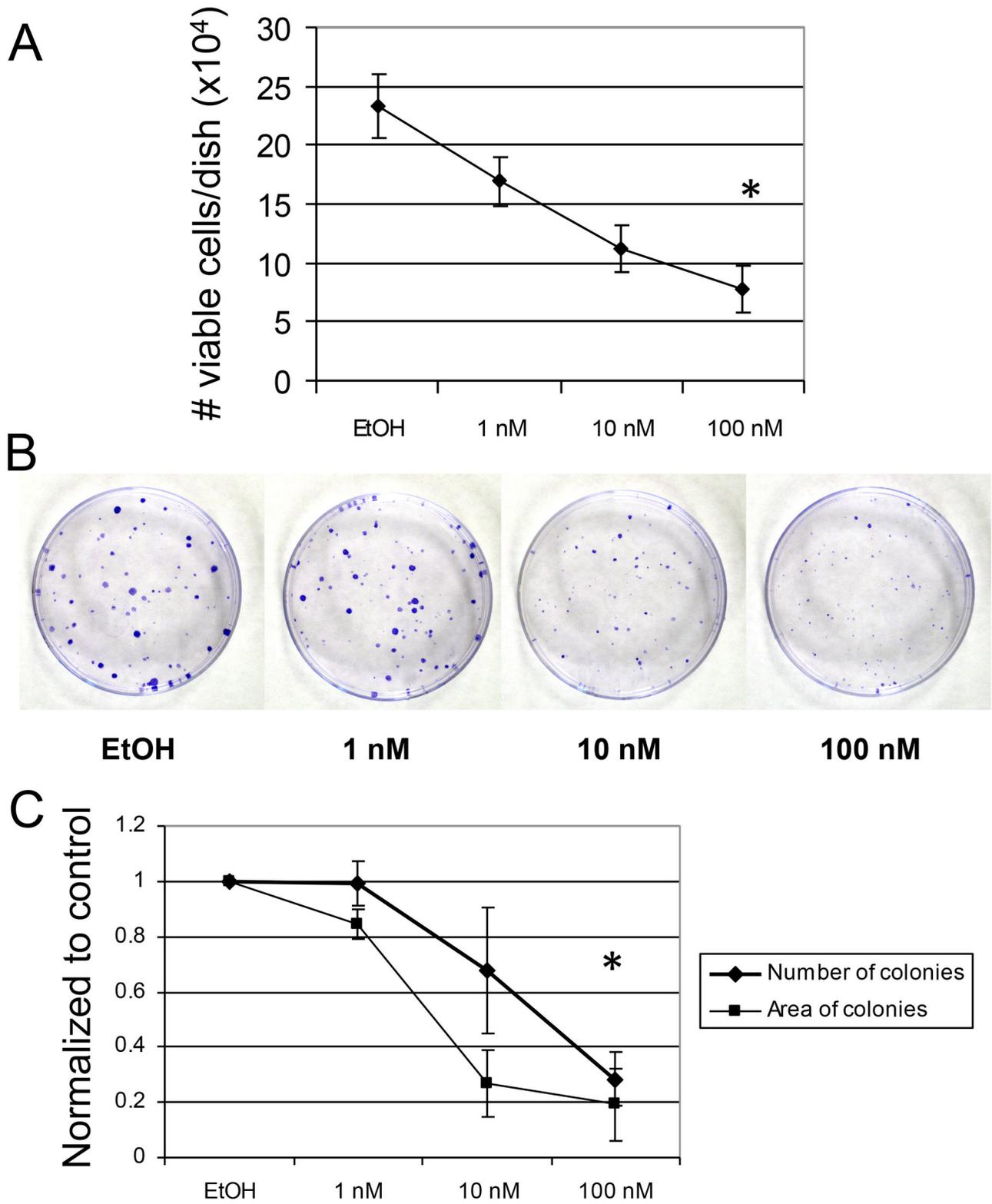


Figure 1. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ inhibits MMEC growth. (A) MMECs were treated with the indicated doses of 1,25(OH)₂D₃ or 0.1% vehicle control (EtOH) for 48 hours. Viable cells were counted according to trypan blue exclusion. * = p < 0.05. (B) Representative images from clonogenic assays, quantified in (C). * = p < 0.05.

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0081367.g001

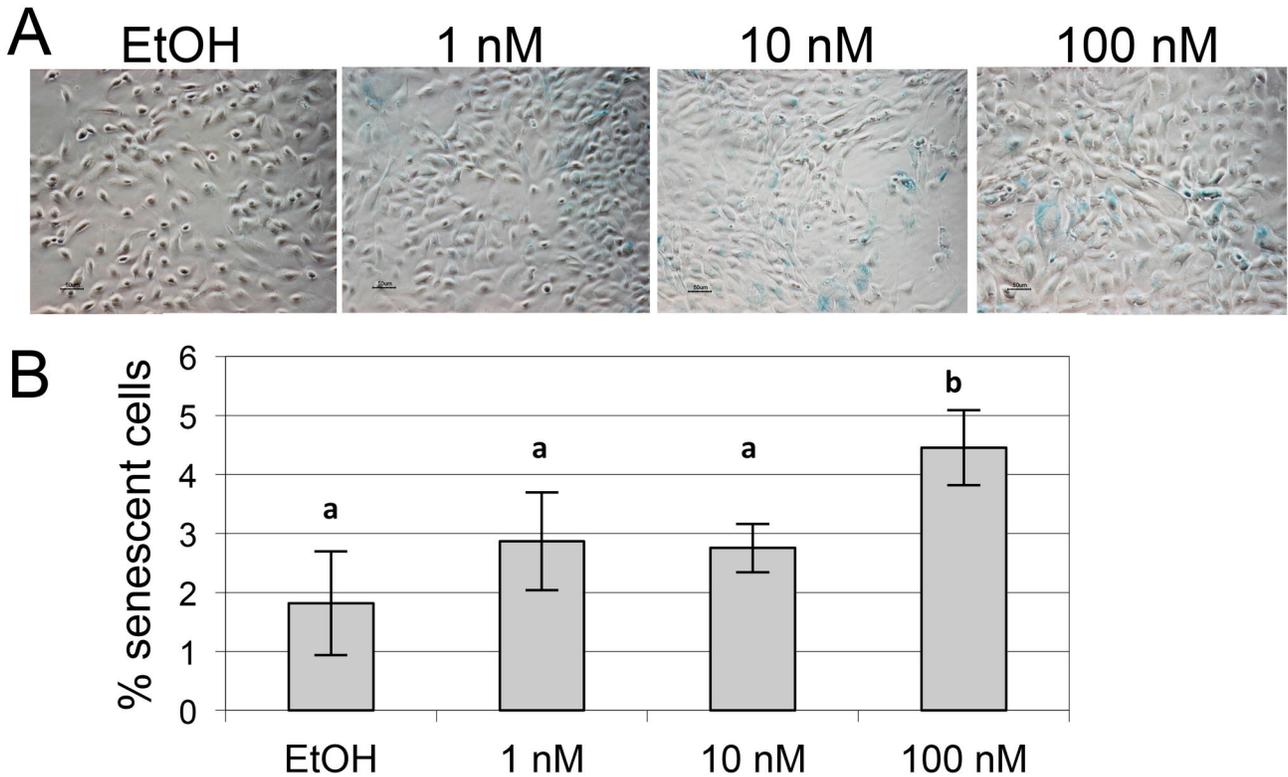


Figure 3. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ induces senescence of MMECs. (A) Representative images from the SA-β-gal assays quantified in (B). 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ significantly induced senescence compared to the control treatment (EtOH). Bars labeled “a” or “b” are statistically significantly different from each other according to ANOVA and post-hoc Fisher’s LSD test (n = 3 replicates, ~160 cells quantified in each of 10 fields of view per replicate, critical value = 0.05).

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0081367.g003

HUVECs, prostate cells, and fibroblasts [35,36,38]. However, induction of senescence by 1,25(OH)₂D₃ persisted upon knockdown of IL1α, suggesting that other signaling targets, such as p27, are likely mediate 1,25(OH)₂D₃-induced senescence in MMECs (Figure 4). Reports in prostate cancer models suggest that reduction or inhibition of p27 blocks induction of senescence [68,69], and investigations into the precise roles of p27 and IL1α in senescence in multiple cell types are ongoing.

IL1α activity has previously been reported in breast cancer cells outside of the context of vitamin D₃. In 1988, recombinant IL1α was first reported to inhibit growth of estrogen-dependent breast cancer cell lines MDA-MB-415 and MCF-7, but not that of hormone-independent breast cancer cell lines (HS-578-T and MDA-231) [27,70]. Later, IL1α was shown to inhibit estrogen-mediated growth and to decrease estrogen receptor levels in MCF-7 breast cancer cells [71], establishing an intersection between cytokine and hormonal signaling in mammary cells. Subsequent studies presented a correlation between IL1α expression, breast cancer severity, and ER-negativity [72,73], but no functional connections have been established.

Due to the expression of endogenous IL1RI in MMECs, we can interrogate whether recombinant IL1α is sufficient to inhibit

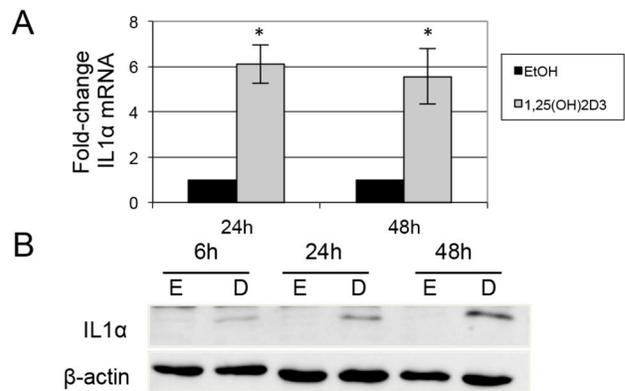


Figure 4. 1,25(OH)₂D₃ induces IL1α mRNA and protein in MMECs. (A) qPCR revealed a 5 to 6-fold induction of IL1α mRNA by 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃. * = p < 0.001. (B) 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ (D) induced IL1α protein at 6, 24, and 48 hours. Very little IL1α was present in the cells treated with ethanol control (E).

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0081367.g004

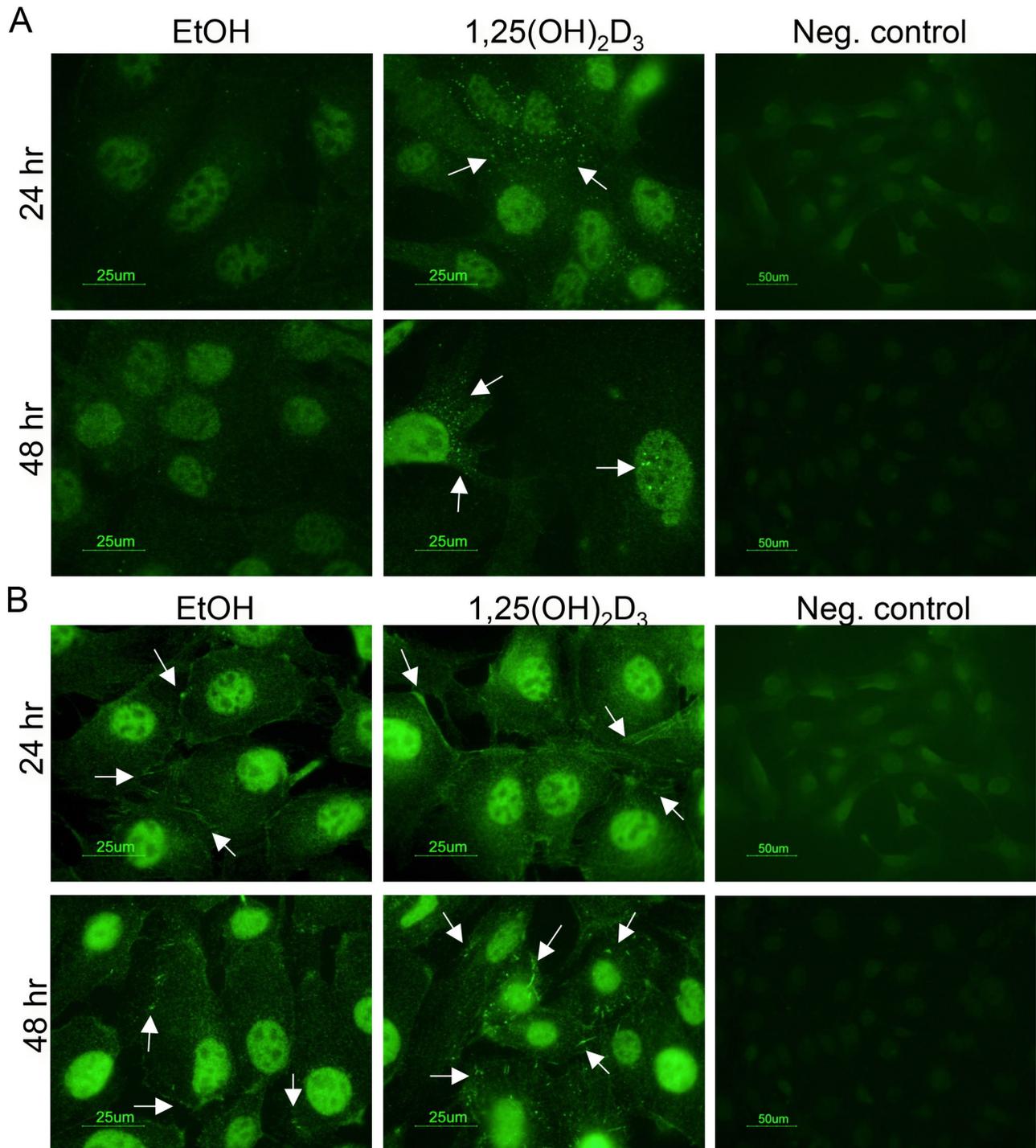


Figure 5. Cellular localization of IL1 α and IL1R1 in MMECs. (A) Punctate IL1 α signals (arrows) were detected in the nuclear and cytoplasmic compartments of MMECs upon 24 and 48 hr treatments with 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃. IL1 α was undetected in 0.1% vehicle control-treated cells (EtOH) and under negative control conditions (no primary antibody). (B) IL1R1 signal was detected at the edges of the cell membranes at 24 and 48 hours in MMECs treated with 0.1% vehicle control (EtOH, arrows). IL1R1 was detected both at the edges of the cells and within the cytoplasmic compartments after treatment with 100 nM 1,25(OH)₂D₃ for 48 hrs (arrows). No signal was detected under negative control conditions.

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0081367.g005

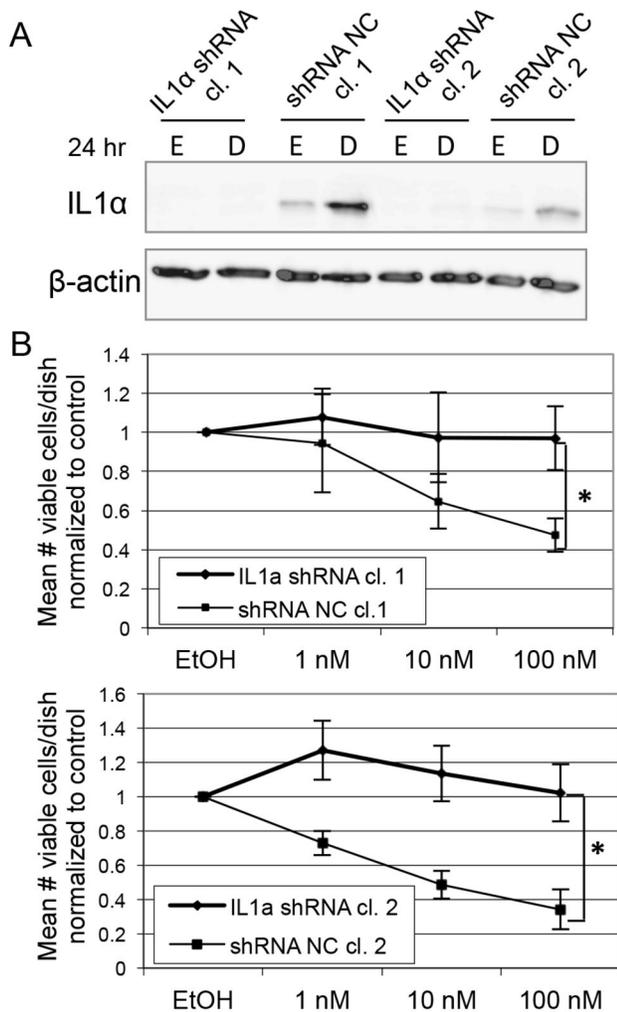


Figure 6. IL1 α mediates the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ in MMECs. (A) Western blot for IL1 α expression in MMEC clones (cl.) infected with IL1 α shRNA or negative control shRNA (shRNA NC). E = 0.1% ethanol, D = 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$. (B) 48 hr trypan blue exclusion assays in MMEC clones infected with IL1 α shRNA or control shRNA. * = $p < 0.05$.

doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0081367.g006

MMEC growth, rescue 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ -mediated growth inhibition in IL1 α knockdown cells, induce p27, and/or induce senescence. However, because intracellular IL1 α in epithelial cells likely has a different mode of action from extracellular IL1 α [39,59], we have also generated IL1 α overexpression vectors with which to infect MMECs and IL1 α knock-down MMECs in order to further elucidate the contributions of nuclear, membrane-bound, and secreted IL1 α signaling in MMEC survival and proliferation. Whether knocking down IL1R1

also attenuates the anti-proliferative effects of 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ remains to be evaluated.

As approaches to breast cancer treatment become more complex, the importance of chemoprevention is increasingly evident. While *in vitro* studies have shown that estrogen receptor (ER)-positive breast cancer cell lines are directly growth-inhibited by 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$, ER-negative tumor invasion and angiogenesis are indirectly inhibited by 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ [52,53]. However, 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ may be more beneficial in the chemopreventative setting; it is thought to regulate differentiation and maintain mammary gland homeostasis in the presence of mitogenic signals from the microenvironment [53]. If 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ signaling is lacking or impaired, estrogen-stimulated epithelial proliferation may escape regulatory control. Our study adds to those supporting the relevance of vitamin D $_3$ as a chemopreventative agent, and we report a novel mechanistic role for IL1 α in the 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ -mediated growth regulation of normal mammary epithelial cells.

Supporting Information

Figure S1. Full scans of Western blots for p27, p21 (long exposure), and β actin (short exposure) from Figure 2. The p21 signal is weak.

(TIF)

Figure S2. Full scan of Western blot for IL1 α and β actin from Figure 4.

(TIF)

Figure S3. IL1 α knockdown cells are responsive to 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$. qPCR shows robust induction of Cyp24a1 by 100 nM 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ (1,25D3) at 24 hrs in MMEC clones (cl.) infected with negative control (NC) and IL1 α shRNA.

(TIF)

Figure S4. 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ induces senescence in the absence of IL1 α . Quantification of senescence-associated beta galactosidase assays revealed that 1,25(OH) $_2$ D $_3$ significantly induced senescence compared to the control treatment (EtOH). Bars labeled "a," "b," or "c" are statistically significantly different from each other according to ANOVA and post-hoc Fisher's LSD test ($n = 3$ replicates, ~ 160 cells quantified in each of 10 fields of view per replicate, critical value = 0.05).

(TIF)

Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: SLM SDC. Performed the experiments: SLM LS. Analyzed the data: SLM LS SDC. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: SDC. Wrote the manuscript: SLM SDC.

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