

Nuclear IKK activity leads to dysregulated Notch-dependent gene expression in colorectal cancer

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Nuclear functions for I κ B kinase (IKK), including phosphorylation of histone H3 and nuclear corepressors, have been recently described. Here, we show that IKK is activated in colorectal tumors concomitant with the presence of phosphorylated SMRT (silencing mediator of retinoic acid and thyroid hormone receptor) corepressor that is aberrantly localized in the cytoplasm. In these tumors, IKK α associates to the chromatin of specific Notch targets, leading to the release of SMRT. Abrogation of IKK activity by BAY11-7082 or by expressing dominant negative IKK α restores the association of SMRT with Notch target genes, resulting in specific gene repression. Finally, BAY11-7082 significantly reduces tumor size in colorectal cancer xenografts (CRC-Xs) implanted in nude mice.

hes1 | SMRT | corepressor

Solid tumors are the most common type of cancer and their malignancy is mainly associated with increased proliferation capacity, decreased apoptosis and as well as the ability to keep away from the differentiation program. To achieve these characteristics, colorectal cancer cells accumulate multiple mutations in specific sets of genes. Mutation of adenomatous polyposis coli (APC) that leads to the accumulation of nuclear β -catenin, is the most prevalent event in this multistep process (1, 2). However not only β -catenin-dependent transcription is required for colorectal cancer progression, because abrogation of the Notch pathway prevents tumorigenesis in APC^{min/+} mice whereas activation of Notch results in the expansion of the progenitor compartment in the intestine (3, 4). A role for Notch signaling in cancer has extensively been reported (reviewed in ref. 5) and increased expression of the Notch-target gene *hes1* is a common feature in many neoplasias such as intestinal adenomas (3, 6), meningiomas (7), medulloblastomas (8), and leukemias (9). This observation is consistent with the role of Notch-target genes in maintaining the undifferentiated phenotype in the proliferative compartments of the intestinal epithelium (4) and other tissues (10–14).

NF κ B signaling pathway is involved in inflammatory and immune responses as well as in tumor development in breast, liver or intestine (15, 16). In the classical NF κ B pathway, a ternary I κ B kinase complex (IKK) formed by IKK α , IKK β , and NF κ B essential modulator (NEMO) is responsible for inducing I κ B phosphorylation, thus leading to the activation of the NF κ B pathway. An alternative pathway involving the activation of IKK α is responsible for phosphorylating p100, inducing its processing to p52 that together with RelB activates specific gene transcription (reviewed in ref. 17). Recently, chromatin-associated functions for IKK have been described (18–23). For example, in response to TNF- α , EGF, or estrogens, IKK α associates with downstream target promoters to phosphorylate components of the transcriptional complex including Ser-10 of histone 3, resulting in gene activation (18, 21–23). Laminin attachment induces the association of IKK α to the *cIAP2* and

IL-8 promoters to phosphorylate Ser-2410 of the nuclear corepressor SMRT (silencing mediator of retinoic acid and thyroid hormone receptor), promoting its release and permitting transcriptional activation (20). TNF- α also induces recruitment of IKK to the Notch targets *hes1* and *herp2/hrt1* leading to gene activation (19), however the possibility that IKK regulate Notch target genes in colorectal cancer remains to be elucidated.

In this work, we show that IKK activity plays an NF κ B-independent role in colorectal cancer. In these cancer cells, IKK α is aberrantly activated and recruited to the chromatin in a variety of Notch targets, including *hes1*, *hes5*, and *herp2*, leading to the release of SMRT and the transcriptional activation of these genes. In addition, inhibition of IKK activity restores the association of SMRT with the chromatin directly affecting specific gene transcription, apoptosis and tumor cell growth in nude mice.

Results

To investigate whether the NF κ B pathway plays a role in colorectal cancer, we analyzed the IKK activity with the α -P-IKK α/β antibody (20) in different cancer cell lines. As shown in Fig. 1A, total levels of IKK α protein were comparable among cancer cells and HEK-293 or HS27 controls. In contrast, activated/phosphorylated IKK proteins were predominantly detected in tumor cell lines. To test whether IKK activity resulted in the activation of the classical NF κ B pathway, we determined the subcellular distribution of p65 and NF κ B DNA binding activity by EMSA. We did not detect nuclear p65 [supporting information (SI) Fig. 5A and B] or NF κ B-binding activity in the nuclear extracts from these cells (Fig. 1B) in basal conditions. As a control, TNF- α treatment resulted in both nuclear translocation of p65 (data not shown) and increased DNA-binding activity in HCT116 colorectal cancer cells (Fig. 1B), indicating that the NF κ B pathway is not impaired. These results indicate that the canonical NF κ B pathway is not active in colorectal cancer cell lines and are consistent with the presence of comparable levels of I κ B α protein in tumor and nontransformed control cells (SI Fig. 5C). In addition, we did not detect the presence of the

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Abbreviations: IKK, I κ B kinase; IHC, immunohistochemistry; CRC-X, colorectal cancer xenograft.

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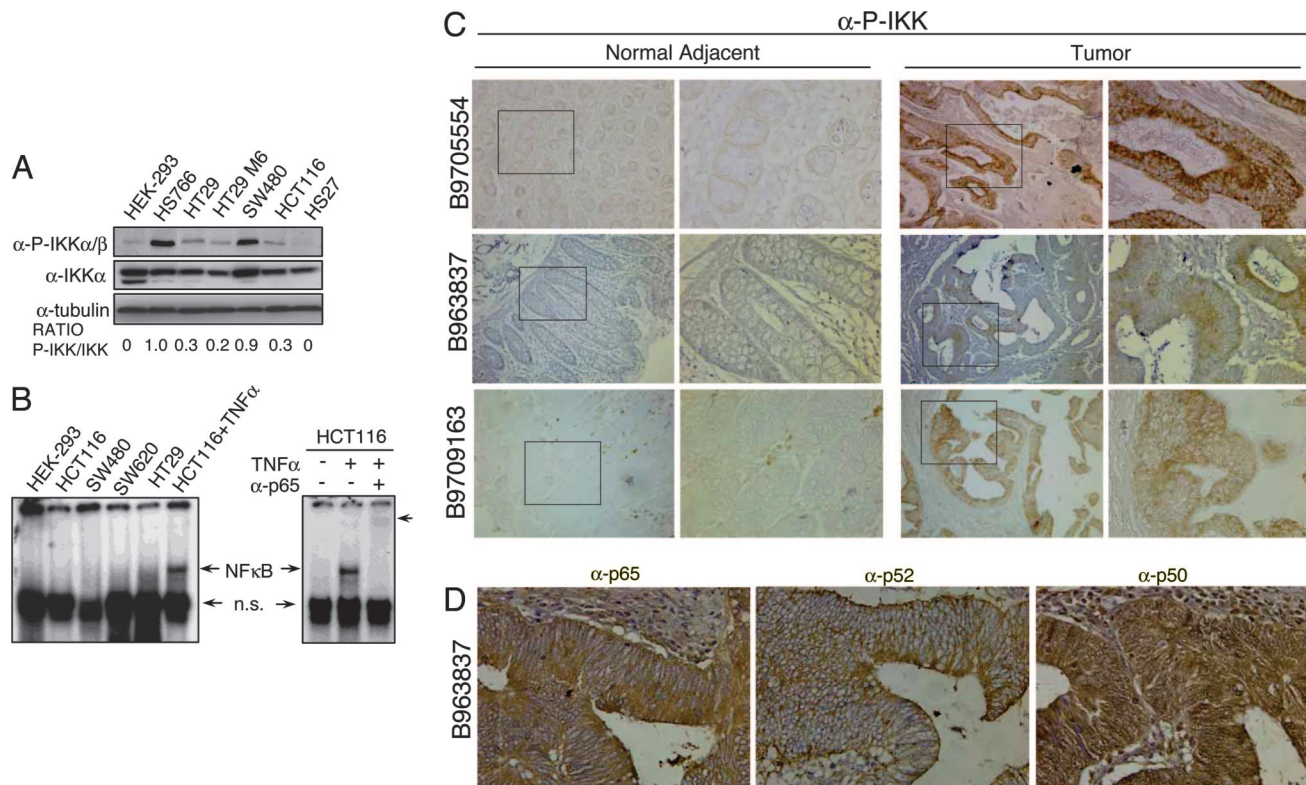


Fig. 1. IKK activation in colorectal and pancreatic cancer cell lines. (A) Western blot analysis of P-IKK α/β and total IKK α from the different cancer cell lines compared with HEK-293 and HS27. α -tubulin is used as a loading control. (B) Different cell lines were tested for NF κ B-binding activity by EMSA. p65-containing complexes are indicated as NF κ B. Arrowhead indicates the supershift with α -p65 antibody. (C) IHC staining of three representative primary colon tumor sections and normal adjacent tissue with α -P-IKK α/β . Images were obtained at $\times 100$ and $\times 600$. (D) IHC staining of serial sections from a representative primary colorectal tumor with the indicated antibodies. Images were obtained at $\times 400$.

active/processed p52 protein in these cell lines by Western blot (SI Fig. 5D), indicating that the alternative NF κ B pathway was not activated.

We next tested whether IKK were activated in primary colorectal tumors. By immunohistochemistry (IHC), we detected phosphorylated IKK in all tested tumor tissues at different stages of transformation ($n = 9$) (Fig. 1C). We also determined the subcellular distribution of p50, p65, and p52 in these samples and observed that both p65 and p52 were exclusively cytoplasmic in all colorectal tumors ($n = 4$) whereas p50 was homogeneously distributed in the cell (Fig. 1D and SI Fig. 6A). We also performed ChIP assays with α -p65 and α -p52 antibodies, and we did not detect a consistent interaction of these proteins with the promoters of different tumor-related NF κ B-target genes (SI Fig. 6B). Altogether, these results demonstrate that NF κ B pathway is not active in colorectal tumors with phosphorylated/activated IKK.

Because it has been shown that IKK α can activate gene transcription by directly phosphorylating nuclear substrates (20–22) we speculated that IKKs may play a nuclear function in colorectal cancer cells. By subcellular fractionation followed by Western blot analysis, we first determined the subcellular distribution of IKK α in different cancer cell lines. In Fig. 2A, we show that IKK α is present in the nucleus of most colorectal cancer cells but not in HS27 or HEK-293 control cells. We next tested the capability of this nuclear IKK to phosphorylate SMRT. To do this with this aim, we precipitated IKK α from normal and tumor nuclear extracts and tested the kinase activity of the precipitates on a GST-SMRT (amino acids 2321–2525). In Fig. 2B, we show that nuclear IKK α , immunoprecipitated from SW480, HCT116, and HT29-M6 colorectal cancer cells, efficiently phosphorylates the GST-SMRT construct containing Ser-2410, but not a mutant GST-SMRT S2410A

(SI Fig. 7A). To confirm that the IKK α subunit was responsible for SMRT phosphorylation, we transfected HCT116 cells with a dominant negative IKK α mutant and tested the kinase activity of total cell extracts on the GST-SMRT construct. As seen in Fig. 2C, phosphorylation of GST-SMRT was completely abrogated by the expression of the DN-IKK α . Because IKK α -dependent phosphorylation of Ser-2410 abrogates the SMRT repression function (20), we investigated the ability of WT or the mutant SMRT_{S2410A} to repress the previously reported target *hes1* (24) in normal or colorectal tumor cell lines. By cotransfecting a *hes1*-luc reporter together with activated Notch1-IC we showed that ectopically expressed SMRTwt failed to repress the Notch-dependent *hes1* activity in SW480 cells and HCT-116 cells compared with the control HEK-293 or HS27. As expected, the SMRT_{S2410A} mutant was more efficient than the WT in repressing *hes1*-luc in tumor cells (Fig. 2D).

To investigate whether IKK-mediated phosphorylation of SMRT is occurring in primary colorectal tumors, we performed IHC on serial sections from colorectal tumor samples compared with adjacent normal tissue. Similar to Fig. 1C, we detected phosphorylated IKK in all tumor tissues but not in normal adjacent mucosa (Fig. 2E). In all tested samples ($n = 9$), the tumor areas containing active IKK showed SMRT phosphorylation at Ser-2410 (Fig. 2E and SI Fig. 7B). Because SMRT phosphorylation has been associated with its nuclear export (20, 25, 26), we next analyzed the subcellular distribution of SMRT in these colorectal tumor samples. As shown in Fig. 2E, SMRT corepressor is primarily localized in the nucleus in normal colorectal tissues whereas its distribution is mainly cytoplasmic or excluded from the nucleus in tumors ($n = 7$). These results and those obtained from tumor cell lines strongly suggest that in colorectal carcinomas, IKK α is constitutively active and participate in the specific phosphorylation of SMRT.

Comparable results were obtained with the antiapoptotic gene *cIAP2* (data not shown) whereas we did not detect IKK α bound to the *c-myc* (Fig. 3A) or the *IL6* (data not shown) promoters. Of note, differences in the amplification efficiency among the different xenografts correlate with differences in the amount of human tissue enrichment as observed by microscopic analysis (data not shown). We also tested whether the presence of IKK α correlated with phosphorylation of H3 in tumor samples. We did not detect a consistent association between IKK α recruitment and H3 phosphorylation in these samples (SI Fig. 8), suggesting that H3 is not the main target for chromatin-bound IKK α in colorectal tumors.

To further demonstrate that recruitment of IKK α to the chromatin and SMRT release correlates with the specific activation of gene transcription, we determined the expression levels of Notch target genes (*hes1*, *hes5*, *herp2/hrt1*) by RT-PCR in both CRC-X samples (Fig. 3B) and five primary CRC paired with normal adjacent mucosa (Fig. 3D). Our results showed that *hes1* and *herp2* genes are overexpressed in CRC-X coinciding with IKK α recruitment. In contrast we only detected increased expression of *hes5* in CRC-X34 suggesting that other mechanisms contribute to regulate *hes5* expression. Most important, we detected up-regulation of *hes1* and *herp2/hrt1* in three of five, and of *hes5* in one of five primary CRC tumor samples compared with normal controls (Fig. 3D). By immunostaining we showed that Hes1 protein was restricted to scarce cells in the bottom of the crypt in normal colon mucosa (Fig. 3C and E) likely representing the proliferating/progenitor compartment as described in adult small intestine (3, 27) whereas high levels of Hes1 protein were detected in virtually all of the tumor tissues (Fig. 3C and E).

To directly demonstrate that IKK activity is responsible for the release of SMRT from specific promoters in cancer cells, we performed ChIP assays from cells treated with the IKK inhibitor BAY11-7082 (28) that prevents IKK α -mediated SMRT phosphorylation (29). Our results demonstrated that treatment with BAY11-7082 is sufficient to increase the association of SMRT to the *hes1* and *hes5* promoters in HCT116, HT29M6 and SW480 cells, nicely correlating with their transcriptional repression (Fig. 4A). In contrast, inhibition of the canonical NF κ B pathway by I κ B α_{32-36} did not affect *hes1* transcriptional activity in HCT116 suggesting that the effect of BAY11-7082 on *hes1* gene is IKK-dependent but NF κ B-independent (SI Fig. 9). To further confirm the specific involvement of the IKK α subunit in the activation of endogenous Notch target genes in colorectal cancer cells, we transfected SW480 cells with the DN-IKK α and measured mRNA levels by RT-PCR. As shown in Fig. 4B, both *hes1* and *herp2/hrt1* genes were down-regulated in DN-IKK α expressing cells compared with the control. Consistent with this result, SMRT association to the *hes1* promoter is restored in the presence of the DN-IKK α (SI Fig. 10).

It has been previously shown that IKK inhibitor BAY11-7085 induces apoptosis and inhibits cell growth of colorectal cancer cell lines (30). To check the effect of the IKK inhibitor BAY11-7082 on colorectal cancer cells, we cultured SW480 (Fig. 4C) and HT29M6 (SI Fig. 11) cell lines with DMSO or BAY11-7082 and analyzed cell growth and apoptosis. In both experimental conditions, we detected a similar number of colonies after three days in culture, however, colony size was greatly reduced in the BAY11-7082 treated cultures, consistent with a lower cell count. The decrease in the number of cells because of the BAY11-7082 treatment correlates with increased apoptosis as detected by AnnexinV staining (Fig. 4C and SI Fig. 11).

To determine the potential effect of BAY11-7082 on an *in vivo* system, we transplanted equivalent pieces (50–75 mg) of CRC-X8 and CRC-X34 s.c. in nude mice ($n = 40$), and, 1 week after implantation, we treated the animals for 3 weeks with the drug (5 μ g/g) or with the vehicle DMSO. As shown in Fig. 4D in the animals treated with BAY11-7082, tumor growth was significantly reduced at the end of the treatment ($P = 0.02$) in both CRC-X8 and

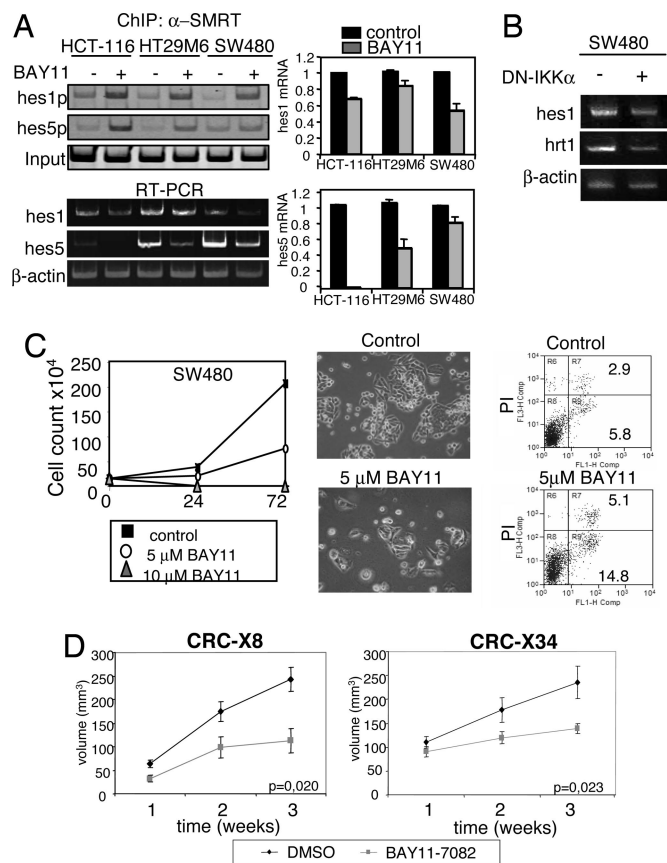


Fig. 4. IKK-target genes are up-regulated in primary tumors and inhibition of IKK reduces tumor volume *in vivo*. (A) ChIP with α -SMRT antibody and PCR detection of the *hes1* and *hes5* gene and mRNA expression by semiquantitative RT-PCR from HCT-116, HT29M6, and SW480 treated with DMSO or BAY11-7082 for 48 h. (B) Semiquantitative RT-PCR showing the expression levels of *hes1* and *hrt1/herp2* in SW480 cells transfected with control vector or DN-IKK α . (C) Representative culture of SW480 cells after 3-day treatment with DMSO or BAY11-7082. (Left) Graphs represent daily cell counts from cultures treated with the indicated concentrations of BAY11-7082. (Center) Photographs show a representative image of the cultures at day 3 of treatment. Images were obtained in an Olympus IX-10 at $\times 100$. (Right) Flow cytometry analysis of AnnexinV staining. (D) CRC-X8 and CRC-X34 tumors were implanted s.c. in nude mice ($n = 40$). Ten days after transplantation, the animals were treated with BAY11-7082 or DMSO as a control. Tumors were measured weekly, and the results are presented as mean \pm SEM. Student's *t* test for independent analysis was applied to evaluate differences in tumor volume [$A(B^2)/n/6$] between treated and control mice.

CRC-X34 compared with the animals treated with DMSO, similar to that observed in cell cultures.

Altogether, our results indicate that nuclear IKK α activity induces phosphorylation of chromatin associated SMRT thus modulating the expression of specific genes such as *hes1* and *herp2/hrt1* in colorectal cancer cells. Inhibition of IKK activity restores the normal transcriptional level of these genes leading to a decrease in cell proliferation and increased apoptosis in tumor cells.

Discussion

In the present study, we have identified a role for IKK α in colorectal carcinomas, independent of the NF κ B pathway. Increased IKK activity in colorectal tumors nicely correlates with SMRT phosphorylation and with its cytoplasmic translocation. At the chromatin level, association of IKK α to specific Notch target promoters results in the release of chromatin-bound SMRT thus activating *hes1*, *hes5*, or *herp2/hrt1* transcription.

Constitutive activation of NF κ B has been found in many types of tumor cells (for review, see refs. 31 and 32). Most of these studies report increased IKK activity that results in phosphorylation of I κ B α (33, 34), however minor or no changes in the subcellular localization of p65 have been described in most of the tumor cells (34–36). Because activation of the canonical NF κ B pathway requires the nuclear translocation of p65 (for review, see ref. 37), the role of this pathway in tumorigenesis is not clearly understood. We have now demonstrated that colorectal cancer cell lines and primary CRC show increased IKK activity that is concomitant with undetectable levels of nuclear p65 and p52. This result is consistent with the absence of p65 and p52 in different NF κ B-target genes as detected by ChIP analysis. Together these results indicate that NF κ B activation is not the main consequence of IKK activity in colorectal tumors, maybe reflecting substrate specificity of different IKK complexes; Alternatively, in some conditions I κ B α could be Lys-63-linked polyubiquitinated instead of Lys-48 after phosphorylation, protecting the protein from degradation such is the case for TNF receptor-associated factor (TRAF) 2, TRAF6, or NEMO (38).

There is increasing evidence supporting the idea that IKKs are important in directly regulating transcription of NF κ B-dependent but also NF κ B-independent genes. In this sense, some nuclear proteins such as histone H3, estrogen receptor (ER), and the SMRT corepressor are direct substrates for IKK α kinase activity (18, 20, 21, 23). Nuclear corepressors are crucial for the formation of repression complexes; therefore, changes in their subcellular distribution should have striking effects on the overall regulation of transcription (39). This is the case for cytoplasmic translocation of N-CoR after Akt-dependent phosphorylation that is required for astrocyte differentiation (40), the aberrant recruitment of SMRT by PML-RAR in myeloid leukemias (41), or down-regulation of SMRT in non-Hodgkin lymphomas (42). We show that active IKKs from colon tumor cells are able to specifically phosphorylate Ser-2410 of SMRT that has been previously associated with its cytoplasmic translocation and degradation (20). This observation is consistent with our finding that SMRT is aberrantly distributed in all of the primary tumors tested. Moreover, not only subcellular distribution but also association of SMRT and IKK α with the chromatin is affected in colorectal cancer cells. We detected high levels of IKK α bound to *hes1*, *hes5*, and *herp2/hrt1* promoters in colon tumor cells compared with normal colon tissue whereas association of SMRT with these promoters was preferentially found in normal tissues. In contrast, we did not detect association of IKK α with the *c-myc* promoter, although it is possible that other SMRT regulated genes that are important in cancer are also affected by this mechanism.

Chromatin-associated IKK α was shown to be important in the transcriptional activation of NF κ B-target genes such as IL-6 and I κ B α (18, 21), but also in NF κ B-independent genes such as *c-fos* (22). In all these reports, the mechanism for IKK α regulation relies on their ability to phosphorylate Ser-10 of histone H3. In our study, we did not detect a significant correlation between the presence of chromatin-bound IKK α and histone H3 phosphorylation in tumor samples, suggesting that different kinases phosphorylate histone H3 in specific genes (20, 43). More recently the kinase activity of IKK α has also been implicated on estrogen-mediated gene activation through phosphorylation of estrogen receptor (23), and we previously showed that IKK is important in the TNF- α -dependent regulation of the classical Notch target genes *hes1* or *herp2/hrt1* (19). Together with our current data, these results suggest that IKK α may operate downstream of different signaling pathways to regulate specific sets of genes.

The fact that IKK activity can regulate gene transcription by directly phosphorylating nuclear substrates in tumor cells is extremely important to design specific inhibitors for cancer therapy (44). In this sense, we have been able to inhibit the release of the SMRT corepressor from the chromatin with the IKK inhibitor

BAY11-7082 and to inhibit tumor cell growth. We have used this inhibitor to demonstrate the therapeutic effects on implanted solid tumor fragments, in contrast with previous experiments with BAY11-7085 in HT29 cell-derived xenografts (30). Unfortunately this compound inhibits both IKK α and IKK β activity and I κ B α phosphorylation (28), blocking the classical NF κ B pathway, and, although we demonstrate that NF κ B-independent functions of IKK on Notch targets are inhibited by BAY11-7082, we cannot exclude that inhibition of basal NF κ B activity may contribute to some of the anti-neoplastic effects observed with this compound. Based on our results, we propose that IKK α inhibitors designed to abrogate nuclear IKK functions, including SMRT phosphorylation, may be useful tools for colorectal cancer therapy.

Methods

Plasmids. Expression vectors for Notch1-IC (45), *hes1p*-luc (46), flag-SMRT, flag-SMRT Ser2410Ala (20), and the kinase defective IKK α S176A/S180A mutant (47) have been described.

Antibodies. α -I κ B α (sc-1643), α -p65 (sc-109), α -p50 (sc-7178), α -p52 (sc-7386), α -IKK β (sc-7330), α -HDAC1 (sc-7872), and α -Hes1 (sc-13844) were purchased from Santa Cruz Biotechnology (Santa Cruz, CA). α -IKK α (op-133) was purchased from Oncogen (La Jolla, CA). α -P-IKK α -Ser-180/IKK β -Ser-181 (2681), α -SMRT (06-891), α -P-Ser-10-H3 (06-570) were purchased from Upstate (Charlottesville, VA) and α - α tubulin from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Phosphospecific SMRT antibody α -P-S2410 has been described (20). Secondary antibodies conjugated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP) were from DAKO (Glostrup, Denmark, with AlexaFluor488 (A-11055) and 546 (A-11056) from Molecular Probes (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) and Cy3-coupled tyramide was from PerkinElmer (Wellesley, MA).

Cell Lines and Culture Reagents. HEK-293, HS27, HT-29, HT-29 M6, HCT-116, CaCo2, SW480, and MCF7 were cultured in DMEM 10% FBS. Human TNF- α is from Preprotech and was used at 40 ng/ml. BAY11-7082 was from Calbiochem (Darmstadt, Germany) (7082) and was used at 5–10 μ M. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) (Sigma) was used at 10 μ g/ml.

Cell Fractionation. Nuclei were isolated in 0.1% Nonidet P-40/PBS for 5 min on ice, followed by centrifugation at 720 \times g and were lysed for 30 min in 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mM NaCl, 1% Nonidet P-40, 5 mM EGTA, 5 mM EDTA, 20 mM NaF, and complete protease inhibitor mixture (Roche). The supernatant was the cytoplasmic fraction.

EMSA. [γ - 32 P]ATP-labeled oligonucleotide containing NF κ B-binding sites of the MMP9 promoter (5'-TGCCCCATGGAAT-TCCCCAA-3') was incubated with 15 μ g of nuclear cell extracts under standard conditions as described (48). Two micrograms of α -p65 (sc-109) was used for supershift experiments.

Protein Kinase Assays. Nuclei from cells were isolated and lysed for 30 min at 4°C in 500 μ l of PBS containing 0.5% Triton X-100, 1 mM EDTA, 100 mM Na-orthovanadate, 0.25 mM PMSF, and complete protease inhibitor mixture (Roche, Basel, Switzerland). After centrifugation, supernatants were precleared for 2 h twice and incubated with 1 μ g of the α -IKK α overnight at 4°C. After incubation with Protein A-Sepharose beads, precipitates were washed and assayed for kinase activity on GST-SMRTwt or GST-SMRTS2410A.

Immunofluorescence. Slides were fixed with -20°C methanol and permeabilized in 10% FBS, 0.3% Triton X-100 (Pierce, Rockford, IL), and 5% nonfat milk in PBS. Samples were stained with α -hes1 (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) in 10% FBS, 5% nonfat milk in PBS and HRP-conjugated rabbit α -goat antibody (Dako) and developed

with Cy3-coupled tyramide (PerkinElmer). Sections were mounted in Vectashield medium with DAPI (Vector, Brussels, Belgium).

Cell lines were fixed in 3% paraformaldehyde, permeabilized, incubated with primary and secondary antibodies, and mounted with Vectashield propidium iodide. Stainings were visualized in an Olympus BX-60 microscope or a Leica TCS-NT laser scanning confocal microscope with the $\times 63$ Leitz Plan-Apo objective (NA 1.4). Images were edited on Adobe Photoshop.

IHC. For histological analysis, samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, dehydrated, and paraffin-embedded. Sections were hydrated and permeabilized, and antigen retrieval was achieved by boiling in 20 mM sodium citrate (pH 6.0) (2 min). HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies were detected with the diaminobenzidine peroxidase substrate kit (Dako Cytomation)

Human Samples and Tumor Xenografts. Six human CRC were obtained from patients without previous cytotoxic therapy, cut into pieces of ≈ 2 mm³, and implanted s.c. in 5-week-old male *nu/nu* Swiss mice (Harlan, France). Animals were housed in a sterile environment, and all experiments were approved by the Institutional Animal Care Committee. All CRC-X were analyzed in < 5 passage. Genotyping using a set of microsatellites of paired primary colorectal tumor and xenografts confirmed that the CRC-X maintain the original characteristics. Histologically, all tumors were classified as adenocarcinomas.

In Vivo Tumor-Growth Assay. Equivalent 50- to 75-g CRC-X8 or CRC-X34 tumor pieces were s.c. transplanted into *nu/nu* swiss mice ($n = 40$). Ten days after transplantation, the control group received i.p. injections of DMSO whereas BAY11-7082-treated animals were injected with 5 μ g/g dose, three times per week for 3 weeks as described (49). Tumors were measured weekly, and volume was calculated as V (mm³) = A (mm) \times B^2 (mm²) \times $\pi/6$, B being the smaller dimension.

Luciferase Assays. Cells were transfected with calcium phosphate or lipofectamine (Invitrogen) with the indicated plasmids. Luciferase

assays (Luciferase Assay System; Promega, Madison, WI) were performed 48 h after transfection as described (19).

ChIP Assay. ChIP assay has been described (19). Briefly, chromatin from crosslinked cells was sonicated, incubated overnight with the indicated antibodies in RIPA buffer, and precipitated with protein G/A-Sepharose. All antibodies used have been tested for ChIP assay (refs. 18–20 and SI Fig. 6C). Cross-linkage of the coprecipitated DNA–protein complexes was reversed, and DNA was used as a template for semiquantitative PCR. All of the primers recognize human DNA sequence and were tested to avoid mouse DNA amplification. Primer sequences are in SI Fig. 12).

RT-PCR. Total RNA from colorectal tumors was isolated by using TRIzol Reagent (Invitrogen), and RT-First Strand cDNA Synthesis kit (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech, GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, U.K.) was used. Densitometric analysis was performed with the Quantity One software from Bio-Rad (Hempstead, U.K.). Oligonucleotide sequences are in SI Fig. 12.

Flow Cytometry Analysis. Cells were stained with AnnexinV-FITC and propidium iodide. Cells were analyzed on a FACScalibur (Becton Dickinson, San Jose, CA).

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