

mRNA Decay Factor AUF1 Maintains Normal Aging, Telomere Maintenance, and Suppression of Senescence by Activation of Telomerase Transcription

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SUMMARY

Inflammation is associated with DNA damage, cellular senescence, and aging. Cessation of the inflammatory cytokine response is mediated in part through cytokine mRNA degradation facilitated by RNAbinding proteins, including AUF1. We report a major function of AUF1-it activates telomerase expression, suppresses cellular senescence, and maintains normal aging. AUF1-deficient mice undergo striking telomere erosion, markedly increased DNA damage responses at telomere ends, pronounced cellular senescence, and rapid premature aging that increases with successive generations, which can be rescued in AUF1 knockout mice and their cultured cells by resupplying AUF1 expression. AUF1 binds and strongly activates the transcription promoter for telomerase catalytic subunit Tert. In addition to directing inflammatory cytokine mRNA decay, AUF1 destabilizes cell-cycle checkpoint mRNAs, preventing cellular senescence. Thus, a single gene, AUF1, links maintenance of telomere length and normal aging to attenuation of inflammatory cytokine expression and inhibition of cellular senescence.

INTRODUCTION

Telomeres cap the linear ends of chromosomes. Failure to maintain telomere integrity results in genomic instability; DNA damage responses, particularly at the ends of chromosomes; increased cellular senescence; and organ degeneration, which are key drivers of the natural aging process (De Lange, 2005; Jaskelioff et al., 2011; Sahin and Depinho, 2010). Telomere length shortens with successive cell divisions due to an inability of telomerase, a specialized reverse transcriptase that uses the noncoding RNA template TERC, to copy the most distal sequences (Collins, 2006). Immune and other proliferating somatic cells, as well as germ cells, activate telomerase to elongate the telomeric DNA strand (Forsyth et al., 2002). Because telomeres of mice are much longer than human telomeres, defects in telomerase function have no immediate phenotypic effect in mice. However, later generation telomerase-deficient mice exhibit progressive telomere shortening, emergence of aging phenotypes, germ cell abnormalities, and reduced life span, all of which increases in severity and manifests earlier with succeeding generations, a process known as genetic anticipation (Blasco et al., 1997; Rudolph et al., 1999). Mice heterozygous for mTERT or mTERC show haploinsufficiency in telomere length maintenance (Greider, 2006), indicating that even partially reduced expression of mTERT or mTERC has profound effects. Diseases of aging and chronic inflammatory responses are both associated with telomere shortening and decline in organ function (Browner et al., 2004; Andrews et al., 2010; Sahin and Depinho, 2010). We therefore sought to determine whether intrinsic molecular factors couple the regulation of the inflammatory cytokine response to the process of telomere loss-associated aging.

AUF1 (heterogeneous nuclear ribonucleoprotein D, hnRNP D) is an established attenuator of the inflammatory cytokine response, inducibly destabilizing inflammatory cytokine and other mRNAs containing specific AU-rich elements (AREs) in their 3' untranslated regions (3'UTR) (Lu et al., 2006; Sadri and Schneider, 2009). AUF1 consists of four highly related protein isoforms generated by alternate RNA splicing from a single genetic locus (Guhaniyogi and Brewer, 2001). We previously demonstrated that knockout mice deficient in one or both copies of the AUF1 gene cannot properly degrade key inflammatory cytokine mRNAs induced by bacterial endotoxin and succumb to endotoxic (septic) shock, as well as development of a pruritic dermatitis similar to human psoriasis (Lu et al., 2006; Sadri and Schneider, 2009). AUF1 levels are therefore important for attenuation of the inflammatory response.

As many inflammation-related diseases are associated with accelerated telomere erosion, DNA damage signaling, and increased markers of aging (Browner et al., 2004; Andrews et al., 2010; Sahin and Depinho, 2010), we sought to identify common intrinsic molecular drivers. Our current study reveals that AUF1, in addition to attenuating inflammatory cytokine responses, activates telomerase expression, thereby suppressing cellular senescence and maintaining normal telomere length,

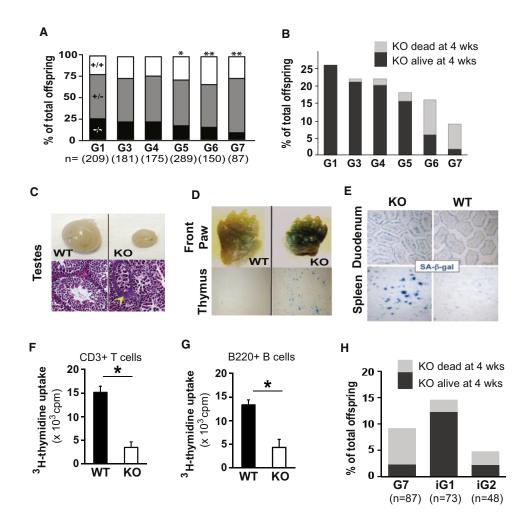


Figure 1. Decreased Survival and Increased Markers of Aging in Late-Generation Auf1^{-/-} Mice

(A) Percentage of each genotype at live birth from $Auf1^{+/-}$ crossings for indicated generation. n = number of mice in each group. p values based on expected Mendelian ratios, n = 3. *p \leq 0.04; **p \leq 0.02, calculated by Chi-square test.

(B) Frequency and survival beyond 4 weeks for $Auf1^{-/-}$ KO mice per generation.

(C) Top: Representative images of whole testes from 25-day-old G7 WT (*Auf1*^{+/+}) and KO littermates. Bottom: H&E sections showing aberrant maturation and degeneration of germ cell epithelium (yellow arrowhead).

(D) Representative images of SA-β-gal staining, a marker for cellular senescence, in indicated tissues from 2-day-old WT and KO littermates.

(E) Staining for SA- β -gal in the villi of the duodenum and white pulp of the spleen from 12-month-old mice.

(F and G) Proliferation of isolated splenic CD3⁺ T cells and B220⁺ B cells by ³H-thymidine labeling of G6 animals. *p < 0.01 by paired Student's t test ± SEM, n = 3. (H) Frequency of live births and survival of G7, G5.BC1.iG1, and G5.BC1.iG2 KO mice.

while also regulating levels of essential aging-linked cell-cycle regulators. Thus, AUF1 is an intrinsic factor that regulates telomerase expression, telomere maintenance, and markers of aging by two distinct mechanisms, coupling them to attenuation of the inflammatory response.

RESULTS

Genetic Anticipation, Accelerated Aging, and Cellular Senescence in AUF1-Deficient Mice

Auf1 chimeric founder males were generated as described (Lu et al., 2006) and bred with either C57BL/6 (B6) or 129/SvEvTac (129S6) wild-type (WT) females to produce generation 0 (G0)

Auf1^{+/-} heterozygous (Auf1^{+/-}) mice, and these mice were then crossed to produce G1 offspring in a B6;129S6 or 129S6 background. Successive generations of mice in each background were generated by interbreeding of Auf1^{+/-} mice using a cousin-mating strategy (Figure S1A), as AUF1^{-/-} crosses were not successful (Figure S2A). Although 26% of G1 offspring in mixed B6;129S6 background were Auf1^{-/-} mice, progeny yields progressively decreased to 9% by G7 (Figure 1A), as did survival (Figure 1B). Most G1 through G3 Auf1^{-/-} mice survived beyond 4 weeks of age, compared to 87% of G5, 37% of G6, and 8% of G7 mice (Figure 1B). Similar results were found in the 129S6 genetic background (Figures S2B and S2C), indicating that AUF1 deficiency has a genetic anticipation phenotype. As

with telomerase knockout mice (Herrera et al., 1999), there was a stronger phenotype and greater decrease in number and survival of Auf1^{-/-} offspring in a congenic C57BL/6 background (Figure S2D). G7 Auf1-/- mice demonstrated marked tissue atrophy, including severe reduction in size of the testes, and aberrant maturation and degeneration of germ cell epithelium (Figure 1C). We therefore determined whether late-generation Auf1^{-/-} mice display increased cellular senescence and organ degeneration by measuring expression of senescence-associ-2007). Two-day-old G7 Auf1^{-/-} knockout (KO) mice exhibited widespread, strong staining of SA- β -gal in skin, thymus, and other tissues compared to WT littermates (Figure 1D). Twelvemonth-old Auf1^{-/-} mice had strongly increased SA- β -gal expression in the spleen, gastrointestinal tract, and other tissues compared to WT littermates (Figure 1E). Cellular proliferation was 3- to 4-fold reduced in splenic CD3⁺ T cells from KO animals, determined by LPS stimulation of isolated T cells and uptake of ³H-thymidine into newly synthesized DNA (Figure 1F). Similar results were found for B220⁺ B cells in the splenocyte population (Figure 1G).

Auf1^{-/-} mice in all genetic backgrounds displayed classic hallmarks of accelerated aging, including kyphosis (hunchback), reduced subcutaneous body fat, and atrophy of the reproductive organs in most animals by 12 months of age (Figure 2A). Increased expression of cell-cycle regulators p16^{Ink4a}, p19^{Arf}, and possibly p21^{CIP} are markers of mammalian aging or cellular senescence (Krishnamurthy et al., 2004). Twelve-month-old Auf1^{-/-} mice displayed a 2.5- to 3-fold elevation of mRNA and protein levels in a variety of tissues surveyed (Figures 2B and 2C). The $p19^{Arf}$ and $p21^{CIP}$ 3'UTRs have AU-rich elements, similar to that reported for AUF1-target p16^{lnk4a} (Wang et al., 2005). Accordingly, decay rates for p16^{Ink4a}, p19^{Arf}, and p21^{CIP} mRNAs in Auf1^{-/-} mouse embryo fibroblasts (MEFs) were 2to 3-fold slower compared to WT (Figure 2D). Exogenous expression of single AUF1 isoforms in $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs showed that only the p37 protein restored rapid destabilization of p16^{lnk4a} mRNA (Figure 2E), consistent with established p37 function (Sarkar et al., 2003b).

AUF1 Is Directly Responsible for the Genetic Anticipation Phenotype

While increased stabilization of cell-cycle checkpoint mRNAs promotes cellular senescence, it cannot account for the genetic anticipation phenotype, previously associated with telomere dysfunction in mice (Herrera et al., 1999; Rudolph et al., 1999; d'Adda di Fagagna et al., 2003). To test whether AUF1 is directly responsible for the genetic anticipation phenotype, we restored AUF1 by crossing G5 heterozygous Auf1^{+/-} mice with WT mice for one generation and then bred intergenerational (iG) offspring using a cousin-mating scheme (Figure S1B). Compared to corresponding G7 Auf1-/- offspring, iG1 litters had an instant \sim 2-fold increase in the proportion of offspring that were Auf1^{-/-} and a 4-fold increase in their survival (Figure 1H): Eighty-two percent of intergenerational offspring (G5.BC1.iG1) survived beyond 4 weeks compared to 20% for G7 Auf1^{-/-} mice. Intergenerational Auf1^{-/-} mice also displayed long-term survival comparable to G6 $Auf1^{-/-}$ mice (Figure S2E). Increased survival was not maintained in subsequent intergenerational crosses lacking AUF1: G5.BC1.iG2 $Auf1^{-/-}$ mice showed a similar phenotype to G7 $Auf1^{-/-}$ mice (Figures 1H and S1B). Back-crossing to WT mice for one generation therefore delayed the genetic anticipation phenotype by one generation, indicating that the genetic and biologic effects are a result of AUF1 deficiency.

Telomere Erosion and Chromosome Fusion with AUF1 Deficiency

Since the genetic anticipation seen in late-generation $Auf1^{-/-}$ mice is similar to that seen in telomerase-deficient mice, we directly characterized telomere lengths in splenocytes from G7 mice. We performed quantitative fluorescence in situ hybridization (Q-FISH; Figure 3A) to guantify the relative number of telomere repeat sequences in individual chromosomes from metaphase cells (Poon et al., 1999). Average telomere length in splenocytes from G7 Auf1^{-/-} mice was significantly decreased (62.5 TFUs) compared to WT littermates (81.1 TFUs). Heterozygous G7 Auf1^{+/-} mice were intermediate in telomere length (72.6 TFUs), indicating that AUF1 displays haploinsufficiency in average telomere length maintenance (Figure 3A), similar to telomerase heterozygous mice (Hao et al., 2005). Splenocytes from G7 Auf1^{-/-} mice displayed increased heterogeneity in telomere signals, with a 7-fold increase in the number of chromosomes lacking a detectable telomere signal (signal-free ends, SFEs) (Figure 3B), and a 4-fold increase in chromosomal fusions (Figure 3C).

To examine whether AUF1 was directly responsible for the telomere erosion phenotype, AUF1 was restored by backcrossing heterozygous with WT mice and telomere lengths were examined. G5 Auf1^{+/-} mice were backcrossed sequentially three times to pure WT mice, then the heterozygous progeny of the final backcross mated to produce a mixed litter of all three Auf1 genotypes (denoted G5.BC3.iG1). Q-FISH analysis of splenocytes from these mice found that progeny G5.BC3.iG1 WT and KO animals had similar frequencies of SFEs, whereas corresponding G7 KO mice had a 7-fold increase compared to WT littermates (Figure 3D). The higher overall SFE frequency in G5.BC3.iG1 versus G7 animals is a result of the increased generation number in these animals. Progeny from mice resulting from only one backcross to pure WT mice, G5.BC1.iG1, were not rescued in SFEs (Figure 3D). However, reintroduction of AUF1 via three subsequent rounds of backcrossing (Figure 3D) was sufficient to elongate critically short telomeres, but not the average telomere length in $Auf1^{-/-}$ progeny (Figure S3). This was expected and is similar to studies in telomerase-deficient mice, in which the shortest telomeres have been shown to be the preferential substrates for extension (Mili et al., 2001). Thus, AUF1 acts in a dose-dependent manner to maintain telomere length.

AUF1 Deficiency Promotes DNA Damage Foci at Telomeres

Dysfunctional short and uncapped telomeres activate p53dependent DNA damage signaling responses which promote cellular senescence (d'Adda di Fagagna et al., 2003). Correspondingly, $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs show increased phosphorylation of

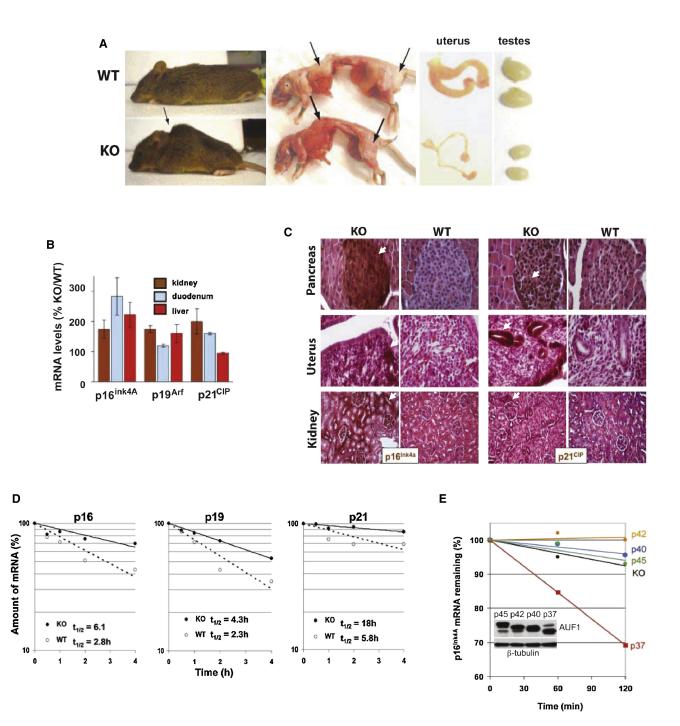


Figure 2. Aging-Related Phenotypes and Upregulation of p16^{lnk4A}, p19^{Arf}, and p21^{CIP} Expression in Auf1^{-/-} Mice

(A) Representative images of kyphosis (hunchback) (arrow), presence (top panel) and absence (bottom panel) of subcutaneous body fat (arrows), and atrophied gonads typically observed in 12-month-old $Auf1^{-/-}$ (KO) mice but not in WT littermates. Images shown represent the majority of KO animals surveyed (>60%, kyphosis; >90%, reduced body fat; >90%, gonadal atrophy).

(B) Increased relative expression of *p16^{lnk4a}*, *p19^{Arf}*, and *p21^{CIP}* mRNAs in tissues and organs from 12-month-old KO mice compared to WT littermates, determined by qRT-PCR.

(C) Immunohistochemical staining for p16^{Ink4a} and p21^{CIP} (brown, arrows) in organ sections from 12-month-old KO mice compared to WT littermates. Sections counterstained by H&E.

(D) Decay plots of *p*16^{/nk4a}, *p*19^{Arf}, and *p*21^{C/P} mRNAs in MEFs from G2 embryos. Transcription was blocked with actinomycin D, cells were collected at indicated time points, RNA was extracted and mRNA levels were quantified by qRT-PCR. Plots are the mean of three independent experiments with calculated half-lives shown. (E) Decay plots showing recovery of *p*16^{/nk4a} mRNA destabilization by individual isoforms of AUF1 in KO MEFs. Plot shown is an average of three independent experiments.

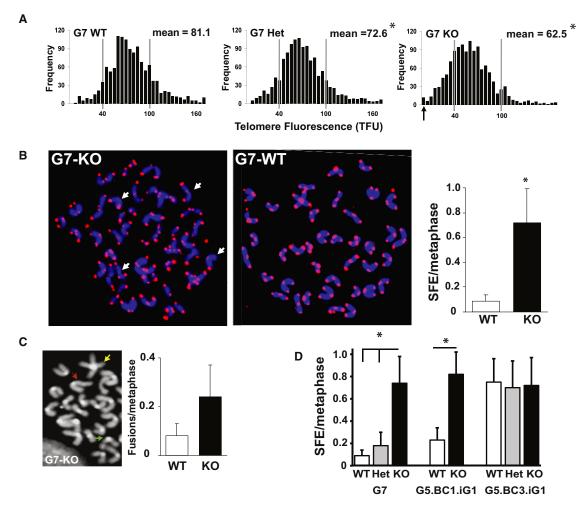


Figure 3. Decreased Telomere Lengths in Late-Generation Auf1^{-/-} Splenocytes

(A) Q-FISH telomere length analysis, frequency distribution of telomeric DNA signal intensities (telomere fluorescence units, TFUs), \geq 20 metaphase splenocyte spreads of three mice. Arrow, chromosome ends with no detectable telomere (signal free ends, SFEs), *p < 0.01.

(B) Left, representative splenocyte metaphase spreads from G7 mice stained with Cy3-labeled PNA telomere probes (arrows, SFEs). Right, frequency of SFEs in G7 splenocyte metaphase spreads. *p < 0.05, \pm SEM, n = 3.

(C) Left, chromosomal abnormalities in KO spreads: representative fused chromosomes (yellow), chromosomal breaks (green), uneven translocated chromatids (red). Right, frequency of end-to-end fusions in G7 splenocyte metaphase spreads, \geq 150 metaphase spreads from three mice each, \pm SEM.

(D) Frequency of SFEs in splenocyte metaphase spreads from G7 mice and corresponding mice from single WT backcrossed (G5.BC1.iG1) or triple WT backcrossed (G5.BC3.iG1) backgrounds. Values are mean \pm SEM (n = 4). *p < 0.05. All statistics by paired Student's t test.

ATM and p53, as well as increased p21^{CIP} levels (Figure 4A), at least partially through mRNA stabilization (Figure 2D). We therefore investigated the DNA damage response at telomere ends as a measure of telomere dysfunction and contribution to senescence in $Auf1^{-/-}$ cells. Colocalization of DNA damage factor γ -H2AX with the telomere-binding protein TRF1 at telomere ends in MEFs was quantified (Figure 4B). A >3-fold increase in telomere dysfunction-induced foci (TIFs) was seen in late-passage G1 and early-passage G7 $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs (Figure 4C). No significant difference in TIFs was found in early passage G1 WT or KO MEFs (Figures 4C and S4C). Telomere end colocalization by TRF1 staining with DNA damage response factors 53BP1 or phosphorylated RAD17 was similarly increased in AUF1^{-/-}

and integrity, with AUF1 deficiency resulting in increased DNA damage signaling at telomere ends associated with increased cell doublings or animal generational age.

Telomerase deficiency promotes genomic instability (O'Hagan et al., 2002), resulting in increased cytogenetic abnormalities in older mice (Rudolph et al., 1999) and their cultured cells, a product of highly recombinogenic dysfunctional telomeres (Romanov et al., 2001). In contrast to WT and early passage $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs, proliferation of late passage $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs continued linearly with no evidence for contact inhibition (Figure 4D) or anchorage dependence (Figure 4E). Extensive chromosomal abnormalities not seen in WT controls were evident in all late-generation $Auf1^{-/-}$ splenocyte metaphase chromosome spreads, including fusions (Figure 4F).

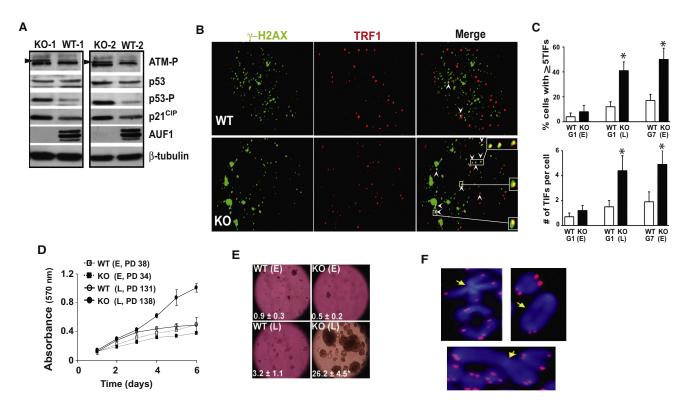


Figure 4. Increased DNA Damage Signaling at Telomere Ends and Cell Growth Defects in Auf1^{-/-} Cells

(A) Levels of phospho-ATM (arrowhead), phospho-p53 (Ser15), and p21^{CIP} determined by immunoblot analysis in two independent AUF1 WT and KO MEF cell lines.

(B) Immunofluorescence staining for γ -H2AX and TRF1 colocalized at telomere ends. Arrowheads: telomere dysfunction induced foci (TIFs) (Takai et al., 2003). (C) Quantification of TIFs in MEFs from indicated generation, \geq 30 nuclei from three MEF cell lines. Positive cells contain \geq 5 TIFs. Values are mean \pm SEM (n = 3). p < 0.01 by paired Student's t test. E, early passage; L, late passage.

(D) MEF proliferation determined by MTT assay. E, early passage; L, late passage; PD, population doublings. Values are p < 0.01, ± SEM, n = 4.

(E) Anchorage-independent growth assayed by soft agar colony formation. Number of colonies shown.

(F) Representative end-to-end chromosomal fusions lacking detectable telomere signal (arrow) in AUF1 KO splenocyte cell metaphase spreads stained with telomere-specific probes and DAPI counter-stained.

AUF1 Binds the mTert Promoter and Activates

Transcription

Loss of telomere length in *Auf1^{-/-}* mice could indicate absence of an essential AUF1 function at telomeres or an inability to express functional telomerase in proliferating cells such as splenocytes or MEFs. We therefore investigated a role for AUF1 in expression of functional telomerase. In the absence of AUF1, mTERT RNA was reduced >20-fold and mTERC ~3-fold compared to WT MEFs (Figure 5A–5B). AUF1 deficiency also greatly reduced levels of mTERT protein compared to wildtype cells, as shown by immunoblot analysis (Figure 5C). In addition, telomerase reverse transcriptase activity was impaired, as shown by a telomere repeat amplification protocol (TRAP) assay (Figure 5D). The TRAP assay is an imprecise measure of telomerase activity, accounting for the difference in sensitivity between the two assays.

Next, we determined which of the AUF1 protein isoforms is responsible for stimulating expression of mTERT mRNAs. All four AUF1 isoform cDNAs were cloned as independent expression vectors and tested singly and in combination in $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs for stimulation of mTERT and mTERC expression. Ectopic expression of p42 or p45 AUF1 isoforms stimulated expression of mTERT mRNA in $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs by ~5-fold (15% of WT) (Figure 5E). The p37 or p40 AUF1 isoforms did not stimulate mTERT mRNA expression at all. Coexpression of p45 plus p42 AUF1 increased mTERT mRNA expression levels by >17-fold (~55% of WT) (Figure 5F), whereas additional coexpression with p40 and/or p37 AUF1 isoforms had no effect. In contrast, no combination of AUF1 isoforms significantly stimulated expression of mTERC RNA levels (Figure S5). Unlike p37 and p40 AUF1 isoforms, p45 and p42 AUF1 proteins have been shown to be more chromatin-associated (Mili et al., 2001), less involved in promoting rapid decay of AU-rich mRNAs, and to undergo less nuclear-cytoplasmic shuttling than the p37 and p40 AUF1 isoforms (Sarkar et al., 2003b; He and Schneider, 2006), consistent with these results.

To determine whether decreased telomerase expression is the cause of telomere length erosion in $Auf1^{-/-}$ cells, *mTert* was stably expressed in $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs using retroviral transduction, then cultures were serially passaged for >75 population doublings (PD). Genomic DNA was prepared from $Auf1^{-/-}$ cells expressing *mTert* or empty vector at both high (>75) and low

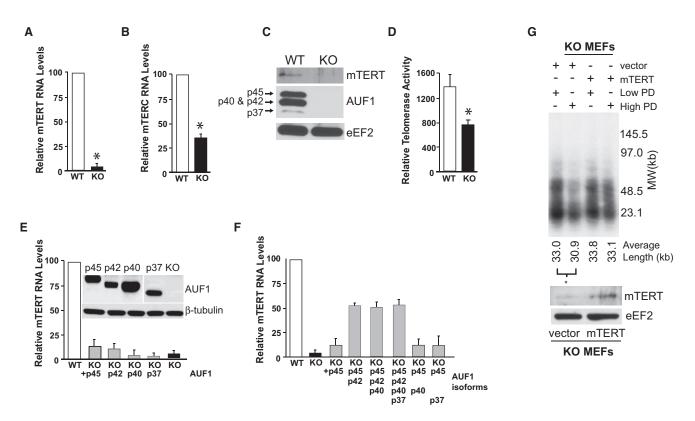


Figure 5. Strongly Decreased Telomerase Levels and Activity in AUF1-Deficient Cells

(A and B) Relative *mTert* and *mTerc* RNA levels in WT and AUF1 KO MEFs, determined by qRT-PCR. *p < 0.05 ± SEM, n = 3.

(C) Immunoblot showing mTERT protein levels in WT and KO MEFs.

(D) Relative telomerase activity in extracts from WT and KO MEFs as determined by TRAP assay. Mean \pm SEM of three independent experiments, *p < 0.05. (E) Partial rescue of *mTert* mRNA expression in AUF1^{-/-} (KO) MEFs by ectopic expression of individual AUF1 isoforms, determined by qRT-PCR. Representative immunoblot for AUF1 is shown. The p37 AUF1 panel was exposed 3× longer.

(F) Rescue of mTERT mRNA expression by p45/p42 AUF1 isoforms in AUF1 KO MEF cells, carried out as described above. *p < 0.05 ± SEM (n = 4).

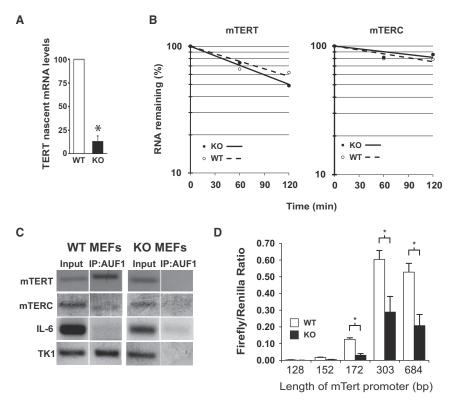
(G) Telomere restriction fragment analysis of serially passaged KO MEF cells with or without ectopic mTERT expression. Autoradiograph indicates intensity of probe-hybridization to specific telomeric sequence. Typical results shown of three studies. Average telomere fragment length is indicated below. *p < 0.05 by Student's t test, n = 3.

(<5) serial passage cell PDs. Telomere length was then measured by telomere restriction fragment (TRF) analysis (Hsiao et al., 2006). Auf1^{-/-} cells expressing only the empty vector demonstrated a significant decrease in average telomere fragment length in transition from low to high PDs (33.0 kb to 30.9 kb, p < 0.05), whereas with expression of ectopic *mTert* there was no statistical decrease in telomere length despite extensive cell PDs (33.8 kb to 33.1 kb) (Figure 5G). Importantly, the extensive telomere erosion in Auf1^{-/-} cells can be prevented by complementation with ectopic *mTert*.

Mammalian telomerase (*mTert*) and its template RNA (*mTerc*) expression are well established to be controlled at the level of transcription (Greider, 2006). We therefore measured *mTert* transcriptional activity by qPCR for nascent unprocessed introncontaining *mTert* transcripts. $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs had an 8-fold decrease in nascent *mTert* transcript levels as compared to WT ($Auf1^{+/+}$) MEFs (Figure 6A). Analysis of mRNA decay rates showed no significant differences in stability of *mTert* or *mTerc* RNAs in comparison of WT to KO MEFs (Figure 6B). We therefore next determined whether AUF1 is associated with promoter regions of *mTert* and *mTerc* genes by utilizing a chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay (Figure 6C). The *mTert* promoter region was strongly detected by PCR amplification of purified AUF1-bound chromatin, similar to *thymidine kinase-1* (*Tk1*), a reported AUF1-interacting promoter (Lau et al., 2000). In contrast, whereas the promoter of an established AUF1 nonresponsive gene, cytokine *IL-6* (Lu et al., 2006), was not detectably bound by AUF1 (Figure 6C). The *mTerc* promoter was weakly associated with AUF1.

Several previous reports have identified the proximal region of ~333 base pairs of the *mTert* upstream region (relative to the initiating ATG codon) as the core transcriptional promoter (Nozawa et al., 2001; Si et al., 2011). Luciferase transcriptional reporter assays in $Auf1^{+/+}$ and $Auf1^{-/-}$ MEFs using constructs containing different lengths of the *mTert* promoter confirmed that the proximal region of 303 base pairs is responsible for basal *mTert* transcription (Figure 6D). Adding additional upstream sequences did not increase transcriptional activity. Sequential deletions of portions of this region sharply decreased resultant *mTert* promoter transcription activity, suggesting that

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transcriptional activation by AUF1 occurs by binding within this core region (Figure 6D). Finally, AUF1^{-/-} MEFs show significantly reduced transcriptional activity compared to wild-type MEFs for all constructs containing the core promoter region, indicating that AUF1 is responsible for the increased activity (Figure 6D). Together with the ChIP data showing AUF1 binding to the *mTert* promoter region, we can conclude that AUF1 is a transcriptional activator of the *mTert* gene.

DISCUSSION

Aging at the organismal level is a multifaceted process involving many molecular pathways (Rubinsztein et al., 2011). In our current work, we show that AUF1, an RNA-binding protein/cytokine mRNA destabilizing protein, regulates several aging-associated pathways by two largely distinct mechanisms of action. Auf1^{-/-} mice have increased levels of p16^{ink4a}, p19^{Arf}, and p21^{CIP} cell-cycle regulator proteins and mRNAs, a result of failure to carry out rapid ARE-mRNA decay (Figure 2D). An increased level of p16^{ink4a} in particular is a robust marker of mammalian aging (Krishnamurthy et al., 2004), and increased p16^{ink4a} protein accumulation is associated with reduced cell and tissue viability (Krishnamurthy et al., 2004; Molofsky et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2011). Interestingly, it has been noted that human diploid fibroblasts have reduced levels of AUF1, particularly the p37 isoform which is best associated with ARE-mRNA decay, as well as decreased AUF1-p16^{ink4a} mRNA interaction as fibroblasts approach replicative senescence (Wang et al., 2005). These data and those reported here suggest that an age-dependent decrease in p37 AUF1 levels may be an impor-

Figure 6. AUF1 Stimulates mTERT Transcription

(A) Nascent *mTert* transcript levels determined by intron-exon qRT-PCR. *p < 0.05. Error bars represent the SEM from three independent experiments.

(B) Decay rates of mTert and mTerc RNAs. Plots are the average of three independent experiments. (C) Promoter regions of mTert, mTerc, IL-6, and Tk1 genes were detected by semiquantitative PCR from input and AUF1-bound immunoprecipitated chromatin samples from WT and KO MEFs. Representative negative images from ethidiumbromide stained agarose gels are shown.

(D) Promoter-coupled luciferase constructs in WT and KO MEFs from *mTert* expression. Firefly luciferase activity was normalized to Renilla luciferase activity of a cotransfected null-promoter plasmid. Length of mTERT promoter in each construct is indicated. *p < 0.05, ± SEM.

tant mechanism by which p16^{ink4a} levels increase in age-dependent senescence. Although recent work that examined AUF1 levels in human tissue sections by immunohistochemistry showed similar levels of AUF1 staining in both young and old tissues (Masuda et al., 2009), the different AUF1 isoforms could not be distinguished

by this approach.

Aging is also associated with and thought to be partially caused by telomere shortening (Donate and Blasco, 2011), as shown in hematopoietic niches (Allsopp et al., 2003). In our work, loss of AUF1 resulted in severely reduced average telomere length in splenocytes and other proliferative cells, as well as an inability to maintain the shortest telomeres (Figures 3 and S3). One allele of Auf1 was found to protect against development of critically short telomeres but was not sufficient to maintain average telomere length in successive animal generations or cell doublings, again similar to mice heterozygous for mTert or mTerc genes (Hemann et al., 2001; Erdmann et al., 2004; Greider, 2006). Furthermore, we showed that AUF1 stimulates mTERT levels by activation of *mTert* transcription (Figures 5, 6A, 6C, and 6D), which is consistent with previous work identifying transcription as a primary regulatory point for control of mammalian telomerase expression (Greider, 2006). Interestingly, the AUF1 isoforms responsible for *mTert* transcriptional regulation, p42 and p45, differ from those involved in p16^{ink4a} accelerated mRNA decay (p37, p40), supporting the hypothesis that there are distinct molecular roles for the four related AUF1 isoforms.

Previous studies demonstrated a link between inflammatory diseases, increased telomere erosion, and DNA damage signaling (Browner et al., 2004; Andrews et al., 2010; Sahin and Depinho, 2010). In this regard, AUF1 deficiency in mice causes an increase in pruritic skin inflammation (Sadri and Schneider, 2009) and increased susceptibility to endotoxic shock upon LPS challenge (Lu et al., 2006). Our findings provide It is presently unclear how AUF1 stimulates *mTert* transcriptional expression. Structural studies imply that AUF1 might interact with G-quadruplex DNA structures (Enokizono et al., 2005), which are strongly enriched in certain promoter sequences (Brooks et al., 2010) including that of *mTert* (Palumbo et al., 2009). Unlike the mTert promoter, the mTerc promoter is not strongly enriched in putative G-quadruplex DNA (Brooks et al., 2010). Current work is investigating whether AUF1 interacts with the G-quadruplex and other promoters with similar motifs.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

MEFs

Mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) were generated from day 13.5 embryos from $Auf1^{-/-}$ and wild-type mice on a mixed B6;129S6 background, cultured in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, and immortalized using the 3T3 protocol (Todaro and Green, 1963). Immortalized MEFs were split at 1:10 dilution when confluent.

Plasmids, Transfections, and Retrovirus Transduction

Murine embryonic fibroblasts were transduced in the presence of polybrene (4 μ g /ml) with virus generated by cotransfection by CaPO4 method of one of the four AUF1 isoform constructs (pBabe-p37, pBabe-p40, pBabe-p42, pBabe-p45), pCMV-VSVG, and pCMV-Tat (gifts of D. Ron, NYU School of Medicine) into 293GP cells (gift of M. Pagano, NYU School of Medicine), which were harvested 48 and 72 hr post transfection. The AUF1-containing pBabe constructs were generated by cloning each isoform PCR product into BamHI and Sall sites of pBabe-puro. The isoform-expressing cells were selected 48 hr post transduction with 2 μ g/ml puromycin (InvivoGen). For ectopic *mTERT* expression, AUF1^{-/-} KO MEFs were transduced and selected as above using the mTert-pBABE-puro plasmid (gift of J. Bidwell and F. Pavalko, Indiana University School of Medicine).

Murine embryonic fibroblasts were transfected with pFLAG-CMV-2 AUF1 constructs (Sarkar et al., 2003a; Sarkar et al., 2003b) using the TransIT-LT1 Transfection Reagent according to the manufacturer protocols (Mirus). Cells were harvested at 48 hr post-transfection and RNA isolated as described below.

For Luciferase transcription quantification, plasmids were constructed by PCR-cloning various lengths of *mTert* promoter sequence from the full-length promoter-containing 5k-*mTert*-EGFP construct (gift of A, Gutiérrez-Adán, INIA, Spain) and inserting PCR products into the *Sacl* and *Nhel* sites of pGL3-Basic vector (Promega). WT and KO MEFs were transfected using the TransIT-LT1 Transfection Reagent according to manufacturer protocols (Mirus) with one of the five pGL3-mTert constructs (pGL3-mTert128, pGL3-*mTert*152, pGL3-*mTert*172, pGL3-*mTert*303, and pGL3-*mTert*684) and null *Renilla* luciferase plasmid pRL null (Promega). Transfected cells were harvested at 48 hr post transfection with Passive Lysis Buffer (Promega) and assayed with Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay System (Promega) according to manufacturer protocols.

Histology, Immunohistochemistry, and SA-β-gal Staining

For histological analysis of tissues, organs, and tumors, tissues were processed and stained with hematoxylin and eosin as described (Lu et al., 2006). For immunohistochemistry, frozen sections were stained according to standard protocols using antibodies to p16 (JC2, Lab Vision) and p21 proteins (ab9, Lab Vision) and the Vectastain ABC kit (Vector Labs). For cellular senescence analysis, frozen tissue sections and MEFs were processed and stained with the senescence marker β -galactosidase staining kit (Cell Signaling) according to manufacturer protocols.

Q-FISH Analyses

Q-FISH was performed as previously described (Hsiao et al., 2006). Splenocyte single-cell suspensions were made by mincing samples through a 70 μ m cell strainer (BD Biosciences). Splenocytes were cultured in DMEM + 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and were activated with lipopolysa-charide (LPS) (5 μ g/ml; Sigma), phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate (2 μ M; Calbiochem), and F(ab')₂ anti-IgG antibody (1 μ g/ml; Jackson ImmunoResearch) for 36 hr before cells were arrested in metaphase by 6 hr treatment with nocodazole (0.1 μ g/ml; Sigma). Cells were collected, and metaphase spreads were prepared and stained as described (Dynek and Smith, 2004). Images were acquired on a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope with a Photometrix SenSyn camera. Photographs were processed using OpenLab software. TFL-TELO software (BC Cancer Agency) was used to quantify the telomere signal from at least ten metaphase spreads for each sample.

Immunoblot Analysis

Immunoblot analysis was performed according to standard protocols using ECL detection (PerkinElmer). Quantification was conducted by densitometry. Antibodies to the following proteins were used: p53 (no. 2524), phospho-p53 (no. 9284), p27^{KIP} (no. 2552), and eEF2 (no. 2332) from Cell Signaling; phospho-ATM (ab2888) and p21^{CIP} (ab7960) from Abcam; Rb (14-6743) from eBiosceince; β -tubulin (D66) from Sigma; mTERT (sc-7212) from Santa Cruz, and AUF1 (PcAb 995 antibody).

Immunofluorescence

Primary or immortalized MEFs grown on gelatin-coated coverslips were washed with cold phosphate buffered saline (PBS), fixed with 4% paraformal-dehyde, permeabilized with 0.25% Triton X-100, and then blocked in 5% normal mouse serum. Cells were stained with primary antibodies to TRF-1 (E-15; Santa Cruz), γ -H2AX (no. 2577; Cell Signaling), 53BP1 (nb 100-304; Novus Biologicals), and Phospho-Rad-17 (no.3421; Cell Signaling) in 5% normal mouse serum. Primary antibodies were detected with FITC-anti-rabbit antibody and TRITC-anti-goat antibody from Jackson ImmunoResearch. Cells were mounted using Vectashield medium containing DAPI (Vector Laboratories). Samples were examined and photographed using a Zeiss LSM510 Meta confocal microscope using an oil immersion 100× objective. For each cell examined, Z stacks of 0.5 μ m were made throughout the entire nucleus to avoid bias, and the total number of colocalized foci were counted.

MTT and Soft Agar Assay

MTT assay was performed according to a previously described method (Mosmann, 1983). In brief, MEFs were seeded in quadruplet at 10^3 cells per well in 96-well plates. At indicated times post-seeding, cultures were incubated with MTT (0.5 mg/ml; Sigma) for 4 hr and then the crystals in each well were dissolved with 100 µl of dissolving buffer (10% SDS, 45% isopropanol, and 0.04 N HCi) for 4 hr. The absorbance of each well was measured on a Sunrise (Tecan) microplate reader at a wavelength of 570 nm. For soft agar assays, 5×10^4 immortalized MEF cells were suspended in 1 ml of 0.3% agar in DMEM supplemented with 10% FBS and plated on 6-well plates containing a solidified bottom layer (1.5 ml of 0.5% agar in DMEM + 10% FBS). 1 ml of 0.3% agar in DMEM + 10% FBS was added every 3 days, and colony counts and pictures were taken on day 12.

ChIP Analysis

Conventional chromatin immunoprecipitation was performed as previously described (Ren et al., 2002) on WT and KO MEFs. Immunoprecipitated DNA fragments were assayed via semiquantitative PCR and products visualized by agarose gel-electrophoresis. Primer sequences are available upon request.

Splenic B and T Cell Proliferation Assays

Splenic B cells were purified using the MACS CD45R microbead isolation kit and were verified to be \geq 98% B220⁺ B cells by FACS analysis. Splenic T cells were purified using the MACS Pan T Cell Isolation kit and similarly verified by FACS to be \geq 98% CD3⁺ T cells. For proliferation analysis, 2 × 10⁴ cells were plated in triplicate in 96-well plates and stimulated with 10 µg/ml lipopolysacharide (LPS) for 48 hr, pulsed for the last 8 hr with

1 μ Ci/well of ³H-thymidine. Radioactivity incorporated into DNA was quantified by scintillation counting.

Telomere Repeat Amplification Protocol Assays

Telomere Repeat Amplification Protocol (TRAP) assays were performed using equal numbers of WT and KO MEFs, employing the TeloTAGGG Telomerase PCR ELISA Plus kit (Roche) according to manufacturer instructions.

Telomere Restriction FragmentAnalysis

For telomere restriction fragment (TRF) analysis, equal numbers of indicated cell lines were embedded in agarose plugs and their DNA digested with *Hinfl* and *Rsal*; DNA fragments were then separated by pulsed-field gel electrophoresis (CHEF DR-II apparatus, Bio-Rad), and telomere restriction fragments were detected by in-gel blotting with a ³²P-labeled TTAGGG probe. Average telomere length was calculated from autoradiographs using ImageJ (NIH) and methods previously described (Haussmann et al., 2011).

Statistical Analysis

All data are shown as means \pm standard deviations (SD). Two-sided Student's t test was used to compare experimental groups. Survival was analyzed using the Kaplan-Meier method and the log-rank test was used for group comparisons. Other statistical analyses are described in the text.

SUPPLEMENTAL INFORMATION

Supplemental Information includes five figures, Supplemental Experimental Procedures, and Supplemental References and can be found with this article online at doi:10.1016/j.molcel.2012.04.019.

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