Alternatively spliced androgen receptor variants

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Abstract

Alternative splicing is an important mechanism for increasing functional diversity from a limited set of genes. Deregulation of this process is common in diverse pathologic conditions. The androgen receptor (AR) is a steroid receptor transcription factor with functions critical for normal male development as well as the growth and survival of normal and cancerous prostate tissue. Studies of AR function in androgen insensitivity syndrome (AIS) and prostate cancer (PCa) have demonstrated loss-of-function AR alterations in AIS and gain-of-function AR alterations in PCa. Over the past two decades, AR gene alterations have been identified in various individuals with AIS, which disrupt normal AR splicing patterns and yield dysfunctional AR protein variants. Recently, altered AR splicing patterns have been identified as a mechanism of PCa progression and resistance to androgen depletion therapy. Several studies have described the synthesis of alternatively spliced transcripts encoding truncated AR isoforms that lack the ligand-binding domain, which is the ultimate target of androgen depletion. Many of these truncated AR isoforms function as constitutively active, ligand-independent transcription factors that can support androgen-independent expression of AR target genes, as well as the androgen-independent growth of PCa cells. In this review, we will summarize the various alternatively spliced AR variants that have been discovered, with a focus on their role and origin in the pathologic conditions of AIS and PCa.

The androgen receptor: gene, mRNA, and protein

The androgen receptor (AR) is a 110 kDa member of the steroid receptor transcription factor family that mediates the cellular actions of the androgens testosterone and dihydrotestosterone (DHT). The structural organization of the AR gene, mature spliced mRNA, and protein domains are similar to the family members estrogen receptor α (ERα), ERβ, and progesterone receptor (Fig. 1; Lubahn et al. 1989). Males contain one copy of the AR gene located at chromosome position Xq11-12. AR exon 1 encodes the entire AR NH2-terminal domain (NTD), which represents nearly 60% of the AR protein but is variable in length by virtue of polymorphic (CAG)n and (GGN)n repeat units encoding polyglutamine and polyglycine tracts respectively (Ferro et al. 2002, Ding et al. 2004, 2005). AR exon 2 encodes the first zinc finger in the AR DNA-binding domain (DBD), which is the DNA recognition helix that makes contact with major groove residues in an androgen-response element (ARE) half-site (Shaffer et al. 2004). AR exon 3 encodes the second zinc finger in the AR DBD, which is a dimerization interface that mediates binding with a neighboring AR molecule engaged with an adjacent ARE half-site (Shaffer et al. 2004). Exons 4–8 encode a short flexible hinge region and 11 α-helices folded in an α-helical sandwich to form the well-characterized AR COOH-terminal domain (CTD), which harbors the AR ligand-binding domain (LBD) and transcriptional activation function 2 (AF2) co-regulator binding interface (Matias et al. 2000, Sack et al. 2001, He et al. 2004, Hur et al. 2004, Estebanez-Perpina et al. 2005, Bain et al. 2006).

Each of these discrete protein domains plays an important functional role in the classical mode of AR activation by androgenic ligands. AR protein in the ligand-free state is localized in the cytoplasm, where it
is engaged with Hsp90, other molecular chaperones, and high-molecular-weight immunophilins by virtue of interaction with the AR CTD (Pratt & Toft 1997, Smith & Toft 2008). Androgen binding induces a change in the conformation and composition of this multi-protein complex, which exposes the bipartite nuclear localization signal (NLS) in the hinge region (Zhou et al. 1994), thus allowing direct interaction with importin-α and subsequent nuclear translocation through the nuclear pore complex (Cutress et al. 2008). In the nucleus, AR binds as a dimer to AREs in promoter and enhancer elements of target genes, the best-characterized of which are prostate-specific antigen (PSA), TMPRSS2, and hK2 (Dehm & Tindall 2006). Transcriptional activation of these target genes is a complex, multi-step process that requires ordered stepwise recruitment of a plethora of co-regulatory proteins (Heinlein & Chang 2004, Heemers & Tindall 2007). Although the AR AF2 domain is able to recruit well-characterized co-activators such as SRC-1, SRC-2/TIF-2, and SRC-3/AIB1, its contribution to transcriptional activity is relatively weak (He et al. 2004). In contrast, the AR NTD is a potent transcriptional activator, and this activity has been mapped to two primary transactivation domains termed transactivation unit-1 (TAU-1) and TAU-5, a central DNA binding domain (DBD) consisting of two zinc fingers, and a COOH-terminal domain (CTD) harboring the AR ligand binding domain (LBD) and transcriptional activation function-2 (AF-2).

Naturally occurring AR variants: AR alternative splicing in normal tissues

Given the modular structure of the AR protein, and the important functional roles for discrete AR protein domains, it is anticipated that alternative splicing events would have profound effects on activity of the AR signaling axis. AR45 is a naturally occurring variant of the human AR, which was originally identified via 5′ rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) with RNA isolated from human placenta tissue (Ahrens-Fath et al. 2005). AR45 mRNA was found to arise from alternative splicing of a previously unreported exon located within intron 1 of the AR gene (Fig. 2). This alternative exon, termed exon 1B, is situated ~22.1 kb downstream of AR exon 1 and can be spliced in place of AR exon 1 to yield a 45 kDa receptor isoform containing the entire AR DBD, CTD, and a novel seven amino acid...
Met-Ile-Leu-Trp-Leu-His-Ser sequence at the N-terminus in place of the wild-type AR NTD. RT-PCR analysis indicated that AR45 mRNA is expressed in diverse tissues including heart, muscle, uterus, prostate, lung, and breast, with no apparent expression in brain. However, these RT-PCR experiments were not quantitative, so it is unclear how AR45 expression levels compared with wild-type AR in these tissues. It is also unclear whether AR45 mRNA is translated into a protein in these tissues, although western blot analysis of LNCaP lysates demonstrated the presence of a ~45 kDa species that was immunoreactive with an antibody specific for the AR CTD. Functionally, ectopically expressed AR45 protein was shown to bind androgen, localize to the nucleus, interact with the full-length AR NTD, and inhibit full-length AR activity in a ligand- and DBD-dependent manner. Moreover, overexpression of AR45 in LNCaP cells inhibited proliferation. Together, these data indicate that AR45 is a negative regulator of AR signaling. However, AR45 was also demonstrated to harbor transcriptional activity under conditions of overexpression of the AR co-activators β-catenin or TIF-2 (Ahrens-Fath et al. 2005), which is a phenomenon that has been demonstrated for DBD/CTD fragments derived from the AR in other studies (Alen et al. 1999, He et al. 1999). A recent study revealed a potentially interesting role for AR45 in the increased risk of drug-induced cardiac arrhythmias in women. The human ether-a-go-go-related gene (HERG) K⁺ channel has been implicated in this gender bias, and DHT-mediated stabilization of HERG protein was observed in cells transfected with AR45 but not full-length AR (Wu et al. 2008).

Loss-of-function AR variants: AR alternative splicing in androgen insensitivity syndrome

The X-linked inheritance pattern of androgen insensitivity syndromes (AIS) is caused by AR genetic alterations in 46, XY males. These AR gene alterations result in AR proteins with impaired function that prevents normal androgen signaling and proper development of internal and external male phenotypes (Brinkmann 2001). The most severe AIS phenotype is complete AIS (CAIS), where individuals have a complete female appearance. Partial AIS (PAIS) includes a wide range of phenotypes including individuals with a primarily female appearance as well as individuals with a primarily male appearance. In general, the severity of AIS is proportional to the level of impaired AR activity caused by specific alterations in the gene. The best-characterized AR gene alterations in AIS are single point mutations that result in an amino acid substitution or a premature translation termination, insertions/deletions resulting in a reading frameshift, or a complete/partial gene deletion (Gottlieb et al. 2004). However, a number of alternatively spliced AR mRNAs have been identified in AIS syndrome, resulting in AR proteins with impaired function. Importantly, gene defects have been associated with these alternatively spliced variants, often within intronic splice donor or splice acceptor sites (Fig. 3). Therefore, it would be more appropriate to refer to these events as disruptions in normal splicing as opposed to bona fide alternative splicing to reflect the fact that the pathologic transcripts are produced from an altered gene sequence.
AR splicing disruptions in CAIS

In 1990, AR gene sequencing in a patient with CAIS yielded the observation that the sequences of coding exons were unaltered, but a G→T mutation occurred within the splice donor site of intron 4 (Ris-Stalpers et al. 1990). This mutation was shown to lead to the use of an alternative cryptic splice donor in exon 4, resulting in an in-frame 123 bp deletion from AR mRNA and a concomitant 41 amino acids internal deletion of the AR protein (CAIS-1 in Fig. 3). This variant displayed no ligand-binding activity and no transcriptional activity on an androgen-responsive promoter–reporter gene. Since this initial observation, similar mutations in splice donor sites of introns 2 and 7 have been described in two other individuals with CAIS, leading to skipping of exons 2 and 7 from AR mRNAs respectively (Lim et al. 1997, Hellwinkel et al. 1999). The exon 2-deleted AR protein (CAIS-2 in Fig. 3) was prematurely truncated by virtue of a premature stop codon encoded by out of frame exon 3, and the exon 7-deleted AR protein (CAIS-3 in Fig. 3) was ~98 kDa as opposed to the 110 kDa wild-type AR.

Figure 3 Mutations and structural alterations in the AR gene disrupt mRNA splicing patterns in androgen insensitivity syndrome (AIS). (A) Schematic of the AR gene locus with intronic point mutations and structural alterations that have been identified in individuals with complete AIS (CAIS) or partial AIS (PAIS). Predominant AR mRNA isoforms expressed in individuals with these specific gene alterations are illustrated in (B).

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AR. As expected, these alternatively spliced AR variants were unable to bind androgens (Lim et al. 1997, Hellwinkel et al. 1999).

**AR splicing disruptions in PAIS**

Alternatively spliced AR variants have also been described in individuals with PAIS, indicating that cells with altered AR splicing patterns can retain some level of residual AR activity. This could result from AR variants maintaining some degree of transcriptional activity, or a residual level of splicing that permits synthesis of wild-type AR mRNA and protein. A >6 kb deletion has been described in AR intron 2, which resulted in skipping of exon 3 and synthesis of an AR variant protein (PAIS-1 in Fig. 3) that lacks the 39 amino acids zinc finger encoded by this exon (Ris-Stalpers et al. 1994). This variant displayed normal ligand binding, but no transcriptional activity on an AR-responsive promoter–reporter construct. PAIS was attributed to some residual splicing of AR exons 1–8 and a low level of expression of wild-type AR protein. Similarly, a T→A mutation 11 bp upstream of exon 3 was shown to be associated with two alternatively spliced AR transcripts (PAIS-2 in Fig. 3), one of which arose through skipping of exon 3, and one of which resulted from use of a cryptic splice acceptor site 71 bp upstream of exon 3 (Bruggenwirth et al. 1997). The protein encoded by use of this alternative splice acceptor site contained an additional 23 amino acids zinc finger encoded by this exon (Ris-Stalpers et al. 1994). This variant displayed normal ligand binding, but no transcriptional activity on an AR-responsive promoter–reporter construct. PAIS was attributed to some residual splicing of AR exons 1–8 and a low level of expression of wild-type AR protein. Similarly, a T→A mutation 11 bp upstream of exon 3 was shown to be associated with two alternatively spliced AR transcripts (PAIS-2 in Fig. 3), one of which arose through skipping of exon 3, and one of which resulted from use of a cryptic splice acceptor site 71 bp upstream of exon 3 (Bruggenwirth et al. 1997). The protein encoded by use of this alternative splice acceptor site contained an additional 23 amino acids zinc finger encoded by this exon (Ris-Stalpers et al. 1994). This variant displayed normal ligand binding, but no transcriptional activity on an AR-responsive promoter–reporter construct. PAIS was attributed to some residual splicing of AR exons 1–8 and a low level of expression of wild-type AR protein. Similarly, a T→A mutation 11 bp upstream of exon 3 was shown to be associated with two alternatively spliced AR transcripts (PAIS-2 in Fig. 3), one of which arose through skipping of exon 3, and one of which resulted from use of a cryptic splice acceptor site 71 bp upstream of exon 3 (Bruggenwirth et al. 1997).

**Role of the AR in PCa development and progression**

The prostate is an androgen- and AR-dependent tissue. PCa cells retain this androgen- and AR-dependent property. Androgen depletion therapy (ADT) is a collective term used to refer to surgical castration, pharmacologic castration via LH releasing hormone analogs, or administration of antiandrogens such as bicalutamide. These modes of ADT are the standard systemic treatments for locally advanced, relapsed, or metastatic PCa. Initially, these therapies are able to effectively inhibit AR transcriptional activity in PCa cells, leading to reduced expression of AR target genes such as PSA and tumor regression. However, changes eventually occur in the biology of tumors during ADT that allows resumption of tumor growth, and metastatic spread. This stage of the disease, termed castration-resistant PCa (CRPCa), is a major cause of PCa morbidity and mortality. Therefore, this transition from a treatable, androgen-dependent disease to a lethal, castration-resistant disease has been an area of intense interest. Studies on the mechanisms of PCa progression during ADT have demonstrated that in nearly all cases resumed AR transcriptional activity is a critical event (Knudsen & Scher 2009). Therefore, as appears to be the case with other targeted cancer therapies, resistance of PCa to ADT usually occurs through changes in the drug target. Several important mechanisms of AR reactivation during ADT have been identified including AR point mutations, intratumoral androgen production, and AR protein expression/gene amplification. These mechanisms of AR reactivation have been reviewed in detail elsewhere (Agoulnik & Weigel 2006, Culig & Bartsch 2006, Pienta & Bradley 2006, Heemers & Tindall 2007, Chen et al. 2009, Knudsen & Scher 2009). Investigation of intratumoral androgen production mechanisms and modes of AR activation have led to the development of abiraterone acetate and MDV3100 as new therapies for men with CRPCa. Abiraterone is an inhibitor of the CYP17 enzyme, which catalyzes two steps in androgen biosynthesis. This drug blocks intra-tumor conversion of progesterone and adrenal androgens to DHT (Attard et al. 2009) and a recent phase III trial demonstrated an overall survival benefit for abiraterone in men with metastatic CRPCa (de Bono et al. 2011). MDV3100 is a non-steroidal antiandrogen that can inhibit AR even under conditions of protein overexpression...
(Tran et al. 2009). Phase I/II clinical trials have demonstrated efficacy for MDV3100 in a subset of patients with CRPCa, and this drug is currently being tested in phase III trials (Payton 2010, Scher et al. 2010). Overall, these clinical advances have served as confirmation that targeting AR signaling in CRPCa remains an important option for treatment of this stage of the disease.

**Gain-of-function AR variants discovered in the CWR22 PCa model**

It was recently discovered that AR alternative splicing can give rise to COOH-terminally truncated AR protein isoforms that lack the AR LBD. These AR isoforms are missing the region of the receptor that would be predicted to mediate responses to traditional ADT, as well as new AR-targeted therapies such as abiraterone and MDV3100. Key observations leading to this discovery were initially reported in 2002, when it was demonstrated that 22Rv1 cells expressed two separate AR protein species of ~112 and 75–80 kDa (Tepper et al. 2002). By antibody mapping, it was demonstrated that the smaller 75–80 kDa AR species was composed of the AR NTD and DBD, but lacked the AR LBD. Further biochemical characterization revealed that the AR ΔLBD isoform was constitutively nuclear and could bind DNA independent of androgens. Co-immunoprecipitation experiments indicated that the AR ΔLBD isoform did not interact with full-length AR, suggesting that this species functioned as an independent factor. In another study, western blots with benign and cancerous prostate tissue demonstrated that AR immunoreactive species with a similar mobility to the AR ΔLBD isoform were frequently expressed in clinical PCa (Libertini et al. 2007). Together, these studies provided the first evidence that AR protein species lacking the LBD could play an important role in modulating PCa therapy resistance.

The mechanism proposed for synthesis of the AR ΔLBD protein species in PCa cells was via proteolytic degradation of full-length AR by calpain-2 (Libertini et al. 2007). This was based on the presence of a consensus calpain cleavage site in the AR hinge region and the observation that calpain-2 was able to cleave full-length AR protein in cell extracts derived from LNCaP and 22Rv1 cells, as well as the CRPCa CWR-R1 cell line which was also derived from the CWR22 xenograft model (Libertini et al. 2007, Chen et al. 2010). In addition, the full-length AR mRNA in 22Rv1 cells had been shown to be larger due to tandem duplication of AR exon 3, and this larger form of the AR appeared to have enhanced susceptibility to this mechanism of cleavage (Libertini et al. 2007). However, several recent studies have suggested that alternative splicing could also be an important contributor to the synthesis of truncated AR species lacking the AR LBD in these and other cells. This new concept was initially based on the observation of differential siRNA targeting of the various AR species in 22Rv1 cells (Dehm et al. 2008). For example, siRNA targeted to AR exon 7 abolished expression of full-length AR in 22Rv1 cells, but had no effect on the smaller 75–80 kDa species. Conversely, siRNA targeted to AR exon 1 knocked down expression of all AR immunoreactive species in 22Rv1 cells. Functionally, androgen-dependent expression of AR target genes and androgen-dependent cell growth was shown to be attributable to full-length AR, whereas androgen-independent expression of AR target genes and constitutive, androgen-independent growth was shown to be supported by the smaller 75–80 kDa species. These observations strongly suggested that different mRNA species encoded the different AR protein species observed in these cells, and provided the foundation for 3’-RACE and other approaches to identify their origin (Dehm et al. 2008, Guo et al. 2009, Hu et al. 2009, 2011, Marcias et al. 2010). These efforts led to the identification of a series of alternatively spliced AR mRNAs expressed in 22Rv1 cells that resulted from cryptic exons located within AR introns 2 and 3. The AR isoforms or variants encoded by these alternatively spliced mRNAs have been shown to function as constitutively active, ligand-independent transcription factors that can support the CRPCa phenotype in various model systems. Specific details of the individual AR isoforms that have been identified in models derived from the CWR22 xenograft are discussed in the following section. A major barrier to clarity regarding this emerging topic is the nomenclature that has been employed by different investigators, leading to instances where different names have been given to the same isoform (e.g. AR 1/2/3/2b, AR-V4, AR5, and ARV6 are all encoded by contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/2b; AR-V7 and AR3 are both encoded by contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/CE3; and ARv567es and AR-V12 are both encoded by skipping of exons 5–7). Also, there are instances where different isoforms have been given the same name (e.g. AR-V7 encoded by contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/CE3 and AR-V7 encoded by contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/3/4/5/6/7/8). Therefore, we will discuss these isoforms in the context of their exon constituency, and acknowledge all of the various names that have been given to these isoforms to date (Fig. 4).
Splicing of AR exons 1/2/2b and 1/2/3/2b

AR exon 2b was discovered following 5’-RACE experiments with RNA derived from 22Rv1 cells (Dehm et al. 2008). AR exon 2b was shown to splice downstream of either AR exon 2 or AR exon 3, giving rise to truncated AR proteins containing the AR NTD, one or both zinc fingers of the AR DBD, and a short 11 amino acid COOH-terminal extension encoded by AR exon 2b. Expression of the 75–80 kDa immunoreactive species in 22Rv1 cells was reduced upon transfection with exon 2b-specific siRNA, which corresponded with an inhibition of androgen-independent cell proliferation. These data confirmed that transcripts containing AR exon 2b were translated to functional proteins. Importantly, there was no effect of exon 2b siRNA on androgen-stimulated proliferation, further supporting the concept that truncated AR isoforms could support features of the CRPCa phenotype independent of full-length AR. Functionally, AR 1/2/2b and AR 1/2/3/2b were shown to
function as constitutively active transcription factors in promoter-reporter assays. The AR 1/2/2b AR mRNA was also shown to be expressed in VCaP cells as well as the LuCaP 23.1 and 35 models of PCA progression.

Additional studies by other groups have confirmed the existence of mRNA species containing exon 2b in the 22Rv1 model system, but with variability in the precise 3' composition of the transcript. For example, one transcript was reported with exon 2b (referred to as exon CE4 in the study) spliced between exons 2 and 3, with exon CE1 at the 3' terminus (Hu et al. 2009). This isoform was termed AR-V3 in this study, and was proposed to encode a 53 amino acids COOH-terminal extension due to a TAA trinucleotide deletion in the sequence of CE4 compared with the sequence of exon 2b. The reason for this discrepancy is not clear, but could be due to procedural differences or the fact that 22Rv1 cells harbor 2 genomic copies of AR exon 2b (Li et al. 2011). Another transcript was also identified with exon 2b spliced between the duplicated copies of exon 3, with exon CE1 at the 3' terminus (Hu et al. 2009). This configuration, termed AR-V4, matched the splicing pattern for the AR5 mRNA reported in a separate study (Guo et al. 2009). Importantly, AR5 mRNA expression was detected by RT-PCR at a low level in benign prostate tissue as well as PCA tissue. In yet another study, AR exon 2b (referred to as exon 2' in that study) was shown to be spliced between the duplicated copies of exon 3 in the context of an mRNA species, termed V6, with contiguous splicing of AR exons 1–8 (Marcias et al. 2010). Together, these data indicate that many AR mRNAs in the 22Rv1 cell line contain exon 2b spliced after exon 2 or 3, with possible variation in the composition of the 3' untranslated region of these transcripts.

### Splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE1 and 1/2/3/3/CE1

Two AR mRNA species composed of contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/CE1 (termed AR-V1) and AR exons 1/2/3/3/CE1 (termed AR-V2) were demonstrated to be expressed in 22Rv1 cells following the bioinformatic identification of AR exon CE1 as an expressed sequence tag mapping to AR intron 3 (Hu et al. 2009). The AR-V1 transcript composed of AR exons 1/2/3/CE1 was detected by quantitative RT-PCR at a higher level in RNA isolated from CRPCa tissue specimens versus hormone naïve PCa. In another study, the AR 1/2/3/CE1 isoform was also detected in 22Rv1 cells, and termed AR4 (Guo et al. 2009). No studies have been performed to demonstrate translation of either of these mRNAs into endogenous proteins.

### Splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE2

Two separate AR mRNA species composed of contiguously spliced AR exons 1/2/3/CE2 have been identified, with different locations for the splice acceptor site used for incorporation of exon CE2 into these mRNAs (Hu et al. 2009). As with the identification of AR exon CE1, exon CE2 was originally discovered by bioinformatic identification of an expressed sequence tag mapping to AR intron 3. The isoform generated from utilization of the most 5' splice acceptor site in exon CE2, termed AR-V5, results in a protein predicted to encode a single aspartate residue following exon 3 coding sequence. The isoform generated from utilization of the most 3' splice acceptor site in exon CE2, termed AR-V6, results in a protein predicted to encode a six amino acid COOH-terminal extension following exon 3 coding sequence. No studies have been performed to demonstrate translation of this mRNAs into an endogenous protein.

### Splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE3

The best-characterized alternatively spliced AR isoform identified to date is encoded by contiguously splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE3. In one study, this isoform was named AR-V7 (Hu et al. 2009), and in another study this same isoform was named AR3 (Guo et al. 2009). As with AR exons CE1 and CE2, exon CE3 was originally discovered based on bioinformatic identification of an expressed sequence tag mapping to AR intron 3 (Hu et al. 2009). Importantly, AR 1/2/3/CE3 mRNA was detected in various clinical PCa specimens as well as normal prostate tissue (Hu et al. 2009). Quantitative RT-PCR demonstrated that the RNA levels of this isoform could predict biochemical recurrence following surgery (Hu et al. 2009). The 16 amino acids COOH-terminal extension encoded by AR exon CE3 has been amenable to antibody development (Guo et al. 2009, Hu et al. 2009), and the utilization of these isoform-specific antibodies has revealed widespread protein expression of this isoform in cell lines, xenografts, and clinical specimens. Importantly, protein expression of this isoform was shown to be increased in CRPCa versus hormone naïve PCa (Guo et al. 2009). Also, cytoplasmic levels of this isoform could predict biochemical recurrence following surgery (Guo et al. 2009). It is interesting to note that the AR 1/2/3/CE3 isoform is also expressed at the mRNA and protein level in benign prostate tissue, indicating that there may also be a role for this splicing event in normal cells (Guo et al. 2009). Functionally, AR 1/2/3/CE3 was demonstrated to function as a...
constitutively active, ligand-independent transcription factor that could induce a CRPCa growth phenotype in LNCaP cells grown in vitro and as xenografts in vivo (Guo et al. 2009). Interestingly, in one study, gene expression profiling of LNCaP cells transfected with an expression vector encoding AR 1/2/3/CE3 demonstrated that the ligand-independent transcriptional activity of this isoform could largely recapitulate the gene expression program activated by ligand-induced full-length AR, including the PSA gene (Hu et al. 2009). However, another study that used shRNAs to selectively knockdown the AR 1/2/3/CE3 or full-length AR isoforms in 22Rv1 and CWR-R1 cells demonstrated that AR 1/2/3/CE3 activated a significantly different gene expression program than ligand-activated AR (Guo et al. 2009). One differentially regulated gene that was identified was AKT1 (Guo et al. 2009). The AR 1/2/3/CE3 isoform was shown to activate AKT1 expression at the mRNA and protein level, whereas full-length AR had no effect on AKT1 expression. Mechanistically, this could be attributed to the finding that AR 1/2/3/CE3 but not full-length AR could bind to two AREs located in the AKT1 promoter region. Overall, this body of work demonstrates that an AR variant derived from contiguous splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE3, termed AR-V7 or AR3, is a clinically validated AR isoform that could play an important role in supporting the CRPCa phenotype.

Insertion of an extra copy of exon 3 and a novel exon 3′ between AR exons 3 and 4

Additional alternatively spliced AR isoforms have recently been cloned from 22Rv1 cells using a yeast functional assay to identify AR cDNAs with constitutive or ligand-induced transcriptional activity (Marcias et al. 2010). This approach led to the identification of an additional cryptic exon in AR intron 3 termed 3′. Sequencing of the isolated cDNA, which was named AR-V7 in this study, demonstrated that exon 3′ spliced between an extra copy of AR exons 3 and 4, giving rise to a truncated AR isoform containing the entire AR NTD, DBD, an extra zinc finger encoded by the extra copy of exon 3, and a novel 23 amino acids COOH-terminal extension encoded by exon 3′.

Gain-of-function AR variants discovered in other PCa models

The identification of alternatively spliced, truncated AR isoforms lacking the AR LBD in cell lines derived from the CWR22 PCa xenograft model, and extension of the findings to other models of PCa progression as well as human tissues demonstrated that this phenomenon may be a widespread mechanism of resistance to ADT therapies targeting the AR LBD. Indeed, examination of AR mRNA expression profiles in various other PCa models has led to the identification of additional AR mRNA species that are predicted to encode proteins that display constitutive, ligand-independent transcriptional activity. These isoforms and key details of their discovery are outlined below.

Splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/4/8 in LuCaP 86.2 and LuCaP 136 xenografts

An AR mRNA isoform arising through skipping of exons 5–7, termed ARv567es, was discovered in the LuCap 86.2 and LuCaP 136 xenografts following examination of AR mRNA profiles via RT-PCR (Sun et al. 2010). Interestingly, in the LuCaP 86.2 xenograft, full-length AR mRNA did not appear to be expressed at either the mRNA or protein level, which is in contrast to 22Rv1 and other models where full-length AR expression levels remain high. No experiments have been performed to demonstrate that the ARv567es mRNA is translated to an endogenous protein in these xenograft models, although the xenografts do display high-level expression of a ∼80 kDa species that is immunoreactive with an AR NTD-directed antibody (Sun et al. 2010). Skipping of AR exons 5–7 was confirmed via RT-PCR in several additional xenograft models of PCa progression, patient samples of metastatic CRPCa, primary PCa, as well as benign prostate epithelium. These findings indicate that skipping of exons 5–7 by the splicing machinery is frequent, and can even occur in non-cancerous tissue. Functionally, ARv567es was shown to act as a constitutively active, ligand-independent transcription factor that could support CRPCa cell growth in vitro and in vivo. Interestingly, ARv567es was also shown to interact with full-length AR and enhance its ligand-dependent and ligand-independent activity, perhaps through a mechanism of protein stabilization or even induction of full-length AR translocation to the nucleus in the absence of androgens.

Deep sequencing identifies additional alternative AR splicing patterns in VCaP cells

The VCaP cell line has been an additional cell-based PCa model of interest for studying AR alternative splicing in PCa progression because these cells express a smaller 75–80 kDa AR species that is recognized by antibodies directed to the AR NTD, but not the LBD (Dehm et al. 2008). An adaptation of the 3′-RACE
The development of the 3′-RACE/next-generation sequencing workflow using VCaP cells led to deployment of this approach in the Myc-CaP model of PCa. Myc-CaP cells were derived from prostate tumors that arose in mice expressing a prostate-specific myc transgene (Watson et al. 2005). A recent study demonstrated the synthesis of four novel alternatively spliced AR isoforms in these cells, which were named mAR-V1-4 (Watson et al. 2010). mAR-V1 was composed of contiguously spliced mouse exons 1/2/3, followed by read-through into intron 3. Remarkably, mAR-V2 and mAR-V4 were found to harbor novel cryptic exons located outside of the AR gene. One exon, located ~250 kb downstream of the AR locus, was shown to be spliced after AR exon 3 to yield the mAR-V2 isoform. The other exon, located ~1 Mb upstream of the AR locus, was shown to be spliced after AR exon 4 to yield mAR-V3 and mAR-V4. mAR-V3 differed from mAR-V4 by virtue of skipping of AR exon 3. Importantly, expression of mAR-V2 and mAR-V4 was confirmed at the protein level following isoform-specific knockdown of these species in Myc-CaP cells. Functional study of the mAR-V4 isoforms demonstrated that mAR-V4 was a constitutively active, ligand-independent transcription factor, and was constitutively localized to the nucleus. Conversely, mAR-V2 did not display transcriptional activity and was found to be localized predominantly to the cytoplasm. Consistent with these findings, ectopic expression of mAR-V4, but not mAR-V2, could support the growth of LNCaP xenografts in castrated mice. Interestingly, studies with the AR antagonist MDV3100 and siRNA directed to the full-length AR mRNA demonstrated that the CRPCa-promoting effects of mAR-V4 required functional full-length AR. Similar observations were made with the AR 1/2/3/CE3 isoform, indicating that truncated AR variants may not be able to take over the complete function of full-length AR under castrate conditions.

Genomic tiling arrays identifies alternative AR splicing patterns in clinical CRPCa

Another novel workflow has been developed to identify additional alternatively spliced AR isoforms is based on selective linear amplification of sense RNA using an exon 3-anchored forward primer, followed by detection of amplified products using an AR gene tiling array (Hu et al. 2011). This approach was able to detect synthesis of mRNAs containing AR exons 2b/CE4, CE1, CE2, and CE3 in 22Rv1 cells, but also detected expression of a novel isoform termed AR-V9, which was produced by contiguous splicing of AR exons 1/2/3 and a novel cryptic exon termed CE5, located within AR intron 3. This exon configuration matched the AR-V9 isoform previously reported in VCaP cells (Watson et al. 2010). This approach also led to the identification of an additional novel AR exon expressed in RNA derived from CRPCa tissue specimens. This exon, termed ‘exon 9′ was located downstream of AR exon 8, and was shown to be the most 3′ exon in three discrete AR mRNA species, termed AR-V12 (AR exons 1/2/3/4/8/9, which would encode the AR367es variant), AR-V13 (AR exons 1/2/3/4/5/6/9), and AR-V14 (AR exons 1/2/3/4/5/6/7/9; Hu et al. 2011). Functional evaluation demonstrated that AR-V9 and AR-V12 (identical to AR367es) displayed varying degrees of constitutive, ligand-independent transcriptional activity depending on the cell line studied, and AR-V9 was shown to function independently of full-length AR in LNCaP cells.
Regulation of AR splicing and synthesis of truncated AR isoforms

Truncated AR mRNA and/or protein expression, in particular the AR-V7/AR3 isoform resulting from splicing of AR exons 1/2/3/CE3 and the AR\textsuperscript{V567Es} isoform, resulting from skipping of AR exons 5–7, has been shown to occur in normal prostate tissues, indicating that the mere presence of these factors is unlikely to be pathogenic. This observation also suggests that there may be normal functions attributable to AR alternative splicing and synthesis of truncated AR isoforms. This possibility is also supported by studies of the AR45 isoform, which is synthesized at the mRNA level in normal tissues of various origin. However, a consistent finding has been an increased level of expression of alternatively spliced, truncated AR isoforms in CRPCa cells versus androgen-dependent PCa cells (Dehm et al. 2008, Guo et al. 2008, Hu et al. 2009, Sun et al. 2010). This suggests that ADT exerts a selective pressure favoring the expression of constitutively active, truncated AR isoforms. One possible mechanism for this increase in truncated AR isoform expression could be changes in expression or activity of factors that regulate AR splicing patterns. In this case, plasticity in these splicing patterns would be expected, which represents an opportunity to develop therapies to modify aberrant splicing patterns. However, studies of alternatively spliced AR variants synthesized in individuals with AIS has demonstrated that alterations in AR splicing patterns can also be due to sequence or structural changes in the genomic DNA template, which represents a ‘new normal’ for that cell. With these concepts in mind, our laboratory recently reported that the disruptions in AR splicing patterns in 22Rv1 cells was linked to a ∼35 kb intragenic tandem duplication of a genomic segment encompassing AR exon 3 and many of the cryptic AR exons that are expressed in these and other cells (Li et al. 2011). These include exons 2b/CE4, CE1, CE2, CE3, CE5, as well as the four additional exons that were recently identified in the AR-V8-V11 isoforms expressed in VCaP cells. This rearrangement was not observed in the CWR22Pc cell line, which is an androgen-dependent subline developed from the original CWR22 xenograft (Li et al. 2011). However, during long-term castration, CWR22Pc cells progressed to a CRPCa growth phenotype that was marked by emergence of a rare subpopulation of cells harboring this gene rearrangement, and emergence of high-level truncated AR expression (Li et al. 2011). This finding demonstrates that alterations in the AR gene may underlie disruptions in mRNA splicing patterns observed in CRPCa cells such as 22Rv1. This concept is also supported by the observation that the mAR-V4 isoform results from contiguous splicing of mouse AR exons 1/2/3/4, and a cryptic exon located ∼1 Mb upstream of the AR locus, which, similar to the AR 1/2/3/2b isoform, likely requires alterations in gene architecture to be synthesized (Watson et al. 2010). Remarkably, the AR gene in Myc-CaP cells, where mAR-V4 was discovered, is frequently amplified, indicating that amplification may also be associated with alterations in gene architecture (Watson et al. 2005). By examining high-resolution gene copy number data derived from clinical CRPCa specimens, we observed frequent copy number imbalances along the length of amplified AR genes, which is a finding consistent with complex gene rearrangements (Li et al. 2011). Together, these data suggest that changes in the genomic DNA template may underlie disrupted AR splicing patterns and pathologic synthesis of truncated, constitutively active AR isoforms in CRPCa cells. Further studies are required for a more complete understanding of the mechanisms regulating synthesis of alternatively spliced, truncated AR isoforms in PCs.

Perspectives and future directions

Various alternatively spliced AR isoforms have been identified in pathologic conditions including AIS and CRPCa. Alternatively spliced AR isoforms have also been observed in non-cancerous tissues; however, it remains to be determined whether these have a role in normal cellular processes. In CRPCa, a common theme is the synthesis of AR isoforms with a modular organization consisting of the AR NTD, the AR DBD, and short COOH-terminal extensions of variable length and sequence. Constitutive, ligand-independent transcriptional activity of these isoforms represents a conceptually simple mechanism for the development of resistance to PCs therapies that target the LBD. However, several studies have clearly demonstrated that additional understanding is required in this area. For example, there is evidence to suggest that the exons encoding the COOH-terminal extensions of truncated AR isoforms may provide important regulatory information in addition to harboring in-frame translation stop codons. This is particularly important because replacement of AR exon 4 with an alternative cryptic exon would disrupt the well-characterized AR NLS encoded by correctly spliced exons 3 and 4. Future studies are required to resolve this issue, and determine the molecular basis for the differences in
nuclear localization of the different AR variants that have been reported (Sun et al. 2010, Watson et al. 2010). Similarly, differences in transcriptional activity of different AR variants have been reported (Dehm et al. 2008, Guo et al. 2009, Watson et al. 2010, Hu et al. 2011). It will also be important to understand whether these different COOH-terminal extensions adjacent to the AR DBD can influence DNA-binding activity. The mechanisms by which full-length AR could influence AR isoform function (and vice versa) will also require further investigation, particularly in light of the findings that the AR isoform interacts with wild-type AR (Sun et al. 2010) and that interfering with full-length AR expression or activity affects the function of the ectopically expressed AR-V7 and mAR-V4 isoforms (Watson et al. 2010). However, these findings contrast with studies in models that naturally express truncated AR isoforms. For example, the LuCaP 86.2 xenograft model does not appear to express full-length AR, indicating that normal AR activity is not required for AR isoform function (Sun et al. 2010). Similarly, knockdown of full-length AR in 22Rv1 cells does not affect androgen-independent proliferation or constitutive activation of AR target genes supported by truncated AR isoforms (Dehm et al. 2008). Finally, it will be critical in future studies to evaluate quantitatively the levels of alternatively spliced AR isoforms relative to wild-type AR to differentiate between background splicing byproducts and significant alterations in AR splicing patterns that could affect response to PCa therapies targeting the AR LBD.

Declaration of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

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