

# The DNA-Dependent Protein Kinase Participates in the Activation of NF $\kappa$ B Following DNA Damage

Subimal Basu, Kenneth R. Rosenzweig, Matthew Youmell, and Brendan D. Price<sup>1</sup>

Joint Center for Radiation Therapy, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Harvard Medical School,  
44 Binney Street, Boston, Massachusetts 02115

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**The NF $\kappa$ B transcription factor is activated by diverse stimuli, including Ionizing Radiation (IR) and the cytokine TNF $\alpha$ . The role of DNA-PK, a protein kinase involved in the response to DNA damage, in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR and TNF $\alpha$  was examined. In M059K cells, which express DNA-PK, NF $\kappa$ B was activated by both TNF $\alpha$  and IR. In M059J cells, which do not express DNA-PK, IR did not activate NF $\kappa$ B, whereas TNF $\alpha$  induction of NF $\kappa$ B was still observed. In HeLa cells, wortmannin, an inhibitor of DNA-PK, blocked the induction of NF $\kappa$ B by IR but not by TNF $\alpha$ . DNA-PK also phosphorylated the NF $\kappa$ B inhibitory proteins I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  *in vitro*, and deletion analysis demonstrated that DNA-PK phosphorylates 2 distinct regions of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$ . These results indicate that DNA-PK participates in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR but not by TNF $\alpha$ .** © 1998 Academic Press

The Rel/NF $\kappa$ B family of transcription factors play a key role in the cellular response to DNA damage [1-3]. NF $\kappa$ B is activated by UV and X-ray irradiation, cytokines and free radicals [4-7]. Inhibition of NF $\kappa$ B activation results in increased apoptosis following exposure to either TNF $\alpha$  or DNA damaging agents [1-3]. This suggests that activation of NF $\kappa$ B by various agents, including DNA damage, may suppress the apoptotic response.

NF $\kappa$ B is maintained in an inactive state in the cytoplasm by complexing with members of the I $\kappa$ B inhibitory protein family, including I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  [4,8] and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  [9]. This interaction with I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  masks NF $\kappa$ B's nuclear localization signal and inhibits the DNA binding activity of NF $\kappa$ B [4]. The phosphorylation of serines 32 and 36 of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  [8] by the recently cloned I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  kinase [10-12] stimulates the ubiquitination of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$ , followed by

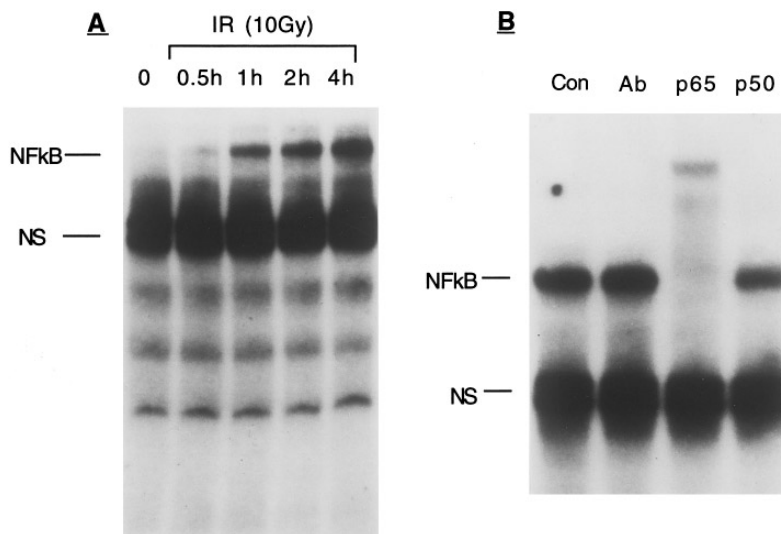
degradation of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  by the 26S proteasome complex [8]. NF $\kappa$ B is then translocated to the nucleus and activates transcription of a variety of genes. I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  also participates in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B. Hypophosphorylated I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  binds to NF $\kappa$ B, but this interaction does not block the DNA binding or transcriptional activities of NF $\kappa$ B. Instead, hypophosphorylated I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  prevents the binding of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  to NF $\kappa$ B [13,14]. The phosphorylation of the C-terminal of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  by Casein Kinase II converts I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  to a form which inhibits the DNA binding activity of NF $\kappa$ B [14,15]. I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  therefore appears to regulate both the activation and repression of NF $\kappa$ B depending on the level of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  phosphorylation.

The signal transduction pathway which links X-ray induced DNA damage to the activation of NF $\kappa$ B has not been identified. In this study, we have examined the role of the DNA-dependent Protein Kinase (DNA-PK) in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by DNA damage. DNA-PK is a serine/threonine kinase consisting of an 86kd regulatory protein and a 460kd catalytic domain [17]. The 86kd regulatory protein binds specifically to the ends of double-stranded DNA, causing activation of DNA-PK's kinase activity [18]. Cells which are deficient in DNA-PK activity fail to repair double-strand DNA breaks, have faulty V(D)J recombination and are extremely sensitive to radiation [17]. DNA-PK therefore plays a central role in detecting DNA strand breaks and in regulating the cellular response to DNA damage. Here, we show that DNA-PK phosphorylates I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$ , and provide evidence that functional DNA-PK is required for the activation of NF $\kappa$ B following exposure to DNA damaging agents, but not following exposure to TNF $\alpha$ .

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

**Cells.** Cells were maintained in Hams-F12 (HeLa cells) or DMEM/Hams-F12 (M059J and M059K cells) with 10% Fetal Bovine Serum. Reagents were obtained from: p50 and p65 antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotech, CA); Wortmannin, TPA and etoposide (Sigma, St. Louis, MI); TNF $\alpha$  (Boehringer-Mannheim, IN).

<sup>1</sup> Corresponding author: B.D. Price, JF209, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, 44 Binney St., Boston, MA 02115. Fax: (617) 632-4779. E-mail: brendan\_price@dfci.harvard.edu.



**FIG. 1.** Activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR. A. HeLa cells were mock irradiated (0) or irradiated (10Gy) and NF $\kappa$ B DNA binding activity was measured at the indicated times. B. Cell Extracts from irradiated HeLa cells were incubated for 15min with either buffer (Con), non-specific antibody (Ab; 1 $\mu$ g), anti-p65 antibody (p65; 1 $\mu$ g) or anti-p50 antibody (p50; 1 $\mu$ g) prior to analysis by EMSA. ns, non-specific bands.

**Electrophoretic gel mobility shift assays (EMSA).** Cell lysates were prepared as described [19]. EMSA reactions contained: Cell lysate (10 $\mu$ g), [ $^{32}$ P]-NF $\kappa$ B consensus oligonucleotide (AGTTGAGGGGACTTT-CCCAGGC; 0.5ng), BSA (20 $\mu$ g), pdI-dC (2 $\mu$ g), Buffer D+ (2 $\mu$ l), Buffer F (4 $\mu$ l) and DTT (1mM) in 20 $\mu$ l. Buffer D+: [20mM Hepes pH 7.9, 20% glycerol, 100mM KCl, 0.5mM EDTA, 0.25% NP40]. Buffer F: [20% FICOLL 400, 100mM Hepes pH7.9, 300mM KCl].

**Fusion proteins and kinase assays.** pGEX-2T-I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  was constructed by inserting a BamHI/EcoRI fragment of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  into pGEX-2T. Fusion proteins were purified as previously described [20]. I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  deletions were generated by PCR and inserted into pGEX-2T using the primers: **M**: CGCGGATCCATGGCCGGGGTTCGCGTGC-TTGG. **N**: CGCGGATCCATGCCCCGAGGACCAGGTCTG. **G**: CCGGAATTCTCAAGGGCTAAGCTTATG. **F**: CCGGAATTCTGAATCATA-TTCATCGCCCTCATCTCTGTT. **E**: CCGGAATTCTCAGGCAGGGTTGGGGTTCATCAGG.

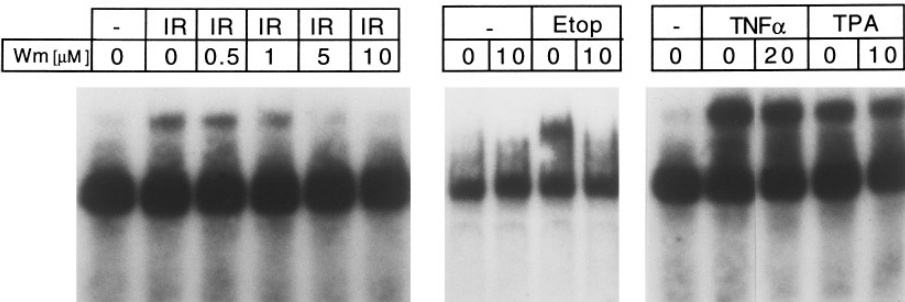
DNA-PK kinase assays contained 0.5Sp1 units of purified DNA-PK protein (Promega, Madison WI) in 10 $\mu$ l of kinase buffer [25mM Hepes, pH7.5; 50mM KCl; 10mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>; 20% v/v glycerol; 0.1% NP-40; 20 $\mu$ M ZnCl<sub>2</sub>; 1mM dithiothreitol]. 10 $\mu$ l of reaction mix [0.5 $\mu$ g fusion protein; 0.2 $\mu$ g calf thymus DNA; 10 $\mu$ M ATP; 10 $\mu$ Ci [ $^{32}$ P]-ATP; 13mM spermidine; 4mM MgCl<sub>2</sub>] was added and incubated for 20 min at 25°C. Reaction products were separated by SDS-PAGE and phosphorylated proteins identified by autoradiography.

## RESULTS

In fig 1, the ability of Ionizing Radiation (IR) to activate NF $\kappa$ B in HeLa cells was examined. NF $\kappa$ B DNA binding activity was measured by EMSA using the consensus NF $\kappa$ B DNA binding site. IR induced the appearance of a slowly-migrating protein-DNA complex (fig 1A). This IR induced complex was supershifted by antibodies against the p65 sub-unit of NF $\kappa$ B (fig 1B) and binding was decreased in the presence of antibodies against the p50 subunit of NF $\kappa$ B (fig 1B: p50) but not by a non-specific antibody (fig 1B: Ab). The lower, non-specific bands (fig 1, ns) were unaffected by addition of

either anti-p65 or anti-p50 antibodies. The IR induced band therefore represents an activated NF $\kappa$ B complex. The activation of NF $\kappa$ B in HeLa cells by IR was relatively slow, with maximal activation seen after 2-4h. Figure 1 demonstrates that a specific NF $\kappa$ B complex is activated in HeLa cells following exposure to IR.

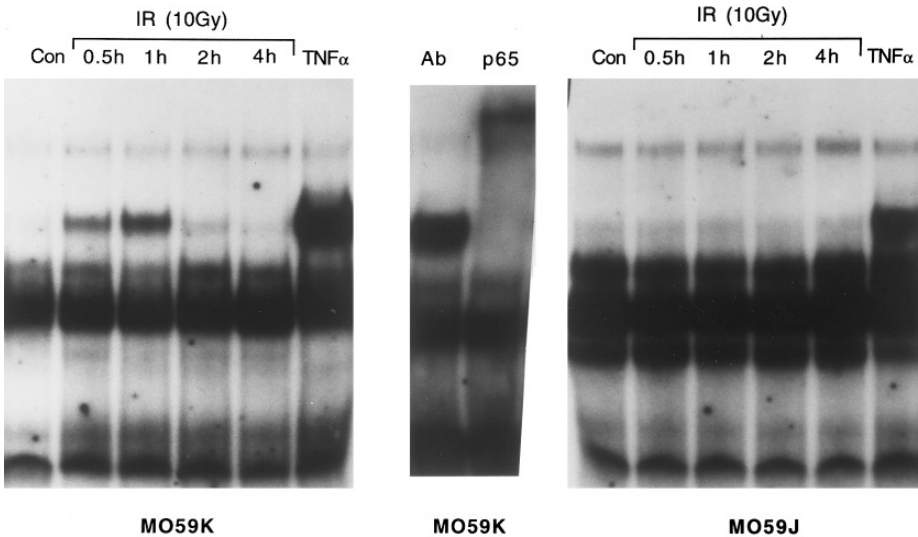
Many cellular responses to DNA damage are mediated by members of the PI 3-Kinase gene family [22], which includes the Ataxia Telangiectasia (ATM) gene product [23] and the DNA-dependent protein kinase [DNA-PK; 22,26]. Recently, we demonstrated that the PI 3-kinase inhibitor wortmannin is a potent inhibitor of DNA-PK [24]. To determine if DNA-PK participates in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR, HeLa cells were incubated with increasing concentrations of wortmannin and then exposed to IR. Wortmannin inhibited the IR induced activation of NF $\kappa$ B at 5 $\mu$ M (fig 2), which is similar to the concentration required to inhibit DNA-PK [24]. We also examined the ability of etoposide, a topoisomerase II inhibitor which generates strand breaks in DNA [21], to activate NF $\kappa$ B. Etoposide activated NF $\kappa$ B, and this activation was efficiently suppressed by wortmannin (fig 2). In fig 2, we also examined the ability of wortmannin to inhibit the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by non-DNA damaging agents such as TNF $\alpha$  and the phorbol ester TPA. The activation of NF $\kappa$ B by either TNF $\alpha$  or TPA was unaffected by wortmannin (fig 2). This indicates that a wortmannin sensitive step is required for the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by the genotoxic agents IR and etoposide, but not for activation by TNF $\alpha$  and TPA. Although wortmannin inhibits DNA-PK *in vivo* [24] wortmannin may inhibit other members of the PIK family, such as ATM, as well as other unidentified kinases [22-24]. To further examine the role of DNA-



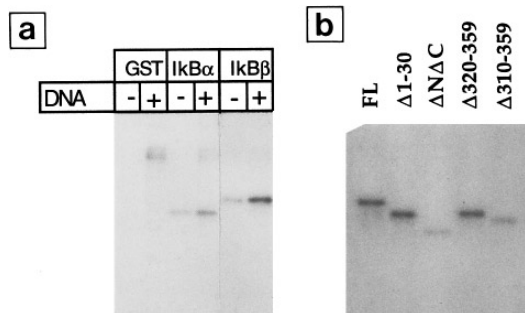
**FIG. 2.** Effect of wortmannin on the activation of NF $\kappa$ B. HeLa cells were preincubated for 15min in Wortmannin (Wm), and either irradiated (IR, 10Gy) or exposed to Etoposide (Etop, 50 $\mu$ M), TNF $\alpha$  (TNF, 10ng/ml) or TPA (TPA, 400nM). Cell extracts were prepared after 1h (TNF $\alpha$  & TPA) or 2h (IR & Etop) and analyzed by EMSA.

PK in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR, we utilized cells with a defined genetic defect in DNA-PK activity. M059J and M059K cells were isolated from distinct parts of a single human glioma biopsy [25]. M059J cells do not express detectable DNA-PK mRNA or protein, and are 30-fold more sensitive to radiation than the M059K cells [25]. M059J and M059K cells thus provide a system with a similar genetic background and defined DNA-PK status to examine the role of DNA-PK in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by radiation. M059J and M059K cells were exposed to either IR or TNF $\alpha$  (fig 3), and the levels of NF $\kappa$ B activation assessed by EMSA. Exposure of both M059J and M059K cells to TNF $\alpha$  led to the appearance of a new protein-DNA complex (figure 3), which was super-shifted by the addition of anti-p65 antibodies, but not by non-specific antibodies. This indicates the presence of a TNF $\alpha$  activated NF $\kappa$ B protein complex in both the M059J and M059K cell lines. However, when the cells were irradiated, only the DNA-PK

positive M059K cells displayed detectable activation of NF $\kappa$ B. No activation was seen in the DNA-PK negative M059J cells (fig 3). This result is consistent with the observation in fig 2 that the DNA-PK inhibitor wortmannin inhibits DNA damage induced activation of NF $\kappa$ B but not TNF $\alpha$  activation, supporting the hypothesis that activation of NF $\kappa$ B by IR involves DNA-PK. The activation of NF $\kappa$ B occurs by phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  followed by ubiquitin dependent degradation [8]. To determine if DNA-PK directly regulates the I $\kappa$ B proteins, we examined if I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  were substrates for phosphorylation by purified HeLa cell DNA-PK. Glutathione-S-Transferase (GST) I $\kappa$ B fusion proteins were incubated with purified HeLa cell DNA-PK (fig 4a). Since DNA-PK requires double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) for full activity [18], all DNA-PK assays were carried out in the presence and absence of dsDNA. GST protein was not phosphorylated by DNA-PK under any condition (fig 4a). Both GST-I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and GST-I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$



**FIG. 3.** NF $\kappa$ B is not activated by DNA damage in M059J cells. M059K or M059J cells were stimulated with TNF $\alpha$  (TNF; 10ng/ml) for 30min or exposed to IR (10Gy) and the reactions terminated at the indicated time. EMSA was carried out as described in methods. TNF $\alpha$  stimulated extracts from M059K cells were incubated with antibodies to p65 or a non-specific antibodies (Ab) as indicated.



**FIG. 4.** Phosphorylation of IκB-α and IκB-β by DNA-PK. a. DNA-PK was incubated with GST, GST-IκB-α or GST-IκB-β in the absence (-) or presence (+) of calf thymus DNA to activate DNA-PK. b. DNA-PK was incubated with 0.5 μg of Full Length GST-IκB-β (FL), or GST-IκB-β with deletions of amino-acids 1-30 (Δ1-30), amino-acids 320-359 (Δ320-359), amino-acids 310-359 (Δ310-359) or IκB-β spanning only amino-acids 30-310 (ΔNΔC). All kinase reactions were carried out in the presence of calf thymus DNA.

were weakly phosphorylated by DNA-PK in the absence of exogenous DNA, and phosphorylation of both proteins was stimulated by addition of calf thymus DNA to activate DNA-PK. DNA-PK consistently phosphorylated IκB-β to a much greater extent than IκB-α. IκB-α incorporated  $0.2 \pm 0.1$  moles phosphate/mole protein, whereas IκB-β incorporated  $1.5 \pm 0.2$  moles of phosphate/mole of protein. This indicates that IκB-β is a better substrate for DNA-PK than IκB-α.

To determine the regions of IκB-β which were phosphorylated by DNA-PK, four deletions of IκB-β were generated by PCR and then analyzed for their ability to be phosphorylated by DNA-PK. In (Δ1-30)-IκB-β, the first 30 amino-acids from the N-terminal were deleted. This region contains two serines at positions 19 and 23 which are analogous to serines 32 and 36 in IκB-α which are responsible for inducible degradation of IκB-α [8,9]. The C-terminal (amino-acids 311-359) of IκB-β contains multiple serine and threonine residues, with the majority of serines located between amino-acids 310-320 within the sequence Cys-Ser-Ser-Ser-Gly-Ser-Asp-Ser-Asp-Ser [9]. Two C-terminal deletions were generated, Δ320-359, which still contains the serine rich region between amino-acids 310 and 320, and Δ310-359, with this region deleted. In addition, the central portion of IκB-β, lacking both the N- and C-terminal regions (ΔNΔC, covering amino-acids 30-310), was examined. Both full length IκB-β, and IκB-β with a deletion of amino-acids 1-30 were efficiently phosphorylated by DNA-PK (fig 4b; Δ1-30). Deletion of amino-acids 320-359 from the C-terminal also did not alter the phosphorylation of IκB-β by DNA-PK (fig 4b; Δ320-359). However, deletion of amino-acids 310-359 (fig 4b; Δ310-359) caused a marked reduction in IκB-β phosphorylation by DNA-PK, although some phosphorylation of IκB-β by DNA-PK was still detected. When both the N- and C-terminal sequences were de-

leted, generating a protein containing only amino-acids 30-310, significant phosphorylation of IκB-β by DNA-PK was still detected (fig 4b; ΔNΔC). The results indicate that there are at least two distinct regions of IκB-β phosphorylated by DNA-PK *in vitro*, and that these are located between amino-acids 30-310 and 310-320.

## DISCUSSION

The results indicate that activation of NFκB by TNFα and TPA does not require DNA-PK, whereas NFκB activation by the DNA damaging agents IR and etoposide involves the participation of DNA-PK. This is supported by two separate lines of evidence. First, wortmannin inhibits activation of NFκB by both IR and etoposide, but not by TPA and TNFα. We have previously shown that wortmannin inhibits DNA-PK activity [24]. However, ATM and DNA-PK have significant homology within their kinase domain, suggesting that ATM, and other related proteins, may also be inhibited by wortmannin. To determine if DNA-PK plays a critical role in the activation of NFκB by IR, we examined M059J and M059K cells, which were isolated from a single human glioma biopsy and share a similar genetic background. M059J cells lack detectable DNA-PK activity [25], and failed to activate NFκB following exposure to radiation (fig 3). However, M059J cells still displayed NFκB activation following stimulation by TNFα, indicating the presence of activated NFκB in M059J cells. Although M059J cells may have other defects which contribute to the lack of IR induction of NFκB, it is more likely that the failure to see IR induced NFκB stems from the absence of DNA-PK. This combination of pharmacological studies and the DNA-PK defective cells indicates a key role for DNA-PK in the signal transduction pathway linking DNA damage to the activation of NFκB.

To further define the role of DNA-PK in the activation of NFκB, we examined if DNA-PK phosphorylates IκB-α and IκB-β. IκB-α was a poor substrate, whereas IκB-β was strongly phosphorylated by DNA-PK in two distinct regions located between amino-acids 30-309, and 310-320. Casein Kinase II (CKII) phosphorylates IκB-β at serines 313 and 315 [16], which is the same region phosphorylated by DNA-PK (fig 4). *In vitro* studies demonstrated that hypophosphorylated IκB-β binds to NFκB and displaces IκB-α, but does not block nuclear localization or DNA-binding of the NFκB complex [14]. The phosphorylation of IκB-β at serine 313 and 315 by Casein Kinase II converts IκB-β into a form which suppresses NFκB DNA binding activity *in vitro* [15,16] DNA-PK phosphorylates the same region of IκB-β as Casein Kinase II (amino-acids 310-320, fig 4). However, although we could demonstrate that IκB-β phosphorylated by Casein Kinase II inhibited NFκB DNA binding activity, IκB-β phosphorylated by DNA-

PK had no effect on NF $\kappa$ B DNA binding activity<sup>2</sup>. This difference may reflect the ability of DNA-PK to phosphorylate two distinct regions of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$ , including the central region containing the ankyrin repeat sequence, as well as the C-terminal Casein Kinase II region.

The exact function of the phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  by DNA-PK in the DNA damage induced activation of NF $\kappa$ B is unclear. NF $\kappa$ B exists as an inactive NF $\kappa$ B-I $\kappa$ B complex in the cytoplasm. DNA-PK is mainly nuclear in HeLa cells, although a significant fraction of the DNA-PK protein is located in cytoplasm [26,27]. DNA-PK is thought to be activated by interaction with DNA strand breaks in the nucleus [18], making it unlikely that nuclear DNA-PK and cytoplasmic NF $\kappa$ B could directly interact. DNA-PK can translocate to the cytoplasm following stimulation of cells with EGF [27], but we have not seen translocation of DNA-PK following exposure to DNA damaging agents<sup>2</sup>. In HeLa cells, p50, I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$  and I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  can be detected in the nucleus of both unstimulated and stimulated cells [15,28], suggesting that nuclear activation of NF $\kappa$ B complexes by DNA-PK occurs following DNA damage. However, the amounts of I $\kappa$ B and p50 in the nucleus are small [15,28], and may not be sufficient to account for the activation of NF $\kappa$ B seen after DNA damage. This suggests that other signaling intermediates are required for the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by DNA-PK. The ATM protein, which is also involved in regulating the DNA damage response, phosphorylates the C-terminal of I $\kappa$ B- $\alpha$ , and cells lacking ATM have deregulated NF $\kappa$ B expression [29]. ATM and DNA-PK may therefore cooperate in the activation of NF $\kappa$ B by genotoxic agents. DNA-PK also associates with c-abl and activates c-abl's kinase activity following exposure to DNA damage [23]. This interaction may also participate in the signaling required for the activation of cytoplasmic NF $\kappa$ B by DNA damage. The activation of NF $\kappa$ B by DNA-PK following DNA damage may therefore proceed through both direct phosphorylation of I $\kappa$ B- $\beta$  by DNA-PK as well as through up-regulation of other DNA damage dependent signaling pathways.

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<sup>2</sup> S. Basu and B.D. Price, unpublished observation.