#### = REVIEW =

# Cyclin-Dependent Kinase Inhibitor p21<sup>Waf1</sup>: Contemporary View on Its Role in Senescence and Oncogenesis

V. S. Romanov<sup>1,2\*</sup>, V. A. Pospelov<sup>1,3</sup>, and T. V. Pospelova<sup>1,3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Institute of Cytology, Russian Academy of Sciences, Tikhoretsky pr. 4, 194064 St. Petersburg, Russia; fax: (812) 297-3541; E-mail: vsromanov@hotmail.com <sup>2</sup>Leibniz Institute for Age Research — Fritz Lipmann Institute, Beutenbergstraße 11, D-07745 Jena, Germany <sup>3</sup>St. Petersburg State University, Universitetskaya nab. 7/9, 199034 St. Petersburg, Russia

> Received February 24, 2012 Revision received March 15, 2012

**Abstract**—p21<sup>Waf1</sup> was identified as a protein suppressing cyclin E/A-CDK2 activity and was originally considered as a negative regulator of the cell cycle and a tumor suppressor. It is now considered that p21<sup>Waf1</sup> has alternative functions, and the view of its role in cellular processes has begun to change. At present, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is known to be involved in regulation of fundamental cellular programs: cell proliferation, differentiation, migration, senescence, and apoptosis. In fact, it not only exhibits antioncogenic, but also oncogenic properties. This review provides a contemporary understanding of the functions of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> depending on its intracellular localization. On one hand, when in the nucleus, it serves as a negative cell cycle regulator and tumor suppressor, in particular by participating in the launch of a senescence program. On the other hand, when p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is localized in the cytoplasm, it acts as an oncogene by regulating migration, apoptosis, and proliferation.

**DOI**: 10.1134/S000629791206003X

Key words: p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, oncogene, cell cycle, senescence, cytoplasmic localization, apoptosis

Cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors (CKIs) play a crucial role in the regulation of the cell cycle in non-transformed cells and are implicated in suppression of cell proliferation under stress conditions caused by growth factor deficiency, DNA damage, heat shock, and exposure to heavy metals or antiproliferative cytokines, particularly  $TGF-\beta$  [1, 2].

CKIs are divided into two families, Ink4 and Cip/Kip. The first includes four proteins: p15<sup>Ink4b</sup>, p16<sup>Ink4a</sup>, p18<sup>Ink4c</sup>, and p19<sup>Ink4d</sup>. They have rather narrow specificity: by interacting with CDK4 and CDK6, they prevent complex formation between these kinases and D-type cyclins [3, 4]. The Cip/Kip family includes p21<sup>Waf1/Cip1</sup>, p27<sup>Kip1</sup>, and p57<sup>Kip2</sup>, which are able to inactivate cyclin-dependent kinase 2 (CDK2). However, many other proteins implicated in various cellular processes are also targets for members of this family. The most studied member of the Cip/Kip family is p21<sup>Waf1</sup>.

## FUNCTIONS OF p21Waf1 IN THE NUCLEUS

p21<sup>Waf1</sup> as a negative regulator of the cell cycle. p21<sup>Waf1</sup> was identified as a p53-dependent protein implicated in cell cycle checkpoints in G<sub>1</sub> and S phases by inhibiting activities of cyclin E-CDK2 and cyclin A-CDK2 complexes (Fig. 1) [5, 6]. Later, it was shown that p21<sup>Waf1</sup> also causes cell cycle arrest in the G<sub>2</sub> and M phases [7-10]. This probably occurs due to the implication of p21Wafl in transcriptional repression of Emil, an inhibitor of the APC/C ubiquitin-ligase complex (Anaphase-Promoting Complex/Cyclosome). It was demonstrated on HCT116 cells that this results in APC/C-dependent degradation of A- and B-type cyclins and cell cycle arrest in the G<sub>2</sub> phase [11]. Studies demonstrating negative cell cycle regulation by p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, as well as experiments on murine models with knockouts of distinct tumor suppressors, in which p21Wafl inactivation results in increased tumorigenesis, enable classification of this CKI as a tumor suppressor. It is worth noting, however, that this conclusion was later revised [12-15].

<sup>\*</sup> To whom correspondence should be addressed.

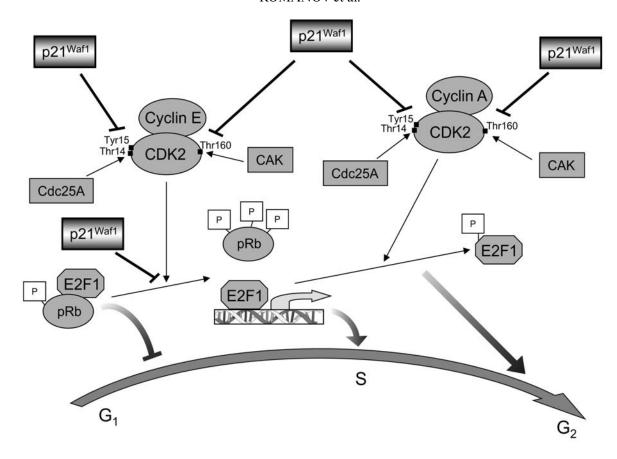


Fig. 1. Scheme demonstrating regulation of cyclin E-CDK2 and cyclin A-CDK2 complex activities that are responsible for cell transition from  $G_1$  to S phase and progression through the S phase, respectively. The targets of cyclin E-CDK2 complexes are pRb family proteins, whose hyperphosphorylation leads to release of E2F family transcription factors, E2F1-DP1 dimers, which is required for expression of S phase-specific genes. The cyclin A-CDK2 complexes determine the further fate of E2F. The kinase of the cyclin A-CDK2 complex phosphorylates E2F1, which results in the loss of the DNA-binding capability of the E2F1-DP1 dimer whose timely inactivation is decisive for correct completion of the S phase and transition to the  $G_2$  phase of the cell cycle. Inhibitory effect of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is based on competition with CAK, Cdc25A, and pRb for binding with cyclin-CDK2 complexes (see text for details).

p21<sup>Waf1</sup> contains a CDK2 kinase-binding site (K-site) at the N-terminal region and cyclin A- and E-binding sites: Cy1 at the N-terminus (high affinity) and Cy2 at the C-terminus (low affinity). It was shown that all three sites are involved in the interaction of p21 Wafl with cyclin E-CDK2 and cyclin A-CDK2 complexes [16, 17]. Crystallographic analysis demonstrated the interaction between the Cip/Kip family CKIs and cyclin-kinase complexes. An inhibitor initially interacts with a cyclin, and then - via the K-site - with CDK2 [18]. The inhibitory effect of p21Wafl is based on its binding to cyclin-kinase complexes, so that it shields the Thr160 residue of CDK2 from activating phosphorylation by CAK kinase (Fig. 1) [19]. Besides, the Cip/Kip family members prevent the activating dephosphorylation of Thr14 and Tyr15 of CDK2 by Cdc25A phosphatase, which interacts with cyclin-kinase complexes by a site homologous to Cy1. The inhibition of cyclin E-CDK2 and cyclin A-CDK2 complexes by p21 Waf1 is not possible after the activating dephosphorylation of CDK2 by

Cdc25A. And otherwise, dephosphorylation of kinases cannot occur after formation of functionally inactive cyclin-CDK2-p21<sup>Waf1</sup> ternary complexes [20]. This can be explained assuming that cyclin-kinase complexes have the same binding sites for Cdc25A and p21<sup>Waf1</sup>. Thus, the Cip/Kip family CKIs inhibiting cyclin-kinase complexes and CAK and Cdc25A proteins activating them continually compete for binding to cyclin-CDK2 (Fig. 1). Moreover, there are data on competition between p21<sup>Waf1</sup> and pRb family proteins (p107 and p130), which are CDK2 targets, for sites of binding with cyclin-CDK2 complexes [21, 22].

There are other p21<sup>Waf1</sup>-mediated pathways of suppression of cell proliferation (Fig. 2). A site localized on the C-terminus of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is responsible for interaction with a DNA-polymerase  $\delta$  subunit, PCNA, and thereby for inhibition of DNA replication [23-26]. Besides, independently of cyclin-CDK2 complex inactivation, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> can regulate transcription by direct binding with E2F1 transcription factors to inhibit their activity [27]. p21<sup>Waf1</sup>

can also inactivate other transcription factors, such as STAT3 and c-Myc, thus suppressing STAT3- and c-Myc-dependent transcription [28, 29]. Interestingly, the antiproliferative role of complex formation between transcription factors and p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is not restricted to inactivation of these factors. In particular, the interaction between p21<sup>Waf1</sup> and C/EBP- $\alpha$  transcription factors leads to stabilization of this CKI level due to suppression of its degradation [30]. Besides interactions with PCNA and transcription factors, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> forms complexes with stressactivated Gadd45 family proteins, which likely also comprises part of the proliferation suppression program, but the role of this interaction remains unclear [31, 32].

Being a regulator of transcription factor activities,  $p21^{Waf1}$  is also implicated in control of gene expression at the level of regulation of transcription coactivators such as p300 and CBP. Cyclin E-CDK2 complexes bind with p300/CBP proteins and prevent their interaction with NF- $\kappa$ B, while p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, by inhibiting CDK2, causes p300/CBP release, thus providing NF- $\kappa$ B-dependent transcription [33]. Furthermore, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> can regulate

transcriptional activity of the coactivators p300 and CBP via their CRD1 domains, independently from cyclin E-CDK2. The mechanism of this p300/CBP activation remains largely unknown, but it was found that a mediator is required for manifestation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> effect on the CRD1 domain [34, 35]. Later, it was shown that p21<sup>Waf1</sup> could directly bind to p300, thus regulating histone acetylation, an important process in DNA repair (Fig. 2). The p21<sup>Waf1</sup> molecules interacting with PCNA and p300 in DNA damage regions prevent complex formation of these proteins and abolish the PCNA-dependent inhibition of HAT activity of p300, which is required for providing access of repair proteins to the damaged DNA [36].

The implication of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in DNA repair is not restricted to regulation of p300 activity [37]. p21<sup>Waf1</sup> can directly interact with PARP1 enzyme, a marker of both single- and double-stranded DNA breaks that plays an important role in DNA repair via interacting with many repair proteins (Fig. 2) [38]. Fibroblasts with knocked out p21<sup>Waf1</sup> demonstrate excessive accumulation of PARP1 in

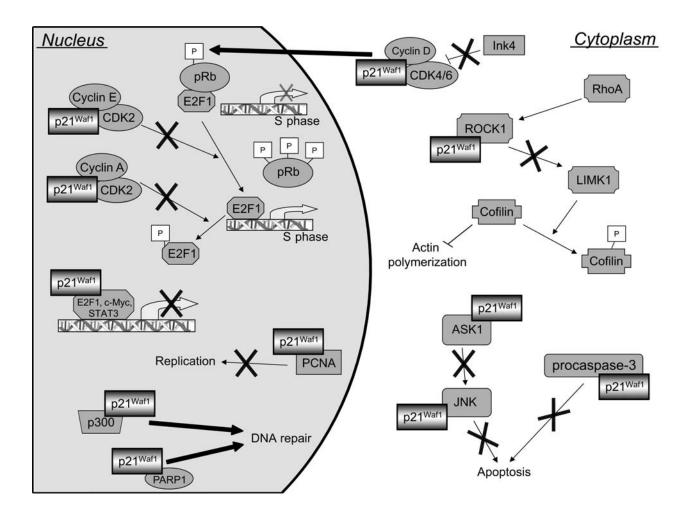


Fig. 2. Nuclear and cytoplasmic functions of  $p21^{Wafl}$ . Depending on intracellular localization,  $p21^{Wafl}$  is implicated in regulation of the cell cycle, DNA repair, apoptosis, and reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton (see text for details).

DNA lesions, which counteracts access of repair factors such as XRCC1 and DNA polymerase  $\beta$  and decreases efficiency of DNA repair [39]. This suggests the involvement of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in regulation of interaction between PARP1 and DNA repair proteins, with p21<sup>Waf1</sup> being a factor promoting efficient DNA repair. It is worth noting that p21<sup>Waf1</sup> regulating the precise action of the repair system and thus decreasing the probability of spontaneous mutations exhibits antioncogenic properties.

Thus, in the last two decades many data were accumulated on functions of  $p21^{Waf1}$  as a negative regulator of the cell cycle and a tumor suppressor. It should be emphasized that all above-mentioned protein—protein interactions occur in the nucleus. To all appearances, it is the nucleus where  $p21^{Waf1}$  is also implicated in the antitumor program of cellular senescence.

**p21**<sup>Waf1</sup> **and cellular senescence.** Since the program of cellular senescence is tightly associated with cell cycle arrest, a number of studies have been performed on the role of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in this program. Nonetheless, its role is not completely elucidated.

According to a commonly accepted model, suppression of proliferation in senescent primary cells is initiated following p53-dependent transcriptional activation of the CDKN1A gene encoding p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, which results in  $G_1$  arrest. In many cell lines p21<sup>Waf1</sup> activation is temporary, and the level of this protein decreases after cell cycle arrest. In contrast, another CKI, p16Ink4a, becomes upregulated, so this inhibitor was supposed to maintain cell cycle arrest in senescent cells [40-42]. Later, this strict distribution of the roles was revised because data appeared indicating that p16<sup>Ink4a</sup> is not an obligate protein for senescence of some cell types [43]. In particular, BJ human skin fibroblasts do not express p16Ink4a, also after the activation of the cellular senescence program. Just inactivation of the p53-p21Wafl signaling pathway is required for canceling the cell cycle arrest of senescent BJ cells [44]. Besides, the miRNA- or siRNA-mediated knockdown of p21 Waf1 in HMEC epithelial cells, which also do not express p16<sup>Ink4a</sup>, abrogates Ras-induced cellular senescence triggering, thus demonstrating the crucial role of namely p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in HMEC cell senescence [45]. Recently, Takeuchi and colleagues have demonstrated activation of both replicative and Ras-induced senescence of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) with knocked out p21<sup>Waf1</sup> or p16<sup>Ink4a</sup>, but obtained no evidence of senescence of MEFs with double knockout of these CKIs [46]. Thus, to all appearances p21Waf1 and p16Ink4a fulfil interconvertible functions in the program of cellular senescence, and the implication of these CKIs in establishment of the senescence phenotype depends on their expression profiles and activities.

Despite the abundance of data implicating p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in the program of cellular senescence, mechanisms of its involvement in this process and contribution to establishment of senescence phenotype are not completely

known. In human fibroblasts the p21Wafl level elevates through passages of primary cells [40, 41, 47]. This is associated with an increase in the portion of cells with drastically increased CDKN1A expression rather than with gradual accumulation of the protein in the entire population. Fast kinetics of elevation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> expression coincides with the kinetics of its accumulation in response to DNA damage, which is consistent with a model of triggering replicative senescence resulting from DNA "lesion" in telomeric regions in the absence of telomerase activity [48]. Elevation of p21Wafl level in senescence correlates with ATM-dependent phosphorylation at Ser15 and activation of the transcription factor p53, as well as with accumulation of phosphorylated histone H2AX, a marker of double-stranded DNA breaks (nuclear  $\gamma$ -H2AX foci). Since the majority of  $\gamma$ -H2AX foci in replicative senescence are localized in telomeric regions, the elevation of p21Wafl expression most likely results directly from appearance of open chromosomal ends, which are recognized as double-stranded breaks [49].

To all appearances, elevation of p21Wafl level in telomere-independent senescence is also associated with accumulation of y-H2AX foci. Recently, Passos and coworkers demonstrated the existence of a feedback loop between p21Wafl and reactive oxygen species (ROS) in ionizing radiation (IR)-induced senescence of human and murine fibroblasts. They proposed a model according to which the non-repaired double-stranded DNA breaks cause a p53-dependent accumulation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, leading to activation of the Gadd45-p38-TGFB signaling pathway, mitochondrial dysfunction, and gradual elevation of ROS level. High level of ROS, being a DNA damaging factor, leads to yet higher number of DNA breaks and causes accumulation of  $p21^{Wafl}$  and  $\gamma\text{-H2AX}$  foci, which results in continuation of cell cycle arrest and activation of the cellular senescence program [50]. This model is of great interest because there are many reports on the correlation between high levels of ROS and cellular senescence [51-53]. It is worth noting that the model explains the multistage, rather than one-stage, character of the senescence program, although it does not answer the main question: how does elevated level of p21Wafl lead to the establishment of the characteristic senescence phenotype?

On the other hand, the data appear that accumulation of senescence-associated  $\gamma$ -H2AX foci might not be related to DNA breaks. Recently, a detailed analysis of  $\gamma$ -H2AX-containing foci in senescent cells was performed [54] that demonstrated the absence of single-stranded DNA breaks and repair enzymes therein. Besides, it was shown that cellular senescence of E1A/Ras-transformed rodent fibroblasts caused by long-term treatment with the HDAC inhibitor sodium butyrate (NaBut), as well as the IPTG-p21<sup>Waf1</sup>-induced senescence of HT1080 human fibrosarcoma cells, are accompanied by accumulation of

 $\gamma\text{-H2AX}$  foci without DNA damage. The DNA comet assay revealed no DNA breaks in these senescent cells. Unlike DNA-damaging agents, particularly IR, NaBut causes formation of  $\gamma\text{-H2AX}$  foci lacking double-stranded DNA break markers, such as 53BP1 and phospho-ATM [55]. It should be emphasized that the NaBut-induced accumulation of  $\gamma\text{-H2AX}$  foci is p21  $^{Waf1}$ -dependent, as is evident from examination of E1A/Ras-transformants with knocked out p21  $^{Waf1}$  [56]. These data suggest cardinally different, not associated with DNA damage, nature of  $\gamma\text{-H2AX}$  focus formation in NaBut-induced cellular senescence.

In many human tumor cell lines, the overexpression of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> leads to cell cycle arrest and appearance of cellular senescence markers such as SA-β-Gal activation and cell hypertrophy and flattening [57, 58]. Besides, cDNA array hybridization and gene expression assays suggest that the IPTG-induced overexpression of p21Waf1 in HT1080 cells leads to elevated expression of extracellular matrix proteins, such as fibronectin, PAI1, and integrin 3β, which are implicated in replicative senescence of primary fibroblasts [59]. The role of p21Waf1 in the NaButinduced senescence of E1A/Ras-transformed murine fibroblasts (mERas) was also studied. It was shown that, unlike mERas p21Wafl-/-, the program of cellular senescence is activated in full-genomic mERas cells, which is characterized by the appearance of markers such as activation of SA-β-Gal, accumulation of γ-H2AX foci, irreversibility of cell cycle arrest, and flattening and hypertrophy of the cells [56]. Some reports suggest that HDAC inhibitors have an antiproliferative effect, in particular due to the p53-independent activation of the CDKN1A gene promotor [60-62]. However, NaBut caused cell cycle arrest in mERas cells independently from the presence of p21 Waf1. The important difference is reversibility of the arrest in mERas p21Wafl-/-, which is indicative of a crucial role of p21Wafl in maintenance of cell cycle arrest in the NaBut-induced senescence of E1A/Ras-transformed MEFs [56].

Besides irreversibility of cell cycle arrest, hypertrophy is also a marker of cellular senescence [63]. Correlation between cell hypertrophy and p21<sup>Waf1</sup> level has been reported in several studies. For example, in experimental diabetic nephropathy in vitro rat mesangial cells demonstrated hypertrophy correlating with elevated expression of p21Waf1, but not other Cip/Kip family CKIs [64]. Experimental diabetes mellitus in vivo caused by streptozotocin was accompanied by hypertrophy of wildtype but not p21<sup>Waf1</sup>-null murine mesangial cells [65]. p21<sup>Waf1</sup> knockdown by antisense oligodeoxynucleotides (ODN) led to suppression of human mesangial cell hypertrophy caused by either high level of glucose in the culture medium or IGF1 stimulation [66]. Similar results were obtained on rat thoracic aortic smooth muscle cells: elevation of p21Waf1 expression was accompanied by cell hypertrophy, whereas suppression of p21Wafl by ODN

inhibited it [67]. Involvement of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in hypertrophy was also shown for murine adipocytes [68]. However, the mechanism of dependence of cell hypertrophy on p21Waf1 is not yet understood. Hypertrophy is a consequence of cell cycle arrest at high activity of mTOR kinase complex 1 (mTORC1) controlling protein synthesis via phosphorylation of key regulators of mRNA translation, namely the S6 kinase 1 (S6K1) and 4E-BP1 [63]. A correlation was shown in NaBut-induced senescence of mERas cells between p21Wafl-dependent irreversibility of cell cycle arrest, hypertrophy, and activation of the mTORC1dependent pathway. In mERas p21Wafl-/- cells compared with full-genomic mERas, elevation of phosphorylation of the mTORC1 cascade target, ribosomal protein S6 (rpS6), does not occur, as well as elevation of total protein and size of the cells. These data suggest involvement of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in regulating transformed MEF hypertrophy via control over the mTORC1 cascade [56]. In Blagosklonny's laboratory, it was shown that IPTGinduced overexpression of p21Wafl causes hypertrophy of HT1080 human fibrosarcoma cells, which can be canceled by treatment with rapamycin, a specific inhibitor of mTORC1 [69, 70]. Taken together, these data suggest a dependence of cell hypertrophy and activity of mTORC1 on p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, but the role of this CKI in regulation of the mTORC1 cascade remains unknown.

### FUNCTIONS OF p21Waf1 IN THE CYTOPLASM

One can see from the previous section that many data demonstrate the antiproliferative role of  $p21^{Waf1}$  in regulation of the cell cycle. Nevertheless, alternative functions of this CKI in cytoplasm were reported, which change the oversimplified view on  $p21^{Waf1}$  as only a negative regulator of proliferation [12-14, 71, 72].

p21Waf1 and oncogenesis. It was shown in vitro that p21<sup>Waf1</sup> knockout counteracts transformation of primary mouse embryonic fibroblasts, rather than facilitating it. Pantoja and Serrano have shown that, unlike p53- or p16<sup>Ink4a</sup>-null MEFs, both the wild-type and p21<sup>Waf1</sup>-null MEFs cannot be transformed by introduction of the c-Hras oncogene. At high expression of constitutively active Ras, both cell lines maintain the shape of flattened nontransformed fibroblasts and cannot form colonies in soft agar and proliferate at clonal density [73]. Simultaneous introduction of c-H-ras and the complementary oncogene E1A, which leads to transformation of primary MEFs, cannot compensate for the absence of p21<sup>Waf1</sup>. In particular, unlike full-genomic mERas, mERas p21<sup>Waf1-/-</sup> cells lack some features characteristic of the transformed phenotype, in particular they cannot proliferate at clonal density and divide independently on attachment to sub-

Inactivation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> tumor suppressor function in human tumors is very rarely due to mutations or deletions

of the CDKN1A gene, but commonly occurs at the posttranslational level [75]. Despite the absence of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in some cancer types, its overexpression or cytoplasmic localization correlates with poor prognosis in malignant tumors of skin, pancreas, breast, prostate, ovary, cervix, and brain [14, 76-84]. The relocation of p21Waf1 to the cytoplasm is mainly associated with its phosphorylation at the Thr145 residue located near the nuclear localization sequence (NLS) by Akt/PKB kinase [85, 86] and is accompanied by loss of its function as a negative regulator of the cell cycle [87, 88]. Elevation of Akt/PKB activity and phosphorylation of p21Wafl at Thr145 and its relocation from the nucleus to the cytoplasm correlate with poor prognosis in treatment of oncological diseases [89-92]. The relocation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> from the nucleus to the cytoplasm apparently leads to the loss of its tumor suppressor activity and appearance of opposite, oncogenic, features.

The active involvement of p21Waf1 in carcinogenesis was also supported by studies on murine models. It was shown that p21Wafl-deficient mice compared with wildtype mice are not characterized by elevated susceptibility to tumor formation [93]. Moreover, p21Wafl knockout counteracts both appearance of thymus lymphomas in mice subjected to IR [94] and spontaneous formation of this tumor type in mice with knocked out p53 or ATM [95, 96]. Besides, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> knockout considerably decreases PDGF-induced formation of gliomas [97]. Recently, transgenic mice were generated overexpressing the Aktphosphorylated at Thr145 form of p21Wafl in mammary epithelium. It was shown that this overexpression of cytoplasmic p21Wafl leads to accelerated tumor onset and promoted lung metastasis when compared with the wild-type mice [98]. Thus, both clinical studies and studies on murine models suggest that p21Wafl possessing tumor suppressor function in the nucleus can promote carcinogenesis when localized in the cytoplasm.

p21<sup>Waf1</sup> as a positive regulator of cell cycle. According to the contemporary view, cytoplasmic p21Wafl is implicated in positive regulation of the cell cycle. While three sites (Cy1, Cy2, and K) are responsible for the interaction of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> with cyclin E/A-CDK2, this CKI can also form complexes with cyclin D-CDK4/6, but exclusively via the Cy1 site [16]. Interestingly, Cip/Kip family CKIs do not counteract the CDK4/6 activating phosphorylation by CAK and do not inhibit activity of cyclin D-CDK4/6 complexes [99, 100]. Contrariwise, they are required for assembly of these complexes in the cytoplasm and their delivery into the nucleus (Fig. 2) [3, 72]. Knockout of p21Wafl in MEFs leads to a decrease in the content of cyclin D-CDK4 complexes, suppression of their activity, and decrease in cyclin D level in the nucleus. In cells with double knockout of two Cip/Kip CKIs, p21Wafl and p27<sup>Kip1</sup>, cyclin D-CDK4 complexes virtually do not form, the level of cyclin D in the nucleus is considerably decreased, and CDK4-associated kinase activity determined by phosphorylation of pRb remains very low.

Introduction of plasmids encoding p21<sup>Waf1</sup> or p27<sup>Kip1</sup> in these double knockout MEFs restores assembly of cyclin D-CDK4 complexes [101]. This is probably because Cip/Kip family members, when binding to cyclin D and CDK4/6, counteract the interaction between Ink4 family inhibitors and CDK4/6 and play the role of a frame for cyclin D-CDK4/6 complex assembly [102]. Already being in the nucleus, cyclin D-CDK4/6 sequestrate Cip/Kip family CKIs, thus preventing inactivation of cyclin E/A-CDK2 complexes [72, 103]. Thus, the cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup> plays a role of positive regulator of the cell cycle. Obviously, it is a cause of enhanced proliferation in some cell lines in experiments on directed relocation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> from nucleus to cytoplasm [87, 104, 105].

p21Waf1 and actin cytoskeleton. It has been established that Cip/Kip family members, when localized in the cytoplasm, control reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton and cell migration [106]. In particular, it was shown that synthetic peptides identical to the C-terminus of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> uncouple integrins  $\alpha_{\nu}\beta_{3}$  and focal contacts, thus inhibiting integrin-dependent melanoma cell flattening [107]. Besides, the cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup>, by binding to and inactivating Rho-associated kinase 1 (ROCK1), regulates the RhoA-ROCK1-LIMK1-cofilin cascade, whose activity is required for actin stress fiber and focal contact formation (Fig. 2) [108, 109]. Tanaka and associates reported that overexpression of p21Wafl with deletion of the NLS sequence in hippocampal neurons and neuroblastoma cells in vitro inhibits ROCK1 and causes remodeling and elongation of axons [108]. Later, it was shown that delivery of the TAT-fusion protein of cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup> with the same deletion, locally after dorsal hemisection of the thoracic spinal cord in rats, significantly stimulated axonal regeneration and recovery of hindlimb function [110]. Another study suggests that elevation of p21Waf1 expression in Ras-transformed NIH3T3 fibroblasts leads to inhibition of the RhoA-ROCK1-LIMK1-cofilin cascade [109]. p21Wafl is relocated to the cytoplasm and binds with ROCK1, which leads to a decrease in the phosphorylation level of cofilin and to a depolymerization of actin. Inactivation of the Ras-Raf-MEK-ERK cascade by MEK inhibitor U0126 results in a decrease in the level of p21Wafl and its relocation to the nucleus, which correlates with restoration of the actin cytoskeleton and suggests Ras-dependent regulation of intracellular localization of p21Waf1 in NIH3T3 fibroblasts. Experiments on overexpression of p21Waf1 with deleted NLS sequence in Rastransformed NIH3T3 cells have shown that it is the cytoplasmic fraction of p21Wafl that is responsible for actin cytoskeleton disorganization. These experiments have also shown that p21Wafl inability to migrate to the nucleus leads to canceling the effect of U0126 on the cytoskeleton [109]. It should be noted that transformation of immortalized Swiss-3T3 fibroblasts with the c-H-ras oncogene leads to disorganization of the cytoskeleton and enhancement of cell migration, whereas overexpression of LIMK1 followed by restoration of stress fibrils decreases mobility of the cells [111]. The Ras-dependent protein p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is apparently implicated in this process; when localized in the cytoplasm, it inhibits the RhoA cascade and can stimulate migration of the transformed cells. p21<sup>Waf1</sup> was shown to play a key role both in disorganization of the actin cytoskeleton and regulation of migration and invasion of E1A/Ras-transformed MEFs [74]. The presented data demonstrate an important role of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in regulation of the actin cytoskeleton and cell migration. It should be emphasized that, in the context of tumor cell migration and metastasis, such behaviour of this CKI suggests an oncogenic function of cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup>.

p21Waf1 and apoptosis. Another function of cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is associated with regulation of apoptosis (Fig. 2) [72, 112]. This CKI is directly involved in inhibition of this antitumor program by means of binding with a number of proapoptotic proteins to inactivate them. The phosphorylation of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> at Thr57 and Ser130 by ERK2 MAP kinase leads to its relocation from the nucleus to the cytoplasm [113], which is directly associated with protection of human primary fibroblasts from apoptosis following mild DNA damage [114]. The cytoplasmic p21 Waf1 inhibits the JNK (SAPK) family MAP kinases, whose activation is a part of the cell death program initiated in response to stress agents [115]. The inhibition of the stress-activated MAP kinase cascade by cytoplasmic p21<sup>Waf1</sup> also occurs via inactivation of upstream kinase, MAPKKK ASK1 [116]. Besides, it was shown on HepG2 human hepatoma cells that p21 Wafl forms a complex with procaspase-3, a precursor of caspase-3 that directly digests cell proteins. This interaction prevents processing and activation of caspase-3 and leads to suppression of Fas-mediated apoptosis [117]. Another report suggests that p21<sup>Waf1</sup>-procaspase-3 complex formation occurs on the surface of mitochondria following the phosphorylation of p21Waf1 by protein kinase A (PKA) [118]. It is worth noting that - by inhibiting apoptosis - the cytoplasmic fraction of p21Wafl counteracts one of the main antitumor programs, thus contributing to carcinogenesis [13, 72, 119, 120]. In particular, overexpression of p21 Waf1 protects SK-MEL-110 melanoma cells from p53dependent apoptosis [121] and suppresses prostaglandin A2-induced apoptosis of RKO colon carcinoma cells [122]. Induced overexpression of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> causes resistance of glioblastoma cells to chemotherapeutics, such as 1,3bis(2-chloroethyl)-1-nitrosourea and cisplatin [123], and protects H1299 lung adenocarcinoma cells, which do not express p53, from the cytotoxic effect of adriamycin or IR [124]. In contrast, the absence of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> leads to considerable enhancement of HCT116 colon carcinoma cell apoptosis caused by treatment with NaBut or camptothecin [125, 126]. Recently, it was shown both in vitro and in vivo that there are antiapoptotic functions of cytoplasmic p21Waf1 that determine cases of ovarian carcinoma cell resistance to cisplatin [127].

Thus, the modern view of the role of  $p21^{Waf1}$  obviously differs from the primary concept that it is only a negative regulator of the cell cycle and a tumor suppressor; the functions of  $p21^{Waf1}$  are determined depending on its intracellular localization. In the nucleus  $p21^{Waf1}$  activity is directed to suppression of proliferation, while in the cytoplasm, where  $p21^{Waf1}$  is relocated following phosphorylation at distinct sites, it fulfils alternative functions. The presented data suggest oncogenic properties of cytoplasmic  $p21^{Waf1}$  and its implication in malignant transformation of cells.

Depending on intracellular localization, p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is involved in different signaling cascades and cellular programs. Nuclear p21<sup>Waf1</sup> fulfils the integrated negative regulation of the cell cycle by influencing cell proliferation at the levels of cyclin-kinase complexes, transcription factors and coactivators, and suppressing DNA replication. To all appearances, the negative regulation of proliferation determines the key role of p21<sup>Waf1</sup> in the program of cellular senescence. Besides, nuclear p21<sup>Waf1</sup> is also implicated in regulation of DNA repair. In contrast, cytoplasmic p21Wafl facilitates cell proliferation, inhibits apoptosis, and by regulating reorganization of the actin cytoskeleton influences cell migration. These data suggest that p21Wafl on one hand is a tumor suppressor, when localized in the nucleus, and on the other hand is an oncogene, when localized in the cytoplasm. Thus, in a determinate sense, p21Wafl is two-faced Janus, because it can play opposite roles in oncogenesis depending on the intracellular localization. The presented data demonstrate an extremely broad range of processes regulated by this cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor that, under closer examination, proves to be a regulator of a variety of cell programs, in which its implication might hardly be expected soon after its discovery.

This study was supported by Russian Foundation for Basic Research (grant No. 10-04-01152), Russian Academy of Sciences Presidium Program "Molecular and Cell Biology", and St. Petersburg State University (grant No. 1.37.122.2011).

#### REFERENCES

- 1. Vidal, A., and Koff, A. (2000) Gene, 247, 1-15.
- Timofeev, O. V., Pospelova, T. V., and Pospelov, V. A. (2004) *Mol. Biol. (Moscow)*, 38, 309-321.
- Sherr, C. J., and Roberts, J. M. (1999) Genes Dev., 13, 1501-1512.
- 4. Kopnin, B. P. (2000) Biochemistry (Moscow), 65, 2-27.
- El-Deiry, W. S., Tokino, T., Velculescu, V. E., Levy, D. B., Parsons, R., Trent, J. M., Lin, D., Mercer, W. E., Kinzler, K. W., and Vogelstein, B. (1993) *Cell*, 75, 817-825.
- Harper, J. W., Adami, G. R., Wei, N., Keyomarsi, K., and Elledge, S. J. (1993) *Cell*, 75, 805-816.

- Bates, S., Ryan, K. M., Phillips, A. C., and Vousden, K. H. (1998) Oncogene, 17, 1691-1703.
- Dulic, V., Stein, G. H., Far, D. F., and Reed, S. I. (1998)
  Mol. Cell. Biol., 18, 546-557.
- Medema, R. H., Klompmaker, R., Smits, V. A., and Rijksen, G. (1998) Oncogene, 16, 431-441.
- Niculescu, A. B., 3rd, Chen, X., Smeets, M., Hengst, L., Prives, C., and Reed, S. I. (1998) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, 18, 629-643.
- 11. Lee, J., Kim, J. A., Barbier, V., Fotedar, A., and Fotedar, R. (2009) *Mol. Biol. Cell.*, **20**, 1891-1902.
- 12. Dotto, G. P. (2000) Biochim. Biophys. Acta, 1471, 43-56.
- 13. Blagosklonny, M. V. (2002) Cell Cycle, 1, 391-393.
- Abbas, T., and Dutta, A. (2009) Nat. Rev. Cancer, 9, 400-414.
- 15. Gartel, A. L. (2009) Biofactors, 35, 161-164.
- Chen, J., Saha, P., Kornbluth, S., Dynlacht, B. D., and Dutta, A. (1996) Mol. Cell. Biol., 16, 4673-4682.
- 17. Wohlschlegel, J. A., Dwyer, B. T., Takeda, D. Y., and Dutta, A. (2001) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **21**, 4868-4874.
- Russo, A. A., Jeffrey, P. D., Patten, A. K., Massague, J., and Pavletich, N. P. (1996) *Nature*, 382, 325-331.
- Rank, K. B., Evans, D. B., and Sharma, S. K. (2000) Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun., 271, 469-473.
- Saha, P., Eichbaum, Q., Silberman, E. D., Mayer, B. J., and Dutta, A. (1997) Mol. Cell. Biol., 17, 4338-4345.
- Shiyanov, P., Bagchi, S., Adami, G., Kokontis, J., Hay, N., Arroyo, M., Morozov, A., and Raychaudhuri, P. (1996) Mol. Cell. Biol., 16, 737-744.
- 22. Zhu, L., Harlow, E., and Dynlacht, B. D. (1995) *Genes Dev.*, **9**, 1740-1752.
- Li, R., Waga, S., Hannon, G. J., Beach, D., and Stillman, B. (1994) *Nature*, 371, 534-537.
- Shivji, M. K., Grey, S. J., Strausfeld, U. P., Wood, R. D., and Blow, J. J. (1994) *Curr. Biol.*, 4, 1062-1068.
- Chen, J., Jackson, P. K., Kirschner, M. W., and Dutta, A. (1995) *Nature*, 374, 386-388.
- Luo, Y., Hurwitz, J., and Massague, J. (1995) *Nature*, 375, 159-161.
- Delavaine, L., and La Thangue, N. B. (1999) Oncogene, 18, 5381-5392.
- Coqueret, O., and Gascan, H. (2000) J. Biol. Chem., 275, 18794-18800.
- Kitaura, H., Shinshi, M., Uchikoshi, Y., Ono, T., Iguchi-Ariga, S. M., and Ariga, H. (2000) *J. Biol. Chem.*, 275, 10477-10483.
- Timchenko, N. A., Harris, T. E., Wilde, M., Bilyeu, T. A., Burgess-Beusse, B. L., Finegold, M. J., and Darlington, G. J. (1997) Mol. Cell. Biol., 17, 7353-7361.
- Kearsey, J. M., Coates, P. J., Prescott, A. R., Warbrick, E., and Hall, P. A. (1995) *Oncogene*, 11, 1675-1683.
- 32. Cretu, A., Sha, X., Tront, J., Hoffman, B., and Liebermann, D. A. (2009) *Cancer Ther.*, 7, 268-276.
- Perkins, N. D., Felzien, L. K., Betts, J. C., Leung, K., Beach,
  D. H., and Nabel, G. J. (1997) Science, 275, 523-527.
- 34. Snowden, A. W., Anderson, L. A., Webster, G. A., and Perkins, N. D. (2000) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **20**, 2676-2686.
- Gregory, D. J., Garcia-Wilson, E., Poole, J. C., Snowden, A. W., Roninson, I. B., and Perkins, N. D. (2002) *Cell Cycle*, 1, 343-350.
- 36. Cazzalini, O., Perucca, P., Savio, M., Necchi, D., Bianchi, L., Stivala, L. A., Ducommun, B., Scovassi, A. I., and Prosperi, E. (2008) *Nucleic Acids Res.*, **36**, 1713-1722.

- 37. Cazzalini, O., Scovassi, A. I., Savio, M., Stivala, L. A., and Prosperi, E. (2010) *Mutat. Res.*, **704**, 12-20.
- Frouin, I., Maga, G., Denegri, M., Riva, F., Savio, M., Spadari, S., Prosperi, E., and Scovassi, A. I. (2003) *J. Biol. Chem.*, 278, 39265-39268.
- 39. Cazzalini, O., Dona, F., Savio, M., Tillhon, M., Maccario, C., Perucca, P., Stivala, L. A., Scovassi, A. I., and Prosperi, E. (2010) *DNA Repair (Amst.)*, **9**, 627-635.
- Alcorta, D. A., Xiong, Y., Phelps, D., Hannon, G., Beach, D., and Barrett, J. C. (1996) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 93, 13742-13747.
- Stein, G. H., Drullinger, L. F., Soulard, A., and Dulic, V. (1999) Mol. Cell. Biol., 19, 2109-2117.
- 42. Roninson, I. B. (2003) Cancer Res., 63, 2705-2715.
- Herbig, U., and Sedivy, J. M. (2006) Mech. Ageing Dev., 127, 16-24.
- Beausejour, C. M., Krtolica, A., Galimi, F., Narita, M., Lowe, S. W., Yaswen, P., and Campisi, J. (2003) *EMBO J.*, 22, 4212-4222.
- Borgdorff, V., Lleonart, M. E., Bishop, C. L., Fessart, D., Bergin, A. H., Overhoff, M. G., and Beach, D. H. (2010) Oncogene, 29, 2262-2271.
- Takeuchi, S., Takahashi, A., Motoi, N., Yoshimoto, S., Tajima, T., Yamakoshi, K., Hirao, A., Yanagi, S., Fukami, K., Ishikawa, Y., Sone, S., Hara, E., and Ohtani, N. (2010) Cancer Res., 70, 9381-9390.
- 47. Wei, W., Hemmer, R. M., and Sedivy, J. M. (2001) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **21**, 6748-6757.
- 48. Herbig, U., Wei, W., Dutriaux, A., Jobling, W. A., and Sedivy, J. M. (2003) *Aging Cell*, **2**, 295-304.
- 49. Herbig, U., Jobling, W. A., Chen, B. P., Chen, D. J., and Sedivy, J. M. (2004) *Mol. Cell*, **14**, 501-513.
- Passos, J. F., Nelson, G., Wang, C., Richter, T., Simillion, C., Proctor, C. J., Miwa, S., Olijslagers, S., Hallinan, J., Wipat, A., Saretzki, G., Rudolph, K. L., Kirkwood, T. B., and von Zglinicki, T. (2010) *Mol. Syst. Biol.*, 6, 347.
- Saretzki, G., Murphy, M. P., and von Zglinicki, T. (2003) *Aging Cell*, 2, 141-143.
- 52. Passos, J. F., Saretzki, G., Ahmed, S., Nelson, G., Richter, T., Peters, H., Wappler, I., Birket, M. J., Harold, G., Schaeuble, K., Birch-Machin, M. A., Kirkwood, T. B., and von Zglinicki, T. (2007) *PLoS Biol.*, 5, e110.
- 53. Lu, T., and Finkel, T. (2008) Exp. Cell Res., 314, 1918-1922.
- Rodier, F., Munoz, D. P., Teachenor, R., Chu, V., Le, O., Bhaumik, D., Coppe, J. P., Campeau, E., Beausejour, C. M., Kim, S. H., Davalos, A. R., and Campisi, J. (2011) *J. Cell Sci.*, 124, 68-81.
- Pospelova, T. V., Demidenko, Z. N., Bukreeva, E. I., Pospelov, V. A., Gudkov, A. V., and Blagosklonny, M. V. (2009) Cell Cycle, 8, 4112-4118.
- Romanov, V. S., Abramova, M. V., Svetlikova, S. B., Bykova, T. V., Zubova, S. G., Aksenov, N. D., Fornace, A. J., Jr., Pospelova, T. V., and Pospelov, V. A. (2010) *Cell Cycle*, 9, 3945-3955.
- Chang, B. D., Xuan, Y., Broude, E. V., Zhu, H., Schott, B., Fang, J., and Roninson, I. B. (1999) *Oncogene*, 18, 4808-4818.
- Kagawa, S., Fujiwara, T., Kadowaki, Y., Fukazawa, T., Sok-Joo, R., Roth, J. A., and Tanaka, N. (1999) Cell Death Differ., 6, 765-772.
- Chang, B. D., Watanabe, K., Broude, E. V., Fang, J., Poole, J. C., Kalinichenko, T. V., and Roninson, I. B. (2000) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 97, 4291-4296.

- Archer, S. Y., Meng, S., Shei, A., and Hodin, R. A. (1998) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 95, 6791-6796.
- Richon, V. M., Sandhoff, T. W., Rifkind, R. A., and Marks,
  P. A. (2000) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 97, 10014-10019.
- Gui, C. Y., Ngo, L., Xu, W. S., Richon, V. M., and Marks,
  P. A. (2004) *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA*, 101, 1241-1246.
- 63. Blagosklonny, M. V. (2006) J. Cell. Physiol., 209, 592-597.
- Kuan, C. J., al-Douahji, M., and Shankland, S. J. (1998) J. Am. Soc. Nephrol., 9, 986-993.
- Al-Douahji, M., Brugarolas, J., Brown, P. A., Stehman-Breen, C. O., Alpers, C. E., and Shankland, S. J. (1999) *Kidney Int.*, 56, 1691-1699.
- Fan, Y. P., and Weiss, R. H. (2004) J. Am. Soc. Nephrol., 15, 575-584.
- Okamoto, K., Kato, S., Arima, N., Fujii, T., Morimatsu, M., and Imaizumi, T. (2004) Hypertens. Res., 27, 283-291.
- Inoue, N., Yahagi, N., Yamamoto, T., Ishikawa, M., Watanabe, K., Matsuzaka, T., Nakagawa, Y., Takeuchi, Y., Kobayashi, K., Takahashi, A., Suzuki, H., Hasty, A. H., Toyoshima, H., Yamada, N., and Shimano, H. (2008) *J. Biol. Chem.*, 283, 21220-21229.
- Demidenko, Z. N., Zubova, S. G., Bukreeva, E. I., Pospelov, V. A., Pospelova, T. V., and Blagosklonny, M. V. (2009) Cell Cycle, 8, 1888-1895.
- Demidenko, Z. N., and Blagosklonny, M. V. (2009) *Aging*, 1, 1008-1016.
- 71. Roninson, I. B. (2002) Cancer Lett., 179, 1-14.
- 72. Coqueret, O. (2003) Trends Cell Biol., 13, 65-70.
- Pantoja, C., and Serrano, M. (1999) Oncogene, 18, 4974-4982.
- Romanov, V. S., Bardin, A. A., Zubova, S. G., Bykova, T. V., Pospelov, V. A., and Pospelova, T. V. (2011) *Biochimie*, 93, 1408-1414.
- 75. Besson, A., Dowdy, S. F., and Roberts, J. M. (2008) *Dev. Cell*, **14**, 159-169.
- Jung, J. M., Bruner, J. M., Ruan, S., Langford, L. A., Kyritsis, A. P., Kobayashi, T., Levin, V. A., and Zhang, W. (1995) *Oncogene*, 11, 2021-2028.
- 77. Trotter, M. J., Tang, L., and Tron, V. A. (1997) *J. Cutan. Pathol.*, **24**, 265-271.
- Aaltomaa, S., Lipponen, P., Eskelinen, M., Ala-Opas, M., and Kosma, V. M. (1999) Prostate, 39, 8-15.
- Ferrandina, G., Stoler, A., Fagotti, A., Fanfani, F., Sacco,
  R., De Pasqua, A., and Mancuso, S. (2000) *Int. J. Oncol.*,
  17, 1231-1235.
- Biankin, A. V., Kench, J. G., Morey, A. L., Lee, C. S., Biankin, S. A., Head, D. R., Hugh, T. B., Henshall, S. M., and Sutherland, R. L. (2001) *Cancer Res.*, 61, 8830-8837.
- Cheung, T. H., Lo, K. W., Yu, M. M., Yim, S. F., Poon, C. S., Chung, T. K., and Wong, Y. F. (2001) *Cancer Lett.*, 172, 93-98.
- 82. Winters, Z. E., Hunt, N. C., Bradburn, M. J., Royds, J. A., Turley, H., Harris, A. L., and Norbury, C. J. (2001) *Eur. J. Cancer*, 37, 2405-2412.
- Winters, Z. E., Leek, R. D., Bradburn, M. J., Norbury, C. J., and Harris, A. L. (2003) *Breast Cancer Res.*, 5, R242-R249.
- 84. Sestakova, B., Ondrusova, L., and Vachtenheim, J. (2010) *Pigment Cell Melanoma Res.*, 23, 238-251.
- 85. Zhou, B. P., Liao, Y., Xia, W., Spohn, B., Lee, M. H., and Hung, M. C. (2001) *Nat. Cell Biol.*, **3**, 245-252.

- 86. Child, E. S., and Mann, D. J. (2006) *Cell Cycle*, **5**, 1313-1319
- Rossig, L., Jadidi, A. S., Urbich, C., Badorff, C., Zeiher,
  A. M., and Dimmeler, S. (2001) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, 21, 5644-5657
- 88. Wu, D. D., Feng, C., Xu, X. Y., Xiao, J. Y., Liu, C., Meng, J., Wang, E. H., and Yu, B. Z. (2011) *Cell Biochem. Funct.*, **29**, 265-271.
- Xia, W., Chen, J. S., Zhou, X., Sun, P. R., Lee, D. F., Liao, Y., Zhou, B. P., and Hung, M. C. (2004) *Clin. Cancer Res.*, 10, 3815-3824.
- Perez-Tenorio, G., Berglund, F., Esguerra Merca, A., Nordenskjold, B., Rutqvist, L. E., Skoog, L., and Stal, O. (2006) *Int. J. Oncol.*, 28, 1031-1042.
- Ping, B., He, X., Xia, W., Lee, D. F., Wei, Y., Yu, D., Mills, G., Shi, D., and Hung, M. C. (2006) *Int. J. Oncol.*, 29, 1103-1110.
- Koster, R., di Pietro, A., Timmer-Bosscha, H., Gibcus, J. H., van den Berg, A., Suurmeijer, A. J., Bischoff, R., Gietema, J. A., and de Jong, S. (2010) J. Clin. Invest., 120, 3594-3605.
- Deng, C., Zhang, P., Harper, J. W., Elledge, S. J., and Leder, P. (1995) *Cell*, 82, 675-684.
- 94. Martin-Caballero, J., Flores, J. M., Garcia-Palencia, P., and Serrano, M. (2001) *Cancer Res.*, **61**, 6234-6238.
- Wang, Y. A., Elson, A., and Leder, P. (1997) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA, 94, 14590-14595.
- De la Cueva, E., Garcia-Cao, I., Herranz, M., Lopez, P., Garcia-Palencia, P., Flores, J. M., Serrano, M., Fernandez-Piqueras, J., and Martin-Caballero, J. (2006) Oncogene, 25, 4128-4132.
- Liu, Y., Yeh, N., Zhu, X. H., Leversha, M., Cordon-Cardo, C., Ghossein, R., Singh, B., Holland, E., and Koff, A. (2007) *EMBO J.*, 26, 4683-4693.
- Cheng, X., Xia, W., Yang, J. Y., Hsu, J. L., Chou, C. K., Sun, H. L., Wyszomierski, S. L., Mills, G. B., Muller, W. J., Yu, D., and Hung, M. C. (2010) *Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.*, 403, 103-107.
- Blain, S. W., Montalvo, E., and Massague, J. (1997) J. Biol. Chem., 272, 25863-25872.
- 100. James, M. K., Ray, A., Leznova, D., and Blain, S. W. (2008) Mol. Cell. Biol., 28, 498-510.
- Cheng, M., Olivier, P., Diehl, J. A., Fero, M., Roussel, M.
  F., Roberts, J. M., and Sherr, C. J. (1999) *EMBO J.*, 18, 1571-1583.
- Parry, D., Mahony, D., Wills, K., and Lees, E. (1999) Mol. Cell. Biol., 19, 1775-1783.
- 103. Bouchard, C., Thieke, K., Maier, A., Saffrich, R., Hanley-Hyde, J., Ansorge, W., Reed, S., Sicinski, P., Bartek, J., and Eilers, M. (1999) *EMBO J.*, 18, 5321-5333.
- 104. Qiu, R., Wang, S., Feng, X., Chen, F., Yang, K., and He, S. (2011) J. Huazhong Univ. Sci. Technolog. Med. Sci., 31, 756-761.
- 105. Ranta, F., Leveringhaus, J., Theilig, D., Schulz-Raffelt, G., Hennige, A. M., Hildebrand, D. G., Handrick, R., Jendrossek, V., Bosch, F., Schulze-Osthoff, K., Haring, H. U., and Ullrich, S. (2011) PLoS One, 6, e28828.
- Besson, A., Assoian, R. K., and Roberts, J. M. (2004) *Nat. Rev. Cancer*, 4, 948-955.
- 107. Fahraeus, R., and Lane, D. P. (1999) *EMBO J.*, **18**, 2106-2118.

- 108. Tanaka, H., Yamashita, T., Asada, M., Mizutani, S., Yoshikawa, H., and Tohyama, M. (2002) J. Cell Biol., 158, 321-329.
- Lee, S., and Helfman, D. M. (2004) J. Biol. Chem., 279, 1885-1891.
- 110. Tanaka, H., Yamashita, T., Yachi, K., Fujiwara, T., Yoshikawa, H., and Tohyama, M. (2004) *Neuroscience*, 127, 155-164.
- 111. Sahai, E., Olson, M. F., and Marshall, C. J. (2001) *EMBO J.*, **20**, 755-766.
- 112. Cmielova, J., and Rezacova, M. (2011) *J. Cell. Biochem.*, **112**, 3502-3506.
- 113. Hwang, C. Y., Lee, C., and Kwon, K. S. (2009) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, **29**, 3379-3389.
- 114. Heo, J. I., Oh, S. J., Kho, Y. J., Kim, J. H., Kang, H. J., Park, S. H., Kim, H. S., Shin, J. Y., Kim, M. J., Kim, S. C., Park, J. B., Kim, J., and Lee, J. Y. (2011) *Mol. Biol. Rep.*, 38, 2785-2791.
- 115. Shim, J., Lee, H., Park, J., Kim, H., and Choi, E. J. (1996) *Nature*, **381**, 804-806.
- Asada, M., Yamada, T., Ichijo, H., Delia, D., Miyazono, K., Fukumuro, K., and Mizutani, S. (1999) *EMBO J.*, 18, 1223-1234.
- Suzuki, A., Tsutomi, Y., Akahane, K., Araki, T., and Miura, M. (1998) *Oncogene*, 17, 931-939.

- 118. Suzuki, A., Kawano, H., Hayashida, M., Hayasaki, Y., Tsutomi, Y., and Akahane, K. (2000) *Cell Death Differ.*, 7, 721-728
- 119. Gartel, A. L., and Tyner, A. L. (2002) *Mol. Cancer Ther.*, **1**, 639-649.
- 120. Weiss, R. H. (2003) Cancer Cell, 4, 425-429.
- Gorospe, M., Cirielli, C., Wang, X., Seth, P., Capogrossi,
  M. C., and Holbrook, N. J. (1997) *Oncogene*, 14, 929-935.
- Gorospe, M., Wang, X., Guyton, K. Z., and Holbrook, N. J. (1996) *Mol. Cell. Biol.*, 16, 6654-6660.
- 123. Ruan, S., Okcu, M. F., Ren, J. P., Chiao, P., Andreeff, M., Levin, V., and Zhang, W. (1998) *Cancer Res.*, 58, 1538-1543.
- 124. Wang, Y., Blandino, G., and Givol, D. (1999) *Oncogene*, **18**, 2643-2649.
- Mahyar-Roemer, M., and Roemer, K. (2001) Oncogene,
  3387-3398.
- 126. Han, Z., Wei, W., Dunaway, S., Darnowski, J. W., Calabresi, P., Sedivy, J., Hendrickson, E. A., Balan, K. V., Pantazis, P., and Wyche, J. H. (2002) J. Biol. Chem., 277, 17154-17160.
- 127. Xia, X., Ma, Q., Li, X., Ji, T., Chen, P., Xu, H., Li, K., Fang, Y., Weng, D., Weng, Y., Liao, S., Han, Z., Liu, R., Zhu, T., Wang, S., Xu, G., Meng, L., Zhou, J., and Ma, D. (2011) *BMC Cancer*, **11**, 399.