

bound form of many Rab proteins (20, 21). We thus examined whether protrudin actually interacted with Rab11. Endogenous protrudin did indeed interact with endogenous Rab11 in PC12 cells, and this interaction was enhanced by NGF treatment (Fig. 3B). FLAG-protrudin also interacted with hemagglutinin (HA)-tagged Rab11 in human embryonic kidney (HEK293T) cells (Fig. 3C). Protrudin preferentially interacted with the GDP-bound form of Rab11 [as represented by the GTP binding-deficient mutant Ser²⁵→Asn²⁵ (S25N)] rather than with the GTP-bound form [as represented by the GTPase-deficient mutant Gln⁷⁰→Leu⁷⁰ (Q70L)] (22, 23) (Fig. 3D). The RBD11 of the Rab11 effector FIP2 interacted specifically with Rab11-GTP, whereas the RBD11 of protrudin specifically interacted with Rab11-GDP (fig. S4A). Reciprocal co-immunoprecipitation analysis as well as an *in vitro* pull-down assay confirmed that protrudin preferentially interacts with Rab11-GDP (fig. S4, B and C). We also generated a series of deletion mutants of

protrudin (fig. S1B) and tested them for the ability to bind Rab11. Rab11(S25N) interacted with the N1 mutant but not with the Δ RBD-N1 mutant (fig. S4D). Furthermore, a protrudin deletion mutant lacking the RBD11 (Δ RBD in fig. S1B) could not restore neurite formation in PC12 cells depleted of protrudin by RNAi (fig. S5A) or induce process formation in HeLa cells (fig. S5B). Thus, protrudin preferentially binds to Rab11-GDP, and this association is required for neurite formation.

Sustained activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) ERK accompanies NGF-dependent neurite extension in PC12 cells (24) (fig. S6A). PC12 cells expressing a constitutively active form of MEK1 [MEK1(SDSE)], which activated ERK, manifested neurite formation in the absence of NGF (fig. S6, B and C). Protrudin and MEK1(SDSE) showed a synergistic effect on process formation in HeLa cells, whereas a kinase-negative form of MEK1 [MEK1(K97S)] antagonized the process-forming activity of protrudin (fig. S6D). Protrudin con-

tains six potential ERK phosphorylation sites as well as two consensus ERK binding (ERK D) domains (fig. S1C). Phosphorylation of protrudin was increased by NGF treatment or MEK1(SDSE) expression, but not by MEK1(K97S) expression, in PC12 cells (Fig. 3E). Two-dimensional polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (2D-PAGE) also suggested that protrudin is phosphorylated by ERK in response to NGF (Fig. 3F). MEK1(K97S) expression inhibited the NGF-induced shift, suggesting that ERK activation is essential for the phosphorylation of protrudin elicited by NGF.

We examined the effect of ERK activation on protrudin-Rab11 interaction in HEK293T cells. Expression of MEK1(SDSE) enhanced the interaction between protrudin and Rab11(S25N) (Fig. 3G). At high amounts of MEK1(SDSE) expression, both wild-type and S25N forms of Rab11 interacted substantially with protrudin (fig. S7, A and B). Furthermore, protrudin mutants that lack some of potential ERK phosphorylation sites (P-mut-1 and -4) or both intact ERK D domains (D-mut) (fig. S1C) showed markedly reduced affinities for Rab11 compared with the affinities of wild-type protrudin (Fig. 3H and fig. S7C). Replacement of potential ERK phosphorylation sites in other combinations (P-mut-2 and -3) did not affect the binding (fig. S7D). Thus, phosphorylation of protrudin at multiple sites in response to NGF-ERK signaling promotes its interaction with Rab11.

We next investigated the effect of Rab11 on the morphology of PC12 cells. The morphology of cells expressing Rab11(Q70L) appeared nearly identical to that of cells depleted of endogenous protrudin (Fig. 4A). Conversely, the phenotype conferred by expression of Rab11(S25N) was similar to that conferred by expression of protrudin. These experiments were combined to examine the genetic relation between protrudin and Rab11. Expression of Rab11(S25N) induced neurite formation in cells depleted of endogenous protrudin (Fig. 4B), whereas overexpression of protrudin had no effect on the morphology of cells expressing Rab11(Q70L) (Fig. 4C). In addition, expression of Rab11(Q70L) inhibited process formation induced by protrudin in HeLa cells (movie S2). Thus, protrudin is indeed an upstream inhibitor of Rab11 function.

To investigate the role of the protrudin-Rab11 system in directed membrane traffic, we observed the transport of NgCAM, a cell adhesion molecule that is delivered to the somatodendritic plasma membrane and then transported to the axonal plasma membrane via recycling endosomes (25–27). Chicken NgCAM expressed in PC12 cells initially accumulated, presumably in the endoplasmic reticulum–Golgi compartment, and was subsequently transported to the plasma membrane of some neurites, but not to that of the soma, in the presence of NGF (Fig. 4D and fig. S8). In contrast, cells depleted of protrudin by RNAi or those expressing Rab11(Q70L) exhibited prominent surface

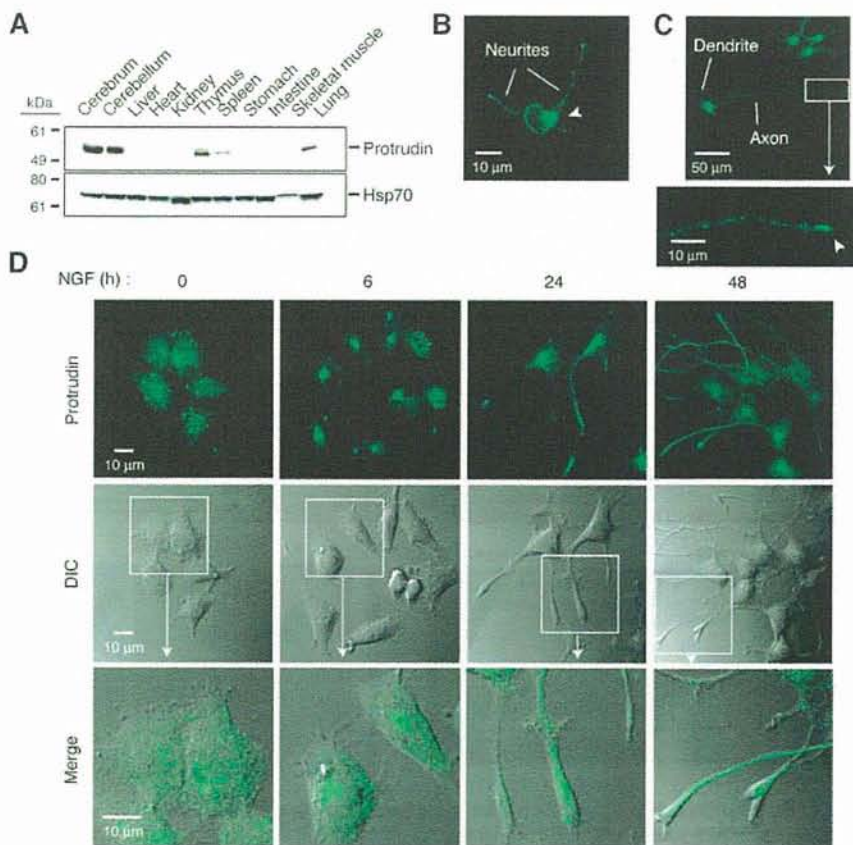


Fig. 2. Subcellular redistribution of protrudin during neuritogenesis. **(A)** Tissue distribution of protrudin in mice. **(B and C)** Cells isolated from embryonic mouse cerebral cortex were cultured for 1 **(B)** or 3 **(C)** days and stained with anti-protrudin (green). Arrowhead in **(B)** indicates the pericentrosomal region. The boxed region in **(C)** is shown at higher magnification in the bottom image; the arrowhead indicates the growth cone. **(D)** PC12 cells were incubated with NGF and stained with anti-protrudin (top, green). Differential interference contrast (DIC) images are shown in the middle, and the boxed regions are shown at bottom merged with protrudin.

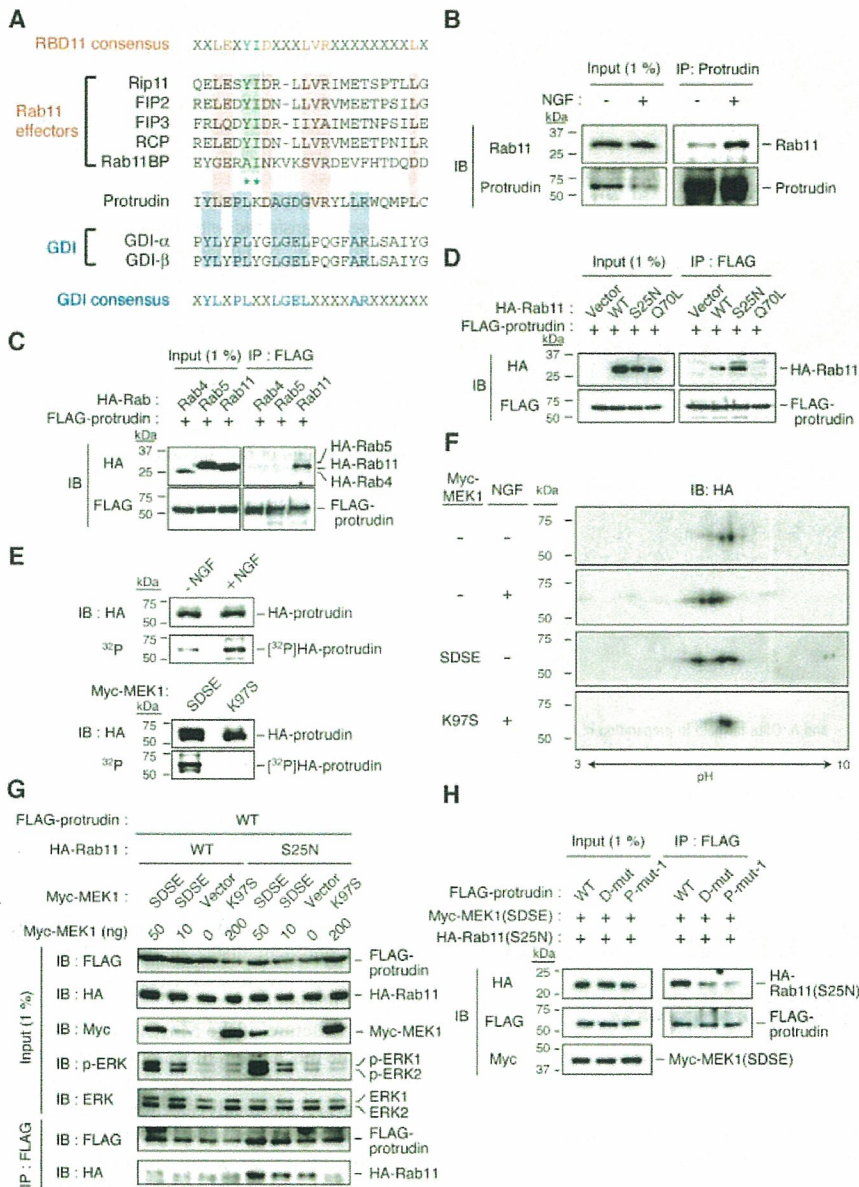


Fig. 3. Interaction of protrudin with Rab11. **(A)** Alignment of the amino acid sequence (17) of the RBD11 of protrudin with the Rab11 effector proteins and GDIs. Conserved residues are shaded in red or blue. Asterisks denote critical residues for interaction with Rab11-GTP (shaded in green). **(B)** Immunoprecipitation (IP) of PC12 lysates with anti-protrudin and immunoblotting (IB) with anti-Rab11 and -protrudin. **(C)** FLAG-protrudin expressed with HA-Rab4, -Rab5, or -Rab11 in HEK293T cells was immunoprecipitated and subjected to IB with anti-HA and -FLAG. **(D)** FLAG-protrudin expressed with either wild-type (WT) or mutant (S25N or Q70L) HA-Rab11 in HEK293T cells was immunoprecipitated and subjected to IB with anti-HA and -FLAG. **(E)** PC12 cells expressing HA-protrudin were metabolically labeled with [³²P]orthophosphate in the absence or presence of NGF (top). Alternatively, PC12 cells expressing HA-protrudin and Myc-MEK1 (SDSE or K97S) were similarly labeled (bottom). Cell lysates were subjected to IP with anti-HA and to autoradiography or to IB with anti-HA. **(F)** PC12 cells expressing HA-protrudin as well as Myc-MEK1 (SDSE or K97S) were incubated with or without NGF. Cell lysates were subjected to IP with anti-HA and to 2D-PAGE followed by IB with anti-HA. **(G)** HEK293T cells transfected with FLAG-protrudin, HA-Rab11 (WT or S25N), and Myc-MEK1 (SDSE or K97S) were subjected to IP with anti-FLAG and to IB with anti-FLAG, -HA, -Myc, -ERK, and -phospho-ERK (p-ERK). **(H)** HEK293T cells transfected with FLAG-protrudin (WT, D-mut, or P-mut-1), Myc-MEK1(SDSE), and HA-Rab11(S25N) were subjected to IP with anti-FLAG and to IB with anti-HA, -FLAG, and -Myc.

expression of NgCAM on the soma (Fig. 4D). Thus, protrudin is essential for directional membrane trafficking to neurites.

Our data indicate that the protrudin-Rab11 system is an important determinant of the direction of membrane trafficking and neurite formation. It was recently shown that ZFYVE27 (a synonym of protrudin) is mutated in a German family with an autosomal dominant form of hereditary spastic paraplegia (AD-HSP), which is characterized by selective degeneration of axons (28). The phenotype of the affected individuals was similar to that of patients with AD-HSP caused by mutation of spastin, a protein implicated in neuronal vesicular cargo trafficking. Protrudin is thought to interact with spastin via its FYVE domain in the COOH-terminal region of the protein. This genetic evidence supports our conclusion that protrudin plays a central role in membrane trafficking in neurons. Rab11, protrudin, and spastin may together constitute a system for the regulation of vesicular transport in neurons, and impairment of this system may be responsible for the pathogenesis of AD-HSP.

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19. Single-letter abbreviations for the amino acid residues are as follows: A, Ala; C, Cys; D, Asp; E, Glu; F, Phe; G, Gly; H, His; I, Ile; K, Lys; L, Leu; M, Met; N, Asn; P, Pro; Q, Gln; R, Arg; S, Ser; T, Thr; V, Val; W, Trp; and Y, Tyr.
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29. We thank T. Takenawa, M. Takeichi, H. Togashi, Y. Takai, A. Kikuchi, A. Nakano, K. Hanada, H. Sumimoto, Y. Fukui, K. Mihara, Y. Fujiki, M. Hirata, T. Natsume, T. Sasaki, T. Nishi, M. Kohjima, R. Takeya, T. Uemura, and Y. Gotoh

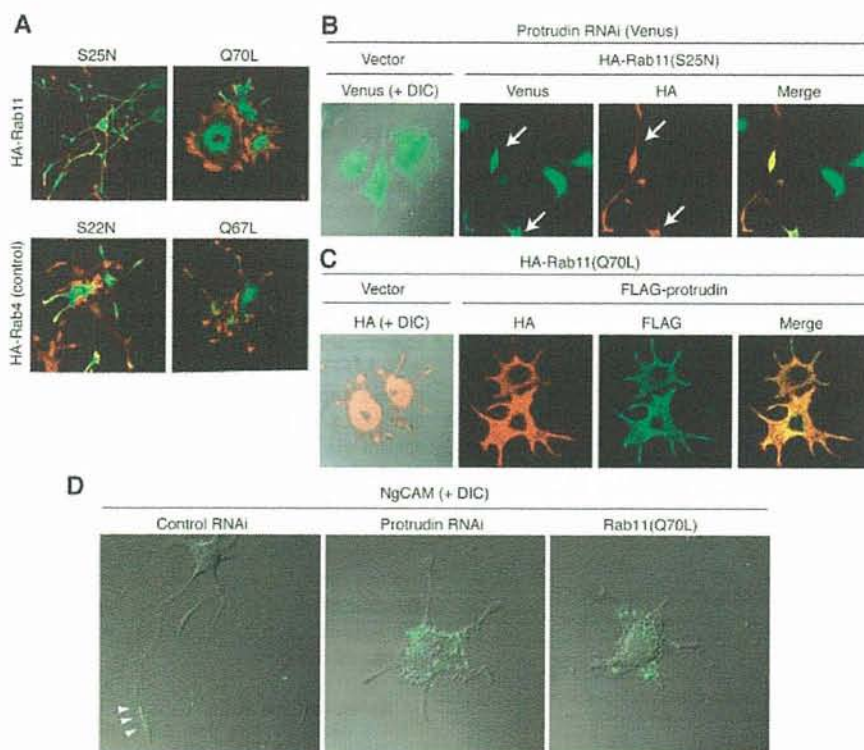


Fig. 4. Protrudin induces directional membrane extension through regulation of vesicular traffic. (A) PC12 cells expressing HA-Rab11 (S25N or Q70L) or HA-Rab4 (S22N or Q67L) were stimulated with NGF and stained with anti-HA (green) and phalloidin (red). (B) PC12 cells transfected with a vector encoding both protrudin shRNA and Venus (green) were also transfected with a HA-Rab11(S25N) vector, incubated with NGF, and stained with anti-HA (red). Arrows indicate cells expressing both Venus (protrudin shRNA) and HA-Rab11(S25N). (C) PC12 cells were transfected with HA-Rab11(Q70L) and FLAG-protrudin, stimulated with NGF, and stained with anti-HA (red) and anti-FLAG (green). (D) PC12 cells transiently infected with a retrovirus encoding chicken NgCAM were transfected with control or protrudin shRNAs or with Rab11(Q70L). The surface expression of NgCAM was examined by immunostaining with anti-NgCAM (green) without cell permeabilization. Arrowheads indicate the prominent distribution of NgCAM on a neurite.

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Supporting Online Material

www.sciencemag.org/cgi/content/full/314/5800/818/DC1
Materials and Methods

Figs. S1 to S8
Movies S1 and S2

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Where Water Is Oxidized to Dioxygen: Structure of the Photosynthetic Mn₄Ca Cluster

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The oxidation of water to dioxygen is catalyzed within photosystem II (PSII) by a Mn₄Ca cluster, the structure of which remains elusive. Polarized extended x-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) measurements on PSII single crystals constrain the Mn₄Ca cluster geometry to a set of three similar high-resolution structures. Combining polarized EXAFS and x-ray diffraction data, the cluster was placed within PSII, taking into account the overall trend of the electron density of the metal site and the putative ligands. The structure of the cluster from the present study is unlike either the 3.0 or 3.5 angstrom-resolution x-ray structures or other previously proposed models.

Oxygen, which makes up about 20% of Earth's atmosphere, comes mostly from photosynthesis that occurs in cyanobacteria, green algae, and higher plants (1). These organisms have within photosystem II (PSII) an oxygen-evolving complex (OEC), in which the energy of sunlight is used to oxidize water to molecular oxygen. The heart

of the OEC is a cluster of four Mn atoms and one Ca atom (Mn₄Ca) connected by mono-μ-oxo, di-μ-oxo, and/or hydroxo bridges. The specific protein environment and one chloride ion are also essential for the water-splitting activity (1). During the oxidation of water, the OEC cycles through five different oxidation states, which are known as S_i states (where *i*

ranges from 0 to 4), that couple the one-electron photochemistry of the PSII reaction center with the four-electron chemistry of water oxidation (2).

The structure of the Mn₄Ca cluster and its role in the mechanism of water oxidation have been investigated with the use of spectroscopic methods (1), especially electron paramagnetic resonance and electron nuclear double-resonance spectroscopy (3–9), x-ray spectroscopy (10), and Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spec-

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Expression of mouse Fbxw7 isoforms is regulated in a cell cycle- or p53-dependent manner

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Abstract

Fbxw7 is the F-box protein component of an SCF-type ubiquitin ligase that contributes to the ubiquitin-dependent degradation of cell cycle activators and oncoproteins. Three isoforms (α , β , and γ) of Fbxw7 are produced from mRNAs with distinct 5' exons. We have now investigated regulation of *Fbxw7* expression in mouse tissues. Fbxw7 α mRNA was present in all tissues examined, whereas Fbxw7 β mRNA was detected only in brain and testis, and Fbxw7 γ mRNA in heart and skeletal muscle. The amount of Fbxw7 α mRNA was high during quiescence (G_0 phase) in mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) and T cells, but it decreased markedly as these cells entered the cell cycle. The abundance of Fbxw7 α mRNA was unaffected by cell irradiation or p53 status. In contrast, X-irradiation increased the amount of Fbxw7 β mRNA in wild-type MEFs but not in those from p53-deficient mice, suggesting that radiation-induced up-regulation of p53 leads to production of Fbxw7 β mRNA. Our results thus indicate that expression of Fbxw7 isoforms is differentially regulated in a cell cycle- or p53-dependent manner.

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Keywords: Ubiquitin; SCF complex; F-box protein; Isoform, p53; Cancer; Cell cycle

The abundance of cyclins, cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitors, and many other regulators of the cell cycle is controlled by the ubiquitin–proteasome system. Various alterations in the ubiquitylation of cell cycle regulators are implicated in the etiology of many human malignancies [1]. Down-regulation of protein abundance by the ubiquitin–proteasome system occurs in two distinct steps [2]: the covalent attachment of multiple ubiquitin molecules to the protein substrate, and degradation of the polyubiquitylated protein by the 26S proteasome complex. The first of these steps is mediated by at least three enzymes: a ubiquitin-activating enzyme (E1), a ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme (E2), and a ubiquitin ligase (E3). Two major classes of E3s, the Skp1–Cul1–F-box protein (SCF) complex and the anaphase-promoting complex or cyclosome (APC/C),

play a central role in cell cycle regulation [1]. The SCF complex consists of common subunits (Skp1, Cul1, Rbx1) and a variable substrate-recognition subunit (F-box protein). Three F-box protein components of the SCF complex—S phase kinase-associated protein 2 (Skp2), F-box and WD-40 domain protein 7 (Fbxw7), and β -transducin repeat-containing protein (β -TRCP)—have been thought to contribute primarily to cell cycle regulation.

Fbxw7 is the F-box protein of an SCF complex that targets several oncoproteins, including cyclin E, c-Myc, Notch, and c-Jun, for degradation [1]. Fbxw7 was first discovered by genetic screening as a negative regulator of the LIN-12 (Notch) signaling pathway in *Caenorhabditis elegans* [3]. We and others have generated mice that are deficient in Fbxw7 and found that the homozygous mutant embryos die in utero at embryonic day 10.5 manifesting marked abnormalities in vascular development [4,5]. Notch4 accumulates in *Fbxw7*^{-/-} embryos, resulting in

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increased expression of *Hey1*, a transcriptional repressor that acts downstream of Notch and is implicated in vascular development. These observations suggest that *Fbxw7* plays an essential role in mammalian vascular development by regulating Notch stability during embryogenesis.

Given that *Fbxw7* is responsible for degradation of the above-mentioned oncoproteins, it is thought to function as a tumor suppressor. Indeed, mutations in *FBXW7* have been identified in human ovarian [6], breast [7,8], endometrial [9,10], and colorectal [11] cancers. The loss of *Fbxw7* in cultured cells also results in genetic instability [11]. In addition, *Fbxw7*^{+/-} mice exhibit an increased susceptibility to radiation-induced tumorigenesis even though most tumors retain and express the wild-type allele, indicating that *Fbxw7* is a haploinsufficient tumor suppressor gene [12].

The *FBXW7* locus maps to human chromosomal region 4q32, which is frequently deleted in a wide range of human tumor types [13]. This locus encodes three protein isoforms (*Fbxw7* α , *Fbxw7* β , *Fbxw7* γ) [7,9,14,15], each of which is translated from an mRNA with a unique 5' exon and 10 shared exons. Each isoform of *Fbxw7* exhibits a distinct subcellular distribution: *Fbxw7* α is localized in the nucleus, *Fbxw7* β shows a cytoplasmic distribution suggestive of localization to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and Golgi apparatus, and *Fbxw7* γ is predominantly nucleolar [16,17]. Northern blot analysis of human tissues revealed that *Fbxw7* α mRNA is widely distributed, whereas *Fbxw7* β / γ mRNA (the probe did not distinguish between the two transcripts) is restricted to brain, heart, and skeletal muscle [9]. Expression of *Fbxw7* β was shown to be up-regulated by p53, and a potential p53 binding site is present in exon 1b of human *FBXW7* [18]. However, the regulation of *Fbxw7* α / γ expression has remained uncharacterized. Furthermore, most studies of *Fbxw7* β expression have been performed with cultured human cell lines, and the results therefore require verification in other species with primary cultured cells.

With the use of tissues and primary cultured cells, including embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) and freshly isolated T cells, from wild-type or *p53*^{-/-} mice, we have now shown that *Fbxw7* β and *Fbxw7* γ mRNAs exhibit different tissue and cell distributions. Furthermore, we found that *Fbxw7* α mRNA is abundant in quiescent NIH 3T3 cells and T cells but is down-regulated on entry of these cells into the cell cycle. Whereas the level of *Fbxw7* α mRNA in MEFs does not appear to be affected by p53 status, that of *Fbxw7* β mRNA is regulated in a p53-dependent manner. These observations suggest that the spatiotemporal control of *Fbxw7* expression in mice is mediated in an isoform-specific manner.

Materials and methods

Cells. Wild-type or *p53*^{-/-} MEFs as well as freshly isolated lymphocytes were prepared as described previously [19,20]. For radiation treatment, cells were exposed to 0, 2, 4, or 8 Gy of ionizing radiation and then

incubated at 37 °C for 4 h (MEFs) or 2 h (thymocytes). Splenic T cells were isolated to a purity of ~90% with the use of a T Cell Enrich column (R&D Systems); they were stimulated for the indicated times with plate-bound antibodies to (anti-) CD3 ϵ (coated at 5 μ g/ml; 145-2C11, BD Bioscience Pharmingen) in 96-well plates.

Quantitation of mRNA by RT-PCR. Total RNA was extracted from cells by the guanidinium thiocyanate-phenol-chloroform method, purified, and subjected (1 μ g) to reverse transcription (RT) with random hexanucleotide primers (ReverTra Ace α , Toyobo). The resulting cDNA was then subjected to quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis with 1 \times SYBR Green PCR master mix (Applied Biosystems) and 200 nM gene-specific primers. Assays were performed in triplicate with an ABI Prism 7700 sequence detector (Applied Biosystems). The amplification protocol comprised initial incubation at 60 °C for 31 s and 95 °C for 5 s followed by 40 cycles. The sequences of the various primers (sense and antisense, respectively) were 5'-GCCTAAGATGAGCGCAAGTTG-3' and 5'-TACTAGGCAGATGGCCACAGG-3' for hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase (HPRT), 5'-CTCACCAGCTCTCCTCTCCATT-3' and 5'-GCTGAACATGGTACAAGGCCA-3' for *Fbxw7* α , 5'-TTGTCA GAGACTGCCAAGCAG-3' and 5'-GACTTTGTCATGGTTTCTTTC CC-3' for *Fbxw7* β , 5'-AACCATGGCTTGGTTCTGTG-3' and 5'-CAGAACCATGGTCCAACCTTC-3' for *Fbxw7* γ , and 5'-TGTCAG CGCGCCTGAAGATTC-3' and 5'-GCAGAAGACCAATCTGCG CTTG-3' for p21. Each reaction was performed concurrently on the same plate with an HPRT control, and the results were normalized relative to HPRT mRNA abundance.

Flow cytometry. Fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-conjugated anti-BrdU, which was from BD Bioscience Pharmingen, was used for flow cytometry. All analyses were performed with FACSCalibur instrument (Becton–Dickinson). For cell cycle analysis, purified splenic T cells or NIH 3T3 cells were exposed to 10 μ M bromodeoxyuridine (BrdU) during the last 1 h of incubation, washed with phosphate-buffered saline, fixed in 70% ethanol at 4 °C, and incubated for 30 min at room temperature with 2 M HCl containing 0.5% Triton X-100. After neutralization with 0.1 M sodium tetraborate (pH 8.5), the cells were washed with phosphate-buffered saline containing 1% bovine serum albumin and 0.5% Tween 20, stained with FITC-conjugated anti-BrdU, washed again, stained with propidium iodide (PI), and then analyzed by flow cytometry.

Statistical analysis. Quantitative data are expressed as means \pm SD and were analyzed by Student's *t* test. A *P* value of <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Results

Tissue distribution of *Fbxw7* isoform mRNAs in mice

We investigated the distribution of *Fbxw7* isoform mRNAs in mouse tissues by semiquantitative RT-PCR analysis with sets of specific primers corresponding to the distinct 5' exon of each mRNA. *Fbxw7* α mRNA was detected in all tissues examined (Fig. 1). In contrast, *Fbxw7* β and *Fbxw7* γ mRNAs were found to be restricted to brain and testis, and to heart and skeletal muscle, respectively. *Fbxw7* α and *Fbxw7* β mRNAs, but not *Fbxw7* γ mRNA, were also detected in MEFs. In the following experiments, we attempted to characterize the regulation of *Fbxw7* α and *Fbxw7* β mRNA abundance in cultured mouse cells.

Fbxw7 α mRNA is enriched in quiescent cells

Given that *Fbxw7* is thought to contribute to the ubiquitin-dependent degradation of cell cycle activators such as

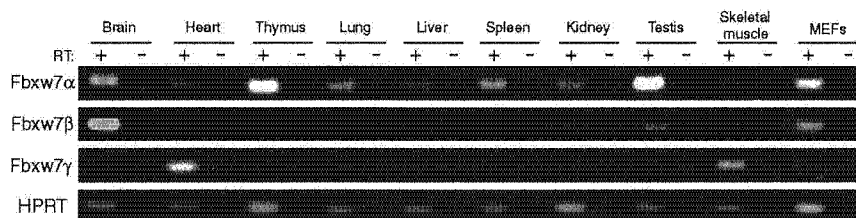


Fig. 1. Distribution of Fbxw7 isoform mRNAs in mouse tissues. The amounts of Fbxw7 α , Fbxw7 β , and Fbxw7 γ mRNAs in the indicated tissues and cells were determined by semiquantitative RT-PCR analysis. RT (+) and RT (-) indicate reactions performed with or without reverse transcriptase, respectively.

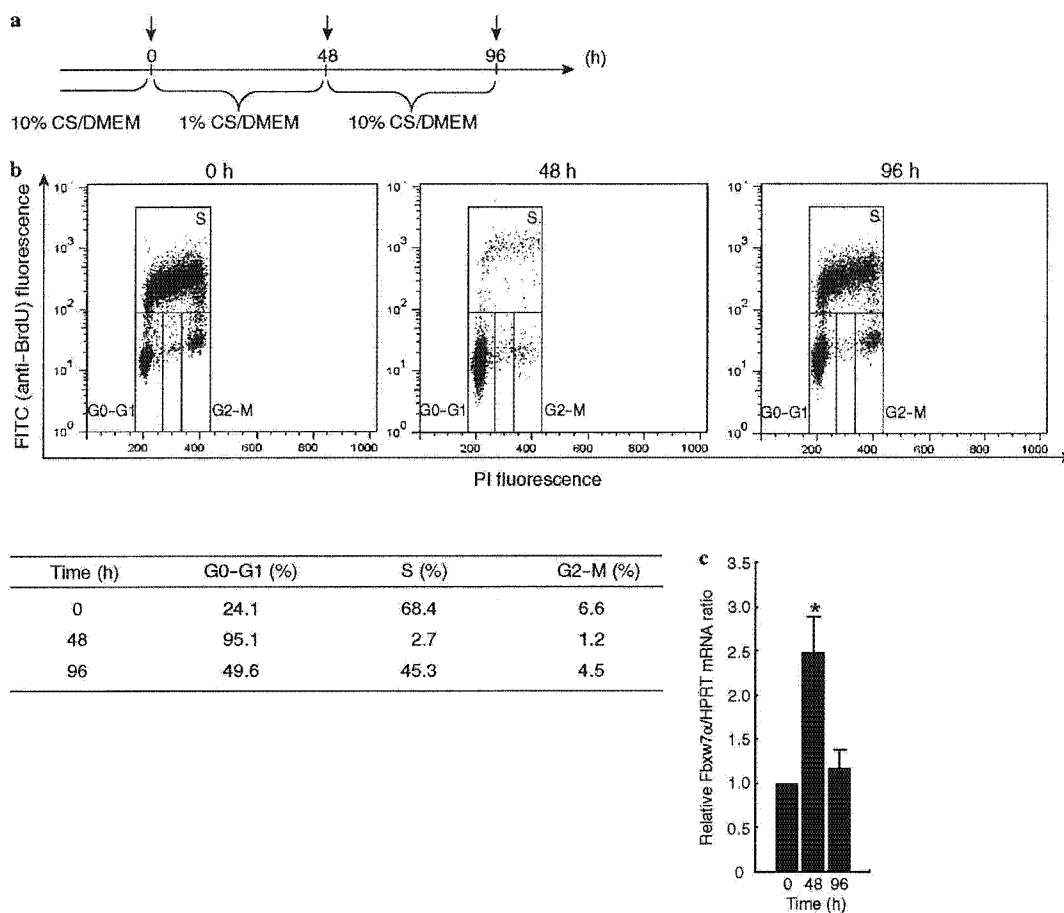


Fig. 2. Cell cycle-dependent regulation of Fbxw7 α mRNA in NIH 3T3 cells. (a) Protocol for induction of arrest and subsequent reactivation of the cell cycle. Cells cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% calf serum (CS) were incubated for 48 h in DMEM containing 1% CS and then for 48 h in DMEM containing 10% CS. They were harvested at time 0, 48, and 96 h as indicated. (b) Flow cytometric analysis of cell cycle status. The percentages of cells in G₀ or G₁, in S, and in G₂ or M phases of the cell cycle at each time point are indicated. (c) RT and real-time PCR analysis of Fbxw7 α mRNA at the indicated time points. Data are means \pm SD of triplicates from a representative experiment. * $P < 0.01$ versus value for time 0.

cyclin E, c-Myc, and c-Jun, we hypothesized that Fbxw7 might be expressed specifically in quiescent cells. To test this hypothesis, we induced quiescence in NIH 3T3 cells by depriving them of serum for 48 h and then examined the level of Fbxw7 α mRNA by RT and real-time PCR analysis (Fig. 2a). Cell cycle status was monitored by flow cytometric analysis (Fig. 2b). The amount of Fbxw7 α

mRNA was increased in response to serum deprivation, and it subsequently returned to its original level on stimulation of the cells to re-enter the cell cycle by replenishment of serum (Fig. 2c).

We also measured the level of Fbxw7 α mRNA in freshly isolated splenic T cells. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that only a small proportion (0.8%) of these cells was in

S phase, indicative of cell cycle arrest (Fig. 3a). Mitogenic stimulation with anti-CD3 ϵ increased the proportion of cells in S phase in a time-dependent manner. The amount of Fbxw7 α mRNA was significantly reduced 24 h after the initiation of stimulation with anti-CD3 ϵ (Fig. 3b), when 5.2% of the cells had entered S phase (Fig. 3a). The decrease in the level of Fbxw7 α mRNA was more pronounced at 48 h, when 45.4% of cells were in S phase. Together, these results showed that Fbxw7 α mRNA is most abundant in quiescent cells and undergoes down-regulation as cells enter the cell cycle. The abundance of Fbxw7 β and Fbxw7 γ mRNAs is too low to be detected in NIH 3T3 cells and splenocytes by RT-PCR.

Genotoxic stress up-regulates Fbxw7 β mRNA in a p53-dependent manner

We exposed MEFs or mouse thymocytes to 0, 2, 4, or 8 Gy of X-radiation and then examined the abundance of Fbxw7 α and Fbxw7 β mRNAs by quantitative RT-PCR analysis at 4 h (MEFs) or 2 h (thymocytes) thereafter. Fbxw7 α mRNA was detected in both MEFs and thymocytes, but its abundance in these cells was not affected by X-radiation (Fig. 4a). In contrast, Fbxw7 β mRNA was detected only in MEFs, and its abundance in these cells

was increased by X-radiation in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 4b). As a positive control, p21 mRNA was shown to be up-regulated by X-radiation in both cell types, although its abundance was markedly greater in MEFs than in thymocytes (Fig. 4c).

To examine whether the up-regulation of Fbxw7 β mRNA by X-radiation in MEFs is mediated by p53, we compared the effects of irradiation between MEFs derived from wild-type or p53 $^{-/-}$ mice. The amount of Fbxw7 α mRNA in p53 $^{-/-}$ MEFs was similar to that in the wild-type cells and was not affected by X-radiation (Fig. 4a). In contrast, the basal level of Fbxw7 β mRNA in p53 $^{-/-}$ MEFs was greatly reduced compared with that in wild-type MEFs, and it was not increased in response to X-irradiation (Fig. 4b). Similar results were obtained with p21 mRNA (Fig. 4c), the gene for which is p53 inducible. Fbxw7 γ mRNA was not detected in MEFs by RT-PCR. Our data suggest that the production of Fbxw7 β mRNA, but not that of Fbxw7 α mRNA, is activated by p53.

Discussion

Fbxw7 has been implicated as a key regulator of the cell cycle and an oncosuppressor protein, given that most proteins targeted by Fbxw7 for degradation are cell cycle

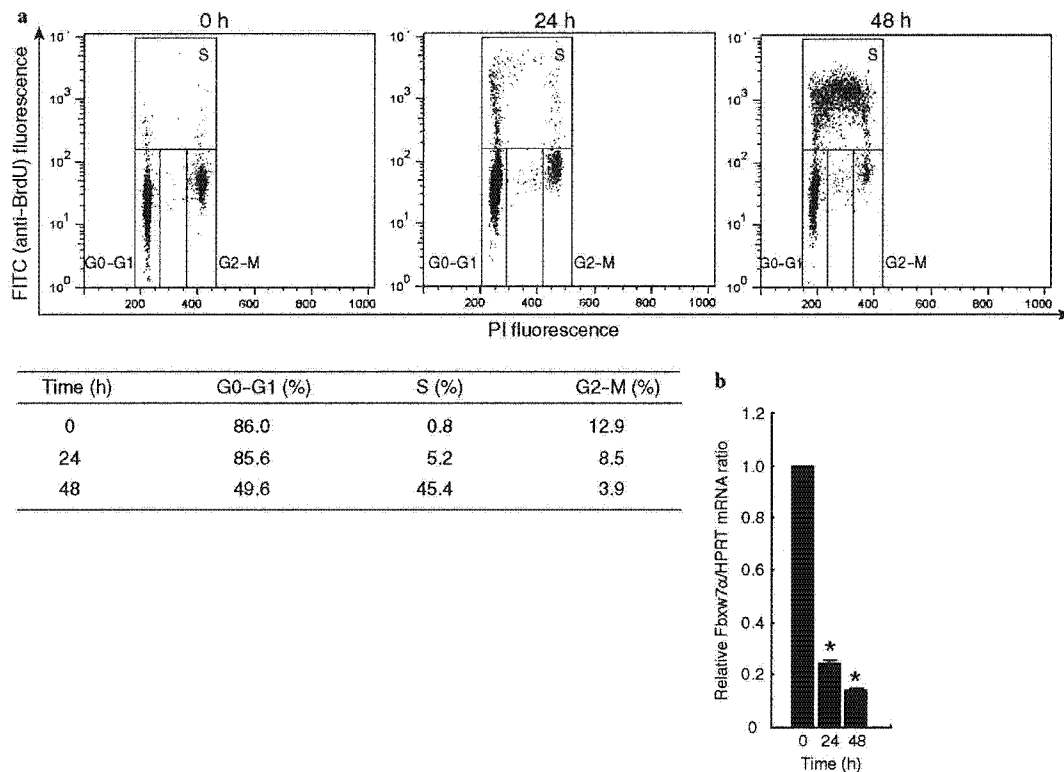


Fig. 3. Down-regulation of Fbxw7 α mRNA on entry of splenic T cells into the cell cycle. (a) Splenic T cells were stimulated with anti-CD3 ϵ in RPMI-1640 supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum for 0, 24, or 48 h, at which times cell cycle status was determined by flow cytometry. The percentages of cells in G₀-G₁, S, and G₂-M phases of the cell cycle at each time point are shown. (b) RT and real-time PCR analysis of Fbxw7 α mRNA at the indicated time points. **P* < 0.01 versus value for time 0.

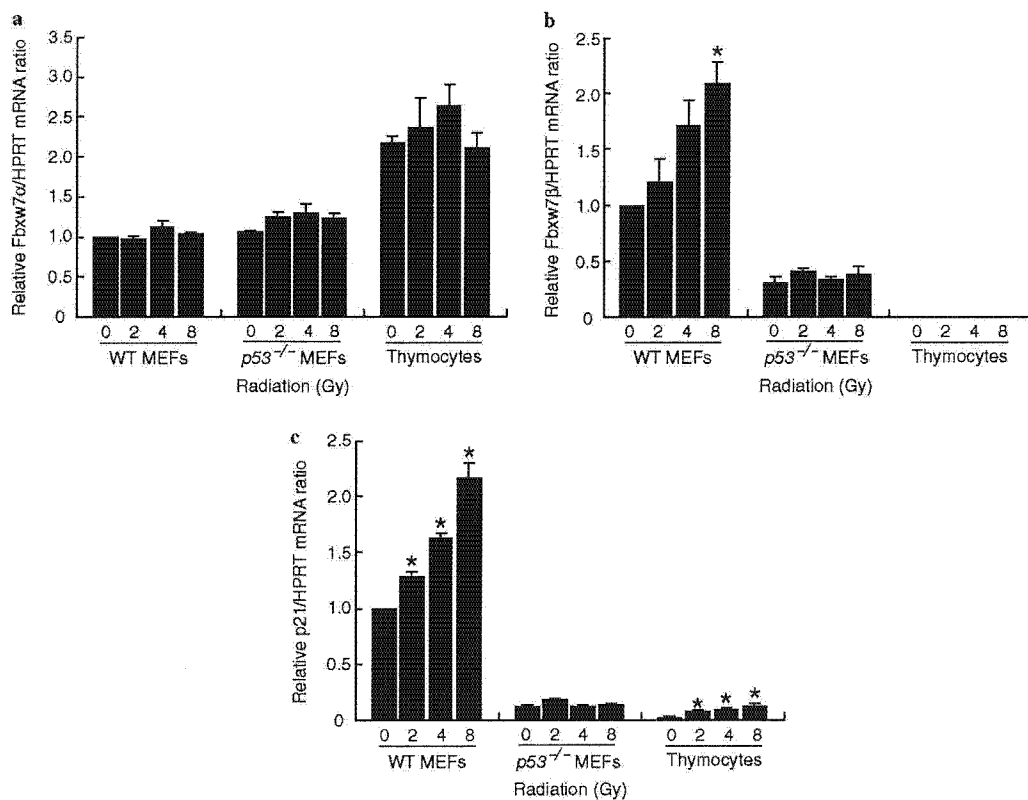


Fig. 4. Up-regulation of Fbxw7 β mRNA by X-radiation in a p53-dependent manner. Wild-type (WT) or $p53^{-/-}$ MEFs as well as wild-type thymocytes were exposed to 0, 2, 4, or 8 Gy of ionizing radiation and then incubated for 4 h (MEFs) or 2 h (thymocytes) at 37 °C in DMEM (MEFs) or RPMI-1640 (thymocytes) supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum. The abundance of Fbxw7 α (a), Fbxw7 β (b), and p21 (c) mRNAs was determined by RT and real-time PCR analysis. Data for each mRNA are expressed relative to the corresponding value for nonirradiated wild-type MEFs. * $P < 0.01$ versus value for corresponding nonirradiated cells.

activators, such as cyclin E, c-Myc, and c-Jun [1]. Consistent with this notion, mutations in *FBXW7* have been detected in certain human malignancies [6–11,15]. Like cyclin E, c-Myc, and c-Jun, Fbxw7 α is localized to the nucleoplasm. Our results now indicate that the abundance of Fbxw7 α mRNA is highest in quiescent cells and decreases as cells enter the cell cycle. This expression pattern is consistent with an antiproliferative action of Fbxw7 α . The mechanism underlying this cell cycle-dependent regulation of Fbxw7 α expression remains to be determined.

Fbxw7 β is localized to the ER membrane in the cytoplasm [16,17], a localization likely mediated by a putative transmembrane domain that is present near the NH₂-terminus and encoded by the β isoform-specific 5' exon [14]. Although cytoplasmic cyclin E has been suggested as a target of Fbxw7 β [17], the bona fide targets and functions of Fbxw7 β remain unknown. In contrast, Fbxw7 γ , which is localized to the nucleolus, was shown to contribute to control both of the amount of c-Myc in the nucleolus and of cell size [16]. The tissue distribution patterns of Fbxw7 β and Fbxw7 γ may provide insight into their functions. Fbxw7 β mRNA is largely restricted to the brain, suggesting that the targets of Fbxw7 β might be ER-associated pro-

teins in neurons. Parkin, mutations in the gene for which are responsible for an autosomal recessive, early onset form of Parkinson's disease, has been shown to interact with Fbxw7 [21]. Among potential targets of parkin, the Pael receptor is an ER-resident protein and is ubiquitinated by the ER-associated protein degradation pathway [22,23]. These observations thus implicate Fbxw7 β in degradation of the Pael receptor. Fbxw7 γ mRNA is largely restricted to muscle tissue, including the heart and skeletal muscle. Given the role of Fbxw7 γ in regulation both of the nucleolar level of c-Myc and of cell size and that muscle fibers are large compared with other cell types, Fbxw7 γ might contribute to muscle differentiation through regulation of c-Myc-dependent cell growth.

We previously identified mouse *Fbxw7* as a p53-dependent tumor suppressor gene with the use of a mammalian genetic screen for p53-dependent genes involved in tumorigenesis [12]. *Fbxw7*^{+/-} mice manifest an increased susceptibility to radiation-induced tumorigenesis, although most of the induced tumors retain and express the wild-type allele. Loss of Fbxw7 also alters the spectrum of tumors that develop in p53-deficient mice to include those of epithelial tissues in the lung, liver, and ovary. Radiation-

induced lymphomas in $p53^{+/-}$ mice, but not those in $p53^{-/-}$ mice, also show frequent deletion or mutation of *Fbxw7*. We have now shown that *Fbxw7 α* mRNA is present in T cells, but that its abundance in these cells appears to be independent of p53. In contrast, the amount of *Fbxw7 β* mRNA in MEFs was shown to be controlled by p53, but this transcript was not detected in thymocytes. These results suggest that the total amount of *Fbxw7* isoforms is unlikely to be reduced more in *Fbxw7 $^{+/-}$;* $p53^{+/-}$ T cells than in *Fbxw7 $^{+/-}$* T cells. It thus remains to be determined why a decrease in *Fbxw7* expression results in tumorigenesis in a p53-dependent manner.

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Mitogenic signalling and the p16^{INK4a}–Rb pathway cooperate to enforce irreversible cellular senescence

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The p16^{INK4a} cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor has a key role in establishing stable G1 cell-cycle arrest through activating the retinoblastoma (Rb) tumour suppressor protein pRb^{1–5} in cellular senescence. Here, we show that the p16^{INK4a}/Rb-pathway also cooperates with mitogenic signals to induce elevated intracellular levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS), thereby activating protein kinase C δ (PKC δ) in human senescent cells. Importantly, once activated by ROS, PKC δ promotes further generation of ROS, thus establishing a positive feedback loop to sustain ROS–PKC δ signalling^{6–8}. Sustained activation of ROS–PKC δ signalling irreversibly blocks cytokinesis, at least partly through reducing the level of WARTS (also known as LATS1), a mitotic exit network (MEN) kinase required for cytokinesis^{9–11}, in human senescent cells. This irreversible cytokinetic block is likely to act as a second barrier to cellular immortalization ensuring stable cell-cycle arrest in human senescent cells. These results uncover an unexpected role for the p16^{INK4a}–Rb pathway and provide a new insight into how senescent cell-cycle arrest is enforced in human cells.

Oncogenic proliferative signals are coupled to a variety of growth inhibitory processes, such as the induction of apoptotic cell death or senescent cell-cycle arrest¹. Thus, both apoptosis and senescence are thought to act as a safe-guard against neoplasia. Unlike apoptotic cells, senescent cells are viable for long periods of time^{2,3}. It is therefore important to clarify how senescent cell-cycle arrest is enforced in human cells². Two well established tumour suppressor gene products, pRb and p53, are known to have key roles in senescent cell-cycle arrest^{3–5}. The activities of pRb and p53 are dramatically increased during cellular senescence and inactivation of these proteins in senescent mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) results in reversal of the senescent phenotype leading to cell-cycle re-entry^{12,13}, suggesting that pRb and p53 are required not only for the onset of cellular senescence, but also for the maintenance of the senescence programme in murine cells. However, in human cells,

once pRb is fully engaged, particularly by its activator, p16^{INK4a}, senescent growth arrest becomes irreversible and is no longer revoked by subsequent inactivation of pRb and p53 (refs 2, 14, 15). Interestingly, subsequent inactivation of pRb and p53 enables human senescent cells to reinitiate DNA synthesis, but fails to drive a complete cell cycle, suggesting that these cells may be arrested in G2 or M phase of the cell cycle^{14,16}. However, to date, it is largely unknown how senescent cell-cycle arrest is maintained, even after pRb and p53 are subsequently inactivated in human senescent cells.

To delineate the molecular mechanisms of irreversible cell-cycle arrest in human cell senescence, we used SVts8 cells, a conditionally immortalized human fibroblast cell line that express a temperature-sensitive (ts) mutant of simian virus 40 large T antigen and elevated level of the endogenous telomerase¹⁷. SVts8 cells proliferate indefinitely at the permissive temperature (34 °C; Fig. 1a), because large T antigen binds and inactivates both pRb and p53 proteins (Fig. 1b). However, when shifted to the non-permissive temperature (38.5 °C), large T antigen is inactivated and a senescence-like cell-cycle arrest was induced within 5 days (Fig. 1a, b and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S1a). Importantly, once the senescence-like phenotype was induced, subsequent inactivation of pRb and p53 by large T antigen was no longer able to revoke cell-cycle arrest, even though a significant fraction of cells reinitiated DNA synthesis (Fig. 1a–d). These results are consistent with previous data from senescent human primary fibroblasts^{14,16}, indicating that SVts8 cells are an ideal model system to study irreversible senescent cell-cycle arrest. Interestingly, if SVts8 cells were cultured in low serum (0.2%) medium throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C, a significant fraction of cells reinitiated not only DNA synthesis, but also cell proliferation on shifting the temperature to 34 °C in normal serum (10%) medium (Fig. 1a, c and d). This is not simply because large T antigen was incompletely inactivated in low serum medium at 38.5 °C, as large T antigen was equally dissociated from both pRb and p53, and transcriptional control activities of pRb and p53 were similarly restored at 38.5 °C regardless of serum concentration in culture medium (Fig. 1b and see Supplementary

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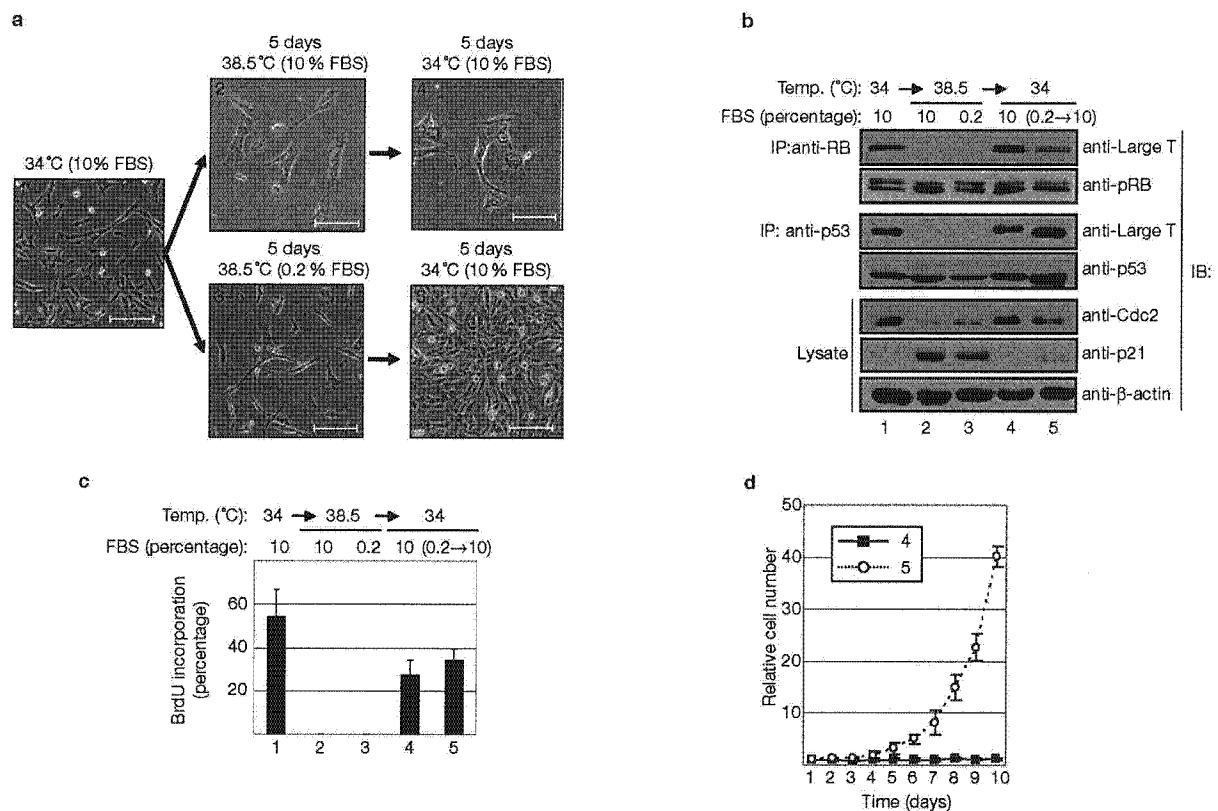


Figure 1 Mitogenic signals cooperate with pRb and/or p53 to induce irreversible cell-cycle arrest. **(a)** Time line of temperature shift experiments using SVts8 cells. SVts8 cells were cultured in normal serum (10%) medium at 34 °C. Cells were then incubated at 38.5 °C in normal serum medium or in low serum (0.2%) medium for 5 days. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34 °C in normal serum medium for another 5 days. Representative photographs of the cells in the indicated culture conditions are shown. The scale bars represent 200 μ m. **(b)** Total cell lysates were prepared at indicated times in **a** (column number corresponds to culture condition in Fig. 1a) and were

immunoblotted (IB) after immunoprecipitation (IP). The antibodies used are indicated. The total amount of Cdc2, p21 and β -actin were monitored by direct immunoblotting of the cell lysate. **(c)** A BrdU incorporation assay was performed at the times indicated in **a**. The means \pm s.d. of three independent experiments are shown. **(d)** SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5 °C either in normal serum medium (4) or in low serum medium (5) for 5 days. Cells were then cultured at 34 °C in normal serum medium and were subjected to a cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate. The means \pm s.d. of three independent experiments are shown.

Information, Fig. S1a). Thus, it seems that pRb and/or p53 may require mitogenic signals to initiate a cascade of molecular events underlying irreversible senescent cell-cycle arrest^{18,19}.

To understand how mitogenic signalling collaborates with pRb and/or p53 to induce irreversible senescent cell-cycle arrest, we focused on the intracellular levels of ROS because ROS are known to be induced by various mitogenic signals²⁰ and are implicated in the onset of cellular senescence²¹. Intriguingly, the levels of ROS were significantly increased on shifting the temperature to 38.5 °C in normal serum medium (Fig. 2a) and this level remained high even after pRb and p53 were subsequently inactivated by shifting the temperature to 34 °C in SVts8 cells (Fig. 2a). Importantly, induction of ROS was markedly attenuated if SVts8 cells were cultured in low serum medium throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C (Fig. 2a), suggesting that the increased level of ROS may determine the irreversibility of senescent cell-cycle arrest. To test this hypothesis, production of ROS was inhibited by addition of N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC) throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C in normal serum medium (Fig. 2b). Interestingly, NAC treatment enabled SVts8 cells to reinitiate cell proliferation on shifting the temperature to 34 °C in normal serum medium (Fig. 2c).

Similar results were also observed when diphenylene iodonium (DPI), an inhibitor of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide diphosphate (NADPH) oxidase, was used instead of NAC (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S1c, d and e).

PKC δ has an established role in activating NADPH-oxidase through phosphorylating p47^{phox}, an essential component of NADPH oxidase^{7,8}, and the levels of its catalytically active fragment (PKC δ -CF) were shown to be increased during replicative senescence in human diploid fibroblasts (HDFs)²². This evidence, in conjunction with previous reports showing that PKC δ acts as a critical downstream mediator of the ROS signalling pathway^{7,8,23}, led us to hypothesize that once activated by ROS, PKC δ itself activates production of ROS through activating NADPH oxidase, thereby establishing a positive-feedback loop to sustain the levels of ROS, even after pRb and p53 were subsequently inactivated in senescent cells. To explore this possibility, the levels of PKC δ -CF and its kinase activity were measured in SVts8 cells. An intense band with a relative molecular mass of 40,000 (M_r , 40K), which corresponds to PKC δ -CF, was observed almost exclusively on restoration of pRb and p53 in normal serum medium in SVts8 cells (Fig. 2d). Importantly, the levels of PKC δ -CF and its kinase activity were even higher when pRb and p53 were

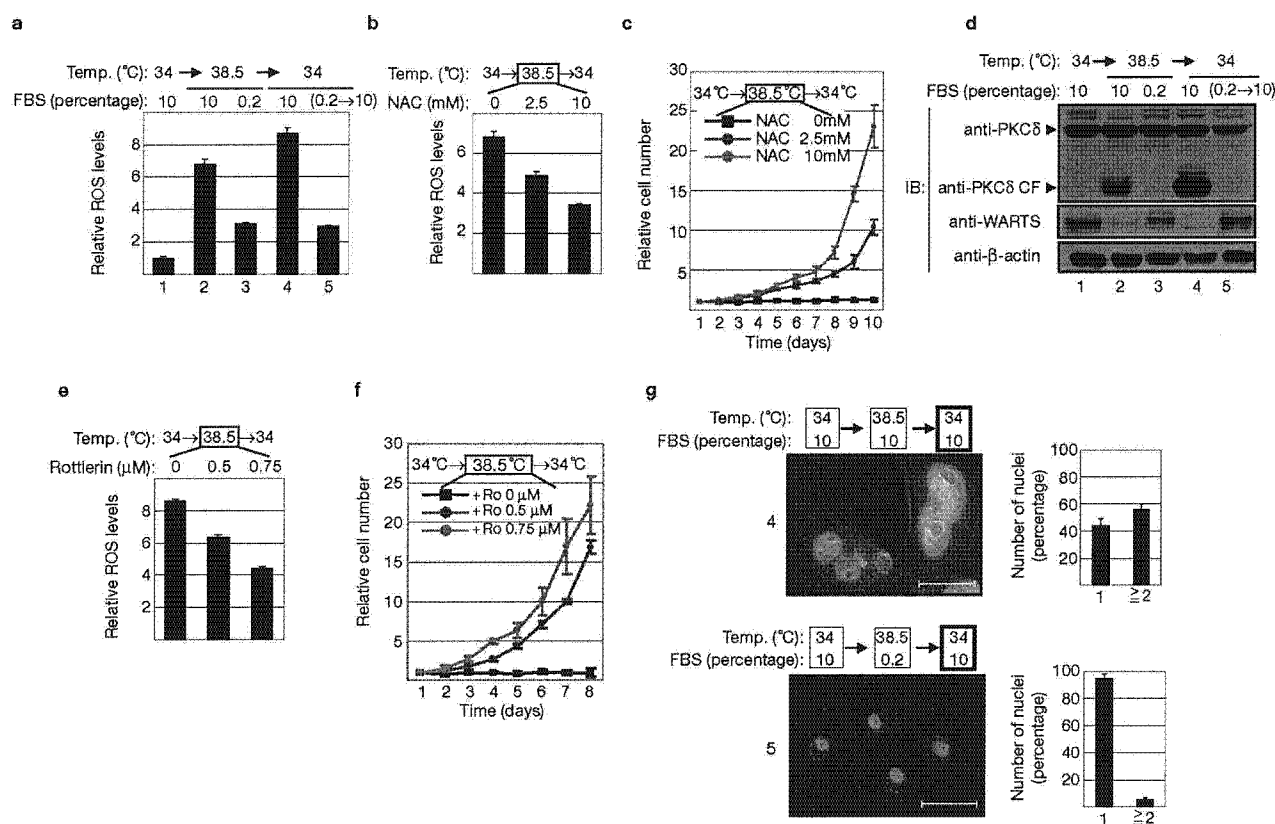


Figure 2 Involvement of ROS–PKC δ signalling in irreversible cell-cycle arrest. **(a)** SVts8 cells were cultured as described in Fig. 1a (lane number corresponds to culture condition) and relative ROS levels at the indicated times were measured by DCF-DA staining. **(b, c)** SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium with NAC at the doses indicated. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium without NAC. Cells were then subjected to analysis of relative ROS levels **(b)** or to cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate **(c)**. The error bars indicate s.d. **(d)** SVts8 cells were cultured as described in Fig. 1a and protein

expression at the indicated times was examined by western blotting using antibodies indicated. **(e, f)** SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium with rottlerin at the doses indicated. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34 °C in normal serum medium without rottlerin for 5 days. Cells were then subjected to analysis of relative ROS levels **(e)** or to cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate **(f)**. The error bars indicate s.d. **(g)** Cells at the indicated times (4 and 5) in Fig. 1a were stained with DAPI. The histograms indicate the percentage of polynucleated cells. The error bars indicate s.d. The scale bars represent 50 μ m.

subsequently inactivated, and correlated well with the levels of ROS (Fig. 2a, d and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S1f). Furthermore, treatment with rottlerin, a selective PKC δ inhibitor, throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C in normal serum medium enabled SVts8 cells to reinstate cell proliferation on shifting the temperature to 34 °C in fresh normal serum medium. Notably, this was accompanied by a substantial reduction in the levels of ROS (Fig. 2e, f), indicating that PKC δ indeed has a key role in the maintenance of ROS production in senescent cells.

As it has previously been shown that PKC δ may have the potential to block cytokinesis²⁴, we next examined the morphology and cell-cycle profiles of irreversibly arrested SVts8 cells. A dramatic increase in polynucleated cells was observed when the temperature was shifted to 34 °C after 5 days culture at 38.5 °C in normal serum medium (Fig. 2g and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2a), indicating that these cells are likely to have severe defects in cytokinesis. Such abnormal phenotypes were not observed if cells were cultured in low serum medium throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C (Fig. 2g and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2a). Intriguingly, the levels of WARTS were inversely correlated with those of PKC δ -CF in SVts8 cells (Fig. 2d). Moreover, inhibition of ROS production by NAC treatment throughout the incubation at 38.5 °C resulted in

marked recovery of the level of WARTS (Fig. 3a). Conversely, the levels of activated caspase-3, a known activator of PKC δ , and PKC δ -CF were diminished (Fig. 3a). Similar results were also observed when rottlerin was used instead of NAC (Fig. 3b). In contrast, treatment with H₂O₂ to increase the intracellular levels of ROS caused an activation of caspase-3, a significant induction of PKC δ activity, a remarkable reduction in WARTS expression and a senescent-like cell-cycle arrest in SVts8 cells (Fig. 3c and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2b–e). Furthermore, ectopic expression of PKC δ -CF had similar effects in SVts8 cells at 34 °C (Fig. 3d, e). Taken together, these results strongly suggest that PKC δ is an upstream regulator of WARTS expression and has positive feedback effects on ROS production in senescent cells.

Unlike HDFs, PKC δ -CF was not induced during replicative senescence in MEFs (data not shown). However, treatment with H₂O₂ led to a substantial induction in PKC δ -CF and concomitant reduction of WARTS in wild-type MEFs, but not in MEFs lacking the PKC δ gene (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2f)²⁵. These results further support the role of PKC δ in enforcing stable cell-cycle arrest (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2g–i). It is noteworthy that the reduction in WARTS was attenuated by the addition of MG132, a proteasome inhibitor

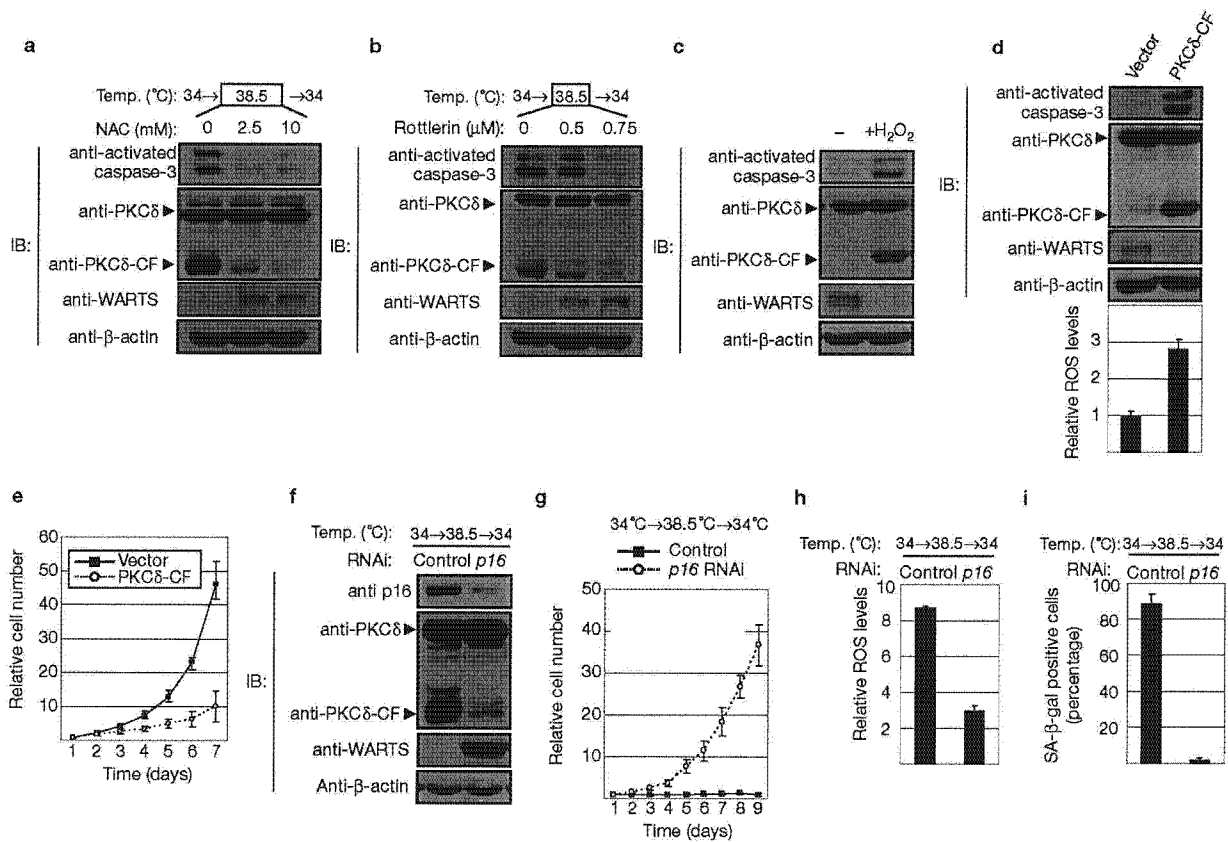


Figure 3 Downregulation of WARTS by PKC δ . (a) SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium with NAC at the doses indicated. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium without NAC. Cells were then subjected to western blotting with antibodies indicated. (b) SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5 °C for 5 days in normal serum medium with Rottlerin at the doses indicated. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34 °C in normal serum medium without Rottlerin for 5 days. Cells were then subjected to western blotting with the antibodies indicated. (c) SVts8 cells cultured at 34 °C were treated with H₂O₂ as previously described²¹. Cells were then subjected to western blotting analysis using the antibodies indicated. (d, e) SVts8 cells were

infected with retrovirus encoding PKC δ -CF or control vector at 34 °C. Cells were then subjected to analysis of relative ROS level, western blotting using the antibodies indicated (d) or to cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate at 34 °C in normal serum medium (e). The error bars represent s.d. (f, i) SVts8 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding RNAi against p16^{INK4a} or control²⁶ at 34 °C. Cells were then incubated at 38.5 °C in normal serum medium for 5 days and subsequently incubated at 34 °C in fresh normal serum medium for another 5 days. Cells were then subjected to western blotting using the antibodies indicated (f), cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate (g), analysis of relative ROS levels (h) or to SA- β -gal assay (i). The error bars represent s.d.

(see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3a). However, mutation of the consensus sequence for phosphorylation by PKC δ (Ser 464 to Ala) did not alter the stability of WARTS in senescent cells (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3b), suggesting that PKC δ may regulate the stability of WARTS indirectly through phosphorylating protein(s) controlling the stability of WARTS. It is also worth emphasizing that reduction of the levels of p16^{INK4a} using RNA interference (RNAi)²⁶ diminished activation of ROS–PKC δ signalling and enabled SVts8 cells to reinitiate cell proliferation on shifting the temperature to 34 °C from 38.5 °C (Fig. 3f–i). Taken together, these data and previous reports showing that p16^{INK4a} can initiate an autonomous senescence programme^{14,15}, indicate that the p16^{INK4a}–Rb pathway ensures the irreversibility of senescent cell-cycle arrest, at least in part through activating ROS–PKC δ signalling.

To ascertain the role of the ROS–PKC δ signalling pathway in primary human cells, we examined whether the ROS–PKC δ signalling pathway was activated in Ras-induced senescent HDFs^{27,28}. The levels of ROS and PKC δ -CF were significantly increased and the level of WARTS was significantly reduced in Ras-induced senescent TIG-3 cells and in Hs68 cells

(Fig. 4a, b and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3c). Importantly, subsequent expression of large T antigen was unable to revoke ROS–PKC δ signalling or cell-cycle arrest in Ras-induced senescent TIG-3 cells, despite its ability to induce DNA synthesis (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3d–g), indicating that ROS–PKC δ signalling pathway does serve as an additional level of security to prevent cell-cycle re-entry in senescent primary human cells. As shown by the experiments in Fig. 3d, overexpression of PKC δ -CF alone strikingly reduced the level of WARTS and blocked cell proliferation in early passage TIG-3 cells (Fig. 4a, c). Significantly, the arrested cells displayed phenotypic features of cellular senescence (Fig. 4d). Moreover, overexpression of PKC δ -CF itself substantially elevated the levels of ROS and activated caspase-3 in early passage TIG-3 cells (Fig. 4b and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3h), demonstrating that PKC δ also has positive feedback effects on ROS production in primary human cells. Interestingly, the levels of ROS induced by overexpression of PKC δ -CF were remarkably attenuated when cells were treated with DPI (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3i), suggesting that NADPH oxidase is implicated in this setting.

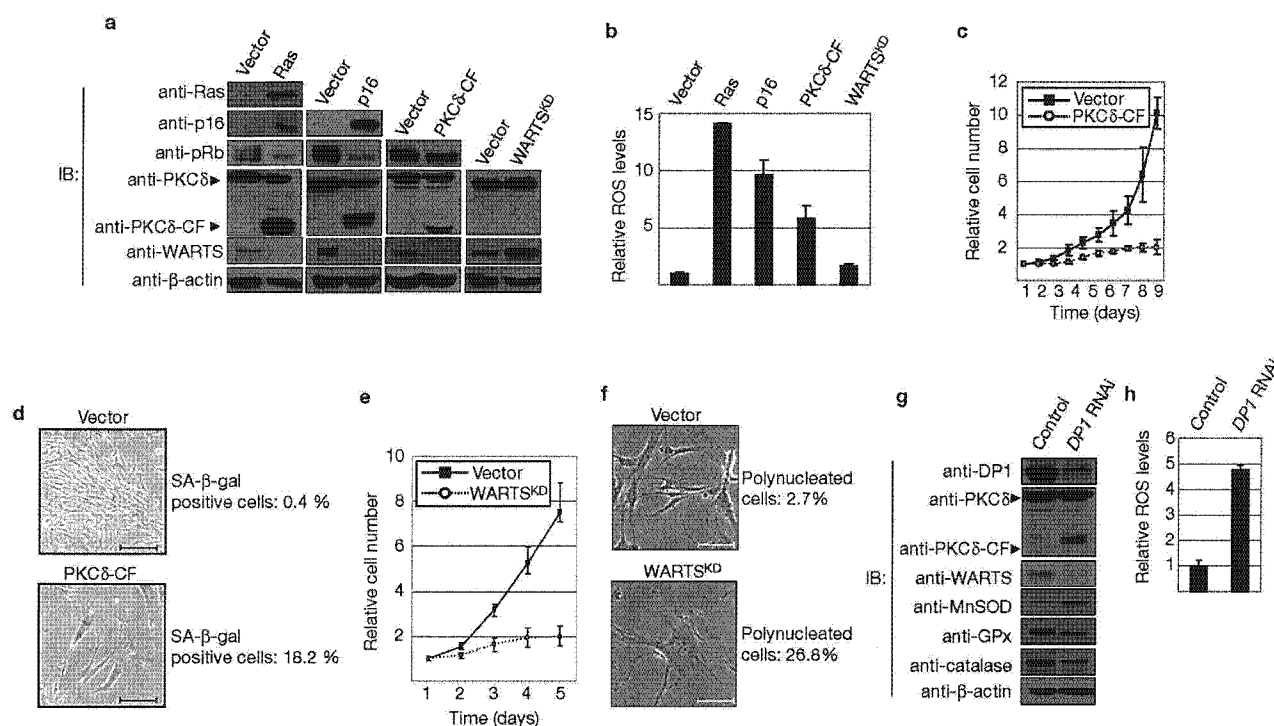


Figure 4 p16^{INK4a}-Rb pathway elicits ROS-PKC δ signalling in primary human diploid fibroblasts. (a-f) Early passage (40 population doublings level; PDL) TIG-3 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding oncogenic Ras (Ras), p16^{INK4a}, PKC δ -CF, WARTS^{KD} (ref. 9) or control empty vector. Cells were then subjected to western blotting with antibodies indicated (a), or to analysis of intracellular levels of ROS (b). TIG-3 cells infected with retrovirus encoding PKC δ -CF or control empty vector were subjected to cell proliferation assay in triplicate (c) and to SA- β -gal analysis (d). TIG-3 cells infected with retrovirus encoding WARTS^{KD} or control

empty vector were subjected for cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate (e). Representative images of the indicated cells are shown (f). (g, h) Early passage (40 PDL) TIG-3 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding RNAi against *DP1*²⁹ or control sequence. After selection with antibiotics, cells were then subjected to western blotting with the antibodies indicated (g) or to analysis of intracellular levels of ROS (h). These assays were performed in triplicate and representative results are shown in g. The error bars represent s.d. The scale bars represent 200 μ m in d and 100 μ m in f.

Overexpression of a dominant negative form of WARTS (WARTS^{KD})⁹ did not increase the level of ROS or PKC δ -CF (Fig. 4a, b), but significantly inhibited cell proliferation accompanied by a substantial increase in polynucleated TIG-3 cells (Fig. 4e, f), as previously reported⁹⁻¹¹. These results therefore indicate that a reduction in WARTS expression is, at least partly responsible for the cytokinetic block in senescent cells.

To obtain a mechanistic insight into how p16^{INK4a}-Rb-pathway promotes ROS production, we next examined the effects of the reduction of the level of DP1, an essential activator of the E2F transcription factor, by RNA interference (RNAi)²⁹. Interestingly, reduction of the level of DP1 led to a significant increase in the levels of ROS and PKC δ -CF expression and substantial reduction in WARTS expression in TIG-3 cells (Fig. 4g, h). Notably, the level of manganese superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) expression was increased, whereas those of glutathione peroxidases (GPX) and catalase expression were slightly decreased in *DP1*-knockdown cells (Fig. 4g). Thus, it is possible that more and more superoxide radicals are converted to H₂O₂ but are not detoxified to water and oxygen, resulting in accumulation of H₂O₂, a part of ROS, in *DP1*-knockdown cells. These results are consistent with a previous report showing that overexpression of MnSOD increases the levels of ROS³⁰. Taken together, our results strongly suggest that the p16^{INK4a}-Rb pathway provokes ROS-PKC δ signalling through blocking the E2F activity.

To further extend these findings to replicative senescence, ROS-PKC δ signalling was examined in late passage TIG-3 cells. TIG-3 cells lose

their proliferative activity and senesce at around 79 population doublings. These cells were classed as 'early senescent' and were cultured for a further 3 weeks before being classed as 'late senescent'. Although lentivirus mediated large T antigen expression enabled early-senescent cells to reinitiate DNA synthesis and cell proliferation, a similar level of large T antigen expression was unable to stimulate cell proliferation in late-senescent cells (Fig. 5a, b). Importantly, the levels of p16^{INK4a}, ROS and PKC δ -CF in late-senescent cells were significantly higher than those in early-senescent cells (Fig. 5c, d). Consistent with these results, the level of WARTS was strikingly reduced in late-senescent cells (Fig. 5c) and these levels were unchanged even when large T antigen was subsequently expressed in late-senescent cells (Fig. 5c, d), indicating that ROS-PKC δ signalling pathway does have a role in replicative senescence. It is also interesting to note that the levels of proteins involved in cytokinesis that we tested were all reduced in late-senescent cells (Fig. 5c). However, the expression levels of these proteins, with the exception of WARTS, returned to the original levels when large T antigen was expressed (Fig. 5c), illustrating the importance of WARTS as a critical downstream target of ROS-PKC δ signal in late senescence.

As we were unable to recover the level of WARTS by ectopic expression in senescent cells (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3b), it is still unclear whether WARTS is the most critical downstream target of the ROS-PKC δ signalling pathway towards the cytokinetic block in senescent cells. It is possible that PKC δ may have other targets to

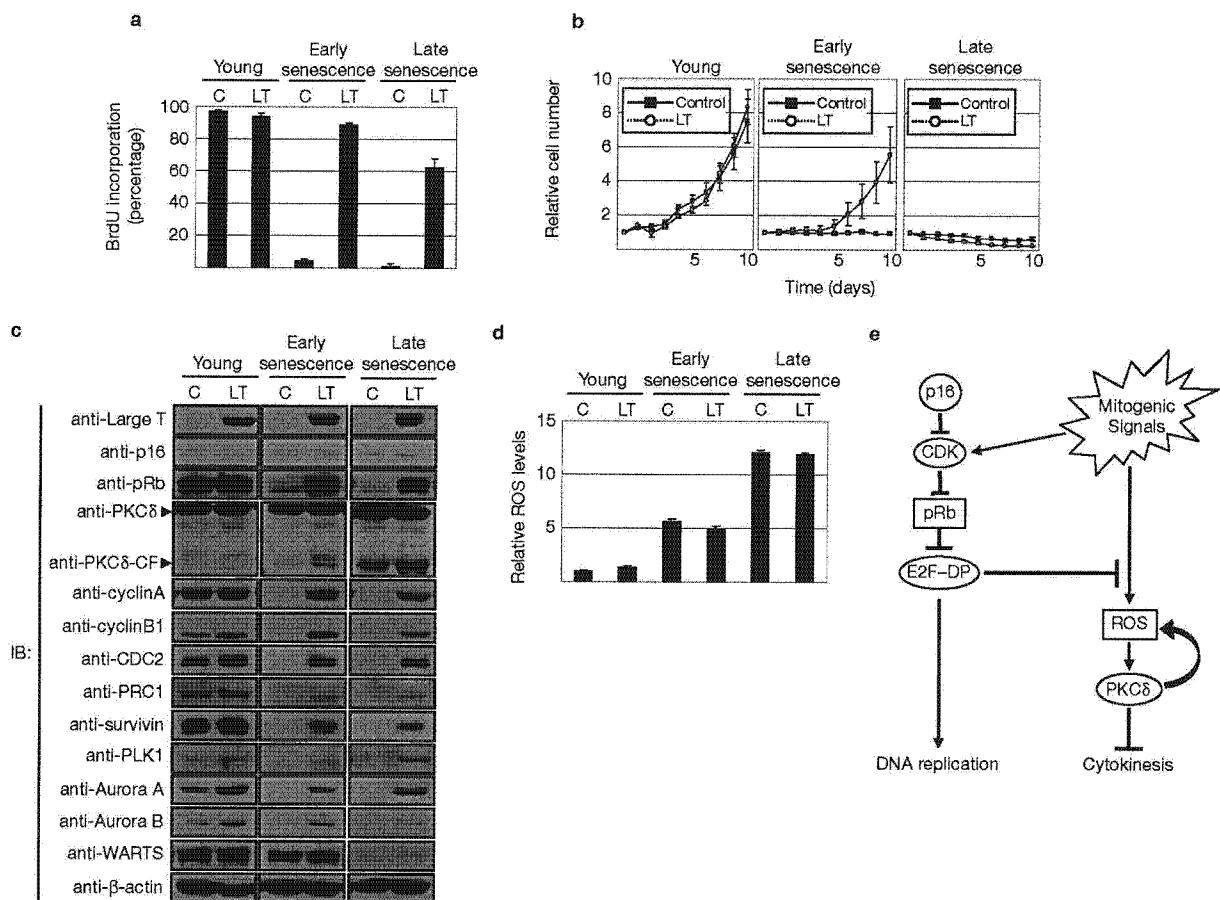


Figure 5 Irreversibility of replicative senescence. (a–d) Young (early passage), early-senescent or late-senescent TIG-3 cells were infected with lentivirus encoding either SV40 large T antigen (LT) or GFP (control). Five days later, these cells were subjected to BrdU incorporation analysis (a), cell proliferation analysis (b), western blotting using the indicated antibodies (c) or to assay for intracellular levels of ROS (d) as described in Fig. 2. These assays were performed in triplicate and representative results are shown in c. The error bars represent s.d. (e) Dual roles for the

p16^{INK4a}-Rb pathway in senescent cell-cycle arrest. In proliferating cells, the effects of mitogenic signals in ROS production are counterbalanced by E2F-DP activity. However, when E2F-DP activity is shut down by fully activated pRb, mitogenic signalling, in turn, increases the level of ROS and elicits a positive feedback activation of ROS-PKCδ signalling pathway. Elevated levels of p16^{INK4a} therefore establish an autonomous activation of ROS-PKCδ signalling, leading to an irrevocable block to cytokinesis in human senescent cells.

enforce the cytokinetic block²². However, overexpression of a dominant negative form of WARTS, on its own, significantly inhibited cell proliferation accompanied by a substantial increase in polynucleated cells (Fig. 4e, f). These results, together with previous reports showing that WARTS is a MEN-kinase required for cytokinesis^{9–11}, strongly suggest that reduction of WARTS is, at least partly responsible for cytokinetic block in senescent cells. Together, our data reveal a novel function for the p16^{INK4a}-Rb pathway operating in human cell senescence (Fig. 5e). This system may serve as a fail-safe mechanism, especially in case of the accidental inactivation of pRb and p53 in human senescent cells. □

METHODS

Cells and cell culture. Normal human diploid fibroblasts TIG-3 cells and Hs68 cells were cultured in DME supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS) at 37 °C²⁸. SVts8 cells were cultured in DME supplemented with 10% FBS at 34 °C¹⁷. Early passage TIG-3 cells (40 population doublings) and Hs68 cells (45 population doublings) were used as young cells. Cell proliferation analysis and SA-βgal assay were performed as previously described²⁹.

Viral infections. TIG-3 cells and SVts8 cells were rendered sensitive to infection by ecotropic retroviruses as previously described²⁹ and infected with recombinant retroviruses encoding Ras V12 (in pBabe-puro)²⁷, PKCδ-CF (in pMarX-hygro)⁶, p16 (in pMarX-hygro)²⁸, WARTS^{KDK734A} (in pMarX-puro)⁹, p16 shRNA (in pRetrosuper-hygro)²⁶ or DP1 shRNA (in pRetrosuper-puro)²⁹. Pools of drug-resistant cells were analysed 7 days after infection. For lentiviral infection, senescent TIG-3 cells were infected with lentivirus encoding either large T antigen or GFP as previously described¹⁴. The infection efficiency (>99%) was monitored by GFP.

Protein analysis. Immunoblotting and immunoprecipitation were performed as previously described²⁸ with primary antibodies against aurora A (610938; BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA), aurora B (611082; BD), β-actin (sc-8432; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA), caspase-3 (9662; Cell Signalling, Beverly, MA), catalase (ab1877; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), cdc2 (#17; Cancer Research UK, London, UK), cyclin A (sc-751; Santa Cruz), cyclin B1 (sc-752; Santa Cruz), DP1 (11834; Abcam), GPX (mo15-3; MBL, Nagoya, Japan), large T antigen (L-19)¹⁷, MnSOD (611580; BD), PKCδ (sc-937; Santa Cruz), PLK1 (06-813; Upstate, Lake Placid, NY), PRC1 (gift from W. Jiang, Burnham Institute, La Jolla, CA), p16 (Ab-1; Oncogene, Boston, MA), p21 (sc-397; Santa Cruz), p53 (Ab-6; Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), Ras (Ab-4; Oncogene), RB (sc-102; Santa Cruz and 554136;

BD), survivin (AF886; R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN) and WARTS (C-2)⁹. In some experiments, cells were incubated with 10 μ M MG132 (Calbiochem) for 12 h before harvest.

Analysis of intracellular ROS. To assess the generation of intracellular ROS levels, cells were incubated with 20 μ M DCF-DA (Calbiochem) for 20 min at 37 °C. The peak excitation wavelength for oxidized DCF was 488 nm and for emission was 525 nm.

Protein kinase assay. Immune complex kinase assay was performed as previously described²³ with antibody against PKC δ (sc-937; Santa Cruz). The incubation was carried out for 5 min or 30 min at 30 °C.

Note: Supplementary Information is available on the Nature Cell Biology website.

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COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing financial interests.

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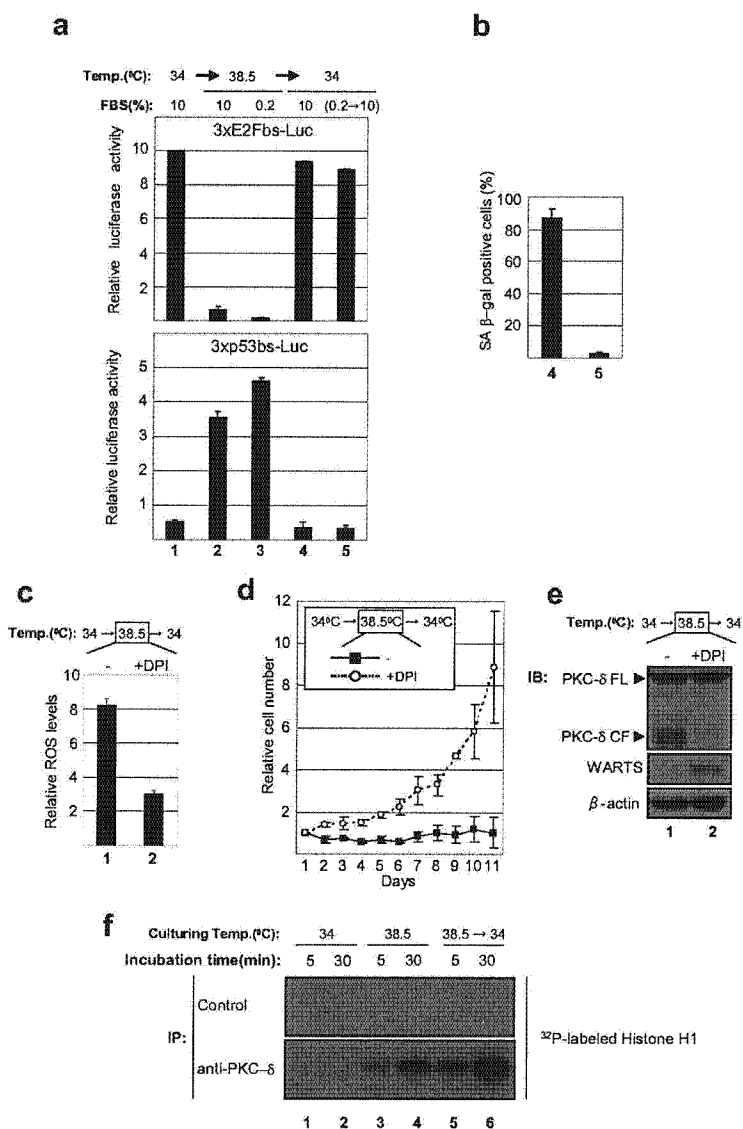


Figure S1 Analysis of transcriptional control activity of pRb and p53 in SVts8 cells. **(a)** SVts8 cells were transfected with a reporter construct containing tandem repeat of E2F-responsive element (3XE2Fbs-Luc) or p53-responsive element (3Xp53bs-Luc) driving luciferase gene. After selection with antibiotics, pooled cells were then cultured as described in Fig. 1a (lane number corresponds to culture condition). Luciferase activities were assayed at indicated time points. Error bars indicate standard deviation (SD). **(b)** SVts8 cells were cultured as described in Fig. 1a (lane number corresponds to culture condition), and were subjected to analysis of SA-β gal activity at indicated time points. **(c-e)** SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5°C for 5 days in normal serum medium with (+DPI) or without (-) 0.2μM of DPI. These cells were subsequently incubated at 34°C for 5 days

in fresh normal serum medium without DPI. Cells were then subjected to analysis of ROS levels (c), cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate (d) or to Western blotting with antibodies indicated at left (e). **(f)** SVts8 cells were cultured in normal serum medium at 34°C (lanes 1 and 2). Cells were then incubated at 38.5°C for 5 days in normal serum medium (lanes 3 and 4), and were subsequently incubated at 34°C in normal serum medium for another 5 days (lanes 5 and 6). Cell lysates were prepared at indicated time point and were precipitated with or without antibody against PKC-δ. Resulting complexes were incubated with Histone H1 as the substrate for 5 min (lanes 1, 3 and 5) or 30 min (lanes 2, 4 and 6) in the presence of [γ -³²P]ATP. Labeled proteins were resolved on denaturing polyacrylamide gels, which were dried and subjected to autoradiography.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION

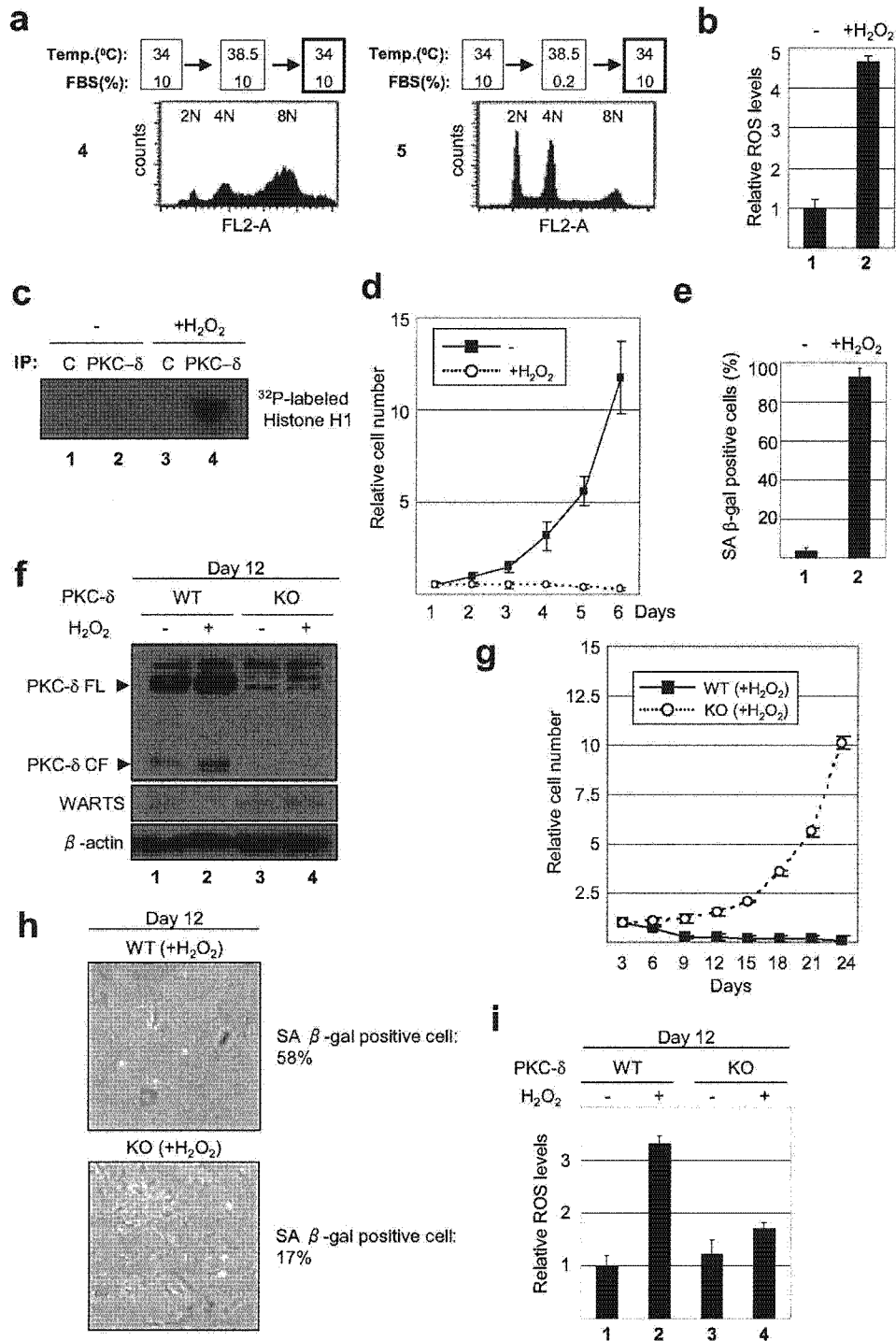


Figure S2 Role of PKC- δ on H₂O₂-induced senescence-cell cycle arrest. **(a)** SVts8 cells were cultured as described in Fig. 1a. The DNA content of cells was measured by FACS analysis at indicated time points (4 and 5). **(b-e)** SVts8 cells cultured at 34 °C were treated with H₂O₂ as described previously³¹. Cells were then subjected to analysis of ROS levels **(b)**, PKC- δ kinase assay as described in Fig. S1f **(c)**, cell proliferation assay performed in triplicate **(d)** or to SA- β -gal analysis **(e)**. Error bars indicate SD.

(f-i) Early passage MEFs lacking the PKC- δ gene (KO)²⁵ or control (WT) were cultured in DME containing 10% FBS at 37 °C and were treated with (+) or without (-) H₂O₂ as described in panel b to e. Cells were then subjected to immunoblotting with antibodies shown left **(f)** or to cell proliferation assay in triplicate **(g)**. Representative photographs of the cells stained for SA- β -gal activity at indicated time point (Day 12) were shown **(h)**. Relative ROS levels were measured at day 12. Error bars indicate SD **(i)**.

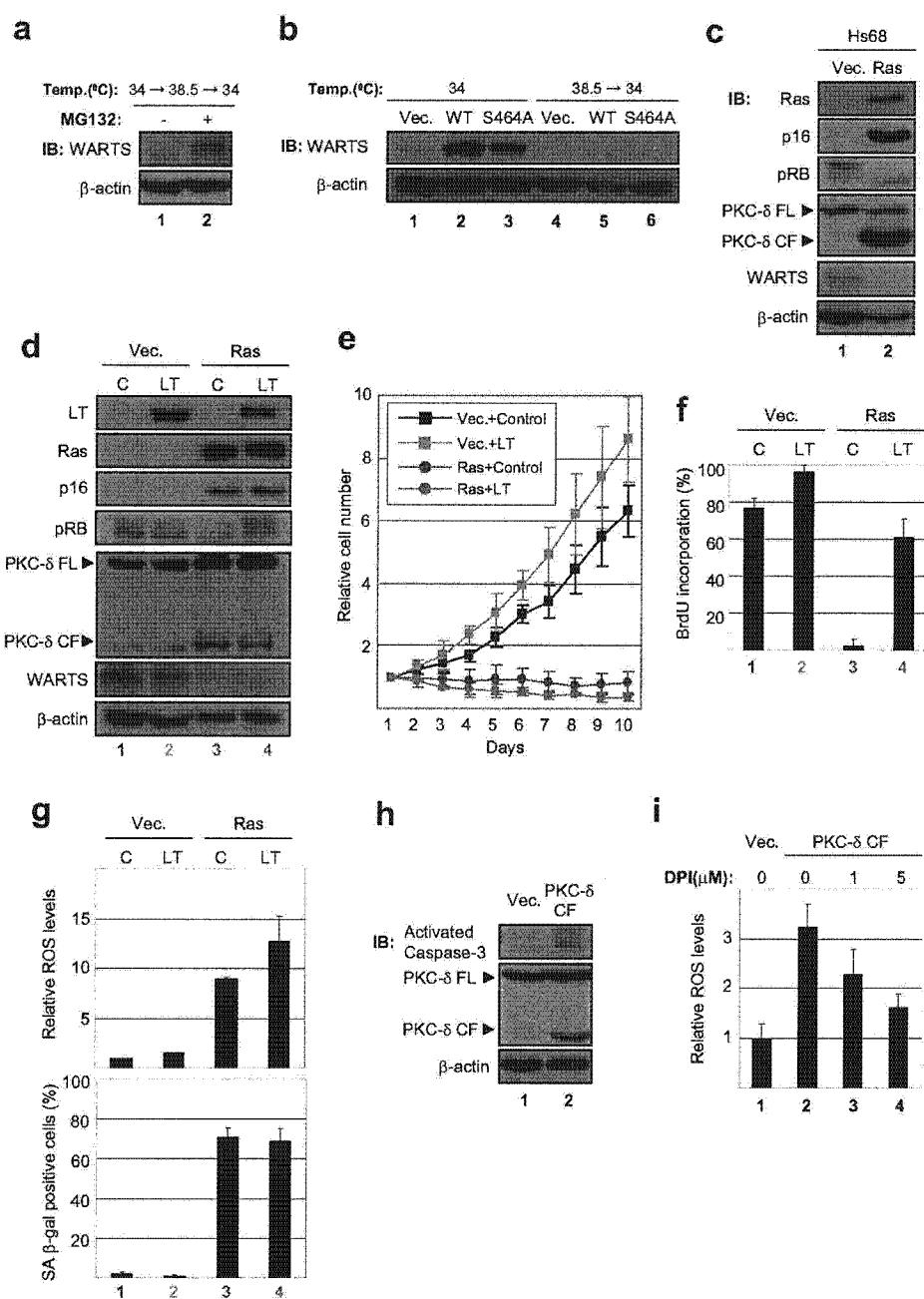
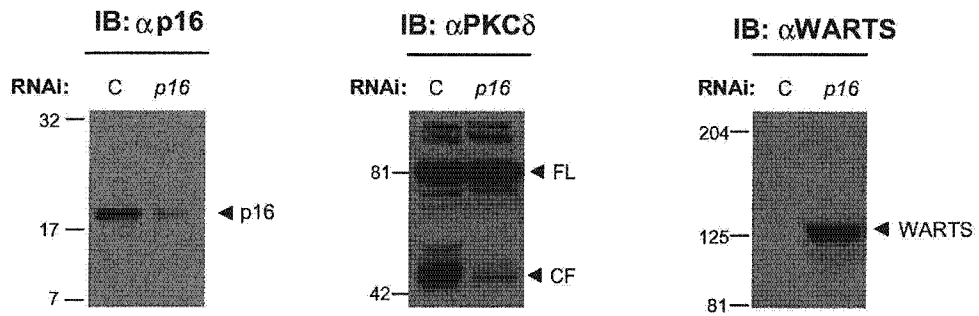


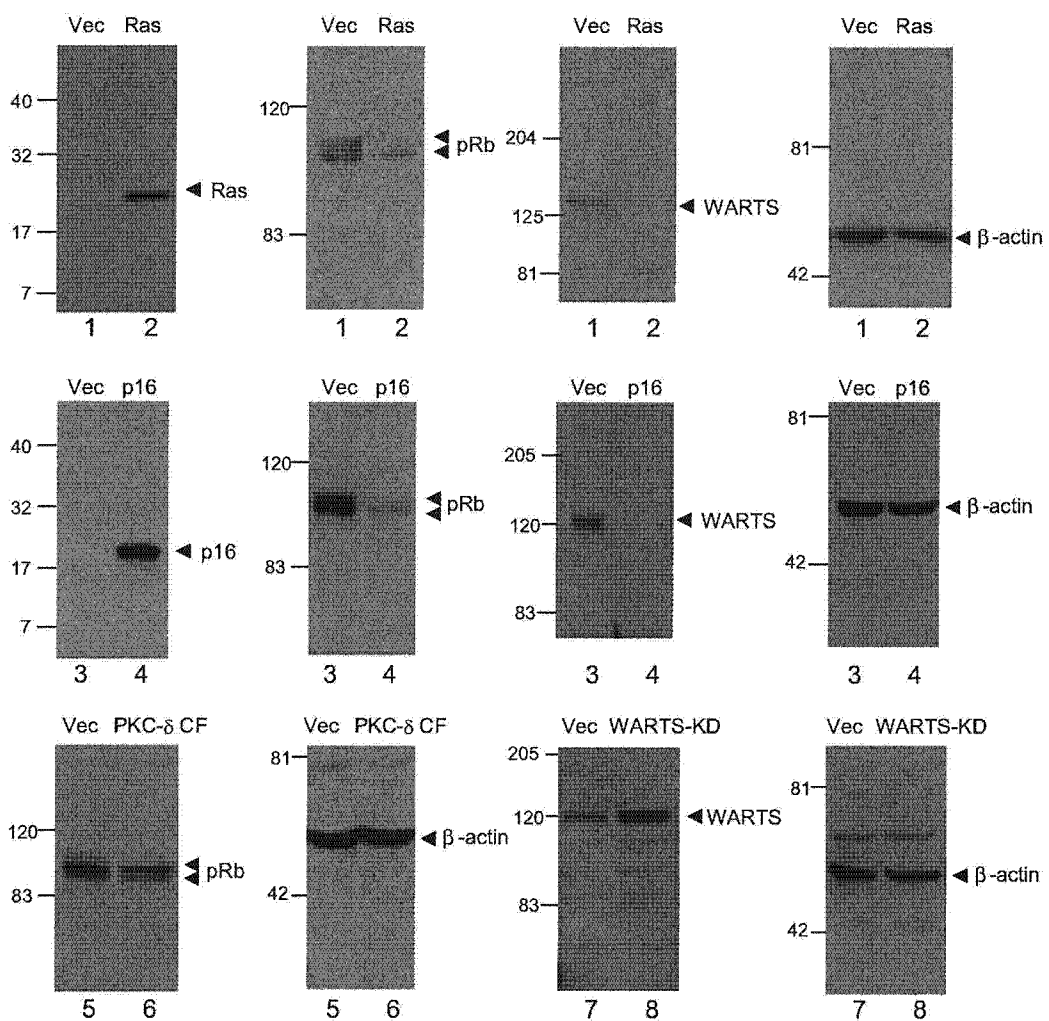
Figure S3 ROS regulate irreversible cell cycle arrest. **(a)** SVts8 cells were cultured at 38.5°C for 5 days in normal serum medium. Cells were then incubated at 34°C in normal serum medium for 5 days and were subsequently incubated with (lane 2) or without (lane 1) 10 μM of MG132 for 12 hrs. Cells were then subjected to western blotting using antibodies shown left. **(b)** SVts8 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding wild type WARTS (WT), S464A mutant (S464A) or vector control (Vec.). Infected cells were cultured at 34°C in normal serum medium (lanes 1 to 3). These cells were then cultured at 38.5°C for 5 days in normal serum medium, and were subsequently incubated at 34°C in normal serum medium for another 5 days (lanes 4 to 6). Expression levels of WARTS were measured by Western blotting using antibodies indicated at left. **(c)** Ras provokes ROS/PKC-δ signalling pathway in Hs68 cells. Early passage (45PDL) primary human skin fibroblast, Hs68 cells, were infected with retrovirus encoding oncogenic Ras or control empty vector. Cells were then subjected

to immunoblotting with antibodies indicated at left. **(d-g)** Early passage (40PDL) TIG-3 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding oncogenic Ras or control empty vector (Vec.). When senescence-like cell cycle arrest was induced, cells were subsequently infected with lentivirus encoding SV40 large T antigen (LT) or GFP as a control. Cells were then subjected to immunoblotting with antibodies indicated at left (d), cell proliferation assay (e), BrdU incorporation assay (f) or to ROS and SA-β-gal analysis (g). These assays were performed in triplicate and representative results were shown in panel d. Error bars indicate SD. **(h)** Early passage (40PDL) TIG-3 cells were infected with retrovirus encoding PKC-δ CF or control empty vector (Vec.), as described in Fig. 4. Cells were then subjected to Western blotting with antibodies indicated at left. **(i)** TIG-3 cells expressing exogenous PKC-δ CF were treated with DPI for 24 hrs at the doses indicated. These cells were then subjected to analysis of relative ROS levels. Error bars indicate SD.

SUPPLEMENTARY INFORMATION



Expanded blots including molecular weight size markers from Fig.3f



Expanded blots including molecular weight size markers from Fig.4a