As one of the most intensively studied transcription factors, it is unsurprising that p53 is involved in many biological processes, including cell cycle arrest, DNA repair, senescence and apoptosis. Its activities are mainly regulated by posttranslational modifications and interactions with other cellular components. Over the past few years, p53 has also been linked to redox homeostasis, the balance between cellular pro- and antioxidant levels. On the one hand, reactive oxygen species (ROS) can modify the cysteine residues of p53, leading to a conformational change that affects its transcriptional activities. On the other hand, p53 also acts as an upstream regulator of ROS production by activating or repressing several ROS-regulating genes, such as glutathione peroxidase (GPX), p53-induced genes (PIGs), nitric oxide synthase 2 (NOS2) and Mn superoxide dismutase (MnSOD). Those genes have been shown to act either in a pro- or an antioxidant context. Hence, the role of p53 in overall ROS regulation is a complex network and still needs to be investigated in depth.

ROS are generated by both mitochondrial and non-mitochondrial pathways. In the latter pathway, the nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidase (NOX) mainly contributes to ROS production. Among many family members, NOX2 is the one which has been most extensively studied (Fig. 1). NOX2 mainly localizes on the plasma membrane and generates superoxide utilizing NADPH and molecular oxygen upon activation, e.g., in the process of phagocytosis. Recently, neutrophil cytosolic factor 2 (NCF2), the gene encoding p67phox, which is the cytosolic subunit and activator of NOX2, has been identified as a novel target of p53. In this study, Italiano et al. have shown that p53 can bind to the promoter of NCF2 and activate gene expression, indicating that p53 is a transcription factor for NCF2. NCF2 is upregulated by doxorubicin treatment in p53-positive HCT 116 cells but not in p53-negative cells. Downregulation of NCF2 with siRNA-based approach results in reduced ROS production and increased cell death in HCT 116 and HaCat cells. This suggests that NOX2 expression is a sort of ROS-dependent cell survival factor owing to the influence of ROS on p53 (Fig. 1). It should be mentioned, however, that high ROS concentrations can also kill cells. Taken together, these results provide a new insight into the network of p53 and ROS production. Since p53 can act both pro- and anti-apoptotically, the pro-oxidant NCF2/p67phox can thus support the anti-apoptotic role of p53 under certain conditions. In this case, p53 is probably required to maintain a sufficient level of NCF2/p67phox for cell survival. However, under which circumstances p53 activates NOX2 and how they modulate the cell fate are still questions of interest at the moment.

In summary, the identification of NCF2/p67phox as a novel target of p53 extends our understanding of the partnership between p53 and ROS production and further highlights the unknown role of p53 in inflammatory diseases, such as cardiovascular, autoimmune...
and allergic diseases as well as primary and secondary immunodeficiencies.

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Linking JNK-STAT3-Akt signaling axis to EZH2 phosphorylation: A novel pathway of carcinogenesis
Comment on: Chen B, et al. Cell Cycle 2013; 12:112–21; PMID:23255093; http://dx.doi.org/10.4161/cc.22853
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Activation of JNK signaling pathway has long been viewed as a one-way road to the destination where apoptotic or non-apoptotic cell death occurs in response to a plethora of extracellular stimuli. Paradoxically, JNK has also been implicated in the proliferation of transformed and cancer cells. For example, several early studies have shown that activation of JNK kinase could increase the incidence of tumor formation or tumor size of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), gastric cancer and lung cancer induced by chemical carcinogens or tobacco smoke. However, it is still puzzling how JNK, which is a well-studied kinase regulating cell death, acts in the opposite direction to induce proliferation of cancer cells. In both compensatory growth model in Drosophila and cancer model in mice, JNK was viewed as an upstream kinase of Wnt/BMP signaling and JAK/STAT3 signaling that is important in providing growth advantages for the cells. Alternatively, JNK appears to be essential for the expression of c-myc, a tumor-promoting oncogene in human and mouse HCC. In a recent issue of Cell Cycle, Chen and colleagues1 provide convincing evidence showing that activation of JNK by arsenic is an early event in the JNK-STAT3-Akt signaling axis that is linked to serine 21 (S21) phosphorylation of EZH2, an enzyme subunit of the PRC2 complex responsible for trimethylation of histone H3 lysine 27 (H3K27me3).

Previously, the Chen group demonstrated that JNK phosphorylates STAT3 at serine 727 (S727), which, in turn, activates Akt and induces VEGF expression and cell migration.4 In this report, they validate the JNK regulation of STAT3 via miR-21 and link the JNK-STAT3-Akt signaling axis to the phosphorylation of EZH2. In addition, they found that STAT3 upregulates Akt through miR-21-mediated silencing of Spry2 rather than PTEN or PDCD4 as previously reported. Spry2 is a tumor suppressor that antagonizes multiple receptor tyrosine kinases associated with the activation of Ras/ERK and PI3K/Akt pathways. In prostate cancer and HCC, overactivation of PI3K/Akt is the major effect from loss of Spry2.5,6 Akt-dependent S21 phosphorylation of EZH2 has been reported in breast cancer cells treated with IGF-1 or estrogen.7 It is believed that this phosphorylation weakens the association between EZH2 and other PRC2 subunits, which results in the decrease in H3K27me3 level in the genome. Unexpectedly, this report did not show a detectable effect of S21 phosphorylation of EZH2 on H3K27me3 level. The authors attribute this finding to the small fraction of EZH2 being phosphorylated by arsenic, which may not be sufficient to affect the methytransferase activity of EZH2. Interestingly, they observed that a substantial amount of S21-phosphorylated EZH2 is localized in the cytoplasm, which is unusual considering that EZH2 is predominantly a nuclear protein. The question to be answered is whether S21-phosphorylated EZH2 can partner with specific proteins in the cytoplasm to alter their function.

The significance of this paper is that it might reveal a novel mechanism of carcinogenesis induced by arsenic and other related metal carcinogens. It is worth noting that JNK is involved in the signaling of STAT3 and Akt that leads to EZH2 phosphorylation. The activation of JNK-STAT3-Akt signaling axis and EZH2 phosphorylation are potentially crucial steps in the generation of cancer stem cells (CSCs), since both STAT3 and EZH2 are known to be involved in the self-renewal, pluripotency and proliferation of CSCs (Fig. 1). Interestingly, a recent report suggests that Oct4, one of the four Yamanaka factors for reprogramming, is a substrate of Akt.7 Phosphorylation of Oct4 by Akt would enhance the transcriptional activity of Oct4 on other pluripotent or self-renewal genes, suggesting the potential new role of JNK-STAT3-Akt signaling and EZH2 phosphorylation in CSC growth and carcinogenesis.
p53 continues to surprise: High levels of p53 can suppress apoptosis

Comment on: Chee JLY, et al. Cell Cycle 2013; 12:278-88; PMID:23255126; http://dx.doi.org/10.4161/cc.23054

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On average, p53 is mutated in 50% of tumors. As results accumulate from large-scale cancer genome sequencing approaches, it is evident that underlying this average, p53 mutation rates in different tumor subtypes are highly heterogeneous. For example, p53 is mutated in over 80% of triple-negative basal-like breast cancers and 90% of high-grade serous ovarian cancers, while, in contrast, luminal A breast tumors are 88% wild-type p53.1 These findings suggest that the tissue-specific genetic background of the precursor cancer cell can influence the subsequent route of p53 inactivation.

Missense mutations of p53 are common. These are frequently situated in the DNA binding domain of p53 (hotspot mutations), resulting in impairment of the ability of p53 to transactivate its downstream pathways. Such mutations not only obviate the normal functions of p53, but also result in a gain of function, a focus of current research. This gain of function is associated with mutant p53 promiscuously cooperating with other transcription factors (for example, NF-κB,2 VDR3 and p634) resulting in expression of genes driving metastasis.

In the 50% of tumors with wild-type p53, how are the normal responses of p53 attenuated? There are presumably upstream, downstream or a combination of factors that suppress the normal critical damage sensor roles of p53. The nature of the sensors and responses when oncogenes are overexpressed are presently being unravelled.5 Normal cells maintain low levels of p53 protein to prevent the activation of the downstream apoptotic and other tumor suppressor pathways. Unexpectedly, high levels of wild-type p53 protein are found in some tumors and are associated with metastasis and poor prognosis. The cancer cell can function in the face of these high levels of wild-type p53 by excluding the protein from the nucleus and relocating to the cytoplasm (e.g., ref. 6), thus limiting the transactivation of p53 target genes. Cancer cells with mutant p53 can also show high levels of the protein located in the cytoplasm. Since transactivation activity of mutant p53 is absent, this prompted Chee et al.7 to speculate that high levels of cytoplasmic p53 (wild-type or mutant) provide a gain of function and therefore a selective advantage to the cancer cell. The paper by Chee et al. provides compelling evidence that this gain of function results in increased resistance of the tumor cell to chemotherapeutic drugs.

In their study, Chee et al. showed that p53 can interact with and inhibit caspase-9, one of the critical caspases in the classical apoptosis cascade. At first this appears counter intuitive as one of the major transactivation pathways of p53 targets is to drive apoptosis in response to external or internal cellular stress. However, when the unusual cytoplasmic localization of the p53 in these cancer cells is considered, this begins to make sense. Increased resistance to cisplatin, a commonly used chemotherapeutic agent, is shown to be dependent on mutant or wild-type p53. One of their approaches utilizes an ec dysone-inducible system for expression of wild-type and mutant p53 in a p53-null H1299 cancer cell. This is a particularly powerful approach due to the lack of leaky expression often seen in other inducible expression systems. The levels of either wild-type or mutant p53 correlate with increasingly specific inhibition of caspase-9. In normal cells the interaction of caspase 9 and p53 in the cytoplasm cannot be detection as p53 is preferentially located in the nucleus.

Therefore in tumor cells the consequences of high levels of cytoplasmic p53 are a possible mechanism to circumvent the expected toxic consequences of p53 but in addition a gain of function that imparts resistance to chemotherapeutic agents. These findings highlight the amazing plasticity of p53 and its exploitation by tumor cells to positively drive their survival pathways.

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Recent advances in cancer research has revealed that tumors should be considered as an integrated network of neoplastic and ancillary cells of the tumor microenvironment, including cancer-associated fibroblasts (CAFs), macrophages, endothelial cells, etc. The cross-talk between these populations is not only merely mediated by soluble cytokines and growth factors, but is now been enlarged to metabolites, like lactate, ketone bodies or proteins.2,3 These metabolites are exchanged among stromal and cancer cells or using membrane solute transporters, or mediated by release of cargo-vesicles, such as exosomes or oncosomes, which can carry ATP, proteins or miRNAs.4

This intra-tumoral cross-talk elicits, in cancer cells, an escaping strategy called epithelial mesenchymal transition (eMT) accompanied by expression of stem-like traits and granting for successful metastases.5 In addition, stromal and cancer cells undergo a reciprocal metabolic reprogramming, useful to sustain cancer cells survival and growth. In particular, in stromal cells, cancer cells induce a Warburg-like metabolism, fueling cancer cells themselves with essential metabolites such as lactate and ketone bodies. Cancer cells use these energy-rich molecules for anabolic purposes as well as to fuel ATP synthesis through respiration, undergoing the so-called “reverse Warburg” metabolism.3,6

This coupling metabolism within tumor stroma, involving direct and reverse Warburg metabolism, could explain the controversial data concerning the role of mitochondria in cancer progression. Indeed, several data indicate a mandatory role of mitochondria in cancer cells, ranging from lactate respiration, to Krebs cycle fueling with ketone bodies, to citrate exportation to fuel fatty acids synthesis.7 In addition, mitochondrial metabolism is compulsory for glutamine-addicted cancer cells. The most likely hypothesis is that in cancer cells, mitochondrial reprogramming leads to a shift toward ketone/glutamine utilization, leading to citrate-mediated fatty acids synthesis. This integrated behavior commits stromal cells to a less efficient metabolism (extrusion of energy-rich metabolites and mitochondrial-independent energy production), and cancer cells to exploit stromal cells to fulfill their survival and growth in ischemic environment. This interplay presumes that cancer cells rely extensively on mitochondrial functions.

The paper from Lisanti’s group8 perfectly fits with this scenario in a breast cancer model, as it points out that the effects of inhibition of mitochondrial function are different between cancer and stromal cells, thereby giving an explanation to the antiproliferative effects of metformin. The latter is a widely used oral anti-diabetic drug, endowed with promising effects for cancer prevention and treatment.9 Metformin is reported to inhibit mitochondrial...
complex I activity, thereby disrupting oxidative mitochondrial metabolism, mandatory for cancer reverse Warburg metabolism and granting survival and growth. Sanchez-Alvarez and colleagues, although not directly using metformin, reported that uncoupling protein-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction actually has compartment-specific effects. Indeed, mitochondrial dysfunction in stromal CAFs enhances their metabolic reprogramming to production of energy-rich metabolites, increasing tumor growth. On the contrary, disruption of mitochondrial function through UCP overexpression in cancer cells leads to the opposite effect, restraining tumor growth.

The outcome of these data are that, in vivo, mitochondrial functional disruption may have positive or negative effects on cancer progression, depending on the effective addiction of different cancers from their stromal counterparts. A later, with respect to the epidemiologic data on diabetic patients treated with metformin, showing a reduced risk of cancer onset, the final answer to the question on in vivo effects of mitochondrial drugs for cancer progression will arise from the several ongoing clinical trials assessing the effect of adding metformin to the existing chemotherapy regimen in the treatment of cancers (Fig. 1).

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From photomorphogenesis to cancer: A CSN journey
Comment on: Chen B, et al. Cell Cycle 2012; 11:4633–41;
PMID:23187808; http://dx.doi.org/10.4161/cc.22887
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The COP9 signalosome (CSN) is an eight-subunit protein (CSN1-CSN8) complex critical for protein degradation in all eukaryotes.1 Discov
For instance, because a majority of human tumors carry inactivated p53, it will be of great interest if inactivation of any COP9 subunit is found to be effective in tumors in a p53-independent manner. In addition, there is a need to examine the effect of COP9 inactivation on normal cells, especially since gene targeting of COP9 subunits in mice (Csn2, Csn3, Csn5, Csn6 and Csn8) results in embryonic lethality.3

Overall, this study by Lee and colleagues not only opens up the attractive possibility for targeting Csn6 for cancer therapy, it also highlights the important and complex functions of the Csn, which has come a long way from its originally described repressor function of photomorphogenesis in Arabidopsis to becoming an increasingly important player in human cancer.

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