Overexpression of the c-Myc oncoprotein blocks the growthinhibitory response but is required for the mitogenic effects of transforming growth factor β 1

MARK G. ALEXANDROW, MASAHIRO KAWABATA, MARY AAKRE, AND HAROLD L. MosEs*

Department of Cell Biology and The Vanderbilt Cancer Center, Vanderbilt University School of Medicine, Nashville, TN 37232

Communicated by Earl P. Benditt, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, December 30, 1994

ABSTRACT One of the more intriguing aspects of transforming growth factor β 1 (TGF β 1) is its ability to function as both a mitogenic factor for certain mesenchymal cells and a potent growth inhibitor of lymphoid, endothelial, and epithelial cells. Data are presented indicating that c-myc may play a pivotal role in both the mitogenic and antiproliferative actions of TGF β 1. In agreement with previous studies using $CH/10T$ ¹/₂ fibroblasts constitutively expressing an exogenous c-myc cDNA, we show that AKR-2B fibroblasts expressing a chimeric estrogen-inducible form of c-myc (mycER) are able to form colonies in soft agar in the presence of $TGF \beta1$ only when c-myc is activated by hormone. Whereas these findings support a synergistic role for c-myc in mitogenic responses to TGF β 1, we also find that c-myc can antagonize the growth-inhibitory response to $TGF \beta1$. Mouse keratinocytes (BALB/MK), which are normally growth-arrested by $TGF\beta1$, are rendered insensitive to the growth-inhibitory effects of. TGF β 1 upon mycER activation. This ability of $mycER$ activation to block TGF β 1-induced growth arrest was found to occur only when the fusion protein was induced with hormone in the early part of G_1 . Addition of estradiol late in G_1 had no suppressive effect on TGF β 1-induced growth inhibition.

Transforming growth factor β 1 (TGF β 1), a multifunctional regulator of cell growth, differentiation, and morphogenesis, acts by interacting with a specific set of cell surface receptors, presumably followed by a series of molecular events leading to various effects on cells (1, 2). TGF β 1 has been shown to be stimulatory to the growth of certain mesenchymal cells in culture (3), while it is a potent inhibitor of growth of cells of lymphoid, endothelial, and epithelial origins both in vitro and in vivo $(2, 4)$. Although the intracellular mechanisms leading to these pleiotropic effects of TGF β 1 remain poorly understood, evidence has suggested that the product of the c-myc protooncogene may function in both the mitogenic and antiproliferative effects of TGF β 1 (5-8).

 $TGF\beta1$ treatment of a mouse keratinocyte cell line (BALB/ MK) results in the rapid downregulation of c-myc mRNA at the level of transcriptional initiation with a subsequent decrease of c-myc-encoded protein levels (7, 8). In a manner similar to that of TGF β 1, suppression of c-myc expression using antisense oligonucleotides has been shown to inhibit BALB/MK cells from entering S phase (7, 8). These observations taken together have led to the hypothesis that one mechanism by which $TGF\beta1$ may act to inhibit BALB/MK cell growth is through suppression of c-*myc* expression.

Recent studies have implicated c-myc as a potential upstream positive regulator of cyclins A and E (9). The ability of these two cyclins to associate with and regulate the activity of cdk-2 (reviewed in ref. 10) is particularly interesting since this

kinase has been implicated as a target of TGF β 1 growthinhibitory signals in late $G_1(11)$. A possible link between c-myc and late G_1 -phase targets of TGF β 1 growth-inhibitory signals led us to further investigate the importance of c-myc regulation by TGF β 1. To study c-myc effects, we have taken advantage of the system that utilizes the estrogen-inducible chimeric c-mycencoded protein consisting of the coding region of human c-myc fused to the hormone-binding domain of the human estrogen receptor (mycER) (12). In support of a role for c-myc in growth suppression by TGF β 1, we find that mycER activation in BALB/MK keratinocytes is able to suppress the growth-inhibitory effect of TGF β 1. However, we also find that exogenous c-myc expression is required to allow TGF β 1 to induce anchorage-independent growth of AKR-2B fibroblasts in soft agar. This latter finding is in agreement with previous studies which showed that C3H/10T¹/2 fibroblasts transfected with a c-myc cDNA are capable of anchorage-independent growth in soft agar when cultured in the presence of $TGF\beta1$ (6). The results indicate that c -myc plays an important role in both the inhibitory and stimulatory responses to $TGF \beta1$.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell Culture. Noninfected BALB/MK cells were maintained in low calcium medium supplemented with 8% dialyzed fetal calf serum (JRH Biosciences) in 7% CO₂/93% air. The retroviral packaging cell lines ψ -2 and PA317 were grown in 5% CO2 in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) containing 10% newborn calf serum or fetal calf serum, respectively. Retroviral packaging cell lines producing infectious virus were maintained in phenol red-free DMEM containing the appropriate serum, which had been treated with charcoal to remove the estradiol (13). Retrovirally infected $BALB/MK$ (MKmycER or MK- Δ mycER) cells were grown in 5% CO2 in low calcium phenol red-free medium ¹⁵⁴ (Cascade Biologics, Portland, OR) containing charcoal-treated, dialyzed fetal calf serum.

Transfections, Retroviral Infections, and Selection Procedure. The calcium phosphate coprecipitation method was used to transfect PA317 cells with 20 μ g of plasmid pMV-7mycER (12) and ψ -2 cells with 20 μ g of plasmid pMV-7 Δ mycER (12). Medium containing recombinant mycER retrovirus produced by the PA317 cell line was transferred to ψ -2 cells and incubated at 37°C overnight in the presence of Polybrene (8 μ g/ml). After infection with the mycER retrovirus or transfection with pMV-7 Δ mycER, retrovirus-producing ψ -2 cells were selected for 10 days in phenol red-free medium containing G418 (400 μ g/ml) (Geneticin, GIBCO). Medium from the ψ -2 cells containing ecotropic retroviruses was transferred to BALB/MK cells and incubated at 37°C in the presence of Polybrene (6 μ g/ml) for 12 hr, after which time the infected BALB/MK cells were placed into phenol red-free medium

The publication costs of this article were defrayed in part by page charge payment. This article must therefore be hereby marked "advertisement" in accordance with 18 U.S.C. §1734 solely to indicate this fact.

Abbreviations: TGF β 1, transforming growth factor β 1; EGF, epidermal growth factor.

^{*}To whom reprint requests should be addressed.

154. Twenty-four hours later G418 was added to the BALB/ MK culture medium at a final concentration of 100 μ g/ml and G418-resistant cells were selected for 10 days. G418-resistant colonies were pooled and, after 2 months of culture, MKmyc-ER cells were discarded and replaced with liquid nitrogen stocks of MKmycER cells obtained from the initial selection procedure.

Soft Agar Assays. Retrovirally infected or noninfected AKR-2B cells were plated at 7500 cells per plate in soft agar made of DMEM minus phenol red containing 10% charcoalstripped fetal calf serum. Soft agar plates contained $TGF\beta1$ (R & D Systems) at the concentrations indicated and were untreated or treated with 2 μ M estradiol throughout the experiment. Ten to 14 days after plating, colonies $>750 \mu m$ were counted by an Omnicon colony counter (Bausch & Lomb).

Immunoprecipitations. Logarithmically growing MK and MKmycER cells $(4 \times 10^6$ cells) were washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS; pH 7.4) and starved of methionine for ³⁰ min in methionine-free DMEM (warmed to 37°C) and labeled with 250 μ Ci of [³⁵S]methionine per ml (1 $Ci = 37 GBq$ in fresh methionine-free DMEM for 10 min prior to lysis. Cells were washed twice with PBS and lysed in antibody lysis buffer [50 mM Tris HCl, pH 8.0/50 mM NaCl/ 0.5% Triton X-100/0.5% deoxycholate/0.5% SDS/50 mM NaF/100 μ M NaVO₄/75 μ g of phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride (PMSF) per ml/0.1 TIU (trypsin inhibitor units) of aprotinin per ml/1 μ g of leupeptin per ml/8 mM iodoacetamide]. Anti-c-Myc polyclonal antibody 50-4 (gift of S. Hann, Vanderbilt University) was incubated on ice for 3 hr in the presence or absence of an approximately equal molar ratio of the immunogenic bacterially produced c-Myc protein (gift of S. Hann) as a block to show specificity of the antisera. The cell lysates were divided in half and, after the blocking step, each antibody preparation was added to the cell lysates and rocked overnight at 4°C. After immunoprecipitation with staphylococcal enterotoxin A, pellets were washed four times with RIPA buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0/150 mM NaCl/1% Triton X-100/0.5% deoxycholate/0.1% SDS/50 mM NaF/100 μ M NaVO₄/75 μ g of PMSF per ml/0.1 TIU of aprotinin per ml/1 μ g of leupeptin per ml/8 mM iodoacetamide) and separated by SDS/10% PAGE. Gels were enhanced, dried, and exposed to x-ray film for 5 days.

Cell Synchronization and Nuclear Labeling. MK, MKmycER, and MK- Δ mycER cells were grown to \approx 70% confluency in 24-well plates in the presence of epidermal growth factor (EGF; ⁴ ng/ml) at which time the EGF was removed for ³ days to arrest cells at the G_0/G_1 boundary. Cells were then restimulated to enter the cell cycle by addition of EGF to the culture medium and parallel wells were treated with TGF β 1 (10 ng/ml), estradiol (2 μ M), 4-hydroxytamoxifen (2 μ M; gift of M. Seyfred, Vanderbilt University), $TGF\beta1$ and estradiol, or $TGF\beta1$ and 4-hydroxytamoxifen at the times indicated. At the time of restimulation with EGF, [³H]thymidine (5 μ Ci/ml) was added to the wells and cells were cultured in the above conditions for 18 hr, after which time they were fixed with trichloroacetic acid and exposed to emulsion, and the percentage of nuclear labeling was determined. In each case, at least 1000 nuclei were counted in triplicate and averaged to generate the columns in the figures.

Kinetic Analyses. Cells were synchronized as described above and were either untreated or treated with TGF β 1, estradiol, or $TGF\beta1$ and estradiol as described. At the times indicated, wells were pulsed with [3H]thymidine (5 μ Ci/ml) for ¹ hr and subsequently fixed with ascorbic acid followed by scintillation analysis of trichloroacetic acid-precipitable material.

RESULTS

c-myc Is Required for the Mitogenic Effects of TGF β 1. A role for c-myc in the mitogenic activities of TGF β 1 derives from previous studies showing that overexpression of c-myc from ^a transfected cDNA can allow C3H/10T/2 fibroblasts to form colonies in soft agar in the presence of TGF β 1 (6). In agreement with these findings, we found that AKR-2B fibroblasts infected with a recombinant retrovirus constitutively expressing an estrogen-inducible form of the c-Myc protein, mycER (12), were also able to form colonies in soft agar in the presence of TGF β 1 in a hormone-dependent manner (Fig. 1A). AKR-2B cells expressing mycER that were plated in soft agar in the presence of estradiol and in the absence of $TGF \beta1$ did not form any colonies (data not shown), and uninfected AKR-2B cells did not form any visible colonies in soft agar with or without estrogen and/or TGF β 1 (Fig. 1B). These results show that neither c-myc nor $TGF\beta1$ alone is sufficient to elicit a mitogenic response on these cells, but the synergistic effect of both suggests that c-myc overexpression may enhance the mitogenic effects of $TGF\beta1$ or provide a cellular signaling pathway that $TGF\beta1$ cannot activate. In addition, because we were able to reproduce effects seen in a system that utilized a nonchimeric c-myc construct (6), our data indicate that the mycER fusion protein can be used as a reliable tool for studying the effects of inducible c-myc overexpression in cultured cells.

mycER Induction Blocks TGFβ1 Inhibition. To circumvent the potential problems of toxicity and/or apoptosis produced by overexpressing an oncogene such as c-myc (14, 15), we infected BALB/MK cells with the recombinant retrovirus that expresses the estrogen-inducible mycER protein. Immunoprecipitation analysis verified that expression of the mycER protein was achieved (Fig. 2, compare lanes ¹ and 3). The mycER fusion protein ran consistently at the predicted size of 105 kDa and could be immunoprecipitated with anti-c-Myc antibodies (Fig. 2) and anti-ER antibodies (data not shown). G418-resistant MKmycER cells were pooled and tested for their sensitivity to TGF β 1. After synchronization at the G_0/G_1 boundary by EGF deprivation, MKmycER cells were stimulated to enter G_1 by the addition of EGF to the cultures followed by the addition of TGF β 1, estrogen, a combination of $TGF\beta1$ and estrogen, or EGF alone as a control. At the time of EGF addition, [³H]thymidine was added to the medium and cells were cultured for 18 hr in the conditions described above, after which time the cells were fixed and the percentage of nuclear labeling was determined for each condition (Fig. 3A).

FIG. 1. Activation of mycER in AKR-2BmycER cells allows $TGF\beta1$ -induced growth of colonies in soft agar. Retrovirally infected (A) or noninfected (B) AKR-2B cells were plated at 7500 cells per ml in soft agar in the presence of increasing concentrations of TGF β 1 as indicated above. Plates were also treated with estradiol (O) or untreated (\Box) as described. Ten to 14 days after plating, the number of colonies $>750 \mu m$ was determined. Shown are the means of colony counts done in triplicate \pm 1 SD. Data are representative of two independent experiments.

FIG. 2. Expression of the mycER fusion protein in mouse keratinocytes. Proliferating MKmycER cells (lanes ¹ and 2) and MK cells (lanes 3 and 4) labeled with [35S]methionine as described. Cell lysates were divided in half and incubated overnight with rabbit polyclonal anti-c-Myc antibody. Before the antiserum was added to the samples, it was incubated in the presence (lanes 2 and 4) or absence (lanes ¹ and 3) of bacterially produced c-Myc protein as a block to show antibody specificity. Immunoprecipitates were separated by SDS/PAGE and the gel was enhanced, dried, and exposed to film. Numbers on the right indicate protein size standards (kDa) (GIBCO).

Cells that were unstimulated with EGF showed essentially no labeling of their nuclei (data not shown), indicating that they were unable to enter the cell cycle. TGF β 1 treatment of MKmycER cells in the absence of estrogen resulted in >70% inhibition of nuclear labeling, while estrogen treatment alone, which activates mycER, did not significantly affect the amount of nuclear labeling as compared to that of the control cells (EGF alone). However, in the presence of estrogen added early in G_1 the ability of TGF β 1 to inhibit nuclear labeling was diminished. Unexpectedly, estrogen addition late in G_1 showed no affect on the ability of $TGF\beta1$ added either early or late in G_1 to inhibit the entry of MKmycER cells into S phase (Fig. 3B). Control MK cells lacking mycER did not respond to treatment with estrogen or 0.1% ethanol (final concentration of estrogen solvent), nor did estrogen affect the ability of $TGF\beta1$ to inhibit the uninfected MK cells from entering S phase (data not shown).

FIG. 3. Estrogen-dependent loss of TGF β 1 sensitivity in MKmyc-ER cells. MKmycER cells were arrested for ³ days in medium lacking EGF as described. The medium was changed and EGF was added to restimulate the cells to enter the cell cycle. (A) At the time of EGF restimulation, TGF β 1, estradiol, or TGF β 1 and estradiol were added to the cultures. Cells were cultured for 18 hr in the above conditions in the presence of [3H]thymidine, after which time they were fixed in ascorbic acid and exposed to emulsion, and the percentage of nuclear labeling was determined. Columns: 1, EGF; 2, EGF + $TGFB1: 3$, EGF $+$ estradiol; 4, EGF + estradiol + TGF β 1. (B) Cells were arrested and restimulated with EGF in the presence of $[3H]$ thymidine as above. Ten hours after EGF addition, estrogen, TGF β 1, or estrogen and TGF β 1 were added to the culture medium. Cells were cultured for 8 hr more, after which time the cells were fixed and nuclear labeling was determined as described. Columns: 5, EGF; 6, EGF + TGF β 1; 7, EGF $+$ estrogen; 8, EGF + estrogen + TGF β 1. Each column represents the mean of three independent counts of at least 1000 nuclei \pm 1 SD.

FIG. 4. Evidence that the ER domain of mycER does not contribute to the effects of the fusion protein in MK cells. (A) MKmycER cells were synchronized as described. EGF-restimulated cells were treated with TGF β 1 (column 2) or 4-hydroxytamoxifen (column 4) or estradiol (column 3) in the presence of TGF β 1 or with EGF alone (column 1). [3H]Thymidine was added at the time of EGF restimulation, and, after 18 hr of culture under the above conditions, cells were subjected to autoradiography and percentage of nuclear labeling was determined. Columns show averages of three independent counts of at least 1000 nuclei \pm 1 SD. (B) MK Δ mycER cells were cultured, synchronized, and treated with $TGF\beta1$ and estradiol at the time of EGF addition as described. Cell cultures were pulsed for ¹ hr with [3H]thymidine at the times indicated, after which time the cells were fixed and trichloroacetic acid-precipitable material was analyzed by scintillation counting. Means of triplicate cultures \pm 1 SD are shown. \circ , EGF control; \bullet , TGF β 1; \triangle , estradiol; \blacktriangle , TGF β 1 + estradiol.

As a control for contributions of the estrogen-binding domain (ER) to the above observations, the estrogen antagonist 4-hydroxytamoxifen was used in place of estrogen. 4-Hydroxytamoxifen had an effect on TGFB1-induced inhibition of MKmycER growth similar to that observed with estrogen treatment (Fig. $4A$). Based on studies of both chimeric and native estrogen receptor proteins (16-18), these results indicate that the suppressive effects of mycER activation on $TGF\beta1$ -induced growth arrest are due to functions arising from the Myc domain and that the ER domain does not contribute to these effects. In further support of this, kinetic data and nuclear labeling experiments (data not shown) showed that MK cells expressing Δ mycER (12, 14) were not responsive to estrogen treatment and remained sensitive to TGF β 1 (Fig. 4B). The Δ mycER protein has a deletion of amino acids 106-143 in the putative transactivating domain of c-Myc, rendering it inactive in a variety of c-Myc-related activities (14, 19-21). Since this mutant of c-Myc is unable to block TGF β 1induced inhibition, we hypothesize that the transactivation function of c-Myc contributes to the mechanism by which c-Myc blocks the antiproliferative actions of TGF β 1.

Effects of mycER Activation on Cell Cycle Kinetics. Studies using Ratla cells expressing the mycER protein have shown that activation of the fusion protein is sufficient to allow these cells to form soft agar colonies or to allow monolayer cultures to enter the cell cycle under low serum conditions (9, 12, 22). In contrast to these observations, we found that mycER activation alone was not sufficient to allow the AKR-2B fibroblast cell line to form colonies in soft agar (Fig. 1). In addition, we found that mycER activation was not able to stimulate EGF-deprived BALB/MK cells to enter ^S phase (Fig. 54). From these results, it is evident that induction of mycER is not sufficient for all cell types to escape from a G_0 arrest or elicit ^a transformed phenotype. BALB/MK cells, unlike Ratla cells, require more than c-myc overexpression alone to proceed through G_1 into S phase. In addition, mycER induction did not shorten the duration of G_1 phase in MKmycER cells (Fig. SB), an effect previously observed with

FIG. 5. Effects of mycER induction on EGF deprivation and length of G1 in BALB/MK cells. MKmycER cells were synchronized and subjected to kinetic analyses as described in the legend to Fig. 4B. (A) MKmycER cells were restimulated with medium containing EGF $\ddot{\bullet}$ or given medium without EGF in the presence (\bigcirc) or absence (\bigcirc) of estradiol. (B) MKmycER cells were restimulated with EGF in the presence (A) or absence (\triangle) of estradiol. Points on the curves are means of scintillation counts of triplicate wells \pm 1 SD. Data shown are representative of at least three experiments, each done in triplicate.

overexpression of c-myc (23) and certain G_1 cyclins in other cell types (24-26).

DISCUSSION

At least three reports have claimed that c-myc overexpression is unable to block the growth-inhibitory effects of $TGF\beta1$ (27-29). In all three of these studies, however, overexpression of c-myc-encoded protein was not shown and only two presented data showing that exogenous c-myc mRNA was being produced (27, 28). The clonal selection procedures used these investigators may have actually selected for populations of cells that were deficient in overexpression of c-myc-encoded protein or had acquired unwanted genetic alterations that circumvented the effects of c-myc overexpression. Such a hypothesis is supported by data indicating that under certain circumstances cells overexpressing c-myc will go through apoptotic cell death unless they acquire other genetic alterations, such as bcl-2 overexpression, that allow them to survive in culture (14, 15, 30, 31). Our experimental approach differed from those described above in that we used a form of c-myc that was expressed constitutively in our cells in a suppressed state. This unique feature of the mycER fusion protein prevented potential cytotoxicity of functional c-myc during the selection procedures and subsequent culturing, while it allowed temporal induction of c-myc function at the posttranslational, rather than the transcriptional, level when desired.

Coincident with a G_1 growth arrest, TGF β 1 treatment of certain cell types has been shown to rapidly decrease the levels of c-myc RNA and protein (7, 8). Because c-myc is required for progression of cells through G_1 (7, 8, 32), it has been suggested that the c-myc gene product may be an important target of the antiproliferative signals induced by TGF β 1 (7, 8). In further support of this hypothesis, the experiments described in this report indicate that induction of c-Myc protein, at least in the early part of G_1 , in BALB/MK cells can prevent TGF β 1 from inducing a state of growth arrest. Unexpectedly, induction of c-myc in late G_1 does not suppress the ability of TGF β 1 to inhibit the keratinocytes. Since we have not yet determined the mechanism by which c-myc acts to block TGF β 1 at certain times in G_1 and not at other times; we can only speculate as to why there is a temporal dependency on the ability of c-myc to affect the antiproliferative actions of $TGF \beta1$.

Considering the recent evidence suggesting the possible involvement of downregulation or inactivation of cyclins A and E (33), cdk-2 (11), and cdk-4 (34) in the TGF β 1 signaling

pathway, one possibility is that these cyclins and kinases could be downstream targets of c-*myc*. In support of this hypothesis are data showing that c-myc may upregulate the expression of cyclins A and E (9). These findings would suggest that mycER activation early in G_1 may be blocking TGF β 1-induced growth inhibition by increasing the activity of $TGF\beta1$ -sensitive cdks that are active in the latter half of G_1 . In a similar manner, c-myc could affect the activities of the cdks by directly or indirectly downregulating the levels or activities of negative regulators of the cdks such as p21 (35-37), p16 (38), or Kip-1 (39).

Kinetic experiments have suggested that cells must pass through a restriction point in late G_1 , at which time a labile protein, called the R factor, has accumulated above ^a threshold necessary for progression of the cells into S phase (40-43). Cyclins A and E have been shown to satisfy the criteria for the R protein and have led to the hypothesis that cyclin production and inactivation may form the molecular basis of the R factor (41). It appears from preliminary experiments that a block to $TGF\beta1$ -induced growth arrest can be exerted by c-myc induction as late as 9 hr into G_1 (M.G.A. and H.L.M., unpublished data), which correlates approximately with the putative restriction point (42). This result makes it interesting to speculate that induction of c-myc prior to the R point may upregulate the expression or associated activity of cyclins A and E and create an environment in the cell that is unable to be negatively regulated by TGF β 1. Thus, the window of time during which c-myc can elicit an effect on these cell cycle-regulated proteins may be limited to the part of G_1 when these proteins normally must accumulate above a necessary threshold for cell cycle progression. After the cells have passed the restriction point, c-myc may no longer have the ability to regulate the expression or activity of the cyclins and associated kinases. Alternatively, if c-myc retains the ability to regulate these factors after the restriction point, then perhaps $TGF\beta1$ may be causing irreversible changes to the cell that cannot be overcome simply by induction of c-myc.

Although the actual function of c-myc remains elusive, it is believed that c-myc function is required in the early half of G_1 because levels of c-myc RNA and protein peak at this point in the cell cycle (44, 45). However, there is evidence which suggests that c-myc may also function in the latter half of G_1 and perhaps during S phase (7, 46, 47). Although controversial, it has been reported that the c-Myc protein has been detected in several cell types in high molecular weight complexes containing DNA polymerase α and several other enzymes necessary for DNA replication (47). These data might suggest a functional role for the c-Myc protein in late- G_1 complexing prior to the onset of S phase as well as during the replicative phase itself. In addition, other studies have found that in Xenopus laevis oocytes c-myc exists as a massive maternal store of stabilized, cytoplasmic protein which is triggered by fertilization to rapidly migrate into the nuclei of the cleaving embryo (46). The authors suggested from these observations that the maternal store of c-myc may be involved in controlling the rate of DNA replication during early development of \overline{X} . laevis. What is more interesting about this phenomenon is that there is no significant transcription during these early cleavages until the midblastula transition (48, 49). In this respect, the Xenopus studies also suggested that c-myc could potentially have a nontranscriptional function in the cell cycle. Whether this nontranscriptional function is required in the latter part of G_1 or in S phase remains to be determined.

If c-myc were to have a late G_1 function that is targeted by $TGF\beta1$ -induced negative signals, then one would predict that induction of mycER late in G_1 should supply the cell with enough c-Myc protein to counter the effects of TGF β 1. To reconcile this prediction with the observation that c-myc induction late in G_1 does not block TGF β 1, we propose that a period of G_1 may exist during which c-myc must be present or must accumulate to allow for proper timing of its interactions with proteins required for progression into S phase. In this respect, c-myc could be ^a candidate for the R factor. The labile nature of $c\text{-}myc$ (50) and evidence that $c\text{-}myc$ is constitutively expressed in two chemically transformed cell types (51), features that were originally proposed to be characteristic of the putative R factor $(40, 42, 43)$, also support such a hypothesis. The presence of excess exogenous c-myc up to the restriction point may prevent $TGF\beta1$ from blocking cell cycle progression by increasing the abundance of active replication complexes. However, after the restriction point, $TGF\beta1$ may irreversibly block complexing involving endogenous or exogenous c-myc and induction of c-myc would no longer have an effect on the ability of $TGF\beta1$ to induce growth arrest.

In certain cell types, $TGF\beta1$ has the potential to stimulate growth given that the environment of the cell is appropriate for such an event (6) . It appears that c-myc creates an environment in AKR-2B and C3H/10T¹/2 cells (6) that allows TGF β 1 to be mitogenic, perhaps by providing a signal that is absent, but nonetheless required, for anchorage-independent proliferation of the cells. Recently it has been shown that overexpression of cyclin A in NRK and NIH 3T3 fibroblast cell lines can cause proliferation in the absence of cell adhesion (52). Because c-myc has been implicated in controlling the expression of cyclin A (9), it is possible that c-myc induction in the AKR-2B cells could result in cyclin A expression that, combined with stimulation by TGF β 1, allows these fibroblasts to form colonies in soft agar. Although the mechanisms through which c-myc affects TGF_{B1} function remain unknown, the data presented in this report provide compelling evidence that the product of the c-myc protooncogene plays a mechanistic role in both the stimulatory and antiproliferative actions of $TGF \beta 1.$

We thank M. Bishop (University of California, San Francisco) for providing the pMV-7mycER and pMV-7AmycER constructs, S. Brandt for help with the retrovirus culturing and for providing the PA317 and ψ -2 packaging lines, M. Seyfred for providing 4-hydroxytamoxifen, S. Hann and B. Lutterbach for providing anti-c-Myc antisera and bacterially produced c-Myc protein, and S. Hann and J. Holt for critical review of the manuscript and helpful suggestions. This work was supported by National Cancer Institute Grants CA42572 and CA48799. M.G.A. was supported in part by National Institutes of Health Training Grant DK07563.

- 1. Massague, J., Cheifetz, S., Boyd, F. T. & Andres, J. L. (1990) Ann. N.Y. Acad. Sci. 593, 59-72.
- 2. Moses, H. L., Yang, E. Y. & Pietenpol, J. A. (1990) Cell 63, 245-247.
- 3. Shipley, G. D., Tucker, R. F. & Moses, H. L. (1985) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82, 4147-4151.
- Tucker, R. F., Shipley, G. D., Moses, H. L. & Holley, R. W. (1984) Science 226, 705-707.
- 5. Coffey, R. J., Jr., Bascom, C. C., Sipes, N. J., Graves-Deal, R., Weissman, B. E. & Moses, H. L. (1988) Mol. Cell. Biol. 8, 3088-3093.
- 6. Leof, E. B., Proper, J. A. & Moses, H. L. (1987) Mol. Cell. Biol. 7, 2649-2652.
- 7. Munger, K., Pietenpol, J. A., Pittelkow, M. R., Holt, J. T. & Moses, H. L. (1992) Cell Growth Differ. 3, 291-298.
- 8. Pietenpol, J. A., Holt, J. T., Stein, R. W. & Moses, H. L. (1990) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 87, 3758-3762.
- 9. Jansen-Durr, P., Meichle, A., Steiner, P., Pagano, M., Finke, K., Botz, J., Wessbecher, J., Draetta, G. & Eilers, M. (1993) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90, 3685-3689.
- 10. Sherr, C. J. (1993) Cell 73, 1059-1065.
- 11. Koff, A., Ohtsuki, M., Polyak, K., Roberts, J. M. & Massague, J. (1993) Science 260, 536-539.
- 12. Eilers, M., Picard, D., Yamamoto, K. R. & Bishop, J. M. (1989) Nature (London) 340, 66-68.
- 13. Kumar, V., Green, S., Staub, A. & Chambon, P. (1986) EMBO J. 5, 2231-2236.
- 14. Evan, G. I., Wyllie, A. H., Gilbert, C. S., Littlewood, T. D., Land, H., Brooks, M., Waters, C. M., Penn, L. Z. & Hancock, D. C. (1992) Cell 69, 119-128.
- 15. Shi, Y., Glynn, J. M., Guilbert, L. J., Cotter, T. G., Bissonnette, R. P. & Green, D. R. (1992) Science 257, 212-214.
- 16. Berry, M., Metzger, D. & Chambon, P. (1990) EMBO J. 9, 2811-2818.
- 17. Burk, O. & Klempnauer, K.-H. (1991) *EMBO J.* 10, 3713-3719.
18. Picard, D. Salser, S. & Yamamoto, K. R. (1988) *Cell* 54, 1073-Picard, D., Salser, S. & Yamamoto, K. R. (1988) Cell 54, 1073-
- 1080.
- 19. Amin, C., Wagner, A. J. & Hay, N. (1993) Mol. Cell. Biol. 13, 383-390.
- 20. Penn, L. J. Z., Brooks, M. W., Laufer, E. M., Littlewood, T. D., Morgenstern, J. P., Evan, G. I., Lee, W. M. F. & Land, H. (1990) Mol. Cell. Biol. 30, 4961-4966.
- 21. Stone, J., deLange, T., Ramsay, G., Jakobovits, E., Bishop, J. M., Varmus, H. E. & Lee, W. (1987) Mol. Cell. Biol. 7, 1697-1709.
- 22. Eilers, M., Schirm, S. & Bishop, J. M. (1991) EMBO J. 10, 133-141.
- 23. Karn, J., Watson, J. V., Lowe, A. D., Green, S. M. & Vedeckis, W. (1989) Oncogene 4, 773-787.
- 24. Ando, K, Ajchenbaum-Cymbalista, F. & Griffin, J. D. (1993) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90, 9571-9575.
- 25. Ohtsubo, M. & Roberts, J. M. (1993) Science 259, 1908-1912.
26. Quelle, D. E., Ashmun, R. A., Shurtleff, S. A., Kato, J., Bar-Sag.
- 26. Quelle, D. E., Ashmun, R. A., Shurtleff, S. A., Kato, J., Bar-Sagi, D., Roussel, M. F. & Sherr, C. J. (1993) Genes Dev. 7, 1559-1571.
- 27. Longstreet, M., Miller, B. & Howe, P. H. (1992) Oncogene 7, 1549-1556.
- 28. Reiss, M., Dibble, C. L. & Narayanan, R. (1989) J. Invest. Dermatol. 93, 136-141.
- 29. Sarubbi, D. J., Narayanan, R., Telang, N. T. & Newman, M. J. (1990) In Vitro Cell Dev. Biol. 26, 1195-1201.
- 30. Bissonnette, R. P., Echeverri, F., Mahboubi, A. & Green, D. R. (1992) Nature (London) 359, 552-554.
- 31. Fanidi, A., Harrington, E. A. & Evan, G. I. (1992) Nature (London) 359, 554-556.
- 32. Gai, X., Rizzo, M., Valpreda, S. & Baserga, R. (1990) Oncogene Res. 5, 111-120.
- 33. Geng, Y. & Weinberg, R. A. (1993) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 90,10315-10319.
- 34. Ewen, M. E., Sluss, H. K., Whitehouse, L. L. & Livingston, D. M. (1993) Cell 74, 1009-1020.
- 35. 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. & Vogelstein, B. (1993) Cell 75, 817-825.
- 36. Harper, J. W., Adami, G. R., Wei, N., Keyomarsi, K. & Elledge, S. J. (1993) Cell 75, 805-816.
- 37. Xiong, Y., Hannon, G. J., Zhang, H., Casso, D., Kobayashi, R. & Beach, D. (1993) Nature (London) 366, 701-704.
- 38. Serrano, M., Hannon, G. J. & Beach, D. (1993) Nature (London) 366, 704-707.
- 39. Polyak, K, Kato, J., Solomon, M. J., Sherr, C. J., Massague, J., Roberts, J. M. & Koff, A. (1994) Genes Dev. 8, 9-22.
- 40. Campisi, J., Medrano, E. E., Morreo, G. & Pardee, A. B. (1982) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 436-440.
- 41. Dou, Q.-P., Levin, A. H., Zhao, S. & Pardee, A. B. (1993) Cancer Res. 53, 1493-1497.
- 42. Pardee, A. B. (1974) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 71, 1286-1290. 43. Rossow, P. W., Riddle, V. G. H. & Pardee, A. B. (1979) Proc.
- Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 76, 4446-4450. 44. Greenberg, M. E. & Ziff, E. B. (1984) Nature (London) 311,
- 433-438. 45. Kelly, K., Cochran, B. H., Stiles, C. D. & Leder, P. (1983) Cell 35,
- 603-610. 46. Gusse, M., Ghysdael, J., Evan, G., Soussi, T. & Mechali, M.
- (1989) Mol. Cell. Biol. 9, 5395-5403. 47. Studzinski, G. P., Shankavaram, U. T., Moore, D. C. & Reddy,
- P. V. (1991) J. Cell. Physiol. 147, 412-419.
- 48. Bachvarova, R., Davidson, E. H., Allfrey, V. G. & Mirsky, A. E. (1966) Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 55, 358-365.
- 49. Newport, J. & Kirschner, M. (1982) Cell 30, 675-686.
50. Hann, S. R. & Eisenman, R. N. (1984) Mol. Cell. Biol.
- 50. Hann, S. R. & Eisenman, R. N. (1984) Mol. Cell. Biol. 4, 2486- 2497. 51. Campisi, J., Gray, H. E., Pardee, A. B., Dean, M. & Sonenshein,
- G. E. (1984) Cell 36, 241-247.
- 52. Guadagno, T. M., Ohtsubo, M., Roberts, J. M. & Assoian, R. K. (1993) Science 262, 1572-1575.