

sion, could well account for the differences in skeletal phenotypes between isthmus and FGF8 bead grafts. Therefore, the variability in the duplications observed by Noden may also be explained by the variability of local FGF8 concentration present in grafted tissue. In contrast to the isthmus grafts, the duplicated first-arch structures observed in the *Hoxa2* mutants exhibit a mirror image polarity. This implies that other factors must be involved in patterning different axes of polarity in these duplications. The transposition of a signaling center might disrupt the mechanisms that influence polarity or axis patterning.

These experiments underscore the important role played by *Hoxa2* in branchial arch identity. Recently, functional inroads have been made into understanding the precise mechanisms by which *Hoxa2* influences the morphogenesis of second-arch elements (30). *Hoxa2* is widely expressed in the second-arch mesenchyme but is excluded from the chondrogenic domains and acts very early in the chondrogenic pathway upstream of *Sox9*, *Col2a1*, and *Cbaf11* to repress their expression. During normal development, both endochondral and dermal (intramembranous) ossification occurs in first-arch morphogenesis; however, endochondral ossification primarily occurs in second-arch morphogenesis. Therefore, one of the roles of *Hoxa2* in the second branchial arch may be the prevention of dermal bone formation. Overexpression studies of *Hoxa2* in chick and zebrafish embryos have now confirmed its role as a true selector gene (28, 29). Therefore, *Hoxa2* not only inhibits development of the lower jaw skeleton but is also primarily responsible for specifying second branchial arch fate.

The presence of the isthmus as a mechanistic basis for first-arch duplications also helps resolve two puzzling aspects of Noden's work (2). First, there was considerable variability in the frequency of duplications observed, presumably arising through variable inclusion of the isthmus and, consequently, the local concentration of FGF8. Second, it explains why both first-arch and frontonasal neural crest develop similar duplicated skeletal structures when transposed posteriorly, even though they are derived from different axial levels.

Therefore, rather than providing evidence for the pre patterning of neural crest cells, Noden's experiments (2) highlight the importance and effects of local signaling centers, such as the isthmus, in A-P patterning and regulation of *Hox* gene expression (26, 27). This study, together with recent evidence from mouse, chick, and zebrafish transplantation studies, argues as a general principle that cranial neural crest cells are not prespecified or irreversibly committed before their emigration from the neural tube (5, 11, 16–18). Rather, neural crest patterning is based

on plasticity and the ability of neural crest cells to respond to environmental influences in the branchial arches, and future attention will be focused on the nature of these signals.

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31. The authors are grateful to A. Issacs and C. Tickle for providing beads and FGF8 and to P. Cambrono, N. Itasaki, D. Ellies, T. Inoue, M. Bronner-Fraser, S. Fraser, and P. Tam for helpful discussions. Funded by Core Medical Research Council and Stowers Institute support for R.K. and P.A.T., and a Human Frontiers in Science Program research grant (RG0146/2000-B) with R.K. as principal coordinator.

18 July 2001; accepted 11 January 2002

MAPKK-Independent Activation of p38 α Mediated by TAB1-Dependent Autophosphorylation of p38 α

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Phosphorylation of mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs) on specific tyrosine and threonine sites by MAP kinase kinases (MAPKKs) is thought to be the sole activation mechanism. Here, we report an unexpected activation mechanism for p38 α MAPK that does not involve the prototypic kinase cascade. Rather it depends on interaction of p38 α with TAB1 [transforming growth factor- β -activated protein kinase 1 (TAK1)-binding protein 1] leading to autophosphorylation and activation of p38 α . We detected formation of a TRAF6-TAB1-p38 α complex and showed stimulus-specific TAB1-dependence and TAB1-independent p38 α activation. These findings suggest that alternative activation pathways contribute to the biological responses of p38 α to various stimuli.

Mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPK) have crucial roles in cellular responses to various extracellular signals (1). The prototypical module of MAP kinase activation is a

cascade of three kinases, consisting of MAP3K (MAP kinase kinase kinase), MAPKK, and MAPK (2). p38 α is a MAPK activated by MAPKKs MKK3 and MKK6 (2–7). Although the protein kinase cascade is unquestionably a mechanism controlling p38 α activation (2–7), we have identified an alternative p38 α activation mechanism that has not previously been addressed.

We used the yeast two-hybrid system with a library constructed from human gastrointestinal tract tissue to search for proteins that

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interact with p38 α . By screening 1.5×10^7 transformants, we isolated six clones encoding TAB1 (8). Recombinant p38 α also bound to glutathione *S*-transferase (GST) fusion TAB1 isolated with glutathione-agarose (Fig. 1A). When TAB1 and flag-tagged p38 α were expressed in HEK 293 cells, TAB1 was associated with flag-p38 α immunoprecipitated from cell lysates (Fig. 1B). TAB1 was not detected in the immunoprecipitates prepared from cells expressing other p38 isoforms or members of the JNK and ERK families of MAP kinases (8). Interaction between endogenous TAB1 and p38 α was detected in HEK 293 cells treated with tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF) by immunoprecipitation (Fig. 1C). Coexpression of TAB1 with p38 α increased phosphorylation of p38 α as detected by an antibody against phospho-p38 (Fig. 2A). The amount of p38 α phosphorylation mediated by TAB1 was comparable to that noted with coexpression of dominant active MKK6 [MKK6(E)]. p38 α activation was confirmed by kinase activity in immunoprecipitates obtained from the same cells. TAB1 also binds to TAK1 and activates its kinase activity (9, 10). However, it is unlikely that TAB1-mediated phosphorylation of p38 α is through a kinase cascade of TAK1 and MAPKKs such as MKK3 and MKK6. Expression of dominant negative MKK3 [MKK3(A)], MKK6 [MKK6(A)], MKK4 [MKK4(A)] (11), or TAK1 [TAK1(K63W)] failed to prevent TAB1-mediated p38 α activation (Fig. 2B).

SB203580, an inhibitor of p38 α but not of MKK3 or MKK6 (11, 12), prevents phosphorylation of p38 α in many experimental systems (13–16). This may occur if the intrinsic kinase activity of p38 α accounts for phosphorylation and activation of the kinase. Treatment of cells expressing TAB1 and flag-p38 α with SB203580 prevented TAB1-induced phosphorylation of p38 α (Fig. 2C). Thus, TAB1-mediated phosphorylation of p38 α appears to require the intrinsic kinase activity of p38 α . We further examined the effect of TAB1 on mutated forms of p38 α where the TGY dual phosphorylation site is changed to AGF [p38 α (AF)], the adenosine triphosphate (ATP)-binding site is modified [K⁵³ to M mutant, termed p38 α (M)], or where p38 α is inactivated by mutation in which D¹⁶⁸ is replaced by A [p38 α (DA)] (17, 18). p38 α (AF), p38 α (M) and p38 α (DA) were coprecipitated with TAB1 (11), indicating that kinase activity is not required for TAB1 binding. No phosphorylation of p38 α (AF), p38 α (M), or p38 α (DA) was detected when these proteins were expressed with TAB1 (Fig. 2C). However, p38 α (M) and p38 α (DA) were efficiently phosphorylated by coexpressed MKK6(E) (Fig. 2C). Thus, TAB1 binds to p38 α and causes autophosphorylation and consequent activation of the kinase.

Recombinant TAB1 and p38 α were expressed in Sf9 cells or bacteria then purified as

histidine-tagged (His) or GST fusion proteins. GST-p38 α (0.5 μ g) was incubated with various amounts of His-TAB1 in a kinase reaction buffer containing nonradioactive ATP. The extent of phosphorylation of p38 α , detected by Western blotting with an antibody against phospho-p38, was dependent on the amount of added TAB1 (Fig. 3A). The phosphorylation was time-dependent (8) and sensitive to SB203580

inhibition (Fig. 3B). TAB1 did not stimulate phosphorylation of catalytically inactive p38 α mutants in vitro (Fig. 3B). Incubation of p38 α with various amounts of GST-TAB1 increased its kinase activity toward myelin basic protein (MBP) and GST-ATF2(1-109) (Fig. 3C). In contrast, GST had no effect on p38 α activity. TAB1-mediated p38 α phosphorylation is most likely an intramolecular reaction, because

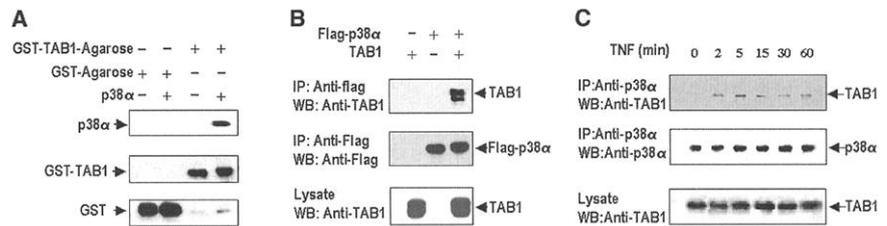


Fig. 1. Interaction of p38 α with TAB1. (A) Binding of p38 α to TAB1 in vitro. p38 α was incubated with GST-TAB1 or GST bound to glutathione-agarose beads (24). p38 α was detected in Western blotting with p38 α -specific antibody; GST-TAB1 and GST were detected with GST-specific antibody. (B) Binding of p38 α to TAB1 in cells. Flag-p38 α and TAB1 were expressed together in HEK 293 cells (8). Proteins immunoprecipitated with flag-specific antibody or cell lysates were subject to immunoblotting with antibodies against TAB1 or flag as indicated (8). (C) Association of endogenous p38 α and TAB1 in HEK 293 cells treated with TNF (100 ng/ml). p38 α was immunoprecipitated with p38 α -specific antibody, and the precipitates were subjected to immunoblotting with antibodies against TAB1 or p38 α .

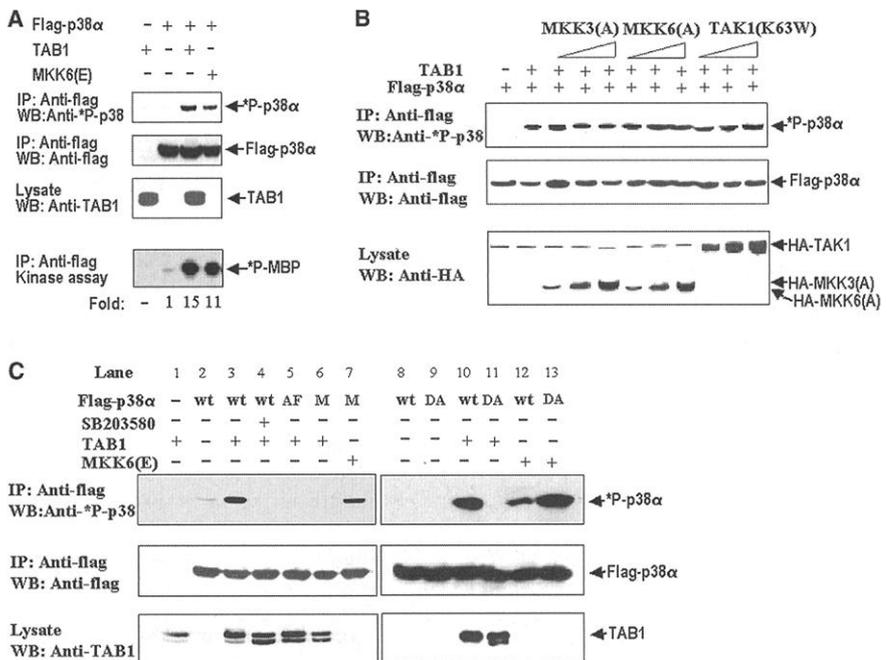


Fig. 2. TAB1-mediated autophosphorylation of p38 α . (A) Phosphorylation and activation of p38 α expressed with TAB1. Flag-p38 α was expressed with or without TAB1 or MKK6(E) in HEK 293 cells. Proteins immunoprecipitated with flag-specific antibody were subjected to immunoblotting with antibodies against phospho-p38 or flag. The cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting with TAB1-specific antibody. Immunoprecipitates with flag-specific antibody were subjected to kinase reaction using MBP (2 μ g) as substrate (24). Quantification of MBP phosphorylation was done with a scintillation counter. (B) Effect of dominant-negative MKK3 [MKK3(A)], MKK6 [MKK6(A)] or TAK1 [TAK1(K63W)] on p38 α phosphorylation. HEK 293 cells were transfected with expression vectors of flag-p38 α and TAB1 and increasing amounts of plasmid DNA of MKK3(A), MKK6(A), and TAK1(K63W) (0.1, 0.2, and 0.4 μ g). Immunoprecipitation and Western blotting were done as in (A). (C) Requirement of intrinsic p38 α activity for TAB1-mediated p38 α phosphorylation. Coexpression of flag-p38 α , flag-p38 α (AF), flag-p38 α (M), or flag-p38 α (DA) with TAB1 or MKK6(E) was done as in (A). SB203580 (5 μ M) was added into cell culture medium 4 hours after transfection in the sample indicated. Immunoprecipitation and Western blotting were done as in (A). Data shown are representative of two to three independent experiments.

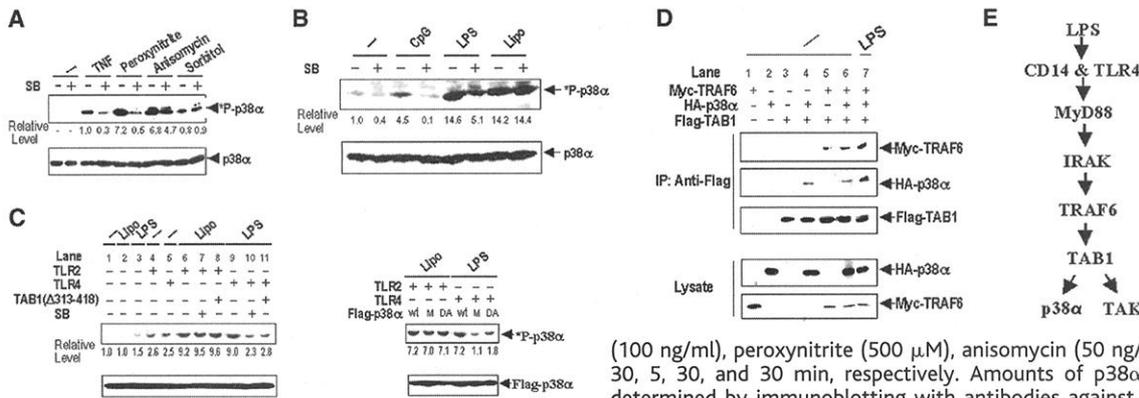


Fig. 5. Selective activation of TAB1-dependent and TAB1-independent p38 α activation pathways. (A) Requirement of intrinsic p38 α activity for p38 α phosphorylation induced by extracellular stimuli. The HEK 293 cells, pretreated with or without SB203580 (5 μ M) for 30 min, were stimulated with TNF (100 ng/ml), peroxyntirite (500 μ M), anisomycin (50 ng/ml), or sorbitol (0.4 M) for 30, 5, 30, and 30 min, respectively. Amounts of p38 α and phospho-p38 α were determined by immunoblotting with antibodies against flag and phospho-p38. (B) Effect of SB203580 on p38 α phosphorylation in RPMI 8226 cells. Cells were stimulated with CpG oligonucleotide (5 μ g/ml), LPS (100 ng/ml), or lipoprotein (lipo) (200 ng/ml) for 30 min. Amounts of phospho-p38 α and p38 α were determined by immunoblotting. (C) Distinct signaling to p38 α by TLR2 and TLR4. Flag-p38 α , flag-p38 α (M), or flag-p38 α (DA) was expressed in HEK 293 cells with or without TLR2 or TLR4, and with or without TAB1(Δ 313-418) as indicated. The cells were treated with SB203580 and stimulated with lipoprotein or LPS as indicated. Amounts of p38 α and phospho-p38 α were determined by immunoblotting. (D) Interaction of TRAF6 with TAB1-p38 α . TLR4-293 cells were transfected with expression plasmids encoding Myc-TRAF6, HA-p38 α , and flag-TAB1 in various combinations and exposed to LPS as indicated. Immunoprecipitates with flag-specific antibody and cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting with antibodies against Myc, HA, and flag. (E) Proposed signaling pathway upstream of TAB1-mediated p38 α activation. Data shown in (A to D) are representative of two to three independent experiments.

Effect of SB203580 on p38 α phosphorylation in RPMI 8226 cells. Cells were stimulated with CpG oligonucleotide (5 μ g/ml), LPS (100 ng/ml), or lipoprotein (lipo) (200 ng/ml) for 30 min. Amounts of phospho-p38 α and p38 α were determined by immunoblotting. (C) Distinct signaling to p38 α by TLR2 and TLR4. Flag-p38 α , flag-p38 α (M), or flag-p38 α (DA) was expressed in HEK 293 cells with or without TLR2 or TLR4, and with or without TAB1(Δ 313-418) as indicated. The cells were treated with SB203580 and stimulated with lipoprotein or LPS as indicated. Amounts of p38 α and phospho-p38 α were determined by immunoblotting. (D) Interaction of TRAF6 with TAB1-p38 α . TLR4-293 cells were transfected with expression plasmids encoding Myc-TRAF6, HA-p38 α , and flag-TAB1 in various combinations and exposed to LPS as indicated. Immunoprecipitates with flag-specific antibody and cell lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting with antibodies against Myc, HA, and flag. (E) Proposed signaling pathway upstream of TAB1-mediated p38 α activation. Data shown in (A to D) are representative of two to three independent experiments.

or together with TRAF6, the complexes were coimmunoprecipitated with TAB1. Stimulation of cells with LPS increased the amount of coprecipitated-TRAF6 and -p38 α (Fig. 5D), suggesting enhanced formation of a TRAF6-TAB1-p38 complex. Thus, the TAB1-p38 α pathway may be directly linked with TRAF6 (Fig. 5E).

Signal transduction is controlled not only by enzymes, but also by nonenzymatic adapters, scaffolds and other "inert" proteins. Much like these adapters, TAB1 binds various kinases such as TAK1 and p38 α . However, a difference between TAB1 and the other nonenzymatic modulators of the MAP kinase pathway is that binding with TAB1 results in kinase activation. Direct mediation of p38 α activation by TAB1 represents a new mechanism of activation distinct from the well-known activation by MAPKK (1-7). Although autophosphorylation of MAP kinase has been observed in vitro, it occurred at such a low level that it was not considered a primary activation mechanism (21-23). The autoactivation of p38 α MAP kinases facilitated by interaction with regulatory molecule(s) could be an important alternative activation pathway operating in parallel with kinase cascades in regulating intracellular signaling.

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19 October 2001; accepted 20 December 2001

Cytoskeletal Regulation by the Nedd8 Ubiquitin-Like Protein Modification Pathway

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The Nedd8 ubiquitin-like protein modification pathway regulates cell-cycle progression. Our analysis of Nedd8 requirements during *Caenorhabditis elegans* embryogenesis indicates that the cytoskeleton is another target. Nedd8 conjugation negatively regulated contractility of the microfilament-rich cell cortex during pronuclear migration and again during cytokinesis. The Nedd8 pathway also was required after meiosis to negatively regulate katanin, a microtubule-severing complex, permitting the assembly of a large mitotic spindle. We propose that Nedd8-modified cullin, as part of an E3 ubiquitin ligase complex, targets katanin for degradation during the transition from meiosis to mitosis.

Ubiquitin (UBQ) and ubiquitin-like proteins (UBLs) are a family of small, conserved polypeptides that become covalently attached to other proteins. UBQ usually targets proteins for degradation by the proteasome (1, 2), whereas modification by UBLs can affect instead the subcellular localization of target proteins, their

conformation, and their association with other proteins (3). Related pathways mediate the attachment of UBQ and UBLs to targeted proteins (4). In reactions that require ATP, UBQ and UBLs are first covalently attached to cognate E1-activating enzymes and then transferred to E2-conjugating enzymes that, directly

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