

Modulation of Transforming Growth Factor Alpha-Dependent Expression of Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor Gene by Transforming Growth Factor Beta, Triiodothyronine, and Retinoic Acid

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We have investigated the actions of transforming growth factor (TGF) type α on epidermal growth factor (EGF) receptor mRNA expression in MDA-468 human mammary carcinoma cells in serum-free media. We found that exposure of MDA-468 cells to TGF α results in elevated levels of EGF receptor mRNA. This increase in mRNA accumulation showed time and dose dependence. Addition of TGF β 1 enhanced the accumulation of EGF receptor mRNA induced by TGF α in a time- and dose-dependent manner. We also found that triiodothyronine at physiological concentrations exerts synergistic control on the action of TGF α alone, or in association with TGF β 1, on EGF receptor mRNA expression. Similarly, retinoic acid treatment also enhanced in a time- and dose-dependent manner the TGF α -dependent response of EGF receptor mRNA and acted synergistically with TGF β 1. The results described here suggest that optimum regulation of EGF receptor gene expression by TGF α is a complex process involving synergistic interactions with heterologous growth factors and hormones.

Key words: oncogenes, vitamin A, thyroid hormones, mammary cells, cancer, epithelial cells

EGF has potent effects on mammalian cell growth and acts via a specific transmembrane receptor to stimulate or inhibit growth [1,2]. The EGFR transmembrane and kinase domains are homologous to the viral oncogene erb B [1]. These observations and others [3] indicate that the EGF receptor can function as an oncogene. Thus, the level of EGFR gene expression must be accurately regulated in normal cells and is different in a number of transformed cells [1]. It has been reported that EGF controls the expression of the EGFR gene in various cell types [4-6]. However,

Abbreviations used: DME, Dulbecco-Vogt modified Eagle's medium; EGF, epidermal growth factor; EGFR, EGF receptor; kb, kilobase; RA, retinoic acid; TGF, transforming growth factor; T₃, triiodothyronine.

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modulation of the expression of the EGFR gene by heterologous growth factors and hormones and their relationship to cell proliferation remains obscure.

It has been reported that many normal and tumor-derived human mammary epithelial cells produce and secrete two critical growth factors, TGF α and TGF β [7,8]. The first factor, TGF α , is structurally and functionally related to EGF and binds to and operates through the EGFR [9]. The production of TGF α may be functionally important for the autocrine growth of a subset of normal and cancerous human breast cells [8,10,11]. The second factor, TGF β , is a multifunctional agent that has a negative growth modulatory role in various epithelial cell systems [7,12,13]. One salient feature of TGF β is that it affects the expression of a series of genes to control their expression [12,14], including the EGFR proto-oncogene [6,15]. However, little is known on the actions of TGF β on EGFR proto-oncogene expression in human mammary cells.

Thyroid hormones are essential in the control of cell growth and differentiation [16]. Several studies have shown that T3 can modulate cellular replication [17–19] and that it plays an essential role in chemical-, radiation-, viral-, and oncogene-induced carcinogenesis [20]. Other reports imply that thyroid hormones may have a specific role in regulating the production of both EGF and EGFR [15,21,22]. It is tantalizing that the viral oncogene *erb A* is homologous to cellular genes that encode nuclear receptors for T3 [23,24] and that the latter genes belong to the same family as the receptors for steroid hormones and retinoic acid [25–27].

RA, an analogue of vitamin A, is of great interest since it exerts profound effects on development and differentiation and is a potent anti-carcinogenic agent [28,29]. Many studies have indicated that RA can inhibit growth, suppress the transformed phenotype, and induce differentiation of cultured carcinoma cells [28,29]. The compound is of particular interest since it has been shown that it can modulate growth factor and oncogene expression in several cell types [29,30]. Although RA has been shown to modulate EGFR concentration [29,31], activity [32] and mRNA synthesis [29], the molecular mechanisms by which the effects on replication are mediated and interaction with other polypeptide growth factors and hormones are not well understood.

In this study, we have characterized the actions of TGF α on EGFR gene expression in MDA-468 human mammary carcinoma cells. We have also investigated the actions of TGF β 1, T3, and/or RA on EGFR gene expression in TGF α -stimulated cells. The results suggest that optimum regulation of EGFR gene expression by TGF α is a complex process involving the coordinate interaction of a discrete number of heterologous growth factors and hormones.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and Culture Conditions

MDA-468 human mammary carcinoma cells [6] were routinely cultured in a humidified atmosphere (5% CO₂, 95% air) at 37°C in the presence of DME/F12 medium containing 10% calf serum [13]. For experiments, the cells were maintained in synthetic serum-free DME/F12+H+F medium [13]. The formulation of DME/F12+H+F medium was DME and Ham's F12 mixed 1:1 and supplemented with insulin (5 μ g/ml), transferrin (5 μ g/ml), hydrocortisone (50 nM), prostaglandin E₁ (25 ng/ml), selenous acid (10 nM), glutamine (4 mM), gentamicin (40 μ g/ml), 4-(2-hydroxyethyl)-1-piperazineethanesulfonic acid (10 mM), and bovine serum albumin (1 mg/ml).

RNA Extraction and Northern Blot Analysis

Total cellular RNA was isolated by the guanidinium isothiocyanate/cesium chloride procedure as described [6]. RNA samples were quantified by measurement of A_{260} . For RNA blot analysis, samples containing 20 μg of total RNA were fractionated on 1% agarose/formaldehyde gels [6]. Before transfer, the gels were stained with ethidium bromide (10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$), destained, and photographed under ultraviolet light in order to visualize the positions of ribosomal RNAs (28S and 18S). The RNAs were transferred to a nylon membrane (BiotransTM), essentially following the procedure of Thomas [33]. Membranes were prehybridized and hybridized with $\approx 3.5 \times 10^7$ count/min of purified ^{32}P -labeled cDNA probes as described [6,15]. The membranes were washed [6] and autoradiographed for 1 to 4 days by using Kodak XAR-5 film with Dupont Lightening Plus intensifying screen at -70°C . The filters were hybridized to ^{32}P -labeled cDNA clones pE7 or pHER-A-64-1 [6,15]. The EGFR cDNA inserts were excised from both plasmids by appropriate restriction endonuclease digestion [6,15] and purified by electrophoresis on low melting point 1.0% agarose gels [6]. To take into account experimental variations in the amount of RNA transferred to the filters, ribosomal RNA levels were measured on the same blots as a control for total bound RNA. For estimation of ribosomal RNA content, the filters were hybridized to a nick-translated 28S ribosomal DNA probe [6]. DNA probes were radiolabeled with [^{32}P]dCTP to a specific activity greater than 1.8×10^8 cpm per μg of DNA by using a nick translation kit (New England Nuclear).

Densitometric Analysis and Other Procedures

Densitometry was performed with a microprocessor-controlled Beckman DU-70 spectrophotometer with automatic background subtraction for each lane. Subsequently, the areas of interest were digitized and the average of triplicate measurements, percent of maximum, and fold-increase were automatically calculated by utilizing SigmaScan (Jandel). Plotting and statistical analysis were done by using SigmaPlot (Jandel). Other methods utilized in this investigation were performed as described in refs. 6, 13, and 15. The results presented here were repeated with similar results in at least three independent experiments each.

Growth Factors, Hormones, Chemicals, and cDNA Probes

EGF was purchased from Biomedical Technologies (Stoughton, MA). Human TGF α was purchased from ICN Biochemicals (Cleveland, OH). Platelet-derived human TGF β 1 was obtained from R & D Systems (Minneapolis, MN); 3,5,3'-triiodo-L-thyronine and retinoic acid were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO). Sources of other growth factors, hormones, chemicals, and cDNA probes were as described elsewhere [6,13,15]. All reagents were of the highest purity commercially available.

RESULTS

Time- and Concentration-Dependent Effects of TGF α on EGF Receptor mRNA Accumulation

To determine the time-dependent effect of TGF α on the expression of EGFR gene, MDA-468 cells were exposed to TGF α at 10 ng/ml for set time intervals. Samples of

RNA from each of the time points were transferred onto nylon membranes, the blot was hybridized to the pHER probe, and the signal strengths from the resulting autoradiogram were quantitated by densitometry. Figure 1A shows that no induction of EGFR mRNA was observed after 3 h of incubation with 10 ng/ml TGF α , while at 4 h, a significant increase was detected. The maximum level of accumulation (\approx 12-fold greater than control at time 0) was reached at \approx 5–6 h (Fig. 1A). The level of EGFR mRNA declined from 8 to 16 h (data not shown). RNA blot analysis (Fig. 1B, lane 3)

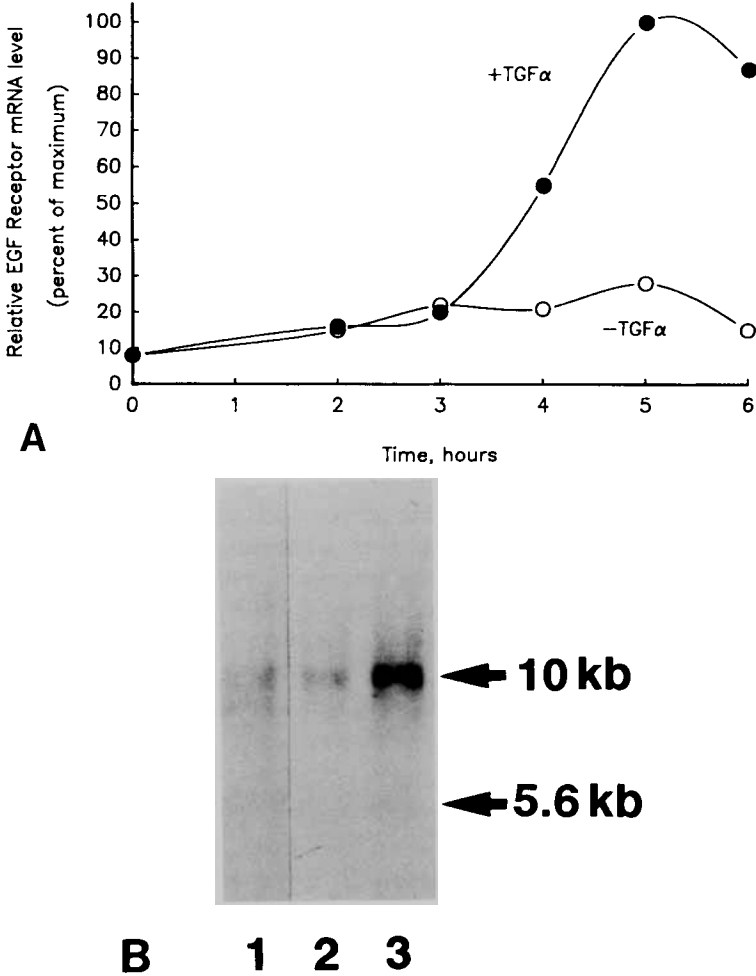


Fig. 1. **A:** Time course showing the change in EGF receptor mRNA levels after addition of TGF α . Subconfluent MDA-468 cells were maintained for 23.5 h in synthetic DME/F12+H medium. Then, the medium was replaced by the same fresh medium and 1 h later TGF α (10 ng/ml) was added. Aliquots of total RNA (20 μ g per lane) were fractionated on 1% agarose gels and transferred to a nylon membrane. The transcripts were detected by hybridization with 32 P-labeled pHER probe and subsequent autoradiography. The resulting autoradiogram was quantified by densitometric scanning (only signals in the linear range of film sensitivity were quantified) and the relative intensity of the hybridization signal for each time point was plotted. (O), control, no additions; (●), TGF α . **B:** Autoradiograph (88-h exposure) showing the change in the levels of the 10- and 5.6-kb mRNAs encoding the EGF receptor after treatment with TGF α (10 ng/ml) for 6 h. Lane 1: No additions, time 0. Lane 2: No additions, 6 h. Lane 3: TGF α , 6 h.

showed that the rise in mRNA level is the result of accumulation of both a major 10-kb and a minor \approx 5.6-kb species of mRNA.

We have also analyzed RNA obtained from MDA-468 cells treated for 5 h with increasing concentrations of TGF α . Figure 2A and B shows that the level of EGFR mRNA increased progressively with increasing concentrations of TGF α . As little as 2.5 ng/ml TGF α induced a significant increase in EGFR mRNA (Fig. 2A, lane 3, and 2B). Maximal levels of EGFR mRNA were reached at 20 ng/ml TGF α (Fig. 2A, lane 6, and 2B). A concentration of 100 ng/ml TGF α produced a significant decrease in EGFR mRNA accumulation after 5 h of treatment (data not shown).

Effect of TGF β 1 on TGF α -Stimulated EGF Receptor Gene Expression

To determine whether the TGF α -dependent expression of the EGFR gene may be modulated by TGF β 1, MDA-468 cells were treated for 5 h with increasing concentrations of TGF β 1 in the absence or presence of 10 ng/ml TGF α and the RNA was analyzed. TGF β 1 alone (5 to 100 pM) had no significant stimulatory effect on EGFR mRNA expression in the absence of TGF α . The increase in EGFR mRNA level produced by 10 ng/ml TGF α was enhanced in a dose-dependent fashion by increasing concentrations of TGF β 1 (5–50 pM). A significant enhancement of the TGF α -mediated increase in EGFR mRNA was observed with as little as 5 pM TGF β 1 in the presence of 10 ng/ml TGF α . Maximal enhancement of EGFR mRNA by TGF β 1 was observed with 25–50 pM TGF β 1 in the presence of 10 ng/ml TGF α . In the presence of 10 ng/ml TGF α , a concentration of 100 pM TGF β 1 produced a significant decrease in EGFR mRNA accumulation. These results are consistent with previous work that demonstrated that TGF β 1 enhances the EGF-mediated increase in EGFR mRNA in a time- and dose-dependent fashion in MDA-468 cells [6,15].

Modulation of EGFR mRNA Levels by the Combined Action of TGF α , TGF β 1, and T3

Because previous work from this laboratory showed that T3 regulates the expression of the EGFR gene [15], it was of interest to test whether treatment of MDA-468 cells with T3 is followed by a change in their responsiveness to TGF α and/or TGF β 1. For this purpose, MDA-468 cells were treated with or without 1 nM T₃ for 23 h. Then, the cells were stimulated with TGF α (2.5 or 20 ng/ml) and/or TGF β 1 (50 pM) for 5 h in the absence or presence of T3. The presence of 1 nM T3 enhanced the TGF α -dependent induction process in comparison to control, TGF α alone. This enhancement induced by T3 was most evident in cells treated with 20 ng/ml TGF α . Densitometry revealed that the enhancement by T3 of the TGF α (20 ng/ml)-generated increase in EGFR mRNA was \approx sixfold in comparison to control, 20 ng/ml TGF α alone. Additional experiments also showed that T3 considerably increases (\approx threefold) the TGF β 1-enhanced TGF α -dependent induction of EGFR mRNA, in comparison to control cells treated with TGF α (20 ng/ml) plus TGF β 1 (50 pM). These results are in agreement with previous results [15] and suggest that T₃ acts synergistically with TGF α and/or TGF β 1 in the EGFR mRNA induction process.

Modulation of EGFR mRNA Levels by the Combined Action of EGF(or TGF α), TGF β 1, and/or Retinoic Acid

In an attempt to determine whether the level of EGFR mRNA may be modulated by RA, MDA-468 cells were pretreated with 1 nM RA for 20 h. Then, the cells were

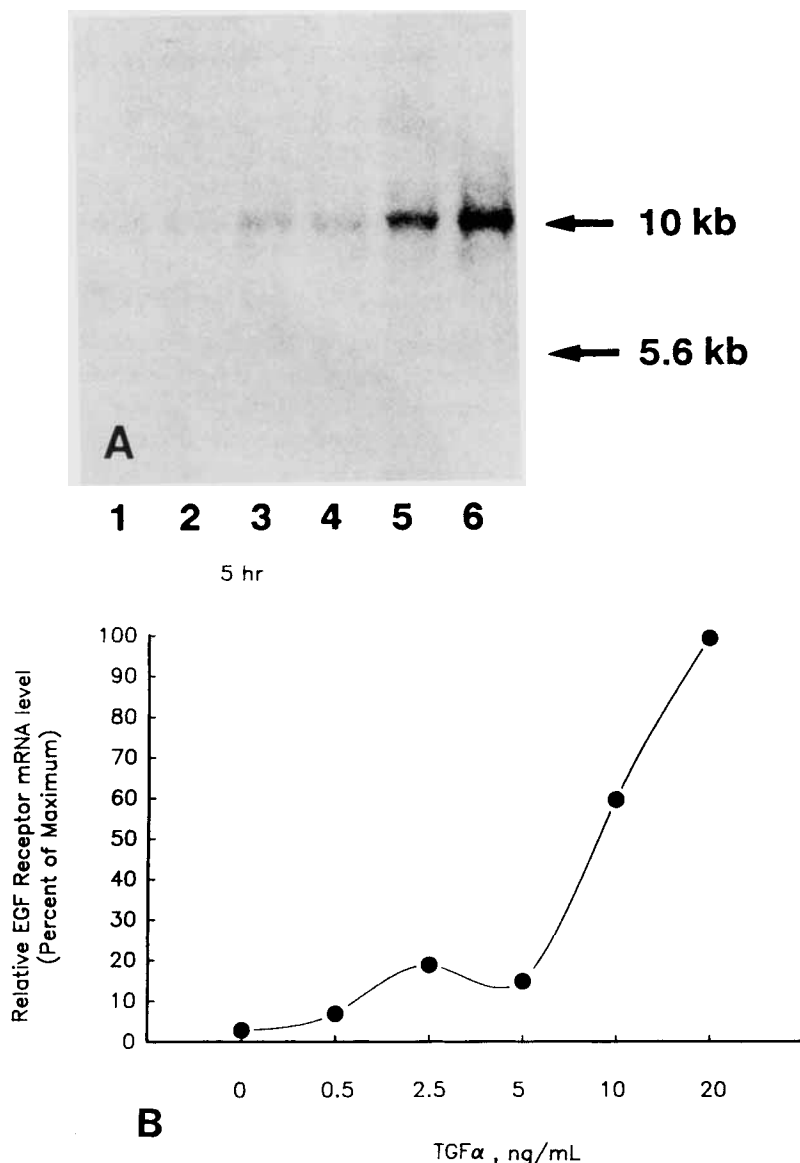


Fig. 2. Enhancement of EGF receptor mRNA levels by different concentrations of TGF α . Subconfluent MDA-468 cells were maintained for 24 h in serum-free DME/F12 medium. Then, the medium was replaced by the same fresh medium and 1 h later the indicated concentrations of TGF α were added. RNA was isolated from the cells 5 h after the addition of TGF α . The RNAs (20 μ g per lane) were fractionated on 1% agarose gels and transferred to a nylon membrane. The transcripts were detected by hybridization with 32 P-labeled pE7 probe and subsequent autoradiography. The resulting autoradiogram was quantified by densitometry and the relative intensities of the EGF receptor mRNA signal were plotted as a function of TGF α concentrations in the culture media. **A**: Autoradiograph (90-h exposure) of an RNA blot analysis showing the changes in the levels of the 10- and 5.6-kb mRNAs encoding the EGF receptor after treatment with TGF α . The sample numbers correspond in sequence with each of the conditions (left to right) shown in the graph (**B**).

stimulated with EGF and/or TGF β 1 for 5 h in the presence of RA. The results presented in Figure 3 show that the basal level of EGFR mRNA significantly increase in response to RA. As shown in Figure 3A, lanes 2 and 5, the presence of 1 nM RA strongly enhances the EGF-dependent induction process in comparison to control EGF alone. Densitometry revealed that the enhancement by 1 nM RA of the EGF-mediated increase in EGFR mRNA at 5 h is \approx 20-fold, in comparison to control EGF alone (Fig. 3B). Figure 3A, lane 6, also shows that the addition of RA markedly increases the EGF-dependent induction of EGFR mRNA in the presence of TGF β 1. However, the increase induced by RA in cells exposed to both EGF and TGF β 1 was of lower extent than that observed in cells treated with EGF plus RA in the absence of TGF β 1 (Fig. 3). Similar results were obtained when EGF was replaced by TGF α under identical experimental conditions (data not shown).

We also examined the effects of different concentrations of RA (1 and 5 nM) on the EGF (or TGF α)-dependent induction of EGFR mRNA in the absence and presence of TGF β 1. For this purpose, the cells were simultaneously treated with RA, EGF (or TGF α), and/or TGF β 1 for 24 h. As expected [6], EGF (or TGF α) and/or TGF β 1 did not have any effect on EGFR mRNA at 24 h in the absence of RA (Fig. 4). Figure 4 shows that RA increases significantly and in a dose-dependent manner the EGFR mRNA levels under all conditions tested. Interestingly, while TGF β 1 alone was unable to modify EGFR expression, in the presence of RA it was capable of enhancing EGFR mRNA accumulation (Fig. 4). As shown in Figure 4, the effects of RA on EGFR mRNA accumulation were of greater magnitude in cells treated with both EGF (or TGF α) and TGF β 1.

The results presented here suggest that under certain conditions RA acts synergistically with EGF (or TGF α) and/or TGF β 1 in the EGFR mRNA induction process.

DISCUSSION

The hormonal and polypeptide growth factor control of cellular proliferation in human breast carcinoma cells is extremely complex and poorly understood [34]. Synergistic and antagonistic interactions between different hormones and polypeptide growth factors are known to occur in human breast cancer cells [7,11,13,15,34]. The molecular mechanisms mediating the influence of specific hormones on the expression of the EGFR gene have not been investigated extensively in these cell families. In an effort to study this problem, we have investigated the expression of proto-oncogene EGFR mRNA in MDA-468 cells as a possible mediator of growth-modulatory signals transmitted by the autocrine peptide growth factors TGF α and TGF β 1 and two hormones critically involved in growth and differentiation, T3 and RA.

The studies reported here demonstrate that physiological concentrations of TGF α (2.5–20 ng/ml) increase EGFR mRNA severalfold above control levels in a time- and concentration-dependent manner (Figs. 1, 2). The finding that TGF α dramatically increases EGFR mRNA is not unexpected, since EGF has been shown to increase EGFR mRNA in MDA-468 [6] and other cell lines [4,5]. These observations are of interest because 1) TGF α plays an important role in human mammary normal and abnormal cell proliferation by acting as an autocrine growth factor [8,10,11], and 2) they serve as the basis for subsequent studies reported here with heterologous growth factor and hormones. The molecular mechanism of action of TGF α on EGFR mRNA induction in MDA-468 cells is not known. It is conceivable that the effect of TGF α on

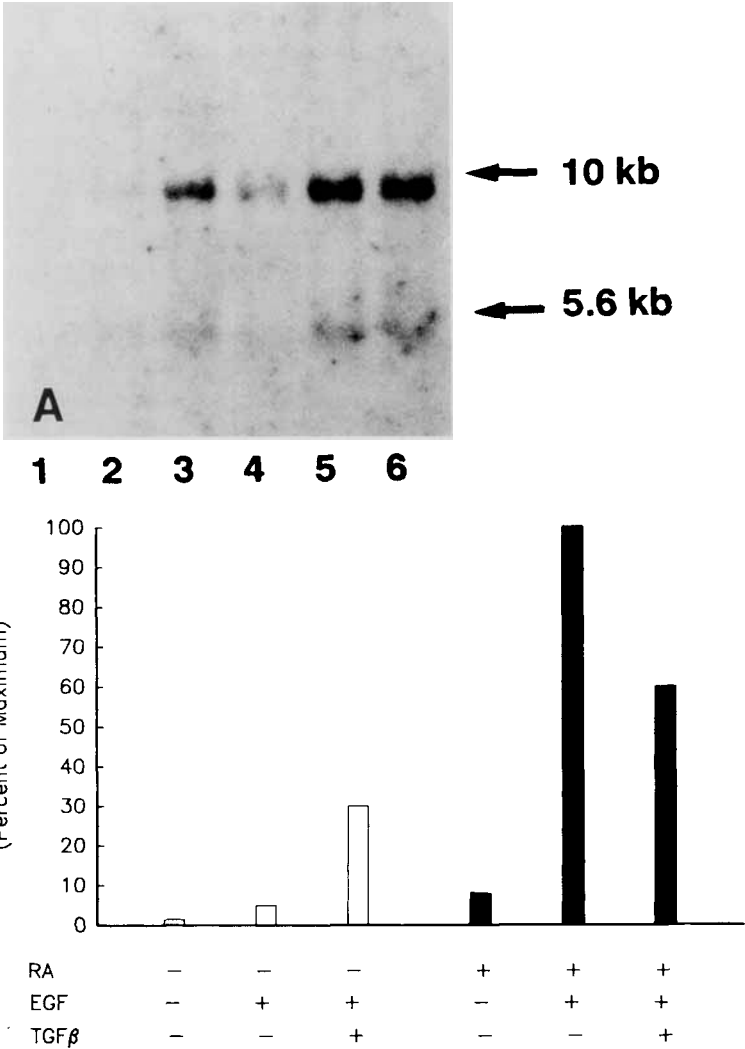


Fig. 3. Modulation of EGF receptor mRNA levels by the combined action of EGF, TGFβ1, and retinoic acid. Subconfluent MDA-468 cells were maintained for 20 h in serum-free medium with or without 1 nM retinoic acid (RA). Then, the media were replaced by identical fresh media and 1 h later EGF (25 ng/ml) and/or TGFβ1 (100 pM) was added. RNA was isolated from the cells 5 h after the addition of EGF and/or TGFβ1. Aliquots of total cellular RNAs (20 μg per lane) were fractionated on 1% agarose gels and transferred to a nylon membrane. The EGF receptor transcripts were detected by hybridization with ³²P-labeled pHER probe and subsequent autoradiography. A: Autoradiograph (64-h exposure) of the RNA blot analysis showing the change in the levels of the 10- and 5.6-kb mRNAs encoding the EGF receptor after incubation with RA, EGF, and/or TGFβ1. The lane numbers correspond in sequence with each of the conditions (left to right) shown in B. The autoradiogram was quantitated by densitometry (only signals in the linear range of film sensitivity were quantified) and the relative intensities of the EGF receptor mRNA signals were plotted (B).

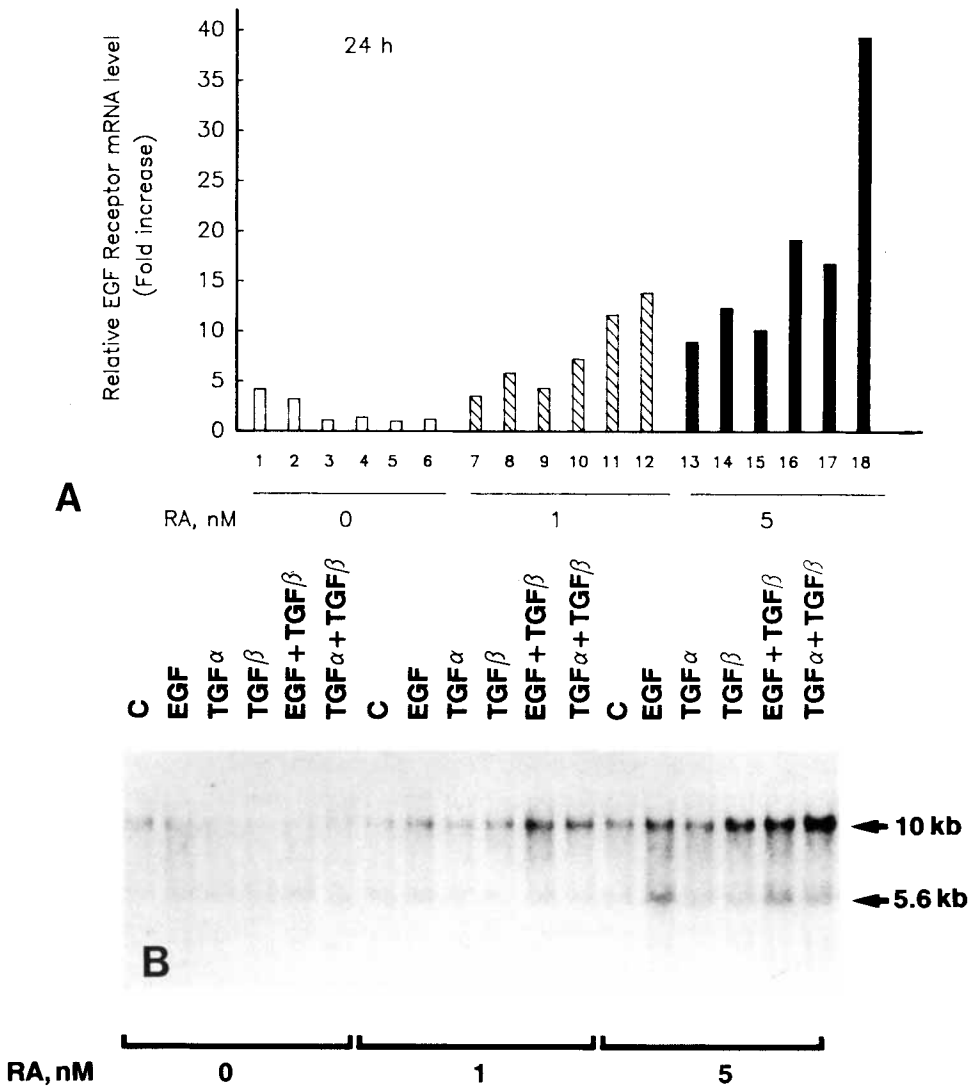


Fig. 4. Enhancement of growth factor-induced EGF receptor mRNA levels by different concentrations of retinoic acid. **A**: Total cellular RNA was isolated from MDA-468 cells cultured in serum-free DME/F12+H medium 24 h after the simultaneous addition of RA, EGF, TGF α , and/or TGF β 1. The RNAs were fractionated by electrophoresis, transferred to a nylon membrane, and hybridized to ³²P-labeled pHER probe. The resulting autoradiogram was quantitated by densitometry and the relative intensities of the EGF receptor mRNA signal (10-kb band) were plotted as a function of RA concentrations (1 and 5 nM) in the culture media. The sample numbers (1–18) correspond in sequence with each of the conditions (left to right) shown in **B**. **B**: Autoradiographs (88-h exposure) of representative lanes of the RNA blot analysis utilized to construct the graph presented in **A** are shown. Lanes, 1, 7, 13—no growth factor additions, control, C; lanes 2, 8, 14—25 ng/ml EGF; lanes 3, 9, 15—10 ng/ml TGF α ; lanes 4, 10, 16—50 pM TGF β 1; lanes 5, 11, 17—25 ng/ml EGF plus 50 pM TGF β 1; lanes 6, 16, 18—10 ng/ml TGF α plus 50 pM TGF β 1.

expression of EGFR gene is very complex and is regulated at a variety of levels, including transcription [15,35,36] and mRNA stability [37].

The demonstration that TGF α -dependent expression of the EGFR gene can be experimentally regulated by TGF β 1 implicates EGFR in the system that controls growth inhibition induced by TGF β 1 in MDA-468 cells and possibly other cell lines. Previous experiments performed in our laboratory have demonstrated that TGF β 1 has analogous effects on EGF-stimulated EGFR mRNA in MDA-468 cells [6,15]. Thus, the observations presented here confirm our original contention that TGF β 1 is able to modulate the EGF (TGF α)-dependent expression of EGFR gene [6]. Based on our earlier results with EGF- and TGF β 1-stimulated MDA-468 cells, we believe that the effects of TGF β 1 are mediated by transcriptional activation of EGFR proto-oncogene [15]. However, we emphasize that posttranscriptional mechanisms such as changes in mRNA stability [37] have not been ruled out.

The data in this report identify T3 as one of the serum hormones that can modulate TGF α -dependent expression of the EGFR gene in breast cancer cells. Furthermore, the observation that T3 and TGF β 1 synergistically modulate TGF α -dependent induction of EGFR mRNA indicates a role for thyroid hormones in regulating cell responsiveness to growth-inhibitory factors. Our data are consistent with a recent report from this laboratory implying that thyroid hormones may have a specific role in regulating cell proliferation by modulating the action of EGF and/or TGF β 1 on EGFR gene expression [15]. Of particular relevance to the present studies are the findings of Mukku, who showed that thyroid hormones increase the level of cell surface EGFR in rat liver cells *in vivo* [22]. Although the mechanism of action of T3 on EGFR gene expression is not known, it is attractive to speculate that it is mediated by erb A-related nuclear receptors for T3 [23,24] which activate EGFR gene transcription [15]. However, we should emphasize that other cellular receptors for T3 are also possible mediators of T3 actions on EGFR gene expression. For example, it has been recently reported that a distinct authentic thyroid hormone receptor protein present in endoplasmic reticulum and nuclear envelope is homologous to protein disulfide isomerase and the β -subunit of prolyl-4-hydroxylase [38,39]. These observations suggest an alternative or more complex mechanism for T3-mediated stimulation of TGF α -dependent induction of EGFR mRNA in breast cancer cells.

Our data clearly demonstrate that treatment of MDA-468 cells with RA results in an early rise in mRNA for the EGFR (Fig. 3). These results are consistent with previous work that showed that RA can increase cell surface EGFR in various fibroblastic and epithelial cell lines [29,31]. Experiments presented here also show that long-term treatment with RA resulted in a dose-dependent elevation of basal EGFR mRNA level and potentiation of the effects of other growth factors tested, including TGF β 1 alone (Fig. 4). This finding with TGF β 1 is unanticipated, since TGF β 1 alone did not have any effect on EGFR mRNA at early or late time points in the absence of RA. One possible explanation is that RA induces autocrine production of TGF α which in turn synergizes with exogenously added TGF β 1 in inducing EGFR mRNA accumulation. The molecular mechanism of action of RA on EGFR mRNA accumulation in MDA-468 cells can only be a subject for speculation. The receptor protein for RA is homologous to the receptors for steroid hormones, thyroid hormones, and vitamin D3 [16,23–27]. Thus, RA could function by activating a specific nuclear trans-acting RA receptor protein which may enhance EGFR gene transcription.

In summary, the physiological significance of the effects of the modulatory factors tested here on EGFR gene expression is not known. However, our studies offer a potential pathway involving EGFR gene expression whereby TGF β 1, T3, and/or RA could distally modulate the effects of TGF α (EGF) on proliferation of breast cancer cells. Experiments for testing the hypothesis that the modulatory effects of TGF β 1, T3, and/or RA are predominantly mediated by transcriptional activation of EGFR gene are underway.

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