

SURVIVAL STRATEGY AND DISEASE PATHOGENESIS ACCORDING TO THE Nrf2-SMALL Maf HETERODIMER

MASANOBU MORITA¹ AND HOZUMI MOTOHASHI²

¹Department of Medical Biochemistry, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Aoba-ku, Sendai, Japan

²Center for Radioisotope Sciences, Tohoku University Graduate School of Medicine, Aoba-ku, Sendai, Japan

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Organisms, including mammals, are constantly exposed to oxidative stress due to oxygen consumption during aerobic respiration and xenobiotic chemicals in their diet and/or the environment. Mammalian cells are equipped with sophisticated machinery for cell protection against oxidative and xenobiotic stress. NF-E2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) is a potent transcription activator that plays a central role in regulating the expression of genes encoding detoxifying enzymes and antioxidant proteins by binding to the antioxidant response element (ARE)/electrophile response element (EpRE). Nrf2 is a member of the Cap'n'Collar (CNC) transcription factor family that commonly contains a unique stretch of amino acids, designated the CNC domain, followed by a well-conserved basic region-leucine zipper (bZIP) motif. Under unstressed conditions, Nrf2 is ubiquitinated by kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1 (Keap1) and degraded by the proteasome in the cytoplasm. Upon exposure to oxidative or xenobiotic stress, Nrf2 is stabilized, translocates into the nucleus, heterodimerizes with small Maf, another bZIP protein, binds to the ARE/EpRE, and activates transcription. Recent studies have clarified the intricate molecular mechanisms of Nrf2 activation in response to stress and revealed the involvement of Nrf2 in many human diseases including neurodegeneration, airway disorders, cardiovascular disease, and cancer. This review covers the historical aspects of the discovery of Nrf2,

recent advances in molecular studies of Nrf2 function, updated reports on the involvement of Nrf2 in various pathological conditions, and perspectives of Nrf2 utilization for human welfare.

5.1.1 Identification of Nrf2

The antioxidant response element (ARE), also known as an electrophile response element (EpRE) [TGA(G/C)NNNGC], was first identified in analyses of induction mechanisms of the detoxifying enzyme genes in response to electrophilic chemicals [1–3]. ARE/EpREs are often found in the promoter regions of cytoprotective genes and are considered to be critical for the inducible expression of these genes. Although the importance of this *cis*-regulatory element was clearly shown, the *trans*-acting factor responsible for inducible transcription activation remained unknown.

During the search for the *trans*-acting factor, an interesting coincidence occurred in research on transcriptional regulation. Nuclear factor erythroid 2 (NF-E2) is a transcriptional activator important for erythroid-specific gene expression through interaction with NF-E2 binding sites [ATGA(G/C)TCAGCA] [4, 5]. Nrf2 was originally identified as a homolog of NF-E2 and was found to associate with the NF-E2 binding site as expected [6, 7] (Fig. 5.1). Similarities between the ARE/EpRE sequence and the NF-E2 binding site led to the discovery of Nrf2 as the ARE/EpRE binding factor [8] (Fig. 5.2A).

Nrf2 possesses a characteristic CNC domain followed by a well-conserved bZIP motif (Fig. 5.1). The CNC domain was defined based on the sequence homology of 43 amino acids to the *Drosophila* Cnc protein [9]. In addition to NF-E2 and Nrf2, four additional factors were isolated as members of the CNC family: Nrf1, Nrf3, Bach1, and Bach2 [10, 11, 12]. NF-E2, Nrf1, Nrf2, and Nrf3 are considered to be activators [4, 6, 7, 10, 11], while Bach1 and Bach2 possess characteristic Broad complex-Tramtrack-Bric-a-brac (BTB) domains at their N-terminal ends and are considered to be repressors [12–14] (Fig. 5.2B). Importantly, none of the members of the CNC family binds efficiently to DNA as monomer or homodimer, and each requires small Maf, another bZIP protein, as an obligate heterodimeric partner molecule [15] (Fig. 5.1 and Fig. 5.2B).

The CNC protein homolog in *Caenorhabditis elegans* is SKN-1, and it binds to DNA as a monomer because it does not possess the leucine zipper structure [16]. The SKN-1 recognition sequence is similar to half-sites of ARE/EpRE and NF-E2 binding site (Fig. 5.2A). One

side of the site is recognized by CNC proteins, and small Maf proteins recognize the other side of the site, which contains a GC dinucleotide. Nrf2 shares a heterodimeric partner molecule with other CNC proteins, and all of the CNC-small Maf heterodimers recognize a nearly identical DNA binding sequence. This implicates cross talk between Nrf2 and other members of the CNC and small Maf transcription factor families.

5.1.2 Susceptibility of *Nrf2*-Null Mice to Oxidative and Xenobiotic Stress

Analysis of *Nrf2*-null mice clearly demonstrated the substantial contribution of Nrf2 to the inducible regulation of cytoprotective genes [8]. *Nrf2*-null mice display an increased formation of DNA adducts in the lung following exposure to diesel exhaust [17], a more severe liver toxicity after administration of acetaminophen [18], an increased susceptibility to cigarette smoke-induced emphysema [19], and an aggravated bleomycin-induced pulmonary fibrosis

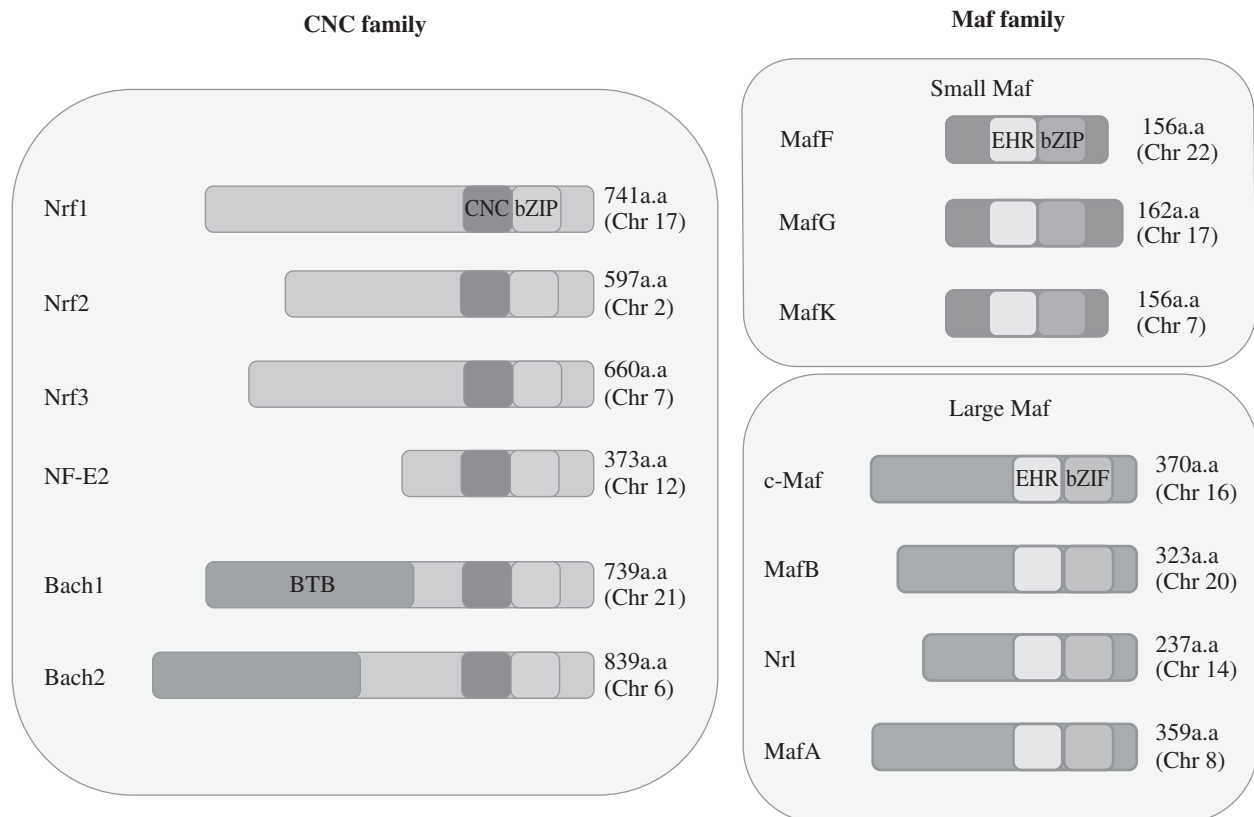


Fig. 5.1 The structures of CNC and Maf family proteins. The CNC family contains four transcriptional activators, Nrf1, Nrf2, Nrf3, and NF-E2, and two transcriptional repressors, Bach1 and Bach2. The Maf family consists of three small Maf transcription factors and four large Maf transcription factors. The bZIP motifs are a common structural feature of CNC and Maf family proteins. The CNC and EHR domains are unique to CNC and Maf family proteins, respectively. Bach1 and Bach2 possess BTB domains in their N-terminal regions. The amino acid number and chromosomal location of the human gene encoding each protein are shown.

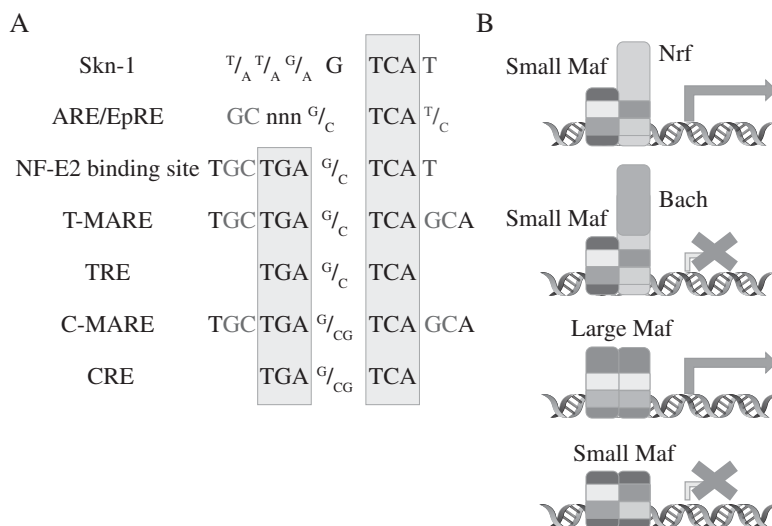


Fig. 5.2 DNA recognition sequences and the transcriptional activities of Maf-containing dimers. (A) Various MARE-related sequences are shown. The dinucleotide “GC” (marked in red) is essential for recognition by Maf proteins. The nucleotide “T” or “T/C” (marked in blue) enhances the binding of CNC proteins. Trinucleotides (boxed in gray) with the central G and GC sequence consist of the TRE and CRE, respectively, which make up the core region of the MARE. (B) Nrf1, Nrf2, Nrf3, and NF-E2 activate transcription by forming heterodimers with small Maf, while Bach1 and Bach2 repress transcription. A large Maf homodimer, possessing a *trans*-activation domain, activates transcription, while a small Maf homodimer, lacking a *trans*-activation domain, represses transcription. All of these Maf-containing dimers bind to T-MARE with high affinity. (See color insert.)

[20]. Nrf2 confers resistance to xenobiotic stress through activation of the genes encoding detoxifying enzymes, including glutathione *S*-transferases (GST), UDP glucuronate transferases (UGT), and NAD(P)H:quinone oxidoreductase 1 (NQO1) [8, 21–23]. The phenotypes observed in *Nrf2*-null mice after exposure to exogenous insults are summarized in Table 5.1.

Nrf2 also plays an important role in response to oxidative stress by activating antioxidant proteins and enzymes for glutathione synthesis [21, 24]. Cellular capacities for elimination of reactive oxygen species (ROS) are limited in the absence of Nrf2 [25]. Nrf2 regulates intracellular ROS levels not only in pathological conditions but also during the physiological cellular differentiation process of megakaryocytic maturation [26]. With decreased capacities to eliminate ROS of endogenous origins, *Nrf2*-null mice tend to spontaneously develop various inflammatory disorders, including glomerulonephritis, immune-mediated hemolytic anemia, and multiorgan autoimmune inflammation [27–29], all of which appear to be due to a chronic increase in ROS. The phenotypes observed in *Nrf2*-null mice that develop spontaneously or in response to endogenous insults are summarized in Table 5.2.

The *Nrf2* gene is ubiquitously expressed in various cell lineages and at both the embryonic and adult stages. The expression level is relatively higher in the lung, kidney, and liver in adults and in the intestine, lung, and choroid plexus in embryos [30]. Chicken Nrf2 is highly expressed in the kidney and intestine [7].

The expression level of the *Nrf2* gene is regulated by a positive feedback mechanism dependent on an ARE/EpRE in the promoter region of the *Nrf2* gene [31]. The *Nrf2* gene is also transcriptionally induced by the aryl hydrocarbon receptor [32].

Analysis of a single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in the promoter region of the *Nrf2* gene demonstrated the significance of the transcriptional regulation of the *Nrf2* gene in the determination of Nrf2 activity. A SNP in the promoter region of the mouse *Nrf2* gene is linked to the reduced expression of the *Nrf2* gene and susceptibility to hyperoxic lung injury in the C57BL/6J mouse strain [33]. Indeed, exposure to hyperoxia causes more severe lung damage in *Nrf2*-null mice than in wild-type mice [34]. SNPs found in the promoter region of the human *NRF2* gene [35] are linked to a higher risk of acute lung injury [36]. These data demonstrate the importance of transcriptional regulation of the *Nrf2* gene in stress response.

5.2 THE KEAP1-NRF2 SYSTEM IN RESPONSE TO ELECTROPHILES

Electrophiles have substantial impacts on biomolecules including proteins and nucleic acids that are rich in electron-dense parts. An atom with stronger electronegativity, such as oxygen, attracts pi electrons, and consequently an electron-deficient part is generated, which

TABLE 5.1 Phenotypes observed in *Nrf2*-null mice after exposure to exogenous insults

Organ	Reagent	Phenotype(s)	Inflammation-related genes affected in <i>Nrf2</i> -null mice	Reference
Skin	DMBA/TPA	Increased incidence of skin tumors and tumor numbers		119
	Diesel exhaust	Severe epithelial hyperplasia and increased levels of 8-OHdG in the lung		17
	Benzo[a]pyrene	Increased somatic mutations of the <i>Gpt</i> gene in lungs		121
Gastric	DSS	Susceptibility to DSS-induced colitis	IL-1 β , IL-6, iNOS, COX-2, TNF- α	156
	AOM/DSS	Susceptibility to AOM/DSS-induced colitis	TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-12p40	157
	Benzo[a]pyrene	Increased tumor numbers in the stomach		65, 158, 159
Liver	AOM/DSS	Increased incidence of colonic tumors	COX-2, 5-LOX	122
	IQ	Increased incidence of liver tumors and tumor numbers		160
	D3T, CDDO-Im	Reduced expression of detoxifying genes and antioxidant genes		148, 161
Bladder	Acetaminophen	Acute hepatotoxicity		18
	BBN	Increased incidence of bladder tumors		23
Brain	LPS	Increased microglial infiltration	iNOS, IL-6, TNF- α	16
Lung	LPS, sepsis induced by cecal ligation and puncture	Exacerbated lung inflammation	TNF- α , enhanced activation of NF- κ B	163
	Carrageenin	Exacerbated lung inflammation, increased neutrophil infiltration		133
	Ovalbumin sensitization and challenge	Exacerbated allergen-driven asthmatic inflammation, hyperresponsiveness to cholinergic challenge	IL-4, IL-13, enhanced activation of NF- κ B	164
	Cigarette smoke	Susceptibility to cigarette smoke-induced emphysema	Activation of caspase-3, decreased SLPI	19, 134
	Elastase	Susceptibility to elastase-induced lung inflammation and emphysema	Decreased SLPI	135

DMBA/TPA, 7,12-Dimethylbenz(a)anthracene/12-O-tetradecanoylphorbol-13-acetate;

DSS, dextran sulfate sodium; AOM, azoxymethane; IQ, 2-amino-3-methylimidazo

[4,5-*f*]quinoline; D3T, 3*H*-1,2-dithiole-3-thione; CDDO-Im, 1-[2-cyano-3-,12-dioxooleana-1,9(11)-dien-28-oyl]imidazole; BBN, *N*-nitrosobutyl(4-hydroxybutyl)amine; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; SLPI, secretory leukoprotease inhibitor.**TABLE 5.2** Phenotypes observed in *Nrf2*-null mice that develop spontaneously or in response to endogenous insults

Organ	Phenotype(s)	Reference
Skin	Prolonged inflammation	165
Brain	Astrogliosis and vacuolar leukoencephalopathy after 1 year of age	166
	Exacerbated leukocyte infiltration, increased infarct size, and severe behavioral deficits after the intracerebral hemorrhage	167, 168
Immune system	Autoimmune inflammation and lymphoproliferation in multiple organs	29
	Lupus-like autoimmune nephritis	27
Hematopoietic	Immune-mediated hemolytic anemia	28
Craniofacial	De-colorization of incisors	169

attacks electron-dense parts of nucleic acids and proteins. The protein adduct leads to acute toxicity due to cellular dysfunction, and the DNA adduct formation leads to carcinogenesis. The Keap1-Nrf2 system is a

mechanism of cytoprotection from such electrophilic insults. The extremely sensitive nature of several thiol residues of Keap1 to electrophiles enables the system to respond to the stimuli in the first place.

5.2.1 Characteristic Features of Nrf2 Inducers

The most important feature of gene expression regulated by Nrf2 is inducibility upon exposure to xenobiotic and oxidative stress (Fig. 5.3). Nrf2 is a short-lived protein with a half-life of approximately 20 min [37, 38]. Proteasomal inhibitors dramatically increase the amount of Nrf2 protein, indicating that Nrf2 is constantly degraded by the proteasome. While Nrf2 is hardly detected during unstressed conditions, the half-life of Nrf2 becomes longer, allowing easy detection of Nrf2 in nuclei, during stressed conditions [37, 39]. Xenobiotic and oxidative stress inhibit proteasome-dependent degradation of Nrf2. Stabilization of Nrf2 upon exposure to stress is critical for the inducible expression of many cytoprotective genes.

A common feature of the diverse substances that act on Nrf2 is electrophilicity (Fig. 5.4). Typical Nrf2 inducers are diethyl maleate (DEM), *tert*-butylhydroquinone (tBHQ), and sulforaphane (SFN), all of which are electrophilic. Many other electrophiles, including ebselen (Ebs) and 8-nitroguanosine 3', 5'-cyclic monophosphate (8-nitro-cGMP), have been shown to activate Nrf2 [40, 41]. Thus electrophiles can stabilize Nrf2, which allows Nrf2 to accumulate in nuclei and activate transcription.

5.2.2 Identification of Keap1

An important finding that led to the revelation of the molecular mechanism for how Nrf2 is stabilized by electrophiles originated from an analysis of the N-terminal region of Nrf2. Deletion of the N-terminal region of Nrf2 markedly enhances its transcriptional activity [42]. The N-terminal region corresponds to Nrf2-ECH homology 2 (Neh2), which is a highly homologous domain between human and chicken Nrf2. Nrf2 is divided into six domains, ranging from Neh1 to Neh6 [42] (Fig. 5.5A). Neh1 includes a bZIP motif and is involved in DNA binding, heterodimerization, and nuclear translocation. Neh4 and Neh5 are essential for strong transcriptional activity upon coactivator binding, such as CBP [43]. The Neh2 domain negatively regulates Nrf2 transcriptional activity.

The Kelch-like ECH associated protein 1 (Keap1) was identified as a novel cytoplasmic factor that interacts with the Neh2 domain of Nrf2 [42]. Keap1 is divided into three main parts (Fig. 5.5B). The BTB domain resides in the N-terminus, while the DC domain, which includes the double glycine repeat (DGR) and the carboxyl-terminal region (CTR), resides in the C-terminus. The region between the BTB and DC domains is called the intervening region (IVR). Molecular dissection of Nrf2 and Keap1 demonstrated that the Neh2 domain of Nrf2

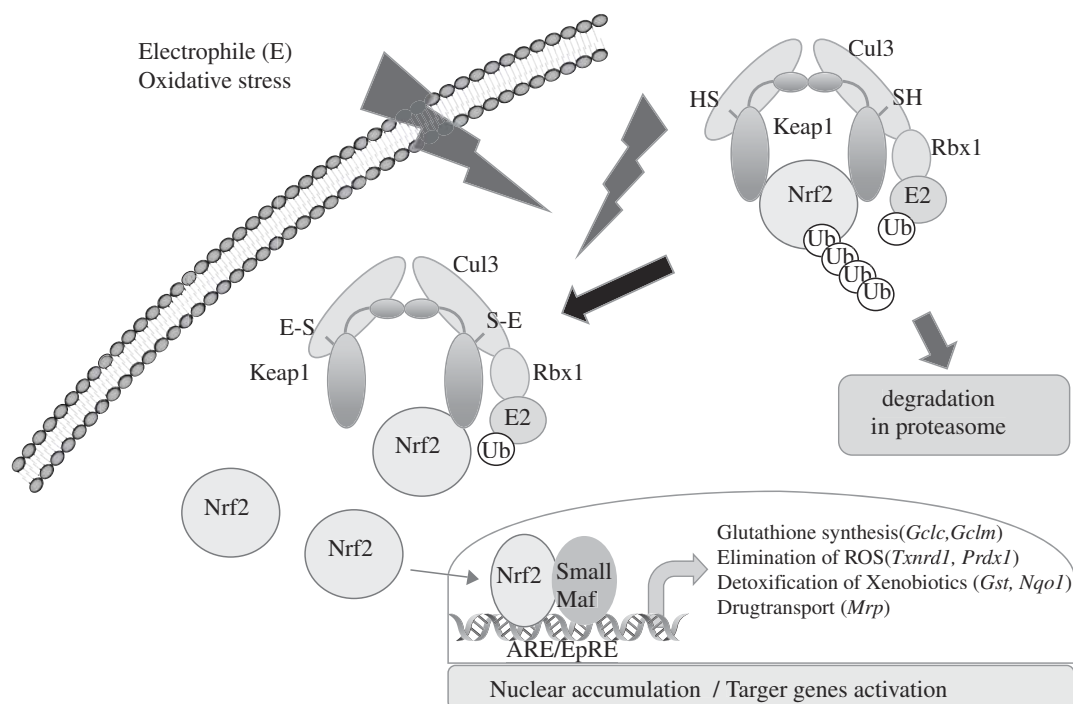


Fig. 5.3 The mechanism of Nrf2 activation in response to electrophiles and oxidative stress. In unstressed conditions, Nrf2 shows a rapid turnover due to ubiquitination and degradation via the proteasome. The Keap1-Cul3 complex serves as an E3 ubiquitin ligase for Nrf2. On exposure to electrophiles or oxidative stress, reactive thiols of Keap1 (-SH) are modified (-SE), resulting in a decline in enzymatic activity. Nrf2 is stabilized, and de novo synthesized Nrf2 translocates into nuclei, heterodimerizes with small Maf, and activates target genes encoding antioxidant proteins, detoxifying enzymes, and other cytoprotective proteins.

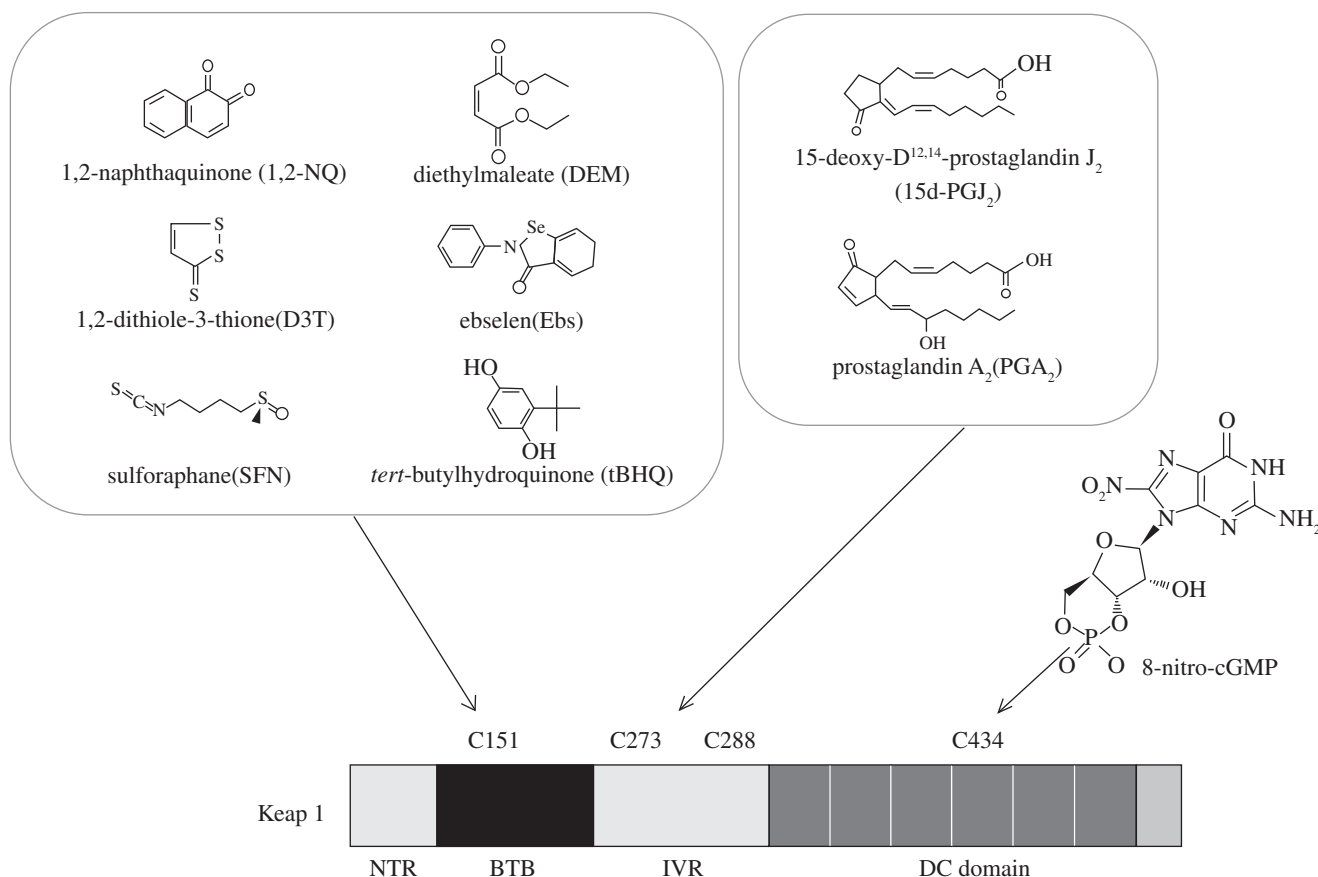


Fig. 5.4 Electrophile-induced Nrf2 activity and the Keap1 sensor system. Distinct cysteine residues are involved in sensing different types of electrophiles. Cys-151 is necessary for Keap1 to respond to a group of electrophiles. Bulky electrophiles, including 15d-PGJ₂ and PGA₂, are considered to target Cys-273 and Cys-288, while 8-nitro-cGMP modifies Cys-434.

interacts with the Keap1 DC domain [42]. An association between Keap1 and Nrf2 destabilizes Nrf2, inhibiting transcriptional activation of the stress response genes.

Keap1 is ubiquitously expressed in adult tissues, among which skin, the esophagus, and the forestomach display particularly abundant expression [44, 45]. An approximately 5.7-kbp region upstream of the mouse *Keap1* gene harbors the enhancer activity for recapitulating *Keap1* expression profiles in vivo [45]. A genomic fragment containing this region was utilized for expressing Keap1 or its mutant molecule in transgenic mice, which were then bred into the *Keap1*-null background to evaluate the function of the Keap1 mutant molecule in the *Keap1*-null background (see Section 5.2.5).

5.2.3 Nrf2 is the Most Substantial Target of Keap1

Disruption of the *Keap1* gene in mice revealed that Nrf2 is actually stabilized in the absence of Keap1. Subsequently, Nrf2 localizes to nuclei and activates target genes for cytoprotection. *Keap1*-null cells, which

constitutively express high levels of cytoprotective genes, were expected to be resistant to xenobiotic and oxidative stress, and *Keap1*-null mice were expected to survive under severely stressed conditions. However, the phenotype of *Keap1*-null mice was unexpected. Instead of making mice more resistant to stress, *Keap1* deletion caused lethality 3 weeks after birth, and mice displayed severe hyperkeratosis of the esophagus and forestomach [44]. The lack of nutrition was considered to be the primary cause of the death, because keratinocyte-specific deletion of the *Keap1* gene results in the same preweaning lethality [46]. Mice can survive to adulthood if they escape this feeding problem [47].

An intriguing notion emerged from the analysis of mice harboring the hypomorphic allele of *Keap1* (*Keap1*^{fllox}), in which the effect of the graded expression of Keap1 in vivo was examined [46]. Insertion of two loxP sequences into the *Keap1* locus for conditional disruption of the *Keap1* gene actually reduced expression of *Keap1*. *Keap1*^{fllox/-} mice displayed constitutive stabilization of Nrf2 in various tissues and were more resistant

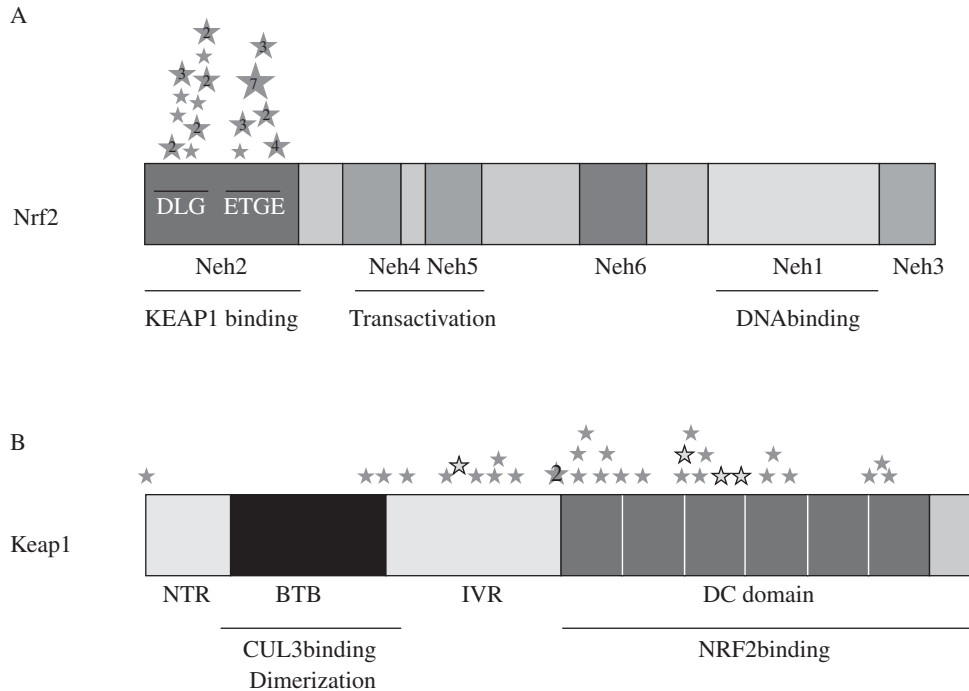


Fig. 5.5 The domain structures of Nrf2 and Keap1. (A) Nrf2 contains six well-conserved domains, Neh1 to Neh6. Neh2 is essential for binding to Keap1. Neh4 and Neh5 contribute to transactivation through interaction with CBP. Neh1 is involved in DNA binding and dimerization with small Mafs. Stars indicate the positions of amino acid substitution and deletion due to somatic mutations in the *NRF2* gene found in human cancers. When an amino acid is affected in more than two cases, the number of cases is shown in the star. All mutations are clustered within the DLG and ETGE motifs. The results of two reports are summarized [70, 71]. (B) Keap1 consists of a BTB domain, a DC (DGR and CTR) domain, and the IVR (between BTB and DC domain). The BTB domain contributes to homodimerization. BTB and IVR are involved in the interaction with Cul3. The DC domain is essential for the interaction with Nrf2. Stars without rims indicate the positions of amino acid substitution and deletion due to somatic mutations in the *KEAP1* gene found in human cancers. When an amino acid is affected in more than two cases, the number of cases is shown in the star. Stars with bold rims indicate the generation of stop codons due to somatic mutations, resulting in truncation of the KEAP1 protein. The results of six reports are summarized [68, 69, 72, 123, 124, 170].

to acetaminophen-induced liver toxicity than wild-type control mice. *Keap1*^{fllox/-}:Albumin-Cre mice, in which the *Keap1* gene is completely disrupted in liver, are not as resistant as hypomorphic *Keap1*^{fllox/-} mice. Thus the inducible and transient activation of Nrf2 is beneficial for cytoprotection, while constant and intense activation of Nrf2 seems to be disadvantageous [48].

Importantly, simultaneous disruption of the *Nrf2* gene completely rescued lethality in *Keap1*-null pups [44], suggesting that constitutive activation of Nrf2 is the cause of the death and that Nrf2 is the most substantial target of Keap1.

5.2.4 The Keap1-Nrf2 Complex for Nrf2 Degradation

Keap1 is responsible for the degradation of Nrf2 in unstressed conditions. Further studies revealed that Keap1 is an adaptor molecule of the Cullin 3-based ubiquitin E3 ligase [38, 49–51] (Fig. 5.3). Ubiquitination of Nrf2 is inhibited in the absence of Keap1, and,

consequently, Nrf2 is stabilized and accumulates in nuclei. In the absence of stimuli, low expression levels of Nrf2-dependent genes are maintained by the ubiquitin E3 ligase activity of the Keap1-Cul3 complex.

Structural and biochemical analyses revealed the molecular mechanisms of Nrf2 degradation. Keap1 homodimerizes through its BTB domain [52], and the overall structure of the homodimer resembles a “cherry-bob” [53] (Fig. 5.6A). The global structure of the cherry-bob is composed of a DC domain, the IVR and part of the BTB domain. A pair of Keap1 homodimers possesses two DC domains, in which one molecule of Nrf2 associates using two discrete motifs within the Neh2 domain, the ETGE and DLG motifs [54] (Fig. 5.6B). The two-site binding of Keap1 and Nrf2 seems to be beneficial for the ubiquitination and subsequent degradation of Nrf2 because seven lysine residues, which are targets of ubiquitination, are aligned at the same surface of the α -helix structure between the ETGE and DLG motifs.

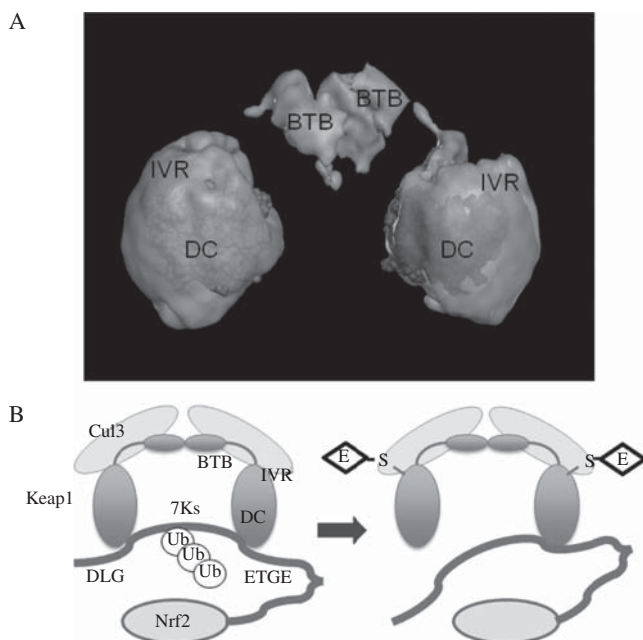


Fig. 5.6 The overall structure of the Keap1 homodimer and the regulation of Nrf2 activity by Keap1. (A) The three-dimensional structure of the Keap1 homodimer (cited from Ogura et al., *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*. 2010;2842-7, 107). (B) Interaction between Nrf2 and the Keap1-Cul3 complex under unstressed conditions (left) and stressed conditions in which thiols are modified with electrophiles (E) (right). Each DC domain of the Keap1 homodimer binds to the DLG and ETGE motifs in the Neh2 domain of Nrf2. Keap1 is proposed to interact with Cul3 at the BTB domain and the IVR. Nrf2 is polyubiquitinated at 7 lysine residues (7Ks) between the DLG and ETGE motifs (left). Modification of Keap1 with electrophiles is thought to alter the overall conformation of the Keap1-Cul3 and Nrf2 complex, which inhibits Nrf2 ubiquitination (right). (See color insert.)

5.2.5 Keap1 as a Sensor Molecule for Electrophiles

Upon exposure to xenobiotic and oxidative stress, Keap1 stops the ubiquitination of Nrf2. Stabilized Nrf2 translocates into nuclei, heterodimerizes with small Maf, and activates the transcription of target genes (Fig. 5.3). An important question is how the stimuli repress the E3 ligase activity of the Keap1-Cul3 complex.

Keap1 is a thiol-rich protein and possesses many reactive cysteine residues neighboring basic amino acids. Covalent binding of electrophiles to cysteine residues has been observed *in vitro* and *in vivo* by mass spectrometry [55, 56]. The significance of the cysteine residues to Keap1 function was demonstrated *in transfecto* [57, 58] and *in vivo* [45]. The contributions of Cys-151 in the BTB domain and Cys-273 and Cys-288 in the IVR to Keap1 function were the focus of the *in vivo* studies. Transgenic mice expressing a mutant Keap1 under the regulation of the endogenous *Keap1* gene regulatory region were generated and crossed into the *Keap1*-null background.

The *in vivo* contributions of each cysteine residue to Keap1 function was evaluated by this transgenic complementation rescue method. Alanine substitution of Cys-273 and Cys-288 abrogated the repressor function of Keap1, while serine substitution of Cys-151 did not affect the repressor function but impaired the responsiveness of Keap1 to a group of electrophiles [45] (Fig. 5.4). Thus Cys-273 and Cys-288 are essential for Keap1 to repress Nrf2 activity in unstressed conditions, while Cys-151 is essential for the response to electrophilic stimuli.

A more detailed analysis revealed that Keap1 senses various types of electrophiles utilizing distinct cysteine residues [59, 60] (Fig. 5.4). Many of the typical electrophiles, including DEM, tBHQ, SFN, Ebs, D3T, and 1,2-NQ, are sensed by Cys-151. Bulky electrophiles such as 15d-PGJ₂ and PGA₂ seem to attack Cys-273 and Cys-288. Cys-434 is involved in nitric oxide signaling [61]. Cys-226 and Cys-613, in addition to His-225, are critical for sensing metal ions such as Cd²⁺ and Zn²⁺ [60]. These results indicate that Keap1 is a multifaceted electrophile sensor. Diverse inputs to Keap1, which are sensed in multiple ways using discrete cysteine residues, are processed to a single output, namely, inhibition of Nrf2 ubiquitination and subsequent Nrf2 stabilization.

Keap1 possesses multiple thiols with a lower pK_a, as 10 μM 8-nitro-cGMP, one of the endogenous electrophiles generated downstream of nitric oxide, modifies Keap1 even in the presence of 10 mM glutathione [41]. This explains why Keap1 detects low electrophile concentrations within cells and serves as a sensitive sensor. Such sensitivity enables the Keap1-Nrf2 system to play a central role in the electrophile counterattack response for cell protection.

Modification of Keap1 alters the overall conformation of the Keap1-Nrf2 complex and/or alters the interaction between Keap1 and Cul3 [54, 62]. Because the affinity between the Neh2 DLG motif and the Keap1 DC domain is lower than that of the Neh2 ETGE motif and the Keap1 DC domain, modification of Keap1 appears to alter the conformation of the complex, which leads to dissociation of the weaker interaction between DLG and DC. The stronger interaction between ETGE and DC seems to be maintained, which is consistent with the finding that alanine substitution of Keap1 C273 and C288 abrogates its ability to degrade Nrf2 but retains its binding affinity to Nrf2 [63]. In addition, *de novo* synthesized Nrf2, and not Nrf2 dissociated from Keap1, translocates into the nucleus [63]. The “hinge and latch model” is one of the molecular mechanisms for Nrf2 stabilization following Keap1 modification [64] (Fig. 5.6B). Alternatively, Cul3 dissociates from Keap1 upon exposure to stimuli [62]. The electrophiles targeting Cys-151 seem to disrupt the Keap1-Cul3 interaction. Loss of the Cul3-Keap1 interaction results in a decline in Keap1-Cul3 E3 ligase activity.

5.2.6 Electrophile-Independent Activation of Nrf2

An analysis of *Nrf2*-null mice showed that the activation of Nrf2 by electrophiles is effective for the inhibition of carcinogenesis following a challenge with carcinogens [65] (Table 5.2). A field study in China proved that Nrf2 activation is potentially effective for cancer chemoprevention [66, 67]. Nrf2 activation is beneficial for reducing the risk of carcinogenesis because many detoxifying enzymes induced by Nrf2 promote the elimination of strong electrophiles that could easily attack nucleic acids and proteins to form carcinogenic adducts.

Therefore, it is surprising that Nrf2 is constitutively stabilized in several cancer cells independent of electrophilic stimuli. Somatic mutations of the *KEAP1* gene have been found in lung adenocarcinomas [68, 69], while somatic mutations in the *NRF2* gene have been mainly identified in squamous carcinomas of the lung [70] (Fig. 5.5). Since the early reports about lung cancers, somatic mutations of *KEAP1* and *NRF2* have been documented in various solid cancers [71–73]. Mutant *KEAP1* does not have the ability to ubiquitinate Nrf2, and, consequently, Nrf2 is constitutively stabilized. Intriguingly, *KEAP1* mutations often occur heterozygously, and heterozygous *KEAP1* mutations produce a dominant negative effect [68]. The cherry-bob structure and the two-site binding model offer a very rational explanation for this phenomenon [53, 74]. Keap1 exerts its function in the form of a dimer, and both Keap1 subunits need to be intact for the proper ubiquitination of Nrf2. A sophisticated study using a combination of *Keap1*-null mice and transgenic mice expressing wild-type and mutant Keap1 revealed that the heterodimer of wild-type Keap1 and mutant Keap1 is not functional as an adaptor for the E3 ubiquitin ligase [45]. Missense mutations in the *KEAP1* gene are one of the causes of the constitutive stabilization of Nrf2 (Fig. 5.5B).

Somatic mutations in the *NRF2* gene are another cause of the constitutive stabilization of Nrf2. Intriguingly, the DLG and ETGE motifs in the Neh2 domain, identified in the molecular dissection of Nrf2 protein, correspond to the hot spots of *NRF2* mutations in cancer cells [70]. Amino acid substitution in either the DLG or ETGE motifs results in inhibition of Nrf2 ubiquitination, which is consistent with the requirement for an intact two-site binding structure of the Keap1-Nrf2 complex for efficient ubiquitination of Nrf2 (Fig. 5.5A).

The third cause of the constitutive stabilization of Nrf2 is the repression of *KEAP1* gene expression by epigenetic mechanisms. DNA methylation of the *KEAP1* gene promoter has been observed frequently in several cancer cell lines [75, 76].

Although Keap1 and Nrf2 are functionally normal, several cases have been reported in which Nrf2 is

constitutively stabilized. The accumulation of certain proteins that disrupt the association between Keap1 and Nrf2 was found to be responsible for stabilizing Nrf2. One example of these proteins is p21^{Cip1/WAF1}. The C-terminal region of p21 associates with the DLG motif of Nrf2 [77], preventing the formation of the two-site Keap1-Nrf2 binding complex. Thus p21 facilitates Nrf2 stabilization and promotes the expression of cytoprotective genes, which explains the cytoprotective function of p21 [78]. Another example is p62, a polyubiquitin-binding protein, which targets various substrates for autophagy [79]. The STGE motif of p62 interacts with the Keap1 DC domain in a similar manner to that of the DLG motif of Nrf2 [80]. When autophagy is impaired, p62 accumulates and disrupts the formation of the two-site Keap1-Nrf2 binding complex, which leads to Nrf2 stabilization. Intriguingly, abnormal accumulation of p62 is often observed in various human pathological conditions [81, 82]. Whether Nrf2 makes any contributions, favorable or unfavorable, to this pathogenesis remains to be elucidated.

5.2.7 Posttranslational Modification of Nrf2

Several reports have demonstrated the posttranslational modification of Nrf2. Phosphorylation of Nrf2 has been shown to promote or repress Nrf2 activity depending on the context. Activation of protein kinase C (PKC) enhances Nrf2 activity and is accompanied by the phosphorylation of Nrf2 at Ser-40 [83, 84]. In contrast, GSK-3 β promotes nuclear exclusion of Nrf2 and the subsequent repression of the xenobiotic and antioxidant responses [85, 86]. Fyn kinase, activated by GSK-3 β , phosphorylates Nrf2 at Tyr-568, which induces nuclear export and degradation of Nrf2 and attenuates the expression of cytoprotective genes [87].

Nrf2 is also modified by acetylation. CBP/p300 directly binds and acetylates Nrf2 in response to arsenite-induced oxidative stress [88]. Lysine residues of the acetylation target reside within the Neh1 domain of Nrf2, which contains the bZIP motif for DNA binding and dimerization. Consistently, this modification compromised the DNA binding activity of Nrf2 in a promoter-specific manner. The Neh3 domain of Nrf2 was also shown to be acetylated, which affects the subcellular localization of Nrf2 [89].

5.3 NRF2 IN THE CNC-SMALL Maf TRANSCRIPTION FACTOR NETWORK

Stabilized Nrf2 due to the exposure to electrophilic stimuli translocates into the nucleus and forms a heterodimer with small Maf. Small Maf is an obligatory partner molecule of Nrf2, conferring DNA binding ability

and DNA recognition specificity. Functional deficiency of small Maf results in the summation of functional deficiency of each CNC protein. Because of the unique DNA recognition of small Maf, target genes regulated by CNC-small Maf heterodimer are distinct from those of other bZIP transcription factors including Jun and Fos families. Small Maf, being shared by all the CNC proteins, serves as a central node of the transcription factor network by CNC and small Maf proteins.

5.3.1 Small Maf Proteins as Heterodimerization Partners for Nrf2

Genetic evidence clarified the essential role of small Maf proteins as the heterodimeric partner molecules of CNC proteins, including Nrf2 [90–92]. Small Maf proteins comprise one of the subclasses of Maf family proteins. Maf proteins possess a unique bZIP motif accompanied by Maf-specific extended homology region (EHR) and bind to Maf recognition elements (MAREs; TGCTGA^{G(C)}/C_(G)TCAGCA) in the form of a homodimer [15] (Fig. 5.1 and Fig. 5.2). Large Maf proteins, for example, c-Maf, MafB, MafA, and NRL, additionally possess *trans*-activation domains in their N-terminal regions, whereas small Maf proteins, for example, MafG, MafK, and MafF, lack *trans*-activation domains. Small Maf homodimers thus repress transcription, while heterodimers composed of small Maf and CNC proteins with *trans*-activation domains activate transcription [93, 94]. CNC-small Maf heterodimers also bind to MAREs and related sequences including the ARE/EpRE and NF-E2 binding sites. A functional balance between the CNC and small Maf proteins may determine MARE-dependent transcription activity, ranging from repression to activation (Fig. 5.2B).

5.3.2 Small Maf Deficiency as the Summation of Each CNC Protein Deficiency

Because three small Maf proteins, MafF, MafG, and MafK, are highly homologous and functionally redundant, disruption of any single gene causes only a modest phenotype [90, 95, 96]. Double- or triple-mutant mice display more severe phenotypes, which are a composite of the phenotypes observed in mutant mice lacking each individual CNC protein. For example, small Maf-mutant mice display thrombocytopenia, neurodegeneration, and an impaired response to xenobiotic and oxidative stress [92, 97, 98]. The thrombocytopenia is characteristically observed in *NF-E2*-null mice [99]. The neurodegeneration is observed in neural tissue-specific *Nrf1*-null mice [100]. An impaired response to xenobiotic and oxidative stress is observed in *Nrf2*-null mice [8, 24]. Thus small Maf proteins are essential for CNC proteins to exert their activity as a transcription factor.

In addition to serving as a DNA-binding adaptor for the CNC proteins, small Maf plays additional roles in the regulation of the transcription activity of CNC proteins. Small Maf can be described as bidirectional in transcription, that is, it behaves as an activator or a repressor when it exists as a heterodimer with CNC or a homodimer, respectively (Fig. 5.2B). The latter function has been suggested to be dependent on the sumoylation of small Maf [101]. The former function requires proper subnuclear localization of the CNC-small Maf heterodimer, which is directed by the C-terminal region of small Maf [102]. Interestingly, the lysine residue for sumoylation and the C-terminal region for appropriate subnuclear targeting both reside outside of the bZIP motif, and their contributions are only detectable *in vivo*.

5.3.3 A Unique DNA Sequence Is Recognized by the Nrf2-Small Maf Heterodimer

As an obligatory heterodimeric partner molecule for CNC proteins, small Maf plays a critical role in the determination of the unique DNA binding specificity of the heterodimer [103]. A functional ARE/EpRE site characteristically requires the conserved GC sequence [GCNNN(G/C)TCA(T/C)] (Fig. 5.2A), which distinguishes the ARE/EpRE from the binding sequences of other bZIP transcription factors, including AP-1 [2].

The MARE is unique in terms of length. The complete MARE is a 13-bp [TGCTGA^G/C_(G)TCAGCA] or 14-bp [TGCTGA^{GC}/C_(G)TCAGCA] palindromic sequence that is bound by Maf homodimers, whereas the dimers of other bZIP transcription factors, including Jun/Fos (AP-1), CREB, and C/EBP, recognize 7- or 8-bp palindromic sequences, for example, the TPA(12-*o*-tetradecanoylphorbol 13-acetate)-responsive element (TRE; TGA^G/C_(G)TCA) or the cyclic AMP-responsive element (CRE; TGA^{GC}/C_(G)TCA) [104, 105] (Fig. 5.2A). The ARE/EpRE is regarded as a composite sequence with a half-site of the typical MARE and a half-site of the typical TRE. Small Maf and Nrf2 recognize the former and the latter portions, respectively [103]. Recognition of the GC bases flanking the core TRE or CRE is a unique feature of the small Maf-DNA interaction, which critically distinguishes the ARE/EpRE from a TRE or CRE.

The structural basis of the small Maf-DNA interaction was clarified through the crystallization of the bZIP motif of MafG and the MARE-containing DNA duplex [106]. Two structural components are specific to small Maf proteins. One is the presence of the EHR on the N-terminal side of the basic region, and the other is the tyrosine residue (Tyr-64) in the basic region, whose corresponding residue is alanine in other bZIP transcription factors (Fig. 5.7). The overall structure of MafG homodimers and DNA is almost identical to that of

AP-1 (c-Jun and c-Fos heterodimer), and the two Maf-specific components are not directly involved in the recognition of the GC bases outside of the TRE core. Maf-specific structural elements contribute to the unique orientation of the side chains of the invariant amino acids in the basic region, Arg-57 and Asn-61, which play direct roles in establishing unique DNA recognition specificity.

	GCN4	PAALKRARNTAAARRSRARKL
	ATF-4	KKLKKMEQNKTAATRYRQKKR
	c-Jun	KAERKMRNRRIAASKCRKRKL
	c-Fos	KRRIRREERNKMAAAKCRNRRR
CNC family	CNC	RD LRRRGKNKVAAQNCRCRKL
	NF-E2	RD IRRRGKNKVAAQNCRCRKL
	Nrf1	RD IRRRGKNKVAAQNCRCRKL
	Nrf2	RD IRRRGKNKVAAQNCRCRKL
	Nrf3	RD IRRRGKNKVAAQNCRCRKL
	Bach1	HD IRRRSKNRIAQAQRCRKRKL
	Bach2	HD IRRRSKNRIAQAQRCRKRKL
Maf Family	c-Maf	KQKRRTLKNRGYAQSCRFRV
	MafA	KQKRRTLKNRGYAQSCRFRV
	MafB	KQKRRTLKNRGYAQSCRYKRV
	Nrl	KQRRRTLKNRGYAQACRSKRL
	MafG	KQRRRTLKNRGYAASCRVKRV
	MafK	KQRRRTLKNRGYAASCRIRRV
	MafF	KQRRRTLKNRGYAASCRVKRV

Fig. 5.7 Alignment of the basic domains of various bZIP transcription factors. The tyrosine residue is unique to Maf family proteins and corresponds to the alanine residue of the other bZIP proteins.

Comprehensive measurement of the binding affinities to MARE and related sequences was performed using the MafG homodimer and the Nrf2-MafG heterodimer [103, 107]. The comparison between the two results revealed that the MARE-related sequences can be categorized into three groups: homodimer-oriented MAREs, heterodimer-oriented MAREs, and ambivalent MAREs (Fig. 5.8). Homodimer MAREs are considered to be the exclusive targets of Maf proteins, while heterodimer MAREs are considered to be the exclusive targets of CNC-small Maf. The ambivalent MAREs should be bound competitively by both homodimers and heterodimers (Fig. 5.8). However, the in vivo significance of MARE-related sequence categorization into three classes remains to be evaluated.

Interestingly, swapping the unique tyrosine residue of MafG and the corresponding alanine residue of Nrf2 resulted in the simultaneous swapping of DNA recognition specificity [108]. The Nrf2 A502Y-MafG heterodimer preferentially recognizes homodimer-oriented MAREs as well as ambivalent MAREs (Fig. 5.8). Comparison of the target genes of the Nrf2 A502Y-MafG heterodimer with those of the wild-type Nrf2-MafG heterodimer demonstrates the significance of the distinct DNA recognition specificity of the Maf homodimer and the CNC-Maf heterodimer.

5.3.4 Regulation of Small Maf Expression

Genes encoding the small Maf proteins, MafF, MafG, and MafK, are expressed in a wide range of tissues [90, 96, 109, 110]. Dissection of the regulatory region of the *MafK* gene led to a new concept in which ubiquitous

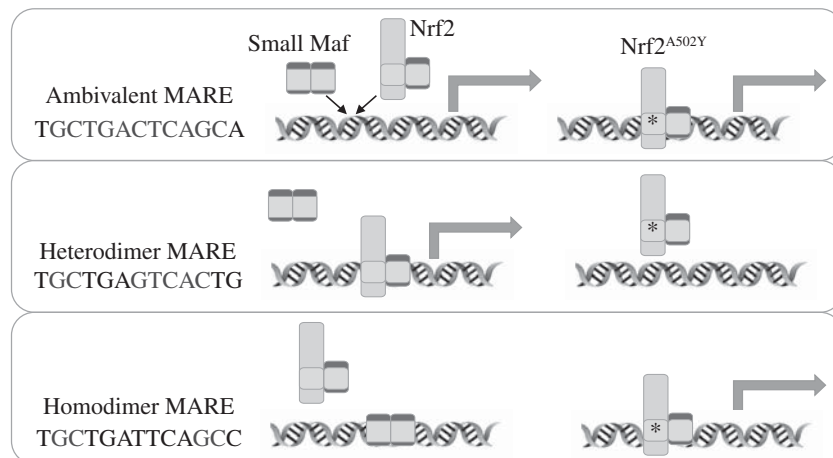


Fig. 5.8 Categorization of MARE-related sequences. Ambivalent MAREs are bound by both Nrf2-small Maf heterodimers and Maf homodimers. Heterodimer MAREs are preferentially bound by Nrf2-small Maf heterodimers, and homodimer MAREs are bound by Maf homodimers. Substitution of the alanine residue of the Nrf2 basic region with a tyrosine residue switches the DNA recognition specificity from the CNC type to the Maf type and results in the preferential binding of Nrf2 A502Y-small Maf heterodimers to homodimer MAREs and not to heterodimer MAREs. (See color insert.)

expression is achieved by the coordinate function of multiple tissue-specific enhancers rather than the activity of a single general enhancer [109, 111, 112]. Interestingly, many stimuli that induce Nrf2 activation enhance transcription of the *MafG* gene, including hydrogen peroxide, β -naphthoflavone, cadmium, zinc, and arsenite [113–115]. Consistently, the *MafG* gene possesses an ARE/EpRE in its promoter and is directly activated by Nrf2 [116], which constitutes a positive feedback loop. An increase in small Maf proteins must accompany Nrf2 stabilization for efficient use of the available Nrf2. The *MafG* gene is also induced by hypercapnic stimulation in the medulla oblongata by inhalation of 7% CO₂, where the central baroreceptive neurons are distributed [117]. Induction of the *MafG* gene is observed upon activation of the baroreceptors by the repressor agent phenylephrine [118]. The precise mechanism of *MafG* induction via these challenges in neural cells is still unknown.

5.4 DYSFUNCTION OF NRF2 IN PATHOLOGICAL CONDITIONS

Nrf2 dysfunction has been implicated in many pathological conditions. Functional impairment of Nrf2 is related to the susceptibility to exogenous chemical and physical insults and to the proinflammatory predisposition. Nrf2 inducers are beneficial for the treatment of these conditions. Naturally occurring electrophiles contained in vegetables and other synthetic drugs have been shown to be effective Nrf2 inducers. By contrast, aberrant hyperfunction of Nrf2 has been found in various human cancers. Nrf2 inhibitors, now under development, are expected to make promising anticancer drugs that increase the efficacy of chemotherapy and radiotherapy and inhibit the proliferation of cancer cells.

5.4.1 Dual Functions for Nrf2 in Cancer Pathology

Because Nrf2 is a key regulator of the inducible expression of detoxifying enzymes, chemical challenge produces more severe damage to *Nrf2*-null mice than to wild-type mice. One of the most obvious adverse effects in *Nrf2*-null mice is susceptibility to chemical carcinogenesis [23, 65, 119–122]. In the absence of Nrf2, elimination of highly reactive metabolites of chemicals is delayed, resulting in the increased formation of DNA adducts and the subsequent accumulation of DNA mutations. Nrf2 plays a protective role in carcinogenesis.

In contrast, Nrf2 expression in cancer cells contributes to malignant phenotypes during cancer progression and leads to a poor prognosis [70]. Somatic mutations in the *KEAP1* gene or the *NRF2* gene are found in a substantial portion of human cancers, including lung cancer,

gallbladder cancer, head and neck cancer, and breast cancer [68–70, 73, 123–125] (Fig. 5.5). Reduced expression of *KEAP1* due to DNA methylation of the promoter region of the gene has been reported in lung cancer and prostate cancer [75, 76]. These genetic and epigenetic alterations cause constitutive stabilization of Nrf2 and elevated expression of cytoprotective genes in cancer cells. Constitutive stabilization of Nrf2 and sustained expression of its target genes confer resistance to anticancer drugs, such as cisplatin, carboplatin, etoposide, and 5-fluorouracil [68–70] and irradiation [126].

A recent study demonstrated the protective role of Nrf2 against cancer metastasis [127]. Nrf2 activity in cells of hematopoietic origin, which are thought to be myeloid-derived suppressor cells, is critical to the inhibition of lung metastasis of cancer cells. Thus Nrf2 is a double-edged sword in cancer pathology; Nrf2 activation in the host is beneficial, while Nrf2 activation in the cancer is detrimental.

5.4.2 The Contribution of Nrf2 to Inflammatory Processes

The Keap1-Nrf2 system responds not only to xenobiotic electrophiles but also to endogenous electrophiles, including 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ (15d-PGJ₂) [128], 8-nitroguanosine 3',5-cyclic monophosphate (8-nitro-cGMP) [41, 61], 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE) [129], and the oxidation products of omega-3 fatty acids [130–132]. 15d-PGJ₂ is generated during inflammatory responses in which cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) plays a critical role. 8-Nitro-cGMP is generated in the process of nitric oxide signaling, and 4-HNE is one of the products of lipid peroxidation caused by ROS. Derivatives of omega-3 fatty acids, which have received much attention because of their anti-inflammatory nature, are produced in the resolution phase of inflammation. Thus Nrf2 should be activated in processes in which these signaling pathways are operative.

Indeed, Nrf2 plays a critical role in the resolution phase of inflammation, when COX-2 activity is increased [128]. Carrageenan-induced pleurisy is aggravated and prolonged in *Nrf2*-null mice. Pleural macrophages express high levels of COX-2 in the resolution phase of acute inflammation, which promotes the synthesis of 15d-PGJ₂. Subsequent activation of Nrf2 facilitates the remission of cell infiltration [128, 133]. Nrf2 deficiency confers a predisposition toward inflammation, resulting in the exacerbation of emphysematous changes following insults from cigarette smoke or elastase [19, 133–135] and of fibrotic changes following bleomycin exposure [136]. *Nrf2*-null mice also display susceptibility to ConA-induced acute inflammatory liver injury [137]. In many cases, ablation of *Nrf2* in

mice results in upregulation of proinflammatory cytokines, implying an excessive inflammatory reaction in *Nrf2*-null mice (Table 5.1).

5.4.3 Nrf2 in Cell Proliferation and Tissue Regeneration

Microarray experiments have revealed that Nrf2 regulates not only detoxifying enzymes and antioxidant proteins but also several factors promoting cell proliferation [138–140]. Constitutive activation of Nrf2 promotes cell proliferation [68, 69], while disruption of the *Nrf2* gene compromises cell proliferation [139]. *Nrf2*-null cells display impaired cell cycle progression accompanied by a reduction in the phosphorylation of Akt and the protein abundance of ERK2 and Stat3 [141]. Importantly, supplementation of glutathione rescued the impaired proliferation, the compromised cell cycle progression, and the reduced kinase activities of *Nrf2*-null cells [139, 141]. Nrf2 sustains a high rate of cell proliferation by replenishing glutathione efficiently.

A new role for Nrf2 has been implicated in the process of liver regeneration [142, 143]. *Nrf2*-null mice showed delayed initiation of liver regeneration and impaired Akt phosphorylation following transient activation of insulin signaling after hepatectomy [142]. Notch1 was found to be a Nrf2 target gene responsible for liver regeneration [143]. Hepatocyte-specific expression of the intracellular domain of Notch1 rescued the impaired liver regeneration in *Nrf2*-null mice.

5.5 CONCLUSION AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

Because Nrf2 confers resistance against electrophilic and oxidative stress, Nrf2 activation by chemical compounds and natural products is a promising strategy for disease prevention and therapy. Synthesized compounds and natural products that activate Nrf2 have been tested for cancer chemoprevention. Oltipraz, dithiolethiones, triterpenoids, curcumin, and sulforaphane have been reported to be effective Nrf2 inducers [144–147]. The pharmacological effects of these chemicals are mediated by Nrf2, and they are ineffective in the absence of Nrf2 [65, 119, 146, 148]. The most potent Nrf2 inducer that has been identified to date is CDDO-Im (1-[2-cyano-3, 12-dioxoooleana-1, 9(11)-dien-28-oyl]imidazole), a synthetic triterpenoid. The effective dose of CDDO-Im for the prevention of carcinogen-induced hepatic and lung tumors is much lower than that of sulforaphane and oltipraz [148, 149]. In addition, administration of CDDO-Im attenuates cisplatin-induced renal damage [150], retinal injuries [151], and hyperoxia- and smoke-induced lung injuries [152, 153].

In contrast to Nrf2 inducers, few specific inhibitors of Nrf2, which are expected to be beneficial for anticancer therapy, have been reported. One of the most difficult but important issues in the development of Nrf2 inhibitors is how to achieve specificity. Recently, a compound purified from plant extracts, brusatol, was found to enhance the degradation of Nrf2 and inhibit Nrf2-mediated stress response and tumor growth [154]. The development of Nrf2 inhibitors based on the molecular mechanism of the Keap1-Nrf2 system is one of the most critical and challenging tasks in the development of effective therapies for cancer.

Another important issue that needs to be pursued is the cross talk between the redox response of Keap1 and other signaling pathways in the activation of Nrf2-mediated transcription. Activation of Nrf2 appears to be regulated by phosphorylation-signaling pathways, including mitogen-activated protein kinases (MAPKs), phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K), PKC, and casein kinase 2 (CK2) [155]. Ser40 and Tyr568 have been identified as phosphorylation sites of Nrf2 by PKC and the tyrosine kinase Fyn, respectively [83, 84, 87, 129]. p21 and p62 were identified as nonelectrophilic, endogenous inducers of Nrf2 [77, 80]. The former is a target gene of p53-mediated cell cycle arrest, and the latter is a polyubiquitin-binding protein targeting various substrates for autophagy. Elucidation of the physiological and pathological significance of the interaction between these pathways and the Keap1-Nrf2 system is an important future goal for the attainment of an overall understanding of mammalian stress response signaling.

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