

Ribonucleases as Novel Chemotherapeutics

The Ranpirnase Example

J. Eugene Lee^{1,2} and Ronald T. Raines^{1,3}

1 Department of Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

2 Division of Biology, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California, USA

3 Department of Chemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison, Madison, Wisconsin, USA

Contents

Abstract	53
1. History of Ranpirnase	54
2. Biochemical Attributes of Ranpirnase	54
3. Mechanism of Ranpirnase-Mediated Cytotoxicity	55
3.1 Cytosolic Internalization	55
3.2 Degradation of Cellular RNA and Induction of Apoptosis	55
3.3 Basis for Therapeutic Index	56
4. Therapeutic Applications	56
5. Engineering Ranpirnase and Future Directions	56
6. Conclusions	56

Abstract

Ranpirnase, a cytotoxic ribonuclease from the frog *Rana pipiens*, is the archetype of a novel class of cancer chemotherapeutic agents based on homologs and variants of bovine pancreatic ribonuclease (RNase A). Ranpirnase in combination with doxorubicin is in clinical trials for the treatment of unresectable malignant mesothelioma and other cancers. The putative mechanism for ranpirnase-mediated cytotoxicity involves binding to anionic components of the extracellular membrane, cytosolic internalization, and degradation of transfer RNA leading to apoptosis. The maintenance of ribonucleolytic activity in the presence of the cytosolic ribonuclease inhibitor protein is a key aspect of the cytotoxic activity of ranpirnase. The basis for its specific toxicity for cancer cells is not known. This review describes the development of ranpirnase as a cancer chemotherapeutic agent.

RNA is the intermediate in the flow of biochemical information from genes to proteins (figure 1). Accordingly, intervention in the metabolism of RNA presents an opportunity for the development of chemotherapeutic agents.^[1] Since the 1980s, antisense oligonucleotides and ribozymes have been pursued as the basis for treatments of viral infections, inflammatory disorders, hematological diseases, and cancer.^[2-4] In 1998, the phosphorothioate antisense oligonucleotide fomivirsen was approved by the US FDA for the treatment of cytomegalovirus retinitis in immunocompromised patients.^[5] More recently, manipulation of the RNA interference machinery has garnered much interest as a basis for drug

development,^[6-8] though the safety of this approach is a concern.^[9,10]

Ribonucleases also have potential therapeutic utility.^[11-15] These proteins are efficient catalysts of RNA cleavage, acting in effect as RNA depolymerases.^[16] Much interest has focused on homologs and variants of bovine pancreatic ribonuclease (RNase A), which is renowned as a model system in protein biochemistry.^[17] RNase A itself is not cytotoxic. In contrast, bovine seminal ribonuclease, which is a homodimer, is endowed with antitumoral, immunosuppressive, and antiviral activities.^[18] Ranpirnase (which is also known as P-30 protein) is an amphibian homolog that has marked toxicity for tumor cells,^[19] and is the

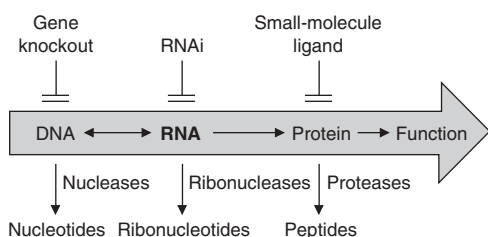


Fig. 1. Flow of chemical information in biology. Ribonucleases can be cytotoxic because their degradation of RNA renders genetic information indecipherable. **RNAi** = RNA interference.

only ribonuclease to have been studied in a human clinical trial.^[20,21] Here we review the structure and function of ranpirnase, which has become the archetype of a new class of cancer chemotherapeutic agent.^[22]

1. History of Ranpirnase

In the early 1970s, Shogen and Yoan^[23] discovered that extracts from embryos of the Northern Leopard frog (*Rana pipiens*) have antitumoral activity. Nearly two decades later, Ardelt et al.^[24] attributed that activity to a basic protein, ranpirnase (meaning, *Rana pipiens ribonuclease*), which belongs to the RNase A superfamily.^[25] In oocytes, ranpirnase localizes with yolk proteins.^[26] It has been postulated that ranpirnase is synthesized in the liver of female frogs in a seasonal manner, and then secreted into the blood and deposited in oocytes as they mature.^[27] There and in embryos, ranpirnase has been speculated to play a role in host defense.^[26]

Ranpirnase is both cytotoxic and cytostatic toward cultured tumor cells and inhibits the growth of xenograft tumors in mice.^[28,29] Currently, ranpirnase in combination with doxorubicin is in a confirmatory phase IIIb clinical trial for the treatment of unresectable malignant mesothelioma, a cancer associated with exposure to asbestos.^[20,21] Moreover, ranpirnase has been granted both orphan-drug and fast-track status by the FDA.

2. Biochemical Attributes of Ranpirnase

The amino acid sequence of ranpirnase was determined in 1991,^[24] and its 3-dimensional structure was reported 3 years later.^[30] Ranpirnase is a relatively small enzyme, with a molecular formula of C₅₂₀H₈₁₀N₁₄₂O₁₅₅S₉ and a molecular mass of 11 820 Da. The active site of ranpirnase contains the catalytic triad (His10, Lys31, and His97) that is characteristic of the RNase A superfamily.^[31] Ranpirnase possesses two additional active-site residues: Lys9 and an N-terminal pyroglutamate residue, which is formed by the co-translational cyclization of the encoded glutamine residue in the endoplasmic reticulum.^[32] Like other members of the RNase A superfamily, ranpirnase catalyzes the cleavage of

the P–O^{5'} bond on the 3' side of a pyrimidine nucleobase in an RNA strand.

The ribonucleolytic activity of ranpirnase is necessary for its cytotoxicity. A decrease in ribonucleolytic activity leads to a corresponding reduction in cytotoxicity.^[24] Although ranpirnase assumes the kidney-shaped tertiary structure that is typical of the RNase A superfamily (figure 2)^[30,33] and has the key catalytic residues, its value of k_{cat}/K_M (which is the second-order rate constant and thus a measure of catalytic efficiency) is 10⁴-fold less than that of RNase A for cleavage of their best known substrates under similar conditions.^[34] A low affinity for its substrate contributes to its low k_{cat}/K_M value. In addition, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy and molecular dynamics simulations have revealed that ranpirnase has an extremely rigid β -sheet,^[35,36] which could deter an 'induced fit'^[37] necessary for substrate binding and turnover.

The substrate specificity of ranpirnase can be considered on two levels. On the nucleobase level, ranpirnase prefers to cleave the phosphodiester bond on the 5' side of a guanine. This preference is in marked contrast to that of RNase A, which has little preference for guanine versus adenine at this position. In the cell, transfer RNA (tRNA) has been reported to be the main target for ranpirnase.^[39] The cleavage of tRNA occurs at the guanosine-guanosine bond in the variable loop or D-arm.^[40] The revelation of the atomic structure of a ranpirnase-nucleic acid complex has provided insight into the structural basis for this substrate specificity.^[38]

A notable feature of ranpirnase is its extraordinary conformational stability. Ranpirnase has a T_m value of 87°C (which is the temperature at the midpoint of the thermal transition between folded and unfolded states and thus a measure of conformational

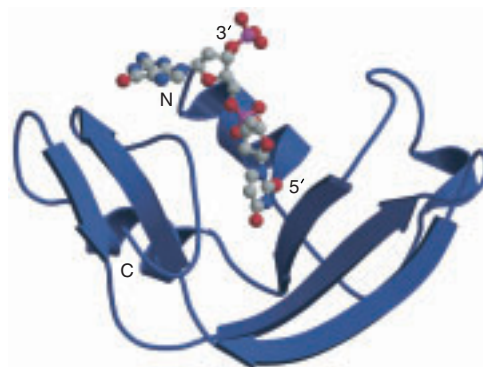


Fig. 2. Ribbon diagram of the 3-dimensional structure of a crystalline ranpirnase-nucleic acid (dAdUdGdA) complex (PDB entry 215S).^[38] The N- and C-termini of the protein, and 3'- and 5'-termini of the nucleic acid, are noted explicitly. The image was created with the programs MOLSCRIPT (Avatar Software AB, Stockholm) and RASTER3D (D.J. Bacon and W.F. Anderson, <http://skuld.bmsc.washington.edu/raster3d/raster3d.html>).^[33]

stability) and resists degradation by various proteases.^[41] The exceptional conformational stability of ranpirnase is largely because of its tethered C-terminus, created by a C-terminal half-cystine residue.^[42] This synapomorphic C-terminal disulfide bond is conserved in amphibian ribonucleases but is absent from mammalian homologs.^[31] The hydrogen-bond network at the N-terminus^[41] and the absence of a *cis*-proline residue^[43] also contribute to the conformational stability of the enzyme. This exceptional stability is critical for cytotoxicity. Variants of ranpirnase with reduced conformational stability have less cytotoxic activity.^[41,42] On the other hand, glycosylation of ranpirnase at its consensus N-linked glycosylation site (Asn69-Val70-Thr71) increases both conformational stability and cytotoxic activity.^[44]

3. Mechanism of Ranpirnase-Mediated Cytotoxicity

Ranpirnase is an atypical biodrug in that it is administered extracellularly but acts intracellularly. To exert its antitumoral effect, ranpirnase must reach the cytosol and there cleave RNA substrates. The generally accepted mechanism of ranpirnase-mediated cytotoxicity is divided into two major stages (as depicted in figure 3): (i) cytosolic internalization; and (ii) catalytic degradation of RNA.^[45]

3.1 Cytosolic Internalization

The first step for the cytosolic internalization of ranpirnase is its binding to the cell surface. The existence of low- and high-affinity ranpirnase receptors on the cell surface has been reported,^[46] but other findings contradict their existence.^[47] The cell surface is highly anionic due to the abundance of sulfate, phosphate, and carboxylate groups of its carbohydrates and lipids. It is probable that ranpirnase, which is a highly cationic protein with a calculated isoelectric point of >9.5 ,^[24] binds to the cell surface through favorable Coulombic interactions.

After binding to the cell surface, ranpirnase is internalized through energy-dependent endocytosis. The role of the GTPase dynamin in this process is under investigation.^[47,48] Internalized ranpirnase is routed to endosomes. Drugs that disrupt retrograde transport from the *trans*-Golgi network to the endoplasmic reticulum potentiate the cytotoxicity of ranpirnase.^[47-49] These and other results suggest that the *trans*-Golgi network is an inefficient site for the translocation of ranpirnase, and that endosomes are a key compartment for cytotoxic delivery.

The means by which ranpirnase, which is extremely hydrophilic, ultimately crosses a lipid bilayer is not understood. To facilitate successful entry into the cell, the diphtheria toxin and ricin proteins utilize a distinct translocation domain, which dissociates from a catalytic domain upon cytosolic entry. In contrast,

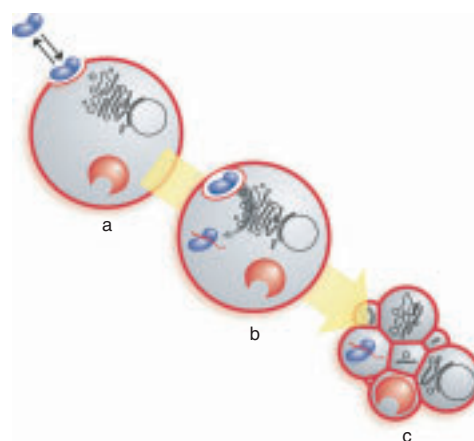


Fig. 3. Putative mechanism of ranpirnase-mediated cytotoxicity.^[45] Cationic and anionic biomolecules are depicted in blue and red, respectively. (a) Ranpirnase (blue) forms an extracellular equilibrium complex with cell-surface heparan sulfate (red); (b) ranpirnase is internalized by endocytosis, translocates to the cytosol, evades the ribonuclease inhibitor protein (red horseshoe), and degrades transfer RNA (tRNA; red line); and (c) tRNA degradation leads to apoptosis.

ranpirnase is a hyperstable, single-domain protein, which remains intact during its endocytosis. The mechanism of ranpirnase translocation could be related to that used by cationic peptides, such as residues 47–57 of the HIV-1 TAT protein and nonaarginine.^[50]

3.2 Degradation of Cellular RNA and Induction of Apoptosis

Once in the cytosol, ranpirnase degrades cellular RNA. Ranpirnase is an unusual homolog of RNase A in that it seems to evade completely the cytosolic ribonuclease inhibitor protein (RI).^[51,52] RI is a 50-kD protein present in every surveyed mammalian cell. RI is composed of 15 leucine-rich repeats, a motif that often participates in protein-protein interactions.^[53] RI binds to certain members of the RNase A superfamily with femtomolar affinity, and renders them inactive. The complex formed by human RI and human pancreatic ribonuclease is among the tightest known in biology ($K_d = 2.9 \times 10^{-16}$ mol/L).^[54] The ability of ranpirnase to evade RI is likely to be necessary for its cytotoxic activity, as non-cytotoxic mammalian ribonucleases become cytotoxic by incorporating residues that enable RI evasion.^[54,55] Moreover, the cytotoxicity of variants correlates with their RI-evading ability.^[56]

In the cell, the ribonucleolytic activity of ranpirnase is directed predominantly towards tRNA, leaving ribosomal RNA (rRNA) and messenger RNA (mRNA) largely intact.^[39] The basis for this specificity is not understood, though bound proteins could protect rRNA and mRNA from ranpirnase cleavage. The susceptibility of

non-coding RNA, such as microRNA or small-interfering RNA (siRNA), to ranpirnase cleavage is unknown.

Degradation of tRNA by ranpirnase inhibits protein synthesis in the cell and leads to apoptosis.^[57,58] The cytotoxic effect of ranpirnase becomes noticeable after a longer incubation (≈ 48 h, *in vitro*) than required for drugs that block translation, such as cycloheximide (≈ 2 h). In addition, ranpirnase-induced apoptosis does not require the high level of translation inhibition observed with cycloheximide, suggesting that the inhibition of protein synthesis is not the sole cause of ranpirnase-induced apoptosis.^[59] In HeLa cells, ranpirnase-induced cytotoxicity is initiated with the activation of the stress-activated c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK), followed by the activation of caspase-9, which activates the executioner caspase-3 and -7. Caspase-8 or the tumor-suppressor protein p53 are not required in this pathway.^[60] Other studies with the HL-60 leukemic cell line implicate the activation of serine proteases along with these caspases.^[61] The induced apoptosis is enhanced by mild hyperthermia.^[62]

3.3 Basis for Therapeutic Index

Ranpirnase is more toxic to tumor cells than to normal cells *in vitro* and *in vivo*. The mechanism for this selectivity is unknown, but a promising hypothesis is that ranpirnase is selectively internalized by tumor cells. In general, tumor cells are more negatively charged than are homologous normal cells.^[63,64] Moreover, the level of sialic acid-rich gangliosides is greater and the phospholipid content is altered in certain tumor cells.^[65,66] The elevated anionic character of tumor cells could promote their interaction with the highly cationic ranpirnase. Other viable hypotheses include a different and more efficient intracellular routing of ranpirnase to the cytosol in tumor cells, and a greater susceptibility of rapidly growing tumor cells to RNA degradation.

4. Therapeutic Applications

In vitro, ranpirnase has been shown to be cytotoxic/cytostatic to a range of cell lines, including 9L rat glioma,^[46] K-562 human leukemia,^[34,42] Colo 320 CM human colon adenocarcinoma,^[28] HL-60 human leukemia,^[67] LNCaP and JCA-1 human prostate cancer,^[67] HT-29 human colorectal cancer,^[68] and U937 human lymphoma cell lines.^[69] Typical 50%-inhibitory concentrations (IC₅₀) for the proliferation of 9L rat glioma^[28,46] and K-562 human leukemia cells^[34] are near 10^{-7} mol/L. Concomitant administration of ranpirnase with tamoxifen,^[70,71] cisplatin,^[71] or vincristine^[68] results in increased toxicity. In combination with vincristine, ranpirnase has shown toxicity against multidrug-resistant tumors.^[68] *In vivo*, ranpirnase treatment has prolonged the survival of mice transplanted with human^[68,72] and murine tumors.^[73,74]

Ranpirnase has been administered as a single agent in two phase I clinical studies to determine the optimal dose and schedule in patients with various solid tumors.^[20,75] These phase I studies indicated that ranpirnase is well tolerated. The maximum tolerated dose was $960 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2$, and the recommended dose for phase II studies was $480 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^2/\text{week}$. Ranpirnase has been evaluated in phase II clinical trials as a single agent in patients with non-small-cell lung cancer,^[76] breast cancer,^[77] renal cell cancer,^[78] and malignant mesothelioma.^[79] The largest phase II trial for ranpirnase was in patients with malignant mesothelioma. Among 81 patients who were evaluated for tumor response, 41 patients showed a decrease in tumor progression, which justified subsequent phase III studies on this tumor type. In the initial phase III studies, 154 patients were treated with either ranpirnase (84 patients) or doxorubicin (70 patients). In these studies, ranpirnase treatment provided markedly increased survival compared with doxorubicin treatment.^[20,21] Reversible renal toxicity was the major adverse effect. The current confirmatory phase IIIb study is an open-label, multicenter, and international study, with the goal of comparing the efficacy of ranpirnase plus doxorubicin versus doxorubicin alone.^[20,21]

5. Engineering Ranpirnase and Future Directions

There have been attempts to endow ranpirnase with increased toxicity toward tumor cells. Nearly all non-Hodgkin lymphoma cells display a specific cell-surface receptor, CD-22. A human monoclonal antibody against CD-22 has been covalently linked to ranpirnase.^[80] This fusion protein was 10^4 -fold more toxic to non-Hodgkin lymphoma cells than was wild-type ranpirnase because of increased binding to the tumor cells. In addition, this protein showed enhanced potency and specificity along with decreased systemic toxicity in mice.

The ribonucleolytic activity of ranpirnase is 10^4 -fold lower than that of other mammalian homologs.^[34] Accordingly, it could be both possible and advantageous to engineer ranpirnase with greater ribonucleolytic activity without compromising other attributes required for its cytotoxicity, such as cationicity, RI evasion, and conformational stability. Either enhancing substrate binding or alleviating β -sheet rigidity could yield variants with increased ribonucleolytic activity and, hence, greater chemotherapeutic efficacy.

6. Conclusions

Ranpirnase is a cytotoxic ribonuclease that affords a novel strategy for cancer chemotherapy. Ranpirnase is internalized by tumor cells and degrades tRNA, which leads to the inhibition of protein synthesis and apoptosis. The cationicity and maintenance

of ribonucleolytic activity in the presence of RI are critical for its cytotoxicity. The efficacy of ranpirnase can be augmented by other cytotoxic agents such as doxorubicin, and a confirmatory phase IIIb clinical trial for the treatment of malignant mesothelioma is ongoing. Emerging knowledge on the mechanism of action of ranpirnase could aid in the development of other ribonucleases, including those from mammals, as cancer chemotherapeutic agents.

Acknowledgments

Work in the Raines laboratory on ribonucleases is supported by grant CA073808 (NIH). We are grateful to R.F. Turcotte and T.-Y. Chao for comments on the manuscript. The authors have no conflicts of interest that are directly relevant to the content of this review.

References

- Tafech A, Bassett T, Sparanese D, et al. Destroying RNA as a therapeutic approach. *Curr Med Chem* 2006; 13: 863-81
- Sloud M. Ribozymes and siRNAs: from structure to preclinical applications. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 2006; 173: 223-42
- Schubert S, Kurreck J. Oligonucleotide-based antiviral strategies. *Handb Exp Pharmacol* 2006; 173: 261-87
- Rayburn ER, Wang H, Zhang R. Antisense-based cancer therapeutics: are we there yet? *Expert Opin Emerg Drugs* 2006; 11: 337-52
- Roehr B. Forivirsens approved for CMV retinitis. *J Int Assoc Physicians AIDS Care* 1998; 4: 14-6
- Bumcrot D, Manoharan M, Kotliansky V, et al. RNAi therapeutics: a potential new class of pharmaceutical drugs. *Nat Chem Biol* 2006; 2: 711-9
- Aagaard L, Rossi JJ. RNAi therapeutics: principles, prospects and challenges. *Adv Drug Deliv Rev* 2007; 59: 75-86
- Kim DH, Rossi JJ. Strategies for silencing human disease using RNA interference. *Nat Rev Genet* 2007; 8: 173-84
- Grimm D, Streetz KL, Jopling CL, et al. Fatality in mice due to oversaturation of cellular microRNA/short hairpin RNA pathways. *Nature* 2006; 441: 537-41
- Marsden PA. RNA interference as potential therapy: not so fast. *New Engl J Med* 2006; 355: 953-4
- Matoušek J. Ribonucleases and their antitumor activity. *Comp Biochem Physiol* 2001; 129C: 175-91
- Leland PA, Raines RT. Cancer chemotherapy: ribonucleases to the rescue. *Chem Biol* 2001; 8: 405-13
- Makarov AA, Ilinskaya ON. Cytotoxic ribonucleases: molecular weapons and their targets. *FEBS Lett* 2003; 540: 15-20
- Benito A, Ribó M, Vilanova M. On the track of antitumor ribonucleases. *Mol Biosyst* 2005; 1: 294-302
- Arnold U, Ulbrich-Hofmann R. Natural and engineered ribonucleases as potential cancer therapeutics. *Biotechnol Lett* 2006; 28: 1615-22
- D'Alessio G, Riordan JF, editors. Ribonucleases: structures and functions. New York: Academic Press, 1997
- Raines RT. Ribonuclease A. *Chem Rev* 1998; 98: 1045-65
- D'Alessio G, Di Donato A, Mazzarella L, et al. Seminal ribonuclease: the importance of diversity. In: D'Alessio G, Riordan JF, editors. Ribonucleases: structures and functions. New York: Academic Press, 1997: 383-423
- Matoušek J, Souček J, Slavík T, et al. Comprehensive comparison of the cytotoxic activities of Onconase and bovine seminal ribonuclease. *Comp Biochem Physiol* 2003; 136C: 343-56
- Costanzi J, Sidransky D, Navon A, et al. Ribonucleases as a novel pro-apoptotic anticancer strategy: review of the preclinical and clinical data for ranpirnase. *Cancer Invest* 2005; 23: 643-50
- Pavlakakis N, Vogelzang NJ. Ranpirnase, an antitumor ribonuclease: its potential role in malignant mesothelioma. *Expert Opin Biol Ther* 2006; 6: 391-9
- Saxena SK, Shogen K, Ardel W. Onconase® and its therapeutic potential. *Lab Med* 2003; 34: 380-7
- Shogen K, Yoan WK. Antitumor activity in extracts of Leopard frog (*Rana pipiens*) embryos. 27th Annual Eastern Colleges Science Conference; 1973 Apr 28; State College (PA).
- Ardelt W, Mikulski SM, Shogen K. Amino acid sequence of an anti-tumor protein from *Rana pipiens* oocytes and early embryos. *J Biol Chem* 1991; 266: 245-51
- Dyer KD, Rosenberg HF. The RNase A superfamily: generation of diversity and innate host defense. *Mol Divers* 2006; 10: 585-97
- Liao YD, Wang JJ. Yolk granules are the major compartment for bullfrog (*Rana catesbeiana*) oocyte-specific ribonuclease. *Eur J Biochem* 1994; 222: 215-20
- Chen S, Le SY, Newton DL, et al. A gender-specific mRNA encoding a cytotoxic ribonuclease contains a 3' UTR of unusual length and structure. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2000; 28: 2375-82
- Darzynkiewicz Z, Carter SP, Mikulski SM, et al. Cytostatic and cytotoxic effect of Pannon (P-30 protein), a novel anticancer agent. *Cell Tissue Kinet* 1988; 21: 169-82
- Lee I, Kalota A, Gewirtz AM, et al. Antitumor efficacy of the cytotoxic RNase, ranpirnase, on A549 human lung cancer xenografts of nude mice. *Anticancer Res* 2007; 27: 299-307
- Mosimann SC, Ardel W, James MNG. Refined 1.7 Å x-ray crystallographic structure of P-30 protein, an amphibian ribonuclease with anti-tumor activity. *J Mol Biol* 1994; 236: 1141-53
- Raines RT. Active site of ribonuclease A. In: Zenkova MA, editor. Artificial nucleases. Heidelberg: Springer, 2004: 19-32
- Welker E, Hathaway L, Xu G, et al. Oxidative folding and N-terminal cyclization of Onconase. *Biochemistry* 2007; 46: 5485-93
- Merritt EA, Murphy MEP. Raster3D Version 2.0, a program for photorealistic molecular graphics. *Acta Crystallogr D Biol Crystallogr* 1994; 50: 869-73
- Lee JE, Raines RT. Contribution of active-site residues to the function of Onconase, a ribonuclease with antitumor activity. *Biochemistry* 2003; 42: 11443-50
- Gorbatyuk VY, Tsai CK, Chang CF, et al. Effect of N-terminal and Met23 mutations on the structure and dynamics of Onconase. *J Biol Chem* 2004; 279: 5772-80
- Merlino A, Mazzarella L, Carannante A, et al. The importance of dynamic effects on the enzyme activity: x-ray structure and molecular dynamics of Onconase mutants. *J Biol Chem* 2005; 280: 17953-60
- Koshland DE. Application of a theory of enzyme specificity to protein synthesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1958; 44: 98-104
- Lee JE, Bae E, Bingman CA, et al. Structural basis for catalysis by Onconase. *J Mol Biol* 2008; 375: 165-77
- Saxena SK, Sirdeshmukh R, Ardel W, et al. Entry into cells and selective degradation of tRNAs by a cytotoxic member of the RNase A family. *J Biol Chem* 2002; 277: 15142-6
- Suhasini AN, Sirdeshmukh R. Transfer RNA cleavages by Onconase reveal unusual cleavage sites. *J Biol Chem* 2006; 281: 12201-9
- Notomista E, Catanzano F, Graziano G, et al. Onconase: an unusually stable protein. *Biochemistry* 2000; 39: 8711-8
- Leland PA, Staniszewski KE, Kim B-M, et al. A synapomorphic disulfide bond is critical for the conformational stability and cytotoxicity of an amphibian ribonuclease. *FEBS Lett* 2000; 477: 203-7
- Arnold U, Schulenburg C, Schmidt D, et al. Contribution of structural peculiarities of Onconase to its high stability and folding kinetics. *Biochemistry* 2006; 45: 3580-7
- Kim B-M, Kim H, Raines RT, et al. Glycosylation of Onconase increases its conformational stability and toxicity for cancer cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2004; 315: 976-83
- Johnson RJ, Chao T-Y, Lavis LD, et al. Cytotoxic ribonucleases: the dichotomy of Coulombic forces. *Biochemistry* 2007 Sep 11; 46 (36): 10308-16
- Wu Y, Mikulski SM, Ardel W, et al. A cytotoxic ribonuclease: study of the mechanism of Onconase cytotoxicity. *J Biol Chem* 1993; 268: 10686-93
- Hagis MC, Raines RT. Secretory ribonucleases are internalized by a dynamin-independent endocytic pathway. *J Cell Sci* 2003; 116: 313-24
- Rodriguez M, Torrent G, Bosch M, et al. Intracellular pathway of Onconase that enables its delivery to the cytosol. *J Cell Sci* 2007; 120: 1405-11

49. Wu Y, Saxena SK, Ardel B, et al. A study of the intracellular routing of cytotoxic ribonucleases. *J Biol Chem* 1995; 270: 17476-81
50. Fuchs SM, Raines RT. Internalization of cationic peptides: the road less (or more?) traveled. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 2006; 63: 1819-22
51. Haigis MC, Kurten EL, Raines RT. Ribonuclease inhibitor as an intracellular sentry. *Nucleic Acids Res* 2003; 31: 1024-32
52. Dickson KA, Haigis MC, Raines RT. Ribonuclease inhibitor: structure and function. *Prog Nucleic Acid Res Mol Biol* 2005; 80: 349-74
53. Kajava AV. Structural diversity of leucine-rich repeat proteins. *J Mol Biol* 1998; 277: 519-27
54. Johnson RJ, McCoy JG, Bingman CA, et al. Inhibition of human pancreatic ribonuclease by the human ribonuclease inhibitor protein. *J Mol Biol* 2007; 367: 434-49
55. Leland PA, Staniszewski KE, Kim B-M, et al. Endowing human pancreatic ribonuclease with toxicity for cancer cells. *J Biol Chem* 2001; 276: 43095-102
56. Rutkoski TJ, Kurten EL, Mitchell JC, et al. Disruption of shape-complementarity markers to create cytotoxic variants of ribonuclease A. *J Mol Biol* 2005; 354: 41-54
57. Deptala A, Halicka HD, Ardel B, et al. Potentiation of tumor necrosis factor induced apoptosis by Onconase. *Int J Oncol* 1998; 13: 11-6
58. Iordanov MS, Ryabinina OP, Wong J, et al. Molecular determinants of apoptosis induced by the cytotoxic ribonuclease Onconase: evidence for cytotoxic mechanisms different from inhibition of protein synthesis. *Cancer Res* 2000; 60: 1983-94
59. Ardel B, Ardel W, Darzynkiewicz Z. Cytotoxic ribonucleases and RNA interference (RNAi). *Cell Cycle* 2003; 2: 22-4
60. Iordanov MS, Wong J, Newton DL, et al. Differential requirement for the stress-activated protein kinase/c-Jun NH₂-terminal kinase in RNA damage-induced apoptosis in primary and in immortalized fibroblasts. *Mol Cell Biol Res Commun* 2000; 4: 122-8
61. Grabarek J, Ardel B, Du L, et al. Activation of caspases and serine proteases during apoptosis induced by Onconase (ranpirnase). *Exp Cell Res* 2002; 278: 61-71
62. Halicka HD, Ardel B, Shogen K, et al. Mild hyperthermia predisposes tumor cells to undergo apoptosis upon treatment with Onconase. *Int J Oncol* 2007; 30: 841-7
63. James AM, Ambrose EJ, Lowick JH. Differences between the electrical charge carried by normal and homologous tumour cells. *Nature* 1956; 177: 576-7
64. Slivinsky GG, Hymer WC, Bauer J, et al. Cellular electrophoretic mobility data: a first approach to a database. *Electrophoresis* 1997; 18: 1109-19
65. Kojima K. Molecular aspects of the plasma membrane in tumor cells. *Nagoya J Med Sci* 1993; 56: 1-18
66. Fredman P. Glycosphingolipid tumor antigens. *Adv Lipid Res* 1993; 25: 213-34
67. Halicka HD, Murakami T, Papageorgio CN, et al. Induction of differentiation of leukaemic (HL-60) or prostate cancer (LNCaP, JCA-1) cells potentiates apoptosis triggered by Onconase. *Cell Prolif* 2000; 33: 407-17
68. Rybak SM, Pearson JW, Fogler WE, et al. Enhancement of vincristine cytotoxicity in drug-resistant cells by simultaneous treatment with Onconase, an antitumor ribonuclease. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1996; 88: 747-53
69. Juan G, Ardel B, Li X, et al. G1 arrest of U937 cells by Onconase is associated with suppression of cyclin D3 expression, induction of p16INK4A, p21WAF1/CIP1 and p27KIP and decreased pRb phosphorylation. *Leukemia* 1998; 12: 1241-8
70. Mikulski SM, Viera A, Ardel W, et al. Tamoxifen and trifluoroperazine (Stelazine) potentiate cytostatic/cytotoxic effects of P-30 protein, a novel protein possessing anti-tumor activity. *Cell Tissue Kinet* 1990; 23: 237-46
71. Mikulski SM, Viera A, Darzynkiewicz Z, et al. Synergism between a novel amphibian oocyte ribonuclease and lovastatin in inducing cytostatic and cytotoxic effects in human lung and pancreatic carcinoma cell lines. *Br J Cancer* 1992; 66: 304-10
72. Lee I, Lee YH, Mikulski SM, et al. Effect of Onconase +/-tamoxifen on ASPC-1 human pancreatic tumors in nude mice. *Adv Exp Med Biol* 2003; 530: 187-96
73. Mikulski SM, Ardel W, Shogen K, et al. Striking increase of survival of mice bearing M109 Madison carcinoma treated with a novel protein from amphibian embryos. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1990; 82: 151-3
74. Lee I, Lee YH, Mikulski SM, et al. Enhanced cellular radiation sensitivity of androgen-independent human prostate tumor cells by Onconase. *Anticancer Res* 2000; 20: 1037-40
75. Mikulski SM, Grossman A, Carter P, et al. Phase I human clinical trial of Onconase (P-30 protein) administered intravenously on a weekly schedule in cancer patients with solid tumors. *Int J Oncol* 1993; 3: 57-64
76. Mikulski SM, Chun H, Mittelman A, et al. Relationship between response rate and median survival in patients with advanced non-small cell lung cancer: comparison of Onconase with other cancer agents. *Int J Oncol* 1995; 6: 889-97
77. Puccio C, Mittelman A, Chun H, et al. A new anticancer Rnase (Onconase): clinical trial in patients (pts) with breast cancer (BC) [abstract no. 242]. American Society of Clinical Oncology Annual Meeting; 1996 May 18-21; Philadelphia (PA)
78. Vogelzang NJ, Aklilu M, Stadler WM, et al. A phase II trial of weekly intravenous ranpirnase (Onconase), a novel ribonuclease in patients with metastatic kidney cancer. *Invest New Drugs* 2001; 19: 255-60
79. Mikulski SM, Costanzi JJ, Vogelzang NJ, et al. Phase II trial of a single weekly intravenous dose of ranpirnase in patients with unresectable malignant mesothelioma. *J Clin Oncol* 2002; 20: 274-81
80. Newton DL, Hansen HJ, Mikulski SM, et al. Potent and specific antitumor effects of an anti-CD22-targeted cytotoxic ribonuclease: potential for the treatment of non-Hodgkin lymphoma. *Blood* 2001; 97: 528-35

Correspondence: Professor *Ronald T. Raines*, Department of Biochemistry, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 433 Babcock Drive, Madison, WI 53706-1544, USA.

E-mail: rtraines@wisc.edu