12p13 is another target of deletion not only for MDS and AML but also for lymphoid neplasms. The critical deletion was reportedly demarcated by *TEL* on the telomeric end and by *KIP1* on the centromeric end, and both genes are presumed to be candidates for the relevant TSGs of 12p deletion, as partly mentioned above[140]. KIP1 is a potent inhibitor of cyclin dependent kinases and takes a crucial role in cell cycle regulation[141]. No mutations have been detected in both *TEL* and *KIP1*, although *TEL* seems to be frequently inactivated by translocations. The short arm of chromosome 17 is also the target of deletion in MDS/AML and most frequently seen in tMDS/tAML cases (~6-10%). A presumptive target of this deletion is the *p53* gene, a well-established TSG. 13q deletion has been also recurrently described in MDS and involves regions between 13q14 and 13q21[142]. Within this interval, loss of the region covered by YAC 937C7, LSI/RB1, and YAC 745E3 appears to be a critical event in malignant myeloid cells[142]. This large region includes the smallest 13q segment lost in CLL, which is limited by *RB1* and the D13S25 marker. Loss of Y chromosome is found in MDS and AML (~8~10%) as the sole abnormality[61]. It occasionally occurs in healthy old men probably due to errors in cell division[143]. It may be postulated that loss of chromosome Y confers growth advantage and Y-missing progenitor cells acquire clonality during a long period of life, although most studies have denied involvement of Y-missing to leukemia development.

Trisomy 8

Trisomy 8 is the most frequent (~20-25%) numerical abnormality in AML and MDS, and more common in primary MDS as the sole abnormality[61,144]. It belongs to the intermediate-risk cytogenetic abnormality, while a recent report indicated a higher risk for leukemic transformation[145]. Although the relevant genes in +8 are mostly unknown, its role in leukemogenesis or MDS pathogenesis is inferred from rare cases with constitutional trisomy 8 mosaicism (CT8M), who present a high rate of developing different types of neoplasms especially of myeloid origins as well as other congenital abnormalities[146]. In some cases with MDS/AML, trisomy 8 may be derived from CT8M and possible manifestations of CT8M such as mental retardation should be carefully evaluated[147]. Acquired trisomy 8 seems to involve the CFU-GEMM population but to spare a pluripotent stem cell compartment and lymphoid lineages, suggesting a myeloid precursor origin of MDS or, alternatively, failure of +8-positive (sub)clones to contribute to lymphoid lineages[148].

Epigenetic abnormalities

In addition to genetic abnormalities, epigenetic alterations have been also implicated in the pathogenesis of MDS. A phenomenon that properties of cells are inherited to daughter cells by way of mechanisms other than primary sequences of genomic DNA is called epigenesis. Three mechanisms are known to mediate epigenetic processes in mammalian cells, DNA methylation, chromatin modifications, and genetic imprinting, among which DNA methylation has been most extensively studied in relation to human cancers[149].

Several TSGs, including the *p16INK4A*, *p15INK4B*, *VHL*, and *FHIT* genes, are frequently inactivated through hypermethylation of promoter sequences in many types of human cancers, and in this context, hypermethylation of *p15INK4B* has been best characterized in MDS. *p15INK4B* is an inhibitor of cyclin-dependent kinase (CDKs) strongly induced by TGF β stimulation and highly homologous to *p16INK4A*, which is one of the most frequently inactivated TSGs in human cancers[150,151]. In contrast to inactivation of *p16INK4A*, which is mostly caused by homozygous deletion in lymphoid malignancies[152], *p15INK4B* is inactivated in myeloid neoplasms exclusively through promoter hypermethylation[153-155]. Hypermethylation and inactivation of *p15INK4B* is much more frequent in high risk MDS (RAEB and RAEBt) (~50~80%) and AML derived from MDS (~100%) than low risk MDS(RA/RARS)[154], suggesting a possible importance of TGF β signaling in the pathogenesis of MDS in advanced stages.

Abnormal DNA methylation has been also implicated in MDS pathogenesis by its frequent response to demethylating agents, 5-aza-cytidine (Azacytidine) and 5-aza-2'-deoxycitidine (Decitabine)[156-158]. 5-aza-cytidine has been shown to ameliorate cytopenias and to prolong overall survival of high-risk MDS patients in a prospective randomized trial[156]. While demethylation of *p15INK4B* is observed after treatment with 5-aza-cytidine or 5-aza-2-deoxycitidine, other targets of abnormal methylation in MDS are currently unknown.

Conclusions

During the past two decades, a great deal of advance has

taken place in understandings of the molecular pathogenesis of MDS. A number of genetic abnormalities have been identified from analyses of characteristic balanced translocations in MDS/AML and of genes already shown to be mutated in other neoplastic diseases. On the other hand, however, many of these abnormalities are not specific to MDS or associated more with transformation to advanced stages than with *de novo* development of MDS, and we have little knowledge about genetic insults that initiate MDS. In view of clarifying the pathogenesis of early stages MDS, it is of crucial importance to identify molecular targets of chromosome deletions including 5q-/-5, 7q-/-7, and 20q-. In this regard, novel technologies have now become available that could facilitate identification of these targets, including high-density array-based comparative genomic hybridization (CGH) and high-throughput resequencing arrays[159,160]. Comprehensive analysis of gene expression profiling in MDS may also provide a valuable clue to this aim as well as to developing molecular diagnostics for MDS[161,162].

Furthermore, there exist other important aspects of MDS pathogenesis than genetic abnormalities, including immune-mediated mechanisms, stromal dysfunction, and abnormalities in angiogenesis (Figure 1). Immune-mediated mechanisms have been implicated in development of cytopenia especially in low-risk MDS. Oligoclonal T cell populations are frequently detected in the bone marrow from low risk MDS patients, which could disappear after treatment with immunosuppressive agents such as antithymocyte globulin[163,164] and cyclosporine A [165]. Possible involvement of autoimmunity is also inferred from the fact that the response of low-risk MDS to immunosuppressive therapy is closely related to a specific HLA subtype, HLA DRB1*1501 [166]. Although this review cannot afford to mention more details of these aspects, comprehensive understandings of MDS pathogenesis will clearly require full compilation of knowledge from the extending fields of research on this inexorable disorder.

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Identification of a SRC-Like Tyrosine Kinase Gene, *FRK*, Fused with *ETV6* in a Patient with Acute Myelogenous Leukemia Carrying a t(6;12)(q21;p13) Translocation

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The SRC family of kinases is rarely mutated in primary human tumors. We report the identification of a SRC-like tyrosine kinase gene, *FRK* (Fyn-related kinase), fused with *ETV6* in a patient with acute myelogenous leukemia carrying t(6;12)(q21;p13). Both reciprocal fusion transcripts, *ETV6/FRK* and *FRK/ETV6*, were expressed. In *ETV6/FRK*, exon 4 of *ETV6* was fused in-frame to exon 3 of *FRK*, producing a chimeric protein consisting of the entire oligomerization domain of ETV6 and the kinase domain of FRK. The ETV6/FRK protein was shown to be constitutively autophosphorylated on its tyrosine residues. ETV6/FRK phosphorylated histones H2B and H4 in vitro to a greater extent than did FRK, suggesting it had elevated kinase activity. ETV6/FRK could transform both Ba/F3 cells and NIH3T3 cells, which depended on its kinase activity. Moreover, ETV6/FRK inhibited ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression in a dominant-negative manner. This report provides the first evidence that a SRC-like kinase gene, *FRK* fused with *ETV6*, could directly contribute to leukemogenesis by producing an oncoprotein, ETV6/FRK, with dual functions: constitutive activation of the ETV6/FRK tyrosine kinase and dominant-negative modulation of ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression.

INTRODUCTION

The *SRC* gene was the first protooncogene isolated as the cellular homologue of v-*SRC*, the retroviral transforming oncogene of avian Rous sarcoma virus (Brown and Cooper, 1996). Since then, it has become clear that *SRC* is the prototype for a family of genes that encode nonreceptor tyrosine kinases implicated in a variety of cellular processes, including cell growth, differentiation, and carcinogenesis. The SRC family of kinases shares common structures consisting of an N-terminal unique domain, SRC homology 3 (SH3) and SRC homology 2 (SH2) domains, a kinase domain, and a short C-terminal regulatory tail (Brown and Cooper, 1996). They are normally maintained in an inactive state through phosphorylation of a critical C-terminal tyrosine residue (Tyr 530 in human SRC, Tyr 527 in chicken SRC) by the C-terminal SRC kinase (Csk) (Brown and Cooper, 1996). The SH3 and SH2 domains also participate in this negative regulation through intramolecular interactions (Brown and Cooper, 1996; Schindler et al., 1999; Xu et al., 1999; Young et al., 2001).

The SRC and its family member kinases have long been postulated to participate in oncogenic processes. Activated variants of SRC family kinases, including the viral oncoprotein v-SRC, are capable of inducing malignant transformation in a variety of cell types (Parker et al., 1984; Cartwright et al., 1987). Activation of SRC-like kinases recently was described in *BCR-ABL1*-expressing acute lymphoblastic leukemia in mice (Hu et al., 2004). Elevated expression and/or activity of SRC have been documented in several types of primary human tumors (Bolen et al., 1987; Ottenhoff-Kalff et al., 1992; Talamonti et al., 1993). However, for many years, structural abnormalities of the SRC family of kinases have been detected rarely in primary human tumors. Although Irby et al. (1999)

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reported that 12% of advanced human colon cancers had a truncating mutation at codon 531 of the *SRC* gene, determining the importance of this mutation in the generation of colorectal cancers remained elusive according to the negative results in subsequent reports (Daigo et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2000; Laghi et al., 2001). In primary hematopoietic malignancies, no studies have demonstrated structural abnormalities of the SRC family of kinases.

In this study, we performed molecular analysis of a t(6;12)(q21;p13) observed as the sole chromosomal abnormality in a case of acute myelogenous leukemia (AML) and identified a SRC-like tyrosine kinase gene, *FRK* (Fyn-related kinase or *Rak*), on 6q21 (Cance et al., 1994; Lee et al., 1994) that is fused with *ETV6* (also called *TEL*), a gene frequently involved in chromosomal translocations in a variety of human leukemias (Golub et al., 1997). We found that the resultant chimeric protein, ETV6/FRK, is a transforming oncoprotein with elevated kinase activity. We also demonstrated that ETV6/FRK inhibits ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression in a dominant-negative manner, indicating that ETV6/FRK is a unique oncoprotein with dual functions. This is the first report showing the involvement of a SRC-like kinase gene (*FRK*) in primary human cancers.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Case History

The patient was a 69-year-old Japanese woman with AML-M4, carrying the translocation t(6;12)(q21;p13) as the sole chromosomal abnormality in 8 of 20 examined bone marrow metaphase cells. After obtaining informed consent, a sample of her bone marrow was taken for use in this study. The patient did not respond to chemotherapy and died 5 months later.

Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization Analysis

Fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) analysis was performed as previously described (Pinkel et al., 1986) with a panel of biotin- and digoxigenin-labeled cosmid probes that contained different exons of *ETV6*, kindly provided by Dr. Peter Marynen (University of Leuven, Leuven, Belgium). The order and the relative locations of cosmids are depicted in Figure 1A.

3′-Rapid Amplification of cDNA End

To do the 3′-rapid amplification of cDNA end (RACE), total RNA was isolated from the leukemic sample as described previously (Ogawa et al., 1996). First-strand cDNA was synthesized from 2.5 μg of total RNA using the primer R2N6 as described previously by Peeters et al. (1997). The first polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed with primers T4F1 and R2N6R1 (Peeters et al., 1997). Then, a diluted product of the first PCR, along with primers T4F2 and R2N6R2, was used for the second, nested PCR (Peeters et al., 1997). The nucleotide sequences of the primers used in this study and the conditions for PCR are listed in Table 1. The PCR products were subcloned into the pCR® 2.1-TOPO® vector using a TOPO TA Cloning® kit (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan) and subjected to DNA sequencing by use of a 3100 Applied Biosystems automated sequencer (Applied Biosystems, Chiba, Japan).

Reverse Transcriptase–PCR

For the reverse transcriptase-PCR (RT-PCR), 5 μg of the total RNA was transcribed to cDNA with 2 units of Moloney murine leukemia virus reverse-transcriptase (MMLV-RT, Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) using a random hexamer. One-tenth of the synthesized cDNA was directed to PCR analysis. Primers T4F2 and FRK1198R were used to confirm the *ETV6/FRK* transcripts. The primers for detecting the reciprocal *FRK/ETV6* transcripts were FRK451F and TEL723R. For amplification of the wild-type *ETV6* and *FRK* transcripts, primers T4F2 and TEL723R and primers FRK808F and FRK1198R, respectively, were used. All the sequences of the RT-PCR products were verified by direct sequencing.

Plasmid Construction

Full-length *ETV6* cDNA tagged with a FLAG sequence at the 5′ end, a gift from Dr. Kinuko Mitani (Dokkyo University School of Medicine, Tochigi, Japan), was subcloned into the expression plasmid pME18S-neo (Invitrogen, San Diego, CA). A FLAG-tagged full-length *FRK* cDNA was isolated by RT-PCR from total RNA obtained from human placenta using primers *Eco*RI-FLAG-FRK and FRK-*Not*I-2058R and was cloned into pME18S-neo. The pME18S-neo-FLAG-ETV6/FRK vector was generated by replacement of the *Cla*I-*Not*I fragment of the pME18S-neo-FLAG-ETV6 vector with the *Cla*I-*Not*I fragment of *ETV6/FRK*, which was obtained by RT-PCR from the patient's bone marrow using primers TEL-*Cla*I-F and FRK-*Not*I-2058R, with subsequent digestion with *Cla*I and *Not*I. To construct a kinase-inactive mutant of ETV6/FRK, designated ETV6/FRK(K262R), a point mutation corresponding

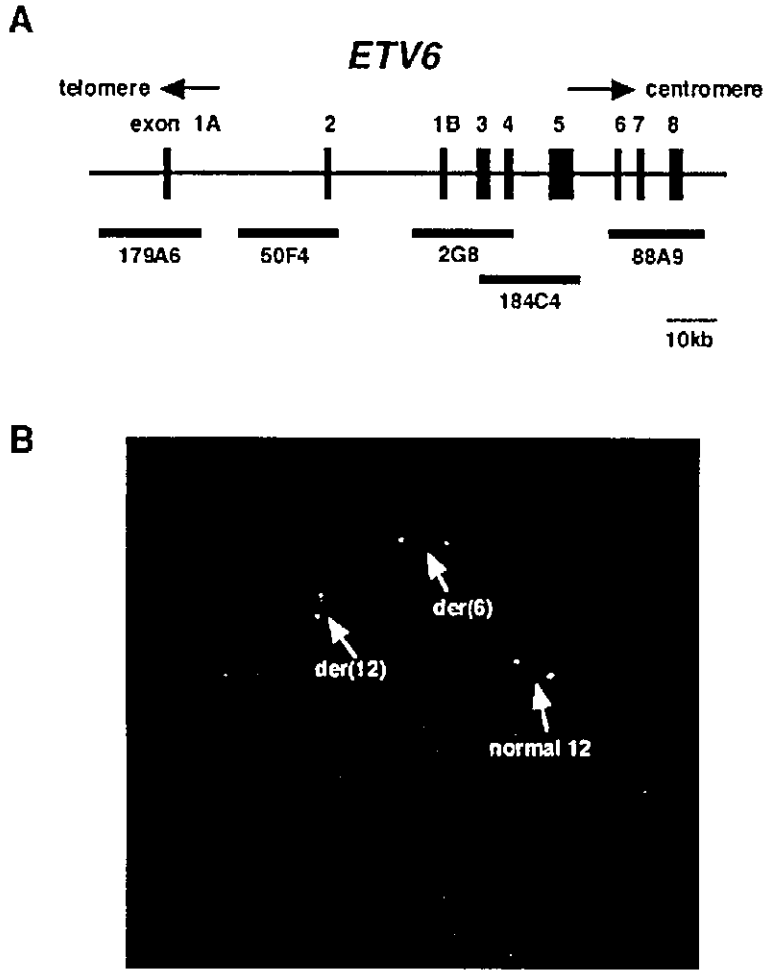

Figure 1. Analysis of breakpoint on chromosome 12. (A) A genomic map of *ETV6* and location of the cosmid probes used for FISH analysis. (B) FISH analysis of the patient's leukemic cells. The signals of the 2G8 probe (red) containing *ETV6* exons 1B, 3, and 4 are hybridized on the der(6) and on the normal 12p, whereas those of the 184C4 probe (green) containing *ETV6* exons 3–5 are found on the der(6), the der(12), and the normal 12p.

to a kinase-inactivating mutation in the ATP-binding site lysine residue (Lys262) of FRK was introduced into *ETV6/FRK* cDNA. A mutated fragment generated by PCR using the mutagenic primer FRK-K262R-*Bam*HI and the primer TEL-*Eco*RI-FLAG was spliced together with a C-terminal partial fragment of *FRK* into pME18S-neo. A FLAG-tagged full-length *FRK/ETV6* cDNA was constructed into the pME18S-neo vector by assembling partial fragments from *ETV6* and *FRK* and a fragment spanning the *FRK/ETV6* junction generated by RT-PCR using primers FRK451F and TEL723R. All the constructs were sequenced to confirm the fidelity of the sequence and conservation of the reading frame at the site of fusion.

Cell Lines, Transfection, and Cell Transformation Studies

For transient expression studies, 4×10^4 HeLa cells were seeded in each 60-mm dish and transfected with expression plasmid or plasmids 24 hr later by a lipofection method using Effectine™ Transfection Reagent (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Cells were incubated for 48 hr and harvested for analysis. NIH3T3 cells were transfected with expression plasmids, also using Effectine™, and selected in 400 μg/ml of G418 for 2 weeks. Ba/F3 clones stably expressing ETV6/FRK or other proteins were obtained by electroporation of each expression plasmid into Ba/F3 cells as previously described (Carroll et al., 1996) and subsequent isolation of individual G418-resistant subclones by limiting dilution. Expression of the transfected genes was evaluated by immunoblotting as previously described (Maki et al., 1999) using anti-FLAG-M2 monoclonal antibody (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). The soft-agar colony assay was performed as previously described (Kurokawa et al., 1996). After 21 days, all macroscopic colonies larger than 0.25 mm in diameter were counted. For growth curves, 2×10^4 G418-resistant Ba/F3 cells were washed 3 times with PBS and plated in IL-3-free medium on day 0, and viable cells were counted each day by trypan blue exclusion.

TABLE I. Primers Used For 3′-RACE and (RT)-PCR Amplifications

Name	Sequence
R2N6	5′-CCAGTGAGCAGAGTGACGAGGACTCGAGCTCAAGC(N)6-3′
T4F1	5′-CATATTCTGAAGCAGAGGAAA-3′
R2N6R1	5′-CCAGTGAGCAGAGTGACG-3′
T4F2	5′-ACACAGCCGGAGGTCATACT-3′
R2N6R2	5′-GAGGACTCGAGCTCAAGC-3′
FRK1198R	5′-CTTCCCATACTTCGCAAAC-3′
FRK451F	5′-AGCAACATCTGTCAGAGGCT-3′
TEL723R	5′-GTAGGACTCCTGGTGGTTGTT-3′
FRK808F	5′-ATCGGAAGATCAGATGCAGAG-3′
*Eco*RI-FLAG-FRK	5′-GCGAATTCGTTGTGATGGGGGACTACAAGGACGAC GATGACAAGTCCGGGAGCAACATCTGTCAGAGGCT-3′
FRK-*Not*I-2058R	5′-ATTGCGGCCGCACTGATTGTGCAGTTGGTTGA-3′
TEL-*Cla*I-F	5′-CTTTCGCTATCGATCTCCTCA-3′
TEL-*Eco*RI-FLAG	5′-GCGAATTCGTTGTGATGGGGGACTACAAGGACGAC GATGACAAGTCCGGGTCTGAGACTCCTGCTCAGTG-3′
FRK-K262R-*Bam*HI	5′-TTGGATCCATTGAACCTGGTTTTAATGTTCTCACTG-3′

Thermal cycling profile was: 94°C for 2 min, followed by 35 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 60°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min, with a final extension at 72°C for 10 min.

Immunoprecipitation, Immunoblotting, and Immune Complex Kinase Assay

Lysates were prepared by washing cells (1×10^6–1×10^7) with phosphate-buffered saline and then adding lysis buffer [10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 150 mM NaCl, 1.0% NP-40, 1 mM EDTA, and 1 mM Na3VO4] containing 5 mM phenylmethyl-sulfonylfluoride and 1 μg/ml of aprotinin. After 10 min on ice, the samples were centrifuged at 12,000 g to remove insoluble particles. For immunoprecipitation, 1 mg of total cell lysate was incubated with anti-FLAG-M2 antibody for 1 hr at 4°C, after which 50 μl of Protein G-Sepharose beads (Amersham Biosciences, Uppsala, Sweden) was added. After rotating for 1 hr at 4°C, immunoprecipitates were washed 3 times and boiled in loading buffer for 5 min. Protein samples were separated on 6.5%–15% gradient SDS-polyacrylamide gels and transferred onto PVDF membranes (Millipore, Bedford, MA). Immunoblotting was performed as previously described (Maki et al., 1999) using either anti-FLAG-M2 antibody or antiphosphotyrosine monoclonal antibody 4G10 (Upstate Biotechnology Incorporated, Lake Placid, NY) as a primary antibody.

For the immune complex kinase assay, immunoprecipitates were washed 3 times and suspended in kinase buffer [40 mM HEPES (pH 7.4), 10 mM $MgCl_2$, 5 mM $MnCl_2$]. For determination of kinase activity, 2.5 μg of either histone H2B or histone H4 (Roche Diagnostics K. K., Tokyo, Japan) was added to each reaction. Kinase reactions were initiated by the addition of 10 μCi of [γ-^{32}P] ATP (3,000 Ci/mmol; Amersham Biosciences Corp., Piscataway, NJ) and incubated at 30°C for 15 min. Reactions were stopped by the addition of loading buffer and analyzed by SDS-PAGE and exposure to a film.

Luciferase Assay

For the luciferase assay, 4×10^4 HeLa cells were transfected with 1 μg of the reporter plasmid (EBS)3tkLuc (Waga et al., 2003), a kind gift of Dr. Kinuko Mitani, along with the indicated amounts of the expression vectors. The total amount of DNA in weight was adjusted to be equal by adding pME18S-neo plasmid. Luciferase activities were determined as described previously (Maki et al., 1999). All transfection experiments were performed in duplicate at least 3 times.

RESULTS

Identification of the Breakpoint on Chromosome 12

We performed FISH experiments using several probes from the *ETV6* locus, on 12p13 (Fig. 1A). The signals from the cosmids containing exons 1–4 (179A6, 50F4, and 2G8) were found on the der(6) (Fig. 1B), whereas the signals from the cosmid containing exons 3–5 (184C4) were split to the der(6) and the der(12) (Fig. 1B), suggesting that the breakpoint on 12p13 was localized to *ETV6* exons 4–5. The signals on the normal 12p were always observed with all the indicated cosmid probes of the *ETV6* locus, suggesting that the non-

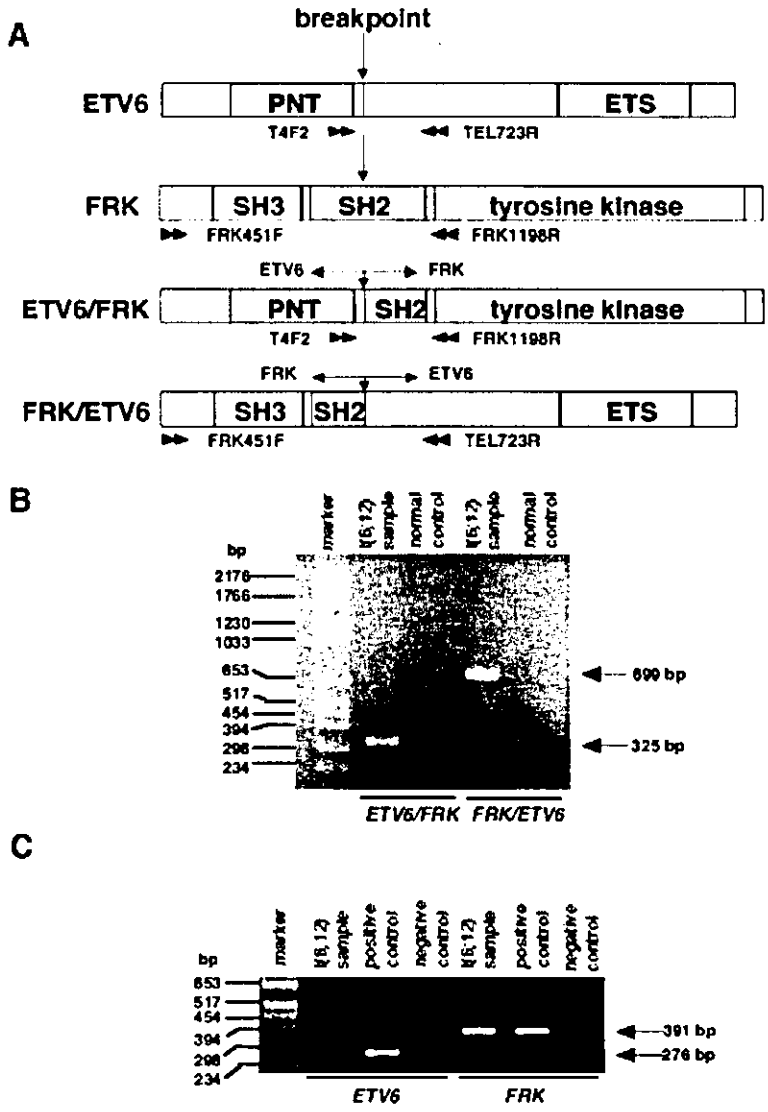

Figure 2. Identification of *ETV6/FRK* and *FRK/ETV6* fusion transcripts. (A) Schematic representation of wild-type *ETV6*, *FRK*, and the fusion transcripts. The breakpoints are indicated by vertical arrows. Horizontal arrows indicate the positions of RT-PCR primers (described in the Materials and Methods section). (B) Detection of *ETV6/FRK* as well as *FRK/ETV6* fusion transcripts by RT-PCR in the patient's leukemic sample. (C) Expression of *ETV6* and *FRK* in the patient's leukemic sample by RT-PCR.

translocated allele of *ETV6* was grossly intact with no large deletions.

Identification of the Fusion Partner of *ETV6*

To identify the unknown fusion partner of *ETV6*, 3′-RACE-PCR was performed. After two rounds of PCR, 3′-RACE-PCR products were successfully obtained. Sequencing analysis of the PCR products showed that exon 4 of *ETV6* was fused to exon 3 of *FRK* on 6q21, creating an *ETV6/FRK* fusion gene. The *FRK* gene encodes a SRC-like nonreceptor tyrosine kinase, consisting of the N-terminal SH3 and SH2 domains, the C-terminal kinase domain, and a short regulatory tail (Fig. 2A). The *ETV6/FRK* fusion gene produced a chimeric protein in which the entire pointed (PNT) oligomerization domain (also called helix–loop–helix domain) of ETV6 and the kinase domain of FRK were fused in-frame (Fig. 2A).

Detection of the *ETV6/FRK* and *FRK/ETV6* Fusion Transcripts

RT-PCR analysis was performed to confirm the fusion transcripts of the *ETV6* and *FRK* genes. Both reciprocal fusion transcripts, *ETV6/FRK* and *FRK/ETV6*, were specifically amplified from the leukemic sample but not from control bone marrow (Fig. 2B). Expression of wild-type *ETV6* and *FRK* also was detected in the leukemic sample (Fig. 2C). There were no mutations in the entire coding sequences of *ETV6*, *FRK*, *ETV6/FRK*, and *FRK/ETV6* (data not shown).

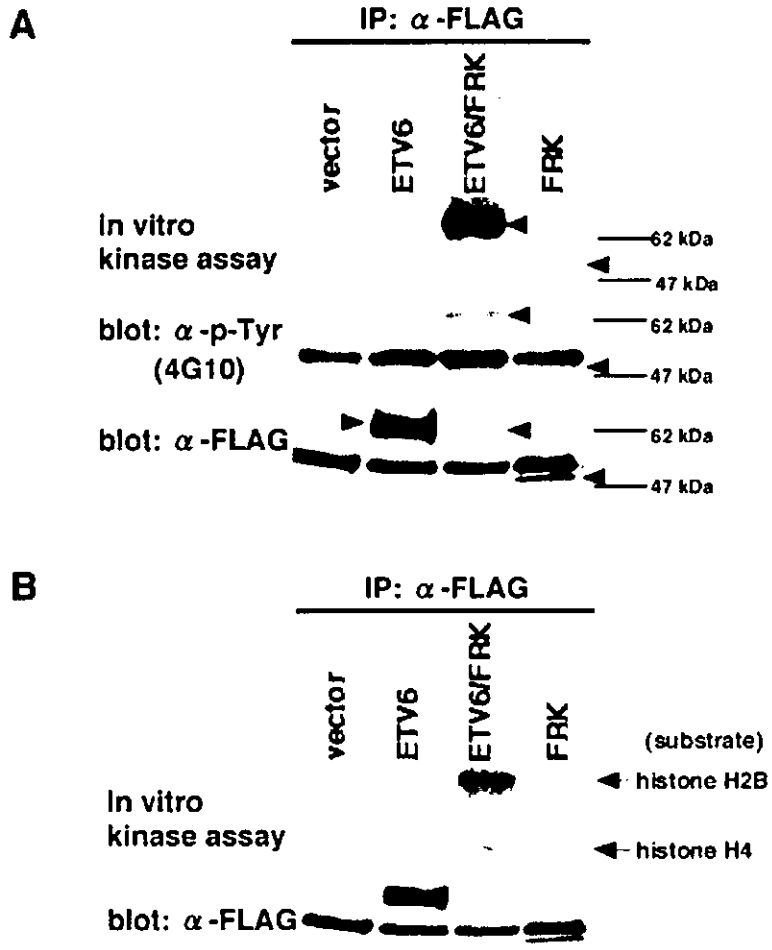

Figure 3. The ETV6/FRK tyrosine kinase is constitutively activated in HeLa cells. (A) Lysates of HeLa cells transfected with the indicated expression vectors were immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG-M2 monoclonal antibody and then analyzed by immune complex kinase assay (top) or immunoblotting with an antiphosphotyrosine antibody 4G10 (middle). The total amount of each protein was also assessed by immunoblotting with anti-FLAG-M2 antibody (bottom). Arrowheads show the proteins expressed or phosphorylated at an expected size. (B) Results of kinase assay performed with histones H2B (top) and H4 (middle).

Constitutive Activation of the ETV6/FRK Tyrosine Kinase

Because the ETV6/FRK fusion protein retained the kinase domain but lacked the SH3 domain and most of the SH2 domain, we examined its kinase activity. First, we compared the autophosphorylation status of ETV6/FRK and wild-type FRK. Either the ETV6/FRK fusion protein, wild-type FRK, or wild-type ETV6 FLAG-tagged at the N-terminus was introduced into HeLa cells, immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG-M2 monoclonal antibody, and then analyzed by the kinase assay or immunoblotting with an antiphosphotyrosine antibody 4G10 (Fig. 3A, top and middle). To compare expression levels, the same amounts of immunoprecipitate were also subjected to anti-FLAG blot (Fig. 3A, bottom). A high level of tyrosine phosphorylation occurred only in the ETV6/FRK protein (Fig. 3A, top and middle). A basal level of autophosphorylation also was detectable in the wild-type FRK (Fig. 3A, top), a finding in agreement with the previous data (Cance et al., 1994). However, the level of autophosphorylation was significantly lower than that of ETV6/FRK (Fig. 3A, top and middle). Next, we compared the ability of ETV6/FRK and wild-type FRK to phosphorylate exogenous substrates. When histone H2B or H4 was added to the kinase reaction, they were found to be phosphorylated to a greater extent in ETV6/FRK-expressing cells than in FRK-expressing cells (Fig. 3B), suggesting that the ETV6/FRK protein had elevated tyrosine kinase activity.

Cell Transformation by ETV6/FRK in a Kinase-Dependent Manner

To assay the transforming activities of ETV6/FRK, we stably expressed the cDNA-encoding ETV6/FRK or other proteins into the fibroblast cell line NIH3T3. We established 3 NIH3T3 clones expressing ETV6/FRK, 2 clones expressing FRK/ETV6, 2 clones expressing FRK, 2 clones expressing ETV6, and 2 clones expressing ETV6/FRK(K262R) (Fig. 4A), the kinase-inactive

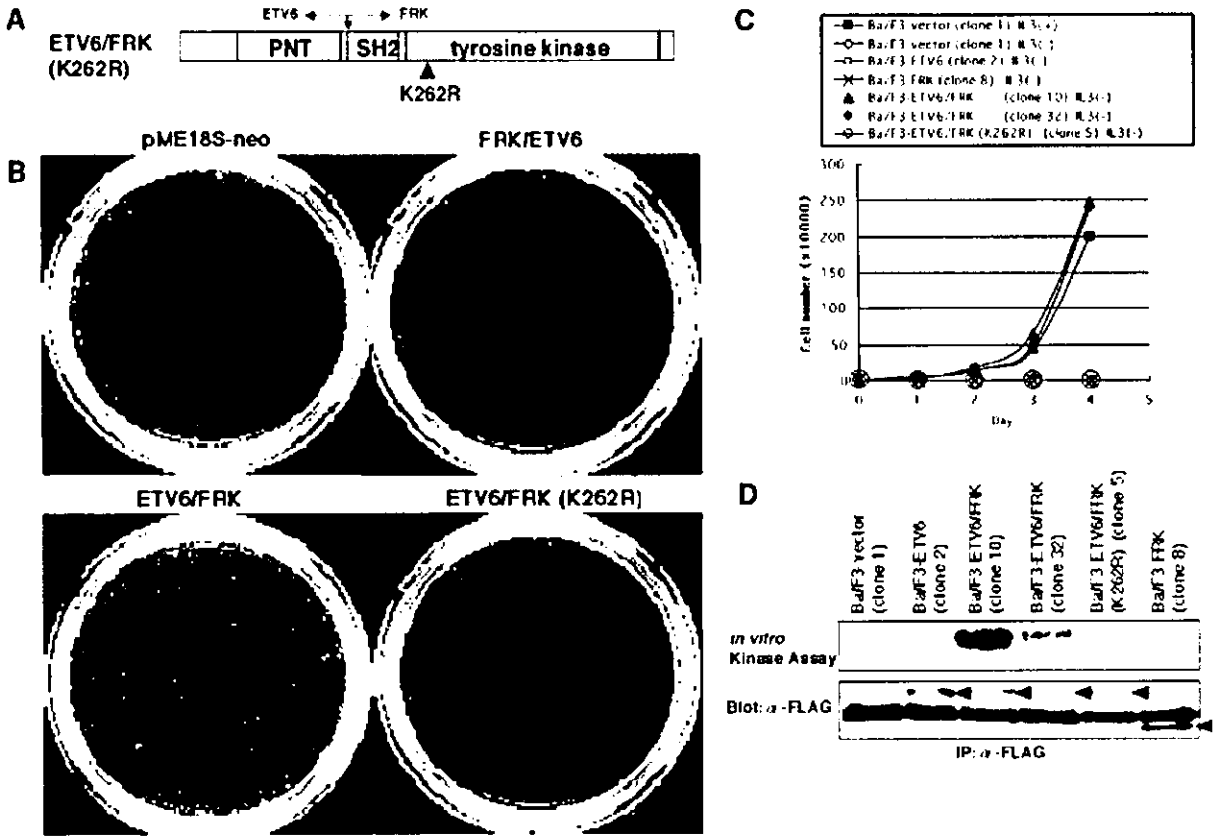

Figure 4. ETV6/FRK transforms NIH3T3 cells and Ba/F3 cells in a kinase-dependent manner. (A) Schematic representation of the kinase-inactive ETV6/FRK(K562R) mutant with a lysine-to-arginine mutation at the ATP binding site. (B) Soft-agar assay demonstrating macroscopic colony formation in ETV6/FRK-expressing NIH3T3 cells. (C) 2 × 10^4 Ba/F3 cells stably transfected with the indicated expression vectors were washed free of IL-3 and plated on day 0 in growth medium without IL-3. Viable cells were counted each day. Data of the representative clone(s) for each protein are presented. (D) Cell lysates of the indicated Ba/F3 clones were immunoprecipitated with an anti-FLAG-M2 antibody and then subjected to kinase assay (top) and immunoblotting with anti-FLAG-M2 antibody (bottom). Arrowheads show the proteins expressed at an expected size.

mutant of ETV6/FRK, confirmed by immunoblotting analysis (data not shown). The soft-agar assay was performed on each clone. Comparable results were obtained for the clones expressing the same proteins, and the representative data are presented. Only the NIH3T3 cells expressing intact ETV6/FRK were able to produce macroscopic colonies, whereas the NIH3T3 cells transfected with the empty vector or cells expressing the kinase-inactive mutant ETV6/FRK(K262R), the reciprocal FRK/ETV6 fusion protein, wild-type FRK, or wild-type ETV6 failed to grow colonies (Fig. 4B, Table 2). These results suggest that ETV6/FRK but not FRK/ETV6 contributes to neoplastic transformation in a kinase-dependent manner.

Next, we also examined the ability of ETV6/FRK to transform the murine hematopoietic cell line Ba/F3, which is strictly dependent on IL-3 for survival and proliferation. Following stable transduction by electroporation, we obtained 6 Ba/F3 clones expressing ETV6/FRK, 2 clones expressing FRK, 2 clones expressing ETV6, and 3 clones expressing ETV6/FRK(K262R), confirmed by immunoblotting analysis (data not shown). To assay the ability to confer independent proliferation of IL-3, each Ba/F3 clone was switched to growth medium without IL-3. Comparable results were obtained for the clones expressing the same proteins, and the representative data are presented. The Ba/F3 clones expressing ETV6/FRK showed sustained proliferation in the absence of IL-3 (Fig. 4C). In contrast, Ba/F3 cells transfected with the empty vector or cells expressing kinase-inactive mutant ETV6/FRK(K262R), wild-type FRK, and wild-type ETV6 were all unable to proliferate in the absence of IL-3 (Fig. 4C). Although the ETV6/FRK proteins expressed in the stable clones were constitutively autophosphorylated, the ETV6/FRK(K262R) mutants were not (Fig. 4D). These observations indicate that ETV6/FRK is a dominant oncoprotein and that constitutive activa-

TABLE 2. Transformation of NIH3T3 Cells By ETV6/FRK

Transfected DNA	No. of colonies[a]
pME18S-neo (vector)	0
pME18S-neo-ETV6	0
pME18S-neo-FRK	0
pME18S-neo-ETV6/FRK	15
pME18S-neo-ETV6/FRK(K262R)	0
pME18S-neo-FRK/ETV6	0

NIH3T3 cells were transfected with the indicated constructs, and stable transfectants were selected in G418. Cells were plated in soft agar. Macroscopic colonies were counted at day 21.
[a]Average of four experiments.

tion of the ETV6/FRK tyrosine kinase is necessary for ETV6/FRK-induced transformation.

Inhibition of ETV6-Mediated Transcription Repression by ETV6/FRK

Because ETV6 is an ETS transcription factor that acts as a transcriptional repressor (Lopez et al., 1999), we also investigated the transcriptional regulatory property of ETV6/FRK and its ability to modulate the function of wild-type ETV6. We transfected a previously described (EBS)3tkLuc reporter, in which the luciferase gene is placed under the control of an ETS responsive promoter (Waga et al., 2003), along with either wild-type ETV6, ETV6/FRK, or FRK/ETV6 into HeLa cells and evaluated luciferase activity. The results showed, in agreement with the previous finding (Waga et al., 2003), that there was decreased luciferase activity after cotransfection of (EBS)3tkLuc with the wild-type ETV6 expression plasmid (Fig. 5A). In contrast, no repression was observed when ETV6/FRK or FRK/ETV6 was expressed with the (EBS)3tkLuc reporter (Fig. 5A).

Because the oncoprotein ETV6/FRK lacks the ETS DNA binding site but still retains the PNT oligomerization domain, it is possible that it might affect ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression by heterodimerizing with ETV6. Notably, coexpression of ETV6/FRK abolished the transcriptional repression by ETV6 in a dose-dependent manner (Fig. 5B), suggesting that ETV6/FRK has a dominant-negative effect on ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression. In contrast, coexpression of the reciprocal FRK/ETV6 protein did not affect ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression (Fig. 5B). In control experiments, dose-dependent expression of the ETV6, ETV6/FRK, or FRK/ETV6 protein was confirmed by immunoblotting analysis (data not shown).

DISCUSSION

The t(6;12)(q21;p13) is a rare but recurrent reciprocal chromosome translocation in human leukemia (Hayashi et al., 1990; Katz et al., 1991; Raimondi et al., 1997). In this article, we report our finding that it generated novel fusion genes *ETV6/FRK* and *FRK/ETV6* in a case of AML. FRK belongs to a family of SRC kinases, as at the amino acid level, it has the highest homology, 50%, with FYN (Cance et al., 1994; Lee et al., 1994). Although several tyrosine kinase (TK) genes have been identified as fusion partners of *ETV6* (Golub et al., 1994; Papadopoulous et al., 1995; Lacronique et al., 1997; Peeters et al., 1997; Cazzaniga et al., 1999; Eguchi et al., 1999; Iijima et al., 2000; Kuno et al., 2001), this is the first report of a SRC-family tyrosine kinase gene being fused with *ETV6* and structurally altered in human cancers. In the resultant ETV6/FRK fusion protein, the entire PNT oligomerization domain of ETV6 and the kinase domain of FRK are fused in frame. We demonstrated that this ETV6/FRK fusion protein constitutively underwent autophosphorylation on its tyrosine residues. ETV6/FRK had elevated kinase activity compared to that in wild-type FRK. ETV6/FRK showed transforming activities in two cell lines, Ba/F3 and NIH3T3, indicating that ETV6/FRK is a dominant transforming oncoprotein. The kinase-inactive mutant ETV6/FRK(K262R) transformed neither of these two cell lines, indicating that the kinase activity of ETV6/FRK was essential for transformation. The reciprocal fusion protein FRK/ETV6, whose mRNA also was transcribed in the patient sample, did not have transforming activity. These data strongly suggest that the elevated kinase activity of the ETV6/FRK fusion protein directly contributes to the pathogenesis of leukemia with a t(6;12)(q21;p13).

Although activated variants of the SRC family kinases show transforming activities (Parker et al., 1984; Cartwright et al., 1987), the *SRC* and its family of genes rarely have been reported as being mutated or structurally altered in primary human tumors. Irby et al. (1999) reported that 12% of advanced human colon cancers in the United States had a truncating mutation at codon 531 of the *SRC* gene and that the mutation elevated kinase activity and promoted the potential for malignancy. However, three subsequent large-scale studies on advanced colorectal cancers in Japanese, northern European, Chinese, and Italian patients failed to detect the mutation (Daigo et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2000; Laghi et al., 2001), making the

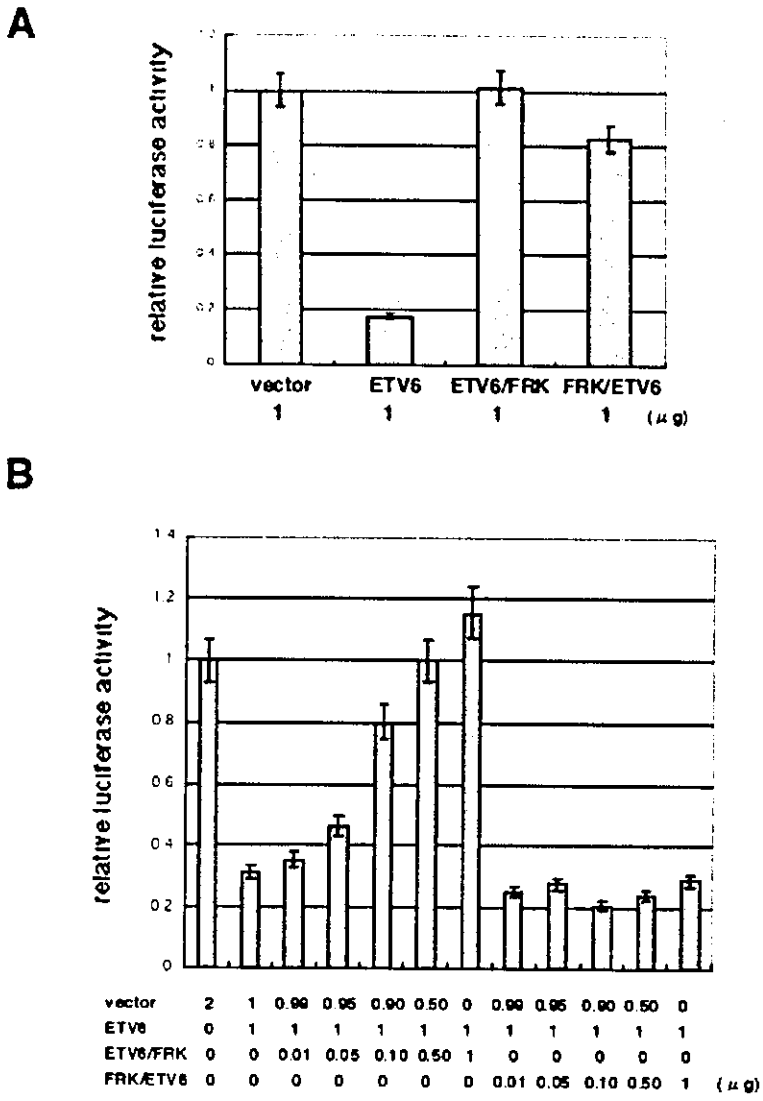

Figure 5. ETV6/FRK is a dominant-negative regulator of ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression in HeLa cells. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with 1 μg of (EBS)3tkLuc reporter plasmid along with 1 μg of the indicated expression vector. Bars show relative luciferase activities to the level when a control plasmid pME18S-neo was cotransfected with the corresponding reporter plasmid, and they present average results of duplicate experiments. (B) HeLa cells were transfected with 1 μg of (EBS)3tkLuc reporter plasmid along with 1 μg of pME-18S-neo-FLAG-ETV6 expression vector together with indicated amounts of pME18S-neo-FLAG-ETV6/FRK or pME18S-neo-FLAG-FRK/ETV6 expression vector. The results are presented as relative luciferase activities.

importance of this mutation controversial. In hematopoietic malignancies, two human T-cell acute lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines have been shown to have rearrangement of *LCK*, a SRC-family kinase gene (Tycko et al., 1991; Wright et al., 1994). In these two cell lines, HSB-2 and SUP-T12, the upstream promoter of the *LCK* gene was juxtaposed to the *TCRB* locus without any accompanying large structural abnormality of the LCK protein. *LCK* mRNA was elevated in the two cell lines (Tycko et al., 1991), and the HSB-2 cell line was later shown to carry several activating point mutations in the *LCK* gene (Wright et al., 1994), indicating that overexpression and/or activation of the LCK kinase would lead to cell transformation. On the other hand, the involvement of SRC family members in primary leukemia has not been reported previously. In this study, we showed that the structural abnormality of an SRC-like kinase gene, *FRK*, through translocation with *ETV6* can directly contribute to leukemogenesis through activation of the altered tyrosine kinase. In addition to the analysis of the current case with a t(6;12), we also performed a mutation analysis of the *FRK* gene in 20 hematopoietic cell lines but failed to detect activating mutations or structural abnormalities (data not shown). Thus, it is currently unclear whether FRK could be activated through other mechanisms such as activating mutations or translocations with other partner gene(s), although more intensive analyses may be required.

Two mechanisms could contribute to the constitutive activation of the ETV6/FRK kinase. First, in the ETV6/FRK fusion protein, the SH3 and SH2 domains of FRK are lost or disrupted, respec-

tively. Both the SH2 and SH3 domains are required to maintain the SRC family kinases in an inactive state: the SH2 domain binds to the C-terminal tyrosine residue in a phosphorylation-dependent manner, and the SH3 domain interacts with a short polyproline type II helix located between the SH2 domain and the kinase domain (Schindler et al., 1999; Xu et al., 1999; Young et al., 2001). These intramolecular interactions are believed to lock the molecule in a closed, inactive state, resulting in repression of kinase activity. In this regard, disruption of this closed conformation would activate the SRC family kinases and lead to cell transformation. In fact, some deletions or mutations in either the SH2 or the SH3 domain of SRC have been shown to activate its catalytic and/or transforming activities (Hirai and Varmus, 1990). Thus, the disruption of the SH3 and SH2 domains in ETV6/FRK may contribute to deregulation of kinase activity. Secondly, in the ETV6/FRK fusion protein, the entire PNT domain of ETV6 is fused to the kinase domain of FRK. As is the case with other ETV6/TK fusion proteins (Carroll et al., 1996; Golub et al., 1996; Jousset et al., 1997), the PNT domain would force dimerization of the ETV6/FRK protein and lead to constitutive tyrosine autophosphorylation and activation of the ETV6/FRK kinase.

The downstream signaling pathway mediated by ETV6/FRK still remains to be elucidated. The wild type FRK is expressed primarily in epithelial tissues (Cance et al., 1994), but also weakly in various hematopoietic cell line (data not shown). However, its functions or downstream signaling pathways remain largely unknown, especially in hematopoietic systems. The only known candidate endogenous downstream component of FRK is the SH2-domain adaptor protein SHB. According to recent reports, GTK, a rodent homologue of FRK, induces neurite outgrowth in PC12 cells and insulin stimulated signaling pathways in pancreatic insulin-producing cells via SHB (Anneren et al., 2000; Anneren and Welsh, 2002). In the present study, however, immunoblotting analysis failed to detect expression of the SHB protein in ETV6/FRK-expressing cells (data not shown). Thus, involvement of SHB in transformation by ETV6/FRK remains unclear. We also tested the phosphorylation status of several signaling molecules, including signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT1, STAT3, STAT5, STAT6, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2), P38 mitogen-activated protein kinase (P38 MAPK), phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K), and phospholipase C (PLC)-gamma, in ETV6/FRK-expressing cells. However, we failed to detect any aberrant phosphorylation of these molecules in ETV6/FRK-expressing cells in comparison to FRK-expressing cells (data not shown). Future identification of the target substrate of ETV6/FRK might provide a novel insight into the mechanism of ETV6/FRK-induced transformation as well as of wild-type FRK-mediated signal transduction.

Finally, we demonstrated that ETV6/FRK had a dominant-negative effect over ETV6-mediated transcriptional repression. Because ETV6/FRK retains the PNT oligomerization domain of ETV6, ETV6/FRK may interfere with the transcriptional repression activity of ETV6 by heterodimerizing with wild-type ETV6. Our results indicate that ETV6/FRK is a novel oncoprotein with dual functions: deregulated tyrosine kinase activity and a dominant-negative modulation of transcriptional repression by ETV6. Because wild-type ETV6 appears to have tumor-suppressive activity (Romparey et al., 2000), its suppression by ETV6/FRK also could contribute to oncogenesis. It may be possible that ETV6/FRK can contribute to oncogenesis through two independent mechanisms: activation of the ETV6/FRK tyrosine kinase, which would lead to aberrant stimulation of the downstream signaling pathway, and inhibition of the tumor-suppressive functions of ETV6. This model suggests potential strategies for reversion of transformation by ETV6/FRK. Because the kinase-inactive mutant of ETV6/FRK is nontransforming, a specific inhibitor of the SRC family kinases may inhibit transformation by ETV6/FRK. Alternatively, overexpression of wild-type ETV6 also would interfere with the ability of ETV6/FRK to transform cells. Further experiments will explore these possibilities.

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To the editor:

SCL/Tal1 and lymphoid versus myeloid lineage assignment

In their recent paper, Kunisato et al[1] describe the role of stem cell leukemia gene (SCL) in regulating lineage fate in hematopoietic stem cells. Their experiments involve retroviral expression of SCL and a "dominant-negative" mutant of SCL (DN-SCL) in hematopoietic stem cells and their progeny. They propose that levels of SCL regulate lineage commitment: enforced expression of SCL favored myeloid differentiation, while expression of the DN-SCL favored lymphoid differentiation. We query the interpretation of the results obtained with the DN-SCL mutant, as its design and effects are not suggestive of a specific dominant-negative function. The authors cite Aplan et al[2] and Krosl et al[3] for the design of the dominant-negative SCL. In these papers the basic domain of SCL was deleted. This mutant is unable to bind to DNA, however, heterodimerization with E2A proteins remains intact through the presence of the helix-loop-helix (HLH) domain. The DN-SCL mutant used by Kunisato et al[1] lacks both the basic and HLH domains. Such a mutant would be predicted to abrogate not only DNA binding, but also the ability to interact with E2A proteins. The remaining N- and C-terminal portions of SCL have no known function—indeed, a truncation mutant comprising only the basic and HLH domains could rescue hematopoiesis of SCL-null embryonic stem cells,[4] suggesting that the N- and C-terminal amino acids are not essential. Since a dominant-negative mutant usually relies on deletion of specific functional domains while retaining vital protein interactions, it is difficult to understand how this mutant could act as a dominant negative. Moreover, enforced expression of the DN-SCL only mildly affects erythroid cell production in vitro or in vivo (Figures 3 and 7), whereas loss of SCL by conditional deletion has demonstrated that SCL is essential for erythroid burst-forming units (BFU-E) and production of red cells in vivo.[5-7] Thus, there is no available data to positively suggest that the DN-SCL used by Kunisato and colleagues[1] inhibits the function of SCL. Nonetheless, it is possible that the N- and C-terminal portions of SCL have an unknown function that causes the observed effects on lineage specification. However, without the correct controls, such as rescue of the DN-SCL effect with wild-type SCL, it is impossible to discriminate specific from nonspecific effects. In light of this and since the effects on myeloid and lymphoid lineage output are subtle and transient, it is important to regard with caution the assertion that the effects are due to a dominant-negative effect on SCL.

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Response:

Dominant-negative activity of stem cell leukemia (SCL) lacking bHLH domain

Queries from Hall and Curtis on our paper[1] in *Blood* include some important issues. As they argue, the construct of interest (ΔbHLH SCL) may not have an ability to interact with E2A proteins. Indeed, our experiment showed that it does not interact with wild-type (WT) stem cell leukemia (SCL) (data not shown). However, this does not imply that ΔbHLH SCL consisting only of the N- and C-terminal portions of SCL does not have any function. Contrary to the argument by Porcher et al,[2] their results could indicate that the N- and C-terminal portions of SCL have some roles, since it appears that the bHLH domain alone does not completely rescue the SCL-null phenotype. In addition, as was described in our paper (Figure 7), we found maturation arrest in the erythroid progenitors by introducing ΔbHLH SCL. This observation is considered to be biologic evidence of dominant-negative effect of ΔbHLH SCL on wild-type SCL, given the phenotype of SCL conditional knockout mice.[3] In this regard, we are afraid that the questioners may misunderstand our description in the paper.

To explore the proteins that interact with ΔbHLH SCL, we have performed a coprecipitation analysis (Figure 1). We transfected HEK293 peak cells with plasmids containing FLAG-tagged WT SCL and ΔbHLH SCL under the cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter. Two days after the transfection, lysates were prepared and immunoprecipitated with the anti-FLAG antibody-coated beads (Sigma, St Louis, MO). The samples then were resolved through sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE), and the gel was silver-stained (Dai-ichi Kagaku, Tokyo, Japan). We found that some proteins coprecipitated commonly with WT SCL and ΔbHLH SCL (solid arrows), and others coprecipitated with WT SCL alone (dotted arrows). It is possible that the commonly precipitated proteins