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G. 知的所有権の出願・取得状況

1. 特許取得　なし
2. 実用新案登録　なし
3. その他　　なし

III. 研究成果の刊行に関する一覧表

雑誌

発表者氏名	論文タイトル名	発表誌名	巻号	ページ	出版年
Sasaki D, Tsukasaki K, et al.	Overexpression of enhancer of zeste homolog 2 with trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 in adult T-cell leukemia/ lymphoma as a target for epigenetic therapy.	***Haematologica***	96(5)	712-719	2011
Ogawa S, Takita J, Sanada M, Hayashi Y	Oncogenic mutations of ALK in neuroblastoma.	***Cancer Sci***	102(2)	302-308	2011
Morita Y, Iseki A, Okamura S, Suzuki S, Nakauchi H, Ema H	Functional characterization of hematopoietic stem cells in the spleen	***Exp Hematol***	39	351-359	2011
El Hajj H, El-Sabban M, Hasegawa H, Zaatari G, Ablain J, Saab ST, Janin A, Mahfouz R, Nasr R, Kfoury Y, Nicot C, Hermine O, Hall W, de Thé H, Bazarbachi A	Therapy-induced selective loss of leukemia-initiating activity in murine adult T cell leukemia.	***J Exp Med***	207 (13)	2785-92	2010
Nakashima M, Ishii Y, Watanabe M, Togano T, Umezawa K, Higashihara M, Watanabe T, Horie R	The side population, a precursor of Hodgkin and Reed-Sternberg cells, as a target for NF-κB inhibitors in Hodgkin lymphoma	***Cancer Sci***	101 (11)	2490-96	2010
Iwanaga M, Watanabe T, Tsukasaki K,et al.	Human T-cell leukemia virus type I (HTLV-1) proviral load and disease progression in asymptomatic HTLV-1 carriers: a nationwide prospective study in Japan.	***Blood***	116(8)	1211-19	2010
Takasaki M, Tsukasaki K, et al.	Long-term study of indolent adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma.	***Blood***	115 (22)	4337-43	2010

Nakahata S, Yamazaki S, Nakauchi H, Morishita K	Downregulation of ZEB1 and overexpression of Smad7 contribute to resistance to TGF-beta1-mediated growth suppression in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma	***Oncogene***	29	4157-69	2010
Yamamoto K, Tsukasaki K, et al.	Phase I study of KW-0761, a defucosylated humanized anit-CCR4 antibody, in relapsed patients with adult T-cell leukemia-lymphoma and peripheral T-cell lymphoma	***J Clin Oncol***	28(9)	1591-8	2010

制作物　（「HTLV-1総合対策」の一環として作成）

1. ウェブサイト「HTLV-1情報サービス」（http://www.htlv1joho.org/）
2. 小冊子「成人T細胞白血病の治療を受ける患者さん・ご家族へ
　　－　患者さんやご家族が納得した治療を受けていただくために」
3. 小冊子「HTLV-1キャリアのみなさまへ　－　よくわかる詳しくわかるHTLV-1」

Ⅳ．研究成果の刊行物・別刷

Overexpression of enhancer of zeste homolog 2 with trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma as a target for epigenetic therapy

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ABSTRACT

Background
Enhancer of zeste homolog 2 is a component of the Polycomb repressive complex 2 that mediates chromatin-based gene silencing through trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone H3. This complex plays vital roles in the regulation of development-specific gene expression.

Design and Methods
In this study, a comparative microarray analysis of gene expression in primary adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma samples was performed, and the results were evaluated for their oncogenic and clinical significance.

Results
Significantly higher levels of Enhancr of zeste homolog 2 and RING1 and YY1 binding protein transcripts with enhanced levels of trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 were found in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells compared with those in normal $CD4^+$ T cells. Furthermore, there was an inverse correlation between the expression level of Enhancer of zeste homolog 2 and that of miR-101 or miR-128a, suggesting that the altered expression of the latter miRNAs accounts for the overexpression of the former. Patients with high Enhancer of zeste homolog 2 or RING1 and YY1 binding protein transcripts had a significantly worse prognosis than those without it, indicating a possible role of these genes in the oncogenesis and progression of this disease. Indeed, adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells were sensitive to a histone methylation inhibitor, 3-deazaneplanocin A. Furthermore, 3-deazaneplanocin A and histone deacetylase inhibitor panobinostat showed a synergistic effect in killing the cells

Conclusions
These findings reveal that adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells have deregulated Polycomb repressive complex 2 with over-expressed Enhancer of zeste homolog 2, and that there is the possibility of a new therapeutic strategy targeting histone methylation in this disease.

Key words: adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma, human T-cell leukemia virus type-1, Enhancer of zeste homolog 2, H3K27me3.

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The online version of this article has a Supplementary Appendix.

Introduction

The Polycomb group (PcG) proteins play critical roles in the regulation of development by repressing specific sets of developmental genes through chromatin modification.[1] They form two distinct multimeric complexes, Polycomb repressive complex 1 (PRC1) and PRC2, which bind to polycomb responsive elements (PRE), repress genes required for cell differentiation, and maintain pluripotency and self-renewal of embryonic stem cells and hematopoietic stem cells.[2,3] PRC2 consists of Enhancer of zeste homolog 2 (EZH2), which has histone methyltransferase activity, suppressor of zeste 12 (SUZ12), and embryonic ectoderm development (EED), which is required to maintain the integrity of PRC2.[1,4] Sequence-specific DNA binding protein YY1, which recognizes PRE, interacts with EED and recruits PRC2 to a specific chromatin domain to be repressed.[5] EED interacts with histone deacetylase (HDAC) proteins, HDAC1 and HDAC2, and the histone binding proteins RBBP4 (RbAp48) and RBBP7 (RbAp46).[6] PRC2 thus also participates in histone deacetylation. EZH2, as a part of the PRC2 complex, not only methylates histone but also serves as a recruitment platform for DNA methyltransferases that methylate the promoter regions of target genes, which is another mechanism of gene repression.[7] The more diverse complex PRC1 consists of HPC family proteins that mediate chromatin association, HPH family proteins, RING, BMI1, and others.[1] PRC2 initiates trimethylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 (H3K27me3) and, to a lesser extent, lysine 9 of histone H3.[8] PRC1 recognizes H3K27me3 through the chromodomain of the HPC and maintains the trimethylation. There are a number of reports indicating that such epigenetically mediated transcriptional silencing is associated with cancer development.[1,9] Among these, oncogenic roles of over-expressed EZH2 have been studied in a variety of tumors.[10]

Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma (ATL) is a neoplasm of mature CD4+ T-cell origin, etiologically associated with human T-cell leukemia virus type-1 (HTLV-1).[11,12] Its clinical behavior differs among patients and is subclassified into four subtypes: smoldering type and chronic type as indolent subtypes, and acute type and lymphoma type as aggressive subtypes.[13] Inactivation of tumor suppressor genes is one of the key events in development and progression, and there is a strong accumulation of *p14ARF/p15INK4B/p16INK4A* gene deletion/methylation or *p53* gene mutations in aggressive subtypes (>60%).[14-20] In the present study, for further investigation of the oncogenesis of ATL, we performed a comparative microarray analysis of gene expression in primary ATL samples. ATL cells expressed significantly higher levels of *EZH2* and *RYBP* (RING1 and YY1 binding protein) transcripts than CD4+ T cells from healthy volunteers. Moreover, acute-type ATL cells showed significantly higher levels of these transcripts than chronic-type ATL cells, suggesting that deregulation of PcG proteins plays a crucial role not only in the development but also in the progression of ATL. In addition, ATL samples were strongly positive for H3K27me3, and were sensitive to 3-deazaneplanocin A (DZNep), a histone methylation inhibitor.[21-23] It has recently been shown that HDAC inhibitor panobinostat (PS, also known as LBH589) depletes the levels of EZH2, SUZ12, and EED and induces apoptotic death in leukemia cells.[24] Deregulation of PcG protein genes with over-expressed EZH2 in ATL cells suggests that ATL is one of the appropriate target diseases for such epigenetic therapy.

Design and Methods

Sample preparation

This study was approved by the ethics committees of Nagasaki University, and all clinical samples were obtained after written informed consent was provided. The diagnosis of ATL was confirmed by the monoclonal integration of HTLV-1 proviral DNA in the genomic DNA of leukemia cells. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) were obtained from ATL patients (acute type 22 cases, chronic type 19 cases) and healthy adult volunteers by density gradient centrifugation using Lympho-prep (AXIS SHIELD, Oslo, Norway). For enrichment of ATL cells, CD4+ cells were purified from the PBMCs by the magnetic bead method (CD4 MicroBeads, Miltenyi Biotec, Auburn, CA, USA) as described elsewhere.[25] Besides these samples for microarray analysis, we prepared another set of samples for quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) and Western blotting (25 ATL patients, 13 HTLV-1 carriers, and 12 healthy adults) to confirm the results of microarray analysis. We also used formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lymph nodes from 7 patients with lymphoma-type ATL and 5 patients with follicular lymphoma for immunohistochemical analysis.

ATL cell lines used in this study, SO4, ST1, KK1, KOB, and LM-Y1, were established from respective patients in our laboratory and have been confirmed to be of primary ATL cell origin.[26] Cells were maintained in RPMI1640 medium supplemented with 10% FBS and 100 Japan reference units of recombinant interleukin-2 (rIL-2) (kindly provided by Takeda Pharmaceutical Company, Ltd., Osaka, Japan). We also used HTLV-1-infected T-cell lines MT2 and HuT102 and acute T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines Jurkat and MOLT4, which were maintained without rIL-2.

DNA microarray analysis

RNA was prepared from purified CD4+ T cells, and subjected to hybridization to HGU133A & B microarray containing 44,760 probe sets for human genes (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA) as described previously.[25,27] The mean expression intensity of the internal positive control probe sets (*http://www.affymetrix.com/support/technical/mask_files.affx*) was set to 500 units in each hybridization, and the fluorescence intensity of each test gene was normalized accordingly. All HGU133A & B microarray data are available from the Gene Expression Omnibus website (*http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo*) under the accession number GSE1466.

Quantitative real-time RT-PCR

For confirmation of the results of microarray analysis, we performed quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qRT-PCR) for PcG protein genes. Total RNA was prepared using Isogen (Wako, Osaka, Japan). After removal of contaminated DNA with DNase (Message Clean kit; GenHunter, Nashville, TN, USA), cDNA was constructed from 1 μg of total RNA using the SuperScript III RT-PCR System (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Primers and TaqMan probes labeled with TAMRA dye at the 3' end and FAM at the 5' end are listed in *Online Supplementary Table S1*. The mRNA levels for PcG family proteins and porphobilinogen deaminase (PBGD) were measured from a cDNA template using a LightCycler480 PCR System (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). Briefly, reactions were performed in a 20 μL volume with 5 μL (25 ng) of cDNA, 0.5 μM PCR primers, 0.1 μM TaqMan probes, and 10 μL of LightCycler

480 probes Master Mix (Roche Diagnostics). The PCR program consisted of 95°C for 5 min followed by 50 cycles of 95°C for 10 sec and 60°C for 30 sec. After 50 cycles, the absolute amounts of PcG protein mRNA and *PBGD* mRNA were interpolated from the standard curves generated by the dilution method using plasmids derived from a clone transfected with pTAC-1 Vector (BioDynamics Laboratory Inc., Tokyo, Japan) containing amplicons from the PcG family protein and PBGD genes, respectively. To normalize these results for variability in concentration and integrity of RNA and cDNA, the *PBGD* gene was used as an internal control in each sample.

For the quantitative PCR for microRNAs (miRNAs), miR-101, miR-26a, and miR-128a, 10 ng of total RNA (containing miRNA) was used. RT reaction and real-time quantification were performed using TaqMan MicroRNA RT kit and TaqMan MicroRNA assays (hsa-miR-26a, assay ID 000405; hsa-miR-101, assay ID 002253; hsa-miR-128a, assay ID 002216; RNU6B, assay ID 001093) (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. Each PCR reaction mixture contained 10 μL of LightCycler 480 probes Master Mix, 4 μL of nuclease-free water, 1 μL of 20X specific PCR primer, and 5 μL of RT product. The thermal cycler was programmed as follows: 95°C for 5 min, 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 sec, and 60°C for 60 sec. Using the comparative CT method, we used an endogenous control (RNU6B) to normalize the expression levels of target micro-RNA by correcting differences in the amount of RNA loaded into qPCR reactions.

Western blot analysis and antibodies

Western blot analysis was performed as described previously.[28] The analysis was performed using antibodies to EZH2 and Histone H3 (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA), phospho EZH2 (Ser21) (Bethyl Laboratories, Montgomery, TX, USA), H3K27me3, dimethylated H3K27 (H3K27me2), monomethylated H3K27 (H3K27me1) (Millipore, Temecula, CA, USA), and β-actin (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA).

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemical staining for EZH2 and H3K27me3 was performed on formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded lymph node samples from lymphoma-type ATL patients and follicular lymphoma patients as a control. The deparaffinized slides were pretreated with DAKO Target Retrieval Solution, pH 9 (DAKO Japan, Tokyo, Japan), and heated in a water bath at 95°C for 40 min. For all stains, the endogenous peroxidase was quenched using 3% H_2O_2 for 15 min. Sections were then placed in 0.5% non-fat dry milk for 30 min at room temperature. The primary antibodies used were anti-EZH2 antibody (BD Biosciences, San Jose, CA, USA) and anti-H3K27me3 antibody (Cell Signaling Technology, Boston, MA, USA), and were applied at 1:50 dilution and 1:100 dilution, respectively. They were allowed to react for 1 h at room temperature, and then the DAKO EnVision™ + Dual Link System-HRP (DAKO Japan, Tokyo, Japan) was applied using diaminobenzidine as the chromogen, following the manufacturer's protocol.

Sensitivity of adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cell lines to DZNep and PS (LBH589)

DZNep was synthesized by one of the authors (VEM). Cells were treated with different concentrations of DZNep for 72 h and the cell proliferation status was evaluated by an MTS assay using a Cell Titer 96® AQueos Cell Proliferation Assay kit (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions. To analyze the synergistic effect of combined treatment with DZNep and PS (LBH589) (kindly provided by Novartis Pharma AG, Basel, Switzerland), cells were treated with DZNep (0.3-5.0 μM) and PS (LBH589) (3-50 nM) for 48 h. After the cell proliferation status was evaluated by an MTS assay, the combination index (CI) for each drug combination was obtained by determining the median dose effect of Chou and Talalay using the CI equation within the commercially available software Calcusyn (Biosoft).[29] CI<1, CI=1, and CI>1 indicate synergism, additive effect, and antagonism, respectively. Cell viability represents the value relative to that of the control culture without these agents.

Results

Microarray analysis shows increased EZH2 and/or RYBP transcripts in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells

In a comparative microarray analysis of primary ATL samples, we focused on investigating PcG protein genes, *EZH2*, *RYBP*, *BMI-1*, and *CBX7*, in the present study because ATL cells show many aberrantly hypermethylated DNA sequences.[30] ATL cells expressed significantly higher levels of *EZH2* and *RYBP* transcripts than $CD4^+$ T cells from healthy adults (Figure 1A and B). In addition, there was a difference between ATL subtypes in these expressions, and cells from the acute type showed significantly higher levels of these transcripts than the cells from the chronic type. When patients were separated into two groups consisting of those with high expression and those with low expression, the group with high *EZH2* or high *RYBP* transcript showed significantly shorter survival than the respective low-expression groups (Figure 1E and F), indicating that high *EZH2* and/or *RYBP* expression is associated with aggressive clinical behavior. Convincingly, there was a trend toward accumulation of acute-type ATL in the high *EZH2* or the high *RYBP* expression group: 14 cases of acute type and 6 cases of chronic type in the high *EZH2* group, 7 cases of acute type and 13 cases of chronic type in the low *EZH2* group, 14 cases of acute type and 6 cases of chronic type in the high RYBP group, and 7 cases of acute type and 13 cases of chronic type in the low RYBP group. BMI1 is known to down-regulate the expression of *p14ARF/p16INK4A* and lead to neoplastic transformation.[31] Chromobox 7 (CBX7), a component of the PRC1, is also known to repress the transcription of *p14ARF/p16INK4A*.[32] Since inactivation of *p14ARF/p15INK4B/p16INK4A* genes is one of the key events in ATL progression, expression of *BMI-1* and/or *CBX7* transcript was expected to be elevated in acute-type ATL cells. There was, however, no difference in these expressions between ATL subtypes or even between ATL cells and normal $CD4^+$ T cells (Figure 1C and D). There was no difference in survival for different *BMI-1* or *CBX7* expression levels (Figure 1G and H).

Confirmation of increased EZH2 and/or RYBP transcripts by quantitative real-time RT-PCR

For confirmation of the results of microarray analysis, we quantified the transcripts of the PcG protein genes including *EZH2* and *RYBP* by qRT-PCR using another set of samples from ATL patients, healthy adults, HTLV-1 carriers, and hematologic cell lines including ATL cell lines. In accordance with the results of microarray analysis, *EZH2* and *RYBP* transcripts were increased in primary ATL cells compared with those in the cells from healthy adults and HTLV-1 carriers, with statistically significantly higher val-

ues in *EZH2* in terms of both absolute copy number per 25 ng of total RNA and normalized expression level (*Online Supplementary Figure S1A, a, B, b*). *RBBP4* was significantly higher in primary ATL cells than in the cells from healthy adults and HTLV-1 carriers in terms of normalized expression level (*Online Supplementary Figure S1 C, c*). In contrast, there was no difference in *BMI1*, *YY1*, and *EED* expressions among these groups, although some patients showed very high *BMI1* expression (*Online Supplementary Figure S1D, d, E, e, F, f*). Similarly to primary ATL cells, some ATL cell lines showed high *EZH2* expression in terms of absolute copy number per 25 ng of total RNA (*Online Supplementary Figure S1A*).

EZH2 protein expression with trimethylation of H3K27 is characteristic in adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells

We then examined EZH2 and RYBP at the protein level by Western blotting. A 98-kDa band for EZH2 protein and a 32-kDa band for RYBP protein were detected in all primary ATL samples irrespective of subtype, but they were hardly detected in cells from healthy adults and HTLV-1 carriers (Figure 2A, *Online Supplementary Figure S2*, and *data not shown*). ATL cell lines and acute T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines also showed intense EZH2 bands. The serine-threonine kinase Akt phosphorylates EZH2 at serine 21 and suppresses its methyltransferase activity by impeding EZH2 binding to histone H3, which results in a decrease in lysine 27 trimethylation.[38] EZH2 of ATL cells was not phosphorylated and was in its active form (Figure 2A). In fact, most primary ATL samples showed the band for H3K27me3, while the cells from healthy adults lacked the band (Figure 2B). As it is known that EZH2 plays a crucial role in trimethylation but not in dimethylation or monomethylation, the bands for H3K27me2 and H3K27me1 were detected in all samples examined, but the band for H3K27me3 was limited in primary ATL cells and ATL cell lines LMY1 and KOB that showed an intense EZH2 band with a faint phosphorylated EZH2 band (Figure 2A and B). In contrast, EZH2 was strongly phosphorylated in ATL cell lines ST1, SO4, KK1, and acute T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines Jurkat and MOLT4, and these cell lines hardly showed the band for H3K27me3. Collectively, these results indicate that ATL cells express

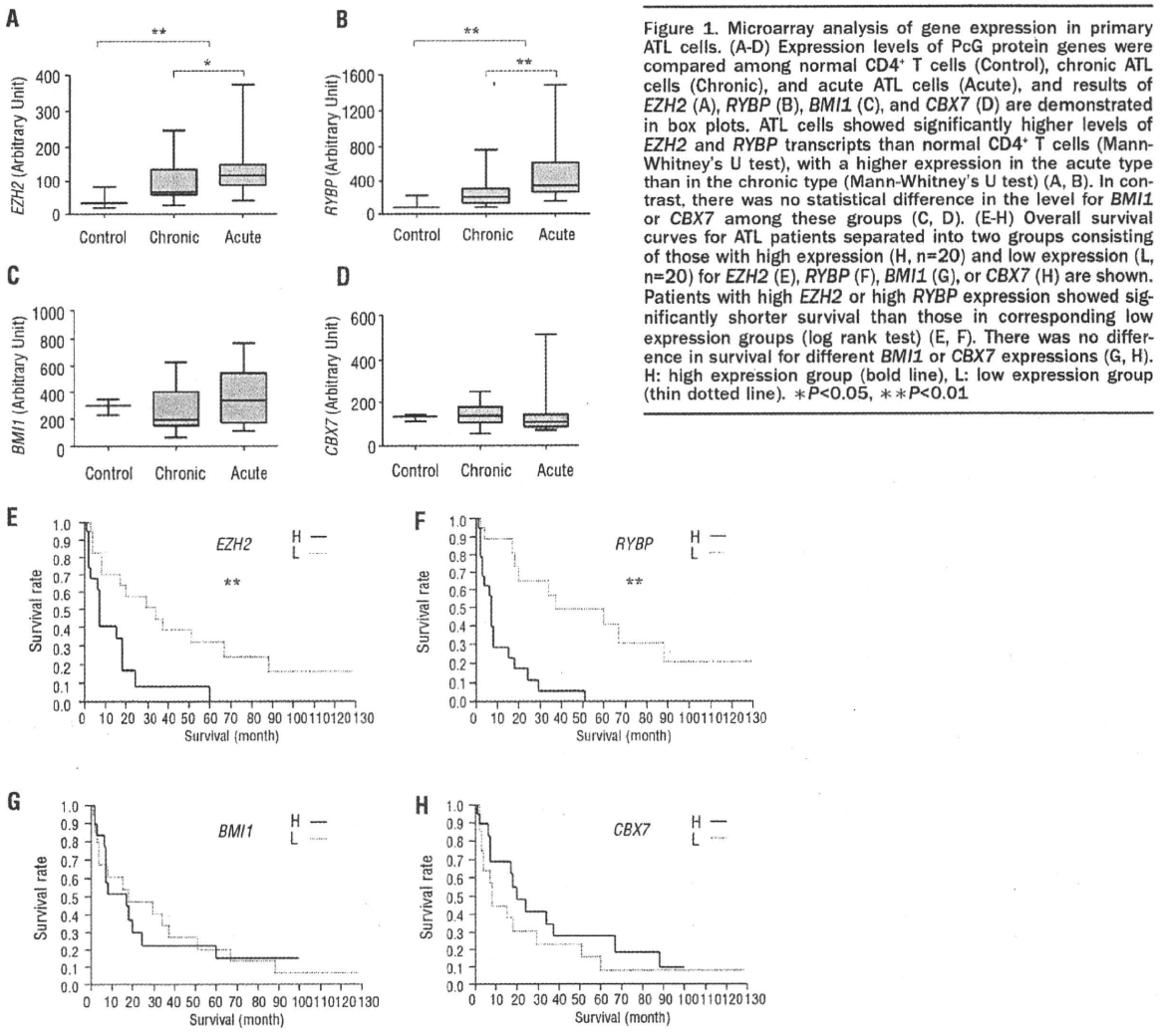

Figure 1. Microarray analysis of gene expression in primary ATL cells. (A-D) Expression levels of PcG protein genes were compared among normal CD4⁺ T cells (Control), chronic ATL cells (Chronic), and acute ATL cells (Acute), and results of *EZH2* (A), *RYBP* (B), *BMI1* (C), and *CBX7* (D) are demonstrated in box plots. ATL cells showed significantly higher levels of *EZH2* and *RYBP* transcripts than normal CD4⁺ T cells (Mann-Whitney's U test), with a higher expression in the acute type than in the chronic type (Mann-Whitney's U test) (A, B). In contrast, there was no statistical difference in the level for *BMI1* or *CBX7* among these groups (C, D). (E-H) Overall survival curves for ATL patients separated into two groups consisting of those with high expression (H, n=20) and low expression (L, n=20) for *EZH2* (E), *RYBP* (F), *BMI1* (G), or *CBX7* (H) are shown. Patients with high *EZH2* or high *RYBP* expression showed significantly shorter survival than those in corresponding low expression groups (log rank test) (E, F). There was no difference in survival for different *BMI1* or *CBX7* expressions (G, H). H: high expression group (bold line), L: low expression group (thin dotted line). *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$

functionally active EZH2, and as a result, their H3K27 are trimethylated, and that ATL cell lines LMY1 and KOB preserve this characteristic of primary ATL cells.

Immunohistochemical confirmation of the expression of EZH2 and H3K27me3 in lymph nodes

We next used lymph nodes from lymphoma-type ATL patients for immunohistochemical evaluation of EZH2 expression and H3K27me3. In agreement with the results of Western blotting, all ATL lymph nodes from 7 patients were strongly positive for both EZH2 and H3K27me3 without exception in their nuclear staining (*Online Supplementary Figure S3* and *data not shown*), suggesting that overexpression of EZH2 with H3K27me3 is a common feature of ATL cells irrespective of ATL subtypes. In contrast, in lymph nodes from 5 follicular lymphoma patients, only a few cells were positive for EZH2 with some variation among patients and most cells were negative for H3K27me3 (*Online Supplementary Figure S3* and *data not shown*).

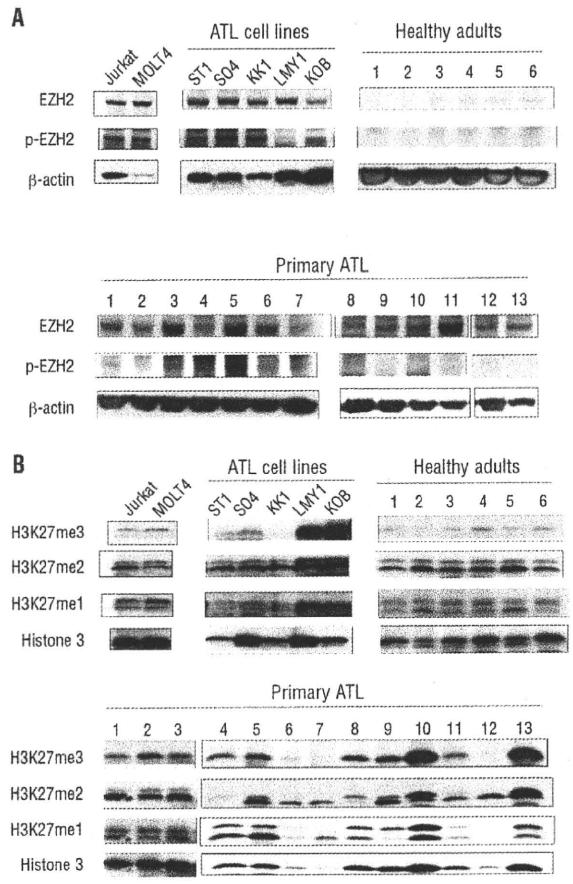

Figure 2. EZH2 protein expression and histone methylation. (A) Western blot analysis for EZH2 protein was performed on primary ATL cells, cells from healthy adults, and ATL cell lines. Primary ATL cells showed a clear 98-kDa band for EZH2 with the absence or presence of faint bands for phosphorylated EZH2 (p-EZH2). Cells from healthy adults hardly showed these bands. ATL cell lines ST1, SO4, and KK1 showed intense bands for both EZH2 and p-EZH2, but LM-Y1 and KOB cells showed intense bands for EZH2 with the absence of a band for p-EZH2. (B) Western blot analysis for histone methylation status was performed. Only primary ATL cells and LM-Y1 and KOB cell lines showed a clear band for H3K27me3, but others hardly showed the band. Bands for H3K27me2, H3K27me1, and histone H3 were observed in almost all samples examined.

Downregulation of miR-101 and miR-128a may be responsible for increased EZH2 expression

So far, more than 700 miRNAs have been identified in humans, and each miRNA regulates multiple target genes. miR-101 and miR-26a have been shown to be negative regulators of *EZH2* expression and are depressed in several types of cancer cells.[34,35] miR-128a is known to be a negative regulator of *BMI1* and has been reported to be involved in glioma cell proliferation.[36] We quantified these miRNAs in primary ATL cells and cells from HTLV-1 carriers to investigate the mechanism of *EZH2* overexpression. ATL cells showed significantly decreased levels of miR-101 and miR-128a compared with the cells from HTLV-1 carriers (Figure 3A and C). Notably, there were significant inverse correlations between *EZH2* expression and miR-101 expression or *EZH2* expression and miR-128a expression (Figure 3D and E), suggesting that decrease of these miRNAs accounts for the overexpression of *EZH2*. Since genomic loss of miR-101 has been reported in prostate cancer,[34] we performed quantitative genomic PCR for miR-101 in two loci, miR-101-1 (chromosome 1p31) and miR-101-2 (chromosome 9p24). Both loci were preserved in all 10 ATL samples examined (*Online Supplementary Figure S4*). The expression of miR-26a did not, in contrast, differ between ATL cells and cells from HTLV-1 carriers (Figure 3B). Unexpectedly, there was no significant correlation between *BMI1* expression and miR-128a expression (Figure 3F).

Adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma cells are sensitive to DZNep and PS (LBH589)

We first examined the sensitivity of ATL-related cell lines and acute T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines to DZNep, an inhibitor of S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase, which has recently been shown to decrease the expression of EZH2 and histone methylation.[22,23] DZNep inhibited the proliferation of these cell lines, at concentrations above 0.5 μM (*Online Supplementary Figure S5A*). In contrast, $CD4^+$ T cells from healthy adults as a normal control were resistant to DZNep even at 5 μM. Notably, although DZNep decreased *EZH2* expression in ST1, SO4, and KK1, it did not decrease but rather increased the expression in KOB, results which were confirmed by Western blot (*Online Supplementary Figure S5B and C*). PS (LBH589) is also known to decrease the level of EZH2 in several types of leukemia cells.[24] One hundred nM of PS (LBH589) decreased *EZH2* expression at both transcript and protein levels in ATL cell lines including KOB and LM-Y1, which showed a similar EZH2 expression profile to that of primary ATL cells, namely, high EZH2 expression with low phosphorylated EZH2 and strong H3K27me3 (*Online Supplementary Figure S5D and E*). We next examined whether these agents show a synergistic effect or just an additive effect. As shown in *Online Supplementary Figure S5F* (upper panel), the cell viabilities of LM-Y1 treated with 25 nM PS (LBH589) or 2.5 μM DZNep were 70% and 87%, respectively. A combination of this setting (LBH:DZNep=1:100) markedly decreased the proportion of viable cells (40%) compared with that of cells treated

with either agent alone. Similarly, cell viabilities of KOB treated with 25 nM PS (LBH589), 2.5 μM DZNep, or a combination of these agents were 86%, 93%, and 48%, respectively. By calculating CI according to the method of Chou and Talalay,[29] we found a strong synergistic antiproliferative effect in both cell lines (*Online Supplementary Figure S5F*, lower panel).

Discussion

EZH2 is a critical component of PRC2, which mediates epigenetic gene silencing through trimethylation of H3K27.[37,38] EED and SUZ12 are also required for the exhibition of methyltransferase activity and for the localization of this complex to target genes.[39] In an analysis of genome-wide H3K27 methylation in aggressive prostate cancer tissues, a significant subset of the target genes were also targets in embryonic stem cells, suggesting that the mechanism for gene silencing used to maintain stem cell renewal is converted into oncogenesis.[40] Ectopic expression of EZH2 is capable of providing a proliferative advantage to primary cells, and its gene locus is amplified in primary tumors.[41] Indeed, increased EZH2 expression has been reported in several types of cancer cells, and its clinical significance is extensively studied in prostate cancer.[42] Amounts of both *EZH2* transcript and EZH2 protein were elevated in metastatic prostate cancer; in addition, clinically localized prostate cancers that express higher concentrations of *EZH2* showed a poorer prognosis. An association of increased EZH2 expression with poor prognosis has also been reported in other solid tumors. Currently, however, there are only limited reports describing EZH2 expression in hematologic malignancies.

In the present study, we showed for the first time that EZH2 was over-expressed in ATL cells, and that the increased EZH2 was not phosphorylated and was in its active form. The increased EZH2 seemed to exhibit histone methyltransferase activity *in vivo*, as supported by the results that ATL cells from both peripheral blood and lymph nodes were strongly positive for H3K27me3. Since EZH2 was almost undetectable in cells from healthy adults and HTLV-1 carriers, it is likely that deregulation of PRC2 caused by over-expressed EZH2 is involved in the early steps of ATL oncogenesis. Meanwhile, ATL patients with high EZH2 expression showed shorter survival than patients with low EZH2 expression, indicating that increased EZH2 also plays a role in the process of ATL progression. It has been reported that genes methylated in cancer cells are specifically packaged with nucleosomes containing H3K27.[43] However, there are only a few studies that actually examined H3K27me3 in primary tumor cells or tissues. In one such study, H3K27me3 expression was unexpectedly lower in breast, ovarian, and pancreatic cancers than in corresponding normal tissues, although it has been reported that there are increased levels of H3K27me3 in breast cancer cell lines.[44,45] We do not have an adequate explanation for these conflicts at present, but there may be some differences in the process of oncogenesis between solid tumors and hematologic malignancies.

The mechanism of the overexpression of EZH2 in tumors remains largely unknown. miRNAs regulate gene expression and play important roles in cellular differentiation and embryonic stem cell development. Recently, two miRNAs, miR-101 and miR-26a, were found to repress *EZH2* expression. The expression of miR-101 decreases in parallel with an increase in *EZH2* expression during progression in prostate tumors.[34] In addition to these miRNAs, we examined miR-128a, which has been shown to repress *BMI1* expression in glioblastoma, because overexpression of *BMI-1* is associated with the development of malignant lymphoma.[31,36] ATL cells showed a decreased level of miR-

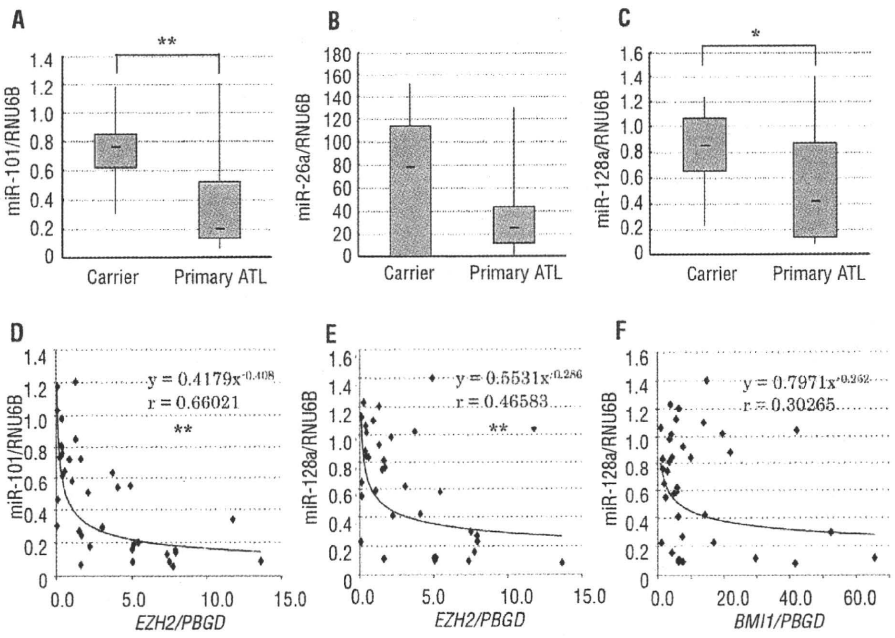

Figure 3. Quantitative real-time RT-PCR for miRNAs. (A-C) Expressions of miR-101 (A), miR-26a (B), and miR-128a (C) were compared between ATL patients and HTLV-1 carriers. Primary ATL cells showed significantly lower levels of miR-101 and miR-128a (Mann-Whitney's U test) compared with the cells from HTLV-1 carriers (A, C). There was no significant difference in miR-26a expression between the two groups (B). (D, E, F) Correlation between miRNA and *EZH2* or *BMI1* expression was examined. There were significant inverse correlations between normalized *EZH2* expression and miR-101 expression (D) or between normalized *EZH2* expression and miR-128a expression (E) (Spearman's correlation coefficient). In contrast, there was no correlation between normalized *BMI1* expression and miR-128a expression (F). *$P<0.05$, **$P<0.01$

101 expression compared with the cells from HTLV-1 carriers, which is not caused by genomic loss of the *miR-101* gene, in contrast to prostate cancer.[34] Moreover, there was a clear inverse correlation between *EZH2* expression and miR-101 expression, suggesting that increased *EZH2* is caused by the decrease in miR-101 expression. Although currently there is no report indicating an association of miR-128a with *EZH2* expression, miR-128a showed exactly the same pattern as miR-101, suggesting that the decrease in miR-128a also participates in *EZH2* overexpression in ATL. By analyzing the 3'-UTR sequence of *EZH2*, it has recently been shown that there are two predicted miR-101 target sites and one predicted miR-26a target site in the 3'-UTR of EZH2.[46] We performed a similar analysis and found that there was also a potential target site for miR-128a near one of the miR-101 target sites (*Online Supplementary Figure S6*). miR-26a was not decreased in ATL cells, and there was no correlation between miR-26a expression and *EZH2* expression or miR-128a expression and *BMI1* expression. The association of miR-26a with *EZH2* was found in normal cell differentiation as a physiological phenomenon but not in tumor cells. The miRNAs used to regulate normal development and differentiation may be different from those used for the development of tumors. Another possible explanation for the mechanism of increased *EZH2* expression in ATL is inactivation of *p14ARF/p15INK4B/p16INK4A* tumor suppressor genes, which frequently occurs in ATL.[14,15,19,20] EZH2 is a molecule downstream of the pRB-E2F pathway, and inactivation of these genes allows E2F to be released from pRB, which results in the upregulation of *EZH2* expression.[41] Several recent reports indicate that EZH2 functions to repress the expression of *p14ARF/p15INK4B/p16INK4A*; therefore, increased EZH2 may be used to further decrease the expression of *p14ARF/p15INK4B/p16INK4A*.[47] Since somatic mutations altering EZH2 (Tyr641) have recently been reported in follicular and diffuse large B-cell lymphomas of germinal-center origin,[48] we performed a similar analysis in 10 primary ATL samples. There were however no such mutations (*Online Supplementary Figure S7*).

ATL is quite resistant to antineoplastic agents and the median survival time of those with the aggressive subtypes is only 13 months, even in a recent multicenter clinical trial.[49] Since high EZH2 expression with H3K27me3 seems to be an essential component for the initiation and promotion of cell proliferation in ATL, we searched for the possibility of therapeutic strategies targeting EZH2. We examined the sensitivity of ATL cells to agents that have been shown to inhibit *EZH2* expression and histone methylation. DZNep is a carbocyclic analog of adenosine synthesized more than 20 years ago as an inhibitor of S-adenosylhomocysteine hydrolase, which has therapeutic potential as an anticancer or antiviral drug.[21] DZNep has recently aroused interest for its unique features; it decreases the expressions of *EZH2*, *SUZ12*, and *EED* with inhibition of H3K27 methylation and induces apoptosis in cancer cells but not in normal cells.[22,23] ATL cell lines were sensitive to DZNep and their cell proliferation was attenuated at one-tenth of the concentration used in these studies. More interestingly, DZNep showed no toxicity to normal $CD4^+$ T cells as a normal control. Acute T-lymphoblastic leukemia cell lines showed similar sensitivities to DZNep, which may indicate that DZNep exerts general toxicity to leukemia and lymphoma cells not necessarily associated with histone modification. Indeed, although DZNep rather increased EZH2 expression in KOB cells, this cell line was equally sensitive as other cell lines to DZNep. HDAC inhibitor PS (LBH589) is an effective agent for cutaneous T-cell lymphoma and induced complete remission in 2 of 9 patients involved in a phase I clinical trial.[50] More interestingly, it has been reported recently that combined use of DZNep and PS (LBH589) yielded more depletion of EZH2 and induced more apoptosis of leukemia cells, but not normal CD34 (+) bone marrow progenitor cells.[51] In the present study, we showed that the combination of DZNep and PS (LBH589) exhibited a synergistic effect in killing ATL cells. Thus, epigenetic therapy by the combined use of these agents that inhibit histone methylation could lead to a breakthrough in the treatment of aggressive ATL.

Authorship and Disclosures

The information provided by the authors about contributions from persons listed as authors and in acknowledgments is available with the full text of this paper at www.haematologica.org.

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Review Article

Oncogenic mutations of *ALK* in neuroblastoma

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Neuroblastoma is one of the most common solid cancers among children. Prognosis of advanced neuroblastoma is still poor despite the recent advances in chemo/radiotherapies. In view of improving the clinical outcome of advanced neuroblastoma, it is important to identify the key molecules responsible for the pathogenesis of neuroblastoma and to develop effective drugs that target these molecules. Anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK) is a receptor tyrosine kinase, initially identified through the analysis of a specific translocation associated with a rare subtype of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma. Recently it was demonstrated that *ALK* is frequently mutated in sporadic cases with advanced neuroblastoma. Moreover, germline mutations of *ALK* were shown to be responsible for the majority of hereditary neuroblastoma. ALK mutants found in neuroblastoma show constitutive active kinase activity and oncogenic potentials. Inhibition of ALK in neuroblastoma cell lines carrying amplified or mutated *ALK* alleles results in compromised downstream signaling and cell growth, indicating potential roles of small molecule ALK inhibitors in the therapeutics of neuroblastoma carrying mutated ALK kinases. (*Cancer Sci* 2011; 102: 302–308)

Neuroblastoma is a malignant embryonal neoplasm arising from developing neural crest tissues.[1] It commonly affects younger children, where the median age of diagnosis is 17 months and approximately 90% of the patients are <4 years old. In the United States, the incidence of neuroblastoma is estimated to be one in 7000 births, although the incidence calculated from the mass screening program in Japan was as high as 29.80 cases per 100 000 births, which is significantly higher than the estimation in the prescreening cohort (11.56 cases per 100 000 births).[2] It is the third most common cancer in childhood after leukemia and brain tumors, accounting for 7–11% of all pediatric cancers.[3] The presentation and following clinical courses of neuroblastoma are highly variable, ranging from a solitary localized mass with no apparent clinical symptoms to widely disseminated diseases presenting with severe systemic illness.[1] While some tumors undergo spontaneous regression without therapy, approximately 60–70% of high-risk neuroblastoma patients are resistant to any therapies currently available and succumb to death,[4–6] even though a substantial improvement in 5-year survival rates has been obtained for a subset of advanced tumors through the development of multimodal chemo/radiotherapies during the past several decades.[1] Thus, one of the urgent problems in the current neuroblastoma treatment would be to develop rational and effective therapeutic strategies for the high-risk neuroblastoma cases based on their molecular pathogenesis.

On the other hand, during the past three decades, little advancement has been made in the understanding of neuroblastoma pathogenesis in terms of critical gene targets, except for the identification of frequent *MYCN* amplification.[7] Amplification of the *MYCN* gene is found in approximately 20% of neuroblastoma, especially in advanced diseases, and has been consistently associated with poor prognosis.[8,9] Although *MYCN* amplification is a critical genetic event in neuroblastoma development,[10] it encodes a transcription factor and thus may not be a plausible pharmacological target for therapeutics. Recently, several groups independently discovered activating mutations of the *ALK* gene in the majority of familial neuroblastoma and also in a subset of sporadic neuroblastoma cases.[11–14] Given that the mutated ALK kinases are well-tractable targets for small-molecule kinase inhibitors, the discovery draws attention in the field of neuroblastoma research. In this review, we provide a brief overview of the role of *ALK* mutations in neuroblastoma pathogenesis and their implication in future therapeutics.

Genetic analysis of familial neuroblastoma

One of the first clues to identifying the novel genetic target of neuroblastoma was obtained from a linkage study of neuroblastoma-prone families. It was recognized that approximately 1–2% of newly diagnosed neuroblastoma cases occur within families (familial/hereditary neuroblastoma), indicating the existence of dominantly acting neuroblastoma susceptibility gene(s),[15–19] although previous linkage studies, in an attempt to identify the susceptibility locus, failed to provide a reproducible result due to the insufficient power of the studies.[20–22] Germline mutations of the paired-like homeobox 2B (*PHOX2B*) gene at 4p12 was reported to be responsible for neuroblastoma predisposition, but they were mostly related to a rare form of familial neuroblastoma associated with congenital central hypoventilation syndrome (CCHS) and/or Hirschsprung disease, with rare somatic mutations.[23–26] Recently, researchers at the Pennsylvania University analyzed 20 neuroblastoma pedigrees for linkage using approximately 6000 genetic markers, and mapped a candidate neuroblastoma susceptibility locus to the 2p region between rs18621106 and rs2008535, which contains 104 genes including *MYCN* and *ALK*.[11] Through a resequencing analysis of the *ALK* exons within the pedigrees they identified germline mutations of the *ALK* gene in >90% of the pedigrees that co-segregated with neuroblastoma development within the families, clearly demonstrating that the germline *ALK* mutations are responsible for the susceptibility to the development of hereditary neuroblastoma in the majority of the cases.[11,12] Moreover, the subsequent analysis of *ALK* mutations in sporadic neuroblastoma cases identified a subset of sporadic neuroblastoma cases carrying acquired/germline mutations of *ALK*, which was also reported independently by other groups.[12–14,27]

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Genome-wide copy number scanning of neuroblastoma

These groups conducted genome-wide copy number analyses of neuroblastoma using comparative genomic hybridization (CGH) arrays[12] or single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) arrays.[11,14,27,28] With thousands to half-a-million genetic probes, both platforms enabled high-throughput detection of subtle genetic changes occurring in tumor genomes.[29,30] Neuroblastoma genomes show characteristic copy number changes that involve large chromosomal segments, including gains of 17q, 1q, 2p and 11p, and losses of 1p, 3p and 11q, which, like other human cancers, collectively comprise a unique genomic profile of neuroblastoma.[11,12,14] High-level amplifications, which usually involve discrete chromosomal regions <1 Mb in length, occurred in approximately 30% of neuroblastoma cases. Approximately 90% of the high-level amplifications in neuroblastoma were centered on the *MYCN* locus at 2p24, whereas other amplicons rarely mutually overlapped, except for the amplifications at 2p23, which exclusively involved the *ALK* locus in common[12,14,28] (Fig. 1).

High-level amplification of the *ALK* gene and aberrantly activated ALK signaling in neuroblastoma was first described by Osajima-Hakomori *et al.*[31] in two neuroblastoma-derived cell lines and a single case of primary neuroblastoma. The genome-wide copy number studies confirmed their finding, in which the frequency of *ALK* amplifications is reported to occur in 3–5% of primary neuroblastoma cases.[11,12,14] Subsequent resequencing studies of *ALK* coding exons disclosed non-synonymous nucleotide substitutions of *ALK* in a subset of sporadic neuroblastoma cases and also of neuroblastoma-derived cell lines with mutation rates of approximately 6–11% and approximately 30%, respectively. Amplified *ALK* alleles, as a rule, did not harbor additional mutations, although in rare cases mutated ALK alleles were amplified.

Genetic abnormalities of the *ALK* gene in human cancers

ALK was initially isolated as a partner of the fusion gene generated by t(2;5)(q23;q35) translocation, which is characteristic of anaplastic large cell lymphoma (ALCL), a rare subtype of non-Hodgkin's lymphoma.[32,33] *ALK* encodes an orphan receptor tyrosine kinase with an apparent molecular mass of 220 kDa. Jelly belly,[34] and pleiotrophin[35] and midkine[36] have been postulated as putative ALK ligands in *Drosophila* and mammalians, respectively, but a dispute about the authentic ligands of ALK still remains. ALK has an extracellular domain that is highly similar to LTK and, together with IGF-1R and c-Ros kinases, belongs to the insulin family of proteins.[37] Expression of ALK is largely restricted to neural tissues and is most abundant in the neonatal brain and, to a lesser extent, in the adult brain.[38–41] In the developing brain, the highest expression was found in the thalamus, mid-brain, olfactory bulb and selected parts of cranial and dorsal ganglia.[38,39] It is of particular note that high frequencies of ALK expression were reported in primary neuroblastoma specimens (22 out of 24 samples) and in other tumor cell lines derived from neuroectdermal tumors including neuroblastoma (13 out of 29 cell lines).[42] These expression patterns of ALK suggest its primary role in normal neural development as well as the pathogenesis of neuroblastoma, although *ALK*-deficient mice seem to show apparently normal develop.[37]

In t(2;5)(q23;q35) translocation, the carbonyl terminal of ALK that contains a kinase domain is fused with nucleophosmin (NPM), generating NPM/ALK fusion protein. *ALK* was also shown to participate in the generation of different fusion genes with a variety of partner genes in ALCL,[43–47] inflammatory fibroblastic tumor,[43,48–52] squamous cell carcinoma of the esophagus[53] and non-small-cell lung cancers (NSCLC).[54,55] In NSCLC, *ALK* was reported to be fused with EML4 to generate EML4–ALK fusion protein as a result of inv(2)(p21p23), which is found in 6% of the NSCLC cases[55] (Fig. 2).

These ALK-containing fusion proteins invariably show constitutive kinase activity and transform NIH3T3 cells and/or confer growth factor independence to 32D and/or Ba/F3 cells.[56–58] When bone marrow cells were retrovirally transduced with *NPM–ALK* and transplanted into mice, they developed B-cell lymphoma within 4 months.[58] The critical role of ALK fusion proteins in neoplastic evolution has been further demonstrated

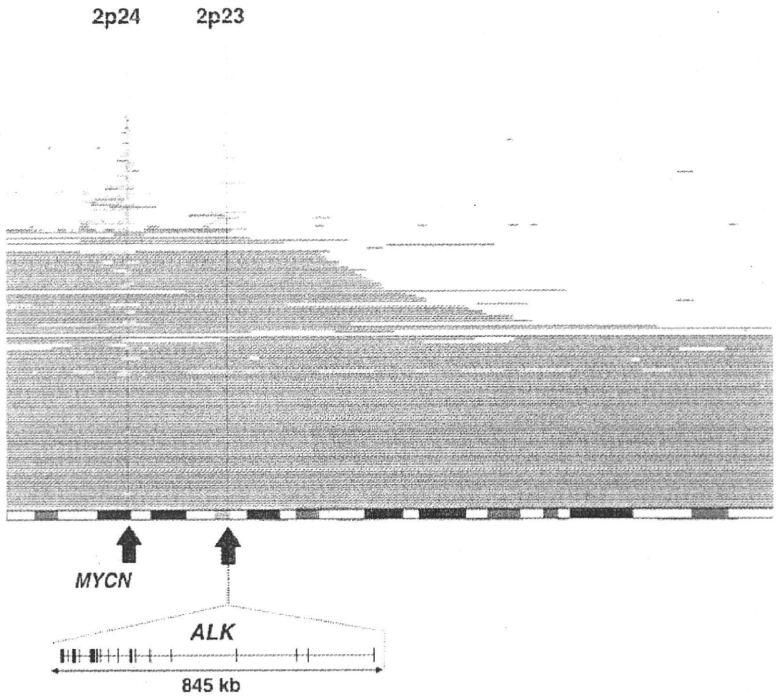

Fig. 1. Copy number gains and high-level amplifications in the short arm of chromosome 2 in neuroblastoma. Each horizontal line indicates a region showing a simple copy number (CN) gain (CN < 5; thick red) and high-level amplification (CN > 5; thin red) in each case. The majority of high-level amplifications involved the *MYCN* locus at 2p24, while the other group of amplicons is found at 2p23, which exclusively contains the *ALK* locus.

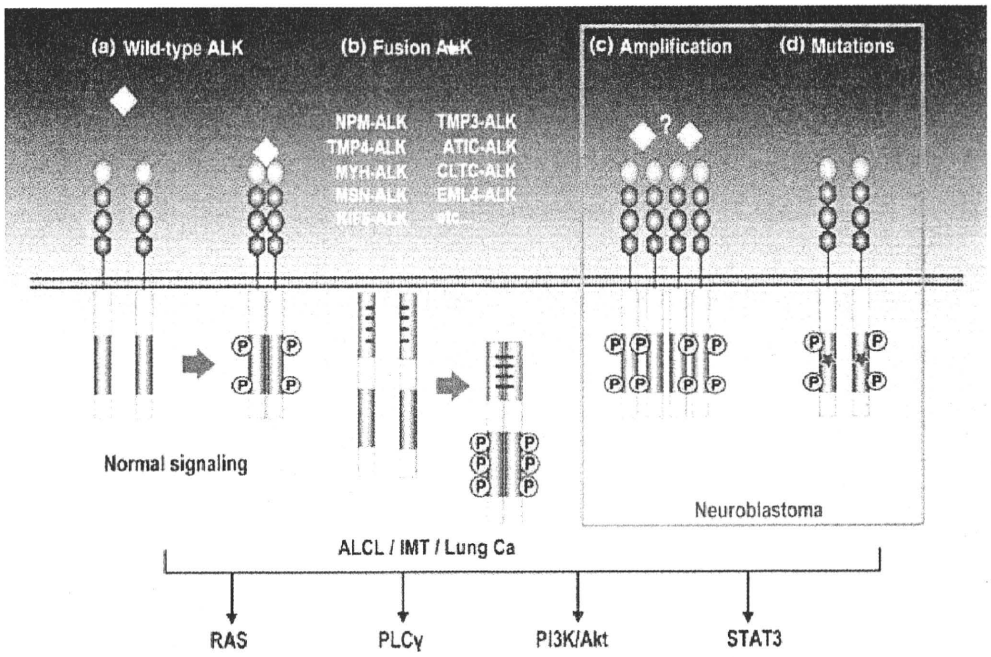

Fig. 2. Aberrant activation of ALK in human cancers. (a) Ligand-dependent physiological activation of wild-type ALK. (b) Fusion ALK kinases found in anaplastic large cell lymphoma (ALCL) and non-small-cell lung cancer (Lung Ca), such as NPM–ALK and EML4–ALK, self-dimerize through their N-terminal domains derived from fusion partners, leading to their transphosphorylation and constitutive activation of the kinase. In a subset of neuroblastoma, aberrant activation of ALK occurs by gene amplification (c) or somatic/germline mutations (d). Activated ALK transmits constitutive signals through downstream pathways, which is thought to be important for tumorigenesis. IMT indicates inflammatory myofibroblastic tumor.

using transgenic mouse models with *ALK* fusion genes; mice carrying *NPM–ALK* or *EML4–ALK* transgenes under *Vav* or *CD4*, or *surfactant protein C* promoter develop aggressive lymphoma or adenocarcinoma of the lung, respectively.[59–61] The aberrant kinase activity of these ALK-fusion proteins is thought to be caused by transphosphorylation upon self-dimerization through their N-terminal domain derived from the fusion partners. Mutations or deletions of the dimerization domain of NPM–ALK and EML4–ALK result in loss of the transforming capacity of the fusion kinases.[55,57] The constitutive active fusion kinases transmit signals through activation of a variety of signal transducers, including PLCγ, PI3K/AKT, STAT3 and RAS.[62–67]

In neuroblastoma, on the other hand, aberrant activation of ALK kinase is caused by gene amplification[31] or mutations.[11–14] Thus, ALK represents a unique type of oncogenic kinase, in that it is deregulated either by gene fusions, or by gene amplification or mutations, depending on the tumor type.

Biological consequences of ALK mutations

Most reported *ALK* mutations occurred within the kinase domain, in which three highly conserved amino acid positions, F1174, F1245 and R1275, were predominantly affected, suggesting their functional importance for the regulation of kinase activity[11–14] (Figs 3,4). The F1174 residue is located at the end of the Cα1 helix and corresponds to equivalent positions mutated in EGFR (V769) and ERBB2 (V769), while the F1245 lies in the catalytic domain and corresponds to the L833 residue of EGFR, a mutation of which is reported to be associated with gefitinib resistance in lung cancer (Fig. 5).[13] The R1275 position lies within the activation loop and is invariably changed to glutamine, and amino acid substitution at this position to a positively charged one would displace the loop to positions that permit autophosphorylation and autoactivation of the kinase (Fig. 5).[68,69] However, the distributions of these mutations were different between sporadic cases and familial cases; R1275 mutations are commonly found in both sporadic and familial cases, while no germline mutations involving the F1174 or F1245 position have been reported.[11–14] Because not all mutant *ALK* carriers develop neuroblastoma (i.e. incomplete penetrance), a germline *ALK* mutation is not fully oncogenic and additional genetic events are thought to be required for neuroblastoma development. *ALK* mutations tend to be associated with advanced diseases and also with *MYCN* amplification in sporadic neuroblastoma cases, although the trend was not clear for germline *ALK* mutations.[11–14]

When expressed in NIH3T3 cells, the predominant kinase domain mutant (F1174L) and a juxtamembrane mutant (K1062M) are shown to have transforming capacity; mutant-transduced cells display increased colony formation in soft agar and tumor generation in nude mice, whereas the mutant kinases show increased autophosphorylation and *in vitro* kinase activity compared with wild-type ALK.[14] In addition, when introduced into an IL-3-dependent cell line, BaF3, the two major kinase domain mutants (F1174L and R1275Q), render the cell line independent of IL-3.[13] Expression of the F1174L mutant in NIH3T3 and Ba/F3 cells leads to constitutive activation of the downstream signaling pathways of the ALK kinase, as demonstrated by increased levels of phosphorylated ERK1/2, STAT3 and AKT.[13,14] These functional and biochemical studies together indicate that these ALK mutants are actually oncogenic and could be responsible for the pathogenesis of neuroblastoma.

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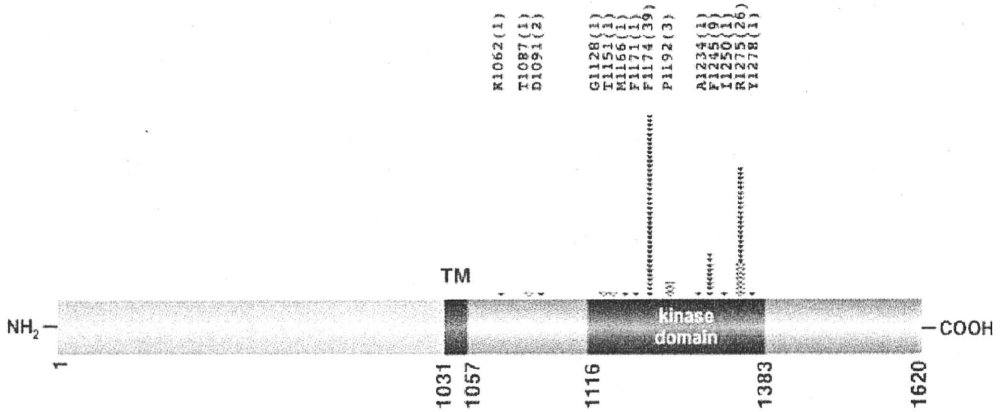

Fig. 3. Frequency and distribution of *ALK* mutations reported in familial and sporadic cases of neuroblastoma.[11–14,27] Locations of somatic and germline mutations of *ALK* in each case or family are depicted by filled and open arrows, respectively. The exact positions and amino acids involved are indicated on the top, where the number of reported mutations is indicated in parenthesis.

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                    1174
HUMAN ALK     ...ALIISKFNHQNIVR..
HUMAN LTK     ...ALIISKFRHQNIVR..
HUMAN INSR    ...ASVMKGFTCHHVVR..
HUMAN IGF1R   ...ASVMKEFNCHHVVR..

                    1245
HUMAN ALK     ...EENHFIHRDIAARN..
HUMAN LTK     ...EENHFIHRDIAARN..
HUMAN INSR    ...NAKKFVHRDLAARN..
HUMAN IGF1R   ...NANKFVHRDLAARN..

                    1275
HUMAN ALK     ...GDFGMARDIYRASY..
HUMAN LTK     ...GDFGMARDIYRASY..
HUMAN INSR    ...GDFGMTRDIYETDY..
HUMAN IGF1R   ...GDFGMTRDIYETDY..
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Fig. 4. Alignment of amino acids of ALK among different species. Conserved amino-acids among different insulin receptor family kinases are shown by gray boxes and the mutated positions are shown in red.

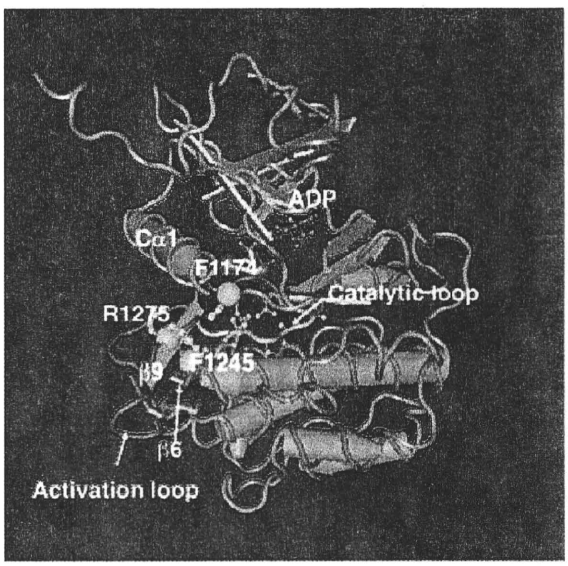

Fig. 5. A 3-D structure of the kinase domain of ALK kinase predicted from that solved for IGF-1R, where the positions of three major mutations are indicated by light blue spheres. Activation and catalytic loops are depicted by red and pink wires.

Effects of ALK inhibition on ALK fusion kinases

The critical role of *ALK* mutations in neuroblastoma development is further supported by the experiments using inhibition of mutant ALK. Tumor suppressive effects of ALK inhibition have been well documented in *NPM–ALK*-positive ALCL and *EML4–ALK*-positive NSCLC. NVP–TAE684 is a highly potent and selective small molecule ALK inhibitor, which blocks the growth of ALCL-derived cell lines with very low IC_{50} values between 2 and 10 nM.[70] NVP–TAE684 treatment of ALCL-derived cell lines induces rapid and sustained inhibition of phosphorylation of NPM–ALK and its downstream signaling, leading to cell cycle arrest and apoptosis.[70] NVP–TAE684 also induces varying degrees of growth suppression in *EML4–ALK*-bearing lung cancer cell lines, including NCI-H3112, NCI-H2228 and DFCI032.[67,71] PF-2341066 was another compound, which was initially identified as an orally available c-Met inhibitor in biochemical enzymatic screens, but was subsequently found to show selective inhibition of ALK.[72,73] It is highly selective for both ALK and c-Met kinases, being almost 20-fold selective for ALK and c-Met compared with 120 other kinases.[73] PF-2341066 inhibited cell growth of NPM–ALK-positive ALCL-derived cell lines, as well as EML4–ALK-positive NSCLC-derived cell lines with decreased downstream signaling pathways, although their IC_{50} values were significantly higher than those of NVP–TAE684.[71,72] Recently, Soda *et al.* generated transgenic mice, in which the *EML4–ALK*-transgene was selectively expressed in the developing lung under the *surfactant protein C* promoter.[61] All mice developed multiple lung adenocarcinomas soon after birth, which were successfully treated with a 2,4-pyrimidinediamine derivative that specifically inhibits ALK kinase.[61] These observations strongly support that aberrant ALK activity of ALK-fusion proteins is central to the development of ALCL and NSCLC.

Effects of ALK inhibition on *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma cell lines

In neuroblastoma, the predominant mechanism of ALK activation should be some conformational change caused by a point mutation typically involving the kinase domain, which potentially affects the kinetics of ALK inhibitors on the mutated kinase. However, as long as major ALK mutants are concerned, their kinase activity seems to be successfully inhibited by the currently available ALK inhibitors. Ba/F3 cells transduced with the F1174L or R1275Q ALK mutant were effectively killed by NVP–TAE684 or PF-2341066, whereas the cells transduced with a constitutive active FLT3 mutant or wild-type ALK were not.[13] Thus, both compounds specifically inhibit the kinase activity of these ALK mutants, although the inhibition is more efficient for F1174F than for R1275Q. In fact, many, if not all, neuroblastoma cell lines carrying mutated or amplified *ALK* alleles are shown to be sensitive to these ALK inhibitors.[12,13,71] Interestingly, the sensitivity of some neuroblastoma cell lines to small molecule ALK inhibitors was recognized prior to the discovery of *ALK* mutations in neuroblastoma. McDermott *et al.* tested more than 600 cancer cell lines for their sensitivity to NVP-TAE684 and/or PF-2341066 and found that neuroblastoma cell lines, as well as cell lines derived from ALCL and lung cancer, frequently show sensitivity to these inhibitors.[71] The dependence of *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma to ALK inhibition is further confirmed by ALK knockdown experiments; shRNA-mediated knockdown of ALK in *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma cell lines results in the suppression of cell growth, indicating that the major effect of ALK inhibitors on *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma cell lines are mediated by their activity on ALK rather than off-target effects on other kinases.

As mentioned above, the sensitivity of *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma cell lines to ALK inhibitors seems to substantially differ among cell lines, depending on the type of *ALK* mutations. The F1174L mutant seems to be more sensitive to NVP–TAE684 than the R1275Q mutant.[13] Some *ALK*-mutated cell lines were resistant to ALK inhibition; SMS–KCNR harbors the R1275Q mutation, but was not killed by NVP–TAE684 or shRNA, indicating that this cell line acquired some additional mutations, escaping from its dependence on ALK signaling.

Concluding remarks

Genetic analyses of neuroblastoma have revealed that aberrant activation of ALK kinase in human cancer is not only caused by gene fusions but also by gene amplification or germline/somatic mutations. However, probably the most significant impact of the discovery of *ALK* mutations in neuroblastoma would be the possibility of successful treatment of *ALK*-mutated neuroblastoma with small molecule ALK-inhibitors, which are now under development in several pharmaceutical companies. Because ALK expression is restricted to developing neural tissues and ALK-deficient mice develop normally,[37] mutated ALK is likely to be a plausible therapeutic target. Although the enthusiasm for *ALK*-targeted therapy for advanced neuroblastoma seems to be too early at this moment, an encouraging result was reported from a clinical trial of crizotinib (PF-2341066) for NSCLC carrying the *EML4–ALK* fusion gene. A total of 50 patients were evaluable for response, where 64% of the overall response rate and 90% of the disease control rate were obtained[74] with minimum adverse reactions. Nevertheless, the result in NSCLC is not easily translated into neuroblastoma cases. For example, while some ALK mutants are shown to be inhibited by the available ALK inhibitors *in vitro*, the impact of different mutation types on the action of inhibitors should be further evaluated. The effect of frequent co-existence of *MYCN* amplification with *ALK* mutations on sensitivity to ALK inhibitors is still elusive, although a cell line, KELLY, which carries both the F1174L mutation and *MYCN* amplification, was reported to be sensitive to NVP–TAE684.[13,71] Finally, the role of ALK inhibitors in *ALK*-non-mutated neuroblastoma is another interest. Some neuroblastoma cell lines (NBEBC1 and NB1771) were shown to be sensitive to shRNA-mediated ALK knockdown, even though they were reported to have no mutated *ALK* alleles.[11] Interestingly, ALK is phosphorylated in these cell lines at lower levels. Considering the frequent expression of ALK in neuroblastoma cells, it may be postulated that regardless of its mutation status, ALK play a positive role during the initiation and promotion of neuroblastoma, even though established tumors may or may not depend on the ALK activity. Clearly, much more work is required before the clinical role of ALK inhibitors in the treatment of advanced neuroblastoma is established.

Disclosure Statement

The authors have no conflict of interest.

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