# Two N-myc Polypeptides with Distinct Amino Termini Encoded by the Second and Third Exons of the Gene

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The N-myc and c-myc genes encode closely related nuclear phosphoproteins. We found that the N-myc protein from human tumor cell lines appears as four closely migrating polypeptide bands (p58 to p64) in sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gels. This and the recent finding that the c-myc protein is synthesized from two translational initiation sites located in the first and second exons of the gene (S. R. Hann, M. W. King, D. L. Bentley, C. W. Anderson, and R. N. Eisenman, Cell 52:185-195, 1988) prompted us to study the molecular basis of the N-myc protein heterogeneity. Dephosphorylation by alkaline phosphatase reduced the four polypeptide bands to a doublet with an electrophoretic mobility corresponding to the two faster-migrating N-myc polypeptides (p58 and p60). When expressed transiently in COS cells, an N-myc deletion construct lacking the first exon produced polypeptides similar to the wild-type N-myc protein, indicating that the first exon of the N-myc gene is noncoding. Furthermore, mutants deleted of up to two thirds of C-terminal coding domains still retained the capacity to produce a doublet of polypeptides, suggesting distinct amino termini for the two N-myc polypeptides. The amino-terminal primary structure of the N-myc protein was studied by site-specific point mutagenesis of the 5' end of the long open reading frame and by N-terminal radiosequencing of the two polypeptides. Our results show that the N-myc polypeptides are initiated from two alternative in-phase AUG codons located 24 base pairs apart at the 5' end of the second exon. Both of these polypeptides are phosphorylated and localized to the nucleus even when expressed separately. Interestingly, DNA rearrangements activating the c-myc gene are often found in the 1.7-kilobase-pair region between the two c-myc translational initiation sites and correlate with the loss of the longer c-myc polypeptide. Thus the close spacing of the two N-myc initiation codons could explain the relative resistance of the N-myc gene to similar modes of oncogenic activation.

The N-myc gene was originally identified as an amplified DNA fragment from human neuroblastomas on the basis of its homology to the v-myc oncogene (43). The N-myc gene is closely related to the more extensively investigated c-myc gene: both contain three exons, with long 5' and 3' untranslated regions, and a predicted single long open reading frame beginning with an ATG codon in the second exon. Overall homology of the deduced amino acid sequences is 32%, and distinct regions throughout the proteins are nearly identical (6, 43, 50). Interestingly, even the nonhomologous coding regions are highly conserved between the human and mouse N-myc genes, which show an overall homology of over 85% (13, 23, 50, 51). This suggests that the two genes perform similar but not identical functions. In line with such deductions, overexpressed human c-myc and N-myc genes complement mutant c-ras oncogenes in the transformation of rat primary embryonic cells in culture (44, 57) and transform Rat-1A cells without the assistance of other oncogenes (47). During cell and tissue differentiation the level of expression of both genes is reduced (52, 53, 59).

Several differences also exist between the expression of the two myc genes and their oncogenic potential. The c-mycgene is expressed in a wide variety of cells and tissues, and its mRNA is subject to a rapid regulation by transcriptional and posttranscriptional mechanisms in response to a variety of growth factors (for a review, see reference 37). In contrast, the N-myc gene is expressed in various tissues during embryogenesis, but expression in adult tissues is highly restricted (20, 59). The expression pattern of the two genes appears to be also reflected in their oncogenic spectra. The c-myc gene has been transduced by several acute transforming retroviruses, and it has been found activated by retroviral insertions in avian bursal and rodent T-cell lymphomas. Chromosomal translocations deregulate c-myc expression in B-cell malignancies of mice, rats, and humans (for reviews, see references 7 and 22). In addition, amplification of the c-myc gene occurs in a wide variety of tumors (1). In contrast to the various mechanisms of c-myc activation, amplification is the only known mechanism of activation of the N-myc proto-oncogene. N-myc amplifications have been found predominantly in tumors with neuroendocrine characteristics, namely, neuroblastomas (43), retinoblastomas (30), and small-cell lung cancers (35), but sporadically also in other tumors (14, 41). Interestingly, amplification of the N-myc gene in neuroblastoma correlates with advanced disease stage (8).

The c-myc and N-myc genes encode DNA-binding nuclear phosphoproteins with short half-lives (2, 16, 19, 36, 38, 39, 45). The molecular functions of the proteins are not known. However, both N-myc and c-myc proteins induce DNA replication (10, 11, 18); in addition, the c-myc protein has been proposed to function in transcriptional regulation (21) and in RNA processing (48). Both the c-myc and N-myc proteins appear as two major bands in polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis after metabolic labeling and immunoprecipitation. The genomic structures of the c-myc and N-myc genes suggest that both proteins are translated starting from an AUG codon in the second exon. However, it was recently reported that the two c-mvc bands represent two polypeptide chains with distinct N termini, with the translation of the longer of the two c-myc polypeptides initiating from a CUG codon in the first exon of c-myc (17). In this report we show

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that the N-myc protein is translated from two in-phase AUG initiation codons located only 24 bp apart in the second exon, resulting in two N-terminally distinct N-myc polypep-tides.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Preparation of antisera.** A 345-base-pair (bp) *PstI-XhoI* fragment from the second exon coding region of the N-myc gene was ligated between the *PstI* and *SalI* sites in the polylinker region of the procaryotic expression vector pEX-1 (49; a kind gift from K. K. Stanley). The resulting construct encodes a 120-kilodalton  $\beta$ -galactosidase–N-myc fusion protein containing 115 N-myc-derived amino acids. The N-myc- $\beta$ -galactosidase protein was purified by preparative sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). Gel slices containing the polypeptides were homogenized and used to immunize rabbits. The resulting antiserum was tested for specificity in immunoprecipitation and immunofluorescence experiments. The pan-myc antiserum (34) was a kind gift from Gerard Evan.

Construction of the N-myc expression vectors. For construction of plasmid SV-N-myc a 2.6-kilobase (kb) XbaI-BglII fragment from plasmid pNb-9 (44, 50; a kind gift from Manfred Schwab) spanning the second exon and a 2.2-kb BglII-EcoRI fragment from the same plasmid spanning the third exon were ligated into a 2.6-kb EcoRI-XbaI fragment containing plasmid sequences and the simian virus 40 (SV40) early promoter from the pSVcmyc1 vector (ATCC 37149). The resulting 7.4-kb SV-N-myc plasmid thus has an internal 400-bp BglII-BglII deletion in the second intron. For deletion constructs, (i) SV-N-myc was digested with XhoI-MluI, and recessed ends were filled with the large fragment of DNA polymerase I and ligated (SV-N- $\Delta$ I); (ii) the 2.2-kb Bg/II-EcoRI fragment of SV-N-myc containing exon III was replaced with a 1.6-kb BglII-EcoRI fragment from the pSV2neo vector (ATCC 37149) containing the SV40 polyadenylation signal (SV-N- $\Delta$ II); and (iii) a 3.2-kb BamHI-EcoRI fragment of SV-N-myc was replaced as in SV-N- $\Delta$ II  $(SV-N-\Delta III).$ 

Site-directed in vitro mutagenesis. For in vitro mutagenesis, four antisense oligonucleotides, 5'-GCAGCTCGGGAT CGGCTCG-3', 5'-TGGACGTGGATCAGCTCGGCA-3', 5'-CATGCCCGGGATGGTGGAC-3', and 5'-TCTTGCAGAT CAGGCCCGGCA-3', complementary to N-myc nucleotides 1619 to 1637, 1627 to 1647, 1643 to 1661, and 1651 to 1671, respectively, according to Stanton et al. (50), but containing one mismatch each (indicated by the bold letters), were synthesized with an Applied Biosystems (Foster City, Calif.) model 381A DNA synthesizer and further purified by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. A 1.2-kbp XbaI-BamHI fragment from SV-N-myc was cloned into M13mp19, and singlestranded DNA was used as a template for the in vitro mutagenesis reaction. Mutagenesis was carried out using a kit from Amersham (Buckinghamshire, United Kingdom) as recommended by the supplier. In some experiments, after synthesis and ligation of the second strand, remaining singlestranded DNA was excluded with an anion-exchange resin (Qiagen; Diagen GmbH, Düsseldorf, Federal Republic of Germany) instead of a nitrocellulose filter. The recombinant phages were absorbed to nitrocellulose filters, and mutants were identified by differential hybridization with  $[\gamma^{-32}P]ATP$ kinased mutant oligonucleotides. In some cases identification was by sequencing. Absence of other cloning artifacts was always confirmed by sequencing of the mutant clones followed by recloning of the mutant XbaI-BamHI fragment back to the SV-N-myc expression vector.

Cell culture, transfections, and radioactive labeling. The colon carcinoma cell line COLO320HSR (ATCC) and the small cell lung cancer cell lines GLC8 (9; a kind gift from Charles Buys, State University of Groningen, Groningen, The Netherlands) and CORL88 (4; a kind gift from Pamela Rabbitts) were grown in tissue culture flasks in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum. The neuroblastoma cell lines IMR-32 (ATCC) and Kelly (ATCC) and monkey COS-7 cells (15) were grown in Dulbecco modified Eagle medium supplemented with 10% fetal calf serum (GIBCO). For transfections, about 10<sup>6</sup> COS-7 cells on 10-cm plates were transfected with 3µg of the plasmids using DEAE dextran-mediated DNA transfer (33). Cells were analyzed 60 h after transfection. For labeling of proteins, cells were incubated for 1 h in methionine-free modified Eagle medium supplemented with [ $^{35}$ S]methionine (250  $\mu$ Ci/ ml, Amersham SJ. 1215), or for 1 h in phosphate-free modified Eagle medium supplemented with  ${}^{32}P_i$  (2.0 mCi/ml, Amersham PBS 43)

Immunoprecipitation and gel electrophoresis. Cell extracts were prepared by washing labeled cells twice with ice-cold phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), followed by lysis in 0.1%SDS-0.5% Nonidet P-40-0.5% sodium deoxycholate-50 mM NaCl-50 mM Tris hydrochloride (pH 7.5). All subsequent steps were carried out at 4°C. Sonicated cell lysates were cleared of insoluble material by centrifugation at  $45,000 \times g$ for 60 min, and the supernatants were incubated with 2 µl of the anti-N-myc antiserum for 4 h followed by the addition of 20 µl of a 50% suspension of protein A-Sepharose (Pharmacia) and further incubation with agitation for 1 h. The precipitates were washed six times with the lysis buffer, once with PBS, and once with water. Proteins were removed from the final protein A-Sepharose pellet by boiling for 3 min in Laemmli sample buffer (12) or for alkaline phosphatase (AP; Boehringer Mannheim) treatment as described by Barber and Verma (5). Control and AP-treated samples were incubated for 60 min at 37°C before addition of an equal volume of  $2 \times$  Laemmli sample buffer (12). For competitive inhibition of antibody precipitation (blocking) experiments, 5  $\mu$ g of the bacterial N-myc protein was incubated with 10  $\mu$ l of antiserum overnight at 4°C before its addition to the lysates. Samples were analysed by 8% SDS-PAGE, followed by fixation in 10% acetic acid and impregnation with Amplify (Amersham) before drying and fluorography at  $-70^{\circ}$ C.

**Peptide mapping.** Partial proteolytic maps of the immunoprecipitated N-myc proteins were prepared essentially as described by Cleveland et al. (12). Directly after gel electrophoresis, the gel was dried on a dialysis membrane, and bands of interest were identified by autoradiography, cut out from the gel, rehydrated with a 1:10-diluted Laemmli sample buffer, placed in sample wells of a 15% SDS-polyacrylamide gel together with 500 ng of trypsin, electrophoresed for 6 h, and fluorographed as described above.

Amino acid sequence analysis. The radiolabeled, immunoprecipitated N-myc polypeptides were separated in a preparative polyacrylamide gel and blotted electrophoretically in 25 mM Tris-glycine buffer (pH 8.3) containing 20% methanol onto a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Immobilon transfer membrane; Millipore Corp., Bedford, Mass.), which was then autoradiographed. Pieces of the filter containing the radioactive protein bands were cut out and used directly as a sample matrix for radiochemical protein sequence analysis using the Applied Biosystems model 421 automated protein sequencer. Radioactivity of collected fractions was determined by scintillation counting.

Immunofluorescence. For immunofluorescence studies the



FIG. 1. (A) N-myc immunoprecipitation from cells expressing amplified myc genes. Lysates of [ $^{35}$ S]methionine-labeled GLC8 small-cell lung cancer cells expressing an amplified N-myc gene were immunoprecipitated with preimmune rabbit serum (p), anti-N-myc antiserum ( $\alpha$ -N-myc), or immune serum preabsorbed with the N-myc- $\beta$ -galactosidase fusion protein (b). Similar immunoprecipitations were carried out with lysates from COLO320HSR colon carcinoma cells expressing amplified c-myc and from CORL88 cells expressing amplified L-myc, using either anti-N-myc or pan-myc serum. The pan-myc antiserum recognizes both the c-myc and L-myc proteins (34). (B) Alkaline phosphatase treatment of the N-myc polypeptides. N-myc immunoprecipitates from GLC8 small cell lung carcinoma cells and Kelly and IMR-32 neuroblastoma cells were treated with AP (+) and analyzed together with untreated immunoprecipitates (-) as described for panel A.

cells were trypsinized and transferred onto cover slips 1 day after transfection. The next day the transfectants were fixed at room temperature after the cover slips were rinsed twice with PBS by incubating them in 4% (wt/vol) paraformaldehyde in PBS for 30 min; the transfectants were then permeabilized with 0.2% Nonidet P-40 in PBS for 2 min. Immunostaining and analysis were performed as described (2).

## RESULTS

The two N-myc polypeptides are encoded by exons II and III. Immunoprecipitation of the N-myc protein from [<sup>4</sup> °S] methionine-labeled neuroblastoma and lung carcinoma cells expressing amplified N-myc genes yielded a closely migrating doublet of polypeptides of  $M_r$  64,000 (p64) and 62,000 (p62) in polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis. A fainter doublet of polypeptides of  $M_r$  60,000 (p60) and 58,000 (p58) was seen just beneath the higher-molecular-weight doublet (Fig. 1). The specificity of the immunoprecipitations was controlled with preimmune serum (Fig. 1A, lane p) and with anti-N-myc antiserum blocked with gel-purified N-myc- $\beta$ galactosidase fusion protein used for the immunizations (Fig. 1A, lane b). In addition, our N-myc antiserum did not recognize specific bands from COLO320HSR colon carcinoma or CORL88 lung carcinoma cells expressing amplified c-myc or L-myc genes, respectively, while the pan-myc antibodies (34) precipitated a c-myc polypeptide doublet from the COLO320HSR cells and three L-myc polypeptides from CORL88 cells (Fig. 1A). After treatment of [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine-labeled N-myc immu-

After treatment of [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine-labeled N-myc immunoprecipitates with AP, only the two faster-migrating N-myc bands (p58 and p60) were seen, suggesting that p62 and p64 are phosphorylated forms of p58 and p60 (Fig. 1B). Similar



FIG. 2. Structure of the SV-N-myc expression vector and analysis of its protein products. (A) Structure of the SV-N-myc expression vector with exons II and III shown as bars: black box, long open reading frame; thin line, intron sequences; stippled box, SV40 promoter sequences. A 400-bp Bg/II fragment from the N-myc second intron was deleted in construction (for details, see Materials and Methods). Transcription of the vector is initiated from the SV40 promoter and terminates after the N-myc polyadenylation signal in the noncoding part of the third exon. Vector sequences are not shown. Abbreviations: X, XbaI; B, BamHI; Bg, Bg/II; R, EcoRI; polyA, polyadenylation signal. (B) COS-7 cells were transfected with SV-N-myc and analyzed as described for Fig. 1. Kelly neuroblastoma cells were used as a control.

treatment of N-myc immunoprecipitates from  ${}^{32}P_{i}$ -labeled cells removed all radioactivity from the polypeptides (data not shown). The ratio of [ ${}^{35}S$ ]methionine-labeled, AP-treated p58 and p60 bands was constant in several experiments and was maintained during a pulse-chase with unlabeled methionine (data not shown), suggesting that the two polypeptides do not have a precursor-product relationship.

To further study the nature of the N-myc polypeptide doublet we constructed an expression vector containing the second and third exons of the N-myc gene under the SV40 early promoter and the SV40 origin of replication (Fig. 2A). The SV-N-myc construct was transfected into COS-7 cells, which are able to replicate SV40 origin-containing plasmids (15). Three days after transfection, the cells were labeled with [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine and lysed and the lysates were immunoprecipitated with the anti-N-myc antiserum. The SV-N-myc construct retained the capacity to encode polypeptides comigrating with each of the corresponding untreated and AP-treated polypeptides from Kelly cells (Fig. 2B). These results indicated that both N-myc polypeptides are encoded solely by exons II and III.

Deletion mutagenesis suggests that the N-myc polypeptides differ in their N termini. The region causing the heterogene-



FIG. 3. Deletion mutagenesis of the SV-N-myc vector and analysis of the resulting protein products. (A) The N-myc protein (WT) is shown schematically, with regions homologous between different myc proteins shaded. The black bar on top shows the fragment expressed in the pEX-1 vector for the production of N-myc antibodies. Regions of the wild-type protein deleted in the different constructs are shown by open bars ( $\Delta I$ ,  $\Delta II$ ,  $\Delta III$ ). Numbering denotes the corresponding amino acids. (B) Immunoprecipitation of [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine-labeled COS-7 cells transfected with the indicated deletion constructs as described for Fig. 1. Lanes: 0, mock transfection; WT, wild-type construct;  $\Delta I$ , SV-N- $\Delta I$ ;  $\Delta III$ , SV-N- $\Delta II$ ;  $\Delta III$ , SV-N- $\Delta III$ . The mobilities of molecular weight markers are indicated on the left. (C) Immunoprecipitation of <sup>32</sup>P<sub>i</sub>-labeled COS-7 cells transfected with either the wild type (WT) or the SV-N- $\Delta I$ construct ( $\Delta I$ ).

ity of the N-myc protein was narrowed down by introducing C-terminal and internal deletions into the SV-N-myc expression vector. The vector was modified by deleting (i) an internal fragment of the amino-terminal region of the second exon (SV-N- $\Delta$ I), (ii) the third exon (SV-N- $\Delta$ II), or (iii) C-terminal portions of the second exon in addition to the third exon (SV-N- $\Delta$ III) (Fig. 3A). The black bar in the Fig. 3A also shows the N-myc sequences expressed in bacteria and used for immunization (amino acids 19 through 134). All numbering of amino acids starts from the proline codon at nucleotide 1629 according to the numbering of Stanton et al. (50), thus assuming the cleavage of the initiator methionine (see below). Immunoprecipitates of the deleted proteins expressed in COS-7 cells are shown in Fig. 3B. Several N-myc polypeptides were expressed from each one of the deleted constructs, and in each case a characteristic polypeptide doublet was seen after treatment with AP. The



FIG. 4. (A) Proteolytic mapping of the  $M_r$  36,000 (p36) and 34,000 (p34) polypeptides. The p36 and p34 bands of SV-N- $\Delta$ II polypeptides labeled with [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine or [<sup>35</sup>S]cysteine were separated in a preparative polyacrylamide gel, rehydrated, and subjected to partial proteolysis by 15% SDS-PAGE by the method of Cleveland et al. (12). (B and C) Amino-terminal sequence analysis of p36 and p34 polypeptides synthesized from the SV-N- $\Delta$ II expression vector. A portion of the sample used for the sequence analysis is shown in a 10% polyacrylamide gel (B). The bands indicated were transferred onto a polyvinylidene diffuoride membrane, cut out, and subjected to automated Edman degradation. The radioactive yields (counts per minute) from the amino acid derivatives are plotted against the degradation cycle number (Fraction number).

SV-N- $\Delta$ I construct lacked N-*myc* amino acids 19 through 95 (Fig. 3A), resulting in a predicted polypeptide of 389 amino acids instead of the wild-type polypeptide of 463 amino acids. Two polypeptides of  $M_r$  45,000 and  $M_r$  43,000 were precipitated from cells expressing this construct. Interestingly, hydrolysis of the phosphoester groups with alkaline phosphatase did not visibly alter the migration of the  $\Delta$ I polypeptide doublet, although the amount of its posttranslational phosphorylation was similar to that of the full-length N-*myc* protein as judged from  ${}^{32}P_i$ -labeled immunoprecipitates (Fig. 3B and C).

Deletions II and III (Fig. 3A) resulted in predicted polypeptides of 364 and 210 amino acids, terminating in 102 amino acids encoded by the second intron of the N-myc gene (SV-N- $\Delta$ II) or in 23 amino acids encoded by plasmid sequences (SV-N- $\Delta$ III), respectively. SV-N- $\Delta$ II yielded major polypeptides of  $M_r$  36,000 and 34,000 and minor ones of  $M_r$ 33,000 and 32,000, corresponding to wild-type bands of  $M_r$ 64,000, 62,000, 60,000, and 58,000, respectively (Fig. 3B), while SV-N- $\Delta$ III yielded the corresponding four bands of  $M_r$ 30,000, 28,000, 26,000, and 24,000. In summary, the data obtained from the deletion mutants and from the SV-N-myc expression vector indicated that the region responsible for the two bands seen in AP-treated N-myc immunoprecipitates is located close to the 5' end of the second exon.

N-terminal amino acid sequence analysis. The improved electrophoretic separation and the increased yield of the SV-N- $\Delta$ II polypeptide products (Fig. 4B) permitted N-terminal amino acid sequence analysis of the  $M_r$  36,000 (p36) and 34,000 (p34) polypeptides. To confirm the common origin of the p36 and p34 polypeptides, the separated bands were subjected to partial proteolysis in polyacrylamide gels. Most of the proteolytic products of the p34 and p36 polypeptides were similar when labeled with [<sup>35</sup>S]cysteine, and the [<sup>35</sup>S]methionine-labeled proteolytic products furthermore shared common bands (Fig. 4A). For sequencing,



FIG. 5. Site-specific mutagenesis of the N-myc amino terminus: analysis by transient transfections. (Top) Structure of the SV-N-myc expression vector with sequences surrounding the three possible ATG initiation codons. Arrows point to the mutant codons and corresponding amino acids produced by oligonucleotide-directed point mutagenesis. (Bottom) Mutant SV-N-myc polypeptides expressed in COS-7 cells, analyzed as described for Fig. 1, and compared with polypeptides immunoprecipitated from labeled Kelly neuroblastoma cells. Shown is also a control precipitation from nontransfected COS-7 cells. All immunoprecipitates were treated with AP.

immunoprecipitated p34 and p36 were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes, and the isolated polypeptides were then directly subjected to automated Edman degradation as detailed in Materials and Methods. A graphic presentation of the radioactivity recovered from successive cycles of degradation is shown in Fig. 4C. Analysis of the p36 polypeptide failed to give values of radioactivity over background, but the p34 polypeptide showed a methionine residue as amino acid 3, suggesting that this polypeptide may initiate at codon 1650 (the second of the three AUGs; see below) if the N-terminal methionine residue of p34 polypeptide is cleaved cotranslationally. Moreover, these data strongly suggested that the two sequenced polypeptides differ in their N termini. To define these differences, we introduced point mutations into this region.

In vitro point mutagenesis of the N-terminal coding region. The top part of Fig. 5 shows the 5' end of the long open reading frame of the N-myc gene. Three ATG codons are found in the beginning of the second exon in the same open reading frame at nucleotides 1626, 1650, and 1659 according to the sequence of Stanton et al. (50), but only the second ATG is in a sequence context (TCC ACC ATG C) which even partially fits the consensus sequence for translational initiation (GCC [A/G]CC ATG G; 27). To determine the translational initiation codons, we used oligonucleotidedirected site-specific mutagenesis to construct mutant SV-N-myc plasmids for the transfection assay. The mutagenesis strategy is shown in Fig. 5; the first and the second ATGs were changed into ATC (SV-N-myc-2 and SV-N-myc-1, respectively) coding for isoleucine, thus preventing translational initiation. In a similar way the third ATG was changed into a CTG encoding leucine. In addition, a TGA stop codon was introduced between the first and second ATGs at position 1635, thus preventing the elongation of any polypeptides initiated upstream of it.

Results obtained from expression of the mutant constructs in COS-7 cells are presented in Fig. 5. Substitution of the upstream ATG with ATC or introduction of a TGA stop codon between the first and second ATGs resulted in complete abolition of the slower-migrating band (p64). This indicated that the first ATG serves as the initiator codon for the p64 N-myc polypeptide, referred to as N-myc-1. Similarly, the mutation of the second ATG into an ATC prevented synthesis of the faster-migrating N-myc band (p62), showing that the second ATG serves as the initiation codon for the p62 polypeptide, referred to as N-myc-2. In contrast, a CTG triplet encoding leucine in place of the third ATG had no effect on the polypeptide pattern, confirming that the third ATG does not act as an initiation codon for the N-myc protein.

The mutant and wild-type N-myc polypeptides are nuclear phosphoproteins. Both wild-type and separately expressed mutant polypeptides (N-myc-1 and N-myc-2) had similar mobilities in SDS-PAGE and showed a mobility shift upon treatment with phosphatase (Fig. 6), suggesting that the presence of both N-myc polypeptides is not necessary for posttranslational phosphorylation. The diffuse appearance of the non-AP-treated bands of the N-myc-1 and N-myc-2 polypeptides may indicate some further heterogeneity in their phosphorylation. Immunofluorescence analysis of COS-7 cells transfected with SV-N-myc-1, SV-N-myc-2, or the wild-type vectors is shown in Fig. 7. Cells staining for N-myc were seen in all cultures transfected with the above constructs (Fig. 7, left-hand panels). In the positive cells, N-myc fluorescence was observed only in the nucleus as shown by the concomitant staining with Hoechst DNA fluorochrome (H 33258; right-hand panels of Fig. 7). The distribution of N-myc protein within the nuclei was very similar both for the wild-type SV-N-myc construct and for the SV-N-myc-1 and SV-N-myc-2 constructs expressing only one polypeptide.

## DISCUSSION

Immunoprecipitation analysis using a polyclonal antiserum produced against a bacterially expressed fragment of the human N-myc protein revealed considerable heterogeneity of the N-myc polypeptides. This polymorphism could be in part attributed to posttranslational modification by protein phosphorylation, since only two polypeptide bands remained after AP treatment. The difference between the two polypeptides was further analyzed using an N-myc expression vector in COS-7 cells. This vector was used for deletion analysis, amino acid sequencing, and site-specific mutagenesis of the N-myc gene. Our results show that the N-myc protein is translated from two alternative AUG codons which are located 24 nucleotides apart in the beginning of the second exon of the gene. Use of two initiation codons results in two N-myc polypeptides, termed N-myc-1 (465 amino



FIG. 6. Posttranslational modification of the separately expressed N-myc polypeptides. (A) Mutants analyzed in panel B are indicated by corresponding numbers. Note the 8-amino-acid difference between the N termini of the N-myc polypeptides; the translational initiation of the longer polypeptide (N-myc-1) is the first ATG codon, and the shorter polypeptide (N-myc-2) is initiated from the second ATG. (B) The wild-type SV-N-myc expression vector (WT) and vectors with one of three ATGs mutated as shown in panel A were analyzed as described for Fig. 1. Shown on the left side of the autoradiogram are immunoprecipitates treated with AP (+AP), and on the right side are the same samples without AP treatment (-AP). Note the relative lack of resolution of the native samples compared to the corresponding AP-treated ones and the mobility shift seen in all cases after AP treatment.

acids) and N-myc-2 (458 amino acids). Even when expressed independently, both polypeptide products are phosphory-lated and localize to the nucleus.

The probable coding sequence of the N-myc gene was first deduced from the genomic sequences of both the human (23, 50) and mouse (13, 51) N-myc genes. Three ATG codons were identified at the 5' end of the single long open reading frame of N-myc. The first of these ATGs was suggested to function as a translational initiation codon, since this codon and the downstream coding sequence were conserved in human and murine N-myc (23). Alternatively, the second ATG was regarded as the most likely initiation codon (50) because it was in the best sequence context conforming to established sites of translational initiation (27). Our data indicate that at least for the human N-myc protein both of these predictions hold true.

Eucaryotic bifunctional mRNAs were first suggested to exist by virtue of the presence of ATG codons upstream from the initiation sites of long open reading frames and by analogy to similar viral sequences known to direct the synthesis of two polypeptides (25). Interestingly, although upstream ATGs are relatively rare in mammalian genes, two thirds of proto-oncogene sequences contain these elements (26). A functional role for short upstream open reading frames has been suggested both for the yeast transcription



FIG. 7. Indirect immunofluorescence and DNA staining of transfected COS-7 cells. COS-7 cells were fixed and processed for immunofluorescence 60 h after their transfection with the SV-N-myc, SV-N-myc-1, or SV-N-myc-2 constructs (see Fig. 5 and 6 for the polypeptides immunoprecipitated in parallel experiments). Left panels, Fluorescence with the anti-N-myc antiserum; right panels, corresponding microscopic fields examined for fluorescence using the DNA fluorochrome Hoechst 33258. Mock-transfected COS-7 cells (COS-7) and SV-N-myc-transfected COS-7 cells stained with preimmune serum (PRE) served as controls.

factor GCN4 (54) and for the lck proto-oncogene (32). In the lck proto-oncogene the upstream region contains three outof-frame ATG codons which are eliminated in the two known lck gene rearrangements, resulting in oncogenic activation and an overexpression of the p56 lck gene product (32). A similar translational control might exist for N-myc and c-myc, in which the use of the upstream initiation codon could regulate the accessibility of the downstream initiation codon to the ribosomal apparatus. Additional translational control may be exerted by the several upstream open reading frames of the N-myc gene. The potential open reading frames and corresponding translational initiation sites in the L-myc gene have not yet been tested, but immunoprecipitated and dephosphorylated L-myc protein appears as a single band in SDS-PAGE (K. Saksela, T. P. Mäkelä, and K. Alitalo, EMBO J., in press), suggesting the absence of a similar polymorphism.

The evolutionary conservation of two translational initiation codons in the N-myc and c-myc genes (17; unpublished results) suggests a functional significance for this phenomenon. Comparison of the unique 8-amino-acid N-terminal stretch of the N-myc-1 polypeptide reveals no homology with c-myc or other GenBank protein sequences. However, several roles have been attributed to short N-terminal regions of proteins (for a review, see reference 40). An N-terminal domain is responsible for the short half-life of the adenovirus E1A protein (46), which possibly involves proteolytic cleavage of an N-terminal peptide (31). On the other hand, four N-terminal amino acids of the B-tubulin subunit autoregulate the stability of  $\beta$ -tubulin mRNA (58). Interestingly, inhibition of translation is also known to stabilize the mRNAs of several oncogenes, including N-myc and c-myc, resulting in elevated levels of the corresponding mRNAs (29; unpublished results), and recently it has been postulated that ongoing translation of the fos mRNA itself is required for its degradation (55). In light of these data it is tempting to speculate that the level of N-myc mRNA would be regulated by selective translation of only one of the N-myc polypeptides.

The deduced amino acid sequence of N-myc contains a C-terminal stretch of leucines present in several enhancer binding proteins and termed the leucine zipper (28). This region is known to stabilize the heterodimer of the fos and jun proteins and to enhance the DNA binding of this complex (24, 42). Although experimental evidence of a dimeric complex of myc polypeptides has only been reported for the v-myc protein (3), the two dissimilar myc polypeptides might have specific roles in such a dimeric complex.

The biological significance of two N-myc polypeptides is unclear. During differentiation of mouse erythroleukemia cells, a relative increase of the longer c-mvc polypeptide (c-myc-1), apparently owing to a stabilization of c-myc-1, has been reported (56). A similar change in the relative amounts of the c-myc polypeptides occurs in fibroblastic cells when they reach confluency in cell culture (S. Hann, personal communication). Therefore, it is interesting that synthesis of c-myc-1 was found to be inhibited in 11 of 17 examined Burkitt's lymphoma cell lines, owing either to a chromosomal translocation with a breakpoint in the first intron or to point mutations disrupting the translational initiation sequences (17). Thus, the absence of c-myc-1 protein may be one of several mechanisms deregulating c-myc in Burkitt's lymphomas. We are currently studying the possibility of a similar differential regulation of the two N-myc polypeptides. However, no evidence of a disruption of synthesis of one of the N-myc polypeptides in naturally occurring tumors has yet been reported.

Our results show that the second and third exons of the N-myc gene contain the coding capacity for both N-myc polypeptides. Thus the genomic organization of the N-myc gene differs from that of the c-myc gene, where the first exon is also needed to produce the two c-myc polypeptides (17). The short distance between the two N-myc polypeptide initiation sites may make the N-myc protein less vulnerable to the mutations or translocations found in c-myc of tumor cells.

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