

BRCC3 mutations in myeloid neoplasms

Dayong Huang,^{1,2*} Yasunobu Nagata,^{3*} Vera Grossmann,⁴ Tomas Radivoyevitch,⁵ Yusuke Okuno,³ Genta Nagae,⁶ Naoko Hosono,² Susanne Schnittger,⁴ Masashi Sanada,³ Bartłomiej Przychodzen,² Ayana Kon,³ Chantana Polprasert,² Wenyi Shen,² Michael J. Clemente,² James G. Phillips,² Tamara Alpermann,⁴ Kenichi Yoshida,³ Niroshan Nadarajah,⁴ Mikkael A. Sekeres,⁷ Kevin Oakley,⁸ Nhu Nguyen,⁸ Yuichi Shiraiishi,⁹ Yusuke Shiozawa,³ Kenichi Chiba,⁹ Hiroko Tanaka,¹⁰ H. Phillip Koeffler,^{11,12} Hans-Ulrich Klein,¹³ Martin Dugas,¹³ Hiroyuki Aburatani,⁶ Satoru Miyano,^{9,10} Claudia Haferlach,⁴ Wolfgang Kern,⁴ Torsten Haferlach,⁴ Yang Du,⁸ Seishi Ogawa,³ and Hideki Makishima^{2,3}

¹Department of Hematology, Beijing Friendship Hospital, Capital Medical University, Beijing, China; ²Department of Translational Hematology and Oncology Research, Taussig Cancer Institute, Cleveland Clinic, Cleveland, OH, USA; ³Department of Pathology and Tumor Biology, Kyoto University, Japan; ⁴Munich Leukemia Laboratory (MLL), Germany; ⁵Department of Quantitative Health Sciences, Lerner Research Institute, Cleveland Clinic, OH, USA; ⁶Genome Science Division, Research Center for Advanced Science and Technology, The University of Tokyo, Japan; ⁷Leukemia Program, Taussig Cancer Institute, Cleveland Clinic, OH, USA; ⁸Department of Pediatrics, Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences, Bethesda, MD, USA; ⁹Laboratory of DNA Information Analysis, Human Genome Center, Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Japan; ¹⁰Laboratory of Sequence Analysis, Human Genome Center, Institute of Medical Science, The University of Tokyo, Japan; ¹¹Department of Hematology/Oncology, Cedars-Sinai Medical Center, Los Angeles, CA, USA; ¹²Cancer Science Institute of Singapore, National University of Singapore; and ¹³Institute of Medical Informatics, University of Münster, Germany

*DH and YN contributed equally to this work.

ABSTRACT

Next generation sequencing technologies have provided insights into the molecular heterogeneity of various myeloid neoplasms, revealing previously unknown somatic genetic events. In our cohort of 1444 cases analyzed by next generation sequencing, somatic mutations in the gene *BRCA1-BRCA2-containing complex 3* (*BRCC3*) were identified in 28 cases (1.9%). *BRCC3* is a member of the JAMM/MPN+ family of zinc metalloproteases capable of cleaving Lys-63 linked polyubiquitin chains, and is implicated in DNA repair. The mutations were located throughout its coding region. The average variant allelic frequency of *BRCC3* mutations was 30.1%, and by a serial sample analysis at two different time points a *BRCC3* mutation was already identified in the initial stage of a myelodysplastic syndrome. *BRCC3* mutations commonly occurred in nonsense (n=12), frameshift (n=4), and splice site (n=5) configurations. Due to the marginal male dominance (odds ratio; 2.00, 0.84-4.73) of *BRCC3* mutations, the majority of mutations (n=23; 82%) were hemizygous. Phenotypically, *BRCC3* mutations were frequently observed in myelodysplastic syndromes and myelodysplastic/myeloproliferative neoplasms and associated with -Y abnormality (odds ratio; 3.70, 1.25-11.0). Clinically, *BRCC3* mutations were also related to higher age ($P=0.01$), although prognosis was not affected. Knockdown of *Brc3* gene expression in murine bone marrow lineage negative, Sca1 positive, c-kit positive cells resulted in 2-fold more colony formation and modest differentiation defect. Thus, *BRCC3* likely plays a role as tumor-associated gene in myelodysplastic syndromes and myelodysplastic/myeloproliferative neoplasms.

Introduction

Myelodysplastic syndromes (MDS) are characterized by clonal hematopoiesis, bone marrow failure, a propensity for progression to acute myeloid leukemia (AML) and a variety of molecular abnormalities, including chromosomal aberrations and somatic mutations.¹ In recent years, a large number of somatic mutations affecting new classes of genes have been identified in MDS and related disorders, providing clues to the molecular pathogenesis of these diseases.^{2,7} These mutational events can be divided into those that are secondary and acquired during disease progression, and those that are founder in nature.⁹ Improved identification of genomic defects has substantiated the view that clinical disease heterogeneity is related to patho-molecular diversity. Clinically, evaluation of somatic defects in MDS may improve diagnosis, accuracy of prognoses, and treatments, i.e. may have implications.

Several novel classes of genes frequently affected by somat-

ic mutations have been found in MDS, including genes involved in cohesin complexes⁹ and spliceosomes,^{4,10} genes related to methylation¹¹ and genes of novel receptor tyrosine kinases.^{12,13} Because MDS and associated secondary AML (sAML) are diseases of the elderly, accumulation of mutations and alterations arising from DNA damage has been implicated in disease pathogenesis. Consequently, DNA repair defects may play important roles in maintenance of chromosomal integrity and predisposition to secondary molecular defects. Somatic mutations in DNA repair genes such as *TP53* have thus been sought in cancers.^{14,15}

Using unbiased sequencing approaches to identify molecular abnormalities in MDS, we probed the mutational status of a number of DNA repair genes. One of these, *BRCA1-BRCA2-containing complex 3* (*BRCC3*), is a member of the JAMM/MPN+ family of zinc metalloproteases capable of cleaving Lys-63 linked polyubiquitin chains.¹⁶ *BRCC3* codes for a component of two complexes, BRCA1-A and BRISC. Located in the nucleus, the BRCA1-A complex consists of

©2015 Ferrata Storti Foundation. This is an open-access paper. doi:10.3324/haematol.2014.111989

The online version of this article has a Supplementary Appendix.

Manuscript received on June 9, 2014. Manuscript accepted on May 12, 2015.

Correspondence: makishimah@gmail.com

UIMC1, FAM175A, BABAM1, BRE, BARD1, BRCC3 and BRCA1 and participates in DNA double-strand break (DSB) repair.¹⁷ DSBs are associated with genomic instability, cell death¹⁸ and carcinogenesis.¹⁹ To repair DSBs, cells use both homologous recombination (HR), which uses sister-chromatid alleles as templates in late S and G₂, and non-homologous end joining (NHEJ) which can operate in all phases of the cell cycle but often leaves small deletions, possibly gene inactivating at the site of repair.²⁰ The BRISC complex comprises the following proteins: FAM175B/ABRO1, BRCC3/BRCC36, BRE/BRCC45 and MERIT40/NBA1.

Here, we report that somatic defects of BRCC3 are acquired in various myeloid neoplasms and have consequences at the cellular, and perhaps the clinical level.

Methods

Patients

Bone marrow aspirates or blood were collected from the patients with various myeloid neoplasms seen at the Cleveland Clinic, University of Tokyo and Münchner Leukämie Labor GmbH (MLL) (*Online Supplementary Table S1*). Informed consent for sample collection was obtained according to protocols approved by the institutional review boards in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. Diagnoses were confirmed according to 2008 World Health Organization classification criteria.²¹ A total of 1778 patients were enrolled in this study (*Online Supplementary Table S1*).

Next generation sequencing

Whole exome sequencing (WES) was performed as previously reported.^{4,6} Briefly, tumor DNAs were extracted from patients' bone marrow cells. For germ-line controls, DNA was obtained from paired CD3⁺ T cells. For targeted detection of sequence alterations, confirmation of WES and assessment of variant allelic frequency (VAF), we applied deep sequencing to targeted exons, as previously described.^{6,22} Briefly, each targeted exon was amplified with each pair of primers, generating 200bp fragments on average. These amplicons were subjected to massive parallel sequencing (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) using TruSeq custom primers (Illumina) and SureSelect (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) with paired-end reads, according to the manufacturer's instruction. Some of these procedures were followed by confirmation using Sanger sequencing, as previously described.¹³ Annotations by NCBI reference numbers of the genes affected by somatic mutations are summarized in *Online Supplementary Table S2*.

Cytogenetics and single nucleotide polymorphism-array analyses

Technical details about sample processing and data analyses for single nucleotide polymorphism-array (SNP-A) have been previously described.²³ Affymetrix 250K and 6.0 Kit (Affymetrix) were used. Germ-line copy number variants in our internal database or in a publicly available database (Database of Genomic Variants) (<http://dgv.tcag.ca/dgv/app/home>) were considered non-somatic variants and excluded. Results were analyzed with CNAG (v.3.0)²⁴ or Genotyping Console (Affymetrix). All other lesions were confirmed as somatic or germ-line by analysis of CD3-sorted cells.

ShRNA knockdown and colony formation assay of LSK cells

Lineage-negative, Sca1-positive, c-kit-positive (LSK) cells were purified from C57BL/6 mice, as previously described.²⁵ LSK cells

were infected with pLKO.1 lentivirus containing shRNAs targeting *Brcc3* (Targeting sequences: shRNA, 5'-CCCACCCT-CATATAACTGTTT-3') or negative control shRNA (Sigma, SHC002). Lentiviral infections were performed twice by spinoculation. Colony formation assays were performed after another 24 h using 2x10⁴ cells on IMDM methylcellulose medium supplemented with 15% horse serum, mouse SCF (100 ng/mL), IL-6 (6 ng/mL), IL-3 (3 ng/mL) and puromycin (2 µg/mL). Colony numbers were counted after seven days.

Statistical analysis

Overall survival was measured from the day of initial sampling to death from any cause (patients lost to follow up were censored) or last follow up and was summarized using Kaplan-Meier plots and analyzed using the Cox proportional hazard model. Results are for data collected as of May 2013. Pair-wise comparisons were performed by Wilcoxon test for continuous variables and by two-sided Fisher exact for categorical variables. Significance was determined at a two-sided alpha level of 0.05, except for *P* values in multiple comparisons, for which Bonferroni correction was applied. Analyses were performed using JMP10 (SAS Inc.).

Results

Identification of BRCC3 mutations in myeloid neoplasms

In our cohort of 149 cases analyzed by WES, 2 patients (1.3%) with refractory cytopenia with multilineage dysplasia (RCMD) and chronic myelomonocytic leukemia-1 (CMML-1) revealed 2 somatic recurrent *BRCC3* mutations (c.C19T, p.Q7X). The somatic nature of these mutations was confirmed by Sanger and targeted deep DNA sequencing (Figure 1). When we expanded our study to the larger cohort for targeted deep sequencing (n=1295), 26 *BRCC3* mutations were identified (2.0%), 11 with refractory anemia with excess blasts (RAEB), 9 with RCMD, 1 with refractory anemia, 1 with refractory anemia with ring sideroblasts, 1 with isolated 5q syndrome, 1 with CMML, 1 with RARS associated with thrombocytosis (RARS-T), and 1 with primary AML (Table 1). Four canonical mutations occurred in exon 1 (p.Q7X), 3 in exon 4 (p.R81X) and 2 in exon 5 (p.W120X). Thus, 28 (1.9%) of our 1444 patients with various myeloid neoplasms exhibited *BRCC3* mutations.

Genetic significance of BRCC3 mutations

The 28 *BRCC3* mutations occurred in nonsense (n=12; 42.9%), missense (n=6; 21.4%), splice site (n=5; 17.9%), frameshift (n=4; 14.3%), and non-frameshift deletion (n=1; 3.6%) forms. Twenty-three (82.1%) were hemizygous due to either male sex or a deletion of chromosome X (-X) (*BRCC3* is located on chromosome X). Evaluation of deep sequencing demonstrated that the mean value of variant allelic frequency of *BRCC3* mutations was 30.1% (range 91.7-3.5). In one of these index cases, deep sequencing at two time points (Case #1 in Table 1) indicated that the *BRCC3* mutation was present at RCMD diagnosis as well as throughout RAEB evolution (20 months later) (Figure 2A). This suggests that the *BRCC3* mutation may have been an early event. By additional analyses on concomitant mutations of other functionally important genes in the cases with *BRCC3* mutations, *TET2* and *SF3B1* mutations were observed most frequently among mutations of 23 genes detected (Figure 2B and C). SNP-A

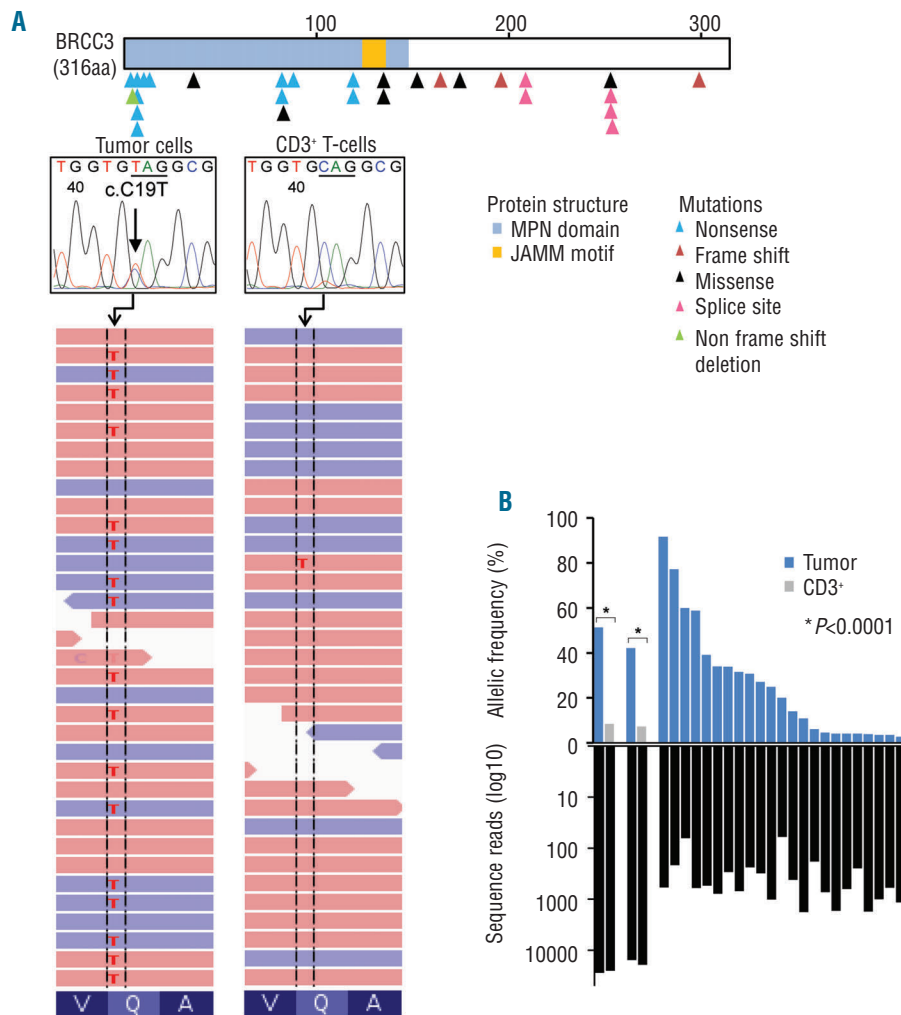


Figure 1. Somatic *BRCC3* mutations as detected by next generation sequencing and Sanger sequencing. (A) Distribution of *BRCC3* mutations identified in 28 out of 1444 myeloid neoplasms. Blue, red, black, pink, and green triangles indicate nonsense, frame shift, missense, splice site, and non-frame shift deletion mutations. On the right, a representative mutation (c.C19T, indicated by an arrow) confirmed by whole exome sequencing and Sanger sequencing. (B) (Top) Allelic frequencies in paired bone marrow and CD3⁺ T-cell samples (n=2) and not paired (n=23) samples as measured by deep sequencing. (Bottom) Depth of coverage of independent reads.

karyotyping, deletions involving the *BRCC3* locus (Xq28) were detected in 7 out of 677 (1.0%) patients. For *BRCC3* located on chromosome X, expression was assessed by comparison to sex-matched controls. Due to the small sample size, the impact of somatic deletion of chromosome X on *BRCC3* expression could not be resolved (Online Supplementary Figure S4). In fact, in our cohort, there was no significant difference in *BRCC3* expression between males and females (Online Supplementary Figure S2). In various hematopoietic cells, analysis of mRNA showed *BRCC3* globally expressed in myeloid, erythroid and lymphoid cells (Online Supplementary Figure S3).

Clinical phenotype of the cases with *BRCC3* mutations

BRCC3 mutations were associated with higher age in the whole cohort [mean±standard deviation, 67±13 in wild-type (WT) and 72±10 in mutants; $P=0.01$]. There was a marginally significant male dominance of mutation frequency [odds ratio (OR) = 2.00; 95% confidence interval (CI) 0.84-4.73] (Table 2). With regard to cytogenetics, mutations of this gene were associated with -Y abnormality (OR; 3.70, 95%CI; 1.25-11.0; $P=0.034$), while all other karyotype abnormalities showed similar distributions between WT and mutant cases (Table 2). Phenotypically, *BRCC3* mutations were identified in the low- (13 of 652; 2.0%) and high- (11 of 427; 2.6%) risk MDS groups and in myelodysplastic/myeloproliferative neoplasms

(MDS/MPN) (3 of 94; 3.2%), but not in any sAML and myeloproliferative neoplasms (MPN) cases (Table 2). *BRCC3* mutations had no impact on overall survival (Online Supplementary Figure S4).

Cellular consequences of *BRCC3* lesions

Frequently, *BRCC3* mutations detected in our cohort occurred in nonsense and frameshift configurations associated with myelodysplastic phenotypes. This suggests that *BRCC3* is a candidate tumor suppressor gene in MDS. To clarify the functional consequences of *BRCC3* defects, lentiviral shRNA mediated knockdown of *Brcc3* expression was performed in mouse lineage-Sca-1+c-kit+ (LSK) cells, which are enriched for hematopoietic stem and early progenitor cells. Selection with puromycin for 24 h resulted in a pure population (>95%) of transduced cells. *Brcc3* knockdown was confirmed by Western blotting analysis at 96 h after infection with a *Brcc3*-specific lentiviral shRNA. Colony formations significantly increased in LSK cells with *Brcc3* knockdown compared to cells infected with control lentiviral shRNA ($P<0.001$) (Figure 3). *Brcc3* knockdown also resulted in moderate differentiation block (Figure 3), which was confirmed by flow cytometry analyses showing increased expression of precursor marker c-Kit and reduced expression of differentiation marker Gr-1 with *Brcc3* knockdown (Online Supplementary Figure S5).

Genetic defects of other component of BRCA1-A and BRISC complex

BRCC3 is a component of the BRCA1-A and BRISC complexes. We, therefore, analyzed other genes in these complexes in 149 cases and observed mutations in 3 patients (2.7%) (Online Supplementary Table S3). The mutations were in the genes *UIMC1*, *FAM175A* and *BABAM1*. By SNP-array karyotyping, deletions in BRCA1-A and BRISC component genes were found in 21 of 677 (3.1%) patients. *UIMC1* deletions (5q35.2) were identified in 11 patients, *FAM175A* deletions (4q21.23) were present in 8 (Online Supplementary Figure S6) and those involving *FAM175B* and *BABAM1* loci were each present in one patient (data not shown). Out of these genes affected in myeloid neoplasms, frequently deleted *UIMC1* showed haploinsufficient expression ($P < 0.05$) (Online Supplementary Figure S7).

Discussion

Here, we report the discovery of somatic mutations in the *BRCC3* gene participating in the BRCA1-A and BRISC complexes in myeloid neoplasms. After the initial discov-

ery of nonsense mutations in this gene by WES, our cohort for target deep sequencing was expanded and 28 mutations were discovered in various myeloid neoplasms. These mutations were frequently hemizygous and present in nonsense and frameshift forms. *BRCC3* mutations were more common in MDS and MDS/MPN compared to primary AML and MPN, and were cytogenetically associated with -Y abnormality. Deep sequencing analysis of clonal architecture in serial samples indicated that *BRCC3* mutations may constitute founder events, and *Brc3* knock-down in murine LSK cells resulted in approximately doubling clonogenic cells and modest differentiation block of hematopoietic progenitors transfected with *Brc3* shRNA. The pro-leukemogenic effects of *BRCC3* mutations might be related to the impact of these lesions on tumor suppressive potential.

In addition to *BRCC3*, other genes encoding components of BRCA1-A and BRISC complexes were also affected by either somatic mutations or deletions. These components assemble to play a role in DSBs repair.¹⁷ For this process, canonical non-homologous end joining (C-NHEJ) is initiated by binding of the Ku70/80 heterodimer to DSB free ends; DNA-bound Ku protects the DSB free ends from nuclease digestion²⁶ while it recruits DNA-PK cat-

Table 1. Characteristics of patients with *BRCC3* mutations.

Case	Age (years)	Sex	Diagnosis*	Cytogenetics	<i>BRCC3</i> (NM_024332) mutations Substitution	Zygosity
1	61	F	RCMD	46,XX,add(15)(p11.1),add(22)(p11.2)[3]/47,idem,+19[19].	c.C19T:p.Q7X	Hetero
2	78	M	CMML-1	46,XY[20]	c.C19T:p.Q7X	Hemi
3	69	M	CMML-1	46,XY[20]	c.C241T:p.R81X	Hemi
4	71	F	pAML	Complex (including del(Xq))	c.C241T:p.R81X	Hemi
5	44	M	RAEB-1	45,XY,-7[21],del(12)(q24q24),add(14)(q32q32)	c.A521G:p.Q174R	Hemi
6	75	M	RAEB-1	46,XY,der(4)t(4;16)(q23;q23),der(16)t(4;16)(q31;q23)	Splice site	Hemi
7	72	F	RCMD	46,XX,i(17)(q10)	c.C19T:p.Q7X	Hetero
8	68	M	RCMD	46,XY	c.C10T:p.Q4X	Hemi
9	81	M	RAEB-1	45,X,-Y	Splice site	Hemi
10	83	M	RARS-T	46,XY	c.489delA:p.T163fs	Hemi
11	59	M	RAEB-2	46,XY	c.C28T:p.Q10X	Hemi
12	70	F	RCMD	46,XX	c.T405A:p.D135E	Hetero
13	76	F	RAEB-1	46,XX	c.T112C:p.C38R	Hetero
14	77	M	RAEB-1	46,XY	c.587_588del:p.Q196fs	Hemi
15	80	M	RAEB-1	46,XY	c.T405A:p.D135E	Hemi
16	77	F	RA	45,X,-X	Splice site	Hemi
17	84	M	RCMD	46,XY	c.G360A:p.W120X	Hemi
18	86	M	RCMD	46,XY	Splice site	Hemi
19	75	M	RAEB-2	46,XY	c.15_23del:p.5_8del	Hemi
20	78	M	RCMD	46,XY	c.C265T:p.R89X	Hemi
21	60	M	RCMD	46,XY,del(20)(q11)	c.T455A:p.L152H	Hemi
22	77	M	5q-	46,XY,del(5)(q14q34)	Splice site	Hemi
23	47	M	RAEB-2	46,XY	c.G43T:p.E15X	Hemi
24	70	M	RARS	45,X,-Y,der(16)t(3;16)(q22;q24)	c.C19T:p.Q7X	Hemi
25	68	F	RCMD	46,XX	c.G755A:p.S252N	Hetero
26	84	M	RAEB-2	45,X,-Y	c.G245A:p.R82H	Hemi
27	83	M	RAEB-2	45,X,-Y	c.889delC:p.H297fs	Hemi
28	78	M	RCMD	46,XY	c.G360A:p.W120X	Hemi

*Diagnoses are according to WHO 2008 classification. F: female; M: male; VAF: variant allelic frequency; NA: not analyzed.

alytic subunit (DNA-PKcs) to the DSB. The resultant DNA-PK complex activates DNA-PK's kinase activity^{27,28} which phosphorylates H2AX to form γ H2AX. It also facilitates the recruitment of a ligation complex, which encom-

passes DNA LigIV and XRCC4 among other proteins. Compromised BRCC3 function in DSB repair, which is presumably to remove DSB repair proteins by degradation during DSB resolution, may cause an imbalance repair

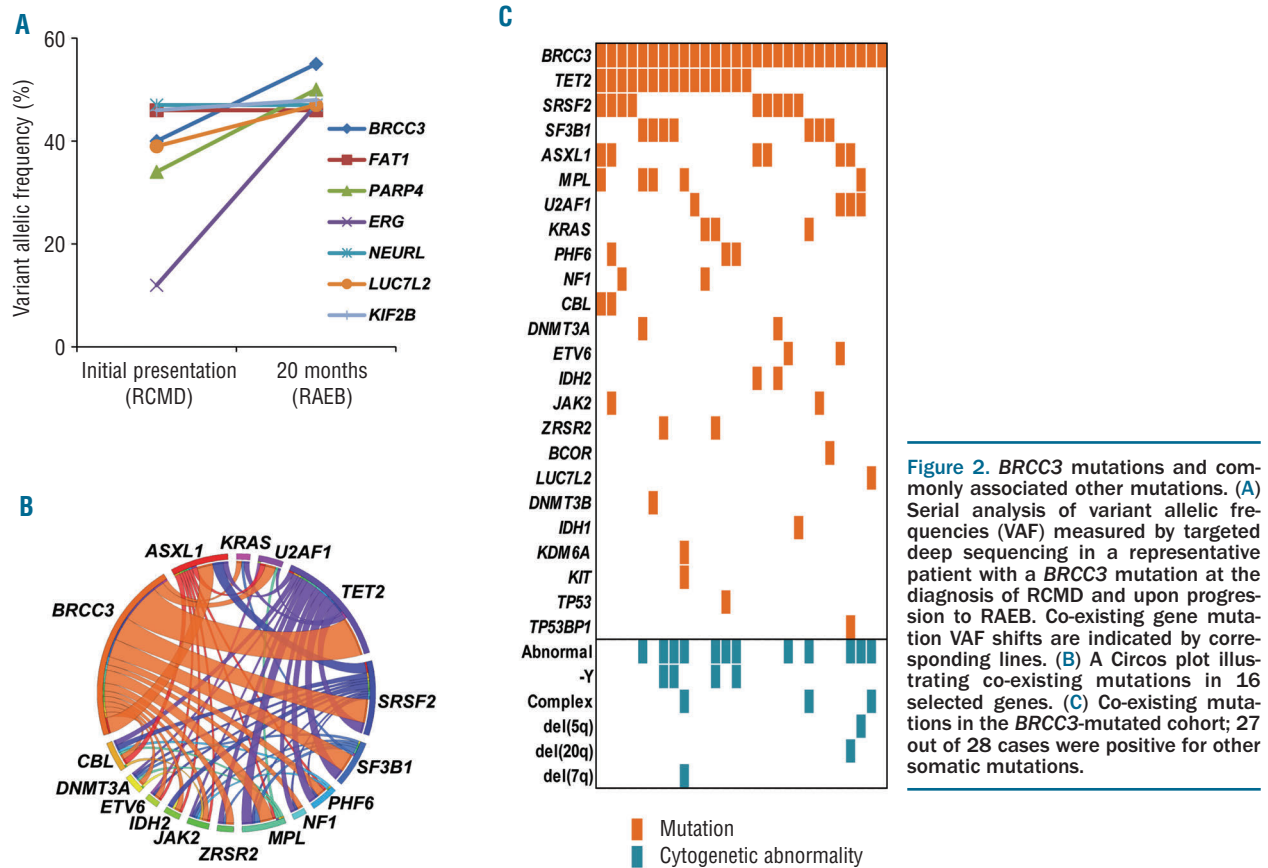


Table 2. Clinical characteristics of myeloid malignancies either with or without BRCC3 mutations.

Variables	Wild-type BRCC3	BRCC3 mutant	Odds ratio (Lower 95%-Upper 95%)	P ^a
N. (%)	1416 (98.1)	28 (1.9)		
Age at study entry (years); mean \pm s.d.	67 \pm 13	72 \pm 10	N/A	0.01^b
Range	18-90	46-86		
Male sex; no. (%)	835 (60)	21 (75)	2.00 (0.84-4.73)	0.12
Bone marrow blasts (%); mean \pm s.d.	11 \pm 18	7 \pm 10	N/A	0.56
Diagnosis; n. (%)				
Low-risk MDS	639 (45.1)	13 (46.4)	1.05 (0.50-2.23)	1.00
High-risk MDS	416 (29.4)	11 (39.3)	1.56 (0.72-3.35)	0.30
sAML	35 (2.4)	0	N/A	1.00
MDS/MPN	92 (6.5)	3 (10.7)	1.73 (0.51-5.83)	0.42
MPN	22 (1.6)	0	N/A	1.00
pAML	209 (14.8)	1 (3.6)	0.21 (0.03-1.58)	0.11
Cytogenetics; n. (%)				
Abnormal	532 (37.8)	12 (42.9)	1.23 (0.58-2.62)	0.69
-5, del (5q)	119 (8.5)	1 (3.6)	0.40 (0.05-2.97)	0.72
-7, del (7q)	79 (5.6)	1 (3.6)	0.62 (0.08-4.64)	1.00
-Y	61 (4.3)	4 (14.3)	3.70 (1.25-11.0)	0.034
-20, del (20q)	61 (4.3)	1 (7.1)	0.82 (0.11-6.11)	1.00
+8	92 (6.5)	0	N/A	0.25
Complex (\geq 3)	119 (8.5)	3 (10.7)	1.29 (0.39-4.36)	0.73

^aA Fisher's exact test was used to determine the P values, except where otherwise indicated. Statistically significant P values were indicated with bold font. ^bA Wilcoxon test was used to calculate the P values. ^cA log-rank test was used to calculate the P value. N/A; not applicable.

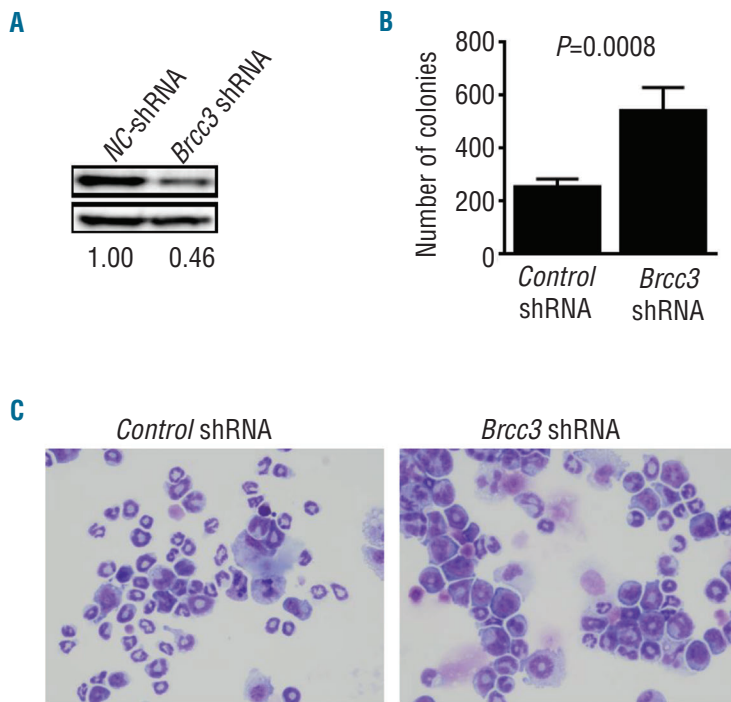


Figure 3. Cellular consequences of *BRCC3* knockdown. (A) Immunoblot analysis of *Brcc3* levels in LSK cells at 96 h after infection with lentivirus carrying *Brcc3*-specific or control (NC) shRNA. (B) *Brcc3* knockdown significantly increased colony formation capability of murine lineage-*Sca-1⁺c-kit⁺* (LSK) cells. Columns correspond to mean \pm SD of colony numbers formed by 5000 puromycin-resistant murine LSK cells in the presence of SCF, IL-3, and IL-6 at 48 h after infection with lentivirus carrying *Brcc3*-specific or control shRNA and subsequent selection with puromycin. (C) Wright-Giemsa staining of LSK cells in the presence of SCF, IL-3, and IL-6 at 7 days after infection with lentivirus carrying *Brcc3*-specific or control shRNA (X200).

proteins globally, and as a result, genomic instability. In our cohort with *BRCC3* mutations, multiple somatic driver mutations and cytogenetic abnormalities were identified, and one gave a cancer cell survival advantage that enabled genomic instability caused by *BRCC3*.

In analogy to somatic *BRCC3* mutations, acquired mutations of other genes involved in DNA repair machinery have been reported in MDS and related conditions, for example, in *TP53* and *ATM*. *TP53*-deficient cell lines show delayed γ H2AX resolution post-irradiation.^{18,29} Similarly, mutant *TP53* prevents the MRE11–RAD50–NBS1 complex from phosphorylating *ATM*, leading to impaired HR.³⁰ *ATM* is activated by DSB and signals the cell-cycle checkpoint to slow the passage of cells through the cycle to allow time for DNA repair.³¹ Germ-line mutations in DNA repair machinery genes, including *BRCA1* and *BRCA2*, *TP53* and *ATM* convey a strong inherited predisposition to neoplasia.^{32–35} However, disease-prone germ-line variants of *BRCC3* have not been reported so far.

Defects in DNA repair acquired in the malignant clone may create a leukemia cell-specific vulnerability, if it leads to a greater number of residual DSBs 24 h after their induction.¹⁸ Based on this theory, cells with partial loss of *BRCC3* function could be sensitive to *BRCC3* inhibition³⁶ as they will have greater dependence on the remaining WT allele and thus be differentially more stressed by its inactivation. This suggests, however, a broader target, namely, any member of either the *BRCA1-A* or *BRISC* complexes might be capable of incapacitating the entire complex.

Knockdown of *Brcc3* in normal hematopoietic cells resulted in the modest increase of colony formation and slightly less differentiation compared to WT experiments, which might support the evidence of the tumorigenic effects of human *BRCC3* mutations. However, shRNA transductions were applied for *Brcc3* knockdown with a single targeting sequence. Off target effects should always

be considered when we perform knockdown experiments using a single shRNA. For validation of the effect, we showed the successful reduction of *Brcc3* protein amount by immunoblot to confirm the suppressive effects of shRNA. Further rescue experiments and animal models are essential to authenticate these findings on *BRCC3*-associated leukemogenesis.

In summary, we have found new somatic mutations of *BRCC3* and deletions of other *BRCA1-A* complex component in MDS and MDS/MPN. These results suggest that *BRCC3* might be a tumor-associated gene in myeloid neoplasms.

Funding

This work was supported by US National Institutes of Health (NIH) grants RO1 CA-143193 (Y.D.), by a Scott Hamilton CARES grant (H.M.) by a research fund from AA&MDS International Foundation (H.M.), by Grants-in-Aid from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare of Japan and KAKENHI (23249052, 22134006 and 21790907; S.O.), the project for the development of innovative research on cancer therapies (*p*-direct; S.O.), the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) through the Funding Program for World-Leading Innovative R&D on Science and Technology, initiated by the Council for Science and Technology Policy (CSTP; S.O.) and Uniformed Services University of the Health Sciences Pediatrics grant KM86GI (Y.D.). The results presented here are partly based on data generated by The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) pilot project established by the National Cancer Institute and the National Human Genome Research Institute. Information about TCGA and the investigators and institutions that constitute the TCGA research network can be found at <http://cancergenome.nih.gov>.

Authorship and Disclosures

Information on authorship, contributions, and financial & other disclosures was provided by the authors and is available with the online version of this article at www.haematologica.org.

References

1. Genomic and epigenomic landscapes of adult de novo acute myeloid leukemia. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;368(22):2059-2074.
2. Delhommeau F, Dupont S, Della Valle V, et al. Mutation in TET2 in myeloid cancers. *N Engl J Med.* 2009;360(22):2289-2301.
3. Papaemmanuil E, Cazzola M, Boultonwood J, et al. Somatic SF3B1 mutation in myelodysplasia with ring sideroblasts. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;365(15):1384-1395.
4. Yoshida K, Sanada M, Shiraishi Y, et al. Frequent pathway mutations of splicing machinery in myelodysplasia. *Nature.* 2011;478(7367):64-69.
5. Khan SN, Jankowska AM, Mahfouz R, et al. Multiple mechanisms deregulate EZH2 and histone H3 lysine 27 epigenetic changes in myeloid malignancies. *Leukemia.* 2013;27(6):1301-1309.
6. Makishima H, Yoshida K, Nguyen N, et al. Somatic SETBP1 mutations in myeloid malignancies. *Nat Genet.* 2013;45(8):942-946.
7. Papaemmanuil E, Gerstung M, Malcovati L, et al. Clinical and biological implications of driver mutations in myelodysplastic syndromes. *Blood.* 2013;122(22):3616-3627.
8. Walter MJ, Shen D, Ding L, et al. Clonal architecture of secondary acute myeloid leukemia. *N Engl J Med.* 2012;366(12):1090-1098.
9. Kon A, Shih LY, Minamino M, et al. Recurrent mutations in multiple components of the cohesin complex in myeloid neoplasms. *Nat Genet.* 2013;45(10):1232-1237.
10. Makishima H, Visconte V, Sakaguchi H, et al. Mutations in the spliceosome machinery, a novel and ubiquitous pathway in leukemogenesis. *Blood.* 2012;119(14):3203-3210.
11. Ley TJ, Ding L, Walter MJ, et al. DNMT3A mutations in acute myeloid leukemia. *N Engl J Med.* 2010;363(25):2424-2433.
12. Maxson JE, Gotlib J, Pollyea DA, et al. Oncogenic CSF3R mutations in chronic neutrophilic leukemia and atypical CML. *N Engl J Med.* 2013;368(19):1781-1790.
13. Makishima H, Sugimoto Y, Szpurka H, et al. CBL mutation-related patterns of phosphorylation and sensitivity to tyrosine kinase inhibitors. *Leukemia.* 2012;26(7):1547-1554.
14. Levine AJ, Momand J, Finlay CA. The p53 tumour suppressor gene. *Nature.* 1991;351(6326):453-456.
15. Bejar R, Stevenson K, Abdel-Wahab O, et al. Clinical effect of point mutations in myelodysplastic syndromes. *N Engl J Med.* 2011;364(26):2496-2506.
16. Feng L, Wang J, Chen J. The Lys63-specific deubiquitinating enzyme BRCC36 is regulated by two scaffold proteins localizing in different subcellular compartments. *J Biol Chem.* 2010;285(40):30982-30988.
17. Shao G, Lilli DR, Patterson-Fortin J, Coleman KA, Morrissey DE, Greenberg RA. The Rap80-BRCC36 de-ubiquitinating enzyme complex antagonizes RNF8-Ubc13-dependent ubiquitination events at DNA double strand breaks. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.* 2009;106(9):3166-3171.
18. Banath JP, Macphail SH, Olive PL. Radiation sensitivity, H2AX phosphorylation, and kinetics of repair of DNA strand breaks in irradiated cervical cancer cell lines. *Cancer Res.* 2004;64(19):7144-7149.
19. Wu J, Liu C, Chen J, Yu X. RAP80 protein is important for genomic stability and is required for stabilizing BRCA1-A complex at DNA damage sites in vivo. *J Biol Chem.* 2012;287(27):22919-22926.
20. Coleman KA, Greenberg RA. The BRCA1-RAP80 complex regulates DNA repair mechanism utilization by restricting end resection. *J Biol Chem.* 2011;286(15):13669-13680.
21. Swerdlow SH, Campo E, Harris NL, et al. WHO Classification of Tumors of Haematopoietic and Lymphoid Tissues, Fourth Edition. Lyon: IARC Press, 2008.
22. Haferlach T, Nagata Y, Grossmann V, et al. Landscape of genetic lesions in 944 patients with myelodysplastic syndromes. *Leukemia.* 2014;28(2):241-247.
23. Gondek LP, Tiu R, O'Keefe CL, Sekeres MA, Theil KS, Maciejewski JP. Chromosomal lesions and uniparental disomy detected by SNP arrays in MDS, MDS/MPD, and MDS-derived AML. *Blood.* 2008;111(3):1534-1542.
24. Nannya Y, Sanada M, Nakazaki K, et al. A robust algorithm for copy number detection using high-density oligonucleotide single nucleotide polymorphism genotyping arrays. *Cancer Res.* 2005;65(14):6071-6079.
25. Oakley K, Han Y, Vishwakarma BA, et al. Setbp1 promotes the self-renewal of murine myeloid progenitors via activation of Hoxa9 and Hoxa10. *Blood.* 2012;119(25):6099-6108.
26. Jasin M. Genetic manipulation of genomes with rare-cutting endonucleases. *Trends Genet.* 1996;12(6):224-228.
27. Meek K, Gupta S, Ramsden DA, Lees-Miller SP. The DNA-dependent protein kinase: the director at the end. *Immunol Rev.* 2004;200:132-141.
28. Kakarougkas A, Jeggo PA. DNA DSB repair pathway choice: an orchestrated handover mechanism. *Br J Radiol.* 2014;87(1035):20130685.
29. Zheng H, Chen L, Pledger WJ, Fang J, Chen J. p53 promotes repair of heterochromatin DNA by regulating JMJD2b and SUV39H1 expression. *Oncogene.* 2013;33(6):734-744.
30. Song H, Hollstein M, Xu Y. p53 gain-of-function cancer mutants induce genetic instability by inactivating ATM. *Nat Cell Biol.* 2007;9(5):573-580.
31. Somyajit K, Basavaraju S, Scully R, Nagaraju G. ATM- and ATR-mediated phosphorylation of XRCC3 regulates DNA double-strand break-induced checkpoint activation and repair. *Mol Cell Biol.* 2013;33(9):1830-1844.
32. Biesecker BB, Boehnke M, Calzone K, et al. Genetic counseling for families with inherited susceptibility to breast and ovarian cancer. *Jama.* 1993;269(15):1970-1974.
33. Narod S, Lynch H, Conway T, Watson P, Feunteun J, Lenoir G. Increasing incidence of breast cancer in family with BRCA1 mutation. *Lancet.* 1993;341(8852):1101-1102.
34. Li FP, Fraumeni JF Jr. Rhabdomyosarcoma in children: epidemiologic study and identification of a familial cancer syndrome. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 1969;43(6):1365-1373.
35. Vorechovsky I, Luo L, Lindblom A, et al. ATM mutations in cancer families. *Cancer Res.* 1996;56(18):4130-4133.
36. Seiberlich V, Goldbaum O, Zhukareva V, Richter-Landsberg C. The small molecule inhibitor PR-619 of deubiquitinating enzymes affects the microtubule network and causes protein aggregate formation in neural cells: implications for neurodegenerative diseases. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2012;1823(11):2057-2068.