The tal gene undergoes chromosome translocation in T cell leukemia and potentially encodes a $helix - loop - helix$ protein

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We have analyzed $t(1;14)(p32;q11)$ chromosome translocations from two patients with T cell acute lymphocytic leukemia. The chromosome ¹ breakpoints of these patients lie within a kilobasepair of each other, and thus define a genetic locus (designated tal) involved in T cell oncogenesis. Moreover, we have identifled sequences within tal that potentially encode an amphipathic helix- loop-helix motif, a DNA-binding domain found in a variety of proteins that control cell growth and differentiation. The homology domain of tal is especially related to that of lyl-l, a gene on chromosome 19 that has also been implicated in T cell oncogenesis. Hence, tal and lyl-1 encode a distinct family of helix-loop-helix proteins involved in the malignant development of lymphocytes.

Key words: chromosome translocation/helix-loop-helix motif/tal gene/T cell acute lymphocytic leukemia

Introduction

Cytogenetic abnormalities involving chromosome band 14q11 are often observed in the malignant cells of patients with T cell tumors. Three such karyotypic defects are recurrently found in T cell acute lymphocytic leukemia (T-ALL): the chromosome translocations $t(8;14)(q24;q11)$; $t(10,14)(q24;q11)$; and $t(11,14)(p13;q11)$ (Williams et al., 1984; Dubé et al., 1986; Raimondi et al., 1988). Their unique association with T-ALL suggests that these translocations actively promote leukemic development. Molecular studies show that the chromosome 14 breakpoints occur within the T cell receptor (TCR) α/δ chain gene at band 14q11 (Finger et al., 1986; McKeithan et al., 1986; Shima et al., 1986; Kagan et al., 1987; Boehm et al., 1988b). Thus, expression of gene sequences from the other participating chromosomes could be altered upon juxtaposition with the TCR locus, and indeed this may be the mechanism by which these translocations influence neoplastic development. In turn, this hypothesis implies the existence of proto-oncogenes near the breakpoints of the other participating chromosomes. Interestingly, studies of the $t(8;14)(q24;q11)$ translocation have borne out this prediction by localizing the chromosome 8 breakpoints to the vicinity of c-myc-a proto-oncogene frequently implicated in lymphoid tumorigenesis (Finger et al., 1986; McKeithan et al., 1986; Shima et al., 1986).

Recent studies indicate that the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ chromosome translocation may also be non-randomly associated with T-ALL. Lampert et al. (1988) observed $t(1;14)(p32;q11)$ in two of ten patients with T-ALL, an isolated case was reported by Mathieu-Mahul et al. (1986), and five cases were uncovered in a cytogenetic study of 251 T-ALL patients (A.Carroll and W.Crist, unpublished data). Thus, the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ translocation is a rare but none the less recurrent karyotypic marker of all T-ALL. A grossly similar cytogenetic defect, $t(1; 14)(p33; q11)$, has been observed in a stem cell leukemia with both lymphoid and myeloid manifestations (Hershfield et al., 1984); it remains to be seen whether this is related at the molecular level to the $t(1;14)(p32;q11)$ translocation associated with typical T-ALL.

Here we report the molecular characterization of the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ chromosome translocation. Analysis of the translocation junctions from two T-ALL patients reveals that

Fig. 2. The t(I;14)(p32;ql 1) translocation junction of patient 4. Comparison of (A) chromosome 14 sequences around the D32 gene segment (Boehm et al., 1988b), (B) chromosome der(1) sequences encompassing the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ junction and (C) chromosome 1 sequences from the tal locus. Nucleotides in upper-case letters are derived from chromosome ¹ and those in lower-case letters are derived from chromosome 14 (excepting nucleotides generated by N-region insertion, which are underlined). Coding sequences of the TCR D62 and J61 gene segments are overlined with arrows. The conserved heptamer and nonamer elements of the D52 recombination signals are marked with asterisks. Dashed vertical lines indicate the translocation breakpoints on chromosomes ¹ and 14.

the chromosome 14 breakpoints occur within the TCR δ chain gene. Also, the chromosome ¹ breakpoints from both patients lie just ¹ kb apart, suggesting that this region of chromosome ¹ harbors a genetic locus (designated tal, for T-cell acute leukemia) involved in leukemogenesis. Moreover, we have identified sequences within tal that encode a protein motif homologous to the helix $-\text{loop}-\text{helix}$ domain found in a number of proteins involved in the control of cell growth and differentiation (Villares and Cabrera, 1987; Murre et al., 1989a) including MyoDI, myogenin, Myf-5, the Drosophila achaete-scute, twist, daughterless and enhancer of split proteins, the E12/E47 immunoglobulin enhancer-binding proteins and products of the myc and lyl-l oncogenes. Since this domain plays a demonstrated role in DNA binding (Murre et al., 1989a), the tal gene product may influence leukemic development by direct interaction with DNA.

Results and Discussion

The junction of the $t(1; 14)$ (p32;q11) chromosome translocation from a T-ALL patient

Cytogenetic analysis identified a $t(1;14)(p32;q11)$ chromosome translocation in the leukemic cells of T-ALL patient 4 (see Materials and methods). To determine whether the chromosome 14 breakpoint occurred within the TCR α/δ chain gene, we examined patient DNA by Southern hybridization with ^a genomic DNA probe (R28EX-4.9) derived from the TCR J6 region. In addition to the germline 17.5 kb BamHI fragment, this probe detected a rearranged 12.2 kb fragment in leukemic DNA (Figure lA, lane 1) that was clearly absent in DNA obtained from the patient after remission (Figure IA, lane 2). To study further the tumorspecific δ gene rearrangement from this patient, we constructed a lambda phage library of BamHI-digested leukemic DNA. Screening with the R28EX-4.9 probe identified recombinant clones containing the rearranged 12.2 kb fragment, and analysis of one such clone $(AB2)$ revealed that its restriction map diverges from that of the germline δ chain locus in the vicinity of the J δ 1 gene segment (Figure IB).

If this DNA rearrangement represents ^a junction of the

 $t(1; 14)$ (p32;q11) translocation, then sequences upstream of the divergence point should be derived from chromosome 1. Therefore a 2.0 kb EcoRI fragment from this region was isolated and subcloned into a plasmid vector. This clone (B2EE-2.0) was then used as a probe in Southern filter hybridizations with DNAs extracted from ^a panel of ¹⁷ human/hamster somatic cell hybrids with randomly segregated human chromosomes (Thompson et al., 1987; Stallings et al., 1988). The hybridization of B2EE-2.0 was perfectly concordant with chromosome ¹ and randomly associated $(18-65\%$ discordancy) with every other human chromosome (Table I, Materials and methods). Furthermore, the pattern of hybridization with a panel of hybrids containing broken derivatives of chromosome ¹ (Thompson et al., 1987) provided a regional localization of B2EE-2.0 to the short arm of chromosome ¹ (see Materials and methods). Thus the contiguity of sequences from chromosome ¹⁴ (i.e. TCR δ gene) and chromosome 1 (i.e. B2EE-2.0) in the 12.2 kb BamHI fragment of λ B2 demonstrates that the intervening DNA rearrangement represents the junction of $t(1; 14)$ (p32;q11).

The $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ translocation generates two abnormal chromosomes, designated der(1) and der(14); these contain the centromeres derived from chromosomes ¹ and 14, respectively. From the known orientation of the TCR α/δ chain gene on chromosome 14 we can deduce that phage clone λ B2 represents the t(1;14)(p32;q11) junction on chromosome $der(1)$. To evaluate further the nature of the $der(1)$ junction, the divergence point of λ B2 was subjected to nucleotide sequence analysis. As illustrated in Figure 2(B), the TCR D δ 2 and J δ 1 segments of chromosome der(1) are juxtaposed as a consequence of TCR gene recombination. In addition, however, sequences of unknown origin are found upstream of the D62 segment (Figure 2B). If these novel sequences are indeed derived from chromosome 1, then the 14q11 breakpoint of $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ occurs immediately upstream of the recombined $D\delta2-J\delta1$ segments.

The $t(1; 14)$ (p32;q11) junction from a second T-ALL patient

A $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ chromosome translocation was also observed in the leukemic cells of T-ALL patient 5 (see

Fig. 3. Isolation of the t(1;14)(p32;q11) junction from patient 5. Southern analysis of BamHI-digested DNAs hybridized with probe R28EX-4.9 (A) or probe B2EE-2.0 (B). Lanes 1, control DNA from an unrelated Wilm's tumor specimen; lanes 2, patient ⁵ leukemic DNA. Sizes of HindIIIdigested λ DNA fragments are indicated (in kb) to the left of each autoradiogram. The rearranged 11.1 kb BamHI fragment is marked with arrows. (C) Recombinant clone XW2 was isolated from ^a phage library of patient ⁵ leukemic DNA with probe B2EE-2.0. The XW2 map is compared to that of the D δ -J δ region of a germline TCR α/δ chain gene. Closed boxes represent chromosome 14 sequences and open boxes chromosome 1 sequences. Positions of the DNA probes R28EX-4.9 and B2EE-2.0 are indicated. Restriction sites: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; H, HindIII.

Materials and methods). Southern hybridization with the TCR J δ gene probe (R28EX-4.9) identified a rearranged 11.1 kb BamHI fragment in leukemic DNA from this patient (Figure 3A); hybridization with the chromosome ¹ probe B2EE-2.0 also detected a rearranged BamHI fragment of 11.1 kb (Figure 3B). Therefore a lambda phage library of BamHI-digested leukemic DNA from patient ⁵ was constructed, and screening with the B2EE-2.0 probe yielded recombinant phage containing the rearranged 11.1 kb BamHI fragment. Simultaneous screening with the chromosome 14 probe (R28EX-4.9) revealed that these clones also annealed to DNA from the TCR J δ region. Hence, the rearranged 11.1 kb BamHI fragment contains sequences derived from both 1p32 and 14q11, and therefore is likely to constitute the der(1) junction of the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ chromosome translocation. This was confirmed by restriction mapping of one of these clones $(\lambda W2)$, which shows it to be comprised of chromosome ¹ sequences juxtaposed with sequences from the TCR α/δ chain locus of chromosome 14 (Figure 3C). Nucleotide sequence analysis of XW2 reveals DNA of unknown origin joined to coding sequences of the TCR $J\delta1$ gene segment (Figure 4), suggesting that the 14q11 breakpoint in patient 5 occurs within $J\delta 1$.

The tal locus; a breakpoint cluster region on chromosome ¹

Restriction mapping of the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ junctions from patients 4 and 5 revealed a common breakpoint region on chromosome ¹ that can be identified with the DNA probe B2EE-2.0 (Figures 1B and 3C); this region (designated *tal*)

Fig. 4. The $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ junction of patient 5. Comparison of (A) chromosome 14 sequences around the J δ 1 gene segment Boehm et al., 1988a), (B) chromosome der(l) sequences encompassing the $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ junction and (C) chromosome 1 sequences from the tal locus. Nucleotides in upper-case letters are derived from chromosome ¹ and those in lower-case letters are derived from chromosome 14 (excepting nucleotides generated by N-region insertion, which are underlined). Coding sequences of the TCR J δ 1 segment are overlined with an arrow. Dashed vertical lines indicate the translocation breakpoints on chromosome ¹ and 14.

was further characterized by isolating corresponding unrearranged genomic DNA sequences. The XW3 recombinant phage clone was isolated upon screening the patient ⁵ leukemic DNA library with B2EE-2.0; XW3 harbors a germline 5.0 kb BamHI fragment (Figures 3B and 5) that is presumably derived from the normal chromosome ¹ in patient 5 leukemic cells. The XSU2 clone was isolated by B2EE-2.0 screening of ^a library of genomic DNA from SUP-TI (Baer et al., 1985), ^a T cell lymphoma line that

Fig. 5. Map of the tal locus on chromosome 1. The $\lambda W3$ and $\lambda SU2$ clones were isolated by screening libraries of genomic DNA with the B2EE-2.0 probe. Analyses of $\lambda W3$ and $\lambda SU2$ provide an 18.6 kb restriction map of the tal locus in its normal configuration. The t(1;14)(p32;q11) translocation breakpoints from patients ⁴ and ⁵ are marked with arrows. DNA probes are indicated above the map. The co-linearity between the 1.8 kb cDNA clone λ cZl and the tal locus is illustrated, as well as the position of the helix-loop-helix reading frame. Restriction sites: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; P, PstI; S, Sacl (PstI sites are not complete).

bears only the normal homologs of chromosome ¹ (Hecht et al., 1984). Alignment of the overlapping λ W3 and λ SU2 clones provides an 18.6 kb restriction map of the tal locus (Figure 5); extensive Southern analyses of non-leukemic DNAs from ^a variety of human sources confirm that this map represents the normal structure of tal (data not shown).

Recently, two groups have analyzed the $t(1; 14)(p33; q11)$ translocation from DU.528 (Begley et al., 1989; Finger et al., 1989), a stem cell leukemia line with lymphoid and myeloid characteristics (Hershfield et al., 1984; Kurtzberg et al., 1985). It would be intriguing to determine whether this translocation is functionally equivalent to the $t(1; 14)$ -(p32;ql 1) defect observed in typical T-ALL. Interestingly, the chromosome 14 breakpoint in DU.528 also occurs within the TCR δ chain gene (Begley *et al.*, 1989; Finger *et al.*, 1989). However, available restriction data for the chromosome ¹ breakpoint are not compatible with the map of the tal locus, suggesting that the DU.528 breakpoint occurs at a distal site within tal or involves a distinct genetic entity on chromosome 1.

As illustrated in Figure 5, the $t(1;14)(p32;q11)$ breakpoints of patients 4 and 5 lie just ¹ kb apart within the tal locus. Nucleotide sequences of the germline tal locus were determined, and in Figures 2(C) and 4(C) these are compared with the corresponding $t(1; 14)(p32; q11)$ junctions from patients 4 and 5 respectively. These comparisons reveal the presence of short sequences at the translocation junctions (16 residues in patient 4, Figure 2B; 5 residues in patient 5, Figure 4B) that are derived from neither chromosome ¹ or 14. These are reminiscent of the N-region insertions generated during normal TCR gene assembly (Kronenberg et al., 1986), suggesting that the translocations were engendered by aberrant activity of the TCR gene recombinase.

RNA transcription of the tal locus

In order to identify transcribed sequences within the tal locus, a collection of genomic probes (B2BE-0.9, B2EE-2.0, BL3SS-5.4, and BL3SS-2. 1; Figure 5) was used to screen ^a cDNA library prepared from poly(A)-selected RNA of the T-ALL cell line CCRF-CEM (Foley et al., 1965). A single hybridizing clone was identified $(\lambda cZ1)$ and restriction mapping of the 1.8 kb cDNA insert (Figure 7A) revealed

Fig. 6. RNA transcription of the tal locus. Northern analyses of poly(A)+RNA from the pre-B leukemia cell line SMS-SB (lanes 1), the T-ALL line Jurkat (lanes 2) and the Burkitt's lymphoma line Ly65 (lanes 3). (A) Northern filter hybridized with the tal cDNA probe λ cZ1. (B) The same filter was stripped of λ cZ1 probe, and rehybridized with a β -actin cDNA probe. (C) A second filter was hybridized with λ cZl, and (without removal of the λ cZl probe) rehybridized with the β -actin cDNA probe. Mobilities of the 28S and 18S rRNA markers are indicated to the right of each autoradiogram.

it to be co-linear with genomic DNA located \sim 11 kb from the translocation breakpoints (see Figure 5). RNA transcription of tal was evaluated by using the λ cZ1 insert DNA as a probe in Northern hybridization experiments. Unfortunately, RNA preparations from leukemic cells of patients 4 and 5 were not available, thereby precluding analysis of transcription from translocated alleles of the tal locus. Regardless, the λ cZ1 probe detected two closely migrating species in $poly(A)^+$ RNA from the T-ALL cell line Jurkat; these transcripts were not observed, however, in RNA prepared from the B cell tumor lines SMS-SB and Ly65 (Figure 6A). The specific expression of tal sequences in Jurkat cells was confirmed in a control experiment that identified similar levels of β -actin gene transcripts in the three cell lines (Figure 6B). The *tal* transcripts migrate as ~ 5.0 and \sim 4.8 kb species which are better resolved in the Northern experiment presented in Figure 6(C). Preliminary analyses of tal transcription in a larger panel of lymphoid tumors suggest expression of the 5.0/4.8 kb species in some, but not all, T-ALL cell lines.

Fig. 7. Identification of the helix-loop-helix motif encoded by tal. (A) Restriction map of $\lambda cZ1$, a cDNA clone of a tal RNA transcript from CCRF-CEM cells. The location of the helix-loop-helix reading frame is indicated by ^a closed box. Restriction sites: B, BamHI; E, EcoRI; P, PstI; S, Sacl. EcoRI sites in parentheses were generated during cDNA construction. (B) The complete nucleotide sequence of the tal cDNA clone $\lambda cZ1$. The conceptual reading frame that includes the helix-loop-helix motif is specified by nt 318-770, and the TGA termination codons that delimit the reading frame are underlined. The 16 consensus amino acid of the helix-loop-helix motif, as defined by Mellentin et al. (1989), are marked with asterisks. The conceptual reading frame encoded by nt $7-82$ is homologous to the amino acid sequence just preceding the lyl-1 helix-loop-helix domain; the seven residues marked by asterisks in this frame are identical in tal and lyl-1. The vertical arrows indicate RNA splice sites identified by experiments described in Figure 9. The positions of synthetic oligonucleotide primers are illustrated; the oligonucleotide ¹ sequence is as shown, whereas the oligonucleotide 2 sequence is the reverse complement of that shown (see Materials and methods).

in Figure 7(B). In order to identify amino acid coding

tal sequences encode an amphipathic sequences of tal, potential reading frames were compared helix - loop - helix motif with the Protein Identification Resource (National Biomedical The 1.8 kb sequence of the λ cZ1 cDNA clone is presented Research Foundation) using a computer search algorithm in Figure 7(B). In order to identify amino acid coding (Lipman and Pearson, 1985). One such reading frame of

Fig. 8. Amino acid similarities between tal and other helix-loop-helix proteins. The amino acid residues of tal and other known proteins are aligned to illustrate homologies between their helix-loop-helix domains. The 16 consensus amino acids shared by most of the proteins are marked with asterisks (Mellentin et al., 1989). Those residues that form the proposed amphipathic helices are overlined with bars (Murre et al., 1989a).

150 amino acids displayed remarkable homology to a family of proteins involved in the control of cell growth and differentiation (nt 318-770; Figure 7B). The region of homology is restricted to an ~ 60 amino acid domain that has the potential to form two amphipathic helices separated by an intervening loop (Murre et al., 1989a). The 'helix-loop-helix' homology domain has been identified in oncoproteins encoded by the myc gene family (Villares and Cabrera, 1987) and the recently described lyl-l gene (Mellentin et al., 1989). The MyoD1, myogenin and Myf-5 proteins that mediate myoblast conversion also share this motif (Davis et al., 1987; Wright et al., 1989; Braun et al., 1989; Edmondson and Olson, 1989), as do the immunoglobulin enhancer-binding proteins E12 and E47 (Murre et al., 1989a). Helix-loop-helix domains are also encoded by several loci involved in Drosophila development, including four genes of the achaete-scute complex required for neurogenesis (Villares and Cabrera, 1987; Alonso and Cabrera, 1988); three transcripts of the *enhancer of split* gene complex also involved in neurogenesis (Klaembt et al., 1989); daughterless, a locus essential for sex determination and neural differentiation (Caudy et al., 1988); and twist, which controls germ layer formation during embryogenesis (Thisse et al., 1988). In Figure 8, the amino acid homology domains of known helix-loop-helix proteins are compared; the sequence identities between any of these 15 proteins and the corresponding helix $-\text{loop}$ -helix domain encoded by tal range $29-84\%$. Significantly, the *tal* motif contains each of the 16 consensus residues (marked by asterisks in Figure 8) characteristic of the helix-loop-helix domain as defined by Mellentin et al. (1989).

The helix $-$ loop $-$ helix domain of tal is comprised of the amino-terminal 60 residues of its 150 amino acid reading frame in λ cZ1 (Figure 7B). However, the λ cZ1 cDNA is likely to have been derived from ^a non-functional RNA transcript since the helix-loop-helix domain is immediately preceded by an in-phase termination codon (underlined in Figure 7B). The non-functional transcript may have arisen by either incomplete or improper splicing of tal mRNA. This

is consistent with Northern analyses which detect little, if any, 5.0/4.8 kb tal transcripts in CCRF-CEM cells (unpublished data). Nucleotide sequence comparison of genomic tal DNA (Figure 9A) and λ cZ1 (Figure 9B) reveals the presence of an RNA splice acceptor site immediately upstream of the genomic sequence that encodes the helix-loop-helix domain (Mount, 1982). Splicing at this position would be required for expression of the helixloop-helix domain since the genomic sequence is also preceded by an in-phase termination codon (underlined in Figure 9A). Clearly, the λ cZ1 transcript had undergone splicing at this site (Figure 9B), but it had done so in a manner that generated a non-functional message.

As discussed below, the helix $-\text{loop}$ -helix domain of tal is most closely related to that encoded by the lyl-l gene (Mellentin et al., 1989). Thus, it is noteworthy that sequences of λ cZ1 (nt 37-66; Figure 7B) potentially encode a ten amino acid stretch with strong homology to the region immediately preceding the helix $-\text{loop}-\text{helix}$ domain of $lyl-1$ (i.e. seven of ten residues are identical; these are marked with the $+$ symbol in Figure 7B). Hence, these may correspond to the upstream sequences that are normally spliced to the helix-loop-helix coding sequences in functional tal mRNA. To investigate this possibility we prepared synthetic oligonucleotides that flank the potential splice site-i.e. a 24 mer complementary to nts $33-56$ (oligonucleotide 1; Figure 7B) and a 20mer complementary to nts 393 -412 (oligonucleotide 2; Figure 7B). These were used as primers in a polymerase chain reaction to amplify sequences of $poly(A)^+$ RNA from Jurkat, a T-ALL cell line that expresses detectable levels of the 5.0/4.8 kb tal mRNA (Figure 6). This reaction generated a single amplification product of 144 bp, the nucleotide sequence of which is illustrated in Figure $9(C)$. As shown, the upstream tal sequences that encode the short amino acid stretch with $lyl-1$ homology are spliced in-frame with tal sequences encoding the helix $-\text{loop}-\text{helix}$ domain (Figure 9B). Hence, this is likely to represent the sequence of properly spliced, functional tal mRNA.

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genomic DNA
                                                 S P G P H T K V V R R
      GGAAGGAATCTCAAGCCCATTCTCCTAACTCTTGTCCTCCTAATCTCCAGGTCCCCACACCAAAGTTGTGCGGCGT
                                                     4
acceptor
                                                   splice site
B XcZl cDNA (CCRF-CEM cells)
                                                       G P H T K V V R R
      ACCTTGCCCCCTGGATTCCCCGAGAAGGGCCTTGGCACTGCTCCTTTGAGGTCCCCACACCAAAGTTGTGCGGCGT
       \frac{1}{2}improper
                                                     splice
     269
\mathsf{C}344
      PCR cDNA (Jurkat cells)
        N R V K R R P S P Y E M E I T D G P H T K V V R R
      CAATCGAGTGAAGAGGAGACCTTCCCCCTATGAGATGGAGATTACTGATGGTCCCCACACCAAAGTTGTGCGGCGT
        oligonucleotide 1
                                                   functional
                                                     splice
         I F T N S R E R W R Q Q N V N G A F A E L R K
      {\tt ATCTTCACCAACAGCCGGGAGCGATGGCGGCAGCAGAATGTGAACGGGGCCTTTGCCGAGCTCCGCAATGAAGATGAGGCTTAGCAGCTCGCAATGATGAGCTCGCAATGCTGAGTATGAGCAGAATGAGGAGCCTTTCGCGAGCACAATGATGATGAGGoligonucleotide 2
A
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Fig. 9. RNA splicing of tal gene transcripts. (A) Nucleotide sequence of tal genomic DNA at the 5' exon-intron border of the helix-loop-helix reading frame. The sequence was derived from XSU2, the genomic DNA clone illustrated in Figure 5. The in-phase TAA termination codon is underlined, and the RNA acceptor splice site is indicated by a vertical arrow (Mount, 1982). (B) Nucleotide residues 269-344 of $\lambda cZ1$, the cDNA clone derived from poly(A)⁺ RNA of CCRF-CEM cells (Figure 7). The in-phase TGA termination codon is underlined, and the position of the improper RNA splice is indicated. (C) Nucleotide sequence of ^a cDNA clone derived from poly(A)+ RNA of Jurkat cells. The ¹⁴⁸ bp cDNA fragment was generated by polymerase chain reaction using oligonucleotides ¹ and ² (Figure 7) as primers. The position of the functional RNA splice is indicated.

tal and lyl-1: a family of helix $-$ loop $-$ helix proteins involved in T cell oncogenesis

The helix $-$ loop $-$ helix proteins all share a moderate level of primary sequence homology that is likely to be sufficient for formation of the domain's proposed tertiary structure (Murre et al., 1989a). However, those proteins that were identified on the basis of similar functional properties exhibit far more dramatic similarities in their helix-loop-helix domains. For example, the Myc oncoproteins (c-Myc, N-Myc, and L-Myc) share $53-67\%$ amino acid identity in this region (Alt et al., 1986). Striking sequence identities are also apparent amongst the helix-loop-helix domains of the myogenesis regulatory proteins MyoDI, myogenin, and Myf-5 (77 -88% identity), and the products of four genes of the achaete-scute complex required for neural development $(60-70\%$ identity). These similarities contrast with the modest sequence homologies shared by unrelated helix-loop-helix proteins; e.g. the corresponding domains in c-Myc and MyoDl exhibit just 29% sequence identity (Davis et al., 1987). It is noteworthy, therefore, that the helix $-$ loop $-$ helix domain of tal is especially related to that encoded by lyl-1, a gene on chromosome 19 that was identified on the basis of chromosomal rearrangement in a human T cell leukemia (Mellentin et al., 1989). The amino acid alignment in Figure 10 illustrates the 84% level of

sequence identity between the homology domains encoded by tal and lyl-l. Hence, these genes specify a family of helix-loop-helix proteins that can potentially contribute to the formation of human T-ALL.

The normal functions of the tal and lyl-1 gene products are not known. However, in view of the proposed regulatory interactions between genes encoding helix-loop-helix proteins responsible for neurogenesis (Cabrera et al., 1987) and myogenesis (Pinney et al., 1988; Thayer et al., 1989; Wright et al., 1989), it is conceivable that tal and lyl-1 are co-ordinately involved in the control of lymphoid development. Moreover, their gene products may function by direct interaction with DNA. Murre et al. (1989a) showed that sequence-specific binding of E47 to the immunoglobulin x -chain enhancer is mediated by its helix-loop-helix domain. They further argued that other polypeptides bearing this motif also function as sequence-specific DNA-binding proteins. Indeed, recent studies reveal that the helixloop-helix domain is required for specific binding of MyoD1 to the muscle creatine kinase enhancer (Lassar et al., 1989). Likewise, the normal and malignant activities of tal may also be mediated by specific recognition of transcriptional regulatory sequences.

The E47 protein binds the immunoglobulin x -chain enhancer as a dimer (Murre et al., 1989a). Since the

Fig. 10. Alignment of the amphipathic helix-loop-helix domains of tal and $\frac{1}{2}$. The 16 consensus amino acids residues of the helix-loop-helix motif are marked with asterisks (Mellentin et al., 1989), and the residues that form the proposed helices are overlined with bars (Murre et al., 1989a). The lyl-l sequence was determined by Mellentin et al. (1989).

 $a_{+/+}$ have the chromosome and B2EE, $+/-$ have the chromosome but not B2EE, $-/+$ do not have the chromosome but have B2EE, $-/-$ have neither the chromosome or B2EE.

 $b\%$ discordant = no. +/- and no. -/+ divided by 17 × 100.

helix - loop - helix domain is necessary and sufficient for dimerization, formation of the E47 homodimer may be facilitated by hydrophobic interactions between the amphipathic helices. Curiously, heterodimers of E47 and other helix -loop -helix proteins-including some that are not expressed in lymphocytes (e.g. MyoDI and AS-C T3) not only bind the x -chain enhancer but do so with higher affinity than the E47 homodimer itself (Murre et al., 1989b). Similarly, some of the functions of the tal gene product may be expressed upon heterodimer formation with other helix -loop -helix proteins present in lymphocytes, including E47 or the c-myc or lyl-l oncoproteins.

Materials and methods

The patients

Patient 4 was a 7 year old male with T-ALL. At presentation the white blood cell count was 62 700/mm3 with 51% lymphoblasts. Cytogenetic analysis of bone marrow lymphoblasts revealed an abnormal karyotype: $46, XY, t(1; 14)(p32; q11),$ del(6)(q15q23). The patient entered complete remission following intensive chemotherapy. Patient materials analyzed in this report include a leukemic sample of peripheral blood obtained just prior to treatment, and a remission sample of peripheral blood obtained 4 months later.

Patient S was an 8 year old male with T-ALL. The white blood cell count at presentation was 112 400/mm3 with 41% lymphoblasts. Cytogenetic analysis of lymphoblasts from pleural fluid revealed an abnormal karyotype: 46,XY,t(1;14)(p32;ql 1). The leukemic sample analyzed in this report comprises cells obtained from the pleural fluid at presentation.

Molecular studies

DNA extracted from patient specimens was analyzed by Southern hybridization with radiolabeled DNA probes (Southern, 1975; Feinberg and Vogelstein, 1983). Genomic DNA libraries of BamHI-digested patient DNAs were constructed in phage vector X2001 (Kam etal., 1984). A cDNA library of poly(A)-selected RNA from CCRF-CEM cells (Foley et al., 1965) prepared in the phage vector λ ZAP II (Short et al., 1988) was obtained from Clontech Laboratories, Inc. (Palo Alto, CA). These libraries were screened by the method of Benton and Davis (1977), and restriction fragments of recombinant lambda phage DNA were subcloned into plasmid and M13 phage vectors (Yanisch-Perron et al., 1985; Pridmore, 1987; Short et al., 1988). Nucleotide sequence analyses were performed on M13 single-stranded templates by the chain-terminator method (Sanger et al., 1980).

Somatic cell hybrid analyses

The B2EE-2.0 clone was used as a probe in Southern filter hybridizations with EcoRI-digested DNAs extracted from ^a panel of ¹⁷ human/hamster somatic cell hybrids with randomly segregated human chromosomes. The B2EE-2.0 probe hybridized with both human and hamster DNAs, but the resolvable difference in fragment size (human, 2.0 kb; hamster, 7.3 kb) allowed assessment of the presence or absence of human sequence among hybrids of the panel. The hybridization of B2EE-2.0 was perfectly concordant with chromosome 1 and randomly associated $(18-65\%$ discordancy) with every other human chromosome (Table I). Many of the \sim 200 independent human - hamster hybrids generated and analyzed in the laboratory contain broken human chromosomes (Thompson et al., 1987). These were screened for hybrids in which chromosome ¹ was disrupted as indicated by the presence of one or more human chromosome ¹ markers in the absence of others. A panel of 29 such hybrids was identified and screened for the presence or absence of B2EE-2.0 (as above) in addition to five chromosome ¹ markers representative of regions on the p and q arms-PGD at p36, AK2 at p34, PGM1 at p22, AT3 at q23, and PEPC at q24 or q42 (assignments from HGM9, Morton and Bruns, 1988). The lowest levels of discordance were between B2EE-2.0 and the p-arm markers-24% with PGD, 24% with AK2, and 17% with PGM1. Discordancy between B2EE-2.0 and the q-arm markers was high (44% for AT3 and 75% for PEPC). The data indicate a chromosome lp location for B2EE-2.0.

RNA analysis

RNA was prepared from cell lines derived from human lymphoid tumors, including the pre-B cell line SMS-SB (Smith et al., 1981), the T-ALL line, Jurkat (Schneider et al., 1977) and the Burkitt's lymphoma line Ly65 (Taub et al., 1984). RNA was isolated either by guanidinium-cesium chloride (Ullrich et al., 1977) or acid guanidinium thiocyanate phenol-chloroform extraction (Chomcyznski and Sacchi, 1987). $Poly(A)^+$ RNA was selected by oligo(dT)-cellulose chromatography (Aviv and Leder, 1972). RNA was fractionated by electrophoresis on a 1% agarose gel after denaturation by glyoxal (McMaster and Carmichael, 1977) and transferred to a nylon membrane (Zeta-Probe, Biorad) for hybridization (Thomas, 1980). The relative electrophoretic mobilities of 28S and 18S rRNAs were determined by fractionation of total cellular RNA in adjacent gel lanes, and methylene blue staining of the rRNA species after transfer to ^a nylon membrane (Maniatis et al., 1982). The chicken cDNA clone pAl was used to detect β -actin gene transcripts (Cleveland et al., 1980).

Polymerase chain reaction

Amplification of $poly(A)^+$ RNA sequences from Jurkat cells was conducted by polymerase chain reaction (Saiki et al., 1988) with a pair of oligonucleotide primers complementary to tal sequences (Figure 7B). The sequences of oligonucleotides ¹ and ² are, respectively, CAATCGAGTGA-AGAGGAGACCTTC and TTGCGGAGCTCGGCAAAGGC. Each reaction consisted of ⁵⁰ mM KCI, ¹⁰ mM Tris-HCI (pH 8.3), 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.01% gelatin, 1 μ M each oligonucleotide primer, 125 μ M each deoxynucleotide triphosphate (dNTP), 40 U human placental ribonuclease inhibitor (Promega), 1 μ g poly(A)⁺ RNA, and 7.5 U avian myeloblastosis virus reverse transcriptase (Promega). Reaction volumes were $100 \mu l$. The reactions were incubated at 42°C for 2 h to allow synthesis of complementary DNA. After addition of 0.25 U of Taq DNA polymerase (Perkin-Elmer Cetus) each reaction was subjected to 50 cycles of denaturation (1 min at 94°C), primer annealing (3 min at 55°C) and extension (3 min at 72°C). Temperature cycling was carried out in an automated heating/cooling block (Gene Machine, USA/Scientific Plastics). The reactions were fractionated by electrophoresis on a 10% polyacrylamide gel, and the 148 bp amplification product was visualized by ethidium bromide staining. After elution from the gel, the amplification product was phosphorylated with polynucleotide kinase (New England Biolabs) and cloned into the *Smal* site of M13mp18 for nucleotide sequence analysis. Multiple independent M¹³ clones of the 148 bp amplification product were analyzed in both orientations, all of which exhibited the nucleotide sequence presented in Figure 9(C).

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