Transcriptional modulation of a flanking gene by HTLV-1 integration, and demonstration of a cellular transcript homologous to HTLV-1 LTR-gag region

Ryozo Moriuchi, Hisanaga Igarashi, Daisuke Nakayama Tsutomu Miyamoto and Shigeo Hino*

Department of Bacteriology, Nagasaki University School of Medicine, 12-4 Sakamoto, Nagasaki 852

Received for publication, February 12, 1988

SUMMARY: We have cloned a human T-lymphotropic virus type-1(HTLV-1) proviral genome, λ 255 M, of a cell line, TL-Su, which has been established from peripheral blood lymphocytes of a healthy HTLV-1 carrier. The λ 255M had a very similar restriction map to that of a previous isolate, λ ATK-1, but a different junctional repeat, TGAAAG, consistent with the random integration sites of HTLV-1. We found two species of interesting cellular gene transcripts. The first gene homologous to LTR-gag region of HTLV-1 was expressed as 4.5 kb RNA only in the cells of lymphoid cell lineage as far as tested. The RNA was present even in uninfected cells including a T-cell line, Jurkat, and a B-cell line, FLEB-12-3-4, but not in another T-cell line, CEM. Because of strong viral RNA signals, we could not demonstrate the RNA in virus producing cell lines. The results suggested the presence of human cellular gene related with LTR-gag region of HTLV-1. The other gene homologous to 5' flanking gene of the λ 255 M was expressed as 1.8 kb mRNA in all human cells tested except for the TL-Su cell. In the TL-Su cell, HTLV-1 integration modulated this gene transcription into 3.8, 3.2. 2.0 and 1.6kb mRNAs qualitatively, and at least 10 times more than other human cells quantitatively. The data suggests that HTLV-1 gene integration may cause the transcriptional modulation of cellular genes by insertional mutagenesis. (key words, HTLV-1; HTLV-1 related human gene; transcriptional modulation; flanking sequence; insertional mutagenesis)

INTRODUCTION

Human T-lymphotropic virus type-1(HTLV-1) is closely associated with adult T-cell leukemia (ATL) (POIESZ *et al.* 1980¹⁸), HINUMA *et al.* 1981³⁹), YOSHIDA *et al.* 1982⁶⁰), WONG-STAAL *et al.* 1983⁵⁹), YOSHIDA *et al.* 1984⁶¹). ATL usually develops after age of 40 in HTLV-1 carriers (UCHIYAMA *et al.* 1977⁵⁵), whose infection is established early in life mainly via milk of

carrier mothers (HINO et al. 1985^{17}), KINOSHITA et al. 1985^{55}). Chronic development of ATL by HTLV-1 is consistent with the absence of typical oncogene of cellular origin (SEKI et al. 1983^{44}). Retroviruses without oncogene may cause genetic changes of infected cells leading to cellular oncogenesis by 1) promoter /enhancer insertional activation (HAYWARD et al. 1981^{16} , PAYNE et al. 1982^{38}), NUSSE and VARMUS 1982^{35}), NUSSE et al. 1984^{36} , NLSEN et al.

^{*}To whom correspondence should be addressed

1985³⁴⁾), 2)trans-acting transcriptional activation (INOUE et al. 1986^{20}), CROSS et al. 1987^{7}), 3) transduction and subsequent alteration (Bishop et al. 1983¹), BISHOP, 1984²), BISHOP and VARMUS. 1984^{3} , Bishop, 1985^{4}), and 4) insertional inactivation or modulation (VARMUS et al. 1981⁵⁶) HAWLEYet al. 1982¹⁵), SCHNIEKE et al. 1983⁴²), HARBERS et al. 1984¹⁴⁾, WOLF and ROTTER 1984⁵⁸⁾, FRANKELet al. 1985^{9} , King et al. 1985^{24}). The HTLV-1 seems to have no preferential sites for the integration (SEIKI et al. 1984⁴⁵), suggesting that the leukemogenesis of ATL is not mediated by promoter/enhancer insertional activation of an adjacent cellular oncogene as demonstrated in avian lymphoma and erythroblastosis induced by avian leucosis virus (ALV) (HAYWARD et al. 1981^{16}).

HTLV-1 has a unique pX gene, whose counterpart is not present in type C leukemia viruses (SEIKI et al. 1983⁴⁴⁾ SEIKI et al. 1985a⁴⁶⁾. HTLV-1 does not seem to induce ATL by a hit-and-run mechanism, since every monoclonal tumor cell of ATL contains the HTLV-1 proviral genome. at least pX and LTR (YOSHIDA et al. 1984⁶¹⁾). Thus, the pX gene has been extensively studied as a candidate for responsible gene of leukemogenesis. Recent studies have shown that p 40^{tax} encoded by ORFIV (Kiyokawa et al. 1984²⁶⁾, LEE et al. 1984³⁰⁾, MIWA et al. 1984³¹⁾, SALMON et al. 1984⁴⁰⁾) of the pX gene is a transacting transcriptional activator (SODROSKI et al. 1984⁵⁰⁾, CANN et al. 1985⁵⁾, Felber et al. 1985⁸⁾. FUJISAWA et al. 1986¹²⁾, PASKALIS et al. 1986³⁷⁾ SEIKI et al. 1986⁴⁸, SHIMOTOHNO et al. 1986⁴⁹ which promotes transcription from LTR responding to the enhancer. The $p 40^{tax}$ also activates cellular genes, such as interleukin 2 and its receptor genes (INOUE et al. 1986²⁰⁾, CRoss et al. 1987⁷). The activation of these genes may be essential to the initial step of transformation in polyclonal HTLV-1 infected cells. Another pX protein, p 27^{rex} encoded by ORFIII (KIYOKAWA et al. 1985^{27}), has been indicated to switch splicing of RNAs, from ones directed to early proteins to ones for late proteins, as a post-transcriptional modulator of viral RNA (INOUE et al. 1987^{21}). However, the conjecture may not explain the very low rate and long

incubation period of oncogenic transformation among HTLV-1 carrier cells.

The transduction and insertional modulation models are both related to flanking regions of viral genome. To focus on the matter, we analyzed the flanking region of an HLTV-1 proviral genome in TL-Su cells (SUGAMURA *et al.* 1984⁵⁴⁾); the cell line was established from PBL of an HTLV-1 healthy carrier. In this study, we found two interesting species of RNAs. One expressed even in some uninfected cells was homologous to HTLV-1 LTR-gag region, and the other expressed in every human cells tested was homologous to 5' flanking region and specifically modulated in TL-Su cells by HTLV-1 integration.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells: Table 1 shows the list of cells used in this study. Cell lines infected with HTLV-1 include MT-2 and MT-4 (MIYOSHI et al. 1982^{32}), HARADA et al. 1985¹³⁾), TL-OmI (SUGAMURA et al. 1984⁵⁴⁾) and TL-Su. The first cell line was established by coculture of peripheral blood lymphocytes (PBL) of ATL patients with uninfected cord blood cells, while the others by culture of PBL of an ATL patient or a carrier, respectively. Fresh PBL obtained from a patient with ATL (ATLPBL) was prepared by Ficoll-Conray density gradient centrifugation. At least 70% of ATLPBL were leukemic ATL cells by the hematological standard, but they did not express viral transcripts. The list also includes uninfected cell lines originated from T-cell, B-cell, and various tumor and non-tumor cells of ectodermal, mesodermal or entodermal origin. We added a non-human cell line of bovine origin (ENDO).

We cultured lymphoid cells in RPMI 1640 (GIBCO) medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and 2.0 mM L-glutamine, and other cells in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's MEN (GIBCO) supplemented with 5% fetal bovine serum.

Molecular cloning of HTLV-1 proviral genomes: After complete digestion with EcoRI, the high molecular weight DNA of TL-Su cells was sized with a sucrose density gradient centrifugation. The DNA in franctions containing 9-20 kbp length was ligated to the arms of EMBL-4 phage DNA(FRISCHAUF *et al.* 1983¹⁰⁾), and subjected to *in vitro* packaging (STERNBERG *et al.* 1977⁵³). Approximately 5×10^5 plaques were screened with ³²P-labelled pATK-33 probe, 2.3 kbp *pol* gene fragment of HTLV-1 genome (λ ATK-1) (SEIKI *et al.* 1983⁴⁴⁾). We used a plasmid pUC118 for subcloning, and pMT-2/64/17 containing whole HTLV-1 genome as another probe.

Hybridization analysis: DNA probes were prepared by multi-prime method using ³²P-dCTP. DNA-DNA hybridization was performed by the method of Southern (1975)⁵² on nylon membranes (Zeta probe, Biorad) at 42°C for 18 hr in a mixture of 50% formamide, $3 \times SSPE$ (1 × SSPE: 0.1 M NaCl, 0.01 M sodium phosphate, pH 7.0), 10% dextran sulfate, 1% SDS, 0.5% skim milk and 0.2 mg/ml yeast RNA.

To analyze cellular RNA, total cellular RNAs were extracted by the procedures of CHIRGWIN *et al.* (1979)⁶⁾, and poly(A) contaning RNAs were isolated by oligo (dT)-cellulose column chromatography. The RNAs were fractionated by agarose gel electrophoresis in the presence of 2.2 M formaldehyde, transferred onto nylon membranes, and hybridized at the same condition as the southern analysis. The filter was finally washed at 42 °C for 30 min with a buffer of 0.1 x SSC and 0.1% SDS.

Nucleotide sequence determination: We employed the method of SANGER et al. $(1977)^{41}$ for the nucleotide sequence analysis.

-		HTLV-1		supplied
	origin	genome	antigens	from
TL-Su	HTLV-1 carrier	+	+	K. Sugamura
MT-2	ATL ^{b)}	+	+	I. Miyoshi
MT-4	ATL ^{b)}	+	+	I. Miyoshi
TL-OmI	ATL	+	-	K. Sugamura
ATLPBL	fresh ATL cells	+		K. Kinoshita
Jurkat	ALL			H. Shiku
ELEB 12-3-4	EBV ^{c)} transformed preB cell		_	S. Katamine
ENDO	endothelial cells	~	-	S.A. Aaronson
T 98 G	glioblastoma		-	do.
G 401	Wilm's tumor		-	do.
T 24	bladder carcinoma		_	do.
A 388	epidermoid carcinoma		-	do.
HA 117	GI carcinoma		—	do.
U 937	histiocytic lymphoma		—	JCRB-Cell

Table I. Cells used for Nothern hybridization analysis

a) All cells are originated from human exept ENDO from bovine.

b) Established by co-cutivation with cord blood lymphocytes.

c) Epstein-Barr virus.

RESULTS

Isolation of λ 255M, an HTLV-1 proviral genome: We isolated six independent clones contaning HTLV-1 pol gene from a genomic library of TL-Su cells, with pATK-33 as a probe. We selected λ 255M for further analysis, since it contained the large enough insert to cover whole HTLV-1 genome. Fig 1A shows a simplified restriction cleavage map of λ 255M. We estimated the location of LTRs in comparison to the genetic map of λ ATK-1. Thirteen restriction sites of enzymes in $\lambda 255M$ (Fig. 1A) were identical to those of λ ATK-1, if we estimate the presence of approximately 1 kbp deletion in *gag-pol* region. However, there was some difference between these two clones, such as the absence of Ndel site in the $\lambda 255M$ LTR(data not shown). The result was consistent with the previous data that HTLV-1s isolated in the world are very closely related each other, approximately 2% difference in LTR base sequences (WATANABE *et al.* 1984⁵⁷⁾, JOSEPHS *et al.* 1984²²⁾).

We first subcloned fragments of $\lambda 255M$, p255M-01 through -12, into pUC 118(Fig. 1A),



1988

Fig. 1. (A) Restriction map of 255M integrated proviral genome of HTLV-1. Thick line denotes the location of proviral DNA with a LT R (box) at each end. Bottom half shows the map of p255M, p255M-01 through -09, and -12 plasmid subclones. Restriction site symbols: ▼, EcoRI;
♠, Smal; ■, BamHI; ○, PstI; □, HindIII; ∇, XbaI;
★, HpaI.

(B) Nucleotide sequences of the virus-cellular junction in the clone $\lambda 255M$.

and sequenced the junctions of the LTR and flanking DNA, which revealed the precise location of LTRs and a pair of 6-bp cellular direct repeat, TGAAAG, on each external end of the LTRs (Fig. 1B). The direct repeat was different from the other reported couterparts of HTLV-1 proviral clones, for example, TAGTTC in case of λ ATK-1. The result is consistent with the previous observations that HTLV-1 integrates in a random fashion. From the exact location of the junctions, we found that $\lambda 255M$ has one and seven kbp cellular flanking DNA in the 5' and 3' ends of the viral genome, respectively. Expression of 5' cellular flanking sequences: To look for possible expression of flanking sequences in human cells, we screened total cellular RNAs by p255M-01 consisting of the whole 5' flanking sequences and approximately 4 kbp 5' end of viral genome as a probe. A northern hybridization analysis showed the presence of 1.8 kb RNA in every human cell tested (Fig. 2) except for TL-Su cells (Fig. 3, lane A1) from which $\lambda 255M$ was isolated. More interestingly, we also found a 4.5 kb RNA in some of the lymphoid cells tested (Fig. 2).

The 4.5 kb RNA homologous to p255M-01: The



Fig. 2. Northern hybridization analysis of total cellular RNAs by p255M-01 as probe. Total cellular RNAs, 10 µg were appplied per lane. Transcript sizes are shown in kilobases. Lanes: 1, ENDO; 2, T98G; 3, G401; 4, T24; 5, A388; 6, HA117; 7, Jurkat; 8, FLEB12-3-4; 9, ATLPBL.



Fig. 3. Northern hybridization analysis of total cellular RNAs of TL-Su (lane 1), MT-4 (lane 2), and Jurkat(lane 3) using p255M -02(A), -03(B), -04(C), and -09(D) as probes, respectively. Profiles of RNAs of virus producers, TL-Su and MT-4 are not shown in (C) because of strong signals of viral RNAs.

4.5 kb RNA was present only in lymphoid cells as far as tested, and in uninfected as well as infected cells(Fig. 2-4). Of cells positive for the 4.5 kb RNA, Jurkat and FLEB12-3-4 (KATAMINE *et al.* 1984²³⁾) are unrelated to HLTV-1 in origin. We confirmed that these cells are negative for HTLV-1 by southern and northern hybridization analyses using *pol* (pATK-33) or *pX*

41

R. MORIUCHI

(p255M-09) as probes. None of them was positive. Fig. 3, Lane D3 shows an example of data indicating the absence of any RNA hybridizable to pX probe in Jurkat cells. Of HTLV-1 infected but not producing cells, TL-OmI (data not shown) and ATLPBL (Fig. 2, lane 9) were positive for the 4.5 kb RNA. However, in cells replicating HTLV-1, such as MT-2, MT-4 and TL-Su, we could not identify the presence of the 4.5 kb RNA because of the strong viral signals.

To localize the sequences with homology, we used 3 subclones of p255M-01, EcoRI-HpaI (p255M-02), HpaI-SmaI (p255M-03) and SmaI-Smal (p255M-04) as probes which correspond 700 bp flanking, 169 bp flanking and 31 bp LTR U3, and most LTR through 50 bp 5' end of gag gene, respectively. Surprisingly, the 4.5 kb RNA did not hybridize with either of the p255M-02 or p255M-03 probe, i.e. the RNA was not homologous to the 5' flanking DNA of $\lambda 255M$. Instead, the 4.5 kb RNA hybridized with the p255M-04 (Fig. 3C). The RNA hybridized very weakly to p255M-05 probe, but did not to p255M-06 through -09 (data not shown). Homology of the 4.5 kb RNA and HTLV-1 was confirmed by a northern hybridization analysis using pMT-2/64/17 as a probe (Fig. 4A). The specificity of hybridization was high, since more stringent wash at 67°C did not remove the signals (Fig. 4B). Thus, it was clear that 4.5kb RNA expressed in certain lymphoid cells is transcribed from a cellular gene and related to LTR-gag region of HTLV-1.

The 1.8 kb RNA homologous to p255M-01: To localize the sequences homologous to the 1.8 kb RNA present in all human cells tested except for the TL-Su, we surveyed the 1.8 kb RNA with the p255M-02, -03, and -04 as probes. The RNA hybridized only with the p255M-02. Poly (A) selected RNA showed the same profile suggesting the RNA is mRNA and derived from a gene commonly expressed in wide spectrum of cell differentiation (Fig. 5) The region of 3' flanking sequence homologous to the 1.8 kb mRNA was surveyed with seven subclones covering p255M-12 in Fig. 1A, but it was unsuccessful because of very strong Alu signals (data not shown).

Nucleotide sequence of 5' cellular flanking DNA: To analyze the primary structure of the entire



Fig. 4. Detection of 4.5 kb RNAs using pMT-264'17 as a probe. RNA sample, 10 μg of each, was applied per lane. A: The filter was washed with 0.1 × SSC, 0.1% SDS at 42°C, B: washed at 67°C. Lanes: 1, TL-Su; 2, MT-4; 3, Jurkat; 4, FLEB12-3-4; 5, ATLPBL.



Fig. 5. Northern hybridization analysis of various human cellular RNAs using p255M-02 as a probe. Total cellular RNA (10 μ g each, lane a) or polyA-selected RNA (1 μ g each, lane b) was applied. Lanes: 1, TL-Su; 2, MT-4; 3, Jurkat; 4, FLEB12-3-4; 5, T24; 6, TL-OmI; 7, U937; 8, Rabbit spleen; 9, Mouse spleen.



Fig. 6. Nucleotide sequence of the 5' cellular flanking DNA in $\lambda 255M$. Numbering is from the EcoRI site. EcoRI, HpaI, and SmaI sites are shown by vertical arrows. Underline shows putative exon. 5' cellular flanking region, we determined the sequences using fragments of p255M-02 and 03 by dideoxy chain termination method on both strands (Fig. 6). The flanking DNA is extraordinary AT rich (GC content: 30%). The sequence did not include a typical initation codon that conforms reasonably well to Kozak's consensus sequence for 3' splice acceptor site was found at nucleotides 559 through 577 ((Py) $_{>11}$ NPvAGG) and 5' splice donor site at nucleotides 595 through 603 (AAGGTGAGT) (MOUNT 1982^{33}). The data implies that the region of putative exon, the sequence between the splicing acceptor and donor sites, hybridized to the 1.8 kb mRNA in various human cells. Homologous sequence to this putative exon was not found in a data bank, LASL-GDB, release 48.0. Modulation of cellular gene expression by insertion of HTLV-1: The TL-Su cell from which $\lambda 255M$ originated was the only human cell not expressing the 1.8 kb mRNA, so far as tested. However, the cells expressed several species of mRNAs hybridizable to the p255M-02, 3.8, 3.2, 2.0 and 1.6 kb (Fig. 5, Lane 3). Using subfragments of junctional region (p255M-03) and viral genes (p255M-04 to -09) as probes, we tried to see if these mRNAs are read through or spliced into the viral gene. The excessive expression of viral RNA made the analysis difficult. However, in short term exposure of these northern blottings, none of these mRNAs hybridizable to p255M-02 corresponded with the major viral bands (for example, Fig. 3, lanes A1, B1 and D1). The results did not exclude the possibility of the presence of lower amount of RNA read through or spliced into the viral gene. On the other hand, as shown in Fig. 5, these mRNAs expressed in TL-Su cells are at least 10 times more abundant than 1.8 kb mRNA in other cells. These results indicated that the flanking cellular gene adjacent to proviral HTLV-1 genome may be qualitatively or quantitatively modulated, or both.

DISCUSSION

Since HTLV-1 has no oncogene or no specific integration site (SEIKI *et al.* 1983⁴⁴⁾, 1984⁴⁵⁾), the function of its unique pX gene has been studied extensively. However, it seems difficult to explain leukemogenesis by the functions of pX gene alone. On the other hand, it has been well known that carcinogens or radiation hit DNA in a random fashion, and induce tumors. Therefore, we are interested in some possible role of flanking gene expression modified by integration of HTLV-1.

We cloned HTLV-1 provirus genome from TL-Su cell line established from PBL of a healthy carrier, and analyzed expression of its flanking DNA in various human cells. In $\lambda 255M$, the proviral genome integrated into a cellular gene different from any of previously reported HTLV-1 proviral genomes, since $\lambda 255M$ had a 6-bp direct repeat (TGAAAG) on the external end of 5' and 3' LTRs, in comparison to λ ATM-1 (CATTCC) (SEKI *et al.* 1982⁴³), λ ATK-1 (TAGTTC), and pMT-2-42 (GGATAT) (INO *et al.* 1986¹⁹).

Northern hybridization analysis with the p255M-01 showed two species of RNA with the length of 4.5 and 1.8 kb. The 4.5 kb RNA is expressed in certain lymphoid cells, such as HTLV-1 related TL-OmI and ATLPBL and HTLV-1 uninfected Jurkat and FLEB12-3-4 cells. However, not all lymphoid cells were positive for the 4.5 kb RNA. For example, neither of an ATL lymphoma nor a CD4-positive cell line, CEM, was positive (data not shown). None of tested non-lymphoid cells was positive for the 4.5 kb RNA. We failed to define the cell types which express the 4.5 kb RNA. In HTLV-1 producers, we could not analyze the 4.5 kb RNA because of strong signals of viral RNA.

The 4.5 kb RNA hybridized to p255M-04 consisted of most LTR through 50 bp of gag gene, but to p255M-02 consisted of only the flanking region of $\lambda 255$ M. The result strongly suggested the presence of a human cellular gene homologous to HTLV-1 LTR, which may be a target of trans-acting transcriptional activation by p40^{tax} in HTLV-1 infected cells. Detailed study is in progress.

The other 1.8 kb RNA was present in all human cells tested except for TL-Su cells from which $\lambda 255M$ originated. Since the rabbit and mouse spleen cells (Fig. 5) and the bovine cells (Fig. 2, lane 1)did not show any RNA hybridizable to the probe, we considered the finding to be specific. We found 3.8, 3.2, 2.0 and 1.6 kb mRNAs in TL-Su cells. Since the 5' flanking region of 255M contained a splicing donor consensus sequence, these mRNAs transcribed from this cellular gene may use unusual splicing acceptors within the proviral genome. We tried to detect these mRNAs species using viral genome as probe, such as p255M-04 through -09. However it was unsuccessful because the extraordinary large amount of viral transcripts made it difficult to detect the unusually spliced mRNAs.

The results suggested that the provirus of $\lambda 255M$ integrated within a cellular gene whose expression is essential for most cells, although we have no information about the biological function of the 1.8 kb mRNA. However, the integration of HTLV-1 qualitatively modulated transcription of the gene in TL-Su cells as shown by unusual size of 1.8 kb mRNA species In addition, the same integration quantitatively modulated transcription of the gene as shown by at least 10-fold increase of the 1.8 kb mRNA species. The qualitative and/or quantitative modulation of cellular gene expression by HTLV-1 integration may affect normal cellular functions and lead to transformation.

On the other hand, oncogenesis is associated with recessive mutation rather than activation or alteration of genes, such as oncogenes. For example, specific chromosomal changes which result in homozygosity or hemizygosity for the 'mutant' or inactive allele are claimed as a key mechanism leading to tumor formation, in case of retinoblastoma or Wilms' tumor (KNUDSON 1985²⁸⁾). HTLV-1 integration into one of these genes may increase the possibility of malignant transformation of human T-cells. In this report, we have shown the first evidence of the insertional mutagenesis by HTLV-1 gene integration.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors are grateful to Drs. M. YOSHIDA, F. WANG-STAAL, K. SUGAMURA and I. MIYOSHI, for providing pATK-33, pMT-2/64/17, TL-OmI and TL-Su and MT-2 and MT-4, respectively. Part of this study was supported by Grant-in-Aid for Cancer Res. from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Science and Clure. They also thank to Japanese Cancer Res. Resorces Bank (JCRB)-Cell for U937.

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1988

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