

Regulation of Cellular Transformation by Oncogenic and Normal Abl Kinases

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Cellular transformation, the conversion of normal cells into tumorigenic cells *in vitro*, is characterized by immortalization, anchorage- and serum-independent growth and tumour formation in the nude mouse. Among these, anchorage-independent growth is one of the defining characteristics of transformed cells and tumour cells. Without attachment to the extracellular substrate, most normal cells cannot grow or survive, but tumour cells can proliferate. Many oncogenes and tumour suppressors are involved in regulating this process, among which is Abl tyrosine kinases. Previous work showed that v-Abl, an oncogenic variant of c-Abl kinase, induces anchorage-independent growth in the context of p53 deficiency, and a recent study by our group showed that loss of c-Abl kinase also facilitates anchorage-independent growth. The cellular context, such as a deficiency in both p53 and RB, is critical to induce anchorage independence by loss of c-Abl kinase. In this review, we discuss the mechanisms of cellular transformation by oncogenic and normal Abl kinases.

Key words: Abl kinases, anchorage independence, Bcr-Abl, c-Abl, cellular transformation, v-Abl.

Abbreviations: ECM, Extracellular matrix; MFFs, mouse embryonic fibroblasts; CDK, Cyclin-dependent kinase; PR, Proline rich; ALV, Abelson leukemia virus; CML, chronic myelogenous leukemia.

How do normal cells become tumorigenic? This remains one of the most fundamental questions in the field of cancer science. Although *in vivo* mouse models (knockout or transgenic) gives robust evidence that certain genes are involved in tumour development, the precise mechanism(s) also need to be examined at the cellular level, because tumorigenesis is a process accompanied by multiple genetic and epigenetic alterations in cells. Cellular transformation involves the conversion of normal cells into malignant cells *in vitro*, and the transformed cells acquire distinctive features such as immortalization, anchorage-independent growth, serum-independent growth and tumour formation in the nude mouse. Among these features, anchorage-independent growth capability (*in vitro*) correlates well with tumour formation in the nude mouse (*in vivo*) (1–3), and is therefore a prominent characteristic to define cellular transformation (4). Without attachment to the extracellular matrix (ECM), normal cells cannot grow or survive, but tumour cells can proliferate. This indicates that adhesion-dependent integrin signalling from the ECM determines the growth properties of cells stimulated with growth factors (5–7). Remarkably, growth factor-mediated and integrin-mediated signalling regulate the same signalling pathways (8). Efficient activation of the Ras/Raf/MAPK pathway or the PI3K/Akt pathway by growth factor requires cell adhesion (9–11). Cell adhesion

also regulates expression of c-fos and c-myc (12), which is controlled by the Ras/Raf pathway (13, 14). Considering that constitutive activation of Ras, Raf and Mek facilitates anchorage- and serum-independent growth of established cell lines, it is likely that regulation of the Ras/Raf/Mek pathway is invariably important in the process of tumorigenesis. Activation of this signalling pathway induces cyclin D1 expression, which regulates the G1/S transition (15). Integrins and growth factors cooperatively regulate cyclin D1 expression via cytoplasmic signalling pathways (16). Knockout of all D-type cyclins (D1, D2 and D3) showed that cyclin D is a critical mediator of oncogenic Ras-induced transformation of mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) (17). Although cyclin D1 regulates the cell cycle in cyclin-dependent kinase (CDK)-dependent and -independent manners (18, 19), it remains to be elucidated how this dual regulation contributes to the process of cellular transformation.

It is noteworthy that expression of activated Ras in primary MEFs provokes irreversible growth arrest, known as premature senescence, via p53 or p16^{ink4a} (20), indicating that a single oncogene is insufficient to induce malignant cellular transformation. How, then, are oncogenes involved in transformation? Outstanding work in the 1980s revealed that a combination of oncogenes converts primary rodent cells into tumorigenic cells: oncogenic Ras cooperates with adenovirus E1A, v-myc or SV40T antigen to transform primary rodent cells (21–23), suggesting that cytoplasmic and nuclear oncoproteins collaborate in malignant transformation

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Structure of Abl kinases

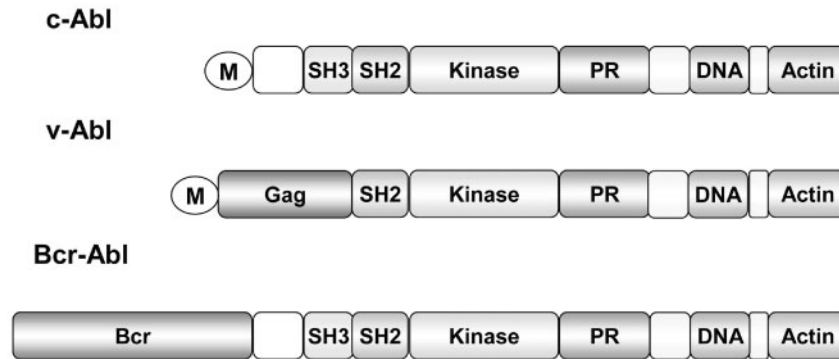


Fig. 1. **Structure of Abl kinases.** c-Abl contains a myristoylation modification signal (M), SH3 domain, SH2 domain, kinase domain, proline rich region (PR), DNA-binding domain, and actin-binding domain. An SH3 domain in v-Abl is replaced with

the viral gene *gag*. In Bcr-Abl, a *Bcr* gene is fused to the N terminus of c-Abl, resulting in loss of the myristoylation modification signal.

(24). In contrast to rodent cells, human cells are known to be more refractory to oncogenic transformation (25). However, Hahn *et al.* (26) showed that introduction of the catalytic subunit of telomerase (hTERT) facilitates transformation of primary human cells in combination with activated Ras and SV40T antigen. This combination, however, converts human cells into full malignant transformants only weakly (27–29). Akagi and colleagues showed that Ras-induced activation of Erk is attenuated in human cells but not in rodent cells. This, in turn, abrogates up-regulation of Fra1 or down-regulation of Caveolin-1, both of which are required for anchorage-independent growth of human cells (30, 31). These observations emphasize that differences between model systems (*e.g.*, human or rodent) should always be kept in mind. Although combining oncogenes successfully convert normal cells into tumorigenic cells in terms of anchorage-independent growth, the precise mechanisms need to be further investigated.

Regulation of Cellular Transformation by Abl Kinases—*c-abl* is the proto-oncogene of the Abelson leukaemia virus (ALV) oncogene *v-abl* and encodes a non-receptor tyrosine kinase (32, 33). Structural differences between c-Abl and v-Abl are shown in Fig. 1. The N-terminal region of c-Abl contains a myristoylation modification signal, an SH3 domain, and an SH2 domain. The SH3 domain is replaced with the viral protein Gag in v-Abl, which results in acquisition of hyper tyrosine kinase activity. In Bcr-Abl, Bcr is fused to the N-terminus of c-Abl, and the coiled-coil region of Bcr contributes to dimerization between Bcr-Abl molecules, resulting in induction of up-regulated kinase activity.

Although ALV transforms pre-B cells in mice, and v-Abl is required for this function, it primarily induces apoptosis in B cells (34). In p53 or p19^{Arf} knockout mice, however, ALV fails to induce apoptosis and efficiently transforms pre-B cells (35, 36). Although it is unclear whether inactivation of the p19^{Arf}/p53 pathway and expression of v-Abl is enough to convert normal pre-B cells into transformed cells, these studies suggest that

v-Abl transforms cells depending on the cellular context, as does activated Ras. In primary MEFs, expression of v-Abl induces senescence, but inactivation of the p53/p19^{Arf} pathway renders the cells susceptible to transformation by v-Abl (37). Expression of v-Abl is required for both initiation and maintenance of the transformed phenotype, because treatment with the Abl inhibitor STI571 (Gleevec/Imatinib) stops proliferation of transformed-pre-B cell lines (38). In the immortalized murine cell line NIH3T3, v-Abl facilitates anchorage- and serum-independent growth or growth arrest at the G1 phase, depending on the cellular context (39). Overexpression of c-Abl in NIH3T3 cells also facilitates growth arrest at the G1 phase but rarely facilitates transformation (40). NIH3T3 cells are null for both p16^{ink4a} and p19^{Arf}, but express wild-type p53 (41). Although the precise mechanism is unknown, c-Abl induces growth arrest rather than senescence or apoptosis depending on the cellular context, and at least p16^{ink4a} and p19^{Arf} are dispensable for this function.

From the above observation, it appears that Abl kinases generate both positive and negative signals for growth, and that disabling the negative signal facilitates oncogenic transformation. The mechanisms can be explained by differences between the effects on Abl kinase substrates of both positive and negative signals. Because kinase activity of c-Abl is autoinhibited by intramolecular folding of the N-terminus onto the kinase domain (42, 43), replacement of SH3 domain with the viral protein Gag may facilitate disruption of autoinhibited kinase activity, as occurs with Bcr-Abl (44). Thus, the balance between positive and negative signals on substrate phosphorylation is altered in v-Abl-transformed cells compared to normal cells expressing c-Abl. It is known that an Abl-binding protein, Abi-1, suppresses transformation of v-Abl-expressing NIH3T3 cells (45, 46). We have found that Abi-1 binds to both c-Abl and substrates and works as a regulator of both kinase and substrate (47–49), and others have found novel c-Abl substrates that are phosphorylated

by this mechanism (50–52). These observations suggest that the negative signal for growth by Abl comprises signalling pathways of Abi-1-mediated substrates of Abl. Moreover, overexpression of c-Cbl, a substrate of Abl (53, 54), in v-Abl expressing NIH3T3 cells inhibits anchorage-independent growth (55). Overexpression of DokL, a binding partner of Abl, also suppresses v-Abl-mediated transformation of NIH3T3 cells (56). Collectively, these observations suggest that Abl constitutes a negative signal via Abi-1, c-Cbl, DokL, and possibly other proteins.

In contrast to Abi-1 and c-Cbl, overexpression of c-Crk, a regulator and substrate of c-Abl (57, 58), facilitates anchorage-independent growth of NIH3T3 cells via activation of focal adhesion kinase (FAK) by making a complex with Cas^{p130} (59). Because phosphorylation of c-Crk by Abl promotes disassembly of the Crk/Cas^{p130} complex and inhibits anchorage-independent growth (60), it is more likely that overexpression of c-Crk overcomes c-Abl-mediated disruption of the Crk/Cas^{p130} complex. In breast cancer cell lines, c-Crk phosphorylation by c-Abl downstream of the EphB4 receptor inhibits viability, proliferation, motility and invasion, suggesting that the c-Abl-c-Crk pathway negatively regulates transformation (61). It is still unknown whether overexpression of c-Crk in v-Abl-transformed cells constitutes a positive or negative signal for anchorage independence.

We have shown that the loss of c-Abl, and specifically loss of its kinase activity, also facilitates anchorage-independent growth of MEFs in the context of p53- and RB-deficiency (62). In adherent cells, the phosphorylation status of MAPK and Akt is not significantly different in wild-type and c-Abl-knockout MEFs, but c-Abl-knockout MEFs show enhanced phosphorylation of these signals when compared to wild-type MEFs in suspension (J. Suzuki and T. Shishido, unpublished data). It is noteworthy that c-Abl promotes proliferation of MEFs lacking p53 in the adherent state (63). Taken together, these observations suggest that normal levels of endogenous c-Abl are required to promote adherent growth and inhibit anchorage-independent growth in the context of p53 deficiency.

How is anchorage independence regulated positively by v-Abl and negatively by c-Abl? One possibility is that oncogenic variants of Abl eliminate negative signals for anchorage-independent growth normally generated by Abl. This model of anchorage-independent growth by Abl is shown in Fig. 2. One candidate downstream protein is Caveolin-1, which was identified as a substrate of v-Src. In v-Src-, RasV12- or v-Abl-transformed MEFs, expression of Caveolin-1 decreases due to MAPK-dependent and -independent down-regulation of gene expression (64). Expression of Caveolin-1 in v-Abl- or RasV12-transformed NIH3T3 cells suppresses anchorage-independent growth (65). Caveolin-1 is strongly phosphorylated at tyrosine 14 in v-Abl-expressing cells (66, 67). Although, it remains to be elucidated whether c-Abl directly phosphorylates Caveolin-1, oxidative stress-induced tyrosine phosphorylation of Caveolin-1 does not occur in c-Abl-knockout MEFs (68). Phosphorylation of Caveolin-1 tyrosine 14 has been implicated in negative regulation of anchorage-independent growth via inhibition of Erk, PI3K and

Anchorage-independent growth regulation by Abl kinases

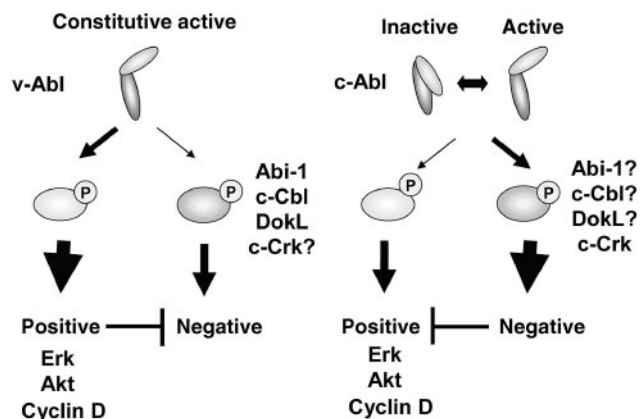


Fig. 2. Regulation of anchorage-independent growth by Abl kinases. An oncogenic variant of Abl, v-Abl possesses constitutive tyrosine kinase activity. Although Abl phosphorylates substrates which constitute positive and negative signals for growth, v-Abl is likely to output more positive signal, which, in turn, inhibits the negative signal generated by v-Abl itself. Positive signal by Abl comprises of activation of Erk, Akt and cyclin D, but it is unclear which substrates of Abl regulate this pathway. Substrates of Abl regulating negative signal for growth is likely to be Abi-1, c-Cbl, DokL and c-Crk. Unlike v-Abl, kinase activity of c-Abl is tightly regulated and fluctuates between inactive and active states. c-Abl outputs more negative signal for growth in suspension, which blocks proliferation.

Rac by enriched membrane microdomain internalization (69). In summary, c-Abl may partly suppress anchorage-independent growth by phosphorylating Caveolin-1, an effect which may be abrogated in v-Abl-expressing cells by transcriptional repression of *Caveolin-1* gene expression (Fig. 3). However, it remains to be determined which substrates of c-Abl are indeed involved in inhibition of positive signals regulating anchorage-independent growth.

Regulation of Malignant Transformation in vivo by Abl Kinases—Although a recent paper showed that c-Abl is constitutively activated in some breast cancer cell lines, and that its activity is required for invasion (70), it is unclear whether c-Abl is involved in development of solid tumours. Because c-Abl-knockout mice die soon after birth, it is currently unknown whether c-Abl works as a tumour suppressor *in vivo*. In contrast, oncogenic variants of Abl (Bcr-Abl, Tel-Abl and v-Abl) induce leukaemia. Expression of v-Abl causes pre-B cell leukaemia in mice and sarcoma in cats. Bcr-Abl, which is generated by chromosomal translocation, causes chronic myelogenous leukaemia (CML) (71, 72) or acute lymphoblastic leukaemia in humans (73–76). CML evolves from a chronic phase to an accelerated phase, and finally to blast crisis, which is characterized by the rapid expansion of a population of myeloid or lymphoid differentiation-arrested blast cells (77). The mechanisms of transition into blast crisis are largely unknown. We found that expression of endogenous c-Abl is lost in several CML cell lines, established from blast crisis patients (62). Asimakopoulos *et al.* (78) have shown that

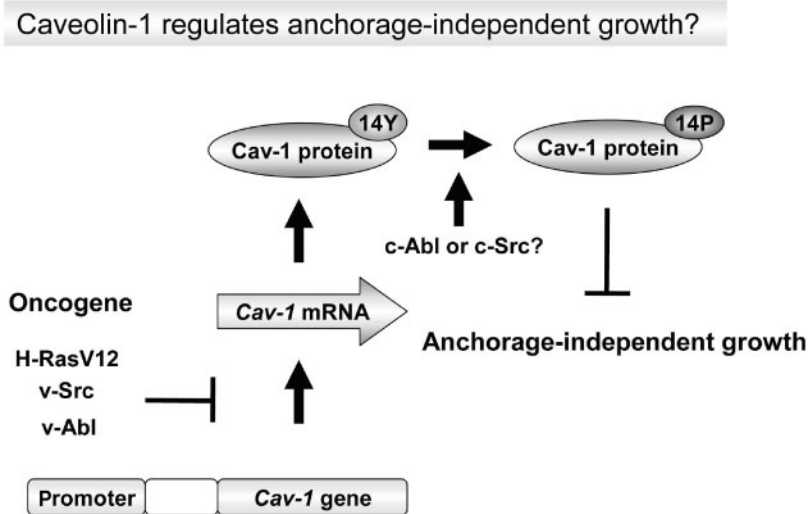


Fig. 3. **Regulation of anchorage-independent growth by Caveolin-1.** Expression of *Caveolin-1* is repressed by oncogenes such as H-RasV12, v-Src and v-Abl at the transcriptional level. Caveolin-1 is a candidate downstream target of Abl and Src

family kinases. Phosphorylation (P) of Caveolin-1 on tyrosine (Y) 14 negatively regulates anchorage-independent growth, but it remains to be elucidated which kinases are involved in this regulation.

the regulatory regions of *c-abl* are hypermethylated in CML-blast crisis cells. These observations imply that loss of *c-Abl* expression is associated with transition into blast crisis. Because Bcr-Abl fails to induce anchorage-independent growth in NIH3T3 cells, unlike v-Abl (79, 80), it is possible that loss of *c-abl* expression in the Bcr-Abl-expressing cells facilitates anchorage-independent growth as observed in p53- and RB-deficient MEFs (62). Whether this scenario is applicable to leucocytes is currently unknown. Because blast crisis is characterized by accumulation of myeloid or lymphoid blast cells, it needs to be determined whether loss of *c-Abl* in Bcr-Abl-expressing cells arrests differentiation.

Conclusions and Future Perspectives—Cellular transformation of primary cells is a powerful system to investigate the role of target genes in tumorigenesis. Using this system, the involvement of Abl kinase in anchorage-independent growth was revealed. *c-Abl* functions uniquely to induce or suppress anchorage-independent growth in a cellular context-dependent manner. A priority for future study is to identify the main target of *c-Abl* in negative regulation of anchorage independence. This will help us to understand how v-Abl escapes from the negative signals produced by v-Abl itself. Furthermore, it will be interesting to establish whether *c-Abl* is deregulated in Bcr-Abl-expressing cells, especially those cells in the blast crisis phase.

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