Novel mRNA-containing cytoplasmic granules in ALK-transformed cells

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ABSTRACT In mammalian cells, nontranslating messenger RNAs (mRNAs) are concentrated in different cytoplasmic foci, such as processing bodies (PBs) and stress granules (SGs), where they are either degraded or stored. In the present study, we have thoroughly characterized cytoplasmic foci, hereafter called AGs for ALK granules that form in transformed cells expressing the constitutively active anaplastic lymphoma kinase (ALK). AGs contain polyadenylated mRNAs and a unique combination of several RNA binding proteins that so far has not been described in mammalian foci, including AUFl, HuR, and the poly (A)* binding protein PABP. AGs shelter neither components of the mRNA degradation machinery present in PBs nor known markers of SGs, such as translation initiation factors or TIA/TIAR, showing that they are distinct from PBs or SGs. AGs and PBs, however, both move on microtubules with similar dynamics and frequently establish close contacts. In addition, in conditions in which mRNA metabolism is perturbed, AGs concentrate PB components with the noticeable exception of the 5′ to 3′ exonuclease XRN1. Altogether, we show that AGs constitute novel mRNA-containing cytoplasmic foci and we propose that they could protect translatable mRNAs from degradation, contributing thus to ALK-mediated oncogenicity.

INTRODUCTION A key aspect of gene regulation in eukaryotes is the cytoplasmic control of messenger RNA (mRNA) degradation and translation. A number of cytoplasmic granules containing messenger ribonucleoproteins (mRNPs) have been identified in the past few years, including stress granules (SGs; Anderson and Kedersha, 2009), neuronal granules (Kiebler and Bassell, 2006), germ cell specific granules (Seydoux and Braun, 2006), and processing bodies (PBs; reviewed in Eulalio et al., 2007; Franks and Lykke-Andersen, 2008; Balagopal and Parker, 2009; Moser and Fritzler, 2009; Kulkarni et al., 2010). PBs, also known as GW bodies, are involved in the deadenylating-decapping-5′-3′ decay pathway as well as in microRNA-mediated silencing, non-sense-mediated mRNA decay, and AU-rich mRNA decay (AMD) (review in Eulalio et al., 2007; Garneau et al., 2007; Franks and Lykke-Andersen, 2008; Kulkarni et al., 2010). It is still questionable whether mRNA decay happens within PBs. However, the fact that they concentrate decapping enzymes (DCP1a-b and DCP2), activators of decapping (LSM1–7, RCK/p54, EDC1–3), and the 5′ to 3′ exonuclease XRN1 but neither ribosomal proteins nor most of the translation factors strongly suggests that PBs are active sites of mRNA degradation (Cougnot et al., 2004; Sheth and Parker, 2006). PBs, however, have also been shown to be storage sites for translationally arrested mRNAs that can return to translation (Brengues et al., 2005; Teixeira et al., 2005; Bhattacharyya et al., 2006; Sheth and Parker, 2006).

Mammalian cells also contain cytoplasmic foci that appear in response to environmental stresses and are thus called SGs (reviewed in Anderson and Kedersha, 2008). SGs accommodate mRNAs, proteins of the small ribosomal subunit, several translation...
initiation factors (Kedersha et al., 2002, 2005), poly (A)′ binding protein (PABP; Kedersha et al., 1999), and repressors of translation, such as TIA/TIAR (Pieczyk et al., 2000) and CPEB1 (Wilczynska et al., 2005), as well as other components, including the AU-binding protein (AU-BP) HuR (Gallouzi et al., 2000). As SGs do not include components of the mRNA degradation machinery, these granules are believed to be sites of mRNA storage (reviewed in Anderson and Kedersha, 2009). Although SGs and PBs are clearly distinct structures, they share proteins, in particular TTP and BRF1, two AU-BPs involved in AMD (Fenger-Gron et al., 2005; Franks and Lykke-Andersen, 2007), and the same reporter mRNA (Kedersha et al., 2005), leading to the proposal that PBs and SGs might exchange mRNPs (Balagopal and Parker, 2009). The recent observation that PBs and SGs move within the cytoplasm in a microtubule-dependent manner gives support to this hypothesis (Aizer and Shav-Tal, 2008; Chernov et al., 2009; Naddezhdina et al., 2010) and strongly suggests that cycling of mRNPs among polyosomes, PBs, and SGs requires an intact microtubule network.

Studying nucleophosmin-anaplastic lymphoma kinase (NPM-ALK)-transformed cells, we and others have recently detected cytoplasmic foci that concentrate this oncogenic tyrosine kinase (Fawal et al., 2006; Honorat et al., 2006). NPM-ALK is a chimeric protein resulting from the t(2;5)(p23;q35) chromosomal translocation bringing the NPM gene at 5q35 in juxtaposition with the ALK gene at 2p23, which encodes a receptor tyrosine kinase expressed almost exclusively in the CNS during embryogenesis (Morris et al., 1997). Even though NPM-ALK is the most frequent chromosomal translocation observed in anaplastic large cell lymphomas (ALCLs; Morris et al., 1997; Pulford et al., 1997; Benharroch et al., 1998), other less common N-terminal–fused partners of ALK, such as ATIC (5-aminomimidazole-4-carboxamide ribonucleotide formyltransferase/IMP cyclohydrolase) or TPM3 (tropomyosin 3), have been described (Lament et al., 1999; Touriol et al., 2000; Trinei et al., 2000). In those cases, the N-terminal partners of ALK share an oligomerization domain triggering the constitutive autophosphorylation of ALK and activation of its oncogenic properties (Pulford et al., 2004a). In turn, various signaling pathways are activated (Bai et al., 2000; Zamo et al., 2002), leading to unregulated growth of X-ALK–expressing cells (Duyster et al., 2001; Pulford et al., 2004b).

Searching for NPM-ALK interacting partners, we found that AUFI/hnRNPd, a protein implicated in AMD (Zhang et al., 1993; Bevilacqua et al., 2003), was immunoprecipitated with NPM-ALK, both in ALCL–derived cell lines and in NIH3T3 cells stably expressing NPM-ALK that recapitulate most of the tumorigenic properties of ALCLs (Armstrong et al., 2004). In addition to their localization in the nucleus, both NPM-ALK and AUFI were found to concentrate within discrete cytoplasmic foci in NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 and ALCL–derived cells (Fawal et al., 2006; Honorat et al., 2006). We also found that several AUFI-target mRNAs encoding key regulators of cell proliferation are stabilized in these cells, giving those cells a survival advantage that could contribute to their oncogenic properties (Fawal et al., 2006). We thus hypothesized that NPM-ALK cytoplasmic bodies, hereafter called AGs (for ALK granules), could act to control cytoplasmic mRNA fate. In this work, we have further characterized AGs. We show that they concentrate the active, phosphorylated form of NPM-ALK. They do contain mRNAs but do not include components of mRNA translation or degradation machineries. Using live cell imaging, we have visualized the dynamics of AGs in the cytoplasm and found it similar to that of PBs. Indeed, most AGs are mobile and require an intact microtubule network for their movement. Altogether, our results highlight an unexpected function of cytoplasmic NPM-ALK in assembling large mRNP structures. We propose that through their ability to scan the cytoplasm and capture mRNAs, AGs may be potent actors of cell transformation.

RESULTS

X-ALK fusion proteins are concentrated in cytoplasmic foci in their active phosphorylated form

In cells derived from ALCLs, NPM-ALK is expressed in the nucleus, including nucleolus (Pulford et al., 1997) and in small cytoplasmic foci (AGs) (Fawal et al., 2006; Honorat et al., 2006). AGs are also detected in NPM-ALK expressing NIH3T3 cells (Fawal et al., 2006, and Figure 1A, left) that are used as a convenient model to study NPM-ALK oncogenic properties (Armstrong et al., 2004). In those cells, NPM-ALK expression is weaker than in ALCL–derived cell lines (Figure 1B), showing that AG nucleation does not result from aberrant NPM-ALK overexpression. Most NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells and the two ALCL–derived cell lines, Cost and Karpas, contain AGs with an average of 8 cytoplasmic foci per cell (see Figure 1A, Supplementary Figures S1A for quantification and S4B for Karpas AGs). Such cytoplasmic foci were not observed in NIH3T3 cells transiently transfected with vector encoding NPM-enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) (Grummitt et al., 2008) or the full-length ALK receptor (Figure S1B), showing that NPM-ALK fusion is required for AG nucleation. We previously established that a kinase dead mutant of NPM-ALK protein could not nucleate AGs (Fawal et al., 2006). Consistent with this result, we observed that AGs disappear when NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells are treated with an ALK specific inhibitor (see Materials and Methods) that does not modify the level of NPM-ALK but inhibits its kinase activity (Figures 1C and S1B).

To test whether other ALK fusions nucleate AGs, we stained previously described TPM3- and ATIC-ALK NIH3T3 cells (Armstrong et al., 2004) with anti-ALK and anti-phospho-ALK antibodies. Confocal microscopy analysis showed that both cell types concentrate the ALK fusion proteins in cytoplasmic foci in their phosphorylated (i.e., active kinase form; Figure 1A and data not shown for ATIC-ALK). Altogether, these results indicate that ALK is present in its phosphorylated form in AGs and that AG formation relies on the active tyrosine kinase domain of ALK fusions.

AGs contain polyadenylated mRNAs

It is well established that cytoplasmic foci such as PBs and SGs accumulate mRNAs together with mRNA-binding proteins. As AGs contain the RNA-binding protein AUFI (Fawal et al., 2006), we further asked whether AGs also contained mRNAs. First, to test this hypothesis, we used ethidium bromide (EtBr) to fluorescently label endogenous RNAs in NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells, as previously described (Tang et al., 2001). When cells were simultaneously stained with anti-ALK antibodies, we observed that ∼50% of ALK-containing cytoplasmic foci also concentrate EtBr (Figure 2A). Second, PABP was detected in AGs of NPM-ALK 3T3 cells stained both with anti-PABP and anti-phospho-ALK antibodies (Figure 2B). Those results were indicative of the presence of mRNAs in AGs. To directly test this hypothesis, we transiently expressed both a lacZ reporter mRNA containing MS2-binding sites in its 3′ untranslated region (lacZ-3′MS2) and a yellow fluorescent protein (YFP)-MS2 fusion protein. When expressed alone, the YFP-MS2 protein was found exclusively in the nucleus, due to its nuclear localization signal (Rook et al., 2000). In contrast, coexpressing lacZ-3′MS2 mRNA and YFP-MS2 allowed YFP-MS2 tethering to lacZ-3′MS2 mRNA and its subsequent export from the nucleus to the cytoplasm where it concentrates in the two ALCL–derived cell lines, Cost and Karpas, containing AGs with an average of 8 cytoplasmic foci per cell (see Figure 1A, Supplementary Figures S1A for quantification and S4B for Karpas AGs). Such cytoplasmic foci were not observed in NIH3T3 cells transiently transfected with vector encoding NPM-enhanced green fluorescent protein (eGFP) (Grummitt et al., 2008) or the full-length ALK receptor (Figure S1B), showing that NPM-ALK fusion is required for AG nucleation. We previously established that a kinase dead mutant of NPM-ALK protein could not nucleate AGs (Fawal et al., 2006). Consistent with this result, we observed that AGs disappear when NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells are treated with an ALK specific inhibitor (see Materials and Methods) that does not modify the level of NPM-ALK but inhibits its kinase activity (Figures 1C and S1B).
AG formation and movements

To further characterize AG formation, we transiently expressed NPM-ALK as a GFP (NPM-ALK-GFP) or Halo (NPM-ALK-Halo) fusion protein in NIH3T3 cells. Those fusion proteins conserve their phosphorylation status as shown by Western blot analysis (Figure S2A) and nucleate cytoplasmic foci the number, shape, and size of which were identical to those observed in NPM-ALK stably transformed NIH3T3 cells (compare Figure S2B to Figures 1A and 6A later in the paper). We then visualized AG formation and movements in the cytoplasm conducting both short (2 min) and long term (24 h) time-lapse analysis to track AG movements, as previously described for PBs (Aizer and Shav-Tal, 2008). Using GFP-NPM-ALK transiently transfected cells, we observed that AGs rapidly grow to reach their standard size (0.3- to 0.5-μm diameter within 10 min) (Figure S2C). Single particle tracking from short-range movies (2 min, Supplemental Movie 1) allowed us to classify AGs into three categories according to their roamed distances: <5 μm, 5–10 μm or >10 μm (Figures 3, A, C, and D). The latter could be tracked for distances up to 18 μm (Figures 3 and S3). To compare AG and PB movements in the same cellular context, we transfected NIH3T3 cells with a GFP-DCP1a construct and observed similar tracking profiles for AGs and PBs, although AGs move globally slightly faster than PBs (Figures 3 and S3). Owing to this similarity, we tested whether AGs could associate to the microtubule cytoskeleton, as recently described for PBs (Aizer and Shav-Tal, 2008). Using double staining with anti–α-tubulin and anti-ALK antibodies, we observed AGs dissociating individual microtubule bundles in NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells (Figure 4A), suggesting that AG movements rely on their association with microtubules. This hypothesis was tested by treating cells with nocodazole, which binds to tubulin monomers and leads to microtubule destabilization. NIH3T3 cells were transiently transfected with NPM-ALK-GFP, and AG movements were observed before and after microtubule disruption. Short-range time-lapse analysis indicates that nocodazole significantly reduces AG mobility (compare Figure 4B to Figures 3C and 4C for statistical analysis). Comparison with PBs observed in GFP-DCP1a–expressing NIH3T3 cells shows that nocodazole treatment inhibits both AG and PB movements (Figure 4D). Altogether, our results indicate that, like PBs, AGs use the microtubule network to roam the cytoplasm. In addition, we observed that some AGs were in close contact with PBs, both in NPM-ALK–transfected NIH3T3 cells (Figures 2C and S3A) and ALCL-derived Cost-1 and Karpas cell lines (Figure S3B and unpublished data). To further analyze their interaction, we used NIH3T3 cells simultaneously transfected with...
FIGURE 2: AGs contain mRNAs. (A) Stably NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 cells were labeled with EtBr, stained with anti-ALK antibody, and analyzed by confocal microscopy to visualize AGs. (B) NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 cells were doubly stained with anti-phospho-ALK (red) and anti-PABP (green) antibodies and analyzed by confocal microscopy. The yellow spots (merge) indicate that AGs contain PABP. (C) Cells transiently expressing MS2-lacZ mRNA and YFP-nls-MS2 fusion protein were analyzed by confocal microscopy to visualize PBs labeled with anti-hDCP1 (red in the enlarged square) and AGs labeled with anti-ALK antibodies (blue). In a small percentage of cells (2–5%), both granules contain the tethered reporter mRNAs (in the merge view, green (YFP) + red (hDCP1) = yellow; green (YFP) + blue (ALK) = cyan). Arrows show juxtaposed PBs and AGs. The scale bar in A–C represents 5 μm. (D) Intensity of YFP-MS2 signals was quantified in >50 AGs (cyan) and 50 PBs (yellow). Error bars represent standard deviation. ***p < 0.001. (E) In situ hybridization was performed to test the presence of polyadenylated mRNAs within AGs. Oligo(dT) probe (red) concentrates within AGs that are detected by immunofluorescence using anti-phospho-ALK antibodies (green). The merge picture shows that most AGs concentrate polyadenylated mRNAs (yellow).
NPM-ALK-Halo and GFP-DCP1 constructs and observed that AGs and PBs are tethered together for up to 30 min (Figure 5, Figure S4C, and Supplemental Movie 2). These results show that AGs and PBs can establish stable contact that might rely on their association with the microtubule network.

**AGs recruit PB components upon altered mRNA metabolism**

Although AGs and PBs are distinct entities, they both concentrate mRNAs and RNA binding proteins. We thus asked whether, like PBs, AG composition could be modified upon treatment affecting mRNA metabolism. First, we used cycloheximide (CHX) and actinomycin D (ActD), two drugs that reduce the pool of cytoplasmic mRNPs, leading to PB disaggregation (Cougot et al., 2004 and Figure 6, G and H). None of these treatments induce change in AG number or size in comparison to untreated cells (see Figures 6A and 7 for quantification). Moreover, CHX treatment does not prevent polyA mRNA accumulation in AGs, as revealed by colocalization of oligo(dT) and NPM-ALK within AGs (Figure 6I). Remarkably, simultaneous detection of NPM-ALK and PB markers (DCP1, EDC3, LSM1, XRN1) revealed that 30% and 70% of AGs contain PB components, except XRN1, after treatment with CHX or ActD, respectively (Figures 6 and 7). In addition, whatever the treatment, most foci (94%) containing DCP1 also contain NPM-ALK (Figure 7D, DCP1/ALK overlap). We also followed association of AGs and PBs by time-lapse using cells expressing NPM-ALK-GFP and RFP-RCK/p54, another component of PBs (reviewed in Kulkarni et al., 2010) that does not produce artefacts when overexpressed (Mollet et al., 2008). When those cells were treated with CHX, PBs and AGs gradually increased their contact and ultimately fused (Supplemental Movie 3). Relocalization of PB markers into AGs does not require complete PB disassembly because it is also observed after treatment with puromycin, a drug that does not dramatically prevent PB assembly (Figure 7). All together, these results show that treatments decreasing the pool of mRNAs do not affect nucleation of AGs but lead to the capture of PB components within AGs with the noticeable exception of XRN1.

**AGs are distinct from SGs**

AGs share some components with SGs, in particular mRNAs, PABP, and several AU-BPs (Buchan and Parker, 2009), such as HuR (M. Fawal, unpublished data). Thus, we wondered whether AGs could correspond to SG-like foci formed in NPM-ALK-transformed cells. We first tested whether known components of SGs, such as markers of the 40S subunit (ribosomal protein S6), translation initiation factors eIF2 and eIF3, and TIA/TIAR (Kedersha et al., 2002, 2005) were present in AGs. Confocal analysis revealed that none of them are present in AGs in normal cell culture conditions (Figure 8, A and B, left panels, and unpublished data). Then, we asked whether stresses known to induce SGs could force accumulation of SG components within AGs. Neither heat shock (HS) nor arsenite treatment led to accumulation of TIA1 or translation initiation factors eIF2α or eIF3 in AGs, whereas those factors did concentrate within SGs (Figure 8, A and B), showing that AGs are distinct from SGs. This result was confirmed by overexpressing G3BP that leads to SG formation (Tourriere et al., 2003). Immunostaining using anti-G3BP, anti-DCP1a, and anti-ALK antibodies to mark SGs, PBs, and AGs, respectively, revealed that all three types of granules were distinct entities (Figure 8C). All together, these results show that AGs do not accumulate known components of SGs in NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells either in normal cell culture conditions or after various stresses and are thus different from SGs in essence.

**DISCUSSION**

In this study, we have further characterized AGs, which are cytoplasmic bodies different from PBs and SGs. AGs were observed in ALCls (Fawal et al., 2006; Honorat et al., 2006; this study) as well as...
in the murine NIH3T3 cell line model expressing the NPM-ALK translocation (Fawal et al., 2006) or other X-ALK fusion proteins (this study). We show that AG nucleation is independent of the N-terminal partner of the fusion protein as AGs are found in NPM-, ATIC-, or TPM3-ALK–expressing cells. The N-terminal part, however, promotes dimerization and allows ALK fusion kinases to transphosphorylate themselves (Chiarle et al., 2008) and is thus indirectly required for AG formation. By contrast, cells expressing full-length ALK protein do not harbor AGs, possibly because the receptor, during its trafficking, is addressed to different subcellular compartments and/or forms holo- or heterocomplexes with a different subset of adaptor proteins.

As revealed by time-lapse analysis, AGs are rapidly formed and move in the cytoplasm. They decorate the microtubule network, and their movement is reduced upon microtubule depolymerization, indicating that their mobility relies on an intact microtubule network. Whether AG/microtubule association is direct, however, remains to be investigated. We compared AG to PB mobility in the same cellular context and found that their track patterns are similar, although the proportion of fast moving AGs is higher than that of mobile PBs. The distances roamed by PBs during the same given time (2 min) are in the same range as those reported by Aizer and Shav-Tal (2008) (2–10 μm), indicating that PB movements are comparable in the murine fibroblastic NIH3T3 cells and the human osteosarcoma U20S line (Aizer et al., 2008). The velocity values are different, however, in the two studies; this discrepancy is most probably caused by different methods of measurements (see Materials and Methods).

A model has recently been proposed integrating polysomes, SGs, and PBs into an mRNP cycle that relies on the microtubule network (Buchan and Parker, 2009). The association of AGs with microtubules, as well as the presence in these foci of mRNA (this study) and two RNA-binding proteins, AUF1 (Fawal et al., 2006) and HuR (unpublished data), suggest that AGs could also participate in the mRNP cycle. In normal cell culture conditions, AGs contain PABP and polyadenylated mRNAs, but not PB components. This indicates that by contrast to PBs, mRNAs concentrated in AGs are not engaged in a degradation process but are still competent for translation. AGs, however, do not concentrate components of the translation machinery or ribosomal subunits, indicating that the mRNAs stored or trafficking in AGs are most probably not stalled in the process of translation initiation, like those accumulating within SGs (reviewed in Buchan and Parker, 2009). Thus AGs may trap translatable mRNAs away from the decay machineries. As we frequently observed close contacts between AGs and PBs, these mRNAs could be captured from nearby PBs. The fact that AGs, but not PBs, concentrate polyadenylated mRNAs is not in agreement with this hypothesis but rather suggests that mRNAs contained in AGs are captured from the cytosol. In addition, PB components are not normally concentrated within AGs, although cells contain a diffuse cytoplasmic pool of those components (Mollet et al., 2008 and reviewed in Aizer and Shav-Tal, 2008). Nevertheless, after treatments that alter mRNA metabolism, some PB components (LSM1, EDC3, RCK/p54, or DCP1a) are recruited in AGs. They might be captured from adjacent dissociating PBs, as suggested from video-microscopic observations. XRN1 does not, however, relocate to AGs during those

FIGURE 4: AGs reside on microtubules. (A) NPM-ALK NIH3T3 cells were doubly stained with anti–tubulin (green) and anti–ALK (red) antibodies and observed by confocal microscopy. a,b,c: successive enlargements. The scale bar represents 5 μm. (B) NIH3T3 cells transiently transfected with a NPM-ALK-GFP construct were treated with nocodazole for 30 min. Fresh medium was added, and AG movements were subsequently observed by video microscopy, as described in Figure 3, B and C, and their tracks were drawn. (C) Comparative analysis of the distances (in μm) crossed by AGs before and after nocodazole treatment. Error bars (standard deviations) and Student’s t test values are indicated on each graph. (D) Comparative analysis of the surfaces (in square micrometers) roamed by PBs and AGs before and after nocodazole treatment. n indicates the number of AGs or PBs counted in each experiment. Student’s t test values are indicated on each graph.

FIGURE 5: Close contacts between AGs and PBs. Live imaging of PB and AG communication. NIH3T3 cells were transiently cotransfected with NPM-ALK-Halo (red) and GFP-DCP1 (green) encoding plasmids. Two days later, cells were observed by wide-field microscopy, and time-lapse analysis was performed for two consecutive hours. Images taken every 6 min from 0 (a) to 96 min (p) on a region of contact are shown.
All together our data demonstrate that AGs are different from PBs and SGs and thus most probably do not act like PBs or SGs whose functions, despite an abundant literature, are still under debate (Franks and Lykke-Andersen, 2008; Mollet et al., 2008; Balagopal and Parker, 2009; Buchan and Parker, 2009; Kulkarni et al., 2010). It is thought that PBs roam the cytoplasm to collect mRNAs destined for degradation (Aizer and Shav-Tal, 2008), whereas SGs transiently store mRNAs engaged in the initiation step of translation. AGs could function as nursery for these mRNAs, allowing their dressing with AU-BPs, such as HuR or AUF1.

To conclude, we have described in this article mRNP cytoplasmic granules that are encountered in X-ALK–transformed cells in which simultaneous activation of various ALK-mediated signaling pathways dramatically enhances transcription (reviewed in Pulford et al., 2004b). Permanent transcriptional activation might lead to mRNA influx that exceeds the translational capacity of these transformed cells. We would like to speculate that AGs constitute a reservoir system for translatable mRNAs that would have been degraded otherwise. Continuous availability for translation of some specific mRNAs with altered turnover could be the basis of the oncogenic properties of X-ALK–expressing cells. Whether and how mRNAs are sorted before storage in AGs are important questions for future studies.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell culture

X-ALK stably transfected NIH3T3 cells and ALCLs-derived cell lines have been described (Armstrong et al., 2004; Falini et al., 1999). ActD (2 μg/ml final concentration), CHX (5 μg/ml), puromycin (20 μg/ml), and nocodazole (40 μM) (all obtained from Sigma, St. Louis, MO) were added to cell culture medium for the indicated times. The ALK inhibitor (Racemic PF-2341066 [3-1-(2,6-dichloro-3-fluoro-phenyl)-ethoxy]-5-(1-piperidin-4-yl-1H-pyrazol-4-yl)-pyridin-2-ylamine) that resulted in the abolition of treatments, showing that, if it really takes place, relocalization of components from PBs to AGs is a selective process.

FIGURE 6: AGs and PBs share components when mRNA metabolism is altered.

(A–F) NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 cells were either untreated (A and E) or treated with CHX for 2 h (B–D, F). CHX treatment led to expression of LSM1 (B), DCP1 (C), EDC3 (D), but not XRN1 (F), within AGs. Representative images of cells containing more than three AGs and in which the size of PBs is >0.4 μm are shown. Such cells represent ~5% of a given field. Scale bar: 5 μm. G–I. NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 cells were either untreated (G) or treated with CHX for 2 h (H and I). The presence of polyadenylated mRNAs within PBs or AGs was analyzed through in situ hybridization using oligo(dT) probe (red) and concomitant immunofluorescence study using anti-DCP1 (G and H) or anti-ALK antibodies (I) (green), respectively. Scale bar: 10 μm.
ties, Beverly, MA), rabbit anti-hDCP1a (gift from B. Séraphin, Carpinteria, CA), rabbit anti-phospho-ALK (Cell Signalling Technology). Plasmids and transfection were as follows: monoclonal anti-ALK1 (DakoCytomation, Carpinteria, CA). Double transfections were done with a 1:1 ratio, except for YFP-MS2/LacZ-MS2–24, which was performed with a ratio of diffusion coefficients (Aizer et al., 2008). The distance of mRNAs within AGs NPM-ALK (AGs) or both proteins (AG-PBs) were measured on a minimum of 100 granules from at least 15 different cells per movie using MetaMorph software utility, Track objects. Tracks were recorded. ImageJ was used to calculate the area corresponding to the best fit ellipse covered by a given track. To calculate velocity, we divided the distance traveled during the time of observation (2 min plus the time for collecting data between sections). In the study by Aizer and collaborators, instantaneous velocities were reported on the basis of total distance and mean square displacements that allow the calculation of diffusion coefficients (Aizer et al., 2008).

Detection of polyadenylated mRNAs within AGs NPM-ALK 3T3 cells were seeded on glass coverslips were incubated 15 min in paraformaldehyde 4% and 5 min in 0.1% Triton X-100, rinsed in phosphate-buffered saline, and incubated 30 min in 2x SSC/50% formamide. Polyadenylated mRNAs contained in AGs were detected by in situ hybridization using a digoxigenin-labeled DNA oligo(dt) probe. Hybridization of 50 ng of oligo(dt) probe was performed in 50 μl of hybridization solution (2x SSC/50% formamide/10% dextran sulfate/0.5 mg/ml yeast tRNA/Rnase inhibitor; Promega) at 37°C overnight. Cells were then washed twice for 30 min in 2x SSC/50% formamide at 37°C and 20 min in 1x SSC. Oligo(dt) signal was detected using anti-digoxigenin sheep antibodies that were recognized by donkey anti-sheep antibodies (Alexa 654; Molecular Probes). AGs were detected using either anti-ALK or anti–phospho-ALK antibodies that were incubated together with the anti-digoxigenin antibodies. Cells were analyzed under a wide field microscope, and images were treated using Adobe Photoshop.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS We thank J. Smith for critical reading of the manuscript. We are grateful to B. Ronsin and A. Le Ru for their help with confocal and live image analysis (Imagery plateform of Toulouse). We thank the Delsol laboratory for X-ALK–transfected cells and ALCL-derived cell lines, and we express gratitude to Prof. G. Delsol for his unfailing support. This work was supported by ARC (Association pour la Recherche contre le Cancer) contracts 3823 (DM) and 4891 (OJ-J), ARECA network Pôle protéomique et Cancer, Conseil Régional “Cibles thérapeutiques et recherche de nouveaux marqueurs diagnostiques et pronostics dans les cancers,” and La Ligue Contre le Cancer. M. Fawal was supported by an ARC fellowship.
FIGURE 8: AGs and SGs are two independent structures. (A and B). NPM-ALK–expressing NIH3T3 cells were untreated (control), heat shocked (HS) (44°C for 30 min), or treated with arsenite (ARS) for 2 h to induce SGs. Confocal analysis was undertaken to visualize TIA, eIF2α, or eIF3 in AGs or SGs using concomitantly anti–phospho-ALK antibody to label AGs. In the absence of stress, we observed punctuate cytoplasmic labeling of eIF2α or eIF3 in control NPM-ALK cells, but no specific labeling of AGs by these proteins. HS and ARS treatment induced the formation of SGs, revealed by TIA concentration in SGs in control and NPM-ALK–expressing cells but not in AGs visualized by accumulation of phospho-ALK protein. (C) SGs were induced by transient GFP-G3BP overexpression in NPM-ALK–expressing cells. SGs, PBs, and AGs were simultaneously observed by confocal analysis using GFP fluorescence, anti-DCP1 antibodies, and anti–ALK antibodies, respectively.
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