Targeting ornithine decarboxylase in Myc-induced lymphomagenesis prevents tumor formation

Jonas A. Nilsson,^{1,5} Ulrich B. Keller,¹ Troy A. Baudino,^{1,2} Chunying Yang,¹ Sara Norton,¹ Jennifer A. Old,¹ Lisa M. Nilsson,^{1,5} Geoffrey Neale,³ Debora L. Kramer,⁴ Carl W. Porter,⁴ and John L. Cleveland^{1,*}

¹Department of Biochemistry, St. Jude Children's Research Hospital, Memphis, Tennessee 38105

²Department of Cell and Developmental Biology, University of South Carolina, Columbia, South Carolina 29208

³Hartwell Center, St. Jude Children's Research Hospital, Memphis, Tennessee 38105

⁴Department of Pharmacology and Therapeutics, Roswell Park Cancer Institute, Buffalo, New York 14263

⁵ Department of Molecular Biology, Umeå University, SE-901 87 Umeå, Sweden

*Correspondence: john.cleveland@stjude.org

Summary

Checkpoints that control Myc-mediated proliferation and apoptosis are bypassed during tumorigenesis. Genes encoding polyamine biosynthetic enzymes are overexpressed in B cells from E_{μ} -*Myc* transgenic mice. Here, we report that disabling one of these Myc targets, *Ornithine decarboxylase* (*Odc*), abolishes Myc-induced suppression of the Cdk inhibitors p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}, thereby impairing Myc's proliferative, but not apoptotic, response. Moreover, lymphoma development was markedly delayed in E_{μ} -*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} transgenic mice and in E_{μ} -*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} transgenics of *Arf*, suggesting that targeting Odc forces other routes of transformation. Therefore, *Odc* is a critical Myc transcription target that regulates checkpoints that guard against tumorigenesis and is an effective target for cancer chemoprevention.

Introduction

The Myc family of oncogenes (c-myc, N-myc, and L-myc) is activated in \sim 70% of human cancer by direct means such as translocations or amplifications or indirectly in response to alterations in upstream signaling pathways or tumor suppressors. To determine their roles in human cancer, transgenic mice have been engineered to express Myc genes in a variety of tissues, including the skin (Pelengaris et al., 1999), pancreas (Pelengaris et al., 2002), and prostate (Ellwood-Yen et al., 2003), and in all of these scenarios, enforced Myc expression provokes lethal malignancies. The Eµ-Myc transgenic mouse was one of the first mouse models of cancer (Adams et al., 1985), and overexpression of c-myc in the B cells of these mice by the immunoglobulin heavy chain enhancer ($E\mu$) mimics the overexpression of MYC in human Burkitt's lymphoma (BL) that harbors MYC: Ig translocations (Dalla-Favera et al., 1982). Importantly, the genetic alterations that accompany the development of B cell lymphomas in E_{μ} -Myc transgenics mimic those that occur in human BL (Eischen et al., 1999; Lindstrom et al., 2001; Wilda et al., 2004), underscoring the use of this transgenic as an important in vivo tool for understanding the molecular pathogenesis of Myc-driven cancers and as a platform to test agents that prevent or treat established disease.

Overexpression of Myc at levels found in cancer is sufficient to drive normal quiescent cells into cycle and to accelerate their rates of cell cycle traverse (Bouchard et al., 1998). These responses are, at least in part, dependent upon Myc's ability to downregulate the expression of the cyclin-dependent kinase (Cdk) inhibitors p27Kip1 and p21Cip1 (Baudino et al., 2003; Herold et al., 2002; Vlach et al., 1996). However, cells respond to this hyperproliferative response by activating apoptosis (Askew et al., 1991; Evan et al., 1992), through the agency of the Arfp53 tumor suppressor pathway (Eischen et al., 1999; Zindy et al., 1998), by suppressing the expression of the antiapoptotic proteins Bcl-2 and/or Bcl-X_L (Eischen et al., 2001a) and/or by various other pathways (Nilsson and Cleveland, 2003). Notably, bypass of these cell cycle checkpoints and apoptotic pathways is a hallmark of Myc-driven cancers, and their disruption in transgenic and knockout mouse models markedly accelerates Myc-induced tumorigenesis (Baudino et al., 2003; Egle et al., 2004; Eischen et al., 1999; Eischen et al., 2001b; Martins

SIG NIFIC A N C E

The ability of oncogenes to provoke cancer is harnessed by regulators that control cell proliferation or induce apoptosis, and bypass of these checkpoints is a hallmark of malignancies. Myc oncoproteins are overexpressed in \sim 70% of all cancers and induce numerous transcription targets that regulate cell growth, metabolism, and the ribosome machinery. In this report, we show that one select Myc target, *Ornithine decarboxylase* (*Odc*), the rate-limiting enzyme of polyamine biosynthesis, is a critical downstream regulator of Myc's ability to provoke accelerated growth and cancer. *Odc* heterozygosity or inhibition of Odc enzyme activity is shown to affect checkpoints bypassed during Myc-induced tumorigenesis, establishing a mechanism by which chemoprevention strategies targeting Odc can prevent the development of cancer.

and Berns, 2002; Pelengaris et al., 2002; Schmitt et al., 1999; Schmitt et al., 2002; Strasser et al., 1990).

Myc proteins are basic helix-loop-helix leucine-zipper (bHLH-Zip) transcription factors whose function relies on their dimerization with a small bHLH-Zip transcription factor coined Max to bind DNA. Myc-Max complexes transactivate genes carrying their recognition sequence CAYGTG, yet when in a ternary complex with other transcriptional factors such as Miz-1, Myc can repress some target genes (Eisenman, 2001), in particular the Cdk inhibitors p21^{Cip1} and p15^{Ink4b} (Herold et al., 2002; Staller et al., 2001). Which specific targets contribute to Myc's diverse biological effects is a real challenge, as recent genomewide scanning approaches have shown as many as one-tenth of all genes carry CAYGTG (E box) sequences and thus may be bound by Myc-Max complexes (Patel et al., 2004).

Odc was one of the first identified transactivation targets of Myc (Bello-Fernandez et al., 1993; Wagner et al., 1993), and it encodes the rate-limiting enzyme in polyamine biosynthesis (Cohen, 1997). Polyamines are positively charged small molecules present in all living organisms that bind to and stabilize negatively charged cellular macromolecules, including nucleic acids, phospholipids, and proteins. However, polyamines also perform essential specific functions, for example in the joining of Okazaki fragments during DNA replication, as modifiers of ion transport channels and as regulators of protein translation (Gerner and Meyskens, 2004). Given their broad roles, intracellular polyamine levels are kept under tight control in cells through transport, export, synthesis, and catabolism (Cohen, 1997). Odc converts L-ornithine into putrescine, which is then converted into spermidine and then spermine by dedicated synthases. Odc has been used for a number of years as a surrogate marker for Myc function and fulfills all criteria for a bona fide Myc target, as it contains conserved CAYGTG E boxes (Bello-Fernandez et al., 1993), is bound by Myc-Max in growthstimulated cells (Bello-Fernandez et al., 1993; Nilsson et al., 2004a), and can be conditionally activated by Myc independent of de novo protein synthesis (Wagner et al., 1993). However, the importance of Odc to Myc-induced apoptosis, cell proliferation, and tumorigenesis has not been evaluated in vivo.

Odc is essential for mouse development, as Odc^{-/-} blastocysts die shortly after implantation (Pendeville et al., 2001), and treatment of pregnant mice with α -DFMO, an irreversible inhibitor of ODC, leads to resorption of the embryos by embryonic day 5-8 (Fozard et al., 1980). Nonetheless, Odc+/- mice are overtly normal (Pendeville et al., 2001), and chronic treatment of adult wild-type (wt) mice with DFMO is well tolerated (Lan et al., 2000). Thus, by using $Odc^{+/-}$ mice and DFMO as tools, we evaluated the role of Odc in Myc-driven tumorigenesis in the Eµ-Myc transgenic mouse model. Here, we report that activation of Odc is a hallmark of B cell lymphomas arising in these mice and in human BL. Importantly, impairing Odc disables Myc's ability to downregulate Cdk inhibitors, alters the route of Myc-induced transformation, and markedly delays Mycinduced lymphomagenesis. Collectively, these findings support the notion of targeting Odc in cancer chemoprevention.

Results

Myc induces the polyamine biosynthetic pathway in vivo Biased and unbiased analyses of cell lines engineered to overexpress c-Myc have indicated that Odc (Bello-Fernandez et al.,

1993) and the genes encoding S-adenosylmethionine decarboxylase (Amd1) and Spermidine synthase (Srm) (Myc target gene database, http://www.myccancergene.org) are Myc target genes. To test the scope of the response of polyamine metabolic enzymes to Myc in vivo, we submitted total RNA of B220⁺ splenic B cells from 6-week-old precancerous E_µ-Myc transgenic mice and their wt littermates to gene-chip analysis (using Affymetrix 430A gene arrays) and clustered all of the genes of the pathway (Supplemental Figure S1 available in the Supplemental Data with this article online) that were present on the chip (Figure 1A). These findings were then confirmed by real-time PCR with total RNA from both spleen and bone marrow-derived B cells (Figure 1B). Notably, the expression of odc, amd1, srm, and spermine synthase (sms) were all elevated in B cells of Eµ-Myc transgenic mice, whereas mRNAs encoding enzymes in the catabolic arm of the pathway, spermine/spermidine N-acetyltransferase (sat1) and spermine oxidase (smox) were generally repressed in E_{μ} -Myc B cells (Figures 1A and 1B). The sole exception was the induction of polyamine oxidase (paox, Figure 1B), yet in the presence of reduced levels of sat1, which generates substrates for paox (Figure S1), this is a futile response. Therefore, Myc coordinately regulates enzymes of the polyamine metabolic pathway in a manner that should elevate polyamine levels in B cells. Indeed, direct measurements of polyamine levels demonstrated that elevated levels of putrescine, spermidine, and spermine were hallmarks of E_{μ} -Myc transgenic B cells (see below, Figure 3).

Odc overexpression is a hallmark of Myc-induced lymphoma

Overexpression of Odc is sufficient to transform immortal fibroblast cells (Auvinen et al., 1992) and to provoke benign papillomas in the skin of Odc transgenic mice (Megosh et al., 1995). Because Odc is the rate-limiting enzyme of polyamine biosynthesis, we predicted that Odc would be overexpressed in B cell lymphomas that arise in E_{μ} -Myc transgenic mice and in BL. We therefore determined the levels of Odc protein in precancerous B cells from 4- to 6-week-old Eµ-Myc mice and their wt littermates as well as in lymphomas that arise in Eµ-Myc transgenics. As expected from the RNA analyses, B220⁺ precancerous Eu-Myc B cells overexpressed Odc protein, and even higher levels of Odc were present in lymphomas (Figure 1C). Furthermore, 8/14 primary tumors from patients suffering from BL also overexpressed Odc transcripts (Figure 1D). Therefore, Odc overexpression is a trademark of Myc-driven lymphomas in mice and humans.

Disrupting Odc function impairs Myc-induced lymphomagenesis

Targeted deletion of *Odc* in mice leads to early embryonic lethality (Pendeville et al., 2001). However, *Odc*^{+/-} mice appear completely normal, despite the fact that they express half the levels of Odc protein and enzyme activity (Guo et al., 2005). We therefore addressed whether loss of one *Odc* allele would affect Myc-induced lymphoma development. *Odc*^{+/-} mice were bred onto a C57Bl/6 background (12 generations) and were then crossed to C57Bl/6 Eµ-*Myc* transgenics. Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/+} and Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} littermates were then followed for their course of disease. As expected (Eischen et al., 1999), most Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/+} mice succumbed to lethal lymphoma between 3 and 6 months of age (mean latency of 110 days, Figure 2A).



Figure 1. Odc and other genes encoding enzymes in the polyamine biosynthetic pathway are targeted by Myc in vivo

A: Affymetrix gene array showing expression of the indicated genes in B220* splenic B cells from 4- to 6-week-old wild-type (wt) and $E\mu$ -*Myc* littermates. Probe sets with an asterisk are genes that are significantly altered according to Anova analysis (p < 0.05).

B: SYBRgreen real-time PCR analysis on cDNA from bone marrow-derived (BM) B cells and from splenic IgM* B cells using primers for the indicated genes. For the role of each individual gene product in polyamine synthesis or catabolism, see Supplemental Figure S1. The expression of each gene was correlated to that of *ubiquitin* (*ub*), which is not regulated by c-Myc. Mean expression is shown, and error bars represent analyses of three individual mice of each genotype.

C: Western blot analysis for Odc and Actin protein levels in B220⁺ MACS-sorted B cells from δ -week old wt and E μ -Myc (E μ) mice and in lymphomas arising in E μ -Myc mice.

D: SYBRgreen real-time PCR analysis on cDNA from peripheral CD19⁺ B cells of a healthy donor and from tumors of Burkith's lymphoma (BL) patients using primers directed against *Odc*. The expression of *Odc* was correlated to that of *Ubiquitin*, which is not regulated by c-Myc. An asterisk indicates tumors with statistically significant changes in the expression of Odc (Student's t test, p < 0.05).

Strikingly, their Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} littermates had a markedly delayed course of disease (mean latency of 320 days), and ~25% of these animals survived beyond 14 months of age (Figure 2A). Hallmarks of imminent disease in Eµ-*Myc* transgenics are elevated peripheral B cell counts and splenomegaly. 8-week-old Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} mice had reduced numbers of peripheral B cells and smaller spleens compared to their Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/+} littermates (data not shown). The delay in lymphoma development was not due to overt effects on lymphoid cells in *Odc*^{+/-} mice, as their B cell subsets and numbers were normal (Table S1). Therefore, although halving the gene dosage of *Odc* has no overt effect on development, modest reductions in Odc activity markedly compromise Myc-mediated tumorigenesis.

The effects of *Odc* heterozygosity suggested that lymphoma development in E_{μ} -*Myc* mice would also be impaired by treat-

ing mice with DFMO, an enzyme-activated suicide inhibitor of Odc (Cohen, 1997). Originally developed in the 1970s as a potential therapeutic, DFMO irreversibly inactivates Odc in a highly specific manner. DFMO is stable in water and is therefore easily administered to mice in their drinking water (Fozard et al., 1980). Importantly, treatment of E_{μ} -Myc mice with 1% DFMO, from weaning age on, dramatically delayed lymphomagenesis (mean latency of ~350 days) compared to littermates provided with normal drinking water (mean latency of ~ 100 days, Figure 2B). DFMO had no effect on the peripheral blood counts or spleen size in wt mice, yet its effects on Eµ-Myc mice were dramatic, as 6-8 week old, DFMO-treated Eu-Myc mice had normal white blood cell counts and lacked the splenomegaly that was evident in untreated E_{μ} -Myc mice (Figure 2C and data not shown). Finally, DFMO was continuously required to prevent lymphoma development, as when animals



Figure 2. Targeting Odc impairs Myc-induced lymphomagenesis

A: Survival curve of Eµ-Myc mice of different Odc genotypes. Median survival time was 110 days for Eµ-Myc;Odc^{+/+} and 320 days for Eµ-Myc; Odc^{+/-} mice (p < 0.0001).

B: Survival curve of untreated (H₂O) or DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc mice. Mean survival time for control mice was 100 days and those on DFMO was 350 days (p < 0.0001). The red arrow indicates the time at which a group of DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc mice were taken off the drug, and the red line indicates their survival time after removal of DFMO (mean survival time 100 days).

C: Average spleen weights (n = 3) of 7-week-old wt and E_{μ} -Myc mice treated or untreated with DFMO. The treatment lasted for three weeks. Student's t test was employed for statistical analyses.

treated with the drug for 90 days were then taken off from DFMO they all succumbed to lymphomas. Furthermore, the onset of the tumors in animals taken off the drug occurred at the expected interval (3–4 months, red line Figure 2B). Collectively, these findings support a crucial role for Odc in Myc-induced lymphomagenesis.

Polyamine levels are in large part regulated by Odc activity but are also controlled by polyamine catabolism and active transport. The latter is carried out by a largely unknown mechanism, but in most cells, polyamine transport is enhanced in response to DFMO (Seiler et al., 1996). Endogenous stores of polyamines are available from standard diets, and thus it was somewhat surprising that the effects of DFMO on disease in Eµ-Myc mice were so profound. We therefore assessed whether Eµ-Myc transgenic B cells might be defective in polyamine uptake. Primary B cells were grown from precancerous Eu-Myc bone marrow cells on S17 stroma in the presence of IL-7 (Eischen et al., 1999), and after \sim 2 weeks in culture, these cells were >95% pre-B cells, as determined by FACS with B cell-specific markers. These cells, and control 32D.3 myeloid cells (Askew et al., 1991), were then tested for effects of DFMO on polyamine uptake. As expected, DFMO treatment of 32D.3 cells enhanced polyamine uptake (~2-fold). Surprisingly, DFMO treatment reduced, rather than increased, polyamine uptake in B cells from Eµ-Myc mice (Figure 3A). Therefore, the B cells of Eµ-Myc transgenic mice are unable to compensate for reductions in Odc by increasing polyamine uptake.

Because Myc augments the expression of every enzyme involved in polyamine biosynthesis (Figure 1), an expectation was that polyamine levels would be elevated in B cells from $E\mu$ -*Myc* mice. Indeed, elevated levels of putrescine, spermidine, and spermine were evident in the precancerous B cells of $E\mu$ -*Myc* transgenic mice versus those of their wt littermates (Figure 3B). Furthermore, a 2-week exposure of mice to DFMO effectively reduced levels of putrescine in bone marrow (data not shown) and splenic transgenic B cells to those present in wt littermates. DFMO treatment also resulted in significant reductions in spermidine content but to compensatory increases in spermine levels in both wt and $E\mu$ -*Myc* B cells (Figure 3B). Nonetheless, the collective effect of DFMO on putrescine and spermidine levels clearly counterbalances the biological effects of increased polyamine levels seen in response to Myc.

Odc is a critical regulator of Myc's proliferative response

In most cell lines, polyamine depletion induces G1 phase cell cycle arrest (Cohen, 1997). Myc accelerates cell cycle progression and increases proliferative rates in vivo (Baudino et al., 2003) and overrides cell cycle arrest in response to growth factor withdrawal (Askew et al., 1991). We therefore evaluated whether impairing Odc function would compromise Myc's ability to drive B cell proliferation in vivo. Four different cohorts of mice (wt untreated, wt + DFMO, Eµ-Myc untreated, and Eµ-Myc + DFMO) were injected with BrdU, and after 12 hr, B cells were isolated from bone marrow and spleen. The numbers of BrdU⁺ and Annexin V⁺ IgM⁺ and IgM⁻ negative splenic and bone marrow-derived B cells were then determined. There were much greater numbers of B cells in S phase in E_{μ} -Myc than in wt mice (Figure 4A). Although DFMO had essentially no effect on the proliferative rates of B cells from wt mice, DFMO treatment significantly reduced numbers of BrdU⁺ cells in all B cell subpopulations of E_{μ} -Myc transgenic mice, especially those of proliferating IgM⁻ splenic B cells (Figure 4A). A similar reduction in BrdU+/IgM- splenic B cells was also evident in B cells derived from Eµ-Myc;Odc+/- mice compared to their wt littermates (Figure 4B). Therefore, DFMO treatment, or loss of one allele of Odc, impairs Myc's proliferative response.

In contrast to the obvious effects of DFMO and Odc heterozygosity on Myc's proliferative response, the effects of impairing Odc on Myc-induced apoptosis were not as evident. In Eµ-Myc mice, Myc's apoptotic response is mostly manifest in IgM⁺



Figure 3. DFMO-treatment reduces polyamine uptake in Eµ-Myc B cells and restores proper levels of putrescine in Eµ-Myc transgenic B cells in vivo A: Bone marrow cells from an Eµ-Myc mouse were cultured ex vivo on S17 stromal cells in medium containing IL-7. After establishment of a pure B cell culture, 10^{6} cells were cultured in the presence (D) or absence (C) of DFMO for two days. ³H-spermidine was added, and the cells were incubated for 1 hr at 37°C or on ice (I). Uptake of spermidine was carried out in triplicates. As a control, IL-3-dependent 32D.3 myeloid cells (Askew et al., 1991) were also analyzed. Student's t test was employed for statistical analyses.

B: Effects of DFMO on polyamine levels in splenic B cells in vivo. Levels of intracellular putrescine, spermidine, and spermine were determined in 10^6 splenic B cells from untreated (C) and DFMO-treated (D) 4- to 6-week-old wt (squares) and E μ -Myc (filled arrowheads) mice. Five to six mice of each group were analyzed. Black symbols, untreated mice; red symbols, DFMO-treated mice.

B cells (Maclean et al., 2003). DFMO had no effect on the survival of wt B cells, and it did not impair Myc-induced apoptosis; rather, the higher rates of apoptosis of $E\mu$ -*Myc* IgM-positive B cells were enhanced in DFMO-treated transgenics (Figure 4B). Furthermore, analyses of the apoptotic index of $E\mu$ -*Myc*; $Odc^{+/-}$ transgenic B cells, and of wt $Odc^{+/-}$ B cells, indicated that Odc heterozygosity had no effect on B cell survival. Collectively, these findings support the concept that Odc is selectively haploinsufficient for Myc's proliferative response.

Odc is necessary for Myc-mediated suppression of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}

Myc-driven tumors are dependent on sustained Myc expression (Jain et al., 2002; Pelengaris et al., 1999). Given the profound effect of Odc heterozygosity or DFMO treatment on lymphomagenesis, we initially assessed whether compromising Odc activity would affect the expression of the Myc transgene in Eµ-Myc B cells. However, expression profiling and real-time PCR of splenic B220⁺ B cells (Figures 5A and 5B), and Western blot analyses of B220+ B cells from bone marrow (data not shown) and spleen (Figures 6A and 6B), established that Myc activity was sustained in Eu-Myc mice treated with DFMO (Figure 6A) or when crossed onto a Odc heterozygous background (Figure 6B). To analyze the expression of Myc target genes (http://www.myccancergene.org), we clustered those genes that differed significantly between splenic B cells from 7-weekold wt and E_{μ} -Myc mice (three mice per group). Their expression profiles were then compared to those of wt and Eµ-Myc littermates treated with DFMO for 3 weeks. These analyses established that the Myc transgene, rather than DFMO, was the major determinant of changes in the expression of these targets (Figure 5A). In addition, real-time PCR analyses established that the increased levels of c-myc, odc, and rcl transcripts in Eµ-Myc B cells were not appreciably affected by DFMO treatment, and loss of one allele of Odc only affected odc levels (Figure 5B). Therefore, impairing Odc function does not alter the expression of the Myc transgene nor its ability to regulate the majority of its transcription targets.

Myc's proliferative response has been associated with its ability to regulate cyclins and their kinases. Indeed, levels of cyclin D1 (ccnd1), cdk4, and cdk2 were upregulated in Eµ-Myc B cells, but they were unaffected by DFMO treatment (Figure 6D), and expression of cyclin D2, a direct target of Myc in some cell contexts (Bouchard et al., 1999), was reduced in Eµ-Myc B cells and unaffected by DFMO (data not shown). Furthermore, the expression of cyclin E1 and E2 and cyclin A were not significantly altered by Myc or by treatment with DFMO (data not shown). However, Myc also accelerates cell cycle traverse by suppressing the expression of the cdk inhibitors p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}, and indeed, levels of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} were repressed in B220⁺ precancerous splenic B cells of E_{μ} -Myc mice (Figures 6A and 6B). DFMO, or loss of one Odc allele, had only very subtle effects on the expression of these Cdk inhibitors in B cells derived from wt mice (Figures 6A and 6B). Strikingly, levels of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} protein were effectively restored back to those present in wt splenic B cells in Eµ-Myc mice treated with DFMO and in Eµ-Myc; Odc+/- mice (Figures 6A and 6B). Expression profiling indicated that the changes in at least p27Kip1 expression were manifest at the level of the protein and not its RNA, as levels of cdkn1b transcripts (encoding p27Kip1) remained low in B cells from DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc mice (Figure 6D). Furthermore, DFMO treatment of primary pre-B cells engineered to express a conditionally activatable form of Myc, Myc-ER, induced p27Kip1 protein (Supplemental Figure S2A) without affecting the levels of ckn1b transcripts, which were suppressed after Myc activation with the estrogen receptor (ER) agonist 4-hydroxytamoxifen (Supplemental Figure S2B). The level at which disabling Odc leads to changes in p21^{Cip1} expression was less evident, as expression profiling called cdkn1a (encoding p21^{Cip1}) as absent and acute treatment of Myc-ER-expressing pre-B cells with DFMO had little effect on p21^{Cip1} protein levels (Supplemental Figure S2A). Therefore, impairing Odc abolishes Myc's ability to downregulate p27Kip1 protein and, perhaps through indirect means, p21^{Cip1} protein. Alternatively, disabling Odc



Figure 4. DFMO and Odc heterozygosity impair Myc's proliferative response

A: Effects of DFMO and Odc heterozygosity on Myc-driven B cell proliferation in vivo. Bone marrows and spleens from untreated (C) and DFMO-treated (for 3 weeks) (D) wt and E_{μ} -Myc mice were harvested 12 hr after BrdU injection (at 7 weeks of age). Three mice of each group were analyzed for BrdU incorporation in B220+/ surface IgM⁻ and B220⁺/IgM⁺ cells; i.e., pro/pre B cells and more mature B cells (black bars, wt IgM⁻; dark gray, wt IgM⁺; black stippled, wt IgM⁺ DFMO-treated; gray stippled, wt IgM⁻ DFMOtreated; light gray, Eµ-Myc IgM⁻; red, Eµ-Myc IgM⁺; light gray hatched, Eµ-Myc IgM⁻ DFMOtreated: and red hatched. Eu-Mvc IaM⁺ DFMOtreated). B cell proliferation of 8-week-old wt and $Odc^{+/-}$ Eµ-Myc transgenics were analyzed in a similar fashion (gray checkered bars, $\ensuremath{\mathsf{E}}\mu\xspace$ Myc;Odc+/- IgM-; red checkered, Eµ-Myc; Odc^{+/-} IgM⁺). Student's t test was employed for statistical analyses.

B: To determine apoptotic indices, aliquots of the same bone marrow and spleen samples as in (A) were stained for B220, IgM, and Annexin V. Student's t test was employed for statistical analyses.

may induce p27^{Kip1} and p21^{Cip1} protein through a pathway independent of Myc.

The very modest effects of DFMO and Odc heterozygosity on Myc's apoptotic response in vivo suggested that compromising Odc function would not alter Myc's ability to activate the Arf-p53 pathway. As expected (Eischen et al., 1999), there was an obvious upregulation of p19^{Arf} and p53 protein in B cells derived from both bone marrow and spleen of precancerous Eµ-Myc mice compared to their wt littermates (Figure 6C and data not shown). Further, DFMO treatment (or Odc heterozygosity, data not shown) did not augment this response but slightly reduced levels of p19^{Arf} and p53 in Eµ-Myc B cells (Figure 6C). Finally, Myc-induced apoptosis has also been associated with its ability to induce the expression of the proapoptotic Bcl-2 family proteins Bax (Mitchell et al., 2000) and Bim (Egle et al., 2004). Bax expression was comparable in wt and Eu-Mvc transgenic B cells +/- DFMO, and Bim expression also did not correlate with effects of DFMO treatment (Figure 6C and data not shown). Therefore, impairing Odc functions does very little to Myc's apoptotic response.

Impairing Odc functions alters the route of Myc-induced transformation

Hallmarks of tumors that arise in $E\mu$ -*Myc* transgenics are alterations in the Arf-p53 tumor suppressor pathway, which occur through missense hot-spot mutations of *p53* that create domi-

nant negative forms of the protein, and biallelic deletion of Arf (Eischen et al., 1999). Unlike wt p53, dominant negative p53 mutants have a long half-life, and tumors bearing p53 mutations express high levels of endogenous p19Arf, due to loss of p53-mediated transcriptional repression of Arf (Robertson and Jones, 1998). Collectively, Western and Southern blot analyses indicated that the frequency of alterations in the Arf-p53 pathway was only slightly reduced in lymphomas arising in Eµ- $Myc;Odc^{+/-}$ mice versus their wt Eµ-Myc littermates (Figures 7A and 7B). However, tumors arising in E_{μ} -Myc;Odc^{+/-} mice lacked deletions of Arf (Figure 7B, bottom), whereas 4/9 lymphomas arising in their Eµ-Myc littermates showed biallelic deletions in Arf (lanes with an asterisk, Figure 7B, top). Lymphomas that ultimately arose in DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc transgenics also lacked Arf deletions (data not shown). Thus, impairing Odc specifically biases against biallelic deletions in Arf during Myc-induced transformation.

Impairing Odc activity abolished Myc's ability to downregulate the expression of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} (Figures 6A and 6B). We therefore assessed the expression of these cdk inhibitors in the lymphomas that arose in Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} versus Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/+} littermates. Very low to undetectable levels of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} protein were present in lymphomas arising in wt Eµ-*Myc* transgenics, yet the levels of these inhibitors were markedly elevated in many of the tumors arising in Eµ-*Myc*;*Odc*^{+/-} transgenics (Figure 7A). Furthermore, the levels of



Figure 5. DFMO treatment and Odc heterozygosity do not affect Myc's transcriptional response

A: DFMO does not grossly affect the "Myc transcriptome." Hierchical clustering of significantly altered genes of the Myc target gene database is presented. RNA was prepared from B220⁺ splenic cells of 7-week-old untreated and DFMO-treated (3 weeks) wt and E μ -Myc mice and was subjected to analysis on a 430A Affymetrix chip (three mice were analyzed per group). Analysis was performed with the "treatment comparison" function of the Spotfire program. The gene names of the probe sets shown are given in Supplemental Table S3.

B: SYBRgreen real-time PCR analysis on cDNA from splenic B cells of wt, $Odc^{+/-}$, Eµ-Myc and Eµ-Myc; $Odc^{+/-}$ mice, and wt and Eµ-Myc mice treated with DFMO (for 2 weeks) was performed with primers (Supplemental Table S2) for c-myc and the direct Myc transcription targets odc and *rcl*. The expression of each gene was standardized to that of *ub*. Mean expression is shown, and error bars represent analyses of three individual mice of each genotype.

the antiapoptotic protein BcI-X_L, which is only rarely increased in lymphomas arising in E μ -Myc transgenics (Eischen et al., 2001a), were markedly elevated in several tumors arising in E μ -Myc;Odc^{+/-} transgenics (Figure 7A). Finally, we evaluated whether there might be a selection for alterations in the Odc gene (for example Odc amplification) in tumors arising in E μ -Myc;Odc^{+/-} transgenics. However, neither of these events was evident (Supplemental Figure S3). Therefore, the delay in tumor development in E μ -Myc;Odc^{+/-} transgenics is associated with specific differences in the expression of p21^{Cip1}, p27^{Kip1}, and BcI-X_L and with a lack of deletions in Arf.

The failure of lymphomas arising in E_{μ} -Myc;Odc^{+/-} and DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc mice to undergo alterations in Arf suggested that in cells where Arf function is compromised, the preventative effects of DFMO might be abolished. To test this notion, we bred Eµ-Myc mice to Arf^{GFP/GFP} mice (Zindy et al., 2003), an Arf knockout strain that bears the gene for green fluorescent protein (GFP) in place of exon 1ß of Arf in the Ink4a/ Arf locus. Eµ-Myc;Arf^{+/-} transgenic mice develop lymphomas at a greatly accelerated pace, and this is nearly always accompanied by loss of the remaining wt Arf allele, as expected for a tumor suppressor gene (Eischen et al., 1999). Indeed, all Eµ-Myc;Arf^{+/GFP} died within 2.5 months of age (Figure 7C) and 4/5 of the lymphomas arising in these mice lost the wt Arf allele (Figure 7D). Strikingly, DFMO treatment (from 1 week of age) failed to significantly delay lymphoma development in Eu-Myc;Arf+/GFP littermates (Figure 7C), and tumors that arose in

these mice all displayed loss of the wt *Arf* allele (Figure 7D). Therefore, disabling Odc delays the onset of de novo deletions of *Arf*, but not gene conversions, in *Arf*^{Gfp/+} mice. Importantly, these data indicate that targeting Odc is effective as a chemo-preventative intervention but would be ineffective in therapy for cancers bearing mutations in the Arf-p53 tumor suppressor pathway.

Discussion

Chemoprevention strategies targeting the polyamine biosynthetic pathway in cancer have recently shown efficacy in a number of preclinical animal studies and also appear to show promise in clinical trials in human cancer (Gerner and Meyskens, 2004). However, the mechanisms by which targeting Odc prevents cancer have been a mystery. The findings reported herein provide clues to this puzzle and reveal that targeting Odc prevents Myc-induced tumorigenesis in two ways. First, Odc is necessary for Myc to accelerate cell cycle traverse. This response is specifically linked to Myc's effect on the Cdk inhibitors p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}, as when Odc is disabled, Myc's ability to suppress their expression is effectively counteracted. Second, although Odc does not overtly affect Myc's apoptotic response, full activity of the enzyme appears critical for events that lead to the biallelic deletions in Arf that often accompany Myc-induced lymphomagenesis, and compromising the Arf checkpoint inactivates Odc inhibitors as chemopreventative



Figure 6. DFMO treatment and Odc heterozygosity abolishes Myc's ability to suppress the expression of the Cdk inhibitors $p21^{Cip1}$ and $p27^{Kip1}$

A: Western blot analysis of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} expression in spleen-derived B220⁺ B cells. The protein samples were from untreated (C) and DFMO-treated (3 weeks) (D) wt and Eµ-Myc mice.

B: Western blot analysis of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} expression in spleen-derived B220⁺ B cells from wt, $Odc^{+/-}$, Eµ-Myc, and Eµ-Myc; $Odc^{+/-}$ (8-week-old) littermates.

C: Western blot analysis of p53, p19^{Arf}, and Bax expression in spleenderived B220⁺ B cells. The protein samples were again from untreated (C) and DFMO-treated (3 weeks) (D) wt and E μ -Myc mice.

D: Affymetrix gene array showing expression of the indicated genes in B220⁺ splenic B cells from 4- to 6-week-old wt and E μ -Myc littermates untreated (C) or treated with DFMO for 2 weeks.

agents. These findings underscore the limitations of targeting Odc in cancer, where DFMO is effective as a chemopreventative agent but has largely failed as a cancer therapeutic (Gerner and Meyskens, 2004). Nonetheless, the rather remarkable effects of DFMO or loss of one *Odc* allele in preventing Mycinduced lymphomagenesis establish *Odc* as one of the critical downstream targets of Myc that is necessary to drive cell proliferation and transformation.

Not all Myc targets are created equal

Mouse models such as E_{μ} -*Myc* transgenics provide valuable platforms to test the relevance of known downstream targets of oncogenes and/or tumor suppressors that may contribute to cancer development and/or maintenance. Based upon their ability to drive quiescent cells into cycle and to accelerate rates of cell cycle progression, critical targets of Myc were initially thought to be those that regulate the cell cycle. More recent in vivo assessments have shown that proposed Myc targets like *Id2* (Murphy et al., 2004; Nilsson et al., 2004b), *Cyclin D2* (P. Sicinski and M. Eilers, personal communication), and *Cdk4* (J.A.N. and J.L.C., unpublished data) are dispensable for Myc-





DFMO + + + + - -

B: Southern blot hybridization of genomic DNA from the same tumors as in (A) using a probe against the Arf locus. An asterisk indicates tumors showing biallelic deletion of Arf in Eu-Myc transgenics; two asterisks indicate a tumor undergoing alterations of one allele of Arf.

C: Survival curve of five untreated (H_2O) or five DFMO-treated Eu-Myc; $\textit{Arf^{+/GFP}}$ mice.

D: Southern blot hybridization of genomic DNA from tumors arising in Eu-Myc;Arf^{+/GFP} mice. The top band represents the targeted, GFP-containing allele and the lower band the wt allele that is lost during tumorigenesis.

induced tumorigenesis. However, there are obvious cell context-specific effects of these regulators as in the K5-*Myc* transgenic mouse model loss of *Cdk4* impairs skin tumorigenesis (Miliani de Marval et al., 2004), and loss of *E2f1*, which is also induced by Myc (Baudino et al., 2003), accelerates Mycinduced skin tumors (Rounbehler et al., 2002), yet impairs Mycinduced lymphomagenesis.

Characterization of the Myc transcriptome by SAGE, expression profiling, and genome-wide scans for sites of Myc bound chromatin have indicated that the majority of Myc targets are those thought to direct cell metabolism, cell growth (mass), and the ribosome machinery (Patel et al., 2004). The numbers of Myc targets that have come from these assays range up into the thousands (Patel et al., 2004), suggesting that focusing efforts on any single Myc target would be ineffective. Thus, our finding that intervention of a single metabolic target of Myc impairs lymphomagenesis is remarkable and suggests that the downstream products of Odc, the polyamines, influence many of the metabolic and growth processes that are also necessary for cell division and transformation.

This study suggests that metabolic targets of Myc certainly deserve attention as targets in cancer chemoprevention and therapy. The case for targeting Odc is particularly compelling. Firstly, Odc expression is induced by various carcinogens (Cohen, 1997), and Odc overexpression is sufficient to induce transformation in vitro (Auvinen et al., 1992) and for tumor promotion in the skin (O'Brien et al., 1997). Secondly, Odcinduced tumorigenesis is reversed by DFMO treatment (Lan et al., 2000). Further, in addition to its impressive effect on Eµ-Myc transgenics, DFMO is also effective in blocking tumorigenesis in other mouse cancer models but heretofore has never been formally linked to a pathway leading to changes in Odc expression. Thirdly, overexpression of antizyme, which directs Odc to the proteasome for destruction (Murakami et al., 1992), blocks tumorigenesis (Feith et al., 2001). Fourthly, a singlenucleotide polymorphism in human ODC that resides between the two Myc-Max sites in ODC intron 1 regulates its expression (Guo et al., 2000) and correlates with improved clinical response in colon adenomas (Martinez et al., 2003). Finally, as shown here, and also in skin tumor models (Guo et al., 2005), Odc heterozygosity dramatically impairs tumorigenesis. Therefore, critical thresholds of Odc, and thus of polyamines, are important arbiters of tumor development. Indeed, simply reducing levels of putrescine to those present in wt B cells is sufficient to markedly impair lymphoma development.

Odc mediates Myc's proliferative response and directs the route of transformation

Perturbing Odc functions affects the Myc response at two levels. DFMO treatment or Odc heterozygosity abolishes the ability of Myc to accelerate B cell cycle traverse (Figure 4B), and this occurs without gross effects on Myc's transcriptional programs (Figure 5A). Rather, impairing Odc abolishes the ability of Myc to suppress the expression of p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} (Figures 6A and 6B and Supplemental Figure S2). Although Myc can repress the transcription of both Cdkn1a (p21Cip1) and Cdkn1b (p27Kip1) (Gartel et al., 2001; Herold et al., 2002; Yang et al., 2001), in the Eu-Myc B cell, the regulation of at least p27^{Kip1} appears to occur largely at a posttranscriptional level, as expression profiling and real-time PCR failed to document changes in cdkn1b transcripts in response to DFMO treatment (Figure 6D and Supplemental Figure S2). Degradative control is an important route of regulating p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1} protein levels (Bartek and Lukas, 2001; Sherr and Roberts, 1999), and this level of regulation for p27Kip1 is certainly important in the response to Myc (O'Hagan et al., 2000; Vlach et al., 1996). The ability of DFMO or Odc heterozygosity to effectively abolish this response thus suggests that changes in the thresholds of polyamines may also influence the turnover of these proteins, which is consistent with studies showing that polyamine depletion can lead to the induction of p21^{Cip1} (Kramer et al., 2001). Importantly, a limiting role for p27Kip1 in B cell transformation in Eµ-Myc transgenic mice has already been established, as loss of p27Kip1, but not of p21Cip1, accelerates lymphomagenesis (Martins and Berns, 2002), and loss of E2f1 leads to the ectopic expression of p27Kip1 and delays lymphomagenesis (Baudino et al., 2003). Thus, DFMO's chemopreventative properties likely include its ability to specifically restore $p27^{Kip1}$, which would suppress tumor development.

When faced with the inability to downregulate p21^{Cip1} and p27^{Kip1}, such as occurs in Eµ-Myc;Odc+/- mice, alternative routes of transformation appear to be at play. Quite dramatically, very low to undetectable levels of $p21^{\text{Cip1}}$ and $p27^{\text{Kip1}}$ were revealed as a hallmark of lymphomas arising in Eµ-Myc transgenics, and Myc's ability to suppress their expression was abolished in many tumors arising in Eµ-Myc;Odc^{+/-} transgenics. In addition, many of the lymphomas arising in these mice were also characterized by a marked upregulation of Bcl-XL, a rare event in these tumors (Eischen et al., 2001a). Furthermore, although impairing Odc has no overt effects on Myc's apoptotic response in vivo, a striking finding was that none of the tumors arising in Eµ-Myc;Odc^{+/-} or DFMO-treated Eµ-Myc transgenics bore biallelic deletions in Arf, which were readily evident in lymphomas arising in wt Eu-Myc transgenics (Figure 7B). Finally, loss of even one Arf allele was sufficient to render Eµ-Myc B cells refractory to the protective effects of DFMO (Figure 7C). Thus, the ability of DFMO or Odc heterozygosity to impair transformation appears to occur at a very early step and likely involves blocking of lesions that provoke the loss of one allele of Arf, which can sometimes be captured in E_{μ} -Myc lymphomas (e.g., see the lane with two asterisks, Figure 7B), that then lead to loss of the entire Arf locus.

Relevance to human cancer

Myc oncoproteins are deregulated in the vast majority of human tumors, suggesting they are perfect targets for chemotherapeutic intervention. Unfortunately, their functions as transcription factors that regulate a large fraction of the genome clearly complicate this approach. Further, Myc is a member of the "Max network," where Max also dimerizes with at least six other partners to repress transcription (Eisenman, 2001), and Myc-induced target gene activation may rely on its ability to relieve Mnt-Mad-mediated transrepression (Nilsson et al., 2004a). Therefore, targeted therapies that block Myc binding to E boxes may also block Mnt-Mad functions and lead to activation of gene transcription through relief of transrepression, the opposite of the desired effect. We therefore propose that targeting the products of genes induced by Myc is a safer approach to treating Myc-driven tumors. Focusing on those gene products that are enzymes, like Odc, should facilitate drug design.

Myc-driven tumors require sustained expression of the oncogene and quickly regress when Myc activity is compromised (Jain et al., 2002; Pelengaris et al., 1999). If Odc were also a key mediator of Myc in tumor maintenance, then treatment of preexisting lymphomas with DFMO would be predicted to be of therapeutic benefit. However, we and others (Gerner and Meyskens, 2004) have seen little, if any, effect of DFMO on the progression of established malignancies. Still, DFMO as a chemopreventative agent is important in many scenarios of human cancer where tumors arise in a predictable manner. For example, in colon cancer, which undergoes an ordered progression from polyps to adenomas to frank carcinoma, combinations of COX-2 inhibitors with DFMO have proven efficacious in preventing adenoma recurrence and progression to carcinoma (Gerner and Meyskens, 2004). This represents a success story, but there are many as yet unexplored arenas that represent avenues for prevention. Finally, there is a growing cadre of heritable malignancies where agents such as DFMO, which has limited toxicity, should be considered. We have shown that DFMO is effective at blocking tumor formation in a scenario where there is a single genetic lesion (Myc activation). Therefore, it is possible that this agent will also be effective in blocking secondary mutations occurring in heritable breast and ovarian cancer patients having mutations of *BRCA1*, *BRCA2*, or *CHK2* and in Li-Fraumeni patients having *TP53* mutations (Varley, 2003).

Experimental procedures

Mice and tumor analyses

 $Odc^{+/-}$ mice were bred with Eµ-*Myc* transgenics (both on C57Bl/6 background) to generate F1 Eµ-*Myc*; $Odc^{+/-}$ and Eµ-*Myc*; Odc^{wt} offspring. Eµ-*Myc* transgenic male mice were also bred to $Arf^{GPP/GFP}$ knockin/knockout females (mixed background, kindly provided by Drs. Martine Roussel and Charles Sherr) to generate Eµ-*Myc*; $Arf^{+/GFP}$ mice (Zindy et al., 2003). Lastly, cohorts of Eµ-*Myc* transgenic mice were given either standard water or water containing 1% DFMO. All mice were observed daily for signs of morbidity and tumor development. Sick animals were sacrificed, and tumors and lymphoid organs were analyzed by histology and immunohistochemistry to confirm B cell lymphoma.

With institutional review board approval and after informed consent, RNA was extracted from tumors of 14 BL patients by using the RNA/DNA Kit from Qiagen.

Cell culture

Primary bone marrow-derived pre-B cell cultures were generated from 6-week-old C57BI/6 mice as described (Eischen et al., 1999). After 2 weeks in culture on S17 stromal cells, the established B cell culture was maintained in conditioned medium from NIH-3T3 cells expressing IL-7. To test effects of DFMO on polyamine transport, cells were cultured in the presence of 5 mM DFMO for 2 days. IL-3-dependent 32D.3 myeloid cells were cultured as previously described (Askew et al., 1991). Generation of pre-B cell cultures expressing Myc-ER has been described (Nilsson et al., 2004b).

Polyamine transport

 1×10^6 B cells or 32D.3 cells (Askew et al., 1991) were cultured \pm 5 mM DFMO for 2 days. 1 μl ³H-spermidine was added and the cells incubated for 1 hr at 37°C or on ice (negative control for nonspecific binding). After incubation, the cells were harvested, washed twice with PBS containing 100 μM cold spermidine, and lysed by the addition of 1 M NaOH. The lysate was mixed with scintillation fluid (UltimaGold, Packard Bioscience) and counted in a scintillation counter.

B cells from untreated and DFMO-treated wt and E μ -Myc transgenic mice were analyzed for their polyamine content by high-performance liquid chromatography. Briefly, polyamines from frozen pellets of 1 × 10⁶ cells were extracted with 0.6 N perchloric acid, dansylated, and analyzed as described (Chen et al., 2001).

FACS and magnetic-activated cell sorting of B cells

Rates of proliferation of B220⁺/IgM⁺ and B220⁺/IgM⁻ cells were determined by using a Flow Kit as described by the manufacturer (BD Biosciences Pharmingen). Animals were injected intraperitoneally with 100 μ l of 10 mg/ ml BrdU in sterile PBS. Animals were sacrificed 12 hr postinjection, and bone marrow and spleen were harvested. 1 × 10⁶ cells were used for the BrdU proliferation assay, by incubation with antibodies against B220 (APC conjugated) and IgM (PE conjugated), followed by washes. Labeled cells were further processed and stained with FITC anti-BrdU antibody, washed, and analyzed by FACS.

The remainder of the bone marrow and spleen cells was incubated with beads conjugated to a B220 antibody (Miltenyi Biotech) and enriched by MACS for B cells according to the manufacturer's instruction. The same procedure was used to obtain splenic B cells as controls for Western blots.

RNA preparation and analyses

B cells were obtained from bone marrow or spleen by MACS using beads conjugated to antibodies against B220 or IgM, respectively. RNA was pre-

pared by using the RNeasy Kit (Qiagen). For Affymetrix analyses, cRNA was synthesized by using the One-Cycle Target Labeling and Control Reagent package (Affymetrix, Inc.), and the reaction was probed to the 430A mouse Affymetrix chip. The scanned data output was imported into the Spotfire software. After normalization, selected probe sets for genes indicated in Figure 1 or in Figure 5 were clustered by using the Hierarchical Clustering function of Spotfire. Statistical analysis was performed in Spotfire with the Anova function.

For real-time PCR, cDNA was prepared from 1 μ g RNA by using the iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad). Real-time PCR was performed with an iCycler machine (Bio-Rad) and the iTaq SYBR Green Kit. Data analyses were performed with the Δ Ct method, where *ubiquitin* served as the internal control. Sequences for primers are available in Supplemental Table S2.

Western blot analyses

Extracts from MACS-sorted B cells and lymphomas from Eµ-Myc mice were prepared as described (Eischen et al., 1999). Protein (30–50 µg per lane) was separated on a 15% SDS-PAGE gel, transferred to membranes (Protran, Schleicher & Schuell), and blotted with antibodies specific for c-Myc (N-262, Santa Cruz Inc.), ODC (from Drs. Anthony Pegg and Lisa Schantz), p21^{Cip1} (F-5, Santa Cruz Inc.), p27^{Kip1} (Transduction labs), p53 (Ab-7, Oncogene research), p19^{Arf} (Abcam), Bim (Stressgen Bioreagents), Bax (Santa Cruz Inc.), and β-actin (AC-15, Sigma Chemicals).

Supplemental data

Supplemental Data include three figures and three tables and are available with this article online at http://www.cancercell.org/cgi/content/full/7/5/433/ DC1/.

Acknowledgments

We thank Tony Pegg and Lisa Shantz for providing ODC antibody, Lonza Biochemicals for providing DFMO, Martine Roussel and Charles Sherr for providing *Arf*^{GFP/GFP} mice, and Elsie White for technical assistance. We also thank Piotr Sicinski and Martin Eilers for communicating unpublished observations; Gerard Zambetti, Mark Hall, Kirsteen Maclean, and Darren Phillips for critical review of the report; and J. Torrey Sandlund and Mihaela Onciu for providing primary BL samples from the St. Jude Children's Research Hospital (SJCRH) Tumor Bank. This work was supported by National Cancer Institute grant RO1 CA1006371 (J.L.C.), CA76428 (C.W.P.), the Cancer Center (CORE) support grant CA21765, and by the American Lebanese Syrian Associated Charities (ALSAC) of SJCRH. J.A.N. is the George Mitchell Endowed Fellow of SJCRH.

Received: November 10, 2004 Revised: January 22, 2005 Accepted: March 4, 2005 Published: May 16, 2005

References

Adams, J.M., Harris, A.W., Pinkert, C.A., Corcoran, L.M., Alexander, W.S., Cory, S., Palmiter, R.D., and Brinster, R.L. (1985). The c-myc oncogene driven by immunoglobulin enhancers induces lymphoid malignancy in transgenic mice. Nature *318*, 533–538.

Askew, D.S., Ashmun, R.A., Simmons, B.C., and Cleveland, J.L. (1991). Constitutive c-*myc* expression in an IL-3-dependent myeloid cell line suppresses cell cycle arrest and accelerates apoptosis. Oncogene *6*, 1915–1922.

Auvinen, M., Paasinen, A., Andersson, L.C., and Holtta, E. (1992). Ornithine decarboxylase activity is critical for cell transformation. Nature *360*, 355–358.

Bartek, J., and Lukas, J. (2001). p27 destruction: Cks1 pulls the trigger. Nat. Cell Biol. *3*, E95–E98.

Baudino, T.A., Maclean, K.H., Brennan, J., Parganas, E., Yang, C., Aslanian,

A., Lees, J.A., Sherr, C.J., Roussel, M.F., and Cleveland, J.L. (2003). Mycmediated proliferation and lymphomagenesis, but not apoptosis, are compromised by E2f1 loss. Mol. Cell *11*, 905–914.

Bello-Fernandez, C., Packham, G., and Cleveland, J.L. (1993). The ornithine decarboxylase gene is a transcriptional target of c-Myc. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *90*, 7804–7808.

Bouchard, C., Staller, P., and Eilers, M. (1998). Control of cell proliferation by Myc. Trends Cell Biol. 8, 202–206.

Bouchard, C., Thieke, K., Maier, A., Saffrich, R., Hanley-Hyde, J., Ansorge, W., Reed, S., Sicinski, P., Bartek, J., and Eilers, M. (1999). Direct induction of cyclin D2 by Myc contributes to cell cycle progression and sequestration of p27. EMBO J. *18*, 5321–5333.

Chen, Y., Kramer, D.L., Diegelman, P., Vujcic, S., and Porter, C.W. (2001). Apoptotic signaling in polyamine analogue-treated SK-MEL-28 human melanoma cells. Cancer Res. *61*, 6437–6444.

Cohen, S.S. (1997). A Guide to the Polyamines (New York: Oxford University Press).

Dalla-Favera, R., Bregni, M., Erikson, J., Patterson, D., Gallo, R.C., and Croce, C.M. (1982). Human c-myc onc gene is located on the region of chromosome 8 that is translocated in Burkitt lymphoma cells. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 79, 7824–7827.

Egle, A., Harris, A.W., Bouillet, P., and Cory, S. (2004). Bim is a suppressor of Myc-induced mouse B cell leukemia. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *101*, 6164–6169.

Eischen, C.M., Weber, J.D., Roussel, M.F., Sherr, C.J., and Cleveland, J.L. (1999). Disruption of the ARF-Mdm2-p53 tumor suppressor pathway in Myc-induced lymphomagenesis. Genes Dev. *13*, 2658–2669.

Eischen, C.M., Woo, D., Roussel, M.F., and Cleveland, J.L. (2001a). Apoptosis triggered by Myc-induced suppression of Bcl- X_L or Bcl-2 is bypassed during lymphomagenesis. Mol. Cell. Biol. 21, 5063–5070.

Eischen, C.M., Roussel, M.F., Korsmeyer, S.J., and Cleveland, J.L. (2001b). Bax loss impairs Myc-induced apoptosis and circumvents the selection of p53 mutations during Myc-mediated lymphomagenesis. Mol. Cell. Biol. *21*, 7653–7662.

Eisenman, R.N. (2001). Deconstructing myc. Genes Dev. 15, 2023–2030.

Ellwood-Yen, K., Graeber, T.G., Wongvipat, J., Iruela-Arispe, M.L., Zhang, J., Matusik, R., Thomas, G.V., and Sawyers, C.L. (2003). Myc-driven murine prostate cancer shares molecular features with human prostate tumors. Cancer Cell *4*, 223–238.

Evan, G.I., Wyllie, A.H., Gilbert, C.S., Littlewood, T.D., Land, H., Brooks, M., Waters, C.M., Penn, L.Z., and Hancock, D.C. (1992). Induction of apoptosis in fibroblasts by c-myc protein. Cell 69, 119–128.

Feith, D.J., Shantz, L.M., and Pegg, A.E. (2001). Targeted antizyme expression in the skin of transgenic mice reduces tumor promoter induction of ornithine decarboxylase and decreases sensitivity to chemical carcinogenesis. Cancer Res. *61*, 6073–6081.

Fozard, J.R., Part, M.L., Prakash, N.J., Grove, J., Schechter, P.J., Sjoerdsma, A., and Koch-Weser, J. (1980). L-Ornithine decarboxylase: an essential role in early mammalian embryogenesis. Science *208*, 505–508.

Gartel, A.L., Ye, X., Goufman, E., Shianov, P., Hay, N., Najmabadi, F., and Tyner, A.L. (2001). Myc represses the p21(WAF1/CIP1) promoter and interacts with Sp1/Sp3. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *98*, 4510–4515.

Gerner, E.W., and Meyskens, F.L. (2004). Polyamines and cancer: old molecules, new understanding. Nat. Rev. Cancer 4, 781–792.

Guo, Y., Harris, R.B., Rosson, D., Boorman, D., and O'Brien, T.G. (2000). Functional analysis of human ornithine decarboxylase alleles. Cancer Res. *60*, 6314–6317.

Guo, Y., Cleveland, J.L., and O'Brien, T.G. (2005). Haploinsufficiency for *Odc* modifies mouse skin tumor susceptibility. Cancer Res. 65, 1146–1149.

Herold, S., Wanzel, M., Beuger, V., Frohme, C., Beul, D., Hillukkala, T., Syvaoja, J., Saluz, H.P., Haenel, F., and Eilers, M. (2002). Negative regulation of the mammalian UV response by Myc through association with Miz-1. Mol. Cell 10, 509–521.

Jain, M., Arvanitis, C., Chu, K., Dewey, W., Leonhardt, E., Trinh, M., Sundberg, C.D., Bishop, J.M., and Felsher, D.W. (2002). Sustained loss of a neoplastic phenotype by brief inactivation of MYC. Science *297*, 102–104.

Kramer, D.L., Chang, B.D., Chen, Y., Diegelman, P., Alm, K., Black, A.R., Roninson, I.B., and Porter, C.W. (2001). Polyamine depletion in human melanoma cells leads to G1 arrest associated with induction of p21WAF1/CIP1/ SDI1, changes in the expression of p21-regulated genes, and a senescence-like phenotype. Cancer Res. *61*, 7754–7762.

Lan, L., Trempus, C., and Gilmour, S.K. (2000). Inhibition of ornithine decarboxylase (ODC) decreases tumor vascularization and reverses spontaneous tumors in ODC/Ras transgenic mice. Cancer Res. *60*, 5696–5703.

Lindstrom, M.S., Klangby, U., and Wiman, K.G. (2001). p14ARF homozygous deletion or MDM2 overexpression in Burkitt lymphoma lines carrying wild type p53. Oncogene *20*, 2171–2177.

Maclean, K.H., Keller, U.B., Rodriguez-Galindo, C., Nilsson, J.A., and Cleveland, J.L. (2003). c-Myc augments gamma irradiation-induced apoptosis by suppressing Bcl-X(L). Mol. Cell. Biol. *23*, 7256–7270.

Martinez, M.E., O'Brien, T.G., Fultz, K.E., Babbar, N., Yerushalmi, H., Qu, N., Guo, Y., Boorman, D., Einspahr, J., Alberts, D.S., and Gerner, E.W. (2003). Pronounced reduction in adenoma recurrence associated with aspirin use and a polymorphism in the ornithine decarboxylase gene. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *100*, 7859–7864.

Martins, C.P., and Berns, A. (2002). Loss of p27(Kip1) but not p21(Cip1) decreases survival and synergizes with MYC in murine lymphomagenesis. EMBO J. *21*, 3739–3748.

Megosh, L., Gilmour, S.K., Rosson, D., Soler, A.P., Blessing, M., Sawicki, J.A., and O'Brien, T.G. (1995). Increased frequency of spontaneous skin tumors in transgenic mice which overexpress ornithine decarboxylase. Cancer Res. 55, 4205–4209.

Miliani de Marval, P.L., Macias, E., Rounbehler, R., Sicinski, P., Kiyokawa, H., Johnson, D.G., Conti, C.J., and Rodriguez-Puebla, M.L. (2004). Lack of cyclin-dependent kinase 4 inhibits c-myc tumorigenic activities in epithelial tissues. Mol. Cell. Biol. *24*, 7538–7547.

Mitchell, K.O., Ricci, M.S., Miyashita, T., Dicker, D.T., Jin, Z., Reed, J.C., and El-Deiry, W.S. (2000). Bax is a transcriptional target and mediator of c-myc-induced apoptosis. Cancer Res. *60*, 6318–6325.

Murakami, Y., Matsufuji, S., Kameji, T., Hayashi, S., Igarashi, K., Tamura, T., Tanaka, K., and Ichihara, A. (1992). Ornithine decarboxylase is degraded by the 26S proteasome without ubiquitination. Nature *360*, 597–599.

Murphy, D.J., Swigart, L.B., Israel, M.A., and Evan, G.I. (2004). Id2 is dispensable for Myc-induced epidermal neoplasia. Mol. Cell. Biol. 24, 2083–2090.

Nilsson, J.A., and Cleveland, J.L. (2003). Myc pathways provoking cell suicide and cancer. Oncogene 22, 9007–9021.

Nilsson, J.A., Maclean, K.H., Keller, U.B., Pendeville, H., Baudino, T.A., and Cleveland, J.L. (2004a). Mnt loss triggers Myc transcription targets, proliferation, apoptosis, and transformation. Mol. Cell. Biol. *24*, 1560–1569.

Nilsson, J.A., Nilsson, L.M., Keller, U., Yokota, Y., Boyd, K., and Cleveland, J.L. (2004b). Id2 is dispensable for Myc-induced lymphomagenesis. Cancer Res. *64*, 7296–7301.

O'Brien, T.G., Megosh, L.C., Gilliard, G., and Soler, A.P. (1997). Ornithine decarboxylase overexpression is a sufficient condition for tumor promotion in mouse skin. Cancer Res. *57*, 2630–2637.

O'Hagan, R.C., Ohh, M., David, G., de Alboran, I.M., Alt, F.W., Kaelin, W.G., Jr., and DePinho, R.A. (2000). Myc-enhanced expression of Cul1 promotes ubiquitin-dependent proteolysis and cell cycle progression. Genes Dev. *14*, 2185–2191.

Patel, J.H., Loboda, A.P., Showe, M.K., Showe, L.C., and McMahon, S.B. (2004). Analysis of genomic targets reveals complex functions of MYC. Nat. Rev. Cancer *4*, 562–568.

Pelengaris, S., Littlewood, T., Khan, M., Elia, G., and Evan, G. (1999). Re-

versible activation of c-Myc in skin: induction of a complex neoplastic phenotype by a single oncogenic lesion. Mol. Cell 3, 565–577.

Pelengaris, S., Khan, M., and Evan, G.I. (2002). Suppression of Mycinduced apoptosis in beta cells exposes multiple oncogenic properties of Myc and triggers carcinogenic progression. Cell *109*, 321–334.

Pendeville, H., Carpino, N., Marine, J.C., Takahashi, Y., Muller, M., Martial, J.A., and Cleveland, J.L. (2001). The ornithine decarboxylase gene is essential for cell survival during early murine development. Mol. Cell. Biol. *21*, 6549–6558.

Robertson, K.D., and Jones, P.A. (1998). The human ARF cell cycle regulatory gene promoter is a CpG island which can be silenced by DNA methylation and down-regulated by wild-type p53. Mol. Cell. Biol. *18*, 6457–6473.

Rounbehler, R.J., Rogers, P.M., Conti, C.J., and Johnson, D.G. (2002). Inactivation of E2f1 enhances tumorigenesis in a Myc transgenic model. Cancer Res. *62*, 3276–3281.

Schmitt, C.A., McCurrach, M.E., de Stanchina, E., Wallace-Brodeur, R.R., and Lowe, S.W. (1999). INK4a/ARF mutations accelerate lymphomagenesis and promote chemoresistance by disabling p53. Genes Dev. *13*, 2670–2677.

Schmitt, C.A., Fridman, J.S., Yang, M., Baranov, E., Hoffman, R.M., and Lowe, S.W. (2002). Dissecting p53 tumor suppressor functions in vivo. Cancer Cell *1*, 289–298.

Seiler, N., Delcros, J.G., and Moulinoux, J.P. (1996). Polyamine transport in mammalian cells. An update. Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol. *28*, 843–861.

Sherr, C.J., and Roberts, J.M. (1999). CDK inhibitors: positive and negative regulators of G1-phase progression. Genes Dev. *13*, 1501–1512.

Staller, P., Peukert, K., Kiermaier, A., Seoane, J., Lukas, J., Karsunky, H.,

Moroy, T., Bartek, J., Massague, J., Hanel, F., and Eilers, M. (2001). Repression of p15INK4b expression by Myc through association with Miz-1. Nat. Cell Biol. *3*, 392–399.

Strasser, A., Harris, A.W., Bath, M.L., and Cory, S. (1990). Novel primitive lymphoid tumours induced in transgenic mice by cooperation between myc and bcl-2. Nature *348*, 331–333.

Varley, J. (2003). TP53, hChk2, and the Li-Fraumeni syndrome. Methods Mol. Biol. 222, 117-129.

Vlach, J., Hennecke, S., Alevizopoulos, K., Conti, D., and Amati, B. (1996). Growth arrest by the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p27Kip1 is abrogated by c-Myc. EMBO J. *15*, 6595–6604.

Wagner, A.J., Meyers, C., Laimins, L.A., and Hay, N. (1993). c-Myc induces the expression and activity of ornithine decarboxylase. Cell Growth Differ. *4*, 879–883.

Wilda, M., Bruch, J., Harder, L., Rawer, D., Reiter, A., Borkhardt, A., and Woessmann, W. (2004). Inactivation of the ARF-MDM-2-p53 pathway in sporadic Burkitt's lymphoma in children. Leukemia *18*, 584–588.

Yang, W., Shen, J., Wu, M., Arsura, M., FitzGerald, M., Suldan, Z., Kim, D.W., Hofmann, C.S., Pianetti, S., Romieu-Mourez, R., et al. (2001). Repression of transcription of the p27(Kip1) cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor gene by c-Myc. Oncogene *20*, 1688–1702.

Zindy, F., Eischen, C.M., Randle, D.H., Kamijo, T., Cleveland, J.L., Sherr, C.J., and Roussel, M.F. (1998). Myc signaling via the ARF tumor suppressor regulates p53-dependent apoptosis and immortalization. Genes Dev. *12*, 2424–2433.

Zindy, F., Williams, R.T., Baudino, T.A., Rehg, J.E., Skapek, S.X., Cleveland, J.L., Roussel, M.F., and Sherr, C.J. (2003). Arf tumor suppressor promoter monitors latent oncogenic signals in vivo. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA *100*, 15930–15935.