

Mixed lineage leukemia protein in normal and leukemic stem cells

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Abstract

Transcription factors critical for normal hematopoietic stem cell functions are frequently mutated in acute leukemia leading to an aberrant re-programming of normal hematopoietic progenitor/stem cells into leukemic stem cells. Among them, re-arrangements of the mixed lineage leukemia gene (*MLL*), including chimeric fusion, partial tandem duplication (PTD), amplification and internal exonic deletion, represent one of the most common recurring oncogenic events and associate with very poor prognosis in human leukemias. Extensive research on wild type *MLL* and *MLL*-fusions has significantly advanced our knowledge about their functions in normal and malignant hematopoiesis, which also provides a framework for the underlying pathogenic role of *MLL* re-arrangements in human leukemias. In contrast, research progress on *MLL*-PTD, *MLL* amplification and internal exonic deletion remains stagnant, in particular for the last two abnormalities where mouse model is not yet available. In this article, we will review the key features of both wild-type and re-arranged *MLL* proteins with particular focuses on *MLL*-PTD and *MLL* amplification for their roles in normal and malignant hematopoiesis.

Keywords: mixed lineage leukemia, *MLL*, *MLL*-PTD, *MLL* amplification, *MLL* fusion, hematopoietic stem cells, Leukemic stem cells

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Introduction

Hematopoiesis, the process of blood cell production, is based on the tight regulation of self-renewal, differentiation and apoptosis of hematopoietic stem cells (HSCs). In definitive hematopoiesis, HSCs are at the apex of the hierarchy, and they can be divided into long-term HSCs (LT-HSCs) and short-term HSCs (ST-HSCs) (Figure 1). Immediately downstream of ST-HSCs is multipotential progenitors (MPPs) that has lost their self-renewal property.¹ This classical model of hematopoiesis infers that the first lineage commitment step of MPPs results in a strict separation of myeloid and lymphoid pathways, as supported by the identification of the common myeloid progenitors (CMPs)² and common lymphoid progenitors (CLPs).³ However, more recent detailed analysis on the differentiation potential of Flt3⁺ cells within the Lin[−]Sca-1⁺ckit⁺ (LSK) population has revealed the existence of lymphoid primed multipotent progenitors (LMPPs) that sustains the lymphoid and myeloid differentiation potential but lacks the erythroid and megakaryocyte potentials.^{4,5} Along differentiation pathway, MPPs can give rise to (1) CLPs and CMPs which can further differentiate into granulocyte/macrophage progenitors (GMPs) and megakaryocyte/erythroid progenitors; or (2) LMPPs, which can generate GMPs or CLPs

(Figure 1). This process is regulated by specific transcriptional program governed by master transcription factors and epigenetic regulators. Among them, the mixed lineage leukemia gene (*MLL*) encoding a master transcription factor with a histone methyltransferase activity plays a key role in maintaining the normal functions of HSCs and its deregulation frequently leads to development of leukemia.

Normal *MLL* functions and hematopoiesis

MLL encodes a 3696-amino-acid protein with several distinct domains including N-terminal AT-hooks, a CXXC domain sharing homology to the DNA methyltransferase, 4 PHD fingers, a transactivation domain and a C-terminal SET domain which imparts a highly specific histone 3 lysine 4 trimethylation (H3K4me3) activity that marks for transcriptional activation (Figure 2).⁶ To allow full execution of its function, *MLL* protein is proteolytically cleaved by *taspase1* into the N-terminal fragment containing most of the DNA targeting sequence and the C-terminal fragment possessing transcriptional activation activity.^{7,8} Following specific association between the N-terminal and the C-terminal fragments via the consensus interaction motifs,

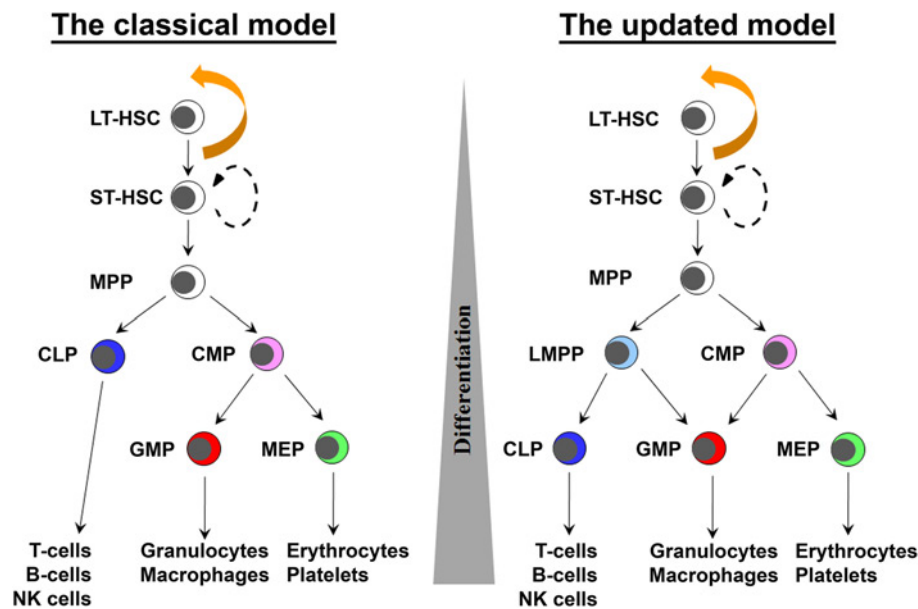


Figure 1 The classical and updated models of haematopoiesis. LT-HSC, long-term haematopoietic stem cell; ST-HSC, short-term haematopoietic stem cell; MPP, multipotential progenitor; LMPP, lymphoid primed multipotent progenitor; CMP, common myeloid progenitor; MEP, megakaryocyte/erythroid progenitor; GMP, granulocyte/macrophage progenitor; CLP, common lymphoid progenitor; B, B-cell; T, T-cell; NK, NK cell. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal)

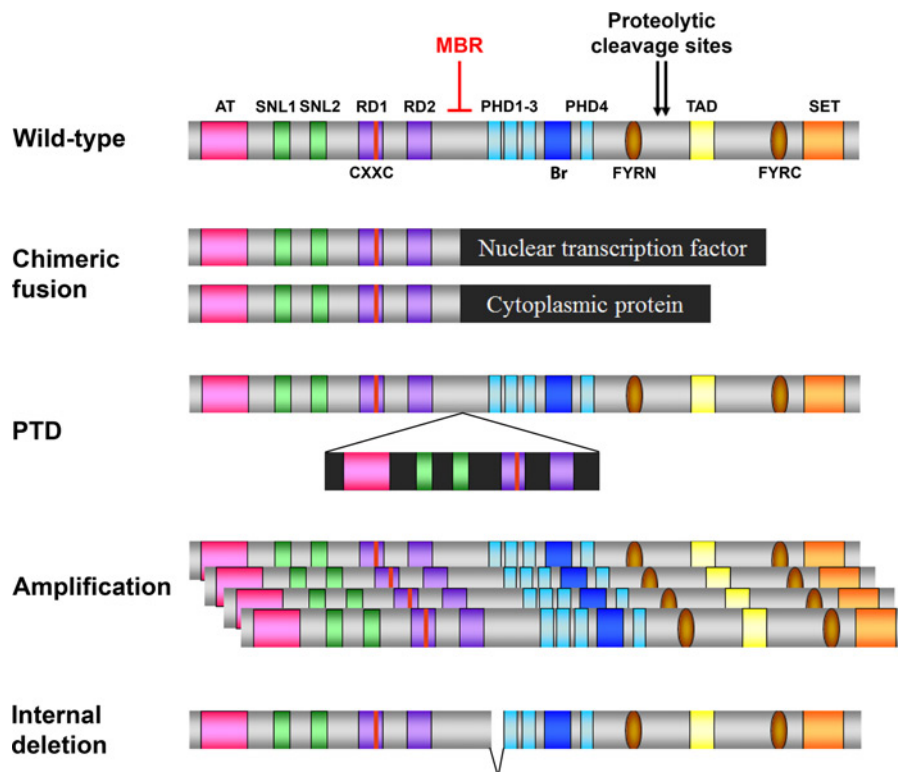


Figure 2 Schematic representation of different types of MLL re-arrangement in human leukemia. The wild-type MLL protein is included for comparison. Figures are not in scale. AT, AT hooks; SNL, subnuclear localization motif; RD, repression domain; CXXC, CXXC domain; MBR, major breakpoint region; PHD, plant homeodomain; Br, Bromo domain; FYRN, FYRN domain; TAD, transactivation domain; FYRC, FYRC domain; SET, SET domain. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal)

they recruit and form a multicomponent supercomplex for transcriptional activation of target genes by mediating both chromatin modifications (methylation and acetylation) and chromatin re-modeling.⁹

The role of *Mll* in early development and definitive haematopoiesis was, at first, demonstrated in several studies using *Mll* complete knockout embryos.^{10–12} By disrupting the endogenous *Mll* loci with a lacZ reporter, heterozygous

knockout mice ($Mill^{+/-}$) were found to have retarded growth and skeletal malformations while the homozygous mice ($Mill^{-/-}$) were embryonic lethal.¹³ Analogy to the homolog of *Drosophila Trithorax*, *Mill* is essential for maintenance of *Hox* gene expression during embryonic development. Before E9, there was no difference in the pattern and level of *Hoxa7* expression between the wild-type and $Mill^{-/-}$ embryos. But at E9, in contrast to the wild-type and $Mill^{+/-}$ embryos, $Mill^{-/-}$ embryos failed to maintain the expression of *Hoxa7* in the somatic or neural tube.¹⁴ The loss of late *Hox* expression in the absence of *Mill* indicated its function in maintenance instead of initiation for expression of *Hox* genes, which are critical for normal hematopoiesis. While $Mill^{-/-}$ embryo exhibited severe hematopoietic defects, characterization of *Mill* in adult hematopoiesis was made possible by the recent development of inducible *Mill* knockout models.^{15,16} To this end, two distinctive conditional knockout models, using the Vav-Cre and MX1-Cre systems to achieve specific deletion of *Mill* exons 8 and 9 or exons 3 and 4, respectively, were generated.^{15,16} Conditional deletion of *Mill* exon 3 and 4 using MX1-Cre induced rapid bone marrow failure and depletion of HSCs. On the other hand, deletion of *Mill* exon 8 and 9 by pan-hematopoietic and endothelial cell specific Vav-Cre did not grossly impair normal hematopoiesis in the mice, but HSCs derived from these knockout mice had severely compromised reconstitution ability and failed to maintain self-renewal upon transplantation/replacative stress. In spite of the different severity of the phenotypes, which might be in part due to different gene inactivation strategies, these results consistently show that *Mill* is required for maintenance of adult HSCs.

MLL re-arrangement in leukemia

Given the critical function of MLL protein in normal HSC functions, it is not difficult to envision that MLL is also a frequent target in human leukemia. *MLL* located on chromosome 11q23 is frequently re-arranged in acute leukemias, and accounts for more than 70% of infant leukemia.^{17,18} The incidence of *MLL* re-arrangement is significantly higher in therapy-related acute myeloid leukemia (AML) (10%) than in *de novo* AML (5%).¹⁷ The existence of *MLL* re-arrangements is strongly predictive of poor clinical outcome and short-term survival.^{19–28} Leukemias carrying *MLL* re-arrangements also have increased drug resistance to both the standard and targeted therapies.^{29,30} There are four different forms of *MLL* deregulation found in patients including *MLL* fusion, *MLL*-partial tandem duplication (PTD), *MLL* amplification and in rare cases of internal deletion of *MLL* exons encoding the first PHD finger (Figure 2). With the exception of gene amplification, all these re-arrangements lead to a different degree of structural alternation on the *MLL* sequence. Although both *MLL* fusion and *MLL*-PTD share the same breakpoint region located between the CXXC domain and PHD fingers, they lead to very different domain re-organizations. As a result of chimeric fusion, the *MLL* protein will lose its C-terminal sequence including the transactivation and SET

domains but gains novel transcriptional effector domains or homo-dimerization domains from one of its fusion partners. In contrast, *MLL*-PTD involves an internal duplication of the *MLL* N-terminal sequence flanking the AT-hook and CXXC domain. More importantly, it will also retain the full-length *MLL* sequence including both transactivation and SET domains. Given the distinctive structural and functional organization of the resultant *MLL* proteins from these different gene re-arrangements, it is likely that they may also have different transformation mechanisms. In the rest of the review, we will summarize the molecular and cellular mechanisms for leukemia induction by *MLL* re-arrangement. While most of our current knowledge about the oncogenic function of *MLL* comes from studying of the fusion proteins, we will also discuss the recent progress and importance of understanding the other *MLL* alterations in leukemia.

MLL fusions in transcriptional deregulation and development of leukemic stem cells

In AML where leukemic stem cells (LSCs) have been functionally identified, *MLL* fusion as a result of a reciprocal translocation is one of the most common and well-characterized initiating mutations in LSCs. *MLL* translocations are observed in both *de novo* and therapy-related acute leukemia.³¹ *MLL* fusions including *MLL*-ENL³² and *MLL*-GAS7³³ were capable of transforming both HSCs and myeloid progenitors such as CMPs and GMPs for development of LSCs, demonstrating their ability to initiate aberrant self-renewal program in the targeted hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells.³⁴ Consistently, subsequent analyses of LSCs derived from *MLL*-AF9 leukemia mouse models revealed aberrant HSC³⁵ and embryonic stem cell³⁶ transcriptional programs in committed progenitor cells transformed by the *MLL* fusion. Therefore, one of the key functions of *MLL* fusion is to reinitiate/sustain specific expression program in committed progenitors/stem cells to confer aberrant self-renewal³⁷ (Figure 3), although the final transcriptional and transformation outcome may also depend on the level of expression of the fusions.³⁸

To date, more than 60 partner genes have been identified, but six partner proteins (AF4, AF9, ENL, AF10, ELL and AF6) constitute more than 85% of all leukemia cases carrying *MLL* fusion.³⁹ Most of these frequent partner proteins (except for AF6) are nuclear proteins. Based on their functional properties, the fusion partners can be broadly classified into nuclear proteins with transcription effector domains and cytoplasmic proteins with dimerization domains.^{40,41} There is evidence that some of the most common *MLL* nuclear fusion partners (including AF4, AF9, ENL and ELL) form a higher-order complex called AF4/ENL/P-TEFb complex (AEP)⁴² or Super Elongation Complex (SEC).⁴³ AEP is normally recruited to the wild-type *MLL* target loci (such as *Hoxa9*) to facilitate transcription under physiological conditions.⁴² However, when cells are transformed by *MLL* fusions carrying AF4 or ENL family protein, the AEP/SEC complex is constitutively recruited to the *MLL*-target loci for transcriptional activation and elongation.^{42,43} Interestingly, the H3K79

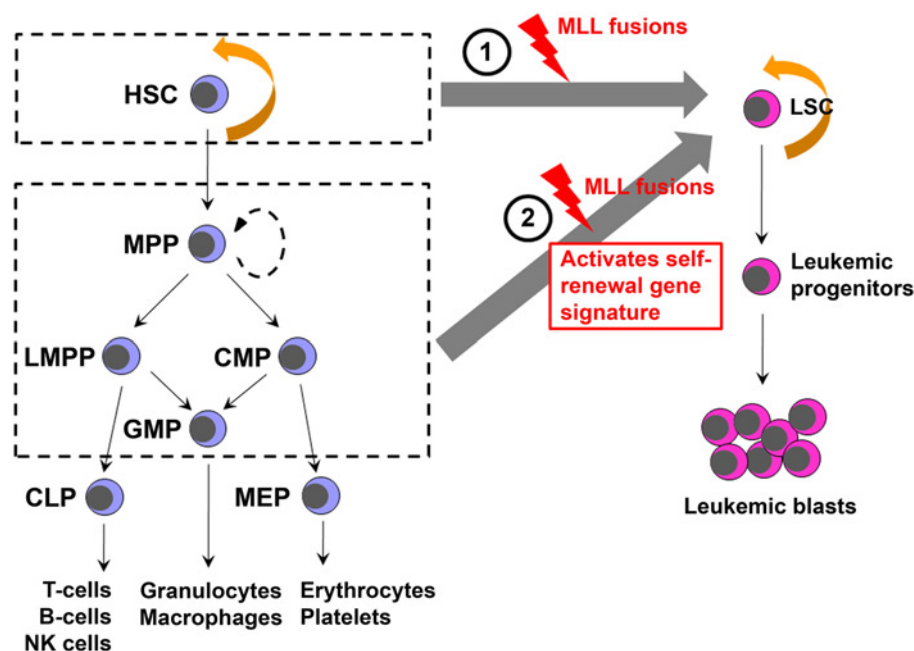


Figure 3 Transformation of HSCs and progenitors into LSCs by MLL fusions. MLL fusions not only can directly transform HSCs into LSCs but also can impart self-renewal ability to the committed progenitors and transform them into LSCs. HSC, haematopoietic stem cell; MPP, multipotential progenitor; LMPP, lymphoid primed multipotent progenitor; CMP, common myeloid progenitor; CLP, common lymphoid progenitor; GMP, granulocyte/macrophage progenitor; MEP, megakaryocyte/erythroid progenitor. (A color version of this figure is available in the online journal)

histone methyltransferase, DOT1L, previously identified to interact with AF10 and later with AF4/AF9/ENL is absent in the AEP/SEC.^{42,43} While aberrant recruitment of DOT1L by MLL-AF10 is key for its aberrant transcriptional and transformation activity,⁴⁴ further biochemical analyses indicate that the interaction between AF9/ENL with AF4 and DOT1L is mutually exclusive, indicating that DOT1L may not have a direct interaction with other MLL fusions in spite of its requirement for survival of leukemic cells carrying various oncogenic fusions including MLL-AF6.^{45–49} On the other hand, protein arginine methyltransferase 1 (PRMT1) that mediates asymmetric dimethylation of histone 4 arginine 3 (H4R3me2a) has been identified as a critical interacting protein for MLL-EEN-mediated leukemia. Suppression of Prmt1 inhibits *Hox* expression and transformation mediated by MLL-EEN.⁵⁰ Taken together, these results indicate that recruitment of transcriptional/elongation complexes and specific epigenetic modifying enzymes are critical for the oncogenic functions of MLL fusions. These findings also lead to current efforts in developing small molecule inhibitors targeting these major components, which have begun to show the promise.^{48,51,52}

MLL-PTD in transcriptional deregulation and leukemia induction

MLL-PTD mutation is observed in approximately 8% (5–11% among studies) of AML patients with normal cytogenetics^{19–21} and in 25–54% of AML patients with trisomy 11 as the only abnormality.^{19,53} Although MLL-PTD RNA transcripts resulting from mis-splicing or exon scrambling can be detected in the bone marrow and peripheral blood of healthy individuals,^{54–56} only duplication of exons 2–6,

2–7 and 2–8 (or exons 3–9, 3–10 and 3–11 in new nomenclature) detected at both transcriptional (by reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction [RT-PCR]) and genomic (by Southern blot or DNA PCR) levels have clinical significance.¹⁹ *Alu*-repeat-mediated homologous recombination is the likely mechanism to generate this MLL mutant protein^{57–59} containing a duplicated copy of the MLL N-terminus containing AT hooks and CXXC domain with a strong transactivation activity in luciferase reporter assay.⁶⁰ Interestingly, the CXXC domain of MLL was recently found to interact with the polymerase-associated factor complex (PAFc), which enhanced both the wild-type MLL- and MLL-AF9-mediated transcriptional activation and their recruitment to the target loci.^{61,62} Knockdown of PAFc suppressed MLL-AF9-mediated immortalization, suggesting a critical function of CXXC/PAFc interaction in MLL pathogenesis. On the other hand, MLL-PTD mutation might suppress wild-type MLL expression in AML blasts.⁶³ Leukemic cell death was observed when wild-type MLL expression was restored,⁶³ suggesting that a tight balance of MLL activity is critical for normal and malignant hematopoiesis.

The knock-in model of MLL-PTD (*MLL*^{PTD/WT}) generated by Dorrance *et al.*⁶⁴ has provided unique insights for the role of MLL-PTD in acute leukemogenesis. In this model, MLL-PTD triggered aberrant *Hox* expression and altered hematopoiesis in part via epigenetic deregulation. An increase in both histone acetylation and H3K4 methylation but a decrease in H3K9 methylation were observed at the promoters of *Hoxa7* and *Hoxa9* genes in *MLL*^{PTD/WT} mice. To further study the relationship between MLL-PTD mutation and the wild-type MLL allele, Dorrance *et al.*⁶⁵ generated mice that harbor MLL-PTD in one allele but lack the other wild-type

Mll allele in the germline (*Mll*^{PTD/-}) so as to recapitulate the situation in human AML blasts. By comparing the phenotypes of *Mll*^{PTD/-} to *Mll*^{PTD/WT} fetal liver cells, *Mll*^{PTD/-} cells produced lower numbers of Burst forming unit erythroid (BFU-E) and Colony-Forming Unit-Granulocyte, Erythrocyte, Monocyte/macrophage, Megakaryocyte (CFU-GEMM) than *Mll*^{PTD/WT} cells, however the early lethal phenotype precludes the studies in adult hematopoiesis.

Further insights into the role of MLL-PTD in hematopoietic development were obtained by recent extensive analyses of different hematopoietic stem and progenitor cell populations from *Mll*^{PTD/WT} mice.⁶⁶ *Mll*^{PTD/WT} hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells exhibited a proliferative advantage in colony replating assays, CFU-spleen assays, and competitive transplantation assays over the wild-type cells. Apart from LT-HSCs, *Mll*^{PTD/WT} ST-HSCs, MPPs and even GMPs allow long-term reconstitution in bone marrow transplantation (compare with only LH-HSCs in the wild-type). These *Mll*^{PTD/WT} cells in recipient mice exhibited normal lymphoid differentiation but had reduced myeloid differentiation, suggesting a blockade in myeloid differentiation. *Mll*^{PTD/WT} hematopoietic stem and progenitor cells also appeared to have a survival advantage (increased proliferation and reduced apoptosis) under stress. Thus, *Mll*-PTD may facilitate leukemic transformation by enhancing self-renewal and blocking myeloid differentiation of hematopoietic stem and progenitors. However, none of the *Mll*-PTD mice developed frank leukemia within two years, suggesting the requirement of cooperative mutations. In line with this, *Fli3*-internal tandem duplication (ITD) is found in 25% MLL-PTD patients.⁶⁷ Consistently, a recent AML model was developed using the double knock-in model expressing both *Mll*-PTD and *Fli3*-ITD.⁶⁸ This model recapitulates various molecular features of the corresponding human diseases including normal cytogenetics, reduced wild-type *Mll* expression and a loss of wild-type *Fli3* expression.^{19-21,69-74} Taken together, these results indicate that MLL-PTD contributes to leukemogenesis by enhancing self-renewal of hematopoietic stem/progenitor cells, which requires secondary mutations for development of full-blown leukemia.

MLL amplification in leukemia

While the wild-type *MLL* has shown to be required for MLL-fusion-mediated transformation,⁷⁵ the direct evidence for its oncogenic function comes from the discovery of *MLL* amplification in approximately 1% of AML^{76,77} and some cases of myelodysplastic syndrome (MDS)^{24,78} as well as pre-B acute lymphoblastic leukemia (ALL).²² Gene amplification is one of the mechanisms for activating proto-oncogene commonly observed in solid tumors. By fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH), different forms of *MLL* amplification are observed including homogeneously staining regions (HSR; intrachromosomal amplification), double-minute chromosomes (dmin; extrachromosomal amplification) and, in rare cases, ring chromosomes.⁷⁷⁻⁷⁹ *MLL* amplification can be found in both *de novo* and therapy-related AML or MDS patients.^{77,78,80} In both cases, the presence of *MLL* amplification is associated with a

poor prognosis^{23,24} although the correlation between *MLL* copy number and clinical outcome of patients remains unclear.

While the size of 11q23 amplicon can be as big as 10 Mb, *MLL* was demonstrated to be the main target of amplification by cytogenetic^{24,76-78,81} and expression analyses in patients.⁸² Detailed molecular analyses on *MLL* and five other candidate oncogenes within the 11q23 amplicon (*DDX6*, *CBL*, *ETS1*, *PLZF* and *FLI1*) were carried out to correlate with the 11q23 copy number in patients, in which *MLL* was the strongest candidate concluded to be the target gene of 11q23 amplification.⁸² Nevertheless, co-amplification of neighboring genes was also detected⁸³⁻⁸⁵ and might cooperate with *MLL* amplification in leukemogenesis. Interestingly, over-expression of *HOXA9* and *MEIS1* is observed in both groups of patients with *MLL* amplification and *MLL* fusions,^{82,86} suggesting that *MLL* fusions and amplification may share similar downstream targets for oncogenic transformation. Consistently, the AEP complex co-localizes with the wild-type *MLL* at the *HOXA9* and *MEIS1* loci,⁴² suggesting that the amplified *MLL* protein can recruit the AEP complex for aberrant transcription elongation. Moreover, PAFc also interacts with the wild-type *MLL* through the sequences flanking the CXXC domain⁶² to promote gene expression. In addition, the SET domain of the wild-type *MLL* will confer H3K4me3 marks for transcription activation. Therefore, over-expression of the wild-type *MLL* in cells carrying *MLL* amplification can lead to aberrant expression of downstream targets.

In contrast to *Mll* fusions and *Mll*-PTD, the lack of mouse model has significantly hampered the progress in understanding the role and underlying mechanisms of *MLL* amplification in disease progression. Generation of a mouse model with multiple copies of *Mll* to mimic the condition of *MLL* amplification in patients is therefore of upmost importance. However, given the size of the full-length *MLL* (12kb), it is not possible to model the disease using the classical retroviral transduction/transformation

Table 1 Coexisting mutations in AML/MDS patients with *MLL* amplification

Coexisting mutation	Chromosomal location	Frequency	References
<i>MYC</i> amplification	8q24	1/5 (20%)	78
<i>GAB2</i> amplification	11q14	21/31 (68%)	85
<i>AML1</i> amplification	21q22	1/29 (3.5%)	88
<i>rRNA</i> amplification	13p12	2/5 (40%)	78
Del(5q)	5q31	19/21 (90%); 24/29 (83%)	88,89
Del(7q)	7q	8/29 (27.6%)	88
<i>TP53</i> mutations	17p13	7/8 (87.5%); 18/56 (32%)	81,90
<i>MLL</i> -PTD	11q23	3 patients	91,92

MYC, v-MYC avian myelocytomatosis viral oncogene homolog; *GAB2*, GRB2-associated binding protein 2; *AML1*, acute myeloid leukemia 1; *rRNA*, ribosomal RNA; *p53*, tumor protein p53

assay that has been successfully used for MLL fusion proteins.⁸⁷ It will also be difficult to target the endogenous *MLL* allele to achieve a significant level of whole locus amplification as seen in the patients. Conversely, transgenic approach may be a solution to model *MLL* amplification if an appropriate promoter is employed to drive the expression of the transgenes. In this case, the transgenes may scatter on different chromosomes and/or join together as a concatamer on a single chromosome, they will recapitulate the conditions in patients with extra-chromosomal amplification and HSR, respectively. Given the knowledge we have from MLL fusions and MLL-PTD, it is likely that *MLL* amplification is not sufficient to induce full-blown leukemia. Consistently, a number of genetic abnormalities are reported to coexist with *MLL* amplification in AML or MDS patients (Table 1), including amplification of *MYC*,⁷⁸ GRB-associated binding protein (*GAB2*),⁸⁵ *AML1/RUNX1*⁸⁸ and *rRNA*⁷⁸ gene; deletion of chromosome arm 5q^{88,89} and 7q⁸⁸ and mutations of *TP53*.^{81,90} Strikingly, MLL-PTD was also detected in few patients carrying *MLL* amplification.^{91,92} The findings of co-existence of MLL-PTD and *MLL* amplification in leukemia patients are particularly interesting as this may suggest a potential collaboration and dosage effect of the wild-type MLL protein and MLL-PTD in leukemia induction.

Internal deletion of the first PHD finger of MLL

Among all the *MLL* re-arrangements, internal deletion of the first PHD finger of MLL is the least common one. To date, only three T-ALL patients are reported to have an internal deletion in one of the two alleles of the *MLL* gene that eliminates parts of introns 7 and 8, together with exon 8.⁹³ As the PHD fingers consistently lost in MLL fusion are reported to interact with transcriptional corepressors,⁹⁴ they may have a negative regulatory role in MLL function. This hypothesis is also supported by the recent findings that inclusion of additional PHD fingers (e.g. the 3rd PHD finger) in MLL fusion suppresses the expression of the *Hoxa9* locus and its transforming ability.^{94,95} However, it is not clear if deletion of the first PHD finger may also alter the overall functions of the clustered PHD fingers resulting in aberrant transcription regulation.

Prospective

While we start to gather some basic concepts about the normal function of *MLL* and the oncogenic mechanisms mediated by their fusions, the progress in studying the role of other *MLL* alternations has significantly lagged behind. These are largely due to the lack of appropriate animal models that can closely mimic the corresponding human diseases, particularly the recurring MLL-PTD and *MLL* amplification, which likely have distinctive transformation mechanisms as compared with the *MLL* fusions. The recent development of *Mll*-PTD/*Flt3*-ITD AML model provides a useful platform to study the oncogenic function of *Mll*-PTD in this specific context. However, there is still no disease model available for *MLL* amplification, which

would have provided unique insights into the role of normal MLL protein in oncogenesis. While the underlying transformation mechanisms remain largely unknown, the co-existence of MLL-PTD with *MLL* amplification in a small number of patients suggests a potential functional crosstalk between these two *MLL* aberrations, and provides a unique and pathologically relevant starting point to dissect their roles in development of LSCs. Thus, further development of relevant novel disease models and characterization of the underlying transformation mechanisms associated with full-length or mutated forms of MLL protein are desperately needed to improve our understanding of the associated diseases and to facilitate the design of more effective therapeutics.

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